OECD Regions and Cities at a Glance 2026



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Foreword

Regions and Cities at a Glance is the OECD's biennial report providing internationally comparable evidence on how economic, social and environmental outcomes differ across regions and cities, and on the factors shaping these differences. It highlights where progress is being made, where gaps persist and how challenges and opportunities vary depending on where one lives. By looking beyond national averages, the report provides evidence to inform policies that respond to the diverse circumstances of people and places.

Like previous editions, the 2026 report draws on conventional and unconventional data sources to provide new insights into regional and urban trends across OECD countries. It introduces several innovations to respond to pressing policy issues, including new indicators and analysis on AI adoption and exposure to generative AI in regions; social infrastructure in cities and rural areas; housing affordability and stock; the contribution of knowledge-intensive business services to productivity and regional disparities; vulnerability to heat stress in regions, particularly for old-age population; and new analysis at the level of labour market areas, a relevant geography to capture labour market dynamics in the places where people live and work.

A new interactive tool, available through the OECD Local Data Portal, complements the report by allowing users to explore subnational data across OECD countries through maps, charts and key indicators.

The report was produced by the OECD Centre for Entrepreneurship, SMEs, Regions and Cities (CFE), led by Director Lamia Kamal-Chaoui, as part of the Programme of Work of the Regional Development Policy Committee (RDPC) and its Working Party on Territorial Indicators (WPTI). The final report incorporates comments from RDPC and WPTI delegates based on a draft circulated on 24 September 2026.

The report was co-ordinated and edited by Ana Isabel Moreno Monroy, Head of the Territorial Analysis and Statistics Unit, under the supervision of Rudiger Ahrend, Head of the Economic Analysis, Data and Statistics Division. Claudia Baranzelli, Head of the OECD Laboratory for Geospatial Analysis, supervised Chapter 4. Alexandre Banquet, Jessica Min, and Bernhard Nöbauer drafted the report, with contributions and supervision from Ana Isabel Moreno Monroy (Chapters 1-3) and Claudia Baranzelli (Chapter 4). Eric Gonnard, Josep Espasa Reig and Ellie Poground (CFE) performed data collection and statistical analysis. The publication benefitted from support and contributions by Agustin Basauri, Yavuz Milar, and Tainá Souza Pacheco (previously CFE). Alexandre Banquet prepared the tool to complement the report, under the supervision of Claudia Baranzelli.

The report benefitted from comments by the delegates of the Working Party on Territorial Indicators. Delegates from the Working Party on Environmental Information provided comments on Chapter 4. Comments from OECD colleagues are gratefully acknowledged, in particular Nadim Ahmad, Martha Bloom, Jose Enrique Garcilazo, Yugo Kimura, Alexander Lembcke, Karen Maguire, Anna Rubin, Ekaterina Travkina (CFE), Jessica Mahoney and Lara Fleischer (WISE), and Hyejin Lee (TAD, previously CFE). Jan Rosa and Lukas Kleine-Rueschkamp (CFE), Sebastian Königs and Javier Terrero (ELS) and Simeon Lauterbach and Sarah Kups (GOV) are gratefully acknowledged for sharing data. The report was laid out by Meral Gedik. Finbar Pearson (CFE) managed the publication process.

Editorial

Jobs, skills, innovation and investment are clustering in capital regions and large cities. This concentration boosts productivity and creates new opportunities. But it can also widen gaps with other places that risk being left behind.

Regions and Cities at a Glance provides new evidence on these gaps, and how differences across regions are evolving. It shows where productivity and population are growing, where housing and infrastructure are under pressure, and where demographic and climate risks are intensifying. Together with the OECD Local Data Portal, it gives governments evidence to adapt policy to different regional circumstances.

Population ageing and decline will make regional economic gaps harder to close. Many regions outside capital regions and large cities are losing working-age residents and attracting fewer newcomers. By 2045, metropolitan regions are projected to grow fastest, or shrink least, in 27 of 33 OECD member and accession countries with available data. Regions far from a midsized or large city are projected to grow least, or shrink most, in 23 out of 31 countries with such regions. With fewer workers, these regions will increasingly depend on stronger productivity growth to raise incomes. Yet productivity is currently growing more slowly outside capital-city regions. Between 2018 and 2024, median annual productivity growth across regions in 34 OECD Member and accession countries was 0.86% in capital-city regions, compared to 0.54% in other regions.

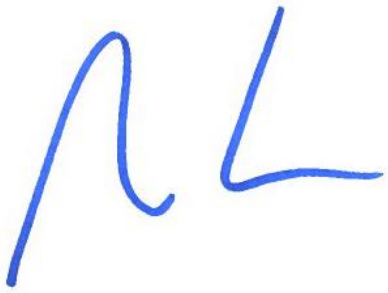
Artificial intelligence could widen these gaps. Regions that already bring together skilled workers, innovative firms and investment are better placed to benefit first. In large regions with the highest shares of tertiary-educated workers across 29 OECD countries, 52% of employment is in occupations highly exposed to generative AI, compared with 42% elsewhere. Enabling adoption everywhere will require the right fundamentals in place, from high-speed connectivity to worker skills.

Success also creates pressures for capital regions and large cities. People follow jobs and opportunity, but housing supply has not kept pace. Across 23 OECD countries, housing is 27% more expensive in urban centres than the national average. When workers cannot afford to live near productive jobs, high housing costs restrict mobility and weaken the benefits of bringing firms and workers together.

Climate risks add another dimension to regional inequality. Nearly one-fifth of OECD large regions experienced warming of more than 1.5°C in 2021-2025 compared with 1981-2010. This puts additional pressure on health and care services and local infrastructure, with some regions much more exposed than others.

Different regional challenges require different responses. In high-demand cities, governments need to enable housing supply to keep pace with population growth. They also need better transport links to jobs, services and surrounding regions. These measures can improve access to productive jobs and ease pressure on housing and infrastructure. In regions losing workers and population, governments need to help firms raise productivity. This means strengthening skills and improving firms' access to finance, infrastructure, research and innovation. Healthcare, long-term care, transport and other local services must also adapt to smaller and older populations. Climate adaptation should reflect differences in exposure and vulnerability.

Stronger regions make stronger economies. OECD Regions and Cities at a Glance 2026 gives governments the evidence to help more regions raise productivity, adapt to demographic change, build climate resilience, and offer better opportunities everywhere.



Mathias Cormann
OECD Secretary-General

Table of contents

Foreword 3

Editorial 4

Reader's guide 7

Executive summary 12

1. Competitiveness 15
- Economic performance 16
- Industries and regional productivity 20
- AI and innovation 22

2. Demography and labour 27
- Demographic change 28
- Geographic mobility 32
- Local labour markets 36

3. Well-being 39
- Housing 40
- Life satisfaction, social connections and trust 42
- Social infrastructure 44

4. Environment 49
- Impacts of a changing climate 50
- Trends in GHG emissions and electrification 54
- Sectoral trends in electrification and energy efficiency 56

Annex A. Description of regions and functional geographies 58

Annex B. Sources and data description 60

Annex C. Methodologies 73

FIGURES

Figure 1.1. Labour productivity growth in regions 17
Figure 1.2. Top-to-bottom disparities in GDP per capita 17
Figure 1.3. Labour productivity and utilisation contributions to regional GDP per capita growth 17
Figure 1.4. Regional GDP per capita growth – Americas 18
Figure 1.5. Regional GDP per capita growth – Europe, East Asia and Oceania 19
Figure 1.6. Labour productivity growth components and sectoral contributions to productivity growth within sectors 21
Figure 1.7. Regional disparities in labour productivity: Change and sectoral contributions 21

Figure 1.8. Exposure to GenAI in regions 23
Figure 1.9. Firm AI adoption rates and GenAI exposure 23
Figure 1.10. Concentration of venture capital funding in regions 23
Figure 1.11. Patent concentration relative to population in FUAs – Americas 24
Figure 1.12. Patent concentration relative to population in FUAs – Europe and Asia-Oceania 25
Figure 2.1. Population change 29
Figure 2.2. Population projections in regions 29
Figure 2.3. Natural population change (births minus deaths) in regions 29
Figure 2.4. Old-age dependency ratio in regions - Americas 30
Figure 2.5. Old-age dependency ratio in regions – Europe and Oceania 31
Figure 2.6. Change in the share of population in metropolitan regions 33
Figure 2.7. Internal population inflow rate 33
Figure 2.8. Internal and international net flows by type of region 33
Figure 2.9. GDP per capita gaps in regions by type of region 33
Figure 2.10. Internal net flows across regions - Americas 34
Figure 2.11. Internal net flows across regions – Europe, Oceania and Asia-Pacific 35
Figure 2.12. Disparities in unemployment rates between labour market areas 37
Figure 2.13. Unemployment rates in labour markets areas 37
Figure 2.14. Changes in working-age population in labour market areas 37
Figure 2.15. Share of foreign-born population in labour market areas 37
Figure 3.1. Housing prices within and outside functional urban areas 41
Figure 3.2. Housing price-to-income ratios in metropolitan regions 41
Figure 3.3. Unoccupied housing within and outside functional urban areas 41
Figure 3.4. Changes in housing supply and population in functional urban areas 41
Figure 3.5. Change in life satisfaction in regions 43
Figure 3.6. Social connections in cities vs. rural areas 43
Figure 3.7. Institutional trust in metropolitan and non-metropolitan regions 43
Figure 3.8. Social infrastructure facilities and settlement size 45
Figure 3.9. Cultural facilities in towns by proximity to the nearest city 45
Figure 3.10. Public community facilities in villages by proximity to a larger settlement 45
Figure 3.11. Access to eating and drinking facilities in regions 45
Figure 3.12. Cultural facilities in urban centres in North America 46
Figure 3.13. Cultural facilities in urban centres in Europe and New Zealand 47
Figure 4.1. Air temperature increase in regions 51
Figure 4.2. Old-age vulnerability to heat stress in regions 51
Figure 4.3. Total precipitation change – Americas 52
Figure 4.4. Total precipitation change – Europe and Asia-Pacific 53
Figure 4.5. GHG emissions trends by settlement type 55
Figure 4.6. Diversifying the electricity generation mix in regions 55
Figure 4.7. Electrification of end use in regions 55
Figure 4.8. Energy efficiency gaps in the residential sector by degree of urbanisation 57
Figure 4.9. Electrification of industry in regions 57
Figure 4.10. Electrification of transport in regions 57

Figure C.1. Components of CV of regional GVA per worker decomposition 74
Figure C.2. Industry contributions to regional labour productivity disparities by country 74
Figure C.3. Merging French LMAs that each overlap with the same FUA for more than 50% of their population 76
Figure C.4. Degree of urbanisation of small administrative units and LMA boundaries 77
Figure C.5. Classification of LMAs by degree of urbanisation 78

TABLES

Table A.1. Territorial grid of OECD Member and accession countries 58
Table A.2. Labour market areas delineated by national statistical offices and other government agencies 59
Table B.1. List of variables 60
Table C.1. Parameters used by countries that implemented the LMA/TTWA algorithm 75
Table C.2. Median population of LMAs and TL3 regions, thousands of people 76
Table C.3. OSM tags used to identify social infrastructure facilities 79

Reader's guide

This guide summarises the geographic areas and typologies used in this edition, as well as the period coverage. The Annexes A and B complement this information.

Geographic areas and their typologies

This publication features statistical indicators at three scales: i) administrative regions; ii) functional aggregations of local units and iii) areas defined from grid cells of regular size.

Category	Description
Administrative subnational regions	Large region (Territorial Level 2, TL2)
	Small region (Territorial Level 3, TL3)
Functional aggregations of local units	Functional urban areas (FUAs) (based on local units) Cities (based on local units) Labour market areas (LMAs) (based on local units)
Grid cell areas	Degree of urbanisation (cities, towns and semi-dense areas, and rural areas)

Administrative regions

Administrative regions are the regional boundaries within a country as organised by governments. As such, they refer to areas that are often under the responsibility of a particular subnational government or to the scale targeted by a specific policy implemented at the national or subnational level. Regions are classified into two scales, large (Territorial Level 2, TL2) and small (Territorial Level 3, TL3).

Functional urban areas (FUAs)

The report uses the definition of FUA developed by the European Commission (EC) and the OECD (Dijkstra, Poelman and Veneri, 2019[1]). FUAs consist of "cities", defined as local units where at least half of the population live in clusters of densely populated grid cells with at least 50 000 inhabitants, and "commuting zones" defined as adjacent local units with high levels of commuting (travel-to-work flows) towards the cities. A minimum threshold for the population size of FUAs is set at 50 000 inhabitants. The definition identifies 1 285 FUAs in all OECD Member countries except Costa Rica, and 50 FUAs in three OECD accession countries for which data on commuting flows are available (Bulgaria, Croatia and Romania).

The report uses the following population size categories:

- Large FUAs: over 1.5 million inhabitants;
- Midsize FUAs: over 250 000 to 1.5 million inhabitants;
- Small FUAs: over 100 000 to 250 000 inhabitants; and
- Very small FUAs: between 50 000 and 100 000 inhabitants.

Common thresholds and similar geographical units across countries were defined to establish this cross-country methodology. These units and thresholds may not correspond to the ones chosen in the national definitions. Therefore, the resulting FUAs may differ from the ones derived from national definitions and the OECD functional urban delimitation may not capture all the local factors and dynamics in the same way as national definitions.

Functional Urban Areas (FUAs) are periodically updated by the OECD to reflect revisions to the underlying population grid, administrative boundaries and commuting data used to delineate cities and their commuting zones. In this edition, FUA boundaries have been updated for EU countries in accordance with the Eurostat/GISCO 2024 revision.

Territorial level classification

Regions within the 38 OECD countries are classified on 2 territorial levels reflecting the administrative organisation of countries. The 435 OECD large (TL2) regions represent the first administrative tier of subnational government, for example, the Ontario province in Canada. The 2026 territorial grid identifies 2 420 OECD small (TL3) regions, each TL3 being contained in a TL2 region (except for the United States). Additionally, 134 large regions have been identified in the eight OECD accession countries, as well as 91 small regions in three countries with data (Bulgaria, Croatia and Romania). TL3 regions correspond to administrative regions, except for Australia, Canada, Germany and the United States. All regions are defined within national borders. TL2 and TL3 regions are equivalent in Estonia and Latvia.

This classification – which, for European countries, is largely consistent with the Eurostat Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics (NUTS) 2024 classification – facilitates greater comparability of geographic units at the same territorial level. Indeed, these two levels, which are officially established and relatively stable in all member countries, are used as a framework for implementing regional policies in most countries.

The report refers to "capital-city regions" as TL2 or TL3 regions that include the administrative capital city of each country.

This report uses shortened labels in figures when relevant. The OECD territorial correspondence table includes a shortened name to enhance readability of graphs, besides the official name and the English or French translation. In shortened names, terms such as "Region", "District", or "Province" are omitted, while the terms "North", "West", "East", "South", "Central", 'Island' are abbreviated to N., W., E., S., C., I., respectively.

Aggregated metropolitan regions (TL3C)

For analyses conducted at the TL3 level, aggregated metropolitan regions are defined by combining TL3 regions where at least half of the population resides in FUAs with at least 250 000 inhabitants. The resulting territorial units are referred to as TL3C regions. This aggregation helps mitigate distortions caused by commuting patterns. The small TL3 regions connected to FUAs can be found in the OECD Territorial Correspondence Table (xlsx).

Classification of small regions by typology on access to FUAs

The OECD typology for small regions by access to FUAs helps to assess differences in socio-economic trends in regions – both within and across countries – by controlling for the presence/absence of metropolitan areas and the extent to which the latter is accessible by the population living in each region (Fadic et al., 2019[2]).

According to such typology, TL3C regions are classified as "metropolitan" if more than half of their population live in an FUA of at least 250 000 inhabitants and as "non-metropolitan" otherwise. A "metropolitan region" becomes a "large metropolitan region" if the FUA, accounting for more than half of the regional population, has over 1.5 million inhabitants. The typology further classifies "non-metropolitan" regions based on the size of the FUA that is most accessible to the regional population. "Non-metropolitan" TL3 regions are sub-classified into three possible types:

- **With access to a FUA with at least 250 000 inhabitants** (>250K), if at least half of the regional population can reach an FUA of at least 250 000 inhabitants within a 60-minute car ride.
- **With access to a FUA with less than 250 000 inhabitants** (<250K), if at least half of the regional population can reach an FUA of between 50 000 and 250 000 inhabitants within a 60-minute car ride.
- **Remote**, if reaching the closest FUA by car takes more than 60 minutes for more than half of the regional population.

The method relies on publicly available grid-level population data and localised information on driving conditions. In this report, the five types of regions identified are sometimes aggregated into three classes only, as indicated in the table below.

Acronym	Grouping	Reduced grouping	
MR-L	Large metropolitan region	Metropolitan region	
MR-M	Midsize metropolitan region		
NM-M	Region near a FUA>250K	Region near a midsize/large FUA	Non-metropolitan region
NM-S	Region near a FUA<250K	Region far from a midsize/large FUA	
NM-R	Remote region		

The classification of small regions according to their typology of access to FUAs is available in the OECD Territorial Correspondence Table (xlsx). Israel is not included in the classification because it delineated its FUA boundaries after the latest update of the classification.

Classification of regions by demographic change typology

The OECD demographic change typology (OECD, 2025[3]) uses a reference period to classify TL2 or TL3 regions as: **growing** if they experienced average annual percentage change of 0.2% or more; **stable** if they experienced changes between -0.2% and 0.2%; and **shrinking** if they experienced changes of -0.2% or less. See (OECD, 2025[3]) for more details.

Labour Market Areas

Labour Market Areas (LMAs) are drawn from official definitions from national statistical offices and other government agencies for 15 OECD countries. Labour market areas group small administrative units or other subnational areas so that most working residents work within the area and most jobs are filled by people living there. Unlike FUAs, they are delineated for entire territories.

LMAs are generally smaller than TL3 regions and therefore provide an intermediate geography between small administrative units and TL3 regions. To ensure consistency between LMAs and FUAs, LMAs with more than 50% of their population in the same FUA are merged. See Annex C for more details.

Degree of urbanisation

The degree of urbanisation classifies local units uniquely as: i) "cities"; ii) "towns and semi-dense areas"; and iii) "rural areas". The classification is carried out in two steps:

- Step 1: Identifying three types of grid cells:
  - An **urban centre** consists of contiguous grid cells with a density of at least 1 500 inhabitants per square kilometre (km^2) and has a population of at least 50 000 inhabitants.
  - An **urban cluster** consists of contiguous grid cells with a density of at least 300 inhabitants per km^2 and a population of at least 5 000 inhabitants.
  - **Rural grid cells** are cells that do not belong to an urban cluster. Most of these will have a density below 300 inhabitants per km^2.
- Step 2: Classifying local units:

  This step is an overlay of Step-1 classification onto local units:

  1. **Cities**: local units that have at least 50% of their population in urban centres
  2. **Towns and semi-dense areas**: local units that have less than 50% of their population in urban centres and less than 50% of their population in rural grid cells
  3. **Rural areas**: local units that have at least 50% of their population in rural grid cells.

See (OECD et al., 2021[4]) for more details.

Period and country coverage

The cut-off date for data included in the publication was 2 August 2026. Due to the time lag of subnational statistics, the last available year is generally 2025 for demographic and labour market and 2024 for socio-economic indicators.

Besides OECD Member countries, all figures include OECD accession candidate countries where data are available.

Throughout this publication, "OECD countries" refers to OECD Members; "OECD accession countries" refers to OECD accession candidate countries; and "OECD Member and accession countries" refers to both groups of countries.

Further resources

Regions and Cities at a Glance uses the OECD's StatLink service. A URL below each table and figure leads to a corresponding Excel file containing the underlying data for the indicator.

The *OECD Database on Regions, Cities and Local Areas* on the OECD Data Explorer (https://data-explorer.oecd.org/) provides the raw data and indicators presented in *Regions and Cities at a Glance*, along with metadata. This platform enables users to explore the data in more depth than is available in this publication and is regularly updated.

A tool with interactive maps, charts and key indicators to support the exploration of country-level data across OECD countries is available through the OECD Local Data Portal (https://localdataportal.oecd.org/).

Acronyms and abbreviations

Acronym/abbreviation	Description
AI	Artificial intelligence
Access.	OECD accession countries
CAGR	Compound annual growth rate
COVID-19	Coronavirus disease 2019
CO_2eq	Carbon dioxide equivalent
CV	Coefficient of variation
DEGURBA	Degree of urbanisation
EC	European Commission
EC JRC	European Commission Joint Research Centre
ECMWF	European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts
EDGAR	Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research
FUA	Functional urban area
GDP	Gross domestic product
GenAI	Generative artificial intelligence
GHG	Greenhouse gas
GHSL	Global human settlement layer
GVA	Gross value added
IEA	International Energy Agency
KIBS	Knowledge-intensive business services
LAC	Latin American countries
LMA	Labour market area
LQ	Location quotient
N. America	Northern America
PCT	Patent Cooperation Treaty
POI	Point of interest
p.p.	Percentage point
PPP	Purchasing power parity
NZE	Net zero emissions
ROPI	Regional output price index
SAU3	Small area unit, Level 3
SD	Standard deviation
SSP	Shared Socio-economic Pathway
TL2	Territorial Level 2
TL3	Territorial Level 3
TL3C	Aggregated metropolitan regions
UN	United Nations
VC	Venture capital

OECD Member and accession candidate country ISO codes

ISO code	Country	ISO code	Country
OECD Member countries			
AUS	Australia	**ISL**	Iceland
AUT	Austria	**ISR**	Israel
BEL	Belgium	**ITA**	Italy
CAN	Canada	**JPN**	Japan
CHE	Switzerland	**KOR**	Korea
CHL	Chile	**LTU**	Lithuania
COL	Colombia	**LUX**	Luxembourg
CRI	Costa Rica	**LVA**	Latvia
CZE	Czechia	**MEX**	Mexico
DEU	Germany	**NLD**	Netherlands
DNK	Denmark	**NOR**	Norway
ESP	Spain	**NZL**	New Zealand
EST	Estonia	**POL**	Poland
FIN	Finland	**PRT**	Portugal
FRA	France	**SVK**	Slovak Republic
GBR	United Kingdom	**SVN**	Slovenia
GRC	Greece	**SWE**	Sweden
HUN	Hungary	**TUR**	Türkiye
IRL	Ireland	**USA**	United States
OECD accession candidate countries			
BGR	Bulgaria	**IDN**	Indonesia
BRA	Brazil	**PER**	Peru
HRV	Croatia	**ROU**	Romania

Further reading

Dijkstra, L., H. Poelman and P. Veneri (2019), "The EU-OECD definition of a functional urban area", *OECD Regional Development Working Papers*, No. 2019/11, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/d58cb34d-en. [1]

Fadic, M. et al. (2019), "Classifying small (TL3) regions based on metropolitan population, low density and remoteness", *OECD Regional Development Working Papers*, No. 2019/06, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/b902cc00-en. [2]

OECD (2025), *Classifying shrinking regions: Shrinking smartly and sustainably*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/0185fe09-en. [3]

OECD et al. (2021), *Applying the Degree of Urbanisation: A Methodological Manual to Define Cities, Towns and Rural Areas for International Comparisons*, OECD Regional Development Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris/European Union, Brussels, https://doi.org/10.1787/4bc1c502-en. [4]

Executive summary

OECD regions are not equally prepared for the opportunities and challenges presented by economic, social, technological, demographic and environmental changes. Even neighbouring regions can face significantly different exposures. One constant, not least given its role in responding to many of these changes, is the importance of productivity growth. But its potential to play this role varies considerably by place, reflecting agglomeration effects, access to labour, skills, finance and markets, and exposure to the changes themselves.

Demographic change, for example, directly affects labour markets and productivity, while productivity growth can be a critical response to labour shortages in regions facing population decline and ageing. In growing regions, it often goes hand in hand with concentrations of knowledge, innovation and investment, but growth can also intensify housing pressures that, in turn, weigh on productivity. Moreover, the same forces that attract people to growing regions may exacerbate productivity challenges in shrinking ones, risking self-reinforcing cycles of decline even as some aspects of their attractiveness, such as housing affordability, improve.

Similar spatial differences arise from changes related to climate and technology, as well as shifts in industry and trade. There is therefore no one-size-fits-all solution that can be applied across regions or groups of regions, even where they share characteristics such as their degree of urbanisation. The evidence presented in this publication, highlighting differences in both exposure to shocks and structural changes and responses to them, reinforces the need for place-based data and policy responses.

Demographic change is making productivity growth more important, especially in shrinking regions, but its drivers are increasingly concentrated in growing regions

Regional catching up depends on both productivity and employment growth. Between 2018 and 2024, among the 13 OECD member and accession countries where GDP per capita gaps narrowed, relatively higher productivity growth in lagging regions was the main driver in 6, while relatively higher employment growth was the main driver in 7. Lower employment rates mean that employment growth still offers scope for lagging regions to narrow income gaps. But that scope is shrinking as employment rates face a natural ceiling and lagging regions typically experience the largest declines in working-age populations. Productivity growth will therefore become increasingly important for reducing regional income inequalities.

Yet the assets that support productivity growth are highly concentrated, typically in higher-income, higher-employment regions. Knowledge-intensive business services cluster in large urban agglomerations, benefiting from specialised skills, proximity to clients and knowledge spillovers. In 2024, knowledge-intensive business services made a greater contribution to labour productivity growth than any other sector in 17 of the 34 OECD Member and accession countries with available data. In the United States, these services in California alone contributed more to national productivity growth than manufacturing nationwide.

AI, innovation and investment show a similar geography. In 2025, regions with the highest shares of tertiary-educated workers – mostly metropolitan or capital regions – 52% of employment is highly exposed to generative AI, compared with 42% elsewhere. Between 2019 and 2024, the largest functional urban area accounted for the largest share of patents in 27 of 31 countries, while a single small region attracted more than half of national venture capital funding in 32 of 39 OECD Member and accession countries with data in 2020-2024. The challenge is to widen access to knowledge and new technologies while building on the distinct strengths of different regions.

People continue to move towards opportunity, increasing pressure on housing markets

Population is becoming increasingly concentrated in many of the same metropolitan regions that are hubs for knowledge and innovation. Across OECD member and accession countries with available data, metropolitan regions increased their share of national population in 35 of 37 countries between 2005 and 2024 and are projected to grow fastest – or decline least – in 27 of 33 countries by 2045. International migration reinforces this concentration, with flows to metropolitan regions exceeding those to non-metropolitan regions in 22 out of 23 countries with available data.

Housing pressures can make it harder for workers and firms to access the opportunities these places offer, limiting workers' access to productive jobs, constraining firms' expansion in high-productivity locations and weakening the allocation of labour and investment across regions. These pressures are substantial: housing is 27% more expensive in urban centres than the national average across 23 OECD countries. Within 13

OECD countries with available data, buying a dwelling in a country's largest metropolitan region requires, on average, an additional 6.9 years of income compared with the most affordable one. Yet housing supply in large functional urban areas has expanded least relative to population.

Lower housing costs can make shrinking regions more affordable, but affordability alone is not enough to attract and retain people: jobs, services, amenities and opportunities for social interaction also matter. Among people under 35 in 46 OECD member and accession countries, 22% of rural residents are dissatisfied with opportunities to socialise, compared with 15% in cities, with gaps reaching over 20 percentage points in Sweden and Greece.

Demographic change compounds differences in regions' capacity to adapt to climate hazards

Climate risks vary considerably with local exposure, vulnerability and adaptive capacity. In nearly one in five OECD large regions, average temperatures in 2021-2025 were more than 1.5°C higher than during the 1981-2010 reference period. Between the same periods, the number of OECD large regions combining a high share of older residents with more than one month of strong heat stress per year rose more than fourfold, from 16 to 74. Without effective adaptation, these hazards can widen regional disparities by damaging infrastructure, reducing productivity and weakening growth.

Regions also face the climate transition from very different economic and industrial starting points. GHG emissions have fallen below 2020 lockdown levels across all settlement types, while non-fossil electricity generation has increased in most regions with available data. Yet electricity still accounts for less than 27% of final energy consumption in 85% of OECD regions with available data and less than 30% of industrial energy use in two-thirds of regions. Decarbonising buildings will also require heating electrification and large-scale renovation, particularly in rural areas where dwellings tend to be older and larger.

These challenges can compound existing disparities where regions facing lower productivity, employment, population decline and ageing are also highly exposed to climate hazards, while their governments have less capacity to invest in the infrastructure needed to adapt to them.





1. COMPETITIVENESS



Economic performance

Productivity is a key dividing line between regions that catch up and those that fall behind, particularly as demographic pressures constrain employment-led growth.

Regional growth patterns differed sharply across the world between 2018 and 2024. Over this period, 22% of large regions, home to 15% of the population in 34 OECD countries, grew at a rate at least one standard deviation below the national GDP per capita growth rate, while 14% of regions home to 15% of the population grew at least one standard deviation faster (Figure 1.4 and Figure 1.5). A smaller share of people lived in regions underperforming in Europe (11.2%), Latin America (6.9%) and Oceania (0.4%) while a larger share did in Korea (85.3%) and, to a lesser extent, the United States (21.6%) and Türkiye (21.3%). Across accession countries, this share was highest for those in Europe (19.2%).

Between 2018 and 2024, productivity growth followed different regional paths, with capital-city regions generally pulling ahead while primary-sector regions sat at both ends of the distribution. On average across 33 OECD Member and accession countries, the highest-performing region in each country recorded annual productivity growth 3.4 percentage points faster than the lowest performing region, with the gap exceeding 7 percentage points in Bulgaria, Chile and Mexico (Figure 1.1). OECD countries in Latin America, Türkiye and accession countries displayed wider inter-regional differences in productivity growth than other countries. Regions specialised in primary-sector activities recorded some of the highest and lowest productivity growth rates. The median capital-city region recorded annual productivity growth of 0.86%, compared with 0.54% in other regions.

Uneven regional growth contributed to both widening and narrowing economic disparities across OECD countries. In 2024, GDP per capita in top regions was at least twice that of bottom regions in 14 out of 33 OECD countries with available data (Figure 1.2). The ratio was highest in Latin America (3.04), where it slightly narrowed between 2018 and 2024, followed by Asia (2.80), where it slightly increased in the same period. In 13 out of 17 OECD Member and accession countries where the gap narrowed, it did because bottom regions caught up to top regions through faster growth rates. In 11 out of 16 countries where top-to-bottom disparities grew, it did because bottom regions lagged top regions in terms of growth.

Having more scope to bring people into work does not mean that employment will necessarily drive convergence. Across the OECD, top and bottom regions grew at broadly similar rates between 2018 and 2024 (1.33% and 1.37% per year, respectively), with productivity accounting for around half of growth on average (Figure 1.3). Productivity accounted for the larger share of the growth differential between top and bottom regions in 13 of 27 countries with available employment data, including 6 of 13 countries where gaps narrowed and 7 of 14 where they widened. In 2024, bottom regions generally had employment rates below their national averages (5 p.p. on average), suggesting scope to raise GDP per capita by bringing more people into work. However, among bottom regions with below-average employment rates, productivity contributed more than labour utilisation to growth in 12 of 27 cases. For example, in Portugal, bottom-region employment rates were 14 p.p. below the national average, yet growth was driven predominantly by productivity.

Definitions

Top and bottom 20% regions are those with the highest and lowest GDP per capita in a given year or period until the equivalent of 20% of the national population is reached.

Driver of change distinguishes six types according to whether the top-to-bottom gap narrows, widens, or remains stable (i.e. between -0.25% and +0.25%), and whether the change is driven by improvements or declines in top and/or bottom regions.

Primary-sector-specialised regions are those where primary activities (ISIC A, B, D, E) have a revealed comparative advantage (RCA > 1) in the greatest number of years over the period, compared to manufacturing (C), construction (F), consumer services (G-I, R-U), and knowledge-intensive business services (J-K, M-N).

Further reading

OECD (2026), *Foundations for Growth and Competitiveness 2026*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/40a7532f-en.

OECD (2025), *OECD Employment Outlook 2025: Can We Get Through the Demographic Crunch?*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/194a947b-en.

Figure notes

Figure 1.1 to Figure 1.5: 2018-2024, except for Figure 1.1, Figure 1.4 and Figure 1.5: BRA, EST, GBR and LVA (2018-2023); CHE, JPN and NOR (2018-2022); and for Figure 1.2 and Figure 1.3: CHE, USA (2018-2022), AUS, CAN and GBR (2018-2023). GDP and GVA deflated using the Regional Output Price Index (ROPI), or the national GDP deflator otherwise. ROPI is a region-specific deflator derived as current regional GDP or GVA estimates over regional GDP or GVA chain-linked volume series, with 2020 as the reference year. Growth measured as the compound annual growth rates (CAGR) over the period. Regional GDP and GVA data unavailable for CRI, ISL and ISR.

Figure 1.1: Labour productivity measured as GVA per worker. Employment measured at place of work.

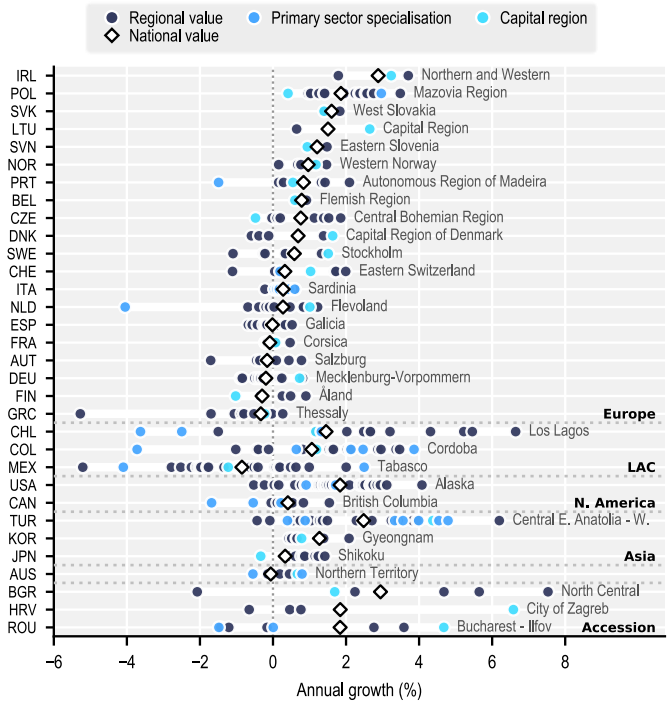
Figure 1.2: 2018 refers to the 2018-2019 average (or earliest year available); 2024 to the 2023-2024 average (or latest year available).

Figure 1.3: Regions grouped into bottom 20% and top 20% based on average GDP per capita in 2018-2024. Labour utilisation measured as employment at place of work relative to the population. The employment rate is employment at place of work expressed as a share of the population aged 15-64 in the end year. Employment rates in deviations from national values.

Figure 1.4 and Figure 1.5: Deviations expressed in standard deviations (SD) from the national average.

