

Regions: Statistical yearbook 2006

Data 2000-2004

Chapter 3



EUROPEAN
COMMISSION



THEME
General and
regional statistics

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Introduction



Statistical data at the regional level

The Structural Funds for the period 2007 to 2013 were decided in December 2005. This decision was based on the objective regional statistics compiled by Eurostat, thus highlighting the importance of our effort to produce a wide range of comparable regional information.

This yearbook shows many aspects of this regional data and suggests in the various chapters some of the analyses which can be made with them. But we also invite you the reader to yourself continue the analyses of the regional data supplied in each of the different themes presented here. We also hope that this publication will make you keen to further investigate Eurostat's statistical databases (available free of charge on the internet).

In keeping with the traditions of the Regional yearbook, we try to renew the publication a little each year, but also to keep its structure basically unchanged. In this way, many subjects reappear from year to year, but the theme or focus of the subject is always slightly different. This year we again have one theme that is totally new for the Regional Yearbook, namely "labour productivity", which combines statistics on GDP with labour market statistics in a very interesting way. This kind of cross-cutting of different statistical domains could of course also be conducted with other statistical themes, but we will for the moment leave that to a future edition of the yearbook.

Some highlights

We will not present here the content of all chapters of this Regional Yearbook. Here, however, are some hints to whet your appetite to read it carefully:

- The population chapter this year focuses on old and young dependency ratios in the coming decades, highlighting the drastic changes of society we will have to cope with.
- The chapter on regional GDP centres its attention on growth rates between 1999 and 2003, giving interesting insights into regional differences.

- The Urban Audit chapter concentrates on the competitiveness of cities, analysing various facets of benchmarking cities that compete against each other.
- The chapter on the Structural Business Survey focuses on specialised regions in different industrial and service activities. This highlights the heterogeneity of European regions in terms of the production process and skills.

Regional classification

All regional analysis in this yearbook is based on NUTS 2003. In the meantime, the ten new Member States have also been formally integrated into the new regional classification in the form of an amendment to the NUTS Regulation. The texts of the Regulation and the amendment are available on the CD-ROM – as is the annex, which lists the regions making up the nomenclature in each country.

Coverage

No distinction is made in the yearbook between the old Member States, the countries that became Member States in 2004 and those due to join in 2007 or 2008: wherever data are available for Bulgaria and Romania, these of course also feature in the maps and commentaries. In the case of Turkey and Croatia, there are still too few regional data to justify including them in the analyses.

Structure

In each chapter, regional distributions are highlighted by colour maps and graphs which are then evaluated by expert authors in text commentaries. In keeping with the traditions of the yearbook, an effort has been made to focus on aspects not recently covered.

In order to assist the understanding of the maps, the data series used for the maps in the yearbook are provided as Excel files on the CD-ROM.

In the maps, the statistics are presented at NUTS level 2. A map giving the code numbers of the regions can be found in the sleeve of this publication. At the end of the publication there is a list of all the NUTS-2 regions in the European Union, together with a list of the level 2 statistical regions in Bulgaria and Romania. Full details of these national regional breakdowns, including lists of level 2 and level 3 regions and the appropriate maps, may be consulted on the RAMON server.¹

More regional information needed?

The public REGIO database on the Eurostat website contains more extensive time series (which may go back as far as 1970) and more detailed statistics than those given in this yearbook, such as population, death and birth by single years of age, detailed results of the Community labour-force survey, etc. Moreover, there is coverage in REGIO of a number of indicators at NUTS level 3 (such as area, population, births and deaths, gross domestic product, unemployment rates). This is important because there are no fewer than eight EU Member States (Cyprus, Denmark, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta and Slovenia) that do not have a level 2 breakdown.

For more detailed information on the contents of the REGIO database, please consult the Eurostat publication 'European regional and urban statistics — Reference Guide 2003', a copy of which is available in PDF format on the accompanying CD-ROM.

In addition, the reader is also invited to consult the web version of the "Portraits of the Regions", which give regional profiles of all individual regions across Europe.² These regional topical profiles describe the geography and history of the region, before going on to assess its strengths and weaknesses in terms of demographic, economic and cultural issues. Among the aspects examined are the labour market, education, infrastructure and resources.

Regional interest group on the web

Eurostat's regional statistics team maintains a publicly accessible interest group on the web ('CIRCA site') with many useful links and documents.³

Among other resources, you will find:

- a list of all regional coordination officers in the Member States, the candidate countries and the EFTA countries;
- the latest edition of the "Regional and Urban Reference Guide";
- PowerPoint presentations of Eurostat's work concerning regional and urban statistics;
- the regional classification NUTS for the Member States and the regional classification of the candidate countries.

Closure date for the yearbook data

The cut-off date for this issue was the 15th of May 2006.

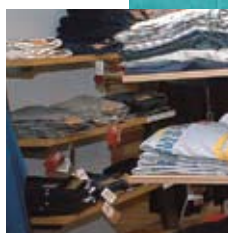
¹ See http://europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat/ramon/index.cfm?TargetUrl=DSP_PUB_WELC

² See <http://forum.europa.eu.int/irc/dsis/regportraits/info/data/en/index.htm>

³ See <http://forum.europa.eu.int/Public/irc/dsis/regstat/information>

Household accounts

3.



Introduction: Measuring wealth

One of the primary aims of regional statistics is to measure regions' wealth. This is of particular relevance as a basis for policy measures which aim to provide support for less well-off regions.

The indicator most frequently used to measure regions' wealth is regional gross domestic product (GDP). GDP is usually expressed in purchasing power standards (PPS) and per capita to make the data comparable between regions.

However, per capita regional GDP has a number of drawbacks as an indicator of wealth, one of which is that a "place-of-work" figure (the GDP produced in the region) is divided by a "place-of-residence" figure (the population living in the region). This inconsistency is of relevance wherever there are commuter flows — i.e. more or fewer people working in a region than living in it. The most obvious example is the "Inner London" region of the UK, which has by far the highest per capita GDP. Yet this by no means translates into a correspondingly high income level for the inhabitants of the same region, as thousands of commuters travel to London every day to work there but live in the neighbouring regions. Hamburg, Vienna, Luxembourg and Prague are other examples of this phenomenon.

Apart from the commuter flows, other factors can also cause the regional distribution of actual wealth not to correspond to GDP distribution. These include, for example, income from rent, interest or dividends received by the residents of a certain region, but paid by residents of other regions. It is therefore useful to compare the regional GDP with the regional distribution of household income.

Private household income

In market economies with State redistribution mechanisms, a distinction is made between two types of private-household income distribution.

The **primary** distribution of income reflects the income of private households generated directly from market transactions, i.e. the purchase and sale of the factors of production and goods. These include in particular the compensation of employees. Private households can also receive income on assets, e.g. in the form of interest or rent. Finally, there is also income in the form of an operating surplus or self-employment income. Any interest or rent payable by the households is recorded as a negative item. The balance of all these transactions is termed the **primary income** of private households.

