Subjective well-being inequalities
in and between Austria and Hungary

Research Report

MIGWELL

Well-being and Migration:
The Hungary – Austria Migration Nexus

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Work Package 2: 'Secondary Analysis of Existing Data'

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MIGWELL's website: *LINK*

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MIGWELL at a glance

The MIGWELL project focuses on the nexus of migration and well-being in Hungary and Austria. Using quantitative and qualitative research methods, it seeks to explore the impacts of migration on subjective well-being in the case of Hungarian immigrants in Austria as well as the effects of subjective well-being differences on emigration potential in Hungary. The approach of this project is innovative not only because it links the concepts of 'well-being' and 'migration', but also because it interprets their two-way causal relationship within one research framework. Considering that the COVID-19 pandemic might have a profound impact on both pillars, MIGWELL will also reflect on the rapidly changing socio-economic and well-being related issues that have emerged due to the epidemic throughout the life cycle of the project. The theoretical expansion of these concepts and the empirical findings of the project may contribute to more effective policies in both countries.

1. Introduction

The MIGWELL project applies a mixed-methods approach including secondary analyses (literature review, migration and well-being data) and the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods: focus groups, interviews, surveys, and round-table discussions conducted in both countries. Following the presentation of the accumulated knowledge of the migration processes in and between Hungary and Austria (see our previous research report: Németh et al. 2023), the present report focuses on the subjective well-being patterns in the two countries and the factors that might be responsible for the differences.

2. Conceptual background

The first research report of the MIGWELL project, entitled "Conceptual Framework for the Study of the Subjective Well-being–Migration Nexus" (Németh et al. 2022) has already provided an overview of the key definitions of well-being in general, followed by a literature-based review of the main theories and analytical approaches. This chapter briefly summarises the most important theoretical cornerstones that are relevant for Work Package 2, "Secondary Analysis of Existing Data".

2.1 OECD framework

From the 1950s onwards, concern has been growing that the dominant frameworks in economics cannot address the challenges of our society in a rapidly changing world adequately. The insight that a narrow focus on economic factors and some widely used indicators such as GDP do not reflect people's welfare has played a key role in the rise of the concept of *well-being* (Stiglitz et al. 2009, OECD 2011, Adler and Seligman 2016, Coulthard et al. 2018). By the beginning of the 21st century, a worldwide tendency appeared to conceive social processes and phenomena within a coherent framework of well-being.

In 2011, the OECD launched the so-called Better Life Initiative to explore the general drivers of human well-being, and to enquire what needs to be done to achieve greater progress for the people. In the ***OECD "How's Life" concept*** – described in the 2011, 2013, 2015, 2017, and 2020 *How's Life Reports* – well-being is measured in terms of outcomes achieved in two broad dimensions: „Material living conditions" and „Quality of life". However, since this conceptual framework (OECD 2011) was principally designed to measure aggregated well-being scores at the level of countries, the approach to subjective well-being remained at a relatively broad-brush level.

While subjective well-being has been examined extensively in the academic literature for decades, the lack of a consistent set of questions has hampered the international comparability of data for a long time. Bridging this gap was the main motivation for the OECD (2013a) to elaborate the ***Guidelines on Measuring Subjective Well-being***. These Guidelines offer an integrated approach and propose a solution for statistical agencies and researchers to follow a standardised survey structure with standardised methodology. Subjective well-being is taken to be good mental states, including all of the various evaluations, positive and negative, that people make of their lives, and people's affective reactions to their experiences. This broad definition encompasses the three elements of SWB.

- The *life satisfaction* interpretation is cognitive as well as evaluative, and requires the individual to make evaluative statements about different areas of life and about life as a whole (Boyce et al. 2010, Christoph 2010, Dumludag, 2014 etc.). Satisfaction is usually understood as a lasting state of well-being.

- *Happiness* is the key concept of *affective well-being* used initially in psychology literature (Di Fabio and Palazzeschi 2015, Graham 2009, Layard 2005, etc.). Positive and negative emotions reflect a more corporeal and transitory state of well-being, which are typically surveyed with reference to a shorter timeframe, for instance the most recent two or four weeks.

- The *eudaimonic* approach is based on the view of people regarding their living in accordance with their true selves and getting material and non-material rewards while constructing a good life (Ryan and Deci 2001). It encompasses the feeling of meaning and purpose in life, accomplishment, as well as the aspects of belonging, self-esteem, and self-actualisation (Clark et al. 2008, Di Fabio and Palazzeschi 2015, Vittersø 2016).

2.2 WeD concept

Whereas the OECD Guidelines tend to focus on the individual factors of subjective well-being, including few questions on social relationships, the WeD approach places greater emphasis on the social aspects. This concept was developed by the ESRC 'Well-being in Developing Countries' research group at the University of Bath (Gough and McGregor 2007).

In the WeD framework, *material* well-being encompasses the objective circumstances of life, including resources such as income or employment. However, since people's goals and actions are always shaped by the social contexts in which they are embedded, well-being has a *relational* dimension too. This dimension refers to the social relationships that people must be able to enter into in order to meet human needs (Britton and Coulthard 2013). The third – *subjective* – dimension takes account of "what it is that people themselves regard as important

for their quality of life and their assessment of their level of subjective satisfaction in their achievement" (McGregor and Pouw 2017: 1135).

2.3 The MIGWELL approach

MIGWELL has been inspired by both the OECD and the WeD concepts (Figure 1). Subjective reflection on life satisfaction, affect, and eudaimonia are our focal point – based on pre-defined EU-SILC variables that are essential for a comparative analysis – while a broader set of questions on the material and relational dimensions will provide deeper insight into the dynamics of the migration-SWB nexus.

Figure 1. The relationship between the objective and subjective dimensions of well-being on a personal level according to MIGWELL
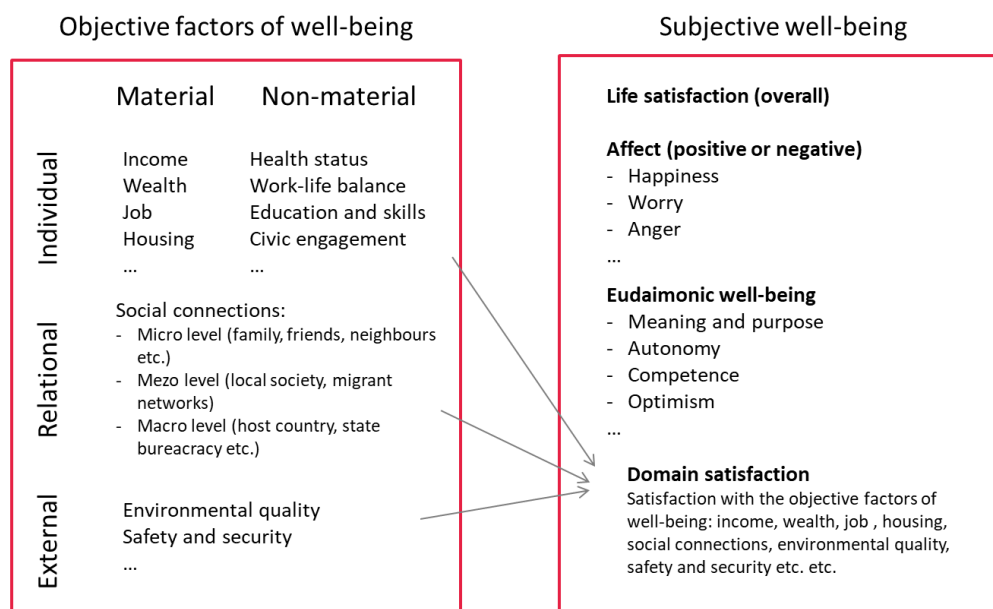
Source: Németh et. al (2023: 40)

3. Sources and methods

3.1 Data sources

While questions on "quality of life" or "standard of living" are relatively frequent in *international surveys*, only a few data sources could be suitable for a comprehensive analysis of the subjective well-being–migration nexus. Either the sample size or the number of relevant variables is small, or they do not include a background question at least on the

country of birth, allowing for the identification of the foreign-born population. If so, they typically do not include a representative sample of the immigrant population.

Four potential data sources could be suitable for the MIGWELL project: the Gallup World Poll, the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions survey (EU-SILC), the European Social Survey (ESS), and the OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC). The first two surveys provide the widest range of SWB variables. However, since the average number of observations for foreign-born people is significantly higher in the case of EU-SILC – 1,200 persons per country, in contrast to ca. 500 for the Gallup World Poll – (OECD 2017:128-130), we decided to use this database as the main source of our secondary data analysis.

3.1.1 EU-SILC ad-hoc modules

The ***EU-SILC (EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions)*** was initially launched in 2003 with the goal of collecting timely and comparable multidimensional microdata on income distribution, poverty, and social exclusion. This instrument has received special attention since the European Council convened in June 2010. On this occasion, the European Union endorsed a new long-term strategy, titled "Europe 2020". Promoting social inclusion through the reduction of poverty was one of its headline targets, aiming to lift at least 20 million people out of risk of poverty and social exclusion. Therefore, measuring and monitoring the living standards of the target population[1] has got high priority.

EU-SILC is a representative sample survey of private households in the European Union. Under its umbrella, Eurostat has been collecting and publishing comparable multidimensional micro-data on income, poverty, social exclusion, housing, labour, education, and health from all Member States. In order to maximise data comparability, the whole procedure has been designed by a common conceptual framework, by harmonised lists of variables, by common requirements (for imputation, weighting, the calculation of sampling errors, etc.), and by harmonised classifications (ISCO, NACE, ISCED).

EU-SILC also contains cross-sectional and longitudinal data, collected at two different levels: the household and the individual level. Until 2021, the 'primary variables' were collected every year, while the 'secondary variables' were collected less frequently in the so-called ad-hoc modules. These *ad-hoc modules* covered specific topics, e.g. intergenerational transmission of disadvantages, access to services, health, social and cultural participation, material deprivation, housing conditions, or personal well-being.

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[1] The target population was identified by three selected indicators: at risk of poverty, material deprivation, and jobless household (below the 60% median disposable income threshold, at or above the severe material deprivation threshold of 4, or in a household with work intensity below 20% threshold).

In 2021, new legislation on the implementation of EU-SILC came into force. The core indicators are still collected every year, including income, deprivation, economic activity, demography, education, housing cost, and so forth. The other specific variables are structured into three-yearly rolling modules (labour market and housing, health, and children), six-yearly rolling modules (over-indebtedness, consumption and wealth, access to services, and quality of life), or ad-hoc policy modules, which are implemented only once.[2]

Indicators related to personal subjective well-being were collected and published in the 2013 and 2018 ad-hoc modules as well as in 2022. (However, the 2022 data are not available yet.) These databases are considered among the best sources of internationally comparable SWB data (OECD 2017:128-130), which consist of nationally representative layered random samples of households and which contain more than 10,000 interviews from both Hungary and Austria.

The survey was conducted either in person (CAPI - Computer Assisted Personal Interviewing) or by telephone (CATI - Computer Assisted Telephone Interviewing), and participation in the survey was voluntary for the households. In Austria, the whole questionnaire was available in German, Turkish, and Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian. In Hungary, the respondents could fill in the questionnaire in Hungarian and in English; however, the core questions were translated into the languages of national minorities too. The compulsory target variables were defined at the EU level but each national statistical office had the right to add further, locally relevant variables.

While so-called proxy interviews (information provided by another person, typically a parent, a husband, or a wife) were permitted in case of the standard questionnaires, questions on subjective well-being were only asked personally during the face-to-face interviews with household members aged 16 or above.[3] Due to the relatively high proportion (ca. 10% of the personal interviews) of third-party information in the standard questionnaire, the statistical offices applied weights to provide representative results for the entire population (Oismüller and Till, 2015). Those respondents who refused to answer the questions were excluded from the analysis.[4]

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[2] More technical, methodological information on the Eurostat website: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=EU_statistics_on_income_and_living_conditions_(EU-SILC)_methodology_-_introduction and https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/database/modules.

[3] "In contrast to other modules, proxy answers are not allowed since the module items are of purely subjective nature. Questionnaires provided by proxies were either discarded from the module sample or special efforts were made to collect the module data from the persons intended by telephone interview (EL, ES, FI, PT and SK). Romania was the only country to provide proxy answers for the module items. Proxy answers are not taken into account in the frame of the statistical analysis and are also excluded from the data validation procedure". (https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/1012329/1012401/2013+Module+assessment.pdf)

[4] "Do not know" answers could be studied separately, since they do not provide a definite subjective opinion of the

3.1.2 Hungarian microcensus

A microcensus is a sample-based population enumeration which tracks social trends between two full-scope censuses. The last *Hungarian microcensus* was carried out between 1 October and 8 November 2016. At the beginning of this period, questionnaires could be completed online, after enumerators did interviews using a laptop or tablet. The enumeration covered 440,102 personal addresses and about 500 institutions in 2,148 different settlements, which meant 10% of all households in Hungary. A key criterion for sample selection was that the results should provide representative, reliable information about the most important socio-demographic data even on the NUTS 3 level. The microcensus was ordered by law, the participation of the occupants of the selected dwellings was mandatory. In case of the sensitive questions, such as mother tongue, ethnicity and health status, the response was voluntary. Respondents had to provide data regarding their household's situation by 1 October 2016.

The compulsory Personal Questionnaires and Dwelling Questionnaires were *supplemented* by additional ones about five specific topics. Two of them concerned people who were either involved in international migration or had a disability or illness that caused difficulties in daily activities. In addition, households were randomly pre-selected to answer one of three additional sets of questions. These themes were social stratification, occupational prestige, and subjective well-being. Since these supplementary surveys also included questions on feelings, opinions, and individual experiences, people were free to choose whether they would answer the sensitive questions.[5]

Two of these supplementary surveys are of especial importance for MIGWELL.

- The *subjective well-being module* collected accurate and reliable information about people's satisfaction with their life as a whole, with various aspects of their personal life, their emotional state, and many other aspects related to this topic. Measuring subjective well-being on such a large sample is unique at the international level too.

- The *international migration module* focused not only on foreign citizens residing in Hungary, but also on the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of Hungarian citizens who have already emigrated from Hungary, who are currently in the process of emigration, or who have decided to return to Hungary.

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respondent. Nevertheless, the extent of missing information is not significant. The highest share of missing values was about 1.3% (14,000 persons after extrapolation) for the category of satisfaction with the time available for the children (Oismüller and Till, 2015).

[5] For more details see: https://www.ksh.hu/mikrocenzus2016/adatgyujtes

3.2 Methodology

During the database building, the data analysis, and the data visualisation phases, we used a diverse methodological toolkit. The first step was the *collection of the necessary databases*. The EU-SILC data arrived from two sources. On the one hand, we obtained the complete micro-databases for 2013, 2018, and 2021 from Eurostat. On the other hand, the national statistical offices (Statistics Austria and the Hungarian Central Statistical Office) also provided these EU-SILC data regarding the two countries. This procedure proved to be crucial because certain data are available in the Eurostat table in aggregated form only, while the national statistical offices provide a more detailed classification. For instance, while Eurostat publishes SWB data at NUTS 1 level, Statistics Austria makes them available at NUTS 2 level (federal provinces), which allows for a more detailed analysis of the results. The Hungarian microcensus data were available in the research room of the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, where the necessary analyses were carried out. To access the databases, we went through the prescribed data request procedure in all cases.

In the second step we *linked the available databases with each other*. It has been done in the R programming environment. The harmonisation and consistent use of variable names and labels were highly important during this phase. Although Eurostat applies a standardised nomenclature, there were some differences in variable names over time. This was particularly true for variables derived from the Statistics Austria database and the Hungarian microcensus.

The third step was the *selection of necessary variables*. Table 1 summarises the well-being domains and their operationalisation by objective indicators according to the OECD How's Life framework. That was an important reference point. However, MIGWELL focuses on SWB dynamics at the micro level. Therefore, instead of using aggregated national-level indicators, such as life expectancy at birth or voter turnout, we used indicators directly from the EU-SILC microdata-base that capture people's individual quality of life. The analysed subjective well-being indicators and their objective factors are listed in Table 2.

Of course, several background variables were also needed to interpret the relationship between subjective well-being and migration appropriately. At the individual level, gender and age are always essential. Migration-related information was available through the following variables: country of birth, year of immigration, duration of living in the host country (relevant in Austria), migration intention, and migration history (relevant in the Hungarian part of the investigation). The exact place of residence of the respondents was not known, only the degree of urbanisation of their settlement, as defined by Eurostat. The statistical data have been aggregated at NUTS1 and NUTS2 levels. Questions on trust form an additional set of variables. Beside generalised trust, the EU-SILC database provided information on people's trust in politics, in the legal system, the police, the military, the media, and in authorities. It is important to underline that the EU-SILC questionnaires vary

from year to year, thus it is not the same list of questions that was surveyed in 2013 and 2018. More details can be found in chapters 5-7.

The fourth step was the *creation of the integrated MIGWELL dataset*, already with standardised labels and category names. The size of the final table was 108,568 observations in the rows (i.e. respondents of the surveys – Table 3) and 96 variables in the columns (their answers to the selected questions).

The fifth step was the *weighting* of the representative survey data. In all cases, the results presented in this research report are based on statistical data extrapolated to the whole population of Hungary and Austria.

The *data analysis* was carried out by the Austrian and Hungarian MIGWELL teams in parallel, with particular attention paid to the synchronisation of the methodological steps and visualisation techniques. During this phase, we used descriptive statistics as well as linear and logistic regressions for data modelling. To grasp the subjective well-being differences between pre-defined country-of-birth groups, we applied the so-called Blinder-Oaxaca decomposition. This method was initially designed to analyse wage differences between certain groups of people (e.g. male and female, "white" and "black" as ethnic categories in the USA), but research is now increasingly also using it to analyse subjective well-being (e.g. Beja, 2018; Knight and Gunatilaka, 2010).[6]

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[6] The method is used to split the gap between the well-being scores into an explainable and an unexplained part. The explainable part means that if, say, unemployment turns out to be negatively related to the outcome variable and we know that one group has many more unemployed than the other, the difference is not necessarily due to group membership but to background (in this case, unemployment) characteristics. The unexplained difference is also referred to as discrimination. Suppose that all background characteristics are removed and a person in group A is endowed with the characteristics of an average person in group B. In this case, this endowed individual should have the same output variable, say salary, as the average group B individual. However, this is often not true, since the very fact that the individual belongs to group A predisposes him or her to a higher or lower salary.

Table 1. The OECD "How's Life" framework. Well-being domains and their operationalisation by variables.

Income and wealth
• Household net adjusted disposable income per capita (USD at PPPs)
• Net financial wealth per capita (USD at PPPs)
• Income inequalities (Gini index)
Jobs and earnings
• Employment rate (Employed aged 15-64 as a percentage of the population of the same age)
• Long-term unemployment rate (Percentage of the labour force)
• Average gross annual earnings of full-time employees in the total economy (USD at PPPs)
Housing conditions
• Number of rooms per person in a dwelling
• Percentage of people living in dwellings without access to basic facilities
• Housing expenditure (Share of adjusted disposable income spent on housing and maintenance of the house)
Health status
• Life expectancy at birth
• Self-reported health status (Percentage of people reporting good/very good health)
Work-life balance
• Proportion of employees who usually work for pay for 50 hours per week or more
• Time devoted to leisure and personal care (Hours per day of full-time employees)
Education and skills
• Educational attainment (Percentage of adults aged 25-64 with at least upper secondary education)
• Education expectancy (Additional expected years in education from age 5 to 39)
• Students' average scores in reading, mathematics and science (PISA mean scores)
• Mean proficiency in numeracy and literacy for the adult population
Social connections
• Perceived social network support (Percentage of people who have relatives or friends they can count on)
Civic engagement and governance
• Voter turnout (Percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote / among the voting-age population)
• Formal and open consultation processes on rule-making (Composite index)
Environmental quality
• Air pollution (PM10 concentrations, micrograms per cubic metre)
• Satisfaction with water quality
Personal security
• Number of homicides per 100,000 persons
• Self-reported victimisation (Percentage of people declaring that they have been assaulted over the previous 12 months)
Subjective well-being
• Overall life satisfaction

Source: OECD 2013

Table 2. The MIGWELL concept. Subjective well-being domains and their operationalisation by objective and subjective indicators.

Measurement concepts	Subjective well-being indicators		Objective indicators
Evaluative well-being: Overall life satisfaction + Domain satisfaction	Domain satisfaction	*Individual material factors*	
		• Satisfaction with the household's financial situation • Satisfaction with personal income	Financial situation: • Personal income (in 2015 EU28-Euros) • Household income (total, disposable, disposable in 2015 EU28-Euros) • Debts • Material deprivation • At risk of poverty • Low work intensity
		• Job satisfaction	Economic status and jobs: • Economic status • Occupation (ISCO 08) • Highest level of education
		• Satisfaction with accommodation	Housing conditions: • Number of rooms • Housing problems: Leaking, Dark, Noise, Env. problem, Crime
		Individual non-material factors	
		• Satisfaction with health	Health status: • Perceived health status • Restriction due to health problems
		• Satisfaction with time use	Work-life balance: • Leisure activities • Total weekly hours in work
		• Satisfaction with commuting time	-
		Relational factors	
		• Satisfaction with personal relationships	Social connections (micro-level): • Marital status • Partnership • Household size • Number of children in the HH • Discuss personal matters • Help form others (material, non-material) • Meet friends Meso/macro-level social relationships: • Social exclusion • Looked down upon because of work • Trust in others
		External factors	
		• Satisfaction with living environment (2013, 2016) • Satisfaction with recreational or green areas (2013)	-
		• Feel safe (2013, 2016)	-
Affective well-being		Being happy	-
		Being very nervous	
		Feeling down in the dumps	
		Feeling calm and peaceful	
		Feeling downhearted or depressed	
		Feeling lonely (2018)	
		Feeling stressed (2016)	
Eudaimonic well-being		Meaning of life (2013, 2016)	-
		Optimism (2013 AT, 2016 HU)	
		Choose life freely (2013 AT)	

Source: own table

Table 3. Sample size of the MIGWELL database by sources.

	Austria		Hungary	
	Actual sample size (before weighting)	Extrapolation (after weighting)	Actual sample size (before weighting)	Extrapolation (after weighting)
EU-SILC 2013	10,940	7,057,385	21,349	8,226,678
Microcensus 2016	-	-	51,281	8,085,791
EU-SILC 2018	10,633	7,282,693	14,365	7,996,609

Source of data: Eurostat, Hungarian Central Statistical Office

3.3 Limitations and methodological challenges

It should be noted that several difficulties may arise by surveying and measuring personal, sensitive topics, such as subjective well-being. From the point of view of the interviewees, this is a five-step responding process: 1. understanding the question, 2. retrieving the relevant information from memory, 3. forming a judgement, 4. adapting the judgement to the answer options of the questionnaire, 5. adapting the answer before sending it to the interviewer.

First of all, the whole process may differ depending on the type of the interview, i.e. whether it is conducted by telephone (CATI) or by face-to-face interviewers (CAPI). People tend to choose answers that are more in line with social norms. It is called the "social desirability bias", which occurs when respondents provide answers to questions that they believe will make them appear good to others, concealing their true opinions or experiences. The presence of the interviewer presumably increases the risk of this kind of response bias[7] (Oismüller and Till, 2015: 943). An overview of the potential survey problems can be found in Chapter 2 of the OECD Guidelines on Measuring Subjective Well-being (OECD 2013).

Regarding further methodological solutions during the setup of the integrated MIGWELL dataset, see the Appendix for further details.

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[7] For this reason, the 2013 module in Austria recorded which persons were present during the interview.

4. An overview of subjective well-being inequalities in Europe

4.1 Overall life satisfaction

Satisfaction with life as a whole is widely considered a key variable in well-being research. This variable is expected to compress information about people's evaluation of their lives into one single number; therefore, it can be used as a dependent variable in empirical studies. As we mentioned earlier, this Research Report focuses on the 2013, 2018, and 2021 waves of EU-SILC surveys.

The spatial characteristics of the 2013 results provide a good example of the so-called West-East slope, described by Melegh (2006), with the addition that the North–South slope has at least the same importance. Going from North to South, as well as from West to East, the average values of overall life satisfaction tend to decrease step by step (Figure 2, Table 4). Among the 37 analysed countries of the EU-SILC Denmark, Finland, Switzerland, Sweden, and Iceland represented the top five (above 7.9 scores), while the lowest scores were measured in Montenegro, North Macedonia, Türkiye, Serbia, and finally in Bulgaria (4.8). While Austria was ranked seventh (fifth within the European Union), Hungary was ahead of only Bulgaria among the EU Member States.

Figure 2. Overall life satisfaction in Europe by 2013, 2018 and 2021 (EU-SILC)
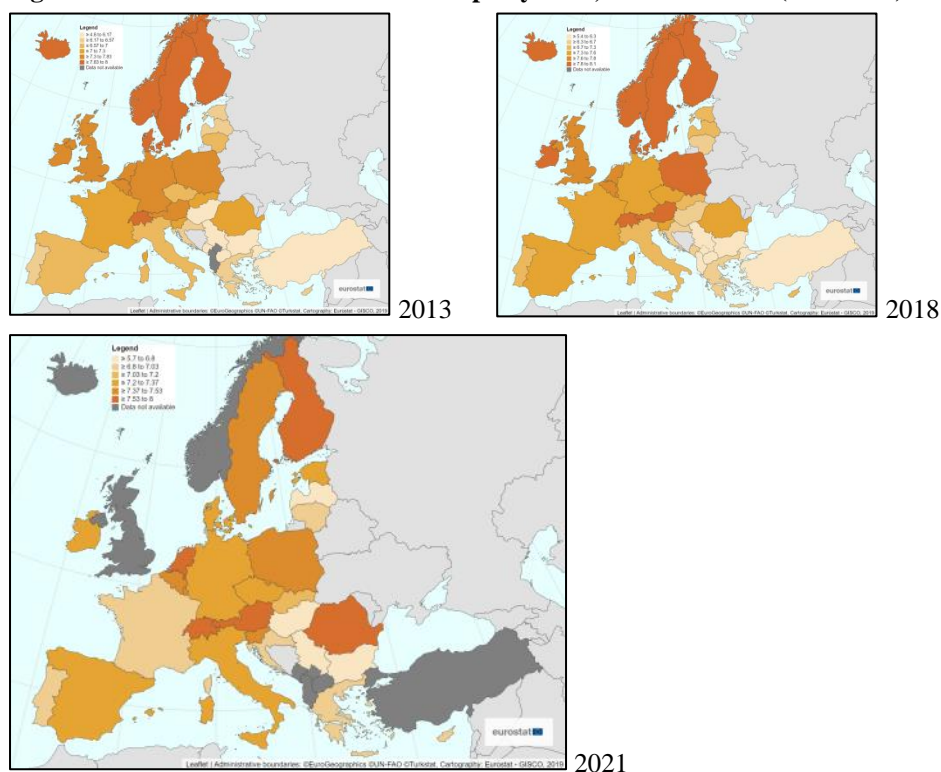
Source: Eurostat, LINK

Table 4. Overall life satisfaction. National averages in the EU-SILC countries by 2013, 2018 and 2021. (In grey: non-EU countries. NA: no data. United Kingdom: not part of the EU since 2021.)

	2013	2018	2021		2013	2018	2021
Albania	NA	5.5	NA	**Lithuania**	6.7	6.4	7.0
Austria	**7.8**	**8.0**	**8.0**	**Luxembourg**	7.5	7.6	7.4
Belgium	7.6	7.6	7.5	**Malta**	7.1	7.5	7.1
Bulgaria	4.8	5.4	5.7	Montenegro	5.7	6.5	NA
Croatia	6.3	6.3	6.8	**Netherlands**	7.8	7.7	7.6
Cyprus	6.2	7.1	6.8	North Macedonia	5.7	6.0	NA
Czechia	6.9	7.4	7.3	**Norway**	7.9	8.0	NA
Denmark	8.0	7.8	7.3	**Poland**	7.3	7.8	7.5
Estonia	6.5	7.0	7.2	**Portugal**	6.2	6.7	7.0
Finland	8.0	8.1	7.9	**Romania**	7.1	7.3	7.7
France	7.1	7.3	6.8	Serbia	4.9	5.6	6.0
Germany	7.3	7.4	7.2	**Slovakia**	7.0	7.1	7.1
Greece	6.2	6.4	6.8	**Slovenia**	7.0	7.3	7.5
Hungary	6.1	6.5	6.5	**Spain**	6.9	7.3	7.2
Iceland	7.9	7.9	NA	**Sweden**	7.9	7.8	7.5
Ireland	7.4	8.1	7.3	**Switzerland**	8.0	8.0	7.9
Italy	6.7	7.1	7.2	Türkiye	5.7	5.7	NA
Kosovo	NA	6.0	NA	United Kingdom*	7.3	7.6	NA
Latvia	6.5	6.7	6.7	**EU27 (after 2020)**	7.0	7.3	7.2

Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

Although the relationship between the material goods factors and subjective well-being is not necessarily linear, there is an obvious correlation in the European context between overall life satisfaction and economic situation, at least on the macro level. Figure 3 shows the share of people reporting low life satisfaction (indicated a score of 5 or lower out of 10) and the proportion of materially and socially deprived people within the population.[8] The relationship between life satisfaction and income poverty is weaker but still positive ($R^2 = 0.18$) (Blasco and Glezies 2019: 32-33).

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[8] Romania is an outlier. Although it finds itself among the countries with the highest rates of material and social deprivation as well as income poverty rates, Romania is characterised by significantly higher overall satisfaction than the regional average. Exploring the reasons is beyond the scope of this study; however, the domain satisfaction scores discussed in the following subchapters will reflect on different aspects of life that Romanian people are more satisfied with compared to the surrounding countries.

Figure 3. Proportion of low satisfaction and rate of material and social deprivation for the population in 2013

Source: Blasco and Glezies 2019: 32

Considering the aggregated EU27 average, European people have become more satisfied with their lives by 2018, with the mean increasing from 7.0 to 7.3. However, the ranking has changed somewhat (Table 4). A minimal decrease was registered in four countries only: the Netherlands, Sweden, Denmark, and Lithuania. Average life satisfaction scores above 8 were measured in Ireland, Finland, Switzerland, Austria, and Norway, while the value remained below 6 in Türkiye, Serbia, Albania, and Bulgaria. Hungary's relative position has improved, with a national average of 6.5, ahead of Bulgaria, Croatia, and Lithuania.

The trend had changed dramatically by 2021 (Figure 4). As a probable reflection of the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic, the EU average for overall life satisfaction has decreased by 0.1 percentage point. The group of Member States where comparable data are available between 2018 and 2021 has been split in two. Increase and decrease were measured in 14 countries each (Table 4, Figure 4 and 5). To some extent, a converging trend can be observed: satisfaction has decreased in countries with higher levels of satisfaction, and those with low life satisfaction saw an opposite trend. The greatest decrease was registered in Ireland, France, and Denmark, while overall life satisfaction increased remarkably in Lithuania, Croatia, Greece, and Romania. In 2021, life satisfaction was highest in Austria, Finland, Romania, and the Netherlands, and lowest in Bulgaria and Hungary (6.5).

Figure 4. Overall life satisfaction. National averages in the EU-SILC countries by 2013, 2018 and 2021 according to the increasing or decreasing values during the two periods (plus or minus between 2013 and 2018 / plus or minus between 2018 and 2021)
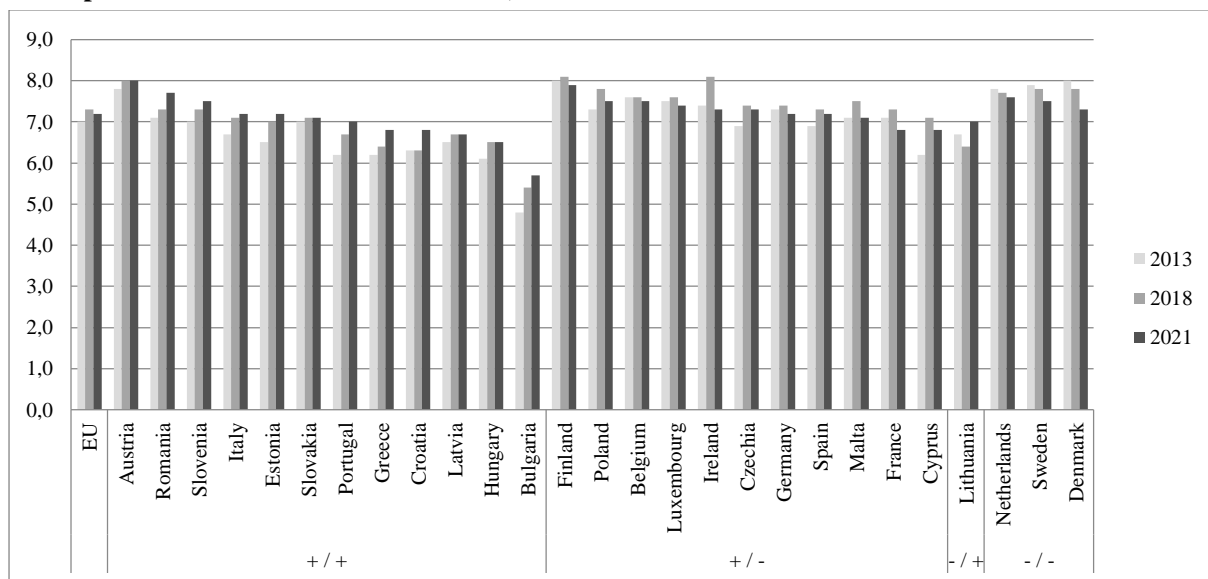
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

Figure 5. Overall life satisfaction. Change in average values between 2018 and 2021.
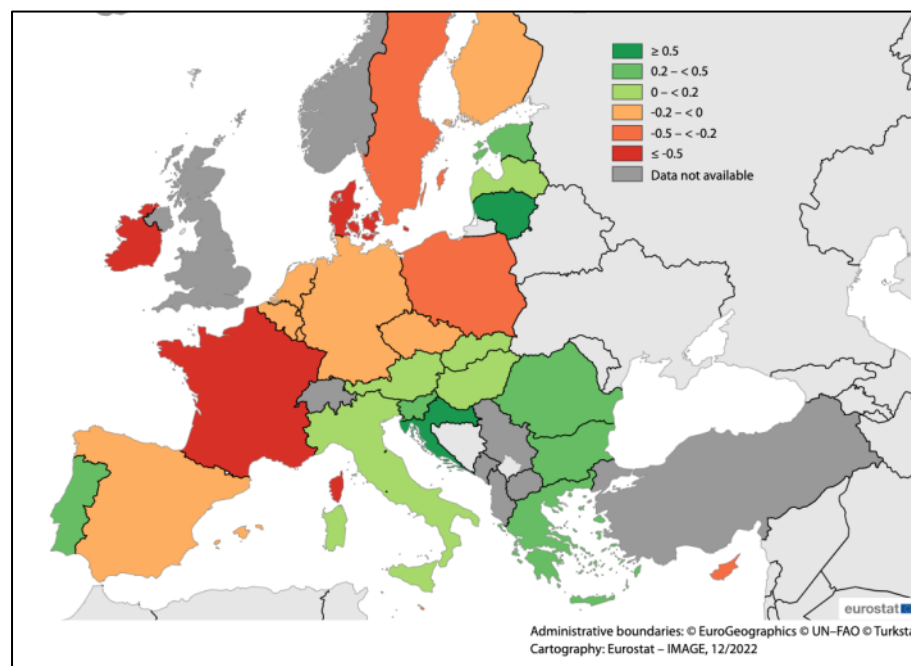
Source: Eurostat, LINK

Macro-level data showed no significant difference in life satisfaction between men and women as well as between urban and rural residents, both averaging 7.1 at the EU level. However, life satisfaction consistently decreases with age and increases with the level of

education, meaning that the higher the education level, the more satisfied people are with life, but the older they get, the less satisfied they feel (Figure 6). People in households with dependent children reported the highest levels of life satisfaction (7.3), compared with an average of 7.1 for couples living together, 7.0 for households without dependent children, and 6.7 for single-person households. The relationship between income and life satisfaction is similarly important. People with high income were more satisfied with their lives than those with the lowest earnings (7.6 and 6.5 on average for the highest and lowest income quintiles).

Figure 6. Overall life satisfaction in the EU by gender, educational level and age in 2018 and 2021
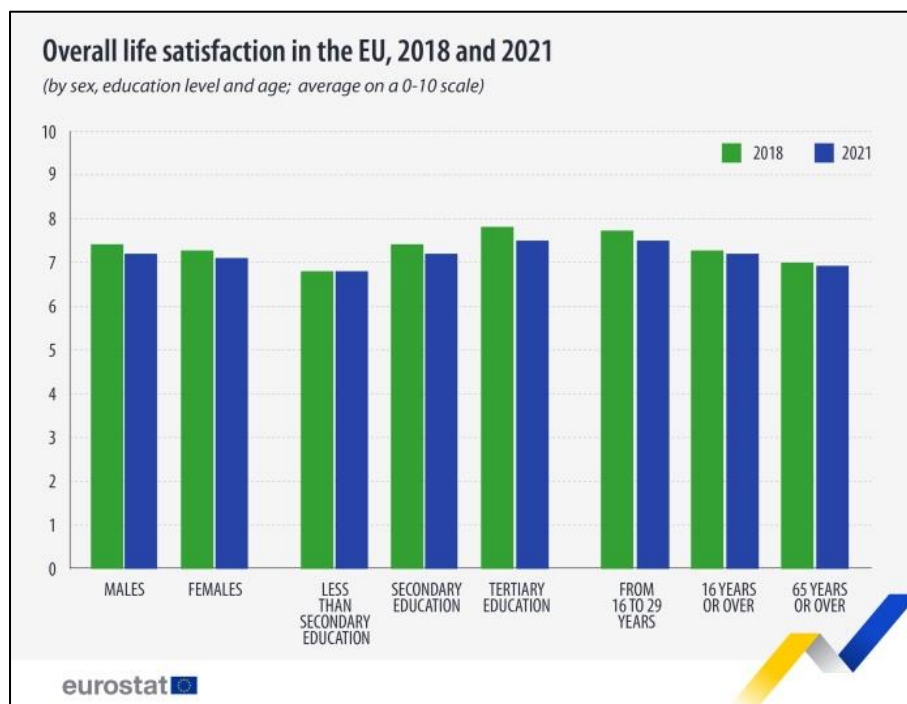
Source: Eurostat, LINK

4.2 Domain satisfaction

Regarding domain satisfaction, we have richer sources from the 2013 EU-SILC wave. In that year, altogether eight variables described domain satisfaction, while only three questions were used in 2018, and none of them had remained by 2021 (Figure 7 and 8).

Three indicators were associated with the respondents' material resources: satisfaction with financial situation, jobs, and housing. On the national level, the correlation between these domain satisfaction scores and overall satisfaction proved to be strongly positive. Therefore, there is no remarkable difference in the spatial characteristics of these indicators compared to the previously presented graphs. Based on the analysis of EU-SILC microdata, the correlation coefficients were significant at the individual level as well (at the 0.01 level). The correlation

was especially strong between overall life satisfaction and the satisfaction with financial situation (0.587) as well as the satisfaction with accommodation (0.559).

Figure 7. Domain satisfaction (with material resources) in Europe by 2013 and 2018 (EU-SILC)
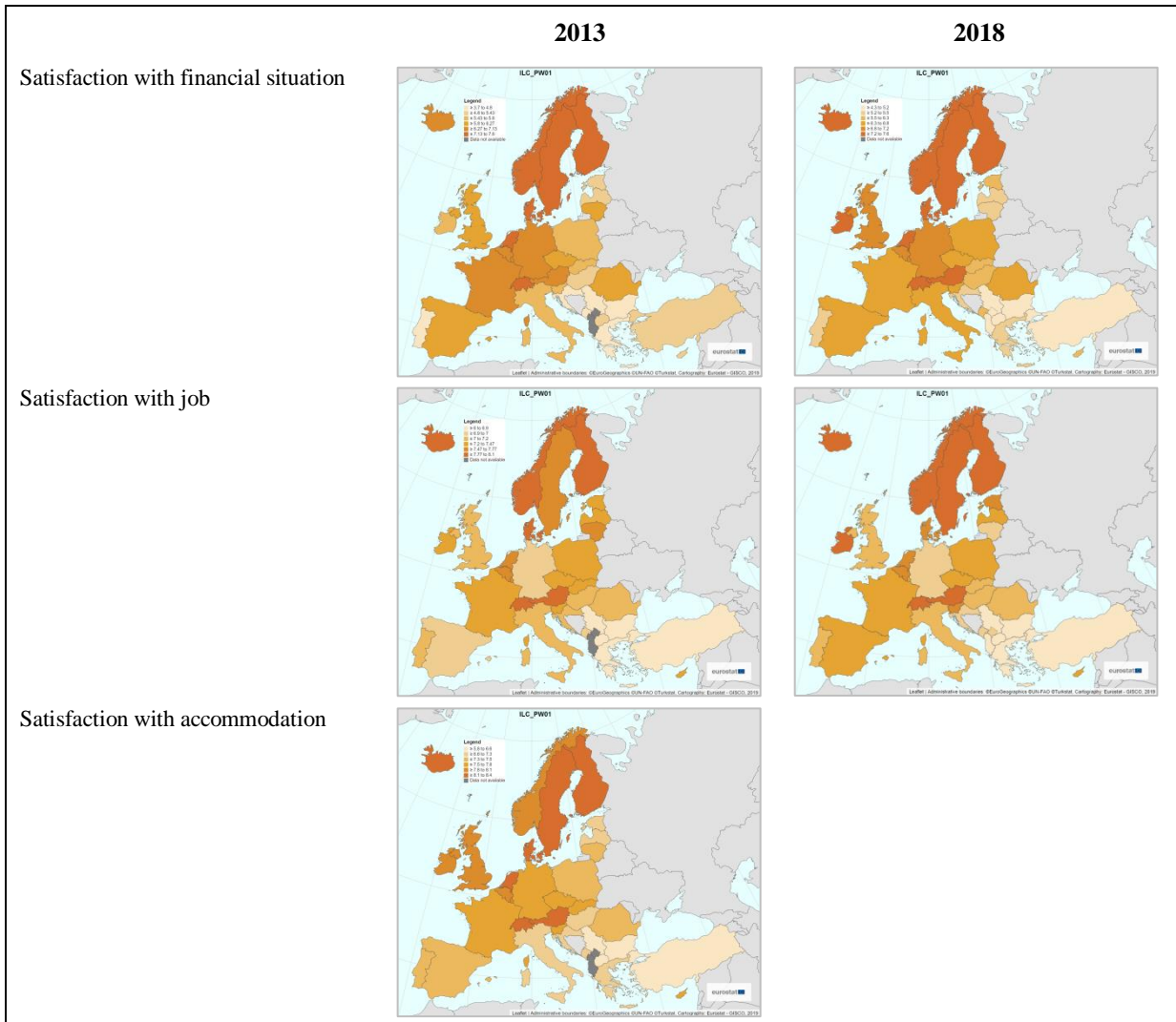
Source of data: Eurostat

Figure 8. Domain satisfaction (with non-material factors) in Europe by 2013 and 2018 (EU-SILC)

	2013	2018
Satisfaction with personal relationships		
Satisfaction with time use		
Satisfaction with commuting time		
Satisfaction with living environment		
Satisfaction with recreational and green areas		

Source of data: Eurostat
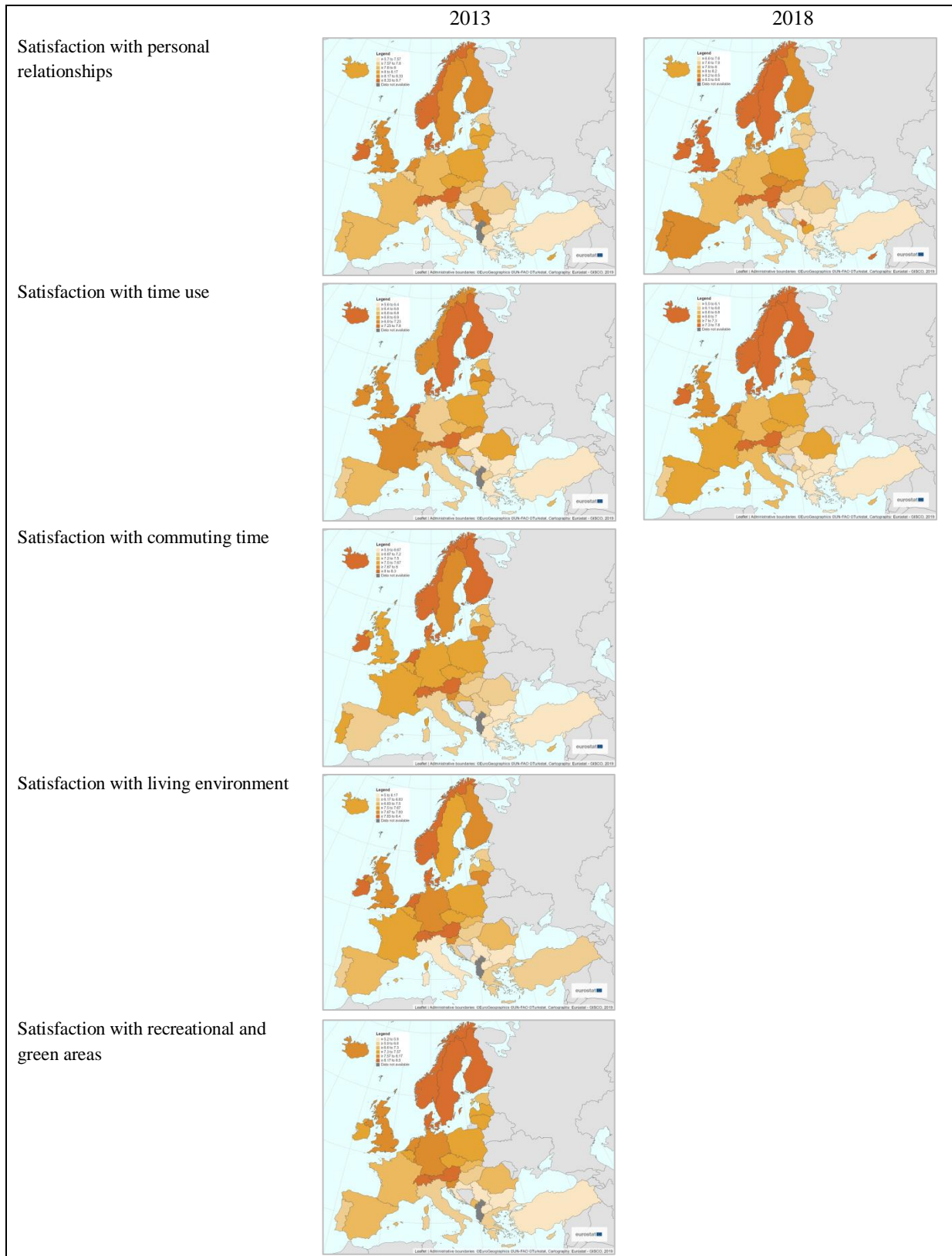
In 2013, the non-material factors also correlated with overall life satisfaction on a national level above 0.85** values, with one exception. The satisfaction with personal relationships was likewise significant but the strength of correlation was somewhat lower at 0.673**. All correlation coefficients were significant at the individual level as well (at the 0.01 level). The strength of the correlations varied between 0.255** (overall life satisfaction and satisfaction with commuting time) and 0.499** (overall life satisfaction and satisfaction with personal relationships).

4.3 Happiness

Happiness is the key variable in the affective dimension of subjective well-being. According to the Eurostat data, European people have not only become more satisfied with their life as a whole, but they have also grown happier. Taking the EU28 average, the proportion of people who have never, rarely, or only sometimes felt happy in the last four weeks has decreased by almost 5 percentage points between 2013 and 2018, while the proportion of people who have always or mostly felt happy has increased from 59.5% to 63% (Figure 9).

Figure 9. Frequency of being happy in the last four weeks, EU28 average.
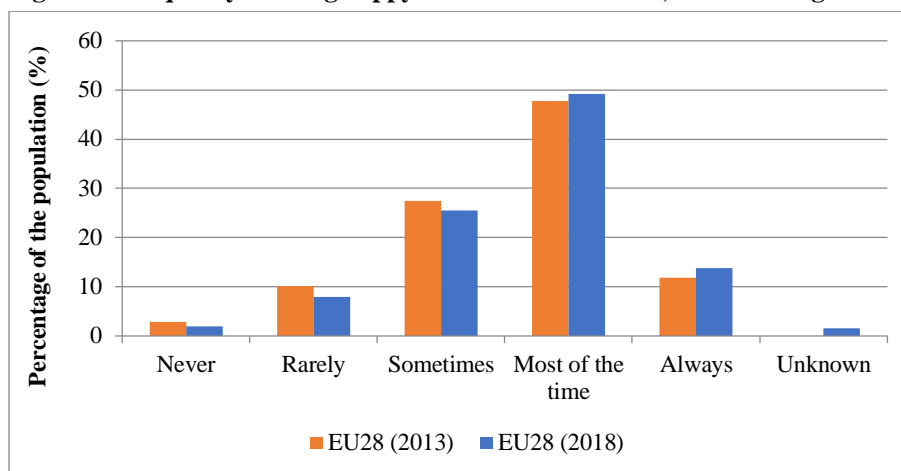
Source of data: Eurostat microdata.

However, there are remarkable differences between the European countries (Table 5). There are five countries where the proportion of people who felt happy most of the time or always was above 75% in both years: the Netherlands, Ireland, Iceland, Finland, and Switzerland. In contrast, that was true for less than 50% of the population in Italy, Romania, Greece, Lithuania, Croatia, Bulgaria, Latvia, Kosovo, and Albania. In 2018, Ireland proved to be the happiest, while Albania (and Latvia if we take only the EU Member States into account) the least happy country. Austria was 5th, and Hungary 21st on this list; 76% and 58% of the people respectively considered themselves happy "most of the time" or "always".

