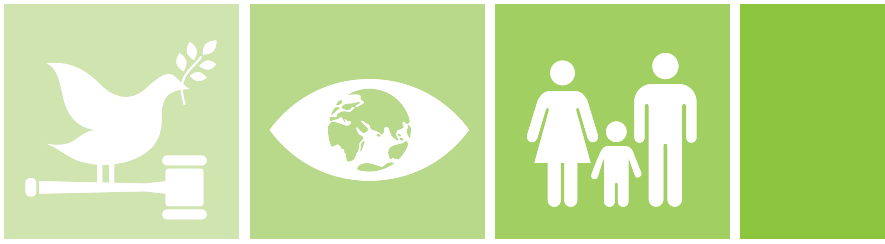
PART I

Sustainable Development Goals Trends and Tables



Introduction to the Sustainable Development Goals Trends and Tables

The SDGs comprise 169 targets across 17 goals to be achieved by 2030. These goals and targets will be monitored and reviewed using a framework of 232 global indicators developed by the Inter-Agency Expert Group on SDG Indicators.[1] This makes the SDGs significantly more ambitious than the MDGs, with double the number of goals, triple the number of targets, and nearly quadruple the number of indicators.

The current set of statistical indicators are grouped into three tiers—Tier 1, Tier 2, and Tier 3. Indicators classified as Tier 1 have a clear and established methodology, and data are regularly collected by many countries. Tier 2 indicators are those that have an established methodology but are not regularly collected by many countries. Tier 3 indicators do not have established standards and/or estimation methodology. Of the 232 SDG indicators, 82 belong to Tier I, 61 are Tier II, and 84 are categorized under Tier III. Five indicators have multiple tiers since different components of these indicators are classified into different tiers.

The 2030 Development Agenda promises to leave no one behind; therefore, monitoring the progress on SDGs requires that the indicators be disaggregated, where relevant, by income, sex, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability, geographic location, or other characteristics, in accordance with the *Fundamental Principles of Official Statistics* (UN 2013). However, such disaggregated data are scarce for many SDG and other development indicators. For example, there is a lack of sex-disaggregated data on ownership of assets in most parts of the world—including in many countries in Asia and the Pacific—despite evidence that women's asset ownership is associated with several positive outcomes such as better nutrition and education for their children, increased bargaining power within the household, and protection against domestic violence. Lack of standard guidelines for collection of data on ownership of assets is one of the reasons that such data are not currently produced by the national statistical systems.

Recognizing the need to addressing data and methodological issues, the Asian Development Bank (ADB), in collaboration with the United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD) and the national statistics offices of Georgia, Mongolia, and the Philippines piloted methodological surveys in support of the Evidence and Data for Gender Equality (EDGE) initiative of the UNSD and the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and Empowerment of Women. The results from these surveys will provide comprehensive inputs into the development of standardized methods and guidelines for collecting sex-disaggregated on asset ownership.

Part I of *Key Indicators 2017* is divided into two sections. The first section examines the status of economies in Asia and the Pacific using selected indicators from the global indicator framework of the SDG agenda. The second section provides a summary of findings from the three pilot surveys conducted to support the EDGE initiative, alongside lessons learned from the survey operations and data analyses.

[1] Inter-Agency and Expert Group on SDG Indicators (IAEG-SDGs) was established in March 2015 by the United Nations Statistical Commission comprising of UN member states with regional and international agencies as observers. IAEG-SDGs was mandated to develop and implement the global indicator framework for the SDGs.

Section 1. Sustainable Development Goal Indicators in Asia and the Pacific

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) chart an ambitious plan of action across five broad themes—People, Prosperity, Planet, Peace, and Partnership (UN, 2015). Embedded within these five themes are the 17 goals of the SDGs (Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1: Sustainable Development Goals

Source: Adapted from http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/sustainable-development-goals/

In March 2016, the UNSC approved a list of 230 indicators proposed by the IAEG-SDGs for global monitoring of the goals and targets of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Upon the recommendation of the IAEG-SDGs, a revised set of 232 indicators was approved by the UNSC in March 2017, with 226 of the original 230 indicators either retained, reworded, or modified; 1 deleted, 5 replaced by new indicators; and 2 new indicators added.[2]

Given that only a third of the SDG indicators have an established methodology and are being regularly collected and compiled for all countries, there is a massive task confronting national statistical systems to meet the data gap for the remaining indicators. This challenge is further complicated by the fact that resources for statistical data collection and compilation have not increased commensurate to demands for new and better data. The *Cape Town Global Action Plan for Sustainable Development Data*[3] appeals for a commitment from governments, policy leaders, and the international community to undertake key actions on six strategic areas: coordination and leadership, innovation and modernization of national statistical systems, strengthening of basic statistical activities and programs, dissemination of data on sustainable development, building partnerships, and mobilizing resources (UN DESA 2017).

Although clear inter-linkages within and across the goals, targets, and indicators of the SDGs exist and are critical to achieving the objectives of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, for the convenience of the reader, this section is grouped into the five broad themes mentioned above. Statistical tables with recent data on selected SDG indicators for ADB regional member countries are accompanied by short analyses and supporting information presented in figures and boxes. The data presented here are compiled mainly from the UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, UN Statistics Division's SDG Indicators Global Database, and from international organizations and economy sources.

2 The revised list of 232 SDG indicators is available at https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/indicators-list/. See also the 2017 IAEG-SDGs report to the UNSC (https://unstats.un.org/unsd/statcom/48th-session/documents/2017-2-IAEG-SDGs-E.pdf).

3 The *Cape Town Action Plan for Global Action Plan for Sustainable Development* was prepared by the High-level Group for Partnership, Coordination and Capacity-Building for Statistics for the 2030 Agenda (HLG-PCCB) which was established by the UNSC and comprised of chief statisticians from 23 national statistics offices.

The SDG Indicators Global Database sources data either from international agencies based on their respective areas of expertise, data estimated from sample surveys that are financed and carried out by international agencies, unadjusted data compiled by international agencies based on what is directly produced by national statistical offices and other country sources, or data adjusted by international agencies based on what is directly produced by national statistical offices and other country sources. To allow for comparability across countries, international agencies often undertake statistical adjustments, imputations to account for data unavailable for certain years, and data harmonization when compiled from multiple sources. For these reasons, the data presented in this publication may differ from those compiled by national statistical agencies. An in-depth description of data compilation techniques implemented for each indicator are available on the SDG Indicators Global Database's website and in the metadata provided alongside the statistical databases of international organizations responsible for compiling global indicators for tracking the SDG progress.

Most of the statistics presented in the tables and charts are usually presented for two data points between 2000 and 2016. These are referred to as the initial year (usually a year between 2000 and 2007 that is closest to 2000) and latest year (usually a year between 2008 and 2016 that is closest to 2016) depending on available data, with some exceptions.

People

To end poverty and hunger, in all forms and dimensions, and to ensure that all human beings can fulfill their potential in dignity and equality and in a healthy environment.

Snapshot

- Between 2002 and 2013, extreme poverty as measured by $1.90 a day (at 2011 purchasing power parity) significantly declined in developing Asia from 31.8% to around 9.0% of the total population. This implies a reduction from about 1.04 billion people living below $1.90 a day (at 2011 PPP) in 2002 to about 330 million persons in 2013.
- Of 16 economies that have urban–rural disaggregation on poverty rates using national poverty lines, majority have reduced poverty rates much faster in rural than in urban areas. However, rural poverty remains higher than urban poverty in all 16 economies.
- Undernourishment is less than 10% in 22 economies. However, the prevalence of undernourishment remains at over 20% in six economies.
- While the prevalence of stunting among children under the age of five has fallen in 23 out of 29 economies, more than 40% of children under the age of five in five economies have stunted growth.
- Together with neonatal and under-five mortality rates, maternal mortality ratio has declined significantly in several economies of developing Asia between 2000 and 2015.
- The proportion of teachers in primary education who have received at least the minimum organized teacher training exceeds 90% in 21 out of 32 economies of Asia and the Pacific with available data. For lower secondary education, the proportion exceeds 90% in 12 out of 20 regional economies; in upper secondary education, the proportion exceeds 90% in 10 out of 15 regional economies with available data.
- In nine out of 24 reporting economies of Asia and the Pacific with available data, more than 20% of women aged 20–24 years were either married or in a union before the age of 18.
- In Asia and the Pacific, significant gaps persist in ensuring women's full participation in political leadership. The share of women parliamentarians exceeded one-fifth in only one-third of economies, with Timor-Leste having the highest share at 38.5%.

