

Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators 2012

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Special Supplement

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Foreword

Developing Asia had impressive economic growth and income poverty reduction in the last 2 decades but its progress on nonincome outcomes has been less impressive despite growth. Many economies are facing the new challenge of inequality of opportunity between the rich and the poor and other disadvantaged sections of the population. Accordingly, inclusive growth, or growth with equality of opportunity, is becoming a development policy objective.

The Asian Development Bank (ADB) is committed to promoting inclusive growth in developing Asia, and to helping economies face the new challenge of rising inequality to achieve its vision of “an Asia and Pacific region free of poverty.” To contribute to ongoing research in ADB on the measurement of inclusive growth and its operation, the *Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators 2011 (FIGI 2011)* was introduced as a special supplement to the *Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific 2011* in August 2011.

FIGI 2011 presented a framework of 35 indicators as quantitative measures of poverty and inequality (income and nonincome) outcomes of inclusive growth, its policy pillars, and good governance and institutions. It contained statistical tables on these indicators for the developing member economies of ADB, along with a brief analysis of country trends and within-country disparities to the extent data were available to reveal those inequalities.

This special supplement, *Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators 2012 (FIGI 2012)*, is a follow-up to *FIGI 2011* and has two parts. Part I uses aggregate data on the indicators of FIGI to analyze the state of inclusive growth in developing Asia and compare it with the state of inclusive growth in other developing regions—Latin America and the Caribbean and Sub-Saharan Africa. It also examines the associations between the indicators of poverty and inequality outcomes and the indicators of policy pillars and good governance, and looks into the effects, if any, of the quality of governance and the institutional environment on these associations. Updated statistical tables for the 35 FIGI indicators for the economies of developing Asia, with a brief analysis of trends, are in part II.

Better policies for inclusive growth demand good-quality data. We hope that this publication will encourage further research into the measurement of inclusive growth and raise awareness of the need to invest adequate resources in data collection to fill the gaps.

ADB’s Development Indicators and Policy Research Division of the Economics and Research Department prepared this special supplement under the overall guidance of Douglas Brooks. Kaushal Joshi, assisted by Melissa Pascua, coordinated its overall production. Part I of the publication was prepared by Desiree Desierto and finalized by Kaushal Joshi. It benefited immensely from the valuable suggestions and inputs of Juzhong Zhuang and Maria Socorro Bautista. Melissa Pascua, Criselda De Dios, Kristine Faith Agtarap, and Mark Rex Romaraog provided data support for part I and the statistical tables in part II and also prepared the brief analysis of trends in part II. Mary Ann Asico edited and Maria Guia de Guzman proofread the manuscript. Cover design and typesetting was done by Rhommell Rico.

We are extremely grateful to the various national and international agencies that were key sources for the data used in the publication. Some agencies even provided regional aggregates for some indicators at our special request. The publication would also not have been possible without the cooperation of ADB’s Department of External Relations (DER) and the Logistics Management Unit of the Office of Administrative Services (OAS).



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Guide for Users

Key Symbols

...	data not available
–	magnitude equals zero
0 or 0.0	magnitude is less than half of unit employed
n.a.	not applicable

Measurement Units

kWh	kilowatt-hour
R	correlation coefficient

Data Sources

The data in part I and part II of the publication are mainly from international statistical agencies that compile comparable data based on official statistics produced by the national statistical agencies. In some cases, the data are directly drawn from national statistical sources. For indicators where official statistics are lacking, data from nonofficial international sources that provide widely comparable indicators have been used.

Data on regional aggregates were either sourced from international agencies that produce data for concerned indicators or estimated using the agencies' aggregation methodology to the extent possible.

Regional Aggregates and Statistical Tables

In part I, data are presented as aggregates for developing Asia, five regions of developing Asia (Central and West Asia, East Asia, South Asia, Southeast Asia, and the Pacific), Latin America and the Caribbean, and Sub-Saharan Africa. The term “region,” aside from being used in the text to refer to the five regions in developing Asia, is also used to refer to the developing regions of the world, i.e., Latin America and the Caribbean and Sub-Saharan Africa. “Developing Asia” in part I refers to the 45 regional developing members of the Asian Development Bank (ADB) including Brunei Darussalam, which is not classified as a developing member. In some places, references are made to “developed Asia,” which refers to three developed regional members of ADB—Australia, Japan, and New Zealand. The five regions of developing Asia are based on ADB's operational regions as presented in the statistical tables in part II. Regional aggregates are weighted averages unless otherwise stated.

In part II of the publication, data on 35 indicators of inclusive growth are presented in 9 statistical tables for 48 economies of Asia and the Pacific that are members of ADB. The term “country,” used interchangeably with “economy,” is not intended to make any judgment as to the legal or other status of any territory or area. The 48 economies have been broadly grouped into developing and developed members aligned with ADB's operational regions. The latter refer exclusively to the three economies of Australia, Japan, and New Zealand. Economies are listed alphabetically per group. The statistics in the tables for each indicator are usually presented for two data points between 1990 and 2011. These have often been referred to as the earliest year (usually a year between 1990 and 2000) and the latest year (usually 2001 onward) depending on the available data for different economies. Similarly, the charts often present data with the time period specified as the “earliest year” and the “latest year.” This is because the years for which data are available vary widely across countries. The tables that are the sources for the charts show the actual years to which the data relate.

A few indicators in the framework have also been modified. Indicator 9 (employment rate) was reworded as “employment-to-population ratio” to be consistent with the definition of the indicator; indicator 10 (elasticity of total employment to total GDP) was dropped because of the uncertainty of updates from the data source agencies and replaced with an indicator of labor productivity—GDP per person engaged at constant 1990 PPP\$; indicator 15 (depositors with other depository corporations per 1,000 adults) was modified to “depositors with commercial banks per 1,000 adults” as available data for a number of economies from the source agency relate to commercial banks only; and indicator 27 (antenatal care coverage of at least one visit) was expanded to include antenatal care coverage for at least four visits.

Abbreviations and Acronyms

ADB	Asian Development Bank
ADO	Asian Development Outlook
CCT	conditional cash transfer
CPA	country performance assessment
CPI	Corruption Perceptions Index
CV	coefficient of variation
DTP3	diphtheria, tetanus toxoid, and pertussis
EFA	education for all
ERD	Economics and Research Department
FIGI	Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators
FSM	Federated States of Micronesia
GDP	gross domestic product
GHO	Global Health Observatory
ICT	information and communication technology
IDA	International Development Association
IEA	International Energy Agency
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
IRF	International Road Federation
ITU	International Telecommunication Union
JMP	Joint Monitoring Programme
KILM	Key Indicators of the Labour Market
LAC	Latin America and the Caribbean
Lao PDR	Lao People's Democratic Republic
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PNG	Papua New Guinea
PPP	purchasing power parity
PRC	People's Republic of China
Rf	Maldives rufiyaa
SOWC	State of the World's Children
SPC	Secretariat of the Pacific Community
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
TI	Transparency International
UN	United Nations
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economics and Social Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNSD	United Nation Statistics Division
US	United States
WGI	Worldwide Governance Indicators
WHO	World Health Organization
WPP	World Population Prospects
WUP	World Urbanization Prospects

Unless otherwise indicated, "\$" refers to United States dollars.

Highlights

Developing Asia has achieved remarkably higher economic growth than other regions in recent decades, and poverty has declined sharply. Yet income disparities and inequality of opportunity are also rising in many economies in the region, despite rapid growth. Inclusive growth is therefore increasingly necessary to improve the quality of life for many Asians.

The *Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators (FIGI 2011)* launched in 2011 contributed to ongoing research in the Asian Development Bank (ADB) on measuring and operationalizing inclusive growth. FIGI 2011 presented a set of 35 indicators in a framework where poverty and inequality outcomes of inclusive growth are measured by 3 income- and 3 nonincome-related indicators. These are measures for assessing progress on income poverty and nonincome poverty. The poverty and inequality outcomes were to be achieved through three policy pillars that promoted: (a) sustained high growth and creation of productive jobs and economic opportunity, (b) social inclusion to ensure equal access to economic opportunity by increasing human capabilities, and (c) social safety nets to protect the chronically poor and to mitigate the risks and vulnerabilities of people. The progress on these pillars is measured by a set of 26 quantitative indicators.

Policies for inclusive growth are supported by good governance and institutions, which are in turn measured by another set of 3 indicators.

This *FIGI 2012* has two parts. Part I uses aggregate data on the FIGI indicators and provides a comparative analysis of the state of inclusive growth in developing Asia and in other developing regions of the world—Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) and Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). Using country-level data for developing Asia, it also examines the extent of association between indicators of poverty and inequality outcomes on the one hand, and indicators for the policy pillars and good governance and institutions, on the other. Part II contains updated statistical tables for the 35 FIGI indicators for the economies in developing Asia.

Part I: Regional Trends and Associations between Indicators of Poverty and Inequality Outcomes and Indicators of Policy Pillars and Good Governance

1.1 Performance on Indicators of Poverty and Inequality Outcomes

Developing Asia has lifted large number of its people out of poverty but faces the new challenge of rising income inequality in growing economies.

- In the last 2 decades, developing Asia significantly reduced the percentage of its population living below \$2 a day (PPP), but though it is ahead of SSA in this regard, it still lags far behind LAC. Income inequality, as measured by the ratio of income or consumption of the highest to the lowest quintiles, also worsened in 14 out of 30 economies in developing Asia, including four of the five most populous—Bangladesh, the People’s Republic of China (PRC), India, and Indonesia.
- The ratio of income or consumption of the highest to the lowest quintile ranged from 4.0

to 11.3 in developing Asia (except Nauru’s 16.2). The spread of ratios was narrower than that for LAC (7.6–29.7) and SSA (4.3–26.7) for the data available for the latest year.

- Developing Asia lags behind LAC in the three key nonincome outcomes—average years of total schooling, prevalence of underweight children, and under-five mortality. Compared with SSA, developing Asia is performing significantly better on average years of total schooling and under-five mortality but has a larger prevalence of underweight children.

Within developing Asia, East Asia is generally outperforming other regions in both income and nonincome poverty outcomes.

Within developing Asia, East Asia, led by the PRC, is outperforming Southeast Asia, Central and West Asia, South Asia, and the Pacific in poverty reduction and also in nonincome poverty outcomes—average years of total schooling, prevalence of underweight children, and under-five mortality rate. Poverty is still highest in South Asia, which also trails in average years of total schooling and prevalence of underweight children. On under-five mortality rates, Central and West Asia lags behind the other regions.

1.2 Performance on Policy Pillar Indicators

Despite strong economic growth in recent years, developing Asia is behind Latin America and the Caribbean in most FIGI indicators.

- Economic growth has been strongest in developing Asia, where annualized growth in gross domestic product (GDP) per capita reached 7.3% in 2005–2010, compared with only 2.8% in both SSA and LAC. In most other policy pillar indicators, developing Asia generally lags behind LAC but is ahead of SSA. For example, it is behind LAC in providing decent employment opportunities, access to electricity, and subscriptions to cellular phones, but its network of paved roads as a percentage of total roads is much larger than LAC's and SSA's.
- With respect to indicators of social inclusion and access to opportunities, developing Asia is behind LAC in expected years of schooling for children; pupil–teacher ratio; availability of skilled health personnel per 10,000 population; diphtheria, tetanus toxoid, and pertussis (DTP3) immunization rates for children; population with access to improved drinking water sources and sanitation facilities; and gender parity in primary, secondary, and tertiary education. Its performance against all these indicators is better than SSA's, but gender parity in the labor force participation rate is higher in SSA than in developing Asia and LAC.
- Regarding the indicators of good governance and institutions, developing Asia is performing better than LAC and SSA in government effectiveness and the Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI).

Within developing Asia, East Asia and Southeast Asia are generally performing better on most FIGI policy pillar indicators than other regions.

- Within developing Asia, economic growth in 2005–2010 was fastest in East Asia (led by the PRC), at an annualized GDP per capita growth rate of 9.3%, followed by South Asia, at 6.4%. It was slowest in the Pacific, at 2.3%.
- On key infrastructure endowments, East Asia consumes the most electricity per capita—more than five times the consumption in South Asia and nearly three times that in Southeast Asia.

Southeast Asia has the most number of cellular phone subscriptions per 100 people, and Central and West Asia has the largest network of paved roads as a percentage of total roads.

- Regarding indicators of social inclusion and access to opportunities, school life expectancy (expected years of schooling for children) is highest in Southeast Asia, followed by East Asia. East Asia has the lowest pupil–teacher ratio and 99% DTP3 immunization rates for children, while Central and West Asia has the highest availability of skilled health personnel per 10,000 people. All the regions in Asia have more than 85% population with access to improved drinking water, except for the Pacific, which trails at around 52%, mainly because of low access in Papua New Guinea, its most populated economy. Despite improvements in access of up to 55%, improved sanitation still eludes many people in developing Asia. Access is highest in Southeast Asia, at nearly 69%, and lowest in South Asia, at 37%. Gender gaps in primary and secondary education in all economies have almost closed, except in Central and West Asia, where the gender gaps in Afghanistan and Pakistan are large. Success in tertiary education is mixed, with rates in East and Southeast Asia at 1.07 favoring females, those in South Asia at 0.72 and the Pacific at 0.82 biased against females, and gender parity in Central and West Asia at 0.95.
- Government expenditures on social security and welfare (as a percentage of total government expenditure) are generally low for developing Asia, at 9.4%, though the rates are much higher in some economies in East Asia and in Central and West Asia.
- The performance of economies within the regions of developing Asia also varies significantly on some indicators. For example, the performance of economies in the Pacific region varies significantly on GDP per capita growth, the percentage of seats held by women in national parliaments, social security expenditures on health as a percentage of total government expenditure on health, and government expenditure on social security and welfare as percentage of total government expenditure. For economies in East Asia, South Asia, Southeast Asia, and the Pacific, performance varies significantly on the indicators of good governance and institutions.

1.3 *Developing Asia: Associations between Indicators of Poverty and Inequality Outcomes and Indicators of the Policy Pillars*

While developing Asia is performing better against a large number of indicators of poverty and inequality outcomes, as well as the policy pillar indicators, it is of interest to explore the associations between the outcome indicators of poverty and inequality and the indicators of policy pillars and good governance to have a rough assessment of policy and institutional effectiveness. Data constraints prevent the identification of possible causal effects of the policy pillars on the outcomes; hence, simple bivariate correlation analysis between these variables has been used, with some interesting results:

- Income poverty of \$2 a day (PPP) is significantly correlated (showing expected signs, positive or negative) with most policy pillar indicators. The growth rate of average per capita income or consumption, GDP per person engaged at constant 1990 PPP\$, own-account and contributing family workers, extent of paved roads, per capita electricity consumption, cellular phone subscriptions, access to education and health as well as basic utilities, and gender parity in education—all these have a significant correlation with poverty. Almost all policy pillar indicators do not correlate significantly with the indicator of income inequality (the ratio of income or consumption of highest to lowest quintile), highlighting the difficulty in assessing policy effectiveness for inclusive growth.
- Among the nonincome poverty indicators, the average years of total schooling and under-five mortality rate also significantly correlate with many indicators of the policy pillars. Though the indicator—prevalence of underweight children—associates strongly with much fewer indicators, its correlation with per capita GDP growth, employment-to-population ratio, gender parity in education, and antenatal care coverage is significant.
- Significant correlation has been found between nonincome poverty outcomes and indicators of good governance and institutions, but correlations between income poverty outcomes and indicators of good governance and institutions are weak.
- When economies in developing Asia are classified into “low-quality” (or high-corruption)

and “high-quality” (or low-corruption) governance subgroups according to their CPI scores, the two subgroups are found to differ in their correlations between policy pillars and outcomes. Interestingly, for some indicators such correlations are both significant and are larger in magnitude for the “low-quality” group than for the “high quality” group. This interesting result, though based on simple correlation analysis, provides motivation for research and discussion to further explore these associations.

Part II: Trends and Disparities within Countries in Developing Asia

Disparities due to wealth (e.g., lowest vs highest income quintiles), gender (male, female), and residence (rural, urban) exist in outcomes and access to opportunities in developing Asia.

- Inequalities in outcomes and access to opportunities in developing Asia are often associated with disparities due to household wealth, residence (rural–urban), and gender. Poverty rates are higher in rural areas than in urban centers, and the ratio of rural to urban poverty rates has worsened in 18 out of 21 economies.
- A child born to a rural household is more likely to be underweight and has less chance of surviving until her or his fifth birthday than a child in an urban household. Household wealth is also a discriminating factor in a child’s health and survival: children in the poorest quintile tend to have worse health outcomes. The poorest under-five children in 15 economies are at least twice as likely as their richest counterparts to be underweight, and poorest children in 9 economies are two to three times as likely to die before reaching the age of five.
- Wealth and rural–urban disparities also exists in access to basic utilities such as clean fuel for cooking, electricity, improved drinking water sources and improved sanitation facilities. Unequal access to these basic social services and utilities hampers improvements in the capabilities of the disadvantaged that would enable them to take advantage of better opportunities for growth.
- Gender gaps in labor force participation and employment opportunities are pronounced.

Females are also more likely than males to be employed in low-quality, vulnerable jobs. In most economies, women in rural areas or in households in the poorest quintile have less access to basic health services, such as antenatal care, than their urban or richer counterparts.

Some Policy Implications

- Developing Asia had impressive economic growth and income poverty reduction but its progress on nonincome outcomes has been less impressive. Income inequality, and unequal access to economic opportunity, education, health, and basic utilities and services are prevalent.
- Analyses of correlations between indicators of nonincome outcomes and the indicators of policy pillars and good governance suggest that these outcomes can be addressed by putting in place policies that spur growth, create productive employment, and provide broader access to education, health, and other public services, as well as greater participation of females in education and the labor force.
- Observed correlations also provide some evidence, though not conclusive, that the quality of institutions might modify the associations between outcomes and policy interventions. Some policy interventions might therefore be more crucial below a certain threshold of institutional environment, beyond which the effect of interventions might be relatively smaller.

PART I

Regional Trends and Associations of Outcome Indicators with Indicators of Policy Pillars and Good Governance

1. Introduction

Developing Asia achieved impressive economic growth in the last decade and had remarkable success in lifting large numbers of people in the region out of poverty. At the same time, recent evidence suggests that in many growing economies of developing Asia, rising income disparities are widening the gap between the rich and the poor. Policy makers and development partners alike are increasingly concerned not only with the uneven income outcomes but also with the disparities in nonincome outcomes on education and health, heightened by the unequal access to economic opportunities and by social exclusion. The growing inequalities may spark social tension and violent hostility from those who are continually deprived of the fruits of progress, and disrupt the sustainability of the growth process itself. Accordingly, many countries have made inclusive growth a development policy objective.

Inclusive growth, defined as economic growth with equality of opportunity, is one of three strategic objectives on the Asian Development Bank (ADB) agenda,¹ as documented in *Strategy 2020: The Long-Term Strategic Framework of the Asian Development Bank* (ADB 2008). The *Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators 2011*, or *FIGI 2011* (ADB 2011a)—a special supplement to the *Key*

Indicators for Asia and the Pacific 2011 (ADB 2011b)—provided a detailed structure for the analysis of inclusive growth (Figure 1.1 and Table 1.1). In the structure, inclusive growth outcomes are measured by indicators of income and nonincome poverty. These outcomes are achieved through three policy pillars that promote (a) sustained high growth and creation of productive jobs and economic opportunity, (b) social inclusion to ensure equal access to economic opportunity by increasing human capabilities, and (c) social safety nets to protect the chronically poor and to mitigate the risks and vulnerabilities of people. Each of these pillars is measured by a set of quantitative indicators.

Policies for inclusive growth are supported by good governance and institutions, which are in turn measured by another set of indicators.² To make the assessment of inclusive growth operational, *FIGI 2011* thus proposed a framework of 35 indicators, as listed in Table 1.1. *FIGI 2011* also presented a set of statistical tables with data on FIGI indicators for the economies in developing Asia and the three developed economies of Australia, Japan, and New Zealand, with brief analyses of country level trends and inequalities based on sex, rural–urban residence, and wealth quintiles where relevant and when data were available for such disaggregated levels.

Figure 1.1 Policy Pillars of Inclusive Growth

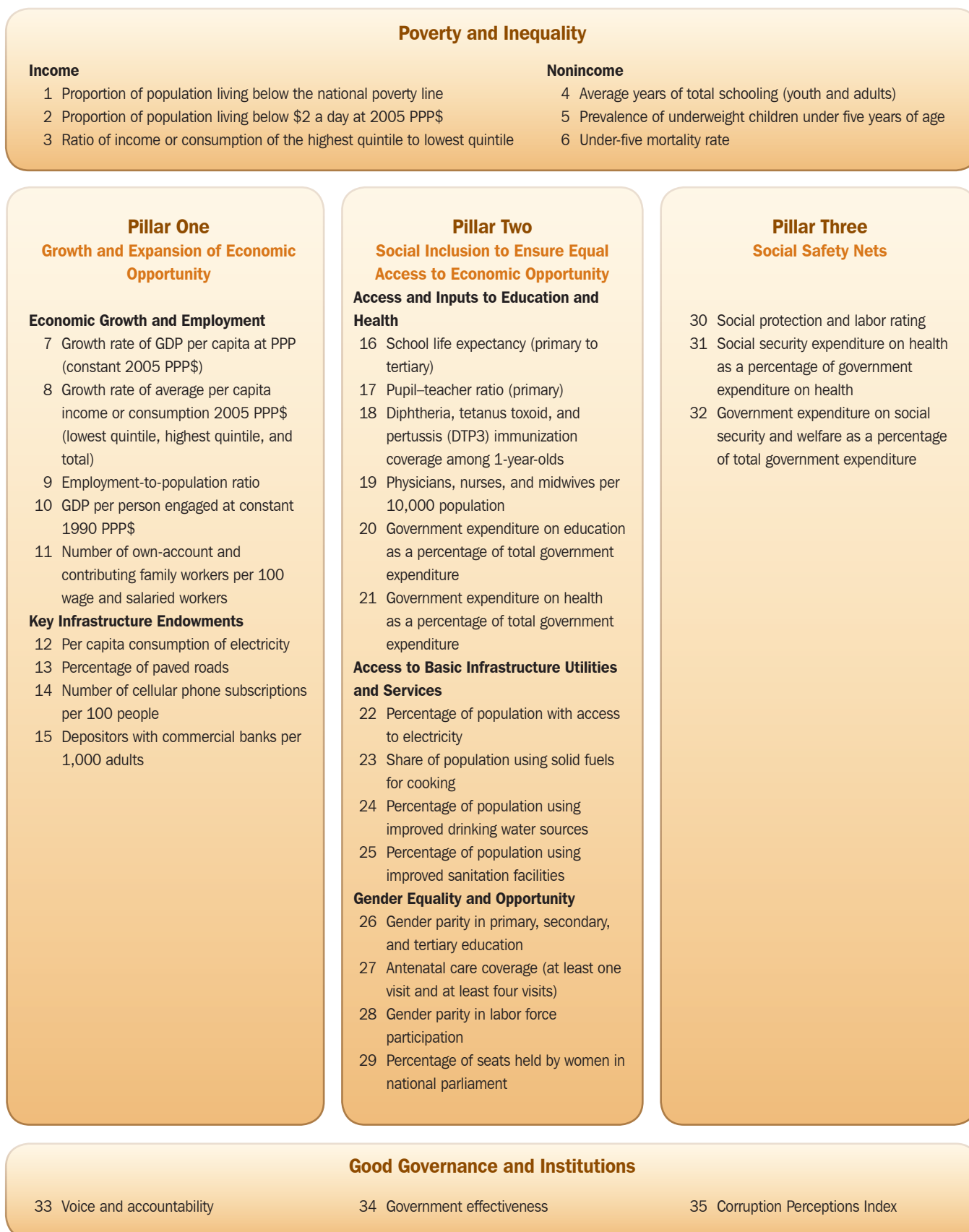


Source: Zhuang (2010).

1 The two others are environmentally sustainable growth and regional integration.

2 See also Ali and Zhuang (2007) and Zhuang (2010).

Table 1.1 Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators*



GDP = gross domestic product, PPP = purchasing power parity

* Indicators will be disaggregated by sex, rural–urban residence, and wealth quintiles where applicable and when data are available.

Source: Developed from the Policy Pillars in Figure 1.1, as adapted from Zhuang (2010).

This follow-up issue of the special supplement of KI 2012 (*FIGI 2012*) is divided into two parts. Part I provides an analysis of available country-level and regional (aggregate) data on the 35 FIGI indicators in order to assess the state of inclusive growth in developing Asia compared with other developing regions of the world and across regions within developing Asia. It also examines the extent to which indicators of policy pillars and good governance and institutions are associated with indicators of poverty and inequality outcomes and summarizes the results of this analysis. Part II provides an update on the statistical tables of 35 indicators of FIGI to the extent most recent data are available, along with brief analyses of key trends.

Part I is divided into five sections including this introductory first section. In section 2, the trends in developing Asia are compared with those in other developing regions of the world, specifically Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) and Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). Comparisons are made as well among regions in developing Asia.³ In section 3, correlations between the indicators are analyzed using country-level data for economies of Asia to find out which combination of policy pillars and good governance indicators are associated with the poverty and inequality outcomes and might therefore have sizable impact on the outcomes; section 4 looks into how the correlations are modified when the economies of developing Asia are classified into two subgroups according to the quality of their institutions (low quality and high quality) and shows how policy pillars might affect poverty and inequality outcomes depending on the institutional environment. Section 5 concludes with a summary of the findings and some policy recommendations.

2. Trends across Developing Regions of the World and Regions within Developing Asia

Using available data on 35 FIGI indicators for the period 1990–2010 at the country and regional (aggregate) level, this section analyzes trends for developing Asia, LAC, and SSA, and also for ADB's five regions in developing Asia—Central and West Asia, East Asia, South Asia, Southeast Asia, and the Pacific.

In addition, coefficients of variation have been calculated for the indicators of policy pillars and good governance for the five regions of developing Asia, whenever data are available for 2010. These results are presented in Table 1.2 and will be referred to in the discussion in other sections for the purpose of comparing within-group variations for these indicators.

The data used in parts I and II of *FIGI 2012* come mainly from international statistical agencies that compile comparable data based on official statistics from the national statistical agencies in their respective domains. In a few cases, data are drawn directly from national statistical sources. For indicators where official statistics are lacking, data from nonofficial international sources that provide widely comparable indicators have been used.

The analysis is limited by data constraints as there are gaps due to nonavailability of data on all the indicators for all economies in a particular year. Also, regional and subregional aggregates are not always possible because of insufficiency of data. The regional and subregional aggregates used in the analysis are weighted averages, unless stated otherwise. Often, regional aggregates have been estimated using the latest available data for the individual economies. Even with these data limitations, however, some approximate comparisons have been made.

The comparative analysis in this section follows the structure of FIGI (Table 1.1)—first analyzing the poverty and inequality indicators (outcomes of inclusive growth policies), then the indicators for the three policy pillars, and lastly the governance indicators.

³ Wan and Zhang (2011) similarly analyze the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) indicators for developing Asia.

Poverty and Inequality

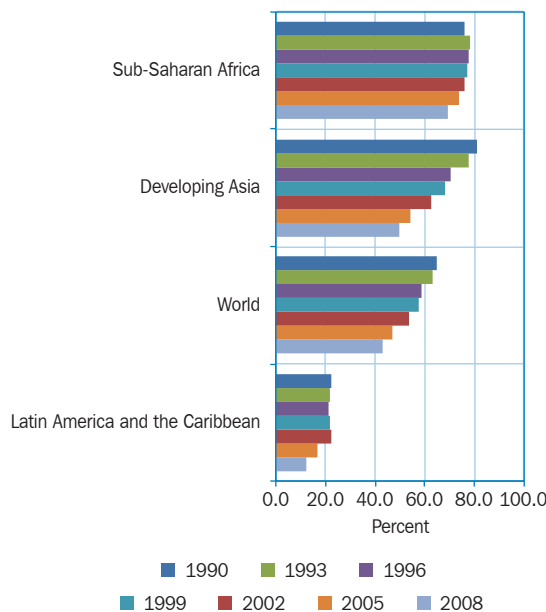
Income Poverty

Proportion of Population Living below the \$2 a Day (PPP) Poverty Line

The proportion of the population below both nationally and internationally defined poverty lines has fallen in all developing regions. The national poverty lines defined by national authorities are often used to monitor poverty at the national level. These are, however, not directly comparable between economies and cannot be aggregated at regional levels since they are based on different concepts and methods defined by national authorities. Definitions and methods might also change over time and may not be well-documented.

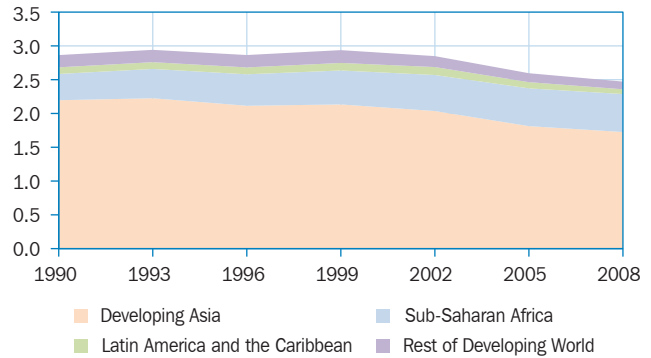
International poverty lines, such as \$1.25 a day (PPP) or \$2 a day (PPP) provide measures for comparing poverty across countries and regions. Since 1990, the proportion of population living below \$2 a day (PPP) in developing Asia has been decreasing, from 81.0% in 1990 down to 49.8% in 2008. As shown in Figure 1.2, although \$2-a-day poverty in this region is below the poverty level in SSA (69.2% in 2008), it remains much higher than the poverty level in LAC—22.4% in 1990 and 12.4% in 2008. Developing Asia has the highest population in the developing world, and is home to the largest number of poor people. Nearly 1.73 billion of the 2.47 billion poor living below \$2 a day (PPP) in developing regions of the world live in developing Asia (Figure 1.3).

Figure 1.2 Proportion of Population Living below \$2 a Day at 2005 PPP\$, Developing Regions (%)



Source: PovcalNet Database Online (World Bank), accessed 22 May 2012.

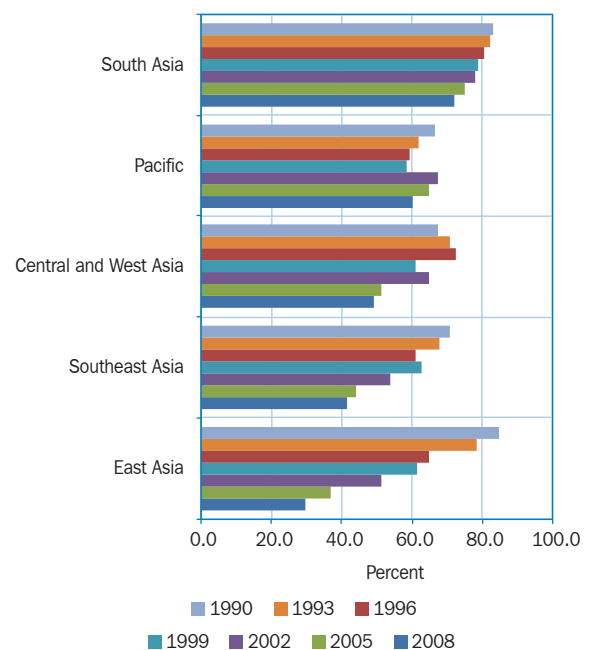
Figure 1.3 Number of People Living below \$2 a Day at 2005 PPP\$, billions



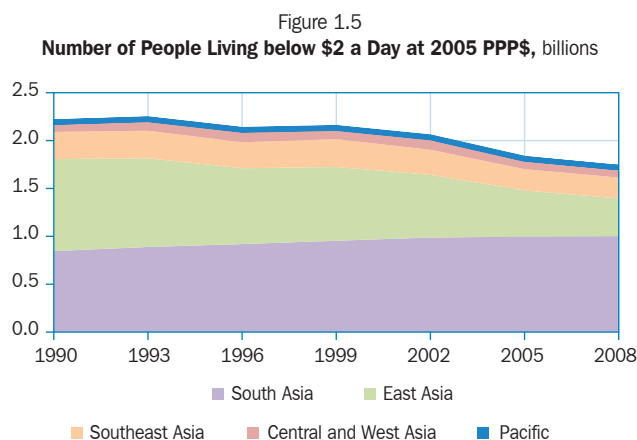
Source: PovcalNet Database Online (World Bank), accessed 22 May 2012.

Within developing Asia, poverty remains highest in South Asia, at 83.2% in 1990 and 72.2% in 2008, and is currently lowest in East Asia, where the People’s Republic of China (PRC) has achieved the fastest rate of poverty reduction, from 84.6% in 1990 to 29.8% in 2008 (Figure 1.4). In South Asia, on the other hand, the number of poor people has actually increased, from 0.85 billion in 1990 to around 1.0 billion in 2008 (Figure 1.5). Poverty in the Pacific and Central and West Asia also jumped in some years between 1990 and 2002, before decreasing again toward 2008.

Figure 1.4 Proportion of Population Living below \$2 a Day at 2005 PPP\$, Developing Asia (%)



Source: PovcalNet Database Online (World Bank), accessed 22 May 2012.

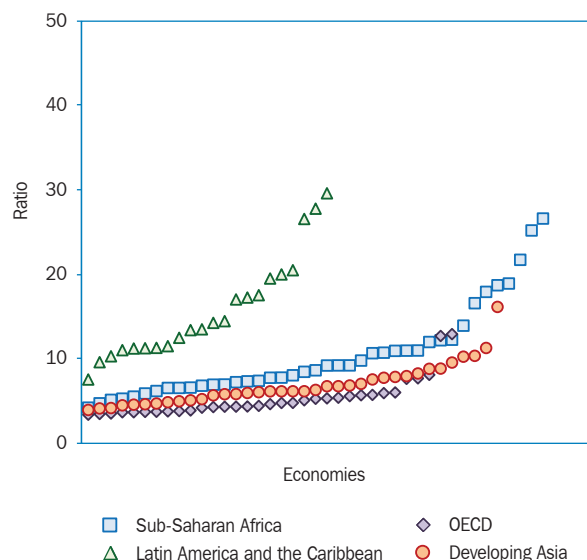


Ratio of Income or Consumption of the Highest to the Lowest Quintiles

Inequalities exist in developing Asia but are less pronounced than in SSA and LAC. Country-level data on income inequalities,⁴ as measured by the ratio of income or consumption of the highest quintile to that of the lowest quintile for latest available years (between 2001 and 2010), generally reveal lower ratios for developing Asia on average than for LAC and SSA (Figure 1.6). The ratios for economies in developing Asia range from 4.0 to 11.3 (except for Nauru where the ratio is 16.2 in 2006), and are less pronounced than the spread of ratios for LAC (7.6 to 29.7) and SSA (4.3 to 26.7) for the latest available year. The ratios of income or consumption of the highest to lowest quintiles have, however, worsened in 14 of the 30 economies of developing Asia according to two comparable data points between the earliest year (between 1990 and 2000) and the latest year (between 2001 and 2010). These include Bangladesh, the PRC, India, and Indonesia, four of the five most populous economies, which account for nearly 80% of the population of developing Asia. The ratios have also worsened in 11 out of 21 LAC economies, and in seven out of 28 SSA economies. These findings of rising inequalities in developing Asia based on the ratio of income or consumption of the highest to the lowest quintiles and a comparison with LAC and SSA are consistent with the findings presented in the *Asian Development Outlook 2012* (ADB 2012), which used the Gini coefficient as a measure of income inequality.

4 Inequality can be estimated on the basis of income or expenditure, but with generally different results. Income inequality is normally higher than expenditure inequality. For more details on data sources for individual economies, refer to the World Bank's PovcalNet Database Online available at <http://iresearch.worldbank.org/PovcalNet/index.htm?3>; the OECD database on income distribution and poverty available at www.oecd.org/els/social/inequality; and ADB's *Asian Development Outlook 2012*.

Figure 1.6 Ratio of Income or Consumption
Share of Highest Quintile to Lowest Quintile, Latest Year



OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Note: Data points indicate individual ratios of highest to lowest quintile of economies for each region, arranged in ascending order. The ratios for Latin America and the Caribbean (except for Jamaica and Mexico) and for OECD are estimated from per capita income. For developing Asia (except for the Federated States of Micronesia, the Republic of Korea, Malaysia, and Taipei, China) and Sub-Saharan Africa (except for Namibia), ratios are based on per capita consumption expenditure.

Sources: PovcalNet Database Online (World Bank), accessed 22 May 2012; World Development Indicators Online (World Bank), accessed 29 April 2012; OECD database on income distribution and poverty, via www.oecd.org/els/social/inequality > database; Asian Development Outlook 2012 (ADB); economy sources.

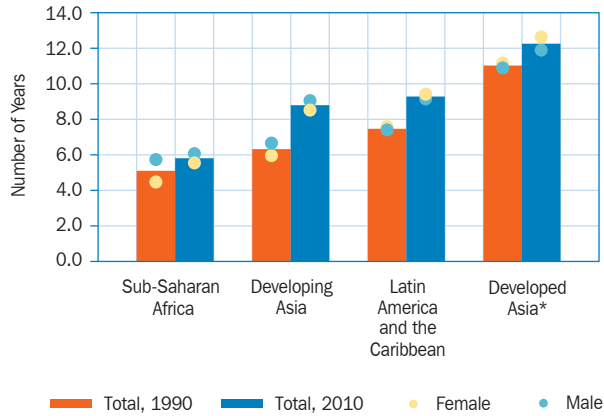
Nonincome Poverty

Average Years of Total Schooling (Youth and Adults)

Educational attainment, as measured by average years of total schooling, is higher in developing Asia than in SSA, but still lower than in LAC. Data for 1990 and 2010 show that the average years of total schooling for the youth had been increasing in all developing regions (Figure 1.7). Developed Asia (Australia, Japan, and New Zealand) still outstripped economies in developing Asia with a gap of 3.5 years, but compared with SSA, developing Asia had higher average years of schooling for the youth (at 8.8 years) than SSA (at 5.8 years) in 2010. Also, while LAC still fares better than developing Asia, the gap has been closing, from 6.3 years for developing Asia and 7.5 years for LAC in 1990, to 8.8 years for developing Asia and 9.3 years for LAC in 2010.

Within developing Asia, East Asia had the highest average years of youth schooling, at 11.0 years, followed by Southeast Asia, at 8.6 years (Figure 1.8). While South Asia lagged behind Central and West Asia in 1990, both regions now have the same average years of youth schooling (7.3 years).

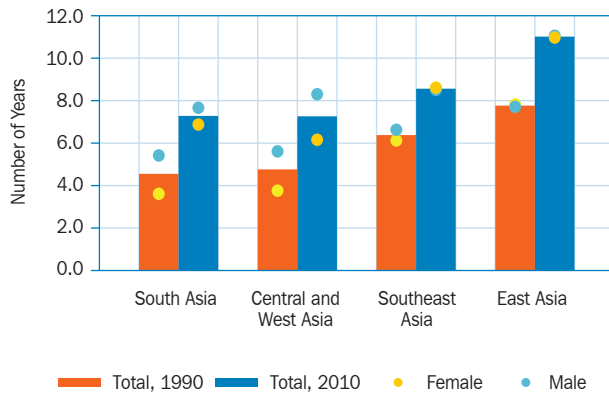
Figure 1.7 Average Years of Total Schooling of Youth (15–24), 1990 and 2010



* Australia, Japan, and New Zealand.

Source: ADB staff estimates using data from Barro and Lee (2011).

Figure 1.8 Average Years of Total Schooling of Youth (15–24), Regions in Developing Asia, 1990 and 2010



Source: ADB staff estimates using data from Barro and Lee (2011).

Roughly the same trends as in the youths are observed in the average years of total schooling of the adult population (25 years and over). Educational attainment of adults is clearly highest in developed Asia (Australia, Japan, and New Zealand), and developing Asia has fared better than SSA but is still behind LAC.

Among the regions of developing Asia, East Asia consistently had highest average years of total schooling of adults. By 2010, an average East Asian adult had 7.8 years of total schooling followed by 6.3 years each in Central and West Asia and Southeast Asia and 4.5 years in South Asia.

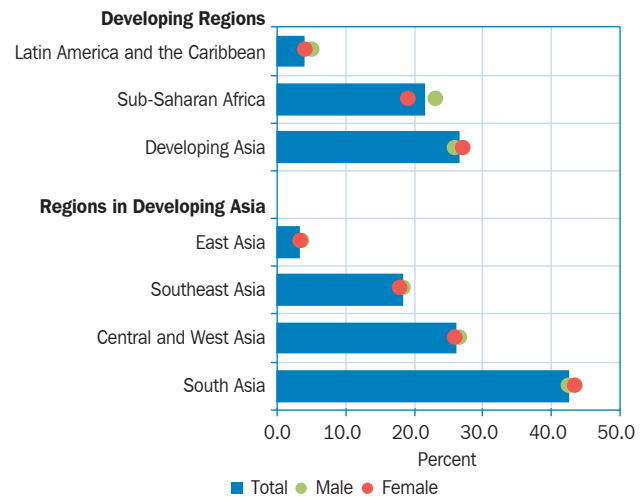
Inequalities in educational attainment also exist between females and males. The average years of schooling are lower among female youth in developing Asia and SSA than among males (as of 2010), while in LAC and developed Asia (Australia, Japan, and New Zealand), young females have higher average schooling years than males (Figure 1.7). Among the regions of developing Asia,

there are clear gender gaps in Central and West Asia and South Asia, where female youth have fewer years of schooling. However, developing Asia has been closing the gender gap in youth schooling over the years. South Asia had the largest improvement (Figure 1.8), although not where the adult population is concerned.

