



Towards a shared understanding and articulation of a common population outcomes framework

REPORT TO THE TASMANIAN GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENT
OF PREMIER AND CABINET

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Acknowledgment of Country

The University of Tasmania pays its respects to elders past and present and to the many Aboriginal people that did not make elder status and to the Tasmanian Aboriginal community that continues to care for Country. We acknowledge the profound effect of climate change on this Country and seek to work alongside Tasmanian Aboriginal communities, with their deep wisdom and knowledge, to address climate change and its impacts.

The Palawa people belong to one of the world's oldest living cultures, continually resident on this Country for over 65,000 years. They have survived and adapted to significant climate changes over this time, such as sea-level rise and extreme rainfall variability, and as such embody thousands of generations of intimate place-based knowledge.

We acknowledge with deep respect that this knowledge represents a range of cultural practices, wisdom, traditions, and ways of knowing the world that provide accurate and useful climate change information, observations, and solutions.

The University of Tasmania likewise recognises a history of truth that acknowledges the impacts of invasion and colonisation upon Aboriginal people, resulting in forcible removal from their lands.

Our island is deeply unique, with cities and towns surrounded by spectacular landscapes of bushland, waterways, mountain ranges, and beaches.

The University of Tasmania stands for a future that profoundly respects and acknowledges Aboriginal perspectives, culture, language, and history, and a continued effort to fight for Aboriginal justice and rights paving the way for a strong future.

Acknowledgments

This report was commissioned by the Tasmanian Government Department of Premier and Cabinet.

Disclaimer

The views expressed herein are not necessarily the views of the Tasmanian Government. The Tasmanian Government does not accept responsibility for any information or advice contained within this document.

About the Institute for Social Change

The Institute for Social Change works to provide information and analysis that supports good decision making in and for Tasmania.

We draw on the expertise of researchers from across the University of Tasmania to understand how people and communities experience and adapt to social, cultural, environmental and economic change.

We work with community, government and business on researching the challenges and opportunities presented by change, providing data, analysis and commentary to inform public policy and debate on key issues affecting Tasmania.

More information about the Institute's work and publications is available online: utas.edu.au/social-change

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Key terms

WELLBEING KEY TERMS

In the broadest sense, **wellbeing** is what makes a life go well. While **objective wellbeing** is measured with objectively determined indicators that are believed to reflect or affect wellbeing (e.g., income), **subjective wellbeing** refers to people's assessments of whether their life is going well. The assessment of subjective wellbeing depends on how wellbeing is conceptualised (see Chapter 2). It is common for subjective wellbeing to be measured as **life satisfaction**, where people rate their overall life and/or domains of their life (often on a 1-10 scale), and as **affective state**, which is determined by asking people how frequently they've felt certain positive and negative emotions and deriving a 'net score' (frequency of positive emotions minus frequency of negative emotions).

Many scholars and practitioners measure wellbeing via the conditions believed to facilitate it. **Capabilities approaches**, coined by economist Amartya Sen, tend to focus on structural and institutional factors that give people the capability to live a life that they value (Sen's definition of wellbeing). These include factors such as access to clean water, healthcare, the right to vote, and safety from violence. **Psychological approaches** focus on the self-reported psychological factors that they believe are required for wellbeing, often autonomy, relatedness, and competence.

OUTCOMES FRAMEWORKS KEY TERMS

There are different forms of outcomes frameworks, namely frameworks, indices and metrics.

- **Frameworks** are high-level tools used to guide policy development/response. They often articulate outcomes (desired states) but, by themselves, frameworks do not include a measurement and reporting component.
- **Indices** are tools for measuring and reporting wellbeing of different types of populations, usually comprising indicators and measures (defined below). Indices also include **metrics** (systems of measurement) which do not include the reporting/dissemination component and arguably make more of a methodological than a practical contribution to wellbeing measurement.

POPULATION OUTCOMES, WELLBEING AND SUSTAINABILITY FRAMEWORKS

Fundamentally, **population outcomes frameworks** and **wellbeing frameworks** seek to do the same thing: conceptualise and measure outcomes that reflect how people are faring. A key difference is that population outcomes frameworks tend to focus on objective measures of wellbeing, often sourced from administrative data. Wellbeing frameworks, on the other hand, set a normative definition of wellbeing (e.g., state the direction we *should* be heading) and therefore include elements of subjective wellbeing. **Sustainability frameworks** tend to emphasise environmental factors for future population outcomes, although human wellbeing remains a focus. While debate continues about appropriate labelling, scope and application of various approaches, for the purpose of this report, we adopt the terms used in recent Tasmanian policy and strategy development.

The **population outcomes framework** for the Tasmanian State Service (TSS) seeks to provide a high-level framework comprising the domains generally agreed in extant frameworks to encompass and/or affect people's wellbeing. This framework will allow functions and services across the TSS to identify the different ways in which their work affects (or seeks to affect) these domains, and to deploy common terms and labels in referring to these outcomes.

The **wellbeing framework** refers to the Premier's Wellbeing Framework which will specify desired outcomes for Tasmania and Tasmanians and will be used to determine actions required to achieve those outcomes. The wellbeing framework will thus require broad and deep consultation to ensure the outcomes articulated are in line with what people want.

The **sustainability strategy** refers to the PESRAC recommendation that the State Government should develop a sustainability vision and strategy for Tasmania. According to PESRAC, the strategy 'should have a strong focus on environmental considerations, and include wider aspects of sustainability including social factors, and ensuring decisions account for the interests of future generations.

MEASUREMENT KEY TERMS

Outcomes measurement and evaluation are often constrained by confusion about core measurement constructs. This confusion can arise from the differences between the terms being very fine and, relatedly, the terms being used interchangeably. The table below provides simple definitions and examples of four core constructs that are included in most outcomes frameworks, including wellbeing frameworks: domain, outcome, indicator and measure.

Not included in the table is the term **target**: a target is a type of indicator that specifies the direction and magnitude of change sought, and sometimes a timeframe in which that change should be observed (e.g., a 20% reduction in the rate of Type 2 diabetes by 2027).

Table 1 Definition and examples of core outcomes measurement constructs

	Domain	Outcome	Indicator	Measure
Definition	Broad component of wellbeing	Articulation of a desired state within a domain	Information that shows progress towards an outcome	More direct, fine-grained information about an indicator (and therefore outcome)
Example	Health	All Tasmanians are healthy	Rate of chronic disease	Proportion of the population with Type 2 diabetes

Glossary

ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
ACT	Australian Capital Territory
DPAC	Department of Premier and Cabinet (Tasmania)
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GLI	Good Life Initiative (Institute for Social Change)
GNH	Gross National Happiness (Bhutan)
HDI	Human Development Index
ISC	Institute for Social Change (University of Tasmania)
LSF	Living Standards Framework (NZ)
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
NT	Northern Territory
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
ONS	Office of National Statistics (UK)
PESRAC	Premier's Economic and Social Recovery Advisory Council
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SWB	Subjective wellbeing
TasCOSS	Tasmanian Council of Social Services
TSS	Tasmanian State Service
TTP	The Tasmania Project
UN	United Nations
UTAS	University of Tasmania

Executive summary

This report, produced by the University of Tasmania's Institute for Social Change, was commissioned by the Tasmanian Department of Premier and Cabinet. The report sheds light on issues and common practice in the development and implementation of population outcomes and wellbeing frameworks with the overarching aim of informing a prospective population outcomes framework for the Tasmanian State Service (TSS).

Several interrelated policies and strategies are under consideration in Tasmania, namely the population outcomes framework, Premier's Wellbeing Framework, and a sustainability strategy. Alignment can be achieved through application of a common language and shared domains, and in doing so provide Tasmania with a cohesive, comprehensive, and innovative approach to wellbeing and sustainability.

It is our understanding that a population outcomes framework for the TSS would complement the Premier's planned Wellbeing Framework. Specifically, drawing on frameworks and indices from around the world with broadly comparable aims (i.e., to conceptualise population wellbeing), the population outcomes framework could provide a high-level architecture of the domains of life that are generally agreed to affect wellbeing. This would enable departments and staff across the TSS to use the population outcomes framework to identify how their functions and services intend to contribute to various domains. The Wellbeing Framework could then build upon this architecture through engagement with individuals and institutions to understand what wellbeing is to them and the factors that facilitate it, within each domain.

The engagement stage is crucial for frameworks to have resonance with people and to ensure that expenditure, policy and outcomes measurement is aligned with what people want for their lives. Accordingly, this report represents a first step in the process of developing a population outcomes framework and Wellbeing Framework. Indeed, the key point to emphasise from this report is that frameworks (or parts of frameworks) that have been developed for different jurisdictions cannot be inserted into the Tasmanian context and be fit-for-purpose. The economic, environmental, social, and political contexts of a place affect what wellbeing is for a population and the levers that are available and effective for facilitating wellbeing.

Understanding what is commonly done in frameworks around the world provides a useful starting point, ensuring that efforts to conceptualise and measure Tasmanians' wellbeing are directed to where they are most useful and built from best practice. For example, there is little debate that health is a component of or impacts upon wellbeing. There is, however, less clarity about the factors *within* health that are important to wellbeing and how these differ by cohort and this nuance can only be unpacked by engaging with people. Thus, knowing that health is a wellbeing domain provides the starting point for understanding what health means in relation to wellbeing in Tasmania and designing and implementing effective policy and interventions to achieve it.

To identify common practice, this report reviews a range of frameworks and indices from around the world that seek to conceptualise and/or measure population wellbeing or comparable concepts. At the commissioning of this project, the following frameworks were identified for inclusion in the analysis; the first four were identified as frameworks at various stages of

development or use in the Tasmanian context, and the second four were understood to have aims overlapping with those of DPAC:

- *UTAS Good Life Initiative*
- *TasCOSS good life domains*
- *Tasmanian Government's Child and Youth Wellbeing Strategy*
- *UN Sustainable Development Goals*
- *New Zealand Living Standards Framework*
- *OECD Better Life Index*
- *ACT Government Wellbeing Framework*
- *VicHealth Public Health and Wellbeing Framework*

A further 27 frameworks and indices were identified through a literature search and were included in the analysis (see Table 3). The purpose of the analysis was to identify common practice rather than evaluate the relative quality of any particular framework.

The analysis revealed that, among the frames analysed, the typical wellbeing index:

- Is international in scope, generally comparing 100 or more countries
- Uses administrative data, often complemented by survey data
- Measures objective wellbeing (though many incorporate subjective wellbeing too)
- Reports at annual intervals
- Includes 10 or fewer domains, and 20-49 indicators

The most common categories of wellbeing domains featured in the frames analysed are (in descending order of frequency):

- **Health** (n=29): health-related aspects of wellbeing, such as access to healthcare, life expectancy, physical health, nutrition and mental health.
- **Institutional and external** (n=29): primarily institutional facilitators of individual wellbeing such as governance, infrastructure, safety, and services.
- **Financial** (n=27): economic and material wellbeing, including factors such as income and cost of living at the individual level and poverty and economic growth at the country level.
- **Inner** (n=25): individually determined aspects of wellbeing such as life satisfaction, belonging, and inclusion.
- **Education and achievement** (n=23): different aspects of people's personal growth through education, training, and learning e.g., access to education, educational achievement, knowledge and skills.
- **Community and culture** (n=23): concepts associated with community life, civic participation, and cultural aspects of wellbeing, such as community connection and connection to culture.
- **Natural environment** (n=19): environmental and ecological aspects which have a direct impact on people's wellbeing, such as air quality and the quality of the living environment.
- **Relationships** (n=14): number, type and quality of relationships and the impact that they have on wellbeing.
- **Work** (n=11): work factors that affect wellbeing, such as ability to participate in the economy, job security, and satisfaction.

- **Housing** (n=11): factors related to housing that impact on wellbeing, including quality and affordability of housing.
- **Hope and future** (n=7): a domain focused on future wellbeing and people's perceptions of their future wellbeing (e.g., hope for the future).
- **Lifestyle** (n=7): Finally, lifestyle wellbeing comprises work, leisure and the balance between them with regard to both time spent and satisfaction with time spent.

This report reveals considerations for the development of a population outcomes framework for the TSS and the subsequent development of the Premier's Wellbeing Framework. The analysis reveals that most modern wellbeing frameworks combine objective and subjective elements of wellbeing, comprise both a framework and index, and use common domains (albeit defined and operationalised in slightly different ways). By adopting common practice across extant frameworks (e.g., using the most commonly employed domains outlined above as a starting point), a population outcomes framework for the TSS could provide the structure of objective factors that encompass and affect wellbeing.

This could then be adapted to the Tasmanian context through engagement with TSS stakeholders. Engagement with Tasmanians would then further increase understanding of the "objective" elements of wellbeing in Tasmania and allow for the incorporation of subjective elements of wellbeing. The latter is particularly relevant for the Premier's Wellbeing Framework, both to ensure that the approach is in line with modern practice and that the framework has resonance and meaning for the people whose wellbeing it is seeking to measure and increase.

We suggest that consideration of the following issues will be beneficial in determining the next steps for the development of a population outcomes framework.

Purpose and intent: The goals that the Tasmanian Government is trying to achieve with the population outcomes framework and/or Tasmanian Wellbeing Framework will determine the scope and content of the eventual framework(s).

Wellbeing approach: the approach to wellbeing will determine what is measured. In relation to a government-held wellbeing framework, a key consideration is the relationship between government and its functions, and people's wellbeing.

Domain selection versus domain content: while there is value in collaboratively determining which domains to include in a wellbeing framework, there is likely enough information in extant frameworks and from research of the Tasmanian context that scarce resources would be better allocated to examining what each domain should comprise and its relative importance.

Place-based approaches: a truly place-based approach offers opportunities to build goodwill, integrate services to create efficiencies and better outcomes, and for innovation. Most importantly, it ensures that the resultant framework reflects the wants, needs, and aspirations of the people it affects, and the role of institutions in meeting them.

Leverage planned and existing work: As noted, there are significant projects underway that seek to better conceptualise, measure and monitor Tasmanians' wellbeing. Adjacent to these, several cross-sector partnerships and relationships have been established for various purposes (e.g., Regional Jobs Hubs). These can all be leveraged to maximise efficiency and comprehensiveness, and avoid duplication, in the process of developing a Tasmanian Wellbeing Framework.

1. Introduction

1.1 BACKGROUND

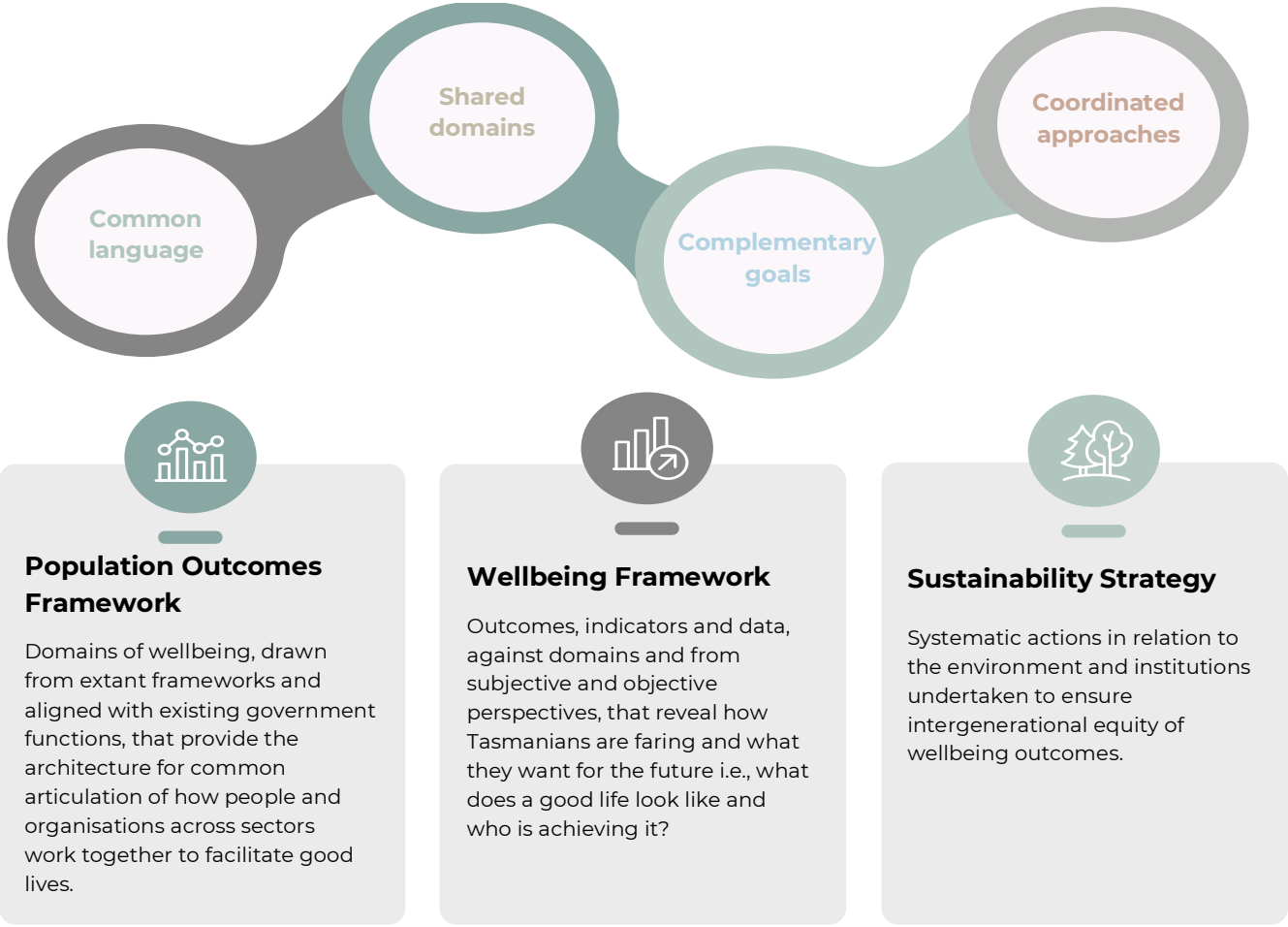
The Tasmanian Department of Premier and Cabinet (DPAC) contracted the Institute for Social Change at University of Tasmania to review and analyse population wellbeing outcomes frameworks to create a shared understanding of conceptual and practical issues in their development and implementation.

To do this, we took a multi-pronged approach, including consulting the academic literature, a search of academic and grey sources for extant wellbeing frameworks, and drawing on our awareness of and relationships with stakeholders who are working on better understanding and measuring and, ultimately, improving wellbeing in Tasmania. This includes the Institute for Social Change's comprehensive program of work that will be undertaken over at least the next three years, the Good Life Initiative.

It is important to situate the present work in relation to the many efforts underway in Tasmania (within and beyond the state government) to conceptualise and measure the wellbeing of Tasmanians, particularly the Rockliff Government's prospective Wellbeing Framework. This report scopes the literature and analyses extant frameworks to understand common practice, reflect on the strengths and weaknesses of this common practice in relation to understanding population wellbeing, and considers the implications for the development of a population outcomes framework for the TSS.

Our understanding of the purpose of a population outcomes framework to DPAC is to provide a high-level architecture against which the different ways in which different government functions and departments work towards population outcomes can be 'mapped'. In this context, a population outcomes framework can be distinguished from a wellbeing framework, such that the former identifies and describes the domains of life that are, based on empirical evidence, likely to impact on the wellbeing of a population. On the other hand, a wellbeing framework specifies desired outcomes which, as we elaborate in Chapter 2, inherently invoke values and thus must be developed in collaboration with people to understand what they value in relation to their wellbeing. Without this collaboration, it is unlikely that a wellbeing framework will have resonance, resulting in the loss of the political capital that could be gained through the process of developing a wellbeing framework, and suboptimal expenditure, effort and measurement due to misalignment between what decision makers believe wellbeing is to people and the factors that facilitate it, and people's wants and needs in relation to their wellbeing.

Figure 1 Opportunities to align population outcomes and wellbeing frameworks and a sustainability strategy



The table below expands on the figure, outlining the rationale for each framework and strategy and the actions involved in their development process. The actions involved in developing each framework and strategy build upon each other: the development of the population outcomes framework provides the architecture, against which the activities of government and other sectors can be mapped, and data to measure the difference those activities make can be scoped. The architecture of the population outcomes framework then provides a starting point for engaging with people to find out what wellbeing means to them, and what's important to them now and in the future. The abovementioned data scoping process for the population outcomes framework will inform the identification of gaps in the data required to accurately and comprehensively measure wellbeing as defined by the wellbeing framework. Extant data can be collated, and new data collected, and then analysed to develop a picture of wellbeing in Tasmania for sharing with Tasmanians. The knowledge of wellbeing and what's important to Tasmanians provides a useful reference point for the Sustainability Strategy in prioritising the actions required for intergenerational equity of those outcomes.

Table 2 Purpose and development process of relevant prospective Tasmanian Government frameworks and strategies

	1 What	2 Why	3 How
Population outcomes framework	Domains of wellbeing, drawn from extant frameworks and aligned with existing government functions, that provide the architecture for common articulation of how people and organisations across sectors work together to facilitate good lives.	To ensure that the aims of current and future activities across government and other sectors can be discussed in shared terms and therefore be aligned, and their collective impacts on and across domains be more clearly understood.	• Review of existing comparable frameworks (this report) • Mapping of programs, services and their targeted outcomes against domains • Scoping of existing data
Premier's Wellbeing Framework	Outcomes, indicators and data that reveal how Tasmanians are faring and what they want for the future i.e. what does a good life look like and who is achieving it?	To align policy, programs and expenditure with what Tasmanians want and need for the wellbeing of themselves, their families and their communities.	• Understanding what is important to people's wellbeing (by speaking to them) • Identifying gaps in data • Collecting, collating and analysing data • Communicating and presenting data on Tasmanians' wellbeing in an open and transparent way
Sustainability strategy	Systematic actions in relation to the environment and institutions undertaken to ensure intergenerational equity of wellbeing outcomes.	To ensure that decisions about the present are made with awareness of their implications for the future, and that Tasmania is aligned with contemporary thinking and action on sustainability.	• Understanding best practice and what Tasmania needs to do to remain competitive in terms of sustainability • Understanding the actions that will be most effective at ensuring sustainability

Therefore, the development of a population outcomes framework for the TSS could serve as an effective starting point for the development of the Premier's Wellbeing Framework. Accordingly, this report represents an initial step towards both frameworks by reviewing what is already underway in Tasmania and how wellbeing and related frameworks have been approached in other jurisdictions. This should help to ensure that subsequent efforts in Tasmania do not seek to reinvent the wheel and provide a starting point for consultation with community stakeholders, including individuals, government and non-government service providers, businesses, and other relevant representatives. This report includes implications and considerations for the development of both the TSS population outcomes framework and the Premier's Wellbeing Framework. It is also worth noting that there is an opportunity to align the population outcomes framework and Premier's Wellbeing Framework with the sustainability strategy for Tasmania recommended by the PESRAC report. While wellbeing and sustainability should not be conflated, use of common language and shared domains across the frameworks could facilitate a cohesive, comprehensive and innovative approach to wellbeing and sustainability in Tasmania.

