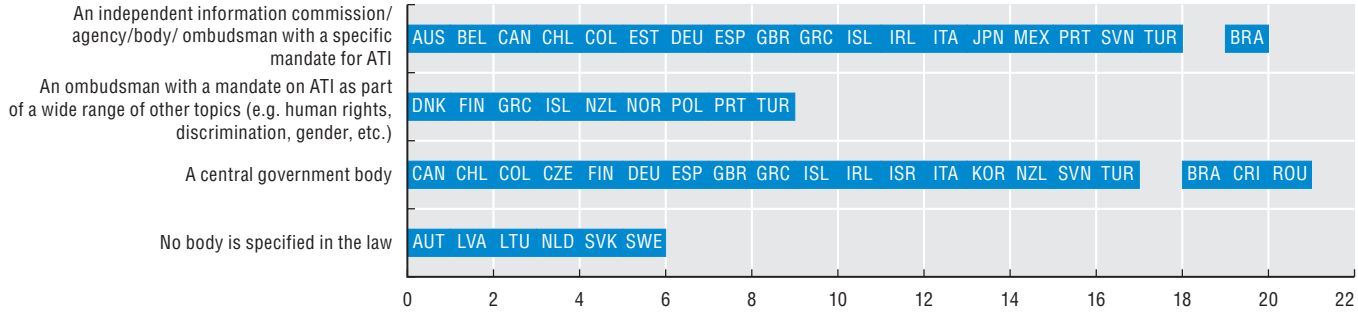
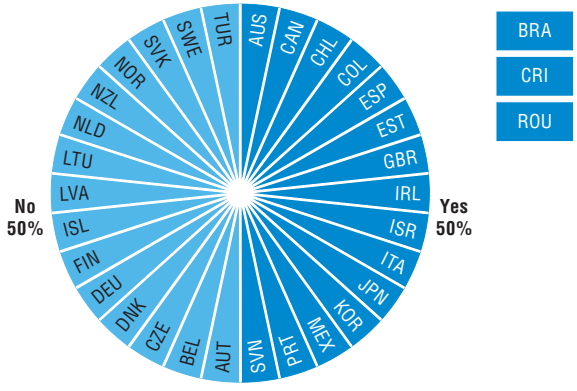
9.6. Bodies responsible for the enforcement, monitoring and/or promotion of the ATI law, 2020



Source: OECD (2021), *Survey on Open Government*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934258686

9.7. Requirement for an access to information office or officer stipulated by law, 2020



Source: OECD (2021), *Survey on Open Government*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934258705

9.8. Central/federal government initiatives to improve access to information at the sub-national level, 2020

Country	Capacity-building programmes for public officials	Information sessions for stakeholders	Local guides on accessing information	Other	No initiatives have been implemented at the sub-national level
Australia					●
Austria	●				
Belgium					●
Canada				●	
Chile	●	●	●		
Colombia	●	●	●		
Czech Republic				●	
Denmark					●
Estonia	●		●		
Finland		●	●		
Germany					●
Greece	●	●			
Iceland				●	
Ireland	●	●	●	●	
Israel		●			
Italy	●	●			
Japan					●
Korea	●	●	●		
Latvia					●
Lithuania				●	
Mexico	●		●		
Netherlands	●	●		●	
New Zealand	●		●		
Norway					●
Poland	●		●	●	
Portugal	●	●		●	
Slovak Republic					●
Spain	●		●	●	
Sweden					●
Turkey			●		
United Kingdom	●	●	●		
OECD Total	15	11	12	9	9
Brazil	●	●	●	●	
Costa Rica	●	●	●		
Romania	●	●	●		

Source: OECD (2021), *Survey on Open Government*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934258724

10. DIGITAL GOVERNMENT

Digital government: Progress towards digital competence and maturity

Digital by design: Strengthening co-ordination and skills to foster digital transformation

Data as a strategic asset for the public sector

Digital government: Progress towards digital competence and maturity

As societies and economies become increasingly digital, fostering the digital transformation of governments to meet the expectations of more demanding and empowered service users is essential. A government that is able to leverage digital tools and data is pivotal to enabling agile responses and fostering the resilience of the public sector to external shocks, such as the COVID-19 pandemic.

The Digital Government Index (DGI) assesses and benchmarks the maturity of digital government policies and their implementation under a coherent and whole-of-government approach. It thereby aims to help appraise governments' ability to operate in an increasingly digital and global world. Scores range from 0 (the lowest) to 1 (the highest). It has six dimensions based on the OECD Digital Government Policy Framework (DGPF), each with an equal weight (0.16): *digital by design, data-driven public sector, government as a platform, open by default, user-driven* and *proactiveness*.

In 2019, the average DGI score across OECD countries was 0.5, with 15 out of 29 countries surpassing this threshold. Korea (0.74), the United Kingdom (0.74) and Colombia (0.73) were the best performers in this assessment. These countries stand out for their comprehensive digital government strategies and long-standing institutional arrangements, which translate into greater maturity in the implementation of digital government reforms. In contrast, Greece (0.35), Iceland (0.28) and Sweden (0.26) scored the lowest in this edition. These countries have much room for improvement in setting a whole-of-government strategic approach and policy frameworks for the use of digital technologies (*digital by design* and *government as a platform*) and data (*data-driven public sector*) to effectively equip their governments to become *user-driven* and *proactive* (Figure 10.1).

OECD countries attained their best average score (0.11 out of 0.16) in the *open by default* dimension, which describes the extent to which data, information and processes are open unless there is a compelling reason why they should not be. Korea (0.15) and the United Kingdom (0.14) maintain the same solid performance as they do in the other five dimensions. The Czech Republic (0.13), Slovenia (0.12) and Greece (0.12) perform particularly strong compared to their performance in other dimensions. Austria, Lithuania (0.09 each), Sweden (0.06) and Iceland (0.05) have the lowest scores.

The dimensions with the lowest OECD average scores were *data-driven public sector* and *proactiveness* (0.07 each). This reflects governments' issues with valuing data as a strategic public asset and anticipating user needs, avoiding cumbersome data and service delivery processes. The *data-driven public sector* dimension measures countries' data governance structures (e.g. data strategies), infrastructure and standards to capitalise on the value of data. The United Kingdom (0.12), Denmark and Korea (0.11 each) stand out for their performance. Chile, Finland and Germany (0.04 each) have the lowest scores, indicating that they need to do more to capitalise on the value of data.

Proactiveness measures whether governments deliver data and services to the public without waiting for formal requests from users. Colombia (0.13), Latvia (0.11) – which otherwise has a below-average overall score of 0.47 – and France (0.11) score highest in this dimension, while the Czech Republic (0.03), the Netherlands (0.03), Greece (0.02) and Sweden (0.02) score lowest.

Methodology and definitions

Data for the DGI were collected through the OECD Survey on Digital Government 1.0, which was designed to monitor the implementation of the OECD Recommendation of the Council on Digital Government Strategies and assess countries' shift towards greater levels of digital maturity. In 2019, 29 OECD countries, and one OECD key partner country (Brazil) participated in the DGI. Survey respondents were senior officials in central and federal governments who were leading and/or implementing digital government reforms, and who gathered data from different parts of the public sector as relevant.

Digital government refers to the use of digital technology to create public value as an integrated part of governments' modernisation strategies. It requires a digital government ecosystem comprised of government actors, non-governmental organisations, businesses, citizens' associations and individuals, which supports the production of and access to data, services and content through interactions with the government. For the definition of e-government, see the glossary.

Further reading

OECD (2020), "Digital Government Index: 2019 results", *OECD Public Governance Policy Papers*, No. 3, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/4de9f5bb-en*.

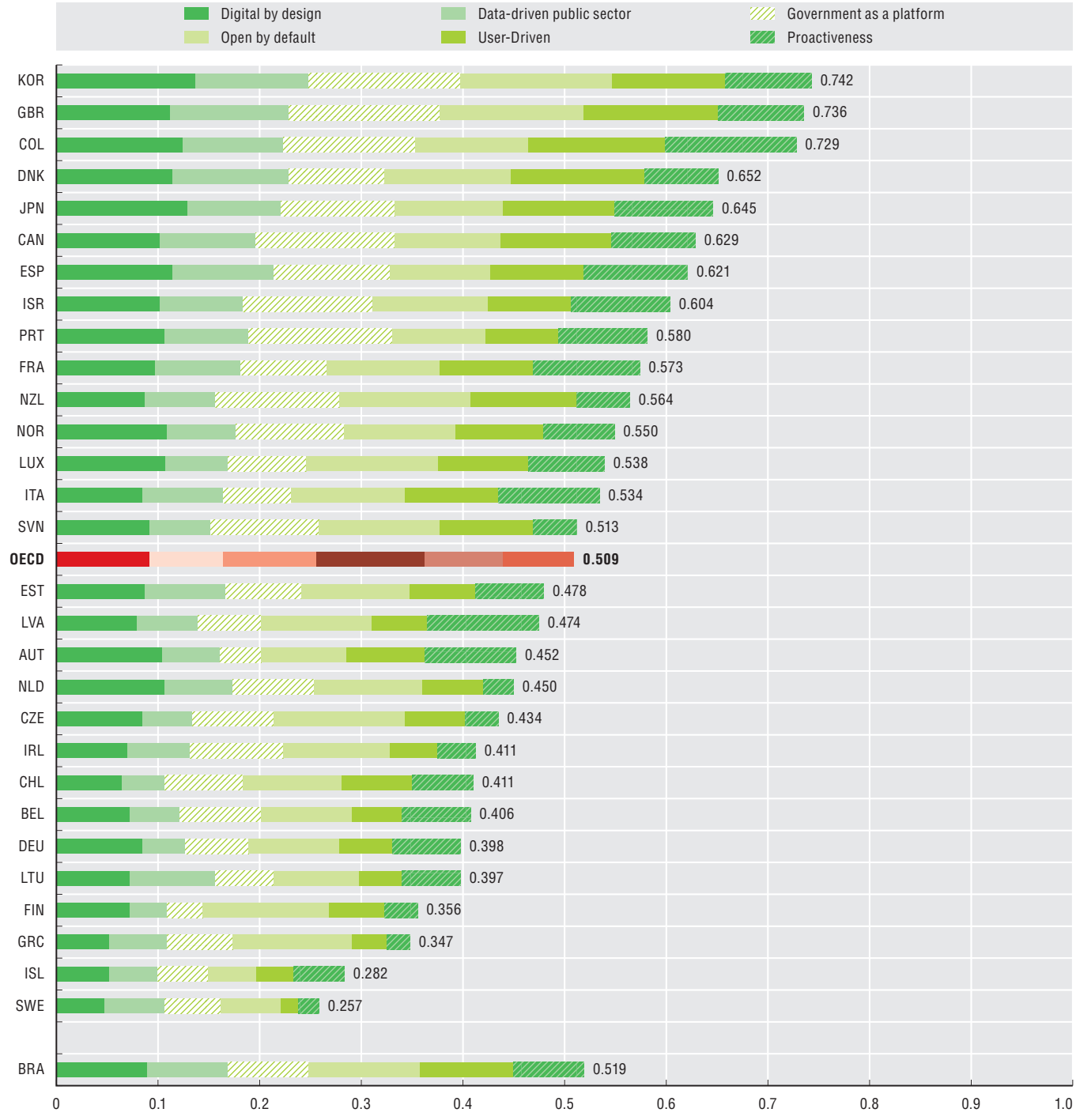
OECD (2020), "The OECD Digital Government Policy Framework: Six dimensions of a digital government", *OECD Public Governance Policy Papers*, No. 02, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/f64fed2a-en*.

Ubaldi, B. and Okubo, T. (2020), "OECD Digital Government Index (DGI): Methodology and 2019 results", *OECD Working Papers on Public Governance*, No. 41, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/b00142a4-en*.

Figure notes

Data are not available for Australia, Hungary, Mexico, Poland, the Slovak Republic, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States.

10.1. OECD Digital Government Index, 2019



Source: OECD (2019), *Survey on Digital Government 1.0*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934258743

Digital by design: Strengthening co-ordination and skills to foster digital transformation

As rapid digital transformation changes all aspects of life, citizens expect their governments to provide services and policies that deliver on the promises of the digital age. A strategic approach to the use of digital tools and data in the public sector is fundamental to ensuring digitally competent government in an increasingly global and digital society.

The Digital Government Index (DGI) assesses the maturity and implementation of governments' digital policies. The *digital by design* dimension considers how far governments exploit the full potential of digital technologies from the outset when formulating policies and designing services, regardless of the channel used. In 2019, OECD countries scored more evenly in this dimension than in the other five, with an average of 0.09 out of 0.16 (see two-pager on "Digital Government: Progress towards digital competence and maturity"). This reflects the efforts made in the previous decades to increase the digitalisation of the public sector (e-government).

Cross-government co-ordination of digital government policies is one aspect covered in *digital by design*, as it is fundamental to breaking down bureaucratic siloes that impede the coherent and integrated use of digital tools and data across the public sector. In 2019, 21 out of 29 OECD countries (69%) had formal co-ordination bodies at central or federal level for government ICT projects, such as councils of chief information officers (CIOs) or other related bodies. However, they have limited responsibilities, in most cases acting in advisory rather than decision-making roles. On average, they had five responsibilities, three advisory ones (such as developing, co-ordinating or monitoring the implementation of national digital government strategy) and two decision making ones (e.g. *ex ante* revisions and evaluation of ICT projects or prioritising/approving projects). There are wide variations between countries, with Korea and Japan assigning all ten advisory and decision-making responsibilities to their co-ordination bodies, and Lithuania allocating only one. In most countries co-ordination bodies have more advisory responsibilities than decision-making ones, although in Austria, Colombia and Israel the opposite is true (Table 10.2).

Digital talent and skills are fundamental for an effective and sustainable digital transformation of the public sector. Most OECD countries surveyed (22 out of 29, or 76%) have strategies for the development of both user skills (e.g. email management) and professional digital skills (i.e. initiatives to attract and maintain specialists in digital technologies in the public sector) among civil servants. However, only 12 (41%) have conversion processes to increase the number of ICT professionals, and 11 (38%) have partnerships with higher education on internships for ICT careers. In addition, only 18 (62%) focus on digital complementary skills (i.e. increasing awareness of the opportunities, benefits and challenges of the digital transformation of the public sector) (Figure 10.3).

The DGI found few training initiatives for public professionals in areas such as data analytics in policy making and service delivery (8 countries or 28%), artificial intelligence (9 countries), and usability and accessibility (6 countries each). Examples of such a comprehensive training approach for the public workforce are the GDS Academy in the United Kingdom and the School of Public Service in Canada (Online Figure G.37).

Methodology and definitions

Data for the DGI were collected through the OECD Survey on Digital Government 1.0, which was designed to monitor the implementation of the OECD Recommendation of the Council on Digital Government Strategies and assess countries' shift towards greater levels of digital maturity. In 2019, 29 OECD countries, and one OECD key partner country (Brazil) participated in the DGI. Survey respondents were senior officials in central and federal governments, who were leading and/or implementing digital government reforms, and who gathered data from different parts of the public sector as relevant.

Digital by design is the principle by which digital technologies and data are leveraged to rethink and re-engineer public processes, simplify procedures and create new channels of communication and engagement with public stakeholders.

Further reading

OECD (2020), "Digital Government Index: 2019 results", *OECD Public Governance Policy Papers*, No. 3, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/4de9f5bb-en*.

OECD (2020), "The OECD Digital Government Policy Framework: Six dimensions of a digital government", *OECD Public Governance Policy Papers*, No. 02, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/f64fed2a-en*.

OECD (2021), "The OECD Framework for Digital Talent and Skills in the public sector" *OECD Working Papers on Public Governance*, *https://doi.org/10.1787/4e7c3f58-en*.

Figure notes

Data are not available for Australia, Hungary, Mexico, Poland, the Slovak Republic, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States.

10.2. Countries with no co-ordination body show as having assigned no (zero) responsibilities to such bodies. The OECD average does not include countries with no co-ordination body.

Figure G.37 (Training initiatives available for civil servants, 2019) is available online in Annex G.

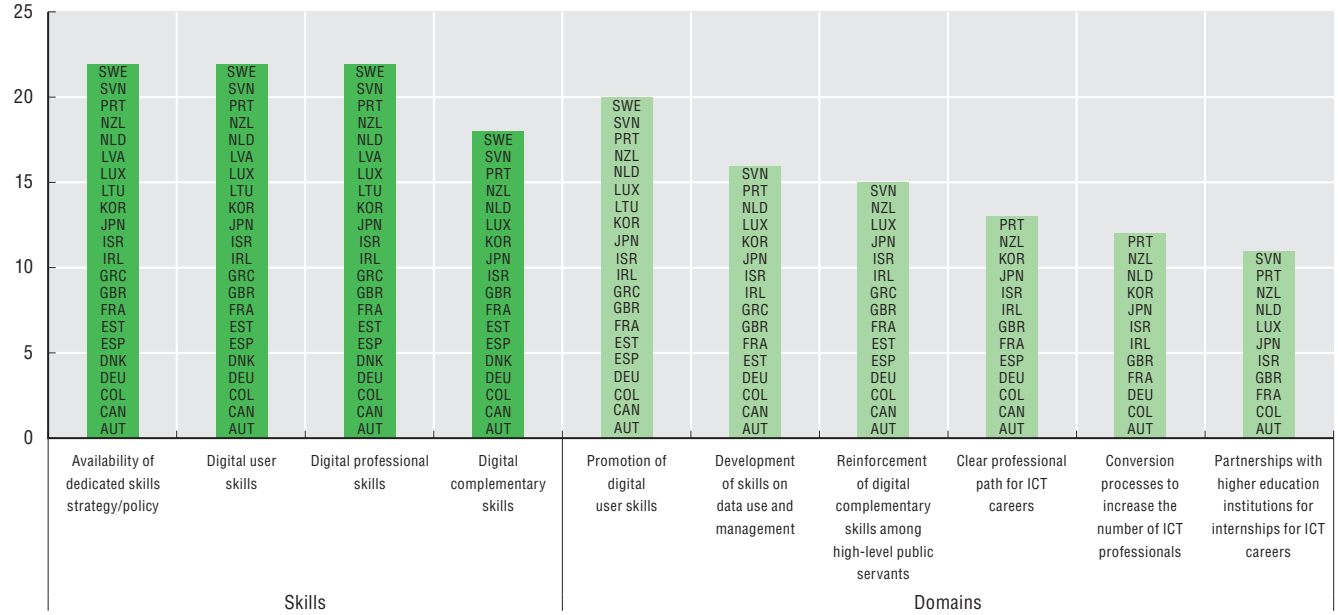
10.2. Advisory and decision-making responsibilities of digital government co-ordination bodies, 2019

	Advisory responsibilities					Decision-making responsibilities					
	Advising the development of the central/ federal digital government strategy	Monitoring the implementation of the central/ federal digital government strategy	Advising the development and implementation of institutional digital strategies	Developing technical guidelines for the development of ICT architecture across the central/federal government in a standardised fashion	Co-ordinating with local governments for the development of ICT projects aligned to the objectives of the central/federal digital government strategy	Prioritisation of ICT projects across the government	Ex ante revisions and evaluation of ICT projects across the central/federal government	Approval of ICT projects across the government as needed	Mandating external reviews (e.g. performance assessments) of ICT projects across the government	Provision of financial support for the development and implementation of ICT projects	No co-ordination body
Austria	●	●	●	●	○	●	●	●	●	●	○
Belgium	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	●
Canada	●	●	●	●	○	●	●	●	○	○	○
Chile	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Colombia	○	○	○	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	○
Czech Republic	●	●	●	○	●	●	○	●	●	●	○
Denmark	○	○	●	○	○	○	●	○	○	○	○
Estonia	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	●
Finland	●	●	○	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
France	●	○	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	●	○
Germany	●	●	○	●	●	●	○	○	○	○	○
Greece	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	●
Iceland	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	●
Ireland	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	●
Israel	●	●	●	●	○	●	●	●	●	●	○
Italy	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	●
Japan	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○
Korea	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○
Latvia	●	●	●	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○
Lithuania	○	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Luxembourg	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	●
Netherlands	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	●
New Zealand	○	○	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Norway	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	●
Portugal	●	●	●	●	○	●	●	○	●	○	○
Slovenia	●	●	●	●	○	○	●	●	○	○	○
Spain	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○	○	○
Sweden	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	●
United Kingdom	●	●	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
OECD Total											
● Yes	14	14	14	13	7	10	10	9	7	7	10
○ No	15	15	15	16	22	19	19	20	22	22	19
Brazil	●	●	○	●	●	●	●	○	●	●	○

Source: OECD (2019), *Survey on Digital Government 1.0.*

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934258762

10.3. Domains and skills covered by specific strategy/policy for the public sector workforce, 2019



Source: OECD (2019), *Survey on Digital Government 1.0.*

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934258781

Data as a strategic asset for the public sector

Data are essential to improving performance management, policymaking and service design and delivery. To realise this promise, governments have to value data as a strategic asset, establish sound policy frameworks and undertake reforms to secure the availability of high-quality data, as well as allowing trusted access, sharing and use to help break down policy and service siloes.

The Digital Government Index (DGI) assesses and benchmarks the maturity of digital government policies and their implementation under a coherent and whole-of-government approach. The *data-driven public sector* dimension measures the extent to which governments have adopted and implemented a data governance approach to secure the effective management of data across public sector organisations. This is the second lowest scoring of the six DGI dimensions, with an average of 0.07 out of 0.16 (see two-pager on "Digital government: Progress towards digital competence and maturity"), which shows governments' limited progress in creating the conditions for a data-intensive transformation of the public sector.

Many countries still lack a strategic and coherent whole-of-government approach to the development of a data-driven public sector. Most lack dedicated public sector data policies or strategies, and committed leadership. In 2019, only Canada, Denmark, Greece and the United Kingdom had a single dedicated public sector data policy. In contrast, 23 out of 29 (80%) OECD countries taking part in the DGI reported their approach to public sector data was divided across one or more related policies, such as digital government or open government data (OGD) (Figure 10.4). Central/federal and institutional leadership are two fundamental aspects of sound data governance in the public sector but only limited use is made of dedicated roles to lead the development of a data-driven public sector: only 16 out of 29 OECD countries (55%) have co-ordinating bodies, and another 10 (34%) have a dedicated leadership role (e.g. Chief Information Officer) for this purpose. Only seven countries (Denmark, France, Israel, Japan, Korea, the Netherlands and New Zealand) have both (Figure 10.5).

The DGI results show a significant gap between the availability of standards and the implementation of initiatives to strategically manage data in the public sector. Initiatives to share data allow for a more integrated and efficient public sector and 28 out of 29 OECD countries (97%) have such policy initiatives. There are however differences between countries, as 6 (21%) do it on *ad hoc* basis while 22 (76%) do it as part of a formal government programme. Nevertheless, only 8 OECD countries (28%) have a single exhaustive data inventory at the central/federal level, and another 10 (34%) have a non-exhaustive inventory (at least 60% of data) (Figure 10.6).

Alignment and adherence to shared ethical values and principles for the management of data are essential to providing timely and trustworthy data. Ten of the 29 OECD countries taking part in the 2019 DGI (34%) reported having both formal requirements to adhere to ethical guidelines and initiatives to apply ethical principles to data-related initiatives, and another 9 (31%) have only established formal requirements. This suggests that countries should continue to work towards adopting mechanisms to secure agility, integrity and ethical management of data, such as the forthcoming OECD Good Practice Principles for Data Ethics in the Public Sector and the OECD's work towards a recommendation on enhanced access and sharing of data.

Methodology and definitions

Data for the DGI were collected through the OECD Survey on Digital Government 1.0, which was designed to monitor the implementation of the OECD Recommendation of the Council on Digital Government Strategies and assess countries' shift towards higher levels of digital maturity. In 2019, 29 OECD countries, and one OECD key partner country (Brazil) participated in the DGI. Survey respondents were senior officials in central and federal governments, leading and/or implementing digital government reforms, who have gathered data from different parts of the public sector as relevant.

Data-driven public sector refers to the principle under which government values data as a strategic asset and establishes the governance to secure availability, access, sharing and re-use mechanisms for improved decision making and services in the public sector.

Further reading

OECD (2020), "Digital Government Index: 2019 results", *OECD Public Governance Policy Papers*, No. 3, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/4de9f5bb-en*.

OECD (2019), *The Path to Becoming a Data-Driven Public Sector*, OECD Digital Government Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/059814a7-en*.

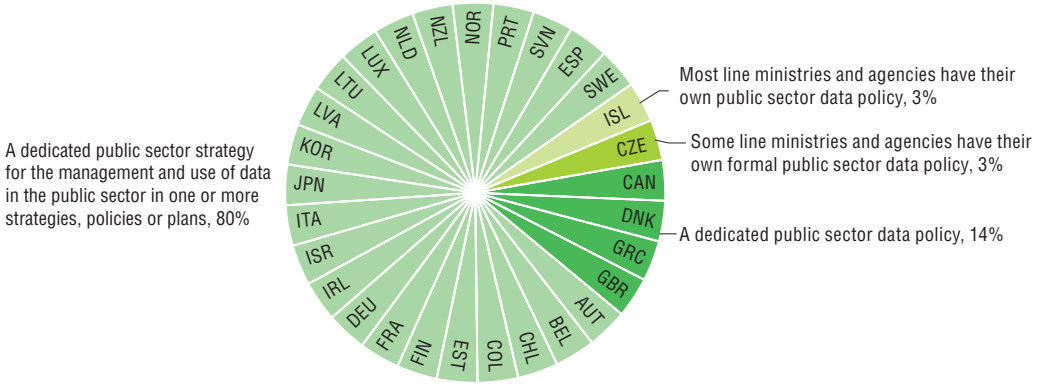
OECD (2021), "Good Practice Principles for Data Ethics in the Public Sector", *https://oe.cd/dataethics*.

Figure notes

Data are not available for Australia, Hungary, Mexico, Poland, the Slovak Republic, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States.

10.5. The outer ring shows the existence or not of a leading organisation responsible for public sector data policy/strategy, and the inner ring the existence of a dedicated role/position within the public sector to lead its implementation.

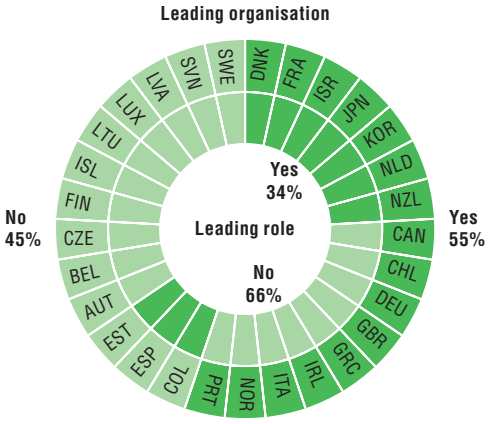
10.4. Availability of a public sector data policy at the central/federal government level, 2019



Source: OECD (2019), *Survey on Digital Government 1.0.*

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934258800

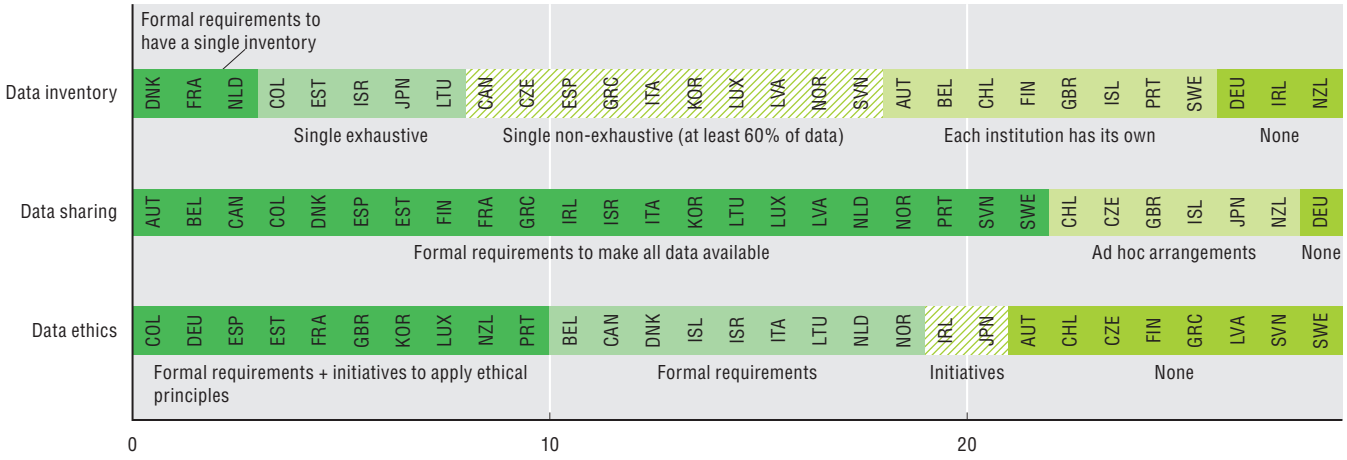
10.5. Implementing public sector data policies: Leading public sector organisation and dedicated leading role at the central/federal government, 2019



Source: OECD (2019), *Survey on Digital Government 1.0.*

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934258819

10.6. Formal requirements and initiatives for data inventories, sharing and ethics, 2019



Source: OECD (2019), *Survey on Digital Government 1.0.*

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934258838

11. GOVERNANCE OF INFRASTRUCTURE

Long-term strategic vision for sustainable infrastructure

Assessment of value for money and affordability

Life cycle perspective in infrastructure procurement

Governance of critical infrastructure resilience

Long-term strategic vision for sustainable infrastructure

Developing a long-term strategic vision for infrastructure helps governments identify and address infrastructure service needs in a timely and coherent manner. As the OECD Recommendation on the Governance of Infrastructure highlights, long-term strategic visions should be aligned with long-term policy objectives, including commitments on environmental protection, climate change mitigation, human rights, social inclusion, gender equality and regional development.

Most OECD countries have become aware of the need for coherence between long-term infrastructure plans and broader sustainable development objectives, in light of commitments made under the Sustainable Development Goals of Agenda 2030. Most surveyed OECD countries (22 out of 30, or 73%) have aligned their long-term infrastructure plan with environmental and climate action policies (Table 11.1). In 20 of these, the aim is to invest in key projects enabling the implementation of broader sustainability initiatives (67%), followed by adapting existing infrastructure to improve environmental performance, and identifying cross-sector synergies to reduce negative environmental impacts (17 each, or 57%). Fewer have adopted resource efficiency targets in the construction and operation of infrastructure (12 countries, or 40%) or research and development to promote environmentally friendly infrastructure (10 countries, or 33%) (Figure 11.2).

Other less commonly integrated policy objectives include land use and spatial planning instruments and regional development plans (15 countries each, or 50%), inclusion and gender mainstreaming (8 out of 30, or 27%), and human rights (5, or 17%) (Table 11.1). This limits governments' capacity to monitor how infrastructure affects specific population groups.

Infrastructure investment and delivery will play a prominent role in the recovery from the COVID-19 crisis. With good governance, infrastructure investments could contribute to a sustainable rebound, building infrastructure capacity in the short term and strengthening resilience and achieving multiple objectives in the long term. Although the latest data were collected in January 2021, with the pandemic still unfolding, 21 OECD countries (70% of the 30 surveyed) had already adopted an economic stimulus or recovery package. Of these, over three-quarters see infrastructure playing a key role in the recovery (Table 11.1). For instance, in Chile, Costa Rica, Hungary, Ireland, New Zealand and Slovenia, 30% or more of the economic stimulus package has been allocated to investments in infrastructure.

Methodology and definitions

Data are drawn from the 2020 OECD Survey of Infrastructure Governance and the 2018 OECD Survey of Capital Budgeting and Infrastructure Governance. The two surveys are not identical but used similar questions for the time trends. The 2020 survey was conducted in January 2021, with responses from 30 OECD countries and Costa Rica. The 2018 survey was conducted in early 2018, with responses from 26 OECD countries. Respondents were predominantly senior officials in central/federal ministries of infrastructure, public works and finance, as well as in infrastructure agencies and other line ministries.

Infrastructure governance relates to the interactions between government institutions internally, and with private sector users and citizens. It encompasses a range of processes, tools and norms of interaction, decision making and monitoring used by governments and their counterparts providing infrastructure services.

A long-term national infrastructure plan refers to a politically sanctioned document that sets out concrete action in terms of infrastructure services to society over the long term. This might go beyond a normal political mandate period. Designing the vision requires a process to distil complex and multi-faceted infrastructure issues, cutting across multiple actors, sectors and interests, into a coherent set of decisions with long-term impact, including projects and processes. The process should be anchored in central agencies (chief executive, ministry of finance or similar) and have substantial input from policy departments, sub-national governments, civil society and business stakeholders.

Further reading

OECD (2020), "Public procurement and infrastructure governance: Initial policy responses to the coronavirus (Covid-19) crisis", *OECD Policy Responses to Coronavirus (COVID-19)*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/c0ab0a96-en*.

OECD (2017), *Getting Infrastructure Right: A Framework for Better Governance*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264272453-en*.

Figure notes

Data for 2020 refer to the infrastructure plans currently in force. Austria, Costa Rica, Mexico, New Zealand and Portugal reported ongoing efforts to update or replace their current plan. The 2020 data for Chile, Colombia, Germany, Latvia, Portugal and Spain refer to the transport sector and those of Turkey refer to the transport and health sectors. 2020 data for Belgium are based on responses from Flanders only. The Czech Republic's 2018 data are based on sectoral plans while the 2020 data are based on an overall plan. 2020 data for Australia, Denmark, France, Israel, the Netherlands, Poland and Sweden are not available.

11.1. 2018 data for Belgium, Canada, Colombia, Costa Rica, Finland, Iceland, Korea, Latvia, Lithuania and the United States are not available. As of April 2021, the EU COVID-19 stimulus packages are still being approved.

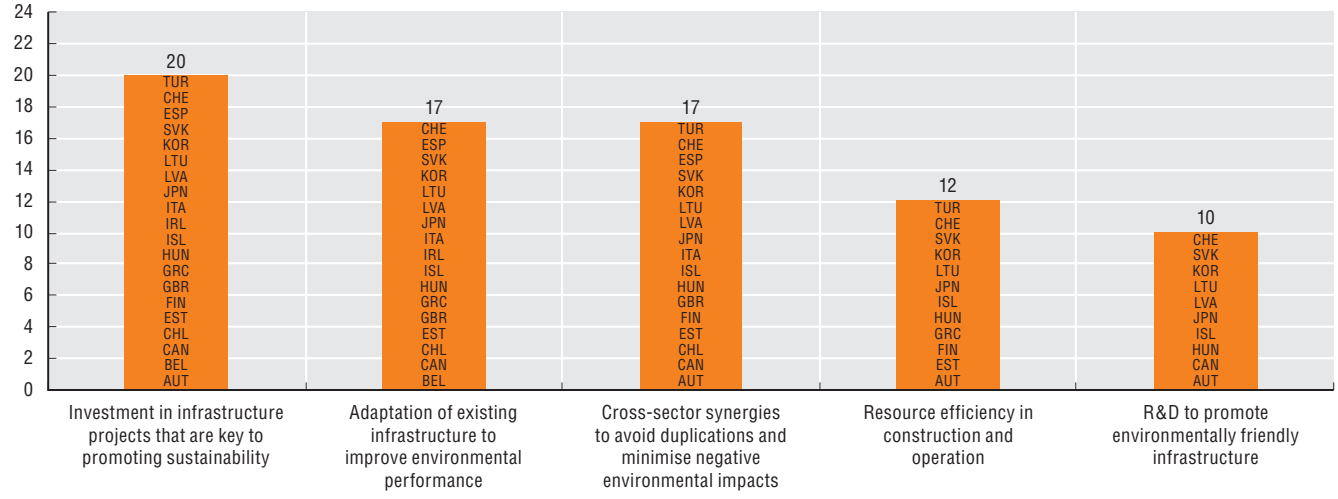
11.1. Development of a long-term strategic vision for sustainable infrastructure, 2018 and 2020

Country	The long-term infrastructure plan explicitly considers how to align the infrastructure strategic vision with other policies		Approval of economic stimulus or recovery packages (2021)	Inclusion of infrastructure investment commitments in economic stimulus or recovery packages (2021)
	2018 (overall or sectoral)	2020 (overall or sectoral)		
Australia	..	..	..	..
Austria	△▲	●△▲■	✓	✓
Belgium (Flanders)	..	△▲◇	✓	✓
Canada	..	●▲■	✓	✓
Chile	▲	▲	✓	✓
Colombia	..	●	✓	✓
Czech Republic	△▲	×	×	..
Denmark	▲	..	..	..
Estonia	▲	●△▲◇	✓	✓
Finland	..	●▲◇	✓	×
France	●△▲	..	..	..
Germany	▲+	..	✓	✓
Greece	●△▲	△▲◇	×	..
Hungary	●△	●△▲□◇	×	..
Iceland	..	●▲■	✓	✓
Ireland	●△▲	●△▲◇	✓	✓
Israel	●△▲	..	..	..
Italy	..	●▲◇	×	..
Japan	..	△▲◇	✓	✓
Latvia	..	●△▲■◇	✓	✓
Lithuania	..	●△▲□■	×	..
Luxembourg	●△	●▲	✓	✓
Mexico	●△▲	●□■	✓	×
Netherlands	●△▲	..	..	..
New Zealand	×	×	✓	✓
Norway	▲	△▲◇	✓	×
Portugal	..	×	×	..
Republic of Korea	..	●△▲◇	×	..
Slovakia	..	●△▲□■◇	×	..
Slovenia	△	..	×	..
Spain	..	▲+	✓	✓
Sweden	▲	..	..	..
Switzerland	△	●△▲□◇	✓	×
Turkey	●	●△▲◇	✓	✓
United Kingdom	●△▲	●△▲■◇	✓	✓
United States	..	..	✓	✓
OECD Total				
✓ Yes			21	17
× No			9	4
▲ Environmental or climate action plans	15	22		
● National document setting strategic priorities	10	18		
△ Land use and spatial planning instruments	13	15		
◇ Regional development plans		15		
■ Inclusion and gender mainstreaming		8		
□ Human rights commitments		5		
+ Other	1	1		
× None	1	3		
.. Not available/Not applicable	15	9	6	15
Non-OECD countries				
Costa Rica	..	●△▲□■◇	×	..

Source: OECD (2018), *Survey of Capital Budgeting and Infrastructure Governance*; OECD (2020), *Survey on the Governance of Infrastructure*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934258857

11.2. Goals and targets in long-term plans among countries that reported alignment of their long-term infrastructure plan with environmental or climate action plans, 2020



Source: OECD (2020), *Survey on the Governance of Infrastructure*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934258876

Assessment of value for money and affordability

The OECD Recommendation on the Governance of Infrastructure highlights several good practices, including ensuring decision making is informed by the need for value for money, ensuring the affordability of new infrastructures, disclosing total costs over the entire asset life cycle, and providing a transparent, independent and impartial expert assessment to test project costing, fiscal sustainability, time planning, risk management and governance.

In terms of value for money, each government judges what the optimal combination of quantity, quality, features and price should be over an infrastructure project's lifetime (OECD, 2019). OECD countries have made significant progress in assessing value for money in recent years. In 2020, 21 of 30 OECD countries surveyed (70%) reported conducting assessments to ensure value for money from infrastructure projects delivered via public-private partnerships (PPPs) and 18 of 30 (or 60%) for other types of infrastructure projects, compared to only 14 out of 26 of OECD countries (54%) for PPPs and for others each in 2018 (Table 11.3).

In 2020, 23 out of 30 OECD countries (77%) reported that their ministries of finance played a gatekeeping role – meaning that if approval from the ministry is not obtained, the project cannot proceed – compared to 17 out of 26 (65%) in 2018 (Table 11.3). The criteria used by finance ministries for the approval of infrastructure projects generally focus on projects' affordability for both the national budget and users, as well as their value for money.

When ensuring value for money and quality assurance of large infrastructure projects, it is key for the decision-making process to be impartial and avoid political capture. Independent experts can monitor the selection and prioritisation of projects, ensuring a clear and transparent decision-making process that is done in line with a straightforward set of criteria. Currently, only 20 out of 30 (67%) of OECD countries reported conducting regular independent and impartial expert assessments (Table 11.3).

Around 90% of OECD countries estimate construction (28 out of 30) and operation costs (27 out of 30) when assessing the affordability of new infrastructure projects. However, the assessment of maintenance (25 countries, or 83%), adaptation (17, or 57%) and decommissioning (13, or 43%) costs are less frequently included (Figure 11.4). Especially in a COVID-19 context, more efforts are needed to adopt mechanisms that effectively consider the affordability of new projects at all stages of the asset's life cycle.

Methodology and definitions

Data are drawn from the 2020 OECD Survey of Infrastructure Governance and the 2018 OECD Survey of Capital Budgeting and Infrastructure Governance.

The two surveys are not identical but used similar questions for the time trends. The 2020 survey was conducted in January 2021, with responses from 30 OECD countries and Costa Rica. The 2018 survey was conducted in early 2018, with responses from 26 OECD countries. Respondents were predominantly senior officials in the central/federal ministries of infrastructure, public works and finance, as well as in infrastructure agencies and other line ministries.

Value for money is what a government judges to be an optimal combination of quantity, quality, features and price (i.e. cost), calculated over the whole of a project's lifetime.

Affordability should take into account the entire life cycle costs of infrastructure projects. From a government's perspective affordability means that projects can be accommodated within the government's current and future budget constraints; from the end-users' perspective it refers to their ability and willingness to pay the tariffs or other user charges associated with the access and use of the infrastructure asset.

Further reading

OECD (2020), Recommendation of the Council on the Governance of Infrastructure, OECD, *https://legalinstruments.oecd.org/en/instruments/OECD-LEGAL-0460*.

OECD (2019), *Budgeting and Public Expenditures in OECD Countries 2019*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264307957-en*.

OECD (2017), *Getting Infrastructure Right: A Framework for Better Governance*, OCED Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264272453-en*.

Figure notes

Data for 2020 for Australia, Denmark, France, Israel, the Netherlands, Poland and Sweden are not available. 2020 data for Belgium are based on responses from Flanders only. Austria and Switzerland have no PPP infrastructure projects.

Table 11.3. Data for 2018 for Belgium, Canada, Colombia, Costa Rica, Finland, Iceland, Latvia, Lithuania, Republic of Korea and the United States are not available. Data for 2018 on the gatekeeping role of the ministry of finance refer only to other infrastructure projects. In Austria and the United States, the ministry of finance only has a gatekeeping role in the approval of infrastructure projects in certain sectors. In Lithuania, the ministry of finance has also a gatekeeping role in the approval of PPPs. In Lithuania, only PPPs are subject to an independent and impartial expert assessment.

