



Society at a Glance

Asia / Pacific Edition



Society at a Glance

Asia-Pacific Edition

2009

ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

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FOREWORD AND ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This publication is modelled upon the OECD's biennial compendium of social indicators, *Society at a Glance*. It constitutes the first attempt to use the same approach adopted for OECD social indicators in order to look into socio-economic trends and policy developments in Asia. It contains a concise and quantitative overview of Asia-Pacific societies with regard to self-sufficiency, equity, health, and social cohesion. It updates some of the indicators included in previous OECD editions of *Society at a Glance* (www.oecd.org/els/social/indicators/SAG) and adds new ones, including health risk factors, public health challenges, alcohol and tobacco use, and public policies and institutions. More detailed information on all indicators, including those not in this edition, can be found on the OECD/Korea Policy Center web page (www.oecdkorea.org).

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NOTES TO THIS EDITION

- Asia-Pacific :

- In most cases the data refer to 22 Asian economies (Bangladesh, Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, China, Hong Kong - China, India, Indonesia, Japan, Korea - Republic, Laos, Macao - China, Malaysia, Mongolia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Chinese Taipei, Thailand, and Viet Nam), unless stated otherwise. 2 Pacific economies (Australia and New Zealand) are included when equivalent and/or comparable data are available.

- Some indicator data are available for South Korea and North Korea, in which case the country labels in tables and figures are derived from their international denomination (i.e. “Republic” and “Democratic People’s Republic”). When data is available only for South Korea, it is simply labelled as “Korea”.

- “Asia-xx” refers to the unweighted average for Asian economies, where “xx” is the number of economies for which data were available. It systematically includes Japan and Korea and always excludes Australia, New Zealand, and OECD average.

- OECD :

- Data for OECD countries (Australia, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, and OECD average) are generally extracted from OECD sources, unless stated otherwise.

- “OECD-xx” refers to the unweighted average for OECD economies, where “xx” is the number of economies for which data were available. It systematically includes Australia, New Zealand, Japan, and Korea and always excludes Asia average.

- Other:

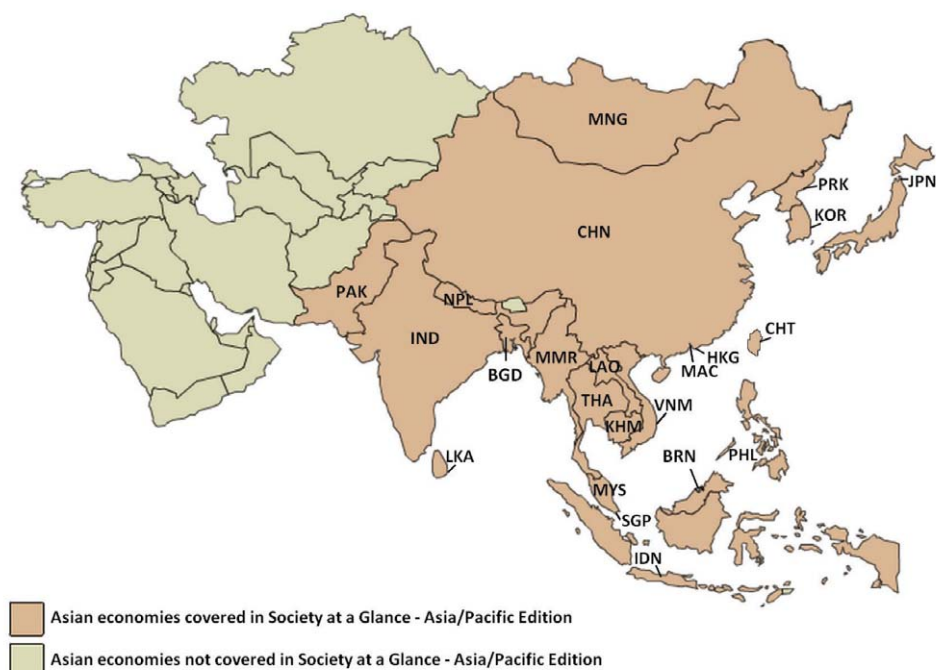
- “Asia-xx” and “OECD-xx” are generally unweighted averages, unless stated otherwise.

- In all tables, “..” refers to data not available.

- R² and regression lines in all correlation figures always include Australia, New Zealand, Japan, and Korea and always exclude Asia and OECD averages.

- In all tables and figures, economies are coded as follows:

AUS	Australia	MYS	Malaysia
BGD	Bangladesh	MNG	Mongolia
BRN	Brunei Darussalam	MMR	Myanmar
KHM	Cambodia	NPL	Nepal
CHN	China	NZL	New Zealand
HKG	Hong Kong, China	PAK	Pakistan
IND	India	PHI	Philippines
IDN	Indonesia	SGP	Singapore
JPN	Japan	LKA	Sri Lanka
KOR	Korea (Republic)	CHT	Chinese Taipei
PRK	Korea (Democratic People's Republic)	THA	Thailand
LAO	Laos (People's Democratic Republic)	VNM	Viet Nam
MAC	Macao, China		

Asia-Pacific economies covered in *Society at a Glance - Asia/Pacific Edition*

Source: United Nations Statistics Division (2008), *Composition of macro-geographical (continental) regions, geographical sub-regions, and selected economic groupings*, <http://millenniumindicators.un.org/unsd/methods/m49/m49regin.htm>.

Basic information and other data of interest on Asia and the Pacific, 2000/2004

Country Codes	Population, total		Surface area (sq. km)		Density (population per sq. km)	Agricultural land (% of land area)	
	2000	2004	2000	2004	2004	2000	2004
Australia AUS	19,153,000	20,132,756	7,741,220	7,741,220	3	59	57
Bangladesh BGD	139,434,376	150,528,256	144,000	144,000	1,045	70	69
Brunei Darussalam BRN	333,469	365,697	5,770	5,770	63	4	5
Cambodia KHM	12,779,568	13,720,274	181,040	181,040	76	27	30
China CHN	1,262,645,000	1,296,157,472	9,598,080	9,598,088	135	59	59
Hong Kong, China HKG	6,665,000	6,788,263	1,092	1,092	6,216
India IND	1,015,923,000	1,079,721,194	3,287,260	3,287,260	328	61	61
Indonesia IDN	206,265,000	217,587,498	1,904,570	1,904,570	114	25	26
Japan JPN	126,870,000	127,761,000	377,800	377,910	338	14	13
Korea (Rep.) KOR	47,008,111	48,082,163	99,260	99,260	484	20	19
Korea (Dem. Rep.) PRK	22,946,185	23,513,779	120,540	120,540	195	24	25
Laos LAO	5,223,970	5,573,531	236,800	236,800	24	8	8
Macao, China MAC	441,063	467,631	28	28	16,583
Malaysia MYS	23,273,615	25,191,441	329,740	329,740	76	24	24
Mongolia MNG	2,398,000	2,514,678	1,566,500	1,566,500	2	83	83
Myanmar MMR	45,884,007	47,565,497	676,580	676,580	70	16	17
Nepal NPL	24,419,299	26,553,885	147,180	147,180	180	29	29
New Zealand NZL	3,857,800	4,087,500	267,710	267,710	15	64	65
Pakistan PAK	138,080,000	152,061,263	796,100	796,100	191	35	35
Philippines PHL	76,213,060	82,867,926	300,000	300,000	276	41	41
Singapore SGP	4,027,900	4,166,700	680	699	5,961	2	1
Sri Lanka LKA	19,359,000	19,462,000	65,610	65,610	297	36	36
Thailand THA	60,665,589	62,565,066	513,120	513,120	122	39	36
Viet Nam VNM	77,635,400	82,031,700	329,240	329,310	249	28	31
Asia-22	3,318,490,612	3,475,246,914	20,680,990	20,681,197	168	32	32
OECD-30	923,872,912	948,029,050	32,034,600	32,035,080	30	37	36

Source: World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database (<http://devdata.worldbank.org/data-query>).

Asia-Pacific economies covered in Society at a Glance - Asia/Pacific Edition, by indicator

	General Context Indicators (GE)					Self-sufficiency indicators (SS)			Equity indicators (EQ)				Health indicators (HE)					Social cohesion indicators (CO)							
	Gross domestic product per capita	Age dependency ratio	Fertility rate	Migration	Marriage and divorce	Employment	Unemployment	Education	Earnings inequality	Gender wage gap	Social spending	Old-age replacement rates	Life expectancy	Health expenditure	Low birth weight	Infant mortality rate	HEARN factors and public health challenges	Life satisfaction	Alcohol and tobacco use	Drug use and related risks	Strikes	Voting	Public Policies and Institutions	Work accidents	Prisoners
	GE1	GE2	GE3	GE4	GE5	SS1	SS2	SS3	EQ1	EQ2	EQ3	EQ4	HE1	HE2	HE3	HE4	HE5	CO1	CO2	CO3	CO4	CO5	CO6	CO7	CO8
Australia	AUS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Bangladesh	BGD	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Brunei Darussalam	BRN	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Cambodia	KHM	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
China	CHN	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Hong Kong, China	HKG	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
India	IND	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Indonesia	IDN	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Japan	JPN	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Korea (Rep.)	KOR	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Korea (Dem. Rep.)	PRK	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Laos	LAO	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Macao, China	MAC	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Malaysia	MYS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Mongolia	MNG	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Myanmar	MMR	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Nepal	NPL	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
New Zealand	NZL	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Pakistan	PAK	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Philippines	PHL	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Singapore	SGP	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Sri Lanka	LKA	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Chinese Taipei	CHT	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Thailand	THA	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Viet Nam	VNM	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Asia average		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
OECD average		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note: Due to issues related to data availability and comparability not all economies are available in all tables and figures for each of the indicators listed above.

PART I

INDICATOR FRAMEWORK
AND ASSESSMENT

CHAPTER 1

AN INTERPRETIVE GUIDE

1. The goal of Asia-Pacific Social Indicators

Society at a Glance - Asia/Pacific Edition gives insights into economic and social development using social indicators similar to those used in *Society at a Glance* and applying them to Asia-Pacific economies. The indicators can contribute to answering questions that cover a broad range of social issues, including the effectiveness of public policies and their contribution to furthering social and economic development.

2. The framework of Asia-Pacific Social Indicators

Society at a Glance - Asia/Pacific Edition follows the same methodological framework as the OECD's *Society at a Glance* publication. Nevertheless, due to limitations in accessing and gathering data for Asia-Pacific economies, some social indicators cannot be completely derived from OECD social indicators. Unlike most OECD countries, many Asia-Pacific economies do not produce detailed data on all social issues, nor do the data available cover long periods of time. Therefore the social indicators presented in this publication are less complete than for *Society at a Glance*.

The indicators are grouped along two dimensions. The first dimension considers the nature of the indicators and breaks them down into three areas:

- **Social context** indicators refer to variables that, while not usually the direct target of policy, are crucial for understanding the context in which social policy is developed. For example, the proportion of elderly people in the total population is not the direct target of policy, but it shapes how specific policies affect the living standards of the elderly and their costs to society as a whole.
- **Social status** indicators describe the social outcomes that policies try to influence. They describe the general social conditions of the population or one particular dimension that social policy tries to influence. Ideally, the indicators chosen can be interpreted easily and unambiguously - all economies would rather have low poverty rates than high ones, for example.
- **Societal response** indicators provide information about the scale and nature of social policy interventions, i.e. what society is doing to affect social status. These include indicators on governance and accountability (i.e. the effectiveness of government policies), but also on the activities of the private sector and non-governmental organisations (NGOs). By comparing indicators of societal response with indicators of social status, one can get a first indication of policy effectiveness.

The second dimension of the OECD framework groups indicators according to broad policy objectives of social policy:

- Enhancing **self-sufficiency** is an underlying objective of social policy. The self-sufficiency of individuals is enhanced by promoting active participation in the community and its economy, as well as autonomy in day-to-day activities.
- Promoting **equity** refers to reducing potential social or labour-market disadvantages, which can and should be tackled by guaranteeing equal opportunities. Equitable outcomes are measured mainly in terms of household access to resources.
- While improving the **health status** of a given population is the fundamental objective of any health care system, achieving this implies a broader approach that goes beyond policies aimed at preventing or responding to illnesses; other social factors affecting mortality and morbidity must also be considered (e.g., eating habits, risky behaviours, etc.).

- Last, **social cohesion** is often identified as an over-arching objective of all country-level social policies, yet there is disagreement on its precise definition. Researchers and policy-makers agree that a society lacking social cohesion will have high levels of crime, important proportions of incarcerated people, high suicide rates, as well as long and intensive labour and industrial conflicts.

3. The selection and description of indicators

Both the OECD and the Asia-Pacific versions of *Society at a Glance* select indicators based on the following considerations:

- The degree to which statistical comparability can be achieved for all the selected economies. While efforts are made to present only the best comparative information for each of the areas covered, the indicators shown here are usually not limited to those for which there is “absolute” comparability. Readers are alerted each time observations may be affected by differences in data methodology or data normalisation.
- The question of whether to include indicators that may not be available for all economies. As a general rule, both publications present only data available for the majority of economies, although in the Asia-Pacific version some data may refer only to a limited number of economies.
- The comparison of social status and societal response indicators leads to interesting observations that help to monitor general outcomes. It is important, however, to put observations - and the conclusions that may be derived - into perspective. When possible, social indicators are further decomposed using socio-demographic variables such as age, family type, labour force status, income, or gender. Such a breakdown can be very useful in cases where it is not possible to affirm whether a certain value or trend is indicative of positive or negative outcomes. For instance, national income levels vary across the OECD and Asia-Pacific economies. If there is any causal link between income and health, richer economies might be expected to spend more on health care (as a percentage of national GDP) than poorer ones, and thus have better health conditions. As seen throughout the analysis of health indicators (HE), this is not always true; developing economies such as India, Viet Nam, and Mongolia spend larger shares of their respective GDPs on health than industrialised economies such as Singapore¹, yet infant mortality rates are higher in these economies². This does not mean that health status or health expenditure indicators are misleading, but that the general context behind the data should be borne in mind when analysing indicators.

¹See HE2.1 Total expenditure on health, 2005/2006 (% of GDP).

²See HE4.1 Infant mortality rates per 1 000 live births, 1990-2006.

3.1 General Context indicators (GE)

Context indicators are relevant in interpreting the other indicators described throughout this publication. OECD social indicators use national net income (NNI) per capita to deduce the quality, quantity, and nature of the social protection that a society can afford to provide to its population. Asia-Pacific social indicators, on the other hand, use gross domestic product (GDP) per capita to serve the same purpose (GE1).

Age-dependency ratios (GE2), fertility rates (GE3), migration trends (GE4), and the number of marriages and divorces (GE5) all provide useful indications on socio-demographic conditions. Long-term trends in these indicators help interpret patterns observed in other indicators, which in turn allows for targeted policy design. National policies aimed at structuring the employment of the young or of single-parent households, for example, necessarily take into account the living conditions of an economy's youth and households. The ageing population phenomenon is another example of a social outcome stemming from multiple and interconnected factors (demographic evolution, economic conditions, health-related issues, etc.).

List of general context indicators (GE)

Asia-Pacific SaG		OECD SaG	
GE1.	Gross domestic product per capita	GE1.	National income per capita
GE2.	Age-dependency ratio	GE2.	Age-dependency ratio
GE3.	Fertility rates	GE3.	Fertility rates
GE4.	Migration	GE4.	Migration
GE5.	Marriage and divorce	GE5.	Marriage and divorce

3.2 Self-sufficiency indicators (SS)

People's self-sufficiency mainly depends on access to jobs and on their skills, since most people of working age gain economic resources and social status through paid employment (SS1). In addition, almost all social security systems rely on the contributions made by workers. Hence promoting higher employment is a priority for both OECD and Asia-Pacific economies. Unemployment (SS2) jeopardises people's ability to support one-self and provide for one's dependants. Access to paid jobs is especially difficult for mothers of young children, reflecting the high costs of caring and educating children.

The most comprehensive measure of peoples' skills and competences currently available is the average years of schooling of working-age people. This indicator, however, ignores human capital formation provided outside schools, and neglects schooling quality. Because labour-market disadvantage is often concentrated among low-skilled workers, pre-employment competencies can provide an indication of future labour market prospects and life opportunities. Measures of these competencies for 15-year-olds are available through the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA³). These measures are based on comparable survey modules fielded every three years, but cover only OECD countries. Thus, the education indicator (SS3) reviews net secondary school enrolment and literacy ratios. While not directly measuring the students' performance, this indicator has the advantage of focusing on those youths who, upon reaching adulthood, are less likely to be unemployed, in low-paid jobs, or dependent on social assistance.

List of self-sufficiency indicators (SS)

Asia-Pacific SaG		OECD SaG	
SS1.	Employment	SS1.	Employment
SS2.	Unemployment	SS2.	Unemployment
	N/A	SS3.	Mothers in paid employment
	N/A	SS4.	Childcare costs
	N/A	SS5.	Tax wedge on labour
	N/A	SS6.	Out- of- work benefits
SS3.	Education	SS7.	Students' performance

³www.pisa.oecd.org

3.3 Equity indicators (EQ)

Equity comprises many dimensions, but it can best be measured through indexes of access to social services, economic opportunities, and outcomes. Of course, opinions as to what exactly entails a fair redistribution of resources or what establishes a just distribution of opportunities vary widely within and between economies. As it is hard to obtain information on all aspects of equity, the social status indicators used here are limited to inequality in financial resources and the public allocation of such resources.

Poverty often has its roots in wider earnings inequality (EQ1) and gender wage gaps (EQ2). Social protection systems are the main tool through which policy-makers have responded to these equity concerns. Many Asia-Pacific economies have developed (or are developing) social protection systems that, to a varying extent, redistribute resources within societies and insure individuals against various social risks. These interventions take the form of social benefits provided by social spending (EQ3) or by a combination of tax expenditures and private spending. Lastly, old age replacement rates (EQ4) show the long-term impact of existing pension rules and parameters on tomorrow's retirees.

List of equity indicators (EQ)

Asia-Pacific SaG		OECD SaG	
	N/A	EQ1.	Material deprivation
EQ1.	Earnings inequality	EQ2.	Earnings inequality
EQ2.	Gender wage gaps	EQ3.	Gender wage gaps
	N/A	EQ4.	Intergenerational mobility
EQ3.	Social spending	EQ5.	Public social spending
	N/A	EQ6.	Total social spending
	N/A	EQ7.	Poverty persistence
EQ4.	Old-age replacement rates	EQ8.	Old-age pensions replacement rates
	N/A	EQ9.	Housing costs

3.4 Health indicators (HE)

The links between social context and health conditions are strong. Indeed, improvements in living standards - accompanied by better access to health care and continuing progress in medical technology - have contributed to significant advancements in health status, as measured, for example, by life expectancy (HE1). To a significant extent, these improvements have reflected better children's health such as the decline in the prevalence of low birth weight (HE3) and lower infant mortality rates (HE4). However, challenges remain. Disparities in health conditions remain large not only between economies but also within them. Challenges such as the prevalence of tuberculosis, diabetes, and HIV (HE5), for instance, can be associated with the way health care systems are adapted to a population's living conditions (nutrition, access to sanitation facilities, prevention programmes, etc.). Poor health conditions also have a direct impact on economic outcomes when they lead to high sick-related absences from work and lower productivity. Health expenditure (HE2) is part of the policy response to concerns about health conditions in general and for specific population groups.

Nevertheless, health problems sometimes have their roots in interrelated social conditions - such as unemployment, poverty, and inadequate housing - that are outside the reach of health policy alone. Moreover, the effectiveness of health interventions often depends on more than spending levels *per se*, and in particular on other characteristics of the health care system, such as low coverage of medical insurance or high co-payments, which may act as barriers to seeking medical help.

List of health indicators (HE)

Asia-Pacific SaG		OECD SaG	
HE1.	Life expectancy	HE1.	Life expectancy
HE2.	Health expenditure	HE2.	Health spending
HE3.	Low birth weight	HE3.	Low birth weight
	N/A	HE4.	Sick-related absences from work
	N/A	HE5.	Long-term care recipients
	N/A	HE6.	Health inequalities
HE4.	Infant mortality rate	HE7.	N/A
HE5.	Health risk factors and public health challenges	HE8.	N/A

3.5 Social cohesion indicators (CO)

Promoting social cohesion is a central goal for social policy in many OECD and Asia-Pacific economies. However, identifying suitable indicators is especially difficult because the concept lacks a commonly-accepted definition. The approach taken here is to assess social cohesion through indicators that describe: (1) the extent to which citizens participate in the day-to-day life of society and the satisfaction they derive from such activities; (2) social strife and risk of conflict in a given economy; and (3) various pathologies and conditions that put individuals at risk of exclusion from mainstream society. Subjective life satisfaction (CO1) is an important “direct” measure of the well-being of individuals and of social cohesion as a whole. Voting in participatory elections (CO2) and the reliability of their political institutions (CO3) are two other important dimensions of the extent to which individuals are well-integrated and taking part in social life.

Similarly, indicators providing evidence of potential conflicts that may arise within a society can be represented by information on the nature of the relations between workers and their employers (CO4) and by the levels of measures taken to safeguard employee working conditions (CO5). Lastly, individual risky and/or antisocial behaviour such as drug consumption (CO6 and CO7) and actions leading to imprisonment (CO8) can reflect personal difficulties that can potentially affect society as a whole.

List of social cohesion indicators (CO)

Asia-Pacific SaG		OECD SaG	
CO1.	Life satisfaction	CO7.	Life satisfaction
CO2.	Alcohol and tobacco use	CO3.	Suicides
CO3.	Drug use and related risks	<i>Not used in every</i>	Drug use and related deaths
CO4.	Strikes	CO5.	Strikes
CO5.	Voting	CO1.	Voting
CO6.	Public Policies and Institutions	CO6.	Trust in political institutions
CO7.	Work accidents	CO4.	Work accidents
CO8.	Prisoners	CO2.	Prisoners

CHAPTER 2

MEASURING WELL-BEING: WHAT ROLE FOR SOCIAL INDICATORS?

1. Introduction

What precisely is “well-being”? Answers differ. Social indicators focus on observable outcomes in a variety of fields (health, literacy, poverty) based on the premise that these social characteristics can be measured reliably and independently of people’s subjective perceptions. On the other hand, the economic literature assumes that individuals derive well-being from the satisfaction of their wants according to their preferences, chiefly as exercised in the marketplace. Satisfaction of wants is a function of what individuals consume, but since their consumption is ultimately determined by their income, this can be used as a proxy for well-being and reliably measured using national accounts income measures.

GDP per capita is a widely used measure of a population’s well-being. But while GDP per capita does provide an accurate measure of an economy’s capacity to deal with its population’s material needs, it is less obvious how such a measure should be interpreted. Numerous studies indicate that in developed economies such as OECD countries, once a certain level of material needs has been fulfilled further increments in economic growth do not necessarily lead to added well-being. This notion is also true for less developed economies. Using GDP per capita as a measure of well-being does not reflect many of the social costs and externalities associated with the development processes (pollution, poverty gaps, increased crime, uncontrolled urbanisation, etc.).

Hence the growing need to develop indicators that better reflect essential non-monetary factors that affect people’s perceived and/or actual well-being. But is there one single indicator that can be used as a yardstick for measuring well-being in order to establish reliable comparisons across economies? Unfortunately, no. This answer may be seen as providing one argument for continuing to use GDP per capita: since efforts have been made to develop harmonised tools to measure economic growth, it can be calculated with a certain degree of reliability to yield a figure that can be readily compared across economies. These tools have become increasingly sophisticated as economies have shifted from the production of quantifiable goods like wheat and steel, into the production of services, for which measurement is more elusive.

Many studies have proposed different methodologies that could substitute for traditional macro-economic measures. The Green GNP, the Welfare GNP, the Happy Planet Index, and the Sustainable Economic Welfare measure are such experimental computations proposed to replace GDP to measure people’s well-being more closely. However, these measures are usually based on the assumption that it is necessary to convert qualitative factors into quantitative (monetary) values, which is why many of these alternative measures have not been successful in replacing GDP as a commonly-accepted measure of people’s well-being.

Another option is to use “social indicators”, a field in which considerable progress has been made since the 1980s, when the OECD first presented its social indicators. Social indicators are comprised of many factors that depict levels and trends in people’s livelihoods. The OECD social indicators can be categorised into **five major groups**: General Context, Self-Sufficiency, Equity, Health, and Social Cohesion¹. This chapter first presents evidence about the importance of well-being for each of the four main groups of social indicators presented in OECD *Society at a Glance 2007* and *2009*, how these may apply to Asia-Pacific economies, and the extent to which they are correlated with GDP per capita. The chapter then reviews traditional monetary measures of a country’s economic resources as derived from national accounts data. Lastly, subjective measures of happiness and life satisfaction are considered.

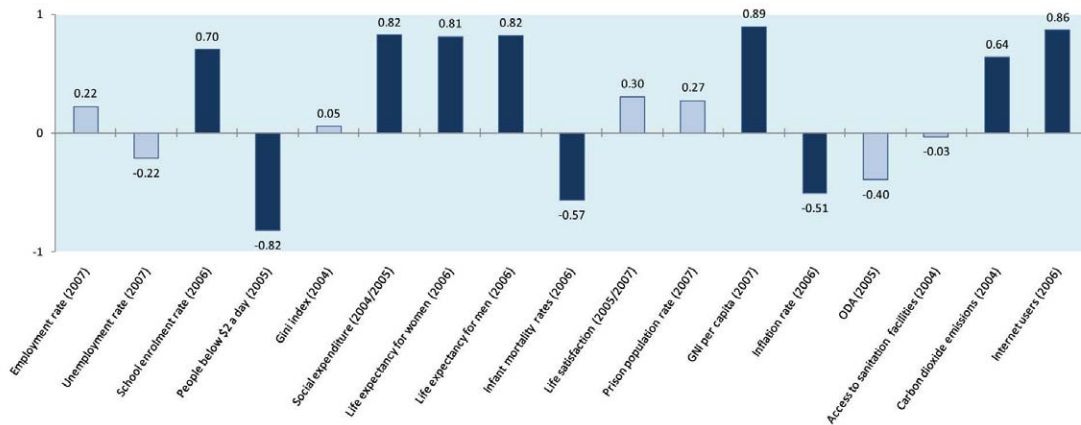
2. GDP and Social indicators

Social indicators provide a complementary approach to GDP-derived proxies for well-being. In this chapter, three indicators have been chosen out of the five main categories described in Chapter 1 (general context, self-sufficiency, equity, health status, and social cohesion). Other data such as Official Development Assistance (ODA, which typically refers to assistance received in grants and loans and excludes Foreign Direct Investment), inflation rate, carbon dioxide emissions per capita, access to improved sanitation facilities, and access to communication technologies have been included in this analysis because of the close relationship between short- and long-term development processes and economic/environmental outcomes.

Do these indicators provide additional information relative to that conveyed by GDP per capita? Figure 2.1 presents the simple correlation between levels of social indicators (also in Annex Table 2.6) and GDP per capita:

¹See Chapter 1, “An Interpretive Guide”.

Figure 2.1 Cross-country correlations between GDP per capita and various social indicators in Asia-Pacific economies



Note : Darker-coloured bars indicate statistically significant correlations (at a 5% level), not absolute causality. Correlations are computed between the values of GDP per capita in 2006 and social indicators for the latest available years (2004-2007). The number of economies considered varies according to data availability, but Australia, New Zealand, Asia average, and OECD average are excluded from the calculations. ODA is the Amount of official development assistance received in grants and loans, in million current USD for 2005; Employment rate is the Share of employment to total population for men and women; Unemployment rate is expressed as a percentage of the labour force; Net secondary School enrolment rate (%); Population living below \$2 a day (%); Social expenditure is expressed as percentage of GDP; Life expectancy at birth for men and women in years; Infant mortality rates per 1 000 live births; Average levels of life satisfaction; Prison population rate per 100 000 of national population; GNI per capita (current international USD PPP); Inflation rate as the percentage change of the consumer price index; Proportion of total population using improved sanitation facilities, percentage of the total population; Carbon dioxide emissions per capita, expressed in Tons of carbon dioxide; Number of internet users (Per 100 population).

Source : selected indicators from "Part II - Social Indicators" and GDP per capita from GE1.

- Self-sufficiency reflects the extent of participation in the economy and society and how well individuals are able to get through daily life on their own. It is measured here in terms of overall employment rate, unemployment rate, and net secondary school enrolment rate. All these factors affect or are likely to affect a person's ability to earn a decent living. In Asia, GDP per capita is positively correlated with the employment rate and with the secondary school enrolment rate, which is similar to - but less important than? the relationship observed for OECD countries, even though most OECD countries have well-established social security systems while people in less developed Asian economies mainly rely on themselves to earn a living. The correlation of GDP per capita with the unemployment rate is negative, but its low statistical significance may reflect the fact that the proportion of people working for extremely low wages and in informal sectors remains high in Asia.
- Equity reflects the extent to which income, opportunities, and individual autonomy are equally distributed. It may be measured in terms of income inequality and relative poverty rates. The Gini coefficient, the share of a given population under a specific poverty line, and the share of government revenue invested in society are three of the statistical tools used to measure the level of equity in a society. In Asian economies, the percentage of the population living below the \$2 a day line and the level of social expenditure are both statistically significant and negatively correlated with GDP per capita. The Gini coefficient is positively correlated with GDP per capita, but the correlation is statistically insignificant. This means that in less developed and poorer Asian economies an absolute level of poverty is more telling than a relative measure such as the Gini coefficient.
- Health status reflects not only illness prevention and cure, but also other social factors affecting mortality and morbidity. The two key indicators used to measure a population's health status are life expectancy at birth and infant mortality rates. Life expectancy at birth is positively and strongly correlated with GDP per capita, meaning that, on average, Asian economies with higher incomes are more likely to enjoy longer lifespans. Similarly, infant mortality rates are negatively correlated with GDP per capita.

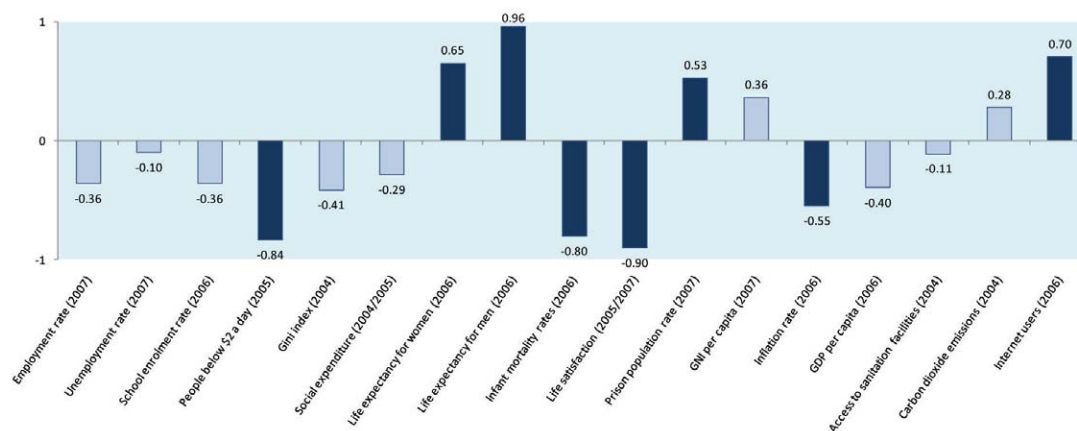
- A feeling of belonging to a wider community and the satisfaction derived from participating in society are important elements of people's well-being. But social cohesion can also be measured through negative manifestations produced by the lack of social cohesion (prison population ratio, drug usage, suicides, etc.). The prisoner population per 100 000 people, for example, is negatively correlated with GDP per capita, but the relationship is statistically insignificant. Similarly, average levels of life satisfaction and GDP per capita are positively correlated in a statistically insignificant way. Thus, accrued material abundance does not necessarily determine one's subjective appreciation of life.
- The relationships between GDP per capita and carbon dioxide emissions per capita and the number of internet users are both positively correlated and significant. Inflation rates and Official Development Assistance (ODA), on the other hand, are both negatively correlated to GDP per capita.

3. Foreign Aid and Social indicators

Unlike OECD countries, most Asian economies are recipients of foreign aid. Out of the twenty-two Asia-Pacific economies covered in this publication, sixteen receive multiple forms of development assistance. This section was specifically designed for the Asia-Pacific version of Society at a Glance in order to measure the impact of foreign aid on basic social indicators.

Figure 2.2 shows the correlations between the levels of foreign aid and selected social indicators (also in Annex Table 2.6):

Figure 2.2 Cross-country correlations between the amount of official development assistance (ODA) received in 2005 and various social indicators in Asia-Pacific economies



Note : Darker-coloured bars indicate statistically significant correlations (at a 5% level), not absolute causality. Correlations are computed between the values of GDP per capita in 2006 and social indicators for the latest available years (2004-2007). The number of economies considered varies according to data availability, but Australia, New Zealand, Asia average, and OECD average are excluded from the calculations. ODA is the Amount of official development assistance received in grants and loans, in million current USD for 2005; Employment rate is the Share of employment to total population for men and women; Unemployment rate is expressed as a percentage of the labour force; Net secondary School enrolment rate (%); Population living below \$2 a day (%); Social expenditure is expressed as percentage of GDP; Life expectancy at birth for men and women in years; Infant mortality rates per 1 000 live births; Average levels of life satisfaction; Prison population rate per 100 000 of national population; GNI per capita (current international USD PPP); Inflation rate as the percentage change of the consumer price index; Proportion of total population using improved sanitation facilities, percentage of the total population; Carbon dioxide emissions per capita, expressed in Tons of carbon dioxide; Number of internet users (Per 100 population).

Source : Selected indicators from "Part II - Social Indicators" and ODA from UNESCAP (2007), *Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific 2007*, www.unescap.org/stat/data/syb2007/19-Financing-for-development-syb2007.asp.