Table 5. Frequency of being happy in the last 4 weeks by countries by 2013 and 2018 (EU-SILC)

|	2013					2018					
	Never	**Rarely**	**Some-times**	**Most of the time**	**Always**	**Never**	**Rarely**	**Some-times**	**Most of the time**	**Always**	**Un-known**
Albania	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	2.5	10.8	51.6	24.9	5.4	4.7
Austria	1.1	6.4	21.3	57.2	14.1	0.9	5.8	17.4	61.5	14.4	0.0
Belgium	1.1	5.4	21.0	57.8	14.8	1.2	4.8	17.7	59.2	16.9	0.1
Bulgaria	5.6	23.3	36.4	29.1	5.5	4.5	19.9	36.4	27.9	7.0	4.3
Croatia	1.9	13.2	47.0	33.2	4.7	2.7	12.8	41.0	36.5	5.3	1.7
Cyprus	2.5	14.7	33.0	40.6	9.2	1.8	11.3	32.1	45.9	8.8	0.2
Czechia	2.0	10.9	41.8	38.6	6.7	1.5	8.7	34.6	44.8	6.8	3.7
Denmark	0.9	6.4	16.9	60.2	15.5	2.0	8.3	19.5	55.7	14.0	0.5
Estonia	5.3	13.9	36.2	38.7	5.9	3.4	10.4	34.4	44.3	7.1	0.4
Finland	1.1	4.2	17.4	66.1	11.2	0.9	4.5	18.0	63.6	12.3	0.7
France	2.4	7.7	27.6	49.9	12.4	2.1	5.7	23.8	52.2	15.5	0.7
Germany	2.0	10.6	25.3	56.1	5.9	1.6	8.6	23.1	58.1	6.4	2.2
Greece	10.8	29.9	27.7	25.2	6.4	5.1	15.7	30.7	36.5	9.9	2.1
Hungary	2.9	15.0	26.5	47.3	8.3	1.8	12.0	28.0	48.1	9.7	0.5
Iceland	1.0	4.2	13.3	58.9	22.5	1.9	5.1	17.2	48.1	27.6	0.0
Ireland	1.2	4.7	19.0	61.6	13.6	1.6	2.9	14.7	63.3	17.4	0.0
Italy	4.5	13.2	37.7	33.4	11.3	2.2	10.0	37.3	32.7	16.4	1.5
Kosovo	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	1.3	9.0	24.0	31.3	4.5	29.9
Latvia	7.8	20.6	40.3	25.9	5.4	6.8	21.2	38.9	26.6	4.1	2.4
Lithuania	2.7	12.7	36.7	38.1	9.9	2.1	13.0	33.9	37.3	8.1	5.6
Luxembourg	1.4	5.1	18.3	61.6	13.6	2.0	4.7	18.7	59.0	14.9	0.6
Malta	1.5	8.9	22.0	52.5	15.0	2.9	9.7	24.8	56.1	5.7	0.8
Montenegro	2.7	8.7	31.5	39.1	18.0	0.7	4.9	28.4	37.3	24.6	4.0
Netherlands	1.5	3.1	13.3	61.2	21.0	1.4	3.4	18.2	60.9	15.3	0.8
N. Macedonia	3.0	12.5	35.1	39.0	10.4	0.9	7.1	35.1	45.9	6.7	4.2
Norway	0.6	6.3	24.3	56.7	12.2	1.0	8.2	25.2	53.2	12.4	0.0
Poland	1.8	9.8	20.8	54.4	13.2	1.1	7.0	21.9	51.9	16.6	1.4
Portugal	4.9	14.8	28.9	34.8	16.6	3.9	13.1	26.7	40.7	15.3	0.2
Romania	4.5	21.0	35.5	33.4	5.7	3.0	12.2	31.4	41.7	4.7	7.1
Serbia	5.6	16.5	34.4	30.8	12.7	2.2	10.4	35.2	40.6	11.1	0.6
Slovakia	1.0	8.1	32.0	51.2	7.8	1.1	6.3	27.5	48.2	9.6	7.3
Slovenia	1.6	6.4	26.6	53.7	11.7	1.9	7.1	31.6	48.8	10.1	0.5
Spain	2.0	7.0	27.7	44.1	19.1	1.9	6.1	20.6	43.0	28.5	0.0
Sweden	2.9	5.7	23.9	52.4	15.1	2.6	7.4	24.3	51.8	12.8	1.2
Switzerland	1.0	4.5	19.7	61.0	13.8	1.2	4.8	18.7	60.7	14.6	0.0
Türkiye	3.5	11.1	34.6	41.9	8.9	2.9	9.8	33.4	47.1	6.6	0.2
United Kingdom	2.0	6.4	23.0	55.4	13.2	1.5	5.8	22.3	57.5	12.7	0.2
EU27 (from 2020)	2.9	10.7	28.1	46.8	11.6	2.0	8.2	25.8	48.5	13.9	1.6
EU28 (2013-2020)	2.8	10.2	27.5	47.7	11.8	1.9	8.0	25.5	49.2	13.8	1.5

Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

It is important to underline that the affective subjective well-being gap between Austria and Hungary – and, in a broader context, between Western and Eastern Europe – is tighter than the satisfaction-based SWB gap. If we interpret the average happiness scores on a 0-10 scale, [9] we can find evidence for this observation (Figure 10).

The scores of overall life satisfaction and the "estimated average happiness" do not decrease simultaneously. At the top of the list one can find mostly Northern and Western European countries, where very high satisfaction is associated with a high level of happiness. In contrast, very low levels of satisfaction may be also coupled with almost similarly high scores of happiness. Typical examples are countries around the southeastern periphery of the EU, such as Hungary, Bulgaria, Serbia, Montenegro, North Macedonia, and Türkiye. A similar pattern characterises Spain and Portugal as well, albeit to a lesser extent.

Further investigations will be required to determine the causal effects of these phenomena. Nevertheless, it seems that the tendency to feel happy despite relatively modest living conditions is essentially a feature of the "European South", and this phenomenon may also be related to cultural reasons.

Figure 10. Overall life satisfaction and "estimated average scores of happiness" by countries in 2013 and 2018

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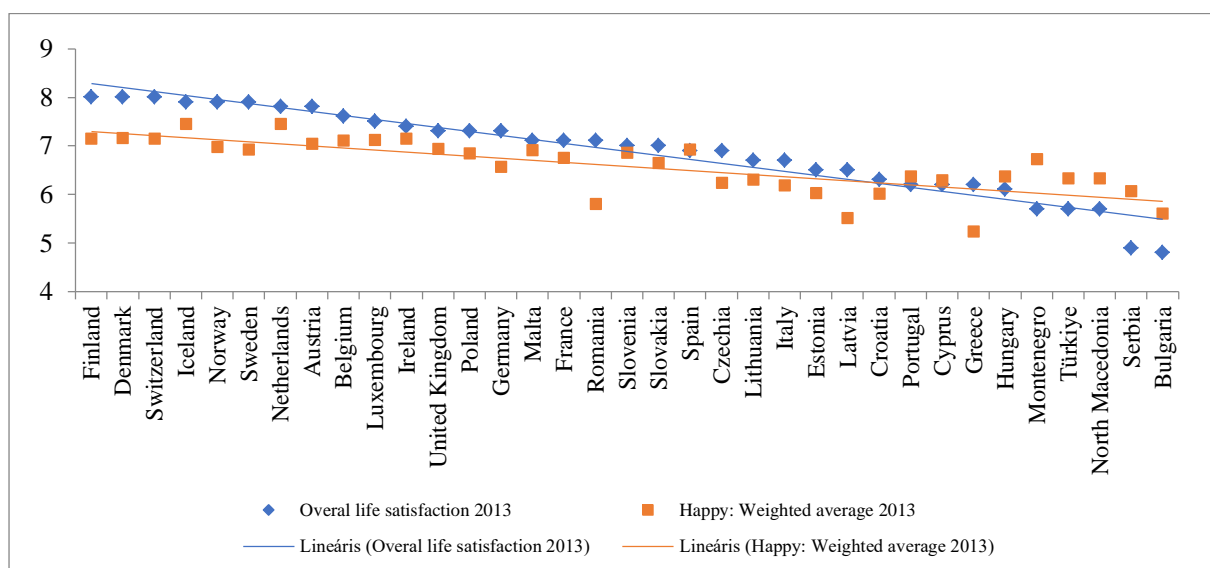
[9] The EU-SILC measures happiness on a five-point scale. To calculate the values presented in Figure 10, we associated values of 10 or 9 with the "always" option, 8 or 7 with the "most of the time" option, and so on, and then we calculated the weighted averages. We are aware of the methodological concerns, for instance, that the frequency options are not directly quantifiable expressions. However, since not the actual values are important here but the relative position and ranking of the countries, we believe this is an acceptable way of compressing information on happiness into one number.
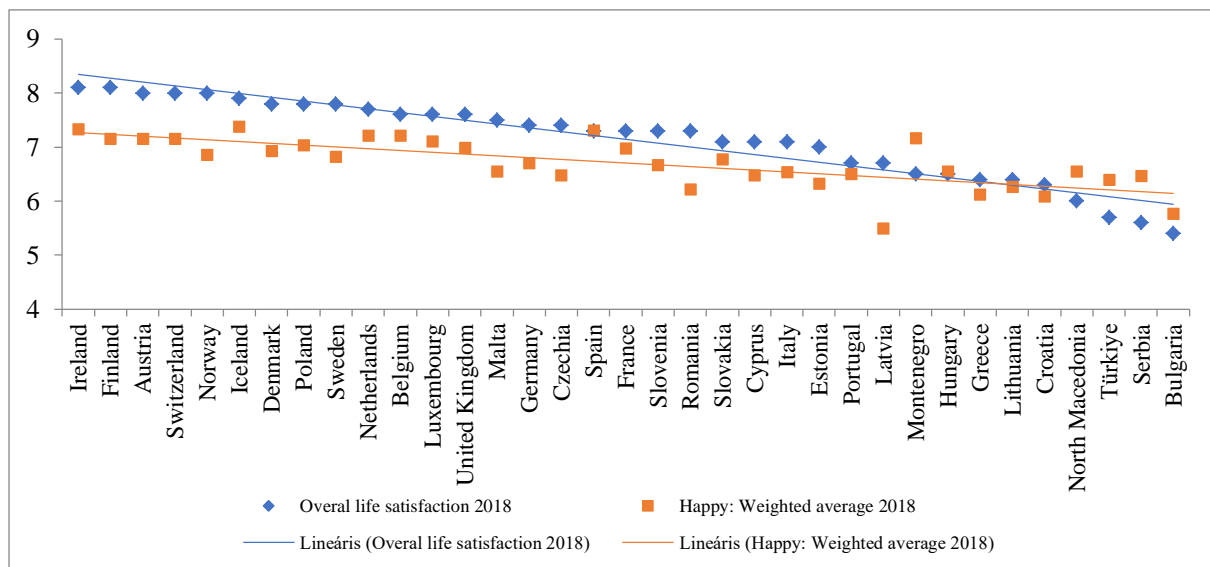
Source: Eurostat EU-SILC

There is a slightly larger difference between men and women in terms of happiness than in terms of satisfaction. 64% of men and less than 62% of women reported that they had been happy most of the time or always during the last four weeks. However, the frequency of feeling happy decreases remarkably with age. More than three-quarters of 16-24 year olds, only two-thirds of 35-49 year olds and less than 60% of 65+ year olds were happy often or always. There is also a significant difference by education level: this statement regarding happiness was true for only 55% of people with primary and lower secondary education, while totalling 71% for highly educated people. Of course, this is associated with different income levels. People with high income are not only more satisfied but also happier than those with the lowest earnings; the share of always or mostly happy people was 71% among the highest income quintile and only 52% among the lowest income quintile. Households with dependent children can be characterised by the highest frequency of happiness (68.4%), while this ratio was only 51.5% in the case of single-member households. The difference between urban and rural areas is negligible in general, with less than 1 percentage point in favour of the cities.

4.4 Eudaimonic well-being

"Overall, how meaningful do you feel about the things you do?" – this is the question through which eudaimonic well-being was operationalised in the 2013 EU-SILC round.[10] Compared to the previous concepts of SWB measurement, the range between the national averages is slightly smaller here. On a 0-10 scale, Iceland (8.3) and Montenegro (6.1) – considering the EU Member States: Denmark (8.2) and Bulgaria (6.1) – represented the two extremes. Whereas Austria was ranked 7th (7.9), Hungary registered the 5th lowest score (7.0).

5. Objective and subjective well-being differences between Austria and Hungary

In order to understand the SWB gap between Hungary and Austria better, the following chapters provide a more detailed analysis of the available microdata-sets based on the EU-SILC and the 2016 Hungarian micro-census. First of all, we need to analyse the general notion of "overall life satisfaction". In the following chapters we will explore the facets of SWB that are particularly important or less relevant for people's overall life satisfaction.

We will study the well-being differences from a micro-level perspective. The analysis will focus on the individuals' subjective perceptions of well-being with the consideration of the available resources, including their financial capacities and social relationships. As was described earlier (Table 2), the objective factors of well-being are broken down into several categories, and the classification process principally followed the logic of the life-satisfaction domains. Although this structure is based on the OECD "How's Life" concept, the operationalisation is somewhat different due to the micro-level approach of MIGWELL. The selected indicators stem from the available micro-census and EU-SILC microdata-bases and always refer to the respondents' – or their households' – self-declared socio-economic situations. Therefore, while people's subjective reflection on life satisfaction, affect, and eudaimonia is our focal point, the objective (material and immaterial) individual or household-level factors are expected to provide deeper insights into the dynamics of the migration-SWB nexus.

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[10] This is the only internationally comparable variable within the eudamonic dimension.

5.1 Material factors and the satisfaction with them

The indicators of "Financial situation" measure the economic resources that the individuals and their households can use to satisfy their everyday needs and protect themselves against economic vulnerability. The variables regarding "Economic status and job" are relevant for people's well-being, "not only because quality jobs increase people's command over resources but also because these jobs offer the opportunity to fulfil one's own ambitions, to develop skills and abilities, to feel useful to society and to build self-esteem" (OECD 2013: 23). "Housing conditions" make up the third pillar of the material factors of well-being. The quality of accommodation satisfies people's basic needs and affects their health status, their social connections, and many other immaterial aspects of SWB.

5.1.1   Financial situation

In this Research Report the financial situation of the population has been operationalised through the following indicators.

- Personal income (cash + benefits) in 2015 EU28-Euros[11]
- Equivalised disposable household income (cash + benefits) in 2015 EU28-Euros
- At-risk-of-poverty status
- Severely materially deprived household
- Low work-intensity status
- Financial burden of the repayment of debts from hire purchases or loans.

It is important to emphasize again that MIGWELL works with weighted data (for the methodological details, see Section 3.2), which makes the extrapolation from the representative sample to the whole population possible.

The two income-related indicators show the respondents' and their households' gross incomes in the survey year, including all cash and non-cash incomes as well as benefits.[12] According to the 2013 EU-SILC survey, the ***personal incomes*** in Austria were three times higher on average than in Hungary (ca. 24,400 EUR vs. 8,300 EUR). Regarding the median values, the difference was similar: ca. 19,800 EUR in Austria and 7,100 EUR in Hungary. This income gap has slightly narrowed in the 2018 EU-SILC wave; the mean and median values then displayed "only" a 2.4-fold difference between the two countries (ca. 25,700 and 21,300 EUR vs. 10,600 and 9,200 EUR). In terms of *equivalised disposable household income*, one can

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[11] To be able to meaningfully compare personal income levels in Austria and Hungary over time, we adjusted the values for inflation and standardized them to 2015 local currency units, using the corresponding official HCIP indexes. About the detailed methodological steps see the "Harmonisarion of variables" chapter in the Appendix.

[12] Gross means that neither taxes nor social contributions have been deducted at source.

observe similar trends: the average and median values of the income level showed a 2.3-fold and 2.4-fold difference in favour of Austria, respectively (Table 6).

Table 6. Personal income and equivalised disposable household income (cash + benefits) in 2015 EU28-Euros. (Hungary and Austria; 2013and 2018)

	Austria				Hungary			
	2013		2018		2013		2018	
	Personal	H-hold	Personal	H-hold	Personal	H-hold	Personal	H-hold
Mean	24,463	23,924	25,712	24,245	8,260	8,941	10,643	11,051
Median	20,532	21,789	22,759	23,138	7,051	7,778	8,340	9,322

Source of data: Eurostat microdata

The ***at-risk-of-poverty rate*** is a relative indicator which does not measure wealth or poverty per se. Instead, it shows the share of people with an equivalised disposable income (after social transfer) below the so-called at-risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60% of the national median equivalised disposable income after social transfers.[13] This methodological background explains the similar percentage of people living below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold in the two countries. In Austria, about 13.3% of the people belong to this category, and their proportion proved to be very stable. In Hungary, the same value decreased from 13.3% to 11.9% between 2013 and 2018 (Figure 11).

Figure 11. The share of people below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold. (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2018)
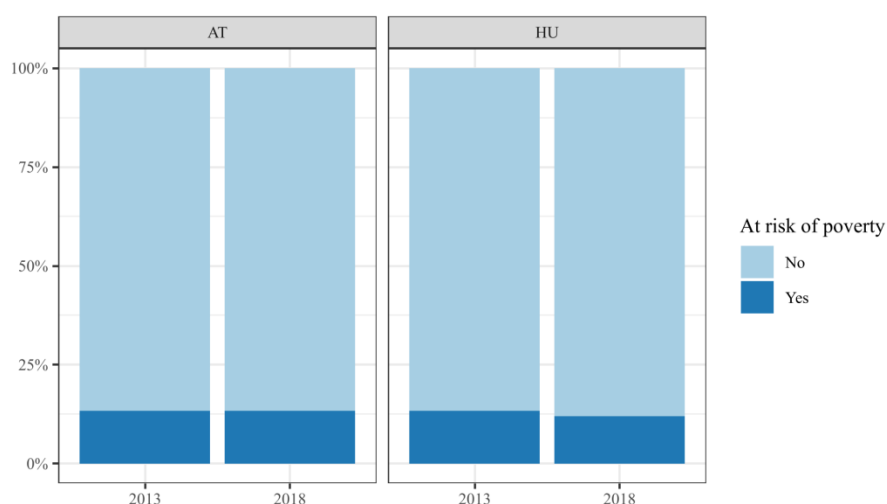
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

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[13] https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Glossary:At-risk-of-poverty_rate

The indicator of *severe material deprivation* refers to the proportion of the population that cannot afford at least 4 out of 9 predefined material items considered by most people to be desirable or even necessary to lead an adequate life. The list includes the inability "to pay unexpected expenses, afford a one-week annual holiday away from home, a meal involving meat, chicken or fish every second day, the adequate heating of a dwelling, durable goods like a washing machine, colour television, telephone or car, being confronted with payment arrears (mortgage or rent, utility bills, hire purchase instalments or other loan payments)".[14]

While the share of materially deprived people was only 3.7% and 2.7% in Austria in 2013 and 2018 respectively, more than a quarter of the population in Hungary belonged to this category in 2013. The decrease of this value from 26.3% to 9.3% signifies a remarkable improvement in living standards in Hungary (Figure 12).

Figure 12. The share of materially deprived people. (Hungary and Austria; 2013 and 2018)
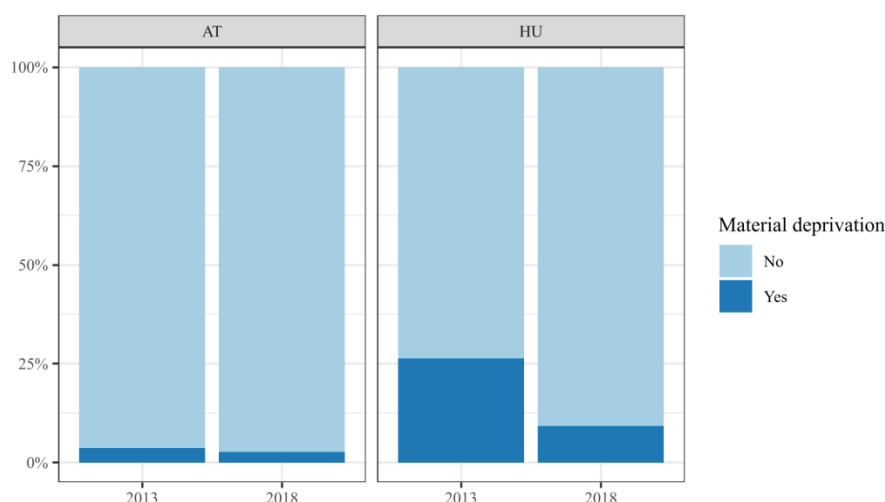
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

In Hungary, the proportion of people who can afford to pay for a possible unexpected expense or for a one-week holiday per year has increased considerably. Unexpected expenditure was the biggest concern for households in 2013, but by 2018, more households could manage to finance unexpected expenditure than a one-week holiday per year, making the latter the most

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[14] It was one of the components that defined the at-risk-of-poverty-or-social-exclusion rate (AROPE) according to the Europe 2020 strategy. Later the number of predefined deprivation items increased from 9 to 13 in the Europe 2030 strategy. The new items are the following: capacity to replacing worn-out furniture, replacing worn-out clothes by some new ones, having two pairs of properly fitting shoes (including a pair of all-weather shoes) and spending a small amount of money each week on him/herself. For the sake of data comparability we refer to the older definition of material deprivation in this Report. See more details: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Glossary:Material_deprivation and https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Living_conditions_in_Europe_-_material_deprivation_and_economic_strain.

important item of material deprivation. In Austria, on the other hand, unexpected expenses remained the biggest problem (although the number of people affected is lower than in Hungary), while more people can afford to spend money on holidays (Figure 13).

Figure 13: Changes in the proportions of each subcategory of relative deprivation in Austria and Hungary between 2013 and 2018
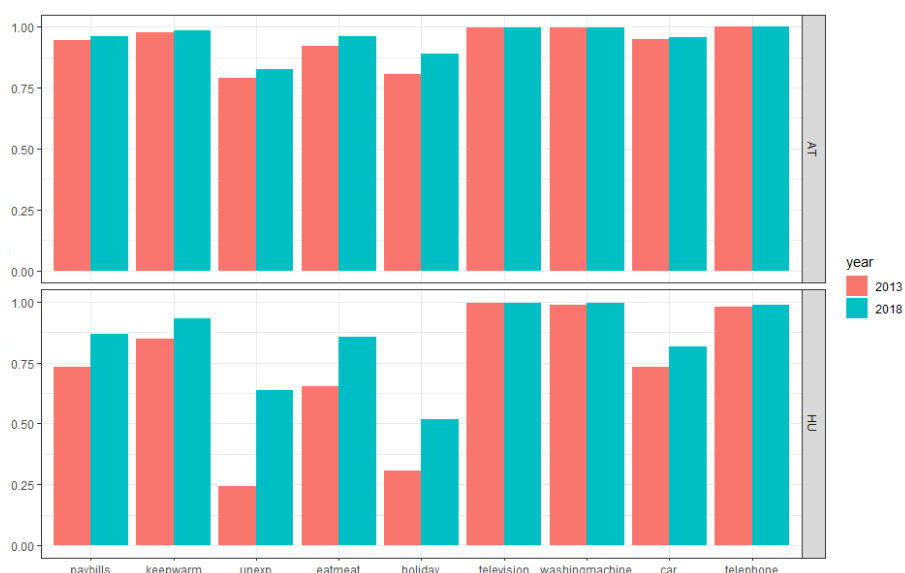
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

According to the Europe 2020 strategy, the indicator of *low work intensity* refers to the number of persons from 0-59 years living in households where the adults (those aged 18-59, but excluding students aged 18-24) had worked a working-time maximum 20% of their total combined work-time potential during the previous year.[15] In Austria, the share of these people is relatively stable at around 5.6% and 5.4%. In Hungary, their proportion had decreased considerably from ca. 9.4% to 3.9% between 2013 and 2018 (Figure 14).

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[15] https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Glossary:Persons_living_in_households_with_low_work_intensity

Figure 14. The share of people living in households with low work intensity. (Hungary and Austria; 2013 and 2018)
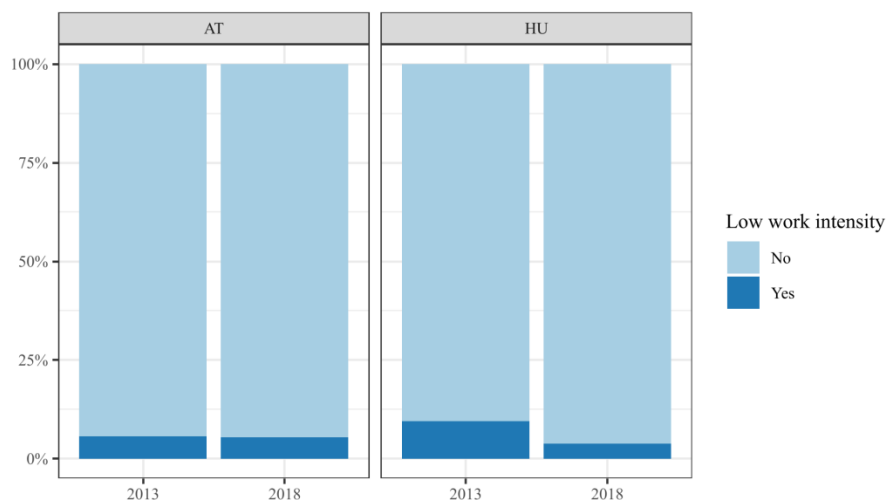
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

The last factor we took into consideration was the *financial burden of the repayment of debts from hire purchases or loans*. It refers to the percentage of persons living in a dwelling where the repayment of debts from any credit card, hire purchase, or other loans (that is, excluding mortgage repayments or other loans connected with the purchase of the main dwelling) constitutes a financial burden.[16]

The group of people without debt makes up about four-fifths of the whole population in both countries, but their proportion decreased by ca. 2 percentage points during the analysed period (in 2018 ca. 79.5% in Austria, 78.4% in Hungary). However, the trend is positive regarding the perceived financial burden of the debt. In 2018 more respondents reported no or only a moderate degree of burden in both countries, while the repayment of debts still presents a problem for about 3.2% of the Austrian and 6.4% of the Hungarian population (Figure 15).

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[16] https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=EU_statistics_on_income_and_living_conditions_(EU-SILC)_methodology_-_economic_strain_linked_to_dwelling#Description

Figure 15. The share of people with or without the financial burden of the repayment of debts from hire purchases or loans (Hungary and Austria; 2013 and 2018)
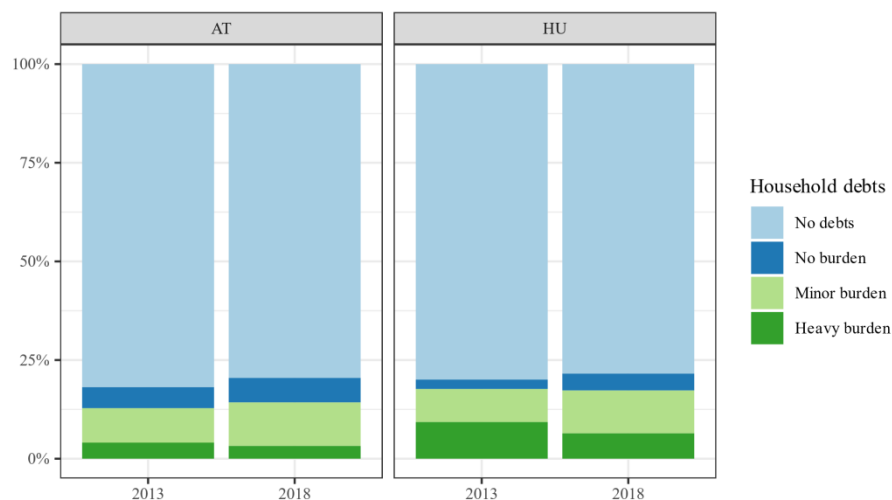
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

The objective income gap is clearly mirrored in people's ***subjective perceptions*** of their financial situation (Figure 16). The average scores were significantly higher in Austria during the whole analysed period. Nevertheless, the improving living standards resulted in a slight increase in the mean values of satisfaction with the household's financial situation in both countries (rose from 6.9 to 7.3 in Austria, and from 5.2 to 5.5 in Hungary). However, despite the fact that Hungary started to catch up with Austria in terms of the objective indicators mentioned above, the subjective well-being gap between the two countries regarding people's satisfaction with their economic situation had stagnated (1.7 in 2013; 1.8 in 2018).

While every second person in Austria (54%) seemed to be very satisfied with their financial capacities (8-10 scores) according to the 2018 EU-SILC survey, less than every fifth respondent formulated the same opinion in Hungary. Their number and proportion are almost equal to the group of respondents who replied with only 0-3 scores to the same question. It means that approximately 1.2 million people (almost 17% of the total Hungarian population) are still extremely unsatisfied with their financial situation. In Austria, the same ratio is only 5.7% (Table 7, Figure 17).

Figure 16. Satisfaction with financial situation: mean values (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
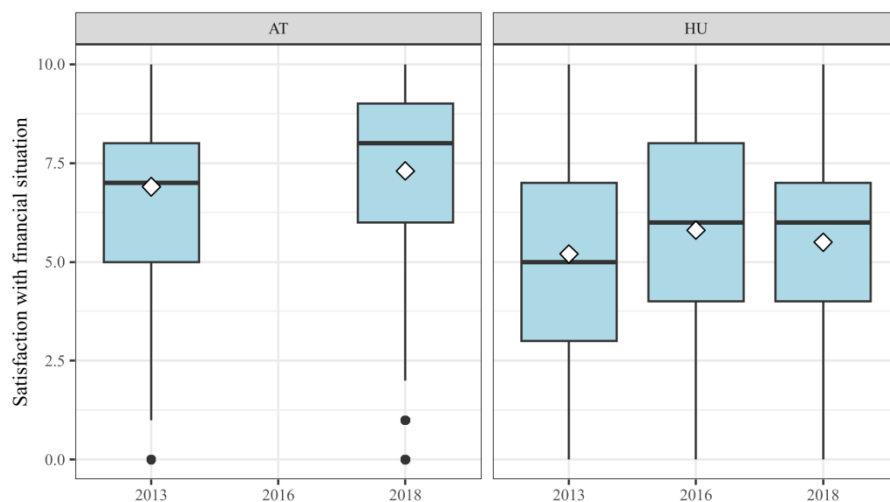
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

Table 7. Satisfaction with financial situation: share of respondents by the scores on a 0-10 scale (100% = valid answers. Cases with missing values are excluded). (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)

	AT 2013	AT 2018	HU 2013	HU 2016	HU 2018
0	2.2	1.1	3.2	2.7	2.8
1	1.0	0.5	3.8	2.6	1.8
2	1.7	1.3	8.0	6.2	4.0
3	3.7	2.8	10.8	9.5	8.2
4	3.8	3.2	10.1	9.9	10.5
5	13.3	11.2	18.3	22.6	21.5
6	9.6	8.6	14.7	15.0	16.4
7	16.6	16.8	12.9	15.7	15.8
8	23.1	26.1	12.1	18.1	13.4
9	10.8	13.4	3.7	7.7	3.7
10	14.2	15.0	2.5	6.9	2.0

Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus.

Figure 17. Satisfaction with financial situation: share of respondents by the scores on a 0-10 scale (100% = valid answers. Cases with missing values are excluded). (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
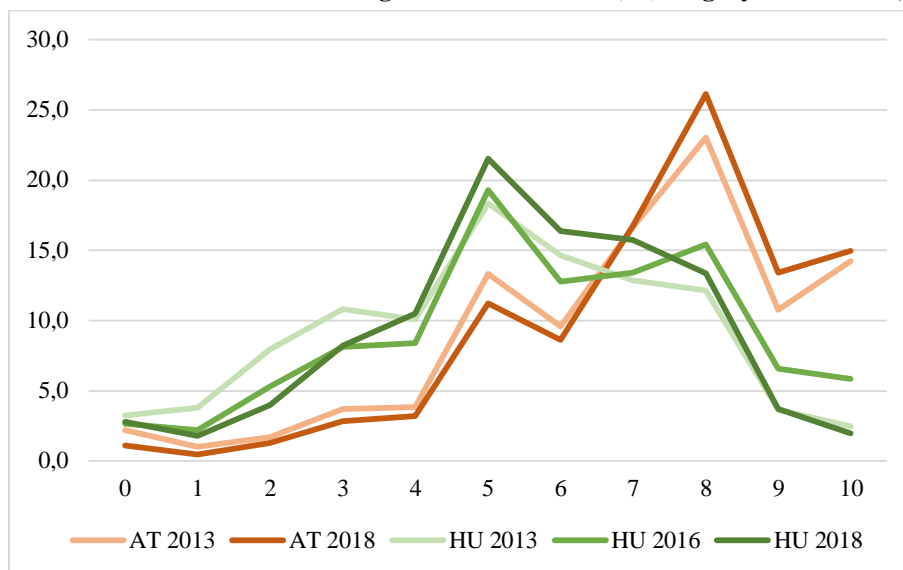
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

5.1.2   Economic status and jobs

In the OECD concept, the employment rate, the long-term unemployment rate and the average gross annual earnings of full-time employees were the key indicators of measuring and comparing selected countries regarding the well-being domain titled "jobs and earnings". However, as the OECD How's Life Report (2013: 29) underlined, the gaps in this field of statistics are huge, and no reliable and internationally comparable databases on employment quality exist. Since the MIGWELL project aims to study the SWB-migration nexus from a micro-perspective, instead of using aggregated macro-data, we focus on the individual level. These objective, personal attributes are directly related to people's satisfaction with their jobs, and they also affect people's subjective well-being as a whole.

- Self-defined current economic status,
- Occupation (ISCO 08 categories),
- Highest level of education.

The ***economically active*** population comprises everyone within the working-age population who is either an employee, self-employed, or an unemployed person. According to the representative EU-SILC surveys, the proportion of employed and self-employed people increased from 52% to 55% in Austria and from 46% to 54% in Hungary between 2013 and 2018. At the same time, the number of unemployed persons had decreased considerably: in Austria from 5% to 4.5%, in Hungary from 8.5% to 4%. The retired persons and the students

make up the vast majority of the inactive population in both countries, and their proportion proved to be relatively stable at around 27% and 7-8% (Figure 18).

Figure 18. The share of people by current economic status. (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
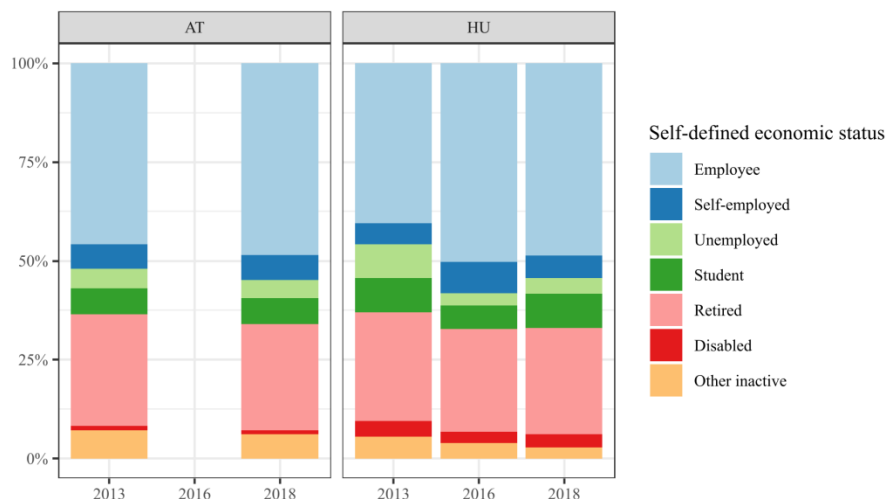
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

After excluding the missing cases (respondents who did not answer the question), one can observe different tendencies in the *occupational* transitions in the two countries. While in Hungary the occupational structure did not change significantly during the analysed period (typically within 1 percentage point, plus or minus), in Austria the share of managers, professionals, and associate professionals and technicians (the top 3 categories) increased by 7.5 percentage points. The relative weight of all other categories shrank, particularly the proportion of craft and trade workers (Figure 19, Table 8).

In 2018, almost every second person in Hungary (47%), and every third in Austria (32%) had an "elementary occupation" or was employed as an agricultural, forestry, fishery or craft worker, a plant and machine operator, or an assembler. The ratio was quite the opposite in the case of the occupations with high-income skills: managers, professionals and technicians.

Figure 19. The share of people by the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO 08). (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018). Category names: see Table 8 below.
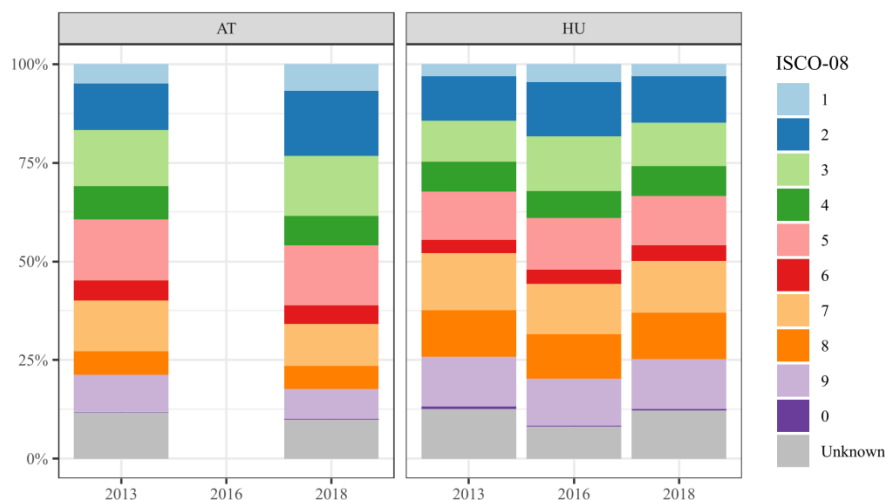
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

Table 8. The share of people by the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO 08). 100% = valid answers. Cases with missing values are excluded. (Hungary and Austria; 2018)

	Austria	Hungary
1. Managers	7.5	3.5
2. Professionals	18.3	13.4
3. Technicians and associate professionals	16.8	12.6
4. Clerical support workers	8.3	8.5
5. Service and sales workers	17.0	14.4
6. Skilled agricultural, forestry, and fishery workers	5.1	4.4
7. Craft and related trades workers	11.9	14.8
8. Plant and machine operators, assemblers	6.5	13.4
9. Elementary occupations	8.3	14.4
0. Armed forces occupations	0.2	0.5

Source of data: Eurostat microdata

Regarding the ***highest level of education***, it can be seen that the proportion of people with primary education (or less) is slightly decreasing, while the share of people with tertiary-level qualifications is constantly increasing in both countries. This category encompasses various education forms, such as bachelor's, master's and doctoral degrees at universities as well as post-secondary technical and vocational certificates. The leap in the proportion of people with a tertiary education in Austria (from 17% to 31%) is particularly noteworthy (Figure 20).

Figure 20. The share of people by the highest level of education. (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
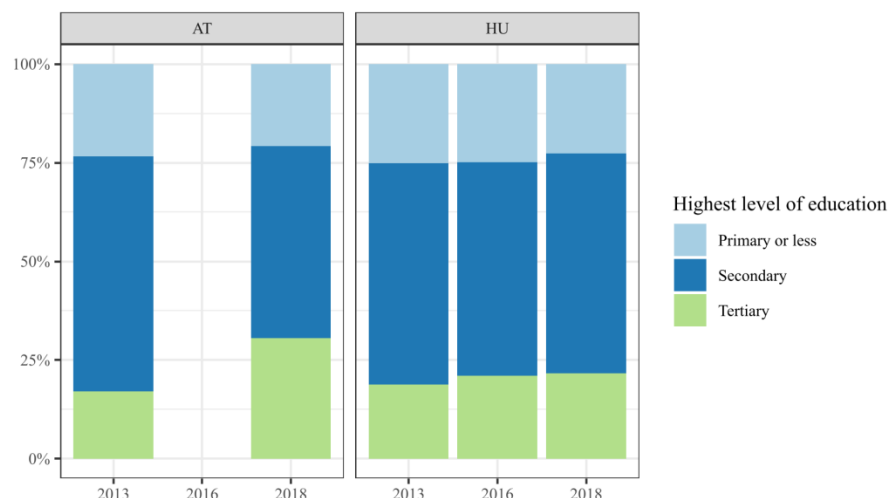
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

It is important to underline again that the lack of a reliable, standardised dataset on objective employment quality hampers the international comparability of this well-being aspect. Still, the measurement of ***job satisfaction*** is a standard question in all SWB-related surveys. The mean values proved to be very stable, with 8.0 in Austria and 7.1 in Hungary (Figure 21). While completely unsatisfied persons (scores 0-3) are rare in both countries, there is a great difference in the percentage of people who are very satisfied (scores 8-10) with their jobs: 67% and 68% in Austria, compared to 50% and 48% in Hungary in 2013 and 2018 respectively (Figure 22).

Figure 21. Job satisfaction (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
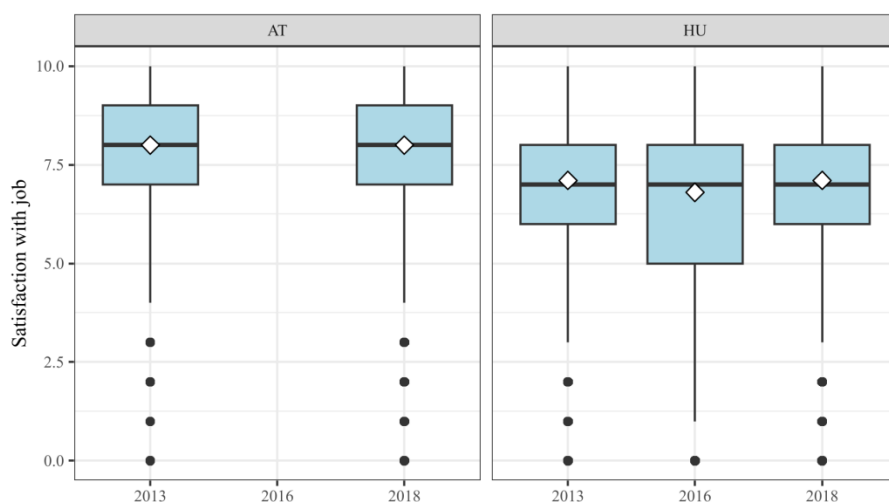
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

Figure 22. Job satisfaction: the share of respondents by the scores on a 0-10 scale (100% = valid answers. Cases with missing values are excluded). (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)

Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

5.1.3   Housing conditions

In the OECD How's Life framework, housing conditions were captured according to three headline indicators: the number of rooms per person, housing costs, and the number of dwellings lacking basic facilities (OECD 2013). Since the lack of basic facilities does not pose a widespread problem in Hungarian and Austrian households, we focus on the reported housing problems which directly affect people's satisfaction with their housing situation in this Research Report. Therefore, this well-being domain has been operationalised according to the following indicators:

- Number of rooms available to the household
- Housing problems: Leaking roof, damp walls/floors/foundation, or rot in window frames or floor
- Housing problems: too dark, not enough light
- Housing problems: noise from neighbours or from the street
- Housing problems: pollution, filth, or other environmental problems
- Housing problems: crime, violence, or vandalism in the area.

During the analysed period, the Hungarian households nearly caught up with the Austrian standard regarding both the average ***number of rooms*** (2.9 in 2013, 3.7 in 2018) and its average number ***per person*** (from 1.22 to 1.65; in Austria from 1.66 to 1.68 between 2013 and 2018) (Figure 23).

Figure 23. Number of rooms available to the household. (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
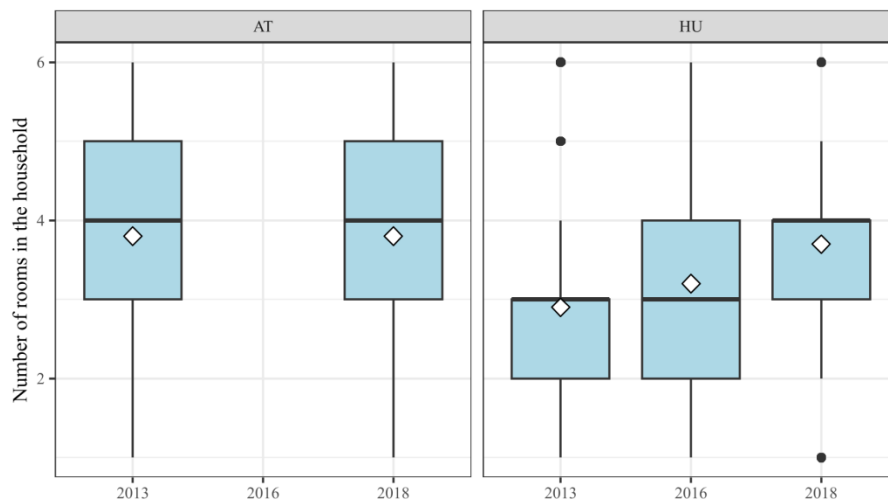
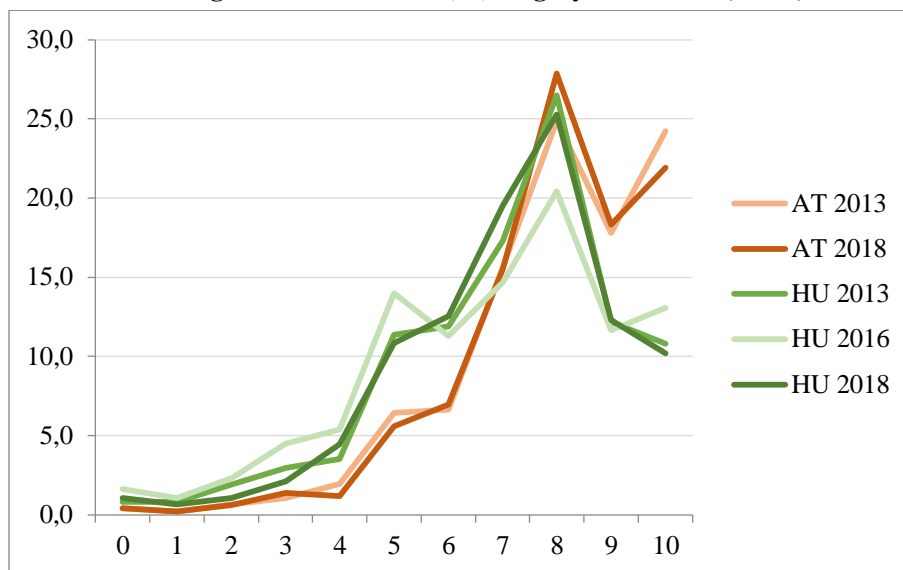*Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus*

However, respondents in Hungary more frequently reported different types of internal *housing problems*. Leaking roof, rot in window frames and floor, damp walls/floors or foundation (22% vs. 10%), and dark rooms (8.5% vs. 5.5%) are almost twice as frequent in Hungary as in Austria. On the other hand, the external negative factors, such as noise from the streets, crime and vandalism in the area, pollution, filth, and other environmental problems seem to be stronger in Austria (Figure 24).

Generally speaking, the internal factors of the housing situation seem to determine people's *satisfaction with their accommodations*. Since these housing conditions depend heavily on the households' financial capacities, the difference between the mean values of satisfaction with accommodation (in Hungary 6.8, in Austria 8.2) reflects their general satisfaction with their economic resources (Section 5.1.1). Whereas three out of four people in Austria are very satisfied with their housing conditions (scores 8-10), less than half of the respondents in Hungary reported similar opinions (Figure 25, 26).

