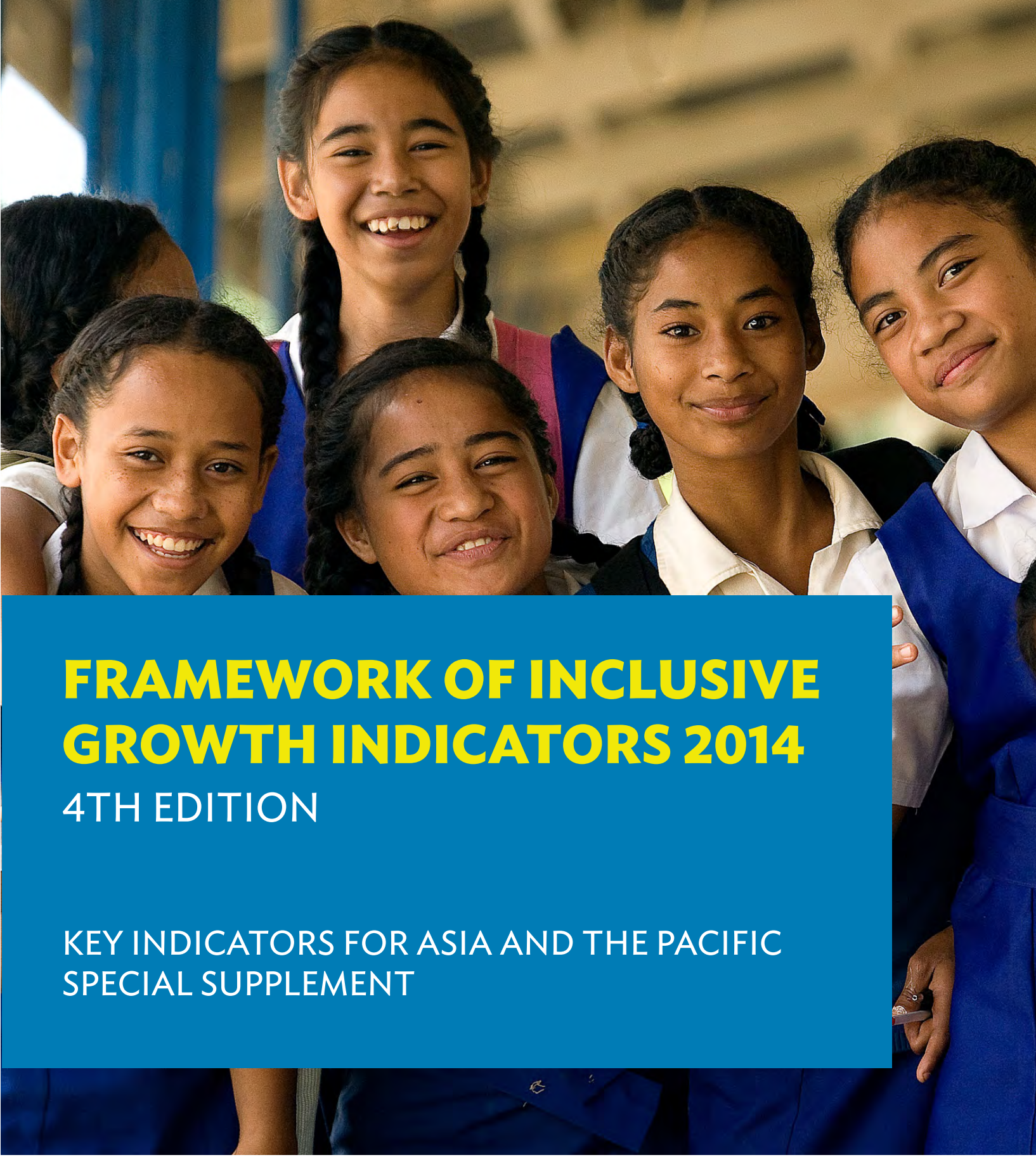

FRAMEWORK OF INCLUSIVE GROWTH INDICATORS 2014

4TH EDITION

KEY INDICATORS FOR ASIA AND THE PACIFIC
SPECIAL SUPPLEMENT

ASIAN DEVELOPMENT BANK

ADB

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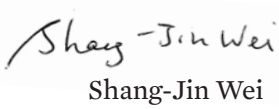
Foreword

In the past 2 decades, the Asia and Pacific region has experienced not only phenomenal economic growth, but also substantial poverty reduction even in the midst of the global economic slowdown. Yet despite such astounding socioeconomic achievements, disparities in income and nonincome dimensions and access to opportunities continue, and poverty reduction remains an unfinished agenda. The pursuit of inclusive growth, defined as economic growth with equality of opportunity, has emerged as a vital element of the development agenda.

The Asian Development Bank's (ADB) publication *Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators* (FIGI) provides a framework of quantitative indicators for monitoring inclusive growth. The 1st edition of FIGI, in 2011, proposed 35 indicators that summarize poverty and inequality (in both monetary and nonmonetary dimensions), three policy pillars of ADB's inclusive growth framework, as well as good governance and institutions.

The persistence of disparities in outcomes and achievements has led to a growing demand for ensuring equal access to economic opportunity. Education is recognized as one such pathway to improve human capabilities and to increase one's chances for better opportunities. Education is identified as a key element of social inclusion in the second policy pillar of FIGI. Thus, Part I of FIGI 2014 focuses on the extent of inclusion in education. It examines the education indicators included in FIGI, and discusses trends on education poverty and education inequality, and describes disparities across segments of society defined by wealth, residence, and gender. Part II contains updated statistical tables on the 35 FIGI indicators for ADB's regional member economies, as well as short commentaries on broad trends in the FIGI indicators among the economies, and within subgroups of each economy defined by wealth quintiles, rural–urban location, and sex to the extent data are available.

FIGI 2014 was prepared by ADB's Development Indicators and Policy Research Division of the Economics and Research Department under the overall direction and technical guidance of Douglas Brooks. The production of the report was coordinated by Kaushal Joshi, assisted by Melissa Pascua. Jose Ramon Albert prepared a draft of the report, which underwent further revisions following helpful comments of Douglas Brooks, Shanti Jagannathan, Utsav Kumar, Jouko Sarvi, Christopher Spohr, and Juzhong Zhuang. Finalization of the report was led by Kaushal Joshi, with data support from Jose Ramon Albert, Criselda de Dios, Kristine Faith Agtarap, and Melissa Pascua. Manuscript and copyediting services were provided by the Publishing Team of ADB's Department of External Relations, together with Cherry Lynn Zafaralla; while Rhommell Rico carried out cover design and typesetting. We would also like to thank the national and international agencies that are the sources of data used for this publication. Our thanks also to the Logistics Management Unit of ADB's Office of Administrative Services for their assistance in the reproduction of the publication. We hope that this report gives added insights on the measurement of inclusive growth, the critical role of education in pursuing inclusive growth, and the need for continuing investment in statistics for monitoring progress on inclusive growth.



Shang-Jin Wei
Chief Economist

Annexes

Figures

Guide for Users

Key Symbols

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

Measurement Units

kWh	kilowatt-hour

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 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 (Part I and Part II) 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 2013. These are often referred to as the earliest year (usually a year between 1990 and 2000) and latest year (usually any year closest to 2013) 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.

Abbreviations

ADB	Asian Development Bank
ADO	Asian Development Outlook
AFG	Afghanistan
APIS	Annual Poverty Indicators Survey
ARM	Armenia
AUS	Australia
AZE	Azerbaijan
BAN	Bangladesh
BHU	Bhutan
BLSS	Bhutan Living Standards Survey
BRU	Brunei Darussalam
CAM	Cambodia
COO	Cook Islands
CPA	Country Performance Assessment
CSES	Cambodia Socio-Economic Survey
CWA	Central and West Asia
DA	Developed Asia
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DTP3	diphtheria, tetanus toxoid, and pertussis
EA	East Asia
EFA	Education For All
ERD	Economics and Research Department
FIGI	Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators
FIJ	Republic of Fiji
FSM	Federated States of Micronesia
GDP	gross domestic product
GEO	Georgia
GHO	Global Health Observatory
HIES	Household Income and Expenditure Survey
HKG	Hong Kong, China
HLP	High Level Panel
HSC	Higher Secondary Certificate
ICF	Inner City Fund
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
IRF	International Road Federation
ITU	International Telecommunication Union

JMP	Joint Monitoring Programme
JPN	Japan
KAZ	Kazakhstan
KGZ	Kyrgyz Republic
KILM	Key Indicators of the Labour Market
KIR	Kiribati
KOR	Republic of Korea
LAC	Latin America and the Caribbean
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
NNS	National Nutrition Survey
NZL	New Zealand
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PAC	The Pacific
PAK	Pakistan
PAL	Palau
PHI	Philippines
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PNG	Papua New Guinea
PPP	purchasing power parity
PRC	People's Republic of China
Rf	Maldives Rufiyaa
RMI	Republic of the Marshall Islands
SA	South Asia
SAM	Samoa
SEA	Southeast Asia
SIN	Singapore
SLE	school life expectancy
SOL	Solomon Islands
SOWC	State of the World's Children
SPC	Secretariat of the Pacific Community
SRI	Sri Lanka
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
SSC	Secondary School Certificate
TAJ	Tajikistan
TAP	Taipei,China

THA	Thailand
TIM	Timor-Leste
TKM	Turkmenistan
TON	Tonga
TUV	Tuvalu
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UN	United Nations
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economics and Social Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNSD	United Nations Statistics Division
US	United States
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

Part I—Overcoming Education Inequities: Pathway to Inclusive Growth

Developing Asia continues to achieve progress in increasing the years of schooling for both youth (aged 15–24) and adults (aged 25 and over) but significantly lags behind developed Asian economies.

- In the last 5 decades, average years of schooling increased by 5.2 years among youth (5.7 years for females and 4.8 years for males); and in the last 2 decades, by 2.4 years (2.6 years for females and by 2.2 years for males).

- Despite this increase, developing Asia's 8.6 average years of schooling in 2010 for youth were still below the 9.1 years average for the youth of developed Asia in 1960 (5 decades before).

- For adults, the average years of schooling increased from a low of 1.4 years in 1960 to 6.6 years in 2010. This was still nearly 5 years less than the average years of schooling of 11.5 years for adults in developed Asia.

Despite the gains in average years of schooling in developing Asia in the last 5 decades, disparities are observed across regions and economies.

- In 2010, the average years of schooling for the youth in the regions of developing Asia ranged from 5.6 years (the Pacific) to 9.4 years (East Asia). Among the adults, these ranged from 5.0 years (the Pacific) to 7.4 years (East Asia).

- The economies of developing Asia with more than 12 years of average schooling for youth include Hong Kong, China (13.5); the Republic of Korea (13.2); Malaysia (12.4); Singapore (12.7); and Taipei,China (13.0). On the other side, the years of schooling among youth averaged less than 6 years in Afghanistan (4.7), the Lao PDR (5.8), and Papua New Guinea (4.9).

- The number of years of schooling that a child can be expected to receive at current enrollment rates from primary to tertiary education (or school life expectancy from primary to tertiary) increased by 3.1 years based on the latest data available for the period 1999–2012. East Asia with 13.2 years of expected years of schooling in 2012 was ahead of other regions, followed by Southeast Asia (12.1 years).

- In developing Asia, pupil–teacher ratio in primary education improved from 28 pupils per teacher in 1990 to 25 in 2012. The ratio improved in all regions of developing Asia from the 1990s to the 2000s except for the Pacific where the ratio worsened from 29 in 1990 to 35 in 2008 and Central and West Asia from 31 in 1990 to 32 in 2012. East Asia's ratio of 18 in 2012 was nearly comparable to that of developed Asia and almost half of the ratios for South Asia and the Pacific.

- Economies in developing Asia spent, on average, about 16% of their total public expenditures on education though latest data show big variations across economies—from 7.5% in Azerbaijan to 27.1% in Mongolia.

Education poverty (defined as percentage of population with less than 4 years of schooling) had declined for the youth (aged 15–24) between the 1990s and the 2000s based on the microdata examined from the household surveys of 11 economies of developing Asia.

- Out of the 11 economies, 6 economies—Armenia, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, the Philippines, and Viet Nam—had at least 6 years of schooling in the 1990s (Group 1) while the remaining 5 economies—Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Nepal, and Pakistan—had less than 6 years of schooling in the 1990s (Group 2).

- Among the Group 1 economies, Viet Nam and Indonesia considerably reduced their education poverty since the 1990s, declining at a rate of 6.9% per year and 5.8% per year, respectively, between the 1990s and the 2000s. Group 2 economies achieved remarkable reductions in education poverty between the 1990s and the 2000s, with particularly high annual rates of reduction achieved in Bangladesh (6.3%), Cambodia (8.3%), and Nepal (6.7%).

- Despite the remarkable reduction in education poverty in Group 2, all the 5 economies had more than 15.0% of their youth with less than 4 years of schooling based on the latest survey data available—Pakistan, with 31.2%; India, 22.6%; Nepal, 18.4%; Bangladesh, 17.2%; and Cambodia, 16.8%.

- All the Group 1 economies had less than 10% of their youth with fewer than 4 years of education in the recent years for which data are available—Viet Nam (9.4%), Indonesia (3.1%), the Philippines (4.9%), and the three Central and West Asian economies of Armenia, Kazakhstan, and the Kyrgyz Republic, each below 1.0%.

Based on latest household survey data, disparities in education attainments exist across rural–urban and the rich–poor.

- Education poverty rates for the youth in the poorest quintiles were greater than 35% in Bangladesh (42.4%), Cambodia (36.9%), India (53.4%), Nepal (37.3%), and Pakistan (68.1%) while the corresponding rates for the youth from richest quintiles were below 7.0% in these economies.

- Urban–rural gap in education poverty was more pronounced in the economies with high education poverty, with gaps exceeding 10 percentage points—Pakistan, 20.1 percentage points; India, 16.4; Cambodia, 12.0; and Nepal, 11.3—showing locational disadvantage to youths living in rural areas.

- Inequality in average years of schooling as measured by education Gini significantly declined in economies with large reductions in education poverty, but still exceeded 0.25—such as in Pakistan (0.42), India (0.35), Bangladesh (0.29), Cambodia (0.28), and Nepal (0.28).

- Household survey data from three economies (Bangladesh, Cambodia, and the Philippines) that allow regression analysis show that several factors affect years of schooling of the youth. Other factors being equal:

    - children with more educated parents tend to have more years of schooling;

    - those in urban areas tend to have more schooling than their counterparts in rural areas in Cambodia;

    - schooling sometimes differs between males and females, with the advantage for boys in Cambodia, while the reverse was noted in

the Philippines and no significant difference was noted in Bangladesh; and

- wealth disparities explain considerably the difference in years of schooling of the youth across developing economies.

Developing Asia narrowed down the gender gaps in average years of schooling of the youth (aged 15–24) in the last 5 decades.

- Gaps in average years of schooling between young males and females in developing Asia reduced from 1.0 years in 1960 to 0.2 in 2010. Young females in most economies of East and Southeast Asia having more schooling years than the young males. In economies like Afghanistan, India, and Pakistan, the gender gaps in schooling years for youth narrowed but are largely in favor of males.

- Based on analysis of available household survey data of 11 economies in developing Asia, education poverty (less than 4 years of education) for the young females was higher in Cambodia, India, Nepal, and Pakistan, compared to the males, but in other 7 economies including Bangladesh, greater percentage of young males had fewer than 4 years of schooling than young females.

- Improved gender parity in education in the developing economies has not necessarily led to improved labor force participation of women. Greater gender disparities have been observed in labor force participation rates over time among others in the two most populous and fast-growing economies in developing Asia—the People's Republic of China (PRC) and India.

Conclusions

- Developing Asia continues to gain in years of schooling for its population, yet still lags behind its developed Asian counterparts.

- Education investments are crucial—regardless of poor or non-poor, male or female, urban or rural resident—to make good quality education inclusive for all and to develop human capabilities to allow everyone to participate in and benefit from growth.

- Countries with low education poverty and low education Gini need targeted programs to educate those excluded and those who are left out.

- Economies with higher levels of education poverty and higher levels of education Gini need to invest in programs to improve access to education and retention and survival of pupils—along with targeted schemes for inclusion of poor, rural people and the excluded segments of the population.

- Investments and efforts for collecting comparable data that allow disaggregated data analysis of educational achievements of various segments of the population need to be augmented in the developing Asian economies.

Part II—Trends and Disparities within Economies in Developing Asia

Part II gives a summary of observable trends across Asia-Pacific economies, especially in developing Asia, among the Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators. It complements the discussion in Part I, which is mainly looking into education indicators. Highlights are given below.

Poverty and Inequality Outcomes

- Poverty incidence, whether using national poverty lines or $2-a-day (2005 PPP) thresholds, have declined across many developing economies

in Asia and the Pacific. Out of 27 economies, 24 have higher poverty rates in rural than in urban areas.

- In 21 of 29 developing economies of Asia and the Pacific, a child from the poor household is at least twice as likely to be underweight as a child from the rich household.

- Gender gap in schooling years for the young has narrowed in developing Asia. Girls in 13 out of 15 economies of East and Southeast Asia have more average years of schooling than boys. In Bangladesh and Nepal, gender gaps in favor of male youth 2 decades ago have been reversed.

- Developing Asia had made substantial progress in reducing deaths in children under age 5 in the last 2 decades—from 92 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1990 down to 41 in 2012.

- Household wealth and place of residence are significant determinants of child survival. Under-5 mortality rates were more than three times higher for children born to poor households than for their rich counterparts in Tuvalu, the Lao PDR, Myanmar, the Philippines, and Viet Nam. Children from rural households as twice as likely to die before reaching the age of 5 compared with those from urban households particularly in Bhutan, Cambodia, the Lao PDR, Mongolia, and Samoa.

Policy Pillar One: Growth and Expansion of Economic Opportunity

Economic Growth and Employment

- Growth of gross domestic product per capita (constant 2011 PPP$) in developing Asia was 7.2% during 2002–2007 but growth slowed in 24 developing economies during 2007–2012 compared to the previous 5 years, thus slowing growth in developing Asia to 6.6% in 2007–2012. In the developed economies too, growth was lower at 0.4% during 2007–2012 compared to 1.6% during 2002-2007.

- In developing economies of Asia and the Pacific, employment-to-population ratios for persons 15 years and over range between 35.9% (in Fiji) to 91.6% (in Nepal), while for the youth (15–24 years), the ratios range between 12.6% (in Timor-Leste) to 72.1% (in Nepal). Between 1991 and 2012, youth employment-to-population ratios declined by 14.4 percentage points from 57.4% to 43.0%.

- Labor productivity in terms of gross domestic product per person employed has been increasing over time. However, growth in labor productivity during 2000–2005 was faster than the growth during 2005–2012.

Inequalities in Growth and Employment

- Growth in average per capita income/consumption based on the latest household surveys for the highest wealth quintile was greater than for the lowest wealth quintile in over a third of 23 developing economies, which include the top three most populous countries (the PRC, India, and Indonesia).

- Employment-to-population ratios for 15 years and above in almost all economies of developing Asia show gender bias. Ratios among the youth are also higher for males than for females in 26 of 35 developing economies, especially Afghanistan, India, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka.

- During 1990–2012, the number of own-account and contributing family worker jobs (or vulnerable jobs) have slowly declined in Asia and the Pacific, but the share of vulnerable jobs in total jobs was much higher for women than for men in two-thirds of economies of developing Asia.

Key Infrastructure Endowments

- In developing Asia, electricity consumption per capita almost quadrupled from 500 kilowatt-hours in 1990 to 1,883 kilowatt-hours in 2011 (or nearest years). Eight out of 42 developing economies, which include seven economies of Central and West Asia, saw reduction in electricity consumption per capita.

- Mobile phone penetration has grown phenomenally in all economies of developing Asia from 2000 to 2013. For 20 out of 45 economies, total mobile phone subscriptions have even surpassed their population counts in 2013. Economies with the highest mobile-cellular subscriptions per 100 people are Hong Kong, China; Kazakhstan; and the Maldives, while those with the lowest penetration rates are Kiribati, Myanmar, and the Marshall Islands.

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

Access and Inputs to Education and Health

- From 1999 to 2012, school life expectancy (primary to tertiary) for developing Asia increased by nearly 3 years from 8.8 to 11.9 years, with 34 of 37 economies yielding increases, except the Philippines, Samoa, and Tonga, which yielded slight decreases in this indicator. Mongolia had the highest increase, followed by Bhutan and the Cook Islands.

- The pupil–teacher ratio in developing Asia improved slightly from 28 in 1990 to 25 in 2012. East Asia and Southeast Asia had the lowest pupil–teacher ratios in 2012, while South Asia and the Pacific had the highest. From 1990 to the latest year, all regions except for the Central and West Asia and the Pacific decreased their pupil–teacher ratios.

- From 1990 to 2012, the diphtheria, tetanus toxoid, and pertussis (DTP3) immunization rates among 1-year-olds improved in 32 of 42 economies of developing Asia, with rates increasing fourfold in the Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR). In two-thirds of the 32 economies, children from urban areas had better access to immunization compared to their rural counterparts. Children born to rich families were also more than twice as likely to be immunized as those from the poor, particularly in Azerbaijan, India, the Lao PDR, and Pakistan.

Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services

- Latest data for 2011 (or nearest year) show that seven out of 20 developing economies in Asia and the Pacific have at least 95% electricity coverage for their population, led by Singapore (100%) and followed by the PRC; Brunei Darussalam; Malaysia; Taipei,China; Thailand; and Viet Nam. On the other extreme, four economies—Afghanistan, Cambodia, Myanmar, and Timor-Leste—have less than half of their populations with access to electricity.

- In 17 out of 36 developing economies, solid fuels were the major source of cooking fuel for more than 50% of households, with four economies—the Lao PDR, Myanmar, the Solomon Islands, and Timor-Leste—having at least 90% of households dependent on solid fuels. In nearly half of the 36 economies, at least 90% of the households in the lowest wealth quintile used solid fuels for cooking.

- Data for 2012 show that access to safe drinking water in developing Asia was 91%, a 21 percentage point increase from 70% in 1990. However, more than a quarter of the populations in eight out of 42 economies in developing Asia still do not have access to safe drinking water.

- The proportion of the population using improved sanitation facilities stood at 56% in 2012. Rural coverage was, however, only 44% compared to 72% in urban areas. Seven economies had less than 40% of the population with access to clean sanitation.

Gender Equality and Opportunity

- Data from 1991 to 2012 show that developing Asia has made remarkable achievements in narrowing the gender gap in enrolments across all levels of education. By 2012 (or nearest year), gender parity ratios below 0.95 in primary education were observed only in Afghanistan, Malaysia, Pakistan, and Papua New Guinea.

- Improved participation of women in education at all levels of education had not increased participation of women in the labor force, with the gender parity ratio in labor force participation declining from 0.67 in 1990 to 0.62 in 2012. Six developing economies in Asia and the Pacific have gender parity ratios of 0.50 or less, notably Afghanistan, Pakistan, and India.

- For antenatal care coverage, latest estimates show that only about 47% of pregnant women in developing Asia had the minimum recommended number of four antenatal care visits. The coverage is 82% for those with at least one visit. Household wealth is a factor in disparities in access to antenatal care, with access rates for at least four visits in the richest quintile more than five times the access rates in the poorest quintile in Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, the Lao PDR, and Pakistan.

Policy Pillar Three: Social Safety Nets

- In 2013, social protection and labor ratings—from 1 (very weak performance) to 6 (very strong performance)—in 32 economies in developing Asia ranged from 2.5 to 4.5. Ten developing economies have maintained their 2005 ratings in 2013 or nearest year, but one economy (Samoa) had lower ratings in 2013 than in 2005 while 21 economies posted higher ratings. Timor-Leste achieved the highest increase of 1.5 points between 2005 and 2012.

- Social security expenditure on health as a percentage of government expenditure on health has generally increased across economies of developing Asia. From 1995 to 2013, the share of government spending on social security and welfare as a share of total government expenditure increased in 21 of 26 economies in developing Asia.

Good Governance and Institutions

- Good governance and institutions indicators—for "voice and accountability," "government effectiveness," and "control of corruption"—range from –2.5 to +2.5, where higher values indicate better performance. In 2013, developing economies that garnered scores less than –1 for all indicators include Afghanistan, Myanmar, and Turkmenistan, while those that received scores greater than +1 for all indicators were the three developed economies of Australia, Japan, and New Zealand.

- In 2012, the highest and lowest scorers for voice and accountability were New Zealand (1.6) and Turkmenistan (–2.2); for government effectiveness, Singapore (2.2) and the Marshall Islands (–1.6); and for control of corruption, New Zealand (2.3) and Afghanistan (–1.4).

PART I

Overcoming Education Inequities: Pathway to Inclusive Growth

1. Introduction

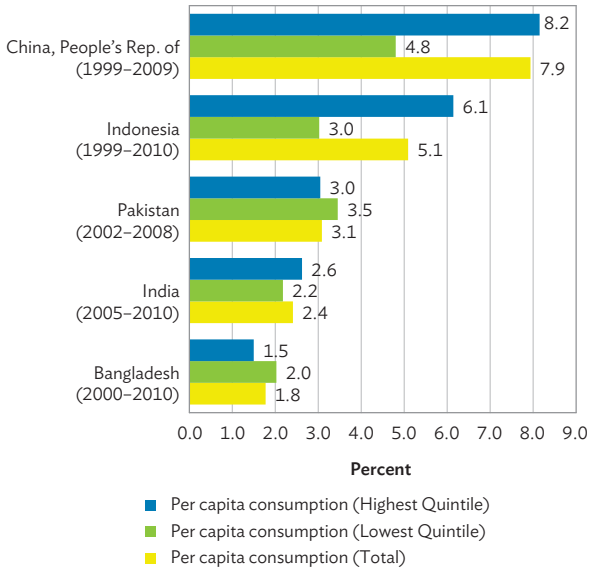
During the past 2 decades, the Asia and Pacific region—home to three out of every five people of the world's population—has had stellar economic growth even amid the global economic slowdown in recent years. Gross domestic product (GDP) in purchasing power parity[1] (PPP) terms across the region increased by 6.2% annually in the 1990s and by 7.8% in the 2000s. This growth had been accompanied by a considerable reduction in the number of extremely poor people living on less than $1.25 a day in 2005 PPP terms—from 54.7% in 1990 to 20.7% in 2010. However, despite gains in economic growth, extreme poverty is still pervasive in Asia and the Pacific. A deeper look into the poverty in the region using a more comprehensive measure of extreme poverty reveals that nearly half of Asia's population lived in extreme poverty in 2010 (ADB 2014c). Poverty remains an unfinished agenda and a significant challenge for Asia as socioeconomic progress remains uneven.

Economic growth has not always translated into substantially higher household income or consumption especially for the poor, and the real per capita income or consumption of the less well-off has not always kept pace with the rise in real per capita income or consumption of the population. For three of the five most populous developing economies of Asia and the Pacific—the People's Republic of China (PRC), India, and Indonesia—latest data show that the benefits of economic growth accrue more to the richest segment of the population (Figure 1.1).

Rising inequalities have created barriers to opportunities and placed at risk the accelerated and sustained growth (Zhuang et al. 2010, ADB 2012b, ADB 2014b). *Asian Development Outlook 2012* (ADB 2012b) estimated that, during the 2000s, more than 80% of the region's population lived in countries with worsening Gini coefficients (a common measure of income inequality) as compared with the corresponding Gini coefficients in the 1990s. Pervasive and growing income inequality, coupled with inequality of opportunity and social exclusion, is a barrier to inclusive growth. They result in leaving the poor and marginalized behind. Such inequalities often occur on account of one's wealth, sex, residence, and being born to a certain ethnic community or socially backward group, inhibiting opportunity on account of initial circumstances that are beyond one's control. Thus, addressing inequality of opportunity needs to be an integral component of inclusive growth and Asia's poverty reduction agenda. The pursuit of inclusive growth is increasingly becoming a development policy objective in the economies of Asia and the Pacific.

For growth to be the driving force of reduction in poverty and inequality, all members of a society must

Figure 1.1: Average Annualized Growth Rates in Per Capita Consumption (in 2005 PPP$) of the Lowest and Highest Quintiles in Five Most Populous Economies of Developing Asia, Latest Years



Source: ADB estimates based on data from PovcalNet Database Online (World Bank), accessed 30 May 2014.

Click here for figure data

1 Number of units of country B's currency that are needed in country B to purchase the same quantity of an individual good or service, which one unit of country A's currency can purchase in country A.

benefit from and contribute to the growth process. The Asian Development Bank (ADB) has adopted inclusive growth, defined as economic growth with equality of opportunity, as a critical development agenda, along with environmentally sustainable growth and regional integration under its Strategy 2020 (ADB 2008). Three policy pillars, namely, (i) Pillar 1 – promoting high, sustained economic growth, (ii) Pillar 2 – broadening social inclusiveness through greater access to economic opportunity, and (iii) Pillar 3 – strengthening social protection through social safety nets to protect the chronically poor and to mitigate the risks and vulnerabilities of people, supported by good governance and institutions, were identified as requirements for a strategy anchored on inclusive growth (Zhuang and Ali 2010). To make the assessment of inclusive growth operational, the *Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators* (FIGI) (ADB 2011) proposed a set of 35 quantitative indicators, as listed in Table 1.1, for monitoring progress on inclusive growth (ADB 2011a).

In the second policy pillar of FIGI, investing in education is identified as a key element of social inclusion. Education investments are crucial in developing basic human capabilities for enabling everyone to participate in and benefit from growth processes (ADB 2011a, ADB 2012a, ADB 2013a). Reducing education inequalities facilitates equality of opportunity and social inclusiveness thereby improving chances for everyone—whether poor or nonpoor, males or females, urban or rural residents—to fully participate in the growth and progress of societies. Moreover, education harnesses opportunities for developing social skills: it exposes students to diversity in a learning environment, thus enhancing social inclusion. The knowledge, skills, and competencies gained from increased levels of education offer better income prospects for those in the urban informal sector as well as rural areas, and enable those in paid formal employment to earn higher wages. More education also enhances chances of households to escape income poverty: every additional year of schooling yields generally 12% returns in wages, although these returns vary greatly across countries and income levels (Psacharopoulos and Patrinos 2002). Higher incomes boost innovation and higher productivity, which, in turn, drive growth in an economy (Barro 2013).

Since the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948, education has been viewed as a human right.[2] Underlying the global commitment to achieve education goals and targets in the Education for All (EFA) initiative and in the Millennium Development Goals is the recognition of the right, particularly of children, to primary education. It comes as no surprise that the emerging post-2015 Development Agenda initiated in the High Level Panel Report (UN 2013) has identified education as a key driver for improving capabilities and opportunities for the poor, the vulnerable, and other marginalized segments.

This part (Part I) of the FIGI 2014 publication examines trends and disparities in educational outcomes across economies and within subgroups of the population in an economy. The rest of the chapter is organized into four sections. The second section describes trends in schooling years, school life expectancy, pupil–teacher ratio, and public expenditures in education—the four education-related indicators in FIGI. The third section further looks into the various aspects of years of schooling in selected Asian economies: the extent of education poverty and inequality, the factors affecting schooling years, as well as the link between insufficient educational attainment and vulnerability of employment. The fourth section examines trends in education across the Asia and Pacific region with a gender lens. The final section presents a summary of the chapter and conclusions.

2 This view has been affirmed in various global human rights treaties, such as the 1960 United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Convention against Discrimination in Education; the 1966 International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights; the 1981 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women; and the 2006 Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities.

Table 1.1: Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators*

Poverty and Inequality

Income

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

4 Average years of total schooling (youth and adults)
5 Prevalence of underweight children under 5 years of age
6 Under-5 mortality rate per 1,000 live births

Pillar One
Growth and Expansion of Economic Opportunity

Economic Growth and Employment

7 Growth rate of GDP per capita at PPP (constant 2011 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

12 Per capita consumption of electricity
13 Percentage of paved roads
14 Number of mobile-cellular subscriptions per 100 people
15 Depositors with commercial banks per 1,000 adults

Pillar Two
Social Inclusion to Ensure Equal Access to Economic Opportunity

Access and Inputs to Education and Health

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

22 Percentage of population with access to electricity
23 Share of households 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

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

Pillar Three
Social Safety Nets

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. Measuring Inclusiveness in Education in FIGI

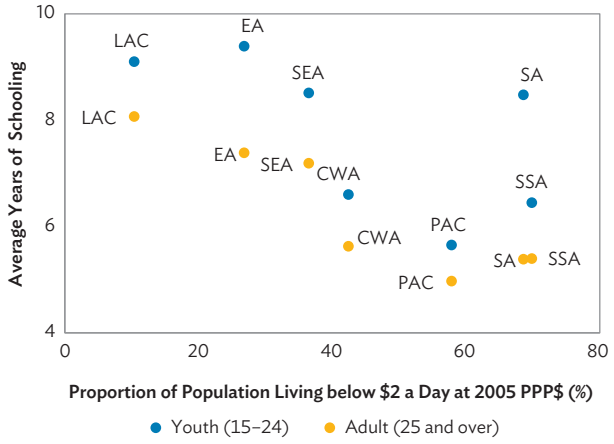
Income inequalities coexist with nonincome inequalities such as inequities in education. Toward such ends, the FIGI identifies four indicators, namely average years of schooling, school life expectancy (primary to tertiary education), pupil–teacher ratio, and government expenditure on education, which serve as measures of education attainments or outcomes, access, quality (proxy), and inputs, respectively. According to the FIGI 2012, these education indicators correlate with other inclusive growth indicators on poverty, inequality, and growth (ADB 2012a). Additionally, the indicator "gender parity in primary, secondary, and tertiary education" serves as an indicator of gender equality in education in the framework.

2.1 Trends in Average Years of Schooling

The significance of average years of schooling cannot be overstated especially given its relationship to higher levels of labor productivity and overall welfare. Average years of schooling—the headline indicator in FIGI on education—summarizes the amount of educational attainment of the reference population and is an indicator of educational achievement in the long run. The major limitation of this indicator is that it only measures the stock (quantity) of schooling, and not the quality. In FIGI, this indicator is presented for two age categories: youth (aged 15–24) and adults (25 years and over). The former reflects the educational attainments of the young population entering the workforce, whereas the latter represents education attained by a country's adult population that forms the bulk of its pool of current labor force. The data for this indicator can be further disaggregated by rural–urban locations, by wealth quintiles, by sex, and by geographical areas for countries where such data are available from household surveys such as Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS). Insights into the inclusion aspects of educational outcomes can be generated from examining these disaggregated categories. Below we undertake a comparative analysis of the trends in average years of schooling in the Asia and Pacific region for the youth and adult populations.

More average schooling years relates to lower levels of poverty. In the developing world, higher average years of schooling for the youth (aged 15–24) and adults (25 years and over) are associated with lower proportions of the population living below $2 purchasing power parity (PPP) per day (Figure 1.2).

Figure 1.2: Average Years of Schooling of Youth (Aged 15–24) and Adults (Aged 25 and over) and Proportion of Population Living below $2 a Day at 2005 PPP$ (%) across Regions of Developing World, 2010



CWA= Central and West Asia, EA= East Asia, LAC= Latin America and the Caribbean, PAC= The Pacific, PPP = purchasing power parity, SA= South Asia, SEA = Southeast Asia, SSA= Sub-Saharan Africa.
Sources: For Average Years of Schooling for Youth and Adults: ADB estimates based on data from Barro and Lee (June 2014), electronic files provided by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics on 24 May 2014, Human Development Report http://hdr.undp.org/en/data (accessed 24 July 2014), World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision; for $2 a Day Poverty Rate: ADB estimates based on data from Povcalnet Database Online (World Bank), accessed 10 July 2014.

Click here for figure data

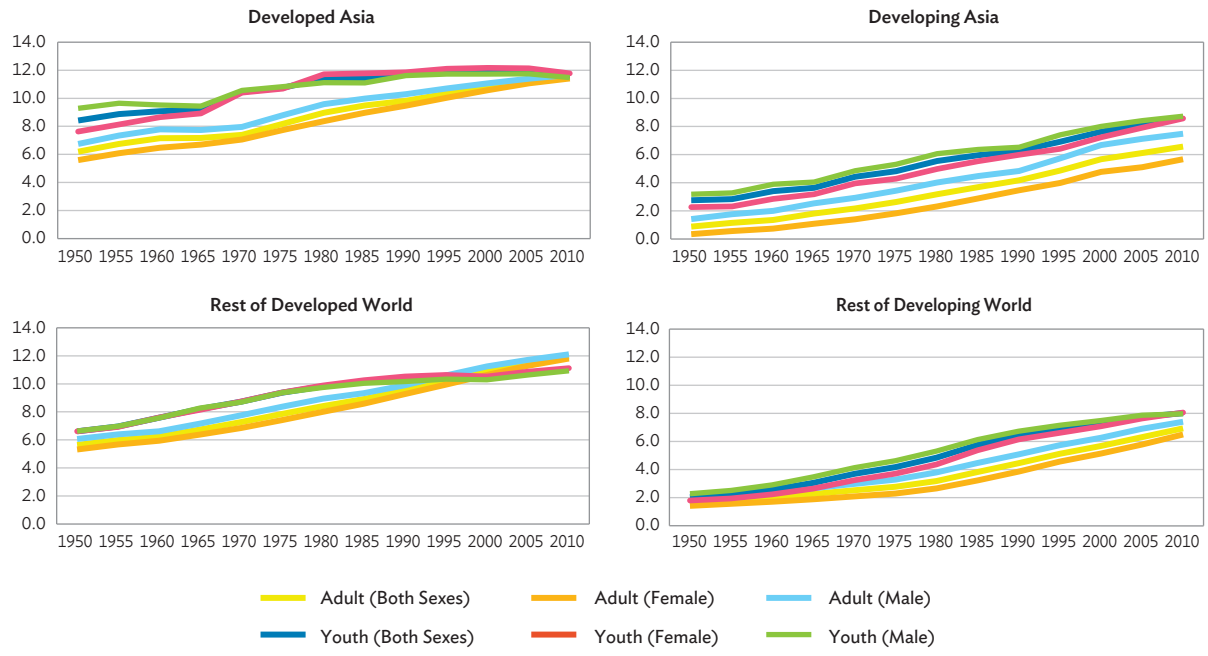
Across the developed and developing world, progress has been achieved in increasing schooling years for youth and adults, but disparities persist. Globally, the average years of

schooling among the youth doubled from 4.5 years in 1960 to 8.8 years in 2010, while that among adults more than doubled (from 3.4 years to 7.9 years). Differences in the average years of schooling between developing economies and developed economies also declined in half a century (Figure 1.3) with the expansion of primary schooling enrollments, especially in the developing world. Despite this progress, the levels of average years of schooling in the developing world in 2010 were still at the levels of schooling in the developed world in the 1950s and 1960s, indicating a huge learning divide. Latest data (for 2010) show that developed Asia (consisting of Australia, Japan, and New Zealand) had more years of schooling for the youth (11.6 years) compared with the rest of the developed world (comprising economies of North America and Europe). Developing Asia's average years of schooling for adults, at 6.6 years in 2010, was lower than that of the rest of the developing world (6.9 years). Even so, developing Asia had higher educational attainment for the youth (8.6 years in 2010) compared with the rest of the developing world (8.0 years).[3]

Developing Asia has made headway in increasing schooling years, but progress has been uneven with education disparities observed across regions, and among economies within the regions. From 1960 to 2010, developing Asia achieved an absolute increase in average years of schooling of 5.2 years among adults and 5.2 years among the youth. Progress in increasing schooling years, however, has varied across regions and countries.

In developing Asia, latest data (from 2010; Figure 1.4) show that East Asia has had the highest average years of schooling among the youth (9.4 years) and among adults (7.4 years).

Figure 1.3. Average Years of Schooling among Youth (Aged 15–24) and among Adults (Aged 25 and over) in Developed Asia, Developing Asia, and the Rest of the World, Both Sexes, Females and Males, 1950–2010

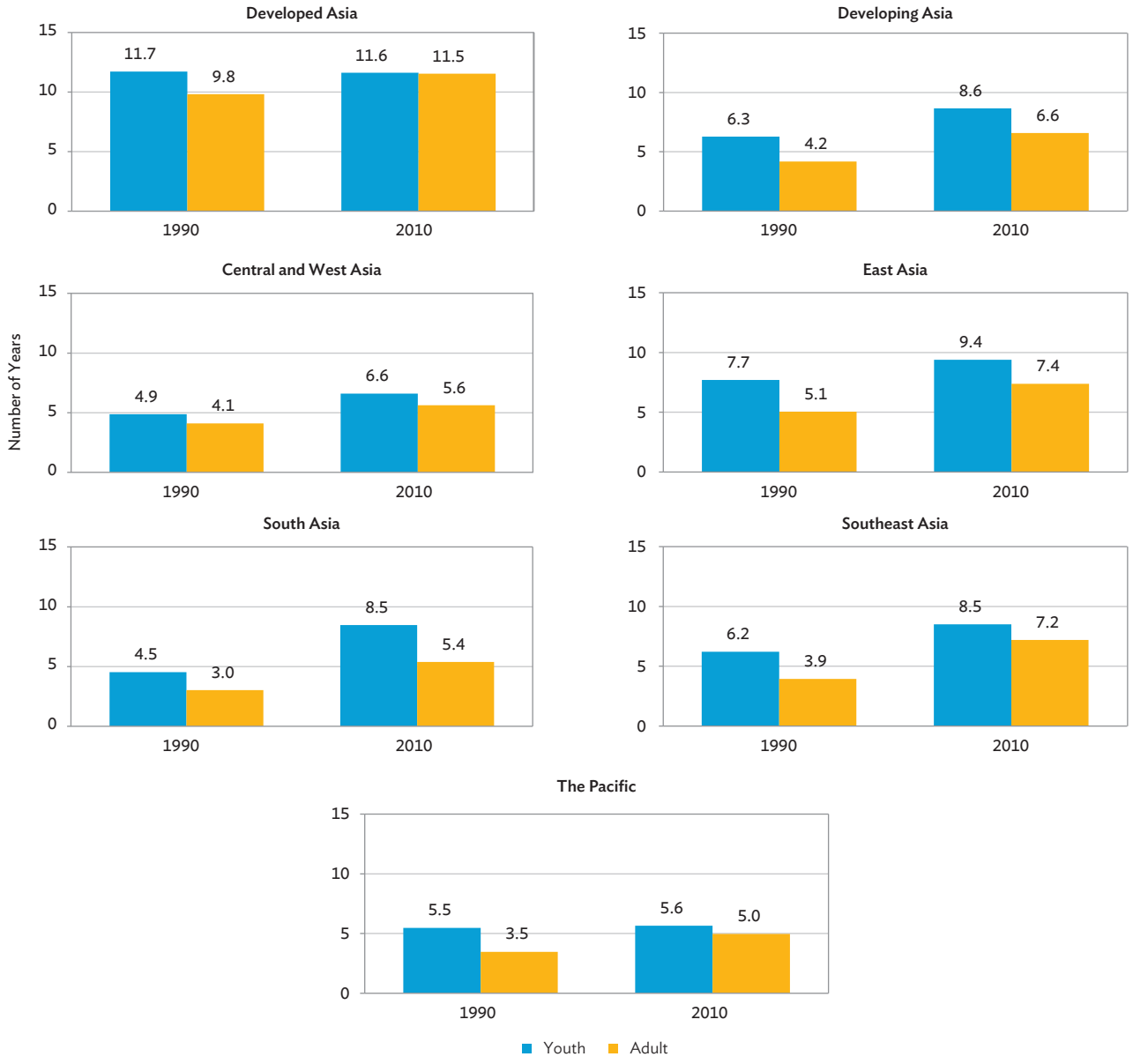


Sources: Authors' estimates based on data from Barro and Lee (June 2014), electronic files provided by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics on 24 May 2014, and Human Development Report http://hdr.undp.org/en/data (accessed 24 July 2014).

