Foreword

This new edition of Key figures on Europe — Statistics illustrated marks something of a new departure from previous editions. With more visualisation, innovative data presentation formats and shorter texts, we aim to better respond to the needs of our users while also reaching a wider and more diverse audience.

This publication provides you with a selection of interesting key statistics on the European Union (EU). Drawing from the rich collection of data available at Eurostat, we aim to provide insight into the current situation and recent developments across the EU with regard to people and society, the economy and business, and the environment and natural resources.

You can find more information in Statistics Explained, a portal that forms part of Eurostat’s official website, presenting statistical topics in an easily understandable way. The latest and most complete data can also be downloaded from the Eurostat website.

I hope that you find this new publication interesting and useful both in your work and in your daily life.

Mariana Kotzeva
Director-General, Eurostat
Abstract

Key figures on Europe — Statistics illustrated presents a selection of statistical data on the European Union (EU). Most data cover the EU and its Member States as well as the countries of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA). This publication may be viewed as an introduction to EU statistics and provides a starting point for those who wish to explore the wide range of data that is freely available on Eurostat’s website at https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat and presented in a large number of online articles in Statistics Explained.

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For more information please consult

Eurostat website: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat

Acknowledgements

The editors of this publication would like to thank those Eurostat colleagues who were involved in its preparation.
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**Introduction**

**Structure of the publication**

*Key figures on Europe — Statistics illustrated* provides users of official statistics with an overview of the wealth of information that is available on Eurostat’s website and within its online databases. It has been conceived as a publication that provides a balanced set of indicators, with a broad cross-section of information.

*Key figures on Europe — Statistics illustrated* is divided into an introduction and three main chapters. The introduction includes information concerning data extraction, the data coverage and more generally how to access to European statistics. The main chapters of this publication treat the following areas: people and society (population, health, education, the labour market, living conditions and digital society); economy and business (economy and finance, prices, international trade, business, research and development and tourism); environment and natural resources (transport, energy, environment and agriculture).

Each of the chapters presents a few key indicators: a great deal more information can be found when consulting Eurostat’s website, which contains subject specific publications and online databases.
Data extraction and coverage

Data extraction

The statistical data presented in this publication were extracted in May 2018. The accompanying text was drafted in June 2018.

Spatial data coverage

This publication usually presents information for the EU-28 (an aggregate/average covering the 28 Member States of the EU) as well as the individual EU Member States and the four EFTA countries. The order of the Member States in the figures usually reflects their ranking according to the values for (one of) the indicator(s) illustrated.

The following map identifies the EU Member States and EFTA countries as well as pinpointing their capital cities.
Temporal data coverage

If data for a reference year (or reference period) are not available for a particular country, then efforts have been made to fill tables and figures with data for previous reference years (these exceptions are footnoted).

Accessing European statistics

The simplest way to obtain Eurostat’s wide range of statistical information is through its website (https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat). Eurostat provides users with free access to its databases and its publications in portable document format (PDF) via the internet. The website is updated daily and presents the latest and most comprehensive statistical information available on the EU, its Member States, EFTA countries, as well as enlargement countries.

Eurostat online data codes, such as nama_10_gdp, allow easy access to the most recent data on Eurostat’s website. In this statistical book these online data codes are given as part of the source below each figure.

List of countries

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1 People and society
During 2007, the total number of inhabitants in the EU-28 broke through the barrier of 500 million. By 1 January 2017, the population of the EU-28 was estimated to have reached 511.5 million inhabitants, which was 1.2 million more than a year before.

There are considerable differences in population levels between EU Member States: on 1 January 2017, the total number of inhabitants ranged from 0.5 million in Malta up to 82.5 million in Germany. Together, Germany, France, the United Kingdom, Italy, Spain and Poland comprised 70.5 % of the EU’s total population.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_gind)
**Population developments**

(millions and % share of world total, EU-28, 1960-2080)

The total number of inhabitants living in the EU-28 is growing at a relatively slow pace compared with current developments in many other parts of the world. In 1983, the EU-28’s share of global population fell below one tenth (9.9%) and this downward pattern continued through to 2017, when the EU-28 accounted for 6.8% of the world’s population. EU-28 population numbers are projected to grow, albeit slowly, up until the year 2045 (529.1 million inhabitants), after which they will fall back to 518.8 million by 2080. These projected developments, coupled with faster population growth in the rest of the world, means that less than 1 in 20 people in the world — 4.8% — will be living in the EU-28 by 2080.

**Population change**

(% of total population, 2007-2017)

Between 1 January 2007 and 2017, the EU-28’s population rose by 13.2 million (or 2.7%). During this period, the total number of inhabitants grew in Luxembourg by almost one quarter (24.0%); at the other end of the range, there was a 12.4% reduction in the number of inhabitants in Lithuania.

The situation in Germany and Italy was of particular interest insofar as they both recorded a natural decrease in population numbers (more deaths than births), but this was more than offset by an increase in net migration and statistical adjustments, such that their overall populations continued to rise.

Source: Eurostat (online data codes: demo_gind and proj_15npms)
## Fertility rate

(live births per woman, 2016)

In developed world countries, a total fertility rate of 2.1 children is considered to be the replacement level: in other words, the average number of live births per woman that is required to keep the total number of inhabitants at a constant level (in the absence of migration).

In 2016, the total fertility rate in the EU-28 averaged 1.60 live births per woman. This rate ranged from a high of 1.92 live births per woman in France down to 1.34 in Spain and in Italy; the fertility rate was also relatively low in the remaining southern EU Member States — Greece, Cyprus, Malta and Portugal — as each had a rate below 1.40 (as was the case in Poland).

Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_find)

### Ageing population

(ratio of people aged 15-64 to people aged 65+, EU-28, 2001, 2017 and 2080)

Population ageing has been observed across much of Europe for several decades. Changes in population structure can have serious implications for a range of issues including: government revenues and spending, pension funds, health and social care. The share of older persons in the EU-28 population — defined here as those aged 65 years and over — is projected to almost double between 2017 and 2080. In other words, from a situation of having 2.3 persons of working-age for each older person in 2017, this ratio will fall to just 0.9 persons of working-age per older person by 2080.

