

ADB

Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators 2013

Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific

SPECIAL SUPPLEMENT

3rd Edition



Asian Development Bank



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Asian Development Bank
6 ADB Avenue, Mandaluyong City
1550 Metro Manila, Philippines
Tel +63 2 632 4444
Fax +63 2 636 2444
www.adb.org

Foreword

The Asia and Pacific region has experienced the fastest growth in the world in recent decades, and has continued to lead global growth despite a slowdown in developed economies since 2008. Yet, evidence on growing disparities in income and nonincome outcomes and access to opportunity has caused concern, making inclusive growth a priority for developing Asia.

The *Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators 2013 (FIGI 2013)* is the 3rd edition of the special supplement to the annual publication *Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific* of the Asian Development Bank (ADB). The 1st edition of FIGI proposed the framework of 35 indicators as quantitative measures of income and nonincome poverty and inequality outcomes, the three policy pillars of inclusive growth, and good governance and institutions. The 2nd edition analyzed the state of inclusiveness of growth in developing Asia vis-a-vis other developing regions of the world, as well as the associations between indicators of poverty and inequality outcomes and indicators of the policy pillars and good governance.

The two decades—1990s and 2000s—saw big challenges for the region, which, combined with a series of financial crises and other internal factors and policies, have impacted the region's social and economic progress. Part I of *FIGI 2013* provides a comparative analysis of the improvements achieved by economies in developing Asia based on progress in the 2 decades of the 1990s and the 2000s as measured using an improvement index proposed by Kakwani (1993) and 20 selected indicators of FIGI. It also assesses whether the improvements in the 2000s accelerated over the improvements in the 1990s. Part II contains the updated statistical tables for 35 FIGI indicators for ADB's regional member economies with brief analysis of trends, disaggregated by wealth quintiles, rural–urban, and sex wherever data are available.

FIGI 2013 was prepared by ADB's Development Indicators and Policy Research Division of the Economics and Research Department under the overall guidance and supervision of Douglas Brooks. Kaushal Joshi, assisted by Melissa Pascua, coordinated the overall production. A draft for Part I of the publication was initially prepared by Joseph Anthony Lim. Kaushal Joshi led the process of finalizing Part I. Criselda De Dios and Kristine Faith Agtarap provided data support for Part I and Part II and prepared the brief analysis of trends in Part II together with Melissa Pascua. Ma. Theresa Mercado provided manuscript and copyediting services. Cover design and typesetting was carried out by Rhommell Rico.

We are also grateful to the national and international agencies that are sources for the data used in the publication. The publication would not have been possible without the cooperation of ADB's Department of External Relations and the Logistics Management Unit of the Office of the Administrative Services. We hope that this publication will contribute to highlighting the importance of measuring inclusive growth and the need for filling data gaps for monitoring progress.



Changyong Rhee
Chief Economist

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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
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Data Sources

The data in part I and part II of the publication are mainly sourced 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.

Statistical Tables and Regional Aggregates

In part I, summary tables on improvement indexes of the 45 economies of developing Asia during the 1990s and 2000s on selected indicators of FIGI are presented. In part II of the publication, data on 35 indicators of inclusive growth for 48 regional member economies of the Asian Development Bank (ADB) are presented in 9 statistical tables. The 48 economies in the tables are broadly grouped into 45 developing members and 3 developed members—Australia, Japan, and New Zealand. The term “developing Asia” often used in the publication refers to the 45 regional developing members of ADB. The five regions of developing Asia are based on ADB’s regional operations as presented in the statistical tables in part II. Economies are listed alphabetically within each group. 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.

Data on regional aggregates presented in part II are either sourced from the international agencies that produce data for concerned indicators or are estimated as weighted averages unless otherwise stated. The statistics in the tables for each indicator in part II are usually presented for two data points between 1990 and 2012. These are often referred to as the earliest year (usually a year between 1990 and 2000) and latest year (usually any year closest to 2012) depending on available data. Similarly, the charts often present data with the time periods specified as the “earliest year” and the “latest year”. This is because the years for which data are available vary widely across countries. The actual years which the data relate to are indicated in the tables that are used as sources for the charts.

Indicator 35 (Corruption Perceptions Index or CPI) sourced from the Transparency International served as a measure of corruption in the good governance and institutions part of the previous editions of FIGI. This was replaced by the “Control of Corruption”—an indicator sourced from the World Bank’s Worldwide Governance Indicators. This is due to changes in the methodology of CPI by Transparency International from 2012 onward rendering the 2012 values of CPI not comparable with earlier years. The country scores in CPI 2012 range from 100 (very clean) to 0 (highly corrupt), and cannot be compared to those from 2011 or previous years, which range from 10 (very clean) to 0 (highly corrupt).

Abbreviations and Acronyms

ADB	Asian Development Bank
AFG	Afghanistan
ARM	Armenia
AUS	Australia
AZE	Azerbaijan
BAN	Bangladesh
BHU	Bhutan
BRU	Brunei Darussalam
CAM	Cambodia
COO	Cook Islands
CPA	country performance assessment
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DTP3	diphtheria, tetanus toxoid, and pertussis
FIGI	Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicator
FIJ	Fiji
FSM	Federated States of Micronesia
GDP	gross domestic product
GEO	Georgia
GHO	Global Health Observatory
HKG	Hong Kong, China
ICT	information and communication technology
IDA	International Development Association
IEA	International Energy Agency
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IND	India
INO	Indonesia
ITU	International Telecommunication Union
JPN	Japan
KAZ	Kazakhstan
KGZ	Kyrgyz Republic
KI	Key Indicators
KIR	Kiribati
KOR	Republic of Korea
LAO	Lao People's Democratic Republic
Lao PDR	Lao People's Democratic Republic
MAL	Malaysia
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MLD	Maldives
MON	Mongolia
MYA	Myanmar
NAU	Nauru
NEP	Nepal
NZL	New Zealand
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PAK	Pakistan

PAL	Palau
PHI	Philippines
PNG	Papua New Guinea
PPP	purchasing power parity
PRC	People's Republic of China
RMI	Republic of Marshall Islands
SAM	Samoa
SIN	Singapore
SLE	school life expectancy
SOL	Solomon Islands
SPC	Secretariat of the Pacific Community
SRI	Sri Lanka
TAJ	Tajikistan
TAP	Taipei, China
THA	Thailand
TIM	Timor-Leste
TKM	Turkmenistan
TON	Tonga
TUV	Tuvalu
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNSD	United Nations Statistics Division
UZB	Uzbekistan
VAN	Vanuatu
VIE	Viet Nam
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 of the Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators

The Asia and Pacific region has experienced the fastest growth in the world in recent decades, and has continued to lead global growth despite slowdown or recession in developed economies since 2008. Yet evidence about growing disparities in income and nonincome outcomes and access to opportunity has caused concern, making inclusive growth a priority for developing Asia.

The publication *Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators* (FIGI), launched in 2011, presented a framework of 35 indicators where poverty and inequality outcomes of inclusive growth are measured by three income- and three nonincome-related indicators for assessing progress on income as well as nonincome poverty. The poverty and inequality outcomes are to be achieved through three policy pillars that promote: (i) sustained high growth and creation of productive jobs and economic opportunity, (ii) social inclusion to ensure equal access to economic opportunity by increasing human capabilities, and (iii) 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 in turn are measured by another set of three indicators.

The 2 decades—1990s and 2000s—also saw big challenges for the Asian region. In the early 1990s, economic growth declined in most economies in Central and West Asia; and in the latter part of the 1990s, financial crisis hit growth in many East Asian economies. In the 2000s—the dot-com recession in the early 2000s and a more severe financial crisis since 2008 adversely affected many exporting economies in Asia. The series of challenging crises as well as internal factors and policies have impacted the social and economic progress in economies of developing Asia over the 2 decades.

FIGI 2013 has two parts. Part I attempts to trace how economies of developing Asia have progressed in each of the 2 decades of the 1990s and 2000s in 20 selected indicators of FIGI based on improvement indexes for each decade, and to see if the improvements in the 2000s accelerated over the improvements in the 1990s. Part II contains updated statistical tables and short commentaries for trends in 35 FIGI indicators for the regional economies in Asia.

Part I. A Progress Assessment of the 1990s and 2000s in Developing Asia

The main objective of Part I is to assess the improvements in the performance of developing Asia on 20 selected indicators of FIGI in the 1990s and 2000s and to see if the improvements in the 2000s accelerated over those in the 1990s. This is partially inspired by the Millennium Development Goals (MDG), where most countries agreed to improve their social and economic conditions significantly by 2015. However, the FIGI is not an assessment of the MDGs.

Methodology and Data

- Improvement indexes using the Kakwani (1993) method were used to analyze the progress in the 2 decades using 20 selected indicators of FIGI for economies of developing Asia with sufficient data points. The methodology allows the variables to be converted into unit-free indexes. This methodology also adjusts for efforts needed to further improve the performance of an indicator as the indicator approaches its highest possible level. A positive improvement index denotes a real positive improvement in the indicator while a negative index denotes deterioration in the indicator.
- Three data points—one in the early 1990s, the second as close as possible to 2000, and a third as close to 2010 as possible—were selected to measure improvement indexes for 2 decades for each indicator.
- An acceleration in the improvement index is defined as at least a 5% increase in the value of

the improvement index in the 2000s from the 1990s. A deceleration is a decline in the value of the improvement index by at least 5%. The rate of progress is considered maintained if the value of the improvement index of the 2000s is within +/- 5% of the improvement index of the 1990s.

Progress in the 2 decades has been positive for most indicators in most economies of developing Asia

- Progress achieved in the 2 decades differs among economies and regions. No country performed well in all indicators in both decades, but clearly, economies have achieved improvements in a far greater number of indicators than deteriorations in both decades.
- Thirty economies had more number of indicators with positive improvement indexes in the 2000s than in the 1990s—with another 5 economies having the same number of indicators with positive improvement indexes as in the 1990s. Major improvements in the 2000s over the 1990s (more than one-fourth additional indicators having positive improvement indexes) were achieved by Afghanistan; Azerbaijan; Bangladesh; Bhutan; Georgia; Hong Kong, China; the Kyrgyz Republic; Nauru; Timor-Leste; Tonga; and Tuvalu.

Most indicators exhibited accelerations in the improvement indexes in the 2000s

- There were more accelerations than decelerations in the improvement indexes in the 2000s, reflecting a faster rate of progress for most indicators in the 2000s than in the 1990s.
- All economies (except Sri Lanka) that were classified as low-income countries in the World Bank's 1990 classification either accelerated or maintained progress for at least two-thirds of the indicators in the 2000s. Notable (with at least three-fourths of indicators accelerating in the 2000s) among these low-income countries were Bangladesh, Bhutan, the People's Republic of China (the PRC), India, Indonesia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR), the Maldives, Nepal, and Timor-Leste.

The indicators of poverty outcomes and policy pillars of inclusive growth show better performance in the 2000s compared with those in the 1990s

- Out of the four outcome indicators, consistently good performance has been achieved for poverty measured by the per capita \$2-a-day at 2005 purchasing power parity [PPP] international poverty line, under-five mortality rate, and average years of total schooling.
- Despite financial crises, a majority of the countries in the Asia and Pacific region were able to reduce poverty, especially during the 2000s. Eighteen countries accelerated their rates of poverty reduction in the 2000s from the 1990s.
- Consistent progress in increasing average years of total schooling for adults is clearly seen in the positive improvement indexes for both decades with a few exceptions. Along with this, consistent progress in reducing child mortality in all economies with accelerations in the 2000s in a number of them bodes well for healthier children and a productive workforce in the future.
- Among poverty and inequality indicators, available data from a limited set of 14 economies on the ratio of income or consumption share of highest quintile to the lowest quintile shows an increase in income gaps in half of them, which includes the PRC with a negative improvement index in each decade, and Indonesia where the improvement index turned negative in the 2000s. Pakistan had a positive index in both decades and Bangladesh reversed the negative rate of the 1990s into a positive one in the 2000s. Growing income inequality warrants much greater attention.
- Among the indicators of policy pillar 1 (economic growth and employment)—improvements in per capita gross domestic product (GDP), electricity consumption, and cellular phone subscriptions have been remarkable in both decades, with accelerations in the 2000s for many. While the economies in Central and West Asia had declining per capita incomes in the 1990s accompanied by a

fall in per capita consumption of electricity, most bounced back in the 2000s, with higher per capita income growth. Youth employment-to-population ratios show consistent declines in both decades, with even faster declines in the 2000s in some cases.

- Among the indicators of policy pillar 2 (social inclusion for equal access), significant gains have been made in the 2 decades in improving school life expectancy (except in Central and West Asian economies during the 1990s, which witnessed a fall in school life expectancy) with many accelerations in the 2000s. Most economies also successfully reduced pupil–teacher ratios with accelerated rates in 22 economies in the 2000s.
- Gender parity in primary education has improved significantly in the 2 decades, but gender parity in labor force participation has shown deterioration in many economies particularly in the 2000s. This included the two most populous economies of the PRC and India. This threatens to distort the composition of the labor force and inclusiveness of growth by reducing women’s chances for gainful employment.
- Progress has been noteworthy in improving access to clean drinking water sources, including in the rural areas in almost all economies in both the 1990s and the 2000s. Similar trends of positive improvement indexes are seen for access to safe sanitation but at a much slower pace than for drinking water. Three-fourths of the countries have accelerated improvements in the 2000s in providing access to an improved drinking water source and to an improved sanitation facility.
- The indicator on pillar 3 (social safety nets) suggests some improvements in social security expenditures on health by governments.
- Lastly, negative improvement indexes for indicators of voice and accountability and/or government effectiveness in many economies of developing Asia in the 2 decades point to the need for improved governance and more accountable institutions. This might be one of the most persistent challenges toward more inclusive growth in the region.

Conclusions

Some key conclusions observed from the improvement indexes in the 2 decades are the following:

- Economic growth, poverty reduction, electricity consumption, and school life expectancy appear to move together; and improvements in health (as indicated by consistent reductions in the child mortality rates), and improvements in infrastructure of sanitation and drinking water appear to have taken place irrespective of the pace of economic growth. This was evident mostly in the Central and West Asian economies when these countries faced recession in the 1990s and then recovered in the 2000s.
- Countries that have successfully reduced poverty but have witnessed increasing income inequality will need policies especially designed to expand job opportunities and access to social services and infrastructure for regions and populations that are left behind to promote inclusive growth.
- Further, for an economic growth that provides equal opportunities to all, innovative policies and approaches will be needed. For example, cellular phones have immense benefits for low-income groups and remotely-located populations. Thus programs that can empower the poor and marginalized populations through access to mobile phones, for example, should be promoted.
- Women and youth constitute a large share of productive human resources. Falling youth employment-to-population ratio and a decline of women’s participation in the labor force invite policy attention and require innovative inclusive policies that will fully utilize the productive potential of women and youth, sustain economic growth, and reduce income inequality.
- To implement inclusive policies successfully and to achieve their intended objectives, government effectiveness and institutions will have to be strengthened in most of Asia.

- Finally, significant efforts are needed to give high priority to improve availability of timely data on various indicators by important disaggregations to monitor progress on inclusive growth.

Part II. Trends and Disparities within Economies in Developing Asia

Part II provides a glimpse of general trends in FIGI indicators with a focus on the disparities on account of wealth, residence (rural–urban), or sex whenever such disaggregated statistics are available. It supplements the analysis in Part I, which is mainly focused on improvements in country-level indicators. Highlights following the FIGI structure are given below.

Poverty and Inequality Outcomes

- Poverty as measured by the \$2-a-day (2005 PPP) international poverty line declined in almost all economies of developing Asia, bringing down the proportion of poor below the poverty line from 81% in 1990 to 46% in 2010. But the ratio of the share of income or consumption of the highest quintile to lowest quintile worsened in 16 of the 33 economies for which data are available between the earliest and latest years in the last 2 decades. These include four of the five most populous economies of developing Asia—constituting nearly 80% of its total population.
- In the PRC, India, and Indonesia—where data on rural and urban poverty rates for \$2-a-day (2005 PPP) poverty are available—wide rural–urban income gaps are evident. Latest rural poverty rates in these economies were 45.8%, 73.5% and 49.0% respectively, while corresponding urban poverty rates were much lower at 3.5%, 57.6%, and 43.6%, respectively.
- Faster progress has been noted for the average years of total schooling for young females compared to young males in developing Asia between 1990 and 2010—reducing the aggregate gap to only 0.3 years in 2010.
- Unequal wealth distribution and rural–urban residence is a reason for unequal outcomes in children’s nutritional status. Latest survey data suggest that in 19 of 29 economies in developing Asia, a child in the poorest quintile is at least twice as likely to be underweight as a child in the richest quintile.
- Similar disparities are observed in under-five mortality rates. In eight economies, chances of under-five deaths for children in the poorest households were at least three times as high as those from the richest households.

Policy Pillar One: Growth and Expansion of Economic Opportunity

- Developing Asia experienced 6.0% average annual growth in GDP per capita (constant 2005 PPP\$) for 2007–2012. This is much lower than the 7.8% growth noted for 2002–2007, reflecting the adverse impact of the economic slowdown in the developed economies in recent years.
- Large work force in economies of developing Asia is employed as own-account and contributing family workers (or vulnerable employment). There has been a slow decline in the share of vulnerable workers vis-à-vis wage and salaried workers. However, women continue to be more likely to be in vulnerable jobs than men.
- Household income or consumption surveys conducted mostly between 1998 and 2012 also show that in 12 out of 20 economies, average annual per capita income or consumption (in 2005 PPP\$) grew at a faster rate among households in the lowest quintile than among households in the highest quintile. Data from similar surveys for earlier years in the 1990s for 20 economies show that in only six of them has the per capita income or consumption grown at a faster rate for lowest-quintile households.
- While electricity consumption per capita had more than tripled from 1990 to around 2010, wide

disparities exist across economies, as the electricity consumption per capita is as low as 64 kilowatt-hour (kWh) in Afghanistan but as high as 10,356 kWh in Taipei, China. Cellular phone subscriptions increased to nearly 82 per 100 people in developing Asia, but were below 20 per 100 people in Kiribati, Myanmar, and the Marshall Islands.

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

- Good performance is noted for school life expectancy, and gender disparities also narrowed from 1.1 years in 1999 to 0.3 years in 2011. The pupil–teacher ratio improved to 25 in 2011 from a ratio of 28 in 1990, though in some economies like Afghanistan and Cambodia, the ratio worsened (increased in absolute value) due to more students enrolling but teachers' recruitment not keeping pace.
- DTP3 immunization coverage improved, though slowly from 79% in 1990 to 83% in 2011. Immunization coverage rates in urban areas were at least 1.3 times the rural coverage rates in Afghanistan (1.4), Azerbaijan (1.8), India (1.4), the Lao PDR (1.4), the Marshall Islands (3.2), and Pakistan (1.3). Children in the richest quintile for eight economies—the Kyrgyz Republic (2.9), Azerbaijan (2.7), India (2.4), Pakistan (2.2), the Lao PDR (2.0), Afghanistan (1.9), the Marshall Islands (1.9), and Indonesia (1.8)—were more than 1.5 times as likely to be immunized as the children in the poorest quintile.
- About 48% of the world's 1.27 billion people without access to electricity are in developing Asia. Wide rural–urban disparities also exist. The ratios of urban-to-rural access were 1.5 or more in 9 countries with ratios as high as 3.1 (Myanmar), 4.1 (Timor-Leste), and 5.7 (Cambodia). Solid fuels are the dominant source of cooking fuel in rural areas in poorer economies and out of the nearly 1.97 billion population in developing Asia who depend on solid fuels for cooking, 1.79 billion are in rural areas.

- Economies in developing Asia have made good progress in providing their populations with access to safe drinking water for both urban and rural areas, thus bridging the rural–urban gap. However, for sanitation facilities, nearly 45% of people in developing Asia still use unimproved sanitation despite the nearly doubling of access rates from 28% in 1990 to 55% by 2011. Further, only 44% of the rural population had access to improved sanitation as compared to 72% of the urban population in 2011, and out of 1.67 billion people without access to improved sanitation in developing Asia, nearly 1.24 billion lived in rural areas.
- Developing Asia had made good progress in narrowing the gender gap in all levels of education. However, gender parity in labor force participation persists in most economies and has worsened over time. Also, women continue to be grossly underrepresented in politics, particularly in the national parliaments, with only about 19.3% of seats occupied by women.

Policy Pillar Three: Social Safety Nets

- Social protection and labor ratings in 2012 ranged from very strong performance of 5.0 in Armenia and the Kyrgyz Republic to as weak as 2.0 in the Federated States of Micronesia on a scale of 1 to 6.
- Government expenditure on social security and welfare as a share of total government expenditure shows an increasing trend, but still remains low in many economies. In 2012 (or latest year), 11 of the 28 reporting economies had shares less than or equal to 5%.

Good Governance and Institutions

- In general, about two-thirds of the economies in developing Asia in 2011 had scores lower than the global average on three indicators of good governance and institutions. There is still room for improvement for increasing public participation, improving the quality of public and civil service, and controlling corruption.

PART I

A Progress Assessment of the 1990s and 2000s in Developing Asia



1. Introduction

The Asia and Pacific region has experienced the fastest growth in the world in recent decades, despite the developed economies' recession in recent years. However, this growth has been uneven across the region. Many Asia and Pacific economies are experiencing rising disparities in income and nonincome outcomes, and both policy makers and development partners are concerned about sustained and inclusive growth (Zhuang and Ali 2010; ADB 2012a, ADB 2011b, ADB 2012c).

Inclusive growth, defined as economic growth with equality of opportunity, is one of the three strategic objectives of the Asian Development Bank (ADB) as explained in its Strategy 2020 (ADB 2008). The first two editions of the *Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators 2011* and *2012* (*FIGI 2011* and *FIGI 2012*)—special supplements to the *Key Indicators (KI) for Asia and the Pacific 2011* and *2012*—presented and analyzed a detailed structure of indicators of inclusive growth (Table 1.1).

The FIGI consists of 35 indicators. The outcomes of inclusive growth are measured by indicators of income and nonincome poverty. These outcomes are achieved through three policy pillars of (i) sustained economic growth and development of productive jobs and economic opportunities, (ii) social inclusion to ensure equal access to economic opportunity by expanding human capacities, and (iii) social safety nets to protect the chronically poor and to address the risks and vulnerabilities of the population. Each of these pillars is described by a set of quantitative indicators, all of which should be supported by good governance and institutions, again measured by a set of indicators. *FIGI 2012* showed significant correlations between the outcome indicators and many indicators of the policy pillars.

Beginning 1990 until 2010, the Asia and Pacific region successfully achieved the Millennium

Development Goal (MDG) of reducing extreme poverty (less than \$1.25-a-day in 2005 purchasing power parity [PPP] terms) by half, 5 years ahead of the target year 2015. The average per capita income (constant 2005 PPP\$) grew at an annual rate of 5.8% between 1990 and 2010. However, the 2 decades—1990s and 2000s—also saw big challenges for the region. In the early 1990s, economic growth declined in most countries in Central and West Asia after the collapse of the former Soviet Union. In the latter part of the same decade, rising economies of East Asia were struck by a significant financial crisis that hit growth in a number of countries. In the 2000s, two global recessions—the dot-com recession in the early 2000s and a more severe financial crisis toward the latter part of the decade—adversely affected many exporting economies in Asia. Nevertheless, in aggregate, the economies of developing Asia recovered well from the crises of the 1990s and have performed better than other regions in the recent period of volatility in the global economy.

The series of crises as well as internal factors and policies have impacted social and economic progress in the 2 decades in economies of developing Asia. *FIGI 2013*, a special supplement to *KI 2013*, attempts to trace how economies of developing Asia have progressed in each of the 2 decades of 1990s and 2000s using selected indicators of FIGI. This is also partly inspired by the MDG initiative that began in the early 2000s—with countries globally adopting the MDGs and targets to improve their social and economic conditions significantly by 2015. However, the FIGI is not an assessment of the performance of the countries toward their MDG goals.

This chapter is divided into six sections, including the introductory first section. The second section explains the methodology, data used, and limitations of the study. Sections 3, 4, and 5 summarize the results of the comparative analysis of the improvements achieved by economies of developing Asia in the decades of 1990s and 2000s based on the improvement indexes calculated for selected indicators across pillars of FIGI. Section 6 presents conclusions.

Table 1.1 Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators*

Poverty and Inequality		
Income <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 Proportion of population living below the national poverty line 2 Proportion of population living below \$2 a day at 2005 PPP\$ 3 Ratio of income or consumption of the highest quintile to lowest quintile 		Nonincome <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4 Average years of total schooling (youth and adults) 5 Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age 6 Under-five mortality rate per 1,000 live births
Pillar One Growth and Expansion of Economic Opportunity	Pillar Two Social Inclusion to Ensure Equal Access to Economic Opportunity	Pillar Three Social Safety Nets
Economic Growth and Employment <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 7 Growth rate of GDP per capita at PPP (constant 2005 PPP\$) 8 Growth rate of average per capita income or consumption 2005 PPP\$ (lowest quintile, highest quintile, and total) 9 Employment-to-population ratio 10 GDP per person engaged at constant 1990 PPP\$ 11 Number of own-account and contributing family workers per 100 wage and salaried workers Key Infrastructure Endowments <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 12 Per capita consumption of electricity 13 Percentage of paved roads 14 Number of cellular phone subscriptions per 100 people 15 Depositors with commercial banks per 1,000 adults 	Access and Inputs to Education and Health <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 16 School life expectancy (primary to tertiary) 17 Pupil-teacher ratio (primary) 18 Diphtheria, tetanus toxoid, and pertussis (DTP3) immunization coverage among 1-year-olds 19 Physicians, nurses, and midwives per 10,000 population 20 Government expenditure on education as a percentage of total government expenditure 21 Government expenditure on health as a percentage of total government expenditure Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 22 Percentage of population with access to electricity 23 Share of population using solid fuels for cooking 24 Proportion of population using an improved drinking water source 25 Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility Gender Equality and Opportunity <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 26 Gender parity in primary, secondary, and tertiary education 27 Antenatal care coverage (at least one visit and at least four visits) 28 Gender parity in labor force participation 29 Percentage of seats held by women in national parliament 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 30 Social protection and labor rating 31 Social security expenditure on health as a percentage of government expenditure on health 32 Government expenditure on social security and welfare as a percentage of total government expenditure
Good Governance and Institutions		
33 Voice and accountability	34 Government effectiveness	35 Control of corruption

GDP = gross domestic product, kWh = kilowatt-hours, 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 of inclusive growth as adapted from Zhuang and Ali (2010). Asian Development Bank.

2. The Methodology

This chapter assesses the progress of 45 economies of developing Asia during the 1990s and 2000s using 20 indicators¹ of FIGI. The aim is to assess progress in selected indicators in each of the 2 decades and compare progress in economies of developing Asia.

Kakwani's (1993) methodology is used, which allows the variables to be converted into unit-free indicators. This methodology also adjusts for efforts needed to further improve the performance of the indicators, i.e., an indicator with initially a high level of performance will take more effort to further improve than the same indicator with initially a lower level of performance. For example, reducing the child mortality rate from 100 to 90 would take less effort than reducing the same from 20 to 10. Thus, in general, achieving high performance becomes more difficult as an indicator approaches its highest possible level. This issue has been discussed in some recent studies reviewing MDG progress (Son 2013, Hailu and Tsukuda 2011, Fukuda-Parr and Greenstein 2010).

In the Kakwani method, an achievement index for the indicator being considered is first defined. The selected indicators are of two types:

First, indicators where a higher value indicates higher achievement (e.g., percentage of population using an improved sanitation facility) and where for such an indicator x , the formula for achievement index is:

$$f(x, U, L) = (\ln(U - L) - \ln(U - x)) / \ln(U - L),$$

For the second type of indicators, where a lower value indicates higher achievement (e.g., under-five mortality rate), the formula for achievement index is:

$$f(x, U, L) = ((\ln(U - L) - \ln(x - L)) / \ln(U - L))$$

where U is highest possible value and L is the lowest possible value of indicator, x is the value of the indicator, and \ln is the natural logarithm.

Then the improvement index (or progress) between two periods t_1 and t_2 is given by:

$$F(x_1, x_2, U, L) = (f(x_2, U, L) - f(x_1, U, L)) / (t_2 - t_1)$$

where x_2 is the value of the indicator in the end period t_2 and x_1 is the value in the beginning period t_1 .

A positive improvement index for both kinds of indicators as calculated above denotes a real positive improvement in the achievement of the indicator between two points in time, and a negative value denotes a deterioration. For each indicator, a higher positive number denotes a better performance while a more negative number means worse performance.

Data for the FIGI indicators are drawn from standard databases of UN agencies, other international organizations, and country sources. For each country and indicator, data for three years—an earliest year closest to 1990, a middle year closest to 2000, and a third year closest to 2010—were used. Thus for each selected indicator, only the countries with three valid data points were included in the analysis. These three data points allowed the calculation of the improvement indexes for each selected indicator for the 2 decades.

Limitations. Incomplete data and disparities among the countries in terms of availability of data are among the limitations encountered in the study. Thus, only 20 indicators among the 35 indicators of FIGI were utilized. Because of incomplete data, the number of indicators selected across countries is also disparate. Thus, some indicators would have almost complete data for countries while others would have fewer countries represented in the indicators, which may affect the analysis and interpretation of results.

Another important limitation is that since the number of indicators is limited only to 20 indicators, the picture is not complete. The indicators selected for the pillars, for example, lack some vital indicators. With these limitations in mind, the performance of the economies of developing Asia in the 1990s and 2000s is depicted using the aforementioned methodology.

Finally, because of space limitation, each country's performance in each indicator could not be shown, which would otherwise be helpful in giving insights into the diverse performances of the countries. Results for

1 Only 20 indicators among the 35 indicators of FIGI were used due to incomplete data and disparities among the countries in terms of availability of data.

improvement indexes of the countries for each indicator, and the performance of each country in the selected indicators for which data are available are summarized in the following sections.

3. Performance of Economies in the Selected Indicators

The performance of economies on the selected indicators is observed based on the improvement indexes of the 2 decades. In this section, some indicators are accompanied by graphs that plot improvement indexes for the indicator to depict country performance.

Table 1.2 summarizes the performance of economies of developing Asia based on the improvement indexes for the selected indicators in the 1990s and 2000s. A positive improvement index implies progress in the performance of the indicator between two points in time, while a negative value implies a deterioration. To compare progress measured in terms of improvement indexes in the 2 decades, Table 1.2 also summarizes the countries that accelerated, decelerated, or maintained their progress in the 2000s compared with progress during the 1990s. An acceleration in the progress is defined as at least a 5% increase in the value of improvement index in the 2000s from the 1990s. A deceleration is a decline in the value of improvement index by at least 5%. Progress is considered maintained if the value of improvement index of the 2000s is within $\pm 5\%$ of the improvement index of the 1990s. If the improvement index of the 1990s is negative, a fall in its negative value in the 2000s of at least 5% would be an acceleration, and an increase in the negative value (an increase in absolute value) of at least 5% would be a deceleration.

The next subsections discuss the performance of selected indicators following the structure of FIGI.

3.1 Poverty and Inequality

Proportion of Population Living below \$2-a-Day at 2005 PPP\$

As shown by positive improvement indexes, the proportion of the population living below the \$2-a-day

at 2005 PPP international poverty line shows that most countries improved during the 2 decades of 1990s and 2000s, except for the Central Asian economies during the 1990s, which suffered severe economic decline following the dissolution of the former Soviet Union, for Malaysia that suffered from financial crisis, and for Pacific economies of the Federated States of Micronesia and Papua New Guinea in the 2000s. The Central Asian economies recovered in the 2000s and so did Malaysia. Thus, despite the financial crises, a majority of the countries in the Asia and Pacific region were able to reduce poverty in the 2 decades and further accelerated especially in the 2000s. Out of the 23 economies included for this indicator, 18 were able to reduce poverty in the 1990s and 21 in the 2000s. Eighteen countries accelerated their rates of poverty reduction in the 2000s from the 1990s, while 5 decelerated.

Figure 1.1 plots the improvement indexes for \$2 poverty for 23 economies for the 2 decades. Because of outliers, the countries are clustered in the middle, but most of the countries in the first quadrant accelerated their poverty reduction in the 2000s.

Figure 1.1 Improvement Indexes for the Proportion of Population Living below \$2 a day at 2005 PPP\$, 1990s, 2000s



PPP = purchasing power parity.

Note: Data points used are all consumption-based except for the Federated States of Micronesia and Malaysia, which are income-based. Data for the People's Republic of China, India, and Indonesia combine the urban and rural distributions, weighted by share of rural and urban population to total population. Data for the Federated States of Micronesia refer to urban population.

Sources: Authors' calculations based on data from PovcalNet Database Online (World Bank), accessed 13 May 2013; World Development Indicators Online (World Bank), accessed 19 April 2013.

Indicator	1990s				2000s			No. of economies by progress in the 2000s		
	No. of economies with positive index	No. of economies with negative or zero index	No. of economies with positive index	No. of economies with negative or zero index	No. of economies with positive index	No. of economies with negative or zero index	No. of economies with positive index	Accelerated	Maintained	Decelerated
Poverty and Inequality										
1.1 Income										
1.1.1 Proportion of population living below \$2 a day at 2005 PPP ^a	23	18	5	21	2	18	5			
1.1.2 Ratio of income or consumption of the highest quintile to lowest quintile	14	7	7	7	7	8	6			
1.2 Nonincome										
1.2.1 Average years of total schooling, adults (aged 25 years and over)	30	29	1	27	3	12	16			
1.2.2 Under-five mortality rate per 1,000 live births	43	42	1	42	1	16	9			
Pillar One: Growth and Expansion of Economic Opportunity										
2.1. Economic Growth and Employment										
2.1.1. Exponential growth rate in GDP per capita at constant 2005 PPP\$	36	24	12	33	3	24	10			
2.1.2. Employment-to-population ratio, youth (aged 15–24 years) ^b	35	12	23	11	24	n.a.	n.a.			
2.1.3. Number of own-account and contributing family workers (per 100 wage and salaried workers)	9	7	2	8	1	5	4			
2.2. Key Infrastructure Endowments										
2.2.1 Electricity consumption (per capita kWh)	36	26	10	31	5	26	9			
2.2.2. Number of cellular phone subscriptions (per 100 people)	42	38	4	42	–	41	1			
Pillar Two: Social Inclusion to Ensure Equal Access to Economic Opportunity										
3.1 Access and Inputs to Education and Health										
3.1.1. School life expectancy, primary to tertiary (years)	20	12	8	19	1	16	3			
3.1.2. Pupil-teacher ratio (primary)	31	20	11	24	7	22	9			
3.1.3. Diphtheria, tetanus toxoid, and pertussis (DTP3) immunization coverage among 1-year-olds (percent)	42	26	16	23	19	21	20			
3.2 Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services										
3.2.1. Proportion of population using an improved drinking water source ^c	36	31	5	32	4	30	4			
3.2.2. Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility ^d	38	27	11	30	8	30	6			
3.3 Gender Equality and Opportunity										
3.3.1. Gender parity in primary education ^e	26	15	11	21	5	20	6			
3.3.2. Gender parity in labor force participation (aged 15 years and over)	40	31	9	23	17	19	21			
3.3.3. Percentage of seats held by women in national parliament	28	13	15	18	10	18	10			
Pillar Three: Social Safety Nets										
4.1. Social security expenditure on health as a percentage of government expenditure on health	18	13	5	13	5	9	9			
Good Governance and Institutions										
5.1. Voice and accountability	43	11	32	20	23	24	19			
5.2. Government effectiveness	40	19	21	23	17	21	18			

a Data for the Federated States of Micronesia refer to urban population only.

b Progress of employment-to-population ratio for youth aged 15–24 years in terms of acceleration, maintained, and deceleration is not included in the table as the favorability or advantage of an increase or decrease in the improvement of this indicator depends on the economy.

c The Cook Islands, Singapore, and Tonga are not included since these economies had achieved at least 99% access to an improved drinking water source from the start.

d The Republic of Korea and Singapore are not included since these economies had achieved 100% access to an improved sanitation facility early on.

e Armenia, the People's Republic of China, Kazakhstan, the Maldives, Republic of Korea; and Taipei, China are not included since these countries had achieved gender parity in primary education early on.

GDP = gross domestic product, "n.a." = not applicable, kWh = kilowatt-hours, PPP = purchasing power parity.

Note: 'Accelerated', 'maintained', and 'decelerated' refer to progress of economies in terms of improvement indexes in the 2000s compared to the 1990s as explained in section 3.