Click here for figure data

3 Developing Asia refers to developing member countries of the Asian Development Bank. The rest of the developing world comprises Latin America and the Caribbean, Middle East, North Africa, and Sub-Saharan Africa.

Figure 1.4: Average Years of Total Schooling (1990 and 2010) among Youth and Adults across Developed Asia and Developing Asia



Source: Table 2.2, Part II of FIGI 2014.

Click here for figure data

Across regions of developing Asia, the average years of schooling for the youth (5.6 years) and for adults (5.0 years) had been least in the Pacific,[4] where average gains in increasing schooling years had been minimal, especially in Papua New Guinea. Although baselines of South Asia were lower than those for the Pacific in 1990, improvements in schooling years in South Asia had surpassed those of the Pacific by 2010.

Since 1960, some developing economies of Asia have had stellar performance in increasing average years of schooling by at least 7 years among their youth: Bangladesh (7.1 years); Malaysia (8.2 years); Singapore (7.0 years); and Taipei,China (8.6 years).

4 The average for the youth in the Pacific is based on data from Fiji, Papua New Guinea, and Tonga, which comprise nearly four-fifths (77%) of the overall population in the Pacific; and for the adults, including Kiribati, Palau, Timor-Leste, and Tuvalu.

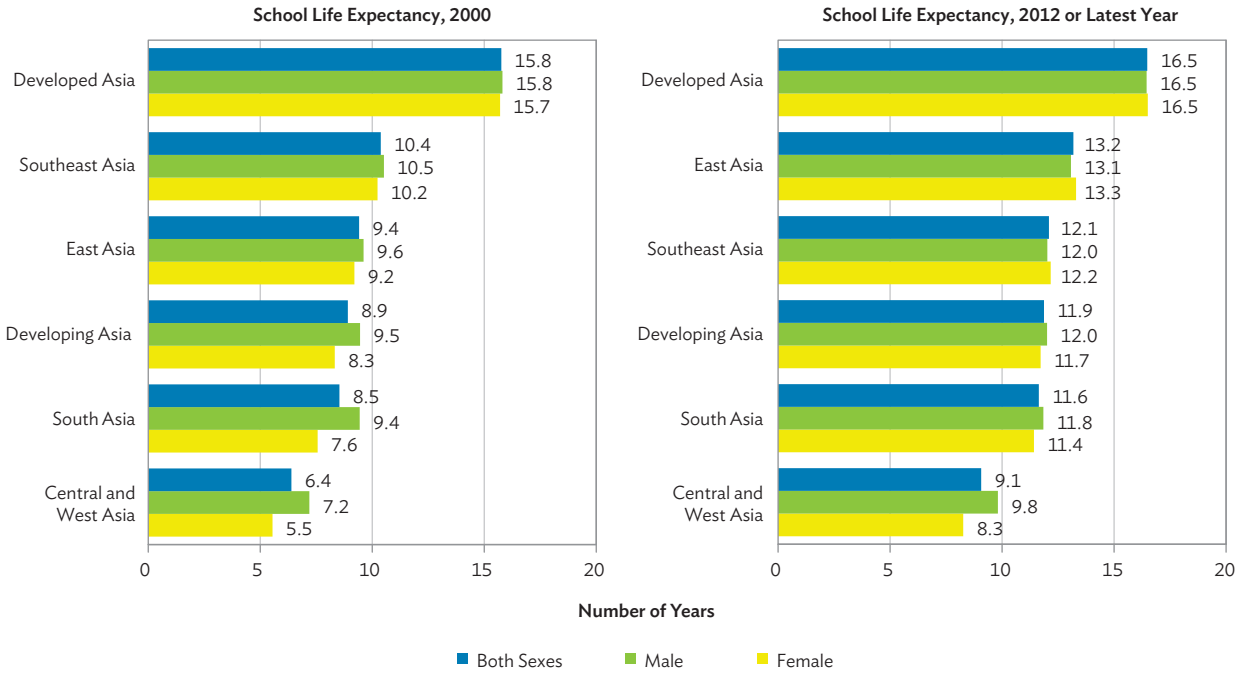
Some economies of Central and West Asia had the least improvements in increasing years of schooling among the youth (with some even having witnessed declines in the 1990s), but their starting conditions in 1960 were already quite high compared with those of other economies. Across Asia and the Pacific, economies with more than 12 years of average schooling among the youth include Hong Kong, China (13.5); the Republic of Korea (13.2); Malaysia (12.4); Singapore (12.7); and Taipei,China (13.0). The years of schooling among the youth, however, averaged less than 6 years in the Lao PDR (5.8), Afghanistan (4.7), and Papua New Guinea (4.9).

2.2 Trends in School Life Expectancy

School life expectancy (primary to tertiary education) represents the total number of years of schooling that a child can be expected to receive at current enrollment rates. The indicator is one of the measures of volume of educational outputs and is similar to life expectancy at birth, which is commonly used for cross-country comparisons of health conditions. The indicator is needed for better understanding of the issues of human resource development and for the purpose of educational resource planning and management for the future (Motivans 2005). While average years of schooling as a measure of educational attainment reflect the performance of the educational system of older age cohorts, school life expectancy is about the expected educational attainments of a child entering school assuming current enrollment ratio of that age. School life expectancy, however, is not a measure of the quality of schooling.

School life expectancy also increased in developing Asia (Figure 1.5) but with varying rates of progress across subregions, and even across economies within subregions.

Figure 1.5: School Life Expectancy of Males, Females, and Both Sexes across Regions of Developing Asia, 2000 and Latest Year



Source: Electronic files provided by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics on 29 May 2014.

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Since 2000, East Asian economies have made the biggest improvements (by 3.8 years) in school life expectancy across developing Asia and have surpassed Southeast Asia in recent years. East Asia currently offers the highest school life expectancy (13.2 years), followed by Southeast Asia with 12.1 years. Next to East Asia, South Asia has made the most significant progress (3.1 years) in increasing school life expectancy since 2000. In East Asia and Southeast Asia, school life expectancy is slightly higher for girls than for boys. In South Asia, as well as in Central and West Asia (mainly on account of Pakistan and Afghanistan), boys generally continue to have the advantage in school life expectancy over girls. Data for this indicator are scant for the Pacific economies.

2.3 Developments in Education Quality

Unless it is able to address the need to develop relevant skills and competencies among students, education is no guarantee for the poor to escape the low-income trap. Education must provide the learning mechanism for students to develop skills to improve their employment prospects and to enable them to participate in the growth process. Spending more time in school is not an assurance that children are learning the competencies required for productive employment. As such, education quality ought to be measured and monitored. There is considerable debate about how quality in education should be defined and measured. Quality of education can be measured through the performance of students (in standardized achievement tests) controlling for effects of nonschool inputs. Ideally, students should take the same standardized test at the same grade level or age in order to obtain internationally comparable measures of education quality (UNESCO 2012); however, such data are not collected systematically in developing countries. Even literacy itself is not measured consistently: some surveys ask respondents to demonstrate the functional ability to read and/or write, but others merely rely on self-reported levels. In recent years, cross-country diagnostics of learning outcomes, particularly in reading, mathematics, and science, have been conducted. In particular, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development's (OECD) Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) has shown disparities in learning across economies (OECD 2013). There is, however, a lack of coverage of countries in such studies, particularly for economies of developing Asia.

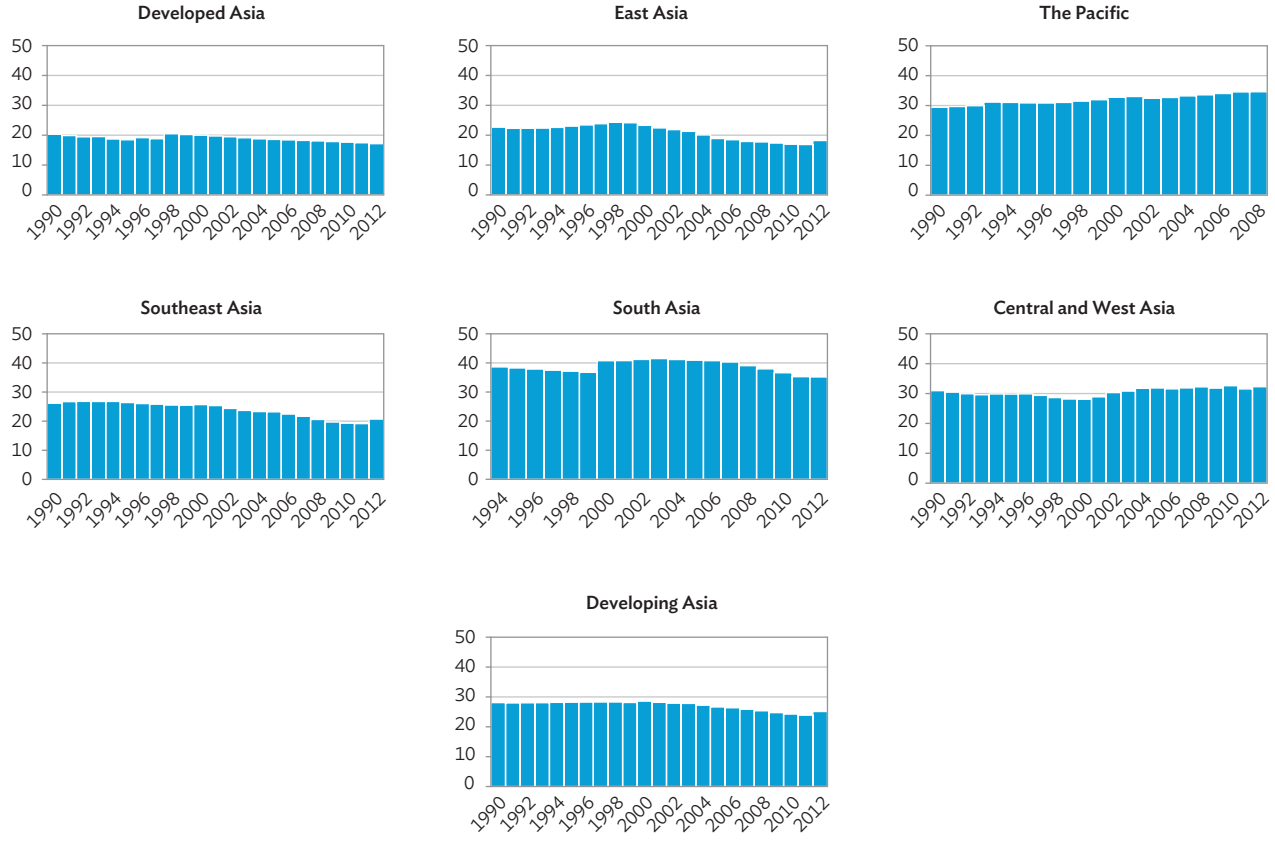
In the absence of comparable measures of education quality, proxy indicators are often used, such as survival rates and pupil–teacher ratios. Higher survival rates and lower pupil–teacher ratios are positively associated with better learning outcomes (UNESCO 2010). The pupil–teacher ratio, which is the ratio of the total number of students enrolled in primary school to the total number of primary school teachers, has been included in the FIGI. A higher pupil–teacher ratio would indicate lower relative access of pupils to teachers and less attention of the teacher per student. This indicator is especially important for children who need attention from teachers more than others and are therefore more likely to drop out due to losing interest. Pupil–teacher ratios are based on school inputs and are not sufficient to assess learning outcomes. Various studies (Lee and Barro 1997, Hattie 2009, OECD 2009) have shown that, all things being equal, education quality is strongly influenced by school resources such as material resources (textbooks, classrooms, and school facilities), human resources (teachers and principals), financial resources (teacher salaries and public expenditure), as well as household characteristics (e.g., parental education).

Efforts have been made in developing economies to reduce pupil–teacher ratios, preferably to ratios currently in developed economies. In crowded classrooms where there are high numbers of pupils

per teacher, it can be difficult for pupils to follow lessons and challenging for teachers to dedicate more time to the needs of all students. Low pupil–teacher ratios are thus desirable, but reducing pupil–teacher ratios would also entail costs that are not only limited to more expenses for teacher salaries, but also to outlays for more classrooms required for smaller classes. Hitherto, no ideal pupil–teacher ratio has been suggested in the literature, with some research (e.g., Wilson 2002) even indicating that, in some countries, more effects on quality of education had been achieved by focusing resources on purchasing more textbooks rather than on reducing class size. Despite this, many developing economies desire to have pupil–teacher ratios lowered from their current values, with those in developed economies as benchmark.

The Asia and Pacific region has made significant progress in reducing pupil–teacher ratio in the span of 2 decades since 1990. The region's performance in pupil–teacher ratios at the primary level of education from 1990 (or nearest year) to 2012 (or latest year) is shown in Figure 1.6. Latest data suggest that the average pupil–teacher ratio of developed Asia stands at 17 primary students for every teacher. Across developing Asia, pupil–teacher ratios averaged 25 at the primary level in 2012, down from a ratio of 28 in 1990. Pupil–teacher ratios at the primary level had been reduced in developing Asia, especially in East Asia (from 23 to 18) and in South Asia (from 39 to 35). In the Pacific, primary pupil–teacher ratios had worsened (from 29 to 35) during the same period. East Asia's pupil–teacher ratio for 2012 (at 18) was nearly the same as that of developed Asia while the pupil–teacher ratios for South Asia and the Pacific were almost double that of East Asia.

Figure 1.6: Pupil–Teacher Ratios in Primary Education, 1990 (or Earliest Year) to Latest Year



Source: Electronic files provided by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics on 24 May 2014.

Click here for figure data

Some economies, such as Afghanistan (44), Bangladesh (40), Cambodia (46), and Pakistan (41), still have high pupil–teacher ratios in primary school. In Afghanistan and Pakistan, these ratios have further increased since 2000 likely due to teacher recruitment not keeping pace with increased primary school enrollment. As more efforts are exerted toward universal enrollment in primary education, it is important for public policy interventions to be in place regarding the provision of a sufficient number of teachers, especially qualified ones, to teach primary school students.

The indicator pupil-teacher ratio has been analyzed at the national level only. Often educational resources and education infrastructure are unequally distributed between rural and urban areas, between developed and backward regions or even between public and private schools. As a result, rural areas or other inaccessible locations may be at a disadvantage in terms of resource allocation including the deployment of adequate number of qualified teachers. Such disparities in educational resources could be a reason for variations in the quality of education and thus variations in educational outcomes. Systematic collection of data by the countries on resource allocations disaggregated by rural–urban and other relevant categories are needed for more targeted efforts in allocation of resources.

The lack of data on standardized tests across Asia and the Pacific has been a hurdle in monitoring education quality. Ideally, a standardized assessment on the quality of education in the region's developing economies (similar to PISA) would be helpful to monitor the quality of education, since input-based indicators, while correlated to education quality, do not essentially measure how much learning is truly happening in schools.

2.4 Public Investments in Education

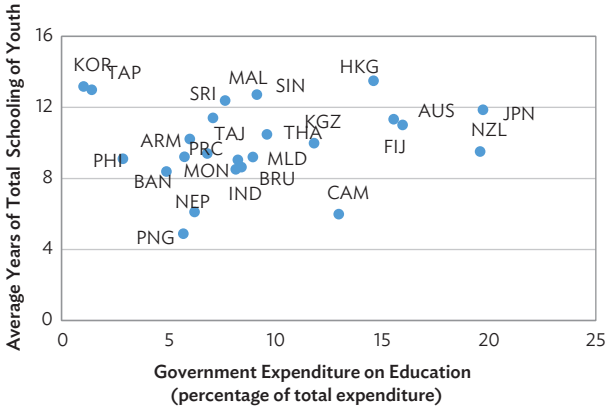
Investments in education yield high economic and social returns. Countries have typically identified the relevance of education in their national development plans. The rationale for investments in education is based on rates of return and efficient allocation of resources, as well as benefits to society accruing from a more educated populace (ADB 2014b). In its "The Growth Report," the Commission on Growth and Development (2008, p. 38) pointed out that "public spending on education is justified on the grounds of efficiency and equality of opportunity. It corrects the failure of the market to allocate enough resources to education, and it also widens access to education beyond those who can pay for it upfront." Education improves productivity, raises the quality of jobs in the economy, and consequently, increases economic growth. Higher educational attainment increases an individual's chances of engaging in formal paid employment, of being more productive, and of earning higher wages. However, when economic downturns occur, human capital investments are at risk of suffering budget cuts (UNESCO 2010). This can lead to possible trend reversals in improvements in education outcomes and adverse long-term impacts on socioeconomic gains.

Economies of Asia and the Pacific spend, on average, about 16% of their total public expenditures on education, but the share of education expenditures in total public spending across economies has been varied. In recent years, fiscal expenditure on education was greater than 20% of total public expenditure[5] in Mongolia (27.1%), Vanuatu (26.1%), Fiji (25.6%), the Kyrgyz Republic (23.1%), India (22.7%), Malaysia (21.5%),

5 Total public expenditure data refer to central government, except for Australia, Japan, the Kyrgyz Republic, and Tajikistan, where data refer to commonwealth, consolidated, or general government.

and Singapore (20.4%). On the other hand, economies of developing Asia that spent less than 10% of total government expenditure on education include Azerbaijan (7.5%), Sri Lanka (9.0%), Timor-Leste (9.3%), and Armenia (9.9%). In general, higher educational spending is associated with higher educational attainment (Figure 1.7), but current investments in education do not immediately yield returns reflecting the current educational achievements. Some countries have also been increasing their outlays on education recently to catch up on education outcomes.

Figure 1.7: Government Expenditure on Education (percentage of total expenditure) and Average Years of Total Schooling of Youth, Latest Year



ARM = Armenia; AUS = Australia; BAN = Bangladesh; BRU = Brunei Darussalam; CAM = Cambodia; FIJ = Fiji; HKG = Hong Kong, China; IND = India; JPN = Japan; KOR = Republic of Korea; KGZ = Kyrgyz Republic; MAL = Malaysia; MLD = Maldives; MON = Mongolia; NEP = Nepal; NZL = New Zealand; PNG = Papua New Guinea; PRC = People's Republic of China; PHI = Philippines; SIN = Singapore; SRI = Sri Lanka; TAJ = Tajikistan; TAP = Taipei,China; THA = Thailand.

Note: Total public expenditure data refer to central government, except for the Australia, Japan, the Kyrgyz Republic, and Tajikistan, where data refer to commonwealth, consolidated, or general government.

Sources: Barro and Lee (June 2014) and economy sources.

Click here for figure data

Public expenditures on education as percent of GDP in economies of Asia and the Pacific are lower than high-income countries and low-income countries.[6] ADB (2014a) reported that of 33 economies in the Asia and Pacific region with available data, more than half, including the PRC and India, were spending less than 4.0% of their GDP on education. This falls short of the average 5.4% of GDP spending in high-income countries, and even the 4.9% spending in low-income countries. The latest Asian Development Outlook report (ADB 2014b) summarizes the results of a policy simulation that makes use of data from 63 economies (30 in developing Asia and 33 from OECD): increasing the share of fiscal expenditures on education (as a percentage of GDP) by 1 percentage point lowers the Gini coefficient (of income inequality) by 1.1 percentage points within 7 years. Various reports of UNESCO (2010, 2012, 2014) have pointed out that adequate investments in education are required to influence education outcomes, especially school participation, as well as to improve indicators on the quality of education (e.g., pupil–teacher ratio). Funding for education-related subsidies for social protection, such as conditional cash transfers, however, have not been accounted for in this spending share for education. The Growth Commission (2008, p. 135) has also pointed out that "public spending on education is done mostly by the lower levels of government—provincial and city governments—but these data are not systematically collected and processed, with the result that public spending on education is typically underestimated" and that while spending for education matters, it also matters where specifically the money is spent as, ultimately, it is important that children not only go to school, but also learn in school.

The analysis of allocation of government budget at the national level does not provide any insights into the distribution of resources across rural and urban regions or to the disadvantaged regions. Thus, for example, data on per pupil expenditures in rural areas in comparison with per pupil expenditures in the urban areas will be helpful to decide on additional fiscal allocations or targeted schemes (e.g., scholarships in rural areas) needed for the rural areas, or for that matter, for the disadvantaged regions and populations to bridge the gaps in educational outcomes.

6 Low- and high-income classifications of countries referred to here are as defined by the World Bank.

3. Education Poverty and Inequality

In the previous section, the indicator on average years of schooling was extensively examined along with other FIGI indicators. In this section, we analyze the years of schooling of selected developing economies for which microdata are available from their respective demographic and health surveys (DHS). The analysis summarizes these data into education poverty and inequality measures, and looks into the factors that affect years of schooling, as well as the relationship of poor educational attainment with vulnerability of employment.

3.1 Education Poverty

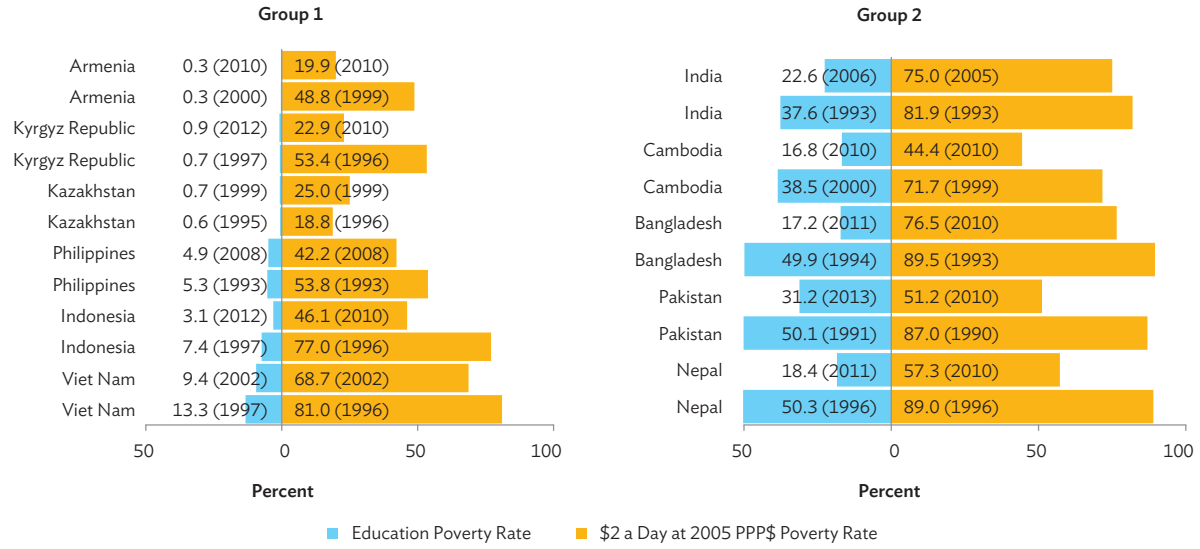
Since educational attainment is a welfare indicator, poverty measures may similarly be generated from years of schooling, as is the case for monetary welfare indicators based on income and consumption/expenditure. UNESCO (2010) has observed that although there are no international benchmarks regarding a minimum level of years of schooling required for everyone, those in the labor force with less than 4 years of schooling are unlikely to have basic literacy and numerical skills required for stable occupations. In addition, when they have less than 2 years of education, they are at an even worse disadvantage in having opportunities for advancement. Thus, UNESCO (2010) proposed measuring "education poverty" and "extreme education poverty" on the basis of data on years of schooling, using thresholds of 4 years of schooling and 2 years of schooling, respectively.

Estimates of education poverty and extreme education poverty among the youth (aged 15–24) population are given in Table A1.1 (Annex 1) for 11 economies of developing Asia for which at least two DHS data points between the 1990s and 2000s were available. These economies are Armenia, Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Viet Nam. Attention is focused on the youth (aged 15–24) population entering the workforce, although estimates may also be generated for adult population (aged 25 and over), or for the combined population. The estimates in Table A1.1 (Annex 1) for these economies were based on microdata from DHS for two data points, an earliest year (usually in the 1990s) and latest year (usually in the 2000s) for these economies, and reflect the deprivation in educational outcomes as measured by the number of years of schooling for the survey reference periods. These estimates are also presented disaggregated by sex, rural–urban, and wealth quintiles that provide further insights into the distribution of education poverty within these groups of populations. Based on the level of average years of schooling[7] in the 1990s, the 11 economies were divided into two groups. Group 1 comprised economies with average years of schooling of 6 years or more: Armenia, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, the Philippines, and Viet Nam. Group 2 comprises five economies with average years of schooling of less than 6 years in the 1990s: Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Nepal, and Pakistan. As initial conditions are important in any progress assessment, these two groups have often been referred to in the analysis and in the figures that follow.

Education poverty correlates well with the proportion of the population living on an income of less than $2 a day at 2005 PPP$. Economies that had reduced education poverty rates also had seen reductions in their income poverty rates (Figure 1.8). Among Group 1 economies, Viet Nam (6.9% per year) and Indonesia (5.8% per year) had considerable improvements in reducing

7 Estimates of years of schooling referred to here were authors' estimates using DHS microdata. These survey estimates are not the same as those of Barro and Lee (2014) due to differences in estimation methodologies.

Figure 1.8: Education Poverty (Less than 4 Years of Schooling) among Youth (Aged 15–24) and Proportion of Population Living below $2 a Day at 2005 PPP$ in Selected Economies of Developing Asia



Note: Group 1 comprised economies with average years of schooling of 6 years or more, and Group 2 comprised economies with average years of schooling of less than 6 years in the 1990s.

Sources: For Education Poverty Rate: Authors' estimates using Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) datasets of Armenia, Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Viet Nam; for $2 a Day Poverty Rate: Povcalnet Database Online (World Bank), accessed 30 May 2014.

Click here for figure data

their education poverty rates as well as their $2 poverty rates. Understandably, there would be diminishing marginal returns in reducing education poverty rates when education poverty is minimal, as in the case of Armenia, Kazakhstan, and the Kyrgyz Republic, where the youth have already accumulated, on average, at least 10 years of education and where education poverty rates are below 1.0%.

Economies with less than 6 years of average schooling in the 1990s had shown remarkable reduction of education poverty rates between the two survey periods. All five economies of Group 2 (with less than 6 years of average schooling in the 1990s) had reduced education poverty and extreme education poverty. Three of these—Bangladesh (6.3% and 8.1% per year, respectively), Cambodia (8.3% and 10.2% per year, respectively), and Nepal (6.7% and 7.9% per year, respectively)—had shown remarkable reductions between the two survey periods. Despite reduction of education poverty, latest data show that more than 15% of the youth in all five economies had less than 4 years of schooling: Pakistan (31.2%), India (22.6%), Nepal (18.4%), Bangladesh (17.2%), and Cambodia (16.8%). More than 10% of the youth in the four economies (except Cambodia) had less than 2 years of schooling. More than a quarter of the youth in Pakistan (26.8%) had less than 2 years of schooling. In India, nearly one in five of its youth (19.3%) had less than 2 years of schooling, while in Nepal and Bangladesh, the extreme education poverty rates reached 13.3% and 10.3%, respectively.

Education poverty is related to wealth and residence, and being born to a poor family or in a rural setting can severely inhibit one's access to educational opportunities. Another key population characteristic, the sex of individuals, is analyzed in Section 4 where it is seen that women in some economies have been disadvantaged in educational opportunities. The rich–poor and rural–urban divides are challenges to achieving equity in years of schooling of the youths, as shown in Table A1.1 (Annex 1). The youth who come from the bottom 20% of the wealth distribution in eight of the 11 economies are at a much higher risk of being education poor than richer segments of the population, especially those from the top 20% (Figure 1.9). Both education

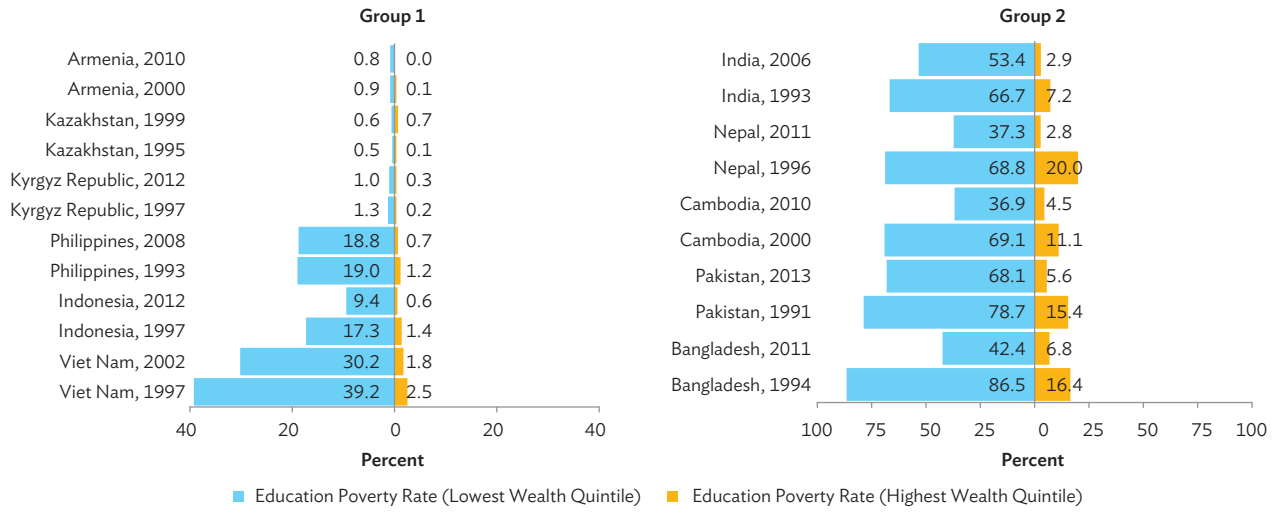
poverty rates and extreme education poverty rates among the poor were typically at least twice the national average; and in the Philippines, it was four times as much. Typically, education poverty rates for the youth had shown a decline in economies for both the bottom 20% and top 20% of the wealth distribution. But the rates of decline had been much faster for the richest.

Education poverty also reflected a clear rural–urban divide even in economies that had achieved substantial reduction of education poverty between the two survey periods (Figure 1.10). In seven of these economies, education poverty and extreme education poverty rates in rural areas were at least two times the rates in urban areas. Among economies where extreme education poverty had been reduced significantly, only Bangladesh and Viet Nam had faster progress rates in rural areas than in urban areas Table A1.2 (Annex 1). In India, Nepal, and Pakistan, the progress rates had been almost equal in both rural and urban areas.

3.2 Education Gini and Share of Schooling Years of Highest Quintile to Schooling Years of Lowest Income Quintile

Average years of schooling are an important measure of average educational outcomes; however, it cannot sufficiently characterize human capital in an economy. The distribution of years of schooling, particularly inequality in schooling years, is also important to examine. One of the most popular inequality indices is the Gini coefficient, a popular measure of income inequality. Researchers have used this also as a measure of inequality in educational attainments based on years of schooling of the populations (Thomas et al. 2001, Wail et al. 2012). In application of the Gini coefficient to the years of schooling, the education Gini will range between a value of 0, which indicates perfect equality in educational attainments and a value of 1, reflecting perfect inequality. An alternative way of measuring inequality in educational attainment is to take the ratio of the aggregated schooling years of the top 20% of income distribution to that of the bottom 20%

Figure 1.9: Education Poverty (Less than 4 Years of Schooling) among Youth (Aged 15–24) across Selected Economies of Developing Asia, Lowest and Highest Wealth Quintiles



Note: Group 1 comprised economies with average years of schooling of 6 years or more, and Group 2 comprised economies with average years of schooling of less than 6 years in the 1990s.

Sources: Authors' estimates using Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) datasets of Armenia, Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Viet Nam.

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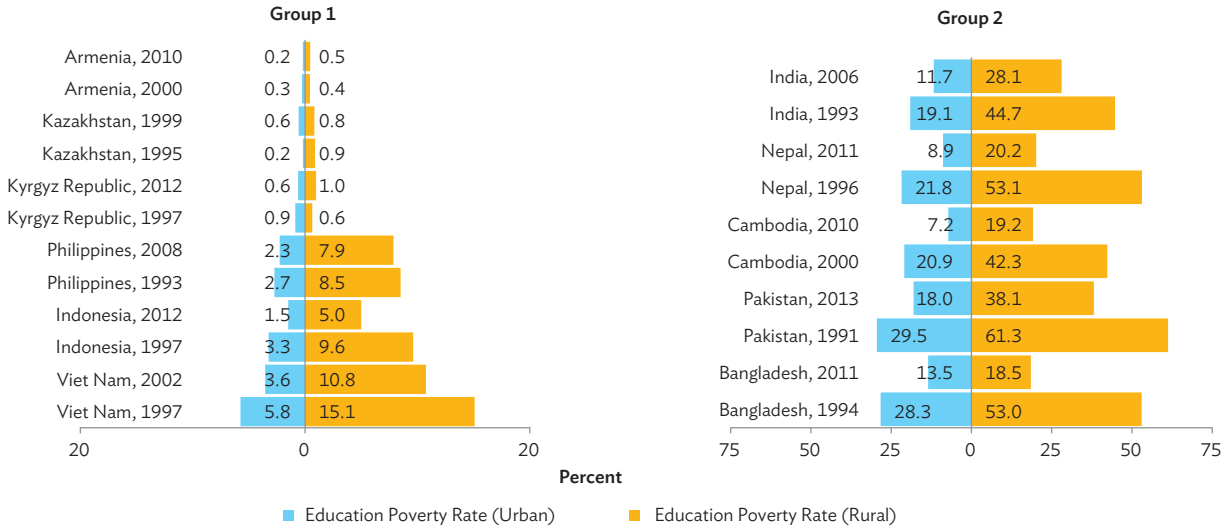
Figure 1.10: Education Poverty (Less than 4 Years of Schooling) among Youth (Aged 15–24) across Selected Economies of Developing Asia, Urban and Rural



Note: Group 1 comprised economies with average years of schooling of 6 years or more, and Group 2 comprised economies with average years of schooling of less than 6 years in the 1990s.
Sources: Authors' estimates using Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) datasets of Armenia, Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Viet Nam.

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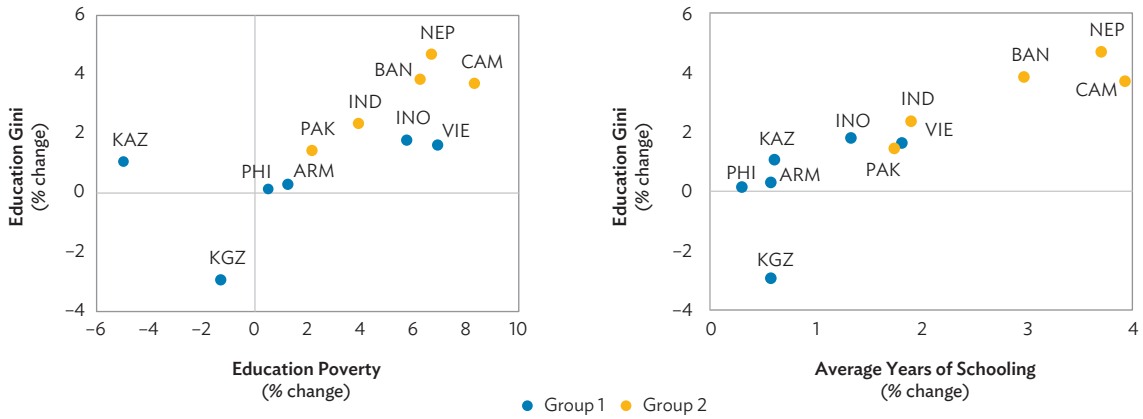
of income distribution. The estimates for education Gini and the ratio of the total schooling years of the wealthy to those of the poor in the 11 economies are shown in Table A1.3 (Annex 1) for the youth (15–24 years). Whenever possible, the statistics are disaggregated by wealth, sex, and rural–urban residence based again from the microdata from the DHS for the 11 economies of developing Asia. More discussions on disparities in educational outcomes for the youth (15–24 years) between males and females are given subsequently in Section 4.

Economies that have relatively higher education inequalities are generally those that have low average years of schooling and high levels of education poverty. Reduction in education inequality is a driver to increasing schooling years. Annual rates of improvement in years of schooling and in reduction in education poverty are associated with annual rates of reduction in education Gini (Figure 1.11). The annual rates of improvement in years of education and in reductions in education poverty and corresponding rates of reduction in education Gini are much faster for the countries with less than 6 years of schooling (group 2) in the 1990s compared with the countries with 6 or more years of schooling (group 1). During the same period, education Gini declined in all economies except for the Kyrgyz Republic. The ratio of years of schooling accumulated by the richest 20% of the population to the poorest 20% was also examined. This ratio too declined between the two survey periods except in Armenia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, and the Philippines. Despite the increases in years of schooling in the poorest 20%, the youth in the richest quintile had nearly twice the number of years of schooling or more as youth in the lowest quintile in Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Nepal, Pakistan, and Viet Nam. In these economies, at least 30.0% of the youth in the lowest quintile had fewer than 4 years of schooling, while the corresponding figure for the richest quintile was less than 7.0%, highlighting disparity in educational outcomes on account of wealth.

Developing economies can be cross-classified based on their respective conditions in education poverty rates and education Gini. A classification of 11 economies according to three levels of education Gini (Low: 0.0–0.15,

Figure 1.11: (a) Annual Rates of Reductions in Education Gini and in Education Poverty and (b) Annual Rates of Reduction in Education Gini and Improvement in Average Years of Schooling among Youth (Aged 15–24) across Selected Economies of Developing Asia



ARM = Armenia, BAN = Bangladesh, CAM = Cambodia, IND = India, INO = Indonesia, KAZ = Kazakhstan, KGZ = Kyrgyz Republic, NEP = Nepal, PAK = Pakistan, PHI = Philippines, VIE = Viet Nam.

Note: Education Poverty refers to population of youth (15–24 years of age) with less than 4 years of schooling. Group 1 comprised economies with average years of schooling of 6 years or more, and Group 2 comprised economies with average years of schooling of less than 6 years in the 1990s.

Sources: Authors' estimates using Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) datasets of Armenia, Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Viet Nam.

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Medium: 0.15–0.30, and High: 0.30 or greater) and three levels of education poverty (Low: 0%–5%, Medium: 5%–10%, and High: 10% or greater) is shown in Table 1.2. Such categorization is useful as it suggests policy prescriptions around growth and distributional changes for countries depending on their circumstances.

For an economy that has a low but relatively equal school attainment among the youth, its education poverty rate is high; helping more people to become educated will shift the distribution of schooling years and thus bring down education poverty rates. For a country that already has a high average years of schooling but also high levels of inequality, education poverty rates can be brought down by reducing the spread of schooling years (without even raising the average level of schooling). In both cases, education poverty rates will decline. Thus, changes in education poverty rates between two periods can be attributed as pure growth effects in average years of schooling of the youth, or as pure changes in the distribution of years of schooling. This has been well-known among poverty analysts: changes in poverty rates[8] can be decomposed into growth and distribution effects.

Table 1.2: Classification of Economies by Education Poverty and Education Inequality

Education Poverty (%)	Education Gini		
	Low (0.0-0.15)	Medium (0.15-0.30)	High (0.30 or greater)
Low (0–5)	Armenia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic	Indonesia, Philippines	X
Medium (5–10)	X	Viet Nam	X
High (10 or more)	X	Bangladesh, Cambodia, Nepal	India, Pakistan

Source: Authors' estimates using Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) datasets of Armenia, Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Viet Nam. Calverton, Maryland: ICF International [Distributor], 2014.

Looking into this decomposition for the 11 economies (Table 1.3), we find mixed experiences

8 Following standard Shapley decompositions of changes in poverty rates (see Datt and Ravallion 1992 or Kakwani 2000), the changes in education poverty can likewise be attributed to a pure growth in the average years of schooling among the youth (without a change in the shape of the distribution of schooling), or pure changes in the distribution of years of schooling of the youth (without a change in the average years of education). The first effect may be viewed as the change in education poverty rate when the distribution of the years of schooling shifts but maintains its shape, while the second effect is what would have happened if the average years of schooling did not change (i.e., no growth), but the distribution of years of schooling among the youth changed.

Table 1.3: Decomposition of Changes in Education Poverty into Growth and Distribution Effects

Developing Member Economies	Survey Period	Changes in Education Poverty	Growth Effect	Distribution Effect
Armenia	2000–2010	0.0	0.0	0.0
Bangladesh	1994–2011	32.7	15.9	16.8
Cambodia	2000–2010	21.8	13.4	8.4
India	1993–2006	15.0	5.0	10.1
Indonesia	1997–2012	4.3	0.6	3.6
Kazakhstan	1995–1999	–0.1	0.0	–0.2
Kyrgyz Republic	1997–2012	–0.1	0.1	–0.2
Nepal	1996–2011	31.8	10.2	21.7
Pakistan	1991–2013	19.0	8.0	11.0
Philippines	1993–2008	0.4	1.2	–0.8
Viet Nam	1997–2002	3.9	2.6	1.3

0.0 = Magnitude is less than half of unit employed.
Source: Authors' estimates using Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) datasets of Armenia, Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Viet Nam. Calverton, Maryland: ICF International [Distributor], 2014.

among the countries examined. In Bangladesh, where education poverty among the youth (15–24 years) had been reduced by 33 percentage points over nearly 2 decades, about half of this reduction was due to the growth in the average years of schooling of the youth. In Cambodia and Viet Nam, the reduction of education poverty was largely due to the growth in the years of schooling of the youth, while in India, Indonesia, Nepal, and Pakistan, the reduction was much more due to changes in the distribution of schooling years (than the growth in average years of schooling).