SDGs 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 are people-focused and aim at establishing and maintaining conditions that ensure the protection of human dignity alongside assisting those who are farthest behind. The goals include eradicating extreme poverty and hunger, promoting health, well-being, quality education, and gender equality.

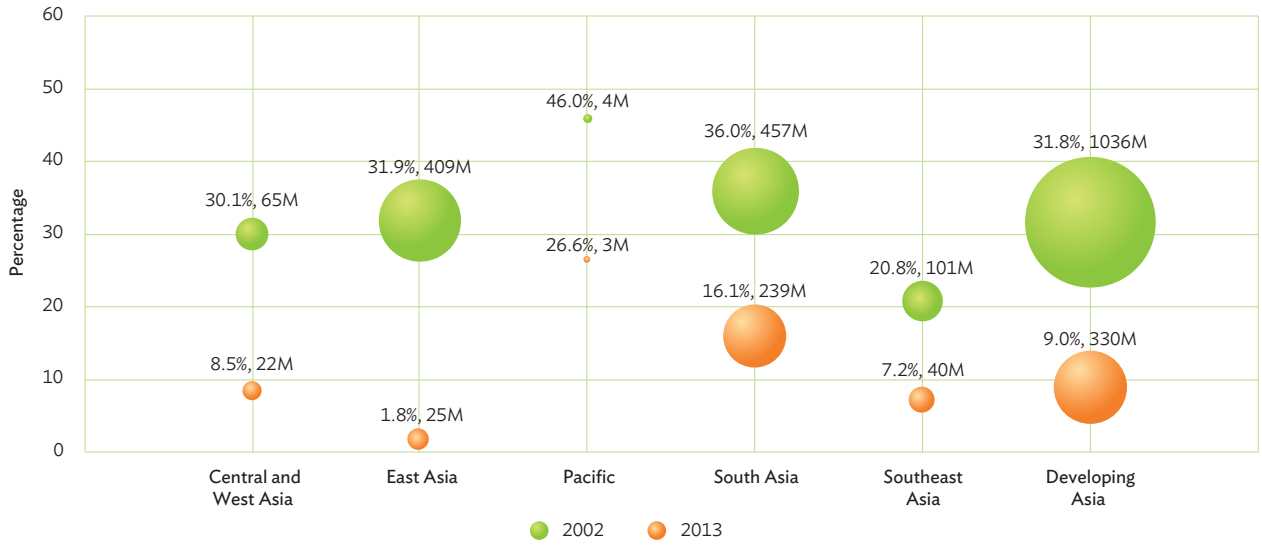
SDG 1: End Poverty in All Forms Everywhere

Poverty reduction is at the heart of the sustainable development agenda, and countries have committed to eradicating poverty in all its dimensions by 2030. The poor, who have limited opportunities and capabilities, ought to be provided with basic needs, amenities, and social protection benefits so that they can build resilience to withstand various shocks to livelihood and welfare such as food price crises, armed conflict, and natural hazards.

Rates of extreme poverty vary considerably across regions of developing Asia. For instance, extreme poverty rates are currently over 10% in the Pacific (26.6%) and in South Asia (16.1%), but less than 10% in Southeast Asia (7.2%) and Central and West Asia (8.5%), and less than 5% in East Asia (1.8%) (see Figure 2.1).

Proportion of working population below the international poverty line of $1.90 a day (2011 PPP). In three economies, the proportion of working poor is over two-fifths of the workforce in recent years: Afghanistan (82.9%), Bangladesh (63.9%), and the Lao People's Democratic Republic (46.0%) (Table 2.1). Gender disparities can also be observed among the working poor, where in 14 of 35 economies with available data, the rates of working poor are higher among females than among males.

Figure 2.1: Proportion and Number of People in Extreme Poverty by Subregion, 2002 and 2013



M = million.
Note: The numbers next to the bubbles represent the proportion of population in extreme poverty and the number of extreme poor in millions.
Source: ADB estimates using World Bank's. PovcalNet Database: http://iresearch.worldbank.org/PovcalNet/home.aspx (accessed 4 October 2016).

Click here for figure data

Proportion of population below the international poverty line of $1.90 a day (2011 PPP). Between 2002 and 2013, extreme poverty, as measured by $1.90 a day (at 2011 purchasing power parity), significantly declined in developing Asia from 31.8% to around 9.0% of the total population. This implies a reduction from about 1.04 billion people living below $1.90 a day in 2002 (at 2011 PPP) to about 330 million persons in 2013.[4]

Proportion of population living below the national poverty line. Countries across the world monitor changes in poverty conditions using nationally defined poverty lines. Methodologies and definitions of national poverty lines vary across

[4] For poverty, the aggregates presented for Developing Asia and the subregions are based on World Bank's estimates using common reference years for regional aggregation. For SDG Table 2.1 and Regional Trends Table 1.7, the poverty estimates presented are based on the actual survey years.

countries and hence poverty rates based on national definitions are not comparable.

In 27 out of 32 economies of developing Asia with available data for initial and latest years, the proportion of people living below the national poverty line has declined (Table 2.1). Across developing Asia, latest data on poverty using national poverty lines show that 12 of 16 economies with data on urban–rural disaggregation have reduced poverty rates much faster in rural than in urban areas (Figure 2.2). However, poverty rates for the rural population have remained higher than those of the urban population in all 16 economies.

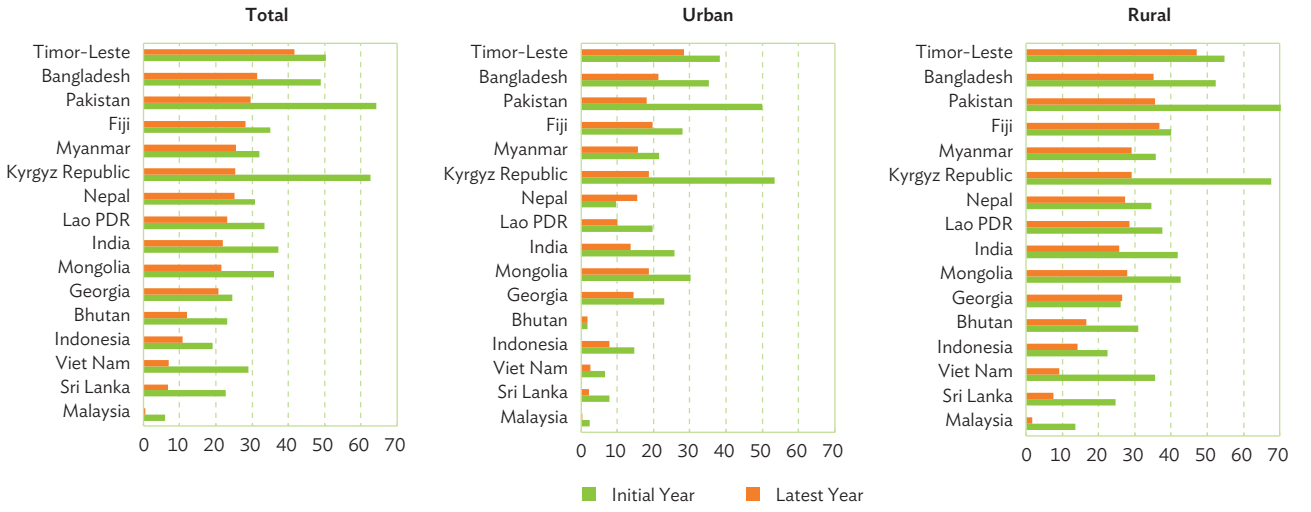
Monetary poverty, whether examined with international or national poverty lines, does not describe the various deprivations that people face across nonmonetary dimensions such as education, health, nutrition, access to safe water, asset ownership, time, etc. The United Nations Development Programme and Oxford Group have proposed a Multidimensional Poverty Index that uses 10 indicators from the three broad dimensions of education, health, and living standards, but its use is not without cost as pointed out in Box 2.1.