The primary income is the point of departure for the **secondary** distribution of income, which denotes the State redistribution mechanism. All monetary social benefits and transfers received by the households are now added to primary income. On the other hand, households must use their income to pay taxes on income and wealth, pay their social contributions and effect transfers. The sum remaining after these transactions have been carried out, i.e. the balance, is called the **disposable income** of private households.

Results for 2003

It is only in recent years that Eurostat has had data for these income categories of private

households. The data are collected in the regional accounts for NUTS level 2. Until recently, derogations still applied to several Member States, allowing their data to be submitted to Eurostat later than the 24 months after the end of the reference year stipulated in the Regulation or not at all; other Member States have not always kept to the deadline laid down in the Regulation.

There are still no data available for the following regions at NUTS 2 regional level: the French Overseas Departments, the Autonomous Province of Bolzano and the Autonomous Province of Trento in Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, Slovenia and Bulgaria. Values for EU-25 in this part of the regional accounts consequently remain unavailable. This chapter therefore relates to the other 21 Member States and Romania.

Primary income and disposable income

Map 3.1 gives an overview of primary income in the NUTS 2 regions of the 22 countries examined here. Centres of wealth in southern England, Paris and Alsace, northern Italy, Vienna, Madrid, the País Vasco and Comunidad Foral de Navarra in Spain, Flanders, the western Netherlands, Stockholm and Nordrhein-Westfalen, Hessen, Baden-Württemberg and Bayern in Germany are clearly evident. There is also a clear north-south divide in Italy and a west-east divide in Germany, while the regional distribution is relatively homogeneous in France. A south-north divide is evident in the UK, although to a lesser extent than in Italy and Germany.

In the new Member States, however, household primary income lies considerably below the EU average. The regions with clearly above-average levels of wealth are mainly capital regions, in particular Prague, Közép-Magyarország (Hungary), Mazowieckie (Poland) and Bucharest (Romania). Furthermore, the eastern peripheral regions of some of the new Member States are clearly even further behind the respective national level.

The regional values range from 2 495 PPCS per capita in Nord-Est in Romania to 27 818 PPCS in the UK region of Inner London. The ten regions

with the highest per capita income include five regions in the UK alone, two each in Belgium and Germany and one in France.

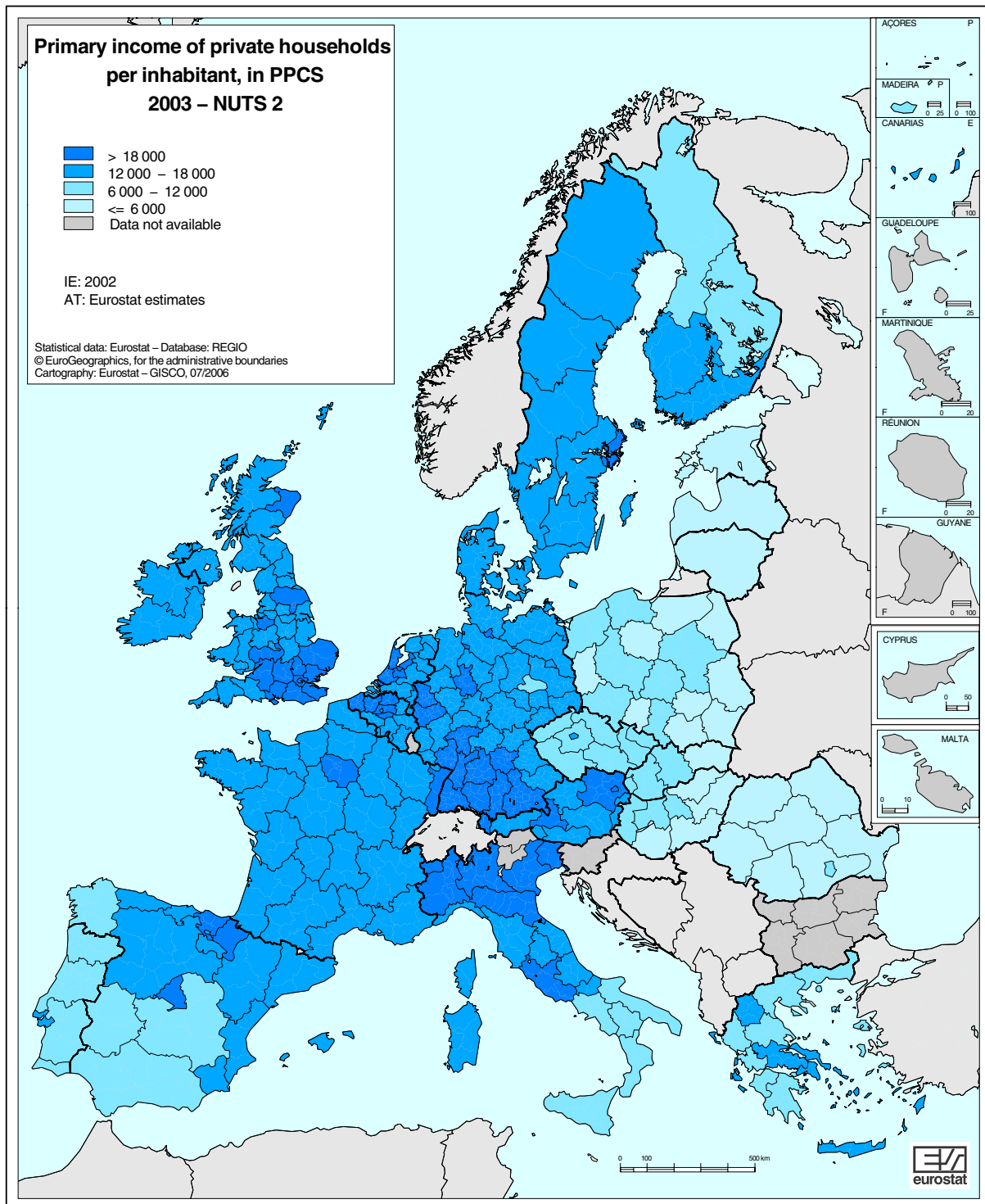
A comparison of primary income with disposable income (map 3.2) shows the levelling influence of State intervention. It visibly increases the relative income level in southern Italy, central and southern Spain, Galicia, the west and north of the UK and in parts of eastern Germany and central Greece. State activity moves several regions in northern and western Germany up to the same class as the affluent south-west of the country.

Similar effects can be observed in the new Member States, particularly in Hungary, Slovakia and most of the Polish regions. However, the levelling out of private income levels in the new Member States has generally been less pronounced than in EU-15.

In spite of State redistribution, most capital regions maintain their prominent position with the highest disposable income for the country in question.