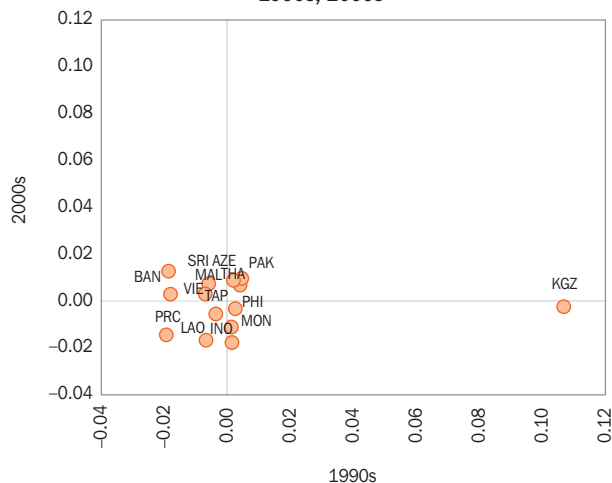
Source: Authors' calculations based on available data.

The economies with the most impressive improvement indexes for \$2-a-day poverty in the 2000s were Bhutan, the PRC, Fiji, Indonesia, Malaysia, the Maldives, Thailand, Viet Nam; and among the Central and West Asian economies, Azerbaijan, the Kyrgyz Republic, and Tajikistan made impressive recoveries in the 2000s from their negative improvement indexes in the 1990s.

Ratio of Income or Consumption Share of Highest Quintile to Lowest Quintile

Data from a limited set of economies suggest that developing Asia has not been performing well under this indicator (Table 1.2). Out of 14 economies with sufficient data, 7 improved (i.e., had lower ratio) and 7 deteriorated (had higher ratio) in both decades. If the 14 economies make a reasonable sample for developing Asia, then this supports earlier studies and analyses that income distribution is a problem in many developing economies in the region. Figure 1.2 plots the improvement indexes for these 14 economies for the 2 decades. The PRC, the Lao PDR, and Taipei,China had negative improvement indexes in both decades. Among the most populous economies, the PRC had a negative improvement index in both periods, and in Indonesia, the index turned negative in the 2000s. Pakistan had a positive index in both periods and Bangladesh reversed the negative rate of 1990s to positive in 2000s.

Figure 1.2 Improvement Indexes for the Ratio of Income or Consumption Share of Highest Quintile to Lowest Quintile, 1990s, 2000s



Note: Data points used are all consumption-based except for Taipei,China; which are income-based and defined as disposable household income. Data for the People's Republic of China combine the urban and rural distributions, weighted by share of urban and rural population to total population.

Sources: Authors' calculations based on data from PovcalNet Database Online (World Bank), accessed 13 May 2013; for Taipei,China: economy source.

Growing income inequality needs to be given much attention. Some economies like the PRC have officially announced policies to reduce their growing income and regional disparities. Other economies such as Indonesia and the Philippines are also aware of the problem and are including inclusive growth in their national development plans through the policies and commitment to address this may differ across countries (ADB 2012a).

Average Years of Total Schooling for Adults

Developing Asia has performed well in increasing the average years of total schooling. Out of 30 economies that had sufficient data, 29 and 27 had positive improvement indexes in the 1990s and the 2000s, respectively. This means only one and three countries had declines in the 1990s and 2000s, respectively. There were 12 economies that saw acceleration in the 2000s, 2 countries maintained the index at the same level, and 16 decelerated or slowed down compared with the 1990s. While the decelerations may not necessarily be alarming for most countries, these include some countries with low average years of total schooling such as Cambodia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR), Indonesia, and Papua New Guinea, that must develop inclusive policies to ensure longer retention of pupils in schools and overcome inequality of access to education especially for the poor and the vulnerable populations.

Figure 1.3 Improvement Indexes for Average Years of Total Schooling for Adults, 1990s, 2000s



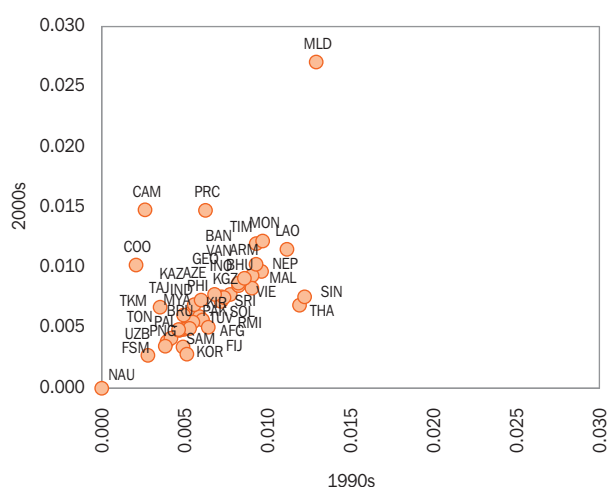
Sources: Authors' calculations based on data from Barro and Lee (2013); Human Development Report 2013 (UNDP 2013).

Continued improvements in access to schooling is an important result and bodes well for productive human capacity and future growth of the region. Figure 1.3 presents improvement indexes for the average years of total schooling for 30 developing economies. Except for Armenia, Fiji, the Maldives, and Tajikistan, all others lie in the first quadrant showing positive indexes in both decades. The performances of the Republic of Korea; Malaysia; Palau; Singapore; Sri Lanka and Taipei, China have been particularly impressive in both decades.

Under Five Mortality Rate per 1,000 live births

Under this indicator, all economies with sufficient data were able to reduce mortality for those under five years of age in both decades. Out of 43 countries with sufficient data, 42 improved in both decades and only one country, Nauru, had no improvement (Figure 1.4). Improvement indexes for 16 countries accelerated in the 2000s, 18 maintained their progress rates, and 9 decelerated. The economies with deceleration in the 2000s include those with already low child mortality rates like the Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Singapore, and Thailand, but also include those with high rates like Afghanistan, the Marshall Islands, and PNG. This indicator is also a measure for the MDG target of cutting the under-five mortality rates by two-thirds from the 1990 levels and consistent progress in the last 2 decades is not enough for many countries to achieve this target. (ADB 2012b).

Figure 1.4 Improvement Indexes for Under-Five Mortality Rate per 1,000 Live Births, 1990s, 2000s



Source: Authors' calculations based on data from Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2013.

Figure 1.4 also shows the improvement indexes for this indicator for the 2 decades, where countries cluster around the 45-degree line in the first quadrant. Many low-income economies like Bangladesh, the Lao PDR, the Maldives, Mongolia, and Timor-Leste show high reductions in child mortality rates.

These positive advances augur well for having healthier children and a productive labor force for future benefits to individuals, society, and the economy.

The four outcome indicators of FIGI discussed above indicate good progress in poverty reduction and in health and education outcomes in developing Asia. However, income distribution is a challenge for many economies of developing Asia—which could be a result of growth concentrated only in certain regions of a country. This income inequality may widen regional disparities, disparities between and within urban and rural areas, and among different classes of society. Achieving inclusive growth therefore requires greater attention.

3.2 Pillar One: Growth and Expansion of Economic Opportunity

3.2.1 Economic Growth and Employment

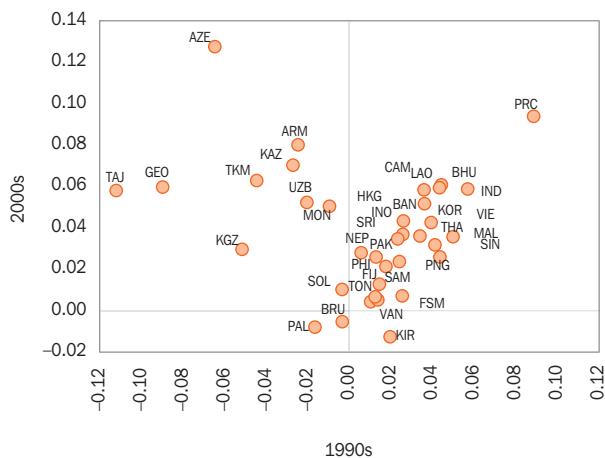
Gross Domestic Product per Capita at PPP (constant 2005 PPP\$)

Table 1.2 also summarizes the improvement indexes for annual exponential growth rates of gross domestic product (GDP) per capita in constant 2005 PPP\$.² Out of 36 economies, 24 economies exhibited positive indexes in the 1990s, while growth in 12 economies was negative. The economies with negative growth were from the Central and West Asia, Brunei Darussalam, Mongolia, Palau, and Solomon Islands. In the 2000s, 33 out of 36 economies had positive growth and improvement indexes, as 24 economies accelerated, 2 maintained their growth indexes within 5% of the 1990s annual growth level, and 10 countries decelerated.

2 Huge differences in the per capita incomes between the poorest and the richest countries yielded some unusual indexes using the Kakwani method. Hence, the exponential growth formula was used for this indicator. The formula for the exponential annual growth rate is $(\ln(x(T)) - \ln(x(t))) / (T - t)$, where x is the GDP per capita in constant 2005 PPP\$, T is the end year, and t the starting year.

Figure 1.5 shows the scatter plot of improvement indexes of the exponential annual growth rate of GDP per capita for the 36 economies for the 1990s and 2000s. The Central and West Asian economies of Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan suffered from recession in the 1990s but bounced back in the 2000s. Mongolia and Solomon Islands also suffered from a decline in GDP per capita in the 1990s but achieved positive growth in the 2000s. A few countries where the improvement indexes exhibited decline in the 2000s were Brunei Darussalam, Palau, and Kiribati, with Brunei Darussalam and Palau having negative improvement indexes for both decades.

Figure 1.5 Improvement Indexes for Growth Rate in GDP Per Capita at Constant 2005 PPP\$, 1990s, 2000s



GDP = gross domestic product, PPP = purchasing power parity.
Source: Authors' calculations based on data from World Development Indicators Online (World Bank), accessed 16 July 2013.

The best performer for the 2 decades is the PRC, far outpacing all other economies. Bhutan, Cambodia, India, the Lao PDR, and Viet Nam also did well in the 2 decades.

Employment-to-Population Ratio for Youth 15 to 24 Years of Age

The improvement index of this indicator for most countries is negative for the 1990s and the 2000s. Out of 35 economies with sufficient data, the ratios of 23 and 24 economies declined in the 1990s and the 2000s, respectively. This ratio increased in twelve and eleven economies in the 1990s and 2000s, respectively.

This is a difficult indicator to interpret because the decline may be good if it is due to more youngsters going to school (increasing average years of total schooling is an indication) or it may be bad if the decline is because many youngsters are unemployed and looking for work. As such, progress have not been calculated to reflect acceleration, maintained, or deceleration. More analysis is needed to determine the underlying causes for decline in the youth employment-to-population ratio in economies of developing Asia, as the reasons may differ from country to country. This also calls for prioritizing the youth in national policy and development agenda (ILO 2012).

Number of Own-Account and Contributing Family Workers Per 100 Wage and Salaried Workers

This indicator shows the extent of low quality and vulnerable jobs in an economy. Comparative data for the 2 decades are available for only nine economies. Out of these, 7 economies in the 1990s and 8 in the 2000s had positive improvement indexes implying movement from low-paying informal jobs to formal jobs, which usually entail more permanency and higher pay (ADB 2011a). Hong Kong, China and Singapore both showed decline in the 1990s, with Hong Kong, China further declining in the 2000s. However, these economies already have very low levels of vulnerable employment. Improvement indexes for five economies (including India and Sri Lanka) also accelerated in the 2000s while for four (including Pakistan and Thailand), they decelerated.

3.2.2. Key Infrastructure Endowments

Per Capita Consumption of Electricity

The improvement indexes of most countries show increase in per capita electricity consumption, led by the higher-income countries in both the 1990s and the 2000s. For the lower-income countries, the increase in per capita electricity consumption is much lower than that of the higher-income countries. Most Central and West Asian economies suffered declines in electricity consumption in the 1990s due to their recession, and in some, per capita consumption further declined in the 2000s, despite significant economic recovery. This may be due to the lack of maintenance of electricity infrastructure during the decade of decline or due to significant improvements in energy efficiency.

Out of 36 economies, 26 had increased per capita consumption in the 1990s while 10 saw a decline, which included 8 economies of the Central and West Asia. In the 2000s, this became 31 improvements, with 5 witnessing a decline, 4 of which were Central and West Asian economies. Out of 36 economies, 26 economies accelerated their per capita electricity usage, 1 maintained it, and 9 decelerated in the 2000s compared with the 1990s.

The general increase in electricity usage is common to growing economies, which however, also entails environmental repercussions as most of these economies depend on electricity generated by pollution-causing carbon fuels. Increase in electricity consumption can also affect countries' dependence on imported fuels.

Per Capita Cellular Phone Subscriptions

Cellular phone subscriptions were almost non-existent during the early 1990s, except for a few rich economies. During the 2000s, subscriptions of cellular phones grew exponentially. Thus, while during the 1990s only the richer economies increased ownership of cellular phones, most economies increased cellular phone subscriptions significantly in the following decade—including many of the lower-income countries. However, many of the Pacific island economies and Myanmar increased their cellular phone ownership in the 2000s at a much slower pace than other developing economies.

Improvement indexes for 42 economies show that 38 increased their per capita cellular phone subscription in the 1990s. In the 2000s, all 42 economies increased their per capita subscriptions and 41 economies accelerated their per capita subscription rates. The only economy where the improvement index in the 2000s decelerated in comparison with the 1990s was Taipei, China, which already had a high subscription level in the 2000s, and where subscriptions might be reaching a saturation point.

Cellular phones have become part of the lives of people in all economies of developing Asia, including the low-income economies. They have transformed the ways in which people communicate, access information as well as financial and other services, interact with the government, increase economic opportunities, and expand their business. They have immense benefits for low-income groups and remotely-located populations.

Thus, programs that can empower the poor and marginalized populations through use of mobile phones should be supported.

In general the improvement indexes for the indicators of pillar 1—except for the youth employment-to-population ratio—demonstrate positive results for most economies in the region. Economic growth especially accelerated in the 2000s and consumption of electricity increased along with increasing economic growth. Limited data suggest some declining trend in the proportion of informal and vulnerable jobs in poor economies. At the same time, significant advances in the use of cellular phones are an indication of the progress made in the information and communication technology (ICT) infrastructure in the region.

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

3.3.1. Access and Inputs to Education and Health

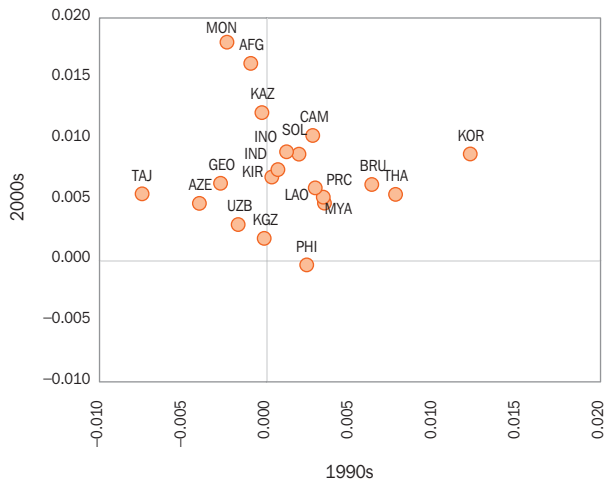
School Life Expectancy

School life expectancy from primary to tertiary improved for most countries in the 1990s and 2000s. Improvement indexes show that out of 20 economies, 12 improved in the 1990s while 8 economies, which include 7 economies from the Central and West Asia plus Mongolia, observed a decline. In the 2000s, all except the Philippines witnessed an improvement. In the 2000s the improvement indexes for 16 economies accelerated, 1 maintained its level, while 3 decelerated compared with indexes for the 1990s. Among the three where progress in the 2000s slowed was the Republic of Korea, which already has the highest school life expectancy in developing Asia.

Figure 1.6 displays improvement indexes for the 20 economies that have sufficient data for this indicator. Central and West Asian economies had deteriorations in the 1990s due to their severe recession. Afghanistan and Mongolia also deteriorated. Among the best performers are Brunei Darussalam, the Republic of Korea, and Thailand. Afghanistan, Cambodia, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, Mongolia, and Solomon Islands also did very well to improve school life expectancy during the 2000s.

These results, especially for Central Asian economies, indicate that schooling, like electricity consumption, also depend highly on economic growth. When there is a recession, children and the youth may drop out of school if they have to help the family financially.

Figure 1.6 Improvement Indexes for School Life Expectancy, 1990s, 2000s



Source: Authors' calculations based on data from Institute for Statistics Data Centre (UNESCO), accessed 30 May 2013.

Pupil–Teacher Ratio in Primary Schools

The pupil–teacher ratio is an important proxy indicator of education quality. In the 1990s, the improvement indexes for a significant number of countries deteriorated for this indicator. One reason could be that teacher recruitment did not keep pace with increased enrollments. Out of 31 countries, 20 experienced improvement in this indicator in the 1990s and 11 experienced decline. In the 2000s, 24 countries improved their ratios, 22 accelerated, while 9 decelerated. On one hand, these nine economies included Afghanistan and Pakistan, which still have high pupil–teacher ratios that have worsened over time perhaps due to the increasing number of children going to school. On the other hand, they include economies like Taipei, China that had progressed at a fast rate in the 1990s and had already reached a low ratio.

The shortage of teachers has a direct implication on the quality of education and thereby on retention of children in school. Economies with highest pupil–teacher ratios are also seen to have large dropout rates

in primary education (UNESCO 2004). In many cases, these shortages are in remote and rural areas, and therefore as governments make efforts to achieve the MDG of universal primary education, along with targets to enrol all children, they also need to have policies in place to provide adequate number of qualified and trained teachers.

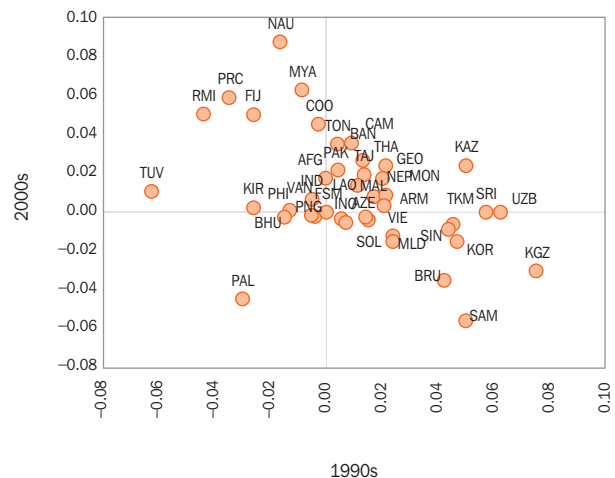
Diphtheria, Tetanus Toxoid, and Pertussis (DTP3) Immunization Coverage Among 1-Year-Olds

Performance in this indicator shows a mixed picture. Although the majority of economies exhibited improvements in their indexes in the 1990s and 2000s, a number of them also exhibited a decline between the starting and end points. Those that deteriorated included economies from all income levels.

Out of 42 economies, 26 improved in the 1990s but 16 deteriorated. This worsened a bit in the 2000s with 23 showing improvements and the remaining 19 with no improvement or deteriorating coverage rates. Improvement indexes for 21 economies accelerated in the 2000s, decelerated for another 20, and was maintained in 1.

Figure 1.7 shows the improvement indexes for this indicator. The PRC and India are among the economies that saw declines in their indexes in the 1990s, along

Figure 1.7 Improvement Indexes for Diphtheria, Tetanus Toxoid, and Pertussis (DTP3) Immunization Coverage Among 1-Year-Olds, 1990s, 2000s



Source: Authors' calculations based on data from Global Health Observatory Data Repository (WHO), accessed 17 May 2013.

with Afghanistan, Bhutan, Myanmar, the Philippines, and some Pacific economies. The graph also shows that many of these countries improved their performance in the 2000s, notably the PRC, the Cook Islands, Fiji, the Marshall Islands, Myanmar, and Nauru. The declines in some economies may not be alarming. However, every percentage point fall in immunization coverage can put the lives of a large number of children at risk from these dreadful diseases and may jeopardize the successes in reducing child mortality.

3.3.2 Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services

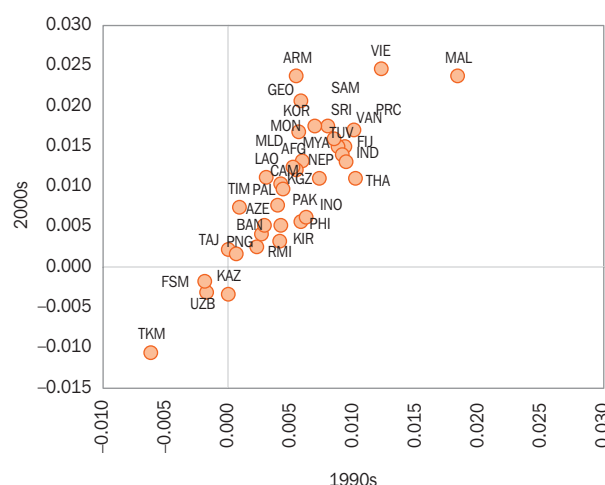
Proportion of Population Using an Improved Drinking Water Source

The percentage of the population using an improved drinking water source is one of the MDG indicators that has seen tremendous progress in most economies in both decades, increasing access for millions of people. Economies that had achieved 100% or near 100% drinking water facilities at the beginning of 1990 and had also maintained it through the 2 decades were not included so as not to bias the number of countries that “did not improve.”

Improvement indexes of 36 economies, show that 31 improved in the 1990s and 32 improved in the 2000s. Thirty accelerated the improvement in the 2000s over the 1990s, four decelerated, and two maintained their status.

Figure 1.8 shows the improvement indexes for this indicator. Economies that performed especially well in both decades included the PRC, Fiji, India, the Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Samoa, Sri Lanka, Vanuatu, Viet Nam, and Tuvalu. Turkmenistan had a considerable decline in both decades. Marginal declines in the improvement indexes for both decades are seen in the Federated States of Micronesia and Uzbekistan. While these economies generally have coverage of more than 87%, the slow decline in access to safe drinking water should be reversed. The 2 decades of efforts to an improve access to safe drinking water has led to the achievement of the MDG target of reducing by half the population without access in most economies of the region (ADB 2012b).

Figure 1.8 Improvement Indexes for Proportion of Population Using an Improved Drinking Water Source, 1990s, 2000s



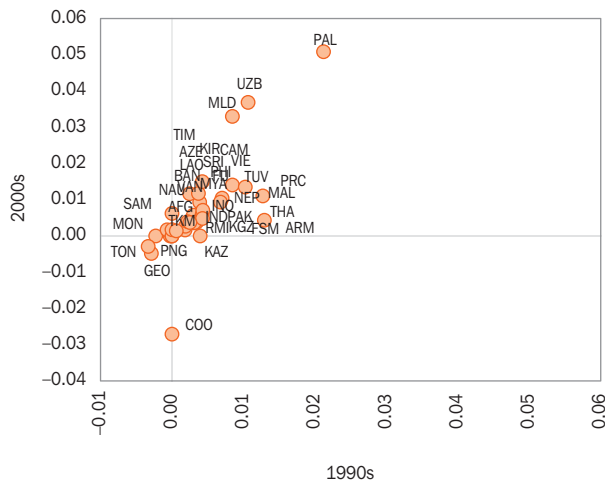
Source: Authors' calculations based on data from Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2013.

Proportion of Population Using an Improved Sanitation Facility

The proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility is also an MDG indicator. Similar to access to drinking water, most economies improved in the 1990s and 2000s and further accelerated their improvements in the 2000s, although compared to improved drinking water sources, the progress has not been as fast. Economies with already 100% or near 100% sanitation from the beginning of the period until the end were omitted in the analysis.

Out of 38 countries, 27 improved in the 1990s and 30 improved in the 2000s. In the 2000s, 30 economies accelerated their improvements, 6 decelerated and 2 maintained their 1990s status. Figure 1.9 shows that Georgia and Tonga deteriorated in both decades, while high improvement indexes were observed in Palau and Uzbekistan, which achieved 100%, and the Maldives, which achieved 97% coverage in 2010. Although developing Asia has improved its record on access to improved sanitation facilities since the 1990s, many economies are far from achieving the MDG target of cutting by half the proportion of population without access (ADB 2012b).

Figure 1.9 Improvement Indexes for Proportion of Population Using an Improved Sanitation Facility, 1990s, 2000s



The expansion of government's health expenditures on social security schemes and other schemes of compulsory health insurance especially to cover the poor and vulnerable sections of the populations improves inclusiveness of growth. If the 18 economies are a representative group, it can be said that governments in developing Asia are making some progress in expanding social security in health. Countries need to promote pro-poor health financing policies for better safety nets, especially for the poor.

3.5 Good Governance and Institutions

Voice and Accountability

Out of 43 countries, 11 improved in voice and accountability in the 1990s while 32 did not. In the 2000s, 20 improved and 24 accelerated their improvements in the 2000s while 19 decelerated.

That many countries (almost half in the 2000s) did not improve in this indicator shows that political inclusion is not keeping pace with economic and social development.

Government Effectiveness

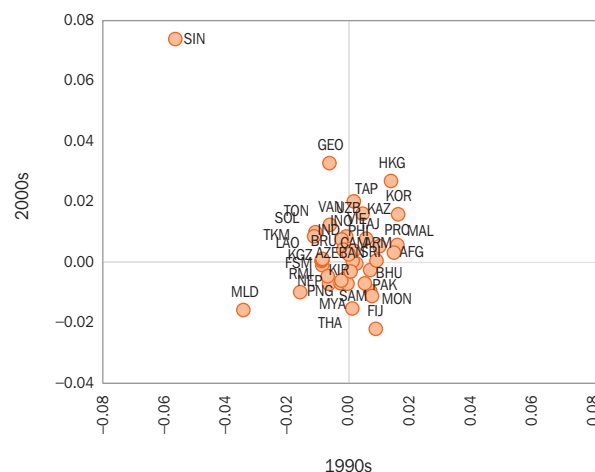
A significant number of countries have negative or zero improvement indexes for both decades. Out of 40 economies, 19 improved in the 1990s while 21 did not. In the 2000s, 23 improved while 17 did not. Twenty-one accelerated in the improvements in the 2000s, 1 maintained its 1990s position, while 18 decelerated. Government effectiveness seems to be another weakness toward achieving good governance in developing Asia.

Figure 1.10 shows the improvement indexes of government effectiveness. Most countries are in the second, third, or fourth quadrant, indicating deterioration during the 1990s or the 2000s or both. Only 11 out of 40 economies improved on government effectiveness in both decades, which include 4 economies in Central and West Asia, 4 in East Asia, and 3 in Southeast Asia.

Thus, economies of developing Asia need improved governance and transparent and accountable

institutions to provide a stronger support for the pillars of inclusive growth. This might be one of the most persistent challenges toward more inclusive growth in the region.

Figure 1.10 Improvement Indexes for Government Effectiveness, 1990s, 2000s



Source: Authors' calculations based on data from Worldwide Governance Indicators (World Bank) available at <http://info.worldbank.org/governance/wgi/index.asp>, accessed 18 April 2013.

3.6 The Inclusion of Rural Areas in the Growth Process

The improvement indexes of the indicators for access to improved drinking water sources and improved sanitation facilities disaggregated by rural and urban areas for which sufficient data are available for developing Asia have also been compared. For improved drinking water sources, out of 36 economies, 23 had larger improvement indexes for rural areas than for urban areas in the 1990s. This further increased to 25 in the 2000s, showing larger efforts to bridge the rural–urban divide in these countries. Figures 1.11.1 and 1.11.2 show the improvement indexes for access to improved drinking water sources for rural and urban areas. Access in rural areas to improved drinking water sources accelerated in 32 economies in the 2000s compared with the 1990s, and in 21 economies in urban areas.

For the sanitation indicator, out of 37 economies, 15 had larger improvement indexes for rural areas than for urban areas in the 1990s. This increased to 21 in the 2000s reflecting larger efforts to bridge the rural–urban gap in sanitation in the 2000s. Figures 1.11.3 and

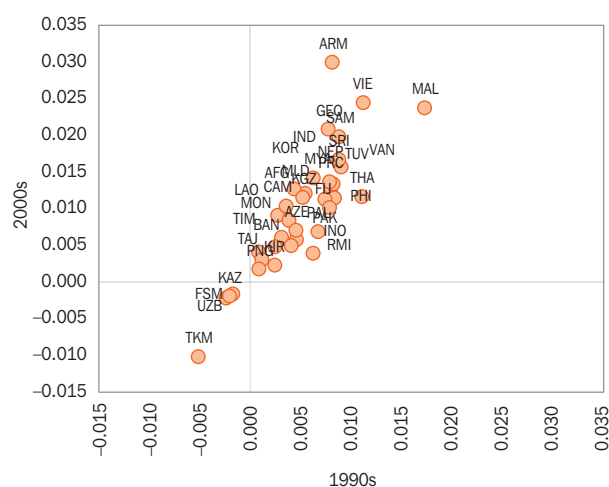
1.11.4 present the improvement indexes for access to improved sanitation facilities in the 1990s and 2000s for rural and urban, respectively. Similar to drinking water, many economies exhibit accelerations in both rural and urban areas in the 2000s, though improvement indexes are much lower than the indexes for drinking water.

Thus, while much more needs to be done to bridge the rural–urban gaps in accessing these essential basic

services, it does indicate improvements in the rural areas vis-à-vis the urban areas in the last 2 decades.

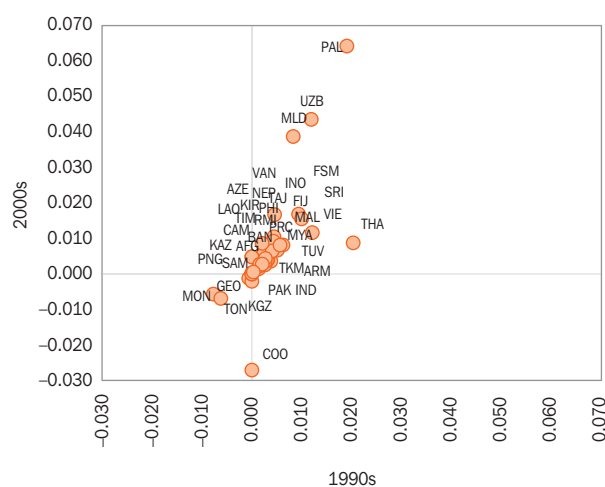
The inclusion of rural areas in development is critical for inclusive growth. Rural areas usually are more remote and often lack basic infrastructure, and where lower productivity (and therefore lower wage) employment tends to be concentrated. Improving infrastructure in the rural areas will promote growth with inclusion in developing Asia.

Figure 1.11.1 Improvement Indexes for Proportion of Rural Population Using an Improved Drinking Water Source, 1990s, 2000s



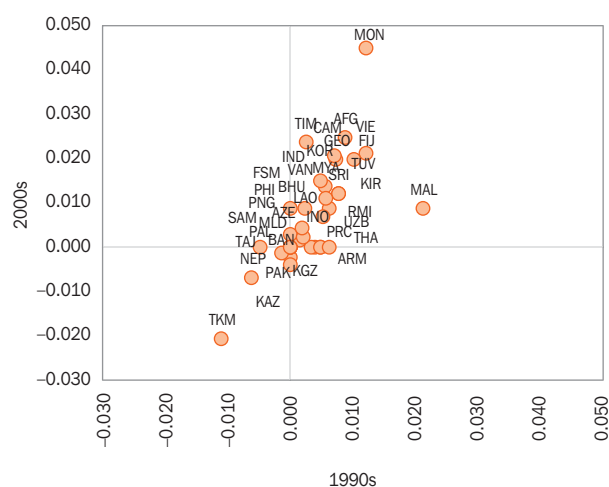
Source: Authors' calculations based on data from Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2013.

Figure 1.11.3 Improvement Indexes for Proportion of Rural Population Using an Improved Sanitation Facility, 1990s, 2000s



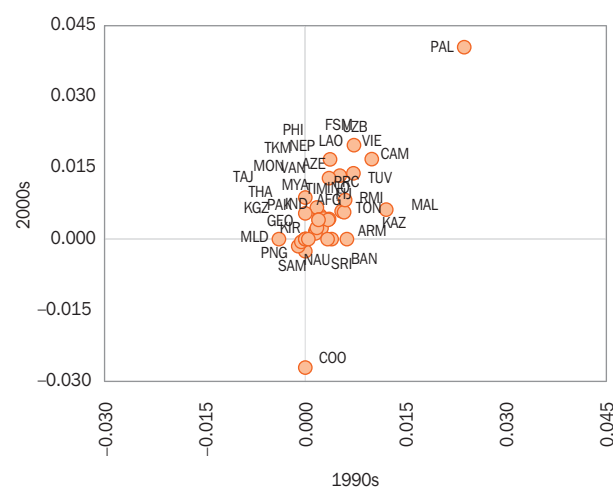
Source: Authors' calculations based on data from Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2013.

Figure 1.11.2 Improvement Indexes for Proportion of Urban Population Using an Improved Drinking Water Source, 1990s, 2000s



Source: Authors' calculations based on data from Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2013.

Figure 1.11.4 Improvement Indexes for Proportion of Urban Population Using an Improved Sanitation Facility, 1990s, 2000s



Source: Authors' calculations based on data from Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2013.

3.7 Summary

In summary, analysis of a number of FIGI indicators show that economies of developing Asia have made improvements in the last 2 decades, with more countries improving in larger number of indicators in the 2000s. Many economies also show accelerations in a number of indicators in the 2000s indicating increasing pace of improvement in the policy pillars of inclusive growth and its outcomes. Thus, outcome indicators of poverty rate, under-five mortality rate, and average years of schooling have seen good progress. However, limited data on ratio of income or consumption share of highest quintile to the lowest quintile suggest worsening of the gap between the rich and the poor in many of the economies.

Among the indicators of pillar one (growth and expansion of economic opportunity), per capita GDP growth rate, electricity consumption, and cellular phone subscriptions show much success. Available data on vulnerable employment show some changes with a slow rise in the share of wage and salary employment, but youth employment-to-population ratios have been declining in most economies.

Among the indicators of pillar two (social inclusion to ensure equal access to economic opportunity), developing Asia has made gains in enrolling children in schools as depicted by improving school life expectancy. The pupil-teacher ratio has also improved in most economies except in some where increased school enrollments may have outpaced teacher recruitments. DTP3 coverage shows deterioration in many countries. Gender parity has been a remarkable success in primary education, but the progress is not encouraging in labor force participation and in women's participation in political process. For basic facilities such as improved drinking water sources, remarkable progress has been made both in the rural and urban areas. Use of improved sanitation facilities has also consistently improved in rural and urban areas, though at a much slower pace than drinking water. The improvement in the rural areas for drinking water sources and sanitation facilities augurs well for the inclusion of rural areas in growth. The lone indicator on social safety nets suggests some increases in social security expenditures on health by governments. Finally, good governance appears weak in many economies of developing Asia.

4. Performance on Indicators by Economy

Table 1.3 presents an aggregate picture of the performance of 45 economies based on the improvement indexes for the 1990s and 2000s on the selected indicators for which sufficient data are available. The table shows that there is disparity in availability of data across countries. While Thailand has the largest number of indicators (19) with sufficient data, Timor-Leste has the lowest (5). The performance of countries during the 2 decades is generally positive.

More improvements than deteriorations in indicators occurred in both the 1990s and 2000s. During the 1990s, five economies had more indicators showing negative improvement indexes—Georgia, the Kyrgyz Republic, Nauru, Turkmenistan, and Tuvalu, compared with only two economies in the 2000s—the Federated States of Micronesia and Turkmenistan—which had more indicators (6) with negative improvement indexes than the number of indicators (5) with positive indexes. All economies of East Asia (except Mongolia), South Asia (except Bhutan), and Southeast Asia, Armenia, the Cook Islands, Fiji, and Pakistan had at least two-thirds of indicators with positive improvement indexes in both decades.

Thirty economies had more number of indicators with positive improvement indexes in the 2000s than in the 1990s—with another five economies having the same number of indicators with positive improvement indexes as in the 1990s. Major improvements in the 2000s over the 1990s (more than one-fourth additional indicators having positive improvement indexes) were achieved by Afghanistan; Azerbaijan; Bangladesh; Bhutan; Georgia; Hong Kong, China; the Kyrgyz Republic; Nauru; Timor-Leste; Tonga; and Tuvalu.