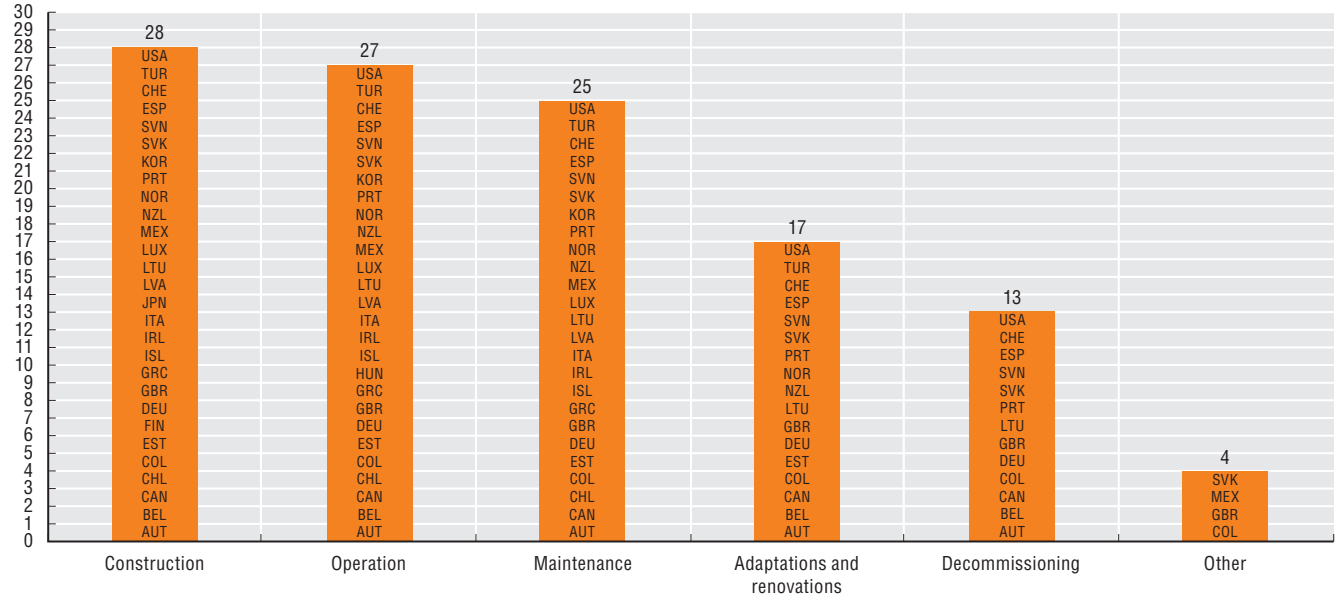
11.3. Assessment of value for money and affordability, 2018 and 2020

Country	Gatekeeping role of the ministry of finance		Existence of a formal process to evaluate value for money				Independent and impartial expert assessment
			PPPs		Other infrastructure projects		
	2018	2020	2018	2020	2018	2020	
Australia	○	..	✓	..	✓	..	..
Austria	○	○	×	×	+	△	○▲
Belgium (Flanders)	..	○	..	○	..	○	×
Canada	..	×	..	○	..	×	✓
Chile	✓	✓	+	+	+	×	▲
Colombia	..	✓	..	✓	..	✓	✓
Czech Republic	✓	○	○	✓	×	✓	..
Denmark	○	..	+	..	×	..	..
Estonia	✓	×	..	×	..	×	▲
Finland	..	○	..	×	..	×	○
France	×	..	✓	..	+	..	..
Germany	+	○	✓	○	✓	○	×
Greece	×	×	■	✓	✓	△	■
Hungary	✓	×	×	×	✓	×	✓
Iceland	..	✓	..	✓	..	✓	✓
Ireland	×	○	✓	✓	✓	✓	○
Israel	✓	..	○	..	○	..	..
Italy	■	✓	✓	+	✓	+	×
Japan	✓	○	✓	△	✓	○	✓
Latvia	..	✓	..	✓	..	×	▲
Lithuania	..	○	..	+	..	○	▲
Luxembourg	○	✓	×	✓	×	○	○
Mexico	✓	✓	✓	✓	..	×	○
Netherlands	○	..	✓	..	✓	..	..
New Zealand	×	●	✓	✓	○	+	×
Norway	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Portugal	..	○	+	○	○	○	▲
Republic of Korea	..	○	..	✓	..	+	○
Slovakia	○	○	+	○	+	○	✓
Slovenia	+	×	○	○	○	○	■
Spain	○	✓	■	✓	■	✓	×
Sweden	○	..	×	..	×	..	..
Switzerland	×	×	×	+	×	+	▲
Turkey	+	+	■	✓	■	○	×
United Kingdom	✓	○	✓	✓	✓	✓	○
United States	..	○	..	+	..	+	×
OECD Total							
✓ All projects	8	8	10	13	9	6	6
○ Projects above a certain threshold	9	14	4	7	5	10	8
△ Projects of specific sectors		0		1		2	
● Only for PPPs		1					
▲ Projects of specific relevance							7
■ Ad hoc basis	1		3		2		2
+ Other	3	1	4	5	4	5	
× None	5	6	5	4	5	7	7
.. Not available/Not applicable	10	6	10	6	11	6	7
Non-OECD countries							
Costa Rica	..	✓	..	×	..	×	▲

Source: OECD (2018), *Survey of Capital Budgeting and Infrastructure Governance*; OECD (2020), *Survey on the Governance of Infrastructure*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934258895

11.4. Costs generally estimated to assess affordability of new infrastructure projects, 2020



Source: OECD (2020), *Survey on the Governance of Infrastructure*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934258914

Life cycle perspective in infrastructure procurement

The complexity, scale, timespan and risks involved in infrastructure projects call for specialised delivery and procurement strategies that enable decision makers to deliver projects in a way that maximises the value generated for society throughout the entire assets' life cycle. The OECD Recommendation on the Governance of infrastructure highlights 1) selecting contractors based on criteria combining qualitative and financial elements and including an assessment of costs, benefits and impacts incurred throughout the life cycle of the asset; 2) carefully evaluating optimal risk allocation and the use of value for money analytical tools to compare assessments of service delivery options; and 3) implementing balanced contractual relationships, holding contractors accountable for project specifications and professional standards.

Delivering sustainable infrastructure involves retuning procurement processes to take into account multiple policy dimensions. Procurement processes that exclusively focus on costs, or fail to consider the whole of the project's lifetime, may not support the delivery of an optimal combination of quality, technical features (e.g. resilience, environmental sustainability) and price. A vast majority of OECD countries surveyed (28 out of 30, or 93%) employ a combination of financial and qualitative criteria to select proposals. However, there is room for improvement in the use of life cycle costs for awarding contracts, including through different budgetary cycles, as only 12 out of 30 OECD countries (40%) use this mechanism, directly, reducing their ability to reduce inefficiencies and costs over the long term (Figure 11.5).

Infrastructure assets have long life and are particularly prone to risks such as inefficiency, lack of quality, cost overruns, economic and financial uncertainty, and integrity breaches. These risks can threaten projects' value for money and capacity to deliver the intended services. When procuring major infrastructure projects, the majority of OECD countries already identify, allocate and mitigate risks at each stage of the investment life cycle. According to the OECD Survey of Infrastructure Governance, 18 out of 29 OECD countries (62%) conduct risk management activities covering the entire infrastructure procurement life cycle, which is aligned with previous findings from the implementation report (2019) (Figure 11.6).

Contracting authorities play a key role in overseeing compliance with technical specifications and can develop a system of effective and enforceable sanctions if contractors are in breach. OECD countries have in place a wide range of mechanisms aiming to hold contractors accountable for project specifications and professional standards. Most OECD countries (24 out of 30, or 80%) employ tools to enforce contractual clauses, closely followed by dedicated on-site supervision (21 countries, or 70%). While just over half (16 out of 30, or 53%) already conduct periodical assessments of contractors' performance against key performance indicators, this practice could become more widely adopted (Figure 11.7).

Methodology and definitions

Data are drawn from the 2020 OECD Survey of Infrastructure Governance. The survey was conducted in January 2021, with responses from 30 OECD countries and Costa Rica. Respondents were predominantly senior officials in central/federal ministries of infrastructure, public works and finance, as well as in infrastructure agencies and other line ministries.

The life cycle of public assets means all the stages during the lifetime of a public infrastructure asset, starting from planning, prioritisation and funding, to design, procurement, construction, operation, maintenance and decommissioning.

Value for money is what a government judges to be an optimal combination of quality, features and price, calculated over the whole of the project's lifetime.

Further reading

OECD (2020a), Recommendation of the Council on the Governance of Infrastructure, OECD, *https://legalinstruments.oecd.org/en/instruments/OECD-LEGAL-0460*.

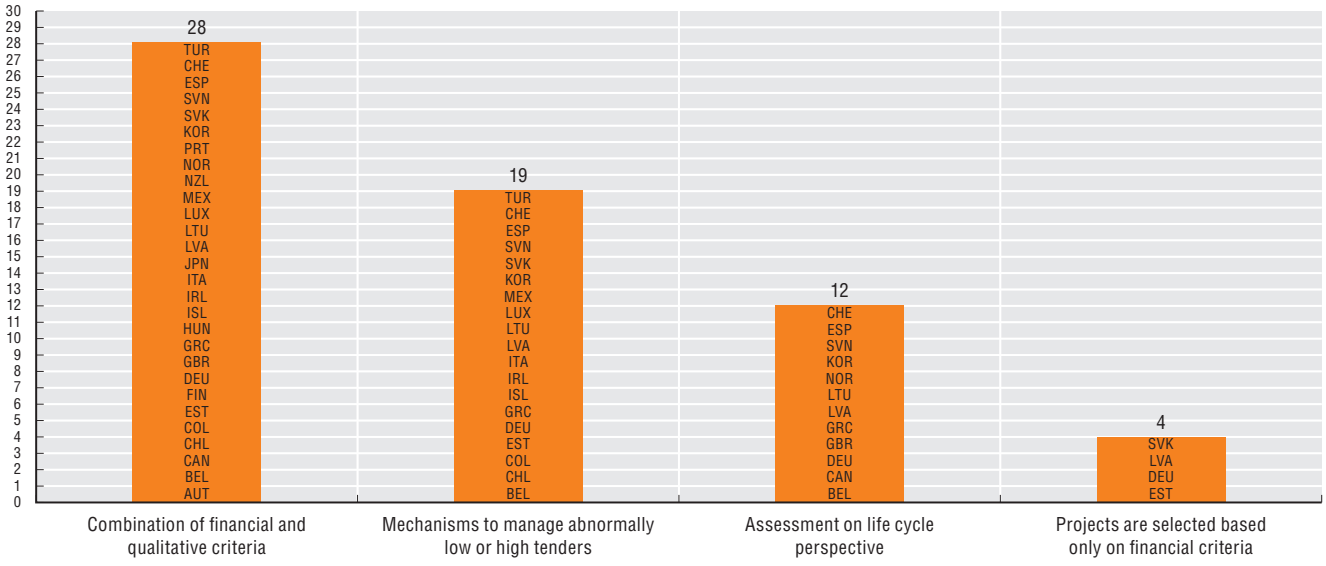
OECD (2020b), "Public procurement and infrastructure governance: Initial policy responses to the coronavirus (Covid-19) crisis", *OECD Policy Responses to Coronavirus (COVID-19)*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/c0ab0a96-en*.

OECD (2019), *Reforming Public Procurement: Progress in Implementing the 2015 OECD Recommendation*, OECD Public Governance Reviews, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/1de41738-en*.

Figure notes

Data for 2020 for Australia, the Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Israel, the Netherlands, Poland and Sweden are not available. 2020 data for Belgium are based on responses from Flanders only. The United States does not generally rely on public procurement for infrastructure projects at the federal level.

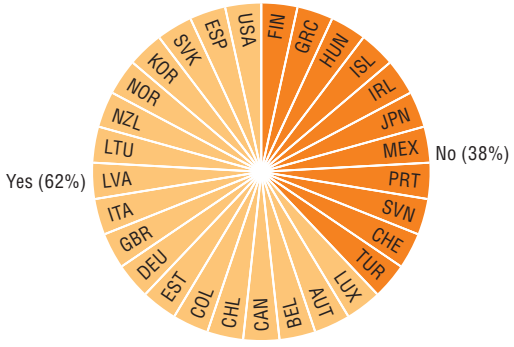
11.5. Mechanisms to help identify proposals offering the best value for money, 2020



Source: OECD (2020), *Survey on the Governance of Infrastructure*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934258933

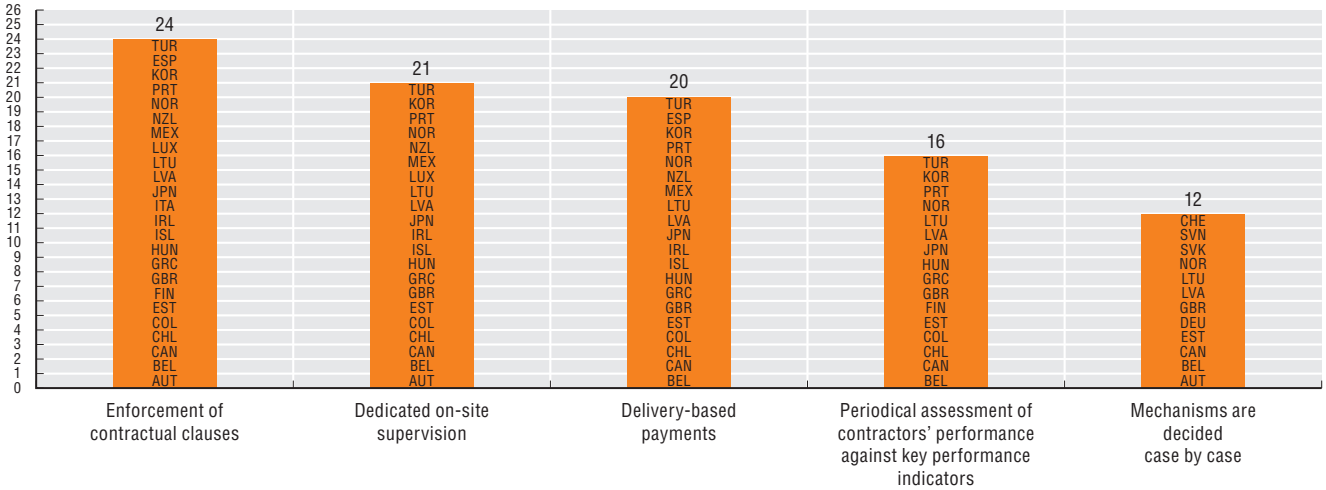
11.6. Adoption of risk management activities that cover the entire infrastructure procurement life cycle, 2020



Source: OECD (2020), *Survey on the Governance of Infrastructure*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934258952

11.7. Mechanisms employed to hold contractors accountable for project specifications and professional standards, 2020



Source: OECD (2020), *Survey on the Governance of Infrastructure*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934258971

Governance of critical infrastructure resilience

Natural hazards and malicious attacks against critical infrastructure systems pose grave risks to societies and economies. Recent shock events – such as the COVID-19 pandemic, Ukraine power grid cyberattack or volcanic ash cloud over Europe – illustrate how disruptions to critical infrastructure can result in cascade effects that cause substantial economic damage as well as loss of life. As the interconnectedness of supply chains and technological systems in the global economy increases, so does the vulnerability of critical infrastructure systems (e.g. those that produce and deliver electricity, gas, water and telecommunications) to shock events (OECD, 2019).

A multitude of diverse stakeholders are involved in the investment, ownership, operation and regulation of infrastructure. National strategies for critical infrastructure protection or resilience are a useful tool for governments to improve co-ordination, situation awareness and preparedness for risks across different sectors. In 2019, out of 27 OECD countries for which information is available, 24 had established such a strategy (89%). In addition, 25 out of the 27 (93%) had designated a lead institution to co-ordinate its implementation. Whether or not they had a strategy, 27 out of 30 OECD countries (90%) had established a definition of critical infrastructure in 2019, and all 32 OECD countries with available data had identified critical infrastructure sectors. Moreover, 19 out of 24 countries (79%) reported they had established national inventories of critical infrastructure assets, systems or functions (Table 11.8). These inventories confirm that a large proportion of critical infrastructure is owned or operated by the private sector (EPRS, 2021).

The design and governance of resilience measures for critical infrastructure systems is highly complex due to functional interdependencies across sectors. Resilience measures range from system redundancies and diversification of key suppliers, to asset hardening, back-up productive capacity, rapid recovery and adaptability. Among the 24 OECD countries with available data, only 12 (50%) have put in place positive or negative incentives of any kind for operators to invest in resilience; only 6 (25%) issue financial penalties in the case of prolonged service disruption. Only the United States has established government grant programmes for investments in infrastructure resilience (Figure 11.9).

Methodology and definitions

Data are drawn from the 2016 OECD Survey on the Governance of Critical Risks and the 2018 and 2019-20 Survey on Critical Infrastructure Resilience.

The Survey on Critical Infrastructure Resilience covered 25 OECD countries in 2019-20, and an additional 6 OECD countries in 2016. Respondents for the 2018 and 2019-20 surveys were government officials with responsibility for critical infrastructure resilience or protection at the central government level. Responses to the 2016 survey were co-ordinated by senior government officials with responsibility for disaster risk or crisis management, and included experts in critical infrastructure.

Critical infrastructure is defined in the surveys as systems, assets, facilities or networks that provide essential services for the functioning of the economy and the wellbeing of the population.

Resilience is defined as the capacity of systems to absorb a disturbance, recover from disruptions and adapt to changing conditions while retaining essentially the same function as before the disruptive shock (OECD, 2014). This definition includes the ability to withstand shocks, sustain required operations, limit the duration of service interruption, minimise recovery time, adapt to new conditions and improve systems' functionality.

Further reading

OECD (2019), "Policy toolkit on governance of critical infrastructure resilience", in *Good Governance for Critical Infrastructure Resilience*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/fc4124df-en*.

OECD (2014), *Recommendation of the Council on the Governance of Critical Risks*, OECD, *www.oecd.org/gov/risk/Critical-Risks-Recommendation.pdf*.

EPRS (2021), *European Critical Infrastructure: Revision of Directive 2008/114/EC*, European Parliamentary Research Service, *www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/BRIE/2021/662604/EPRS_BRI(2021)662604_EN.pdf*.

Figure notes

Data for Colombia, Denmark, Lithuania and Slovenia are not available.

11.8. Data for Hungary are not available. Data for Belgium, the Czech Republic, Iceland, Italy, Mexico, New Zealand (only for sectors identified), the Slovak Republic and Turkey (only definition of critical infrastructure) are for 2018 instead of 2019.

11.9. Data for Belgium, the Czech Republic, Iceland, Italy, Latvia, Mexico and the Netherlands are not available.

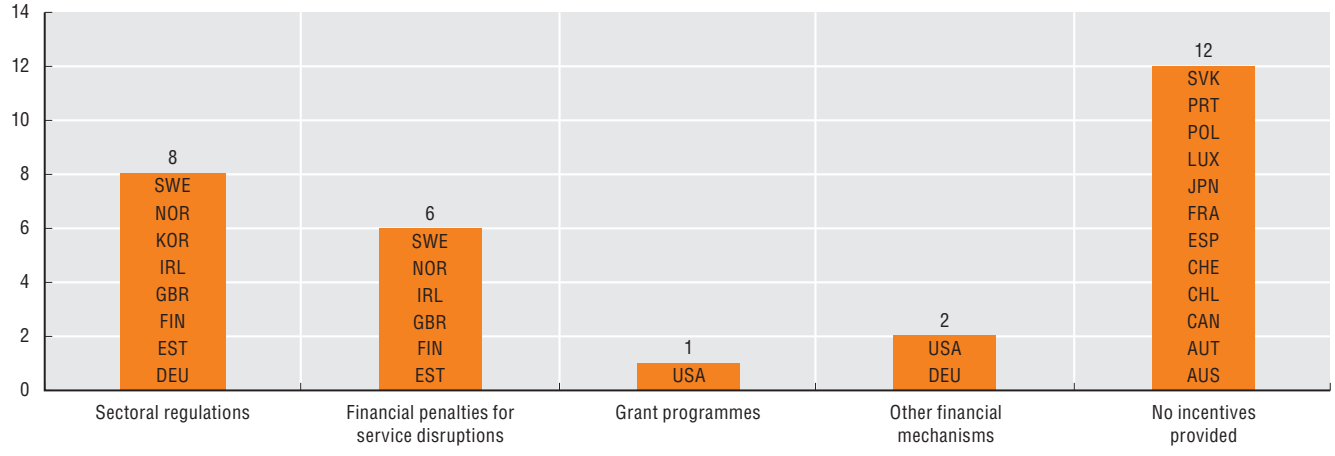
11.8. Critical infrastructure strategy, definition and national inventories, 2016 and 2019

	Critical infrastructure protection strategy		Definition of critical infrastructure	Sectors identified	Lead institution identified	National inventory of critical infrastructure assets, systems, functions or operators
	2016	2019	2019	2019	2019	2019
Australia	●	●	●	●	●	●
Austria	●	●	●	●	●	●
Belgium	...	...	●	●	●	...
Canada	●	●	●	●	●	●
Chile	...	●	❍	●	●	●
Czech Republic	...	●	●	●	●	...
Estonia	●	●	●	●	●	●
Finland	●	●	●	●	●	❍
France	●	●	●	●	●	●
Germany	●	●	●	●	●	●
Greece	...	❍	❍	●	●	❍
Iceland	...	●	...	●	...	...
Ireland	●	●	●	●	●	❍
Israel	●	●	●	●	●	●
Italy	...	❍	❍	●	❍	...
Japan	●	●	●	●	●	❍
Korea	●	●	●	●	●	●
Latvia	❍	●	●	●	●	●
Luxembourg	●	●	●	●	●	●
Mexico	...	...	●	●	...	...
Netherlands	●	●	●	●	●	●
New Zealand	...	...	●	●	...	...
Norway	❍	●	●	●	●	●
Poland	●	●	●	●	●	●
Portugal	❍	❍	●	●	❍	●
Slovak Republic	...	...	...	●	...	...
Spain	●	●	●	●	●	●
Sweden	●	●	●	●	●	❍
Switzerland	●	●	●	●	●	●
Turkey	...	...	●	●	...	...
United Kingdom	●	●	●	●	●	●
United States	●	●	●	●	●	●
OECD Total						
● Yes	19	24	27	32	25	19
❍ No	3	3	3	0	2	5
… Missing	10	5	2	0	5	8

Source: OECD (2016) *Survey on the Governance of Critical Risks*; OECD (2018 and 2019-20) *Survey on Critical Infrastructure Resilience*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934258990

11.9. Incentives for critical infrastructure operators to invest in critical infrastructure resilience, 2019



Source: OECD (2019-20) *Survey on Critical Infrastructure Resilience*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259009

12. PUBLIC SECTOR INTEGRITY

Integrity and anti-corruption strategies

Transparency in lobbying activities

Integrity and anti-corruption strategies

The OECD Recommendation on Public Integrity states that adherents should develop a strategic approach to mitigating public integrity risks in the public sector, most notably corruption. Some countries have opted for a single national integrity or anti-corruption strategy, although strategic integrity objectives may be located in several government documents owned by various authorities.

An effective strategic approach for public integrity should be based on reliable evidence to identify key public integrity risks, developed in consultation with key stakeholders through existing government procedures for strategy development, and adequately implemented and monitored.

In 2020, out of 24 OECD countries with data available, 20 (87%) had an integrity strategy in place. Only the Czech Republic, Mexico, Portugal and the United Kingdom had taken a comprehensive approach to the whole public integrity area by setting up an inter-institutional body to analyse public integrity risks. The integrity strategies of 11 of the 20 OECD countries (55%) were not based on a thorough problem analysis and integrity risk assessment. Only 7 countries out of 20 (35%) drew on a diverse set of data sources (including surveys and administrative data) when developing their integrity strategies to target the most harmful integrity risks (Figure 12.1).

Latvia, Poland and the Slovak Republic were the only countries that published their draft integrity strategy on their public consultation portal and only 8 of the 20 strategies (40%) underwent inter-governmental and public consultation. This means that many governments have not used their established, standard mechanisms to include inputs from citizens and non-state actors, including their public consultation portals. However, 7 countries out of 20 (35%) went beyond the minimum procedures by organising an extended public consultation process for at least one strategy, for example through open town hall-style meetings or social media outreach. Only six countries included non-state actors in the working groups mandated to develop or amend strategies (Figure 12.2).

Effective integrity strategies depend on proper monitoring. Out of the 20 countries with a strategy, 7 of them (35%) had included objectives with outcome-level indicators and targets, while an additional 3 (15%) only used outcome indicators. Tracking the implementation rate of activities contributes to effective monitoring, but most countries do not have these data. Online Table G.38 shows the average implementation rate for activities related to the strategic objectives for anti-corruption and public integrity. For the ten OECD countries that monitor implementation, the average implementation rate for the planned activities needed to meet the strategy's objectives was 60%.

The indicator on "Adequacy of implementation structures and reporting" uses 15 criteria to assess whether the elements need for the implementation of the strategy and its action plan are in place. On average, OECD countries only met one-third of these criteria (Online Table G.38).

Methodology and definitions

Data were collected through a questionnaire based on the OECD Quality of Strategic Framework indicators to which 24 OECD countries and one key partner (Brazil) responded. Respondents were senior officials responsible for integrity policies in central government. This set of indicators, which form part of the OECD Public Integrity indicators, was developed to measure the OECD Recommendation on Public Integrity. This work benefits from extensive collaboration with the Task Force on Public Integrity Indicators consisting of nine members of the Working Party of Senior Public Integrity Officials.

The indicator on "Adequacy of implementation structures and reporting" includes 15 criteria covering essential components, such as a central co-ordination function responsible for implementation, monitoring, evaluation and reporting of the strategy, as well as an action plan specifying activities, indicators, targets, costs, etc.

The implementation rate of activities related to strategic objectives for public integrity is based on monitoring reports provided by national authorities. Activities that are ongoing, continuous or only partly implemented are excluded. The average rate for all strategic objectives across all strategies is presented.

Public integrity refers to the consistent alignment of, and adherence to, shared ethical values, principles and norms for upholding and prioritising the public interest over private interests in the public sector.

Primary strategic objectives are understood as formal objectives set and adopted by the government (council of ministers or equivalent) in official strategy documents or regulations that are not subordinate to any other objectives.

Further reading

OECD (2010), *Recommendation of the Council on Public Integrity*, OECD, Paris, *https://legalinstruments.oecd.org/en/instruments/OECD-LEGAL-0435*.

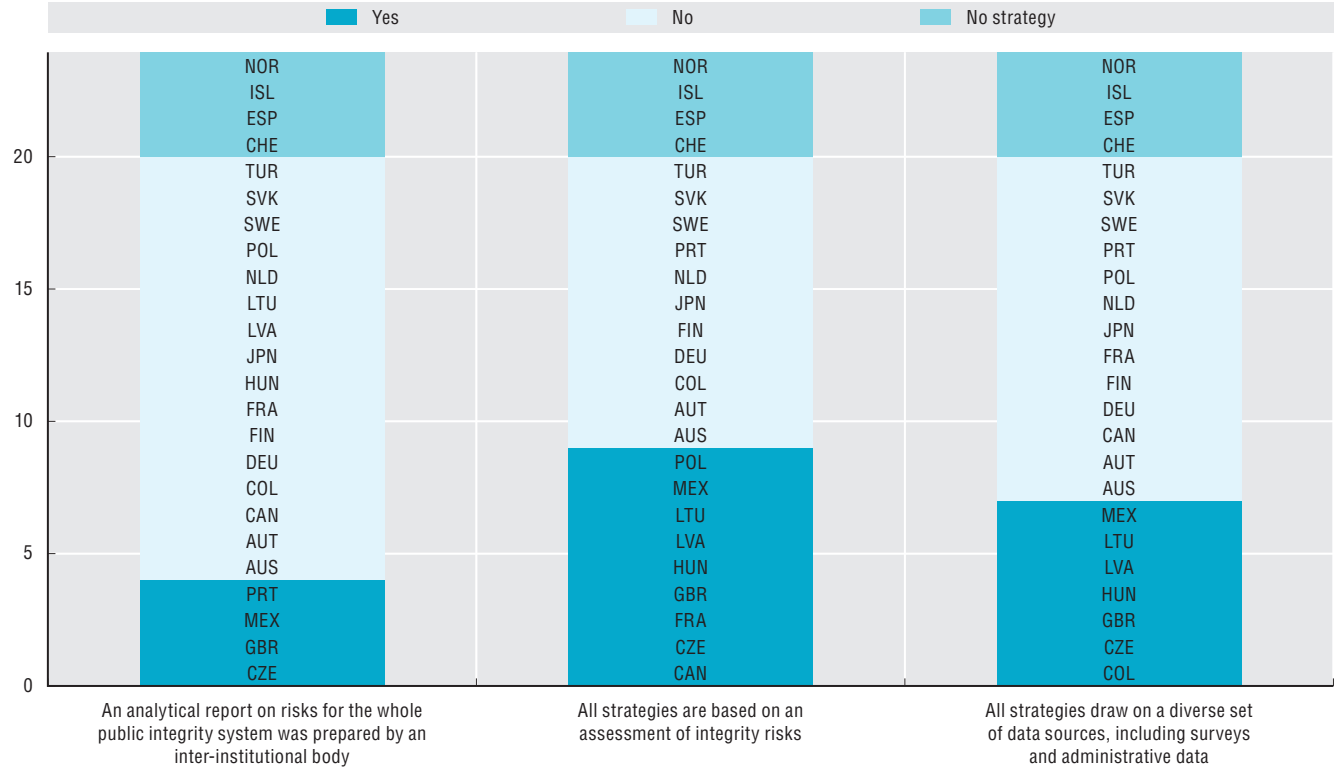
OECD (2020), *OECD Public Integrity Handbook*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/ac8ed8e8-en*.

Figure notes

Data for Belgium, Chile, Denmark, Estonia, Greece, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Korea, Luxembourg, New Zealand, Slovenia and the United States are not available.

Table G.38. (Adequacy of implementation structures and reporting, 2020) is available online in Annex G.

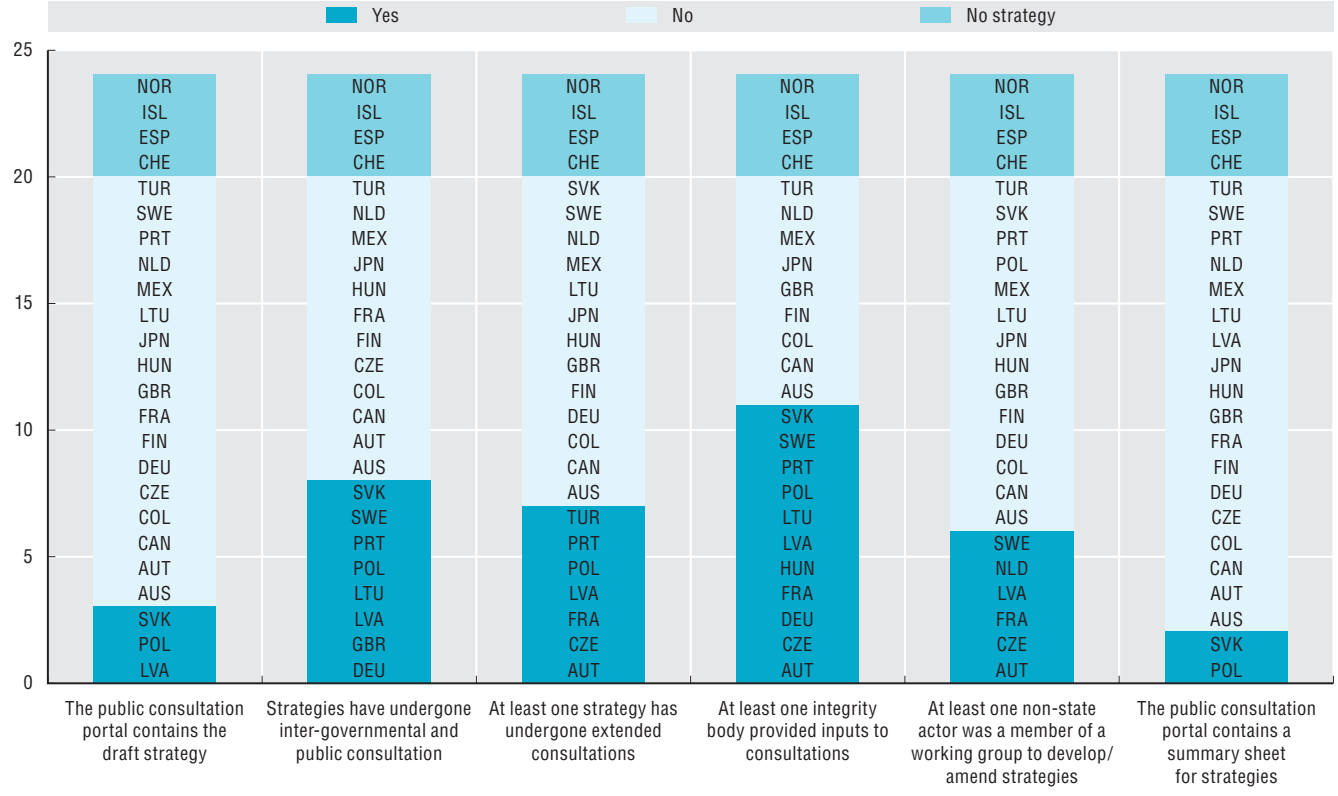
12.1. Use of evidence-based problem analysis and diagnostics when developing integrity strategies, 2020



Source: OECD (2021), *Public Integrity Indicators: Quality of Strategic Framework*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259028

12.2. Inclusiveness and transparency of intergovernmental and public consultations, 2020



Source: OECD (2021), *Public Integrity Indicators: Quality of Strategic Framework*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259047

Transparency in lobbying activities

Lobbying is a legitimate act of political participation. It grants all those influencing governments access to the development and implementation of public policies. This range of interests allows policy makers to learn about options and trade-offs, and ultimately decide on the best course of action on any given policy issue. However, experience has shown that policy making is not always inclusive. Lobbying may also be abused through the provision of biased evidence and the manipulation of public opinion. Public policies based on misinformation or which respond only to the needs of specific interest groups, usually those that are more financially and politically powerful, tend to be suboptimal (OECD, 2017). As such, addressing not only the type of policies needed, but also how these policies are informed and shaped by various interests, is of the utmost importance.

The OECD Recommendation on Principles for Transparency and Integrity in Lobbying (hereafter, "Lobbying Principles") states that countries "should provide an adequate degree of transparency to ensure that public officials, citizens and businesses can obtain sufficient information on lobbying activities" (OECD, 2010). Transparency can be provided through various means. Sixteen OECD countries (Australia, Austria, Canada, Chile, France, Germany, Ireland, Iceland, Italy, Lithuania, Mexico, the Netherlands, Poland, Slovenia, the United Kingdom and the United States) and Romania have public registries where lobbyists and/or public officials disclose information on their interactions. Another approach is to require certain public officials to disclose information on their meetings with lobbyists through open agendas (Spain, Romania, Slovenia and the United Kingdom). Other countries require *ex post* disclosures of how decisions were made ("legislative footprint"). Iceland, Latvia, Luxembourg and Poland have implemented such requirements (OECD, 2021).

Disclosure requirements differ depending on the level of the public official targeted by lobbying. In practice, there is limited transparency for all levels of officials: 13 out of 30 OECD countries (43%), plus Romania, provide information on lobbying activities aimed at ministers, cabinet members, and 14 OECD countries also include members of parliament. Only 10 OECD countries (33%) and Romania provide transparency over activities targeting appointed public officials, while 10 (33%) and Romania provide information on activities targeting senior civil servants (Table 12.3).

In addition, 17 out of the 31 OECD countries (55%) and Romania identify the beneficiary of lobbying activities (Figure 12.4). Although the Lobbying Principles explicitly state that disclosures should include the objective of the lobbying activity, much of the information needed for public scrutiny is missing. Only eight OECD countries have transparency tools that enable stakeholders to identify the specific piece of legislation, regulation or decision that was the target of lobbying activities (Figure 12.5).

Methodology and definitions

Lobbying is the act of lawfully attempting to influence the design, implementation, execution and evaluation of public policies and regulations administered by executive, legislative or judicial public officials at the local, regional or national level.

The 2020 OECD Survey on Lobbying used three questionnaires that took stock of regulations and collected experiences from public officials from the executive and legislative branches, as well as lobbyists.

Respondents to the survey for public officials in the executive branch were country delegates responsible for integrity policies and/or lobbying-related rules in central government. A total of 29 OECD member countries completed the survey. Italy responded to selected questions and the United Kingdom provided information through written procedure. Brazil, Costa Rica and Romania also completed the survey. Responses were complemented by desk research by the OECD Secretariat as part of the 2021 report monitoring the implementation of the Lobbying Principles.

Further reading

OECD (2010), *Recommendation of the Council on Principles for Transparency and Integrity in Lobbying*, OECD, Paris, *https://legalinstruments.oecd.org/en/instruments/OECD-LEGAL-0379*.

OECD (2017), *Preventing Policy Capture: Integrity in Public Decision Making*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264065239-en*.

OECD (2021), *Lobbying in the 21st Century: Transparency, Integrity and Access*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/c6d8eff8-en*.

Figure notes

Data for Belgium, Colombia, Estonia, Israel, Japan, and New Zealand are not available.

12.3. Data for Austria are not available. Hungary and Latvia require employees in the public administration to disclose meetings with lobbyists to their superior. In Hungary, the information is not made public; Latvia publishes information only if the lobbyist's point of view was taken into account in a specific decision. Luxembourg's parliament has rules on lobbying but transparency is strictly limited to contributions from lobbyists made during parliamentary commissions.

12.4. The information disclosed must allow the identification of the organisation that is the beneficiary of lobbying activities (in-house lobbyists disclose the name of their employers and lobbyists representing third parties disclose the names of the organisations they represent).

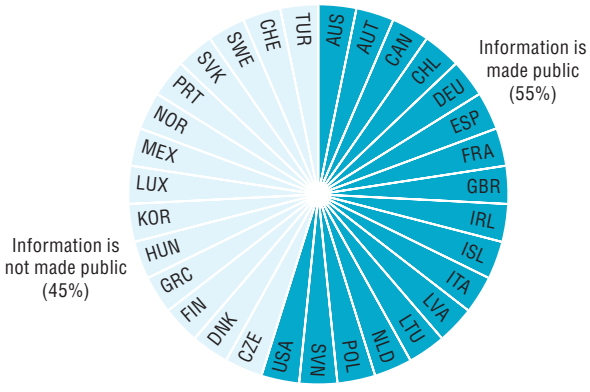
12.3. Categories of public officials for which countries make public their engagement with lobbyists, 2020

	Public officials and institutions targeted by lobbying activities				
	Ministers and/or members of cabinet	Members of legislative bodies and their staff	Appointed public officials (e.g. political advisors)	Certain senior civil servants	All civil servants within a targeted organisation
Australia	●	❍	●	●	●
Canada	●	●	●	●	❍
Switzerland	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Chile	●	●	●	●	❍
Czech Republic	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Germany	●	●	❍	●	❍
Denmark	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Spain	●	●	❍	❍	❍
Finland	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
France	●	●	●	●	❍
United Kingdom	●	❍	●	❍	❍
Greece	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Hungary	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Ireland	●	●	●	●	❍
Iceland	●	❍	●	❍	❍
Italy	❍	●	❍	❍	❍
Korea	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Lithuania	●	●	●	●	❍
Luxembourg	❍	●	❍	❍	❍
Latvia	❍	❍	❍	●	●
Mexico	❍	●	❍	❍	❍
Netherlands	❍	●	❍	❍	❍
Norway	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Poland	●	●	❍	❍	❍
Portugal	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Slovenia	●	●	●	●	●
Sweden	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Slovak Republic	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Turkey	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
United States	●	●	●	●	❍
OECD Total					
● Yes	13	14	10	10	3
❍ No	17	16	20	20	27
Brazil	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Costa Rica	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Romania	●	❍	●	●	❍

Source: OECD (2020), *Survey on Lobbying*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259066

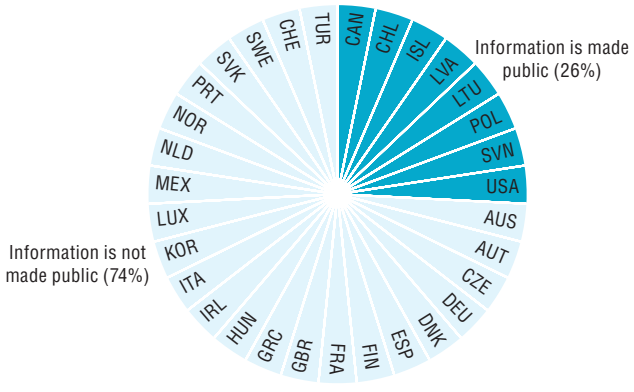
12.4. Transparency on who is lobbying, 2020



Source: OECD (2020), *Survey on Lobbying*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259085

12.5. Transparency on the specific pieces of legislation, proposals, regulations, or decision targeted by lobbying activities, 2020



Source: OECD (2020), *Survey on Lobbying*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259104

13. CORE GOVERNMENT RESULTS

Trust in public institutions

Internal and external political efficacy

Income redistribution

Rule of law

Cost effectiveness

Trust in public institutions

People's trust in government is a common indicator of public administrations' performance and a measure of how well democracies are functioning. During the COVID-19 pandemic, for example, trust was found to be strongly correlated with compliance with measures designed to flatten the infection curve in European countries (Bargain and Aminjonov, 2020).

According to the Gallup World Poll (GWP), in 2020, 51% of people in OECD countries trusted their government, a 6.3 percentage point increase from 2007 and a 6 p.p. increase from 2019 (OECD, 2019).The greatest increases were in Iceland (35 p.p.) and Germany (30 p.p.) while trust fell most steeply in Belgium (31 p.p.) and Chile (28 p.p.) (Figure 13.1). There are also differences in some countries by age (see Online Figure G.39). The average increase in trust should be viewed with caution as most data were collected during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic and could reflect the so-called "rallying around the flag" effect. This effect predicts an increase in trust during sudden crises as people rally behind leaders and institutions, and temporarily pay less attention to other policy issues.

