

Operationalising societal and individual wellbeing: from theory to policy practice in Scotland, New Zealand, and Wales

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Abstract

How can societal and individual wellbeing become an integral value to consider in public policymaking? Paying attention to *wellbeing* as opposed to welfare forms a contemporary trend in both socio-economic theory and policy practice. This paper asks how wellbeing as a broad theoretical concept can be operationalised and applied in public policymaking, and what a wellbeing-oriented policymaking framework may look like in practice. In answering this question, the paper conducts a comparative case study analysis. Scotland's National Performance Framework (NPF), New Zealand's Living Standards Framework (LSF), and Wales's Shared Purpose Shared Future (SPSF) are discussed and compared as three prominent examples of a wellbeing-based framework for national policymaking. The main findings are that *objective* wellbeing, and the capabilities approach in particular, is most suited for public policymaking, and that a wellbeing framework should guide policymakers in trade-offs and prioritising, rather than calculate and prescribe the correct policy option.

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1. Introduction

How can wellbeing become an integral value to consider in public policymaking? Paying attention to societal and individual *wellbeing* – rather than *welfare* – forms a contemporary trend in both socio-economic theory and policy practice. It generally starts from the premise that a country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is a too narrow proxy for all aspects that are relevant to societal wellbeing. Within this 'beyond GDP' movement, the argument is that we are in need of an alternative measure of progress – one that captures a broader range of factors that make up sustainable wellbeing.

The main research question that this paper addresses is how wellbeing as a broad theoretical concept can be translated into an applicable concept for policymaking, and what a wellbeing-oriented policymaking framework may look like in practice. Put differently, it asks how wellbeing as a concept can be *operationalised* for public policymaking. In recent years, much academic attention has been paid to the concept and theory of wellbeing, including proposals for universal wellbeing factors and indicators. Besides this more normative-philosophical work, some recent empirical studies look at policy fields where the concept of wellbeing is used in practice, for instance in the realm of leisure (Mansfield et al. 2020) or health care ([Anand et al. 2020](#)), or at a specific organisation that seeks to apply the concept in their decision-making (Vik and Carlquist 2018). However, a systematic study of how the concept of wellbeing may be operationalised and translated into an applicable framework for national public policymaking seems lacking. As the concrete objectives that one has in pursuing wellbeing depend strongly on the underlying concept that one has of such wellbeing, this question of operationalisation is important indeed – especially given the plurality of meanings of wellbeing as a rather abstract and multifaceted concept.

This paper is structured as follows. The next section presents the theoretical framework of the paper, in which we seek to define wellbeing and look for the type of wellbeing that is suitable in a policymaking context. Central to this discussion are the juxtapositions of objective and subjective wellbeing, and individual and collective wellbeing. We subsequently discuss our research approach and spell out the elements that we analyse in a comparative case study. The possible ways in which the concept can be operationalised for public policymaking is empirically answered by investigating the cases of Scotland's National Performance Framework (NPF), New Zealand's Living Standards Framework (LSF), and Wales's Shared Purpose Shared Future (SPSF) as three prominent examples of a wellbeing-based framework for national policymaking. As we will argue, these cases form leading examples – though by no means exhaustive options – of how wellbeing can be a central value in policymaking. We first present the policy frameworks in each of the cases consecutively and discuss how the models are used in national policymaking processes. In the analysis that follows we discuss and compare these findings. In the concluding section we reflect on what these findings mean for theory and practice of wellbeing-oriented policymaking, which includes some caveats.

2. Wellbeing in theory

2.1 On the concept of wellbeing

Scholars in the domain of wellbeing generally start from the premise that wellbeing should be the counterweight of welfare (or more concretely *wealth*) measured on the basis of people's income or, when speaking of the aggregate societal income level, measured in terms of Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The argument is that although wealth as such does contribute to wellbeing, the current focus on GDP is limited as this proxy fails to cover the broadness of wellbeing (Forgeard et al. 2011: 79-80; cf. Hueting 2019).

This means that whereas welfare has over time been increasingly grasped by one single measure, the GDP, wellbeing covers various aspects of human life. Therefore, as prominent wellbeing pioneers Joseph Stiglitz, Amartya Sen and Jean-Paul Fitoussi argue, wellbeing *necessarily* consists of multiple elements.

'[T]he time is ripe for our measurement system *to shift emphasis from measuring economic production to measuring people's well-being*. [...] Such a system must, of necessity, be plural – because no single measure can summarize something as complex as the well-being of the members of society [...].' (Stiglitz, Sen and Fitoussi 2009: 12 – emphasis in original)

Though the body of literature on wellbeing provides numerous lists of factors that are considered to contribute to, or indeed constitute wellbeing, a concrete *definition* of wellbeing is less prevalent. Wellbeing is often loosely equated with happiness, or used as a broad reference to quality of life. Wellbeing thinking emerges from a wide variety of domains, ranging from feminist theory (e.g. Nussbaum 2000; 2001), international development studies (e.g. UNDP 2010 based on Sen 1999), psychology (e.g. Layard 2005; Veenhoven 2004), to economics that seek to steer away from default focus on growth, and anchor environmental protection or inequality as central and permanent factors in our thinking of societal development (e.g. Raworth 2017; Mazzucato 2018; Stiglitz et al. 2009). As the specific facets that are important for wellbeing differ across these various research domains, it is helpful to have an understanding of what is meant with wellbeing as such and which meaning is relevant for public policymaking.

2.2 Individual and collective wellbeing

A definition that maintains a broad perspective on wellbeing, and allows for various purposes of pursuing wellbeing, comes from Breslow and Sojka (2016). Emerged in the context of international development studies, they define human wellbeing as

'a state of being with others and the environment, which arises when human needs are met, when individuals and communities can act meaningfully to pursue their goals, and when individuals and communities enjoy a satisfactory quality of life.' (Breslow and Sojka 2016: 4).

Breslow and Sojka's definition¹ strongly focuses on wellbeing as an *individual* asset. Deriving from this, the pursuit of wellbeing focuses on individual wellbeing, such as one's income, mental state (like stress or depression), housing, and individual living environment. Wellbeing can however also be seen as a collective concept, considering the state of wellbeing of a community or country. Such a collective perspective coincides more with how GDP looks at the economic state of a country as a whole. Robeyns and Van der Veen (2007) offer a definition of wellbeing (or in their words 'quality of life') that is highly compatible with Breslow and Sojka's concept, but in a more collective vein. According to Robeyns and Van der Veen,

'[s]ustainable quality of life in a national setting is the quality of life enjoyed by the population within the national territory, the level of which is (1) viably reproducible for the current generation, given the natural and social resources commanded by the nation, and (2) is gained neither at the expense of an acceptable quality of life for (2a) members of the present generation outside the nation, nor of that of (2b) members of the next generations at home and (2c) the next generations elsewhere' (2007: 9).

¹ Note that (environmental) sustainability is not explicitly part of Breslow and Sojka's definition of wellbeing, whereas for others this is the most important element of wellbeing (e.g. Hueting and De Boer 2019) or even the core driver for proposing wellbeing-oriented economics (e.g. Raworth 2017).

With Breslow and Sojka's more individual focus on the one hand, and Robeyns and Van der Veen's more collective perspective on the other, one can readily see how the definition determines what exactly is being pursued: the individual state of being as a personal goal, or the collective state of being as a more public goal.

A closer look at these two definitions furthermore forms a good starting point for the two general ways in which one can approach the achieving of wellbeing: the *state of being* in Breslow and Sojka's definition refers to what people feel or experience, while the way in *which it arises* refers to what is necessary for people to be able to reach that state of being. In terminology used in the literature, these definitions suggest that wellbeing has a *subjective* (related to experience or feeling) and an *objective* (or *conditional*) component (e.g. Breslow and Sojka 2016; Forgeard et al. 2011; Comin 2005).

The following subsection discusses the juxtaposition between *subjective* and *objective* wellbeing in more detail, and explains how these two approaches relate to the distinction of individuals' experiences of wellbeing and collective conditions for wellbeing. In so doing, we argue that policymakers' focus logically lies with the collective conditions for wellbeing and that, within this focus, they are primarily steering on objective wellbeing measures.