1.2 APPROACH

In selecting the frameworks to be analysed for this report, we (at DPAC's request) started with three key frameworks at various stages of development in the Tasmanian context:

- *The Institute for Social Change's (ISC's) Good Life Initiative*: building on The Tasmania Project (TTP), which shed light on the importance of various dimensions of wellbeing to Tasmanians during the pandemic and beyond, the Institute has started the Good Life Initiative (GLI). Backbone investment from the University to fund three full-time staff for three years will see the continuation of TTP to examine emergent issues impacting wellbeing in Tasmania; the development of the Good Life Index, comprised of objective indicators of wellbeing to facilitate comparison between regions; and the Good Life Panel, a longitudinal representative panel that will enable better understanding of subjective wellbeing and monitor it over time. These interrelated pieces of work will be supported by PhD projects and partnered research taking 'deeper dives' into particular wellbeing interventions and issues. The data and findings (quantitative and qualitative) derived from the Good Life Initiative will be presented on a web-based platform.
- *TasCOSS's Good Life domains*: through consultation with 300 low-income Tasmanians and service providers that work with them, TasCOSS has developed nine domains required for a 'good life' in Tasmania. These domains have informed TasCOSS's advocacy and priorities (e.g., parliamentary and policy submissions). TasCOSS has begun scoping existing data sources for indicators underneath each of these domains. TasCOSS and ISC are working closely to leverage each other's efforts and to avoid duplication.
- *The Tasmanian Child and Youth Wellbeing Framework*: through consultation and research with stakeholders, including Tasmanian children and young people (including surveys and interviews undertaken via The Tasmania Project), the Tasmanian Government has developed the Child and Youth Wellbeing Framework. The Framework is in place to guide policy and programs relevant to young people in Tasmania.

The UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) were also included. Though the SDGs articulate high-level global goals that, though they will inevitably affect wellbeing, are not directly linked to population wellbeing; the SDGs are an increasingly popular lens through which policy and other activity by institutions (including universities and government) are viewed.

In addition to the four frameworks above in development and/or use in the Tasmanian context, DPAC requested inclusion of the New Zealand Living Standards Framework, OECD Better Life Index, ACT Government Wellbeing Framework and the VicHealth Public Health and Wellbeing Framework.

The analysis was undertaken for the purpose of providing insight on common practice in the content and measurement of population wellbeing frameworks, rather than to assess the quality of any particular framework or index. As such, the frameworks and indices were qualitatively and quantitatively analysed with regard to their:

- **Type** (i.e., framework and/or index)
- **Geographic scope** (regional, state, national, international)

- **Main purpose** (e.g., international comparison, policy development, monitoring citizens' wellbeing)
- **Researched population** (i.e., general population or subpopulation)
- **Data sources and associated types of indices** (e.g., survey, administrative data; composite, self-reported index)
- **Type of wellbeing measured** (i.e., subjective, objective, both)
- **Measurement intervals** (e.g., annual, semi-annual)
- **Ranges of top-level domain categories, domains, and indicators** (i.e., numbers of each)
- **Broad wellbeing domain categories**
- **Wellbeing domains and indicators**

1.2 REPORT OUTLINE

The remainder of the report unfolds as follows:

Chapter 2 provides a brief and broad foundation of wellbeing as a construct, highlights the influence of wellbeing theory on practice, outlines pros (purposes and benefits) and cons (shortcomings) of population outcomes frameworks in general, and provides an overview of the development of some key frameworks.

Chapter 3 analyses 35 extant wellbeing frameworks in terms of their geographic scope, main purpose, population of interest, data source and type of index, type of wellbeing measured, measurement intervals, numbers of domains and indicators and most common domain categories and examples of indicators underneath. Rather than to critique any particular framework, the purpose of the analysis is to identify common practice in the content, purpose and implementation of common wellbeing frameworks.

Chapter 4 reflects on the implications of Chapters 2 and 3 for the development of a Tasmanian Wellbeing Framework. It considers the processes undertaken in developing wellbeing frameworks. It also reflects on what is known about Tasmanians' wellbeing and wellbeing priorities, drawing on The Tasmania Project survey results to identify the importance of selected wellbeing domains to Tasmanian respondents' wellbeing and the prevalence of concern for the future about these domains and TasCOSS's Good Life domains to shed light on what domains of wellbeing are important to lower income Tasmanians and the service providers who work with them. Finally, Chapter 4 identifies fundamental gaps in our knowledge about Tasmania's wellbeing, which we posit will have to be considered in the development of a Tasmanian Wellbeing Framework.

2. Population outcomes frameworks

This chapter covers the foundations of population outcomes frameworks, starting with an introduction of the major schools of thought in defining and conceptualising wellbeing. We then examine how wellbeing theory has affected practice, the purposes and benefits of population outcomes frameworks, and the shortcomings of population outcomes frameworks.

It is important, in our view, to start with these foundational issues as extant frameworks have different purposes and focus on slightly different constructs. For example, the frameworks and indices analysed in this report seek to conceptualise and measure wellbeing, human development, social progress, sustainable development, prosperity, and other similar constructs.

2.1 DEFINING WELLBEING

To understand and evaluate the various approaches to operationalising and measuring wellbeing, it is first important to examine the various definitions of the construct. Definitions of wellbeing vary according to the disciplinary and practical context in which the term is being applied (Alexandrova 2017). For example, psychologists tend to focus on positive mental states, whereas actors in development policy emphasise having the social, political, and economic means to live the kind of life you want.

The simplest definition of wellbeing comes from philosophy, namely: wellbeing is what makes a life go well for someone or, more formally, what is non-instrumentally good for them. Philosophers call this the ‘prudential’ good to distinguish it from other kinds of ‘goods’ like moral goods (e.g. justice), aesthetic goods (e.g. beauty), or epistemic goods (e.g. truth). Accordingly, wellbeing is a value-laden concept – it cannot be defined without making a value judgement as to what is ‘good’, and therefore can never be a purely ‘scientific’ or ‘technical’ concept. Those advocating for policymaking on the basis of one particular understanding of wellbeing are inevitably sneaking their own value judgements into the discussion, often (but not always) inadvertently.

Wellbeing is distinct from the factors that contribute to it. For example, income might contribute to wellbeing by facilitating the purchase of a comfortable mattress that feels good to sleep on, but neither income nor the mattress is wellbeing. It is only the feeling that is intrinsically wellbeing. Philosophy has historically distinguished three broad schools of thought regarding what wellbeing is intrinsically: preference-satisfaction or desire-fulfilment, objective list, and mental state accounts. There are many other accounts (Fletcher 2015), but they can typically be organised under one of these three headings. The table below provides a high-level, simplified summary of these schools of thought (see Appendix A for greater detail about the theoretical development of these schools of thought).

Table 3 Wellbeing schools of thought

	Preference satisfaction	Objective list	Mental state
Conceptualisation of wellbeing	Wellbeing occurs when people have (more of) what they want.	There are particular prerequisites to wellbeing for every human. As such, the presence and/or robustness of these prerequisites results in greater wellbeing.	Wellbeing occurs when one <i>feels</i> good. As such, only individuals can determine whether they experience wellbeing.
Measurement	The extent to which people can achieve their rational, internally consistent preferences. Resources (e.g., income) are often used as a proxy since resources facilitate the fulfilment of preferences/desires.	Measurement depends on what the prerequisites to wellbeing are considered to be. Capabilities approaches tend to focus on institutionally determined factors that affect people's ability to live the type of life they want to lead e.g., who has the right to vote; how many hospitals there are per 100,000 people. Self-determination theorists focus more on self-reported psychological factors, namely one's sense of autonomy, competence and relatedness.	Measurement of mental state accounts of wellbeing generally involves asking people about recent experiences of various positive and negative emotions, as well asking them to evaluate how their life is going, typically in terms of their satisfaction with life and its various domains (e.g. family, work, finances, etc.) on a scale from 1–10.
Major critiques	Preference satisfaction accounts assume that people know what would bring them the most value, but experimental research has demonstrated this to be untrue. People's preference often do not make them happy when realised, and it is only then that they update their preferences. Attempts by economists to get around this problem by using idealised notions of preferences are considered unrealistic. Measurement is also a major challenge, with the income-based approach preferred by economics being considered highly flawed even by economists themselves.	Objective list approaches often assume that the presence of certain factors will invariably enhance wellbeing. This fails to account for individual differences both in what is important to wellbeing and the extent to which each factor contributes to wellbeing, and overlooks factors outside of the objective list that may impact on wellbeing.	The subjectivity of mental state accounts is questionable. Individuals can feel good in bad circumstances (e.g. situations that put them in danger) and become acclimatised to bad circumstances such that they don't affect them much (e.g. citizens of oppressive regimes), so individuals' feelings about their lives may belie their circumstances. This gives rise to ethical issues. For example, is it acceptable to support or promote objectively hazardous circumstances as long as people are happy? Accordingly, some advocate for mental state accounts of wellbeing as long as those accounts are based on authentic and autonomous judgements of one's life, which is difficult to determine in practice.

As the table above illustrates, there are several ways of thinking about wellbeing. Broadly and simply, these involve conceptualising wellbeing as: getting what you want, getting what you (and everyone) needs, or feeling good. Debate between advocates of these positions continues apace. The issue for government, we argue, is not whether one school of thought is correct. Rather, it is that the perspectives need to be considered in relation to the purpose at hand.

2.2 WELLBEING THEORY VERSUS PRACTICE

While conceptual debates among academics have influenced wellbeing policy over the decades, the reality on the ground tends to be messier and more pragmatic. For example, while capabilities (the freedoms people have that allow them to live the type of life they value) are the principal philosophical idea underpinning most wellbeing frameworks already in existence, notably the Sustainable Development Goals, New Zealand's Wellbeing Budget, and Bhutan's Gross National Happiness Index, many of these indices also include life satisfaction as an item, as in the OECD's Better Life Index. This is despite the capabilities paradigm being explicitly opposed to the use of such mental states as indicators of wellbeing because of concerns about adaptive preferences. This is where people get used to their circumstances and consequently say that they are 'happy' or 'satisfied' even when the condition of their lives is objectively poor. The inclusion of life satisfaction in capabilities-inspired wellbeing frameworks likely reflects a range of factors, including:

- *The experimental nature of those frameworks* – why commit to one way of understanding wellbeing when we know so little of how wellbeing policy will play out?
- *The desire to incorporate ideas from across the range of wellbeing science and scholarship* – if an idea has a large body of work behind it surely it has some merit?
- *The availability of measures and data* – life satisfaction is much easier to measure than most capabilities and high quality, internationally comparable life satisfaction data stretching back decades is available through Gallup's World Values Survey.

As various branches of wellbeing science mature and wellbeing policy increases in prominence, these three motivations of experimentation, representation, and availability are shepherding an increasing number of wellbeing theories and measures into policy use. The European Social Survey, for example, has collected data on basic psychological needs and meaning in life since 2006. The Household Income and Labour Dynamics of Australia (HILDA) survey collects a range of evaluative wellbeing measures corresponding to important domains like satisfaction with work, family, and community. There are also growing calls from different branches of academia to incorporate measures of inequality and sustainability into wellbeing policy, as well as a broader range of psychological items like mindfulness, compassion, and harmony.

All this is to say that academics have not developed uncontroversial wellbeing policy paradigms that can be employed off-the-shelf, and the academic debate would benefit from experimentation on the part of policymakers. A key starting point for any wellbeing policy effort and any wellbeing outcomes framework is to ask what purpose it will serve within government and the bureaucracy. Different conceptual paradigms, frameworks, measures, and evaluation tools will be better suited to different applications. With that in mind, we now point to the general benefits and shortcomings of implementing wellbeing theory into practice via population wellbeing frameworks.

2.3 PURPOSES AND BENEFITS OF POPULATION OUTCOMES AND WELLBEING FRAMEWORKS

When conceptualised and implemented carefully, there are several purposes and therefore benefits to government of developing population outcomes frameworks and wellbeing frameworks. In this section, we outline the utility of population frameworks as a facilitator of coordination across government, as an analytical tool, and as a way of signalling government's commitment to particular values. Though the development of a population outcomes framework and a wellbeing framework in Tasmania is likely to be a two-step process resulting in separate frameworks and slightly different purposes (see Chapter 1), the benefits are shared by both types of frameworks.

2.3.1 Coordination across government

One benefit of high-level population outcomes and wellbeing frameworks that is typically underappreciated by researchers operating outside government is their ability to organise public administration. Duplication is a source of substantial inefficiencies and confusion for government that has only grown worse as data has come to play an increasingly large role in public management. This is particularly relevant in the Tasmanian context because, as noted by the Independent Review of the Tasmanian State Service (TSS), the TSS cannot afford to duplicate capabilities across agencies. However, identifying and preventing duplication can be difficult as people pursue slightly different objectives across different functions. Having a framework that organises these different activities and objectives, such as by domain(s) of wellbeing they target, facilitates the identification of similar activities and objectives across the TSS and allows for discussion of these in a shared language and, subsequently, coordination to leverage different activities and avoid duplication.

Accordingly, population outcomes and wellbeing frameworks are a means of systematising policy objectives, outcome metrics, service delivery, data, and evaluations so that ministries more effectively coordinate and leverage each other's resources. The Independent Review of the TSS noted that the needs of people are multidimensional and thus span portfolios, and emphasised the need for the TSS to work in a coordinated (as opposed to siloed) way to meet the varied needs of people. To this end, a population outcomes and/or wellbeing framework and its associated metrics acts like a light on the hill towards which a range of policy activity can be oriented.

2.3.2 Analytical and accountability tool

Population outcomes and wellbeing frameworks have some merit as an analytical tool for thinking through the objectives and organisation of public policy and public management, but they have substantial weaknesses in technical applications. On the positive side, wellbeing frameworks can help policymakers adopt a 'whole of government' perspective, situating their own work within the broader goals of public management. This helps to overcome the phenomenon of silos, where individual agencies or teams within those agencies overlook the complementarities and conflicts that exist between their efforts and the wider policy system in which they take place. In practice, wellbeing frameworks seem to encourage policymakers to engage in more joint efforts with actors across agencies.

Therefore, a population outcomes framework is a useful tool for taking stock of the different ways that departments and their programs are working towards outcomes in different domains. In

addition to the abovementioned benefits of minimising duplication and leveraging efforts, such a stocktake allows for analysis of the approaches to policy and government service design and delivery in relation to the outcomes they're trying to achieve. This, in turn, allows for identification of gaps and overlaps in policy and services. In addition to analysis of the approaches, a population outcomes framework can serve as an architecture for organising the outcomes achieved by these approaches (e.g., for storing, organising and presenting the results of program and policy evaluations). As noted above, there are technical limitations to the analytical applications of a population outcomes framework. For example, understanding health outcomes in Tasmania is not as simple as compiling the results of all health program evaluations, as each program will have a different scope, be targeted towards different cohorts, use different data collection methodologies, have different sample sizes and collect data at different intervals, for instance. However, using the population outcomes framework to organise the information gleaned from various data collection exercises allows us to better understand what we already know and what we've already tried (and how well it worked).

The ability of a population outcomes framework to facilitate analysis of what has been done and what has been achieved can also serve as an accountability mechanism. If government states their intention to provide particular services to achieve particular outcomes, the population outcomes framework provides a means to 'check' whether that intention has been actioned and, in many cases, whether that action has resulted in the intended change.

2.3.3 Rhetorical and commitment device

The principal purpose of wellbeing frameworks is rhetorical – they signal and commit a government to pursuing a broader suite of values than those traditionally emphasised in political discourse. Typically, this broader suite of values includes sustainability, equality, mental health, housing security, community, and robust political participation. This is in juxtaposition to an emphasis on simply 'jobs and growth' or some other relatively narrow set of economic objectives, which was characteristic of policymaking in the post WWII decades of the 20th century. It should be noted that in all cases to date where governments have announced wellbeing frameworks, those governments were already pursuing sustainability, mental health, housing security, and the other 'new' priorities included in their frameworks. By limiting to existing actions and functions of government, the frameworks are thus mostly a matter of shifting emphasis rather than deep reform of policy objectives or architecture.

More broadly, the institution of a new wellbeing framework creates an opportunity for government to reshape the policy narrative. Over successive decades, institutional settings, bureaucratic processes, media cycles, government agendas, and ways of doing public policy can all settle into well-worn paths that form expectations of what government will do and on what criteria it will be held to account. Productivity growth, for example, was a key driver of policy reform in Australia through the 1980s and continued to dominate both politics and policy for decades afterwards. Wellbeing frameworks can be leveraged to launch a new narrative with different parameters, encouraging stakeholders to develop new expectations from government and hold them to account on new criteria.

2.4 SHORTCOMINGS OF POPULATION WELLBEING FRAMEWORKS

It must be noted that there are shortcomings of broad population wellbeing frameworks. We introduce these, namely the danger of generalisation, challenges in selecting and applying

weights to framework items, the risk of spurious and misleading statistics, and limitations to informing policy on the ground, in broad terms. Chapters 4 and 5 will consider these shortcomings in detail in relation to a prospective Tasmanian Wellbeing Framework.

2.4.1 The danger of one-size-fits-all

State-level wellbeing frameworks are necessarily abstract as they inherently seek to conceptualise and operationalise wellbeing for entire populations. Thus, wellbeing frameworks are generally unable to handle nuance. If they are forcefully applied down the various scales at which government operates, they can cause complex policies to be bent into a shape that fits the wellbeing framework, potentially harming the effectiveness of those policies in the process. This would be a new manifestation of what is called ‘the tyranny of metrics’ among scholars of public management (Muller 2018).

The classic example of such tyranny is ‘teaching to the test’ in schools rather than offering a holistic education because test scores are the metric prized by evaluators and managers higher up the policy chain. Performance management of this sort erodes the spirit of public service and can leave front line staff feeling demoralised (van Thiel & Leeuw 2002). Such consequences could easily flow from wellbeing frameworks if they are implemented in a ham-fisted manner. For example, one measure of health in the ACT framework is longevity. This could result in end-of-life care policy being forcefully oriented towards life extension even if the preference of service users leaned more towards palliation.

2.4.2 The weighting problem

Consider two individuals, A and B. A has an income of \$150 000 per annum and a bad knee. B has an income of \$75 000 but their knees work perfectly. Who is more well? The answer depends how you weight health against income. The standard approach to this issue in economic analysis is to try and denominate everything in dollars, in this case by estimating the price of knee replacement surgery and subtracting that from A’s income (Alder 2019). However, a central motivation of wellbeing frameworks is to move past income-based policy comparisons. This brings the weighting problem front and centre. In all cases to date, analysts either assume equal weights across the dimensions of a wellbeing index, or leave users free to define the weights, as in the OECD’s Better Life Index. Neither of these approaches is entirely satisfactory. Equal weights assumes equal value across the dimensions, but some advocate for greater weight to be placed on some items. Health and sustainability, for example, seem to make the other dimensions possible and should thus arguably be given greater consideration in policy analysis.

It should briefly be noted that cost-effectiveness using life satisfaction scale data is not a promising alternative, despite recent advances (see Frijters and Krekel 2021 for an optimistic perspective). The psychometric exercises used to validate life satisfaction scales have been criticised (Alexandrova & Haybron 2016). Even if their validity is accepted, evidence suggests that the scales lack the precision required for cost-effectiveness analysis, especially when used with small samples, especially in the context of policy comparisons (Benjamin et al. 2020, Fabian 2021).

2.4.3 Spurious statistics

Regression analysis using wellbeing indices tends to produce results that are ‘by construction’ and thus uninformative and misleading. This is essentially because the items in the wellbeing framework are so numerous (owing to the complexity and interconnectedness of wellbeing as a construct) that most variables that could be placed into a regression to explain the wellbeing index are endogenous to (i.e. caused or affected by) something in that index. For example, the OECD Index contains ‘safety’ as an item. If you are then interested in how domestic violence affects wellbeing, you are essentially measuring how a dependent variable (safety) is affected by its opposite (violence). This is a clear case of endogeneity, so this regression will produce biased estimates and inaccurate standard errors.

The contribution of any policy variable to wellbeing largely depends on the weight given to the associated item in the wellbeing index. Tree planting might help sustainability and thereby improve wellbeing, but ‘how much’ really depends on how tree planting is measured and then entered into the model, how sustainability enters the model, and then how sustainability is weighted relative to the other items. There is thus huge potential for deliberately misleading statistics.