- Foreign aid is negatively correlated to all three self-sufficiency indicators (employment, unemployment, and school enrolment rates), though at statistically insignificant levels.
- The indicator on the proportion of people living below the \$2 a day line is strongly and negatively correlated to levels of foreign aid. One possible major factor contributing to this outcome is the contribution of such aid to improving and maintaining macro-economic indicators. The same can be said concerning the Gini index and social expenditure, although the statistical insignificance of the relationship with foreign aid does not allow any conclusive observations to be drawn on a possible causal relationship between these indicators.
- All three health indicators (life expectancy for men and women, infant mortality rates) are strongly linked to foreign aid: life expectancy at birth for both men and women is positively correlated to foreign aid, while it is negatively correlated to infant mortality rates.
- Average levels of life satisfaction are negatively and strongly correlated to levels of development assistance. The positive and statistically significant relationship with prison population rates also shows that meeting a given population's material needs is not automatically linked to improved social equilibrium.
- The number of internet users is strongly and positively correlated to levels of development aid, but the negative correlation with access to sanitation facilities is a cause of concern.

4. Monetary measures of economic resources

As mentioned above, the monetary measure most commonly used to assess the total value of the economic resources that affect well-being is GDP per capita, which measures the value of the goods and services produced within a country during a given period of time. In practice, this includes the production of those activities that fall within the boundary of the System of National Accounts. The production of such goods and services is generally valued at market prices, based on the assumption that these prices accurately reflect the value (to individuals and society) of the resources used for their production, since they have alternative uses. Some activities that are included in GDP are, however, particularly difficult to measure. An alternative approach to estimating the level of a society's well-being is to use other measures of real income from the System of National Accounts, namely the Gross National Income (GNI) per capita².

Government services, for example, are often provided free or at a subsidised price to direct users, and their output cannot be valued in terms of market prices. In the past, the value of inputs has been used to make estimates, which amounts to equating government output to the cost of its production. Recently, some OECD countries such as the United Kingdom have modified their approach and begun to measure changes in government production based on direct measures of output. While these adjustments remain controversial, their implications are significant.

Furthermore, there are several other areas in which GDP per capita fails to take into account factors that are of great importance:

- GDP excludes a range of non-market activities that influence well-being, mainly because of practical issues concerning their measurement; their value is not easily defined in market terms because non-market activities can include illegal activities, undeclared activities, home activities (like housework and do-it-yourself work), and leisure, which is clearly of value to society and important to individual well-being.
- Conventional measurements of GDP exclude changes in asset values, although these clearly influence what an individual can consume in the current period without becoming worse off. Therefore, GDP reflects what a society produces rather than what it can consume.

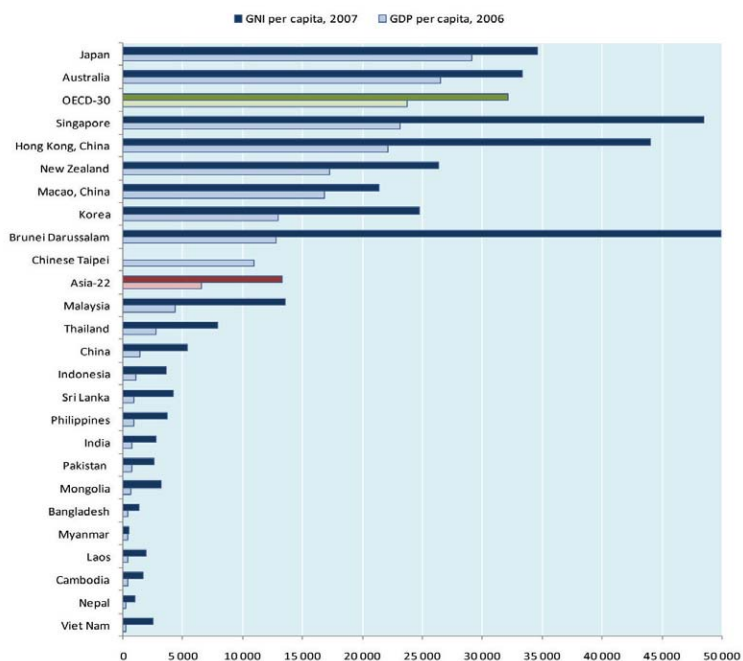
²Gross National Income (GNI) refers to GDP minus net taxes on production and imports, minus compensation of employees and property income payable to the rest of the world, plus the corresponding items receivable from the rest of the world. Although this is a more established measure, problems remain in ensuring cross-country comparability. Furthermore, the impact of non-monetary factors on well-being is probably excluded. For more information, see <http://stats.oecd.org/glossary/>.

- GDP does not take into account externalities such as pollution, environmental deterioration, or the depletion of non-renewable resources. This distorts how much market prices actually reflect the marginal contribution of certain items to well-being, including the well-being of future generations.
- GDP does not distinguish inter-country differences in the distribution of income. To most people, a huge increase in national income that goes exclusively to a very wealthy few will not increase general well-being as much as if it were more equitably distributed.

Because GDP only takes into account the production process that occurs within the borders of an economy, it ignores the fact that some of the income generated by these activities is paid to non-residents, while residents receive income from production in other economies. The purchasing power of residents may also increase or decrease according to changes in terms of trade (i.e. the price of imported goods relative to that of exported goods). Factoring in the “net income from abroad” gives a figure for gross national income (GNI) that is more relevant to the well-being of the country’s residents.

Figures 2.3 and 2.4 show that in most Asia-Pacific economies the difference between GDP per capita and GNI per capita is quite important. More so in developing economies such as Nepal, Cambodia, Sri Lanka, Laos, Mongolia, and Viet Nam, where GNI per capita is substantially bigger than GDP per capita.

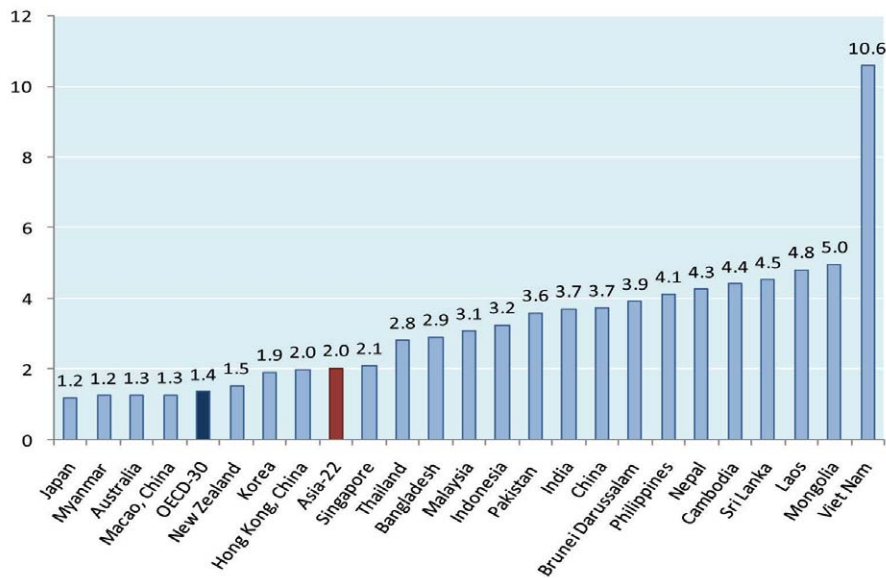
Figure 2.3 Gap in GDP per capita and GNI per capita, 2006/2007



Note : GNI per capita (current international USD PPP): 2007 data except Myanmar 2000, Macao - China 2001, and Brunei Darussalam 2006. GDP per capita in 1990 USD.

Source : GDP per capita from UNESCAP (2007), Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD National Accounts, GNI per capita from World Bank (2008), World Development Indicators online database.

Figure 2.4 Ratio of GNI per capita to GDP per capita



Note : GNI per capita (current international USD PPP): 2007 data except Myanmar 2000, Macao - China 2001, and Brunei Darussalam 2006. GDP per capita in 1990 USD.

Source : GDP per capita from UNESCAP (2007), Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD National Accounts, GNI per capita from World Bank (2008), World Development Indicators online database.

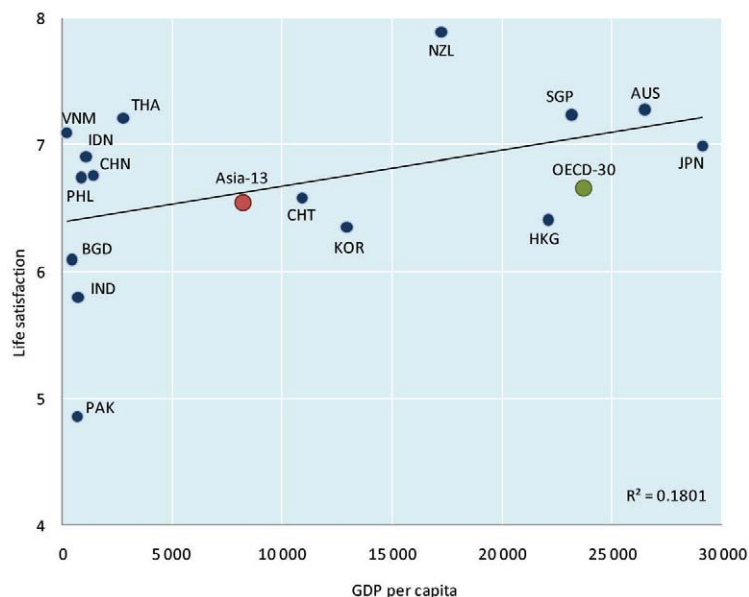
5. Well-being and happiness

Instead of using objective measures as proxies for well-being, an alternative approach is simply to ask the individuals themselves how satisfied they are with different aspects of their lives. Subjective measures of well-being are of course fraught with methodological difficulties: they could reflect different underlying concepts or be influenced by transient factors such as linguistic/cultural differences. Nevertheless, studies have shown that individuals who report higher levels of satisfaction with their lives are also rated as happier by their relatives and friends, tend to smile more during social interactions, have higher pre-frontal brain activity (the part of the brain associated with positive emotional states), are more likely to recall positive life events, and have a higher resilience to stress (Layard, 2005). Global surveys such as the *World Values Survey* use comparable criteria and ask a representative sample of people questions on how satisfied they are with their lives on a scale from 1 (dissatisfied) to 10 (very satisfied)³.

The average level of life satisfaction for thirteen Asian economies is 6.5 while that of the thirty OECD countries is 6.6. The relationship between GDP per capita and life satisfaction presented in Figure 2.5 shows that the level of life satisfaction does not automatically increase as GDP per capita increases. For instance, people in high-income economies such as Japan, Korea, and Hong Kong - China are on average less satisfied with their lives than people in developing economies such as Viet Nam, Thailand, Indonesia, and the Philippines. This finding implies that many other factors such as improved health status, access to public services, equity in the distribution of resources, or degree of social cohesion, might come into play in the way people perceive happiness, satisfaction, and overall well-being.

³For further correlations see CO1. Life Satisfaction. For methodological information see www.worldvaluessurvey.org.

Figure 2.5 Correlation between average levels of Life Satisfaction and GDP per capita



Note: - Life satisfaction: 2005/2007 data except Pakistan & Philippines 2001, Bangladesh & Singapore 2002, New Zealand 2004.

Source: - Life satisfaction: 2005-2008 wave of the World Values Survey; except Bangladesh, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Singapore from 1999-2004 wave of the World Values Survey; and OECD-30 from OECD (2009), Society at a Glance, - GDP per capita from UNESCAP (2007), Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD National Accounts.

Well-being does not depend only on social and economic factors but also on environmental ones (see Annex Table 2.6). Indeed, historically, much of the research on expanded measures of well-being has been driven by concerns about environmental degradation. Particularly in Asia, concern over sustainable development emphasises the need to take into account resources and capital stocks that are not included in the production boundary of conventional economic accounts. Although a sustainable development approach has direct implications for the measurement of income - in particular in terms of resources and environmental values that are affected by production but not calculated in market exchanges - there are not yet established mechanisms for integrating these concerns into measurements of economic resources. Further, as in the social area, the relation between environmental quality and economic development is complex; higher GDP levels generally tend to stress the environment more, but also increase the capacities and resources for dealing with environmental problems.

6. Conclusion

Overall, there is some consistency between the three approaches to measuring well-being (monetary measures, social indicators, and subjective life satisfaction), but also some important differences. While research based on social and subjective measures in particular is still in its infancy, the consideration of non-material factors strongly suggests that income is not the only relevant factor. Furthermore, it also shows that people's happiness depends to a large extent on the circumstances of the broader community they are part of and their relationship to it. For these reasons, the social indicators presented in Part II of Society at a Glance - Asia/Pacific Edition may be expected to play an increasingly important role within any assessment of how individuals and society are faring.

Annex 1: Measuring Well-being: What Role for Social Indicators?

Table 2.6 Economic, Development, and Environment data for Asia and the Pacific used for correlations

	GNI per capita, 2007 (current international USD PPP)	Inflation rate, 2006 (% change of the consumer price index)	Amount of official development assistance (ODA) received in grants and loans, 2005 (in million USD)	Gini index, 2004	Population living below \$2 a day, 2005 (% of total population)	Population using improved sanitation facilities, 2004 (% of the total population)	Carbon dioxide emissions per capita, 2004 (Tons of carbon dioxide)	Number of internet users, 2006 (Per 100 population)
Australia	33 340	3.5	44	16.3	75.1
Bangladesh	1 340	6.3	1 321	33.4	84.0	59	0.2	0.3
Brunei Darussalam	49 900	0.5	4	24.1	43.4
Cambodia	1 690	4.8	538	41.7	77.7	59	0.0	0.3
China	5 370	1.5	1 757	46.9	34.9	..	3.8	10.4
Hong Kong, China	44 050	2.0	5.4	53.0
India	2 740	6.1	1 724	36.8	80.4	17	1.2	5.4
Indonesia	3 580	13.1	2 524	34.3	52.4	55	1.7	7.2
Japan	34 600	0.2	30	9.8	68.3
Korea	24 750	2.2	..	31.6	..	77	9.8	71.1
Laos	1 940	6.8	296	34.6	74.1	72	0.2	0.4
Macao, China	21 390	4.7	43.2
Malaysia	13 570	3.6	32	..	9.3	100	7.0	43.8
Mongolia	3 160	5.0	212	32.8	44.6	99	3.3	10.1
Myanmar	520	26.3	145	61	0.2	0.2
Nepal	1 040	8.0	428	47.2	68.5	39	0.1	0.9
New Zealand	26 340	3.4	33	7.8	78.8
Pakistan	2 570	7.9	1 666	30.6	73.6	35	0.8	7.6
Philippines	3 730	6.2	562	44.5	43.0	59	1.0	5.5
Singapore	48 520	1.0	17	42.5	..	90	12.2	39.2
Sri Lanka	4 210	9.5	1 189	40.2	41.6	100	0.6	2.1
Chinese Taipei
Thailand	7 880	4.6	-171	42.0	25.2	100	4.3	13.1
Viet Nam	2 550	7.5	1 905	34.4	1.2	17.2
Asia-22	13 290	6.2	832	38.2	54.6	66	4.4	21.1
OECD-30	32 178	2.6	..	31.1

Note: - GNI per capita: 2007 data except Myanmar 2000, Macao - China 2001, and Brunei Darussalam 2006; - Official Development Assistance: 2005 data except Brunei Darussalam & Singapore 1995; - Carbon Dioxide emissions: The quantity of estimated carbon dioxide emissions (tons of carbon dioxide) divided by GDP in constant 2000 prices expressed in 1,000 PPP dollars. Aggregates: Averages are calculated using GDP, PPP (constant 2000) as weight.

Source: - GNI per capita: The World Bank (2008), World Development Indicators online database (<http://devdata.worldbank.org/data-query>); - Inflation rate: UNESCAP (2007), Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific 2007, www.unescap.org/stat/data/syb2007/22-Inflation-and-interest-rates-syb2007.asp; except OECD-30 from OECD National Accounts; - Official Development Assistance: UNESCAP (2007), Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific 2007, www.unescap.org/stat/data/syb2007/19-Financing-for-development-syb2007.asp; - GINI Index: UNDP (2008), Human Development Report 2007/2008, New York (<http://hdrstats.undp.org/indicators/147.html>); except OECD-30 from OECD (2009), Society at a Glance, Paris; - Population under 2\$ a day: UNDP (2008), 2007/2008 Human Development Report, New York (<http://hdrstats.undp.org/indicators/23.html> and <http://hdrstats.undp.org/indicators/24.html>); - Access to sanitation facilities: UNESCAP (2007), Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific 2007, www.unescap.org/stat/data/syb2007/10-Access-to-water-and-sanitation-syb2007.asp; - Carbon Dioxide emissions: UNESCAP (2007), Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific 2007, www.unescap.org/stat/data/syb2007/25-Air-and-water-pollution-syb2007.asp; - Internet users: UNESCAP (2007), Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific 2007, www.unescap.org/stat/data/syb2007/17-Information-and-communication-technology.asp.

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PART II

SOCIAL INDICATORS

GENERAL CONTEXT INDICATORS (GE)

GE1. GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT (PER CAPITA)

Definition and measurement

Among the different measures available in the System of National Accounts (SNA), Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita is the one most commonly used for comparing the sizes of economies across countries. GDP per capita is calculated using an economy's GDP in 1990 United States dollars and dividing it by the economy's total population. The 1990 value of USD is used to convert national currencies so that cross-national comparisons can be made.

The data presented here are derived from regional and country-specific data from UNESCAP's Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific (2007, www.unescap.org/stat/data/syb2007/14-Economic-growth-syb2007.asp) and from the OECD's National Accounts (www.oecd.org/statistics/national-accounts).

There are vast differences in GDP per capita across Asia. The region includes some of the richest as well as some of the poorest economies in the world. Figures GE1.1 and GE1.2 show that Asia-Pacific economies can be divided into two groups: one group for which GDP per capita exceeds the Asia average of 6 273 USD (Japan, Singapore, Hong Kong - China, Macao - China, Korea (Rep.), Brunei Darussalam, and Chinese Taipei) and another group for which GDP per capita is under that same mark (Sixteen economies).

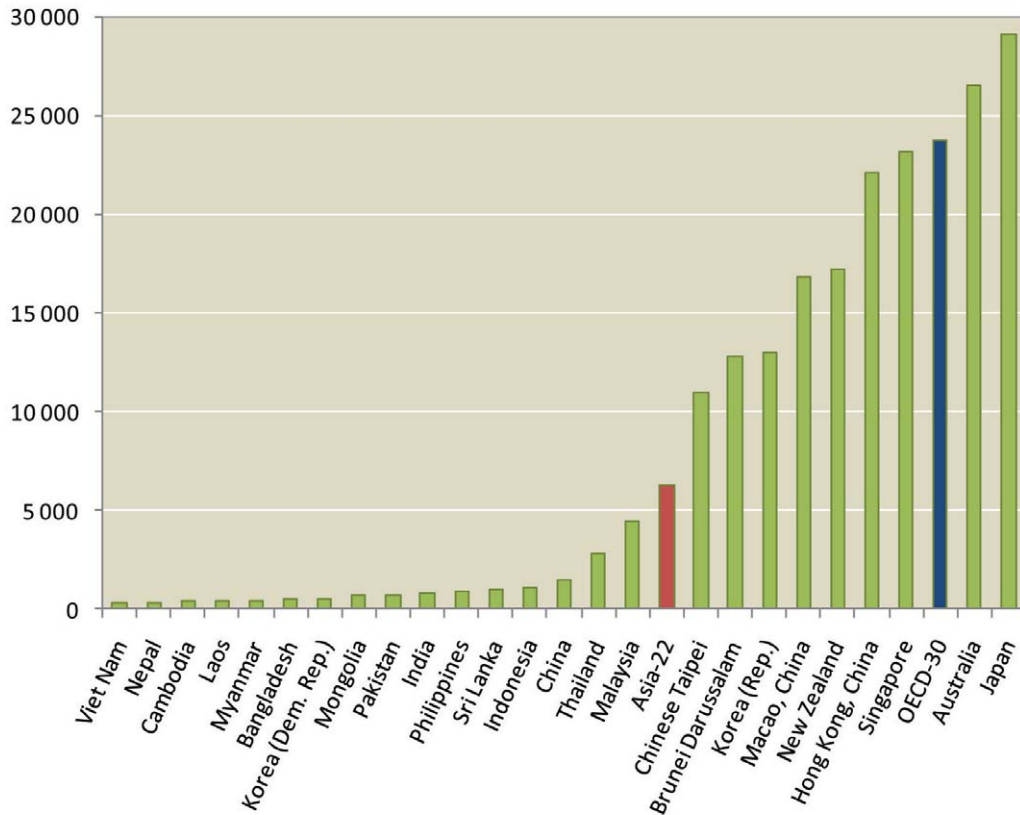
Equally, there are massive differences in recent growth rates. As shown in Annex Figure GE1.3, there are big differences between economies over the period 1990 to 2006. Among 22 Asian economies, China had the highest growth rate with 9.2%, followed by Myanmar (7.6%) and Viet Nam (5.8%). Among industrialised Asian nations, Korea and Macao - China had the highest growth rates (4.8% and 4.7% respectively), while Japan ranked the lowest at 1.1%. This could be explained by the deep depression Japan experienced during this period. Brunei Darussalam and Korea (Dem. Rep.) are the economies that experienced negative growth rates during this same period.

A global economic recession is now under way. Growth is expected to decelerate sharply in the United States, the Euro zone, and Asia. Economic stimulus plans whose long-term effects have yet to be determined have been implemented in China, the United States, and the European Union. Similar plans have been announced in other parts of the world. Investors and analysts are increasingly worried about the effects of a deep economic recession on the Chinese economy since the important number of exports from China to OECD countries ties them closely. Developing Asia, which is also tied to global activity through traditional trade channels and international financial markets, will also feel the effects of the recession. Southeast Asia will likely see its export prospects diminish considerably. Efforts to prevent inflation from getting out of hand will moderate growth in Viet Nam, while Thailand is expected to record higher growth if its recent political crisis is carefully managed. Growth in South Asia is also expected to slacken mainly because of India's economic slowdown, while Bangladesh, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka will be affected by the decline in demand from major garment export markets (ADB, 2008).

References:

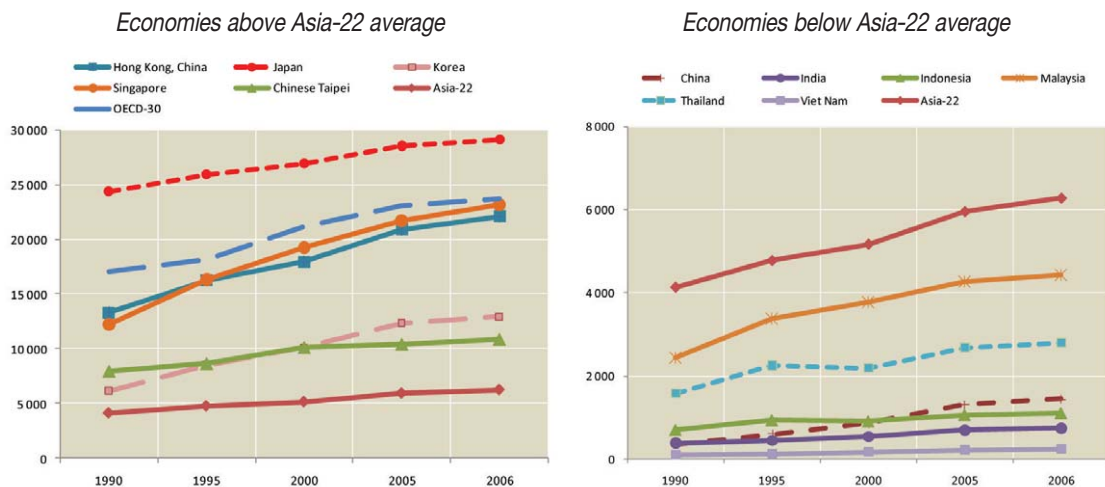
Asian Development Bank (2008), *Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific*, Manila.

GE1.1 GDP per capita (1990 USD), 2006



Source: UNESCAP (2007), Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD National Accounts.

GE1.2 Growth of GDP per capita (1990 USD), 1990-2006



Source: UNESCAP (2007), Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD National Accounts.

GE2. AGE-DEPENDENCY RATIO

Definition and measurement

Age-dependency ratios measure the age structure of a population by calculating the ratio of the number of individuals who are likely to be “dependent” on the support of others for their daily living - particularly the elderly - to the number of those who are capable of providing such support. The key indicator of age-dependency relates the combined number of individuals aged less than 20 years old and of those aged 65 and over to the population aged 20 to 64. Two other indicators are presented in this section: the youth-dependency ratio (for individuals aged less than 20) and the old-age-dependency ratio (for persons aged 65 and more), both calculated relative to the number of individuals aged 20 to 64.

Taken together, these ratios provide information about the demographic shifts that have characterised Asia-Pacific economies in the past and that are expected in the near future. The projections for age-dependency ratios used in this section are based on the “medium variant” population projections published by the United Nations' World Population Prospects online database (2007, <http://esa.un.org/unpp>) and data from the OECD' s Demographic and Labour Force database (www.oecd.org/statistics/labour).

Age dependency rates vary considerably across Asia. Figure GE2.1 shows that Japan is ageing faster than the 13 other Asian economies. Japan's old-age-dependency ratio is expected to reach 0.379 in 2010 and 0.802 in 2050, the two highest levels in the region. Korea, Hong Kong - China, and Singapore follow Japan's ageing trend with respective old-age-dependency ratios of 0.182, 0.172, and 0.152 for the year 2010. Further projections expect these to exceed 0.600 in 2050. China and Thailand share similar old-age-dependency ratios of 0.130 and 0.137 for 2010. Excepting Australia and New Zealand, the rest of the Asia-Pacific economies show moderate levels of ageing, with ratios well below 10% in 2010. This trend highlights the growing importance of public policies linked to ageing populations in Japan, Korea, Singapore, and Hong Kong - China. Figure GE2.2 considers the ratio of people aged less than 20 to those aged 20 to 64. In 2050, this youth-dependency ratio will be well below 40% in Hong Kong - China, Japan, Korea, and Singapore. The rest of the Asia-Pacific economies, on the other hand, are expected to have rates of over 40% for the same year.

Age-dependency rates are rising across Asia. The combined share of the population aged less than 20 and more than 64 as a percentage of the 20-64 population can be read as the ratio between the economically non-active population and the economically active population. As shown in Figure GE2.3, this share will decline for all the Asian economies covered. Taken in combination with rising old-age dependency ratios (Annex Table GE2.4), these projections will be particularly worrisome for developing economies, in which longer life spans and falling fertility rates are becoming more common while their levels of income are still low. Such a combination will likely result in population ageing at low levels of income (Tyers, 2005). In developed Asia-Pacific economies the period of sickness and disability near the end of the life cycle is decreasing, while life spans are increasing, a phenomenon that will lead to a new generation of numerous healthy old people (UNESCAP, 2006).

Higher age dependency is happening because of longer life spans (see HE1) combined with lower birth rates (see GE3). Since 2005, rising old-age dependency has led to increases in total dependency rates. While to varying extents this trend seems to be a worldwide phenomenon, the timing and the expected amplitude of the age structure effects differ greatly across Asian economies. In developed Asian economies such as Japan and Singapore the process is well underway, while in China and India lower infant mortality rates (see HE4) have led to population surges (despite specific birth-planning policies such as the “one-child policy”). Rapid declines in fertility rates in both these economies are reducing youth dependency rates, but the long-term trend, however, may be that the ageing of the current work force will produce a high old-age dependency rate (Canning, 2007).

References:

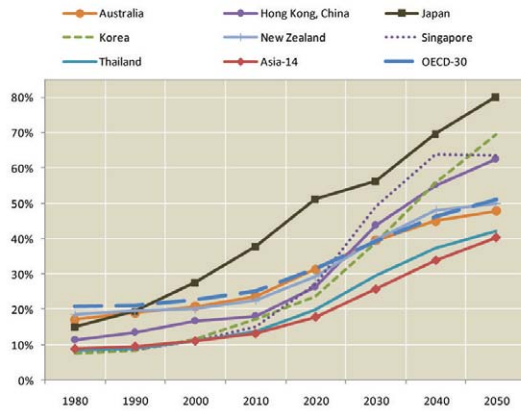
Canning D. (2007), *The Impact of Ageing on Asia-Pacific Development*, paper presented at the Asian Development Bank Seminar on *Ageing Asia: a New Challenge for the Region*, Kyoto / Tokyo.

Tyers R. (2005), *Ageing and Slower Population Growth: Effects on Global Economic Performance*, paper presented at the Experts' Meeting on Long Term Scenarios for Asia's Growth and Trade, Asian Development Bank, Manila.

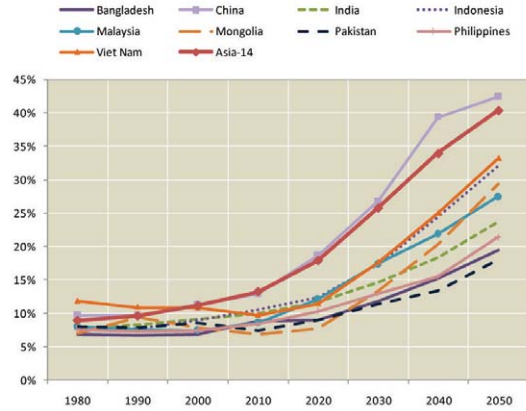
UNESCAP / Mujahid G. (2006), *Population Ageing in East and South-East Asia - 1950-2050: Implications for Elderly Care*, in *Asia-Pacific Population Journal*, Vol. 21 no. 2, Bangkok.

GE2.1 Old-age dependency ratio (65+/20-64), 1980-2050

Ratios above Asia-14 average for 2010

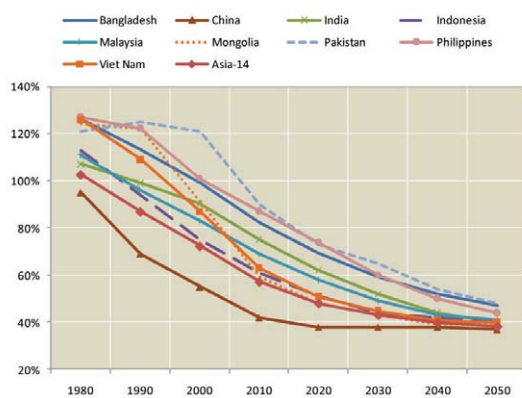
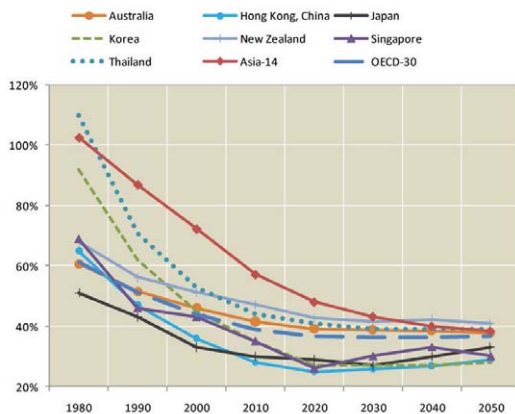


Ratios below Asia-14 average for 2010



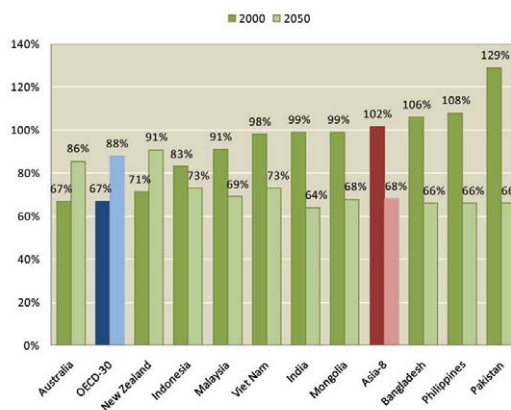
Source: United Nations (2007), World Population Prospects online database; except Australia, New Zealand, and OECD-30 from OECD Demographic and Labour Force database.

GE2.2 Youth-dependency ratio (20-/20-64), 1980-2050



Source: United Nations (2007), World Population Prospects online database; except Australia, New Zealand, and OECD-30 from OECD Demographic and Labour Force database.

GE2.3 Old-age and youth dependency ratio (20- and 65+/20-64), 2000-2050



Source: United Nations (2007), World Population Prospects online database; except Australia, New Zealand, and OECD-30 from OECD Demographic and Labour Force database.

GE3. FERTILITY RATES

Definition and measurement

The total fertility rate in a specific year corresponds to the number of children that would be born to each woman if she were to live to the end of her childbearing years and if the likelihood of her giving birth to children at each life stage followed the currently prevailing age-specific fertility rates. The mean age at child-bearing is the average age mothers would have at the birth of their children if women were subject throughout their lives to the age-specific fertility rates observed in a given year.

The data presented here are extracted from: the World Bank's World Development Indicators online database (2008, <http://devdata.worldbank.org/data-query>), the United Nations' World Fertility Patterns (2007, www.un.org/esa/population/publications/worldfertility2007/worldfertility2007.htm), and the UNFPA's DPRK Reproductive Health Survey (2002).

Fertility rates within Asia vary more than within the OECD. Some parts of Asia have amongst the lowest fertility rates in the world, whereas others are well in excess of replacement (2.1). Table GE3.2 shows that five ageing Asian economies (Japan, Korea - Rep., Hong Kong - China, Macao - China, and Singapore) have Total Fertility Rates (TFR) close to 1, while a number of developing Asian economies have TFRs close to 3 (Bangladesh, Cambodia, Laos, Nepal, Pakistan, and the Philippines). Annex Figures GE3.3 and GE3.4 show that in 2006 all TFRs above the Asia average of 2.2 could be found in developing Asian economies. In 2006, the highest TFR was held by Pakistan (3.9), closely followed by Cambodia, Laos, and the Philippines (all three at 3.3). Pakistan stands out with a consistently high TFR and a high mean age of childbearing.