There were more accelerations in the improvement indexes than decelerations in the 2000s, reflecting a faster rate of progress for most indicators as compared to the 1990s. All economies (except Sri Lanka) that were classified as low-income countries in the World Bank's 1990 classification either accelerated or maintained progress for at least two-thirds of indicators in the 2000s. Notable among these

Table 1.3 Improvement Indexes, 1990s and 2000s, by Economy: A Summary^a

Economies by regions in developing Asia	No. of indicators included per economy	1990s		2000s		No. of indicators with progress in the 2000s		
		No. of indicators with positive index	No. of indicators with negative or zero index	No. of indicators with positive index	No. of indicators with negative or zero index	Accelerated	Maintained	Decelerated
Central and West Asia								
Afghanistan	12	7	5	11	1	8	–	4
Armenia ^b	13	9	4	10	3	8	–	5
Azerbaijan	15	9	6	12	3	13	–	2
Georgia	15	6	9	14	1	14	–	1
Kazakhstan ^b	13	8	5	10	3	8	–	5
Kyrgyz Republic	16	6	10	10	6	9	2	5
Pakistan	18	16	2	15	3	12	1	5
Tajikistan	15	8	7	10	5	11	–	4
Turkmenistan	11	4	7	5	6	6	1	4
Uzbekistan	13	7	6	7	6	8	1	4
East Asia								
China, People's Rep. of ^b	17	12	5	13	4	13	–	4
Hong Kong, China	10	7	3	9	1	8	–	2
Korea, Rep. of ^{b, c}	15	14	1	14	1	7	2	6
Mongolia	17	9	8	11	6	10	–	7
Taipei, China ^b	9	8	1	7	2	5	–	4
South Asia								
Bangladesh	14	10	4	13	1	13	–	1
Bhutan	11	6	5	9	2	10	–	1
India	17	14	3	16	1	14	–	3
Maldives ^b	12	8	4	10	2	11	–	1
Nepal	14	11	3	13	1	9	2	3
Sri Lanka	18	16	2	13	5	10	1	7
Southeast Asia								
Brunei Darussalam	12	9	3	10	2	6	1	5
Cambodia	15	14	1	13	2	11	–	4
Indonesia	18	14	4	16	2	12	2	4
Lao PDR	17	13	4	15	2	12	1	4
Malaysia	17	14	3	15	2	9	–	8
Myanmar	14	11	3	11	3	9	1	4
Philippines	18	14	4	14	4	9	3	6
Singapore ^{c, d}	12	8	4	10	2	6	–	6
Thailand	19	14	5	16	3	12	–	7
Viet Nam	16	15	1	13	3	9	2	5
The Pacific								
Cook Islands ^d	7	5	2	6	1	4	–	3
Fiji	13	10	3	9	4	6	–	7
Kiribati	13	8	5	9	4	5	1	7
Marshall Islands	7	4	3	4	3	4	–	3
Micronesia, Fed. States of ^e	11	6	5	5	6	5	2	4
Nauru	6	1	5	3	3	4	2	–
Palau	7	4	3	5	2	4	2	1
Papua New Guinea	14	9	5	8	6	7	–	7
Samoa	14	11	3	7	7	8	–	6
Solomon Islands	12	8	4	6	6	7	1	4
Timor-Leste	5	3	2	5	–	4	–	1
Tonga ^d	13	8	5	11	2	7	1	5
Tuvalu	7	3	4	5	2	6	–	1
Vanuatu	13	8	5	9	4	7	1	5

a Employment-to-population ratio aged 15–24 years is not included in this table.

b Gender parity in primary education was not included since these economies had achieved gender parity early on. Thus, the improvement index would be zero and bias the economy's performance negatively.

c Proportion of population with an improved sanitation facility was not included since the economy had achieved 100% access to sanitation facility early on, and zero improvement index may bias the economy's performance negatively.

d Proportion of population with an improved drinking water source was not included since the economy had achieved at least 99% access to improved drinking sources early on, and 0% improvement may bias the economy's performance negatively.

e Data used for proportion of population living below \$2-a-day poverty at 2005 PPP\$ refers to urban population only.

Note: 'Accelerated', 'maintained', and 'decelerated' refer to progress of economies in terms of improvement indexes in the 2000s compared to the 1990s as explained in section 3.

Source: Authors' calculations based on available data.

low-income countries of 1990 (with at least three-fourths of indicators accelerating in the 2000s) were Bangladesh, Bhutan, the PRC, India, Indonesia, the Lao PDR, the Maldives, Nepal, and Timor-Leste. Among other countries, Azerbaijan; Georgia; Hong Kong, China; and Tuvalu had accelerations in at least three-fourths of indicators in the 2000s.

5. Performance on Improvement Indexes in the 1990s and 2000s of Developing Economies by Indicator: A Summary

Table 1.4 summarizes the performance on improvement indexes and accelerations for all economies in the selected indicators in the 1990s and 2000s. Each cell of table 1.4 is represented by an arrow depicting the direction of change of improvement indexes in the 2 decades, and whether performance in the 2000s had accelerated, decelerated, or was maintained at the 1990s levels. The color of the arrow is green if the improvement indexes are positive in both decades, yellow if the improvement index is negative or zero in the 1990s but turns positive in the 2000s, orange if improvement index is positive in the 1990s but turns negative or zero in the 2000s, and red if improvement index is negative or zero in both decades. The direction of arrow is upwards if there is acceleration in the improvement index in the 2000s, downward if there is a deceleration, and horizontal if the rate of progress in the 2000s is maintained at the 1990s level.

Three major patterns quickly become evident. One is for East Asia and South Asia, where the number of indicators available is much more than the other subregions. In general, poverty reduction, average years of schooling for adults, school life expectancy, under five mortality, infrastructure endowments, infrastructure on drinking water, and sanitary facilities in both rural and urban areas markedly improved and accelerated.

The other trend is in the Central and West Asian countries where economic decline in the 1990s had a negative effect on poverty reduction, electricity

consumption, and school life expectancy. However, most of these economies bounced back strongly in the 2000s, except for Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan.

The rest of the economies, mostly in the Pacific Islands, have insufficient data for most indicators. This poses a serious problem as performance on many important indicators could not be assessed to give a more complete picture.

6. Conclusions

The main objective of this study has been to assess the improvements in the performance of developing Asia on 20 selected indicators of FIGI in the 1990s and 2000s and to see if the improvements in the 2000s accelerated over those in the 1990s. Improvement indexes using the Kakwani (1993) methodology were used to analyze progress in the 2 decades for indicators with sufficient data points for the analysis.

Progress achieved in the 2 decades differs among economies and regions. While there is no country performing well in all indicators in both decades, more economies have achieved improvements than deteriorations in more indicators in both the 1990s and 2000s. Thirty economies had more indicators with positive indexes in the 2000s compared with the 1990s. These included a number of economies that were classified as low-income countries in 1990, most notable being Bangladesh, Bhutan, the PRC, India, Indonesia, the Lao PDR, the Maldives, Nepal and Timor-Leste. Azerbaijan; Georgia; Hong Kong, China; and Tuvalu, were the other countries with accelerations in at least three-fourths of indicators in the 2000s. Further, more indicators exhibited accelerations in the improvement indexes than decelerations in the 2000s, implying faster improvements for most indicators. Based on the above analysis of improvement indexes, it can be concluded that developing Asia did far better during the 2000s on the selected indicators of policy pillars and outcomes of inclusive growth.

Out of the four outcome indicators, consistently good performance has been achieved on poverty reduction, reduction in under-five mortality, and increasing average years of schooling. However, income inequalities as measured by the ratio of income or

Table 1.4 Performance on Improvement Indexes in the 1990s and 2000s of Economies of Developing Asia by Indicator: A Summary^a

Policy Pillars of Inclusive Growth		Poverty and Inequality				Pillar One: Growth and Expansion of Economic Opportunity				Pillar Two: Social Inclusion to Ensure Equal Access to Economic Opportunity		
		Income		Nonincome		Economic Growth and Employment		Key Infrastructure Endowments		Access and Inputs to Education and Health		
		Proportion of population living below \$2 a day at 2005 PPP\$	Ratio of income or consumption of the highest quintile to lowest quintile	Average years of total schooling, adults (aged 25 years and over)	Under-five mortality rate per 1,000 live births	Exponential growth rate in GDP per capita at constant 2005 PPP\$	Number of own-account and contributing family workers (per 100 wage and salaried workers)	Electricity consumption (per capita kWh)	Number of cellular phone subscriptions (per 100 people)	School life expectancy, primary to tertiary (years)	Pupil-teacher ratio (primary)	Diphtheria, tetanus toxoid, and pertussis (DTP3) immunization coverage among 1-year-olds (percent)
Developing Economies		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Central and West Asia	Afghanistan			↗	↘			↗	↗	↗	↘	↗
	Armenia ^b			↘	↗	↗		↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Azerbaijan	↗	↗		↗	↗		↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Georgia	↗			↗	↗		↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Kazakhstan ^b			↘	↗	↗		↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Kyrgyz Republic	↗	↘		↗	↗		↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Pakistan	↘	↗	↗	↗	↗	↘	↗	↗	↗	↘	↗
	Tajikistan	↗		↘	↗	↗		↗	↗	↗	↘	↗
	Turkmenistan				↗	↗		↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Uzbekistan				↗	↗		↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
East Asia	China, People's Rep. of ^b	↗	↘	↘	↗	↗		↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Hong Kong, China			↗		↗	↘	↘	↗		↗	
	Korea, Rep. of ^{b, c}			↗	↘	↘	↗	↗	↗	↘	↗	↘
	Mongolia		↘	↘	↗	↗		↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Taipei, China ^b		↘	↗			↗	↗	↘		↘	
South Asia	Bangladesh	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗		↗	↗			↗
	Bhutan	↗			↗	↗			↗		↗	↗
	India	↗		↗	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗		↗
	Maldives ^b	↗		↗	↗	↗		↗	↗			↗
	Nepal	↗		↗	↗	↗		↗	↗		↗	↗
	Sri Lanka	↗	↗	↘	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗		↗	↗
Southeast Asia	Brunei Darussalam			↘	↗	↘		↘	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Cambodia	↗		↘	↗	↗		↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Indonesia	↗	↘	↘	↗	↗		↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Lao PDR	↗	↘	↘	↗	↗		↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Malaysia	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗	↘	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Myanmar			↗	↗	↗		↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Philippines	↘	↗	↘	↗	↗		↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Singapore ^{c, d}			↘	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Thailand	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗	↘	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Viet Nam	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗		↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
The Pacific	Cook Islands ^d			↘	↗			↘	↗			↗
	Fiji	↗			↗	↘		↘	↗			↗
	Kiribati				↗	↘		↘	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Marshall Islands				↗							↗
	Micronesia, Fed. States of ^e	↘			↗	↘			↗			↗
	Nauru				↗				↗			↗
	Palau			↗	↗	↗						↗
	Papua New Guinea	↘		↘	↗	↗		↗	↗			↗
	Samoa				↗	↗		↗	↗		↗	↗
	Solomon Islands				↗	↗		↗	↗		↗	↗
	Timor-Leste	↘			↗			↗		↗	↗	↗
	Tonga ^d			↘	↗	↘		↗	↗		↗	↗
	Tuvalu				↗			↘	↗			↗
	Vanuatu				↗	↘		↘	↗			↗

continued on next page

GDP = gross domestic product, kWh = kilowatt-hours, PPP = purchasing power parity.

a Employment-to-population ratio for youth aged 15–24 years is not included in this table.

b Gender parity in primary education was not included since the economy had achieved gender parity early on. The improvement index would be zero and would bias the economy's performance negatively.

c Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility was not included since the economy had achieved 100% access to sanitation facility early on, and the zero improvement index may bias the economy negatively.

d Proportion of population using an improved drinking water source was not included since the economy had achieved at least 99% access to improved drinking water sources early on.

e Data used for proportion of population living below \$2-a-day poverty at 2005 PPP\$ refers to urban population only.

Table 1.4 Performance on Improvement Indexes in the 1990s and 2000s of Economies of Developing Asia by Indicator: A Summary^a continued

Policy Pillars of Inclusive Growth		Pillar Two: Social Inclusion to Ensure Equal Access to Economic Opportunity				Pillar Three: Social Safety Nets	Good Governance and Institutions		
		Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services		Gender Equality and Opportunity					
Developing Economies		Proportion of population using an improved drinking water source	Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility	Gender parity in primary education	Gender parity in labor force participation (aged 15 years and over)	Percentage of seats held by women in national parliament	Social security expenditure on health as a percentage of government expenditure on health	Voice and accountability	Government effectiveness
		12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Central and West Asia	Afghanistan	↗	↗	↗	↗			↘	↘
	Armenia ^b	↗	↗		↘	↗		↘	↘
	Azerbaijan	↗	↗	↗	↗			↘	↗
	Georgia	↗	↘	↗	↗		↗	↗	↗
	Kazakhstan ^b	↘	↘		↘			↘	↗
	Kyrgyz Republic	↗	↔	↗	↘			↗	↗
	Pakistan	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗	↘	↗	↘
	Tajikistan	↗	↗	↗	↘			↘	↗
	Turkmenistan	↘	↗		↘	↘		↘	↘
	Uzbekistan	↘	↗	↘	↘			↘	↗
East Asia	China, People's Rep. of ^b	↗	↗		↘	↘	↗	↘	↘
	Hong Kong, China			↗	↗			↗	↗
	Korea, Rep. of ^{b, c}	↗			↘	↗	↗	↘	↔
	Mongolia	↗	↗	↘	↘	↘	↗	↘	↘
	Taipei, China ^b				↗			↘	↗
South Asia	Bangladesh	↗	↗		↗	↗		↗	↘
	Bhutan			↗	↗	↗		↗	↘
	India	↗	↗	↗	↘	↘	↘	↗	↗
	Maldives ^b	↗	↗		↗	↗		↗	↘
	Nepal	↗	↗		↗	↗		↗	↘
	Sri Lanka	↗	↗	↗	↘	↗	↘	↗	↘
	Brunei Darussalam			↗	↘			↗	↗
Southeast Asia	Cambodia	↗	↗	↗	↘			↗	↗
	Indonesia	↔	↗	↗	↘	↗	↗	↗	↗
	Lao PDR	↗	↗	↗	↘	↘	↗	↗	↗
	Malaysia	↗	↘		↗	↘	↘	↘	↗
	Myanmar	↗	↗	↘	↗	↗	↘	↘	↗
	Philippines	↔	↗	↘	↗	↗	↘	↘	↗
	Singapore ^{c, d}				↗	↗	↗	↘	↗
	Thailand	↗	↘	↗	↘	↗	↘	↘	↗
	Viet Nam	↗	↗		↘	↘	↘	↗	↗
	Cook Islands ^d		↘		↘	↗			
The Pacific	Fiji	↗	↗	↗	↘			↘	↘
	Kiribati	↘	↘	↗		↘		↘	↘
	Marshall Islands	↗	↗				↘	↘	↘
	Micronesia, Fed. States of ^e	↘	↗		↘		↘	↗	↘
	Nauru		↔			↘		↗	
	Palau	↗	↗					↗	
	Papua New Guinea	↗	↘	↗	↘	↘		↗	↘
	Samoa	↗	↘	↘	↗	↘	↗	↗	
	Solomon Islands			↗	↘	↘		↘	↗
	Timor-Leste	↗	↗		↗			↘	
	Tonga ^d		↘	↗	↘	↗		↗	↗
	Tuvalu	↗	↗			↘		↘	
	Vanuatu	↗	↗	↘	↘	↗		↘	↗

GDP = gross domestic product, kWh = kilowatt-hours, PPP = purchasing power parity.

a Employment-to-population ratio for youth aged 15–24 years is not included in this table.

b Gender parity in primary education was not included since the economy had achieved gender parity early on. The improvement index would be zero and would bias the economy's performance negatively.

c Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility was not included since the economy had achieved 100% access to sanitation facility early on, and the zero improvement index may bias the economy negatively.

d Proportion of population using an improved drinking water source was not included since the economy had achieved at least 99% access to improved drinking water sources early on.

e Data used for proportion of population living below \$2-a-day poverty at 2005 PPP\$ refers to urban population only.

Note: The direction of the arrow is upward if there is 'acceleration' in the improvement index in the 2000s, downward if there is a 'deceleration', and horizontal if the rate of progress in 2000s is 'maintained' at the 1990s level. The color of the arrow is 'green' if the improvement indexes are positive in both decades, 'yellow' if the improvement index is negative or zero in 1990s but turns positive in 2000s, 'orange' if improvement index is positive in 1990s but turns negative or zero in 2000s, and 'red' if improvement index is either negative or zero in both the decades. Blank cells indicate lack of valid data points for calculating improvement indexes for both decades.

Source: Authors' calculations based on available data.

consumption share of highest quintile to lowest quintile suggest a worsening of the gap between the rich and the poor in many economies.

Among the indicators of policy pillar one, improvements in per capita GDP growth rate, electricity consumption, and cellular phone subscriptions have been remarkable. There have been slow but positive changes in the reductions in own account and contributing family workers with an increasing share of salary and wage workers, but declining youth employment-to-population ratios can be cause of concern in some economies.

Among the indicators of policy pillar two, significant gains have been made over the 2 decades in improving school life expectancy and most economies have been successful in bringing down pupil–teacher ratios. Gender parity in primary education has improved significantly in the 2 decades, but gender parity in labor force participation has deteriorated in many economies. DTP3 immunization for one-year old children also shows declines in many countries. Progress has been noteworthy in improving access to clean drinking water sources, including in rural areas, and in access to improved sanitation facilities though at a much slower pace than drinking water. The lone indicator on social safety nets suggests some improvements in social security expenditures on health by governments. Good governance and sound institutions come out to be weak in many economies as indicated by declines in the indicators of voice and accountability and government effectiveness.

Economic growth, poverty reduction, electricity consumption, and school life expectancy appear to move together; and improvements in health (as indicated by consistent reductions in the child mortality rates) and infrastructure of sanitation and drinking water appear to have taken place irrespective of pace of economic growth. This was evident mostly in many Central and West Asian economies when these countries faced recession in the 1990s and recovered in the 2000s.

Countries that have successfully reduced poverty but have witnessed increasing income inequality will need to design policies to expand job opportunities and access to social services and infrastructure in regions and populations that are left behind for them to achieve inclusive growth. Further, for an economic growth that provides equality of opportunity to all, innovative policies and approaches will be needed. For example, cellular phones have immense benefits for low-income groups and remotely-located populations. Thus, programs that can empower the poor and marginalized populations through use of mobile phone technology can be adopted. Women and youth constitute a large share of productive human resources. Falling youth employment-to-population ratio and declining women's labor force participation are areas of concerns and require innovative employment policies to fully utilize the productive potential of women and youth to sustain economic growth and reduce income inequality. To implement inclusive policies successfully and achieve their intended objectives, government effectiveness and institutions will have to be strengthened in most economies of developing Asia. Finally, significant efforts are needed to give high priority to improving availability of timely data on various indicators by important disaggregations to monitor progress on inclusive growth.

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PART II

Trends and Disparities Within Economies in Developing Asia

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

Trends in Economies

National poverty lines are used to monitor poverty and evaluate programs and policies aimed at reducing poverty. The definition of poverty varies widely across countries as they are based on national priorities and conditions. On the other hand, the \$2-a-day (2005 PPP) poverty line provides a comparable measure based on standardized purchasing power. High growth rates in gross domestic product (GDP) in economies of developing Asia in the last 2 decades have contributed to the significant declines in poverty, whether measured through national or international poverty lines.

The proportion of population living below the \$2-a-day poverty line for developing Asia dropped from 81.1% in 1990 to 46.2% in 2010, with the number of poor declining from 2.20 billion in 1990 to 1.63 billion in 2010, based on estimates derived using World Bank's PovCalNet poverty database. While the number of poor

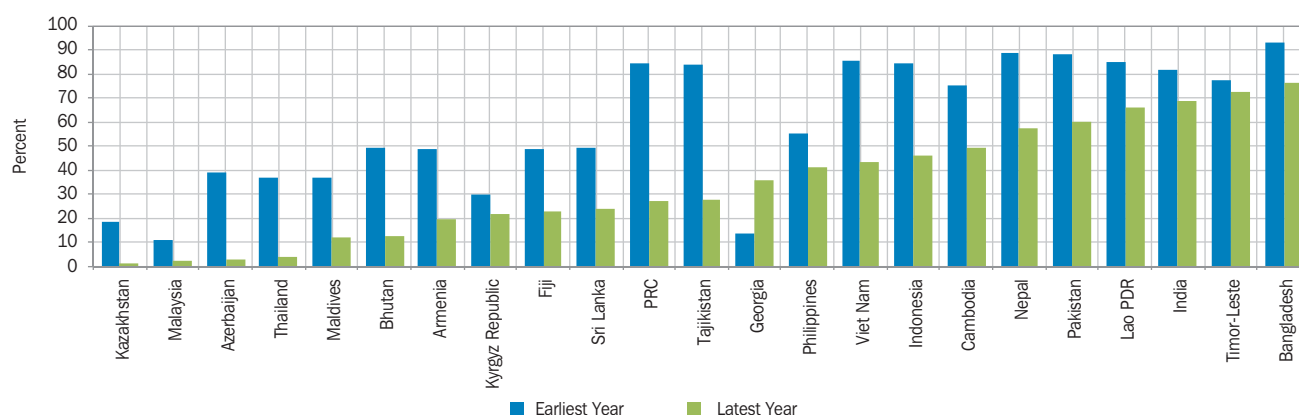
in the People's Republic of China (PRC) fell sharply from 961 million in 1990 to 359 million in 2010, the number of poor in India increased from 722 million to 842 million during the same period.

Based on the earliest and latest available household survey data between 1990 and 2012, the \$2-a-day poverty rate declined in all economies of developing Asia except for Georgia, where it increased from 14.0% in 1996 to 35.6% in 2010 (Figure 2.1). Reductions in poverty rates of more than 30 percentage points were accomplished by Azerbaijan (36.3), Bhutan (37.0), the PRC (57.4), Indonesia (38.5), Nepal (31.7), Tajikistan (56.0), Thailand (33.0), and Viet Nam (42.3). Despite these gains, nearly 68.2% of the world's 2.4 billion people living below \$2-a-day in 2010 are in developing Asia. Disparity in the \$2-a-day poverty rates was considerable across countries, ranging from 1.1% (2009) in Kazakhstan to 76.5% (2010) in Bangladesh.

Inequalities in Income Poverty

One measure of income inequality is the ratio of share of income or consumption of the highest to the lowest quintiles. This ratio worsened between earliest and latest year in the last 2 decades in 16 of the 33 economies for which data are available, including in four of the five most populous economies of developing Asia—constituting nearly 80% of its total population (Figure 2.2). In Bangladesh, the ratio increased from 3.9 (1992) to 4.7 (2010); in the PRC, from 5.1 (1990) to 10.1 (2009); in India, from 4.4 (1994) to 5.0 (2010); and in Indonesia, from 4.1 (1990) to 5.7 (2010). Pakistan's ratio, meanwhile, improved from 5.2 (1991) to 4.2 (2008).

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.

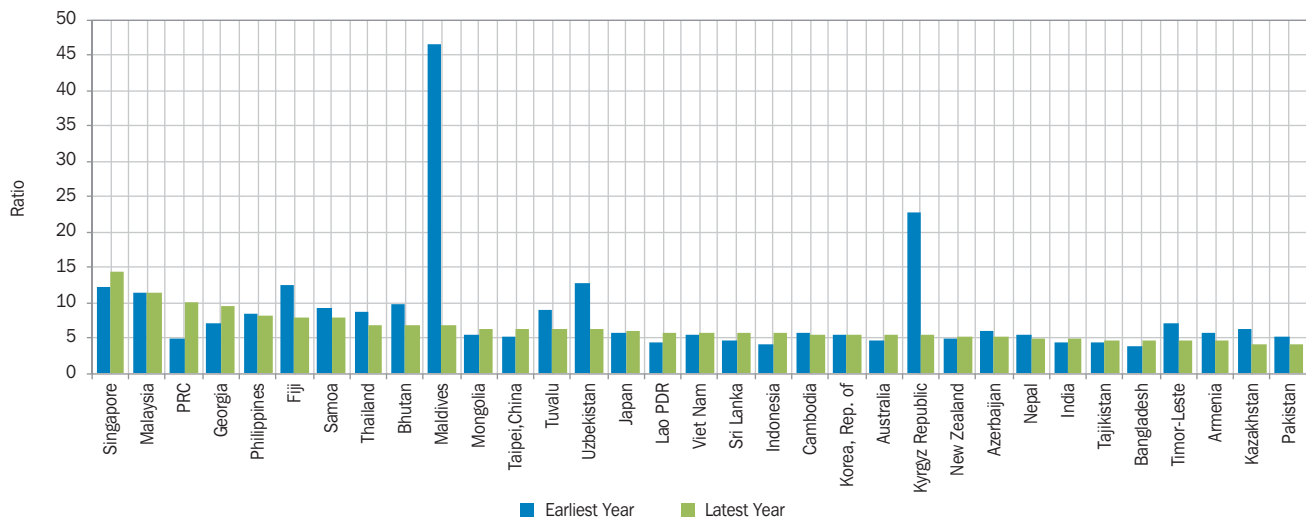
Based on national poverty lines, people living in rural areas are more likely to be poor, with 24 out of 26 economies having much higher rural poverty rates (Figure 2.3). The only exceptions were Armenia and Tuvalu where rural poverty rates were slightly lower than urban poverty rates. In all countries for which data are available for two time periods, both rural and urban poverty rates declined, except for Fiji, Georgia, and Tuvalu where though urban poverty rates had declined rural poverty rates had gone up. In Afghanistan and Timor-Leste, both rural and urban poverty worsened between earliest and latest years.

Rural and urban poverty rates for \$2-a-day poverty are only available for the PRC, India, and Indonesia.

Latest rural poverty rates in these countries were 45.8%, 73.5% and 49.0% respectively, while corresponding poverty rates for the urban areas were 3.5%, 57.6%, and 43.6%, respectively. Such wide disparities in rural–urban poverty in the most populous countries of Asia underline the need for policies that will improve access to opportunities and raise incomes for the rural populations.

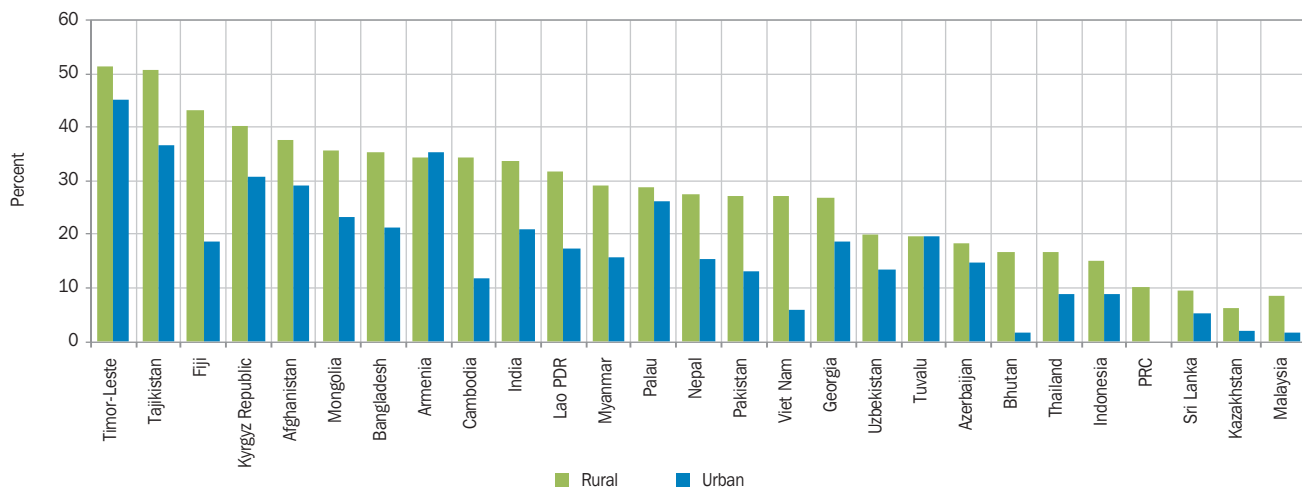
Estimates of national poverty rates (including for rural and urban) between the two stated points in time may not be strictly comparable because of changes in the definition of national poverty, in the survey methodology, and in the rural–urban boundaries.

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



PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.1.

Figure 2.3 National Rural and Urban Poverty Rates, Latest Year (%)



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
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 per 1,000 live births.

Trends in Economies

The average number of years of schooling from primary to tertiary is an outcome measure of success of education programs in a country. Data available for this indicator for both youth and adults show improvements in all the economies of developing Asia, except for the Central and West Asian economies of Armenia, the Kyrgyz Republic, and Tajikistan, where the indicator slid among youth between 1990 and 2010. For these economies, this reflects the adverse impact on the education of young males and females who entered schools in the early 1990s following the collapse of the former Soviet Union. Among the youth, the highest increase in average years of total schooling between 1990 and 2010 was observed in Bangladesh (5.0), with five other economies in developing Asia—the PRC (3.1), the Maldives (4.0), Myanmar (3.2), Thailand (3.0), and Viet Nam (4.0)—adding 3.0 or more years of education on average. The average years of total schooling for youth ranged from a low of 4.5 and 4.6 years for Papua New Guinea and Afghanistan, respectively, to 13.0 years each in the Republic of Korea and Taipei,China. Fifteen out of 29 developing economies that include India, Indonesia, and Pakistan had values below developing Asia's average of 8.7 years. Aside from the richer economies of Hong Kong, China (12.8); the Republic of Korea (13.0); Malaysia (12.0); and Taipei,China (13.0) that had 12 or more years of schooling for youth, the only other country that exceeded 12 years of schooling was Sri Lanka, with 12.6 years.

The average years of total schooling for adults for developing Asia increased from 4.2 in 1990 to about 6.3 years in 2010. For the adults, Singapore had the

largest gains in average years of schooling between 1990 and 2010, at 3.1 years gain, followed by Malaysia and Taipei,China, both with gains of 3.0 years on average.

Developing Asia's progress on malnutrition as measured by the prevalence of underweight children under five years of age has been poor—with 25.6%, or 82.8 million of its children below five years of age estimated to be suffering from malnutrition.¹ Data between 2006 and 2012 for 11 of the 35 economies show that at least one in every five children is underweight, limiting their physical and mental growth and performance in school—which in turn could deter them from benefiting from available opportunities.

The highest proportion of underweight children under five years of age are in Afghanistan (31.2% in 2011), the Lao PDR (31.6% in 2006), Bangladesh (36.4% in 2011), India (43.5% in 2006), Pakistan (30.9% in 2011) and Timor-Leste (45.3% in 2010). India alone accounts for nearly 65.5% or 54.2 million of the underweight children population of developing Asia. The Central and West Asian economies with the exception of Afghanistan and Pakistan are among those with lowest rates of underweight children, along with four Pacific economies of Fiji (7.0% in 2008), Nauru (4.8% in 2007), Palau (2.2 in 2010), and Tuvalu (1.6% in 2007). The PRC's 3.4% is also among the lowest in the region.

Another key indicator of health outcomes in economies of developing Asia is the under-five mortality rate. Developing Asia has made good progress in reducing child deaths in the last 2 decades—from 85 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1990 to 43 in 2011—thus reducing the absolute number of child deaths from 6.65 million to 2.89 million during those years. Child mortality rates in 2011 ranged from 3 per 1,000 live births in Singapore to 72 in Pakistan and 101 in Afghanistan. Fifteen economies had rates equal or more than the regional average of 43. Between 1990 and 2011, the largest absolute reduction in under-five mortality rates were in Timor-Leste (126), followed by the Lao PDR (106), the Maldives (94), Bangladesh (93), and Afghanistan (91).

1 Estimated using data available from 35 countries for years ranging between 2006–2012.

Inequalities in Nonincome Poverty

The average years of total schooling for young and adult males and females increased between 1990 and 2010 for developing Asia and the gap in the average number of years of schooling between young males and females became smaller, from 0.6 year in 1990 to 0.3 year in 2010. In 20 out of 29 economies, young females enjoyed more years of schooling than males (Figure 2.4). In South Asia, particularly in Bangladesh and Nepal, female youths now enjoy an average of 1.7 and 1.5 more years in school than males in contrast to their situation in 1990. Afghanistan had the largest gap of 3.6 years in 2010—which was an increase from 3.3 years in 1990. India and Pakistan, which had a gap of 2.0 or more years, reduced it from 2.0 to 1.1 years and from 2.4 years to 1.0 year, respectively, during the same period. The gap between adult males and females remained at 1.5 years between 1990 and 2010. Among the adult population, only four economies have females with a higher average number of years in school. This implies that in the last 2 decades, economies in developing Asia have paid considerable attention to increasing schooling of girls, leading to better educational outcomes for them.

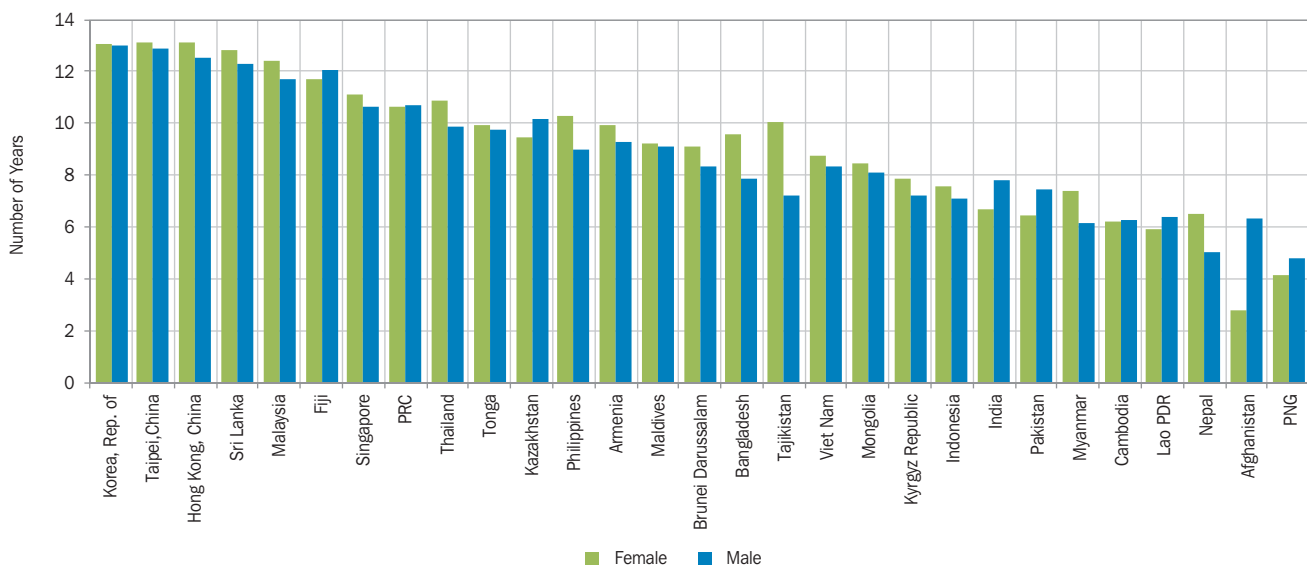
Almost all economies, except Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Uzbekistan, and Vanuatu have a higher proportion of underweight children in rural areas than in urban areas. Rural–urban disparity in this aspect

is largest in the PRC (with a rural–urban ratio of 3.3), Azerbaijan (3.1), Armenia (2.6), and Viet Nam (2.3).

Unequal wealth also leads to unequal outcomes on a child's nutritional status. In all economies (except for the Kyrgyz Republic), a child born in a poor household is more likely to be underweight than one born in a rich household (Figure 2.5). Latest survey data suggest that in 19 of 29 economies in developing Asia, a child in the poorest quintile is at least twice as likely to be underweight as a child in the richest quintile. Children born to households in the poorest quintile in Azerbaijan (with a lowest-to-highest wealth quintile ratio of 7.0), Viet Nam (6.6), Armenia (5.3), the Marshall Islands (4.9), Nepal (4.0), Thailand (3.3), and Turkmenistan (3.2) were at least three times more likely to be underweight than their counterparts in the richest quintile.