Economies with low education poverty and low-to-moderate levels of education inequality can still reduce education poverty further, by way of addressing distributional issues. In Armenia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Indonesia, and the Philippines, further reductions in education poverty can be achieved by addressing distribution gaps in schooling especially the hard-to-reach marginalized communities, for instance. On the other hand, for economies such as India and Pakistan—where education poverty rates are high, and education Ginis are high at the outset—it will be important to have policies that will enable greater access and longer stay in schools for youth for them to become more educated. These policies can also simultaneously address distributional aspects of schooling by improving access to education, thus bridging rural–urban disparities and the poor–rich divide, as well as further narrowing the gender gap in schooling as had been done in Bangladesh.

3.3 Factors Affecting Schooling Years among the Youth (Aged 15–24)

Various socioeconomic factors can influence the years of schooling of the youth, aside from their respective ages (as some of them may still be in school), such as gender and educational attainment of their parents. As indicated earlier, there are also influences on educational outcomes on account of household wealth, rural–urban, and gender disparities. In the succeeding discussion, we attempt to determine the net or individual effects of these factors in years of schooling. For this purpose, we estimate a regression model that examines how these various household characteristics affect the years of schooling among the youth in three economies of developing Asia using available household survey data. The details of regression results, based on analysis of microdata from available household income and expenditure surveys, and other living standards measurements surveys from Bangladesh (2010), Cambodia (2008), and the Philippines (2011), are presented in Table A2.1 (Annex 2). Key results are summarized below:

Across the three developing economies considered, all things being equal:

- The older the youth, the more years of schooling, as is to be expected;
- Among all these economies, the educational attainment of both parents explains years of schooling of the youth: children with more educated fathers and mothers tend to have more years of schooling;

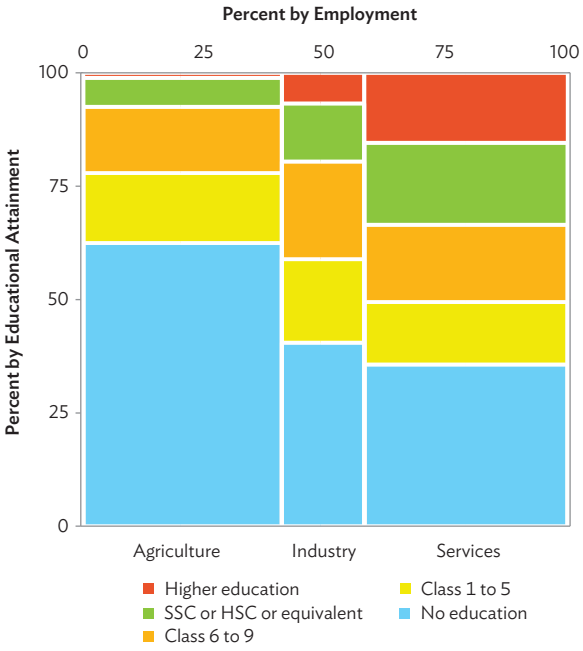
- Urban–rural disparities affect schooling years of the youth especially in Cambodia where those in urban areas have one more year of schooling than their counterparts in rural areas;
- In the Philippines, girls tend to have nearly one more year of schooling than boys. In Cambodia, boys have more years of schooling; in Bangladesh, girls tend to have slight advantage over boys;
- Wealth disparities also considerably explain the difference in years of schooling: those in the bottom 20% of income distribution have at least 1 year of schooling less than those in the upper 20%. In the Philippines, the gap in years of schooling between the rich and the poor is nearly 2 years, while in Bangladesh, the disparity is about 3 years.

These regression profiles are based on varying years when these household surveys were conducted, and conditions in these countries may have changed in the wake of recent policy interventions.

3.4 Educational Attainment and Vulnerability of Employment

Higher educational attainment is essential for a well-educated labor force to avail of better opportunities for good quality and more productive jobs in the formal sector. In a number of developing economies of Asia and the Pacific, the unemployed may appear to be a small segment of the labor force, but this could be misleading because a significant portion of the employed is engaged in vulnerable employment (defined as own-account and unpaid family worker) or employed in the informal sector. Thus, rather than profiling the unemployed by education levels in an economy, it is more informative to disaggregate the share of employed persons across sectors and by levels of education. For instance, in Bangladesh, among adults (aged 25 and over) employed in 2010, about half (47.6%) had not finished any education, half of whom were employed in the agriculture sector; about two-fifths (32.0%) had finished some primary education (up to class 9) and were spread across the three sectors of the economy (Figure 1.12). About one in ten (12.4%) had secondary or higher secondary school certificates, largely employed in services. Of the remaining 8% of the adults employed who had obtained higher education, about three-fifths were employed in the services sector. Further disaggregation by urban–rural areas shows that among employed adults, the bulk of those with low education were in the rural areas, and most of the highly educated were in urban areas working in the services sector.

Figure 1.12: Proportion of Adults (Aged 25 and over) Employed in Bangladesh by Sector of Economy and by Educational Attainment, 2010

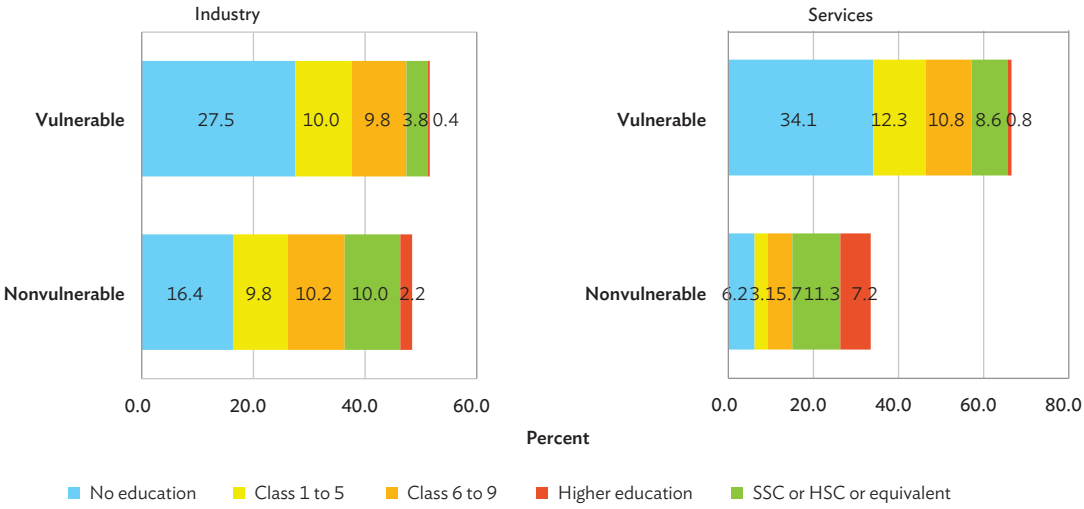


HSC = Higher Secondary Certificate, SSC = Secondary School Certificate.
Source: Authors' estimates based on data from Bangladesh Household Income and Expenditure Survey (2010).

Click here for figure data

Educational attainment is a key source of vulnerability of employment, even in the nonagriculture sectors of an economy. In Bangladesh, for instance, nearly half (47.0%) of those in vulnerable employment in the industry and services sectors either had no education or had achieved at most primary education (Figure 1.13).

Figure 1.13: Proportion of Adults (Aged 25 and over) Employed in Bangladesh in Industry and Services Sectors by Vulnerability of Employment and by Education, 2010



HSC = Higher Secondary Certificate, SSC = Secondary School Certificate.
Note: Vulnerable employment is defined as own account and unpaid family work.
Source: Authors' estimates based on data from Bangladesh Household Income and Expenditure Survey (2010).

Click here for figure data

4. Gender Disparities in Education

Education should be equitable and inclusive for all, including for both sexes. Inequalities in education and employment opportunities for any group of people are a form of injustice; they have both direct and instrumental effects in reducing economic growth (Klasen and Lamanna 2008). In sections 2 and 3, we analyzed education attainment across two major population characteristics—wealth and residence (rural–urban). In this section, we look into the issue of equal inclusion of females and males in educational attainments and its implications for female participation in the labor force. Improved education for women, who generally have been more disadvantaged in educational opportunities, is also expected to lead to improved household welfare outcomes, including decision making on fertility (Grown, Gupta, and Kes 2005; World Bank 2012). We first reexamine gaps in years of schooling between males and females. Then we look into the connection of gender parity in education with the labor market, before turning to education outcomes for females and its relationship with welfare and development.

4.1 Education Poverty and Inequality among Males and Females

Through 5 decades (from 1960 to 2010), gender gap in schooling years across developing Asia narrowed for the youth from 1.0 years to 0.2 years but slightly increased for adults from 1.3 years to 1.8 years. In Pakistan, India, and Afghanistan, the gender gaps in schooling—though narrowed—are still largely in favor of males among the youth and adults. In Thailand, Nepal, and Bangladesh, the gender gaps in schooling showed a pattern that favored females among the youth in 2010 but continued to be favorable for males among adults. This shows that these economies had been able to close the gender gaps in schooling in recent decades. For Myanmar, Mongolia, and the Philippines, both young and adult females enjoyed more years of schooling than males in 2010.

Data from available household surveys in the 1990s and 2000s for the 11 economies also show that the gender gaps in education poverty and extreme education poverty had narrowed for the youth (aged 15–24) between the two survey periods. In Bangladesh, Indonesia, the Philippines, and Viet Nam, education poverty was much higher among the young males than females (Figure 1.14).

Education inequality measures also suggest movement toward more gender parity across 11 economies of developing Asia. Figure 1.15 shows the substantially high reductions in the education Gini for female and male youth between the two survey periods especially for economies such as Bangladesh, which had an average of less than 6 years of schooling in the 1990s. The increased gender parity in years of schooling, coupled with reductions in education Gini, bodes well, as an equitable distribution of educational attainment (years of schooling) is essential for equality of opportunity irrespective of the sex of an individual.

Figure 1.14a: Education Poverty of Youth (Aged 15–24) across Selected Economies of Developing Asia, Male, Female

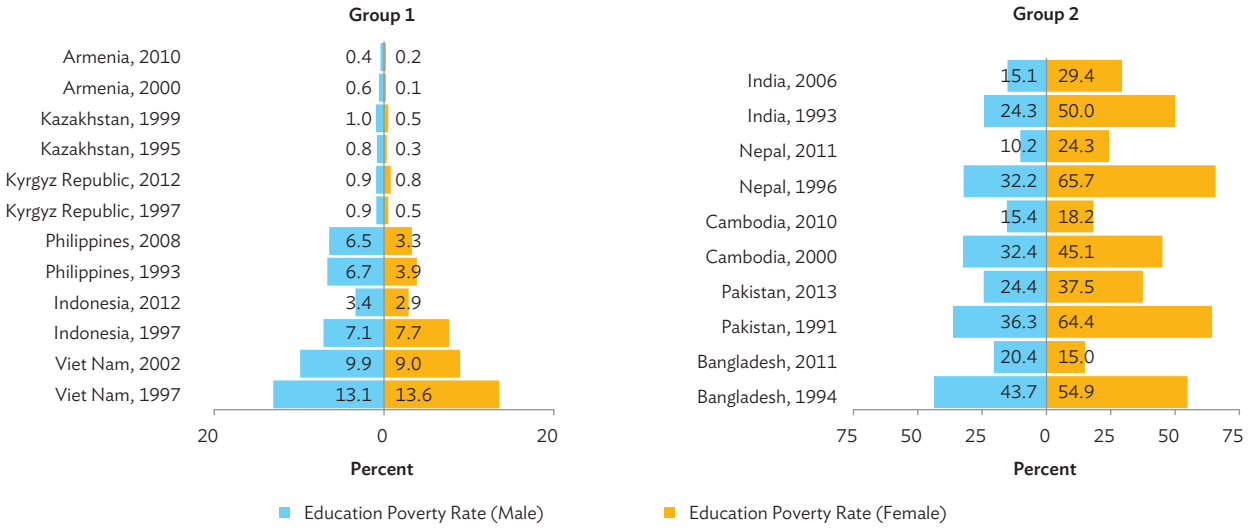
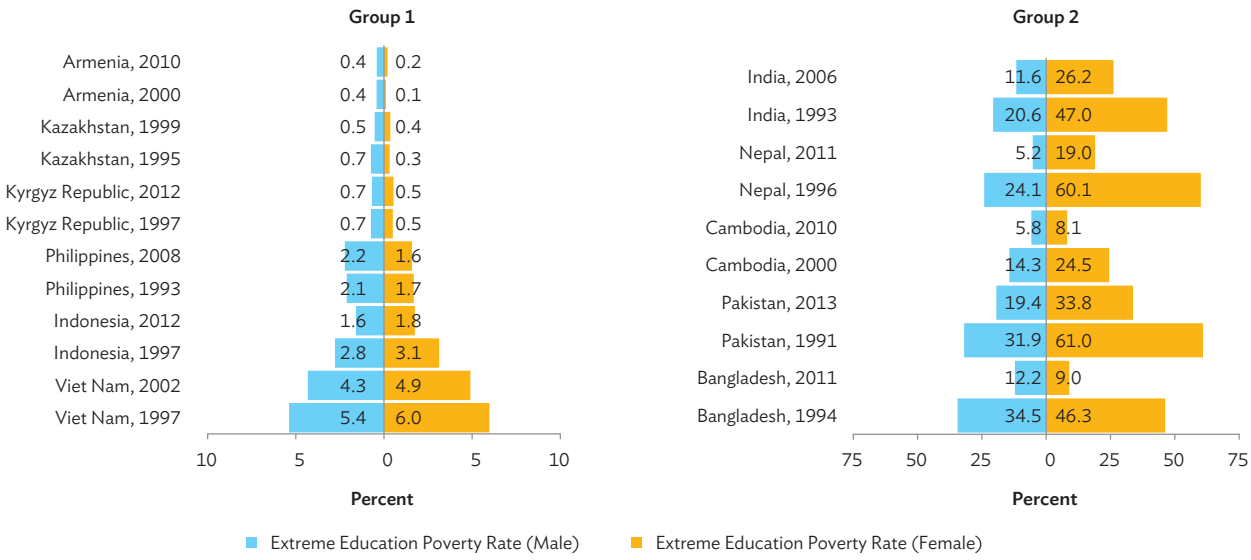


Figure 1.14b: Extreme Education Poverty of Youth (Aged 15–24) across Selected Economies of Developing Asia, Male, Female



Note: Group 1 comprised economies with average years of schooling of 6 years or more, and Group 2 comprised economies with average years of schooling of less than 6 years in the 1990s.

Sources: Authors' estimates using Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) datasets of Armenia, Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Viet Nam.

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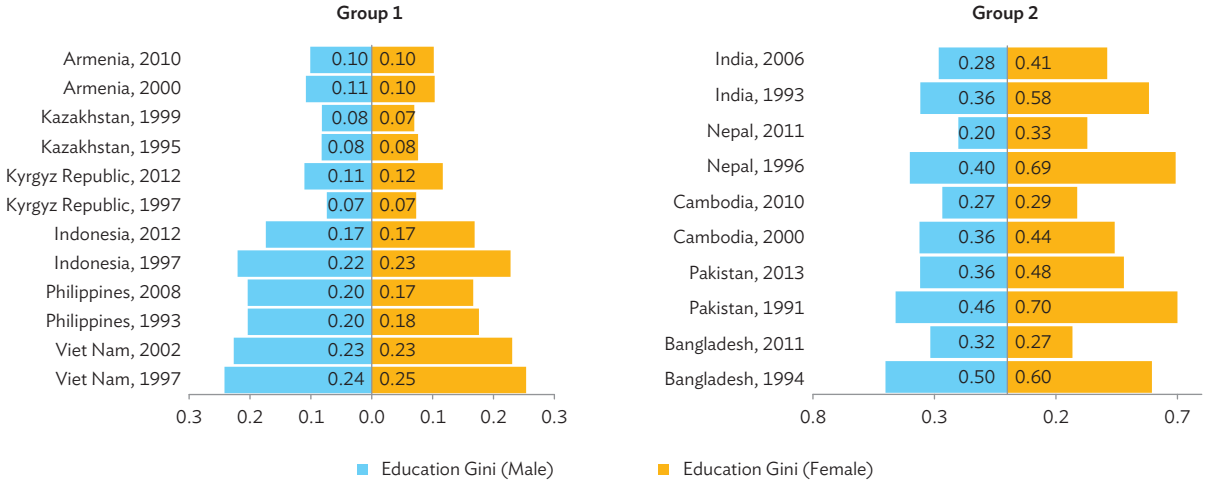
4.2 Gender Parity in Education and in the Labor Market

Although developing Asia has been working toward more gender parity at various levels of education, labor force participation is going toward greater gender disparities that are favorable to males over time (Figure 1.16), including in the most populous economies of the PRC and India that have witnessed high economic growth and poverty reduction. This situation invites policy attention since such labor market distortions reduce women's prospects for more gainful employment, better incomes, and improved welfare conditions, even with greater gender parity in education (ADB 2011b, ADB 2013a).

The links between gender inequities in education and the economy, particularly the labor market, are rather complex. Studies (van der Meulen Rodgers and Zveglich, Jr. 2012; Bhalotra and Umana-Aponte 2010) have shown that across developing Asia, more education for females had

Figure 1.15: Education Inequality in Years of Schooling of Youth (Aged 15–24) as Measured by Education Gini across Selected Economies of Developing Asia, Male, Female



Note: Group 1 comprised economies with average years of schooling of 6 years or more, and Group 2 comprised economies with average years of schooling of less than 6 years in the 1990s.
Sources: Authors' estimates using Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) datasets of Armenia, Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Viet Nam.

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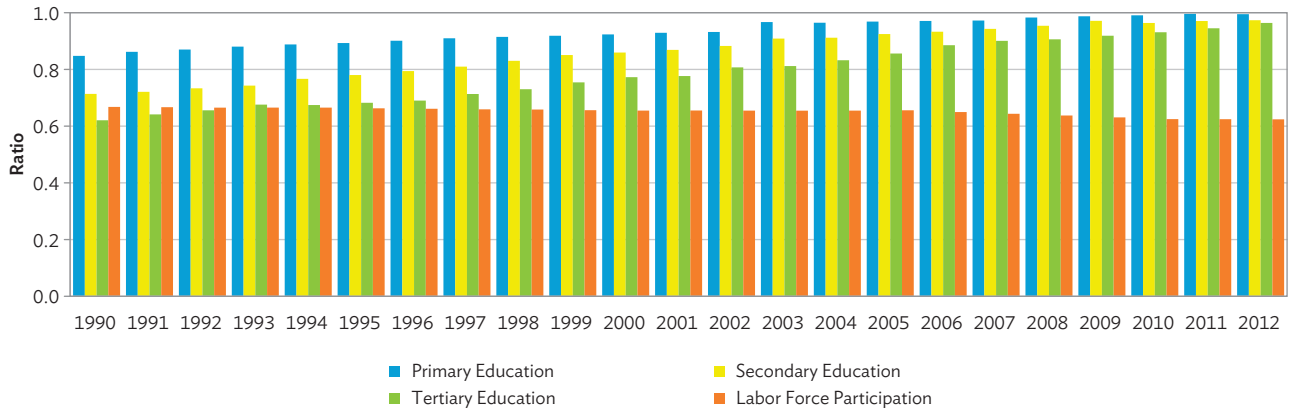
Figure 1.16: Trends in Gender Parity Index (Primary to Tertiary Education) and in Gender Parity Index in Labor Force Participation in Developing Asia, 1990 to Latest Year



Sources: Electronic files provided by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics on 29 May 2014; ADB estimates based on data from *Key Indicators of the Labour Market*, 8th ed. (ILO), accessed 6 May 2014.

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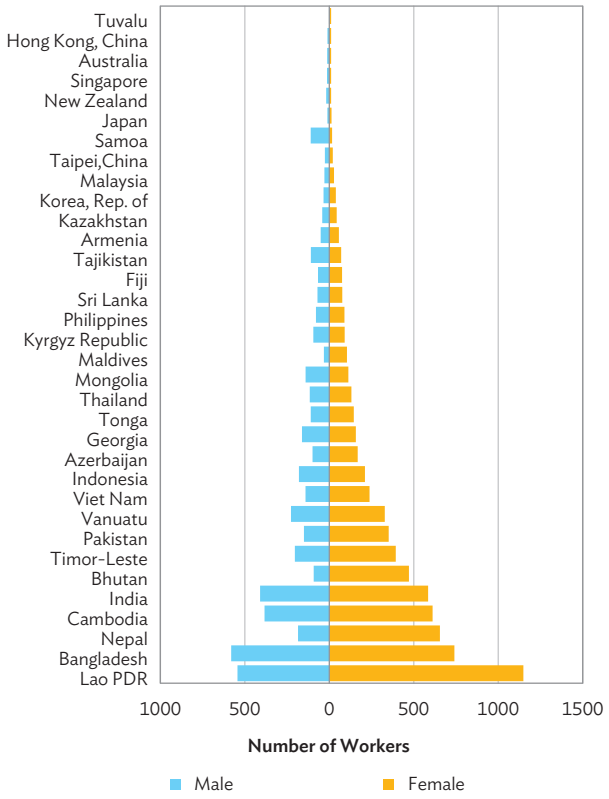
mixed impact in the labor markets, largely depending on cultural norms, the nature of the economy, and household necessities for improved income. For less economically developed countries, the lack of schooling plays a role in pushing women to be part of the labor force, while more schooling, which is associated with higher socioeconomic standing, does not necessarily lead women to join the labor force. For other economies where social norms discourage women from pursuing higher education, women who have had more educational attainment were pulled into the labor market (van der Meulen Rodgers and Zveglich, Jr. 2012). In consequence, factors beyond educational attainments, such as being married and having young children, as well as household wealth and cultural contexts, contribute to the decision of women on whether or not to participate in the labor market.

In developing Asia, women tend to be more engaged than men in vulnerable employment defined as own-account work and unpaid family work. Such economic activities are characterized by risk and uncertainty (ILO 2011). In consequence, the number of own-account and contributing family workers per 100 wage and salaried workers serves as a proxy indicator of low-quality work and vulnerable employment. Among 27 economies of the Asia and Pacific region where data are available, women tend to be more engaged in vulnerable employment than men (Figure 1.17).

In a special chapter of *Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific* (ADB 2011b), it was observed that across many developing economies of Asia and the Pacific, women formed the bulk of unpaid contributing family workers just as men dominated own-account work. Latest estimates of the ILO (2011) for Bangladesh, for instance, show that while labor force participation of adult females (aged 15 and over) was smaller compared to that of males, about three-fifths (60.1%) of females engaged in economic

Figure 1.17: Number of Own-Account and Contributing Family Workers (per 100 wage and salaried workers), Latest Year



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.
Source: ADB estimates based on data from *Key Indicators of the Labour Market*, 8th ed. (ILO), accessed 6 May 2014.

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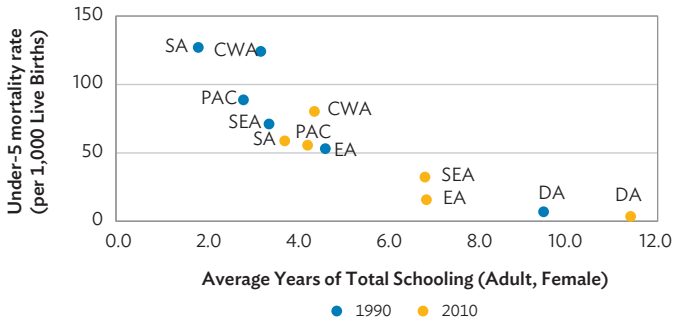
activity were contributing family workers, and more than a quarter (26.4%) were in own-account work; the corresponding share for males was about a tenth (9.7%) for contributing family workers and about three-quarters (74.8%) for own-account work. The greater participation of women in unpaid family work is likely due to less entry barriers for women to such jobs, which can fit flexibly with domestic work.

In developing Asia, the low labor force participation rates of females relative to males and the large share of women in unpaid family work despite improving schooling years across time, require policy action as these gender differences can contribute adversely to women's active participation in the economic growth process.

4.3 Higher Female Education and Improved Household Welfare

Aside from its importance to empowering individuals, benefits of educating women also relate to markedly better health and welfare outcomes. Mothers with more schooling have higher chances of availing prenatal care, seeking skilled health assistance for childbirth, immunizing their young children, and having fewer children than those with less or no education leading to improved child's and mother's health and nutrition status, and lower fertility rates. Children born to mothers who can read are more likely to survive past age 5. More educated parents tend to have more educated children, with the accruing benefits slightly larger for girls than for boys (UNESCO 2014, ADB 2013a). Thus, having policies that aim at universal education with the objective to reduce gender gaps in education would lead to improving household welfare even in societies where there may be barriers to female labor force participation (Klasen et al. 2008). Improved education of females appeared to be contributing to the reduction of under-5 mortality rates as well as to reducing fertility rates, as depicted in Figures 1.18a and 1.18b, respectively (Breierova and Duflo 2004, Minujin and Delamonica 2003).

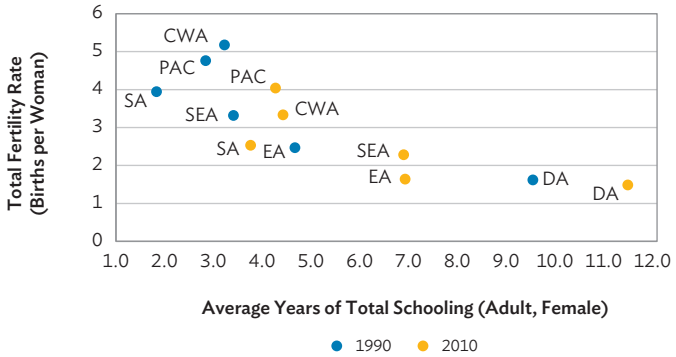
Figure 1.18a: Average Years of Total Schooling, Female (Adult) against Under-5 Mortality Rates across Regions of Asia, 1990 and 2010



CWA = Central and West Asia, DA = Developed Asia, EA = East Asia, SA = South Asia, SEA = Southeast Asia, PAC = The Pacific.
Sources: For average years of total schooling: ADB estimates based on data from Barro and Lee (2014), electronic files provided by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics on 24 May 2014, and Human Development Report, http://hdr.undp.org/en/data (accessed 24 July 2014); for under-5 mortality rates: ADB estimates based on data generated by the UN Inter-agency Group for Child Mortality Estimation (IGME) available at http://www.childmortality.org

Click here for figure data

Figure 1.18b: Average Years of Total Schooling, Female (Adult) against Total Fertility Rates across Regions of Asia, 1990 and 2010



CWA = Central and West Asia, DA = Developed Asia, EA = East Asia, SA = South Asia, SEA = Southeast Asia, PAC = The Pacific.
Sources: For average years of total schooling: ADB estimates based on data from Barro and Lee (2014), electronic files provided by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics on 24 May 2014, and Human Development Report, http://hdr.undp.org/en/data (accessed 24 July 2014); for total fertility rates: ADB estimates based on available data from United Nations Population Division.

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Summary and Conclusions

Inclusive education is critical to build human capabilities for better jobs, improved productivity, social inclusion, and to achieve inclusive growth. People need to build their competencies and capacities to enable them to participate in, contribute to, and benefit from economic growth. In this context, this study has focused on the measurement of trends in outcomes and inclusiveness in education as measured mainly by the indicator number of years of schooling.

Over the last 50 years, the global average years of schooling doubled for both youth and adult populations. However, disparities between the developing and developed world continue in years of schooling, with current average years of schooling in developing countries almost at the levels of average years of schooling in the 1950s and 1960s of the developed world.

Developing economies of Asia and the Pacific had made significant progress in improving average years of schooling with gains of more than 2 years in the last 2 decades and more than 5 years in the last 5 decades, but there are disparities across regions and across countries.

Other FIGI indicators—school life expectancy (primary to tertiary education), pupil–teacher ratios (at the primary level), and gender parity in primary and tertiary education—have also shown improvements.

Analysis of microdata from DHS for 11 economies of developing Asia for youth (aged 15–24) suggests that education poverty and education inequality in these economies had shown remarkable reductions between the 1990s and 2000s. These reductions were achieved across the rich and poor, rural and urban areas, and males and females. However, disparities on account of wealth and residence remain challenges to achieving equity in years of schooling of the youth and filling gender gaps. In addition, the analysis revealed that

- economies with poor starting conditions on years of education (less than 6 years in the 1990s), namely, Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Nepal, and Pakistan, had shown remarkable reductions of education poverty.
- experience in gender disparities had been mixed, with a general tendency toward greater gender parity. In India and Nepal, boys still have the advantage (though the gaps were reduced), while in the Philippines, girls have the advantage. In Bangladesh, gender bias in favor of males has been reversed and females have more years of schooling than males in recent years.
- in developing economies where education poverty has been reduced significantly, these gains were broad-based, both for urban and rural areas, for the rich and the poor, and for both sexes. In Bangladesh and Kazakhstan, the rates of reduction of education poverty were much higher for rural youth than their urban counterparts, whereas in India, Nepal, and Pakistan, the rates of reduction of education poverty were more or less equal for urban and rural youth. In all economies, with the exception of the Kyrgyz Republic, rates of reduction of education poverty were much higher for youth in the richest quintile than for youth in the poorest quintile. Seven economies observed faster rates of reduction of education poverty among female youth as compared to males.
- in Bangladesh, where education poverty rates were reduced by 32.7 percentage points across nearly 2 decades, about half of this reduction was from growth in the average years of schooling of youth. In Cambodia and Viet Nam, the reduction of education poverty was largely

due to growth in the years of schooling of youth, while in India, Indonesia, Nepal, and Pakistan, the reduction was much more due to changes in the distribution of schooling years.

Education inequality, as measured by education Gini or ratio of years of education of richest quintile to poorest quintile, has declined in the two decades.

Countries can be cross-classified by levels of education poverty (low, medium, and high) and levels of education Gini (low, medium, and high). Countries with low levels of education poverty and education Gini can develop targeted programs to educate the remaining excluded populations, while countries with high education poverty and high education Gini would need to formulate programs for improving education access and longer retention of pupils in schools along with special schemes targeting the excluded such as the poor and rural populations.

Various socioeconomic factors affect years of schooling of the youth. Results of regression analysis using available household survey data from Bangladesh, Cambodia, and the Philippines on schooling years of the youth (aged 15–24), with all factors being equal, suggest that

- children with more educated parents tend to have more years of schooling;
- those in urban areas tend to have more schooling than their counterparts in rural areas in Cambodia;
- schooling sometimes differs between males and females, with the advantage for boys in Cambodia, and the reverse in Bangladesh and the Philippines; and
- wealth disparities explain considerably the difference in years of schooling of the youth across developing economies.

In developing Asia, increases in the years of schooling of females have not necessarily led to improved labor force participation of women relative to men, although it may seem that the connection of gender disparities in education to labor force participation is straightforward. The decision for a woman to join the labor force appears to involve factors beyond education, such as whether she is married, whether she has young children, cultural factors, and the economic need for improved household income. This situation invites policy attention to correct labor market distortions that reduce women's prospects for more gainful employment, better incomes, and improved welfare conditions.

In many developing economies of Asia and the Pacific, a substantial number of people with no education or low education are engaged in vulnerable employment, and typically, among adults (aged 25 and over) who are employed, a larger share of women than men are in own-account or unpaid family work. Higher educational achievements will be needed to increase opportunities for quality employment and higher labor productivity, as well as to achieve inclusive growth.

While many indicators measuring quantity of schooling point to improvements in the region, especially at the primary level, it is equally, if not more important, to monitor the quality of education in countries. While pupil–teacher ratio is a proxy for quality of schooling, it is merely an indicator of school resources. The development community will need to work toward generating an international assessment of education quality for developing economies of Asia and the Pacific. This initiative may be done in partnership with institutions that have made headway in assessment exercises such as the OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). The region will require more focused interventions to maximize access to opportunities especially in access to quality education, particularly by the poor, those in rural areas, and other marginalized segments of society.

Given rising income inequalities or high levels of inequality in many economies of Asia and the Pacific, countries and their development partners need to monitor trends in inequality, and in promoting equity in education. More substantive research will have to be conducted to identify the drivers of changes in income inequality, and to develop methods of collecting systematic data on indicators such as spending on conditional cash transfers and other social protection subsidies for education that might relate to income inequality.

Targets on inclusive growth indicators on education, especially for outcome indicators such as average years of schooling disaggregated by various population characteristics, could be identified by development partners in consultation with the countries. The development community may need to develop a work program with countries to identify targets to monitor inclusion in education outcomes more effectively. Work also needs to be done toward sustaining regular collection of disaggregated data for production of comparable indicators on inclusion in education in the wake of the emerging data revolution (that entails the use of advanced technologies for statistics production), toward ensuring more inclusive growth outcomes in Asia and the Pacific.

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Table A1.1: Education Poverty, Extreme Education Poverty: Youth (Aged 15–24)

Developing Member Economies	Education Poverty: Proportion of Youth (Aged 15–24) with Less than Four Years of Schooling																					
	Total				Sex [a]				Residence [a]				Wealth Quintile [a]									
					Female		Male		Rural		Urban		Lowest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Highest	Lowest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Highest
	Earliest		Latest		Earliest		Latest		Earliest		Latest		Earliest					Latest				
Armenia	0.3	2000	0.3	2010	0.1	0.6	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.9	0.0	0.6	0.1	0.1	0.8	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.0
Bangladesh	49.9	1994	17.2	2011	54.9	43.7	15.0	20.4	53.0	28.3	18.5	13.5	86.5	75.9	54.1	33.7	16.4	42.4	22.0	12.8	8.9	6.8
Cambodia	38.5	2000	16.8	2010	45.1	32.4	18.2	15.4	42.3	20.9	19.2	7.2	69.1	54.9	42.7	26.3	11.1	36.9	25.4	15.2	8.4	4.5
India	37.6	1993	22.6	2006	50.0	24.3	29.4	15.1	44.7	19.1	28.1	11.7	66.7	56.9	42.3	23.7	7.2	53.4	34.4	21.6	10.2	2.9
Indonesia	7.4	1997	3.1	2012	7.7	7.1	2.9	3.4	9.6	3.3	5.0	1.5	17.3	10.3	7.2	3.4	1.4	9.4	3.1	2.4	1.0	0.6
Kazakhstan	0.6	1995	0.7	1999	0.3	0.8	0.5	1.0	0.9	0.2	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.5	1.0	0.8	0.1	0.6	0.7	0.7	1.0	0.7
Kyrgyz Republic	0.7	1997	0.9	2012	0.5	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.6	0.9	1.0	0.6	1.3	1.0	0.4	0.7	0.2	1.0	1.3	0.6	1.0	0.3
Nepal	50.3	1996	18.4	2011	65.7	32.2	24.3	10.2	53.1	21.8	20.2	8.9	68.8	67.2	59.1	47.2	20.0	37.3	27.6	22.2	9.2	2.8
Pakistan	50.1	1991	31.2	2013	64.4	36.3	37.5	24.4	61.3	29.5	38.1	18.0	78.7	66.1	59.6	41.2	15.4	68.1	47.2	30.7	14.5	5.6
Philippines	5.3	1993	4.9	2008	3.9	6.7	3.3	6.5	8.5	2.7	7.9	2.3	19.0	6.0	2.9	1.4	1.2	18.8	4.9	2.2	1.3	0.7
Viet Nam	13.3	1997	9.4	2002	13.6	13.1	9.0	9.9	15.1	5.8	10.8	3.6	39.2	12.5	8.7	3.0	2.5	30.2	7.9	3.0	4.0	1.8

Developing Member Economies	Extreme Education Poverty: Proportion of Youth (Aged 15–24) with Less than Two Years of Schooling																					
	Total				Sex [a]				Residence [a]				Wealth Quintile [a]									
					Female		Male		Rural		Urban		Lowest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Highest	Lowest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Highest
	Earliest		Latest		Earliest		Latest		Earliest		Latest		Earliest					Latest				
Armenia	0.3	2000	0.3	2010	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.5	0.0	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.8	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.0
Bangladesh	41.0	1994	10.3	2011	46.3	34.5	9.0	12.2	43.7	22.0	11.2	7.8	78.5	63.4	42.6	24.8	11.7	27.5	12.8	7.2	4.4	4.4
Cambodia	19.2	2000	6.9	2010	24.5	14.3	8.1	5.8	21.3	9.8	8.1	2.4	41.9	28.7	18.2	9.9	4.3	17.0	10.1	6.0	3.2	1.4
India	34.3	1993	19.3	2006	47.0	20.6	26.2	11.6	41.2	16.5	24.1	9.7	62.4	52.9	38.2	20.5	6.0	46.7	29.5	17.9	8.3	2.3
Indonesia	3.0	1997	1.7	2012	3.1	2.8	1.8	1.6	3.7	1.6	2.7	0.8	7.2	3.1	2.9	1.6	0.8	5.5	1.5	1.1	0.5	0.3
Kazakhstan	0.5	1995	0.4	1999	0.3	0.7	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.2	1.0	0.8	0.1	0.1	0.7	0.3	0.9	0.4
Kyrgyz Republic	0.6	1997	0.6	2012	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.9	0.6	0.6	1.3	1.0	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.7	0.9	0.3	0.8	0.3
Nepal	43.5	1996	13.3	2011	60.1	24.1	19.0	5.2	46.1	17.3	14.7	5.6	60.0	59.9	51.7	40.0	16.0	27.5	19.6	16.5	6.1	1.9
Pakistan	46.2	1991	26.8	2013	61.0	31.9	33.8	19.4	57.0	26.1	33.1	15.1	75.4	62.1	53.4	36.7	13.3	62.2	40.9	24.6	12.1	4.2
Philippines	1.9	1993	1.9	2008	1.7	2.1	1.6	2.2	3.0	1.0	3.2	0.7	7.2	1.7	1.0	0.4	0.6	7.2	1.8	0.9	0.6	0.3
Viet Nam	5.7	1997	4.6	2002	6.0	5.4	4.9	4.3	6.5	2.2	5.2	1.9	18.4	4.2	3.5	0.8	1.2	16.7	2.7	1.3	1.5	0.8

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

Sources: Authors' estimates using Demographic and Health Survey (Armenia, Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Viet Nam) [Datasets]. Calverton, Maryland: ICF International [Distributor], 2014.

Table A1.2: Progress Rates in Reducing Education Poverty and Extreme Education Poverty

Developing Member Economies	Progress Rates: Education Poverty										
	Survey Period	Total	Sex		Residence		Wealth Quintile				
			Female	Male	Rural	Urban	Lowest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Highest
Armenia	2000–2010	1.3	–6.9	3.8	–0.4	4.1	0.1	–6.9	3.3	5.6	...
Bangladesh	1994–2011	6.3	7.6	4.5	6.2	4.4	4.2	7.3	8.5	7.8	5.2
Cambodia	2000–2010	8.3	9.1	7.5	7.9	10.7	6.3	7.7	10.4	11.4	9.1
India	1993–2006	3.9	4.1	3.6	3.6	3.7	1.7	3.9	5.2	6.5	7.1
Indonesia	1997–2012	5.8	6.5	5.0	4.4	5.2	4.0	8.1	7.4	8.0	5.8
Kazakhstan	1995–1999	–5.0	–11.2	–3.3	1.7	–27.5	–6.8	–9.6	9.3	–4.4	–42.1
Kyrgyz Republic	1997–2012	–1.3	–3.0	–0.1	–2.8	2.3	1.4	–2.0	–4.0	–2.5	–3.5
Nepal	1996–2011	6.7	6.6	7.7	6.5	6.0	4.1	5.9	6.5	10.9	13.2
Pakistan	1991–2013	2.2	2.5	1.8	2.2	2.2	0.7	1.5	3.0	4.7	4.6
Philippines	1993–2008	0.5	1.1	0.2	0.5	1.3	0.1	1.4	1.9	0.6	3.7
Viet Nam	1997–2002	6.9	8.3	5.6	6.8	9.6	5.3	9.2	21.3	–6.1	7.4

Developing Member Economies	Progress Rates: Extreme Education Poverty										
	Survey Period	Total	Sex		Residence		Wealth Quintile				
			Female	Male	Rural	Urban	Lowest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Highest
Armenia	2000–2010	–1.4	–6.9	0.2	–6.9	4.1	–5.2	–6.9	1.6	5.6	...
Bangladesh	1994–2011	8.1	9.6	6.1	8.0	6.1	6.2	9.4	10.4	10.2	5.8
Cambodia	2000–2010	10.2	11.0	9.1	9.6	14.3	9.0	10.4	11.1	11.4	11.5
India	1993–2006	4.4	4.5	4.4	4.1	4.1	2.2	4.5	5.8	7.0	7.3
Indonesia	1997–2012	3.8	3.9	3.7	2.2	4.4	1.8	4.8	6.4	8.1	6.9
Kazakhstan	1995–1999	5.1	–2.9	8.3	13.3	–19.2	37.6	–31.1	35.4	–2.6	–26.1
Kyrgyz Republic	1997–2012	0.2	–0.5	0.6	–1.3	2.9	3.8	0.3	0.6	–7.1	–3.5
Nepal	1996–2011	7.9	7.7	10.2	7.6	7.5	5.2	7.5	7.6	12.6	14.1
Pakistan	1991–2013	2.5	2.7	2.3	2.5	2.5	0.9	1.9	3.5	5.1	5.2
Philippines	1993–2008	–0.0	0.4	–0.3	–0.4	2.0	–0.0	–0.2	0.7	–2.5	5.6
Viet Nam	1997–2002	4.2	4.0	4.4	4.3	2.9	2.0	8.5	20.1	–12.9	8.4

Sources: Authors' estimates using Demographic and Health Survey (Armenia, Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Viet Nam) [Datasets]. Calverton, Maryland: ICF International [Distributor], 2014.