Fertility rates are falling across Asia. Figure GE3.1 shows that between 1996 and 2006 TFRs have decreased significantly in all 21 Asian economies. The largest decreases took place in developing economies such as Laos, Nepal, Cambodia, Pakistan, Mongolia, India, Pakistan, and Myanmar. The smallest variations can be found in Japan, China, Thailand, Australia, and New Zealand.

The average age of women at childbirth is around 30 across Asia. The mean age at childbirth in Asian economies is always higher than the OECD average except in Australia, Bangladesh, Korea (Dem. Rep.), and New Zealand. economies in Table GE3.2 can be grouped into two categories: one with a mean age of childbearing of 29 or above and a TFR below 2 (China, Hong Kong - China, Korea - Rep., Macao - China, Singapore, Sri Lanka, and Thailand), and one with a mean age of child-bearing of under 29 and a TFR above 2 (Bangladesh, Indonesia, and New Zealand). Type 1 economies are where women delay their marriage and don't have many children after marriage (a fairly common trend in post-industrial nations), and type 2 economies are where women are likely to bear many children and start conceiving earlier. Women in Nepal and Viet Nam, meanwhile, seem to have many children later in life. The future course of fertility in high- and intermediate-fertility economies will depend on several factors. In high-fertility economies, quality reproductive health information and services will make services accessible and affordable to couples wanting to use contraceptives. For low-fertility economies, the main challenge will be to maintain a sustainable balance between moderated population growth and continuing economic development (Gubhaju & Moriki-Durand, 2003).

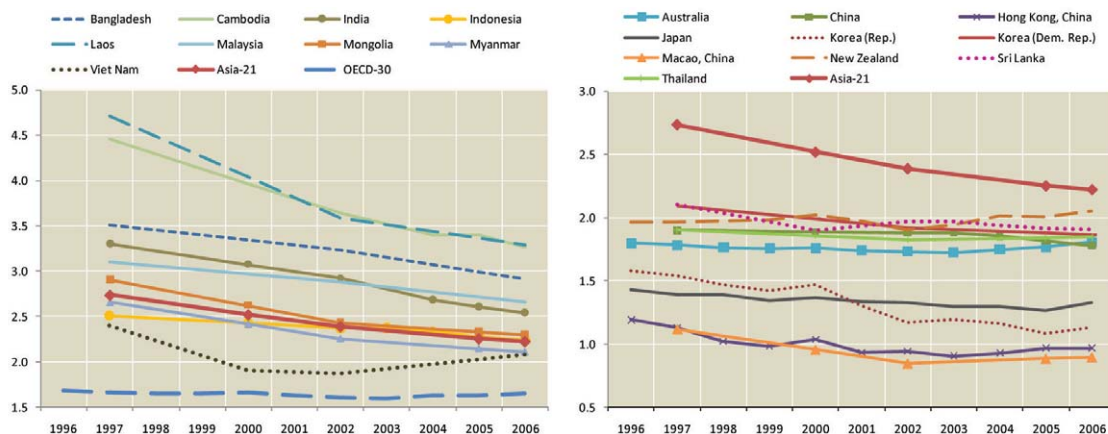
Many factors lie behind falling Asian fertility rates. Rising health care expenditure (see HE2), improved life expectancy (see HE1), decline in mortality (see HE4), and increased female education and labour force participation rates (see EQ2, SS1, and SS3) play an essential role in reducing fertility rates (Weale, 1992 and Pritchett, 1994). Rapid social development changes the demand for children, as couples are more easily able to make conscious family planning choices based on the balance between the pragmatic advantages and the potential disadvantages of having a smaller number of children. The socio-economic conditions of many economies in Asia have provided a context in which many couples desire a small family, since fertility control has progressively become more culturally acceptable (Shah & Rutstein, 2004).

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GE3.1 Economies with total fertility rates above and below 2,1 in 2006

Total fertility rates from 1996 to 2006



Source: World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database.

GE3.2 Total fertility rates (TFR) and mean age of childbearing, 2006

	TFR 2006	Mean age of childbearing 2006 (years)
Australia	1.8	27.1
Bangladesh	2.9	27.5
Cambodia	3.3	30.0
China	1.8	29.9
Hong Kong, China	1.0	29.5
India	2.5	29.2
Indonesia	2.2	27.9
Japan	1.3	27.8
Korea (Rep.)	1.1	29.8
Korea (Dem. Rep.)	1.9	25.9
Laos	3.3	30.3
Macao, China	0.9	31.1
Malaysia	2.7	29.4
Mongolia	2.3	31.5
Myanmar	2.1	30.8
Nepal	3.1	29.0
New Zealand	2.1	26.7
Pakistan	3.9	31.8
Philippines	3.3	30.7
Singapore	1.3	29.1
Sri Lanka	1.9	29.5
Thailand	1.8	29.9
Viet Nam	2.1	32.1
Asia-21	2.2	29.8
OECD-30	1.6	27.5

Note: 2006 data except Laos TFR 2005, Korea (Dem. Rep.): The mean age at first birth concerns married women only (2002).

Source: World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database for fertility rates, UN (2007), *World Fertility Patterns* for mean ages of childbearing; except Korea (Dem. Rep.) from UNFPA (2002), *DPRK Reproductive Health Survey*.

GE4. MIGRATION

Definition and measurement

Place of birth and nationality are the two criteria most commonly used by OECD countries to define their immigrant population. Based on the first criterion, migrants are persons who reside in one country but were born in another. According to the second criterion, migrants are residents who have the nationality of their home country, and may include persons born in the host country. The net immigration rate refers to the number of immigrants minus the number of emigrants over a period of time divided by the population of the receiving country over that same period. It is expressed as the net number of migrants per 1 000 population.

Cross-country differences between the size of the foreign-born population and that of the foreign population depend on the rules governing the acquisition of citizenship in each economy. The data used for this indicator come from the United Nations' World Population Prospects database (2006, <http://esa.un.org/unpp/>) and from the OECD's Society at a Glance (2009, www.oecd.org/els/social/indicators/SAG).

Across Asia there are major differences in the share of the foreign born population. Table GE4.1 shows that over the period 1990-2005 Hong Kong - China and Singapore consistently had the highest shares of foreign population. In 2000, these two economies had respective ratios of 40.7% and 33.7%, and these levels both soared to 42.6% in 2005. These levels are a direct result of the four Asia-Pacific Tigers' export-driven model of economic development, which partly focused on investing heavily in all levels of education to develop a pool of highly-skilled workers while simultaneously attracting a foreign-born workforce for low-skilled jobs (Kim, 1999). After Hong Kong - China and Singapore, the third largest share of foreigners in the total population belongs to Malaysia (6.5% in 2005). Korea, Japan, and Thailand have just over 1%.

Some economies have large positive while others have large negative net immigration rates. Hong Kong - China and Singapore have the highest net immigration rates, at 9‰ and 10‰ respectively, both of which are much higher than the Asia average of 0.7 ‰ (Figure GE4.2). On the other side of the spectrum, Bangladesh, Indonesia, Mongolia, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Viet Nam have negative net immigration rates, which implies that a portion of the population has left the economy, most probably to seek job opportunities in foreign economies (neighbouring or otherwise). India's rates have been steadily decreasing.

The Asian economic growth "miracle" was partly due to successful workforce immigration and emigration policies (United Nations, 2003). Migratory movements were expected to continue to increase into the twenty-first century, but the 1997 crisis revealed many shortcomings in the integrated and interdependent regional economic system. It ultimately led to the tightening of the labour market for both labour-sending and labour-receiving Asia-Pacific economies (Ducanes & Abella, 2008). Recipient economies tried to reduce their reliance on foreign workers and made efforts to secure jobs for local workers. In countries of origin, growing unemployment increased emigration pressures on potential migrant workers (Kwen & Rahman, 2006).

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GE4.1 Migration trends in Asia-Pacific economies, 1990-2005

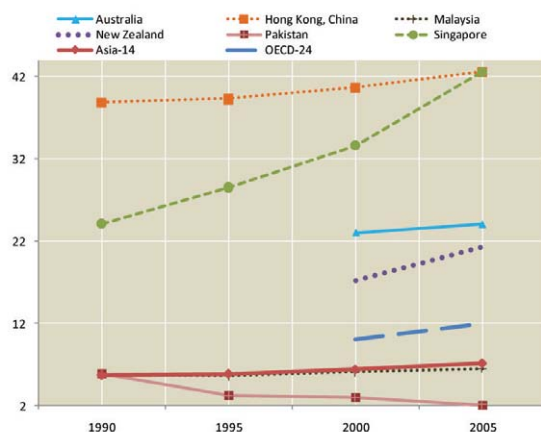
	Stock of foreign population as share of total population (%)				Net Immigration Rate (Per 1 000 population)		
	1990	1995	2000	2005	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005
Australia	23.0	24.1	6.7
Bangladesh	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.7	-0.4	-0.5	-0.7
China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	-0.2	-0.2	-0.3
Hong Kong, China	38.9	39.3	40.7	42.6	10.1	9.3	8.7
India	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.5	-0.2	-0.3	-0.2
Indonesia	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.1	-0.8	-0.9	-0.9
Japan	0.7	1.0	1.3	1.6	0.4	0.4	0.4
Korea	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	-0.5	-0.3	-0.3
Malaysia	5.7	5.6	6.1	6.5	3.0	4.5	1.2
Mongolia	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	-5.2	-7.4	-4.0
New Zealand	17.2	21.2	3.3
Pakistan	5.9	3.2	3.0	2.1	-4.3	-0.1	-1.6
Philippines	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	-2.8	-2.5	-2.2
Singapore	24.1	28.5	33.7	42.6	15.4	19.6	9.6
Thailand	0.7	1.0	1.4	1.6	0.6	1.7	0.7
Viet Nam	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-0.7	-0.5	-0.5
Asia-14	5.7	5.9	6.4	7.2	1.0	1.6	0.7
OECD-24	10.0	11.9	3.3

Note: 2006 data for Australia, New Zealand, and OECD-24. For these economies, net migration is defined as the number of arrivals of foreigners and of nationals returning from abroad in a given year net of departures of foreigners and nationals in the same year. Although the inflow and outflow data are generally not comparable, the net migration statistics, which are calculated as the difference between inflows and outflows, tend to "net out" the main source of non-comparability in the flow data, namely short-term movements. Net migration for the OECD average concerns 28 countries.

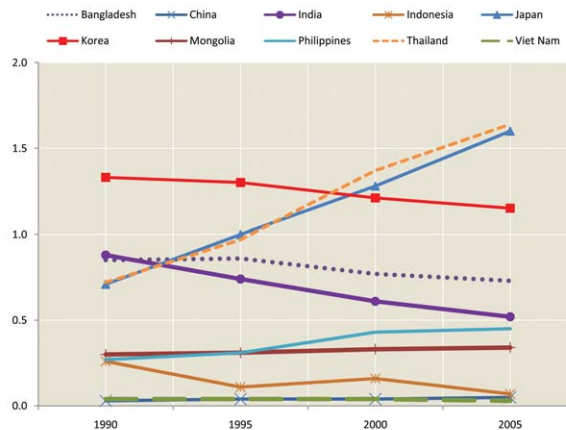
Source: UN (2006), *World Population Prospects* database; except Australia, New Zealand, and OECD-24 from OECD (2009), *Society at a Glance*, Paris.

GE4.2 Stock of foreign-born population as a share of total population, 1990-2005 (%)

Economies above 2% in 2005



Economies below 2% in 2005



Note: 2005 data except 2006 data for Australia, New Zealand, and OECD-24.

Source: UN (2006), *World Population Prospects* database; except Australia, New Zealand, and OECD-24 from OECD (2009), *Society at a Glance*.

GE5. MARRIAGE AND DIVORCE

Definition and measurement

The crude marriage rate conveys the number of marriages formed each year as a ratio to the total adult population; similarly, the crude divorce rate is the number of marriages dissolved in a given year, also expressed with respect to total population size. Singulate Mean Age at Marriage (SMAM), or average age at first marriage among those who ever marry by age 50 years, is calculated from the proportions of persons who are single, that is to say, never married between the ages of 15 and 50. The percentage of people "ever married" refers to those who report being married at least once. "Ever married" thus includes those who are currently married, as well as those who are widowed, divorced, or separated.

The data used here come from national demographic surveys, from the OECD's Society at a Glance (2009, www.oecd.org/els/social/indicators/SAG), and from the United Nations' World Marriage Patterns (2000, www.un.org/esa/population/publications/worldmarriage/worldmarriage.htm). Data on crude marriage rates and crude divorce rates are only available for six Asia-Pacific economies: Australia, Hong Kong - China, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, and Singapore, and are expressed per population of 1 000.

Marriage rates are on the decline across Asia. Figure GE5.1 shows that all covered economies experienced a steady decline in crude marriage rates between 1980 and 2005. The decline can be seen, among other factors, as an important element in the rapid ageing of Asia. These economies also have low TFRs and high age-dependency ratios (see indicators GE2 and GE3), two elements which, combined with the high mean age of childbearing and the increased life expectancy of the elderly, contribute to the phenomenon of the ageing society. Annex Figure GE5.3 shows that men in Hong Kong - China and Japan tend to marry when in their early 30s, while they marry 7 years younger in China and India. Women in Asia-Pacific economies always marry at a younger age than men, ranging from 18-19 years old in Bangladesh, Nepal, and India, to 26-28 years old in Korea, New Zealand, Japan, Australia, Singapore, and Hong Kong - China.

Divorce rates are on the rise across Asia. Figure GE5.2 shows that divorce rates have soared for five of the six economies since 1980, even though this trend tapered off between 2002 and 2003. Korea's crude divorce rate nearly doubled between 1980 and 2004, whereas Singapore has successfully maintained a relatively low crude divorce rate. New Zealand has continually had high but relatively stable divorce rates.

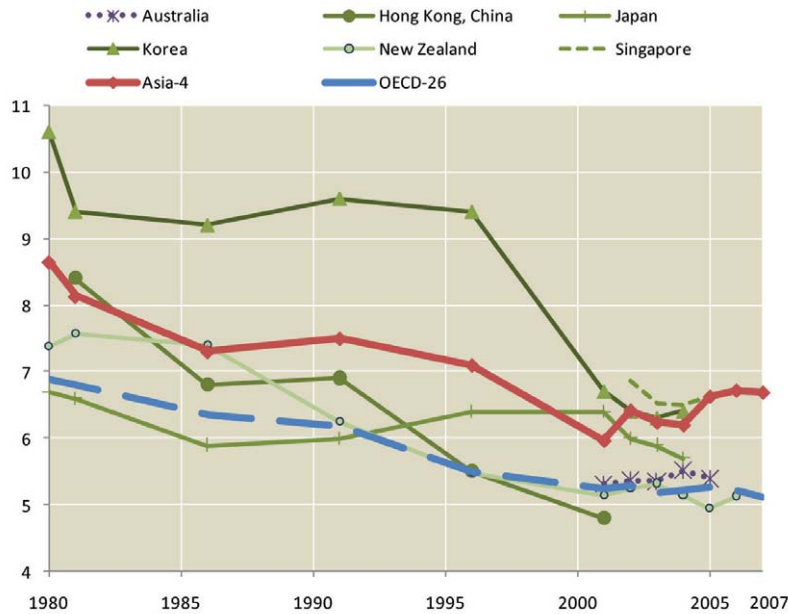
Policies related to marriage connect to a considerable range of social outcomes. Property in marriage, inheritance, reproductive health and rights, divorce procedures, etc. can be a solid and valuable base on which to plan an all-inclusive approach to sustainable and equitable development (Uchida & Araki & Murata, 1993). This is especially true in Asia, where since the early 1970s countless international conferences and regional programmes have called for all levels of government to increase gender equality within the framework of population well-being and economic/institutional development (UNFPA, 2008).

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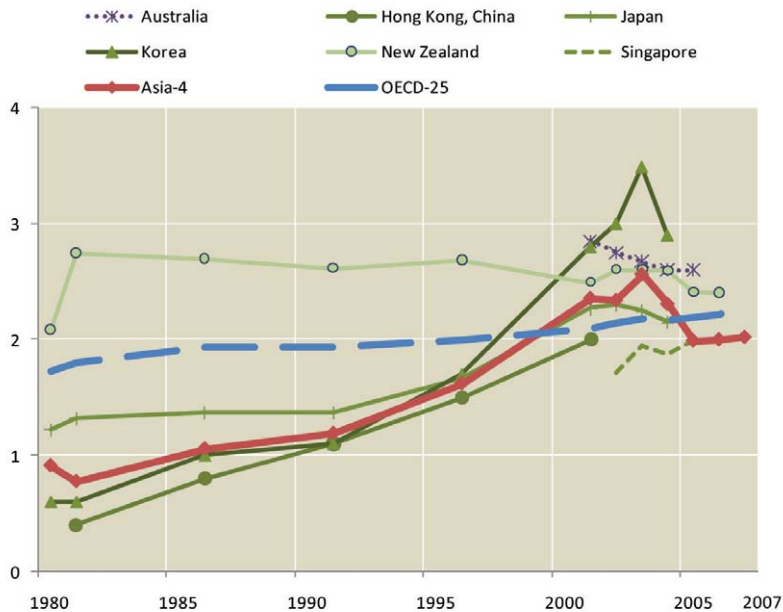
UNFPA (2008), *State of World Population Report*, New York.

GE5.1 Crude marriage rates per 1 000 population, 1980-2007



Source: Korea: National Statistical Office of the Republic of Korea, *Social Indicators of Korea*; Japan: Ministry of Health and Welfare, *Vital Statistics of Japan* (<http://web-japan.org/stat/>); Hong Kong - China: Census and Statistics Department (www.info.gov.hk/gia/general/200212/23/atablee.htm); Singapore: Singapore Statistics (2007), *Statistics on Marriages and Divorces*; Australia, New Zealand, and OECD-26 from OECD (2009), *Society at a Glance*, Paris.

GE5.2 Crude divorce rates per 1000 population, 1980-2007



Source: Korea: National Statistical Office of the Republic of Korea, *Social Indicators of Korea*; Japan: Ministry of Health and Welfare, *Vital Statistics of Japan* (<http://web-japan.org/stat/>); Hong Kong - China: Census and Statistics Department (www.info.gov.hk/gia/general/200212/23/atablee.htm); Singapore: Singapore Statistics (2007), *Statistics on Marriages and Divorces*; Australia, New Zealand, and OECD-26 from OECD (2009), *Society at a Glance*, Paris.

GENERAL CONTEXT INDICATORS (GE)

- ANNEX -

GE1: GDP (per capita)

GE1_3 Annual average growth rates of GDP per capita (1990 USD), 1990-2006

	1990-2006	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2006
Australia	2.2	2.1	2.7	2.1	1.8
Bangladesh	3.1	2.2	3.3	3.6	4.8
Brunei Darussalam	-0.3	-1.1	0.1	-0.2	1.5
Cambodia	5.0	3.1	4.7	7.2	5.5
China	9.2	11.0	7.7	8.8	10.0
Hong Kong, China	3.2	4.1	2.0	3.1	5.7
India	4.2	3.0	3.9	5.2	7.6
Indonesia	3.0	6.2	-0.7	3.3	4.3
Japan	1.1	1.2	0.8	1.2	2.0
Korea (Rep.)	4.8	6.7	3.5	4.1	4.8
Korea (Dem. Rep.)	-2.0	-5.4	-1.9	0.9	0.1
Laos	4.1	3.5	3.9	4.6	5.5
Macao, China	4.7	3.8	-1.8	10.6	15.5
Malaysia	3.8	6.7	2.3	2.5	4.0
Mongolia	0.7	-4.3	2.2	4.8	-0.8
Myanmar	7.6	4.3	7.1	11.8	6.1
Nepal	1.8	2.6	2.3	0.8	-0.1
New Zealand	1.8	1.3	1.7	2.6	0.6
Pakistan	2.2	2.0	0.2	3.9	5.0
Philippines	1.4	-0.1	1.5	2.5	3.3
Singapore	4.1	5.9	3.4	2.5	6.5
Sri Lanka	4.2	4.3	4.3	3.5	7.0
Chinese Taipei	2.0	1.7	3.2	0.6	4.4
Thailand	3.7	7.4	-0.6	4.3	4.2
Viet Nam	5.8	6.0	5.4	6.0	6.2
Asia-22	2.6	2.9	1.6	2.9	5.4
OECD-30	2.1	1.2	3.1	1.8	2.8

Source: UNESCAP (2007), *Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific*, Bangkok; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD National Accounts.

GE2: Age-Dependency Ratio

GE2.4 Old-age dependency ratios, 1980-2050

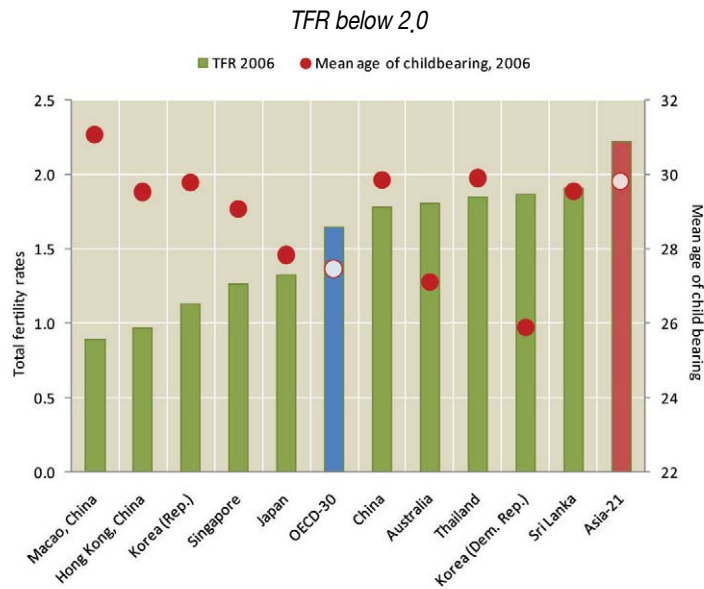
	1980	1990	2000	2010	2020	2030	2040	2050
Australia	0.171	0.189	0.207	0.236	0.312	0.395	0.450	0.477
Bangladesh	0.068	0.066	0.068	0.087	0.089	0.117	0.151	0.194
China	0.097	0.097	0.113	0.130	0.187	0.268	0.394	0.425
Hong Kong, China	0.114	0.136	0.168	0.182	0.265	0.438	0.552	0.626
India	0.077	0.082	0.091	0.099	0.117	0.147	0.183	0.237
Indonesia	0.076	0.076	0.089	0.104	0.123	0.173	0.244	0.321
Japan	0.150	0.195	0.276	0.379	0.513	0.563	0.697	0.802
Korea	0.076	0.085	0.115	0.172	0.236	0.388	0.558	0.694
Malaysia	0.080	0.075	0.074	0.086	0.121	0.174	0.219	0.275
Mongolia	0.069	0.094	0.078	0.068	0.076	0.133	0.202	0.293
New Zealand	0.186	0.196	0.201	0.225	0.294	0.397	0.480	0.500
Pakistan	0.078	0.077	0.084	0.073	0.089	0.113	0.133	0.180
Philippines	0.075	0.072	0.073	0.083	0.102	0.129	0.154	0.214
Singapore	0.084	0.086	0.110	0.152	0.272	0.491	0.639	0.636
Thailand	0.083	0.088	0.109	0.137	0.199	0.294	0.373	0.421
Viet Nam	0.118	0.109	0.108	0.097	0.114	0.176	0.250	0.332
Asia-14	0.089	0.096	0.111	0.132	0.179	0.257	0.339	0.404
OECD-30	0.208	0.212	0.228	0.251	0.315	0.393	0.464	0.512

Note: The old-age-dependency ratio calculates the proportion of persons aged 65 and more relative to the number of individuals aged 20 to 64.

Source: United Nations (2007), *World Population Prospects* online database; except Australia, New Zealand, and OECD-30 from OECD Demographic and Labour Force database.

GE3: Fertility Rates

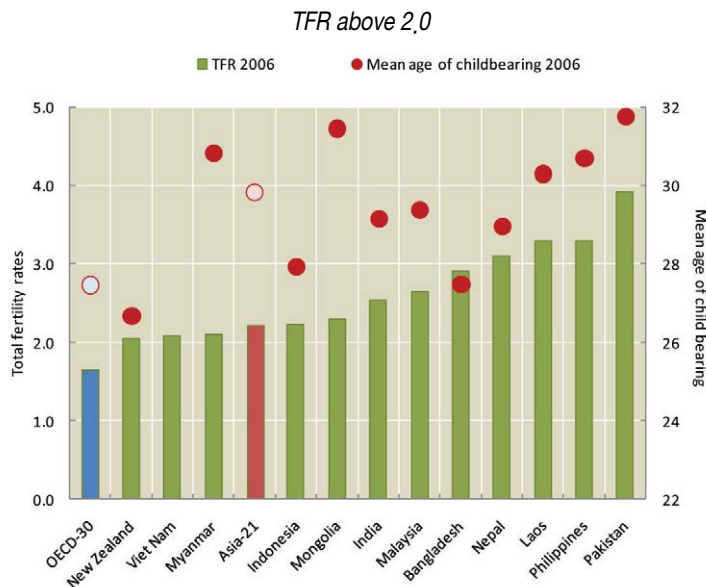
GE3,3 Total fertility rates (TFRs) and mean age of childbearing, 2006



Note: Korea (Dem, Rep.): The mean age at first birth concerns married women only (2002).

Source: World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database for fertility rates, UN (2007), *World Fertility Patterns* for mean ages of childbearing; except Korea (Dem, Rep.) from UNFPA (2002), *DPRK Reproductive Health Survey*.

GE3,4 Total fertility rates (TFRs) and mean age of childbearing, 2006



Note: 2006 data except 2005 for Laos TFR.

Source: World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database for fertility rates, and UN (2007), *World Fertility Patterns* for mean ages of child-bearing.

GE5: Marriage and Divorce

GE5.3 Singulate Mean Age at Marriage (SMAM) and percentage of men and women ever married, by age categories (1990-1996)

	Men				Women			
	SMAM	Percentage ever married			SMAM	Percentage ever married		
		15-19	20-24	45-49		15-19	20-24	45-49
Australia	29.2	1.0	10.6	91.4	27.0	1.6	21.6	94.6
Bangladesh	24.9	5.0	31.6	99.3	18.1	51.3	89.5	99.6
Brunei Darussalam	27.3	1.2	18.6	95.2	25.1	8.0	38.2	91.3
China	23.8	1.8	37.5	94.9	22.1	4.7	58.6	99.8
Hong Kong, China	30.7	0.8	6.0	92.5	28.6	1.7	14.7	94.1
India	23.9	9.5	40.1	97.6	19.3	35.7	83.0	99.3
Indonesia	25.2	2.4	28.3	97.1	21.6	18.2	64.3	98.5
Japan	30.3	0.3	6.4	93.3	26.9	0.7	14.0	95.4
Korea	29.3	0.2	3.7	98.7	26.1	0.8	16.7	99.0
Laos	21.2	19.7	67.4	96.3
Macao, China	28.1	0.8	9.9	95.0	26.4	2.3	22.3	96.0
Malaysia	27.9	1.4	14.3	96.0	24.6	7.6	39.9	96.2
Myanmar	27.5	2.2	23.3	94.3	26.4	6.6	34.8	87.9
Nepal	22.0	13.5	61.7	99.1	18.8	41.6	85.9	98.4
New Zealand	28.8	0.4	9.7	92.8	26.8	1.1	22.4	95.3
Pakistan	26.3	6.2	24.7	98.0	21.6	21.9	60.6	98.0
Philippines	26.3	3.0	26.8	95.5	23.8	10.5	44.3	93.9
Singapore	29.8	0.2	5.7	92.4	27.0	1.2	21.2	92.9
Sri Lanka	27.9	1.0	16.3	92.9	25.3	7.1	38.8	94.8
Thailand	25.8	6.0	31.5	96.8	23.5	15.2	52.0	94.8
Viet Nam	24.5	4.7	37.4	98.5	23.2	11.1	56.9	96.5
Asia-19	26.7	3.3	23.5	96.0	23.7	14.0	47.5	95.9
OECD-30	28.8	0.8	13.3	90.9	26.0	3.6	29.2	93.5

Source: United Nations (2000), *World Marriage Patterns*, New York.

Further readings

GE1

OECD (2008), *Shaping Policy Reform and Peer Review in Southeast Asia: Integrating Economies amid Diversity*, Paris.

GE2

Horioka C. Y. (2007), *Ageing, Saving, and Fiscal Policy*, Institute of Social and Economic Research, National Bureau of Economic Research, and Asian Development Bank Institute, Osaka.

UNESCAP (1999), *Population Ageing and Development: Implications for Asia and the Pacific* (unedited draft), Social Development Division (ESID), Bangkok.

United Nations (1986), *Age Structure of Mortality in Developing Countries - A Database for Cross-Sectional and Time Series Research*, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, New York.

GE3

Arroyo C. R. (1993), *Economic Approaches to Modelling Fertility Determinants - A Selective Review*, Policy Research Working Paper 1085, World Bank, Washington DC.

GE4

International Labour Organisation (2006), *ILO Multilateral Framework on Labour Migration - Non-binding principles and guidelines for a rights-based approach to labour migration*, Geneva.

International Labour Organisation (2004), *Towards a Fair Deal for Migrant Workers in the Global Economy*, Report VI of the International Labour Conference, 92nd Session, Geneva.

ILO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific (2008), *Decent work indicators for Asia and the Pacific: a guidebook for policy-makers and researchers*, ILO Report, Bangkok.

OECD (2007), *International Migration Outlook*, Paris (www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo).

GE5

Jones G. W. (1994), *Marriage and Divorce in Islamic South-East Asia*, South-East Asia-Pacific Social Science Monographs, Oxford University Press, USA.

SELF-SUFFICIENCY INDICATORS (SS)

SS1. EMPLOYMENT

Definition and measurement

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) defines a person as “employed” if he or she works for pay, profit, or family gain (in cash or in kind) for at least one hour per week, or if he or she is temporarily absent from work because of illness, holidays, or industrial disputes. The basic indicator for employment used here is the employment-to-population ratio (also called the employment rate), which is measured as the proportion of the population of working age (persons aged between 15 and 64) who are employed, including the self-employed. Employment rates are grouped by age, gender, and economic sector.

The data are extracted from the International Labour Organisation’s *LABORSTA* online database (<http://laborsta.ilo.org>), from the Asian Development Bank’s *Key Indicators* (2007-2008, www.adb.org/documents/books/key_indicators), from the OECD’s Labour Force database (www.oecd.org/statistics/labour), and from the OECD’s *Employment Outlook* (www.oecd.org/els/employment).

Employment rates in Asia are at OECD-comparable levels, although agricultural employment predominates. Table SS1.1 shows that the average employment rate for the working population of fourteen Asian economies was 65.5% for 2006, which is just slightly lower than the OECD average of 66.6%. Viet Nam had the highest regional rate with 77.6%, and Pakistan the lowest rate with 54.1%. Australia, Japan, Hong Kong - China, Singapore, New Zealand, and Thailand all had rates of over 70%, though only Japan had high employment rates for all age groups. Employment rates and shares of employment by industry should be considered together in order to understand each economy and labour market. Overall, agriculture is the predominant sector in the region’s labour market. As shown in Figure SS1.2, this sector employs over 40% of the workforce in China, India, Indonesia, and Thailand, 52% in Bangladesh and Viet Nam, 63% in Myanmar, 76% in Nepal, and 82% in Laos. In highly urbanised economies such as Hong Kong - China, Singapore, Brunei Darussalam, Australia, Japan, and Chinese Taipei, only 5% or less of the workforce are employed in agriculture, a level similar to the OECD average of 5.1%.

Changes in employment rates are quite varied. Annex Figure SS1.3 shows that after 2000 employment rates have increased in Korea, Australia, the Philippines, Thailand, and New Zealand. Conversely, rates have largely decreased in Malaysia, Indonesia, and Hong Kong - China. While the actual extent and duration of the present financial and economic crisis is as yet unclear, both formal and informal employment rates are likely to be affected in late 2008 and into 2009 (OECD, 2008).

Employment-to-population ratios broken down by gender and age group vary greatly across regions and within economies. Annex Table SS1.4 shows that Bangladesh has one of Asia’s highest ratios for men in nearly every age group, while the ratio for women is almost always the lowest, except for women aged 15-24. The ratio for 55-64 year-old women was highest in New Zealand (63.3%) and the Philippines (54.1%), and lowest in Bangladesh and Mongolia (both at 15.2%). Concerning the 15-24 age group, men’s ratios were highest in Bangladesh and Pakistan (respectively 69.9% and 72.1%), and the lowest in Korea (20.5%). The ratios for women in the same age group were highest in Australia and Vietnam (63.3% and 55.3%) and lowest in India and Pakistan. These differences may be due to the fact that in industrialised economies a large part of this age group is in full-time education, which decreases the need or the time available to undertake a full-time job. In predominantly agricultural economies, youngsters may need to contribute to the household’s income (ADB, 2008). Concerning the 25-54 population, average ratios are distinctly higher for Asian men than for OECD men (93.6% versus 87.8), and significantly lower for women of the same age group (58.9% for Asia and 66.4% for the OECD).

References:

- Asian Development Bank (2008), *Asian Development Outlook 2008 - Workers in Asia*, Manila.
- OECD (2008), *Employment Outlook*, Paris (www.oecd.org/els/employment).