Figure 24. Percentage of people living in accommodation with the following housing problem (Hungary and Austria; 2013 and 2018)
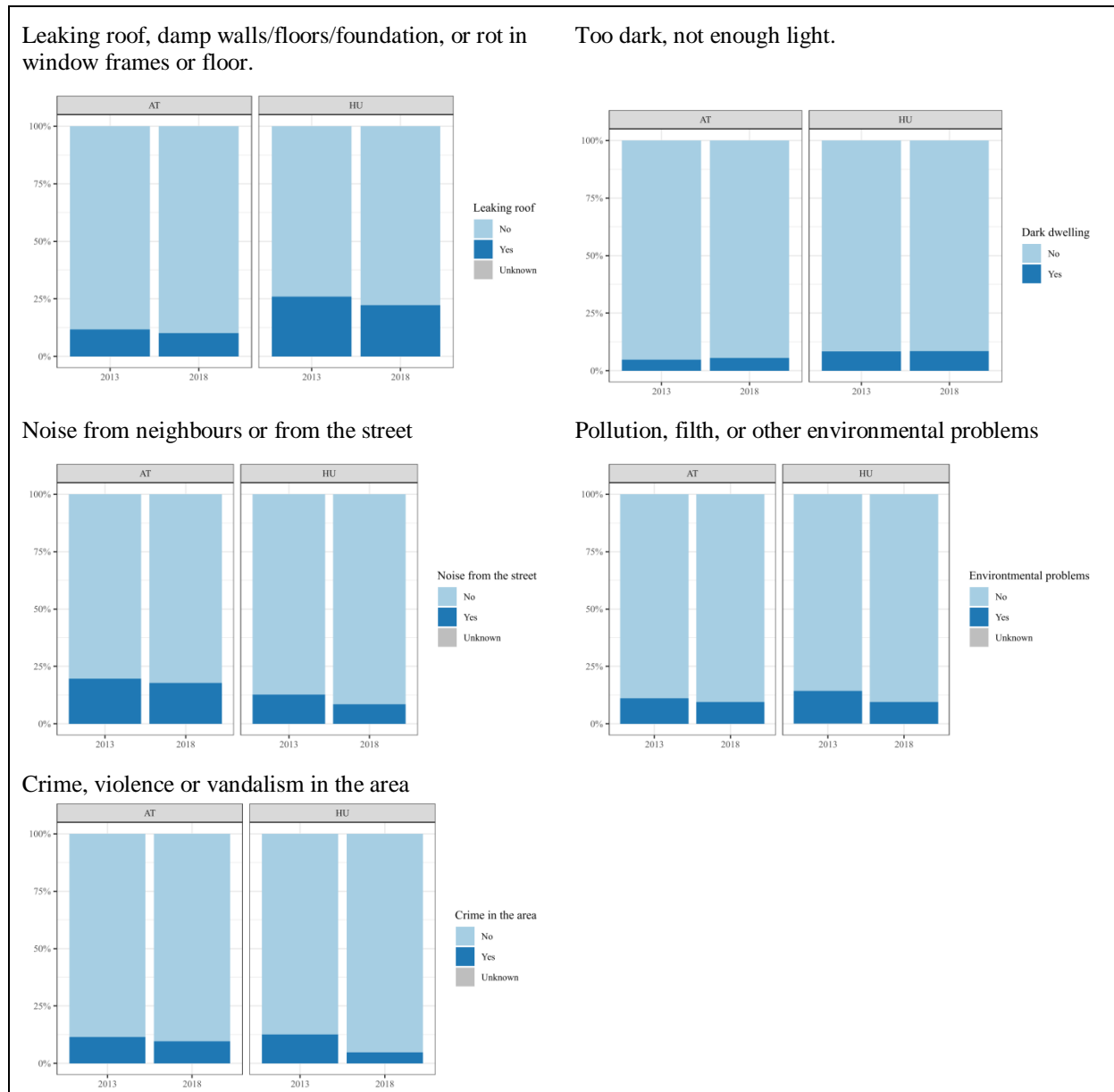
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

Figure 25. Satisfaction with accommodation: mean values (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
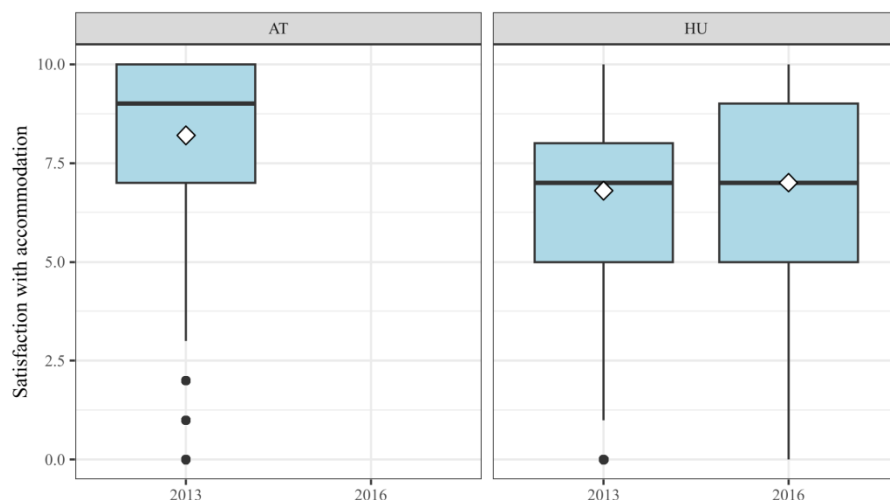
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

Figure 26. Satisfaction with accommodation: the share of respondents by the scores on a 0-10 scale (100% = valid answers. Cases with missing values are excluded). (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
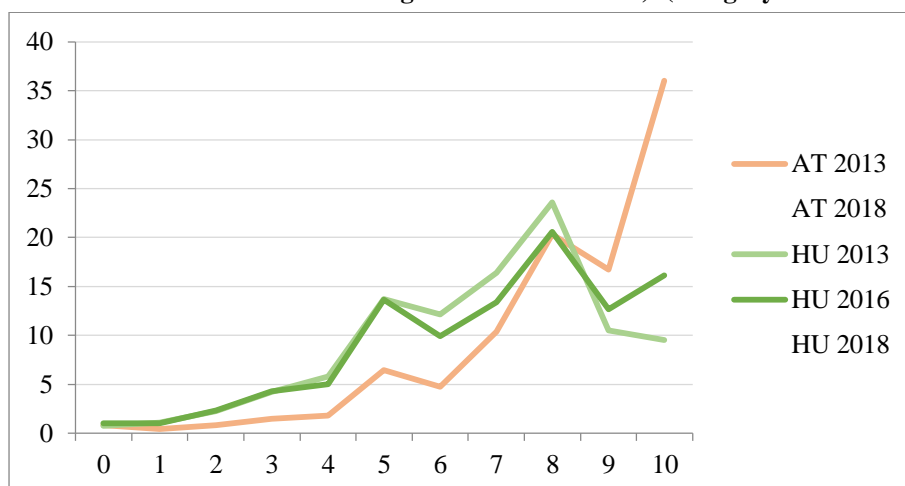
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

## 5.2 Immaterial factors and the satisfaction with them

In our research framework, beyond the material aspects of well-being dealt with in the previous chapters, we consider other, immaterial indicators of quality of life. Indicators such as health condition, work-life balance, social connections, other external factors related to the living environment, and personal security are also included. We will address these aspects of well-being in the following, presenting both objective and subjective measures – where available data exist in the datasets used.

5.2.1 Health status

Health is one of the most important determinants of well-being, also affecting the way in which people are able to take part in everyday activities that contribute to their well-being. In the absence, however, of objective measures of respondents' health condition (information about diseases and conditions causing poor health or disability), we will rely here on their own evaluation of their health status and on whether they feel limited in their activities because of health problems. The measurement of self-perceived health is, by its very nature, subjective. It addresses the general state of health rather than the actual situation and is expected to include the different dimensions of health, i.e., physical and mental. The person's self-assessment of whether they are hampered in their usual activity by any ongoing physical or mental health problem, illness, or disability is a subjective measure as well.

In general, ***perceived health*** is better in Austria than in Hungary. Whereas 69% and 72% of Austrians evaluated their health condition as very good or good, fewer Hungarians declared the same: 56% and 61% (in 2013 and 2018 respectively). In Hungary, a lower share of people perceive their health to be very good while a higher share of people perceive it to be only fair or outright bad. Perceived health status seemed to be rather constant over the period in both countries (Figure 27).

Figure 27. Perceived health (Hungary and Austria; 2013 and 2018)
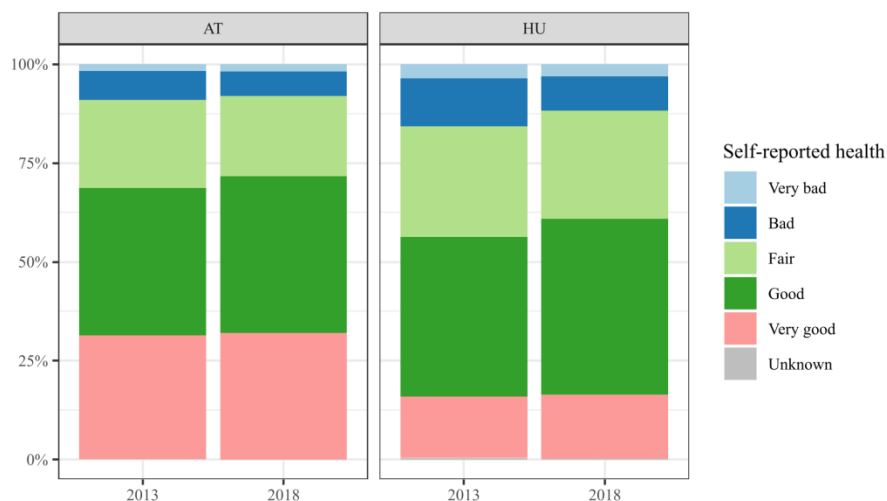
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus.
EU-SILC question: "How is your health in general? Is it…"

No notable difference exists between the two countries in terms of the share of people declaring a severe ***limitation in their activities*** due to their health condition – around 7-10%. Nevertheless, when it comes to the share of people declaring to be somewhat limited, Hungarians are slightly less likely to report this condition (18-19%), especially in 2018 (25%

in Austria). However, differences in the perception of limitations due to health condition might be partly shaped by different regulations and institutional and policy approaches in the two countries to the diagnostics and formal acknowledgement of such conditions. Different cultural contexts might also play a role (Figure 28).

Figure 28. Percentage of people declaring to be strongly or otherwise limited in their everyday activities due to their health condition. (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
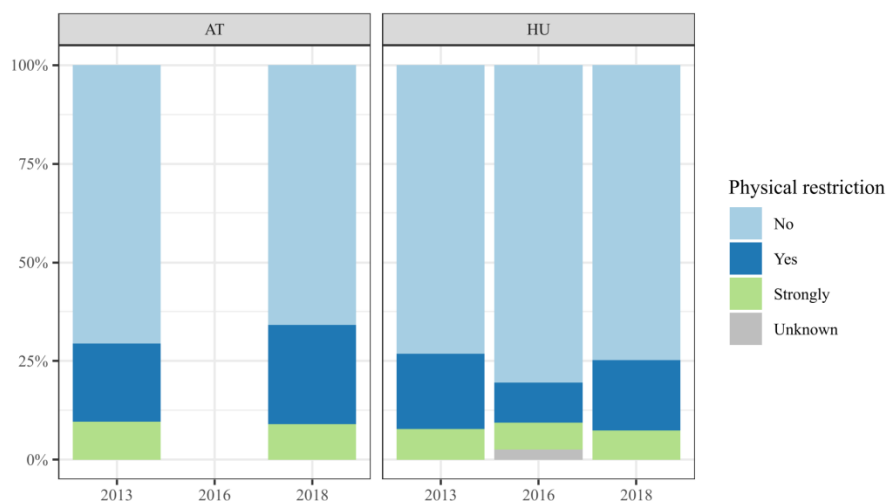
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus.

EU-SILC/Microcensus question: "For at least the past 6 months, to what extent have you been limited because of a health problem in activities people usually do? Would you say you have been …"

The level of *satisfaction with one's own health situation* is only available for 2016 in Hungary, the EU-SILC did not include further subjective measures to evaluate satisfaction with this aspect of life. In 2016, on a scale of 0-10, 57% of Hungarians were rather satisfied with their health situation (answers 7-10 on the scale), only 14% were not satisfied (answers 0-3 on the scale) and 29% were in a neutral position (answers 4-6 on the scale) slightly below the mean (6.6).

5.2.2   Work-life balance

Another aspect of the quality of life is work-life balance, in terms of the time one can devote to family life and leisure activities, and how much free time one has beyond working and commuting. In our research it is measured through:

- Working hours
- Participation in leisure activities
- Satisfaction with time use
- Satisfaction with commuting time (in 2013)

Working hours declared by the respondents are probably heavily shaped by country regulations. Indeed, 50% of people work around 40 hours in both countries. The average working hours are also very similar: 37-39 in Hungary and 40 hours in Austria in 2013, although there has been a slight drop in the latter to 34 hours by 2018. It seems, nevertheless, that working hours became slightly more flexible in Austria by 2018, allowing for part-time jobs – a higher share of respondents (25%) worked only 23 hours or less per week. Part-time jobs are not widespread in Hungary (Figure 29).

Figure 29. Total number of working hours per week: mean values (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
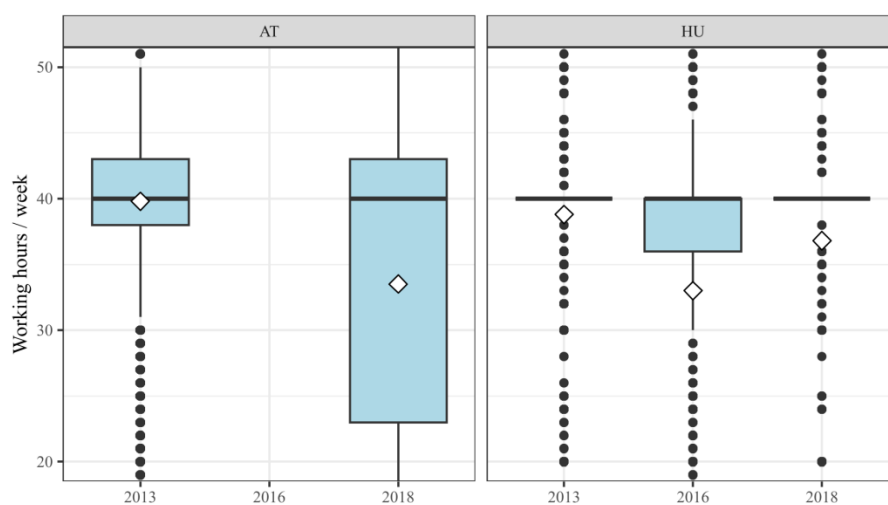
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

EU-SILC/Microcensus question: "How many hours do you usually work per week in your main job? How many hours do you usually work per week in your second and third (and subsequent) jobs?"

Beyond slightly different working hours there is an important difference between the two countries in terms of the share of respondents regularly participating in a ***leisure activity*** (Figure 30). While 63% and 73% (in 2013 and 2018 respectively) of respondents in Austria engage in such activities, only 23% and 34% of Hungarian respondents reported engaging in leisure activities. As these activities, such as sport, cinema, or concerts, could entail certain costs (e.g. entrance fees and/or travel costs), this can be an obstacle for some: indeed, a higher share of Hungarian respondents do not participate in such activities because they cannot afford it (36% and 18% as opposed to 12% and 9% in Austria). Nevertheless, the share of those who do not have regular leisure activities for other reasons remains significantly higher in Hungary (over 40%) than in Austria (less than 25%). Despite these differences, having a leisure activity seems to have expanded in both countries from 2013 to 2018. In Hungary, this increase was furthermore paired with a decreasing share of people reporting that they could

not afford such activities. It seems that the respondents were in a better situation to afford it in 2018, and that financial deprivation had decreased somewhat.

Figure 30. Percentage of people regularly participating in a leisure activity (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
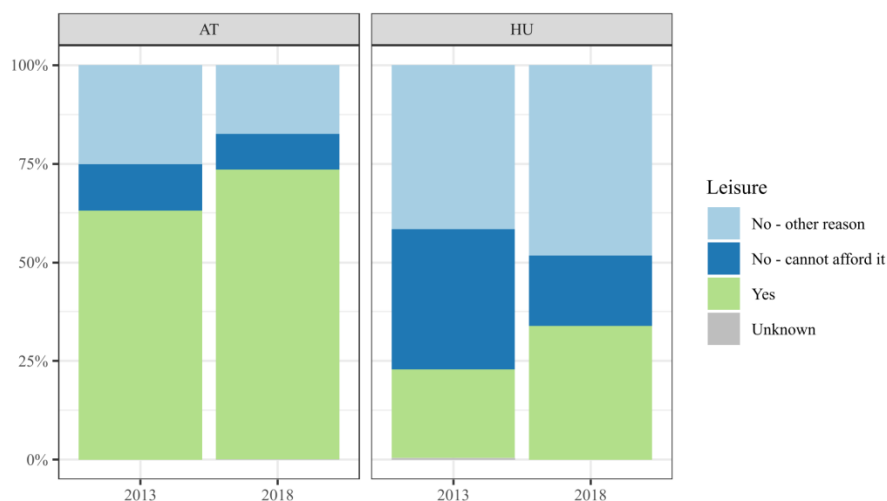
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
EU-SILC/Microcensus question: "Could you tell me if you have or do the following? Regularly participate in a leisure activity such as sport, cinema, concert, etc.?"

Following similar tendencies, ***satisfaction with the amount of time*** that respondents have available to do things they liked is higher in Austria. On a scale of 0-10, half of the respondents in Austria have indicated 8 or more, while in Hungary they are less positive. In Austria the average satisfaction is 7.3, whereas in Hungary it was around 6-6.4 in the period between 2013 and 2018. In line with increasing participation in leisure activities, Hungarian respondents were slightly more satisfied with their use of time in 2018 than in 2013.

Figure 31. Satisfaction with time use: mean values (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
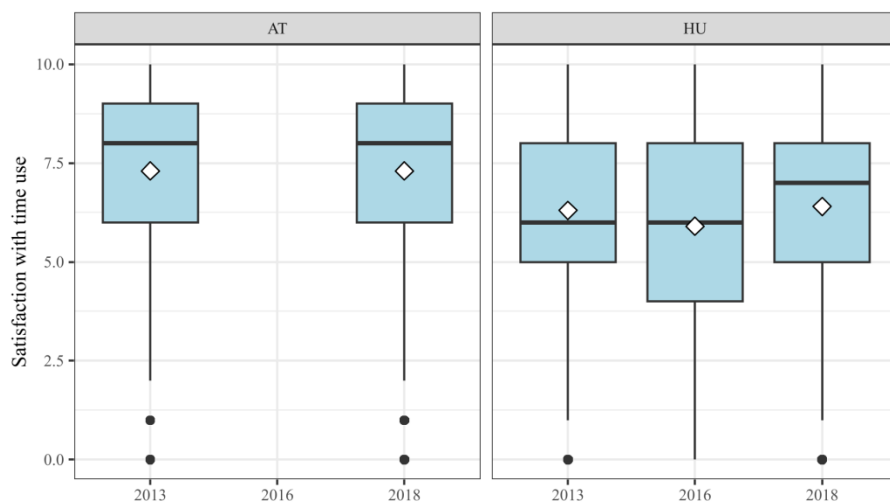
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

EU-SILC/Microcensus question: "Overall, how satisfied are you with ...? The amount of time you have to do things you like doing"

Figure 32. Satisfaction with time use: the share of respondents by the scores on a 0-10 scale (100% = valid answers. Cases with missing values are excluded). (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
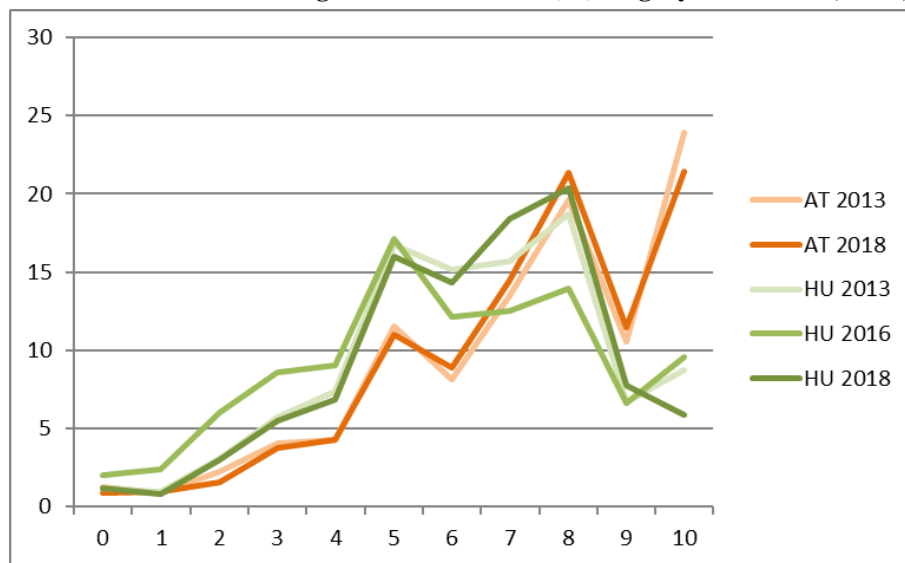
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

EU-SILC/Microcensus question: "Overall, how satisfied are you with ...? The amount of time you have to do things you like doing"

Differences in satisfaction with time use and access to leisure in the two countries might also be dependent on another aspect of an acceptable work-life balance: commuting time. Although no objective measures are available, there are measures of *satisfaction with commuting time* in the two countries in 2013. Answers to this question among those affected

by commuting reveal that respondents in Austria are indeed more satisfied with this aspect of life than in Hungary (with an average of 8 vs. 7 on a scale of 0-10). Half of the respondents in Austria indicated a 9 or a 10 on the scale, whereas only one-third of the respondents was satisfied to this degree in Hungary. This nevertheless does not provide information on the actual length of commuting time.

5.2.3   Social connections

As well-being and people's aspirations are always shaped by the social contexts in which they are embedded, we also take into account the relational dimension in our research. This dimension refers to the social relationships that people must be able to enter into in order to meet human needs. It has objective as well as more subjective indicators. Micro-level objective indicators of social connections include:

- Marital status
- Living with a partner
- Household size
- Presence of small children.

Indicators of the reliability of social connections include:

- Meeting with family and friends
- Having someone to discuss personal matters
- Access to help (material, non-material).

A more subjective evaluation the own position and relation to others include:

- Trust in others
- Satisfaction with personal relationships.

Overall, very similar tendencies characterise Austrian and Hungarian respondents in terms of those with whom they live. In Austria, 60-61% of the respondents *live with their partner*, which is only slightly lower in Hungary: 54-57% (Figure 33). Respondents in the two countries are also very similar regarding their *marital status.* Around one-third of respondents has never married, 44-51% are married, and 10-13% are divorced. There is only a minor difference in the share of widows: in Hungary there is slightly more widowed among the respondents (11-12%) than in Austria (6-7%) (Figure 34).

Figure 33. Share of respondents living with a partner (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
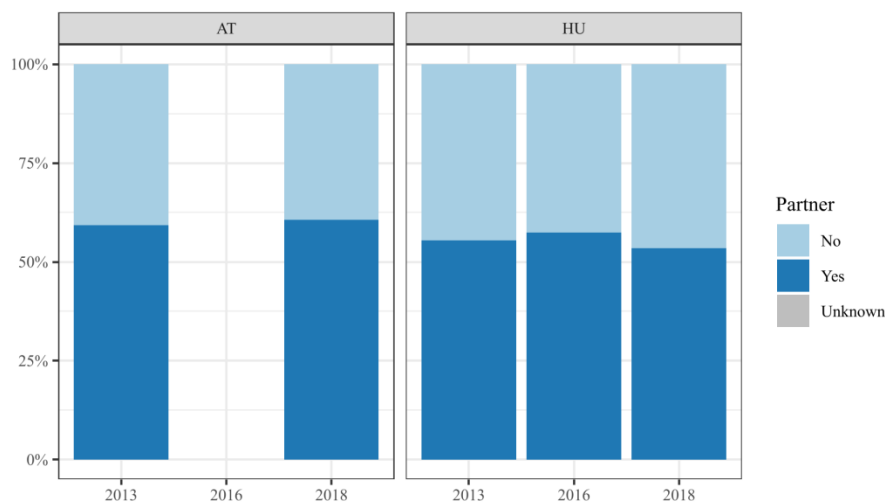
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

Figure 34. Marital status of respondents (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
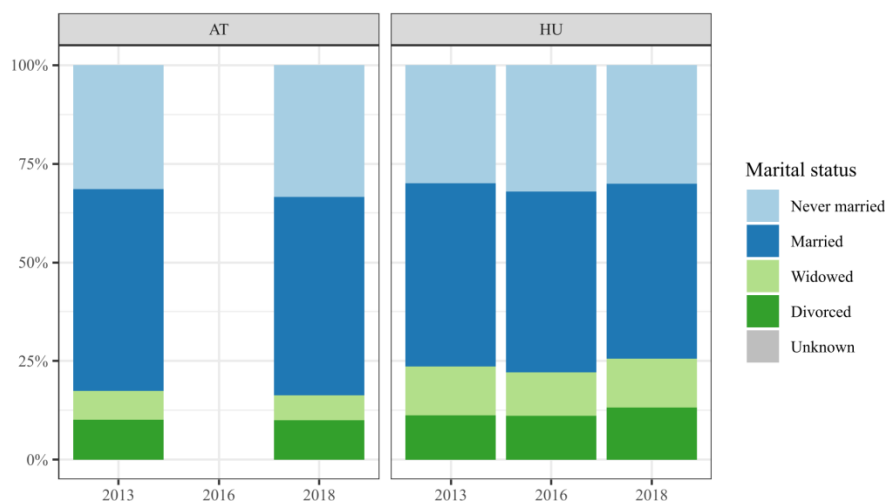
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

The average ***household size*** is similar in the two countries: in 2018, 2.7 in Austria and 2.8 in Hungary (Figure 35). While the Austrian household size remained quite stable from 2013 to 2018, the Hungarian household structure grew closer to the Austrian one, with households becoming smaller. 18-21% of the respondents in Austria live in a one-person household. In Hungary, this proportion was 13% in 2013, increasing to 18% in 2018. The share of respondents living in a two-person household is 36-39% in Austria, whereas this proportion grew from 29% to 36% in Hungary. Around 17-21% of respondents are living in a household of three in both countries and across the different points of time. 15-17% of the respondents live in a household of four in Austria. In Hungary, this decreased from 21% in 2013 to 15% in 2018, similar to households of five. Whereas 7-9% of respondents live in a household of five

in Austria, this was 16% in Hungary in 2013, decreasing to 12% in 2018. The proportion of respondents living with a small child under the age of 6 is quite stable across the countries and time points: 14-16% - although this proportion has decreased somewhat in Hungary in 2018 (12%).

Figure 35. Size of households in which respondents live (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
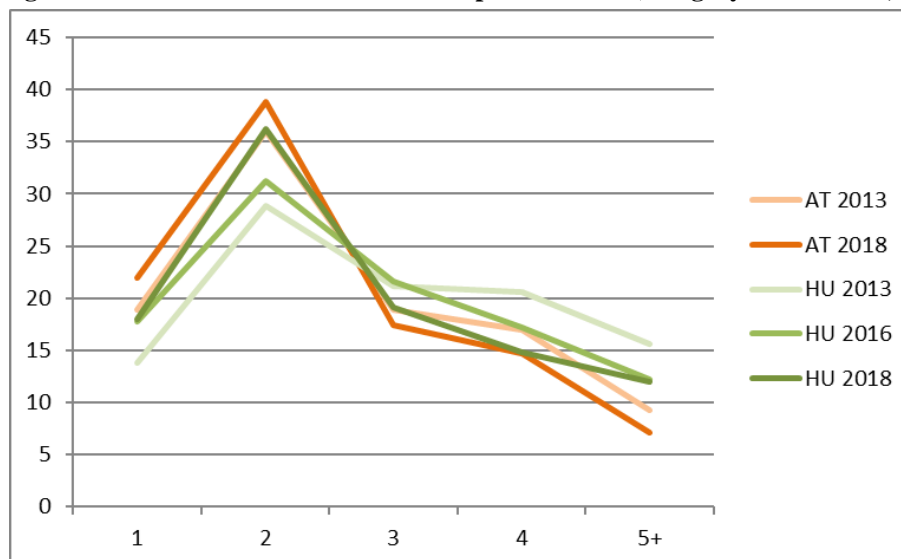
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

Regarding social connections, Austrian respondents seemed to be in a better situation, as nearly everyone (89-90%) said that they were able to ***get together with friends/family*** (relatives) for a drink/meal at least once a month. This proportion is much lower in Hungary (38% in 2013 and 63% in 2018), although there has been an important increase over the period. This difference is partly due to financial deprivation, when people cannot meet with friends and family for financial reasons. This has decreased over the period and concerned 40% of the respondents in 2013, but only 22% in 2018. In 2018 there were still 15% (21% in 2013) of the respondents who did not meet with friends and relatives at least once a month due to other reasons – these are perhaps cases of social exclusion, which concern only about 7% of the respondents in Austria (Figure 36).

Figure 36. Percentage of people meeting friends and family at least once a month (Hungary and Austria; 2013 and 2018)
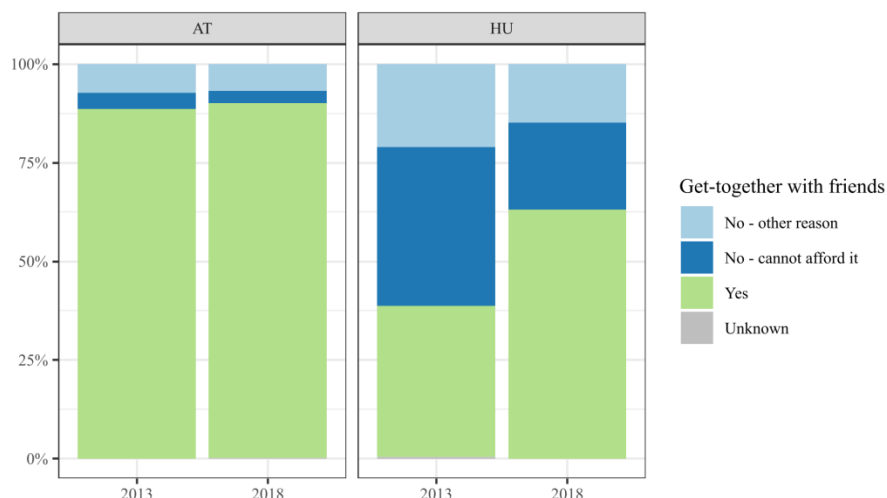
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
EU-SILC/Microcensus question: "Could you tell me if you have or do the following? Get-together with friends/family (relatives) for a drink/meal at least once a month?"

Despite the differences in the frequency of contact with friends and family, a similarly high proportion of respondents in Austria (80%) and Hungary (85%) report that they do indeed have someone with whom they could *discuss personal matters*. This proportion was even higher (94%) in Hungary in 2016. Nevertheless, this might eventually be due to the fact that in the 2016 Microcensus in Hungary, the share of non-responses was only 1% for this question, whereas this rate was 12% in Austria and 17% in Hungary for the 2013 EU-SILC.

Figure 37. Percentage of people having someone with whom to discuss personal matters (Hungary and Austria; 2013 and 2016)
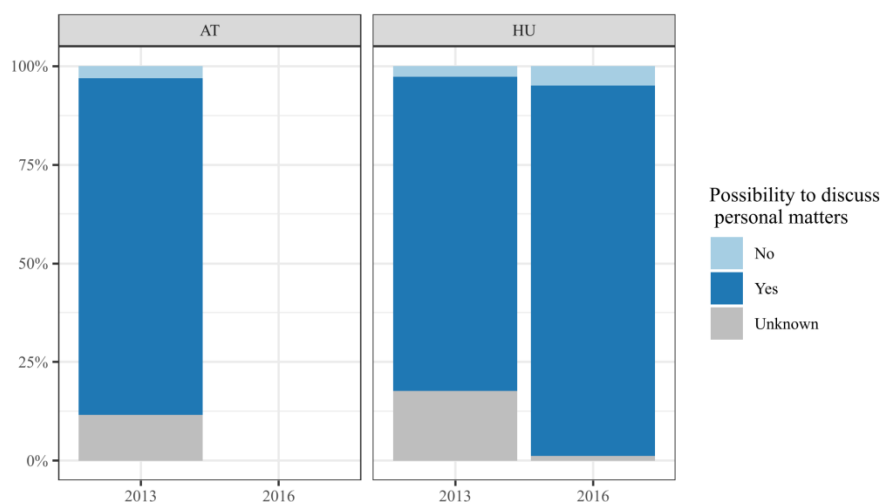
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
EU-SILC/Microcensus question: "Do you have anyone to discuss personal matters with?

In line with having someone to discuss personal matters, despite the differences in the frequency of contact with friends and family, a similarly high proportion of respondents in Austria (85%) and Hungary (80%) report that they can *ask for help* from relatives, friends, or neighbours. The slight difference might come from higher non-response in Hungary. The question was not formulated in the same way in the 2013 and 2018 waves of the EU-SILC. In 2013, the question addressed help in general, whereas there were in fact two questions in 2018, one concerning material and the other non-material help. The latter two questions were recoded (if any kind of help was mentioned) to make them comparable to the 2013 question. We know, however, that non-material help is more widespread and seems to correspond to that which was initially mentioned as help in general (with similar proportions, 85% in Austria and 80% in Hungary). Asking for financial help seems to be a more sensitive issue: a somewhat lower share of respondents would be able to ask for it, 72% in Austria and 69% in Hungary (Figure 38).

Figure 38. Percentage of people being able to ask for help from relatives, friends, or neighbours (Hungary and Austria; 2013 and 2018)
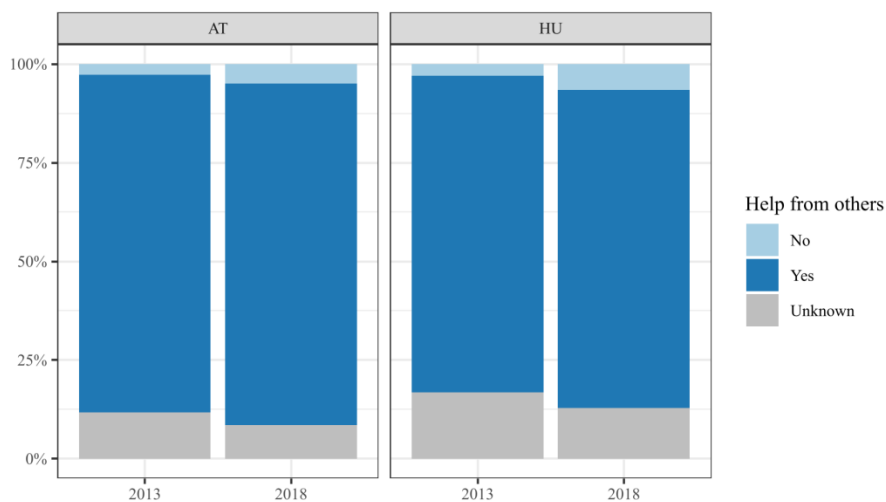
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
EU-SILC 2013 question: "Do you have any relatives, friends or neighbours that you can ask for help?"
EU-SILC 2018 questions: "Do you feel that if you needed material help (e.g. money, loan or an object) you could receive it from relatives, friends, neighbours or other persons you know?" and "Do you feel that if you needed non-material help (e.g. somebody to talk to, help with doing something or collecting something) you could receive it from relatives, friends, neighbours or other persons you know?"

In terms of ***trusting other people***, there are notable differences. The level of trust is lower in Hungary than in Austria: the mean level of trust on a 0-10 scale is 5.8-5.9 in Austria as opposed to 4.7-5.3 in Hungary. Higher trust (7-10 on a 0-10 scale) is mentioned by 43-44% of the respondents in Austria, whereas the share of respondents with similarly positive answers is only 26-30% in Hungary. Lower trust (0-4 on a 0-10 scale), on the other hand, is mentioned

by only 18-21% of Austrian respondents and 30-34% of Hungarian ones. The 2016 Microcensus produced even more negative results, with 40% of respondents not really trusting (0-4) and only 20% trusting (7-10) other people (Figure 39, 40).

Figure 39. Trust in other people: mean values (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
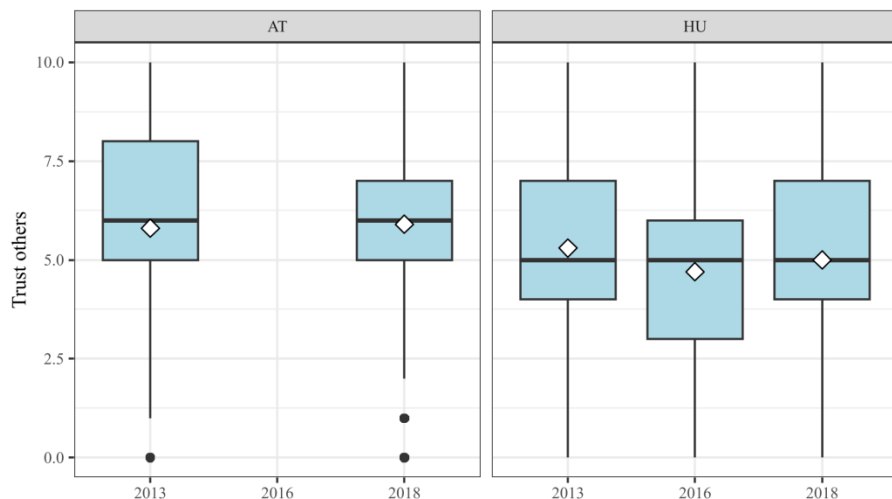
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
EU-SILC 2013 question: "Would you say that most people can be trusted?"
EU-SILC 2018 question: "To what extent do you trust other people?"

Figure 40. Trust in other people: the share of respondents by the scores on a 0-10 scale (100% = valid answers. Cases with missing values are excluded) (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
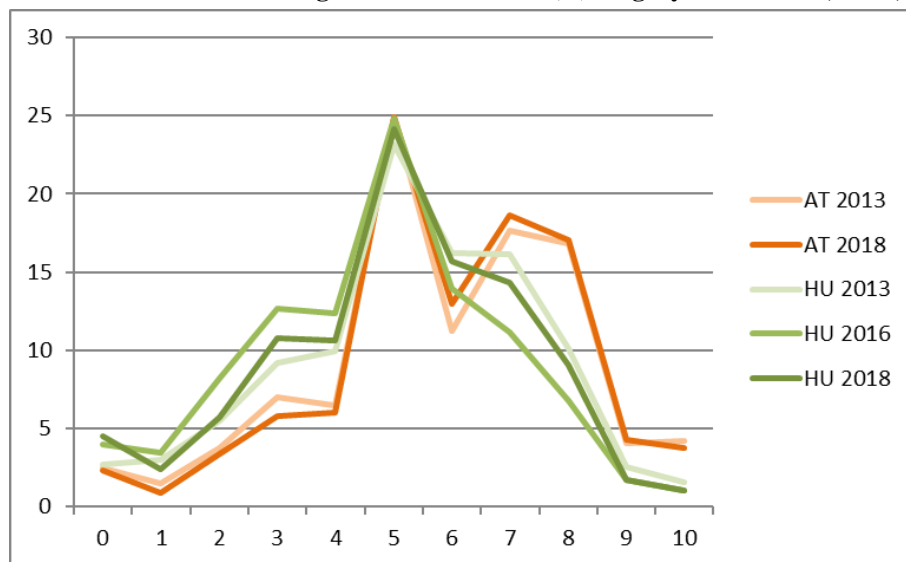
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
EU-SILC 2013 question: "Would you say that most people can be trusted?"
EU-SILC 2018 question: "To what extent do you trust other people?"

Despite similar tendencies in terms of having someone with whom to discuss personal matters and similar access to help from others, respondents in Hungary are much less *satisfied with their personal relationships* than Austrian respondents are. This might reflect the lower level of trust in others and the lower frequency of meeting friends and relatives in the former case. Whereas the average satisfaction in Austria is 8.5-8.6 (on a scale of 0-10), the mean satisfaction is 7.3-7.6 in Hungary. Many more (58-59%) of the Austrian respondents gave positive answers (9-10) than Hungarians did (32-34%) (Figure 41, 42).

Figure 41. Satisfaction with personal relationships: mean values (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
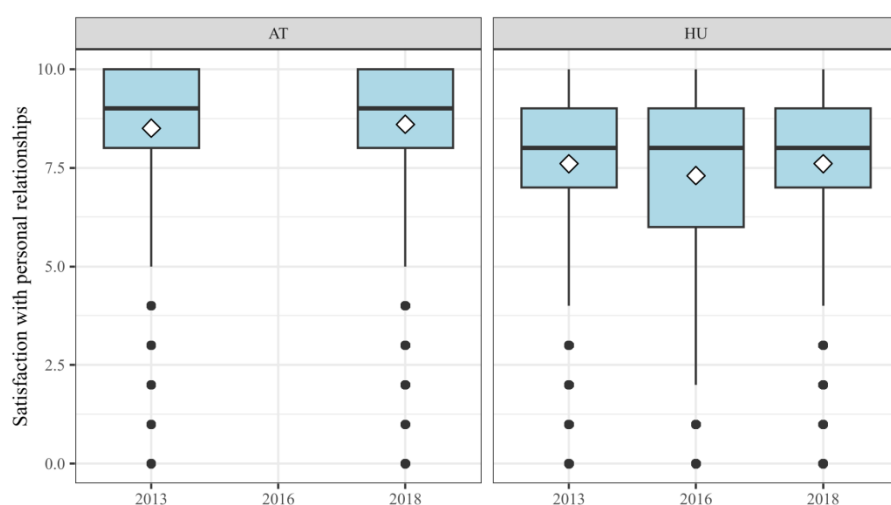
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
EU-SILC question: "Overall, how satisfied are you with …? Your personal relationships"

Figure 42. Satisfaction with personal relationships: share of respondents by the scores on a 0-10 scale (100% = valid answers. Cases with missing values are excluded) (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016, 2018)
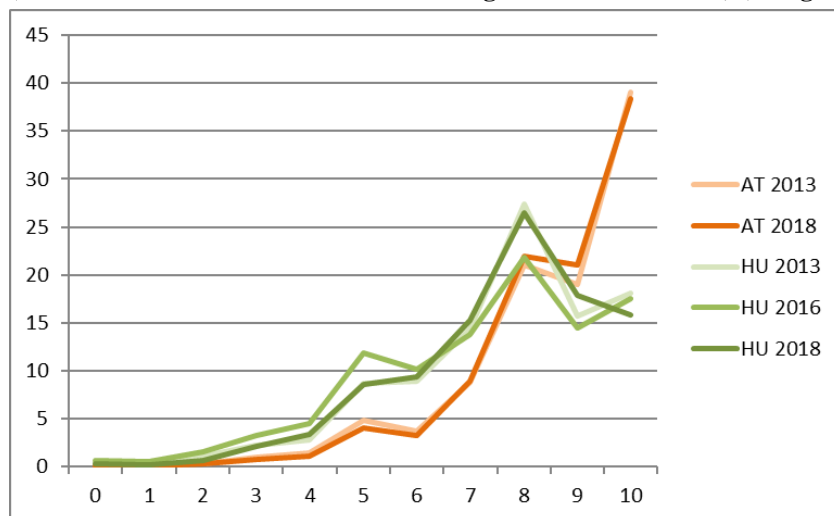
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
EU-SILC question: "Overall, how satisfied are you with …? Your personal relationships"

5.2.4   External factors

The quality of the living and working environment directly contributes to quality of life, but it also has an effect on people's health or the activities in which they take part (raising children, leisure activities, etc.). Similarly, living in a secure environment contributes to one's well-being. These aspects of well-being will be explored through the subjective indicators of:

- Satisfaction with living environment (2013, 2016)
- Satisfaction with recreational or green areas (2013)
- Perception of personal security.

The *satisfaction with one's living environment* and *access to green areas* follow similar tendencies (Figure 43, 44). Not taking into account those respondents – 12% in Austria and 17-20% in Hungary – who could not answer the question, 55% reported a satisfaction rate of 9-10 on a scale of 0-10 in Austria and only 15% reported the same in Hungary. The respective averages are 8.4 and 8.2 (respectively for satisfaction with the living environment and access to green areas) in Austria, and 6.5 and 6.2 in Hungary. The results of the Microcensus in 2016 in Hungary confirm these tendencies, however, with the share of non-answers being lower. The average satisfaction is somewhat higher (6.9) in the case of satisfaction with the living environment.

Figure 43. Satisfaction with the quality of the living environment: the share of respondents by the scores on a 0-10 scale (100% = valid answers. Cases with missing values are excluded). (Hungary and Austria; 2013 and 2016)

Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
EU-SILC/Microcensus question: "Overall, how satisfied are you with …? The quality of your living environment"

Figure 44. Satisfaction with the recreational or green areas in the place of living: the share of respondents by the scores on a 0-10 scale (100% = valid answers. Cases with missing values are excluded). (Hungary and Austria; 2013)
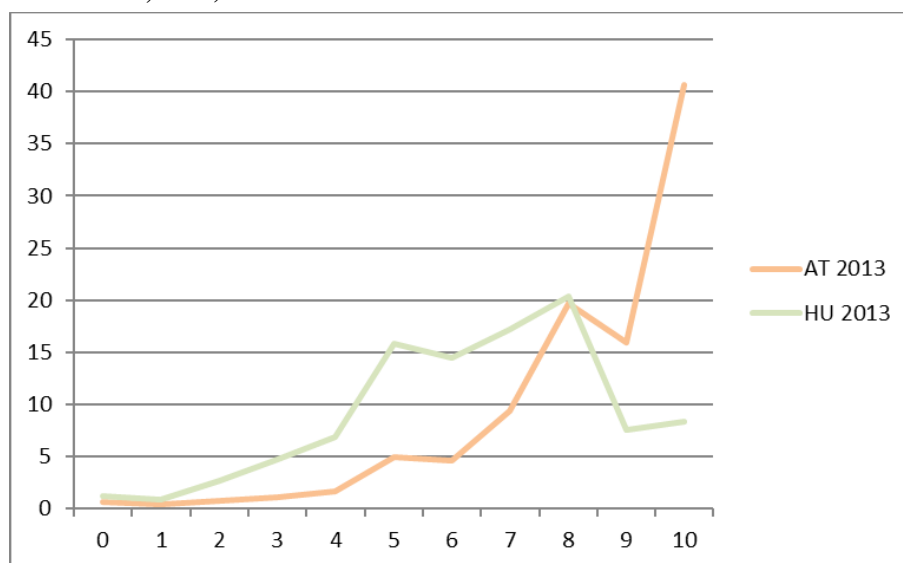
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
EU-SILC/Microcensus question: "Overall, how satisfied are you with ...? The recreational or green areas in the place where you live"

In terms of ***perceived personal safety***, many (up to 20%) of the respondents could not answer, especially in the EU-SILC survey in Hungary. If we take only the valid answers into account, the main tendencies did not change in Hungary between 2013 and 2016: 69% of the respondents feel fairly or very safe and 28% feel a bit or very unsafe. There was a slight decrease over time in the share of those declaring that they felt very unsafe (from 12% to 6%). Nevertheless, Hungarian respondents felt less safe overall than respondents in Austria, where only 17% felt a bit or very unsafe and over 80% felt fairly or very safe. The difference is most notable among those feeling very safe when walking alone in their area after dark: 43% vs 17% of the respondents (Figure 45).

Figure 45. Perceived personal safety (Hungary and Austria; 2013 and 2016)
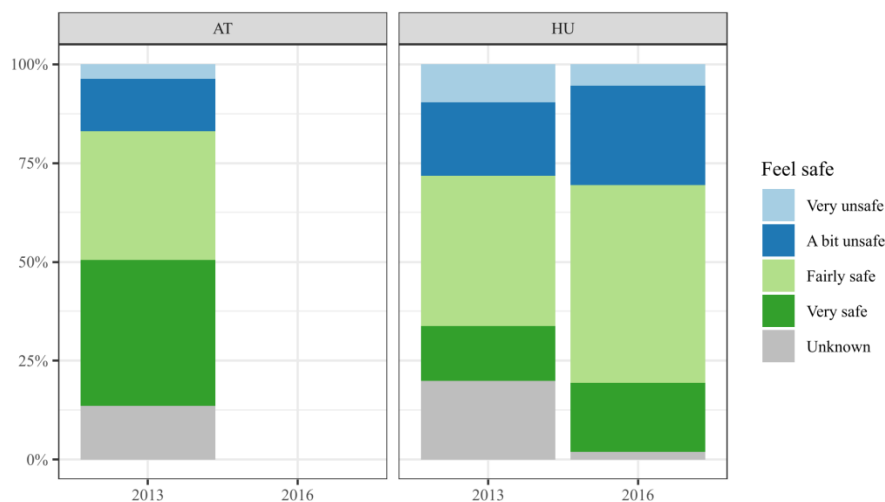
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
EU-SILC/Microcensus question: "How safe do you feel walking alone in your area after dark?"

5.3 Subjective well-being differences between Austria and Hungary

5.3.1   Evaluative well-being (Overall life satisfaction)

The evaluative aspect of subjective well-being has a general, widely used indicator measuring overall life satisfaction. General satisfaction with life, measured on a 0-10 scale, is higher in Austria than in Hungary, with an average of 7.8-8 as opposed to 6.1-6.5 in Hungary. Whereas it didn't change significantly in Austria between 2013 and 2018, we can see a slight improvement in Hungary (Figure 46).

Figure 46. Satisfaction with life overall: mean values (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
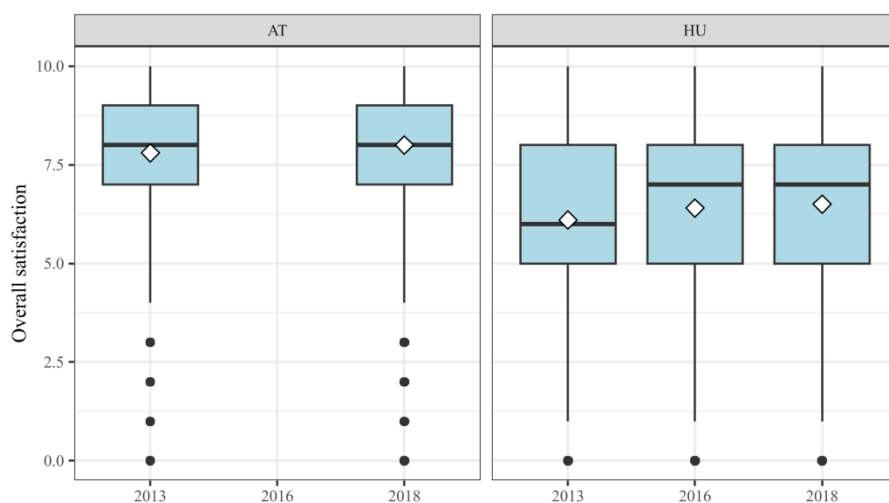
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
EU-SILC question: "Overall, how satisfied are you with …? Your life these days"

Indeed, around two-thirds of Austrian respondents answered 8-10 on this 0-10 scale, whilst only one-third of respondents in Hungary did the same (Figure 47).