Prevalence of Underweight Children under Five Years of Age

Developing Asia's record on nutritional imbalance and malnutrition based on prevalence of underweight children is worse than SSA's and LAC's. Data availability on this indicator is quite limited, and the regional aggregates for the developing regions are based on the data for individual economies available for the most recent year during the period 2004–2011. While assessment of situations might be different if most recent data were available, the regional estimates calculated using the available data reveal that developing Asia has the worst prevalence of underweight children under 5 years of age, at 26.6%, higher than SSA's 21.6% and LAC's 3.9% (Figure 1.9). Within developing Asia, East Asia has the lowest prevalence, at 3.4%, even lower than the figure for LAC, mainly on account of the PRC with its 3.4% underweight children. South Asia has the highest prevalence at 42.6%, more than double the rate for Southeast Asia (18.4%), mainly because of the high prevalence of underweight children in the two large population economies of India (43.5%) and Bangladesh (41.3%).

Figure 1.9 Prevalence of Underweight Children under Five Years of Age (%), Total, Female, Male (2004–2011)*



*Regional aggregates are approximated weighted averages estimated using data available for the years 2004–2011 except for data for Eritrea of Sub-Saharan Africa (2002). The data for reference population of 0–4 years of age are from World Population Prospects: The 2010 Revision.

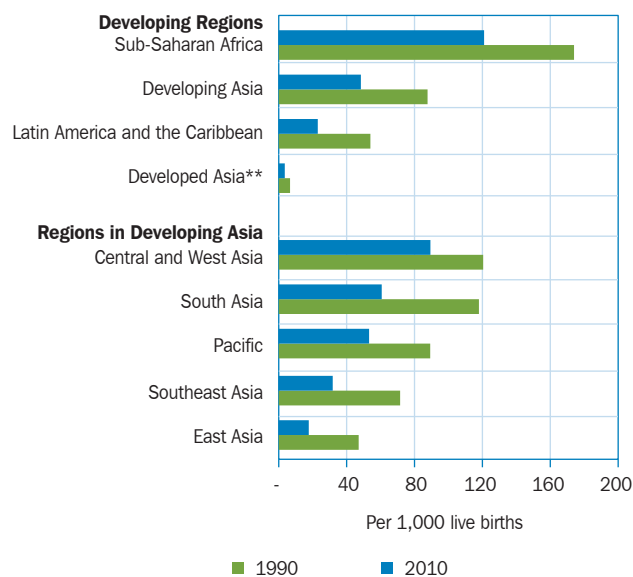
Sources: ADB estimates based on data from Childinfo website (UNICEF) available at <http://www.childinfo.org/index.html> accessed 24 May 2012; Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2012; for Indonesia (2010), Nepal (2011), and Pakistan (2011); harmonized data provided by the WHO and UNICEF on 3 August 2012, and economy sources; World Population Prospects: The 2010 Revision, accessed 16 June 2012.

According to the latest available data between 2004 and 2011, developing Asia has about 85 million underweight children under 5 years of age, with nearly three-fourths of this number in South Asia alone. SSA has 28 million, while LAC has the fewest, at about 2 million.

Under-Five Mortality Rate

Under-five mortality rates in developing Asia are lower than those in SSA but higher than those in LAC. The number of under-five deaths per 1,000 live births has been decreasing all over the world since 1990. In 2010, the child mortality rate for developing Asia was 48 deaths per 1,000 live births, more than twice the rate in LAC (23 deaths per 1,000 live births), but much lower than SSA's 121 per 1,000 live births. In developing Asia, under-five mortality was lowest in East Asia, at 18 deaths per 1,000 live births, but this rate was still more than four times that in developed Asia (Australia, Japan, and New Zealand). Child mortality rates were highest in Central and West Asia, followed by South Asia, the Pacific, Southeast Asia, and East Asia (Figure 1.10).

Figure 1.10 Under-Five Mortality Rate* (per 1,000 Live Births), Total (1990, 2010)



* Regional aggregates are approximated weighted averages estimated using data for 1990 and 2010.

** Australia, Japan, and New Zealand.

Sources: ADB estimates, based on data from Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2012; Childinfo website (UNICEF), available at www.childinfo.org/index.html, accessed 24 May 2012; *The State of the World's Children Report, 2012* (UNICEF), accessed on 23 May 2012; World Population Prospects: The 2010 Revision, accessed 16 June 2012.

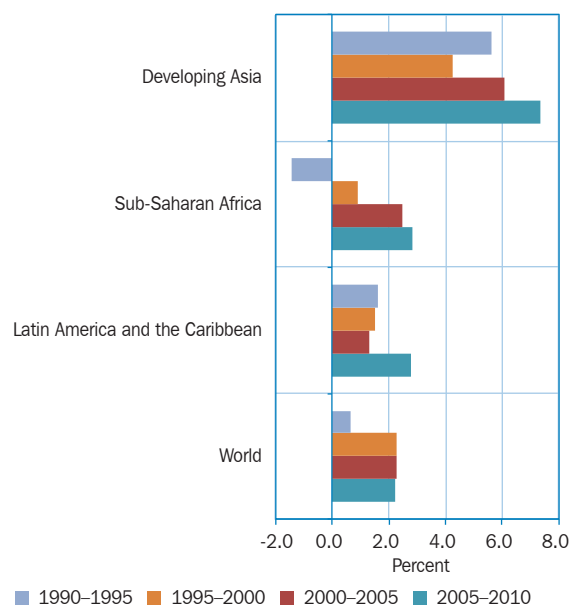
These figures translate into around 9,000 under-five deaths per day in developing Asia in 2010, with South Asia having the highest rate, at 5,208 deaths per day, followed by Central and West Asia with around 1,900. SSA had close to 11,000 deaths per day, while LAC had fewer than 700.

Pillar One (Growth and Expansion of Economic Opportunity)

Economic Growth and Employment

In the developing world, economic growth is strongest in Asia, where gross domestic product (GDP) per capita (at constant 2005 PPP\$) grew at 5.6% in 1990–1995, and at 7.3% in 2005–2010 (Figure 1.11). In contrast, SSA had negative growth of 1.4% in 1990–1995 but grew at 2.8% in 2005–2010, while LAC had GDP per capita growth rates of 1.6% and 2.8% for the two periods. The growth rates of the East Asian economies (led by the PRC) far surpass those of other regions, while South Asia has also steadily increased its GDP growth rates behind East Asia (Figure 1.12). Some inequalities in the per capita GDP growth exist as well between countries in developing Asia, especially in the Pacific, where the coefficient of variation for the GDP growth rate per capita is above 1, implying generally wide variations in growth rates of per capita GDP between economies (Table 1.2).

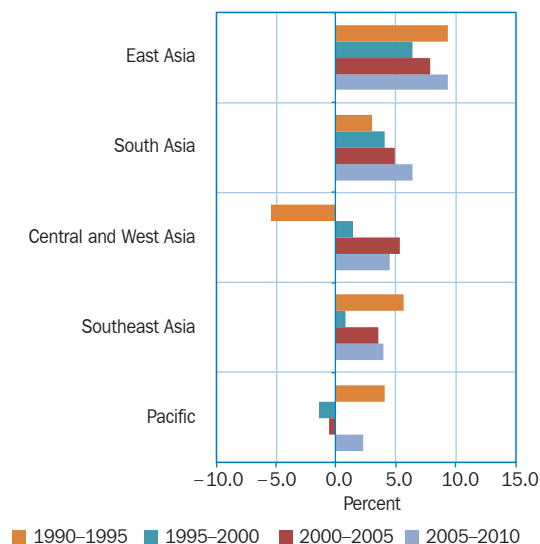
Figure 1.11 Annualized Growth Rate of GDP per Capita, at Constant 2005 PPP\$ (%), Developing Regions



GDP= gross domestic product, PPP = purchasing power parity.

Source: ADB estimates, based on data from World Development Indicators Online (World Bank), accessed 19 July 2012.

Figure 1.12 Annualized Growth Rate of GDP per Capita, at Constant 2005 PPP\$ (%), Developing Asia



GDP = gross domestic product, PPP = purchasing power parity.

Source: ADB estimates, based on data from World Development Indicators Online (World Bank), accessed 19 July 2012.

In spite of high economic growth, employment-to-population ratios have gone down for developing Asia in recent years, from an estimated 67% in 1991 to 63% in 2011, while they have improved in LAC and SSA (Figure 1.13). Also, the bulk of jobs in many economies of developing Asia and also in SSA are of low quality since more people work in the informal sector as own-account and contributing family workers per 100 wage and salaried workers.

Key Infrastructure Endowments

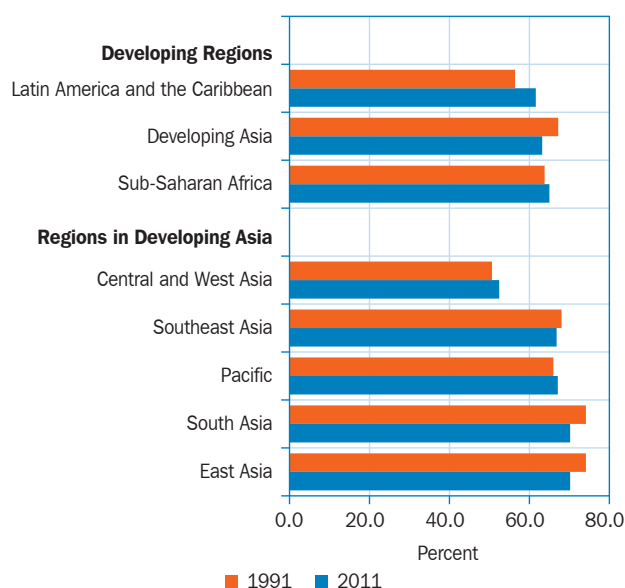
With its higher economic growth, developing Asia also had high growth rates in per capita consumption of electricity. Its per capita consumption of 1,530 kilowatt-hours (kWh) in 2009 was almost three times that of SSA (511 kWh) but was still lower than LAC's (around 1,900 kWh). Within developing Asia, East Asia had the largest increase in electricity consumption between 1990 and 2009 (Figure 1.14).

Table 1.2 Coefficients of Variation for Indicators of Policy Pillars and Good Governance, Developing Asia, 2010

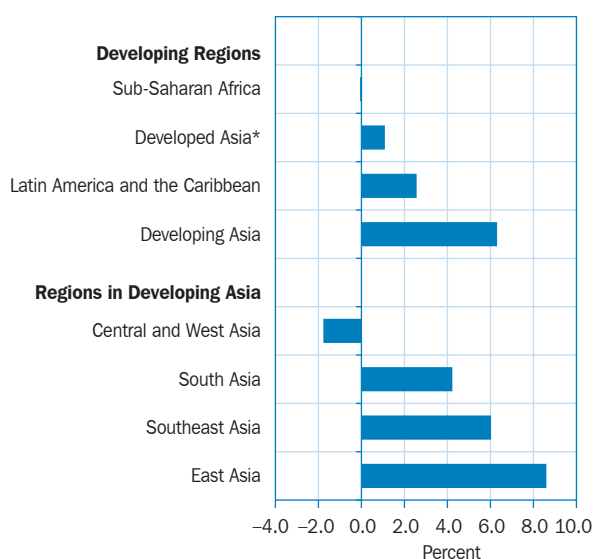
FIGI Indicator No.	Indicator	Central and West Asia	East Asia	South Asia	Southeast Asia	The Pacific
Pillar One Indicators (Growth and Expansion of Economic Opportunity)						
Economic Growth and Employment						
7	Growth rate of GDP per capita at 2005 PPP\$	0.715	0.344	0.333	0.511	1.314
8	Growth rate of average per capita income or consumption, 2005 PPP\$	-	-	0.312	-	-
9	Employment-to-population ratio (15–24 yrs old)	0.260	0.391	0.341	0.258	0.149
9	Employment-to-population ratio (15 yrs and over)	-	-	-	-	-
10	GDP per person engaged, at constant 1990 PPP\$	0.518	0.497	0.634	0.878	-
11	Number of own-account and contributing family workers per 100 wage and salaried workers	-	-	-	-	-
Key Infrastructure Endowments						
12	Per capita consumption of electricity	-	-	-	-	-
13	Percentage of paved roads	-	-	-	-	-
14	Number of cellular phone subscriptions per 100 people	0.314	0.429	0.626	0.507	0.717
15	Depositors with commercial banks per 1,000 adults	0.786	0.097	0.630	0.921	-
Pillar Two Indicators (Social Inclusion to Ensure Equal Access to Economic Opportunity)						
Access and Inputs to Education and Health						
16	School life expectancy (primary to tertiary)	0.129	0.158	-	0.164	-
17	Pupil-teacher ratio (primary)	0.560	0.321	0.275	0.517	0.304
18	Diphtheria, tetanus toxoid, and pertussis (DTP3) immunization coverage among 1-year-olds	0.127	0.026	0.115	0.082	0.197
19	Physicians, nurses, and midwives per 10,000 population	-	-	-	-	0.455
20	Government expenditure on education as a percentage of total government expenditure	0.331	0.146	0.342	0.217	0.395
21	Government expenditure on health as a percentage of total government expenditure	0.376	0.833	0.243	0.463	0.416
Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services						
22	Percentage of population with access to electricity	-	-	-	-	-
23	Share of population using solid fuels for cooking	-	-	-	-	-
24	Percentage of population using improved drinking water sources	0.198	0.089	0.066	0.157	0.215
25	Percentage of population using improved sanitation facilities	0.267	0.354	0.490	0.303	0.272
Gender Equality and Opportunity						
26	Gender parity in primary education	0.119	0.024	0.016	0.041	0.038
26	Gender parity in secondary education	0.199	0.033	0.103	0.098	0.062
26	Gender parity in tertiary education	0.377	0.265	0.669	0.354	-
27	Antenatal care coverage (at least one visit)	0.233	-	0.419	-	-
28	Gender parity in labor force participation	0.366	0.085	0.334	0.185	0.227
29	Percentage of seats held by women in national parliament	0.411	0.660	0.757	0.287	1.878
Pillar Three Indicators (Social Safety Nets)						
30	Social protection and labor rating	0.227	-	0.072	0.151	0.152
31	Social security expenditure on health as a percentage of government expenditure on health	1.563	0.303	2.278	0.920	2.521
32	Government expenditure on social security and welfare as a percentage of total government expenditure	0.492	0.481	0.475	0.340	1.222
Good Governance and Institutions						
33	Voice and accountability	-0.450	8.486	-1.425	-0.809	1.448
34	Government effectiveness	-0.793	1.308	-2.262	37.418	-0.468
35	Corruption Perceptions Index	0.316	0.431	0.415	0.644	0.220

"-" = indicates insufficient data to compute coefficients of variation, GDP = gross domestic products, PPP = purchasing power parity.

Source: Author's calculations.

Figure 1.13 **Employment-to-Population Ratio, Aged 15 Years and Over**

Source: Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 7th ed. (ILO), accessed 29 June 2012.

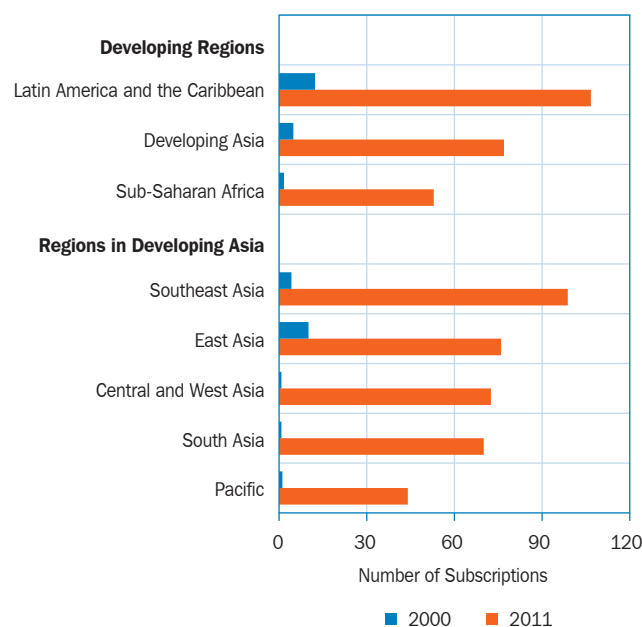
Figure 1.14 **Annual Rate of Change in Per Capita Electricity Consumption (%), 1990–2009**

* Australia, Japan, and New Zealand.

Source: ADB estimates, based on data from World Development Indicators Online (World Bank), accessed 24 April 2012.

However, according to the latest available data (ranging between 2000 and 2009), more than 50% of the total road network in developing Asia is paved, while the figure for LAC is around 20% and for SSA it is even lower. Assessment of the situation might be different if more recent data were available. Within developing Asia, East Asia had a decrease in percentage of total roads paved, from 70.3% in 1990 to 54% in 2009, while Southeast Asia had the highest increase, from 37.5% in 1990 to 47.2%

in 2009.⁵ All developing regions have seen tremendous progress in cellular phone subscriptions (Figure 1.15), but in terms of subscriptions per 100 population, developing Asia trails behind LAC despite the remarkable increase, to almost full coverage in Southeast Asia, at 98.8 per 100 people in 2011.

Figure 1.15 **Number of Cellular Phone Subscriptions (per 100 People), 2000 and 2011**

Sources: ADB staff estimates using data from World Telecommunication/ICT Indicators Database, accessed 10 July 2012; and United Nations Millennium Indicators Database Online, accessed 10 July 2012.

Pillar Two (Social Inclusion to Ensure Equal Access to Economic Opportunity)

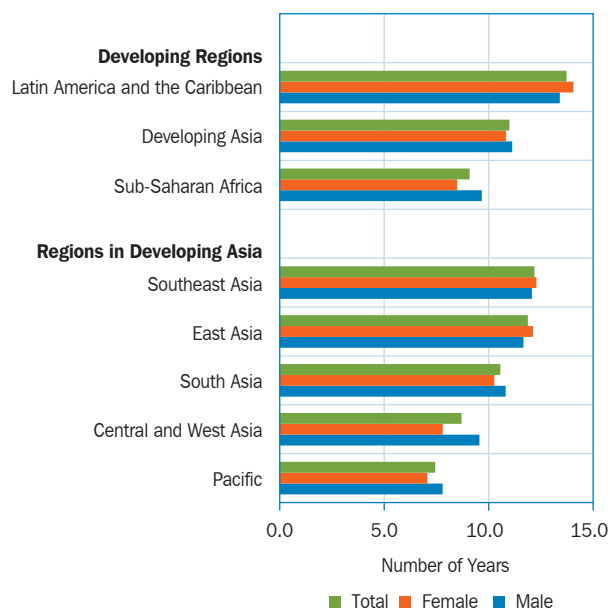
Access and Inputs to Education and Health

With increasing school enrollment across the developing world, school life expectancy, or the number of years that today's children can expect to spend in school, has been increasing all over the world. In 2010, developing Asia had a school life expectancy of 11.0 years, which was higher than SSA's 9.1 years but behind LAC's school life expectancy of 13.7 years. School life expectancy has been rising in the regions of developing Asia. Values in Southeast Asia and East Asia have been roughly the same (around 9.0 years in 1990 and 12.0 years in 2010). In terms of gender, school life expectancy in 2010 appeared to be roughly the same

⁵ The declining trend in East Asia is probably driven by the PRC, whose percentage of total roads paved decreased from 72.1% in 1990 to 53.5% in 2008. However, the total extent of roads in the PRC more than tripled, from about 1.2 million kilometers in 1990 to about 3.7 million kilometers in 2008.

for females and males in developing Asia (Figure 1.16), but Southeast Asia and East Asia have gender bias toward females in the expected years of schooling.

Figure 1.16 **School Life Expectancy, Primary to Tertiary, by Sex, 2010 or Latest Year**

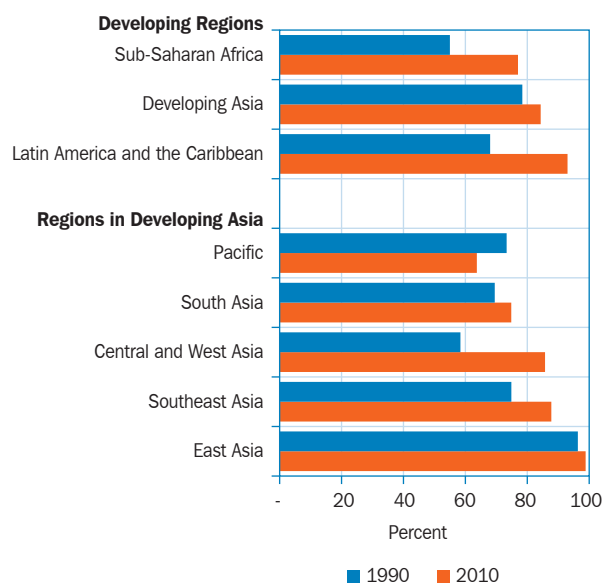


Note: Latest data for the Pacific are for 1999.
Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics Data Centre, accessed 14 May 2012. For developing Asia and regions of developing Asia, data were provided by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

In terms of pupil–teacher ratios in primary education, economies in developing Asia have clearly been ahead of SSA. While the ratio decreased from 29 in 1990 to 25 in 2010 in developing Asia, it increased from 41 in 1998 to 43 in 2010 in SSA. However, developing Asia has lagged slightly behind LAC, which had a ratio of 25 in 1998 and 22 in 2010. East Asia has the lowest ratio in the region (17 in 2010), and South Asia the highest (40 in 2010).

As for the indicators for access and inputs to health for its population, developing Asia is ahead of SSA but lags behind LAC. Immunization coverage for diphtheria, tetanus toxoid, and pertussis (DTP3) among one-year-old children increased in the decade up to 2010 in all developing regions (Figure 1.17). Within developing Asia, East Asia had the highest DTP3 immunization coverage from 1990 to 2010. In terms of availability of skilled health personnel (physician, nurses, and midwives), according to the latest available data on health personnel from WHO, LAC, with 58 such personnel per 10,000 population, had more than twice developing Asia's 27 per 10,000, while SSA had about 12 per 10,000 people. Within developing Asia, Central and West Asia had the highest rate, at 41 per 10,000 people, and the Pacific had the lowest, at 12 per 10,000 people, almost the same as SSA's rate.

Figure 1.17 **Diphtheria, Tetanus Toxoid, and Pertussis (DTP3) Immunization Coverage among 1-Year-Olds, Total,* 1990, 2010**



* Regional aggregates are approximate weighted averages estimated using data available for 1990 or nearest years and 2010. The data for population survivors to age 1 are from World Population Prospects: The 2010 Revision.

Source: ADB estimates, based on data from GHO Data Repository (WHO), accessed 22 May 2012; WPP: The 2010 Revision (UN Population Division), accessed 8 June 2012.

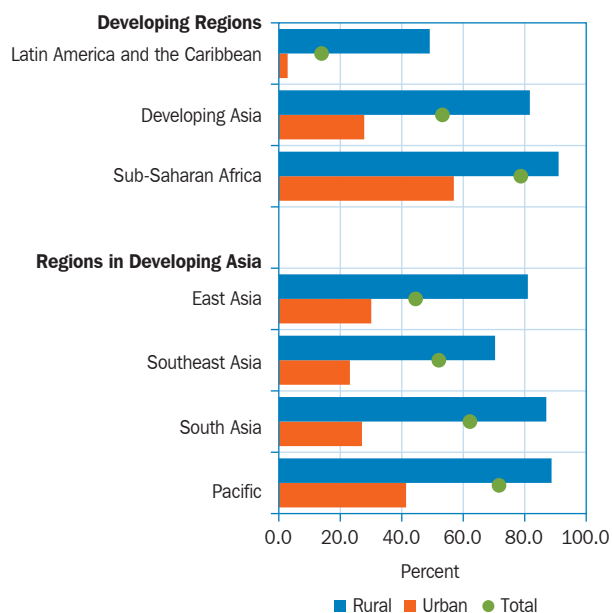
Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services

LAC's indicators for its people's access to electricity, clean fuels for cooking, and improved drinking water sources and sanitation facilities are clearly higher than those of developing Asia, but the latter fares better than SSA. In all the regions, there are clear disparities in access to these infrastructure facilities between the rural and urban areas, with the rural areas always at a disadvantage. Also, as of 2010, the percentage of the rural population with access to improved drinking water sources was larger in developing Asia than in LAC (Figures 1.18 and 1.19).

Gender Equality and Opportunity

The economies of developing Asia improved gender parity in primary, secondary, and tertiary education between 1991 and 2010, and the achievements were most noteworthy in primary and secondary education. As of 2010, the gender gap in primary and secondary enrollment was almost closed, with the female-to-male enrollment ratio at 0.99 in primary and 0.97 in secondary education. However, the ratio was still at 0.94 for the tertiary level. In contrast, the gender gap in LAC was biased toward females, especially in tertiary education, with a female-to-male enrollment ratio of 1.28 (Figure 1.20). Developing Asia had more gender parity in education than SSA, which had a ratio of 0.93 for primary, 0.82 for secondary, and 0.62 for tertiary education (Figure 1.20).

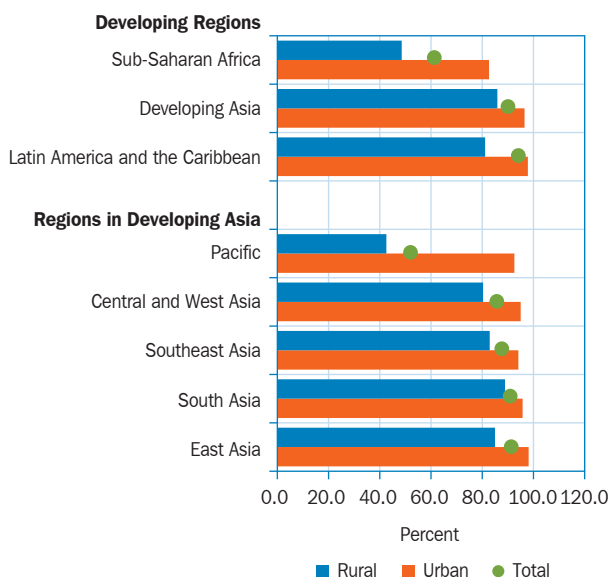
Figure 1.18 **Share of Population Using Solid Fuels for Cooking, Total, Urban, Rural, 2010**



Sources: ADB estimates, based on 2010 modeled economy data from Global Health Observatory Data Repository (WHO), available at <http://apps.who.int/ghodata/>, accessed 24 May 2012; WPP: The 2010 Revision, WUP: The 2011 Revision (UN Population Division), accessed 16 June 2012.

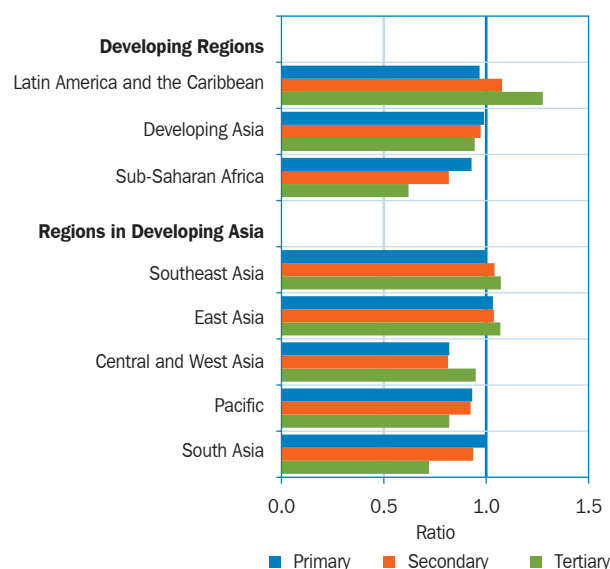
Gender parity in primary and secondary education has been achieved in almost all regions of developing Asia, except for Central and West Asia, which has the lowest gender parity ratio at 0.8. For tertiary education, enrollment is biased against females in Central and West Asia, the Pacific, and South Asia, while in East Asia and Southeast Asia, ratios are actually in favor of females.

Figure 1.19 **Percentage of Population Using Improved Drinking Water Sources, Total, Rural, Urban, 2010**



Source: ADB estimates, based on data from World Health Organization and UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme (JMP) for Water Supply and Sanitation, accessed 24 May 2012.

Figure 1.20 **Gender Parity in Primary, Secondary, and Tertiary Education, 2010 or Latest Year**



Source: ADB staff estimates, using data from UNESCO Institute for Statistics, accessed 18 May 2012.

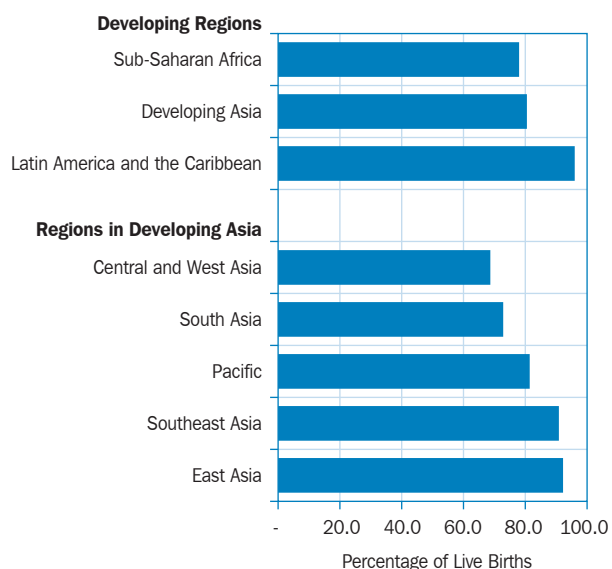
Access to women's health as indicated by antenatal coverage (at least one visit), an important indicator of basic health care for pregnant women, was lower in developing Asia (80.5%) than in LAC (96.0%) in 2006–2011, but was still higher than the coverage in SSA (78.0%). Among the regions of developing Asia, Southeast Asia and East Asia both had more than 90% coverage. The antenatal coverage rates in Central and West Asia and South Asia were even lower than in SSA (Figure 1.21).

Gender parity in labor force participation rate is the ratio of female labor force participation rate to the male labor force participation rate. Women's participation in the labor force was highest in SSA among the economies in the developing world, followed by LAC and developing Asia. Developing Asia as a whole has experienced a drop in gender parity in labor force participation in recent years (Figure 1.22). Note that women in many economies of developing Asia and also in SSA are largely employed in informal jobs as own-account and contributing family workers. The low aggregate performance of developing Asia is also probably due to the large disparities between its regions. While gender parity in labor force participation in 2011 was over 0.70 in East Asia, Southeast Asia, and the Pacific, the gender gap was much bigger in Central and West Asia and in South Asia, where gender parity was only about 0.40 (Figure 1.22).

Women's representation in national parliaments has been increasing over the years in all developing regions. According to the latest available data on women's representation, LAC had the highest proportion (23%), and it was followed closely by SSA (20%) and developing Asia

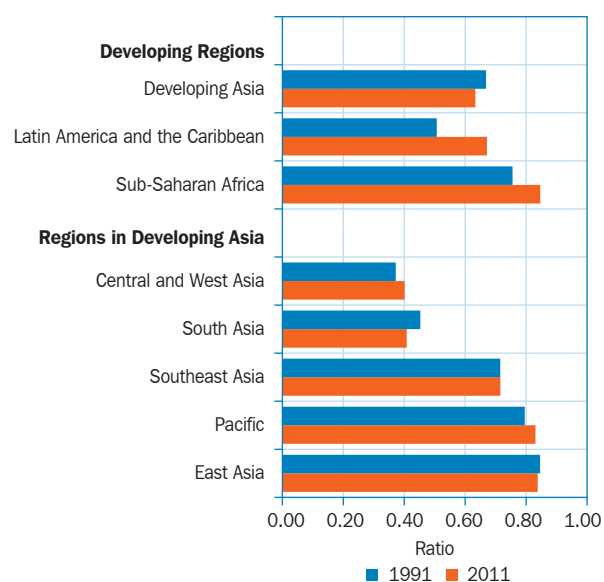
(18%). Within developing Asia, women in East Asia, South Asia, Central and West Asia, and Southeast Asia currently hold about 17%–20% of seats in national parliament. In the Pacific, the proportion is only 6.5%, although there are large variations among economies in this region, as indicated by a coefficient of variation of about 1.9 (Figure 1.23 and Table 1.2).

Figure 1.21 Antenatal Care Coverage (at Least One Visit), Total, 2006–2011*



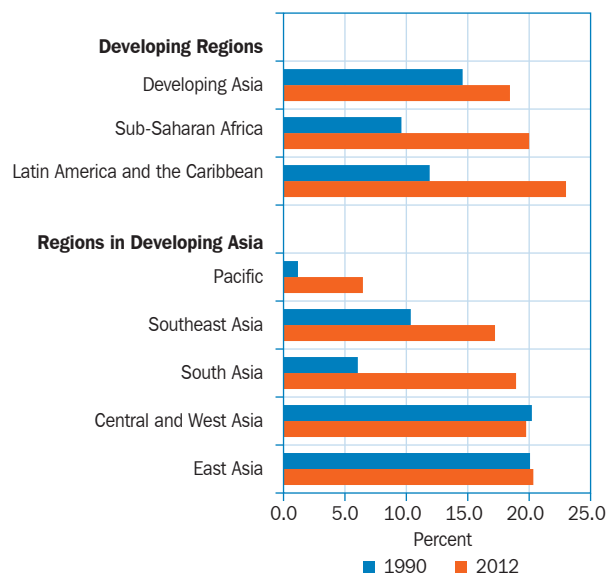
* Regional aggregates were estimated using data available for the years 2006–2011. Sources: ADB estimates, based on data from UNICEF Childinfo website (UNICEF), available at www.childinfo.org/index.html, accessed 24 May 2012; *The State of the World's Children Reports, 2007–2012* (UNICEF), accessed 23 May 2012; Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2012.

Figure 1.22 Gender Parity in Labor Force Participation Rate, Aged 15 Years and Over



Sources: ADB estimates, based on data from Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 7th ed. (ILO); economy sources.

Figure 1.23 Percentage of Seats Held by Women in National Parliament (%)

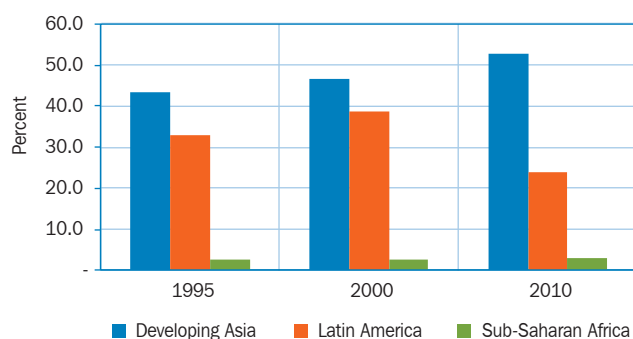


Sources: Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2012; for Cook Islands: National Minimum Development Indicator Database (SPC), accessed 4 July 2012.

Pillar Three (Social Safety Nets)

Official statistics that provide a good measure of social safety nets and social protection for comparison across countries or regions are usually lacking. One indicator used here for which comparable data are available from WHO is social security expenditure on health as a percentage of government expenditure on health, although several other social security schemes targeting different populations may be in place. The indicator refers to the health expenditures by government social security schemes and other schemes of health insurance and is a core indicator of health financing through social security. The interpretation should also be read along with general government expenditure on health as a percentage of total general government expenditure. The extent of social security expenditure on health as a percentage of total government spending on health varies widely between developing regions. Social security spending on health in developing Asia is 52.6% of total government expenditure on health in 2010, much higher than that in Latin America (24.1%) and SSA (3.1%) (Figure 1.24). Another indicator used here is government expenditure on social security and welfare as a percentage of total government expenditure. While data on government expenditure on social security and welfare are not available for LAC and SSA, the expenditure at an aggregate level (based largely on expenditure data of central governments for most economies) for developing Asia based on 2011 (or latest year available) data was about 9%, much lower than expenditures on social security and welfare in developed economies of Asia like Japan (47%) and Australia (33%).

Figure 1.24 **Social Security Expenditure on Health**
(% of Government Expenditure on Health), 1995, 2000, and 2010



Source: WHO, Global Health Observatory Data Repository, accessed 23 May 2012.

Good Governance and Institutions

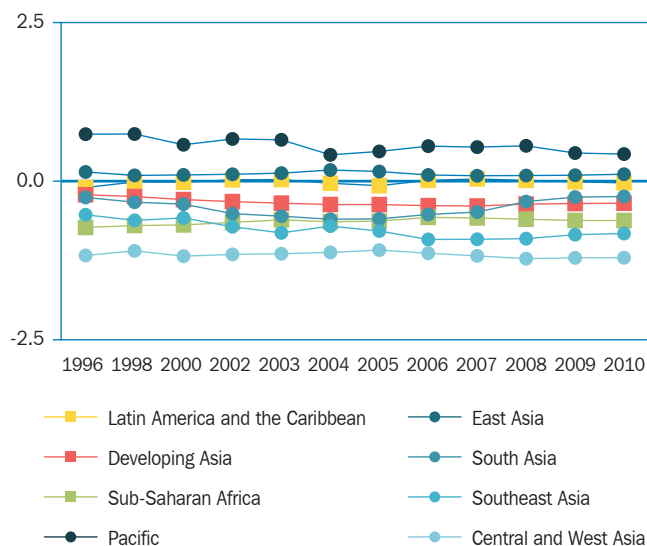
The economic growth literature provides extensive evidence to show that governance and institutions can significantly affect economic growth through increases in either total or individual factor (capital, labor, human capital) productivity. (See, for example, Hall and Jones 1999; Knack and Keefer 1995; Mauro 1995; Sala-i-Martin 1997; Acemoglu, Johnson, and Robinson 2001, 2002; and Rodrik, Subramanian, and Trebbi 2004.) Associations between poverty and inequality outcome indicators and indicators of good governance and institutions can therefore be expected. The associations may be either direct or indirect (through their link with the policy pillar indicators). Governance and institutions may act indirectly to modify the effect of policy pillars on outcomes of inclusive growth.

Indicators that measure state of governance and institutions are not available from official statistical sources. The three indicators—voice and accountability, government effectiveness and Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI)—are from nonofficial international sources that provide widely comparable indicators.⁶ The regional aggregates are based on simple averages of country ratings.

Note that developing Asia's rating for voice and accountability has been lower than in the LAC but higher than SSA's (Figure 1.25). Also, developing Asia's scores for the government effectiveness indicator and perceived corruption (as measured against CPI) have been higher than SSA and LAC in recent years (Figures 1.26 and

1.27). Among the regions in developing Asia, there are wide disparities especially in the CPI, with East Asia leading in government effectiveness and CPI, the Pacific leading in voice and accountability, and Central and West Asia having the lowest scores in all three indicators (Figures 1.25, 1.26, and 1.27).

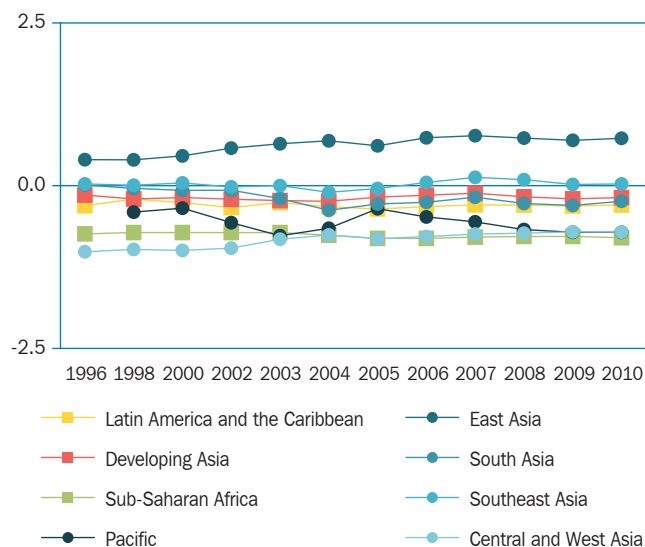
Figure 1.25 **Voice and Accountability Scores,***
1996, 1998, 2000, and 2002–2010



*Presented in standard normal units of the governance indicator, ranging from -2.5 to 2.5, with higher values corresponding to better governance outcomes; data are simple averages of individual scores of economies from the Worldwide Governance Indicators.

Source: Worldwide Governance Indicators (World Bank), available at <http://info.worldbank.org/governance/wgi/index.asp>, accessed 1 June 2012.

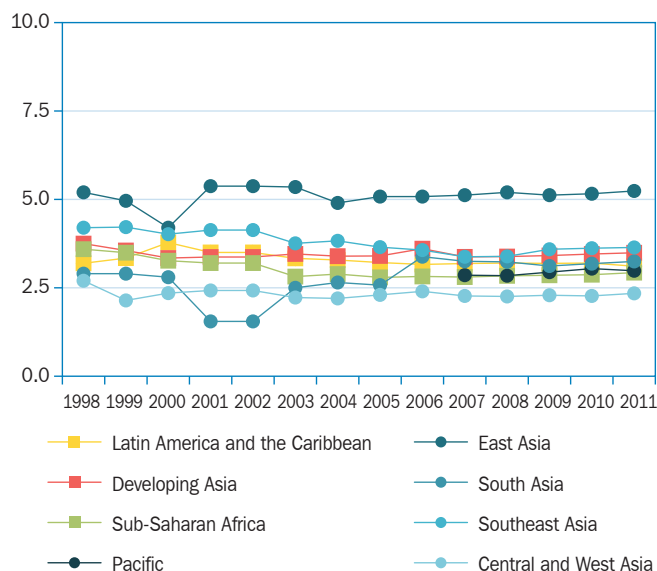
Figure 1.26 **Government Effectiveness Scores,***
1996, 1998, 2000, and 2002–2010



* Presented in standard normal units of the governance indicator, ranging from -2.5 to 2.5, with higher values corresponding to better governance outcomes; data are simple averages of individual scores of economies from the Worldwide Governance Indicators.