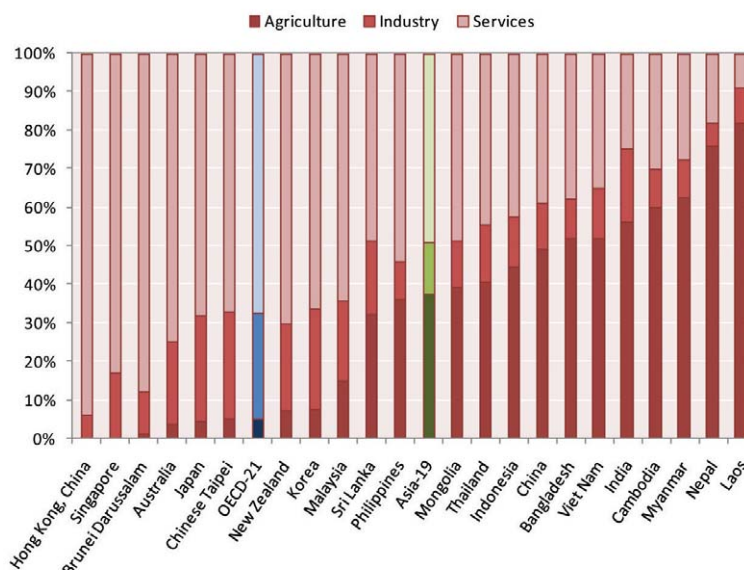
SS1,1 Activity rates for men and women by age group, 2006 (%)

	15-64	15-24	25-54	55-64
Australia	72.9	64.2	80.0	56.7
Bangladesh	58.6	51.6	62.5	56.7
Hong Kong, China	70.0	42.9	81.4	47.2
India	60.0	42.4	70.0	59.0
Indonesia	67.5	53.3	77.0	56.2
Japan	70.7	41.4	80.2	66.1
Korea	63.9	25.7	74.0	60.6
Malaysia	64.2	48.8	74.5	46.1
Mongolia	57.8	45.5	72.1	18.8
New Zealand	75.4	58.7	82.2	72.0
Pakistan	54.1	45.9	59.6	56.0
Philippines	65.8	46.1	76.3	67.1
Singapore	71.3	38.9	83.2	56.2
Chinese Taipei	62.8	30.6	76.7	40.4
Thailand	72.9	48.8	87.9	59.1
Viet Nam	77.6	56.1	91.3	55.2
Asia-14	65.5	44.1	76.2	53.2
OECD-30	66.6	43.4	77.0	53.4

Note: 2006 data except 1999 for Malaysia; 2001 for India; 2003 for Bangladesh; 2004 for Viet Nam; 2005 for Mongolia & Chinese Taipei; and 2007 for Australia, New Zealand, Korea, Japan, and OECD average. India: 15-69, 25-59, 50-69; Mongolia: 55-60+.

Source: ILO (2008), LABORSTA online database; except for Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD (2008), Employment Outlook, Paris.

SS1,2 Employment by economic sector, 2006 (percentage of employment)



Note: 2006 data except Myanmar 1997, Nepal 1999, Brunei Darussalam 2001, China & Laos & Bangladesh 2003, and India 2005. Singapore data refer to Singapore residents only.

Source: ADB (2007), *Key Indicators 2007: Inequality in Asia*, Manila; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-21 from OECD (2008), Labour Force database.

SS2. UNEMPLOYMENT

Definition and measurement

The basic indicator for unemployment is the unemployment rate - i.e. the proportion of people out of work among the active population of working age (15 to 64). According to the standardised International Labour Organisation definition, “unemployed” individuals are: those who did not work for at least one hour either as an employee or as a self-employed worker during the reference week of the survey; those who are currently available for work; and those who have taken specific steps to seek employment in the four weeks preceding the survey. Thus, for example, people who cannot work because of physical impairment, who are not actively seeking a job, or who are in full-time education are not considered as unemployed.

Unlike the data for OECD countries, Asia-Pacific economies do not report specific unemployment data by age breakdown or by educational level. The data used here are from the International Labour Organisation’s LABORSTA online database (<http://laborsta.ilo.org>), and from the OECD’s 2008 *Employment Outlook* (www.oecd.org/els/employment).

Unemployment rates vary significantly among Asian economies. Figure SS2.2 shows that in 2007 unemployment rates in the Philippines and Indonesia were more than three times higher than in Viet Nam, Mongolia and Malaysia.

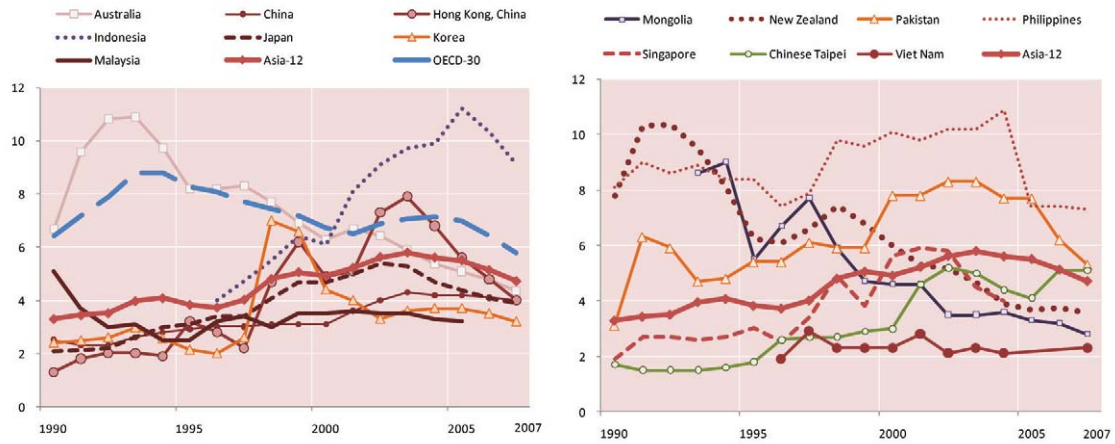
Over the last 17 years unemployment rates have fluctuated in a similar fashion in developed Asian economies as in OECD countries. Figure SS2.1 shows that there was a slight increase from 1990 to 1995, followed either by a decrease or a period of stability from then on (even if it is still too early to tell with exactitude, many elements point to the present financial crisis as the start of a new period of resurgence of high unemployment rates). Indonesia, Singapore, the Philippines, Malaysia, and Hong Kong - China are the economies where unemployment rates have not followed such a pattern, and where unemployment rates have oscillated the most. Incidentally, these same economies were the most affected by the 1997-1998 financial crisis and its aftermath - namely political instability, institutional reforms, augmented foreign debt, reduced foreign direct investments, inflation, monetary instability, etc. (Bandara, 2005).

In 2007 unemployment rates for women were higher than for men in 9 out of 13 Asian economies. Figure SS2.2 shows that unemployment rates for women were higher than for men in Australia, Bangladesh, Indonesia, Malaysia, Mongolia, New Zealand, Pakistan, Singapore, and Chinese Taipei. This observation suggests that an economy’s level of economic development does not necessarily determine the chances of women being employed in the formal economy, although the three economies that clearly stand out in terms of female unemployment are Bangladesh, Indonesia, and Pakistan. These data do not take into account women’s part-time work, unpaid housework, and/or activity in the informal sector. Overall, the present levels of unemployment in Asia are due to two intertwined factors: on the one hand, a high rate of growth of the labour force, and on the other hand a demand for labour in the formal sector that has not increased accordingly (see Annex Figures SS2.3 and SS2.4 on unemployment trends over time by gender). Meaning that the “potential” labour supply in Asia is continuing to grow due to higher fertility rates (see GE3), while job creation is not keeping pace.

References:

Bandara A. / UNESCAP (2005), *Emerging Unemployment issues in Asia and the Pacific: Rising to the Challenges* (Unedited draft), Poverty and Development Division, Bangkok.

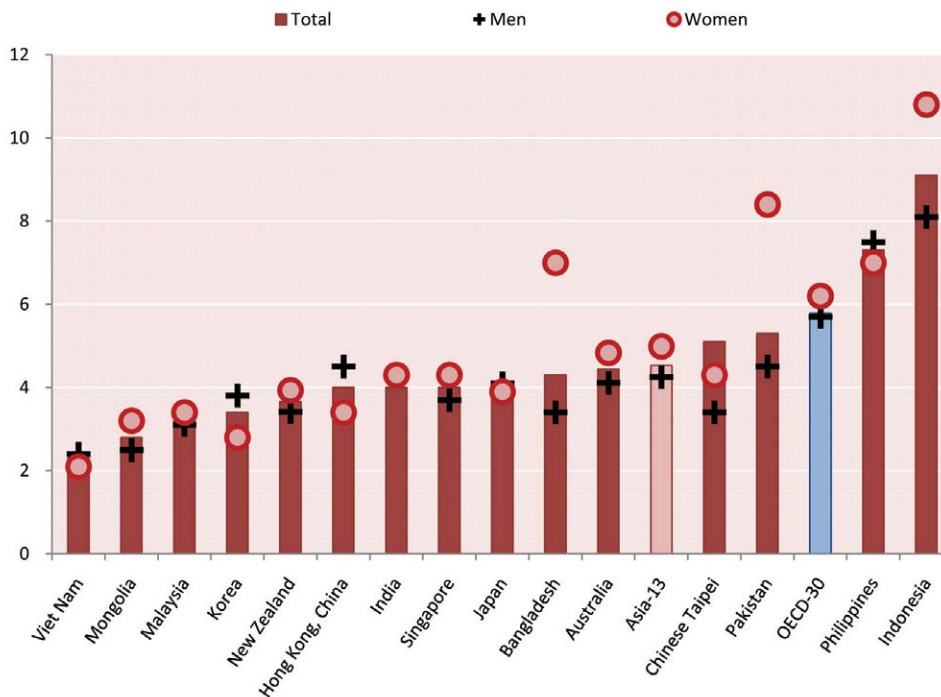
SS2.1 Unemployment rates, 1990-2007 (Percentage of labour force)



Note: Hong Kong - China: unpaid family workers who worked for one hour or more are excluded, Pakistan: Persons aged 10 and over, Singapore: The data refer to the residents (Singapore citizens and permanent residents) aged 15 and over, Prior to 1997, persons aged 15 and over,

Source: ILO (2008), LABORSTA online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD (2008), *Employment Outlook*, Paris.

SS2.2 Unemployment rates by gender, 2007



Note: 2007 data except 2005 for Bangladesh; 2000 for India's men and women; 2003 for Chinese Taipei's men and women,

Source: ILO (2008), LABORSTA online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD (2008), *Employment Outlook*, Paris.

SS3. EDUCATION

Definition and measurement

Net school enrolment rates, literacy rates, and levels of government spending on education are used to measure country efforts in ensuring that children receive a good, comprehensive education. Net school enrolment at the secondary level is used for the cross-country comparison, since the primary level is relatively well ensured in most Asia-Pacific economies and since school enrolment rates in the secondary level can show the greatest variations.

The net enrolment rate is defined as the enrolment of the official age-group for a given level of education expressed as a percentage of the corresponding population. The youth literacy rate measures the number of literate persons among persons aged 15 to 24. Public education spending corresponds to current and capital expenditures on education by local, regional, and national governments, including municipalities and excluding household contributions. It is expressed as a percentage of the GDP. The data presented here are extracted from UNESCO Institute of Statistics' *2008 Education and literacy* database (<http://stats.uis.unesco.org>).

Youth literacy rates are generally higher for males. Table SS3.1 shows that the lowest three female youth literacy rates were reported by Bangladesh (73.2%), Nepal (73.0%), and Pakistan (60%). In all twenty-one Asian economies except Bangladesh, Hong Kong - China, Korea, Macao - China, Malaysia, Singapore, and Sri Lanka, a male advantage can be seen in terms of literacy rates. Pakistan, Nepal, and India share the more prominent gender gaps in terms of literacy, with respective gaps of 19.5, 12.3, and 9.7 percentage points.

A clear female advantage can be seen in terms of net secondary school enrolment rates. Figure SS3.2 shows that in eleven Asia-Pacific economies (except Cambodia, Pakistan, Laos, Myanmar, and Korea) net secondary school enrolment ratios are higher for females than for males. Figure SS3.2 and Annex Figure SS3.4 show that for men, women, and men and women combined, Japan, Korea, and New Zealand consistently have the highest net secondary school enrolment ratios (from 90.8% to 98.9%), followed by Brunei Darussalam and Mongolia (81% and 91.3%). Cambodia, Laos, and Pakistan have the lowest rates.

The high shares of GDP spent on public education can partly explain recent improvements in gross secondary school enrolment. Table SS3.1 shows that in terms of spending on public education as a percentage of GDP (a measure of each economy's efforts to improve the general quality of the public education system), New Zealand and Malaysia invest the most in their respective education systems, with 6.2% and 5.9% of their respective GDPs, followed by Mongolia (5.1%) and Australia (4.8%). Myanmar, Cambodia, Bangladesh, and Laos report the lowest four levels of spending on education, with less than 2.5% of their respective GDPs invested. Figure SS3.3 shows that Mongolia achieved the greatest improvements in terms of gross secondary school enrolment, with 36% for men and 31% for women, closely followed by Cambodia (roughly 24% for men and 26% for women). Thailand also made noticeable improvements, though at a slower pace: 12% for men and 22% for women. Annex Figure SS3.5 shows that public education spending is strongly and positively correlated to net secondary school enrolment rates. This should encourage governments to maintain or increase investments in national public education systems, especially now that globalisation is putting a higher premium on competitiveness, requiring both developing and developed economies in Asia to produce a highly adaptable and skilled labour force (Dupriez, 2003 and ADB, 2004).

References:

Asian Development Bank (2004), *Improving Technical Education and Vocational Training - Strategies for Asia*, Manila.

Dupriez O. (2003), *Adapting Education to the Global Economy*, Policy Brief Series no. 22, Asian Development Bank, Manila.

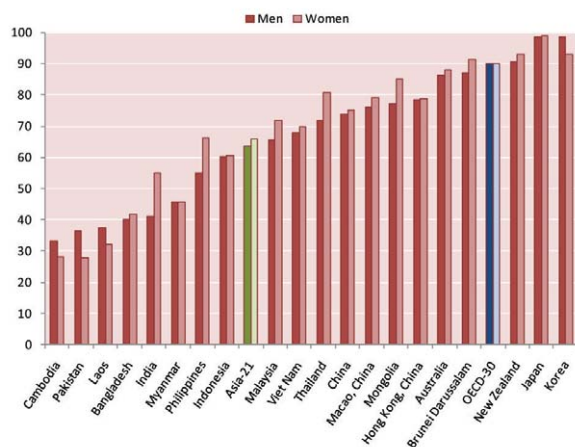
SS3.1 Net secondary school enrolment rates, literacy rates, and government spending on education, by gender (2007)

	Net secondary school enrolment rate, 2006 (%)			Youth literacy rate, 2007 (15-24, %)			Public Education Spending, 2005 (% of GDP)	Public expenditure per pupil in secondary, 2005 (% of GDP per capita)
	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men		
Australia	87.2	88.0	86.5	4.8	15.4
Bangladesh	41.0	41.8	40.2	72.1	73.2	71.1	2.2	14.6
Brunei Darussalam	89.1	91.3	87.1	99.6	99.6	99.6	3.7	...
Cambodia	30.7	28.3	33.0	86.2	82.7	89.6	1.7	6.4
China	74.0	75.0	74.0	99.3	99.1	99.4	3.5	..
Hong Kong, China	78.6	78.7	78.5	...	97.0	91.0	3.5	16.5
India	48.0	55.0	41.0	82.1	77.1	86.7	3.2	16.7
Indonesia	60.4	60.5	60.2	98.9	98.8	98.9	3.6	...
Japan	98.7	98.9	98.5	...	99.0	99.0	3.5	22.4
Korea	96.0	93.2	98.7	...	99.0	97.0	4.4	23.4
Laos	34.9	32.3	37.5	82.5	79.7	85.3	2.3	4.7
Macao, China	77.6	79.2	76.1	99.8	99.9	99.8	3.8	11.9
Malaysia	68.7	72.0	65.6	98.3	98.4	98.2	5.9	20.3
Mongolia	81.0	85.0	77.0	..	97.7	96.8	5.1	..
Myanmar	45.7	45.6	45.8	94.5	93.4	95.7	1.3	6.8
Nepal	79.3	73.0	85.3	3.1	9.6
New Zealand	91.9	93.2	90.8	6.2	20.6
Pakistan	32.2	27.7	36.5	70.0	60.0	79.5	2.9	...
Philippines	60.4	66.2	54.8	94.4	95.3	93.6	2.5	9.1
Singapore	99.7	99.8	99.7	3.7	...
Sri Lanka	97.6	98.1	97.1
Thailand	76.1	80.7	71.8	98.2	98.1	98.3	4.2	15.2
Viet Nam	61.9	70.0	68.0	...	86.9	93.9	2.8	..

Note: - Secondary net enrolment rate: 2006 data except for Viet Nam 2001, New Zealand 2002, Bangladesh 2004, Malaysia 2005, Brunei Darussalam & Hong Kong - China & Macao - China & Mongolia & Pakistan 2007, and China & India year not specified; - Youth literacy rate: 2007 data except for Viet Nam 1999, Myanmar 2000, Hong Kong - China & Japan & Korea year not specified, No sufficient data for OECD countries for an OECD-30 average; - Public expenditure: 2005 data except for Brunei Darussalam & Macao - China 2000, Cambodia & Myanmar & Singapore 2001, Nepal 2003, Bangladesh & Malaysia & Thailand 2004, New Zealand & Indonesia 2006, Hong Kong - China & Pakistan & Mongolia 2007, and China & Viet Nam year not specified.

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics (2008), *Education and literacy database*, Paris.

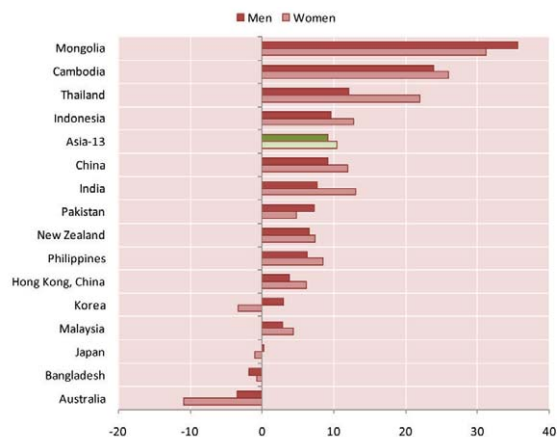
SS3.2 Net secondary school enrolment rate, by gender (2006)



Note: 2006 data except for Viet Nam 2001, New Zealand 2002, Bangladesh 2004, Malaysia 2005, Brunei Darussalam & Hong Kong - China & Macao - China & Mongolia & Pakistan 2007, and China and India year not specified.

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics (2008), *Education and literacy database*, Paris.

SS3.3 Gross secondary school enrolment improvements, 1991-latest year available



Note: Gross secondary school enrolment refers to the total enrolment in a specific level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education in a given school year. Improvements are calculated by comparing 1991 levels to levels for the latest year available.

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics (2008), *Education and literacy database*, Paris.

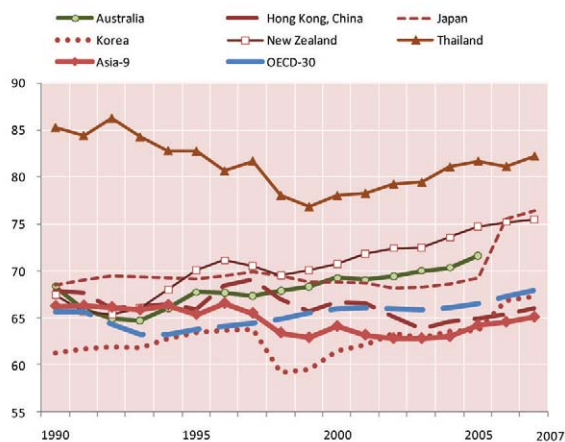
SELF-SUFFICIENCY INDICATORS (SS)

- ANNEX -

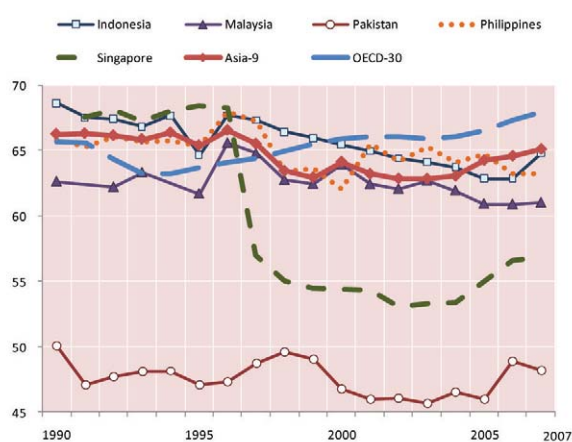
SS1: Employment

SS1.3 Share of employment to total population for men and women, 1990-2007

Economies above Asia-9 average in 2007



Economies below Asia-9 average in 2007



Source: ILO (2008), LABORSTA online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD (2008), *Employment Outlook*, Paris.

SS1.4 Activity rates by age group for men and women, 2006 (%)

	Men				Women			
	15-64	15-24	25-54	55-64	15-64	15-24	25-54	55-64
Australia	79.6	65.1	88.1	65.9	66.1	63.3	71.9	47.5
Bangladesh	89.1	69.9	99.2	92.6	27.2	32.3	26.1	15.2
Hong Kong, China	80.6	41.7	94.8	64.9	60.6	44.0	70.1	28.6
India	79.9	53.5	94.0	82.9	38.9	29.9	44.7	34.4
Indonesia	86.4	62.7	99.9	76.6	48.9	43.7	54.3	37.0
Japan	81.7	41.3	92.8	81.5	59.5	41.5	67.4	51.2
Korea	74.7	20.5	87.3	74.7	53.2	30.4	60.5	46.9
Malaysia	82.8	57.9	97.6	67.8	44.6	39.0	50.1	24.5
Mongolia	59.5	47.6	72.6	23.2	56.3	43.5	71.6	15.2
New Zealand	82.1	60.8	90.3	81.0	69.0	56.4	74.6	63.3
Pakistan	86.5	72.1	97.1	84.5	21.5	18.6	23.5	21.5
Philippines	81.0	56.0	95.0	80.6	50.4	35.7	57.7	54.1
Singapore	82.2	39.1	96.3	74.9	60.6	38.6	70.7	37.6
Thailand	81.2	57.0	95.3	71.5	65.1	40.3	81.0	48.4
Viet Nam	80.7	56.8	95.5	65.0	74.6	55.3	87.4	47.1
Asia-13	80.5	52.0	93.6	72.4	50.9	37.9	58.9	35.5
OECD-30	75.9	47.3	87.8	63.7	57.4	39.5	66.4	43.7

Note: 2006 data except 2007 for Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30.

Source: ILO (2008), LABORSTA online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD (2008), *Employment Outlook*, Paris.

SS2: Unemployment

SS2.3 Unemployment rates for men, 1980-2007

	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2007
Australia	5.0	4.1
Bangladesh	..	1.4	3.2	3.4	..
Cambodia	2.1
Hong Kong, China	3.9	3.5	1.3	3.4	5.6	6.5	4.5
India	2.4	4.3
Indonesia	5.7	9.3	8.1
Japan	2.0	2.6	2.0	3.1	4.9	4.7	4.1
Korea	6.2	5.0	2.9	2.3	5.0	4.1	3.8
Malaysia	2.8	3.0	3.4	3.1
Mongolia	5.0	4.1	3.0	2.5
New Zealand	3.5	3.4
Pakistan	3.0	4.0	3.4	4.1	6.1	6.6	4.5
Philippines	3.2	4.8	7.1	7.7	10.3	7.4	7.5
Singapore	2.9	4.2	..	2.7	3.7
Chinese Taipei	1.1	2.9	1.7	1.8	3.4
Viet Nam	2.4
Asia-14	3.2	3.6	3.1	3.5	4.6	5.4	4.6
OECD-30	6.0	5.7

Note: Bangladesh: Men aged 10 years and over; Cambodia: Persons aged 10 years and over; Mongolia: Persons aged 16 years and over; Pakistan: Persons aged 10 years and over; Singapore: Data refer to the residents (Singapore citizens and permanent residents) aged 15 and over. Prior to 1997, persons aged 15 years and over.

Source: ILO (2008), LABORSTA online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD (2008), *Employment Outlook*, Paris.

SS2.4 Unemployment rates for women, 1980-2007

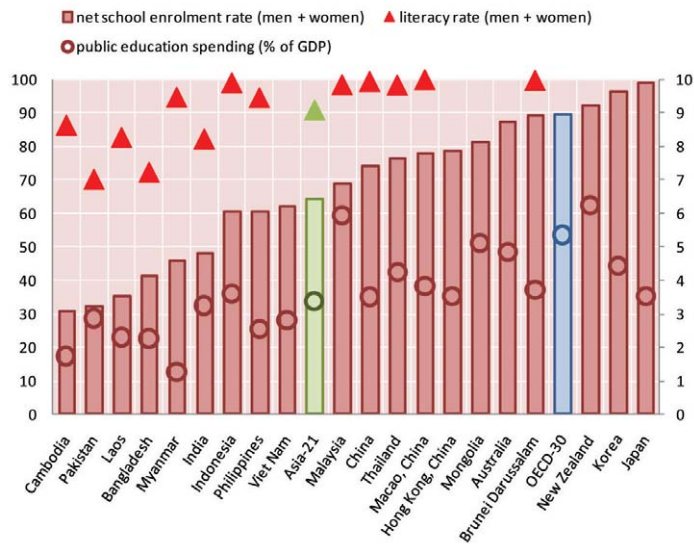
	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2007
Australia	5.3	4.8
Bangladesh	..	5.6	3.3	7.0	..
Cambodia	2.8
Hong Kong, China	3.4	2.6	1.3	2.9	4.1	4.4	3.4
India	1.7	4.3
Indonesia	6.7	14.7	10.8
Japan	2.0	2.7	2.2	3.2	4.5	4.4	3.9
Korea	3.5	2.4	1.8	1.7	3.6	3.6	2.8
Malaysia	3.8	3.1	3.7	3.4
Mongolia	6.7	5.0	3.6	3.2
New Zealand	4.1	3.9
Pakistan	7.5	1.5	0.9	13.7	17.3	12.8	8.4
Philippines	7.5	8.2	9.8	9.4	9.9	7.3	7.0
Singapore	3.4	4.1	..	2.8	4.3
Chinese Taipei	1.5	2.9	1.7	1.8	2.4
Viet Nam	2.1
Asia-14	4.1	3.8	3.0	4.8	5.3	6.8	5.2
OECD-30	7.0	6.2

Note: Persons aged 10 years and over; Mongolia: Persons aged 16 years and over; Pakistan: Persons aged 10 years and over; Singapore: Data refer to the residents (Singapore citizens and permanent residents) aged 15 and over. Prior to 1997, persons aged 15 years and over.

Source: ILO (2008), LABORSTA online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD (2008), *Employment Outlook*, Paris.

SS3: Education

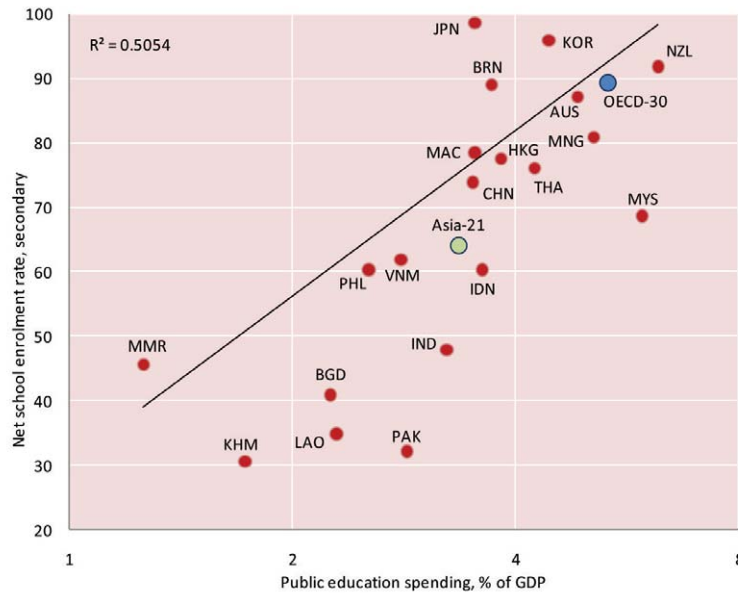
SS3.4 Net school enrolment ratios, public education spending, and literacy rates



Note: - Secondary net enrolment rate: 2006 data except for Viet Nam 2001, New Zealand 2002, Bangladesh 2004, Malaysia 2005, Brunei Darussalam & Hong Kong - China & Macao - China & Mongolia & Pakistan 2007, and China and India year not specified; - Youth literacy rate: 2007 data except for Viet Nam 1999, Myanmar 2000, Hong Kong - China & Japan & Korea year not specified, No sufficient data for OECD countries for an OECD-30 average; - Public expenditure: 2005 data except for Brunei Darussalam & Macao - China 2000, Cambodia & Myanmar & Singapore 2001, Nepal 2003, Bangladesh & Malaysia & Thailand 2004, New Zealand & Indonesia 2006, Hong Kong - China & Pakistan & Mongolia 2007, and China & Viet Nam year not specified.

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics (2008), *Education and literacy database*, Paris.

SS3.5 Relation between public education spending and net secondary school enrolment rates



Note: - Secondary net enrolment rate: 2006 data except for Viet Nam 2001, New Zealand 2002, Bangladesh 2004, Malaysia 2005, Brunei Darussalam & Hong Kong - China & Macao - China & Mongolia & Pakistan 2007, and China and India year not specified; - Youth literacy rate: 2007 data except for Viet Nam 1999, Myanmar 2000, Hong Kong - China & Japan & Korea year not specified, No sufficient data for OECD countries for an OECD-30 average; - Public expenditure: 2005 data except for Brunei Darussalam & Macao - China 2000, Cambodia & Myanmar & Singapore 2001, Nepal 2003, Bangladesh & Malaysia & Thailand 2004, New Zealand & Indonesia 2006, Hong Kong - China & Pakistan & Mongolia 2007, and China & Viet Nam year not specified.

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics (2008), *Education and literacy database*, Paris.

Further readings

SS1

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SS2

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SS3

Behrman J. R. & Deolalikar A. B. & Soon L.-Y. (2002), *Promoting Effective Schooling through Education Decentralisation in Bangladesh, Indonesia, and the Philippines*, Working Paper Series no. 23, Economics and Research Department, Asian Development Bank, Manila.

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EQUITY INDICATORS (EQ)

EQ1. EARNINGS INEQUALITY

Definition and measurement

Earnings inequality can be assessed using a wide range of statistics. The indicator used here is the “decile ratio”, which is obtained by comparing earnings in the top and the bottom of the distribution (workers with the highest 10% and lowest 10% earnings) to median earnings (the earnings level that divides employees into two groups of equal size). This information is not always available for Asia-Pacific economies, which is why the concept of “percentage share of income in seven income groups” is also used. The income groups consist of the lowest 10%, the highest 10%, and five 20% groups in between the highest and the lowest group. Another indicator used is the poverty headcount ratio at the national poverty line, which is measured as the proportion of the national population whose incomes are below the official threshold set by respective national governments. National poverty lines are usually set for households of various compositions to allow for different family sizes. Another poverty indicator is the proportion of people living on less than \$1 or less than \$2 a day.

The definitions of income vary substantially among the various surveys used in the World Bank database. For this reason, income data may not be fully comparable. Furthermore, data on the population share living below national and/or universal poverty lines are available only for the least developed economies. The data presented here are extracted from the World Bank’s World Development Indicators online database (2008, <http://devdata.worldbank.org/data-query>), from the OECD’s *Growing Unequal? - Income Distribution and Poverty in OECD Countries* (2008, www.oecd.org/els/social/inequality), and from UNDP’s 2007/2008 Human Development Report (<http://hdrstats.undp.org/indicators/23.html> and <http://hdrstats.undp.org/indicators/24.html>).

Inequality differs greatly across Asia. Figure EQ1.2 shows that Thailand, Singapore, Cambodia, the Philippines, and China are highly unequal economies, whereas the distribution is much more egalitarian in Australia, Korea, Japan, and Mongolia. Accelerating technological change and tighter economic integration have been linked to widening disparities in both developed and developing Asia-Pacific economies. Thus, vulnerable groups are becoming increasingly exposed to redistributive systems’ dysfunctions (OECD, 2008).

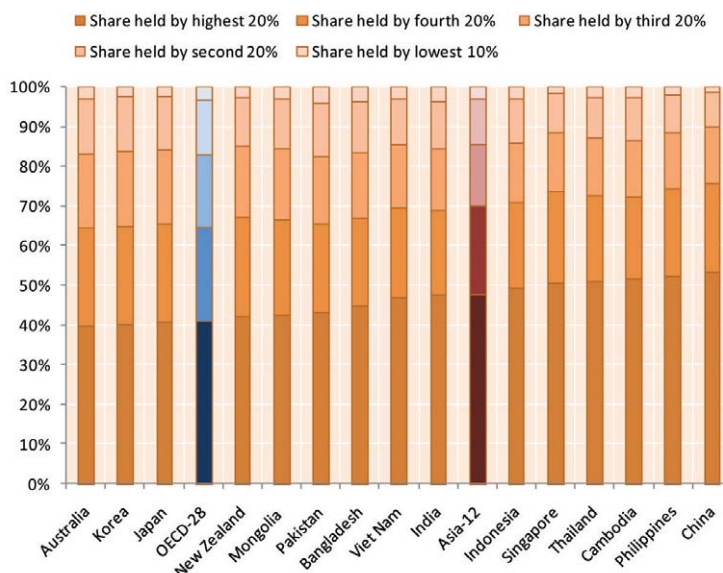
Asia is increasingly unequal (APEC, 2006). This trend is particularly visible in terms of earnings inequality, though this is by no means limited to the region, and there is little evidence that inequality in Asia was ever exceptionally low (UNESCAP, 2006). Figure EQ1.1 shows that China, the Philippines, Cambodia, Singapore, and Thailand are the economies with the highest income inequalities. The 20% richest people in China and the Philippines hold over 50% of the nation’s income, while the share of income of the 20% poorest consistently falls below 10% of income across Asia. Figure EQ1.2 reinforces this analysis for the 10% richest and poorest populations: the 10% richest hold 30% or more of the economy’s income in India, Indonesia, Singapore, Thailand, the Philippines, Cambodia, and China. Meanwhile, in Mongolia, Bangladesh, Viet Nam, and India, the 10% poorest receive slightly more than 3% of the total income.