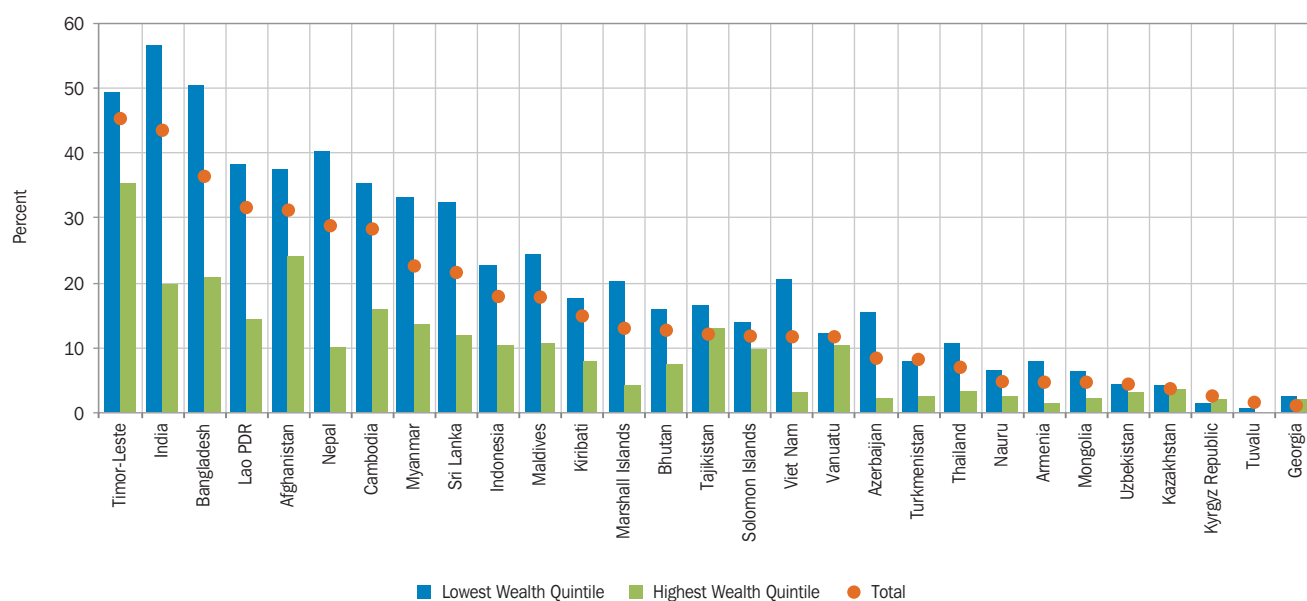
Similar to the situation for underweight children under five years of age, household wealth is also a discriminating factor in child survival. In 24 of 25 economies, children in the richest quintile have higher chances of reaching their fifth birthday than those in the poorest quintiles (Figure 2.6). In eight of these economies, chances of under-five deaths were at least three times higher for children in the poorest households than those from the richest households. Similar disparities exist between the children in rural and urban areas, with those in the rural areas at a disadvantage.

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



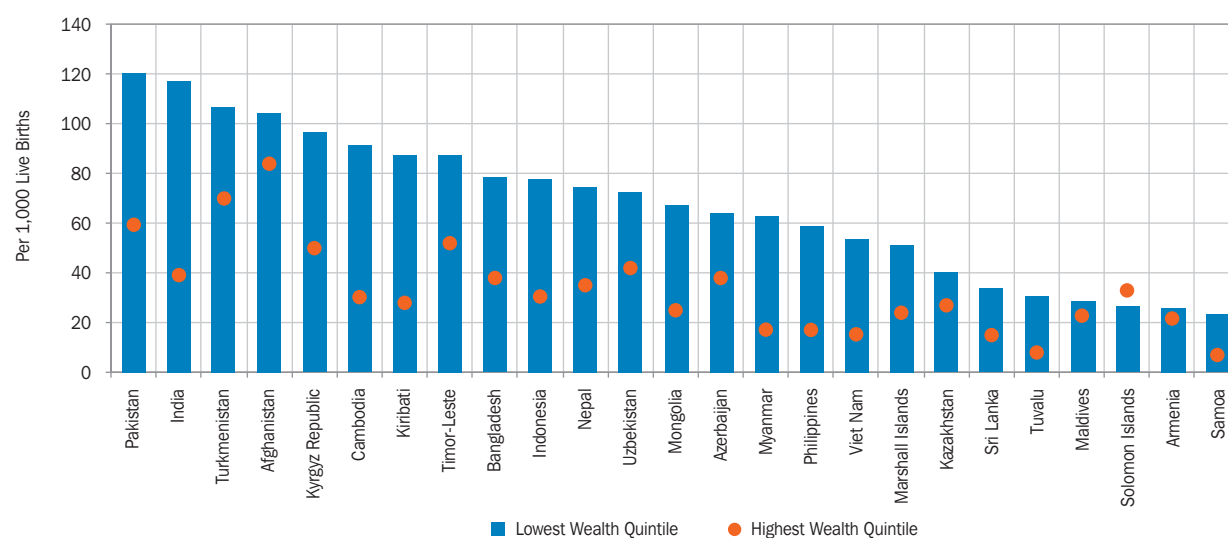
Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PNG = Papua New Guinea, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.2.

Figure 2.5 Prevalence of Underweight Children under Five Years of Age, Total, Lowest and Highest Wealth Quintiles, Latest Year (%)



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.
Source: Table 2.2.

Figure 2.6 Under-Five Mortality Rate per 1,000 Live Births, Lowest and Highest Wealth 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, at constant 1990 PPP\$; and
- Number of own-account and contributing family workers per 100 wage and salaried workers.

Trends in Economies

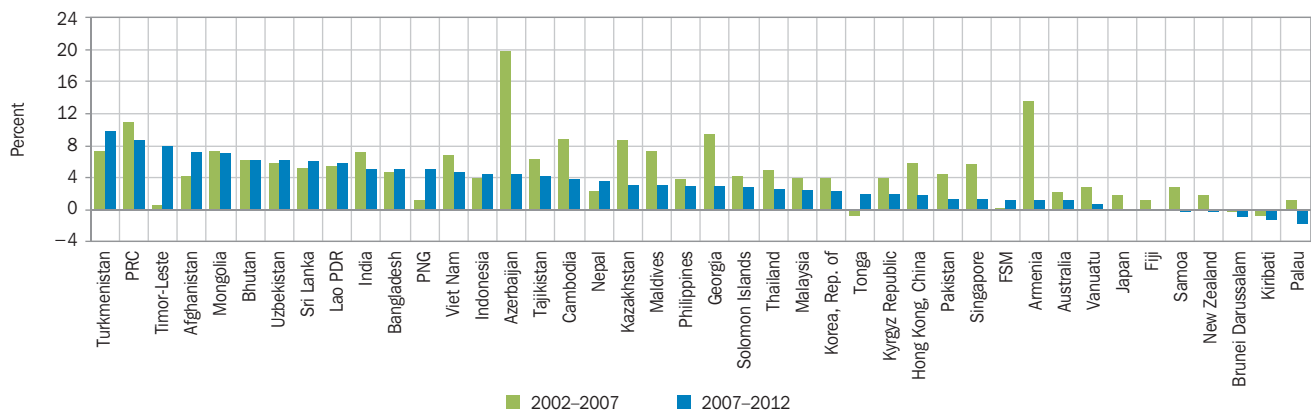
The average annualized growth rate of GDP per capita (constant 2005 PPP\$) in 2007–2012 for 39 economies of developing Asia was 6.0%—much lower than the growth of 7.8%—in 2002–2007—reflecting the impact of slowdown in the growth of most economies in recent years, including in India and the People's Republic of China (PRC). While the average growth in per-capita GDP for 2007–2012 was positive in most economies, growth

was slower in 26 out of 39 economies during the period, compared to the previous five years (Figure 2.7). The average growth rate in the three developed economies of Australia, Japan, and New Zealand was much lower at 0.1% during 2007–2012.

In most economies of developing Asia, employment-to-population ratios mostly range between 50% and 65% for those aged 15 years and over, and between 30% and 50% for youth (15–24 years of age). Between 1991 and 2012, youth employment-to-population ratios have declined in 24 out of 35 economies in developing Asia. Thailand had the biggest drop from 69.4% to 46.1% (23.3 percentage points), while the Maldives had the biggest increase of 9.0 percentage points, from 33.1% to 42.1%.

Between 1990 and 2008 (or nearest years), the number of own-account and contributing family workers (or “vulnerable employment”) per 100 wage and salaried workers slowly declined in 21 out of 27 economies in the region—including the three developed economies of Australia, Japan, and New Zealand. The relative drop in the number of vulnerable jobs was largest in Viet Nam, from 489 vulnerable jobs per 100 wage and salaried jobs in 1996 to 181 in 2011. However, a large workforce in developing Asia is still employed in low-quality vulnerable jobs. The number of vulnerable workers per 100 wage and salaried workers is highest in the Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR) (751) followed by Bangladesh (613), Cambodia (478), and India (446).

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



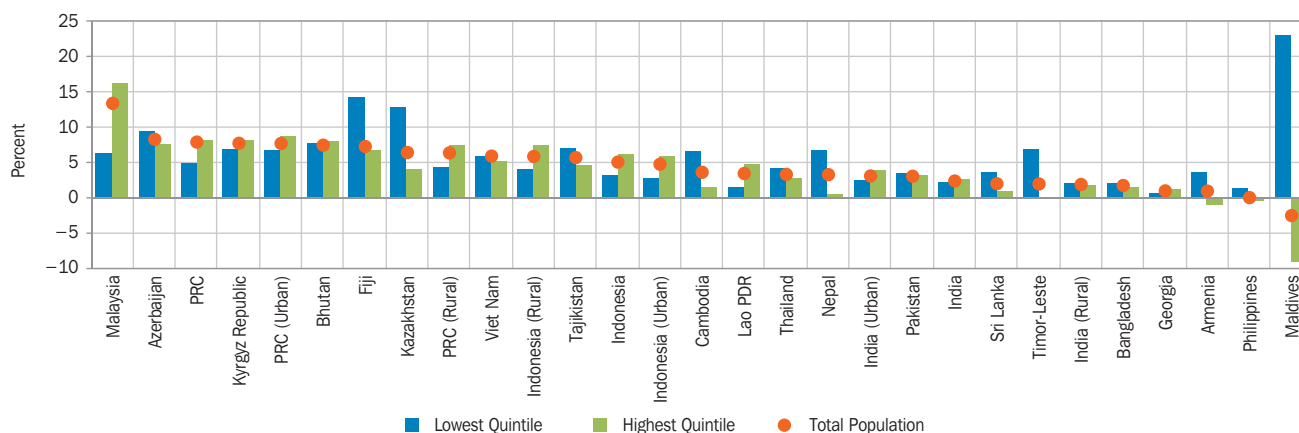
GDP = gross domestic product, FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PNG = Papua New Guinea, PPP = purchasing power parity, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.3.

Inequalities in Growth and Employment

Latest household income or consumption surveys (mostly conducted from 1998 to 2012) show that in 12 out of 20 economies, average per capita income or consumption (in 2005 PPP\$) of households in the lowest quintile grew at a faster rate than that of households in the highest quintile (Figure 2.8). Data from similar surveys conducted for earlier years (mostly in the 1990s) in 20 economies show that in only six of them has the rate been faster in lowest-quintile households than those in the highest-quintile households. Among the five most populous economies, the PRC, India, and Indonesia had faster average growth of per capita income or consumption in the highest-quintile households than in the lowest-quintile households based on two surveys conducted between 1999 and 2010.

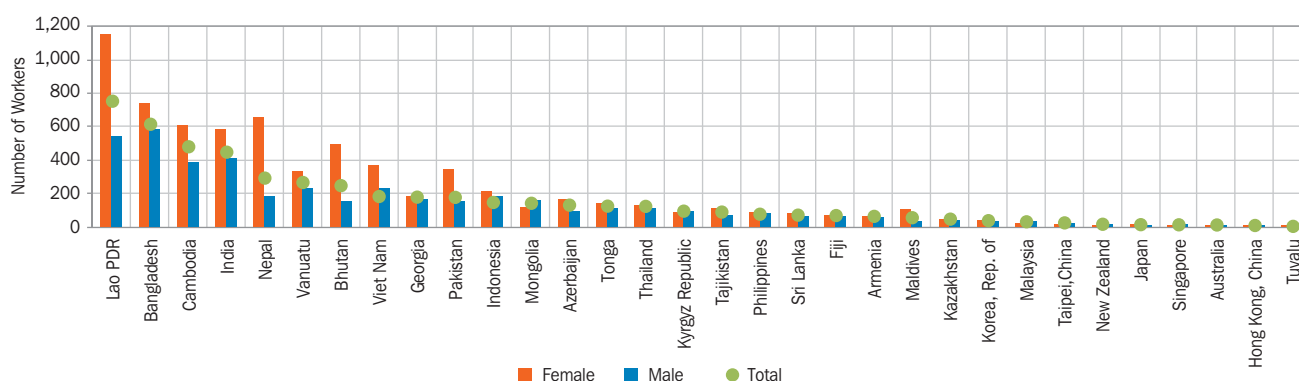
Data for employment-to-population ratio reflect gender disparities in almost all economies of developing Asia. In Bangladesh, Fiji, India, Pakistan, Samoa, Sri Lanka, and Timor-Leste, ratios for adult males are more than twice the ratios for adult females. Disparities in the employment-to-population ratios among the youth also exist and 26 out of 35 economies had ratios higher for males than for females. In Afghanistan and Pakistan, employment-to-population ratios of young males were 5.0 and 3.6 times, respectively, of the corresponding ratios for young females. Further, the number of own-account and contributing family workers for every 100 wage and salaried workers are much higher for females in 22 of 29 economies implying that women are more likely to be employed in vulnerable jobs than men (Figure 2.9).

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



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

Figure 2.9 Number of Own-Account and Contributing Family Workers (per 100 wage and salaried workers), 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.

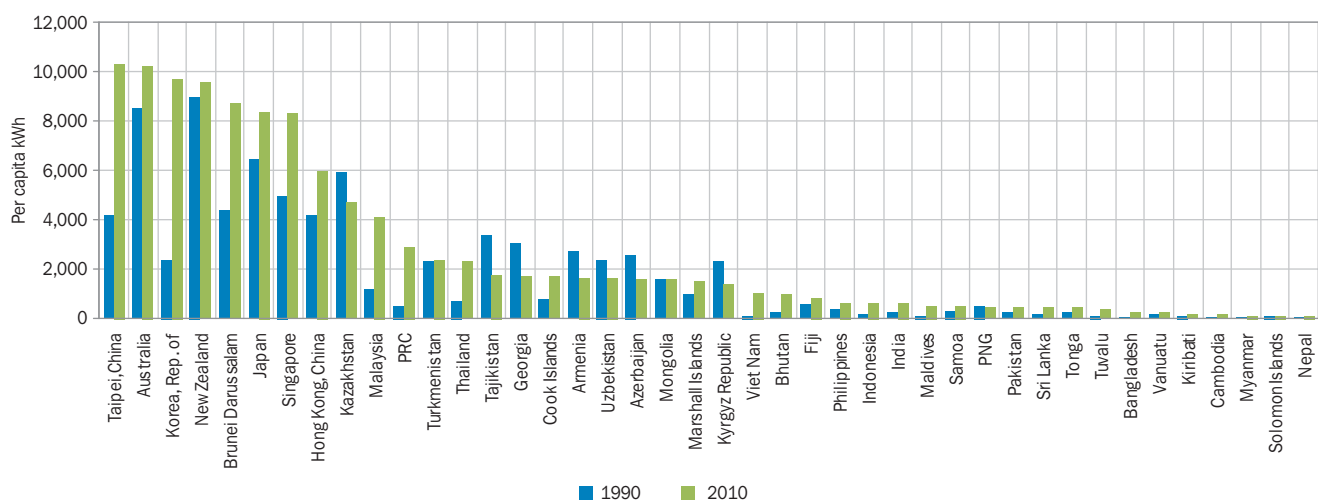
Trends in Economies

Electricity is an important input for economic growth. The electricity consumption per capita in developing Asia has more than tripled from 503 kilowatt-hours (kWh) in 1990 to 1,733 kWh in 2010 or nearest years for which data are available. However, wide disparities still exist, with per capita consumption ranging from a low of 64 kWh in Afghanistan to as high as 10,356 kWh in Taipei, China (Figure 2.10). By 2010 or latest year, the per capita consumption in 22 economies of developing Asia was below 1,036 kWh, which is 10% of the per capita consumption of Taipei, China. Per capita

consumption in nine economies of developing Asia declined between 1990 and 2010 or nearest years, seven of which are in Central and West Asia, where economies suffered after the collapse of the former Soviet Union, and two in the Pacific island economies of Solomon Islands and Papua New Guinea. Among the five most populous economies, the People's Republic of China (the PRC) had the highest per capita consumption of 2,944 kWh, comparatively much higher than Indonesia (639 kWh), India (626 kWh), Pakistan (458 kWh), and Bangladesh (274 kWh).

The percentage of paved roads increased in 26 out of 38 economies in developing Asia between 1990 and the recent year for which data are available. Growth above 40 percentage points between earliest and latest years was recorded in Brunei Darussalam with 49.7 points, and Thailand with 43.2 points. For these two economies, the increase is due to the faster rate of increase in the length of paved roads as compared to the rate of increase in total road network. On the other hand, the large decreases in Azerbaijan (43.3 percentage points) and Bhutan (36.7 points) are due to the slower rate of increase in paved roads compared to the increases in total roads. The same is observed in the PRC, where the percentage of paved roads declined by 18.6 percentage points from 1990

Figure 2.10 Electricity Consumption (per capita kWh), 1990 and 2010 or Nearest Years



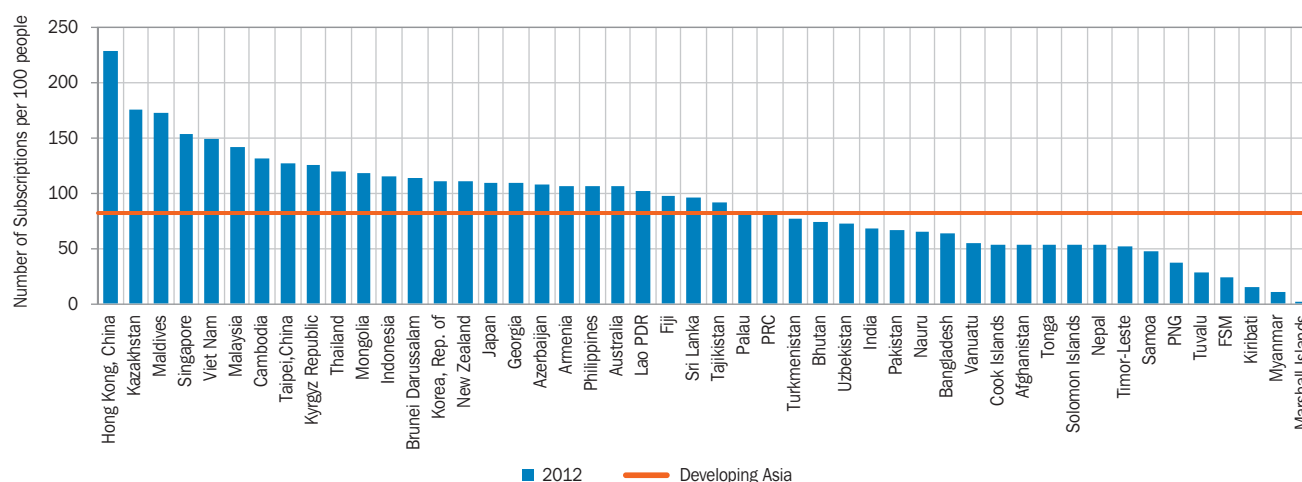
kWh = kilowatt-hour, PNG = Papua New Guinea, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.4.

to 2008. Although paved roads increased, the higher rate of increase in the total road network—which more than tripled from 1.2 million kilometers in 1990 to 3.7 million kilometers in 2008—pulled down the PRC's share of paved roads. Hong Kong, China; the Maldives; and Singapore all have 100% paved roads. Data for this indicator is outdated for many economies (some are 10–12 years old) and a different situation might be reflected if more current data were available.

Cellular phone subscriptions per 100 people have grown in all economies of developing Asia from 2000 to 2012. The fastest rate of subscription was in Tajikistan, with an average annual increase of 103.0%. Taipei, China had the slowest average rate of increase with 3.73%; however, its subscription rate in 2000 was already high at 81.5 per 100 people. In 2012 (or latest year), 19 of 45 economies in developing Asia had a subscription rate of more than 100 (Figure 2.11). The highest three in number of subscriptions per 100 people are Hong Kong, China (228); Kazakhstan (175); and the Maldives (173). On the other extreme, three economies have subscriptions of below 20 per 100 people—Kiribati (16), Myanmar (11) and the Marshall Islands¹ (1)—showing wide disparities across economies. All economies in Southeast Asia, except for Myanmar, have more than 100 cellular phone subscriptions per 100 people.

An important indicator in assessing an economy's efforts at building inclusive financial systems is the number of depositors with commercial banks. For some economies, however, data on the number of depositors are not available and number of deposit accounts are used instead, which may result in a higher number, as some depositors may have more than one deposit account. From 2004 to 2011, the number of depositors with commercial banks per 1,000 adults had grown in 27 out of 32 reporting economies (Figure 2.12). Eleven of 34 economies for which data for 2011 or latest year are available had ratios of more than 1,000, indicating that on average, each adult has more than one account in a commercial bank. These economies are Brunei Darussalam (1,458); Japan (7,203); Kazakhstan (1,039); the Republic of Korea (4,796); Malaysia (1,642); the Maldives (1,334); Mongolia (3,183); Singapore (2,217); Sri Lanka (1,892); Taipei, China (5,188); and Thailand (1,123). In contrast, five economies have less than 200 depositors per 1,000 adults—Afghanistan (119), Cambodia (132), the Lao PDR (43), the Kyrgyz Republic (155), and Myanmar (123)—revealing wide disparities in access to commercial banks.

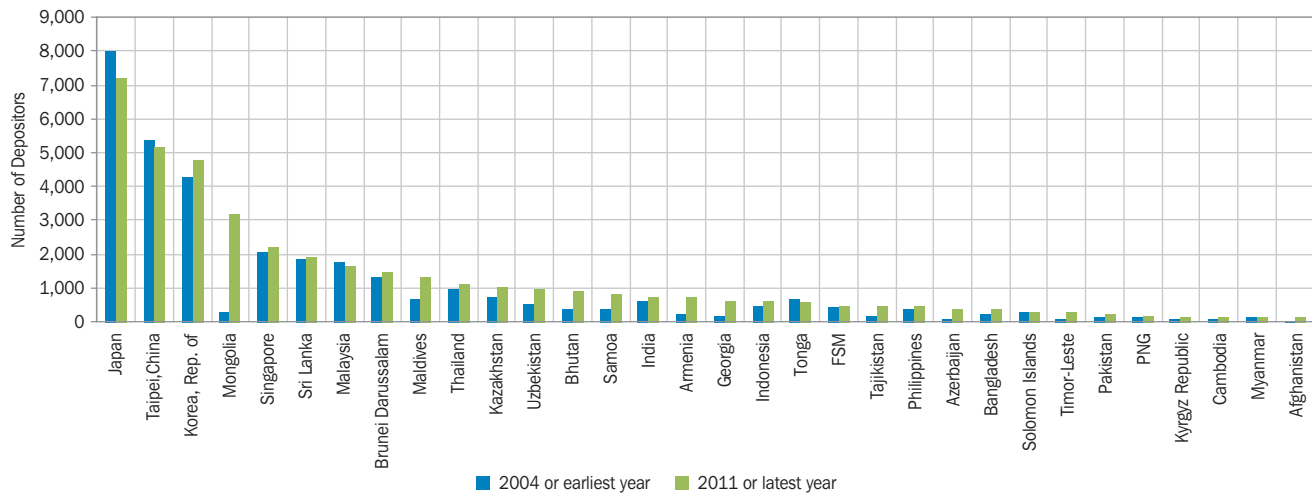
Figure 2.11 Number of Cellular Phone Subscriptions (per 100 People), 2012 or Latest Year



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.

1. The data for the Marshall Islands are dated 2005 and the situation might be different if more recent figures were available.

Figure 2.12 Depositors With Commercial Banks (per 1,000 Adults), 2004 and 2011 or Nearest Years



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, PNG = Papua New Guinea.

Source: Table 2.4.

Inequalities in Infrastructure Endowments

Physical and financial infrastructure is essential to expand access to opportunities for inclusive growth, particularly for the poor and marginalized populations living in geographically disadvantaged locations. Disaggregated data on indicators of access and/or the use of this infrastructure by residence, sex, or wealth, for

example, are needed to help develop suitable programs to enhance infrastructure access for disadvantaged populations. However, these disaggregated data are not available, and concerted efforts are needed to collect and compile quality data on various indicators of infrastructure.

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

Access and Inputs to Education and Health

The Indicators

The indicators included 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

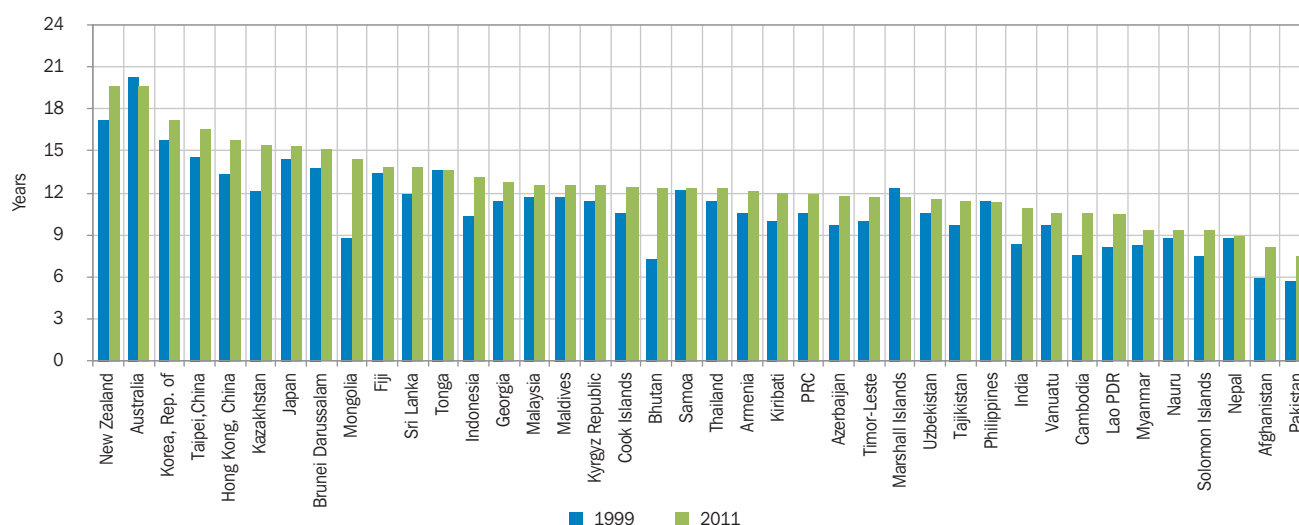
School life expectancy (SLE) measures the average number of years that a child is likely to spend in school given current enrollment ratios. SLE has been consistently increasing in almost all economies in developing

Asia. Between 1999 and 2011, the aggregated SLE for developing Asia increased from 9.0 years to 11.1 years. The extent of increase however varies—with Mongolia having the highest increase from 8.9 years in 1999 to 14.5 years in 2011, Bhutan from 7.2 years to 12.4 years, and Kazakhstan from 12.1 years to 15.4 (Figure 2.13). The Republic of Korea had the highest SLE, and a child entering school in this economy can expect 17.2 years of schooling on average, compared with only 7.5 years for a child in Pakistan—the economy with the lowest SLE.

The pupil–teacher ratio reflects the human resource capacity of education systems and also serves as a proxy indicator for the quality of the educational system. Low values signify smaller class sizes and more time allocated per student by the teacher. The pupil–teacher ratio in developing Asia worsened slightly from 28 in 1990 to 29 in 2000, but improved to 25 in 2011. By region, East Asia (17) and Southeast Asia (19) had the lowest pupil–teacher ratios, and South Asia (40) had the highest.

Between 1990 (or nearest year) and 2011 (or latest year), the pupil–teacher ratios improved in 30 out of 41 economies. Among 11 economies where the ratios worsened between 1990 and 2011—mainly due to teachers' recruitment not keeping pace with student enrollment—Cambodia recorded the largest increase from 35 in 1990 to 47 in 2011. Bangladesh on the other hand improved the ratio from 63 to 40 during the same period by considerably increasing the number of

Figure 2.13 School Life Expectancy (years), 1999, 2011 or Nearest Years



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

teachers. Nearly half of the economies had ratios lower than 20, with Georgia having the lowest ratio of eight pupils per teacher.

The diphtheria, tetanus toxoid, and pertussis (DTP3) immunization rates improved slowly in developing Asia with the average coverage increasing from 79% in 1990 to 83% in 2011. The largest improvements were made in the Central and West Asia, where the average increased from 59% in 1990 to 82% in 2011. Among the five most populous economies, the PRC had 99% coverage, followed by Bangladesh (96%), Pakistan (80%), India (72%), and Indonesia (63%). Four economies—Afghanistan, Cambodia, the Lao PDR, and Nepal—had, at the least, doubled their rates by 2011 from 1990. The coverage in 2011 was lower than the coverage during 1990 in seven economies, including five Pacific economies.

The number of physicians, nurses, and midwives per 10,000 persons indicates the density of trained health personnel to provide adequate coverage for primary health care interventions. On average, there were 26 physicians, nurses, and midwives per 10,000 persons in developing Asia. The highest rates were in the Central and West Asia, East Asia, and Southeast Asia. Afghanistan (3.3), Bangladesh (5.7), Nepal (6.9), and Papua New Guinea (4.8) had the lowest density and 18 out of 44 economies had densities lower than

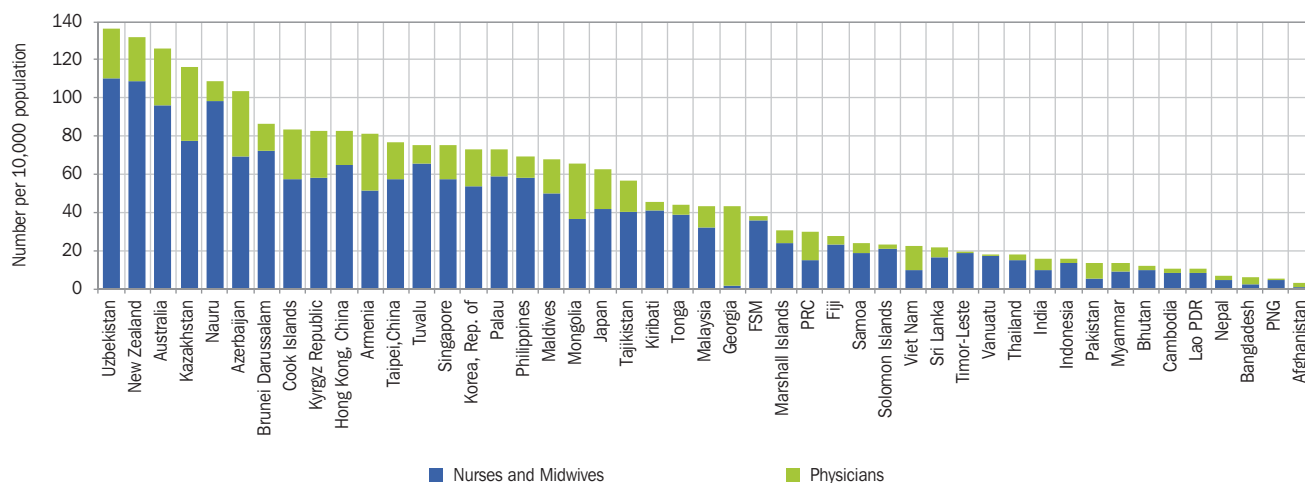
developing Asia's average of 26 (Figure 2.14). Three of the Central and West Asia economies—Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan—and Nauru had more than 100 physicians, nurses, and midwives per 10,000 persons.

Data showed that governments generally spend more on education than on health. Fiji, the Kyrgyz Republic, Malaysia, Singapore, and Vanuatu allocated more than a fifth of their expenditures to education. Developing economies that allocated more than 10% of the total government expenditure to health are Cambodia; the Cook Islands; Fiji; Hong Kong, China; Kiribati; the Kyrgyz Republic; Samoa; and Vanuatu. The government expenditures for most of the economies reported here refer to the central government, except for Bangladesh, Georgia, Japan, the Kyrgyz Republic, and Tajikistan, where data refer to the consolidated government or general government.

Inequalities in Access and Inputs to Education and Health

Gender disparities in the SLE narrowed in almost all economies of developing Asia. The average gap between male and female SLE was reduced from 1.1 years to 0.3 years between 1999 and 2011. By 2011 (or nearest year), SLE in 21 out of 36 developing economies was higher for females than for males. The worst gaps in

Figure 2.14 Physicians, Nurses, and Midwives per 10,000 Population, Latest Year

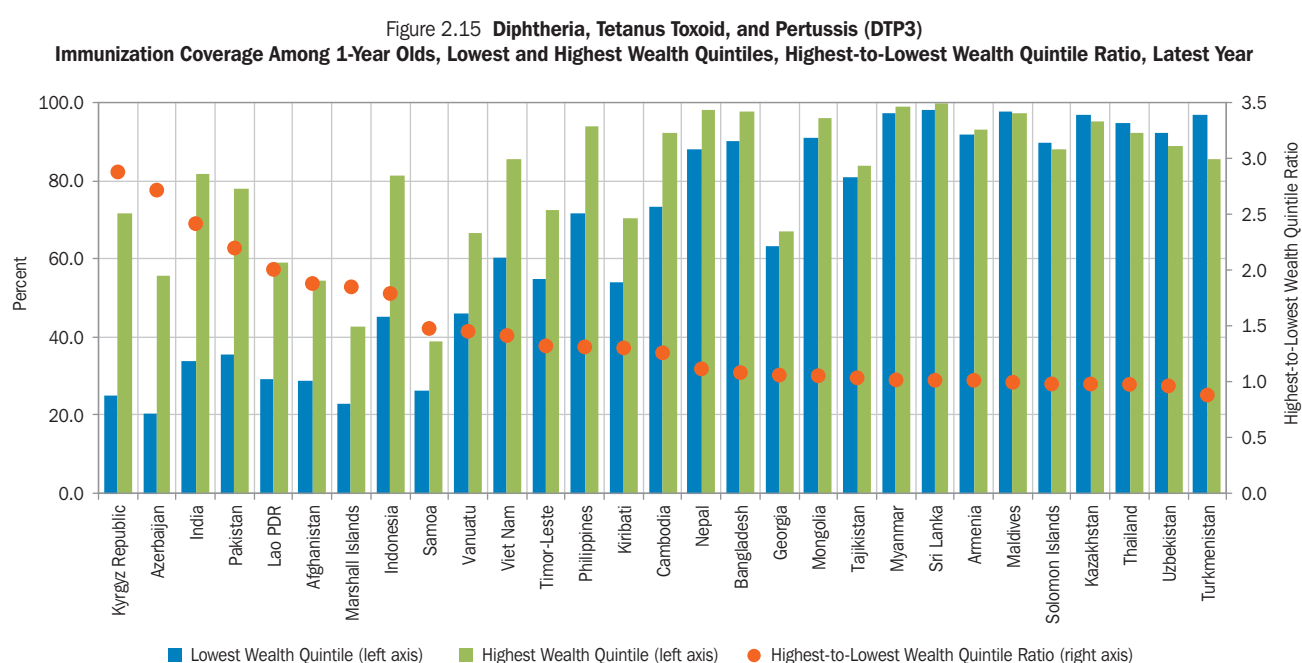


FSM=Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR= Lao People's Democratic Republic, PNG= Papua New Guinea, PRC= People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.5.

2011 are in Afghanistan (4 years), followed by Nepal (2 years), the Republic of Korea (1.8 years), Tajikistan (1.8 years), and Pakistan (1.7 years).

Essential DTP3 immunization is more likely to be unavailable for children born in the rural or in the poorest households than for urban or richer children. Rural children in two-thirds of the economies were at a disadvantage compared to their urban counterparts, and the coverage rates in urban areas were at least 1.3 times the rural coverage rates in Afghanistan (1.4),

Azerbaijan (1.8), India (1.4), the Lao PDR (1.4), the Marshall Islands (3.2), and Pakistan (1.3) (Figure 2.15). Further, in three-fourths of the developing economies of Asia, the immunization rates for children in the poorest quintiles were lower than those of the children in the richest quintiles. Children in the richest quintile for eight economies—the Kyrgyz Republic (2.9), Azerbaijan (2.7), India (2.4), Pakistan (2.2), the Lao PDR (2.0), Afghanistan (1.9), the Marshall Islands (1.9), and Indonesia (1.8)—were more than 1.5 times likely to be immunized than the children in the poorest quintile.