Source: Eurostat (online data codes: demo_pjan and proj_15ndbims)
Population by citizenship
(% share of total population, 1 January 2017)

On 1 January 2017, there were 38.7 million foreign citizens living in the EU; this figure was composed of 21.8 million citizens from non-member countries and 16.9 million citizens from EU Member States other than the one where they were resident. In relative terms, foreign citizens accounted for 7.6 % of the total population in the EU-28, with this share ranging from almost half (47.7 %) of the population in Luxembourg to less than 1.0 % in Lithuania, Romania and Poland. A majority (19) of the EU Member States reported a higher share of non-EU citizens within their populations, rather than citizens from other EU Member States.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: migr_pop1ctz)
First time asylum applications
(number of applications made by non-EU citizens, EU-28, 2017)

The number of first time asylum applicants in the EU-28 rose from less than 200 thousand in 2009 to more than 1.20 million in both 2015 and 2016, equivalent to 0.2% of the EU’s total population. In 2017, there was a reduction to 651 thousand in the number of first time asylum applicants in the EU-28. Syrian citizens accounted for the highest number of applicants (102 thousand), followed by Iraqis (48 thousand) and Afghani citizens (44 thousand).

Source: Eurostat (online data code: migr_asyppctza)
Life expectancy at birth
(years, EU-28, 2002-2016)

In 2016, EU-28 life expectancy at birth was 83.6 years for women and 78.2 years for men. Since 2002 life expectancy in the EU-28 increased by 2.7 years for women and 3.7 years for men, thus reducing the gap between the sexes.

Women
Men

Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_mlexpec)

Life expectancy at birth by country
(years, 2016)

The highest average life expectancy at birth (for both sexes) was recorded in Spain (at 83.5 years), while the lowest was in Bulgaria, Latvia and Lithuania (all 74.9 years). A gender gap (higher life expectancy for women) existed in every EU Member State, peaking at 10.6 years in Lithuania.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_mlexpec)
Main causes of death
(thousands of deaths by sex and by age, EU-28, 2015)

In 2015, more than one third (36.7%) of deaths in the EU-28 were caused by diseases of the circulatory system, while more than one quarter (25.4%) were due to cancers. Diseases of the circulatory system were the leading cause of death for people aged 75 and more. Cancer was the main cause of death for people aged 35-74: its share of all deaths peaked at 43.8% among the cohort aged 60-64 years. Far fewer children and young people die each year, but the main cause of death for most of the younger age cohorts was accidents (with a peak of 35.6% recorded among those aged 15-19).
Deaths from diseases of the circulatory system
(deaths per 100 000 inhabitants by sex, 2015)

While diseases of the circulatory system are the primary cause of death in the EU, there were considerable differences in 2015 across countries: someone living in Bulgaria (1 133 deaths per 100 000 inhabitants) was 5.5 times as likely to die from a disease of the circulatory system as someone living in France (205 deaths per 100 000 inhabitants). Men were more likely (than women) to die from diseases of the circulatory system in each of the EU Member States. This gender gap was particularly pronounced in Finland, where the ratio was 66 % higher for men than for women.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: hlth_cd_asdr2)
Education

Learning foreign languages
(million of pupils in each level of education, EU-28, 2016)

As seen in the figure to the right, just above four out of every five (80.6 % or 18 million) primary school pupils in the EU-28 were studying English as a foreign language in 2016; very few studied any other foreign language, with the next highest share recorded for those studying German (0.7 million).

Almost every (16.9 million) lower secondary student in the EU-28 studied English. Compared with primary pupils, a higher share of lower secondary students were studying French (4.6 million) and German (3 million). Some 86.1 % of upper secondary students in the EU-28 continued to study English.

Learning two or more foreign languages
(% share of students in upper secondary education, 2016)

In 2016, almost half (47.9 %) of all EU-28 students in upper secondary education were studying two or more foreign languages. This share reached more than four out of every five students in Luxembourg, Finland and most notably Romania — which had the highest share among the EU Member States, at 97.2 %. By contrast, less than 1 in 10 upper secondary students were studying two or more foreign languages in Portugal, Ireland (2013 data), the United Kingdom (2014 data) and most notably Greece (0.6 %).

Note: 2015 data for EU-28 and BE. 2014 data for UK. 2013 data for IE.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: educ_uoe_lang02)
Tertiary educational attainment
(% share of women/men aged 25-64, EU-28, 2002 and 2017)

The proportion of people (aged 25-64) in the EU-28 with a tertiary level of educational attainment rose from 20.0 % in 2002 to 31.5 % by 2017. This increase across the EU-28 was at a faster pace for women (from 19.4 % to 33.4 %) than for men (from 20.6 % to 29.5 %) and since 2006 more women (than men) in this age group have been in possession of a tertiary education degree. By 2017, there were 45.9 million women aged 25-64 years with a tertiary level of educational attainment, compared with 40.0 million men.

Tertiary educational attainment

People leaving school at a relatively young age are more likely to face the risk of poverty, unemployment, social exclusion or poor health. The EU has set a goal of reducing the share of early leavers from education and training in the EU to 10.0 % by 2020. In 2017, the share was 10.6 %, ranging from a high of 18.6 % in Malta down to a low of 3.1 % in Croatia. Young men (12.1 % for the EU-28) were more likely than young women (8.9 %) to be early leavers from education and training; the only exceptions to this pattern among the EU Member States were Romania, Bulgaria, Hungary and Slovakia.

Source:
Eurostat (online data code: edat_lfse_03)
Labour market

Labour force composition
(million persons aged 15-74, EU-28, 2017)

- People aged 15-74: 380.2
- Economically active: 245.8
  - Employed: 227.0
  - Unemployed: 18.8
- Economically inactive: 134.4

Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfsa_pganws)
In 2017, the EU-28 employment rate for persons aged 20-64 years was 72.1%. This was the highest rate recorded since 2002, with increases largely attributable to a growing share of working women. Despite this, the EU-28 employment rate for men remained, at 77.9%, some 11.5 percentage points higher than the rate for women (66.4%).

In 2017, Sweden was the only EU Member State with more than four out of every five (81.8%) persons aged 20-64 in employment; at the other end of the range, less than two thirds of this population cohort was employed in Spain, Croatia and Italy, a share that fell to 57.8% in Greece.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfsa_ergan)
Unemployment rate developments
(% share of the labour force, EU-28, 2000-2017)

In 2008, the total unemployment rate (for people aged 15-74 years) in the EU-28 hit a low of 7.0% before rising sharply in the wake of the global financial and economic crisis through until 2013 (10.9%). Since then, the rate has decreased, reaching 7.6% in 2017.