SDG 2: End Hunger, Achieve Food Security and Improved Nutrition, and Promote Sustainable Agriculture

Countries endorsing the Sustainable Development Agenda have also committed to promoting sustainable solutions to end hunger, malnutrition, and food insecurity by 2030. Attaining SDG 2 will require improved access to food for everyone and further support to the agricultural sector, including policies to improve the productivity, incomes, and agricultural practices of small-scale farmers.

Prevalence of undernourishment. In 22 economies of Asia and the Pacific with reported data, the prevalence of undernourishment is less than 10.0%, with 13 of these economies reporting a prevalence of less than 5.0% (Table 2.2). However, a

Figure 2.2: Proportion of Population Living below the National Poverty Line, by Urban-Rural Location
(%)



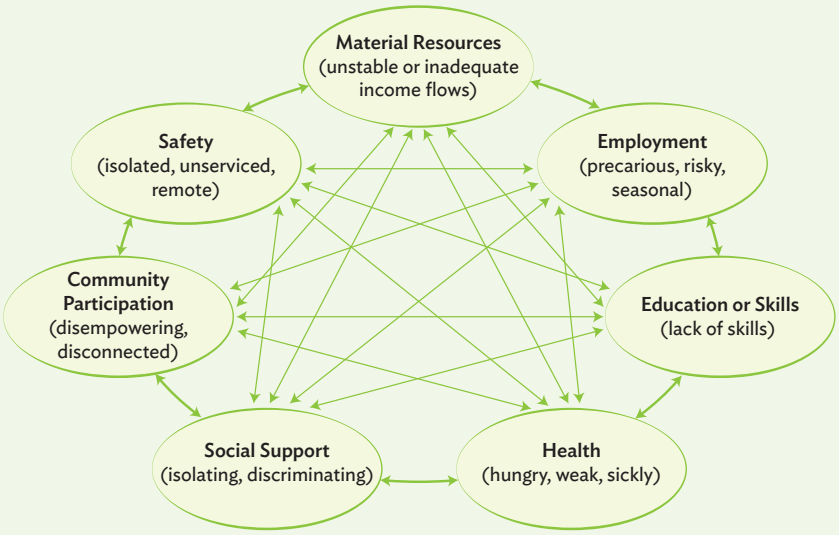
Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.
Note: Initial year refers to 2000–2007 and latest year refers to 2010–2016.
Source: Table 2.1.

Click here for figure data

Box 2.1: Considerations on Using a Multidimensional Poverty Index

Poverty is traditionally associated with the lack of income or consumption. This has focused attention on the subsistence approach to measuring poverty: people with incomes (or its usual proxy, consumption) below a poverty threshold are poor. While people may be better off when they have higher incomes and other resources needed to lead a suitable life, conceptualizing disadvantage based exclusively on income overlooks the differing capacities of each person to access and to have command over these resources, as well as to improve their quality of life. Moreover, while income matters, rising incomes do not necessarily always translate into better health, better security, or improved community participation. Box Figure 2.1.1 enumerates several dimensions of poverty and disadvantage.

Box Figure 2.1.1: Select Dimensions of Poverty



Source: Authors' rendering based on information from Martinez and Perales 2015.

Since the late 1970s, several schools of thought in measuring poverty have been proposed in the development literature as alternatives to the subsistence approach. One of the foremost alternatives is the relative deprivation approach pioneered by Peter Townsend. This approach covers a wide range of aspects of living standards other than income, such as the quality and quantity of familial, recreational, and other social activities. In his examination of living conditions in the United Kingdom, Townsend (1979) characterized poverty as the failure to achieve at least the minimum required living conditions. Where resources are so seriously below the resources commanded by the average person, those who are excluded from the ordinary standards of living, which society dictates as acceptable, are considered disadvantaged.

Another broad sense of disadvantage is the capability approach proposed by the Nobel Laureate Amartya Sen, who argues that well-being comes from a capability to function in society; thus, poverty arises when people lack key capabilities, and have inadequate income, low education, poor health, insecurity, low self-confidence, a sense of powerlessness, or the absence of rights such as freedom of speech (UNDP 2008, Sen 1999, Nussbaum and Sen 1993). This view signals a compelling shift from the traditional concept of disadvantage that is based solely on disposable means of living to the concept that is based on available basic needs, functionings, and opportunities that are necessary to live a valuable life.

The seminal ideas and concepts on relative deprivation introduced by Townsend and on capability introduced by Sen have led to the recognition for a need to move beyond the traditional subsistence approach for poverty assessment in terms of income, and to develop measures that would capture the multiple dimensions of poverty and welfare. In 2010, for instance, the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative in collaboration with the UN Development Programme developed the Global Multidimensional Poverty Index or MPI (UNDP 2010).[a] The Global MPI is an international measure of acute poverty that complements traditional income-based poverty measures by capturing a person's severe deprivation with respect to education, health, and living standards (OPHI 2017). Since then, several variants of MPI have been developed to accommodate various dimensions that are relevant for different country-specific contexts.

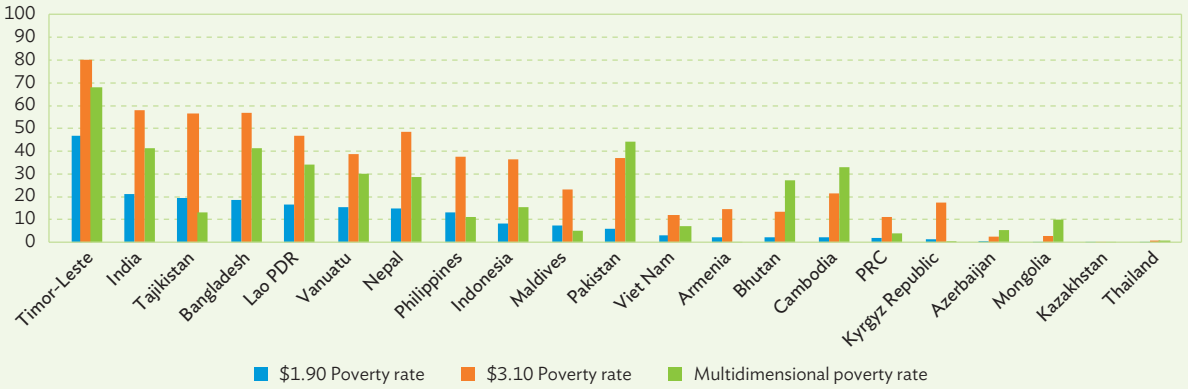
a Latest data can be accessed through this link: http://www.dataforall.org/dashboard/ophi/index.php

continued.

Box 2.1: *(continued)*

Box Figure 2.1.2 summarizes the relationship between unidimensional income and multidimensional poverty headcount rates in selected Asia and the Pacific economies. Although there seems to be a positive correlation between the two types of poverty measures (i.e., high (low) income poverty rates are generally accompanied by high (low) multidimensional poverty rates), there are countries where the relationship is not apparent. This suggests that multidimensional poverty measures provide additional information that unidimensional income-based measures are unable to capture.