Source: Worldwide Governance Indicators (World Bank), available at <http://info.worldbank.org/governance/wgi/index.asp>, accessed 1 June 2012.

⁶ Two indicators—voice and accountability, and government effectiveness—are from the World Bank's Worldwide Governance Indicators. Rating scores for these range from -2.5 to +2.5. The average score for the world as a whole is zero in every period, and higher values correspond to better outcomes. The third indicator—CPI—ranges from 0 (highly corrupt) to 10 (very clean) and is from Transparency International.

Figure 1.27 **Corruption Perceptions Index,* 1998–2011**

* Scores relate to perceptions of the degree of corruption and range from 10 (very clean) to 0 (highly corrupt); data are simple averages of individual scores of economies from Transparency International.

Source: Transparency International, available at <http://cpi.transparency.org/cpi2011/results/>, accessed 1 June 2012.

There are also large disparities in governance scores between economies in the regions of developing Asia, as reflected by a coefficient of variation of over 8 for voice and accountability in East Asia and over 1 for South Asia and the Pacific, and a coefficient of variation of over 1 for government effectiveness in East Asia, over 2 in South Asia, and over 35 in Southeast Asia (Table 1.2).

3. Developing Asia: Associations between Indicators of Poverty and Inequality Outcomes and Indicators of Policy Pillars and Good Governance

The foregoing discussion has shown that developing Asia has progressed on most indicators of FIGI in the last 2 decades. The indicators also show that developing Asia has outperformed SSA on most indicators. While developing Asia has achieved the highest growth rates in per capita GDP, it still has to catch up with LAC in most indicators of income and nonincome poverty outcomes and in indicators of policy pillars of FIGI. There are also disparities in performance between the regions in developing Asia.⁷ Income and nonincome outcome indicators of FIGI depend on several factors, a few of which

are identified in the indicators for the three policy pillars and for good governance and institutions. It is therefore of interest to explore to what extent the outcome indicators are associated with the indicators of policy pillars and good governance. Using available country-level data for economies in developing Asia and the three developed economies of Australia, Japan, and New Zealand, this section attempts to identify the combinations of policy pillars and good governance and institutions that are likely to close gaps and enable significant progress in poverty and inequality outcomes.

While data limitations prevent the conduct of regression analyses to identify any causal effects that the policy pillars might have on the outcomes of poverty and inequality, bivariate correlations are obtained to verify whether, at least, they may have significant statistical associations—that is, whether variations in policy inputs are significantly related to variations in poverty and inequality outcomes.⁸

For each poverty and inequality outcome indicator of FIGI, a cross-section of the data that corresponds to the time period with the most number of observations for that outcome indicator is selected. Thus, the correlations for indicator 2 (proportion of population living below \$2 PPP a day) are based on 2008 data on that indicator, and on indicators of the policy pillars and good governance and institutions; for indicator 3 (ratio of income or consumption of highest to lowest quintiles), 2002 data; for indicator 4 (average years of total schooling), 2010 data; for indicator 5 (prevalence of underweight children under five years of age), 2005 data; and for indicator 6 (under-five mortality rate), 2010 data.⁹ Bivariate correlations are then run between the outcome indicator and each of the indicators for policy pillars and good governance and institutions. Table 1.3 reports the results and the key findings are summarized below.

Income poverty of \$2 PPP a day is significantly correlated (showing expected signs, positive or negative) with most indicators for the policy pillars. Thus, the growth rate of average per capita income or consumption; GDP per person engaged (or labor productivity); own-

8 The correlation is not a sufficient, but is a necessary, condition for determining whether an intervention in a particular policy pillar may have an effect on the outcome. Yet even with correlations, the caveat is that there are still significant data limitations such that only one cross-section and one simultaneous period in time can be looked at. In reality, policy interventions can have a delayed impact. However, they may also have lasting effects, such that there could be reasonable simultaneity between outcome and policy pillars in the same cross section, which can help generate significant correlations.

9 Indicator 1 (proportion of population living below the national poverty line) is excluded from the analyses since the values are not directly comparable across countries. For indicator 4, separate correlations are obtained for the average years of schooling of youth and the average years of schooling of adults.

7 For a discussion on country-level trends and inequalities on the FIGI indicators for developing Asia, refer to part II of this publication.

Table 1.3 Correlations between Indicators of Poverty and Inequality Outcomes and Indicators of Policy Pillars and Good Governance, Selected Years

FIGI Indicator No.	Indicators of Policy Pillars and Good Governance	Poverty and Inequality Indicators					
		2	3	4	4	5	6
		Proportion of Population Living below \$2 a Day at 2005 PPP\$, 2008	Ratio of Income or Consumption of Highest to Lowest Quintiles, 2002	Average Years of Total Schooling, Youth, 2010	Average Years of Total Schooling, Adults, 2010	Underweight Children under Five, 2005	Under-Five Mortality Rate, 2010
Pillar One Indicators (Growth and Expansion of Economic Opportunity)							
Economic Growth and Employment							
7	Growth rate of GDP per capita at 2005 PPP\$	-0.117	0.349	0.013	-0.234	-0.614*	0.113
8	Growth rate of average per capita income or consumption, 2005 PPP\$	-0.727*	0.081	-1.000*	-0.978	–	0.051
9	Employment-to-population ratio (15–24 yrs old)	0.493	0.055	-0.401*	-0.454*	0.575*	0.051
9	Employment-to-population ratio (15 yrs and over)	-0.195	0.211	0.892*	0.869*	0.368	-0.787
10	GDP per person engaged, at constant 1990 PPP\$	-0.676*	0.004	0.793*	0.617*	-0.578	-0.723*
11	Number of own-account and contributing family workers per 100 wage and salaried workers	0.661*	-0.059	–	–	0.837	–
Key Infrastructure Endowments							
12	Per capita consumption of electricity	-0.781*	0.126	–	–	-0.778*	–
13	Percentage of paved roads	-0.896*	0.629	–	–	-0.241	–
14	Number of cellular phone subscriptions per 100 people	-0.635*	0.172	0.586*	0.384*	-0.418	-0.472*
15	Depositors with commercial banks (per 1,000 adults)	-0.538	–	0.752*	0.540*	-0.348	-0.502*
Pillar Two Indicators (Social Inclusion to Ensure Equal Access to Economic Opportunity)							
Access and Inputs to Education and Health							
16	School life expectancy (primary to tertiary)	-0.710*	0.162	0.805*	0.720*	-0.611	-0.675*
17	Pupil-teacher ratio (primary)	0.634*	-0.572*	-0.645*	-0.616*	0.457	0.650*
18	Diphtheria, tetanus toxoid, and pertussis (DTP3) immunization coverage among 1-year-olds	-0.569*	0.331	0.689*	0.351*	-0.122	-0.401*
19	Physicians, nurses, and midwives per 10,000 population	-0.883	-0.388	1.000	0.542	-0.953*	-0.298
20	Government expenditure on education as percentage of total government expenditure	-0.136	-0.189	-0.051	-0.088	0.265	-0.122
21	Government expenditure on health as percentage of total government expenditure	0.197	-0.434	0.067	0.156	-0.176	-0.244
Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services							
22	Percentage of population with access to electricity	–	–	–	–	-0.743	–
23	Share of population using solid fuels for cooking	1.000	-0.157	–	–	0.565	–
24	Percentage of population using improved drinking water sources	-0.567*	0.302	0.727*	0.493*	-0.282	-0.703*
25	Percentage of population using improved sanitation facilities	-0.819*	0.333	0.769*	0.797*	-0.485	-0.615*
Gender Equality and Opportunity							
26	Gender parity in primary education	-0.708*	0.483*	0.529*	0.496*	-0.543	-0.811*
26	Gender parity in secondary education	-0.683*	0.175	0.435*	0.284	0.093	-0.776*
26	Gender parity in tertiary education	-0.663*	0.174	0.285	0.404*	-0.647*	-0.591*
27	Antenatal care coverage (at least one visit)	–	1.000	0.406	0.497	-0.892*	-0.595
28	Gender parity in labor force participation	-0.255	0.281	-0.040	0.030	-0.247	-0.344*
29	Percentage of seats held by women in national parliament	0.485	0.196	-0.045	-0.157	-0.096	0.221
Pillar Three Indicators (Social Safety Nets)							
30	Social protection and labor rating	-0.684*	–	0.242	0.213	0.565	-0.275
31	Social security expenditure on health as a percentage of government expenditure on health	0.064	0.599*	0.233	0.332*	-0.447	-0.270*
32	Government expenditure on social security and welfare as percentage of total government expenditure	-0.356	-0.183	0.279	0.477*	-0.607	-0.318
Good Governance and Institutions							
33	Voice and accountability	-0.039	0.143	0.533*	0.337*	0.065	-0.414*
34	Government effectiveness	-0.267	0.307	0.769*	0.453*	-0.202	-0.621*
35	Corruption Perceptions Index	-0.154	0.408	0.734*	0.482*	-0.586*	-0.581*

* = 10% significance; "–" = insufficient data to compute correlations, GDP = gross domestic product, PPP = purchasing power parity.

Source: Author's calculations.

account and contributing family workers; per capita electricity consumption; cellular phone subscriptions; school life expectancy; pupil-teacher ratio; access to child immunization; safe drinking water and sanitation; gender parity in primary, secondary, and tertiary education; and social protection and labor rating—all these are significantly correlated with poverty.¹⁰ Significant and high correlations with indicators of infrastructure

endowments and basic social services and utilities reflect the importance of key infrastructure endowments and access to basic services and utilities in lifting people out of poverty. Lastly, gender parity in education is strongly correlated with indicator 2 (\$2-a-day [PPP] poverty), almost to the same magnitude as the growth rate of average per capita income or consumption. Therefore, while the usual economic engines, especially infrastructure and basic services, seem to be strongly associated with poverty reduction, the high correlation between gender parity and poverty outcomes suggests that poverty is also closely linked with gender disparities in opportunities.

10 While growth in GDP per capita does not appear to be significant, there are significant correlations between the annualized rates of growth of the proportion living below \$2 a day and of GDP per capita in the periods 2005–2008 and 2002–2008. The 2005–2008 (2002–2008) poverty growth rate has a correlation of -0.5244 (-0.5250) with 2005–2008 (2002–2008) growth rate of GDP per capita, significant even at 1%. The results suggest that the effect of GDP growth rates might be more clearly seen in changes in poverty, rather than in its level, and over a longer time horizon.

However, the correlation between indicator 3—ratio of income or consumption of the highest to the lowest quintiles—and almost all indicators of policy pillars is weak. The only indicators significantly associated with the ratio of income or consumption of the highest to the lowest quintiles are the pupil–teacher ratio, gender parity in primary education, and social security expenditure on health as a percentage of government expenditure on health.¹¹ Note, however, the paradoxical signs of the correlations, which imply that lowering the pupil–teacher ratio, increasing gender parity in education, and increasing social security expenditure on health are associated with a widening of the income or consumption gap between the highest and the lowest quintiles. The association might be due to the reason that often, social security on health covers mostly the urban population, which generally has a higher income than the rural population, or it is not redistributed or targeted enough to the poor.¹² However, the trends could also reflect that higher inequality could prompt increases in social security expenditures by the government, and lower income or consumption of the poor could induce them to pull their children, especially the girls, out of school.

The nonincome poverty indicators are found to be significantly correlated with most indicators of policy pillars. Table 1.3 shows that average years of total schooling for youth and adults is significantly correlated not only with many indicators of policy pillars, but also with the indicators of good governance and institutions. Strong correlation with governance indicators shows the importance of good governance in educational outcomes, while the relevance of the number of depositors suggests that access to credit and financial markets may be necessary complements to government support. Note also that there are negative correlations between average years of schooling of youth and the growth rate of average

per capita income or consumption, the employment-to-population ratio among those 15–24 years old, and the pupil–teacher ratio. The former can reflect the trade-off between youth labor and schooling in growing developing economies, while the latter emphasizes the effectiveness of having more teachers per pupil in the achievement of students. The same indicators are also correlated with the average years of total schooling of adults. However, gender parity in tertiary education is now significant, as are social safety nets, specifically the indicators related to government expenditures.

Though prevalence of underweight children has fewer correlations, it is significantly correlated with per capita GDP growth, employment-to-population ratio, per capita electricity consumption, gender parity in tertiary education, and availability of health services, such as number of skilled health personnel and antenatal care coverage for pregnant mothers. Gender parity in tertiary education also appears to matter in promoting the health of children (see, for example, World Health Organization [2006], which reviews evidence on the positive effect of the mother’s schooling on child health).

Under-five mortality rates are associated with even more indicators of policy pillars, including all of the good governance and institutions indicators. Pillar One indicators of growth and employment are mostly not significant, but subscription to cellular phones, financial access, access to education and delivery of health services, access to improved water and sanitation, and good governance and institutions are all strongly correlated with the under-five mortality rate.

Income poverty outcomes are not found to be significantly associated with the indicators for good governance and institutions, but nonincome poverty outcomes of education and health have significant correlations with these indicators, indicating the role of good governance and institutions in these outcomes, presumably through better delivery of basic social services.

4. The Role of Good Governance and Institutions

The foregoing discussion suggests that good governance and institutions might not always have a direct impact on poverty and inequality. In fact, only the education and health outcomes—average years of schooling, prevalence of underweight children, and under-five mortality rate—are significantly correlated with the good governance and institutions indicators. This section investigates the possible indirect effects of the latter by verifying the

11 Many policy pillars may also raise the income and consumption of the rich while raising those of the poor. Therefore, while their “impact” might be clearly seen when assessing the extent of poverty (recall the significant correlations with the proportion living below \$2 a day), it might not readily appear in correlations with income or consumption gaps between the rich and the poor.

12 This could also suggest that receipt of social security might discourage the poor from working, or that government expenditures on social security might be crowding out private and informal transfers between relatives—two common criticisms of social safety nets (see, for example, Hoddinott 2010; OECD 2002; and Von Braun, Vargas Hill; and Pandya-Lorch 2009). However, the evidence is mixed (see Hoddinott 2010). Maluccio and Flores (2005) find, for instance, that Nicaragua’s *Red de Protección Social* induced a small decrease in women’s labor supply, while Fiszbein and Schady (2009) found a decrease in child labor (which is a desirable result, but could nevertheless decrease household income in the short run). Generally, however, conditional cash transfers (CCTs) seem to minimize work disincentive effects. Skoufias (2005) finds no evidence of decreased labor supply from Mexico’s *PROGRESA/Oportunidades* program; nor do Edmonds and Schady (2008) find such evidence for Ecuador or Fiszbein and Schady (2009) for Cambodia. As for the crowding-out effect, Jensen (2003) finds some evidence for South Africa, whereas Grosh et al. (2008) find no such evidence for the PRC, Indonesia, Viet Nam, and Papua New Guinea.

extent to which the correlations in section 3 hold when a distinction is made between economies with low- and high-quality governance and institutions. The hypothesis is that some policy pillars and corresponding interventions may be more important in a low-quality governance and institutional environment. This may possibly be because economies with higher-quality governance and institutions may also simultaneously reflect higher achievements in various outcome and policy indicators, such that the scope for marginal benefits from further interventions may therefore be limited. In contrast, there may be greater scope for economies with lower-quality governance and institutions because they may also at the same time have lower scores in outcome and policy indicators of inclusive growth. An alternative or complementary explanation could be that policy interventions may be able to “compensate” for, or overcome, low-quality governance and institutions.

Although simple correlations cannot be taken as evidence of causal relationships, the results suggest that the hypothesis might hold. Using the same cross-sectional data in section 3, the economies in Asia are first divided into two groups—economies with “high” quality and economies with “low” quality of institutions, depending on whether they are above or below the median value of the CPI¹³ for the whole group in the reference year. Then separate correlations are run between the outcome indicators and policy pillars for each group. CPI is chosen, rather than voice and accountability or government effectiveness, because it provides a good proxy for current institutional climate.¹⁴ Also, this allows “testing” of whether the correlation between government effectiveness and an outcome indicator is modified depending on the underlying institutional environment as proxied by the CPI. Table 1.4 lists some results for the whole group, and for the economies with “high” and “low” institutional quality (high and low CPI) for selected indicators.

It generally appears that the associations between some indicators of poverty and inequality outcomes and the policy pillar indicators are no longer significant for the high-CPI group, but continue to remain significant for the low-CPI group, at times with an even larger magnitude of correlations than for the whole group and the high-CPI group.

Table 1.4 shows that for the high-CPI group, \$2-a-day (PPP) poverty is no more significantly correlated with the

selected indicators. For the low-CPI group, the number of own-account and contributing family workers and the social protection and labor rating are now insignificant, but GDP per person engaged and percentage of population using improved sanitation facilities, school life expectancy, gender parity in primary education, and pupil–teacher ratio in primary schooling are significantly associated with incidence of poverty. Note also that, compared with the whole group, most indicators in the low-CPI group, when significant, also have associations of greater magnitude.

Similarly, for the other outcome indicators, their correlations with many policy pillar indicators are no longer significant for the high-CPI group, but are still significant for most indicators in the low-CPI group. There are also a few cases where the correlations are no longer significant for the low-CPI group but remain significant for the high-CPI group. For example, the correlation between the ratio of income or consumption of the highest to the lowest quintiles with the pupil–teacher ratio and the correlation of average years of total schooling of adults with government expenditure on social security and welfare remain significant for the high-CPI group, but are not significant for the low-CPI group. Moreover, the correlation of pupil–teacher ratio with income inequality indicator is positive for the high-CPI economies. As far as the correlations between average years of schooling for the youth with the policy pillars indicators are concerned, the results are mixed. For both the high-CPI and low-CPI groups, only government effectiveness, percentage of population using improved sanitation facilities, and depositors with commercial banks are significantly correlated with average years of total schooling of youth. Note that government effectiveness has a higher correlation with average years of total schooling for youth for the low-CPI group than for the high-CPI group. This could suggest that government effectiveness might be “substituting” for or counteracting a perceived corrupt environment and that, despite low CPI, government effectiveness might still raise the average years of schooling of youth.

Table 1.4 also shows that among the selected indicators, only government effectiveness and percentage of population using improved drinking water remain significantly associated with under-five mortality rates for the high-CPI group. For the low-CPI group, all selected indicators except depositors with commercial banks remain significant. The association with government effectiveness is higher in the low-CPI group (similar to average years of schooling for youth). This suggests the possibility of government effectiveness counteracting the perceived corrupt environment and enabling interventions to work despite a low CPI.

13 The Corruption Perceptions Index of Transparency International gives a score from 0 (highly corrupt) to 10 (very clean).

14 A number of empirical studies also use corruption as proxy for institutional quality. For example, Chong and Calderon (2000a, 2000b); Gupta, Davoodi and Alonso-Terme (2002); Gyimah-Brempong (2002); and Dincer and Gunalp (2012), find significant relationships between corruption and poverty and income inequality.

Table 1.4 **Correlations between Poverty and Inequality Outcomes and Selected Indicators of Policy Pillars and Good Governance, Grouped by High and Low CPI**

FIGI Indicator No.	Indicator	All Economies	High-CPI Economies	Low-CPI Economies
Correlations between Proportion of Population Living below \$2 a Day at 2005 PPP\$ and Selected Indicators, 2008				
10	GDP per person engaged at constant 1990 US\$ PPP	-0.676*	-0.408	-0.779*
11	Number of own-account and contributing family workers per 100 wage and salaried workers	0.661*	0.660	0.614
16	School life expectancy (primary to tertiary)	-0.710*	-0.053	-0.741*
17	Pupil-teacher ratio (primary)	0.634*	-0.421	0.650*
26	Gender parity in primary education	-0.708*	0.459	-0.741*
25	Percentage of population using improved sanitation facilities	-0.819*	-0.480	-0.836*
30	Social protection and labor rating	-0.684*	-1.000	-0.433
Correlations between Ratio of Income or Consumption of the Highest Quintile to Lowest Quintile and Selected Indicators, 2002				
17	Pupil-teacher ratio (primary)	-0.572*	1.000*	-0.393
31	Social security expenditure on health as a percentage of government expenditure on health	0.599*	1.000	0.327
Correlations between Average Years of Total Schooling of Youth and Selected Indicators, 2010				
15	Depositors with commercial banks per 1,000 adults	0.752*	0.646*	0.776*
16	School life expectancy (primary to tertiary)	0.805*	0.597	0.577
17	Pupil-teacher ratio (primary)	-0.645*	0.429	-0.394
26	Gender parity in primary education	0.529*	-0.280	0.541*
34	Government effectiveness	0.769*	0.522*	0.619*
25	Percentage of population using improved sanitation facilities	0.769*	0.750*	0.655*
Correlations between Average Years of Total Schooling of Adults and Selected Indicators, 2010				
9	Employment-to-population ratio (15 to 24 yrs old)	-0.454*	-0.148	-0.578*
15	Depositors with commercial banks per 1,000 adults	0.540*	0.412	0.184
16	School life expectancy (primary to tertiary)	0.720*	0.811*	0.280
17	Pupil-teacher ratio (primary)	-0.616*	-0.390	-0.515*
26	Gender parity in tertiary education	0.404*	0.418	0.166
32	Government expenditure on social security and welfare as a percentage of total government expenditure	0.477*	0.592*	0.453
25	Percentage of population using improved sanitation facilities	0.797*	0.848*	0.699*
Correlations between Prevalence of Underweight Children under Five Years of Age and Selected Indicators, 2005				
25	Percentage of population using improved sanitation facilities	-0.485	-0.789	-0.782*
12	Per capita consumption of electricity	-0.778*	-0.616	-0.832*
32	Government expenditure on social security and welfare as a percentage of total government expenditure	-0.607	0.904	-0.987
26	Gender parity in tertiary education	-0.647*	0.752	-0.499
Correlations between Under-Five Mortality Rate and Selected Indicators, 2010				
15	Depositors with commercial banks per 1,000 adults	-0.502*	-0.620	-0.474
17	Pupil-teacher ratio (primary)	0.650*	0.318	0.519*
26	Gender parity in tertiary education	-0.591*	-0.458	-0.767*
28	Gender parity in labor force participation	-0.344*	-0.233	-0.545*
34	Government effectiveness	-0.621*	-0.575*	-0.672*
24	Percentage of population using improved drinking water sources	-0.703*	-0.469*	-0.608*

"-" = insufficient data to compute correlations; "*" = 10% significance; CPI = Corruption Perceptions Index; PPP = purchasing power parity.

Note: High (low) CPI economies lie above (below) median CPI in the reference year.

Source: Author's calculations.

Generally, the analyses in this section suggest two things. One, there may be an indirect relationship between institutions and poverty and inequality outcomes in that the quality of institutions may modify the association between policy pillars and the outcomes. There seems to be some threshold institutional environment below which some interventions are more crucial; and for high-quality institutions, the effect of interventions may now be relatively smaller. Second, while government effectiveness is not always directly associated with outcomes, whenever it is, it seems to counteract a low-quality institutional (low-CPI) environment.

These results are however based on bivariate correlations only within the limitations of available data and need further rigorous research. These results of

correlation analysis, therefore, should be interpreted with caution.

5. Summary and Conclusions

The analyses imply that assessments of inclusive growth focused on income indicators alone can miss out on aspects of nonincome outcomes and inequalities in access to opportunities.¹⁵ One advantage of the FIGI is that it includes both income and nonincome outcomes, along with the policies and institutions that may affect the latter.

¹⁵ Klasen (2010) notes, for instance, that pro-poor improvements in health and education outcomes can still be achieved in spite of low economic growth, as in Sri Lanka, Kerala (India), and some Latin American countries in the 1970s and 1980s.

Comparative analyses of Indicators of FIGI across developing regions show that developing Asia performs better on most indicators than SSA. However, developing Asia lags behind LAC in most FIGI indicators. Exceptions include economic growth, where developing Asia has achieved very high growth in GDP per capita.

There are also variations across developing Asia. East Asia and Southeast Asia lead in most indicators, outperforming Central and West Asia, South Asia, and the Pacific. Additional analyses of the coefficients of variation of economies within developing Asia also reveal inequalities within its regions, with the highest variations seen in growth rates of GDP per capita, in the percentage of seats held by women in national parliament (among economies in the Pacific), in social security expenditures on health as a percentage of total expenditure on health (among economies in Central and West Asia and the Pacific), and in the good governance and institutions indicators (among economies in East Asia, South Asia, Southeast Asia, and the Pacific).

Using country-level data, correlations are calculated between the indicators of poverty and inequality outcomes and the indicators of policy pillars and good governance and institutions. Generally, at least one of the indicators in each pillar and sub-pillar is found to be significantly associated with the outcome indicators. While such analyses do not establish causation, they can serve as a useful guide for policy interventions to determine, at an initial stage, which policies are associated with the outcomes and thus likely to have significant impact. Ideally, with more available data, it would be possible to conduct robust regression analyses.

The correlation analyses using country-level data appear consistent with findings in the literature suggesting that institutions may have direct or indirect effects on poverty and inequality outcomes. The good governance and institutions indicators are found to be directly correlated only with the nonincome (outcome) indicators. However, when the economies in developing Asia are classified into economies with high- and low-quality institutions (based on high or low CPI), differences are found in the magnitude of correlations between policy pillars and poverty and inequality outcomes. Many bivariate correlations between indicators of policy pillars and indicators of poverty and inequality outcomes continue to be significant and often larger in magnitude for economies with low-quality institutions than those with high-quality institutions. This suggests that quality of institutions could matter indirectly by modifying the effect of the policy pillars on the outcomes. Note also that the direct (positive) correlation of government effectiveness with some nonincome outcomes is maintained even when obtained among high- and low-CPI economies, possibly implying that policies that support effective governance could still work irrespective of the underlying institutional climate, that is, even in low-CPI economies.

Policies that spur growth and employment are likely to be effective in simultaneously improving income and nonincome poverty outcomes. Infrastructure improvements that give better access to opportunities, and the expansion of human capabilities are also likely to generate better income and nonincome outcomes, by providing paved roads, electricity, clean energy, safe drinking water, and sanitation facilities. It may be important as well to ensure broader access to education and health facilities and services, and promote greater participation of females, since these appear to be associated with better schooling and health outcomes, and with reduced poverty.

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PART II

Country Trends and Within-Country Disparities

Statistical Tables

Poverty and Inequality: Income Poverty

The Indicators

Three indicators are included under income poverty and inequality:

- Proportion of population living below the national poverty line (total),
- Proportion of population living below \$2 (purchasing power parity [PPP]) per day at 2005 prices (total), and
- Ratio of income or consumption of the highest to the lowest quintiles.

Trends in Economies

National poverty rates are based on poverty lines defined by national governments to monitor poverty at the country level. National poverty incidence declined in about three-fourths of the 31 economies for which earliest- and latest-year data are available. The decrease was largest, at more than 40 percentage points, in Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Tajikistan, and Viet Nam. On the other hand, national poverty incidence increased in eight economies, five of them in the Pacific (Federated States of Micronesia, Samoa, Timor-Leste, Tonga, and Tuvalu). Poverty rate in Taipei, China also increased to 1.2% in 2010 from 0.6% in 1993.

Poverty measured by the proportion of the population living below \$2 a day (2005 PPP\$) provides a comparable yardstick across economies. This proportion dropped in all economies in developing Asia (except Georgia) between the earliest and latest periods for which data are available. A reduction of more than 30 percentage points was achieved in Azerbaijan, the People's Republic of China (PRC), Indonesia, Nepal, Tajikistan, Thailand, Turkmenistan, and Viet Nam. Despite these gains, nearly two-thirds of the world's population living below \$2 a day in 2008 was in developing Asia. Of the estimated 1.73 billion people living below \$2 a day in developing Asia in 2008, nearly half lived in India and 23% in the PRC. The absolute number of poor people in developing Asia dropped from nearly 2.20 billion in 1990 to around 1.73 billion in 2008, with the biggest decrease occurring in the PRC, from about 961 million in 1990 to nearly 395 million in 2008.

Inequalities in Income Poverty

Income inequality, as measured by the ratio of income or consumption of the highest to the lowest quintiles worsened in 14 of 30 developing economies between the earliest and latest years for which data are available. Among these economies were the fast-emerging PRC and India. In the PRC, the ratio of household consumption of the highest to the lowest quintiles worsened from 5.1 in 1990 to 9.6 in 2005; and for India, the ratio worsened from 4.4 in 1994 to 4.9 in 2005. However, the ratio was considerably reduced in the Maldives and the Kyrgyz Republic.

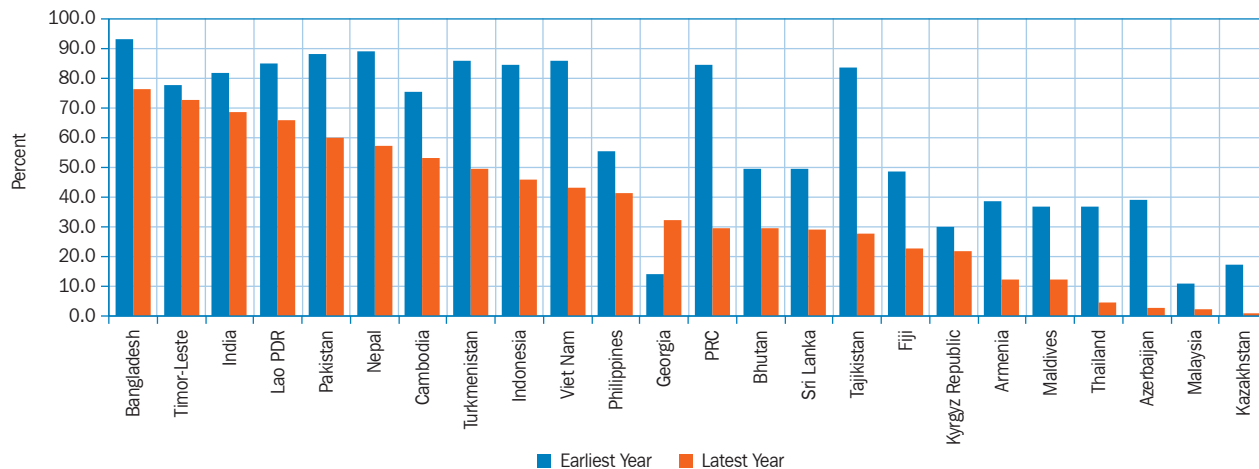
Poverty rates in developing Asia are much higher in the rural areas than in the urban areas. But rural poverty has declined in 18 of 21 economies for which earliest- and latest-year data are available. The three exceptions are Afghanistan, Fiji, and Mongolia. In Mongolia the increase in the national poverty rate, from 36.3% in 1995 to 38.7% in 2009, was mainly due to the increase in the rural poverty rate, from 33.1% to 49.6%, as the urban poverty rate declined from 38.5% to 30.6%.

Rural–urban disparities, measured by the ratio of rural poverty to urban poverty, have worsened in 18 economies. In Bhutan, the ratio doubled from 9.1 to 18.2 between 2003 and 2007. According to the latest available data, the ratio is above 2.0 for Pakistan (2.1), Fiji (2.3), Cambodia (2.9), Thailand (3.5), Kazakhstan (3.7), Malaysia (4.9), Viet Nam (5.7), and Bhutan (18.2). Rural and urban poverty are equally prevalent only in Armenia, at 48% in 2001 and 36.0% in 2010.

A caveat regarding the national poverty data: The data on national, rural, and urban poverty between the two stated points in time may not be strictly comparable because of changes in the definition of national poverty, in the survey methodology, and in the rural–urban boundaries.

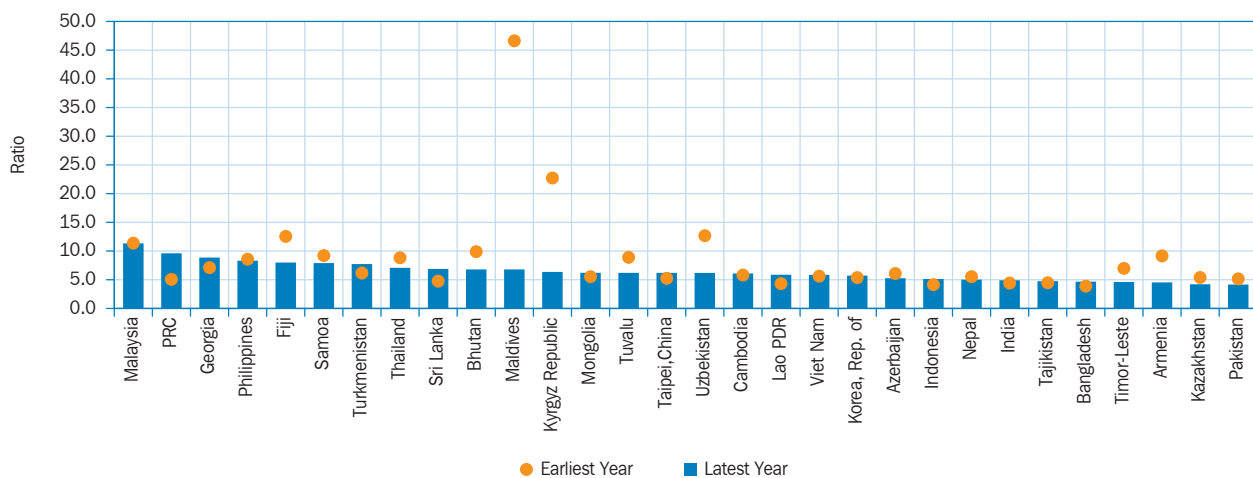
In summary, while there is less poverty in both rural and urban areas, the rural–urban disparities are also wider in most countries, indicating the need for policies that will improve access to opportunities and raise incomes in the rural areas.

Figure 2.1 Proportion of Population Living below \$2 a Day at 2005 PPP\$, Earliest and Latest Years



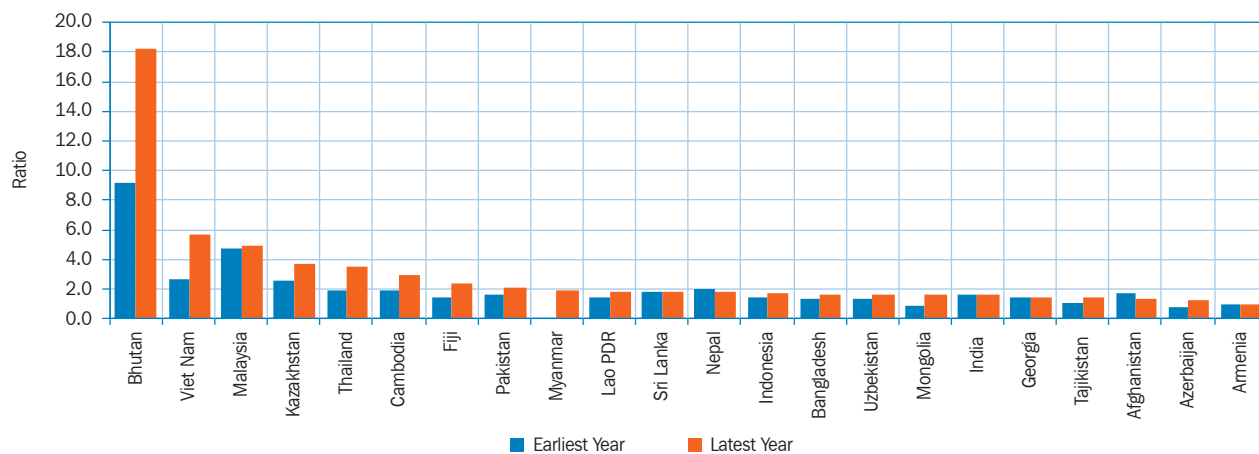
Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PPP = Purchasing Power Parity, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.1.

Figure 2.2 Ratio of Income or Consumption Share of Highest Quintile to Lowest Quintile, Earliest and Latest Years



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.1.

Figure 2.3 Ratio of Rural to Urban National Poverty Rate, Earliest and Latest Years



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.
Source: Table 2.1.

Poverty and Inequality: Nonincome Poverty

The Indicators

The three indicators in this group are:

- Average years of total schooling (youth and adult),
- Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age, and
- Under-five mortality rate.

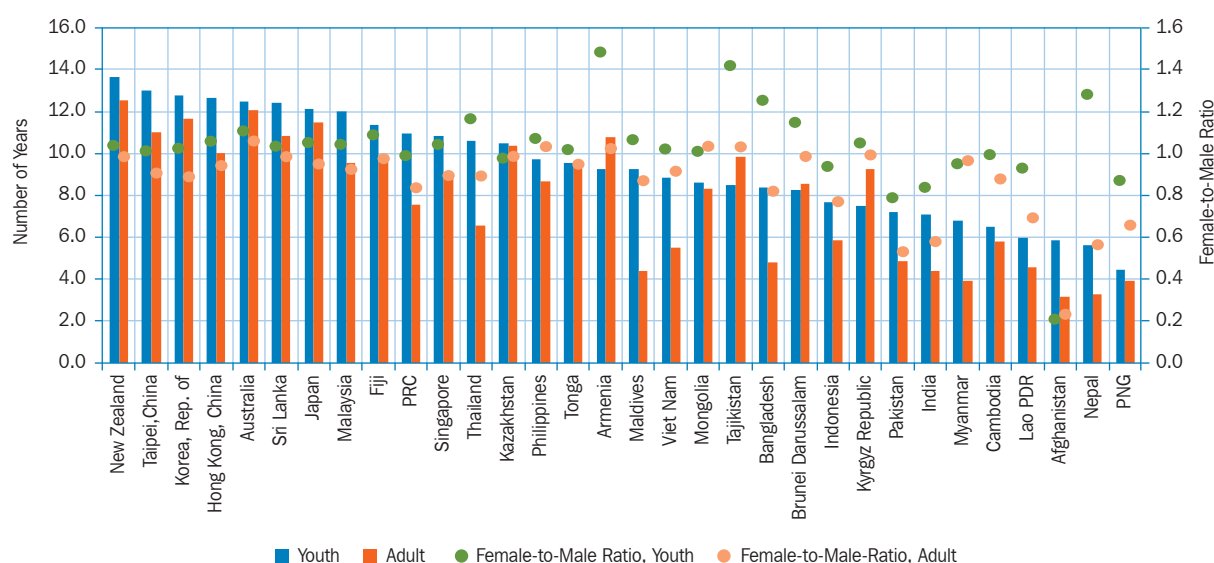
Trends in Economies

The average years of schooling, a summary measure¹ of educational attainment in a population, went up remarkably for the youth and adults across all economies in developing Asia between 1990 and 2010, except in Armenia, the Kyrgyz Republic, Papua New Guinea, and Tajikistan, where there was an observed decline among the youth. Of the 29 economies of developing Asia for which 2010 data for the youth were available, Taipei, China had the highest value of 13.0 years and Papua New Guinea had the lowest value of 4.4 years. The value was below

developing Asia's average of 8.8 years in 2010 for nearly half of the economies, including four of the five most populous in the region—Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, and Pakistan—and was 10.9 years for the PRC. Five other economies—Hong Kong, China; Republic of Korea; Malaysia; Sri Lanka; and Taipei, China—had an average of 12.0 years or more, in line with the average in developed economies of Australia (12.5), Japan (12.1), and New Zealand (13.7). While the average has also improved for adults in all economies, generally the youth have more average years of schooling than adults, except in Armenia, the Kyrgyz Republic, and Tajikistan.

The prevalence of underweight children measures the extent of malnutrition. Nearly one in every four children in developing Asia is underweight. The latest available data between 2004 and 2011 show that more than 20% of the children in more than one-third of the 32 economies are underweight. The worst proportions of underweight children are found in South Asia—Bangladesh (41.3%), and India (43.5%)—and in Pakistan (30.9%) and Timor-Leste (45.3%). The PRC's 3.4% is among the lowest in the region. The prevalence of underweight children worsened in Armenia, Tajikistan, Timor-Leste, and Vanuatu between the earliest and the latest periods for which data were available.

Figure 2.4 Average Years of Total Schooling and Ratio of Female to Male Average Years of Total Schooling, Youth and Adults, 2010



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PNG = Papua New Guinea, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.2.

1 The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) report *Reaching the Marginalized: Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2010* adopted 4 years of schooling as the minimum number of years required to gain the most basic literacy and numeracy skills. According to the report, those with less than 4 years of education are in a state of "education poverty" and those with less than 2 years of education are in "extreme education poverty."

The under-five mortality rate measures child survival and also reflects the state of primary health care in a country. Between 1990 and 2010, all economies in developing Asia succeeded in reducing child deaths, and the weighted average of child mortality fell from 88 per 1,000 live births to 48. The child mortality rates in 2010 ranged from 3 per 1,000 live births in Singapore to 87 in Pakistan and 149 in Afghanistan.

Inequalities in Nonincome Poverty

There are disparities in average years of schooling between young boys and girls, but these have narrowed over the years in all economies, except in Afghanistan. In Afghanistan, the average years of schooling increased from 3.6 years in 1990 to 9.5 years in 2010 for young boys, but rose from 1.2 years to only 2.0 years for young girls during the same period. India and Pakistan have a gap of more than 1 year between young boys and girls in average years of schooling. Significant gains in closing the gaps have been achieved in Armenia, Bangladesh, Nepal, Tajikistan, and Thailand. In these same economies, among others, young girls enjoyed more years of schooling than young boys in 2010.