2.3 Steering on subjective and objective wellbeing

Subjective wellbeing as a self-reported, personally experienced value draws on philosophical and psychological notions of happiness. Subjective wellbeing refers to the emotional quality by which life is experienced, for instance by having a sense of meaning (cf. Seligman 2002, see Forgeard et al. 2011: 96), and experiencing joy and pleasure instead of stress or anxiety (Hicks et al. 2013). A central element in this experienced state of being concerns the extent to which people can flourish, i.e. 'realize their potential' (Seligman 2011: 90), meaning that they can achieve the goals they set for themselves (e.g. Ryan and Deci 2000; Forgeard et al. 2011: 95). Evidently, it can strongly differ per person which activities do and which do not contribute to their experienced wellbeing. A person may be unable to attend a university due to lack of funds, but this may be devastating for the one person while another is indifferent about it.

In the objective wellbeing approach, the measures of wellbeing do not concern the experience of people, but instead refer to externally objectifiable elements such as level of education, or the accessibility or quality of health care or elderly care.² Importantly, objective wellbeing can concern measures (or indicators) *of* wellbeing on the one hand, and the precondition *for* wellbeing on the other. The former refers to objectively measurable elements or goods that can serve as a proxy for wellbeing, for it suggests how a person or community is doing. Indicators such as levels of education and accessibility of health care are then seen as *constitutive of* wellbeing (cf. Forgeard et al. 2011: 89). As an example, whereas subjective wellbeing may measure the happiness that a person experiences from reading a book, the objective wellbeing measure would look at the time someone spends reading – assuming that reading generally contributes to the people's experienced wellbeing.

Alternatively, such objective indicators can be as preconditions for wellbeing. The indicators then do not necessarily constitute wellbeing, but rather *allow for* pursuit of wellbeing. By way of explaining the difference between these two thoughts on objective wellbeing indicators, consider again the example of reading. The presence of a library in a community as the precondition for people to read is the conditional indicator of wellbeing, as having the library allows people to read as they like. In

² Although this section shows how objective wellbeing can be, and generally is, used in the context of *collective* conditions for wellbeing, it should be noted that objective wellbeing measures can also be applied at the individual level.

the conditional approach it is not the average time people in the community actually spend reading that is used as an indicator for wellbeing, as the desire to read and the wellbeing that people perceive from it differ per individual.

A prominent conditional approach in the literature on objective wellbeing is the *capabilities approach* (Sen 1999; Robeyns 2017), which considers people's wellbeing in terms of their capabilities to perform activities. Being able, or indeed capable, to do something that contributes to people's wellbeing is the condition for such wellbeing. In this line of work, distinctions are made between *capabilities* as possibilities that people actually have (e.g. the presence of the library); *resources* that are available as the means to achieve the activity (e.g. money for a library subscription); and actual activities, also called *functionings* (e.g. the actual reading of books).

The relationships between capabilities, resources and functionings, and how they lead to experienced wellbeing is schematically presented in Figure 1 below.

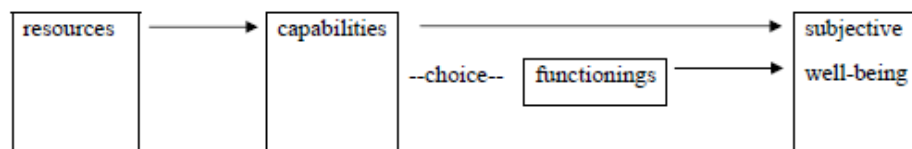


Figure 1 Relationships between resources, capabilities, functionings and wellbeing (Robeyns and Van der Veen 2007: 53)

As the schematic presentation in Figure 1 indicates, capabilities turn resources into functionings. The reasoning is that resources, such as income, cannot on their own sufficiently account for actual wellbeing. Even in a country with high GDP, poor access to education and healthcare, lack of universal suffrage and a deteriorating environment will hamper people's functionings and (thus) their wellbeing. Note that the arrow from capabilities runs to subjective (experienced) wellbeing both directly and via functionings. This means that besides the performing of functionings (i.e. activities), also the mere presence of the capabilities has an effect on wellbeing. Indeed, the presence of a library can generate a sense of wellbeing, even for those who are not inclined to go and read there.

With an eye on public policymaking, furthermore, this approach sees capabilities as freedoms: people will always need to have freedom of choice to use their capabilities to perform those activities that they think contribute to their version of 'the good life'. Accordingly, policy that narrowly focuses on changing people's behaviour to what is regarded to lead to wellbeing without giving them freedom in that, will not necessarily contribute to extending their capabilities or wellbeing. In the same example, policy that forces people to spend more time reading books does not necessarily yield more experienced wellbeing among everyone in the community, while the ability to go to the library does.

In sum, the capabilities approach advocates public policymaking that enables people to pursue those things that contribute to their wellbeing as they see fit, and thus provides the capabilities for wellbeing (Sen 1999: 75; Forgeard et al. 2011: 88).

2.4 Objective wellbeing indicators

Scholars from various theoretical and normative backgrounds have offered lists of capabilities that need to be present in order for people to achieve their wellbeing. Martha Nussbaum's list of ten non-negotiable conditions for 'truly human functioning' (2000; 2001) is often referred to in this

regard (see Appendix I). Although the contents of the different lists vary in accordance with the context within which they are written, they tend to include such items as economic resources, political rights and freedom, health and education (see Forgeard et al. 2011 for an extensive overview of lists).

A notable contribution to the capabilities literature is provided by Stiglitz, Sen and Fitoussi in their seminal wellbeing report for the so-called Sarkozy Commission (2009: 14-15). They propose the *dimensions* of wellbeing that are to be considered when making policy that steers toward wellbeing. 'At least in principle, these dimensions should be considered simultaneously' (Ibid. 14) which resonates with the idea that wellbeing is an inherently plural term:

1. Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth);
2. Health;
3. Education;
4. Personal activities including work
5. Political voice and governance;
6. Social connections and relationships;
7. Environment (present and future conditions);
8. Insecurity, of an economic as well as a physical nature.

Note that these dimensions include both physical and non-physical capabilities, and that they arguably cover the different *levels* of wellbeing embedded in the abovementioned definition (i.e. both individual and collective).

2.5 Wellbeing and policymaking

Robeyns and Van der Veen expressively question whether it should fall within the scope of public policy to have deep individual emotions as objectives for policymakers: '[although] intimate private decisions such as the choice of a life partner, or decisions following one's sexual proclivities, will undoubtedly affect an individual's quality of life over time very strongly, [...] it is probably wise not to include these aspects in a policy relevant measure, because they are not directly within the scope of legitimate social control' (2007: 21). They therefore conclude that '[g]overnments should indirectly provide for freedom of choice in these areas rather than regulating behaviour, even if such regulation might produce a better quality of life, however conceived' (Ibid.). In other words, public policy can legitimately create the conditions for personal decisions and behaviour, but it falls well outside its legitimacy to decide for people which actions or behaviour should contribute to their wellbeing and then steer those actions and behaviours directly.

In our reading of the literature, in short, policymaking focuses on objective wellbeing in the form of providing conditions for pursuing wellbeing, while both objective *and* subjective measures of wellbeing can be used for monitoring the state of, or developments in, wellbeing within a community or country (cf. Stiglitz, Sen and Fitoussi 2009: 15-16). Note that this conclusion can be read as the broad hypothesis of our comparative case study.

In answering the main question of this paper, the twofold focus is to what extent this wellbeing approach is reflected in policy practice, and how the pursuit of such wellbeing may be institutionally organised at the (collective) national level. To the best of our knowledge, theoretical studies have not addressed this question of operationalisation for public policymaking in practice (though Anand et al. 2007 have looked at how capabilities can be measured and used in practice).

3. Research approach: investigation of empirical cases

Having laid out the theoretical basis of wellbeing thinking, we next investigate three empirical cases in which wellbeing is pursued in national policymaking. In the case studies, we investigate and compare the designs and uses of the wellbeing frameworks. Explicit attention is paid to *i.* the categories of wellbeing that the policy framework encompasses and the (ostensible or explicit) theoretical premise of these categories, *ii.* which indicators are used for monitoring progress, *iii.* how the categories of wellbeing and the insights from the monitor guide policymaking, and *iv.* which institution(s) primarily use(s) the wellbeing framework.