Figure 1.1. Labour productivity growth in regions

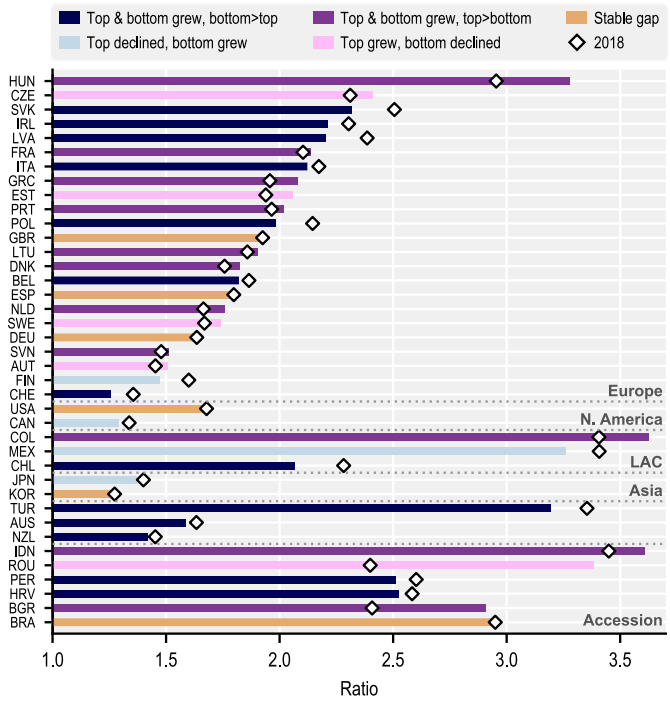
Annual GVA per worker real growth in TL2 regions, 2018-2024 or earliest and latest available years



StatLink https://stat.link/s7vkao

Figure 1.2. Top-to-bottom disparities in GDP per capita

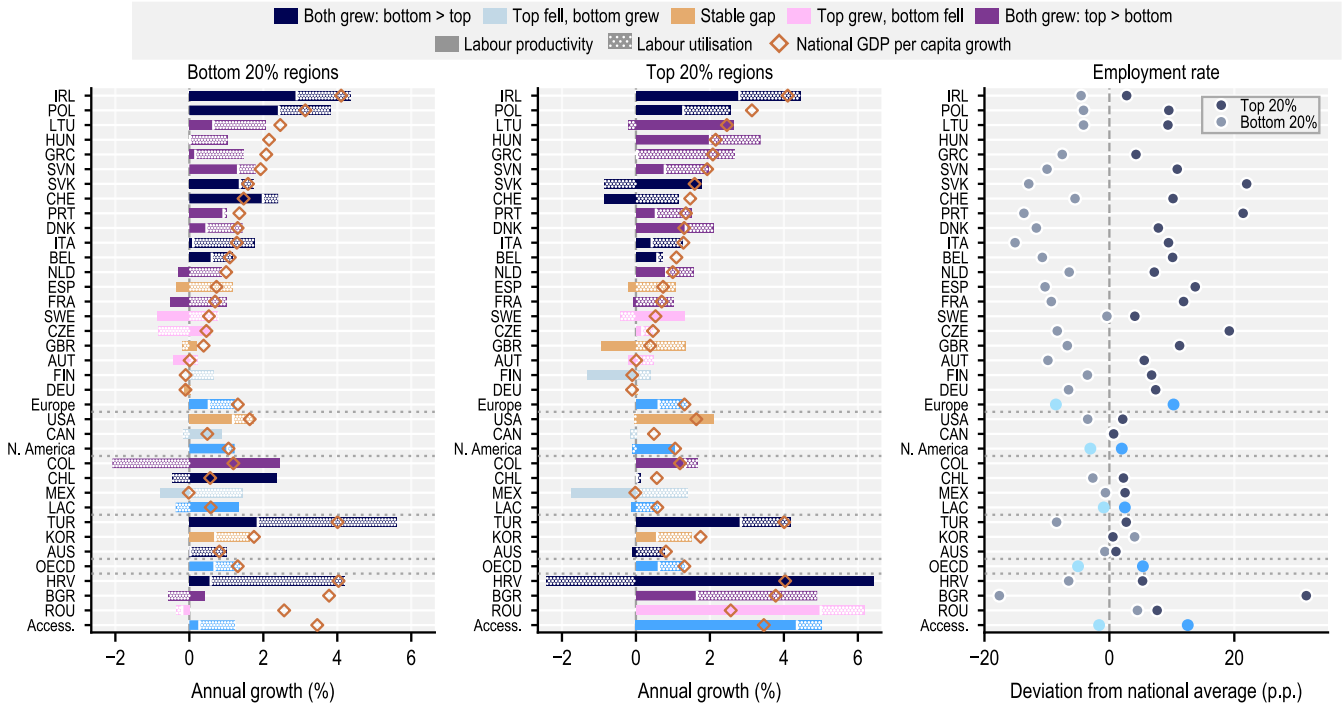
GDP per capita in top 20% over bottom 20% in TL2 regions by driver of change, 2018 and 2024 or earliest and latest available years



StatLink https://stat.link/0o5sjp

Figure 1.3. Labour productivity and utilisation contributions to regional GDP per capita growth

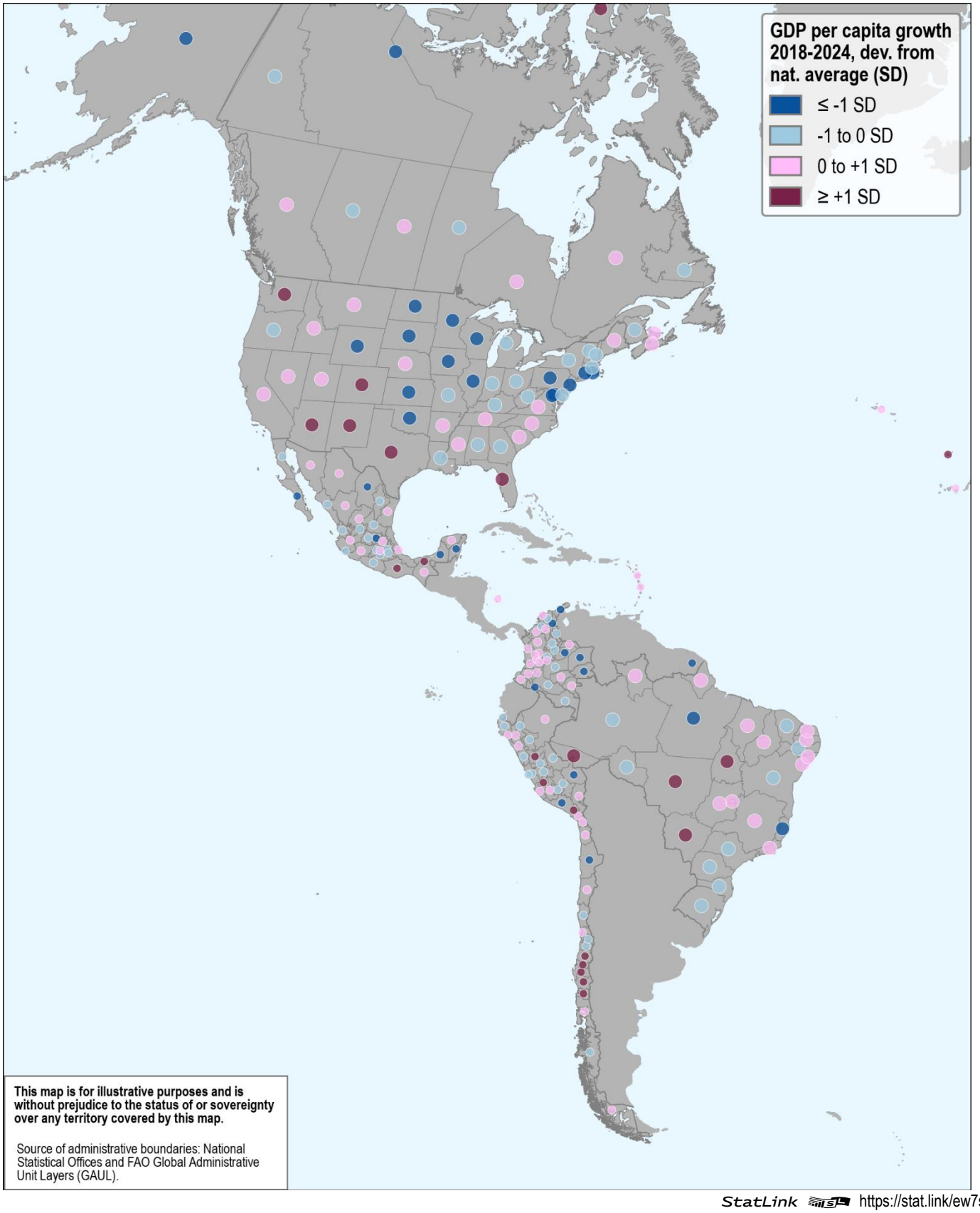
Contributions of labour productivity and utilisation and to GDP per capita change by driver of change and employment rates in deviation from national values, top 20% and bottom 20% TL2 regions, 2018-2024 or earliest and latest available years



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Figure 1.4. Regional GDP per capita growth – Americas

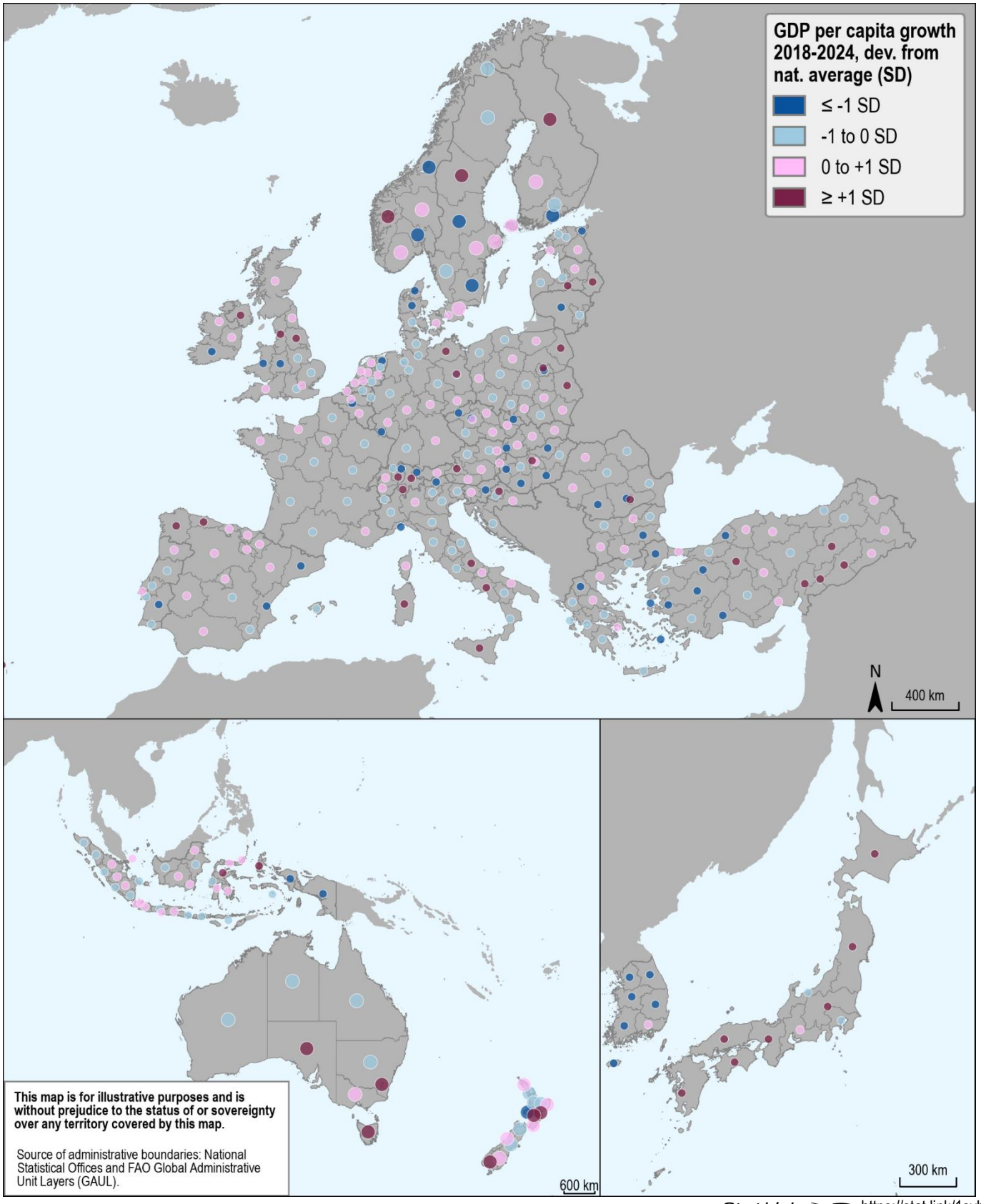
Annual real GDP per capita growth deviation from national average in TL2 regions, 2018-2024 or earliest and latest available years



StatLink https://stat.link/ew7sxj

Figure 1.5. Regional GDP per capita growth – Europe, East Asia and Oceania

Annual real GDP per capita growth deviation from national average in TL2 regions, 2018-2024 or earliest and latest available years



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Industries and regional productivity

Knowledge-intensive business services have driven productivity growth in recent years, but their higher concentration in leading regions can reinforce disparities in productivity across regions.

Productivity gains in knowledge-intensive business services (KIBS) tend to be more spatially concentrated than those in manufacturing. KIBS often rely on specialised labour markets, proximity to clients and knowledge spillovers, which favour their concentration in major cities and knowledge hubs. Manufacturing activity, while also geographically clustered, is typically distributed across a broader range of regions.

Between 2018 and 2024, productivity growth was driven primarily by improvements within existing industries, driven by technological progress, efficiency gains or the exit of less productive firms, rather than shifts in employment between industries or regions. In the period, 91% of labour productivity growth in large regions came from within-industry gains, with little variation across countries (Figure 1.6, Panel A). This is in line with national-level analysis (OECD, 2026).

Breaking down gains shows that KIBS made a larger contribution to within-industry productivity than other individual sectors in 17 of the 34 OECD Member and accession countries with available data (Figure 1.6, Panel B). The contribution of KIBS was geographically concentrated in most cases: in 21 countries, at least half of the KIBS contribution came from a single economically important region. In 13 countries, this region was the capital-city region. KIBS contributed to within-industry productivity more than manufacturing in 23 out of 34 countries with available data. In the United States, for example, KIBS in California alone contributed more than manufacturing across all US regions combined (0.29 vs. 0.24 p.p.).

Manufacturing contributions, in turn, were more evenly spread across regions. Notable exceptions include Denmark (mostly through the effect of a single pharmaceutical company), Poland, and Ireland (Figure 1.6, Panel C). In Poland, for example, manufacturing accounted for 70% of within-industry productivity growth, but its contribution was relatively evenly distributed across regions, with Mazovia, the largest contributor, accounting for just 13%.

The geographic concentration of KIBS helps explain its growing contribution to regional productivity disparities. In 2024, KIBS contributed 50% or more to disparities in regional GVA per worker in 26 out of 32 countries. KIBS contributions were positive across all countries, amounting to 70% on average, while manufacturing contributions were positive in 16 countries and negative in 16, exceeding those of KIBS in only Germany and Italy (Figure 1.7, Panel B). Between 2005 and 2024, the contribution of KIBS to regional productivity disparities increased in 25 of 32 countries with available data, while the contribution of manufacturing declined in 27 countries (Figure 1.7, Panel C). These sectoral trends occurred amid diverging national trends in regional productivity disparities, which rose in 13 countries and fell in 16 countries (Figure 1.7, Panel A).

Definitions

Labour productivity is measured as gross value added (GVA) per worker by industry and by region, deflated using industry-specific national deflators for the following industries (ISIC Rev. 4): manufacturing (C), construction (F), trade, transport, accommodation (G-I), information and communication (J), finance and insurance (K), professional and administrative services (M-N), and arts, recreation and other services (R-U). Primary activities (A, B, D, E), real estate (L), and public administration, education and health (O-Q) are excluded.

Knowledge-intensive business services comprise industries J, K and M-N.

Consumer and personal services comprise industries G-I and R-U.

Labour productivity growth decomposition differentiates **within-industry changes**, i.e. those attributable to productivity changes within industries from changes arising from shifts in activity between industries within the same region. Calculated by weighting the 2018-2024 change in labour productivity in each industry by that industry's average employment share over the period.

Coefficient of variation (CV) measures the dispersion across regions within each country and is defined as the ratio of the standard deviation of regional values to their mean.

Industry contributions to inter-regional inequality separate the respective contributions of industries to the CV. Individual industry shares can be positive or negative and sum to 100% for each country. Time trajectories are classified using the average sector contribution over the last three available years as high (≥50%), medium (20-50%), and low (<20%). See Annex C for more detail.

Further reading

OECD (2026), *OECD Compendium of Productivity Indicators 2026*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/734a5e68-en.

OECD (forthcoming), *Drivers of Growth in All Types of Regions*, OECD Publishing, Paris.

Figure notes

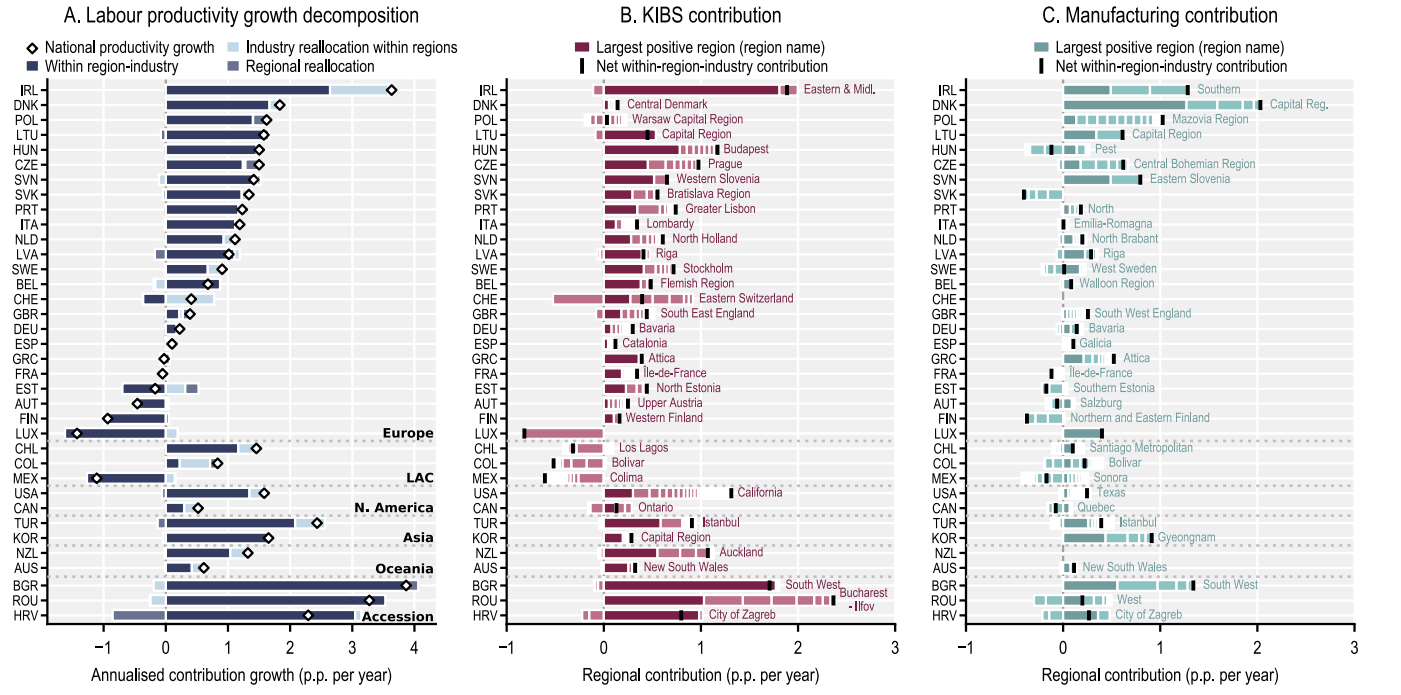
Figure 1.6 and Figure 1.7: 2024 for all countries, except POL, SVK, PRT, ITA, NLD, LVA, GBR, DEU, CAN, NZL, AUS and ROU (2023), and CHE and USA (2022).

Figure 1.6: GVA per worker by industry deflated using the national GVA implicit deflator by industry. Employment measured at place of work. Panel C: Switzerland and New Zealand excluded due to missing manufacturing data.

Figure 1.7, Panel A: Coefficient of variation (CV) based on GVA per worker across TL2 regions within each country for 2005 and 2024, with employment measured at place of work. The CV is based on seven industries, grouped into four broad sectors for the decomposition of regional productivity disparities. Panel B: Bars show the contribution of each industry to regional productivity disparities in 2024, adding to 100% (see Annex C). Panel C: Average contribution of each sector to regional productivity disparities over time for 25 countries in KIBS-High, 7 in KIBS medium, 5 in manufacturing medium and 27 in manufacturing low. Ireland excluded due to high volatility.

Figure 1.6. Labour productivity growth components and sectoral contributions to productivity growth within sectors

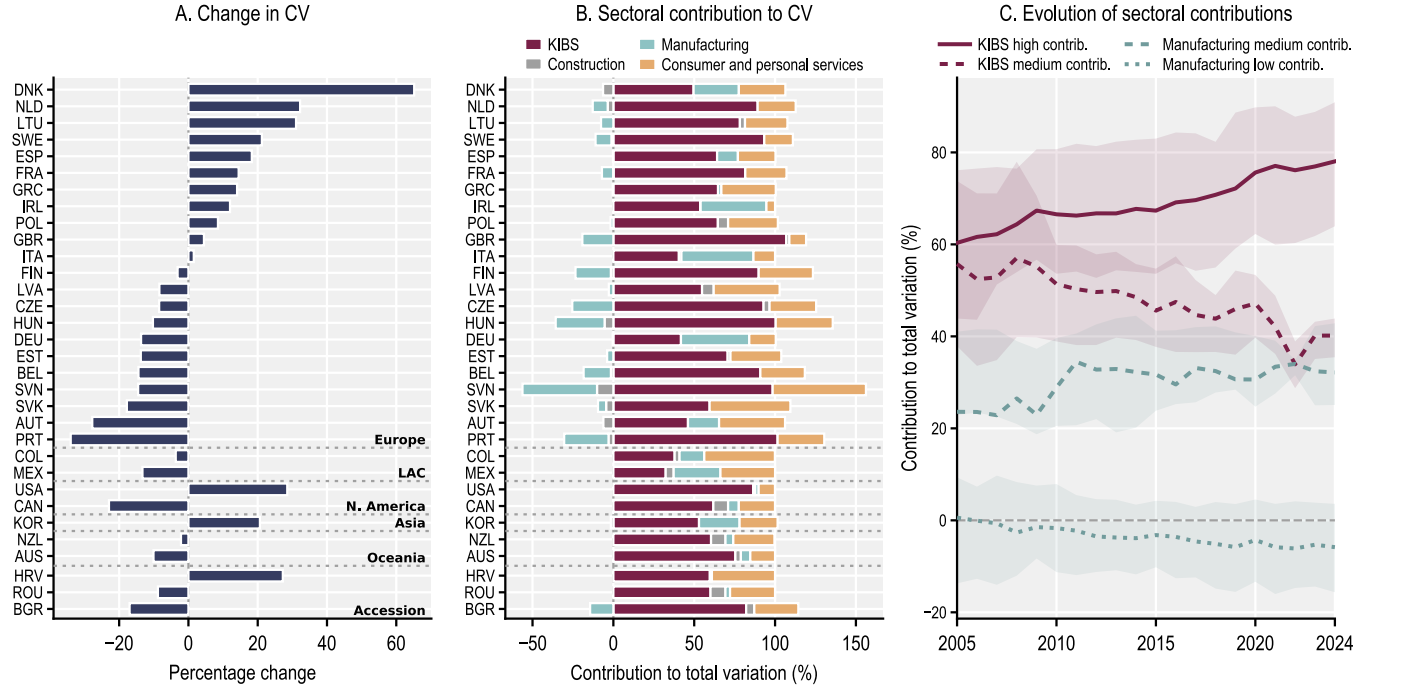
Decomposition of productivity growth and weighted region-industry contributions from KIBS and manufacturing to within-industry productivity, TL2 regions, 2018-2024 or earliest and latest available years



StatLink https://stat.link/is21ol

Figure 1.7. Regional disparities in labour productivity: Change and sectoral contributions

Change in the coefficient of variation (CV) of regional GVA per worker in 2005-2024, industry contributions in 2024, and changes in KIBS and manufacturing contributions over 2005-2024, TL2 regions (or earliest and latest available years). Shaded areas show the interquartile range across countries



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AI and innovation

The concentration of skilled workers in leading metropolitan and capital regions supports higher generative AI adoption and innovation, potentially leading to differences in where the effects of AI will first emerge.

Different forms of artificial intelligence (AI) could reshape local labour markets in differing ways, by increasing productivity, creating or displacing jobs, and changing job content and quality. The OECD "exposure to GenAI" indicator measures the potential for Large Language Models (LLMs) – a type of generative AI including tools designed to generate and analyse text – to reduce the time needed to perform tasks associated with individual occupations (OECD, 2024).

Because LLMs are particularly well suited to complex, non-routine tasks, exposure tends to be higher in occupations held by tertiary-educated workers. Across OECD countries, regions in the top national quintile for the share of tertiary-educated residents have, on average, 52% of employment highly exposed to GenAI, compared with 42% in other regions (Figure 1.8). In capital-city regions, where tertiary-educated workers concentrate, this share reaches on average 63.6% and is highest in Greater London (74.1%), Warsaw (70.7%) and Prague (69.2%). In the United States, where the gap is largest, the District of Columbia has almost twice the share of tertiary-educated residents (1.9 times) and twice (1.99 times) the GenAI exposure of Mississippi, the least exposed state.

Regional differences in firms' AI adoption may influence where the effects of GenAI first emerge. In the European countries covered by the data, an average of 11% of firms in Central and Eastern European regions use AI, compared with 26% in the other regions covered (Figure 1.9). Adoption rates reach 40% in capital-city regions such as Vienna, Stockholm and Brussels, while fewer than 30% of firms use AI in Budapest, Zagreb and Prague, despite similarly high levels of employment exposure to GenAI compared to other capital-city regions. This suggests that potential exposure and current adoption do not necessarily coincide geographically.

Metropolitan regions with highly skilled workers and high AI adoption are also well placed to attract the venture capital (VC) funding needed to grow innovative startups. In 32 out of 39 OECD countries, a single TL3 region receives more than half of national VC funding and has a share of funding greater than would be expected from their share of the national population (Figure 1.10). For example, in the United States, the San Jose–San Francisco–Oakland region receives 31% of national venture capital, while accounting for just 3% of the national population. In most countries, the region with the highest concentration is the largest city or capital region. This concentration may further strengthen the role of leading metropolitan regions in future AI-related innovation and growth.

Patent activity reinforces this picture of metropolitan regions as major centres of investment and innovation. In 27 out of 31 OECD countries, the largest FUA accounted for the largest share of patents between 2019 and 2024. This pattern has persisted over time: between 2001 and 2006, the largest FUA led patent activity in 17 of the 23 countries with available data. However, some smaller and mid-sized FUAs generate more patents relative to their population (Figure 1.11 and Figure 1.12). Across FUAs with available data, only 25% produce a larger share of national patents than their population share, and just 7% produce at least twice as much. These highly specialised FUAs, including Cambridge, Eindhoven, Daejeon and Modena, are often mid-sized.

Definitions

Occupations are highly exposed to Generative AI (GenAI) now or in the near future if more than 50% of tasks within an occupation can be potentially completed in half the time with large language models (LLMs), based on OECD and expert assessments (OECD, 2024; Eloundou et al., 2024).

Firms adopting AI are those using at least one of the following AI technologies: text mining, speech recognition, natural language generation, image recognition, machine learning, AI based software robotic process automation, autonomous robots or vehicles, and technologies generating pictures, videos, sound/audio.

Venture Capital (VC) funding includes pre-seed, seed, angel, series funding, growth funding, later stage funding, and other deals, and less conventional sources. Deals do not include mergers and acquisitions, initial public and coin offerings, and investments in more mature and established firms.

Patents refer to international applications filed under the Patent Cooperation Treaty (PCT) at the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO), fractional count, by priority date.

The location quotient (LQ) for patent applications is the region's share of national patent applications divided by its share of the national population. A value of 1 means a region has a higher share of national patent applications than its population share.

Further reading

Eloundou, T. et al. (2024), "GPTs are GPTs: Labor market impact potential of LLMs", *Science*, Vol. 384/6702, pp. 1306-1308, https://doi.org/10.1126/science.adj0998.

OECD (2024), *OECD Digital Economy Outlook 2024 (Volume 1): Embracing the Technology Frontier*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/a1689dc5-en.

OECD (2024), *Job Creation and Local Economic Development 2024: The Geography of Generative AI*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/83325127-en.

Figure notes

Figure 1.8: 2024, except AUS (2025), and NZL (2023). Top 20% of regions refer to TL2 regions with the highest shares of tertiary-educated residents in each country.

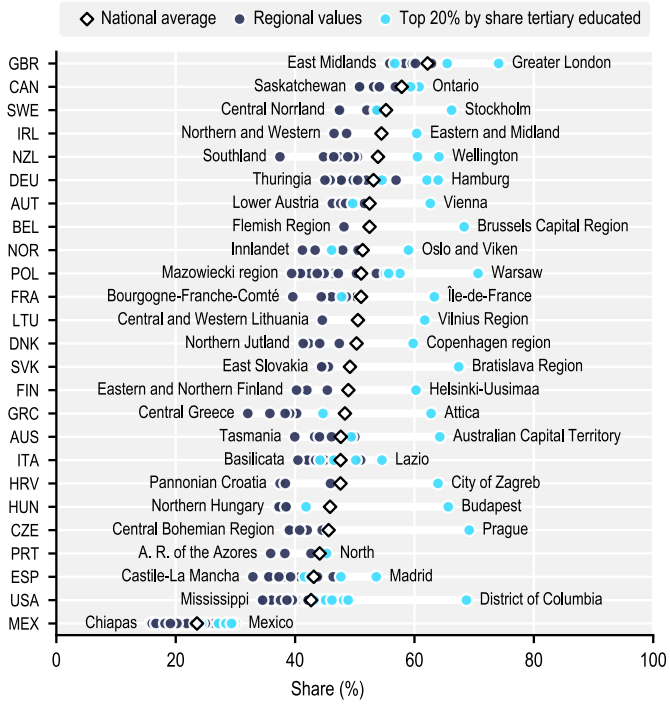
Figure 1.9: 2025. North, West, and South Europe includes in BEL, SWE, AUT, DNK, NOR, and ESP; Central and East Europe includes POL, HUN, CZE, SVK, CRO, and LTU.

Figure 1.10: 2020-2024. Population share calculated as average share of the national population and. VC funding share calculated as share of total national VC funding received over the period. The sample includes firms that received venture capital financing (at least one deal) in the period.

Figure 1.11 and Figure 1.12: The location quotient (LQ) for patent applications is the region's average share of national patent applications between 2019-2024, divided by its share of the national population in 2024 or latest year available.

Figure 1.8. Exposure to GenAI in regions

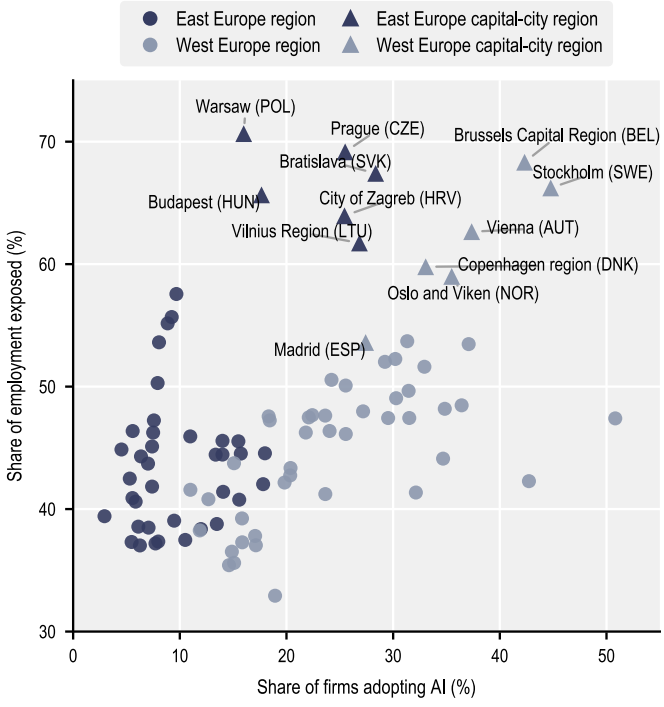
Share of employment exposed to Generative AI, by share of tertiary-educated population in TL2 regions, 2024 or latest available year



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Figure 1.9. Firm AI adoption rates and GenAI exposure

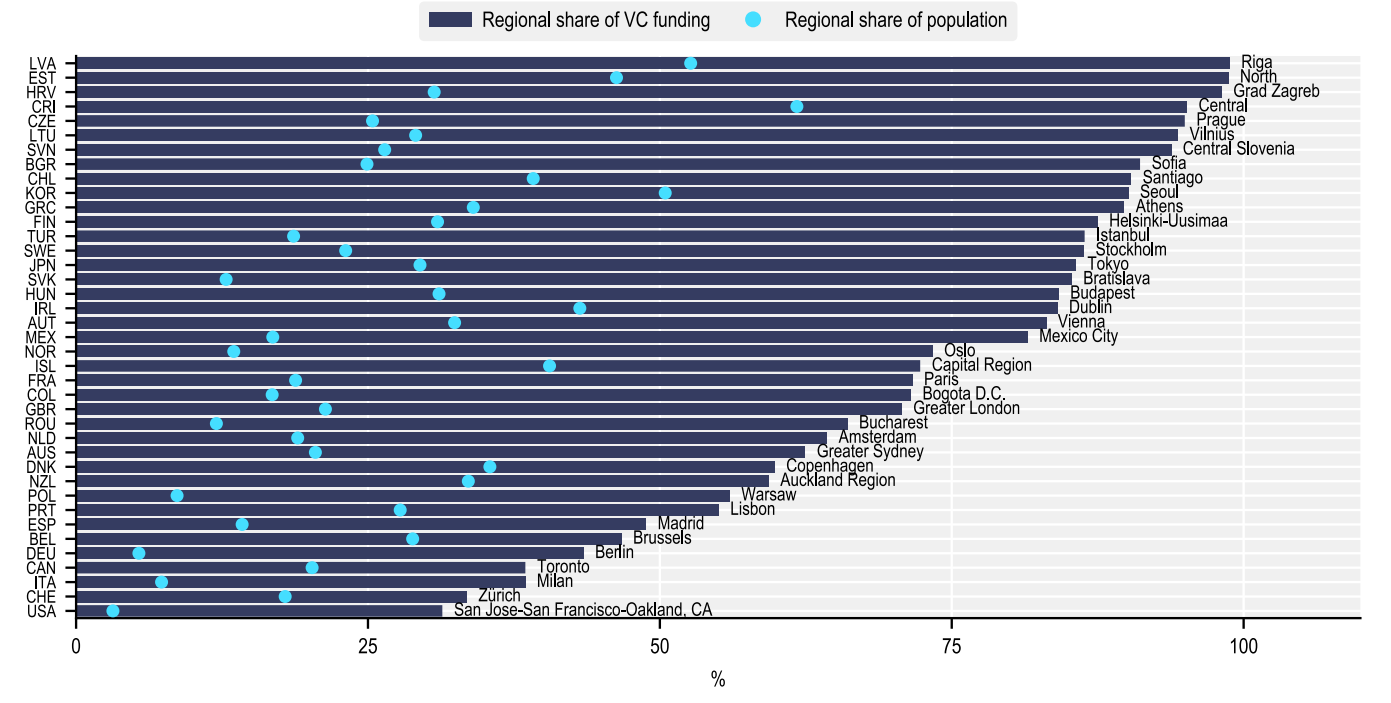
Share of employment exposed to Generative AI now or in the near future and share of firms adopting AI by TL2 regions in Europe, 2025



StatLink https://stat.link/pje1av

Figure 1.10. Concentration of venture capital funding in regions

Share of venture capital (VC) funding received in top TL3C region and its population share by country, 2020-2024 or earliest and latest available years

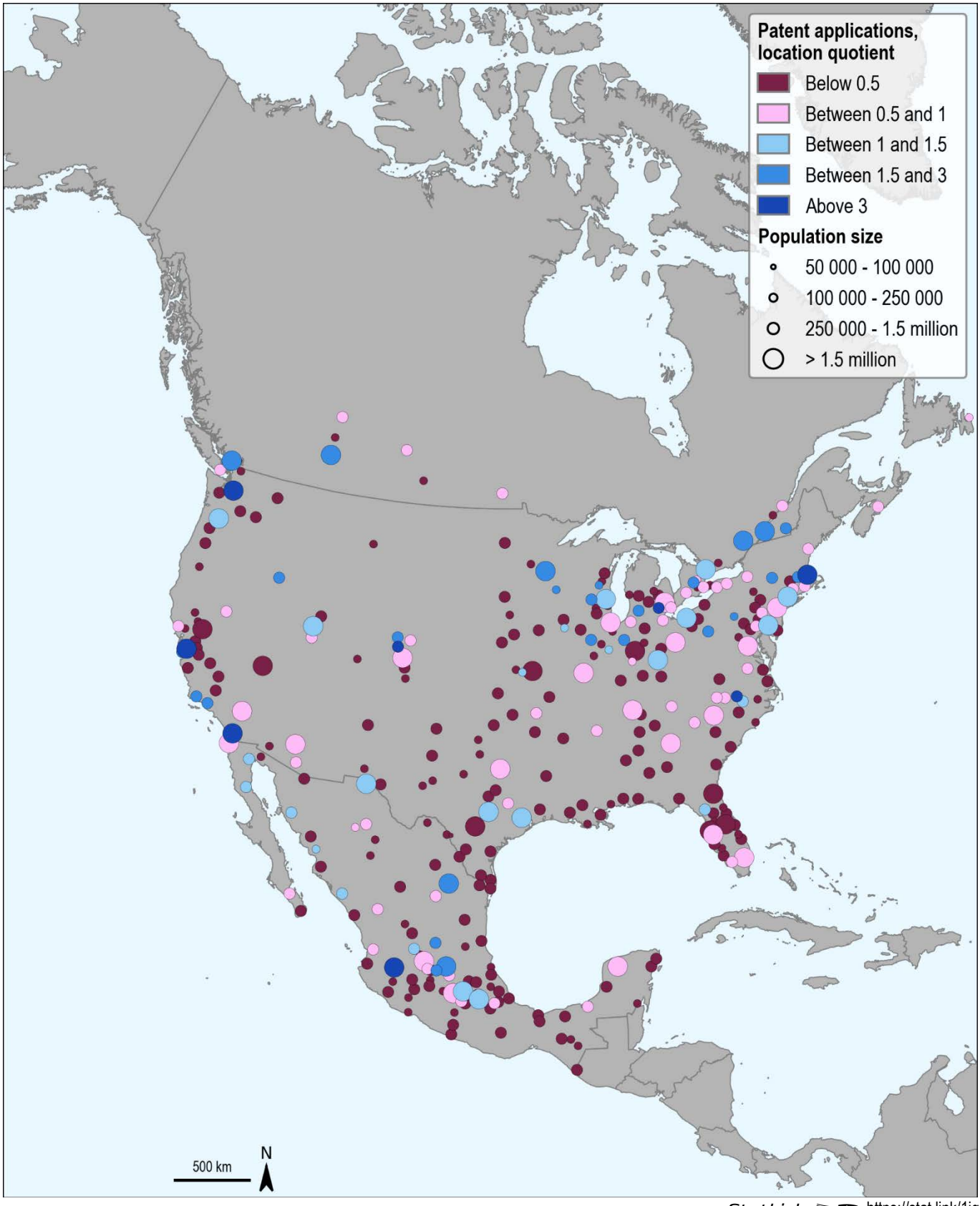


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Figure 1.11. Patent concentration relative to population in FUAs – Americas

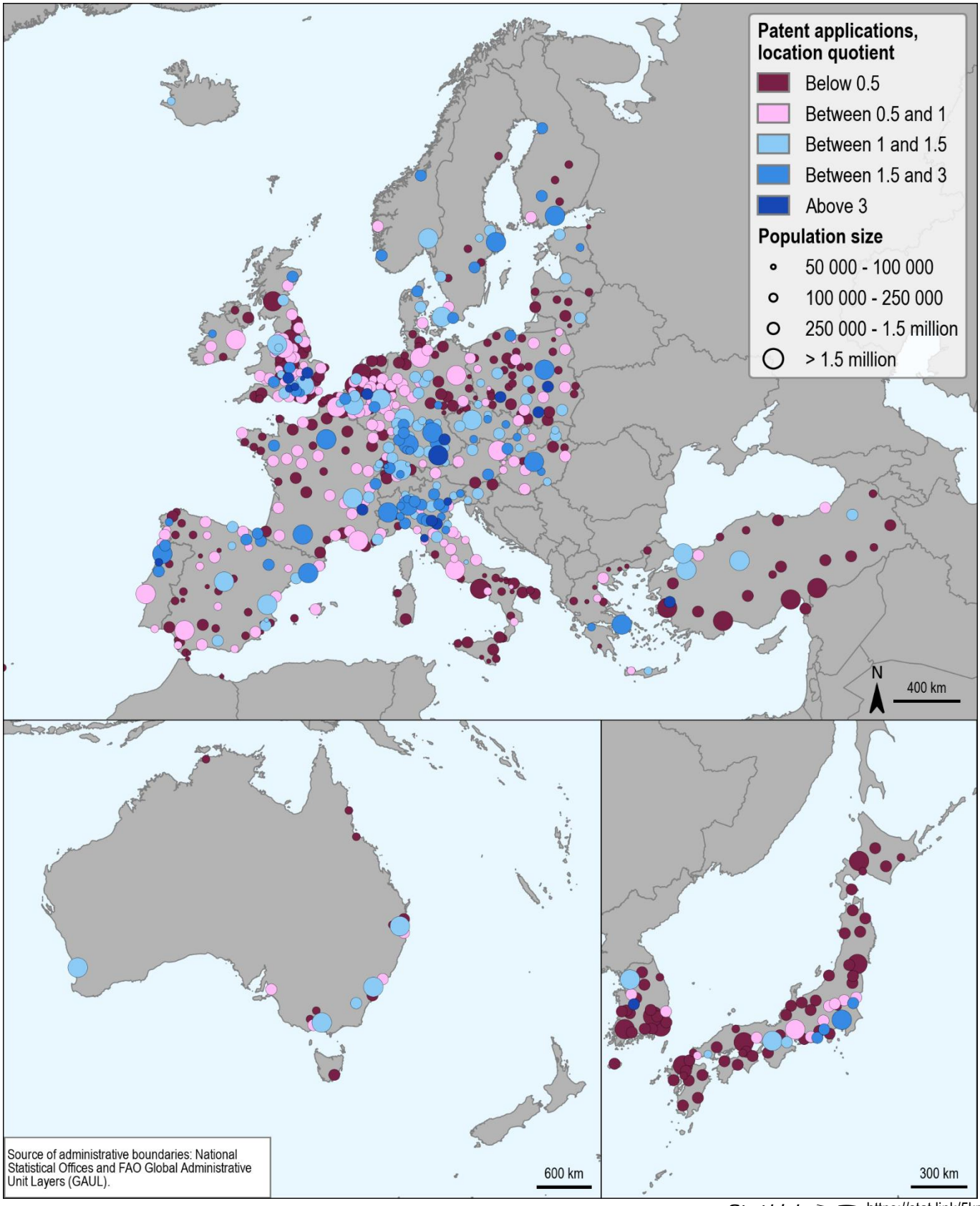
Patent location quotient (ratio of national patent share to national population share) in FUAs, 2019-2024



StatLink https://stat.link/1jq0v5

Figure 1.12. Patent concentration relative to population in FUAs – Europe and Asia-Oceania

Patent location quotient (ratio of national patent share to national population share) in FUAs, 2019-2024



StatLink https://stat.link/5krnsc





2. DEMOGRAPHY AND LABOUR



Demographic change

Population growth concentrates mostly in capital-city and metropolitan regions while other regions are shrinking, ageing faster and experiencing more deaths than births, with these disparities projected to persist or intensify over time.