Box Figure 2.1.2: Multidimensional and Income Poverty Rates in Selected Countries in Asia and the Pacific *(%)*



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: WDI and Global MPI Interactive Databank.

Click here for figure data

However, measuring poverty with a multidimensional lens is not without its challenges. A number of issues have been raised such as how to objectively identify the specific domains that should be taken into account in poverty analysis. Priority could be given to domains with high prevalence of disadvantage; growing trends in disadvantage; and significant contributions of disadvantage. In addition, poverty domains that are in line with the government's policy objectives should be given more attention.

Another contentious issue is the weights used for each domain to aggregate the different indicators for coming up with an overall multidimensional poverty index. The typical weights used lack the intrinsic meaning associated with relative prices, which are used to add the components of consumption or the incomes used for spending (Ravallion 2012). Further, these weights are not quite robust: slight changes in the weights have significant impact on multidimensional poverty rates (Martinez and Perales 2015). Given the complexity of these measurement issues, countries need to conduct a more thorough evaluation when working with and using multidimensional poverty indexes; and create dashboards on various poverty statistics to ensure that these measures contribute to better thinking about poverty, and better policies for reducing and eradicating poverty.

Sources:

A. Martinez and F. Perales. 2015.The Dynamics of Multidimensional Poverty in Australia. *Social Indicators Research*. 130 (2). pp. 479–496.

M. Nussbaum and A. Sen. 1993. *The Quality of Life*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative. 2017. Global Multidimensional Poverty Index Databank. OPHI. University of Oxford.

M. Ravallion. 2012. On Multidimensional Indices of Poverty. *Journal of Economic Inequality*. 9 (2). pp. 235–248.

A. Sen. 1999. *Development as Freedom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

P. Townsend. 1979. *Poverty in the United Kingdom: A Survey of Household Resources and Standards of Living*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Publishing.

United Nations Development Programme. 2008. *Human Development Report*. New York: United Nations.

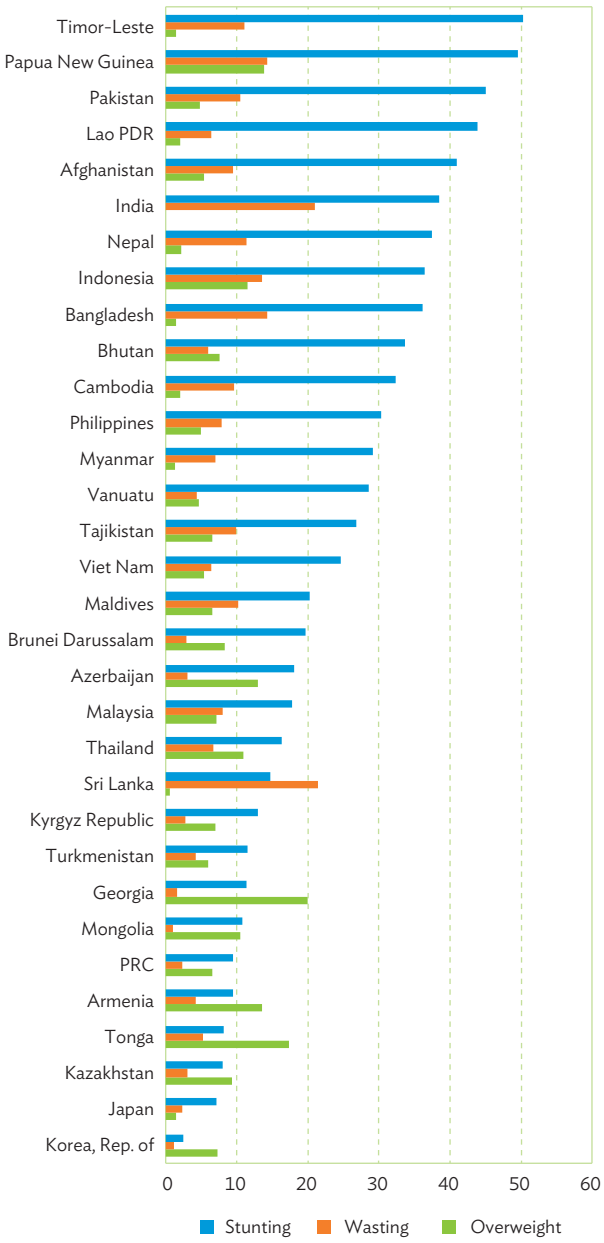
United Nations Development Programme. 2010. *Human Development Report*. New York: United Nations.

considerable number of people in the region still lack regular access to adequate food, with the prevalence of undernourishment at over 20% in six economies: Tajikistan (33.2%), Timor-Leste (26.9%), Afghanistan (26.8%), Pakistan (22.0%), Sri Lanka (22.0%), and Mongolia (20.5%).

Prevalence of stunting among children under 5 years of age. Figure 2.3 shows that as of 2015, stunting affects more than two-fifths of children under 5 years of age in Timor-Leste (50.2%), Papua New Guinea (49.5%), Pakistan (45.0%), the Lao People's Democratic Republic (43.8%), and Afghanistan (40.9%). The prevalence of stunting among children below 5 years of age has fallen between the earliest and latest years for which data are available in 23 out of 29 economies with the steepest reductions in Nepal, Mongolia, Viet Nam, Afghanistan, and Cambodia (Table 2.2). Developing economies where the prevalence of stunting among children under 5 years of age has increased between the earliest and latest years for which data are available include Malaysia, Pakistan, Thailand, and the Pacific economies of Papua New Guinea and Vanuatu.

Prevalence of wasting among children under 5 years of age. Significantly fewer children aged 5 years and under are affected by wasting than stunting (Figure 2.3). Latest available data for developing member economies show that prevalence of wasting among children under 5 years of age is 20% or more in Sri Lanka (21.4%) and India (21.0%). On the other hand, wasting prevalence is at most 2.5% in the PRC (2.3%), Georgia (1.6%), Japan (2.3%), the Republic of Korea (1.2%), and Mongolia (1.0%).

Figure 2.3: Prevalence of Stunting, Wasting and Overweight Among Children Aged 5 years and Under, Latest Years
(%)



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Note: Only economies with recent estimates (2010 and later) are included.
Source: Table 2.2.

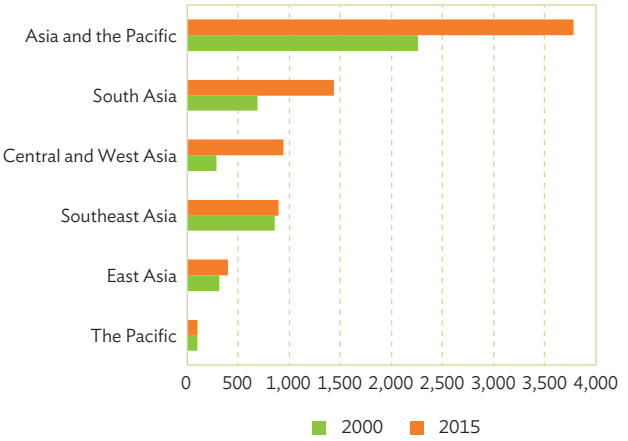
Click here for figure data

Prevalence of overweight among children under 5 years of age. Obesity among children under the age of five can result in severe health issues when they reach adulthood. Data show that the prevalence of overweight among children below 5 years of age is over 10% in eight regional economies: Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Indonesia, Mongolia, Papua New Guinea, Thailand, and Tonga. Many of these economies with high prevalence of overweight have prevalence rates of wasting among children under five below 5%. In almost half of 27 regional economies with data, the prevalence of overweight among children under 5 years of age has fallen or has stayed the same between the initial and final year of reporting.

Agriculture orientation index. The productive capacity of the agriculture sector depends on both public and private investments coming from domestic and foreign sources. Among 23 regional economies with available data, only the Republic of Korea and Singapore have a higher orientation toward the agriculture sector, with the agriculture share in government expenditures exceeding the sector's share in gross domestic product (GDP) (Table 2.3). Thirteen out of 23 economies have improved their agriculture orientation, with Singapore experiencing the steepest increase.