Trade liberalisation and economic growth have not benefited everyone (Ahuja V. *et al*, 1997). Annex Figure EQ1.3 shows that between 1994 and 2004 economies such as Nepal, Indonesia, Viet Nam, India, the Philippines, and Laos saw their respective shares of the population living below national poverty lines decline, while these shares have increased in Mongolia, Thailand, and Pakistan. Bangladesh, Indonesia, and Mongolia show little variation. Furthermore, Annex Table EQ1.4 shows that Bangladesh, Cambodia, China, India, and Laos still have very high shares of their populations living below the critical thresholds of \$1 and \$2 a day.

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- Ahuja V. & Bidani B. & Ferreira F. & Walton M. (1997), *Everyone’s Miracle? Revisiting Poverty and Inequality in East Asia*, World Bank, Washington DC.
- APEC (2006), *Socio-Economic Disparity in the APEC Region*, APEC Economic Committee, Singapore.
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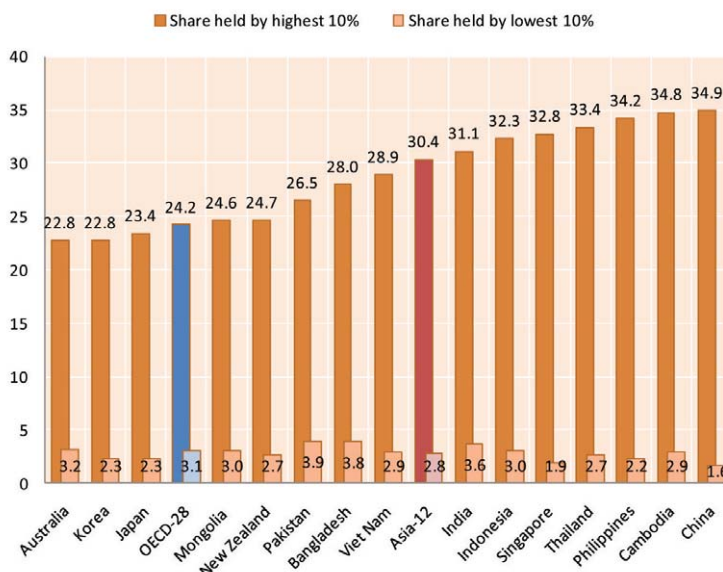
EQ1.1 Percentages share of income held by different income groups, 2004/2005



Note: 2004/2005 data except for Singapore 1998, Mongolia & Thailand 2002, Japan & the Philippines 2003, Australia 2003-2004, and Korea 2006.

Source: The World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database; except for Australia, New Zealand, Korea, Japan, and OECD-28 from OECD (2008), *Growing Unequal? - Income Distribution and Poverty in OECD Countries*, Paris.

EQ1.2 Comparison between the highest 10% and lowest 10% groups of income share, 2004/2005



Note: 2004/2005 data except for Singapore 1998, Mongolia & Thailand 2002, Japan & the Philippines 2003, Australia 2003-2004, and Korea 2006.

Source: The World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database; except for Australia, New Zealand, Korea, Japan, and OECD-28 from OECD (2008), *Growing Unequal? - Income Distribution and Poverty in OECD Countries*, Paris.

EQ2. GENDER WAGE GAPS

Definition and measurement

Gender differences in wages provide an indicator of the degree to which men and women do or do not receive equal incomes for equal amounts of paid work. The “gender wage gap” can be measured as the ratio of estimated female to male earned income for 2006 in PPP US\$ (Figure EQ2.1) or as the ratio of average female wages to average male wages by economic sector (Annex Figure EQ2.3). Another meaningful way of evaluating gender equality is to measure the share of women in the active population occupying influential positions (central positions such as legislators, senior officials, corporate managers, general managers, government administrators, or employers).

This section uses data from the United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD) online database of statistics and indicators on women and men (2008, <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/products/indwm/statistics.htm>), from the UNDP’s 2007-2008 Human Development Report (<http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/data>), and from the International Labour Organisation’s *LABORSTA* online database (<http://laborsta.ilo.org>).

Gender wage gaps vary widely across Asia. Figure EQ2.1 shows that New Zealand, Australia, and Hong Kong - China have low gender wage gaps in 2008. Conversely, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka, and Brunei Darussalam stand out as economies where the gender wage gap is high.

Gender wage gaps have generally decreased in developed and increased in developing Asia-Pacific economies. Figure EQ2.1 shows that Hong Kong - China, Bangladesh, New Zealand, Korea, Australia, and the Philippines have successfully reduced gender wage gaps over the period 1998-2008. Conversely, Laos, Myanmar, Sri Lanka, India, Indonesia, and Brunei Darussalam stand out as economies where the gender wage gap increased during this same period. Concerning the manufacturing industry, Table EQ2.2 shows that Nepal, Korea, Japan, Hong Kong - China, and Singapore are the economies where women’s wages are the lowest compared to those of men in the same sector (from 45.1% to 64.6% of men’s wages).

The number of women in influential positions varies widely across Asia-Pacific economies. Table EQ2.2 (right column) shows that they are more numerous in the Philippines (57.1% of all such positions), Mongolia (48.1%), and New Zealand (39.6%). Similarly, women employers are more common in Nepal, Korea, and Singapore (respectively 3.7%, 3.5%, and 2.8% of the total workforce), but their proportion is consistently less important than the proportion of men employers (3.9%, 8.9%, and 6.8% for the same three economies).

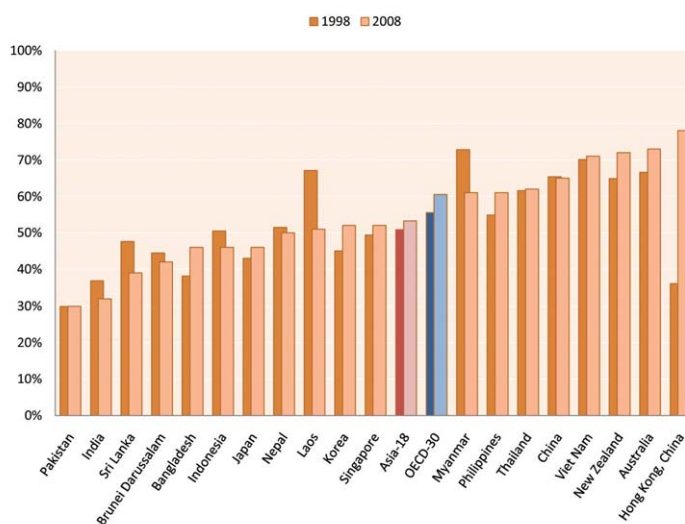
Economic development alone may not solve gender pay gaps. In Asia, there seems to be no systematic relationship between the level of a economy’s economic development and its female-male wage ratios, nor do relative wage differences within a given economy and between genders necessarily vary proportionally with economic development (UNESCAP, 2003). Intra-household distribution of a household’s income is another useful dimension for assessing welfare disparities between genders (UNESCAP, 1999). It allows some observations to be made about the allocation of goods to different individuals within a household, but the lack of consensus in resolving theoretical and methodological obstacles make it impossible for such data to be presented in this section.

References:

UNESCAP (2003), *Women in Local Government in Asia and the Pacific - A comparative analysis of thirteen countries*, Poverty and Development Division (PDD), Bangkok.

UNESCAP (1999), *Statistics on Women in Asia and the Pacific 1999*, Social Development Division (ESID), Bangkok.

EQ2.1 Ratio of estimated female to male earned income, 1998-2008



Note: Ratios are calculated using male and female real GDP per capita (PPP USD) and do not take into account the number of hours worked by men and women.

Source: UNDP (2008), *2007-2008 Human Development Report*, New-York.

EQ2.2 Millennium Development Goals (MDGs): economic indicators for women, 2006/2007

	Women's wages in manufacturing as a percentage of men's wages	Share of the labour force who have the "employer" status (%)		Women's share of legislators and managers (%)
		Women	Men	
Australia	90.5	2.1	3.3	37.1
Bangladesh	..	0.1	0.3	9.9
Brunei Darussalam	..	0.5	1.2	34.9
Cambodia	13.8
China	16.8
Hong Kong, China	62.5	1.7	6.2	29.6
Indonesia	..	1.4	3.8	13.8
Japan	60.2	1.1	3.6	9.2
Korea	57.2	3.5	8.9	8.8
Laos	..	0.1	0.4	..
Macao, China	63.6	1.5	5.2	26.0
Malaysia	..	1.3	4.6	23.0
Mongolia	77.4	0.4	0.7	48.1
Myanmar	88.9
Nepal	45.1	3.7	3.9	13.8
New Zealand	81.9	3.2	7.1	39.6
Pakistan	..	0.1	1.0	3.5
Philippines	91.4	2.4	5.3	57.1
Singapore	64.6	2.8	6.8	30.5
Sri Lanka	94.1	0.7	3.9	23.8
Thailand	75.4	1.5	4.2	29.7
Viet Nam	..	0.3	1.0	22.2
Asia-20	70.9	1.4	3.6	23.0
OECD-30	76.6	3.0	7.2	30.2

Note: - Women's wages in manufacturing: 2006/2007 data except Nepal 1999, Thailand 2003, and Mongolia & Myanmar 2005; - Women "employer": 2006/2007 data except Brunei Darussalam 1991, Laos 1995, Nepal 2001, Mongolia 2003, Viet Nam 2004, and Bangladesh 2005; - Women legislators and managers: 2007 data except Cambodia & Nepal 2001, Brunei Darussalam 2003, Viet Nam 2004, and Bangladesh & China 2005.

Source: United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD), *Statistics and Indicators on Women and Men*, online database (2008).

EQ3. SOCIAL SPENDING

Definition and measurement

Social support to individuals and households in need is provided by a range of people and institutions (relatives and friends, public and private entities) and through a variety of means. In developed market economies, much of this support takes the form of social expenditure, which comprises both financial support (through cash benefits and tax advantages) and “in-kind” provisions of goods and services. To be included in social spending, benefits have to address one or more contingencies, such as low income, old age, unemployment, or disability. Programmes that regulate the provision of social benefits involve either the redistribution of resources across households or compulsory participation. Social expenditure is classified as public when general government controls the relevant financial flows.

The OECD regularly collects and publishes social expenditure data for its member countries, while most Asia-Pacific economies have not been able to aggregate social welfare spending using the same criteria for public spending. The data presented here are extracted from the Asian Development Bank’s Social Protection Index for Committed Poverty Reduction - Volume 2: Asia (2008, www.adb.org/Documents/Books/Social-Protection/Volume2), and from the OECD’s Social Expenditure Database (SOCX, www.oecd.org/els/social/expenditure). It is worth noting that The ADB divides social protection into labour market programs, social insurance, social assistance, micro- and area-wide programs (including microcredit), and child protection. These definitions vary significantly from the OECD’s, so data may not be fully comparable.

The ratio of social spending to GDP varies significantly across Asian economies. Equally, so do the types of programmes concerned. Figure EQ3.1 shows that among 15 Asian economies Japan and Mongolia have the highest ratios of social spending to GDP, with 16.0% and 9.8%. These two levels are well below the OECD average of 20.5% of GDP but well over the Asia average of 4.8%. Korea has the next highest ratio (7.5%), out of which some 60% is spent on social insurance, 12% on social assistance, and 26% on labour market programmes (Figure EQ3.2). At the other end of the scale, social protection systems are very limited in Laos, Cambodia, Pakistan, and Indonesia, where spending ratios are below 2% of national GDP. Figure EQ3.2 shows that each economy has a different pattern of social expenditure; the biggest spending item in Japan, China, and Malaysia is social insurance, while the biggest items in Bangladesh and Cambodia are micro- and area-based. In many Asia-Pacific economies, social insurance focuses on the public and formal sectors, which inevitably excludes the great majority of the population and most of the poor.

Access to social services in Asia differs among and within economies. The poor and disadvantaged face various types of barriers (availability and quality of public infrastructures, costs of some public services, etc.) when they try to access such essential services as primary education, health care, water and sanitation, and the prevention and treatment of major diseases (UNESCAP, 2007). Different groups face different barriers and many groups face multiple barriers. Women and girls in particular tend to face more limited availability and lower quality of services than other poor people (UNESCAP, 2005). Rural and/or remote areas in developing economies also receive varying degrees of public services, regardless of the amount of total public resources allocated to such basic services, since the mere presence of a facility does not necessarily mean that a service is actually provided adequately, or at all (APEC/World Bank/IMF/ADB/IDB, 2001).

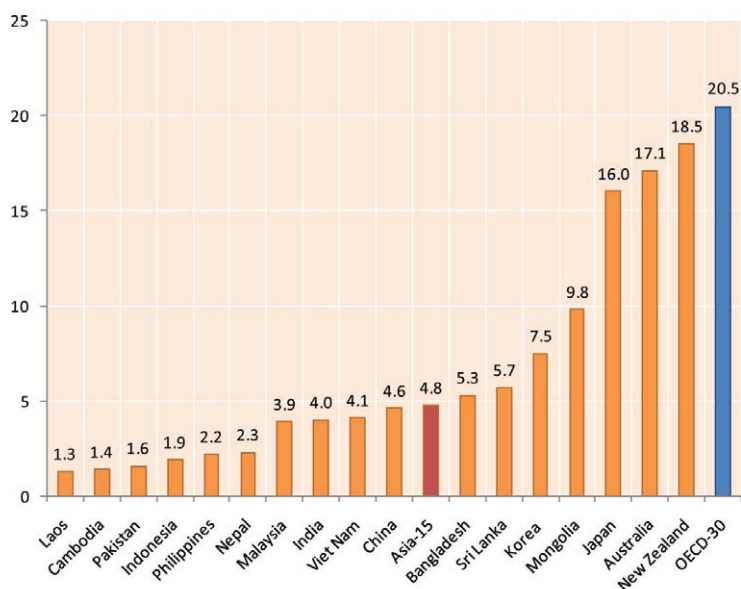
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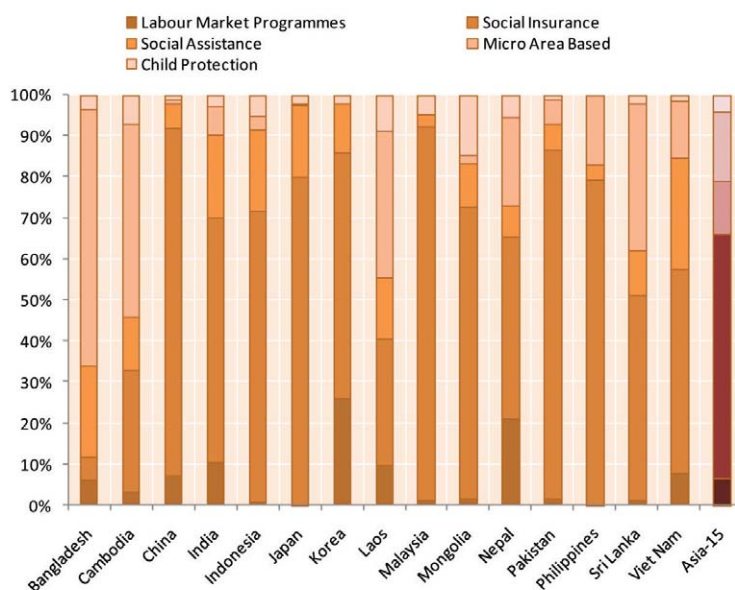
EQ3.1 Social expenditure as percentage of GDP, 2004/2005



Note: Data for New Zealand, Australia, and OECD-30 average concern public social spending, not total social expenditure.

Source: ADB (2008), *Social Protection Index for Committed Poverty Reduction, Volume 2 Asia-Pacific Edition*; except Australia, New Zealand, and OECD-30 from OECD, Social Expenditure Database (SOCX).

EQ3.2 Social expenditure by programme category, 2004/2005



Note: "Micro and Area-Based Schemes" (community-based) designates: 1, microfinance as an important aspect of social OECD/ and excludes mainstream rural credit programs; 2, Social funds involving the construction, operation, and maintenance of small-scale physical and social infrastructure, except where direct transfers to households occur; and 3, disaster preparedness and management, including cash/in-kind grants and excluding the reconstruction of physical infrastructure.

Source: ADB (2008), *Social Protection Index for Committed Poverty Reduction, Volume 2 Asia-Pacific Edition*.

EQ4. OLD AGE REPLACEMENT RATES

Definition and measurement

Replacement rates are the ratio of pension benefits to individual earnings, and they can be expressed either in gross or in net terms, depending on whether taxes and contributions paid on earnings and on retirement incomes are taken into account (the personal tax system plays an important role in old-age support, and therefore net replacement rates are usually higher than gross replacement rates). Gross replacement rates show the pension benefit as a share of individual lifetime average earnings (re-valued in line with economy-wide earnings growth), all under the baseline assumption that workers earn the same percentage of economy-wide average earnings throughout their career (meaning that lifetime average re-valued earnings and individual final earnings are identical).

It has been said that coverage statistics would be more compelling if analysed in conjunction with life expectancy and population projections in order to estimate the actual number of people involved rather than using general percentages. The data presented in this section are extracted from the joint OECD / World Bank publication *Pensions at a Glance - Asia/Pacific Edition* (2007, www.oecd-korea.org/social/sp_pa_main_eng.asp). A standard set of economic assumptions is used for each economy.

Gross replacement rates vary widely in Asia for workers on average earnings. Table EQ4.1 shows that for workers at average earnings, the OECD average for the gross replacement rate from mandatory pensions is 58.3% for men and 57% for women. The rates for Asia-Pacific range from a low of 13% for men and 11.7% for women in Singapore to a high of 75.4% for men in Pakistan and 67.5% for women in the Philippines. Korea and Japan offer gross replacement rates of 44.6% and 34.1% respectively for both men and women. The table also shows that low earners have higher gross replacement rates (55.9% on average for men and 50.7% for women in thirteen Asian economies) than mean and high earners. Overall, gender disparities are more pronounced in China, Pakistan, Singapore, and Chinese Taipei (OECD, 2007).

Most Asia-Pacific economies adequately protect low-income workers from old-age poverty. Figure EQ4.2 shows that cross-economy variations in gross replacement rates at this earnings level is much greater than for those earning twice the average. The highest gross replacement rates for male low earners are found in the Philippines (95%) and China (87.6%), which means that in both economies full-career workers with permanently low earnings have approximately the same incomes upon retirement as when they were working. This variation is much smaller for male high earners. They receive the highest pensions in Viet Nam with a steady gross replacement rate of 67.8%, while Singapore is at the bottom of the rankings (8.3%), closely followed by Indonesia with gross replacement rates just over 15%.

References:

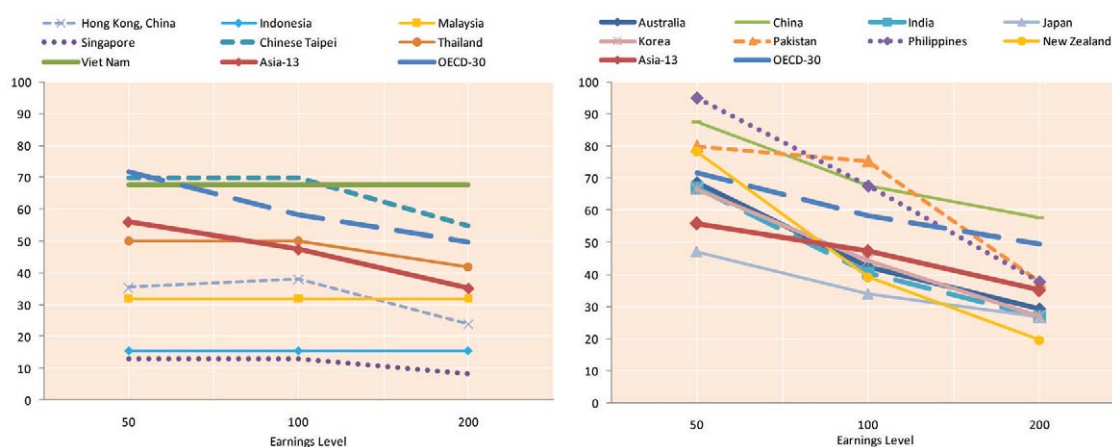
OECD (2007), *Pensions at a Glance - Asia/Pacific Edition*, Paris.

EQ 4.1 Gross replacement rates by earnings and by gender, 2007 (Individual earnings, % average)

	Men			Women		
	50	100	200	50	100	200
Australia	68.7	42.4	29.3	68.7	42.4	29.3
China	87.6	67.6	57.6	59.8	44.8	37.3
Hong Kong, China	35.4	38.0	24.0	32.3	34.2	22.1
India	67.1	40.4	26.7	65.6	39.0	25.5
Indonesia	15.4	15.4	15.4	13.7	13.7	13.7
Japan	47.2	34.1	26.7	47.2	34.1	26.7
Korea	66.6	44.6	27.0	66.6	44.6	27.0
Malaysia	31.9	31.9	31.9	28.1	28.1	28.1
New Zealand	78.2	39.1	19.6	78.2	39.1	19.6
Pakistan	80.0	75.4	37.7	70.0	66.0	33.0
Philippines	95.0	67.5	44.3	95.0	67.5	44.3
Singapore	13.1	13.1	8.3	11.7	11.7	7.4
Chinese Taipei	70.0	70.0	54.9	56.1	56.1	41.0
Thailand	50.0	50.0	41.9	50.0	50.0	41.9
Viet Nam	67.8	67.8	67.8	62.4	62.4	62.4
Asia-13	55.9	47.4	35.7	50.7	42.5	31.6
OECD-30	71.8	58.3	49.7	70.8	57.0	48.3

Source: OECD & World Bank (2007), *Pensions at a Glance - Asia/Pacific Edition*, Paris.

EQ 4.2 Gross replacement rates by earnings for men, 2007 (%)



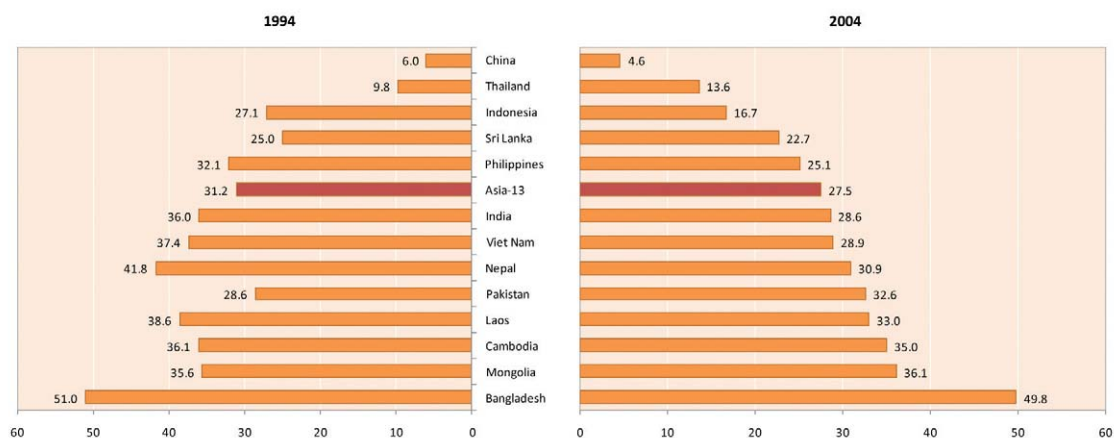
Source: OECD & World Bank (2007), *Pensions at a Glance - Asia/Pacific Edition*, Paris.

EQUITY INDICATORS (EQ)

- ANNEX -

EQ1: Earnings Inequality

EQ1.3 Poverty headcount ratio at national poverty line (% of population), 1994/2004



Note: 1994/2004 data except Bangladesh 1996/2000, Cambodia 1997/2004, China 1996/1998, India 1994/2000, Indonesia 1999/2004, Laos 1998/2003, Mongolia 1998/2002, Nepal 1996/2004, Pakistan 1993/1999, the Philippines 1994/1997, Sri Lanka 1996/2002, Thailand 1994/1998, and Viet Nam 1998/2002.

Source: The World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database.

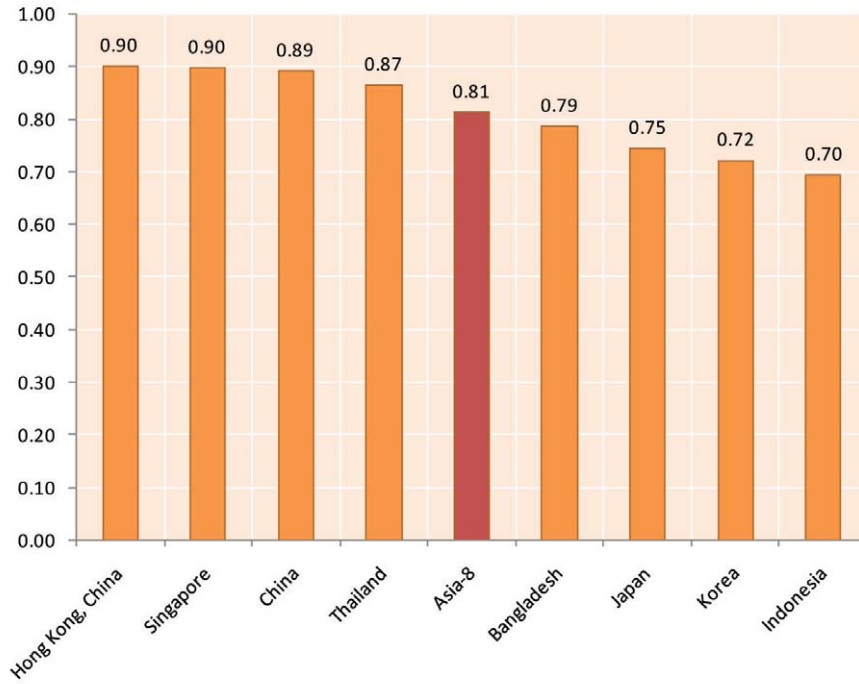
EQ1.4 Population living below \$1 and \$2 a day, 1990-2005

	Population living below \$1 a day (%), 1990-2005	Population living below \$2 a day (%), 1990-2005
Bangladesh	41.3	84.0
Cambodia	34.1	77.7
China	9.9	34.9
India	34.3	80.4
Indonesia	7.5	52.4
Laos	27.0	74.1
Malaysia	..	9.3
Mongolia	10.8	44.6
Nepal	24.1	68.5
Pakistan	17.0	73.6
Philippines	14.8	43.0
Sri Lanka	5.6	41.6
Thailand	..	25.2
Asia-13	20.6	54.6

Source: UNDP (2008), *2007/2008 Human Development Report*, New York.

EQ2: Gender Wage Gaps

EQ2_3 Ratio of average wage of female employees to average wage of male employees in all industries, 2006



Source: ILO (2008), LABORSTA online database.

Further readings

EQ1

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EQ3

OECD (2001), *Towards Asia's Sustainable Development: The Role of Social Protection*, Emerging / Transition Economies series, Paris.

UNESCAP (2005), *Designing e-Government for the Poor*, Information, Communication and Space Technology (ICSTD), Bangkok.

EQ4

APEC (2000), *The Third APEC Regional Forum on Pension Fund Reform*, Bangkok.

OECD (2008), *Growing Unequal? - Income Distribution and Poverty in OECD Countries*, Paris (www.oecd.org/els/social/inequality).

HEALTH INDICATORS (HE)

HE1. LIFE EXPECTANCY

Definition and measurement

Life expectancy is the best known measure of a population's health status. Changes in life expectancy are related to a wide range of interdependent variables, such as living standards, lifestyles, and access to quality health services. As underlying socio-economic factors do not change overnight, variations in life expectancy are best assessed over long periods of time. This section presents two indicators on life expectancy. The first indicator, life expectancy at birth, refers to the number of years a newborn infant would live if the prevailing patterns of mortality at the time of birth were to stay the same throughout the life time. The second indicator, survival to age 65, refers to the percentage of a cohort of newborn infants that would survive to age 65 if subjected to current age-specific mortality rates.

The data presented here are derived from the World Bank's World Development Indicators online database (<http://devdata.worldbank.org/data-query>), and the OECD's Health Data 2008 (www.oecd.org/health/healthdata).

A large regional divide persists in life expectancy at birth. Figure HE1.1 and Annex Tables HE1.3 and HE1.4 show that among fourteen Asian economies in 2006, life expectancy at birth for men was highest in Japan and Singapore (78-79 years), followed by Korea and Malaysia. For women, life expectancy at birth was highest in Japan (85.8 years), followed by Korea, Singapore, and Malaysia. The rise in life expectancy and concomitant decline in mortality levels for all age categories in Asia (see HE4) reflect larger worldwide trends in improved living conditions. Income poverty, illiteracy, disease, and hunger, are all elements that have been put forth as determinant factors of shorter lifespans (UNESCAP, 1999). East Asian economies (China, Japan, Korea, and Mongolia) had higher life expectancies at birth for both men and women in 2006 than Southeast Asian economies (Cambodia, Indonesia, the Philippines, Thailand, Viet Nam) and Southern Asian economies (Bangladesh and Pakistan). Overall, developing economies struggle to overcome the health-related mortality causes that are linked to poorer socio-economic conditions, while post-industrial economies face emerging health threats stemming from rapid environmental and lifestyle changes (UNESCAP, 2005).

In Asia-Pacific economies, life expectancy at birth has increased dramatically since the 1960s. On average, Asian men and women gained some 20 years in life expectancy between 1960 and 2006, while the OECD countries gained roughly 11 years during the same period.

Despite improvements in life expectancy, there are still large disparities in health conditions between genders and within economies. Women's socioeconomic status and educational level play an essential role in life expectancy variations. Improvements in the educational background and general living conditions of mothers are positively linked to infant and child survival (UNESCAP, 2001). Figure HE1.2 shows that women in Asia always live longer than men. In 2006, rates of survival to age 65 are always greater for women than for men, regardless of the economic status of the economy considered. Women in Sri Lanka, Thailand, Myanmar, Mongolia, Cambodia, and Korea (Rep.) have an advantage of 10 percentage points or more over men, while in economies such as New Zealand, Macao - China, Bangladesh, Brunei Darussalam, Pakistan, and Nepal women have an advantage of only 5 percentage points or less.

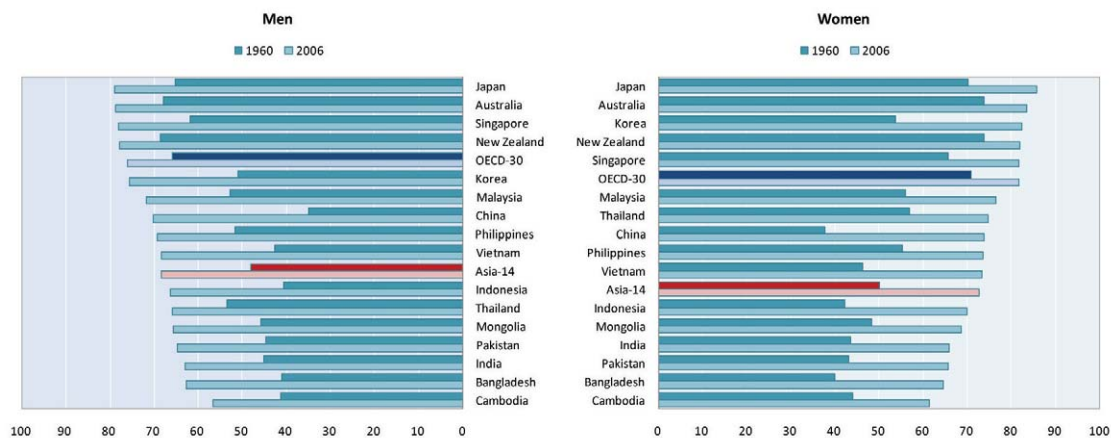
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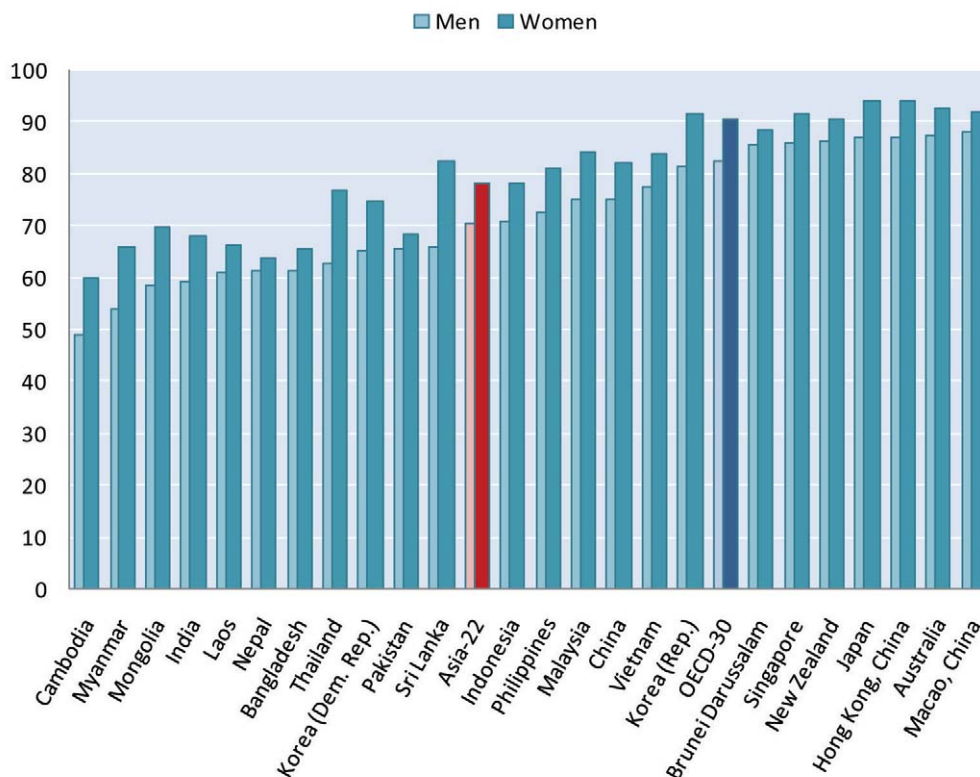
UNESCAP (1999), *Population Ageing and Development: Implications for Asia and the Pacific* (unedited draft), Social Development Division (ESID), Bangkok.