The regional values range from 2 547 PPCS per capita in Nord-Est in Romania to 21 659 PPCS in the UK region of Inner London. Of the ten regions with the highest per capita disposable income, six are in the UK, two in Italy, one in France and one in Austria. The two Italian regions of Emilia-Romagna and Lombardia have moved into the group of the first ten regions, while the two German regions of Stuttgart and Oberbayern have moved out — a reflection of the fact that the levelling effect of State intervention on private income is much less pronounced in Italy than in Germany. At 11 214 PPCS per capita, Prague continues to be the region with the highest disposable income in the new Member States.

State activity reduces the difference between the highest and the lowest regional value of the 22 countries dealt with here significantly from a factor of around 11.2 to 8.5. Although this factor is naturally much lower within each country, it varies considerably from one country to another. Graph 3.1 gives an overview of the range of disposable income per capita between the regions with the highest and the lowest value for each country. The highest regional disparity in wealth can be found in Romania, with a factor of 2.05. This means that income in the Bucharest region is more than double that in Nord-Est.

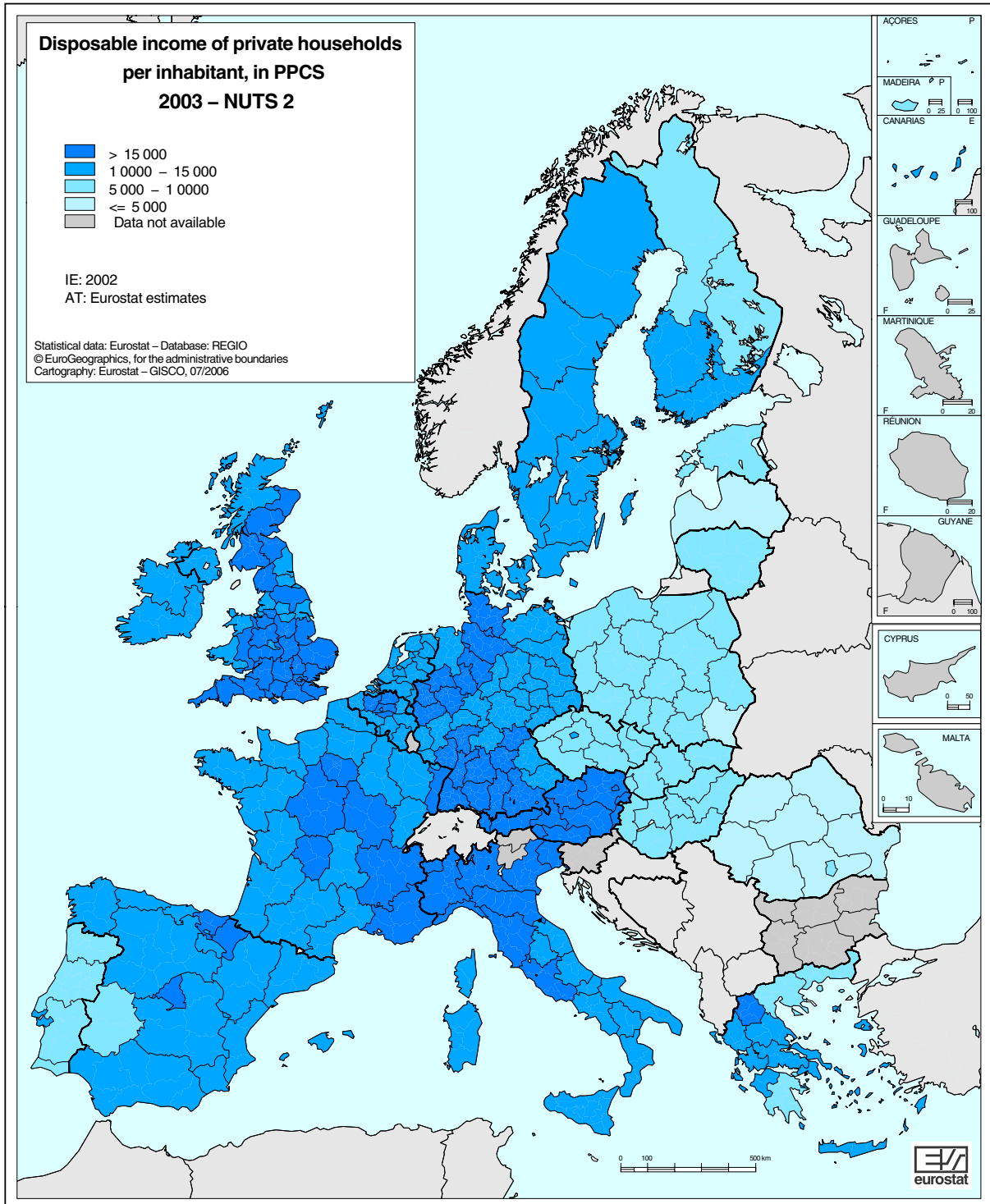


Map 3.1

Italy is the only EU-15 Member State among the five countries with the highest income disparities, which include Hungary, the Czech Republic and Slovakia; in all four countries, the highest regional values exceed the lowest by approximately 75%. Poland has the lowest income disparity of the new Member States (64%), which is close to that of Spain, Greece and Portugal. With values of between 53% and 41%, the regional disparities in the UK, France, Germany,

Belgium and Finland are relatively similar. The smallest regional income disparities are to be found in Ireland, Austria, the Netherlands and Sweden, where the maximum values exceed the minimum values by between 11% and 32%.

Graph 3.1 also shows that the capital cities of 11 of the 18 countries with several NUTS 2 regions also have the highest income values. This group includes all the larger new Member States and Romania. The economic dominance of the