Population decline and ageing are strongly uneven within countries (OECD, 2025). In many countries where the population is falling, capital-city regions continue to grow while most people live in shrinking regions. This trend is putting regions within the same country on increasingly different demographic paths. In shrinking OECD Member and accession countries such as Bulgaria, Croatia and Greece, more than half of the population lives in a region that is losing people, while fewer than one in five live in a growing region (Figure 2.1). Growth is usually concentrated in the capital region, where populations have risen by as much as 1.4% a year in recent years. On average, the average difference in annual population growth between growing and shrinking regions is 1.4 percentage points, with the largest differences in Bulgaria, Canada, Estonia, Iceland, and Romania.

In European and Asian countries with available data, natural population decrease (more deaths than births) in shrinking regions has become an increasingly important contributor to population decline, compared to people moving away (Figure 2.3). Over the past two decades, high shares of elderly population and low fertility have led to increasingly more deaths than births in these shrinking regions, especially since 2010. By contrast, in Australia, Canada, Costa Rica and New Zealand, where national populations have continued to grow, births and deaths are closer to balance in shrinking and stable regions. Population change in shrinking regions in these countries is most likely due to out-migration.

Many shrinking regions also face greater pressure to support ageing communities, especially in shrinking regions that are also affected by out-migration. In 2025, shrinking regions had higher old-age dependency rates than stable or growing regions in all 10 countries that experienced population decline between 2015 to 2024 (Figure 2.4 and Figure 2.5). Among these countries, old-age dependency ratios were highest in shrinking regions of Japan (57%), Bulgaria (41%), Italy (41%), and Croatia (39%). Within-country regional differences in old-age dependency rates reached over 50 percentage points in Belgium, Canada and France.

Population projections predict these trends will be reinforced over time. Metropolitan regions in most countries continue to grow, while most non-metropolitan regions shrink. Across 32 OECD Member and accession countries with available data, the gap between the fastest- and slowest-growing regions in projected population change over 2025–45 averages 0.5 percentage points annually. Metropolitan regions are expected to record the strongest population growth, or the smallest declines, in 27 out of 32 countries (Figure 2.2). In contrast, regions far from a midsize or large FUA are projected to experience the weakest population growth, or largest population declines, in 24 countries. The divergence is particularly marked in several European countries. For example, metropolitan populations are projected to grow by around 0.39% annually in Finland and 0.16% in Estonia, while populations in regions far from a midsize or large FUA are projected to decline by around 0.43% and 0.94%, respectively. Chile, Colombia, Greece, Hungary and Korea are exceptions, where regions near a midsize or large FUA are expected to experience stronger growth.

Definitions

Growing, stable, and shrinking regions defined following the OECD demographic change typology with 2015-2024 as the reference period.

Natural change is defined as live births minus deaths.

Population projections assume medium fertility and medium migration. These scenarios are based on assumptions determined by national statistical offices about how fertility, mortality and migration may develop over time, with the medium scenario representing the central projection between lower and higher variants.

Old-age dependency ratio is measured as the old-age population aged 65 or over as a share of the working-age population aged between 15-64.

Further reading

OECD (2025), *Shrinking Smartly and Sustainably: Strategies for Action*, OECD Rural Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/f91693e3-en.

Figure notes

Figure 2.1: Change calculated as compound annual growth rate. 2015-2024 for all countries, except AUS, CAN, CRI, CHL, ISL, NZL and USA (2014-2023), ISR (2013-2022), and GBR and MEX (2012-2021).

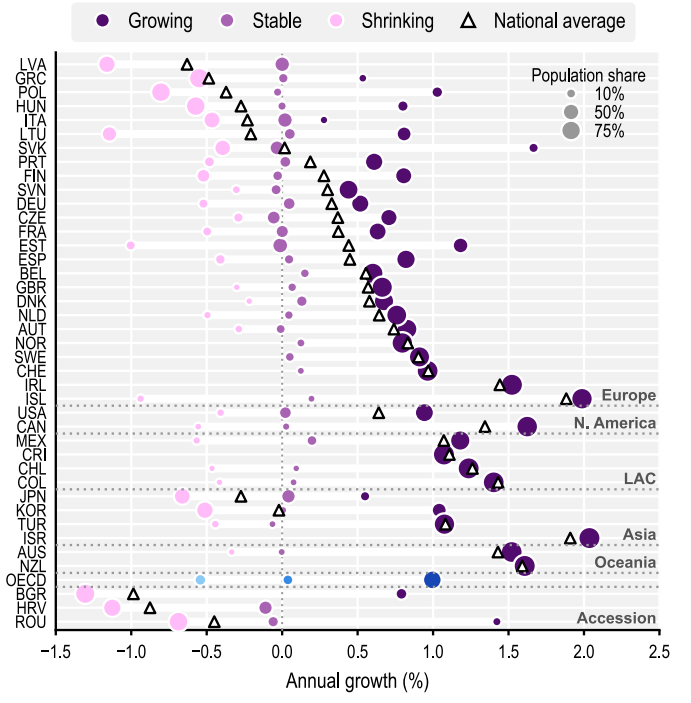
Figure 2.2: 2045 in all countries except CHL and COL (2035), and MEX (2040) due to data availability. Projected average annual population growth rates calculated over the available projection period for each country.

Figure 2.3: Natural change measured annually and divided by annual national population. Americas includes CAN and CRI. North, West, and South Europe includes AUT, BEL, CHE, DEU, ESP, FIN, FRA, GRC, ITA, NLD, NOR, PRT, and SWE. Central and East Europe includes BGR, CZE, EST, HUN, LTU, LVA, POL, ROU and SVK. USA not included due to data availability on births and deaths.

Figure 2.4 and Figure 2.5: 2025 for all countries except AUS, CAN, ISL and JPN (2024); CRI, ISR, KOR and NZL (2023); CHL, COL, GBR and MEX (2022); and USA (2021).

Figure 2.1. Population change

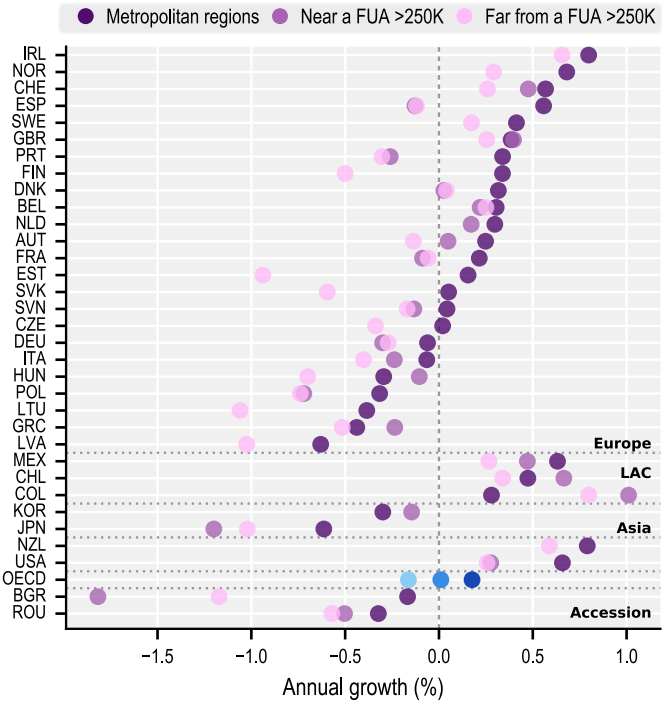
Annual population change in TL3 regions by demographic change type (%), 2015-2024 or latest year available



StatLink https://stat.link/hp0ymw

Figure 2.2. Population projections in regions

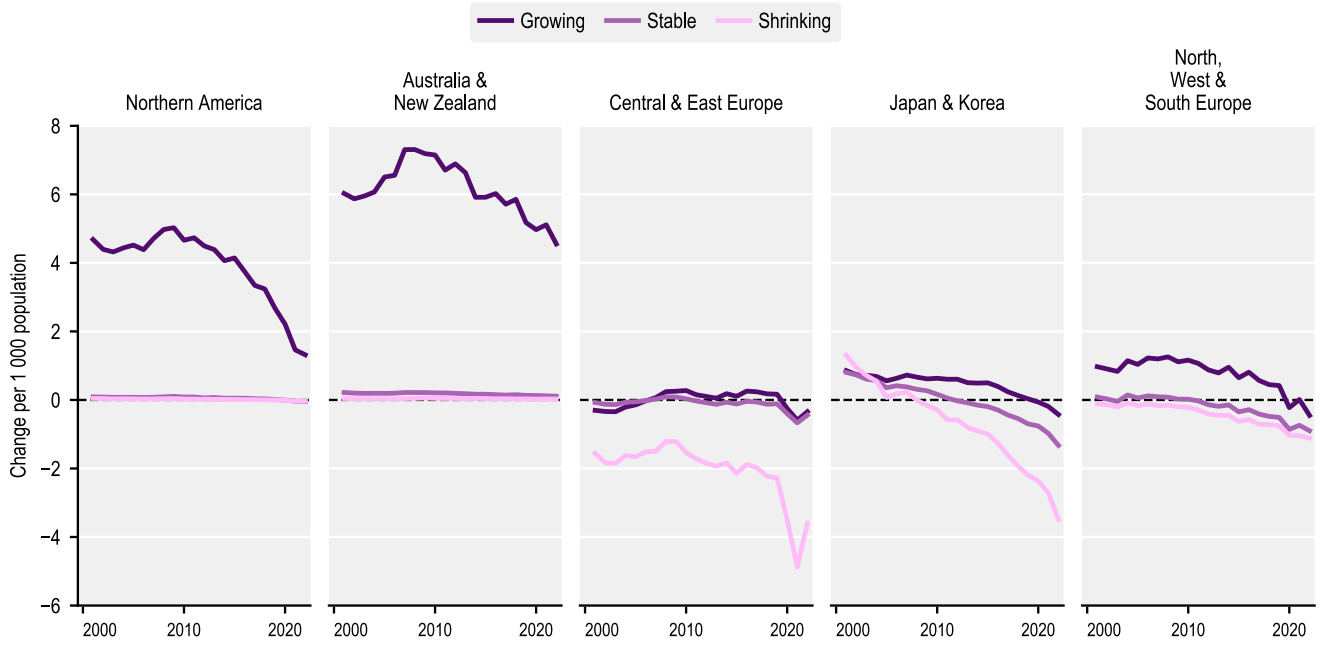
Projected average annual population change in TL3 regions by access to FUA type (%), 2025-2045 or earliest and latest available years



StatLink https://stat.link/cr8xvw

Figure 2.3. Natural population change (births minus deaths) in regions

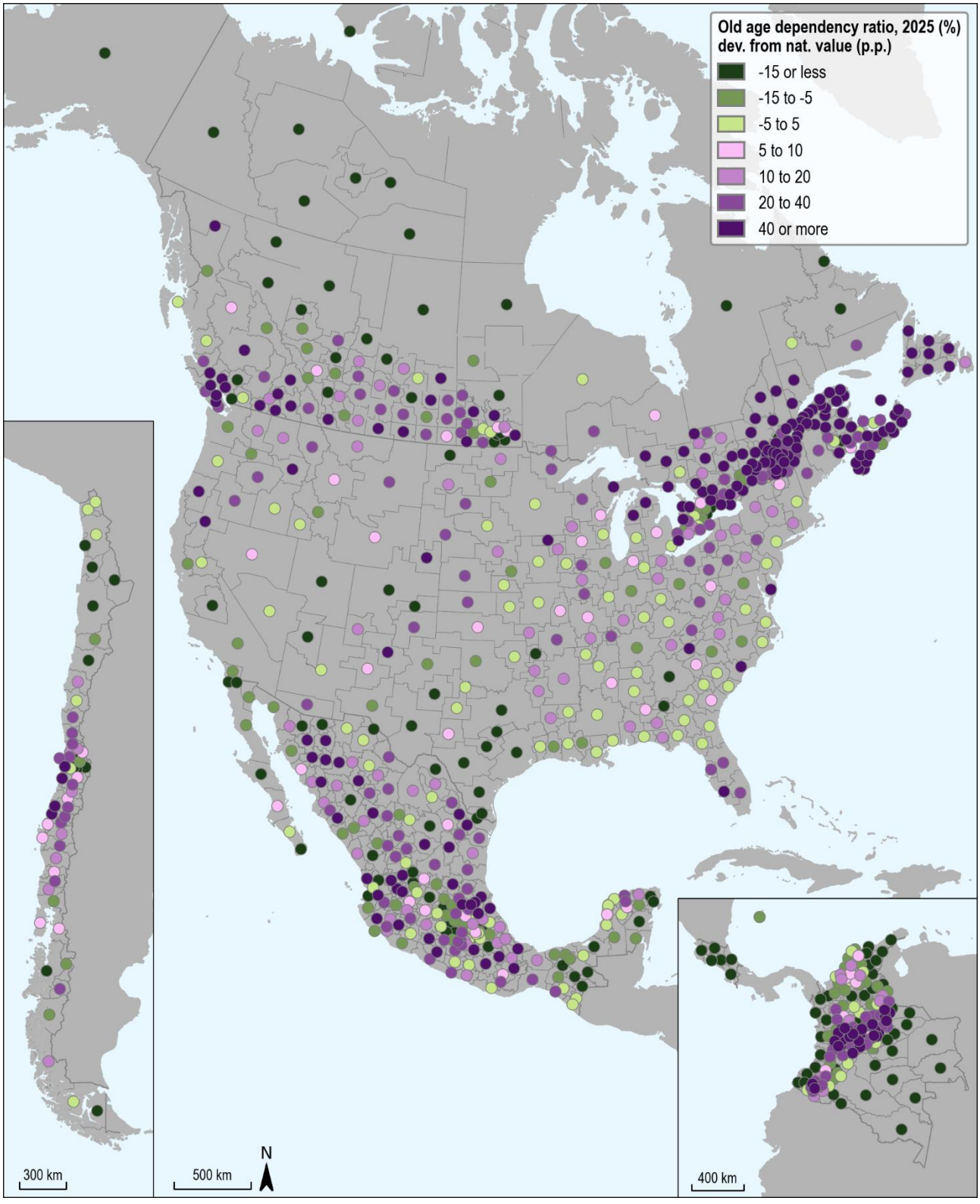
Births minus deaths per 1 000 national population in TL3 regions by demographic change typology, 2001-2022 or earliest and latest available years



StatLink https://stat.link/c2ydxf

Figure 2.4. Old-age dependency ratio in regions - Americas

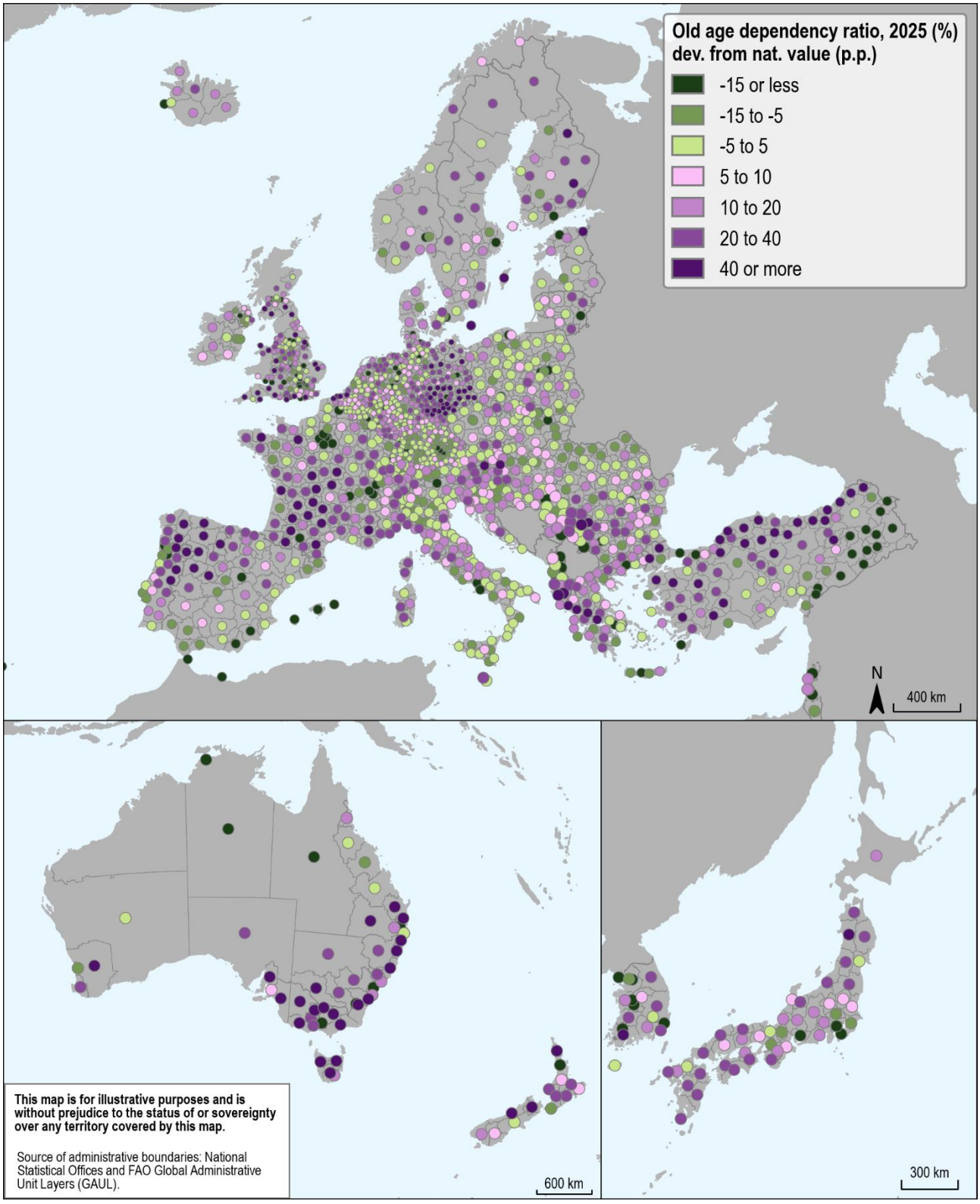
Old-age population (65+) as a percentage of the working-age population (15–64) in TL3 regions (deviation from national values), 2025 or latest available year



StatLink https://stat.link/lgdmoh

Figure 2.5. Old-age dependency ratio in regions – Europe and Oceania

Old-age population (65+) as a percentage of the working-age population (15–64) in TL3 regions (deviation from national values), 2025 or latest available year



StatLink https://stat.link/4pevat



Geographic mobility

Despite increasing internal mobility rates in most OECD countries in the past decade, mobility alone cannot address regional disparities in economic opportunity.

Metropolitan regions strengthened their demographic weight across nearly all OECD countries over the past two decades. They increased their already large share of national population in 31 of 33 OECD countries between 2005 and 2024. Their average share rose from 69% to 70.4%, adding 117 million residents to metropolitan regions (Figure 2.6). Net migration contributed for about half of the increase, as metropolitan regions attracted a larger share of migrants than their initial population share. Births contributed about one-quarter, while deaths contributed the remaining quarter. Growing metropolitan regions drove most of this shift, increasing their population share from 46.2% to 48.6%, while stable and shrinking regions each lost 0.5 percentage points.

Large metropolitan regions typically displayed contrasting patterns of net internal migration across countries (Figure 2.10 and Figure 2.11). Population inflows to large metropolitan regions surpassed outflows in Austria, Czechia, Hungary, Japan, Korea, Mexico, Poland, and Türkiye. By contrast, Australia, Chile, France, Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States showed net outflows from large metropolitan regions and inflows to midsize metropolitan regions or those near a midsize or large FUA. Age-specific migration may play a key role in shaping these patterns..

Although internal mobility rates increased in most countries, they remain relatively low given the scale of economic disparities across regions. The annual flow of people moving between small regions increased in 25 out of 33 OECD countries between 2010-2011 and 2023-2024 (Figure 2.7). The largest increases occurred in countries with relatively low rates in the initial period, pointing to some convergence in mobility rates. Despite the upward trend, the average internal mobility rate across the 33 countries was only 2.4% in 2023-2024.

International migration contributed more to population growth in metropolitan regions than internal mobility in 19 of the 23 OECD countries with available regional data in 2010-2024 (Figure 2.8). Metropolitan regions gained an average of 2.4 international migrants per 1 000 national population, compared with 0.5 in non-metropolitan regions. In contrast, internal mobility produced virtually no net change in either region type. International inflows to metropolitan regions exceeded those to non-metropolitan regions in 22 countries. In Japan, Netherlands, New Zealand, United Kingdom and the United States, international inflows to metropolitan regions were at least eight times higher than non-metropolitan regions. International net flows to non-metropolitan regions were highest in Switzerland (2.8 per 1 000 national population), Sweden (2.4), Italy (1.7) and Austria (1.7).

Large disparities in economic performance across regions coincide with marked differences in population growth and decline. Across 29 OECD countries, GDP per capita in metropolitan regions with growing population was 19% above the national average in 2024, compared with 15% below the national average in metropolitan regions with a shrinking population (Figure 2.9). Non-metropolitan regions fell below the national average less if they were growing in population compared to shrinking (12% vs. 26%).

Definitions

Growing, stable, and shrinking regions defined following the OECD demographic change typology with 2015-2024 as the reference period.

Net mobility is the difference between the number of people moving into a region from another region within the same country and the number of people leaving the region for another region within the same country, expressed per thousand of the regional population.

Internal inflow mobility rate is measured as the annual number of people moving into a region from another region within the same country, expressed as a percentage share of regional population and weighted by population.

International net flows refer to the annual number of people moving into a region from another country minus the people from another country moving out of the region.

Further reading

Cavalleri, M., N. Luu and O. Causa (2021), "Migration, housing and regional disparities: A gravity model of inter-regional migration with an application to selected OECD countries", *OECD Economics Department Working Papers*, No. 1691, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/421bf4aa-en.

Figure notes

Figure 2.6: 2005-2024 for all countries, except FIN and PRT (2014), KOR (2013), LVA (2011), and GBR, MEX and NOR (2022).

Figure 2.7: 2010-11 to 2023-2024, except for GRC and PRT (2011, 2021); LVA (2011-2012); KOR (2013-2014); NZL (2013, 2023); MEX (2010, 2015); FRA (2013-2014, 2019-2020); ISL (2010-2011, 2021-2022); USA (2011, 2017); and DEU and ISR (2010-2011, 2022-2023). IRL (2022).

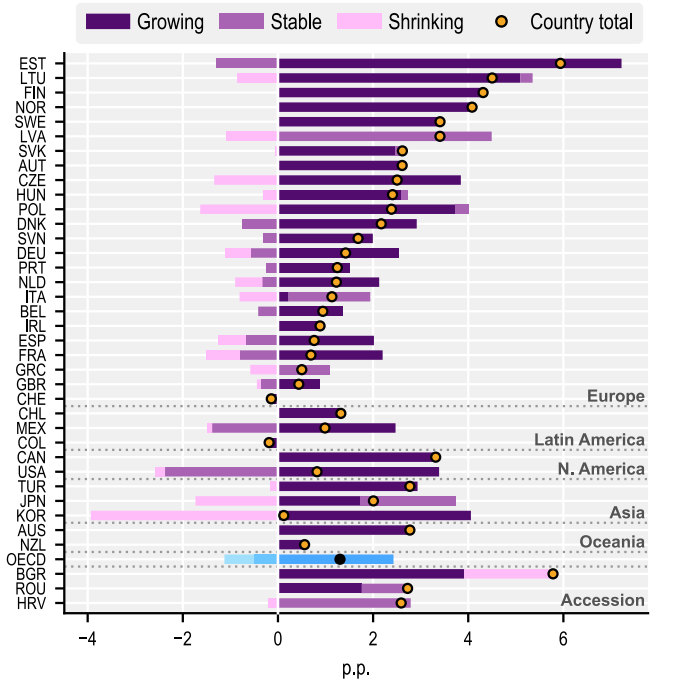
Figure 2.8: 2010-2024 average, except for internal mobility: CHL (2013-2024), DEU (2010-2023), FRA (2013-2019), GRC and PRT (2011-2021), IRL (2022), ISL (2010-2022), LVA (2011-2024), MEX and ROU (2010-2015), NZL (2013-2023), and USA (2011-2017). For international migration: AUS (2019-2024), ESP and CAN (2010-2021), GBR (2021), ISL (2010-2022), JPN (2020-2024), LTU (2010-2023), LVA (2011-2024), and NZL (2010-2017). National-level international migration rates are used where TL3 international migration data are unavailable.

Figure 2.9: 2024, except for AUT, DEU, ESP, GBR, GRC, IRL, ITA, LVA, POL and SVK (2023), and CHE, JPN and NOR (2022). .

Figure 2.10 and Figure 2.11: 2005-2024, except for AUS (2007-2024); CHL (2013-2024); DEU (2005-2023); DNK (2006-2024); ESP and TUR (2008-2024); FRA (2013-2019); GRC and PRT (2011-2021); IRL (2022 only); ISL (2005-2022); ISR (2010-2023); LVA (2011-2024); MEX (2010-2015); NZL (2006-2023); ROU (2005-2015); and USA (2009-2017).

Figure 2.6. Change in the share of population in metropolitan regions

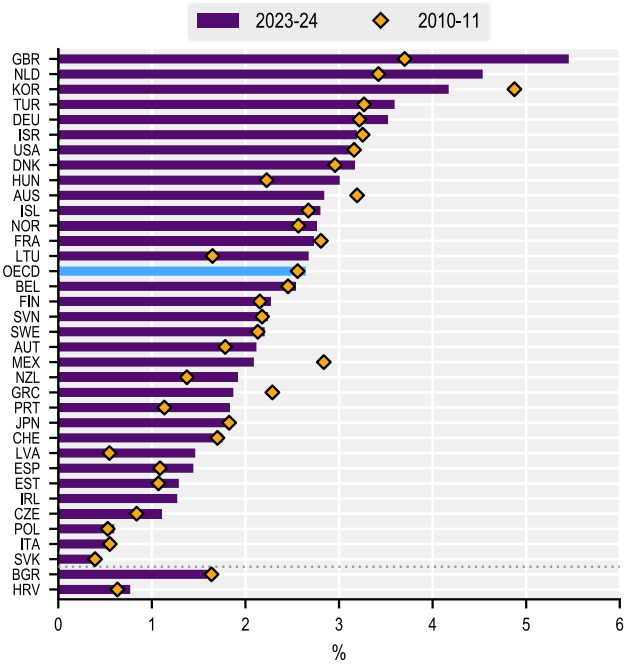
Change in population in metropolitan TL3 regions by demographic change type (%), 2005-2024 or earliest and latest available years



StatLink https://stat.link/wpgchi

Figure 2.7. Internal population inflow rate

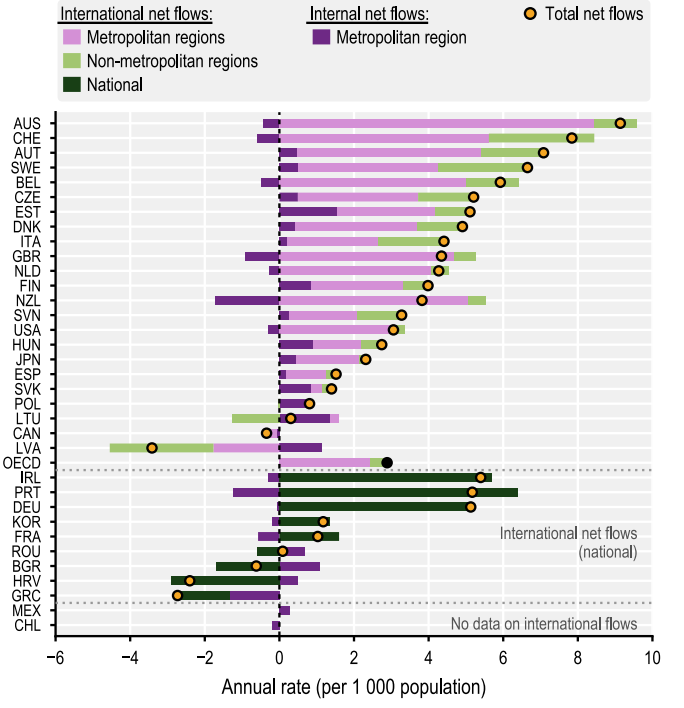
Annual internal inflows as share of population in TL3 regions (%), 2010-2011 and 2023-2024 or earliest and latest available years



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Figure 2.8. Internal and international net flows by type of region

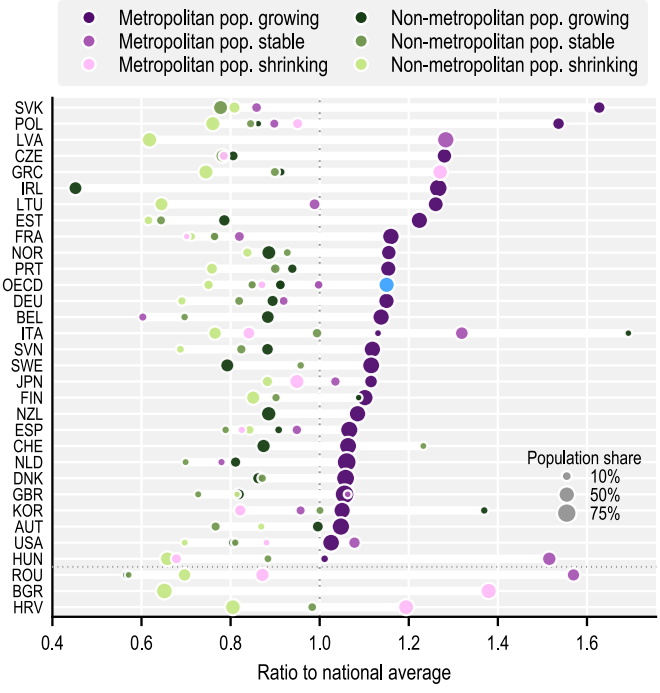
Internal and international net flows, TL3 regions by access to FUA, average of 2010-2024 or earliest and latest available years



StatLink https://stat.link/milve6

Figure 2.9. GDP per capita gaps in regions by type of region

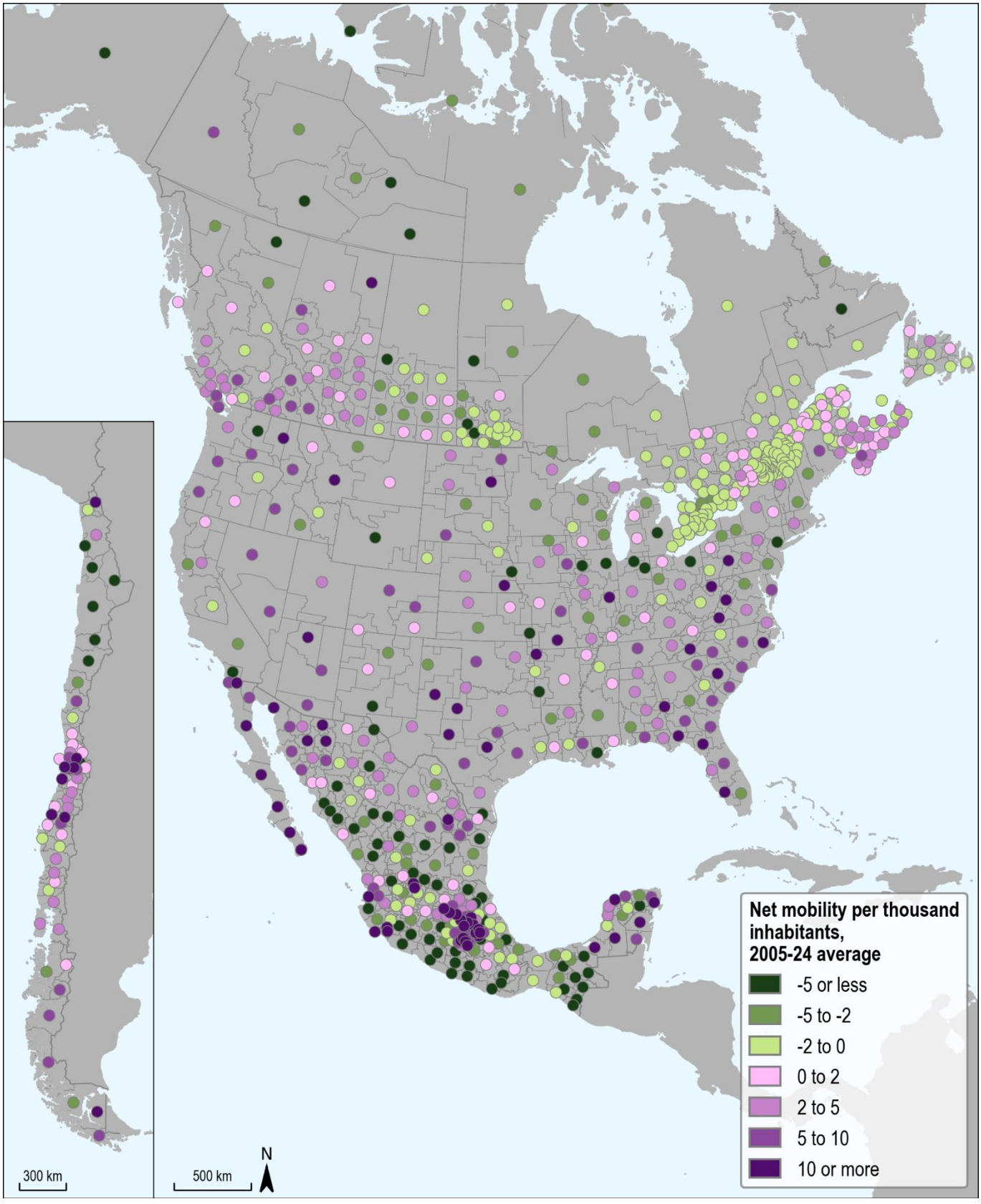
GDP per capita in TL3 regions by access to FUA and demographic change type (national = 1), 2024 or latest year available