Scotland, New Zealand and Wales are selected for this international comparative cases study, as these are arguably frontrunners with regard to the practical use of a wellbeing policymaking framework. Even though other countries, such as Sweden, Canada, and Finland are also well ahead with developing a wellbeing framework for policymaking (cf. [2019 OECD Economic Surveys](#)), hitherto only Scotland, New Zealand and Wales have been practically using a fully developed model for several years in practice. These cases thus allow for an empirical study of what is happening, rather than what is planned.

The case studies are based on the extensive information that is available on respectively the official websites of [Scotland's National Performance Framework](#), [New Zealand's Living Standards Framework](#), and [Wales's Shared Purpose Shared Future framework](#). In addition to this desk research, three semi-structured interviews with government officials working on the application of models were conducted.³ Those interviews served first and foremost to verify the interpretation of how the model is used, and to reflect on the (possible) theoretical basis.

The following section first describes the design and use of each of the frameworks in turn. The theoretical interpretations and comparison follow in the Analysis section.

4. Wellbeing in policy practice

4. 1 Scotland's National Performance Framework (NPF)

The National Performance Framework (NPF) is the overarching policymaking framework that the Scottish national Parliament uses with an aim on increasing 'the wellbeing of people living in Scotland' (nationalperformance.gov.scot). The NPF makes a distinction between the *policy objectives* that are to be achieved in order to reach high(er) levels of wellbeing, and the *indicators* that are used to determine the status of that wellbeing.

4.1.1 The NPF as a wellbeing framework

The Framework sets out so-called 'National Outcomes', which are the broad policy goals that should be achieved. Constituting together what a country with high wellbeing looks like, 'these outcomes describe the kind of Scotland it aims to create' (Ibid.) and are claimed to 'reflect the values and aspirations of the people of Scotland'.

The eleven National Outcomes' objective is that people:

1. grow up loved, safe and respected so that they realise their full potential;
2. live in communities that are inclusive, empowered, resilient and safe;
3. are creative and their vibrant and diverse cultures are expressed and enjoyed widely;
4. have a globally competitive, entrepreneurial, inclusive and sustainable economy;

³ At the time of conducting the research, officials in Wales seemed unavailable for an interview. However, the case study could be sufficiently conducted on the basis of the very extensive and rich information available online.

5. are well educated, skilled and able to contribute to society;
6. value, enjoy, protect and enhance their environment;
7. have thriving and innovative businesses, with quality jobs and fair work for everyone;
8. are healthy and active;
9. respect, protect and fulfil human rights and live free from discrimination;
10. are open, connected and make a positive contribution internationally;
11. tackle poverty by sharing opportunities, wealth and power more equally.⁴

Apart from these broad policy objectives, the NPF also entails a wellbeing monitor. The indicators used for the monitor span across a range of economic, social, and environmental measures, and concern both objective and subjective wellbeing indicators. Economic indicators include for instance the number of businesses, employment rate or international exporting. Social indicators include (objective) behaviour like participation in cultural activity but also (subjective) indicators like perception of loneliness. Environmental indicators include for instance the state natural sites and energy from renewable resources.

Progress per National Outcome is presented on the basis of an accumulation of indicators that are relevant for that particular wellbeing category. Progress on the National Outcome 'Culture' for instance reflects the progress measured on four indicators: 'Attendance at cultural events or places of culture', 'Participation in a cultural activity', 'Growth in cultural economy', and 'People working in arts and culture' (see Appendix II). Because of the clearness of how the indicators relate to the Outcomes, and the compact and clear presentation of the 81 indicators, we invite the reader to review the schematic depiction of the NPF in Appendix II.

Signifying the difficulty of precise numeric calculation and comparison of all these highly different indicators, the monitor expresses progress on any of the indicators in generic terms. Instead of providing percentages or indices, it simply indicates whether the indicator has improved, worsened or stayed the same. The National Outcome *Culture*, for instance, scores 'improving' on one of the four indicators, and 'worsening' on one of the indicators. Two of the four indicators for this wellbeing category are still to be confirmed (see [website](#)).

4.1.2 Using the NPF in policymaking

Although it is not our aim to discuss the legal basis of the NPF in great detail, it is important to mention the NPF's official status under Scottish law.

"In Statute – The Community Empowerment (Scotland) Act 2015 places a duty on Scottish Ministers to consult on, develop and publish National Outcomes for Scotland and to review them every five years. It also places a duty on public authorities to have regard to the national outcomes in carrying out their functions. Belongs to the whole of Scotland, not just an SG framework. Everyone has a role to play in contributing to the delivery of the National Outcomes." (source: nationalperformance.gov.scot)

This legal embedding is relevant in (at least) two ways. First, using the NPF is a legal obligation for policymakers rather than a voluntary 'nice-to-have'. Second, the legal text implies to whom the NPF applies and how it should be used in policymaking.

There are three main ways in which the NPF is applied in national policymaking, and in which the framework thus guides policymakers. (Note that the following overview does not reflect the

⁴ These National Outcomes are discussed in more detail on <https://nationalperformance.gov.scot/national-outcomes>

necessary order in which the different uses of the NPF occur in practice.) The wellbeing framework is used, firstly, in the national budget. In order for the budget to be approved, the expected impact of spending and taxing is not only assessed on the classical economic measures, but instead reflects on the impact on all National Outcomes. Using the NPF, national budgeting thus occurs on the basis of an integral picture of wellbeing.

Secondly, the National Outcomes as broad wellbeing objectives are to be translated into concrete policy by the government at the time. In this application, the National Outcomes are the explicit, albeit generic, *objectives* that are to be achieved through policymaking. Policymakers are to formulate concrete policy goals that contribute to achieving one (or several) of the overarching National Outcomes. It is important to stress that it is up to the government of the day to decide how exactly it seeks to achieve these National Outcomes: the NPF as such does not prescribe through what policy the Outcomes should be achieved, what priority particular Outcomes should be given, or which trade-offs between Outcomes are to be made. That means that working with these National Outcomes as generic wellbeing objectives still leaves room for political preference, political agendas, and debate – politics as usual if you will.

Thirdly, policymakers are required to explain and where possible measure how particular policy contributes to one or several National Outcomes. Policymakers have to write a so-called contribution story explaining the links of the proposed policy with one or several of the National Outcomes, and spell out what the expected short-term and long-term impact on wellbeing is. This way the wellbeing impact of *all* policy proposals – whether directly intended to achieve a National Outcome or not – is to be (roughly) estimated ex-ante, and monitored ex-post.

4.2 New Zealand's Living Standards Framework (LSF)

New Zealand's *Living Standards Framework* (LSF) is the wellbeing framework launched by the Treasury in 2011, and used by the Treasury to advise the government on policy areas that may require attention in order to enhance wellbeing. Comparable to Scotland's NPF, the LSF presents a number of wellbeing categories that the government should pursue, and is supported by a wellbeing monitor built of a high number of objective and subjective indicators.

4.2.1 The LSF as a wellbeing framework

Aimed to steer towards *intergenerational* wellbeing, the LSF distinguishes current and future wellbeing, and seeks to make the conditions for pursuing wellbeing resilient over time. Concretely this means that the framework presents twelve 'domains of current wellbeing' that should be pursued by the government as current or short-term wellbeing objectives, and on top of that defines four 'capitals' that need to be safeguarded to facilitate wellbeing on the long run.

The domains of current wellbeing refer to the factors essential for the government to provide in order for people to pursue their own wellbeing. It lists the following twelve categories that should be considered *together* by policymakers.

1. Civic engagement and governance;
2. Cultural identity;
3. Environment;
4. Health;
5. Housing;
6. Income and consumption;
7. Jobs and earnings;

8. Knowledge and skills;
9. Time use;
10. Safety and security;
11. Social connections;
12. Subjective wellbeing.⁵

Although we will discuss and interpret the theoretical grounding in more depth in the Analysis section, it is worth mentioning here that the LSF refers *explicitly* to the capabilities approach and the work of Sen, Stiglitz and Fitoussi as its theoretical basis and concept of wellbeing that the government is to pursue (see Truijens and Georgieva 2021: 26-27).