2.4.4 Limited ability to inform policy on the ground

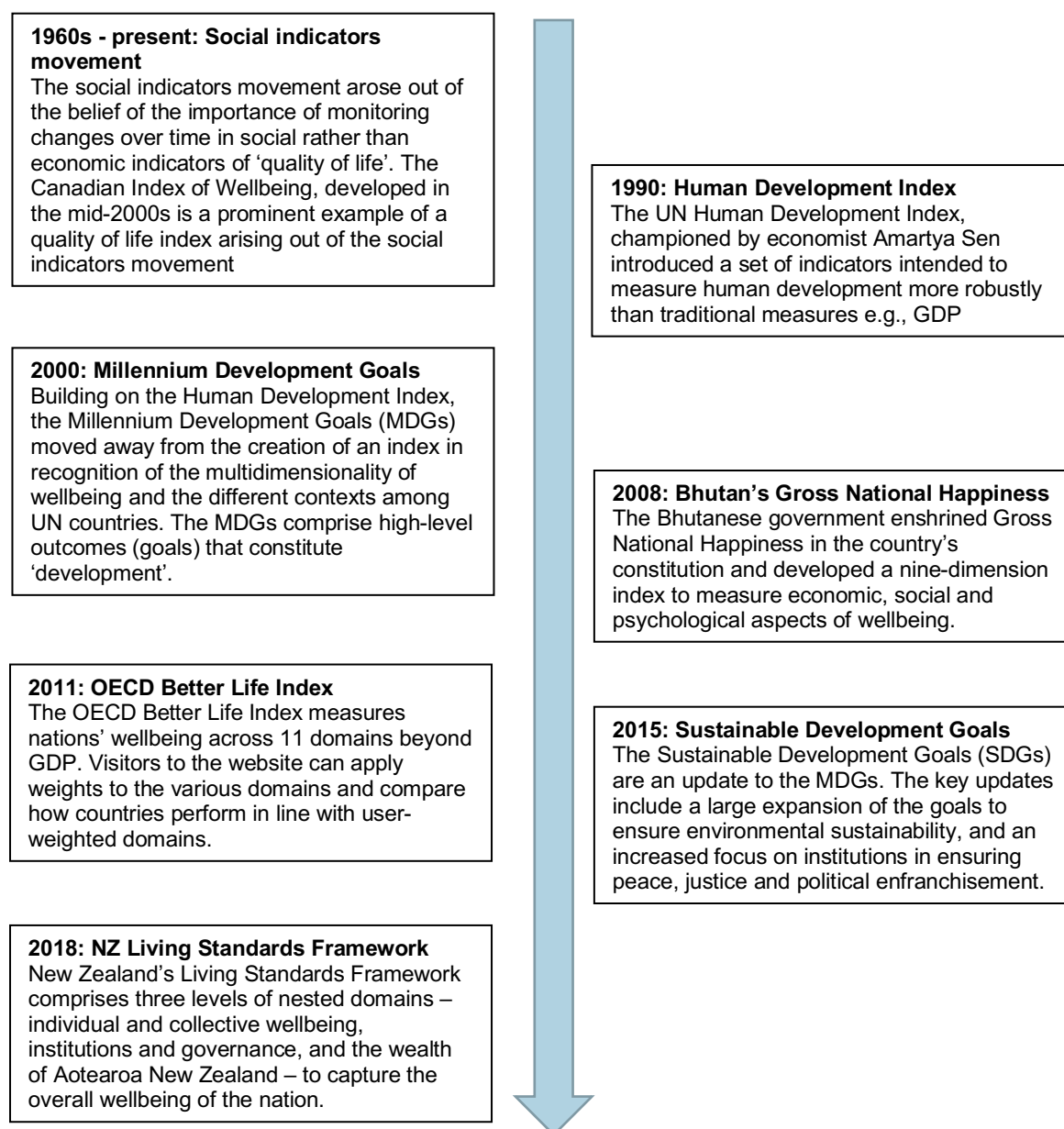
A high-level wellbeing index like that of the OECD needs to be adapted to specific policy contexts if it is to be of practical rather than merely narrative use. For example, the ‘health’ item that appears in nearly all wellbeing indices will manifest differently in palliative care, post-natal care, pharmaceuticals policy, and GP training. A serious exploration of what ‘health’ means for the wellbeing of a person with diabetes, for example, might uncover the need for cheap insulin, access to fresh food, dietary advice, regular and easy deliveries of medication, reliable access to a specialist medical practitioner, and so on. This more nuanced contextual understanding of what health means to people with diabetes points the way to specific areas for policy attention, and from there to informative measures and outcomes around which to base procurement.

More broadly, a contextual understanding of ‘wellbeing’ for people with diabetes might reveal that some subset of the state-level index is especially relevant. For example, themes relating to health and jobs might be especially salient, while education and civic engagement barely merit a mention despite their inclusion in a wellbeing outcomes framework at the state level. This precision again informs policy objectives and measures in a way that a high-level index cannot.

2.5 A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF POPULATION OUTCOMES FRAMEWORKS

This section provides a very brief history of the development of population outcomes frameworks by examining the ways and contexts in which they have been applied, drawing on prominent examples to illustrate key thinking underlying each effort. The timeline below presents an overview of key developments in population outcomes, followed by summaries of each development with greater detail.

Figure 2 A timeline of key developments in population outcomes frameworks



2.5.1 Human Development Index

The first well-known attempt to create a wellbeing framework to inform public policy was the United Nations' Human Development Index (HDI), championed by Amartya Sen, developer of the capabilities approach. In keeping with his argument that income was an inadequate measure of wellbeing (or, more accurately, the capability to achieve wellbeing); the HDI also included education, measured using years of schooling, and health, measured using life expectancy at birth. The HDI has obvious shortcomings, such as including years of schooling as an indicator of wellbeing but not accounting for the quality of that schooling. However, the HDI was always intended as a proof of concept, not a rigorous implementation of the capabilities paradigm. The choice of measures was driven mostly by the availability of the relevant data for a large number of countries, thereby enabling international comparison.

2.5.2 Millennium Development Goals and Sustainable Development Goals

The HDI evolved into the MDGs and SDGs. These moved away from the creation of an ‘index’. They instead embraced the multidimensionality of wellbeing as the capabilities approach defines it, as well as recognising the different contexts, values, and path dependencies of the various countries that make up the United Nations. Consequently, the MDGs and SDGs are a set of high-level outcomes and numerous associated sub-goals that collectively constitute ‘development’ that are only loosely related conceptually.

Figure 3 The Millennium Development Goals (2000)



The MDGs made 2 main extensions to the HDI. The first was to broaden income, health, and education to a range of indicators, such as maternal health, and a focus on malaria and HIV/AIDS. The second was to incorporate political enfranchisement as a capability through the goal of ‘promote gender equality and empower women’.

The main extension in the SDGs was to dramatically expand goal 7 from the MDGs, namely ‘ensure environmental sustainability’. New items in this vein focused on responsible consumption and production, clean energy, sustainable cities, ocean health, and ecosystem resilience. The SDGs also deepened the conceptualisation of political enfranchisement from the MDGs with a new focus on institutions, reflecting a rapidly developing evidence base that institutions are the primary determinants of long-term development.

Figure 4 The Sustainable Development Goals (2016)



It is important to acknowledge that the HDI, MDGs and SDGs are intended to measure human development and, in doing so, they articulate goals for global society, underpinned by the belief that the achievement of these goals will facilitate citizens' wellbeing. Thus, they do not in and of themselves conceptualise nor measure wellbeing.

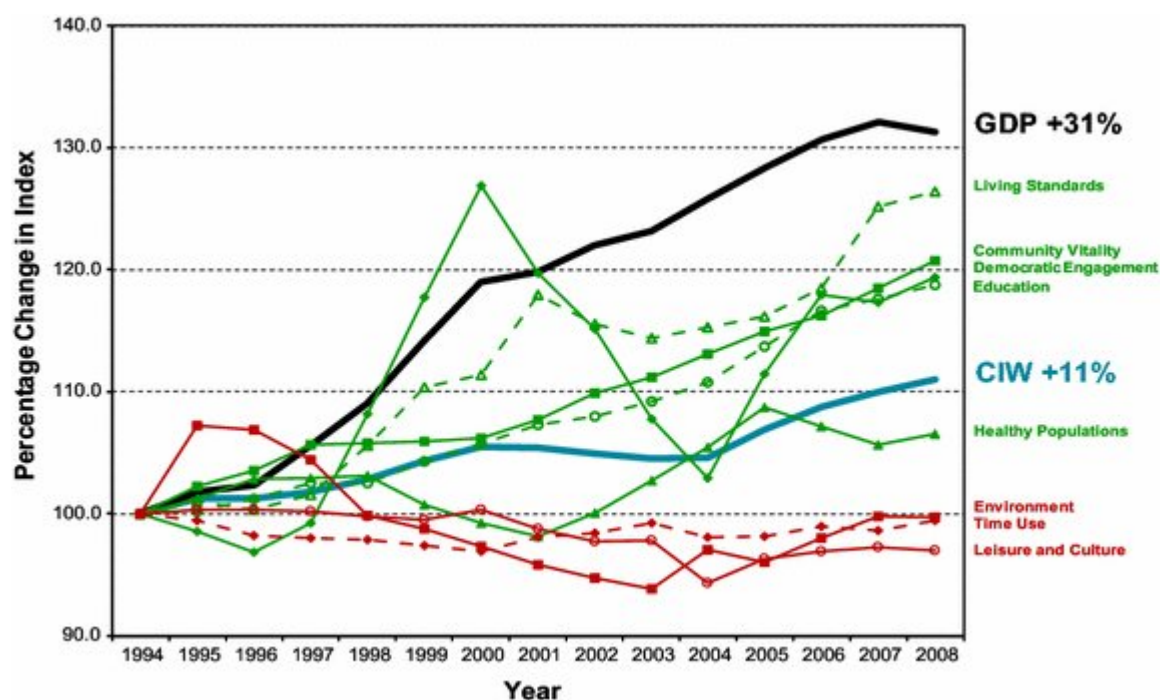
2.5.3 Social indicators movement

Beginning in the 1960s, the social indicators movement was motivated by the belief that it was important to monitor changes over time in a variety of social phenomena associated with 'quality of life' beyond traditional economic indicators, notably GDP. While quality of life is often used interchangeably with wellbeing, they are separate constructs, which is reflected in the emphasis of objective indicators in quality of life indices (though they often include or acknowledge subjective wellbeing as one component of quality of life).

Perhaps the most famous quality of life index is the Canadian Index of Wellbeing run by the University of Waterloo, developed in the mid-2000s. Following consultations with citizen and expert focus groups asking 'what matters for quality of life', the index settled on 8 domains: living standards (including income), healthy populations, community vitality, democratic engagement, leisure and culture, time use, education, and the environment. Each domain has 8 indicators, resulting in 64 indicators in total.

While reported on individually (see), the domains' items are also aggregated into an index. The technical problem of constructing a unidimensional scale to reasonably represent a multidimensional construct of human wellbeing (see below) was solved by creating a mean percentage change rate ratios scale. Because percentage change scales allow deteriorations on some indicators to be compensated by improvements in others, they may be regarded as compensatory scales.

Figure 5 Trends in the Canadian Index of Wellbeing (CIW) compared to GDP, 1994–2008



Source: Land & Michalos 2018, p. 857

2.5.4 Bhutan's Gross National Happiness

A prominent example of a wellbeing index (using the wellbeing-adjacent term happiness) is Bhutan's Gross National Happiness (GNH) index. After enshrining GNH as the goal of the government in the country's constitution, the GNH index and policy analysis tool were developed by the Bhutanese government in partnership with the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative led by Sabina Alkire. Despite the phrase 'happiness', satisfaction and mood are just one domain of the index, which is instead grounded in the idea that development should take a holistic approach towards notions of progress and give equal importance to non-economic aspects of wellbeing. The GNH index includes nine domains (Ura et. al. 2012) developed using psychometric techniques rather than public input. These are:

- Psychological wellbeing
- Health
- Education
- Time use
- Cultural diversity and resilience
- Good governance
- Community vitality
- Ecological diversity and resilience
- Living standards

2.5.5 OECD Better Life Index

The OECD Better Life Index, developed in 2011, is another proof-of-concept effort designed to allow international comparisons between OECD nations on dimensions beyond GDP. It includes the following domains:

- Housing
- Income
- Jobs
- Community
- Education
- Environment
- Civic engagement
- Health
- Life satisfaction
- Safety
- Work-life balance

A key innovation of the OECD index is that visitors to its website can apply their own weightings to the different domains to see how countries stack up according to the values of that individual. For example, if one places maximum weight on income, the United States ranks 1st out of 38 nations. However, if one instead places the same weight on work-life balance, Norway ranks first and the United States falls to 14th. If one assumes an equal weighting across the domains, the ranking is very highly correlated with GDP: wealthy West European and Scandinavian states rank at the top along with Australia, New Zealand, Canada, and the US, and relatively poorer Eastern European and Latin American countries rank bottom along with Turkey and South Africa.

2.5.6 New Zealand's Living Standards Framework

A shift to a 'wellbeing' economy was a centrepiece of Jacinda Arden's first electoral campaign in New Zealand, culminating in the nation's first wellbeing budget in 2019. This budget was oriented to support the new Living Standards Framework (LSF) for New Zealand, which is a well-known wellbeing framework. The LSF has 3 'levels', each with a set of nested domains, specifically:

- Individual and collective wellbeing
 - o Health
 - o Housing
 - o Knowledge and skills
 - o Environmental amenity
 - o Cultural capital and belonging
 - o Leisure and play
 - o Work, care, and volunteering
 - o Family and friends

- o Engagement and voice
- o Safety
- o Income, consumption, and wealth
- o Subjective wellbeing
- Institutions and governance
 - o Whānau, hāpu, and iwi (roughly: family, tribe, subtribe – the collective)
 - o Firms and markets
 - o Families and households
 - o Central and local governments
 - o Civil society
 - o International connections
- The wealth of Aotearoa New Zealand
 - o Natural environment
 - o Financial and physical capital
 - o Social cohesion
 - o Human capability

These 3 levels and their subdomains are analysed with assistance from four ‘analytical prompts’, namely: distribution, resilience, productivity, and sustainability.

The domains of the ‘individual and collective wellbeing’ level are very similar to those of other wellbeing frameworks, especially the OECD’s Better Life Index. The four items of ‘the wealth of Aotearoa New Zealand’ mimic the ‘four capitals’ framework for wealth accounting (Coyle et al. 2019), namely natural capital, built capital, social capital, and human capital. It is proposed that these four capitals constituted the collective, multidimensional wealth of a society. Sustainability can then be defined as no future generation having less wealth than the present generation. Accordingly, the New Zealand Living Standards Framework integrates concepts from a range of disciplines to provide a multilevel view of wellbeing (individual, institutional and societal).

3. Analysis of extant wellbeing frameworks and indices

This chapter presents analysis of extant wellbeing frameworks and indices in terms of their geographic scope, main purpose, population of interest, data source and type of index, type of wellbeing measured, measurement intervals, numbers of domains, and the most common categories of domains and examples of indicators underneath each.

The purpose of the analysis is not to assess the quality of any particular index, but rather to provide insight on common practice in the content and measurement of population wellbeing frameworks. Chapter 4 will reflect on the different processes through which various wellbeing frameworks have been developed, what we know about wellbeing in Tasmania, and, importantly, what we don't know about what constitutes wellbeing in Tasmania.

3.1 THE WELLBEING FRAMES IN SCOPE

For the purpose of this report, we carried out a search of scientific literature and grey literature and identified the majority of (arguably) the most influential large-scale wellbeing indices and wellbeing frameworks. Per DPAC's request, we started with the frameworks at various stages of development in the Tasmanian context (Institute for Social Change's Good Life Initiative¹, TasCOSS's Good Life domains and the Tasmanian Government's Child and Youth Wellbeing Framework) and the UN Sustainable Development Goals. In addition, the New Zealand Living Standards Framework, OECD Better Life Index, ACT Government Wellbeing Framework, and the VicHealth Public Health and Wellbeing Framework were specified for inclusion in the contract for this project. Then, in line with the overarching aim of this project, which is to inform a possible population wellbeing framework to sit within the Tasmanian State Service; we intentionally selected a number of Australian and New Zealand wellbeing frameworks and indices. Recognising the importance of context when conceptualising wellbeing, we also included place-based indices, both from Australian regions (state/territories) and abroad. Finally, we included a number of prominent international indices and frameworks, noting their influence on the wellbeing space, including on the aforementioned place-based, state and country-level indices and frameworks.

The list of 35 wellbeing frames² is available in Table 3. We also provide some basic information about each, including the type of wellbeing frame (either an index or a framework), geographic scope (international, national, and place-based), and a short description of the frame, distinguishing it from other similar indices. The information on wellbeing domains is later provided in Table 4.

For most of those listed in Table 1, we can conclude that they conceptualise, measure and monitor wellbeing in the broadest sense. We could argue that some are more focused on a particular wellbeing domain or a concept that is closely related to wellbeing, such as peace (Global Peace Index) or prosperity (Where-to-be-born Index).

It is important to note that there are other national and international wellbeing or wellbeing-related indices and frameworks that are not included in this report. Decisions on which frames to include were based on the project scope, such that we assessed a) the frame's ability to provide

¹ Note that the Institute for Social Change's Good Life Initiative is not included in the analysis as its domains, indicators and measures are still being determined (through research and consultation).

² We use 'wellbeing frames' as an umbrella term for wellbeing indices, frameworks and metrics.

insight about conceptual and practical issues of population wellbeing frameworks in general, b) the insights the frame can offer about population wellbeing frameworks developed for particular contexts and/or within government, c) the influence of the frame on thinking and efforts in the population wellbeing space, and d) the marginal contribution of the frame on points a)-c) above the frames already included in the analysis.

After identifying the frames, we quantitatively and qualitatively analysed their characteristics to identify the most prevalent practices in different wellbeing measurement settings. We coded the following information for each frame:

- Types of wellbeing frames
- Geographic scope
- Main purpose
- Researched population
- Data sources and associated types of indices
- Type of wellbeing measured
- Measurement intervals
- Ranges of top-level domain categories, domains, and indicators
- Broad wellbeing domain categories
- Wellbeing domains and indicators

The next sections report the findings of the analysis under each of the headings above.

3.2 TYPES OF WELLBEING FRAMES

We generally distinguish between two types of wellbeing frames, indices and frameworks, which we define for the purposes of this report as follows:

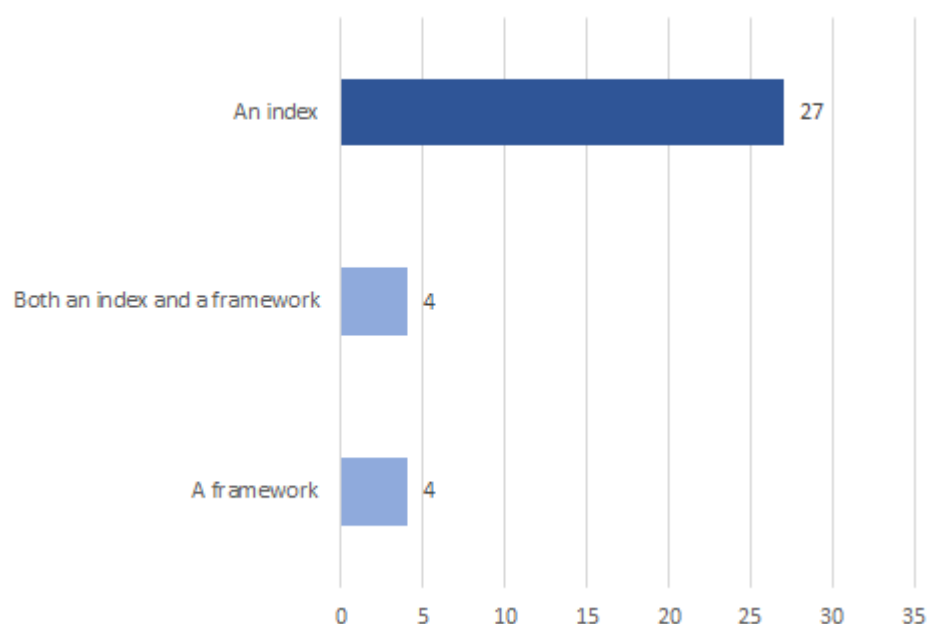
- **Indices:** tools for measuring and reporting wellbeing of different types of populations. These include so-called metrics which do not include the reporting/dissemination component and arguably make more of a methodological than a practical contribution to wellbeing measurement.
- **Frameworks:** policy-based frameworks used to guide policy development/response. Frameworks are not measurement tools and do not include data gathering.

Some frames include both a wellbeing framework and an index.