Figure 47. Satisfaction with life overall: the share of respondents by the scores on a 0-10 scale (100% = valid answers. Cases with missing values are excluded) (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
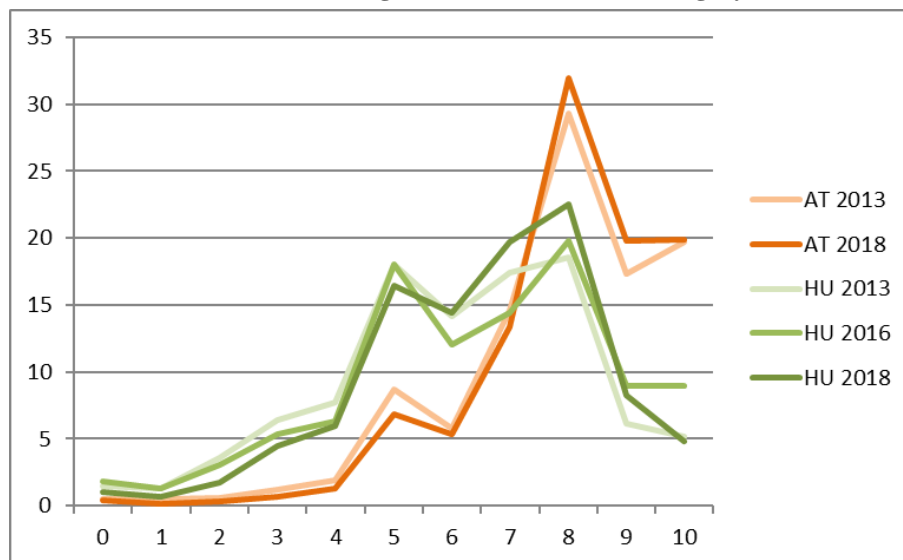
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
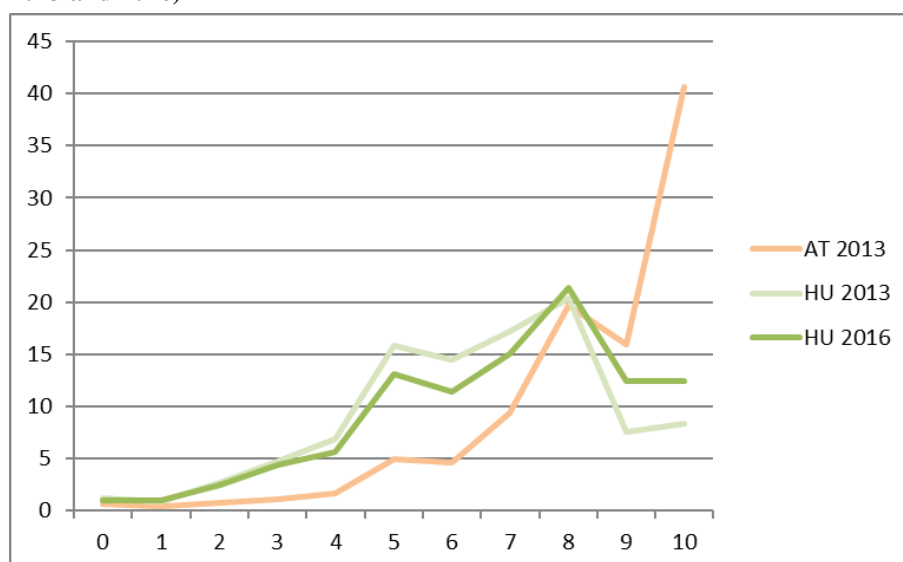*EU-SILC question: "Overall, how satisfied are you with ...? Your life these days"*

An ***overview of satisfaction with several domains*** in life (some of them have been addressed in previous chapters) confirmed that Austrian respondents are indeed more satisfied than Hungarians. In both countries, respondents are the most satisfied with their personal relationships, followed by their living environment, their accommodation, and the recreational or green areas in Austria, and their job and commuting time in Hungary. In both countries it is the household financial situation that is characterised by the lowest level of satisfaction. The most important differences between the respondents from the two countries lie in satisfaction with surrounding recreational or green areas, the living environment, the household financial situation, and general satisfaction with life. The areas where the level of satisfaction in the two countries is somewhat closer are employment and commuting time (Figure 48).

Figure 48. Satisfaction with different domains: average scores on a 0-10 scale (100% = valid answers. Cases with missing values are excluded) (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
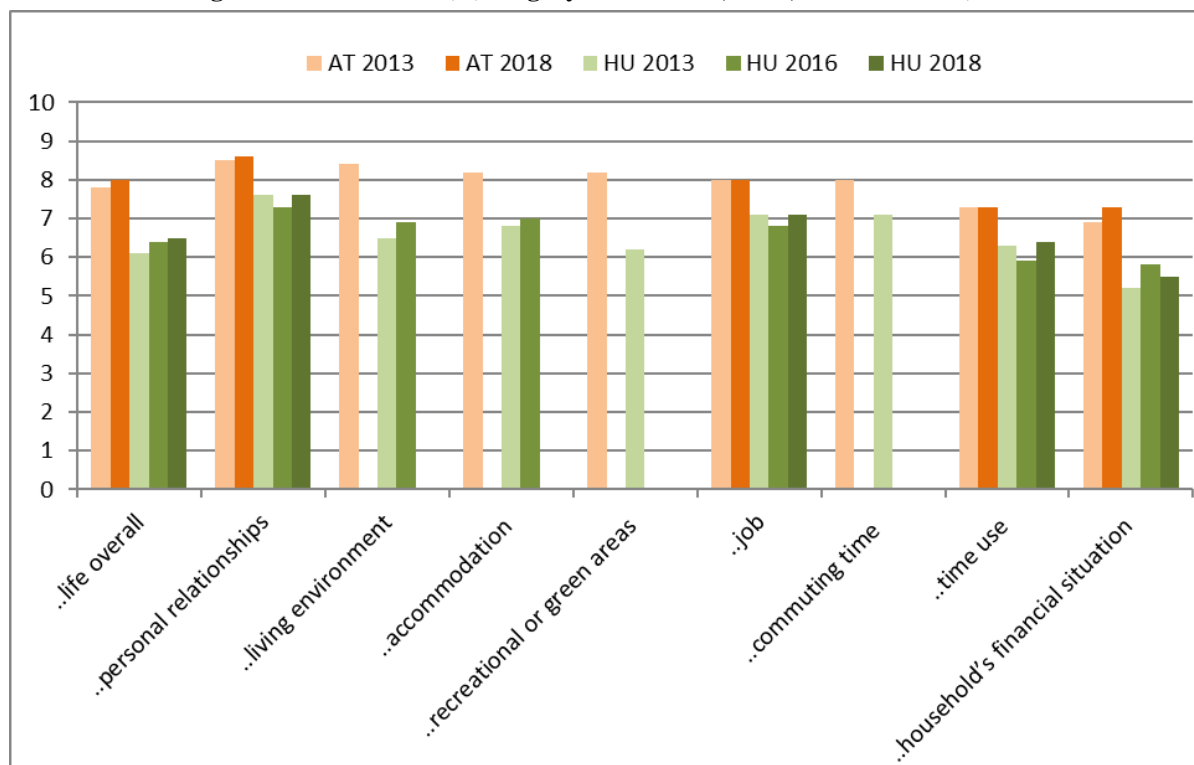
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
EU-SILC question: "Overall, how satisfied are you with …? Your life these days / Your personal relationships / The quality of your living environment / Your accommodation / The recreational or green areas in the place where you live / Your present work / Commuting time / The amount of time you have to do things you like doing / The financial situation of your household".

5.3.2   Affective well-being

Happiness is another widely used indicator of subjective well-being, together with other measures of emotional state. Although the most typical answer to the enquiry after the amount of time that respondents had been happy over the past four weeks was "most of the time" in both countries, Austrian respondents seem to be happier than Hungarians (with an average of 3.8 as opposed to 3.4-3.5 on a scale of 1-5). Over 70% of respondents in Austria stated being happy most or all of the time, while this was true for 56-58% in Hungary. In 2016 microcensus data, Hungarians appear to be slightly happier – again, the lower level of non-responses resulted in a higher proportion of respondents being happy most or all of the time (Figure 49, 50).

Figure 49. Happiness: mean values (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
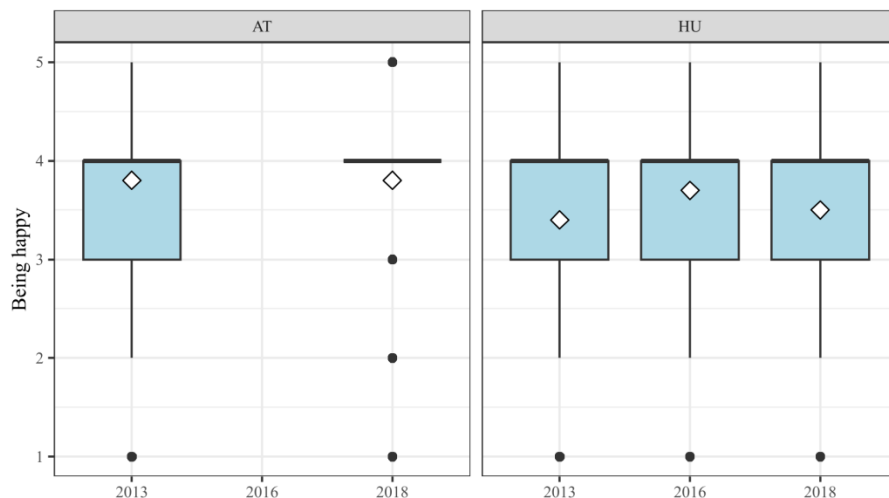
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
EU-SILC question: "How much of the time over the past four weeks: Have you been happy?"

Figure 50. Happiness: the share of respondents by the scores on a 1-5 scale (100% = valid answers. Cases with missing values are excluded) (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
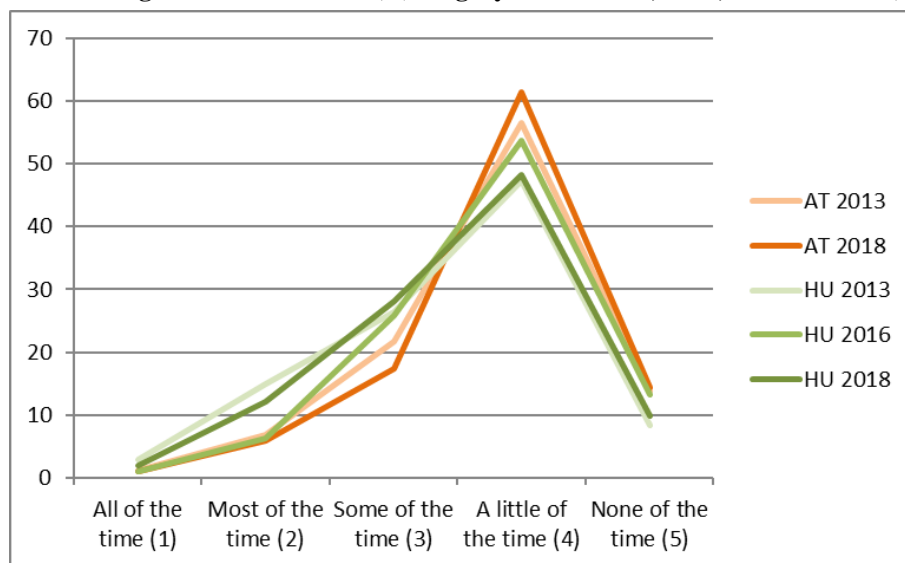
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
EU-SILC question: "How much of the time over the past four weeks: Have you been happy?"

When taking into account other indicators related to emotional state, we gain further evidence that Austrian respondents are better situated than Hungarians are. While positive elements of affective well-being are more widespread in Austria, Hungarians display a dominance in negative elements. Austrian respondents reported being happy and feeling calm and peaceful throughout the month preceding the interview more often than Hungarians did. On the other hand, Hungarians mentioned being nervous, feeling down-hearted or depressed, feeling down

in the dumps or lonely more often than Austrians did. Nevertheless, even in Hungary, positive feelings occurred more frequently than negative ones did. Eventual variations in Hungary might be due to different data collection methods (Figure 51).

Figure 51. Different elements of affective well-being: average scores on a 1-5 scale (100% = valid answers. Cases with missing values are excluded) (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
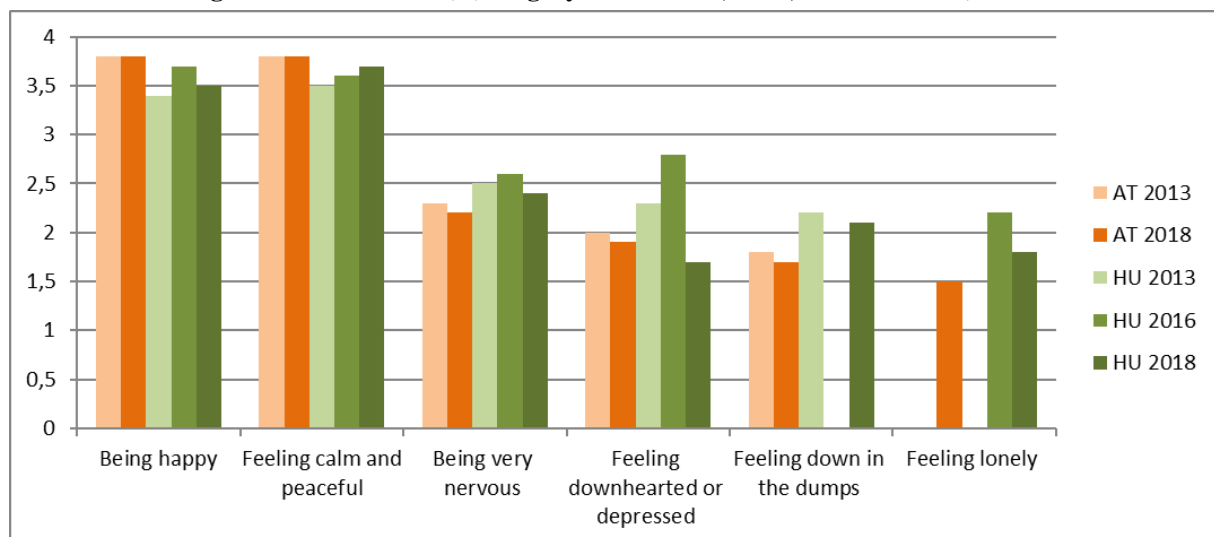
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
EU-SILC question: "How much of the time over the past four weeks: Have you been happy? Have you felt calm and peaceful? Have you been very nervous? Have you felt down-hearted or depressed? Have you felt down in the dumps? Have you been feeling lonely?"

5.3.3 Eudaimonic well-being

In order to measure the meaning and purpose one might have in life, to grasp the eudaimonic aspect of subjective well-being, we relied on a question about the degree to which respondents felt that the things they did in their life were worthwhile. It seems that Austrian respondents are more likely to feel that their life is meaningful than Hungarians are (an average of 7.9 as opposed to 7-7.1 on a scale of 0-10). Two-thirds of respondents in Austria answered with a score of 8-10 where 10 meant that the things they did in their life were completely worthwhile, whereas barely half of the respondents felt the same in Hungary (Figure 52, 53).

Figure 52. Life is worthwhile: mean values (Hungary and Austria; 2013 and 2016)
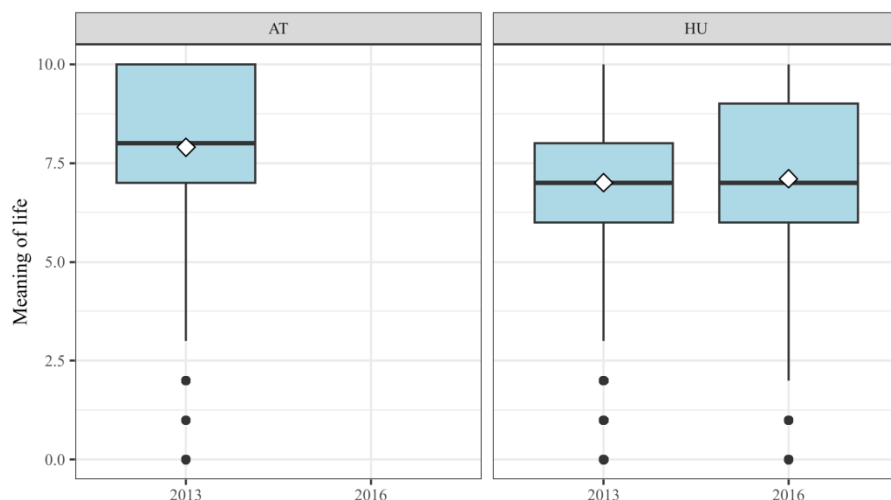
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
EU-SILC question: "Overall, to what extent do you feel that the things you do in your life are worthwhile? From 0 (Not worthwhile at all) to 10 (Completely worthwhile)"

Figure 53. Life is worthwhile: the share of respondents by the scores on a 0-10 scale (100% = valid answers. Cases with missing values are excluded) (Hungary and Austria; 2013, 2016 and 2018)
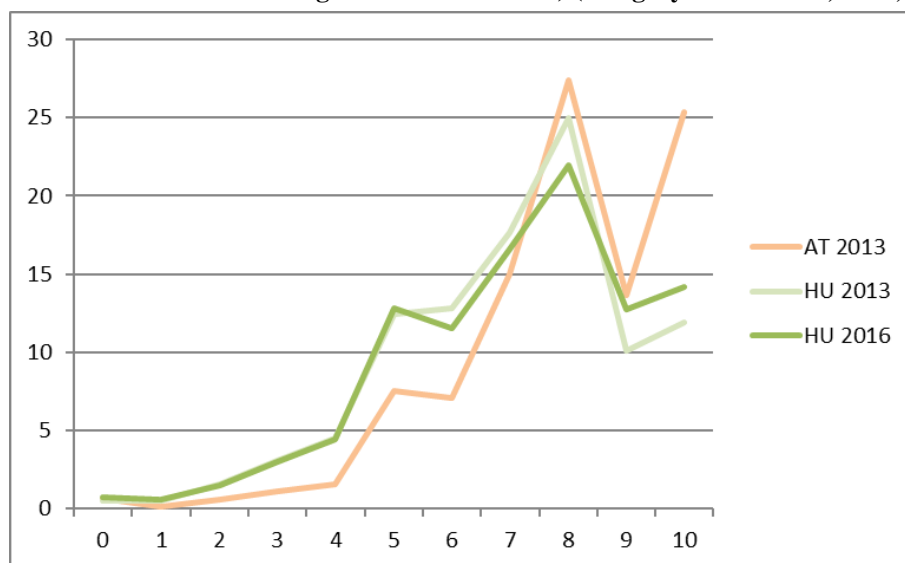
Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus
EU-SILC question: "Overall, to what extent do you feel that the things you do in your life are worthwhile? From 0 (Not worthwhile at all) to 10 (Completely worthwhile)"

5.3.4   Interrelations of different measures of subjective well-being

According to EU-SILC data, the different measures of subjective well-being in Austria are mildly linked to each other (Table 9). A stronger association exists between overall life satisfaction, satisfaction with the household's financial situation, and different elements of affective well-being. In terms of the connections of different dimensions of subjective well-

being, higher happiness (affective well-being) and the feeling that one's life is worthwhile (eudaimonic well-being) implies higher overall satisfaction with life. Nevertheless, happiness and a life seen as worthwhile are only weakly connected.

Beside satisfaction with the household's financial situation, overall satisfaction is positively correlated (at a moderate level) with satisfaction with accommodation, actual work, and personal relations, among the other elements of evaluative well-being. Furthermore, it is also positively associated with positive elements of affective well-being and negatively associated with negative elements of affective well-being. Satisfaction with other domains in life are not connected to overall satisfaction but can be linked among themselves. Satisfaction with the living environment, for instance, is connected to satisfaction with accommodation, whereas satisfaction with time use is connected to satisfaction with personal relationships, or satisfaction with access to green areas is connected to satisfaction with the living environment.

The different emotional states seem to be more strongly connected: positive states such as being happy or feeling calm and peaceful go together, while being very nervous, feeling downhearted or depressed, or feeling down in the dumps oppose positive feelings. The sentiment of solitude seems to be only loosely connected to either of them.

The perception of having a life worth living is related to overall life satisfaction and satisfaction with one's current work.

Table 9. Interrelations of different measures of subjective well-being in Austria in 2013 and 2018. (Pearson's correlation coefficients. Cases with missing values are excluded)

		Year	life overall	..household's financial situation	..accommodation	..job	..time use	..personal relationships	..living environment	..commuting time	..recreational or green areas	Being very nervous	Feeling calm and peaceful	Feeling downhearted or depressed	Being happy	Feeling down in the dumps
Evaluative - satisfaction with…	..household's financial situation	2013	0,58													
		2018	0,55													
	..accommodation	2013	0,40	0,42												
		2018														
	..job	2013	0,41	0,31	0,31											
		2018	0,40	0,29												
	..time use	2013	0,30	0,26	0,27	0,33										
		2018	0,27	0,23		0,35										
	..personal relationships	2013	0,40	0,30	0,33	0,32	0,44									
		2018	0,44	0,31		0,31	0,40									
	..living environment	2013	0,31	0,29	0,45	0,24	0,24	0,29								
		2018														
	..commuting time	2013	0,20	0,16	0,20	0,28	0,21	0,20	0,19							
		2018														
	..recreational or green areas	2013	0,29	0,27	0,38	0,22	0,27	0,30	0,68	0,17						
		2018														
Affective	Being very nervous	2013	-0,31	-0,23	-0,15	-0,21	-0,23	-0,19	-0,14	-0,06	-0,14					
		2018	-0,33	-0,22		-0,20	-0,19	-0,20								
	Feeling calm and peaceful	2013	0,32	0,25	0,16	0,25	0,23	0,22	0,15	0,08	0,16	-0,52				
		2018	0,33	0,22		0,22	0,21	0,23				-0,52				
	Feeling downhearted or depressed	2013	-0,42	-0,30	-0,20	-0,21	-0,18	-0,25	-0,17	-0,07	-0,15	0,47	-0,42			
		2018	-0,41	-0,27		-0,20	-0,14	-0,25				0,49	-0,42			
	Being happy	2013	0,46	0,33	0,24	0,27	0,24	0,33	0,20	0,13	0,20	-0,36	0,45	-0,50		
		2018	0,49	0,32		0,27	0,20	0,34				-0,36	0,45	-0,49		
	Feeling down in the dumps	2013	-0,42	-0,31	-0,18	-0,24	-0,19	-0,25	-0,16	-0,09	-0,14	0,51	-0,47	0,59	-0,46	
		2018	-0,43	-0,29		-0,24	-0,15	-0,26				0,51	-0,46	0,60	-0,46	
	Feeling lonely	2013														
		2018	-0,33	-0,22		-0,13	-0,08	-0,30				0,27	-0,21	0,41	-0,37	
Eudaimonic	Life is worthwhile	2013	0,46	0,32	0,29	0,42	0,19	0,33	0,30	0,20	0,26	-0,18	0,22	-0,26	0,34	-0,26
		2018														

Source of data: Eurostat microdata

Pearson's correlation coefficients	
	Strong positive
	Moderate positive
	Moderate negative
	Strong negative

Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

In Hungary, on the other hand, the different elements of subjective well-being seem to be more interlinked than in Austria, with stronger correlation coefficients. Similarly to Austria, higher happiness (affective well-being) and the feeling that one's life is worthwhile (eudaimonic well-being) also means higher overall satisfaction with life. However, in Hungary, happiness and a life seen as worthwhile are also connected (Table 10).

Table 10. Interrelations of different measures of subjective well-being in Hungary in 2013, 2016 and 2018. (Pearson's correlation coefficients. Cases with missing values are excluded)

	Measure	Year	..life overall	..household's financial situation	..accommodation	..job	..time use	..personal relationships	..living environment	..commuting time	..recreational or green areas	..health	..personal income	Being very nervous	Feeling calm and peaceful	Feeling downhearted or depressed	Being happy	Feeling down in the dumps
Evaluative – satisfaction with…	..household's financial situation	2013	0,66															
		2016	0,71															
		2018	0,56															
	..accommodation	2013	0,49	0,57														
		2016	0,55	0,59														
		2018																
	..job	2013	0,50	0,45	0,45													
		2016	0,55	0,50	0,44													
		2018	0,47	0,47														
	..time use	2013	0,43	0,40	0,43	0,42												
		2016	0,41	0,40	0,38	0,37												
		2018	0,54	0,38		0,37												
	..personal relationships	2013	0,43	0,32	0,41	0,36	0,45											
		2016	0,53	0,43	0,45	0,46	0,41											
		2018	0,49	0,31		0,39	0,46											
	..living environment	2013	0,34	0,38	0,47	0,30	0,34	0,37										
		2016	0,45	0,45	0,57	0,40	0,37	0,55										
		2018																
	..commuting time	2013	0,32	0,28	0,31	0,48	0,41	0,30	0,28									
		2016	0,43	0,43	0,34	0,54	0,24	0,37	0,35									
		2018																
	..recreational or green areas	2013	0,33	0,35	0,40	0,29	0,37	0,37	0,75	0,28								
		2016																
		2018																
	..health	2013																
		2016	0,54	0,44	0,34	0,41	0,31	0,48	0,37	0,42								
		2018																
	..personal income	2013																
		2016	0,51	0,65	0,41	0,66	0,32	0,32	0,36	0,49		0,36						
		2018																
Affective	Being very nervous	2013	-0,43	-0,34	-0,24	-0,29	-0,28	-0,24	-0,17	-0,15	-0,18							
		2016	-0,30	-0,26	-0,22	-0,22	-0,22	-0,25	-0,23	-0,17		-0,25	-0,20					
		2018	-0,32	-0,22		-0,25	-0,30	-0,22										
	Feeling calm and peaceful	2013	0,45	0,36	0,28	0,29	0,30	0,28	0,21	0,15	0,21			-0,61				
		2016	0,37	0,31	0,25	0,24	0,28	0,29	0,24	0,17		0,29	0,24	-0,36				
		2018	0,42	0,29		0,26	0,35	0,30						-0,50				
	Feeling downhearted or depressed	2013	-0,49	-0,37	-0,28	-0,29	-0,28	-0,30	-0,19	-0,15	-0,19			0,59	-0,55			
		2016	-0,43	-0,35	-0,26	-0,28	-0,24	-0,33	-0,25	-0,25		-0,39	-0,26	0,48	-0,37			
		2018	-0,54	-0,41		-0,32	-0,35	-0,36						0,42	-0,44			
	Being happy	2013	0,51	0,36	0,30	0,31	0,27	0,36	0,22	0,17	0,21			-0,45	0,59	-0,52		
		2016	0,48	0,37	0,27	0,27	0,24	0,37	0,27	0,24		0,40	0,28	-0,24	0,48	-0,44		
		2018	0,54	0,34		0,26	0,34	0,35						-0,34	0,59	-0,47		
	Feeling down in the dumps	2013	-0,50	-0,36	-0,28	-0,31	-0,27	-0,30	-0,20	-0,16	-0,20			0,64	-0,56	0,72	-0,51	
		2016																
		2018	-0,51	-0,32		-0,30	-0,35	-0,34						0,56	-0,48	0,65	-0,52	
	Feeling lonely	2013																
		2016	-0,32	-0,24	-0,22	-0,19	-0,13	-0,34	-0,22	-0,20		-0,27	-0,16	0,33	-0,20	0,45	-0,32	
		2018	-0,38	-0,23		-0,23	-0,21	-0,36						0,23	-0,31	0,47	-0,43	0,46
	Feeling stressed	2013																
		2016	-0,29	-0,25	-0,22	-0,22	-0,28	-0,24	-0,21	-0,13		-0,24	-0,19	0,59	-0,43	0,47	-0,26	
		2018																
Eudaimonic	Life is worthwhile	2013	0,56	0,43	0,43	0,55	0,45	0,51	0,41	0,39	0,39			-0,28	0,34	-0,36	0,42	-0,38
		2016	0,56	0,47	0,46	0,55	0,46	0,61	0,49	0,41		0,49	0,39	-0,24	0,30	-0,35	0,38	
		2018																

Source of data: Eurostat microdata and Hungarian microcensus

Among the evaluative elements, besides satisfaction with the household's financial situation, with accommodation, actual work, and personal relations, overall satisfaction is also positively correlated with satisfaction with time use, health, and personal income (the latter two were not measured in Austria) among the other elements of evaluative well-being. Furthermore, in the case of Hungary there is a stronger positive connection with positive elements of affective well-being and a stronger negative connection with negative elements of affective well-being. In terms of satisfaction with other domains in life, beyond the interconnections existing in Austria, there is a stronger relation between satisfaction with accommodation and household finances and satisfaction with the current job. There is a stronger link between respondents' satisfaction with their employment and commuting time, and interestingly, between personal relations and the environment where they lived. This eventually highlights the human aspect of a neighbourhood.

The different emotional states seem to be strongly connected, as it is the case in Austria.

The sentiment of having a life worth living is related to overall life satisfaction and satisfaction with one's current work, as it is in Austria. However, satisfaction with personal relations is also strongly associated with it, as is satisfaction with other domains in life to some extent.

6. Objective and subjective well-being differences between the native- and foreign-born population in Austria

In the following, we present EU-SILC survey data from 2013 and 2018, with each analysed variable broken down by country-of-birth categories. The variables are evaluated in the same order as in Chapter 5, which contains the Hungary-Austria comparison. The detailed methodological descriptions of the variables can be found in Chapter 3.2 as well as in the Appendix. It is important, however, to stress once again that the survey responses have been analysed after weighting. In this way, we can provide representative information that can be extrapolated to the whole population. However, within the country-of-birth groups we cannot speak about representativeness. Consequently, the values of some of the variables that are observed as based on the survey may differ from the statistical databases based on censuses and registers. We will try to address these issues in the light of the available data.

6.1 Population by country of birth

As the analysis focuses on the SWB characteristics of native- or foreign-born people classified into pre-defined categories, it is crucial first to consider the size of these groups as well as the extent to which they were represented in the EU-SILC survey. The largest group in

both 2013 and 2018 was the Austrian-born population, but their share has fallen by almost three percentage points, i. e. from 83.4% to 80.5%, during the analysed period. In 2018, the highest proportion of foreigners was constituted by people born in Germany, followed by Bosnia and Herzegovina, Türkiye, Serbia, and Romania (Figure 54).

Figure 54. Population stock by the Top 10 countries of birth at national level in Austria (number of people, 2002-2022)
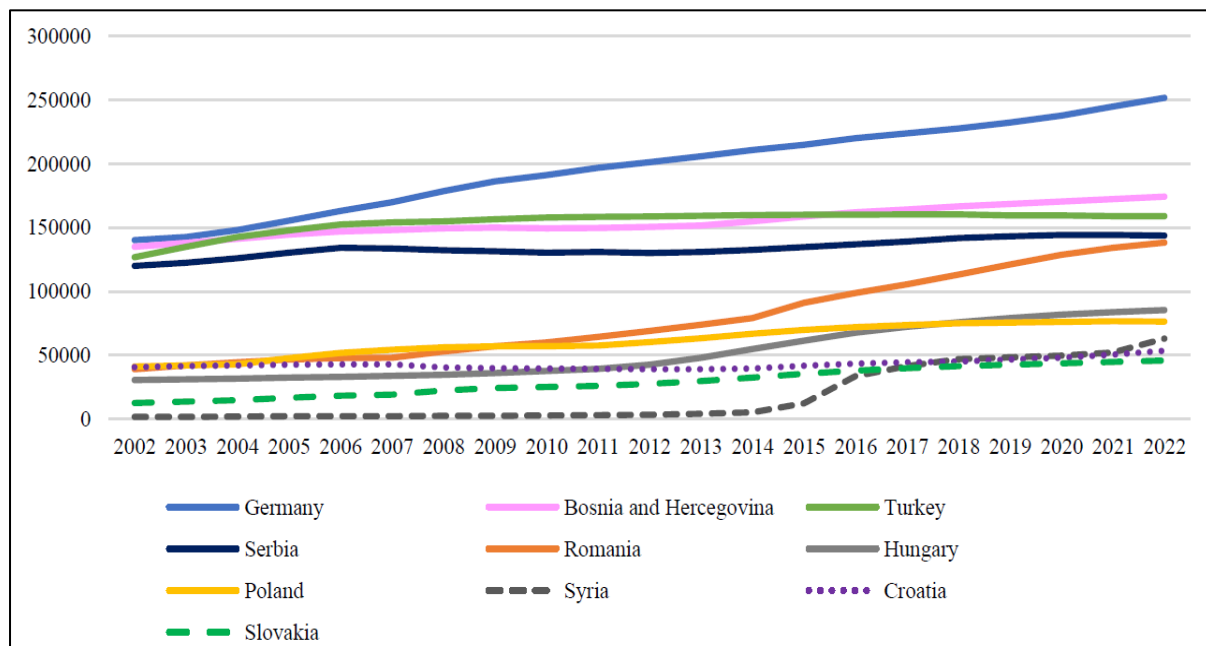
Source: Németh et al. 2023: 24

According to the official statistics as of 1 January 2014, 16.6% of the population of Austria was born abroad, whereas their share was 19.5% on 1 January 2019. The EU-SILC survey slightly overestimated the immigrant proportion at 17.8% and 20.7% respectively, but overall, the surveys are in line with the official register-based data (Table 11).

The analysis below follows the classification logic of Statistics Austria. For the sake of simplicity, "EU15" refers to the "old" Member States of the European Union (who have joined before 2004) as well as the EFTA countries (Iceland, Norway, Switzerland, and Liechtenstein), while the "EU12" label covers the countires that joined the EU in 2004 and 2007. In this classification, Croatia belongs to the category of "former Yugoslavian countries, excluding Slovenia".

It is important to emphasize again that we have held strictly to the country-of-birth variable. Therefore, these numbers do not include people with an "immigration background", a term which is often used in statistical publications (e.g., "Migration & Integration: Zahlen. Daten. Indikatoren", published yearly by the Statistics Austria).

Table 11. The share of foreign-born people in Austria according to the official statistics and the EU-SILC survey

	2013		2018	
	Statistics Austria	EU-SILC	Statistics Austria	EU-SILC
"EU15": "old" EU Member States + EFTA countries	3.6%	3.8%	3.7%	4.7%
"EU12": "new" EU Member States (without Croatia)	3.7%	3.4%	4.7%	4.7%
"YUG": former Yugoslavian countries (including Croatia, without Slovenia)	4.5%	4.9%	4.7%	4.0%
"TUR": Türkiye	1.9%	2.4%	1.8%	2.3%

Data source: Statistics Austria, Eurostat. Own table.

6.2 Material factors

6.2.1 Financial situation

According to the surveys, the Austrian-born population had the highest median ***personal income*** at €21,070 in 2013 and €22,887 in 2018. (The questionnaire had in fact enquired after the income in the previous year. These numbers thus refer to the situation in 2012 and 2017.) Austrian-born persons in 2013 were closely followed by EU15 immigrants (€20,154), but their median earnings had dropped to 81.8% of the 2013 value (€16,500) by 2018.

However, if we take the mean instead of the median, we also see an income gain for this group (€26,349 to €29,018) and the mean value is now slightly higher than that of Austrians (€27,190). Since the mean is higher than the median – and this phenomenon was not observed for any other group – we can speak of a right-skewed distribution in which a few individuals with very high incomes distort the mean.

There has also been a drop in the income of people born in the former territory of Yugoslavia (excluding Slovenia), where the 2018 survey shows a net income of €14,820, which totals only 85.2% of the €17,384 recorded in 2013. This means that the formerly third-highest income group has become the fifth-highest in five years. On the other hand, increases are observed for people born in the EU12 countries (+22.9%), in Türkiye (+24.05%) as well as in other countries (+28.03%). The median income of those born in Türkiye is higher than that of those born in the EU12 in both years under review, but the mean income was more favourable for the EU12 group in 2013. Despite the rapid increase in the incomes of the "other countries" group, their median income in 2019 is still only 50.8% of that of the Austrian-born (Figure 55).

Figure 55. Personal incomes in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
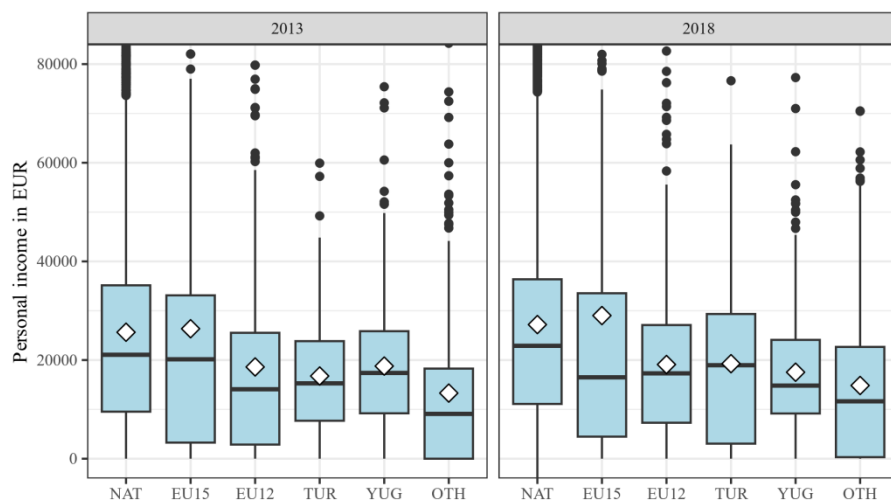
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

In terms of median ***household income***, there is a decreasing order in 2013 for people born in Austria – the old Member States (EU15) – the former Yugoslavia – the new Member States (EU12) – Türkiye – and other countries of the world. By 2018, the positions of the EU12 and Yugoslavia had reversed (Figure 56).

In contrast to personal income, the EU15 does not display the same decline in 2018, with a median household income close to that of the Austrian-born at 94.8%. While all groups show an increase in income (the largest increase is +21.7% for the group labelled "other countries"), the EU15 displays a decrease similar to personal income (97% of the previous figure, which is not as marked a difference as for personal income). Beside having experienced a rapid increase, the median household income of the "other countries" group is not as far behind the value of that in Austria – 67.1% – as in the case of personal income. This may suggest that mixed marriages have created mixed-ethnicity households, where the higher income of an Austrian-born person offsets the lower income of a first-generation immigrant.

Figure 56. Household incomes in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
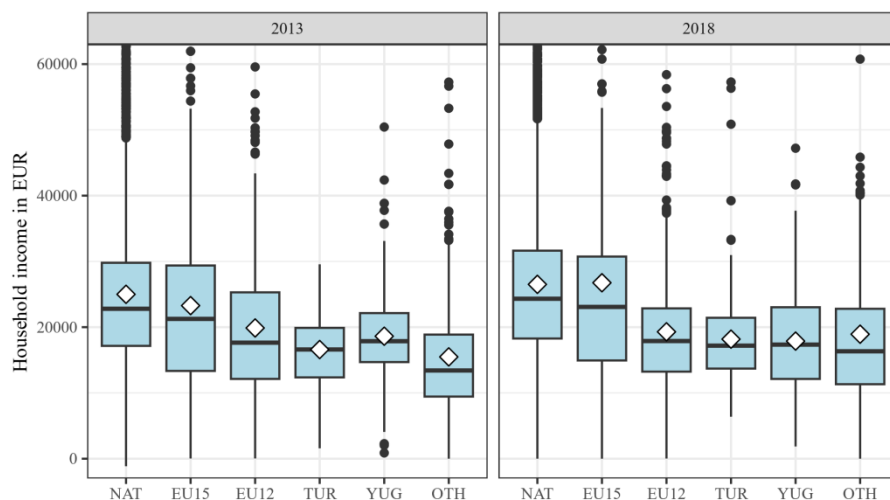
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

Although the ***at-risk-of-poverty rate*** in Austria has generally not changed substantially (see Chapter 5.1), this is no longer true for all sub-groups by country of birth. In 2018, the rate was lowest in the case of Austrian-born people (9.6%; decreased by 0.9%) and people born in the old Member States (19.5%; decreased by 2.6%). A larger decrease is observed for those born in Türkiye (from 27.4% to 22.3%) and in other countries (from 46.3% to 37.1%). On the other hand, the proportion of people at risk of poverty has slightly increased (from 25% to 26.2%) in the case of people from the new Member States, and almost doubled for those born in Yugoslavia (from 17.5% to 30.7%) (Figure 57).

Remarkable differences can be observed in the extent to which social benefits reduce the number of people at risk of poverty. Social benefits tend to improve living standards and decrease the risk of poverty most significantly for the people born in Türkiye (a decrease to 48% of the value before benefits) as well as in Yugoslavia (a decrease to 54%). In the case of the category "other countries" and the Old Member States, the social benefits are less effective (a decrease to 77% and 68% respectively) (Statistik Austria, 2019).

Figure 57. Share of people at risk of poverty in Austria (2013 and 2018), categorised by country of birth
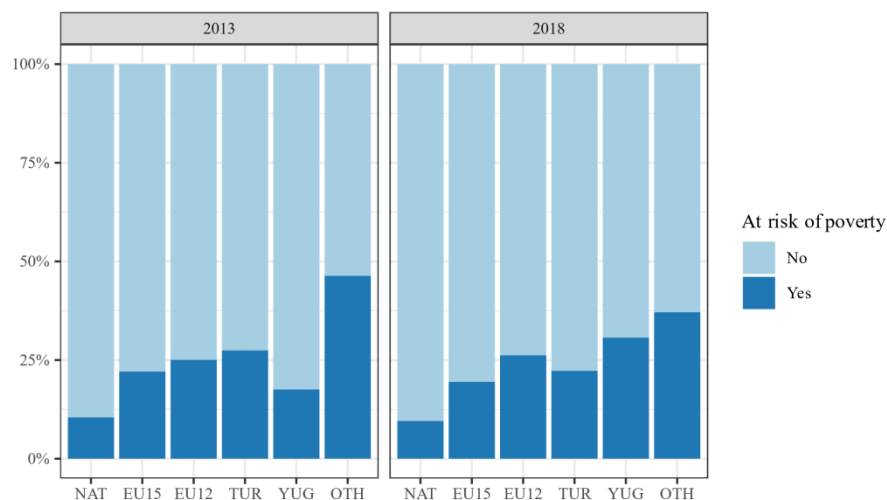
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

Indicators of ***material deprivation*** also point to an improvement between 2013 and 2018 (Figure 58). The deprivation rate increased from 1.3% to 2.3% among the EU15 group, ie. immigrants from the old Member States. However, this is still the second lowest value after the Austrian-born population (1.6%). In all other groups, the deprivation rate decreased (- 0.4% in the case of immigrants from the former Yugoslavia, -2.7% from Türkiye, -3.7% from the new Member States). In the case of other foreign-born people from all around the world there was an even sharper decrease: from 18% in 2013 to 7.1% in 2018. This 2018 value is already lower than the indicator for the people born in Türkiye and in Yugoslavia.

Figure 58. Share of materially deprived people in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
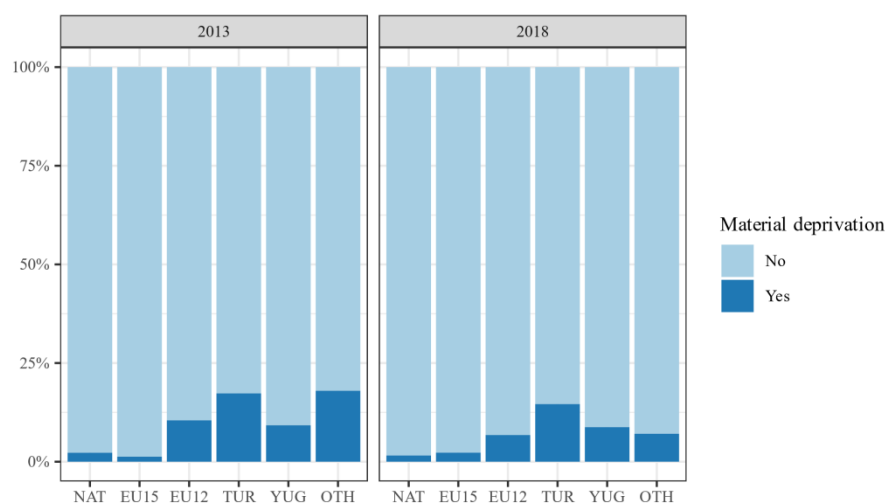
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

Although the Austrian population in general does not have serious problems with **debt repayments**, there are differences between the levels of burden among immigrant groups. Approximately 80% of the people in the Austrian-born, EU15, and "other countries" groups have no debt, which is 2-3% lower than the 2013 figures for the respective groups. Within the EU15 group, the proportion of people who have a moderate or a heavy credit burden has increased over the five years. For a heavy burden, there has been an increase to 2.6 times the previous value in this group, but even this increased value at 2.4% in 2018 is low, equalling the indicator for those born in Austria (Figure 59).

The trend for the Austrian-born and the "other countries" group is similar. The number of people for whom credit constitutes a heavy burden has fallen, whereas the proportion with no burden and the proportion experiencing a moderate burden has risen.

For those born in the EU12, there is also a decrease in the share of people who reported a heavy burden (almost halving from 8.4% to 4.3%) and an increase in the proportion of those who reported a moderate burden. This group furthermore shows an increase in the proportion who have no debt (albeit only by a marginal 0.8%). For the latter statement, this is the only such group.

Among the immigrants born in the former territory of Yugoslavia, the number of people without debt had decreased from 81.4% to 73.1%, while both the "somewhat of a burden (minor burden)" (12.1%) and the "heavy burden" (10.5%) options were selected by more persons in 2018 than was the "no burden" option (4.3%). This had already been the case in 2013, but the proportional differences have increased between the "no burden" and the other two response options.

Among the total population, the share of debt-free persons is by far the lowest among the Turkish-born people (67.2% and 54.4% in 2013 and 2018 respectively), while "high burden" is the most typical among this group (16.3% and 11.9% in the two years). Still, for the majority within this group, debt repayments are either "somewhat burdensome" (21.7% – the highest of all groups) or "no burden" at all (12% – the highest of all groups).

Figure 59. Share of people according to the severity of their (optional) debts in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
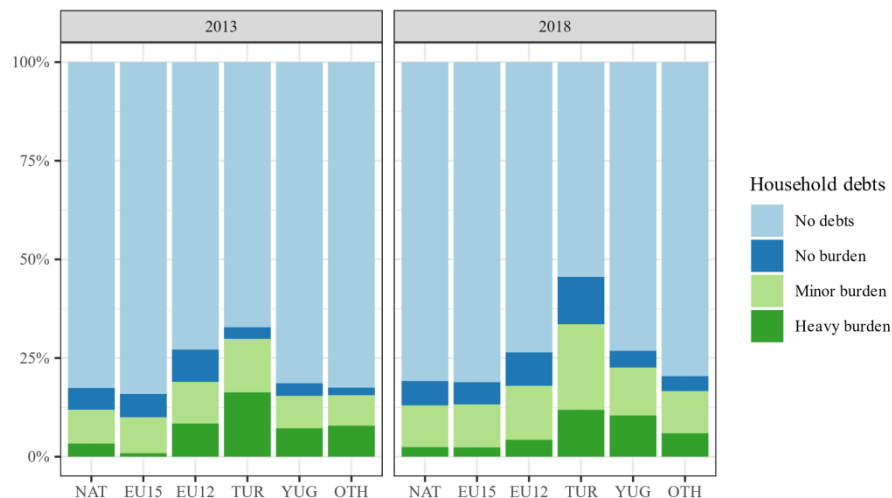
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

It is worth comparing objective income and material indicators with the way in which the population perceives these and their degree of *satisfaction* with their current situation. In 2013, the averages were the highest in case of the Austrian-born people and immigrants from the old Member States (7.1 and 7.2 respectively). These values increased to 7.5 and 7.4 during the analysed period. By 2018 the EU12 group (6.6) had moved up to third place in the ranking in terms of income satisfaction (swapping places since 2013 with the "other countries" group, which had a mean of 6.3 in 2018). The gap in respondents' satisfaction with their financial situation has decreased for the groups of immigrants from the new Member States as well as those who were born in the old EU countries in comparison with native-born people. Still, the difference is 0.9 compared to the Austrian-born group in the first position. Next in line are those born in Yugoslavia, with a slight decrease over time (from 6 to 5.9). The group born in Türkiye is behind them by a measure of 0.1. However, this gap had been much larger in 2013, namely 0.9. Over the five years between the two surveys, the group born in Türkiye has seen an increase of 0.7, which is the highest among all groups (Figure 60).

What about the relationship between the actual incomes and people's satisfaction with it? Based on the financial satisfaction data, three categories (low: 0-4, medium: 5-6, high: 7-10) were created. We examined the median incomes in these categories for all available groups of countries. Despite the low number of items resulting from the fragmented sample, there are some interesting findings. The subjective perceptions of the actual financial situation differ remarkably. For instance, within the "other countries" group, those who are highly satisfied nevertheless have lower earnings on average (€15,201) than even the least satisfied persons among the Austrian-born population (€15,334) or immigrants from Türkiye with low satisfaction (€17,206). Regarding the Turkish-born people, it is noteworthy not only that the

median earnings of the low-satisfied people are the highest of all groups, but that the earnings of the medium-satisfied persons (€25,223) are higher than those of the highly satisfied (€22,673). Last but not least, the median income of the highly satisfied immigrants in every country of birth category – except those who arrived from the old Member States – is lower than the median income (€22,986) of those Austrian-born people who are only moderately satisfied with their financial situation.