Youth unemployment rates (for people aged 15-24 years) are generally much higher than total unemployment rates. The youth unemployment rate for the EU-28 also peaked in 2013, at 23.8%. By 2017, the EU-28 youth unemployment rate (16.8%) was 2.2 times as high as the overall unemployment rate.

Unemployment rate
(% share of the labour force, 2017)

At 21.5% and 17.2%, Greece and Spain reported much higher total unemployment rates than the other EU Member States in 2017. The lowest unemployment rates, among the Member States, were recorded in Malta (4.0%), Germany (3.8%) and the Czech Republic (2.9%).
Gender pay gap
(diffrence between earnings of male and female employees as a percentage of male earnings, 2016)

The gender pay gap gives an overall picture of the differences between men and women in terms of earnings and measures a concept which is broader than the concept of 'equal pay for work of equal value'. Reducing this gap is one of the key priorities of gender policies at both EU and national levels.

Average hourly earnings for men in the EU-28 were 16.2% higher than those for women in 2016. The gender pay gap was less than 6.0% in Romania, Italy and Luxembourg, but rose above 20.0% in Austria, the United Kingdom, Germany and the Czech Republic, peaking in Estonia, at 25.3%.

Note: 2014 data for IE, EL and HR.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: earn_gr_grgg2)
In 2016, 118 million people, or 23.5 % of the EU-28 population was at risk of poverty or social exclusion. This means that they were, at least, in one of the following three conditions: at risk of poverty after social transfers; severely materially deprived; or living in a household with low work intensity. The greatest risk of poverty or social exclusion was from income poverty, in other words, people who were at risk of poverty after social transfers. In 2016, this condition touched 51.9 million people across the EU-28, while a further 35.0 million were affected by income poverty at the same time as at least one of the other two conditions.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_pees01)
Inability to face unexpected financial expenses
(% share of total population, 2017)

Material deprivation refers to the enforced inability (rather than the choice not to do so) to pay for/afford specific expenses. One example relates to unexpected financial expenses. In 2017, more than one third (34.3 %) of the EU-28 population was unable to face such an unexpected financial expense, with particularly high shares recorded for young people, single persons with dependent children or unemployed people. In seven EU Member States, more than half of the population was unable to face an unexpected financial expense, peaking in Latvia (59.9 %) and Croatia (56.1 %). On the other hand, one person out of six was unable to face such expenses in Malta (16.3 %).
Inability to afford paying for one week annual holiday away from home
(% share of total population, 2017)

Another component of the material deprivation rate is the inability to afford a one week holiday away from home, which concerned just over 3 in 10 (30.5 %) people across the EU-28 in 2017. Almost two thirds (64.8 %) of the population in Romania were unable to afford a one week holiday, while this was also the case for more than half of the population in Croatia, Bulgaria, Cyprus and Greece. By contrast, in Sweden less than 1 in 10 persons (8.2%; 2016 data) were unable to afford one week’s holiday away from home.

Note: 2016 data for IE, PL, SK, AT, LU, SE, IS and CH
Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_mdes02)
Digital society

Internet usage
(% share of people aged 16-74, 2017)

The internet has become an integral part of most people’s lives, changing the way people study, work, communicate and enjoy free time. In 2017, more than four out of every five (84 %) adults aged 16-74 years in the EU-28 declared they had used the internet during the previous three months. This share ranged from highs of 97 % in Denmark and Luxembourg down to 67 % in Croatia, 64 % in Romania and 63 % in Bulgaria.

Internet activities
(% share of people aged 16-74, 2017)

The reach of the internet continues to expand: not only are an increasing number of users online, but there are a growing number of devices connected to the internet (for example, telecommunications equipment, vehicles and home appliances). Across the EU-28, the most commonly performed internet activities in the first quarter of 2017 (for people aged 16-74 years) included: sending/receiving e-mails (72 %), finding information about goods and services (65 %) and reading online news sites, newspapers or magazines (61 %). A majority of this age group also participated in social networks (54 %), used internet banking (51 %) or watched video content (also 51 %; 2016 data).

Source: Eurostat (online data code: isoc_ci_ifp_iu)

(1) 2016 data
2 Economy and business
Gross domestic product (GDP) is an indicator that is used to measure the size and performance of an economy; it provides information on the goods and services produced during a given period. Within the EU-28, GDP was valued at EUR 15 326 billion in 2017. Germany had the largest economy among the EU Member States (EUR 3 300 billion, or 21.3 % of the EU-28 total), followed by the United Kingdom (15.2 %), France (14.9 %) and Italy (11.2 %). At the other end of the range, Malta and Cyprus (both 0.1 % of the EU-28 total) had the smallest economies.
The real rate of change for GDP only takes account of volume changes in economic output, by removing the effects of price changes (inflation). During the period 2000-2017, GDP growth in the EU-28 was quite volatile. Between 2001 and 2007, the EU-28 economy grew at an annual rate of between +1 % and +3 %. From 2008 to 2013, the economy was strongly affected by the financial and economic crisis, with GDP falling by more than 4 % in 2009, with a much smaller contraction in 2012. Since then, the EU-28 economy has progressively recovered, with annual growth rates around +2 % between 2014 and 2017.

GDP per capita
(EU-28 = 100, based on PPS, 2016)

GDP per capita may be used as a proxy for living standards; it simplifies comparisons of economic output between different sized countries. As the cost of living varies from place to place, the information presented here has been adjusted to reflect price level differences using an artificial currency unit called a purchasing power standard (PPS).

The relative position of individual countries can be expressed through a comparison with the EU-28 average. The highest value among the EU Member States was recorded for Luxembourg, where GDP per capita in PPS was about 2.6 times as high as the EU-28 average in 2016. On the other hand, GDP per capita was less than half the EU-28 average in Bulgaria.
Inflation rate
(average % per annum, 2000-2017)

The inflation rate shows the change in the price of a basket of goods and services. During the period 2000-2017, the average inflation rate in the EU was 1.8 % per annum. Inflation was much higher in Romania (7.8 % per annum), while prices also increased by more than twice the EU average in Hungary, Latvia and Bulgaria. At the other end of the range, the lowest price increases between 2000 and 2017 were recorded in Ireland, France, Sweden and Germany, as their average inflation rates were 1.5 % per annum. However, annual inflation rates tended to be much lower in 2017, as they varied from 3.7 % in Latvia and Estonia down to below 1 % in Finland (0.8 %), Cyprus (0.7 %) and Ireland (0.3 %).