In 18 of 22 OECD countries surveyed, average trust levels fell between April/May and June/July 2020 indicating that any rallying effect was fading away. On a scale of 1-10, trust in government averaged 5.23 in April/May and 4.77 in June/July, although trust increased in Spain (by 0.5 points), France (0.4) and Luxembourg (0.3) and remained unchanged in Slovenia (Figure 13.2).

Metrics of trust in government provide signals of people's relationship with their institutions and the state of public affairs in countries, but they remain highly aggregated and could be influenced by a wide array of factors and circumstances. The joint European Values Study (EVS) and World Values Survey (WVS), fielded in most OECD countries in 2018, includes questions about trust in several institutions including the core measures suggested by the OECD guidelines (OECD, 2017). On average, 72% of the population trust the police, 49% trust the civil service, 37% trust the government and about one-third trust their national parliaments. With trust levels of 60% or more for all institutions, Norway has consistently the highest levels while in Colombia and Mexico trust is relatively low across the board. The widest gaps between the civil service and the government are in Greece (30 p.p.), Iceland (29 p.p.), Spain and the United Kingdom (26 p.p. each) (Figure 13.3).

Methodology and definitions

Trust is defined as a person's belief that another person or institution will act consistently with their expectations of positive behaviour (OECD, 2017). The GWP uses a representative sample of about 1 000 citizens in most countries. Eurofound's e-survey, Living, Working and COVID-19, was conducted in April, when most surveyed countries were in lockdown, and in July, when society was slowly re-opening. After adjustment, the sample is representative of the demographic profile of the country. Although large segments of the population have access to the Internet, those without were by default excluded from the sample. The EVS and the WVS are two large-scale, cross-national and longitudinal surveys. EVS covers European countries. WVS covers countries outside Europe. The usual sample size is 1 300. Countries with greater populations and diversity apply samples of 1 500 to 5 000 while for those with populations below 2 million the sample size is 1 000.

Further reading

Bargain, O. and U. Aminjonov (2020). "Trust and compliance to public health policies in times of COVID-19", *Bordeaux Economics Working Papers* 2020-06.

OECD (2019), *Government at a Glance 2019*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/8ccf5c38-en*.

OECD (2017), *OECD Guidelines on Measuring Trust*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264278219-en*.

Figure notes

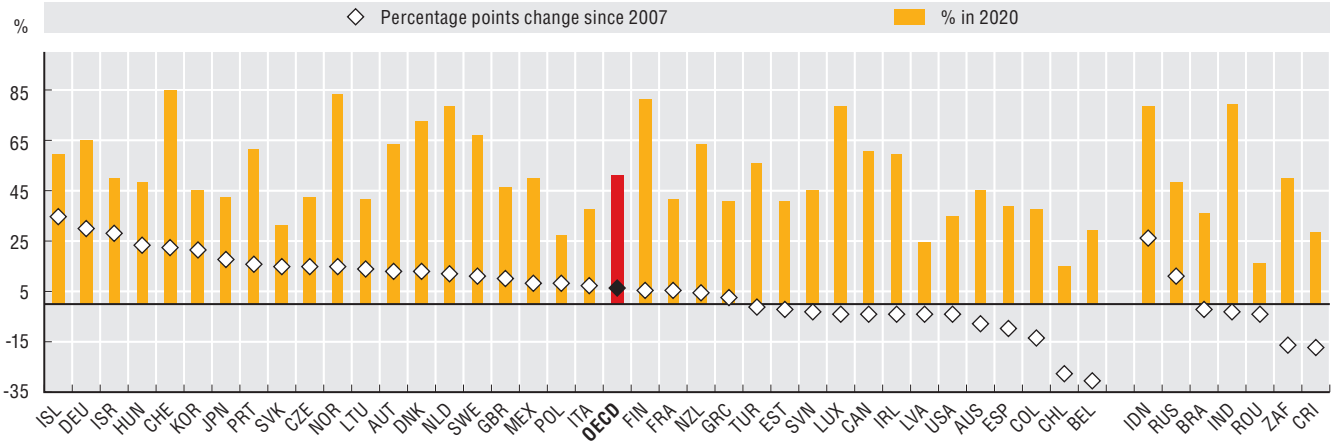
13.1. Percentage who answered "yes" to "Do you have confidence in the national government?". Data for Chile, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Israel, Latvia, Lithuania, Mexico, Luxembourg, Costa Rica, Romania and South Africa are for 2019 rather than 2020. Data for the Czech Republic are for 2018 rather than 2020. Data for Iceland are for 2017 rather than 2020. Data for Austria, Finland, Ireland, Norway, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia and Switzerland are for 2006 rather than 2007. Data for Iceland and Luxembourg are for 2008 rather than 2007. 2007 is used as a benchmark as the year before the global financial crisis.

13.2. Average value of the answer to "How much do you personally trust each of the following institutions?" on a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 means no trust at all, and 10 means complete trust. The reliability of the data is lower for Luxembourg and Poland.

13.3. Percentage who answered "a great deal" or "quite a lot" to "How much confidence do you have in the parliament, the civil service and the police?". Data for most European countries included in the graph are 2018. For precise information on when the EVS was fielded please refer to *https://europeanvaluesstudy.eu/methodology-data-documentation/survey-2017/*. Data for non-European countries are from the WVS. The United States data are for 2017; Australia, Chile, Colombia, Mexico and South Korea for 2018; Japan for 2019; and New Zealand for 2019-20.

G.39. (Confidence in national government by age group, 2020) is available online in Annex G.

13.1. Confidence in national government in 2020 and its change since 2007



Source: Gallup World Poll, 2020.

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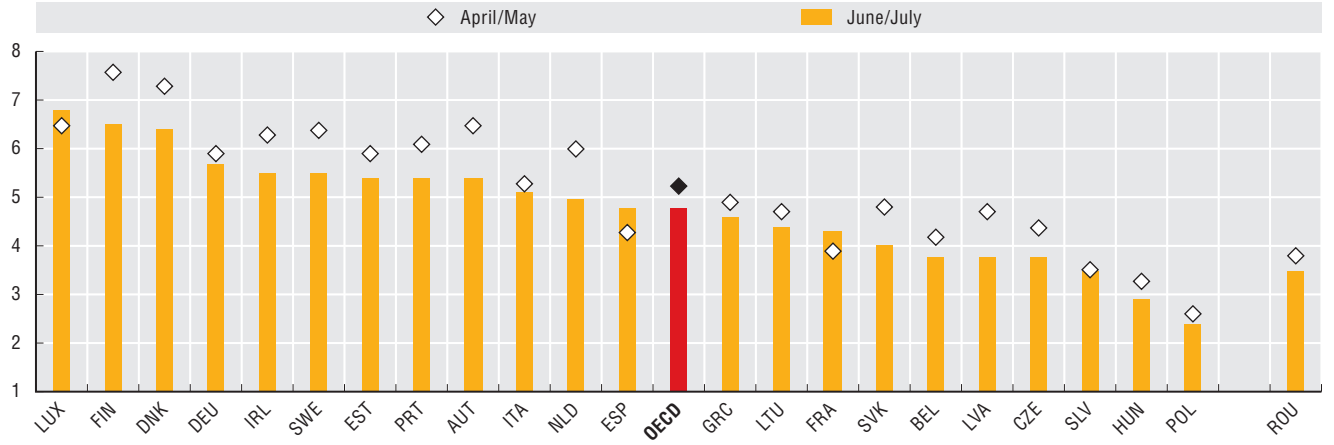
13.2. Trust in government during the first wave of COVID-19, 2020

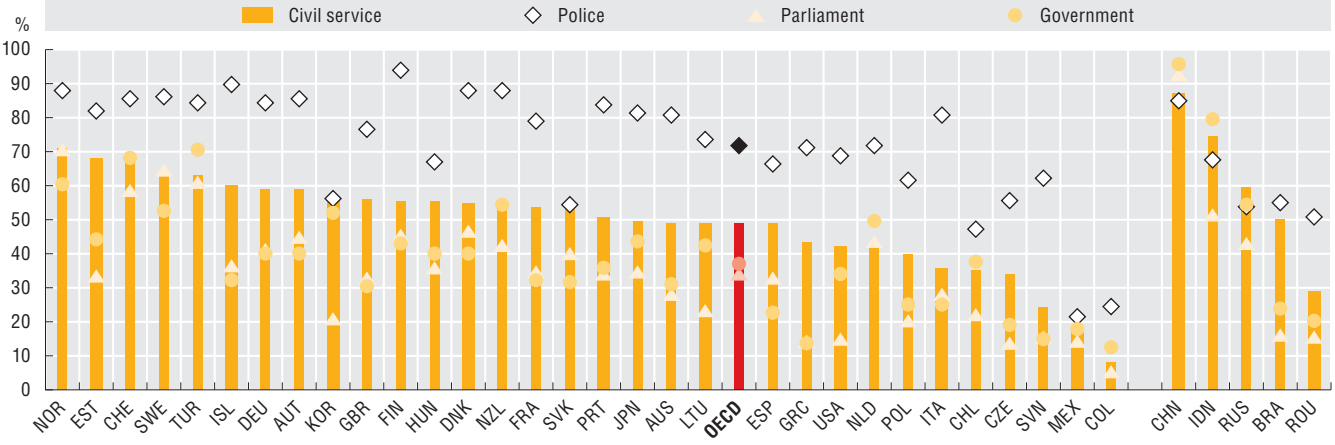
Average on a scale from 1-10



Source: Eurofound (2020), *Living, Working and COVID-19*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259142

13.3. Trust in government, the civil service, the parliament and the police, 2018



Source: OECD calculations based on the World Values Survey and European Values Study, 2017-20.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259161

Internal and external political efficacy

Political attitudes are a key component of people's belief systems, and refer to an enduring feeling, or mental or emotional mindset, with which people approach political problems or situations. Together with trust, political efficacy is one of the most relevant indicators of the overall status of democratic systems. The more people feel able to understand politics and have their voice heard, the more likely they are to pursue democratic endeavours.

Political efficacy refers to the feeling that individual political action does have, or can have an impact upon the political process. It has two dimensions: internal efficacy, or people's self-perception of their capability to understand and participate in political processes, and external efficacy, or their feeling of having a say in what governments do.

Internal efficacy has been used broadly as a factor explaining political participation. Citizens' self-efficacy and involvement was also found to predict trust in government and parliament and satisfaction with democracy. According to data from the European Social Survey (ESS), in 2018 on average only 35% of people in 22 OECD countries reported feeling confident participating in politics. However, there is wide variation, ranging from 60% in Norway, a country with high turnout levels, to 14% in the Czech Republic, a more recent democracy. The OECD average slightly increased between 2016 and 2018 (by 2 p.p.). The greatest increase was in Poland (5.2 p.p) and the Netherlands (4.6 p.p.), while the steepest declines were in Hungary (6.3 p.p) and France (2.9 p.p) (Figure 13.4).

External efficacy is critical for the legitimacy of public institutions, as it measures whether people believe the system is responsive to their demands. Data from the ESS and the World Values Survey (WVS) show that on average less than half of the population (40%) in 26 OECD countries believe the political system in their countries allows people like them to have a say in what the government does, 1.7 percentage points higher than in 2016. Countries vary widely, however, ranging from about 74% in Switzerland to about 15% in Italy. Between 2016 and 2018 the percentage of people who perceived they had a say in their government's actions increased the most in Poland (11.2 percentage points), which experienced a change of government after eight years, and Estonia (10.7 p.p.). Conversely, external efficacy levels fell the most in the United Kingdom (4.6 p.p.) and Germany (2.5 p.p.) (Figure 13.5).

External efficacy is closely associated with satisfaction with democracy and trust in public institutions (González, 2020). Low or falling levels of system responsiveness could lead to perceptions that the system works in the interests of a few, fuelling disenchantment and political cynicism. Indeed, according to the ESS data for 22 OECD countries, there is a strong and positive correlation between external efficacy and satisfaction with democracy. Countries with the greatest levels of external efficacy are the ones where most of the population report feeling satisfied with the way democracy works, such as Switzerland or Norway. In contrast, in countries such as Italy, Slovenia or Latvia, low levels of external efficacy are associated also to less satisfaction with democracy overall (Figure 13.6).

Methodology and definitions

The European Social Survey (ESS) is a cross-national survey established in 2001. Every two years, face-to-face interviews are conducted, achieving a minimum effective sample size of 1 500. For smaller countries (with a population of less than 2 million), the sample is reduced to 800.

The World Value Survey (WVS) started in 1981. The 7th round of the WVS is taking place worldwide in 2017-21 and includes the same questions on external political efficacy as the ESS. Samples employed are random probability representative of the adult population. The usual sample size is 1 300. Countries with greater populations and diversity apply samples of 1 500 to 5 000 while for those with populations below 2 million the sample size is 1 000.

Further reading

González, S. (2020), "Testing the evidence, how good are public sector responsiveness measures and how to improve them?", *OECD Working Papers on Public Governance*, No. 38, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/c1b10334-en*.

Prats, M. and A. Meunier (2021), "Political efficacy and participation: An empirical analysis in European countries", *OECD Working Papers on Public Governance*, No 46, OECD Publishing, Paris. *https://doi.org/10.1787/4548cad8-en*.

Figure notes

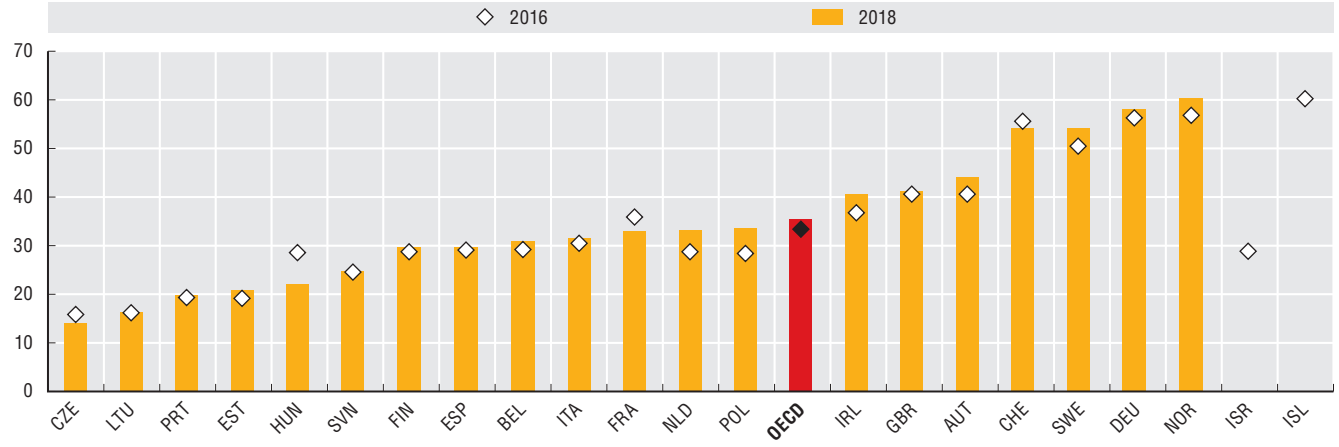
13.4. The scores for 2016 and 2018 reflect the percentage who answered "quite confident", "very confident" or "completely confident" to "How confident are you in your own ability to participate in politics?" The options "not at all confident" and "a little confident" are not shown.

13.5. The scores reflect the percentage who answered "some", "a lot" or "a great deal" to "How much would you say the political system in [country] allows people like you to have a say in what the government does?" Data for Australia, Colombia, Japan, Mexico and New Zealand are from the WVS. Averages are based in ESS data.

13.6. Data refer to the percentage who answered 5 or more on a scale of 0 (extremely dissatisfied) to 10 (extremely satisfied) to "As a whole, how satisfied are you with the way democracy works in your country?"

13.4. People's confidence to participate in politics, 2016 and 2018

% of the population



Source: OECD calculations based on Rounds 8 and 9 of the European Social Survey.

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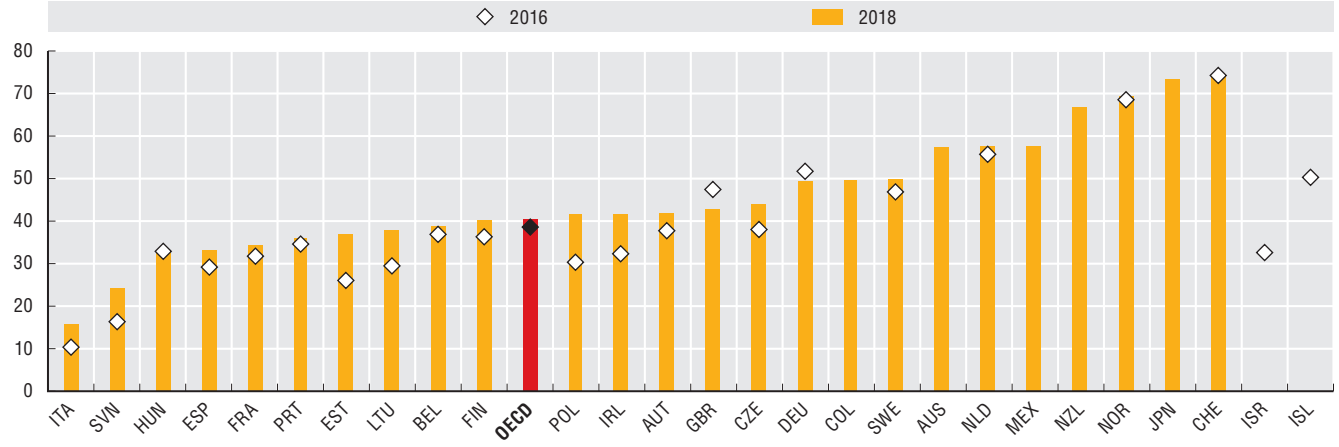
13.5. Having a say in what the government does, 2016 and 2018 (or nearest year)

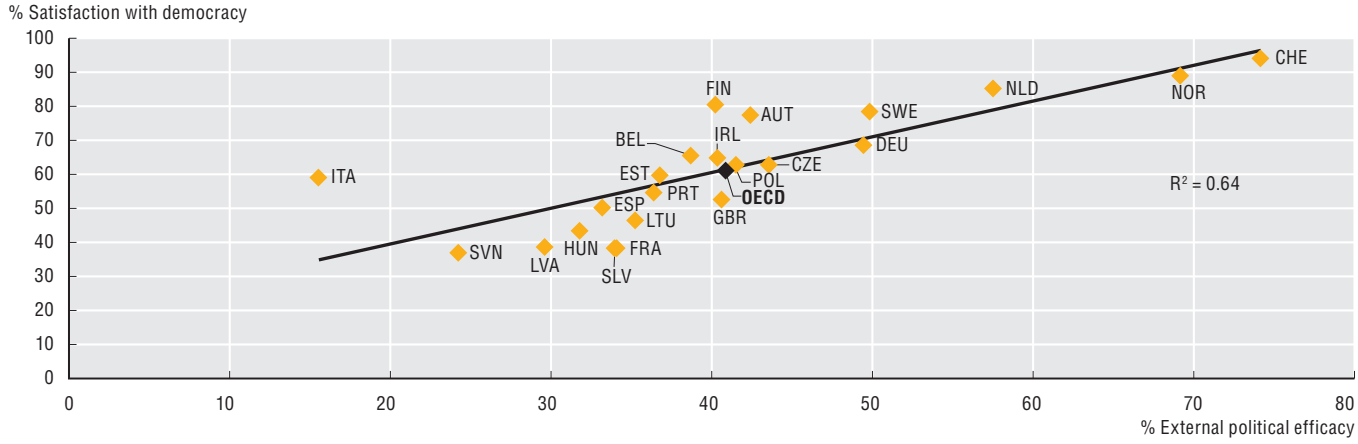
% of the population



Source: OECD calculations based on Rounds 8 and 9 of the European Social Survey and the 2017-20 round of the World Values Survey.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259199

13.6. External political efficacy and satisfaction with democracy, 2018



Source: OECD calculations based on Round 9 of the European Social Survey.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259218

Income redistribution

Income inequality has a profound impact not only on individuals' and families' living conditions and their health status, but also on societies as a whole by threatening social cohesion, curbing economic growth and weakening trust in institutions. Most OECD member countries have adopted a mixture of public policies to reduce income inequality in society and its long-term effect on economic progress. These include social protection and insurance systems financed through a combination of cash transfers and progressive income taxes. They have also used specific fiscal stimulus packages to boost demand and cushion poorer households from the impact of crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic. These measures, aimed at addressing income inequality by redistributing income between rich and poor, but also between generations, could also provide support to age groups in greater need. Finally, other elements, such as wealth taxation, could also increase the effectiveness of redistributive policies (Kuypers et al., 2021).

In 2018, average income inequality among the working-age population of OECD countries, as measured by the Gini coefficient, was 0.41 before taxes and transfers, and 0.31 after government intervention in the form of taxes and transfers (on a scale where 0 represents perfect equality and 1 perfect inequality). Redistribution levels are the highest in countries with consolidated welfare states, such as Ireland (39% difference in Gini before and after taxes and transfers), Belgium (38%) and Finland (36%). At the other end of the spectrum, Chile (5%) has the lowest level of income redistribution after government intervention (Figure 13.7).

Among OECD countries with available information, the Gini coefficient after taxes and transfers remained practically unchanged between 2012 and 2018. However, the average hides significant changes in some countries. For example, inequality fell significantly in Estonia (6.5 points), Greece (3.2) and Portugal (2.8), while it increased slightly in Switzerland (1.7 points), Denmark (1.6) and Finland (1.5) (Figure 13.8).

In 2018, 11.2% of the population in OECD countries could be considered poor in terms of relative income poverty after taxes and transfers. The figures range from over 17% in the United States and Latvia to less than 6% in Iceland. Between 2012 and 2018 relative income poverty increased the most in Latvia (4.2 p.p.) Germany (2 p.p.) and the Netherlands (1.4 p.p.) while it decreased most significantly in Greece (2.8 p.p.), Portugal (2.6 p.p.) and Mexico (2.30 p.p.) (Figure 13.9).

Methodology and definitions

Data are drawn from the OECD Income Distribution Database (*oe.cd/idd*) consulted on 1 March 2021. The Gini coefficient is a standard measure of inequality representing the income distribution of the population within a given country. It takes the value of 0 when all households have identical income and 1 when one household has all the income. Redistribution of income is measured by comparing Gini coefficients for household market income (i.e. total income from market sources not adjusted for public cash transfers and household taxes) and for household disposable income (i.e. net of direct government transfers and direct taxes) of the working-age population. The poverty rate after taxes and transfers is the share of people whose income falls below the poverty line, taken to be 50% of the current median equivalised disposable income of the entire population.

Further reading

Kuypers, S., F. Figari and G. Verbist (2021), "Redistribution from a joint income-wealth perspective: Results from 16 European OECD countries", *OECD Social, Employment and Migration Working Papers*, No. 257, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/22103c5e-en*.

Causa, O., J. Browne and A. Vindics (2019), "Income redistribution across OECD countries: Main findings and policy implications", *OECD Economic Policy Papers*, No. 23, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/3b63e61c-en*.

OECD (2016), "Income inequality remains high in the face of weak recovery", *Income Inequality Update*, November 2016, *www.oecd.org/social/OECD2016-Income-Inequality-Update.pdf*.

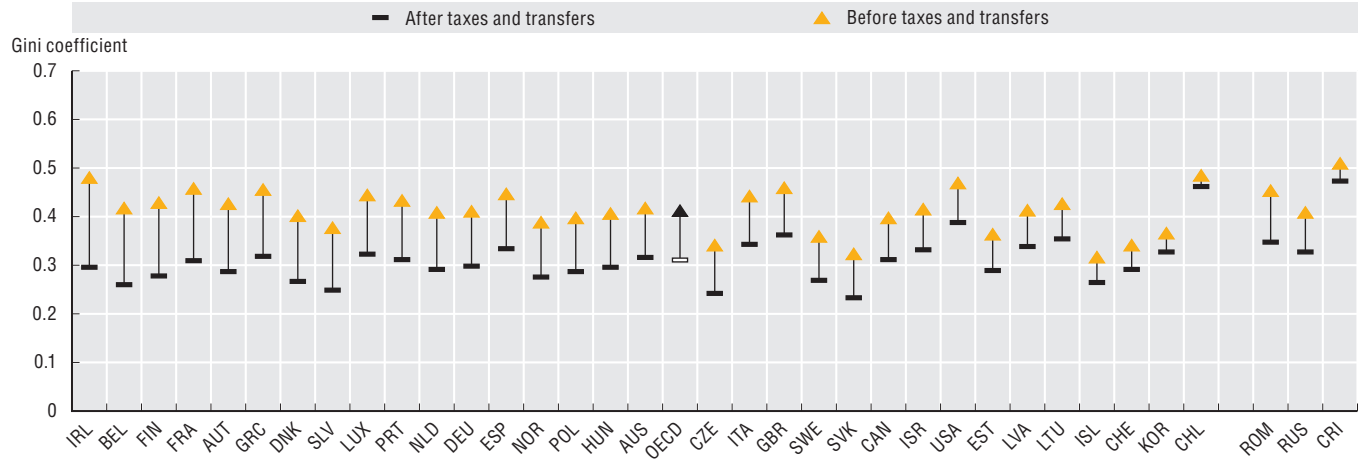
Figure notes

13.7. Countries are ranked from the highest to the lowest difference before and after taxes. All Gini coefficients are based on the 2012 new income definition and are for the working-age population, disregarding the effect of public pension schemes. Data for Chile, Denmark, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Iceland, Switzerland and the United States are for 2017 rather than 2018. Data for the Netherlands and Russia are for 2016 rather than 2018. Data for Costa Rica are for 2019 rather than 2018.

13.8. Data for Chile, Estonia, Sweden and the United States are for 2013 rather than 2012. Data for Russia are for 2011 rather than 2012.

13.9. Data for Chile, Denmark, Germany, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Switzerland and the United States are for 2017 rather than 2018. Data for Mexico, the Netherlands and Romania are for 2016 rather than 2018.

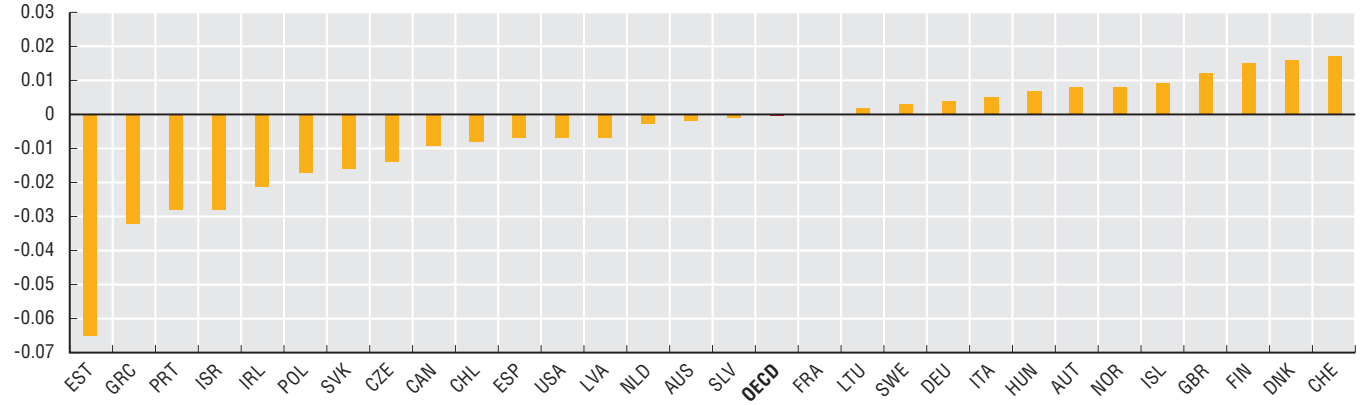
13.7. Differences in household income inequality among the working-age population pre and post-tax and government transfers, 2018



Source: OECD Income Distribution (database).

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259237

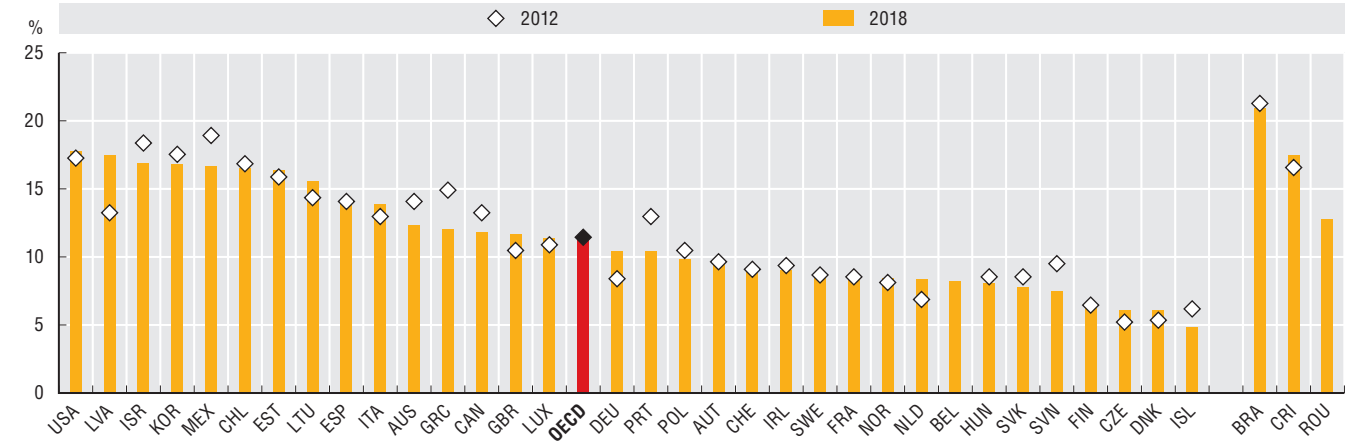
13.8. Difference after taxes and transfers in the Gini coefficient score for the working-age population, between 2012 and 2018



Source: OECD Income Distribution (database).

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259256

13.9. Relative poverty rate after taxes and transfers, 2018 and 2012



Source: OECD Income Distribution (database).

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259275

Rule of law

Rule of law is one of the foundations of democratic societies as it relates to the exercise of power and the relationship between individuals and the state. It refers to the idea that the same rules, standards and principles are applied to all individuals and organisations, including government itself. The rule of law requires everyone to be treated in accordance with the law, with dignity, equality and rationality, and to have the opportunity of fair procedures before independent and impartial courts (Venice Commission, 2011). A multitude of statutes, laws, codes and procedures ensure these requirements are implemented. Strengthening the rule of law is considered a priority of any governance reform, as well as a key indicator of good public governance. It is an essential prerequisite for ensuring the provision of public goods and services, economic development, maintaining peace and order, and the effective control of corruption.

The World Justice Project assesses countries' rule of law, scoring them on eight factors: 1) constraints on government powers; 2) absence of corruption; 3) open government; 4) fundamental rights; 5) order and security; 6) regulatory enforcement; 7) civil justice; and 8) criminal justice. Scores in most OECD countries have been relatively high and stable during last decade, although the 2020 Rule of Law index, published in March 2020, reflects the situation prior to the COVID-19 outbreak and does not capture the potential impact of restrictions and emergency measures related to the pandemic (WJP, 2020).

The factor *constraints on government powers* measures whether different branches of government have the ability to exercise checks and controls on other branches (i.e. effective horizontal accountability), and whether the government is accountable to other non-governmental checks. It also assesses whether government officials are accountable and sanctioned if need be, and if the transition of power is subject to the law. The OECD average for this factor lies at 0.74 (on a scale from 0, the lowest, to 1, the highest), slightly below that in 2019 (0.76) (OECD, 2019). However, there is wide variation among countries. In Scandinavian countries, such as Denmark (0.94), Norway (0.94) and Finland (0.92), adherence to the rule of law is particularly strong for this factor, while Turkey (0.30) and Hungary (0.40) perform more weakly (Figure 13.10).

The factor *fundamental rights* focuses on respect for the core human rights that are firmly established under the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights, including rights to equal treatment and absence of discrimination, to life and security, and to freedom of opinion and expression. Similar to the previous factor, OECD countries score relatively high, reaching an average of 0.75, slightly below the average in 2019 (0.76). Variation among countries is also wide, ranging from 0.92 in Denmark to 0.32 in Turkey (Figure 13.11). Both factors are strongly and positively correlated, pointing to the fact that countries which have established checks and balances on government power also tend to guarantee fundamental rights (Figure 13.12).

The COVID-19 outbreak has meant several restrictions, mainly because of the adoption of emergency measures, including the recurrent use of exceptional government powers. These have challenged fundamental rights, the idea of legal certainty and accountability (Council of Europe, 2020). In this regard, it will be extremely important to closely monitor these factors, as well as the state of the rule of law more widely, in the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic crisis, to ensure that legal certainty and fundamental rights are effectively restored.

Methodology and definitions

The World Justice Project collects data via a set of questionnaires based on the Rule of Law Index's conceptual framework. The questionnaires are administered to representative samples of the general public and to legal experts who frequently interact with their national state institutions. For the general population, a probability sample of 1 000 respondents in each of the 136 countries is selected while on average 30 experts per country are surveyed. All questionnaires are administered by leading local polling companies. Data are available for 29 OECD countries as well as 1 accession country, Costa Rica, and 6 strategic partners. All variables are transformed into factors normalised to range between 0 (lowest) and 1 (highest). For more information on the variables used for building the composite index, see WJP (2020).

Further reading

Council of Europe (2020), *Respecting Democracy, Rule of Law and Human Rights in the Framework of the COVID-19 Sanitary Crisis: A Toolkit for Member States*, Council of Europe, *https://rm.coe.int/sg-inf-2020-11-respecting-democracy-rule-of-law-and-human-rights-in-th/16809e1f40*.

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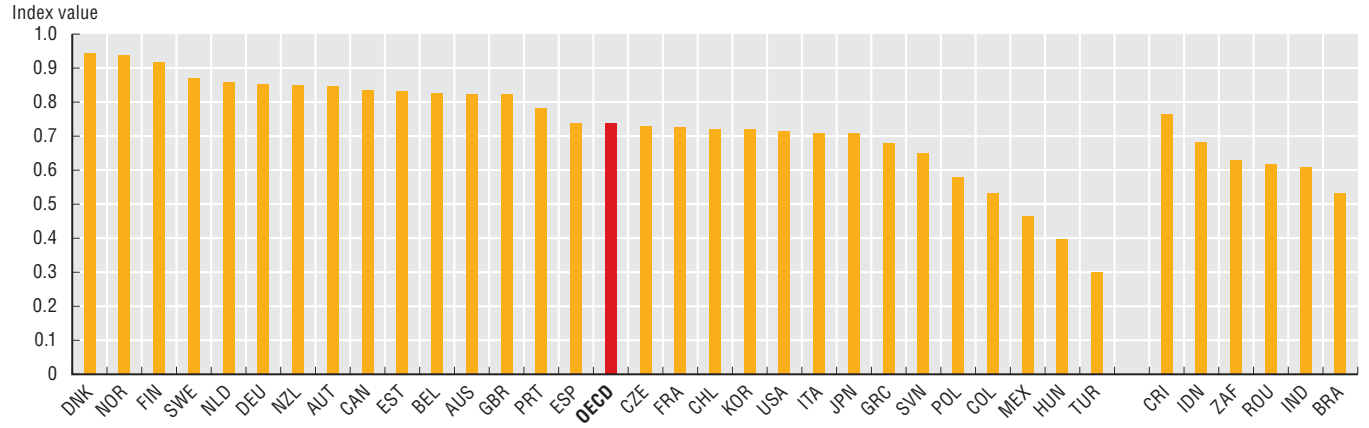
Venice Commission (2011) *Report on the Rule of Law*, Venice Commission of the Council of Europe, *www.venice.coe.int/webforms/documents/?pdf=CDL-AD(2011)003rev-e*.

WJP (2020), *Rule of Law Index 2020*, World Justice Project, Washington, DC, *https://worldjusticeproject.org/sites/default/files/documents/WJP-ROLI-2020-Online_0.pdf*.

Figure notes

Data for Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Slovak Republic and Switzerland are not available.

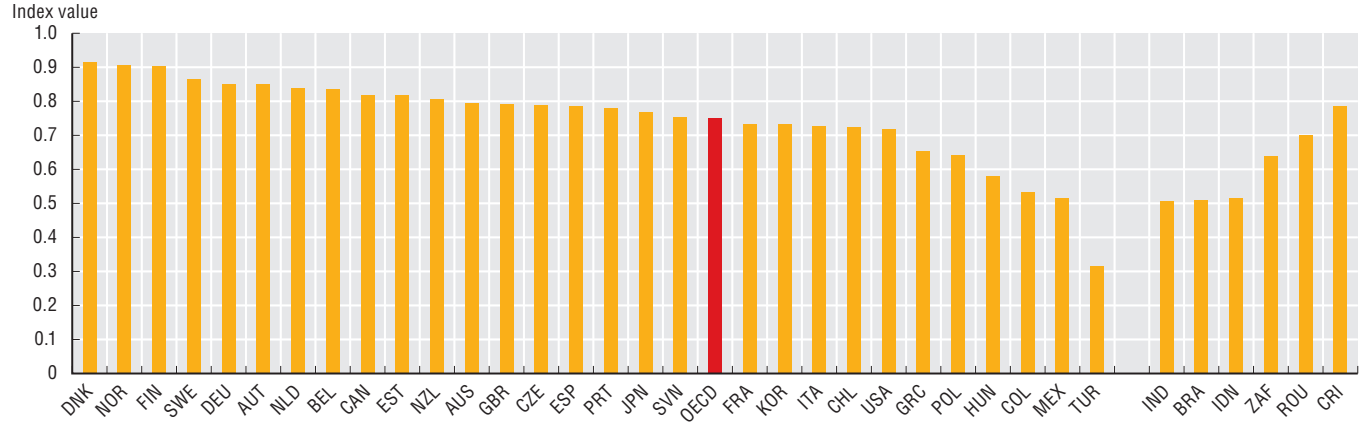
13.10. Limited government powers, 2020



Source: WJP (2020), *Rule of Law Index 2020*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259294

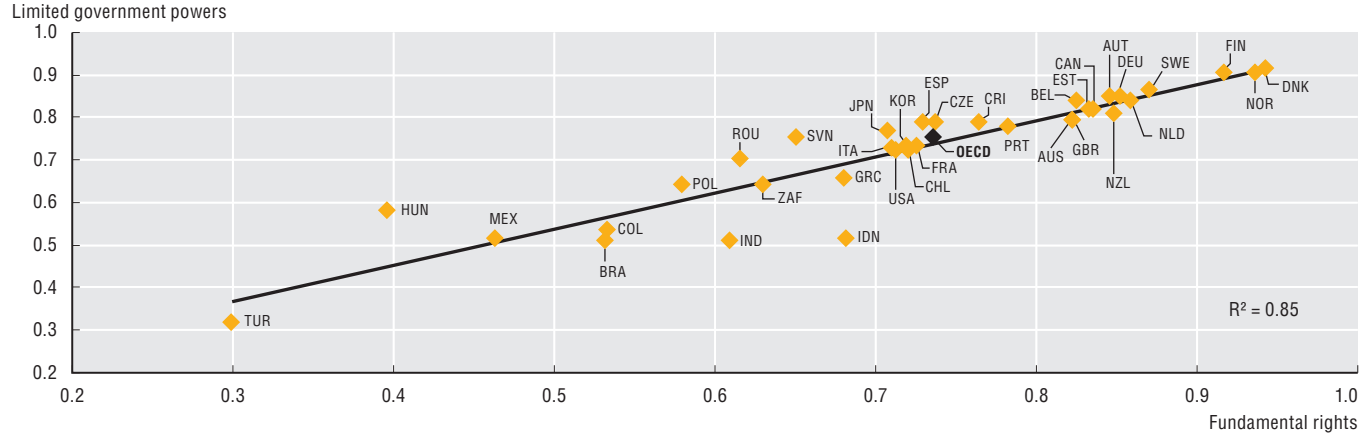
13.11. Fundamental rights, 2020



Source: WJP (2020), *Rule of Law Index 2020*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259313

13.12. Limited government powers versus fundamental rights, 2020



Source: WJP (2020), *Rule of Law Index 2020*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259332

Cost effectiveness

Effectiveness measures the extent to which an activity attains its desired objectives. Cost effectiveness, i.e. the ratio of an input to an intermediate or final outcome, reflects the relationship between resources spent and results achieved and is critical for evaluating the success of government policies. The education and health care sectors have sufficiently well developed and internationally standardised measures of inputs and outcomes to allow their cost effectiveness to be meaningfully compared.

Health care

Health spending represents one of the largest shares of overall public spending. The constant development of new medical technologies, ageing populations in several OECD countries and the need to respond to crises such as the COVID-19 are expected to further boost future medical spending. In this context, evaluating the cost effectiveness of health systems could contribute to better targeted spending.

Health cost effectiveness is assessed by comparing countries' improvements in life expectancy (the most widely adopted and comparable outcome) to their total health expenditure per person. Life expectancy at birth can be affected by factors beyond health care activities and spending (e.g. living and working conditions, the physical environment, nutrition, and behavioural factors such as exercise, smoking and drug and alcohol consumption). Current expenditure encompasses both public and private spending; the latter is particularly high where people opt out from the system (e.g. Mexico) or where there are no comprehensive, public health schemes (e.g. the United States). Even so, there is a positive relationship between health spending and life expectancy. Some countries, such as Israel, Italy, Korea and Spain, have higher life expectancy than might be expected given their spending level. At the other end of the scale, Latvia, Lithuania and Mexico have comparatively low life expectancy for the amount they spend. Some of the factors explaining comparatively low life expectancy in Latvia and Lithuania are hazardous drinking, high exposure to air pollution and other risk factors for cardiovascular disease (OECD, 2019a). The United States also spends large amounts for the life expectancy it achieves. Privately provided health insurance in the United States tends to be expensive but other reasons such as high mortality rates from past smoking, high obesity rates and high death rates from opioid overdoses and road accidents help to explain its comparatively weak performance (Figure 13.13).

Education

Every three years, the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) measures the performance of 15-year-old students in reading, mathematics and science. Comparing the learning outcomes of students, based on PISA scores, and cumulative expenditure on education per student between the ages of 6 and 15 provides an aggregate measure of the cost effectiveness of education systems.