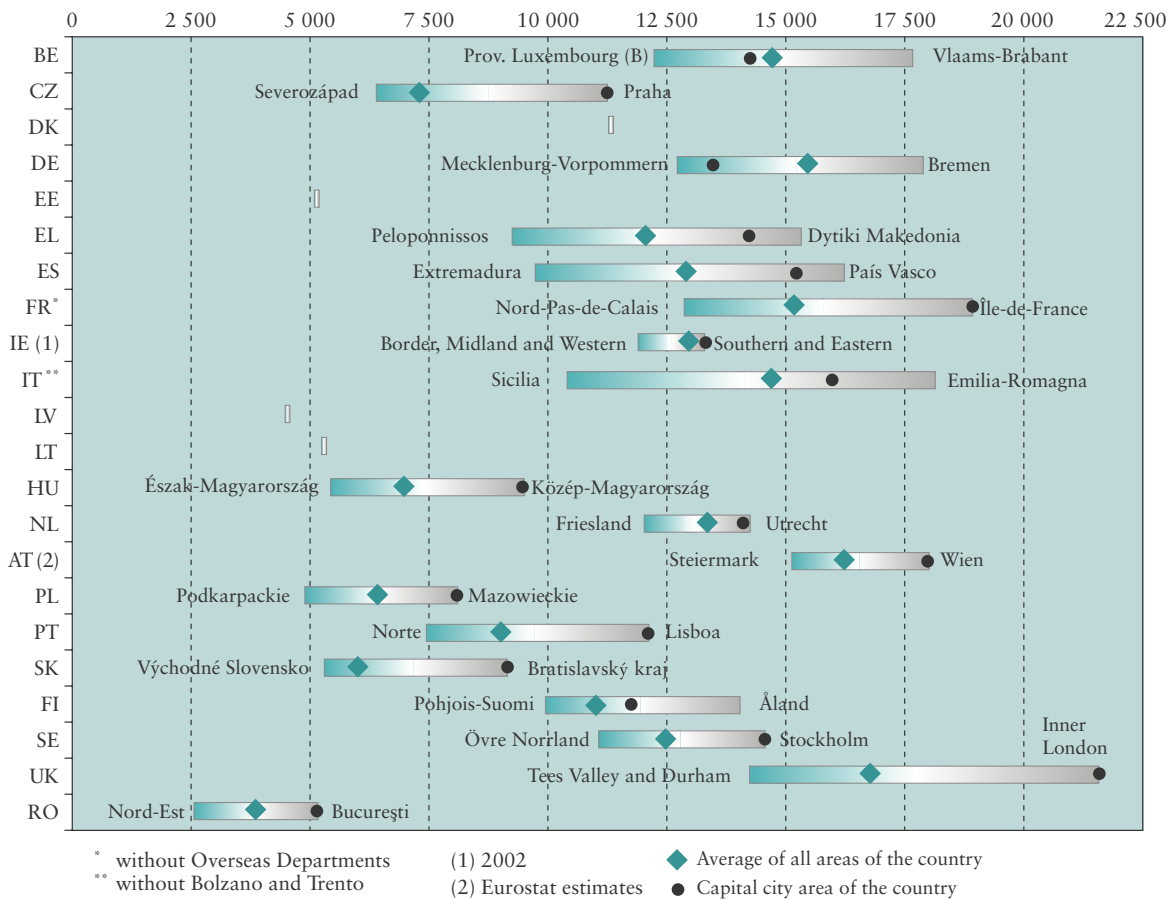
Map 3.2

capital regions is also evident when their income values are compared with the national averages. In three countries (Romania, the Czech Republic and Slovakia), the capital cities exceed the national values by more than 50%. In only two countries (Belgium and Germany) are the values lower than the national averages.

Map 3.3 illustrates the relationship between disposable and primary income. This quotient gives an idea of the effects of State activity and

of other transfer payments. Substantial differences between the regions of the Member States are evident. Disposable income in the capital cities and other prosperous regions of EU-15 is almost without exception below 80% of primary income. Correspondingly higher percentages can be observed in the less affluent areas, in particular on the southern periphery of the EU, in the west of the UK and in eastern Germany.

Graph 3.1: Disposable income of private households per inhabitant (in PPS) 2003, NUTS 2



Differences in the regional redistribution of wealth are somewhat less significant in the new Member States than in EU-15. This is particularly true of the Czech Republic, where disposable income lies within a relatively narrow range between 78% and 90% of primary income.

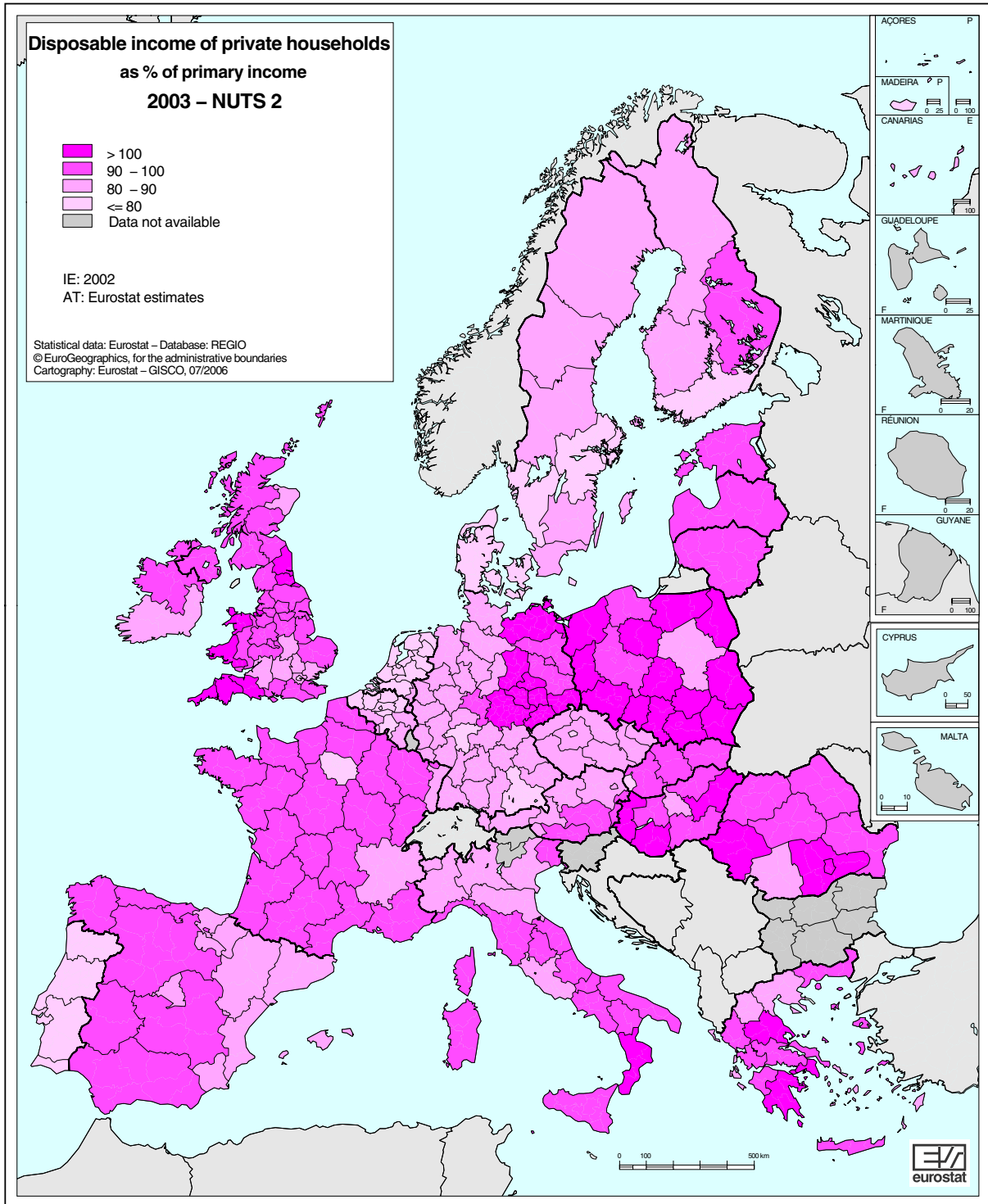
In both the new Member States and the old EU-15, there are a number of regions in which disposable income exceeds primary income. For example, this is the case in 13 of the 16 Polish provinces, in three of the eight Romanian regions, in three of the seven Hungarian regions, but also in eight eastern German, seven British and three Greek regions. In Portugal and Italy, one region has a value of over 100 per cent. When interpreting these results, however, it should be borne in mind that not only monetary social benefits from the State may cause disposable income to exceed primary income. Other transfer payments (e.g. transfers from people temporarily working in other regions) can play an important role in some cases, as in Poland, Portugal and Romania, for instance. Map 3.3 clearly shows that this is

frequently the case in the less prosperous regions of the countries in question.