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

Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services

The Indicators

The indicators for access to basic infrastructure utilities and services are:

- Percentage of population with access to electricity,
- Share of population using solid fuels for cooking,
- Proportion of population using an improved drinking water source, and
- Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility.

Trends in Economies

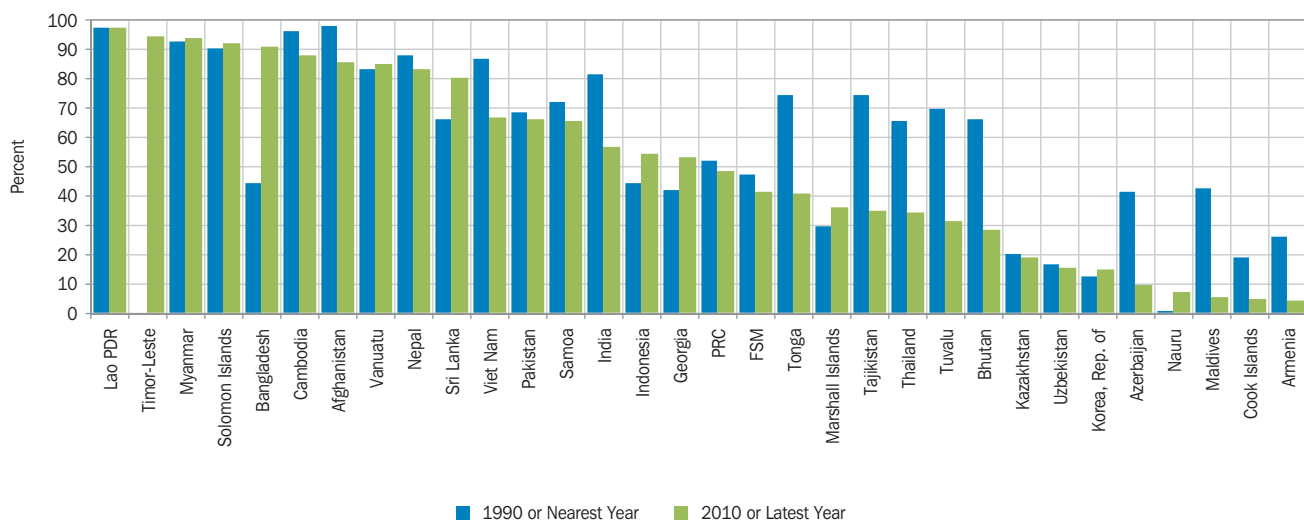
Access to modern energy for lighting and clean fuels for cooking are important for human well-being and for social inclusion. Estimates in 2010 show that 48% or 604 million of the world's 1.27 billion people without access to electricity are in 20 economies of developing Asia. At the same time, the percentage of population with access to electricity in these same economies rose to 83% in 2010 from 68% in 2000 (IEA 2012).² Six economies—Brunei Darussalam; Malaysia; the People's Republic of China; Singapore; Taipei, China; and

Viet Nam—have almost 100% coverage, while less than half of the population in five economies—Afghanistan (30%), Cambodia (31%), Timor-Leste (38%), Bangladesh (47%), and Myanmar (49%)—have access to electricity.

The use of solid fuels such as biomass—wood, agricultural residues, dung, charcoal, and coal for cooking increases the risk of household exposure to indoor air pollution, and is a leading risk factor causing deaths, but in 17 out of 36 economies, solid fuels were the major source of cooking fuel for more than 50% of the population. More than 90% of the population in five of these 17 economies—the Lao PDR (98%), Myanmar (95%), Timor-Leste (95%), Solomon Islands (92%), and Bangladesh (91%)—depend on solid fuels (Figure 2.16).

Economies in developing Asia have made good progress in providing their populations with access to safe drinking water. Recent estimates from the World Health Organization (WHO) and UNICEF³ show that access to safe drinking water increased from 70% in 1990 to 90% in 2011. Still, less than 75% of the population had access to safe drinking water in Papua New Guinea (40%), Afghanistan (61%), Kiribati (66%), Tajikistan (66%), Cambodia (67%), Timor-Leste (69%), and the Lao PDR (70%).

Figure 2.16 Share of Population Using Solid Fuels for Cooking, 1990 or Nearest Year, 2010 or Latest Year



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

2 International Energy Agency (IEA). 2012. *World Energy Outlook 2012 Edition*. Paris: OECD/IEA2012.

3 WHO and UNICEF. 2012. *Joint Monitoring Report for Water Supply and Sanitation: Progress on Sanitation and Drinking Water: 2013 Update*. New York: WHO and UNICEF.

Access to safe sanitation facilities almost doubled from 28% in 1990 to 55% by 2011. Despite this, nearly 45% or 1.67 billion people in developing Asia still use unimproved sanitation facilities such as shared facilities and open defecation. Among the economies where access to improved sanitation is below developing Asia's average of 55% are Papua New Guinea (19%), Afghanistan (28%), Solomon Islands (29%), Cambodia (33%), India (35%), Nepal (35%), Kiribati (39%), Timor-Leste (39%), Bhutan (45%), Pakistan (47%), and Mongolia (53%).

While the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) target for safe drinking water was achieved in 2010, developing Asia considerably lags behind in meeting the MDG target for improved sanitation.

Inequalities in Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services

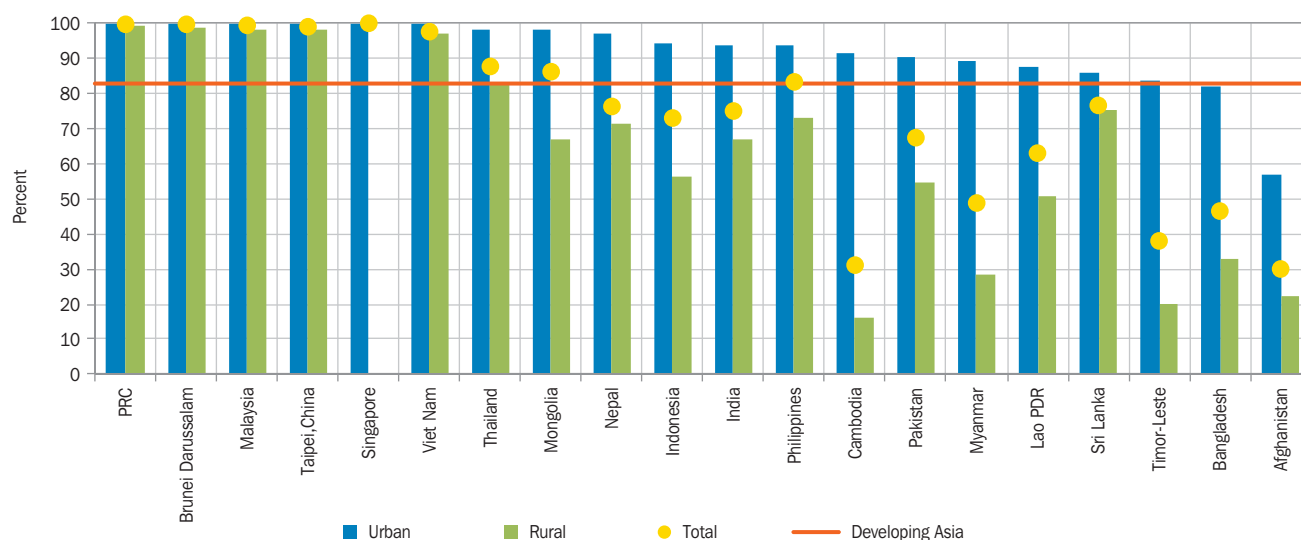
Disparities in access to electricity by households in rural and urban areas exist in all economies except for those where the access rates are almost 100%. Data for 2010 for 20 economies of developing Asia show wide rural-urban disparities (Figure 2.17). The ratios of urban-to-rural access were 1.5 or more in 9 countries with ratios as high as 3.1 (Myanmar), 4.1 (Timor-Leste), and 5.7 (Cambodia).

Rural households in most economies are at a much higher risk of exposure to indoor air pollution and related diseases than households in urban areas. In 2010, nearly 81.7% of rural households as compared with 27.3% in urban areas depended on solid fuels. The estimated rural population is nearly 1.79 billion out of 1.97 billion total population using solid fuels as major cooking fuel. In 11 economies, more than 90% of the rural population use solid fuels for cooking, with almost 100% in Bangladesh, the Lao PDR, and Timor-Leste.

Households in the lowest wealth quintile substantially use solid fuels for cooking, regardless of whether their economy has high or low incidence of use of solid fuels. In 13 out of 25 economies, more than 90% of the population in the bottom wealth quintile use solid fuels for cooking. Disparities were quite stark in Mongolia and Indonesia, where 99% and 97% of the people in poorest quintile used solid fuels respectively, compared with corresponding 2% and 1% in the richest quintile.

Developing Asia has made good progress in bridging the gap between rural and urban areas with regard to providing access to improved drinking water sources. Between 1990 and 2011, access in rural areas improved by 25 percentage points from 61% to 86%, and in urban areas by 4 percentage points from 93% to

Figure 2.17 Percentage of Population with Access to Electricity, Total, Rural, Urban, 2010



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.

Note: Singapore is 100% urban.

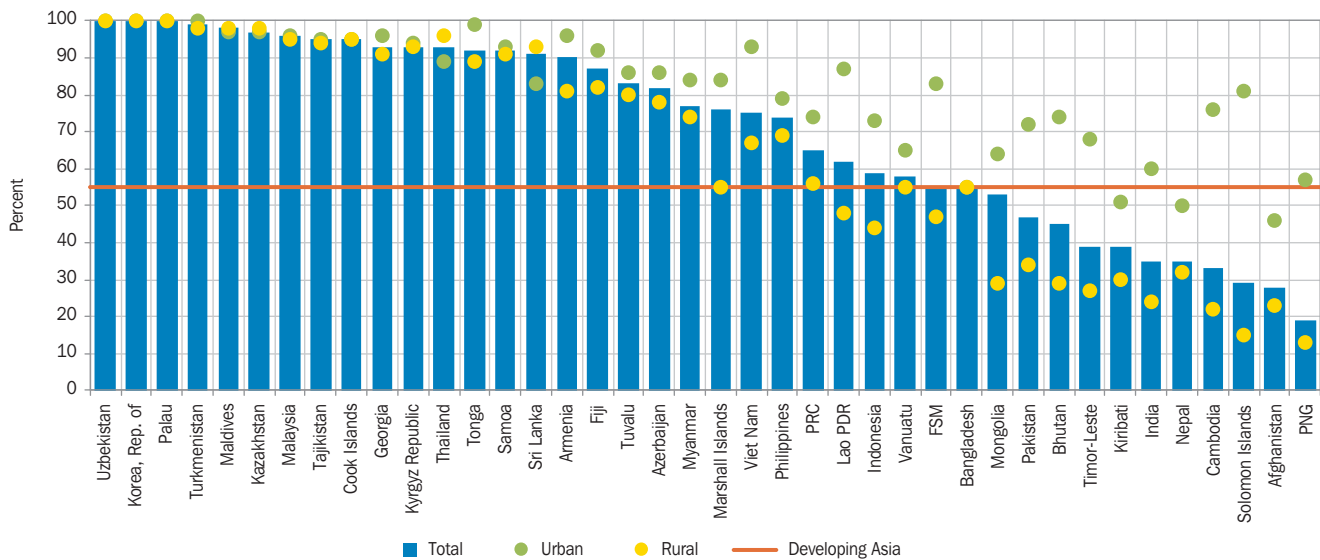
Source: Table 2.6.

97%. By the end of 2011, 14% of the rural population in developing Asia compared with 3% of the population in urban areas, had no access to improved drinking water sources. Between 1990 and 2011, 10 out of 42 economies had improved access in rural areas by at least 25 percentage points, with Afghanistan and Viet Nam improving by 50 and 44 points, respectively, and Cambodia and Vanuatu by 33 points each.

Access to improved sanitation facilities in rural areas improved by 27 percentage points and in urban areas by 15 points between 1990 and 2011. Despite

these gains, disparities between urban and rural areas remain in most economies (Figure 2.18). In developing Asia, only 44% of rural population as compared to 72% urban population had access to improved sanitation in 2011. Out of 1.67 billion people without access to improved sanitation in developing Asia, nearly 1.24 billion live in rural areas. Further, out of nearly 775 million practicing open defecation, 90% were from rural areas. The ratio of urban-to-rural access rates to improved sanitation is 2.0 or higher in nine developing economies, with ratios exceeding 3.0 in Cambodia (3.5), Papua New Guinea (4.4), and Solomon Islands (5.4).

Figure 2.18 Proportion of Population Using an Improved Sanitation Facility, Total, Urban, Rural, 2011



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:

- 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

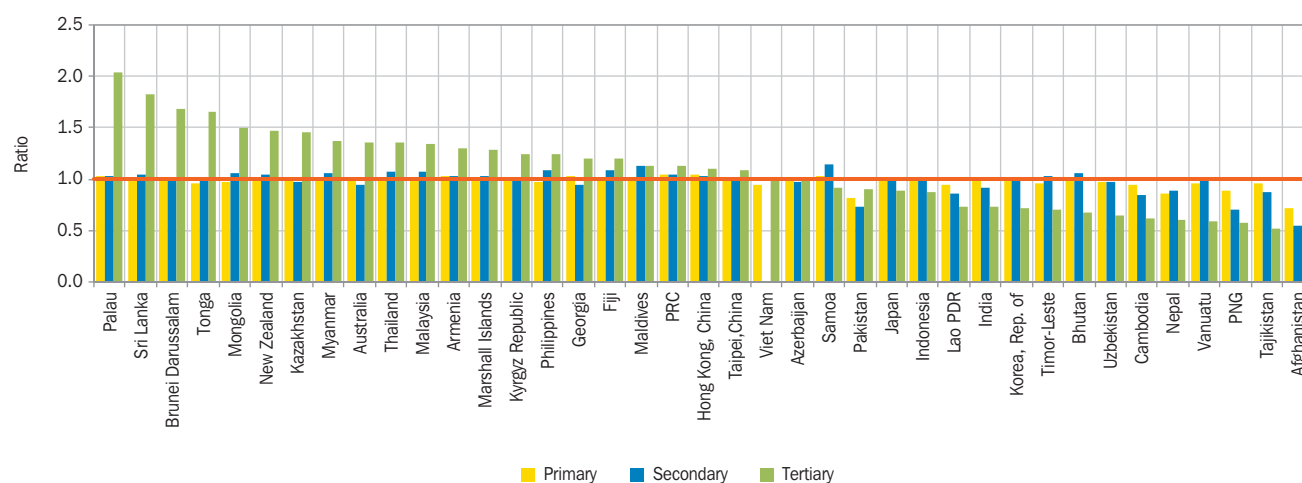
Developing Asia has made significant progress in narrowing the gender gap in all levels of education. Gender parity ratios in primary education increased from 0.86 in 1991 to 1.00 in 2011, in the secondary from 0.72 to 0.97, and in the tertiary from 0.64 to 0.95 during the same period. Gender parity below 1.00 implies that the proportion of girls enrolled is lower than the proportion of boys enrolled. By 2011 (or the nearest year available), only six out of 42 developing economies—Afghanistan (0.71), the Lao PDR (0.94), Nepal (0.86), Pakistan (0.82), Papua New Guinea (0.89), and Viet Nam (0.94)—had gender parity ratios below

0.95 in primary education (Figure 2.19). Progress on gender parity in secondary education is also impressive, with 33 out of 42 economies achieving ratios of 0.95 or more for secondary education by 2011. Among the five most populous economies of developing Asia, India (0.92) and Pakistan (0.73) lagged. Afghanistan had the lowest ratio of 0.55. Gender equality at the tertiary level remains a challenge—16 out of 37 economies had ratios below 0.95. On the other hand, 21 economies (including the PRC) had gender parity ratios that were favorable to women, with ratios greater than 1.0 for tertiary education.

The gender parity ratio in labor force participation rate declined marginally from 0.67 in 1990 to 0.63 in 2012. Gender differences in labor force participation persist in most economies of developing Asia. In 2012 or latest available year, five economies with gender parity ratios of 0.50 or less were Afghanistan (0.20), Pakistan (0.28), India (0.36), Sri Lanka (0.46), and Fiji (0.50). While Sri Lanka exhibited high gender parity in education, the parity appears to have not translated into women's participation in the labor force.

Women are still grossly underrepresented in politics particularly in national parliaments, with only about 19.3% of parliamentary seats occupied by women—although this is an increase of almost five

Figure 2.19 Gender Parity in Primary, Secondary, and Tertiary, 2011 or Latest Year



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

percentage points from 14.6% in 1990. The top five economies in developing Asia with the highest share of women in national parliaments are Timor-Leste (38.5%), Nepal (33.2%), Afghanistan (27.7%), the Lao PDR (25.0%), and Viet Nam (24.4%) (Figure 2.20). Seventeen out of 42 developing economies have less than 10% women representatives, including all the Pacific island economies (except for Timor-Leste with 38.5% women parliamentarians).

The WHO has recommended a minimum of four antenatal visits for effective health interventions for pregnant women. Data from 2006 (or latest year) suggest that in 25 out of 42 economies in developing Asia, more than 90% pregnant women had at least one antenatal visit, compared with nine out of 33 during 1991 (or earliest year). Cambodia, Bhutan, and Nepal improved coverage by 55, 46, and 43 percentage points, respectively. Among the five most populous economies, Indonesia had the highest coverage with 95.7%, followed by the PRC (94.1%), India (74.2%), Pakistan (60.9%), and Bangladesh (54.6%).

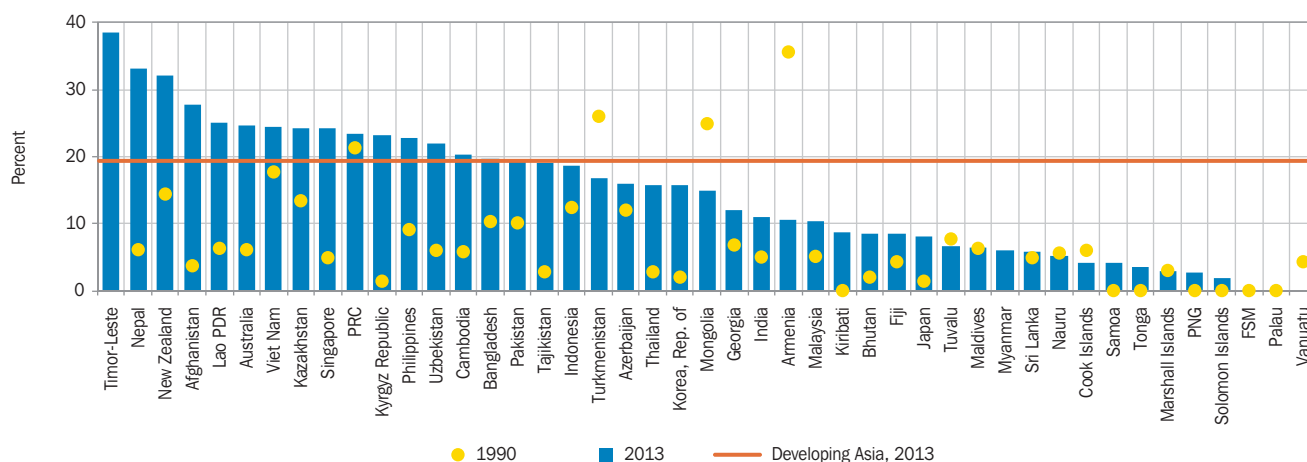
Despite the recommended minimum of four antenatal care visits, coverage rates for this minimum

number are notably low in most countries. Out of 30 economies, only three had coverage rates above 90%—Armenia (92.8), Georgia (90.2), and Sri Lanka (92.5). Only about 45% of pregnant women had at least four antenatal care visits, compared to nearly 81% with at least one visit.

Inequality in Access to Antenatal Care

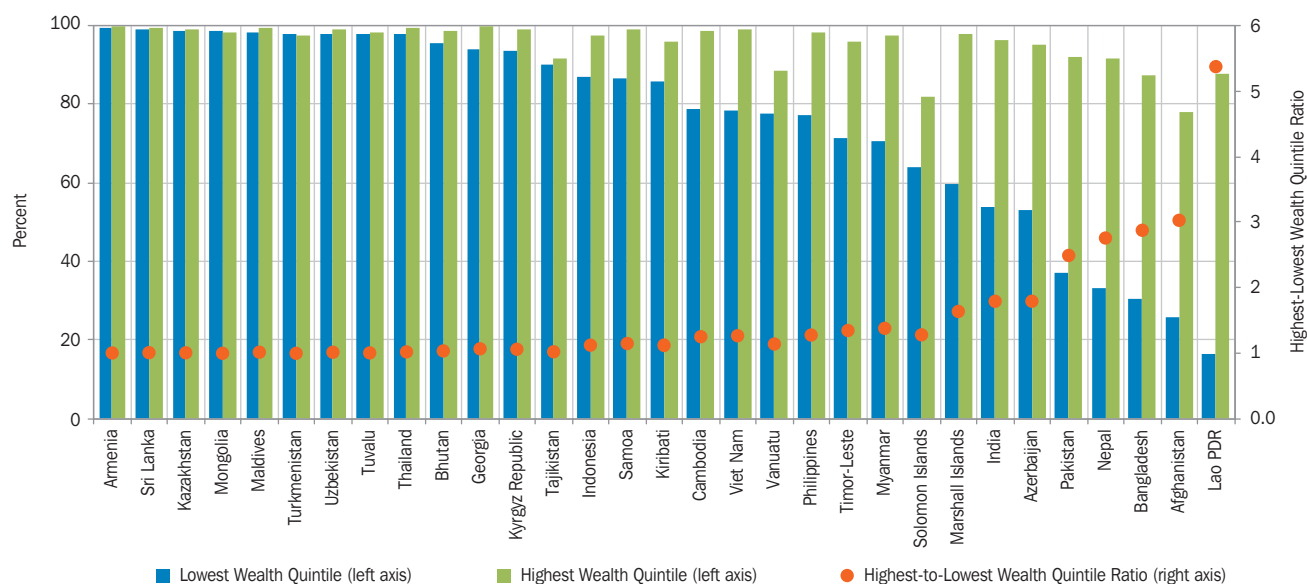
While in general, rural–urban disparities in antenatal care coverage exist, these are less pronounced in economies with high coverage rates. The large urban–rural disparity in antenatal care coverage of at least one visit is evident in six economies with the rural-to-urban ratio at 2.8 for the Lao PDR, 1.9 for Afghanistan, 1.7 for the Marshall Islands, 1.6 for Nepal, and 1.5 for Bangladesh and Pakistan. Similarly, there are large disparities in the coverage rates because of household wealth. The coverage rate for at least one antenatal care visit in the top wealth quintile was at least 2.5 times that in the bottom quintile in the Lao PDR (5.4), Afghanistan (3.0), Bangladesh (2.9), Nepal (2.8), and Pakistan (2.5) (Figure 2.21). Disparities on account of location and wealth are further pronounced for coverage rates for at least four antenatal care visits.

Figure 2.20 Percentage of Seats Held by Women in National Parliament, 1990, 2013 or Nearest Years



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.

Figure 2.21 Antenatal Care Coverage of at Least One Visit (percent of live births),
Lowest and Highest Wealth Quintiles, Highest-to-Lowest Wealth Quintile Ratio, Latest Year



Lao PDR= Lao People's Democratic Republic.
Source: Table 2.7

Policy Pillar Three: Social Safety Nets

The Indicators

The indicators for social safety nets are:

- 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

Social protection and labor rating is one of the indicators under the Asian Development Bank's (ADB) annual country performance assessment (CPA) exercise.⁴ This rating assesses government policies that help reduce the risk of becoming poor, help the poor to manage risks better, and ensure a minimal level of welfare to all people. Interventions such as social safety net programs, pension and old age savings programs, protection of basic labor standards, and labor market regulation are some of the policies under social protection and labor market regulations. Ratings range from "1," corresponding to very weak performance, to "6," for very strong performance.

For 2012, ratings are available for 28 economies in developing Asia, ranging from as high as 5.0 in Armenia and the Kyrgyz Republic and 4.5 in Bhutan, Georgia, Nepal, and Viet Nam, to as low as 2.5 in Solomon Islands and 2.0 in the Federated States of Micronesia. Thirteen economies have higher ratings in 2012 compared with

their ratings in 2005; ratings of two are lower while the rest have maintained their ratings. The highest increase is 1.5 in the Kyrgyz Republic and Nepal, while in the Federated States of Micronesia and Samoa, the ratings have decreased by 0.5.

Social security expenditure on health as a percentage of government expenditure on health (including external donor funding) is a core indicator of health financing systems. The indicator refers to the health expenditures by government social security schemes and compulsory health insurance schemes as a percentage of total government expenditure on health. For economies of developing Asia for which data are available, this indicator showed increase from 45.6% in 1995 to 58.9% in 2011. In 2011, the government's health expenditures on social security as a percentage of government expenditure on health were high in the People's Republic of China (67.0%), Georgia (68.8%), Japan (87.3%), the Kyrgyz Republic (64.1%), and the Republic of Korea (77.7%) (Figure 2.22). Wide disparities across the countries in the region are evident as 14 out of 24 economies had percentages below 20 in 2011, seven of which were below 5%. Between 1995 and 2011, the highest increase was observed in the Kyrgyz Republic, where the percentage went up by 63.5 percentage points followed by Viet Nam with an increase of 31.8 percentage points. On the other hand, percentages declined in seven economies: India, the Republic of Korea, the Marshall Islands, Mongolia, Myanmar, Pakistan, and Samoa.

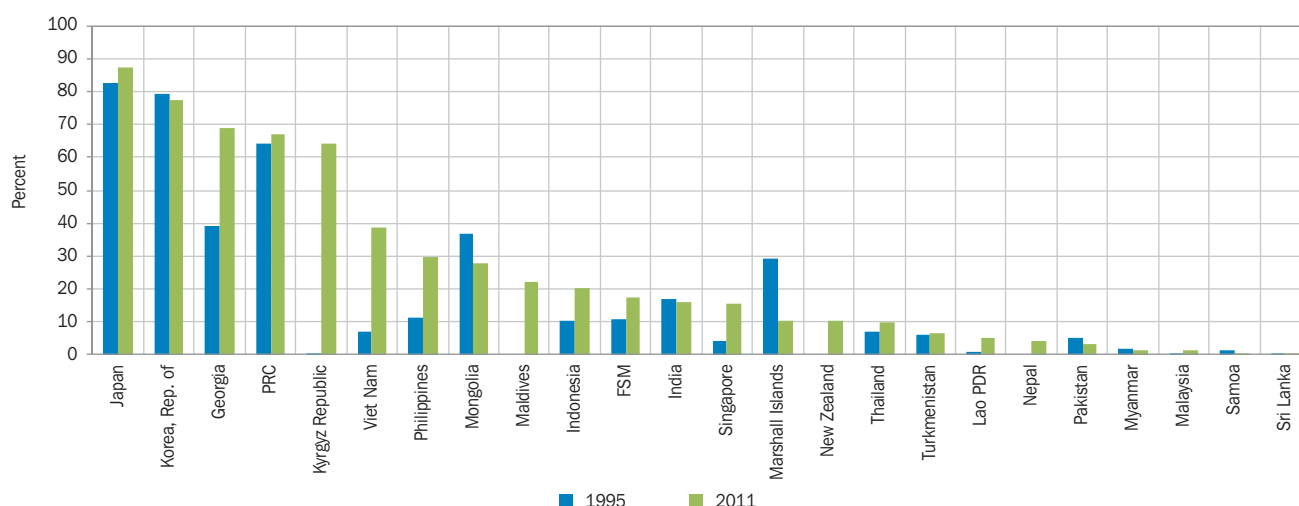
Government expenditures on social security and welfare consist of benefits in cash or in kind to persons who are sick, fully or partially disabled, of old age, survivors, or unemployed, among others. The share of government expenditure on social security and welfare as a share of total government expenditure increased in 22 of the 26 reporting economies of developing Asia from 1995 to 2012. The highest increases of more than 20 percentage points from 1995 were reported in Armenia (24.6 points) and Mongolia (20.5 points). In 2012 (or latest year), 11 of the 28 reporting economies in developing Asia had shares less than or equal to 5.0%—Bangladesh, Bhutan, Brunei Darussalam, Fiji, Kiribati, Malaysia, Nepal, Papua New Guinea, the

4 This exercise assesses the 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 (i) the quality of its macroeconomic management, (ii) the coherence of its structural policies, (iii) the degree to which its policies and institutions promote equity and inclusion, and (iv) 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>

Philippines, Samoa, and Vanuatu (Figure 2.23). The expenditure shares on social security and welfare are generally higher (10% or more) in Central and West Asia and East Asia compared with below 10% shares in South Asia (except for the Maldives, 14.1%), Southeast Asia

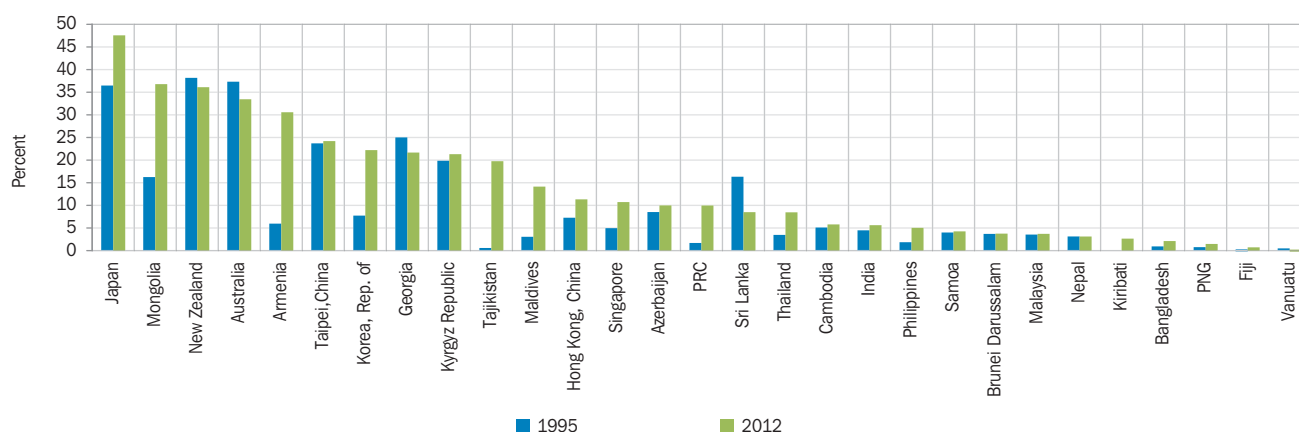
(except for Singapore, 10.7%), and the Pacific. Data for most reporting economies refer to central government only, except for Georgia, Japan, the Kyrgyz Republic, and Tajikistan where data refer to consolidated or general government.

Figure 2.22 Social Security Expenditure on Health (Percentage of Government Expenditure on Health), 1995 and 2011 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 2012 or Nearest Years



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

Good Governance and Institutions

The Indicators

Three indicators are included in this group:

- Voice and accountability,
- Government effectiveness, and
- Control of corruption.

The indicators are three of the six broad dimensions of the World Bank's Worldwide Governance Indicators (WGI).⁵ The ratings are based on perceptions⁶ of stakeholders worldwide. The scores for the indicators are in standard normal WGI units, ranging from –2.5 to +2.5, where higher values correspond to better governance. The average score for the world in every period is zero. As the scores are based on perceptions, small differences in point estimates need to be interpreted with caution, taking into consideration the associated standard errors and confidence intervals along with changes in the sources of data over time.

Governance Ratings in Economies

In general, the distribution for the three indicators of good governance and institutions for economies in developing Asia are markedly similar. In 2011, about two-thirds of the economies tended to have scores lower than zero for the three indicators, and more often than not, those at the tail end of one indicator tended to also be at the tail end of the other indicators. Ratings also show that the three developed members—Australia, Japan, and New Zealand—were consistently perceived to have good governance and institutions.

The first indicator, “voice and accountability,” captures perceptions of the extent to which a country's citizens participate in selecting their government, as well as freedom of expression, freedom of association,

and a free media. In 2011, 18 of the 48 regional member economies of the ADB scored 0.0 (world average) or higher. These 18 include 11 developing economies of the Pacific, with four of them—the Marshall Islands (1.2), Palau (1.2), Federated States of Micronesia (1.1), and Nauru (1.1)—among the top five, just behind New Zealand and Australia. Turkmenistan (–2.1), Uzbekistan (–2.0), and Myanmar (–1.9) were in the rightmost tail of Figure 2.24.

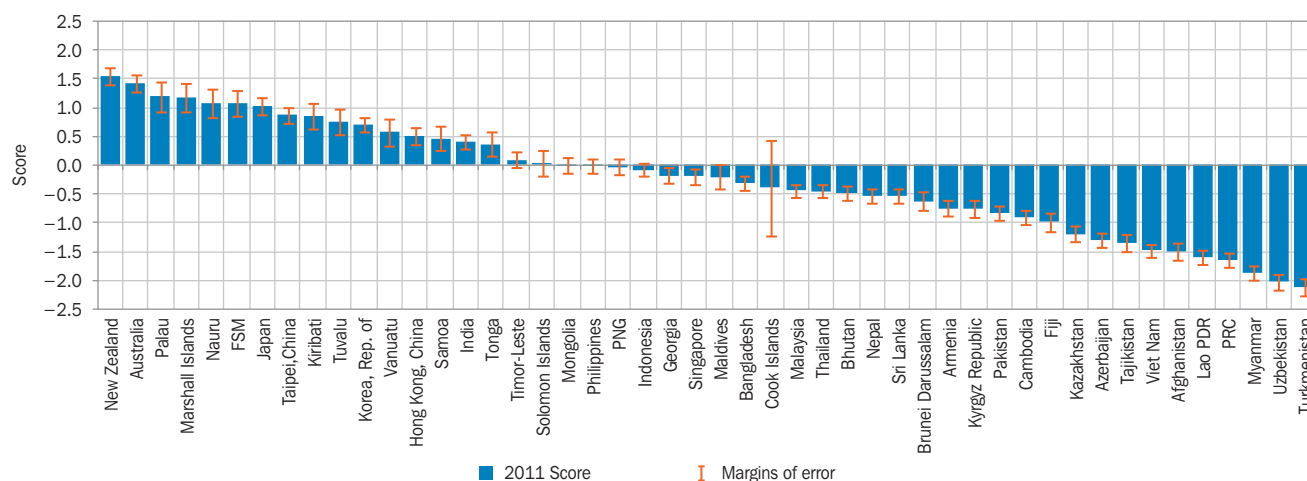
The second indicator, “government effectiveness,” captures perceptions of the quality of public services, the quality of the civil service and the degree of its independence from political pressures, the quality of policy formulation and implementation, and the credibility of the government's commitment to such policies. In 2011, 13 of the 48 ADB regional member economies had scores above the world average of 0.0. Among the 45 developing economies, the score was highest in 2011 for Singapore (2.2); Hong Kong, China (1.7); the Republic of Korea (1.2); Taipei, China (1.2); and Malaysia (1.0) (Figure 2.25). On the other hand, the quality of these services was perceived to be poorest in Afghanistan, the Marshall Islands, Myanmar, Timor-Leste, and Turkmenistan.

“Control of corruption,” captures perceptions of the extent to which public power is exercised for private gain, including both petty and grand forms of corruption, as well as “capture” of the state by elites and private interests. In 2011, corruption among the developing economies in Asia was perceived to be most effectively controlled in Singapore (2.1); Hong Kong, China (1.8); and Taipei, China (0.9) (Figure 2.26). Control of corruption, however, was weakest in Myanmar (–1.7), along with Afghanistan (–1.6), Turkmenistan (–1.5), Uzbekistan (–1.3), Azerbaijan (–1.1), Cambodia (–1.1), the Kyrgyz Republic (–1.1), the Lao PDR (–1.1), Papua New Guinea (–1.1), Tajikistan (–1.1), and Timor-Leste (–1.1).

5 The WGI report on six broad dimensions of governance for over 200 countries for 1996–2011: (i) voice and accountability, (ii) political stability and absence of violence, (iii) government effectiveness, (iv) regulatory quality, (v) rule of law, and (vi) control of corruption.