Source: Eurostat (online data code: prc_hicp_aind)

Household budget structure
(% share of total household consumption expenditure, EU, 2016)

Across the EU, on average, households spent 15.4 % of their budget in 2016 on food and non-alcoholic beverages, with the same share spent on housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels; note that the spending on housing excludes the actual purchase of dwellings (but includes rental costs). The next largest expenditure items included transport (14.6 %), recreation and culture (10.1 %) and restaurants and hotels (9.4 %).

Source: Eurostat (online data code: prc_hicp_inw)
Comparative price levels
(EU-28 = 100, 2016)

Price level indices reflect the level of prices in different countries compared with the EU-28 average. In 2016, the overall price level index peaked in Denmark at 41% above the EU-28 average, while the lowest prices were recorded in Bulgaria (57% below the average). There was a low degree of price differences for transport, with the highest price levels in Denmark (28% above) and the lowest in Bulgaria (34% below), whereas prices varied far more for housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels, from 68% above the average in the United Kingdom down to 70% below in Bulgaria.

Source: Eurostat
(online data code prc_ppp_ind)
Under the terms of the EU’s Stability and Growth Pact stemming from the Maastricht Treaty, EU Member States committed to keeping their government deficit and debt below certain limits: a Member State’s deficit should not exceed 3 % of its GDP, while its debt should not exceed 60 % of GDP.

In 2017, the EU-28’s general government deficit was 1.0 % of GDP, while gross debt was valued at 81.6 % of GDP. A majority (15) of the EU Member States reported debt levels higher than 60 % of GDP, with the highest ratios in Greece (179 %), Italy (132 %) and Portugal (126 %) and the lowest in Estonia (9 %), Luxembourg (23 %) and Bulgaria (25 %).
In relative terms, total government expenditure accounted for 46.3 % of GDP in the EU-28 in 2016. This share ranged from just over one quarter (27.1 %) in Ireland and a little over a third in Romania (34.0 %) and Lithuania (34.2 %) to more than half in five Member States — Austria (50.7 %), Belgium (53.2 %), Denmark (53.6 %), Finland (56.0 %) and France (56.4 %). In all EU Member States, social protection accounted for the largest share of government expenditure. The second largest share was more diverse: in 12 Member States it was health, in 10 it was general public services, in six it was another function not shown in the graph below.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: gov_10a_exp)
In 2017, the EU-28 exported to non-member countries goods that were valued at EUR 1 879 billion, which was EUR 21 billion higher than the value of its imported goods. As a result, the EU-28’s trade surplus remained positive for the fifth year in a row, with a relative peak in 2015.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: ext_lt_intratrd)
In 2017, the United States was the EU-28’s leading export market, accounting for one fifth (20.0%) of the total value of goods exported outside the EU-28. The second largest export market was China (excluding Hong Kong), with a 10.5% share, followed by Switzerland (8.0%), Russia (4.6%) and Turkey (4.5%).

There was a different picture for imports, as slightly more than one fifth (20.2%) of all goods imported into the EU-28 originated in China (excluding Hong Kong). The United States was the second largest origin of EU-28 imports (13.8%), followed by Russia (7.8%), Switzerland (5.9%) and Norway (4.2%).
International trade in goods with Member States
(% share of total trade, 2017)

In 2017, almost two thirds (63.9%) of the total value of EU-28 trade in goods was within the EU-28. The share of intra-EU trade ranged from a high of 83.4% in Luxembourg and more than four fifths of total trade in Slovakia and the Czech Republic, down to 50.2% in the United Kingdom.

Note: calculation based on the average value of exports and imports; 2015 data for NO.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: ext_lt_intratrd and ext_lt_intercc)

International trade in services with non-member countries
(billion EUR, EU-28, 2010-2016)

In recent years there has been a rapid increase in the value of world trade in services. The same phenomena was observed for the EU-28 with strong overall growth both for exports (+49.1%) and imports (+54.1%) between 2010 and 2016. In 2016, EU-28 exports of services were valued at EUR 845 billion (less than half the value of goods exported) while imports of services were valued at EUR 712 billion. The EU-28 ran a surplus for services for all years between 2010 and 2016, with a relative peak in 2013.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: bop_its6_tot)
In 2016, the EU’s leading trade partner for services was the United States: it was the destination for more than one quarter (25.8%) of the services exported from the EU-28 and was the origin for almost one third (30.8%) of the services imported into the EU-28. Switzerland was the EU-28’s second largest trade partner for services (13.6% of its exports and 13.2% of its imports).

Note: offshore financial centres exclude Singapore (for which information is shown separately).
Source: Eurostat (online data code: bop_its6_det)
Between 2000 and 2017, the share of EU-28 total value added that was generated by the services sector rose from 70.1% to 73.4% (+3.3 percentage points) mainly due to considerable increases in the output of professional, scientific and technical activities as well as public administration. By contrast, the relative share of other parts of the EU economy contracted during the period under consideration: this was particularly the case for industry (-2.4 points) but also for agriculture, forestry and fishing (-0.5 points) and construction (-0.4 points).
In 2017, the share of services in total value added was more than 85.0% in the tourist destinations of Malta and Cyprus, and peaked at 87.0% in Luxembourg, characterised by a large financial services sector. The industrial economy and construction contributed more than one third of total value added in Ireland (39.4%; 2016 data), the Czech Republic (37.2%), Poland (34.7%) and Slovakia (34.3%). By contrast, the largest relative contribution from agriculture, forestry and fishing was in Romania (4.8%). Bulgaria and Greece were the only EU Member States with a higher level of value added generated in their agriculture, forestry and fishing sectors than in their construction sectors.