On average, OECD countries spend about USD 100 000 PPP per student in primary and lower secondary education. Spending levels are positively correlated with PISA scores in reading, mathematics and science but the relationship is stronger at lower levels of spending and weakens as spending increases (OECD, 2019b). The effect of cumulative spending on PISA results is slightly stronger for mathematics than for reading, the two areas of knowledge considered here. Countries such as Canada, Estonia and Poland achieve comparatively high scores in view of the cumulative amount spent per student. Luxembourg, on the other hand, achieves comparatively low scores for the amount spent (Figures 13.14 and 13.15). PISA scores are also influenced by additional factors such as the amount of time students spend learning outside regular lessons (doing homework, taking additional instruction or attending private study). In addition, the family environment and wider social environment in which children grow up also influence education and its outcomes (OECD, 2020).

Methodology and definitions

Health spending measures the final consumption of health care goods and services (i.e. current health expenditure) including personal and collective healthcare but excluding spending on investments. Life expectancy measures how long, on average, a newborn can expect to live, if current death rates do not change. It focuses on measuring the length of life and not the health-related quality of life of people alive. Reading performance in PISA measures the capacity of 15 year-old students to understand, use and reflect on written texts. Mathematical performance measures their mathematical literacy .

Further reading

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OECD (2019b), *PISA 2018 Results (Volume I): What Students Know and Can Do*, PISA, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/5f07c754-en*.

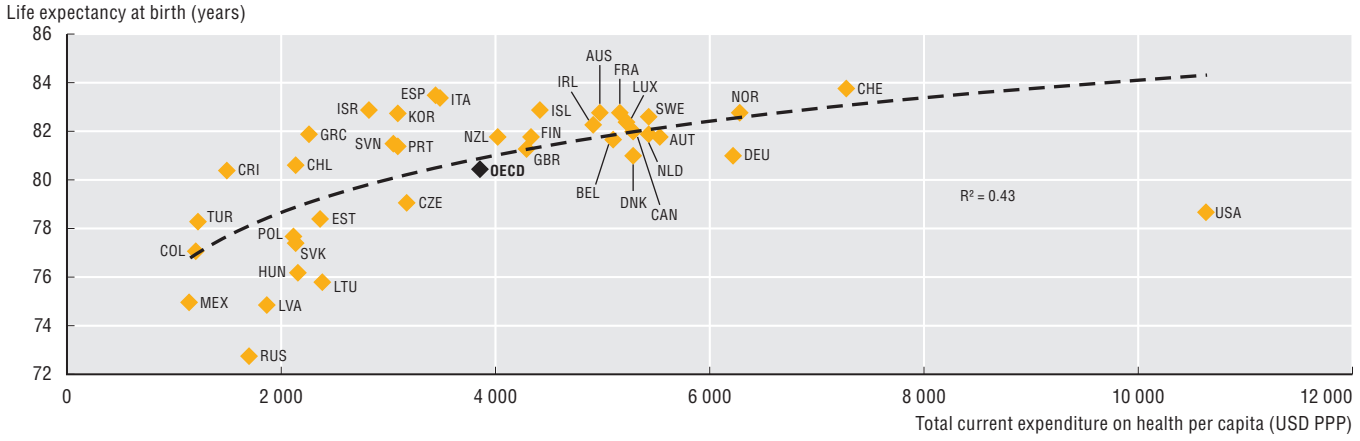
OECD (2020), *Education at a Glance 2020: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/69096873-en*.

Figure notes

13.13. Data on current expenditure were extracted from the Health Statistics database on 15 February 2021. Data for Australia are estimated. Data for Canada, Japan, New Zealand and Norway are provisional.

13.14 and 13.15. In Canada spending on primary education includes pre-primary programmes. Spending data for Colombia are for 2018 rather than 2017.

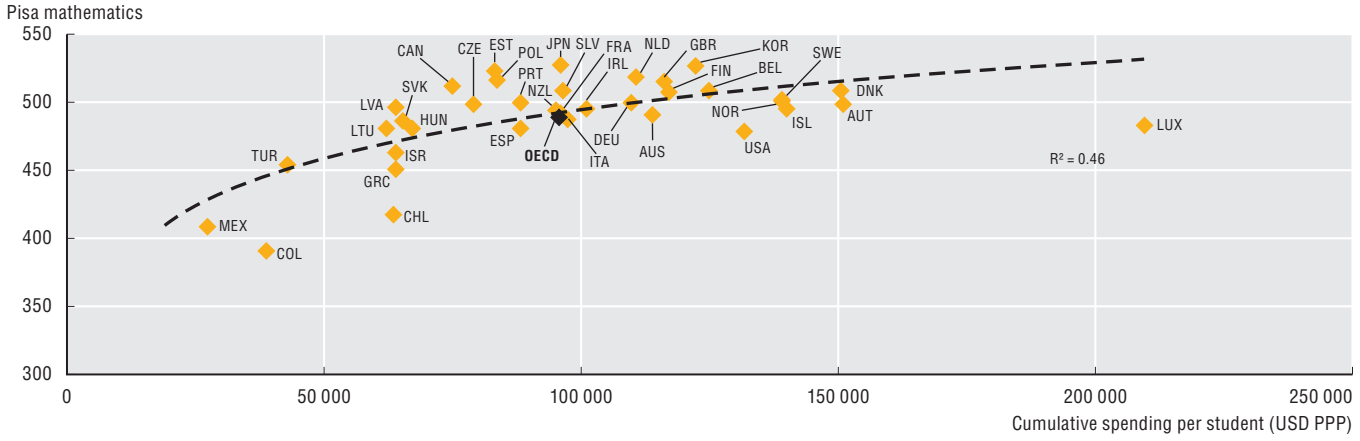
13.13. Life expectancy at birth and total current expenditure on health per capita, 2018



Source: OECD Health Statistics (database).

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259351

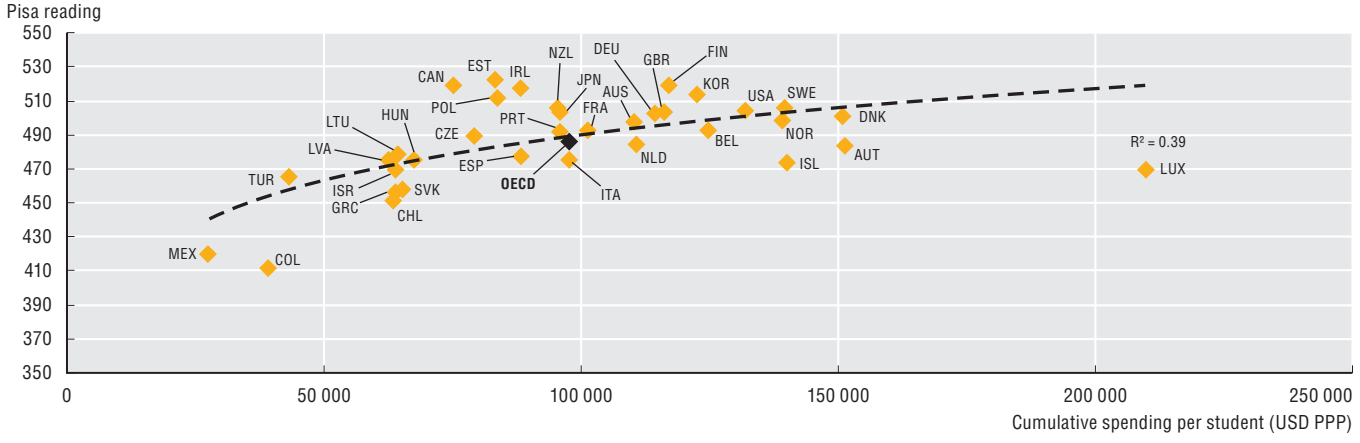
13.14. Performance in PISA (mathematics) 2018 at age 15 and cumulative expenditure per student between 6 and 15 years old, 2017



Source: OECD Education at a Glance (database).

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259370

13.15. Performance in PISA (reading) 2018 at age 15 and cumulative expenditure per student between 6 and 15 years old, 2017



Source: OECD Education at a Glance (database).

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259389

14. SERVING CITIZENS

Serving citizens scorecards

This chapter describes how OECD countries are performing in terms of access, responsiveness and quality of services, based on the OECD Serving Citizens Framework, which seeks to address the main determinants of satisfaction with services. The scorecards summarise key aspects of countries' services systems (access, responsiveness and quality) by displaying a subset of sector-specific measures from education, health and justice. They illustrate how the performance of public services can be compared, even when they are organised in different ways and address different aspects of societal and individual life. Although country rankings are provided, these are only calculated to compare indicators that differ in measurement units and the underlying phenomena they measure. As such, the scorecards do not provide a unified picture of which countries have the best overall services, nor should they be used for this purpose.

The Serving Citizens Scorecards were introduced in the 2017 Government at a Glance, and the indicators were selected by experts from the OECD on each subject. The criteria were: 1) adequacy (i.e. the indicator represents the concept being measured); 2) policy relevance; 3) data availability and coverage; and 4) data interpretability (i.e. no ambiguity that a higher/lower value means better/worse performance). The selected indicators intend to provide an overview of the relevant aspects for each service. For this reason, the choice of measures differs among services (e.g. school enrolment for education and health care coverage for health care are measures of access).

Table 14.1. The OECD Serving Citizens Framework

Access	Responsiveness	Quality
Affordability • *Health care coverage* • *Out-of-pocket payments as a share of total health spending* • *Percentage of people with unmet health care needs since the start of the pandemic* • *Private expenditure on education as a share of total spending on education (primary to tertiary)* • *Enrolment at age 3 and 4 in early childhood and pre-primary education* • *First-time tertiary enrolment rates under 25* • *People can access and afford civil justice*	**Courtesy and treatment** • *Doctor often or always explains things in a way that is easy to understand*	**Effective delivery of services and outcomes** • Primary care physician and medical specialist offices using electronic medical records • *Diabetes hospital admission in adults* • *Thirty-day mortality after admission to hospital for ischaemic stroke* • *Five-year breast cancer survival rate* • *Mean PISA score in reading* • Index of cognitive adaptability • Index of self-efficacy regarding global issues • *Civil justice is effectively enforced* • *Civil justice is free from improper government influence* • Criminal adjudication system is timely and effective • *People do not resort to violence to redress personal grievances*
Geographic proximity • People receiving telephone and online health care services since the start of the pandemic • Percentage of students who have access to a computer to do homework at home	**Match of services to special needs** • *Young people (aged 15-29) years not in education, employment or training (NEET)* • *Schools where study help is provided (school staff' help and rooms)* • *Indexes of shortage of education staff and education material*	**Consistency in service delivery and outcomes** • *Share of students below level 2 proficiency in reading* • *Percentage of variance in reading score explained by socio-economic background*
Access to information • *Alternative dispute resolution mechanisms are accessible, impartial and effective*	**Timeliness** • *Same or next-day appointment with doctor or nurse the last time needed care* • *Median waiting time for cataract surgery from specialist assessment to treatment* • *Disposition time for first instance civil and commercial non-litigious cases* • *Disposition time for first instance civil and commercial litigious cases* • *Disposition time for first instance administrative cases*	**Security/Safety** • Effective control of crime

Note: The indicators in italics are included in the scorecards

Scorecard interpretation

Each scorecard focuses on one dimension of the framework (access, responsiveness or quality) and compares across services (education, health and justice). For each indicator, countries are classified into three groups: 1) green for values above (or below, depending on the indicator) a standard deviation from the mean; 2) red for values below (or above, depending on the indicator) a standard deviation from the mean; and 3) orange for values within one standard deviation of the mean.

Additionally, each country is ranked among those countries for which data are available, so as to provide additional information on performance (the country with the best performance is ranked number 1). If several countries have the same value for an indicator, they are assigned the same rank.

When trend data are available, arrows indicate whether countries' absolute performance has improved (↑), declined (↓) or remained stable (→). Unless specified otherwise, the criterion for showing improvement or decline is a change of 1 percentage point (if the indicator is expressed as a percentage) or of 1%.

The last row of the scorecard indicates both the base year and the reference year for the comparison.

Access to services

Most OECD countries have achieved universal health care coverage, either through private or public insurance schemes. Coverage has remained stable among most top performers since 2014. In Greece, the last economic crisis meant around 30% of the population lost access to care, but by 2018 the country had once more achieved universal coverage after introducing remedial legislation in 2016 to secure funding for the system and restore universal coverage. In Lithuania health care coverage increased by 6 p.p. between 2014 and 2018. The National Health Insurance Fund provides coverage for all residents of the country, subject to confirmed insurance status, so the 2% of people who are not covered may be those who lost their employment and had not made the mandatory contributions to the health care system, or people living abroad registered as residents (OECD/European Observatory, 2019). On the other hand, Mexico has seen a reduction in health care coverage from 93% in 2014 to 88% in 2018, in line with declining spending on health as a proportion of GDP (OECD, 2021).

The range of services covered by health insurance schemes and the extent to which patients have to cover expenses from their own budgets vary across OECD countries. For example, in Mexico, given the limited coverage of health care, a large proportion of health expenditure comes from citizens' pockets. However, the share of out-of-pocket (OOP) expenditure on household consumption alone does not indicate whether citizens are benefiting from access to care. During the COVID-19 pandemic, a large proportion of citizens had to forego care due to lockdown restrictions and the lack of remote alternatives, such as telemedicine. For instance, in Germany OOP spending as a share of health expenditure is in line with the OECD mean, but a larger proportion of citizens than in other countries were able to keep their doctors' appointments.

Education systems across the OECD provide universal access to education for children of compulsory school age, which varies across countries. However, access to early childhood and tertiary education depends partially on public resources made available to finance them. For instance, in Colombia, a large share of expenditure on education from primary to tertiary level comes from private sources, which results in lower enrolment rates in early childhood and primary education among 4-year-olds, and in tertiary education for those under the age of 25. In other countries, such as Finland, where there is a tracking system in place (i.e. students are assigned to classes or types of secondary education curricula according to their achievements), the relationships between public funding and enrolment rates at the two ends of the education cycle are not linear.

The high share of private funding in some countries is due to grants and transfers to individuals or private institutions. For example, the United Kingdom has achieved 100% enrolment in early childhood education because every 4-year-old is entitled to 15 hours of free care whether in public or private institutions. Chile introduced a law in 2018 that established tertiary education as a right that should be accessible for everyone without discrimination. In order to implement this law, universities can request financing from the government to provide free tertiary education, but they are not obliged to do so. Chile has achieved the highest enrolment rate under the age of 25 in the OECD. Chile's first-time tertiary enrolment rate under the age of 25 has also increased between 2013 and 2018.

In order to access justice, individuals must be aware of their rights and of the mechanisms in place to resolve their disputes, and be able to afford the costs that the process entails. Civil justice in Denmark, Germany, and the Netherlands are the most affordable and accessible for citizens, according to data from World Justice Project (WJP). Alternative dispute resolution (ADR) is a way of settling disputes outside of the courtroom. The WJP expert survey asks about the integrity of arbitrators, the costs and timeliness of ADRs, and the enforcement of settlements in commercial cases. According to these data, ADRs in Estonia, Japan, Korea and Norway are the most accessible, impartial and effective.

Responsiveness of services

Communication between health care providers and patients helps to improve patients' involvement in their own health, by allowing them to make informed decisions about the care that they receive. While a majority of patients in OECD countries with available information reported that their doctor always or often explains things in a way that they can understand, in Australia and New Zealand virtually all patients report that they experience this with their doctors.

Long waiting times can worsen patients' symptoms and reduce their satisfaction with health care. In the majority of countries with available information, the share of citizens who were not able to get an appointment on the same or the next day the last time they needed care increased between 2016 and 2020. Germany was the only country which improved

over that period, and was also the best-performing country. Some countries, like Sweden, are better at providing prompt elective surgery (such as cataract operations) than they are at providing next-day appointments with general practitioners. In others, like Australia, the opposite is true.

Responsive education systems are those that manage to keep students in education until they have acquired the necessary skills to thrive in the labour market. Across the OECD, the age when compulsory education ends ranges from 16 in Colombia to 19 in Iceland and Switzerland. Consequently, these latter countries, along with Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Sweden, have the smallest share of 15-29 year-olds who are not in employment, education or training (NEET), although the situation is improving in almost all countries. What most of these countries have in common is that they make efforts to ensure that all students can access the necessary resources to learn. School principals report that these countries supply the material resources (from infrastructure to textbooks) needed to provide instruction and, in the case of Sweden, school staff help students with their homework if necessary. In contrast, the school system in Chile is not very responsive to students' needs: despite having the highest enrolment rates in tertiary education, it has one of the highest NEET rates.

Delays in resolving judicial cases can cause plaintiffs to drop their cases, incur unnecessary costs, or dissuade them from pursuing a legal route to solve future issues. The time needed to resolve a case depends on factors including the procedures followed to allocate and solve cases, the complexity of the case, the number of staff working for the judiciary system, the number of incoming cases, and the use of technology to reduce administrative work. Among the countries for which data are available, Hungary, Lithuania and the Netherlands take the least amount of time to resolve cases in first instance courts for civil and commercial (litigious and non-litigious) cases and administrative cases.

Quality of services

The provision of public services is aimed at improving citizens' quality of life and wellbeing in various areas. For example, health systems are responsible for protecting them from ill health and the judicial system has a significant role in ensuring the rule of law and the respect for human rights, making citizens feel safe. School systems are responsible for equipping students with the knowledge, skills and tools they need for their lifelong development.

The health system is responsible for preventing health problems and addressing acute or chronic health problems when they arise (i.e. treatment). For example, diabetes is a chronic condition that has well-established treatments, most of which can be delivered at the primary care level, in order to prevent unnecessary hospitalisations. Other conditions, such as ischaemic stroke and breast cancer can be treated once detected. Japan's health care system is effective in treating stroke and breast cancer, and its 30-day mortality rate following stroke hospitalisation has improved between 2007 and 2017. Other countries, such as Lithuania and Poland, are less effective in both preventing and treating health problems, although the situation is improving. Some countries, such as Korea, perform better in some of these indicators than others.

The best-performing education systems are those that combine quality and equity: Canada and Estonia have the best overall performance in Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) reading but also the smallest share of students below proficiency level 2, and the least variation in scores explained by student's socio-economic background. In contrast, the Slovak Republic has one of the worst performances in all of these indicators.

In terms of the judicial system, the WJP compiles data on the enforcement of the law around the world by asking experts and the general population how likely individuals are to pursue self-administered justice by resorting to violence to redress grievances, how likely the government is to influence a judge in a lawsuit against the state and how likely court decisions are to be enforced. In Denmark and Norway, justice systems are effective and impartial, and people resolve their disputes in a pacific manner.

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Scorecard 1. Access to services

Performance one standard deviation above (below) the mean.
Performance within one standard deviation from the mean.
Performance one standard deviation below (above) the mean.

Countries are listed in alphabetical order. The number in the cell indicates the position of each country among all countries for which data are available. Arrows indicate whether absolute performance has improved (↑), declined (↓) or remained stable (→).

	Health care					Education						Justice			
	Health care coverage		Out-of-pocket expenditure as a share of total health spending		Unmet care needs during COVID-19	Private expenditure on education (primary to tertiary)		Enrolment rate at age 4 (in early childhood and primary education)		First-time tertiary enrolment rates under 25		People can access and afford civil justice		Alternative dispute resolution mechanisms are accessible, impartial and effective	
Australia	1	→	19	↑	n.a.	34	↓	24	↑	n.a.		22	↑	11	→
Austria	2	→	20	→	4	7	↓	15	↑	15	→	9	↑	23	→
Belgium	3	→	23	→	16	8	→	4	→	7	↑	7	↑	10	→
Canada	1	→	14	→	n.a.	26	→	n.a.		n.a.		23	↑	20	→
Chile	9	→	34	↑	n.a.	35	↑	27	↑	1	↑	16	↓	21	→
Colombia	6	↓	15	↑	n.a.	31	↑	30	↑	26	↑	24	↑	25	→
Czech Republic	1	→	12	→	8	12	↑	23	↑	13	↓	18	→	9	→
Denmark	1	→	10	→	3	2	↑	2	↑	12	↓	3	↑	5	→
Estonia	8	→	28	↓	7	9	→	20	→	22	↑	8	↑	2	→
Finland	1	→	21	→	2	1	→	28	↑	20	↑	13	↑	17	→
France	2	→	1	→	9	16	→	1	→	n.a.		17	↑	6	→
Germany	2	→	7	→	1	17	→	11	↓	17	→	2	↑	8	→
Greece	1	↑	35	→	6	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.		19	↑	22	→
Hungary	10	↓	29	↑	21	19	↑	10	↑	n.a.		26	↑	28	→
Iceland	1	→	16	↑	n.a.	6	→	7	→	21	↓	n.a.		n.a.	
Ireland	1	→	6	↑	10	20	↓	1	↑	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Israel	1	→	25	↑	n.a.	25	↑	3	↓	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Italy	1	→	27	↓	15	14	↓	13	↓	16	↑	21	↑	26	→
Japan	1	→	8	→	n.a.	30	↓	9	→	n.a.		10	↑	3	→
Korea	1	→	33	↑	n.a.	29	↑	16		n.a.		15	↓	4	→
Latvia	1	↑	36	→	18	13	↓	17	↑	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Lithuania	5	↑	32	→	20	15	→	26		6	↑	n.a.		n.a.	
Luxembourg	n.a.		2	→	12	4		8	↓	27	↓	n.a.		n.a.	
Mexico	13	↓	37	→	n.a.	22	↑	22	↑	18	↑	29	↓	29	→
Netherlands	2	→	3	→	11	23	→	12	↓	11	↑	1	→	7	→
New Zealand	1	→	9	→	n.a.	28	→	18	↓	14	↓	6	→	14	→
Norway	1	→	13	→	n.a.	3	↓	6	→	8	↑	12	↑	1	→
Poland	11	↑	24	↑	17	11	→	25	↑	3	↓	20	→	18	→
Portugal	1	→	31	↓	19	21	↑	19	↑	9	→	14	↑	12	→
Slovak Republic	7	→	22	→	5	18	↑	29	↑	24	↓	n.a.		n.a.	
Slovenia	1	→	5	↑	14	10	→	21	↑	4	↓	11	↑	19	→
Spain	1	→	26	→	15	24	↓	5	→	5	↑	5	↑	13	→
Sweden	1	→	11	↑	13	5	→	14	→	23	↑	4	↑	15	→
Switzerland	1	→	30	↓	n.a.	n.a.		32	↑	25	↑	n.a.		n.a.	
Turkey	4	→	18	→	n.a.	27	↓	33	↑	2	↑	25	↑	27	→
United Kingdom	1	→	17	↓	n.a.	33	↓	1	↑	10	↑	27	↓	16	→
United States	12	↑	4	→	n.a.	32	→	31	↑	19	↓	28	↑	24	→
Year	2018	2014	2018	2014	2020	2017	2013	2017	2013	2018	2013	2020	2016	2020	2016

Note: Countries are listed in alphabetical order. The number in the cell indicates the position of each country among all countries for which data are available. For health care coverage countries were clustered as follows: green, 95-100% health care coverage; orange, 90-95% coverage; and red, less than 90% coverage. Data on health care coverage for Japan and the Slovak Republic are for 2017 instead of 2018. Data for Greece are for 2015 instead of 2014. Unmet care needs during COVID-19 refers to the proportion of people who reported that they forewent health care appointments or treatment since the start of the pandemic. In Australia, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States, the high share of private expenditure on education is associated with a large share of students receiving loans and scholarships. Data for private expenditure on education for Greece are from 2015. For access and affordability of civil justice and alternative dispute resolution mechanisms indicators, improvement (decline) entails an increase (decrease) of 0.1 points in the index. Details on data for other indicators are provided in the corresponding sections

Countries are ranked in ascending order, except in OOP expenditure as a share of total health spending, unmet care needs during COVID-19, and private expenditures on education, for which they are ranked in descending order.

Source: OECD (2020), *OECD Health Statistics* (database); Eurofound (2020), *Living, Working and COVID-19*; OECD (2020) *Education at a Glance* (database); World Justice Project (2020) *Rule of Law Index 2020*.

Serving citizens scorecards

Scorecard 2. Responsiveness of services

Performance one standard deviation above (below) the mean.
Performance within one standard deviation from the mean.
Performance one standard deviation below (above) the mean.

Countries are listed in alphabetical order. The number in the cell indicates the position of each country among all countries for which data are available. Arrows indicate whether absolute performance has improved (↑), declined (↓) or remained stable (→).

	Health care						Education						Justice					
	Doctor often or always explains things in a way that is easy to understand	Got same or next-day appointment with doctor last time needed care		Median waiting times for cataract surgery			NEET aged 15-29 years		Index of shortage of educational material		School staff help students with homework		Disposition time for civil and commercial litigious cases		Disposition time for civil and commercial non-litigious cases		Disposition time for administrative cases	
Australia	1	3	↓	11	↑		14	↑	3	→	3	↑	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Austria	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.			8	↑	16	↓	35	↑	5	↓	7	↑	19	
Belgium	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.			16	↑	20	↑	19	↑	n.a.		n.a.		14	↑
Canada	4	9	↓	7	↓		21	↑	2	→	5	↑	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Chile	n.a.	n.a.		12	↓		30	↑	13	↓	31	↑	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Colombia	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.			34	↓	37	→	36	→	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Czech Republic	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.			18	↑	24	↓	22	↓	7	↑	12	↑	17	→
Denmark	n.a.	n.a.		3	↑		10	→	8	↑	8	↓	12	↓	9	↓	n.a.	
Estonia	n.a.	n.a.		15	↓		17	↑	22	↓	21	↑	6	↓	10	↓	4	↑
Finland	n.a.	n.a.		12	↑		11	↑	23	→	11	↑	16	↑	8	↑	10	↑
France	2	5	↓	n.a.			25	↑	10	↑	14	↑	21	↓	16	↓	12	↑
Germany	5	1	↑	n.a.			7	↑	27	↓	25	↑	13	↓	n.a.		18	↓
Greece	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.			31	↓	35	↓	28	↓	23	↓	n.a.		21	
Hungary	n.a.	n.a.		2	↑		26	↑	32	↑	16	↑	8	↓	2	↑	2	↑
Iceland	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.			6	↑	11	↓	10	↑	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Ireland	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.			23	↑	25	↑	23	↑	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Israel	n.a.	n.a.		9			24	↑	28	↑	15	↑	19		n.a.		1	
Italy	n.a.	n.a.		1	↓		33	↓	29	↑	32	↑	22	→	18	↓	22	↑
Japan	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.			n.a.		36	→	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Korea	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.			n.a.		30	→	34	↓	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Latvia	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.			13	↑	15	↓	13	↑	15	↑	3	↑	11	↓
Lithuania	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.			20	→	21	↑	7	↑	1	↑	1	↓	5	↑
Luxembourg	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.			3	↑	5	↑	9	↓	2	↑	n.a.		n.a.	
Mexico	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.			32	↑	33	→	30	↑	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Netherlands	4	2	↓	5			2	↑	9	↑	18	↑	3	↑	5		8	↓
New Zealand	1	4	↓	10	↓		19	↑	12	↑	6	↑	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Norway	5	8	↓	14	↓		5	↑	18	→	24	↑	11	→	17	↓	n.a.	
Poland	n.a.	n.a.		16	↑		22	↑	14	↓	12	↑	16	↓	4	↓	3	↑
Portugal	n.a.	n.a.		13	↓		12	↑	34	↓	17	↓	14		n.a.		23	
Slovak Republic	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.			29	→	31	↓	27	↓	9	↑	13	↑	15	↓
Slovenia	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.			9	→	17	↓	26	↑	17	↓	11	↑	16	↓
Spain	n.a.	n.a.		8	↑		28	↑	26	→	29	↑	20	↓	15	↓	13	↑
Sweden	7	10	↓	4			4	↑	6	↑	1	↑	10	↓	14	↓	6	↓
Switzerland	3	5	↓	n.a.			1	↑	7	↓	20	↑	4	↑	n.a.		9	↑
Turkey	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.			35	↑	1	↑	33	→	18	↓	6		7	↑
United Kingdom	6	6	↓	6	↓		15	↑	19	→	2	→	n.a.		n.a.		20	↓
United States	3	7	↓	n.a.			27	↑	4	↑	4	→	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Year	2017	2020	2016	2019	2014		2020	2009	2018	2015	2018	2015	2018	2014	2018	2014	2018	2014

Note: The index of shortage of educational material is based on school principals' perception. For the index of shortage of educational material, an improvement implies that the country moved up two positions in the ranking and a decline implies that the country moved down two positions. Details on data for other indicators are provided in the corresponding sections.
Countries are ranked in ascending order, except in median waiting times for cataract surgery, NEET aged 15-29 years, index of shortage of education material, disposition time for litigious civil and commercial cases, disposition time for non-litigious civil and commercial cases, and disposition time for administrative cases, for which they are ranked in descending order.
Source: Commonwealth Fund Health Policy Survey (2016 and 2020); *OECD Health Statistics* (database); *OECD Education at a Glance* (database); OECD (2015 and 2018) *PISA* (database); CEPEJ (2020), *European Commission for the Efficiency of Justice* (database).

Scorecard 3. Quality of services

Performance one standard deviation above (below) the mean.
Performance within one standard deviation from the mean.
Performance one standard deviation below (above) the mean.

Countries are listed in alphabetical order. The number in the cell indicates the position of each country among all countries for which data are available. Arrows indicate whether absolute performance has improved (↑), declined (↓) or remained stable (→).

	Health care					Education					Justice					
	Diabetes hospitalisation		30-day mortality following stroke hospitalisation		5-year breast cancer survival rate (all stages)	PISA mean reading score		Share of students below level 2 proficiency in reading		Percentage variation of reading performance explained by socio-economic background	Civil justice is effectively enforced		Civil justice is free from improper government influence		People do not resort to violence to redress personal grievances	
Australia	21	↓	13	↑	2	12	→	15	→	12	12	→	3	→	8	→
Austria	25	↑	15	↑	16	22	→	23	→	23	7	→	6	→	5	→
Belgium	20	↑	22	↑	10	17	→	20	→	32	8	→	6	→	10	→
Canada	13	→	19	↑	5	2	→	4	↓	3	10	→	4	→	6	→
Chile	18	↑	23	↑	n.a.	34	→	34	→	21	20	→	15	→	16	→
Colombia	6	↑	14	↓	n.a.	36	↓	36	↓	27	26	→	18	→	17	→
Czech Republic	26	↑	28	↑	20	20	→	18	→	30	18	→	12	→	8	→
Denmark	14	↑	7	↑	12	13	→	7	→	11	6	→	2	→	2	→
Estonia	16	↑	25		21	1	→	1	→	1	14	→	8	→	7	→
Finland	17	↑	21	↑	6	3	→	3	↓	9	3	→	3	→	4	→
France	23	↑	17	↑	n.a.	18	→	19	→	34	11	→	10	→	12	→
Germany	28	↑	12	↑	13	15	→	17	↓	31	4	→	3	→	8	→
Greece	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	33	→	31	→	16	25	→	16	→	13	→
Hungary	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	26	→	27	→	36	28	→	21	↓	5	→
Iceland	1	↓	4	↑	n.a.	28	→	29	↓	2	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Ireland	11	↑	20	↑	19	4	→	2	→	15	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Israel	7	↑	11	↑	7	29	→	32	↓	28	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Italy	2	↑	16	↑	13	25	→	22	→	8	29	→	14	→	14	→
Japan	n.a.		1	↑	3	11	↓	8	↓	6	13	↓	11	→	4	→
Korea	33	↑	2	↑	n.a.	5	→	6	→	7	9	→	13	→	6	→
Latvia	19	↑	34	↓	n.a.	24	→	21	↓	4	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Lithuania	30	↑	33		24	27	→	26	→	24	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Luxembourg	24	↑	24	↑	n.a.	30	↓	30	↓	35	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Mexico	34	↑	n.a.		n.a.	35	→	35	→	26	27	→	20	→	18	↓
Netherlands	5	↑	8	↑	n.a.	21	↓	25	↓	13	2	→	5	→	7	→
New Zealand	22	↑	18	↑	8	8	→	12	→	22	16	→	7	→	8	→
Norway	10	↑	3	↑	9	14	↓	14	↓	5	5	→	1	→	1	→
Poland	29	↑	32	↑	22	6	→	5	→	18	23	→	19	↓	3	→
Portugal	4	↑	30	↑	8	19	→	16	→	25	24	→	10	→	6	→
Slovak Republic	31	↑	29	↑	23	32	→	33	→	33	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Slovenia	15	↑	31	↑	17	16	↓	10	↓	20	19	→	17	→	1	→
Spain	3	↑	27	↑	15	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	22	→	15	→	9	→
Sweden	12	↑	10	↑	n.a.	7	→	11	→	14	1	→	3	→	8	→
Switzerland	8	↓	9	↑	11	23	→	24	→	29	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Turkey	32		5		18	31	↑	28	↑	17	21	→	22	→	15	→
United Kingdom	9	↓	26	↑	14	10	→	9	→	10	15	→	9	→	8	→
United States	27	↑	6		1	9	→	13	→	19	17	→	14	→	11	→
Year	2017	2012	2017	2007	2010-2014	2018	2015	2018	2015	2018	2020	2016	2020	2016	2020	2016

Note: For five-year breast-cancer survival rates, data for the Czech Republic and Iceland are for 2004-09 instead of 2010-14. Data for Italy, Germany, Japan, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States cover less than 100% of the national population. Level 2 proficiency in reading indicates that students are able to identify the main idea in a text of moderate length, find information based on explicit, though sometimes complex, criteria, and reflect on the purpose and form of texts when explicitly directed to do so. For the PISA mean score in reading, the share of students below level 2 proficiency in reading and the percentage variation of reading performance explained by socio-economic level, only countries for which the difference in mean scores between 2018 and 2015 is statistically significant are shown as improving/declining. For the indicators civil justice is effectively enforced, civil justice is free from improper government influence and people do not resort to violence to redress personal grievances, an improvement (decline) entails an increase (decrease) of 0.1 points in the index. Details on data for other indicators are provided in the corresponding sections.
Countries are ranked in ascending order, except in diabetes hospitalisation, 30-day mortality following stroke hospitalisation, share of students below level 2 proficiency in reading, and percentage variation in reading performance explained by socioeconomic background, for which they are ranked in descending order.
Source: OECD Health Statistics (database); OECD (2018) *PISA* (database); World Justice Project (2020) *Rule of Law Index 2020*.

Satisfaction with services

Public services such as health care, education and justice were greatly affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. The way schools, courts and hospitals operate – the frontline institutions where people have a direct experience of public services – changed dramatically in most countries due to lockdown restrictions. Teachers, physicians and judges switched to working remotely overnight while health care systems worldwide were put under stress due to the extent of the health crisis.

Most OECD countries have surveys to monitor users' satisfaction with services, although they may cover different services and questions. The Gallup World Poll regularly collects data on citizens' satisfaction with a range of public services worldwide. Although there are many contextual and cultural factors that can influence responses to opinion polls, the dataset allows citizens' perceptions to be compared over time and across OECD countries.

Satisfaction with health care averaged 71% across OECD countries in 2020, similar to 2010 levels. There are wide variations between countries, with citizens in Norway (93%), Belgium and the Netherlands (both 92%) being the most satisfied, while those in Poland (26%), Greece (38%) and Chile (39%) were the least. Finland had the largest increase in satisfaction with health care over that period (19 p.p.) while Estonia (17 p.p.) and Israel (12 p.p.) also had large increases. In comparison, Poland experienced the largest decline (22 p.p.) in satisfaction with health care (Figure 14.1).

On average, 68% of citizens in OECD countries reported being satisfied with the education system in 2020, a 1 p.p. increase since 2010. Norway (92%), Finland (87%) and Slovenia (86%) had the highest satisfaction levels and Turkey (27%), Greece (36%) and Chile (43%) the lowest. Estonia (16 p.p.) experienced the largest increase in satisfaction with education since 2010, due to efforts to increase the uptake of digital education, which facilitated the transition to online learning at the beginning of the pandemic (OECD, 2020a). Slovenia (15 p.p.) and Norway (14 p.p.) also had large increases in satisfaction, while Turkey had the largest decline, of 35 p.p. from 2010 (Figure 14.2). Not all students in Turkey had the same opportunities for remote learning during the pandemic: on average, in normal times, schools had only one computer for every four students, and a large proportion of students from disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds did not have access to a computer at home (OECD, 2020b).

Confidence in the judiciary reached 57% on average across the OECD in 2020, which represents a 6 p.p. increase since 2010. Lithuania (35 p.p.) experienced the largest increases in confidence in the judiciary from 2010. The country has the shortest disposition times for civil and commercial cases (see the two-pager "Timeliness of civil justice systems"). Portugal (23 p.p.) and the Czech Republic (21 p.p.) also had large increases in confidence in the judiciary. Turkey saw the largest decrease in confidence in the judiciary (22 p.p.), followed by Chile (19 p.p.) (Figure 14.3).

Methodology and definitions

Data were collected by Gallup World Poll, generally based on a representative sample of 1 000 citizens in each country. For 2020, data were collected from July onwards. More information about this survey is available at *www.gallup.com/home.aspx*.

The level of satisfaction with health care/education is based on the proportion of respondents who answered "satisfied" to "In the city or area where you live, are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the availability of quality health care/ with the educational system or the schools?"

The level of confidence in the judicial system is expressed as the proportion of respondents who answered "yes" to "In this country, do you have confidence in each of the following, or not? How about the judicial system and courts?"

Further reading

OECD/European Union (2020), *Health at a Glance: Europe 2020: State of Health in the EU Cycle*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/82129230-en*.

OECD (2020a), "Education Policy Outlook in Estonia", *OECD Education Policy Perspectives*, No. 13, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/9d472195-en*.

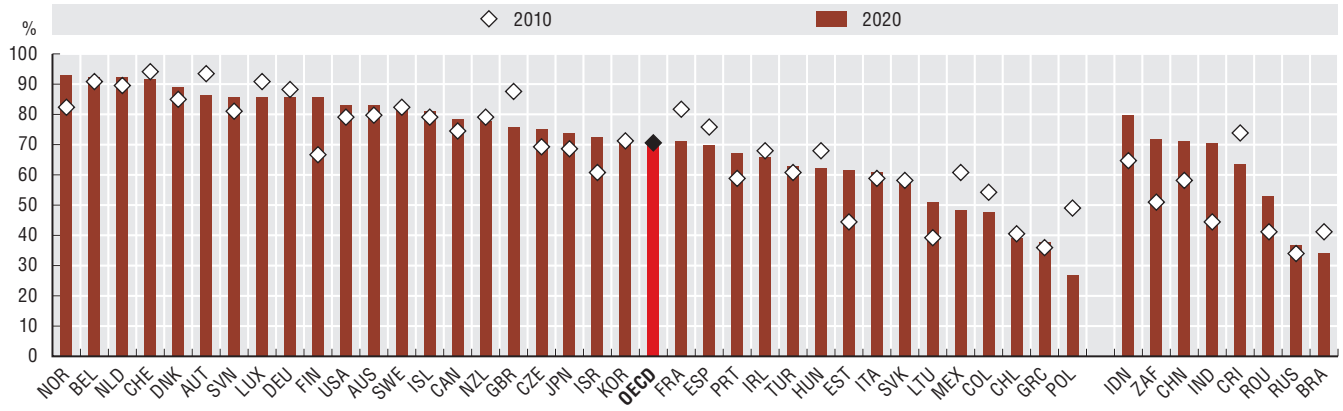
OECD (2020b), PISA 2018 *Results (Volume V): Effective Policies, Successful Schools*, PISA, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/ca768d40-en*.

Figure notes

Data for Estonia are for 2011 instead of 2010. Data for Iceland, Norway and Switzerland are for 2012 instead of 2010. Data for the Czech Republic are for 2018 instead of 2020. Data for Costa Rica, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Israel, Korea, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Romania are for 2019 instead of 2020.

G.40. (Citizen confidence in the police, 2010 and 2020) is available online in Annex G.

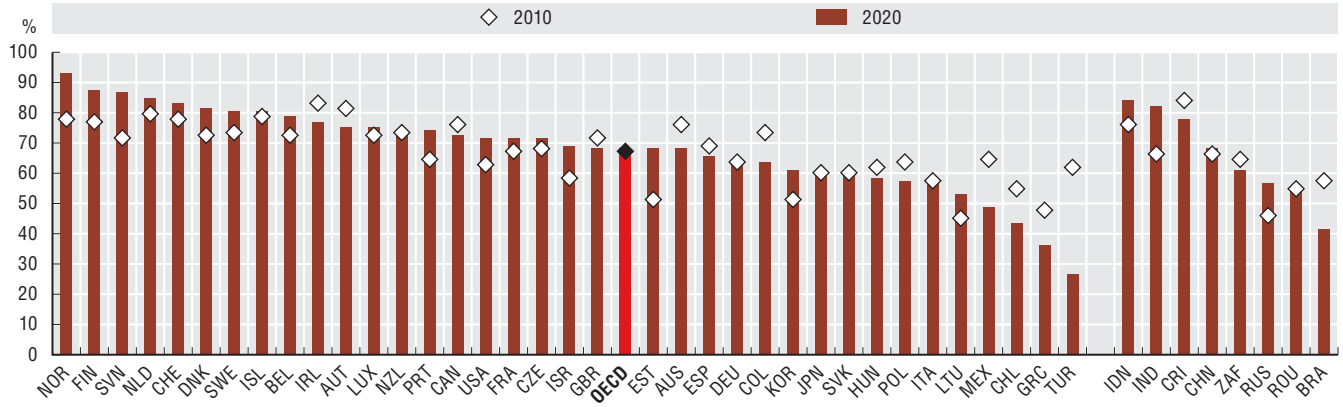
14.1. Citizen satisfaction with the health care system, 2010 and 2020



Source: Gallup World Poll 2020 (database).