StatLink https://stat.link/rcd4g5

Figure 2.10. Internal net flows across regions - Americas

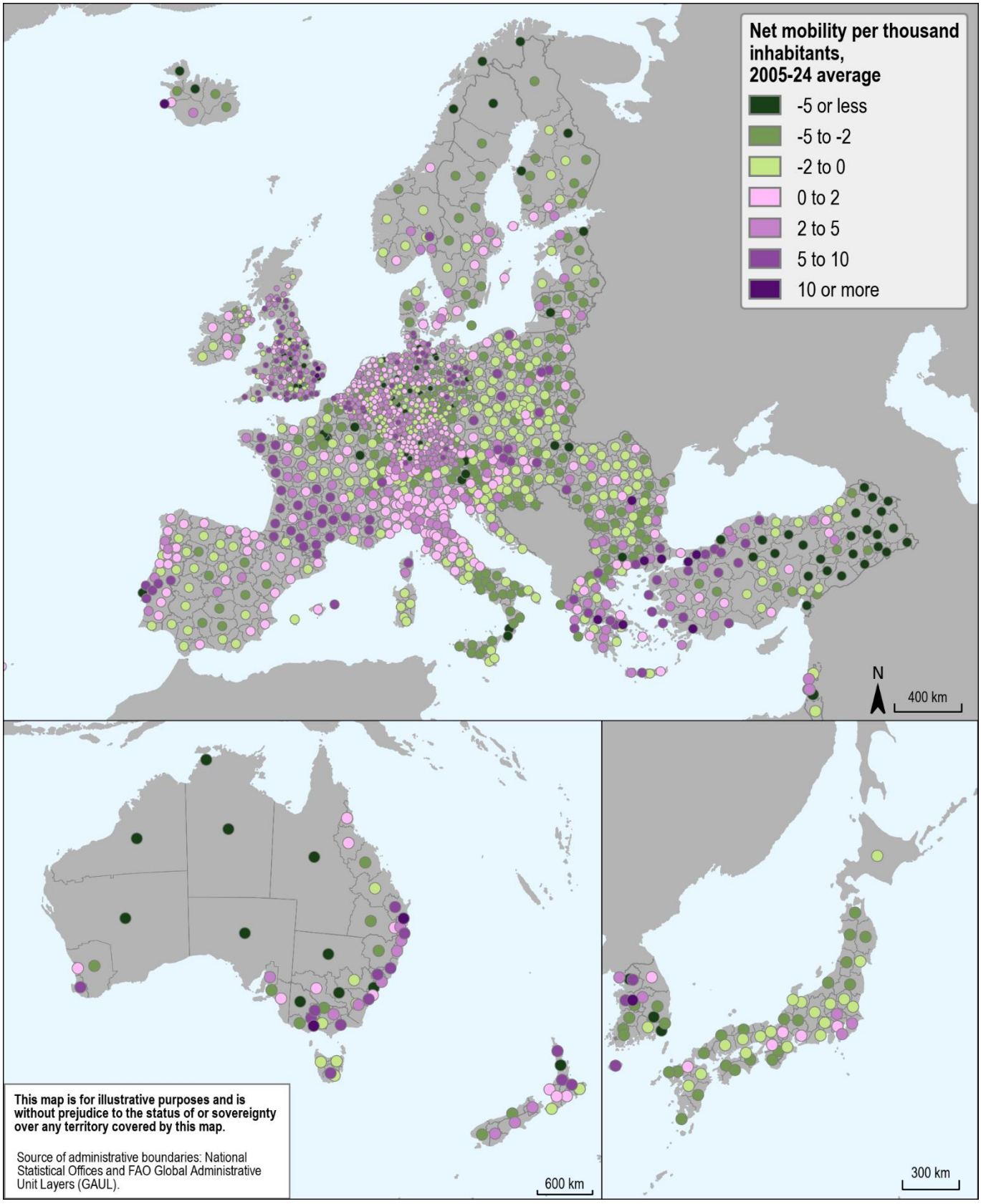
Net mobility per 1 000 inhabitants by TL3 regions, average of 2005-2024 or earliest and latest available years



StatLink https://stat.link/ylvaof

Figure 2.11. Internal net flows across regions – Europe, Oceania and Asia-Pacific

Net mobility per 1 000 inhabitants by TL3C regions, average of 2005-24 or earliest and latest available years



StatLink https://stat.link/6wcx2l



Local labour markets

Labour market areas without a city generally have lower unemployment rates but less favourable working-age population trends and lower shares of foreign-born residents.

Where people live can make a big difference to their chances of finding work. Labour market areas (LMAs) bring together the places where people live with the places where they work and thus offer a meaningful geography to compare local employment conditions. On this basis, relative geographic disparities in unemployment across LMAs are widest in Italy and narrowest in the Netherlands, with a five-fold difference in the coefficient of variation of unemployment rates (Figure 2.12). In Italy, unemployment became even more geographically uneven since 2015, with differences across LMAs increasing by about one-quarter. In contrast, geographic disparities declined in Japan. These shifts took place against a backdrop of generally falling unemployment rates.

Part of the geographic variation in unemployment rates reflects a rural-urban divide in labour markets. In 7 out of 11 countries with available data, unemployment is highest in LMAs that contain a city, while rural LMAs have the lowest rates in 7 of the 10 countries where this LMA type exists (Figure 2.13). The unemployment-rate gap between city and rural LMAs is largest in Sweden and Italy (around 1.2 p.p.), compared to the United States (0.3 p.p.). Lower unemployment rates do not necessarily indicate better employment opportunities, particularly where labour-force participation is low or working-age populations are declining. Unemployment rates also vary substantially among LMAs of the same type, especially in town/semi-dense and rural LMAs. For instance, the gap between the rural LMA with the lowest and highest unemployment in the United States reaches 13.4 p.p.

These local differences in unemployment are unfolding alongside a broader shift in the geography of the working-age population. Between 2015 and 2025, city LMAs gained working-age residents relative to the national average in all 14 countries with available data, while town and semi-dense LMAs—and especially rural LMAs—generally lost them (Figure 2.14). The contrast is particularly pronounced in Japan, Australia, Hungary and Sweden. The striking consistency in the direction of change points to an ongoing concentration of the working-age population in the densest labour markets. As working-age populations decline or grow more slowly, LMAs without a city may face increasing difficulties in replacing workers and filling skilled jobs.

International migration could help offset these workforce losses, but foreign-born residents tend to concentrate in cities. The foreign-born share is highest in city LMAs and lowest in rural LMAs. Foreign-born residents account for about 9–10% of the population of the rural parts of LMAs on average across the countries with available data, whether these belong to a city, town/semi-dense or rural LMAs (Figure 2.15). However, rural parts of city LMAs can benefit from foreign-born workers living nearby, while those in rural LMAs typically have a smaller pool to draw from, making migration less likely to offset workforce decline.

Definitions

Labour Market Areas (LMAs) group adjacent small administrative units (or local areas) such that most people who live in an area also work there and most jobs in an area are filled by residents. See Annex C for more details.

City LMAs contain at least one small administrative unit classified as a city by degree of urbanisation. **Town/semi-dense LMAs** contain no such unit, but at least one small administrative unit classified as a town or semi-dense area. **Rural LMAs** contain exclusively small administrative units classified as rural areas.

The **unemployment rate** in an LMA represents the share of residents in the labour force without a job. The analysis rescales local-area values to match national values from labour force surveys before aggregating them to the LMA level.

The **coefficient of variation (CV)** of unemployment rates across LMAs is the standard deviation of unemployment rates across LMAs divided by the mean unemployment rate across LMAs.

The **foreign-born population** is defined by place of birth, i.e., the population born in a country other than its country of residence. Unlike citizenship, this criterion does not change over time; it is not subject to differences in countries' legislation.

Further reading

OECD (2020), *Delineating Functional Areas in All Territories*, OECD Territorial Reviews, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/07970966-en.

OECD (2026), *The Geography of Choice: Mapping Everyday Lives across Rural Regions*, OECD Regional Development Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/a5e46a1f-en.

Figure notes

Figure 2.12 to Figure 2.15: LMA boundaries based on government- or government-affiliated sources in 15 OECD countries. These boundaries do not necessarily represent officially adopted national classifications. See Table A.2 for coverage, definitions and sources. All values are population-weighted.

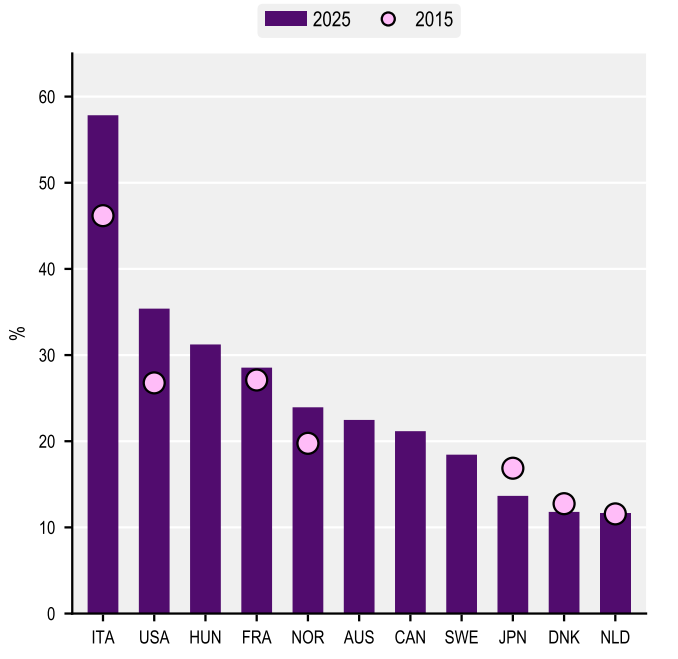
Figure 2.12 and Figure 2.13: CAN (2025), FRA (2024), DNK, NOR and USA (2023), HUN, ITA and NLD (2022), AUS and SWE (2021) and JPN (2020). Unemployment rates refer to LMA-level values published by National Statistical Offices for CAN, FRA and ITA and to aggregated local area data for the remaining countries. Unemployment rates refer to population aged 16–64 in DNK, SWE and USA, 15–74 in NLD, and 15 and over in AUS, CAN, FRA, HUN, ITA, JPN and NOR. For CAN, 30 of the 648 LMAs are excluded due to missing unemployment data, population data or both.

Figure 2.14: Based on aggregated local area data.

Figure 2.15: Based on aggregated local area data. Panel A: Includes only LMAs which contain at least one local area which the degree of urbanisation classifies as a city. Panels B and C: Corresponding values for LMAs with a town/semi-dense local area but no city local area (B) and with only rural local areas (C).

Figure 2.12. Disparities in unemployment rates between labour market areas

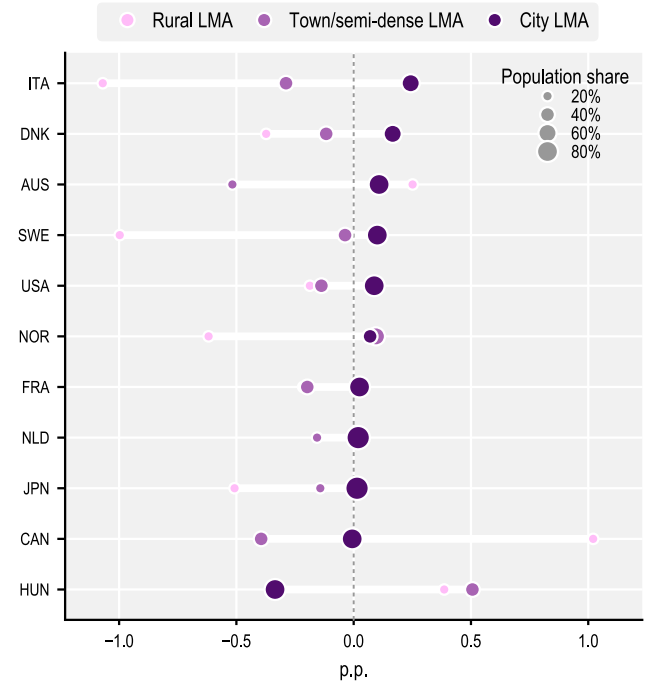
Coefficient of variation (CV) in unemployment rates across LMAs (%), 2015 and 2025 or latest available



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Figure 2.13. Unemployment rates in labour markets areas

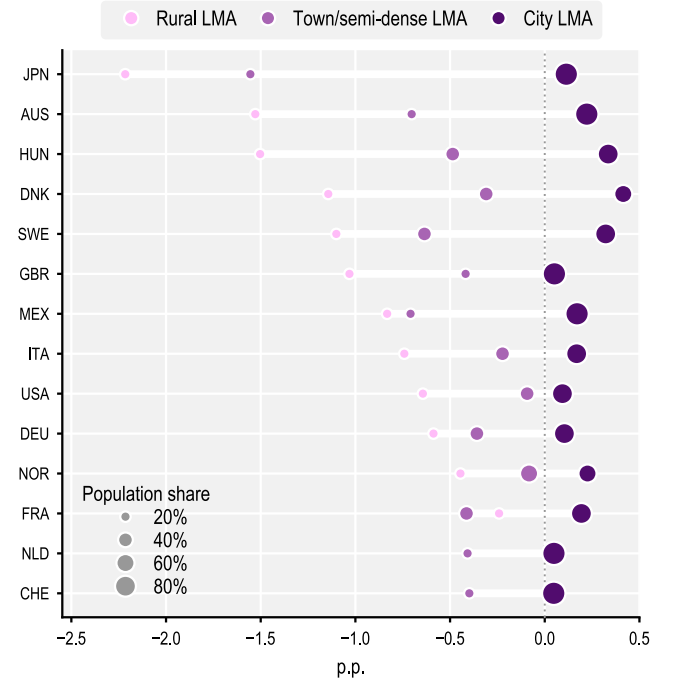
Unemployment rates by LMA type, difference from national average (p.p.), 2025 or latest available



StatLink https://stat.link/9kqb1l

Figure 2.14. Changes in working-age population in labour market areas

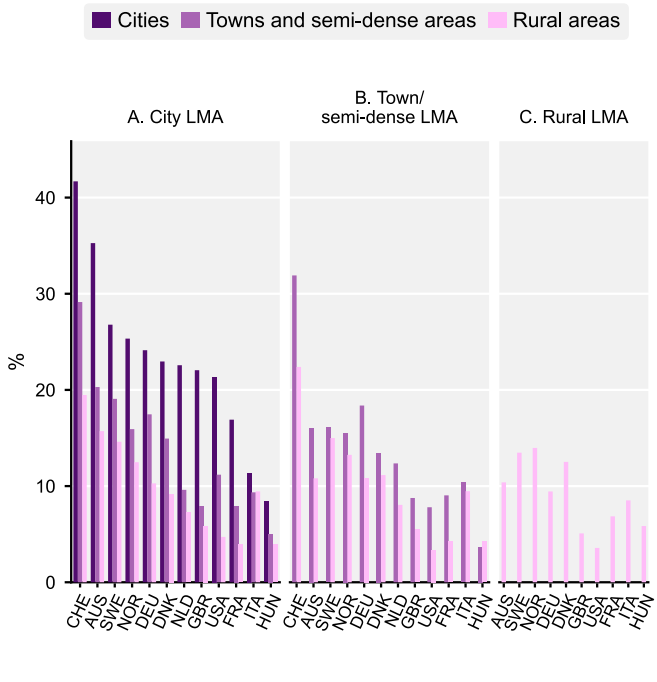
Annual growth rate of population aged 15–64 by LMA type, deviation from national average (p.p.), 2015–25 or latest available



StatLink https://stat.link/49ltu6

Figure 2.15. Share of foreign-born population in labour market areas

Share of foreign-born residents by local area type and city, town/semi-dense and rural LMAs (%), 2025 or latest available



StatLink https://stat.link/4zmox6





3. WELL-BEING



Housing

Housing pressures are greatest in large urban agglomerations, where homes are less affordable, fewer dwellings are unoccupied, and housing supply struggles to keep pace with population growth.

Housing prices are highest in urban centres and lowest in rural areas across OECD countries. Compared to the national average, housing is 27% more expensive in urban centres; 15% cheaper in FUA commuting zones; and 34% cheaper in areas outside FUAs (Figure 3.1). These differences reflect tighter housing markets in urban centres, where many people move to work or study and where construction is often constrained by limited land, regulation and local opposition to development. Price differences between area types are particularly large in Hungary and the Nordic countries, and relatively small in Belgium, the Netherlands, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom.

People in larger metropolitan regions tend to need substantially more years of disposable income to buy a home than people elsewhere, as much higher housing prices often outweigh their generally higher incomes. The largest metropolitan region has an above-average price-to-income ratio in 11 out of 13 countries with available data and is the least affordable in six of them (Figure 3.2). The gap between the least and the most affordable metropolitan region is largest in Germany, where people living in München need around 17 more years of annual disposable income than in Chemnitz, followed by Israel (15.6 more years in Jerusalem than in Southern).

Tighter housing markets also tend to have fewer empty homes, while unoccupied housing often concentrates where demand is weakest. Compared to the national average, unoccupancy rates are 2.9 percentage points (p.p.) lower in urban centres; 0.2 p.p. lower in FUA commuting zones; and 4.6 p.p. higher outside FUAs (Figure 3.3). The average unoccupancy rate across countries is 11% in urban centres, 14% in FUA commuting zones and 19% outside FUAs. While some unoccupied housing is expected as residents move between dwellings, this spatial mismatch limits the extent to which bringing unoccupied dwellings back onto the market can ease pressures in urban centres.

Additional housing supply could help ease price pressures in high-demand areas. However, since 2011, housing supply in large FUAs has expanded least relative to population (Figure 3.4), despite their typically higher initial price levels. Large FUAs accommodated a median of 1.8 additional inhabitants per additional housing unit, compared with 1.2 in mid-sized FUAs and 0.6 in small FUAs. This pattern is consistent across countries: in 17 countries, the largest FUA category has the highest ratio of additional inhabitants per additional housing unit, while Australia is the only country where the largest FUA category has the lowest ratio. The imbalance is particularly pronounced in cities which have seen strong price growth in recent years, including Lisbon and Madrid. At the same time, one quarter of FUAs expanded their housing stock despite population decline, a trend especially visible in several Eastern European countries.

Definitions

Income refers to net disposable income per capita available after taxes and social contributions, adjusted for differences in household size and composition using the equivalence scale applied by the national source.

Housing prices refer to price per square metre (m^2) or the total price of residential dwelling purchases.

Unoccupied dwellings are dwellings which are not the usual residence of any person at the time of the census. These include vacant dwellings, dwellings reserved for seasonal or secondary use, as well as dwellings with persons present but not included in the census.

Further reading

OECD (2023), *Brick by Brick (Volume 2): Better Housing Policies in the Post-COVID-19 Era*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/e91cb19d-en.

Figure notes

Figure 3.1 to Figure 3.4: Based on small area unit (SAU) data.

Figure 3.1: 2025 except for AUS, ITA and USA (2024); HUN and POL (2023); and AUT, CAN, DEU, IRL, ISR and MEX (2021). For GBR, 2025 for England and Wales and 2024 for Scotland and Northern Ireland. *: total price (otherwise prices per m^2). Housing prices are average prices per m^2 of residential dwelling purchases except in AUT and PRT (median price per m^2); CAN, NLD and USA (average total dwelling price); and AUS, GBR and IRL (median total dwelling price).

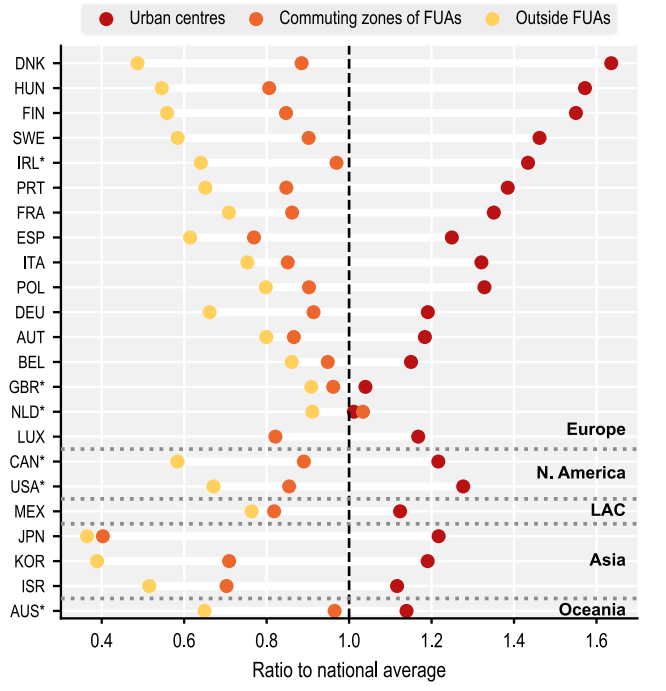
Figure 3.2: Housing prices are median total dwelling prices, except in ESP, KOR, NLD and SWE (mean total dwelling prices); and DEU (mean prices per m^2 times mean dwelling size). Income is per capita median disposable income, except in DEU, GBR, KOR, NLD and SWE (mean disposable income). Years (house prices/income): KOR and SWE (2024/2024); BEL and GBR (2023/2023); ESP (2022/2022); FRA (2022/2021); AUT, IRL and ISR (2021/2022); DEU and NLD (2021/2021); CAN (2021/2020); and AUS (2020/2020).

Figure 3.3: Values for GBR refer to Scotland.

Figure 3.4: Start year: 2011 except CHE, FRA and NLD (2012); GBR and NZL (2013); AUT (2014); and NOR and USA (2015). For LVA, population data start in 2012. End year: 2025 except FIN, NLD, NOR and SWE (2024); GBR, NZL and USA (2023); CHE, DEU and FRA (2022); and AUS, BEL, CAN, CZE, ESP, EST, ISL, ITA, LVA, PRT, ROU, SVK and SVN (2021). Comparisons use annual averages of additional inhabitants and housing units. Excluded FUAs (non-positive housing-unit growth or missing data) account for 2% of the FUA population in included countries.

Figure 3.1. Housing prices within and outside functional urban areas

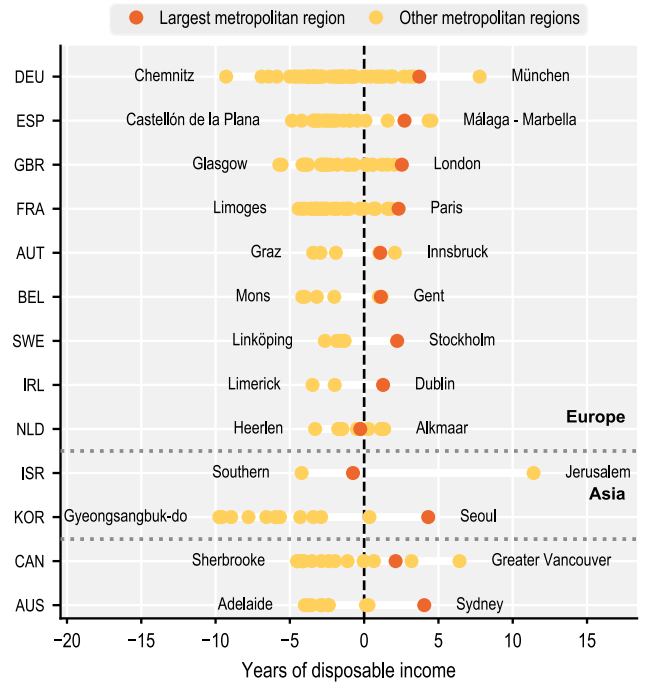
Housing price relative to the national average by urban centres, commuting zones and outside FUAs, 2025 or latest available years



StatLink https://stat.link/3jrn5l

Figure 3.2. Housing price-to-income ratios in metropolitan regions

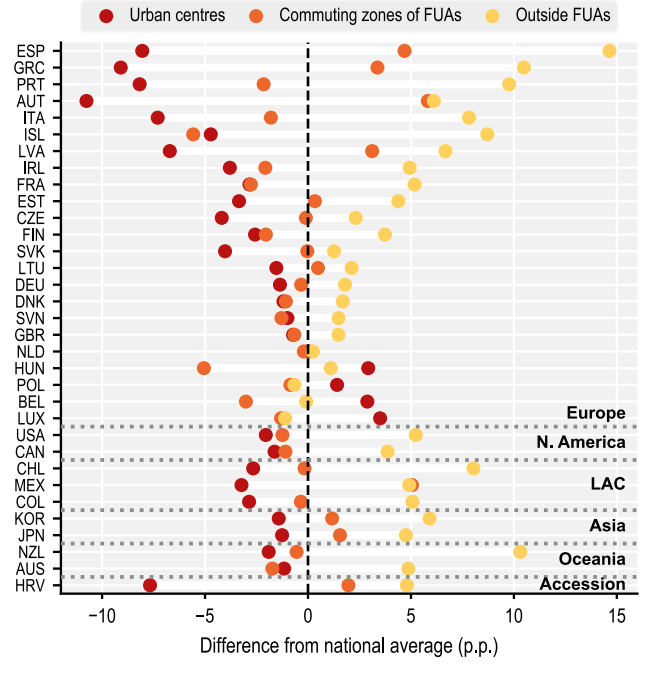
Deviation of house price-to-disposable income ratios from population-weighted average, TL3C metropolitan regions, 2024 or latest available year



StatLink https://stat.link/ujpl76

Figure 3.3. Unoccupied housing within and outside functional urban areas

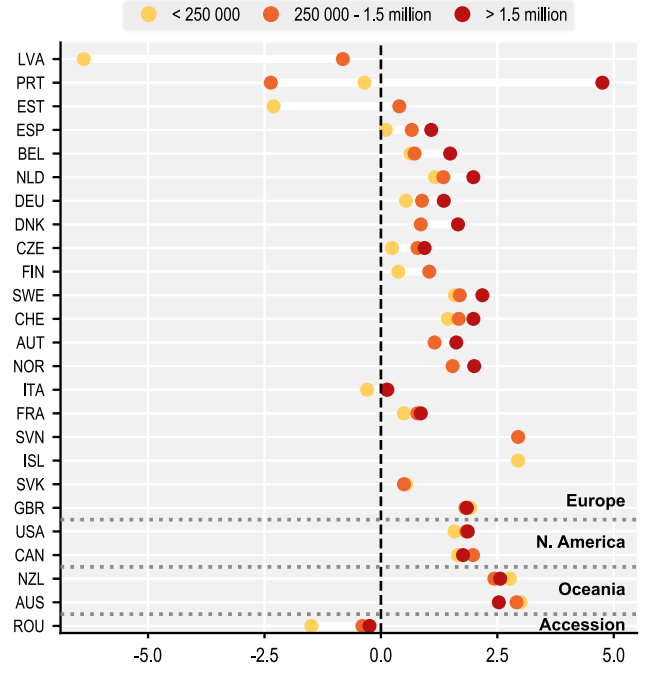
Unoccupied dwellings relative to the national average (p.p.), 2025 or latest available year



StatLink https://stat.link/ej3i40

Figure 3.4. Changes in housing supply and population in functional urban areas

Additional inhabitants per additional housing unit (median across FUAs by FUA size), 2011-2025 or latest available year



StatLink https://stat.link/oqt21y



Life satisfaction, social connections and trust

Life satisfaction improved in most regions, but young people in rural areas less satisfied with social opportunities and residents of non-metropolitan regions reporting lower trust in national institutions.

Life satisfaction has generally improved across OECD regions over the past decade, with the strongest gains occurring in regions that started from relatively low levels. Life satisfaction increased in six out of ten TL2 regions across OECD Member and accession countries with available data over the past decade. In EU countries where average life satisfaction was low (below 6 out of 10) in 2014/15, it increased in 67 of 71 regions with available data over the following decade (Figure 3.5). Across these 71 regions, mostly located in Central and Eastern Europe, the median gain was substantial at 0.8 points – more than one standard deviation of regional life satisfaction scores in 2014/15. By contrast, regions in EU countries with medium to high levels of average life satisfaction (scores above 7) saw little change overall. In several EU countries, declining regional disparities in life satisfaction coincided with declining regional disparities in GDP per capita. Outside the EU, improvements in initially low-scoring countries were less widespread: life satisfaction increased in 56% of regions in countries with average scores below 6, compared with 39% in countries with scores above 7. The corresponding median changes were +0.05 and -0.23 points.

However, convergence in overall life satisfaction does not imply that territorial gaps have disappeared across all dimensions of well-being. Differences remain in more relational aspects of well-being, including opportunities for social interaction. For instance, young people report more dissatisfaction with opportunities to meet people and make friends in rural areas than in cities. Across countries, 22% of people under 35 in rural areas report dissatisfaction with social opportunities, compared with 19% in towns and suburbs and 15% in cities (Figure 3.6). This rural-city gap averages 7 percentage points among people under 35, but only 1 percentage point among those aged 35 or older. It is particularly large in several Central, Eastern and Northern European countries and tends to be wider where rural population growth is low or negative. Put differently, the age difference in dissatisfaction with opportunities to meet people and make friends is driven mainly by higher dissatisfaction among young people in rural areas, while dissatisfaction in cities varies little by age.

Territorial differences also extend beyond opportunities for social connection to people's relationship with institutions. Survey results show higher trust in local than national government and smaller changes of trust in local government over time in most countries (OECD, 2026). Within countries, in metropolitan regions trust in national institutions is 0.10 points higher compared to non-metropolitan regions. In contrast, trust in regional and local institutions is roughly similar in metropolitan and non-metropolitan regions (Figure 3.7). This is a widespread phenomenon: in 25 of 29 countries with available data, the metropolitan advantage in trust is larger for national institutions than for regional and local institutions. This pattern also holds where metropolitan regions report higher trust in both, such as Australia and New Zealand, and where non-metropolitan regions do so, such as Korea and Romania.

Definitions

Trust in national institutions refers to trust in the national government, national parliament and national civil service.

Trust in regional and local institutions refers to trust in the regional government, regional civil service and local/municipal government.

Further reading

OECD (2026), *OECD Survey on Drivers of Trust in Public Institutions 2026 Results: Navigating Rising Expectations and New Horizons*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/9eb63fec-en.

OECD (2025), *Social Connections and Loneliness in OECD Countries*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/6df2d6a0-en.

Figure notes

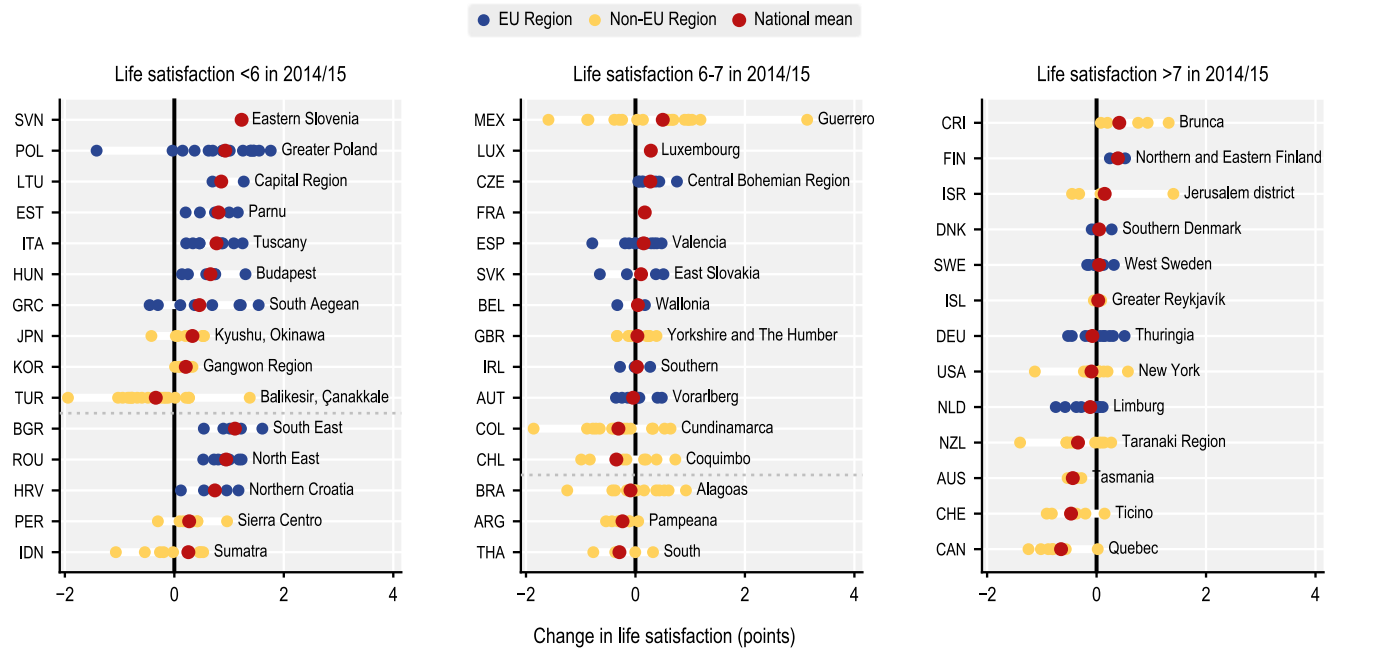
Figure 3.5: Based on Gallup World Poll responses to the question: "*Please imagine a ladder, with steps numbered from 0 at the bottom to 10 at the top. The top of the ladder represents the best possible life for you and the bottom of the ladder represents the worst possible life for you. On which step of the ladder would you say you personally stand at this time?*" The figure reports regional averages, using individual-specific weights provided by Gallup. To increase sample sizes, it pools observations within two two-year periods, 2014/15 and 2024/25, and excludes regions with an effective sample size below 29.

Figure 3.6: Based on Gallup World Poll responses to the question: *"In the city or area where you live, are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the opportunities to meet people and make friends?"* The figure reports the share of people under 35 who are dissatisfied with social opportunities, by degree of urbanisation, using individual-specific weights provided by Gallup. It excludes country-area type combinations with an effective sample size below 29.

Figure 3.7: Based on OECD Trust Survey responses to questions asking people to rate their trust in different institutions on a scale from 0, not at all, to 10, completely. To increase sample sizes, the analysis pools responses from the 2023 and 2025 waves in countries with available TL3-level data in both waves. It excludes countries in which either region type has fewer than 29 observations. Values refer to simple averages across trust sub-types.

Figure 3.5. Change in life satisfaction in regions

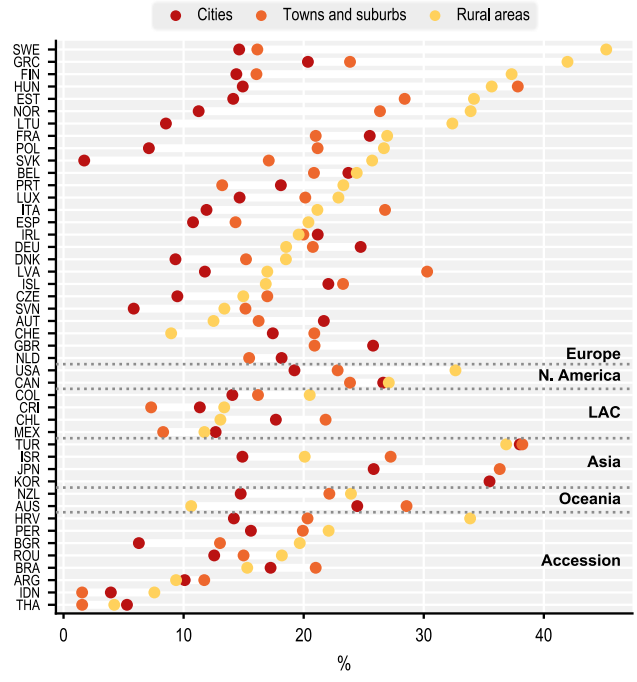
Change in overall life satisfaction in TL2 regions (on a scale from 0-10) between 2014/2015 and 2024/2025



StatLink https://stat.link/bqk4ve

Figure 3.6. Social connections in cities vs. rural areas

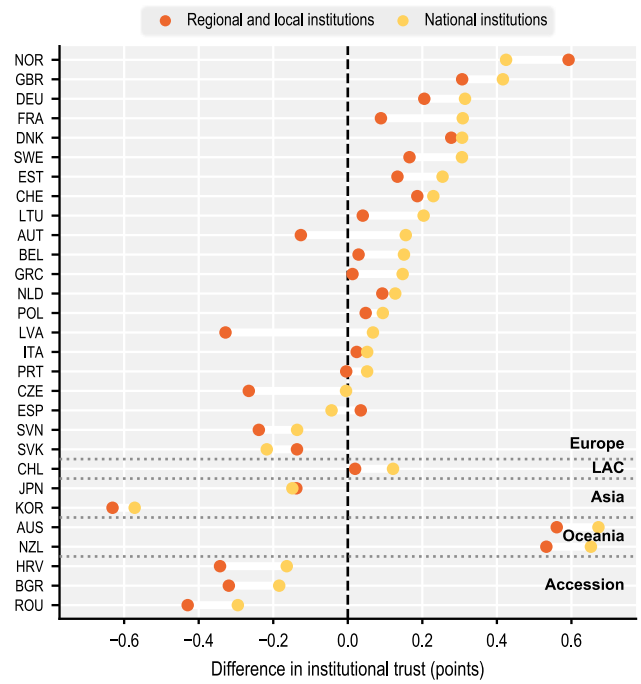
Share of people below 35 years dissatisfied with the opportunities to meet people and make friends by degree of urbanisation, 2025



StatLink https://stat.link/8j4rgn

Figure 3.7. Institutional trust in metropolitan and non-metropolitan regions

Differences in institutional trust between metropolitan and non-metropolitan TL3 regions on a scale, from 0 to 10, 2023-2025



StatLink https://stat.link/4o7kx1



Social infrastructure

Smaller settlements have fewer social infrastructure facilities and while those farther from more densely populated places have comparatively more, this does not guarantee everybody can meet in a nearby café, bar, restaurant or fast-food outlet.