Figure 60. Satisfaction with financial situation in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
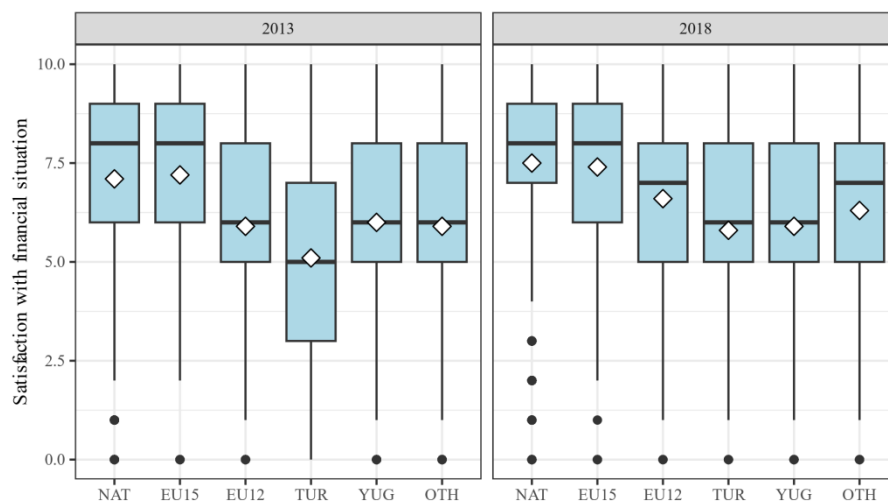
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

6.2.2   Economic status and job

In terms of employment indicators, the share of people in ***active employment*** (including employed, self-employed and unemployed persons) has increased within all analysed groups (Figure 61). In 2018, the active employment rate was highest among those born in Yugoslavia (73.1%), followed by those born in Türkiye (72.2%), in other countires (69.5%) and in the new Member States (69.4%). The economic activity rates for those born in the EU15, i. e., the "old" Member States and the EFTA countries (58.7%), as well as Austria (57.2%), are considerably lower. Of course, this phenomenon stands in strong relation to the age composition: within the native-born population, the share of older people is significantly higher, while the immigrant population – especially from Türkiye and the former territory of Yugoslavia – has a younger profile.

In addition to being less active, those born in the EU15 and Austria also show a different pattern in terms of *employment*. Indeed, these two groups had the highest self-employed share in 2018 (EU15: 7.8%, Austria: 6.7%). However, the share of *self-employed* people has decreased for the EU15 and EU12 compared to 2013, while there has been a small increase in

entrepreneurship for the Turkish (from 3% to 3.5%) and a larger surge for the Yugoslavian-born (from 0.4% to 3.7%) and the "other countries" group (from 3.9% to 6.2%). However, this surge is not apparent from official statistics and, worryingly, women's propensity to entrepreneurship lags notably behind that of men in these groups, with female entrepreneurs accounting for a third to a quarter of the number of self-employed men (Statistik Austria 2014, 2019).

In 2013, the largest shares of *unemployed* people could be found in the group born in Türkiye (16%) and in other countries (14.6%). However, there has been a remarkable improvement over five years and the share of unemployed Turkish-born people has halved[17] (to 8%). The "other countries" group (to 13.5%) and those born in Austria (from 4% to 3.2%) have likewise seen a decrease. In terms of unemployment rates, the largest increase was among immigrants from the post-Yugoslavian countries, excluding Slovenia (from 7.6% to 11.8%). In the case of unemployment, we should not forget the gender breakdown: while unemployment for Austrians (by nationality, not by country of birth) is lower for women than for men, the reverse is true for other nationalities (Statistik Austria, 2019).

When the ***inactive*** population is broken down into sub-categories, four groups can be distinguished: students, retired and disabled people, and the "other" category. The proportion of *students* has also increased within these three mentioned groups. Within the "other" group, their share was 8.8% in 2018, the second highest after 12.3% in the EU15 (over five years the EU15 value increased by 4.2%). It is worth noting that the share of students from the "new" member States (EU12) has decreased from 4% to 2.9%, a value that places the group between those born in Türkiye and those born in Yugoslavia. 6.6% of those born in Austria are students, a decrease of 0.4% compared to 2013. An important difference for students is the school they attend. Those born in Türkiye and Yugoslavia, for example, are overrepresented in special and polytechnic schools, while those born in the EU15 are overrepresented in institutions offering matriculation (Statistik Austria 2014).

In the case of people born in Austria, the old and new Member States as well as countries of former Yugoslavia, there are more *retired* than otherwise inactive people. This was true for both 2013 and 2018. On the contrary, the otherwise inactives make up a larger share within the Turkish-born and the "other countries" group. Their percentage share stagnates for the former group and decreases for the latter. It is interesting to note that the share of retired persons is decreasing everywhere, except in the Austrian-born group (stable at 29.9%). It has decreased by 9.4% for the EU12 group, while it has almost halved for the group born in Türkiye (from 12% to 6.3%).

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[17] However, this decrease is not supported by the official statistics working with nationality data, which also indicate a 2% unemployment increase for Turkish nationals (Statistik Austria 2014, 2019).

The proportion of *disabled* persons is highest for the group born in Yugoslavia (3.6% and 2.6% in 2013 and 2018 respectively) and Türkiye (1.9% and 2.7%) in 2013 and 2018. For the former group, the rate is decreasing, while for the latter it is increasing.

Figure 61. Share of people according to their self-determined economic status in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
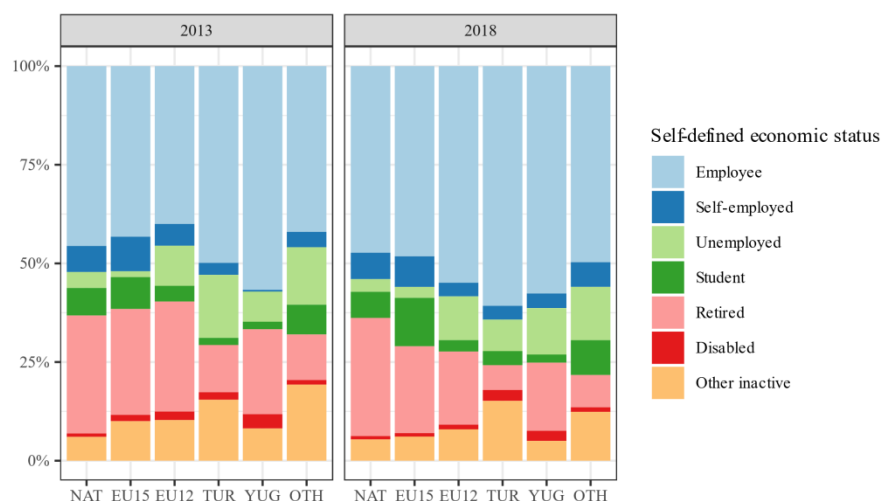
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

Data on occupational status[18] show that in 2018 (but also in 2013), the highest proportion of workers in high-prestige managerial jobs were born in the EU15, where 56.1% of all workers originating from these countries are active in this field, but the proportion has barely increased compared to 2013 (+1.9%), similar to the proportion born in the EU12 (+2%). However, there is a spectacular increase and catch-up for those born in Austria (from 37% to 45.4%), Türkiye (from 6.1% to 17.8%), Yugoslavia (from 13.5% to 17.3%) and the "other countries" group (from 28.2% to 34.8%) (Figure 62).

Among the ISCO categories (Managers, Professionals, Technicians and associate professionals), which form the basis of the high-prestige coding, the highest proportion of those working in the first and the third categories lies within the Austrian group (8.2% and 18.3% respectively), while the first group to rise in terms of the proportion of those working in ISCO 2 is the group born in EU15 (30.4%). There is also a large increase for the group born in Yugoslavia, Türkiye and the "other countries" group when broken down into sub-categories. It is worth noting that among those born in Türkiye, the share of managers

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[18] In the data analysis, we took only valid answers into consideration. In other words, valid answers represent 100%, and missing values are excluded.

escalated from 0.8% to 3.4% in five years, while the share of professionals rose from 1.9% to 6.8%.

The share of clerical support workers is highest among those born in the EU15 (8.9% in 2018) and their share has increased since 2013. Meanwhile, a decrease is observable for the Austrian-born sample in the ISCO 4 group (from 10.4% to 8.8%). Apart from this group, the only other group in this sector to show a decrease was the "other countries" group. The share of the "service and sales workers" group is highest among those born in Yugoslavia (22.7%) and has been increasing since 2013 (even then it was high at 20.9%), while the share of this ISCO category within the formerly leading EU12 group has decreased (from 25% to 17.9%).

The "skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers" and "armed forces occupations" categories are mainly dominated by those born in Austria (6.1% and 0.3% respectively), while the share of the remaining groups is very small. The share of "craft and related trades workers" is decreasing in all groups except those from the EU12, but it is still the highest among those born in Yugoslavia (17.1%). The share of "plant and machine operators and assemblers" within the EU12 group has also increased (from 5.5% to 13.7%), with the highest share of workers in this category also being among those born in Türkiye (19%). As the share of these last two categories has increased within the EU12 group, there must be a decline somewhere. This has happened in the "elementary occupations category", with the share falling from 21% to 13.1%. A similar trend can be observed for those born in Türkiye, where the proportion fell from 42.8% to 28.5%. However, for those born in Yugoslavia, the proportion of people working in this category remained relatively stable (30% and 29%).

Figure 62. Share of working people according to the ISCO categories in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
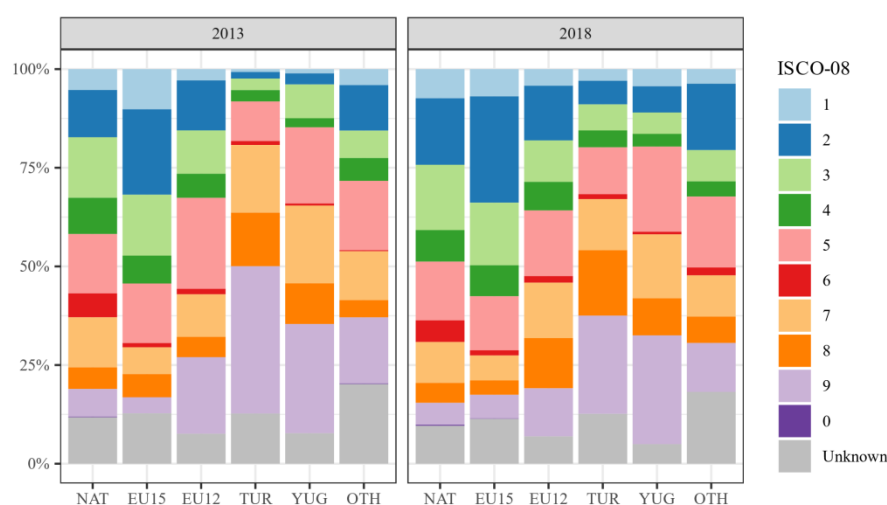
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

Considering the educational attainment of the population, the decrease in the percentage of those with a primary education as highest level of education is the largest among those born in Austria (-2.9%), but still, their share (19.1%) is only the third lowest after the EU15 (11.8%) and EU12 (15.5%) groups (Figure 63). For those born in the EU15 and Yugoslavia, there is a minimal increase (0.2% and 0.7%) in their share, while all other groups show a decrease. The general trend is that the share of those with a secondary education as highest level of education is decreasing (the smallest change is observable for those born in Türkiye and the "other countries" group), while the share with a maximum tertiary education is increasing (smallest change for the other group).

Secondary education is most predominant for those born in Austria (50.6%), while the share is low for those born in Türkiye (27.5%). The population born in Türkiye is the least educated (62.9% with a maximum primary education), but an encouraging trend is that the share of those with a tertiary education has more than doubled in five years (from 4.2% to 9.5%). Conversely, the most educated segment is the EU15 (45.1% tertiary) and EU12 (35.5% tertiary), both ahead of the Austrian-born (30.3% tertiary). For the EU15 group, the high share of highly educated persons matches the likewise large share of people in high-prestige jobs (68% of highly educated people are employed in high-prestige jobs), but for the EU12, the share of people in such jobs is below the expectation by education (only 40% of highly educated people in high-prestige jobs[19]). This suggests over-qualification[20]. The "other countries" group is evenly balanced (29.8% primary – 38.5% secondary – 31.7% tertiary), and those born in Yugoslavia are quite similar (37.9% primary – 40.5% secondary – 21.6% tertiary), but with fewer tertiary graduates and more low-skilled workers.

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[19] According to a survey, 62% of persons with higher education who commute to Austria (mostly EU12 persons) are overqualified for their work (Breinbauer, 2008). Based on the estimate of this report, the ratio may be similar for EU12 citizens already living in Austria.

[20] Surprisingly, over-qualification is not always viewed negatively by workers in Austria. Haindorfer's (2020) analysis of cross-border commuters pointed out that some interviewees highlighted the positive effects of the opportunity to learn a language and a secure job that allows them to look for other work.

Figure 63. Share of people according to their highest level of education in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth

Source of data: Eurostat microdata

The mean values of the responses to subjective job satisfaction are high for all groups, displaying a convergence compared to 2013 (the previous difference of one unit between the highest and lowest group mean values has been reduced to 0.5). The trend prevails, however, that those born in Austria remain the group that is most satisfied with their job (mean of 8), while those born in Türkiye are the least satisfied (mean of 7.5). All other groups have likewise reached the level of 8, similar to those born in Austria (0.5 unit improvement since 2013). The median for each group is 8 (Figure 64).

Figure 64. Satisfaction with job in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
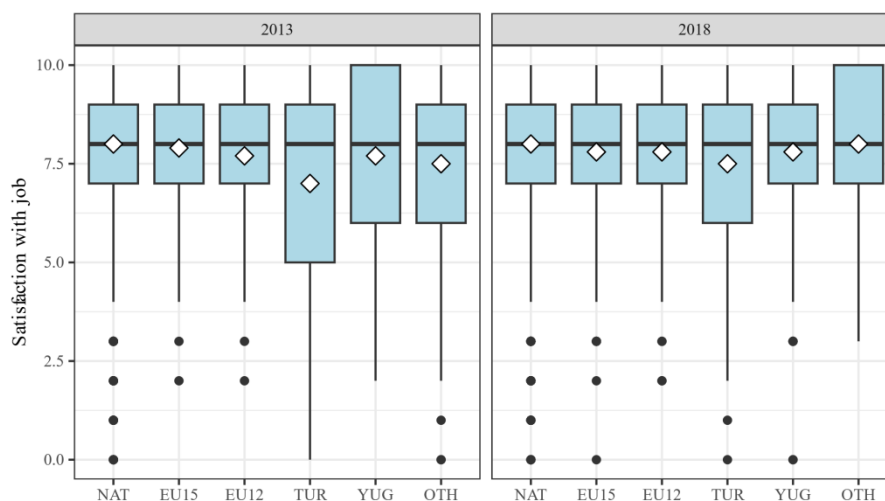
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

6.2.3   Housing conditions

There has been no change in the median number of rooms in the housing units compared to 2013. In terms of averages, the only notable decreases are for the groups born in Türkiye and Yugoslavia (0.3 unit decreases in both cases). In 2018, the sample group of respondents born in Austria has the largest number of rooms at their disposal (4), while the sample born in Yugoslavia has the least (2.9) (Figure 65).

Figure 65. Number of rooms in the dwellings in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
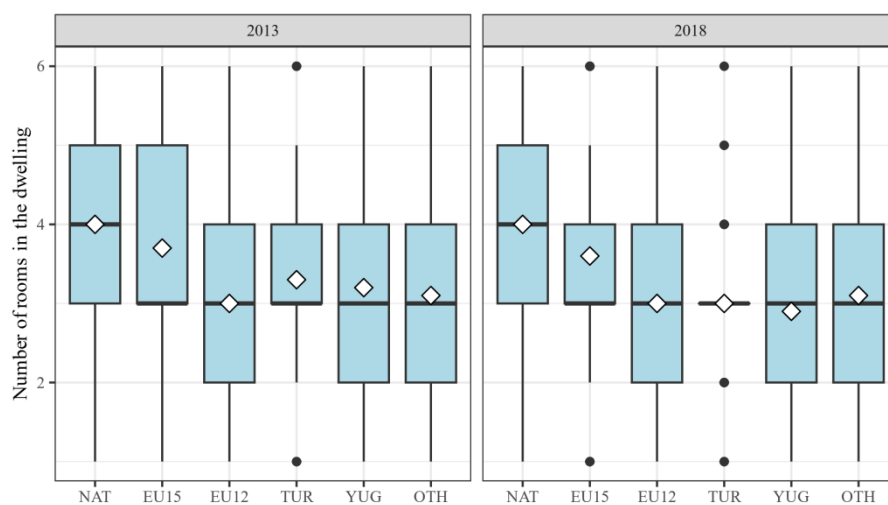
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

In general, housing conditions have improved over five years, with fewer housing-related problems (Figure 66). The proportion of people living in a dwelling prone to dampness/leaking/rot has decreased substantially among the population born in Türkiye. In 2013, this group had the highest proportion (23.3%), but by 2018, the second lowest proportion of people with dampness/leaking/rot is now the group born in Türkiye (9.9%), following the group born in Austria (9.2%).

There has also been a great improvement in the proportion of people living in insufficiently lit accommodation among those born in Türkiye (from 17.1% to 3.1%), which is even more remarkable due to the increase in the proportion of people living in such conditions among all other groups. Within the EU15 group, it has almost doubled (from 5.7% to 10.8%). For 2018, the EU15 group is now the most affected, followed by the EU12 (10.3%) and those born in Yugoslavia (9.6%).

Figure 66. Share of people whose accommodation was affected by leaking (A), dark dwelling (B), noise pollution from the street (C), environmental problems (D), and those whose neighbourhood is affected by crime (E) in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth

Source of data: Eurostat microdata

Within the group born in Türkiye, the proportion living under conditions of noise pollution has also decreased (from 27.9% to 21.9%), but the largest percentage point decrease was observed in the "other countries" group (from 25.7% to 17.9%). The only group to have seen an increase is the EU12 (from 22.9% to 25.5%), which is now the group most affected by the problem. This group is followed in decreasing order by those born in Türkiye and Yugoslavia (20%), while those born in Austria are the least affected by noise pollution (16.9%).

The proportion of people affected by environmental problems has decreased for those born in Austria, Türkiye, Yugoslavia and the "other countries" group, while it has increased for the EU12 and EU15. The most marked decrease was observed for those born in Yugoslavia (from 16.9% to 7.3%). Consequently, by 2018, this group is the least affected. By contrast, the

groups most exposed to the problem are those born in Türkiye (13.6%), the EU15 (11.5%), and the EU12 (11.5%).

There is a clear decrease in living in crime-prone neighbourhoods in all categories, and the rate of decrease is relatively stable (highest for those born in Yugoslavia and the EU12 group). In 2018, despite the decrease, the problem of living in a crime-prone environment was still most prevalent among those born in Yugoslavia (11.4%), the EU12 (10.2%), and the Austrian-born group (9.6%). Those born in Türkiye are considered to live in the safest neighbourhoods (only 5% report that crime is a problem) (Figure 66).

In relation to data on housing and living environment, it should be noted that a higher proportion of those born in Austria live in rural, sparsely urbanised areas (43.9% in 2018), while those born in Yugoslavia (61%) or the "other countries" group (62.6%) tend to live in densely populated areas. 39.8% of those born outside Austria lived in the capital, Vienna, in 2019 (Statistik Austria, 2019).

Figure 67. Share of people according to the urbanity of their settlements in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
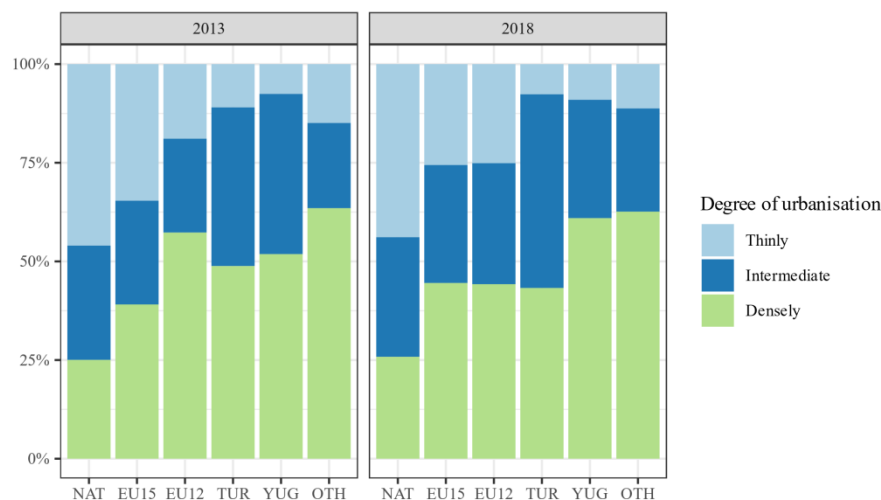
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

Satisfaction with housing conditions was not captured in the 2018 EU-SILC survey, so that we do not have data on how the general improvements described above (especially for those born in Türkiye) translate into subjective perceptions. Based on the 2013 data, those born in Türkiye were the least satisfied with their accommodation situation (mean of 6.7), 0.6 lower than the second-lowest score for the EU12. The most satisfied group is constituted by those born in Austria (mean of 8.4), followed by the EU15 (8.1), and lagging behind were those born in Yugoslavia (7.4) (Figure 68).

Although this analysis does not focus on ownership, it does have a small impact on the subjective well-being of the Austrian population. Those who own or use their dwelling free of charge have higher life satisfaction (Angel & Gregory, 2023). Ownership affects satisfaction through subjective perceptions of housing costs, according to the authors' results. Furthermore, there are large differences in ownership attitudes in Austria related to ethnic background (Buchegger-Traxler & Sirsch, 2012).

Figure 68. Satisfaction with accommodation in Austria (2013) categorised by country of birth
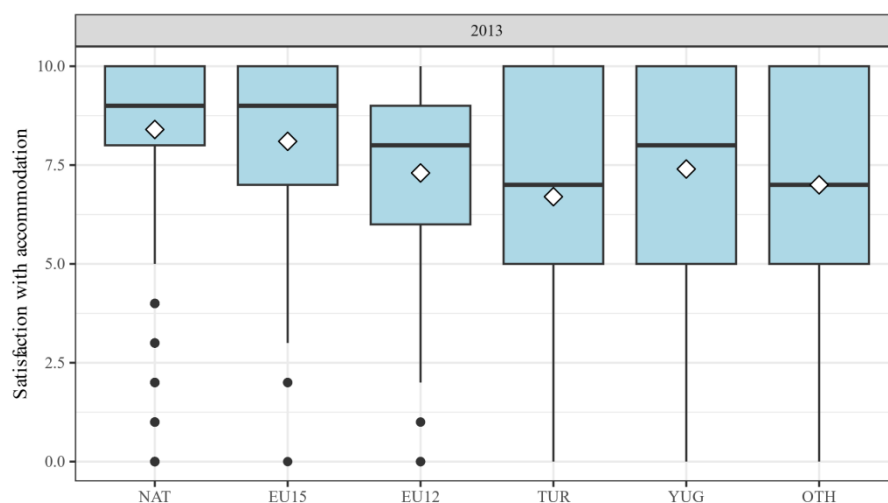
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

6.3 Immaterial factors

6.3.1 Health status

Austrian society in general enjoyed a good health status in 2018, with a "very good" or "good" response rate above 50% in all groups (Figure 69). In 2013, this was not the case for people born in Türkiye. In 2018, those born in Yugoslavia (6.4%) were the most likely to have very bad health, followed by the "other countries" group (3.9%) and the group born in Türkiye (3.1%). Moreover, the "other countries" group has seen a drastic change in its proportions over five years, rising from 0.7% to 3.9%. The increase in the proportion of people in very bad health is observed in all groups except those born in Austria (0.3% decrease). However, the proportion of those in bad health has fallen everywhere except in the EU15 group, with a particularly striking decline for those born in Türkiye (from 19.3% to 11%). For 2018, this 11% is the second highest rate after those born in Yugoslavia (12.8%). Between 1% and 2% more people responded with a good health status in 2018 than in 2013 for the EU15, EU12, and Austrian-born groups. The "other countries" group shows a moderate positive change (from 37.1% to 43.3%), but for those born in Türkiye, there is an increase of 10.2% (from 27.5% to 37.7%).

The negative figures for those born in Yugoslavia are further worsened by the decrease in the proportion of people in good health (from 36.3% to 32%). This is offset to a degree by an increase in the proportion of respondents in very good health among those born in Yugoslavia (from 19.8% to 21.9%). At 21.9%, this figure still only exceeded the score of those born in Türkiye (17.3%) in 2018, as in 2013. Over the five years, not only has the proportion of those born in Yugoslavia with very good health increased, but the same has happened in all groups. The most notable increase took place within the EU12 group (from 23% to 33.3%).

As health status becomes more polarised – with an increase both in the "very bad" and "very good" categories – the intermediate, "fair" category has declined everywhere. Overall, the population born in Yugoslavia and Türkiye is in the worst health, while the health statuses of the rest of the groups are equally good. In addition to suffering frequently from physical pain, Austrian immigrants who speak Turkish are also affected by a higher proportion of psychological problems (Wimmer-Puchinger et al, 2006). Both the physical and mental health statuses are therefore poor for this group.

Figure 69. Share of people according to their self-reported health status in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
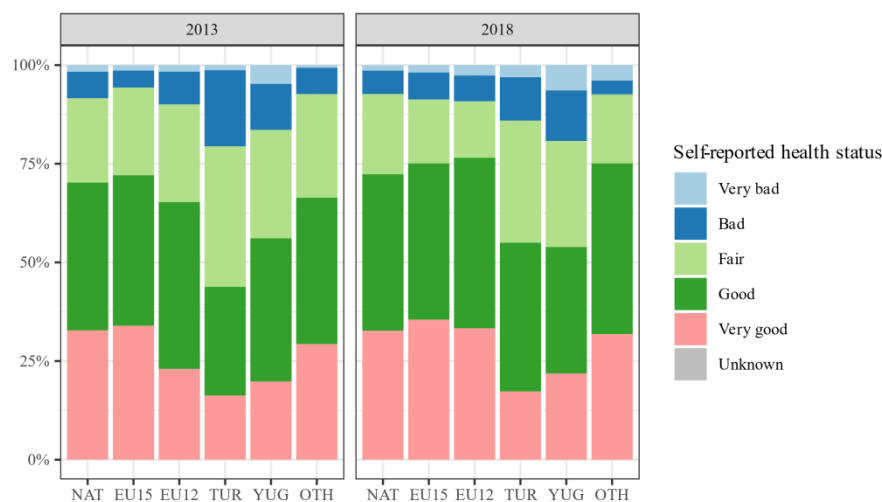
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

6.3.2   Work-life balance

Compared to 2013, the mean number of working hours per week has decreased in all the groups surveyed. The largest absolute decrease occurred in the group born in Türkiye (from 38.6 to 30.8). In 2018, this large decrease resulted in the group born in Türkiye having the lowest mean, while in 2013, those born in Yugoslavia had the lowest mean (change from 38 to 31.4). If we look at the median rather than the mean, Yugoslavia has the lowest value (38), followed by Türkiye (39) and the remaining groups (all of them have a value of 40). The

smallest decrease was in the EU15 group mean (from 41.2 to 36.3), with this group working the most on average in 2013 and 2018. The mean for the group born in Austria was the second highest in both years (40 and 33.7) (Figure 70).

Figure 70. Working hours per week in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
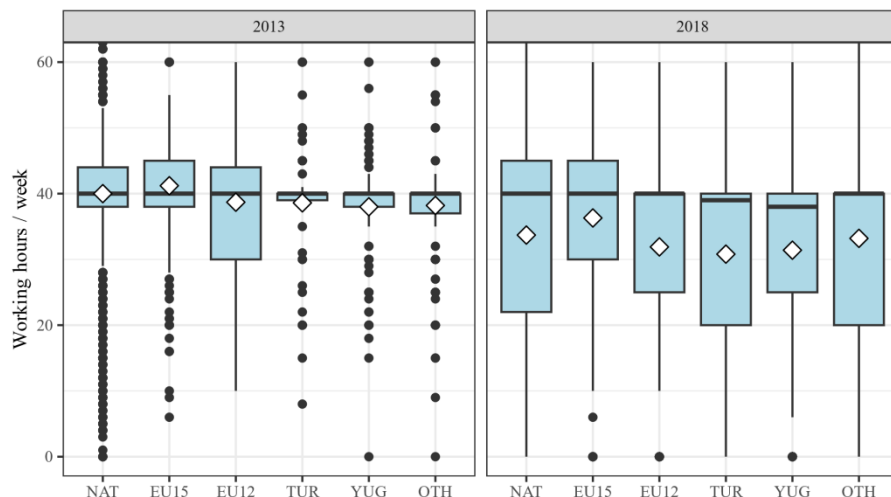
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

The proportion of people participating in leisure activities has increased in all groups under survey, compared to 2013. In percentage points, the largest increase was in the EU12 (from 48.5% to 66.3%), whereas the smallest increase was in the group born in Yugoslavia (from 46.1% to 51.2%). The gap between Yugoslavia-EU12 (2.4% gap) and Yugoslavia-other (4.1%), which was narrow back in 2013, has widened remarkably (15.1% and 10.7% respectively). The groups with the highest levels of leisure activity are those born in Austria (75.9%) and the EU15 (77.3%). The increase in leisure-time activity in the Austrian-born, EU15, and Yugoslavian-born groups is mainly due to a decrease in the "no – other reason" responses (decreases vary between 7-10%) rather than to people being more able to afford it. In addition, among the EU15 and those born in Yugoslavia, the proportion of those who selected the option "no – I cannot afford it" has increased (+2.7% and +2.9%). For those born in Türkiye and the "other countries" group, the proportion of "yes" answers has increased mainly because the proportion of "no – I cannot afford it" had decreased (decrease of 13.2% and 11.9%). Among the EU12 group, the "no – other reason" and "no – I cannot afford it" response rates have also decreased by almost the same amount (10.8% and 7.2%). As the "no – other reason" responses are almost evenly balanced, with a difference of 9.1% between the minimum and maximum, the real differentiating factor is the respondents' financial situation. For those born in Austria (6.5%) and the EU15 (8.1%), the number of people who cannot afford leisure-time activities is small, for those born in the EU12 (18%), Türkiye (21.7%), and

the "other countries" group (21.4%) it is a greater problem, whereas the highest proportion is found in the group of those born in Yugoslavia (27.7%) (Figure 71).

Figure 71. Share of people according to their participation in leisure activities in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
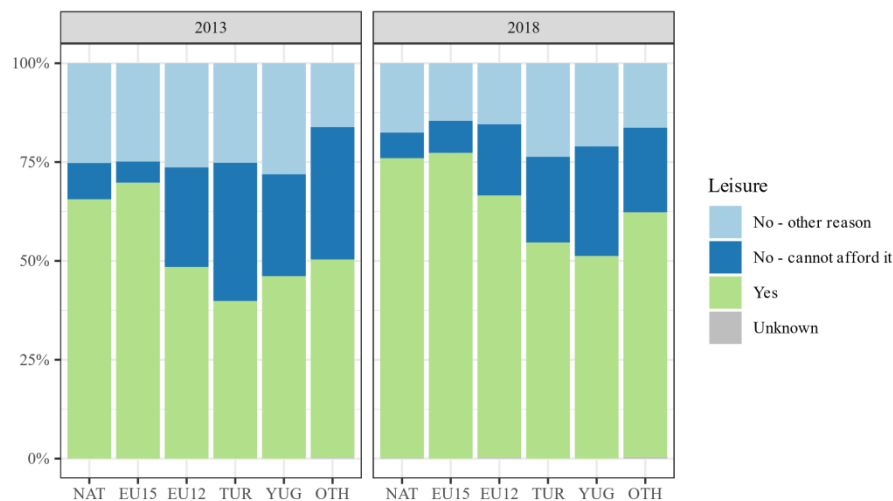
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

Subjective satisfaction with the use of time also reveals the same trend as does job satisfaction, namely that the differences between groups observed in 2013 are decreasing, except for the group born in Yugoslavia. In 2018, as in 2013, satisfaction is highest for the group born in Austria, with a mean of 7.4, but this value is stagnating. The EU15 (7.2), EU12 (7.2) and "other countries" (7.1) groups seem to be catching up. In particular, the 0.5 score improvement in the EU12 mean is impressive. However, the mean for those born in Yugoslavia has fallen by 0.4. The satisfaction of those born in Yugoslavia (6.3) is not only below that of the "other countries" group, but also below that of those born in Türkiye (6.7), who, thanks to a small improvement (+0.2), are catching up with the leading groups, but still display a considerable gap (0.5 gap with the next group, namely the "other countries"). In all groups, the mean subjective score of those who cannot afford leisure-time activities is lower than not only those who participate in leisure activities but also those who have other reasons for not taking part in those activities. For those born in Yugoslavia, the means are 5.27 ("no – cannot afford it"), followed by 6.85 ("no – other reasons") and finally 7 ("yes"). Similarly, for those born in Türkiye, there is a difference of 1.07 between the two sub-categories of "no" responses (Figure 72).

Figure 72. Satisfaction with time use in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
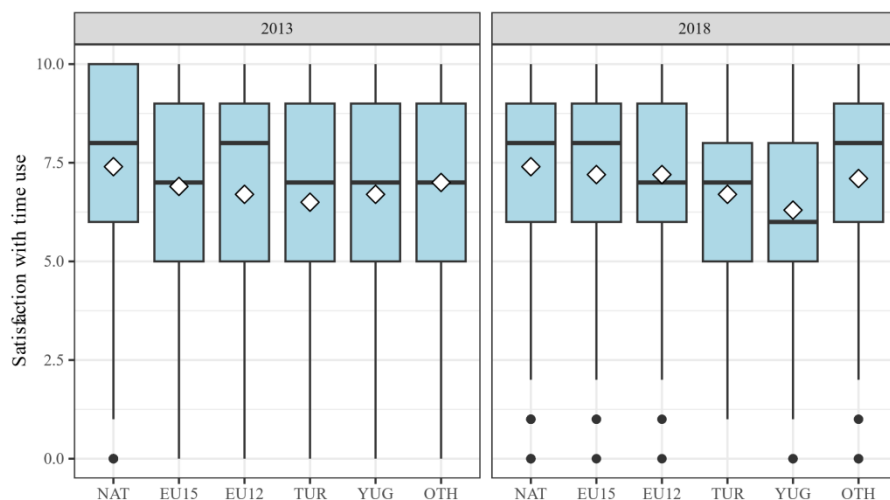
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

A measure of satisfaction with commuting time is missing from the 2018 survey, so we can only present findings for 2013. The population born in Austria displays the highest degree of satisfaction (mean 8.1), while the population born in Türkiye has the lowest (7.5). The interval between the two extremes is therefore not remarkable for this question. The remaining groups can be ranked as follows: Yugoslavia (7.6), EU12 (7.7), "other countries" (7.8), and EU15 (7.9) (Figure 73).

Figure 73. Satisfaction with commuting time in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
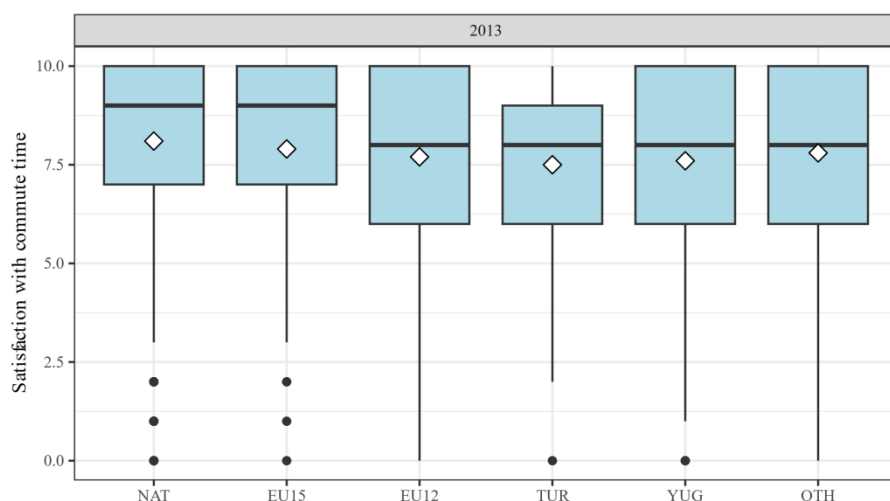
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

6.3.3   Social connections

In 2013, those born in Austria had the lowest proportion (56.9%) of people living with a partner. By 2018, there was a small increase (+2.2%), while the proportion of people in a relationship has decreased from 62.4% to 58.6% among the EU15 group, which is now the group with the lowest proportion of people in a relationship. There has also been a drop in their share for the groups born in Türkiye (7.4%) and Yugoslavia (7.5%), so that the overall gap has narrowed over the five years. Despite the decline, those born in Türkiye still display the highest proportion of people in a partnership (75%), although this group is no longer followed by those born in Yugoslavia, but by the "other countries" (69.4%) and EU12 (67.5%) groups (Figure 74).

Figure 74. Share of people according to their partnership status in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
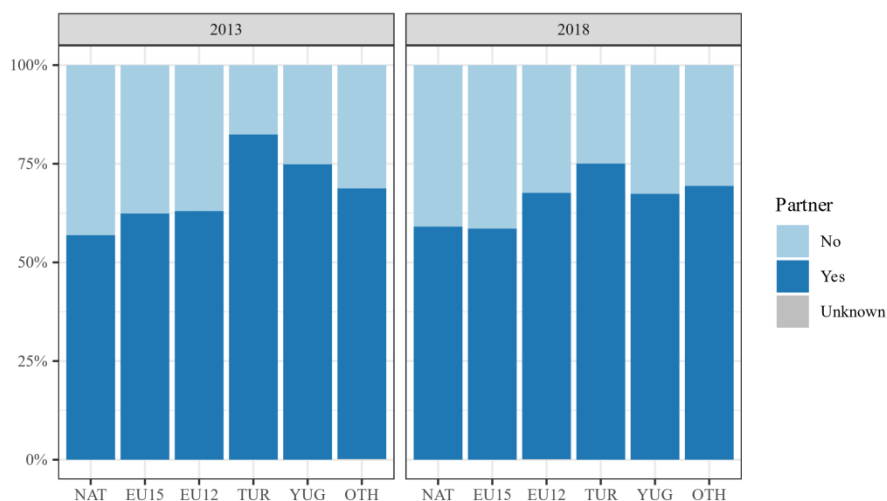
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

In terms of marital status, the highest proportion (34.2%) of those who had never married by 2013 was observable among the Austrian-born population (Figure 75). Their share had increased slightly (+0.8%) by 2018. Whereas in the previous analysis, there had been groups in which the proportion of single people had decreased over the five years, the proportion of never-married has increased in all groups. This contrast may suggest a declining propensity to marry among cohabiting partners in general. There has been a spectacular increase in the proportion of never-married persons among those born in Yugoslavia (+5.6%), Türkiye (+6.9%), the EU12 (+12.2%) and the EU15 (+8.9%), the latter group now displaying the largest unmarried population segment at 42.2%. The share of married persons has fallen in line with these trends in all groups, except for a small increase of 0.2% for those born in Austria. As of 2013, the highest share of married persons remained among those born in

Türkiye (71%), followed by the "other countries" group (63.9%) and those born in Yugoslavia (61.2%). The proportion of widows was the highest among those born in Austria (6.9%) in 2018, but as with the rest of the groups (except those born in Yugoslavia), their share has fallen over the five years. The largest decreases were found among those born in the EU12 (from 8.8% to 3.1%) and Türkiye (from 3.1% to 1.6%). The rate of divorce was highest among the EU12 group in 2013, at a surprising 20%, falling to 15.4% in 2018. The only group close to this figure was those born in Yugoslavia (15.5%), where the rate of divorced people has risen by 2.7% in five years. The EU15 group came third with 11.5%. In terms of proportions, the lowest proportion of divorced people was among those born in Austria (9.3%), which, in addition to a five-year decline in this rate (9.7% in 2013), is also due to an increase in the proportion of divorced people born in Türkiye (from 5.9% to 10.9%). The divorce figures may also suggest that earlier social contacts may be harmed through immigrants' moving to a new country, or that divorced people have a higher migration potential.

Figure 75. Share of people according to their marital status in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
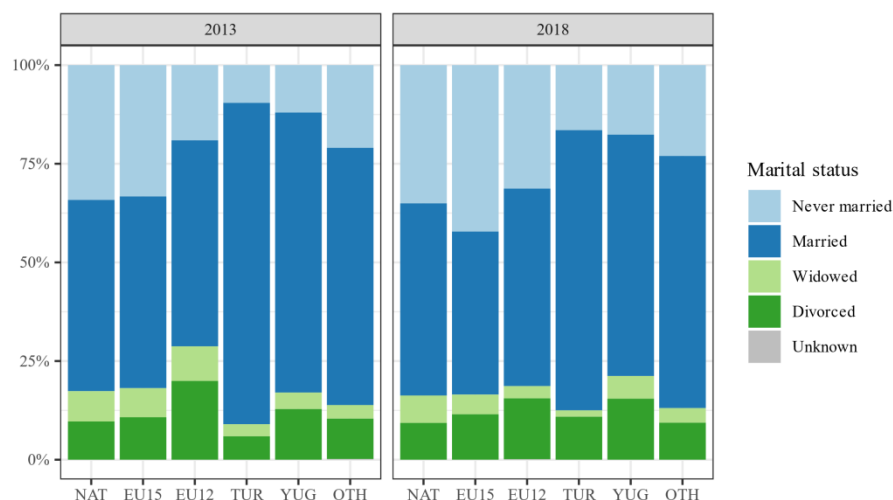
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

Mean household sizes have decreased between 2013 and 2018 in all but the EU12 group, with the largest households in 2018 being formed among those born in Türkiye (mean value 3.4 persons) and the smallest by those born in the EU15 (2.5 persons). In 2018, the highest proportions of single-person households were found among those in the EU15 group (23.94%) and those born in Austria (22.57%) (the most common type of household being a two-person household for these groups), while for those born in Türkiye, the single-person household is barely present (6.89%). 25.9% of those born in Türkiye have at least one child under the age of 5, compared to 10.1% of those born in Austria. The proportion of persons

with young children has decreased over the five years only within the "other countries" and EU12 groups (Figure 76, 77).

Figure 76. Household sizes in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
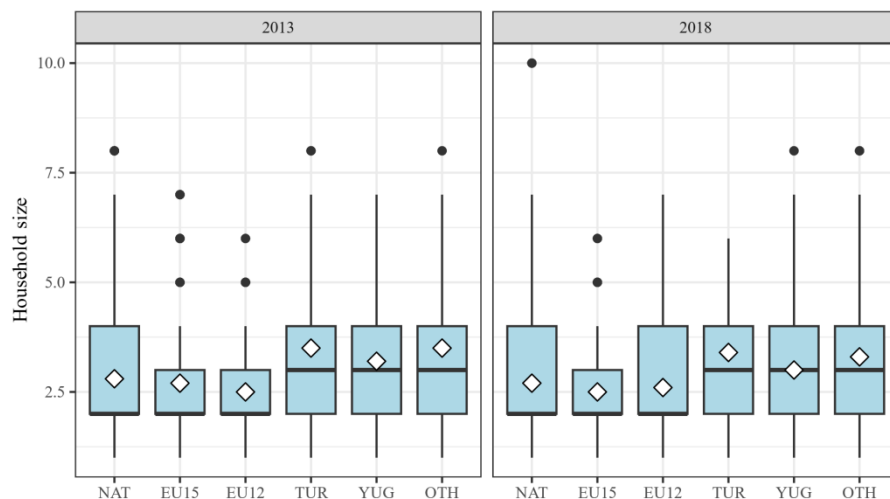
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

Figure 77. Number of children under the age of 6 in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
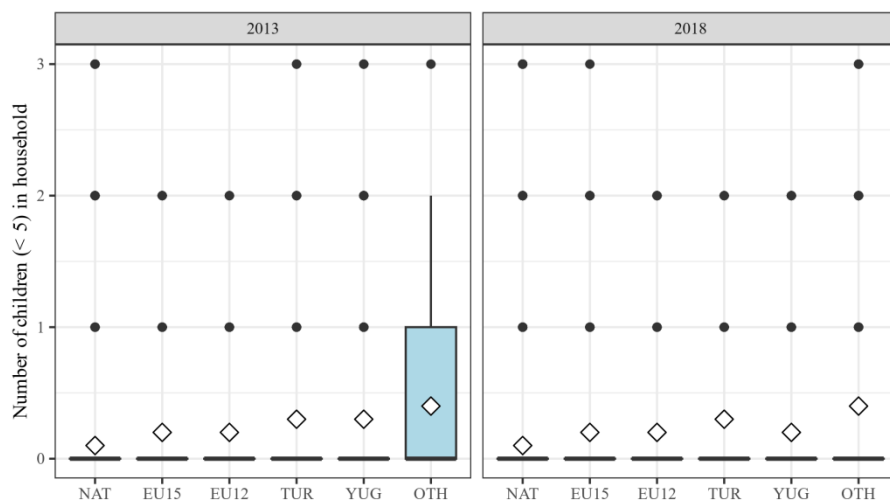
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

When asked about meeting friends and family, both in 2013 and 2018, people born in Austria were the most social. 90% and 91.5% respectively have at least one such meeting a month. In general, the number of individuals engaging in social contact has increased over the five years, with the only decrease among individuals who meet friends and relatives at least once a month being those born in Yugoslavia (-7.4%). In 2013, the EU12 group and those born in

Türkiye had the lowest proportion of people meeting friends (76.4% and 79.9%), but by 2018 their proportion had increased (83.9% and 87.6%) and they overtook the "other countries" group (81.5%) alongside those born in Yugoslavia. This may suggest that after initial difficulties in fitting in and socialising, they have started to build up a network of friends. For the EU12 group, there has been a sharp decline in the number of people who cannot afford to meet their friends for financial reasons (from 12.6% to 6.9%). For the "other countries" group, there has likewise been a steep decline in the proportion of such persons (from 15.4% to 7.4%). The share of those citing financial reasons has increased only in one group, namely those born in Yugoslavia (from 10.3% to 13.5%). However, the proportion of respondents who did not meet friends for other reasons has also increased for three groups (EU15, born in Yugoslavia and other countries). The higher rate of meeting friends for those born in Türkiye is mainly due to a decrease in the "no – other reason" response (from 10.5% to 4.4%) (Figure 78).

Figure 78. Share of people according to the degree of meeting friends in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
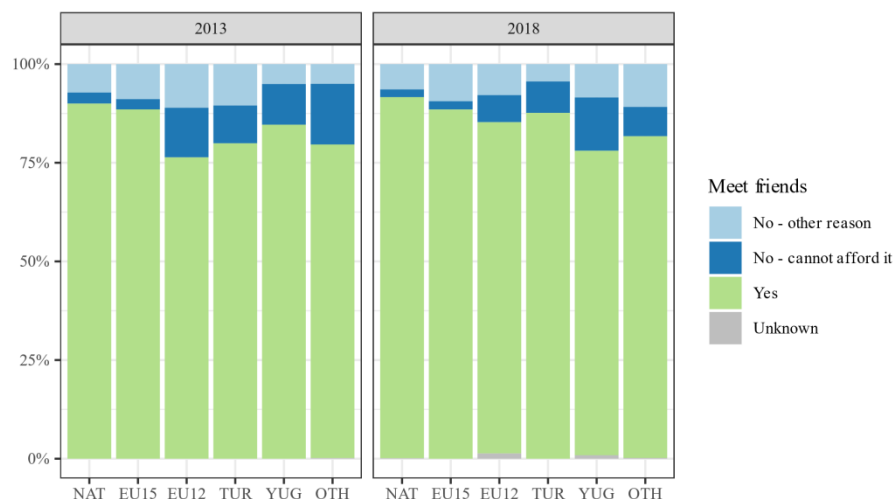
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

As with the previous indicator on social contacts, the highest proportion of people who can talk to someone about personal matters is among those born in Austria (86.7%), according to 2013 data, whereas those born in Türkiye (only 73%) and those belonging to the "other countries" group (73.5%) proportionally lack such contacts the most. It is worth comparing the proportion of people in each group who meet friends and those who can discuss personal problems. Two differences are striking. One is that the proportion of those born in Yugoslavia who can discuss personal issues is higher (85.2%) than those who meet a friend at least once a month (84.6%). This is the only such group. An explanation may be that for this group, the role of the close family or the persons still living in the sending country is particularly

important. The reverse trend is observed among the EU15 group, where there are more people who meet a friend (88.5%) than those who have someone to talk to about their problems (79.4%). This suggests that their relations with their friends are not strong or close. Cross-tabulation analysis did not confirm these theories. Although 11.88% of the sample born in Yugoslavia do not have a friend but can discuss their problems, this strange combination of pairing is even higher for those born in Türkiye (16.57%). The proportion of EU15 people who meet with a friend yet cannot discuss their problems is 2.41% (the same pairing amounts to 6.95% among those born in Türkiye) (Figure 79).