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259408

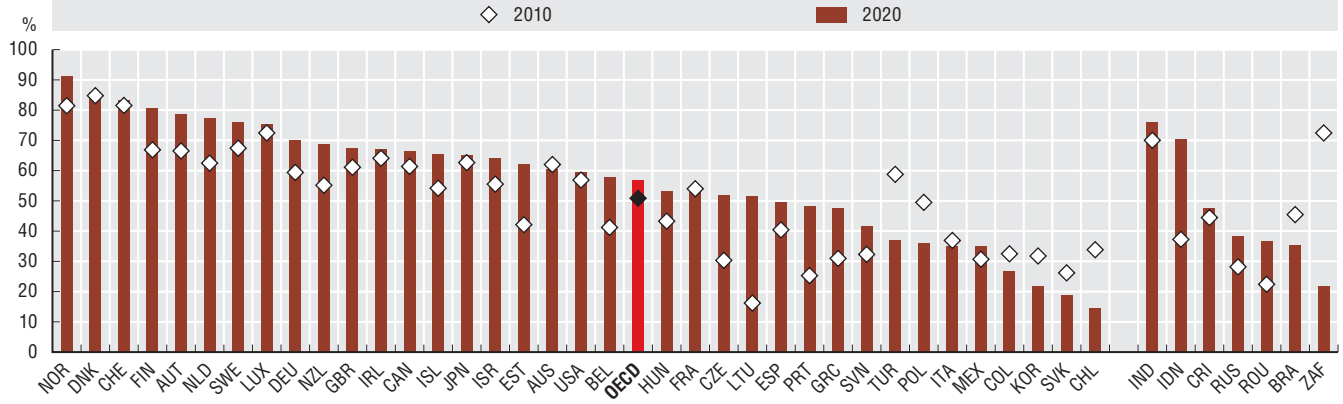
14.2. Citizen satisfaction with the education system and schools, 2010 and 2020



Source: Gallup World Poll 2020 (database).

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259427

14.3. Citizen confidence in the judiciary system and the courts, 2010 and 2020



Source: Gallup World Poll 2020 (database).

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259446

Access to health care

Although most OECD countries have achieved universal (or near universal) coverage for a core set of health services, which usually include consultations with doctors and hospital care, some affordability and accessibility issues can still hinder the use of health services.

High costs of treatment can hinder access to care, or cause financial hardship when using health services. The share of a country's health system financed through out-of-pocket (OOP) payments provides a broad sense of the degree of financial protection offered by a health system. In 2018, on average, 20% of total health care spending came from out-of-pocket payments, a proportion that has remained stable since 2014. France (9%), Luxembourg (10%), the Netherlands and the United States (both 11%) were the countries with the smallest share of OOP expenditure, while Mexico (41%), Latvia (39%) and Greece (36%) had the largest share. Poland has seen the largest decrease in OOP payments as a share of total health spending (-3 percentage points), although it remains slightly above the OECD average. In contrast, this proportion has remained relatively stable for most other OECD countries (Figure 14.4).

The levels of unmet medical needs increased in 2020. For example, the Commonwealth Fund International Health Policy Surveys found that, on average across 11 OECD countries, 14.5% of people experienced financial issues in accessing health care (i.e. skipped doctor visits, tests, treatments, follow-up, or prescription medicines) in 2016. In 2020, this proportion increased to 15.8% (Doty et al., 2020). According to the Eurofound Living, Working and COVID-19 survey, carried out in the summer of 2020, on average 22% of respondents had some unmet medical care needs during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic in OECD EU countries. People in Hungary, Lithuania (37% each), and Portugal (35%) reported the highest share of unmet needs, about three times the share in Germany, Finland and Denmark (Figure 14.5). In countries with available information, the main reason for foregoing treatment was cancelled appointments due to the pandemic (91% in Lithuania and 88% in Hungary, for instance).

Online and telephone consultations played a prominent role in providing health care during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic in the spring of 2020. On average, 47% of respondents in OECD EU countries received medical prescriptions (e.g. for pharmaceuticals) online or by telephone and 32% had medical consultations by those means. Hungary (66%), Italy (60%) and the Slovak Republic (57%) had the largest share of respondents receiving prescriptions online or by phone, while France (27%), Greece (28%) and Germany (31%) had the smallest. Spain (48%), Slovenia (44%) and Lithuania (41%) had the largest share of people who reported having had online or telephone consultations, and Germany (17%), France (22%) and Italy (23%) had the lowest (Figure 14.6).

Methodology and definitions

OOP payments are costs that patients cover directly from their income when medical services or treatments are not included in the collectively financed benefit package of public or private health insurance schemes or are only partially included (co-payments). They also include estimates of informal payments to health care providers in some countries.

Data on unmet care needs and access to online and telephone medical services come from Eurofound's Living, Working and COVID-19 survey, which was conducted online in two rounds, the first in April, 2020 and the second in July, 2020. The survey covered 27 EU member countries, and collected 87 477 responses, using a non-probability (snowball) sampling method and then weighted according to the characteristics of the population (age, gender, education and self-defined urbanisation level).

Further reading

Doty, M. et al. (2020), "Income-related inequalities in affordability and access to primary care in eleven high-income countries", Commonwealth Fund website, *www.commonwealthfund.org/publications/surveys/2020/dec/2020-international-survey-income-related-inequalities*.

Eurofound (2020), *Living, Working and COVID-19*, COVID-19 Series, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, *www.eurofound.europa.eu/publications/report/2020/living-working-and-covid-19*.

OECD/European Union (2020), *Health at a Glance: Europe 2020: State of Health in the EU Cycle*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/82129230-en*.

Oliveira Hashiguchi, T. (2020), "Bringing health care to the patient: An overview of the use of telemedicine in OECD countries", *OECD Health Working Papers*, No. 116, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/8e56ede7-en*.

Figure notes

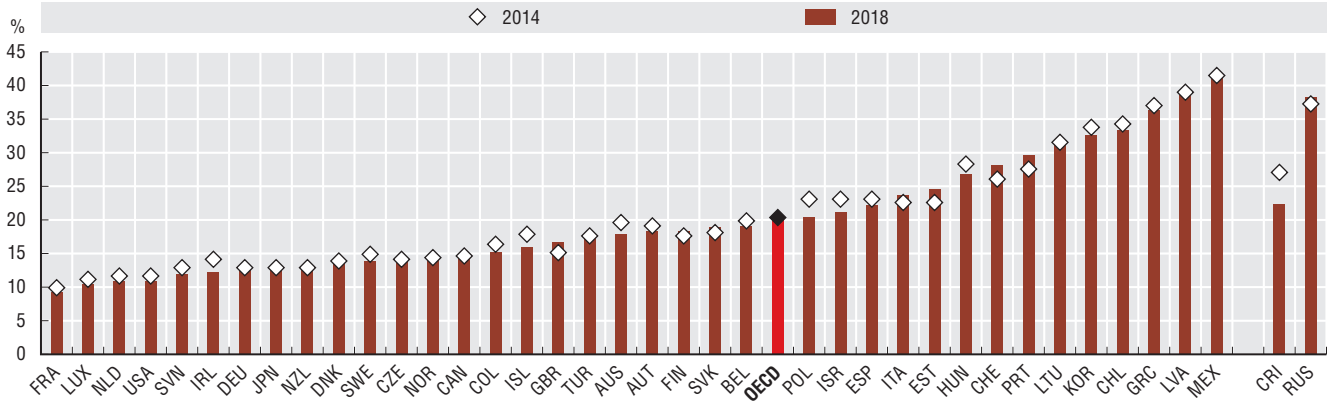
14.4. Data for Australia are for 2017 instead of 2018. Countries are listed in ascending order from the lowest to the highest share of voluntary and OOP payments.

14.5 and 14.6 only cover OECD EU countries.

14.5. The data on unmet care needs show the percentage who answered yes to "Since the pandemic began, did you need a medical examination or treatment that you have not received?".

14.6. Percentage who answered "yes" to "Since the pandemic began, have you received any of the following services from a doctor?"

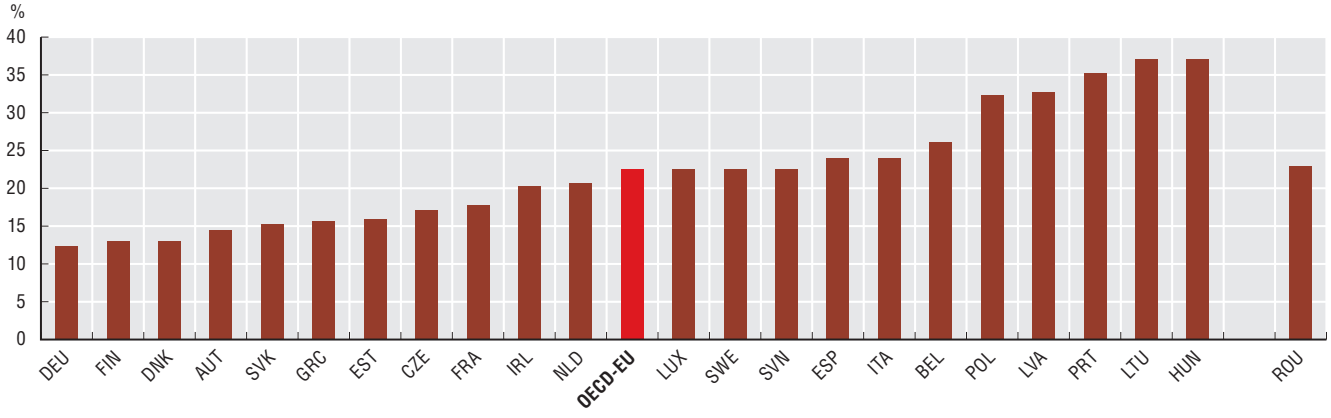
14.4. Out-of-pocket payments as a share of total health spending, 2014 and 2018



Source: OECD (2020) *Health Statistics* (database).

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259465

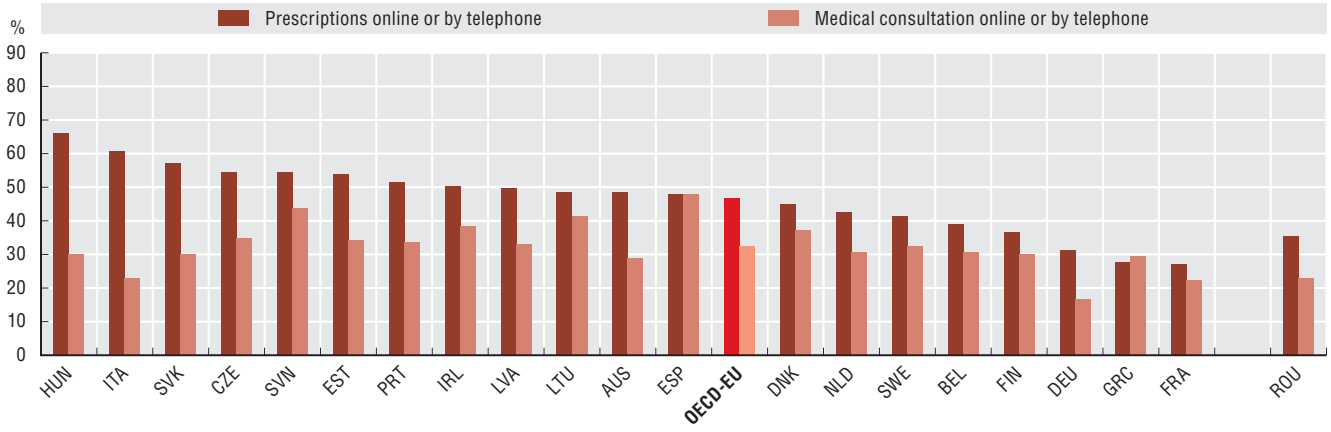
14.5. Percentage of people who forewent health care needs since the start of the pandemic, 2020



Source: Eurofound (2020), *Living, Working and COVID-19*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259484

14.6. People receiving telephone and online health care services since the start of the pandemic, 2020



Source: Eurofound (2020), *Living, Working and COVID-19*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259503

Access to education

Education systems in OECD countries ensure universal access to primary and secondary education. Yet, more people than ever before are participating in educational programmes beyond compulsory education, and many governments are having difficulties in financing such demand through public funds alone (OECD, 2020).

In 2017, across the OECD, 17% of funds for pre-primary and 29% for tertiary education came from private (i.e. all non-government sources) sources. The share was just 10% for primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education levels (including vocational training). Luxembourg (2%), Belgium (3%) and Latvia (4%) have the smallest shares of private funding for pre-primary education, while Australia (34%), the United Kingdom (41%) and Japan (49%) have the largest. For primary to post-secondary non-tertiary education, Finland, Norway (1% each) and Denmark (2%) have the smallest shares of private funding, while Colombia (35%), Turkey (27%) and Australia (19%) have the largest (Figure 14.7).

Some countries have a policy of charging low tuition fees for tertiary education, such as Denmark and Finland. In these two countries, the share of private funding of education is low (1% and 4% respectively). Others charge high tuition fees so the share of private funding is larger, such as the United Kingdom (71% privately funded), Japan (69%) and the United States (65%) (Figure 14.7). Some of the countries where a larger share of funding comes from private sources provide financial support through public-to-private transfers (e.g. in the form of scholarships, loans and grants to students), including Australia, Ireland, Korea, New Zealand and the United Kingdom (OECD, 2020).

Early childhood education has become a priority for OECD countries. On average in 2018, 88% of 4-year-olds and 78% of 3-year-olds were enrolled in education, which represents an increase from 2005, when only 69% of these age groups were enrolled in any programme. Belgium, Denmark, France, Israel, Spain, and the United Kingdom have reached around 100% enrolment for 3-4 year-olds. Other countries have lower enrolment rates for 3-year-olds, including Switzerland (2%) and Turkey (10%), although the proportion increases for children aged 4 (49% for Switzerland and 39% for Turkey) (Figure 14.8).

During the COVID-19 pandemic, most countries enforced school closures for some part of the 2020 and 2021 school years. Countries used a variety of remote learning resources, including radio and television education, and instructional packages. Almost all OECD countries used online learning platforms (Schleicher, 2020) accessed from smartphones, tablets or computers. In 2018, 89% of students on average in OECD countries had access to a computer at home. In Denmark (98%), Poland (96%) and the Netherlands (95%) nearly all students had a computer, while in Mexico (57%), Colombia (62%), and Turkey (67%) a significant share did not. These latter three countries also had large socio-economic disparities: in disadvantaged schools only 24% of students in Mexico, 33% in Colombia and 40% in Turkey had access to a computer (Figure 14.9).

Methodology and definitions

Data for funding and enrolment come from the UNESCO-OECD-Eurostat (UOE) data collection on education statistics. Private spending includes all direct expenditure on educational institutions, whether partially covered by public subsidies or not. The classification of education levels follows the 2011 International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED). Early childhood education (ISCED 0) includes two types of programmes: early childhood educational development (ISCED 01) and pre-primary (ISCED 02). Enrolment rates are expressed as net enrolment rates, which are calculated by dividing the number of students of a particular age group enrolled in all levels of education by the total population of that age group. Generally, figures are based on head counts and do not distinguish between full-time and part-time study.

Data on students' learning environments come from the student questionnaire of the 2018 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). A socio-economically disadvantaged (advantaged) school is a school in the bottom (top) quarter of the PISA index of economic, social and cultural status (ESCS) in the relevant country/economy.

Further reading

OECD (2020), *Education at a Glance 2020: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/69096873-en*.

Schleicher, A. (2020) *The Impact of COVID-19 on Education: Insights from Education at a Glance 2020*, OECD, *www.oecd.org/education/the-impact-of-covid-19-on-education-insights-education-at-a-glance-2020.pdf*.

Ikeda, M. (2020), "Were schools equipped to teach – and were students ready to learn – remotely?" *PISA in Focus*, No. 108, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/4bcd7938-en*.

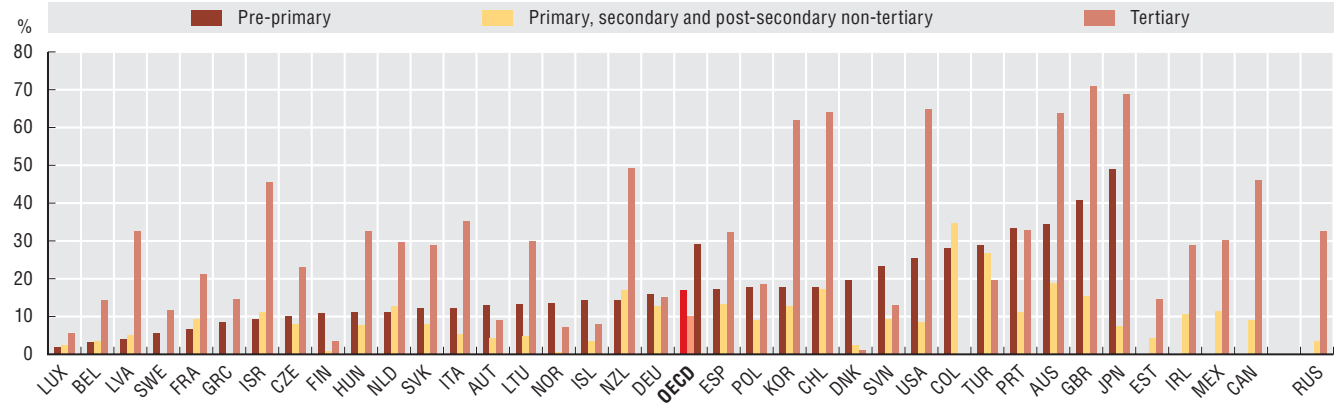
Figure notes

14.7. Data for Switzerland are missing. Data for Estonia, Ireland and Mexico for pre-primary are missing. Data for Colombia are for 2018 instead of 2017. Primary education in Canada includes pre-primary.

14.8. Data for Canada and Greece are missing. Data for the United States exclude ISCED 01 programmes. Data for South Africa refer to 2017 instead of 2018.

14.9. Data for China cover Beijing, Shanghai, Jiangsu and Zhejiang only.

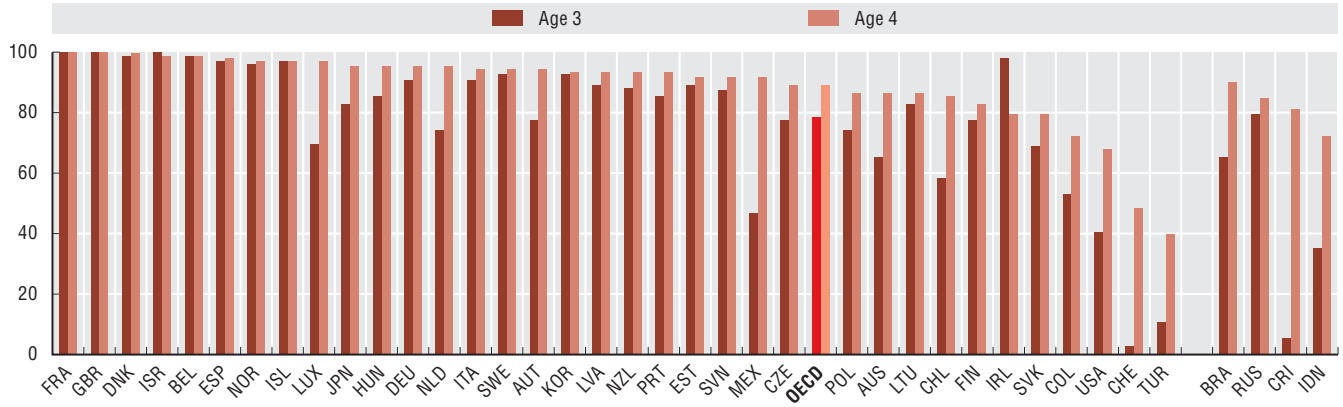
14.7. Share of private expenditures on education after transfers as a share of total spending on education, 2017



Source: OECD (2020), *Education at a Glance 2020: OECD Indicators*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259522

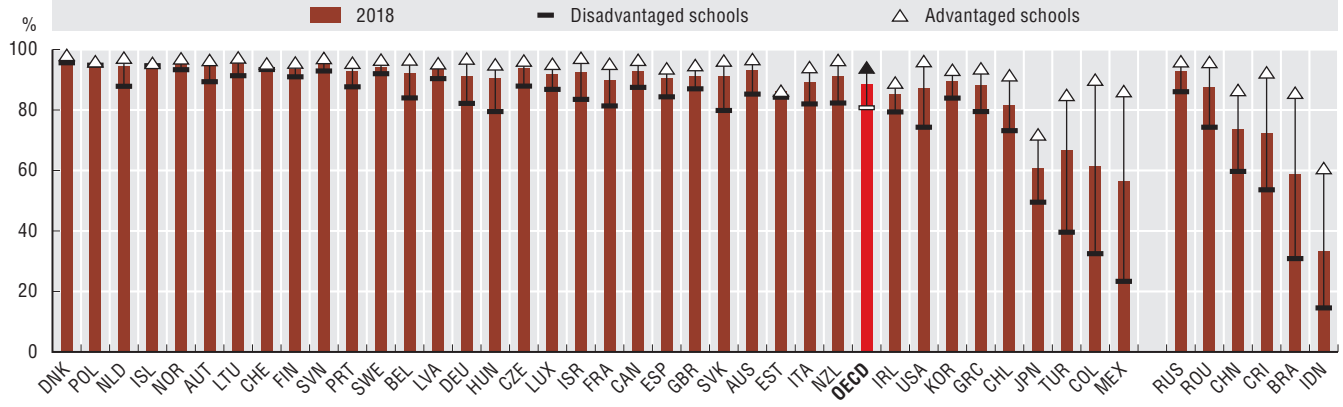
14.8. Enrolment rate at age 3 and 4 in early childhood and pre-primary education, 2018



Source: OECD (2020), *Education at a Glance 2020: OECD Indicators*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259541

14.9. Percentage of students with access to a computer to do homework at home, 2018



Source: OECD (2020), *PISA 2018 Results (Volume V): Effective Policies, Successful Schools*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259560

Access to justice

Access to justice is defined as the ability of individuals and businesses to seek and obtain a just resolution of legal problems through a wide range of legal and justice services. These services include legal information, counsel and representation, formal (e.g. courts) and alternative dispute resolution, and enforcement mechanisms (OECD, 2019). Emphasis should also be placed on legal empowerment, which enables people's meaningful participation in the justice system and builds their capability to understand and use the law for themselves (OECD, 2019). The rule of law requires impartial and non-discriminatory justice. Without equal access, a large portion of the population can be left behind and their vulnerabilities exposed.

During the COVID-19 pandemic, many legal advice services that helped users of the court system navigate the system effectively were affected by lockdown measures. Providers of such services were not always equipped to operate virtually during the pandemic. However, many countries were able to switch to digital means: Greece, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Latvia, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States, among others, carried out fully virtual trials. In Canada and Mexico, mediators used videoconferencing software to carry out employment and civil mediations (OECD, 2020).

On average, OECD countries scored 0.65 out of a maximum of 1 in the *accessibility and affordability of civil justice* dimension of the 2020 World Justice Project (WJP) Rule of Law index, an increase of 0.03 points since 2016. The Netherlands (0.80), Germany (0.79), Denmark and Sweden (0.76 each) had the highest scores. The greatest increases between 2016 and 2020 were in Estonia, Turkey (0.08 points each), Austria, Greece and Sweden (0.07 each) (Figure 14.10). Estonia has one of the most digitalised court systems, which allowed the courts to continue working even during the COVID-19 pandemic. The Council for Administration of Courts, a non-permanent body whose members are predominantly judges, plays an important role in managing the justice system. It issued recommendations to further the digitalisation of the court system during the emergency (European Commission, 2020). Other countries also issued decrees and regulations to facilitate the digitalisation of court systems during lockdown. For instance, in Spain, Royal Decree 16/2020 gave preference to digital means for conducting judicial proceedings.

On average, in 2020, OECD countries scored 0.78 points in the *accessibility, impartiality and effectiveness of alternative dispute resolution (ADR) mechanisms* dimension of the Rule of Law Index, a decrease of 0.01 points since 2016. Norway (0.90), Estonia (0.89) and Japan (0.88) had the highest scores. Estonia had the largest increase (0.08) between 2010 and 2020 (Figure 14.11).

Methodology and definitions

The World Justice Project collects data via a set of questionnaires based on the Rule of Law Index's conceptual framework. The questionnaires are administered to representative samples of the general public and to legal experts who frequently interact with their national state institutions. For the general population, a probability sample of 1 000 respondents in each of the 136 countries is selected while on average 30 experts per country are surveyed. All questionnaires are administered by leading local polling companies. Each dimension of the index is scored from 0 to 1; a higher score means a better performance on the dimension. For more information, see *https://worldjusticeproject.org/our-work/wjp-rule-law-index*.

Accessibility and affordability of civil justice is gauged by considering aspects such as people's awareness of available remedies, and affordability of legal advice and representation. *Accessibility, impartiality and effectiveness of alternative dispute resolution mechanisms* is gauged by considering costs, timeliness and effective enforcement of arbitral awards.

Further reading

OECD (2020), "Access to justice and the COVID-19 pandemic", *OECD Policy Responses to Coronavirus (COVID-19)*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/09a621ad-en*.

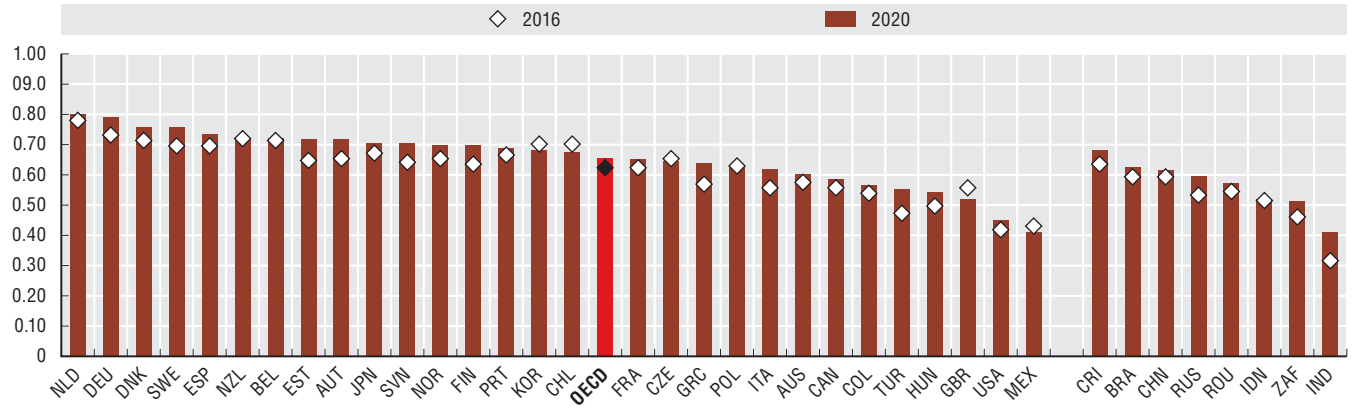
OECD (2019), *Equal Access to Justice for Inclusive Growth: Putting People at the Centre*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/597f5b7f-en*.

European Commission (2020), "2020 Rule of Law Report: Country chapter on the rule of law situation in Estonia", *Commission Staff Working Document*, SWD (2020) 305, European Commission, Brussels, *https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/ee_rol_country_chapter.pdf*.

Figure notes

Data for Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Slovak Republic and Switzerland are not available.

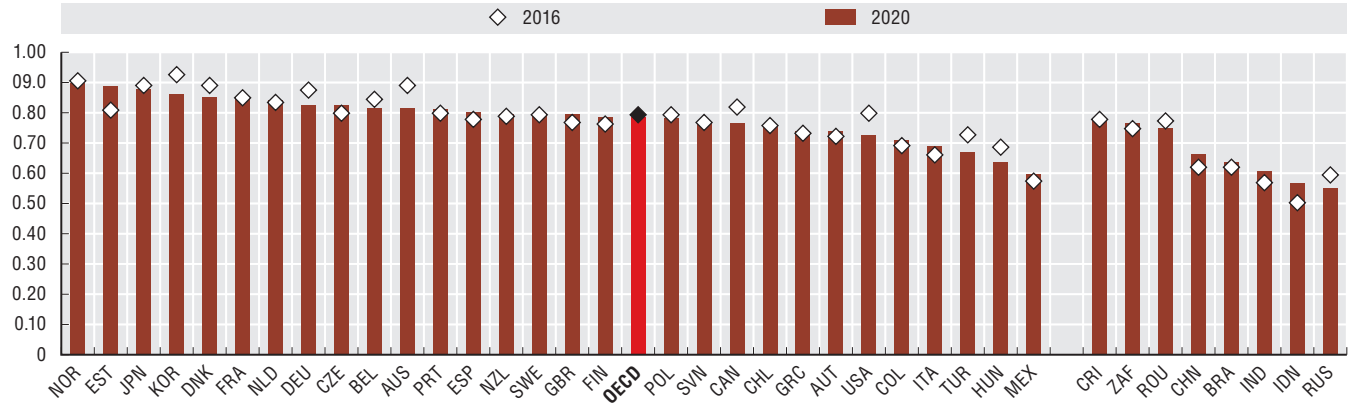
14.10. People can access and afford civil justice, 2016 and 2020



Source: World Justice Project (2020), *Rule of Law Index 2020*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259579

14.11. Alternative dispute resolution mechanisms are accessible, impartial and effective, 2016 and 2020



Source: World Justice Project (2020), *Rule of Law Index 2020*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259598

Responsiveness of health systems to patient needs

Health systems are increasingly focusing on making their services more people-centred. This includes people's experiences when interacting with health care providers, and empowering them to co-produce their health, especially with the help of digital technologies, which have democratised access to health information. Many countries collect patient-reported experience measures (PREMs) and patient-reported outcome measures (PROMs), due to their importance for improving health system performance.

PREMs measure patients' experiences of health care, while PROMs measure aspects related to their quality of life, including symptoms, functional status and physical, mental and social health. In 2018 the OECD launched the Patient-Reported Indicator Surveys (PaRIS) initiative to collect internationally comparable PREM and PROM data.

Good communication with providers helps patients play a greater role in their own health, by allowing them to make informed decisions about their care. The Commonwealth Fund International Health Policy Surveys collect data on patient experiences in 11 OECD countries. According to the 2017 round, which focused on adults aged 65 and over, a vast majority of patients reported that their doctor often or always explains things in a way that they can understand. The share ranges from 94% in Australia and New Zealand to 78% in Sweden (Figure 14.12).

Long waits for health services can worsen symptoms and have a negative impact on patient experience. In 2020, 67% of adult patients in Sweden, 62% in Canada, and 53% in Norway did not get an appointment with a doctor or a nurse the same or next day the last time they needed care. In contrast, the shares were just 25% in Germany, 34% in the Netherlands and 35% in Australia 35. Among adults who self-reported a lower income than the national average, the share was 59% in New Zealand (versus 39% for the whole population), 43% in Australia (versus 35%), and 59% in the United States (versus 51%) (Figure 14.13).

Waiting times for elective (non-urgent) surgery are generally much longer than for doctor's appointments. In 2019, the median waiting time for cataract surgery (the most frequent surgical intervention in most OECD countries nowadays) was nearly three months (87 days), a fall of 10 days from 2014. Patients in Italy (25 days), Hungary (30 days) and Denmark (36 days) had the shortest waits, while those in Poland (246 days), Estonia (148 days) had the longest. Denmark, Poland and Hungary have reduced their waiting times (in relative terms) the most: since 2014 they fell by 44% in Denmark, 41% in Poland and 31% in Hungary. In contrast, waiting times in Estonia (54%), Norway (39%) and Portugal (34%) have increased the most during this period (Figure 14.14). The pandemic is likely to increase waiting times for elective surgeries, with many rescheduled or postponed to respond to the peak in demand for intensive care for COVID-19 patients.

Methodology and definitions

Data for Figure 14.12 come from the 2017 Commonwealth Fund International Health Policy Survey of Older Adults (aged 65 and above) in 11 OECD countries. Interviews were conducted between March and June over the phone (except for Switzerland, where they were conducted online).

Data for Figure 14.13 come from the Commonwealth Fund International Health Policy Survey which interviewed people aged 18 and above between February and May 2020. Interviews were conducted over the phone and online (in Sweden, Switzerland and the United States). Samples ranged from 607 to 4 530, and data were weighted to ensure representativeness of the national population.

Lower-income adults are defined as those whose self-reported household pre-tax income is "somewhat below" or "much below" the national average (the questionnaire provides respondents with the actual national average income as a reference), while for higher-income adults it is "somewhat above" or "much above" the national average.

Median waiting time for cataract surgery refers to the time elapsed from the date patients were added to the waiting list for the procedure (following specialist assessment) to the date they were admitted for treatment.

Further reading

Doty, M. et al. (2020), "Income-related inequalities in affordability and access to primary care in eleven high-income countries", Commonwealth Fund website, *www.commonwealthfund.org/publications/surveys/2020/dec/2020-international-survey-income-related-inequalities*.

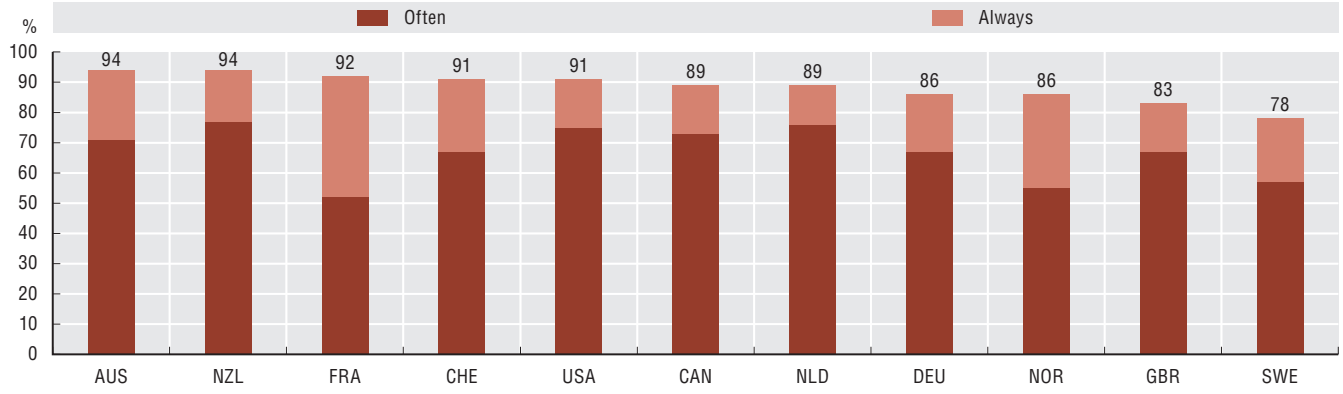
OECD (2020), *Waiting Times for Health Services: Next in Line*, OECD Health Policy Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/242e3c8c-en*.

OECD (2019), *International Data Collection Guidelines: Patient-Reported Outcome Measures (PROMs) for Hip and Knee Replacement Surgery*, OECD, *www.oecd.org/health/health-systems/OECD-PaRIS-hip-knee-data-collection-guidelines-en-web.pdf*.

Figure notes

14.14. Data for Australia, Denmark, Finland, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal and the United Kingdom are for 2018 instead of 2019. Data for Israel are for 2016 instead of 2019. Data for the Netherlands refer to the mean, resulting in an over-estimation. Data for Norway are also an over-estimation because they start from the date when a doctor refers a patient for specialist, whereas in other countries they start only once a specialist has assessed the patient and decided to add the person to the waiting list for treatment.

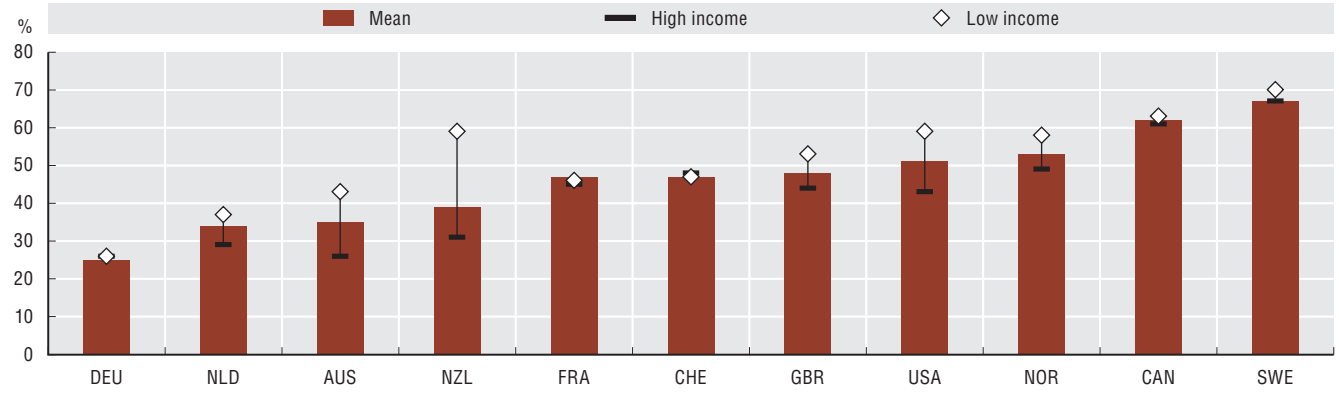
14.12. Percentage of adults aged 65 and above who report that their doctor always or often explains things in a way that is easy to understand, 2017



Source: Commonwealth Fund (2017) *International Health Policy Survey of Older Adults.*

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259617

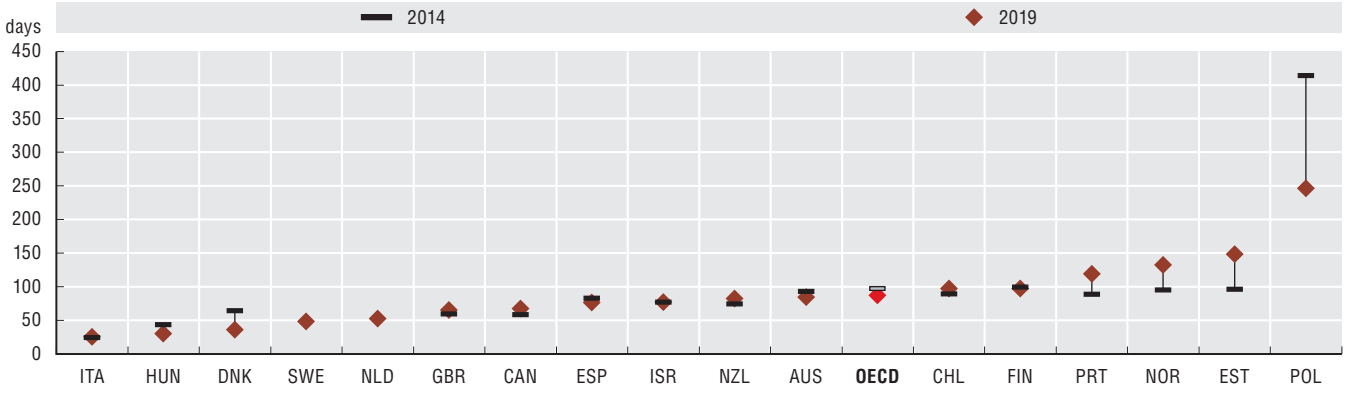
14.13. Percentage of people who did not get same or next-day appointment with doctor or nurse the last time they needed care, 2020



Source: Commonwealth Fund (2020), *International Health Policy Survey.*

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259636

14.14. Median waiting time for cataract surgery from specialist assessment to treatment, 2014 and 2019



Source: OECD (2020) *Health Statistics* (database).

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259655

Responsiveness of education systems to special needs

Responsive education systems ensure that all students, regardless of their socio-economic background, have equal opportunities to succeed in their studies and thrive in the labour market. In general, those with low education levels (i.e. at most lower secondary education) are over-represented in youth unemployment. A good education is the best safeguard against becoming a young person not in employment, education or training (NEET) (Carcillo, et al. 2015).

In 2020, on average, across the OECD, 12.6% of 15-29 year-olds were NEET, compared with 15.6% ten years earlier. Switzerland (4.9%), the Netherlands (5.8%) and Luxembourg (6.2%) had the lowest NEET rates, while Turkey (30.8%), Colombia (23.7%), Italy (23.0%) and Mexico (20.7%) had the highest. Israel halved its NEET rate in ten years, from 28.7% in 2009 to 12.9% in 2020, in line with its steep overall declines in unemployment rates during the same period. Latvia and Turkey also achieved large reductions, by 9.9 p.p. and 8.7 p.p. respectively (Figure 14.15).

At the school level, having sufficient resources and support is key to ensuring that all students have the same opportunities. In 2018, the OECD countries where instruction is less hindered by shortages of staff (according to school principals) were Poland (-1 standard deviation from the OECD mean), Denmark (-0.7 sd) and the Slovak Republic (-0.5 sd), while Japan (0.9 sd), Portugal (0.8 sd) and Italy (0.5 sd) are most affected by such shortages. Outside the OECD, instruction in Romania (-0.4 sd) is less hindered by staff shortages than the OECD average. When considering educational material, Turkey, Canada (-0.6 sd each) and Australia (-0.5 sd) are the countries where instruction is the least hindered by shortages, while Colombia (0.8 sd), Japan and Greece (0.7 sd each) are the most affected (Figure 14.16).

Homework is widely used to encourage student motivation and self-regulation, but it may widen the performance gap between students with different socio-economic backgrounds (OECD, 2020). On average across OECD countries, 76% of students attended schools that provided rooms for students to do homework in 2018, and 62% were in schools where staff helped students with their homework. In Luxembourg and Sweden the share was 98% of students, while it was only 41% in Greece and 42% in the Slovak Republic. Similarly, 93% of students in Sweden and the United Kingdom attended schools whose staff provided help with homework, and only 29% in Austria and 35% in Korea (Figure 14.17).

Methodology and definitions

NEET rates are the share of 15-29 year-olds who meet the criteria of not being in employment, education or training, as a percentage of the total population of 15-29 year-olds. Being in education includes attending part- or full-time education, but excludes those in non-formal education or educational activities of very short duration. Employment covers all those who have been in paid work for at least one hour in the reference week of the survey or were temporarily absent from such work.

Data for Figures 14.16 and 14.17 come from the 2018 Programme for International Student assessment (PISA) school questionnaire. The index of shortage of educational material was calculated based on the responses by school principals on the extent to which their school's capacity to provide instruction was hindered ("not at all", "very little", "to some extent" or "a lot") by a shortage or inadequacy of physical infrastructure, such as school buildings, heating and cooling systems and instructional space; and educational material, such as textbooks, laboratory equipment, instructional materials and computers. The index of shortage of education staff is based on their responses to issues such as a lack of teaching staff; inadequate or poorly qualified teaching staff; a lack of assisting staff; and inadequate or poorly qualified assisting staff. The average on these indexes is zero and the standard deviation is one across OECD countries. Positive values reflect principals' belief that shortages hinder their capacity to provide instruction more than the OECD average; negative values reflect beliefs that shortages hinder their capacity to a lesser extent.