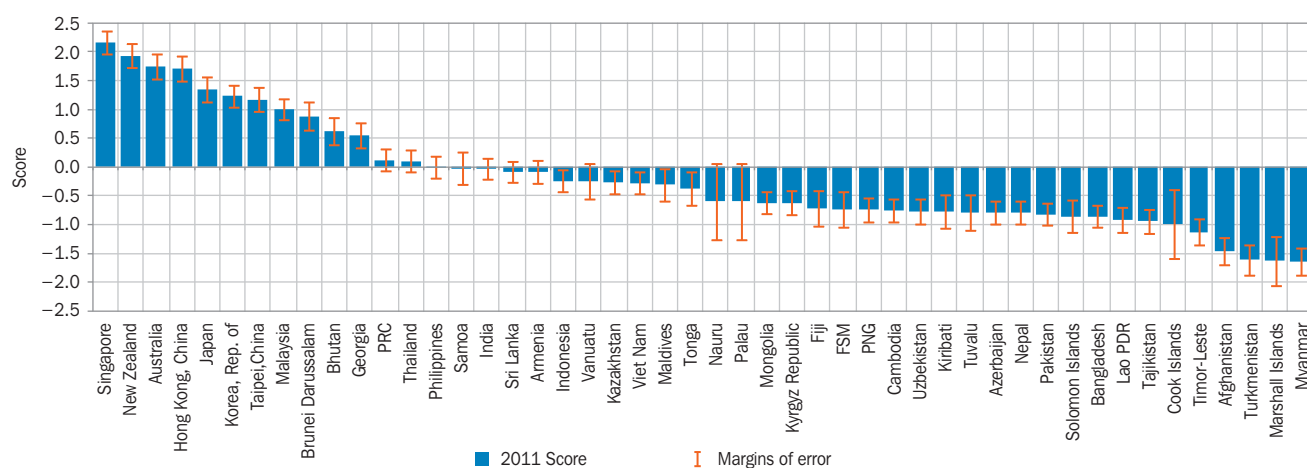
6 For details on methodology, data sources, interpretation, etc., refer to (i) Kaufmann, Daniel; Aart Kraay; and Massimo Mastruzzi. 2010. *The Worldwide Governance Indicators: Methodology and Analytical Issues* (September 2010). *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper*. No. 5430. Washington, DC: World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

Figure 2.24 Voice and Accountability, 2011



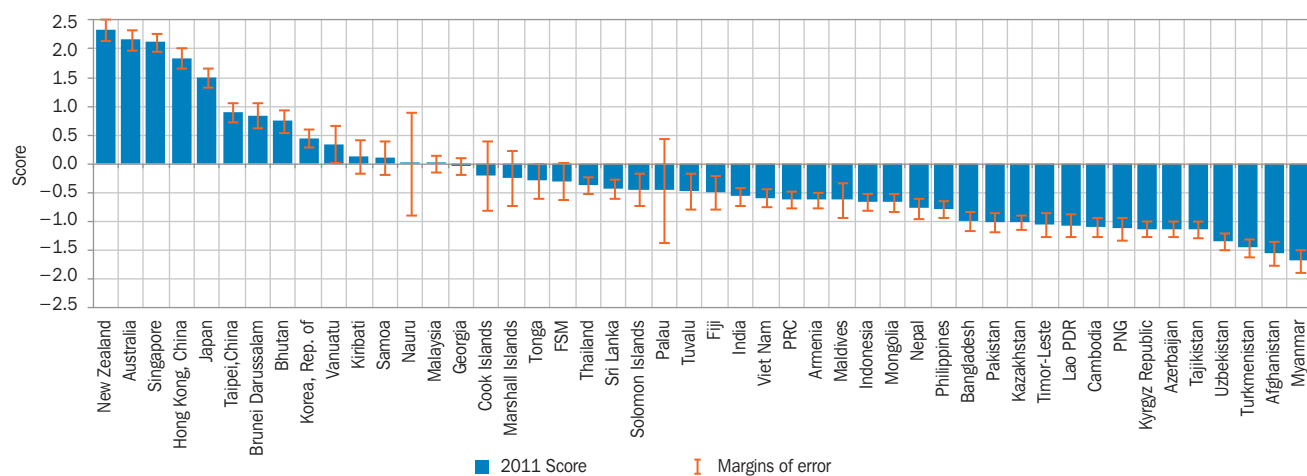
FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PNG = Papua New Guinea, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.9.

Figure 2.25 Government Effectiveness, 2011



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.

Figure 2.26 Control of Corruption, 2011



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.

Table 2.1 **Income Poverty and Inequality**

	1 Proportion of Population below the National Poverty Line (percent) ^a					
	Earliest Year			Latest Year		
	Total	Rural ^b	Urban ^b	Total	Rural ^b	Urban ^b
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan ^c	33.0 (2005)	36.2	21.1	36.0 (2008)	37.5	29.0
Armenia	48.3 (2001)	47.9	48.5	35.0 (2011)	34.5	35.2
Azerbaijan	49.6 (2001)	42.5	55.7	7.6 (2011)	18.5 (2008)	14.8 (2008)
Georgia	24.6 (2004)	26.2	23.0	23.0 (2011)	26.9	18.8
Kazakhstan	46.7 (2001)	59.4	36.0	3.8 (2012)	6.1	1.9
Kyrgyz Republic	62.6 (2000)	67.6	53.3	36.8 (2011)	40.4	30.7
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	17.7 (2010)	20.1	13.4
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	6.0 (1996)	7.9	2.0	...	10.2 ^d	...
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of	5.0 (2004)
Mongolia	27.4 (2012)	35.5	23.2
Taipei, China ^e	0.6 (1993)	1.4 (2011)
South Asia						
Bangladesh	56.6 (1992)	58.7	42.7	31.5 (2010)	35.2	21.3
Bhutan	23.2 (2007)	30.9	1.7	12.0 (2012)	16.7	1.8
India ^f	45.3 (1994)	50.1	31.8	29.8 (2010)	33.8	20.9
Maldives	21.0 ^g (2003)	15.0 ^h (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
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	12.0 (2012)	15.1	8.8
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	32.1 (2005)	35.8	21.5	25.6 (2010)	29.2	15.7
Philippines	33.1 (1991)	26.5 (2009)
Singapore
Thailand ⁱ	58.1 (1990)	66.2	38.7	13.2 (2011)	16.7	9.0
Viet Nam	20.7 ^j (2010)	27.0	6.0
The Pacific^k						
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	20.0 (1999)
Micronesia, Fed. States of	27.9 (1998)	31.4 (2005)
Nauru
Palau	24.9 (2006)	28.9	26.2
Papua New Guinea	30.0 (1990)	28.0 (2009)
Samoa	22.9 (2002)	26.9 (2008)
Solomon Islands	22.7 (2006)
Timor-Leste	36.3 (2001)	39.7	25.2	41.1 (2009)	51.5 (2007)	45.2 (2007)
Tonga	16.2 (2001)	22.5 (2009)
Tuvalu	21.2 (2004)	17.5	27.6	26.3 (2010)	24.8	27.5
Vanuatu	13.0 (2006)
Developed Member Economies						
Australia
Japan
New Zealand

a Data are consumption-based, except for Malaysia; the People's Republic of China; the Republic of Korea; and Taipei, China, which are income-based.

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

c Data are not comparable due to seasonality and changes in the questionnaires used.

d Based on new national poverty line stipulated in the country's rural poverty reduction target for 2012.

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

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

g Data have been adjusted to account for inflation.

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

i The entire series is updated based on revised national poverty line in 2013, and cannot be compared with previous published series.

j Data is based on the 2010 revised World Bank/General Statistics Office of Viet Nam expenditure poverty line, and thus, not comparable with the prior series. An alternative poverty headcount rate released by the government is 14.2, which is based on the official Ministry of Labor, Invalids, and Social Affairs poverty lines (revised every 5 years for the Socio-Economic Development Plan) and a "bottom up" system using community-level poverty counts aggregated up to district, province, and national levels.

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

Sources: Economy sources; Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2013; National Minimum Development Indicators Database (SPC), accessed 14 June 2013.

Table 2.1 **Income Poverty and Inequality**

	2 Proportion of Population Living below \$2 a Day at 2005 PPP\$ (percent) ^a				3 Income or Consumption Share (percent) ^a					
					Earliest Year			Latest Year		
	Earliest Year		Latest Year		Lowest Quintile	Highest Quintile	Ratio of Highest Quintile to Lowest Quintile ^b	Lowest Quintile	Highest Quintile	Ratio of Highest Quintile to Lowest Quintile ^b
Developing Member Economies										
Central and West Asia										
Afghanistan	9.4	37.5	4.0 (2008)
Armenia	48.8	(1999)	19.9	(2010)	7.6	44.0	5.8 (1999)	8.8	40.5	4.6 (2010)
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)	35.6	(2010)	6.1	43.6	7.1 (1996)	5.0	47.6	9.5 (2010)
Kazakhstan	18.8	(1996)	1.1	(2009)	6.8	42.4	6.2 (1996)	9.1	38.4	4.2 (2009)
Kyrgyz Republic	30.1	(1993)	21.6	(2011)	2.5	57.0	22.7 (1993)	7.7	41.4	5.4 (2011)
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	49.7	(1998)	...		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 ^c	84.6	(1990)	27.2	(2009)	8.0	40.7	5.1 (1990)	4.7	47.1	10.1 (2009)
China, People's Rep. of (Rural)	93.0	(1990)	45.8	(2009)	9.0	39.9	4.4 (1990)	6.4	48.4	7.6 (2009)
China, People's Rep. of (Urban)	62.4	(1990)	3.5	(2009)	9.6	35.4	3.7 (1990)	7.2	43.5	6.0 (2009)
Hong Kong, China		5.3	50.8	9.6 (1996)
Korea, Rep. of ^d		7.2	38.9	5.4 (2006)	6.7	37.3	5.6 (2012)
Mongolia		7.4	40.8	5.5 (1995)	7.1	44.0	6.2 (2008)
Taipei, China ^d		7.4	38.7	5.2 (1992)	6.5	40.3	6.2 (2011)
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)	12.6	(2012)	5.4	53.0	9.9 (2003)	6.8	46.0	6.8 (2012)
India ^c	81.7	(1994)	68.8	(2010)	9.1	40.1	4.4 (1994)	8.5	42.8	5.0 (2010)
India (Rural)	85.1	(1994)	73.5	(2010)	9.6	38.4	4.0 (1994)	9.4	39.7	4.2 (2010)
India (Urban)	72.1	(1994)	57.6	(2010)	8.0	42.8	5.3 (1994)	7.0	46.8	6.7 (2010)
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)	23.9	(2009)	8.7	41.5	4.8 (1991)	7.7	44.6	5.8 (2010)
Southeast Asia										
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	75.2	(1994)	49.5	(2009)	8.0	46.8	5.8 (1994)	7.9	44.5	5.6 (2009)
Indonesia ^c	84.6	(1990)	46.1	(2010)	9.4	38.9	4.1 (1990)	7.6	43.7	5.7 (2010)
Indonesia (Rural)	87.9	(1990)	49.0	(2010)	10.0	36.7	3.7 (1990)	8.6	40.4	4.7 (2010)
Indonesia (Urban)	77.0	(1990)	43.6	(2010)	7.9	43.0	5.4 (1990)	6.9	45.6	6.6 (2010)
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		4.1	49.7	12.3 (1998)	3.4	49.7	14.5 (2008)
Thailand	37.1	(1990)	4.1	(2010)	5.9	52.2	8.8 (1990)	6.8	46.7	6.9 (2010)
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	e (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 ^f		7.9	37.8	4.8 (1995)	7.4	40.2	5.4 (2010)
Japan ^f		6.9	39.4	5.7 (1994)	6.6	39.6	6.0 (2006)
New Zealand ^f		7.9	39.4	5.0 (1991)	7.7	40.9	5.3 (2009)

a Data are consumption-based, except for the Federated States of Micronesia; Hong Kong, China; Malaysia; the Republic of Korea; Singapore; and Taipei, China, which are income-based.

b Derived from income or consumption shares of the highest quintile and lowest quintile groups.

c Estimates combine the urban and rural distributions, weighted by share of urban and rural population to total population.

d Defined as disposable household income.

e Figure refers to urban population only.

f Defined as equivalized disposable household income in real terms.

Sources: PovcalNet Database Online (World Bank), accessed 13 May 2013; World Development Indicators Online (World Bank), accessed 19 April 2013; 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, Singapore, 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)								
	Youth ^a								
	Total			Female			Male		
	1990	2000	2010	1990	2000	2010	1990	2000	2010
Developing Member Economies	6.3	7.5	8.7	6.0	7.0	8.6	6.6	7.9	8.9
Central and West Asia	4.8	5.5	6.9	3.8	4.4	6.3	5.7	6.6	7.4
Afghanistan	2.9	4.2	4.6	1.2	1.8	2.8	4.5	6.5	6.4
Armenia	11.5	9.3	9.6	11.6	9.5	9.9	11.3	9.2	9.3
Azerbaijan
Georgia
Kazakhstan	7.7	10.0	9.8	7.9	10.1	9.4	7.5	9.9	10.2
Kyrgyz Republic	8.1	7.6	7.5	8.2	7.7	7.8	8.0	7.4	7.2
Pakistan	4.1	5.1	6.9	2.8	3.8	6.4	5.2	6.2	7.4
Tajikistan	9.9	8.9	8.6	9.9	9.8	10.0	9.9	8.0	7.2
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
East Asia	7.8	9.6	10.8	7.8	9.5	10.8	7.7	9.8	10.8
China, People's Rep. of	7.6	9.5	10.7	7.7	9.3	10.7	7.5	9.6	10.7
Hong Kong, China	12.5	12.0	12.8	12.7	12.2	13.1	12.4	11.7	12.5
Korea, Rep. of	11.0	12.7	13.0	11.0	12.9	13.1	11.1	12.6	13.0
Mongolia	8.0	7.3	8.3	8.2	7.8	8.5	7.8	6.8	8.1
Taipei, China	11.1	11.9	13.0	11.7	12.0	13.1	10.5	11.8	12.9
South Asia	4.6	6.0	7.5	3.6	5.1	7.1	5.4	6.8	7.8
Bangladesh	3.7	6.6	8.7	3.3	6.3	9.5	4.1	6.8	7.8
Bhutan
India	4.6	5.8	7.3	3.5	4.9	6.7	5.5	6.8	7.8
Maldives	5.2	6.6	9.2	5.1	6.6	9.2	5.3	6.6	9.1
Nepal	3.3	4.0	5.8	2.4	3.8	6.5	4.2	4.2	5.0
Sri Lanka	10.6	12.2	12.6	10.7	12.4	12.8	10.5	12.0	12.3
Southeast Asia	6.2	6.9	8.3	6.2	7.0	8.7	6.2	6.8	8.0
Brunei Darussalam	8.2	7.9	8.7	8.3	8.1	9.1	8.1	7.8	8.3
Cambodia	4.4	4.6	6.2	3.7	4.2	6.2	5.2	5.1	6.3
Indonesia	6.1	6.2	7.3	5.8	6.1	7.6	6.4	6.2	7.1
Lao PDR	4.5	4.9	6.1	3.9	4.4	5.9	5.1	5.3	6.4
Malaysia	10.2	11.4	12.0	10.3	11.6	12.4	10.2	11.2	11.7
Myanmar	3.6	5.0	6.8	4.1	5.5	7.4	3.0	4.6	6.2
Philippines	8.1	8.9	9.6	8.5	9.3	10.3	7.8	8.5	9.0
Singapore	8.4	10.6	10.8	8.1	10.8	11.1	8.6	10.4	10.6
Thailand	7.4	8.3	10.4	7.5	8.5	10.9	7.2	8.2	9.9
Viet Nam	4.5	6.5	8.5	4.5	6.5	8.8	4.5	6.5	8.3
The Pacific	5.5	4.9	5.3	4.9	4.8	5.0	6.1	4.9	5.6
Cook Islands
Fiji	10.6	10.2	11.9	10.6	10.4	11.7	10.5	10.0	12.0
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
Palau
Papua New Guinea	4.6	3.9	4.5	3.9	3.8	4.2	5.3	4.0	4.8
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Timor-Leste
Tonga	9.3	9.8	9.8	9.3	10.0	9.9	9.3	9.6	9.8
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Developed Member Economies	11.0	11.7	12.3	11.1	11.9	12.5	11.0	11.4	12.0
Australia	11.1	11.2	12.5	11.0	11.2	12.8	11.1	11.2	12.2
Japan	11.0	11.7	12.2	11.1	12.0	12.4	10.9	11.4	11.9
New Zealand	12.0	13.0	13.6	12.2	13.2	14.0	11.8	12.7	13.2

continued

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

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

	4 Average Years of Total Schooling of Youth (15–24) and Adults (25 and Over)								
	Adults ^a								
	Total			Female			Male		
	1990	2000	2010	1990	2000	2010	1990	2000	2010
Developing Member Economies	4.2	5.5	6.3	3.4	4.6	5.5	4.9	6.3	7.1
Central and West Asia	3.6	5.5	6.4	2.7	3.3	4.3	4.5	5.4	6.7
Afghanistan	1.5	2.2	3.2	0.4	0.8	1.2	2.5	3.5	5.1
Armenia	10.1	10.8	10.8	9.9	10.7	10.8	10.3	11.0	10.8
Azerbaijan	11.2
Georgia	...	12.1 (2005)	12.1
Kazakhstan	7.7	9.9	10.4	7.3	9.7	10.2	8.1	10.1	10.5
Kyrgyz Republic	8.1	9.2	9.3	7.7	9.0	9.3	8.5	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	9.9	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	9.8	9.4	9.2	10.3
Korea, Rep. of	9.0	10.6	11.7	7.5	9.6	11.0	10.4	11.6	12.4
Mongolia	7.6	8.1	8.3	7.3	8.0	8.5	8.0	8.2	8.2
Taipei, China	8.0	9.6	11.0	7.2	8.9	10.6	8.8	10.2	11.5
South Asia	3.0	3.7	4.6	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	5.3
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	3.6	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	8.4	10.0	10.8	7.9	9.8	10.7	8.8	10.2	10.9
Southeast Asia	4.1	5.1	6.1	3.5	4.7	5.8	4.6	5.5	6.4
Brunei Darussalam	7.5	8.3	8.7	6.7	8.1	8.6	8.1	8.5	8.8
Cambodia	3.0	3.6	4.0	2.1	2.7	3.2	4.3	4.8	5.0
Indonesia	3.2	4.6	5.5	2.5	4.0	5.1	4.0	5.2	5.9
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	7.6	9.2	7.3	8.8	9.9
Myanmar	2.4	3.1	4.0	2.2	3.1	4.1	2.6	3.1	3.8
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	4.2	5.0	6.2	5.0	5.8	6.9
Viet Nam	4.0	4.5	5.5	3.5	4.1	5.2	4.5	4.8	5.7
The Pacific	3.5	4.4	5.0	2.9	3.6	4.2	3.9	4.9	5.4
Cook Islands
Fiji	8.4	9.6	9.6	8.0	9.4	9.5	8.7	9.8	9.7
Kiribati	7.8
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	8.8	8.8
Nauru
Palau	10.3	11.4	12.2
Papua New Guinea	2.3	3.3	3.9	1.7	2.5	3.2	2.9	4.0	4.6
Samoa	...	10.3	10.3
Solomon Islands	...	4.5	4.5
Timor-Leste	...	2.8	4.4
Tonga	8.1	8.9	9.4	7.8	8.7	9.2	8.4	9.1	9.5
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	6.7
Developed Member Economies	10.1	10.9	11.6	9.6	10.5	11.3	10.7	11.4	11.9
Australia	11.7	11.9	12.0	11.3	11.5	11.8	12.2	12.2	12.3
Japan	9.9	10.8	11.5	9.4	10.3	11.2	10.5	11.2	11.8
New Zealand	11.7	12.0	12.5	11.4	11.9	12.5	12.1	12.2	12.6

a Regional aggregates are population-weighted averages estimated using data available for the respective year headings or nearest years given in the table. Data for population are estimated using data from Barro and Lee and WPP: The 2012 Revision (aged 25 years and over).

Sources: Barro and Lee (2013), *Human Development Report 2013* (UNDP 2013), ADB 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		25.6	25.8	25.5	1.0
Central and West Asia^b		25.3	24.5	26.1	0.9
Afghanistan	44.9 (1997)	31.2 (2011)	28.4	33.8	0.8
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)	3.7 (2011)	3.6	3.7	1.0
Kyrgyz Republic	10.4 (1997)	3.4 (2012)	3.7	3.1	1.2
Pakistan	39.0 (1991)	30.9 (2011)	30.4	31.4	1.0
Tajikistan	14.9 (2005)	12.1 (2012)	11.9	12.3	1.0
Turkmenistan	10.5 (2000)	8.2 (2006)	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 (2010)	3.3	3.5	0.9
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of
Mongolia	11.0 (1992)	4.7 (2010)	4.5	4.9	0.9
Taipei, China
South Asia^b		42.1	42.7	41.6	1.0
Bangladesh	61.5 (1990)	36.4 (2011)	38.5	34.3	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)	28.8 (2011)	28.0	29.6	0.9
Sri Lanka	33.8 (1993)	21.6 (2009)	21.6	21.6	1.0
Southeast Asia^b		17.4	16.8	18.1	0.9
Brunei Darussalam
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)	11.7 (2011)	11.4	12.1	0.9
The Pacific	
Cook Islands
Fiji	6.9 (1993)	7.0 (2008)
Kiribati	...	14.9 (2009)	12.4	17.2	0.7
Marshall Islands	19.0 (1991)	13.0 (2007)	11.6	14.0	0.8
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	15.0 (2005)
Nauru	...	4.8 (2007)	2.9	6.9	0.4
Palau	...	2.2 (2010)
Papua New Guinea	...	18.1 (2005)	14.6	21.0	0.7
Samoa	1.7 (1999)
Solomon Islands	...	11.8 (2007)	13.4	10.4	1.3
Timor-Leste	40.6 (2002)	45.3 (2010)	43.8	45.5	1.0
Tonga	2.0 (1999)
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 population-weighted averages estimated using data available for the years 2006–2012. The data for reference population of 0–4 years of age are from the World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision.

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	32.7	23.5	1.4 (2011)	37.4	24.1	1.6 (2011)
Armenia	7.4	2.8	2.6 (2010)	7.9	1.5	5.3 (2010)
Azerbaijan	11.5	3.7	3.1 (2006)	15.4	2.2	7.0 (2006)
Georgia	1.4	0.9	1.6 (2009)	2.5	1.9	1.3 (2005)
Kazakhstan	3.3	4.0	0.8 (2011)	4.1	3.5	1.2 (2011)
Kyrgyz Republic	3.3	3.6	0.9 (2012)	1.6	2.0	0.8 (2006)
Pakistan	33.3	26.6	1.3 (2011)
Tajikistan	12.5	10.7	1.2 (2012)	16.6	13.0	1.3 (2007)
Turkmenistan	8.7	7.3	1.2 (2006)	7.8	2.4	3.2 (2006)
Uzbekistan	4.3	4.9	0.9 (2006)	4.5	3.1	1.5 (2006)
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	4.3	1.3	3.3 (2010)
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of
Mongolia	5.1	4.4	1.2 (2010)	6.2	2.3	2.7 (2010)
Taipei, China
South Asia						
Bangladesh	38.7	28.0	1.4 (2011)	50.3	20.9	2.4 (2011)
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	20.8	17.7	1.2 (2009)	32.3	11.9	2.7 (2009)
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	30.0	18.8	1.6 (2010)	35.4	15.9	2.2 (2010)
Indonesia	20.7	15.2	1.4 (2010)	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	13.9	6.0	2.3 (2011)	20.6	3.1	6.6 (2011)
The Pacific						
Cook Islands
Fiji
Kiribati	16.0	13.3	1.2 (2009)	17.6	7.9	2.2 (2009)
Marshall Islands	18.8	10.0	1.9 (2007)	20.2	4.1	4.9 (2007)
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	2.0	1.2	1.7 (2007)	0.7	0.0	...
Vanuatu	11.4	12.1	0.9 (2007)	12.2	10.3	1.2 (2007)
Developed Member Economies						
Australia
Japan
New Zealand

Sources: Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2013; Global Health Observatory Data Repository (WHO), accessed 16 May 2013; Childinfo website (UNICEF) available at www.childinfo.org/index.html, accessed 6 May 2013; STATcompiler and *Demographic and Health Survey (DHS)* reports available at ICF International (2013); country *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS)* reports available at UNICEF; National Minimum Development Indicators Database (SPC); ADB estimates based on data from World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision (UN Population Division), accessed 17 June 2013; and *The State of the World's Children Report, 2013* (UNICEF).

Table 2.2 **Nonincome Poverty and Inequality**

	6 Under-Five Mortality Rate (per 1,000 live births)							
	Total		Sex					
			Female	Male	Male-to-Female Ratio	Female	Male	Male-to-Female Ratio
	1990	2011						
Developing Member Economies ^a	85	43	86	85	1.0	43	42	1.0
Central and West Asia ^a	116	69	112	120	1.1	66	73	1.1
Afghanistan	192	101	188	196	1.0	99	103	1.0
Armenia	47	18	43	51	1.2	15	19	1.3
Azerbaijan	95	45	88	100	1.1	43	47	1.1
Georgia	47	21	42	52	1.2	18	23	1.2
Kazakhstan	57	28	50	64	1.3	24	32	1.3
Kyrgyz Republic	70	31	63	77	1.2	28	34	1.2
Pakistan	122	72	118	126	1.1	68	76	1.1
Tajikistan	114	63	106	122	1.2	56	70	1.2
Turkmenistan	94	53	86	103	1.2	48	57	1.2
Uzbekistan	75	49	68	82	1.2	42	55	1.3
East Asia ^a	48	14	47	49	1.0	14	15	1.0
China, People's Rep. of	49	15	48	50	1.0	14	15	1.0
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of	8	5	7	8	1.1	4	5	1.2
Mongolia	107	31	91	121	1.3	26	35	1.3
Taipei, China
South Asia ^a	117	59	121	113	0.9	61	57	0.9
Bangladesh	139	46	138	140	1.0	44	48	1.1
Bhutan	138	54	130	147	1.1	50	57	1.1
India	114	61	119	110	0.9	64	59	0.9
Maldives	105	11	101	110	1.1	10	12	1.2
Nepal	135	48	133	137	1.0	47	49	1.0
Sri Lanka	29	12	27	31	1.2	11	13	1.2
Southeast Asia ^a	69	30	63	75	1.2	27	33	1.2
Brunei Darussalam	12	7	11	14	1.2	7	8	1.2
Cambodia	117	43	108	125	1.2	37	47	1.3
Indonesia	82	32	75	88	1.2	29	34	1.2
Lao PDR	148	42	139	156	1.1	39	44	1.1
Malaysia	17	7	16	19	1.2	6	7	1.2
Myanmar	107	62	96	119	1.2	56	69	1.2
Philippines	57	25	51	63	1.2	22	29	1.3
Singapore	8	3	7	8	1.2	2	3	1.3
Thailand	35	12	31	39	1.3	11	13	1.2
Viet Nam	50	22	43	57	1.3	19	25	1.3
The Pacific ^a	89	51	85	94	1.1	48	53	1.1
Cook Islands	19	10	17	22	1.3	8	11	1.3
Fiji	30	16	27	32	1.2	15	18	1.2
Kiribati	88	47	83	92	1.1	45	50	1.1
Marshall Islands	52	26	46	57	1.2	23	29	1.2
Micronesia, Fed. States of	56	42	48	64	1.3	36	47	1.3
Nauru	40	40	24	56	2.3	24	56	2.3
Palau	32	19	24	40	1.7	14	23	1.7
Papua New Guinea	88	58	84	92	1.1	55	60	1.1
Samoa	30	19	26	33	1.3	16	21	1.3
Solomon Islands	42	22	43	41	0.9	22	21	0.9
Timor-Leste	180	54	169	190	1.1	51	57	1.1
Tonga	25	15	21	28	1.4	13	18	1.4
Tuvalu	58	30	52	63	1.2	27	33	1.2
Vanuatu	39	13	36	41	1.1	12	14	1.1
Developed Member Economies ^a	7	4	6	8	1.2	3	4	1.2
Australia	9	5	8	10	1.3	4	5	1.3
Japan	6	3	6	7	1.2	3	4	1.1
New Zealand	11	6	10	12	1.3	5	7	1.2

continued

a Regional aggregates are approximated weighted averages estimated using population of annual live births for the respective year headings. The data for population of annual number of live births are from the World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision.

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	105	85	1.2 (2011)	104	84	1.2 (2011)
Armenia	26	19	1.4 (2010)	26	22	1.2 (2010)
Azerbaijan	63	51	1.2 (2006)	63	38	1.7 (2006)
Georgia	38	27	1.4 (2005)
Kazakhstan	33	29	1.1 (2011)	40	27	1.5 (2011)
Kyrgyz Republic	50	35	1.4 (2006)	96	50	1.9 (1997)
Pakistan	100	78	1.3 (2007)	120	59	2.0 (2007)
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	62	28	2.2 (2010)	67	25	2.7 (2010)
Taipei, China
South Asia						
Bangladesh	66	64	1.0 (2011)	78	38	2.1 (2011)
Bhutan	41	41	1.0 (2010)
India	93	60	1.5 (2006)	116	39	3.0 (2006)
Maldives	28	23	1.2 (2009)	28	23	1.2 (2009)
Nepal	64	45	1.4 (2011)	74	35	2.1 (2011)
Sri Lanka	23	19	1.2 (2007)	33	15	2.2 (2007)
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam
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	53	29	1.8 (2010)	62	17	3.6 (2010)
Philippines	46	28	1.7 (2008)	59	17	3.4 (2008)
Singapore
Thailand	13	12	1.1 (2006)
Viet Nam	17	15	1.1 (2011)	53	15	3.5 (2002)
The Pacific						
Cook Islands
Fiji
Kiribati	72	72	1.0 (2009)	87	28	3.1 (2009)
Marshall Islands	49	44	1.1 (2007)	51	24	2.1 (2007)
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
Palau
Papua New Guinea	79	42	1.9 (2006)
Samoa	17	3	5.7 (2009)	23	7	3.3 (2009)
Solomon Islands	38	31	1.2 (2007)	26	33	0.8 (2007)
Timor-Leste	86	59	1.5 (2010)	87	52	1.7 (2010)
Tonga
Tuvalu	32	34	0.9 (2007)	30	8	3.8 (2007)
Vanuatu	32	27	1.2 (2007)
Developed Member Economies						
Australia
Japan
New Zealand

Sources: Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2013; Global Health Observatory Data Repository (WHO), accessed 30 April 2013; STATcompiler and *Demographic and Health Survey (DHS)* reports available at ICF International (2013); country *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS)* reports available at UNICEF; Child Mortality Estimates available at <http://www.childmortality.org>; ADB estimates based on data from the World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision (UN Population Division), accessed 17 June 2013; and *The State of the World's Children Report, 2013* (UNICEF).

Table 2.3 **Economic Growth and Employment**

	7 Annualized Growth Rate of GDP per Capita at PPP (constant 2005 PPP\$) ^a			
	1992–1997	1997–2002	2002–2007	2007–2012
Developing Member Economies	5.9	4.0	7.8	6.0
Central and West Asia	-2.9	2.5	6.4	2.7
Afghanistan	4.3	7.1 (2007–2011)
Armenia	4.3	8.4	13.5	1.2
Azerbaijan	-11.3	8.9	19.9	4.4
Georgia	-3.0	4.4	9.5	2.9
Kazakhstan	-4.4	7.3	8.7	3.1
Kyrgyz Republic	-6.3	2.0	3.9	1.9
Pakistan	0.6	0.8	4.4	1.4
Tajikistan	-14.6	6.0	6.3	4.2
Turkmenistan	-8.0	5.3	7.4	9.7
Uzbekistan	-2.3	2.8	5.8	6.2
East Asia	8.8	6.2	9.6	7.7
China, People's Rep. of	10.2	7.4	11.0	8.7
Hong Kong, China	2.5	0.4	6.0	1.8
Korea, Rep. of	6.0	3.5	3.9	2.3
Mongolia	1.4	2.1	7.4	7.0
Taipei, China
South Asia	4.0	3.6	7.0	5.1
Bangladesh	2.5	3.2	4.7	5.0
Bhutan	5.3	5.0	6.3	6.3
India	4.2	3.7	7.2	5.1
Maldives	...	4.3 (2001–2002)	7.3	3.1
Nepal	2.5	1.5	2.3	3.6
Sri Lanka	4.3	3.1	5.2	6.1
Southeast Asia	5.2	0.1	4.6	3.4
Brunei Darussalam	-0.8	0.1	-0.3	-0.9
Cambodia	3.4 (1993–1997)	5.7	8.9	3.7
Indonesia	5.4	-1.5	4.0	4.5
Lao PDR	4.3	4.0	5.4	5.9
Malaysia	6.5	0.3	4.0	2.4
Myanmar
Philippines	2.1	0.5	3.7	2.9
Singapore	5.6	1.2	5.7	1.3
Thailand	5.2	-0.1	4.9	2.6
Viet Nam	7.0	4.8	6.8	4.8
The Pacific	1.7	-2.1	1.0	3.5
Cook Islands
Fiji	1.1	2.1	1.1	-0.2
Kiribati	2.4	2.4	-0.8	-1.3
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of	-0.4	2.5	0.0	1.2
Nauru
Palau	0.7	-0.7	1.2	-1.8
Papua New Guinea	2.0	-3.5	1.1	5.0
Samoa	2.4	4.1	2.8	-0.2
Solomon Islands	1.3	-7.5	4.3	2.8
Timor-Leste	...	-1.3 (1999–2002)	0.6	8.0
Tonga	2.2	2.9	-0.7	2.0
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	1.1	-1.7	2.8	0.6
Developed Member Economies	1.3	0.3	1.8	0.1
Australia	2.8	2.6	2.1	1.1
Japan	1.1	-0.1	1.8	-0.1
New Zealand	2.9	2.5	1.8	-0.3

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

Source: ADB estimates based on data from World Development Indicators Online (World Bank), accessed 14 July 2013.

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	5.3	5.2	6.1 (1999–2004)	1.0	3.6	-1.1 (2004–2010)
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)	1.0	0.5	1.2 (2000–2010)
Kazakhstan	-3.1	-7.4	-1.0 (1996–2001)	6.5	12.7	3.9 (2001–2009)
Kyrgyz Republic	-12.2	1.2	-16.0 (1993–2002)	7.8	6.8	8.1 (2002–2011)
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
Uzbekistan
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of ^b	5.4	2.8	6.8 (1990–1999)	7.9	4.8	8.2 (1999–2009)
China, People's Rep. of (Rural)	3.9	2.3	4.9 (1990–1999)	6.4	4.4	7.4 (1999–2009)
China, People's Rep. of (Urban)	5.9	3.9	7.2 (1990–1999)	7.7	6.7	8.6 (1999–2009)
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of
Mongolia
Taipei, China
South Asia						
Bangladesh	2.8	1.5	4.5 (1992–2000)	1.8	2.0	1.5 (2000–2010)
Bhutan	4.4	9.7	0.4 (2003–2007)	7.5	7.8	7.9 (2007–2012)
India ^b	1.2	0.8	1.7 (1994–2005)	2.4	2.2	2.6 (2005–2010)
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	5.2	2.5	7.4 (1996–2003)	3.3	6.7	0.4 (2003–2010)
Sri Lanka	2.5	0.2	3.9 (1991–2002)	2.0	3.7	1.0 (2002–2010)
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	1.7	0.2	2.2 (1994–2004)	3.6	6.5	1.5 (2004–2009)
Indonesia ^b	1.0	1.3	1.0 (1990–1999)	5.1	3.0	6.1 (1999–2010)
Indonesia (Rural)	0.2	0.6	-0.2 (1990–1999)	5.5	3.8	6.7 (1999–2010)
Indonesia (Urban)	1.5	1.7	1.7 (1990–1999)	4.2	2.8	4.6 (1999–2010)
Lao PDR	1.7	0.9	2.0 (1992–2002)	3.5	1.6	4.7 (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	2.8	3.3	2.3 (1990–2000)	3.3	4.2	2.7 (2000–2010)
Viet Nam	4.4	3.9	4.8 (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 income or consumption shares of the highest quintile and lowest quintile groups based on household surveys. Data are all consumption-based, except for Malaysia, which is income-based.

b Estimates combine the urban and rural distributions, weighted by share of urban and rural to total population.