Figure 79. Share of people according to their ability to discuss personal matters in Austria (2013) categorised by country of birth
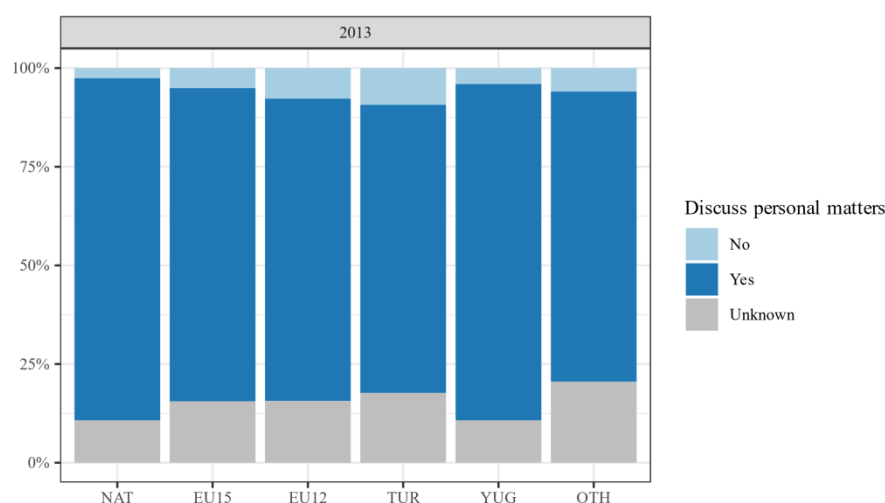
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

The role of friendships is also indicated by the question whether the individual has a friend from whom he or she can ask for financial or non-financial help. The proportion of "yes" responses to this question in 2013 shows the decreasing order of Austria (87.2%), Yugoslavia (83.7%), EU15 (80.7%), EU12 (78.2%), Türkiye (73.6%), and the "other countries" group (71.5%). This is consistent with the order that would be obtained for the response to discussing personal problems, except for the change of placement for "other countries" and Türkiye. By 2018, only one group, namely those born in Yugoslavia, had a decreasing proportion of people who were able to get help (77.1%). This may be consistent with a decrease in meeting friends for this group. Elsewhere, the relationship between the two variables is not so logical. Among those born in Türkiye, meeting with friends increased substantially (from 79.9% to 87.6%), but the opportunity to ask for help did not keep pace (shifting from 73.6% to 75.6%). In the EU15 group, although meeting friends remained stagnant (88.5% in both years), the opportunity to ask for help had increased (from 80.7% to 88.7%) (Figure 80). Overall, these results also point to the high level of social support that the

Austrian population receives from their social contacts (Fernandez & Muckenhuber, 2019; Glatz & Bodi-Fernandez, 2020).

Figure 80. Share of people according to their capability of receiving help from others in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
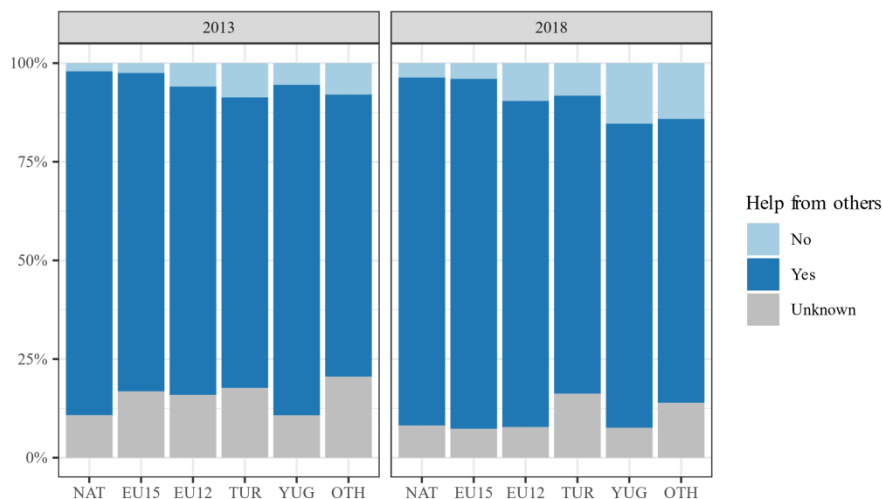
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

For trust in people, there is again an improving trend, which was not the case for the group born in Yugoslavia only. The mean score for this group has deteriorated by 0.3 over the five years and for 2018, they can be considered the group with the lowest mean level of trust. In contrast, the mean score of the most distrustful group in 2013, those born in Türkiye (mean 4.2), had improved by 0.9 over five years. For the other groups, mean trust scores have improved, with an increase of between 0.1 and 0.3. In 2018, the EU15 group (6.2) had the highest mean trust, followed by those born in Austria (6) and the other group (5.9). The share of high trust (7-10) among those born in Türkiye increased by 12%, while the share of low trust (0-4) fell by 8.5%. In 2018, the highest proportion of high trust holders was found among the EU15 group (43.89%), while low trust holders remained the highest among those born in Türkiye (31.03%) (Figure 81).

Figure 81. Trust in others in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
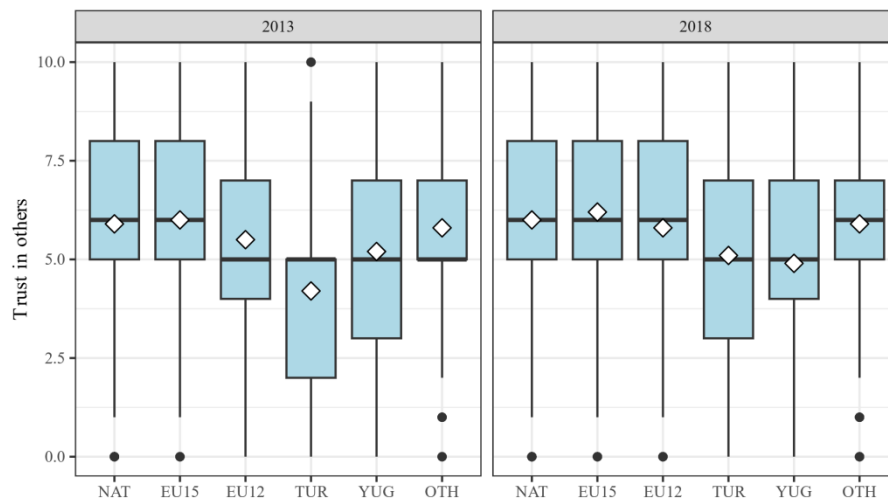
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

In 2013, only those born in Türkiye (7.8) and in 2018 only those born in Yugoslavia (7.9) had a mean score below 8 for satisfaction with social relations. The fact that the social relations of those born in Yugoslavia are weakening, as established from the previous variables, is also reflected in the subjective well-being of the group. Indeed, in 2013, the mean for those born in Yugoslavia (8.4) was second only to the mean for those born in Austria (8.5), but this has fallen by 0.5 in five years. There has been a similar but positive change in the EU12 group, with the mean leaping from 8 in 2013 to 8.5 in 2018. This value is now in line with the EU15 mean (which has remained stagnant over the five years). Those born in Austria (8.6) continue to have the highest mean value in the category of social satisfaction. The connection between the perception of social relationships and the fact of meeting with friends also shows that those who meet their friends have higher subjective satisfaction than those who do not, for whatever reason. For those born in Türkiye, for example, the mean satisfaction level of those who meet their friends is 8.45, whereas for those who do not do so for financial reasons, it is 6.71 and for those who do not do so for other reasons it is 6.66. In this case, the mean for the "I can not afford it" group is higher than the mean for the "other reasons" group (the same is true for the EU15 group). Satisfaction is also higher among those who have friends with whom they can discuss their personal problems. Within the Austrian-born group, the difference between those who have someone for discussions and those who do not is 1.6 (Figure 82).

These are quite striking results, even though these questions did not examine how many people an individual can count on, how many friends they have, and how often they meet them, although these factors are also related to levels of subjective well-being (Glatz & Bodi-Fernandez, 2020). In Austria, personal contact is also influenced by the municipality in which an individual lives, with family contact being more common in rural areas and contact with

close friends and community participation being stronger in urban areas (Glatz & Bodi-Fernandez, 2020).

Figure 82. Satisfaction with personal relationships in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
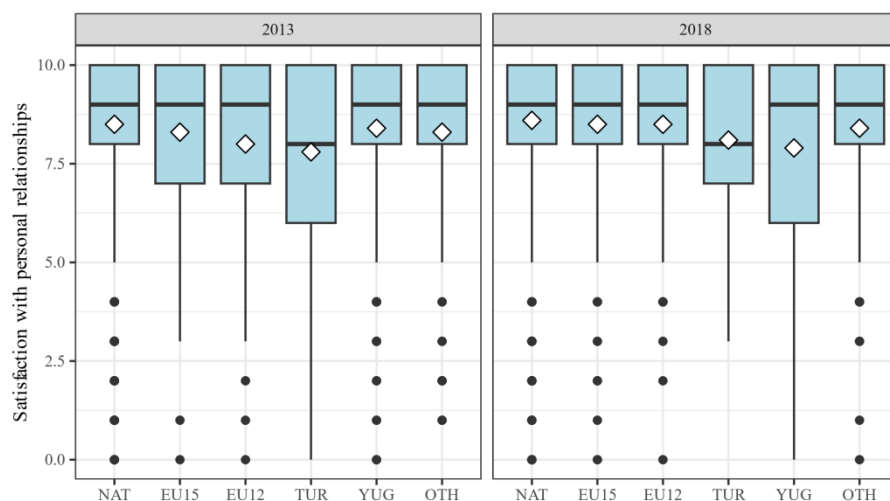
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

6.3.4   External factors

In terms of satisfaction with recreational and green spaces in 2013, the Austrian-born (mean 8.4) and EU15 (8.3) groups stand out clearly from the rest, followed by the EU12 group (7.5). The group born in Türkiye (7.2) and the "other countries" group (7.2) share the lowest mean, while the group born in Yugoslavia (7.4) has a mean closer to that of the EU12. Compared with the question on environmental problems analysed in the housing section, it is striking how much worse the EU12 and the "other countries" group rate their satisfaction with green spaces compared to the low percentage of environmental problems (a reminder: the occurrence of environmental problems for those groups is similarly low to that within the Austrian-born and EU15 groups) (Figure 83).

Figure 83. Satisfaction with green areas in Austria (2013) categorised by country of birth
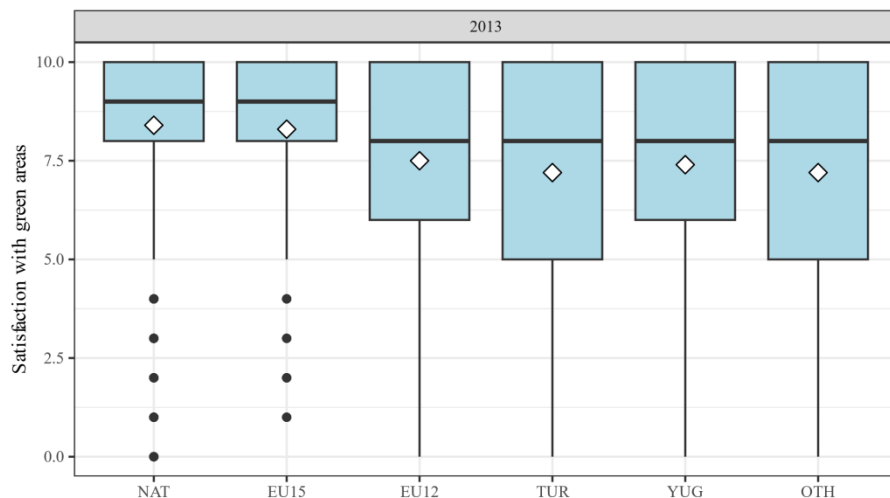
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

The 2013 results for satisfaction with the living environment show a similar trend, with the highest mean for the Austrian-born (8.5) and the EU15 group (8.5). The difference, however, is that the mean for the "other countries" group is no longer the lowest, but the third highest (7.8, tied with those born in Yugoslavia). The mean for those born in Türkiye (7.6) is the lowest on this question (Figure 84). The higher satisfaction of the "other countries" group is more in line with the fact that only a low percentage of them live in neighbourhoods with environmental problems.

Figure 84. Satisfaction with living environment in Austria (2013) categorised by country of birth
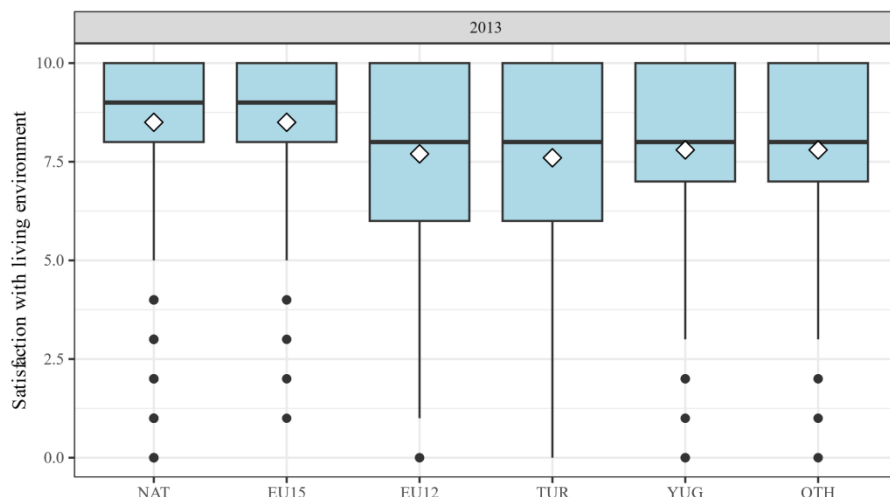
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

Institutional trust is analysed on the basis of the variables of trust in politics, the legal system, the police, the authorities, and the media, which are only available for 2013. The data reveal the seemingly paradoxical situation that for all questions, the value for those born in Austria is generally lower than the scores of most of the foreign-born groups. For the questions on trust in politics, in the legal system, and in the police (although in a threefold tie), the value of the Austrian-born group is actually the lowest. Several studies have already shown that immigrants have higher trust in institutions than natives, and the reason may be that immigrants come from countries where these institutions perform poorly, so that their expectations are low (Röder & Mühlau, 2012). The mean of those born in Austria is highest for trust in the police (7.1) and they are even more trusting of the media (4.6) than of politics (4.2). The variable of trust in the police is where the means of the groups are closest – there is a 0.6 difference between the two extremes – while the interval between the minimum and maximum is wider for trust in the media and politicians (1.5 in both cases). In all categories of institutional trust, the "other countries" and Yugoslavia-born groups display the mean values with the highest levels of trust ("other countries" and Yugoslavia in order: politics: 5.7 and 5.5; police: 7.6 and 7.7; media: 5.7 and 5.6) (Figure 85).

Figure 85. Trust in police in Austria (2013) categorised by country of birth
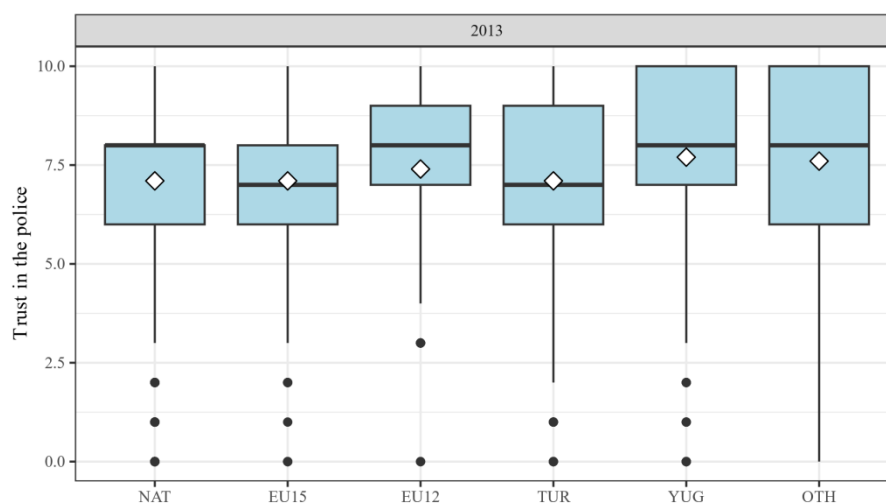
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

For the question on perceived safety, the proportion of respondents who did not answer is noteworthy. The largest proportion occurred within the "other countries" group (21.2%), while those born in Yugoslavia had the highest proportion of responses to this question (11.4% refrained from answering). The "very unsafe" response option is most prevalent within the EU12 (8.8%) group, a striking difference compared to the EU15 group (2.4%, the lowest rate). The proportion of furthter response options is balanced within the EU12 group

(19.7% a bit unsafe, 27.1% fairly safe, 26.5% very safe). The same is observed for those born in Türkiye (21.8% – 26.7% – 26.5%). Within the "other countries" group, the most common responses are fairly safe (33.9%) and very safe (25.7%), similar to those born in Austria (33% and 38.1%). The proportion of those feeling "a bit unsafe" is lower for the Austrian-born group than for the "other countries" group. The EU15 group has the highest perception of safety, with 41.7% responding that they felt very safe when walking around their neighbourhood (Figure 86).

Figure 86. Population shares according to perceived safety in Austria (2013) categorised by country of birth
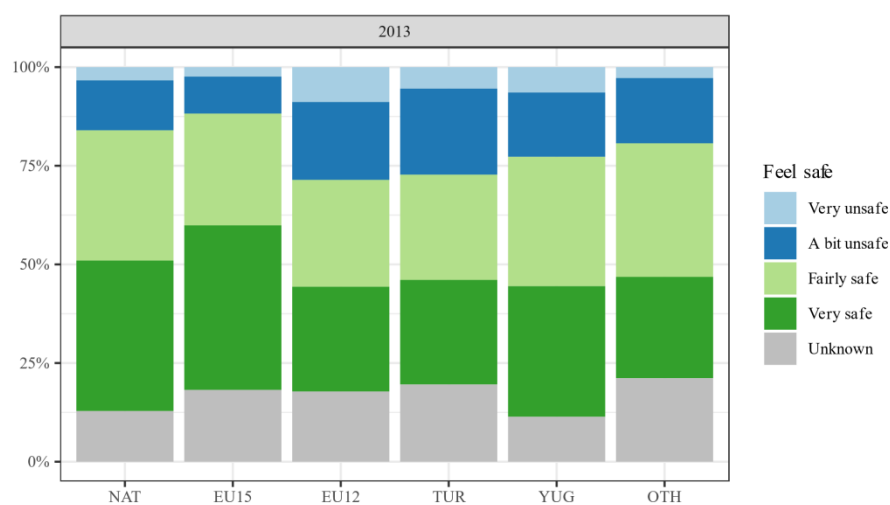
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

6.4   Subjective well-being

6.4.1   Evaluative well-being (life satisfaction)

In terms of overall satisfaction, the EU15 population displayed the highest mean scores in 2013 and 2018 (8 and 8.2 respectively). There has also been a similar increase of 0.2% for the Austrian-born population (7.9 – 8.1), maintaining their second place. All other groups, with the exception of the group born in Yugoslavia, have also seen an improvement, with a higher increase than that of the EU15 and Austrian-born groups. The "other countries" group had experienced an increase of 0.5 (from 7.3 to 7.8), while the EU12 (7.1 – 7.7) and the group born in Türkiye (6.2 – 6.8) both recorded an increase of 0.6. Although the mean satisfaction of the group born in Yugoslavia remained higher in 2018 (7) than that of the group born in Türkiye, the trend that the mean satisfaction of this group has fallen by 0.2 and that the gap with Türkiye has narrowed by 0.8 is worrying (Figure 87).

Figure 87. Overall satisfaction in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
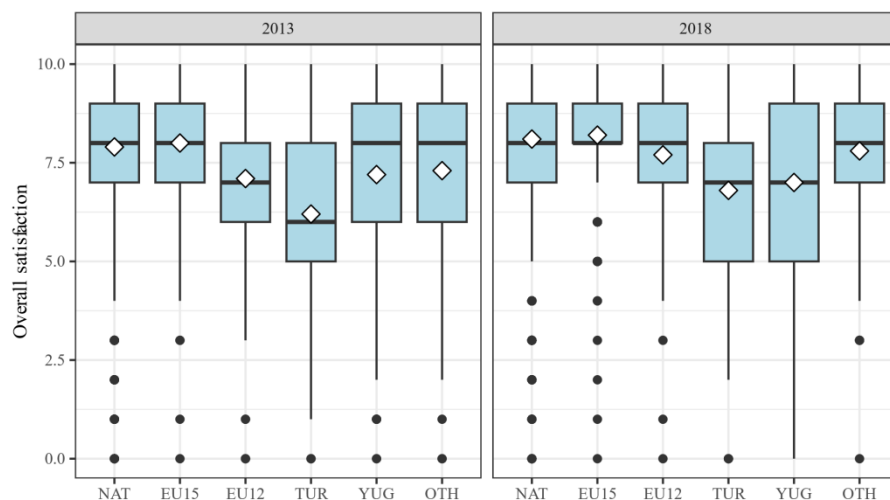
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

We have also analysed the domains with which each group was most satisfied according to the two data sets (2013 and 2018). This shows that in 2013, satisfaction with the living environment and social relations ranked highest. Second last in all groups is satisfaction with time use, while satisfaction with finances ranked last altogether. The low satisfaction with finances correlates with the results of previous research (e.g. Delhey, 2004), also covering Austria. The intermediate rankings are shared by satisfaction with commuting time, green spaces, accommodation, and employment. It is interesting to note that for those born in Austria, green space is ranked third and employment sixth, while for those born in Yugoslavia, the reverse is true.

In 2013, fewer subjective domains were surveyed. Two clusters are observed, the Austrian-born group and the EU15, where satisfaction with finances is higher than satisfaction with time use for 2018. Admittedly, the difference is minimal, only 0.1 and 0.2 respectively. All other groups show the same order of satisfaction with time and then finances as in 2013. In the absence of questions on living environment and green spaces, the order of relationships and employment is quite clear.

Although the low number of items in this sample means that we cannot make any confident statements about gender differences, it is still worthwhile to talk about them, as there may be gender gaps within each group that could be useful for policy-making purposes. Research by Özlü-Erkilic and colleagues (2015) within the Turkish community in Vienna showed that men display higher satisfaction in areas such as health, income, and relationships, while the reverse is true for work, friends, and housing conditions, to the benefit of Turkish women.

6.4.2   Affective well-being

There are no major differences in the happiness levels of each group. In 2013, there was only a 0.4 difference between the highest groups (born in Austria, EU15, and "other countries" – 3.8) and the lowest (born in Türkiye – 3.4), but by 2018, the difference had decreased to 0.3 (being the difference between 3.9 for those born in Austria and 3.6 for those born in Yugoslavia). Mean happiness levels have stagnated for the EU15 and the "other countries" group but increased for the remaining groups. The largest increase (0.3) is observed for those born in Türkiye. In their case, the proportion of those who are happy most of the time or all of the time has increased by 21% (Figure 88).

Figure 88. Happiness levels in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
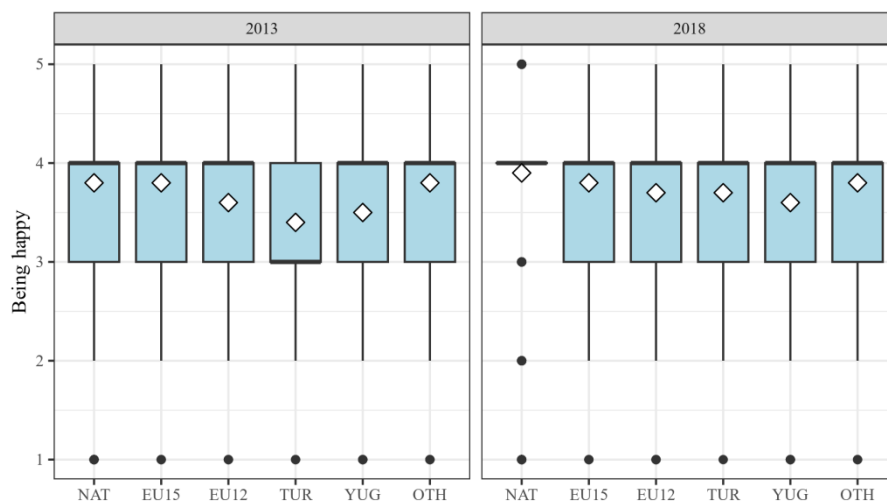
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

For the question on calmness and relaxation, similar values are observed as for happiness. Here, however, most of the groups have stagnated, with only the EU12 group showing an increase in mean (from 3.6 to 3.7), while the mean for the "other countries" group had decreased (from 3.8 to 3.6). Although there was a large increase in happiness, this was not observed for calmness within the group born in Türkiye, and they are still the group with the lowest mean as in 2013 (3.4). Only 53.79% of the group born in Türkiye were calm most of the time or all of the time. The group born in Austria and the EU15 had the highest mean in 2018 (3.8) (Figure 89).

Figure 89. Calmness levels in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
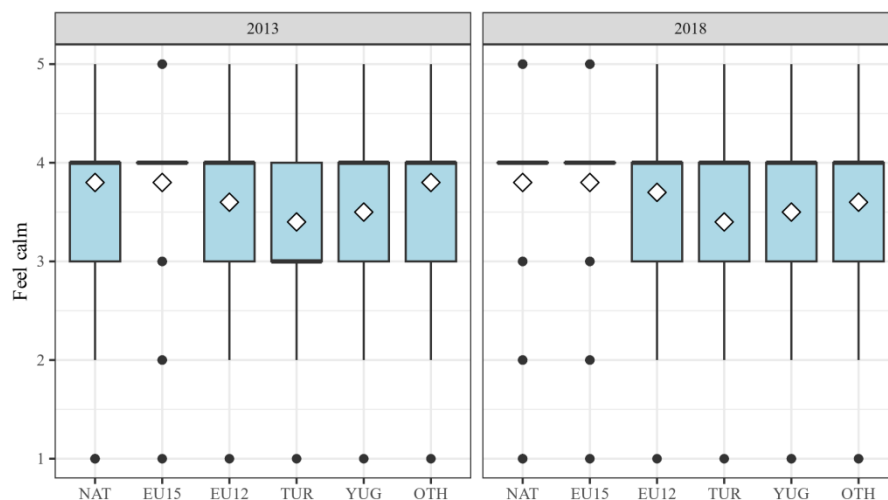
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

Among the negative affective states, the highest mean scores were found for nervousness, which is therefore the most common problem. The previously observed increase in calmness is accompanied by a decrease in nervousness for the EU12 group (from 2.6 to 2.4), which is close to the best values for the group born in Austria (2.2), the EU15 and the "other countries" group (2.3). The group born in Türkiye and Yugoslavia display the worst values in both 2013 and 2018, but while the former shows a decrease (from 2.7 to 2.6), the latter stagnates (2.8). The highest rates of being most or constantly nervous are not found among those born in Türkiye (14.48%) but among those born in Yugoslavia (18.08%). The EU15 is the only group where there has been an increase, with a rate of 0.1. In this group, feelings of depression and downheartedness had stagnated over five years, with a stable mean score of 2, which is still a good result. The lowest mean is 1.9, measured in 2018 for the groups born in Austria and in the EU12. In the latter group, this is a big leap compared to 2013, with a decrease of 0.4. A similar decrease of 0.3 is observed within the group born in Türkiye, but their value of 2.3 remains the lowest, although they have already caught up with the stagnating Yugoslavian group (Figure 90).

Figure 90. Nervousness levels in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
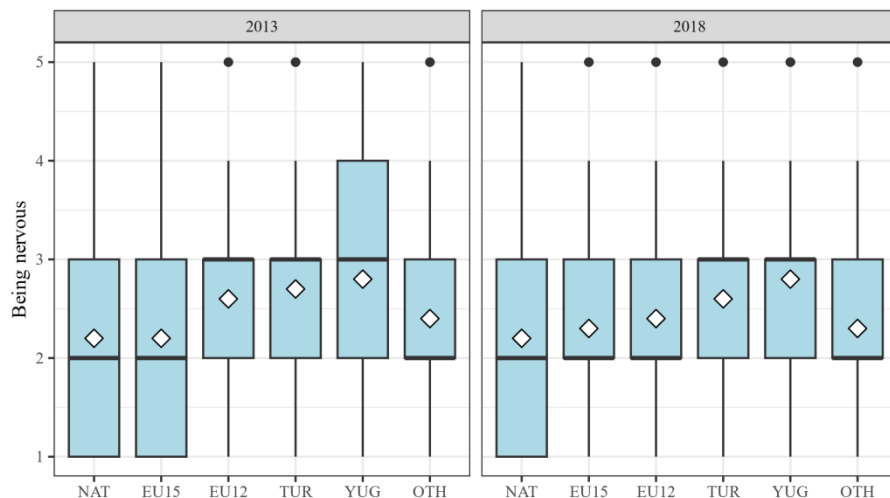
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

In percentage terms, the proportion of people who were depressed most of the time or always has decreased from 14.97% to 8.96%. For those born in Yugoslavia, it has changed from 13.69% to 11.43% in five years (representing a mere 2.26% drop) (Figure 91).

Figure 91. Levels of feeling downhearted in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
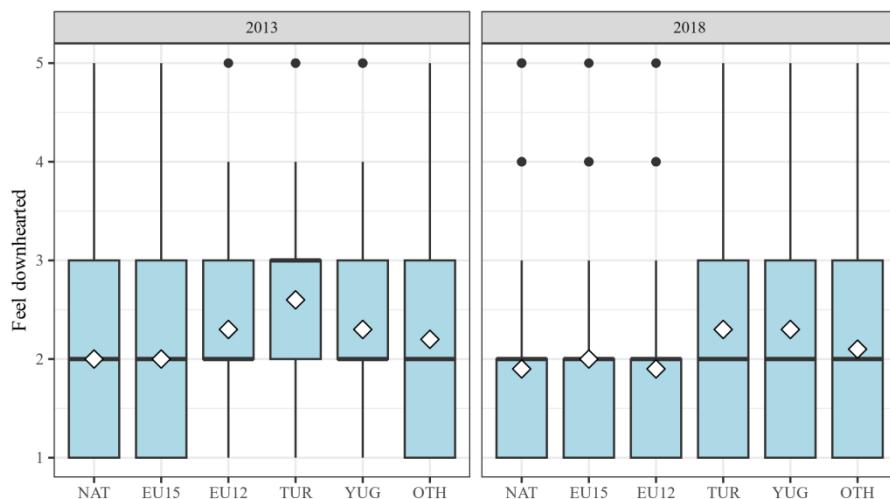
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

The least typical negative affect is feeling down in the dumps. In the case of this variable, an improving trend characteristic of the group born in the EU12 (from 2.1 to 1.7) and Türkiye (from 2.4 to 1.9) can be observed, while unfavourable processes are observable for those born in Yugoslavia (the mean increased from 2.1 to 2.2 and the proportion of those who were down most of the time or always has increased from 9.81% to 9.96%). Feeling down characterised

the group born in Austria the least in both years under scrutiny (the mean scores were 1.8 and 1.6); in 2018 the proportion of people who were in such a state most of the time or always comprised only 3.28% (Figure 92).

Figure 92. Levels of feeling down in Austria (2013 and 2018) categorised by country of birth
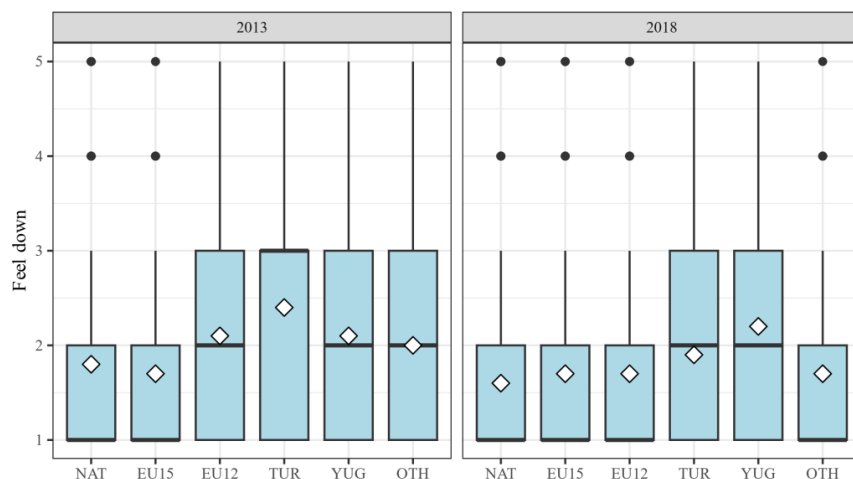
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

The loneliness variable was only included in the 2018 survey, on the basis of which an order was created in line with the previous findings, namely: born in Austria (1.5), EU15, EU12, and the "other countries" group with the same value (1.6), those born in Türkiye (1.7), followed by the group born in Yugoslavia with a wide gap (2). Among those born in Austria, 2.77% are lonely most of the time or always, while this proportion is 11.07% among those born in Yugoslavia (Figure 93).

Figure 93. Loneliness levels in Austria (2018) categorised by country of birth
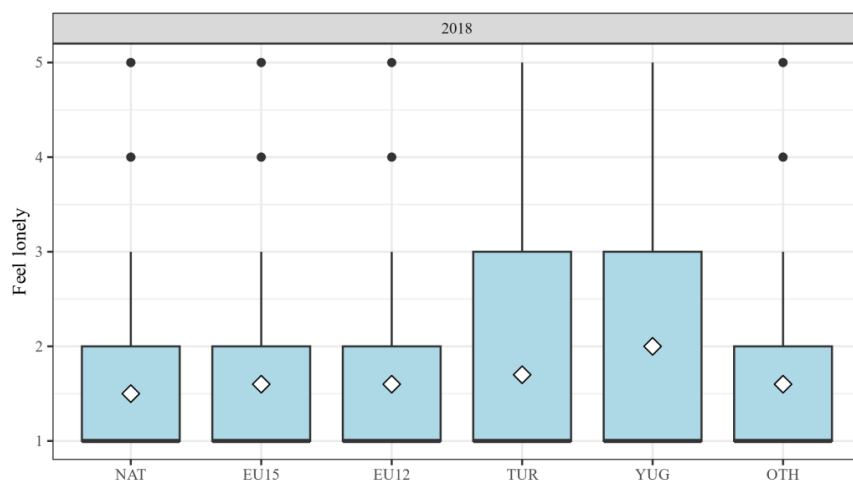
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

6.4.3 Eudaimonic well-being

The questions about eudaimonic well-being were only included in the 2013 survey, so that it is not possible to establish improving, stagnant, or deteriorating trends. Looking at the means, the group born in Austria (8) is the most likely to think that the things they do in their lives have meaning. They are followed by the EU15 (7.8) and EU12 (7.5) groups. The group born in Yugoslavia is interesting from the point of view that although their mean is low (7.3), the 75% quantile value is 10 (the only other group where this occurs is the group born in Austria) and the proportion of non-responders is low too (10.3%). Those born in Türkiye (7.1) have the lowest mean value, as with the majority of the subjective variables, but from the previous results it can be assumed that by 2018, this position in the ranking would be different. Only 45.9% of those born in Türkiye answered with a value of 8, 9 or 10, compared to 62.05% of those born in Austria (Figure 94).

Figure 94. Perceptions on meaning of life in Austria (2013) categorised by country of birth
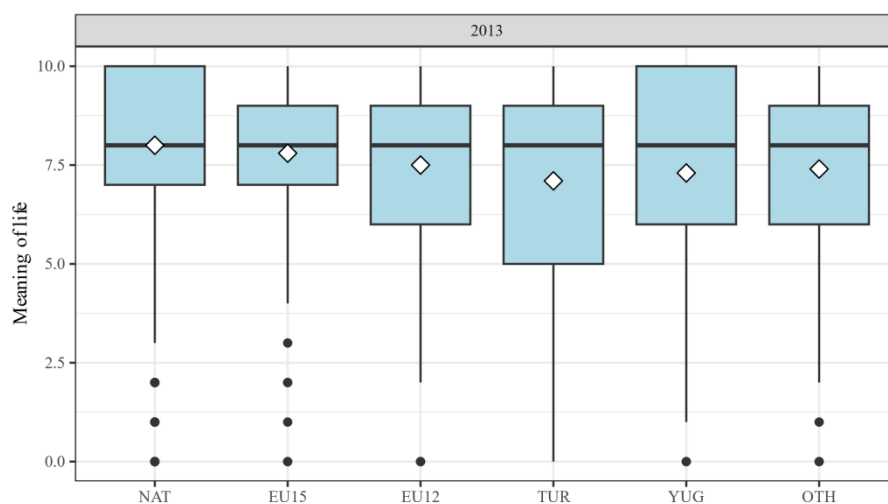
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

In terms of optimism, the race for the lead is close: the EU15 group has the highest value (4), but the pack consisting of the group born in Austria, the EU15, and the "other countries" group lags behind only 0.1 points, with a score of 3.9. The lowest value (3.6) belongs to the group of people born in Türkiye in this category, too (Figure 95).

The same can be established in the case of the free life variable for the born in Türkiye group, where their value is 3.9. In the case of this question, there is a different pattern for those born in Yugoslavia, as their value of 4.2 is the same as that of the EU12 group and higher than that of the "other countries" group at 4.1. The highest value is scored by the Austrian group (4.4) (Figure 96).

Figure 95. Perceptions on optimism in Austria (2013) categorised by country of birth
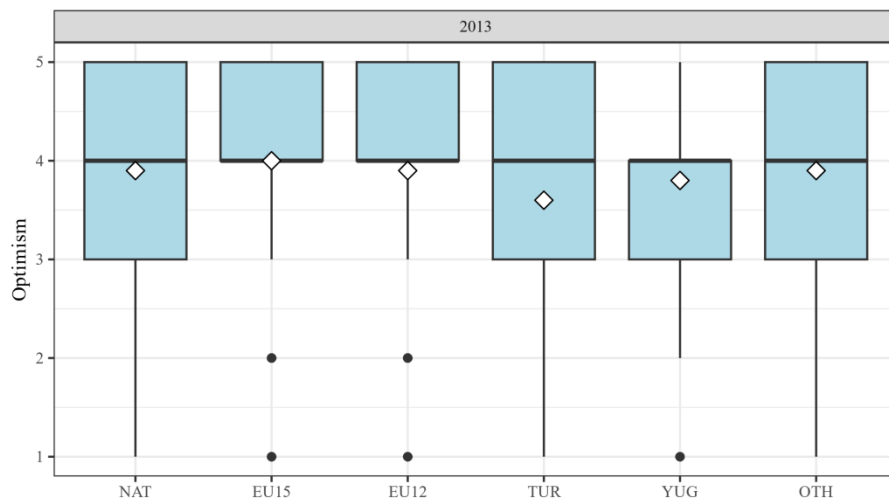
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

Figure 96. Perceptions on free life in Austria (2013) categorised by country of birth
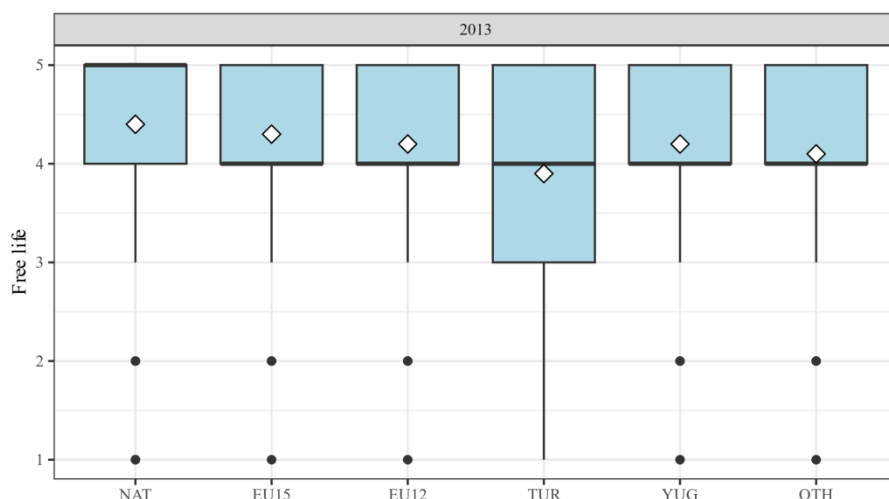
Source of data: Eurostat microdata

7. Objective and subjective well-being differences between potential stayers and potential migrants in Hungary

As a proxy indicator of future migration, we will analyse migration intentions in the following. In order to understand motivations to migrate from Hungary better, those with no intentions to migrate will be compared to those who intend to migrate in the future along several indicators of objective and subjective well-being based on the 2016 Hungarian Microcensus data. Intention to migrate (or "migration potential") is defined as the intention or plan to work abroad or to emigrate within the following two years. Although migration

intention is just a proxy indicator, it proved to be the most important factor in increasing the chances of migration behaviour, and it can be considered a "statistically significant predictor of actual migration" (Gödri-Feleky 2017).

Indeed, migration can be considered a multi-stage process that begins with the consideration of migration, followed by concrete planning, and eventually moving. Analysing the early phases of this process allows us to grasp the main dimensions of selection: the socio-demographic characteristics of these populations and their differences in terms of objective and subjective well-being that seem to be an important driver both of intentions and of migration itself (Gödri-Feleky 2017).

There are several ways to measure migration intentions, the 2016 Hungarian microcensus measured it through the question: "Do you plan to move abroad in the next two years for work, study, or other reasons?" to which respondents could answer "no" (86,5%), "I don't know" (5,7%) or "yes" (6,3%). In the following, the latter two options will be dealt with as indicators of different levels of intensity of migration considerations, the first standing for still hesitant stances and the second for more firm positions. The two combined concerns 12% of the Hungarian population (Figure 97).

Figure 97. Migration intentions in Hungary in 2016
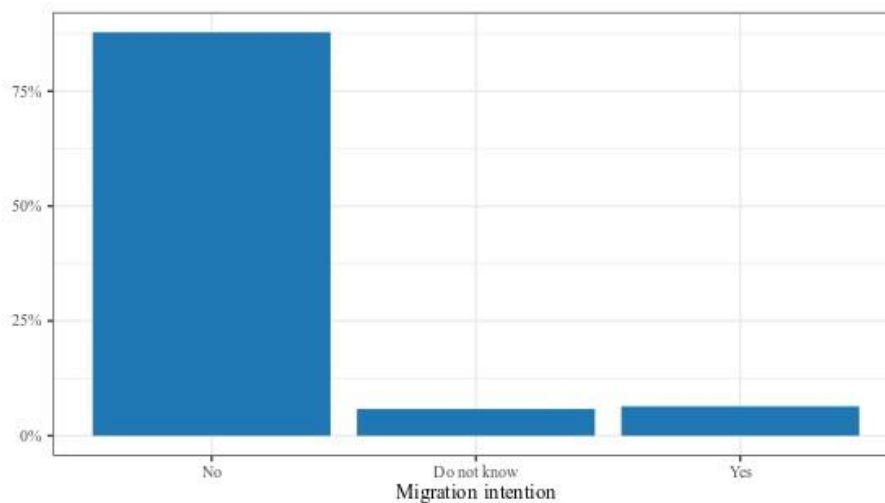
Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

7.1. Socio-demographic characteristics

Previous studies have already confirmed that migration potential is higher among more educated younger men from urban areas (e.g. Sik 2018). According to the 2016 microcensus data, there are indeed slightly more men (55%) among the people not rejecting the idea to

move abroad in the upcoming future, while at 54%, those definitely declining such plans slightly more frequently tend to be women (Figure 98).

Figure 98. Migration intention by gender (Hungary 2016)
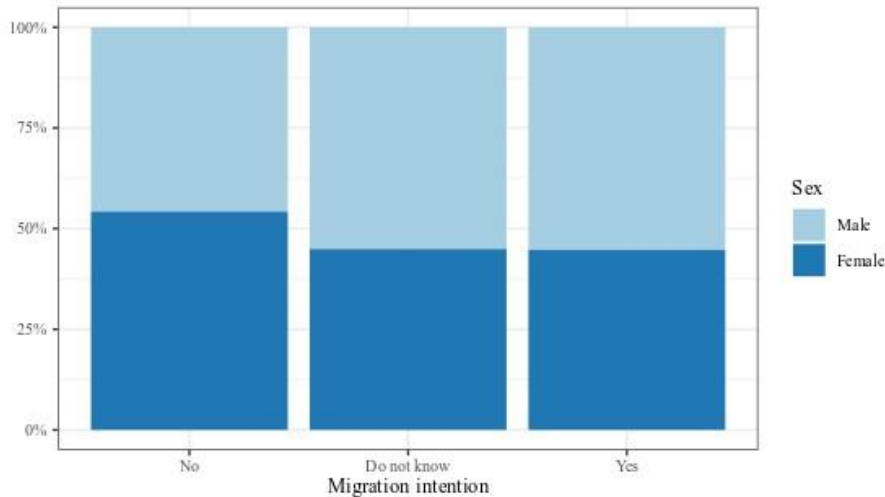
Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

People with migration potential are indeed younger, too: while the average age of people having plans of moving abroad, or at least not rejecting the idea, was 34 years, the average age of „stayers" was 50 years (Figure 99).

Figure 99. Migration intention by average age (Hungary 2016)
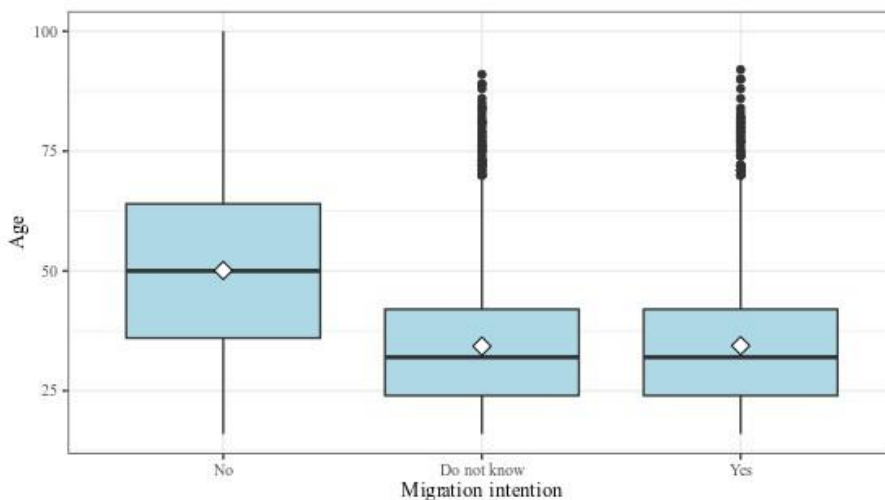
Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

There is a geographical selection of potential migrants as well: a higher share is from Budapest than is the case among potential stayers (25% vs 17%). Similarly, a higher share of potential movers stems from densely populated urban areas (47% vs 34%). It is not clear whether it is the geographical location or the level of urbanisation that is at the root of these differences (Figure 100, 101).

Figure 100. Migration intention by regional distribution (Hungary 2016)
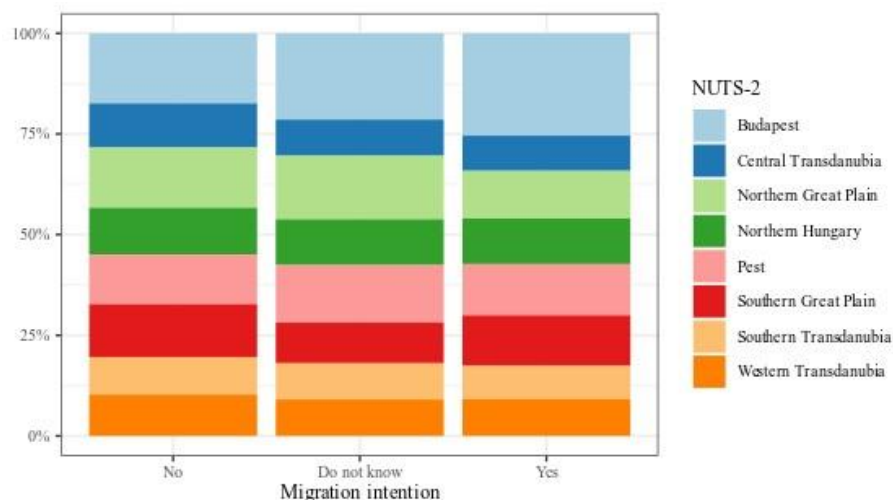
Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

Figure 101. Migration intention by degree of urbanisation (Hungary 2016)
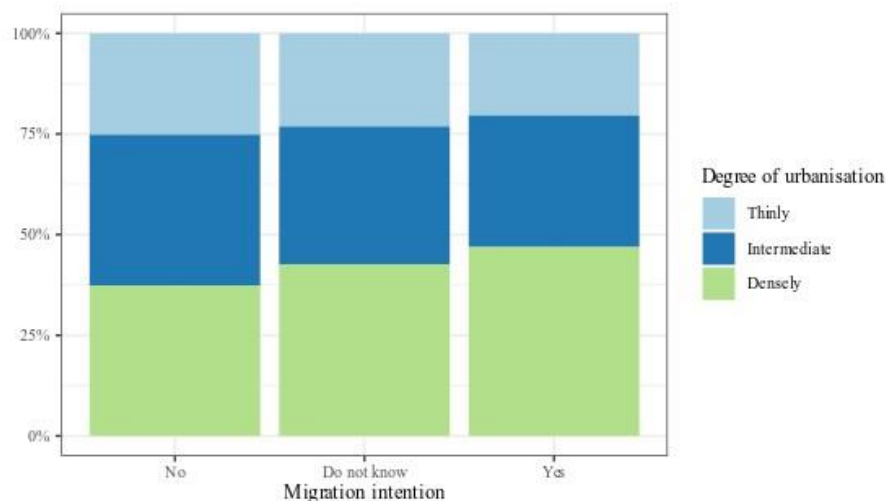
Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

7.2. Material factors

In line with the results suggested by previous studies and with the fact that potential migrants are younger, the share of students among them is higher than among stayers (14.4% vs 4.9%) and the share of retired people is much lower (4% vs 29%). Employees constitute the majority of potential movers or those who do not discard the idea of moving (60-62% vs 49% among stayers). Negative social positions can also be a motivation to move (Sik 2018), as the share of unemployed is also higher among them (5-6% vs 3%) (Figure 102).