Note: 2016 data for IE and IS.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: nama_10_a10)
Employment by sector
(% share of total, EU-28, 2000 and 2017)

The relative importance of services within the EU-28 economy was somewhat larger in terms of employment, rather than value added. In 2017, services provided work to 74.0% of those employed in the EU-28, which was 8.0 percentage points more than at the turn of the millennium. By contrast, the relative importance of all other sectors contracted. Between 2000 and 2017, the share of the EU-28 workforce that was employed within the industrial economy fell by 4.0 points to 15.3%, while the corresponding reductions were 3.4 points for agriculture, forestry and fishing and 0.6 points for construction.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: nama_10_a10_e)
In 2017, Romania was the only EU Member State where less than half (46.4 %) of the workforce was employed in the services sector. By contrast, services provided work to 83.4 % of those employed in the Netherlands, and to more than 80.0 % in the United Kingdom, Belgium, Malta, France, Denmark and Luxembourg. Industry and construction employed more than one third (36.4 %) of the total workforce in the Czech Republic, and upwards of 30.0 % in Slovakia and Poland. Romania (23.7 %) and Bulgaria (18.9 %) were characterised by high shares of total employment in agriculture, forestry and fishing.

Note: 2016 data for LI.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: nama_10_a10_e)
Small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) — in other words, enterprises with less than 250 persons employed — are often referred to as the backbone of the European economy, providing jobs and growth opportunities. In 2015, an overwhelming majority (92.8 %) of enterprises in the EU-28’s non-financial business economy were enterprises with less than 10 persons employed. By contrast, just 0.2 % of all enterprises had 250 or more persons employed and were therefore classified as large enterprises. The economic weight of large enterprises was considerably greater in employment and value added terms, as large enterprises provided work to more than one third (33.7 %) of the EU-28’s non-financial business economy workforce and they generated 43.5 % of its value added.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: sbs_sc_sca_r2)
In 2015, there were 23.4 million SMEs in the EU-28’s non-financial business economy; together they employed 91 million people and generated EUR 3 934 billion of value added. The economic contribution from SMEs was particularly apparent in Malta, Cyprus and Estonia, with SMEs providing more than three quarters of the total value added generated in each of their non-financial business economies. By contrast, large enterprises provided almost half of the value added generated in the non-financial business economies of Poland and the United Kingdom, with this share reaching 51.2 % in Ireland (2014 data).

Note: 2014 data for IE, AT, SE and NO; 2013 data for EL. PT not available.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: sbs_sc_sca_r2)
EU-28 industrial output reached a relative peak in April 2008 at the onset of the financial and economic crisis. It then fell during 12 successive months to be almost one fifth (-19.5%) lower in April 2009 than it had been in April 2008. EU-28 industrial output rebounded, but then fell once again during much of 2011 and 2012, before following a modest upward path, with signs of more rapid growth in 2017. By contrast, the downturn for the EU-28’s construction sector was more intense and lengthy, with its relative low only reached in March 2013. Neither of the EU-28 production indices for industry and construction had returned to their pre-crisis levels by December 2017.

Source: Eurostat (online data codes: sts_copr_m and sts_inpr_m)
Research and development

Gross domestic expenditure on R & D (% relative to GDP, 2016)

R & D and innovation are central to providing the scientific and technical solutions needed to meet global societal challenges such as climate change or active and healthy ageing. Having risen during the period 2005-2012, R & D intensity (gross domestic expenditure on R & D divided by GDP) remained almost unchanged during the four subsequent years. By 2016, gross domestic expenditure on R & D in the EU-28 represented 2.03 % of GDP, still significantly below the levels recorded in other developed economies such as South Korea, Japan, the United States and China. In 2016, R & D intensity peaked at 3.25 % in Sweden and 3.09 % in Austria, while there were nine EU Member States with ratios below 1.00 %, including Cyprus (0.50 %), Romania (0.48 %) and Latvia (0.44 %) at the lower end.

Note: 2015 data for CH.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: rd_e_gerdtot)
In 2015, there were a total of 2.94 billion nights spent in EU-28 tourist accommodation (such as hotels and other short-stay accommodation), of which almost half (48.3%) were accounted for by non-residents. Between 2005 and 2015, the number of nights spent in tourist accommodation rose overall by 28.8%, with faster growth for the number of nights spent by non-residents (up by 50.7%) compared with the number of nights spent by residents (up 13.4%).

Source: Eurostat (online data code: tour_occ_ninat)

Top 20 EU regions with most nights spent in tourist accommodation
(million nights, 2016)

The Spanish region of the Canary Islands was the most popular tourist region (at NUTS level 2) in the EU-28. The Canary Islands hosted almost 103 million nights spent in tourist accommodation in 2016, the vast majority of these — more than 91 million — were spent by non-residents, in other words, tourists from outside Spain. In 2016, non-resident tourists accounted for more than 9 out of every 10 nights spent in the Balearic Islands (also Spain) and the Tyrol (Austria). By contrast, resident tourists accounted for more than three quarters of the total nights spent in the south-western French regions of Languedoc-Roussillon and Aquitaine.

Note: in 2016, the top 20 EU regions accounted for 32.0% of total number of nights spent in EU tourist accommodation. Source: Eurostat (online data code: tour_occ_nin2)
In 2016, there were 41 (NUTS level 2) regions which each reported at least 15.0 million nights spent (by residents and non-residents) in tourist accommodation; note these statistics cover both business and leisure travellers. The most popular tourist region in the EU-28 was the Canary Islands, followed by another Spanish region, Catalonia, and the Croatian coastal region of Adriatic Croatia.

Alongside popular holiday destinations by the coast and in the mountains, there were also several capital city regions such as: Île de France (France), Lazio (Italy) and Berlin (Germany). Note there is no information available for the United Kingdom (although earlier reference periods suggest that London would also feature on the list).

Source: Eurostat (online data code: tour_occ_nin2)
3 Environment and natural resources
Transport

Passenger cars
(number of cars per 1,000 inhabitants, 2016)

In 2016, there were 258 million passenger cars on the EU’s roads. Car ownership rates were highest in Luxembourg (660 passenger cars per 1,000 inhabitants) followed by Italy, Malta and Finland (all above 600), while there were between 300 and 400 cars per 1,000 inhabitants in Slovakia, Croatia, Latvia and Hungary; Romania (280) was below this range.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: tran_r_vehst)

Passenger car age
(% of total, EU-28, 2016)

Newer cars tend to be less environmentally-damaging, with better fuel consumption and lower emissions; there is also a growing share of electric/hybrid vehicles. In 2016, almost half (47.4%) of all passenger cars in the EU (excluding Bulgaria, Greece and Slovakia) were at least 10 years old, compared with just 11.7% that were less than two years.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: road_eqs_carage)

Air passenger transport
(million passengers carried, by destination, EU-28, 2016)

In 2016, the total number of passengers carried by air in the EU-28 reached 973 million, which was an increase of almost 22% since 2008. In 2016, almost half (47.0%) of all passengers carried by air were on flights to/from other EU Member States, while more than one third (35.6%) were carried outside the EU, with less than one fifth (17.3%) of all air passengers flying on national flights.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: avia_paoc)
London Heathrow airport was the busiest airport in the EU-28 in terms of passenger numbers, reporting 75.7 million passengers carried in 2016. Three other airports had in excess of 60.0 million passengers: Paris Charles de Gaulle (65.8 million), Amsterdam Schiphol (63.5 million) and Frankfurt (60.7 million). These four airports were the principal hubs for air transport in Europe. London Heathrow (44.8 million) and Paris Charles de Gaulle (33.8 million) had the highest numbers of air passengers for routes outside the EU, Amsterdam Schiphol (37.9 million) and London Gatwick (28.3 million) for intra-EU routes and Adolfo Suárez Madrid Barajas and Paris Orly (both 14.1 million) for national routes.