Further reading

Carcillo, S. et al. (2015), "NEET youth in the aftermath of the crisis: Challenges and policies", *OECD Social, Employment and Migration Working Papers*, No. 164, OECD Publishing. *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5js6363503f6-en*.

OECD (2020), *PISA 2018 Results (Volume V): Effective Policies, Successful Schools*, PISA, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/ca768d40-en*.

Figure notes

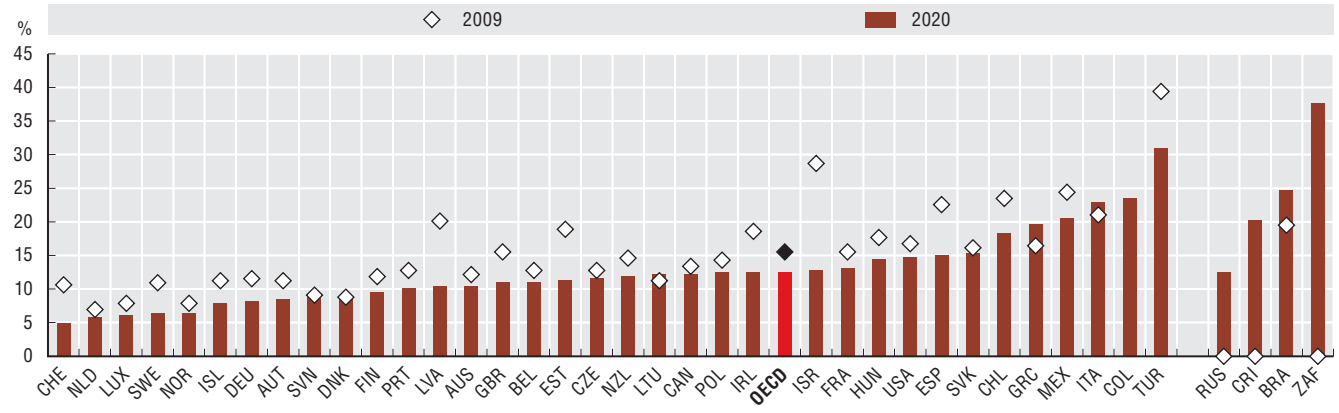
14.15. Data for 2020 refer to the 4th quarter. Data for Colombia for 2009 are not available. Data for Japan and Korea are not available. Data for Australia, Colombia, Germany, Greece, Israel, Mexico, New Zealand, Costa Rica and Russia are for 2019 instead of 2020. Data for Chile are for 2017 instead of 2020. Data for the United States, Brazil and South Africa are for 2018 instead of 2020.

14.16. Countries and economies are ranked in descending order of the index of shortage of educational material.

14.17. Data on help from staff to do homework for Japan are not available.

14.16 and 14.17. Data for China cover Beijing, Shanghai, Jiangsu and Zhejiang only.

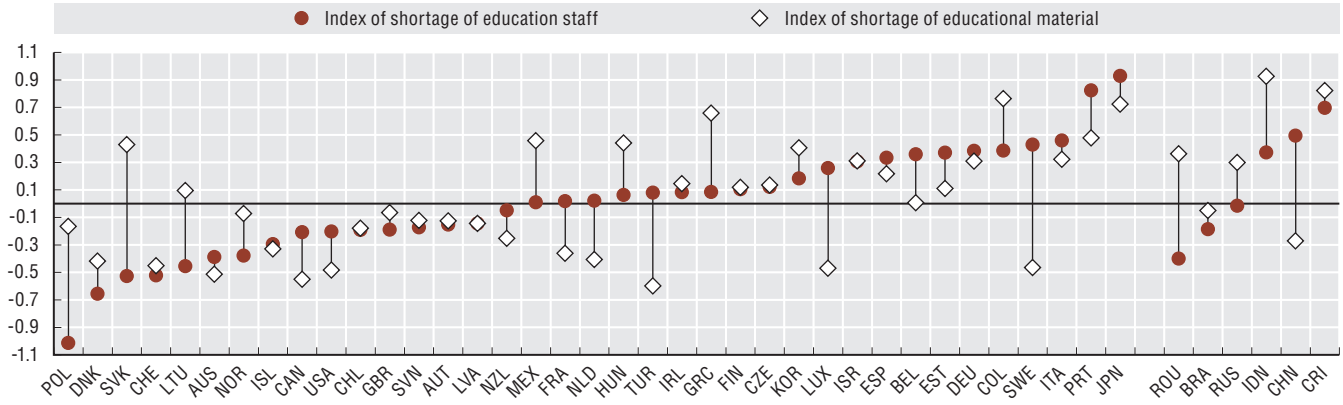
14.15. Percentage of young people (aged 15-29) years not in education, employment or training, 2009 and 2020



Source: OECD (2020), *Education at a Glance 2020: OECD Indicators*; OECD (2021), *OECD Employment Outlook 2021: Navigating the COVID-19 Crisis and Recovery*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259674

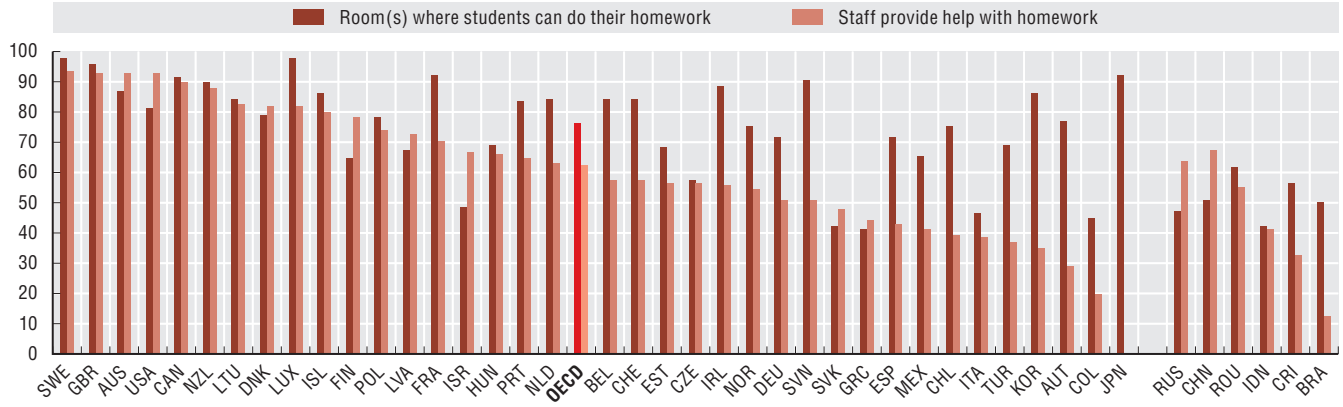
14.16. Indexes of shortage of education staff and education material, 2018



Source: OECD (2019) *PISA 2018 Results (Volume II): Where All Students Can Succeed*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259693

14.17. Percentage of students in schools where study help is provided, 2018



Source: OECD (2020) *PISA 2018 Results (Volume V): Effective Policies, Successful Schools*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259712

Timeliness of civil justice services

Delays in solving legal cases affect citizens and businesses in many ways: increasing costs, reducing productivity, creating health issues, causing employment losses and disturbing relationships, and could discourage individuals from seeking legal remedies for future disputes. A responsive justice system ensures that the "right" mix of services are provided to the "right" clients, in the "right" areas of law, in the "right" locations and at the "right" time (OECD, 2019).

Inaccurate case management is an issue that affects the timeliness of justice, and can sometimes be improved with the use of information technology. The European Commission for the Efficiency of Justice (CEPEJ) suggests categorising cases to improve the timeliness of court resolutions. For contentious civil and administrative cases, it suggests using a timeframe of 6-12 months from filing, depending on the capacity of each country. Normal cases can be resolved within 18-36 months, and complex cases (which make up 5-10% of all cases) can take longer (CEPEJ, 2016). Disposition time (DT) is a commonly used indicator to estimate the time a judicial system takes to resolve a case. It estimates the number of days needed to resolve a pending case in a jurisdiction.

Lithuania was the fastest at resolving civil and commercial litigious cases in 2018, with a DT of 84 days. Luxembourg (94 days) and the Netherlands (110 days) also had short timeframes. Portugal saw the greatest relative reduction in the time taken to resolve cases between 2016 and 2018, from 289 days to 229 days, a fall of 21%. The Slovak Republic achieved the largest absolute reduction, from 524 days in 2014 to 157 in 2018, although this represents an increase on 2016 when the DT was 130 days (Figure 14.18)

Lithuania also had the shortest DT for first instance civil and commercial non-litigious cases, of 4 days, followed by Hungary (32 days) and Latvia (42 days). Outside the OECD, Romania's DT for such cases was 24 days. Italy (231 days), Norway (180 days) and France (162 days) took the longest to resolve these cases. The Slovak Republic had the largest relative reduction, from 184 days in 2016 to 131 days in 2018 (Figure 14.19)

For administrative cases, the shortest DTs in 2018 were Israel (107 days) Hungary (109 days), Poland (118 days) and Estonia (119 days). Outside the OECD, Romania took 117 days. Greece almost halved its DT for these cases, from 1 086 days in 2016 to 601 in 2018 (Figure 14.20).

Methodology and definitions

Data come from the CEPEJ database, which includes data from Council of Europe's member states as well as observers for the 2018 evaluation of judicial systems and earlier. The DT is the estimated time needed to resolve a case, which means the time taken by a first instance court to reach a decision. It is calculated by dividing the number of pending cases in a given year by the number of cases that were resolved in that period, multiplied by 365. Although it does not provide information on the average time needed to resolve a case, it does provide an estimate of the length of the process within a specific jurisdiction.

Litigious civil and commercial cases refer to disputes between parties, such as litigious divorces. Non-litigious cases refer to cases processed by a court that do not involve the determination of a dispute (e.g. an uncontested payment order case). Commercial cases are addressed by dedicated courts in some countries and by civil courts in others. Administrative cases refer to disputes between citizens and local, regional or national authorities. While specialised courts deal with these types of disputes in some countries, civil courts deal with them in others.

Countries differ in the ways they administer justice and distribute responsibilities between courts so any cross-country comparisons must be made with caution. The types of courts and cases included in this exercise may differ, as well as the methods of data collection and categorisation.

Further reading

OECD (2019), *Equal Access to Justice for Inclusive Growth: Putting People at the Centre*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/597f5b7f-en*.

CEPEJ (2020), *European Judicial Systems: CEPEJ Evaluation Report: 2020 Evaluation Cycle (2018 Data: Part 1: Tables, Graphs and Analyses*. European Commission for the Efficiency of Justice, Strasbourg, *https://rm.coe.int/rapport-evaluation-partie-1-francais/16809fc058*.

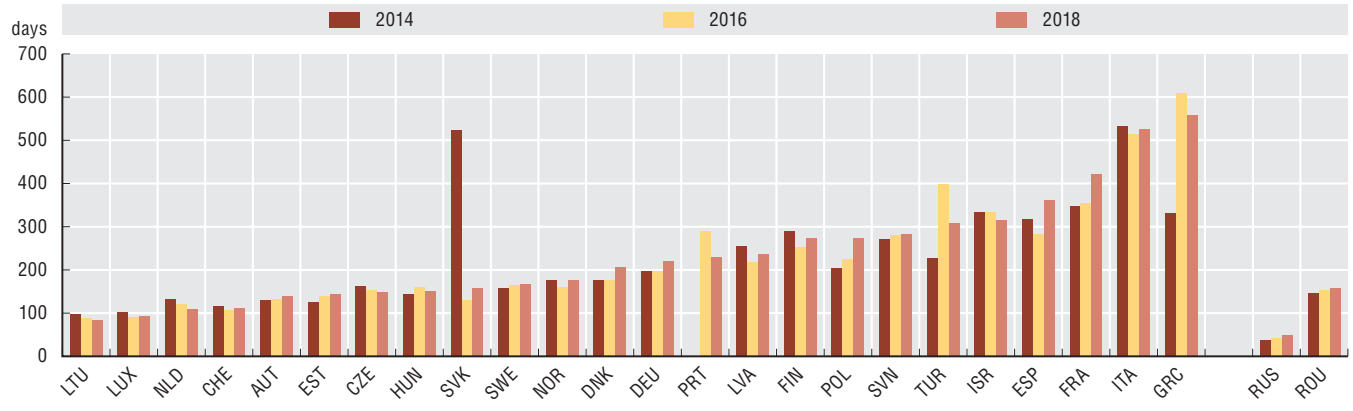
CEPEJ (2016), *Towards European Timeframes for Judicial Proceedings: Implementation Guide*, European Commission for the Efficiency of Justice, Strasbourg, *https://rm.coe.int/16807481f2*.

Figure notes

Countries are ranked in ascending order according to the time needed to resolve cases on the latest year when data were available. Data only covers OECD EU countries.

14.20. Data for the United Kingdom refer to England and Wales only.

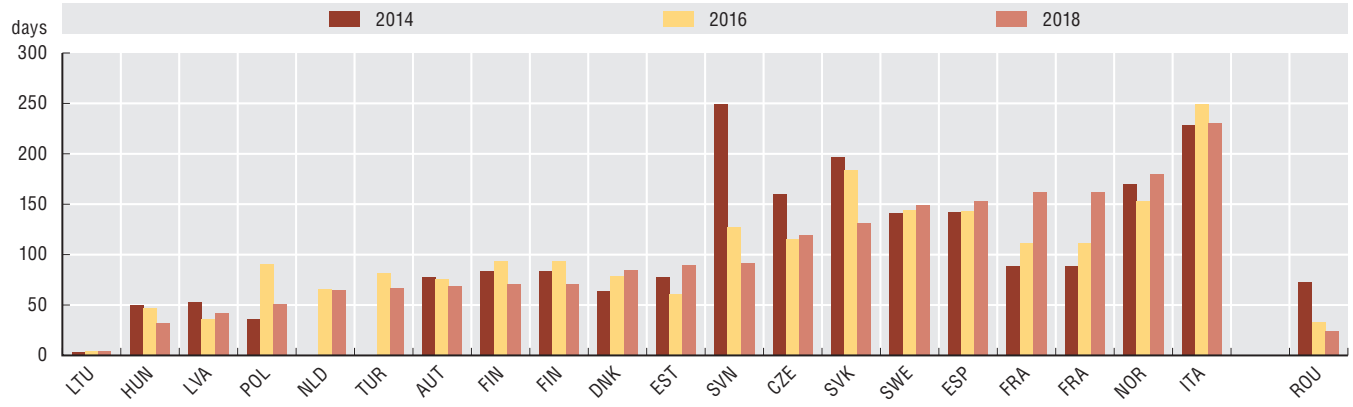
14.18. Disposition time for first instance civil and commercial litigious cases, 2014, 2016 and 2018



Source: CEPEJ (2020), *European Commission for the Efficiency of Justice* (database).

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259731

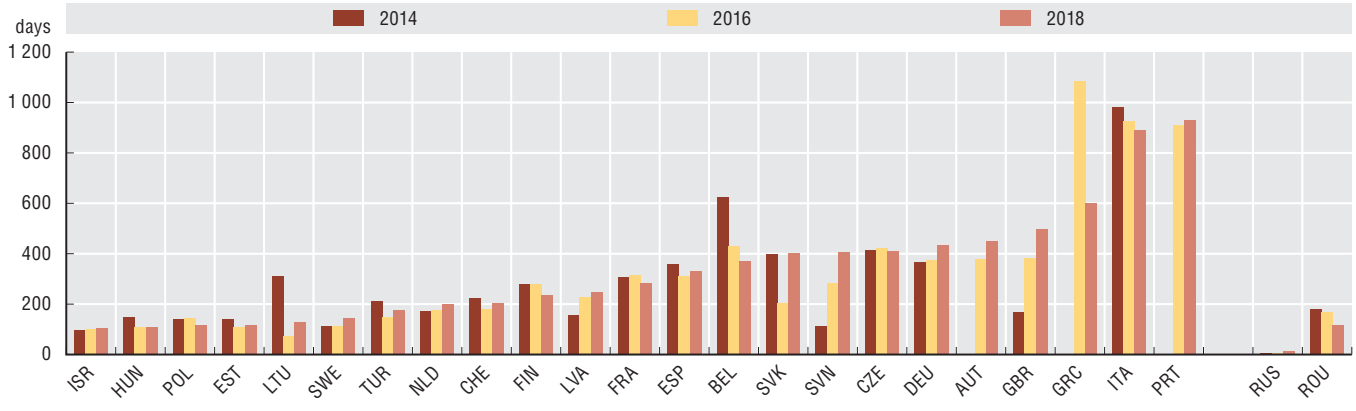
14.19. Disposition time for first instance civil and commercial non-litigious cases, 2014, 2016 and 2018



Source: CEPEJ (2020), *European Commission for the Efficiency of Justice* (database).

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259750

14.20. Disposition time for first instance administrative cases, 2014, 2016 and 2018



Source: CEPEJ (2020), *European Commission for the Efficiency of Justice* (database).

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Quality of health care

The health system is responsible for preventing health problems (i.e. prevention) and addressing acute or chronic health problems when they arise (i.e. treatment). High-quality care is care that is safe, effective and patient-centred. Quality of care can be assessed through measuring structures, processes and outcomes.

Electronic medical records (EMRs) can contribute to greater co-ordination of health services and improved quality of care, especially if they allow information about patients to be shared between practitioners. On average across OECD countries, 82% of primary care physicians' offices used electronic records in 2016, compared to 73% of medical specialists' offices. In 8 out of 25 OECD countries, EMRs were already used by 100% of primary care offices in 2016, and by all specialist offices in Denmark, Finland, Greece and Sweden. In contrast, only around one-third of primary care offices in Poland, Mexico (30% each) and Japan (36%) were using EMRs in 2016, and only a small share of specialist offices in Switzerland (18%). Between 2012 and 2016, Denmark achieved the greatest progress in take up of EMR use in both primary care and specialist offices (Figure 14.21).

Primary care is usually the initial point of contact between patients and the health care system, and is responsible for the prevention, early diagnosis and management of both communicable and chronic health conditions. Diabetes is a growing chronic condition with well-established treatments which can, for the most part, be delivered at the primary care level. Thus, high-quality primary care can prevent unnecessary admissions to hospital (OECD, 2019). In 2017, on average across the OECD, the hospitalisation rate for diabetes was 127 per 100 000 people, a decrease of over 10% from 2012. Mexico had the highest rate of potentially avoidable hospital admissions for diabetes (249 per 100 000 population), whereas Iceland (42), Italy (43) and Spain (45) had the lowest. Austria, Ireland and Korea have seen the largest reductions in the rate of diabetes hospitalisations between 2012 and 2017 (Figure 14.22).

Mortality within 30 days after hospital admission for potentially fatal conditions such as ischaemic stroke is a well-recognised indicator of the quality of acute care in hospital. On average across the OECD, in 2017, the age-standardised rate of mortality after hospital admission for ischaemic stroke was 7.6 per 100 admissions in people aged 45 and over, a decrease from 10 in 2012. Japan (3.0) and Korea (3.2) had the lowest rates among OECD countries, and Latvia (20.4) the highest. The United Kingdom (-6.5), the Netherlands (-5.3) and Australia (-5.1) have seen the largest reductions since 2007, while Latvia (0.9) and Colombia (0.4) have seen increases in mortality rates between 2007 and 2017 (Figure 14.23).

Methodology and definitions

An EMR is a computerised medical record created in an organisation that delivers care, such as a hospital or physician's office, for their patients. Ideally, EMRs should be shared between providers and settings to provide a detailed history of individual patients' contact with the health care system across multiple organisations (Oderkirk, 2017). The figures on EMR implementation come from the 2016 OECD HCQI Questionnaire on Secondary Use of Health Data: Electronic Health Records s to which 25 OECDcountries responded.

The rate of avoidable admissions for diabetes is based on the sum of three indicators: admissions for short-term and long-term complications, and for uncontrolled diabetes without complications. The indicator is defined as the number of hospital admissions with a primary diagnosis of diabetes among people aged 15 years and over per 100 000 population.

The case-fatality rate for ischaemic stroke measures the percentage of people aged 45 and over who die within 30 days following admission to hospital. The rates presented in Figure 14.23 refer to patients who died in the same hospital where they were initially admitted (i.e. unlinked data). Rates are age-sex standardised.

Further reading

Oderkirk, J. (2017), "Readiness of electronic health record systems to contribute to national health information and research", *OECD Health Working Papers*, No. 99, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/9e296bf3-en*.

OECD (2017), *Caring for Quality in Health: Lessons Learnt from 15 Reviews of Health Care Quality*, OECD Reviews of Health Care Quality, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264267787-en*.

OECD (2019), *Health at a Glance 2019: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/4dd50c09-en*.

Figure notes

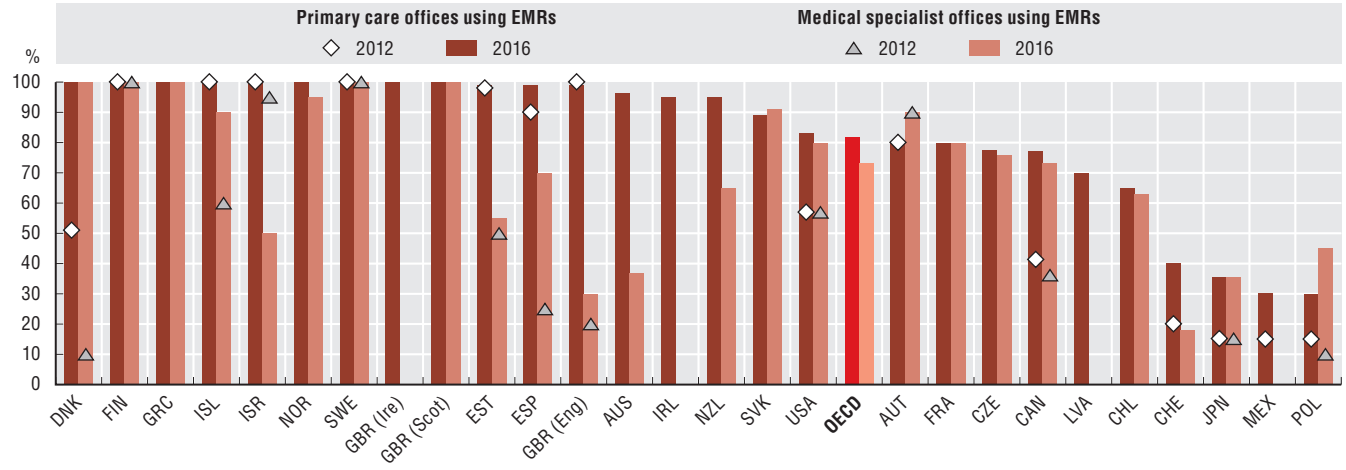
14.21. Data for Canada refer to the percentage of physicians (not physicians' offices). Data for Chile for primary care refer to hospitals at stage 2 or above, and for specialist offices refer to practices. Data for Japan and the United States (for 2012 only) refer to the percentage of physicians' offices (both primary care and specialists).

14.22. Data for Germany and for Portugal are for 2011 instead of 2012. Data for Estonia and the United States are for 2014 instead of 2012. Data for Australia, Iceland, the Netherlands, Poland and the United States are for 2016 instead of 2017. Data for France, Luxembourg and Switzerland are for 2015 instead of 2017. Data for New Zealand are for 2014 instead of 2017.

14.23. Data for Estonia, Lithuania and Turkey for 2007 are not available.

14.22 and 14.23. Data for Iceland and Luxembourg show a three-year average.

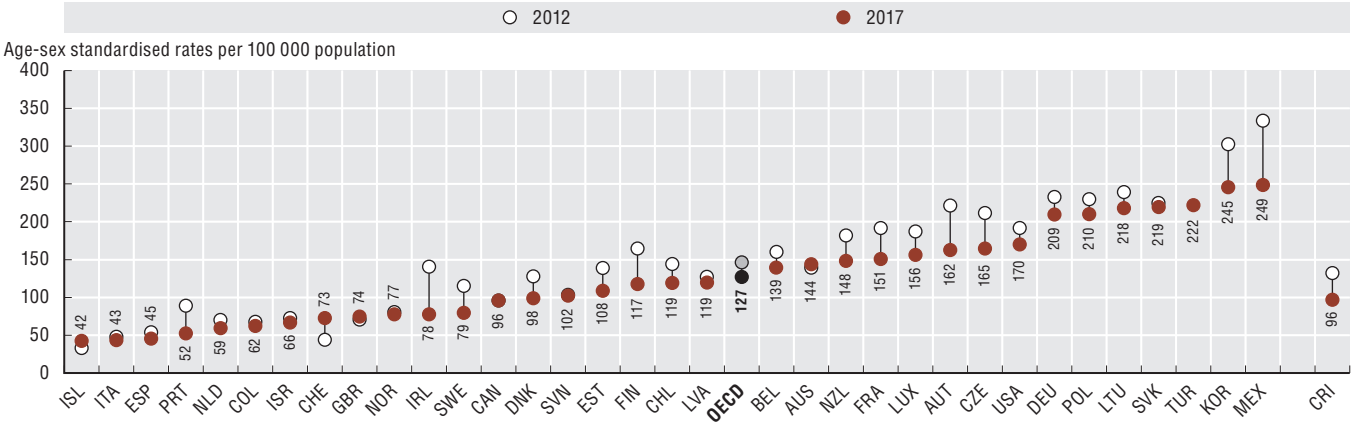
14.21. Percentage of primary care and medical specialist offices using electronic medical records, 2012 and 2016



Source: OECD (2012 and 2016) *OECD HCQI Questionnaire on Secondary Use of Health Data: Electronic Health Records.*

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259788

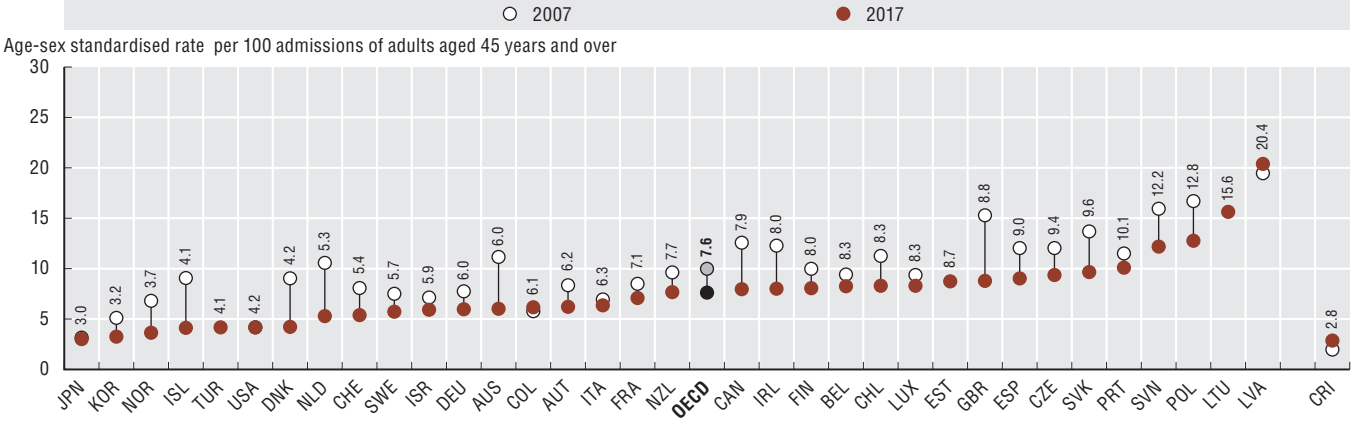
14.22. Diabetes hospital admission in adults, 2012 and 2017



Source: OECD (2020), *Health Statistics* (database).

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259807

14.23. Thirty-day mortality after admission to hospital for ischaemic stroke based on unlinked data, 2007 and 2017



Source: OECD (2020), *Health Statistics* (database).

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259826

Student performance and equity in education

The education system is responsible for equipping individuals with the knowledge, skills and tools needed for their life-long development. Quality of education can be assessed by how effectively students incorporate the skills they need to thrive in society. The best-performing education systems across the OECD combine both quality and equity. Equity in this context means that personal circumstances are not an obstacle to achieving educational potential, and that all individuals reach at least a minimum level (OECD, 2012).

In 2018, students across the OECD reached an average of 487 points in reading in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), with students in Estonia (523 points), Canada, Finland (520 each) and Ireland (518 points) achieving the highest scores, and those in Colombia (412 points), Mexico (420 points) and Chile (452 points) the lowest (Figure 14.24). Students in Turkey showed the most improvement, scoring 37 points more than in 2015 (OECD, 2019).

However, these averages hide inequalities between students. On average across the OECD, 12% of the variance in performance can be attributed to students' socio-economic status. The influence of socio-economic background on performance is greater in Hungary (19%) and Luxembourg (18%) and, outside the OECD, in Romania (18%). In contrast, in top-performing Estonia (6%) and Canada (7%), as well as in Iceland (7%), socio-economic background plays a much less significant role (Figure 14.24).

In an increasingly complex context, students need to acquire competences that will allow them to navigate and thrive in an interconnected and changing world. PISA assessed students' global competence, which encompasses their ability to examine relevant local, global and cultural issues; understand others' worldviews; engage in open intercultural interactions; and take action for collective well-being and sustainable development.

Cognitive adaptability refers to students' ability to deal with new situations. During the COVID-19 crisis, students were forced to switch to remote learning, and many found themselves confined at home for long periods. In 2018, students in Spain (0.3 standard deviations from the OECD mean), Mexico and Turkey (0.2 sd each) reported a greater ability than the OECD average to deal with unusual situations and overcome difficulties, while students in Italy, Greece and the Slovak Republic (-0.3 sd each) reported more difficulties in doing so (Figure 14.25).

Being able to understand the reasons behind phenomena including climate change, refugee crises and pandemics, and engage in productive debate about them, is another relevant global competence. The PISA index of self-efficacy regarding global issues assesses students' ability to perform these tasks. In 2018, students in Germany, Korea and Colombia (0.2 sd away from the OECD mean) reported the highest self-efficacy, while students in the Slovak Republic (-0.4 sd), Scotland and Italy (-0.2 sd) reported the lowest (Figure 14.27).

Methodology and definitions

Data for all figures come from the 2018 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), which assessed the competences of 15-year-old students in reading, mathematics and science in 79 economies. Tipically, the sample was selected in 2 stages, first a representative sample of 150 schools were selected and, then roughly 42 students per school were randomly selected to sit the assessment. PISA computes students' socio-economic background from three family variables: parents' highest level of education, their highest occupational status, and their home possessions, which are aggregated into an index.

The index of cognitive ability refers to students' ability to adapt to new situations. Students were asked to assess six statements, such as "I can deal with unusual situations" and "I am capable of overcoming my difficulties in interacting with people from other cultures", on a five-point scale (from "very much like me" to "not at all like me"). The index of self-efficacy regarding global issues refers to whether students can achieve certain global competence-related tasks on their own. Students assessed five tasks, such as "Explain how carbon dioxide emissions affect global climate change" and "Discuss the different reasons why people become refugees" on a four-point scale (from "I could not do this" to "I could do this easily"). The average for these indexes is zero and the standard deviation is one across OECD countries. Positive values indicate that students have a greater ability than the average student across OECD countries.

Further reading

OECD (2020), *PISA 2018 Results (Volume VI): Are Students Ready to Thrive in an Interconnected World?*, PISA, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/d5f68679-en*.

OECD (2019), *PISA 2018 Results (Volume I): What Students Know and Can Do*, PISA, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/5f07c754-en*.

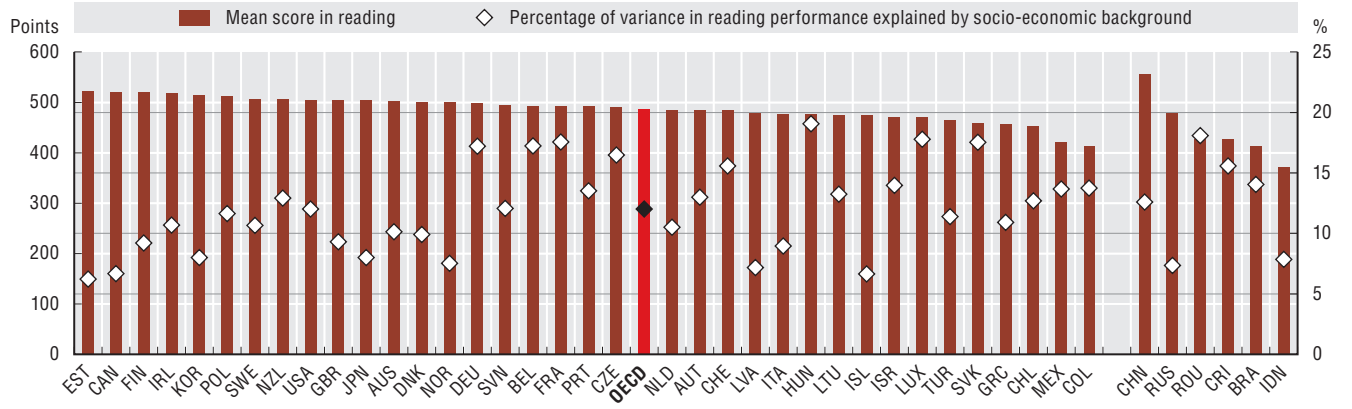
OECD (2012), *Equity and Quality in Education: Supporting Disadvantaged Students and Schools*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264130852-en*.

Figure notes

14.24. Data for Spainare not available. Data for China cover Beijing, Shanghai, Jiangsu and Zhejiang only.

14.25 and 14.26. Data for Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Japan, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and the United States are not available.

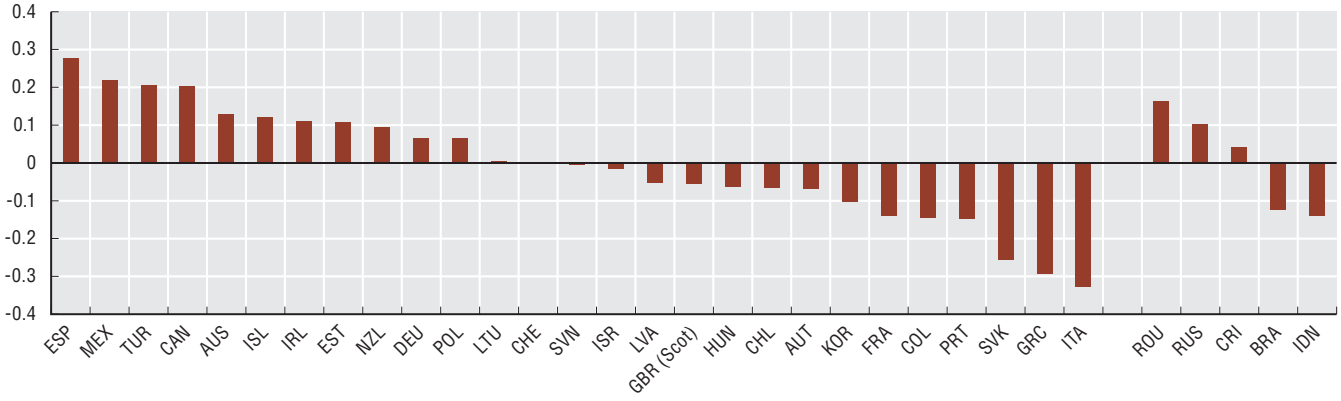
14.24. Mean score in reading and percentage of variance explained by socio-economic background, 2018



Source: OECD (2019), *PISA 2018 Results (Volume II): Where All Students Can Succeed.*

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259845

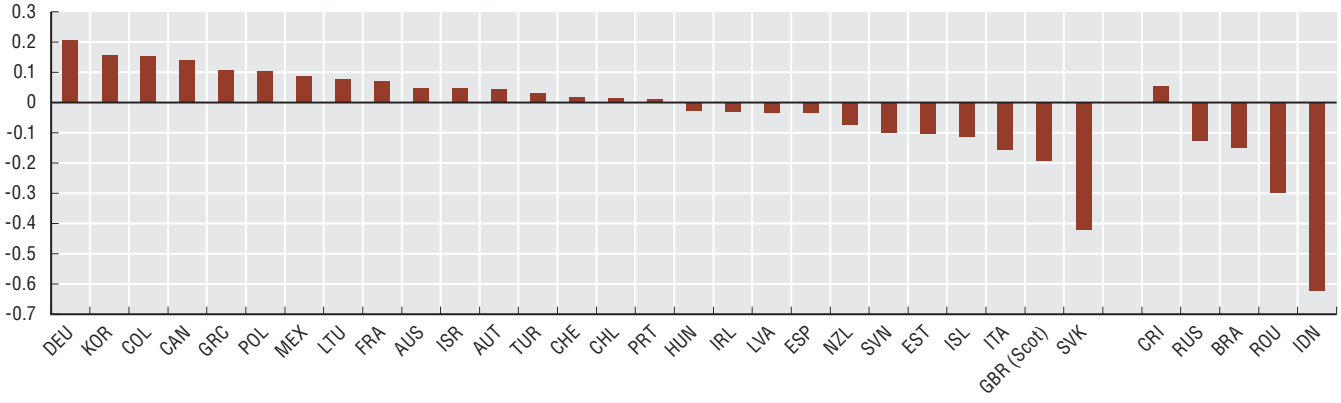
14.25. Index of cognitive adaptability, 2018



Source: OECD (2020), *PISA 2018 Results (Volume VI): Are Students Ready to Thrive in an Interconnected World?*

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259864

14.26. Index of self-efficacy regarding global issues, 2018



Source: OECD (2020), *PISA 2018 Results (Volume VI): Are Students Ready to Thrive in an Interconnected World?*

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259883

Effectiveness and fairness of the justice system

Justice systems are key to safeguarding rights and ensuring that citizens' legal needs are met. An effective and fair justice system takes in the full continuum of services, ranging from the accessibility of legal information and legal assistance to the formal dispute resolution mechanisms (such as courts) and any alternatives, and their enforcement (OECD, 2019).

An independent judicial system is key to ensuring an impartial resolution of cases. At the systemic level, the European Network of Councils of the Judiciary (ENCJ) suggests that the judiciary should govern itself, through a council with a predominantly judicial membership. Moreover, judges' rulings should not be influenced by a power imbalance between litigating parties. Pressure on individual judges can come from outside the judicial system (e.g. the government or media), but it can also come from within, for example, through peer pressure or pressure from superiors (e.g. a court president annulling the ruling of a judge in their court without due process) (ENCJ, 2014).

Effective enforcement of civil justice and freedom from improper government influence are correlated according to the World Justice Project's (WJP) Rule of Law Index (R^2 = 0.52). In 2020, on average, OECD countries scored 0.73 out of a maximum of 1.00 points for freedom from improper influence, and 0.68 for effective enforcement of civil justice. Australia, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden had high scores on both dimensions (Figure 14.27).

Criminal justice is the most sensitive type of justice, since it can affect people's fundamental rights and freedoms. On the one hand, the rights of the accused have to be protected at every stage of the process. On the other hand, the due prosecution of offenders must be carried out in order to uphold the legal order and protect victims and society from harm. For this reason, court decisions need to be based in law and timely, in order to guarantee that the rights of all the involved parties are respected.

According to the WJP, the timeliness and effectiveness of the criminal justice system is correlated with less readiness to use self-administered justice (i.e. resorting to violence to redress grievances) (R^2 = 0.59). On average, in 2020, OECD countries scored 0.65 points (out of a maximum of 1.00) on the avoidance of self-administered justice, and 0.62 for the effectiveness and timeliness of the criminal adjudication system. Austria, Denmark, Finland, Norway, and Sweden have the highest scores on these dimensions. Chile's score for the timeliness and effectiveness of the criminal adjudication system (0.59) is almost double its score for self-administered justice (0.27) (Figure 14.28).

Between 2016 and 2020, OECD countries' capacity to control crime has remained stable, according to the Rule of Law Index. The average score in both years was 0.85. Norway, Slovenia (both 0.96), Denmark (0.95) and Poland (0.93) had the highest scores (Figure 14.29).

Methodology and definitions

Data come from the WJP's Rule of Law Index, which is based on a general population survey of 1 000 respondents (representative) in the three largest cities of each country and a survey of experts in civil law (practitioners and academics). Each dimension of the index has a score ranging from 0 to 1; a higher score means a better performance on the dimension. For more information, see *https://worldjusticeproject.org/our-work/wjp-rule-law-index*.

Freedom from improper influence is gauged by asking about aspects such as how likely a litigant is to win a case against the state, and how likely the government is to respect such a decision or seek to influence the court. Effective enforcement of civil justice asks about issues such as the enforcement of court rulings and their timeliness.

Effectiveness and timeliness of the criminal adjudication system is gauged by how long it takes to take a suspect to trial and the length of pre-trial detention as well as whether the perpetrators of violent crimes are caught and taken to court, among other aspects. Resorting to violence includes actions such as intimidating or attacking the perpetrator of an offence.

Effective control of crime is based on citizens' perceptions of being safe when walking at night and whether they have been victims of a crime in the past year or three years (depending on the question), among other aspects.

Further reading

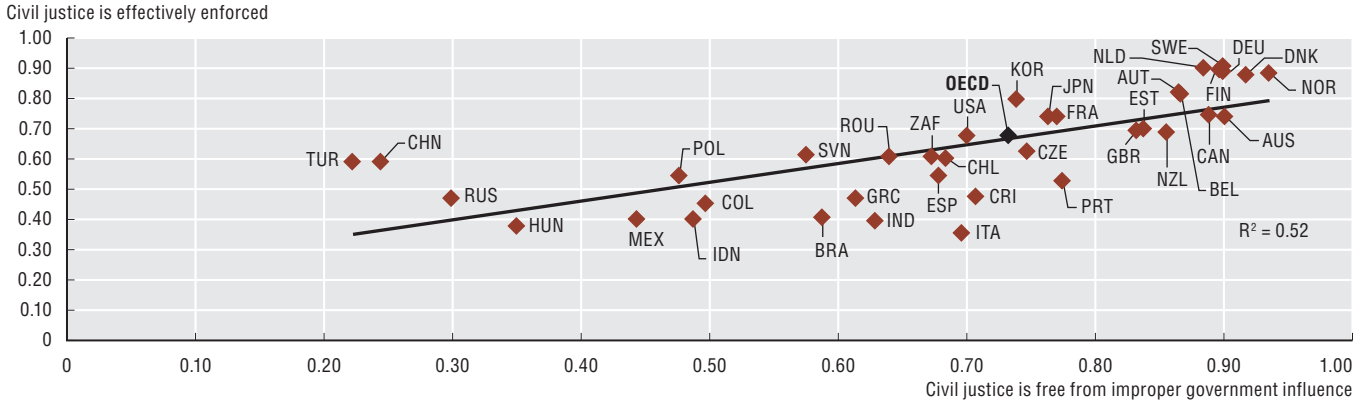
OECD (2019), *Equal Access to Justice for Inclusive Growth: Putting People at the Centre*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/597f5b7f-en*.