Figure 102. Migration intention by current economic status (Hungary 2016)
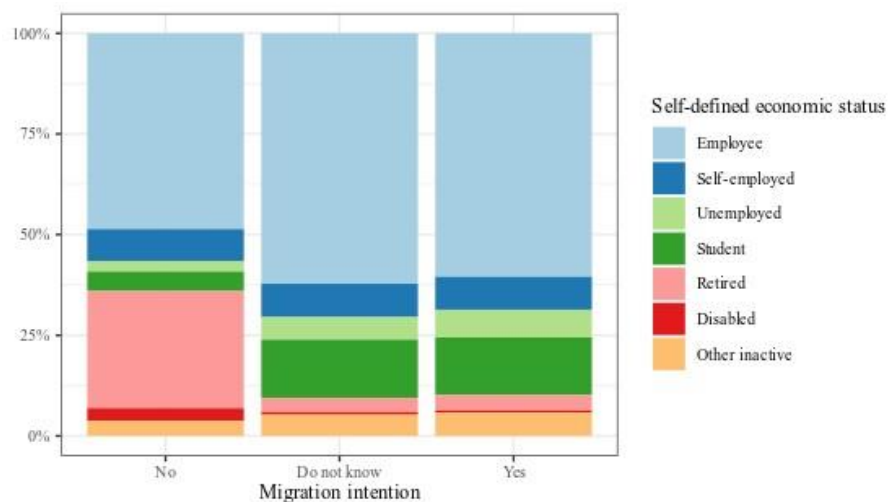
Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

Figure 103. Migration intention by highest level of education (Hungary 2016)
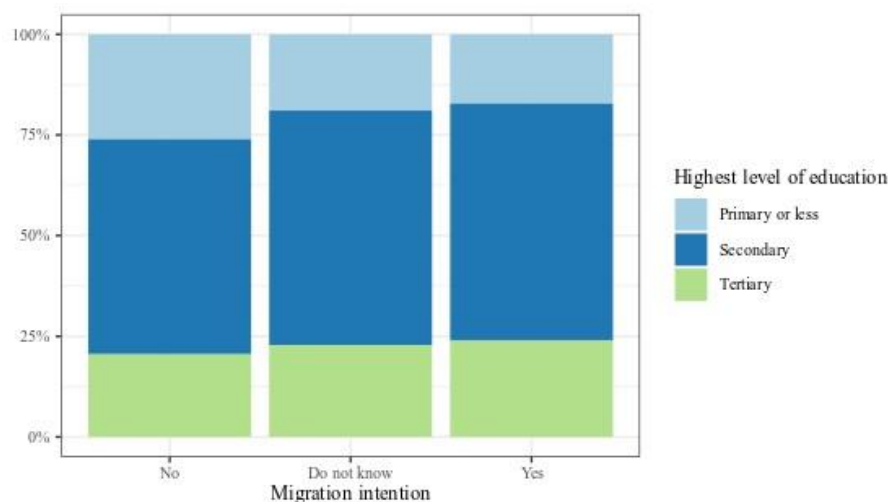
Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

Furthermore, potential migrants are better educated than stayers: while the majority of them has a secondary education (59% among movers as opposed to 53% among stayers), the share of people with a tertiary education is also higher (24% vs 20%), while elementary education is lower among them (17% vs 26%) (Figure 103).

This way, in terms of socio-demographic characteristics, potential migrants or indecisive people have a similar profile (more men, better educated and younger people from urban areas), both differing from potential stayers.

7.3. Immaterial factors

7.3.1. Health status

Differences in the health condition of the different target groups might be due to differences in age as well: stayers who are older on average are more likely to suffer from some kind of limitations due to health problems (18%) than either movers (9%) or those undecided on the matter (7%). All in all, those planning to move abroad or at least not discarding the idea are in a better health condition than the other respondents (Figure 104).

Figure 104. Migration intention by percentage of people declaring to be strongly or otherwise limited in their everyday activities due to their health condition (Hungary 2016)
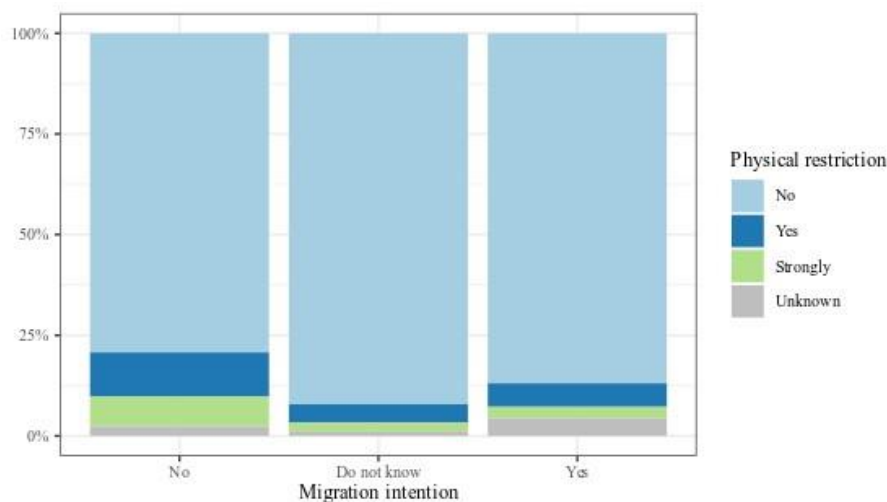
Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

Microcensus question: "For at least the past six months, to what extent have you been limited because of a health problem in activities people usually do? Would you say you have been …"

7.3.2. Social connections

Previous studies suggested that single people are more likely to have migration plans and to carry these plans through (e.g. Sik 2018). Indeed, microcensus data confirm that a higher

share of those who are planning to move abroad and those who are undecided do not have a partner (57%), while only 40% of stayers are in a similar situation. On the other hand, there was no difference in the average household size among the different target groups: each group displayed an average household size of 3 persons. Similarly, there was no difference in terms of the number of children in the households (Figure 105).

Figure 105. Migration intention by share of respondents living with a partner (Hungary 2016)
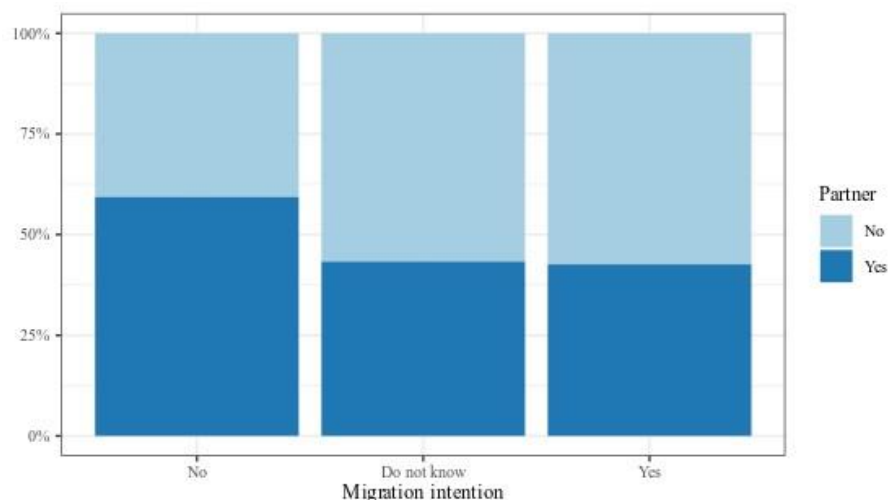
Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

The level of trust towards other people is a measure of social capital, which eventually influences both individual well-being and migration intentions. Microcensus data, however, do not show important differences between the different target groups in this respect (Figure 106).

Figure 106. Migration intention by mean values of trust in other people (Hungary 2016)
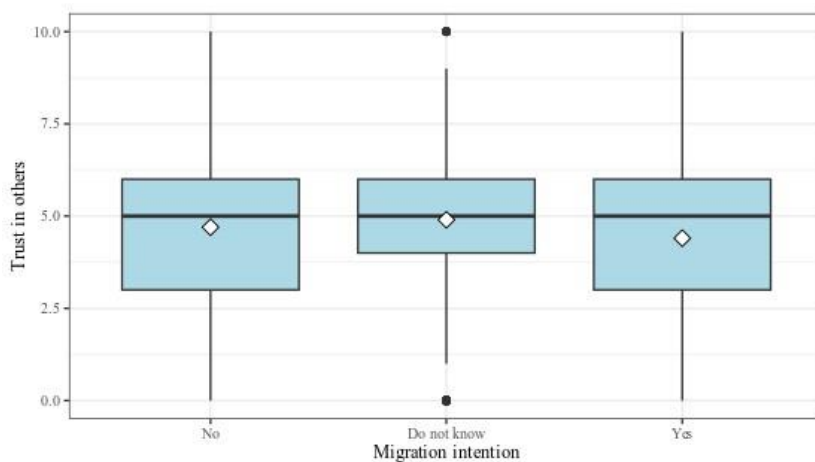
Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

7.3.3. Security

The perception of safety, how much one feels safe or unsafe, is also related to well-being and eventually to migration intentions . According to 2016 microcensus data, and considering the different target groups, the main, but still small, difference was between those who have migration plans and those who are undecided, with the latter feeling safer (73% of them feeling fairly or very safe as opposed to 67% of the former group). It seems that feeling less safe contributed to more defined migration plans. It also seems that those with migration plans have slightly more polarised attitudes on the matter than the other groups, with the highest share of people feeling very safe is found within that group (21%) (Figure 107).

Figure 107. Migration intention by subjective feeling of security (Hungary 2016)
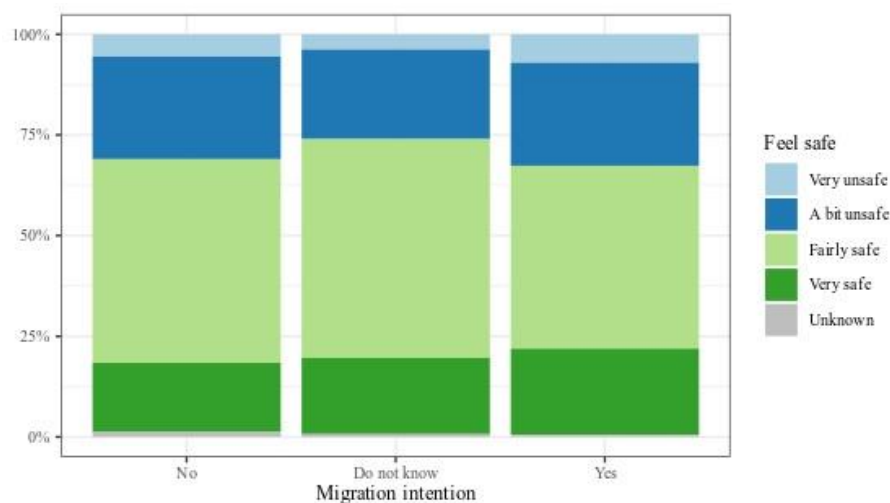
Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

7.3.4. Trust in institutions

The level of trust in institutions also constitutes a difference between those who plan to move abroad and those who are undecided, the latter generally having a lower level of trust. In general, people trust the military armed forces most, followed by the police, while the legal and the political system generate the least trust. The latter two institutions are significantly less trusted among those with migration intentions (Figure 108, Table 12).

Figure 108. Migration intention by mean values of trust in institutions (0-10 scale) (Hungary 2016)
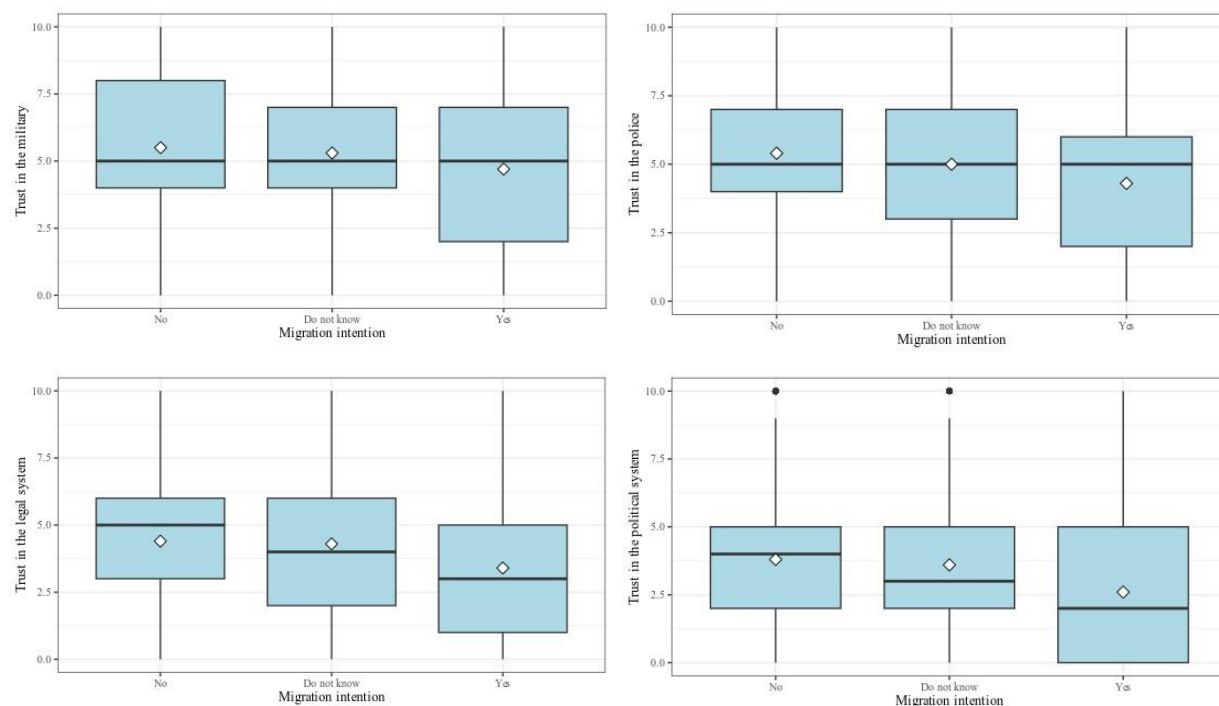
Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

Table 12. Trust in institutions: Migration intention by mean values (0-10 scale) (Hungary 2016)

Trust in…	Migration intention		
	No	Do not know	Yes
the military	5.5	5.3	4.7
the police	5.4	5.0	4.3
the legal system	4.4	4.3	3.4
the political system	3.8	3.6	2.6

7.4. Experiences of migration

Beside the reviewed elements, previous migration experiences are very important determinants of further migration intention. This experience can be either direct, when one has already lived abroad, or indirect, when someone from one's immediate network is living abroad. Indeed, a gradual increase of the share of people with such experiences across the different target groups is seen from the data: while only 5.6% of stayers have lived abroad in the past or 4.5% have a relative living abroad, 11.6% of those planning to move have lived abroad before and 10.6% of them have a relative living abroad (Figure 109, 110).

The knowledge accumulated by people while living abroad is of key importance for future migration: as the amount of time spent abroad increases, the uncertainty related to moving is reduced. Another element of these experiences is the network surrounding the individual, which is fundamental to the migration decision, to the preparation, and to the implementation of emigration. The term "migration bubble" or "migration envelope" has been proposed in previous studies for such personal relations (Sik 2018).

Figure 109. Migration intention by direct experiences with migration (Hungary 2016)
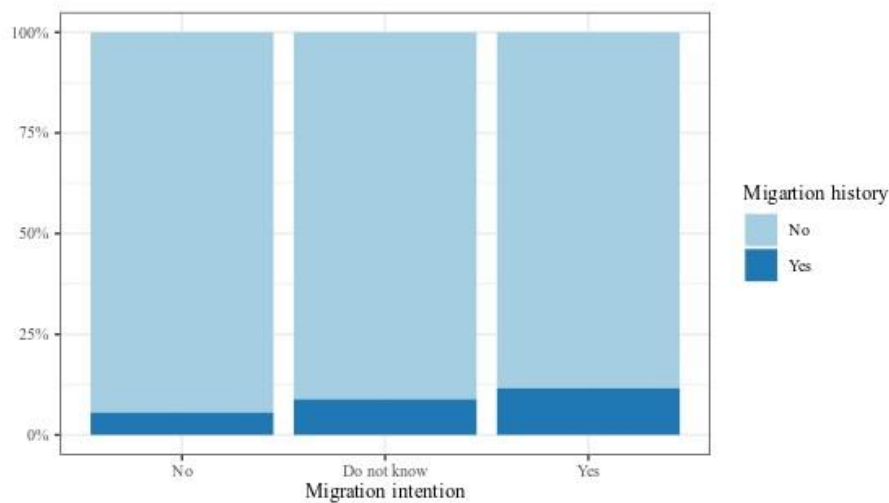
Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

Figure 110. Migration intention by indirect experiences with migration (Hungary 2016)
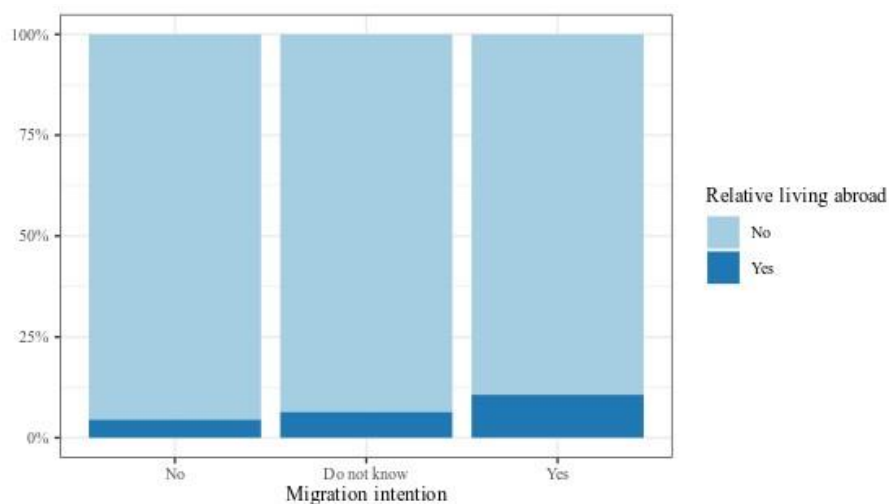
Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

7.5. Subjective well-being

7.5.1. Evaluative well-being (overall life satisfaction)

In terms of the evaluative elements of subjective well-being, there is a difference between those who would stay, those who are undecided, and those who are planning to move abroad. Those who would stay and those are undecided reported similar levels of overall satisfaction and across the different domains, while those with migration intentions were less satisfied, especially with personal incomes. The only exception was satisfaction with personal health: on average, while representing a younger population, the indecisive and the mover groups were both more satisfied with their health than those who had decided to stay. Beside different levels of satisfaction with health, those who didn't know whether they would move were also the most satisfied group out of the three with their life in general, pointing to an eventual lack of motivation to move abroad. Overall satisfaction was 6.7 on average in their case (on a scale of 0-10), while it was 6.4 in the case of stayers and 6.1 for those intending to migrate (Table 13, Figure 111).

Table 13. Migration intention by satisfaction with different aspects of life: mean values on a 0-10 scale (Hungary 2016)

Satisfaction with…	Migration intention		
	No	Do not know	Yes
personal income	5.2	5.1	4.4
financial situation of the household	5.8	5.9	5.3
accommodation	7.0	6.9	6.5
job	6.9	6.7	6.2
health	6.5	7.6	7.2
personal relationships	7.3	7.5	7.2
living environment	6.9	6.8	6.4
commuting environment	6.1	6.3	6.0
time use	5.9	5.8	5.4
Overall satisfaction	6.4	6.7	6.1

Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

Figure 111. Migration intention by mean values of satisfaction with different aspects of life on a 0-10 scale (Hungary 2016)
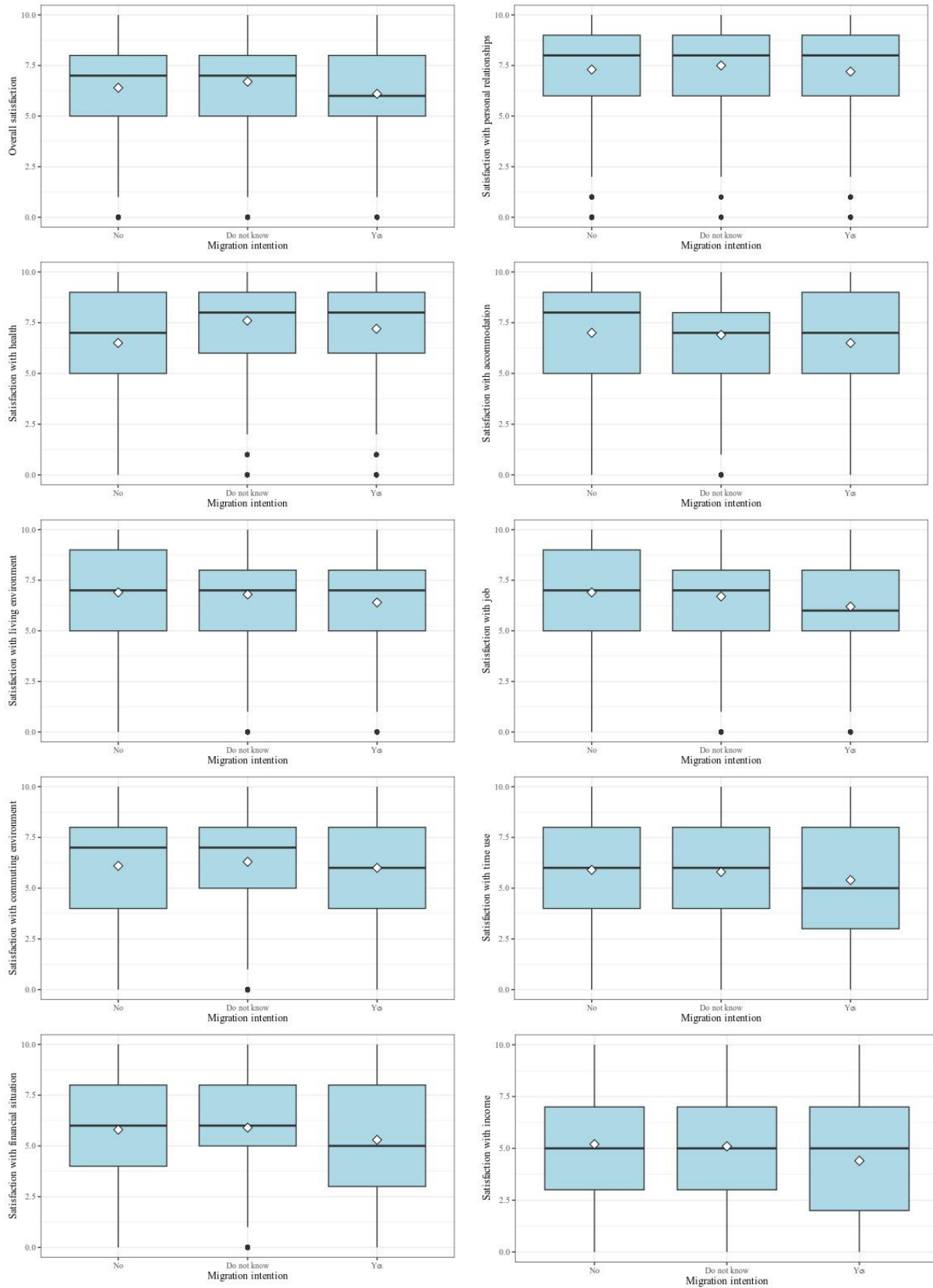
Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

7.5.2. Affective well-being

There was no notable difference between the level of affective well-being of the different target groups. It seems that affective well-being had no influence on intentions to move abroad. Nevertheless, although the average level of happiness was similar to that of the other groups, there was much less variance in the degree of happiness among those who did not know whether they would migrate. On the other hand, although the average levels of reported stress were similar, its variance was much more marked among those who planned to move abroad (Figure 112, Table 14).

Figure 112. Migration intention by mean values of affective well-being on a 1-5 scale (Hungary 2016)
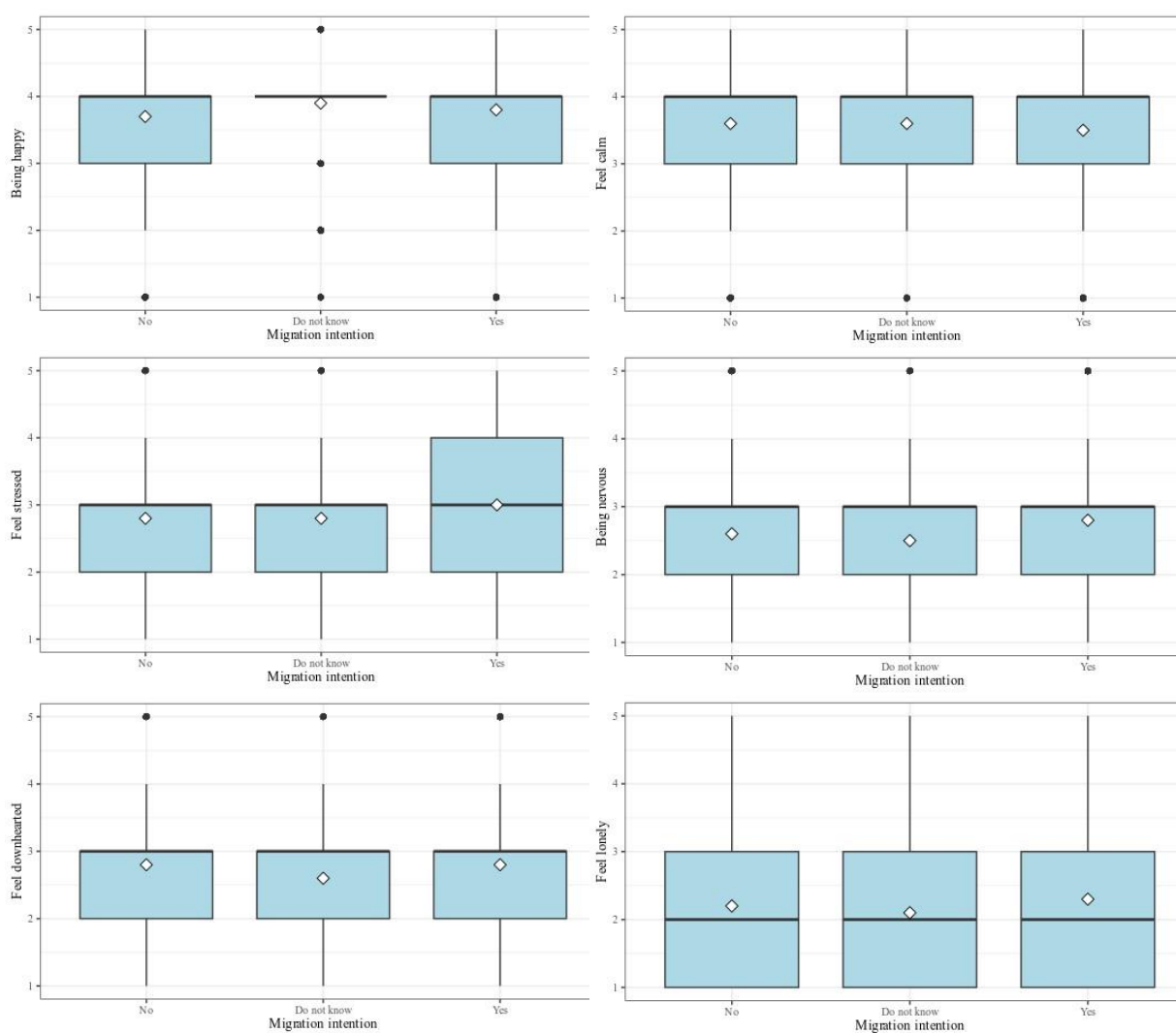
Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

Table 14. Migration intention by affective well-being: mean values on a 1-5 scale (Hungary 2016)

How much of the time over the past four weeks: Have you been...	Migration intention		
	No	**Do not know**	**Yes**
Happy	3.7	3.9	3.8
Feeling calm	3.6	3.6	3.5
Feeling stressed	2.8	2.8	3.0
Nervous	2.6	2.5	2.8
Feeling downhearted	2.8	2.6	2.8
Feeling lonely	2.2	2.1	2.3

Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

7.5.3. Eudaimonic well-being

In terms of having a life worth living on a scale of 0-10, people who wouldn't move abroad had an average score of 7.1. Those who didn't know whether they would move had a very similar score of 7.2, while people who would move abroad scored slightly lower at 6.9, with a higher variance than in the case of the previous groups. Accordingly, people who intend to migrate were slightly less convinced that they were leading a life that is worth living (Figure 113).

Figure 113. Migration intention by subjective feeling that life is worthwhile: mean values on a 1-10 scale (Hungary 2016)
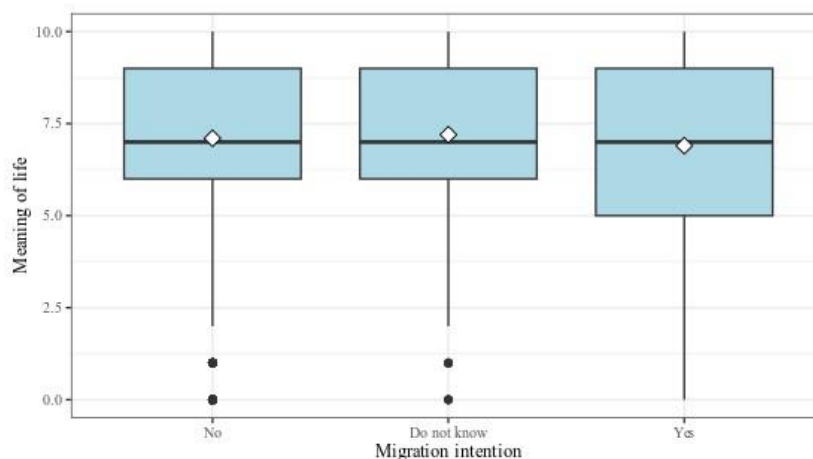
Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

The category of optimism, measured on a similar 0-10 scale, reveals somewhat different tendencies. While stayers scored 6.0 on average, the highest degree of optimism was reported by those who were undecided, with an average score of 6.5. Those with migration intentions scored the lowest at an average of 5.8, again with a higher variance (Figure 114).

Figure 114. Migration intention by optimism: mean values on a 1-10 scale (Hungary 2016)
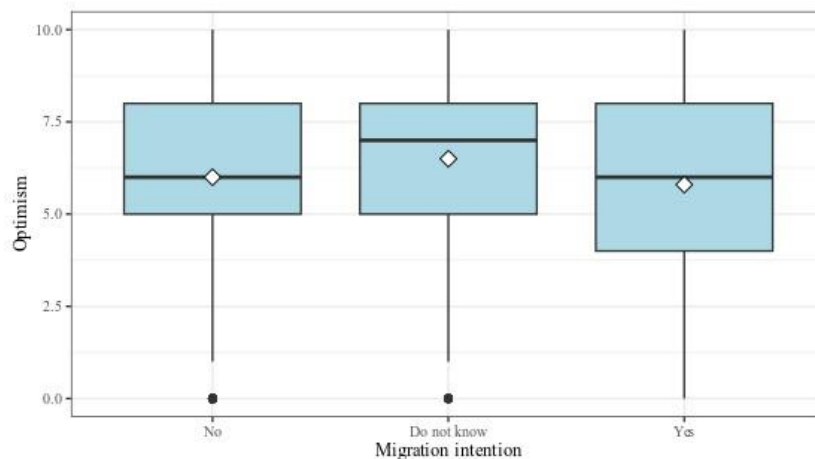
Source of data: Hungarian microcensus

It seems that there is a younger, male-dominated, more educated, and rather urbanised group of people among which it is the level of perceived safety, trust in the legal and political system, satisfaction with different domains of life (especially with personal incomes), and optimism that decides whether they report intentions of migration or remain indecisive about it. People with lower levels of perceived safety, trust, satisfaction, and optimism are the ones that have better defined migration plans. They are also more likely to have previous direct or indirect experiences with migration.

8. The drivers of subjective well-being

8.1 Subjective well-being drivers in Austria

8.1.1 Variables in association with overall life satisfaction

After presenting the descriptive data, the next step is to examine the extent to which each variable is associated with subjective well-being, and more specifically, with life satisfaction. For this purpose, different models have been created using linear regression, two of which are presented in greater detail and one of which is mentioned only briefly.

It is important to emphasise that this method in itself is not capable of detecting causal relationships, but only of identifying links and correlations. Therefore, it is not possible to say whether the individual variables actually influence well-being. We can only report whether we could observe a relationship between the variable and well-being.

Model 1 and 2.

In the modelling, both the 2013 and 2018 EU-SILC samples were used, with the year variable included as a dummy variable in the model. Since many questions were only surveyed among the employed population only (e.g., number of hours worked, ISCO categories), we created two models: a model for the full sample (Model 1) and another model for the sub-sample of employed individuals (Model 2). Figure 115 is a visual representation of the results of the two main models. The model run on the full sample is shown in light blue, while the one run on the working individuals' subsample is shown in orange.

The *year* dummy variable was found to be significant, holding all other variables constant, so that, compared to 2013, a respondent has a life satisfaction surplus in 2018 of 0.111 or 0.128 (according to the two models: full sample and workers).

Socio-economic varables

Among the socio-economic variables, *age* and the squared terms for age are also significant, so that the U-shaped relationship described in the literature appears for both models. This implies that life satisfaction decreases with age, but this decrease is transformed into an increase over time. Thus, the satisfaction of younger and older people is higher than that of middle-aged individuals.

In the case of *education*, only the comparison between those with secondary and primary education reveals a significant difference for the total sample. The sub-sample of workers (9,106) comprises less than half of the total sample (19,524), making it more difficult to detect significant relationships. For the full sample, an individual with a secondary education reported a 0.067 higher well-being factor on average than an individual with a primary education. In the tertiary vs. primary level relation, this difference is 0.052, which is not significant.

There is also a highly significant *gender* difference in favour of women. For the full sample, the coefficient of the variable is 0.151, while for the workers' sample it is lower, namely 0.091.

The last socio-economic variable examined is the *number of children* under 6 years of age per household. The more children a person has, the higher his or her subjective well-being is, but the effect is negligible and not significant.

Migration-related variables

The next block contains the variables of greatest interest to the research, namely those which relate to migration by country of birth. The results show that, when contrasted with having been born in Austria, all other categories are associated with lower life satisfaction. Although the coefficients for the EU15 and the "other countries" groups are negative for the full sample

as well as for the worker sample, their value is minimal and cannot be considered significant, except for the "other countries" group in the model ran on the worker sample (where the coefficient is -0.167). The coefficients for the EU12 and those born in Yugoslavia are similar within the full sample. The EU12 birth background is associated with a well-being deficit of 0.224 compared to the Austrian-born group, while having been born in Yugoslavia is associated with a well-being deficit of 0.244. There is a larger difference in the worker subsample (EU12: -0.291, Yugoslavia: -0.194). Having been born in the EU12 or in Yugoslavia is therefore significantly negatively related to life satisfaction. For the group born in Türkiye, the lower subjective well-being is even more striking. For the whole sample, having been born in Türkiye is associated with a difference of 0.623, while for the workers it is associated with a difference of 0.683 compared to the Austrian-born group.

Economic status

This block contains some variables that are only and exclusively included in the model run on the full sample or only on the sample of workers. The variables related to economic status are included only in the models ran for the full sample.

Students and retired persons show a positive but non-significant difference in comparison with the reference group, i.e. the group of actively employed persons, while there is a negative, non-significant relationship for the self-employed and other inactive persons in relation to the reference group. However, if an individual is unable to work due to a disability, he/she is characterised by a 0.393 lower well-being compared to an employed person. This is significant, as is the comparison of unemployed and employed, in which case the coefficient of being unemployed is -0.51. The two variables that appear only for the group of employed persons are the number of hours worked per week and the existence of a high social status. However, neither of these is significant.

Financial situation

When considering *income*, there is no significant relationship between personal income and life satisfaction, but a positive significant relationship is found for household income. For the total sample, a 100% increase in household income is associated with a 0.019 increase in subjective well-being, while for the employee sample it is associated with a 0.038 increase.

Individuals who are in *debt* and find it somewhat or heavily burdensome to repay have, on average, lower subjective well-being than those who are debt-free. Having a somewhat burdensome credit is associated with a deficit of 0.126 for the full sample, while having a heavily burdensome credit is associated with a deficit of 0.398. For the working sub-sample, these coefficients show an even larger difference (-0.140 and -0.524). However, it is interesting to note that those who have credit but have no problem paying it have significantly higher well-being than those who do not have credit (coefficient 0.125 for the full sample and

0.114 for the working sub-sample). A possible explanation could be that credit allows these respondents to afford services and devices that improve their quality of life and happiness, and that they do not have to bear the long-term financial burden of these.

There is a strong negative correlation between *deprivation*, lack of material goods, scarcity of basic goods, and life satisfaction. On average, respondents who are considered deprived have a lower level of satisfaction by 0.676. For the sample of workers, the difference is 0.704. Both values are, of course, significant.

A *risk of exposure to poverty* is also associated with lower satisfaction, but this is only present in the full sample, and is not significant in the model run on the sub-sample of workers. However, in the full sample, those who are at risk display an 0.128-point lower level of subjective well-being on average. Low work intensity, though, is not associated with subjective well-being.

Housing conditions

Financial resources are closely linked to the condition of an individual's home and the type of neighbourhood in which they live. Two of the *housing problems* in the EU-SILC survey, environmental problems and crime, are not significantly related to life satisfaction in the models. Of the other variables that are significant, noise pollution (total sample: -0.098, working sample: -0.090) has the weakest relationship, followed by leaking within the dwellings (-0.109 and -0.135), whereas the strongest negative relationship is observable for the factor of having a dark dwelling (-0158 and -0246). In the latter case, the difference between the two samples is striking, which may also suggest that dark housing, and housing problems in general, matter more to working individuals than to students or retired people.

Considering *household size*, the presence of an extra person is associated with an increase in satisfaction of 0.042 and 0.05. This is a significant result, whereas previously the number of children under five in the household was not. The possible effects of having more children or of multigenerational families may therefore be appreciated. However, this result could also be caused by an increase in the household size from 1 to 2, in which case the variable of the partner relationship, to be presented later, could also have produced this significant effect.

Health

The next block highlights the important role of health. The results show that in comparison with very bad health, even bad health is associated with higher life satisfaction (0.513 for the full sample), and the difference is even more striking in the more favourable categories of health perception. The magnitude of the coefficients is striking compared to those presented so far. Mean subjective well-being scores are 1.174 higher for fair health, 1.809 higher for good health, and 2.321 higher for very good health compared to very poor health, based on the models run on the full sample. For the sample of workers, poor health is no longer

significant, but the others are, even if the coefficients are slightly lower (fair: 1.042, good: 1.665, very good: 2.147). There is a significant negative relationship between health-related limitations in work and life satisfaction. This was already suggested by the earlier variables related to disability and unemployment. Persons who have suffered some form of restriction have a well-being deficit of 0.116 in the full sample, and those who are severely restricted display an even higher value of 0.331. Interestingly, however, this significant role no longer appears in the sub-sample of workers.

Social relationships

In addition to health status, social relationships are among the variables that are clearly positively associated with life satisfaction. People who *have a partner* report 0.293 higher satisfaction on average. In the sample reduced to workers, this value is 0.317.

Similarly, the ability an individual to count on *financial or non-financial help* from friends or acquaintances is associated with higher life satisfaction. Those who can count on such support have a 0.33 higher subjective well-being score than those who cannot. The role of this variable is also significant among workers, albeit at a lower level of significance and with a lower coefficient (0.227).

Furthermore, those who *meet their friends* at least once a month and those who participate in *leisure activities* likewise enjoy higher life satisfaction. Of course, the latter can also be done alone, so that this category is not necessarily the best indicator of social relationships. The average satisfaction of individuals who meet their friends regularly is 0.334 higher than those who for some reason do not. For leisure activities, the difference between those who participate and those who do not is 0.289. These are significant differences, as is the case for the group of those who only work.

To conclude this block, it should be noted that higher *trust* in one's fellow human beings is positively related to life satisfaction.[21] One point higher reported trust is associated with an increase in life satisfaction of 0.117 for the full sample and 0.108 for the sub-sample of workers.

Spatial factors

In the last block, we examined whether there are significant differences between *federal provinces in Austria*. Compared with Burgenland – the reference point – a only two provinces show significant differences, both in the positive direction. Living in Tirol compared to Burgenland causes a difference of 0.18, while living in Salzburg leads to a gap of 0.185.

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[21] A study by Glatz and Bodi-Fernandez (2020) in Austria showed that trust only has an effect in urban areas and not in rural regions.

These differences are only significant for the full sample, not for the sample restricted to workers.

For the *residential environment* variable, the reference point was the sparsely populated rural area. In comparison, living in a moderately densely populated environment is associated with higher subjective well-being. With a value of 0.053 (full sample) and 0.061 (workers), the difference is significant. However, the difference between densely populated areas and sparsely populated settlements is not significant, but it should be noted that a negative coefficient appears for densely populated settlements. The results show that those living in medium-density settlements are characterised by the highest levels of satisfaction, while those living at the two extremes of the settlement hierarchy are associated with lower levels of subjective well-being.

Model 3.

As shown in the descriptive analysis, several variables were only available for the year 2013. These variables could not be included in the two models presented so far. Consequently, we created a third model in which we limited the sample only to those who participated in the 2013 survey.

There is a positive relationship between higher satisfaction and the question whether an individual has someone with whom they can *discuss their personal issues*. The coefficient of this variable (0.49) is higher in this model than the variables of meeting friends, having a partner, or being able to ask for help. However, this is not a causal effect, so the link may also be due to the fact that those who are more satisfied with their lives have a higher proportion of people to whom they can talk about their problems.

A positive relationship is found not only for trust in people, but also for *trust in institutions*. Higher levels of trust in authorities, politics, and the police are significantly positively related to life satisfaction. However, the magnitude of these coefficients is below that for trust in people (the closest being trust in the police).

The role of *security* appears as an external factor. Compared to the benchmark (feeling very unsafe), feeling a little unsafe (coefficient 0.143) and feeling very safe (0.196) indicate a significant difference, positively associated with higher life satisfaction. However, it is interesting that the third level, the response "I feel fairly safe", is not significant (although it is also positive). Crime, on the other hand, is significant in this model for neighbourhood problems, which was not significant in the previous two models. Moreover, the coefficient points in the opposite direction as would be expected, with those who live in crime-ridden areas displaying higher satisfaction. Finally, significantly lower life satisfaction is observed for those who are looked down upon because of their job. The coefficient is -0.182.

Figure 115. Visual representation of the coefficients and the standard errors for the two main regression models, treating overall life satisfaction as the dependent variable
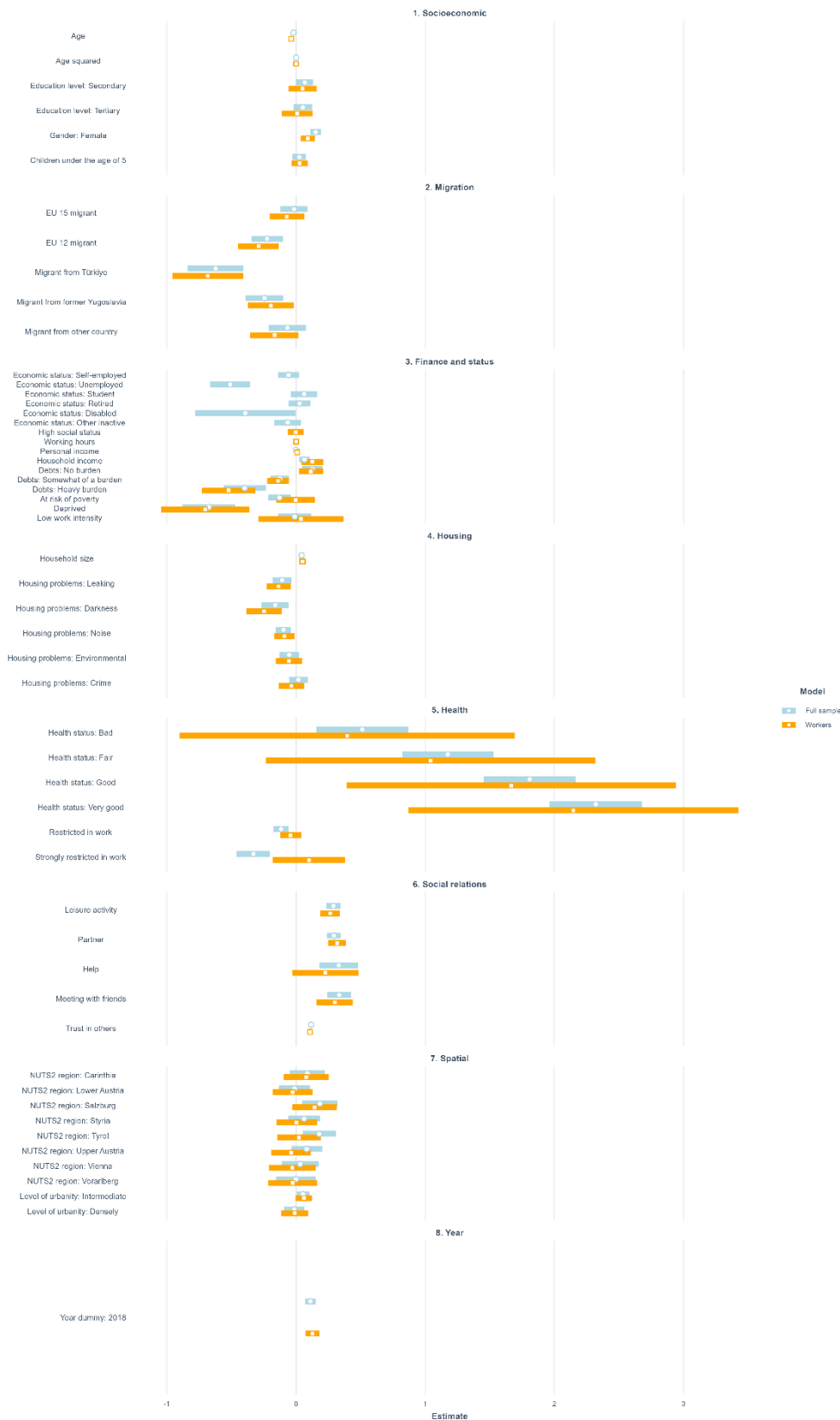
Data source: Eurostat. Own figure.

In addition to life satisfaction, we constructed models for ***other domains of evaluative well-being***, as well as measures of affective and eudaimonic well-being. We do not analyse these in detail, but only highlight how the background variables by country of birth are related to the different elements of subjective well-being.

For the three domains of evaluative well-being, we find groups to which membership (again, compared to the reference group born in Austria) is significantly related to the value of the response. For financial satisfaction, a significant negative relationship is found for all groups except the EU15 group. This is even observed for the "other countries" group, although no relationship was found in the analysis of satisfaction with life in general. However, the "other countries" group shows a positive difference for satisfaction with time use, meaning that those born in Austria are significantly less satisfied in this domain than are those born in other countries. There is a significant negative relationship in this domain for the EU15 group. The magnitude of the negative difference is almost equal to the positive difference for the "other countries" group. In terms of satisfaction with relationship, two groups (those born in Yugoslavia and those from the group of other countries) show a significant positive association, while no significant negative association is observed for either group. Thus, for this domain, these two groups have better scores than those born in Austria.

For the ***affective well-being variables***, the relationship between group membership and response values is weaker. The group born in Yugoslavia has significantly higher mean scores for nervousness, feeling down, and feeling downhearted than that of the reference group (born in Austria). For the group born in Türkiye, only the variable of feeling downhearted shows a significant positive relationship (higher mean than the Austrian-born group), whereas the relationship for the variables of feeling nervous and feeling down is also positive and apparent, but not significant. A single significant relationship is observed for the happiness variable, with a higher mean for those belonging to the "other countries" group. No significant difference is observed for the EU15 group, similar to the EU12 group, although there is a positive but not significant relationship for nervousness in the latter category.

Models run on the variables of ***eudaimonic well-being*** (meaning of life, optimism, free life) do not indicate a significant relationship. However, it is worth mentioning that for the aspect of optimism, those belonging to the EU12 and to the "other countries" group show higher optimism scores than the Austrian-born group.

8.1.2 Comparative analysis: life satisfaction of people born in Austria vs. in the new EU countries

The results of the Blinder-Oaxaca decomposition are presented below. The decomposition was carried out by comparing the group born in Austria with the EU12 group (countries

joined the EU in 2004) as the main subject of the present project. Variables that were found to be significant in the formerly presented regression analysis were included in this analysis. The difference in overall life satisfaction between the two groups is 0.471, of which 0.268 can be explained, i.e., 56.9% of the total difference can be accounted for. These are due to the fact that individuals in the EU12 group are significantly less well positioned on variables that are closely related to the level of subjective well-being. Such variables include economic, housing, and social relations as well as spatial elements.

The main contributor to the difference in subjective well-being is the much lower proportion of people in very good *health* in the EU12 group compared to the Austrian-born group. This is counterbalanced to a degree by the fact that good health is more common in the EU12 group, but this effect is not significant. Seeing that the regression analysis reveals a very close link between health and life satisfaction, this is certainly a worrying gap within the EU12 group.

In general, there is also a shortfall for the EU12 group in terms of *social relations*. The Austrian-born group is more likely to participate in leisure activities, to meet friends, and to receive help from others. This group furthermore has a higher level of trust in people. These differences all contribute to the gap in subjective well-being between the two groups.

Economic reasons include lower household incomes in the EU12 and higher rates of unemployment, deprivation, and poverty risk. Housing problems related to quality of life also affect the EU12 population to a greater extent, especially water leakage in the dwellings and noise pollution.

Regional differences play a role: a greater proportion of the Austrian-born population live in Tyrol and Salzburg, two provinces displaying higher levels of subjective well-being. A difference of 0.203 is not explained by the different characteristics of the two groups. The literature provides two main explanations for this difference.