Income and social benefits

The State intervenes in income distribution not only by taxing income and assets but also through monetary social transfers. There are characteristic differences between the countries studied here in terms of both the amount and the regional distribution of these social benefits. While in Denmark they represent around 44% and in Sweden around 38% of disposable income, they amount to between 25% and 35% in most of the other EU-15 Member States. In the new Member States, proportions of between 25% (Hungary) and 15% (Romania) are typical.

At regional level, social benefits account for between 48% (Dessau, Germany) and 13% (Bratislavský kraj, Slovakia) of disposable income. There



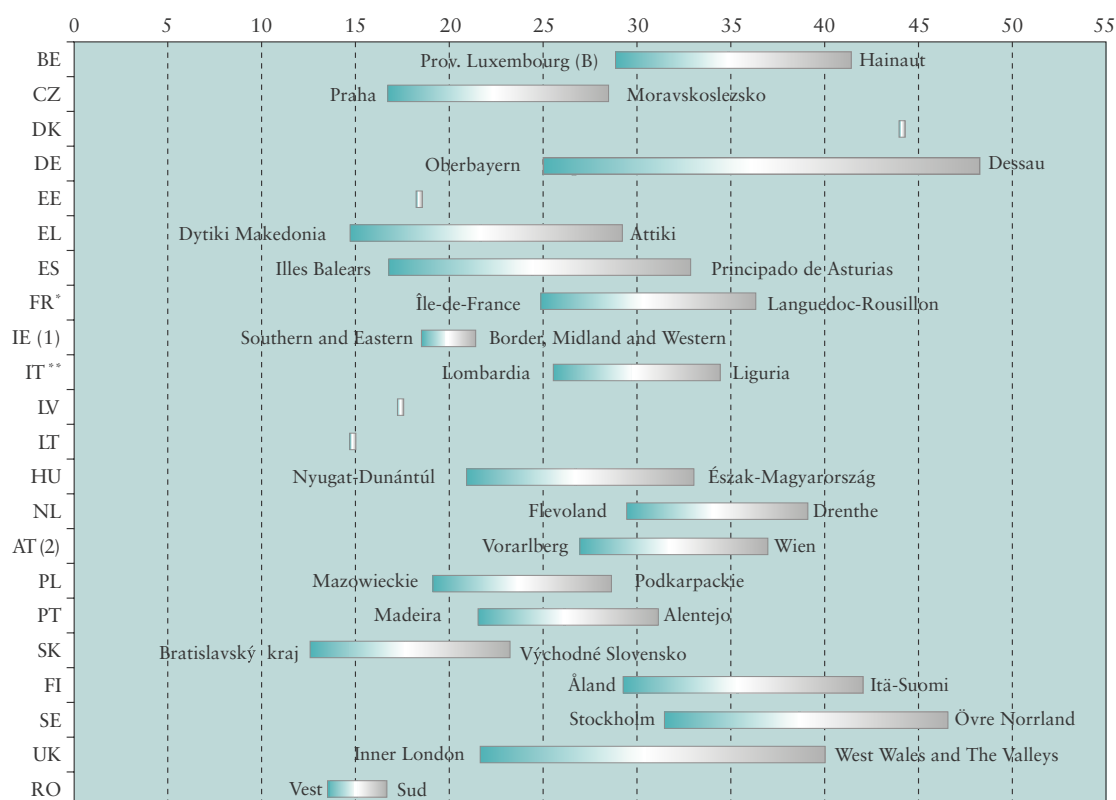
Map 3.3

is a clear concentration of high values in regions which have structural problems, including low incomes and high unemployment in particular. Eastern Germany and northern Sweden have the highest values (45-48%) and Romania, Slovakia and Lithuania the lowest (13-16%). It is therefore clear that the redistribution of wealth through State intervention is still subject to relatively narrow limits in most of the new Member States. Only in a few regions in the Czech Republic and

Hungary do social benefits reach the level usual in EU-15 (with values of approximately 30%).

While a plausible regional structure is apparent in the level of State social benefits in most countries, the development of these benefits in the medium term is less consistent. Map 3.4 provides a four-year comparison (2003 compared to 1999) of how social benefits have developed as a proportion of disposable income. Regions in which this proportion has increased by more than one percentage

Graph 3.2: Social benefits in percent of disposable income of private households, 2003, NUTS 2



* without Overseas Departments (1) 2002
 ** without Bolzano and Trento (2) Eurostat estimates

point are shown in orange and red and those in which it has fallen by at least one percentage point are shown in green. It is clear that social benefits which increase as a proportion of disposable income are found not only in regions with economic problems but also in places in which development has been comparatively successful. Moreover, in countries with a high level of income (e.g. Germany, Italy and the UK), the proportion of social benefits can both rise and fall.