Table A1.3: Education Gini and Share of Schooling Years of Highest Quintile to Schooling Years of Lowest Quintile: Youth (Aged 15–24)

Developing Member Economies	Education Gini (Aged 15–24)																					
	Total				Sex[a]				Residence[a]				Wealth Quintile[a]									
					Female	Male	Female	Male	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Lowest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Highest	Lowest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Highest
	Earliest		Latest		Earliest		Latest		Earliest		Latest		Earliest					Latest				
Armenia	0.11	2000	0.10	2010	0.10	0.11	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.11	0.09	0.11	0.10	0.09	0.10	0.11	0.11	0.09	0.09	0.10	0.10	0.10
Bangladesh	0.55	1994	0.29	2011	0.60	0.50	0.27	0.32	0.57	0.39	0.29	0.26	0.82	0.72	0.56	0.42	0.29	0.43	0.31	0.25	0.22	0.20
Cambodia	0.40	2000	0.28	2010	0.44	0.36	0.29	0.27	0.41	0.32	0.28	0.23	0.54	0.45	0.38	0.30	0.24	0.35	0.30	0.25	0.21	0.20
India	0.48	1993	0.35	2006	0.58	0.36	0.41	0.28	0.53	0.32	0.39	0.26	0.71	0.63	0.51	0.35	0.20	0.58	0.43	0.33	0.24	0.16
Indonesia	0.22	1997	0.17	2012	0.23	0.22	0.17	0.17	0.22	0.19	0.19	0.15	0.25	0.21	0.20	0.18	0.16	0.23	0.17	0.16	0.13	0.13
Kazakhstan	0.08	1995	0.08	1999	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.06	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.09
Kyrgyz Republic	0.07	1997	0.11	2012	0.07	0.07	0.12	0.11	0.07	0.09	0.11	0.12	0.07	0.07	0.06	0.08	0.09	0.11	0.10	0.10	0.12	0.11
Nepal	0.56	1996	0.28	2011	0.69	0.40	0.33	0.20	0.58	0.33	0.29	0.18	0.69	0.69	0.63	0.53	0.30	0.42	0.35	0.31	0.19	0.11
Pakistan	0.58	1991	0.42	2013	0.70	0.46	0.48	0.36	0.67	0.40	0.48	0.31	0.81	0.70	0.64	0.50	0.28	0.71	0.54	0.40	0.28	0.19
Philippines	0.19	1993	0.19	2008	0.18	0.20	0.17	0.20	0.22	0.16	0.21	0.16	0.27	0.19	0.16	0.14	0.14	0.27	0.18	0.14	0.14	0.14
Viet Nam	0.25	1997	0.23	2002	0.25	0.24	0.23	0.23	0.26	0.18	0.24	0.18	0.38	0.23	0.20	0.16	0.14	0.36	0.21	0.17	0.17	0.13

Developing Member Economies	Years of Schooling Share: Ratio of Highest Quintile to Lowest Quintile (Aged 15–24)											
	Total				Sex[a]				Residence[a]			
					Female	Male	Female	Male	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
	Earliest		Latest		Earliest		Latest		Earliest		Latest	
Armenia	1.01	2000	1.15	2010	1.04	1.17	1.13	1.17	1.15	1.07	1.11	1.12
Bangladesh	7.75	1994	2.10	2011	11.08	5.06	2.01	2.24	7.29	3.57	2.22	1.82
Cambodia	3.15	2000	2.05	2010	3.94	2.67	2.09	2.01	2.77	2.43	1.89	1.70
India	3.73	1993	2.86	2006	8.39	2.38	4.03	2.12	3.27	2.76	2.82	2.16
Indonesia	1.77	1997	1.45	2012	1.79	1.76	1.42	1.44	1.55	1.44	1.42	1.26
Kazakhstan	1.00	1995	1.06	1999	1.00	1.00	1.04	1.09	0.97	1.00	0.99	1.04
Kyrgyz Republic	1.06	1997	1.11	2012	1.07	1.01	1.11	1.10	1.00	1.10	0.95	1.14
Nepal	3.34	1996	1.93	2011	7.15	2.01	2.23	1.56	2.90	2.63	1.84	1.61
Pakistan	5.66	1991	3.81	2013	17.76	3.58	6.57	2.65	4.10	3.13	3.90	2.39
Philippines	1.65	1993	1.68	2008	1.47	1.81	1.49	1.84	1.69	1.26	1.85	1.38
Viet Nam	2.23	1997	1.97	2002	2.33	2.11	1.96	1.97	2.06	1.57	1.95	1.44

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

Sources: Authors' estimates using Demographic and Health Survey (Armenia, Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Viet Nam) [Datasets]. Calverton, Maryland: ICF International [Distributor], 2014.

Annex 2: Regression of Educational Attainments and Household and Socioeconomic Characteristics

Various socioeconomic factors can affect the years of schooling of the youth, aside from their respective ages (as some of them may still be in school), such as sex of the youth, educational attainment of their parents, and as indicated earlier, there are influences on educational outcomes on account of household wealth, rural–urban, and gender disparities. In order to determine the net or individual effects of these factors in years of schooling, we estimate a regression model that examines how these various household characteristics affect the years of schooling among the youth in four economies of developing Asia using microdata from available household income and expenditure surveys, and other living standards measurement surveys from Bangladesh, Cambodia, and the Philippines.

For every increase in a unit of an explanatory variable such as every additional year of schooling of a parent, a positive regression coefficient would suggest the corresponding increase in the years of schooling of a youth, all factors being equal. For indicator variables, such as whether the youth is male, whether the youth resides in an urban area, and whether the youth comes from the richest quintile of the country's wealth distribution, the corresponding regression coefficient (if statistically significant at the 5% level) has to be interpreted as a differential with a reference category (such as being female, or residing in a rural area, or coming from the poorest quintile) *ceteris paribus*. The empirical results shown in Table A2.1 were obtained from a weighted regression model with (robust) standard errors (developed by Huber, 1967 and White, 1980) using microdata of available household income and expenditure surveys, and other living standards measurements surveys from Bangladesh, the Philippines, and Cambodia. Note that since the sample households are not of equal weight, analytic weights employed for the regression models are the household survey weights. Regression results may, however, likely be biased on account of missing information on years of schooling of the youth, or of one of the parents.

Table A2.1: Regression of Years of Schooling of Youth (Aged 15–24)

Explanatory Variable	Bangladesh (2010)		Cambodia (2008)		Philippines (2011)	
	Coef. (Std. Err)	p-value	Coef. (Std. Err)	p-value	Coef. (Std. Err)	p-value
Age	0.09 0.019	0.000	0.25 0.029	0.000	0.30 0.006	0.000
father's years of schooling	0.19 0.016	0.000	0.21 0.024	0.000	0.12 0.006	0.000
mother's years of schooling	0.19 0.021	0.000	0.14 0.030	0.000	0.16 0.006	0.000
sex (indicator for males)	–0.10 0.037	0.010	0.34 0.140	0.014	–0.91 0.030	0.000
indicator for urban area	–0.20 0.112	0.077	1.08 0.189	0.000	0.00 0.033	0.957
indicator for 2nd quintile of wealth	0.97 0.176	0.000	–0.15 0.268	0.585	0.75 0.045	0.000
indicator for 3rd quintile of wealth	1.70 0.172	0.000	0.22 0.260	0.404	1.15 0.047	0.000
indicator for 4th quintile of wealth	2.28 0.172	0.000	0.50 0.252	0.049	1.73 0.053	0.000
indicator for 5th quintile of wealth	2.80 0.184	0.000	1.10 0.283	0.000	2.08 0.067	0.000
Constant	2.94 0.368	0.000	0.77 0.577	0.182	1.59 0.112	0.000
Memo Note:						
R squared		0.3038		0.3334		0.3755
Number of observations with complete records		5,517		1,607		28,363
Total number of youth in the sample		10,080		3,772		37,432

Sources: Authors' estimates based on data from Bangladesh Household Income and Expenditure Survey (2010), Cambodia Socio-Economic Survey (2008), and the Philippines' Annual Poverty Indicator Survey (2011).

PART II

Trends and Disparities within Economies in Developing Asia

Statistical Tables

Poverty and Inequality

Income Poverty

The Indicators

Three indicators on income poverty and inequality are included in this Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators:

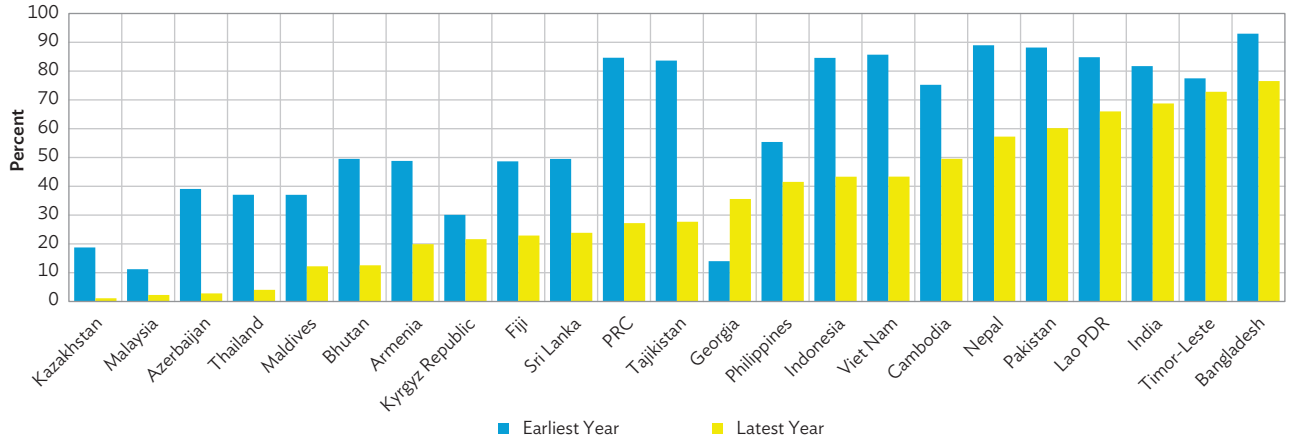
- proportion of population living below the national poverty line,
- proportion of population living below $2 a day at 2005 purchasing power parity (PPP) prices, and
- ratio of income or consumption share of the highest to the lowest quintiles.

Trends in Economies

While poverty is multidimensional, countries tend to operationalize its measurement by defining a national poverty line—a monetary indicator of minimum standard of welfare typically based on income, or consumption expenditure. National poverty lines serve to monitor changes in poverty conditions and evaluate programs and policies aimed at reducing poverty. While methodologies for determining national poverty lines vary across countries, reflecting national standards, poverty rates using the international $2-a-day (2005 PPP) poverty line provide a comparable measure of poverty across countries based on standardized purchasing power. In the last 2 decades, high growth rates in the gross domestic product of economies of developing Asia have contributed to the significant reduction of poverty rates, whether measured through national or international poverty lines.

Data from the early 1990s and the most recent year show that poverty incidence using national poverty lines declined in 26 out of 32 economies of developing Asia (Table 2.1). Estimates on $2-a-day poverty rates sourced from the World Bank's PovcalNet poverty database show that in developing Asia, the incidence of population living below $2 a day (2005 PPP) significantly dropped from about four out of five persons (81.1%) in 1990 to about one in two persons (46.2%) in 2010. Between 1990 and 2010, the $2-a-day poverty rate dropped in nearly all economies of developing Asia except in Georgia (Figure 2.1). Declines had been uneven, but reductions of above 2 percentage points per year were achieved in Armenia (2.6), Azerbaijan (2.8), Bhutan

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.

Click here for figure data

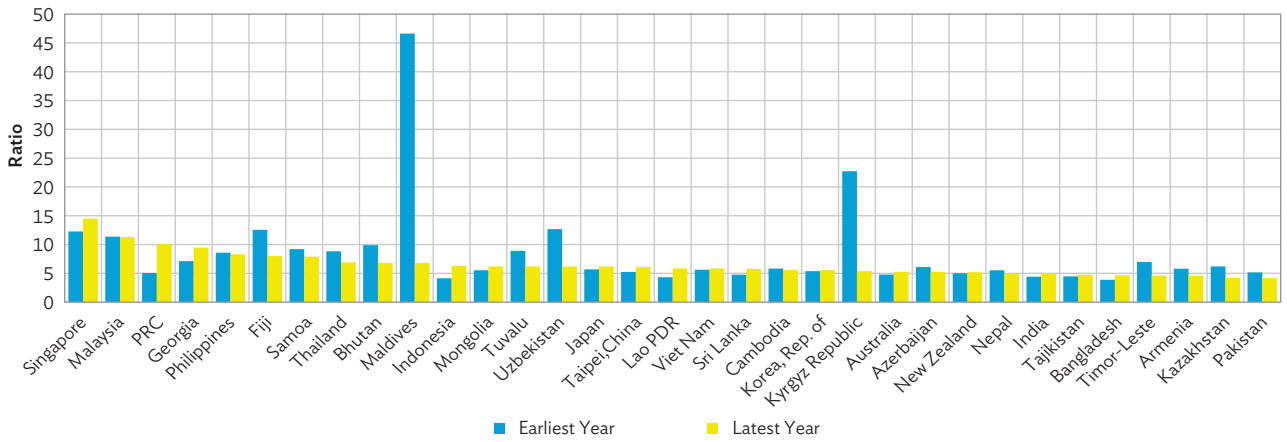
(4.1), the People's Republic of China (PRC) (3.0), Fiji (4.3), the Maldives (4.1), Nepal (2.3), Tajikistan (5.6), and Viet Nam (2.8). In Georgia, the $2-a-day poverty rate increased by 1.5 percentage points per year—from 14.0% in 1996 to 35.6% in 2010. The overall reduction in $2-a-day poverty rate in developing Asia was largely on account of the PRC's significant 3.0 percentage points per year, and also considering its share in the total population of developing Asia. Despite this achievement, an estimated 1.6 billion people in developing Asia still live on an income of less than $2 a day in 2010, showing that poverty is still an unfinished agenda. Aside from poverty reduction being uneven, there is also wide variation in the latest estimates of $2-a-day poverty rates across economies of developing Asia, ranging from 1.1% (2009) in Kazakhstan to 76.5% (2010) in Bangladesh.

Inequalities in Income Poverty

There are a variety of ways to examine income inequality, the simplest being ratio of income or consumption share of the highest quintile to the lowest quintile. This ratio, which measures the extent of inequality between the two tails of the income or consumption distribution, worsened in half (16) of the 33 economies of the Asia and Pacific region in years for which data are available (Figure 2.2). Moreover, of the five most populous economies of developing Asia (constituting nearly 80% of the region's total population), only Pakistan had an improved ratio—from 5.2 in 1991 to 4.2 in 2008. In the PRC, the ratio practically doubled from 5.1 (1990) to 10.1 (2009). In India, the ratio increased from 4.4 (1994) to 5.0 (2010); in Indonesia, from 4.1 (1990) to 6.3 (2011); and in Bangladesh, from 3.9 (1992) to 4.7 (2010). As indicated in Part I, latest data show that in the PRC, India, and Indonesia, the growth in real per capita consumption of the richest quintile had been much faster than that of the poorest quintile, suggesting worsening inequalities in the most populous economies of developing Asia.

Across developing Asia, latest national poverty data show that 24 out of 27 economies had higher poverty rates in rural areas than in urban areas (Figure 2.3). The only exceptions were Armenia, with both rural and urban poverty rates at about 32%; and in Tuvalu and Vanuatu, where urban poverty was significantly higher than rural poverty. In economies for which poverty data are available for two time periods, both rural and urban poverty rates generally declined. In Timor-Leste, however, poverty rates increased in both urban and rural areas. In Fiji and Georgia, urban poverty declined, but rural poverty went up; while in Bhutan and Vanuatu, urban poverty increased slightly, and rural poverty declined.

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



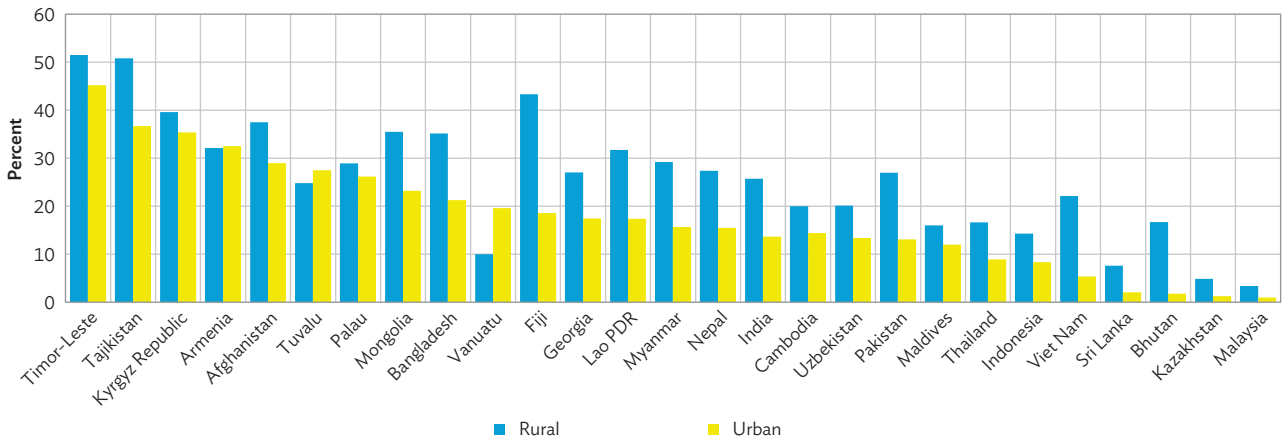
Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.1.

Click here for figure data

Rural and urban poverty rates for $2-a-day poverty up to now have been available only for the PRC, India, and Indonesia. In these economies, the rural population is significantly more at risk of being poor than the population in urban areas. In the PRC, the risk was more than 13 times, with latest rural poverty rates estimated at 45.8%, while the urban poverty rate was only at 3.5%. In India and Indonesia, the proportion of the rural poor was 73.5% and 44.8%, respectively, while the corresponding proportion for urban areas was 57.6% and 41.9%, respectively. The disparities between rural poverty and urban poverty in the largest economies of developing Asia using the $2-a-day poverty line, as well as the gaps in estimated poverty incidence between the rural and urban populations based on respective national poverty lines, suggest the importance of bridging the rural–urban divide as part of an effective, inclusive growth strategy.

It should be noted, however, that national, rural, and urban poverty estimates using national poverty lines may not be strictly comparable owing to changes in the methodology for determining national poverty, changes in survey and questionnaire designs, and changes in rural–urban boundaries.

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



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

Click here for figure data

Poverty and Inequality

Nonincome Poverty

The Indicators

Poverty has nonmonetary dimensions. Three nonincome poverty indicators are considered here:

- average years of total schooling (youth and adult),
- prevalence of underweight children under 5 years, and
- under-5 mortality rate per 1,000 live births.

Trends in Economies

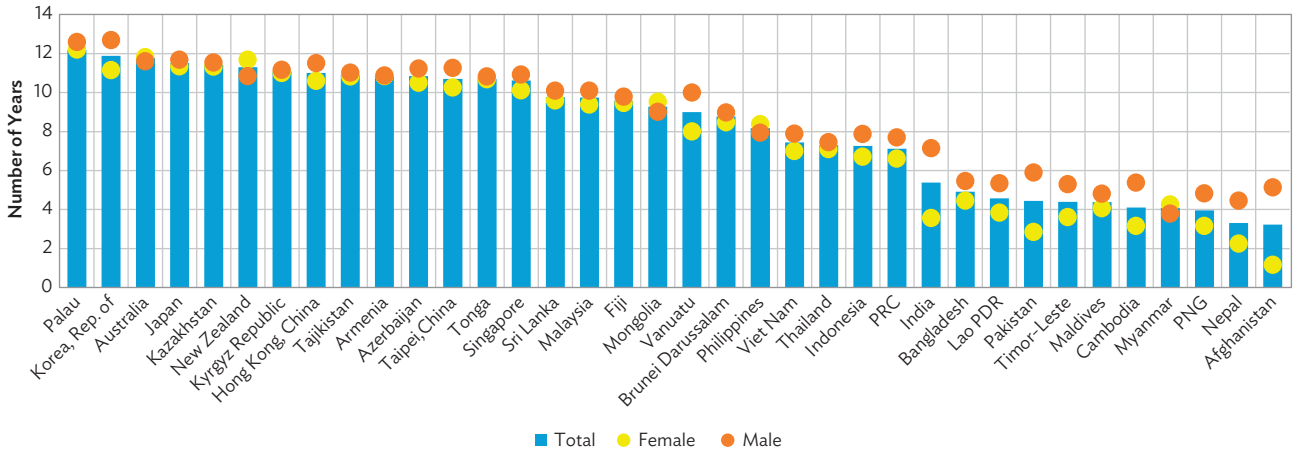
The average number of years of schooling from primary level to tertiary level serves as a measure of educational attainment or outcomes in a country. This indicator is extensively discussed in Part I. Data available for this indicator are disaggregated for the youth (aged 15–24) and adult (aged 25 and over) populations. These data describe, respectively, the educational attainment of the young population

entering the workforce, and the education completed by the adult population who constitutes the bulk of an economy's current labor force. Average years of schooling for the youth across developing Asia was 8.6 years, with Afghanistan (4.7 years) and Papua New Guinea (4.9 years) at the low end of the spectrum. Five developing economies with 12 or more years of schooling for youth were Hong Kong, China (13.5 years); the Republic of Korea (13.2 years); Malaysia (12.4 years); Singapore (12.7 years); and Taipei,China (13.0 years) (Table 2.2). These outcomes are even higher than to those of the developed economies of Australia (11.0 years), Japan (11.9 years), and New Zealand (9.5 years). Improvements were noted for the youth throughout developing Asia, except for the Central and West Asian economies of Armenia, and Tajikistan, where the average years of schooling of youth slightly decreased between 1990 and 2010 following their transition to market economies. This transition may have resulted in an increased motivation for the youth to engage in economic activities rather than stay in school. In a span of 2 decades (between 1990 and 2010), the highest increase in average years of schooling among the youth was observed in Bangladesh (4.7 years), where the gender gap in schooling years between males and females had been reversed following concerted interventions to help girls go to school and stay in school. Aside from Bangladesh, other economies of developing Asia that managed to significantly add to the average schooling years of the youth included India (4.0), the Maldives (4.0), Myanmar (3.3), Singapore (4.3), and Thailand (3.2).

As regards the adult population, Palau (12.2) had the highest average years of schooling in developing Asia for 2010 or latest year, followed by the Republic of Korea (11.9) and Kazakhstan (11.4); the Kyrgyz Republic (11.1); and Hong Kong, China (11.0). Between 1990 and 2010, Singapore had the largest increase in average schooling years at 4.8 years, followed by Indonesia (4.0).

On health outcomes, data between 2005 and 2013 for 12 of the 37 economies show that at least one in every five children under 5 years was underweight. A measure of malnutrition, this condition is very likely to impair motor and cognitive development, and hinder children from taking advantage of opportunities as they grow up.[1] The highest proportions of underweight children under 5 years were in Bangladesh (36.4% in 2011), India

Figure 2.4: Average Years of Total Schooling, Adults (Aged 25 and over), Both Sexes, Male, and Female, 2010 or Latest Year



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

Click here for figure data

1 United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)/United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA). *Women's and Children's Rights: Making the Connection.*

(43.5% in 2006), Timor-Leste (45.3% in 2010), and Pakistan (30.0% in 2013). In contrast, low rates of underweight children were found in the Central and West Asian economies of Armenia (4.7% in 2010), Georgia (1.1% in 2009), Kazakhstan (3.7% in 2011), the Kyrgyz Republic (3.4% in 2012), and Uzbekistan (4.4% in 2006); as well as in the East Asian economies of the PRC (3.4% in 2010) and Mongolia (3.3% in 2010); and in the three Pacific economies of Nauru (4.8% in 2007), Palau (2.2% in 2010), and Tuvalu (1.6% in 2007) (Figure 2.5).

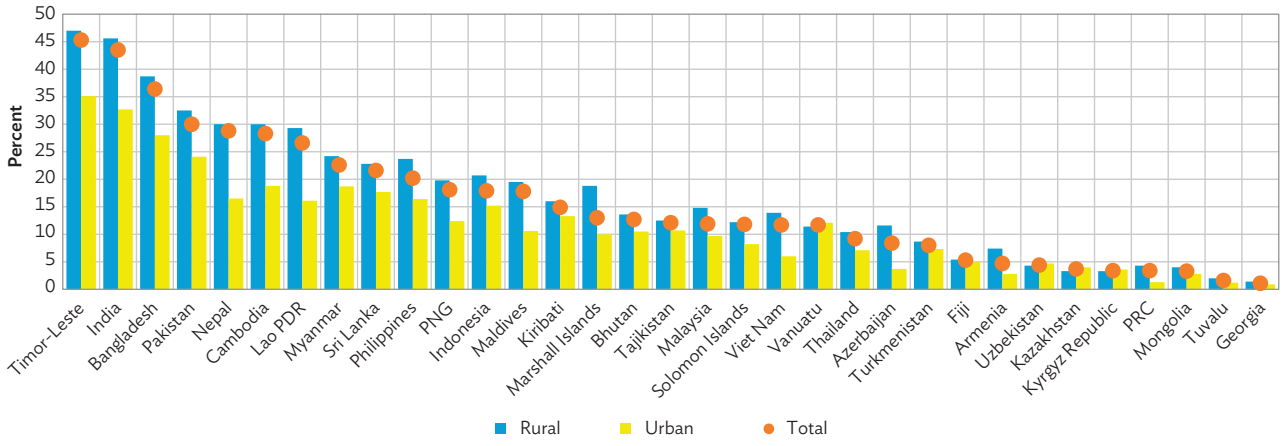
A measure of health outcome, the under-5 mortality rate in developing Asia currently ranges from a low of 3 deaths per 1,000 live births in Singapore to as high as 99 in Afghanistan, 86 in Pakistan, and 72 in the Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR). Overall, in 2012, developing Asia had made substantial progress in reducing deaths in children under age 5 in the last 2 decades—from 92 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1990 to 41 in 2012—although as in many Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators, progress here had been uneven across economies. Between 1990 and 2012, the largest absolute reductions in under-5 mortality rate were in Timor-Leste (114), followed by Bangladesh (103), Nepal (100), the Lao PDR (91), Bhutan (86), the Maldives (84), Mongolia (79), Afghanistan (78), and Cambodia (77).

Inequalities in Nonincome Poverty

Developing Asia has also made considerable progress in bridging gender gaps in schooling as the difference in average years of schooling between young males and females declined from 0.5 year in 1990 to 0.2 year in 2010—with the overall trend still in favor of boys. Across developing economies, two-thirds or 20 of 29 economies had higher average years of schooling in 2010 for young females compared with their male counterparts, notably in Tajikistan, which had a gap of 1.6 years. Although many economies now have higher schooling years for females, the regional average is still slightly in favor of males—although this could be on account of populous economies such as Pakistan, where young males, on average, have 1.2 years more of schooling than young females.

The average year of total schooling for adults in developing Asia was about 6.6 years in 2010, with the gender gap in schooling in favor of males (7.7 years) over females (5.7 years). Afghanistan had the largest gender gap of 3.9 years in 2010 for adult schooling in favor of males, from 2.1 years in 1990.

Figure 2.5: Prevalence of Underweight Children under 5 Years of Age, Total, Urban, and Rural, Latest Year (%)



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

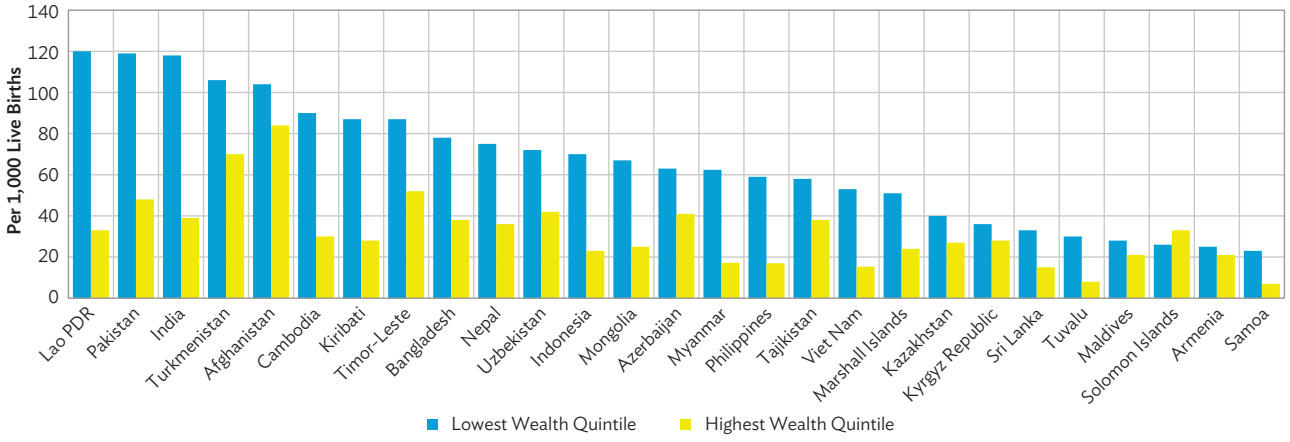
Click here for figure data

As earlier pointed out, the gender gap in schooling years for the youth has narrowed in developing Asia. Generally, data show that girls are less at risk to be underweight, but in some economies such as Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, the Philippines, and Solomon Islands, girls are slightly more likely to be underweight than boys.

Disparities due to wealth and rural–urban residence, which are generally observed in income poverty, are likewise observed in malnutrition. Latest data show that in practically all developing economies, a child born to a poor household is more at risk of being underweight than a child born to a rich household. In 21 of 29 economies of developing Asia, a child in the poorest quintile is at least twice as likely to be underweight as a child in the richest quintile. Relative risk ratios for malnutrition among children born to poor households (compared with counterparts among the rich) were highest in Azerbaijan (6.8), Viet Nam (6.6), Mongolia (5.6), and Armenia (5.3). As far as the rural–urban divide is concerned, it can be observed that 29 out of 33 economies of developing Asia for which data are available have a higher proportion of underweight children in rural areas than in urban areas. The largest rural–urban divide was found in the PRC (with a rural–urban ratio of 3.3), followed by Azerbaijan (3.1), Armenia (2.6), and Viet Nam (2.3).

Latest sex-disaggregated data on under-5 mortality rate for 46 economies of developing Asia (except in India) show that boys are at higher risk of death than girls. Household wealth is also a significant determinant of child survival, with children in the richest quintile having higher chances of reaching their fifth birthday than those in the poorest quintile in 26 out of 27 economies. In 16 of these economies, under-5 death rates were at least twice higher for children born to poor households than for their rich counterparts. These were more than three times higher in Tuvalu (3.8), the Lao PDR (3.6), Myanmar (3.6), the Philippines (3.5), and Viet Nam (3.5). Children born to families who reside in rural areas are similarly at a disadvantage, compared with those born to families living in urban areas. Available data suggest that children from rural households are twice as likely to die before reaching the age of 5 compared with children from urban households in Bhutan, Cambodia, the Lao PDR, Mongolia, and Samoa.

Figure 2.6: Under-5 Mortality Rate per 1,000 Live Births, Lowest and Highest Wealth Quintiles, Latest Year



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

Click here for figure data

Policy Pillar One: Growth and Expansion of Economic Opportunity

Economic Growth and Employment

The Indicators

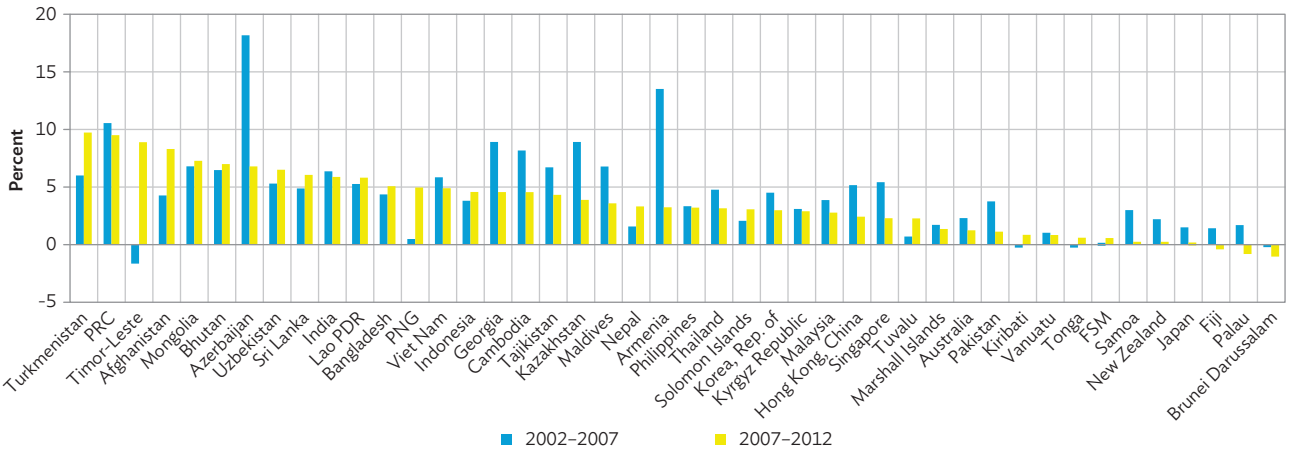
The economic growth and employment indicators are

- growth rate of gross domestic product (GDP) per capita, at purchasing power parity (PPP), in constant 2011 PPP$;
- growth rate of average per capita income or consumption, in 2005 PPP$ (lowest quintile, highest quintile, and total);
- employment-to-population ratio;
- GDP per person engaged, in constant 1990 PPP$; and
- number of own-account and contributing family workers per 100 wage and salaried workers.

Trends in Economies

GDP per capita can be viewed as an indicator of the standard of living (albeit an imperfect one as GDP is not, in reality, uniformly spread across a population). Economies with higher per capita GDP are considered as having a higher standard of living than those with a lower per capita GDP. Consequently, the growth rate of GDP per capita is considered a measure of aggregate economic growth. In 2007–2012, the average annualized growth rate of GDP per capita (constant 2011 PPP$) was 6.6% for 41 economies of developing Asia for which data are available. Despite the economic slowdown in recent years, the average growth in per capita GDP for 2007–2012 was positive in most Asian developing economies (38 out of 41) and in all of the developed economies—Australia (1.2%), Japan (0.2%), and New Zealand (0.2%) (Figure 2.7). Some of the developing economies that performed better than the regional average included Turkmenistan (9.7%), the People's Republic of China (PRC) (9.5%), Timor-Leste (8.9%), Afghanistan (8.3%), and Mongolia (7.3%), although some of this remarkable growth was due to base effects, i.e., low values in the base periods. Per capita growth was, however, slower in 24 developing economies during 2007–2012, compared with growth during 2002–2007. Likewise, in developed Asian economies, the growth in GDP per capita was lower at 0.4% during 2007–2012 compared with the 1.6% growth achieved during 2002–2007, reflecting the global slowdown in recent years.

Figure 2.7: Annualized Growth Rate of Gross Domestic Product per Capita at Constant 2011 PPP$



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.

Click here for figure data

In developing Asia, employment-to-population ratios for those aged 15 and over ranged between 35.9% (Fiji) and 91.6% (Nepal), while for the youth (15–24 years), the ratios ranged between 12.6% (Timor-Leste) and 72.1% (Nepal). Between 1991 and 2012, youth employment-to-population ratios in developing Asia declined by 14.4 percentage points, from 57.4% to 43.0%.

Gross domestic product per person engaged (1990 PPP$) measures labor productivity and thus determines GDP per capita given the employment-to-population ratio. Thus, growth in GDP per capita depends on growth in labor productivity. During 2000–2012, the five fastest growth rates in labor productivity—measured by annualized growth rate in GDP per person engaged—were experienced by Azerbaijan (11.0%), the PRC (10.2%), Armenia (8.5%), Myanmar (8.2%), and Tajikistan (6.2%).

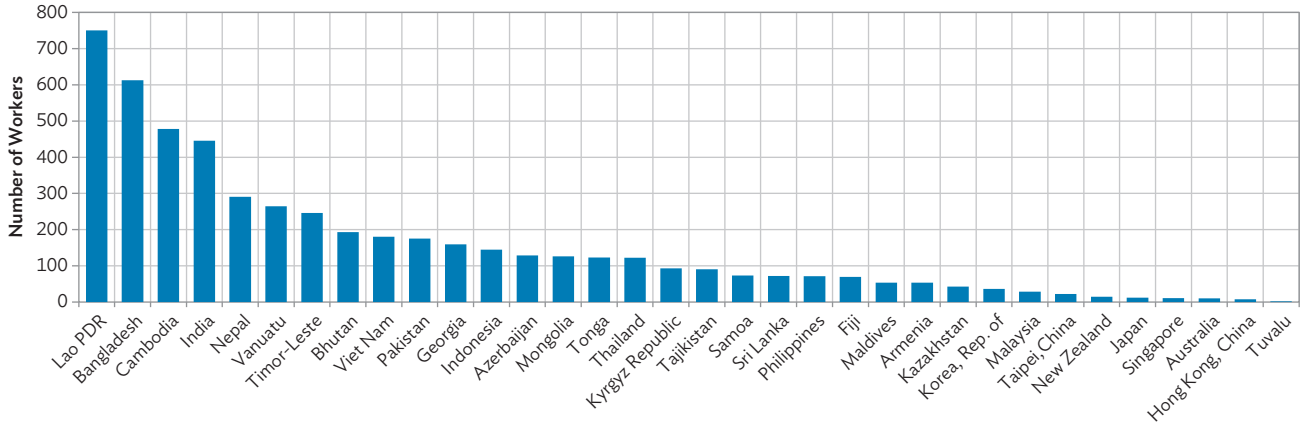
Growth in labor productivity during 2000–2005 was faster than growth during 2005–2012, i.e., growth decelerated in recent years in 16 of 27 economies, including Australia, Japan, and New Zealand. The fastest deceleration was in Armenia, dropping by 10.0 percentage points from a growth of 14.6% in 2000–2005 to 4.6% in 2005–2012. In contrast, growth accelerated in 10 economies (the fastest being in Turkmenistan) rising by 5.2 percentage points from a growth of 3.4% in 2000–2005 to 8.6% in 2005–2012.

During 1990–2012, vulnerable employment had slowly declined in the developing and developed economies of Asia. The drop in the number of vulnerable employment jobs was largest in Viet Nam, from 489 vulnerable jobs per 100 wage and salaried jobs in 1996, to 180 in 2012. Viet Nam achieved this by more than tripling its number of employees, from 5.9 million in 1996 to 17.9 million in 2012. However, a large share of the workforce in developing Asia is still employed in low-quality vulnerable jobs. The number of vulnerable workers per 100 wage and salaried workers was highest in the Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR) (751), followed by Bangladesh (613), Cambodia (478), and India (446) (Figure 2.8).

Inequalities in Growth and Employment

Latest data from household income or expenditure surveys show that fewer (eight out of 23) developing economies had shown higher growth in average per capita income or consumption for the highest income quintile than for the lowest income quintile, compared with earliest year data (14 out of 20

Figure 2.8: 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.

Click here for figure data

economies) (Table 2.3, Figure 2.9). These included the PRC, India, and Indonesia—the top three most populous economies. In the PRC and Indonesia, household income and consumption in the highest quintile outpaced the lowest-quintile growth in both urban and rural areas. In India, consumption within the richest segment also grew faster than that among the poor in urban areas; in rural areas, however, the growth of consumption in the lowest quintile was larger than that in the highest quintile.

Gender disparities can be observed in employment-to-population ratios in almost all economies of developing Asia. Ratios for adult males were more than twice the ratios for adult females in Pakistan (3.8), Bangladesh (3.1), India (2.9), Samoa (2.5), Sri Lanka (2.4), Fiji (2.1), and Timor-Leste (2.1). Employment-to-population ratios among the youth were also higher for males than for females in about three-quarters (26) of 35 developing economies of Asia and the Pacific, especially in Afghanistan (5.2), Pakistan (3.2), India (2.8), and Sri Lanka (2.1). Females tend to be engaged more in vulnerable employment than males in developing Asia, as across 31 economies where data are available, women constituted the bulk of own-account and contributing family workers. Meanwhile, in 21 of 31 developing economies, men dominated the wage and salaried jobs.

Key Infrastructure Endowments

The Indicators

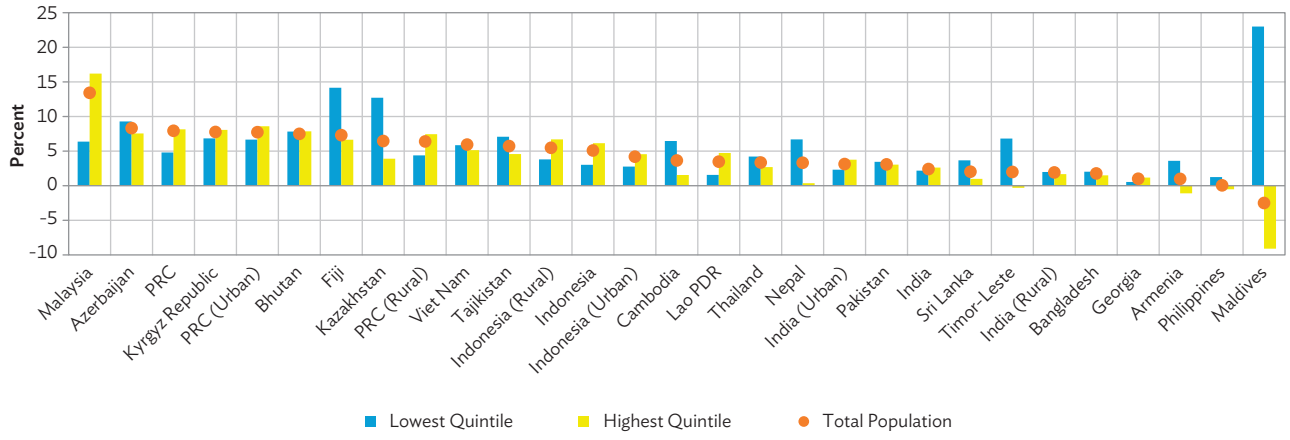
The four indicators of key infrastructure endowments included in the framework are

- per capita consumption of electricity,
- percentage of paved roads,
- number of mobile-cellular subscriptions per 100 people, and
- depositors with commercial banks per 1,000 adults.

Trends in Economies

Electricity is consumed by households and industries for final or intermediate consumption, making electricity a crucial element of economic growth. As activities in various sectors of an economy increase, the demand for electricity similarly increases. In developing Asia, the electricity consumption per capita had almost quadrupled from 500 kilowatt-hours (kWh) in 1990 to 1,883 kWh in 2011 (or nearest years) for which data are available (Table 2.4). During the same period, 34 out of 42 developing economies of Asia and the Pacific increased their electricity consumption per capita, most notably Cambodia by

Figure 2.9: 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.