Social infrastructure refers to spaces that enable social interaction, including eating and drinking facilities, cultural venues and public community facilities. Accessible, high-quality social infrastructure can strengthen social capital and belonging, improve well-being and community resilience and support cultural participation. Thriving local amenities can contribute to the vitality and attractiveness of places, while their disappearance can reinforce a cycle of declining confidence and investment in a community's future. Digitalisation of services and social interaction, combined with population decline, can reduce demand for local facilities, making them harder to sustain in remote and sparsely populated areas.

The provision of social infrastructure closely follows settlement size. Eating and drinking facilities increase roughly in proportion to population: a settlement with twice as many inhabitants has, on average, about twice as many cafés, bars and restaurants (Figure 3.8). Cultural and public community facilities also increase with population, but less than proportionally, possibly reflecting public or community support in smaller settlements. Some cultural facilities also serve as multifunctional community hubs, combining cultural activities with adult learning, employment support and other public services.

Access to cultural facilities also varies across countries and with proximity to larger cities. Small urban centres often have more cultural facilities per capita but fewer facilities overall. Vienna, for example, has 18% fewer cultural facilities per capita than the average Austrian urban centre, but about five times as many in total. Differences in cultural provision across cities are larger in Italy and the United States than in Northern European countries (Figure 3.12 and Figure 3.13). Among towns, those closer to cities tend to have fewer local cultural facilities: the median is 2.1 cultural facilities per 10 000 inhabitants within a 10-minute drive of a city, compared with 4.2 more than 30 minutes away. In all 27 OECD countries with available data, towns closest to a city have the fewest cultural facilities per capita (Figure 3.9).

Public community facilities in villages also vary widely across countries and with proximity to larger settlements. The share of villages with such a facility is 53% across 28 OECD countries with data, and ranges from 88% in the Netherlands to 24% in Italy. Across countries, 52% of villages within a 20-minute drive of a larger settlement have a public community facility, compared with 60% of more remote villages (Figure 3.10). In Switzerland, where the gap is largest, the shares are 49% and 85%, respectively.

Access is also poorer in less densely populated regions. In the median OECD region, 9% of people lack an eating and drinking facility within a short commute, but regional differences are large: almost everyone in Berlin and the District of Columbia has easy access, while 17% in Mecklenburg-Vorpommern and 45% in Mississippi do not (Figure 3.11). Lower population density can make nearby facilities harder to sustain, while even short driving distances may represent much longer journeys for people who cannot drive or lack access to a car.

Definitions

Eating and drinking facilities include bars, beer gardens, cafés, fast-food outlets, ice cream shops, pubs and restaurants.

Cultural facilities include arts centres, cinemas, dance venues, event venues, galleries, libraries, museums, music venues, nightclubs and theatres.

Public community facilities include community centres, social centres and social facilities.

Further reading

OECD (2026), "Unpacking place transformation", *OECD Local Economic and Employment Development (LEED) Papers*, No. 2026/12, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/f43500af-en.

OECD (2025), "The role of culture-led regeneration in place transformation", *OECD Local Economic and Employment Development (LEED) Papers*, No. 2025/06, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/4d302bfc-en.

OECD (2025), *Social Connections and Loneliness in OECD Countries*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/6df2d6a0-en.

Weiss, D. et al. (2018), "A global map of travel time to cities to assess inequalities in accessibility in 2015", *Nature*, Vol. 553/7688, pp. 333-336, https://doi.org/10.1038/nature25181.

Figure notes

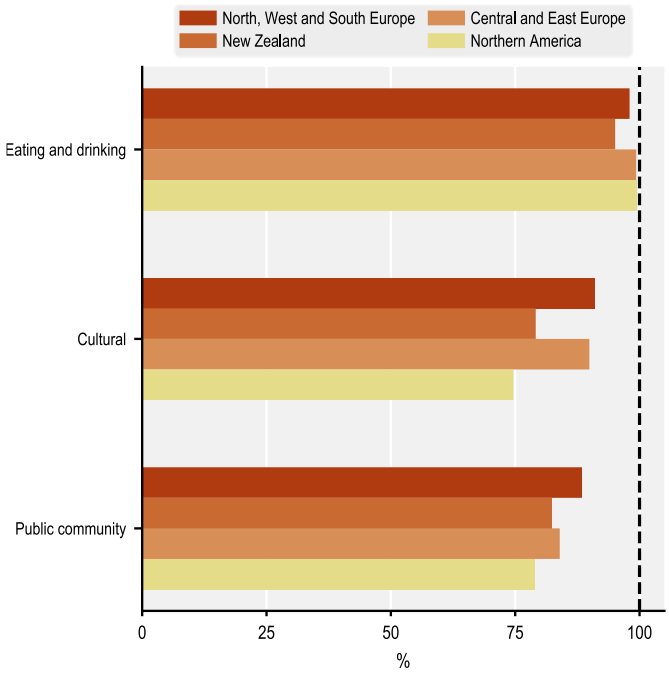
Figure 3.8 to Figure 3.13: Based on Point of Interest (POI) data from OpenStreetMap. See Annex C for details on sample of countries.

Figure 3.8: The analysis groups settlements into population bins which approximately double in size, from 500–1 000 until 512 000–1 024 000 inhabitants. North, West and South Europe: AUT, BEL, CHE, DEU, DNK, ESP, FIN, FRA, GBR, IRL, ISL, ITA, LUX, NLD, NOR, PRT and SWE; Central and East Europe: CZE, EST, HUN, LTU, LVA, POL, SVK and SVN; and Northen America: CAN and USA.

Figure 3.9 and Figure 3.10: Exclude country-category combinations with fewer than five settlements. Travel time refers to number of minutes it takes to get from two points using the fastest transport mode available, calculated from a travel impedance matrix that assumes no congestion (Weiss et al., 2018). Travel from settlement assumes the population-weighted centroid as departure point. Travel to urban centres refers to travel to the edges of the outermost grid cells urban centre.

Figure 3.8. Social infrastructure facilities and settlement size

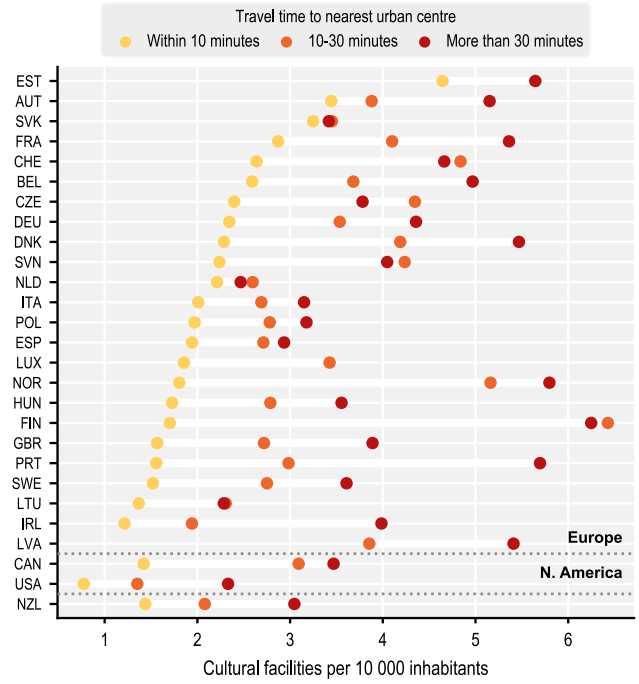
Average change in social infrastructure facilities following a 100% increase in settlement population by world region and facility type (%), 2026



StatLink https://stat.link/k1m9h2

Figure 3.9. Cultural facilities in towns by proximity to the nearest city

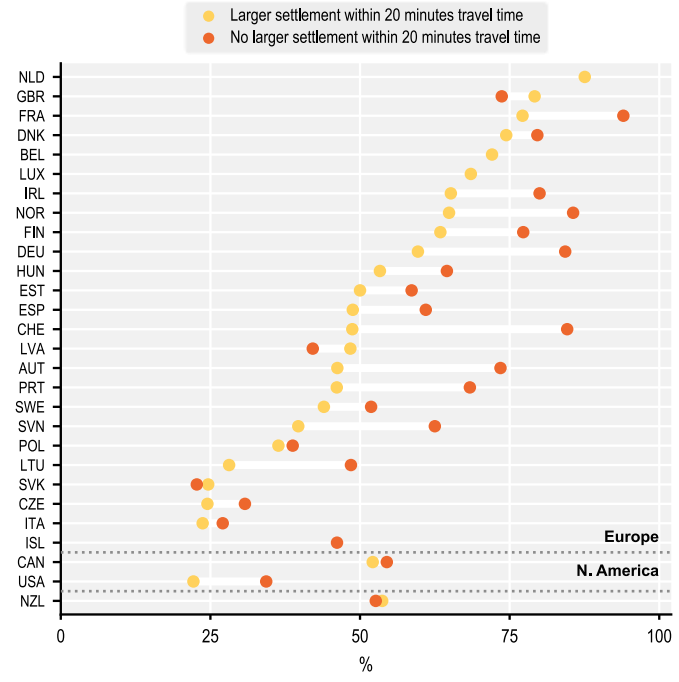
Median number of cultural facilities per 10 000 inhabitants by travel time to the nearest city, 2026



StatLink https://stat.link/2tkcqu

Figure 3.10. Public community facilities in villages by proximity to a larger settlement

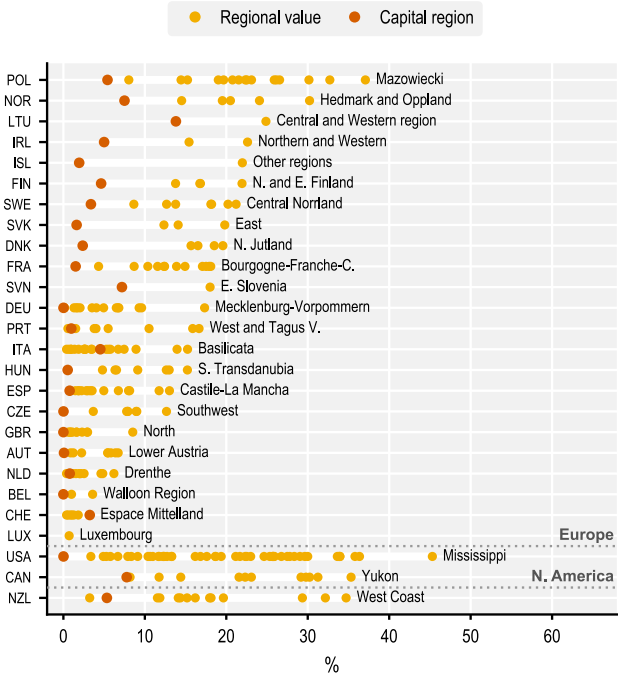
Share of villages with a public community facility by travel time to larger settlement (%), 2026



StatLink https://stat.link/s2mb3a

Figure 3.11. Access to eating and drinking facilities in regions

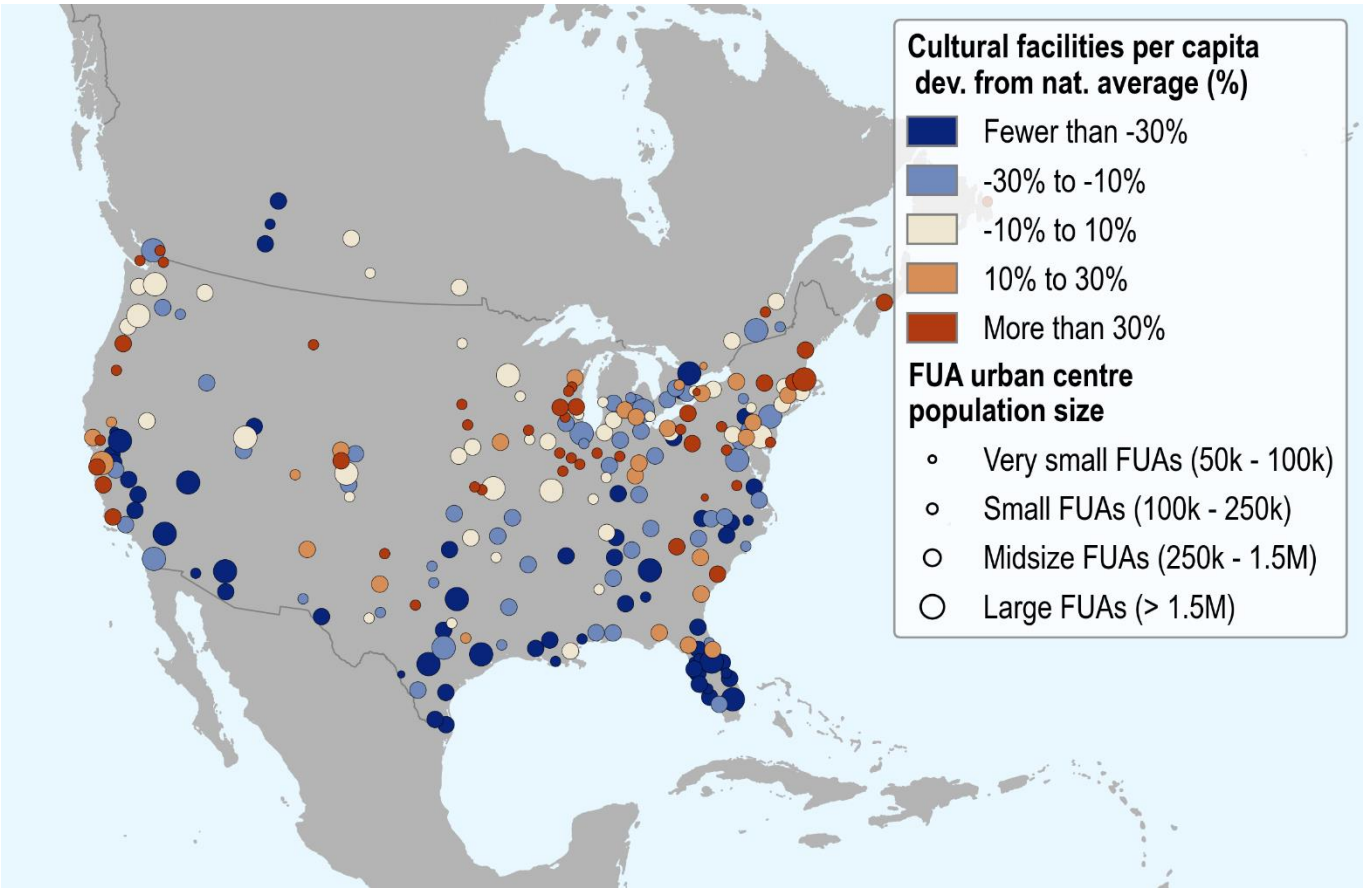
Share of people without access to eating and drinking facilities within a 5-minute trip by TL2 regions (%), 2026



StatLink https://stat.link/crjyqg

Figure 3.12. Cultural facilities in urban centres in North America

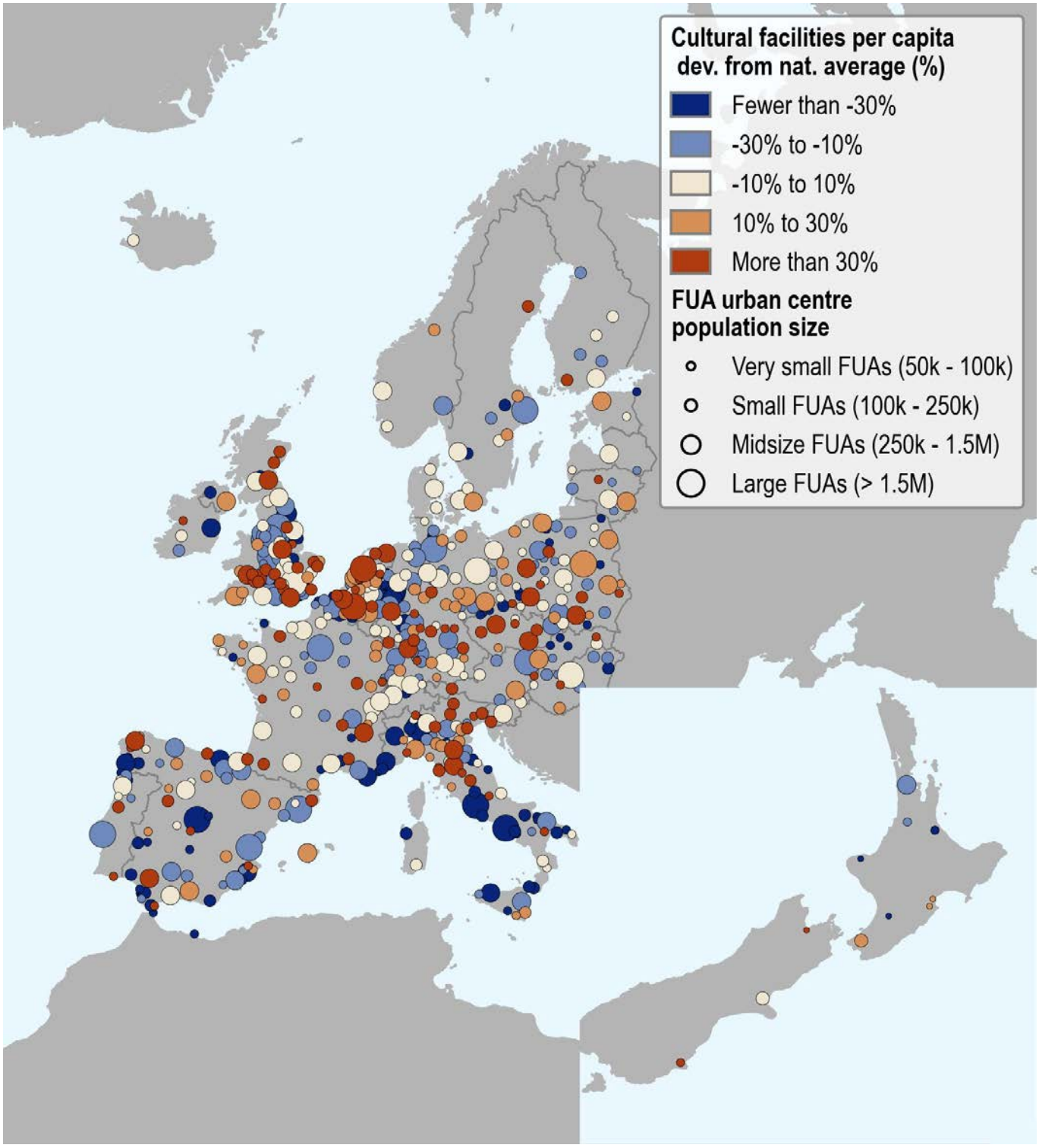
Number of cultural facilities per 10 000 people (percent deviation from the national average), 2026



StatLink https://stat.link/9zoib5

Figure 3.13. Cultural facilities in urban centres in Europe and New Zealand

Number of cultural facilities per 10 000 people (percent deviation from the national average), 2026



StatLink https://stat.link/fkbmns





4. ENVIRONMENT



Impacts of a changing climate

Climate change is intensifying the frequency and severity of hazards such as heatwaves, droughts, floods and wildfires, generating growing economic, environmental and social costs across OECD regions.

Global temperatures remain at historically high levels. After the unprecedented warmth of 2023 and the record-breaking temperatures of 2024, 2025 ranked as the third warmest year on record. Globally, average temperatures in 2025 were 1.47°C above pre-industrial levels, only marginally lower than in 2023, while 2024 remains the hottest year ever recorded and the first to clearly exceed 1.5°C above pre-industrial levels. Early observations suggest that 2026 is also likely to rank among the warmest years on record, with June 2026 becoming the hottest June ever recorded in Western Europe and the second warmest globally. Warming trends vary considerably across regions. During 2021-2025, average air temperatures across OECD large regions were 1.07°C higher than during the 1981-2010 reference period. Nearly one-fifth of OECD large regions experienced warming exceeding 1.5°C, with the largest increases observed in Northern Canada, Norway and Türkiye. The Arctic regions of Jan Mayen and Svalbard experienced the greatest increase, with average temperatures in 2021-2025 reaching 2.7°C above the 1981-2010 average. Canada's Newfoundland and Labrador and Nunavut followed, with increases of 2.2°C (Figure 4.1).

Precipitation patterns are also shifting across OECD countries, with important implications for water resources, ecosystems and agriculture. Many high-latitude and humid regions are becoming wetter and experiencing more frequent extreme precipitation days while already dry regions are becoming drier, though these shifts are often concentrated in specific seasons rather than spread evenly across the year. In North America, precipitation has generally increased in eastern regions, whereas the western United States and northern Mexico have experienced substantial declines, particularly in summer. In Europe, precipitation has increased across much of the north, particularly in winter, but declined in southern and eastern regions, especially in summer. Across the Asia-Pacific, Japan, Korea and, in particular, Indonesia have generally become wetter, while much of inland and southern Australia has experienced substantial drying.

Beyond the OECD, similar shifts are evident in globally significant ecosystems. Between 2021-2025 and the 1981-2010 reference period, the Amazon basin exhibited a marked north-south contrast. The northeastern Amazon has recorded increases in both total precipitation and frequency of extreme precipitation days, while the southern Amazon experienced substantial declines, with cumulative rainfall deficits exceeding 300 mm in some areas. This sustained drying, compounded by deforestation-induced reductions in moisture, raises concerns that parts of the Amazon basin may be approaching a tipping point towards "savannisation", undermining the forest's capacity to maintain itself as a tropical rainforest. The impacts of changing precipitation depend not only on the magnitude of change but also on typical local climate conditions. The same absolute decline in rainfall may have relatively limited consequences in humid regions, such as much of South America, but severe impacts in already water-scarce areas, including large parts of Australia (Figure 4.3 and Figure 4.4).

Heat-related risks are increasing across OECD regions as more frequent extreme heat coincides with population ageing. Older people are particularly vulnerable to heat stress because ageing reduces the body's ability to regulate temperature, while chronic health conditions, such as cardiovascular disease, can be exacerbated during heat waves. During the 1981-2010 reference period, only 16 OECD large regions combined a high share of old-age population (over 20% aged 65 and above) with more than one month of strong heat stress per year. By 2021-2025, this number had increased more than fourfold, to 74 regions. These high-risk regions are concentrated primarily in Japan and around the Mediterranean Basin, including Spain, Italy, Greece, southern France, and Portugal, where rapidly ageing populations coincide with increasingly frequent heat stress. This growing overlap of climate hazard and demographic vulnerability is creating regional hotspots of heat-related risk (Figure 4.2).

Definition

Extreme precipitation days refer to days for which the accumulated precipitation of liquid water equivalent from all phases is above 20 mm.

Strong heat stress days are defined as days for which the Universal Thermal Climate Index (UTCI) exceeds 32 °C. The UTCI measures the impact of atmospheric conditions on the human body by considering air temperature, wind, radiation and humidity.

Further reading

ECMWF (2026), "2025 Global Climate Highlights", European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts, https://climate.copernicus.eu/global-climate-highlights-2025.

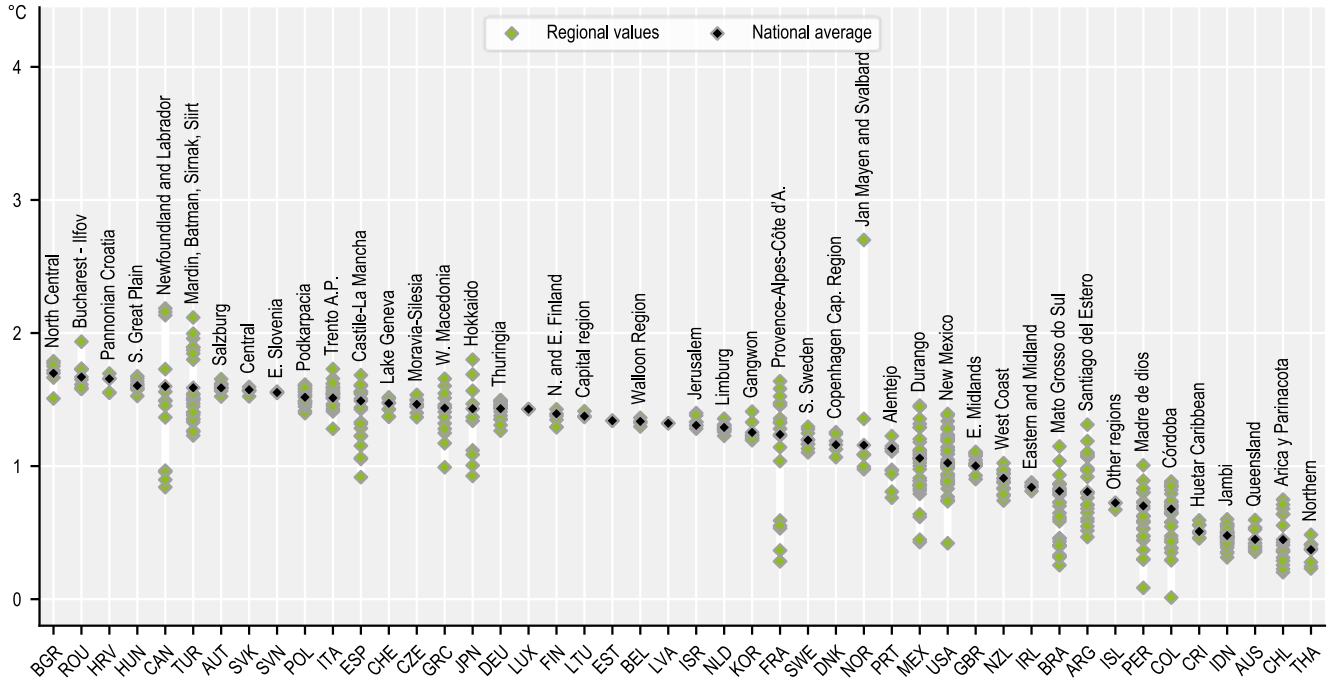
Figure notes

Figure 4.2: See definitions box. OECD candidate accession countries are also included. The dotted line corresponds to an inverse model fitted on the period 1981-2010.

Figure 4.3 and Figure 4.4: See definition box.

Figure 4.1. Air temperature increase in regions

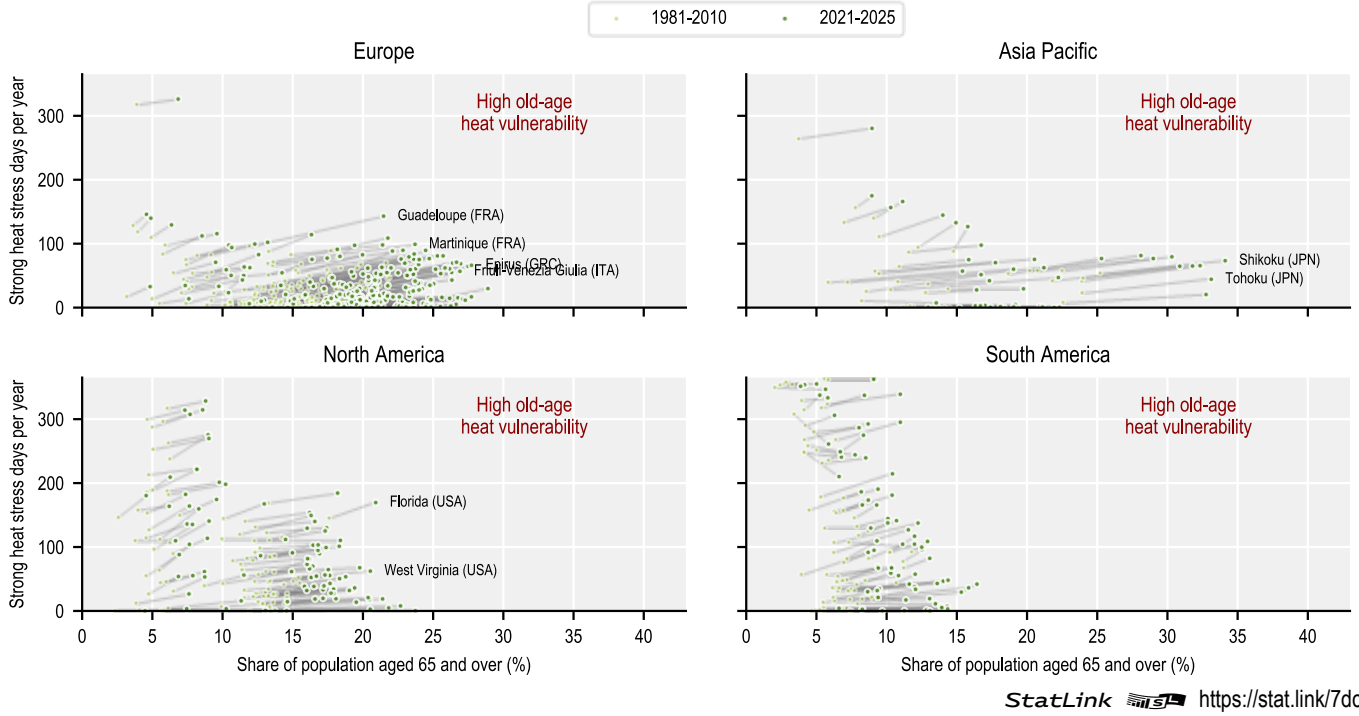
Air temperature change (°C) in 2021-2025 compared to 1981-2010, large regions



StatLink https://stat.link/r7s8ik

Figure 4.2. Old-age vulnerability to heat stress in regions

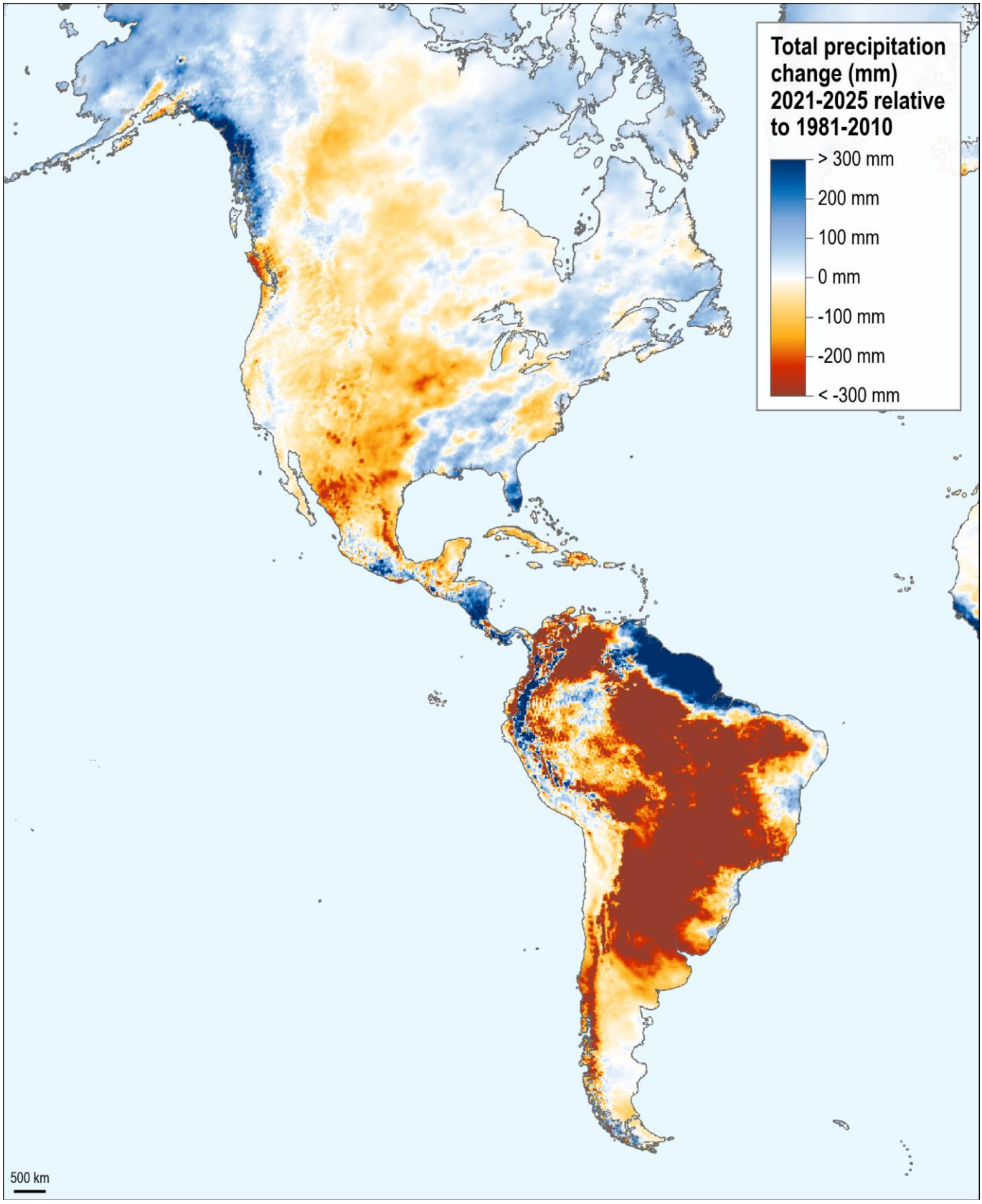
Share of population aged 65 and above and strong heat stress days per year (UTCI > 32 °C), 1981-2010 and 2021-2025, large regions



StatLink https://stat.link/7dca49

Figure 4.3. Total precipitation change – Americas

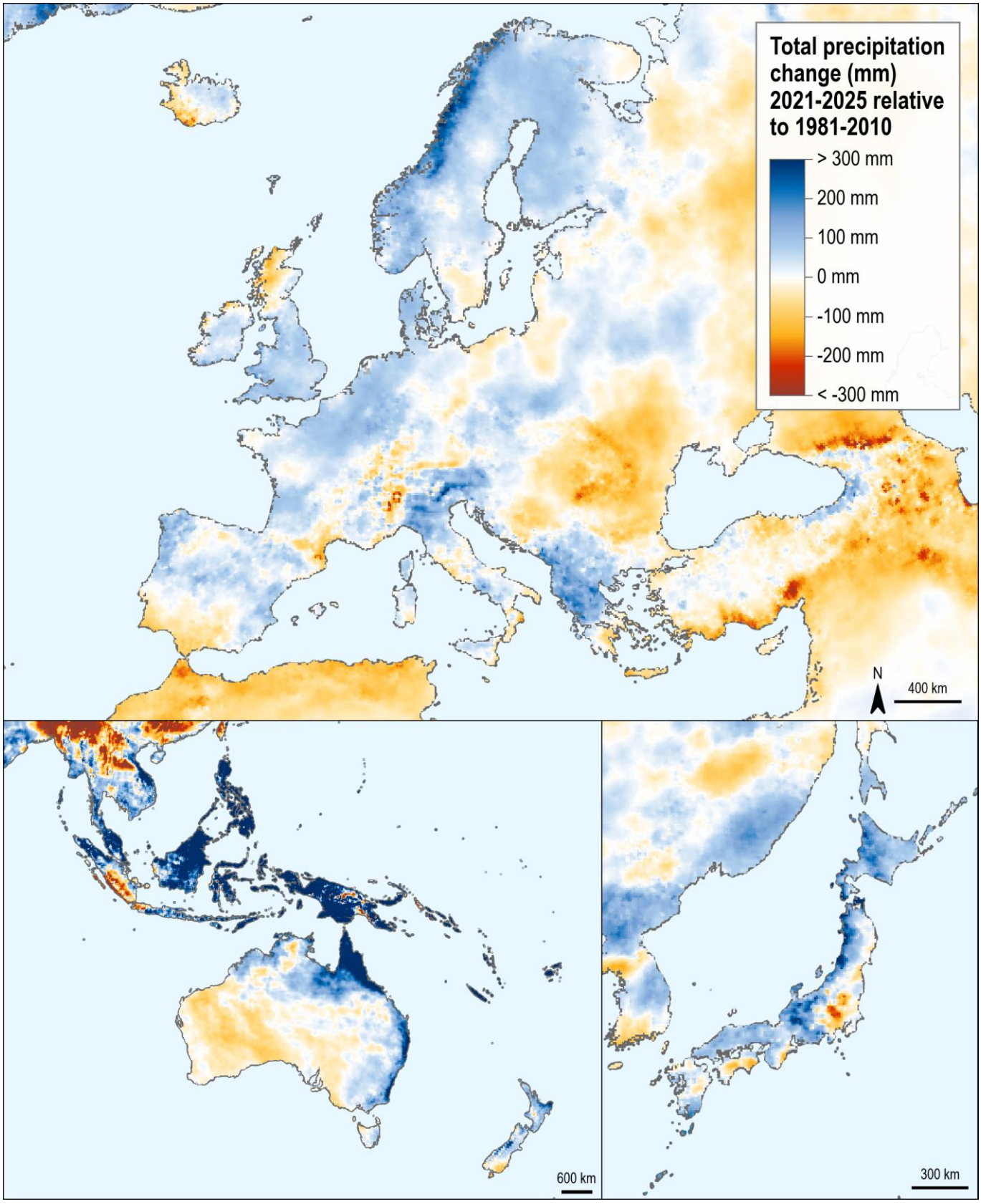
Annual precipitation change in mm/year from 1981-2010 to 2021-2025



StatLink https://stat.link/q9su0r

Figure 4.4. Total precipitation change – Europe and Asia-Pacific

Annual precipitation change in mm/year from 1981-2010 to 2021-2025



StatLink https://stat.link/1fg4wz



Trends in GHG emissions and electrification

GHG emissions in OECD countries have continued to decline, falling below COVID-lockdown levels across all settlement types.

Greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions have continued to decrease in OECD countries in 2024. Emissions fell below the levels observed during COVID-19 lockdown in 2020 across all types of settlements: cities recorded the steepest decline at -2.0%, followed by towns and semi-dense areas at -1.0%, and rural areas at -0.3%. Regional trends, however, tell a more nuanced story. In North America and Oceania emissions in cities have remained broadly stable, emissions in other types of settlements have decreased. In contrast, Asia has followed a different trajectory, with emissions increasing in rural areas, towns and semi-dense areas from 2010 to 2024. South America has also recorded rising emissions in all settlement types, although from a much lower baseline than North America (1.8 Gt CO_2eq in 2010 compared with 8.0 Gt CO_2eq) (Figure 4.5).

Transitioning to net zero requires both decarbonising electricity generation and electrifying most end-use sectors. Progress has been particularly evident in electricity generation. Over the past four years, the share of electricity produced from non-fossil fuel sources increased in 154 out of 222 regions with available data, rising by an average of 4.5 p.p. Some regions have advanced particularly rapidly. Alentejo (Portugal) recorded the largest increase (+45.6 p.p.), supported by abundant solar and wind resources and the availability of land suitable for renewable energy deployment. Cantabria (Spain), Greater Poland and Northwestern Territories (Canada) also record notable increases (Figure 4.6).

Progress in electrifying final energy consumption has been slower and remains insufficient. Electrification has advanced in most OECD regions in recent years, but progress is particularly challenging in regions with energy-intensive industries, where many industrial processes remain difficult to electrify compared to low-temperature heat processes. Under the IEA Net Zero Emissions by 2050 (NZE) Scenario, the share of electricity in total final energy consumption is expected to increase from 20% in 2022 to over 27% in 2030. Yet 84% of OECD regions (162 out of 191) currently fall below this threshold, with many still below a 20% electrification rate. Sweden stands out as a notable outlier, with most of its regions, led by South Sweden, already exceeding the 2030 benchmark. Tasmania (Australia) records one of the highest electrification rates in the OECD, with more than 41% of total final energy consumption. At the other end of the spectrum, several regions in Chile, Canada, the United States, the Slovak Republic and, Poland record electrification rates below 10%. In Alaska, for example, electricity accounts for just 2.8% of the final energy consumption (Figure 4.7).

Definitions

Emissions refer to production-based emissions, i.e. emissions produced within a region, estimated using the Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR) 2025 release (JRC, 2025), and expressed in CO_2 equivalents by considering the four main GHGs – carbon dioxide (CO_2), methane (CH_4), nitrous oxide (N_2O) and fluorinated gases (F-gases) with a 100-year global warming potential. These subnational estimates are not sourced from official government sources and may not fully capture the specific regional circumstances of each country. Emissions from shipping, aviation, land use, land use changes and forestry are excluded.

The **final energy consumption** is the total energy used directly by end users. It excludes energy used by the energy sector, including delivery and transformation. The final energy consumption is available for both different sources and different end sectors. The different end sectors are residential, services (public and commercial), industry, agriculture, transport. The different sources are electricity, natural gas, oil products, coal and coal products, biofuels and waste, heat, and renewables.

Further reading

IEA (2025), *World Energy Outlook 2025*, International Energy Agency, Paris https://www.iea.org/reports/world-energy-outlook-2025, Licence: CC BY 4.0 (report); CC BY NC SA 4.0 (Annex A).

JRC (2025), *EDGAR - The Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research*, European Commission Joint Research Centre, https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset_ghg2025.

Figure notes

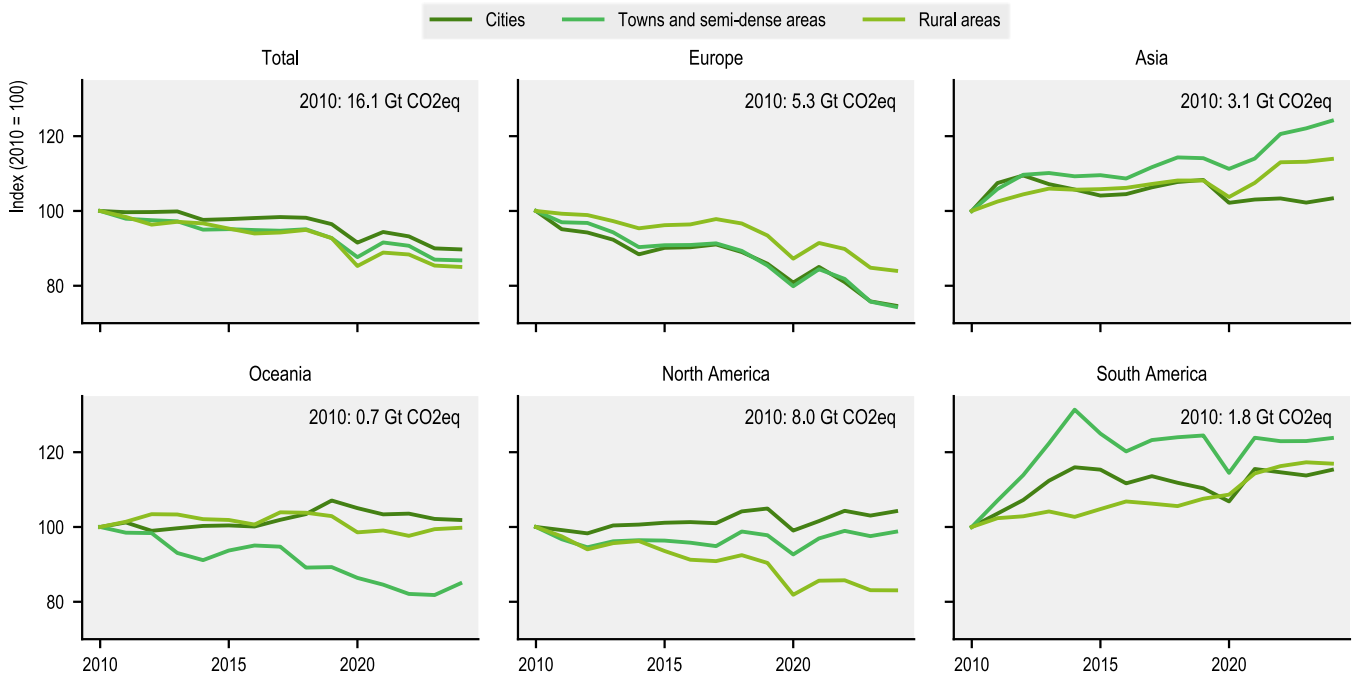
Figure 4.5: GHG emission levels by settlement type, indexed to 2010 = 100. Both OECD and accession candidate countries included. 2010 baseline CO_2eq values shown for each region group.

Figure 4.6: Non-fossil fuel sources include renewables and nuclear. AUS: 2020-2024, CAN: 2018-2022, COL: 2018-2022, DEU: 2017-2021, DNK: 2020-2024, ESP: 2020-2024, FIN: 2019-2023, FRA: 2018-2022, ITA: 2019-2023, JPN: 2019-2023, NOR: 2020-2024, POL: 2020-2024, PRT: 2020-2024, SWE: 2019-2023, USA: 2020-2024.

Figure 4.7: AUS: 2023, AUT: 2023, BEL: 2019, CAN: 2023, CHL: 2023, DEU: 2022, EST: 2024, FRA: 2021, GBR: 2024, JPN: 2022, KOR: 2022, LUX: 2024, LVA: 2024, NLD: 2023, POL: 2022, SVK: 2023, SWE: 2024, USA: 2023.

Figure 4.5. GHG emissions trends by settlement type

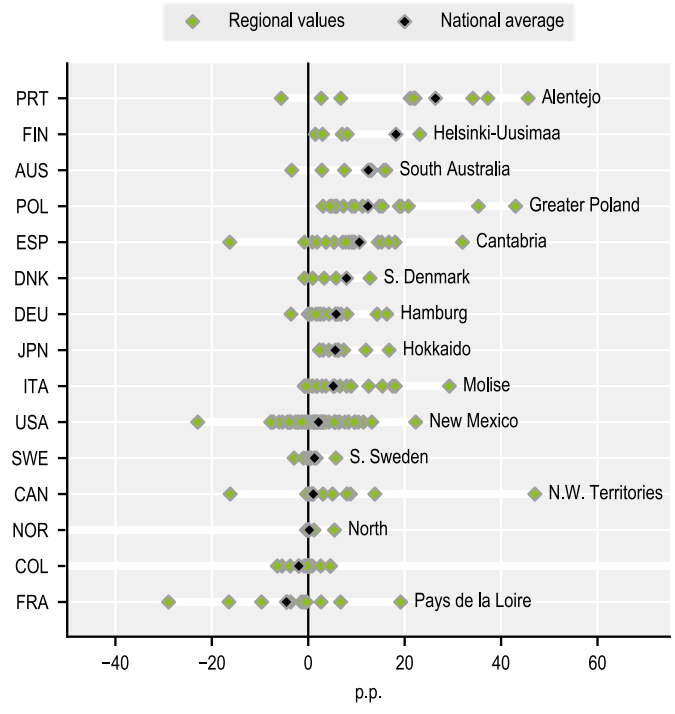
GHG emissions trends from 2010 to 2024 by degree of urbanisation, OECD and accession candidate countries



StatLink https://stat.link/k43df9

Figure 4.6. Diversifying the electricity generation mix in regions

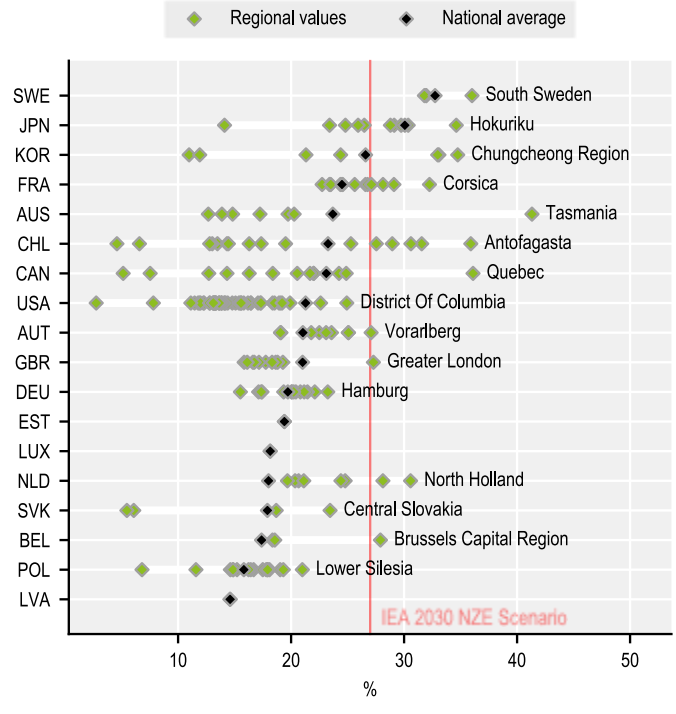
Change in non-fossil fuel electricity generation, 2020 to 2024 or last 4 years of data available, large regions



StatLink https://stat.link/lkoxc3

Figure 4.7. Electrification of end use in regions

Share of electricity in total final energy consumption, 2024 or last year available, large regions



StatLink https://stat.link/i8beuc



Sectoral trends in electrification and energy efficiency

The net-zero transition depends largely on electrifying end-use sectors, yet progress remains uneven, particularly in industry and transport.

The net-zero transition depends largely on electrifying end-use sectors. Most electrification needs can be met through the widespread deployment of electric vehicles and heat pumps, while in the industrial sector, the greatest electrification potential lies in low-temperature heat processes. High-temperature processes such as cement or steel production will likely require alternative solutions such as green hydrogen and carbon capture.

Improving the energy performance of buildings requires both greater energy efficiency and cleaner heating systems. Space heating accounts for the largest share of residential energy consumption in most OECD countries. Modernising the residential sector therefore requires a dual approach: improving the energy efficiency of the building stock through renovation and insulation, while replacing fossil fuel-based heating systems with heat pumps or district heating. Older dwellings generally have lower energy efficiency performance, making the share of dwellings built before 1960 a useful proxy for the scale of the renovation challenge. This challenge is particularly acute in rural areas, where dwellings tend to be larger, older and more costly to retrofit. In 15 out of the 26 countries with available data, rural areas have a higher share of dwellings built before 1960 than cities, towns and semi-dense areas. On average, this share is more than 9 p.p. higher in rural areas than in towns and semi-dense areas. However, it should be noted that this indicator may not fully capture energy efficiency improvements resulting from recent renovation programmes in some countries (Figure 4.8).

Electrification of industry has progressed more slowly, reflecting the technical challenges of decarbonising industrial processes. Today, industrial electrification mainly applies to low-temperature processes (food, paper, light manufacturing and some chemicals) using industrial heat pumps and electric/plasma arc furnaces, already common in secondary steel production. Under the IEA Net Zero Emissions by 2050 (NZE) Scenario, electricity is expected to account for nearly 30% in 2030 of industry's final energy consumption, up from 22.6% in 2022. Yet industrial electrification remains relatively low in most regions: in two third of regions with available data, electricity accounts for less than 30% of industry's final energy consumption. A few regions stand out, such as Stockholm (Sweden), where electrification rates exceed 68%. These regions also have relatively small industrial sectors, with industry contributing only 5-10% of regional gross value added. For high-temperature processes, such as steel, glass and cement production, low-carbon hydrogen from electrolysis is technically available but costlier than fossil-fuel based alternatives. Cement also requires carbon capture to address unavoidable process emissions (Figure 4.9).

The electrification of transport is accelerating, driven by rapid growth in electric vehicle (EV) adoption, although uptake remains geographically uneven. Electric car sales increased by 20% in 2025, surpassing 20 million sales and accounting for one in four new cars sold worldwide. Within and across OECD countries, however, this growth remains spatially uneven. Electric vehicles tend to be more present in capital regions in almost all OECD countries, with Oslo and Viken by far leading with close to 39% of electric vehicles. Regional disparities are also evident in new vehicle sales, although several non-capital regions are catching up. In Salzburg (Austria), for example, close to one-quarter of new private passenger vehicles sold were electric, while in Trøndelag and Northern Norway this share exceeds 90% (Figure 4.10).

Definitions

The **final energy consumption** is the total energy used directly by end users. It excludes energy used by the energy sector, including delivery and transformation.

Passenger vehicles include road vehicles, other than motorcycles, intended for the carriage of passengers; they have less than nine seats, including the driver.

Further reading

IEA (2025), *World Energy Outlook 2025*, International Energy Agency, Paris https://www.iea.org/reports/world-energy-outlook-2025, Licence: CC BY 4.0 (report); CC BY NC SA 4.0 (Annex A).

IEA (2025), *Energy Efficiency 2025*, International Energy Agency, Paris https://www.iea.org/reports/energy-efficiency-2025, Licence: CC BY 4.0.

IEA (2025), *Renewables for Industry*, International Energy Agency, Paris https://www.iea.org/reports/renewables-for-industry, Licence: CC BY 4.0.

IEA (2025), *Global EV Outlook 2025*, International Energy Agency, Paris https://www.iea.org/reports/global-ev-outlook-2025, Licence: CC BY 4.0.

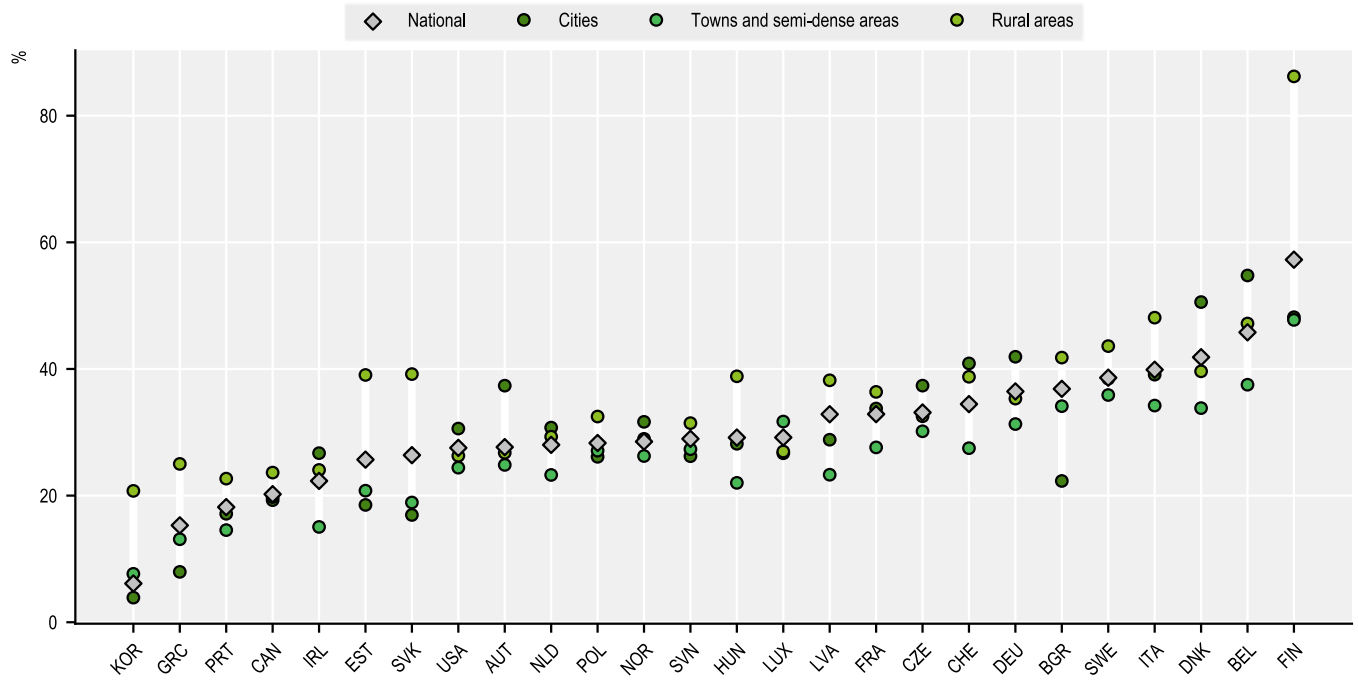
Figure notes

Figure 4.9: AUS: 2023, AUT: 2023, BEL: 2019, CAN: 2023, CHL: 2023, EST: 2024, FRA: 2021, GBR: 2024, JPN: 2022, KOR: 2022, LUX: 2024, LVA: 2024, NLD: 2023, POL: 2022, SWE: 2024, USA: 2023.

Figure 4.10: AUT: 2025, BEL: 2025, CAN: 2021, CHE: 2025, ESP: 2025, EST: 2025, GBR: 2024, GRC: 2024, HRV: 2024, HUN: 2025, IRL: 2025, KOR: 2025, LVA: 2024, NOR: 2025, ROU: 2024, SVK: 2023, SVN: 2024, SWE: 2025, TUR: 2024.

Figure 4.8. Energy efficiency gaps in the residential sector by degree of urbanisation

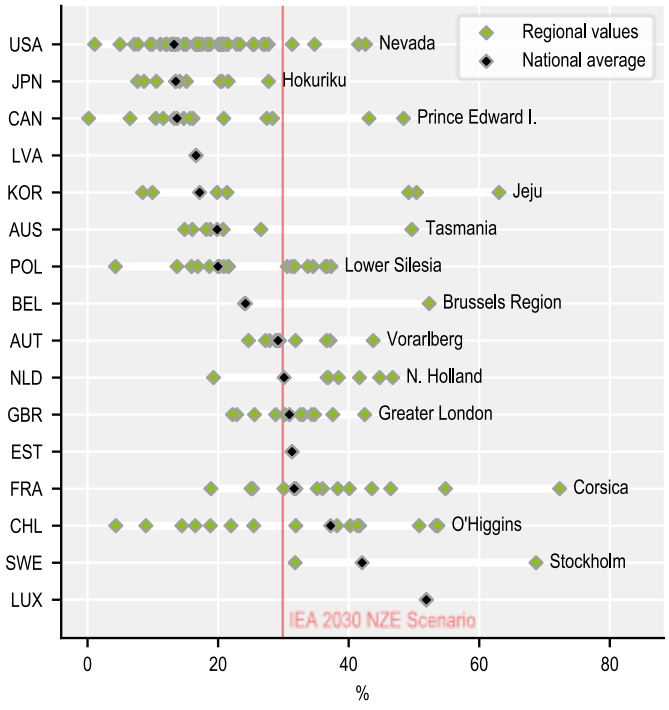
Share of dwellings built before 1960 by degree of urbanisation



StatLink https://stat.link/4i3h8x

Figure 4.9. Electrification of industry in regions

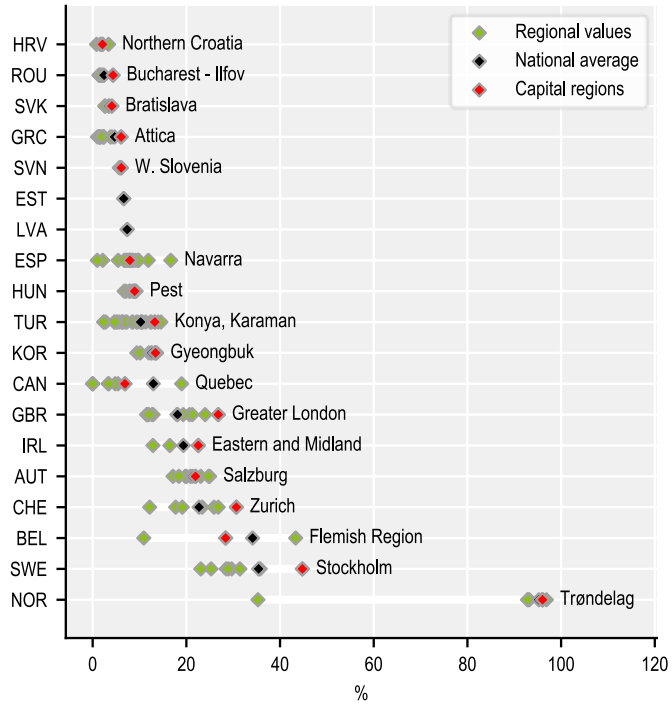
Share of electricity in industry final energy consumption, 2024 or last year available, large regions



StatLink https://stat.link/xl6g7t

Figure 4.10. Electrification of transport in regions

Share of electric vehicles in new private passenger vehicle sales, 2024 or last year available, large regions



StatLink https://stat.link/bc3ia7

Annex A. Description of regions and functional geographies

Table A.1. Territorial grid of OECD Member and accession countries

Country	Territorial level 2 (TL2)	Territorial level 3 (TL3)
OECD Member countries		
AUS	States/territories (8)	Statistical Areas Level 4 and Greater Capital City Statistical Area (50)
AUT	Bundesländer (Federation states) (9)	Gruppen von Politischen Bezirken (Groups of districts) (35)
BEL	Régions (Regions) (3)	Arrondissements (Arrondissements) (44)
CAN	Provinces and territories (13)	Census divisions (293)
CHL	Regions (16)	Provincias (56)
COL	Departamentos y Distrito Capital (Departments and Capital District) (33)	Subregiones (Subregions) (158)
CRI	Regiones de planificación (Planning regions) (6)	Regiones de planificación (Planning regions) (6)
CZE	Oblasti (Oblasts) (8)	Kraje (Regions) (14)
DNK	Regioner (Regions) (5)	Landsdeler (Provinces) (11)
EST	Region (1)	Grup maakondade (Groups of counties) (5)
FIN	Suuralueet (Major regions) (5)	Maakunnat (Regions) (19)
FRA	Régions (Regions) (18)	Départements (Department) (101)
DEU	Länder (States) (16)	Kreise (Districts) (400)
GRC	Perifereies (Regions) (13)	Nomoi or equivalent (Regional units and combination of regional units) (52)
HUN	Tervezési-statisztikai régiók (Planning statistical regions) (8)	Megyék (Counties) and Budapest (20)
ISL	Höfuðborgarsvæðið (Capital Region) + Landsbyggð (rest of country) (2)	Landshlutum (regions) (8)
IRL	Groups Regional Authority Regions (3)	Regional Authority Regions (8)
ISR	Districts (6)	Districts (6)
ITA	Regioni (Regions) (21)	Province (Provinces) (107)
JPN	Groups of prefectures (10)	Prefectures (47)
KOR	Regions (7)	Special city, metropolitan area and province (17)
LVA	Region (1)	Statistiskie regioni (Statistical regions) (5)
LTU	Regionas (Regions) (2)	Apskritis (Counties) (10)
LUX	State (1)	State (1)
MEX	Estados (States) (32)	Grupos de municipios (Groups of municipalities) (209)
NLD	Provincies (Provinces) (12)	COROP-regio's (COROP regions) (40)
NZL	Regional councils (14) (14)	Regional councils (14) (14)
NOR	Landsdeler (Regions) (7)	Fylker (Counties) (17)
POL	Regiony (Regions) (17)	Podregiony (Subregions) (73)
PRT	Comissaoes de coordenaçao e desenvolvimento regional e regioes autonomas (9)	Grupos de municipios (Groups of municipalities) (26)
SVK	Oblasti (Groups of Regions) (4)	Kraj (Regions) (8)
SVN	Kohezijske regije (Cohesion regions) (2)	Statisticne regije (Statistical reigons) (12)
ESP	Comunidades autonomas (Autonomous communities) (19)	Provincias (Provinces) (59)
SWE	Riksomraden (National areas) (8)	Län (Counties) (21)
CHE	Grandes regions (7)	Cantons (26)
TUR	Regions (26)	Provinces (81)
GBR	Regions and countries (12)	Upper tier authorities or groups of lower tier authorities or groups of

Country	Territorial level 2 (TL2)	Territorial level 3 (TL3)
		unitary authorities or LECs or groups of districts (179) (182)
USA	States and the District of Columbia (51)	Economic areas (179)
OECD accession candidate countries		
BRA	Estados + districto federal (27)	
BGR	Planning regions/Rayoni za planirane (6)	Podregion (Oblasts) (28)
HRV	Statistical regions (4)	županije (Counties) and City of Zagreb (21)
IDN	Provinces (34)	
PER	Departamentos plus the provincia constitucional de Callao (Regions) (25)	Provincias (Provinces) (196)
ROU	Regions/Regiuni (8)	Județe + București (Counties and Bucharest) (42)

Note: OECD Territorial Level 2024 regional classification (TL-2024).

Table A.2. Labour market areas delineated by national statistical offices and other government agencies

Country	LMA name	Institutional source
Australia	Working zones	https://www.bitre.gov.au/sites/default/files/is_98.pdf
Canada	Self-contained labor areas	https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/daily-quotidien/240917/dq240917d-eng.htm
Denmark	Pendlingsområder	https://www.dst.dk/Site/Dst/SingleFiles/GetArchiveFile.aspx?fi=formid&fo=pendlingsomraader&ext=%7B2%7D
France	Zones d'emploi	https://www.insee.fr/fr/information/4652957
Germany	Arbeitsmarktregionen	https://mis.bkg.bund.de/trefferanzeige?docuuid=444ACC5F-0F13-4946-B3B7-B375AFD51B57
Hungary	Labour market areas	Obtained directly from the country
Japan	Commuting zones	http://www.rieti.go.jp/en/columns/v01_0152.html
Italy	Sistemi locali del lavoro	https://www.istat.it/statistiche-per-temi/focus/informazioni-territoriali-e-cartografiche/statistiche-sul-territorio/sistemi-locali-del-lavoro-e-distretti-industria
Mexico	Mercados de trabajo locales	https://www.banxico.org.mx/apps/datasets/merclab/%7B2BB5ECD9-4503-30DD-93A3-B70FFE6A52FF%7D.pdf
Netherlands	Arbeidsmarktregio	https://www.cbs.nl/nl-nl/dossier/nederland-regionaal/geografische-data/cbs-gebiedsindelingen
Norway	Bo- og arbeidsmarkedsregioner	https://www.regjeringen.no/no/dokumenter/inndeling-av-kommuner-i-bo--og-arbeidsmarkedsregioner/id2662614/
Sweden	Lokala arbetsmarknader	https://www.scb.se/hitta-statistik/statistik-efter-amne/arbetsmarknad/utbud-av-arbetskraft/registerbaserad-arbetsmarknadsstatistik-rams/produktrelaterat/Fordjupad-information/lokala-arbetsmarknader-la/
Switzerland	Arbeitsmarktgrossregionen	https://www.agvchapp.bfs.admin.ch/de/boundaries?SnapshotDate=06.04.2025&Unit=GBAE2018
United Kingdom	Travel to work areas	https://geoportal.statistics.gov.uk/search?q=TTWA%20Boundaries&sort=Date%20Updated%7Cmodified%7Cdesc
United States	Commuting zones	https://www.ers.usda.gov/data-products/commuting-zones-and-labor-market-areas

Annex B. Sources and data description

Table B.1. List of variables

Chapter – Indicator
Competitiveness – Gross domestic product (GDP), GDP per capita in large regions (TL2)
Competitiveness – Labour productivity growth and by industry in large regions (TL2)
Competitiveness – Share of employment exposed to GenAI in large regions (TL2)
Competitiveness – Share of tertiary-educated population in large regions (TL2)
Competitiveness – Share of firms adopting AI in large regions (TL2)
Competitiveness – Share of venture capital (VC) funding in small regions (TL3)
Competitiveness – Patent location quotient in FUAs
Demography and labour – Population in small regions (TL3) and metropolitan regions (TL3C) (population change, old-age dependency ratio)
Demography and labour – Natural change, births in small regions (TL3)
Demography and labour – Natural change, deaths in small regions (TL3)
Demography and labour – Population projection 2025-2045 in small regions (TL3)
Demography and labour – Population internal inflows, internal net flows in small regions (TL3)
Demography and labour – Population international net flows in small regions (TL3)
Demography and labour – Labour force in LMAs (unemployment rates, working-age population)
Demography and labour – Share of foreign-born population in LMAs
Well-being – Income in metropolitan regions (TL3)
Well-being – Housing prices in metropolitan regions (TL3C) and FUAs
Well-being – Changes in housing supply in FUAs
Well-being – Vacant dwellings and secondary residencies within and outside FUAs
Well-being – Life satisfaction in large regions (TL2), social connections by degree of urbanisation
Well-being – Institutional trust in small regions (TL3)
Well-being – Social infrastructure facilities (eating and drinking, cultural, public community)
Environment – Air temperature, precipitation in large regions (TL2) and at grid level
Environment – Strong heat stress days in large regions (TL2)
Environment – Greenhouse gas emissions by degree of urbanisation
Environment – Non-fossil fuel electricity generation in large regions (TL2)
Environment – Share of electricity in total final energy consumption in large regions (TL2)
Environment – Share of dwellings built before 1960 by degree of urbanisation
Environment – Share of electric vehicles in new private passenger vehicle sales in large regions (TL2)

Competitiveness – Gross domestic product (GDP), GDP per capita, large regions (TL2)

Country	Source	Last available year
EU countries[1], CHE, NOR[2] and TUR	Eurostat, Regional economic accounts - Gross domestic product (GDP) at current market prices by NUTS 2 region (nama_10r_3gdp) and Average annual population to calculate regional GDP data by NUTS3 region (nama_10r_3popgdp)	2024
AUS	Australian National Accounts: State Accounts, Table 1. Gross State Product. Figures based on fiscal year Y (July-June) restated to Y-1 calendar year	2024
BRA	Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística (IBGE), SCR - System of Regional Accounts	2023
CAN	Statistics Canada, Provincial economic accounts, Table 36-10-0222-01 Gross domestic product, expenditure-based, provincial and territorial, annual	2024
CHL	Banco Central de Chile, Base de Datos Estadísticos (BDE) - Cuentas nacionales - Producto interno bruto por región, referencia 2018	2024

Country	Source	Last available year
COL	DANE - PIB total por departamentos	2024
GBR	ONS - Gross domestic product (GDP) at current market prices (Table 5)	2023
JPN	Economic and Social Research Institute, Cabinet Office, data are based on fiscal year (April-March) Prefectural Accounts (FY2011 - FY2022) (2008SNA, FY2015 Base Figures) - 40 prefectures, 3 designated cities - Gross Prefectural Product (Production Side, Nominal)	2022
KOR	KOSIS - Korean Regional Accounts	2024
MEX	INEGI, System of national accounts of Mexico, PIB por entidad federativa. Base 2018	2024
NZL	Statistics New Zealand, Regional gross domestic product: Year ended March 2025	2024
USA	Bureau of Economic Analysis, SAGDP1 - State annual gross domestic product (GDP) summary	2024

1. EU countries: TL2, except EST and LVA with last available year 2023.
2. NOR: lack of time series in NUTS2024 classification.
Source: OECD Data Explorer: OECD Regions, Cities and Local Areas Database (Gross domestic product - Regions).

Competitiveness – Labour productivity growth and by industry, large regions (TL2)

Country	Source	Last available year
EU countries[1], CHE, NOR and TUR	Eurostat, Regional economic branch accounts: Gross value added at basic prices by NUTS 3 region (nama_10r_3gva) and Employment (thousand persons) by NUTS 3 region (nama_10r_3empers)	2024
AUS	• Australian National Accounts: State Accounts, Tables 2 to 10 Expenditure, Income and Industry Components of Gross State Product. Based on fiscal year Y (July-June) restated to Y-1 calendar year • Labour Force, Australia: Table 05. Employed persons by State, Territory and Industry division of main job	2023
BRA	Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística (IBGE), https://www.ibge.gov.br/en/statistics/economic/national-accounts/16855-regional-accounts-of-brazil.html	2023
CAN[2]	• Statistics Canada, Provincial economic accounts. GVA is sourced from Statistics Canada as follows: Table 36-10-0711-01 provides TL2 GVA by industry in current and constant prices; Table 36-10-0710-01 provides Canada-level (TL1) current-price GVA by industry; and Table 36-10-0434-01 provides the monthly constant-price series used to construct annual Canada-level GVA. For missing recent current-price GVA, the latest available GVA/GDP ratio is applied to GDP from Table 36-10-0222-01; the resulting total GVA is then allocated across industries using the latest industry GVA percentage shares from Table 36-10-0400-01 • Table 14-10-0466-02 Employment by industry and economic region, annual	2023
CHL	• Banco Central de Chile, Base de Datos Estadísticos (BDE) – https://si3.bcentral.cl/Siete/ES/Siete/Cuadro/CAP_CCNN/MN_CCNN76/CCNN2013_P1/CCNN2013_P1 • SIMELChile Población ocupada según rama de actividad económica nacional y regional	2022
COL	• DANE, Directorate of Synthesis and National Accounts - Resultados por actividad económica • Gran Encuesta Integrada de Hogares (GEIH): employment data provided by country	2024
GBR	• ONS, Workplace based GVA at current basic prices https://www.ons.gov.uk/economy/grossvalueaddedgva • - Workforce jobs by region and industry JOBS05	2023
JPN	Economic and Social Research Institute, Cabinet Office, data are based on fiscal year (April-March). Prefectural Accounts (FY2011 - FY2022) (2008SNA, FY2015 Base Figures) - 40 prefectures, 3 designated cities - Gross Prefectural Product by Economic Activity (Nominal) https://www.esri.cao.go.jp/jp/sna/data/data_list/kenmin/files/contents/main_2022.html	2022
KOR	• KOSIS Korean Regional Accounts • KOSIS Employed persons by industry	2024
MEX	• INEGI, System of National Accounts of Mexico - PIB por entidad federativa. Base 2018 • Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo (ENOE)	2024
NZL	• Statistics New Zealand, Regional gross domestic product • Household Labour Force Survey (HLF) - Infoshare table: Person Employed by Sex by Industry (ANZSIC06) by Regional Council (Annual-Dec), https://infoshare.stats.govt.nz	2024
USA	• Bureau of Economic Analysis, SAGDP2 - GDP by industry in current dollars • Total full-time and part-time employment by industry (SA25, SA25N) CAEMP25N, https://apps.bea.gov/	2022

1. EU countries: TL2, except EST and LVA with last available year 2023.
2. The Canadian NAICS classification does not fully align with the ISIC Rev.4 aggregates in three cases for employment by industry: "Forestry, fishing, mining, quarrying, oil and gas [21, 113–114, 1153, 2100]" is classified under IND_10_VB_E but includes ISIC A and B activities; "Information, culture and recreation [51, 71]" under IND_10_VJ includes J and R activities; and "Finance, insurance, real estate, rental and leasing [52–53]" under IND_10_VK includes K and L activities.
Source: OECD Data Explorer: OECD Regions, Cities and Local Areas Database (Labour productivity by main economic activity - Regions).