‘The philosophical approach to wellbeing in the current LSF remains centred on the capability approach developed in the 1980s. The approach asserts that wellbeing should be considered in terms of the capability of people to live lives that they have reason to value (Sen, 2003). Applied economic work by organisations such as the OECD has employed a range of interpretations of the approach, which point to the life outcomes that should be considered in any theory of wellbeing and public policy (Stiglitz, Sen, & Fitoussi, 2009).’ ([source](#))

In addition to the current wellbeing domains, the LSF also articulates four long-term factors, *natural capital, human capital, social capital, and financial and physical capital* as ‘assets that generate wellbeing now and in the future’. Although capitals like financial resources may not on their own be sufficient to directly effectuate actual wellbeing, these capitals need to be safeguarded now and in the future as scope conditions to ensure people’s pursuit of wellbeing ([source](#)). A visual presentation of the LSF is added to the Appendix (IV) and shows how the current domains and long-term capitals relate.

The LSF is supported by the LSF Dashboard consisting of 114 indicators. The Dashboard is quite comparable to the NPF monitor and includes both measures of objective and subjective wellbeing ([source](#)).⁶ Each wellbeing category (domain or capital) is measured by a combination of indicators and also the LSF Dashboard uses the broad indicators of progress *improve, constant, or decline* ([source](#)). The Dashboard is presented in the Appendix (V) to show the organisation of the data in relation to the current and future elements of the LSF.

4.2.2 Using the LSF in policymaking

As noted above, the LSF is a tool of the New Zealand Treasury rather than a framework used by Parliament or the government as a whole. Being the government’s primary economic and fiscal advisor, the Treasury is ‘responsible for providing advice to the Government to support the Minister of Finance’s broad responsibilities for economic, fiscal and financial policy’ and has ‘responsibility for advising the Minister of Finance on all Cabinet proposals with economic, financial, fiscal, [and regulatory] implications’ ([source](#)). Apart from the annual budgeting, the Treasury provides regular oral briefings to the government. This means that as a tool used by the Treasury, the LSF can indeed be rather impactful in the national policymaking cycle.

The use of the LSF as a wellbeing framework is legally anchored in the Public Finance (Wellbeing) Amendment Act, presented in 2020. The Act explicitly links fiscal responsibility to wellbeing, and requires the government to report on wellbeing progress made in various areas ([source](#)). This way,

⁵ New Zealand Government 2019: 4

⁶ As a rather distinctive feature, the LSF Dashboard is also used to track the *distribution* of wellbeing. Looking at how income, education, health or safety outcomes are distributed across the population, is a relatively new part of the Framework and has been added to acknowledge that inequality is increasing in certain aspects of life ([source](#)).

the Act not only determines *that* a wellbeing framework is to be used, but also suggests in what stages of policymaking this is relevant. As such, there are three main ways in which the LSF comes into play: advising the government in *i.* prioritising policies in the annual budget of the government and *ii.* clarifying trade-offs in policymaking, and *iii.* a national budget for wellbeing initiatives.

With regard to the budget policy statement, the Act requires policymakers to explain how the policy plans and spending contributes to the wellbeing domains ([section 26M\(5\)](#)). To this end, Treasury uses the LSF Dashboard to gain insight into which wellbeing categories require attention, and which policy fields this may relate to. On that basis, the Treasury provides a non-binding advice to the government on policy priorities. Signifying the explicitly advisory nature of this process, former director of the Treasury, Tim Ng explains, ‘it is up to the government of the day, that is, it is up to elected politicians to make trade-offs and make the value judgments that they need to deliver’ ([source](#)).

Alongside these more overarching national policy priorities, the LSF Dashboard is also used in a more policy-specific way. When it comes to concrete policy proposals, the Treasury uses the LSF Dashboard to assess, *ex ante*, the impact that (different) policy options may have on the wellbeing domains. The results then inform the policymakers on wellbeing trade-offs that the policy options may bear. This application of the LSF is comparable to the ‘contribution story’ seen in the NPF, with as a difference that the Treasury rather than the policymakers maps the (expected) contribution to the various wellbeing elements.

Finally, a share of the national budget is attributed to wellbeing-enhancing policy initiatives. The Treasury reserves a share of the annual budget (in 2019 this was around 4% of the total budget, OECD 2019: 48), which policymakers from different ministries can apply for. In their application, government agencies are to refer to the domains of the LSF to articulate the wellbeing benefits of their initiative ([source](#)). The Treasury then advises the government on packages of initiatives that would contribute most to achieving its wellbeing objectives.

4.3 Wales’s Shared Purpose Shared Future framework (SPSF)

Wales’s Shared Purpose Shared Future (SPSF) framework aims to ‘support and deliver a public service that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs’ ([SPSF 1: 3](#)). The SPSF presents seven wellbeing goals for policymakers to achieve (www.futuregenerations.wales). The intention is to have wellbeing thinking not as an add-on to the existing procedures, but rather for it to become the new integral *modus operandi*. To that end, the guidance documents of the SPSF detail – to a rather meticulous extent – the ways in which public bodies on various government levels must operate and cooperate to improve the wellbeing of Wales.

4.3.1 The SPSF as a wellbeing framework

Before turning to its design, it is useful to review how the SPSF defines wellbeing, as this definition has implication for how the Framework pursues it. Sustainable development, which is the primary concept of the SPSF is (somewhat tautologically) defined as follows.

“sustainable development” means the process of improving the economic, social, environmental and cultural well-being of Wales by taking action, in accordance with the sustainable development principle, aimed at achieving the well-being goals.” (SPSF: 5)

In this definition wellbeing is presented as a (necessary) conditions for sustainability. So rather than including sustainability as part of the wellbeing definition, the Welsh model turns it around and makes wellbeing a necessary condition of, or objective for, achieving sustainability.

The above definition has implications (whether intended or not) for the way in which the SPSF pursues wellbeing. First, it draws the focus on *processes* as the pathways for obtaining the desired outcomes. Although the SPSF does specify what wellbeing refers to, defined as the seven goals discussed below, sustainable development is essentially seen as a way of doing things rather than an end in itself ([SPSF 1: Core guidance, p. 5](#)). Secondly, apart from making the wellbeing of future generations a central consideration, the model's definition also provides a bridge between individual and collective wellbeing. The individual's quality of life is connected to the wellbeing of the collective by means of processes of sustainable development (Ibid.).

The SPSF has its statutory footing in the [Well-being of Future Generations \(Wales\) Act 2015](#), which provides detailed information on the framework itself as well as on the national well-being goals, the envisioned ways of working, and on the public bodies that need to comply with these provisions. This means, importantly, that the Act not only requires the use of a wellbeing framework, but also suggests what that framework should look like.

The SPSF states that factors determining a person's quality of life (i.e. their wellbeing) 'can broadly be categorised as environmental, economic, social and cultural factors' (SPSF: 5). As all these factors impact the wellbeing of individuals and that of the country as a whole, policymakers and other public actors should seek to achieve them as a *shared* purpose. These factors are defined as:

- A prosperous Wales;
- A resilient Wales;
- A healthier Wales;
- A more equal Wales;
- A Wales of cohesive communities;
- A Wales of vibrant culture and thriving Welsh language;
- A globally responsible Wales.

Each of these national wellbeing goals is specified further, which can be reviewed in the Appendix (VI), alongside the graphic depiction of the SPSF framework itself (Appendix VII).

Progress towards the seven national wellbeing goals is measured on the basis of [46 national indicators](#). Noteworthy about the Welsh monitor is that rather than presenting objective and subjective indicators that together indicate progress on one wellbeing category, the SPSF monitor presents specific measures that sometimes read like concrete policy objectives (such as 'percentage of live single births with a birth weight of under 2,500g' or 'percentage of children with fewer than two healthy lifestyle behaviours'). These indicators are subsequently linked to one or several of the seven wellbeing factors (see Appendix VIII).