Source: ADB estimates based on data from PovcalNet Database Online (World Bank), accessed 17 May 2013.

Table 2.3 **Economic Growth and Employment**

	9 Employment-to-Population Ratio					
	Youth (Aged 15–24 Years) ^a					
	1991			2012		
	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male
Developing Member Economies	58.0	51.3	64.4	44.1	35.8	51.8
Central and West Asia	37.2	17.5	56.3	38.8	20.1	56.9
Afghanistan	32.3	10.5	52.4	31.1	10.1	50.6
Armenia	26.3	18.6	33.9	17.6	12.8	22.4
Azerbaijan	39.4	38.5	40.2	32.5	32.1	32.9
Georgia	21.6	17.6	25.4	22.2	15.4	28.8
Kazakhstan	44.9	40.4	49.2	44.7	41.4	47.8
Kyrgyz Republic	40.6	37.3	43.9	41.2	31.6	50.6
Pakistan	38.1	10.5	64.5	41.0	17.8	63.4
Tajikistan	39.0	33.5	44.6	38.6	31.0	46.2
Turkmenistan	34.7	25.6	43.6	36.1	25.7	46.4
Uzbekistan	34.2	25.7	42.6	36.4	26.7	45.8
East Asia	69.8	72.4	67.3	54.1	56.3	52.1
China, People's Rep. of	71.6	74.1	69.2	55.6	57.8	53.6
Hong Kong, China	54.3	53.6	55.1	33.0	33.8	32.3
Korea, Rep. of	35.9	39.6	32.4	23.8	26.8	21.1
Mongolia	34.2	29.8	38.7	33.8	29.5	38.1
Taipei, China	41.3	47.2	35.8	25.0	29.3	21.0
South Asia	48.4	31.5	64.0	36.6	21.6	50.4
Bangladesh	63.7	54.7	72.1	51.1	44.0	58.0
Bhutan	40.9	34.1	47.5	44.3	45.7	42.8
India	46.2	27.8	63.1	33.8	17.2	49.0
Maldives	33.1	13.5	52.6	42.1	33.7	50.2
Nepal	78.6	76.7	80.4	72.3	72.4	72.2
Sri Lanka	27.7	15.2	39.9	30.8	19.8	41.4
Southeast Asia	53.8	47.6	60.0	45.4	38.8	51.8
Brunei Darussalam	37.9	30.1	45.3	41.7	37.6	45.7
Cambodia	69.8	72.4	67.2	69.7	69.9	69.4
Indonesia	45.9	36.8	55.0	40.0	31.0	48.8
Lao PDR	71.9	79.7	64.3	61.0	66.1	56.0
Malaysia	46.2	37.7	54.6	34.8	28.1	41.3
Myanmar	52.0	51.8	52.3	52.9	52.5	53.3
Philippines	42.2	30.9	53.1	39.8	30.2	49.1
Singapore	52.8	52.0	53.6	34.1	32.8	35.4
Thailand	69.4	67.0	71.8	46.1	38.2	53.6
Viet Nam	73.4	71.0	75.8	58.7	56.3	61.0
The Pacific	52.2	49.4	54.6	50.0	47.9	51.7
Cook Islands
Fiji	41.5	23.5	58.8	40.0	26.9	52.3
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
Palau
Papua New Guinea	55.3	56.3	54.4	53.1	53.9	52.4
Samoa
Solomon Islands	44.5	37.6	50.8	45.6	38.4	52.3
Timor-Leste	46.6	37.6	54.9	41.0	33.2	48.4
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Developed Member Economies	45.0	45.2	44.8	43.3	43.9	42.8
Australia	57.5	55.7	59.2	60.8	60.6	61.0
Japan	42.9	43.5	42.4	38.5	39.4	37.6
New Zealand	54.3	52.5	56.1	50.3	47.7	52.7

continued

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

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	60.9 (2011)	57.5	64.5
Georgia	57.3 (1998)	49.9	66.2	55.4 (2011)	48.5	63.7
Kazakhstan	63.6 (2002)	57.6	70.2	67.8 (2011)	62.6	73.5
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	58.2 (2011)	51.8	65.8
Korea, Rep. of	58.6 (1990)	46.1	71.9	59.1 (2011)	48.1	70.5
Mongolia	55.9 (1998)	51.8	60.3	56.0 (2005)	54.3	57.7
Taipei, China	58.3 (1990)	43.8	72.7	55.6 (2011)	48.0	63.5
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	65.3 (2011)	59.9	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)	50.7 (2010)	31.8	72.4
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam	62.6 (1991)	43.3	79.3	63.1 (2001)	52.4	73.6
Cambodia	76.4 (2000)	74.1	79.1	87.3 (2011)	84.7	90.2
Indonesia	55.7 (1992)	42.9	68.7	63.9 (2011)	46.7 (2009)	77.4 (2009)
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 (2010)	44.5	76.1
Myanmar
Philippines	59.3 (1990)	42.8	75.9	60.1 (2011)	45.6 (2009)	73.0 (2009)
Singapore	63.6 (1990)	49.5	77.5	63.5 (2010)	54.5	72.9
Thailand	76.9 (1990)	71.5	82.4	71.6 (2011)	63.9	79.7
Viet Nam	74.3 (1996)	71.3	77.7	75.8 (2011)	71.3	80.6
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	59.3 (1990)	48.5	70.5	62.2 (2011)	55.9	68.7
Japan	62.1 (1990)	49.0	75.8	56.6 (2011)	46.3	67.7
New Zealand	59.1 (1990)	50.2	68.4	63.9 (2011)	58.3	69.9

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

Sources: Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD) accessed 4 July 2013; *Key Indicators of the Labour Market*, 7th ed. (ILO), accessed 30 May 2013.

Table 2.3 **Economic Growth and Employment**

	10 GDP per Person Engaged at Constant 1990 PPP\$				
	1990	1995	2000	2005	2012
Developing Member Economies					
Central and West Asia					
Afghanistan
Armenia	12331	7327	10869	22872	29273
Azerbaijan	9018	3871	5099	9104	18554
Georgia	16158	6512	8441	12662	19466
Kazakhstan	18873	11462	13694	19149	25447
Kyrgyz Republic	9031	4878	5947	6096	7175
Pakistan	5929	7114	7496	8353	8483
Tajikistan	8192	3311	3278	4299	6638
Turkmenistan	9011	4814	5488	6205	10829
Uzbekistan	11015	8426	9574	10945	16079
East Asia					
China, People's Rep. of	2562	3941	4660	7825	15250
Hong Kong, China	36795	44271	45741	53841	64960
Korea, Rep. of	20633	26745	33234	38283	45478
Mongolia
Taipei, China	24203	31418	38662	44042	52430
South Asia					
Bangladesh	2065	2380	2886	3164	4146
Bhutan
India	3531	4111	5063	6285	9200
Maldives
Nepal
Sri Lanka	8339	10247	11121	12143	17985
Southeast Asia					
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	2215	2328	3103	3343	5449
Indonesia	5945	8205	7588	9140	11461
Lao PDR
Malaysia	13434	18473	19253	22394	24857
Myanmar	1959	2328	3003	4599	7670
Philippines	6439	6201	6931	7398	8667
Singapore	28191	38368	41245	48122	49719
Thailand	8537	12549	12608	14591	16764
Viet Nam	2346	3094	3803	4801	6272
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	37050	40440	45307	48089	50652
Japan	36173	37378	39790	43109	44851
New Zealand	30226	32002	34723	36166	36586

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

Source: *Key Indicators of the Labour Market*, 7th ed. (ILO), accessed 30 May 2013.

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)	45.2 (2011)	82.1 (2001)	47.4 (2011)	58.8 (2001)	43.0 (2011)
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)	7.3 (2011)	3.8 (1993)	4.2 (2011)	7.7 (1993)	10.4 (2011)
Korea, Rep. of	65.2	36.1	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	22.8 (2011)	21.5 (2009)	20.7 (2010)	26.8 (2009)	26.1 (2010)
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)	245.5 (2011)	376.8 (2006)	496.1 (2011)	145.3 (2006)	150.3 (2011)
India	553.1 (1994)	445.8 (2010)	1114.3 (1994)	584.9 (2010)	447.9 (1994)	409.6 (2010)
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	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)	145.0 (2011)	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)	29.2 (2010)	35.1 (1991)	25.4 (2010)	47.8 (1991)	31.6 (2010)
Myanmar
Philippines	90.1 (1998)	74.6 (2011)	97.2 (1998)	89.7	85.9 (1998)	79.0
Singapore	10.2 (1991)	11.3 (2011)	6.9 (1991)	7.9 (2011)	12.5 (1991)	14.2 (2011)
Thailand	247.2	121.6 (2011)	289.0	129.5 (2011)	217.0	115.1 (2011)
Viet Nam	489.4 (1996)	180.6 (2011)	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
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	9.7	7.6	14.1	12.6
Japan	24.9	12.1	36.1	13.1	18.0	11.4
New Zealand	24.6	14.6	15.4	10.7	32.8	18.4

Source: ADB estimates based on data from *Key Indicators of the Labour Market*, 7th ed. (ILO), accessed 30 May 2013.

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	2010	1990	2010	2000	2012	2004	2011
Developing Member Economies	503	817	1733	51.1	52.1	4.9	81.8	654.2	811.9
Central and West Asia	1439	848	952	63.1	73.9	0.5	76.1
Afghanistan	...	20 (2001)	64 (2011)	13.3	29.3 (2006)	0.0	53.9	30.4 (2008)	119.3
Armenia	2718	1295	1676	99.2	93.6 (2009)	0.6	106.9	212.2	711.4
Azerbaijan	2584	2040	1603	93.9 (1994)	50.6 (2006)	5.2	107.5	91.1 (2005)	398.2
Georgia	3039	1453	1743	93.8	94.1 (2007)	4.1	109.2	187.8	650.8
Kazakhstan	5905	3170	4728	55.1	89.5	1.3	175.4	722.4	1038.9
Kyrgyz Republic	2331	1911	1375	90.0	91.1 (2001)	0.2	124.8	74.6 (2009)	155.2
Pakistan	269	359	458	54.0	72.2	0.2	66.8	123.4	256.6
Tajikistan	3350	2172	1808	71.6	82.7 (1995)	0.0	92.2	183.4	474.9
Turkmenistan	2293	1698	2403	73.5	81.2 (2001)	0.2	76.5
Uzbekistan	2383	1780	1648	79.0	87.3 (2001)	0.2	72.2	520.7	959.2
East Asia	658	1303	3314	70.3	54.0	10.1	83.8
China, People's Rep. of	511	993	2944	72.1	53.5 (2008)	6.7	81.3
Hong Kong, China	4178	5447	5960	100.0	100.0	80.3	227.9
Korea, Rep. of	2373	5907	9744	71.5	79.3 (2009)	58.3	110.4	4281.8	4796.4
Mongolia	1546	1076	1555	10.2	3.5 (2002)	6.4	117.6	299.4	3183.1
Taipei, China	4159	7924	10356 (2012)	84.6	95.5 (2001)	81.5	126.5	5390.2 (2009)	5187.8 (2010)
South Asia	240	352	576	43.8	48.4	0.4	68.3
Bangladesh	48	101	274	7.2 (1991)	9.5	0.2	63.8	252.5	377.9
Bhutan	254	748	977 (2005)	77.1	40.4	0.0	74.7	394.9 (2005)	930.7
India	270	391	626	47.3 (1991)	49.5 (2008)	0.3	68.7	621.0	726.0 (2008)
Maldives	113	273	521 (2011)	...	100.0 (2005)	2.8	172.8	697.2	1333.7
Nepal	37	61	103	37.5	53.9 (2008)	0.0	52.8	...	279.7 (2010)
Sri Lanka	154	290	449	32.0 (1991)	14.9 (2010)	2.3	95.8	1887.5 (2009)	1891.7 (2010)
Southeast Asia	312	648	1072	37.2	48.4	4.2	113.0
Brunei Darussalam	4355	7577	8723	31.4	81.1	29.0	113.8	1321.0 (2008)	1458.2
Cambodia	13 (1995)	33	144	7.5	6.3 (2004)	1.0	132.0	76.1 (2008)	131.5
Indonesia	165	395	639	45.1	56.9 (2009)	1.7	115.2	481.1	623.7
Lao PDR	64	103 (1997)	...	24.0	13.7 (2009)	0.2	101.9	...	43.1 (2010)
Malaysia	1146	2720	4136	70.0	80.5	21.9	140.9	1780.8	1642.2
Myanmar	43	73	121	10.9	11.9 (2005)	0.0	11.2	114.2	123.0
Philippines	361	502	641	16.6 (1994)	9.9 (2003)	8.3	106.8	388.3 (2005)	458.7
Singapore	4983	7575	8307	97.1	100.0	70.1	153.4	2038.1	2216.8
Thailand	709	1462	2335	55.3	98.5 (2000)	4.8	120.3	953.7 (2006)	1123.1
Viet Nam	98	295	1035	23.5	47.6 (2007)	1.0	149.4
The Pacific	462	413	439	10.7	11.1	1.1	45.5
Cook Islands	775	1372	1713 (2012)	3.1	54.1
Fiji	607	858	867 (2011)	44.5	49.2 (2001)	6.8	98.1
Kiribati	109	168	171	0.4	15.6
Marshall Islands	961	1350	1502 (2006)	0.9	1.3 (2005)
Micronesia, Fed. States of	15.9	17.5 (2001)	0.0	24.6	410.7	502.7
Nauru	71.9	79.4 (1996)	12.0	65.6
Palau	12.6 (2002)	82.6
Papua New Guinea	485	441	470 (2008)	3.2	3.5 (2001)	0.2	37.8	155.4 (2005)	177.9 (2009)
Samoa	312	400	521 (2011)	42.0 (1995)	14.2 (2001)	1.4	47.4 (2007)	401.9	815.9
Solomon Islands	102	134	100 (2012)	2.1	2.4 (2001)	0.3	53.3	304.2	283.9
Timor-Leste	...	27 (2006)	79 (2011)	2.2 (2003)	52.3	64.7	279.6
Tonga	250	324	436 (2012)	27.0 (1995)	27.0 (2001)	0.2	53.4	700.6 (2007)	587.5
Tuvalu	124	289	406 (2006)	0.0	28.4
Vanuatu	177	214	236 (2012)	21.6	23.9 (2001)	0.2	54.4
Developed Member Economies	6786	8294	8699	54.9	65.3	51.7	109.0
Australia	8527	10194	10286	35.0	43.5	44.7	106.2
Japan	6486	7974	8394	69.2	80.1 (2009)	53.1	109.4	7984.2	7202.8
New Zealand	8972	9384	9566	57.0	66.2	40.0	110.3

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 Bhutan; Indonesia; Japan; the Republic of Korea; Malaysia; Federated States of Micronesia; Solomon Islands; Sri Lanka; Taipei, China; and Tonga, data refer to total number of deposit accounts due to lack of information on deposit account holders. Data for adult population are estimated using data from IMF-Financial Access Survey except for Sri Lanka and Taipei, China. For Sri Lanka, adult population were taken from the World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision (aged 15 years and over) and for Taipei, China: economy source.

Sources: World Development Indicators Online (World Bank), accessed 15 July 2013; World Road Statistics 2012 (International Road Federation 2012); World Telecommunication/ICT Indicators Database (ITU), accessed 28 June 2013; Financial Access Survey Online Database (IMF), accessed 7 May 2013; 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	2011	1999	2011	1999	2011
Developing Member Economies	9.0	11.1	8.4	11.0	9.5	11.3
Central and West Asia	6.7	8.8	5.7	7.9	7.6	9.7
Afghanistan	5.9 (2003)	8.1 (2009)	4.1	6.1	7.6	10.1
Armenia	10.6 (2002)	12.2 (2010)	11.1	12.6	10.1	11.7
Azerbaijan	9.7 (1997)	11.8	9.9	11.6	9.6	11.9
Georgia	11.4	12.8 (2008)	11.4	12.8	11.4	12.7
Kazakhstan	12.1	15.4 (2012)	12.3	15.8	11.9	15.1
Kyrgyz Republic	11.4	12.5	11.6	12.7	11.3	12.3
Pakistan	5.8 (2003)	7.5	4.9	6.6	6.6	8.3
Tajikistan	9.7	11.5	8.9	10.6	10.5	12.4
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	10.6	11.6	10.5	11.4	10.7	11.8
East Asia	10.1	12.0	9.9	12.3	10.3	11.8
China, People's Rep. of	10.5 (2003)	11.9	10.5	12.2	10.6	11.6
Hong Kong, China	13.3 (2003)	15.8	13.1	16.2	13.5	15.4
Korea, Rep. of	15.8	17.2 (2010)	14.9	16.2	16.6	18.0
Mongolia	8.9	14.5	9.7	15.1	8.0	13.8
Taipei, China	14.6 (2002)	16.5 (2012)	14.5	16.4	14.6	16.6
South Asia	8.1	10.8	7.1	10.5	9.0	11.0
Bangladesh
Bhutan	7.2	12.4	6.5	12.4	8.0	12.3
India	8.3 (2000)	10.9 (2010)	7.2	10.5	9.3	11.2
Maldives	11.6	12.6 (2003)	11.7	12.7	11.6	12.5
Nepal	8.8 (2000)	8.9 (2002)	7.5	7.9	10.0	9.9
Sri Lanka	11.9 (1994)	13.8	12.0	14.2	11.8	13.5
Southeast Asia	10.3	12.2	10.1	12.2	10.4	12.1
Brunei Darussalam	13.7	15.1	14.0	15.5	13.5	14.8
Cambodia	7.5 (2000)	10.5 (2008)	6.7	9.9	8.3	11.2
Indonesia	10.3 (2000)	13.2	10.1	13.1	10.5	13.2
Lao PDR	8.2	10.5	7.2	9.9	9.2	11.1
Malaysia	11.6	12.6 (2005)	11.8	13.0	11.5	12.2
Myanmar	8.3 (2001)	9.4 (2007)
Philippines	11.4	11.3 (2009)	11.7	11.5	11.1	11.1
Singapore
Thailand	11.5 (2001)	12.3 (2009)	11.5	12.7	11.4	11.9
Viet Nam	10.2 (1998)	...	9.7	...	10.7	...
The Pacific	7.5	...	7.1	...	7.8	...
Cook Islands	10.6	12.5	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	12.0	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	12.4 (2001)	12.5	12.7	12.1	12.1
Solomon Islands	7.4	9.3 (2007)	7.0	8.9	7.9	9.6
Timor-Leste	10.1 (2001)	11.7 (2009)	...	11.2	...	12.2
Tonga	13.7	13.7 (2002)	14.1	14.0	13.4	13.4
Tuvalu	10.8 (2001)	...	11.4	...	10.3	...
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 (2010)	20.6	20.0	20.0	19.2
Japan	14.5	15.3 (2010)	14.3	15.1	14.7	15.5
New Zealand	17.2	19.7 (2010)	17.9	20.5	16.6	18.8

a Regional aggregates are updated from the electronic files provided by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) on 31 May 2013. If national data are missing or not available, the UIS imputes or generates a value to estimate a robust regional average. These imputed national data are produced by the UIS to generate regional averages and are not published.

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

Sources: Institute for Statistics Data Centre (UNESCO), accessed 30 May 2013; for Taipei, China: economy sources.

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

	17 Pupil-Teacher Ratio (Primary)		
	1990 ^a	2000 ^a	2011 ^a
Developing Member Economies	28	29	25
Central and West Asia	31	28	32
Afghanistan	41	32 (1998)	45
Armenia	21 (1994)	20 (2002)	19 (2007)
Azerbaijan	19 (1994)	19	11
Georgia	17 (1991)	17	8 (2010)
Kazakhstan	22	19	16 (2012)
Kyrgyz Republic	16	24	25
Pakistan	41	33	40
Tajikistan	21 (1991)	22	23
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	24	21	16
East Asia	23	23	17
China, People's Rep. of	22	22 (2001)	17
Hong Kong, China	27 (1991)	22	15
Korea, Rep. of	36	32	21 (2010)
Mongolia	30	33	29
Taipei, China	29	19	14 (2012)
South Asia	40	41	40 (2008)
Bangladesh	63	47 (2005)	40
Bhutan	31 (1993)	41	24 (2012)
India	35 (1999)	40	40 (2004)
Maldives	26 (1998)	23	12
Nepal	39	38	28 (2012)
Sri Lanka	29 (1992)	26 (2001)	24
Southeast Asia	26	26	19
Brunei Darussalam	15 (1991)	14	11
Cambodia	35	50	47
Indonesia	23	22	16
Lao PDR	28	30	27
Malaysia	20	20	13 (2010)
Myanmar	45	33	28 (2010)
Philippines	33	35	31 (2009)
Singapore	26	25 (1996)	17 (2009)
Thailand	20	21	16 (2008)
Viet Nam	34	30	20
The Pacific	29	33	31 (2009)
Cook Islands	19 (1998)	18	16
Fiji	25 (1998)	28	31
Kiribati	29	32	25 (2008)
Marshall Islands	15 (1999)	17 (2002)	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru	...	21	22 (2008)
Palau	15 (1999)	16	...
Papua New Guinea	32	35	36 (2006)
Samoa	18 (1995)	24	30 (2010)
Solomon Islands	19	19 (1999)	25 (2010)
Timor-Leste	...	62 (2001)	31
Tonga	24	22	25 (2007)
Tuvalu	19 (1999)	20	19 (2004)
Vanuatu	29 (1991)	23	22 (2010)
Developed Member Economies	20	20	18
Australia	17 (1991)	18 (1999)	...
Japan	21	21	18 (2010)
New Zealand	18	18	14 (2010)

a Regional aggregates are updated from the electronic files provided by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) on 4 June 2013. If national data are missing or not available, the UIS imputes or generates a value to estimate a robust regional average. These imputed national data are produced by the UIS to generate regional averages and are not published.

Sources: Institute for Statistics Data Centre (UNESCO), accessed 30 May 2013; 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		Sex ^b			Residence ^b			Wealth Quintile ^b		
	1990	2011	Female	Male	Male-to-Female Ratio	Rural	Urban	Urban-to-Rural Ratio	Lowest	Highest	Highest-to-Lowest Ratio
Developing Member Economies^c	79	83									
Central and West Asia^c	59	82									
Afghanistan	25	66	39	42	1.1 (2011)	38	53	1.4 (2011)	29	54	1.9 (2011)
Armenia	85 (1992)	95	91	92	1.0 (2010)	91	92	1.0 (2010)	92	93	1.0 (2010)
Azerbaijan	58 (1992)	74	29	31	1.1 (2006)	21	38	1.8 (2006)	21	56	2.7 (2006)
Georgia	58 (1992)	94	62	63	1.0 (2005)	61	64	1.1 (2005)	63	67	1.1 (2005)
Kazakhstan	81 (1992)	99	97	97	1.0 (2011)	98	95	1.0 (2011)	97	95	1.0 (2011)
Kyrgyz Republic	84 (1992)	96	80	82	1.0 (2012)	83	76	0.9 (2012)	25	72	2.9 (2005)
Pakistan	54	80	55	62	1.1 (2007)	54	68	1.3 (2007)	35	78	2.2 (2007)
Tajikistan	72 (1992)	96	90	93	1.0 (2012)	92	91	1.0 (2012)	81	84	1.0 (2005)
Turkmenistan	84 (1992)	97	92	93	1.0 (2000)	97	87	0.9 (2000)	97	86	0.9 (2000)
Uzbekistan	90 (1992)	99	93	93	1.0 (2006)	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	99
Mongolia	84	99	92	93	1.0 (2010)	90	94	1.0 (2010)	91	96	1.1 (2010)
Taipei, China
South Asia^c	70	75									
Bangladesh	69	96	92	95	1.0 (2011)	93	94	1.0 (2011)	90	98	1.1 (2011)
Bhutan	96	95
India	70	72	53	58	1.1 (2006)	51	69	1.4 (2006)	34	82	2.4 (2006)
Maldives	94	96	98	98	1.0 (2009)	98	98	1.0 (2009)	98	97	1.0 (2009)
Nepal	43	92	91	92	1.0 (2011)	92	95	1.0 (2011)	88	98	1.1 (2011)
Sri Lanka	86	99	100	99	1.0 (2007)	100	99	1.0 (2007)	98	100	1.0 (2007)
Southeast Asia^c	75	79									
Brunei Darussalam	93	97
Cambodia	38	94	85	85	1.0 (2010)	84	90	1.1 (2010)	73	93	1.3 (2010)
Indonesia	60	63	71	73	1.0 (2012)	67	77	1.1 (2012)	45	82	1.8 (2007)
Lao PDR	18	78	42	41	1.0 (2006)	39	56	1.4 (2006)	29	59	2.0 (2006)
Malaysia	90	99
Myanmar	88	99	98	98	1.0 (2010)	98	98	1.0 (2010)	98	99	1.0 (2010)
Philippines	88	80	84	87	1.0 (2008)	83	88	1.1 (2008)	72	94	1.3 (2008)
Singapore	85	96
Thailand	92	99	94	95	1.0 (2006)	95	93	1.0 (2006)	95	93	1.0 (2006)
Viet Nam	88	95	76	73	1.0 (2011)	71	82	1.2 (2011)	60	86	1.4 (2011)
The Pacific^c	73	67									
Cook Islands	93	93
Fiji	97	99
Kiribati	97	99	56	66	1.2 (2009)	61	63	1.0 (2009)	54	71	1.3 (2009)
Marshall Islands	92	94	48	48	1.0 (2007)	19	61	3.2 (2007)	23	43	1.9 (2007)
Micronesia, Fed. States of	85	84
Nauru	74	99
Palau	99	84
Papua New Guinea	68	61	69	65	0.9 (2006)	63	70	1.1 (2006)
Samoa	90	91	39	36	0.9 (2009)	38	34	0.9 (2009)	26	39	1.5 (2009)
Solomon Islands	77	88	84	92	1.1 (2007)	88	90	1.0 (2007)	90	88	1.0 (2007)
Timor-Leste	...	67	64	69	1.1 (2010)	65	71	1.1 (2010)	55	73	1.3 (2010)
Tonga	94	99
Tuvalu	99	96	60	63	1.1 (2007)	68	56	0.8 (2007)
Vanuatu	76	68	63	64	1.0 (2007)	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	95

a Estimates are based on data officially reported to WHO and UNICEF by member economies and data reported in publications on health surveys.

b Estimates are based on household survey data.

c Regional aggregates are weighted averages estimated using population of survivors to age 1 available for the respective year headings or nearest years given in the table. The data for population survivors to age 1 are from the World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision.

Sources: Global Health Observatory Data Repository (WHO), accessed 17 May 2013; STATcompiler and country *Demographic and Health Survey (DHS)* reports available at ICF International (2013), and country *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS)* reports available at UNICEF; ADB estimates based on data from the World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision (UN Population Division), accessed 17 June 2013.

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				26.2	10.4	15.8
Central and West Asia^c				36.7	13.4	23.3
Afghanistan	4.1 (2001)	1.9	2.2 ^d	3.3 (2010)	2.4	0.9 ^e
Armenia	81.2 (2011)	29.8	51.4
Azerbaijan	103.3 (2011)	34.2	69.2
Georgia	43.5 (2011)	42.0	1.5 ^e
Kazakhstan	116.3 (2009)	38.5	77.8
Kyrgyz Republic	81.0 (2008)	25.1	55.8	82.7 (2011)	24.6	58.1 ^d
Pakistan	8.3 (1992)	5.1	3.2	13.8 (2009)	8.2	5.6
Tajikistan	56.9 (2011)	17.0	40.0
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	136.1 (2010)	26.1	110.0
East Asia^c				32.1	14.8	17.3
China, People's Rep. of	21.5 (2001)	10.6	10.9	29.6 (2010)	14.5	15.1 ^d
Hong Kong, China	76.5 (2006)	17.0 ^f	59.5 ^g	82.6 (2011)	18.0 ^f	64.6 ^g
Korea, Rep. of	62.5 (2004)	17.5	45.0	73.2 (2008)	19.8	53.4
Mongolia	63.7 (2002)	27.6	36.1	65.3 (2008)	28.8	36.5
Taipei, China	30.7 (1990)	10.9	19.8	77.0 (2011)	19.6	57.4 ^d
South Asia^c				15.1	6.0	9.1
Bangladesh	5.1 (2003)	2.4	2.7	5.7 (2011)	3.5	2.1
Bhutan	10.0 (2004)	1.9	8.1	12.1 (2008)	2.5	9.6 ^d
India	17.1 (2000)	5.3	11.8	16.0 (2008)	6.3	9.8
Maldives	8.7 (1991)	2.0	6.8 ^d	67.8 (2007)	17.9	49.9 ^d
Nepal	6.9 (2004)	2.2	4.7
Sri Lanka	12.4 (1993)	2.1	10.3	21.5 (2006)	5.1	16.3
Southeast Asia^c				35.0	7.8	27.2
Brunei Darussalam	49.2 (2000)	10.1	39.1	86.6 (2010)	14.1	72.6
Cambodia	11.6 (1996)	1.1	10.5	10.9 (2008)	2.4	8.4
Indonesia	9.6 (2003)	1.4	8.2	15.7 (2012)	2.0	13.7
Lao PDR	15.9 (1995)	3.4	12.5	10.4 (2009)	1.9	8.5
Malaysia	23.5 (2000)	6.9	16.6	43.6 (2010)	11.7	31.9 ^d
Myanmar	11.0 (2005)	3.7	7.3	13.8 (2010)	5.1	8.7
Philippines	26.5 (2000)	5.7	20.8	69.1 (2004)	11.1	58.0
Singapore	55.6 (1999)	13.9	41.7 ^d	75.1 (2010)	17.4	57.8
Thailand	9.4 (1991)	2.2	7.1	17.8 (2004)	2.9	14.9
Viet Nam	12.4 (2001)	5.2	7.2	22.3 (2008)	12.3	10.1
The Pacific^c				13.0	1.5	11.6
Cook Islands	36.7 (2001)	7.8	28.9	83.4 (2009)	25.8	57.6 ^d
Fiji	22.9 (1999)	3.4	19.5 ^d	27.3 (2009)	4.4	23.0 ^d
Kiribati	26.9 (1998)	3.0	23.9 ^d	45.5 (2010)	4.2	41.3
Marshall Islands	33.7 (2000)	4.6	29.1 ^d	30.3 (2010)	6.1	24.2
Micronesia, Fed. States of	44.8 (2000)	6.0	38.8	38.0 (2009)	1.9	36.1
Nauru	76.2 (1995)	16.0	60.2 ^d	108.6 (2009)	10.0	98.6
Palau	75.0 (1998)	14.0	61.0	72.8 (2010)	14.2	58.6
Papua New Guinea	5.8 (2000)	0.5	5.3 ^d	4.8 (2008)	0.5	4.3
Samoa	27.0 (1999)	6.9	20.1	23.9 (2008)	4.9	19.0
Solomon Islands	10.3 (1999)	1.3	9.0	23.3 (2009)	2.3	21.0
Timor-Leste	19.4 (2004)	0.8	18.6 ^d
Tonga	38.2 (2001)	3.6	34.6	44.0 (2010)	5.6	38.4
Tuvalu	47.2 (2002)	6.3	40.9	75.6 (2008)	10.2	65.4
Vanuatu	25.6 (1997)	1.1	24.5 ^d	18.0 (2008)	1.2	16.9
Developed Member Economies^c				73.0	22.1	50.9
Australia	128.3 (1996)	25.1	103.2	125.8 (2009)	29.9	95.9
Japan	82.2 (1990)	17.3	64.9	62.3 (2006)	20.9	41.4
New Zealand	108.2 (2001)	23.1	85.1	132.0 (2007)	23.3	108.7

a Estimated using data from Global Health Workforce Statistics (WHO) and population from the World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision.

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

c Regional aggregates are population-weighted averages estimated using data available for the years 2006–2012; except for Nepal, the Philippines, Thailand, and Timor-Leste where data are for 2004. The data for population are from the World Population Prospects: the 2012 Revision.

d Figures refer to nurses only.

e Figures does not include data on nurses.

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

g 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.

Sources: Global Health Workforce Statistics (WHO) available at <http://who.int/hrh/statistics/hwfstats/en/index.html>, accessed 12 July 2013; for Hong Kong, China and Taipei, China: economy sources; ADB estimates based on data from the World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision (UN Population Division), accessed 17 June 2013.

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	2012	1995	2000	2012
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan
Armenia	11.9 (1996)	12.8	10.6	7.1 (1996)	4.4	6.5
Azerbaijan	17.5	23.8	7.7	6.9	5.4	3.3
Georgia	10.7	13.4	9.5	8.7	3.9	5.2
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyz Republic	23.1	20.7	27.9	13.6	11.7	14.2
Pakistan
Tajikistan	12.5	15.9	16.7	7.8	6.5	7.1
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of ^b	17.5	18.0 (2002)	16.8	...	3.3 (2006)	5.7
Hong Kong, China	17.7	18.9	19.2	12.7	11.9	14.7
Korea, Rep. of	18.9	15.3	15.1 (2011)	0.8 (1996)	0.7	1.0 (2011)
Mongolia	16.4	19.1	4.6	11.1	10.7	7.1
Taipei, China	10.0	10.2	12.9 (2011)	0.5	1.0	1.3 (2011)
South Asia						
Bangladesh	16.7	19.7	11.4 (2011)	7.4	9.4	5.6 (2011)
Bhutan	...	14.0 (2002)	16.0	...	11.2 (2002)	7.0
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	0.9
Nepal	14.0	15.2	18.3	4.1	5.7	6.7
Sri Lanka	9.1	9.2	9.0	5.3	6.2	6.6
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam	13.2	12.3	17.5 (2005)	6.5	6.1	7.9 (2005)
Cambodia	10.6	16.2	13.8	3.5	10.7	12.7
Indonesia
Lao PDR
Malaysia	20.9	23.7	21.6	5.5	6.4	7.4
Myanmar
Philippines	16.6	17.1	14.9	2.3	2.1	2.8
Singapore	18.9	21.0	20.8 (2011)	7.6	5.1	7.9 (2011)
Thailand	22.4	23.1	18.6	7.5	7.6	9.5
Viet Nam
The Pacific						
Cook Islands	12.0	10.4	13.5 (2011)	9.9	9.9	11.1 (2011)
Fiji	27.6	27.1	25.6	14.0	14.7	15.5
Kiribati	19.4	19.9	18.3 (2011)	14.9	13.7	14.3 (2011)
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 (2011)	13.1	16.9	17.9 (2011)
Solomon Islands
Timor-Leste	...	18.9 (2004)	6.2 (2011)	...	11.1 (2004)	3.6 (2011)
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						
Australia	6.8 (1999)	6.7	7.6	14.6 (1999)	16.4	16.4
Japan	14.7	13.5	8.6 (2011)	20.9	21.8	19.5 (2011)
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 Bangladesh, Georgia, Japan, the Kyrgyz Republic, and Tajikistan, where data refer to the consolidated government or general government.

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

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	2008	2010	2008	2010	2008	2010	2008	2010
Developing Member Economies	67.9	77.4	82.8	94.4	96.2	66.3	74.2	1.4	1.3
Central and West Asia									
Afghanistan	2.0	14.4	30.0	22.0	56.7	12.0	22.2	1.8	2.6
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyz Republic
Pakistan	52.9	57.6	67.4	78.0	90.4	46.0	54.5	1.7	1.7
Tajikistan
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
East Asia									
China, People's Rep. of	98.6	99.4	99.7	100.0	100.0	99.0	99.5	1.0	1.0
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of
Mongolia	...	67.0	86.2	90.0	97.9	36.0	67.1	2.5	1.5
Taipei, China	98.6	99.0	99.0	100.0	100.0	98.0	98.1	1.0	1.0
South Asia									
Bangladesh	20.4	41.0	46.5	76.0	82.1	28.0	32.6	2.7	2.5
Bhutan
India	43.0	64.5	75.0	93.1	93.9	52.5	66.9	1.8	1.4
Maldives
Nepal	15.4	43.6	76.3	89.7	97.0	34.0	71.6	2.6	1.4
Sri Lanka	62.0	76.6	76.6	85.8	85.8	75.0	75.1	1.1	1.1
Southeast Asia									
Brunei Darussalam	99.2	99.7	99.7	100.0	100.0	98.6	98.6	1.0	1.0
Cambodia	15.8	24.0	31.1	66.0	91.3	12.5	15.9	5.3	5.7
Indonesia	53.4	64.5	73.0	94.0	94.0	32.0	56.2	2.9	1.7
Lao PDR	...	55.0	63.0	84.0	87.7	42.0	50.7	2.0	1.7
Malaysia	96.9	99.4	99.4	100.0	100.0	98.0	98.0	1.0	1.0
Myanmar	5.0	13.0	48.8	19.0	89.0	10.0	28.4	1.9	3.1
Philippines	87.4	86.0	83.3	97.0	93.7	65.0	73.3	1.5	1.3
Singapore	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	n.a.	n.a.
Thailand	82.1	99.3	87.7	100.0	98.2	99.0	82.3	1.0	1.2
Viet Nam	75.8	89.0	97.6	99.6	99.6	85.0	96.8	1.2	1.0
The Pacific									
Cook Islands
Fiji
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Timor-Leste	...	22.0	38.0	52.0	83.4	10.5	20.2	5.0	4.1
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Developed Member Economies									
Australia
Japan
New Zealand

a Regional aggregates are population-weighted averages estimated using data available for the respective year headings given in the table. Data for population were estimated using data from the *World Energy Outlook* except for Brunei Darussalam and Singapore, which were taken from economy sources. The urban and rural populations were derived using data on percentage of urban population from the *World Urbanization Prospects: The 2011 Revision*.