HE1.1 Life expectancy at birth for men and women, 1960/2006 (years)



Source: The World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD Health Data 2008.

HE1.2 Survival to age 65, 2006 (% of cohort)



Source: World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database.

HE2. HEALTH EXPENDITURE

Definition and measurement

Total expenditure on health measures the final consumption of health care goods and services plus capital investment in health care infrastructure. It includes spending by both public and private sources (including households) on medical goods and services, as well as expenditures on public health, prevention programs, and administration. Excluded are a number of health-related expenditures such as training, research, and environmental health.

The data presented here are extracted from various sources: the World Bank's World Development Indicators online database (<http://devdata.worldbank.org/data-query>), the OECD's Health Data 2008 (www.oecd.org/health/healthdata), the Asia-Pacific National Health Accounts Network (APNHAN) database (2008, www.apnhan.org), and the Asian Development Bank's Social Protection Index for Committed Poverty Reduction Volume 2: Asia (2008, www.adb.org/Documents/Books/Social-Protection/Volume2).

Total health care spending as a proportion of GDP in Asia is low compared to most OECD countries. Figure HE2.1 shows that, on average and across sixteen Asian economies, total health care expenditure accounted for 4.6% of GDP in 2005. Expenditure on health relative to GDP varies across economies, ranging from 8.1% in Japan to 2.1% in Indonesia and Pakistan. Chinese Taipei, Korea, and Mongolia, which spent around 6% of their GDP on health, follow Japan.

Most Asian economies have high private spending on health. Consequently, access to health services can be unaffordable for lower-income groups. Figure HE2.2 shows that eleven of the fifteen Asian economies (Laos, India, Viet Nam, Bangladesh, Singapore, the Philippines, China, Malaysia, Indonesia, Hong Kong - China, and Thailand) have high rates of private spending on health as a percentage of total health expenditure. In India, for instance, 81% of total health expenditure is private, which is closely followed by Viet Nam (76.3%).

There are substantial differences in health expenditure among economies with similar GDP. For example, despite similar levels of GDP per capita, Mongolia spends about twice as much on health as Pakistan. Annex Figure HE2.4 shows that there is a very slight relationship between health expenditure per capita and life expectancy at birth across selected Asia-Pacific economies. The degree of correlation suggests that economic growth and increases in health expenditure alone do not necessarily lead to better health outcomes (Tandon, 2005). The quality of existing policies and the institutional environment determine the effectiveness of health spending. The impact of public spending on health is greater in countries with good policies and institutions, whereas in economies with poor governance additional public spending on health has little to no effect on health indicators (UNESCAP, 2007). Annex Figure HE2.3 shows that there is generally a strong and positive correlation between GDP per capita and health expenditure per capita.

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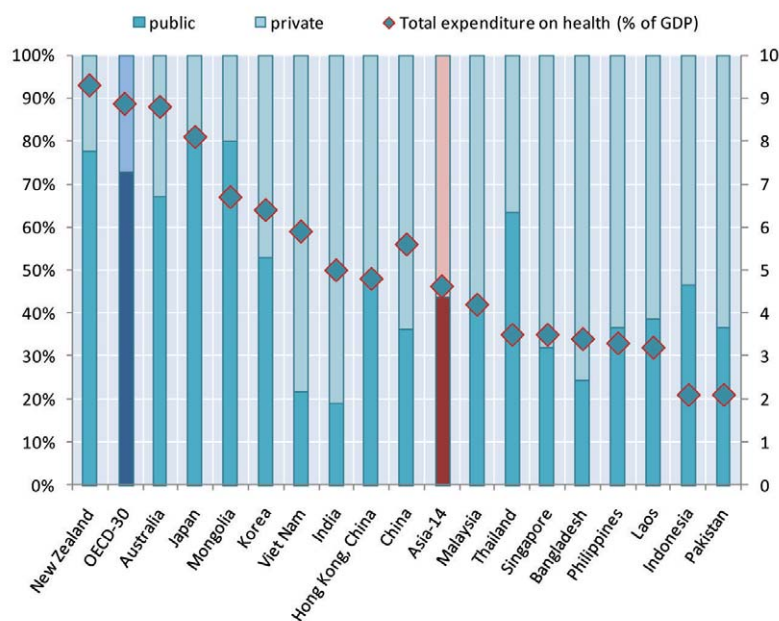
HE2.1 Total expenditure on health, 2005/2006 (% of GDP)



Note: 2005/2006 data except Mongolia 2002 and Bangladesh & Chinese Taipei 2004.

Source: The World Bank, *World Development Indicators* online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD *Health Data* 2008; and China & Laos from ADB (2008), *Social Protection Index for Committed Poverty Reduction Volume 2: Asia*.

HE2.2 Total, public, and private expenditure on health, 2005/2006



Note: 2005/2006 data except Mongolia 2002 and Bangladesh 2004. Total expenditure on health (% of GDP) is on the secondary axis to the right, all other data is on the primary axis to the left.

Source: - Total expenditure on health (% of GDP): The World Bank, *World Development Indicators* online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD *Health Data* 2008; ; and China & Laos from ADB (2008), *Social Protection Index for Committed Poverty Reduction Volume 2: Asia*. - Private and public health expenditure: The World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database; except Korea and Japan from OECD *Health Data* 2008; Bangladesh, Malaysia, Mongolia, the Philippines, Thailand, and Viet Nam from Asia-Pacific National Health Accounts Network (APNHAN) database (2008); and China & Laos from ADB (2008), *Social Protection Index for Committed Poverty Reduction Volume 2: Asia*.

HE3. LOW BIRTH WEIGHT

Definition and measurement

Low birth weight is defined by the World Health Organisation (WHO) as the weight of a newborn of less than 2 500 grams (5,5 pounds), irrespective of the gestational age of the infant. This cut-off figure is based on epidemiological observations regarding the increased risk of death to the infant and is used in international comparative health statistics. The number of low birth weight births is then expressed as a percentage of total live births.

The data presented here use information from UNICEF's *The State of the World's Children 2008* (www.unicef.org/sowc08/statistics/statistics.php). The data on low birth weight should be used with caution. Since many births in developing economies take place at home rather than in hospitals, and since most of these births are seldom recorded, the data could be skewed downward.

In twenty Asian economies an average of 13% of births were low birth weight. The level is nearly double the OECD average of 7% (Figure HE3.1). India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Nepal, and the Philippines had the largest proportions of low birth weights, with 20% or more of live births. On the other hand, China, Korea (Rep.), and Mongolia reported the smallest proportions of low birth weights, with 6% or less of all live births.

There is a significant regional divide between East and South-central Asia. Table HE3.2 shows that low birth weight incidence ranges from an average of 5% in East Asia to an average of 23% in South-central Asia. Table HE3.3 shows that Bangladesh successfully reduced its average proportion of low birth weight infants from 36% to 22% between 1998-2005 and 1999-2006, although it is not clear how much of this decrease can be attributed to successes in policy implementation or to changes in reporting methods.

Low birth weight is the result of many factors affecting foetal growth. Especially in economies where mothers face difficult socioeconomic conditions: poor nutrition and health during pregnancy, the prevalence of various infections, and pregnancy complications that are magnified by poverty and hard physical work (WHO, 2004). Low birth weight is closely associated with foetal and neonatal mortality and morbidity (see HE4), inhibited growth, cognitive development, and chronic diseases later in life (UNICEF, 2004).

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UNICEF / WHO (2004), *Low Birth Weight - Country, Regional, and Global Estimates*, New York.

WHO (2004), *Strategic Directions to Improve Newborn Health in the South-East Asia Region*, Regional Office for South-East Asia, New Delhi.

HE3.1 Low birth weight infants, 1999/2006 (% of live births)



Source: UNICEF (2008), *The State of the World's Children*, online database.

HE3.2 Regional averages for low birth weight infants, 1999/2006 (% of live births)

East Asia	South-East Asia	South-Central Asia	Pacific
China	2	Brunei Darussalam	10
Japan	8	Cambodia	11
Korea (Dem.Rep.)	7	Indonesia	9
Korea (Rep.)	4	Laos	14
Mongolia	6	Malaysia	9
		Myanmar	15
		Philippines	20
		Singapore	8
		Thailand	9
		Viet Nam	7
		Bangladesh	22
		India	30
		Nepal	21
		Pakistan	19
		Sri Lanka	22
		Australia	7
		New Zealand	6
East Asia average	5	South-East Asia average	11
		South-Central Asia average	23
		Pacific average	7

Source: UNICEF (2008), *The State of the World's Children*, online database.

HE3.3 Low birth weight infants, 1998/2005 and 1999/2006 (% of live births)

	1998-2005	1999-2006
Australia	7	7
Bangladesh	36	22
Brunei Darussalam	10	10
Cambodia	11	11
China	4	2
India	30	30
Indonesia	9	9
Japan	8	8
Korea (Rep.)	4	4
Korea (Dem.Rep.)	7	7
Laos	14	14
Malaysia	9	9
Mongolia	7	6
Myanmar	15	15
Nepal	21	21
New Zealand	6	6
Pakistan	19	19
Philippines	20	20
Singapore	8	8
Sri Lanka	22	22
Thailand	9	9
Viet Nam	9	7
Asia-20	14	13
OECD-30	7	7

Source: UNICEF (2008), *The State of the World's Children*, online database.
Society at a Glance / Asia-Pacific Edition 2009

HE4. INFANT MORTALITY RATE

Definition and measurement

The infant mortality rate is one of the most vital statistics used for measuring the health and welfare level of a population. It is defined as the probability that a child born in a specified year will die before reaching the age of 1 given current age-specific mortality rates, expressed per 1 000 live births.

The data presented here are extracted from the World Health Organisation's Core Health Indicators online database (2007, www.who.int/whosis/database/core), from the OECD's Health Data 2008 (www.oecd.org/health/healthdata), and from The World Bank's World Development Indicators online database (2008, <http://devdata.worldbank.org/data-query>).

There is an important East Asia/South-central Asia divide in terms of infant mortality levels. Table HE4.2 shows that in 2006 the rates ranged from a low of 16‰ in East Asia (where the low infant mortality rates of Japan and Korea account for the low average) to a high of 62‰ in South-central Asia. Southeast Asia's rate of 21‰ is influenced by the high infant mortality rates of Cambodia and Indonesia.

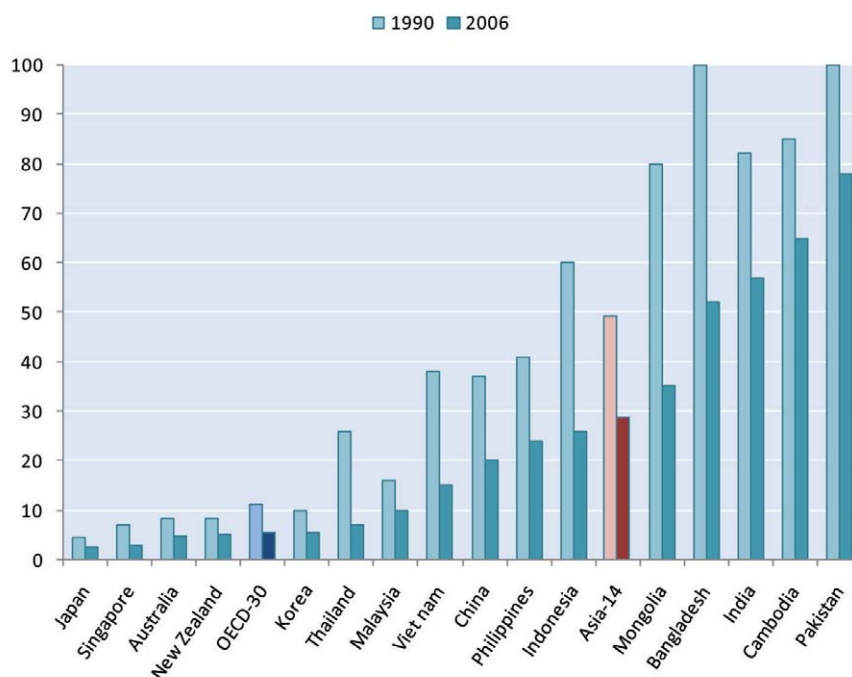
Infant mortality is falling. Figure HE4.1 and Annex Table HE4.4 show that from 1990 to 2006 average infant mortality rates went from 49 infants per 1 000 live births to 29. In 1990, the infant mortality rate was highest in Bangladesh and Pakistan (both at 100 ‰), followed by Cambodia, India, and Mongolia. In 2006, infant mortality rates were highest in the same economies, albeit at much lower levels and in different proportions: Pakistan (78 ‰) followed by Cambodia (65 ‰) and India (57 ‰). On the other hand, Singapore, Japan, and Korea have the lowest infant mortality rates, with 5 ‰ or less in 2006.

There is generally a negative relationship between infant mortality and health spending in Asia (Annex Figure HE4.3). However, the Figure also shows that economies with similar levels of health spending may have different outcomes in terms of infant mortality, which suggests that many factors other than health - such as social environment, individual lifestyles, and income levels - influence infant mortality rates. While it is almost unanimously agreed that eradicating poverty is a key factor in reducing mortality rates, there continues to be intense debate over whether mortality declines are linked to better nutrition and improvements in preventing premature death, or whether specific government programmes play a central role in changing the health behaviour of individuals (UNICEF, 2008).

References:

UNICEF (2008), *Countdown to 2015: Tracking Progress in Maternal, Newborn & Child Survival*, New York.

HE4.1 Infant mortality rates per 1 000 live births, 1990-2006



Note: 1990-2006 data except Korea 1991 and 1999.

Source: WHO (2007), *Core Health Indicators* online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD *Health Data* 2008.

HE4.2 Regional averages for infant mortality rates per 1 000 live births, 2006

East Asia		South-East Asia		South-Central Asia		Pacific	
China	20	Cambodia	65	Bangladesh	52	Australia	5
Japan	3	Indonesia	26	India	57	New Zealand	5
Korea	5	Malaysia	10	Pakistan	78		
Mongolia	35	Philippines	24				
		Singapore	3				
		Thailand	7				
		Viet nam	15				
East Asia average	16	South-East Asia average	21	South-Central Asia average	62	Pacific average	5

Note: 1990-2006 data except Korea 1991 and 1999.

Source: WHO (2007), *Core Health Indicators* online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD *Health Data* 2008.

HE5. HEALTH RISK FACTORS AND PUBLIC HEALTH CHALLENGES

Definition and measurement

Three indicators of health risk factors and public health challenges are presented in this section: the incidence of tuberculosis (the estimated number of new pulmonary, smear positive, and extra-pulmonary tuberculosis cases), the prevalence of diabetes (the percentage of people aged 20 to 79 who have been diagnosed with any type of diabetes), and the prevalence of HIV (the percentage of people aged 15 to 49 infected with the HIV virus).

The data presented here are extracted from the World Bank's World Development Indicators online database (2008, <http://devdata.worldbank.org/data-query>) and from the OECD's Health Data 2008 (www.oecd.org/health/healthdata).

The trend towards higher rates of diabetes has progressively spread to developing economies. Figure HE5.1 shows that in 2006 the average prevalence of diabetes for fourteen Asian economies was almost identical to the prevalence for twenty-eight OECD countries (respectively 6.2% and 6.4%). Malaysia, Singapore, and Hong Kong - China had the highest prevalence of diabetes (8% or more of the population aged 20-79), while Mongolia, Indonesia, and Viet Nam reported the lowest prevalence, with less than 3%. Fast economic growth in Asia has led to lower levels of physical activity and exercise, and a greater intake of processed foods and saturated fats (WHO, 2000). Diabetes is a significant factor associated with higher risks of developing other diseases.

Tuberculosis is one of the main causes of death among adults in developing economies (UNESCAP, 2003). Figure HE5.2 shows that in 2006 the average incidence of tuberculosis in fourteen Asian economies was 143 per 100 000 people, a level almost ten times higher than the average for twenty-eight OECD countries (16 per 100 000). The Philippines reported the highest incidence of tuberculosis with 287, while Australia, New Zealand, and Japan had the lowest levels.

Asia now accounts for close to one in every five new HIV infections worldwide (WHO, 2007). Figure HE5.3 shows that the average rate of adult HIV prevalence in nineteen Asian economies was 0.33% in 2007, slightly above the average rate for thirty OECD countries (0.24%). The highest level for 2007 was in Thailand (1.40%), and the lowest levels could be found in Bangladesh, China, Japan, Korea (Rep.), Korea (Dem. Rep.), Mongolia, New Zealand, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Sri Lanka (all at 0.10%). The Figure also shows that between 2001 and 2007 the economies that reduced HIV prevalence the most were Cambodia, Thailand, and Myanmar, although they remain the economies with the highest levels for both years. These encouraging trends should not overlook the fact that in many developing Asian economies most new infections occur in young adults (with young women particularly vulnerable). Specialists and policy-makers agree that if allowed to spread unabated, HIV/AIDS could well unravel much of the economic and social progress the region has made in the last three decades (UNESCAP, 2005).

Diabetes, tuberculosis, and HIV disproportionately afflict the poor. Additionally, economies with high rates of these diseases are also often confronted with greater health-threatening environments and lifestyles that boost the prevalence of both communicable and non-communicable diseases.

References:

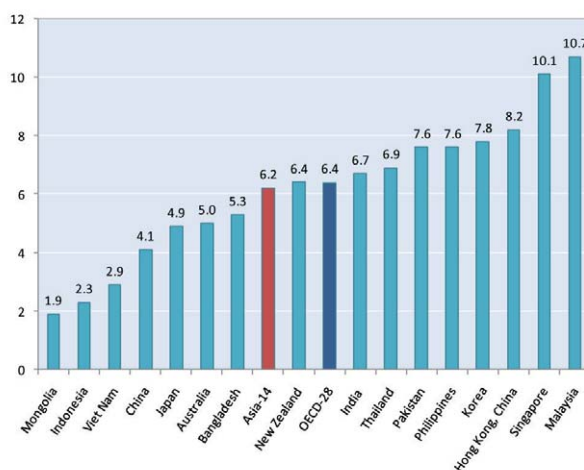
UNESCAP (2005), *Community-Level Good Practices in HIV Prevention, Care and Support for Policy Consideration: Two Case Studies*, Social Development Division (ESID), Bangkok.

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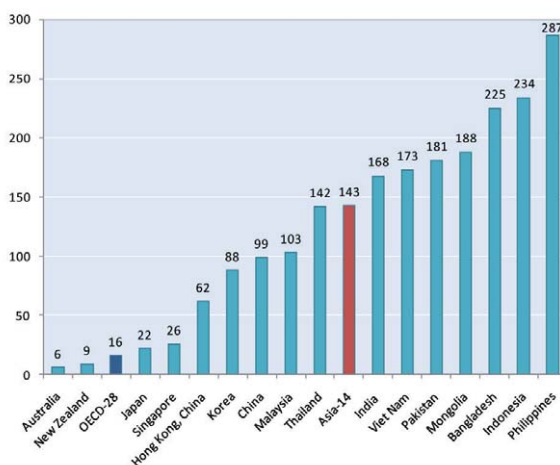
World Health Organisation (2000), *Nutrition in South-East Asia*, Regional Office for South-East Asia, New Delhi.

HE5.1 Prevalence of diabetes as a percentage of the population aged 20-79, 2007



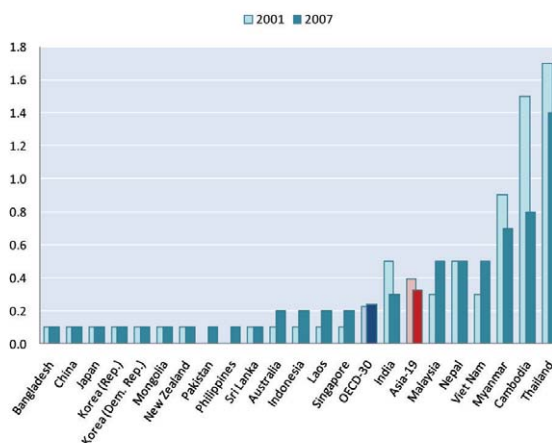
Source: The World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database; except Australia, New Zealand, and OECD-28 from *OECD Health Data* 2008.

HE5.2 Prevalence of tuberculosis per 100 000 people, 2006



Source: The World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database; except Australia, New Zealand, and OECD-28 from *OECD Health Data* 2008.

HE5.3. Prevalence of HIV as a percentage of the population aged 15-49, 2001/2007



Source: The World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database.

HEALTH INDICATORS (HE)

- ANNEX -

HE1: Life expectancy

HE1.3 Life expectancy at birth for men in 1960 and 2006 (years)

	1960	2006
Australia	67.9	78.7
Bangladesh	41.0	62.8
Cambodia	41.2	56.6
China	35.1	70.2
India	45.1	63.1
Indonesia	40.7	66.4
Japan	65.3	79.0
Korea	51.1	75.7
Malaysia	52.8	71.8
Mongolia	45.8	65.7
New Zealand	68.7	78.1
Pakistan	44.6	64.7
Philippines	51.6	69.2
Singapore	61.7	78.0
Thailand	53.4	65.9
Viet Nam	42.6	68.4
Asia-14	48.0	68.4
OECD-30	65.7	76.0

Source: The World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from *OECD Health Data 2008*.

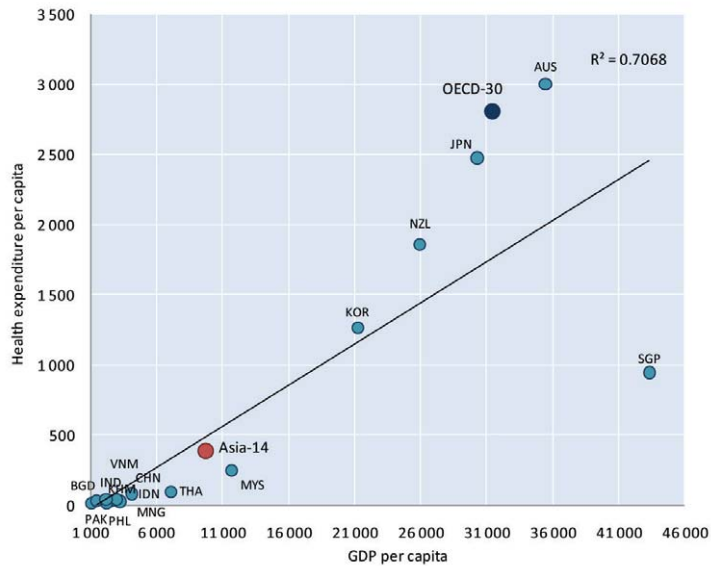
HE1.4 Life expectancy at birth for women in 1960 and 2006 (years)

	1960	2006
Australia	73.9	83.5
Bangladesh	39.9	64.6
Cambodia	44.1	61.4
China	37.6	73.9
India	43.5	66.0
Indonesia	42.3	70.0
Japan	70.2	85.8
Korea	53.7	82.4
Malaysia	55.9	76.5
Mongolia	48.3	68.7
New Zealand	73.9	82.2
Pakistan	43.1	65.8
Philippines	55.3	73.6
Singapore	65.7	81.8
Thailand	57.0	74.8
Vietnam	46.3	73.4
Asia-14	50.2	72.8
OECD-30	70.7	81.7

Source: The World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from *OECD Health Data 2008*.

HE2: Health Expenditure

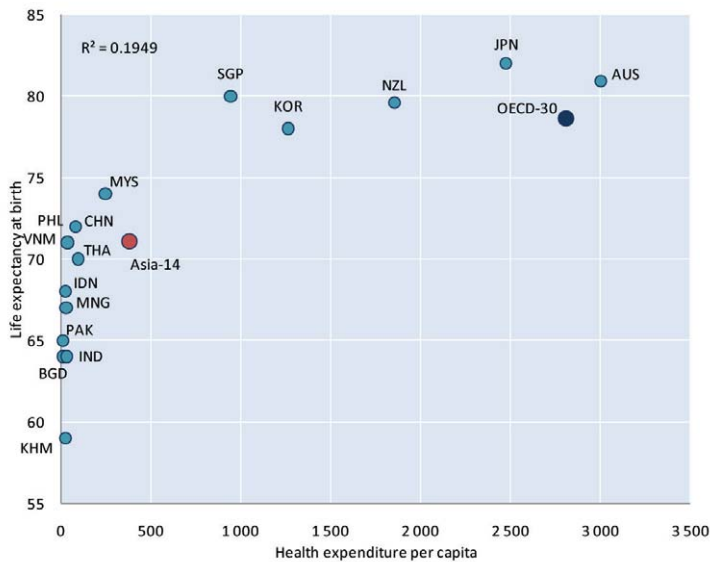
HE2.3 Total health expenditure per capita (USD PPP) and GDP per capita (USD PPP), 2005



Note: 2005 data except Mongolia 2002, New Zealand 2003, Bangladesh 2004, and Malaysia 2006.

Source: The World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD Health Data 2008; and China from Country Health Information Profiles.

HE2.4 Total health expenditure per capita (USD PPP) and life expectancy at birth (years), 2005/2006

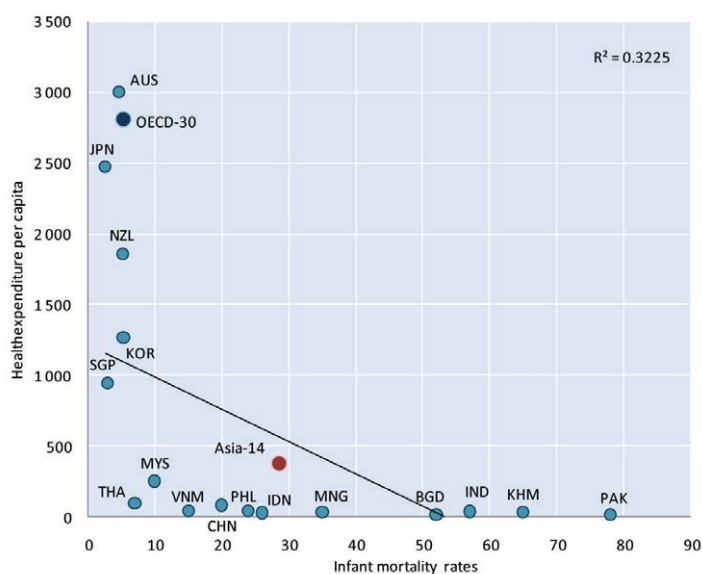


Note: 2006 for life expectancy, 2005 data for health expenditure except Mongolia 2002, New Zealand 2003, and Bangladesh 2004.

Source: - Health expenditure: The World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD Health Data 2008; and China from Country Health Information Profiles. - Life expectancy: The World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD Health Data 2008.

HE4: Infant Mortality Rate

HE4.3 Infant mortality (per 1 000 live births) and health expenditure per capita (USD PPP), 2005/2006



Note: - Infant mortality rates: 2006 data except Korea 1999, - Health expenditure per capita: 2005 data except: 2002 for Mongolia; 2003 for New Zealand, 2004 for Bangladesh; and 2006 for Malaysia.

Source: - Infant mortality rates: WHO (2007), *Core Health Indicators* online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD Health Data 2008, - Health expenditure per capita: The World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD Health Data 2008.

HE4.4 Infant mortality rates per 1 000 live births, 1990-2006

	1990	2000	2006
Australia	8	5	5
Bangladesh	100	66	52
Cambodia	85	78	65
China	37	30	20
India	82	66	57
Indonesia	60	36	26
Japan	5	3	3
Korea	10	6	5
Malaysia	16	11	10
Mongolia	80	48	35
New Zealand	8	6	5
Pakistan	100	85	78
Philippines	41	30	24
Singapore	7	3	3
Thailand	26	11	7
Viet nam	38	23	15
Asia-14	49	35	29
OECD-30	11	7	5

Note: 1990-2006 data except Korea 1991 and 1999.

Source: WHO (2007), *Core Health Indicators* online database; except Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD Health Data 2008.

Further readings

HE2

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OECD (2008), *Public Social Spending in Korea in the Context of Rapid Population Ageing*, Economics Department Working Papers no. 615, Paris.

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World Health Organisation (2008), *Tuberculosis in the South-East Asia Region - The Regional Report 2008*, Regional Office for South-East Asia, New Delhi.

SOCIAL COHESION INDICATORS (CO)

CO1. LIFE SATISFACTION

Definition and measurement

Subjective measures of life satisfaction assess the extent to which individuals favourably evaluate the overall quality of their lives. Data are gathered through surveys that ask respondents how satisfied they are with their lives in general and in specific domains, with respondents rating their satisfaction on a scale of 1 to 10 (from lowest to highest levels of satisfaction). The indicator used in this section corresponds to the share of respondents that report a life satisfaction level of seven or higher. The focus is on how life satisfaction differs across groups of individuals by gender, education, marital status, employment status, and household income, as well as on how the average score for each country correlates with a range of other social and economic outcomes.

The indicators of life satisfaction are compiled from the 1999-2004 and 2005-2008 waves of the World Values Survey (www.worldvaluessurvey.org). This survey collects data that enable comparisons of values, norms, and attitudes in different social domains through face-to-face interviews with individuals aged 18 and over. Other data is extracted from the OECD's Society at a Glance (2007 and 2009, www.oecd.org/els/social/indicators/SAG), Employment Outlook (2008, www.oecd.org/els/employment), and National Accounts database (www.oecd.org/statistics/national-accounts); from UNESCAP's Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific (2006/2007, www.unescap.org/stat/data/syb2007); from the ILO's LABORSTA online database (2008, <http://laborsta.ilo.org>), and from the UNDP's Human Development Report 2007/2008 (<http://hdrstats.undp.org/indicators/147.html>).

Variation in life satisfaction across Asian economies is nowhere near as large as gaps in GDP per capita (see GE1). Figure CO1.1 presents evidence on overall life satisfaction. The Philippines, China, Indonesia, Japan, Viet Nam, Thailand, Singapore, Australia, and New Zealand show life satisfaction levels equal to or higher than the average for thirty OECD countries (6.7), while India and Pakistan rank the lowest (less than 5 for both). Interestingly, economic development seems not to play a determinant role in average levels of life satisfaction, since industrialised economies such as Korea and Japan rank lower than developing economies such as Viet Nam and Thailand.

Within economies, life satisfaction varies according to socio-demographic characteristics. Table CO1.2 presents the shares of respondents reporting a high level of life satisfaction (7 or more) by gender, education level, marital status, employment status, and self-reported income. The table shows that for the thirteen Asian economies surveyed, life satisfaction consistently increases as the levels of education and household income rise. It is likely that the more educated one is, the more chances one has of obtaining better-paid jobs and better incomes, which in turn may lead to better access to health care as well as constructive and fulfilling social interactions. This pattern is not true for Bangladesh, Korea, and Malaysia, where the proportion of respondents satisfied with their lives is higher among those with a middle level of education (Annex Figures CO1.4 and CO1.5 do not seem to indicate a strong correlation between life satisfaction and GDP per capita or employment rate). Marital status is also an important factor influencing levels of life satisfaction (Table CO1.2), except in Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, the Philippines, Chinese Taipei, and Thailand, where on average more single/never married people report being satisfied than the married and divorced. In most Asian economies except India, Pakistan, Thailand, and Viet Nam, women are more satisfied than men, whereas it is the opposite for twenty-six OECD countries.

At a country level, life satisfaction has more to do with societal characteristics than with genetic or cultural predispositions. Since some of the effects of human and social capital on well-being take a long time to appear, policies geared towards reducing the degradation of a given social environment (increased insecurity, overpopulation, declining incomes, environmental degradation) must focus on meeting intertwined "social needs" that can contribute to enhancing levels of personal and collective well-being (OECD, 2001). Well-being and happiness have several dimensions that can be indicated by quantifiable factors, one of which is income. Prosperous economies are better placed to create and maintain conditions such as a clean environment, access to quality education, and long and healthy lifestyles. Well-being will also be increased by institutions that enable citizens to feel that they control their own lives and that the investment of their time and resources will be rewarded (OECD, 2006).

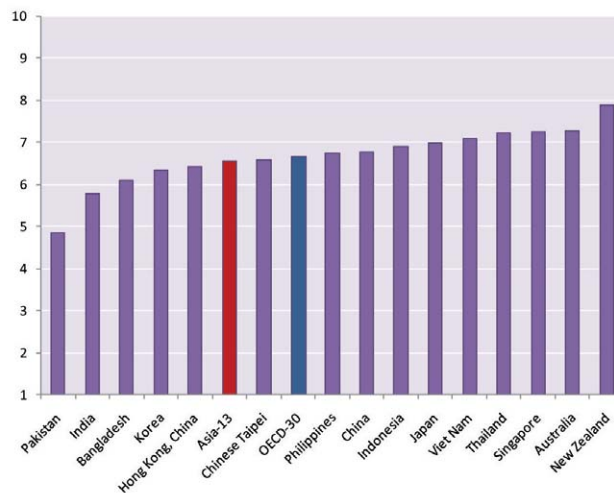
References:

OECD (2006), *Alternative Measures of Well-being*, in *Going for Growth*, Part III Chapter 6, Economics Directorate, Paris.