Note: In 2016, the top 20 airports accounted for 78.7% of total passengers carried in the EU.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: avia_paoa)
In 2015, EU-28 inland freight transport was estimated at around 2 400 billion tonne-kilometres. Three quarters (75.8 %) of this total was carried by road; the remainder was split between rail (17.9 %) and inland waterways (6.3 %). In some EU Member States there was little or no competition for road freight transport (for example, there is no railway in Cyprus or Malta). However, rail accounted for a majority (56.3 %) of the inland freight transported in Latvia, while inland waterways accounted for almost two fifths (39.1 %) of the total in the Netherlands.
In 2016, the total weight of goods transported to/from main ports in the EU-28 by short sea shipping was 2.531 million tonnes. The top 20 ports accounted for more than one third (36.7%) of all the goods that were transported by short-sea shipping in and out of main ports in the EU, with Rotterdam by far the biggest port (204 million tonnes of goods transported; 8.1% of the EU-28 total). The weight of goods handled in Rotterdam was almost twice as high as in the second largest port, Antwerpen (106 million tonnes), which in turn was about twice as high as in the third largest port, Hamburg (50 million tonnes).

Note: excludes the movement of cargo across oceans (deep sea shipping).
Source: Eurostat (online data code: mar_sg_am_pw)
The EU imports more than half of the energy it consumes each year, with a particularly high level of dependency for crude oil and natural gas. In 2016, Russia (166.0 million tonnes) accounted for nearly one third (31.9 %) of the EU-28’s crude oil imports, followed by Norway (12.4 %). A similar pattern was observed for natural gas, as Russia (153.2 billion cubic metres) accounted for more than two fifths (40.2 %) of the EU-28’s natural gas imports, followed by Norway (24.9 %). For solid fuels, more than half of EU-28’s imports came from Russia (30.2 %) and Colombia (23.4 %).
Energy dependency rate
(% share of net imports in gross inland consumption, 2016)

The energy dependency rate indicates the extent to which each economy relies upon imports to meet its energy needs. In 2016, the EU-28’s dependency rate was 54 %: in other words, net imports were equal to just over half of gross inland energy consumption. None of the EU Member States were self-sufficient in relation to their energy needs, with some of the smaller ones — Malta, Cyprus and Luxembourg — almost completely reliant on external supplies. At the other end of the range, Estonia (7 %) and Denmark (14 %) were much less reliant on imports for meeting their energy needs.

Energy from renewable energy sources
(% share of total gross final energy consumption, 2006 and 2016)

Approximately one sixth (17.0 %) of the EU-28’s gross final energy consumption was from renewable energy sources in 2016, 7.5 percentage points higher than a decade earlier. In 2016, more than half (53.8 %) of the final energy consumption in Sweden was from renewable sources, while shares of more than one third were recorded in Finland, Latvia and Austria. By contrast, single-digit shares of renewable energy sources in final energy consumption were recorded in seven of the EU Member States, with a low of 5.4 % in Luxembourg.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: nrg_ind_335a)
Natural gas and electricity prices
(EUR per kWh, for household consumers, first half of 2017)

Electricity and gas prices are typically composed of three components: the basic price of energy, network charges, and taxes and/or levies. The proportion of taxes and levies in the overall retail price for household consumers varies a lot between Member States. In the first half of 2017, household prices for electricity averaged EUR 0.2041 per kWh across the EU-28, but households in Denmark and Germany paid 3.2 times as much for their electricity as those in Bulgaria. The share of taxes and/or levies peaked in Denmark (67.1 %) and was lowest in Malta (4.8 %).

In the first half of 2017, household prices for natural gas averaged EUR 0.0583 per kWh, with households in Sweden paying 3.8 times as much as those in Romania. The share of taxes and/or levies exceeded 50 % for natural gas consumers in Denmark (55.4 %) and the Netherlands (53.3 %), and was lowest in the United Kingdom (6.8 %).

Note: countries are ranked on total electricity prices.

Source: Eurostat (online data code nrg_pc_202 and nrg_pc_204)
Energy consumption by product
(% share of final energy consumption, based on tonnes of oil equivalent (toe), EU-28, 1990 and 2016)

In 2016, the EU-28’s final energy consumption was 1 108 million toe. Petroleum products accounted for almost two fifths (39.5%) of the EU-28’s final energy consumption, with natural gas (22.1%) and electrical energy (21.6%) also recording relatively high shares.

When compared with 1990, the EU-28’s consumption of energy has almost remained stable with an average increase of 0.1% per annum. This relative stability of energy consumption across the EU-28 hides a considerable shift in consumption patterns from solid fuels to renewable energy sources: the share of solid fuels fell from 11.4% to 4.1% between 1990 and 2016, while that of renewable energy sources rose from 3.6% to 8.0%.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: nrg_100a)
Final energy consumption by end use
(1990 = 100, based on tonnes of oil equivalent, EU-28, 1990-2016)

In 2016, transport accounted for one third (33.2 %) of the energy consumed in the EU-28, while industry accounted for one quarter (25.0 %), leaving 41.9 % mainly for residential use and services. Although there was almost no change in the level of EU-28 final energy consumption between 1990 and 2016, there was a relatively consistent pattern of rising consumption for transport (other than during the global financial and economic crisis); its level of consumption rose overall by 29.2 %. By contrast, EU-28 final energy consumption within industry fell by 25.4 % during the period under consideration.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: nrg_110a)
Employment in the environmental economy
(million full-time equivalents, EU-28, 2000 and 2015)

The environmental economy includes activities that relate to environmental protection and the management of natural resources. The workforce in the EU-28’s environmental economy numbered 4.1 million full-time equivalents in 2015, an increase of 47.3 % when compared with the situation in 2000. The share of the environmental economy within total employment also grew during the same period of time from 1.3 % to 1.8 %. The largest growing (during the period 2000-2015) activity in the EU-28’s environmental economy was the management of energy resources (1.5 million persons employed in full-time equivalent terms in 2015) followed by waste management (1.1 million).