Competitiveness – Share of employment exposed to GenAI in large regions (TL2)

Country	Source	Year
All countries	GenAI exposure from OECD calculations based on (Eloundou et al., 2024[1]), labour force surveys, and employment by occupation tables. See Annex 3.A. of (OECD, 2024[2]) for more details.	2024 or latest year available

Competitiveness – Share of tertiary-educated population in large regions (TL2)

Country	Source	Year
EU27, NOR and CHE	Eurostat regional statistics, Population by educational attainment level, sex and NUTS 2 region (%), table edat_lfse_04	2025
AUS	Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), Education and work - 11: Highest educational attainment, Tables 21-23 - Table 21	2021
CAN	Statistics Canada, Table 14-10-0019-01 Labour force characteristics by educational attainment, monthly, unadjusted for seasonality	2024
MEX	INEGI Mexico, Censo de Poblacion y Vivienda (2020); National Survey of Occupation and Employment - New Edition (ENOEN), 2021-2022; and the National Employment and Occupation Survey (ENOE), 2005-2019 and 2023-2024	2025
NZL	Statistics New Zealand, Household labour force survey	2020
GBR	Office for National Statistics (ONS), Department for Education - Data provided by country	2025
USA	U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, American Community Survey (ACS). Data provided by country	2024

OECD Data Explorer: OECD Regions, Cities and Local Areas Database (Educational attainment - Regions).

Competitiveness – Share of firms adopting AI in large regions (TL2)

Country	Source	Year
EU	Eurostat, https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/isoc_r_eb_ain2/default/table	2025

Competitiveness – Share of venture capital (VC) funding in small regions (TL3)

Country	Source	Years
All countries	Authors' elaboration based on OECD Start-up database (Berger et al., 2026[3]) developed from Crunchbase and Dealroom data	2020-2024

Competitiveness – Patent location quotient in FUAs

Country	Source	Year
All countries	Authors' elaboration based on OECD, STI Micro-data Lab: Intellectual Property Database, http://oe.cd/ipstats	2024

Patent data refer to patent applications at the internationalisation phase filled under the Patent Cooperation Treaty (PCT) at the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO). Patent counts are based on the inventor's region of residence. Patent rates at the subnational level may be influenced by "headquarters effects" when patents are registered under a company's headquarters address rather than the site of the actual inventive activity. This bias may inflate patent rates in areas with a high concentration of headquarters, which are often large cities or capital-city regions.

Demography and labour – Population in small regions (TL3) and metropolitan regions (TL3C) (population change, old-age dependency ratio)

Country	Source	Population change Last (First) ref. years	Old-age dependency reference year
EU27[1]	Eurostat, Eurostat regional statistics, Population on 1 January by five-year age group, sex and NUTS 3 region, table demo_r_pjangrp3	2023-24 (2005-06)	2024
AUS	Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), estimated population at 30 June. Data explorer Quarterly Population Estimates (ERP), by State/Territory, Sex and Age	2023-24 (2007-08)	2023
CAN	Statistics Canada, Table 17-10-0152-01 Population estimates, July 1, by census division, 2021 boundaries	2023-24 (2005-06)	2023
CHL	Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas (INE), Chile, Population estimates (2017 base) and 2002–2035 projections	2023-24 (2013-14)	2023

Country	Source	Population change Last (First) ref. years	Old-age dependency reference year
COL	Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadistica (DANE), National and Departmental Estimates 1985-2005 and Projections 2005-onwards	2023-24 (2005-06)	2024
CRI	National Institute of Statistics and Census (INEC), Estadísticas demográficas. Estimaciones y proyecciones nacionales de población 1950 – 2100. Population as of 30 June	2023-24 (2005-06)	2023
ISL	Statistics Iceland, population 1 January, Population by municipality, age and sex.	2021-22 (2005-06)	2023
ISR	Central Bureau of Statistics Israel (CBS), Regional data provided by the delegate of the Working Party on Territorial Indicators. De jure population on 31 December adjusted to 1 January following year. National values from OECD Data Explorer • Historical population data	2022-23 (2010-11)	2022
JPN	Statistics Bureau, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, e-Stat - Population on 1 October, Population Estimates Annual Report	2023-24 (2005-06)	2024
KOR	Statistics Korea, KOSIS - Resident Population in Five-Year Age Groups (2011~). Derived from resident registration. Excludes foreigners. End of year (12.31) restated to 1 January	2023-24 (2005-06)	2024
MEX	INEGI Mexico, National Population Council (CONAPO): demographic reconciliation (pre-2020) and population projections (2020 onward). Mid-year estimates	2015 (2000)	2021
NZL	Statistics New Zealand, Aoteroa Data Explorer - Subnational population component changes (2025 boundaries). Estimated Resident Population (ERP) at 30 June	2023 (2006)	2023
NOR	Statistics Norway (SSB), Statbank table 07459: Population at 1st of January	2023-24 (2005-06)	2024
CHE	Swiss Federal Statistical Office (FSO), Population and Households Statistics (STATPOP)	2023-24 (2005-06)	2024
TUR	Türkiye Statistical Institute (TUIK), TurkStat - Central Dissemination System - Address Based Population Registration System (ABPRS). De jure population on 31 December adjusted to 1 January following year	2023-24 (2008-08)	2024
GBR	Office for National Statistics (ONS), Estimates of the population for the UK, England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. Mid-year population	2023-24 (2005-06)	2024
USA	U.S. Census Bureau, United States Census Bureau - POPEST State and County Population Estimates. Population on 1 July	2015-17 (2009-11)	2023

1. EU countries population change 2023-24 (2005-06), except DNK 2023-24 (2006-07); DEU 2022-23 (2005-06) ; FRA 2019-20 (2013-14) ; GRC and PRT (2021-2011) ; IRL 2022 ; LVA 2023-24 (2011-12) ; and ROU 2014-15 (2005-06).
Source: OECD Data Explorer: OECD Regions, Cities and Local Areas Database (Population by broad age groups - Regions; Dependency rates - Regions).

Demography and labour – Natural change, Births in small regions

Country	Source
EU27, NOR, CHE & TUR	Eurostat regional statistics, Live births (total) by NUTS 3 region, table demo_r_births
AUS	Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), Statistics about births and fertility rates for Australia, states and territories, and sub-state regions
CAN	Statistics Canada, Table 17-10-0153-01, Components of population change by census division, 2021 boundaries
CHL	Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas (INE), Chile, Estadísticas Vitales – REDATAM
COL	Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadistica (DANE), Estadísticas vitales de nacimientos y defunciones
CRI	National Institute of Statistics and Census (INEC), Vital statistics
ISL	Statistics Iceland, Live births by domicile of mother
ISR	Central Bureau of Statistics Israel (CBS), Regional data provided by the delegate of the Working Party on Territorial Indicators
JPN	Statistics Bureau, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, e-Stat - Vital Statistics, Natality
KOR	Statistics Korea, KOSIS - Live Births by Age Group of Mother, Sex and Birth Order for Provinces
MEX	INEGI Mexico, OECD estimates based on INEGI. Subsistema de Información Demográfica y Social – Natalidad
NZL	Health New Zealand, Group: Births - VSB Table: Live births by area, regional councils, and age of mother (Annual-Dec)
GBR	• Office for National Statistics (ONS), England & Wales - Birth characteristics • National Records of Scotland (NRS), Scotland - Births Time Series Data - Table 4: Number of births by sex, year and council area, 1991 to 2024 • - Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency (NISRA), Northern Ireland - Registrar General Annual Report 2023 Births, Table 3.15b

Source: OECD Data Explorer: OECD Regions, Cities and Local Areas Database (Fertility - Regions).

Demography and labour – Natural change, Deaths in small regions (TL3)

Country	Source
EU27 plus CHE, NOR, and TUR	Eurostat regional statistics, Deaths by age, sex and age, table demo_r_magec3
AUS	Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), Deaths, Year of occurrence, Age at death, Age-specific death rates, Sex, States, Territories and Australia
AUS	Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW) – Data Explorer Life expectancy & deaths
CAN	Statistics Canada, Table 17-10-0153-01 Components of population change by census division, 2021 boundaries
CHL	Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas (INE), Chile, Estadísticas Vitales
COL	Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadistica (DANE), Directorate of Census and Demography - Non-fetal deaths
CRI	National Institute of Statistics and Census (INEC), Vital statistics information, Estadísticas Vitales 2023. Cuadros, gráficos y figuras de: población, nacimientos, defunciones, matrimonios
ISL	Statistics Iceland, Deaths by municipalities, sex and age
ISR	Central Bureau of Statistics Israel (CBS), Regional data provided by the country. National values from OECD Data Explorer • Health status
JPN	Statistics Bureau, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, e-Stat - Vital Statistics, MHLW Japan
KOR	Statistics Korea, KOSIS - Vital statistics for Provinces
MEX	INEGI Mexico, Vital Statistics. Deaths correspond to the Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems ICD-10
NZL	Statistics New Zealand, Births and Deaths Year ended
GBR	• Office for National Statistics (ONS), England & Wales - Nomis Mortality statistics - underlying cause, sex and age • National Records of Scotland (NRS), Deaths Time Series Data • Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency (NISRA), Registrar General Annual Report Deaths

Source: OECD Data Explorer: OECD Regions, Cities and Local Areas Database (Deaths by 5-year age groups - Regions).

Demography and labour – Population projections 2025-2045 in small regions (TL3)

Country	Source	Last available year
EU27, NOR, CHE	Eurostat regional statistics, Population on 1st January by age, sex, type of projection, 2019-2100, table proj_25rp5, Middle scenario	2045
AUS	Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), Data Explorer Population Projections by Region, 2022-2071, base 2022 medium scenario for fertility, mortality, net overseas migration and net interstate migration	2045
CAN	Statistics Canada, Table: 17-10-0057-01 - Projected population, by projection scenario, 2024-2074, base 2024. Medium growth scenario for births, deaths, internal and international migration flows	2045
CHL	Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas (INE), Chile, Proyecciones de población 2015-2035, base 2015	2035
COL	Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadistica (DANE), Proyecciones de población 2018-2070, base 2018	2035
ISL	Not available	2045
ISR	National Economic Council, Regional Population Scenarios for the State of Israel 2020-2050, base 2020. Medium scenario regional data provided by the delegate of the Working Party on Territorial Indicators. National values from OECD Data Explorer • Population projections	2045
JPN	National Institute of Population and Social Security Research (IPSS), Regional Population Projections 2020-2050, base 2020	2045
KOR	Statistics Korea, KOSIS - Projected Population by Age(Province) 1970-2052, base 2022. Projections based on a medium growth scenario	2045
MEX	INEGI Mexico, Proyecciones subnacionales de población 2020 - 2070, base 2020	2040
NZL	Statistics New Zealand, Subnational population projections: 2023(base)–2053/	2045
USA	NASA SEDAC, Population projections for all U.S. counties by age, sex, and race controlled to the Shared Socioeconomic Pathways, base 2020. Projections based on the SSP2-4.5 Middle-of-the-road scenario	2045

Demography and labour – Population internal inflows, internal net flows in small regions (TL3)

Country	Source	First years (Last years)
AUS	Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), (NIM_CY) Interstate migration: Arrivals, departures and net, State/territory, Age and sex	2010-11 (2022-24)
AUT	Statistics Austria, STATcube - Internal migration within Austria acc.to communes from 2002 (status of 2025)	2010-11 (2022-24)
BEL	Statistics Belgium, Statbel Demobel - Federal Public Service (FPS) Economy / Statistics Belgium	2010-11 (2022-24)
BGR	National Statistical Insitute, Migration of the population between districts	2010-11 (2022-24)
CAN	Statistics Canada, Table 17-10-0015-01 Interprovincial migrants, by age group and sex, Canada, provinces and territories, annual	2010-11 (2022-24)

CHE	Swiss Federal Statistical Office (FSO), STAT-TAB - Internal migration of the permanent resident population by cantons of destination and origin	2010-11 (2022-24)
CHL	Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas (INE), Chile, 2024 Census Población y vivienda - Migración interna	2013-15 (2024)
COL	Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadistica (DANE), Demografía y población - Movilidad y migración. Data provided by the delegate of the Working Party on Territorial Indicators	
CZE	Czech Statistical Office (CZSO), Migration	2010-11 (2022-24)
DEU	Federal Statistical Office of Germany, Regionaldatenbank Deutschland - Migration statistics (Table 12711)	2010-11 (2021-23)
DNK	Statistics Denmark, StatBank Table FLY66: Internal migration between municipalities by sex, age and municipality	2010-11 (2022-24)
ESP	Instituto Nacional de Estadística (INE), INEbase - Interprovincial migration flow by year, province of origin and destination, sex	2010-11 (2022-24)
EST	Statistics Estonia, Estonian Social Survey. Statistical database - RVR061: internal migration by county, age group, type of settlement region and sex	2010-11 (2022-24)
FIN	Statistics Finland, StatFin table 11a7 - Population Statistics, Migration	2010-11 (2022-24)
FRA	National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies (Insee), Recensement de la population - Base flux de mobilité	2013-14 (2017-19)
GBR	• Office for National Statistics (ONS), Internal migration - England & Wales: detailed estimates by origin and destination local authorities, https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/populationandmigration • Internal migration Scotland - detailed estimates by origin and destination local authorities • Internal migration Northern Ireland - Mid Year Population Estimates for Northern Ireland	2010-11 (2022-24)
GRC	Hellenic Statistical Authority (ELSTAT), Population-Housing Census	2011 (2021)
HUN	Hungarian Central Statistical Office (HCSO), STADAT 22.1.2.13. Permanent internal migration by county and region based on the registration system of home addresses	2010-11 (2022-24)
IRL	Central Statistics Office, Ireland, Census of Population - Internal Migration - 2022	(2022)
ISL	Statistics Iceland, Internal migration between regions by sex and age/	2010-11 (2020-22)
ISR	Central Bureau of Statistics Israel (CBS), Regional data provided by the delegate of the Working Party on Territorial Indicators	2011-12 (2021-23)
ITA	Istat, IstatData Survey on persons registered in and cancelled from municipalities' population registers due to change of usually residence	2010-11 (2022-24)
JPN	Statistics Bureau, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, e-Stat - Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications. Report on Internal Migration in Japan	2010-11 (2022-24)
KOR	Statistics Korea, KOSIS - Number of internal migrants by age for province	2013-14 (2022-24)
LTU	Statistics Lithuania, Net internal migration, Net internal migration by county	2010-11 (2022-24)
LVA	Central Statistical Bureau of Latvia (CSP), Changes in usual residence of the population in regions, cities, municipalities, towns	(2023-24)
MEX	Gobierno de Mexico, Bases de datos sobre migración interna	(2010, 2015)
NLD	Statistics Netherlands (CBS), StatLine database, Table 7B887	2010-11 (2022-24)
NOR	Statistics Norway (SSB), Statbank table 05471: Internal immigration, emigration and net-migration, https://www.ssb.no/en/statbank/table/05471	2010-11 (2022-24)
NZL	Statistics New Zealand, Census of Population and Dwellings, http://www.stats.govt.nz/browse_for_stats/population/Migration.aspx	2013 (2021-23)
POL	Central Statistical Office (GUS), Local Data Bank: Population - Subgroup P3313 Interpowiat and international migrations for permanent residence by the economic age group	2010-11 (2022-24)
PRT	Statistics Portugal (INE), Population and housing census 2001, 2011, 2021	2011 (2021)
ROU	Innse, Tempo-Online POP304B - Settlings of the residence by counties and localities	2010-11 (2013-15)
SVK	Statistical Office of the SR, DATAcube: Internal migration between Regions of the SR - SR, Regions [om7049rr]	2010-11 (2022-24)
SVN	Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia, SiStat, table 05N2004S - Internal migration, statistical regions, Slovenia, annually	2010-11 (2022-24)
SWE	Statistics Sweden (SCB), Statistical Database - Total Population Register - Migration - internal and external migration by region, age and sex	2010-11 (2022-24)
TUR	Türkiye Statistical Institute (TUIK), TurkStat - Central Dissemination System - Address Based Population Registration System (ABPRS) (2008-onwards data)	2010-11 (2022-24)
USA	U.S. Census Bureau, County-to-County Migration Flows	2011 (2017)

Source: OECD Data Explorer: OECD Regions, Cities and Local Areas Database (Population mobility within the country - Regions).

Demography and labour – Population international net flows in small regions

Country	Source
AUS	Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), Statistics on Australia's international migration, internal migration (interstate)
AUT	Statistics Austria, STATcube - International migration acc. to communes from 2002 (status of 2025)
BEL	Statistics Belgium, Statbel - Registre national des personnes physiques (RNPP)
BGR	National Statistical Insitute, Migration of the population by districts, municipalities and sex

CAN	Statistics Canada, Table 17-10-0153-01 Components of population change by census division, 2021 boundaries
CHE	Swiss Federal Statistical Office (FSO), Migrations de la population résidante permanente selon le canton, STATOP table je-f-01.05.04.01.02
CHL	Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas (INE), Chile, 2024 Census Población y vivienda - Inmigración internacional
CZE	Czech Statistical Office (CZSO), Public database - Immigrants table Code: DEMD130062-6-1/9
DEU	Federal Statistical Office of Germany, Genesis Online - Migration statistics, Table 12711-0023 - Migrations between Germany and abroad: federal states, years, nationality, gender
DNK	Statistics Denmark, StatBank Table VAN1AAR: Immigrations (yearly) by municipality, sex, age, country of destination
ESP	Instituto Nacional de Estadística (INE), INEbase - Migration Statistics
EST	Statistics Estonia, RVR051: External migration by county and country
FIN	Statistics Finland, StatFin table 11a7 - Population Statistics, Migration, https://pxdata.stat.fi/PxWeb/pxweb/en/StatFin/StatFin__muutl/statfin_muutl_pxt_11a7.px/table/tableViewLayout1/
FRA	National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies (Insee), Migrations résidentielles : localisation au département de résidence et au pays de résidence antérieure en 2021, https://www.insee.fr/fr/statistiques/8205841?sommaire=8205966
GBR	Office for National Statistics (ONS), Migration Statistics Unit, https://www.ons.gov.uk/datasets/TS019/editions/2021/versions/3.
GRC	Hellenic Statistical Authority (ELSTAT)
HUN	Hungarian Central Statistcal Office (KSH), Hungarian citizens' international migration, statinfo.k https://www.ksh.hu/stadat_files/nep/en/nep0048
HUN	National Directorate-General for Aliens Policing (OIF), STADAT NN1B02. Hungarian citizens immigrating and emigrating by county and region
IRL	Not available.
ISL	Statistics Iceland, External migration by sex, citizenship and region
ISR	Central Bureau of Statistics Israel (CBS), Regional data provided by the delegate of the Working Party on Territorial Indicators
ITA	Istat, IstatData - Migration (Transfer of residence)
JPN	Statistics Bureau, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, e-Stat - Table 090 - Report on Internal Migration in Japan Monthly report
KOR	Statistics Korea, KOSIS - International migration by port of entry and departures
LTU	Statistics Lithuania, International Migration Statistics
LUX	Statistiques Luxembourg, LU'STAT - Arrivées, départs et excédents des arrivées sur les départs
LVA	Central Statistical Bureau of Latvia (CSP), Long-term international migration in regions, State cities and municipalities. Table IBE081
MEX	INEGI Mexico
NLD	Statistics Netherlands (CBS), StatLine - Population dynamics; birth, death and migration per region
NOR	Statistics Norway (SSB), Statbank table 09588: Migration to/from the whole country, counties and municipalities (M)
NZL	Statistics New Zealand, Infoshare database, Subnational Net Migration Estimates (5 years ended)
POL	Central Statistical Office (GUS), Local Data Bank: Population - Subgroup P3313 Interpowiat and international migrations for permanent residence by the economic age group
PRT	Statistics Portugal (INE), International migration - 2001, 2011 and 2021 Census
SVK	Statistical Office of the SR, DATAcube: Immigrants and Emigrants - SR-Area-Reg-District, U-R - DATAcube view table om7021rr
SVN	Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia, SiStat, table 05N1042S - International migration, statistical regions, Slovenia, annually
SWE	Statistics Sweden (SCB), Statistical Database - Total Population Register - Migration - internal and external migration by region, age and sex
TUR	Türkiye Statistical Institute (TUIK), TurkStat - International Migration Statistics
USA	U.S. Census Bureau, County-to-County Migration Flows - Move from-to abroad

Source: OECD Data Explorer: OECD Regions, Cities and Local Areas Database (International migration flows - Regions).

Demography and labour – Labour force in LMAs (unemployment rates, working-age population)

Country	Source; geographic level of the data collection
All countries	OECD Regions, Cities and Local Areas Database, http://oe.cd/geostats

Demography and labour – Share of foreign-born population in LMAs

Country	Source; geographic level of the data collection
All countries	OECD Regions, Cities and Local Areas Database, http://oe.cd/geostats

Well-being – Income in metropolitan regions (TL3)

Country	Source; geographic level of the data collection	Year
AUS	Data by region 2011-2024, by Local Government Areas (ASGS Edition 3 (2021 – 2026), Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), median	2020

	disposable income equivalised using the modified OECD scale; Statistical Area Level 2 (SA2) and Local Government Areas (LGA)	
AUT	Statistics Austria, administrative data source	2022
BEL	Revenus fiscaux, DataLab - Revenu disponible administratif par commune, StatBel median total net income equivalised using the square root of the household size; Municipalities	2023
CAN	Census Profile, Census of Population: 2021, Statistics Canada, median disposable income equivalised using the square root of the household size; Census Subdivisions	2020
DEU	73111-01-01-5: Lohn- und Einkommensteuerpflichtige, Gesamtbetrag der Einkünfte, Lohn- und Einkommensteuer - Jahressumme - regionale Tiefe: Gemeinden, Regional Statistik mean disposable income; Municipalities	2021
FRA	Dispositif Fichier localisé social et fiscal (Filosofi) 2021, INSEE, median disposable income, equivalised using the modified OECD scale; Municipalities	2021
GBR	Regional gross disposable household income: local authorities by ITL1 region, ONS, mean gross household disposable income, equivalised using the square root of the household size; Local Authorities	2022
IRL	Central Statistics Office, administrative data source	2022
ISR	OECD calculations using LIS (based on Household Expenditure Survey)	2022
NLD	CBS Open data StatLine Household income; household characteristics, region (classification 2023) Income of persons; personal characteristics, region (classification 2023, CBS, median disposable income equivalised using the square root of the household size; Municipalities	2023
SWE	Income inequality indicators by region. Year 2011 - 2024,Statistics Sweden, disposable income including capital gains equivalised using the modified OECD scale; Municipalities	2024

Well-being – Housing prices in metropolitan regions (TL3C) and FUAs

Country	Source, geographic level of the data collection	Year
AUS	Data by region, Australian Bureau of Statistics, Statistical Area 2 (SA2), Local Government Areas	2024
AUT	Municipal housing transaction statistics, Statistik Austria, Municipalities	2021
BEL	Ventes de biens immobiliers selon la nature du bien dans l'acte de vente - Belgique, Statbel (Directorate-General Statistics – Statistics Belgium), Municipalities	2025
CAN	Census Profiles Downloads 2021; Census Profiles Downloads 2016; Census Profiles Downloads 2011, 2006, 2001, Statistics Canada, Census Subdivisions	2021
DEU	Kreise and postal code housing transaction statistics, vdpResearch, Postal codes, Municipalities, Circles	2021
DNK	BM010: Property prices in housing market by area, property category and prices of completed transactions; BM011: Property prices in housing market by postal code, property category and prices of completed transactions; BM020: Movements in housing market by area, property category and type of movement (2004Q1-2023Q4); BM021: Movements in housing market by postal code, property category and type of movement, Finans Danmark , Municipalities, Postal codes	2025
ESP	Municipal housing transaction statistics (shared by INE), INE, Municipalities	2025
FIN	13mu -- Prices per square meter of old dwellings in housing companies and numbers of transactions by postal code area, yearly, 2009-2024; 13mt -- Prices per square meter of old dwellings in housing companies and numbers of transactions by postal code area, quarterly, 2009Q1-2025Q2; 13mx -- Prices per square meter of old dwellings in housing companies and numbers of transactions by municipality, yearly, 2006-2024, Statistics Finland , Postal codes, Municipalities	2025
FRA	Demandes de valeurs foncières géolocalisées (2014-2020); Demandes de valeurs foncières géolocalisées (2021-2025), data.gouv.fr, Arrondissements, Municipalities, Inter-municipal cooperations	2025
GBR	Residential property sales for administrative geographies, ONS; Median house prices for administrative geographies; House price statistics, Registers of Scotland; Annual Ward, District Electoral Area and Local Government Districts statistics, Northern Ireland Department of Finance; NI House Price Index statistical reports, Northern Ireland Department of Finance, Local Authorities. Data for Northern Ireland and Scotland are from 2024	2025
HUN	Municipal housing transaction statistics; Number and mean price of sold second-hand homes, Statistics Hungary, Settlements	2023
IRL	Characteristics of Residential Property Purchasers; Residential Property Price Register, Irish CSO, Property Service Regulatory Authority, Local Electoral Areas	2021
ITA	Dati OMI, Agenzia Entrate, Municipalities	2024
ISR	Data share by Israel	2021
JPN	XPT001 . Real Estate Price (Transaction Price/Contract Price) Information Points (Points) API, Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism (MLIT), Cities, towns, villages and wards	2025
KOR	Housing transactions in Korea, MOLIT, Towns, townships, neighbourhoods, Municipalities	2023
LUX	Prix annoncés des logements - Par commune; Prix de vente des appartements - Par commune; Prix de vente des appartements - Prix affinés (hors annexes) par commune, data.public.lu, Municipalities	2025
MEX	Municipal and postal code housing transaction statistics, INEGI, Postal codes, Municipalities	2021
NLD	Existing own homes; prices, region, CBS, Municipalities	2025
POL	Average price of residential premises sold in market transactions; Average price of residential premises sold in market transactions (quarterly data); Average price per 1 m2 of residential premises sold in market transactions; Average price per 1 m2 of residential	2023

Country	Source, geographic level of the data collection	Year
	premises sold in market transactions (quarterly data); Median of prices per 1 m2 of residential premises sold in market transactions; Median of prices per 1 m2 of residential premises sold in market transactions (quarterly data); Number of residential premises sold in market transaction; Number of residential premises sold in market transactions (quarterly data), Statistics Poland, Counties	
PRT	Median value of dwellings sales (Methodology 2022 - €/ m²) by Geographic location (NUTS - 2024) and Category of housing unit; Annual; Dwellings sales in the last 12 months (Methodology 2022 - No.) by Geographic location (NUTS - 2024); Quarterly; Median value of dwellings sales in the last 12 months (Methodology 2022 - €/ m²) by Geographic location (NUTS - 2024) and Category of housing unit; Quarterly; Dwellings sales in the last 12 months (Methodology 2022 - No.) by Geographic location (NUTS - 2024); Quarterly, Statistics Portugal, Parishes, Councils	2025
SWE	Quarterly housing transactions by municipality and dwelling type; Average purchase prices for one- and two-dwelling buildings in 2022 by municipality (not used), Svensk Mäklarstatistik AB, Municipalities	2025
USA	Housing Data, Zillow, Counties, Zipcodes	2024

Well-being – Housing supply and unoccupied dwellings within and outside FUAs

Country	Source, geographic level of the data collection	Year
AUS	Data by region 2011-2024, by Main Structure and GCCSA (ASGS Edition 3 (2021 – 2026)); Data by region 2011-2024, by Local Government Areas (ASGS Edition 3 (2021 – 2026)); Census 2021, G36 Dwelling structure, Main Statistical Areas Level 2 and up (SA2+); Census 2021, G37 Tenure and landlord type by dwelling structure, Main Statistical Areas Level 2 and up (SA2+); Census 2021, G36 Dwelling structure, Local Government Area 2021 (LGA 2021 boundaries); (ABS_C16_T24_TS_LGA) Census Time Series 2016, 2011, 2006: T24 Dwelling Structure by Dwelling Type (LGA); (ABS_C16_T24_TS_SA) Census Time Series 2016, 2011, 2006: T24 Dwelling Structure by Dwelling Type (SA2+), Australian Bureau of Statistics, Statistical Area 2 (SA2), Local Government Areas	2021
AUT	Gebäudebestand - Indikatoren und Gemeindeergebnisse; Adress-, Gebäude- und Wohnungsregister Daten des Gebäude- und Wohnungsregisters Bestandsdaten, Statistik Austria, Vienna districts, Municipalities	2025
BEL	Census - Nombre de logements selon le régime de propriété; Census - Nombre de logements selon le régime d'occupation des logements, Nombre de logements selon le type de local d'habitation, Nombre de logements classiques selon le type de bâtiment, Statistics Belgium, Municipalities	2021
CAN	Census Profiles Downloads 2021; Census Profiles Downloads 2016; Census Profiles Downloads 2011, 2006, 2001, Statistics Canada, Census Subdivisions	2021
CHL	Censo 2024 - Viviendas y hogares censados, Viviendas censadas, por tipo de vivienda, INE, Municipalities	2024
COL	Censo Nacional de Población 2018, DANE, Municipalities	2018
CZE	Dwellings by occupancy; Occupied dwellings by owner and type of house; Occupied dwellings by legal reason for using the dwelling, CZSO, Municipalities	2021
DEU	Zensus 2022, Gebaüde und Wohnungen, Zensus 2022, Municipalities	2022
DNK	BOL101: Dwellings by region, type of resident, use, tenure, ownership and year of construction, Statistics Denmark, Municipalities	2025
ESP	Total viviendas familiares convencionales por tipo de vivienda, Censo de Población y Viviendas 2021; Viviendas por intensidad de uso a partir del consumo eléctrico, INE, Municipalities	2021
EST	RLV215: CONVENTIONAL DWELLINGS BY OCCUPANCY, TYPE OF BUILDING AND LOCATION (ADMINISTRATIVE UNIT) (2000, 2011, 2021), Statistics Estonia, Municipalities	2021
FIN	Municipal key figures / With the 2025 regional division / 142h -- Regional time series, 1987-2024; 116f -- Dwellings by type of building, occupancy and year of construction, 2024, Statistics Finland, Municipalities	2024
FRA	Logements et résidences principales en 2017; Logements et résidences principales en 2018; Logements et résidences principales en 2019; Logements et résidences principales en 2020; Logements et résidences principales en 2021; Logements et résidences principales en 2022, INSEE, Arrondissements, Municipalities, Inter-municipal cooperations	2022
GBR	Number of vacant dwellings and second homes (with no usual residents), ONS; Subnational estimates of dwellings by tenure, England, ONS; Census 2021 main statistics housing and accommodation tables - MS-E15 Tenure households, NISRA; Housing statistics: Stock by tenure, Scottish Government; Dwelling stock estimates by local authority and tenure, Stats Wales; Annual housing stock statistics, Northern Ireland Department of Finance, Local Authorities	2023
GRC	Census 2011 - B02. Inhabited normal houses by residential density and type of ownership. Municipalities; B10. Regular homes by housing status (occupied, vacant) and kitchen availability. Municipalities; B14. Normal houses by building type. Municipalities; B18. Normal residences by residence status. Regional Units, Municipalities; Census 2021 - B02. Occupied regular dwellings by type of building and type of ownership. Municipalities; C02. Regular dwellings by housing status (occupied, vacant) and building type. Settlements; C01. Regular dwellings by housing status and irregular dwellings. Settlements, ELSTAT, Communities, Municipalities	2021
HRV	Dwellings by Occupancy Status, by Towns/Municipalities, 2021 Census, Statistics Croatia, Municipalities	2021
HUN	Summary data of dwellings by settlement; Household data by settlement, Census database, Settlements	2022
IRL	Dwellings by type in electoral divisions; Dwellings by type in local electoral areas; Dwellings by type in counties; Dwellings by tenure in electoral divisions; Dwellings by tenure in local electoral areas; Dwellings by tenure in counties; Dwellings by occupancy status in electoral divisions; Dwellings by occupancy status in local electoral areas; Dwellings by occupancy status in counties, Irish CSO, Electoral divisions, Local Electoral Areas, Counties	2022
ISL	Census: Living quarters by municipality 1981, 2011 and 2021; Census: Various characteristics of conventional dwellings by municipality 1981, 2011 and 2021, Statistics Iceland, Municipalities	2021

ITA	Scarica file (tutti i comuni), Abitazioni; Dati per sezione di censimento, ISTAT, Municipalities	2021
JPN	System of Social and Demographic Statistics H Dwelling, Statistics of Japan, Cities, towns, villages and wards	2023
KOR	Dwellings > Housing Census > Total housing survey (since 2015) > Pre-registration sector > Housing by type, floor area and year of construction - City/county/district; Unoccupied houses (vacant houses) by year of construction and type of house - City/county/district, Municipalities	2023
LTU	S3R786_GBS030400_1 - Number of convetional dwellings, Statistics Lithuania, Municipalities	2021
LUX	Luxembourg 2021 Census, STATEC, Municipalities	2021
LVA	Traditional dwellings and persons living in them by type of building and time of construction in regions, cities, counties and neighborhoods of the republic 2011 - 2021; Inhabited conventional dwellings by type of ownership in regions, cities, municipalities and neighbourhoods 2011 - 2021, Statistics Latvia, Cities and municipalities	2021
MEX	Sistema para la Consulta de Información Censal 2020, INEGI, Municipalities	2020
NLD	Regional Climate Monitor; 82900NED: Dwellings; ownership, occupancy, region; 82550NED: Housing stock; number and average surface area of housing type, construction year class, region, CBS, Municipalities	2025
NZL	Occupied dwellings, unoccupied dwellings, and dwellings under construction, for private and non-private dwellings, 2006, 2013, and 2018 Censuses (RC, TA, SA2, DHB); Dwelling occupancy status and dwelling type for dwellings, (RC, TALB, SA2, Health), 2013, 2018, and 2023 Censuses; Household composition by tenure of household, for households in occupied private dwellings, 2006, 2013, and 2018 Censuses (RC ,TA, DHB, SA2); Household crowding index, tenure of household, household composition, and total household income for households in occupied private dwellings, (RC, TALB, SA2, Health), 2013, 2018, and 2023 Censuses, Stats NZ, Statistical Area 2 (SA2), Territorial Authorities	2023

Well-being – Life satisfaction in large regions (TL2), social connections by degree of urbanisation

Country	Source
All countries	Gallup World Poll, pools observations within two two-year periods, 2014/15 and 2024/25

Well-being – Institutional trust in small regions (TL3)

Country	Source
All countries	OECD trust survey, pools responses from the 2023 and 2025 waves in countries, https://www.oecd.org/en/publications/oecd-survey-on-drivers-of-trust-in-public-institutions-2026-results_9eb63fec-en.html

Well-being – Social infrastructure facilities (eating and drinking, cultural, public community)

Country	Source
All countries	OpenStreetMap POI data and population data and settlements from GHS

Environment – Air temperature, precipitation, grid and large regions (TL2)

Country	Source	Year
All countries	Muñoz Sabater, J., (2019): ERA5-Land monthly averaged data from 1981 to present. Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) Climate Data Store (CDS), doi: 10.24381/cds.68d2bb30.	1981-2025

Source: OECD Data Explorer: OECD Regions, Cities and Local Areas Database (Air temperature, hot days, tropical nights and icing days - Regions; Precipitation - Regions).

Environment – Strong heat stress days, large regions (TL2)

Country	Source	Year
All countries	Di Napoli C., Barnard C., Prudhomme C., Cloke HL and Pappenberger F. (2020): Thermal comfort indices derived from ERA5 reanalysis. Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) Climate Data Store (CDS). DOI: https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.553b7518	1981-2025

Source: OECD Data Explorer: OECD Regions, Cities and Local Areas Database (Heat stress - Regions).