OECD (2001), *The Well-being of Nations - the Role of Human and Social Capital*, Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, Paris.

CO1.1 Average levels of life satisfaction, 2005/2007

Scale from Dissatisfied (1) to Satisfied (10)



Note: 2005/2007 data except Pakistan & Philippines 2001, Bangladesh & Singapore 2002, New Zealand 2004.

Source: 2005-2008 wave of the *World Values Survey*; except Bangladesh, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Singapore from 1999-2004 wave of the *World Values Survey*; and OECD-30 from OECD (2009), *Society at a Glance*.

CO1.2 Proportion of respondents satisfied with their lives (score of 7 and above), by demographic characteristics

	Gender		Education			Marital Status			
	Men	Women	Lower	Middle	Upper	Married	Divorced	Single/Never married	Widowed
Bangladesh	38.0	43.0	33.0	50.0	40.0	40.0	12.0	43.0	34.0
China	58.1	58.7	53.5	62.5	71.2	59.5	46.2	56.1	52.6
India	39.6	37.3	30.8	44.1	50.1	38.5	50.0	42.7	30.7
Indonesia	60.3	61.8	54.4	57.1	70.0	56.3	31.6	60.5	60.5
Japan	49.8	53.0	44.8	49.6	62.2	54.9	43.6	41.6	58.3
Korea	45.4	44.6	32.9	46.2	45.9	49.6	23.1	38.9	35.1
Malaysia	58.2	63.5	60.0	62.0	56.6	64.6	38.5	56.1	88.2
Pakistan	10.0	9.0	5.0	13.0	20.0	8.0	..	13.0	0.0
Philippines	52.0	56.0	49.0	50.0	63.0	52.0	33.0	59.0	59.0
Singapore	70.0	71.0	70.0	71.0	72.0	74.0	50.0	68.0	68.0
Chinese Taipei	51.2	56.9	44.9	48.3	68.9	55.0	43.4	56.3	36.9
Thailand	71.6	67.8	66.4	71.7	81.8	69.3	57.1	73.3	45.9
Viet Nam	64.8	58.3	59.9	62.4	74.1	65.3	42.9	56.6	33.3
Asia-13	51.5	52.4	46.5	52.9	59.7	52.8	39.3	51.2	46.4
OECD-26	68.6	68.3	63.8	70.1	74.3	72.9	60.4	66.4	61.4

	Employment status						Income *		
	Full time	Part time	Self-employed	Retired	Unemployed	Housewife	Low	Medium	High
Bangladesh	44.0	36.0	39.0	41.0	26.0	40.0	29.0	36.0	61.0
China	59.6	53.5	66.7	63.7	50.7	61.6	50.0	60.0	71.0
India	45.5	25.0	40.5	42.9	51.2	42.9	38.0	44.0	54.0
Indonesia	66.4	52.1	55.1	60.4	52.0	64.5	45.0	69.0	84.0
Japan	52.0	49.0	53.0	57.0	36.0	61.0	46.4	47.8	64.7
Korea	50.0	51.0	45.0	45.0	27.0	50.0	32.7	47.5	60.3
Malaysia	63.5	53.9	58.6	60.7	61.5	63.6
Pakistan	10.0	12.0	8.0	2.0	15.0	8.0	2.0	10.0	18.0
Philippines	53.0	48.0	50.0	59.0	55.0	53.0	38.0	49.0	71.0
Singapore	72.0	65.0	70.0	61.0	63.0	77.0	63.0	71.0	81.0
Chinese Taipei	55.6	57.0	56.5	46.8	28.7	50.7	36.0	51.0	63.0
Thailand	72.2	62.7	69.1	87.0	58.1	80.8
Viet Nam	67.0	69.7	63.8	71.1	28.4	58.2	29.0	35.0	62.0
Asia-13	54.7	48.8	51.9	53.7	42.5	54.7	37.2	47.3	62.7
OECD-26	59.2	68.6	77.4

Note: No sufficient data for Australia and New Zealand. * All income-related data exclusively from the 1999-2004 wave of the *World Values Survey*. No sufficient data for Australia and New Zealand.

Source: 1999-2004 wave of the *World Values Survey*; except Chinese Taipei, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand, and Viet Nam from 2005-2008 wave of the *World Values Survey*; and Japan, Korea, and OECD-26 from OECD (2007), *Society at a Glance 2006*, Paris.

CO2. ALCOHOL AND TOBACCO USE

Definition and measurement

“Alcohol abuse” is the generic term commonly used to designate a destructive pattern of alcohol use that can lead to social, occupational, or medical impairment. The World Health Organisation’s International Classification of Diseases (ICD-10) defines “harmful use” as “a pattern of psychoactive substance use that causes damage to one’s health”. The damages may be physical (e.g. liver damage) or mental (e.g. depression). ICD-10 defines “alcohol dependence” as “a cluster of physiological, behavioural, and cognitive phenomena in which the use of alcohol takes on a much higher priority for a given individual than other behaviours that once had greater value”. Similarly, the Royal College of Physicians considers nicotine as an addictive drug on par with heroin and cocaine, since the primary purpose of smoking tobacco is to rapidly deliver a dose of nicotine to the brain. The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders classifies nicotine addiction into the sub-categories of dependence and withdrawal, which may develop with the regular use of all forms of tobacco. Thus, alcohol consumption and tobacco usage become a health policy matter once a certain stage of dependence has been reached and medical intervention is needed.

The data presented here are extracted from the Institute of Alcohol Studies’ (IAS) World Drink Trends (www.ias.org.uk), and from the World Health Organisation’s Statistical Information System (WHOSIS, www.who.int/whosis/data/Search.jsp).

People smoke more in Asia than in the OECD. Figure CO2.1 shows that many Asian economies have the highest proportions of male tobacco smokers in the world, and the gap between the smoking male and female populations is enormous. Over 50% of adult men in Indonesia, Laos, China, Malaysia, and Korea are smokers, whereas smokers represent respectively 4.5%, 15.6%, 3.7%, 2.8%, and 5.7% of adult women. This differs greatly from the situation in OECD countries, where the average proportion of male smokers is close to that of female smokers (36.8% versus 25.5%). However, tobacco use rates for female adults may rise quickly in this region; various data sources on youngsters aged 16 and below warn of the escalating number of smokers in that age group (male and female). Tobacco usage is also growing rapidly in developing economies, which results in economic losses because half of tobacco-related deaths occur during the smoker’s prime productive years (WHO, 2008).

Alcohol consumption varies enormously across Asia. This is partly a reflection of income disparities and partly a reflection of specific morals and values (consumption is notably low in economies which have a high Muslim population). Although Figure CO2.2 shows that most of the nineteen Asian economies have lower levels of recorded alcohol consumption per capita than OECD countries, this should be interpreted with caution. In most cases, adult alcohol consumption per capita does not include unrecorded alcohol consumption such as unlicensed home-brewing and underage drinking. For instance, “home-made” alcohols are often very popular in rural parts of Asia and are widely consumed by people with low incomes.

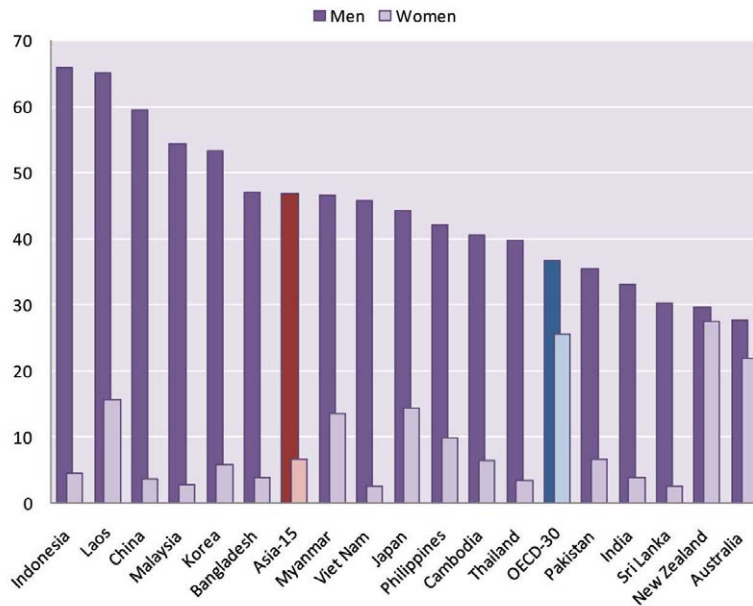
Abusive alcohol usage is associated with individual physical and mental health problems. Additionally, alcohol abuse has wide ranging impacts on society. Cases of domestic violence, road accidents, fights, and overall failure to fulfil social obligations ultimately entail using the resources of the criminal justice system, the health care system, and/or other social institutions. Most economies in Asia do not have a clear set of national policies to prevent alcohol abuse, and the region’s approaches vary to great extents. Economies with a predominantly Muslim population (such as Bangladesh) have legal prohibitions against the production, sale, and consumption of alcoholic beverages, while the Thai government recently decided to legalise home-made spirits. Several economies - India, Malaysia, and Viet Nam - have implemented bans on television and radio advertisements, but alcohol companies still have the freedom to promote their brands in other media and carry out sponsorship activities (GAPA, 2001).

References:

Global Alcohol Policy Alliance (GAPA) (2001), *GAPA Bangkok Consultation: Alcohol in Asia*, Report from the GAPA Asia/Pacific region consultation meeting, London.

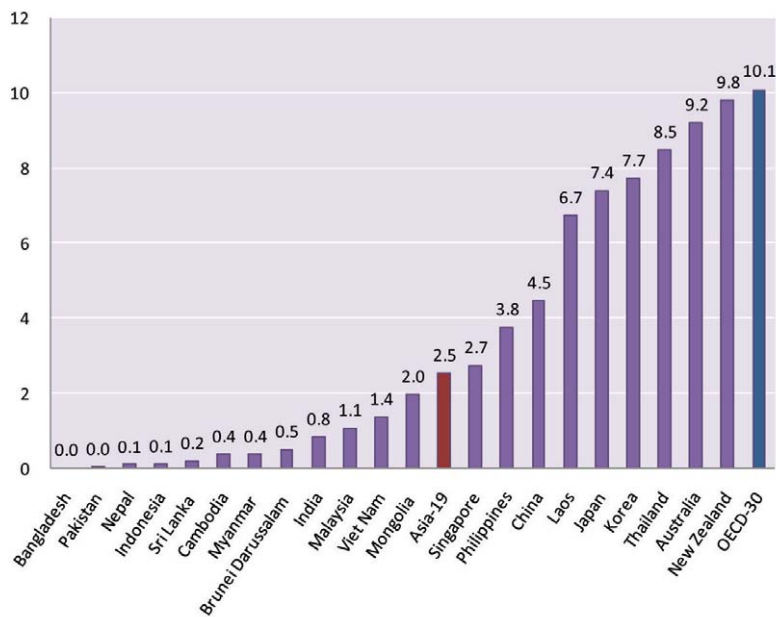
WHO (2008), *Report on the Global Tobacco Epidemic 2008*, Tobacco Free Initiative, Geneva.

CO2.1 Prevalence of tobacco use among adults aged 15 or more, by gender (2005)



Source: WHO (2006), Statistical Information System (WHOSIS).

CO2.2 Total recorded pure alcohol consumption adults aged 15 or more, 2000/2001 (annual litres per capita)



Source: IAS (2003), World Drink Trends, London.

CO3. DRUG USE AND RELATED RISKS

Definition and measurement

Illicit drug production, consumption, and trafficking are responsible for many socio-economic dysfunctions, from the individual difficulties of drug addicts to the corruption and violence engendered by the activities of organised criminals. Drugs are at the forefront of both national and transnational initiatives. While efforts to measure the precise number of drug-related deaths in developed economies have increased, it is extremely difficult to estimate mortality that is directly attributable to illicit drug use in Asia because of the deficiencies in such data and/or its non-existence. HIV prevalence and the extent of HIV transmission among injecting drug users (IDU) are presented in this section, since there is a strong connection between illicit drug use and HIV transmission among IDUs.

The data presented here are derived from UNODC's World Drug Report (2008, www.unodc.org/unodc/en/data-and-analysis/WDR.html), the World Health Organisation's HIV/AIDS in Asia and the Pacific Region (2001 and 2003, www.searo.who.int), and UNODC and the Paris Pact Initiative's Illicit Drug Trends in Pakistan (2008, www.unodc.org/unodc/en/illicit-drugs/index.html).

Drug use varies widely across Asia, but it is generally not very prevalent. Figure CO3.1 shows that Pakistan has the highest prevalence of opiate use among nineteen Asian economies, which reflects its geographic location bordering Afghanistan, the world's largest opium producer. The highest levels of opiate-derived substances are thus found along the main drug trafficking routes out of Afghanistan, a fact that places Pakistan, Bangladesh, and India in a vulnerable position in terms of drug use and distribution (GAP/UNODC, 2003). As for China, it has long suffered from the opium epidemic, but the economy is experiencing a slight drop in opiate use prevalence compared to previous years. Ecstasy and amphetamine levels are high in the Philippines, while Singapore's "zero tolerance" approach to drugs seems to be paying off.

The increasing rate of abuse of heroin and methamphetamine by injection is contributing to the spread of HIV/AIDS. In several economies a large percentage of HIV infections are attributed to drug abuse by injection (WHO, 2008). There has been an increase in the incidence of HIV contracted through the sharing of injecting equipment by illicit drug users in developing societies since the late 1990s. According to Table CO3.2, Indonesia, Malaysia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Thailand, and Viet Nam have moderate levels of this mode of HIV transmission, while China has very high levels. Addressing this issue will become a central matter for policy-makers as they attempt to simultaneously reduce drug trafficking and consumption while improving health outcomes.

Despite an apparent increase in the absolute number of drug users, annual prevalence levels have remained relatively stable in all drug markets. This is probably due to increased restrictions on drug production and to expanded treatment and educational initiatives (WHO, 2008). Annex Table CO3.3 shows that while East and South-East Asia are no longer major sources of illicit opium poppy cultivation, some illicit manufacture of heroin remains in the region, and laboratories involved in the clandestine conversion of cocaine hydrochloride to "crack" are dismantled on a regular basis. The abuse of methamphetamine is also increasing throughout the region (INCB/UNODC, 2007). Furthermore, Annex Figures CO3.4 and CO3.5 suggest that Asia contains the greatest number of cannabis users (some 51 million people), and that the overall prevalence of amphetamines is alarmingly high in Asia as a whole (UNODC, 2008).

References:

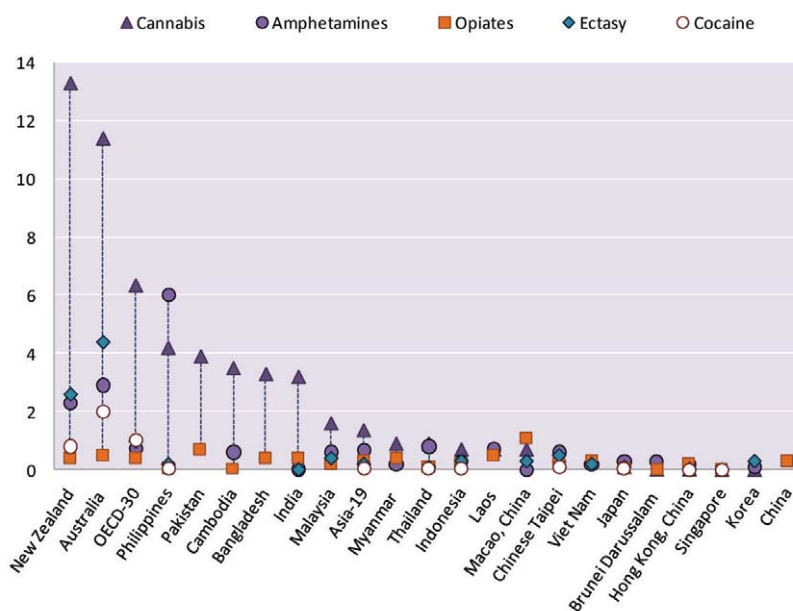
Global Assessment Programme on Drug Abuse (GAP) / UNODC (2003), *Estimating Prevalence: Indirect Methods for Estimating the Size of the Drug Problem*, Toolkit Module 2, Vienna.

International Narcotics Control Board (INCB) / UNODC (2007), *Annual Report*, Vienna.

UNODC (2008), *World Drug Report 2008*, Vienna.

WHO (2008), *Management of common health problems of drug users*, Technical Publication Series no. 56, Regional Office for South-East Asia, New Delhi.

CO3.1 Prevalence of drug use as percentage of the population aged 15-64, 1998-2007



Note: Data is sorted using the prevalence of cannabis use, from largest to smallest. Not all economies have records on each drug. Japan population is all adults aged 15 or more.

Source: UNDOC (2008), *World Drug Report 2008*, Vienna.

CO3.2 Estimated HIV Prevalence and Injecting Drug Users' (IDU) HIV transmission, 2000/2002

	Population 15-49		Number of HIV positive		HIV Prevalence (%)		Risk of HIV transmission for IDU	
	2000	2002	2000	2002	2000	2002	2000	2002
Australia	9 543 000	9 933 000	12 000	12 000	0.13	0.12	++	++
Bangladesh	68 021 000	72 340 000	13 000	13 000	0.02	0.02	—	—
Bhutan	938 000	972 000	<100	<100	<0.01	low	—	—
Brunei Darussalam	178 000	187 000	<100	<100	Low	low	—	—
Cambodia	6 091 000	6 158 000	169 000	157 000	2.77	2.55	—	—
China	720 355 000	726 031 000	600 000	840 000	0.08	0.12	+++	+++
Hong Kong, China	3 918 000	4 134 000	2 500	2 600	0.06	0.06	—	—
India	522 862 000	533 580 000	3 900 000	4 580 000	0.75	0.86	+	+
Indonesia	116 009 000	118 163 000	100 000	111 000	0.09	0.09	++	++
Japan	58 098 000	59 109 000	10 000	12 000	0.02	0.02	—	—
Korea (Rep.)	22 700 000	27 558 000	3 800	4 000	0.01	0.01	—	—
Korea (Dem. Rep.)	13 270 000	11 876 000	<100	<100	<0.01	low	—	—
Laos	2 402 000	2 542 000	1 300	1 300	0.05	0.05	—	—
Malaysia	11 654 000	11 868 000	42 000	41 000	0.36	0.35	++	++
Mongolia	1 411 000	1 416 000	<100	<100	<0.01	low	—	—
Myanmar	25 768 000	25 855 000	510 000	200 000	1.99	0.77	++	++
Nepal	11 259 000	11 106 000	34 000	56 000	0.30	0.50	++	++
New Zealand	1 939 000	1 911 000	1 200	1 200	0.06	0.06	+	+
Pakistan	72 468 000	67 964 000	73 000	76 000	0.10	0.11	++	++
Philippines	38 428 000	39 600 000	10 000	6 000	0.03	0.02	—	—
Singapore	2 027 000	2 234 000	3 900	3 400	0.19	0.15	—	—
Sri Lanka	10 572 000	10 695 000	8 500	4 700	0.08	0.04	—	—
Thailand	36 241 000	36 636 000	671 000	650 000	1.85	1.77	++	++
Viet Nam	42 275 000	43 343 000	122 000	130 000	0.29	0.30	++	++
Asia-22	1 786 945 000	1 813 367 000	6 274 000	6 888 000	0.50	0.43		

Note: Risk of HIV transmission for IDU: — refers to unknown or minimal HIV transmission; + refers to limited HIV transmission; ++ refers to moderate HIV transmission; and; +++ refers to major HIV transmission.

Source: WHO (2001), *HIV/AIDS in Asia and the Pacific Region*, Geneva and WHO (2003), *HIV/AIDS in Asia and the Pacific Region*, Geneva.

CO4. STRIKES

Definition and measurement

The International Labour Organisation's International Conference of Labour Statisticians defines a "strike" as a temporary work stoppage or closure of a workplace resulting from the initiative of one or more groups of workers or employers to enforce or resist demands and express grievances, or to support other workers or employers in their demands or grievances. Strikes are one of the many ways industrial conflicts manifest themselves, and their annual number can thus be used as an indicator of social cohesion. Another comprehensive indicator of industrial relations is the number of days not worked as a result of strikes and lockouts, measured as the sum of the actual working days during which work would normally have been carried out by each worker involved had there been no stoppage.

The international comparability of data on strikes is affected by differences in definitions and measurements: indeed, many economies exclude small work stoppages from their official records by using different thresholds for the number of workers involved and/or the number of days lost. The data presented here are derived from the International Labour Organisation's (ILO) LABORSTA online database (<http://laborsta.ilo.org>).

The number of strikes varies from economy to economy. Figure CO4.1 shows that in 2007 strikes and lockouts were more common in Korea, Australia, and India. Such forms of labour disputes were less prevalent in Hong Kong - China, and Thailand, and inexistent in Singapore. As a general rule, the incidence of strikes and lockouts is higher in the industrial sector (e.g., mining, manufacturing, electricity, gas and water, and construction) than in the service sector (ILO, 2008).

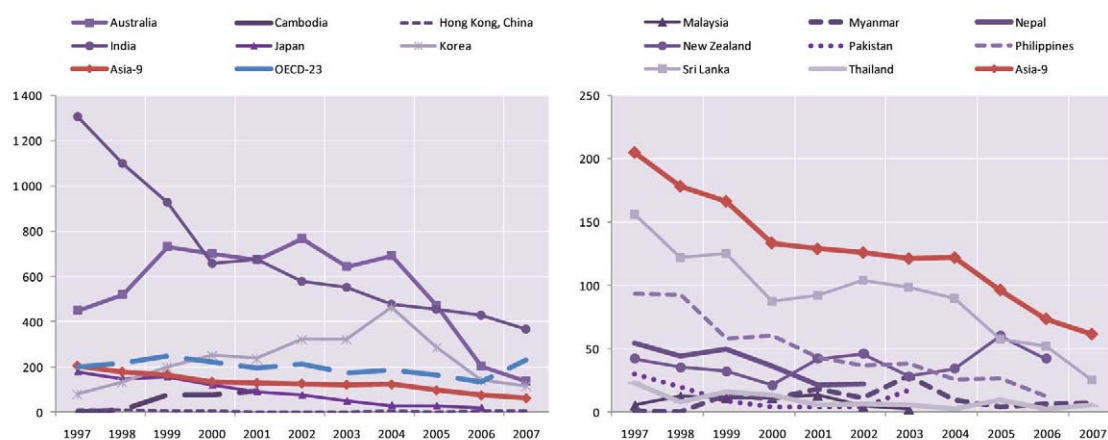
Strikes and lockouts are less prevalent. Figure CO4.1 reveals that except in Korea, Cambodia, and Myanmar, the number of strikes and lockouts steadily decreased for the nine Asian economies for which data is available for the period 1997-2007.

The number of work days lost due to strikes and lockouts varies widely across Asia, partly reflecting different approaches to labour law. Table CO4.2 presents changes in the number of work days lost due to strikes and lockouts between 1997 and 2007. The largest proportional increase in the number of work days lost was in Hong Kong - China, followed by Korea, New Zealand, and India. In Japan, the Philippines, Thailand, and Australia, the change in the number of lost work days between 1997 and 2007 was very small (less than 10 days per year). It is important to note that the average for nine Asian economies is heavily influenced by the importance of India's numbers.

References:

ILO (2008), *Yearbook of Labour Statistics 2008 - Time Series*, Geneva.

CO4.1 Number of annual strikes and lockouts, 1997-2007



Note: Australia, Hong Kong - China, India, Japan, New Zealand, Philippines, and Sri Lanka exclude work stoppages lasting less than half a day or lasting less than a full day or shift.

Source: ILO (2008), LABORSTA online database.

CO4.2 Number of annual days not worked due to strikes and lockouts

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2007* (Index 100 in 1997)
Australia	534 200	526 300	650 600	469 100	393 100	259 000	439 400	379 800	228 300	132 600	49 700	9
Bangladesh	0	155 760	1 978	2 284
Cambodia	..	98 230	4 828 000	3 315 588	60 358
Hong Kong, China	790	1 411	299	934	780	0	150	351	100	54	8 027	1 016
India	16 971 389	22 061 984	26 786 856	28 763 121	23 766 809	26 585 919	30 255 911	23 866 367	29 664 999	20 324 378	19 192 871	113
Indonesia	1 250 403
Japan	110 171	101 508	87 069	35 050	29 101	12 262	6 727	4 485	1 417	1 831	..	2
Korea	444 700	1 452 096	1 366 281	1 893 563	1 083 079	1 580 424	1 298 663	1 198 779	847 697	1 200 567	536 285	121
Malaysia	2 396	2 685	10 555	6 068	5 599	1 638
Myanmar	1 357	0	2 000	4 875	7 226	4 550	12 979	3 723	1 250	1 109	1 019	75
Nepal	68 742	24 753	98 691	174 526	7 206	12 355
New Zealand	24 616	11 778	16 674	11 495	54 440	34 398	19 390	6 162	30 029	27 983	..	114
Pakistan	283 342	122 519	188 453	667	7 078	12 160	7 183
Philippines	672 730	556 796	229 248	319 233	206 493	358 152	150 465	53 434	123 329	43 519	12 112	2
Singapore	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	..	-
Sri Lanka	325 477	265 145	304 246	64 481	69 997	70 350	87 172	81 100	158 352	4 895 148	39 237	12
Thailand	150 610	213 560	142 913	225 788	6 067	23 902	24 051	472	45 857	24 000	11 601	8
Asia-9	2 075 247	2 739 167	3 213 212	3 478 561	2 796 617	3 181 729	3 537 346	2 800 968	3 427 000	2 943 401	2 200 331	106
OECD-23	569 240	690 329	449 839	1 406 304	427 775	795 740	527 865	550 965	531 092	467 030	464 610	82

Note: Australia, Hong Kong - China, India, Japan, New Zealand, Philippines, and Sri Lanka exclude work stoppages lasting less than half a day or lasting less than a full day or shift.
* Index 100 in 1997 where 1997/2007 data are used except for Japan and New Zealand which use 1997/2006 data.

Source: ILO (2008), LABORSTA online database.

CO5. VOTING

Definition and measurement

Voting is one dimension indicating people's participation in the life of their community. The indicator used to measure the participation of individuals in the electoral process is the "voter turnout", i.e. the number of individuals who actually cast a ballot during an election. The voter turnout rate expresses the voter turnout as a share of the voting-age population, which generally refers to the population aged 18 or more, as available from administrative records.

Voter turnout data are based on modules 1 (1996-2001) and 2 (2001-2006) of the Comparative Study of Electoral Systems (CSES), an international research programme that collects comparable data on elections (www.cses.org), on the OECD's Society at a Glance (2007, www.oecd.org/els/social/indicators/SAG), and on the international database organised by the Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA, www.idea.int).

Asia is comprised of a wide array of political regimes. There are solidly-implanted democracies like Japan, a military regime in Myanmar, a constitutional monarchy in Thailand, and communist States in China and Viet Nam. For much of Asia, the tools and processes of representative democracy seem to still be developing, reflecting longstanding theoretical debates over the link between economic development and democratic transition (Przeworski, 2003 and Robinson, 2006 and Tang, 2006).

Voter turnout varies considerably in Asia. Figure CO5.2 shows that in 1996 voter turnout rates were highest in New Zealand and Australia (both at 83%), closely followed by Chinese Taipei (75%). The lowest rates are found in Japan and India.

Voter turnout rates are falling in Asia. According to Figure CO5.2, voter turnout rates have steadily fallen for economies like Korea, Malaysia, Singapore, and Pakistan, while only India and Bangladesh show marginal increases. Thailand, meanwhile, has shown a steady increase since the 1980s. Recent research has established that with economic modernisation comes urbanisation, which eventually leads to the break-up of traditional social networks, the spreading of a more competitive mentality, and the emergence of individualism. Such social modernisation processes should, in theory, allow support for more libertarian regimes to grow, even in economies said to be characterised by a set of inherited "Asian values" (Dalton & Ong, 2003). The question remains, however, how such demands can be heard if those encouraging voter turnout are also the ones reluctant to hand over political power (Nevitte & Kanji, 2002).

Voting behaviour varies by socio-demographic characteristics. Age, employment status, educational achievement, and income level all have an important bearing on the likelihood of voting. Economy comparisons between Chinese Taipei, Hong Kong - China, Japan, and Korea (Table CO5.1) show that voter turnout is generally higher among the top income earners than among those in the bottom quintile. Voter turnout in Asia is high among the population aged 51 to 64 years old, except in Chinese Taipei, where the 25 to 50 year-olds vote more. The retired and the employed generally vote more often than the unemployed, except in Chinese Taipei and Korea. Women turn out to vote in particularly large numbers in Australia, New Zealand, and Korea.

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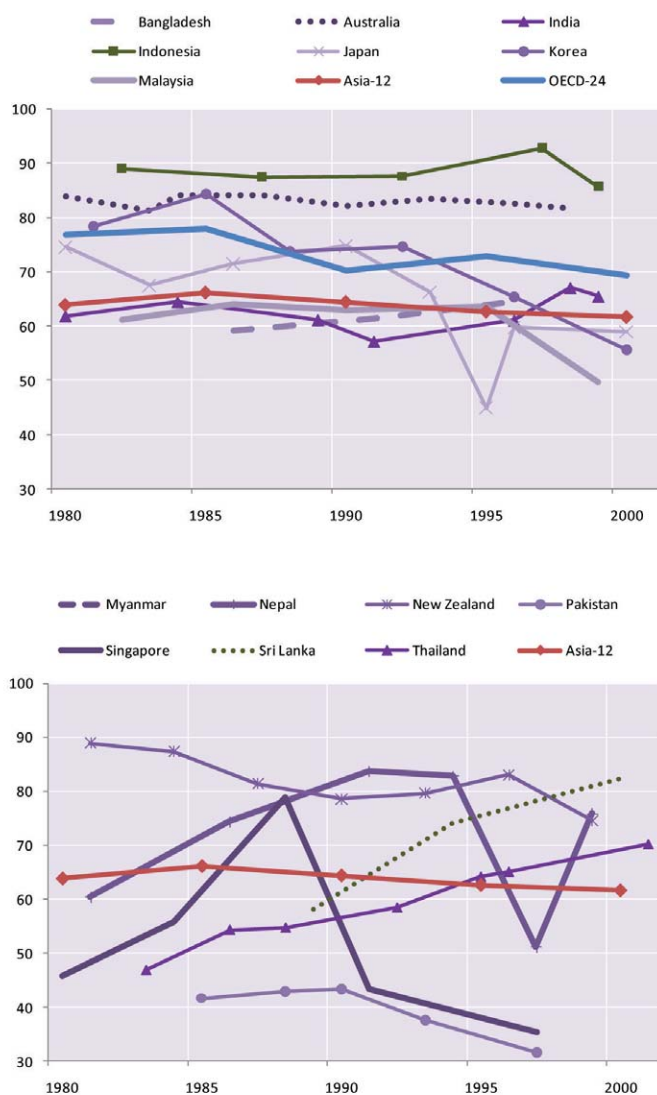
CO5.1 Voter turnout by selected socio-economic characteristics, 2004/2006 (%)

	Gender		Age				employment status				education level			income level	
	Men	Women	15-24	25-50	51-64	65+	Employed	Unemployed	Retired	Housewives	Less than secondary	Secondary	University completed	Bottom quintile	Top quintile
Australia	91	93	90	93	92	91	92	91	92	88	93	91	96	90	91
Chinese Taipei	85	78	75	84	73	77	83	75	77	78	83	85	82	78	85
Hong Kong, China	56	50	49	53	65	52	53	54	56	47	62	46	20	54	59
Japan	69	70	59	71	78	74	80	87	94	90	88	84	92	79	88
Korea	79	80	66	73	87	94	77	71	94	84	79	87	84	75	93
New Zealand	91	91	80	91	97	97	84	72	87	76	71	79	90	82	72
Asia-4	72	70	62	70	76	74	73	72	80	75	78	75	69	71	81
OECD-23	83	81	71	80	88	88	82	75	88	79	78	81	89	76	87

Note: 2004/2006 data except Chinese Taipei 1996 and New Zealand 2002. Chinese Taipei 18-24, 25-54, 55-64, and 65-75+, full-time employed only.

Source: *Comparative Study of Electoral Systems (CSES)*, Modules 1 (1996-2001) and 2 (2001-2006); except OECD-23 from OECD (2007), *Society at a Glance*, Paris.

CO5.2 Voter turnout rates, 1980-2001



Note: Data refer to the number of votes divided by the voting age population for parliamentary elections only.

Source: International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA) (2002), *Voter Turnout since 1945 - a Global Report*, Sweden.

CO6. PUBLIC POLICIES AND INSTITUTIONS

Definition and measurement

The annual Country Policy and Institutional Assessment (CPIA) survey is intended to capture the quality of an economy's policies and institutional arrangements, focusing on key elements that are within the country's control rather than on outcomes that are influenced by events beyond the country's reach (such as economic growth rates). More specifically, the CPIA measures the extent to which an economy's policy and institutional framework supports sustainable growth and poverty reduction and, consequently, the effective use of development assistance.

The CPIA consists of 16 criteria grouped in four equally weighted clusters: Economic Management, Structural Policies, Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity, and Public Sector Management and Institutions. For each of the 12 criteria presented here, economies are rated on a scale of 1 (low) to 6 (high). The scores depend on the level of performance in a given year assessed against the criteria, rather than on changes in performance compared to the previous year. The ratings depend on actual policies and performance, rather than on promises or intentions, as specified by the World Bank's International Development Association (IDA, <http://go.worldbank.org/74EDY81YU0>).