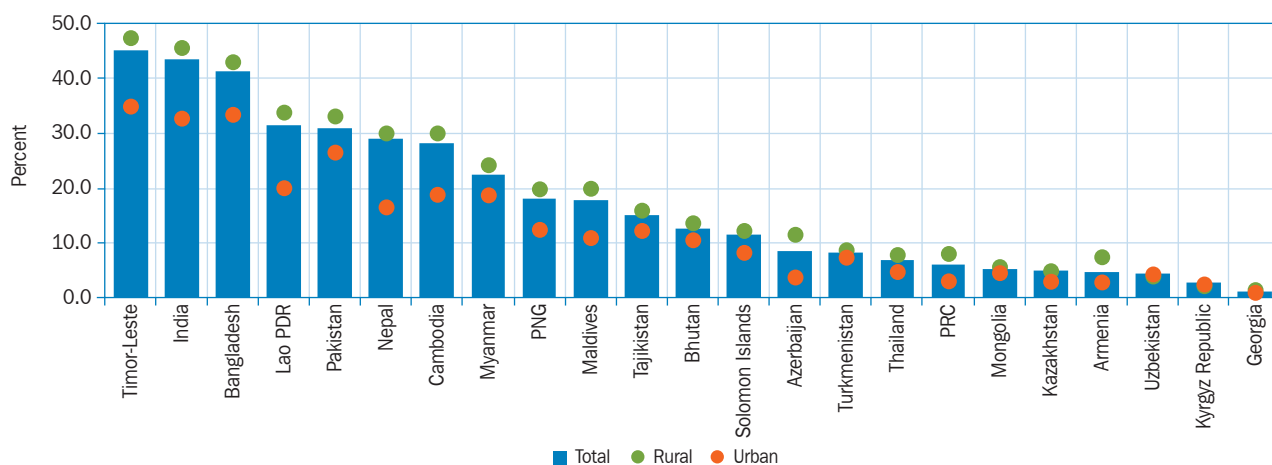
Generally, girls are less likely to be underweight than boys, but in some economies, including Afghanistan, Armenia, Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Solomon Islands, and Thailand, the proportion of underweight girls (in relation to the total population of girls) is slightly higher

than the proportion of underweight boys. The bias against female children in some societies could explain the difference. Almost all economies for which data are available (except the Kyrgyz Republic and Uzbekistan) have a higher proportion of underweight children in the rural areas than in the urban areas. Rural–urban disparities in the prevalence of underweight children are largest in Azerbaijan (with a rural–urban ratio of 3.1), the PRC (2.7), and Armenia (2.6).

Unequal outcomes in children’s weight are also related to household wealth. In 15 out of 23 economies, a child in the poorest quintile is at least twice as likely to be underweight than a child in the richest quintile. Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, India, Nepal, Thailand, and Turkmenistan have at least 2.8 underweight poor children for every underweight child in the richest quintile.

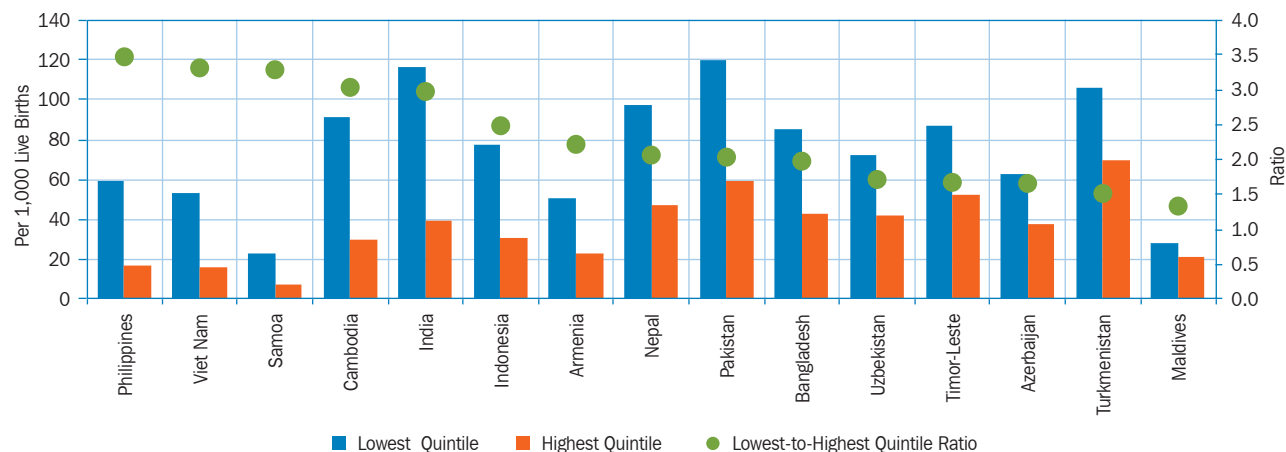
Data for the under-five mortality rates for males and females for 38 economies of developing Asia shows that in four of these—the PRC, India, Nepal, and Tonga, girls under five years of age are at higher risk of death than boys. Household wealth, a factor in the prevalence of underweight children, is also a discriminating factor in child survival. In all the 15 economies where data on child deaths disaggregated by wealth quintile are available, the chances of survival are higher for children in the richest quintile. In 10 economies, the poorest children are at least twice as likely to die before reaching their fifth birthday as their richest counterparts.

Figure 2.5 Prevalence of Underweight Children under Five Years of Age, Total, Urban, and Rural, Latest Year



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PNG = Papua New Guinea, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.2.

Figure 2.6 Under-Five Mortality Rate (per 1,000 Live Births, Lowest and Highest Quintiles) and Ratio of Lowest to Highest Quintiles, Latest Year



Source: Table 2.2.

Policy Pillar One: Growth and Expansion of Economic Opportunity

Economic Growth and Employment

The Indicators

The economic growth and employment indicators are:

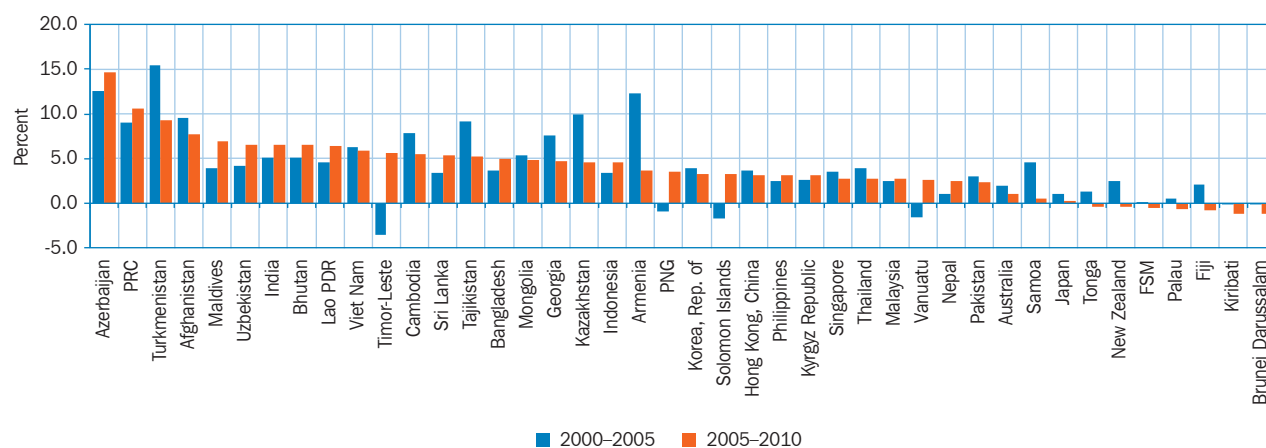
- Growth rate of gross domestic product (GDP) per capita, at purchasing power parity (PPP), in constant 2005 PPP\$;
- Growth rate of average per capita income or consumption, in 2005 PPP\$ (lowest quintile, highest quintile, and total);
- Employment-to-population ratio;
- GDP per person engaged, in constant 1990 PPP\$; and

- Number of own-account and contributing family workers per 100 wage and salaried workers.

Trends in Economies

GDP per capita (constant 2005 PPP\$) for 39 economies of developing Asia grew at a faster annualized rate of 7.3% in 2005–2010, despite the impact of the global financial crisis in 2008–2009, compared with the 2000–2005 rate of 6.1%. However, a weak global environment in 2011 moderated per capita GDP growth to 6.1% from 8.0% in 2010. In 2005–2010, per capita GDP growth in developing Asia varied widely. Growth was negative in six economies, including five in the Pacific—Fiji, Kiribati, the Federated States of Micronesia, Palau, and Tonga—but it was greater than 6.0% in nine others, including the PRC, which grew by 10.6%.

Figure 2.7 Annualized Growth Rate of GDP per Capita at Constant 2005 PPP\$



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PNG = Papua New Guinea, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.3.

The total employment-to-population ratio for those aged 15 years and over in most economies ranges between 50% and 65%, according to the most recent data available. The International Labour Organization estimates the youth employment-to-population ratios for most economies at between 30% and 50% in 2011. It is highest in Nepal (around 73%) and lowest in Armenia (19%). The youth employment–population ratio declined in 25 of 35 economies between 1991 and 2011. Available data also suggest that many workers in developing Asia are own-account and contributing family workers (also known as “vulnerable employment”), largely employed in low-quality jobs. Between the earliest and latest years for which data are available from various years within the period 2001–2009, the number of own-account and contributing family workers per 100 wage and salaried workers declined in 19 of 26 economies in the region including the three developed economies of Australia, Japan, and New Zealand. The number of vulnerable workers per 100 wage and salaried workers was more than 250 in Bangladesh (613), Bhutan (291), Cambodia (478), India (526), the Lao People’s Democratic Republic (Lao PDR) (751), Nepal (291), Viet Nam (289), and Vanuatu (264), indicating the extent of low-quality and low-productivity jobs in these economies.

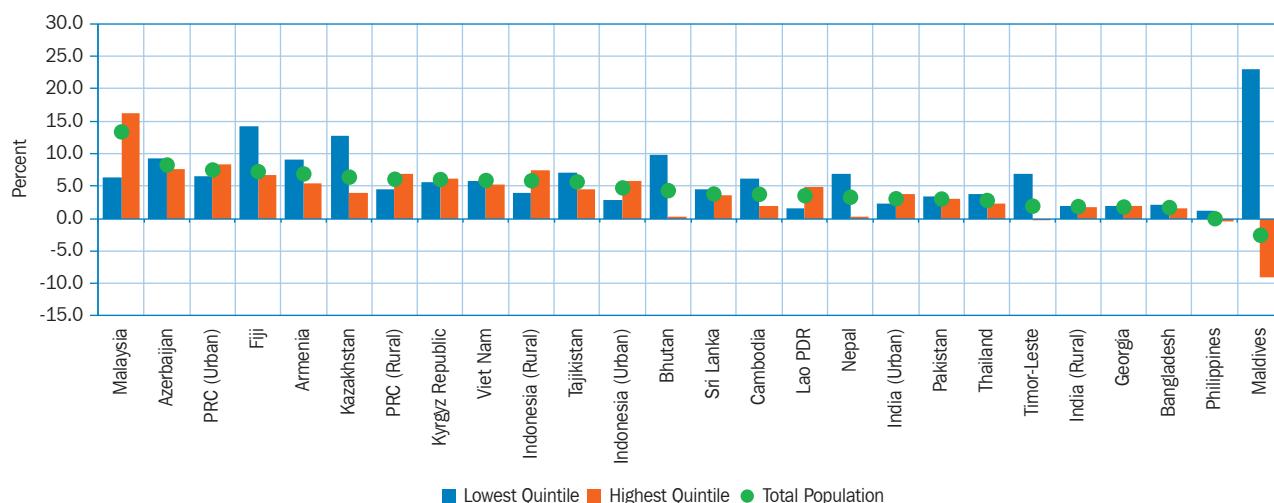
Inequalities in Growth and Employment

The data on household income or consumption are derived from household income or consumption surveys. The results of the latest surveys suggest that the average annual per capita income or consumption (2005 PPP\$) grew at a faster rate among households in the lowest quintile than among households in the highest quintile

in 17 out of 20 economies (excluding India, Indonesia, and the PRC). In the remaining three economies—the Kyrgyz Republic, the Lao PDR, and Malaysia—average growth was faster in the highest-quintile households than in the lowest-quintile households. In India, Indonesia, and the PRC, which have separately available household consumption growth rates for rural and urban areas, the household consumption in the highest quintile in both the urban and rural areas outpaced the lowest-quintile growth, except in rural India, where consumption grew faster among the lowest quintile than among the highest quintile during the period.

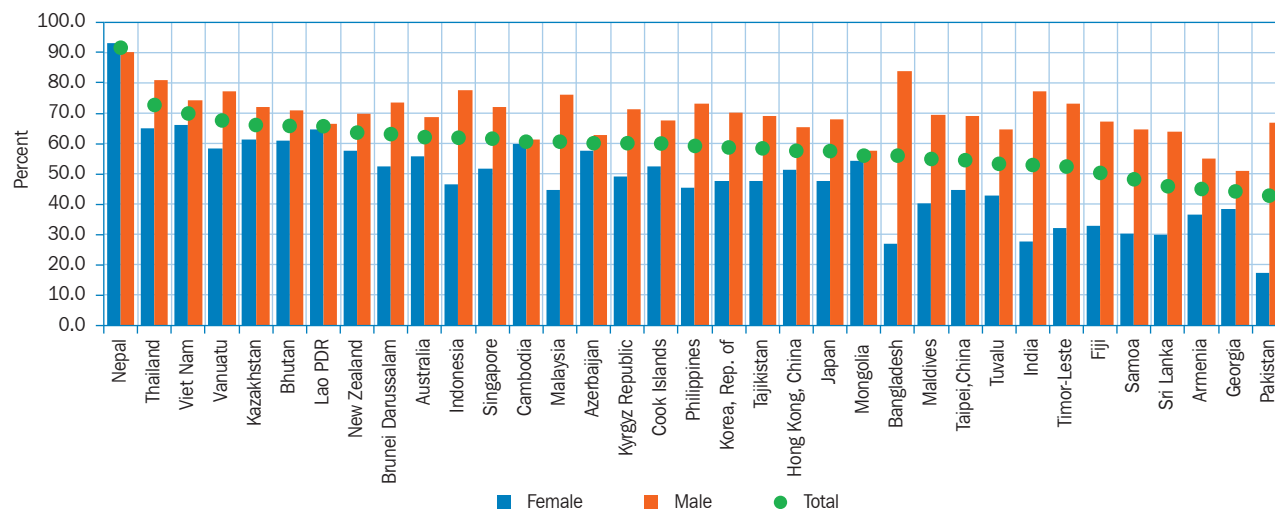
Gender inequalities are evident in the employment-to-population ratio in the developing Asian economies. The ratio for adult males (15 years and over) is higher than the ratio for adult females in all economies except Nepal. The ratio for adult males is more than twice the ratio for adult females in Bangladesh (3.1 times), Fiji (2.1), India (2.8), Pakistan (3.8), Samoa (2.1), Sri Lanka (2.1), and Timor-Leste (2.3), indicating limited opportunities for them in the labor market. Similarly, higher employment-to-population ratios for males than for females were observed among the youth except in Bhutan; Cambodia; the PRC; Hong Kong, China; Japan; Republic of Korea; the Lao PDR; Papua New Guinea; and Taipei, China. Women not only have employment ratios that are lower than those of males, but also tend to be employed more as own-account and contributing family workers, in unpaid or low-paid informal jobs. In almost all the economies in developing Asia, men outnumber women in wage and salaried jobs. In Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, and the Lao PDR, there are more than 600 females in vulnerable jobs for every 100 wage and salary workers; the corresponding numbers for males are much lower.

Figure 2.8 Growth Rate of Average Per Capita Income or Consumption in 2005 PPP\$, Latest Period



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.3.

Figure 2.9 Employment-to-Population Ratio, Population Aged 15 Years and Over, Latest Year



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.
Source: Table 2.3.

Key Infrastructure Endowments

The Indicators

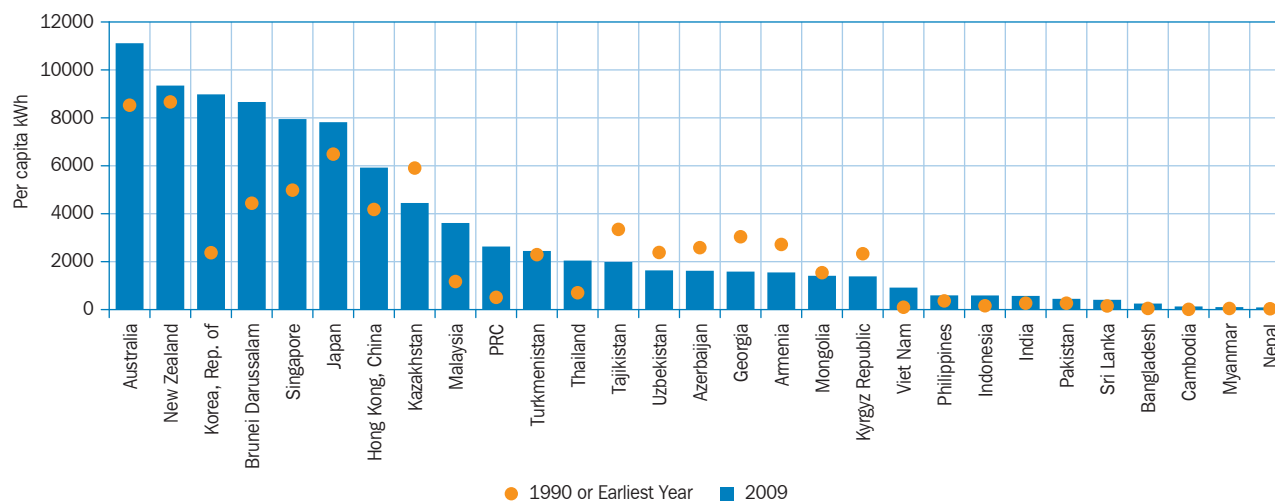
The four indicators of key infrastructure endowments are:

- Per capita consumption of electricity,
- Percentage of paved roads,
- Number of cellular phone subscriptions per 100 people, and
- Depositors with commercial banks per 1,000 adults.

Trends in Economies

Electricity provides energy for households, businesses, and industries and is an essential input to growth. In the last 2 decades, the economies of developing Asia expectedly increased their electricity consumption per capita as economic growth in the region soared (no data for the Pacific are available, however). Per capita electricity consumption in developing Asia more than tripled from 479 kilowatt-hours (kWh) in 1990 to 1,530 kWh in 2009. But this figure is still only about a fifth of the per capita consumption of 8,332 kWh in developed Asia (Australia, Japan, and New Zealand). Moreover, though

Figure 2.10 Electricity Consumption (Per Capita kWh), 1990 or Earliest Year and 2009



kWh = kilowatt-hour, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.4.

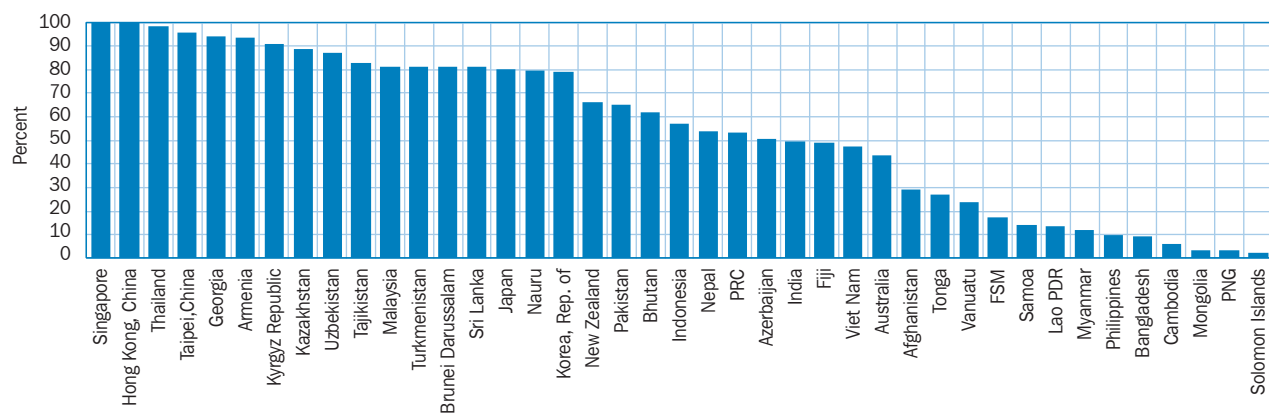
norms for desirable consumption per capita are not available, consumption varies widely within the region, from as low as 91 kWh in Nepal to as high as 8,980 kWh in the Republic of Korea. It is particularly low in the South Asian economies. Per capita electricity consumption in eight economies, mostly in Central and West Asia and Mongolia, declined from 1990 to 2009.

The percentage of paved roads to total roads increased in 27 out of 38 reporting economies in developing Asia in the last 2 decades. Changes in values between the earliest and latest years show an increase of more than 40 percentage points in three economies—Brunei Darussalam (49.7), Sri Lanka (49.0), and Thailand (43.2). On the other hand, the proportion of paved roads decreased in nine economies, most significantly in Azerbaijan (by 43.3 percentage points) but also in Armenia, Bhutan, Cambodia, the PRC, the Lao PDR, Mongolia, the Philippines, and Samoa. The decrease in these economies was due either to the slower rate of increase in paved roads compared with the rate of increase in the total road network (as in Bhutan, the PRC, the Lao PDR, and Samoa) or simply to the decline in the extent of paved roads because of poor maintenance and insufficient funds to upgrade the road network (as in Armenia, Azerbaijan, Cambodia, Mongolia, and the Philippines). All roads are paved in Hong Kong, China; the Maldives; and Singapore. In Bangladesh, Cambodia, Mongolia, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines, and Solomon Islands, on the other hand, paved roads comprise less than 10% of the total road network, although this figure could be understated as the latest data for most of these economies are from the early 2000s.

The number of cellular phone subscriptions per 100 people grew throughout developing Asia during the period 2000–2011, but again with wide disparities between countries. In 2011 (or nearest years), 16 of 45 developing economies in Asia recorded subscriptions of more than 100 per 100 people. This means that the average individual in these economies has more than one subscription. The number of subscriptions is particularly high in Hong Kong, China (210 per 100 persons, or about two subscriptions per person); Maldives (166); Singapore (149); Viet Nam (143); and Kazakhstan (143). There are very few subscriptions for every 100 people in Kiribati (14), Marshall Islands (7), Myanmar (3), and in most Pacific and some South Asian economies. In terms of average yearly rate of increase in subscriptions per 100 people, the top achievers are Tajikistan (116.2%), Federated States of Micronesia (101.0%), Afghanistan (101.0%), Bhutan (91.6%), Vanuatu (89.7%), and some economies in Central and West Asia and the Pacific.

The number of people with deposit accounts at commercial banks is a measure of financial access. According to available data for the period 2004–2010, the number of those holding deposit accounts at commercial banks per 1,000 adults grew in all the reporting economies of developing Asia, but there was a large disparity in numbers. In 2010, Azerbaijan had the fewest account holders per 1,000 adults (41.2) and Taipei, China had the most (5,188). The numbers were also high for economies with relatively advanced financial and banking systems like the Republic of Korea (4,522), Singapore (2,134), and Malaysia (1,620).

Figure 2.11 Paved Roads (Percentage of Total Roads), 2009 or Latest Year



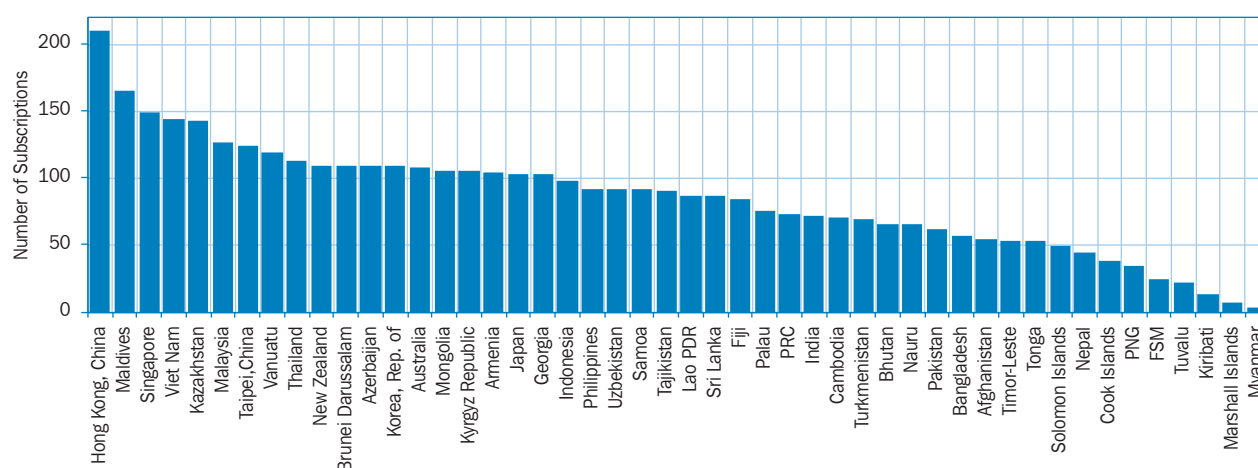
FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PNG = Papua New Guinea, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.4.

Inequalities in Infrastructure Endowments

Inadequacy or lack of physical and financial infrastructure endowments limits opportunities for inclusive growth for the poor, small-scale entrepreneurs, and the geographically disadvantaged. Basic infrastructure, such as electricity, good-quality roads, telecommunications, and financial institutions, are needed to distribute the benefits of growth to far-flung populations and disadvantaged sections of society. However, the lack of

disaggregated data (e.g., by gender, where applicable, and by urban and rural components) limits assessments of the distributional aspects of access to infrastructure. Data on per capita consumption of electricity in rural and urban areas and on the availability of paved roads in rural areas would be very useful in such assessments. In addition, disaggregated data on individual depositors with commercial banks would provide insights into the financial access of women and residents of rural areas.

Figure 2.12 Number of Cellular Phone Subscriptions (per 100 People), 2011 or Latest Year



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PNG = Papua New Guinea, PRC = People's Republic of China.

Source: Table 2.4.

Policy Pillar Two: Social Inclusion to Ensure Equal Access to Economic Opportunity

Access and Inputs to Education and Health

The Indicators

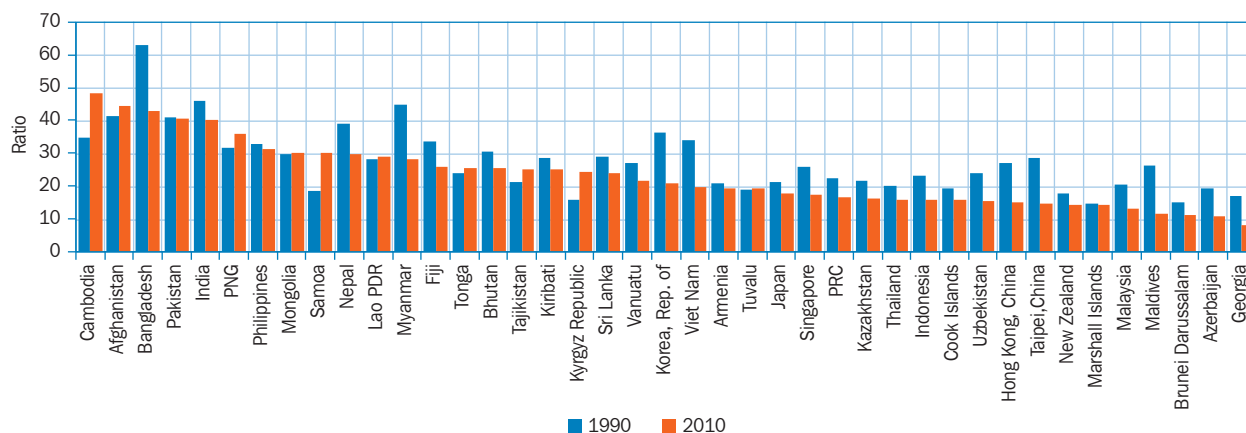
The indicators under access and inputs to education and health services are:

- School life expectancy (primary to tertiary),
- Pupil–teacher ratio (primary);
- Diphtheria, tetanus toxoid, and pertussis (DTP3) immunization coverage among 1-year-olds;
- Physicians, nurses, and midwives per 10,000 population;
- Government expenditure on education as a percentage of total government expenditure; and
- Government expenditure on health as a percentage of total government expenditure.

Trends in Economies

School life expectancy is the number of years that today's children can expect to spend in school given current enrollment ratios. Between 1999 (or nearest year) and 2010 (or latest year), school life expectancy increased in almost all developing economies, except the Marshall Islands. The increase in Afghanistan from 5.9 years in 2003 to 8.1 in 2009 was larger than that in Pakistan, from 5.8 in 2003 to only 7.3 in 2009—the lowest in the region. The annual increases were high in Bhutan (4.6%), Mongolia (4.4%), and Cambodia (4.3%). In 1999, children entering primary education in Georgia, the Kyrgyz Republic, and the Philippines (where school life expectancy was at the same level in 1999) were expected to receive 11.4 years of education. However, according to the latest data, Georgia (12.8 years) and the Kyrgyz Republic (12.6 years) now have higher school life expectancies than the Philippines (11.7 years). Despite the increases, school life expectancy in all developing economies is still below the 1999 level in the developed economies of Australia, Japan, and New Zealand, ranging from nearly 15 to 20 years.

Figure 2.13 Pupil–Teacher Ratio (Primary), 1990 and 2010 or Nearest Years



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PNG = Papua New Guinea, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.5.

The pupil–teacher ratio is a proxy indicator of the quality of education in the absence of a direct measure. The higher the ratio, the lower the relative access of pupils to teachers and the less the attention given by the teacher to each student. Between 1990 and 2010 (or nearest years), pupil–teacher ratios in 29 economies improved. Bangladesh had the greatest improvement, from a ratio of 63 in 1990 to 43 in 2010. It achieved this improvement by more than doubling the number of teachers, from only 189,508 in 1990 to 395,281 in 2010. Timor-Leste also improved its ratio, from 51 in 2001 to 30 in 2010. On the other hand, pupil–teacher ratios for 10 economies worsened during the same period because of large increases in the number of children enrolled in primary schools. In Cambodia, the increase in the number of teachers, from 36,533 to 46,905, was not enough to meet the large increase in primary school enrollment, from around 1.3 million pupils in 1990 to 2.3 million in 2010; the pupil–teacher ratio accordingly increased, from 35 to 48.

The indicator for diphtheria, tetanus toxoid, and pertussis (DTP3) immunization coverage measures access to immunization against three diseases that threaten the health of infants. DTP3 immunization rates have increased in 33 economies since 1990. Three economies—Afghanistan, Cambodia, and the Lao PDR—at least doubled their DTP3 immunization rates by 2010 from below 40% in 1990. Among these three economies, the increase was highest in the Lao PDR, from 18% to 74%. In 2010, 16 economies had achieved 95% coverage, but four economies—Palau (49%), Papua New Guinea (56%), Afghanistan (66%), and Vanuatu (68%)—had rates below 70%.

The World Health Organization² has stated that countries with fewer than 23 physicians, nurses, and midwives per 10,000 population generally fail to achieve adequate coverage rates for priority interventions in primary health care under the Millennium Development Goals. In 2010 (or latest years), 17 economies had rates below 23; Bhutan had the lowest rate of 3. On the other hand, the rates were greater than 100 in Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, and Uzbekistan in Central and West Asia, and in Nauru in the Pacific.

Government expenditure on education and health measures government spending on these sectors and is essential in making these basic social services accessible to all. Governments in most developing economies generally spend twice as much on education as they do on health. In 2011 (or latest years), government expenditure on education was greater than 20% of total government expenditure in Fiji, the Kyrgyz Republic, Malaysia, Singapore, and Vanuatu. Government expenditure on health was greater than 10% of total government expenditure in Cambodia; Cook Islands; Fiji; Hong Kong, China; Kiribati; the Kyrgyz Republic; Samoa; and Vanuatu.

Inequalities in Access and Inputs to Education and Health

The gap between females and males in expected years of schooling has decreased in most economies since 1990. In 2010 (or latest years), school life expectancy was biased against females in 12 economies. Girls entering school in Afghanistan in 2010 were expected to get 6.1

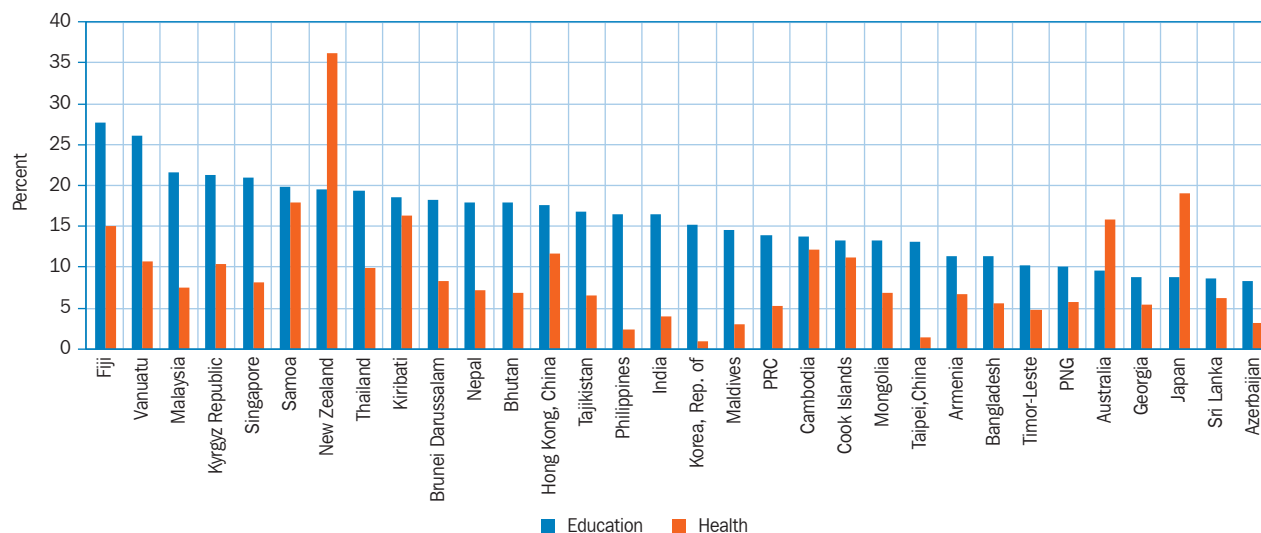
² World Health Organization (WHO). 2006. *World Health Report 2006: Working Together for Health*. Geneva: WHO.

years of schooling, 4 years less than the expected years of schooling for males entering school at the same time. The gap estimated for 1999 was 3.5 years.

In most economies, disparities in DTP3 immunization are attributable to differences in household wealth: infants in the lowest-quintile households are less likely

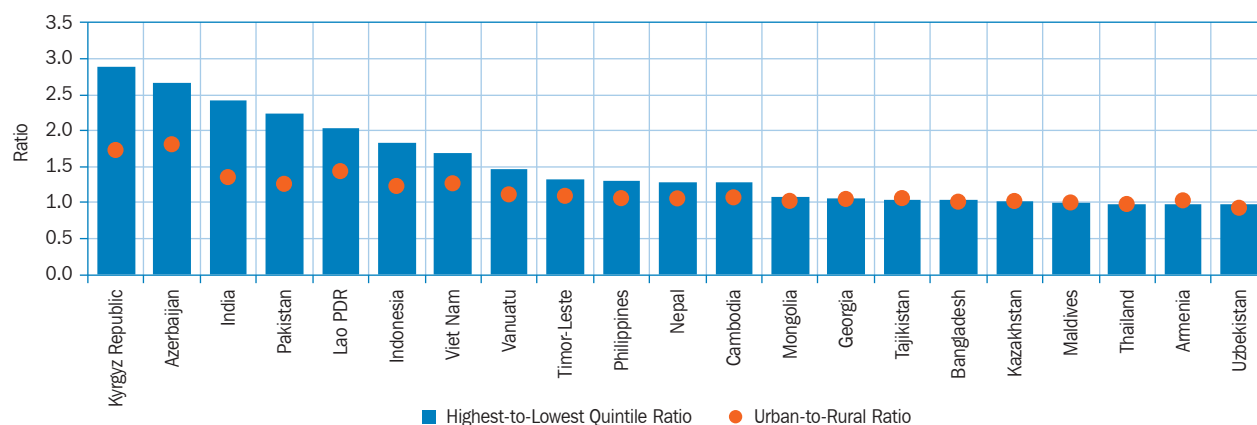
to be immunized than infants in the highest quintile. In Azerbaijan, India, the Kyrgyz Republic, the Lao PDR, and Pakistan, infants from the highest quintile are more than twice as likely to be immunized as infants from the poorest quintiles. Infants in rural households in all developing economies, except Thailand and Uzbekistan, are also at a disadvantage in terms of immunization coverage.

Figure 2.14 Government Expenditure on Education and Health (Percentage of Total Government Expenditure), 2011 or Latest Year



PNG = Papua New Guinea, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.5.

Figure 2.15 Diphtheria, Tetanus Toxoid, and Pertussis (DTP3) Immunization Coverage among 1-Year-Olds by Urban-to-Rural Ratio and Highest-to-Lowest Quintile Ratio, Latest Year



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.
Source: Table 2.5.

Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services

The Indicators

The indicators in this category are as follows:

- Percentage of population with access to electricity,
- Share of population using solid fuels for cooking,
- Percentage of population using improved drinking water sources, and
- Percentage of population using improved sanitation facilities.

Trends in Economies

Access of households to basic utilities and services, such as modern energy for lighting and clean fuels for cooking, is vital in achieving social inclusiveness and sustainable growth in developing economies. According to the International Electricity Agency, nearly 655 million people in 2009 in 20 developing economies of Asia for which data are available lacked access to electricity. The PRC is one of six economies with almost 100% coverage. The others are Brunei Darussalam; Malaysia; Singapore; Taipei,China; and Thailand. Viet Nam follows closely at 97.6%. At the other end are economies with low access to electricity—Myanmar (13.0%), Afghanistan (15.5%), Timor-Leste (22.0%), and Cambodia (24.0%). Access is

also low for some South Asian economies like Bangladesh (41.0%), Nepal (43.6%), India (about 75%), and Sri Lanka (about 77%).

Solid fuels, comprising biomass (wood, charcoal, agricultural residues, and dung) and coal, are still a major source of fuel for cooking in many economies in developing Asia. The latest data from the World Health Organization (WHO) show that generally, between 2003 to 2010 (or latest years), solid fuels were the main source of cooking for more than 80% of households in 10 economies—the Lao PDR (98% of households), Myanmar (95%), Timor-Leste (95%), Solomon Islands (92%), Bangladesh (91%), Cambodia (88%), Afghanistan (86%), Nepal (83%), Vanuatu (85%), and Sri Lanka (81%).

Clean and safe drinking water and clean sanitation facilities are also basic service needs for inclusive growth. Though the Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation of WHO and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) has reported that the global drinking water target under the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) was met in 2010, in many economies, large populations still lack safe drinking water and the sanitation target is not likely to be met.³ Almost 90% of developing Asia's population had access to improved drinking water sources in 2010, but access rates were below 80% in Solomon Islands (70%), Timor-Leste (69%), the Lao PDR (67%), Cambodia (64%), Tajikistan (64%), Kiribati (63%), Afghanistan (50%), and Papua New Guinea (40%), according to the latest available data.

Figure 2.16 Percentage of Population with Access to Electricity, 2000 and 2009



PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.6.

³ World Health Organization (WHO) and United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). 2012. *Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation: Progress on Drinking Water and Sanitation, 2012 Update*. New York: WHO and UNICEF.

Access to better sanitation facilities has been increasing in almost all economies in developing Asia, but around 45% of the population still uses unimproved sanitation facilities (shared, open defecation, and other unimproved facilities). Among the economies where less than 50% of the population has access to improved sanitation are the Federated States of Micronesia (25% of the population with access), Cambodia (31%), Nepal (31%), India (34%), Kiribati (34%), Afghanistan (37%), Bhutan (44%), Papua New Guinea (45%), Timor-Leste (47%), and Pakistan (48%).

Inequalities in Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services

The urban–rural divide in access to electricity exists in all economies except those with coverage rates close to 100%. The available data for 2008 for 20 economies show urban–rural disparities, as measured by the ratio of urban access to rural access, of 2.5 or larger for Bangladesh, Cambodia, Indonesia, Mongolia, Nepal, and Timor-Leste.

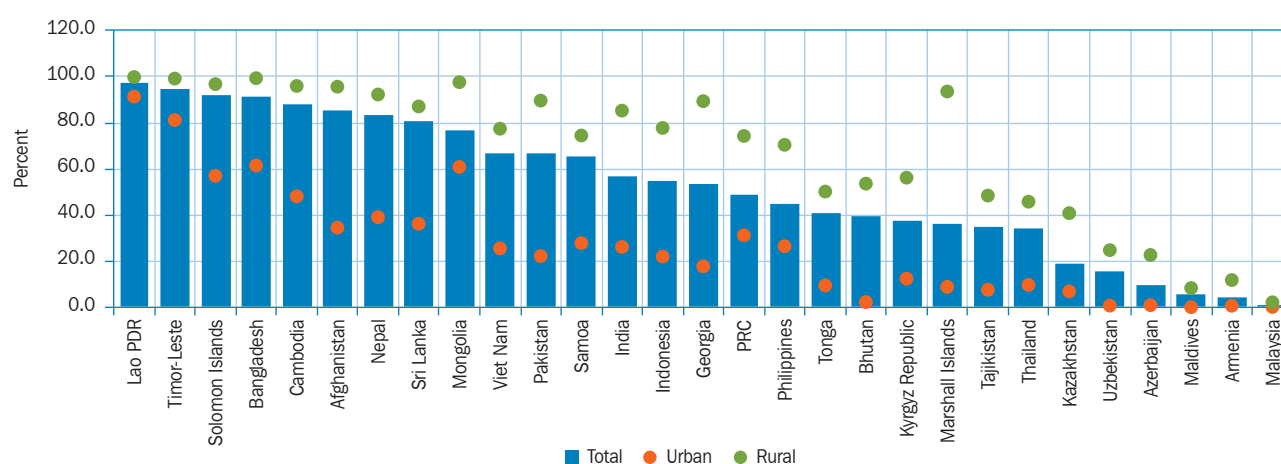
Place of residence, whether urban or rural, is also a factor in the use of solid fuels for cooking. Rural households in most economies are disadvantaged by disparities due to place of residence. In Armenia, for example, where only 4.4% of the total population in 2005 was using solid fuels for cooking, 11.8% of rural households, versus less

than 1% of urban households, were using solid fuels. According to the latest available data, more than 90% of the rural population in 10 economies—almost 100% in Bangladesh, Timor-Leste, and the Lao PDR—depend on solid fuels for cooking. The use of clean fuels for cooking is also associated with household wealth. In 13 developing economies, more than 90% of the population in the poorest wealth quintile uses solid fuels for cooking.