One is an *external cause*: discrimination, negative attitudes and stereotypes. Discrimination fundamentally undermines overall life satisfaction, as shown in Haindorfer's (2020) study, which partly examines Hungarian cross-border commuters. Not only does discrimination hinder immigrants' socioeconomic achievement on the labour and housing markets, but it also seems to undermine their anticipation in terms of life opportunities and suppress their happiness level. The effect of negative attitudes and stereotypes towards immigrants as a predictor of lower psychological well-being was demonstrated in a longitudinal sample in Austria by Weber et al. (2020). The second explanation is internal and it originates in the immigrants' personality type and their culture, which is partly determined by their country of origin. Economic migrants are typically more extrinsically oriented (e.g., more oriented towards work, achievement, and power) and less intrinsically oriented (e.g., valuing family and friends) compared to stayers. Furthermore, migrants' happiness continues to depend on their home-country conditions.

Figure 116. Explained differences in the EU12 - Austrian-born overall life satisfaction gap (Notes: Two-fold decomposition, group weight is -1, 500 bootstrapping replicates)
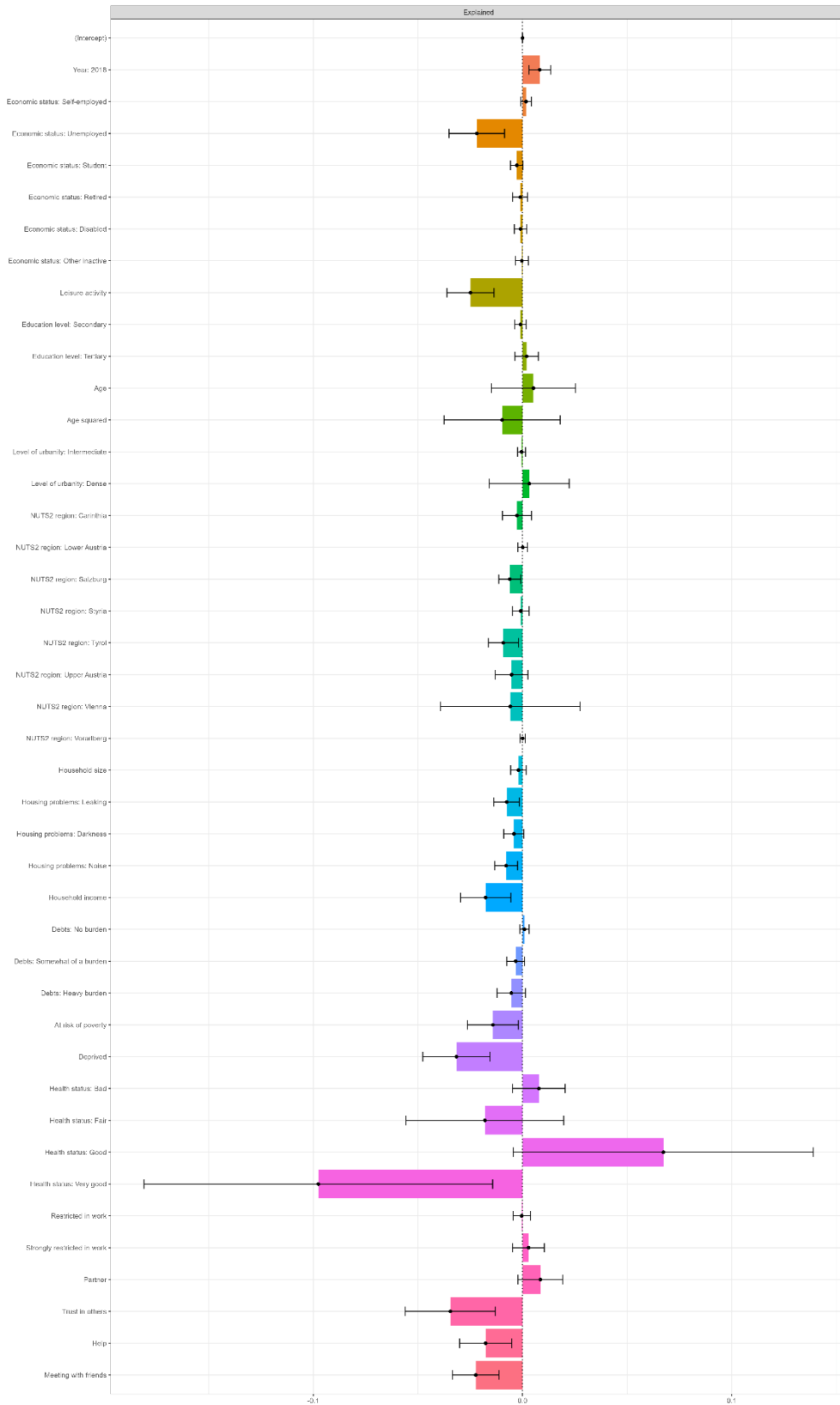
Data source: Eurostat. Own figure.

8.2 Subjective well-being drivers in Hungary

After the descriptive analyses, models were constructed to answer the following research question: "Which variables are related to the different degrees of migration intention and in which direction do these relationships hold?" Migration intentions were analysed in two ways: "no" versus "yes" (Figure 117) and "do not know" versus "yes" comparisons (Figure 118) using binary logistic regression. Both models were run on the full sample and on a subsample, the latter including only those respondents, who were employed or self-employed at the time of the survey. In the following sections we refer those as workers. The subsample model also includes extra variables which are available only for workers. We thus created a total of four different models. The data source for the models was the 2016 Hungarian microcensus. To facilitate the interpretation of the models, the resulting coefficients were converted into odds ratios and were plotted visually.

8.2.1 Modelling "no" vs "yes" outcomes

As a first step, we examined socio-economic variables. It is clear that there is a fairly strong relationship between the level of education and migration intention. For the present variable, in contrast to the reference group of persons holding primary education only, having a secondary education (likeliness to migrate is greater by 32%) and a tertiary education (61%) is associated with a significantly higher intention to migrate. This association is also observed in the subsample of worker respondents, but the association is weaker there. Compared to the low-skilled active population, the probability of expressing the intent to emigrate is 17% higher among those with a secondary level of education, while the corresponding figure is 44% for the tertiary educated. Regarding the gender variable, the general phenomenon observed in international migration, namely that women have a lower migration potential than men, is also true for the Hungarian sample. For women, the probability that a respondent has the intention to migrate is only 0.74 times that of a man. The odds of migration among worker women are even lower compared to worker men (0.69). A negative relationship is also found for the age variable. With each additional year of age, the odds of emigration amounts to 0.947 of the previous odds in the case of the full sample and to 0.943 for the worker subsample. Having children is negatively related to the intention to migrate, and the more children there are, the less likely a respondent parent is to migrate. For each additional child under 18, the intention to migrate changes to 0.921 of the intention observed for those with one child less. The relationship is even stronger for children under five years of age, with an odds ratio of 0.83. It can therefore be concluded that the intention to migrate is lower especially for those with a minor child or children. If the children are older, the propensity to migrate is slightly higher, but not as high as for those without or with fewer children. In the

sample reduced to the worker population, there is no significant relationship with the number of children under 18.

There is a positive correlation between willingness to migrate and direct or indirect experiences of migration. Those who have a history of migration and have already resided in one or more countries are 2.291 times more likely to migrate again (i.e., 129% more likely) than those who have only lived in Hungary. For the workers, the association is also strong, with an odds ratio of 1.955. It is interesting to note that, in contrast to direct experiences of migration, the association with intention to migrate is stronger for those with an indirect experience of migration, i.e., having someone living abroad. Those who have an acquaintance living abroad are 3 times more likely to migrate compared to those who do not have such a person. This is even more significant among workers, where the odds are 3.214 times higher. The main reason for this may be the prospect of finding work with the help of an expatriate relative.

Among the economic variables, economic status was analysed only for the full sample, while the variable of high social status was analysed only for the sample restricted to the worker population. For economic status, the reference group was the employed group. Compared to them, a minimally lower intention to emigrate and a non-significant relationship was found both among the self-employed and students. However, belonging to the group of pensioners and the group of disabled showed a strong negative relationship with migration intention. As expected, these groups have lower intentions to emigrate. A retired person is only half as likely to migrate as is an active employee, and is only 0.3 times as likely to migrate as is a member of the reference group. Belonging to the unemployed group, on the other hand, is associated with a higher migration potential. Compared to an employed person, an unemployed person is 48.6% more likely to migrate. This is a surprising result, as the unemployed population is usually described as a group with few resources, lacking the financial background, skills, and social connections to move abroad. However, if unemployment is explained by poor economic opportunities in the country and a tight labour market, unemployed persons may indeed be of the opinion that moving abroad can increase their economic room for manoeuvre. Of course, it is unclear how many of the unemployed persons who had indicated their intention to migrate in the survey eventually did so. The odds ratio for those with a high social status is 0.995, and the relationship is not significant.

Among the social relationships, the variables of trust and of having a partner were analysed. For the former, we consider relationships that are not necessarily social, but are related to society. The results show that having a partner is negatively linked to emigration intention. Among those who have a partner, the odds of moving are only 0.812 times that of singles, and is even lower for the subsample of workers (0.799). This may be because individuals would be reluctant to leave their partner behind if they were moving alone, and if the respondent is planning to move together with his/her partner, the partner may not be as receptive to moving.

For the variable of trust in other people, a weak negative significant relationship is observed in the full sample, which disappears in the reduced subsample. The odds ratio is 0.977. Thus, if a person ranks one place higher on the scale measuring trust, the probability of emigration decreases. This is an interesting relationship, since people who migrate are thought to be cosmopolitan, sociable individuals who trust others. Moreover, this low level of trust can be a significant barrier to integration in the new country. Concerning the other variables, those who intend to emigrate are less trusting of institutions in Hungary. In the case of the model run on the subsample derived for the worker population, there is a significant negative relationship with the levels of trust in politics, the police, and the legal system. For the full sample, this statement holds only for politics and police. On the scale of trust in politics, marking a value higher by one is associated with a lower chance of emigration. In that case the probability of emigration is reduced to 0.892 of the probability that occurs at a one-point lower marked trust value (0.894 in the model for the worker population). For the variable of trust in the police, the decrease in the odds is not as drastic, with odds ratios of 0.948 and 0.955 for the two models. However, the difference between the two models is that trust in the legal system is only significant in the model of the worker population, with an odds ratio of 0.985 for this variable.

Among the variables representing spatiality, we first discuss the result of the regional NUTS2 classification. For this variable, the reference group is Budapest, the most developed region in Hungary. Of the other categories, only living in the Pest region is associated with an odds ratio greater than 1 and a greater intention to emigrate compared to Budapest, but this difference is not significant. Only two of the negative associations are significant, namely that of living in the Northern Great Plain region or the Southern Great Plain region. Both are associated with lower migration intention compared to living in Budapest. For the Northern Great Plain the odds are 0.729 times those for Budapest, while for the Southern Great Plain, migration intention measures at 0.811 compared to Budapest. This may be due to the fact that these regions are situated in the immediate vicinity of countries that are also underdeveloped by European standards (Romania, Serbia, Ukraine), so the promise of a nearby move is not very attractive. In the model run on the worker population, the significant relationship with the Southern Great Plain disappears and the odds ratio for the Northern Great Plain becomes even smaller (0.68). Staying with the worker subsample, in addition to the regional distribution, the type of immediate settlement also shows a relationship with the intention to migrate. Compared to living in a sparsely populated settlement, even living in a settlement with a medium population density is associated with a higher likelihood to emigrate (+17%). For those living in a densely populated settlement, the increase is even larger: plus 41.6% compared to the reference group of those living in sparsely populated regions. For the total sample, only the latter comparison is significant. The intention to migrate from a densely

populated municipality is 1.34 times greater than that of the respondents from sparsely populated municipalities.

The relationship between life satisfaction and migration potential has been the subject of numerous studies. Ostrashchenko & Popova (2014), for example, found that in Central and Eastern Europe, people with lower life satisfaction are more likely to indicate a desire to migrate. In contrast, in Hungary, Lengyel (2012) found no significant relationship between overall satisfaction and exit potential. Among the variables measuring satisfaction with each domain of subjective well-being, we first elaborate on the items related to income and work. For the full sample and the reduced subsample, it is clear that there is a negative relationship between satisfaction with the financial situation and intentions to migrate. Each higher value changes the odds of a pre-existing probability by a factor of 0.941 (or 0.965 for the worker subsample). However, no significant relationship is observed for income satisfaction, a variable which was only assessed for the subsample of the group of employed or self-employed individuals. It can also be observed that the proportion of those who intend to migrate is higher among those who are dissatisfied with their job. The odds ratio for this variable is 0.947. Neither satisfaction with commuting time nor time use related to the work-life balance indicate a significant link with the intention to migrate. Similarly, satisfaction with accommodation does not display a relationship with the intention to migrate, but a significant negative relationship with satisfaction with the living environment is found in both models. For the full sample, the increase in satisfaction by one is accompanied by a reduction in the previous odds of migration by a factor of 0.932 (0.923 for the subsample). This satisfaction may also be linked to living in densely populated settlements (where previously we found a higher intention to move) with a higher concentration of environmental problems. A positive association with intention to migrate is observed for two variables: satisfaction with health and satisfaction with relationships. An increase of one score in health satisfaction is accompanied by a 2.4% increase in the propensity to migrate (1.9% in the worker sample, which is not significant). This suggests that it is not those suffering from the shortcomings of the Hungarian health system but those in good health who would migrate. This is logical, since in the new country, fit and healthy individuals are more likely to find work for themselves, and the move itself can be a physically demanding process, which those in very poor health are less likely to undertake (especially if they need supervision because of their poor health). For satisfaction with social relationships, a one-point increase on the scale changes the odds of emigrating to 1.078 times the previous odds (1.086 for the worker sample). This is surprising because the previous results suggest that those in a relationship and those with children had lower intentions to move.

Among the affective well-being variables, significant relationships were found only in the positive direction. The weakest such relationship was found between happiness level and intention to emigrate, and this was significant only for the total sample. This is a new finding

compared to Lengyel's (2012) research in Hungary. A happiness level of one score higher is associated with a 6% increase in the likelihood of emigration. Successful migration requires a certain degree of happiness that renders the individual more confident about their plans. Happier individuals are more likely to seek challenges and are more adventurous and optimistic (Polgreen & Simpson, 2011). According to Ivlevs (2015), it is mainly in poorer countries that happier people migrate, as they are more likely to find work in the new country. Our result support this, but does not support the finding that relative unhappiness with individuals of the same socio-economic background leads individuals to migrate (Graham & Markowitz, 2011). For the factor of stress, a larger odds ratio is observed (1.095 for the full sample and 1.07 for the subsample of worker individuals). This suggests that individuals who are more frequently stressed have a higher propensity to emigrate. This stress may also be triggered by the previously described dissatisfaction with the financial situation and job. Among the affective variables, the strongest relationship is found for loneliness. A one-point increase on the scale is associated with a 13.3% higher probability of emigration (15.7% for the worker subsample). This result is in line with the results for the children and partner variables but stands in contrast to the findings for subjective satisfaction with relationships. There is a lower proportion of people who want to move away among those who are more nervous, or calmer, or more often feel themselves downhearted, but these relationships are not significant. No significant relationship is found between the two variables of eudaimonic well-being (meaningfulness of life and optimism) and intention to migrate, but the direction of the relationships is negative, so those who consider their life meaningful or are optimistic are slightly less likely to migrate.

Figure 117. Visual representation of the coefficients and the confidence intervals for the models treating migration intention as the dependent variable. "No" versus "yes".
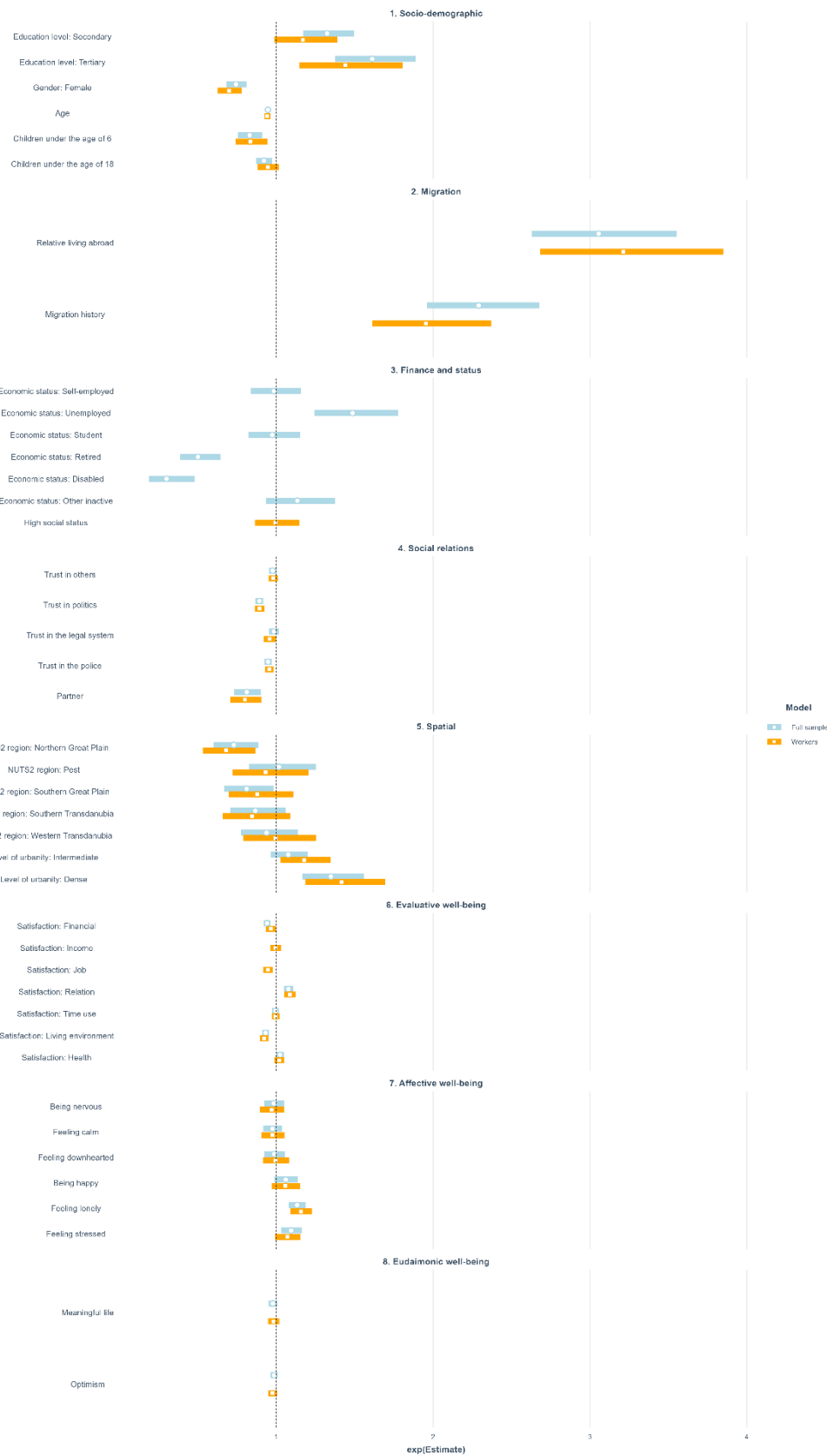
Data source: Eurostat. Own figure.

8.2.2 Modelling "do not know" vs "yes" outcomes

In the following, we analyse only the "do not know" or "yes" answers to the question regarding migration intention. Compared to the results of the "no-vs-yes" model, an important difference is that, compared to having low education, having a secondary education is not significantly related to whether a person indicates "yes" or "do not know". However, a positive relationship is observed for tertiary education. Having a tertiary education is associated with a 34.8% higher chance of "yes" compared to the reference group. Furthermore, the significant relationship found in the "no vs yes" model is no longer present for gender. The age variable retained its significant effect, but it is weakened somewhat. One additional year of age is associated with 0.992-fold change in the odds of a "yes" response for the full sample (with an equal value for the subsample). Although the number of children under 18 retained its significant negative effect (more children is linked to a lower chance of responding "yes" even compared to "do not know"), the variable for the number of children under 6, which previously had a very strong relationship, has retained the negative sign, but lost its significance.

Direct and indirect experiences of migration are also strongly significantly related to the choice between "do not know" and "yes". Having previous experience of migration is associated with a higher chance of a "yes" by 34.8% (31.6% in the worker subsample), while having a friend living abroad is associated with a higher probability of a "yes" by 82.8% (99.9% in the worker subsample). Again, the evidence shows that indirect experience could be particularly important for workers. In terms of economic activity, the fact of being unemployed compared to belonging to the reference group (employed) is associated with a higher probability of "yes" answers even in this model. Although it should be noted that the relationship has weakened, there is now only a 27% increase in the odds. The negative significant relationship observed in the previous model has disappeared among the retired and those who are disabled.

In the topic of relationships, the existence of a partner is no longer significantly associated with the difference between "do not know" and "yes" answers. In the full sample, the association remains that those with a higher level of trust in people are less likely to answer with "yes" (the association is no longer significant in the worker subsample). Indeed, a higher level of trust is associated with a 0.961-fold modification of the odds of saying yes. The variables of institutional trust, except for trust in the police, maintained their negative significant relationships. In the "do not know" and "yes" comparison, trust in the legal system is also significant for the full sample, not only for the subsample. The odds ratio is 0.953 for the full sample and 0.924 for the subsample. If someone has high trust in the legal system, he/she is therefore less likely to choose the "yes" answer. The same is true for those who trust politics. On the full sample, a response of one point higher on the scale for the legal system causes a 0.953-fold change in the odds of a "yes" answer, while the same movement on the

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scale for trust in politics brings about a 0.923-fold change in the odds for the confident migration intention response.

Looking at the NUTS2 regions, it can be observed that, compared to the Budapest reference group, living in any other region except Pest does not reveal a significant relationship with the two currently examined response options for migration intention in the model reduced to the worker subsample. In the full model, the Northern Great Plain retains its significant effect. That is, residents of the Northern Great Plain are less likely to choose "yes" as opposed to "do not know", compared to Budapest residents. The odds ratio is 0.724. The same is also true for the Pest region (odds ratio is 0.731 times that of a Budapest resident), which is a novelty compared to the models presented earlier, where the previous results showed that living in Pest was associated with a greater tendency towards migration, although not significantly so, compared to Budapest. The Southern Great Plain region, which previously showed a significant negative relationship, is not significant in the "yes" and "do not know" comparisons.

Among the subjective well-being domains measuring satisfaction, satisfaction with finances and satisfaction with relationships are significantly related to the difference between "yes" and "do not know" responses, as they were in the "yes" and "no" comparisons. In the full sample, if satisfaction is one point higher on the scale for the financial question, then it is associated with a 0.965-fold change in the odds of a "yes" answer (0.968 in the worker sample, but the relationship is not significant). An increase in satisfaction with relationships is associated with a 5% increase in the odds towards a "yes" (4.9% in the worker sample). The previously observed role of satisfaction with health turns negative, i.e., those who are satisfied with their health have a decrease in the odds of answering with "yes" (odds ratio 0.964 in the full sample, 0.948 in the worker sample). Thus, while satisfaction with health is associated with a higher possibility of "yes" in the "no and yes" comparisons, it is associated with a lower chance of a "yes" in the "do not know vs yes" models.

Among the affective well-being variables, the present models also show a significant relationship between experiencing stress or loneliness and an increased intention to migrate. An increase in the frequency of these negative affective states is associated with a higher probability of emigration. The role of negative emotions is furthermore reinforced by the fact that the effect of nervousness is positively significant in the "do not know" and "yes" comparisons, but the role of happiness is not (based on previous models, a higher degree of happiness seemed to be associated with an increase in the odds of emigration). The strongest relationship is found for nervousness. An increase of 10.4% in the odds of a "yes" response is associated with a one-degree higher level of nervousness on the scale. No significant relationship is observed for the eudaimonic variables.

Figure 118. Visual representation of the coefficients and the confidence intervals for the models treating migration intention as the dependent variable. "Do not know" versus "yes".
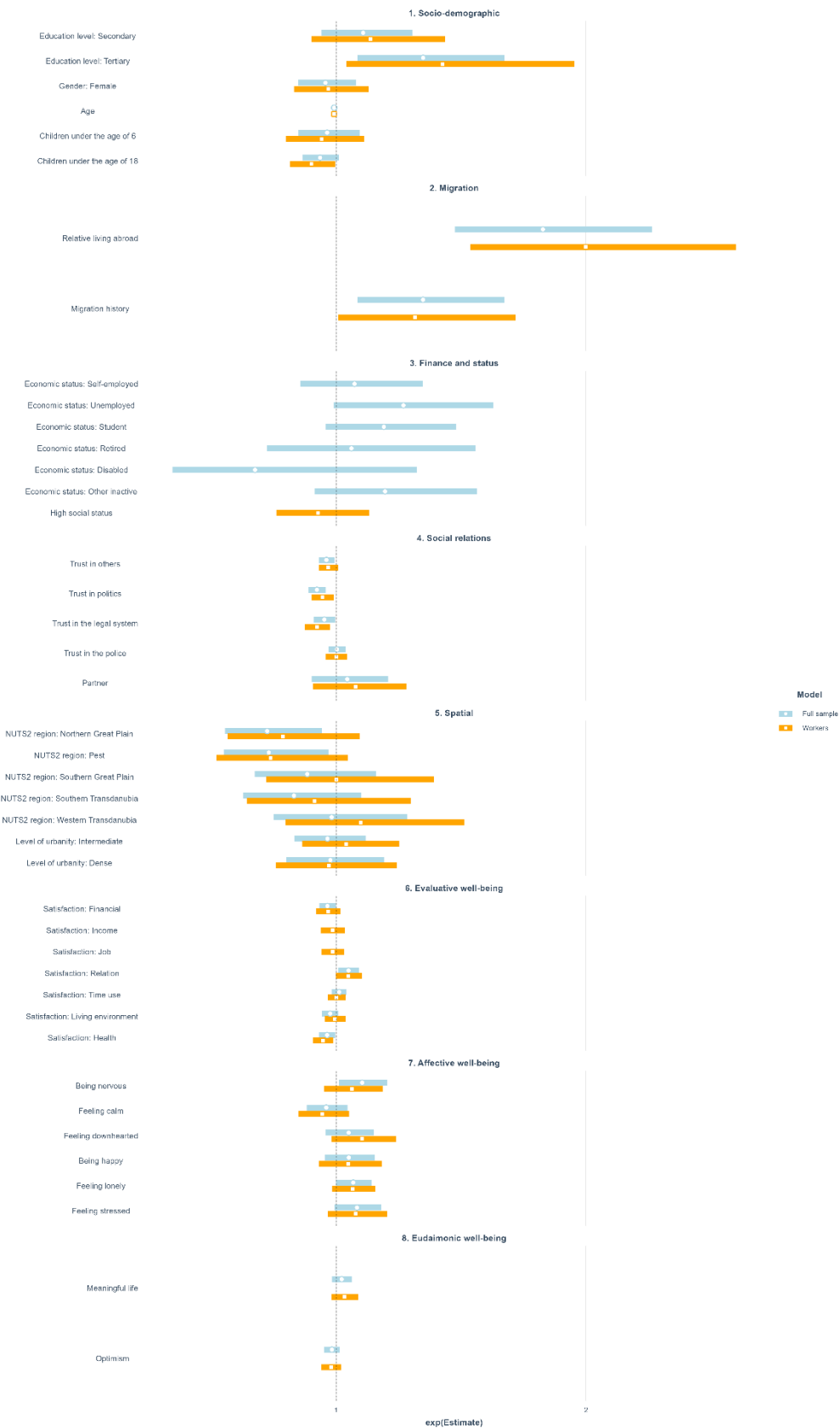
Data source: Eurostat. Own figure.

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Appendix: Methodological notes on the setup of the integrated dataset

Identification and coverage

Our analyses are founded on an integrated dataset derived from multiple surveys that target the entire populations of Austria and Hungary in 2013, 2016, and 2018. Consequently, each segment of the integrated dataset can be distinguished by the country of the survey (*COUNTRY*), the survey year (*YEAR*), and the survey name (*SOURCE*).

	Source	Country	Year
Integrated dataset	The European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	Austria	2013
	The European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	Hungary	2013
	Hungarian Microcensus (MC)	Hungary	2016
	The European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	Austria	2018
	The European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	Hungary	2018

Each segment of the integrated dataset considers the household member as the unit of analysis. To refine the identification of records, we can break down the data using the respondents' household ID (*HID*) and the respondent's anonymised personal identification number (*PID*).

The EU-SILC and the MC are sample surveys designed to cover the entire population of the respective country in the reference year. While demographic data is collected for every member of the chosen household, the comprehensive questionnaire, which includes information about a person's socio-economic background and subjective well-being, is only provided for individuals aged 16 and older. In the analysis, we concentrate on the segments of the integrated dataset where this information is accessible. Furthermore, to address sampling bias, we consistently adjust our calculations using the personal sample weights (*PWEIGHT*) provided by the source surveys. Therefore, our findings are representative of the population aged 16 and above in the corresponding country and year.

Harmonisation of variables

Due to variations in the structure of the source surveys, the configuration of the integrated dataset involves harmonising variables. In general, we compare the content of each pair of related variables across the surveys and condense them into a third harmonised version. The harmonised variables cover details regarding the economic status, socio-demographic

background, housing conditions, health, social relationships, and the subjective well-being of the respondents.

Self-defined economic status

MC 2016

Source variables		Integrated dataset
Type of employment (FMIN)	*Economic activity (GAKT)*	*Self-defined economic status (SELFECONSTAT_3)*
employee public employment	employed	Employee
	employed alongside retirement pension	
	employed alongside childcare allowance	
	employed while pursuing daytime studies	
self-employed	employed	Self-employed
	employed alongside retirement pension	
	employed alongside childcare allowance	
	employed while pursuing daytime studies	
	unemployed, previously worked, and not studying in daytime courses	Unemployed
	unemployed, previously worked, and studying in daytime courses	
	unemployed, never worked, and not studying in daytime courses	
	unemployed, never worked, and studying in daytime courses	
	receives disability, rehabilitation, or other health-related benefits	Disabled
	retired by old age	Retired
	retired as a dependent with allowances	
	toddler in daycare	Student
	preschool-aged child	
	student in daytime studies	
	homemaker	Other inactive
	other dependent	
	activity unknown	
	on parental leave	
	living off own assets	
	receives social benefits	

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Self-defined current economic status (PL031)	*Self-defined economic status (SELFECONSTAT_3)*
Employee working full-time	Employee
Employee working part-time	

Self-employed working full-time (including family worker)	Self-employed
Self-employed working part-time (including family worker)	
Unemployed	Unemployed
Pupil, student, further training, unpaid work experience	Student
In retirement or in early retirement or has given up business	Retired
Permanently disabled or/and unfit to work	Disabled
In compulsory military community or service	Other inactive
Fulfilling domestic tasks and care responsibilities	
Other inactive person	

Occupation

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Occupation (FOGLKOD1)	*Occupation (ISCO08_1)*
ISCO08 Classification, 1st level	ISCO8 Classification, 1st level excluding level 0 (armed forces)

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Occupation (PL051)	*Occupation (ISCO08_1)*
ISCO08 Classification, 2nd level	ISCO8 Classification, 1st level excluding level 0 (armed forces)

Total weekly hours in paid work

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Weekly hours in paid work (MUNKIDO)	*Total weekly hours in paid work (HOURS)*
Numeric value >= 0	Numeric value >= 0

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables		Integrated dataset
Number of hours usually worked per week in main job (PL060)	*The number of hours usually worked in second, third....jobs (PL100)*	*Total hours in paid work*
Numeric value >= 0	Numeric value >= 0	PL060 + PL100

Regular leisure activity

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Regularly participate in a leisure activity (PD060)	*Regular leisure activity (LEISURE2)*
Yes	Yes
No - cannot afford it	No - cannot afford it
No - other reason	No - other reason

Education

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Highest completed educational level (LISKV)	*Education (EDUC)*
Did not complete the first grade of primary school	Primary or less
Primary school 1st–3rd grade	
Primary school 4th–5th grade	
Primary school 6th–7th grade	
Primary school 8th grade	
Secondary school without graduation, with a vocational certificate	Secondary
Secondary school graduation	
University, college, etc., with a degree	Tertiary

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Highest ISCED level attained	*Education (EDUC)*
ISCED <= 200	Primary or less
300 <= ISCED < 500	Secondary
ISCED >= 500	Tertiary

Sex

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Sex (NEME)	*Sex (GENDER)*
Male	Male
Female	Female

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset

Sex (PB150)	Sex (GENDER)
Male	Male
Female	Female

Age

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Age (KEV)	*Age (AGE)*
Numeric values >= 0	Numeric values >= 0

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Age (RX010)	*Age (AGE)*
Numeric values >= 0	Numeric values >= 0

Region (NUTS1)

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Region NUTS1 (REGIO)	*Region NUTS1 (NUTS1)*
HU11	Central Hungary
HU12	Central Hungary
HU21	Central Hungary
HU22	Transdanubia
HU23	Transdanubia
HU31	Great Plain and North
HU32	Great Plain and North
HU33	Great Plain and North

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Region NUTS1 (DB040)	*Region NUTS1 (NUTS1)*
AT1	Eastern Austria
AT2	Southern Austria
AT3	Western Austria
HU1	Central Hungary
HU2	Transdanubia
HU3	Great Plain and North

Region (NUTS2)

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Region (REGIO)	*Region NUTS2 (NUTS2)*
HU11	Budapest
HU12	Pest
HU21	Central Transdanubia
HU22	Western Transdanubia
HU23	Southern Transdanubia
HU31	Northern Hungary
HU32	Northern Great Plain
HU33	Southern Great Plain

EU-SILC 2013, 2018 (Not available for Hungary)

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Region NUTS2 (BUNDESLD)	*Region NUTS2 (NUTS2)*
AT11	Burgenland
AT12	Lower Austria
AT13	Vienna
AT21	Carinthia
AT22	Styria
AT31	Upper Austria
AT32	Salzburg
AT33	Tyrol
AT34	Vorarlberg

Degree of urbanization

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Administrative rank of settlement (IGRANG)	*Degree of urbanization (URBAN)*
Budapest kerületei	Densely
Megyeszékhely	Densely
Megyei jogú város	Densely
Város	Intermediate
Nagyközség	Intermediate
Község	Thinly

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Degree of urbanization (DB100)	*Degree of urbanization (URBAN)*
Densely populated area	Densely
Intermediate area	Intermediate
Thinly populated area	Thinly

Country of birth

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Country of birth (SZ_EU28)	*Country of birth (CBIRTH1)*
Hungary	Native
Country in the European Union (EU28)	EU28
Other country	Other

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Country of birth (PB210)	*Country of birth (CBIRTH1)*
LOC	Native
EU	EU28
OTH	Other

Detailed country of birth

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC 2013, 2018 (Not available for Hungary)

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Country of birth (P110000nu)	*Detailed Country of birth (CBIRTH2)*
Austria	Native
EU15, EFTA	EU15, EFTA
EU12	EU12
Yugoslavia without Slovenia	Yugoslavia without Slovenia
Türkiye	Türkiye
Other	Other

Citizenship

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Citizenship (ALLAMP)	*Citizenship (CTZSHIP)*
Hungary	Native
Other	Foreign

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Country of birth (PB220A)	*Citizenship (CTZSHIP)*
LOC	Native
EU	Foreign
OTH	Foreign

Year of immigration

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Year of immigration (RB031)	*Year of immigration (YIMMIG)*
Numeric values between 1938 and 2018	Numeric values between 1938 and 2018. If the individual was born in the country, the missing value is replaced by the value of *AGE*.

Duration of stay (years since the immigration)

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

The variable *DURATION* is calculated as the difference between the survey year (*YEAR*) and the year of immigration (*YIMMIG*).

Household size

MC 2016

The variable *HSIZE* is calculated as the sum of unique personal identification numbers (*PID*) with the same household identification number (*HID*).

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Household size (HX040)	*Household size (HSIZE)*
Numeric values >= 1	Numeric values >= 1

Number of children in the household (younger than 6)

MC 2016

The variable *CHILDREN5* is derived by summing the number of individuals in the same household (*HID*) whose age (*AGE*) is below six years.

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

The variable *CHILDREN5* is derived by summing the number of individuals in the same household (*HID*) whose age (*AGE*) is below six years.

Number of children in the household (between 6 and 17)

MC 2016

The variable *CHILDREN18* is derived by summing the number of individuals in the same household (*HID*) whose age (*AGE*) is between 6 and 17 years.

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

The variable *CHILDREN18* is derived by summing the number of individuals in the same household (*HID*) whose age (*AGE*) is between 6 and 17 years.

Migration intention

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Planning to move abroad within the next 2 years for work, study, or other reasons (WTERV)	*Migration intention (MIGINTENTION)*
No	No
Do not know	Do not know

Yes	Yes

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Not available

Migration history

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Lived outside the current territory of Hungary for at least one continuous year (KULLAHE)	*Migration history (MIGHISTORY)*
No	No
Yes	Yes

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Not available

Relatives living abroad

MC 2016

Source variables		Integrated dataset
Household member living abroad on a permanent basis (TKESZ)	*Household members temporarily living abroad (AKESZJAV)*	*RELATABROAD = TKESZ + AKESZJAV*
Numeric value >= 0	Numeric value >= 0	Numeric value >= 0

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Not available

Number of rooms in the dwelling

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Size of the dwelling bases on the number of rooms (LASZOB)	*Number of rooms (ROOMS)*
1 room without kitchen	1
1 room	1
2 rooms without kitchen	2
2 rooms	2
3 rooms	3

4 rooms	4
5 rooms	5
6 rooms or more	6

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Number of rooms available to the household (HH030)	*Household size (HSIZE)*
Numeric values between 1 and 6	Numeric values between 1 and 6

Leaking roof, damp, or rot

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Leaking roof, damp, or rot (HH040)	*Leaking roof, damp, or rot (LEAKING)*
No	No
Yes	Yes

Dark rooms

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Dark rooms (HH160)	*Dark rooms (DARK)*
No	No
Yes	Yes

Noise pollution

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Noise pollution in the area (HH170)	*Noise pollution in the area (NOISE)*
No	No
Yes	Yes

Pollution in the area

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Pollution in the area (HH170)	*Pollution in the area (ENV_PROBLEM)*
No	No
Yes	Yes

Crime in the area

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Crime in the area (HH170)	*Crime in the area (CRIME)*
No	No
Yes	Yes

Total personal income (gross, current EUR)

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

     Cash from employment (*PY010G*)

+   Cash from self-employment (*PY050G*)

+   Pension from individual private plan (*PS080G*)

+   Unemployment benefit (*PY090G*)

+   Old-age benefit (*PY100G*)

+   Survivors benefit (*PY110G*)

+   Sickness benefit (*PY120G*)

+   Disability benefit (*PY130G*)

+   Education-related allowances (*PY140G*)

=   Total personal income (*INC_P_1*)

Total personal income (gross, 2015 EU28-EUR)

To be able to meaningfully compare personal income levels in Austria and Hungary over time, we undertook several steps to account for varying local price levels and inflation during the specified period (*INC_P_2*):

Initially, we converted *INC_P_1* into local currency units using the relevant exchange rates provided in the EU-SILC dataset (*HX010*).

Subsequently, we adjusted the values for inflation and standardized them to 2015 local currency units, using the corresponding official HCIP[22] indexes.

Finally, we used the corresponding PPPs[23] to further standardize the values obtained in the second step into common EU28 Euros.

Equivalized disposable household income

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Equivalized disposable household income (HX090)	*Equivalized disposable household income (INC_H_3)*
Numeric values	Numeric values

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[22] Harmonised Index of Consumer Prices (Retrieved 12-01-2024 from
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/PRC_HICP_AIND/default/table?lang=en)

[23] Purchasing power parities (Retrieved 12-01-2024 from
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/PRC_PPP_IND/default/table?lang=en)

Equivalized disposable household income (2015 EU28-EUR)

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

INC_H_4: See Total personal income (gross, 2015 EU28-EUR) for the conversion.

Financial burden

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Financial burden of the repayment of debts from hire purchases or loans (HS150)	*Financial burden (CRIME)*
Repayment is a heavy burden	Heavy burden
Repayment is somewhat a burden	Somewhat burden (minor burden)
Repayment is not a burden at all	No burden
No repayment of debts	No debts

At risk of poverty or social exclusion

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables			Integrated dataset		
At risk of poverty or social exclusion (RX070)			*Low-work intensity (LOWWORK)*	*Severely material deprived (DEPRIVED)*	*At risk of poverty (ARP)*
0	0	1	No	No	Yes
0	1	0	No	Yes	No
0	1	1	No	Yes	Yes
1	0	0	Yes	No	No
1	0	1	Yes	No	Yes
1	1	0	Yes	Yes	No
1	1	1	Yes	Yes	Yes

Health

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
General health (PH010)	*Health (HEALTH)*
Very good	Very good
Good	Good
Fair	Fair
Bad	Bad
Very bad	Very bad

Restriction due to health problems

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Limitation due to health problems in daily activities in the last 6 month (KORLATOZ)	*Limitations due to health problems (RESTRICTION)*
No	No
Yes	Yes
Strongly	Strongly

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Limitation in activities because of health problems (PH030)	*Limitations due to health problems (RESTRICTION)*
No	No
Yes	Yes
Strongly	Strongly

Partner

MC 2016

Source variables		Integrated dataset
Living with partner in the same household (ELTKAP)	*Married (HAZAS)*	*Partner (PARTNER)*
Yes	Any	Yes
No	No	No

| No | Yes | Yes |

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables		Integrated dataset
Partner/Spouse (PB200)	Marital status (PB190)	Partner (PARTNER)
Yes, on a legal basis	Any	Yes
Yes, without a legal basis		
No	Married	
No	Not „Married"	No

Marital status

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Legal family status (CSPOT)	*Marital status (MARITAL)*
Never married	Never married
Married	Married
Widowed	Widowed
Separated	Separated
Has registered partner (same gender)	Married
Widowed, has registered partner (same gender)	
Separated, has registered partner (same gender)	

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Marital status (PB190)	*Marital status (MARITAL)*
Never married	Never married
Married	Married
Separated	Separated
Widowed	Widowed
Divorced	Separated

Help from others

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables			Integrated dataset
Help from others (PW180, only in 2013)	*Non-material help from others (PW110T, only in 2018)*	*Material help from others (PW040T only in 2018)*	*Help from others (HELP2)*
Yes			Yes
No			No
	Yes	Yes	Yes
	No	Yes	Yes
	Yes	No	Yes
	No	No	No

Discuss personal matters

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Personal matters anyone to discuss with (W400)	*Personal matters anyone to discuss with (DPMATTERS)*
Yes	Yes
No	No
Do not want to answer	-

EU-SILC only 2013

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Personal matters anyone to discuss with (PW170)	*Personal matters anyone to discuss with (DPMATTERS)*
Yes	Yes
No	No
Do not know	-

Meet friends

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Get-together with friends/family/relatives for a drink/meal at least once a month (PD050)	*Meet friends (MEET_FRIENDS2)*
Yes	Yes
No - cannot afford it	No - cannot afford it
No - other reason	No - other reason

Overall life satisfaction

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Overall life satisfaction (W101)	*Overall life satisfaction (STF_OVERALL)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

EU-SILC 2013,2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Overall life satisfaction (PW010, PW010T)	*Overall life satisfaction (STF_OVERALL)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

Satisfaction with financial situation

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Satisfaction with financial situation (W102)	*Satisfaction with financial situation (STF_FINANCIAL)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Satisfaction with financial situation (PW030, PW030T)	*Satisfaction with financial situation (STF_FINANCIAL)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

Satisfaction with accommodation

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Satisfaction with accommodation (W103)	*Satisfaction with accommodation (STF_ACCOMMODATION)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

EU-SILC only 2013

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Satisfaction with accommodation (PW040)	*Satisfaction with accommodation (STF_ACCOMMODATION)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

Satisfaction with job

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Satisfaction with job (W104)	*Satisfaction with job (STF_JOB)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

EU-SILC 2013,2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Satisfaction with job (PW100, PW100T)	*Satisfaction with job (STF_JOB)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

Satisfaction with commuting time

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC only 2013

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Satisfaction with commuting time (PW110)	*Satisfaction with commuting time (STF_COMMUTETIME)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

Satisfaction with time-use

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Satisfaction with time-use (W107)	*Satisfaction with time-use (STF_TIMEUSE)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Satisfaction with time-use (PW120, PW120T)	*Satisfaction with time-use (STF_TIMEUSE)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

Satisfaction with personal relationships

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Satisfaction with personal relationships (W109)	*Satisfaction with personal relationships (STF_RELATION)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

EU-SILC 2013,2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Satisfaction with personal relationships (PW160, PW160T)	*Satisfaction with personal relationships (STF_RELATION)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

Satisfaction with living environment

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Satisfaction with living environment (W110)	*Satisfaction with living environment (STF_LIVINGENV)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

EU-SILC only 2013

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Satisfaction with living environment (PW210)	*Satisfaction with living environment (STF_LIVINGENV)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

Satisfaction with health

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Satisfaction with health (W108)	*Satisfaction with health (STF_HEALTH)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Not available

Satisfaction with income

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Satisfaction with income (W105)	*Satisfaction with income (STF_INCOME)*

Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Not available

Satisfaction with commuting environment

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Satisfaction with commuting environment (W106)	*Satisfaction with commuting environment (STF_COMMUTINGENV)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Not available

Satisfaction with recreational and green areas

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC only 2013

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Satisfaction with recreational and green areas (PW200)	*Satisfaction with recreational and green areas (STF_GREENAREA)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

Being nervous

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Being nervous (W303)	*Being nervous (BEING_NERVOUS)*
All of the time	5
Most of the time	4
Some of the time	3
A little of the time	2
None of the time	1

EU-SILC 2013,2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Being nervous (PW050, PW050T)	*Being nervous (BEING_NERVOUS)*
All of the time	5
Most of the time	4
Some of the time	3
A little of the time	2
None of the time	1

Feel down in the dumps

MC 2016

Not available

EU-SILC 2013,2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Feel down in the dumps (PW060 PW060T)	*Feel down in the dumps (FEEL_DOWN)*
All of the time	5
Most of the time	4
Some of the time	3
A little of the time	2
None of the time	1

Feel calm and peaceful

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Feel calm and peaceful (W305)	*Feel calm and peaceful (FEEL_CALM)*
All of the time	5
Most of the time	4
Some of the time	3
A little of the time	2
None of the time	1

EU-SILC 2013,2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Feel calm and peaceful (PW070, PW070T)	*Feel calm and peaceful (FEEL_CALM)*
All of the time	5
Most of the time	4

Some of the time	3
A little of the time	2
None of the time	1

Feel downhearted

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Feel downhearted (W302)	*Feel downhearted (FEEL_DOWNHEARTED)*
All of the time	5
Most of the time	4
Some of the time	3
A little of the time	2
None of the time	1

EU-SILC 2013,2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Feel downhearted (PW080, PW080T)	*Feel downhearted (FEEL_ DOWNHEARTED)*
All of the time	5
Most of the time	4
Some of the time	3
A little of the time	2
None of the time	1

Being happy

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Being happy (W301)	*Being happy (BEING_HAPPY)*
All of the time	5
Most of the time	4
Some of the time	3
A little of the time	2
None of the time	1

EU-SILC 2013,2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Being happy (PW090, PW090T)	*Being happy (BEING_HAPPY)*
All of the time	5
Most of the time	4

Some of the time	3
A little of the time	2
None of the time	1

Feel lonely

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Feel lonely (W306)	*Feel lonely (FEEL_LONELY)*
All of the time	5
Most of the time	4
Some of the time	3
A little of the time	2
None of the time	1

EU-SILC only 2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Feel lonely (PW230T)	*Feel lonely (FEEL_LONELY)*
All of the time	5
Most of the time	4
Some of the time	3
A little of the time	2
None of the time	1

Feel stressed

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Feel stressed (W304)	*Feel stressed (FEEL_STRESSED)*
All of the time	5
Most of the time	4
Some of the time	3
A little of the time	2
None of the time	1

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Not available

Meaning of life

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Meaning of life (W800)	*Meaning of life (MEANIGOFLIFE)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

EU-SILC only 2013

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Meaning of life (PW020)	*Meaning of life (MEANIGOFLIFE)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

Optimism

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Optimism (W800)	*Optimism (OPTIMISM)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

EU-SILC 2013, 2018

Not available

Trust in others

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Trust in others (W500)	*Trust in others (TRUST_OTHERS)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

EU-SILC 2013,2018

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Trust in others (PW190, PW190T)	*Trust in others (TRUST_OTHERS)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

Trust in the political system

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Trust in the political system (W901)	*Trust in the political system (TRUST_POLITICS)*

Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

EU-SILC only 2013

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Trust in the political system (PW130)	*Trust in the political system (TRUST_POLITICS)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

Trust in the legal system

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Trust in the legal system (W902)	*Trust in the legal system (TRUST_LEGAL)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

EU-SILC only 2013

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Trust in the legal system (PW140)	*Trust in the legal system (TRUST_LEGAL)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

Trust in the police

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Trust in the police (W903)	*Trust in the police (TRUST_POLICE)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

EU-SILC only 2013

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Trust in the police (PW150)	*Trust in the police (TRUST_POLICE)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

Trust in the military

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Trust in the military (W904)	*Trust in the military (TRUST_MILITARY)*
Numeric values between 0 and 10	Numeric values between 0 and 10

EU-SILC only 2013

Not available

Physical security

MC 2016

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Feel safe when walking alone in the dark (W600)	*Feel lonely (FEEL_SAFE)*
Very safe	Very safe
Fairly safe	Fairly safe
A bit unsafe	A bit unsafe
Very unsafe	Very unsafe

EU-SILC only 2013

Source variables	Integrated dataset
Feel safe when walking alone in the dark (PW220)	*Feel lonely (FEEL_SAFE)*
Very safe	Very safe
Fairly safe	Fairly safe
A bit unsafe	A bit unsafe
Very unsafe	Very unsafe