ENCJ (2014), *Independence and Accountability of the Judiciary: ENCJ Report 2013-2014*, European Network of Councils of the Judiciary, Brussels, *www.encj.eu/images/stories/pdf/workinggroups/independence/encj_report_independence_accountability_adopted_version_sept_2014.pdf*.

Figure notes

Data for Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Slovak Republic and Switzerland are not available.

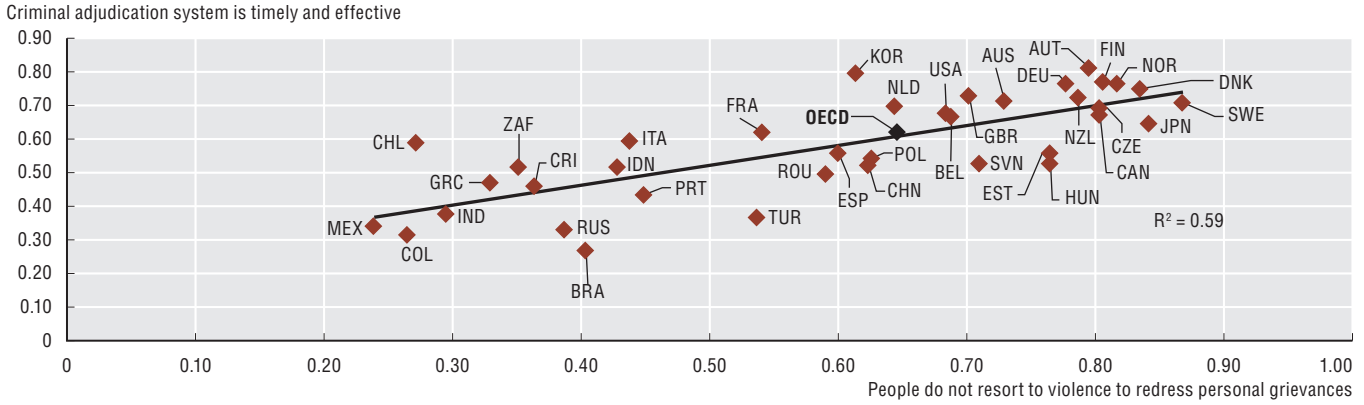
14.27. Effective enforcement of civil justice and freedom from improper government influence, 2020



Source: World Justice Project (2020), *Rule of Law Index 2020*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259902

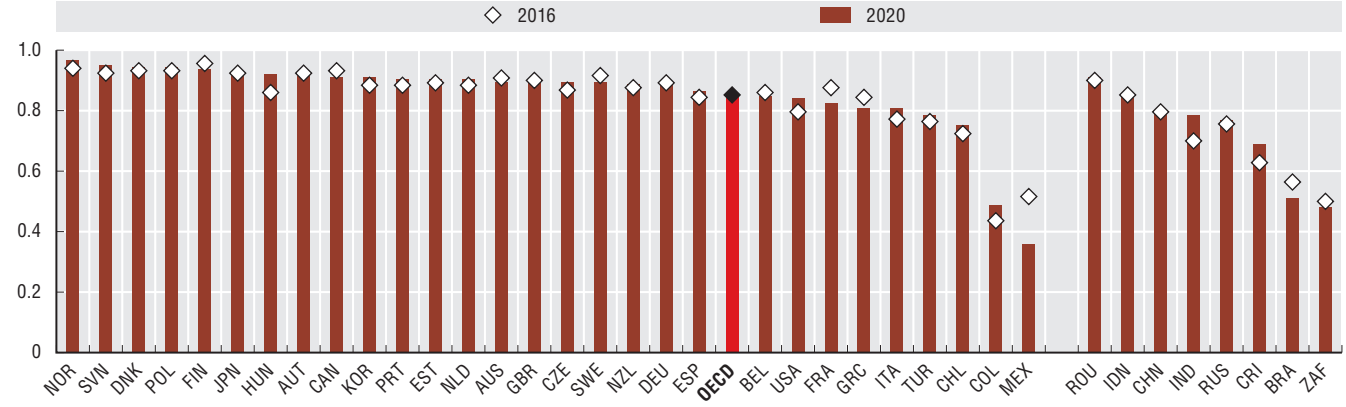
14.28. Effectiveness/timeliness of criminal justice courts adjudication systems and the extent of the use of violence to redress personal grievances, 2020



Source: World Justice Project (2020), *Rule of Law Index 2020*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259921

14.29. Effective control of crime, 2016 and 2020



Source: World Justice Project (2020), *Rule of Law Index 2020*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259940

Serving young people

As a generation hit by two major global crises in less than 15 years, today's youth are finding it increasingly difficult to transition to an autonomous life. Young people have less income at their disposal than previous young generations and they are 2.5 times more likely to be unemployed than those aged 25-64 (OECD, 2020a). The COVID-19 crisis has further exacerbated inequalities among young people and between different age cohorts, raising questions about intergenerational justice. For instance, youth were hit hardest by rises in unemployment over the past year with significant effects on their mental health and access to housing (OECD, 2021; OECD, 2020b). At the same time, they have played an important role in building societal resilience by supporting their peers and the elderly during the pandemic (OECD, 2020a).

Access to and the responsiveness and quality of public services are important determinants of young people's transition to an autonomous life. In 2020, youth-led organisations surveyed by the OECD showed the greatest satisfaction in the area of sports, culture and leisure (3.2 on average, on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 was "very dissatisfied" and 5 "very satisfied") but were much less satisfied with public services in housing (2.1 on average) and employment (2.5) (Figure 14.30).

In recent years, an increasing number of OECD countries have adopted national youth strategies (NYS) to unite governmental and non-governmental stakeholders behind a joint vision for young people (Figure 14.31). In 2020, 25 out of 33 OECD countries (76%), as well as Costa Rica and Romania had a NYS in place. A majority of these strategies aim to improve the access to and responsiveness of public services for young people (80%) and integrate the diverse concerns of young people into all service areas (84%) (OECD, 2020b).

A large number of OECD countries pursue a cross-sectoral approach and their NYS cover commitments for young people in a wide array of service areas including education (24 out of 25, 96%), health (23 out of 25, 92%) and sports (21 out of 25, 84%) (Figure 14.32). These are also areas of focus for Brazil, Costa Rica and Romania. Fewer OECD countries focus on justice (7 out of 25, 28%), transport (13 out of 25, 52%) and housing (15 out of 25, 60%), which are policy areas where youth organisations express lower levels of satisfaction. The average satisfaction score was 2.1 out of 5 for housing services, 2.5 for justice, and 2.6 for transport, presumably because these services are less responsive to young people's expectations and needs than those where governments have been paying more attention to their needs. For instance, the average satisfaction with both education and health services was 2.7 (Figure 14.30).

Policy makers need adequate resources and skills and effective co-ordination mechanisms to avoid fragmented delivery of policies and services. The main obstacles government entities in charge of youth affairs identify in this area are the lack of institutional mechanisms (45%) and insufficient capacities in line ministries (42%) and within their own entity (39%) (OECD, 2020b).

Methodology and definitions

"Youth" is defined as a period towards adulthood, which is characterised by various transitions in people's lives. The UN classification indicates that individuals aged between 15 and 24 fall into this category.

Data from government entities were collected through the OECD Youth Governance Surveys, to which 33 OECD countries responded, as well as Brazil, Costa Rica and Romania. Respondents were senior officials from the youth, education or health ministry, or any other ministry responsible for the co-ordination of national youth strategies.

Data on youth organisations were collected via an online survey conducted between May 2019 and January 2020, to which 65 organisations responded. The survey used a (non-representative) convenience sampling method, so the results are not representative at the country level and cannot be extrapolated to the population of youth organisations. Respondents were recruited on social media, through the OECD's official accounts; only respondents who could prove the existence of their organisation (with a valid URL/website presenting the work of the organisation) were included in the final analysis.

Further reading

OECD (2021), Unemployment Rates, OECD website, *www.oecd.org/sdd/labour-stats/unemployment-rates-oecd-update-february-2021.htm*.

OECD (2020a), "Youth and COVID-19: Response, recovery and resilience", *OECD Policy Responses to Coronavirus (COVID-19)*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/c40e61c6-en*.

OECD (2020b), *Governance for Youth, Trust and Intergenerational Justice: Fit for All Generations?*, OECD Public Governance Reviews, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/c3e5cb8a-en*.

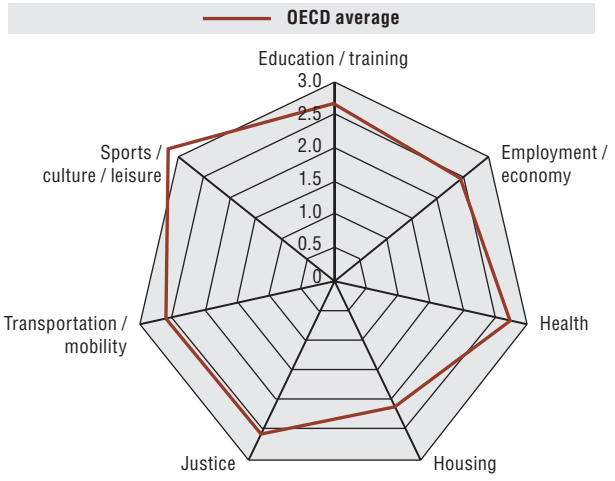
Figure notes

14.30. Data based on 49 to 52 (depending on the answer option) youth organisations in OECD countries for which answers to this question are available. Youth organisations were asked to rate their satisfaction on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 was "very dissatisfied" and 5 was "very satisfied".

14.31. The graph shows the 33 OECD countries and 3 non-member countries (Brazil, Costa Rica and Romania) responding to the OECD Youth Governance Surveys.

14.32. Data refer to 28 countries, 25 OECD countries and 3 non-member countries (Brazil, Costa Rica and Romania), that have or are elaborating a NYS.

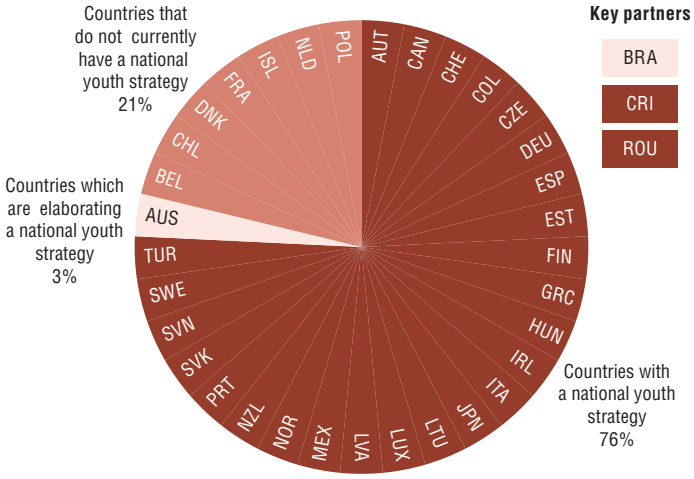
14.30. Youth organisations' satisfaction with public services, 2020



Source: OECD (2020) *Survey of Youth Organisations*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259959

14.31. Availability of a youth strategy at the national/ federal level, 2020



Source: OECD (2020) *Youth Governance Surveys*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259978

14.32. Thematic focus of national youth strategies, 2020

Country	Education/ training	Employment/ economy	Health	Housing	Justice	Transportation/ mobility	Sports/ culture/ leisure
Australia	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Austria	●	●	●	○	●	●	●
Canada	●	●	●	○	○	○	○
Switzerland	●	○	●	○	○	○	●
Colombia	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Czech Republic	●	●	●	○	○	●	●
Germany	●	●	●	●	○	●	●
Spain	●	●	○	○	○	○	○
Estonia	●	●	●	○	○	●	●
Finland	●	●	●	●	○	○	●
Greece	●	●	●	○	●	○	●
Hungary	●	●	●	●	○	●	○
Ireland	●	●	●	○	○	○	●
Japan	●	●	●	●	○	●	●
Lithuania	●	●	●	●	○	○	●
Luxembourg	○	●	○	●	○	○	○
Latvia	●	●	●	○	○	●	●
Mexico	●	●	●	●	○	●	●
Norway	●	●	●	●	●	○	●
New Zealand	●	●	●	●	○	○	●
Portugal	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Slovak Republic	●	●	●	○	○	○	●
Slovenia	●	●	●	●	○	●	●
Sweden	●	●	●	●	○	○	●
Turkey	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
OECD Total							
● Yes	24	24	23	15	7	13	21
○ No	1	1	2	10	18	12	4
Brazil	●	●	●	○	●	●	●
Costa Rica	●	●	●	●	○	○	●
Romania	●	○	●	○	○	○	●

Source: OECD (2020) *Youth Governance Surveys*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934259997

Designing and delivering user-driven public services in the digital age

As economies and societies grow increasingly digital, efforts to leverage technology and data to transform the delivery of services may lead to new forms of divides and exclusion. Similarly, a sector-based approach to digitalising services can increase fragmentation across administrations. Digital government and data policies can support a coherent and whole-of-government approach to designing and delivering omni-channel services that meet the final needs of users. The Digital Government Index (DGI) assesses and benchmarks the strategic use of digital technologies and data to enable service design and delivery in the digital age (see two-pager on "Digital government: Progress towards digital competence and maturity" in Chapter 10).

Shared tools and mechanisms enable interactions and integration across channels and organisations and hence maximise the potential of digital technologies to rethink, redesign and simplify services. In 2019, 27 out of 29 OECD countries (93%) had common interoperability frameworks, 25 (86%) had base registries and the same number had a shared ICT infrastructure. In addition, 26 out of 29 OECD countries (90%) possessed single digital identity systems, which allow users to identify themselves when using online services (Table 14.33). However, only 65% of countries have half of their services accessible through these systems.

People-driven approaches, which actively engage users in the design and provision of services, can have a transformative effect on governments' capacity to respond to their needs. Only 14 of the 29 OECD countries in the DGI (48%) have formal requirements to engage users in service design (such as public meetings) and 8 (27%) in service delivery (for example, using mobile applications). People-driven approaches also involve engaging end-users to test and evaluate governments' capacity to meet their needs. While 18 out of 29 OECD countries (62%) have specific policies on involving end-users in testing and evaluating digital projects/initiatives, only 15 (52%) have concrete activities in place to do so (for example, in design-thinking sessions). Even fewer countries (14, or 48%) use indicators to monitor user satisfaction with digital government services (Figure 14.34).

In 2019, Chile, Colombia and Norway were the only countries that combined formal requirements to engage users in designing and delivering digital services with concrete initiatives to test these services and monitor user satisfaction. Other countries took different approaches to understanding users' perspectives. For example, Japan engages users at all stages, but does not monitor their satisfaction, while Belgium, Estonia, Korea, Lithuania and the Netherlands do not engage users, but do monitor their satisfaction with services.

Digital technology can also be used to enhance the inclusion of vulnerable population groups. In 2019, 18 out of 29 OECD countries (62%) reported using digital technology to drive efforts to ensure the inclusion of people with disabilities in service delivery, and 14 (48%) reported doing so for elderly people. Only 9 countries reported similar efforts to include women (31%), and 10 each (34%) to include minorities and citizens living abroad (see Online Figure G.41).

Methodology and definitions

Data were collected through the OECD Survey on Digital Government 1.0, which was designed to monitor the implementation of the OECD Recommendation of the Council on Digital Government Strategies and assess countries' shift towards greater levels of digital maturity. In 2019, 29 OECD countries, and one OECD key partner country (Brazil) participated. Survey respondents were senior officials in central and federal governments who were leading and/or implementing digital government reforms, and who gathered data from different parts of the public sector as relevant. For the definition of digital government, see Chapter 10.

Interoperability refers to the ability of a system or component to interact or function effectively with other systems or components, involving the sharing of information and data through ICT systems.

A base registry is a trusted authentic source of information under the control of an appointed public administration or organisation appointed by government; they can hold information on people, businesses, buildings, etc.

Further reading

OECD (2020), *Digital Government in Chile – Improving Public Service Design and Delivery*, OECD Digital Government Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/b94582e8-en*.

OECD (2020), "Digital Government Index: 2019 results", *OECD Public Governance Policy Papers*, No. 3, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://doi.org/10.1787/4de9f5bb-en*.

Figure notes

Data are not available for Australia, Hungary, Mexico, Poland, the Slovak Republic, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States.

Figure G.41. (Countries' efforts driven by digital technologies to ensure and/or increase the inclusion and participation of selected groups in service delivery, 2019) is available online in Annex G.

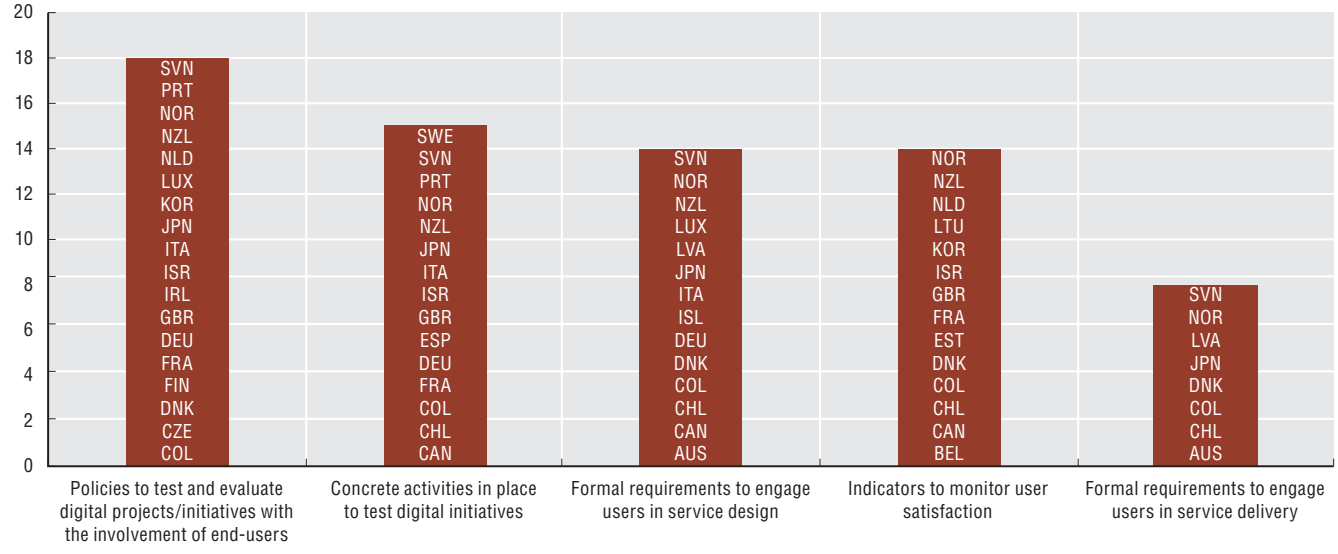
14.33. Use of digital frameworks and tools to enable omni-channel service delivery, 2019

Country	Common interoperability framework	Single Digital Identity System	Base registries	Shared ICT infrastructure	Shared services	Support for the use of open source software	Common data architecture/infrastructure
Austria	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Belgium	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Canada	●	●	●	●	●	●	○
Chile	●	●	●	●	●	●	○
Colombia	●	○	●	●	●	●	●
Czech Republic	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Denmark	●	●	●	●	●	○	●
Estonia	●	●	●	●	○	○	●
Finland	●	●	●	●	●	○	●
France	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Germany	○	●	●	●	●	●	●
Greece	●	○	○	●	○	○	●
Iceland	●	●	●	○	○	●	○
Ireland	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Israel	●	●	●	●	●	●	○
Italy	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Japan	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Korea	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Latvia	●	●	●	○	●	○	○
Lithuania	○	●	●	●	○	○	○
Luxembourg	●	●	○	●	●	○	●
Netherlands	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
New Zealand	●	●	○	●	●	●	●
Norway	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Portugal	●	●	●	●	●	●	○
Slovenia	●	●	●	●	●	○	●
Spain	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Sweden	●	○	○	○	●	○	○
United Kingdom	●	●	●	○	○	○	○
OECD Total							
● Yes	27	26	25	25	24	19	20
○ No	2	3	4	4	5	10	9
Brazil	●	○	○	●	●	●	●

Source: OECD (2019), *Survey on Digital Government 1.0*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260016

14.34. Adoption of people-driven approaches to design and deliver services by countries, 2019



Source: OECD (2019), *Survey on Digital Government 1.0*.

StatLink https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260035

Structure and indicators

The *Government at a Glance* series provides reliable, internationally comparable data on government resources, activities and their results in OECD countries and beyond. In turn, these data can be used by countries to benchmark their governments' performance, track domestic and international developments over time and provide evidence of the impact of their public policies. The indicators in *Government at a Glance* are becoming themselves a measuring standard in many fields of public governance and have extended beyond the OECD to cover countries in Latin America and the Caribbean, Southeast Asia, and the Western Balkans. In addition to the core indicators that constitute the trademark of the publication, this seventh edition includes a selection of new indicators and additional data sources, allowing for a more complete picture of the work and results of public administrations across OECD countries. In the current edition, about half of the indicators presented are based on primary evidence collected directly from government officials through OECD survey instruments aimed at tracking countries' adherence to the OECD Recommendations and Principles on Public Governance. The remainder come from secondary sources and rely on either administrative records (e.g. public finances), household surveys (e.g. trust, satisfaction with services, political efficacy) or, to a lesser extent, on expert assessment collected by other organisations (e.g. the World Justice Project's Rule of Law Index).

What's new in Government at a Glance 2021?

The 2021 edition of *Government at a Glance* provides a mix of core chapters that remain stable in every edition, and new features. In addition, the present edition has adapted to reflect the COVID-19 pandemic and its implications for public governance. Accordingly, some two-pagers incorporate evidence on the measures adopted by countries to cope with the effects of the pandemic.

The core chapters of *Government at a Glance* present the most recent data on: public finance and economics (Chapter 2); public employment (Chapter 3); institutions (Chapter 4); budgeting practices and procedures (Chapter 5); human resources management (Chapter 6); regulatory government (Chapter 7); public procurement (Chapter 8); core government results (Chapter 13); and serving citizens (Chapter 14).

New indicators

Many of the core chapters of *Government at a Glance 2021* present new indicators:

- Chapter 5 on budget practices and procedures presents topical aspects of the budget process in areas where new trends and shared practices across OECD countries are emerging or consolidating. Accordingly, it includes indicators on green budgeting practices and their use in supporting a green recovery, spending reviews, and the role of independent fiscal institutions (IFIs) during the early stages of the COVID-19 outbreak.

- New indicators in Chapter 6 on human resources management cover the use of proactive recruitment practices, policies to manage senior civil servants and the development of a diverse public workforce. It also includes a special feature on people management responses to the COVID-19 pandemic in the public service and results from a pilot exercise on measuring engagement through employee surveys.
- Chapter 7 on regulatory governance includes, in addition to descriptive information on stakeholder engagement, regulatory impact assessment and *ex post* evaluation, indicators on the independence, accountability and performance of regulators in key sectors (e.g. energy, e-communications, rail transport, air transport and water).
- Chapter 8 on public procurement includes new evidence on strategic public procurement with a focus on responsible business conduct (RBC), the management of emergency procurement and risks, and the professionalisation of the procurement function.
- To highlight the growing focus on improving the measurement of outputs and outcomes of governments, Chapter 13 includes a new indicator on internal political efficacy or people's ability to participate in politics. In addition, it includes a more comprehensive set of measures on trust in different institutions and the evolution of levels of trust in government during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic.

New features in this edition of *Government at a Glance* include:

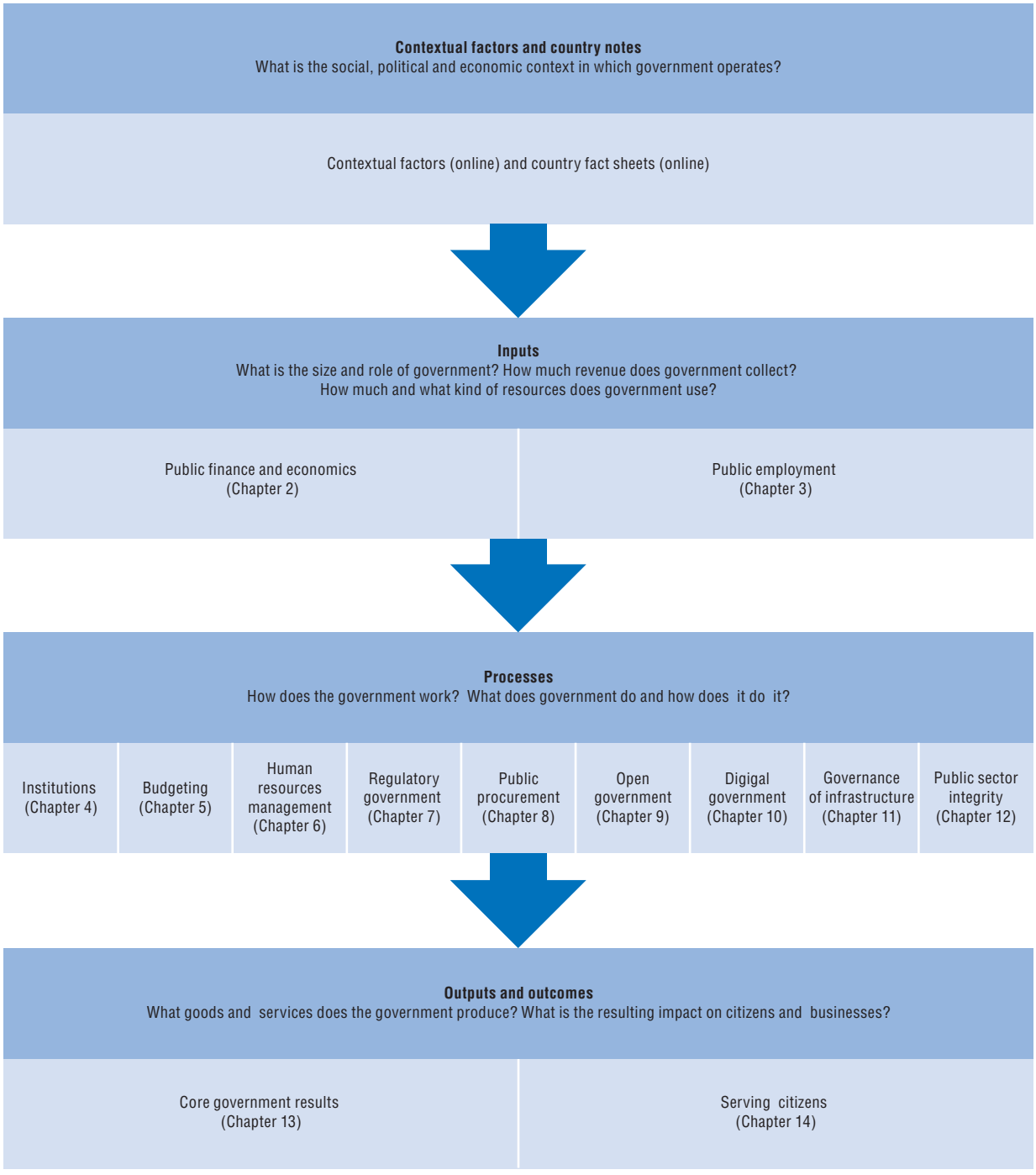
- Chapter 4 presents a new series of indicators on public communication and management of COVID-19 responses. While the chapter on institutions addressing practices of the centre of government (CoG) has been a recurring issue in past editions of *Government at a Glance*, this edition places a particular focus on communication during crises and the immediate and planned response to the COVID-19 pandemic.
- Chapter 9 on open government is based on a new questionnaire designed to measure the 2017 Recommendation on Open Government. It displays specific aspects related to open government literacy in administration, citizen and stakeholder participation portals and the implementation of access to information laws.
- Chapter 10 on digital government presents for the first time the results of the Digital Government Index (DGI) and the role of data as a strategic asset within the administration.
- Chapter 11 on the governance of infrastructure is included for the first time in *Government at a Glance*. The questionnaire informing this chapter has been designed to measure implementation of the 2020 Recommendation on the Governance of Infrastructure.
- Chapter 12 on public sector integrity includes indicators on the existence of integrity strategies, based on the 2017 OECD Recommendation on Public Sector Integrity as well as evidence on transparency in lobbying activities.

Framework and structure of the publication

Government at a Glance covers the 37 OECD countries and includes data, when available, on accession countries (Costa Rica) at the time the report was compiled as well as other major economies such as Brazil, China, India, Indonesia and South Africa. These countries play a significant and increasing role in the world economy and international political structures. At the time of drafting, Costa Rica was still an accession country and is therefore treated as such throughout and not included in OECD averages. It will be considered as a full OECD member from the next issue of the report.

This seventh edition of *Government at a Glance* includes contextual information as well as input, process, output and outcome indicators. The diagram below presents the conceptual framework for *Government at a Glance*.

Conceptual framework for Government at a Glance 2021



Context

Contextual factors (online) present information on some key features of the political and administrative structures for each OECD country. Considering contextual information makes it possible to understand the major institutional differences and similarities among countries, and thereby help to identify comparators for benchmarking purposes. In addition, the country fact sheets (online) provide a country-by-country storyline on how the data provided in *Government at a Glance* apply to the specific context of public sector reforms in OECD countries and some accession countries.

Inputs

Inputs refer to the resources used by governments in their production function, as well as how they are mixed; these resources correspond to labour and capital. The chapters that describe these inputs are "Public finance and economics" (Chapter 2) and "Public employment" (Chapter 3), including indicators on government expenditures, production costs, employment and the composition of the public sector workforce. Differences in these indicators can help readers understand the different capacities of governments in producing and delivering public goods to citizens. Chapter 1 discusses how the COVID-19 crisis is bringing to the fore the importance of government information and public assets as potential additional categories of inputs.

Processes

Processes refer to the public management practices and procedures undertaken by governments to implement policies. These address the means used by public administrations to fulfil their duties and obtain their goals. In consequence, they are often essential for ensuring the rule of law, accountability, fairness and openness of government actions. Public sector reforms often target these processes; as such, they capture the public's attention. This edition contains information on government institutions, budget practices and procedures, human resources management, regulatory governance, public procurement, open government data and the governance of digital government strategies, governance of infrastructure, and public sector integrity (Chapters 4-12).

Outputs and outcomes

The dividing line between outputs and outcomes can be blurred. While outputs refer to the amount of goods and services produced by governments, outcomes show the effects of policies and practices on citizens and businesses. The success of a given policy should be measured, at a first stage, by outputs, but should ultimately be judged by the outcomes it achieves. Generally speaking, outcomes refer to the effects of public programmes and services on citizens, in improvements to welfare, health, educational/learning and so on. While these outcomes can certainly be affected by the quality of programmes and services provided, they can also be affected by other factors, such as the socio-economic background of the population and individual behavioural factors.

In *Government at a Glance 2021*, measures of outputs and outcomes are provided in two separate chapters:

- Chapter 13 on core government results focuses on whole-of-government aspects, such as the confidence of citizens in their national government, the rule of law, income redistribution and broad measures of cost-effectiveness (outcome-based).

- Chapter 14 on serving citizens follows a sectoral approach to measuring the outputs and outcomes of public sector activities. Based on a consolidated framework developed with other OECD directorates, and in collaboration with OECD countries, the chapter provides measures of services to citizens in terms of access, responsiveness and quality in three sectors: health care, education and the justice system. A methodological paper testing the robustness of the selection of indicators to measure the dimensions of the serving citizens framework will be published together with this publication.

Future activities

In order to produce *Government at Glance*, the OECD works in close co-operation with other organisations, including the International Labour Organization (ILO), the World Justice Project, the European Commission for the Efficiency of Justice (CEPEJ), Gallup and the European Commission, to provide a comprehensive view of what governments do and how they do it, while avoiding duplication of data collection. Co-operation will continue to be strengthened to ensure the comparability of data across countries covered in *Government at a Glance*.

For future editions of *Government at a Glance*, the following activities are planned:

- Update and expand the data collection on public finance and public expenditures by government function, especially beyond OECD EU member countries.
- Develop new composite indicators measuring "intermediate outcomes", including in the areas of governance of infrastructure, green budgeting and open government.
- Explore the inclusion of new outcome indicators in areas closely related to major public governance principles or sectors that have a large impact on citizen wellbeing (e.g. satisfaction with democracy).
- Generate primary comparative evidence on institutional trust and its determinants (e.g. responsiveness, reliability, openness, integrity and fairness) using household surveys through the OECD Trust Survey.
- Include new indicators to measure the delivery of administrative services (e.g. permits) to citizens.
- Explore the inclusion of non-consolidated data on recent trends of public expenditure by large functions.
- Deepen the already existing work between the OECD Secretariat and other OECD directorates regarding the possible use of new methodologies for both data collection and analysis, such as text mining or big data, as well methodologies to develop dashboard and composite indices on qualitative variables.

Regional editions of Government at a Glance

The first edition of the Western Balkans *Government at a Glance* was published in June 2020 and the third edition of the Latin America and the Caribbean *Government at a Glance* in March of that same year. Additionally, the Southeast Asian *Government at a Glance* was published in September 2019. These publications provide the latest available data on public administrations in Latin America and the Caribbean, Southeast Asia, and the Western Balkans region and compare them to OECD countries. These regional editions allow the Government at a Glance dataset to be enlarged to include 28 countries beyond OECD membership.

All data and indicators on public governance are accessible online

All data collected by the OECD Public Governance Directorate for the production of *Government at a Glance* (starting with the 2015 edition), and for other purposes, are available online at *https://www.oecd.org/gov/govataglance.htm*.

Readers interested in using the data presented in this publication for further analysis and research are encouraged to consult the full documentation of definitions, sources and methods presented in the *Government at a Glance* publication and online.

The *Government at a Glance* statistical database includes both qualitative and quantitative indicators on public sector inputs, processes, outputs and outcomes and is regularly updated as new data are released.

ANNEX A

Reporting systems and sources of countries for government in the National Accounts statistics

Table A.1. **Reporting systems and sources of countries**

Country	Non-financial government accounts	Financial government accounts
OECD member countries		
Australia	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated
Austria	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated/ESA2010; Eurostat Government financial statistics, Annual financial accounts for general government, consolidated*
Belgium	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated
Canada	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated
Chile	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, non-consolidated
Colombia	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated
Czech Republic	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	ESA2010; Eurostat Government financial statistics, Annual financial accounts for general government, consolidated*
Denmark	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	ESA2010; Eurostat Government financial statistics, Annual financial accounts for general government, consolidated*
Estonia	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated/ESA2010; Eurostat Government financial statistics, Annual financial accounts for general government, consolidated*
Finland	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated
France	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	ESA2010; Eurostat Government financial statistics, Annual financial accounts for general government, consolidated*
Germany	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	ESA2010; Eurostat Government financial statistics, Annual financial accounts for general government, consolidated*
Greece	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated/ESA2010; Eurostat Government financial statistics, Annual financial accounts for general government, consolidated*
Hungary	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated
Iceland	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated
Ireland	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated/ESA2010; Eurostat Government financial statistics, Annual financial accounts for general government, consolidated*
Israel	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated
Italy	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	ESA2010; Eurostat Government financial statistics, Annual financial accounts for general government, consolidated*
Japan	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated

Table A.1. **Reporting systems and sources of countries** *(cont.)*

Country	Non-financial government accounts	Financial government accounts
Korea	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated
Latvia	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	ESA2010; Eurostat Government financial statistics, Annual financial accounts for general government, consolidated*
Lithuania	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	ESA2010; Eurostat Government financial statistics, Annual financial accounts for general government, consolidated*
Luxembourg	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated/ESA2010; Eurostat Government financial statistics, Annual financial accounts for general government, consolidated*
Mexico	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, non-consolidated
Netherlands	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated/ESA2010; Eurostat Government financial statistics, Annual financial accounts for general government, consolidated*
New Zealand	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, non-consolidated
Norway	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated
Poland	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	ESA2010; Eurostat Government financial statistics, Annual financial accounts for general government, consolidated*
Portugal	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated
Slovak Republic	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	ESA2010; Eurostat Government financial statistics, Annual financial accounts for general government, consolidated*
Slovenia	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	ESA2010; Eurostat Government financial statistics, Annual financial accounts for general government, consolidated*
Spain	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated
Sweden	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated
Switzerland	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated
Turkey	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated
United Kingdom	ESA2010; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated
United States	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, consolidated
OECD accession countries		
Costa Rica	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA1993 (GFSM2001)
Russia	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, General government accounts	SNA2008; OECD Annual National accounts, Financial balance sheets, non-consolidated

Note: * The source for the financial government accounts for these countries refers to Eurostat as it reflects the latest (validated) data updates (which are transmitted twice a year). For the other countries of the same domain the latest (validated) data updates have been transmitted to and drawn from the *OECD National Accounts Statistics* (database).

ANNEX B

Methodology for revenue aggregates

The following table provides detailed information about how the aggregates of taxes, net social contributions, sales, and grants and other revenues presented in Chapter 2 "Public finance and economics" were constructed from the OECD *National Accounts* data.

Table B.1. **Revenue aggregates**

Label in *Government at a Glance*	Label in the *System of National Accounts*	Code in *OECD National Accounts* Data (Main aggregates of general government)
Taxes		
Indirect taxes	Taxes on production and imports, receivable	GD2R
Direct taxes	Current taxes on income and wealth, receivable	GD5R
Capital taxes	Capital taxes	GD91R
Net social contributions	Net social contributions	GD61R
Sales	Market output and output for own final use	GP11_P12R
	Payments for other non-market output	GP131R
Grants and other revenues		
Current and capital grants	Other current transfers, receivable	GD7R
	Other capital transfers and investment grants, receivable	GD92R_D99R
Subsidies	Other subsidies on production, receivable	GD39R
Property income	Property income, receivable	GD4R
Total revenues	Total revenues	GTR

ANNEX C

Classification of the Functions of Government (COFOG)

Developed by the OECD, the Classification of the Functions of Government (COFOG) classifies government expenditure data from the *System of National Accounts* by the purpose for which the funds are used. As Table C.1 illustrates, first-level COFOG splits expenditure data into ten "functional" groups or sub-sectors of expenditures (such as economic affairs, education and social protection), and second-level COFOG further splits each first-level group into up to nine sub-groups. First-level COFOG data are available for 33 out of the 37 OECD countries (according to time series availability), while second-level COFOG data are usually available for OECD European countries plus Australia, Colombia, Israel and Japan.*

Table C.1. **First- and second-level COFOG**

First-level	Second-level
General public services	● Executive and legislative organs, financial and fiscal affairs, external affairs ● Foreign economic aid ● General services ● Basic research ● R&D general public services ● General public services n.e.c. ● Public debt transactions ● Transfers of a general character between different levels of government
Defence	● Military defence ● Civil defence ● Foreign military aid ● R&D defence ● Defence n.e.c.
Public order and safety	● Police services ● Fire-protection services ● Law courts ● Prisons ● R&D public order and safety ● Public order and safety n.e.c.

* First-level COFOG expenditures data are not available for Canada, Mexico, New Zealand and Turkey. Until recently, second level COFOG data were available in some national statistical offices, but were not collected by international organisations. Moreover, the second-level COFOG data were not always fully comparable among countries because the SNA/UN guide and the International Monetary Fund Manual on Government Finance Statistics did not provide much practical information on the application of COFOG concepts. However, in 2005, Eurostat established a task force on guidance on the application of COFOG to national account expenditure data and to discuss the collection of second-level COFOG data for European countries. Second-level COFOG data are not available for several OECD non-European countries, except Australia, Colombia, Israel and Japan. In addition, these data are available only for selected COFOG divisions in some countries. Efforts are underway to reach agreement with these countries about the submission of these data to the OECD.

Table C.1. **First- and second-level COFOG** *(cont.)*

First-level	Second-level
Economic affairs	• General economic, commercial and labour affairs • Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting • Fuel and energy • Mining, manufacturing and construction • Transport • Communication • Other industries • R&D economic affairs • Economic affairs n.e.c.
Environmental protection	• Waste management • Waste water management • Pollution abatement • Protection of biodiversity and landscape • R&D environmental protection • Environmental protection n.e.c.
Housing and community amenities	• Housing development • Community development • Water supply • Street lighting • R&D housing and community amenities • Housing and community amenities n.e.c.
Health	• Medical products, appliances and equipment • Outpatient services • Hospital services • Public health services • R&D health • Health n.e.c.
Recreation, culture and religion	• Recreational and sporting services • Cultural services • Broadcasting and publishing services • Religious and other community services • R&D recreation, culture and religion • Recreation, culture and religion n.e.c.
Education	• Pre-primary and primary education • Secondary education • Post-secondary non-tertiary education • Tertiary education • Education not definable by level • Subsidiary services to education • R&D education • Education n.e.c.
Social protection	• Sickness and disability • Old age • Survivors • Family and children • Unemployment • Housing • Social exclusion n.e.c. • R&D social protection • Social protection n.e.c

n.e.c.: "not elsewhere classified"

ANNEX D

Classification and definition of occupations

The following classification resulted from the 2020 OECD Survey on Public Service Leadership and Capability, which also used the same definitions as in the 2020 OECD Survey on the Composition of the Workforce in Central/Federal Governments. This classification defines the four main hierarchical levels of occupations.

The classification and the definition of the occupations are an adaptation of the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO 08) developed by the International Labour Organization (ILO). Full definitions are available at *www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/isco/isco08/index.htm*.

The reason for the adaptation is that not all countries follow the ISCO model to classify their occupations in government, as the occupations included at the national level may differ due to specific legal and administrative frameworks.