Source: Eurostat (online data code: env_ac_egss1)
Environmental tax revenue
(% share of GDP, 2016)

Environmental taxes can be used to influence the behaviour of economic operators, both producers and consumers. In 2016, EU-28 environmental tax revenues were valued at EUR 364.4 billion, equivalent to 2.4% of GDP. This ratio peaked at 4.0% in Denmark, while ratios of at least 3.5% were also recorded in Slovenia, Greece, Latvia, Croatia and Italy. By contrast, environmental tax revenues accounted for less than 2.0% of GDP in Lithuania, Germany, Spain, Ireland, Slovakia, and Luxembourg.

Note: 2014 data for LI.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: env_ac_tax)

Greenhouse gas emissions
(1990 = 100, based on tonnes of CO₂ equivalents, 2015)

To contribute to the goal of limiting global warming, the EU has pledged to continually reduce the amount of greenhouse gases it emits. By 2015, the EU as a whole had cut greenhouse gas emissions by 22.1% compared with their 1990 levels. Between 1990 and 2015, the quantity of greenhouse gas emissions in Romania, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania more than halved and it was reduced in the vast majority (23) of Member States.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: env_air_gge), based on European environment agency (EEA)
Greenhouse gas emissions by source sector

(\% share of total, based on tonnes of CO\(_2\) equivalents, EU-28, 1990 and 2015)

In 2015, the total volume of EU-28 greenhouse gas emissions was 4 452 million tonnes of CO\(_2\) equivalents. The principal sources of greenhouse gas emissions in the EU-28 were energy industries (44.2 \% of the total) and fuel combustion in transport (23.5 \%), while smaller contributions came from fuel combustion in manufacturing and construction (10.9 \%), agriculture (9.8 \%), industrial processes and product use (8.4 \%) and waste management (3.1 \%). The only source of greenhouse gas emissions to increase between 1990 and 2015 was fuel combustion in transport (up 23.1 \%); otherwise, emissions fell by at least one fifth for each of the remaining sources.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: env_air_gge), based on European environment agency (EEA)
**Municipal waste generation**
(kg per inhabitant, 2016)

Across the EU-28, an average of 482 kg of municipal waste was generated per person in 2016. Note that some municipal waste is from retail outlets, offices or public institutions. Among the EU Member States, municipal waste generation peaked at 777 kg per inhabitant in Denmark, while Cyprus, Germany, Malta and Luxembourg had averages of 610–640 kg per person. By contrast, averages in the range of 300–400 kg of municipal waste per inhabitant were recorded in Hungary, Estonia, Slovakia, the Czech Republic and Poland, with the average below this range in Romania (261 kg).

**Municipal waste treatment**
(% share of total, EU-28, 2016)

Municipal waste only constitutes around one tenth of the total waste generated in the EU. However, it is increasingly viewed as an important indicator for sustainable development, for example, with respect to recycling rates and resource efficiency. In 2016, some 240.6 million tonnes of municipal waste was treated in the EU-28, representing 98 % of the waste generated. Material recycling accounted for the highest share (29.9 %) of the municipal waste that was treated in the EU-28 in 2016, followed by incineration with energy recovery (25.9 %) and landfill (24.6 %). Between 2008 and 2016 there was a marked shift away from incineration (without energy recovery) and landfill, whereas incineration with energy recovery grew at the most rapid pace.
Agricultural products are a major part of the EU’s regional and cultural identity, at least in part due to the diverse range of natural environments, climates and farming practices. In 2017, there were 312.3 million tonnes of cereals harvested in the EU-28 (France accounting for the largest share; 22.0 %) and 62.0 million tonnes of potatoes (Germany accounting for the largest share; 18.9 %). In 2017, Germany produced almost one quarter (23.4 %) of the EU-28’s total production of pig meat (23.3 million tonnes), while Poland was the largest EU producer of poultry meat (17.6 % of the total).

### Organic crop area

(% share of total utilised agricultural area, 2016)

In 2016, the total area available across the EU-28 for organic crops was estimated to be 11.9 million hectares; this figure includes areas that were fully converted and areas under conversion (excluding kitchen gardens). Organic crop farming accounted for 6.7 % of the EU-28’s total utilised agricultural area, this share ranging from highs of 21.3 % in Austria, 18.3 % in Sweden and 18.0 % in Estonia, down to less than 2.0 % in Ireland and Romania, and a low of 0.2 % in Malta.
**Glossary**

**Animal production**: the slaughter of animals fit for human consumption.

**At risk of poverty or social exclusion**: the situation of people either **at risk of poverty**, or **severely materially deprived** or living in a household with a **very low work intensity**.

**At risk of poverty**: people with an **equivalised disposable income** (after **social transfers**) below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60 % of the national **median** equivalised disposable income after social transfers.

**Cereals**: include wheat (common wheat and spelt and durum wheat), rye, maslin, barley, oats, mixed grain other than maslin, grain maize, sorghum, triticale, and other cereal crops such as buckwheat, millet, canary seed and rice.

**Chain-linking**: involves combining two or more time series that overlap in (at least) one period by rescaling one of them to produce a single time series; this may be done if, for example, the time series have different base years.

**CO₂ equivalents**: a metric measure used to compare the emissions from various **greenhouse gases** on the basis of their **global-warming potential (GWP)**, by converting amounts of other gases to the equivalent amount of carbon dioxide with the same global warming potential.

**Comparative price level**: the ratios between **purchasing power parities (PPPs)** and market exchange rates.

**Domestic producer price index**: also called output price index; a **business-cycle** indicator showing the development of transaction prices for the industrial output of economic activities.

**Early leaver from education and training**: a person aged 18-24 years who has completed at most lower secondary education and is not involved in further **education** or training.

**Economically active** population: also known as the labour force, workforce or active population, includes both **employed** (employees and self-employed) and **unemployed** people, but not the economically **inactive**, such as pre-school children, school children, students and pensioners.