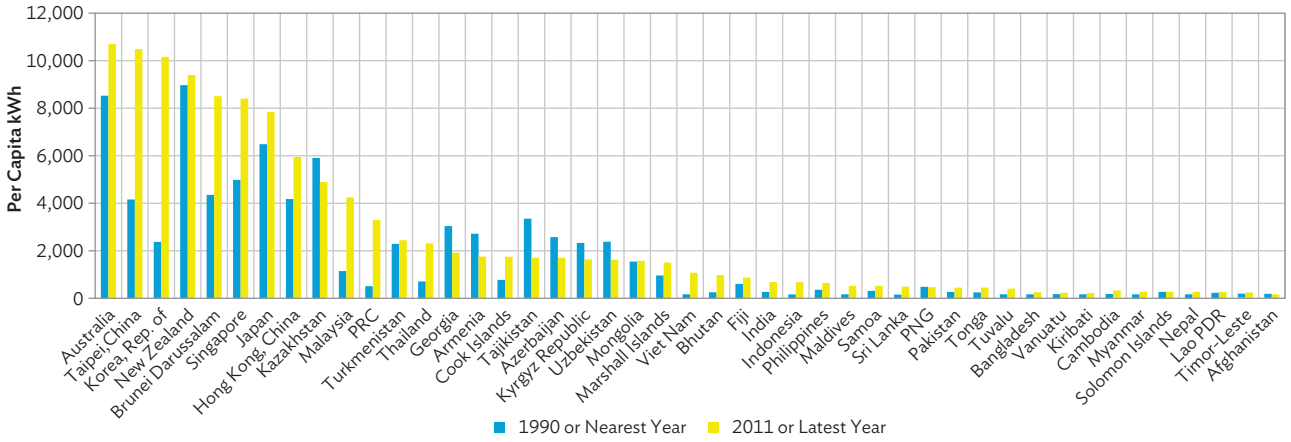
Click here for figure data

12.3 times; Viet Nam, 10.9 times; and the PRC, 6.5 times. In eight economies of developing Asia, electricity consumption per capita declined between 1990 and 2011 (or nearest years). Seven of them were Central and West Asian economies that transitioned into market economies, while the eighth was the Pacific island economy of Papua New Guinea. Electricity per capita consumption varied considerably in developing Asia, from a low of 38 kWh in Afghanistan to as high as 10,486 kWh in Taipei,China. For more than half (22) of the developing economies, per capita energy consumption in 2011 (or nearest year) was below 10% of the per capita consumption in Taipei,China. Among the five most populous economies of developing Asia, the PRC had the highest per capita consumption of 3,298 kWh, followed by India (684 kWh), Indonesia (680 kWh), Pakistan (449 kWh), and Bangladesh (259 kWh).

As regards roads, all roads are paved in Hong Kong, China as well as in Singapore and the Maldives. For 18 out of 37 developing economies, latest data for this indicator are prior to 2005; hence a more representative description cannot be reflected until more updated data are available.

Mobile-cellular subscriptions grew phenomenally in all economies of developing Asia from 2000 to 2013. The rates of increase in mobile-cellular subscriptions per 100 people varied, with the highest average rate of increase recorded in Tajikistan (92.2%) and the slowest increase in Taipei,China (3.5%) (Table 2.4). For 20 out of 45 economies of developing Asia, total subscriptions had even surpassed their population count in 2013 or latest year (Figure 2.11). Mobile-cellular penetration rates varied in 2013 among economies of developing Asia. The top three economies for subscriptions per 100 people were Hong Kong, China (239); Kazakhstan (181); and the Maldives (181), while the three economies with the lowest penetration rate of below 20 mobile-cellular subscriptions per 100 people were Kiribati (17), Myanmar (13), and the Marshall Islands (1).[2] The regional average rate of mobile-cellular penetration in Southeast Asia reached 113.7 subscriptions per 100 people, equivalent to the average of developed Asia. Except for the Lao PDR and Myanmar, all Southeast Asian economies had mobile-cellular subscriptions surpassing their population. In contrast, the Pacific had an average of 48.8 mobile-cellular subscriptions

Figure 2.10: Electricity Consumption (Per Capita kWh), 1990 and 2011 or Nearest Years



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

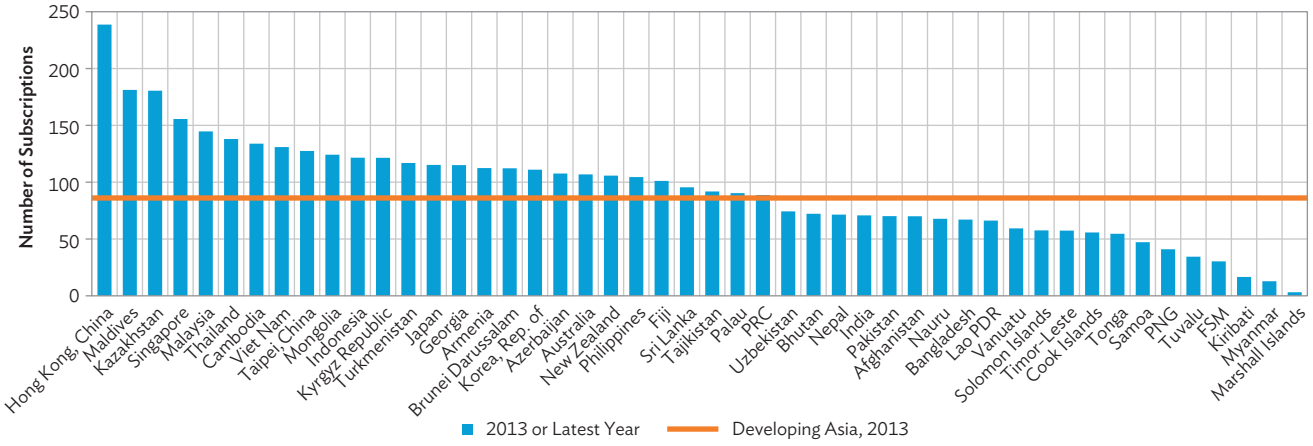
Click here for figure data

2 No updated data available for the Marshall Islands. Latest available data are for 2005.

per 100 people, with only Fiji having total subscription surpassing its population.

A key indicator for assessing how effective an economy is at building inclusive financial systems is the number of depositors with commercial banks. However, data on the actual numbers of depositors for some economies were not available, and in their place, the indicator on number of deposit accounts was used, which may have resulted in multiple counts of depositors. Out of 36 economies with data during 2004–2012, 30 had reported growth in the number of depositors with commercial banks per 1,000 adults (Figure 2.12). For 2012 (or latest year), 14 out of the 37 reporting economies had ratios more than 1,000, indicating that, on average, each adult had more than one deposit account in a commercial bank. These 14 economies were Japan (7,285); Taipei,China (5,188); the Republic of Korea (4,885); Mongolia (3,829); Malaysia (2,305); Singapore (2,181); Sri Lanka (1,892); Brunei Darussalam (1,857); Palau (1,473); the Maldives (1,272); Thailand (1,132); Kazakhstan (1,109); Fiji (1,060); and India (1,043). In contrast, for 2012 (or latest year), five economies had less than 200 depositors per 1,000 adults—Afghanistan (144), Cambodia (146), Kiribati (176), Myanmar (144), and the PRC (13).

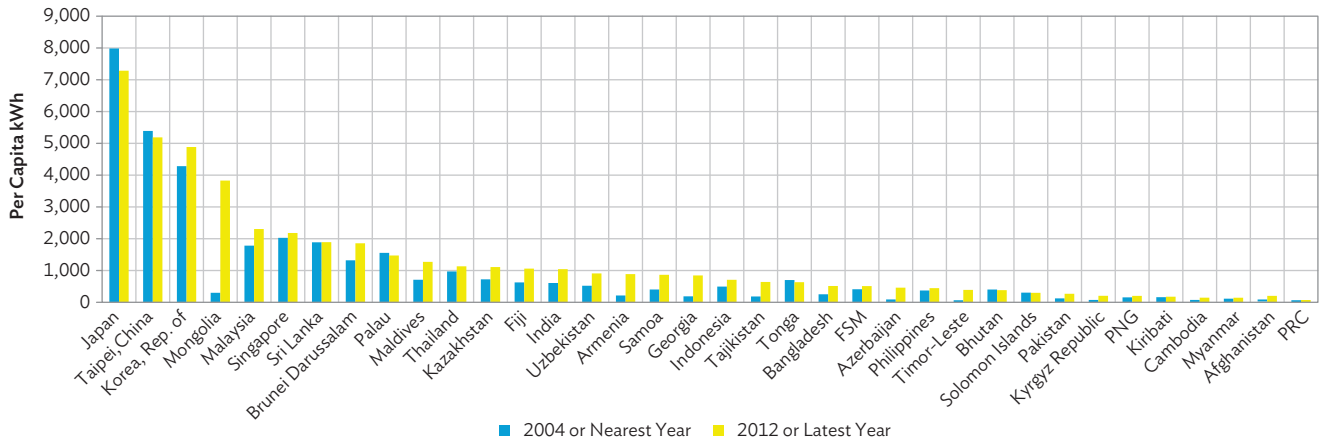
Figure 2.11: Number of Mobile-Cellular Subscriptions (Per 100 People), 2013 or Latest Year



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.

Click here for figure data

Figure 2.12: Depositors with Commercial Banks (Per 1,000 Adults), 2004 and 2012 or Nearest Years



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

Click here for figure data

Inequalities in Infrastructure Endowments

The physical and financial infrastructure is important in expanding access to opportunities, particularly for the poor and marginalized populations to be part of the growth process. Data on indicators of access and/or use of physical and financial infrastructure disaggregated by residence, sex, or wealth would be helpful in developing suitable policies and programs for enhancing infrastructure access for the disadvantaged segments of an economy's population. These disaggregated data, however, are still not available, and concerted efforts must be made by countries, together with the development community, to collect and compile quality data on various indicators of infrastructure. In the case of mobile-cellular subscribers, it would be important to have full registration of both postpaid and prepaid subscribers to discover the extent of actual access of the population to cellular phones, rather than the current counting of mobile-cellular subscriptions that may involve multiple counts for people with several subscriptions.

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

Access and Inputs to Education and Health

The Indicators

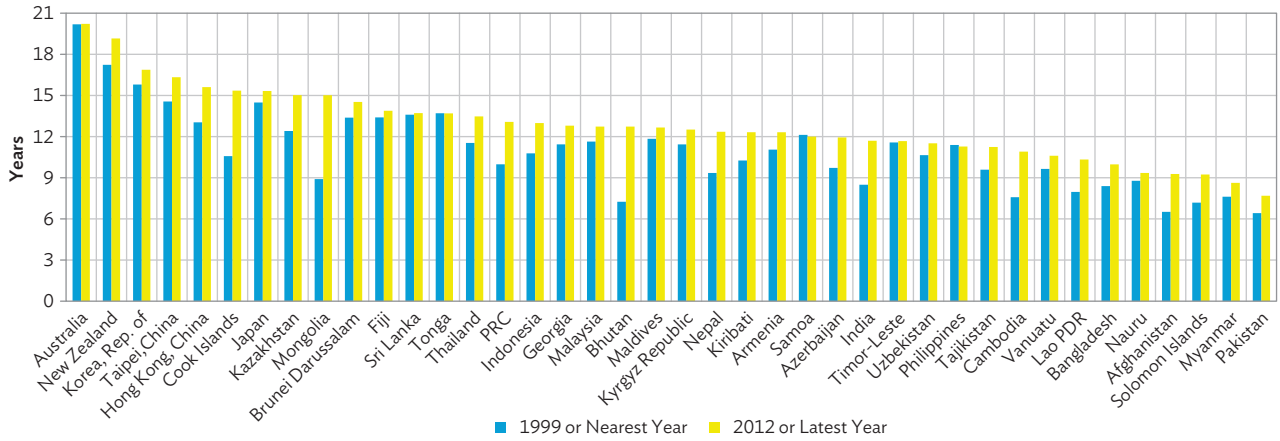
The indicators for monitoring access and inputs to education and health services are

- 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 represents the total number of years of schooling (from primary to tertiary) that a child expects to receive given current enrollment rates. Latest data show that developing Asia had an average school life expectancy of 11.9 years, with the Republic of Korea having the highest school life expectancy at 16.9 years (Table 2.5). The latter compares well with the aggregate performance in developed Asia (16.5 years). Following the Republic of Korea in terms of performance of this indicator are Taipei,China (16.3 years) and Hong Kong, China (15.6 years). In contrast, Pakistan (7.7 years), the economy with the lowest school life expectancy, had levels less than half of those of the top three performers. From 1999 to 2012 or nearest years, school life expectancy for developing Asia increased by 3.1 years, from 8.8 to 11.9 years, with 34 of 37 developing economies yielding increases, except for the Philippines, Samoa, and Tonga, where it remained almost at the level in 1999 (Figure 2.13). The increases in school life expectancy varied across developing Asia, with Mongolia achieving the highest absolute increase of 6.1 years, i.e., from 8.9 years in 1999 to 15.0 years in 2012; followed by Bhutan's increase of 5.5 years (from 7.2 years to 12.7 years); and the Cook Islands' improvement of 4.8 years (from 10.6 years to 15.4 years).

Figure 2.13: School Life Expectancy (Years), 1999 and 2012 or Nearest Years



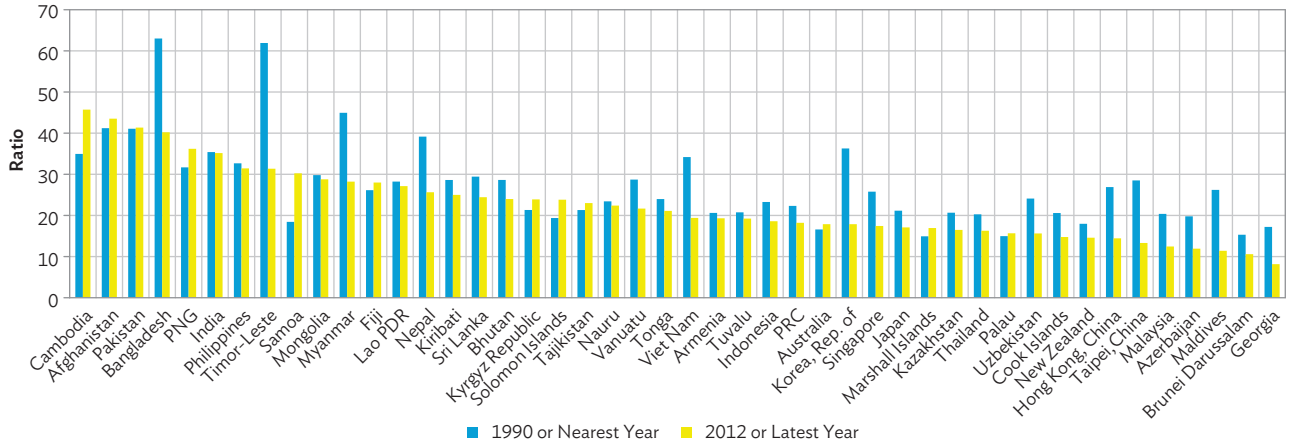
Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 2.5.

Click here for figure data

The pupil–teacher ratio at the primary school level is the ratio of the total number of students enrolled in primary school to the total number of primary school teachers. While this indicator actually describes school inputs in the primary education system, it also serves as a proxy indicator for education quality. In schools with crowded classrooms where the pupil–teacher ratio is high, it can be difficult for pupils to follow lessons and at the same time challenging for teachers to dedicate more time to the needs of all students. Low pupil–teacher ratios are thus desirable. Latest data show that nearly half (18) of the 41 developing economies of Asia and the Pacific had pupil–teacher ratios lower than 20, with Georgia having the lowest ratio of eight pupils for every teacher. Nine developing economies had pupil–teacher ratios of 30 or more, including Cambodia (46), Afghanistan (44), Pakistan (41), Bangladesh (40), Papua New Guinea (36), India (35), Timor-Leste (31), the Philippines (31), and Samoa (30) (Figure 2.14).

The pupil–teacher ratio in developing Asia improved slightly from 28 in 1990 to 25 in 2012.

Figure 2.14: Pupil–Teacher Ratio (Primary), 1990 and 2012 or Nearest Years



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

Click here for figure data

Across regions in developing Asia, East Asia (18) and Southeast Asia (21) had the lowest pupil–teacher ratios in 2012, while South Asia (35) and the Pacific (35) had the highest. From 2000 to latest year, all regions except Central and West Asia and the Pacific decreased their pupil–teacher ratios. Between 1990 (or nearest year) and 2012 (or latest year), pupil–teacher ratios decreased in 30 out of 40 developing economies. By more than doubling its workforce of primary school teachers, Bangladesh managed to yield the greatest reduction in the pupil–teacher ratio (from 63 in 1990 to 40 in 2011). Among the ten economies where the ratios either increased or remained the same between 1990 and 2012, Cambodia (11) and Samoa (12) recorded the largest absolute increases. The worsening of pupil–teacher ratios in these economies is largely attributed to the challenges of teacher recruitment not keeping pace with increased enrollments in primary schools.

The DTP3 immunization coverage among 1-year-olds measures access to immunization against these three diseases that threaten the health of infants. Latest data show that coverage rates ranged from 63% in Papua New Guinea; to 64% in Indonesia; and to 99% in the People's Republic of China (PRC), Fiji, Kazakhstan, the Republic of Korea, Malaysia, the Maldives, Mongolia, Sri Lanka, Thailand, and Uzbekistan (Table 2.5). From 1990 to 2012, the DTP3 immunization rates improved in three-quarters (32) of 42 economies of developing Asia. The average coverage rate in developing Asia increased slightly from 79% in 1990 to 84% in 2012, with the largest recorded improvements in Central and West Asia, where coverage rates increased, on average, from 59% in 1990 to 83% in 2012. From 1990 to 2012, DTP3 immunization coverage rates increased fourfold in the Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR), and at least doubled in Afghanistan, Cambodia, and Nepal. The coverage rate in 2012, however, was lower than the figures during the 1990s in 10 economies: Brunei Darussalam, Myanmar, and the Philippines in Southeast Asia; and Kiribati, the Marshall Islands, the Federated States of Micronesia, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Tuvalu, and Vanuatu in the Pacific.

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 services and interventions. For 2012 or latest year, there were, on average, 28 physicians, nurses, and midwives per 10,000 persons in developing Asia. Among regions in developing Asia, the highest coverage rates were in Central and West Asia (40.2), where three economies—Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, and Uzbekistan—had more than 100 physicians, nurses, and midwives per 10,000 persons. In contrast, four developing economies had less than 10 trained health personnel per 10,000 persons: Afghanistan (8.4), Bangladesh (5.7), Nepal (6.9), and Papua New Guinea (4.8). From 1990 or earliest year to latest year for which data are available, 28 out of 38 developing economies, including all economies of East Asia and South Asia, showed improvements in the indicator.

Governments of developing Asia spent more on education than on health, while developed economies of Asia spent more on health. In 2013 or latest year, more than a fifth of public expenditures were devoted to education in Fiji, India, the Kyrgyz Republic, Malaysia, Mongolia, Singapore, and Vanuatu. Developing economies that allocated more than 10% of the total government expenditure to health included Cambodia; the Cook Islands; Fiji; Hong Kong, China; Kiribati; the Kyrgyz Republic; Samoa; and Vanuatu. Note that the public expenditures for most of the economies reported here refer to those of the central government, except for Australia, Bangladesh (prior to 1997), Georgia, Japan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Pakistan, and Tajikistan, where data refer to that of the commonwealth consolidated government, or general government.

Inequalities in Access and Inputs to Education and Health

As noted earlier, there is a trend toward gender parity in education outcomes. Even in access to education, as measured by expected number of years of schooling, gender disparities have narrowed in almost all economies of developing Asia. From 1999 to 2012, the gap between male and female expected years of schooling was reduced from 1.1 years to 0.3 year. Latest data (for 2012 or nearest years) show that in 19 out of 36 developing economies across Asia and the Pacific, school life expectancy was even higher for females. The biggest gender gaps in expected schooling years are still in favor of males, and these were observed in Afghanistan (4.1 years), the Republic of Korea (1.7 years), Tajikistan (1.5 years), and Pakistan (1.4 years); whereas reversed gender gaps (in favor of females) were highest in Armenia (2.4 years). Since opportunities must be available to all regardless of sex, there should also be some policy attention in economies where males are at a disadvantage.

In most economies of developing Asia, except in Papua New Guinea and Samoa, there appear to be no gender disparities in DTP3 immunization coverage. Rural–urban and wealth disparities though are observable in immunization: essential DTP3 immunization is more likely to be unavailable for children born in rural areas and those from poor households, compared with their counterparts in urban areas or from rich households. Children residing in urban areas in two-thirds (21) of the 32 economies had an advantage over children residing in rural areas, with immunization coverage rates in urban areas more than three times as high as those in rural areas in the Marshall Islands (3.2). Children born to rich families were more than twice as likely to be immunized as those from poor families, particularly in Pakistan (2.9), Azerbaijan (2.7), India (2.4), and the Lao PDR (2.2).

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

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

Click here for figure data

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 households using solid fuels for cooking,
- proportion of population using an improved drinking water source, and
- proportion of population using improved sanitation facilities.

Trends in Economies

In this age, access to electricity and clean fuels for cooking (e.g., fuels and stoves that do not cause air pollution) is recognized to be crucial for human well-being, poverty reduction, social inclusion, and economic improvement. Data for 2011 (or latest year) show that populations in seven economies of developing Asia had at least 95% electricity coverage—Singapore (100%); the PRC (99.8%); Brunei Darussalam (99.7%); Malaysia (99.5%); Taipei,China (99.0%); Thailand (99.0%); and Viet Nam (96.1%) (Table 2.6). At the opposite extreme, less than half of the population in Afghanistan (30.0%), Cambodia (34.0%), Timor-Leste (38.0%), and Myanmar (48.8%) had access to electricity. All developing economies either improved or retained their coverage from 2008 to 2011, except for the Philippines and Thailand, whose populations experienced slightly reduced access to electricity.

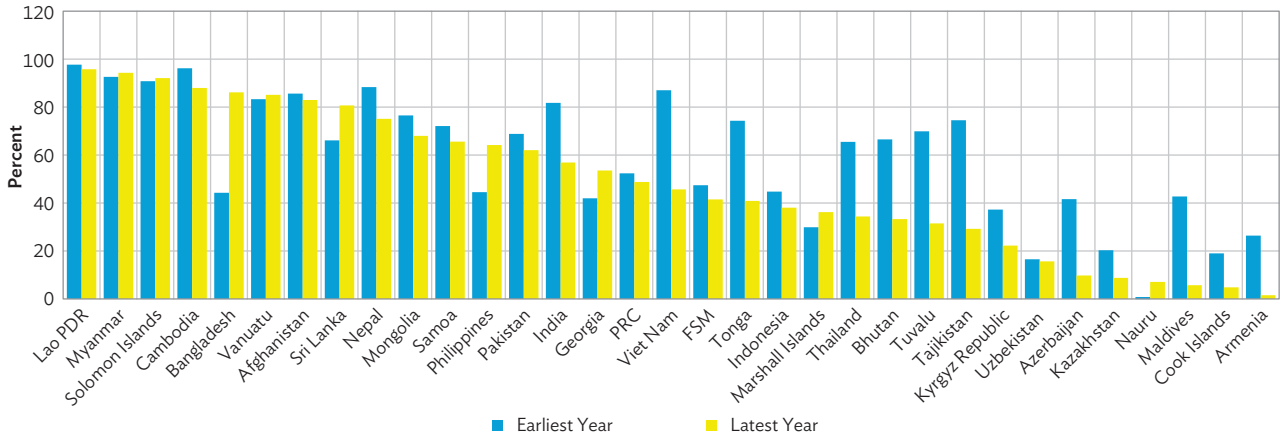
Latest data from the International Energy Agency suggest that 18% of the world's population, or nearly 1.3 billion people, had no access to electricity, and slightly more than twice these figures (38% of the global population or about 2.6 billion people) lacked clean cooking facilities.[3] The use of solid fuels for cooking—typically traditional biomass such as wood, agricultural residues, dung, charcoal, and coal—increases the risk not only of exposure to indoor air pollution but also of the incidence of lung-related illnesses and deaths. Latest data show that in 17 out of 36 developing economies of Asia and the Pacific, more than 50% of households used solid fuels as the main cooking fuel. In some economies, such as the Lao PDR (96%), Myanmar (94%), Solomon Islands (92%), and Timor-Leste (95%), at least 90% of households depended on solid fuels (Figure 2.16).

Safe drinking water is important for health, welfare, and prosperity. Latest data (for 2012) from the World Health Organization and United Nations Children's Fund show that access to safe drinking water in developing Asia is estimated at 91%, an increase of 21 percentage points from 70% in 1990.[4] This improvement is on account of a 25.3 percentage point increase in East Asia, followed by improvements as well in South Asia (21.8 percentage points) and Southeast Asia (18.0 percentage points), which had brought access to safe drinking water in these regions to practically 90% of the population or beyond. Globally, and in developing Asia in particular, the Millennium Development Goal target to halve, by 2015, the proportion of the population without sustainable access to safe drinking water was met 5 years ahead of schedule. Despite this success, more than a quarter of the populations in eight economies still did not have access to safe drinking water, most notable of which was Papua New Guinea, where only 40% of the population had access to safe drinking water (Figure 2.17). Economies with less than three-quarters of the population with access to safe drinking water included Afghanistan (64%), Cambodia (71%), Kiribati (67%), the Lao PDR (72%), Tajikistan (72%), Timor-Leste (70%), and Turkmenistan (71%).

3 IEA. 2013. *World Energy Outlook 2013 Edition*. Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development and International Energy Agency.

4 WHO and UNICEF. 2014. *Joint Monitoring Report for Water Supply and Sanitation: Progress on Sanitation and Drinking Water: 2014 Update*. New York.

Figure 2.16: Share of Households Using Solid Fuels for Cooking, Earliest and Latest Years (%)



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

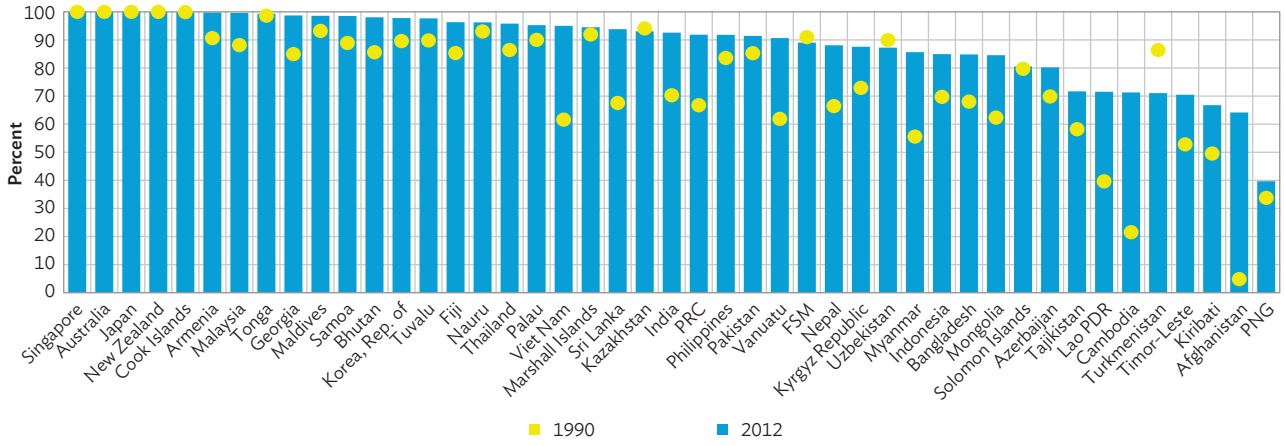
Click here for figure data

Aside from safe drinking water, basic sanitation is likewise crucial for health. In 2012, access to safe sanitation facilities was estimated at 56% in developing Asia—double the levels (of 28%) in 1990. Trends suggest, however, that developing Asia is not on track to meet the Millennium Development Goal target for halving the proportion of the population without sustainable access to basic sanitation. Latest data show that access to improved sanitation was below 50%, particularly in Afghanistan (29%), Bhutan (47%), Cambodia (37%), India (36%), Kiribati (40%), Nepal (37%), Pakistan (48%), Papua New Guinea (19%), Solomon Islands (29%), and Timor-Leste (39%).

Inequalities in Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services

Rural–urban disparities in access to electricity by population are observable across all developing economies except for those where access rates are nearly 100%. Latest data for 2011 show that seven economies led by Cambodia (5.3) had ratios of urban-to-rural access rates of at least 1.5 or more, including Timor-Leste (4.1), Myanmar (3.0), Afghanistan (2.6), Bangladesh (1.9), the Philippines (1.7), Mongolia (1.5), and Pakistan (1.5). In all developing economies, a larger share of the rural households depended on solid fuels for cooking compared with

Figure 2.17: Proportion of Population Using an Improved Drinking Water Source, 1990 and 2012



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

Click here for figure data

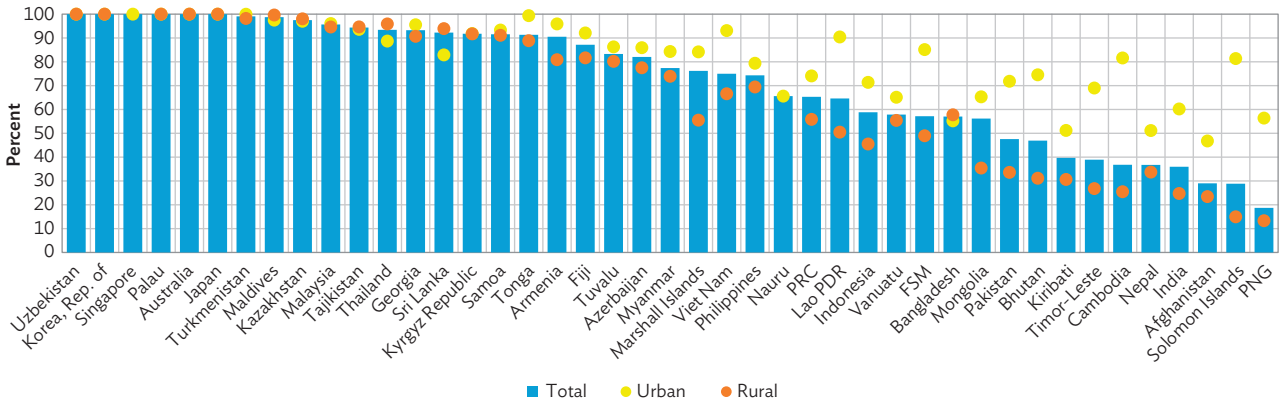
the corresponding proportion in urban households. In 2011 or latest year, at least 90% of the rural households depended on solid fuels for cooking in a third (11) of 32 economies of developing Asia, notably in Bangladesh (98.2%), Cambodia (96.1%), the Lao PDR (99.3%), Myanmar (99.0%), Solomon Islands (96.8%), and Timor-Leste (99.1%).

Across developing economies, households in the lowest wealth quintile substantially used solid fuels for cooking, compared with those in the highest wealth quintile. Out of 28 developing economies, 17 had more than 90% of their household population belonging to the bottom wealth quintile that used solid fuels for cooking, notably in Bhutan and Georgia, where 99.9% and 99.2% of the poor households depended on solid fuels for cooking, respectively, compared with 0.2% and 0%, respectively, among wealthy households.

The rural–urban gap had considerably narrowed in developing Asia with regard to access to improved drinking water sources. In 1990, access in rural areas was 61%, while that in urban areas was 93%. By 2012, the proportion of the rural population with access to improved drinking water sources had risen by 26 percentage points to 87%, while in urban areas, the indicator rose by 4 percentage points to 97%. Thus, a 31.5 percentage point rural–urban gap in 1990 had gone down to a 9.9 percentage point rural–urban gap by the end of 2012. Thirteen out of 42 developing economies improved their access to drinking water sources in rural areas by at least 25 percentage points, notably Afghanistan (53), Cambodia (46), Mongolia (35), Myanmar (33), Vanuatu (33), and Viet Nam (40).

The rural–urban gap in access to improved sanitation facilities across developing Asia likewise improved, but not as much as that for drinking water sources. Between 1990 and 2012, access to improved sanitation facilities increased by 27 percentage points in rural areas from 17% to 44%, while in urban areas, access went up by 15 percentage points from 57% to 72%. Most developing economies, though, continued to have rural–urban disparities, with three-quarters (30) of 41 developing economies continuing to exhibit disparities in access between urban and rural areas. In developing Asia, 28% of the urban population and 56% of the rural population did not have access to improved sanitation in 2012. The ratio of urban-to-rural access rates to improved sanitation was 3.0 or higher in Solomon Islands (5.4), Papua New Guinea (4.2), and Cambodia (3.2).

Figure 2.18: Proportion of Population Using an Improved Sanitation Facility, Total, Urban, and Rural, 2012



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PNG = Papua New Guinea, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Note: Nauru and Singapore are 100% Urban.
Source: Table 2.6.

Click here for figure data

Gender Equality and Opportunity

The Indicators

The gender equality and opportunity indicators included the framework are

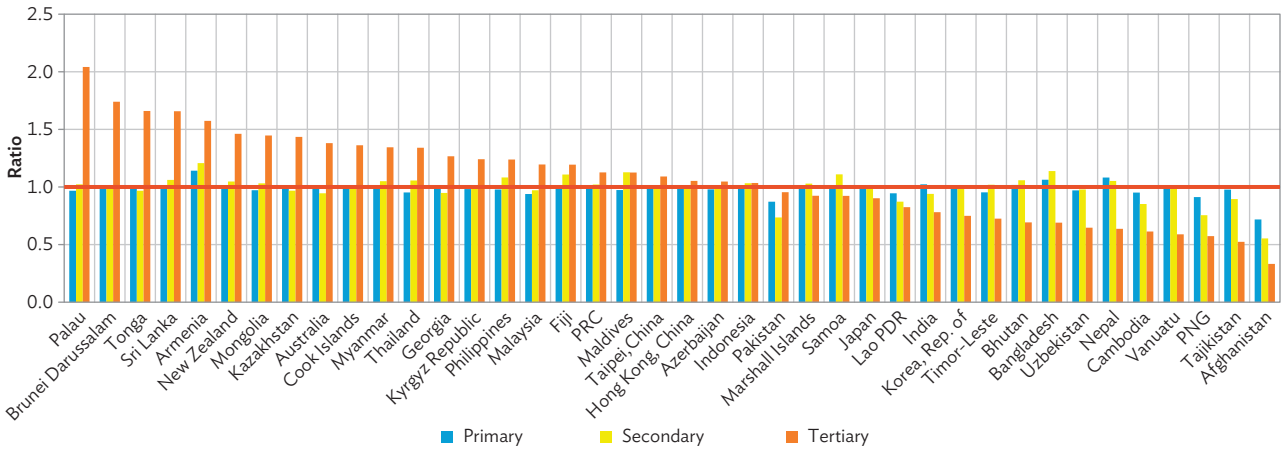
- gender parity in primary, secondary, and tertiary education;
- antenatal care coverage (at least one visit and at least four visits);
- gender parity in labor force participation; and
- percentage of seats held by women in national parliament.

Trends in Economies

Gender parity in education, as measured by the ratio of gross enrollment of females to gross enrollment of males at each level of education, indicates the extent of equality in participation of both sexes at each educational level. A gender parity value below 1.00 suggests that the proportion of girls enrolled is lower than the corresponding proportion for boys. Historical data from 1991 to 2012 show that developing Asia had remarkably narrowed the gender gap across all levels of education, from primary (from 0.86 to 0.99), to secondary (from 0.72 to 0.97), and to tertiary (from 0.64 to 0.96). By 2012 (or latest year), gender parity ratios below 0.95 in primary education were observed in only four out of 43 developing economies: Afghanistan (0.72), Malaysia (0.94), Pakistan (0.87), and Papua New Guinea (0.91) (Figure 2.19). It should be noted that Armenia (1.14), Bangladesh (1.06), and Nepal (1.08) reported gender parity ratios greater than 1.05, which should be the subject of policy examination since both sexes should actually be given equal opportunities. As regards secondary education, out of 42 developing economies, 34 had gender parity ratios of 0.95 or more in 2012 or latest year. Twelve of these 34 economies actually had gender disparities in favor of girls, with ratios greater than 1.05. As stated, there may be a need to examine this phenomenon of reversed gender advantages for females, since gender parity means that both males and females are provided equal opportunities. Afghanistan had the lowest gender parity ratio in secondary education of 0.55, followed by Pakistan (0.74), Papua New Guinea (0.76), and Cambodia (0.85). Although latest data for 2012 show that gender parity in tertiary education for developing Asia was 0.96, 15 out of 38 developing economies had ratios below 0.95 for the tertiary level, while 18 economies, including the PRC (1.13), had ratios greater than 1.05 (that were favorable to women).

As regards gender parity ratio in labor force participation, the ratio for developing Asia had

Figure 2.19: Gender Parity in Primary, Secondary, and Tertiary Education, 2012 or Latest Year



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

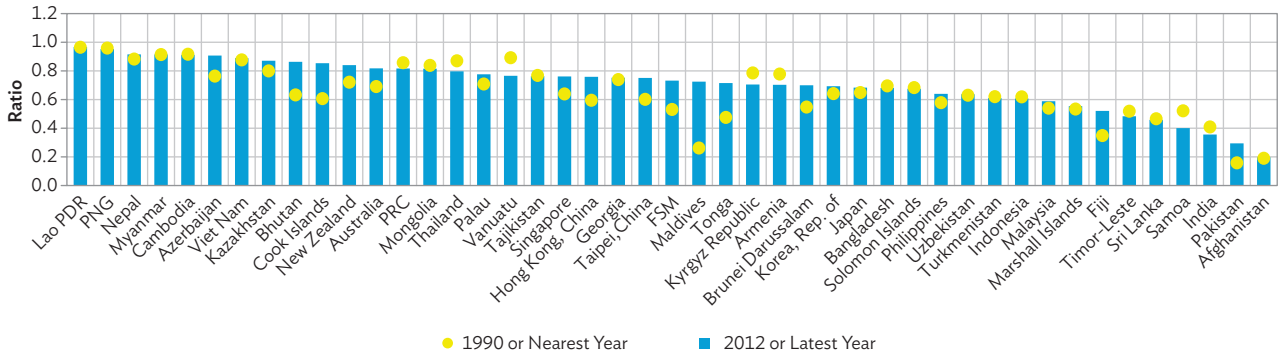
Click here for figure data

actually declined from 0.67 in 1990 to 0.62 in 2012, indicating that the trends toward gender parity in all levels of education had not resulted in increased participation of women in the labor force, which should suggest some policy action. In 2012 (or latest available year), the Lao PDR had the highest ratio of 0.97, followed by Papua New Guinea (0.95), Nepal (0.92), Myanmar (0.91), Cambodia (0.91), and Azerbaijan (0.91) (Figure 2.20). In most of these economies, women are more prone to vulnerable employment. Six developing economies of Asia and the Pacific had gender parity ratios of 0.50 or less, notably Afghanistan (0.20), Pakistan (0.29), and India (0.36).

developing economies, women occupied at least 20% of parliamentary seats. Seventeen of the 42 developing economies of developing Asia had less than 10.0% women parliamentarians, notably in the Pacific economies of Solomon Islands (2.0%), Papua New Guinea (2.7%), the Marshall Islands (3.0%), the Federated States of Micronesia (0.0%), Palau (0.0%), and Vanuatu (0.0%).

Antenatal care coverage is an indicator for access and health care delivery for pregnant women. The World Health Organization recommends a minimum of four antenatal visits for effective health interventions for pregnant women. Latest estimates

Figure 2.20: Gender Parity in Labor Force Participation, Aged 15 and over, 1990 and 2012 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.

Click here for figure data

Representation of women has been slowly increasing in national parliaments, with about 19.4% of parliamentary seats occupied by women. This is a modest increase of 5 percentage points from 14.6% in 1990 (Table 2.7). Among the developing economies of Asia and the Pacific, Afghanistan had the largest increase in share of women parliamentarians of 24.0 percentage points from 3.7% in 1990 to 27.7% in 2014, followed by Nepal (23.8 percentage points) and the Kyrgyz Republic (21.9 percentage points). In contrast, Armenia had the largest drop in the share of women parliamentarians, from 35.6% in 1990 to 10.7% in 2014. The top three economies of developing Asia with the highest share of women in national parliaments were Timor-Leste (38.5%), Nepal (29.9%), and Afghanistan (27.7%). In 11 other

show that only about 47.0% of pregnant women in developing Asia had at least four antenatal care visits.

Out of 32 developing economies, only four had coverage rates above 90.0%—Armenia (92.8%), Georgia (90.2%), Sri Lanka (92.5%), and Thailand (93.4%). In contrast, seven economies had coverage rates below 50.0%—Afghanistan (14.6%), Bangladesh (25.5%), Pakistan (36.6%), the Lao PDR (36.9%), India (37.0%), Nauru (40.2%), and Azerbaijan (45.2%).

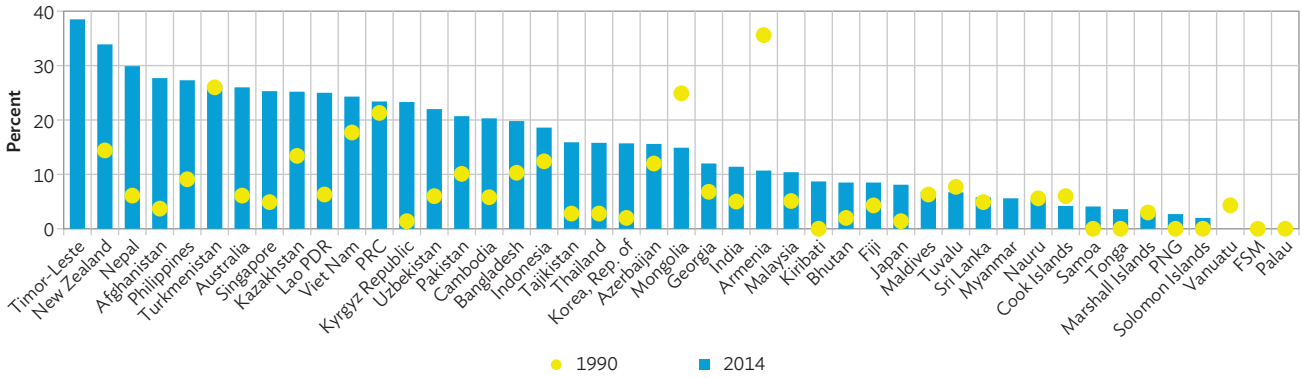
For recent years, developing Asia had an estimated coverage of 81.8% on at least one antenatal care visit. In addition, latest data show that in 25 out of 42 economies of developing Asia, more than 90.0% of pregnant women had at least one antenatal care visit,

compared with 10 out of 34 during 1991 (or earliest year). Among the five most populous economies of developing Asia, Indonesia had the highest coverage with 95.7%, followed by the PRC (93.7%), India (74.2%), Pakistan (73.1%), and Bangladesh (54.6%). Only in Afghanistan (47.9%) was coverage below 50.0%. The greatest increase in coverage was in Cambodia (54.8 percentage points) from 34.3% in 1998 to 89.1% in 2010, followed by Pakistan (48 percentage points), Bhutan (46 percentage points), and Nepal (43 percentage points).

Inequality in Access to Antenatal Care

As in many inclusive growth indicators, rural–urban disparities in antenatal care coverage exist, also on account of household wealth. Generally, the rural–urban divide is less pronounced in economies with high coverage rates. The rural–urban disparity in antenatal care coverage of at least four visits was quite evident in six economies, with the urban-to-rural ratio at 3.1 for Afghanistan, 2.6 for the Lao PDR, 2.4 for Pakistan, 2.3 for both India and Bangladesh, and 2.0 for Azerbaijan. Disparities in antenatal care on account of household wealth were quite evident. The coverage rate for at least four antenatal care visits in the top wealth quintile was at least three times that in the bottom quintile, i.e., in the Lao PDR where access of the wealthy was 9.1 times that of the poor; and in India with a corresponding figure of 6.4 times; Pakistan, 6.3; Bangladesh, 5.7; Afghanistan, 5.6; Azerbaijan, 3.7; and Viet Nam, 3.3.