The principle of sustainable development furthermore encompasses 'five ways of working' that public bodies are required follow. Public bodies should:

- look to the **long term** so that we do not compromise the ability of future generations to meet their own needs;
- take an **integrated** approach so that public bodies look at all the well-being goals in deciding on their well-being objectives;
- **involve** a diversity of the population in the decisions that affect them;
- work with others in a **collaborative** way to find shared sustainable solutions;
- and understand the root causes of issues to **prevent** them from occurring. (SPSF: 6)

These wellbeing goals and ways of working are legally binding for national and local governments, local health boards and other specified public institutions, including Sports Council and National Museum of Wales. The SPSF also applies to the Welsh Ministers, who therefore fall under the same wellbeing duty as other public bodies. The framework thus has an inherently multi-layered character ([SPSF 1: Core guidance, p. 25](#)).

4.3.2 Using the SPSF in policymaking

Apart from establishing the wellbeing framework as such, the wellbeing Act also details the wellbeing duties for public bodies on all government levels.⁷ Public bodies are obliged to take all reasonable steps to meet those wellbeing objectives, in accordance with the sustainable development principle and the five working ways outlined above. While the Act gives public bodies flexibility in setting their wellbeing goals and to do so in a way that matches their responsibilities and functions ([SPSF 2: Individual role \(public bodies\)](#)), their actions should ultimately take into account the improvement of long-term wellbeing.

The steps taken by public bodies can be short-, medium- or long-term actions for change, and should be outlined by them in a publication of their wellbeing goals (s.7(1) of the Act). The steps should explain concretely what will be done in order to achieve the organisation's long-term wellbeing objectives. Public bodies are furthermore required to review their wellbeing objectives annually to verify if those are still on track in contributing to the national wellbeing goals or that additional action or adjustment is needed. Figure 2 schematically presents the way in which the SPSF is to be applied by public bodies.

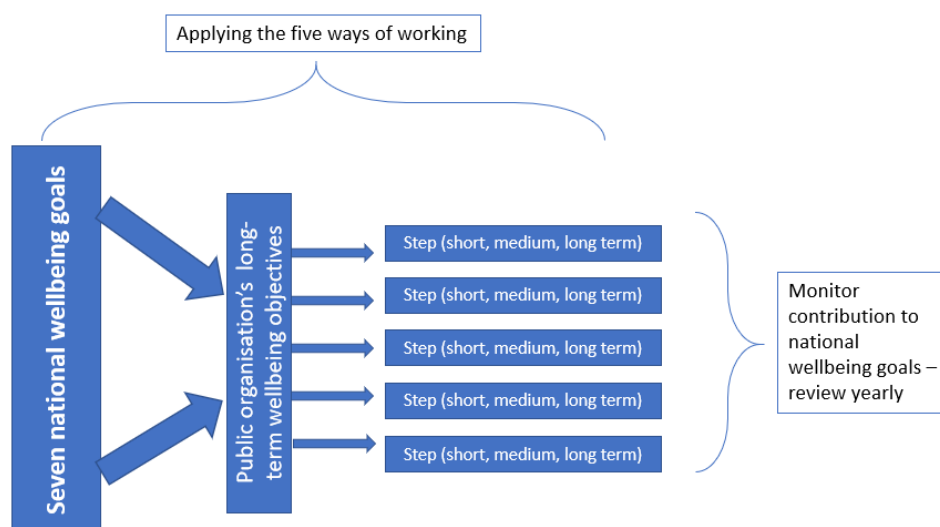


Figure 2 Application of the SPSF: from national wellbeing goals, long-term wellbeing objectives to concrete steps (author's elaboration)

Since Welsh Ministers also fall under the SPSF, this setting of wellbeing objectives and articulating concrete steps also applies to them. In other words, the seven national wellbeing objectives form

⁷ The architecture of the Act distinguishes between *individual* duties carried by every single public body (local or national), and *collective* duties, whose addressees are Public Services Boards. For the sake of conciseness, we here discuss the individual duties since these also form the basis of what collective duties entail – see Truijens and Georgieva 2021: 44.

the framework that national policymakers then translate into concrete policy – thereby applying the five ways of working. In turn, also the policies that national policymakers develop are to contribute in some way or form to the national wellbeing goals. At the national level, the SPSF thus serves on the one hand to inform policymakers on what goals to strive for and make policy for, and on the other hand to evaluate whether and how policy initiatives contribute to achieving one or several of the wellbeing goals – comparable to the NPF and the LSF.

The above shows that the SPSF is strongly based on regular evaluation and revision of goals and procedures. The national indicators form the empirical evidence for this process, and thus play a critically role in the work of public bodies under the SPSF. The Future Trends Report and the Annual Well-being Report are the two central cyclical and integrated wellbeing reports showing progress and indicating fields that require attention. In addition to these two national periodical reports, lower-level bodies are required to produce their own reports on local wellbeing developments.

5. Analysis: comparison and interpretation

This section analyses and compares the three wellbeing frameworks. Of first concern are the type of wellbeing that is being pursued as policy objectives for national policymakers and the (implicit or explicit) theoretical underpinnings of the model. With regard to the application of the models in policymaking, secondly, we compare the ways in which the model guides policymakers and look at the institution(s) that apply the model. Table 1 summarises the findings of the cases, each of which will be addressed in turn.

	NPF (Scotland)	LSF (New Zealand)	SPSF (Wales)
Theoretical premise	Capabilities approach – Sen, Stiglitz, Fitoussi (implicit)	Capabilities approach – Sen, Stiglitz, Fitoussi (explicit)	Wellbeing as <i>necessary condition</i> for sustainability
Policy objectives	Objective wellbeing (in the form of capabilities)	Objective wellbeing (capabilities)	Objective wellbeing
Monitoring indicators	Objective and subjective wellbeing measures	Objective and subjective wellbeing measures	Objective and subjective wellbeing, also <i>functionings</i> or seeming policy interventions
Framework used by	National government	Treasury	Government on all levels
Use in policy process	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Policy objective formulation 2. Assessing and evaluating all policies 3. Approval of national budget 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Policy objective formulation (advisory) 2. Assessing and evaluating policy options (advisory) 3. 4% of national budget spent on wellbeing initiatives 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Policy objective formulation 2. Assessing and evaluating all policies 3. Introducing new way of working of public agencies
Anchored in law	Yes	Yes	Yes

Advisory/ obligatory	Obligatory to follow the steps	Advisory (but obligatory to consider the advice)	Obligatory (new way of working)
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Table 1. Summary of comparison between the three empirical cases

5.1 Design of the wellbeing frameworks

Though the three frameworks differ in the precise definitions of their wellbeing categories, all three in principle show that objective wellbeing factors form the policy objectives, while progress in wellbeing is monitored on the basis of both objective and subjective indicators. Moreover, the wellbeing categories that serve as broad policy objectives in especially Scotland and New Zealand correspond rather neatly to the wellbeing dimensions proposed by Stiglitz, Sen and Fitoussi (see Appendix IX).

Furthermore, both the NPF in Scotland and the LSF in New Zealand show strong (indications of the) influence of the capabilities approach (Sen 1999; Robeyns 2017) on the overall structure and use of the wellbeing frameworks. Policymakers in both countries aim to pursue objective wellbeing factors as their policy goals, which should facilitate people in their performing functionings that contribute to their wellbeing. This aligns well with Robeyns and Van der Veen's schematic depiction of the capabilities approach. The LSF even clearly takes the *resources* into account that underlie the use of capabilities (cf. Robeyns and Van der Veen 2007: 53). Though the wellbeing factors in Wales's SPSF model do not show clear reference to, or resemblance with, the capabilities approach, the logic behind the seven (objective!) national wellbeing goals does resemble the capability view on wellbeing: it is for the government to provide the enabling conditions for people's wellbeing (Well-being of Future Generations Act 2015: 4).