Table 4 Wellbeing frames analysed for this report

Name	Type of wellbeing frame	Geographic scope	Short description
ACT Wellbeing Framework	Index and framework	Australian Capital Territory	A place-based (state/territory) wellbeing policy framework including a composite index
Australian Bureau of Statistics' Our Wellbeing	Framework	Australia	A conceptual framework for national official statistics
Australian Unity Wellbeing Index	Index	Australia	A national self-reported index based on satisfaction measures
BES: equitable and sustainable well-being	Index	Italy	A national composite index releasing data annually
Better Life Index	Index	International (41 countries)	A popular index from OECD based on various types of data sources
Canadian Index of Wellbeing	Index	Canada	A national composite index releasing data periodically
Gallup World Poll	Index	International (160 countries)	A set of 16 wellbeing indices based on self-reported wellbeing
Genuine Progress Indicator	Metric	Not defined	An administrative data-based metric incorporating costs and benefits
Global Liveability index	Index	International (140 cities)	An index measuring wellbeing in cities based on expert evaluations
Global Peace Index	Index	International (163 countries)	A measure of global peacefulness based on three institutional wellbeing domains
Global Youth Development Index	Index	International (181 countries)	An index measuring objective wellbeing of youth
Gross National Happiness Index	Index	Bhutan	One of the first wellbeing indices/frameworks focusing on subjective wellbeing
Gross National Wellness	Index and framework	Not defined	A self-reported index developed to measure subjective wellbeing
Happy Planet Index	Index	International (152 countries)	A sustainable wellbeing measure
Human Development Index	Index	International (189 countries)	An index based on financial, health and education wellbeing
Indicators Aotearoa New Zealand	Index	New Zealand	A national composite index releasing data annually
Multidimensional Poverty Index	Index	International (107 countries)	An index examining self-reported deprivation in world countries
National Well-being	Index	United Kingdom	A national composite index releasing data annually
Quality of Life Index	Index	International (87 countries)	A crowd-sourced database of quality-of-life information
Satisfaction with Life Index	Index	International (178 countries)	A composite index primarily measuring satisfaction
Social Progress Index	Index	International (168 countries)	A composite index based on social and environmental indicators
Sustainable Development Goals	Index and framework	International (193 countries)	A large-scale framework and objective wellbeing index of sustainable development
Sustainable Society Index	Index	International (213 countries)	An objective wellbeing measure of social, environmental, and economic sustainability
Tasmania's Child and Youth Wellbeing Strategy	Framework	Tasmania	A place-based (state/territory) wellbeing strategy for children and youth
The Global Youth Wellbeing Index	Index	International (29 countries)	A cross-national comparative index measuring objective & subjective wellbeing of youth
The Good Life	Framework	Tasmania	A place-based (state/territory) wellbeing framework for general population
The Good Life Index	Index	Southern Denmark	A composite place-based (regional) index
The Legatum Prosperity Index	Index	International (167 countries)	A large-scale composite measure largely based on institutional wellbeing
The Living Standards Framework	Framework	New Zealand	A national policy framework which will measure wellbeing in the future (an index)
Thriving Places Index	Index	England/Wales	A composite place-based (local authorities) index
UNICEF's Child Wellbeing	Index	International (29 countries)	A smaller-scale composite measure of child wellbeing
Victorian public health and wellbeing outcomes framework	Index and framework	Victoria	A place-based (state/territory) policy wellbeing framework and index
Where-to-be-born Index	Index	International (80 countries)	An index measuring opportunities for a healthy, safe and prosperous life
World Happiness Report	Index	International (119 countries)	A self-reported subjective wellbeing measure of inner wellbeing
Youth Progress Index	Index	International (168 countries)	A measure of youth wellbeing based on Social Progress Index methodology

Figure 6 Types of wellbeing frames, absolute frequencies (n=35)



The majority of wellbeing frames analysed in this report are indices (n=27) or include an index within a framework (n=4). Four of 35 are wellbeing frameworks, which means that they do not include a measurement component. One of the wellbeing indices identified in this report does not include the data gathering and reporting component.

It is of note that ‘indices’ and ‘metrics’ are often used interchangeably, and indices can be considered a metric for measuring wellbeing. An example of that is Happiness Index Metric, which was later renamed to Indicators Aotearoa New Zealand. For that reason, as well as since there are little methodological differences between them (except for the data gathering and reporting component), we do not distinguish between indices and metrics in this report.

Also of note is that ‘frameworks’ and ‘indices’ terminology can be, in practice, used interchangeably. For example, the OECD Better Life Index sometimes appears in the literature as Better Life Framework. This is even more common when a framework also includes an index or an index is based on a previously developed conceptual framework. An example of that is the ACT Wellbeing Framework which includes the Personal Wellbeing index, which is presented in a case study below.

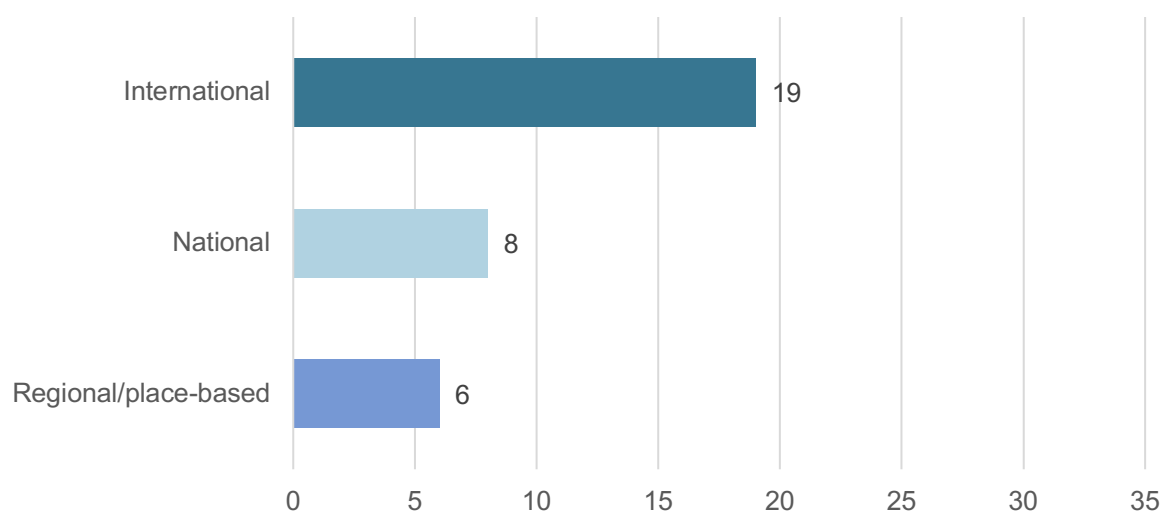
Figure 7 A wellbeing frame comprising both a framework and an index

A case study: ACT Wellbeing Framework and Personal Wellbeing Index
The ACT Wellbeing Framework is a place-based wellbeing framework. It measures what quality of life aspects are important to the residents of the Australian Capital Territory (ACT). It defines wellbeing as “...how we are doing, as individuals, as a community, and as a place to live. It’s about having the opportunity and ability to lead lives of personal and community value – with qualities such as good health, time to enjoy the things in life that matter, in an environment that promotes personal growth and is sustainable.” The ACT Wellbeing Framework includes the following domains that are measured with the Personal Wellbeing Index: Access and connectivity, Economy, Education and life-long learning, Environment and climate, Health, Housing and home, Identity and belonging, Living standard, Personal wellbeing, Safety, Social connections, and Time. Some of the indicators of wellbeing incorporated in the index are: the proportion of 3-year-olds enrolled in preschool, health status (self-reported), housing suitability index, and perceptions of safety in the neighbourhood at night. The index combines both subjective and objective wellbeing and includes both survey and administrative data sources.

3.3 GEOGRAPHIC SCOPE

We identified substantial differences in geographic scope, which is relevant as geographic scope is often associated with the main purpose of measuring or conceptualising wellbeing (discussed in the next section). There are three main groups of wellbeing frames by geographic scope: international, national, and regional/place-based. Figure 8 provides a breakdown of the frames analysed by geographic scope. Note that 2 frames do not specify a geographic scope – the Genuine Progress Indicator is a system of measurement for the wellbeing of a nation and Gross National Wellness provides a framework and index for measuring objective and subjective wellbeing, but neither were designed for a particular place.

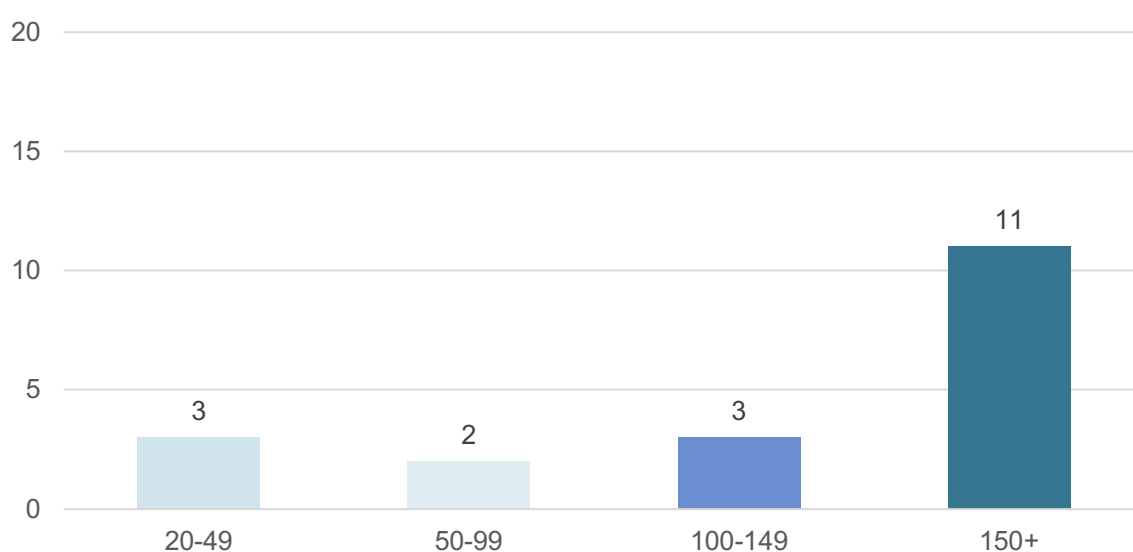
Figure 8 Geographic scope of frames analysed, absolute frequencies (n=33)



International wellbeing frameworks and indices (n=19 in this report) cover and compare a number of countries. International wellbeing indices are predominantly based on indicators which enable comparative analysis over time and between different countries/continents. We classified them into 4 groups by the number of countries included: 20-49 countries, 50-99 countries, 100-149 countries, and 150+ countries (see

Figure 9). Those including the majority of world's countries (150+) and including almost 100% of the world's (adult) population seem to be the most common, while those with geographic coverage of <100 countries seem to be rarer. We assume that is the case due to the selection of wellbeing indicators which are available and accessible for the majority of countries of the world.

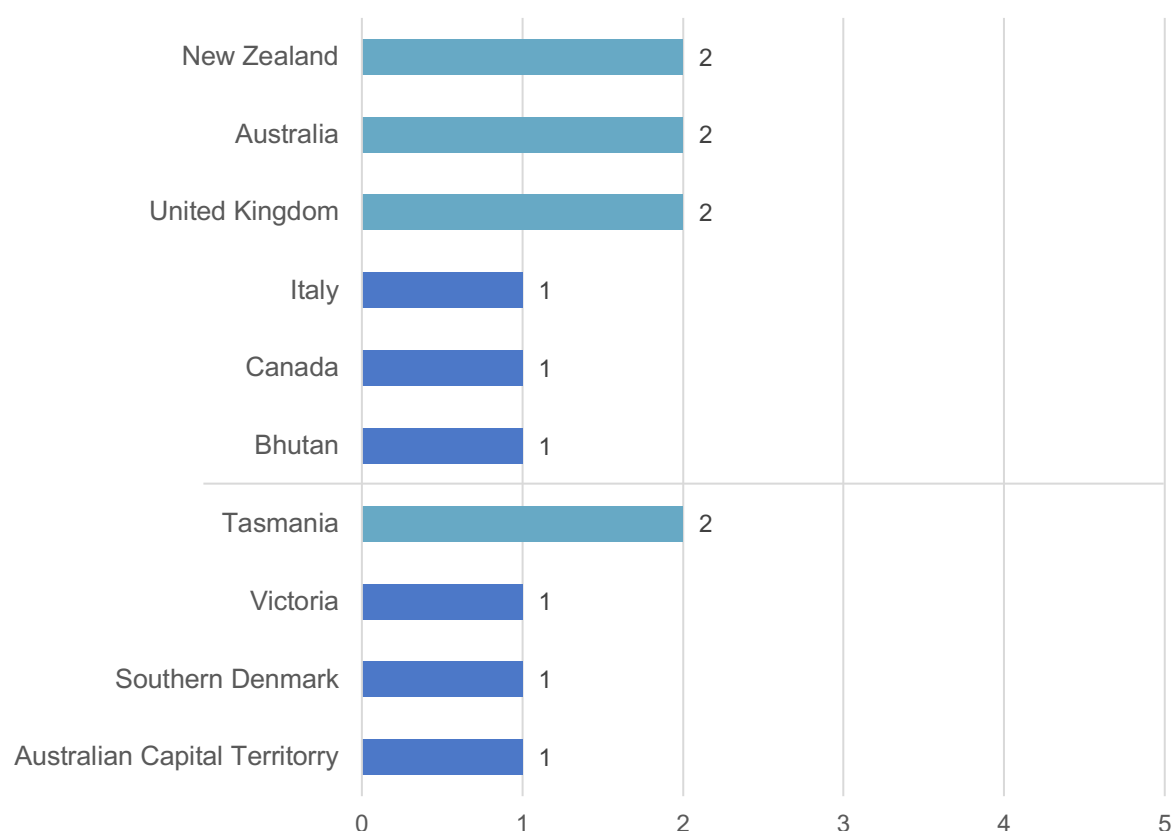
Figure 9 Numbers of countries included in international wellbeing frames analysed, absolute frequencies (n=19)



The second group of wellbeing indices and frames by geographic scope are national indices. As previously explained, these measure and/or monitor, or are used for policy making in a national context. We included eight of them in this comparative analysis. The third group are smaller-scale regional/place-based indices which deal with wellbeing at a regional, state, or city level. We included six of them in this report. Also, wellbeing frameworks are sometimes developed for even smaller subpopulations and marginalised groups with a very limited geographic scope. Wellbeing of those groups can be quite specific, and so it needs to be conceptualised before it is addressed with tailor-made approaches not suitable for the general population. As this report aims to inform a potential Tasmanian Wellbeing Framework, these cohort-specific frameworks are out of scope.

In this report, and at the national level, we compare frameworks from New Zealand and Australia (see Figure 10). We also compare wellbeing indices from New Zealand, Australia, United Kingdom, Italy, Canada, and Bhutan. At the regional level, we include two frameworks from Tasmania (The Good Life and Tasmania's Child and Youth Wellbeing Strategy), and one framework from Victoria and Australian Capital Territory (the latter including a wellbeing index). The only regional/place-based index/framework from outside of Australia and included in this analysis is the Good Life Index from Southern Denmark.

Figure 10: Country/region of national and place-based indices/frameworks, absolute frequencies (n=14)



Ultimately, with regard to geographic scope, we could argue that there are few fundamental differences between many national and regional frameworks and indices as certain regional indices cover larger areas or population sizes than some national indices. The most substantial difference is thus between international and the other two groups of wellbeing frames.

Figure 11 describes an international index, the Social Progress Index, and a national index, Italy's BES (equitable and sustainable wellbeing, in English). As is evident, both seek to measure wellbeing in a multidimensional way. However, a key difference related to geography is the purpose for which measurement occurs, such that the Social Progress Index seeks to rank, group and compare countries while the BES seeks to measure wellbeing at a national and territorial level. As such, the Social Progress Index takes a country-agnostic (though not values-agnostic) lens to wellbeing while the BES considers local and national views of wellbeing.

Figure 11 Description of indices with international versus national geographic scope

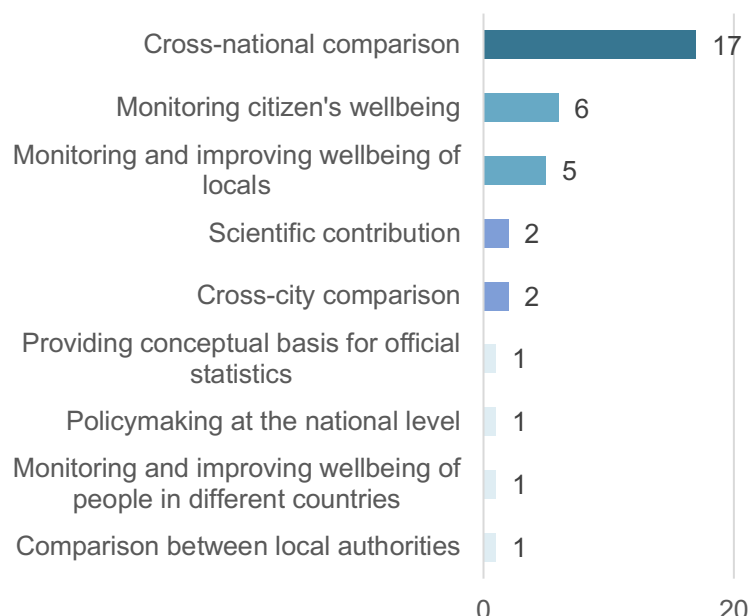
A case study:	
Social Progress Index	BES: equitable and sustainable well-being
The Social Progress Index focuses on, as the name suggests, social progress, which is defined as <i>“the capacity of a society to meet the basic human needs of its citizens, establish the building blocks that allow citizens and communities to enhance and sustain the quality of their lives, and create the conditions for all individuals to reach their full potential”</i>. The Social Progress Index is an international wellbeing index which ranks 168 countries on social progress. The countries are ranked, and later grouped into 6 main groups – from those which scored the highest on social progress (Tier 1, e.g. Scandinavian countries) to those with the lowest scores (Tier 6, e.g. many North Eastern African countries).	BES: equitable and sustainable well-being (original name: benessere equo sostenibile) is a project run by the Italian Statistical Office with an aim <i>“to measure equitable and sustainable well-being [with a view to] evaluating the progress of society not only from an economic, but also from a social and environmental point of view.”</i> BES is a national wellbeing measure for Italy, and it includes 12 wellbeing domains which were identified to describe wellbeing in Italy. Besides reporting results at the national level, BES is used to measure wellbeing at small-regions level as well. It aims to assess territorial inequalities, which means that the measure had to be developed in collaboration with the local authorities.

3.4 MAIN PURPOSE

Wellbeing frameworks and indices are used for various purposes, presented in Figure 12. These purposes were identified by qualitatively coding (categorising) the information provided on the websites describing the included wellbeing frameworks and indices. It is important to note that some main purposes may overlap conceptually or in practice (e.g., monitoring and improving wellbeing of locals and policymaking at the national level likely inform and affect each other).

As previously noted, the main purpose is often associated with geographical scope and the type of wellbeing frame. For example, cross-national comparison, which seems to be the most common purpose in the wellbeing measurement space, is quite specific to international indices.

Figure 12 Main purposes of wellbeing indices/frameworks, absolute frequencies (n=35)



At the national and regional levels, indices and frameworks are often used to monitor citizens' wellbeing, to monitor and improve wellbeing, or for policymaking at the national level. They can as well enable cross-city comparison or comparison between local authorities. The Quality of Life Index enables comparison between cities as well as countries. There are also wellbeing indices which were arguably developed as a methodological contribution, with an ability to be used in scientific research and further developed for cross-national or cross-regional comparison. Alternatively, wellbeing frameworks, such as the one from the Australian Bureau of Statistics (Our Wellbeing), can be developed to provide a conceptual basis for government policy development and/or official statistics.

Therefore, while the three broad roles of wellbeing frameworks appear to be monitoring, policymaking and comparison, in practice it is often challenging to distinguish between comparison and monitoring (for international indices) and monitoring and improving/policymaking (for national/regional indices). Sometimes the purpose of a framework or index is 'all of the above', and other times is not specifically defined.

Figure 13 Main purpose of a worldwide index focused on prosperity

A case study: The Legatum Prosperity Index
The Legatum Prosperity Index is an international index developed by the Legatum institute which analyses the levels of inclusive societies, empowered people and open economies in

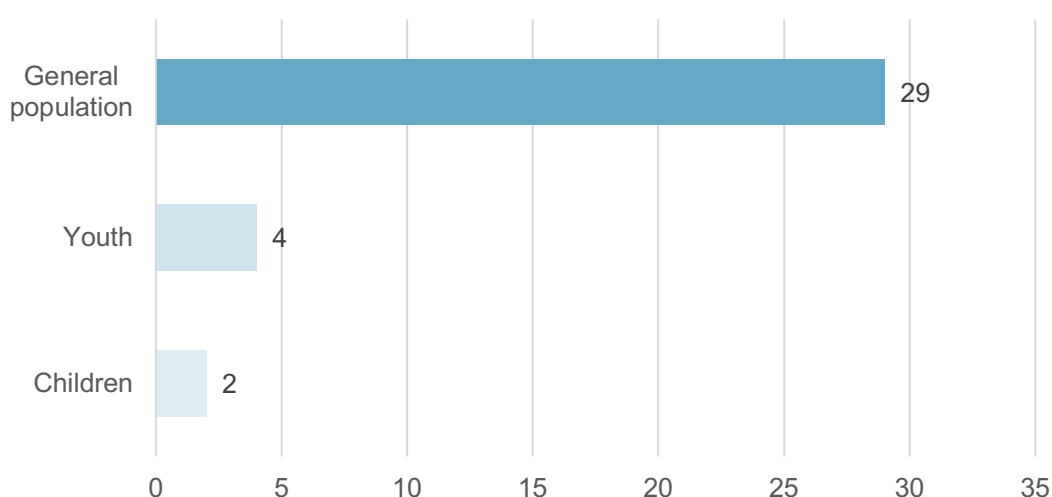
most countries in the world. It is as such focused on prosperity, which is defined as: “... far more than wealth... people have the opportunity and freedom to thrive... is underpinned by an inclusive society, with a strong contract that protects the fundamental liberties and security of every individual... is driven by an open economy that harnesses ideas and talent to create sustainable pathways out of poverty.”

The index analyses the performance of 167 countries (99% of the world's population) through 12 top-level domains (see Table 5), 67 conceptual indicators, and 300 indicators. It enables cross-national comparison, as well as identifying and understanding the potential in each country. It provides a basis for institutional, economic, and social policy development, not just fiscal and macroeconomic policy, which is often the focus in many countries. This can lead to better targeted policy development and responses with a direct impact on prosperity.

3.5 RESEARCHED POPULATION

Wellbeing frameworks and indices can be conceptualised and structured to monitor, improve, or measure the wellbeing of different populations and subpopulation groups. We identified three different groups of wellbeing frames by researched population: general population, youth, and children (see Figure 14). These are non-mutually exclusive categories, however, it is only the Tasmanian Child and Youth wellbeing strategy that covers two categories. In addition, the Gross National Wellness framework doesn't have the studied population defined (hence the sample for the figure is only 34 frames). Wellbeing frameworks can focus on even more specific and often more sensitive population subgroups (e.g. adults from a certain country experiencing mental illness [Corring & Cook, 2007]). However, these are not examined in this report as the focus is on wellbeing in populations or subpopulations.

Figure 14 Population studied with wellbeing framework/index, absolute frequencies (n=34)



The most common wellbeing frames and especially indices seem to be those studying the general population. They could potentially be further split into ‘whole population’ wellbeing frameworks/indices and ‘adult general population’ frameworks/indices. Based on the evidence

we collected, general population indices based on self-reporting (e.g., in a survey) are fundamentally ‘adult population indices’ as surveys (as the data source) predominantly sample adult populations. There are some exceptions, for example, Gallup World Poll collects data from 15+ year old citizens of 160 countries.