Figure 2.21: Percentage of Seats Held by Women in National Parliament, 1990, 2014, 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.

Click here for figure data

Policy Pillar Three: Social Safety Nets

The Indicators

The indicators on social safety nets under policy pillar three discussed in the framework

- 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 among the 17 indicators compiled by the Asian Development Bank (ADB) for its annual country performance assessment

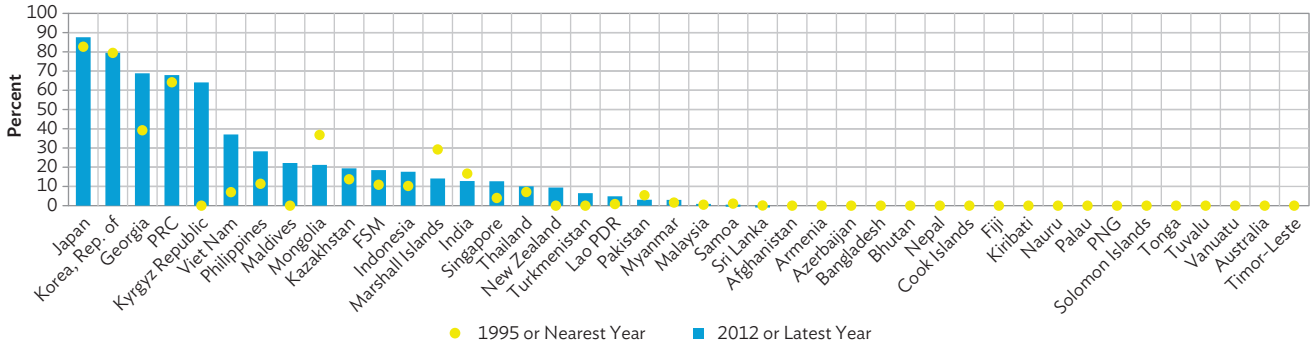
exercise.[5] This rating, ranging from a value of 1 (*very weak performance*) to 6 (*very strong performance*), assesses government policies that help reduce the risk of becoming poor, help the poor to manage risks better, and ensure a minimal level of welfare to all people. Policies and programs under social protection and labor market regulations include social safety net programs, pension and old-age savings programs, protection of basic labor standards, and labor market regulation. For 2013, ratings are available for 32 economies of developing Asia, ranging from a low of 2.5 in two economies (Afghanistan and Solomon Islands) to as high as 4.5 in eight economies (Armenia, Bhutan, the Cook Islands, Georgia, the Kyrgyz Republic, Mongolia, Uzbekistan, and Viet Nam). Ten developing economies had maintained their ratings in 2005; one economy (Samoa) had a lower rating in 2013 compared with that in 2005; while 21 economies posted higher ratings.

Social security expenditure on health as a percentage of government expenditure on health (including external donor funding), a core indicator of health financing systems, refers to the health expenditures by government social security schemes, and compulsory health insurance schemes as a percentage of total government expenditure on health. This indicator slightly increased from 44.7% in 1995 to 46.9% in 2000, and further increased to 58.3% in 2012 across developing Asia. In 2012, the share of public health expenditures on social security, in relation to total government expenditure on health, were highest in Japan at 87.6%, followed by the Republic of Korea (79.5%), Georgia (68.8%), the PRC (67.9%), and the Kyrgyz Republic (64.1%) (Figure 2.22). Thirty out of 38 developing economies had percentages below 20% in 2012, 23 of which were even below 5.0%. From 1995 to 2012, the Kyrgyz Republic had the biggest increase of 64.1 percentage points in its share of social security spending on health, in proportion to public expenditure on health, followed by Viet Nam with an increase of 30 percentage points. India, the Marshall Islands, Mongolia, Pakistan, and Samoa showed declines in the indicator.

Government expenditures on social security and welfare comprise benefits in cash or in kind to persons who are sick, fully or partially disabled, of old age, survivors, or unemployed, among others. In 1995–2013, the share of government spending on social security and welfare as a share of total government expenditure increased in 21 of the 26 reporting economies of developing Asia, with the highest increase of 22.9 percentage points in Armenia (Figure 2.23 and Table 2.8). In 2013 (or latest year), a third (9) of the 28 reporting developing economies—Bhutan, Brunei Darussalam, Fiji, Kiribati, Malaysia, Nepal, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, and Vanuatu—had spent at most 5.0% of total public expenditure on social security and welfare. Spending shares on social security and welfare are observed to be generally higher in Central and West Asia and East Asia compared with the below-10.0% shares in economies of South Asia except for the Maldives (14.7%), Southeast Asia except for Singapore (12.2%), and the Pacific except for Timor-Leste (12.2%). Note that data for most reporting economies refer to central government only—except for Australia, Georgia, Japan, the Kyrgyz Republic, and Tajikistan, where data refer to commonwealth, consolidated, or general government; and some may be for years before 2013.

5 The country performance assessment exercise evaluates 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 provide 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 (http://www.adb.org/site/adf/country-performance-assessment). The IDA guidelines and questionnaire used for the country policy and institutional assessment are available online (http://go.worldbank.org/EEAIU81ZG0).

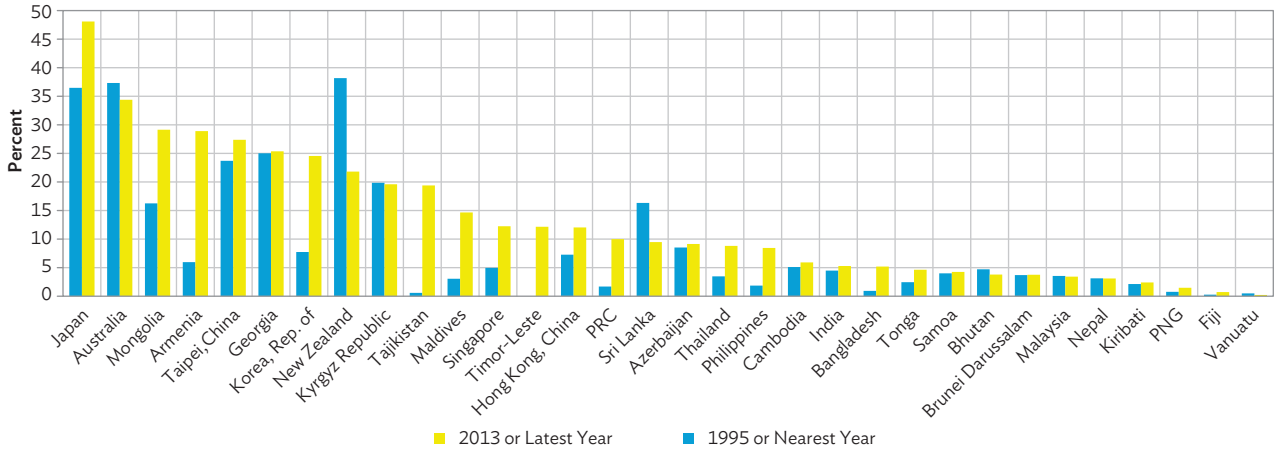
Figure 2.22: Social Security Expenditure on Health
(Percentage of Government Expenditure on Health), 1995 and 2012 or Nearest Years



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

Click here for figure data

Figure 2.23: Government Expenditure on Social Security and Welfare
(Percentage of Total Government Expenditure), 1995 and 2013 or Nearest Years



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

Click here for figure data

Good Governance and Institutions

The Indicators

Good governance and institutions have become an area of policy research and discussions in recognition of their critical importance to poverty reduction as well as to economic growth and development. Three indicators are included in this group:

- voice and accountability,
- government effectiveness, and
- control of corruption.

The indicators discussed in this FIGI are three of the six broad dimensions of the World Bank's Worldwide Governance Indicators (WGI).[6] The ratings are based on perceptions of stakeholders worldwide and therefore should be examined with caution.[7]

6 The Worldwide Governance Indicators reports on six broad dimensions of governance for over 200 countries for 1996–2012: (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.

7 For details on methodology, data sources, interpretation, etc., refer to Kaufmann, D., A. Kraay, and M. Mastruzzi. 2010. The Worldwide Governance Indicators: Methodology and Analytical Issues. *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper*. No. 5430. http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=1682130; and World Bank. Worldwide Governance Indicators. http://info.worldbank.org/governance/wgi/index.asp (accessed 12 March 2014).

Typically, scores do not change dramatically. Comparisons of point estimates need to take into account associated standard errors and confidence intervals, along with changes in the sources of data over time. The scores for these indicators are in standard normal WGI units, that is, with a global average of 0 and standard deviation of 1 in every period. Thus, practically all scores of the indicators are expected within the range –2.5 and +2.5, where higher values are viewed as better performance in governance.

Governance Ratings in Economies

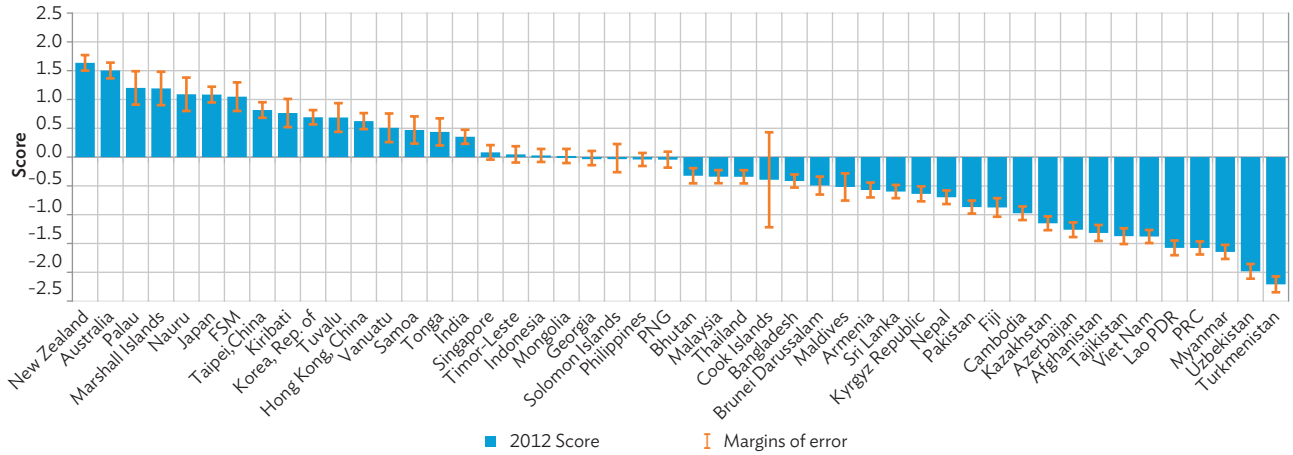
In 2012, more than half (28) of the 48 ADB member economies in Asia and the Pacific had scores lower than 0 for the indicator on voice and accountability, while two-thirds of the economies had scores lower than 0 for the other two indicators on government effectiveness and control of corruption. Developing economies that always scored less than –1 for all indicators included Afghanistan, Myanmar, and Turkmenistan; while those with scores greater than 1 for all three indicators were the three developed economies of Australia, Japan, and New Zealand. The Pacific economies of the Marshall Islands, the Federated States of Micronesia, Nauru, and Palau were perceived to be relatively strong on voice and accountability among economies of developing Asia. Singapore and Hong Kong, China were viewed to be strong on both government effectiveness and control of corruption.

The first indicator, voice and accountability, accounts for various aspects of the political process, civil liberties, and political rights. It 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 2012, the top five scores of the voice and accountability indicator belonged to New Zealand (1.6), Australia (1.5), Palau (1.2), the Marshall Islands (1.2), and Nauru (1.1) (Figure 2.24). Economies at the other end of the spectrum for the distribution of scores on voice and accountability included the People's Republic of China (–1.6), the Lao People's Democratic Republic (–1.6), Myanmar (–1.6), Uzbekistan (–2.0), and Turkmenistan (–2.2).

The second indicator, government effectiveness, captures perceptions of the quality of public service provision, quality of the bureaucracy, degree of insulation of the civil service from political pressures, as well as quality of policy formulation and credibility of government commitment to such policies. In 2012, 33 out of 48 economies of Asia and the Pacific had a score less than the global average of 0.0 (Figure 2.25). The top ranking economies for this indicator were Singapore (2.2); Hong Kong, China (1.8); New Zealand (1.8); Australia (1.6); Japan (1.4); the Republic of Korea (1.2); Taipei,China (1.1); Malaysia (1.0); Brunei Darussalam (0.8); and Georgia (0.6). Government effectiveness was perceived to be poorest in the Marshall Islands (–1.6), Myanmar (–1.5), Afghanistan (–1.4), Turkmenistan (–1.3), and Timor-Leste (–1.2).

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 2012, the scores of 33 out of 48 economies of Asia and the Pacific for this indicator were below the global average of 0.0. The economies that were perceived to have most effectively controlled corruption included New Zealand (2.3); Singapore (2.2); Australia (2.0); Hong Kong, China (1.7); and Japan (1.6)—which are generally the economies viewed to rate best in government effectiveness. In developing Asia, the control of corruption was viewed as weakest in Afghanistan (–1.4), Turkmenistan (–1.3), Uzbekistan (–1.2), Tajikistan (–1.2), the Kyrgyz Republic (–1.1), Azerbaijan (–1.1), and Pakistan (-1.1) in Central and West Asia; as well as in Myanmar (–1.1) in Southeast Asia.

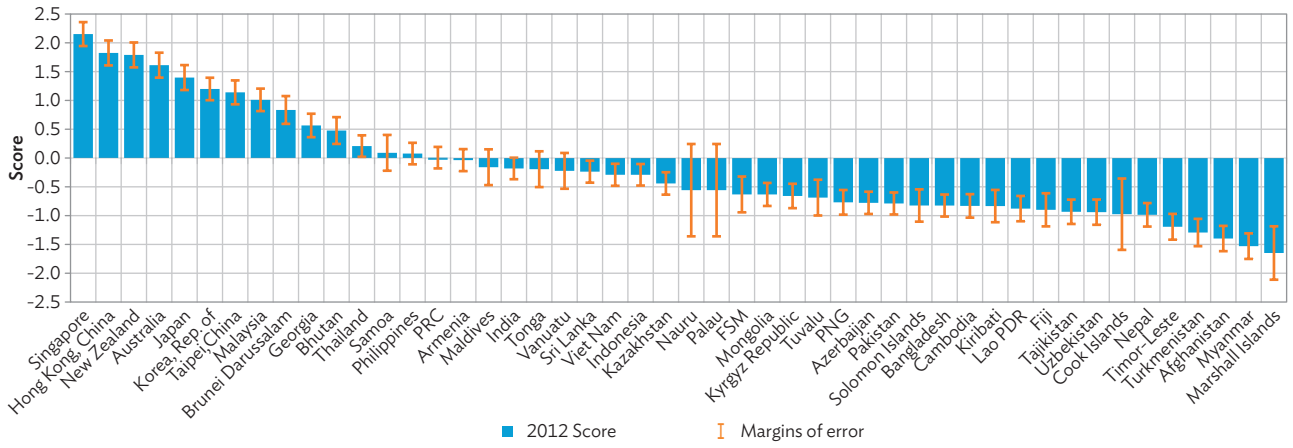
Figure 2.24: Voice and Accountability, 2012



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

Click here for figure data

Figure 2.25: Government Effectiveness, 2012



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

Click here for figure data

Figure 2.26: Control of Corruption, 2012

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

Click here for figure data

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	...		...		...		36.0	(2008)	37.5		29.0	
Armenia	48.3	(2001)	47.9		48.5		32.4	(2012)	32.1		32.5	
Azerbaijan	49.6	(2001)	42.5		55.7		6.0	(2012)	...		...	
Georgia [c]	24.6	(2004)	26.2		23.0		22.4	(2012)	27.0		17.5	
Kazakhstan	46.7	(2001)	59.4		36.0		2.9	(2013)	4.9		1.3	
Kyrgyz Republic	56.4	(2001)	62.3		45.4		38.0	(2012)	39.6		35.4	
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)	42.0	(2011)	50.8	(2009)	36.7	(2009)
Turkmenistan	...		...		...		...		...		...	
Uzbekistan	27.5	(2001)	30.5		22.5		15.0	(2012)	20.1	(2010)	13.4	(2010)
East Asia												
China, People's Rep. of	6.0	(1996)	7.9		2.0		...		10.2 [d]	(2012)	...	
Hong Kong, China	...		...		...		...		...		...	
Korea, Rep. of	...		...		...		16.5 [e]	(2012)	...		...	
Mongolia	38.7	(2010)	49.0		33.1		27.4	(2012)	35.5		23.2	
Taipei,China [f]	0.6	(1993)	...		...		1.5	(2012)	...		...	
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 [g]	45.3	(1994)	50.1		31.8		21.9	(2012)	25.7		13.7	
Maldives [h]	21.0 [i]	(2003)	27.0		4.0		15.0 [j]	(2010)	16.0		12.0	
Nepal	41.8	(1996)	43.3		21.6		25.2	(2011)	27.4		15.5	
Sri Lanka	26.1	(1991)	29.5		16.3		6.7	(2013)	7.6		2.1	
Southeast Asia												
Brunei Darussalam	...		...		...		...		...		...	
Cambodia [k]	47.8	(2007)	53.2		41.0		18.9	(2012)	20.0		14.4	
Indonesia	17.6	(1996)	19.8		13.6		11.4	(2013)	14.3		8.4	
Lao PDR	46.0	(1992)	51.8		26.5		26.0	(2010)	31.7	(2008)	17.4	(2008)
Malaysia	8.5	(1999)	14.8		3.3		1.7	(2012)	3.4		1.0	
Myanmar	32.1	(2005)	35.8		21.5		25.6	(2010)	29.2		15.7	
Philippines	34.4	(1991)	...		...		25.2	(2012)	...		...	
Singapore	...		...		...		...		...		...	
Thailand [l]	58.1	(1990)	66.2		38.7		13.2	(2011)	16.7		9.0	
Viet Nam	20.7 [m]	(2010)	26.9		6.0		17.2	(2012)	22.1		5.4	
The Pacific [n]												
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		49.9	(2007)	51.5		45.2	
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)	11.5		18.2		12.7	(2010)	10.0		19.6	
Developed Member Economies												
Australia	...		...		...		...		...		...	
Japan	...		...		...		...		...		...	
New Zealand	...		...		...		...		...		...	

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

a Data are consumption-based, except for the People's Republic of China; the Republic of Korea; Malaysia; the Philippines; 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 refer to share of population under 60% of the median consumption.

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

e Data refer to share of population below 50% of the median equivalized disposable income.

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

g Based on Tendulkar methodology, using mixed reference period.

h Urban refers to Malé, which is the capital of the Maldives, while rural refers to Atolls, which are areas outside Malé.

i Data have been adjusted to account for inflation.

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

k Data from 2007 to 2012 are based on the new poverty line using the 2009 Cambodia Socioeconomic Survey, and cannot be compared with previous published series.

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

m Data are based on the 2010 revised World Bank and General Statistics Office of Viet Nam expenditure poverty line, and is thus not comparable with the prior series. An alternative poverty headcount rate released by the goverment is 14.2, which is based on the official Ministry of Labour – 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.

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

Sources: Economy sources; United Nations Statistics Division. Millennium Indicators Database Online. http://millenniumindicators.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx (accessed 15 July 2014); Pacific Regional Information System. National Minimum Development Indicators Database. http://www.spc.int/nmdi/ (accessed 7 May 2014).

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	36.9	5.5 (2013)
Mongolia	...		...		7.4	40.8	5.5 (1995)	7.1	44.0	6.2 (2008)
Taipei,China [e]	...		...		7.4	38.7	5.2 (1992)	6.5	40.0	6.1 (2012)
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	(2010)	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)	43.3	(2011)	9.4	38.9	4.1 (1990)	7.3	46.0	6.3 (2011)
Indonesia (Rural)	87.9	(1990)	44.8	(2011)	10.0	36.7	3.7 (1990)	8.2	42.7	5.2 (2011)
Indonesia (Urban)	77.0	(1990)	41.9	(2011)	7.9	43.0	5.4 (1990)	6.3	49.2	7.8 (2011)
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 [f]	(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 [g]	...		...		7.9	37.8	4.8 (1995)	7.5	39.5	5.3 (2012)
Japan [h]	...		...		6.9	39.4	5.7 (1995)	6.5	40.0	6.2 (2009)
New Zealand [h]	...		...		7.9	39.4	5.0 (1991)	7.7	40.1	5.2 (2011)

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PPP = purchasing power parity.

a Data are consumption-based, except for Australia; Hong Kong, China; Japan; the Republic of Korea; Malaysia; the Federated States of Micronesia; New Zealand; 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 Data on income are based on the distribution of disposable household income.

e Data on income are based on the distribution of the average disposable household income.

f Figure refers to urban population only.

g Data on income are based on the distribution of the equivalized disposable household income. The data series from 2007–2008 onward are not directly comparable with the estimates for previous series due to the improvements made to measuring income introduced in 2007–2008.

h Data on income are based on the distribution of the equivalized disposable household income in real terms.

Sources: World Bank. PovcalNet Database Online. http://iresearch.worldbank.org/PovcalNet/index.htm (accessed 30 May 2014); World Bank. World Development Indicators Online. http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/world-development-indicators (accessed 21 May 2014); Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. Income distribution and poverty database. www.oecd.org/social/income-distribution-database.htm (accessed 23 June 2014) for Japan and New Zealand; ADB's *Asian Development Outlook 2012* for Pacific countries; and economy sources for Australia; the Republic of Korea; the Federated States of Micronesia; Singapore; and Taipei,China.

Table 2.2: Nonincome Poverty and Inequality

	4 Average Years of Total Schooling of Youth (Aged 15–24) and Adults (Aged 25 and Over)								
	Youth[a]								
	Total			Female			Male		
	1990	2000	2010	1990	2000	2010	1990	2000	2010
Developing Member Economies	**6.3**	**7.6**	**8.6**	**6.0**	**7.2**	**8.6**	**6.5**	**8.0**	**8.7**
Central and West Asia	**4.9**	**5.6**	**6.6**	**3.9**	**4.5**	**6.0**	**5.8**	**6.7**	**7.2**
Afghanistan	2.9	4.1	4.7	1.2	1.9	3.3	4.6	6.0	5.9
Armenia	11.5	9.3	10.2	11.6	9.5	9.9	11.3	9.2	10.5
Azerbaijan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Georgia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kazakhstan	8.3	10.7	11.0	8.5	10.8	11.0	8.1	10.6	11.1
Kyrgyz Republic	8.8	8.1	10.0	8.9	8.2	10.1	8.7	8.0	9.9
Pakistan	4.1	5.0	6.3	2.8	3.8	5.7	5.2	6.2	6.9
Tajikistan	10.7	9.8	9.4	10.6	9.8	10.2	10.7	9.9	8.6
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
East Asia	**7.7**	**9.2**	**9.4**	**7.9**	**9.1**	**9.4**	**7.6**	**9.3**	**9.4**
China, People's Rep. of	7.5	9.0	9.2	7.6	8.9	9.2	7.3	9.1	9.2
Hong Kong, China	12.6	12.0	13.5	12.8	12.2	13.6	12.5	11.8	13.4
Korea, Rep. of	12.0	12.8	13.2	11.9	12.9	13.3	12.0	12.7	13.1
Mongolia	8.0	7.3	9.0	8.2	7.9	9.4	7.8	6.8	8.6
Taipei,China	11.1	11.9	13.0	11.7	12.0	13.1	10.5	11.8	12.9
South Asia	**4.5**	**6.9**	**8.5**	**3.6**	**6.1**	**8.3**	**5.4**	**7.6**	**8.6**
Bangladesh	3.7	6.6	8.4	3.2	6.3	9.2	4.1	6.8	8.0
Bhutan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
India	4.5	6.9	8.5	3.6	6.0	8.2	5.4	7.7	8.8
Maldives	5.2	6.6	9.2	5.1	6.6	9.3	5.3	6.6	9.1
Nepal	3.5	4.2	6.1	2.3	3.6	6.3	4.5	4.8	5.9
Sri Lanka	10.5	12.2	11.4	10.5	12.4	11.6	10.4	12.0	11.2
Southeast Asia	**6.2**	**6.8**	**8.5**	**6.1**	**6.9**	**8.7**	**6.3**	**6.7**	**8.3**
Brunei Darussalam	8.2	8.0	8.6	8.1	8.0	8.9	8.2	8.1	8.4
Cambodia	3.9	4.1	6.0	3.1	3.6	5.7	4.8	4.6	6.2
Indonesia	6.2	6.2	8.9	5.9	6.2	8.9	6.5	6.2	8.8
Lao PDR	4.6	4.8	5.8	4.0	4.4	5.8	5.2	5.2	5.7
Malaysia	10.2	11.4	12.4	10.3	11.6	12.5	10.2	11.2	12.2
Myanmar	3.7	5.1	7.0	4.0	5.6	7.3	3.2	4.5	6.6
Philippines	8.0	8.5	9.1	8.3	8.9	9.6	7.6	8.1	8.6
Singapore	8.4	11.5	12.7	8.1	11.7	12.9	8.6	11.3	12.5
Thailand	7.3	8.3	10.5	7.4	8.5	10.9	7.1	8.2	10.1
Viet Nam	4.5	6.2	6.3	4.5	6.2	6.2	4.5	6.3	6.4
The Pacific	**5.5**	**4.9**	**5.6**	**4.7**	**4.8**	**5.5**	**6.3**	**4.9**	**5.8**
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	10.6	10.2	11.3	10.7	10.5	11.7	10.5	10.0	11.0
Kiribati	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nauru	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palau	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	4.6	3.9	4.9	3.6	3.8	4.7	5.5	4.0	5.1
Samoa	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Timor-Leste	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tonga	9.3	9.9	11.6	9.3	10.1	11.8	9.3	9.7	11.4
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Developed Member Economies	**11.7**	**11.9**	**11.6**	**11.8**	**12.2**	**11.8**	**11.6**	**11.7**	**11.5**
Australia	11.2	10.3	11.0	11.2	10.4	11.1	11.2	10.2	10.9
Japan	11.8	12.2	11.9	11.9	12.4	12.0	11.7	11.9	11.7
New Zealand	11.9	12.7	9.5	12.0	12.9	9.8	11.7	12.4	9.2

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

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 (Aged 15–24) and Adults (Aged 25 and Over)								
	Adults[a]								
	Total			Female[b]			Male[b]		
	1990	2000	2010	1990	2000	2010	1990	2000	2010
Developing Member Economies	**4.2**	**5.7**	**6.6**	**3.5**	**4.8**	**5.7**	**4.8**	**6.7**	**7.5**
Central and West Asia	**4.1**	**5.8**	**5.6**	**3.2**	**4.2**	**4.4**	**5.1**	**6.0**	**6.8**
Afghanistan	1.5	2.2	3.2	0.4	0.8	1.2	2.5	3.7	5.1
Armenia	10.1	10.8	10.9	9.9	10.7	10.8	10.2	10.9	10.9
Azerbaijan	10.5 (1999)	10.7 (2007)	10.8 (2009)	10.0	10.2	10.5	11.1	11.3	11.2
Georgia	...	11.9 (2002)	...	...	11.8	...	...	12.0	...
Kazakhstan	8.1	10.5	11.4	7.6	10.2	11.3	8.6	10.8	11.5
Kyrgyz Republic	8.6	9.7	11.1	8.1	9.5	11.0	9.1	9.8	11.2
Pakistan	2.3	3.3	4.5	1.0	1.9	2.9	3.6	4.6	5.9
Tajikistan	9.6	11.1	10.9	8.7	10.7	10.8	10.6	11.6	11.0
Turkmenistan	...	9.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	...	10.0 (2005)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
East Asia	**5.1**	**6.7**	**7.4**	**4.6**	**5.9**	**6.9**	**5.4**	**7.5**	**8.0**
China, People's Rep. of	4.8	6.5	7.1	4.5	5.6	6.6	5.2	7.3	7.7
Hong Kong, China	8.6	8.8	11.0	7.7	8.3	10.6	9.4	9.3	11.5
Korea, Rep. of	9.1	10.6	11.9	7.9	9.6	11.2	10.4	11.6	12.7
Mongolia	7.7	8.2	9.3	7.4	8.1	9.5	8.0	8.3	9.0
Taipei,China	7.2	9.0	10.7	6.4	8.4	10.3	7.9	9.6	11.3
South Asia	**3.0**	**4.4**	**5.4**	**1.8**	**3.3**	**3.7**	**4.1**	**6.0**	**7.0**
Bangladesh	2.8	3.7	4.9	1.9	3.2	4.5	3.7	4.3	5.5
Bhutan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
India	3.0	4.4	5.4	1.7	3.2	3.6	4.1	6.2	7.2
Maldives	4.0	3.1	4.4	3.6	2.8	4.1	4.4	3.3	4.8
Nepal	2.0	2.4	3.3	0.8	1.2	2.3	3.3	3.6	4.5
Sri Lanka	7.8	9.7	9.8	7.4	9.4	9.6	8.2	9.9	10.1
Southeast Asia	**3.9**	**5.2**	**7.2**	**3.4**	**4.8**	**6.9**	**4.5**	**5.7**	**7.5**
Brunei Darussalam	7.5	8.3	8.8	6.7	8.0	8.5	8.1	8.5	9.0
Cambodia	2.7	3.2	4.1	1.7	2.3	3.2	4.1	4.5	5.4
Indonesia	3.3	4.8	7.3	2.5	4.2	6.7	4.1	5.3	7.9
Lao PDR	3.1	3.9	4.6	1.9	2.9	3.8	4.3	5.0	5.3
Malaysia	6.5	8.2	9.8	5.7	7.5	9.4	7.4	8.9	10.1
Myanmar	2.4	3.1	4.1	2.2	3.1	4.3	2.6	3.0	3.8
Philippines	6.6	7.5	8.2	6.5	7.6	8.4	6.7	7.5	7.9
Singapore	5.8	8.9	10.6	5.5	8.3	10.1	6.4	9.5	10.9
Thailand	3.8	4.8	7.3	3.5	4.5	7.1	4.3	5.3	7.5
Viet Nam	3.9	5.4	7.5	3.5	5.0	7.0	4.5	5.9	7.9
The Pacific	**3.5**	**4.4**	**5.0**	**2.8**	**3.7**	**4.2**	**4.1**	**5.4**	**5.7**
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	8.4	9.6	9.6	8.0	9.4	9.5	8.7	9.8	9.8
Kiribati	...	...	7.8	...	...	...	...	...	...
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	8.8	...	...	5.6	...	...	9.2	...
Nauru	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palau	10.3	11.4	12.2 (2005)	...	...	12.2	...	...	12.6
Papua New Guinea	2.3	3.3	4.0	1.6	2.3	3.2	3.1	4.3	4.8
Samoa	...	10.3	...	...	10.3	...	...	10.3	...
Solomon Islands	...	4.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Timor-Leste	...	2.8	4.4	...	...	3.6	...	...	5.3
Tonga	8.3	9.1	10.7	8.1	8.9	10.7	8.6	9.2	10.8
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	9.0 (2008)	...	...	8.0	...	...	10.0
Developed Member Economies	**9.8**	**10.8**	**11.5**	**9.5**	**10.6**	**11.4**	**10.3**	**11.1**	**11.7**
Australia	11.2	11.3	11.8	11.0	11.2	11.8	11.4	11.4	11.6
Japan	9.6	10.7	11.5	9.2	10.5	11.3	10.1	11.0	11.7
New Zealand	11.5	11.6	11.3	11.2	11.6	11.7	11.9	11.6	10.8

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

continued

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 (aged 25 years and over) are estimated using data from Barro and Lee (June 2014) and United Nations Population Division's World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision.

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

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

	4 Average Years of Total Schooling of Youth (Aged 15–24) and Adults (Aged 25 and Over) [a]							
	Residence				Wealth Quintile			
	Youth (Aged 15–24)		Adults (Aged 25 and Over)		Youth (Aged 15–24)		Adults (Aged 25 and Over)	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Lowest	Highest	Lowest	Highest
Developing Member Economies								
Central and West Asia								
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Armenia	11.3	10.4	12.0	10.3 (2010)	10.0	11.7	9.9	12.8 (2010)
Azerbaijan	10.8	9.8	11.1	9.7 (2006)	9.1	11.4	9.0	12.5 (2006)
Georgia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kazakhstan	10.6	10.2	10.6	9.6 (1999)	10.1	10.8	9.3	11.3 (1999)
Kyrgyz Republic	11.6	10.6	12.4	10.8 (2012)	10.9	11.9	11.0	12.8 (2012)
Pakistan	7.8	5.2	6.7	3.0 (2013)	2.3	9.7	1.1	8.6 (2013)
Tajikistan	10.5	9.7	11.4	10.0 (2012)	9.2	10.8	9.2	12.0 (2012)
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	10.2	9.9	10.4	9.7 (1996)	9.7	10.4	9.5	10.9 (1996)
East Asia								
China, People's Rep. of	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong, China	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mongolia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Asia								
Bangladesh	7.4	6.4	6.2	3.5 (2011)	3.9	8.6	1.3	7.9 (2011)
Bhutan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
India	8.9	6.3	7.4	3.6 (2006)	3.6	10.8	1.4	9.6 (2006)
Maldives	10.0	9.0	7.2	3.4 (2009)	8.6	10.2	2.4	7.7 (2009)
Nepal	8.5	6.7	5.7	2.9 (2011)	4.7	9.3	1.1	6.6 (2011)
Sri Lanka	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Southeast Asia								
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	8.7	6.4	7.1	3.7 (2010)	4.5	9.3	2.4	7.4 (2010)
Indonesia	10.5	8.9	9.0	6.1 (2012)	7.8	11.5	4.7	11.3 (2012)
Lao PDR	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Malaysia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Myanmar	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Philippines	9.9	8.4	10.3	7.6 (2008)	6.3	10.9	5.3	12.5 (2008)
Singapore	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Viet Nam	9.5	7.7	9.0	6.4 (2002)	5.2	10.3	3.9	9.7 (2002)
The Pacific								
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nauru	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palau	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Samoa	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Timor-Leste	10.3	7.5	7.7	3.5 (2010)	5.7	11.2	1.9	9.3 (2010)
Tonga	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Developed Member Economies								
Australia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

continued

a Estimates are based on household survey data from Demographic and Health Surveys and may not necessarily be consistent with corresponding estimates on total years of schooling from Barro and Lee (June 2014).

Sources: Barro, Robert and Jong-Wha Lee. 2010. A New Data Set of Educational Attainment in the World, 1950–2010. *Journal of Development Economics*. 104, pp. 184–198 (version 2.0 released June 2014); electronic files provided by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics on 24 May 2014; United Nations Development Programme. Human Development Index. http://hdr.undp.org/en/data (accessed 24 July 2014) and *Human Development Report 2014*; ADB estimates based on data from ICF International's country *Demographic and Health Survey* datasets.

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

	5 Prevalence of Underweight Children under 5 Years of Age (percent)									
	Total				Sex[a]					
	Earliest		Latest		Female		Male		Female-to-Male Ratio	
Developing Member Economies										
Central and West Asia										
Afghanistan	44.9	(1997)	25.0	(2011)	33.0		32.7		1.0	(2004)
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	4.4	(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)	30.0	(2013)	27.1		32.8		0.8	
Tajikistan	14.9	(2005)	12.1	(2012)	11.9		12.3		1.0	
Turkmenistan	10.5	(2000)	8.0	(2006)	7.1		9.3		0.8	
Uzbekistan	13.3	(1996)	4.4	(2006)	4.3		4.6		0.9	
East Asia										
China, People's Rep. of	12.6	(1990)	3.4	(2010)	3.3		3.5		0.9	
Hong Kong, China	...		...		...		...		...	
Korea, Rep. of	...		...		...		...		...	
Mongolia	11.8	(1992)	3.3	(2010)	3.0		3.6		0.8	
Taipei,China	...		...		...		...		...	
South Asia										
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										
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)	26.6	(2012)	26.4		26.7		1.0	
Malaysia	22.1	(1990)	11.9	(2011)	10.8		13.0		0.8	
Myanmar	32.5	(1990)	22.6	(2010)	22.1		23.0		1.0	
Philippines	29.9	(1990)	20.2	(2011)	20.3		20.1		1.0	
Singapore	3.3	(2000)	...		2.9		3.6		0.8	(2000)
Thailand	16.3	(1993)	9.2	(2012)	8.4		9.9		0.8	
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)	5.7		4.9		1.2	(2004)
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)	27.2	(2010)	14.6		21.0		0.7	(2005)
Samoa	1.7	(1999)	...		...		...		...	
Solomon Islands	...		11.8	(2007)	13.4		10.4		1.3	
Timor-Leste	40.6	(2002)	45.3	(2010)	43.7		46.8		0.9	
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	...		...		...		...		...	

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

continued

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

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

	5 Prevalence of Underweight Children under 5 Years of Age (percent)					
	Residence			Wealth Quintile		
	Rural	Urban	Rural-to-Urban Ratio	Lowest	Highest	Lowest-to-Highest Ratio
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Armenia	7.4	2.8	2.6 (2010)	7.9	1.5	5.3 (2010)
Azerbaijan	11.6	3.7	3.1 (2006)	15.2	2.3	6.8 (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)	4.5	3.3	1.4 (2012)
Pakistan	32.5	24.1	1.3 (2013)	47.8	15.6	3.1 (2013)
Tajikistan	12.5	10.7	1.2 (2012)	15.8	9.3	1.7 (2012)
Turkmenistan	8.7	7.3	1.2 (2006)	7.8	2.4	3.2 (2006)
Uzbekistan	4.3	4.7	0.9 (2006)	5.2	3.2	1.6 (2006)
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	4.3	1.3	3.3 (2010)	...	...	...
Hong Kong, China	...	...	...	...	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mongolia	4.0	2.8	1.4 (2010)	5.0	0.9	5.6 (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	19.5	10.6	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	22.8	17.7	1.3 (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	29.3	16.1	1.8 (2012)	36.5	12.1	3.0 (2012)
Malaysia	14.8	9.7	1.5 (2011)	...	...	...
Myanmar	24.2	18.7	1.3 (2010)	33.1	13.5	2.5 (2010)
Philippines	23.7	16.4	1.4 (2011)	...	...	...
Singapore	...	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand	10.4	7.1	1.5 (2012)	13.5	3.7	3.6 (2012)
Viet Nam	13.9	6.0	2.3 (2011)	20.6	3.1	6.6 (2011)
The Pacific						
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	5.4	5.0	1.1 (2004)	...	...	...
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	47.0	35.1	1.3 (2010)	49.5	35.4	1.4 (2010)
Tonga	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	2.0	1.2	1.7 (2007)	0.7	0.0	... (2007)
Vanuatu	11.4	12.1	0.9 (2007)	14.0	10.8	1.3 (2007)
Developed Member Economies						
Australia	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	...	...	...	...	...	...

... = data not available, 0.0 = magnitude is less than half of unit employed, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

Sources: United Nations Children's Fund. Data and Analytics. www.data.unicef.org (accessed 25 June 2014); World Health Organization. Global Health Observatory Data Repository. apps.who.int/ghodata (accessed 19 March 2014); ICF International. The DHS Program STAT compiler. http://www.statcompiler.com/ (accessed 19 March 2014); ICF International's country *Demographic and Health Survey* reports; UNICEF's country *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey* reports; Pacific Regional Information System. National Minimum Development Indicators Database. http://www.spc.int/nmdi/ (accessed 27 May 2014); UNICEF's *The State of the World's Children Report 2014*; United Nations Statistics Division. Millennium Indicators Database Online. http://millenniumindicators.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx (accessed 14 July 2014).

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

	6 Under-5 Mortality Rate (per 1,000 live births)							
	Total		Sex					
			Female	Male	Male-to-Female Ratio	Female	Male	Male-to-Female Ratio
	1990	2012	1990			2012		
Developing Member Economies[a]	**92**	**41**	**93**	**92**	**1.0**	**42**	**41**	**1.0**
Central and West Asia[a]	**124**	**76**	**122**	**127**	**1.0**	**73**	**79**	**1.1**
Afghanistan	176	99	172	180	1.0	95	102	1.1
Armenia	49	16	44	54	1.2	15	18	1.3
Azerbaijan	93	35	85	100	1.2	32	38	1.2
Georgia	35	20	30	39	1.3	17	22	1.3
Kazakhstan	54	19	47	61	1.3	16	22	1.4
Kyrgyz Republic	71	27	64	77	1.2	23	30	1.3
Pakistan	138	86	136	141	1.0	82	90	1.1
Tajikistan	105	58	96	113	1.2	52	64	1.2
Turkmenistan	90	53	79	101	1.3	45	60	1.3
Uzbekistan	74	40	65	82	1.3	34	45	1.3
East Asia[a]	**53**	**14**	**51**	**55**	**1.1**	**13**	**15**	**1.1**
China, People's Rep. of	54	14	52	56	1.1	13	15	1.1
Hong Kong, China	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	7	4	7	7	1.1	4	4	1.2
Mongolia	107	28	91	122	1.3	22	33	1.5
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Asia[a]	**127**	**54**	**130**	**124**	**1.0**	**56**	**52**	**0.9**
Bangladesh	144	41	141	146	1.0	38	44	1.2
Bhutan	131	45	125	137	1.1	40	49	1.2
India	126	56	130	121	0.9	59	54	0.9
Maldives	94	11	88	100	1.1	9	12	1.2
Nepal	142	42	141	143	1.0	39	44	1.1
Sri Lanka	21	10	20	23	1.2	9	10	1.2
Southeast Asia[a]	**71**	**30**	**65**	**76**	**1.2**	**27**	**34**	**1.3**
Brunei Darussalam	12	8	11	13	1.2	7	9	1.2
Cambodia	116	40	109	124	1.1	35	44	1.3
Indonesia	84	31	77	90	1.2	27	35	1.3
Lao PDR	163	72	155	170	1.1	66	77	1.2
Malaysia	17	9	15	18	1.2	8	9	1.2
Myanmar	106	52	99	114	1.2	47	58	1.2
Philippines	59	30	53	64	1.2	26	33	1.3
Singapore	8	3	7	8	1.2	3	3	1.2
Thailand	38	13	33	43	1.3	11	15	1.3
Viet Nam	51	23	45	56	1.2	20	26	1.3
The Pacific[a]	**89**	**56**	**84**	**93**	**1.1**	**51**	**60**	**1.2**
Cook Islands	25	11	22	28	1.3	9	12	1.2
Fiji	31	22	27	34	1.2	20	25	1.3
Kiribati	94	60	88	100	1.1	55	65	1.2
Marshall Islands	49	38	44	54	1.2	33	42	1.3
Micronesia, Fed. States of	55	39	51	60	1.2	35	42	1.2
Nauru	58	37	53	63	1.2	33	41	1.2
Palau	34	21	30	38	1.2	19	23	1.2
Papua New Guinea	89	63	83	95	1.1	58	68	1.2
Samoa	30	18	28	33	1.2	16	19	1.2
Solomon Islands	39	31	35	42	1.2	28	34	1.2
Timor-Leste	171	57	162	179	1.1	52	62	1.2
Tonga	23	13	20	25	1.3	11	14	1.2
Tuvalu	58	30	54	61	1.1	27	33	1.2
Vanuatu	35	18	31	38	1.2	16	20	1.2
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	3	1.1
New Zealand	11	6	10	13	1.3	5	6	1.2

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

continued

a Regional aggregates are 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 United Nations Population Division's *World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision*.