5.2 From wellbeing goals to policy

As to the use of the frameworks, a similarity across all three frameworks is that the model itself does not prescribe exactly what policymakers ought to do. In that sense, neither of the frameworks define exactly what wellbeing is and how it should be pursued, other than providing the relevant categories. Generally speaking, the frameworks seem to have a twofold effect: they provide the various categories of wellbeing as broad *goals* that policymakers should seek to achieve, and they offer the wellbeing 'vocabulary' that policymakers at different government levels should adopt in thinking about the impacts of policies. The ways in which policymakers strive after these goals is not given by the wellbeing framework, and neither does the framework decide on the priorities or trade-offs of one wellbeing category over the other. So even though the frameworks tend to have far-reaching mandates, that can – especially in the Welsh case – profoundly affect the *modus operandi* of public actors, there is still extensive room for 'politics' in the sense of pursuing a particular, possible context-dependent political agenda.

Important to note in this regard is that neither the wellbeing frameworks nor their monitors (intend to) provide detailed *calculated* answers to wellbeing questions. The very crude classification used for monitoring progress (improve, constant, or worsen) is an important indication of this caution to calculate. Indeed, rather than calculating the (expected) impact of one policy intervention on one specific wellbeing category, the monitor functions to provide policymakers with information on trends and broad societal developments, as is suggested by the name of the Welsh Future Trends Report and as was confirmed in the interviews.

In the case of Scotland, the NPF applies integrally to the work of Parliament at the national level. The eleven National Outcomes form an umbrella under which the government rolls out its political agenda and policy, in which national policymakers are required to translate these Outcomes into concrete policy. The duties of public actors in the SPSF in Wales have a similar function: policymakers are required to take the necessary policy steps to contribute to achieving the seven wellbeing goals. Although the SPSF's level of detail in prescribing the steps to take differs from the approach of the NPF, the mechanism of achieving the wellbeing goals through concrete policy is comparable. In New Zealand, by contrast, it is explicitly the Treasury that uses the framework and advises government on policy priorities in the light of wellbeing goals – an advice that policymakers (the elected politicians) can value as they see fit. Given the central role that the Treasury plays in advising government in policy development, however, the use of the model effectively 'trickles down' to the *modus operandi* of the entire government.

Next to this 'translating' of wellbeing goals into concrete policy, all three models also require policymakers to consider the impact of any of their policies on all wellbeing categories. In so doing, the models' function is to explicate the consequences for, and possible trade-offs between, different aspects of wellbeing. Reflecting on the wellbeing impacts happens both *ex ante* and is monitored after the fact. In a policy feedback loop, the results of the monitoring form input for adapting and revising policy. Whereas the monitored impact leads to *advice* for the policymakers in Scotland and New Zealand, the annual review in Wales instead leads to binding recommendations on whether additional effort needs to be made to achieve the goals.

6. Conclusion and Discussion

Answering the question how societal and individual wellbeing can be operationalised for public policymaking, the comparative case study allows us to draw the following conclusions.

Pursuing capabilities. Returning to the theoretical point of departure of this paper, the three empirical cases show support for the premise that pursuing objective wellbeing, and more specifically *capabilities* (rather than functionings) fall within the realm of what public policymakers can do. Pursuing the capabilities means that the conditions are created that facilitates people's behaviour as they see fit. Policymakers thus refrain from defining how people should enhance their wellbeing. Instead, they seek to provide the libraries for people to read if and when they like.

Wellbeing covers a wide range of aspects. The cases furthermore show that the measure of wellbeing for policymaking is not reduced to one singular term. This means that, going back to the origin of the wellbeing trend, the unsatisfactory singular GDP as a proxy for economic and societal progress is *not* replaced by another singular indicator, but is instead expanded to consider a wide range of aspects that are all in their own respect important. Rather than providing a new overarching parameter for wellbeing, the frameworks require policymakers to consider, weigh and prioritise the relevant categories of wellbeing simultaneously, in accordance with the plea of Stiglitz, Sen and Fitoussi (2009: 12).

Prioritisation instead of calculation. By introducing an inherently multifaceted concept into policymaking, and by refraining from making the indicators calculable in a precise manner, the wellbeing frameworks may in effect break with the 'post-political' trend in which policy problems are presented to be a matter of calculating the most economically profitably or efficient option (cf. Mouffe 2005). By expressly leaving it up to policymakers to compare the apples and oranges of wellbeing indicators, policymaking may be brought back to a more *political* prioritising between the various objectives, informed by political taste.

Notes of caution. To be mentioned here is that the (over-)use of a wellbeing framework may, similar to the overuse of GDP-based policymaking, have unintended negative consequences of its own. Even though the monitors tend to rightfully refrain from presenting exact calculations, the three models have a rather heavy *evidence-based* character. Although evidence-based policymaking may seem appealing at face value, it must be noted that even a multifaceted wellbeing concept remains a mere *model* based on *measures* (or indeed proxies) that approach reality. The first caution, which also the NPF itself flags (see Truijens and Georgieva 2021: 18), is that wellbeing indicators should not be religiously chased as goals in and of themselves (falling in the same trap as economic growth being an isolated policy goal). One should be sharp on this becoming a box-ticking exercise – in which the real-life *meaning* of the measures and proxies, and the model as a whole, is overlooked (cf. Lyytimäki et al. 2020: 6). Secondly, evidence-based models function crucially on the data that feeds it – in these cases the wellbeing monitors. Although filling the monitor with close to, or over, one hundred indicators is arguably a leap forward compared to using only economic indicators, still not all values are measurable, and therefore not all decisions can be determined by looking at the data. The risk here not only lies in omitting policy effects that do not fit the model. The risk more importantly concerns the possible tendency to focus only on those matters for which the evidence is available. In other words, *especially because* the monitors seem so rich and complete, there is a risk of only making policy for issues where the effect is measurable – i.e. those values that are available in the monitor. As the available indicators ‘may fail to address all relevant issues’ (Lyytimäki 2020: 7), it should be noted that evidence-based decision-making has its limitations, and policymakers should be careful not to reduce that what is important to what is available.

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Appendices

Appendix I – Martha Nussbaum's list of capabilities

1. *Life*. Being able to live to the end of a human life of normal length; not dying prematurely, or before one's life is so reduced as to be not worth living.
2. *Bodily health*. Being able to have a good health, including reproductive health; to be adequately nourished; to have adequate shelter.
3. *Bodily integrity*. Being able to move freely from place to place; having one's bodily boundaries treated as sovereign, i.e. being able to secure against assault, including sexual assault, child sexual assault, child sexual abuse, and domestic violence; having opportunities for sexual satisfaction and for choice in matters of reproduction.
4. *Senses, imagination, and thought*. Being able to use the senses, to imagine, think, and reason – and to do these things in a “truly human” way, a way informed and cultivated by an adequate education, including, but by no means limited to, literacy and basic mathematical and scientific training. This includes one's own choice of cultural and religious exercise.
5. *Emotions*. Being able, in general, to love, to grieve, to experience longing, gratitude, and justified anger. Not having one's emotional development blighted by overwhelming fear and anxiety, or by traumatic events of abuse or neglect. (Supporting this capability means supporting forms of human association that can be shown to be crucial in their development.)
6. *Practical reason*. Being able to form a conception of the good and to engage in critical reflection about the planning of one's life. (This entails protection for the liberty of conscience.)
7. *Affiliation*.
 - a. Being able to live with and towards others, to recognize and show concern for other human beings, to engage in various forms of social interaction; to be able to imagine the situation of another and to have compassion for that situation; to have the capability for both justice and friendship. (Protecting this capability means protecting institutions that constitute and nourish such forms of affiliation, and also protecting the freedom of assembly and political speech.)
 - b. Having the social bases of self-respect and non-humiliation; being able to be treated as a dignified being whose worth is equal to that of others. This entails, at a minimum, protection against discrimination on the basis of race, sex, sexual orientation, religion, caste, ethnicity, or national origin. In work, being able to work as a human being, exercising practical reason and entering into meaningful relationships of mutual recognition with other workers.
8. *Other species*. Being able to live with concern for and in relation to animals, plants, and the world of nature.
9. *Play*. Being able to laugh, to play, to enjoy recreational activities.
10. *Control over one's environment*
 - a. Political. Being able to participate effectively in political choices that govern one's life; having the right of political participation, protection of free speech and association.
 - b. Material. Being able to hold property (both land and movable goods), not just formally but in terms of real opportunity; and having property rights on an equal basis with others; having the right to seek employment on an equal basis with others; having the freedom from unwarranted search and seizure. Martha Nussbaum (2000; 2001).