Rural households have less access to improved drinking water sources and sanitation facilities. In 2010, about 14% of the rural population of developing Asia, compared with 3% of the urban population, had no access to improved drinking water sources. In Afghanistan, Mongolia, Papua New Guinea, Kiribati, and Tajikistan, more than 40% of the rural population, but only about 20% or less of the urban population, do not have access to improved drinking water.

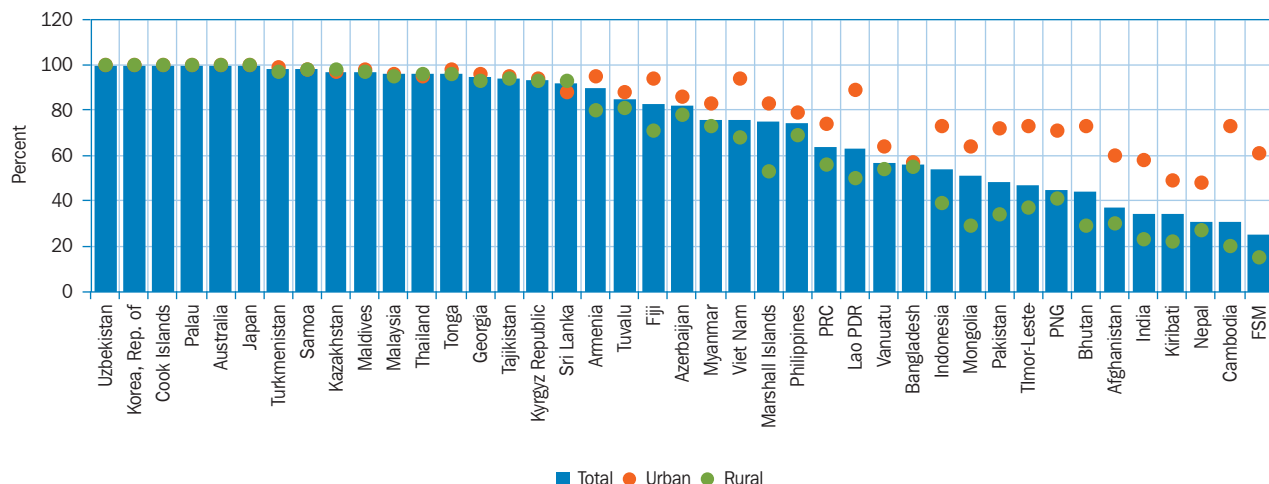
While access to improved facilities has been improving, disparities between the urban and rural areas remain. Only 43% of the rural population of developing Asia in 2010, compared with 72% of the urban population, had access to improved sanitation. Of the nearly 1.7 billion people with no access to improved sanitation, almost 1.3 billion lived in the rural areas. Open defecation is common in the rural areas. Ninety-one percent of the estimated 795 million people in developing Asia who practice open defecation live in the rural areas.

Figure 2.17 Share of Population Using Solid Fuels for Cooking, Total, Rural, Urban, 2010 or Latest Year



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.6.

Figure 2.18 Population Using Improved Sanitation Facilities (%), Total, Rural, and Urban, 2010 or Latest Year



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PNG = Papua New Guinea, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.6.

Gender Equality and Opportunity

The Indicators

The gender equality and opportunity indicators are as follows:

- Gender parity in primary, secondary, and tertiary education;
- Antenatal care coverage (at least one visit and at least four visits);
- Gender parity in labor force participation; and
- Percentage of seats held by women in national parliament.

Trends in Economies

Gender parity in education, as measured by the ratio of the gross enrollment ratio of girls to the gross enrollment ratio of boys at each level of education, quantifies the extent of equality of women's participation in education. In the developing economies of Asia, the participation of women in education increased at all levels in the last 2 decades. Gender parity ratio for primary education in these economies reached 0.99 in 2010, and only Afghanistan (0.69), Pakistan (0.82), Nepal (0.86), and Papua New Guinea (0.89) had ratios below 0.90. Gender parity similarly progressed in secondary education, with only seven economies—Afghanistan (0.51), Papua New Guinea (0.70), Pakistan (0.76), the Lao PDR (0.83), Solomon Islands (0.84), Tajikistan (0.87), and Nepal (0.89)—having gender parity ratios below 0.90. Gender parity in tertiary education, however, showed a mixed picture. Enrollments in nearly half of the developing Asian economies favored females, but only the PRC, among the five most populous

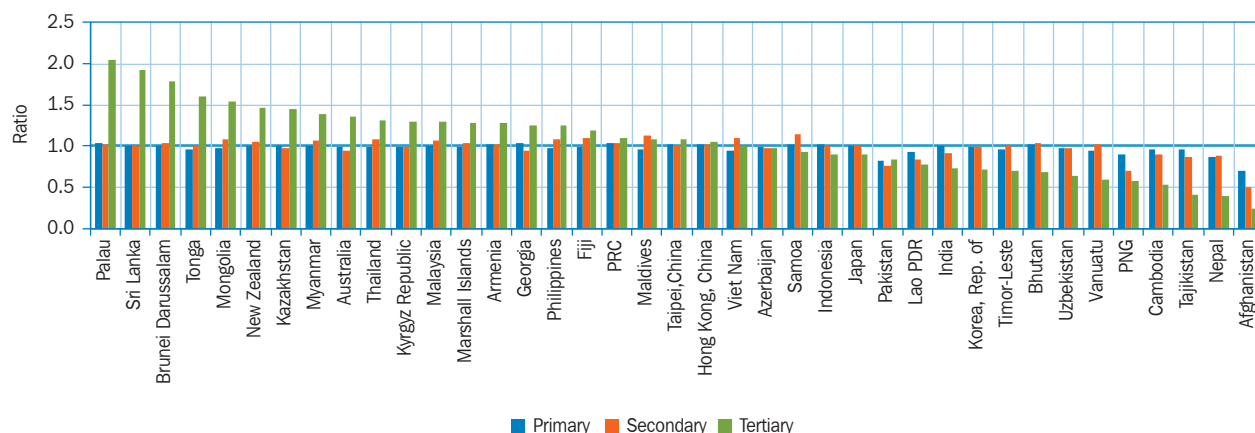
economies, achieved equality. Bangladesh narrowed the gap to 0.61, India to 0.73, Pakistan to 0.83, and Indonesia to 0.89.

On the other hand, gender parity in labor force participation (ratio of the labor force participation rate of females to that of males) is still a challenge for the developing economies. In 2011, Cambodia, the Lao PDR, Myanmar, Nepal, Papua New Guinea, and Viet Nam all had high ratios of at least 0.90. The ratio of 0.20 for Afghanistan was the lowest. For the five most populous economies of Asia, the ratios were 0.85 for the PRC, 0.68 for Bangladesh, 0.61 for Indonesia, 0.36 for India, and 0.27 for Pakistan. Meanwhile, gender parity in labor force participation continued to improve in the three developed economies of Asia—Australia, Japan, and New Zealand.

Although far from dominating, women are slowly increasing their presence in the national parliaments in their countries. The proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments in developing economies improved to 18.4% in 2012 from 13.8% in 2000. Increases in women's representation in national parliament were observed in 26 of the 41 developing economies in the same period. In the latest year for which data were available, the proportion of parliament seats held by women was highest in Nepal (33.2%) and Timor-Leste (32.3%) among the developing economies. Other developing economies where women occupied at least one in five seats are Afghanistan, Cambodia, the PRC, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, the Lao PDR, Pakistan, the Philippines, Singapore, Uzbekistan, and Viet Nam.

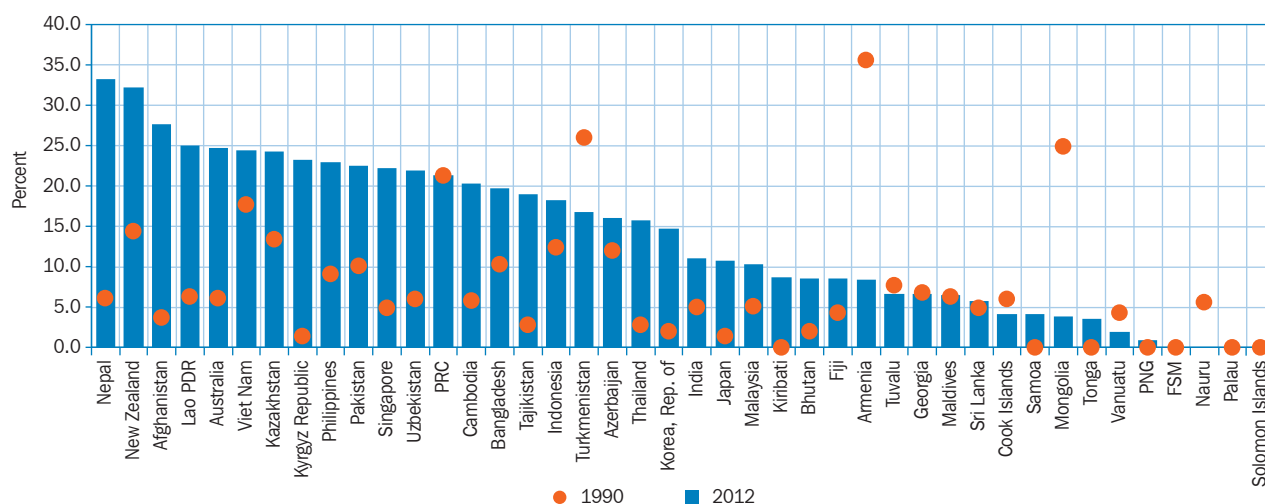
Antenatal care coverage is a basic indicator of access and health care delivery for pregnant mothers. The World

Figure 2.19 Gender Parity in Primary, Secondary, and Tertiary Education, 2010 or Latest Year



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PNG = Papua New Guinea, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.7.

Figure 2.20 Percentage of Seats Held by Women in National Parliament, 1990 and 2012



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PNG = Papua New Guinea, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.7.

Health Organization recommends at least four antenatal visits. The proportion of women who received antenatal care from skilled health personnel at least once during pregnancy increased in almost all the regional economies, according to the available data. In the latest year, antenatal care coverage of at least one visit ranged from a low of 35.1% in the Lao PDR to full coverage in some Pacific economies such as the Cook Islands, Fiji, Kiribati, and Palau. Among the five most populous economies, Bangladesh had the lowest coverage, with 52.8%, while Indonesia and the PRC both had coverage of more than 90%. On the other hand, while antenatal care coverage of at least four visits has improved over the years, it is substantially lower than antenatal coverage of at least one visit. Fewer women go through the recommended four visits that are considered important for effective maternal health interventions for pregnant women.

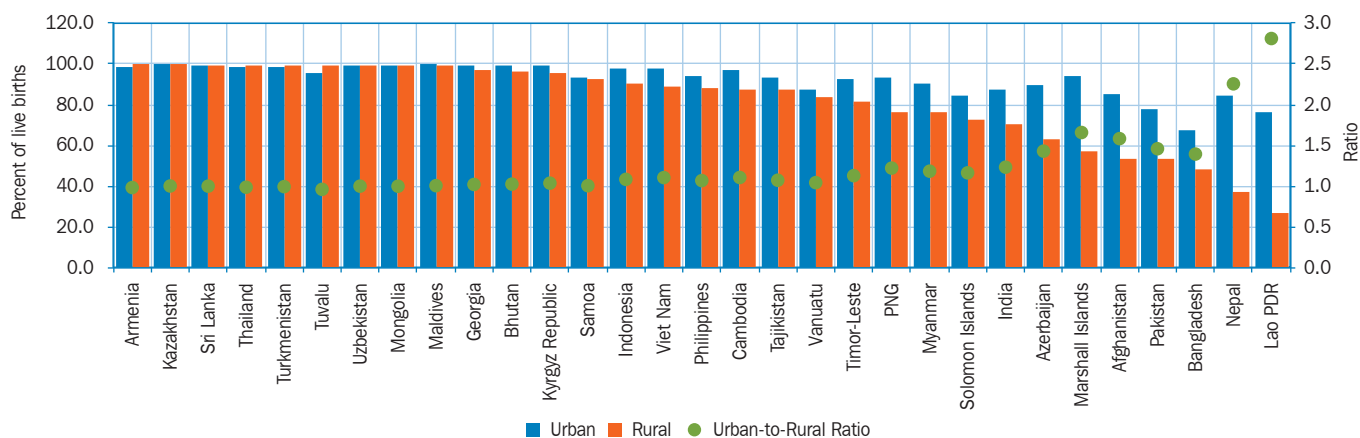
Inequality in Access to Antenatal Care

In most of the developing economies, antenatal care coverage of at least one visit is much higher among women in the urban areas, where health facilities are more accessible and health personnel more visible than among women in the rural areas. In the Lao PDR and Nepal, the disparities are quite stark: antenatal care coverage in urban areas is at least twice the coverage in the rural areas. Household wealth also creates disparities. Antenatal care coverage is generally greater among the highest-quintile group than among the lowest-quintile group. The disparities in antenatal care coverage of at least one visit due to wealth, as measured by the ratio of the coverage of the highest to the coverage of the lowest quintile, are similarly pronounced in the Lao PDR (5.4) and Nepal (4.8).

On antenatal care coverage of at least four visits, Afghanistan, Azerbaijan, Pakistan, and Nepal have urban-rural ratios of at least 2. There are large disparities in antenatal care of at least four visits between women in the highest quintile and those in the lowest quintile in Bangladesh, India, Nepal, and Pakistan, where the rates

for women from rich households are at least five times the rates for the poorest women. The percentage of poor women in these economies who avail themselves of at least four visits is as low as 7% in Bangladesh, 11% in both Nepal and Pakistan, and 12% in India.

Figure 2.21 Antenatal Care Coverage of at Least One Visit, Urban, Rural, and Urban-to-Rural Ratio, Latest Year



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PNG = Papua New Guinea.
Source: Table 2.7.

Policy Pillar 3: Social Safety Nets

The Indicators

The following three indicators are included:

- Social protection and labor rating,
- Social security expenditure on health as a percentage of government expenditure on health, and
- Government expenditure on social security and welfare as a percentage of total government expenditure.

Trends in Economies

Official statistics on quantitative indicators that provide a good measure of social safety nets and social protection are generally lacking in the absence of standards for the collection and compilation of such statistics. The first indicator, social protection and labor rating, is compiled by ADB as one of 17 criteria under its annual

country performance assessment (CPA)⁴ exercise. The social protection and labor ratings range from a “1,” corresponding to very weak performance, to a “6,” for very strong performance. The ratings assess government policies in social protection and labor market regulations that reduce the risk of becoming poor, help the poor to manage further risks better, and ensure a minimal level of welfare to all people. Among the interventions are social safety net programs, pension and old age savings programs, protection of basic labor standards, and labor market regulations. During the 2011 assessment, five economies—Bhutan, the Maldives, Samoa, Tonga, and Vanuatu—were not required to participate in the CPA exercise. Their scores in the table are therefore taken from the 2010 annual CPA exercise. Ratings are available for 28 economies in developing Asia. Armenia has the highest rating of 5.0, followed by 4.5 in Georgia, the Kyrgyz Republic, and Viet Nam. At the other end are Afghanistan, Solomon Islands, Tonga, and Tuvalu, each with a 2.5 rating, and the Federated States of Micronesia, with a rating of 2.0.

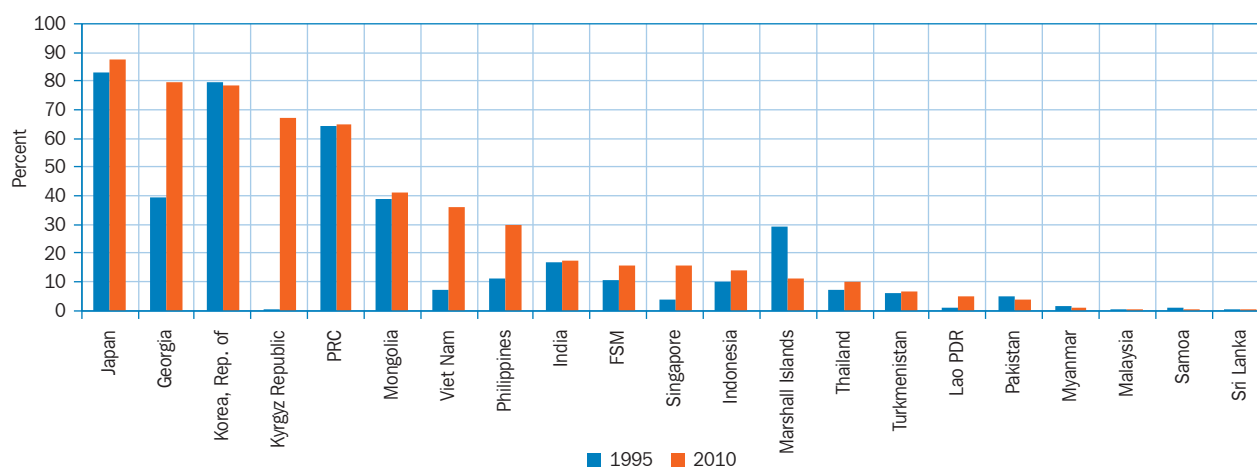
4 The CPA assesses policy and institutional framework for promoting poverty reduction, sustainable growth, and effective use of ADB's concessional assistance. ADB uses the International Development Association (IDA) country policy and institutional assessment guidelines and questionnaire, which provides 16 criteria for assessing each country's performance based on (a) the quality of its macroeconomic management, (b) the coherence of its structural policies, (c) the degree to which its policies and institutions promote equity and inclusion, and (d) the quality of its governance and public sector management. One of the criteria under social inclusion and equity is social protection and labor. For details, refer to the ADB website: <http://www.adb.org/site/adf/country-performance-assessment>. For the IDA guidelines and questionnaire used for the country policy and institutional assessment, refer to the World Bank website: <http://go.worldbank.org/EEAIU81ZG0>

Social security expenditure on health as a percentage of government expenditure on health refers to the health expenditures by government social security schemes and other compulsory health insurance schemes, including external donor funding channeled through these institutions, and is a core indicator of health financing systems. In 2010, the government's health expenditures on social security as a percentage of government expenditure on health were high in Georgia (79.7%), Japan (87.7%), and the Republic of Korea (78.2%). The percentages have been increasing for most economies over the years. In the Kyrgyz Republic, the share went up by 66.7 percentage points from 1995 to 2010. However, 16 of the 24 economies had percentages below 20% in the latest year for which data were available.

Government expenditure on social security and welfare as a percentage of total government expenditure by government is the share of government expenditure that provides benefits in cash or in kind to persons who

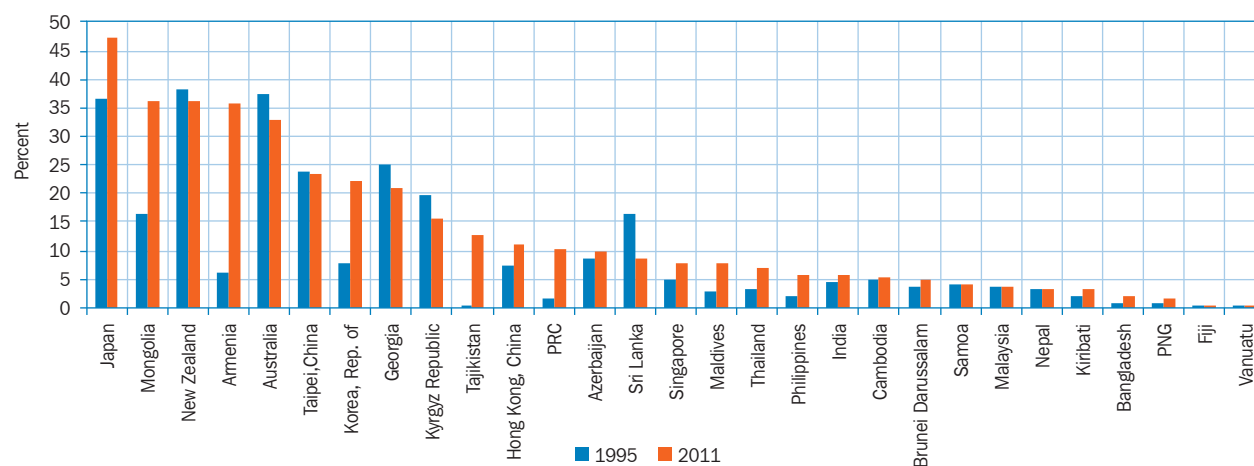
are sick, fully or partially disabled, of old age, survivors, families and children, unemployed, or socially excluded, among others. The data for most economies for the last indicator are available for central governments only except for the PRC, Japan, the Kyrgyz Republic, and Tajikistan. The shares are generally low in most developing economies. In 2010 (or latest years), the percentages ranged from 0.2% in Vanuatu to 36.2% in Mongolia and 47.1% in Japan. Ten of the 28 developing Asian economies had percentages below 5%. The share of government expenditure on social security and welfare as a share of total government has generally been increasing since 1995. Among the developing Asian economies, Armenia and Mongolia had the highest share of government expenditure on social security and welfare, at about 36%, matching the shares reported for the developed economies of Australia, Japan, and New Zealand. Other economies with shares between 20% to 30% in the latest year for which data were available were Georgia (20.8%), Republic of Korea (22.2%), and Taipei, China (23.4%).

Figure 2.22 Social Security Expenditure on Health (Percentage of Government Expenditure on Health), 1995 and 2010 or Nearest Years



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.8.

Figure 2.23 Government Expenditure on Social Security and Welfare (Percentage of Total Government Expenditure), 1995 and 2011 or Nearest Years



PNG = Papua New Guinea, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.8.

Good Governance and Institutions

The Indicators

The role of good governance and institutions in growth and development has been an important area of policy discussions recently and also of development research. Indicators that measure state of governance and institutions are not available from official statistical sources.

The following three indicators are included in this group:

- Voice and accountability,
- Government effectiveness, and
- Corruption Perceptions Index.

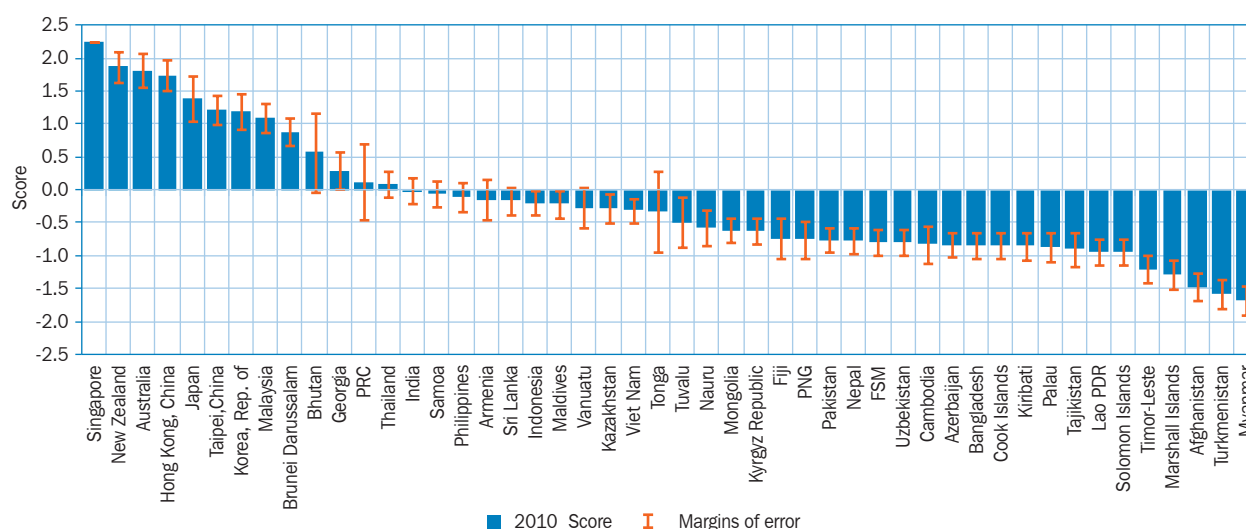
The first two indicators are sourced from the World Bank's Worldwide Governance Indicators (WGI) and the third indicator is from Transparency International, a private civil society organization. These indexes or ratings are based on perceptions and therefore caution needs to be exercised in comparing the indicators across time for a country and across countries. As these are based on

Governance Ratings in Economies

The indicator “voice and accountability” captures perceptions of the extent to which a country's citizens are able to participate in selecting their government, as well as of the degree of freedom of expression. The ratings for this indicator, in standard normal WGI units, range from -2.5 to $+2.5$. The average score for the world as a whole in every period is zero, and higher values correspond to better outcomes. In 2010, the “voice and accountability” indicator was less than zero for 28 out of 45 developing economies, with Myanmar (-2.1) and Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan (-2.0) having the lowest ratings. The highest ratings among the developing economies (between 1.0 and 1.2) were those for four Pacific Island economies—the Marshall Islands, the Federated States of Micronesia, Nauru, and Palau. Among the developed economies, the ratings were New Zealand, 1.5; Australia, 1.4; and Japan, 1.0.

“Government effectiveness” captures perceptions of the quality of public and civil services and its degree of independence from political pressures, the quality of policy formulation and implementation, and the

Figure 2.24 Government Effectiveness, 2010



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PNG = Papua New Guinea, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.9.

perceptions, small differences in point estimates across economies or time need to be interpreted cautiously taking into consideration the associated standard error and confidence interval along with the changes in the data sources over time.⁵

⁵ For details on methodology, data sources, interpretation, etc. refer to (a) Kaufmann, Daniel, Aart Kraay, and Massimo Mastruzzi. 2010. The Worldwide Governance Indicators: Methodology and Analytical Issues (September 2010). *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper* No. 5430. Washington, DC: World Bank. http://papers.ssm.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=1682130; (b) Worldwide Governance Indicators website at <http://info.worldbank.org/governance/wgi/index.asp>, and (c) Transparency International website: http://www.transparency.org/policy_research/surveys_indices/cpi

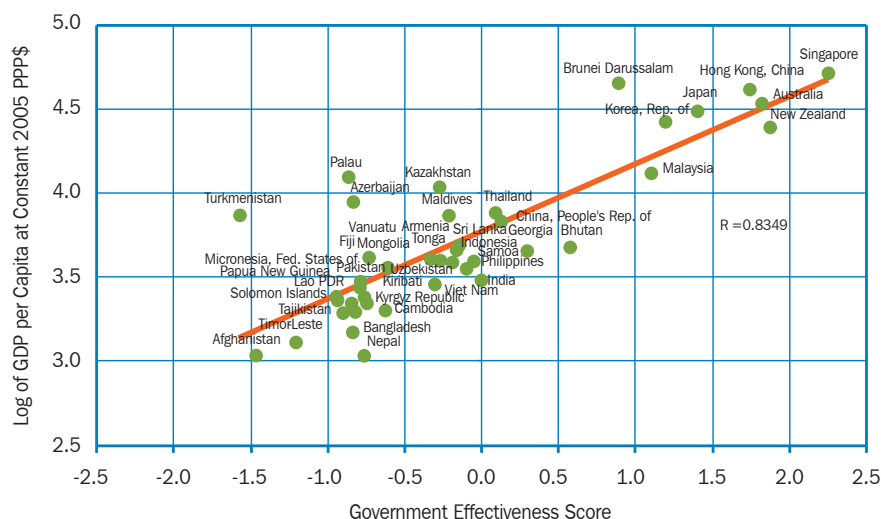
credibility of government's commitment to such policies. The measurement is similar to that of the measure of voice and accountability scores. The “government effectiveness” indicator for 2010 was less than zero for 35 out of 48 reporting economies, with the lowest ratings (between -1.5 and -1.7) registered for Afghanistan, Myanmar, and Turkmenistan. The ratings were highest for Singapore (2.2); New Zealand (1.8); Hong Kong, China, 1.7; Japan (1.4); and Australia (1.0).

There has been growing evidence of the association between governance and income and growth and of a two-way link between the two.⁶ Figure 2.25 shows a strong positive relationship in 2010 between the governance effectiveness scores and per capita GDP at constant 2005 PPP\$, with a significantly high correlation coefficient (R) of 0.8349 for the data from 42 economies in Asia.

The third indicator, the Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI), is published annually by Transparency International, the global civil society organization leading the fight against corruption. The CPI is based on perception surveys of firms, households, nongovernment organizations, and

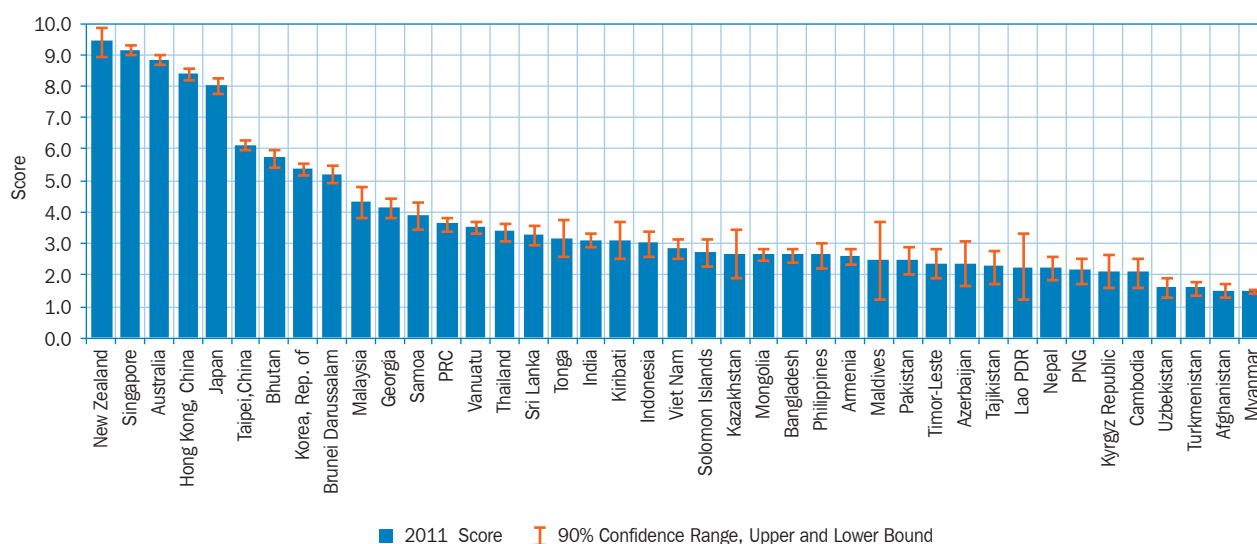
multilateral organizations. It measures the degree to which public sector corruption is perceived to exist in a country, on a scale of 0 (highly corrupt) to 10 (very clean). The CPI for 2011 was below 5 for 32 out of 38 developing economies for which data were available, with both Afghanistan and Myanmar having the lowest rating of 1.5. Only nine economies, including the three developed economies (Australia, Japan, and New Zealand), had scores higher than 5. New Zealand (9.5) had the highest score, followed closely by Singapore (9.2). The other economies with scores greater than 5 were Hong Kong, China (8.4); Taipei, China (6.1); the Republic of Korea (5.4); and Brunei Darussalam (5.2).

Figure 2.25 Government Effectiveness and Log of GDP per Capita at Constant 2005 PPP\$, 2010



Sources: Table 2.9; World Development Indicators Online (World Bank), accessed 19 July 2012.

Figure 2.26 Corruption Perceptions Index, 2011



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PNG = Papua New Guinea, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.9.

6 Zhuang, et.al. 2010. Governance and Institutional Quality and the Links with Growth and Inequality. In J. Zhuang, ed. *Poverty, Inequality, and Inclusive Growth in Asia: Measurement, Policy Issues, and Country Studies*. Manila: Asian Development Bank.

Table 2.1 **Income Poverty and Inequality**

	1 Proportion of Population below the National Poverty Line (percent)					
	Earliest Year			Latest Year		
	Total	Rural ^a	Urban ^a	Total	Rural ^a	Urban ^a
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan	33.0 (2005)	36.2	21.1	36.0 (2008)	37.5	29.0
Armenia	48.3 (2001)	47.9	48.5	35.8 (2010)	36.0	36.0
Azerbaijan	49.6 (2001)	42.5	55.7	7.6 (2011)	18.5 (2008)	14.8 (2008)
Georgia	28.5 (2003)	33.0	23.7	23.0 (2011)	26.9	18.8
Kazakhstan	46.7 (2001)	59.4	23.0	5.3 (2011)	8.8	2.4
Kyrgyz Republic	61.0 (2006)	33.7 (2010)
Pakistan	30.6 (1999)	34.7	20.9	22.3 (2006)	27.0	13.1
Tajikistan	96.0 (1999)	73.8 (2003)	68.8 (2003)	46.7 (2009)	50.8	36.7
Turkmenistan	29.9 (1998)
Uzbekistan	27.5 (2001)	30.5	22.5	25.8 (2005)	30.0	18.3
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	6.0 (1996)	7.9	2.0	...	3.8 (2009)	...
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of	5.0 (2004)
Mongolia	36.3 (1995)	33.1	38.5	38.7 (2009)	49.6	30.6
Taipei, China ^b	0.6 (1993)	1.2 (2010)
South Asia						
Bangladesh	56.6 (1992)	58.7	42.7	31.5 (2010)	35.2	21.3
Bhutan	31.7 (2003)	38.3	4.2	23.2 (2007)	30.9	1.7
India ^c	45.3 (1994)	50.1	31.8	29.8 (2010)	33.8	20.9
Maldives ^d	15.0 (2010)
Nepal	41.8 (1996)	43.3	21.6	25.2 (2011)	27.4	15.5
Sri Lanka	26.1 (1991)	29.5	16.3	8.9 (2010)	9.4	5.3
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam ^e
Cambodia	47.0 (1994)	40.1 (1997)	21.1 (1997)	30.1 (2007)	34.5	11.8
Indonesia	17.6 (1996)	19.8	13.6	12.5 (2011)	15.7	9.2
Lao PDR	45.0 (1992)	48.7	33.1	27.6 (2008)	31.7	17.4
Malaysia	5.7 (2004)	11.9	2.5	3.8 (2009)	8.4	1.7
Myanmar	25.6 (2010)	29.2	15.7
Philippines	33.1 (1991)	26.5 (2009)
Singapore
Thailand	33.7 (1990)	39.2	20.5	7.8 (2010)	10.4 (2009)	3.0 (2009)
Viet Nam	58.1 (1993)	66.4	25.1	14.5 (2008)	18.7	3.3
The Pacific ^f						
Cook Islands	28.4 (2006)
Fiji	35.0 (2003)	40.0	28.0	31.0 (2009)	43.3	18.6
Kiribati	21.8 (2006)
Marshall Islands	52.7 (2002)
Micronesia, Fed. States of	27.9 (1998)	31.4 (2005)
Nauru	25.1 (2006)
Palau	24.9 (2006)
Papua New Guinea	30.0 (1990)	28.0 (2009)
Samoa	22.9 (2002)	26.9 (2008)
Solomon Islands	22.7 (2006)
Timor-Leste	39.7 (2001)	41.1 (2009)
Tonga	16.2 (2001)	22.5 (2009)
Tuvalu	23.2 (1994)	26.3 (2010)
Vanuatu	13.0 (2006)	12.7 (2010)
Developed Member Economies						
Australia
Japan
New Zealand

a Figures refer to the same year indicated in the column for "Total" unless otherwise specified.

b Refers to percentage of low-income population to total population.

c Based on the new methodology recommended by the Tendulkar Committee.

d Based on half the median of Atoll expenditure per person per day (Rf. 22).

e Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member country.

f Data refer to percentage of population below the basic needs poverty line.

Sources: Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2012; National Minimum Development Indicators Database (SPC), accessed 4 July 2012; economy sources.

Table 2.1 **Income Poverty and Inequality**

	2 Proportion of Population Living below \$2 a Day at 2005 PPP\$ (percent)			3 Income or Consumption Share (percent)					
			Earliest Year			Latest Year			
	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Lowest Quintile	Highest Quintile	Ratio of Highest Quintile to Lowest Quintile ^a	Lowest Quintile	Highest Quintile	Ratio of Highest Quintile to Lowest Quintile ^a	
Developing Member Economies									
Central and West Asia									
Afghanistan	9.4	37.5	4.0 (2008)	
Armenia	38.9 (1996)	12.4 (2008)	5.5	50.6	9.2 (1996)	8.8	39.8	4.5 (2008)	
Azerbaijan	39.1 (1995)	2.8 (2008)	6.9	42.3	6.1 (1995)	8.0	42.1	5.3 (2008)	
Georgia	14.0 (1996)	32.2 (2008)	6.1	43.6	7.1 (1996)	5.3	47.2	8.9 (2008)	
Kazakhstan	17.6 (1993)	1.1 (2009)	7.5	40.4	5.4 (1993)	9.1	38.4	4.2 (2009)	
Kyrgyz Republic	30.1 (1993)	21.7 (2009)	2.5	57.0	22.7 (1993)	6.8	43.4	6.4 (2009)	
Pakistan	88.2 (1991)	60.2 (2008)	8.1	41.7	5.2 (1991)	9.6	40.0	4.2 (2008)	
Tajikistan	83.7 (1999)	27.7 (2009)	8.4	37.7	4.5 (1999)	8.3	39.4	4.7 (2009)	
Turkmenistan	85.7 (1993)	49.7 (1998)	6.9	42.5	6.2 (1993)	6.1	47.5	7.7 (1998)	
Uzbekistan	3.9	49.6	12.7 (1998)	7.1	44.2	6.2 (2003)	
East Asia									
China, People's Rep. of	84.6 (1990)	29.8 (2008)	8.0	40.7	5.1 (1990)	5.0	47.9	9.6 (2005)	
Hong Kong, China	5.3	50.8	9.6 (1996)	
Korea, Rep. of ^b	7.1	38.2	5.4 (2006)	6.5	37.3	5.7 (2011)	
Mongolia	7.4	40.8	5.5 (1995)	7.1	44.0	6.2 (2008)	
Taipei, China ^b	7.4	38.7	5.2 (1992)	6.5	40.2	6.2 (2010)	
South Asia									
Bangladesh	93.0 (1992)	76.5 (2010)	9.6	37.3	3.9 (1992)	8.9	41.4	4.7 (2010)	
Bhutan	49.5 (2003)	29.8 (2007)	5.4	53.0	9.9 (2003)	6.6	45.2	6.8 (2007)	
India	81.7 (1994)	68.7 (2010)	9.1	40.1	4.4 (1994)	8.6	42.4	4.9 (2005)	
Maldives	37.0 (1998)	12.2 (2004)	1.4	65.7	46.6 (1998)	6.5	44.2	6.8 (2004)	
Nepal	89.0 (1996)	57.3 (2010)	7.9	43.5	5.5 (1996)	8.3	41.5	5.0 (2010)	
Sri Lanka	49.5 (1991)	29.1 (2007)	8.7	41.5	4.8 (1991)	6.9	47.8	6.9 (2007)	
Southeast Asia									
Brunei Darussalam ^c	
Cambodia	75.2 (1994)	53.3 (2008)	8.0	46.8	5.8 (1994)	7.5	45.9	6.1 (2008)	
Indonesia	84.6 (1990)	46.1 (2010)	9.4	38.9	4.1 (1990)	8.3	42.8	5.1 (2005)	
Lao PDR	84.8 (1992)	66.0 (2008)	9.3	40.1	4.3 (1992)	7.6	44.8	5.9 (2008)	
Malaysia	11.2 (1992)	2.3 (2009)	4.7	53.1	11.4 (1992)	4.5	51.5	11.3 (2009)	
Myanmar	
Philippines	55.4 (1991)	41.5 (2009)	5.9	50.5	8.6 (1991)	6.0	49.7	8.3 (2009)	
Singapore	5.0	49.0	9.7 (1998)	
Thailand	37.1 (1990)	4.6 (2009)	5.9	52.2	8.8 (1990)	6.7	47.2	7.1 (2009)	
Viet Nam	85.7 (1993)	43.4 (2008)	7.8	44.0	5.6 (1993)	7.4	43.4	5.9 (2008)	
The Pacific									
Cook Islands	
Fiji	48.7 (2003)	22.9 (2009)	4.1	51.6	12.6 (2003)	6.2	49.6	8.0 (2009)	
Kiribati	7.8 (2006)	
Marshall Islands	
Micronesia, Fed. States of	44.7 ^d (2000)	5.4	48.0	8.9 (2005)	
Nauru	16.2 (2006)	
Palau	7.6 (2006)	
Papua New Guinea	57.4 (1996)	...	4.5	56.4	12.5 (1996)	
Samoa	9.2 (2002)	7.9 (2008)	
Solomon Islands	10.3 (2006)	
Timor-Leste	77.5 (2001)	72.8 (2007)	6.7	46.8	7.0 (2001)	9.0	41.3	4.6 (2007)	
Tonga	6.0 (2001)	
Tuvalu	8.9 (1994)	6.2 (2004)	
Vanuatu	10.4 (2006)	
Developed Member Economies									
Australia ^e	7.9	37.8	4.8 (1995)	7.4	40.2	5.4 (2010)	
Japan ^e	6.9	39.4	5.7 (1994)	6.6	39.6	6.0 (2006)	
New Zealand ^e	7.9	39.4	5.0 (1991)	7.7	40.9	5.3 (2009)	

a Derived from income/expenditure shares of the highest quintile and lowest quintile groups.

b Defined as disposable household income.

c Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

d Figure refers to urban population only.

e Defined as equivalized disposable household income in real terms.