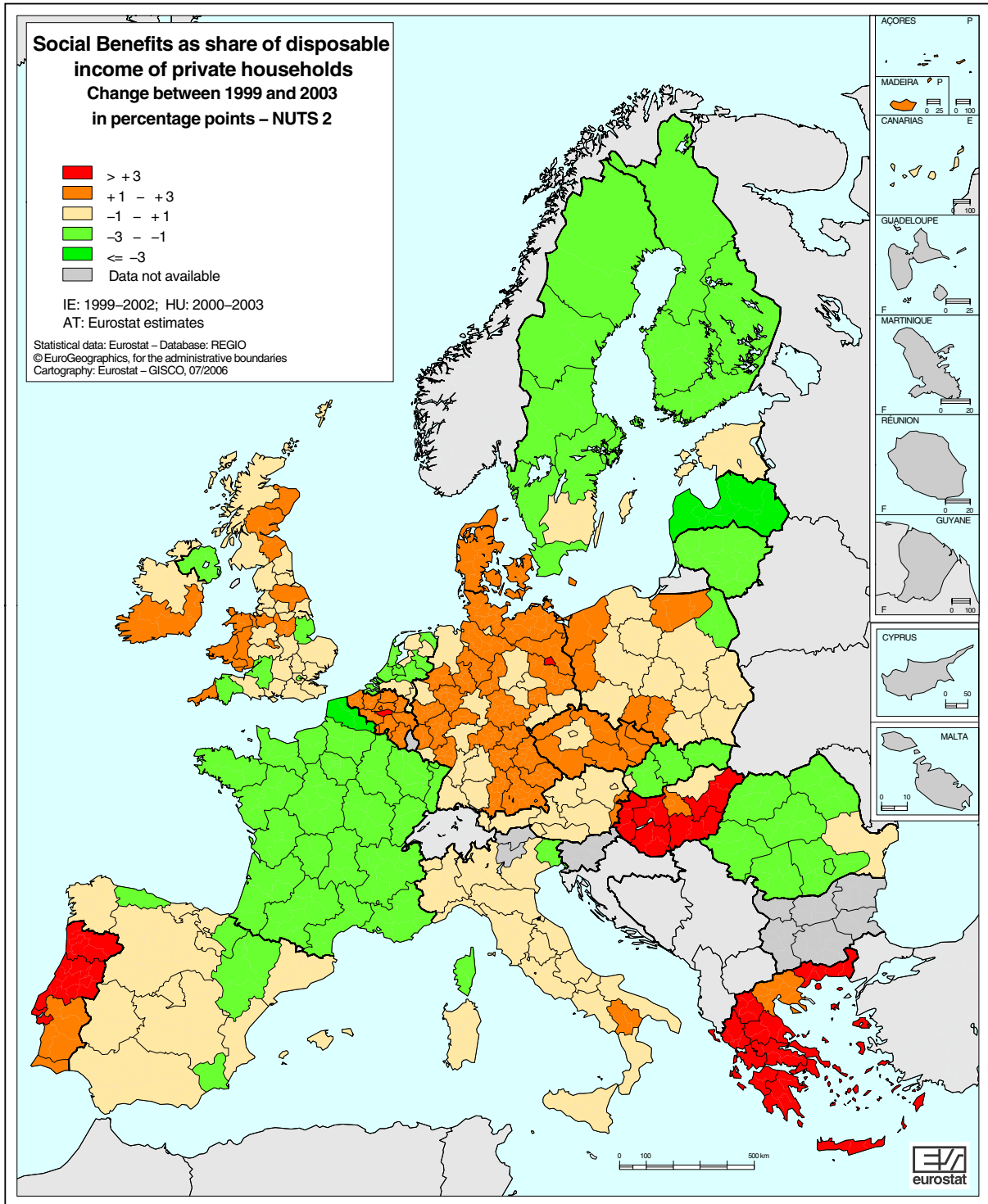
However, a number of developments are particularly noticeable. There has been a significant increase in the proportion of social benefits in all the Greek, Irish and Hungarian regions and in most of the Czech and Belgian regions; the effects of an active social policy based on growing economic wealth are thus being felt in these countries. A clear increase in social benefits is also apparent in Portugal, Germany and some of Poland's peripheral regions; this is not the result of greater leeway for wealth redistribution, however, but stems from the need to offset the repercussions of generally unsatisfactory development by increasing social benefits. In Germany, this seems to have had an undesirable effect in that

social benefits which continue to rise are flowing into regions which already have a high level of income (Bayern and Hessen, in particular).

State social benefits which are declining in relative terms are mainly apparent in a few regions in which economic development is favourable; these include, in particular, the Baltic countries, most of the Slovakian regions and a few regions in the UK and Spain. In contrast, the decrease in social benefits in France and Romania is surprising. It is clear that, in these cases, tight limits have been imposed on a more active social policy because of the budget situation.

Not all the new Member States are catching up

Map 3.5 provides a four-year comparison of the changes in per capita disposable income (in PPCS) between 1999 and 2003 compared to the average

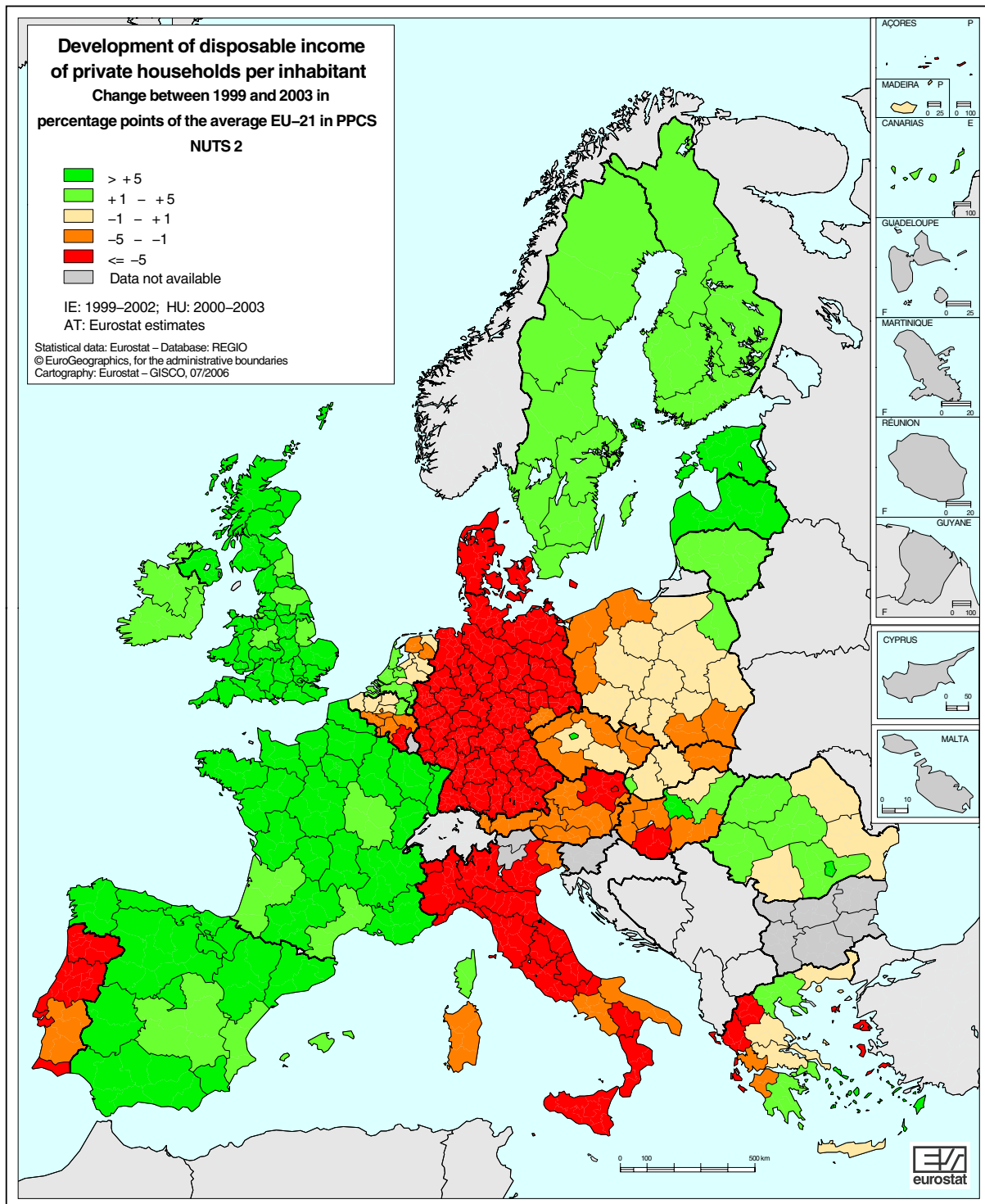


Map 3.4

for the 21 Member States. A special EU-21 average had to be used as data were not yet available for Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta or Slovenia. This EU-21 average can, however, be used as an approximation for an EU-25 average, as the total population of these four Member States accounts for less than one per cent of the total population of the EU-25.