Less commonly, wellbeing indices and/or frameworks are focused on a particular subpopulation defined by their age. Those age-based subgroups can be excluded from the ‘adult population indices’ and, therefore, should be studied separately. In our retrieval of wellbeing frames, we identify one framework that was conceptualised to monitor wellbeing of both young people and children (Tasmania's Child and Youth Wellbeing Strategy). This framework is presented in more detail in Figure 15.

Figure 15 A wellbeing framework focused on combined research populations

A case study: Tasmania's Child and Youth Wellbeing Strategy
Tasmania's Child and Youth Wellbeing Strategy, also known as “It Takes a Tasmanian Village”, is, as the name suggests, a place-based wellbeing strategy focused exclusively on the youngest Tasmanians. The strategy is based on an ecological model of wellbeing and includes outcomes such as ‘feel safe about their future, the environment and climate’ (<i>Being loved, safe and valued</i> domain), ‘have access to the outdoors and green spaces’ (<i>Having material basics</i> domain), and ‘are supported to learn about their world through connection to nature and the outdoors’ (<i>Learning</i> domain). The population is defined as children and youth, i.e., 0-25 year old Tasmanians. In contrast to some international cross-country comparative indices such as The Global Youth Wellbeing Index (population: youth) or UNICEF's Child Wellbeing (population: children), the strategy is focused both on children and other residents 25 years of age or younger. The strategy is adjusted to their needs as wellbeing was conceptualised for this specific population subgroup through research that included Tasmanian children and young people as study participants.

3.6 DATA SOURCES AND TYPES OF INDICES

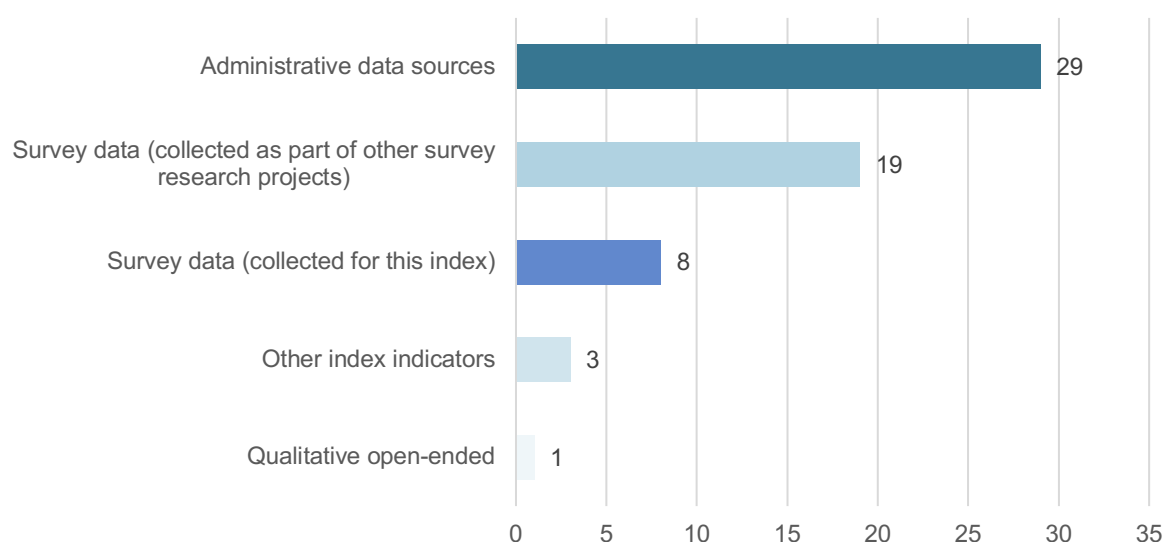
Wellbeing indices and frameworks that include a measurement component (n=34) draw on various data sources to measure wellbeing, such as administrative data or survey data (see Figure 16). We later show that many wellbeing indices are measured with multi-data-source approaches that offer a more comprehensive approach to monitoring wellbeing.

In this report, there was only a handful of wellbeing measurement tools that do not utilise administrative data sources. Administrative data seem to be the standard in measuring wellbeing with wellbeing indices but are not suitable for measuring and monitoring subjective wellbeing. Accordingly, while wellbeing indices offer an alternative to simply looking at GDP figures as a measure of performance or progress, their reliance on administrative data (which are collected for a variety of reasons, none of which are to measure wellbeing) tends to limit the scope of the index to what data is available rather than what is important to wellbeing.

Moreover, we distinguish between survey data collected for the index (e.g. for Australian Unity Wellbeing Index) and survey data collected as part of other research projects but used as a secondary data source in wellbeing measurement. Arguably for convenience, wellbeing indices more often include indicators based on survey data collected as part of other survey research. National wellbeing indices such as BES: equitable and sustainable well-being (Italy) and Canadian Index of Wellbeing use this approach. However, Bhutan's Gross National Happiness wellbeing measurement is based on a purpose-specific wellbeing questionnaire.

We also identified wellbeing indices using indicators from a different index, such as the Better Life Index including Gallup Poll indices/indicators. Qualitative data are less commonly used in measuring wellbeing of larger populations and population subgroups, likely due to logistical challenges in sampling enough people that the results are representative and generalisable. However, given the subjective nature of wellbeing, qualitative insights are crucial to understanding what wellbeing is to people and how and why it is affected by various factors. Qualitative approaches have been used in smaller population subgroups, such as in the previous example of adults from a certain country experiencing mental illness (Corring & Cook, 2007) whose wellbeing was studied by carrying out focus groups and in-depth interviews.

Figure 16 Data sources used to measure wellbeing, absolute frequencies (n=34)



As mentioned, most indices combine different data sources of indicators of wellbeing. We identified 20 of them. They are often known as composite indices such as the Better Life Index, which uses three different data sources. In contrast to composite or multi-data-source indices, some indices are exclusively based on self-report data. For example, the World Happiness Report only uses survey data sources. Moreover, wellbeing indices based on administrative data only (e.g., the Genuine Progress Indicator), which we label as non-self-reported indices, seem to be as common as self-reported indices and less common than composite indices.

Figure 17 Type of wellbeing index based on data sources included, absolute frequencies (n=32)

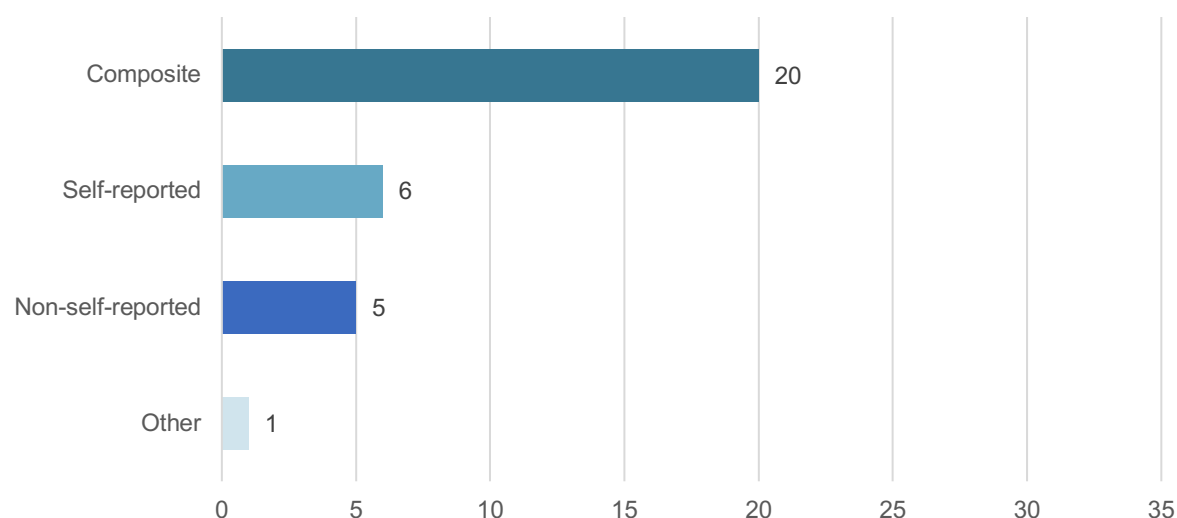


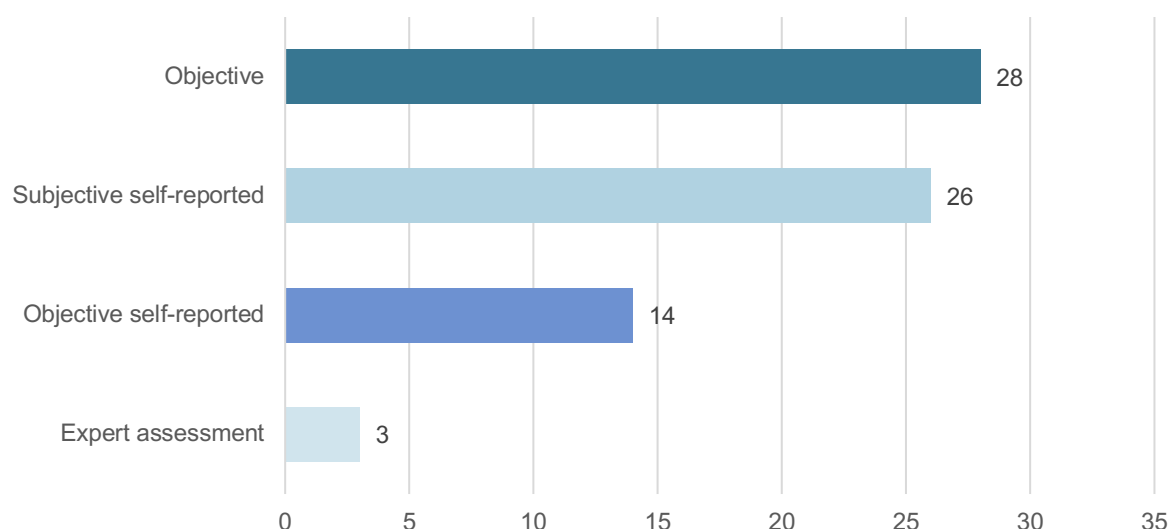
Figure 18 An index combining different data sources

A case study: Indicators Aotearoa New Zealand	
Ngā Tūtohu Aotearoa – Indicators Aotearoa New Zealand is a set of more than 100 indicators for monitoring social, cultural, economic, and environmental wellbeing in New Zealand. They were developed by Stats NZ in collaboration with other New Zealand government departments. The measures cover three aspects: current wellbeing, future wellbeing, and international impacts of New Zealand on wellbeing. They are used to provide a more holistic view of wellbeing and sustainable development.	
Indicators Aotearoa New Zealand as a wellbeing index grouped indicators into 22 topics/domains. Those currently include 109 indicators. For some indicators, data will be added in the future. The existing indicators are either from administrative data sources (e.g., amenable (potentially preventable) mortality), and survey data from a different “non-wellbeing” survey (e.g. feeling of safety from the Stats NZ’s General Social Survey). This makes Indicators Aotearoa New Zealand a composite index including data sources of a different type.	

3.7 TYPE OF WELLBEING MEASURED

With different data sources one can measure different types of wellbeing (see Figure 19). Besides the traditional division into objective and subjective, we can divide objective wellbeing into self-reported and administrative data reported, and we distinguish between self-reported objective and self-reported subjective wellbeing. For example, a survey question on satisfaction with life is a measure for subjective wellbeing, while a survey question on household income is a measure for objective wellbeing (both self-reported). It can be considered as an alternative to administrative data-reported income (either linked data or aggregated data).

Figure 19 Type of wellbeing measured (by type of wellbeing reporting), absolute frequencies (n=34)



The results show that objective wellbeing measured with administrative data is in practice equally prominent in measuring wellbeing as subjective wellbeing measured with survey data. Many indices also use objective self-reported indicators of wellbeing. Expert assessed wellbeing, which the Economist Intelligence Unit's Global Liveability Index is based on, is another option for monitoring and comparing wellbeing.

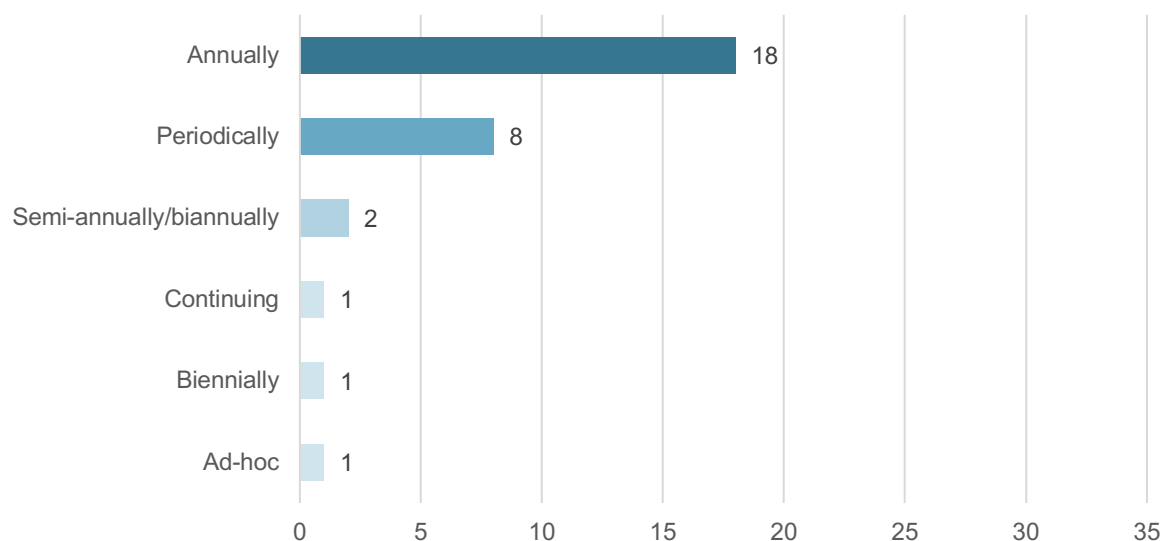
Figure 20 An example of a composite index measuring both subjective and objective wellbeing

A case study: The Good Life Index (Denmark)
The Good Life index is a place-based general population wellbeing index. Its main aim is to improve economic and social progress in the monitored region. It was developed by the Department for Strategy and Analysis for the region of Southern Denmark (Syddanmark). It includes perception-based indicators drawn from survey data (monitoring individuals' perception of their own life) and socio-economic indicators (monitoring community conditions). As such, the index is a composite wellbeing index measure. The index covers a fairly small geographic area of about 12 thousand square kilometres with about 1.2 million residents. The indicators grouped into 5 main wellbeing domains, i.e. Surroundings, Health, Security, Relations, and Self-fulfillment, are both from administrative data sources (e.g. on infrastructure/accessibility) and from a survey data source (i.e. from a wellbeing questionnaire developed for this particular wellbeing research). Thus, monitoring both subjective wellbeing and objective wellbeing is a subject of this wellbeing research. Self-reported subjective wellbeing is measured with survey questions such as: "All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life?".

3.8 MEASUREMENT INTERVALS

We identified substantial differences between wellbeing indices in how often wellbeing is measured, monitored, and reported. This is often dependent on the geographic coverage and other characteristics of wellbeing indices. For example, most national indices included in our analysis are used to report wellbeing annually. The numbers of frames that report at each measurement interval are reported in Figure 21; 28 out of 35 frames specify a reporting interval, and some frames report at multiple intervals. For example, Gallup World Poll reports 6-monthly, annually and biennially (see the case study in Figure 22, below).

Figure 21 Measurement intervals, absolute frequencies (n=28)



Annual measurement and reporting is in general the most common measurement interval, including for cross-national comparative indices such as The Legatum Prosperity Index, Social Progress Index, and Happy Planet Index. In other cases, wellbeing is monitored and compared periodically. In practice, that is every few years. We also identified two indices, i.e., Gallup World Poll indices and the Quality of Life Index, that can report wellbeing results as often as twice a year. The Better Life Index is an exception as no time series is available but rather the index is continuously developed and improved with new data sources/indicators.

Figure 22 A set of wellbeing indices measured with different measurement intervals

A case study: Gallup World Poll
Gallup World Poll is arguably the most influential general population (aged 15+) cross-national subjective wellbeing measurement tool. Its indices are included in some other wellbeing indices, such as Better Life Index and Happy Planet Index. It is based on representative survey research carried out by Gallup in 160 countries, covering more than 99% of the world's adult population. The questionnaire includes more than 100 questions. The total index consists of 16 indices which work as wellbeing domains that cover economic, political, and social topics

including National Institutions Index, Law and Order Index, Diversity Index, Religiosity Index, and Optimism Index.

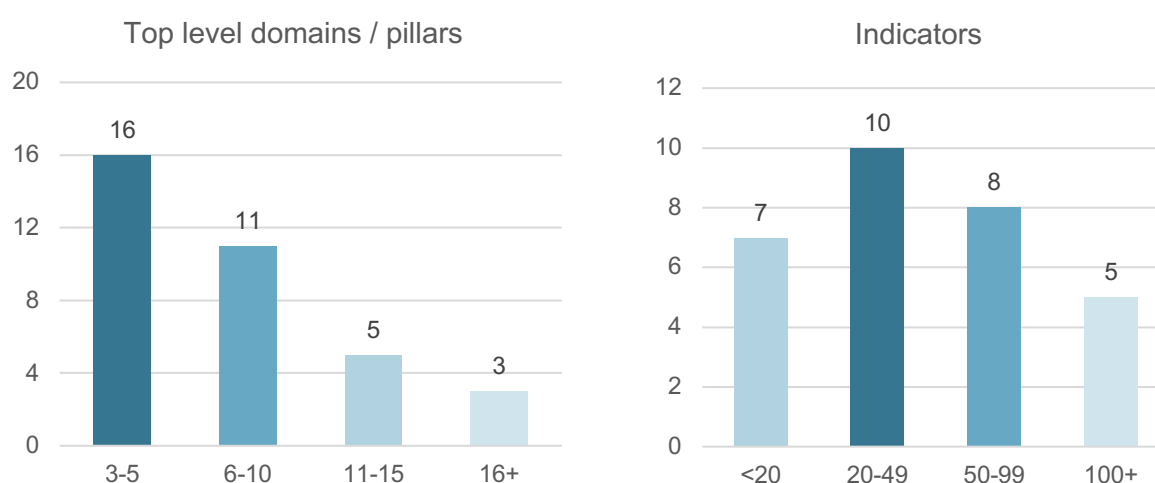
Gallup World Poll is specific not only due to its design focused on self-reporting, but also due to the variability of its measurement intervals. World Poll surveys, which normally include samples of about 1,000 respondents, can be carried out semi-annually, annually or biennially. That is determined on a country-by-country basis and can represent cross-country comparability challenges.

3.9 NUMBERS OF TOP-LEVEL DOMAINS/PILLARS AND INDICATORS

We observed the greatest levels of variability between wellbeing frameworks/indices in the numbers of included domains/pillars and indicators from different data sources. Furthermore, some indices are structured into three levels – into pillars/top-level domains, domains/conceptual indicators, and indicators. Other indices are structured into two levels – domains and indicators. Frameworks often include domains only but can consist of predetermined ranges of wellbeing indicators (such as TasCOSS's The Good Life).

The most common range of top-level domains, in some cases called wellbeing pillars, is between 3 and 5. However, some very complex wellbeing indices, such as Indicators Aotearoa New Zealand, can include up to 22 domains.

Figure 23 Numbers of top-level domains and indicators, absolute frequencies (domains: n=35, indicators n=30)



While some wellbeing indices include only one indicator per domain, for example Happy Planet Index, other indices include many domains and several indicators per domain. For example, The Legatum Prosperity Index which is based both on survey and administrative data, as well as measures of both self-reported subjective wellbeing and objective wellbeing, includes 12 domains (e.g. Safety and Security), 67 conceptual indicators (e.g. War and Civic Conflict), and about 300 indicators (e.g. Conflict-driven internal displacement). The other indices with 100+

indicators are BES: equitable and sustainable well-being, Indicators Aotearoa New Zealand, TasCOSS The Good Life, and Sustainable Development Goals.

Figure 24 A wellbeing framework including a wide range of indicators

A case study: The Good Life (TasCOSS)
The Good Life proposed by the Tasmanian Council of Social Service (TasCOSS) is a wellbeing framework conceptualised to monitor (and improve) wellbeing of Tasmanians. It was developed within TasCOSS's Good Life project that identified wellbeing areas which are key for Tasmanians' wellbeing/good life. As such, it is a place-based general population wellbeing framework which is conceptualised to include a range of data sources. The Good Life wellbeing framework in its current form includes 9 domains, including Enough Money to afford the Basics (Financial wellbeing), A Place to Call Home (Housing wellbeing), and Knowing You're not Alone (Relationships wellbeing) (for the complete list of broad domain groups, see Table 5). It also includes several targets for each domain, with multiple indicators for each of those targets. In total, more than 140 indicators are listed and proposed to monitor wellbeing of Tasmanians. Most of them are from administrative data sources.

3.10 BROAD CATEGORIES OF WELLBEING DOMAINS INCLUDED IN FRAMEWORKS AND INDICES

Through our in-depth analysis of wellbeing frameworks and indices, we identified more than 300 wellbeing domains (for 35 frameworks/indices), most of which are uniquely named and defined (although many of them measure similar dimensions, e.g. *Living Standard* from the Canadian Index of Wellbeing and *Economic Standard of Living* from Indicators Aotearoa New Zealand). To present them by broader domains, we adapted a broad wellbeing domain classification proposed by Sollis et al. (2021) to make it more suitable for our context – we split *Material wellbeing* into *Financial wellbeing*, *Housing wellbeing* and *Work wellbeing*, *Personal attributes* into *Health and Lifestyle*, and present *Natural environmental wellbeing* as a separate broad category. We also included *Hope and future wellbeing* after identifying frameworks and indices including domains focused on future and not only current or past wellbeing.