Gross disbursements of total official development assistance and other official flows from all donors to the agriculture sector. In the Asia and the Pacific region, South Asia has been the largest recipient of official development assistance (ODA) and other official flows to the agriculture sector, amounting to nearly $1.5 billion (in constant 2015 dollars) for 2015 (Figure 2.4). This is followed by Central and West Asia and Southeast Asia, which have about a billion each (in constant 2015 dollars) of official flows of disbursement to the agriculture sector. Across economies, India ($1.05 billion), the People's Republic of China ($386.4 million), Afghanistan ($328.1 million), and Pakistan ($291.7 million) have been the four largest recipients of total official flows to the agriculture sector in 2015 (Table 2.3). On the other hand, declines of more than $40 million have occurred in Bangladesh, Cambodia, the Kyrgyz Republic, and the Philippines between 2000 to 2015.

Figure 2.4: Total Official Flows (Official Development Assistance Plus Other Official Flows) to the Agriculture Sector
(constant 2015 $ million)



Source: Table 2.3.

Click here for figure data

SDG 3: Ensure Healthy Lives and Promote Well-Being for All at All Ages

SDG 3 aspires to healthy lives and well-being for everyone at every stage of life by 2030. Attaining this goal entails improving reproductive, maternal, and child health; ending the epidemics of HIV/AIDS, malaria, tuberculosis, and neglected tropical diseases; reducing noncommunicable and environmental diseases; achieving universal health coverage; and ensuring access to safe, affordable, and effective medicines and vaccines for all.

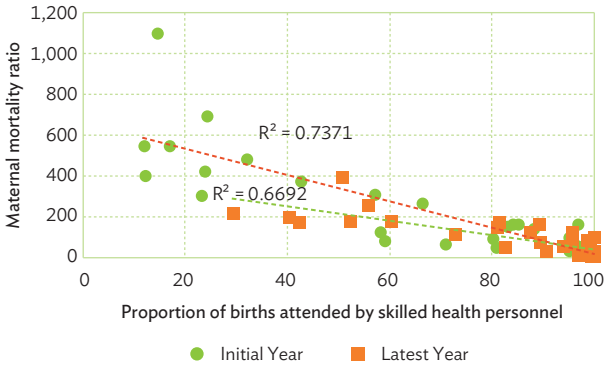
Maternal mortality ratio. Maternal deaths per 100,000 live births dropped significantly in Asia and the Pacific, with maternal mortality ratio (MMR) declining from 264 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2000 to 123 in 2015. South Asia led the reduction across regions of developing Asia with 203 fewer deaths per 100,000 live births from 377 in

2000. Maternal deaths have decreased in 39 out of 43 economies in Asia and the Pacific, with Afghanistan displaying the largest decline from an MMR of 1,100 at the end of the last millennium, to an MMR of 396 in 2015. Next to Afghanistan, economies with the largest declines in maternal deaths between 2000 and 2015 include Cambodia, Nepal, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, and Timor-Leste. Despite this huge reduction, MMR exceeded 150 in nearly one-fourth of the economies (Table 2.4). Other economies with very high maternal deaths include Papua New Guinea (215), Pakistan (178), Myanmar (178), Bangladesh (176), and India (174). Economies with the lowest MMRs at 16 or fewer maternal deaths per 100,000 live births include Hong Kong, China; Kazakhstan; the Republic of Korea; Singapore; and Taipei,China; and the developed economies of Australia, Japan, and New Zealand.

Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel. Accompanying a drop in maternal deaths is an increase in the proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel in many economies of Asia and the Pacific (Figure 2.5). Developing economies such as Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Cambodia, India, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Nepal, and Pakistan, where less than half of births were attended by skilled health personnel in 2000, have made dramatic strides between 2000 and 2015 (Table 2.4.) Despite this progress, less than half of births are attended by doctors, nurses, and midwives in the Lao People's Democratic Republic (40.1%) and Bangladesh (42.1%). In these economies, MMR stands at 170 or more deaths per 100,000 live births.

Under-five mortality rate. Under-five mortality in Asia and the Pacific fell from 70 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2000 to 36 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2015. All regions have reduced their under-five mortality rates, with South Asia leading with a reduction of 44 deaths per 1,000 live births (from 90 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2000), followed by Central and West Asia with a drop of 35 deaths per 1,000 live births (Figure 2.6). Nearly all economies, except Brunei Darussalam, reduced their under-five mortality rates, but at varying rates. Afghanistan, Azerbaijan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Cambodia, India, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Nepal, Tajikistan, and Timor-Leste reduced their under-five mortality rates by more than 40 deaths per 1,000 live births (Table 2.4).

Figure 2.5: Scatterplot of Maternal Mortality Ratio (maternal deaths per 100,000 live births) **and Proportion of Births Attended by Skilled Health Personnel** (%)



Note: Initial year refers to 2000–2007 and latest year refers to 2008–2015.
Source: Table 2.4.

Click here for figure data

Figure 2.6: Under-five Mortality Rate (per 1,000 live births)

Source: Table 2.4.

Click here for figure data

Neonatal mortality rate. Neonatal deaths decreased throughout Asia and the Pacific from 35 deaths to 20 deaths per 1,000 live births between 2000 and 2015. All regions reduced neonatal deaths, led by South Asia, and followed closely by East Asia, and Central and West Asia (Figure 2.7). Among regional economies, Cambodia and Maldives reported the largest reduction in neonatal deaths of 21 deaths per 1,000 live births, followed by Bangladesh (19), India (17), and Nepal (17).

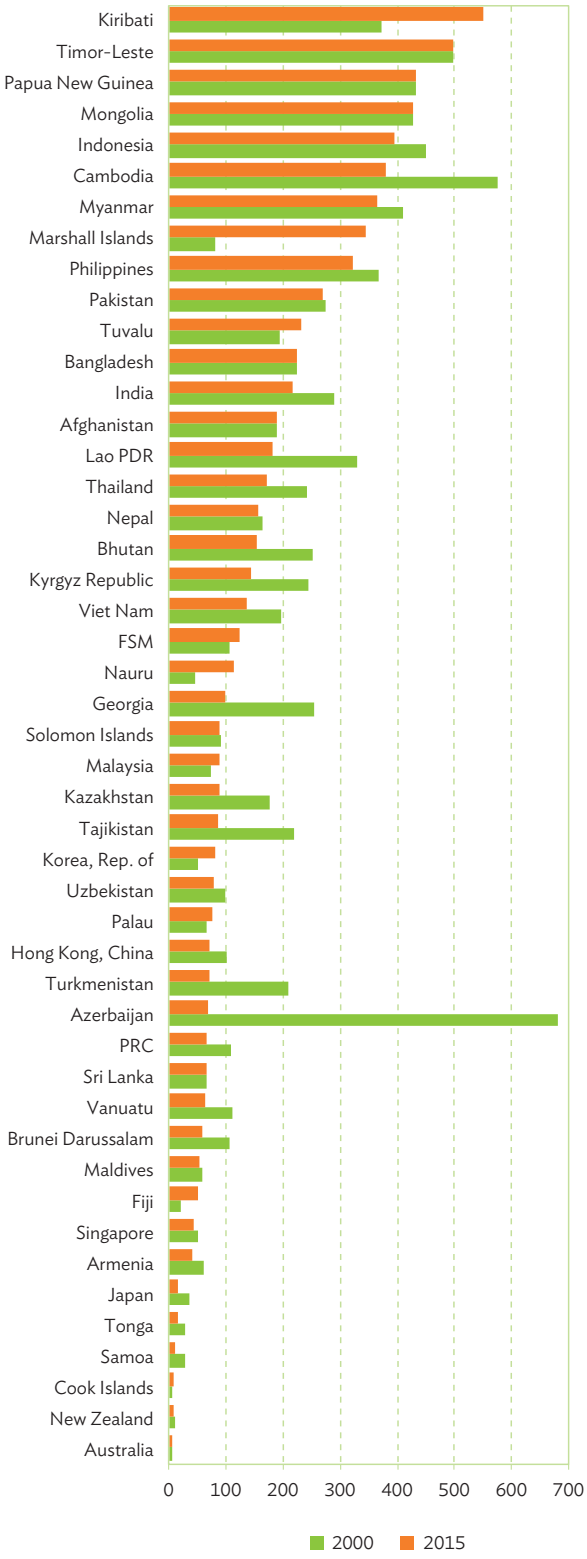
Tuberculosis incidence rate. In the period 2000–2015, the incidence of tuberculosis has declined in 33 out of 48 regional economies, with Azerbaijan recording the largest decrease about 90%—from 681 per 100,000 people in 2000 to 69 in 2015—followed by Turkmenistan, Georgia, Samoa, and Tajikistan, respectively (Figure 2.8). The incidence of tuberculosis remains high at over 200 per 100,000 population in 13 economies, five of which are in the Pacific, with another four in Southeast Asia. In three Pacific economies—Kiribati, the Marshall Islands, and Tuvalu—tuberculosis incidence rate worsened by 20% or more between 2000 and 2015. The lowest incidence rates of less than 20 per 100,000 people are