Sources: PovcalNet Database Online (World Bank), accessed 22 May 2012; World Development Indicators Online (World Bank), accessed 29 April 2012; for Japan and New Zealand: OECD database on income distribution and poverty, via www.oecd.org/els/social/inequality > database; for Pacific countries: Asian Development Outlook 2012 (ADB); for Australia, the Federated States of Micronesia, the Republic of Korea, and Taipei, China: economy sources.

Table 2.2 **Nonincome Poverty and Inequality**

	4 Average Years of Total Schooling of Youth (15–24) and Adults (25 and Over) ^a								
	Youth								
	Total			Female			Male		
	1990	2000	2010	1990	2000	2010	1990	2000	2010
Developing Member Economies	6.3	7.5	8.8	6.0	7.0	8.5	6.7	7.9	9.1
Central and West Asia	4.8	5.5	7.3	3.8	4.4	6.2	5.6	6.6	8.3
Afghanistan	2.7	4.2	5.9	1.2	1.6	2.0	3.6	6.5	9.5
Armenia	11.5	9.3	9.3	11.6	9.5	11.1	11.3	9.2	7.5
Azerbaijan
Georgia
Kazakhstan	7.7	10.0	10.5	7.9	10.1	10.3	7.5	9.9	10.6
Kyrgyz Republic	8.1	7.6	7.5	8.2	7.7	7.7	8.1	7.4	7.3
Pakistan	4.1	5.1	7.2	2.8	3.8	6.3	5.2	6.2	8.0
Tajikistan	9.9	8.9	8.5	9.9	9.8	9.9	9.9	8.0	7.0
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
East Asia	7.8	9.6	11.0	7.8	9.5	11.0	7.7	9.8	11.1
China, People's Rep. of	7.6	9.5	10.9	7.6	9.3	10.9	7.5	9.6	11.0
Hong Kong, China	12.5	12.0	12.6	12.7	12.2	13.0	12.4	11.7	12.3
Korea, Rep. of	11.0	12.7	12.7	11.0	12.9	12.9	11.1	12.6	12.6
Mongolia	8.0	7.3	8.6	8.2	7.8	8.6	7.8	6.8	8.5
Taipei, China	11.1	11.9	13.0	11.7	12.0	13.1	10.6	11.8	12.9
South Asia	4.6	6.0	7.3	3.6	5.2	6.9	5.4	6.7	7.7
Bangladesh	3.7	6.6	8.3	3.3	6.3	9.3	4.1	6.8	7.4
Bhutan
India	4.6	5.8	7.1	3.5	4.9	6.5	5.5	6.6	7.7
Maldives	5.2	6.6	9.2	5.1	6.6	9.5	5.3	6.6	8.9
Nepal	3.3	4.0	5.6	2.4	3.8	6.3	4.2	4.2	4.9
Sri Lanka	10.6	12.2	12.4	10.7	12.4	12.6	10.5	12.0	12.2
Southeast Asia	6.4	7.1	8.6	6.1	7.0	8.6	6.6	7.2	8.5
Brunei Darussalam ^b	7.9	7.7	8.3	8.3	8.1	8.9	7.5	7.2	7.7
Cambodia	6.0	6.0	6.5	5.5	5.9	6.5	6.4	6.2	6.5
Indonesia	6.5	6.5	7.7	5.8	6.1	7.4	7.2	6.9	7.9
Lao PDR	4.5	4.9	5.9	3.9	4.4	5.7	5.1	5.3	6.1
Malaysia	10.2	11.4	12.0	10.3	11.6	12.2	10.2	11.2	11.7
Myanmar	3.5	4.9	6.8	3.5	4.8	6.6	3.5	4.9	6.9
Philippines	8.1	8.9	9.7	8.5	9.3	10.0	7.8	8.5	9.4
Singapore	8.4	10.6	10.8	8.1	10.8	11.1	8.6	10.4	10.6
Thailand	7.2	8.3	10.6	7.5	8.5	11.4	7.0	8.2	9.8
Viet Nam	4.5	6.6	8.8	4.5	6.5	8.9	4.5	6.7	8.7
The Pacific
Cook Islands
Fiji	10.6	10.2	11.4	10.6	10.4	11.9	10.5	10.0	10.9
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
Palau
Papua New Guinea	4.6	3.9	4.4	3.7	3.8	4.1	5.6	4.0	4.7
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Timor-Leste
Tonga	9.3	9.8	9.6	9.3	10.0	9.7	9.2	9.6	9.5
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Developed Member Economies	11.0	11.7	12.3	11.2	12.0	12.6	10.9	11.3	11.9
Australia	11.0	11.2	12.5	11.6	11.8	13.1	10.5	10.6	11.9
Japan	11.0	11.7	12.1	11.1	12.0	12.5	10.9	11.4	11.8
New Zealand	12.0	13.0	13.7	12.2	13.2	13.9	11.8	12.7	13.4

a Regional aggregates are estimated using data available for the respective year headings given in the table.

b Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

continued

Table 2.2 **Nonincome Poverty and Inequality** (continued)

	4 Average Years of Total Schooling of Youth (15–24) and Adults (25 and Over) ^a								
	Adults								
	Total			Female			Male		
	1990	2000	2010	1990	2000	2010	1990	2000	2010
Developing Member Economies	4.2	5.5	6.4	3.5	4.6	5.5	4.9	6.3	7.1
Central and West Asia	3.6	5.4	6.3	2.7	3.3	4.3	4.5	5.4	6.7
Afghanistan	1.5	2.1	3.1	0.4	0.8	1.2	2.5	3.4	5.0
Armenia	10.1	10.8	10.8	9.9	10.7	10.9	10.3	10.9	10.6
Azerbaijan	8.6
Georgia	...	12.1 (2005)	12.1
Kazakhstan	7.7	9.9	10.4	7.3	9.7	10.3	8.1	10.1	10.4
Kyrgyz Republic	8.1	9.2	9.3	7.7	9.0	9.2	8.6	9.4	9.3
Pakistan	2.3	3.3	4.9	1.0	1.9	3.4	3.5	4.6	6.3
Tajikistan	9.0	9.9	9.8	8.3	9.5	10.0	9.8	10.4	9.7
Turkmenistan	...	9.9	9.9
Uzbekistan	...	10.0 (2005)	10.0
East Asia	5.1	6.8	7.8	4.6	6.0	7.1	5.5	7.6	8.4
China, People's Rep. of	4.9	6.6	7.5	4.4	5.8	6.9	5.3	7.4	8.2
Hong Kong, China	8.5	8.7	10.0	7.7	8.3	9.7	9.4	9.2	10.3
Korea, Rep. of	8.9	10.6	11.6	7.5	9.6	11.0	10.4	11.6	12.3
Mongolia	7.6	8.1	8.3	7.3	8.0	8.5	7.9	8.2	8.2
Taipei, China	8.0	9.6	11.0	7.2	8.9	10.5	8.8	10.2	11.6
South Asia	3.0	3.7	4.5	1.8	2.5	3.5	4.2	4.8	5.6
Bangladesh	2.9	3.7	4.8	1.9	3.2	4.3	3.7	4.2	5.2
Bhutan	2.3
India	3.0	3.6	4.4	1.7	2.3	3.2	4.1	4.8	5.6
Maldives	4.0	3.1	4.4	3.7	2.8	4.1	4.4	3.3	4.7
Nepal	2.0	2.4	3.2	0.8	1.3	2.4	3.3	3.5	4.2
Sri Lanka	8.3	10.0	10.8	7.9	9.8	10.7	8.8	10.2	10.9
Southeast Asia	4.2	5.3	6.3	3.6	4.8	5.8	4.7	5.7	6.7
Brunei Darussalam ^b	7.5	8.2	8.6	6.6	8.0	8.5	8.3	8.4	8.6
Cambodia	5.3	5.7	5.8	4.9	5.3	5.4	5.8	6.1	6.2
Indonesia	3.3	4.8	5.8	2.5	4.0	5.1	4.1	5.5	6.6
Lao PDR	3.1	3.9	4.6	1.9	2.9	3.8	4.3	5.0	5.4
Malaysia	6.5	8.2	9.5	5.7	7.5	9.2	7.3	8.8	9.9
Myanmar	2.4	3.0	3.9	2.4	3.0	3.8	2.4	3.0	4.0
Philippines	7.1	8.0	8.7	7.0	8.0	8.8	7.2	7.9	8.5
Singapore	5.8	7.6	8.8	5.4	7.1	8.3	6.1	8.1	9.3
Thailand	4.6	5.4	6.6	4.1	5.0	6.2	5.0	5.8	6.9
Viet Nam	4.0	4.5	5.5	3.5	4.2	5.3	4.5	4.8	5.7
The Pacific
Cook Islands
Fiji	8.4	9.6	9.6	8.0	9.3	9.5	8.7	9.9	9.7
Kiribati	7.8
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	8.8	8.8
Nauru
Palau	...	12.1	12.1
Papua New Guinea	2.3	3.2	3.9	1.6	2.3	3.1	3.0	4.1	4.7
Samoa	...	10.3	10.3
Solomon Islands	...	4.5	4.5
Timor-Leste	...	2.8	2.8
Tonga	8.1	8.9	9.4	7.8	8.8	9.1	8.4	9.0	9.6
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	6.7
Developed Member Economies	10.1	10.9	11.6	9.7	10.6	11.4	10.6	11.3	11.8
Australia	11.7	11.9	12.0	11.7	12.0	12.4	11.8	11.7	11.7
Japan	9.9	10.7	11.5	9.4	10.3	11.2	10.4	11.2	11.8
New Zealand	11.7	12.0	12.5	11.4	11.8	12.4	12.1	12.2	12.6

a Regional aggregates are estimated using data available for the respective year headings or nearest year given in the table.

b Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Sources: Barro and Lee (2011); *Human Development Report 2011* (UNDP 2011); ADB staff estimates.

Table 2.2 **Nonincome Poverty and Inequality**

	5 Prevalence of Underweight Children under Five Years of Age (percent)				
	Total		Sex ^a		
	Earliest	Latest	Female	Male	Female-to-Male Ratio
Developing Member Economies ^b		26.6	27.0	25.8	1.0
Central and West Asia ^b		26.2	25.8	26.5	1.0
Afghanistan	44.9 (1997)	32.9 (2004)	33.0	32.7	1.0
Armenia	2.7 (1998)	4.7 (2010)	5.1	4.3	1.2
Azerbaijan	8.8 (1996)	8.4 (2006)	8.0	8.7	0.9
Georgia	2.7 (1999)	1.1 (2009)	1.0	1.3	0.8
Kazakhstan	6.2 (1995)	4.9 (2006)	4.3	5.4	0.8
Kyrgyz Republic	10.4 (1997)	2.7 (2006)	2.5	2.9	0.9
Pakistan	39.0 (1991)	30.9 (2011)	30.4	31.4	1.0
Tajikistan	14.9 (2005)	15.0 (2007)	14.0	15.9	0.9
Turkmenistan	10.5 (2000)	8.2 (2005)	7.1	9.3	0.8
Uzbekistan	13.3 (1996)	4.4 (2006)	4.3	4.6	0.9
East Asia ^b		3.4	3.3	3.5	0.9
China, People's Rep. of	12.6 (1990)	3.4 (2009)	3.3	3.5	0.9
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of
Mongolia	11.0 (1992)	5.3 (2005)	5.3	5.3	1.0
Taipei, China
South Asia ^b		42.6	43.3	42.4	1.0
Bangladesh	61.5 (1990)	41.3 (2007)	42.1	39.9	1.1
Bhutan	14.1 (1999)	12.7 (2010)	12.0	13.3	0.9
India	52.8 (1992)	43.5 (2006)	43.9	43.1	1.0
Maldives	32.5 (1994)	17.8 (2009)	17.2	18.4	0.9
Nepal	42.6 (1995)	29.1 (2011)	28.4	29.4	1.0
Sri Lanka	33.8 (1993)	21.6 (2009)	21.6	21.6	1.0
Southeast Asia ^b		18.4	17.8	18.3	1.0
Brunei Darussalam ^c
Cambodia	42.6 (1996)	28.3 (2010)	28.6	28.0	1.0
Indonesia	29.8 (1992)	17.9 (2010)	16.7	19.1	0.9
Lao PDR	39.8 (1993)	31.6 (2006)	30.0	32.0	0.9
Malaysia	22.1 (1990)	12.9 (2006)	12.7	13.2	1.0
Myanmar	32.5 (1990)	22.6 (2010)	22.1	23.0	1.0
Philippines	29.9 (1990)	20.7 (2008)	20.6	20.9	1.0
Singapore	3.3 (2000)
Thailand	16.3 (1993)	7.0 (2006)	7.1	6.9	1.0
Viet Nam	36.9 (1993)	20.2 (2008)	19.9	20.5	1.0
The Pacific	
Cook Islands
Fiji	6.9 (1993)
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru	...	4.8 (2007)	2.9	6.9	0.4
Palau
Papua New Guinea	...	18.1 (2005)	14.6	21.0	0.7
Samoa	1.7 (1999)
Solomon Islands	...	11.5 (2007)	13.4	10.4	1.3
Timor-Leste	40.6 (2002)	45.3 (2010)	43.7	46.8	0.9
Tonga
Tuvalu	...	1.6 (2007)	1.2	1.9	0.6
Vanuatu	10.6 (1996)	11.7 (2007)	9.0	14.1	0.6
Developed Member Economies	
Australia
Japan
New Zealand

continued

- a Figures refer to the latest year indicated in the column for "Total" unless otherwise specified.
b Regional aggregates are approximated weighted averages estimated using data available for the years 2004–2011. The data for reference population of 0–4 years of age are from World Population Prospects: The 2010 Revision.
c Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Table 2.2 **Nonincome Poverty and Inequality** (continued)

	5 Prevalence of Underweight Children under Five Years of Age (percent)					
	Residence			Wealth Quintile		
	Rural	Urban	Rural-to-Urban Ratio	Lowest	Highest	Lowest-to-Highest Ratio
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan
Armenia	7.4	2.8	2.6 (2010)	4.6	3.2	1.4 (2005)
Azerbaijan	11.5	3.7	3.1 (2006)	15.4	2.2	7.0 (2006)
Georgia	1.4	0.9	1.6 (2009)
Kazakhstan	4.8	2.9	1.7 (2006)	4.6	1.6	2.8 (2006)
Kyrgyz Republic	2.1	2.4	0.9 (2006)	1.6	2.0	0.8 (2006)
Pakistan	33.1	26.5	1.2 (2011)
Tajikistan	15.9	12.2	1.3 (2007)	16.6	13.0	1.3 (2007)
Turkmenistan	8.7	7.3	1.2 (2005)	7.8	2.4	3.2 (2005)
Uzbekistan	3.9	4.3	0.9 (2006)	4.5	3.1	1.5 (2006)
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	8.0	3.0	2.7 (2005)
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of
Mongolia	5.6	4.5	1.2 (2005)	7.3	2.6	2.8 (2005)
Taipei, China
South Asia						
Bangladesh	43.0	33.4	1.3 (2007)	50.5	26.0	1.9 (2007)
Bhutan	13.6	10.5	1.3 (2010)	16.1	7.3	2.2 (2010)
India	45.6	32.7	1.4 (2006)	56.6	19.7	2.9 (2006)
Maldives	19.9	10.9	1.8 (2009)	24.3	10.5	2.3 (2009)
Nepal	30.0	16.5	1.8 (2011)	40.3	10.0	4.0 (2011)
Sri Lanka	29.3	11.2	2.6 (2007)
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam ^a
Cambodia	30.0	18.8	1.6 (2010)	35.4	15.9	2.2 (2010)
Indonesia	22.7	10.4	2.2 (2010)
Lao PDR	33.8	20.0	1.7 (2006)	38.4	14.3	2.7 (2006)
Malaysia
Myanmar	24.2	18.7	1.3 (2010)	33.1	13.5	2.5 (2010)
Philippines
Singapore
Thailand	7.8	4.7	1.7 (2006)	10.7	3.3	3.3 (2006)
Viet Nam
The Pacific						
Cook Islands
Fiji
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru	6.7	2.5	2.7 (2007)
Palau
Papua New Guinea	19.8	12.4	1.6 (2005)
Samoa
Solomon Islands	12.2	8.2	1.5 (2007)	13.7	9.8	1.4 (2007)
Timor-Leste	47.4	34.9	1.4 (2010)	49.4	35.3	1.4 (2010)
Tonga
Tuvalu	0.7	0.0	...
Vanuatu
Developed Member Economies						
Australia
Japan
New Zealand

a Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Sources: Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2012; Global Health Observatory Data Repository (WHO), accessed 16 May 2012; Childinfo website (UNICEF) available at www.childinfo.org/index.html, accessed 3 May 2012; economy sources; ADB estimates based on data from World Population Prospects: The 2010 Revision (UN Population Division), accessed 16 June 2012.

Table 2.2 **Nonincome Poverty and Inequality**

	6 Under-Five Mortality Rate (per 1,000 live births)								
	Total			Sex ^a					
	1990	2000	2010	Female	Male	Male-to-Female Ratio	Female	Male	Male-to-Female Ratio
				1995–2000			2005–2010		
Developing Member Economies ^b	88	66	48	70	70	1.0	59	54	0.9
Central and West Asia ^b	120	101	89	124	122	1.0	102	106	1.0
Afghanistan	209	151	149	230	226	1.0	205	200	1.0
Armenia	55	33	20	40	46	1.2	28	30	1.1
Azerbaijan	93	67	46	77	89	1.2	47	48	1.0
Georgia	47	33	22	36	43	1.2	29	32	1.1
Kazakhstan	57	44	33	47	60	1.3	28	37	1.3
Kyrgyz Republic	72	52	38	53	64	1.2	40	51	1.3
Pakistan	124	101	87	110	114	1.0	92	96	1.0
Tajikistan	116	93	63	98	109	1.1	71	74	1.0
Turkmenistan	98	74	56	70	86	1.2	56	72	1.3
Uzbekistan	77	63	52	60	71	1.2	53	64	1.2
East Asia ^b	47	32	18	30	29	1.0	30	22	0.7
China, People's Rep. of	48	33	18	39	30	0.8	31	22	0.7
Hong Kong, China	5	5	1.0	3	3	1.0
Korea, Rep. of	8	6	5	8	9	1.1	4	5	1.3
Mongolia	107	61	32	68	78	1.1	41	48	1.2
Taipei, China
South Asia ^b	118	85	61	92	92	1.0	74	66	0.9
Bangladesh	143	86	48	102	104	1.0	61	62	1.0
Bhutan	139	89	56	101	114	1.1	58	69	1.2
India	115	86	63	102	91	0.9	77	68	0.9
Maldives	102	47	15	53	57	1.1	13	16	1.2
Nepal	141	84	50	104	97	0.9	50	47	0.9
Sri Lanka	32	23	17	21	25	1.2	13	15	1.2
Southeast Asia ^b	72	48	32	56	55	1.0	31	38	1.2
Brunei Darussalam ^c	12	9	7	8	10	1.3	5	7	1.4
Cambodia	121	103	51	111	121	1.1	81	88	1.1
Indonesia	85	54	35	48	60	1.3	32	41	1.3
Lao PDR	145	88	54	94	102	1.1	55	59	1.1
Malaysia	18	11	6	15	18	1.2	9	11	1.2
Myanmar	112	87	66	85	94	1.1	69	77	1.1
Philippines	59	40	29	34	46	1.4	25	35	1.4
Singapore	8	4	3	4	5	1.3	2	3	1.5
Thailand	32	18	13	19	24	1.3	12	15	1.3
Viet Nam	51	35	23	34	41	1.2	23	27	1.2
The Pacific ^b	89	69	53	89	88	1.0	63	65	1.0
Cook Islands	20	13	9
Fiji	30	23	17	27	30	1.1	21	24	1.1
Kiribati	87	65	49
Marshall Islands	51	37	26
Micronesia, Fed. States of	56	49	42	53	48	0.9	44	42	1.0
Nauru	40	40	40
Palau	33	25	19
Papua New Guinea	90	74	61	80	87	1.1	65	67	1.0
Samoa	27	23	20	34	39	1.1	26	28	1.1
Solomon Islands	45	35	27	89	90	1.0	52	57	1.1
Timor-Leste	169	104	55	143	147	1.0	91	93	1.0
Tonga	25	20	16	33	27	0.8	27	26	1.0
Tuvalu	57	44	33
Vanuatu	39	23	14	49	58	1.2	30	39	1.3
Developed Member Economies ^b	7	5	4	6	6	1.0	3	5	1.3
Australia	9	6	5	6	7	1.2	5	6	1.2
Japan	6	5	3	5	6	1.2	3	4	1.3
New Zealand	11	7	6	7	9	1.3	6	7	1.2

continued

a Data refer to estimates presented for 5-year periods.

b Regional aggregates are approximated weighted averages estimated using data for the respective year headings.

The data for population of annual number of live births are from World Population Prospects: The 2010 Revision and *The State of the World's Children Report, 2012* (UNICEF).

c Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Table 2.2 **Nonincome Poverty and Inequality** (continued)

	6 Under-Five Mortality Rate (per 1,000 live births)					
	Residence			Wealth Quintile		
	Rural	Urban	Rural-to-Urban Ratio	Lowest	Highest	Lowest-to-Highest Ratio
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan
Armenia	41	26	1.6 (2005)	51	23	2.2 (2005)
Azerbaijan	63	51	1.2 (2006)	63	38	1.7 (2006)
Georgia	45	24	1.9 (2005)
Kazakhstan	43	30	1.4 (2006)
Kyrgyz Republic	50	35	1.4 (2006)
Pakistan	100	78	1.3 (2006)	120	59	2.0 (2006)
Tajikistan	83	70	1.2 (2005)
Turkmenistan	100	73	1.4 (2000)	106	70	1.5 (2000)
Uzbekistan	59	51	1.2 (2006)	72	42	1.7 (2006)
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of
Mongolia	69	31	2.2 (2005)
Taipei, China
South Asia						
Bangladesh	76	62	1.2 (2007)	85	43	2.0 (2007)
Bhutan
India	93	60	1.6 (2005)	116	39	3.0 (2005)
Maldives	28	23	1.2 (2009)	28	21	1.3 (2009)
Nepal	83	47	1.8 (2006)	97	47	2.1 (2006)
Sri Lanka
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam ^a
Cambodia	75	29	2.6 (2010)	91	30	3.0 (2010)
Indonesia	60	38	1.6 (2007)	77	31	2.5 (2007)
Lao PDR
Malaysia
Myanmar
Philippines	46	28	1.6 (2008)	59	17	3.5 (2008)
Singapore
Thailand
Viet Nam	36	16	2.3 (2002)	53	16	3.3 (2002)
The Pacific						
Cook Islands
Fiji
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa	17	3	5.7 (2009)	23	7	3.3 (2009)
Solomon Islands
Timor-Leste	86	59	1.5 (2010)	87	52	1.7 (2009)
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	32	27	1.2 (2007)
Developed Member Economies						
Australia
Japan
New Zealand

a Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Sources: Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2012; Global Health Observatory Data Repository (WHO), accessed 22 June 2011 and 22 May 2012; ADB estimates based on data from World Population Prospects: The 2010 Revision (UN Population Division), accessed 16 June 2012; *The State of the World's Children Report, 2012* (UNICEF).

Table 2.3 **Economic Growth and Employment**

	7 Annualized Growth Rate of GDP per Capita at PPP (constant 2005 PPP\$)			
	1990–1995	1995–2000	2000–2005	2005–2010
Developing Member Economies	5.6	4.3	6.1	7.3
Central and West Asia	-5.5	1.4	5.4	4.5
Afghanistan	9.6 (2002-2005)	7.7
Armenia	-10.3	6.1	12.3	3.6
Azerbaijan	-17.2	6.1	12.5	14.7
Georgia	-22.1	7.3	7.6	4.7
Kazakhstan	-8.7	3.7	10.0	4.6
Kyrgyz Republic	-13.4	4.1	2.7	3.1
Pakistan	1.9	0.7	3.1	2.4
Tajikistan	-19.0	-1.3	9.1	5.3
Turkmenistan	-11.4	2.6	15.4	9.3
Uzbekistan	-6.1	2.2	4.2	6.6
East Asia	9.4	6.4	7.9	9.3
China, People's Rep. of	10.9	7.6	9.1	10.6
Hong Kong, China	3.6	1.0	3.7	3.2
Korea, Rep. of	6.7	3.5	4.0	3.3
Mongolia	-3.7	1.8	5.3	4.8
Taipei, China
South Asia	3.0	4.1	4.9	6.4
Bangladesh	2.1	3.2	3.7	5.0
Bhutan	5.5	4.3	5.2	6.6
India	3.0	4.2	5.1	6.6
Maldives	...	6.2	3.9	6.9
Nepal	2.6	2.3	1.1	2.5
Sri Lanka	4.1	4.0	3.4	5.3
Southeast Asia	5.6	0.8	3.6	3.9
Brunei Darussalam ^a	0.3	-1.1	-0.0	-1.2
Cambodia	4.7 (1993-1995)	5.0	7.8	5.5
Indonesia	6.2	-0.7	3.4	4.6
Lao PDR	3.4	4.0	4.6	6.4
Malaysia	6.7	2.3	2.5	2.7
Myanmar
Philippines	-0.2	1.3	2.5	3.1
Singapore	5.4	3.0	3.6	2.8
Thailand	7.7	-0.7	4.0	2.8
Viet Nam	6.3	5.4	6.2	5.9
The Pacific	4.1	-1.4	-0.6	2.3
Cook Islands
Fiji	1.3	1.2	2.2	-0.8
Kiribati	-0.5	4.4	-0.1	-1.1
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of	3.0	-0.1	0.1	-0.4
Nauru
Palau	-3.3 (1991-1995)	-0.3	0.6	-0.6
Papua New Guinea	5.9	-2.8	-0.9	3.5
Samoa	0.2	2.9	4.6	0.6
Solomon Islands	5.0	-5.4	-1.7	3.2
Timor-Leste	...	12.7 (1999-2000)	-3.5	5.7
Tonga	3.6	1.5	1.4	-0.4
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	0.5	1.6	-1.6	2.7
Developed Member Economies	1.1	0.9	1.2	0.4
Australia	1.3	3.2	2.0	1.0
Japan	1.1	0.6	1.1	0.3
New Zealand	1.8	1.7	2.6	-0.4

a Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Source: ADB estimates based on data from World Development Indicators Online (World Bank), accessed 19 July 2012.

Table 2.3 **Economic Growth and Employment**

	8 Growth Rate of Average Per Capita Income or Consumption (in 2005 PPP\$, annualized) ^a					
	Earliest Year			Latest Year		
	Total	Lowest Quintile	Highest Quintile	Total	Lowest Quintile	Highest Quintile
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan
Armenia	-6.5	-0.1	-9.2 (1996-2001)	6.9	9.0	5.5 (2001-2008)
Azerbaijan	4.2	5.4	5.0 (1995-2001)	8.3	9.3	7.6 (2001-2008)
Georgia	-13.2	-17.0	-11.5 (1996-2000)	1.9	2.0	1.9 (2000-2008)
Kazakhstan	-1.1	-4.9	0.8 (1993-2001)	6.5	12.7	3.9 (2001-2009)
Kyrgyz Republic	-19.5	1.4	-24.9 (1993-1998)	6.1	5.6	6.1 (1998-2009)
Pakistan	3.2	4.6	2.9 (1991-2002)	3.1	3.5	3.0 (2002-2008)
Tajikistan	10.9	9.2	12.9 (1999-2004)	5.7	7.1	4.6 (2004-2009)
Turkmenistan	15.9	13.6	18.1 (1993-1998)
Uzbekistan
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of (Rural)	3.9	2.3	4.9 (1990-1999)	6.1	4.4	6.9 (1999-2008)
China, People's Rep. of (Urban)	5.9	3.9	7.2 (1990-1999)	7.6	6.5	8.4 (1999-2008)
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of
Mongolia
Taipei, China
South Asia						
Bangladesh	2.7	1.4	4.2 (1992-2000)	1.8	2.0	1.5 (2000-2010)
Bhutan	4.4	9.7	0.4 (2003-2007)
India (Rural)	1.2	1.0	1.6 (1994-2005)	1.9	2.0	1.7 (2005-2010)
India (Urban)	1.2	0.2	1.7 (1994-2005)	3.1	2.3	3.8 (2005-2010)
Maldives	-2.5	23.0	-9.1 (1998-2004)
Nepal	4.7	2.3	6.7 (1996-2003)	3.4	6.8	0.4 (2003-2010)
Sri Lanka	2.4	0.2	3.7 (1991-2002)	3.9	4.4	3.6 (2002-2007)
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam ^b
Cambodia	1.7	0.2	2.2 (1994-2004)	3.8	6.1	2.0 (2004-2008)
Indonesia (Rural)	0.2	0.6	-0.2 (1990-1999)	5.9	4.0	7.5 (1999-2011)
Indonesia (Urban)	1.5	1.7	1.7 (1990-1999)	4.8	2.8	5.8 (1999-2011)
Lao PDR	1.7	0.9	2.0 (1992-2002)	3.6	1.6	4.9 (2002-2008)
Malaysia	5.2	3.9	5.7 (1992-1997)	13.4	6.4	16.2 (2004-2009)
Myanmar
Philippines	2.7	1.7	3.1 (1991-2000)	0.1	1.2	-0.5 (2000-2009)
Singapore
Thailand	3.4	3.7	2.9 (1990-1999)	2.9	3.8	2.3 (1999-2009)
Viet Nam	4.3	3.8	4.7 (1993-2002)	5.9	5.9	5.1 (2002-2008)
The Pacific						
Cook Islands
Fiji	7.3	14.2	6.6 (2003-2009)
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Timor-Leste	2.0	6.8	-0.1 (2001-2007)
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Developed Member Economies						
Australia
Japan
New Zealand

a Derived from mean per capita income or consumption of the lowest 20% and highest 20% groups based on household surveys.

b Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Source: ADB estimates based on data from PovcalNet Database Online (World Bank), accessed 22 May 2012.

Table 2.3 **Economic Growth and Employment**

	9 Employment-to-Population Ratio					
	Youth (Aged 15–24 Years)					
	1991			2011		
	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male
Developing Member Economies	58.0	51.3	64.4	44.5	36.2	52.1
Central and West Asia	37.2	17.4	56.2	38.6	20.0	56.5
Afghanistan	32.3	10.6	52.3	30.9	10.0	50.3
Armenia	26.4	18.3	34.3	18.5	14.0	22.9
Azerbaijan	37.6	38.0	37.2	31.3	31.0	31.6
Georgia	22.5	18.2	26.6	21.8	15.3	28.2
Kazakhstan	45.3	40.8	49.7	44.4	41.1	47.6
Kyrgyz Republic	41.0	37.3	44.5	40.5	31.0	49.9
Pakistan	38.1	10.5	64.6	40.9	17.7	63.4
Tajikistan	38.3	32.9	43.7	38.3	30.7	45.7
Turkmenistan	34.0	25.0	42.8	35.7	25.5	45.8
Uzbekistan	33.4	25.1	41.6	35.8	26.3	45.1
East Asia	69.8	72.4	67.4	54.8	57.1	52.8
China, People's Rep. of	71.5	74.1	69.1	56.2	58.5	54.2
Hong Kong, China	54.3	53.5	55.1	32.3	33.1	31.6
Korea, Rep. of	35.9	39.6	32.4	23.5	27.1	20.2
Mongolia	34.2	29.9	38.6	32.2	28.0	36.3
Taipei, China	41.3	46.9	36.0	25.7	30.3	21.5
South Asia	48.4	31.6	64.0	36.7	21.6	50.6
Bangladesh	63.7	54.8	72.2	51.9	44.5	59.1
Bhutan	40.8	34.1	47.4	42.8	44.2	41.4
India	46.2	27.9	63.1	33.9	17.2	49.1
Maldives	33.2	13.5	52.7	42.8	34.4	50.9
Nepal	78.8	76.5	81.0	73.1	72.8	73.3
Sri Lanka	27.6	14.9	40.0	31.3	20.1	42.2
Southeast Asia	53.8	47.6	60.0	45.2	38.5	51.7
Brunei Darussalam ^a	38.3	30.3	45.8	40.6	36.6	44.3
Cambodia	70.6	73.3	67.7	69.6	70.1	69.1
Indonesia	46.0	36.8	55.0	39.6	30.5	48.5
Lao PDR	72.1	79.8	64.5	61.4	66.7	56.2
Malaysia	46.2	37.9	54.4	35.1	28.6	41.4
Myanmar	51.6	51.1	52.1	52.5	51.9	53.1
Philippines	42.3	30.9	53.2	39.6	30.0	48.9
Singapore	55.9	54.9	56.8	35.0	32.9	36.9
Thailand	69.5	67.0	71.9	46.3	38.3	54.0
Viet Nam	73.2	70.8	75.6	58.2	55.8	60.5
The Pacific	53.0	49.9	55.8	50.9	48.5	53.2
Cook Islands
Fiji	41.4	23.5	58.7	39.4	26.4	51.6
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
Palau
Papua New Guinea	56.7	57.3	56.2	54.6	54.9	54.2
Samoa
Solomon Islands	44.1	37.1	50.6	45.2	37.8	51.9
Timor-Leste	46.3	37.1	54.6	40.5	32.7	48.0
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Developed Member Economies	45.1	45.3	44.9	43.8	44.6	43.2
Australia	57.5	55.7	59.2	61.1	60.3	61.8
Japan	43.0	43.5	42.5	39.1	40.3	38.0
New Zealand	54.3	52.5	56.1	50.3	49.3	51.3

a Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

continued

Table 2.3 **Economic Growth and Employment** (continued)

	9 Employment-to-Population Ratio					
	Population Aged 15 Years and Over					
	Earliest Year			Latest Year		
	Total	Female ^a	Male ^a	Total	Female ^a	Male ^a
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan
Armenia	41.9 (2001)	34.7	50.2	45.0 (2008)	36.7	55.1
Azerbaijan	45.4 (2002)	42.6	48.4	60.1 (2008)	57.5	62.8
Georgia	56.9 (1999)	51.1	63.8	44.2 (2008)	38.4	50.8
Kazakhstan	63.6 (2002)	57.6	70.2	66.1 (2009)	61.4 (2008)	72.0 (2008)
Kyrgyz Republic	56.3 (2002)	47.4	65.7	60.1 (2006)	49.3	71.3
Pakistan	40.5 (1990)	9.8	68.9	42.8 (2007)	17.5	67.0
Tajikistan	50.9 (2003)	43.1	59.0	58.4 (2004)	47.8	69.1
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of
Hong Kong, China	61.5 (1990)	45.5	77.0	57.6 (2009)	51.2	65.4
Korea, Rep. of	58.7 (1990)	46.4	71.9	58.7 (2010)	47.8	70.1
Mongolia	55.9 (1998)	51.8	60.3	56.0 (2005)	54.3	57.7
Taipei, China	58.3 (1990)	43.8	72.7	54.5 (2009)	44.7	69.2
South Asia						
Bangladesh	68.2 (1991)	57.1	78.0	56.0 (2005)	27.1	83.9
Bhutan	69.8 (2003)	66.0	74.0	65.8 (2009)	61.1	70.9
India	58.3 (1994)	34.6	81.0	52.9 (2010)	27.7	77.1
Maldives	51.3 (1995)	27.9	74.2	54.9 (2006)	40.3	69.5
Nepal	67.2 (1996)	63.7	71.0	91.6 (2003)	93.0	90.0
Sri Lanka	38.6 (1990)	25.9 (1993)	59.3 (1993)	45.9 (2009)	30.0	63.8
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam ^b	62.6 (1991)	43.3	79.3	63.1 (2001)	52.4	73.6
Cambodia	76.4 (2000)	74.1	79.1	60.6 (2008)	59.8	61.5
Indonesia	55.7 (1992)	42.9	68.7	61.9 (2009)	46.7	77.4
Lao PDR	68.6 (1995)	69.5	67.7	65.7 (2005)	64.8	66.6
Malaysia	63.5 (1990)	45.2	81.9	60.6 (2009)	44.6	76.1
Myanmar
Philippines	59.3 (1990)	42.8	75.9	59.2 (2009)	45.6	73.0
Singapore	63.6 (1990)	49.5	77.5	61.6 (2009)	51.6	72.2
Thailand	76.9 (1990)	71.5	82.4	72.7 (2009)	64.9	81.0
Viet Nam	74.3 (1996)	71.3	77.7	69.9 (2004)	66.0	74.1
The Pacific						
Cook Islands	60.0 (2001)	52.3	67.5
Fiji	56.0 (1996)	36.3	75.4	50.3 (2007)	32.8	67.4
Kiribati	80.1 (2000)	74.8	84.7
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa	48.2 (2001)	30.3	64.7
Solomon Islands	23.1 (1999)	14.6	31.1
Timor-Leste	52.4 (2001)	32.1	73.0
Tonga	50.6 (1996)	37.6	63.8
Tuvalu	53.3 (2002)	42.8	64.8
Vanuatu	67.6 (2009)	58.3	77.1
Developed Member Economies						
Australia	59.1 (1990)	48.4	70.0	62.1 (2010)	55.6	68.8
Japan	61.9 (1990)	49.0	75.6	57.5 (2010)	47.5	68.0
New Zealand	59.1 (1990)	50.4	68.1	63.6 (2010)	57.8	69.7

a Figures refer to the same year indicated in the "Total" column.

b Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Sources: Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2012; Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 7th ed. (ILO), accessed 29 June 2012.

Table 2.3 **Economic Growth and Employment**

	10 GDP per Person Engaged at Constant 1990 PPP\$				
	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010
Developing Member Economies					
Central and West Asia					
Afghanistan
Armenia	11470	7327	10869	22872	27029
Azerbaijan	9018	3869	5309	9620	18939
Georgia	15680	6503	8433	12661	17433
Kazakhstan	18873	11462	13694	19149	21676
Kyrgyz Republic	9031	4878	5948	6096	6760
Pakistan	5929	7114	7496	8353	8525
Tajikistan	8192	3311	3277	4299	5813
Turkmenistan	9011	4814	5488	6161	8654
Uzbekistan	11015	8426	9574	10945	14419
East Asia					
China, People's Rep. of	2562	3941	4660	7710	12593
Hong Kong, China	36795	44271	45741	53841	61382
Korea, Rep. of	20633	26745	33234	38324	44278
Mongolia
Taipei, China	24203	31418	38662	44042	51059
South Asia					
Bangladesh	2118	2441	2961	3245	3917
Bhutan
India	3531	4111	5063	6283	8401
Maldives
Nepal
Sri Lanka	8339	10247	11121	12137	15622
Southeast Asia					
Brunei Darussalam ^a
Cambodia	2296	2328	3103	3343	3988
Indonesia	5945	8205	7588	9140	10587
Lao PDR
Malaysia	13434	18473	19253	22394	25058
Myanmar
Philippines	6439	6201	6929	7279	8354
Singapore	28191	35216	39017	42453	44524
Thailand	8537	12549	12638	14385	15743
Viet Nam	2346	3094	3803	4801	5898
The Pacific					
Cook Islands
Fiji
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Timor-Leste
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Developed Member Economies					
Australia	37514	41259	45874	48482	50153
Japan	36173	37356	40003	43571	44804
New Zealand	30226	32089	34288	35863	35787

a Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Source: Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 7th ed. (ILO), accessed 29 June 2012.

Table 2.3 **Economic Growth and Employment**

	11 Number of Own-Account and Contributing Family Workers (per 100 wage and salaried workers)					
	Total		Female		Male	
	1990	2008	1990	2008	1990	2008
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan
Armenia	74.2 (1997)	61.8	...	67.6	...	57.3
Azerbaijan	190.5 (2003)	128.9	206.7 (2003)	168.1	177.1 (2003)	99.3
Georgia	124.9 (1998)	176.7	126.8 (1998)	185.9	123.1 (1998)	169.2
Kazakhstan	69.4 (2001)	48.3	82.1 (2001)	52.3	58.8 (2001)	44.6
Kyrgyz Republic	120.5 (2002)	93.0 (2006)	115.0 (2002)	90.9 (2006)	125.0 (2002)	94.5 (2006)
Pakistan	190.2 (1995)	175.4	302.3 (1995)	351.5	179.3 (1995)	150.1
Tajikistan	...	87.5 (2003)	...	110.1 (2003)	...	73.6 (2003)
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of
Hong Kong, China	6.2 (1993)	8.3 (2009)	3.8 (1993)	4.9	7.7 (1993)	11.7
Korea, Rep. of	65.2	33.6 (2009)	76.0	38.7	58.4	34.1
Mongolia	137.1 (2000)	140.1 (2009)	126.1 (2000)	121.8 (2009)	147.5 (2000)	160.0 (2009)
Taipei, China	40.9	24.3 (2009)
South Asia						
Bangladesh	558.3 (1996)	612.8 (2005)	977.5 (1996)	740.4 (2005)	405.8 (1996)	580.8 (2005)
Bhutan	211.2 (2006)	290.7 (2009)	376.8 (2006)	599.0 (2009)	145.3 (2006)	177.2 (2009)
India	...	525.6 (2005)	...	761.1 (2005)	...	458.5 (2005)
Maldives	99.5	53.7 (2006)	152.3	104.5 (2006)	89.6	32.0 (2006)
Nepal	...	290.6 (2001)	...	654.7 (2001)	...	185.1 (2001)
Sri Lanka	77.9	69.1 (2009)	51.4 (1993)	80.7 (2009)	68.8 (1993)	63.6 (2009)
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam ^a	4.3 (1991)	...	3.6 (1991)	...	4.7 (1991)	...
Cambodia	555.0 (2000)	478.0	727.9 (2000)	611.3	434.2 (2000)	383.4
Indonesia	177.2 (1997)	191.0 (2009)	237.6 (2001)	211.0 (2009)	168.9 (2001)	179.8 (2009)
Lao PDR	932.9 (1995)	750.7 (2005)	1766.5 (1995)	1148.7 (2005)	598.3 (1995)	543.5 (2005)
Malaysia	43.5 (1991)	28.8 (2009)	35.1 (1991)	25.0	47.8 (1991)	32.0
Myanmar
Philippines	90.1 (1998)	83.0	97.2 (1998)	89.7	85.9 (1998)	79.0
Singapore	9.4 (1991)	11.5 (2009)	6.0 (1991)	8.0 (2009)	11.9 (1991)	14.5 (2009)
Thailand	247.2	117.8 (2009)	289.0	126.9 (2009)	217.0	110.5 (2009)
Viet Nam	489.4 (1996)	289.1 (2004)	633.4 (1996)	371.3 (2004)	389.1 (1996)	233.4 (2004)
The Pacific						
Cook Islands
Fiji	...	66.6 (2005)	...	69.5 (2005)	...	65.4 (2005)
Kiribati
Marshall Islands	37.5 (1999)	...	42.9 (1999)	...	35.3 (1999)	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa	...	95.6 (2001)	...	60.4 (2001)	...	116.0 (2001)
Solomon Islands
Timor-Leste
Tonga	134.9 (1996)	123.0 (2003)	146.9 (1996)	144.9 (2003)	128.3 (1996)	109.8 (2003)
Tuvalu	...	2.0 (2002)	...	1.7 (2002)	...	2.2 (2002)
Vanuatu	...	264.4 (2009)	...	328.4 (2009)	...	226.8 (2009)
Developed Member Economies						
Australia	12.2	10.2 (2009)	9.7	7.6 (2009)	14.1	12.6 (2009)
Japan	24.9	11.6 (2009)	36.1	13.1	18.0	11.4
New Zealand	24.6	13.1 (2009)	15.4	10.7	32.8	18.4

a Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Source: Key Indicators of the Labor Market, 7th ed. (ILO), accessed 29 June 2012.