In the end, we derive the following 12 broad wellbeing domains (see next section for greater detail of what these comprise):

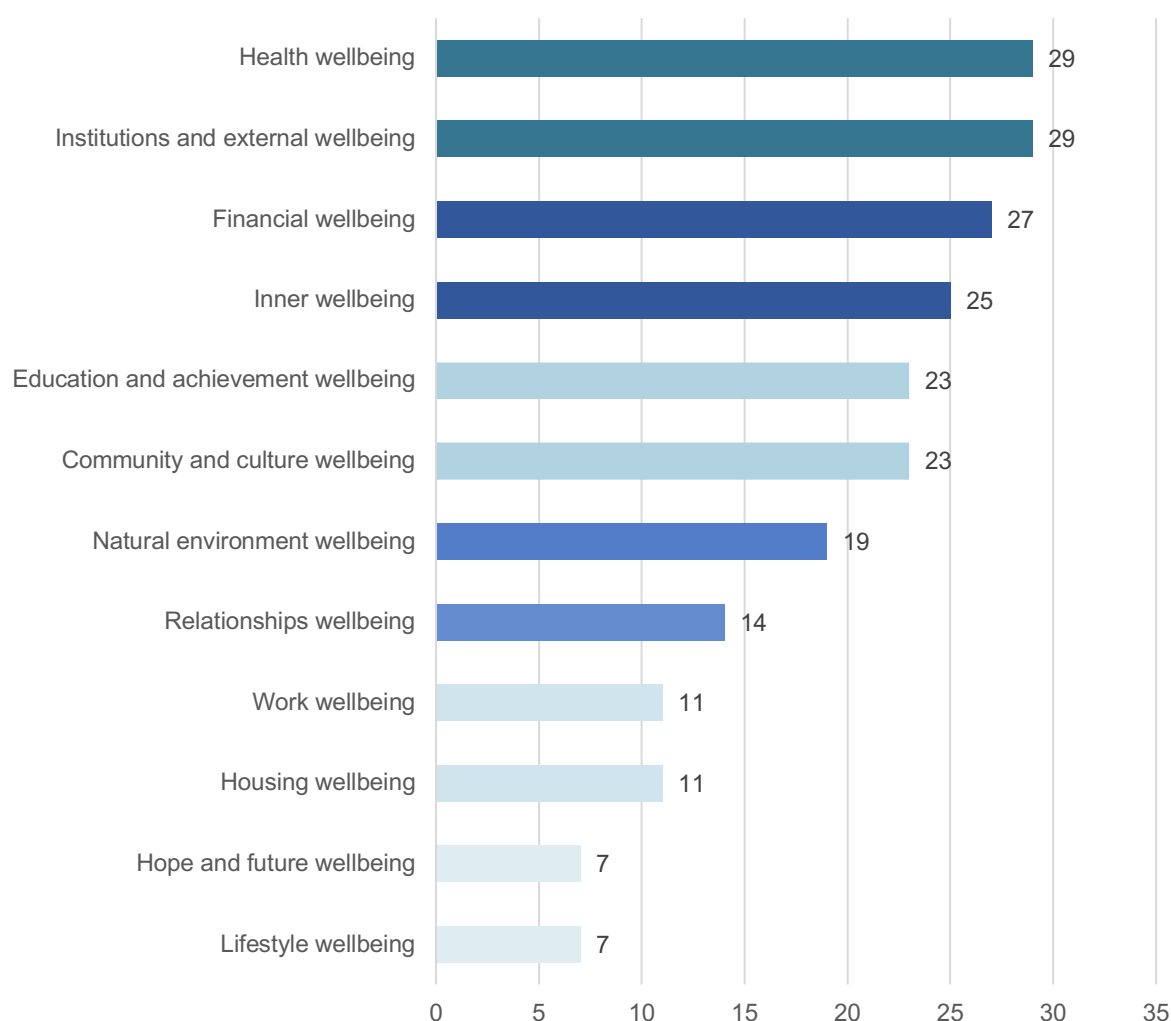
- Financial wellbeing,
- Housing wellbeing,
- Work wellbeing,
- Relationships wellbeing,
- Inner wellbeing,

- Community & cultural wellbeing,
- Health wellbeing,
- Lifestyle wellbeing,
- Institutional & external wellbeing,
- Natural environmental wellbeing,
- Education & achievement wellbeing,
- Hope & future wellbeing.

These domains are internally homogeneous (i.e., each domain refers to similar concepts, even if they are labelled differently) and sufficiently externally heterogeneous (i.e., the domains are distinct from one another). However, we acknowledge that certain domains from frameworks/indices can in fact cover more than one broad wellbeing domain, such as *Waste* (both *Institutional* and/or *Natural environmental wellbeing*).

For each wellbeing framework and index, we determined whether one or more of their domains could be classified in those 12 broad wellbeing domains. The results for individual wellbeing frames are presented in Table 5. In Figure 25, we are first presenting aggregated results.

Figure 25 Numbers of wellbeing frames that include broad wellbeing domain categories (n=35)



The distribution of broad wellbeing domain categories shows that certain wellbeing dimensions are present in the majority of wellbeing indices and frameworks (*Health, Institutions and external, or Financial*). This indicates that the most important dimensions of people's lives for their wellbeing, at least from the perspective of those who conceptualise wellbeing for wellbeing frameworks and indices, are health (physical and mental), income and standard of living, and institutional support of wellbeing (including governance, communication, and infrastructure).

These broad wellbeing domain categories are then followed by four categories which we consider 'softer', more subjective, or more individual – *Inner, Education and achievement, Community and cultural, and Natural environmental*. They are present in most wellbeing frameworks and indices.

On the other hand, *Relationships, Work, and Housing* broad wellbeing domain categories are included in some wellbeing frames, that is in less than 50% of the wellbeing frameworks/indices we analysed. We also observe that *Hope and future* and *Lifestyle wellbeing* are not very commonly included in wellbeing monitoring and measurement. They appeared in about one in five wellbeing frames reviewed as part of this report.

In setting out these domains, it is important to note that the apparent hierarchy is reflective of the frequency with which the domains appeared in the wellbeing frames analysed. While the common use of domains is a strong indicator of their importance to wellbeing, their commonality also likely reflects data availability, access and convenience (e.g., the domains that can be readily derived from existing national data collections) rather than what is important to people and their wellbeing.

Table 5 Domains contained in each wellbeing frame

	Financial wellbeing	Housing wellbeing	Work wellbeing	Relationships wellbeing	Inner wellbeing	Community & cultural wellbeing	Health wellbeing	Lifestyle wellbeing	Institutional & external wellbeing	Natural environmental wellbeing	Education & achievement wellbeing	Hope & future wellbeing
ACT Wellbeing Framework	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
ABS' Our Wellbeing		x		x	x	x			x			x
Australian Unity Wellbeing Index	x			x	x	x	x		x			x
BES: equitable and sustainable	x				x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Better Life Index	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Canadian Index of Wellbeing	x					x	x	x		x	x	
Gallup World Poll	x				x	x	x		x		x	x
Genuine Progress Indicator	x								x	x		
Global Liveability Index	x					x	x		x		x	
Global Peace Index									x			
Global Youth Development Index			x		x	x	x		x		x	
Gross National Happiness Index	x				x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Gross National Wellness	x		x	x	x		x		x			
Happy Planet Index					x		x			x		
Human Development Index	x						x				x	
Indicators Aotearoa New Zealand	x		x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x
Multidimensional Poverty Index	x		x				x		x		x	
National Well-being	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x	
Quality of Life Index	x	x					x		x	x		
Satisfaction with Life Index	x	x			x							
Social Progress Index		x			x	x	x		x	x	x	
Sustainable Development Goals	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	
Sustainable Society Index	x				x					x		
Tasmania's Child and Youth Wellbeing Strategy	x			x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
The Global Youth Wellbeing	x				x	x	x		x		x	
The Good Life (TasCOSS)	x		x	x	x		x		x		x	x
The Good Life Index (Denmark)				x	x	x	x		x			
The Legatum Prosperity Index	x			x	x	x	x		x	x	x	
The Living Standards Framework	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Thriving Places Index	x		x		x	x	x		x		x	
UNICEF's Child Wellbeing	x	x					x		x		x	
Victorian public health and wellbeing outcomes framework	x		x			x	x		x	x	x	
Where-to-be-born Index	x		x	x		x	x		x	x		
World Happiness Report					x							
Youth Progress Index		x			x	x	x		x	x	x	

3.11 WELLBEING DOMAINS AND INDICATORS

This section describes the common categories of domains and provides examples of indicators within them. We call them domain categories rather than simply domains as they represent our categorisation of the different ways that indices and frameworks label and define their domains.

Financial wellbeing. The *Financial wellbeing* domain category covers different financial and material aspects of wellbeing at an individual level, including domains such as standard of living, cost of living, affordability, and income. Some predominantly administrative-data-based wellbeing indices and frameworks include domains that describe macro financial situation in the monitored countries, such as poverty and hunger, economic growth, firms and markets, and financial capital.

Examples of financial wellbeing indicators are:

- Not enough money for food (*Food and Shelter* index, Gallup World Poll)
- Household net wealth (*Income and Wealth* domain, Better Life Index)
- Proportion of population living below the national poverty line (*No poverty* domain, Sustainable Development Goals)

Affordability
Consumption
Cost of living
Economic growth
Economic wellbeing
Financial capital
Firms and markets
Income
Living standard and conditions
Material basics
Poverty and hunger

Housing wellbeing. The *Housing wellbeing* domain category is another group of domains that deal with material aspects of wellbeing. As such, it is associated with the first group, *Financial wellbeing*; yet it is less commonly included in wellbeing measurement. Of domains that are included in wellbeing indices and frameworks, the following are the most common: home, housing, shelter, sustainable cities, and more targeted domains such as housing affordability.

Examples of housing wellbeing indicators are:

- Dissatisfaction with housing affordability (*Shelter* domain, Social Progress Index, originally Gallup World Poll)
- Rooms per person (*Housing and environment* domain, UNICEF's Child Wellbeing)
- Youth affordable housing (*Shelter* domain, Youth Progress Index)

Home
Housing
Housing affordability
Shelter
Sustainable cities
Where we live

Work wellbeing. The *Work wellbeing* domain category could arguably also fit within the *Financial wellbeing* category, since concepts such as income and living standard are strongly associated with employment and jobs. However, this category also includes dimensions such as capabilities to participate (and contributing to the economy), employment opportunities, work, and job security. We can conclude that it works as a complement to the *Financial wellbeing* broad category in some wellbeing frameworks and indices, but not as a substitute.

Capabilities to participate
Employment
Job security
What we do
Work

Examples of work wellbeing indicators are:

- Long-term unemployment rate (*Victorians participate in and contribute to the economy* domain, Victorian public health and wellbeing outcomes framework)
- Unpaid work (*Work, care and volunteering* domain, The Living Standards Framework (NZ))
- Satisfaction with job, workplace and income to support living and activities expenses (*Work & Income Wellbeing* domain, Gross National Wellness)

Relationships wellbeing. The *Relationships wellbeing* domain category covers different types of relationships, including family relationships, intimate relationships, other relationships, and the direct effect of those relationships on people's lives. In the analysed wellbeing frameworks and indices, we identified domains such as social/our connections, being loved, quality of family life, and not being alone. Some of those domains are closely related to inner wellbeing. Relationship wellbeing domains are often measured with survey data based on self-reported subjective wellbeing.

Being loved
Family
Friends
Not being alone
Relation(ship)s
Social capital
(Social) Connections

Examples of relationships wellbeing indicators are:

- Satisfaction with contact to one's loved ones (*Relations* domain, Southern Denmark's Good Life Index)
- Frequency of loneliness (*Social connection* domain, ACT Wellbeing Framework)
- Divorce rates (*Quality of family life* domain, Where-to-be-born Index)

Inner wellbeing. The *Inner wellbeing* domain category is the most notable subjective wellbeing category. In its complexity it covers aspects such as identity, satisfaction, sense of purpose, and happiness. Some of the domains included in wellbeing frameworks and indices are self-fulfilment, positive and negative experience, subjective wellbeing, emotional wellbeing, being valued, included, and heard, life satisfaction, and belonging. Some wellbeing frames include closely related concepts such as ethnicity and gender equality. Since it is often based on self-reporting in surveys, it is mostly absent from wellbeing frames including administrative data sources only.

Being valued / included / heard
Ethnicity
Gender (equality)
Human / personal wellbeing
Identity and belonging
Life satisfaction
Mental / psychological / emotional wellbeing
Personal freedom / rights / choice
Positive and negative experience
Self-fulfilment
Subjective wellbeing
Thriving, Struggling, Suffering

Examples of inner wellbeing indicators are:

- Positive emotions - calmness, compassion, forgiveness, contentment and generosity (*Psychological wellbeing* domain, Gross National Happiness Index).
- Life satisfaction (*Subjective wellbeing* domain, BES: equitable and sustainable well-being)
- Ladder of life (*Wellbeing* domain, Happy Planet Index, originally Gallup World Poll)

Community & culture wellbeing. The *Community and culture wellbeing* domain category covers a variety of concepts associated with community life, civic participation, and cultural aspects of wellbeing. As such, certain domains can overlay with domains from other wellbeing domain groups. For example, social connections (relationships wellbeing) fit within two broad wellbeing domain categories. We identified a number of different domains that are used to measure and monitor wellbeing related to community life and culture, including community vitality, community connection, sustainable communities, connection to culture, cultural heritage, diversity, inclusiveness, civic participation, political participation, and wellbeing of others.

Examples of community & culture wellbeing indicators are:

- Feeling of strong sense of belonging to their communities (*Community Vitality* domain, Canadian Index of Wellbeing)
- Participating in traditional cultural experiences, such as celebrations or activities (*Culture* domain, Indicators Aotearoa New Zealand)
- Voter turnout (*Engagement and voice* domain, The Living Standards Framework (NZ))

Citizen participation / engagement
Community vitality / capability
Connection to culture and community
Cultural heritage
Culture and environment
Diversity
Gender equality
Inclusiveness
Political and civic participation
Social capital
Social connections / relationships
Sustainable communities
The wellbeing of others

Health wellbeing. The *Health wellbeing* domain category was shown to be one of the central wellbeing dimensions in the majority of frameworks and indices. However, it is not as multi-dimensional as some other broad categories, such as inner wellbeing or community and culture wellbeing. It is predominantly based on health-related measures, but there is some variability in the included domains. We identified the following domains: healthcare, life expectancy, personal health, nutrition, physical health, and mental health. The latter is strongly associated with inner wellbeing and some of its components, such as mental, psychological, and emotional wellbeing.

Examples of health wellbeing indicators are:

- Death rate due to road traffic injuries (*Good health and wellbeing* domain, Sustainable Development Goals)
- Healthcare equipment for modern diagnosis and treatment (*Health Care* domain, Quality of Life Index)
- Youth stress (*Health* domain, The Global Youth Wellbeing Index)

(Basic) healthcare
Healthy populations
Life expectancy
Mental health
Nutrition
Personal health
Physical health

Lifestyle wellbeing. The *Lifestyle wellbeing* domain category is arguably the narrowest and the least developed category in practice. As previously noted, it is often excluded from measuring and monitoring wellbeing. We identified the following domains that are associated with people's lifestyles: leisure, play, time use, and what we do. We consider work and life balance domain as a two-category domain, covering both work (*Work wellbeing*) and lifestyle wellbeing dimensions.

Leisure
Participating
Play
Time (use)
What we do
Work and life balance

Examples of lifestyle wellbeing indicators are:

- Time use, sleep, and work (*Time use* domain, Gross National Happiness Index)
- Percentage of those who have taken part in at least 150 minutes of sport and physical activities a week (*What we do* domain, National Well-being (UK))
- Time devoted to leisure and personal care (*Work and life balance*, Better Life Index)

Institutional & external wellbeing. The *Institutional and external wellbeing* domain category is another category, besides *Financial wellbeing*, that predominantly measures objective wellbeing. We identified a range of different domains (and indicators) for this type of wellbeing, including those that are associated with financial wellbeing domains (such as economy, economic quality, and industry and innovation). Some other subgroups of domains are governance (such as government, institutional quality, law and order, corruption), information and communications, infrastructure (such as traffic, energy, water and sanitation) and services. Safety and security, which we included in this broad group, can often be considered as a separate broad domain, and is somewhat associated with community aspects of wellbeing. Many external wellbeing indicators are associated with natural environmental wellbeing. The analysed frames which include *Institutional and external wellbeing* often comprise several domains covering different aspects of institutional and external wellbeing. In contrast, many other domain categories, such as housing wellbeing, work wellbeing, or relationships wellbeing, generally include just one domain per framework/index.

Access to information
Communications
Corruption
Economy
Energy use
Governance
Government
Industry and innovation
Infrastructure
Institutional quality
International connections
Law and order
Living environment
Militarisation and conflicts
Safety, security, and violence
Services
Traffic
Water and sanitation

Examples of institutional and external wellbeing indicators are:

- Renewable electricity generation (*Green infrastructure* domain, Thriving Places Index)
- Ratings for risk from crime and terrorism (*Personal physical security* domain, Where-to-be-born Index)
- Sanitation (*Standard of living* domain, Multidimensional Poverty Index)

Natural environmental wellbeing. The *Natural environmental wellbeing* domain category is a group of wellbeing domains covering different environmental and ecological aspects which have a direct impact on people's wellbeing. We identified the following subgroups of domains: clean water and air (air quality, pollution), energy (affordable and clean energy), climate (such as climate action), ecological aspects (diversity, resilience, footprint, ecosystems) and environmental aspects (quality, wellbeing, living environment, (depletion of) natural capital).

Examples of natural environmental wellbeing indicators are:

- Average amount of land needed to sustain a country's typical consumption, per capita (*Ecological footprint* domain, Happy Planet Index)
- Cost of ozone depletion (*Depletion of natural capital* domain, Genuine Progress Indicator)
- Freshwater withdrawal as % of total renewable water resources (*Environmental wellbeing* domain, Sustainable Society Index)

Affordable and clean energy
Air quality
Water quality
Climate
Climate action
Ecological diversity
Ecological footprint
Ecosystems
Environment
Environmental quality
Environmental wellbeing
Living environment
Natural capital
Pollution

Education & achievement wellbeing. The *Education and achievement* domain category is focused on different aspects of people's personal growth through education, training, and learning. We identified the following domains in the analysed wellbeing frameworks and indices: education, training, knowledge, and learning, also more specifically access to education and knowledge. Some other domains were human capability, skills and youth development – the latter is from a wellbeing index focused on youth wellbeing. This group of wellbeing domains is arguably the most connected with the last broad wellbeing category presented below, i.e., future wellbeing (by providing a foundation for future wellbeing development through the advancement of knowledge).

Examples of education and achievement wellbeing indicators are:

- NAPLAN scores (*Learning for life* domain, TasCOSS's The Good Life)
- Quality of private education (*Education* domain, Global Liveability Index)
- Five or more years of experience using the internet (*Education* domain, Global Youth Development Index)

Access to education
Access to knowledge
Education
Human capability
Knowledge
(Life-long) learning
Skills
Training
Youth development

Hope & future wellbeing. The *Hope and future wellbeing* domain category is mostly focused on future wellbeing and on perceptions of future wellbeing. We argue that it is associated with several developmental wellbeing domains and indicators from the other broad categories, including institutional (e.g., innovation) and education (e.g., youth development). Yet, most wellbeing frameworks and indices included in this report are more focused on current wellbeing than future wellbeing.

Future security
Hope for the Future
Opportunities and barriers
Optimism

Examples of hope and future wellbeing indicators are:

- Satisfaction with future security (*Future security* domain, Australian Unity Wellbeing Index)
- Number of Tasmanian councils participating in the WHO's Global Network for Age-friendly Cities and Communities (*Hope for the future* domain, TasCOSS's The Good Life)
- Economic conditions in the city/area getting better or worse (*Optimism* index, Gallup World Poll)

The detailed results on broad wellbeing domain groups and wellbeing domains presented above show a variety of solutions for conceptualisation (and subsequent measurement/monitoring) of wellbeing in either international, national, or regional contexts. The findings which are based on a comprehensive systematic review represent the basis for further investigation and evaluation of the existing Tasmanian wellbeing frames, including The Good Life (TasCOSS), Tasmania's Child and Youth Wellbeing Strategy, and Good Life Initiative (UTAS ISC) as well as their integration within a common wellbeing/population outcomes framework.

We first presented broad domain groups for the analysed wellbeing indices/frameworks – we identified many similarities in the dimensions considered in the existing Tasmanian wellbeing frameworks, including *Financial*, *Relationships*, *Inner*, *Health*, *Institutional & external*, *Education & achievement*, and *Hope & future wellbeing* domain groups. While *Relationships wellbeing* and *Hope & future wellbeing* domain groups (and partially *Lifestyle* and *Natural environment wellbeing*) are not as prominent as some other broad domain groups in the analysed international/national frameworks and indices, they are included in the reviewed Tasmanian wellbeing frames, which is a positive indication of consideration of regional wellbeing specifics. However, there is an argument that certain wellbeing domain groups which have become more important recently (such as *Housing wellbeing*), should also be considered in the context of the unification of Tasmanian wellbeing frameworks.

We also presented wellbeing domains for all wellbeing frames included in this report – we did not identify as many similarities between the Tasmanian wellbeing frameworks at the domain level, although we could match fairly well the domains for *Health wellbeing* (*Being healthy*, *Health*, and *A Healthy Mind and Body*) and *Financial wellbeing* (*Having material basics*, *Income*, and *Enough Money to afford the Basics*). There is a strong argument that the consultations and community engagement as part of the integration of Tasmanian wellbeing/population outcomes frameworks should be implemented at the broad wellbeing domain group level, since the common framework should ideally take into account the specifics of different Tasmanian populations (general population, youth, children, marginalised groups, etc.). The importance of different domains for their wellbeing is another factor to consider in the development of a wellbeing framework for Tasmania. This is presented in more detail in section 4.2.