Regions in which per capita disposable income increased by more than one percentage point

compared to the average between 1999 and 2003 are shown in green and those in which it fell by at least one percentage point are shown in orange and red. The range of change varies between +15 percentage points in Bedfordshire and Hertfordshire (UK) to -14 percentage points in Dél-Dunántúl in Hungary. The map shows that, in EU-15 and in the new Member States, trends in private income in relative terms have been very uneven.



Map 3.5

In the EU-15 countries, the unsatisfactory trends in Germany, Italy and Portugal, where even regions with average levels of income have lost between 5 and 10 percentage points compared to the EU average, are particularly apparent. The losses in Denmark (-7.5), Vienna (-8) and Niederösterreich (-5) are less severe, as these regions have very high income levels.

As far as the new Member States are concerned, although the Baltic countries are catching up

fast, with increases of between 5 and 7.5 percentage points, trends in other regions have not been as positive. The Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia have fallen slightly behind compared to the EU average. Income in 12 of Poland's 16 provinces fell short of the EU average by up to three percentage points; only four were able to improve their relative position and only one of them (Podlaskie) by more than one percentage point. It is possible that this region

has benefited from the dynamic growth in neighbouring Lithuania.

The figures for Romania, on the other hand, are quite encouraging. With an increase of +8.6 percentage points, the Bucharest region has achieved the greatest relative improvement of all regions outside EU-15, with even the east of the country keeping up with average income development in the EU. A structural problem nevertheless remains in that the wealth gap between the capital and the poorer parts of the country has widened further.

On the whole, the changes between 1999 and 2003 resulted in a slight flattening of the upper edge of the regional income distribution band: while 38 regions still recorded disposable income of 125% of the average in 1999, only 31 did so in 2003. However, the same cannot be said of the lower end of the distribution band, where the number of regions with an income of less than 50% of the average rose from 31 to 34. The dynamic growth of the highest income regions, particularly in the UK, means that the range between the two extreme values (Inner London and Nord-Est in Romania) has increased slightly from a factor of 8.3 to a factor of 8.5.

Summary

The regional distribution of disposable household income differs from the distribution of regional GDP in a number of NUTS 2 regions. This is mainly the result of State activity in the form of monetary social transfers and the levying of direct taxes, which levels out the disparities between regions considerably. In some cases, other transfer payments and types of income received

by private households from outside their region can also play an important role.

Taken together, State intervention and other items of income bring the range of disposable income between the most prosperous and the economically weakest regions to a factor of about 8.5, whereas the two extreme values of primary income per capita differ by a factor of up to 11.2. The flattening out of regional income distribution desired by most countries is therefore being achieved.

The income level of private households in the new Member States continues to be far below that in EU-15; in only a small number of capital regions are income values more than two thirds of the EU average.

An analysis over a four-year period from 1999 to 2003 shows those incomes in the regions of the new Member States, apart from the Baltic countries, are catching up only slowly with those in EU-15. Most of the Polish regions, as well as a few Czech, Hungarian and Slovakian regions, have actually fallen behind compared to the EU average. Romania, on the other hand, clearly seems to be catching up — a development which, happily, extends beyond the Bucharest capital region.

Thanks to the dynamic growth in the UK, the range between the highest and the lowest income values increased slightly between 1999 and 2003 from a factor of 8.3 to a factor of 8.5.

With regard to the availability of data concerning income, the comprehensiveness of the data and the length of the time series have gradually improved. Once a complete data set is available, the income statistics for private households could be taken into account in the decision-making process for regional policy, alongside statistics on GDP.

The measurement unit for regional comparisons

When analysing household income, we first need to decide which unit of measurement to use for the data to ensure those comparisons are meaningful.

For the purposes of making comparisons between regions, regional GDP is generally expressed in purchasing power standards (PPS) so that volume comparisons can be made. The same process should therefore be applied to the private household income parameters, so that these can then be compared with regional GDP and with each other.

However, there is a problem with this. PPS are designed to apply to GDP as a whole. The calculations use the

expenditure approach and PPS are subdivided only on the expenditure side.

In regional accounts, on the other hand, the expenditure approach cannot be used, as this would require data on regional import and export flows. These data are not available at regional level, so regional accounts are only calculated from the output side. This means that there is no exact correspondence between the income parameters and the PPS. PPS exist only for private consumption.

Eurostat assumes that these conceptual differences are of little importance and converts the income parameters of private households by means of the consumption components of PPS into PPCS (purchasing power consumption standards).