Table 2.4 **Key Infrastructure Endowments**

	12 Electricity Consumption (per capita kWh) ^a			13 Paved Roads (percentage of total roads) ^a		14 Number of Cellular Phone Subscriptions (per 100 people) ^a		15 Depositors With Commercial Banks (per 1,000 adults) ^{a, b}	
	1990	2000	2009	1990	2009	2000	2011	2004	2010
	Developing Member Economies	479	773	1530	51.2	51.6	4.9	77.0	742.0
Central and West Asia	1433	929	1020	63.1	71.2	0.5	72.5
Afghanistan	13.3	29.3 (2006)	0.1 (2002)	54.3	33.5 (2008)	99.7
Armenia	2718	1295	1550	99.2	93.6	0.6	103.6	212.3	588.7
Azerbaijan	2584	2040	1620	93.9 (1994)	50.6 (2006)	5.2	108.7	18.1 (2005)	41.2
Georgia	3039	1453	1585	93.8	94.1 (2007)	4.1	102.3	242.1	696.6
Kazakhstan	5905	3170	4448	55.1	88.5	1.3	142.5	722.7	873.8
Kyrgyz Republic	2331	1911	1386	90.0	91.1 (2001)	0.2	104.8	143.7 (2009)	181.4
Pakistan	267	357	449	54.0	65.4 (2006)	0.2	61.6	118.7	249.5
Tajikistan	3346	2177	1985	71.6	82.7 (1996)	0.0	90.6
Turkmenistan	2293	1698	2446	73.5	81.2 (2000)	0.2	68.8
Uzbekistan	2383	1780	1636	79.0	87.3 (2000)	0.2	91.6	518.7	957.1
East Asia	598	1191	2868	70.3	54.0	10.1	76.0
China, People's Rep. of	511	993	2631	72.1	53.5 (2008)	6.7	73.2
Hong Kong, China	4178	5447	5925	100.0	100.0	80.3	209.6
Korea, Rep. of	2373	5907	8980	71.5	79.3	58.3	108.5	4279.3	4522.2
Mongolia	1540	1070	1411	10.2	3.5 (2002)	6.4	105.1	297.3	1339.1 (2009)
Taipei, China	84.6	95.5 (2001)	81.5	124.1	5390.2 (2009)	5187.8
South Asia	239	349	525	43.8	48.1	0.4	70.0
Bangladesh	49	103	252	7.2 (1991)	9.5 (2003)	0.2	56.5	309.5	417.7
Bhutan	77.1	62.0 (2003)	0.4 (2003)	65.6
India	268	387	571	47.3 (1991)	49.5 (2008)	0.3	72.0	636.8	747.3 (2008)
Maldives	100.0 (2005)	2.8	165.7	704.0	1200.1
Nepal	35	58	91	37.5	53.9 (2008)	0.0	43.8
Sri Lanka	151	295	408	32.0 (1991)	81.0 (2003)	2.3	87.0	1651.8 (2009)	1891.7
Southeast Asia	321	651	976	37.5	47.2	4.2	98.8
Brunei Darussalam ^c	4438	7687	8662	31.4	81.1 (2008)	29.0	109.2
Cambodia	11 (1995)	29	131	7.5	6.3 (2004)	1.0	69.9	72.9 (2008)	108.0
Indonesia	160	387	590	45.1	56.9	1.7	97.7	484.3 (2009)	504.7
Lao PDR	24.0	13.7	0.2	87.2	...	44.3
Malaysia	1171	2726	3614	70.0	81.3 (2004)	21.9	127.0	1792.1	1619.9
Myanmar	46	78	104	10.9	11.9 (2005)	0.0	2.6
Philippines	363	504	593	16.6 (1994)	9.9 (2003)	8.3	92.0	370.0 (2005)	487.8
Singapore	4983	7575	7949	97.1	100.0	70.1	149.5	2043.7	2134.3
Thailand	703	1443	2045	55.3	98.5 (2000)	4.8	113.2	984.0 (2006)	1119.9
Viet Nam	98	295	918	23.5	47.6 (2007)	1.0	143.4
The Pacific	10.8	11.3	1.1	44.1
Cook Islands	3.1	38.5 (2010)
Fiji	44.5	49.2 (2000)	6.8	83.7
Kiribati	0.4	13.6
Marshall Islands	0.9	7.0 (2010)
Micronesia, Fed. States of	15.9	17.5 (2000)	0.1 (2002)	24.8 (2010)
Nauru	71.9	79.4 (1996)	12.0	65.0
Palau	12.6 (2002)	74.9
Papua New Guinea	3.2	3.5 (2000)	0.2	34.2	156.7 (2005)	178.5 (2009)
Samoa	42.0 (1995)	14.2 (2001)	1.4	91.4 (2010)
Solomon Islands	2.1	2.4 (2000)	0.3	49.8
Timor-Leste	2.2 (2003)	53.2
Tonga	27.0 (1995)	27.0 (2000)	0.2	52.6
Tuvalu	5.2 (2004)	21.6
Vanuatu	21.6	23.9 (2000)	0.2	119.0 (2010)
Developed Member Economies	6780	8294	8332	54.9	65.4	51.7	103.7
Australia	8527	10194	11113	35.0	43.5	44.7	108.3
Japan	6486	7974	7819	69.2	80.1	53.1	102.7	7984.9	7169.0
New Zealand	8664	9384	9346	57.0	66.2	40.0	109.2

kWh = Kilowatt-hour

a Regional aggregates are estimated using data available for the respective year headings or nearest years given in the table.

b For Indonesia; Sri Lanka; and Taipei, China: adult population were taken from WPP: The 2010 Revision (aged 15 years and over).

c Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Sources: World Development Indicators Online (World Bank), accessed 24 April 2012; World Road Statistics (International Road Federation 2012); World Telecommunication/ICT Indicators Database (ITU), accessed 10 July 2012; Financial Access Survey Online Database (IMF), accessed 15 June 2012; *Financial Access Report 2009 and 2010* (World Bank 2010).

Table 2.5 **Access and Inputs to Education and Health**

	16 School Life Expectancy (years) ^a					
	Total		Female ^b		Male ^b	
	1999	2010	1999	2010	1999	2010
Developing Member Economies	9.0	11.0	8.4	10.8	9.5	11.1
Central and West Asia	6.7	8.7	5.7	7.8	7.7	9.6
Afghanistan	5.9 (2003)	8.1 (2009)	4.1	6.1	7.6	10.1
Armenia	10.9 (2001)	12.2	11.4	12.6	10.5	11.7
Azerbaijan	11.0	11.7	10.8	11.5	11.2	11.8
Georgia	11.4	12.8 (2008)	11.4	12.8	11.4	12.7
Kazakhstan	12.1	15.3 (2011)	12.3	15.6	11.9	14.9
Kyrgyz Republic	11.4	12.6 (2009)	11.6	12.9	11.3	12.3
Pakistan	5.8 (2003)	7.3 (2009)	4.9	6.5	6.7	8.0
Tajikistan	9.7	11.5	8.8	10.6	10.5	12.5
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	10.6	11.6 (2011)	10.5	11.4	10.7	11.8
East Asia	10.1	11.9	9.9	12.1	10.3	11.7
China, People's Rep. of	10.5 (2003)	11.7	10.5	12.0	10.6	11.5
Hong Kong, China	13.4 (2003)	15.5	13.2	15.8	13.6	15.3
Korea, Rep. of	15.8	17.2	14.9	16.2	16.6	18.0
Mongolia	8.9	14.3	9.7	15.0	8.0	13.6
Taipei, China
South Asia	8.1	10.6	7.1	10.3	9.0	10.8
Bangladesh
Bhutan	7.2	12.4 (2011)	6.5	12.4	8.0	12.3
India	8.3 (2000)	10.4 (2007)	7.2	9.8	9.3	10.9
Maldives	11.6	12.5 (2004)	11.7	12.6	11.6	12.4
Nepal	8.8 (2000)	8.9 (2002)	7.5	7.9	10.0	9.9
Sri Lanka
Southeast Asia	10.3	12.2	10.1	12.3	10.5	12.1
Brunei Darussalam ^c	13.7	15.0	14.0	15.4	13.5	14.6
Cambodia	7.5 (2000)	10.5 (2008)	6.7	9.9	8.3	11.2
Indonesia	10.3 (2000)	12.9	10.1	12.9	10.5	12.9
Lao PDR	8.2	10.1	7.2	9.4	9.2	10.7
Malaysia	11.6	12.6 (2005)	11.8	13.0	11.5	12.2
Myanmar	8.3 (2004)	9.4 (2007)
Philippines	11.4	11.7 (2008)	11.7	12.0	11.1	11.4
Singapore
Thailand	11.5 (2004)	12.3 (2009)	11.5	12.7	11.4	11.9
Viet Nam	10.3	11.9	9.8	11.9	10.8	11.8
The Pacific	7.4	...	7.1	...	7.8	...
Cook Islands	10.6	12.5 (2011)	10.6	13.1	10.5	11.9
Fiji	13.4 (2003)	13.9 (2004)	13.7	14.1	13.1	13.7
Kiribati	10.0	12.0 (2008)	10.4	12.4	9.6	11.6
Marshall Islands	12.4 (2002)	11.7 (2003)	12.3	12.1	12.4	11.4
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru	8.8 (2000)	9.3 (2008)	9.9	9.9	7.8	8.9
Palau	13.7 (2000)	...	14.6	...	12.9	...
Papua New Guinea	5.9 (1998)	...	5.3	...	6.4	...
Samoa	12.3	13.0 (2003)	12.5	13.3	12.1	12.7
Solomon Islands	7.4	9.3 (2007)	7.0	8.9	7.9	9.6
Timor-Leste	10.0 (2001)	11.7 (2009)	...	11.2	...	12.2
Tonga	13.7	13.7 (2006)	14.1	13.7	13.4	13.6
Tuvalu	...	10.8 (2001)	...	11.3	...	10.2
Vanuatu	9.6	10.6 (2004)	9.4	10.2	9.9	10.9
Developed Member Economies	15.6	16.3	15.6	16.3	15.7	16.3
Australia	20.3	19.6	20.6	20.0	20.0	19.2
Japan	14.5	15.3	14.3	15.1	14.6	15.5
New Zealand	17.2	19.7	17.9	20.5	16.6	18.8

a Regional aggregates for relevant years are provided by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

b Figures refer to the same year indicated in the column for "Total" unless otherwise specified.

c Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Source: Institute for Statistics Data Centre (UNESCO), accessed 14 May 2012.

Table 2.5 **Access and Inputs to Education and Health**

	17 Pupil-Teacher Ratio (Primary)		
	1990 ^a	2000 ^a	2010 ^a
Developing Member Economies	29	28	25
Central and West Asia	31	28	32
Afghanistan	41	32 (1998)	44
Armenia	21 (1994)	20 (2001)	19 (2007)
Azerbaijan	19 (1994)	19	11
Georgia	17 (1991)	17	8
Kazakhstan	22	19	16 (2011)
Kyrgyz Republic	16	24	24
Pakistan	41	33	40
Tajikistan	21 (1991)	22	25
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	24	21	16 (2011)
East Asia	23	22	17
China, People's Rep. of	22	22 (2001)	17
Hong Kong, China	27	21	15
Korea, Rep. of	36	32	21
Mongolia	30	33	30
Taipei, China	29	19	15 (2011)
South Asia	47	41	40
Bangladesh	63	47 (2005)	43
Bhutan	31 (1993)	41	25 (2011)
India	46	40	40 (2004)
Maldives	26 (1998)	23	12 (2011)
Nepal	39	43	30 (2011)
Sri Lanka	29	26 (2001)	24
Southeast Asia	26	26	19
Brunei Darussalam ^b	15 (1991)	14	11
Cambodia	35	50	48
Indonesia	23	22	16
Lao PDR	28	30	29
Malaysia	20	20	13 (2009)
Myanmar	45	33	28
Philippines	33	35 (2001)	31 (2009)
Singapore	26	25 (1996)	17 (2009)
Thailand	20	21	16 (2008)
Viet Nam	34	30	20
The Pacific	27	33	31
Cook Islands	19 (1998)	18	16 (2011)
Fiji	34	28	26 (2008)
Kiribati	29	32	25 (2008)
Marshall Islands	15 (1999)	17 (2002)	14 (2003)
Micronesia, Fed. States of	17 (2007)
Nauru	...	21	22 (2008)
Palau	15 (1999)	16	...
Papua New Guinea	32	35	36 (2006)
Samoa	18 (1995)	24	30
Solomon Islands	19	19 (1999)	...
Timor-Leste	...	51 (2001)	30
Tonga	24	22	25 (2007)
Tuvalu	19 (1999)	20	19 (2004)
Vanuatu	27	23	22
Developed Member Economies	20	20	18
Australia	17 (1991)	18 (1999)	...
Japan	21	21	18
New Zealand	18	18	14

a Regional aggregates are estimated using data available for the respective year headings or nearest years given in the table.

b Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Source: Institute for Statistics Data Centre (UNESCO), accessed 16 May 2012; World Development Indicators Online Database (World Bank), accessed 16 May 2012; for Taipei, China: economy sources.

Table 2.5 **Access and Inputs to Education and Health**

	18 Diphtheria, Tetanus Toxoid, and Pertussis (DTP3) Immunization Coverage among 1-Year-Olds (percent)							
	Total ^a		Residence ^b			Wealth Quintile ^b		
	1990	2010	Rural	Urban	Urban-to-Rural Ratio	Lowest	Highest	Highest-to-Lowest Ratio
Developing Member Economies ^c	78	84						
Central and West Asia ^c	58	86						
Afghanistan	25	66
Armenia	85 (1992)	94	68	70	1.0 (2005)	65	63	1.0 (2005)
Azerbaijan	58 (1992)	72	21	38	1.8 (2006)	21	56	2.7 (2006)
Georgia	58 (1992)	91	61	64	1.0 (2005)	63	67	1.1 (2005)
Kazakhstan	81 (1992)	99	96	98	1.0 (2006)	97	99	1.0 (2006)
Kyrgyz Republic	84 (1992)	96	37	64	1.7 (2005)	25	72	2.9 (2005)
Pakistan	54	88	54	68	1.3 (2006)	35	78	2.2 (2006)
Tajikistan	72 (1992)	93	82	87	1.1 (2005)	81	84	1.0 (2005)
Turkmenistan	84 (1992)	96
Uzbekistan	90 (1992)	99	95	88	0.9 (2006)	92	89	1.0 (2006)
East Asia ^c	96	99						
China, People's Rep. of	97	99
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of	74	94
Mongolia	84	96	89	91	1.0 (2005)	86	92	1.1 (2005)
Taipei, China
South Asia ^c	69	75						
Bangladesh	69	95	91	92	1.0 (2007)	92	95	1.0 (2007)
Bhutan	96	91
India	70	72	51	69	1.4 (2005)	34	82	2.4 (2005)
Maldives	94	96	98	98	1.0 (2009)	98	97	1.0 (2009)
Nepal	43	82	88	93	1.1 (2006)	75	96	1.3 (2006)
Sri Lanka	86	99
Southeast Asia ^c	75	88						
Brunei Darussalam ^d	93	95
Cambodia	38	92	84	90	1.1 (2010)	73	93	1.3 (2010)
Indonesia	60	83	61	75	1.2 (2007)	45	82	1.8 (2007)
Lao PDR	18	74	39	56	1.4 (2006)	29	59	2.0 (2006)
Malaysia	90	94
Myanmar	88	90
Philippines	88	87	83	88	1.1 (2008)	72	94	1.3 (2008)
Singapore	85	97
Thailand	92	99	95	93	1.0 (2005)	95	93	1.0 (2005)
Viet Nam	88	93	75	95	1.3 (2006)	56	95	1.7 (2006)
The Pacific ^c	73	64						
Cook Islands	93	99
Fiji	97	99
Kiribati	97	91
Marshall Islands	92	94
Micronesia, Fed. States of	85	85
Nauru	74	99
Palau	99	49
Papua New Guinea	68	56
Samoa	90	87
Solomon Islands	77	79
Timor-Leste	...	72	65	71	1.1 (2010)	55	73	1.3 (2010)
Tonga	94	99
Tuvalu	99	89
Vanuatu	76	68	62	69	1.1 (2007)	46	67	1.5 (2007)
Developed Member Economies ^c	91	97						
Australia	95	92
Japan	90	98
New Zealand	90	93

a Estimates are based on data officially reported to the World Health Organization (WHO) and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) by member economies and data reported in publications on health surveys.

b Estimates are based on household survey data.

c Regional aggregates are approximated weighted averages estimated using data available for the respective year headings or nearest years given in the table. The data for population survivors to age 1 are from World Population Prospects: The 2010 Revision.

d Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Source: Global Health Observatory Data Repository (WHO), accessed 22 May 2012.

Table 2.5 Access and Inputs to Education and Health

	19 Physicians, Nurses, and Midwives (per 10,000 population) ^a					
	Earliest Year			Latest Year		
	Total	Physicians ^b	Nurses and Midwives ^b	Total	Physicians ^b	Nurses and Midwives ^b
Developing Member Economies ^c				27.0	10.2	16.8
Central and West Asia ^c				41.1	14.0	27.1
Afghanistan	3.9 (2001)	1.8	2.1	7.1 (2009)	2.1	5.0
Armenia	94.0 (2000)	36.7	57.3	85.8 (2009)	37.6	48.2
Azerbaijan	123.6 (2000)	36.1	87.5	121.3 (2009)	37.8	83.4
Georgia	90.4 (2000)	43.8	46.6	79.8 (2009)	47.6	32.2
Kazakhstan	93.5 (2000)	32.5	61.1	123.8 (2009)	41.0	82.8
Kyrgyz Republic	108.1 (2000)	28.2	79.9	79.6 (2007)	23.0	56.6
Pakistan	8.4 (1992)	5.2	3.2	13.7 (2009)	8.1	5.6
Tajikistan	79.4 (2000)	21.3	58.1	74.0 (2009)	21.0	53.0
Turkmenistan	139.3 (2002)	44.0	95.3	68.1 (2009)	23.9	44.2
Uzbekistan	140.4 (2000)	30.0	110.4	137.1 (2009)	25.6	111.5
East Asia ^c				35.4	15.4	20.0
China, People's Rep. of	21.8 (2001)	10.7	11.0	28.0 (2009)	14.2	13.8
Hong Kong, China	69.8 (2006)	17.0 ^d	52.8 ^e	74.6 (2010)	17.9 ^d	56.7 ^e
Korea, Rep. of	34.1 (2003)	16.2	18.0	73.8 (2008)	20.0	53.8
Mongolia	63.9 (2002)	27.7	36.3	62.6 (2008)	27.6	35.0
Taipei, China	29.7 (1990)	10.9	18.8 ^f	74.8 (2010)	19.1	55.7 ^f
South Asia ^c				14.9	5.8	9.0
Bangladesh	5.5 (2003)	2.7	2.8	5.7 (2007)	3.0	2.7
Bhutan	10.1 (2004)	1.9	8.2	3.4 (2007)	0.2	3.2
India	17.2 (2000)	5.4	11.9	16.0 (2008)	6.3	9.8
Maldives	8.8 (1991)	2.0	6.8	60.5 (2007)	16.0	44.5
Nepal	6.7 (2004)	2.1	4.6
Sri Lanka	12.5 (1993)	2.1	10.4	21.8 (2006)	5.2	16.6
Southeast Asia ^c				29.4	6.2	23.2
Brunei Darussalam ^g	51.1 (2000)	10.5	40.5	63.0 (2008)	14.2	48.8
Cambodia	11.5 (1996)	1.1	10.4	10.2 (2008)	2.3	7.9
Indonesia	9.6 (2003)	1.3	8.2	23.3 (2007)	2.9	20.4
Lao PDR	16.6 (1995)	3.5	13.0	12.4 (2005)	2.7	9.7
Malaysia	24.0 (2000)	7.1	17.0	36.7 (2008)	9.4	27.3
Myanmar	14.6 (2004)	3.9	10.8	12.6 (2008)	4.6	8.0
Philippines	27.2 (2000)	5.9	21.4	71.5 (2004)	11.5	60.0
Singapore	56.6 (1999)	14.2	42.4	77.3 (2009)	18.3	59.0
Thailand	9.4 (1991)	2.2	7.1	18.2 (2004)	3.0	15.2
Viet Nam	12.9 (2001)	5.4	7.5	22.3 (2008)	12.2	10.1
The Pacific ^c				12.3	1.3	11.0
Cook Islands	37.0 (2001)	7.9	29.2	93.3 (2009)	28.9	64.4
Fiji	23.1 (1999)	3.4	19.7	26.7 (2009)	4.3	22.4
Kiribati	27.0 (1998)	3.0	24.0	40.8 (2010)	3.8	37.1
Marshall Islands	33.8 (2000)	4.6	29.2	21.8 (2010)	4.4	17.4
Micronesia, Fed. States of	44.9 (2000)	6.0	38.9	35.0 (2009)	1.8	33.2
Nauru	77.1 (1995)	16.2	60.8	107.1 (2009)	9.8	97.2
Palau	77.3 (1998)	14.3	62.9	71.0 (2010)	13.8	57.1
Papua New Guinea	5.9 (2000)	0.5	5.4	5.6 (2008)	0.5	5.1
Samoa	27.0 (1999)	6.9	20.1	23.3 (2008)	4.8	18.5
Solomon Islands	10.7 (1999)	1.4	9.3	22.8 (2009)	2.2	20.5
Timor-Leste	22.9 (2004)	1.0	21.9
Tonga	38.4 (2001)	3.6	34.8	44.5 (2010)	5.6	38.8
Tuvalu	47.5 (2002)	6.3	41.2	75.8 (2008)	10.2	65.6
Vanuatu	26.1 (1997)	1.2	24.9	18.2 (2008)	1.2	17.0
Developed Member Economies ^c				73.3	22.2	51.1
Australia	129.9 (1996)	25.4	104.5	125.8 (2009)	29.9	95.9
Japan	82.5 (1990)	17.4	65.1	63.0 (2006)	20.9	42.0
New Zealand	109.6 (2001)	23.4	86.2	129.6 (2007)	23.3	106.3

a Estimated from Global Atlas of the Health Workforce and population from World Population Prospects: The 2010 Revision.

b Figures refer to the year indicated in the column for "Total" unless otherwise specified.

c Regional aggregates are approximated weighted averages estimated using data available for years 2004–2010. The data for Population are from World Population Prospects: The 2010 Revision.

d Figures refer to doctors with full registration in the local and overseas lists.

e Figures refer to nurses registered or enrolled with the Nursing Council. Midwives also include those registered nurses in the general stream possessing a postbasic qualification in midwifery.

f Figures refer to nurses only.

g Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Sources: Global Health Observatory Data Repository (WHO), accessed 22 May 2012; Global Atlas of the Health Workforce (WHO), accessed 23 June 2012; for Hong Kong, China and Taipei, China: economy sources; ADB estimates based on data from World Population Prospects: The 2010 Revision (UN Population Division), accessed 16 June 2012.

Table 2.5 Access and Inputs to Education and Health

	20 Government Expenditure on Education (percentage of total expenditure) ^a			21 Government Expenditure on Health (percentage of total expenditure) ^a		
	1995	2000	2011	1995	2000	2011
Developing Member Economies	17.5	17.0	14.9	3.4	4.7	5.0
Central and West Asia
Afghanistan
Armenia	11.9 (1996)	12.8	11.4	7.1 (1996)	4.4	6.7
Azerbaijan	17.5	23.8	8.2	6.9	5.4	3.2
Georgia	10.7	13.4	8.8	8.7	3.9	5.4
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyz Republic	23.1	20.7	21.3	13.6	11.7	10.4
Pakistan
Tajikistan	12.5	15.9	16.7	7.8	6.5	6.5
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
East Asia
China, People's Rep. of ^b	17.5	18.0 (2002)	14.0 (2010)	...	3.3 (2006)	5.3 (2010)
Hong Kong, China	17.7	18.9	17.6	12.7	11.9	11.6
Korea, Rep. of	18.9	15.3	15.1	0.8 (1996)	0.7	1.0
Mongolia	16.4	19.1	13.3	11.1	10.7	6.9
Taipei, China	10.0	10.2	13.1 (2010)	0.5	1.0	1.4 (2010)
South Asia
Bangladesh	16.7	19.7	11.4	7.4	9.4	5.6
Bhutan	...	14.0 (2002)	17.9	...	11.2 (2002)	6.9
India	18.2 (1999)	17.5	16.5 (2008)	3.9 (1999)	3.9	4.0 (2008)
Maldives	13.1	19.9	14.6	9.2	11.0	3.1
Nepal	14.0	15.2	17.9	4.1	5.7	7.2
Sri Lanka	9.1	9.2	8.6	5.3	6.2	6.3
Southeast Asia
Brunei Darussalam ^c	13.2	12.3	18.3 (2005)	6.5	6.1	8.3 (2005)
Cambodia	10.6	16.2	13.7	3.5	10.7	12.2
Indonesia
Lao PDR
Malaysia	20.9	23.7	21.6	5.5	6.4	7.5
Myanmar
Philippines	16.6	17.1	16.5	2.3	2.1	2.3
Singapore	18.9	21.0	21.0 (2010)	7.6	5.1	8.1 (2010)
Thailand	22.4	23.3	19.4	7.5	7.6	9.9
Viet Nam
The Pacific
Cook Islands	12.0	10.4	13.4 (2010)	9.9	9.9	11.2 (2010)
Fiji	27.6	27.1	27.7 (2010)	14.0	14.7	15.1 (2010)
Kiribati	19.4	19.9	18.6 (2010)	14.9	13.7	16.3 (2010)
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
Palau
Papua New Guinea	17.1	16.4	10.0 (2002)	7.3	5.2	5.7 (2002)
Samoa	19.5	20.8	19.8	13.1	16.9	17.9
Solomon Islands
Timor-Leste	...	18.9 (2004)	6.2	...	11.1 (2004)	3.6
Tonga	17.8	12.9	...	12.0	13.9	...
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	23.7	25.7	26.1 (2007)	10.7	12.6	10.8 (2007)
Developed Member Economies	14.2	13.1	9.0	19.4	21.4	18.5
Australia	6.8 (1999)	6.7	9.5	14.6 (1999)	16.4	15.8
Japan	14.7	13.5	8.7 (2010)	20.9	21.8	19.0 (2010)
New Zealand	14.9	16.5	18.1 (2004)	15.1	17.6	19.5 (2004)

a Data refer to the central government, except for the People's Republic of China, Georgia, Japan, the Kyrgyz Republic, and Tajikistan, where data refer to the consolidated government or general government. Regional aggregates are estimated using data available for the respective year headings or nearest years given in the table.

b From 1990 to 2005, health expenditure is included in the education category.

c Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Source: Economy sources.

Table 2.6 **Access To Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services**

	22 Population with Access to Electricity ^a (percent)					
	Total			Urban	Rural	Urban-to-Rural Ratio
	2000	2005	2009	2008		
Developing Member Economies	67.9	73.0	81.3			
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan	2.0	7.0	15.5	22.0	12.0	1.8
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyz Republic
Pakistan	52.9	54.0	62.4	78.0	46.0	1.7
Tajikistan
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	98.6	99.4	99.4	100.0	99.0	1.0
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of
Mongolia	...	64.6	67.0	90.0	36.0	2.5
Taipei, China	98.6	99.2	99.0	100.0	98.0	1.0
South Asia						
Bangladesh	20.4	32.0	41.0	76.0	28.0	2.7
Bhutan
India	43.0	55.5	75.0	93.1	52.5	1.8
Maldives
Nepal	15.4	33.0	43.6	89.7	34.0	2.6
Sri Lanka	62.0	66.0	76.6	85.8	75.0	1.1
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam ^b	99.2	99.2	99.7	100.0	98.6	1.0
Cambodia	15.8	20.1	24.0	66.0	12.5	5.3
Indonesia	53.4	54.0	64.5	94.0	32.0	2.9
Lao PDR	55.0	84.0	42.0	2.0
Malaysia	96.9	97.8	99.4	100.0	98.0	1.0
Myanmar	5.0	11.3	13.0	19.0	10.0	1.9
Philippines	87.4	80.5	89.7	97.0	65.0	1.5
Singapore	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	n. a.	n. a.
Thailand	82.1	99.0	99.3	100.0	99.0	1.0
Viet Nam	75.8	84.2	97.6	99.6	85.0	1.2
The Pacific						
Cook Islands
Fiji
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Timor-Leste	22.0	52.0	10.5	5.0
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Developed Member Economies						
Australia
Japan
New Zealand

a Regional aggregates are estimated using data available for the respective year headings given in the table.

b Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Source: *World Energy Outlook* (International Energy Agency 2011).

Table 2.6 Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services

	23 Share of Population Using Solid Fuels for Cooking							
	1990 or Nearest Year			2010 or Latest Year				
	Total	Urban ^a	Rural ^a	Total	Urban ^a	Rural ^a	Lowest Wealth Quintile ^a	Highest Wealth Quintile ^a
Developing Member Economies ^b				53.2 (2010)	27.8	81.7		
Central and West Asia ^b				53.0 (2010)	20.4	75.2		
Afghanistan	98.0 (1999)	85.6 (2007)	34.5	95.7
Armenia	26.4 (2000)	8.6	53.9	4.4 (2005)	0.6	11.8	18.8	0.0
Azerbaijan	41.6 (1995)	9.8 (2006)	0.9	22.7	38.6	0.0
Georgia	42.0 (2003)	8.6	77.2	53.5 (2005)	17.7	89.4	88.5 (2003)	3.6 (2003)
Kazakhstan	20.3 (1999)	85.3	41.7	19.0 (2005)	6.8	40.8	69.4	0.0
Kyrgyz Republic	37.3 (2005)	12.4	56.2	76.6	0.3
Pakistan	68.8 (1998)	32.0	85.7	66.6 (2006)	22.1	89.6	96.4	10.6
Tajikistan	74.5 (1999)	32.7	90.1	35.0 (2005)	7.5	48.4	75.3	2.3
Turkmenistan	0.2 (2000)	0.0	0.5
Uzbekistan	16.5 (2002)	3.5	27.1	15.7 (2005)	0.7	24.8	54.7	0.2
East Asia ^b				44.5 (2010)	30.1	81.0		
China, People's Rep. of	52.4 (2000)	32.0	76.4	48.8 (2005)	31.2	74.3	66.8 (2006)	33.3 (2006)
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of	12.8	8.9	23.4	14.7 (2005)	50.8	0.0
Mongolia	76.5 (2005)	60.9	97.6	99.0	2.0
Taipei, China
South Asia ^b				62.2 (2010)	27.0	87.0		
Bangladesh	44.3 (1991)	57.6	42.7	91.1 (2007)	61.5	99.4	99.9	55.8
Bhutan	66.5 (2003)	4.7	84.8	39.5	2.2	53.6	84.3 (2007)	8.5 (2007)
India	81.8 (1991)	46.9	93.3	56.9 (2006)	26.1	85.3	99.8 (2005)	10.6 (2005)
Maldives	42.7 (2000)	5.7 (2009)	0.0	8.3
Nepal	88.3 (2001)	39.1	94.1	83.3 (2006)	39.1	92.3	100.0	31.3
Sri Lanka	66.1 (2003)	27.2	75.0	80.7 (2009)	36.2	87.1	92.0 (2003)	23.0 (2003)
Southeast Asia ^b				52.1 (2010)	23.1	70.4		
Brunei Darussalam ^c
Cambodia	96.2 (2000)	81.9	98.6	87.9	48.1	96.0	100.0 (2005)	61.8 (2005)
Indonesia	44.8 (2002)	16.0	69.0	54.6 (2007)	22.0	77.8	97.0	0.8
Lao PDR	97.7 (1995)	85.6	99.4	97.5 (2006)	91.4	99.9	100.0	89.0
Malaysia	0.8 (2003)	0.1	2.1	3.9	0.1
Myanmar	92.6 (2003)	84.7	95.8	95.0 (2004)	96.6 (2003)	81.2 (2003)
Philippines	44.5 (2003)	26.4	70.5	91.6	3.4
Singapore
Thailand	65.5	34.4 (2005)	9.6	45.8	87.8	0.4
Viet Nam	87.0 (1997)	53.6	97.6	67.0 (2005)	25.5	77.4	98.2	9.2
The Pacific					
Cook Islands	19.0 (1991)	4.8 (2006)
Fiji	48.0 (1996)
Kiribati
Marshall Islands	29.9 (1999)	36.2 (2007)	8.8	93.6
Micronesia, Fed. States of	47.4 (1994)	41.5 (2005)
Nauru	0.8 (1992)	7.1 (2007)	18.7	1.5
Palau	0.0 (1997)
Papua New Guinea	89.7 (1996)	34.4	98.3
Samoa	72.1	65.6 (2009)	27.8	74.5
Solomon Islands	90.8 (2005)	62.7	95.5	92.1 (2007)	57.0	96.8
Timor-Leste	94.9 (2009)	81.2	99.2
Tonga	74.3 (1996)	40.9 (2006)	9.4	50.2
Tuvalu	69.9 (1991)	31.5 (2002)
Vanuatu	83.3 (1999)	85.1 (2007)	52.2	95.2	98.3	38.2
Developed Member Economies					
Australia
Japan
New Zealand

a Figures refer to the same year indicated in the column for "Total" unless otherwise specified.

b Regional aggregates are approximated weighted averages using 2010 modeled country data from Global Health Observatory Data Repository (WHO) available at <http://apps.who.int/ghodata/>. The data for population are from World Population Prospects: The 2010 Revision and World Urbanization Prospects: The 2011 Revision.

c Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Source: Data on solid fuel use are updated from the electronic files provided by the World Health Organization on 15 June 2012 and 1 July 2012.

Table 2.6 **Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services**

	24 Population Using Improved Drinking Water Sources (percent)					
	1990			2010		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
Developing Member Economies ^a	70	93	61	90	97	86
Central and West Asia ^a	86	96	73	86	95	80
Afghanistan	2 (1991)	6 (1991)	1 (1991)	50	78	42
Armenia	90 (1992)	98 (1992)	75 (1992)	98	99	97
Azerbaijan	70	88	49	80	88	71
Georgia	81	94	66	98	100	96
Kazakhstan	96	99	92	95	99	90
Kyrgyz Republic	78 (1991)	98 (1991)	66 (1991)	90	99	85
Pakistan	85	95	81	92	96	89
Tajikistan	62 (1993)	93 (1993)	49 (1993)	64	92	54
Turkmenistan	83 (1994)	97 (1994)	72 (1994)	84 (2006)	97 (2006)	72 (2006)
Uzbekistan	90	97	85	87	98	81
East Asia ^a	67	97	56	91	98	85
China, People's Rep. of	67	97	56	91	98	85
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of	90 (1991)	97 (1991)	67 (1991)	98	100	88
Mongolia	54	74	27	82	100	53
Taipei, China
South Asia ^a	70	88	65	91	96	89
Bangladesh	77	87	75	81	85	80
Bhutan	86 (1997)	99 (1997)	82 (1997)	96	100	94
India	69	88	63	92	97	90
Maldives	93	100	91	98	100	97
Nepal	76	96	74	89	93	88
Sri Lanka	67	91	62	91	99	90
Southeast Asia ^a	71	91	62	88	94	83
Brunei Darussalam ^b
Cambodia	31	48	29	64	87	58
Indonesia	70	91	61	82	92	74
Lao PDR	39 (1994)	75 (1994)	32 (1994)	67	77	62
Malaysia	88	94	82	100	100	99
Myanmar	56	80	48	83	93	78
Philippines	85	93	77	92	93	92
Singapore	100	100	n.a.	100	100	n.a.
Thailand	86	96	82	96	97	95
Viet Nam	57	88	49	95	99	93
The Pacific ^a	51	91	41	52	93	43
Cook Islands	94	99	87	95 (2007)	98 (2007)	88 (2007)
Fiji	84	94	77	98	100	95
Kiribati	48	76	33	63 (2006)	77 (2006)	53 (2006)
Marshall Islands	95	94	97	94	92	99
Micronesia, Fed. States of	89	93	87	94 (2006)	95 (2006)	94 (2006)
Nauru	98	98	n.a.	88	88	n.a.
Palau	80	73	96	85	83	96
Papua New Guinea	41	89	32	40	87	33
Samoa	89	97	87	96	96	96
Solomon Islands	69 (1993)	94 (1993)	65 (1993)	70 (2005)	94 (2005)	65 (2005)
Timor-Leste	52 (1995)	67 (1995)	48 (1995)	69	91	60
Tonga	100	100	100	100	100	100
Tuvalu	90	92	89	98	98	97
Vanuatu	62	94	55	90	98	87
Developed Member Economies ^a	100	100	100	100	100	100
Australia	100	100	100	100	100	100
Japan	100	100	100	100	100	100
New Zealand	100	100	100	100	100	100

a Regional aggregates are approximated weighted averages estimated using data for the respective year headings. The data for population are from World Health Organization and UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme (JMP) for Water Supply and Sanitation.

b Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as developing member.

Source: Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2012.

Table 2.6 Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services

	25 Population Using Improved Sanitation Facilities (percent)					
	1990			2010		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
Developing Member Economies^a	29	57	17	55	72	43
Central and West Asia^a	46	83	26	60	79	48
Afghanistan	29 (1991)	36 (1991)	27 (1991)	37	60	30
Armenia	88 (1992)	95 (1992)	75 (1992)	90	95	80
Azerbaijan	57 (1994)	70 (1994)	43 (1994)	82	86	78
Georgia	96	97	95	95	96	93
Kazakhstan	96	96	97	97	97	98
Kyrgyz Republic	93 (1991)	94 (1991)	93 (1991)	93	94	93
Pakistan	27	72	7	48	72	34
Tajikistan	89 (1993)	93 (1993)	87 (1993)	94	95	94
Turkmenistan	98	99	97	98	99	97
Uzbekistan	84	95	76	100	100	100
East Asia^a	26	53	16	66	76	56
China, People's Rep. of	24	48	15	64	74	56
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mongolia	50 (1994)	66 (1994)	28 (1994)	51	64	29
Taipei, China
South Asia^a	21	52	11	37	58	28
Bangladesh	39	58	34	56	57	55
Bhutan	38 (1997)	66 (1997)	30 (1997)	44	73	29
India	18	51	7	34	58	23
Maldives	68	98	58	97	98	97
Nepal	10	37	7	31	48	27
Sri Lanka	70	85	67	92	88	93
Southeast Asia^a	46	68	36	69	82	60
Brunei Darussalam ^b
Cambodia	9	36	5	31	73	20
Indonesia	32	56	21	54	73	39
Lao PDR	16 (1994)	58 (1994)	8 (1994)	63	89	50
Malaysia	84	88	81	96	96	95
Myanmar	54 (1991)	77 (1991)	47 (1991)	76	83	73
Philippines	57	69	45	74	79	69
Singapore	99	99	n.a.	100	100	n.a.
Thailand	84	94	80	96	95	96
Viet Nam	37	63	30	76	94	68
The Pacific^a	51	82	44	51	79	44
Cook Islands	96	100	91	100	100	100
Fiji	61	90	40	83	94	71
Kiribati	26	36	21	34 (2006)	49 (2006)	22 (2006)
Marshall Islands	64	77	41	75	83	53
Micronesia, Fed. States of	29	55	20	25 (2006)	61 (2006)	15 (2006)
Nauru	66	66	n.a.	65	65	n.a.
Palau	65	78	36	100	100	100
Papua New Guinea	47	78	42	45	71	41
Samoa	99	100	99	98	98	98
Solomon Islands	29 (1993)	98 (1993)	18 (1993)	...	98	...
Timor-Leste	37 (1995)	55 (1995)	32 (1995)	47	73	37
Tonga	96	98	96	96	98	96
Tuvalu	80	86	76	85	88	81
Vanuatu	35 (1992)	50 (1992)	32 (1992)	57	64	54
Developed Member Economies^a	100	100	100	100	100	100
Australia	100	100	100	100	100	100
Japan	100	100	100	100	100	100
New Zealand	88	88 (1996)

a Regional aggregates are approximated weighted averages estimated using data for the respective year headings. The data for population are from World Health Organization and UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme (JMP) for Water Supply and Sanitation.

b Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as developing member.