Figure 2.7: Neonatal Mortality Rate
(per 1,000 live births)

Source: Table 2.4.

Click here for figure data

Figure 2.8: Tuberculosis Incidence
(per 100,000 population)



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

Click here for figure data

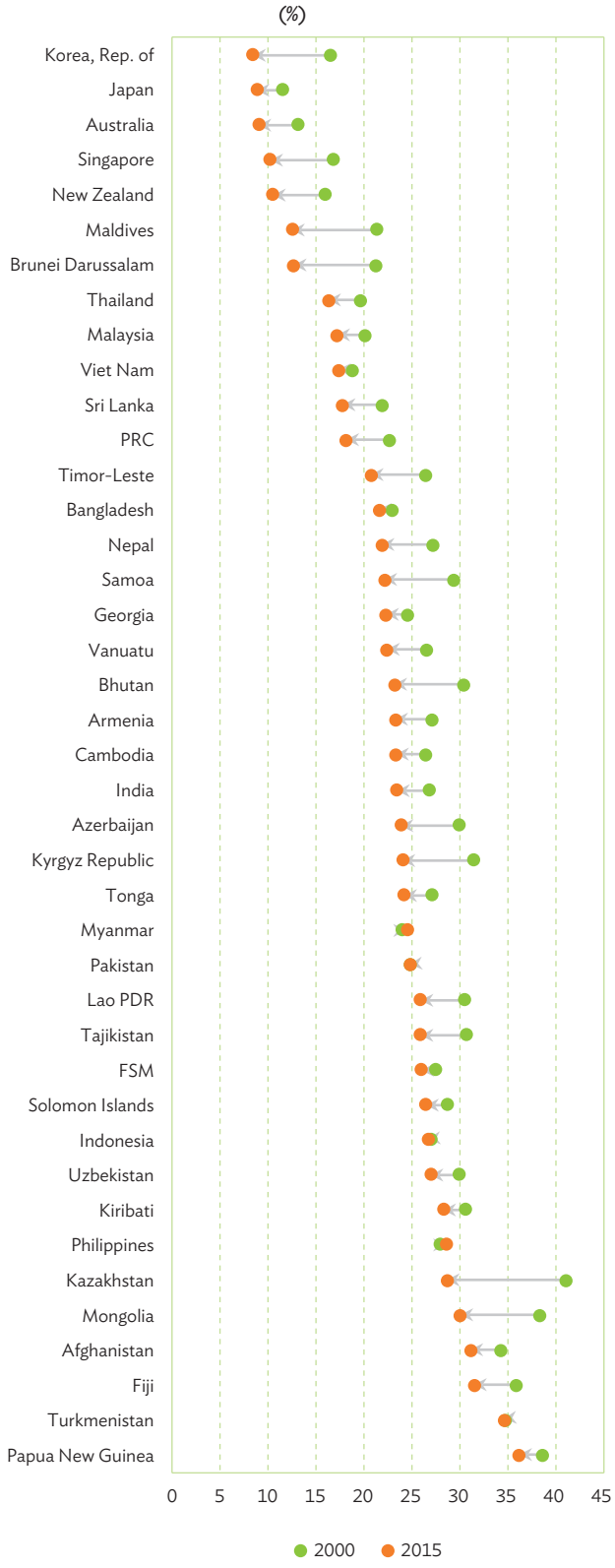
in the developed economies of Australia, Japan, and New Zealand, as well as the Cook Islands, Samoa, and Tonga.

Malaria incidence rate. Malaria has declined in all 26 reporting developing economies from initial levels, but it persists as a problem in Asia and the Pacific, with incidence rate at over 60 per 100,000 people in Papua New Guinea (122) and Solomon Islands (67). Azerbaijan, the PRC, Georgia, the Kyrgyz Republic, Sri Lanka, Tajikistan, and Uzbekistan reported no new cases of malaria in 2015.

Mortality rate attributed to cardiovascular disease, cancer, diabetes, or chronic respiratory disease. The proportion of deaths attributed to the four main noncommunicable diseases (NCDs)—cardiovascular disease, cancer, diabetes, or chronic respiratory disease—has decreased across 39 out of 41 reporting economies in 2000–2015. Mortality rates from the four main NCDs between 2000 and 2015 fell in Kazakhstan, Maldives, Brunei Darussalam, Mongolia, and the Republic of Korea by at least 8 percentage points (Figure 2.9). Meanwhile, increases in the shares of deaths from NCDs have been reported in Myanmar and the Philippines from 2000 to 2015.

Death rate due to road traffic injuries. High incidence of death rates due to road traffic injuries per 100,000 persons was reported in Thailand (36.2), Viet Nam (24.5), the Cook Islands (24.2), Kazakhstan (24.2), and Malaysia (24.0) (Figure 2.10). Less than five deaths due to road traffic injuries per 100,000 persons was reported in the Federated States of Micronesia (1.9), Kiribati (2.9), Maldives (3.5), Singapore (3.6), and Japan (4.7). Reducing deaths and injuries from road traffic accidents by 2020 from half their 2013 levels is an ambitious SDG target especially given the continuing rise in the number of vehicles on the road.