Table 2.2: Nonincome Poverty and Inequality *continued*

	6 Under-5 Mortality Rate (per 1,000 live births)					
	Residence[a]			Wealth Quintile[a]		
	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)	25	21	1.2 (2010)
Azerbaijan	64	52	1.2 (2006)	63	41	1.5 (2006)
Georgia	38	27	1.4 (2005)	...	...	...
Kazakhstan	33	29	1.1 (2011)	40	27	1.5 (2011)
Kyrgyz Republic	33	33	1.0 (2012)	36	28	1.3 (2012)
Pakistan	106	74	1.4 (2013)	119	48	2.5 (2013)
Tajikistan	50	42	1.2 (2012)	58	38	1.5 (2012)
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	55	1.2 (2011)	78	38	2.1 (2011)
Bhutan	81	41	2.0 (2010)	...	...	...
India	94	61	1.5 (2006)	118	39	3.0 (2006)
Maldives	28	23	1.2 (2009)	28	21	1.3 (2009)
Nepal	64	45	1.4 (2011)	75	36	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)	90	30	3.0 (2010)
Indonesia	52	34	1.5 (2012)	70	23	3.0 (2012)
Lao PDR	100	45	2.2 (2012)	120	33	3.6 (2012)
Malaysia	...	...	...	...	...	...
Myanmar	53	29	1.8 (2010)	62	17	3.6 (2010)
Philippines	46	28	1.6 (2008)	59	17	3.5 (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	87	61	1.4 (2010)	87	52	1.7 (2010)
Tonga	18	18	1.0 (2012)	...	...	...
Tuvalu	32	34	0.9 (2007)	30	8	3.8 (2007)
Vanuatu	32	27	1.2 (2007)	...	...	...
Developed Member Economies						
Australia	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	...	...	...	...	...	...

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

a Estimates are based on household survey data.

Note: Data on under-5 mortality rates for total, male, and female are updated using the estimates generated in 2013 by the United Nations Inter-agency Group for Child Mortality Estimation. Data for rural, urban, and wealth quintile distributions are from ICF International's STATcompiler and country *Demographic and Health Survey* reports and the United Nations Children's Fund's country *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey* reports.

Sources: United Nations Inter-agency Group for Child Mortality Estimation (http://www.childmortality.org); United Nations Statistics Division. Millennium Indicators Database Online. http://millenniumindicators.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx (accessed 8 July 2014); ICF International. The DHS Program STAT compiler. http://www.statcompiler.com/ (accessed 17 March 2014); ICF International's country Demographic and Health Survey reports; UNICEF's country *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey* reports.

Table 2.3: Economic Growth and Employment

	7 Annualized Growth Rate of GDP Per Capita at PPP (constant 2011 PPP$)[a]			
	1992–1997	1997–2002	2002–2007	2007–2012
Developing Member Economies	**5.7**	**4.0**	**7.2**	**6.6**
Central and West Asia	**–3.4**	**2.0**	**5.8**	**3.1**
Afghanistan	...	...	4.3 (2003–2007)	8.3
Armenia	–5.1	7.8	13.5	3.2
Azerbaijan	–13.5	8.2	18.2	6.8
Georgia	–11.8	5.7	8.9	4.6
Kazakhstan	–4.5	6.6	8.9	3.9
Kyrgyz Republic	–7.8	3.1	3.1	2.9
Pakistan	1.3	0.4	3.8	1.1
Tajikistan	–17.5	5.1	6.7	4.3
Turkmenistan	–9.6	2.1	6.0	9.7
Uzbekistan	–4.2	2.8	5.3	6.5
East Asia	**9.3**	**6.9**	**9.5**	**8.6**
China, People's Rep. of	10.6	7.8	10.6	9.5
Hong Kong, China	2.9	1.1	5.2	2.4
Korea, Rep. of	6.1	4.3	4.5	3.0
Mongolia	–0.6	2.3	6.8	7.3
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...
South Asia	**3.9**	**3.4**	**6.2**	**5.8**
Bangladesh	2.6	3.2	4.4	5.1
Bhutan	5.4	4.8	6.5	7.0
India	4.1	3.5	6.4	5.9
Maldives	...	...	6.8	3.6
Nepal	2.3	1.6	1.6	3.3
Sri Lanka	4.2	3.4	4.9	6.1
Southeast Asia	**5.1**	**0.3**	**4.2**	**3.8**
Brunei Darussalam	–0.4	–0.5	0.0	–1.0
Cambodia	3.4 (1994–1997)	5.2	8.2	4.6
Indonesia	5.4	–0.8	3.8	4.6
Lao PDR	4.0	4.1	5.3	5.8
Malaysia	6.4	1.0	3.9	2.8
Myanmar	...	...	...	...
Philippines	1.4	0.9	3.3	3.2
Singapore	5.3	1.8	5.4	2.3
Thailand	5.5	–0.5	4.8	3.2
Viet Nam	7.0	4.9	5.8	4.9
The Pacific	**2.4**	**–2.0**	**0.3**	**2.9**
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...
Fiji	1.7	1.2	1.4	–0.4
Kiribati	2.2	2.7	–0.0	0.9
Marshall Islands	0.4	0.0	1.7	1.4
Micronesia, Fed. States of	–0.1	1.0	0.2	0.6
Nauru	...	...	...	...
Palau	–1.0	–0.5	1.7	–0.8
Papua New Guinea	3.4	–4.0	0.5	5.0
Samoa	1.8	3.4	3.0	0.2
Solomon Islands	2.7	–6.9	2.1	3.1
Timor-Leste	...	5.2 (2000–2002)	–1.6	8.9
Tonga	1.8	2.3	–0.1	0.6
Tuvalu	2.1	4.7	0.7	2.3
Vanuatu	0.9	–1.0	1.0	0.8
Developed Member Economies	**1.2**	**0.5**	**1.6**	**0.4**
Australia	2.2	2.6	2.3	1.2
Japan	1.0	0.2	1.5	0.2
New Zealand	2.4	2.2	2.2	0.2

... = data not available, 0.0 = magnitude is less than half of unit employed, GDP = gross domestic product, PPP = puchasing power parity, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

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

Source: ADB estimates based on data from World Bank's World Development Indicators Online (http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/world-development-indicators), accessed 3 July 2014.

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	...	...	...	...	...	...

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PPP = puchasing power parity.

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 World Bank's PovcalNet Database Online (http://iresearch.worldbank.org/PovcalNet/index.htm), accessed 30 May 2014.

Table 2.3: Economic Growth and Employment

	9 Employment-to-Population Ratio					
	Youth (Aged 15–24)[a]					
	1991			2012		
	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male
Developing Member Economies	**57.4**	**50.4**	**64.0**	**43.0**	**33.8**	**51.4**
Central and West Asia	**37.7**	**17.7**	**56.9**	**39.0**	**21.1**	**56.1**
Afghanistan	32.5	9.5	53.5	30.2	9.7	50.0
Armenia	33.6	25.8	41.2	23.0	16.2	28.5
Azerbaijan	39.6	39.4	39.9	29.4	35.9	23.1
Georgia	24.3	20.0	28.3	21.2	14.7	27.6
Kazakhstan	44.9	40.4	49.2	45.5	42.4	48.4
Kyrgyz Republic	41.8	38.7	44.9	40.6	30.1	51.0
Pakistan	38.3	10.5	64.5	41.6	19.3	62.7
Tajikistan	40.2	34.2	46.3	37.8	29.9	45.5
Turkmenistan	35.5	25.9	45.0	35.4	25.0	45.5
Uzbekistan	34.7	25.8	43.5	35.5	25.6	45.0
East Asia	**68.9**	**70.9**	**67.1**	**49.6**	**48.6**	**50.5**
China, People's Rep. of	70.7	72.6	68.9	50.8	49.5	51.9
Hong Kong, China	54.3	53.5	55.0	34.2	35.1	33.3
Korea, Rep. of	36.0	39.6	32.5	24.9	28.1	22.1
Mongolia	38.1	34.1	42.1	32.0	27.4	36.6
Taipei,China	41.3	47.3	35.8	26.2	30.7	22.1
South Asia	**48.4**	**31.5**	**64.0**	**37.0**	**22.0**	**50.9**
Bangladesh	63.8	54.9	72.3	53.5	46.0	61.0
Bhutan	40.7	34.0	47.3	45.3	47.7	43.0
India	46.2	27.8	63.0	34.0	17.4	49.2
Maldives	31.8	12.6	50.8	40.4	31.7	48.7
Nepal	78.7	76.7	80.6	72.1	72.4	71.7
Sri Lanka	27.2	14.9	39.2	30.6	19.8	41.2
Southeast Asia	**52.3**	**46.2**	**58.2**	**45.5**	**38.8**	**52.1**
Brunei Darussalam	41.0	32.6	48.9	40.7	36.0	45.0
Cambodia	69.4	72.0	66.7	70.0	70.3	69.8
Indonesia	42.1	33.5	50.6	39.6	30.6	48.3
Lao PDR	71.9	79.8	64.3	61.5	66.8	56.4
Malaysia	46.3	37.7	54.7	35.7	28.8	42.9
Myanmar	50.3	49.4	51.3	50.9	49.9	51.9
Philippines	42.2	30.9	53.1	40.7	30.8	50.3
Singapore	52.1	50.8	53.4	34.2	32.9	35.5
Thailand	69.4	67.0	71.8	46.6	38.8	54.3
Viet Nam	73.4	70.9	75.8	59.6	57.2	61.9
The Pacific	**53.0**	**49.7**	**56.0**	**46.7**	**45.2**	**48.1**
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	41.5	23.4	59.1	33.0	23.3	42.1
Kiribati	...	...	...	...	...	...
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nauru	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palau	...	...	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	57.0	57.6	56.4	54.7	55.2	54.3
Samoa	...	...	...	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	42.8	35.6	49.5	43.3	36.1	50.1
Timor-Leste	44.4	34.2	53.7	12.6	8.9	16.1
Tonga	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	...	...	...	...
Developed Member Economies	**45.1**	**45.3**	**44.8**	**43.4**	**43.8**	**43.1**
Australia	57.5	55.8	59.1	59.6	59.4	59.8
Japan	43.0	43.5	42.4	39.0	39.7	38.4
New Zealand	54.2	52.4	56.0	49.2	47.3	51.0

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

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 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	51.4 (2011)	44.4	60.1
Azerbaijan	45.4 (2002)	42.6	48.4	60.9 (2011)	57.5	64.5
Georgia	57.3 (1998)	49.9	66.2	56.8 (2012)	49.5	65.6
Kazakhstan	63.6 (2002)	57.6	70.2	67.9 (2012)	62.5	74.0
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	78.3 (1990)	...	...	67.9 (2011)	...	...
Hong Kong, China	61.5 (1990)	45.5	77.0	49.2 (2012)	49.3	49.0
Korea, Rep. of	58.6 (1990)	46.1	71.9	59.4 (2012)	48.4	70.8
Mongolia	55.9 (1998)	51.8	60.3	57.7 (2011)	52.6	63.2
Taipei,China	58.3 (1990)	43.8	72.7	55.9 (2012)	48.2	63.8
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	63.1 (2012)	61.8	64.4
India	58.3 (1994)	34.6	81.0	51.5 (2012)	26.1	76.1
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)	50.5 (2012)	30.9	72.8
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	84.1 (2012)	79.5	89.0
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	63.5 (2012)	48.0	78.1
Myanmar	...	...	...	...	...	...
Philippines	59.3 (1990)	42.8	75.9	59.7 (2012)	46.7	72.8
Singapore	63.6 (1990)	49.5	77.5	64.1 (2012)	55.3	73.5
Thailand	76.9 (1990)	71.5	82.4	71.4 (2012)	63.5	79.8
Viet Nam	74.3 (1996)	71.3	77.7	75.5 (2012)	71.2	80.0
The Pacific						
Cook Islands	60.0 (2001)	52.3	67.5	65.2 (2011)	60.1	70.4
Fiji	57.2 (1996)	37.2	76.9	35.9 (2009)	32.8 (2007)	67.4 (2007)
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	39.0 (2011)	21.7	55.2
Solomon Islands	23.1 (1999)	14.6	31.1	...	...	...
Timor-Leste	52.4 (2001)	32.1	73.0	40.2 (2010)	25.7	54.4
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	61.8 (2012)	55.7	68.1
Japan	62.1 (1990)	49.0	75.8	56.5 (2012)	46.2	67.5
New Zealand	59.1 (1990)	50.2	68.4	63.5 (2012)	58.0	69.2

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

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

Sources: International Labour Organization. *Key Indicators of the Labour Market*, 8th Edition. http://www.ilo.org/kilm (accessed 6 May 2014); United Nations Statistics Division. Millennium Indicators Database Online. http://millenniumindicators.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx (accessed 8 July 2014); economy sources.

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	12,331	7,327	10,869	22,872	29,273
Azerbaijan	9,018	3,871	5,099	9,104	18,554
Georgia	16,158	6,512	8,441	12,662	19,466
Kazakhstan	18,873	11,462	13,694	19,149	25,447
Kyrgyz Republic	9,031	4,878	5,947	6,096	7,175
Pakistan	5,929	7,114	7,496	8,353	8,483
Tajikistan	8,192	3,311	3,278	4,299	6,638
Turkmenistan	9,011	4,814	5,488	6,205	10,829
Uzbekistan	11,015	8,426	9,574	10,945	16,079
East Asia					
China, People's Rep. of	2,562	3,941	4,660	7,825	15,250
Hong Kong, China	36,795	44,271	45,741	53,841	64,960
Korea, Rep. of	20,633	26,745	33,234	38,283	45,478
Mongolia	...	...	...	...	...
Taipei,China	24,203	31,418	38,662	44,042	52,430
South Asia					
Bangladesh	2,065	2,380	2,886	3,164	4,146
Bhutan	...	...	...	...	...
India	3,531	4,111	5,063	6,285	9,200
Maldives	...	...	...	...	...
Nepal	...	...	...	...	...
Sri Lanka	8,339	10,247	11,121	12,143	17,985
Southeast Asia					
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	2,215	2,328	3,103	3,343	5,449
Indonesia	5,945	8,205	7,588	9,140	11,461
Lao PDR	...	...	...	...	...
Malaysia	13,434	18,473	19,253	22,394	24,857
Myanmar	1,959	2,328	3,003	4,599	7,670
Philippines	6,439	6,201	6,931	7,398	8,667
Singapore	28,191	38,368	41,245	48,122	49,719
Thailand	8,537	12,549	12,608	14,591	16,764
Viet Nam	2,346	3,094	3,803	4,801	6,272
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	37,050	40,440	45,307	48,089	50,652
Japan	36,173	37,378	39,790	43,109	44,851
New Zealand	30,226	32,002	34,723	36,166	36,586

... = data not available, GDP = gross domestic product, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PPP = puchasing power parity.

Source: ILO. *Key Indicators of the Labour Market*, 8th Edition. http://www.ilo.org/kilm (accessed 6 May 2014).

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	
	Earliest	Latest	Earliest	Latest	Earliest	Latest
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Armenia	74.2 (1997)	53.6 (2011)	57.8 (2008)	56.7 (2011)	45.8 (2008)	51.0 (2011)
Azerbaijan	190.5 (2003)	128.9 (2008)	206.7 (2003)	168.1 (2008)	177.1 (2003)	99.3 (2008)
Georgia	124.9 (1998)	159.4 (2010)	126.8 (1998)	157.1 (2010)	123.1 (1998)	161.7 (2010)
Kazakhstan	69.4 (2001)	42.7 (2012)	82.1 (2001)	43.7 (2012)	58.8 (2001)	41.8 (2012)
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 (2008)	302.3 (1995)	351.5 (2008)	179.3 (1995)	150.1 (2008)
Tajikistan	87.5 (2003)	90.3 (2009)	110.1 (2003)	70.2 (2009)	73.6 (2003)	109.1 (2009)
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong, China	6.2 (1993)	7.7 (2012)	3.8 (1993)	4.5 (2012)	7.7 (1993)	11.0 (2012)
Korea, Rep. of	65.2 (1990)	36.1 (2008)	76.0 (1990)	38.7 (2008)	58.4 (1990)	34.1 (2008)
Mongolia	137.1 (2000)	126.4 (2011)	126.1 (2000)	112.8 (2011)	147.5 (2000)	140.4 (2011)
Taipei,China	40.9 (1990)	22.2 (2012)	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)	193.1 (2012)	376.8 (2006)	471.3 (2012)	145.3 (2006)	92.3 (2012)
India	553.1 (1994)	445.8 (2010)	1,114.3 (1994)	584.9 (2010)	447.9 (1994)	409.6 (2010)
Maldives	99.5 (1990)	53.7 (2006)	152.3 (1990)	104.5 (2006)	89.6 (1990)	32.0 (2006)
Nepal	...	290.6 (2001)	...	654.7 (2001)	...	185.1 (2001)
Sri Lanka	77.9 (1990)	72.2 (2012)	51.4 (1993)	76.8 (2012)	68.8 (1993)	70.0 (2012)
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam	4.3 (1991)	...	3.6 (1991)	...	4.7 (1991)	...
Cambodia	555.0 (2000)	478.0 (2008)	727.9 (2000)	611.3 (2008)	434.2 (2000)	383.4 (2008)
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)	1,766.5 (1995)	1,148.7 (2005)	598.3 (1995)	543.5 (2005)
Malaysia	43.5 (1991)	28.5 (2012)	35.1 (1991)	27.9 (2012)	47.8 (1991)	28.9 (2012)
Myanmar	...	...	...	...	...	...
Philippines	90.1 (1998)	71.7 (2012)	97.2 (1998)	89.7 (2008)	85.9 (1998)	79.0 (2008)
Singapore	10.2 (1991)	11.0 (2012)	6.9 (1991)	7.9 (2012)	12.5 (1991)	13.7 (2012)
Thailand	247.2 (1990)	122.4 (2012)	289.0 (1990)	130.8 (2012)	217.0 (1990)	115.7 (2012)
Viet Nam	489.4 (1996)	180.3 (2012)	633.4 (1996)	238.1 (2012)	389.1 (1996)	140.8 (2012)
The Pacific						
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	69.4 (2002)	69.6 (2008)	80.6 (2002)	75.5 (2008)	64.8 (2002)	66.9 (2008)
Kiribati	...	...	...	...	...	...
Marshall Islands	37.5 (1999)	...	42.9 (1999)	...	35.3 (1999)	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nauru	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palau	...	...	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	...	...	...	...	...	...
Samoa	91.4 (2006)	73.6 (2011)	66.7 (2006)	16.5 (2011)	105.9 (2006)	110.1 (2011)
Solomon Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...
Timor-Leste	...	245.8 (2010)	...	393.4 (2010)	...	203.8 (2010)
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 (1990)	10.2 (2008)	9.7 (1990)	7.6 (2008)	14.1 (1990)	12.6 (2008)
Japan	24.9 (1990)	12.1 (2008)	36.1 (1990)	13.1 (2008)	18.0 (1990)	11.4 (2008)
New Zealand	24.6 (1990)	14.6 (2008)	15.4 (1990)	10.7 (2008)	32.8 (1990)	18.4 (2008)

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

Source: ADB estimates based on data from ILO's *Key Indicators of the Labour Market*, 8th Edition (http://www.ilo.org/kilm), accessed 6 May 2014.

Table 2.4: Key Infrastructure Endowments

	12 Electricity Consumption (per capita kWh)[a]		13 Paved Roads (percentage of total roads)	14 Number of Mobile-Cellular Subscriptions (per 100 people)[a]		15 Depositors with Commercial Banks (per 1,000 adults)[a,b]	
	1990	2011	Latest Year	2000	2013	2004	2012
Developing Member Economies	**500**	**1,883**		**4.9**	**86.1**	**410.2**	**615.3**
Central and West Asia	**1,285**	**962**		**0.5**	**81.4**	...	...
Afghanistan	21 (2001)	38 (2012)	29.3 (2006)	0.0	70.0	30.4 (2008)	143.8
Armenia	2,718	1,755	93.6 (2009)	0.6	112.4	214.6	887.1
Azerbaijan	2,576	1,705	50.6 (2006)	5.2	107.6	90.2 (2005)	460.6
Georgia	3,039	1,918	94.1 (2007)	4.1	115.0	187.8	845.2
Kazakhstan	5,905	4,893	88.5 (2009)	1.4	180.5	722.4	1,108.9
Kyrgyz Republic	2,331	1,642	91.1 (2001)	0.2	121.4	74.6 (2009)	204.6
Pakistan	269	449	65.4 (2006)	0.2	70.1	123.4	268.3
Tajikistan	3,350	1,714	82.7 (1995)	0.0	91.8	183.4	640.3
Turkmenistan	2,293	2,444	81.2 (2001)	0.2	116.9	...	...
Uzbekistan	2,383	1,626	87.3 (2001)	0.2	74.3	521.1	908.7
East Asia	**658**	**3,665**		**10.0**	**90.9**	...	...
China, People's Rep. of	511	3,298	53.5 (2008)	6.7	88.7	6.5 (2006)	13.2
Hong Kong, China	4,178	5,949	100.0 (2010)	79.7	238.7	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	2,373	10,162	79.3 (2009)	58.3	111.0	4,282.4	4,884.7
Mongolia	1,546	1,577	3.5 (2002)	6.4	124.2	299.4	3,829.1
Taipei,China	4,159	10,486 (2013)	...	81.5	127.5	5,390.2 (2009)	5,187.8 (2010)
South Asia	**240**	**625**		**0.4**	**70.8**	...	...
Bangladesh	48	259	9.5 (2003)	0.2	67.1	252.5	513.3
Bhutan	254	977 (2005)	62.0 (2003)	0.0	72.2	402.3 (2005)	382.1
India	270	684	49.5 (2008)	0.3	70.8	607.6	1,042.5
Maldives	113	523 (2012)	100.0 (2005)	2.8	181.2	709.4	1,272.4
Nepal	37	106	53.9 (2008)	0.0	71.5	...	316.7 (2010)
Sri Lanka	154	490	81.0 (2003)	2.3	95.5	1,887.5 (2009)	1,891.7 (2010)
Southeast Asia	**312**	**1090**		**4.2**	**113.7**	...	...
Brunei Darussalam	4,355	8,507	81.1 (2008)	28.6	112.2	1,320.8 (2008)	1,856.6
Cambodia	13 (1995)	164	6.3 (2004)	1.1	133.9	75.1 (2008)	145.6
Indonesia	165	680	56.9 (2009)	1.8	121.5	494.6	708.1
Lao PDR	64	103 (1997)	13.7 (2009)	0.2	66.2	...	...
Malaysia	1,146	4,246	82.8 (2006)	21.9	144.7	1,782.4	2,305.3
Myanmar	43	110	11.9 (2005)	0.0	12.8	114.2	144.2
Philippines	361	647	9.9 (2003)	8.3	104.5	371.8 (2008)	445.3
Singapore	4,983	8,404	100.0 (2009)	70.1	155.6	2,027.9	2,180.6
Thailand	709	2,316	98.5 (2000)	4.9	138.0	971.1 (2006)	1,132.2
Viet Nam	98	1,073	47.6 (2007)	1.0	130.9	...	...
The Pacific	**394**	**436**		**1.1**	**48.8**	...	...
Cook Islands	775	1,748 (2013)	...	3.1	55.8	...	...
Fiji	607	867	49.2 (2001)	6.8	101.1	625.7	1,059.9
Kiribati	109	171 (2010)	...	0.4	16.6	161.0 (2011)	176.3
Marshall Islands	961	1,502 (2006)	...	0.9	1.3 (2005)	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	17.5 (2001)	0.0	30.3	410.7	510.1
Nauru	...	...	...	11.9	67.8 (2012)	...	...
Palau	...	...	...	12.6 (2002)	90.4	1,555.0 (2011)	1,472.6
Papua New Guinea	485	470 (2008)	3.5 (2001)	0.2	41.0	155.4 (2005)	202.5
Samoa	312	521	14.2 (2001)	1.4	47.2 (2007)	402.9	865.3
Solomon Islands	102	109 (2013)	2.4 (2001)	0.3	57.6	304.2	298.4
Timor-Leste	27 (2006)	83 (2013)	...	2.1 (2003)	57.4	64.7	390.5
Tonga	250	449 (2013)	27.0 (2001)	0.2	54.6	700.6 (2007)	632.7
Tuvalu	124	406 (2006)	...	0.0	34.4	...	...
Vanuatu	177	234 (2013)	23.9 (2001)	0.2	59.3	...	...
Developed Member Economies	**6,786**	**8,306**		**51.7**	**113.7**	...	...
Australia	8,527	10,712	43.5 (2009)	44.5	106.8	...	...
Japan	6,486	7,848	80.1 (2009)	53.1	115.2	7,984.2	7,284.9
New Zealand	8,973	9,399	66.2 (2010)	40.0	105.8	...	...

... = data not available, 0.0 = magnitude is less than half of unit employed, kWh = kilowatt-hour, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

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

b For Armenia; Bhutan; Cambodia; Fiji; India; Indonesia; Japan; the Republic of Korea; Malaysia; the Federated States of Micronesia; Mongolia; Palau; Papua New Guinea; Solomon Islands; Sri Lanka; Taipei,China; and Tonga, data refer to total number of deposit accounts. Data for adult population are estimated using data from International Monetary Fund's Financial Access Survey except for Sri Lanka and Taipei,China. For Sri Lanka, adult population (aged 15 and over) data were taken from United Nations Population Division's *World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision* and for Taipei,China: economy source.

Sources: World Bank. World Development Indicators Online. http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/world-development-indicators (accessed 7 July 2014); International Road Federation World Road Statistics 2012; ITU. World Telecommunication/ICT Indicators Database. http://www.itu.int/en/ITU-D/Statistics/Pages/stat/default.aspx (accessed 24 June 2014); United Nations Statistics Division. Millennium Indicators Database Online. http://millenniumindicators.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx (accessed 8 July 2014); IMF. Financial Access Survey Online Database. http://fas.imf.org (accessed 22 May 2014); World Bank. *Financial Access Report 2009 and 2010*; ADB estimates; economy sources.

Table 2.5: Access and Inputs to Education and Health

	16 School Life Expectancy (years)[a]					
	Total		Female[b]		Male[b]	
	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012
Developing Member Economies	**8.8**	**11.9**	**8.2**	**11.7**	**9.3**	**12.0**
Central and West Asia	**6.4**	**9.1**	**5.5 (2000)**	**8.3**	**7.2 (2000)**	**9.8**
Afghanistan	6.5 (2003)	9.3 (2011)	4.4	7.2	8.5	11.3
Armenia	11.1 (2000)	12.3 (2009)	11.5	13.6	10.6	11.2
Azerbaijan	9.7 (1997)	11.9	9.9	11.8	9.5	12.0
Georgia	11.4	12.8 (2008)	11.4	12.8	11.4	12.8
Kazakhstan	12.4	15.0	12.6	15.4	12.2	14.7
Kyrgyz Republic	11.4	12.5 (2011)	11.6	12.7	11.3	12.3
Pakistan	6.4 (2006)	7.7	5.6	6.9	7.1	8.4
Tajikistan	9.6	11.2	8.7	10.5	10.4	12.0
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	10.6	11.5 (2011)	10.5	11.3	10.8	11.7
East Asia	**9.3**	**13.2**	**9.0**	**13.3**	**9.5**	**13.1**
China, People's Rep. of	10.0 (2003)	13.1	9.8	13.2	10.1	12.9
Hong Kong, China	13.0 (2003)	15.6	12.9	15.3	13.2	15.4
Korea, Rep. of	15.8	16.9	14.9	16.0	16.6	17.7
Mongolia	8.9	15.0	9.8	15.6	8.0	14.4
Taipei,China	14.6 (2002)	16.3 (2013)	14.5	16.3	14.6	16.4
South Asia	**8.3**	**11.6**	**7.3**	**11.4**	**9.2**	**11.8**
Bangladesh	8.4 (2005)	10.0 (2011)	8.5	10.3	8.3	9.7
Bhutan	7.2	12.7	6.5	12.8	8.0	12.6
India	8.5 (2000)	11.7 (2011)	7.4	11.3	9.5	11.8
Maldives	11.8	12.7 (2003)	11.9	12.8	11.8	12.5
Nepal	9.3 (2000)	12.4 (2011)	7.9	12.5	10.8	12.2
Sri Lanka	13.6 (2010)	13.7	13.9	14.2	13.3	13.3
Southeast Asia	**10.4**	**12.1**	**10.2**	**12.2**	**10.6**	**12.0**
Brunei Darussalam	13.4	14.5	13.6	14.9	13.2	14.2
Cambodia	7.6 (2000)	10.9 (2008)	6.8	10.3	8.4	11.5
Indonesia	10.8 (2001)	13.0	10.6	13.1	11.0	12.9
Lao PDR	8.0	10.3	7.0	9.8	8.9	10.8
Malaysia	11.6	12.7 (2005)	11.8	12.7	11.5	12.7
Myanmar	7.6 (2001)	8.6 (2007)	...	...	...	...
Philippines	11.4	11.3 (2009)	11.7	11.5	11.1	11.1
Singapore	...	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand	11.5 (2001)	13.5	11.5	13.9	11.5	13.1
Viet Nam	10.1 (1998)	...	9.6	...	10.6	...
The Pacific	**7.5**	...	**7.1**	...	**7.9**	...
Cook Islands	10.6	15.4	10.6	14.9	10.5	15.8
Fiji	13.4 (2003)	13.9 (2004)	13.7	14.1	13.1	13.7
Kiribati	10.3	12.3 (2008)	10.7	12.7	9.8	11.9
Marshall Islands	12.3 (2002)	...	12.3	...	12.4	...
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	12.1	12.0 (2000)	12.4	12.4	11.9	11.7
Solomon Islands	7.2	9.2 (2007)	6.7	8.8	7.6	9.7
Timor-Leste	11.6 (2009)	11.7 (2010)	11.0	11.3	12.1	12.0
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**	**16.5**	**15.6**	**16.5**	**15.7**	**16.5**
Australia	20.2	20.2	20.5	20.7	19.9	19.7
Japan	14.5	15.3	14.4	15.2	14.7	15.5
New Zealand	17.2	19.2	17.9	20.0	16.6	18.3

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

a Regional aggregates are updated from the electronic files provided by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) on 29 May 2014. 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 only 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: UNESCO Institute for Statistics Data Centre. http://data.uis.unesco.org (accessed 16 May 2014); economy sources for Taipei,China.

Table 2.5: Access and Inputs to Education and Health

	17 Pupil–Teacher Ratio (Primary)		
	1990[a]	2000[a]	2012[a]
Developing Member Economies	**28**	**29**	**25**
Central and West Asia	**31**	**28**	**32**
Afghanistan	41	33 (1999)	44 (2011)
Armenia	21 (1994)	16 (1999)	19 (2007)
Azerbaijan	20 (1991)	19	12
Georgia	17 (1991)	17	8 (2010)
Kazakhstan	21	19 (2001)	16 (2013)
Kyrgyz Republic	21 (1991)	24	24
Pakistan	41	33	41
Tajikistan	21 (1991)	22	23
Turkmenistan	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	24	21	16 (2011)
East Asia	**23**	**23**	**18**
China, People's Rep. of	22	22 (2001)	18
Hong Kong, China	27 (1991)	22	14
Korea, Rep. of	36	32	18
Mongolia	30	33	29
Taipei,China	29	19	13 (2013)
South Asia	**39 (1994)**	**41**	**35**
Bangladesh	63	47 (2005)	40 (2011)
Bhutan	29 (1991)	41	24
India	35 (1999)	40	35 (2011)
Maldives	26 (1998)	23	11
Nepal	39	38	26 (2013)
Sri Lanka	29 (1992)	26 (2001)	24
Southeast Asia	**26**	**26**	**21**
Brunei Darussalam	15 (1991)	14	11
Cambodia	35	50	46
Indonesia	23	22	19
Lao PDR	28	30	27
Malaysia	20	20	12 (2011)
Myanmar	45	33	28 (2010)
Philippines	33	35	31 (2009)
Singapore	26	25 (1996)	17 (2009)
Thailand	20	21	16
Viet Nam	34	30	19
The Pacific	**29**	**33**	**35 (2008)**
Cook Islands	21 (1997)	18	15
Fiji	26 (1992)	28	28
Kiribati	29	32	25 (2008)
Marshall Islands	15 (1999)	17 (2002)	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...
Nauru	23 (1998)	21	22 (2008)
Palau	15 (1999)	16	...
Papua New Guinea	32	35	36 (2001)
Samoa	18 (1995)	24	30 (2010)
Solomon Islands	19	19 (1999)	24
Timor-Leste	...	62 (2001)	31 (2011)
Tonga	24	22	21
Tuvalu	21 (1994)	20	19 (2004)
Vanuatu	29 (1991)	23	22 (2010)
Developed Member Economies	**20**	**20**	**17**
Australia	17 (1991)	18 (1999)	...
Japan	21	21	17
New Zealand	18	18	15

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

a Regional aggregates are updated from the electronic files provided by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) on 24 May 2014. 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 only to generate regional averages and are not published.

Sources: UNESCO. Institute for Statistics Data Centre. http://data.uis.unesco.org (accessed 16 May 2014); economy sources for Taipei,China.

Table 2.5: Access and Inputs to Education and Health

	18 Diphtheria, Tetanus Toxoid, and Pertussis (DTP3) Immunization Coverage among 1-Year-Olds (%)										
	Total[a]		Sex[b]			Residence[b]			Wealth Quintile[b]		
	1990	2012	Female	Male	Male-to-Female Ratio	Rural	Urban	Urban-to-Rural Ratio	Lowest	Highest	Highest-to-Lowest Ratio
Developing Member Economies[c]	**79**	**84**									
Central and West Asia[c]	**59**	**83**									
Afghanistan	25	71	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)	75	29	31	1.1 (2006)	21	38	1.8 (2006)	21	56	2.7 (2006)
Georgia	58 (1992)	92	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	85	86	1.0 (2012)	88	80	0.9 (2012)	92	75	0.8 (2012)
Pakistan	54	81	63	67	1.1 (2013)	59	79	1.3 (2013)	30	88	2.9 (2013)
Tajikistan	72 (1992)	94	92	94	1.0 (2012)	93	92	1.0 (2012)	93	92	1.0 (2012)
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	97	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
India	70	72	53	57	1.1 (2006)	50	69	1.4 (2006)	34	82	2.4 (2006)
Maldives	94	99	98	98	1.0 (2009)	98	98	1.0 (2009)	98	97	1.0 (2009)
Nepal	43	90	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**	**80**									
Brunei Darussalam	93	90	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	38	95	85	85	1.0 (2010)	84	90	1.1 (2010)	73	93	1.3 (2010)
Indonesia	60	64	88	92	1.0 (2012)	89	91	1.0 (2012)	80	95	1.2 (2012)
Lao PDR	18	79	56	55	1.0 (2012)	52	68	1.3 (2012)	37	81	2.2 (2012)
Malaysia	90	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Myanmar	88	85	98	98	1.0 (2010)	98	98	1.0 (2010)	98	99	1.0 (2010)
Philippines	88	86	84	87	1.0 (2008)	83	88	1.1 (2008)	72	94	1.3 (2008)
Singapore	85	96	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand	92	99	89	91	1.0 (2012)	91	88	1.0 (2012)	93	85	0.9 (2012)
Viet Nam	88	97	76	73	1.0 (2011)	71	82	1.2 (2011)	60	86	1.4 (2011)
The Pacific[c]	**74**	**69**									
Cook Islands	93	98	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	97	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	97	94	56	66	1.2 (2009)	61	63	1.0 (2009)	54	71	1.3 (2009)
Marshall Islands	92	80	48	48	1.0 (2007)	19	61	3.2 (2007)	23	43	1.9 (2007)
Micronesia, Fed. States of	85	81	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nauru	74	79	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palau	99	89	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	68	63	69	65	0.9 (2006)	63	70	1.1 (2006)	...	...	...
Samoa	90	92	39	36	0.9 (2009)	38	34	0.9 (2009)	26	39	1.5 (2009)
Solomon Islands	77	90	84	92	1.1 (2007)	88	90	1.0 (2007)	89	93	1.0 (2007)
Timor-Leste	...	67	64	69	1.1 (2010)	65	71	1.1 (2010)	55	73	1.3 (2010)
Tonga	94	95	...	...	...	65	67	1.0 (2012)	...	...	...
Tuvalu	99	97	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	93	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

a Data refer to Estimates of National Immunization Coverage: 2012 revision of the World Health Organization (WHO) and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF).

b Estimates are based on household survey data and may not be consistent with the overall immunization rates due to differences in methodology and reference period.

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 United Nations Population Division's *World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision*.

Note: Data on immunization coverage for total are updated using the estimates available from UNICEF's data and analytics website. Data for male, female, rural, urban and wealth quintile distributions are from Global Health Observatory Data Repository, ICF International's STATcompiler and country *Demographic and Health Survey* reports, and UNICEF's *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey* reports.

Sources: WHO and UNICEF's Estimates on National Immunization Coverage: 2012 Revision; UNICEF. Data and Analytics. www.data.unicef.org (accessed 20 May 2014) WHO. Global Health Observatory Data Repository apps.who.int/ghodata (accessed 20 May 2014); ICF International. The DHS Program STAT compiler. http://www.statcompiler.com/ (accessed 20 May 2014); ICF International's country Demographic and Health Survey reports; UNICEF's country *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey* reports.

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]				**28.2**	**10.3**	**17.9**
Central and West Asia[c]				**40.2**	**13.1**	**27.1**
Afghanistan	4.1 (2001)	1.9	2.2 [d]	8.4 (2009)	2.2	6.2 [d]
Armenia	...	...	...	79.5 (2012)	28.1	51.4
Azerbaijan	...	...	...	102.4 (2012)	34.7	67.7
Georgia	78.5 (2008)	45.9	32.6	78.5 (2009)	46.8	31.6
Kazakhstan	...	...	...	119.1 (2012)	36.1	83.0
Kyrgyz Republic	81.0 (2008)	25.1	55.8 [d]	80.5 (2012)	19.5	60.9
Pakistan	8.3 (1992)	5.1	3.2	14.2 (2010)	8.4	5.8
Tajikistan	...	...	...	56.9 (2011)	17.0	40.0
Turkmenistan	137.8 (2002)	43.5	94.3 [d]	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	...	...	...	141.2 (2012)	23.4	117.8
East Asia[c]				**32.1**	**14.9**	**17.2**
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 [e]	59.5 [f]	85.3 (2012)	18.1 [e]	67.2 [f]
Korea, Rep. of	62.5 (2004)	17.5	45.0	70.9 (2012)	21.2	49.7
Mongolia	63.7 (2002)	27.6	36.1	65.3 (2008)	28.8	36.5
Taipei,China	30.7 (1990)	10.9	19.8	77.4 (2012)	19.6	57.8 [d]
South Asia[c]				**22.6**	**7.0**	**15.5**
Bangladesh	5.3 (2003)	2.6	2.7	5.7 (2011)	3.5	2.1
Bhutan	10.0 (2004)	1.9	8.1	12.5 (2012)	2.6	9.9 [d]
India	16.1 (1991)	12.3	3.8	25.0 (2011)	7.6	17.4 [d]
Maldives	8.7 (1991)	2.0	6.8 [d]	73.5 (2010)	16.1	57.4
Nepal	...	...	...	6.9 (2004)	2.2	4.7
Sri Lanka	12.4 (1993)	2.1	10.3	24.1 (2010)	7.1	17.0 [d]
Southeast Asia[c]				**27.0**	**5.9**	**21.1**
Brunei Darussalam	49.2 (2000)	10.1	39.1	92.1 (2011)	15.0	77.2
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 [d]	10.1 (2012)	1.7	8.4 [d]
Malaysia	23.5 (2000)	6.9	16.6	43.6 (2010)	11.7	31.9 [d]
Myanmar	13.5 (2004)	3.6	9.9	14.9 (2012)	5.7	9.3
Philippines	26.5 (2000)	5.7	20.8	69.1 (2004)	11.1	58.0
Singapore	55.6 (1999)	13.9	41.7	75.1 (2010)	17.4	57.8
Thailand	9.4 (1991)	2.2	7.1 [d]	24.8 (2010)	4.0	20.9 [d]
Viet Nam	12.4 (2001)	5.2	7.2	22.7 (2011)	11.4	11.2
The Pacific[c]				**11.0**	**1.3**	**9.7**
Cook Islands	36.7 (2001)	7.8	28.9	69.5 (2009)	11.9	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]	78.5 (2008)	9.9	68.6
Palau	75.0 (1998)	14.0	61.0 [d]	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 [d]
Samoa	27.0 (1999)	6.9	20.1	23.6 (2008)	4.6	19.0
Solomon Islands	10.3 (1999)	1.3	9.0	23.3 (2009)	2.3	21.0
Timor-Leste	5.5 (2001)	0.0	5.4	12.5 (2011)	0.8	11.7
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]				**132.6**	**23.2**	**109.4**
Australia	128.3 (1996)	25.1	103.2	138.4 (2011)	32.5	105.9
Japan	82.2 (1990)	17.3	64.9	132.8 (2010)	23.2	109.6
New Zealand	108.2 (2001)	23.1	85.1	128.2 (2007)	23.1	105.1

... = data not available, 0.0 = magnitude is less than half of unit employed, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

a Estimated using health personnel data from the World Health Organization's Global Health Workforce Statistics; and population data from the United Nations Population Division's *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 2006–2013; except for Nepal and the Philippines, where data are for 2004. The data for population are from the United Nations Population Division's *World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision*.
d Figures refer to nurses only.
e Figures refer to doctors with full registration in the local and overseas lists.
f 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: World Health Organization. *Global Health Workforce Statistics*. http://who.int/hrh/statistics/hwfstats/en/index.html (accessed 22 May 2014); economy sources for Hong Kong, China and Taipei,China.