Appendix II – Scotland's National Performance Framework (NPF) and Monitor

National Outcome: Human Rights

National Indicators

- Public services treat people with dignity and respect
- Quality of public services
- Influence over local decisions
- Access to justice

Sustainable Development Goals

- SDG 5: Gender equality
- SDG 10: Reduced inequalities
- SDG 16: Peace, justice and strong institutions
- SDG 17: Partnerships for the goals

National Outcome: Culture

National Indicators

- Attendance at cultural events or places of culture
- Participation in a cultural activity
- Growth in cultural economy
- People working in arts and culture

Sustainable Development Goals

- SDG 5: Gender equality
- SDG 10: Reduced inequalities
- SDG 11: Sustainable cities and communities

National Outcome: Environment

National Indicators

- Visits to the outdoors
- State of historic sites
- Condition of protected nature sites
- Energy from renewable sources
- Waste generated
- Sustainability of fish stocks
- Biodiversity
- Marine environment

Sustainable Development Goals

- SDG 5: Gender equality
- SDG 7: Affordable and clean energy
- SDG 8: Decent work and economic growth
- SDG 9: Industry, innovation and infrastructure
- SDG 12: Responsible consumption and production
- SDG 13: Climate action
- SDG 14: Life below water
- SDG 15: Life on land

National Outcome: Health

National Indicators

- Healthy life expectancy
- Mental wellbeing
- Health weight
- Health risk behaviours
- Physical activity
- Journeys by active travel
- Quality of care experience
- Work related ill health
- Premature mortality

Sustainable Development Goals

- SDG 5: Gender equality
- SDG 10: Reduced inequalities
- SDG 12: Responsible consumption and production
- SDG 3: Good health and wellbeing

National Outcome: Fair Work & Business

National Indicators

- The number of businesses
- High growth businesses
- Innovative businesses
- Economic participation
- Employees on the living wage
- Pay gap
- Contractually secure work
- Employee voice
- Gender balance in organisations

Sustainable Development Goals

- SDG 4: Quality education
- SDG 5: Gender equality
- SDG 7: Affordable and clean energy
- SDG 8: Decent work and economic growth
- SDG 9: Industry, innovation and infrastructure
- SDG 10: Reduced inequalities
- SDG 12: Responsible consumption and production

National Performance Framework

Our Purpose, Values and National Outcomes



National Performance Framework

nationalperformance.gov.scot

National Outcome: Economy

National Indicators

- Productivity
- International exporting
- Economic growth
- Carbon footprint
- Natural Capital
- Greenhouse gas emissions
- Access to superfast broadband
- Spend on research and development
- Income inequalities
- Entrepreneurial activity

Sustainable Development Goals

- SDG 4: Quality education
- SDG 5: Gender equality
- SDG 7: Affordable and clean energy
- SDG 8: Decent work and economic growth
- SDG 9: Industry, innovation and infrastructure
- SDG 10: Reduced inequalities
- SDG 12: Responsible consumption and production

National Outcome: International

National Indicators

- A positive experience for people coming to Scotland
- Scotland's reputation
- Scotland's population
- Trust in public organisations
- International networks
- Contribution of development support to other nations

Sustainable Development Goals

- SDG 5: Gender equality
- SDG 9: Industry, innovation and infrastructure
- SDG 10: Reduced inequalities
- SDG 16: Peace, justice and strong institutions
- SDG 17: Partnerships for the goals

National Outcome: Poverty

National Indicators

- Relative poverty after housing costs
- Wealth inequalities
- Cost of living
- Unmanageable debt
- Persistent poverty
- Satisfaction with housing
- Food insecurity

Sustainable Development Goals

- SDG 5: Gender equality
- SDG 7: Affordable and clean energy
- SDG 10: Reduced inequalities
- SDG 12: Responsible consumption and production
- SDG 1: No poverty
- SDG 2: Zero hunger

National Outcome: Communities

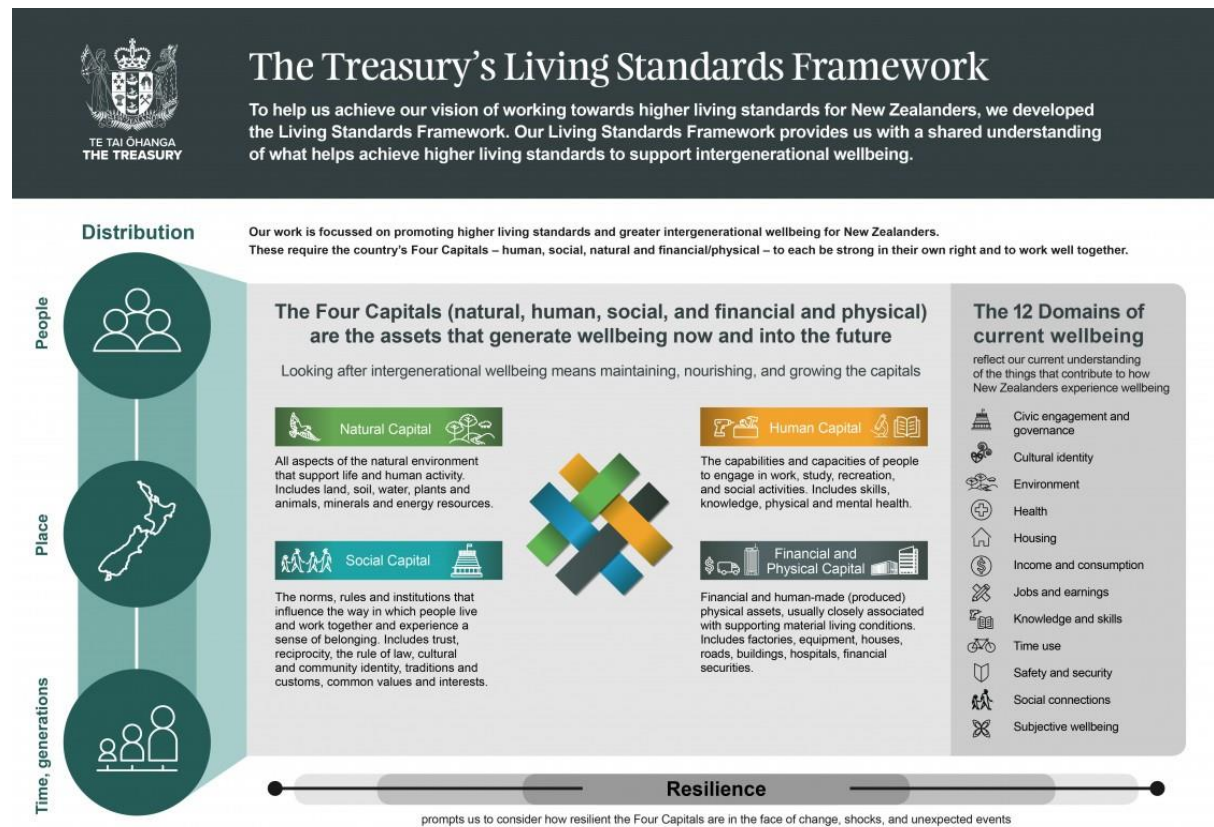
National Indicators

- Perceptions of local area
- Loneliness
- Perceptions of local crime rate
- Community land ownership
- Crime victimisation
- Access to green and blue space
- Places to interact
- Social capital