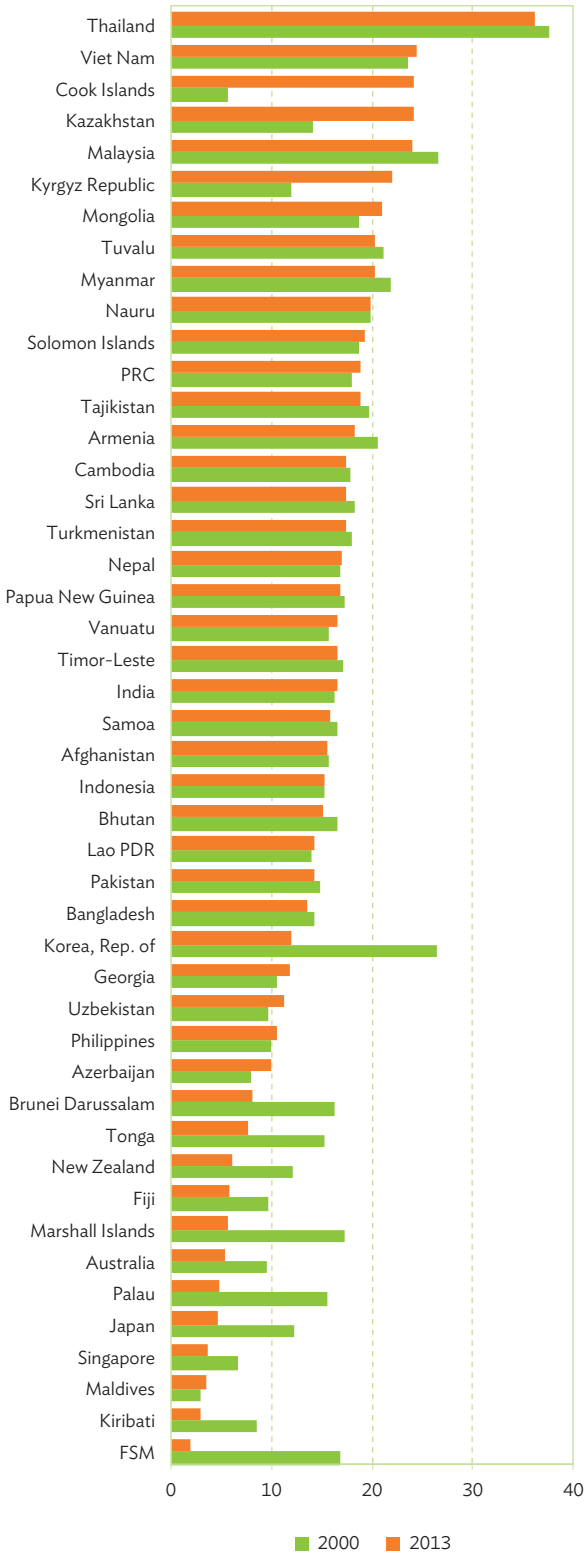
Figure 2.9: Mortality Rate Attributed to Cardiovascular Disease, Cancer, Diabetes, or Chronic Respiratory Disease



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

Click here for figure data

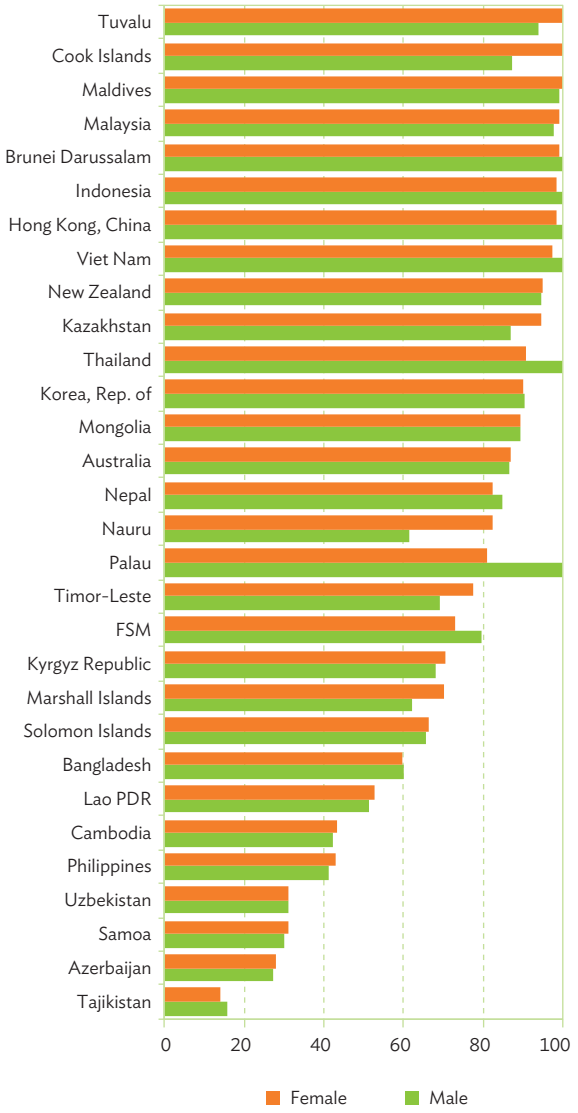
Figure 2.10: Death Rate due to Road Traffic Injuries
(per 100,000 population)



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

Click here for figure data

Figure 2.11: Participation Rate in Organized Learning (1 Year Before the Official Primary Entry Age), by Sex
(%)



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.
Note: Latest data available from 2009 to 2016.
Source: Table 2.7.

Click here for figure data

SDG 4: Ensure Inclusive and Equitable Quality Education and Promote Lifelong Learning Opportunities for All

Underlying the global commitment to realizing SDG4 is the recognition that universal attainment of quality education, relevant training, and opportunities for lifelong learning increases everyone's capacities to function well. This in turn, boosts sustained prosperity and inclusive growth.

Participation rate in organized learning (1 year before the official primary entry age), by sex. Seventeen out of 31 economies in Asia and the Pacific have achieved at least 80% participation rates in preschool programs a year before entering the official primary entry age for both sexes—Brunei Darussalam; the Cook Islands; Hong Kong, China; Indonesia; Kazakhstan; Malaysia; Mongolia; Nepal; Palau; the Republic of Korea; Thailand; Tuvalu; Viet Nam; and the developed economies of Australia, Japan, and New Zealand (Table 2.7). However, total participation rates are below 50% in 6 reporting economies—Cambodia, Georgia, the Philippines, Samoa, Tajikistan, and Turkmenistan. In 17 out of 30 economies that provide sex disaggregated information, participation rates in organized learning is greater than 80% for women.

Proportion of trained teachers in preprimary education. The proportion of teachers in preprimary education who have received at least the minimum organized teacher training exceeds 90% in 11 out of 22 member economies with available data. In three economies—the Kyrgyz Republic (46.2%), Myanmar (48.4%), and Vanuatu (46.0%)—the proportion of preprimary teachers who have received at least the minimum organized teacher training is below 50% (Figure 2.12a).

Proportion of trained teachers in primary education. The proportion of teachers in primary education who have received at least the minimum organized teacher training exceeds 90% in 21 out of 32 member economies with available data. In 11 of these economies, all teachers in primary education have received at least the minimum organized teacher training. These include Bhutan, Cambodia, the Cook Islands, Fiji, Kazakhstan, Mongolia, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines, Tajikistan, Thailand, and Uzbekistan. However, in Bangladesh (47.6%), the Kyrgyz Republic (72.0%), Palau (33.7%), Solomon Islands (59.2%), Sri Lanka (71.3%), and Vanuatu (27.9%), less than three-fourths of primary teachers have received at least the minimum organized teacher training (Figure 2.12b).

Proportion of trained teachers in lower secondary education. The proportion of teachers in lower secondary education who have received at least the minimum organized teacher training exceeds 90% in 12 out of 20 member economies with available data. All or nearly all lower secondary teachers in Bhutan, Fiji, Papua New Guinea, as well as the Southeast Asian economies of Cambodia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Thailand, and Viet Nam, have received at least the minimum organized teacher training. However, in Bangladesh (59.6%), Pakistan (61.2%), Palau (59.3%), Sri Lanka (57.3%), and Vanuatu (21.5%), less than three-fifths of lower secondary teachers have received at least the minimum organized teacher training (Figure 2.12c).

Proportion of trained teachers in upper secondary education. The proportion of teachers in upper secondary education who have received at least the minimum organized teacher training exceeds 90% in 10 out of 15 member economies with available data, including Brunei Darussalam (90.1%), Fiji (100.0%), Georgia (94.8%), the Lao People's Democratic Republic (99.0%), Myanmar (95.2%), Nepal (91.6%), Papua New Guinea (100.0%), Samoa (100.0%), Singapore (91.7%), and Thailand (100.0). However, in the Pacific economies of Kirabati (33.6%) and Vanuatu (20.5%), only a third of upper secondary teachers have received at least the minimum organized teacher training (Figure 2.12d).