Environment – Greenhouse gas emissions, by degree of urbanisation

Country	Source	Year
All countries	EDGAR (Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research) Community GHG Database, a collaboration between the European Commission, Joint Research Centre (JRC), the International Energy Agency (IEA), and comprising IEA-EDGAR CO2,	2010-2024

	EDGAR CH4, EDGAR N2O, EDGAR F-GASES version EDGAR_2025_GHG (2025) European Commission, JRC (Datasets), https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/	

Environment – Non-fossil fuel electricity generation, large regions (TL2)

Country	Source	Year
All countries	Energy supply, electricity generation by source, International Energy Agency (IEA)	1990-2024 (TL1)
AUS	Table O: Australian electricity generation, by state and territory, by fuel type, physical units, Australian Government, Department of Climate Change, Energy, the Environment and Water	2015-2024
CAN	Canada's energy future 2023: Energy demand and demand projections to 2050, Canada Energy Regulator	2005-2022
COL	XM electricity market portal; XM Github Repository; UPME power plants list - installed capacity, XM, UPME	2018-2022
DEU	Bruttostromerzeugung nach Energieträgern; Bruttostromerzeugung nach Erneuerbaren Energieträgern, Länderarbeitskreis Energiebilanzen	1990-2021
DNK	Monthly electricity production data in MWh for each municipality, Energy Data Service	2017-2024
ESP	Estadísticas eléctricas anuales, Ministerio para la Transición Ecológica y el Reto Demográfico	2013-2024
FIN	Electricity production by region 2007-2022, Finnish Energy	2007-2023
FRA	Données régionales de production et de consommation finale de l'énergie, Ministère de l'Aménagement du territoire et de la Transition Écologique	2014-2022
ITA	Production: Electricity by source, Terna	2012-2023
JPN	Real-Time Electricity Tracker, IEA	2016-2023
NOR	08308: Production of electric power, by type of power (GWh) (F) 2006 - 2022, Statistics Norway	2006-2024
POL	Fuel, Energy and Materials market/Power Sector/Production of electricity by sources, Statistics Poland	2000-2024
PRT	Gross production of electric energy (kWh) by Geographic localization (NUTS - 2013) and Type of electricity production; Annual, INE	2011-2024
SWE	Elproduktion och bränsleanvändning (MWh), efter län och kommun, produktionssätt samt bränsletyp. År 2009 - 2021, SCB	2009-2023
USA	Electricity, Historical State Data, Net Generation by State by Type of Producer by Energy Source, EIA	2001-2024

Source: OECD Data Explorer: OECD Regions, Cities and Local Areas Database (Electricity generation - Regions).

Environment – Share of electricity in total final energy consumption in large regions (TL2)

Country	Source	Sectors	Fuel types	Year
All countries	Energy Statistics Data Browser – Data Tools - IEA	Total, industry, transport, residential, agriculture, commercial and public services	Total, Coal, Oil, Natural Gas, Renewables, Electricity, Heat, Others	1990-2024
AUS	States and territories, energy.gov.au	Total; agriculture, forestry and fishing; mining; manufacturing; electricity, gas, water and waste services; construction; transport, postal and warehousing; residential; solvents, lubricants, greases and bitumen	Total, coal, oil, natural gas, renewables	2023
AUT	STATcube: Energy balances for the federal provinces as of 1988	Total, industry, transport, residential, agriculture, commercial and public services	Total, coal, oil, gas, renewables, wastes	2023
BEL	Vlaams Energie- & Klimaatbeleind, IBSA, Walstat	Industry, residential, services, transport, agriculture	Electricity, gas, oil, wastes, coal, heat, other	2019
CAN	Canada Energy Regulator	Total, industry, residential, commercial, transport	Total, electricity, gas, oil, biofuels and emerging energy, other	2023
CHL	Balance Nacional de Energía - Consumo regional; Download link, Ministerio de Energía	Total, Industry, Residential, Commercial, Transport	Total, Electricity, Gas, Oil, Biofuels & Emerging Energy, Other	2023
DEU	Endenergieverbrauch nach Energieträgern, Endenergieverbrauch nach Verbrauchergruppen, Länderarbeitskreis Energiebilanzen	Total	Total, coal, oil, natural gas, renewables, electricity, heat, others	2022
EST	Energy Statistics Data Browser – Data Tools - IEA	Total, industry, transport, residential, agriculture, commercial and public services	Total, Coal, Oil, Natural Gas, Renewables, Electricity, Heat, Others	2024
FRA	Données locales de consommation d'énergie	Agriculture, residential, services, industry, other	Electricity, gas, heat, petroleum products	2021

GBR	Total final energy consumption at regional and local authority level: 2005 to 2024, Department for Energy Security and Net Zero	Residential, Industrial and Commercial, Transport, Public sector	Electricity, Gas, Coal, Petroleum, Manufactured fuels, Bioenergy and waste	2024
JPN	Survey results (Energy consumption statistics by prefecture), Japanese Agency for Natural Resources and Energy	Agriculture, Industry, Services, Residential, Transport	Coal, Coal products, Oil, Oil products, Natural gas, Large scale hydraulic, Nuclear, Renewables, Electricity, Heat	2022
KOR	Final energy consumption	Total	Total	2022
LUX	Energy Statistics Data Browser – Data Tools - IEA	Total, industry, transport, residential, agriculture, commercial and public services	Total, Coal, Oil, Natural Gas, Renewables, Electricity, Heat, Others	2024
LVA	Energy Statistics Data Browser – Data Tools - IEA	Total, industry, transport, residential, agriculture, commercial and public services	Total, Coal, Oil, Natural Gas, Renewables, Electricity, Heat, Others	2024
NLD	Regional Climate Monitor	Built environment, traffic and transport, industry, energy, waste, water, agriculture, forestry and fishing	Total, electricity, natural gas, district heating, solar	2023
POL	Consumption of fuels and energy carriers 2022, 2021, 2020, 2019, Statistics Poland	Total, industry, energy, residential, transport, agriculture, other	Hard coal, natural gas, LPG, light fuel oil, heavy fuel oil, heat, electricity	2002
SVK	Consumption of fuels, electricity, heat, Slovakia Statistics	Total	Electricity, heat, natural gas, fuel oil, coal, diesel oil	2023
SWE	End use (MWh), by county and municipality, consumer category and fuel type. Year 2009 - 2024, SCB	Agriculture, Industry, Public sector, Services, Transport, Residential, Other	Electricity, District heating, Natural gas (non-renewable and renewable), Fixed (non-renewable and renewable), Liquid (non-renewable and renewable)	2024
USA	Consumption, all consumption estimates in Btu, State Energy Data System (SEDS): 1960-2021 (complete), EIA US States, EIA, US Department of Energy	Total, coal, oil, natural gas		2023

Source: OECD Data Explorer: OECD Regions, Cities and Local Areas Database (Final energy consumption - Regions).

Environment – Share of dwellings built before 1960, by degree of urbanisation

Country	Source	Year
BEL	Census - Nombre de logements selon l'époque de construction, Statistics Belgium (Statbel)	2021
BGR	RESIDENTIAL BUILDINGS BY CONSTRUCTION PERIODS, STATISTICAL DISTRICT, REGIONS AND MUNICIPALITIES AS OF 7.09.2021, Statistics Bulgaria	2021
CAN	Census Profiles Downloads 2021;Census Profiles Downloads 2016;Census Profiles Downloads 2011, 2006, 2001, Statistics Canada	2021
CHE	Logements selon les niveaux géographiques institutionnels, la catégorie de bâtiment, la surface du logement et l'époque de construction, Office fédéral de la statistique	2022
CZE	Occupied dwellings by period of construction or reconstruction of the building and type of house, CZSO	2021
DEU	Gebaüde und Wohnungen, Zensus 2022	2022
DNK	BOL101: Dwellings by region, type of resident, use, tenure, ownership and year of construction, Statistics Denmark	2025
EST	RL21219: CONVENTIONAL DWELLINGS BY TIME OF CONSTRUCTION, OCCUPANCY, PRESENCE OF COMFORT CHARACTERISTICS, AND LOCATION (ADMINISTRATIVE UNIT), 31 DECEMBER 2021, Statistics Estonia	2021
FIN	116g -- Number of buildings by intended use and year of construction, 2022, Statistics Finland, Statistics Finland	2024
FRA	PRINC6 – Résidences principales construites avant 2016 par type de logement, nombre de pièces et époque d'achèvement de la construction, INSEE	2021
GRC	B15. Normal houses during construction period. Regional Units, Municipalities;C03. Regular dwellings by housing status (occupied, vacant) and construction period. Settlements, ELSTAT	2021
IRL	Permanent private households - electoral divisions;Permanent private households - local electoral areas;Permanent private households - counties, Irish CSO	2022
ITA	Alloggi : Abitazioni in edifici residenziali per epoca di costruzione, ISTAT	2011
JPN	System of Social and Demographic Statistics H Dwelling, Statistics of Japan	2023
KOR	Dwellings > Housing Census > Total housing survey (since 2015) > Pre-registration sector > Housing by type, floor area and year of	2023

Country	Source	Year
	construction - City/county/district; Unoccupied houses (vacant houses) by year of construction and type of house - City/county/district, KOSIS	
LUX	Luxembourg 2021 Census, STATEC	2021
LVA	Traditional dwellings and persons living in them by type of building and time of construction in regions, cities, counties and neighborhoods of the republic 2011 - 2021, Statistics Latvia	2021
NLD	82550NED: Housing stock; number and average surface area of ??housing type, construction year class, region, CBS	2025
NOR	06266: Dwellings, by type of building and year of construction (M) 2006 - 2024, Statistics Norway	2024
POL	P4386 Inhabited dwellings by period of construction of a building, Statistics Poland	2021
PRT	Conventional dwellings (No.) by Geographic localization (at the date of Census 2011), Occupacy status and Time period of construction; Decennial 2021, Statistics Portugal	2021
SVK	Population and Housing Census 2021 - Dwellings by type of house and period of construction, Slovak Statistics	2021
SVN	Dwellings by occupancy status and period of construction, municipalities, Slovenia, multiannually, Statistics Slovenia	2021
SWE	Number of dwellings by region, type of building and period of construction. Year 2013 - 2024, Statistics Sweden	2024
USA	DP04 - Selected Housing Characteristics, US Census Bureau	2023

Environment – Share of electric vehicles in new private passenger vehicle sales in large regions (TL2)

Country	Source	Year
AUT	Statistics Austria, Transport statistics	2025
BEL	Statbel and IWEPS computation: https://statbel.fgov.be/fr/themes/mobilite/circulation/parc-de-vehicules.	2025
CAN	Statistics Canada. CANSIM database: Table 23-10-0067-01 Vehicle registrations, by type of vehicle; Electric vehicles OECD estimates based on Table 20-10-0025-01 Zero-emission vehicle registrations, quarterly	2021
CHE	Federal Statistical Office, Federal Roads Office: New registrations of road vehicles (IVS) https://www.pxweb.bfs.admin.ch/pxweb/en/px-x-1103020200_200/px-x-1103020200_200/px-x-1103020200_200.px	2025
ESP	*Govierno de España, Ministerio del Interior, Dirección General de Tráfico. Parque de vehículos por provincias* y tipos, https://www.dgt.es/menusecundario/dgt-en-cifras/dgt-en-cifras-resultados/?categorias=/Tema/Vehiculos/	2025
EST	Statistics Estonia, Estonian Motor Vehicle Registration Centre - TS32: Vehicles and private vehicles, https://andmed.stat.ee/en/stat/majandus__transport__registreeritud-liiklusvahendid/TS32	2025
GBR	Office for National Statistics, United Kingdom Ministerial Department for Transport statistics - Vehicle licensing statistics data files, https://www.gov.uk/government/statistical-data-sets/vehicle-licensing-statistics-data-files#download-data-files	2024
GRC	Hellenic Statistical Authority, 01. Motor vehicles in circulation, by category, use and region in Greece, https://www.statistics.gr/en/statistics/-/publication/SME18/	2024
HUN	Hungarian Central Statistical Office. - Data on new vehicles provided by the delegate of the Working Party on Territorial Indicators	2025
KOR	Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport - KOSIS - Motor Vehicle Registration by City/Province, https://kosis.kr/statHtml/statHtml.do?orgId=116&tblId=DT_MLTM_5498&conn_path=I2&language=en .	2025
SVK	Ministry of Interior of the Slovac Republic	2023
SVN	Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia (SURS), the Central Register of Vehicles and Traffic Documents (MRVL) by the Ministry of Infrastructure (MZI)	2024
SWE	Statistics Sweden, Registered vehicles, table START__TK__TK1001__TK1001A	2025
TUR	Türkiye Statistical Institute (TurkStat)	2024

Source: OECD Data Explorer: OECD Regions, Cities and Local Areas Database (Private road vehicles - Regions).

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Annex C. Methodologies

Contribution of industries to coefficient of variation of gross value added (GVA) per worker

The decomposition identifies the contribution of each industry to inequality in GVA per worker across regions. It first expresses total GVA per worker as the sum of additive industry components, so for each region *i* and industry *f*:

$y_i = \frac{GVA_i}{EMP_i}$, $y_{fi} = \frac{GVA_{fi}}{EMP_i}$, with the region-industry components adding up to total GVA per worker: $y = \sum_f y_f$.

The coefficient of variation (CV) of GVA per worker is the ratio of the standard deviation of GVA per worker over the mean of GVA per worker, so the CV for total GVA per worker and per industry are:

$CV_{total} = \frac{\sigma_y}{\bar{y}}$, $CV_f = \frac{\sigma_f}{\bar{y}_f}$, with $\sigma_y = \sum_f \rho_f \sigma_f$

The total coefficient of variation can be expressed as the sum of the contributions of each industry: $CV_{total} = \sum_f C_f$

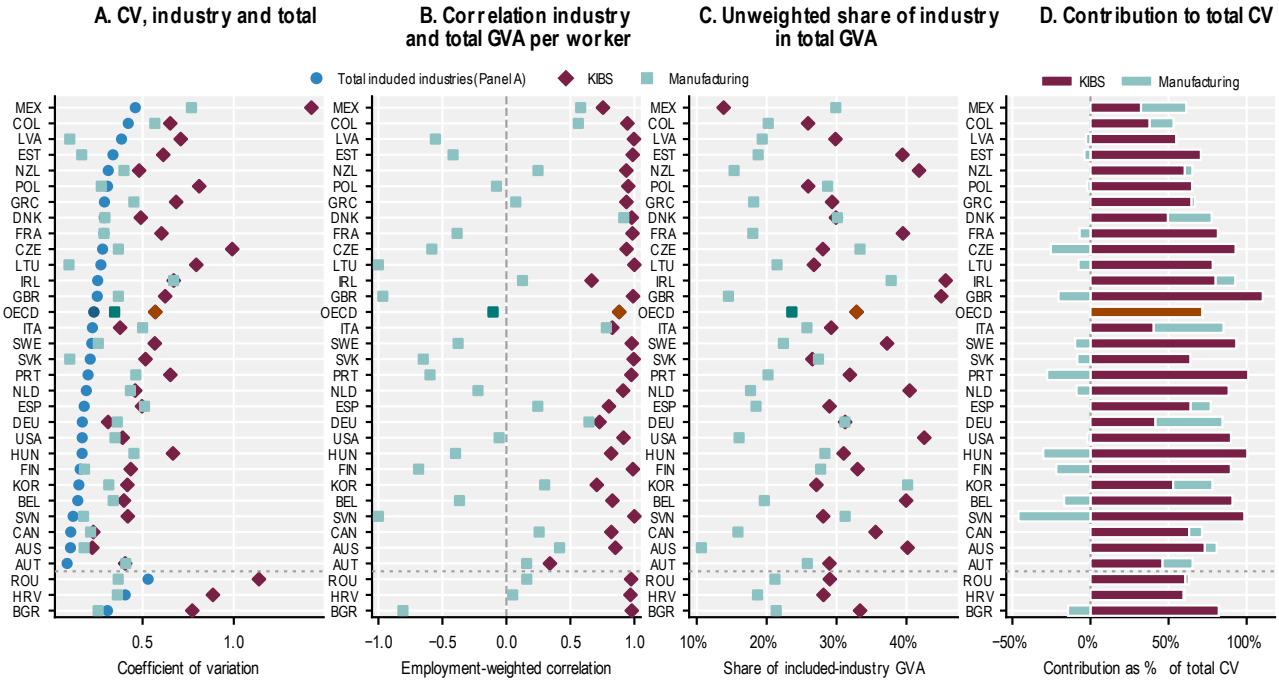
Where: $C_f = \rho_f(\frac{\bar{y}_f}{\bar{y}})CV_f$, with ρ_f equal to the correlation between industry f and total GDP per capita: $\rho_f = Corr(y_f, y)$. With $(\frac{\bar{y}_f}{\bar{y}})$ interpreted as the share of industry f in the sum of regional GVA contributions (so as an unweighted average-region share[1]), $CV_{total} = \sum_f \rho_f(\frac{\bar{y}_f}{\bar{y}})CV_f$.

The sectors initially considered are grouped as: construction (ISIC F), manufacturing (C), consumer and personal services (trade, transport, accommodation (G-I) and arts, recreation and other services (R-U)), and knowledge-intensive business services (J, K, M-N). To focus on the comparison between KIBS and manufacturing two sectors are excluded: construction and primary industries. The contribution of construction is small across all 32 countries. The contributions from primary industries are low in almost all countries, except Australia and Canada, where they contribute the most, and Colombia, where it fluctuates between a medium and high contribution.

To show the effect of each component more clearly, Figure C.1 focuses on KIBS and manufacturing and shows for each sector the CV (Panel A), the correlation with total GVA per worker (Panel B), the (unweighted) shares in GVA (Panel C) and the resulting contributions (Panel D). The combination of a negative correlation with other components may result in negative contributions from an industry. However, additivity ensures that these negative contributions will be compensated by other industries.

A sector's contribution to regional inequality is large when three elements reinforce each other: (1) high regional dispersion of sector productivity (Panel A), (2) a strong positive correlation between sector productivity and total regional productivity (Panel B), and (3) a large sector share in GVA (Panel C). Thus, a sector can have a very high CV but still make only a moderate contribution if its economic weight is small; similarly, a large sector contributes little if its regional productivity pattern is weakly related to the overall pattern. A negative correlation is particularly important: it can generate a negative contribution, meaning that the sector offsets rather than reinforces overall regional inequality. The level of total CV then provides the context: the same 80% contribution can represent a dominant source of a relatively small total disparity or of a much larger one.

Figure C.1. Components of CV of regional GVA per worker decomposition

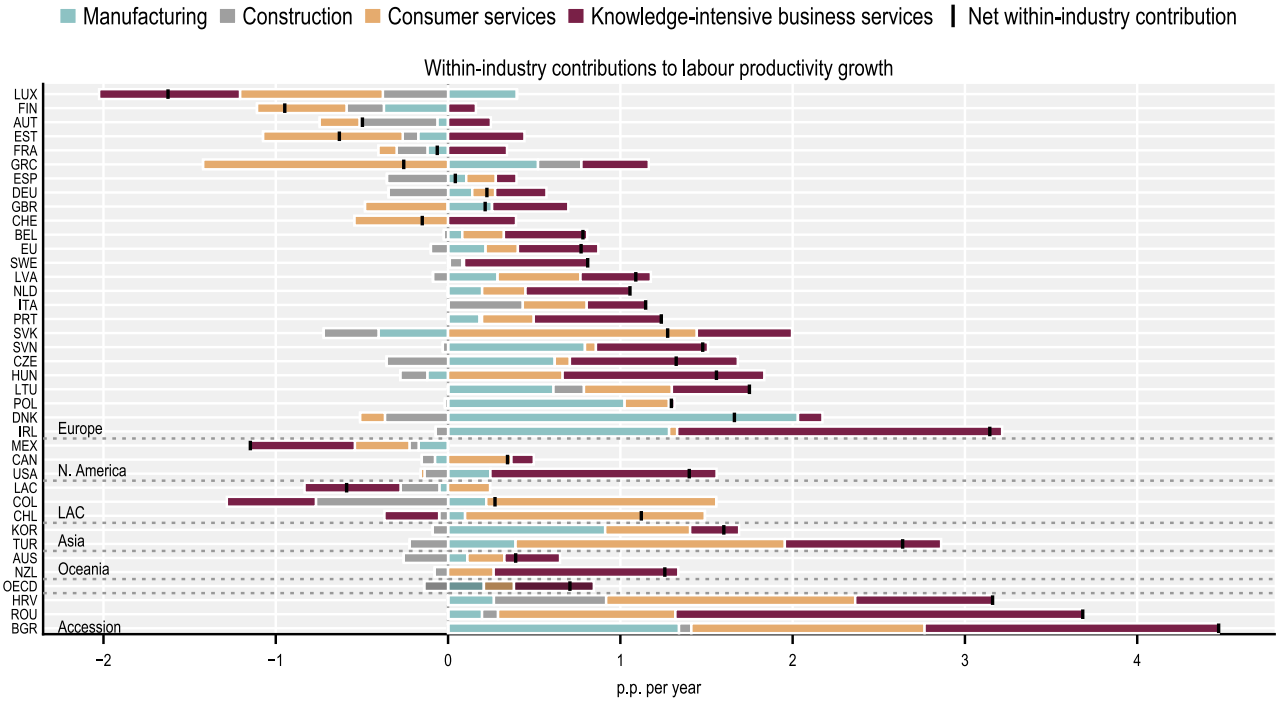


Note: OECD unweighted country average.

StatLink https://stat.link/y2ubol

To identify which industries systematically underpin regional inequality, the figures by country (Figure C.2) show the contribution of five broad industries to regional inequalities over 2005-2024. To obtain a sufficiently complete and comparable regional time series, some missing regional observations are estimated by applying the corresponding national-level growth rate to TL2 regional values.

Figure C.2. Industry contributions to regional labour productivity disparities by country



StatLink https://stat.link/tcizlx

Labour market areas definitions

The labour market area (LMA) analysis builds on official definitions for 15 OECD countries, drawing on national statistical offices and other government agencies. Although their names differ across countries, these geographies follow the same broad principle: they group small administrative units or other subnational areas so that most working residents work within the area and most jobs are filled by people living there. Academic researchers and other institutions have defined similar labour market geographies for additional countries, but this analysis uses only definitions published or provided by official national sources. Countries use four broad approaches to delineate LMAs, most of which rely primarily on commuting flows between small administrative units or other territorial building blocks:

- **LMA/Travel to Work Area (TTWA) algorithm**: Canada, Denmark, France, Hungary, Italy, Switzerland, United Kingdom;
- **Commuting zones based on hierarchical clustering**: Japan, Mexico, United States;
- **Tailored algorithms based on commuting flows and other variables**: Australia, Germany, Norway, Sweden;
- **Bottom-up governance approach**: Netherlands.

The LMA/TTWA algorithm iteratively combines small administrative units or other building blocks into areas that meet criteria for labour force size and self-containment. Self-containment has two dimensions: demand-side self-containment measures the share of people working in an area who also live there, while supply-side self-containment measures the share of working residents who also work there. The algorithm evaluates the lower of these two measures and applies four parameters: minimum and target levels of self-containment, and minimum and target numbers of workers. A grouping can compensate to some extent for a smaller workforce through higher self-containment, or for lower self-containment through a larger workforce, but it must meet the minimum threshold for both dimensions. The methodology builds on the TTWA approach developed in the United Kingdom (Coombes, Green and Openshaw, 1986[1]) and is further described in Eurostat methodological guidance (Eurostat, 2020[2]) and an R package developed by Istat (Istat, 2014[3]).

The resulting LMAs share a broad methodological basis, but differences in parameter choices and additional country-specific processing steps limit full comparability across countries. Table C.1 shows that countries apply substantially different parameter values, particularly for the minimum and target numbers of workers. National authorities also undertake post-processing with input from national and local experts to reflect territorial circumstances, including assigning building blocks that the algorithm places on a reserve list.

Table C.1. Parameters used by countries that implemented the LMA/TTWA algorithm

Country	Min. self-containment	Target self-containment	Min. number of workers	Target number of workers	Note
Canada	75%	90%	0	25 000	Canada delineates self-contained labour areas for areas outside of census metropolitan areas and census agglomerations
Denmark	65%	80%	2 500	35 000	
France	60%	70%	15 000	25 000	Special method for Corsica, Île-de-France and the oversea departments
Hungary	76%	78%	5 000	20 000	
Italy	60%	75%	1 000	10 000	
Switzerland	70%	90%	50 000	80 000	Two-step procedure in which small administrative units are combined to 101 *Arbeitsmarktregionen*, which are then combined to the 16 *Arbeitsmarktgrossregionen* used here
United Kingdom	66.7%	75%	3 500	25 000	Building blocks vary by country

The other approaches pursue the same broad objective through different procedures. Hierarchical clustering groups areas according to the strength of their commuting links. Tailored national algorithms combine commuting flows with additional criteria: Australia considers the number of employed people and distance; Norway uses travel time; Germany uses travel time and administrative boundaries; and Sweden relies on commuting flows alone. Netherlands uses a bottom-up governance approach that allows municipalities and regional labour-market partners to propose and agree changes to labour market region boundaries.

The median population of Labour Market Areas varies substantially across countries. Table C.2 shows that the median LMA has considerably more residents in densely populated countries such as the Netherlands than in more sparsely populated countries such as Australia or Norway, reflecting differences in national settlement patterns. Differences in delineation methods, parameter choices and territorial building blocks can also contribute to this variation. A substantial share of LMAs consists entirely of towns, semi-dense areas or rural areas, whereas most TL3 regions contain at least one city.

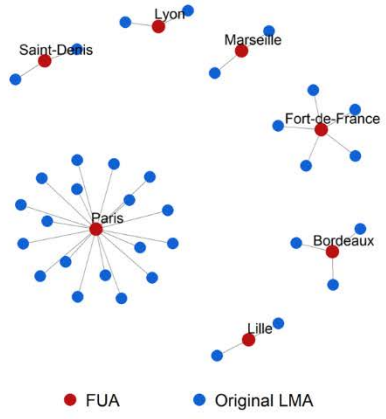
Table C.2. Median population of LMAs and TL3 regions, thousands of people

Country	LMA	TL3		Country	LMA	TL3
Australia	8	191		Mexico	30	298
Canada	10	41		Netherlands	411	341
Denmark	79	582		Norway	7	314
France	126	532		Sweden	38	285
Germany	182	155		Switzerland	442	246
Hungary	43	356		United Kingdom	151	335
Italy	42	377		United States	233	848
Japan	118	1 541				

Note: Values refer to the most recent year available and are rounded to the nearest thousand.

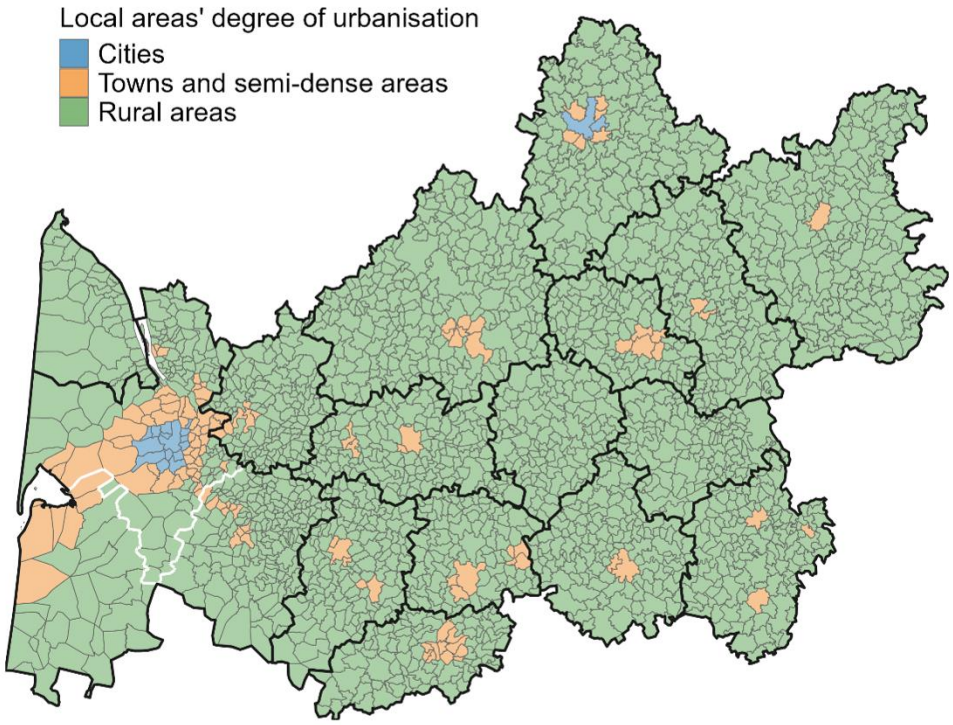
To ensure consistency between the LMA and functional urban area geographies, the analysis presented in Chapter 2, Figures 2.14 and 2.15 merges LMAs when more than 50% of the population of each LMA lies within the same FUA. Figures 2.12 and 2.13 of Chapter 2 do not apply this adjustment, as they rely partly on unemployment rates countries publish directly at the LMA level. Figure C.3 illustrates all LMA merges in France. For example, two LMAs are merged around Lyon, while three are merged around Bordeaux.

Figure C.3. Merging French LMAs that each overlap with the same FUA for more than 50% of their population



As described above, LMAs group adjacent small administrative units into functionally connected areas. Figure C.4 illustrates this for LMAs around Bordeaux, showing the LMA groupings together with the degree of urbanisation of each small administrative unit. Cities, towns and semi-dense areas, and rural areas can all occur within the same LMA. The white boundaries identify LMAs that the analysis presented in Figures 2.14 and 2.15 of Chapter 2 merges because more than 50% of the population of each LMA lies within the Bordeaux FUA, to ensure consistency between the two geographies.

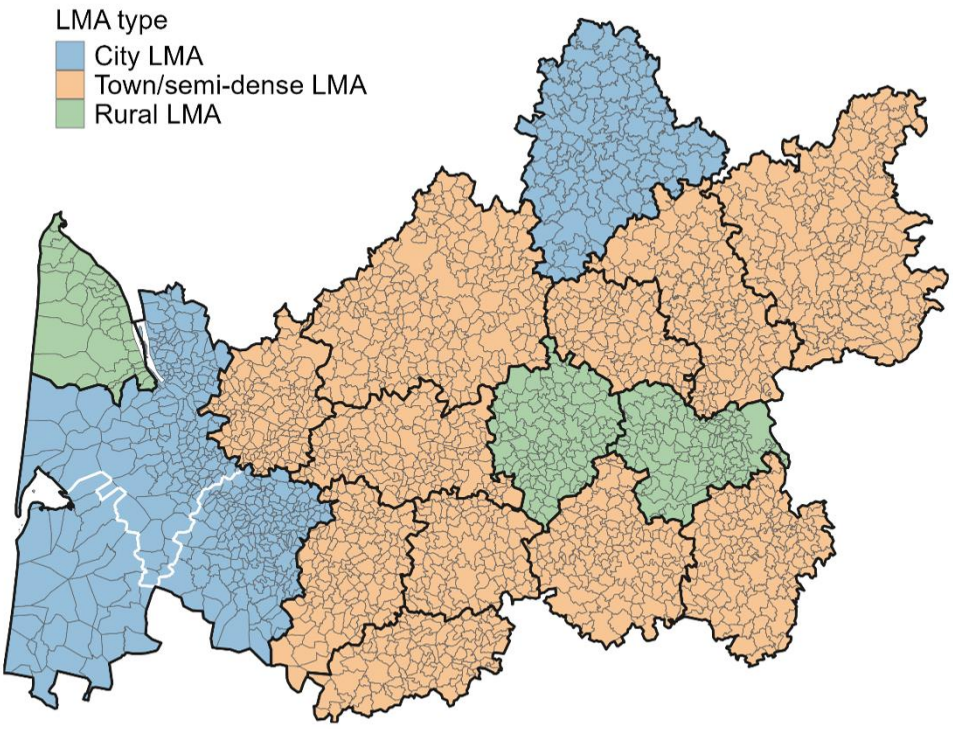
Figure C.4. Degree of urbanisation of small administrative units and LMA boundaries



Note: The map shows French LMAs overlapping with the TL3 regions Dordogne, Gironde, Lot-et-Garonne, Lot, and Corrèze. Thick black lines represent LMA borders, thin black lines represent borders of small administrative units and white lines represent LMAs the analysis merges because they overlap with the Bordeaux FUA by more than 50% of their population.

Figure C.5 classifies the same LMAs according to the most urbanised small administrative unit they contain. An LMA is classified as a city LMA (shown in blue) if it contains at least one small administrative unit classified as a city. It is classified as a town/semi-dense LMA (shown in yellow) if it contains no city but at least one town or semi-dense area. An LMA composed exclusively of small administrative units classified as rural areas is classified as a rural LMA (shown in green).

Figure C.5. Classification of LMAs by degree of urbanisation



Note: The map shows French LMAs overlapping with the TL3 regions Dordogne, Gironde, Lot-et-Garonne, Lot, and Corrèze. Thick black lines represent LMA borders, thin black lines represent borders of small administrative units and white lines represent LMAs the analysis merges because they overlap with the Bordeaux FUA by more than 50% of their population.

Robustness checks

Several checks assess the sensitivity of the results to LMA delineation and differences in the number of LMAs across countries. Merging LMAs with more than 50% of their population within the same functional urban area (FUA) has little effect on the results. Similarly, applying standardised delineation parameters instead of official national parameters for countries using the LMA/TTWA algorithm leaves the broad cross-country ranking unchanged. To assess whether the number of LMAs mechanically affects the coefficient of variation, a Monte Carlo exercise drew 10 000 random samples of 29 LMAs per country, corresponding to the number of LMAs in Denmark. The average simulated coefficients of variation remain close to the values observed from the full sample, suggesting that differences in the number of LMAs do not, in themselves, drive the results.

Population weighting has a greater influence on the results. The unweighted coefficient of variation used in the analysis gives equal weight to each LMA, whereas the population-weighted measure assigns greater weight to more populous LMAs. Population weighting generally reduces measured dispersion, particularly in Australia and Canada, where LMA population sizes vary substantially. By contrast, the coefficients of variation change relatively little in Italy and Hungary. Neither approach is inherently preferable: the choice depends on whether the analysis aims to give equal importance to differences between LMAs or to reflect the distribution of LMA unemployment rates across the population.

Social infrastructure and Points of Interest (POI) data from OpenStreetMap (OSM)

The analysis on social infrastructure includes analysis on eating and drinking facilities, cultural facilities and public community facilities. These categories do not constitute an exhaustive measure of social infrastructure. The analysis draws on OpenStreetMap (OSM), an open, collaboratively maintained geographic database where contributors describe geographic features using tags consisting of keys and corresponding values. Table C.3 lists the tags used to identify facilities in each category.

Table C.3. OSM tags used to identify social infrastructure facilities

Social infrastructure dimension	Values for the OSM key amenity	Other keys and values
Eating and drinking facilities	bar, biergarten, cafe, fast food, food court, ice cream, pub, restaurant	shop: ice cream
Cultural facilities	arts centre, cinema, community centre, events venue, library, music venue, nightclub, theatre	leisure: dance, tourism: gallery, museum
Public community facilities	community centre, social centre, social facility	–

Note: For features tagged as community centres, an additional community centre key with the value cultural centre identifies cultural facilities. All other community centres are classified as public community facilities.

The data-cleaning procedure harmonises the geographic representation of facilities and aims to count each facility only once. It involves three main steps:

1. Resolve duplicate records. Occasionally, the same OSM identifier appears in multiple records, often with conflicting country assignments. Such duplicates can lead to double counting or the incorrect attribution of facilities to a country. The procedure uses geographic boundaries to identify the appropriate record and excludes cases that cannot be resolved.
2. Remove overlapping representations. Different OSM records may represent the same physical facility as points, lines or polygons, creating a risk of double counting. For each specific facility type identified through the OSM tags in Table C.3, the procedure removes points located inside corresponding polygons, lines covered by such polygons along more than half their length, and polygons overlapping other polygons by more than half their area. These rules apply to facility-sized polygons with a bounding-box diagonal of up to 500 metres, avoiding the removal of distinct facilities within extensive mapped areas.
3. Standardise facility locations. The procedure converts retained polygons to centroids and lines to midpoints, combining them with existing points to obtain a consistent representation of facilities.

Country selection draws on estimates of OSM building completeness in urban centres (Herfort et al., 2023[4]). Building completeness serves as an indirect indicator of the likely coverage of mapped facilities. Comparisons of cultural facility counts across settlements of similar population show that countries with particularly low building completeness also tend to record substantially fewer facilities. Geographic coverage excludes Nunavut (Canada); Ceuta, Melilla and the Canary Islands (Spain); Guadeloupe, Martinique, French Guiana, Réunion and Mayotte (France); and Svalbard and Jan Mayen (Norway).

The indicators capture the presence and number of mapped facilities, but not differences in their characteristics. Facilities can vary in size, capacity, quality, frequency of use, activities, affordability and funding. Some activities may also take place in multifunctional spaces without being reflected in their OSM classification. Furthermore, the indicators do not establish whether facilities are accessible to everyone or measure the social interactions that take place there. They are therefore primarily suited to identifying geographic regularities in facility provision rather than assessing individual facilities.

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Note

[1] Note that this is different from the industry's share in total GVA in all cases except where populations shares are identical.

OECD Regions and Cities at a Glance 2026

OECD Regions and Cities at a Glance 2026 explores how economic, social, demographic and environmental conditions differ across regions and cities in OECD countries. Looking beyond national averages, it examines where people and businesses are benefiting from new opportunities and where gaps in productivity, jobs, housing, population trends, access to services and exposure to climate risks persist. The 2026 edition pays particular attention to the geography of artificial intelligence and knowledge-based activities, housing affordability, population ageing and decline, access to social and community infrastructure, and growing exposure to heat stress. It also explores how these trends interact, shaping the ability of different places to attract people, create opportunities and adapt to change. The report provides comparable evidence for national, regional and local policy makers, researchers and others seeking to understand how where people live affects economic opportunities, quality of life and resilience to future change.

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