Source: Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2012.

Table 2.7 **Gender Equality and Opportunity**

	26 Gender Parity in Education ^a					
	Primary		Secondary		Tertiary ^b	
	1991	2010	1991	2010	1991	2010
Developing Member Economies	0.86	0.99	0.75	0.97	0.67	0.94
Central and West Asia	0.74	0.82	0.78	0.81	0.81	0.95
Afghanistan	0.55	0.69	0.51	0.51	0.48 (1990)	0.24 (2009)
Armenia	1.04 (1994)	1.02	1.06 (2001)	1.02	0.97 (1996)	1.28
Azerbaijan	0.99	0.99	1.01	0.98	0.67	0.98
Georgia	1.00	1.03	0.97	0.95 (2008)	0.91	1.25
Kazakhstan	1.00 (1994)	1.00 (2011)	1.02 (1993)	0.97 (2011)	1.25 (1994)	1.44 (2011)
Kyrgyz Republic	1.01 (1992)	0.99	1.02	0.99	1.33 (1993)	1.30 (2009)
Pakistan	0.67 (2000)	0.82	0.47	0.76	0.26 (1992)	0.83 (2008)
Tajikistan	0.98	0.96	0.86 (1999)	0.87	0.34 (1999)	0.41
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	0.98	0.97 (2011)	0.98 (1999)	0.98 (2011)	0.82 (1999)	0.65 (2011)
East Asia	0.92	1.03	0.77	1.04	0.55	1.07
China, People's Rep. of	0.91	1.03	0.75	1.04	0.53 (1994)	1.10
Hong Kong, China	1.00 (1995)	1.02	1.03 (1996)	1.02	0.70 (1992)	1.04
Korea, Rep. of	1.01	0.99	0.97	0.99	0.49	0.72
Mongolia	0.99	0.98	1.10	1.07	2.27 (1996)	1.53
Taipei, China	1.01	1.01 (2011)	1.04	1.01 (2011)	0.96	1.08 (2011)
South Asia	0.76	1.00	0.67	0.94	0.53	0.72
Bangladesh	0.94 (1998)	1.13	0.49 (1999)	0.61 (2009)
Bhutan	0.76 (1993)	1.01 (2011)	0.78 (1998)	1.04 (2011)	0.58 (1999)	0.68 (2011)
India	0.76	1.00 (2008)	0.63 (1993)	0.92	0.54	0.73
Maldives	1.00 (1992)	0.96 (2011)	1.04 (1994)	1.13 (2004)	2.29 (2003)	1.08 (2008)
Nepal	0.63	0.86 (2002)	0.46	0.89 (2006)	0.33	0.40 (2004)
Sri Lanka	0.96	1.00	1.09	1.01 (2004)	0.50 (1994)	1.92
Southeast Asia	0.97	0.99	0.91	1.04	0.97	1.07
Brunei Darussalam ^c	0.96	1.01	1.08	1.03	1.39 (1992)	1.79
Cambodia	0.83 (1994)	0.95	0.54 (1998)	0.90	0.21 (1993)	0.53 (2008)
Indonesia	0.97	1.02	0.82	1.00	0.66 (1993)	0.89
Lao PDR	0.79	0.93	0.66 (1992)	0.83	0.43 (1993)	0.77
Malaysia	1.00	1.00 (2005)	1.05	1.07 (2009)	1.07 (1998)	1.29 (2009)
Myanmar	0.96	1.00	0.98	1.06	1.25 (1992)	1.38 (2007)
Philippines	1.00	0.98 (2009)	1.10 (1998)	1.08 (2009)	1.49 (1992)	1.25 (2008)
Singapore
Thailand	0.98	0.99 (2009)	0.97	1.08 (2011)	1.14 (1993)	1.31 (2011)
Viet Nam	0.95 (1998)	0.94	0.89 (1998)	1.09	0.65 (1998)	1.00
The Pacific	0.90	0.93	0.90	0.92	0.85	0.82
Cook Islands	1.00 (1998)	1.03 (2011)	1.10 (1998)	1.20 (2011)
Fiji	1.00	0.98 (2009)	0.97	1.09 (2009)	1.20 (2003)	1.19 (2005)
Kiribati	1.01	1.04 (2009)	1.07	1.11 (2008)
Marshall Islands	0.99 (1999)	0.99 (2011)	1.06 (1999)	1.03 (2009)	1.28 (2001)	1.28 (2003)
Micronesia, Fed. States of	0.98 (2004)	1.01 (2007)	1.06 (2004)	1.08 (2005)
Nauru	1.33 (2000)	1.06 (2008)	1.17 (2000)	1.20 (2008)
Palau	0.93 (1999)	1.03 (2007)	1.07 (1999)	1.02 (2004)	2.35 (2000)	2.04 (2002)
Papua New Guinea	0.85	0.89 (2008)	0.67	0.70 (1998)	0.47 (1995)	0.57 (1999)
Samoa	0.99 (1995)	1.02	1.09 (1995)	1.14	0.93 (1998)	0.92 (2001)
Solomon Islands	0.87	0.97 (2007)	0.60	0.84 (2007)
Timor-Leste	0.93 (2004)	0.96	0.98 (2004)	1.01	1.24 (2002)	0.70 (2009)
Tonga	1.00	0.96 (2007)	1.02	1.00 (2006)	1.34 (1999)	1.60 (2004)
Tuvalu	1.02 (1999)	0.95 (2006)	...	1.10 (2001)
Vanuatu	0.96	0.95	0.81	1.02	0.57 (2002)	0.60 (2004)
Developed Member Economies	1.00	1.00	1.01	0.99	0.73	1.01
Australia	1.00	0.99	1.00 (1993)	0.95	1.19	1.35
Japan	1.00	1.00	1.02	1.00	0.65	0.89
New Zealand	0.99	1.00	1.01	1.05	1.13	1.46

a Measured as the ratio of female gross enrollment ratio to male gross enrollment ratio. Regional aggregates are estimated using data available for the respective year headings or nearest years given in the table.

b There is no tertiary education in the Cook Islands, Kiribati, Nauru, Solomon Islands, and Tuvalu. In the Maldives, tertiary education became available only recently.

c Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Sources: Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 03 July 2012; Institute for Statistics Data Centre (UNESCO), accessed 18 May 2012; for Taipei, China: Educational Statistical Indicators Online accessed 15 June 2012.

Table 2.7 **Gender Equality and Opportunity**

	27 Antenatal Care Coverage of at Least One Visit (percent of live births)								
	Total		Residence			Wealth Quintile			
	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Urban	Rural	Urban-to-Rural Ratio	Lowest	Highest	Highest-to-Lowest Ratio	
Developing Member Economies ^a	80.5								
Central and West Asia ^a	68.7								
Afghanistan	36.9 (2000)	63.4 (2010)	84.9	53.6	1.6 (2010)	55.2	76.8	1.4 (2010)	
Armenia	82.0 (1997)	99.1 (2010)	98.4	100.0	1.0 (2010)	99.6	99.7	1.0 (2010)	
Azerbaijan	98.3 (1997)	76.6 (2006)	89.7	62.7	1.4 (2006)	53.2	95.3	1.8 (2006)	
Georgia	74.0 (1997)	97.6 (2010)	99.1	97.0	1.0 (2010)	91.9	97.6	1.1 (2005)	
Kazakhstan	92.5 (1995)	99.9 (2006)	100.0	99.7	1.0 (2006)	99.7	100.0	1.0 (2006)	
Kyrgyz Republic	97.3 (1997)	96.9 (2006)	99.0	95.4	1.0 (2006)	93.6	99.0	1.1 (2006)	
Pakistan	25.6 (1991)	60.9 (2007)	78.1	53.5	1.5 (2007)	36.9	91.9	2.5 (2007)	
Tajikistan	71.3 (2000)	88.8 (2007)	93.5	87.1	1.1 (2007)	90.0	91.8	1.0 (2007)	
Turkmenistan	98.1 (2000)	99.1 (2006)	98.8	99.3	1.0 (2006)	98.0	97.6	1.0 (2006)	
Uzbekistan	94.9 (1996)	99.0 (2006)	99.1	99.0	1.0 (2006)	98.0	99.2	1.0 (2006)	
East Asia ^a	92.2								
China, People's Rep. of	69.7 (1992)	92.2 (2009)	
Hong Kong, China	
Korea, Rep. of	
Mongolia	89.8 (1998)	99.0 (2010)	99.0	99.0	1.0 (2010)	99.0	98.0	1.0 (2010)	
Taipei, China	
South Asia ^a	72.9								
Bangladesh	25.7 (1994)	52.8 (2010)	67.5	48.4	1.4 (2010)	30.0	81.5	2.7 (2010)	
Bhutan	51.0 (2000)	97.3 (2010)	99.1	96.6	1.0 (2010)	95.7	98.8	1.0 (2010)	
India	61.9 (1993)	75.2 (2008)	87.1	70.6	1.2 (2008)	
Maldives	81.0 (2001)	99.1 (2009)	99.6	98.9	1.0 (2009)	98.3	99.6	1.0 (2009)	
Nepal	15.4 (1991)	58.3 (2011)	84.6	37.5	2.3 (2006)	17.7	84.1	4.8 (2006)	
Sri Lanka	80.2 (1993)	99.4 (2007)	99.5	99.4	1.0 (2007)	99.0	99.6	1.0 (2007)	
Southeast Asia ^a	90.9								
Brunei Darussalam ^b	100.0 (1994)	99.0 (2009)	
Cambodia	34.3 (1998)	89.1 (2010)	97.0	87.6	1.1 (2010)	78.8	98.5	1.3 (2010)	
Indonesia	76.3 (1991)	93.3 (2007)	97.7	90.1	1.1 (2007)	82.2	99.2	1.2 (2007)	
Lao PDR	26.5 (2001)	35.1 (2006)	76.2	27.1	2.8 (2006)	16.3	87.6	5.4 (2006)	
Malaysia	73.6 (2003)	78.8 (2005)	
Myanmar	75.8 (1997)	79.8 (2007)	90.5	76.4	1.2 (2007)	
Philippines	83.1 (1993)	91.1 (2008)	94.2	88.1	1.1 (2008)	77.1	98.3	1.3 (2008)	
Singapore	
Thailand	85.9 (1996)	99.1 (2009)	98.2	99.4	1.0 (2009)	96.0	99.5	1.0 (2006)	
Viet Nam	70.6 (1997)	90.8 (2006)	98.0	88.6	1.1 (2006)	68.5	98.8	1.4 (2006)	
The Pacific ^a	81.4								
Cook Islands	...	100.0 (2008)	
Fiji	...	100.0 (2008)	
Kiribati	88.0 (1994)	100.0 (2008)	
Marshall Islands	...	81.2 (2007)	94.4	56.9	1.7 (2007)	59.8	97.8	1.6 (2007)	
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	80.0 (2008)	
Nauru	...	94.5 (2007)	95.3	93.6	1.0 (2007)	
Palau	100.0 (2007)	100.0 (2009)	
Papua New Guinea	76.7 (1996)	78.8 (2006)	93.4	76.4	1.2 (2006)	
Samoa	...	93.0 (2009)	93.5	92.9	1.0 (2009)	86.5	99.1	1.1 (2009)	
Solomon Islands	...	73.9 (2007)	84.3	72.4	1.2 (2007)	64.0	81.8	1.3 (2007)	
Timor-Leste	70.9 (1997)	84.4 (2010)	92.4	81.8	1.1 (2010)	71.5	96.1	1.3 (2010)	
Tonga	...	99.0 (2008)	
Tuvalu	...	97.4 (2007)	95.5	99.3	1.0 (2007)	97.9	98.1	1.0 (2007)	
Vanuatu	...	84.3 (2007)	87.4	83.7	1.0 (2007)	77.8	88.5	1.1 (2007)	
Developed Member Economies	...								
Australia	100.0 (1991)	98.3 (2008)	
Japan	
New Zealand	95.0 (1994)	

continued

a Regional aggregates are approximated weighted averages estimated using data available for the years 2006–2011. The data for population of annual number of live births are from *The State of the World's Children Reports, 2007–2012* (UNICEF).

b Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Table 2.7 **Gender Equality and Opportunity** (continued)

	27 Antenatal Care Coverage of at Least Four Visits (percent of live births)							
	Total		Residence			Wealth Quintile		
	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Urban	Rural	Urban-to-Rural Ratio	Lowest	Highest	Highest-to-Lowest Ratio
Developing Member Economies^a	51.2							
Central and West Asia^a	27.1							
Afghanistan	...	16.1 (2010)	33.6	12.0	2.8 (2010)
Armenia	64.7 (2000)	70.9 (2005)	81.6	53.0	1.5 (2005)	51.0	88.0	1.7 (2005)
Azerbaijan	30.4 (2001)	45.2 (2006)	59.9	29.7	2.0 (2006)	21.0	82.0	3.9 (2006)
Georgia	75.0 (2005)	90.2 (2010)	94.6	85.7	1.1 (2010)
Kazakhstan	81.9 (1995)	70.0 (1999)
Kyrgyz Republic	81.1 (1997)
Pakistan	14.2 (1991)	28.4 (2007)	48.3	19.8	2.4 (2007)	11.0	64.0	5.8 (2006)
Tajikistan	...	49.4 (2007)	61.0	45.2	1.3 (2007)	53.3	52.5	1.0 (2007)
Turkmenistan	82.8 (2000)
Uzbekistan	78.5 (1996)
East Asia^a	...							
China, People's Rep. of
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of
Mongolia	...	81.0 (2010)	82.0	80.0	1.0 (2010)	78.0	83.0	1.1 (2010)
Taipei, China
South Asia^a	48.2							
Bangladesh	6.0 (1994)	23.4 (2010)	36.1	19.6	1.8 (2010)	7.0	47.0	6.7 (2007)
Bhutan	...	77.3 (2010)	87.1	73.3	1.2 (2010)	64.0	91.8	1.4 (2010)
India	26.9 (1993)	51.1 (2008)	69.1	44.1	1.6 (2008)	12.0	78.0	6.5 (2005)
Maldives	65.0 (1999)	85.1 (2009)	79.6	87.5	0.9 (2009)	88.0	80.0	0.9 (2009)
Nepal	8.8 (1996)	29.4 (2006)	51.9	26.0	2.0 (2006)	11.0	60.0	5.5 (2006)
Sri Lanka	...	92.5 (2007)	84.4	93.6	0.9 (2007)
Southeast Asia^a	79.5							
Brunei Darussalam ^b
Cambodia	8.9 (2000)	59.4 (2010)	80.0	55.0	1.5 (2010)	43.0	82.0	1.9 (2010)
Indonesia	55.4 (1991)	81.5 (2007)	89.9	75.5	1.2 (2007)	58.0	96.0	1.7 (2007)
Lao PDR
Malaysia
Myanmar	65.9 (2001)	73.4 (2007)	90.2	67.6	1.3 (2007)
Philippines	52.1 (1993)	77.8 (2008)	83.0	72.6	1.1 (2008)	61.0	93.0	1.5 (2008)
Singapore
Thailand	...	79.6 (2009)	82.1	78.8	1.0 (2009)
Viet Nam	15.2 (1997)	29.3 (2002)
The Pacific^a	55.6							
Cook Islands
Fiji
Kiribati	...	72.8 (2009)	72.5	69.5	1.0 (2009)
Marshall Islands	...	77.1 (2007)	76.6	78.1	1.0 (2007)
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru	...	40.2 (2007)
Palau	...	88.0 (2007)
Papua New Guinea	...	54.9 (2006)
Samoa	...	58.4 (2009)	54.8	59.2	0.9 (2009)
Solomon Islands	...	64.6 (2007)	58.8	65.5	0.9 (2007)
Timor-Leste	29.6 (2003)	55.1 (2010)	62.8	52.5	1.2 (2010)	41.0	68.0	1.7 (2010)
Tonga
Tuvalu	...	67.3 (2007)	67.7	67.0	1.0 (2007)
Vanuatu
Developed Member Economies	...							
Australia	...	92.0 (2008)
Japan
New Zealand

a Regional aggregates are approximated weighted averages estimated using data available for the years 2006–2010. The data for population of annual number of live births are from *The State of the World's Children Reports, 2007–2012* (UNICEF).

b Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Sources: Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2012; Childinfo website (UNICEF) available at <http://www.childinfo.org/index.html>, accessed 24 May 2012; Global Health Observatory Data Repository (WHO), accessed 24 May 2012; economy sources; ADB estimates based on data from *The State of the World's Children Reports, 2007–2012* (UNICEF).

Table 2.7 **Gender Equality and Opportunity**

28 Gender Parity in Labor Force Participation, Aged 15 Years and Over ^a			
	1990	2000	2011
Developing Member Economies ^b	0.67	0.66	0.63
Central and West Asia ^b	0.37	0.37	0.40
Afghanistan	0.19	0.17	0.20
Armenia	0.79	0.79	0.70
Azerbaijan	0.76	0.80	0.90
Georgia	0.74	0.74	0.75
Kazakhstan	0.80	0.85	0.86
Kyrgyz Republic	0.79	0.76	0.71
Pakistan	0.16	0.19	0.27
Tajikistan	0.77	0.78	0.76
Turkmenistan	0.62	0.65	0.61
Uzbekistan	0.63	0.66	0.64
East Asia ^b	0.84	0.85	0.84
China, People's Rep. of	0.85	0.86	0.85
Hong Kong, China	0.60	0.67	0.75
Korea, Rep. of	0.64	0.67	0.69
Mongolia	0.84	0.85	0.83
Taipei, China	0.60	0.66	0.75
South Asia ^b	0.45	0.45	0.41
Bangladesh	0.70	0.63	0.68
Bhutan	0.63	0.68	0.86
India	0.41	0.41	0.36
Maldives	0.26	0.52	0.73
Nepal	0.88	0.91	0.92
Sri Lanka	0.47	0.48	0.45
Southeast Asia ^b	0.73	0.70	0.72
Brunei Darussalam ^c	0.54	0.70	0.73
Cambodia	0.92	0.93	0.91
Indonesia	0.62	0.59	0.61
Lao PDR	0.96	0.97	0.96
Malaysia	0.53	0.55	0.57
Myanmar	0.91	0.91	0.91
Philippines	0.58	0.60	0.63
Singapore	0.64	0.67	0.74
Thailand	0.87	0.81	0.80
Viet Nam	0.89	0.90	0.90
The Pacific ^b	0.79	0.84	0.83
Cook Islands	0.67 (1996)	0.80 (2001)	0.84 (2006)
Fiji	0.35	0.50	0.49
Kiribati	...	0.88	0.79 (2005)
Marshall Islands	0.53 (1999)	0.52	0.52 (2007)
Micronesia, Fed. States of	0.53 (1994)	0.75	0.73 (2010)
Nauru
Palau	0.71	0.78	0.78 (2005)
Papua New Guinea	0.96	0.96	0.95
Samoa	0.52	0.53	0.55
Solomon Islands	0.68	0.67	0.67
Timor-Leste	0.52	0.51	0.52
Tonga	0.48	0.67	0.71
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	0.89	0.84	0.77
Developed Member Economies ^b	0.65	0.66	0.71
Australia	0.69	0.75	0.81
Japan	0.65	0.65	0.69
New Zealand	0.72	0.77	0.83

a Gender parity is measured as the ratio of female labor force participation rate to male labor participation rate.

b Regional aggregates are estimated using data available for the respective year headings given in the table.

c Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Sources: ADB estimates based on data from Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 7th ed. (ILO); National Minimum Development Indicators Database (SPC), accessed 18 July 2012; economy sources.

Table 2.7 **Gender Equality and Opportunity**

	29 Percentage of Seats Held by Women in National Parliament		
	1990	2000	2012
Developing Member Economies^a	14.6	13.8	18.4
Central and West Asia^a	20.2	7.1	19.8
Afghanistan	3.7	27.3 (2006)	27.7
Armenia	35.6	3.1	8.4
Azerbaijan	12.0 (1997)	12.0	16.0
Georgia	6.8 (1997)	7.2	6.6
Kazakhstan	13.4 (1997)	10.4	24.3
Kyrgyz Republic	1.4 (1997)	1.4	23.3
Pakistan	10.1	2.3 (1999)	22.5
Tajikistan	2.8 (1997)	2.8	19.0
Turkmenistan	26.0	26.0	16.8
Uzbekistan	6.0 (1997)	6.8	22.0
East Asia^a	20.1	19.9	20.3
China, People's Rep. of	21.3	21.8	21.3
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of	2.0	3.7	14.7
Mongolia	24.9	7.9	3.9
Taipei, China
South Asia^a	6.0	7.2	18.9
Bangladesh	10.3	9.1	19.7
Bhutan	2.0	2.0	8.5
India	5.0	9.0	11.0
Maldives	6.3	6.0 (2001)	6.5
Nepal	6.1	5.9	33.2
Sri Lanka	4.9	4.9	5.8
Southeast Asia^a	10.4	14.6	17.2
Brunei Darussalam ^b
Cambodia	5.8 (1997)	8.2	20.3
Indonesia	12.4	8.0 (2001)	18.2
Lao PDR	6.3	21.2	25.0
Malaysia	5.1	10.4 (2001)	10.4
Myanmar	3.5
Philippines	9.1	12.4	22.9
Singapore	4.9	4.3	22.2
Thailand	2.8	5.6	15.8
Viet Nam	17.7	26.0	24.4
The Pacific^a	1.2	3.9	6.5
Cook Islands	6.0 (1991)	8.0 (2001)	4.2 (2011)
Fiji	4.3 (1997)	11.3	8.5 (2006)
Kiribati	-	4.9	8.7
Marshall Islands	...	3.0 (2001)	3.0
Micronesia, Fed. States of	- (1997)	-	-
Nauru	5.6	-	-
Palau	- (1997)	-	-
Papua New Guinea	-	1.8	0.9
Samoa	-	8.2	4.1
Solomon Islands	-	2.0	-
Timor-Leste	...	26.1 (2003)	32.3
Tonga	-	- (2001)	3.6
Tuvalu	7.7	-	6.7
Vanuatu	4.3	-	1.9
Developed Member Economies^a	4.0	11.9	17.0
Australia	6.1	22.4	24.7
Japan	1.4	4.6	10.8
New Zealand	14.4	29.2	32.2

a Regional aggregates are estimated using data available for the respective year headings given in the table.

b Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Sources: Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2012; for the Cook Islands: National Minimum Development Indicators Database (SPC), accessed 4 July 2012.

Table 2.8 Social Safety Nets

	30 Social Protection and Labor Rating ^a		31 Social Security Expenditure on Health (percentage of government expenditure on health) ^b			32 Government Expenditure on Social Security and Welfare (percentage of total expenditure) ^{b,c}		
	2005	2011	1995	2000	2010	1995	2000	2011
Developing Member Economies	43.5	46.7	52.6	6.5	9.4	9.4
Central and West Asia
Afghanistan	...	2.5
Armenia	...	5.0	6.0 (1996)	9.8	35.7
Azerbaijan	3.5	8.5	18.2	9.7
Georgia	...	4.5	39.2	46.0	79.7	25.0	26.3	20.8
Kazakhstan	13.7 (1996)	19.4 (1998)
Kyrgyz Republic	3.5	4.5	0.6 (1997)	10.0	67.3	19.9	10.1	15.6
Pakistan	3.0	3.5	5.2	5.8	3.8
Tajikistan ^d	3.0	3.5	0.6	12.3	12.8
Turkmenistan	6.0 (1996)	6.5	6.5
Uzbekistan	3.5	4.0
East Asia
China, People's Rep. of	64.2	57.2	64.7	1.7	4.7	10.2 (2010)
Hong Kong, China	7.3	10.1	11.2
Korea, Rep. of	79.5	77.3	78.2	7.7	15.2	22.2
Mongolia ^e	3.5	4.0	39.0	24.5	41.4	16.3	17.7	36.2
Taipei, China	23.7	25.3	23.4 (2010)
South Asia
Bangladesh	4.0	4.0	0.9	1.3	2.1
Bhutan ^f	3.5	4.0	4.7 (2002)	4.9
India	16.7	18.7 (2001)	17.4	4.5 (1999)	4.2	5.6 (2008)
Maldives ^f	3.5	3.5	1.0	3.1	2.8	7.7
Nepal	3.0	4.0	...	3.6 (2001)	4.6 (2009)	3.1	5.4	3.2
Sri Lanka	3.5	3.5	0.1	0.3	0.1	16.3	10.8	8.7
Southeast Asia
Brunei Darussalam ^g	3.7	3.6	4.8 (2004)
Cambodia	2.5	3.5	5.1	2.4	5.2
Indonesia	3.5	...	10.2	6.3	13.9
Lao PDR	3.5	3.5	0.8	1.2	5.0
Malaysia	0.4	0.7	0.7	3.5	3.7	3.6
Myanmar	1.6	3.1	1.3
Philippines	11.4	14.7	29.7	1.9	3.9	5.7
Singapore	4.0	4.8	15.6	5.0	3.5	7.7 (2010)
Thailand	7.1	9.4	10.1	3.5	5.6	6.8
Viet Nam	4.0	4.5	7.0	19.7	36.0
The Pacific
Cook Islands	4.0
Fiji	0.3	0.4	0.5 (2010)
Kiribati	3.0	3.0	2.1 (1997)	1.7	3.1 (2010)
Marshall Islands	3.0	3.0	29.2	35.0	11.2
Micronesia, Fed. States of	2.5	2.0	10.9	21.4	15.8
Nauru	...	3.5
Palau	...	4.0
Papua New Guinea	3.0	3.0	0.8	1.7	1.5 (2002)
Samoa ^f	4.0	3.5	1.1	0.3	0.6	4.0	4.5	4.3
Solomon Islands	2.0	2.5
Timor-Leste	...	3.0	8.5 (2007)	9.1
Tonga ^f	2.5	2.5	2.5	4.6	...
Tuvalu	3.5	2.5
Vanuatu ^f	2.5	3.0	0.5 (1998)	0.2	0.2 (2004)
Developed Member Economies
Australia	37.3 (1999)	36.6	33.0
Japan	82.7	84.9	87.7	36.5	36.8	47.1 (2010)
New Zealand	9.7 (2004)	10.1	38.2	39.4	36.1 (2004)

a A rating of "1" corresponds to very weak performance, and a "6" rating, to very strong performance.

b Regional aggregates are estimated using data available for the respective year headings or nearest years given in the table.

c Data refer to central government, except for the People's Republic of China, Georgia, Japan, the Kyrgyz Republic, and Tajikistan, where data refer to consolidated government or general government.

d From 2000 onward, data on social security and welfare include defense.

e Includes all social and cultural expenditures.

f These countries are not required to participate in the 2011 Country Performance Assessment (CPA) exercise. The scores from the 2010 Annual CPA exercise are reflected.

g Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Sources: *Country Performance Assessment Annual Report* (ADB 2012); Global Health Observatory Data Repository (WHO), accessed 23 May 2012; economy sources.

Table 2.9 **Good Governance and Institutions**

	33 Voice and Accountability ^a		34 Government Effectiveness ^a		35 Corruption Perceptions Index ^b	
	1996	2010	1996	2010	2010	2011
Developing Member Economies ^c	-0.2	-0.3	-0.1	-0.2	3.5	3.5
Central and West Asia ^c	-1.2	-1.2	-1.0	-0.7	2.3	2.3
Afghanistan	-1.9	-1.5	-2.3	-1.5	1.4	1.5
Armenia	-0.8	-0.9	-0.4	-0.2	2.6	2.6
Azerbaijan	-1.2	-1.3	-0.9	-0.8	2.4	2.4
Georgia	-0.4	-0.2	-0.7	0.3	3.8	4.1
Kazakhstan	-1.0	-1.1	-1.1	-0.3	2.9	2.7
Kyrgyz Republic	-1.0	-1.0	-0.4	-0.6	2.0	2.1
Pakistan	-0.7	-0.8	-0.6	-0.8	2.3	2.5
Tajikistan	-1.8	-1.4	-1.5	-0.9	2.1	2.3
Turkmenistan	-1.6	-2.0	-1.2	-1.6	1.6	1.6
Uzbekistan	-1.5	-2.0	-1.1	-0.8	1.6	1.6
East Asia ^c	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.7	5.2	5.2
China, People's Rep. of	-1.3	-1.6	-0.3	0.1	3.5	3.6
Hong Kong, China	0.3	0.6	1.3	1.7	8.4	8.4
Korea, Rep. of	0.7	0.7	0.6	1.2	5.4	5.4
Mongolia	0.3	0.0	-0.4	-0.6	2.7	2.7
Taipei, China	0.7	0.9	0.8	1.2	5.8	6.1
South Asia ^c	-0.3	-0.2	0.0	-0.2	3.2	3.2
Bangladesh	-0.1	-0.3	-0.7	-0.8	2.4	2.7
Bhutan	-0.7	-0.5	0.6	0.6	5.7	5.7
India	0.4	0.4	-0.1	-0.0	3.3	3.1
Maldives	-0.6	-0.1	0.9	-0.2	2.3	2.5
Nepal	-0.1	-0.5	-0.4	-0.8	2.2	2.2
Sri Lanka	-0.4	-0.5	-0.3	-0.2	3.2	3.3
Southeast Asia ^c	-0.5	-0.8	0.0	0.0	3.6	3.6
Brunei Darussalam ^d	-0.6	-0.7	1.0	0.9	5.5	5.2
Cambodia	-0.8	-0.9	-0.9	-0.8	2.1	2.1
Indonesia	-0.8	-0.1	-0.4	-0.2	2.8	3.0
Lao PDR	-0.9	-1.6	-0.7	-0.9	2.1	2.2
Malaysia	0.0	-0.5	0.7	1.1	4.4	4.3
Myanmar	-1.9	-2.1	-1.3	-1.7	1.4	1.5
Philippines	0.2	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	2.4	2.6
Singapore	0.3	-0.3	2.1	2.2	9.3	9.2
Thailand	0.4	-0.6	0.3	0.1	3.5	3.4
Viet Nam	-1.1	-1.4	-0.5	-0.3	2.7	2.9
The Pacific ^c	0.7	0.4	...	-0.7	3.0	3.0
Cook Islands	-0.3 (2009)	-0.3	0.1 (2000)	-0.8
Fiji	-0.1	-1.0	-0.1	-0.7
Kiribati	1.1	0.7	-0.6 (1998)	-0.9	3.2	3.1
Marshall Islands	1.3	1.1	-0.4 (1998)	-1.3
Micronesia, Fed. States of	1.0	1.0	-0.4 (1998)	-0.8
Nauru	1.0	1.0	-0.6 (2007)	-0.6
Palau	1.1	1.2	-0.6 (2008)	-0.9
Papua New Guinea	0.1	0.1	-0.3	-0.8	2.1	2.2
Samoa	0.6	0.5	0.4	-0.1	4.1	3.9
Solomon Islands	1.0	0.1	-0.9 (1998)	-0.9	2.8	2.7
Timor-Leste	0.1 (2000)	0.0	-0.8 (2002)	-1.2	2.5	2.4
Tonga	-0.1	0.3	-0.3 (1998)	-0.3	3.0	3.1
Tuvalu	1.4	0.7	0.4 (2000)	-0.5
Vanuatu	0.4	0.5	-0.4 (1998)	-0.3	3.6	3.5
Developed Member Economies ^c	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.7	8.6	8.8
Australia	1.5	1.4	1.7	1.8	8.7	8.8
Japan	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.4	7.8	8.0
New Zealand	1.7	1.5	1.9	1.9	9.3	9.5

a Presented in standard normal units of the governance indicator, ranging from -2.5 to 2.5, with higher values corresponding to better governance outcomes.

b Scores relate to perceptions of the degree of corruption and ranges from 10 (very clean) to 0 (highly corrupt).

c Regional aggregates are simple averages of individual scores of economies for the respective year headings.

d Brunei Darussalam is a regional member of ADB, but it is not classified as a developing member.

Sources: Worldwide Governance Indicators (World Bank) available at <http://info.worldbank.org/governance/wgi/index.asp>, accessed 1 June 2012; Transparency International available at <http://cpi.transparency.org/cpi2011/results/>, accessed 1 June 2012.

Definitions

The indicator definitions are the standard definitions used by the data source agencies such as Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO); Barro-Lee Educational Attainment Dataset; International Energy Agency (IEA); International Labour Organization (ILO); International Monetary Fund (IMF); International Road Federation (IRF); International Telecommunication Union (ITU); Transparency International (TI); United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF); United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO); United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD); the World Bank; and World Health Organization (WHO). The indicators are grouped according to the framework of inclusive growth indicators. In some instances, the indicators themselves, rather than their growth rates or ratios to another indicator, are defined.

Framework	Inclusive Growth Indicators	Definition
Poverty and Inequality (Income and Nonincome)		
1.1 Income Poverty and Inequality	1 Proportion of population living below the national poverty line	Percentage of the total population living below the national poverty line.
	2 Proportion of population living below \$2 a day at 2005 PPP\$	Percentage of the population living on less than \$2 a day at 2005 international prices.
	3 Ratio of income or consumption of the highest quintile to lowest quintile	Income or consumption share that accrues to the richest 20% of the population divided by the income or consumption share of the poorest 20% of the population.
1.2 Nonincome Poverty and Inequality	4 Average years of total schooling (youth and adults)	Average years of total schooling is the average years of education completed among people age 15–24 (youth) and 25 and over (adults).
	5 Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age	Percentage of children aged 0–59 months whose weight for age are less than –2 standard deviations below the median weight for age of the international reference population.
	6 Under-five mortality rate	Probability (expressed as a rate per 1,000 live births) of a child born in a specified year dying before reaching the age of five if subject to current age-specific mortality rates.
Pillar One: Growth and Expansion of Economic Opportunity		
2.1 Economic Growth and Employment	7 Growth rate of GDP per capita PPP (constant 2005 international \$)	Average annual growth rate of GDP per capita based on purchasing power parity (PPP) in constant 2005 international \$.
	8 Growth rate of average per capita income or consumption in 2005 PPP (lowest quintile, highest quintile and total)	Average annual rate of growth of mean income or consumption per person in 2005 PPP per unit time.
	9 Employment-to-population ratio	Proportion of a country's youth (aged 15 to 24 years) and working-age population (aged 15 years and over) that is employed.
	10 GDP per Person Engaged (constant 1990 PPP\$)	GDP per person engaged is a measure of labor productivity defined as output per unit of labour input Output is measured as gross domestic product (GDP), which represents the compensation for input of services from capital (including depreciation) and labour directly engaged in the production. Labour input is defined as persons employed.
2.2 Key Infrastructure Endowments	11 Number of own-account and contributing family workers per 100 wage and salaried workers	Wage and salaried workers (employees) are those workers who hold the type of jobs defined as "paid employment jobs," where the incumbents hold explicit (written or oral) or implicit employment contracts that give them a basic remuneration that is not directly dependent upon the revenue of the unit for which they work. Own-account workers are those workers who, working on their own account or with one or more partners, hold the type of jobs defined as a "self-employment jobs" (i.e. jobs where the remuneration is directly dependent upon the profits derived from the goods and services produced), and have not engaged on a continuous basis any employees to work for them. Contributing family workers are those workers who hold "self-employment jobs" as own-account workers in a market-oriented establishment operated by a related person living in the same household.
	12 Per capita consumption of electricity	Electric power consumption measures the production of power plants and combined heat and power plants less transmission, distribution, and transformation losses and own use by heat and power plants.
	13 Percentage of paved roads	Percentage of paved roads to total roads. Paved roads surfaced with crushed stone (macadam) and hydrocarbon binder or bituminized agents, with concrete or with cobblestones.
	14 Number of cellular phone subscriptions per 100 people	A mobile cellular telephone subscription refers to the subscription to a public mobile cellular telephone service which provides access to the Public Switched Telephone Network (PSTN) using cellular technology. It includes postpaid and prepaid subscriptions and analogue and digital cellular systems. This should also include subscriptions to IMT-2000 (Third Generation, 3G) networks.

	15 Depositors with commercial banks per 1,000 adults	The total number of deposit account holders that are resident nonfinancial corporations (public and private) and households in commercial banks. Commercial banks comprise of resident commercial banks and other banks functioning as commercial banks that meet the definition of other depository corporations (ODCs). For many reporting countries, however, data cover the total number of accounts due to lack of information on account holders.
Pillar Two: Social Inclusion to Ensure Equal Access to Economic Opportunity		
3.1 Access and Inputs to Education and Health	16 School life expectancy (primary to tertiary)	The total number of years of schooling that a child of a certain age can expect to receive, assuming that the probability of his or her being enrolled in school at any particular age is equal to the current enrollment ratio for that age.
	17 Pupil-teacher ratio (primary)	Average number of pupils (students) per teacher at the primary level of education in a given school year.
	18 Diphtheria, tetanus toxoid, and pertussis (DTP3) immunization coverage among 1-year-olds	Child immunization measures the percentage of children aged 12–23 months who received vaccinations before 12 months or at any time before the survey. A child is considered adequately immunized against diphtheria, pertussis (or whooping cough), and tetanus (DTP) after receiving three doses of vaccine.
	19 Physicians, nurses, and midwives per 10,000 population	Number of medical doctors (physicians), including generalist and specialist medical practitioners, nursing, and midwifery personnel per 10,000 population
	20 Government expenditure on education as a percentage of total government expenditure	Government expenditure on education (consists of expenditure by government to provide education services at all levels) expressed as a percentage of total government expenditure.
3.2 Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services	21 Government expenditure on health as a percentage of total government expenditure	Government expenditure on health (consists of expenditure by government to provide medical products, appliances, and equipment; outpatient services; hospital services; public health services; among others) expressed as a percentage of total government expenditure.
	22 Percentage of population with access to electricity	Number of people with access to electricity as a percentage of total population.
	23 Share of population using solid fuels for cooking	Percentage of the population that relies on solid fuels as the primary source of domestic energy for cooking purposes only. Solid fuels include biomass fuels, such as wood, charcoal, agricultural residues, dung, and coal.
	24 Percentage of population using improved drinking water sources	Percentage of the population using improved drinking water sources (including household water connection, public standpipe, borehole, protected dug well, protected spring, rainwater collection, and bottled water).
	25 Percentage of population using improved sanitation facilities	Percentage of the population with access to facilities that hygienically separate human excreta from human contact. Improved facilities include flush/pour flush toilets or latrines connected to a sewer, septic tank, or pit, ventilated improved pit latrines, pit latrines with a slab or platform of any material that covers the pit entirely, except for the drop hole and composting toilets/latrines.
3.3 Gender Equality and Opportunity	26 Gender parity in primary, secondary, and tertiary education	Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary, and tertiary education is the ratio of the number of female students enrolled at primary, secondary, and tertiary levels of education to the number of male students in each level. To standardize the effects of the population structure of the appropriate age groups, the gender parity index of the gross enrollment ratio for each level of education is used.
	27 Antenatal care coverage (at least one visit and at least four visits)	For coverage of at least one visit—refers to the percentage of women aged 15–49 years with a live birth in a given time period that received antenatal care provided by skilled health personnel (doctors, nurses, or midwives) at least once during pregnancy, as a percentage of women aged 15–49 years with a live birth in a given time period. For coverage of at least four visits—refers to the percentage of women aged 15–49 years with a live birth in a given time period that received antenatal care four or more times from any provider (skilled or unskilled) as a percentage of women age 15–49 years with a live birth in a given time period.
	28 Gender parity in labor force participation	Ratio of the labor force participation rate of female to male. Labor force participation rate is the percentage of the labor force to the working-age population. The labor force is the sum of those in employment and persons who are without paid employment but who are seeking it.
	29 Percentage of seats held by women in national parliament	Number of seats held by women members in single or lower chambers of national parliaments, expressed as a percentage of all occupied seats.
Pillar Three: Social Safety Nets		
	30 Social protection and labor rating	Social protection and labor assess government policies in social protection and labor market regulations that reduce the risk of becoming poor, assist those who are poor to better manage further risks, and ensure a minimal level of welfare to all people. A rating of “1” corresponds to very weak performance, and a “6” rating, to very strong performance.
	31 Social security expenditure on health as a percentage of government expenditure on health	Level of social security funds expressed as a percentage of general government expenditure on health.
	32 Government expenditure on social security and welfare as a percentage of total government expenditure	Government expenditure on social security and welfare (consists of expenditure by government to provide benefits in cash or in kind to persons who are sick, fully or partially disabled, of old age, survivors, or unemployed, among others) expressed as a percentage of total government expenditure.
Good Governance and Institutions		
	33 Voice and accountability	Perceptions of the extent to which a country’s citizens are able to participate in selecting their government, as well as freedom of expression, freedom of association, and a free media. Scores presented in standard normal units of the governance indicator, ranging from –2.5 to 2.5 with higher values corresponding to better governance outcomes.

	34 Government effectiveness	<p>Perceptions of the quality of public services, the quality of the civil service and the degree of its independence from political pressures, the quality of policy formulation and implementation, and the credibility of the government's commitment to such policies.</p> <p>Scores presented in standard normal units of the governance indicator, ranging from -2.5 to 2.5 with higher values corresponding to better governance outcomes.</p>
	35 Corruption Perceptions Index	<p>The Corruption Perceptions Index of Transparency International ranks countries in terms of the degree to which corruption is perceived to exist among public officials and politicians. Corruption is defined as the abuse of public office for private gain. The index is a composite index drawing on corruption-related data from expert and business surveys carried out by a variety of independent and reputable institutions. The index reflects views from around the world, including those of experts who are living in the countries evaluated.</p> <p>Score relates to perceptions of the degree of corruption as seen by business people and country analysts, and ranges between 10 (very clean) and 0 (highly corrupt).</p>