Sources: *World Energy Outlook* (International Energy Agency 2012); ADB estimates.

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

	23 Share of Population Using Solid Fuels for Cooking (percent)							
	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)	27.3	81.7		
Central and West Asia^b				52.6 (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)	1.2	23.8
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	28.6 (2012)	14.1	36.1	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				52.5 (2010)	23.1	70.4		
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	96.2 (1999)	81.9	98.6	87.9	48.1	96.0	100.0 (2005)	61.8 (2005)
Indonesia	44.8 (2001)	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	94.3	83.2	99.0	99.9	76.7
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^b				71.6 (2010)	41.4	88.6		
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 population-weighted averages estimated 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 the World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision and the World Urbanization Prospects: The 2011 Revision.

Sources: Data on solid fuel use are updated using the electronic files provided by the WHO on 15 June 2012 and 1 July 2012, Global Health Observatory Data Repository (WHO) available at <http://apps.who.int/ghodata/>, for Bhutan: *Living Standards Survey Report, 2012*; for Myanmar: *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey Report, 2010*; World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision and World Urbanization Prospects: The 2011 Revision.

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

	24 Proportion of Population Using an Improved Drinking Water Source (percent)					
	1990			2011		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
Developing Member Economies^a	70	93	61	90	97	86
Central and West Asia^a	86	93	74	87	95	82
Afghanistan	5 (1991)	14 (1991)	3 (1991)	61	85	53
Armenia	91 (1992)	98 (1992)	75 (1992)	99	100	98
Azerbaijan	70	88	49	80	88	71
Georgia	85	95	72	98	100	96
Kazakhstan	96	99	92	95	99	90
Kyrgyz Republic	77 (1991)	97 (1991)	66 (1991)	89	96	85
Pakistan	85	95	81	91	96	89
Tajikistan	61 (1993)	93 (1993)	47 (1993)	66	92	57
Turkmenistan	86 (1994)	99 (1994)	76 (1994)	71	89	54
Uzbekistan	90	97	85	87	98	81
East Asia^a	67	97	56	92	98	85
China, People's Rep. of	67	97	56	92	98	85
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of	90 (1991)	97 (1991)	67 (1991)	98	100	88
Mongolia	54	74	27	85	100	53
Taipei, China
South Asia^a	71	89	65	91	98	89
Bangladesh	76	87	74	83	85	82
Bhutan	86 (1997)	99 (1997)	82 (1997)	97	100	96
India	70	89	64	92	96	89
Maldives	93	100	91	99	100	98
Nepal	67	96	64	88	91	87
Sri Lanka	68	92	63	93	99	92
Southeast Asia^a	71	90	62	89	95	84
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	31	48	28	67	90	61
Indonesia	70	90	61	84	93	76
Lao PDR	40 (1994)	70 (1994)	33 (1994)	70	83	63
Malaysia	88	94	82	100	100	99
Myanmar	56	80	48	84	94	79
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	58	88	50	96	99	94
The Pacific^a	46	90	35	54	95	45
Cook Islands	100	100	100	100	100	100
Fiji	85	94	79	96	100	92
Kiribati	50	74	36	66	87	50
Marshall Islands	92	91	94	94	93	97
Micronesia, Fed. States of	91	94	90	89	95	88
Nauru	93 (1996)	93 (1996)	n.a.	96	96	n.a.
Palau	90	98	72	95	97	86
Papua New Guinea	33	87	24	40	89	33
Samoa	89	97	87	98	97	98
Solomon Islands	78 (2000)	93 (2000)	76 (2000)	79	93	76
Timor-Leste	53 (1995)	67 (1995)	49 (1995)	69	93	60
Tonga	99	98	99	99	99	99
Tuvalu	90	92	89	98	98	97
Vanuatu	62	94	55	91	98	88
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 for the respective year headings are population-weighted averages and presented only if available data cover at least 50% of the total population of the region. Values not corresponding to the reference year are excluded from the regional aggregates. The data for population are from the WHO and UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation.

Sources: Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2013; WHO and UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation, accessed 15 May 2013.

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

	25 Proportion of Population Using an Improved Sanitation Facility (percent)					
	1990			2011		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
Developing Member Economies^a	28	57	17	55	72	44
Central and West Asia^a	46	83	26	58	78	47
Afghanistan	21 (1991)	26 (1991)	20 (1991)	28	46	23
Armenia	89 (1992)	95 (1992)	75 (1992)	90	96	81
Azerbaijan	57 (1994)	70 (1994)	43 (1994)	82	86	78
Georgia	96	97	96	93	96	91
Kazakhstan	96	96	97	97	97	98
Kyrgyz Republic	93 (1991)	94 (1991)	93 (1991)	93	94	93
Pakistan	27	72	7	47	72	34
Tajikistan	89 (1993)	93 (1993)	87 (1993)	95	95	94
Turkmenistan	98	99	97	99	100	98
Uzbekistan	84	95	76	100	100	100
East Asia^a	26	53	16	66	75	56
China, People's Rep. of	24	48	15	65	74	56
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mongolia	50 (1994)	66 (1994)	28 (1994)	53	64	29
Taipei, China
South Asia^a	20	51	11	38	59	29
Bangladesh	38	54	34	55	55	55
Bhutan	38 (1997)	66 (1997)	30 (1997)	45	74	29
India	18	50	7	35	60	24
Maldives	68	98	58	98	97	98
Nepal	7	36	4	35	50	32
Sri Lanka	68	78	65	91	83	93
Southeast Asia^a	48	69	37	71	81	62
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	9	36	3	33	76	22
Indonesia	35	61	24	59	73	44
Lao PDR	20 (1994)	61 (1994)	12 (1994)	62	87	48
Malaysia	84	88	81	96	96	95
Myanmar	55 (1991)	77 (1991)	47 (1991)	77	84	74
Philippines	57	69	45	74	79	69
Singapore	99	99	n.a.	100	100	n.a.
Thailand	82	87	79	93	89	96
Viet Nam	37	64	30	75	93	67
The Pacific^a	30	70	19	31	71	22
Cook Islands	100	100	100	95	95	95
Fiji	57	85	37	87	92	82
Kiribati	28	43	20	39	51	30
Marshall Islands	65	77	41	76	84	55
Micronesia, Fed. States of	19	49	9	55	83	47
Nauru	66	66	n.a.	66	66	n.a.
Palau	46	63	8	100	100	100
Papua New Guinea	20	62	13	19	57	13
Samoa	93	94	92	92	93	91
Solomon Islands	25 (2000)	81 (2000)	15 (2000)	29	81	15
Timor-Leste	37 (1995)	51 (1995)	33 (1995)	39	68	27
Tonga	95	98	95	92	99	89
Tuvalu	73	75	71	83	86	80
Vanuatu	35 (1992)	50 (1992)	32 (1992)	58	65	55
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 for the respective year headings are population-weighted averages and presented only if available data cover at least 50% of the total population of the region. Values not corresponding to the reference year are excluded from the regional aggregates. The data for population are from the WHO and UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation.

Sources: Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2013; WHO and UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation, accessed 15 May 2013.

Table 2.7 **Gender Equality and Opportunity**

	26 Gender Parity in Education ^a					
	Primary		Secondary		Tertiary ^b	
	1991	2011	1991	2011	1991	2011
Developing Member Economies	0.86	1.00	0.72	0.97	0.64	0.95
Central and West Asia	0.68	0.83	0.79	0.81	0.83	0.96
Afghanistan	0.55	0.71	0.51	0.55	0.28 (2003)	0.24 (2009)
Armenia	1.04 (1994)	1.02 (2010)	1.06 (2002)	1.02 (2010)	1.09 (1999)	1.30
Azerbaijan	0.99	0.98	1.01	0.98	0.67	1.02
Georgia	1.00	1.03	0.97	0.95 (2008)	0.91	1.20
Kazakhstan	1.00 (1994)	1.00 (2012)	1.02 (1993)	0.97 (2012)	1.25 (1994)	1.45 (2012)
Kyrgyz Republic	1.01 (1992)	0.99	1.02	1.00	1.33 (1993)	1.24
Pakistan	0.53 (1990)	0.82	0.47	0.73	0.26 (1992)	0.91
Tajikistan	0.98	0.96	0.86 (1999)	0.87	0.43 (1999)	0.52
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	0.98	0.97	0.98 (1999)	0.98	0.82 (1999)	0.65
East Asia	0.92	1.04	0.77	1.04	0.50	1.08
China, People's Rep. of	0.91	1.04	0.75	1.05	0.53 (1994)	1.13
Hong Kong, China	1.00 (1995)	1.04	1.03 (1996)	1.02	0.70 (1992)	1.10
Korea, Rep. of	1.01	0.99 (2010)	0.97	0.99 (2010)	0.49	0.72 (2010)
Mongolia	0.99	0.98	1.10	1.06	2.27 (1996)	1.49
Taipei, China	1.01	1.01 (2012)	1.04	1.01 (2012)	0.96	1.08 (2012)
South Asia	0.77	1.01	0.61	0.94	0.50	0.73
Bangladesh	0.84 (1990)	...	0.51 (1990)	1.17	0.49 (1999)	0.70
Bhutan	0.76 (1993)	1.01 (2012)	0.78 (1998)	1.05 (2012)	0.58 (1999)	0.68
India	0.76	1.00 (2010)	0.63 (1993)	0.92 (2010)	0.54	0.73 (2010)
Maldives	1.00 (1992)	0.98	1.04 (1994)	1.13 (2004)	2.29 (2003)	1.13 (2008)
Nepal	0.63	0.86 (2002)	0.46	0.89 (2006)	0.33	0.60 (2006)
Sri Lanka	0.96	0.99	1.09	1.04	0.50 (1994)	1.83
Southeast Asia	0.97	0.99	0.90	1.01	0.95	1.06
Brunei Darussalam	0.96	1.01	1.08	1.02	1.39 (1992)	1.69
Cambodia	0.83 (1994)	0.95	0.54 (1998)	0.85 (2008)	0.21 (1993)	0.62
Indonesia	0.97	1.02	0.82	1.00	0.66 (1993)	0.87
Lao PDR	0.79	0.94	0.66 (1992)	0.85	0.43 (1993)	0.74
Malaysia	1.00	1.00 (2005)	1.05	1.07 (2010)	1.07 (1998)	1.34 (2010)
Myanmar	0.96	1.00 (2010)	0.98	1.06 (2010)	1.25 (1992)	1.37
Philippines	1.00	0.98 (2009)	1.10 (1998)	1.08 (2009)	1.49 (1992)	1.24 (2009)
Singapore
Thailand	0.98	0.99 (2009)	0.97	1.08 (2012)	1.14 (1993)	1.35 (2012)
Viet Nam	0.95 (1998)	0.94	0.89 (1998)	...	0.65 (1998)	1.01 (2011)
The Pacific	0.91	0.93 (2009)	0.89	0.91 (2009)	0.73	0.90 (2000)
Cook Islands	1.00 (1998)	1.03	1.10 (1998)	1.20	n. a.	n. a.
Fiji	1.00	1.00	0.97	1.08	1.20 (2003)	1.19 (2005)
Kiribati	1.01	1.04 (2009)	1.07	1.11 (2008)	n. a.	n. a.
Marshall Islands	0.99 (1999)	0.99	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)	n. a.	n. a.
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)	1.04	1.09 (1995)	1.15	0.93 (1998)	0.92 (2001)
Solomon Islands	0.87	0.99 (2010)	0.60	0.88 (2010)	n. a.	n. a.
Timor-Leste	0.93 (2004)	0.96	0.98 (2004)	1.03	1.24 (2002)	0.70 (2009)
Tonga	1.00	0.96 (2007)	1.02	1.00 (2006)	1.35 (1999)	1.66 (2003)
Tuvalu	1.02 (1999)	0.95 (2006)	...	1.10 (2001)	n. a.	n. a.
Vanuatu	0.96	0.95 (2010)	0.81	1.02 (2010)	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 (2010)	1.00 (1993)	0.95 (2010)	1.19	1.35 (2010)
Japan	1.00	1.00 (2010)	1.02	1.00 (2010)	0.65	0.89 (2010)
New Zealand	0.99	1.00 (2010)	1.01	1.05 (2010)	1.13	1.46 (2010)

a Measured as the ratio of female gross enrollment ratio to male gross enrollment ratio. Regional aggregates are updated from the electronic files provided by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) on 4 June 2013. If national data are missing or not available, the UIS imputes or generates a value to estimate a robust regional average. These imputed national data are produced by the UIS to generate regional averages and are not published.

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.

Sources: Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 4 July 2013; Institute for Statistics Data Centre (UNESCO), accessed 30 May 2013; for Taipei, China: Educational Statistical Indicators Online, accessed 9 May 2013.

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		80.9						
Central and West Asia^a		66.7						
Afghanistan	16.1 (2003)	47.9 (2011)	77.1	41.2	1.9 (2011)	25.8	78.1	3.0 (2011)
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	96.1	1.0 (2010)	94.0	100.0	1.1 (2010)
Kazakhstan	92.5 (1995)	99.2 (2011)	99.0	99.4	1.0 (2011)	98.8	99.2	1.0 (2011)
Kyrgyz Republic	97.3 (1997)	97.0 (2012)	98.7	96.2	1.0 (2012)	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)	78.8 (2012)	82.7	77.7	1.1 (2012)	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		94.1						
China, People's Rep. of	69.7 (1992)	94.1 (2010)
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of
Mongolia	89.8 (1998)	99.0 (2010)	99.1	98.9	1.0 (2010)	98.7	98.3	1.0 (2010)
Taipei, China
South Asia^a		72.2						
Bangladesh	25.7 (1994)	54.6 (2011)	74.3	48.7	1.5 (2011)	30.4	87.4	2.9 (2011)
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)	74.2 (2006)	89.4	68.8	1.3 (2006)	53.9	96.5	1.8 (2006)
Maldives	81.0 (2001)	99.1 (2009)	99.6	99.0	1.0 (2009)	98.3	99.6	1.0 (2009)
Nepal	15.4 (1991)	58.3 (2011)	87.9	54.9	1.6 (2011)	33.3	91.8	2.8 (2011)
Sri Lanka	80.2 (1993)	99.4 (2007)	99.4	99.4	1.0 (2007)	99.0	99.6	1.0 (2007)
Southeast Asia^a		92.4						
Brunei Darussalam	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)	95.7 (2012)	98.2	93.3	1.1 (2012)	87.1	97.6	1.1 (2010)
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)	90.7 (2009)
Myanmar	75.8 (1997)	83.1 (2010)	95.0	78.4	1.2 (2010)	70.7	97.4	1.4 (2010)
Philippines	83.1 (1993)	91.1 (2008)	94.2	88.1	1.1 (2008)	77.1	98.3	1.3 (2008)
Singapore	...	100.0 (2006)
Thailand	85.9 (1996)	99.1 (2009)	98.2	99.4	1.0 (2009)	97.8	99.5	1.0 (2006)
Viet Nam	70.6 (1997)	93.7 (2011)	97.9	92.0	1.1 (2011)	78.4	99.1	1.3 (2011)
The Pacific^a		81.2						
Cook Islands	100.0 (2005)	100.0 (2008)
Fiji	...	100.0 (2008)
Kiribati	88.0 (1994)	88.4 (2009)	91.3	86.5	1.1 (2009)	85.9	96.1	1.1 (2009)
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)
Palau	95.0 (2006)	90.3 (2010)
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)	97.9 (2010)
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 population-weighted averages estimated using total number of live births available for the years 2006–2012. The data for annual number of live births are from the World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision.

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		45.0						
Central and West Asia^a		31.4						
Afghanistan	16.1 (2010)	14.6 (2011)	32.8	10.5	3.1 (2011)	5.8	32.3	5.6 (2011)
Armenia	64.7 (2000)	92.8 (2010)	95.6	88.8	1.1 (2010)	87.8	96.3	1.1 (2010)
Azerbaijan	30.4 (2001)	45.2 (2006)	59.9	29.7	2.0 (2006)	19.8	74.0	3.7 (2006)
Georgia	75.0 (2005)	90.2 (2010)	94.6	85.7	1.1 (2010)
Kazakhstan	81.9 (1995)	87.0 (2011)	85.5	88.4	1.0 (2011)	87.7	82.5	0.9 (2011)
Kyrgyz Republic	81.1 (1997)
Pakistan	14.2 (1991)	28.4 (2007)	48.3	19.8	2.4 (2007)	10.1	64.0	6.3 (2007)
Tajikistan	...	49.4 (2007)	61.0	45.2	1.3 (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		36.8						
Bangladesh	6.0 (1994)	25.5 (2011)	44.7	19.8	2.3 (2011)	8.3	47.3	5.7 (2007)
Bhutan	...	77.3 (2010)	87.1	73.3	1.2 (2010)	64.0	91.8	1.4 (2010)
India	26.9 (1993)	37.0 (2006)	62.4	27.7	2.3 (2006)	12.1	77.3	6.4 (2006)
Maldives	65.0 (1999)	85.1 (2009)	79.6	87.5	0.9 (2009)	87.5	80.5	0.9 (2009)
Nepal	8.8 (1996)	50.1 (2011)	71.8	47.7	1.5 (2011)	28.3	83.7	3.0 (2011)
Sri Lanka	...	92.5 (2007)	84.4	93.6	0.9 (2007)
Southeast Asia^a		76.1						
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	8.9 (2000)	59.4 (2010)	80.3	55.3	1.5 (2010)	42.8	82.5	1.9 (2010)
Indonesia	55.4 (1991)	81.5 (2007)	89.9	75.5	1.2 (2007)	61.1	96.4	1.6 (2007)
Lao PDR
Malaysia
Myanmar	65.9 (2001)	73.4 (2007)
Philippines	52.1 (1993)	77.8 (2008)	83.0	72.6	1.1 (2008)	61.1	93.1	1.5 (2008)
Singapore
Thailand	...	79.6 (2009)	82.1	78.8	1.0 (2009)
Viet Nam	15.2 (1997)	59.6 (2011)	81.6	50.5	1.6 (2011)	27.2	88.7	3.3 (2011)
The Pacific^a		56.1						
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)	81.0 (2010)
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)	41.3	68.4	1.7 (2010)
Tonga	...	85.6 (2008)
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 population-weighted averages estimated using total number of live births available for the years 2006–2011. The data for annual number of live births are from the World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision.

Sources: Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2013; Global Health Observatory Data Repository (WHO), accessed 16 May 2013; STATcompiler and *Demographic and Health Survey (DHS)* reports available at ICF International (2013); country *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS)* reports available at UNICEF; ADB estimates based on data from the World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision (UN Population Division), accessed 17 June 2013; and *The State of the World's Children Report, 2013* (UNICEF).

Table 2.7 **Gender Equality and Opportunity**

	28 Gender Parity in Labor Force Participation, Aged 15 Years and Over ^a		
	1990	2000	2012
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	0.28
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	0.84
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	0.46
Southeast Asia^b	0.73	0.70	0.72
Brunei Darussalam	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	0.83	0.83
Cook Islands	0.61 (1991)	0.80 (2001)	0.84 (2011)
Fiji	0.35	0.50	0.50
Kiribati	...	0.88	0.78 (2010)
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	0.72
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	0.89	0.84	0.77
Developed Member Economies^b	0.65	0.66	0.70
Australia	0.69	0.75	0.82
Japan	0.65	0.65	0.68
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 weighted averages estimated using working-age population data as weights for the respective year headings.

Sources: ADB estimates based on data from *Key Indicators of the Labour Market*, 7th ed. (ILO), accessed 30 May 2013; National Minimum Development Indicators Database (SPC), accessed 15 May 2013; economy sources.

Table 2.7 **Gender Equality and Opportunity**

29 Percentage of Seats held by Women in National Parliament			
	1990	2000	2013
Developing Member Economies^a	14.6	13.8	19.3
Central and West Asia^a	20.2	7.1	20.4
Afghanistan	3.7	27.3 (2006)	27.7
Armenia	35.6	3.1	10.7
Azerbaijan	12.0 (1997)	12.0	16.0
Georgia	6.8 (1997)	7.2	12.0
Kazakhstan	13.4 (1997)	10.4	24.3
Kyrgyz Republic	1.4 (1997)	1.4	23.3
Pakistan	10.1	2.3 (1999)	19.5
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	22.5
China, People's Rep. of	21.3	21.8	23.4
Hong Kong, China
Korea, Rep. of	2.0	3.7	15.7
Mongolia	24.9	7.9	14.9
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	17.6
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	5.8 (1997)	8.2	20.3
Indonesia	12.4	8.0 (2001)	18.6
Lao PDR	6.3	21.2	25.0
Malaysia	5.1	10.4 (2001)	10.4
Myanmar	6.0
Philippines	9.1	12.4	22.9
Singapore	4.9	4.3	24.2
Thailand	2.8	5.6	15.8
Viet Nam	17.7	26.0	24.4
The Pacific^a	1.2	3.9	7.8
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 (2001)	3.0
Micronesia, Fed. States of	... (1997)
Nauru	5.6	...	5.3
Palau	... (1997)
Papua New Guinea	...	1.8	2.7
Samoa	...	8.2	4.1
Solomon Islands	...	2.0	2.0
Timor-Leste	...	26.1 (2003)	38.5
Tonga (2001)	3.6
Tuvalu	7.7	...	6.7
Vanuatu	4.3
Developed Member Economies^a	4.0	11.9	15.3
Australia	6.1	22.4	24.7
Japan	1.4	4.6	8.1
New Zealand	14.4	29.2	32.2

a Regional aggregates for the respective year headings given in the table are weighted averages using data on the total number of seats in the national parliament. Data on the total number of seats in the national parliament are from the Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD) and Inter-Parliamentary Union.

Sources: Millennium Indicators Database Online (UNSD), accessed 3 July 2013; Inter-Parliamentary Union, accessed 11 July 2013; for the Cook Islands: National Minimum Development Indicators Database (SPC), accessed 17 May 2013.

Table 2.8 **Social Safety Nets**

	30 Social Protection and Labor Rating ^a		31 Social Security Expenditure on Health (percent of government expenditure on health) ^b			32 Government Expenditure on Social Security and Welfare (percent of total expenditure) ^c		
	2005	2012	1995	2000	2011	1995	2000	2012
Developing Member Economies	45.6	47.5	58.9
Central and West Asia
Afghanistan	...	3.0
Armenia	...	5.0	6.0 (1996)	9.8	30.6
Azerbaijan	3.5	8.5	18.2	10.0
Georgia	...	4.5	39.2	46.0	68.8	25.0	26.3	21.7
Kazakhstan	13.7 (1996)	19.4 (1998)
Kyrgyz Republic	3.5	5.0	0.6 (1997)	10.0	64.1	19.9	10.1	21.3
Pakistan	3.0	3.5	5.1	5.7	3.2
Tajikistan ^d	3.0	3.5	0.6	12.3	19.8
Turkmenistan	6.0 (1996)	6.5	6.5
Uzbekistan	3.5	4.0
East Asia
China, People's Rep. of	64.2	57.2	67.0	1.7	4.7	10.0
Hong Kong, China	7.3	10.1	11.3
Korea, Rep. of	79.5	77.3	77.7	7.7	15.2	22.2 (2011)
Mongolia ^e	3.5	4.0	36.8	24.1	27.6	16.3	17.7	36.8
Taipei, China	23.7	25.3	24.2 (2011)
South Asia
Bangladesh	4.0	4.0	0.9	1.3	2.1 (2011)
Bhutan	3.5	4.5	4.7 (2002)	5.0
India	16.7	18.3	16.0	4.5 (1999)	4.2	5.6 (2008)
Maldives	3.5	4.0	...	0.7 (2008)	22.2	3.1	2.8	14.1
Nepal	3.0	4.5	...	3.4 (2001)	4.0	3.1	5.4	3.1
Sri Lanka	3.5	3.5	0.1	0.3	0.1	16.3	10.8	8.5
Southeast Asia
Brunei Darussalam	3.7	3.6	3.8 (2011)
Cambodia	2.5	3.5	5.1	2.4	5.8
Indonesia	3.5	...	10.2	6.3	20.3
Lao PDR	3.5	3.5	0.8	1.2	4.9
Malaysia	0.4	0.7	1.1	3.5	3.7	3.7
Myanmar	1.6	3.1	1.3
Philippines	11.4	14.7	29.7	1.9	3.9	5.0
Singapore	4.0	4.8	15.6	5.0	3.5	10.7 (2011)
Thailand	7.1	9.4	9.9	3.5	5.6	8.5
Viet Nam	4.0	4.5	7.0	19.7	38.9
The Pacific
Cook Islands	4.0
Fiji	0.3	0.4	0.7
Kiribati	3.0	3.0	0.0	1.7	2.7 (2011)
Marshall Islands	3.0	3.0	29.2	35.0	10.4
Micronesia, Fed. States of	2.5	2.0	10.9	21.4	17.1
Nauru	...	3.5
Palau	...	4.0
Papua New Guinea	3.0	3.0	0.8	1.7	1.5 (2002)
Samoa	4.0	3.5	1.1	0.3	0.5	4.0	4.5	4.3 (2011)
Solomon Islands	2.0	2.5
Timor-Leste	...	3.0	8.5 (2007)	9.1 (2011)
Tonga	2.5	3.0	2.5	4.6	...
Tuvalu	3.5	3.5
Vanuatu	2.5	3.0	0.5 (1998)	0.2	0.2 (2004)
Developed Member Economies
Australia	37.3 (1999)	36.6	33.4
Japan	82.7	84.9	87.3	36.5	36.8	47.6 (2011)
New Zealand	9.7 (2004)	10.1	38.2	39.4	36.1 (2004)

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

b Regional aggregates for the respective year headings or nearest years as given in the table are weighted averages estimated by using the corresponding US\$ exchange rate from the Global Health Observatory Data Repository.

c Data refer to central government, except for Bangladesh, Georgia, Japan, the Kyrgyz Republic, and Tajikistan, where data refer to consolidated government.

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

e Includes all social and cultural expenditures.

Sources: *Country Performance Assessment Annual Report* (ADB 2013); Global Health Observatory Data Repository (WHO), accessed 29 May 2013; economy sources.

Table 2.9 **Good Governance and Institutions**

	33 Voice and Accountability ^a		34 Government Effectiveness ^a		35 Control of Corruption ^a	
	1996	2011	1996	2011	1996	2011
Developing Member Economies^b	-0.2	-0.3	-0.1	-0.2	-0.2	-0.3
Central and West Asia^b	-1.1	-1.2	-1.0	-0.7	-1.1	-1.0
Afghanistan	-1.9	-1.5	-2.3	-1.5	-1.8	-1.6
Armenia	-0.7	-0.7	-0.4	-0.1	-0.5	-0.6
Azerbaijan	-1.1	-1.3	-0.9	-0.8	-1.3	-1.1
Georgia	-0.4	-0.2	-0.7	0.5	-1.4	-0.0
Kazakhstan	-1.0	-1.2	-1.1	-0.3	-1.1	-1.0
Kyrgyz Republic	-0.8	-0.8	-0.4	-0.6	-0.5	-1.1
Pakistan	-0.7	-0.8	-0.6	-0.8	-1.2	-1.0
Tajikistan	-1.7	-1.4	-1.5	-0.9	-1.4	-1.1
Turkmenistan	-1.5	-2.1	-1.2	-1.6	-0.5	-1.5
Uzbekistan	-1.5	-2.0	-1.1	-0.8	-1.1	-1.3
East Asia^b	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.4
China, People's Rep. of	-1.3	-1.6	-0.2	0.1	-0.3	-0.6
Hong Kong, China	0.3	0.5	1.2	1.7	1.5	1.8
Korea, Rep. of	0.6	0.7	0.6	1.2	0.3	0.5
Mongolia	0.3	-0.0	-0.4	-0.6	-0.1	-0.7
Taipei, China	0.7	0.9	0.8	1.2	0.6	0.9
South Asia^b	-0.2	-0.3	0.0	-0.2	-0.1	-0.4
Bangladesh	-0.1	-0.3	-0.7	-0.9	-0.7	-1.0
Bhutan	-0.8	-0.5	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.7
India	0.4	0.4	-0.1	-0.0	-0.4	-0.6
Maldives	-0.4	-0.2	0.9	-0.3	0.4	-0.6
Nepal	-0.1	-0.5	-0.4	-0.8	-0.0	-0.8
Sri Lanka	-0.4	-0.5	-0.3	-0.1	-0.1	-0.4
Southeast Asia^b	-0.6	-0.8	0.0	0.0	-0.1	-0.3
Brunei Darussalam	-0.7	-0.6	1.0	0.9	0.5	0.8
Cambodia	-0.9	-0.9	-0.9	-0.7	-1.0	-1.1
Indonesia	-0.8	-0.1	-0.4	-0.2	-0.6	-0.7
Lao PDR	-0.9	-1.6	-0.7	-0.9	-0.5	-1.1
Malaysia	-0.1	-0.4	0.7	1.0	0.5	0.0
Myanmar	-1.9	-1.9	-1.3	-1.6	-1.4	-1.7
Philippines	0.2	-0.0	-0.2	-0.0	-0.2	-0.8
Singapore	0.2	-0.2	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.1
Thailand	0.3	-0.4	0.3	0.1	-0.2	-0.4
Viet Nam	-1.1	-1.5	-0.5	-0.3	-0.4	-0.6
The Pacific^b	0.8	0.4	-0.0	-0.7	0.0	-0.3
Cook Islands	-0.3 (2009)	-0.4	0.1 (2000)	-1.0	-0.3 (2000)	-0.2
Fiji	0.0	-1.0	-0.1	-0.7	0.4	-0.5
Kiribati	1.1	0.8	-0.6 (1998)	-0.8	-0.6 (1998)	0.1
Marshall Islands	1.2	1.2	-0.4 (1998)	-1.6	-0.6 (1998)	-0.3
Micronesia, Fed. States of	1.1	1.1	-0.4 (1998)	-0.7	-0.2 (1998)	-0.3
Nauru	1.0	1.1	-0.6 (2007)	-0.6	-0.3 (2007)	0.0
Palau	1.1	1.2	-0.6 (2008)	-0.6	-0.3 (2008)	-0.5
Papua New Guinea	0.1	-0.0	-0.3	-0.7	-0.4	-1.1
Samoa	0.7	0.5	0.4	-0.0	-0.0	0.1
Solomon Islands	1.1	0.0	-0.9 (1998)	-0.9	-0.6 (1998)	-0.4
Timor-Leste	0.2 (2000)	0.1	-0.8 (2002)	-1.1	-0.5 (2002)	-1.1
Tonga	0.2	0.4	-0.3 (1998)	-0.4	-0.2 (1998)	-0.3
Tuvalu	1.3	0.7	0.4 (2000)	-0.8	-0.2 (2000)	-0.5
Vanuatu	0.7	0.6	-0.4 (1998)	-0.2	-0.2 (1998)	0.3
Developed Member Economies^b	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.7	2.0
Australia	1.5	1.4	1.7	1.7	1.9	2.2
Japan	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.0	1.5
New Zealand	1.7	1.5	1.9	1.9	2.2	2.3

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. Average score for the world as a whole is zero in every period.

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

Source: Worldwide Governance Indicators (World Bank) available at <http://info.worldbank.org/governance/wgi/index.asp>, accessed 18 April 2013 and 6 June 2013.

Definitions

The indicator definitions are the standard definitions used by the data source agencies such as 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); 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 below 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, adjusted for purchasing power parity (PPP).
	3 Ratio of income or consumption share 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 two standard deviations below the median weight for age of the international reference population.
	6 Under-five mortality rate per 1,000 live births	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 at PPP (constant 2005 PPP\$)	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 (youth and adults)	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.
	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.
2.2 Key Infrastructure Endowments	12 Per capita consumption of electricity	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 divided by mid-year population.
	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 refers per 100 people	Subscriptions to a public mobile telephone service and provides access to Public Switched Telephone Network using cellular technology, including number of prepaid SIM cards active during the past three months. This includes both analog and digital cellular systems (IMT-2000 Third Generation, 3G) and 4G subscriptions, but excludes mobile broadband subscriptions via data cards or USB modems. Subscriptions to public mobile data services, private trunked mobile radio, telepoint or radio paging, and telemetry services should also be excluded. This should include all mobile cellular subscriptions that offer voice communications.
	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	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	The percentage of one-year olds who have received three doses of the combined diphtheria, tetanus toxoid, and pertussis vaccine in a given year.
	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.
	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.
3.2 Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services	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 Proportion of population using an improved drinking water source	Percentage of the population who use any of the following types of water supply for drinking: piped water into dwelling, plot, or yard; public tap/standpipe; borehole/tube well; protected dug well; protected spring; rainwater collection and bottled water (if a secondary available source is also improved.)
	25 Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility	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)	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. Coverage of at least four visits refers to the percentage of women aged 15–49 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 looking for work.
	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 rating 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	<p>Level of social security funds expressed as a percentage of general government expenditure on health. Social security funds refer to the expenditure on health by social security institutions. Social security or national health insurance schemes are imposed and controlled by government units for the purpose of providing health services to members of the community as a whole or to particular segments of the community. They include payments to medical care providers and to suppliers of medical goods as well as reimbursements to households and the direct outlays on supply of services in kind to the enrollees. It includes current and capital expenditure. Any donor (external) funds channelled through these institutions are included.</p> <p>General government expenditure on health is the sum of health outlays paid for in cash or supplied in kind by government entities, such as Ministry of Health, other ministries, parastatal organizations or social security agencies (without double counting government transfers to social security and extrabudgetary funds). It includes all expenditure made by these entities, regardless of the source, so includes any donor funding passing through them. It includes transfer payments to households to offset medical care costs and extrabudgetary funds to finance health services and goods. It includes current and capital expenditure.</p>
	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	<p>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.</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>
	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 Control of corruption	<p>Perceptions of the extent to which public power is exercised for private gain, including both petty and grand forms of corruption, as well as “capture” of the state by elites and private interests.</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>

Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators 2013

Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific Special Supplement, 3rd Edition

The *Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators 2013 (FIGI 2013)* is the third edition of the special supplement of the *Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific*. The framework is composed of 35 indicators used as measures of income and nonincome outcomes of inclusive growth; the processes and inputs that are important to improve access to opportunities, social inclusion, social safety nets; and good governance and institutions.

Part I provides a comparative analysis of the improvements achieved by economies in developing Asia based on the rate of progress in the last 2 decades of 20 selected indicators of FIGI and also assesses if the improvements in the indicators in the 2000s accelerated over those in the 1990s. Part II contains updated statistical tables for the 35 FIGI indicators for the economies of developing Asia, along with brief nontechnical analyses of trends and inequalities on account of wealth, location, and sex.

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ADB's vision is an Asia and Pacific region free of poverty. Its mission is to help its developing member countries reduce poverty and improve the quality of life of their people. Despite the region's many successes, it remains home to two-thirds of the world's poor: 1.7 billion people who live on less than \$2 a day, with 828 million struggling on less than \$1.25 a day. ADB is committed to reducing poverty through inclusive economic growth, environmentally sustainable growth, and regional integration.

Based in Manila, ADB is owned by 67 members, including 48 from the region. Its main instruments for helping its developing member countries are policy dialogue, loans, equity investments, guarantees, grants, and technical assistance.

Asian Development Bank
6 ADB Avenue, Mandaluyong City
1550 Metro Manila, Philippines
www.adb.org