EUROPEAN UNION: NUTS 2 regions

BE10	Région de Bruxelles-Capitale/Brussels Hoofdstedelijk Gewest	DEC0	Saarland	FR43	Franche-Comté
BE21	Prov. Antwerpen	DED1	Chemnitz	FR51	Pays de la Loire
BE22	Prov. Limburg (BE)	DED2	Dresden	FR52	Bretagne
BE23	Prov. Oost-Vlaanderen	DED3	Leipzig	FR53	Poitou-Charentes
BE24	Prov. Vlaams-Brabant	DEE1	Dessau	FR61	Aquitaine
BE25	Prov. West-Vlaanderen	DEE2	Halle	FR62	Midi-Pyrénées
BE31	Prov. Brabant Wallon	DEE3	Magdeburg	FR63	Limousin
BE32	Prov. Hainaut	DEF0	Schleswig-Holstein	FR71	Rhône-Alpes
BE33	Prov. Liège	DEG0	Thüringen	FR72	Auvergne
BE34	Prov. Luxembourg (BE)	EE00	Eesti	FR81	Languedoc-Roussillon
BE35	Prov. Namur	GR11	Anatoliki Makedonia, Thraki	FR82	Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur
CZ01	Praha	GR12	Kentriki Makedonia	FR83	Corse
CZ02	Střední Čechy	GR13	Dytiki Makedonia	FR91	Guadeloupe
CZ03	Jihozápad	GR14	Thessalia	FR92	Martinique
CZ04	Severozápad	GR21	Ipeiros	FR93	Guyane
CZ05	Severovýchod	GR22	Ionia Nisia	FR94	Réunion
CZ06	Jihovýchod	GR23	Dytiki Ellada	IE01	Border, Midland and Western
CZ07	Střední Morava	GR24	Stereia Ellada	IE02	Southern and Eastern
CZ08	Moravskoslezsko	GR25	Peloponnisos	ITC1	Piemonte
DK00	Danmark	GR30	Attiki	ITC2	Valle d'Aosta/Vallée d'Aoste
DE11	Stuttgart	GR41	Voreio Aigaio	ITC3	Liguria
DE12	Karlsruhe	GR42	Notio Aigaio	ITC4	Lombardia
DE13	Freiburg	GR43	Kriti	ITD1	Provincia Autonoma Bolzano/Bozen
DE14	Tübingen	ES11	Galicia	ITD2	Provincia Autonoma Trento
DE21	Oberbayern	ES12	Principado de Asturias	ITD3	Veneto
DE22	Niederbayern	ES13	Cantabria	ITD4	Friuli-Venezia Giulia
DE23	Oberpfalz	ES21	País Vasco	ITD5	Emilia-Romagna
DE24	Oberfranken	ES22	Comunidad Foral de Navarra	ITE1	Toscana
DE25	Mittelfranken	ES23	La Rioja	ITE2	Umbria
DE26	Unterfranken	ES24	Aragón	ITE3	Marche
DE27	Schwaben	ES30	Comunidad de Madrid	ITE4	Lazio
DE30	Berlin	ES41	Castilla y León	ITF1	Abruzzo
DE41	Brandenburg — Nordost	ES42	Castilla-La Mancha	ITF2	Molise
DE42	Brandenburg — Südwest	ES43	Extremadura	ITF3	Campania
DE50	Bremen	ES51	Cataluña	ITF4	Puglia
DE60	Hamburg	ES52	Comunidad Valenciana	ITF5	Basilicata
DE71	Darmstadt	ES53	Illes Balears	ITF6	Calabria
DE72	Gießen	ES61	Andalucía	ITG1	Sicilia
DE73	Kassel	ES62	Región de Murcia	ITG2	Sardegna
DE80	Mecklenburg-Vorpommern	ES63	Ciudad Autónoma de Ceuta	CY00	Kypros/Kıbrıs
DE91	Braunschweig	ES64	Ciudad Autónoma de Melilla	LV00	Latvija
DE92	Hannover	ES70	Canarias	LT00	Lietuva
DE93	Lüneburg	FR10	Île-de-France	LU00	Luxembourg (Grand-Duché)
DE94	Weser-Ems	FR21	Champagne-Ardenne	HU10	Közép-Magyarország
DEA1	Düsseldorf	FR22	Picardie	HU21	Közép-Dunántúl
DEA2	Köln	FR23	Haute-Normandie	HU22	Nyugat-Dunántúl
DEA3	Münster	FR24	Centre	HU23	Dél-Dunántúl
DEA4	Detmold	FR25	Basse-Normandie	HU31	Észak-Magyarország
DEA5	Arnsberg	FR26	Bourgogne	HU32	Észak-Alföld
DEB1	Koblenz	FR30	Nord - Pas-de-Calais	HU33	Dél-Alföld
DEB2	Trier	FR41	Lorraine	MT00	Malta
DEB3	Rheinessen-Pfalz	FR42	Alsace	NL11	Groningen

NL12	Friesland	PT20	Região Autónoma dos Açores	UKF3	Lincolnshire
NL13	Drenthe	PT30	Região Autónoma da Madeira	UKG1	Herefordshire, Worcestershire and Warwickshire
NL21	Overijssel	SI00	Slovenija	UKG2	Shropshire and Staffordshire
NL22	Gelderland	SK01	Bratislavský kraj	UKG3	West Midlands
NL23	Flevoland	SK02	Západné Slovensko	UKH1	East Anglia
NL31	Utrecht	SK03	Stredné Slovensko	UKH2	Bedfordshire and Hertfordshire
NL32	Noord-Holland	SK04	Východné Slovensko	UKH3	Essex
NL33	Zuid-Holland	FI13	Itä-Suomi	UKI1	Inner London
NL34	Zeeland	FI18	Etelä-Suomi	UKI2	Outer London
NL41	Noord-Brabant	FI19	Länsi-Suomi	UKJ1	Berkshire, Buckinghamshire and Oxfordshire
NL42	Limburg (NL)	FI1A	Pohjois-Suomi	UKJ2	Surrey, East and West Sussex
AT11	Burgenland	FI20	Åland	UKJ3	Hampshire and Isle of Wight
AT12	Niederösterreich	SE01	Stockholm	UKJ4	Kent
AT13	Wien	SE02	Östra Mellansverige	UKK1	Gloucestershire, Wiltshire and North Somerset
AT21	Kärnten	SE04	Sydsverige	UKK2	Dorset and Somerset
AT22	Steiermark	SE06	Norra Mellansverige	UKK3	Cornwall and Isles of Scilly
AT31	Oberösterreich	SE07	Mellersta Norrland	UKK4	Devon
AT32	Salzburg	SE08	Övre Norrland	UKL1	West Wales and the Valleys
AT33	Tirol	SE09	Småland med öarna	UKL2	East Wales
AT34	Vorarlberg	SE0A	Västssverige	UKM1	North Eastern Scotland
PL11	Łódzkie	UKC1	Tees Valley and Durham	UKM2	Eastern Scotland
PL12	Mazowieckie	UKC2	Northumberland and Tyne and Wear	UKM3	South Western Scotland
PL21	Małopolskie	UKD1	Cumbria	UKM4	Highlands and Islands
PL22	Śląskie	UKD2	Cheshire	UKN0	Northern Ireland
PL31	Lubelskie	UKD3	Greater Manchester		
PL32	Podkarpackie	UKD4	Lancashire		
PL33	Świętokrzyskie	UKD5	Merseyside		
PL34	Podlaskie	UKE1	East Riding and North Lincolnshire		
PL41	Wielkopolskie	UKE2	North Yorkshire		
PL42	Zachodniopomorskie	UKE3	South Yorkshire		
PL43	Lubuskie	UKE4	West Yorkshire		
PL51	Dolnośląskie	UKF1	Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire		
PL52	Opolskie	UKF2	Leicestershire, Rutland and Northamptonshire		
PL61	Kujawsko-Pomorskie				
PL62	Warmińsko-Mazurskie				
PL63	Pomorskie				
PT11	Norte				
PT15	Algarve				
PT16	Centro (PT)				
PT17	Lisboa				
PT18	Alentejo				

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CANDIDATE COUNTRIES: Statistical regions at level 2

BG11 Severozapaden
BG12 Severen tsentralen
BG13 Severoiztochen
BG21 Yugozapaden
BG22 Yuzhen tsentralen
BG23 Yugoiztochen
RO01 Nord-Est
RO02 Sud-Est
RO03 Sud
RO04 Sud-Vest
RO05 Vest
RO06 Nord-Vest
RO07 Centru
RO08 București