Table D.1. **Classification and definition of occupations**

Top managers
D1 Managers (part of ISCO-08 1112) are top public servants just below the minister or secretary of state/ junior minister. They can be a member of the senior civil service and/or appointed by the government or head of government. They advise government on policy matters, oversee the interpretation and implementation of government policies and, in some countries, have executive powers. D1 managers may be entitled to attend some cabinet/council of ministers meetings, but they are not part of the cabinet/council of ministers. They provide overall direction and management to the ministry/secretary of state or a particular administrative area. In countries with a system of autonomous agencies, decentralised powers, flatter organisations and empowered managers, D1 managers will correspond to Director Generals.
D2 Managers (part of ISCO-08 11 and 112) are just below D1 managers. They formulate and review the policies and plan, direct, co-ordinate and evaluate the overall activities of the ministry or special directorate/unit with the support of other managers. They may be part of the senior civil service. They provide guidance in the co-ordination and management of the programme of work and leadership to professional teams in different policy areas. They determine the objectives, strategies, and programmes for the particular administrative unit / department under their supervision.
Middle managers (have managerial responsibilities for at least 3 staff)
D3 Managers (part of ISCO-08 12) are just below D2 managers. They plan, direct and co-ordinate the general functioning of a specific directorate/administrative unit within the ministry with the support of other managers usually within the guidelines established by a board of directors or a governing body. They provide leadership and management to teams of professionals within their particular area. These officials develop and manage the work programme and staff of units, divisions or policy areas. They establish and manage budgets, control expenditures and ensure the efficient use of resources. They monitor and evaluate performance of the different professional teams.
D4 Managers (part of ISCO-08 121) are just below D3. They formulate and administer policy advice, and strategic and financial planning. They establish and direct operational and administrative procedures, and provide advice to senior managers. They control selection, training and performance of staff; prepare budgets and oversee financial operations, control expenditures and ensure the efficient use of resources. They provide leadership to specific professional teams within a unit.
Professionals
Senior economists / policy analysts (part of ISCO-08 242 and 2422) do not have managerial responsibilities (beyond managing 3 staff maximum), and are above the ranks of junior analysts and administrative/secretarial staff. They are usually required to have a university degree. They have some leadership responsibilities over a field of work or various projects, develop and analyse policies guiding the design, implementation and modification of government operations and programmes. These professionals review existing policies and legislation in order to identify anomalies and out-of-day provisions. They analyse and formulate policy options, prepare briefing papers and recommendations for policy changes. Moreover, they assess the impact, financial implications and political and administrative feasibility of public policies. Staff in this group have the possibility of becoming a manager through career progression. Their areas of expertise may vary from law, economics, politics, public administration, international relations, to engineering, environment, pedagogy, health economics, etc. Senior policy analysts/economists have at least 5 years of professional experience.

Table D.1. **Classification and definition of occupations** *(cont.)*

Junior economists/policy analysts (part of ISCO-08 242 and 2422) are above the ranks of administrative/ secretarial staff. They are usually required to have a university degree. They have no leadership responsibilities. They develop and analyse policies guiding the design, implementation and modification of government operations and programmes. These professionals review existing policies and legislation in order to identify anomalies and out-of-day provisions. They analyse and formulate policy options, prepare briefing papers and recommendations for policy changes. Moreover, they assess the impact, financial implications and political and administrative feasibility of public policies. Their areas of expertise may vary from law, economics, politics, public administration, international relations, to engineering, environment, pedagogy, health economics, etc. Junior policy analysts/economists have less than 5 years of professional experience.
Secretarial positions
General office clerks (part of ISCO-08 411 and 4110) are generally not required to have a university degree although many do. They perform a wide range of clerical and administrative tasks in connection with money-handling operations, travel arrangements, requests for information and appointments; record, prepare, sort, classify and fill information; sort, open and send mail; prepare reports and correspondence; record issue of equipment to staff; respond to telephone or electronic enquiries or forward to the appropriate person; check figures, prepare invoices and record details of financial transactions made; transcribe information onto computers, and proofread and correct copy. Some assist in the preparation of budgets, monitoring of expenditures, drafting of contracts and purchasing or acquisition orders. The most senior who supervise the work of clerical support workers are excluded from this category.

ANNEX E

Methodology for composite indexes on Strategic Human Resources Management

1. Data used for the composite indexes for human resources management (HRM) are derived from the 2020 OECD (GOV) Survey on Public Service Leadership and Capability and the 2020 OECD (GOV) Survey on the Composition of the Workforce in Central/Federal Governments. Survey respondents were predominantly senior officials in central government HRM departments, and the data refer only to HRM practices at the central government level.

2. Each composite index is based on a theoretical framework representing an agreed upon concept in the area it covers. The theoretical framework for these indicators refers to specific principles of the OECD Recommendation on Public Service Leadership and Capability (PSLC) (OECD, 2019[1]), which represents an international consensus on standards for a fit-for-purpose public service. Each index is constructed in close collaboration with experts and reviewed and validated by the delegates of the Working Party on Public Employment and Management.

3. Three composites indexes have been developed to measure contemporary public sector HRM developments and dilemmas on how best to manage human resources in the public sector in the 21st century, such as the extent of proactive recruitment practices, the management of the senior level public service, and the development of a diverse workforce. The variables comprising the indexes were selected based on their relevance to the concept.

4. When making cross-country comparisons, it is important to consider that definitions of the public service, as well as the organisations governed at the central level of government, may differ across countries.

5. Various statistical analyses were conducted to ensure the validity and reliability of the composite indicators. The survey questions used to create the indexes are the same across countries, ensuring that the indexes are comparable. Missing values were at times an issue for the Public Employment and Management database. Different techniques for estimating missing values were used based on the nature of the missing information, including mean replacement, expert judgment and/or eliminating the country from the calculation of each composite indicator. In order to eliminate scale effects, all the sub-indicators and variables were normalised between "0" and "1" prior to the final computation of the index.

6. After testing several weighting options (including equal weighting and factor weights), and based on expert judgement, the index on the Use of Proactive Recruitment Practices was built on equal weights of the components and the index on Managing the Senior Civil Service was built on equal weights of the variables composing each sub-indicator and then equal weights of the sub-indicators composing the overall index. The index on the Development of

a Diverse Central Government Workforce was built with a different weighting structure. To build the composites, all sub-indicators were aggregated using a linear method according to the accepted methodology. Some statistical tools (e.g. Cronbach's Alpha) were also employed to establish the degree of correlation among a set of variables comprising each index and to check the internal reliability of items in a model or survey. This implies that the variables included in an index each has intrinsic value and they capture the same underlying concept. Finally, sensitivity analysis using Monte Carlo simulations was carried out to establish the robustness of the indicators to different weighting options.

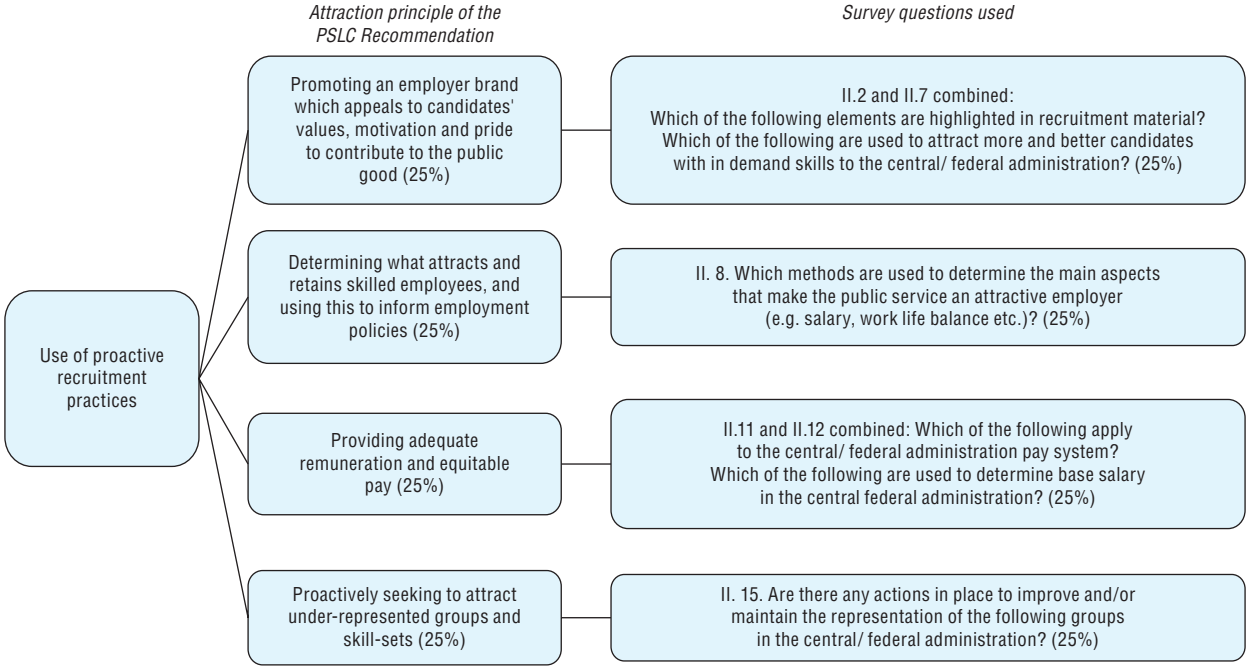
Pilot composite indicator 6.1: The Use of Proactive Recruitment Practices

7. Governments need to attract and recruit people with an increasingly diverse range of skills to keep pace with today's policy and service delivery challenges. This is why the PSLC Recommendation calls on governments to attract employees with the skills and competences required from the labour market, in particular by 1) promoting an employer brand which appeals to candidates' values, motivation and pride to contribute to the public good; 2) determining what attracts and retains skilled employees, and using this to inform employment policies; 3) providing adequate remuneration and equitable pay; and 4) proactively seeking to attract under-represented groups and skillsets. This composite indicator is organised around these four elements, each weighted equally (25%).

Variables and weights

The following items were used in the construction of this index and the weights are indicated in Figure E.1. Roman numerals refer to the module of the 2020 edition of the Public Service Leadership and Capability survey (I. = Leadership; II. = Attraction and retention; III. = Recruitment).

Figure E.1. **Variables and weights used in the Use of Proactive Recruitment Practices index**



Pilot composite indicator 6.3: Managing the Senior Level Public Service

8. Public service leaders – senior level public servants who lead and improve major government functions – are at the heart of government effectiveness. This is why the PSLC Recommendation calls on governments to build values-driven culture and leadership in the public service, in part through building leadership capability. To do this, OECD countries establish senior civil service systems to develop capable public service leaders and hold them accountable for results. This indicator is based on the senior civil service systems framework developed in the recent working paper "Leadership for a high performing civil service: Towards senior civil service systems in OECD countries" (Gerson, 2020[1]). The indicator is divided in two sub-indicators, each weighted equally (half of the final indicator). These sub-indicators measure:

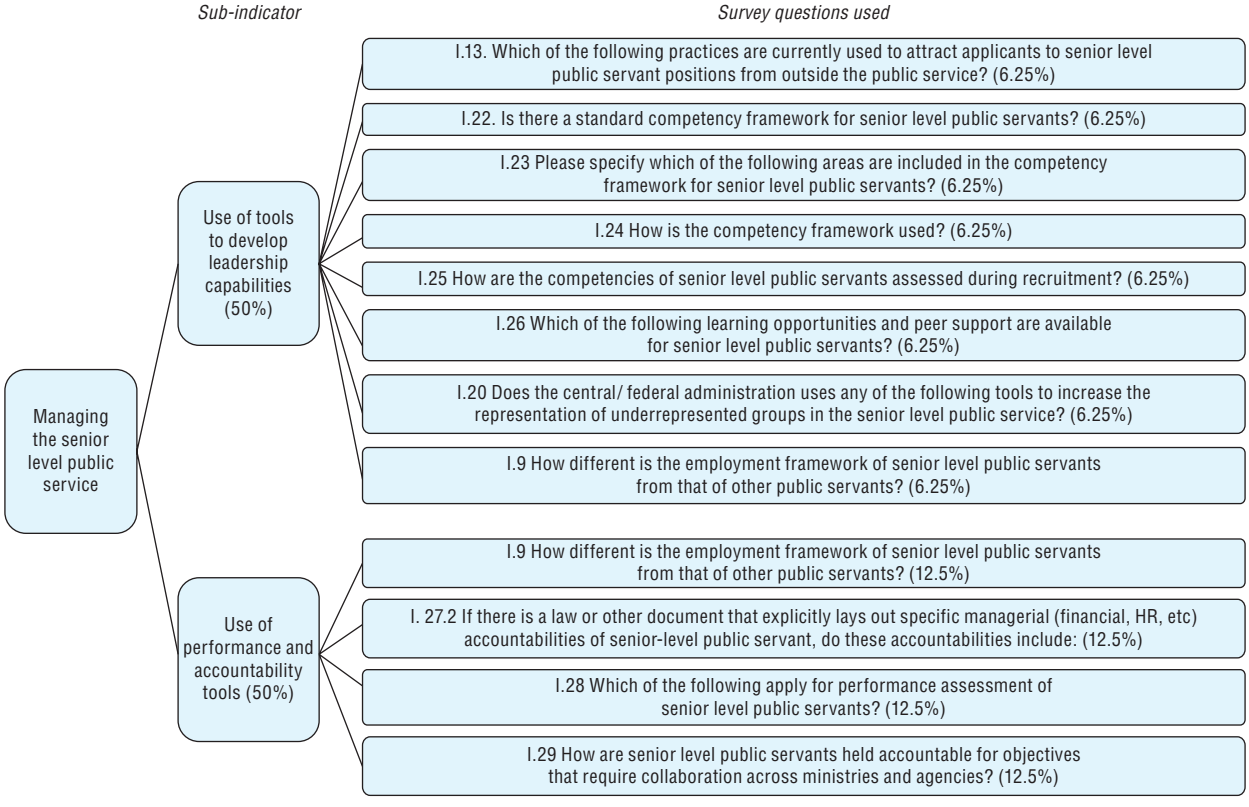
a. the use of tools to develop leadership capabilities within the senior civil service

b. the use of tools to promote accountability for performance and results.

Variables and weights

The following items were used in the construction of this index and were given equal weights (Figure E.2). Roman numerals refer to the module of the 2020 edition of the Public Service Leadership and Capability survey (I. = Leadership; II. = Attraction and retention; III. = Recruitment).

Figure E.2. **Variables and weights used in the Managing the Senior Level Public Service index**



Pilot composite indicator 6.5: Development of a Diverse Central Government Workforce

9. Diversity and inclusion in the public service workforce has been emerging in recent years as a priority for governments across the OECD. The PSLC Recommendation calls on Governments to ensure an inclusive and safe public service that reflects the diversity of

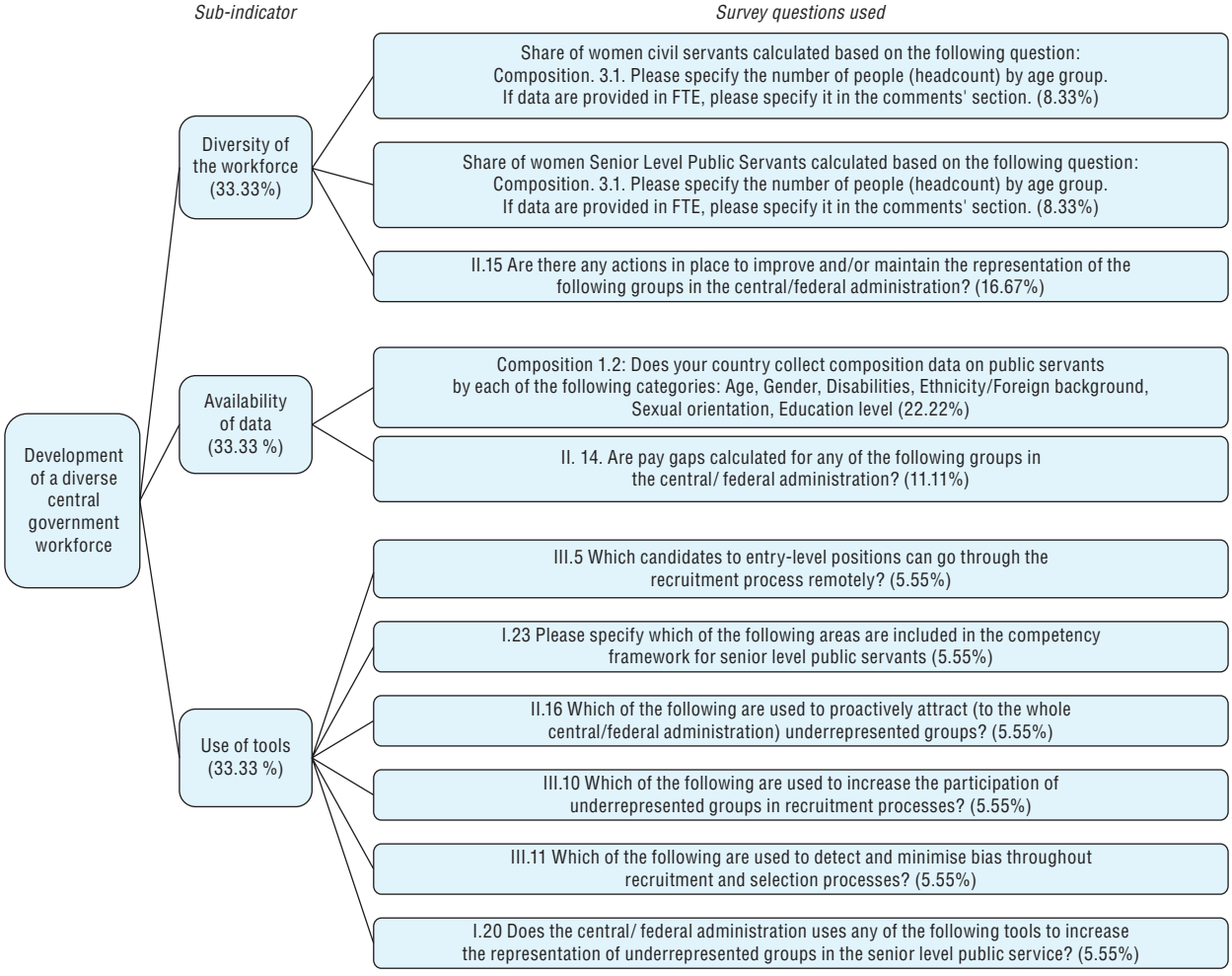
the society it represents, in particular through 1) publicly committing to an inclusive, and respectful working environment open to all members of society possessing the necessary skills; 2) developing measures of diversity, inclusion and wellbeing, and conducting measurement and benchmarking at regular intervals to monitor progress, detect and remove barriers, and design interventions; and 3) taking active steps to ensure that organisational and people management processes, as well as working conditions, support diversity and inclusion. This composite indicator is based on this principle and is the only indicator that combines data from the PSLC and composition surveys. This indicator is divided in three sub-indicators, each with a weighting of one-third of the final indicator. These sub-indicators measure:

a. the diversity of the workforce
b. the availability and use of data to track diversity
c. the use of tools to develop a diverse workforce.

Variables and weights

The following items were used in the construction of this index and the subparts of the index were given equal weights (Figure E.3). Roman numerals refer to the module of the 2020 edition of the Public Service Leadership and Capability survey (I. = Leadership; II. = Attraction and retention; III. = Recruitment).

Figure E.3. **Variables and weights used in the Development of a Diverse Central Government Workforce index**



A detailed annex on the components for each of the three composite indicators is available online at *www.oecd.org/gov/govataglance.htm*, including the variables, answer options, scores and weights used to construct the composite indicators, as well as the statistical analysis carried out.

References

Gerson, D. (2020), "Leadership for a high performing civil service: Towards senior civil service systems in OECD countries", *OECD Working Papers on Public Governance*no. 40, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/ed8235c8-en*. [2]

OECD (2019), *Recommendation of the Council on Public Service Leadership and Capability*, OECD/LEGAL/0445. [1]

ANNEX F

Methodology for the OECD Digital Government Index

The OECD Digital Government Index (DGI) monitors the implementation of the OECD Recommendation of the Council on Digital Government Strategies, adopted on 15 July 2014. The recommendation calls for a paradigm shift from e-government to digital government, bringing governments closer to citizens and businesses through the adoption of strategic approaches to the use of digital technology and data to spur more open, participatory and innovative governments (OECD, 2014[1]).

The DGI draws upon the long-standing work of the OECD advising governments to strategise with digital technologies and data for improved and joined-up public services and operations, as well as increased trust in public institutions, as outlined in the OECD Digital Government Policy Framework (OECD, 2020[2]). The framework is a policy instrument to help governments design and implement policies to become digitally competent, and it frames the methodology and survey for the DGI across the six dimensions for digital maturity in the public sector:

- *Digital by design:* when a government governs and leverages digital technologies to rethink and re-engineer public processes, simplify procedures, and create new channels of communication and engagement with stakeholders.
- *Data-driven public sector:* when a government values data as a strategic asset and establishes governance, access, sharing and re-use mechanisms for improved decision making and service design and delivery.
- *Government as a platform:* when a government deploys a wide range of platforms, standards and tools to foster integration and coherence in the public sector as well as to help teams focus on user needs in public service design and delivery.
- *Open by default:* when a government opens up the public government data and policy-making processes (including algorithms), within the limits of existing legislation and balancing the national and public interest.
- *User-driven:* when a government accords a central role to people's needs and convenience in the shaping of processes, services and policies; and by adopting inclusive mechanisms that enable this to happen.
- *Proactiveness:* when a government anticipates people's needs and respond to them rapidly, avoiding the need for cumbersome data and service delivery processes.

Based on the Policy Framework, the DGI is a composite index composed of these six indicators, each equally weighted (1/6 each). The DGI additionally includes four transversal facets for a qualitative analysis on the comprehensiveness of digital government reforms across participant countries: *strategic approach, policy levers, implementation* and *monitoring*.

Data for the first and pilot edition of the DGI were collected through the OECD Survey on Digital Government 1.0, including answers from 33 countries (29 OECD countries and 4 key partner countries)[1].

Statistical analyses

The statistical analyses confirmed that the 210 items in the 6 dimensions measure the underlying concepts. The results obtained from the statistical analyses justified discussing country differences with both the composite score and the dimensions scores.

Four types of statistical analyses were conducted to ensure the highest standards of reliability and validity of the DGI. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the distribution of dimension scores, with no item whose average value was 0.0 or 1.0. The validity of all the items included in the composite scores has been confirmed. Correlation coefficients between item scores and dimension scores were calculated in order to check construct validity. Polyserial correlation[2] was employed if the number of categories for an item was less than 4, otherwise Pearson's correlation[3] was employed. Items whose correlation coefficients were less than 0.1 were reallocated or eliminated (Ubaldi and Okubo, 2020[3]).

Cronbach's alpha coefficients (α) – computed to verify the reliability of the dimension scores – confirmed the internal consistency for all dimensions (the coefficient ranged from 0.67 for the dimension of *open by default* to 0.91 for *digital by design*). In addition, the correlation between dimensions was analysed. The correlations ranged from 0.20 between *open by default* and *proactiveness* to 0.84 between *user-driven* and *digital by design*, implying that the dimensions measured related concepts. This confirmed the constructed validity of the Survey on Digital Government 1.0. Lastly, the correlation coefficients between the composite score and the dimension scores confirmed the dimensions measure similar aspects with the composite score, with correlations coefficients ranging from 0.65 for *open by default* to 0.93 for *user-driven* (Ubaldi and Okubo, 2020[3]).

Other international benchmarks

The use of digital technologies and data in the public sector has also been of interest to other international and multilateral organisations, with a particular focus on assessing the progress of e-government readiness and the availability of digital public services. Three measurement efforts stand out: the United Nations E-Government Survey, and the E-Government Benchmark and the Digital Economy and Society Index (DESI) of the European Commission (EC).

The United Nations has developed the global and long-standing E-Government Survey, a quantitative composite index to assess the readiness and capacity of public sector organisations to deliver digital services based on website assessment, telecommunications infrastructure and human resource endowment.

The European Commission has advanced the measurement work on digital services through two instruments. First, the EU E-Government Benchmark based on the Tallinn Ministerial Declaration of 2017, the Digital Single Market Vision and broader EU2020 goals. It is a monitoring instrument used by the EC to provide insight into the use of information and communication technology (ICT) in the public sector. Among its components, it evaluates the maturity of public services in terms of user centricity (availability of online services), transparency (implementation of good transparent service procedures), cross-border services and use of key technological enablers.

Second, the EC measures the broader role of digital technologies and data in EU countries through the Digital Economy and Society Index. The DESI encompasses five dimensions to assess Europe's digital performance, with a dedicated dimension for the availability of public

services through digital channels – along with connectivity, human capital, use of Internet services and integration of digital technologies.

Compared to other measurement efforts, the DGI values the "digital by design" principle, where digital technologies are systematically applied to improve policies, services and processes, broadening the scope of citizens' choices to interact with government, regardless their preferred channel (digital or not). The DGI and OECD vision on digital government and public sector data acknowledges the importance of shared tools and mechanisms to attain the full potential of digital technologies, as they enable integration across channels and organisations. In this sense, the DGI covers the implementation of cross-government digital and data standards, key enablers, and principles, as they have a major impact on whole-of-government approaches to a coherent design and provision of services, public sector operations, and decision-making processes.

Notes

1. For detailed information on countries' composite score and score per dimension, please consult Table F.1 (Digital government index dimension scores, 2019) [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260054*].
2. Correlation coefficient between a continuous variable and a discrete variable.
3. Correlation coefficient between two continuous variables.

References

OECD (2014), *OECD Recommendation on Digital Government Strategies*, OECD, Paris, *https://legalinstruments.oecd.org/en/instruments/OECD-LEGAL-0406*. [1]

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Ubaldi, B. and T. Okubo (2020), "OECD Digital Government Index (DGI): Methodology and 2019 results", *OECD Working Papers on Public Governance*, No. 41, OECD Publishing, Paris, *https://dx.doi.org/10.1787/b00142a4-en*. [3]

ANNEX G

Additional figures accessible online

Chapter 2. Public finance and economics

- G.1. Net capital transfers as a percentage of GDP, 2007, 2019 and 2020 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260073*]
- G.2. Annual average growth rate of real government debt per capita, 2007-19 and 2019-20 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260092*]
- G.3. General government gross debt, Maastricht definition, as a percentage of GDP, 2007, 2019 and 2020 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260111*]
- G.4. Structure of central government revenues, 2019 and 2020 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260130*]
- G.5. Structure of state government revenues, 2019 and 2020 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260149*]
- G.6. Structure of local government revenues, 2019 and 2020 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260168*]
- G.7. Structure of general government expenditures by function, 2019 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260187*]
- G.8. Change in the structure of general government expenditures by function, 2007 to 2019 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260206*]
- G.9. Structure of government expenditures by function of general public services, 2019 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260225*]
- G.10. Structure of government expenditures by function of public order and safety, 2019 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260244*]
- G.11. Structure of government expenditures by function of economic affairs, 2019 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260263*]
- G.12. Structure of government expenditures by function of education, 2019 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260282*]
- G.13. Structure of central government expenditures by function, 2019 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260301*]
- G.14. Structure of state government expenditures by function, 2019 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260320*]
- G.15. Structure of local government expenditures by function, 2019 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260339*]

- G.16. Structure of government expenditures by function of social protection, 2019 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260358*]
- G.17. Structure of government expenditures by function of health, 2019 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260377*]
- G.18. Change in the structure of government expenditures by function of social protection, 2009 to 2019 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260396*]
- G.19. Change in the structure of government expenditures by function of health, 2009 to 2019 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260415*]
- G.20. Structure of central government expenditures by economic transaction, 2019 and 2020 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260434*]
- G.21. Change in the distribution of general government revenues across levels of government, 2007 to 2019 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260453*]
- G.22. Change in the distribution of general government expenditures across levels of government, 2007 to 2019 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260472*]
- G.23. Government investment as a share of total investment, 2007 and 2019 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260491*]
- G.24. Structure of general government investment by function, 2019 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260510*]
- G.25. Structure of general government outsourcing expenditures, 2019 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260529*]

Chapter 4. Institutions

- G.26. Stakeholder participation processes used during the COVID-19 crisis, 2020 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260548*]
- G.27. Types of evidence or analyses needed to inform policy priorities, 2021 *[https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260567]*

Chapter 5. Budgeting practices and procedures

- G.28. Main responsible actors for decision-making, 2020 [*https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260586*]

Chapter 6. Human resources management

- G.29. Average employee engagement score by working pattern, 2020 *[https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260605]*

Chapter 7. Regulatory governance

- G.30. Independence and accountability of regulators, 2018 *[https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260624]*
- G.31. Types of performance information collected and published from regulators, 2018 *[https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260643]*

Chapter 8. Public procurement

- G.32. Change in the structure of general government procurement spending by function, 2012 to 2019 *[https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260662]*
- G.33. General government procurement spending by level of government, 2007, 2019 and 2020 *[https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260681]*

- G.34 Countries with provisions for action against infringements of RBC standards, 2020 *[https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260700]*
- G.35 Percentage of countries that monitor implementation of RBC objectives in public procurement, 2020 *[https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260719]*

Chapter 9. Open government

- G.36. Categories of staff and institutions for which open government trainings are available, 2020 *[https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260738]*

Chapter 10. Digital government

- G.37 Training initiatives available for civil servants, 2019 *[https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260757]*

Chapter 12. Integrity

- G.38. Adequacy of implementation structures and reporting, 2020 *[https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260776]*

Chapter 13. Core government results

- G.39. Confidence in national government by age group, 2019 *[https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260795]*

Chapter 14. Serving citizens

- G.40. Citizen confidence in the police, 2010 and 2020 *[https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260814]*
- G.41. Countries' efforts driven by digital technologies to ensure and/or increase the inclusion and participation of selected groups in service delivery, 2019 *[https://doi.org/10.1787/888934260833]*

ANNEX H

Members of the Government at a Glance Steering Group[1]

Country	Name	Title/Position	Ministry
Austria	Michael Kallinger	Head of Unit for Innovative Administrative Development	Federal Chancellery, Public Service and Innovative Administrative Development
Belgium	Jacques Druart	Head of International Co-ordination	Federal Chancellery, Public Service Personnel and Organisation
Canada	Nicholas Chesterley	Director Strategic Planning	Treasury Board
Chile	Raimundo Monge	Head of Interministerial Coordination Division	Ministry General Secretariat of the Presidency
Finland	Katju Holkeri	Head of Government Policy Unit	Ministry of Finance
France	Yves Taupenas	Counsellor	Permanent Delegation of France to the OECD
Hungary	Zsuzsanna Gregor	First Secretary	Permanent Delegation of Hungary to the OECD and UNESCO
Ireland	Evan Coady	Public Policy Counsellor	Permanent Delegation of Ireland to the OECD
Italy	Angela Guerrieri	Manager of the European programming and controls service	Department for Public Administration
Japan	Maki Takahashi	First Secretary	Permanent Delegation of Japan to the OECD
	Laure Millet	Assistant	Permanent Delegation of Japan to the OECD
Korea	Michan Park	Deputy Director	Ministry Interior and Safety in the Republic of Korea.
	Seungchul Ha	Counsellor	Permanent Delegation of Korea to the OECD
Latvia	Inita Paloviča	Deputy Director	State Chancellery Republic of Latvia, Department For Public Administration Policy
	Inese Kušķe	Cross-sectoral Coordinator	State Chancellery Republic of Latvia, Department For Public Administration Policy
Mexico	Guillermo Gutierrez Nieto	Counsellor	Permanent Delegation of Mexico the the OECD
	Adrian Franco Barrios	Vice president	National Institute for Statistics and Geography
	Oscar Silva Lopez	Policy Analyst	Permanent Delegation of Mexico the the OECD
Netherlands	Frans van Dongen	Program Manager	Ministry of Interior and Kingdom Relations
Norway	John Nonseid	Senior Advisor	Agency for Public Management and eGovernment/Ministry of Government Administration and Reform
Romania	Monica Giurgiu	Coordinator	General Secretariat of the Romanian Government
Slovenia	Klaudia Korazija	Adviser on International Relations	Ministry of Public Administration
Spain	Leon Azcarate	Technical Advisor	Ministry of Territorial Development and Public Administration
Sweden	Love Berggrund	Analyst	Swedish Agency for Public Management, Statskontoret
United Kingdom	Lin Yan	Counsellor and Head of Economic and Social Policy Team	Permanent Delegation of UK to the OECD
	Caleb Deeks	Deputy Director	Cabinet Office

1. The Government at a Glance Steering Group is an informal group of the OECD Public Governance Committee. Participation is open to all member countries. The Steering Group, which was set up since the first edition of Government at a Glance (which was published in 2009), meets regularly to advise on the publication and more generally on public governance statistics and data.

Glossary

Terms Used in *Government at a Glance*

Agencies — Organisations at the central level of government which, although typically in the organisational hierarchy are located under the authority of line ministries and report to a minister, can also in some cases report directly to the president, prime minister or cabinet.

Allocation — The designation of funds in the budget to a government programme or organisation. Central budget authorities and line ministries may, based on performance information, increase or reduce their allocations.

Budget — A comprehensive statement of government financial plans which include expenditures, revenues, deficit or surplus and debt. The budget is the government's main economic policy document, demonstrating how the government plans to use public resources to meet policy goals and- to some extent- indicating where its policy priorities lie.

Central Budget Authority — The central budget authority (CBA) is a public entity, or several co-ordinated entities, located at the central/national/federal level of government, which is responsible for budget formulation and oversight. In many countries, the CBA is often within or is synonymous with the ministry of finance/economy.

Centre of Government — The centre of government (CoG) is the institution, or group of institutions, that provides direct support to the chief executive, i.e. president or prime minister, who leads the management of government. Unlike line ministries and other government agencies, the CoG does not deliver services directly to the citizens, and it does not focus on a specific policy area. On the contrary, the CoG performs cross-government functions such as setting overall policy direction and coordinating the activities of different ministries and agencies.

Civil Servant — Civil servants are only those public employees covered under a specific public legal framework or other specific provisions.

Consultation — A more advanced level of participation that entails a two-way relationship in which stakeholders provide feedback to the government and vice-versa. It is based on the prior definition of the issue for which views are being sought and requires the provision of relevant information, in addition to feedback on the outcomes of the process.

Data	A value or set of values representing a specific concept or concepts. Data become "information" when analysed and possibly combined with other data in order to extract meaning, and to provide context.
Digital by default (front-office aspect)	This refers to the decision of making the use of online platforms and channels mandatory or as a clearly preferred means for the interaction of citizens and businesses (e.g. access to public services) with the public sector.
Digital by design (back-office aspect)	The extent to which a government embeds the full potential of digital technologies right from the start when formulating policies and designing services, e.g. digitalising internal processes ("zero paper administration") with the intent to rethink, reengineer and simplify them and make service delivery efficient, inclusive and sustainable for citizens and businesses regardless of the channel used to interact with the public authorities (OECD Concept Note "Digital Government Framework").
Digital Government	Digital government refers to the use of digital technologies, as an integrated part of governments' modernisation strategies, to create public value. It relies on a digital government ecosystem comprised of government actors, non-governmental organisations, businesses, citizens' associations and individuals which supports the production of and access to data, services and content through interactions with the government (OECD Recommendation on Digital Government Strategies).
Effectiveness	The extent to which a policy, programme and/or organisation's stated objectives have been met.
Efficiency	Costs per unit of output. Measuring efficiency aims to measure whether policies, programmes, and/or organisations are achieving the maximum output from a given level of resources (inputs).
Employee engagement	Employees' willingness and ability to invest themselves and their work in the organisation's goals. Employee engagement describes and measures the link between employees, the work they do and the organisations within which they work. The OECD measures employee engagement by assessing job satisfaction, work engagement, and organisational commitment.
Engagement	When stakeholders are given the opportunity and the necessary resources (e.g.information, data and digital tools) to collaborate during all phases of the policy-cycle and inthe service design and delivery.
***Ex-ante* green budget tagging**	The tagging of budget measures in advance of budget execution (i.e. as part of the budget proposal, draft budgetary plans or also budget law) to inform the budget's relevance and contribution to environmental and climate objectives.
***Ex-post* green budget tagging**	The tagging of budget measures after final allocation and/or execution of budget measures to inform the budget's relevance and contribution to environmental and climate objectives.

Full-time equivalent (FTE)	A full time equivalent is a unit to measure employed persons in a way that makes them comparable although they may work a different number of hours per week. The unit is obtained by comparing an employee's average number of hours worked to the average number of hours of a full-time worker. A full-time worker is therefore counted as one FTE, while a part-time worker gets a score in proportion to the hours he or she works.
General employment framework in the public service	Framework establishing the employment conditions for most central government public employees. Legally, this framework can be embodied in civil service or public service law, labour law, or a combination.
Green budget tagging	The identification and tracking of budget measures in accordance to their environmental and/or climate impact. The scope of tagging can include relevant expenditures and revenues that have direct or indirect effects on the climate and environment.
Green budgeting	Using the tools of budgetary policy-making to help achieve environmental and climate goals. This includes evaluating environmental impacts of budgetary and fiscal policies and assessing their coherence towards the delivery of national and international commitments. Green budgeting can also contribute to informed, evidence-based debate and discussion on sustainable growth.
Headcount	The total number of people employed by an organisation
High level official	A senior public official in the ministry. For example permanent secretary, departmental secretary, state secretary, secretary-general, deputy minister, etc.
ICT (Information Communications Technology)	Refers to information technology equipment (computers and related hardware), communications equipment, and software (financial management information systems).
Informal consultation with selected groups	Ad hoc meetings with selected interested parties, held at the discretion of regulators (OECD Regulatory Indicators Questionnaire 2008).
Inputs	Measures of the units of labour, capital, goods and services (or the costs of such units) utilised by government organisations or government-financed organisations to produce public goods and services.
Line Ministries	Central government organisations responsible for designing and implementing policies in line with wider Government policies, and for the direction of agencies/executive units under their authority. Line ministries may be called departments in some countries, and have responsibility for their own budget portfolios although they must report to central budget authorities and are subject to their review.
Minister	The most senior political role within a portfolio. In Westminster system governments, these are typically styled "ministers", but the title varies (OECD Best Practice Principles of the Governance of Regulators, 2014).

Ministry	The term ministry is used in the same way as departments and refers to the organisation headed by a minister/secretary of state who is in direct hierarchical relationship with staff below.
National government	The national, central, or federal government that exercises authority over the entire economic territory of a country, as opposed to local and regional governments.
Outcomes	Outcomes refer to what is ultimately achieved by an activity. Outcomes reflect the intended and/or unintended results of government actions (e.g. policies, programmes and other activities). Examples of outcomes include the change in student test scores following an increase in hours taught, the change in the incidence of a disease following an immunisation programme, or the change in income inequality following the introduction of a new welfare payment. Outcomes are a broader performance metric than outputs, and are harder to measure since generally factors outside of the governments' intervention also play a role in influencing outcomes.
Outputs	Outputs are defined as goods and services produced and/or provided by government (or government financed) organisations. These measures are derived from the direct measurement of output volume. Some examples include: teaching hours delivered, immunisations provided or welfare benefits paid. Outputs tend to be easier to measure than outcomes.
Policy	A government policy is a decision determined by the government to (i) address socio-economic challenges in a country (or in the case of foreign policy, in the country's relations with other countries) and usually also decisions about (ii) how these challenges will be addressed. Policies are governments' main tools for guiding action, and are typically expressed in laws/regulations, official policy statements or guidelines, and institutions which then result in programmes and specific initiatives financed and/or conducted by government organizations to address these challenges. In addition to foreign policy (e.g. rules for governing a Government's relations with other countries), Governments enact fiscal policy (e.g. rules for governing a government's actions with respect to aggregate levels of revenue and spending), monetary policy (e.g. rules for governing a government's influence over money market and credit conditions), as well as environmental policy and social policy (among others).
Regulators	Administrators in government departments and other agencies responsible for making and enforcing regulation (OECD Regulatory Indicators Questionnaire 2008).
Regulatory Impact Assessment (RIA)	Systematic process of identification and quantification of benefits and costs likely to flow from regulatory or non-regulatory options for a policy under consideration. May be based on benefit/cost analysis, cost effectiveness analysis, business impact analysis etc. (adapted from OECD Regulatory Indicators Questionnaire 2008).
Regulatory policy	The set of rules, procedures and institutions introduced by government for the express purpose of developing, administering and reviewing regulation.

Regulatory reform	Changes that improve regulatory quality, that is, enhance the performance, cost-effectiveness, or legal quality of regulation and formalities. "Deregulation" is a subset of regulatory reform (OECD Regulatory Indicators Questionnaire 2008).
Resilience	"The capacity of systems to absorb a disturbance, recover from disruptions and adapt to changing conditions while retaining essentially the same function as prior to the disruptive shock" (OECD, 2019).
Risk	Risk should be understood as the combination of the likelihood of an adverse event (hazard, harm) occurring, and of the potential magnitude of the damage caused (itself combining the number of people affected, and severity of the damage for each) (OECD, Best Practice Principles of Regulatory Enforcement and Inspections, 2014).
Risk Management	Risk management is the application of policies and strategies to preventnew risk, reduce existing risk and manage residual risk, contributing to the strengthening ofresilience and reduction of damages and losses
Spending Reviews	A spending review is the process of identifying scope to make savings, either to reduce overall government expenditure or to identify fiscal space, enabling resources to be reallocated in line with with the government's policy priorities. Spending reviews differ from other types of evaluation by looking not only at programme effectiveness and efficiency under current funding levels, but also examining the consequences for outputs and outcomes of alternative funding levels. Spending reviews will typically review baseline expenditures and may also include specific targets for spending reductions. Spending reviews may be broad based, covering all government expenditures, or limited to certain ministries or programmes.
Strategy	Refers to a document (e.g. policy document, white paper) that defines the vision, objectives, goals, main actors, main actions and system of monitoring (indicators).
Subordinate regulation	Regulations that can be approved by the head of government, by an individual minister or by the cabinet - that is, by an authority other than the parliament/congress. Please note that many subordinate regulations are subject to disallowance by the parliament/congress. Subordinate regulations are also referred to as "secondary legislation" or "subordinate legislation" or "delegated legislation" (Adapted from OECD Regulatory Indicators Questionnaire 2008).
User	A user is understood as citizens, legal entities such as businesses or non-governmental organisations, or civil servants within the public sector itself. The user is most commonly understood as citizens and businesses.

Government at a Glance 2021

The 2021 edition includes input indicators on public finance and employment; process indicators include data on institutions, budgeting practices, human resources management, regulatory governance, public procurement, governance of infrastructure, public sector integrity, open government and digital government. Outcome indicators cover core government results (e.g. trust, political efficacy, inequality reduction) and indicators on access, responsiveness, quality and satisfaction for the education, health and justice sectors. Governance indicators are useful for monitoring and benchmarking governments' progress in their public sector reforms.

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