Table 2.5: Access and Inputs to Education and Health

	20 Government Expenditure on Education (percentage of total government expenditure)[a]			21 Government Expenditure on Health (percentage of total government expenditure)[a]		
	1995	2000	2013	1995	2000	2013
Developing Member Economies	...	...	...	...	...	...
Central and West Asia	...	...	...	...	...	...
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Armenia	11.9 (1996)	12.8	9.9	7.1 (1996)	4.4	6.0
Azerbaijan	17.5	23.8	7.5	6.9	5.4	3.2
Georgia	10.7	13.4	10.5	8.7	3.9	6.7
Kazakhstan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kyrgyz Republic	23.1	20.7	23.1	13.6	11.7	11.8
Pakistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tajikistan	12.5	15.9	17.6	7.8	6.5	6.8
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
East Asia	...	...	...	...	...	...
China, People's Rep. of[b]	17.5	18.0 (2002)	16.9 (2012)	...	3.3 (2006)	5.8 (2012)
Hong Kong, China	17.7	18.9	16.7	12.7	11.9	14.6
Korea, Rep. of	18.9	15.3	16.3	0.8 (1996)	0.7	1.0
Mongolia	16.4	19.1	27.1	11.1	10.7	8.3
Taipei,China	10.0	10.2	12.0 (2012)	0.5	1.0	1.4 (2012)
South Asia	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bangladesh	16.7	19.7	12.2	7.4	9.4	4.9
Bhutan	...	14.0 (2002)	13.9	...	11.2 (2002)	5.5
India	18.2 (1999)	17.5	22.7 (2012)	3.9 (1999)	3.9	8.2 (2012)
Maldives	13.1	19.9	16.2	9.2	11.0	9.0
Nepal	14.0	15.2	16.2	4.1	5.7	6.2
Sri Lanka	9.1	9.2	9.0	5.3	6.2	7.1
Southeast Asia	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brunei Darussalam	13.2	12.3	17.4 (2011)	6.5	6.1	8.4 (2011)
Cambodia	10.6	16.2	16.1	3.5	10.7	13.0
Indonesia	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lao PDR	...	...	...	...	...	...
Malaysia	20.9	23.7	21.5	5.5	6.4	7.7
Myanmar	...	...	...	...	...	...
Philippines	16.6	17.1	16.5	2.3	2.1	2.9
Singapore	18.9	21.0	20.4 (2012)	7.6	5.1	9.1 (2012)
Thailand	22.4	23.1	19.0	7.5	7.6	9.6
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 (2012)	14.0	14.7	15.5 (2012)
Kiribati	19.4	19.9	17.7 (2012)	14.9	13.7	13.1 (2012)
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)	9.3	...	11.1 (2004)	5.7
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	7.7	14.6 (1999)	16.4	16.0
Japan	14.7	13.5	8.5 (2012)	20.9	21.8	19.7 (2012)
New Zealand	14.9	16.5	18.5	15.1	17.6	19.6

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

a Data refer to central government, except for Australia, Bangladesh (prior to 1997), Georgia, Japan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Pakistan, and Tajikistan, where data refer to commonwealth, consolidated, 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] (%)								
	Total			Urban[b]		Rural[b]		Urban-to-Rural Ratio	
	2000	2008	2011	2008	2011	2008	2011	2008	2011
Developing Member Economies	**67.9**	**77.4**	**83.2**	**94.6**	**95.4**	**66.1**	**74.8**	**1.4**	**1.3**
Central and West Asia									
Afghanistan	2.0	14.4	30.0 (2010)	22.0	56.7	12.0	22.2	1.8	2.6 (2010)
Armenia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Azerbaijan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Georgia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kazakhstan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kyrgyz Republic	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Pakistan	52.9	57.6	68.6	78.0	88.4	46.0	57.4	1.7	1.5
Tajikistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
East Asia									
China, People's Rep. of	98.6	99.4	99.8	100.0	100.0	99.0	99.6	1.0	1.0
Hong Kong, China	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mongolia	64.6 (2005)	67.0	88.2	90.0	97.9	36.0	67.1	2.5	1.5
Taipei,China	98.6	99.0	99.0 (2010)	100.0	100.0	98.0	98.1	1.0	1.0 (2010)
South Asia									
Bangladesh	20.4	41.0	59.6	76.0	90.2	28.0	47.5	2.7	1.9
Bhutan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
India	43.0	64.5	75.3	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	72.1	2.6	1.3
Sri Lanka	62.0	76.6	85.4	85.8	96.0	75.0	83.5	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	34.0	66.0	97.0	12.5	18.2	5.3	5.3
Indonesia	53.4	64.5	72.9	94.0	85.1	32.0	60.4	2.9	1.4
Lao PDR	...	55.0	78.0	84.0	93.1	42.0	70.1	2.0	1.3
Malaysia	96.9	99.4	99.5	100.0	99.8	98.0	98.7	1.0	1.0
Myanmar	5.0	13.0	48.8	19.0	89.0	10.0	29.3	1.9	3.0
Philippines	87.4	86.0	70.2	97.0	89.2	65.0	52.0	1.5	1.7
Singapore	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	na	na	...	...
Thailand	82.1	99.3	99.0	100.0	100.0	99.0	98.5	1.0	1.0
Viet Nam	75.8	89.0	96.1	99.6	99.7	85.0	94.4	1.2	1.1
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 (2010)	52.0	83.4	10.5	20.2	5.0	4.1 (2010)
Tonga	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Developed Member Economies									
Australia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

... = data not available, na = not applicable, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

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 International Energy Agency's *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 economy sources.

b Figures refer to the same year as indicated in the column "Urban-to-Rural Ratio" unless otherwise specified.

Source: International Energy Agency (2013).

Table 2.6: Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services

	23 Share of Households Using Solid Fuels for Cooking (%)							
	Earliest Year			Latest Year				
	Total	Urban[a]	Rural[a]	Total	Urban[a]	Rural[a]	Lowest Wealth Quintile[a]	Highest Wealth Quintile[a]
Developing Member Economies								
Central and West Asia								
Afghanistan	85.6 (2007)	34.5	95.7	83.0 (2011)	31.5	94.6	99.4	29.1
Armenia	26.4 (2000)	8.6	53.9	1.6 (2010)	0.1	4.3	7.3	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	53.6 (2005)	17.7	89.5	99.2	0.0
Kazakhstan	20.3 (1999)	3.3	41.7	8.8 (2011)	2.6	18.3	33.0	0.0
Kyrgyz Republic	37.3 (2005)	12.4	56.2	22.3 (2012)	4.5	33.4	98.6	0.5
Pakistan	68.8 (1998)	32.0	85.7	62.1 (2013)	13.4	87.0	98.6	6.3
Tajikistan	74.5 (1999)	32.7	90.1	29.2 (2012)	3.4	40.7	65.3	3.0
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								
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 (1990)	8.9	23.4	...	...	...	...	...
Mongolia	76.5 (2005)	60.9	97.6	68.0 (2010)	54.0	90.0	99.0	64.0
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Asia								
Bangladesh	44.3 (1991)	57.6	42.7	86.2 (2011)	50.1	98.2	99.2	42.7
Bhutan	66.5 (2003)	4.7	84.8	33.3 (2012)	1.7	49.5	99.9 (2010)	0.2 (2010)
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	21.1	0.0
Nepal	88.3 (2001)	39.1	94.1	75.1 (2011)	29.3	82.7	99.7	16.4
Sri Lanka	66.1 (2003)	27.2	75.0	80.7 (2009)	36.2	87.1	92.0 (2003)	23.0 (2003)
Southeast Asia								
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	96.2 (2000)	81.9	98.6	88.0 (2010)	48.1	96.1	99.9	43.8
Indonesia	44.8 (2002)	16.0	69.0	38.1 (2012)	15.8	59.5	85.6	0.9
Lao PDR	97.7 (1995)	85.6	99.4	95.8 (2012)	86.6	99.3	99.9	81.7
Malaysia	...	...	...	0.8 (2003)	0.1	2.1	3.9	0.1
Myanmar	92.6 (2003)	84.7	95.8	94.3 (2010)	83.2	99.0	99.9	76.7
Philippines	44.5 (2003)	26.4	70.5	64.2 (2008)	43.1	85.6	99.5	8.3
Singapore	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand	65.5 (1990)	...	...	34.4 (2005)	9.6	45.8	87.8	0.4
Viet Nam	87.0 (1997)	53.6	97.6	45.7 (2011)	16.3	58.1	96.6	1.9
The Pacific								
Cook Islands	19.0 (1991)	...	...	4.8 (2006)	...	...	...	...
Fiji	48.0 (1996)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	...	...	...	68.8 (2009)	25.9	95.5	...	...
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 (1990)	...	...	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 (2010)	81.2	99.1	100.0	75.0
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	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

... = data not available, 0.0 = magnitude is less than half of unit employed, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

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

Sources: Data on solid fuel use are updated using ICF International's country *Demographic and Health Survey* datasets and reports, United Nations Children's Fund's country *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey* datasets and reports, *Living Standards Survey 2012 Report* for Bhutan, and electronic files provided by the World Health Organization on 15 June 2012 and 1 July 2012.

Table 2.6: Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services

	24 Proportion of Population Using an Improved Drinking Water Source (%)					
	1990			2012		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
Developing Member Economies[a]	**70**	**93**	**61**	**91**	**97**	**87**
Central and West Asia[a]	**86**	**95**	**80**	**87**	**96**	**82**
Afghanistan	5 (1991)	14 (1991)	3 (1991)	64	90	56
Armenia	91 (1992)	98 (1992)	75 (1992)	100	100	100
Azerbaijan	70	88	49	80	88	71
Georgia	85	95	72	99	100	97
Kazakhstan	94	97	90	93	99	86
Kyrgyz Republic	73	96	59	88	97	82
Pakistan	85	95	81	91	96	89
Tajikistan	58 (1993)	92 (1993)	44 (1993)	72	93	64
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	62	90	26	85	95	61
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Asia[a]	**70**	**88**	**64**	**92**	**96**	**90**
Bangladesh	68	81	65	85	86	84
Bhutan	86 (1997)	99 (1997)	82 (1997)	98	99	97
India	70	89	64	93	97	91
Maldives	93	100	91	99	100	98
Nepal	66	97	63	88	90	88
Sri Lanka	68	92	63	94	99	93
Southeast Asia[a]	**71**	**90**	**62**	**89**	**94**	**85**
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	22	32	20	71	94	66
Indonesia	70	90	61	85	93	76
Lao PDR	40 (1994)	70 (1994)	33 (1994)	72	84	65
Malaysia	88	94	82	100	100	99
Myanmar	56	80	48	86	95	81
Philippines	84	92	75	92	92	91
Singapore	100	100	na	100	100	na
Thailand	86	96	82	96	97	95
Viet Nam	62	90	54	95	98	94
The Pacific[a]	**46**	**90**	**35**	**54**	**93**	**44**
Cook Islands	100	...	...	100	...	...
Fiji	85	94	79	96	100	92
Kiribati	50	74	36	67	87	51
Marshall Islands	92	91	94	95	93	98
Micronesia, Fed. States of	91	94	90	89	95	87
Nauru	93 (1996)	93 (1996)	na	96	96	na
Palau	90	98	72	95 (2011)	97 (2011)	86 (2011)
Papua New Guinea	34	87	24	40	88	33
Samoa	89	97	87	99	97	99
Solomon Islands	80 (2000)	93 (2000)	77 (2000)	81	93	77
Timor-Leste	53 (1995)	67 (1995)	49 (1995)	70	95	61
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

... = data not available, na = not applicable, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

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. Data values not corresponding to the reference year are excluded from the regional aggregates. Data for population are from the World Health Organization and the United Nations Children's Fund Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation.

Sources: *Progress on Drinking Water and Sanitation Report: 2014 Update* (WHO and UNICEF 2014); WHO and UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation. http://www.wssinfo.org/ (accessed 14 May 2014); United Nations Statistics Division. Millennium Indicators Database Online. http://millenniumindicators.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx (accessed 9 July 2014).

Table 2.6: Access to Basic Infrastructure Utilities and Services

	25 Proportion of Population Using an Improved Sanitation Facility (percent)					
	1990			2012		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
Developing Member Economies[a]	**28**	**57**	**17**	**56**	**72**	**44**
Central and West Asia[a]	**47**	**82**	**27**	**59**	**78**	**48**
Afghanistan	21 (1991)	26 (1991)	20 (1991)	29	47	23
Armenia	89 (1992)	95 (1992)	75 (1992)	91	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	91	92	91	92	92	92
Pakistan	27	72	7	48	72	34
Tajikistan	90 (1993)	92 (1993)	88 (1993)	94	94	95
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	47 (1992)	65 (1992)	24 (1992)	56	65	35
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Asia[a]	**20**	**50**	**10**	**39**	**60**	**30**
Bangladesh	33	46	30	57	55	58
Bhutan	34 (1997)	66 (1997)	25 (1997)	47	75	31
India	18	50	7	36	60	25
Maldives	68	98	58	99	97	100
Nepal	6	34	3	37	51	34
Sri Lanka	68	78	65	92	83	94
Southeast Asia[a]	**48**	**69**	**37**	**71**	**80**	**63**
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	3	18	0	37	82	25
Indonesia	35	61	24	59	71	46
Lao PDR	20 (1994)	62 (1994)	12 (1994)	65	90	50
Malaysia	84	88	81	96	96	95
Myanmar	53 (1991)	77 (1991)	45 (1991)	77	84	74
Philippines	57	69	45	74	79	69
Singapore	99	99	na	100	100	na
Thailand	82	87	79	93	89	96
Viet Nam	37	64	31	75	93	67
The Pacific[a]	**29**	**70**	**19**	**31**	**71**	**22**
Cook Islands	92 (1995)	...	...	97	...	...
Fiji	57	85	37	87	92	82
Kiribati	28	43	20	40	51	31
Marshall Islands	65	77	41	76	84	56
Micronesia, Fed. States of	19	49	9	57	85	49
Nauru	66	66	na	66	66	na
Palau	46	63	8	100	100	100
Papua New Guinea	20	62	13	19	56	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	69	27
Tonga	95	98	95	91	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)

... = data not available, 0 = magnitude is less than half of unit employed, na = not applicable, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

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. Data values not corresponding to the reference year are excluded from the regional aggregates. Data for population are from the World Health Organization and the United Nations Children's Fund Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation.

Sources: *Progress on Drinking Water and Sanitation Report: 2014 Update* (WHO and UNICEF 2014); WHO and UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation. http://www.wssinfo.org/ (accessed 14 May 2014); United Nations Statistics Division. Millennium Indicators Database Online. http://millenniumindicators.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx (accessed 9 July 2014).

Table 2.7: Gender Equality and Opportunity

	26 Gender Parity in Education[a]					
	Primary		Secondary		Tertiary[b]	
	1991	2012	1991	2012	1991	2012
Developing Member Economies	**0.86**	**0.99**	**0.72**	**0.97**	**0.64**	**0.96**
Central and West Asia	**0.69**	**0.86**	**0.80**	**0.81**	**0.84**	**0.99**
Afghanistan	0.55	0.72	0.51	0.55	0.49 (1990)	0.33 (2011)
Armenia	1.05	1.14 (2009)	1.09 (2000)	1.21	1.26 (2000)	1.57
Azerbaijan	0.99	0.98	1.00	0.99	0.67	1.05
Georgia	1.00	1.01	0.97	0.95 (2008)	0.91	1.27
Kazakhstan	1.04	1.01 (2013)	1.02 (1993)	0.97	1.25 (1994)	1.43
Kyrgyz Republic	1.01 (1992)	0.98	1.02	1.00 (2011)	1.33 (1993)	1.24 (2011)
Pakistan	0.53 (1990)	0.87	0.48	0.74	0.27 (1992)	0.95
Tajikistan	0.98	0.98	0.86 (1999)	0.90	0.43 (1999)	0.52
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	0.98	0.97 (2011)	0.98 (1999)	0.98 (2011)	0.82 (1999)	0.65 (2011)
East Asia	**0.92**	**1.00**	**0.77**	**1.02**	**0.50**	**1.09**
China, People's Rep. of	0.91	1.00	0.75	1.02	0.53 (1994)	1.13
Hong Kong, China	1.00 (1995)	0.98	1.03 (1996)	0.99	0.70 (1992)	1.05
Korea, Rep. of	1.01	0.99	0.97	0.99	0.49	0.75
Mongolia	0.99	0.97	1.10	1.03	2.27 (1996)	1.45
Taipei,China	1.01	1.01 (2013)	1.04	1.01 (2013)	0.96	1.09 (2013)
South Asia	**0.77**	**1.03**	**0.60**	**0.96**	**0.50**	**0.78**
Bangladesh	0.84 (1990)	1.06 (2011)	0.51 (1990)	1.14	0.20 (1990)	0.69 (2011)
Bhutan	0.60	1.02	0.76 (1998)	1.06	0.58 (1999)	0.69
India	0.76	1.02 (2011)	0.63 (1993)	0.94 (2011)	0.54	0.78 (2011)
Maldives	1.00 (1992)	0.97 (2009)	1.04 (1994)	1.13 (2004)	2.29 (2003)	1.13 (2008)
Nepal	0.62	1.08 (2013)	0.45	1.05 (2013)	0.32	0.64 (2011)
Sri Lanka	0.97	1.00	1.09	1.06	0.50 (1994)	1.66
Southeast Asia	**0.97**	**0.99**	**0.90**	**1.02**	**0.96**	**1.12**
Brunei Darussalam	0.94	0.98	1.09	1.01	1.36 (1992)	1.74
Cambodia	0.84 (1994)	0.95	0.54 (1998)	0.85 (2008)	0.21 (1993)	0.61 (2011)
Indonesia	0.98	1.00	0.82	1.03	0.66 (1993)	1.03
Lao PDR	0.79	0.95	0.66 (1992)	0.87	0.43 (1993)	0.82
Malaysia	1.00	0.94 (2005)	1.05	0.97 (2011)	1.07 (1998)	1.20 (2011)
Myanmar	0.94	0.99 (2010)	0.96	1.05 (2010)	1.22 (1992)	1.34 (2011)
Philippines	0.99	0.98 (2009)	1.04 (1990)	1.08 (2009)	1.49 (1992)	1.24 (2009)
Singapore	...	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand	0.98	0.95 (2013)	0.96	1.06	1.14 (1993)	1.34 (2013)
Viet Nam	0.99	1.01	0.90 (1998)	...	0.66 (1998)	1.02 (2011)
The Pacific	**0.91**	**0.93**	**0.90**	**0.88**	**0.73 (1992)**	**0.89 (2000)**
Cook Islands	1.00 (1998)	1.01	1.10 (1998)	1.00	na	1.36
Fiji	1.00	1.01	0.97	1.11	1.20 (2003)	1.19 (2005)
Kiribati	1.01	1.04 (2009)	1.08	1.11 (2008)	na	na
Marshall Islands	0.99 (1999)	0.99 (2011)	1.06 (1999)	1.03 (2009)	1.28 (2002)	0.92
Micronesia, Fed. States of	0.98 (2004)	1.01 (2007)	1.06 (2004)	1.08 (2005)	...	...
Nauru	0.96 (1998)	1.03	1.17 (2000)	0.97	na	na
Palau	0.93 (1999)	0.97 (2004)	1.07 (1999)	1.02 (2004)	2.35 (2000)	2.04 (2002)
Papua New Guinea	0.85	0.91	0.67	0.76	0.47 (1995)	0.57 (1999)
Samoa	1.02 (1994)	1.00	1.23 (1994)	1.11	0.96 (1998)	0.92 (2000)
Solomon Islands	0.85	0.98	0.59	0.94	na	na
Timor-Leste	0.92 (2004)	0.95 (2011)	0.96 (2004)	1.02 (2011)	1.23 (2002)	0.73 (2010)
Tonga	1.00	0.99	1.02	0.97 (2011)	1.35 (1999)	1.66 (2003)
Tuvalu	1.04 (2000)	0.95 (2006)	...	1.10 (2001)	na	na
Vanuatu	0.96	0.99 (2010)	0.81	1.00 (2010)	0.57 (2002)	0.59 (2004)
Developed Member Economies	**1.00**	**1.00**	**1.01**	**0.99**	**0.73**	**1.02**
Australia	1.00	1.00	1.01 (1993)	0.95	1.18	1.38
Japan	1.00	1.00	1.02	1.00	0.65	0.90
New Zealand	0.99	1.00	1.01	1.05	1.13	1.46

... = data not available, na = not applicable, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

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 24 May 2014. 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 Kiribati, Nauru, Solomon Islands, and Tuvalu. In the Cook Islands and the Maldives, tertiary education became available only recently.

Sources: United Nations Statistics Division. Millennium Indicators Database Online. http://millenniumindicators.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx (accessed 8 July 2014); UNESCO Institute for Statistics Data Centre. http://data.uis.unesco.org (accessed 16 May 2014); for Taipei,China: Educational Statistical Indicators Online. http://english.moe.gov.tw/ct.asp?xItem=14504&CtNode=11430&mp=1 (accessed 5 May 2014).

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]		**81.8**						
Central and West Asia[a]		**74.2**						
Afghanistan	16.1 (2003)	47.9 (2011)	77.1	41.2	1.9 (2011)	25.8	77.1	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	100.1	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)	95.5	99.2	1.0 (2012)
Pakistan	25.6 (1991)	73.1 (2013)	87.8	66.7	1.3 (2013)	50.9	96.6	1.9 (2013)
Tajikistan	71.3 (2000)	78.8 (2012)	82.7	77.7	1.1 (2012)	66.3	86.7	1.3 (2012)
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]		**93.7**						
China, People's Rep. of	69.7 (1992)	93.7 (2011)	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong, China	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mongolia	89.8 (1998)	99.0 (2010)	99.0	99.0	1.0 (2010)	99.0	98.0	1.0 (2010)
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Asia[a]		**72.2**						
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	98.9	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)	99.5	99.4	1.0 (2007)	99.0	99.6	1.0 (2007)
Southeast Asia[a]		**92.8**						
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)	86.9	99.4	1.1 (2012)
Lao PDR	26.5 (2001)	54.2 (2012)	83.4	45.9	1.8 (2012)	22.9	91.7	4.0 (2012)
Malaysia	73.6 (2003)	97.4 (2011)	...	...	...	...	...	...
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)	98.1 (2012)	97.8	98.3	1.0 (2012)	97.1	99.7	1.0 (2012)
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]		**80.9**						
Cook Islands	100.0 (2005)	100.0 (2008)	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	100.0 (2008)	95.0 (2010)	...	...	...	...	...	...
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)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

continued

a Regional aggregates are population-weighted averages estimated using total number of live births available for the years 2006–2013. The data for annual number of live births are from the United Nations Population Division's *World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision*.

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

	27 Antenatal Care Coverage of at Least Four Visits (% 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]		**46.9**						
Central and West Asia[a]		**39.1**						
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)	78.4	97.2	1.2 (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)	83.6 (2012)	93.0	79.3	1.2 (2012)	...	...	...
Pakistan	14.2 (1991)	36.6 (2013)	61.6	25.8	2.4 (2013)	10.1	64.0	6.3 (2007)
Tajikistan	...	52.5 (2012)	64.0	49.1	1.3 (2012)	53.3	52.5	1.0 (2007)
Turkmenistan	82.8 (2000)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	78.5 (1996)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
East Asia[a]		...						
China, People's Rep. of	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong, China	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mongolia	...	81.0 (2010)	82.0	80.0	1.0 (2010)	78.0	83.0	1.1 (2010)
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Asia[a]		**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]		**79.3**						
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)	87.8 (2012)	92.7	82.9	1.1 (2012)	61.1	96.4	1.6 (2007)
Lao PDR	...	36.9 (2012)	70.6	27.2	2.6 (2012)	9.1	82.6	9.1 (2012)
Malaysia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Myanmar	65.9 (2001)	73.4 (2007)	90.2	67.6	1.3 (2007)	...	...	...
Philippines	52.1 (1993)	77.8 (2008)	83.0	72.6	1.1 (2008)	61.1	93.1	1.5 (2008)
Singapore	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand	79.6 (2009)	93.4 (2012)	93.6	93.3	1.0 (2012)	85.9	96.0	1.1 (2012)
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]		**55.9**						
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	...	70.8 (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)	70.4 (2012)	71.7	70.0	1.0 (2012)	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	67.3 (2007)	67.7	67.0	1.0 (2007)	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Developed Member Economies		...						
Australia	...	92.0 (2008)	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

a Regional aggregates are population-weighted averages estimated using total number of live births available for the years 2006–2013. The data for annual number of live births are from the United Nations Population Division's *World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision*.

Sources: United Nations Statistics Division. Millennium Indicators Database Online. http://millenniumindicators.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx (accessed 9 July 2014); United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). Data and Analytics. www.data.unicef.org (accessed 27 May 2014); electronic files provided by the World Health Organization (WHO) on 14 February 2014; WHO. Global Health Observatory Data Repository. apps.who.int/ghodata (accessed 27 May 2014); The DHS Program STAT compiler. http://www.statcompiler.com/ (accessed 27 May 2014); ICF International's country *Demographic and Health Survey* reports; UNICEF's country *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey* reports; UNICEF's *The State of the World's Children Report 2014*; Pacific Regional Information System. National Minimum Development Indicators Database. http://www.spc.int/nmdi/ (accessed 27 May 2014).

Table 2.7: Gender Equality and Opportunity

	28 Gender Parity in Labor Force Participation, Aged 15 and Over[a]		
	1990	2000	2012
Developing Member Economies[b]	**0.67**	**0.65**	**0.62**
Central and West Asia[b]	**0.37**	**0.37**	**0.42**
Afghanistan	0.19	0.17	0.20
Armenia	0.78	0.79	0.70
Azerbaijan	0.76	0.80	0.91
Georgia	0.74	0.74	0.75
Kazakhstan	0.80	0.85	0.87
Kyrgyz Republic	0.79	0.76	0.71
Pakistan	0.16	0.19	0.29
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**	**0.84**	**0.81**
China, People's Rep. of	0.86	0.85	0.82
Hong Kong, China	0.60	0.67	0.76
Korea, Rep. of	0.64	0.67	0.69
Mongolia	0.84	0.85	0.82
Taipei,China	0.60	0.66	0.75
South Asia[b]	**0.45**	**0.44**	**0.41**
Bangladesh	0.70	0.63	0.68
Bhutan	0.63	0.67	0.86
India	0.41	0.41	0.36
Maldives	0.26	0.53	0.73
Nepal	0.88	0.90	0.92
Sri Lanka	0.47	0.49	0.46
Southeast Asia[b]	**0.73**	**0.71**	**0.72**
Brunei Darussalam	0.55	0.70	0.70
Cambodia	0.92	0.93	0.91
Indonesia	0.62	0.59	0.61
Lao PDR	0.97	0.97	0.97
Malaysia	0.54	0.55	0.59
Myanmar	0.91	0.92	0.91
Philippines	0.58	0.60	0.64
Singapore	0.64	0.67	0.76
Thailand	0.87	0.81	0.80
Viet Nam	0.88	0.88	0.89
The Pacific[b]	**0.78**	**0.83**	**0.84**
Cook Islands	0.61 (1991)	0.80 (2001)	0.85 (2011)
Fiji	0.35	0.51	0.52
Kiribati	...	0.88	0.78 (2010)
Marshall Islands	0.53 (1999)	0.52	0.55 (2011)
Micronesia, Fed. States of	0.53 (1994)	0.75	0.73 (2010)
Nauru	...	0.80 (2002)	0.62 (2011)
Palau	0.71	0.78	0.78 (2005)
Papua New Guinea	0.96	0.96	0.95
Samoa	0.52	0.44	0.40
Solomon Islands	0.68	0.67	0.68
Timor-Leste	0.52	0.51	0.48
Tonga	0.48	0.67	0.72
Tuvalu	...	...	...
Vanuatu	0.89	0.84	0.77
Developed Member Economies[b]	**0.66**	**0.66**	**0.71**
Australia	0.69	0.76	0.82
Japan	0.65	0.65	0.68
New Zealand	0.72	0.77	0.84

... = data not available, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

a Gender parity is measured as the ratio of female labor force participation rate to male labor force participation rate.
b Regional aggregates are weighted averages estimated using working-age population data as weights for the respective year headings or nearest years given in the table.

Sources: ADB estimates based on data from ILO's *Key Indicators of the Labour Market. 8th Edition* (http://www.ilo.org/kilm), accessed 6 May 2014; Pacific Regional Information System. National Minimum Development Indicators Database. http://www.spc.int/nmdi/ (accessed 8 May 2014); economy sources.

Table 2.7: Gender Equality and Opportunity

	29 Percentage of Seats Held by Women in National Parliament		
	1990	2000	2014
Developing Member Economies[a]	**14.6**	**13.8**	**19.4**
Central and West Asia[a]	**20.2**	**7.1**	**20.7**
Afghanistan	3.7	27.3 (2006)	27.7
Armenia	35.6	3.1	10.7
Azerbaijan	12.0 (1997)	12.0	15.6
Georgia	6.8 (1997)	7.2	12.0
Kazakhstan	13.4 (1997)	10.4	25.2
Kyrgyz Republic	1.4 (1997)	1.4	23.3
Pakistan	10.1	2.3 (1999)	20.7
Tajikistan	2.8 (1997)	2.8	15.9
Turkmenistan	26.0	26.0	26.4
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**	**17.9**
Bangladesh	10.3	9.1	19.8
Bhutan	2.0	2.0	8.5
India	5.0	9.0	11.4
Maldives	6.3	6.0 (2001)	6.8
Nepal	6.1	5.9	29.9
Sri Lanka	4.9	4.9	5.8
Southeast Asia[a]	**10.4**	**14.6**	**18.0**
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	...	...	5.6
Philippines	9.1	12.4	27.3
Singapore	4.9	4.3	25.3
Thailand	2.8	5.6	15.8
Viet Nam	17.7	26.0	24.3
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	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**	**15.8**
Australia	6.1	22.4	26.0
Japan	1.4	4.6	8.1
New Zealand	14.4	29.2	33.9

... = data not available, – = magnitude equals zero, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

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 United Nations Statistics Division's Millennium Indicators Database Online and Inter-Parliamentary Union.

Sources: United Nations Statistics Division. Millennium Indicators Database Online. http://millenniumindicators.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx (accessed 9 July 2014); Inter-Parliamentary Union. http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/world.htm (accessed 11 June 2014); Pacific Regional Information System. National Minimum Development Indicators Database. http://www.spc.int/nmdi/ (accessed 15 July 2014) for the Cook Islands and the Republic of Marshall Islands.

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	2013	1995	2000	2012	1995	2000	2013
Developing Member Economies	...	...	**44.7**	**46.9**	**58.3**	...	...	...
Central and West Asia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Afghanistan	2.5 (2008)	2.5	...	– (2002)	– (2011)	...	...	...
Armenia	4.5 (2006)	4.5	–	–	–	6.0 (1996)	9.8	28.9
Azerbaijan	3.5	3.5 (2007)	–	–	–	8.5	18.2	9.1
Georgia	4.0 (2007)	4.5	39.2	46.0	68.8	25.0	26.3	25.4
Kazakhstan	...	...	13.7 (1996)	19.4 (1998)	...	...	...	...
Kyrgyz Republic	3.5	4.5	–	10.0	64.1	19.9	10.1	19.6
Pakistan	3.0	3.5	5.4	5.8	3.1	...	...	...
Tajikistan	3.0	4.0	...	...	...	0.6 [d]	12.3 [d]	19.4 [d]
Turkmenistan	...	...	–	6.5	6.5	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	3.5	4.5	...	...	...	...	...	...
East Asia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
China, People's Rep. of	...	...	64.2	57.2	67.9	1.7	4.7	10.0 (2012)
Hong Kong, China	...	...	...	...	...	7.3	10.1	12.0
Korea, Rep. of	...	...	79.5	77.3	79.5	7.7 [e]	15.2 [e]	24.6 [e]
Mongolia	3.5	4.5	36.8	24.1	21.2	16.3 [f]	17.7 [f]	29.1 [f]
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	23.7	25.3	27.4 (2012)
South Asia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bangladesh	4.0	4.0	–	–	–	0.9	1.3	5.2
Bhutan	3.5	4.5	–	–	–	...	4.7 (2002)	3.8
India	3.5	3.5	16.7	18.3	12.8	4.5 (1999)	4.2	5.3 (2012)
Maldives	3.5	4.0	–	–	22.2	3.1	2.8	14.7
Nepal	3.0	4.0	–	–	–	3.1 [g]	5.4 [g]	3.1 [g]
Sri Lanka	3.5	4.0	0.1	0.3	0.1 (2011)	16.3	10.8	9.5
Southeast Asia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...	...	...	3.7	3.6	3.8 (2011)
Cambodia	2.5	3.5	...	...	...	5.1	2.4	5.9
Indonesia	3.5	3.5 (2007)	10.2	6.3	17.6	...	...	...
Lao PDR	3.5	3.5	0.8	1.2	4.9	...	...	...
Malaysia	...	...	0.5	0.7	0.9	3.5 [h]	3.7 [h]	3.4 [h]
Myanmar	...	...	1.6	2.9	3.0	...	...	...
Philippines	...	...	11.4	14.7	28.3	1.9	3.9	8.4
Singapore	...	...	4.0	4.8	12.7	5.0	3.5	12.2 (2012)
Thailand	...	...	7.1	9.4	10.1	3.5	5.6	8.8
Viet Nam	4.0	4.5	7.0	19.7	37.0	...	...	...
The Pacific	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cook Islands	4.0	4.5 (2007)	–	–	–	...	...	...
Fiji	...	...	–	–	–	0.3	0.4	0.7 (2012)
Kiribati	3.0	3.5	–	–	–	2.1 [i] (1997)	1.7 [i]	2.4 [i] (2012)
Marshall Islands	3.0	3.0	29.2	35.0	14.1	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	2.5	3.0	10.9	21.4	18.5	...	...	...
Nauru	2.5 (2007)	3.5	–	–	–	...	...	...
Palau	3.5 (2008)	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	1.5 (2007)	3.0	...	– (2002)	–	...	– (2004)	12.2
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	...	...	–	–	– (2011)	37.3 (1999)	36.6	34.4
Japan	...	...	82.7	84.9	87.6	36.5	36.8	48.1 (2012)
New Zealand	...	...	–	–	9.4	38.2	39.4	21.8

... = data not available, – = magnitude equals zero, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

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 $ exchange rate from the Global Health Observatory Data Repository.
c Data refer to central government, except for Australia, Bangladesh (prior to 1997), Georgia, Japan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Pakistan, and Tajikistan, where data refer to commonwealth, consolidated, or general government.
d From 2000 onward, data on social security and welfare include defense.
e Refers to social development.
f Includes all social and cultural expenditures.
g Includes pension, allowances, and gratuity.
h Mainly includes welfare services, post and broadcasting, culture, youth, and sports.
i Refers to welfare and environment.

Sources: ADB. *Country Performance Assessment Annual Report* (ADB 2014); World Bank. Country Policy and Institutional Assessment. http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/CPIA (accessed 18 July 2014); World Health Organization. Global Health Expenditure Database. http://apps.who.int/nha/database (accessed 11 June 2014); economy sources.

Table 2.9: Good Governance and Institutions

	33 Voice and Accountability[a]		34 Government Effectiveness[a]		35 Control of Corruption[a]	
	1996	2012	1996	2012	1996	2012
Developing Member Economies[b]	**−0.2**	**−0.3**	**−0.1**	**−0.2**	**−0.2**	**−0.3**
Central and West Asia[b]	**−1.1**	**−1.1**	**−1.0**	**−0.7**	**−1.1**	**−1.0**
Afghanistan	−1.9	−1.3	−2.3	−1.4	−1.8	−1.4
Armenia	−0.7	−0.6	−0.4	−0.0	−0.5	−0.5
Azerbaijan	−1.1	−1.3	−0.9	−0.8	−1.3	−1.1
Georgia	−0.4	−0.0	−0.7	0.6	−1.4	0.3
Kazakhstan	−1.0	−1.1	−1.1	−0.4	−1.1	−0.9
Kyrgyz Republic	−0.8	−0.6	−0.4	−0.7	−0.5	−1.1
Pakistan	−0.7	−0.9	−0.6	−0.8	−1.2	−1.1
Tajikistan	−1.7	−1.4	−1.5	−0.9	−1.4	−1.2
Turkmenistan	−1.5	−2.2	−1.2	−1.3	−0.5	−1.3
Uzbekistan	−1.5	−2.0	−1.1	−0.9	−1.1	−1.2
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	0.0	−0.3	−0.5
Hong Kong, China	0.3	0.6	1.2	1.8	1.5	1.7
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	−0.5
Taipei,China	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.1	0.6	0.7
South Asia[b]	**−0.2**	**−0.4**	**0.0**	**−0.3**	**−0.1**	**−0.4**
Bangladesh	−0.1	−0.4	−0.7	−0.8	−0.7	−0.9
Bhutan	−0.8	−0.3	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.8
India	0.4	0.4	−0.1	−0.2	−0.4	−0.6
Maldives	−0.4	−0.5	0.9	−0.2	0.4	−0.4
Nepal	−0.1	−0.7	−0.4	−1.0	−0.0	−0.8
Sri Lanka	−0.4	−0.6	−0.3	−0.2	−0.1	−0.2
Southeast Asia[b]	**−0.6**	**−0.7**	**0.0**	**0.0**	**−0.1**	**−0.2**
Brunei Darussalam	−0.7	−0.5	1.0	0.8	0.5	0.6
Cambodia	−0.9	−1.0	−0.9	−0.8	−1.0	−1.0
Indonesia	−0.8	0.0	−0.4	−0.3	−0.6	−0.7
Lao PDR	−0.9	−1.6	−0.7	−0.9	−0.5	−1.0
Malaysia	−0.1	−0.3	0.7	1.0	0.5	0.3
Myanmar	−1.9	−1.6	−1.3	−1.5	−1.4	−1.1
Philippines	0.2	−0.0	−0.2	0.1	−0.2	−0.6
Singapore	0.2	0.1	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.2
Thailand	0.3	−0.3	0.3	0.2	−0.2	−0.3
Viet Nam	−1.1	−1.4	−0.5	−0.3	−0.4	−0.6
The Pacific[b]	**0.8**	**0.5**	**−0.0**	**−0.7**	**0.0**	**−0.2**
Cook Islands	−0.3 (2009)	−0.4 (2011)	0.1 (2000)	−1.0 (2011)	−0.3 (2000)	−0.2 (2011)
Fiji	0.0	−0.9	−0.1	−0.9	0.4	−0.4
Kiribati	1.1	0.8	−0.6 (1998)	−0.8	−0.6 (1998)	0.0
Marshall Islands	1.2	1.2	−0.4 (1998)	−1.6	−0.6 (1998)	−0.1
Micronesia, Fed. States of	1.1	1.0	−0.4 (1998)	−0.6	−0.2 (1998)	−0.1
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)	−0.3
Papua New Guinea	0.1	−0.0	−0.3	−0.8	−0.4	−1.0
Samoa	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.1	−0.0	0.2
Solomon Islands	1.0	−0.0	−0.9 (1998)	−0.8	−0.6 (1998)	−0.4
Timor-Leste	0.2 (2000)	0.0	−0.8 (2002)	−1.2	−0.5 (2002)	−1.0
Tonga	0.2	0.4	−0.3 (1998)	−0.2	−0.2 (1998)	−0.1
Tuvalu	1.3	0.7	0.4 (2000)	−0.7	−0.2 (2000)	−0.3
Vanuatu	0.7	0.5	−0.4 (1998)	−0.2	−0.2 (1998)	0.4
Developed Member Economies[b]	**1.4**	**1.4**	**1.5**	**1.6**	**1.7**	**2.0**
Australia	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.6	1.9	2.0
Japan	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.4	1.0	1.6
New Zealand	1.7	1.6	1.9	1.8	2.2	2.3

... = data not available, 0.0 = magnitude is less than half of unit employed, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.

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: World Bank. Worldwide Governance Indicators. http://info.worldbank.org/governance/wgi/index.asp (accessed 12 March 2014).

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 $2 a day at 2005 international prices, adjusted for purchasing power parity (PPP).
	3 Ratio of income or consumption share of the highest quintile to lowest quintile	Income or consumption share that accrues to the richest 20% of the population divided by the income or consumption share of the poorest 20% of the population.
1.2 Nonincome Poverty and Inequality	4 Average years of total schooling (youth and adults)	Average years of total schooling is the average years of education completed among people aged 15–24 (youth) and 25 and over (adults).
	5 Prevalence of underweight children under 5 years of age	Percentage of children aged 0–59 months whose weights for age are less than two standard deviations below the median weight for age of the international reference population.
	6 Under-5 mortality rate per 1,000 live births	Probability (expressed as a rate per 1,000 live births) of a child born in a specified year dying before reaching the age of 5 if subject to current age-specific mortality rates.
Pillar One: Growth and Expansion of Economic Opportunity		
2.1 Economic Growth and Employment	7 Growth rate of GDP per capita at PPP (constant 2011 PPP$)	Average annual growth rate of gross domestic product (GDP) per capita based on PPP in constant 2011 international $.
	8 Growth rate of average per capita income or consumption in 2005 PPP (lowest quintile, highest quintile and total)	Average annual rate of growth of mean income or consumption per person in 2005 PPP per unit time.
	9 Employment-to-population ratio (youth and adults)	Proportion of a country's youth (aged 15–24) and working-age population (aged 15 and over) that is employed.
	10 GDP per person engaged (constant 1990 PPP$)	GDP per person engaged is a measure of labor productivity defined as output per unit of labour input. Output is measured as GDP, which represents the compensation for input of services from capital (including depreciation) and labor directly engaged in the production. Labor 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 midyear 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 mobile-cellular subscriptions 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 3 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. 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 1-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 households using solid fuels for cooking	Percentage of households 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 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 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 aged 15–49 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	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 secuirty 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 channeled through these institutions are included. 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.
	32 Government expenditure on social security and welfare as a percentage of total government expenditure	Government expenditure on social security and welfare (consists of expenditure by government to provide benefits in cash or in kind to persons who are sick, fully or partially disabled, of old age, survivors, or unemployed, among others) expressed as a percentage of total government expenditure.
Good Governance and Institutions		
	33 Voice and accountability	Perceptions of the extent to which a country's citizens are able to participate in selecting their government, as well as freedom of expression, freedom of association, and a free media. Scores presented in standard normal units of the governance indicator, ranging from −2.5 to 2.5, with higher values corresponding to better governance outcomes.
	34 Government effectiveness	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. 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.
	35 Control of corruption	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. 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.

Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators 2014

Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific Special Supplement, 4th edition

The *Framework of Inclusive Growth Indicators 2014 (FIGI 2014)* is the fourth 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 dimensions 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 focuses on the extent of education inclusion. It examines the education indicators included in FIGI, discusses trends on education poverty and education inequality, and describes disparities across segments of society defined by wealth, location, and sex. 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.

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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 approximately two-thirds of the world's poor: 1.6 billion people who live on less than $2 a day, with 733 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.

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