4. Implications for developing a population outcomes framework and Tasmanian Wellbeing Framework

Chapter 3 analysed extant wellbeing frames to shed light on what is common practice in terms of their content and scope. The analysis revealed that population wellbeing frames are most commonly developed for cross-national comparison; most commonly draw on administrative data, but most indices are common indices such that they use multiple data sources e.g., administrative and survey data; and measure objective wellbeing slightly more frequently than subjective wellbeing, though many consider both.

The analysis also revealed substantial variety in scale and complexity, with most frames including 10 or fewer domains and most commonly 20-49 indicators, but a considerable number featuring 50 or more. The most common categories of wellbeing domains were health, institutional and external, financial, inner, and education and achievement.

This chapter explores the implications for developing a population wellbeing framework for the Tasmanian context. To do so, we outline the different processes that have been undertaken in developing wellbeing frameworks and indices and reflect on their relative quality and success. We also introduce information about Tasmanians' wellbeing priorities by drawing on data from two of the Institute for Social Change's The Tasmania Project surveys and TasCOSS's Good Life domains. We then discuss what we don't know about Tasmanians' wellbeing and why these knowledge gaps are important in the context of developing a population wellbeing framework. Finally, we describe considerations for the development of a population outcomes framework for the TSS and the Premier's Wellbeing Framework.

4.1 PROCESSES UNDERTAKEN IN DEVELOPING POPULATION WELLBEING FRAMEWORKS AND INDICES

Alexandrova and Fabian (2022) identify 3 broad approaches to the process of developing a wellbeing framework:

1. Academics or other technical experts define what wellbeing is for their own scientific purposes.

An example is wellbeing in the health care space, where doctors often understand the term pragmatically through a narrow professional lens.

2. Experts engage in a debate about values among themselves in order to define what wellbeing is and how it should be measured.

This was the approach taken for the Millennium and Sustainable Development Goals.

3. Use a politically legitimate process to define wellbeing, develop metrics, and decide on wellbeing policy priorities.

There are few high-profile instances of this approach to date, but it is common in the indigenous policy space and increasingly popular elsewhere too (e.g. See Yap & Yu

2016 for a case study from Broome, or Sollis et al. 2021 for a systematic review of the literature).

The third strategy is generally required for successful development and implementation of a wellbeing framework. Alexandrova and Fabian (2022) distinguish between efforts to implement politically legitimate strategies to define and conceptualise wellbeing and wellbeing priorities ‘by the letter’ and ‘by the spirit’. Efforts by the letter tend to gesture towards democratic norms (e.g., consultation) but do not share power with citizens nor seek to engage in deliberation and two-way learning with them (i.e., core elements are predetermined and cannot be affected by the outcomes of the consultation).

Examples of more robust approaches include the ACT’s wellbeing framework and the ‘what matters to you’ consultations conducted by the Office of National Statistics (ONS) in the UK. Both involved extensive and multi-faceted consultations with stakeholders through public forums, focus groups, letter writing campaigns, and online polls. However, as documented by Oman (2016) and Scott & Bell (2013), the ONS process was heavily influenced by experts and citizen influence was limited. Furthermore, the ‘open response’ data collected as part of the ONS forums and letter writing campaigns was basically left unanalysed, with policy decisions made almost entirely on the basis of responses to the various ‘tick box’ surveys run as part of the consultations.

An additional shortcoming of this traditional form of consultation is that learning is only from citizens to experts and practitioners. It would be ideal for learning to be two-way, with experts and practitioners helping to sharpen their value judgements and intuitions while also giving those citizens an appreciation for the technical and implementation challenges involved in wellbeing policy.

The most robust method for implementing strategy 3 ‘by the spirit’ is coproduction. This involves bringing together citizens, technical experts, and practitioners in a deliberative process to learn together, make decisions, and ultimately craft policy in partnership. The value judgements of citizens are centred, but refined through discourse with the technical experts, especially with respect to measurement. Practitioners ensure that whatever is designed can be readily implemented. Coproduction of wellbeing frameworks and associated metrics and evaluation tools is nowadays the norm in the capabilities space, which has long sought to centre local value judgements out of a respect for human rights to self-determination (Sollis et al. 2021).

Coproduction lends itself to a ‘bottom up’ approach to wellbeing frameworks, whereby bespoke wellbeing frameworks are developed at various ‘nodes’ of public policy and then gradually scaled up to provide generalised wellbeing frameworks for higher levels of aggregation. These ‘nodes’ can be geographic, like a council area; demographic, like retiree or migrant communities; or for particular policy areas, like postnatal health care. The bottom-up approach results in wellbeing frameworks that are sensitive to local conditions at the node and can directly inform and interplay with policy issues at that coalface (Fabian et al. 2021). Crucially, this sensitivity allows indicators of wellbeing to be much more precise and more easily inform policy evaluation and reform. For example, imagine a wellbeing policy framework for a local council area. Rather than ‘institutional quality’ being measured in vague terms such as ‘respect for human rights’ (as it is in the ACT wellbeing framework), it can be measured in terms that are meaningful to local residents. They might, for example, emphasise frequent and easily accessible reports of council business, or the ability to talk to their local member face-to-face when necessary.

One proposal that sits between the sorts of consultations of the ACT and ONS and the coproduction model popular in indigenous policy is to consult not on what domains should be in a wellbeing framework but instead on what those domains mean to people. This is the approach currently advocated by ANDI – the [Australian National Development Index](#) – a not-for-profit community action group.

As demonstrated throughout this report, the domains that emerge from consultations and expert advisory groups tend to be broadly similar. There are few marked differences between the items in the OECD, ACT, and Bhutanese frameworks, for example. Involving citizens in debating what these domains should be is thus ideal but low marginal value. What is much more valuable is having them describe how these domains manifest in their daily lives, especially in terms of viable measures. For example, the domain of ‘housing’ is likely to differ in nature for residents of Hobart, with its rental crisis and relatively young population, compared to residents of Central Coast, with its large population of retirees (Eyles et al. 2014). The contextualised understanding of domains provided by these specific consultations can more helpfully inform policy priorities, metrics, and evaluation paradigms than high level wellbeing frameworks can.

4.2 WHAT WE KNOW ABOUT TASMANIANS’ WELLBEING PRIORITIES

After analysing wellbeing domains from different international, national, and place-based wellbeing frameworks and indices, we steer the focus towards the wellbeing of Tasmanians; more precisely, we present the results on what the most important dimensions of their lives were/are and how they believe these dimensions will affect their (future) wellbeing (i.e., their concerns for the future).

For that reason, we analysed survey data collected as part of two of the Institute for Social Change’s The Tasmania Project surveys, the Wellbeing (PESRAC) survey from October/November 2020, and the 6th general survey (The Reopening survey/TTP6) from February/March 2022. More than 2,000 Tasmanian adult residents responded to each survey, and the data were weighted for better demographic representativeness. Comparing the results of two different surveys, we can examine changes over time in attitudes associated with wellbeing.

There were two matching questions included in both survey questionnaires:

- Which of the following are MOST IMPORTANT for your wellbeing? Select up to 3.
- Thinking about the future (3 years ahead), please select your top 3 areas of CONCERN as Tasmania emerges from the pandemic.

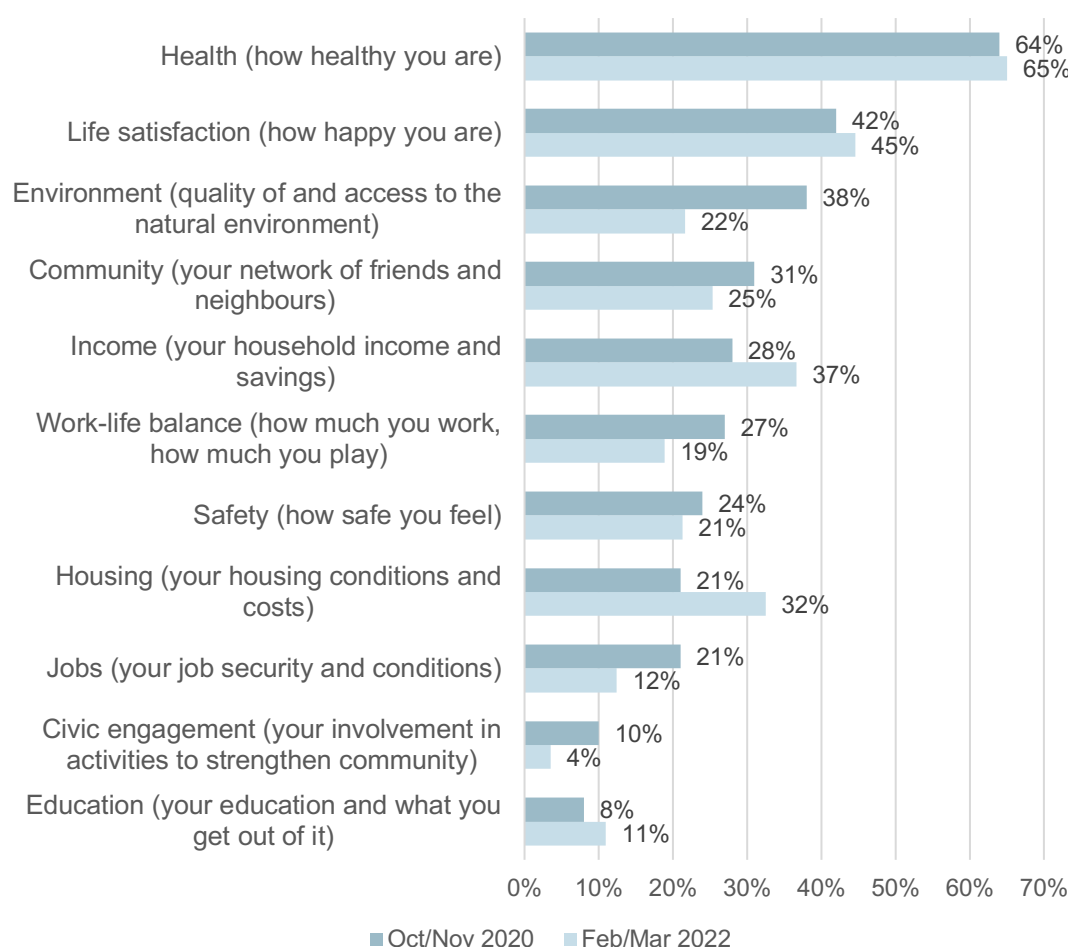
Both questions included the same range of answer options which were wellbeing domains adapted from the OECD Better Life Index.

First, we present the findings on the proportion of respondents who identified each domain as important for their wellbeing. The results presented in Figure 26 show that *Health* was the most important wellbeing domain, both in October/November 2020 (about 7 months after the start of the pandemic, 64%) and in February/March 2022 (almost 2 years after the start of COVID-19, 65%). This does not come as surprise as both surveys were conducted during a health crisis. *Life satisfaction* was ranked second in both 2020 and 2022, but we also observed that satisfaction with life is fundamentally a linear combination of satisfaction with the other 10

domains (in other words, it is dependent on satisfaction with health, income, jobs, relationships, etc.).

On the other hand, the least important domains for the Wellbeing of Tasmanians were *Education* and *Civic engagement*, both in 2020 and 2022 (selected by 11% or fewer respondents). The other seven domains were ranked between 3rd and 9th, with changes in importance observed over time. *Environment* was ranked third in 2020 (38%) but dropped to sixth in 2022 (22%), just ahead of *Safety* and *Work-life balance*. On the other hand, the importance of *Housing* and *Income* increased substantially between November 2020 and February 2022.

Figure 26 The importance of domains for wellbeing (select up to 3 domains), % selected (PESRAC n=2,543, TTP6 n=2,043)

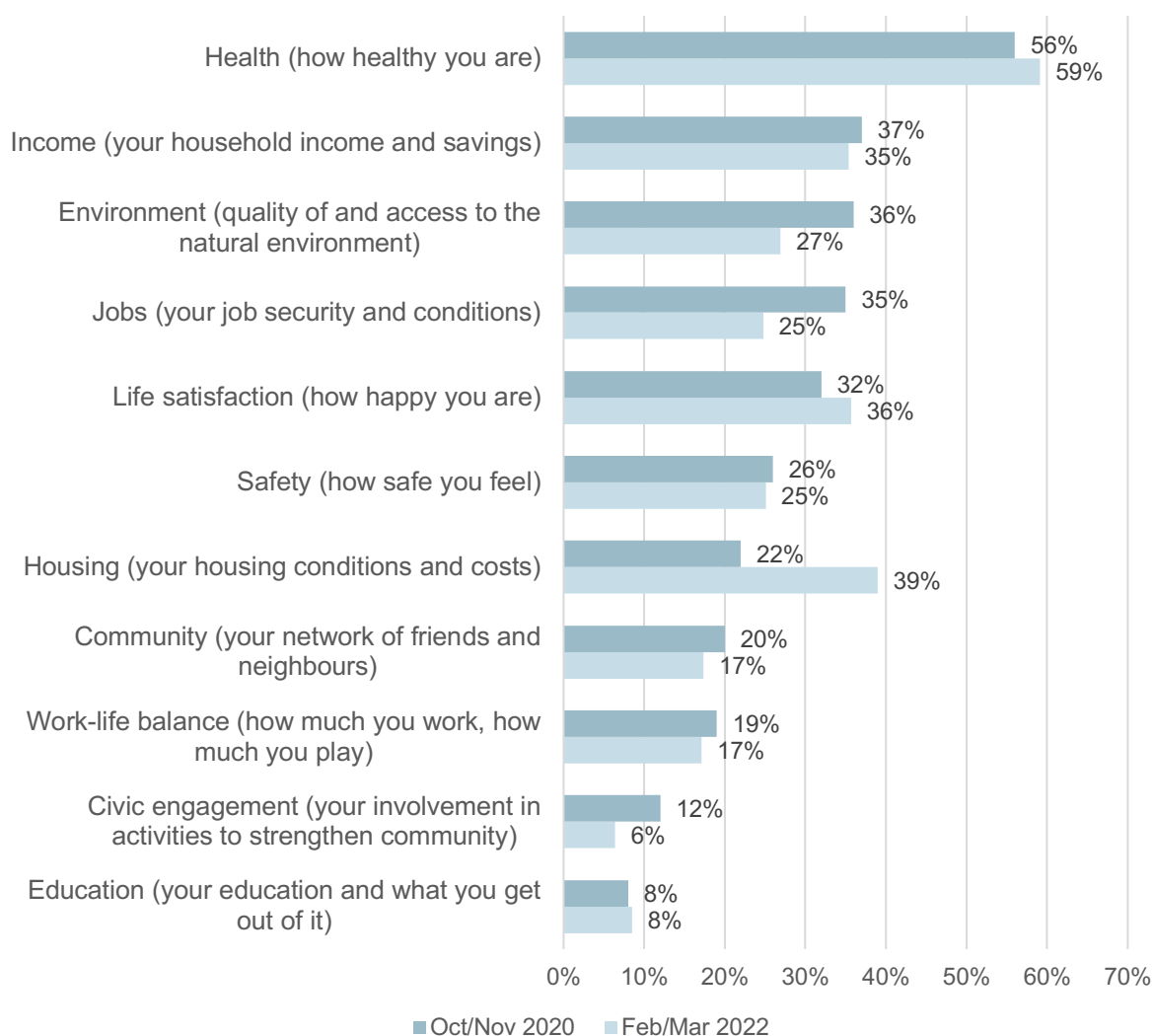


The most notable positive changes (in importance) over time can thus be observed for *Housing* (+11%), and *Income* (+11%). Those domains can be classified as material wellbeing. The most notable negative changes (in importance) can be observed for *Environment* (-16%), and *Jobs* (-9%).

Moreover, as we observed that the importance of wellbeing domains and concerns for the future are associated moderately at best at the individual level (indicating that importance and future concerns are separate issues for respondents), we present additional results, namely the top wellbeing areas of concern (see Figure 27).

Despite only moderate associations (e.g., between the importance of health and health as an area of concern), the results presented in Figure 27 are somewhat similar to those presented in Figure 26 (i.e., on the importance of wellbeing domains). *Health* has remained the most important wellbeing dimension, and *Civic engagement* and *Education* are not of as much concern as the other dimensions. Similarly, *Community* and *Work-life balance* are, as wellbeing areas of concern, ranked 8th and 9th.

Figure 27 Top wellbeing areas of concern for Tasmania coming out of the pandemic (up to 3 areas), % selected (PESRAC n=2,543, TTP6 n=2,043)



Just like for importance for people's wellbeing, we can report that *Housing* has emerged as a more important wellbeing area of concern for the future (7th in 2020: 22%, 2nd in 2022: 39%), and *Environment* became a less important area of concern between November 2020 (ranked 2nd, 36%) and February 2022 (ranked 5th, 27%).

Comparing the results on the importance of domains for people's wellbeing and the domains of concern for the future, we observe minor differences. *Income* and especially *Jobs*, which are both material wellbeing dimensions, were on average identified as a bigger concern for the future than domains important for current wellbeing. The opposite can be concluded for *Life*

satisfaction, which was not ranked particularly highly as a concern for the future but was highly important for current wellbeing.

The increasing importance of material wellbeing and housing between 2020 and 2022 likely reflects a confluence of factors, including the presence of economic stimulus (wage subsidies and income support payment supplements), eviction and rent increase moratoria and rates and utilities subsidies, and overwhelming health concern in 2020, and the housing crisis and rapidly increasing cost of living in 2022. Arguably more important, however, is that the results reflect the dynamic nature of wellbeing and the impact of external factors on the salience of and satisfaction with dimensions of wellbeing.

Through consultation with lower income Tasmanians and service providers who work with them, TasCOSS has identified 9 domains required for a ‘good life’: a healthy mind and body, a place to call home, being able to afford the basics, feeling safe, learning for life, getting where you need to go, feeling valued, included and heard, knowing you’re not alone, and hope for the future. In line with the extant frameworks examined in Chapter 3 (in which TasCOSS’s Good Life domains were included), the emergence of these domains supports that there are core dimensions of life that are important to Tasmanians’ wellbeing.

4.3 WHAT WE DON’T KNOW ABOUT TASMANIANS’ WELLBEING AND WELLBEING PRIORITIES

Through the research examined in the previous section, it can be argued that there are domains of life that Tasmanians commonly identify as important to their wellbeing, and these domains are present in a number of extant wellbeing frameworks and indices. However, there are four fundamental gaps in our knowledge that constrain understanding and measurement of Tasmanians’ wellbeing and, in turn, meaningful action towards increasing it:

- *What each domain means to people:* The Tasmania Project has, at two time intervals, found that health is considered the most important domain (out of the OECD Better Life Index domains) to people’s wellbeing. But what do people mean when they think ‘health’? For example, is health the absence of illness, management of illness, access to health services, quality of health services received? Or perhaps it is something else entirely or, more likely, a combination of a number of factors.

Without better understanding of what each domain means to people, there is a substantial risk that what is measured is not what matters to people and that investing will occur in initiatives that are not in line with what people want and need, meaning that “wellbeing outcomes” will not be achieved.

- *What contributes most to wellbeing within each domain:* Another key gap in our knowledge is the relative contribution of factors within each domain to wellbeing. Continuing with the above example, if we assume that health is multifaceted, how and how much does each facet contribute to an individual’s wellbeing? This understanding is critical for the prioritisation of action (e.g., programs and policy) and measurement, and for understanding confounding or compounding variables.

For instance, if we learn that people’s health status dominates their perceptions of their health wellbeing, we can understand why self-reported ‘health wellbeing’ is low in the

year after diagnosis of a chronic health condition, irrespective of the health services accessed and the quality of care received. Further, this knowledge would guide us towards having separate measures for one's own health and for health services. This could also increase accuracy of program-level evaluations (e.g., if the recently diagnosed individual was accessing a particular service, low self-rated health status could reflect poorly on the service if this context were not considered).

- *How programs, services, policies and institutions affect people's wellbeing, and what people want out of these things.* The Tasmania Project results suggest that external factors (e.g., policy, inflation) can have substantial impacts on what people view as important to their wellbeing and their concerns for the future. What these results do not tell us, however, is how these external factors affect people's wellbeing (their sense of whether their life is going well, rather than what is important to making their life go well), nor what people think should be done about the external factors and by whom. This understanding is crucial to ensuring that institutions and their actions are serving people's interests and that institutions' efforts result in the wellbeing outcomes that they seek to achieve.
- *How individual wellbeing and societal wellbeing fit together.* This is a large and broad question, however, it warrants consideration. Is societal wellbeing simply individual wellbeing, aggregated? We would argue that such a view is risky. For example, The Tasmania Project finds that people don't consider education to be particularly important to their wellbeing. Notwithstanding the abovementioned definitional issues (i.e., what is education), if we were to take a consensus-style view of wellbeing, such findings could lead to suggestions that less focus be placed on education in society (e.g., lower government investment).

This is an extreme example, and one that flies in the face of centuries of empirical evidence that education is a strong contributor to individual and human development. Nonetheless, it does point to the need to better understand the relationship between people and institutions, their respective actions, and wellbeing. As we elaborate in the next section, this could (and we argue should) involve the collaboration of people and government and non-government institutions (including business and industry) in the development of a Tasmanian Wellbeing Framework.

4.4 CONSIDERATIONS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF POPULATION OUTCOMES AND WELLBEING FRAMEWORKS IN TASMANIA

This section outlines considerations for the development of a population outcomes framework and/or wellbeing framework for Tasmania. Our understanding is that the population outcomes framework will comprise domains used in extant frameworks which may serve as a high-level architecture upon which the Premier's Wellbeing Framework can build. Accordingly, the considerations presented are relevant to both frameworks.

4.4.1 Purpose and intent

Chapter 2 identified a range of shortcomings that can arise in developing and implementing population wellbeing frameworks, such as the risk of contorting complex and effective policy and programs to fit a broad wellbeing framework and difficulties and imprecision in measurement of

outcomes. To avoid these very serious shortcomings of population wellbeing frameworks, which can unintentionally undermine the success of core government functions, it is advisable to robustly determine the purpose and intent underlying a Tasmanian Wellbeing Framework and/or population outcomes framework in order to weigh the pros and cons of such an approach.