**Economically inactive**: see economically active.

**Employed persons**: a person aged 15 and over who during the reference week performed work for pay, profit or family gain. Alternatively, the person was not at work, but had a job or business from which he or she was temporarily absent due to illness, holiday, industrial dispute or education and training.

**Employment rate**: the percentage of **employed persons** in relation to the total population of the same age.

**Energy dependency rate**: the proportion of energy that an economy must import; net energy **imports** divided by **gross inland energy consumption** plus fuel supplied to **international maritime bunkers**, expressed as a percentage.

**Enterprise size classes**: are most commonly defined by the number of persons **employed**.
enterprises have fewer than 10 persons employed; small enterprises have 10–49 persons employed; medium-sized enterprises have 50–249 persons employed; and large enterprises have 250 or more persons employed.

Exports: extra-EU exports of goods include goods which leave the statistical territory of the European Union for a non-EU country after being placed under the customs procedure for export or outward processing. Intra-EU exports of goods from a given Member State include goods destined for another Member State which are in free circulation or have been placed under the customs procedures for inward processing.

Fertility rate: defined as the mean number of children who would be born to a woman during her lifetime, if she were to spend her childbearing years conforming to the age-specific fertility rates that have been measured in a given year.

Final energy consumption: the total energy consumed by end users, such as households, industry and agriculture; excludes the energy used by the energy sector itself.

First time asylum applications: an application for international protection refers to an application for asylum as defined in Art. 2(h) of European Union (EU) Directive 2011/95/EU, in other words, including requests for refugee status or for subsidiary protection status. First-time applicants are persons who, during the reference period, lodged an application for asylum for the first time (ever) in a given EU Member State.

Full-time equivalents (FTE): obtained by comparing an employee's or student's average number of hours worked to the average number of hours of a full-time worker or student. A full-time person is therefore counted as one FTE, while a part-time person gets a score in proportion to the hours he or she works or studies.

Gender pay gap: the difference between the average gross hourly earnings of male and female paid employees as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees.

Government debt: also known as public debt; the value of total gross debt outstanding at the end of the year. It is defined as including currency and deposits, debt securities and loans.

Government deficit/surplus: the difference between government spending and income.

Gross domestic expenditure on R & D: expenditure on research and development (R & D) by business enterprises, higher education institutions, as well as government and private non-profit organisations.

Gross domestic product (GDP): an aggregate measure of production, equal to the sum of the gross value added of all resident institutional units engaged in production, plus any taxes on products and minus any subsidies on products. Gross value added is the difference between output and intermediate consumption.

Gross value added: output (at basic prices) minus intermediate consumption (at purchaser prices); the balancing item of the national accounts’ production account.

Household with low work intensity: a household where the members of working age worked less than 20% of their total potential during the previous 12 months.

Imports: extra-EU imports include goods entering the statistical territory of the European Union from a non-EU country and which are placed under the customs procedure for release into free circulation, or for inward processing. Intra-EU imports in a given Member State include goods entering which are in free circulation or were placed under the customs procedures for inward processing.

Inability to afford paying for one week annual holiday away from home: the inability to pay for one week holiday away from home, possibly using some social support.

Inability to face unexpected financial expenses: the inability to pay for an unexpected required expense from own resources; the amount of the expense is specific to each country and refers to 1/12 of the national at-risk-of-poverty threshold.
**Incineration**: the combustion of waste, either on land or at sea. Incineration with energy recovery refers to processes where the energy created is harnessed for re-use; incineration without energy recovery means the heat generated is disposed of (dissipated in the environment).

**Inflation rate**: the percentage change in the price of goods and services for a given period compared with that recorded in a previous period.

**Labour force**: see economically active.

**Landfill**: disposal (deposit) of waste into or onto land or into water bodies.

**Life expectancy at birth**: the mean number of years that a new-born can expect to live, if the mortality pattern at the time of its birth remains constant in the future.

**Material deprivation**: relates to the enforced inability to pay or afford a certain number of bills or expenses. The following items are surveyed: unexpected expenses; a one week annual holiday away from home; a meal involving meat, chicken, fish (or vegetarian equivalent) every second day; the adequate heating of a dwelling; durable goods like a washing machine, colour television, telephone or car; being confronted with payment arrears (mortgage or rent, utility bills, hire purchase instalments or other loan payments). The severe material deprivation rate is defined as the enforced inability to pay for at least four of the above-mentioned items.

**Natural population change**: the difference between the number of live births and deaths during a given time period (usually one year); it can be either positive or negative.

**Net migration**: the difference between immigration to and emigration from a given area during the year.

**Nights spent**: each night a guest/tourist actually spends in accommodation. It can be for any main purpose, including business, leisure or other personal reasons.

**Old-age dependency ratio**: the ratio of the number of elderly people at an age when they are generally economically inactive (aged 65 years and over), compared with the number of people of working age (aged 15–64 years).

**Organic area**: land fully converted to organic farming and areas under conversion. Organic farming is a way of agricultural production which uses organic production methods and places the highest emphasis on environmental and wildlife protection and on animal welfare considerations.

**Purchasing power standard (PPS)**: is an artificial currency unit. Theoretically, one PPS can buy the same amount of goods and services in each country. However, price differences across borders mean that different amounts of national currency units are needed to purchase the same goods and services (depending on the country).

**Renewable energy**: sources that renew themselves naturally; typical examples include hydropower, solar energy, wind and biomass.

**Short sea shipping**: maritime transport of goods over relatively short distances, as opposed to intercontinental cross-ocean deep sea shipping.

**Tertiary educational attainment**: educational attainment level of an individual is the highest education level successfully completed; tertiary education refers to ISCED 2011 levels 5 to 8.

**Tonnes of oil equivalent**: a normalised unit of energy, equivalent to the approximate amount of energy that can be extracted from one tonne of crude oil.

**Tourist accommodation**: provision of short-term or short-stay accommodation services for a fee.

**Trade balance**: the difference between the value of the goods/services that a country (or an economic area) exports and the value of the goods/services that it imports.

**Unemployed persons**: someone aged 15–74 years, without work during the reference week, available to start work within the next two weeks (or has already found a job to start within the next three months), and actively having sought employment at some time during the last four weeks.

**Unemployment rate**: number of people unemployed as a percentage of the labour force.
Getting in touch with the EU

In person
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