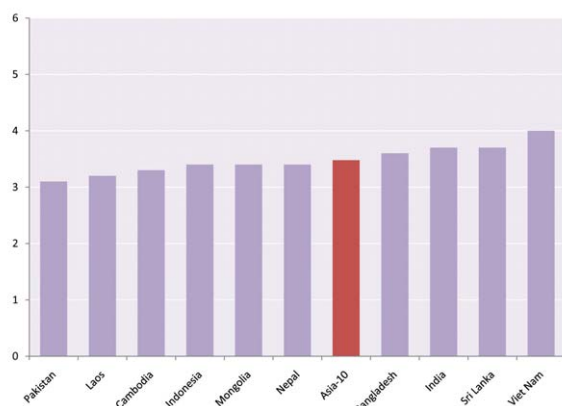
Asian economies perform in a fairly narrow range in terms of assessment of their public policies. Figure CO6.1 shows that with respect to policies for social inclusion and equity, Viet Nam has the highest average score (4.0) from among ten Asian economies, followed by India and Sri Lanka (3.7), and Bangladesh (3.6). The lowest rated economy is Pakistan with an average score of 3.1. In terms of policies for public sector management and institutions, the averages of most of the selected economies in Figure CO6.2 are moderate. The economies that have below average ratings are Cambodia and Laos, while India and Viet Nam score the highest. The scores obtained by Asian economies reflect the major work needed in most cases to improve the effectiveness of policy-making processes.

Economies that do well on policies for social inclusion and equity also tend to do well on policies for public management and institutions (Table CO6.3). The economy correlation between the two average policy scores is 0.61. Cambodia's and Laos' comparatively poor performance on public sector management is contrasted to their performance on policies for social inclusion (close to the Asia average). India stands out as an over-performer on social inclusion, given a relatively good performance on public sector management.

The five sub-indicators making up each of social inclusion and equity and public sector management in CO6.3 are generally less strongly linked between economies than the two aggregate indicators. The sub-indicators for public sector management are, however, more strongly related to one another than those for social inclusion and equity. Equally, the relationship between these input indicators and poverty and inequality is not strong (see Chapter 3 for more details).

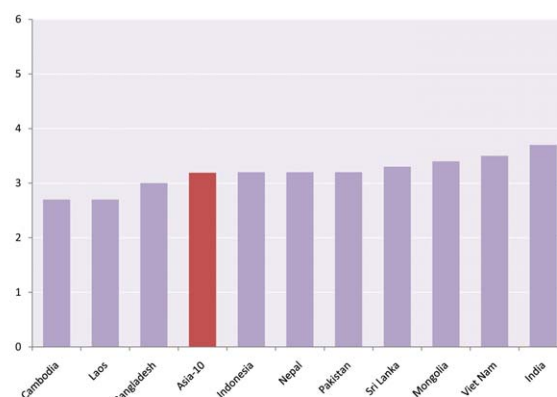
CO6.1 Policies for social inclusion and equity, 2007

1-6 (low to high)



CO6.2 Policies for public sector management and institutions, 2007

1-6 (low to high)



Note: 2007 data except Indonesia 2006.

Source: World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database.

CO6.3 Policies for social inclusion and equity and policies for public sector management and institutions, 2007

Policies for social inclusion and equity						
	Gender equity	Equity of public resource use	Building human resources	Social protection and labour	Policies & institutions for environmental sustainability	Average
Bangladesh	4.0	3.5	4.0	3.5	3.0	3.6
Cambodia	4.0	3.0	3.5	3.0	3.0	3.3
India	3.5	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.7
Indonesia	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.4
Laos	3.5	3.5	3.0	2.5	3.5	3.2
Mongolia	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.4
Nepal	3.5	3.5	4.0	3.0	3.0	3.4
Pakistan	2.0	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.5	3.1
Sri Lanka	4.0	3.5	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.7
Viet Nam	4.5	4.5	4.0	3.5	3.5	4.0
Asia-10	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.3	3.3	3.5

Public sector management and institutions						
	Property rights and rule-based governance	Quality of budgetary & financial management	Efficiency of revenue mobilization	Quality of public administration	Transparency, accountability and corruption in the public sector	Average
Bangladesh	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
Cambodia	2.5	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.7
India	3.5	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.7
Indonesia	2.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.2
Laos	3.0	3.0	2.5	3.0	2.0	2.7
Mongolia	3.0	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.4
Nepal	3.0	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.0	3.2
Pakistan	3.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	2.5	3.2
Sri Lanka	3.0	4.0	3.5	3.0	3.0	3.3
Viet Nam	3.5	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.5
Asia-10	3.0	3.6	3.4	3.2	2.9	3.2

Note: 2007 data except Indonesia 2006.

Source: World Bank (2008), *World Development Indicators* online database.
Society at a Glance / Asia-Pacific Edition 2009

CO7. WORK ACCIDENTS

Definition and measurement

International comparisons of work injuries are difficult because of differences in record-keeping - e.g. statistics sometimes only record "compensated" accidents in workplaces of a sufficient size and exclude minor injuries ? and in data sources such as insurance companies, social security registers, labour inspectorates, establishment censuses, and specialised surveys. Comparability has, however, improved since the adoption of an International Labour Organisation initiative on Statistics on occupational injuries resulting from accidents at work, which in 1998 standardised data collection and presentation. It recommends capturing data on all work-related accidents causing an absence from work of at least one day, excluding the day of the event and during a given reference period (usually one year).

The data presented here are compiled by the International Labour Organisation through a harmonised database covering some Asia-Pacific economies (<http://laborsta.ilo.org>). The frequency of fatal and non-fatal work accidents is expressed as the number of work injuries during 12 consecutive months per 100 000 workers. The severity of workplace accidents is measured by the number of workdays lost due to work accidents per 100 000 workers. These figures need to be read with caution, as there may be important underreporting of injuries, and great disparities in reporting methods between economies.

In Pakistan, 78 workers per 100 000 died each year, compared to only 2 in Australia and 3 in Singapore. Figure CO7.1 shows that among ten Asian economies for which data are available, fatal workplace accidents per 100 000 workers in 2007 also occurred frequently in India (27). Figure CO7.2 shows that non-fatal accidents are more common and more similar between economies, ranging from 33 cases per 100 000 employees in Myanmar to 1 833 cases in Hong Kong - China in 2007. In many developing Asian economies, the probable under-reporting of non-fatal work accidents may considerably skew the numbers downwards.

Asian economies undergoing rapid development are experiencing increasing numbers of workplace accidents. Figures CO7.1 and CO7.2 show that Pakistan stood out in terms of increased fatal accidents. Chinese Taipei and India stood out in terms of non-fatal accidents. On the other hand, data for most OECD countries indicate that workplace accidents have declined since 1997 (OECD, 2008).

The levels of work accidents in developing Asia reflect rapid industrialisation processes that did not leave time for practices and legislations to adapt. Indeed, the fact that work injuries are still so widespread and most probably grossly under-reported in the region (Annex Tables CO7.3 and CO7.4) raises concerns that occupational health might be overlooked both in labour and public health policies (WHO/ILO/FINNIDA, 2008). Because work accidents lead to injuries for the worker, liability issues for the employer, and loss of productivity for both, fostering a transparent environment where norms and standards are actually implemented is among the most effective measures against occupational injuries that policy-makers can support (ILO, 2008).

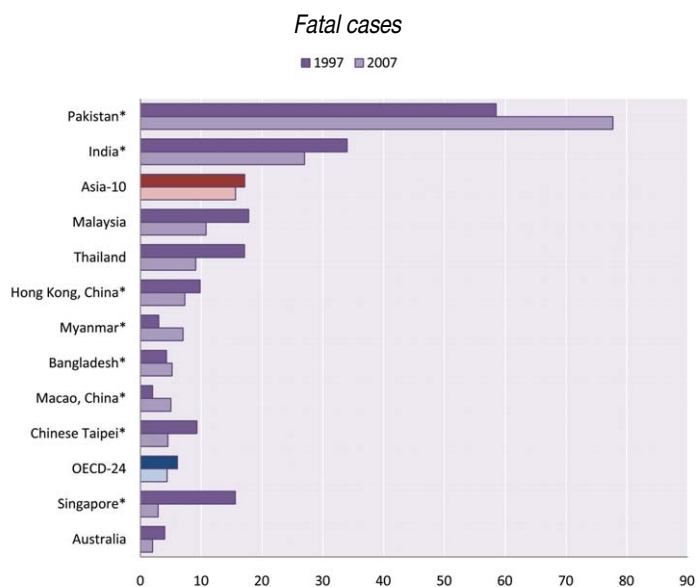
References:

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OECD (2008), *Employment Outlook 2008*, Paris.

WHO / ILO / FINNIDA (2008), *Asia-Pacific-Pacific Newsletter on Occupational Health and Safety*, Asia-Pacific-Pacific Regional Programme on Occupational Safety and Health, www.ttl.fi/Internet/English/Information/Electronic+journals.

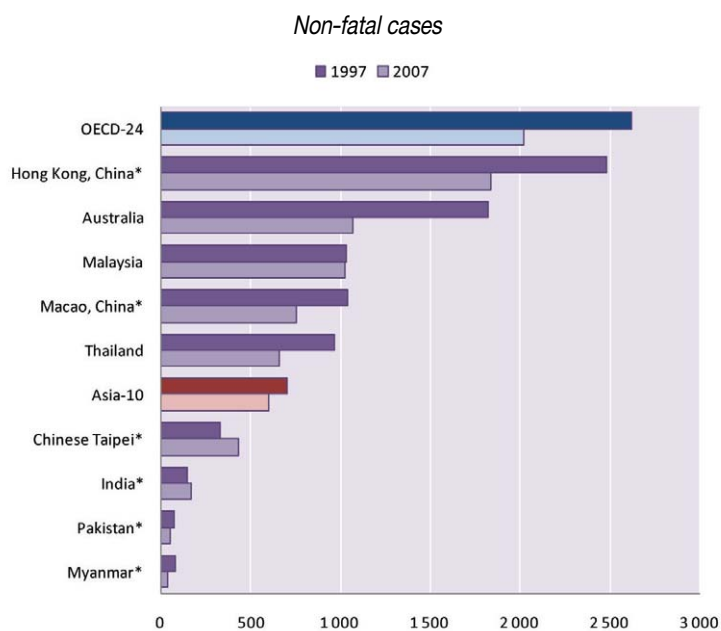
CO7.1 Rates of work-related injuries per 100 000 workers, 1997/2007



Note: * = reported injuries, All others are compensated injuries, India and Pakistan data refer to mining and quarrying sectors only, Bangladesh data refer to manufacturing sector only.

Source: ILO (2008), LABORSTA online database.

CO7.2 Rates of work-related injuries per 100 000 workers, 1997/2007



Note: * = reported injuries, All others are compensated injuries, India and Pakistan data refer to mining and quarrying sectors only, Bangladesh data refer to manufacturing sector only.

Source: ILO (2008), LABORSTA online database.

CO8. PRISONERS

Definition and measurement

The basic indicator of the size of the prison population in each economy is the number of persons in prison (including pre-trial detainees and remand prisoners) per 100 000 individuals in the national population. Data on the prison population can also be broken down according to demographic characteristics and legal status.

The indicators presented here are extracted from the International Centre for Prison Studies' World Prison Brief (2008, www.prisonstudies.org) and from the Asian and Pacific Conference of Correctional Administrators' Prisoners in Asia and the Pacific (2002, www.apcca.org).

Most Asian economies have important prison population rates. Table CO8.1 shows that Singapore, Thailand, and Mongolia have the highest rates of prison population (respectively 269, 253, and 244 per 100 000 people), whereas India (32), Indonesia (52), and Pakistan (55) have the lowest rates. Out of the ten economies for which comparable data are available, Malaysia, Hong Kong - China, and Australia are the three economies with the largest shares of incarcerated foreigners (respectively 46.5%, 34.3%, and 19.4%), while the Philippines, Indonesia, and Viet Nam have the least.

In recent years, prison populations across Asia have either been stable or falling. Figure CO8.2 shows that this is the case in Hong Kong - China, Korea, Macao - China, Singapore, Chinese Taipei, and Thailand. Conversely, in Cambodia the prison population rate per 100 000 population rose from 46 in 2001 to 73 in 2007, and in Sri Lanka it went from 90 in 2001 to 145 in 2007. Reportedly these variations are less reflective of crude rises in crime rates than of longitudinal changes in police, prosecution, and parole practices (Liu J., 2006). Nevertheless, prison populations in Asia are expected to rise, albeit at very different paces (UNICRI/UNODC, 2007).

Prison is not cheap: imprisonment generates high costs on society as a whole. These costs are normally justified by reference to a combination of three societal "needs": to inflict retribution, to deter others from behaving in a similar way, and to prevent re-offending.

References:

Liu J. (2006), *Modernisation and Crime Patterns in China*, in *Journal of Criminal Justice* No. 34, pp. 119-130.

UNICRI / UNODC (2007), *International Crime and Victimization Survey (ICVS)*, The Hague.

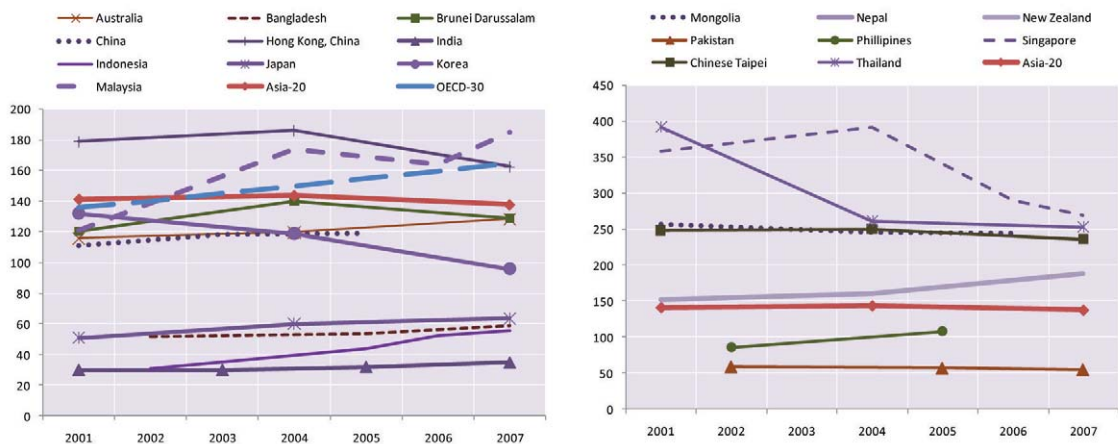
CO8.1 Prison population according to demographic characteristics and legal status

	Prison population rate per 100 000 population	Composition of the prison population (%)				Occupancy level (%)
		Pre-trial	Female	Youths (less than 18)	Foreigners	
Australia	128	19.4	..
Bangladesh	59	316
China	119	..	4.9	1.4
Hong Kong, China	163	12.7	19.5	3.2	34.3	99
India	32	69.7	3.9	0.4	1.1	145
Indonesia	52	40.7	0.4	166
Japan	64	7.6	..
Korea	96	34.2	5.3	2.5	1.8	110
Malaysia	..	164	41.1	7.7	46.5	..
Mongolia	244	19.8	3.5
Pakistan	55	250
Philippines	108	67.3	7.6	2.6	0.6	..
Singapore	269	..	10.0
Thailand	253	26.2	15.1	..	3.9	170
Viet Nam	116	..	12.3	..	0.3	..
Asia-14	125	54.3	12.3	3.0	10.7	179
OECD-30	136	26.0	5.0	2.0	20.0	111

Note: 2007 data except China & India & the Philippines 2005, and Indonesia & Malaysia & Mongolia & Viet Nam 2006.

Source: International Centre for Prison Studies (2008), *World Prison Brief* (www.prisonstudies.org); and Asian and Pacific Conference of Correctional Administrators (2002), *Prisoners in Asia and the Pacific*.

CO8.2 Prison population rates per 100 000 population, 2001-2007



Note: 2001-2007 data except India 2000-2007.

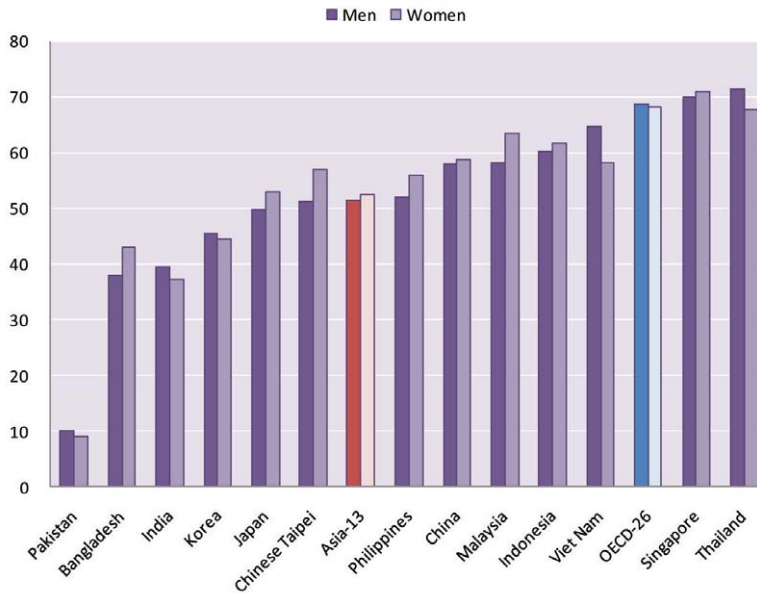
Source: International Centre for Prison Studies (2008), *World Prison Brief*.

SOCIAL COHESION INDICATORS (CO)

- ANNEX -

CO1: Life Satisfaction

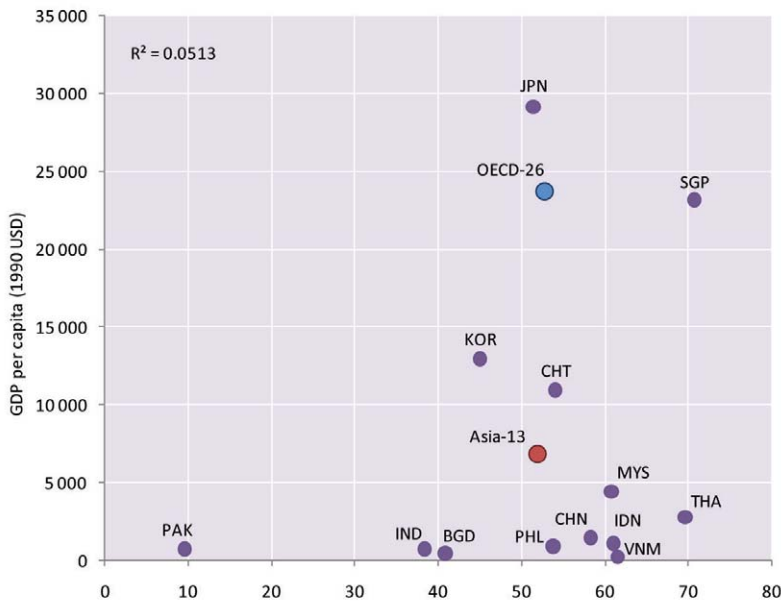
CO1.3 Proportion of respondents satisfied with their lives (score of 7 and above), by gender



Note: No sufficient data for Australia and New Zealand.

Source: 1999-2004 wave of the World Values Survey; except Chinese Taipei, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand, and Viet Nam from 2005-2008 wave of the World Values Survey; and Japan, Korea, and OECD-26 from OECD (2007), *Society at a Glance 2006*, Paris.

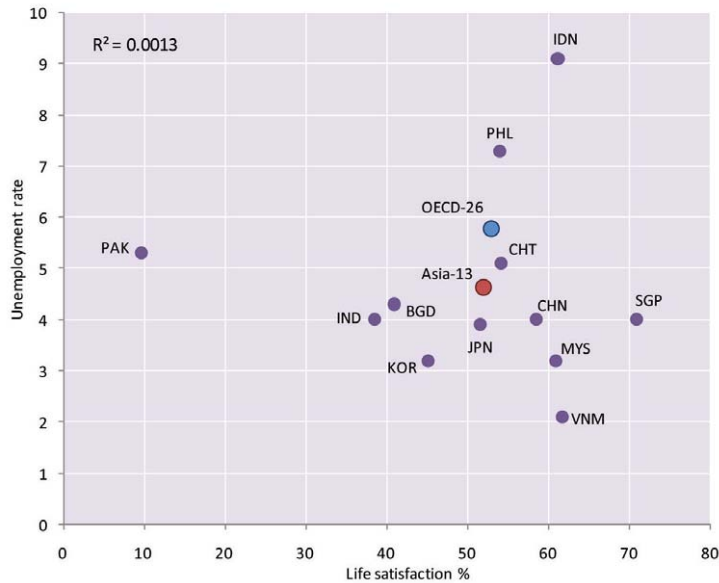
CO1.4 Relation between the proportion of respondents satisfied with their lives (score of 7 and above) and GDP per capita (1990 USD) in 2006



Note: GDP per capita data refer to OECD-30; life satisfaction data refer to OECD-26.

Source: - Life satisfaction: 1999-2004 wave of the World Values Survey; except Chinese Taipei, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand, and Viet Nam from 2005-2008 wave of the World Values Survey; and Japan, Korea, and OECD-26 from OECD (2007), *Society at a Glance 2006*, Paris; - GDP per capita: UNESCAP (2007), *Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific*, New York; except Japan, Korea, and OECD-30 from OECD National Accounts.

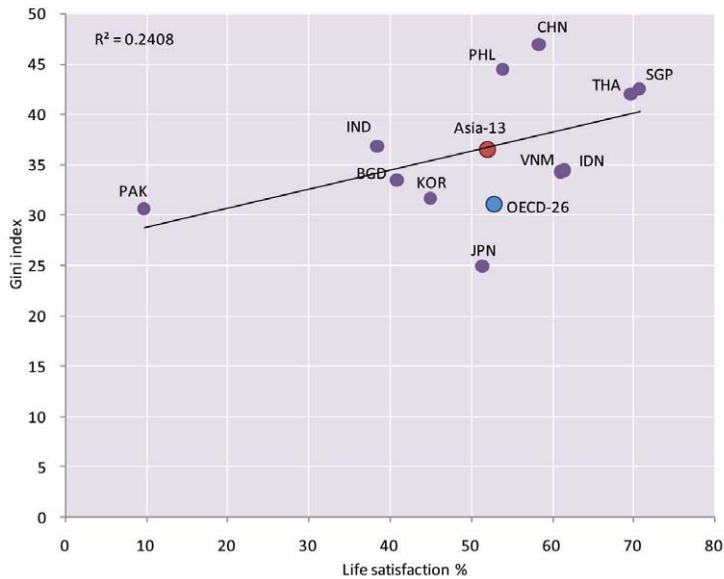
CO1,5 Relation between the proportion of respondents satisfied with their lives (score of 7 and above) and national unemployment rate in 2007



Note: Unemployment rate data refer to OECD-30 and 2005 for China; Life satisfaction data refer to OECD-26.

Source: - Life satisfaction: 1999-2004 wave of the *World Values Survey*; except Chinese Taipei, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand, and Viet Nam from 2005-2008 wave of the *World Values Survey*; and Japan, Korea, and OECD-26 from OECD (2007), *Society at a Glance 2006*, Paris; - Unemployment rates from ILO (2008), *LABORSTA* online database; except Japan, Korea and OECD-30 from OECD (2008), *Employment Outlook*, Paris.

CO1,6 Relation between the proportion of respondents satisfied with their lives (score of 7 and above) and GINI index in 2007



Note: Life satisfaction data refer to OECD-2006; Gini index refers to OECD-30, Gini Index data refer to 2007 data except OECD-30 mid-2000. The Gini index is a coefficient expressed as a percentage. It is defined as a ratio with values between 0 and 1, where a low Gini coefficient indicates a more equal income or wealth distribution and a high Gini coefficient indicates a more unequal distribution.

Source: - Life satisfaction: 1999-2004 wave of the *World Values Survey*; except Chinese Taipei, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand, and Viet Nam from 2005-2008 wave of the *World Values Survey*; and Japan, Korea, and OECD-26 from OECD (2007), *Society at a Glance 2006*, Paris; - GINI Index from UNDP (2008), *Human Development Report 2007/2008*, New York; except OECD-30 from OECD (2009), *Society at a Glance*, Paris.

CO3: Drug Use and Related Risks

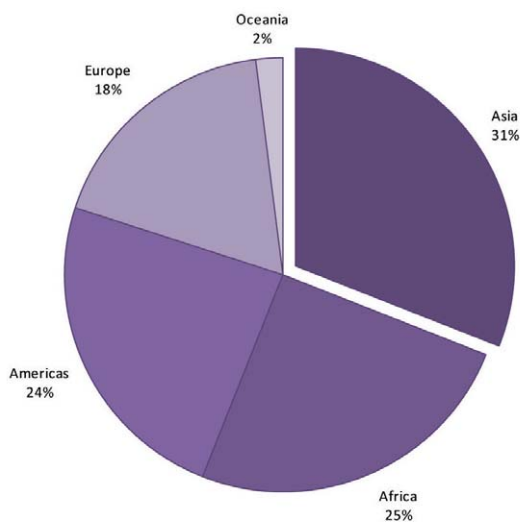
CO3.3 Cultivation, eradication, and potential harvest of opium in Pakistan, 2003-2007 (hectares)

Year	Cultivation	Eradication	Harvest
2003	6 702	4 181	2 521
2004	6 694	5 199	1 495
2005	3 145	706	2 439
2006	1 909	356	1 553
2007	2 306	608	1 698

Source: UNODC and the Paris Pact Initiative (2008), *Illicit Drug Trends in Pakistan*, Pakistan.

CO3.4 Regional breakdown of cannabis consumption, 2006

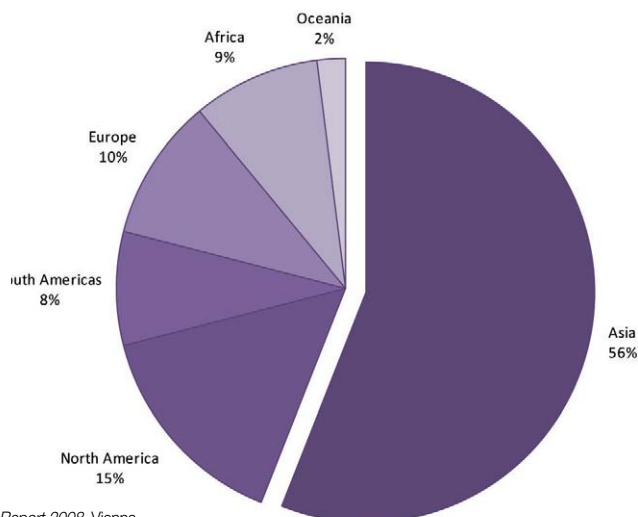
Total user population = 165,6 millions



UNDOC (2008), *World Drug Report 2008*, Vienna.

CO3.5 Regional breakdown of amphetamines consumption, 2006

Total user population = 24,7 millions



Source: UNDOC (2008), *World Drug Report 2008*, Vienna.

CO7: Work Accidents

CO7.3 Fatal cases of compensated/reported work injuries for men and women, 1997-2007

	Fatal cases										
	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Australia	264	246	212	216	210	201	196	168	166	177	..
Bangladesh	51	12	9	81
China	17 558	14 660	12 587	11 681	12 554	14 924
Hong Kong, China	247	240	235	199	176	210	171	187	187	187	..
India	242	211	210	199	222	161	175	160	169	209	143
Indonesia	1 089	1 375	1 476
Japan	2 078	1 844	1 992	1 889	1 790	1 658	1 628	1 620	1 514	1 472	1 357
Korea	1 412	1 353	1 298	1 271	1 408	1 417	1 288	1 238	1 267
Macao, China	8	6	2	6	6	8	9	2	15	6	14
Malaysia	1 473	1 273	912	1 004	958	858
Myanmar	15	16	15	10	13	12	7	..	25
New Zealand	60	67	41 2	63	75	82	88	80	105	97	64
Pakistan	72	72	85	96	104	64
Philippines	178	..	302	170
Singapore	107	99	69	74	52	64	55	51	44	62	63
Sri Lanka	37	41	27	36	42	42	52	84	77
Chinese Taipei	688	631	650	602	543	507	401	366	382
Thailand	1 033	790	610	616	597	650	787	861	1 444	808	741
Asia-16	2 054	1 768	1 353	1 202	1 411	1 480	442	472	510	508	461

Note: India and Pakistan data refer to mining and quarrying sectors only, Bangladesh data refer to manufacturing sector only, Data for Australia, Indonesia, Korea, and Thailand refer to compensated injuries while all other economies refer to reported injuries.

Source: ILO (2008), LABORSTA online database.

CO7.4 Non-fatal cases of compensated/reported work injuries with lost workdays for men and women, 1997-2007

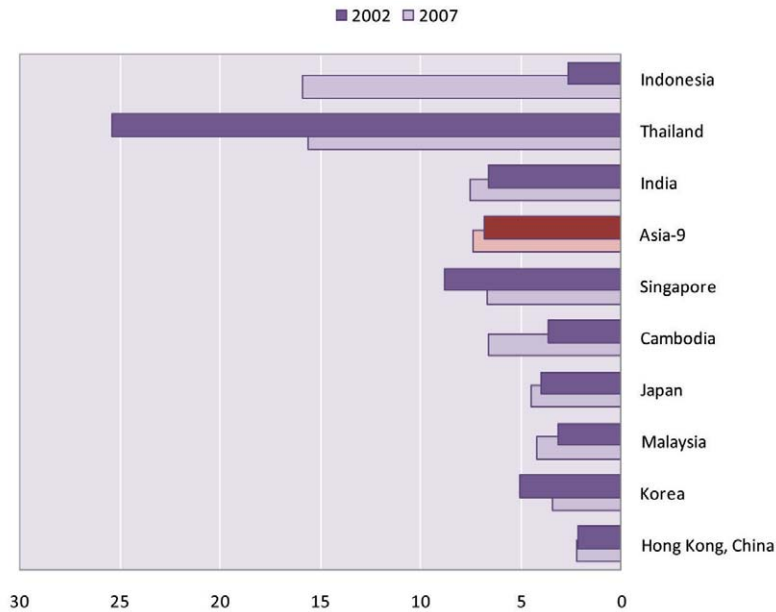
	Non-fatal cases (temporary + permanent incapacitation)										
	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Australia	134 055	127 740	128 820	127 280	121 080	116 160	107 670	105 990	95 140	87 060	..
Bangladesh	3 053	2 879	2 853	2 100
China	8 811	5 623	4 936	3 999	4 141	3 755
Hong Kong, China	62 529	63 286	58 606	57 893	53 543	46 813	41 851	43 838	44 080	46 750	..
India	1 011	833	901	901	928	769	775	1 194	1 251	955	874
Indonesia	7 757
Japan	152 412	142 994	133 844	132 566	132 287	124 702	124 455	121 475	119 121	120 048	120 068
Macao, China	3 550	3 676	3 216	3 602	3 645	3 847	4 093	4 603	4 941	2 773	2 274
Malaysia	85 116	84 065	80 104	94 002	84 911	80 952
Myanmar	440	423	400	455	294	329	183	..	118
New Zealand	20 841	17 017	3179 4	20 754	22 921	24 869	25 874	26 513	26 731	26 923	23 246
Pakistan	92	65	37	53	50	44
Philippines	26 289	..	21 477	23 095
Singapore	4 315	4 148	3 884	3 445	3 738	3 324	3 124	3 232	3 355	9 199	9 955
Sri Lanka	2 142	2 119	2 157	1 754	1 492	1 411	1 388	1 740	1 755
Chinese Taipei	24 583	27 921	33 059	38 260	37 843	35 819	36 087	37 789	36 966
Thailand	51 415	50 115	50 093	52 450	56 202	56 691	57 085	55 335	53 800
Asia-15	32 112	33 549	28 880	29 698	31 145	28 935	29 147	30 062	29 819	33 829	26 978

Note: India and Pakistan data refer to mining and quarrying sectors only, Bangladesh data refer to manufacturing sector only, Data for Australia, Indonesia, Korea, and Thailand refer to compensated injuries while all other economies refer to reported injuries.

Source: ILO (2008), LABORSTA online database.

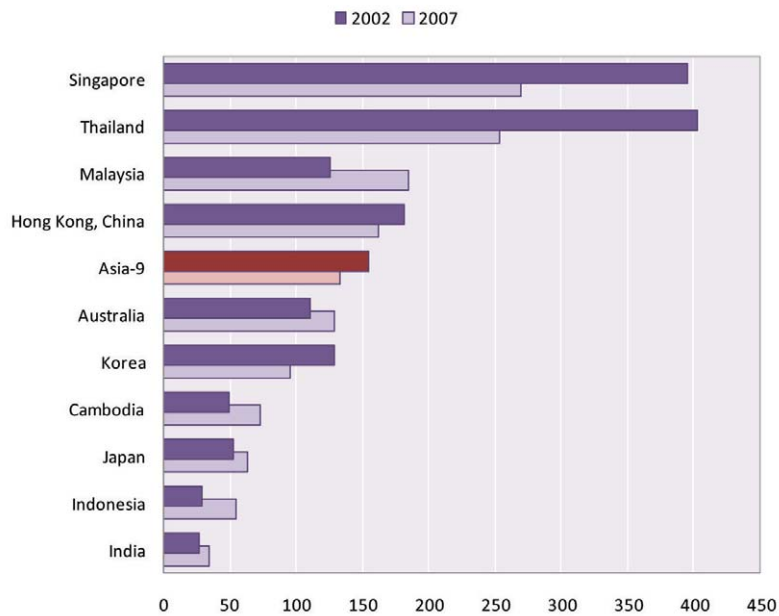
CO8: Prisoners

CO8,3 Prisoners per security staff ratio, 2002/2007



Source: Asian and Pacific Conference of Correctional Administrators (2002), *Prisoners in Asia and the Pacific*.

CO8,4 Imprisonment rates, 2002/2007



Source: Asian and Pacific Conference of Correctional Administrators (2002), *Prisoners in Asia and the Pacific*.

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