For example, drawing on the purpose and benefits of population wellbeing frameworks (also in Chapter 2); if the intent is to create a wellbeing framework that acts as a rhetorical device, providing a ‘light on the hill’ towards which government policy and programs can be oriented, then a framework comprised of commonly used domains paired with high-level outcomes statements (e.g. “all Tasmanians are healthy”) would achieve this aim. The downside of such an approach is that it would go against several trends in wellbeing framework development, revealed in Chapter 3. For example, wellbeing frameworks and indices have been getting more granular; modern frameworks tend to be fairly complex, composite, and include different data sources and both subjective and objective wellbeing measurement; and the reporting component of wellbeing frameworks and indices is becoming an increasing focus.

An alternative purpose could be to map person-centred outcomes against each of the government’s functions that also commonly feature as domains in extant wellbeing frameworks (e.g., health, education). However, this top-down approach would go against the trend of more participative approaches to the development of population wellbeing frameworks and indices (outlined in section 4.1). In addition, a top-down approach would undermine the potential political capital to be gained from implementing a ‘wellbeing focus’ in government, as the opportunity to engage people in the process would be missed and the outcomes identified through a top-down process oriented around government functions are unlikely to resonate with people’s wants and needs. Further, such a process limits opportunities for innovation and identifying in/efficiencies within the public sector.

In sum, the intent and purpose of prospective frameworks are key considerations as they affect the approach that is taken, which in turn has pros and cons that warrant consideration.

4.4.2 Wellbeing approach

Closely related to the issue of intent and purpose is the wellbeing approach selected. As Chapter 2 outlines, there are three main schools of thought about what wellbeing is. Put broadly and simply these define wellbeing as occurring when people have what they want, when people have what they need in order to get what they want, and when people feel good (e.g., are satisfied with their lives, or experience positive emotions more frequently than negative emotions). Though it must be noted that there are different approaches underneath these broad schools of thought (see Appendix A for greater detail); taking just the broad schools of thought, it is clear that the approach to wellbeing selected affects the scope and content of a framework that seeks to conceptualise and measure it.

For example, a framework that conceptualises wellbeing as individuals feeling good will base its domains, outcomes and measures around people’s subjective experiences and feelings, while one that conceptualises wellbeing as having the conditions required to feel good will, accordingly, encompass different aspects of those conditions.

While we contend that not enough is known about what wellbeing is to Tasmanians for an ‘off the shelf’ framework to be adapted and applied to the Tasmanian context, it is worth noting that most ‘modern’ wellbeing frameworks comprise both a framework and an index, measure objective and

subjective elements of wellbeing, and utilise both administrative and self-report data. Designed and implemented well, such an approach (i.e., incorporating objective and subjective of wellbeing) could serve as a bridge between government's role and functions and the needs and aspirations of individuals. Accordingly, the remainder of the considerations pertain to the *process* of developing a Tasmanian Wellbeing Framework.

4.4.3 Domain selection versus content of domains

Chapter 3 identified a range of common domains featured in extant wellbeing frameworks and indices, and earlier sections of this chapter suggested that, while there is value in engaging people to determine which wellbeing domains should be included in a wellbeing framework or index, there is likely greater value in focusing on what domains mean to people and what should be included within them.

This notion is supported by The Tasmania Project results, such that large proportions of people identified domains adapted from the OECD Better Life Index as important to their wellbeing. Further, gaps in our knowledge about Tasmanians' wellbeing lay more in what each domain means to people (e.g., what do people mean when they select 'health' as the most important contributor to their wellbeing?) and the relative contribution of each domain to people's overall wellbeing.

4.4.4 Place-based approach

Earlier sections of this chapter also introduced the 'node' method, whereby bespoke wellbeing indices are created for particular contexts – be they geographic, demographic, or policy areas – and scaled up. There is thus an opportunity to use such a model to take a truly place-based approach to developing a framework that conceptualises and measures Tasmanians' wellbeing. This would involve identifying geographic regions of interest (e.g., through established standards such as the Australian Statistical Geographical Standard, or by service provision regions such as public health networks) and collaborating with local stakeholders to identify what is important to them.

These stakeholders would include local representatives from state government service providers, non-government service providers, business and industry, and community members. While undoubtedly complex, such an approach offers many benefits. First, engaging meaningfully with communities builds goodwill for government among people and in and of itself contributes to people's wellbeing. Second, bringing together a range of stakeholders offers opportunities for better service integration and therefore greater efficiencies in service delivery and better outcomes for individuals accessing services. Third, in addition to being an innovative approach to wellbeing, the process is likely to reveal further opportunities for collaboration and innovation both within government and across sectors. Finally, and most importantly, it will ensure that the resulting frameworks reflect the needs, wants and aspirations of the community and the different ways in which institutions, policy and services contribute to their fulfilment.

Existing collaborations and networks, as well as planned work in the Tasmanian context on wellbeing could be leveraged in undertaking a place-based approach. We discuss these next.

4.4.5 Existing and planned work

Both wellbeing and place-based approaches have become prominent focus areas for research, policy and practice. Accordingly, there is an array of existing and planned work in the Tasmanian context that can be leveraged and supported to develop and implement a Tasmanian Wellbeing Framework. For example, the Regional Jobs Hubs bring together a range of stakeholders relevant to employment and industry; this model and/or the relationships developed within it could be utilised to bring local stakeholders together to develop wellbeing frameworks. Similarly, local government authorities tend to have excellent awareness of and relationships with cross-sector stakeholders in their jurisdictions. From a grassroots perspective, the Burnie Works Collective Impact project has brought together Burnie people, businesses, non-government service providers, UTAS stakeholders and government representatives to build knowledge about and undertake innovative, collaborative action towards community wellbeing.

Specific to wellbeing in Tasmania, the Institute for Social Change (ISC) has begun the Good Life Initiative (GLI). The GLI involves the development of a wellbeing index, which will comprise mostly objective indicators of wellbeing drawn from administrative data and self-reported objective wellbeing data (e.g. income rather than life satisfaction), for the purposes of comparing wellbeing in regions within Tasmania and Tasmania to other regions. A longitudinal representative panel (the Good Life panel) is also being established to develop our understanding of subjective wellbeing and monitor it over time. In addition, The Tasmania Project (TTP) will continue as a vehicle to capture the view of Tasmanians on issues that affect their wellbeing, as they emerge. TTP involves surveys and qualitative methods such as interviews and focus groups to provide greater depth and insight into people's opinions and experiences. In addition, the ISC will continue to build a cohort of PhD candidates who will explore various dimensions of wellbeing, interventions that affect it, and place-based conceptualisations of wellbeing, among other emergent topics.

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6. Appendix

APPENDIX A: THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF MAJOR WELLBEING SCHOOLS OF THOUGHT

i. Preference satisfaction

That wellbeing is constituted by getting what you desire is the dominant account of wellbeing in economics (Adler 2019). The reason why economists and economic welfare analysis have traditionally emphasised income growth is not because economists are materialists. Rather, it is because there is a straightforward relationship between having more resources and being able to satisfy more of your preferences.

Economics arguably adopted preference satisfaction as its account of wellbeing for pragmatic reasons. Around the turn of the 19th century, economics was engaged in a lively debate over how to understand 'utility', which is what economics posits as the driver of behaviour. Historically, perhaps owing to its intellectual roots in the utilitarianism of Bentham and John Stuart Mill, economics had thought of utility as a pleasurable mental state. The economist Francis Ysidro Edgeworth famously dreamed of a hedonometer that would allow direct measurement of this pleasure. By the 1940s however, economics had wholeheartedly swapped over to the preference satisfaction view. The first reason for this shift was Robbin's (1932) influential argument that pleasure could not be observed directly and was therefore a flimsy foundation for science. In contrast, choices, from which a scientist could infer underlying preferences, were empirically verifiable. The second reason was that Paul Samuelson (1938) provided mathematical analysis by which the utility functions that economists used in all their behavioural models could be understood as a rational ordering of preferences with no loss of rigor or precision. Echoing the behavioural turn in psychology, economics rapidly moved to eradicate the mind from its theories, including its theory of what wellbeing (or 'welfare' as is more common in economics) consists of.

In the intervening decades, philosophers of economics have developed sophisticated arguments for why preference satisfaction is not just a pragmatic but also a compelling account of wellbeing. Often these acknowledge that any old preference won't do. People need to have 'well-laundered' preferences that are rational, well-informed, autonomous, and so forth (Hausman 2012). The credibility of these assumptions has recently come under sustained assault from behavioural economics, which includes perspectives from affective and cognitive psychology. The mind is being brought back into economics and a lively debate over the nature of wellbeing is reemerging after a long period of dormancy (Sugden 2018).

ii. Objective list

The economic way of thinking about wellbeing as preference satisfaction started to come under sustained criticism in the policy domain around the late 1990s. Nobel prize winner Amartya Sen (1999) argued that the assumption in economics that income was the only constraint on preference satisfaction was erroneous and harmful. He argued that what economists call the 'budget constraint' needed to be expanded to consider all the items that determine one's 'freedom' to live the life one valued. These items included, at a minimum, education, health, and political enfranchisement. Together with Martha Nussbaum (2000) and other scholars, Sen developed the notion of 'capabilities'. One's capabilities determine the option set of possible 'being and doings' from which one can choose the life one wants to live (Robeyns 2017). For example, Sultan Qaboos of Oman was wealthy and powerful and thus able to do many things in his life that a Pakistani peasant could not. But Qaboos was nonetheless unable to live openly as a homosexual, presumably one his core values, given the taboos

against that lifestyle in his nation. In Sen's work, capabilities are instrumental to wellbeing but not intrinsic to it – wellbeing remains a matter of preference satisfaction. In contrast, Nussbaum argues that some capabilities are fundamental goods that directly constitute wellbeing. This is in keeping with many objective list accounts of wellbeing.

The central claim of Objective list theories is that there are some universal goods that are prudentially valuable to a human regardless of that person's opinion of them. These typically include health, happiness, freedom, knowledge, and virtue (Fletcher 2013). These goods are commonly enumerated with reference to some account of human nature. The most prevalent such account is the Aristotelian view that humans are defined by their rational and moral faculties (Kraut 2007). This is the tradition upon which Nussbaum draws, and it is also fundamental to Christian accounts in the Thomist tradition (Messer 2021). This view has recently come under criticism from biologists and psychologists who argue that Aristotelian accounts of human nature are naïve and idealistic. Humans are not rational in the way Aristotelians suppose and rationality can only be understood in concert with emotion, intuition, and the other immensely influential parts of our mind that are subconscious (Haidt 2012). Morality is not some set of freestanding logical truths we can discover through sophisticated reasoning but is instead a psychological module we have evolved to help us cooperate in groups (Greene 2014). Virtue and wellbeing then must be understood much more subjectively, psychologically, and politically than Aristotelians have been willing to countenance (Besser-Jones 2014).

Perhaps the most prominent objective list account of wellbeing emerging out of this new organismic perspective is that of self-determination theory (SDT, Ryan and Deci 2017), a psychological theory of motivation with roots in clinical practice. It posits that humans have three basic psychological needs: for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Autonomy is the sense that one is volitional in one's choices and in control of one's life. Competence is a sense of skill in the tasks one must complete in order to flourish. And relatedness is a sense of belonging and feeling loved and cared for. These needs emerged out of evolutionary pressures. If they are met then, barring a hostile external environment (e.g. volcanic eruptions, roving bandits, oppressive regimes) one will be able to act to meet one's physical needs as well. SDT argues that the nourishment of basic psychological needs is intrinsic to wellbeing. To evidence this claim, it presents empirical results showing positive correlations between basic need fulfilment and positive emotions, life satisfaction, vitality, and self-esteem, and negative correlations with depression, anxiety, and other psychopathologies.

iii. Mental state accounts

In contrast to SDT, most psychological theories of wellbeing fall under the 'mental state' heading. The most famous such account in philosophy is hedonism – the view that wellbeing consists in pleasure. Recent philosophical accounts of hedonism tend to be a bit more complex, typically by arguing that only certain kinds of pleasure are relevant to wellbeing (Feldman 2002). In any case, hedonism is not popular among philosophers, even if it does have some adherents. Where it finds more favour is among advocates of 'subjective wellbeing' especially happiness economists (Clark et al. 2018). Most prominently, the UK Treasury's latest Green Book Guidance for wellbeing evaluation of policies (HM Treasury 2021), which was heavily influenced by happiness economics, defines wellbeing as 'how we feel'.

SWB as a concept and field of study was defined by a group of scientists who referred to themselves as 'hedonic psychologists' (Kahneman et al. 1999). They were later joined by economists, sociologists, and other representatives from other fields, but the conceptual work was already done by that stage. Hedonic psychology defines SWB as a combination of 'experienced', 'evaluative', and 'eudaimonic' wellbeing (OECD 2013).

Experienced wellbeing refers to being in relatively more positive than negative affective states, with these states typically catalogued using the positive and negative affect scale (PANAS, Watson et al. 1988). This scale includes interested, distressed, excited, upset, strong, guilty, scared, hostile, enthusiastic, proud, irritable, alert, ashamed, inspired, nervous, determined, attentive, jittery, active, and afraid. Evaluative wellbeing refers to various judgements individual make about their life, notably how satisfied they are with it. These judgements are typically measured using various scale instruments, such as the common survey question: 'taking all things together, how satisfied are you with your life at this time on a scale from 1–10?'. They have been shown to contain both an emotional element, in that present mood tends to influence people's responses, and a cognitive element, in that people think about their answer before giving a response. 'Eudaimonic' wellbeing in the context of SWB refers to judgements about how worthwhile, purposeful, or meaningful one's life is. This is in contrast to the Aristotelian tradition from which the term 'eudaimonic' stems, where it refers 'living' well (as opposed to 'being' well). What this living well entails is debated, with psychologists and philosophers disagreeing. Philosophers emphasise living virtuously and reasonably (2004). Psychologists instead emphasise nourishing one's basic psychological needs (Ryan et al. 2008).

The notion that affective states and judgements about life are intrinsically good for people does not have much of a philosophical heritage at all barring one prominent and well-regarded advocate, namely Sumner (1996). It is important to note, however, that Sumner thinks life satisfaction is only associated with wellbeing if such judgements are made authentically and autonomously. These two criteria are absent from the psychological study of SWB and do not feature in SWB surveys. More generally, the idea that SWB is 'wellbeing', with all its normative baggage, as opposed to merely a technical object of interest to psychologists, has been heavily criticised (Haybron 2008, Fabian & Pykett 2021, Fumagalli 2022). Advocacy of SWB in the context of wellbeing policy is typically done with reference to empirical results rather than ethical arguments, and this practice too has come in for criticism (Alexandrova 2017). Nonetheless, SWB continues to gain adherents, especially among social scientists and policymakers as opposed to philosophers (VanderWeele et al. 2021).

APPENDIX B: WORLDWIDE FRAMEWORKS/INDICES AND LINKS TO INDICATORS

Wellbeing framework/index	Website	Webpage/document with a list of indicators (indices) or more information (frameworks)
ACT Wellbeing Framework	https://www.act.gov.au/wellbeing	https://www.act.gov.au/wellbeing/explore-wellbeing-data/
Australian Bureau of Statistics' Our Wellbeing	https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Lookup/by%20Subject/4160.0.55.001~Jun%202015~Main%20Features~The%20conceptual%20framework~8	https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Lookup/4160.0.55.001main+features9Jun%202015
Australian Unity Wellbeing Index	https://www.australianunity.com.au/about-us/wellbeing-index	https://members.australianunity.com.au/s/personal-wellbeing-index (a wellbeing questionnaire)
BES: benessere equo sostenibile	https://www.istat.it/en/well-being-and-sustainability	https://www.istat.it/it/files//2018/07/STATISTICAL_ANNEX_bes2020.zip (results in a zip file with all indicators)
Better Life Index	http://www.oecdbetterlifeindex.org/	https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=BLI
Canadian Index of Wellbeing	https://uwaterloo.ca/canadian-index-wellbeing/	https://uwaterloo.ca/canadian-index-wellbeing/sites/ca.canadian-index-wellbeing/files/uploads/files/ciw2016-howarecanadiansreallydoing-1994-2014-22nov2016_3.pdf (pp. 19-65 of the report)
Gallup World Poll	https://news.gallup.com/poll/105226/world-poll-methodology.aspx	https://www.gallup.com/analytics/234512/world-poll-topics.aspx
Genuine Progress Indicator	https://sustainable-economy.org/genuine-progress/	https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Genuine_progress_indicator
Global Liveability index	https://www.eiu.com/topic/liveability	https://pages.eiu.com/rs/753-RIQ-438/images/global-liveability-index-2021-free-report.pdf (pp. 7-8 of the report)
Global Peace Index	https://www.visionofhumanity.org/maps/#/	https://www.visionofhumanity.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/06/GPI-2021-web-1.pdf (pp. 78-85 of the report)
Global Youth Development Index	https://thecommonwealth.org/news/new-global-youth-development-index-shows-improvement-state-young-people	https://production-new-commonwealth-files.s3.eu-west-2.amazonaws.com/migrated/inline/5023_V3_Book_lores_smaller.pdf (pp. 199-200 of the report)
Gross National Happiness Index	https://www.gnhcentrethubutan.org/gnh-happiness-index/	https://www.bhutanstudies.org.bt/publicationFiles/2015-Survey-Results.pdf (indicators are presented throughout the report)
Gross National Wellness	https://www.iim-edu.org/grossnationalhappiness/	https://www.iim-edu.org/thinktank/polls/gnh-survey.htm (a wellbeing questionnaire)
Happy Planet Index	http://happyplanetindex.org/	https://happyplanetindex.org/wp-content/themes/hpi/public/downloads/happy-planet-index-2006-2020-public-data-set.xlsx (a dataset with indicators)
Human Development Index	http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/human-development-index-hdi	https://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/hdr2020_technical_notes.pdf
Indicators Aotearoa New Zealand	https://statisticsnz.shinyapps.io/wellbeingindicators/	https://statisticsnz.shinyapps.io/wellbeingindicators/_w_ba6d040a/?page=indicators&class=Social

Multidimensional Poverty Index	https://ophi.org.uk/multidimensional-poverty-index/	https://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/2020_mpi_report_en.pdf (p. 4 of the report)
National Well-being	https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/wellbeing/articles/measuresofnationalwellbeingdashboard/2018-04-25	https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/wellbeing/datasets/measuringnationalwellbeingdomainsandmeasures (datasets)
Quality of Life Index	https://www.numbeo.com/quality-of-life/	https://www.numbeo.com/quality-of-life/indices_explained.jsp
Satisfaction with Life Index	https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Satisfaction_with_Life_Index	https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Satisfaction_with_Life_Index
Social Progress Index	https://www.socialprogress.org/index/global	https://www.socialprogress.org/index/global/definitions
Sustainable Development Goals	https://sdgs.un.org/goals	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/Global%20Indicator%20Framework%20after%20refinement_Eng.pdf
Sustainable Society Index	https://ssi.wi.th-koeln.de/	https://ssi.wi.th-koeln.de/documents/version2/2018-indicator-descriptions.pdf
Tasmania's Child and Youth Wellbeing Strategy	https://wellbeing.tas.gov.au/	https://hdp-au-prod-app-tas-shapewellbeing-files.s3.ap-southeast-2.amazonaws.com/2116/3159/8898/Child_and_Youth_Wellbeing_Strategy_Sept_2021_wcag_FINAL.pdf (pp.14-15 of the report)
The Global Youth Wellbeing Index	https://www.youthindex.org/	https://www.youthindex.org/sites/default/files/2017YouthWellbeingIndex.pdf (pp. xii-xiii of the report)
The Good Life (TasCOSS)	https://www.dpac.tas.gov.au/___data/assets/pdf_file/0008/561635/Submission_17.pdf	TASCOSS Good Life domains targets and indicators 9 September (a Word document)
The Good Life Index (Denmark)	https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/docserver/9789264217416-8-en.pdf?expires=1653609184&id=id&accname=ocid53016515&checksum=541A39AEB40006A8BA628FD7BA750AAE	https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/docserver/9789264217416-8-en.pdf?expires=1653609184&id=id&accname=ocid53016515&checksum=541A39AEB40006A8BA628FD7BA750AAE (p. 25 of the report)
The Legatum Prosperity Index	https://www.prosperity.com/about/summary	https://docs.prosperity.com/3716/3643/5991/The_2021_Methodology_-_Part_3_-_Sources_And_Indicators.pdf (pp. 11-65 of the document)
The Living Standards Framework	https://www.treasury.govt.nz/information-and-services/nz-economy/higher-living-standards/our-living-standards-framework	https://www.treasury.govt.nz/sites/default/files/2021-10/tp-living-standards-framework-2021.pdf (pp. 56-63 of the document)
Thriving Places Index	https://www.thrivingplacesindex.org/	https://www.thrivingplacesindex.org/docs/TPI_2021_Indicator_List.pdf
UNICEF's Child Wellbeing	https://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/pdf/rc11_eng.pdf	https://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/pdf/rc11_eng.pdf (p. 5 of the report)
Victorian public health and wellbeing outcomes framework	https://www.health.vic.gov.au/publications/victorian-public-health-and-wellbeing-outcomes-framework-and-data-dictionary	https://content.health.vic.gov.au/sites/default/files/migrated/files/collections/policies-and-guidelines/v/victorian-public-health-and-wellbeing-outcomes-framework-data-dictionary.pdf
Where-to-be-born Index	https://www.economist.com/news/2012/11/21/the-lottery-of-life	https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Where-to-be-born_Index
World Happiness Report	https://worldhappiness.report/	https://worldhappiness.report/ed/2021/#appendices-and-data
Youth Progress Index	https://youthprogressindex.org/	https://youthprogressindex.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/12/YPI-report-17122021.pdf (pp. 20-22 of the report)