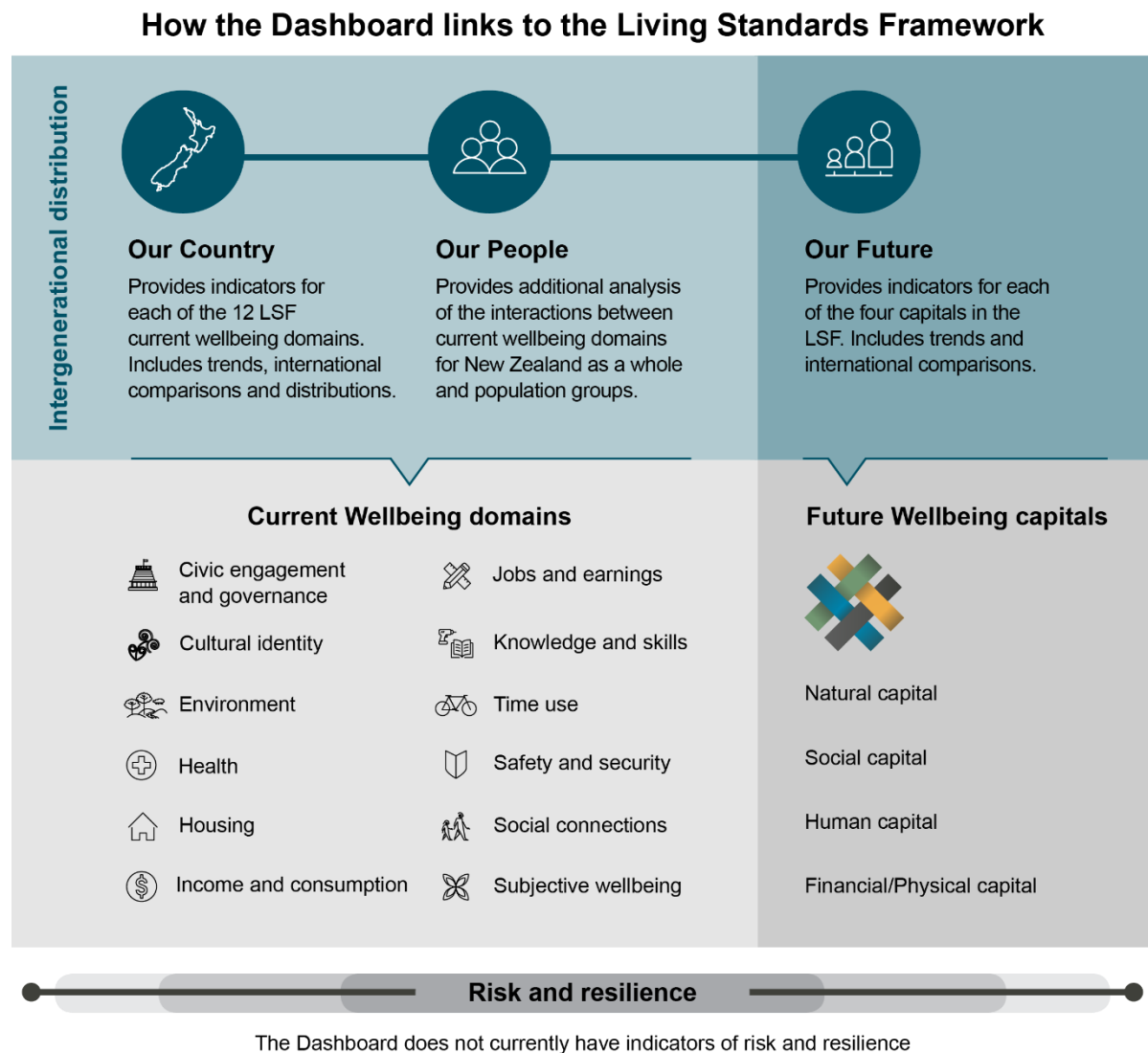
Sustainable Development Goals

- SDG 5: Gender equality
- SDG 7: Affordable and clean energy
- SDG 9: Industry, innovation and infrastructure
- SDG 10: Reduced inequalities
- SDG 6: Clean water and sanitation
- SDG 11: Sustainable cities and communities

Appendix IV New Zealand's Living Standards Framework (LSF)



02/19



Appendix VI – Specification of Wales’s seven wellbeing goals

Goal	Description of the goal
A prosperous Wales.	An innovative, productive and low carbon society which recognises the limits of the global environment and therefore uses resources efficiently and proportionately (including acting on climate change); and which develops a skilled and well-educated population in an economy which generates wealth and provides employment opportunities, allowing people to take advantage of the wealth generated through securing decent work.
A resilient Wales.	A nation which maintains and enhances a biodiverse natural environment with healthy functioning ecosystems that support social, economic and ecological resilience and the capacity to adapt to change (for example climate change).
A healthier Wales.	A society in which people’s physical and mental well-being is maximised and in which choices and behaviours that benefit future health are understood.
A more equal Wales.	A society that enables people to fulfil their potential no matter what their background or circumstances (including their socio economic background and circumstances).
A Wales of cohesive communities.	Attractive, viable, safe and well-connected communities.
A Wales of vibrant culture and thriving Welsh language.	A society that promotes and protects culture, heritage and the Welsh language, and which encourages people to participate in the arts, and sports and recreation.
A globally responsible Wales.	A nation which, when doing anything to improve the economic, social, environmental and cultural well-being of Wales, takes account of whether doing such a thing may make a positive contribution to global well-being.

Appendix VII – The Shared Purpose Shared Future framework (SPSF)



Appendix VIII – The relation between indicators and SPSF’s seven wellbeing goals

National Well-being Indicators		Goals						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
01	Percentage of live single births with a birth weight of under 2,500g	•	•	■	■	•	•	•
02	Healthy life expectancy at birth including the gap between the least and most deprived	•	•	■	■	•	•	•
03	Percentage of adults who have fewer than two healthy lifestyle behaviours	•	•	■	■	■	■	•
04	Levels of nitrogen dioxide (NO2) pollution in the air	■	■	■	•	•	•	■
05	Percentage of children who have fewer than two healthy lifestyle behaviours	•	•	■	■	■	•	•
06	Measurement of development of young children	■	•	•	■	■	■	•
07	Average capped 9 points score of pupils, including the gap between those who are eligible or are not eligible for free school meals	■	•	•	■	•	■	•
08	Percentage of adults with qualifications at the different levels of the National Qualifications Framework	■	•	■	■	•	•	•
09	Gross Value Added (GVA) per hour worked (relative to UK average)	■	•	•	•	•	•	•
10	Gross Disposable Household Income per head	■	•	■	■	•	•	•
11	Percentage of businesses which are innovation-active	■	■	•	•	•	•	■
12	Capacity (in MW) of renewable energy equipment installed	■	■	•	•	■	•	■
13	Concentration of carbon and organic matter in soil	■	■	•	•	•	•	■
14	The Ecological Footprint of Wales	■	■	•	•	•	•	■
15	Amount of waste generated that is not recycled, per person	■	■	•	•	■	•	■
16	Percentage of people in employment, who are on permanent contracts (or on temporary contracts, and not seeking permanent employment) and who earn more than 2/3 of the UK median wage	■	•	■	■	•	•	■
17	Gender pay difference	■	•	•	■	•	•	•

Appendix IX – Comparison of wellbeing categories

Comparison of Stiglitz-Sen-Fitoussi and NPF's and LSF's wellbeing categories – note that the wellbeing factors of the SPSF do not quite fit this categorisation of dimensions and are not all seven presented in the table.

Stiglitz-Sen-Fitoussi report	NPF National Outcome	LSF domains for 'our people'	SPSF wellbeing factors
Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth)	(4) have a globally competitive, entrepreneurial, inclusive and sustainable economy; (7) have thriving and innovative businesses, with quality jobs and fair work for everyone	5. Housing; 6. Income and consumption;	A prosperous Wales
Health	(8) are healthy and active	4. Health; 12. Subjective wellbeing	A healthier Wales
Education	(5) are well educated, skilled and able to contribute to society	8. Knowledge and skills;	
Personal activities including work	(3) are creative and their vibrant and diverse cultures are expressed and enjoyed widely	2. Cultural identity; 7. Jobs and earnings; 9. Time use;	A Wales of vibrant culture and thriving Welsh language
Political voice and governance	(9) respect, protect and fulfil human rights and live free from discrimination; (11) tackle poverty by sharing opportunities, wealth and power more equally	1. Civic engagement and governance;	
Social connections and relationships;	(2) live in communities that are inclusive, empowered, resilient and safe	11. Social connections;	A Wales of cohesive communities
Environment (present and future conditions)	(6) value, enjoy, protect and enhance their environment	3.Environment;	
Insecurity, of an economic as well as a physical nature	(1) grow up loved, safe and respected so that they realise their full potential	10. Safety and security;	A more equal Wales