Figure 2.12: Proportion of Trained Teachers in (a) Preprimary, (b) Primary, (c) Lower Secondary, and (d) Upper Secondary Education
(%)

Figure 2.12a: Proportion of Trained Teachers in Preprimary Education

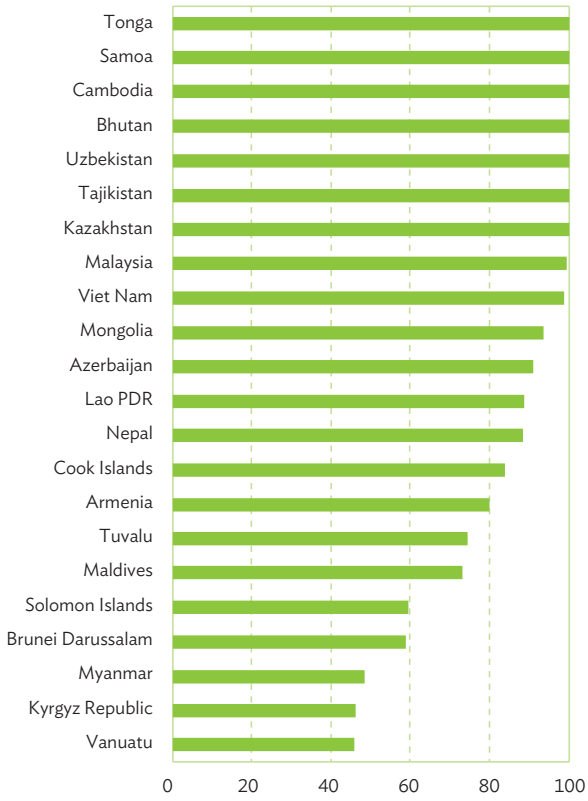


Figure 2.12b Proportion of Trained Teachers in Primary Education

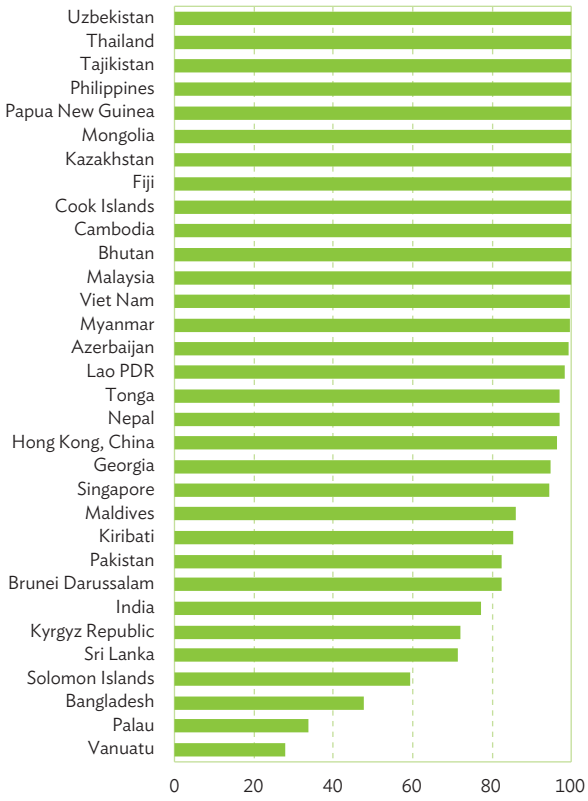


Figure 2.12c: Proportion of Trained Teachers in Lower Secondary Education

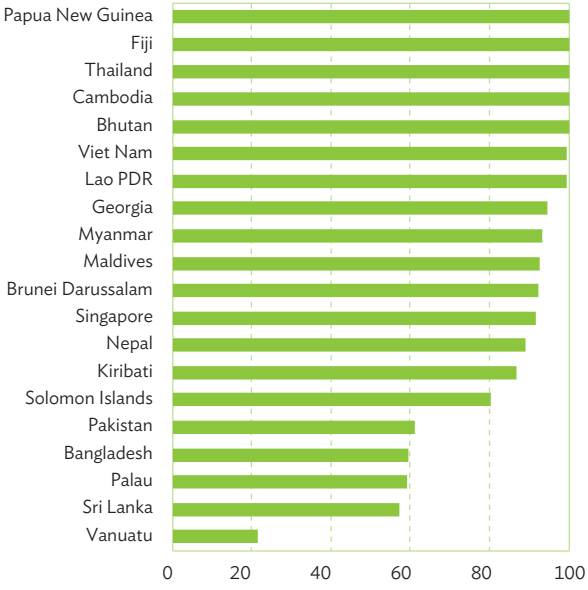
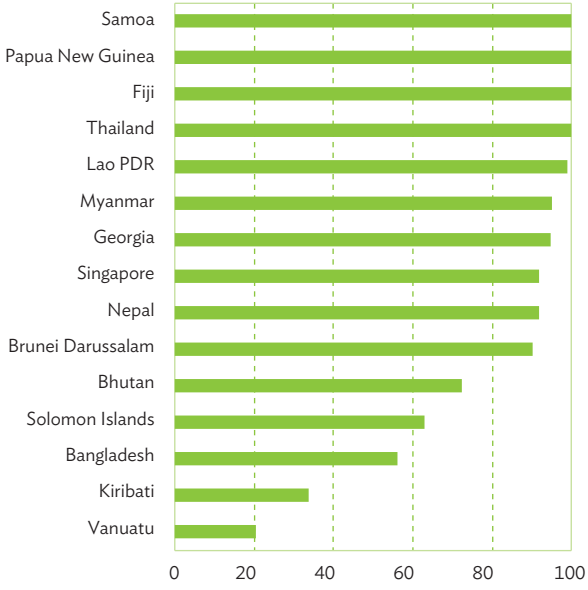


Figure 2.12d: Proportion of Trained Teachers in Upper Secondary Education



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic.
Source: Table 2.8.

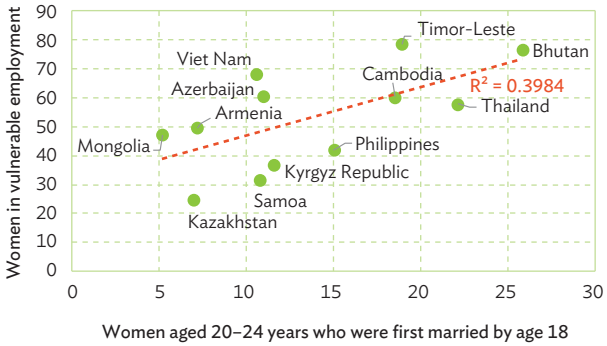
Click here for figure data

SDG 5: Achieve Gender Equality and Empower All Women and Girls

Ensuring that everyone is empowered to reach their full potential requires both men and women to be given equal opportunities in education, paid employment, and real decision-making power. SDG 5 focuses on gender equality, particularly the need to end all forms of discrimination against women and girls.

Proportion of women aged 20–24 years who were married or in a union before age 18. Article 16 of the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* states that marriage before the age of 18 violates human rights. Early child marriage also directly impacts girls' education, health, psychological well-being, as well as the health of their offspring (Nour 2009). The latest data show that in nine out of 24 economies in Asia and the Pacific, more than 20% of women aged 20–24 years were married or in a union before the age of 18. These include Bangladesh (58.6%), Nepal (36.6%), the Lao People's Democratic Republic (35.4%), Afghanistan (34.8%), Bhutan (25.8%), Pakistan (21.0%), Thailand (22.1%), Kiribati (20.3%), and Vanuatu (21.4%). In Armenia, Kazakhstan, Maldives, Mongolia, Tonga, and Turkmenistan, less than 10% of young women were married or in a union before the age of 18. In particular, across 12 economies in Asia and the Pacific for which data are available, the proportion of child marriages is moderately correlated with the proportion of females in vulnerable employment (Figure 2.13).

Figure 2.13: Scattterplot of Proportion of Women Aged 20–24 Years Who were Married or in a Union before Age 18 and Proportion of Females in Vulnerable Employment, Latest Year
(%)



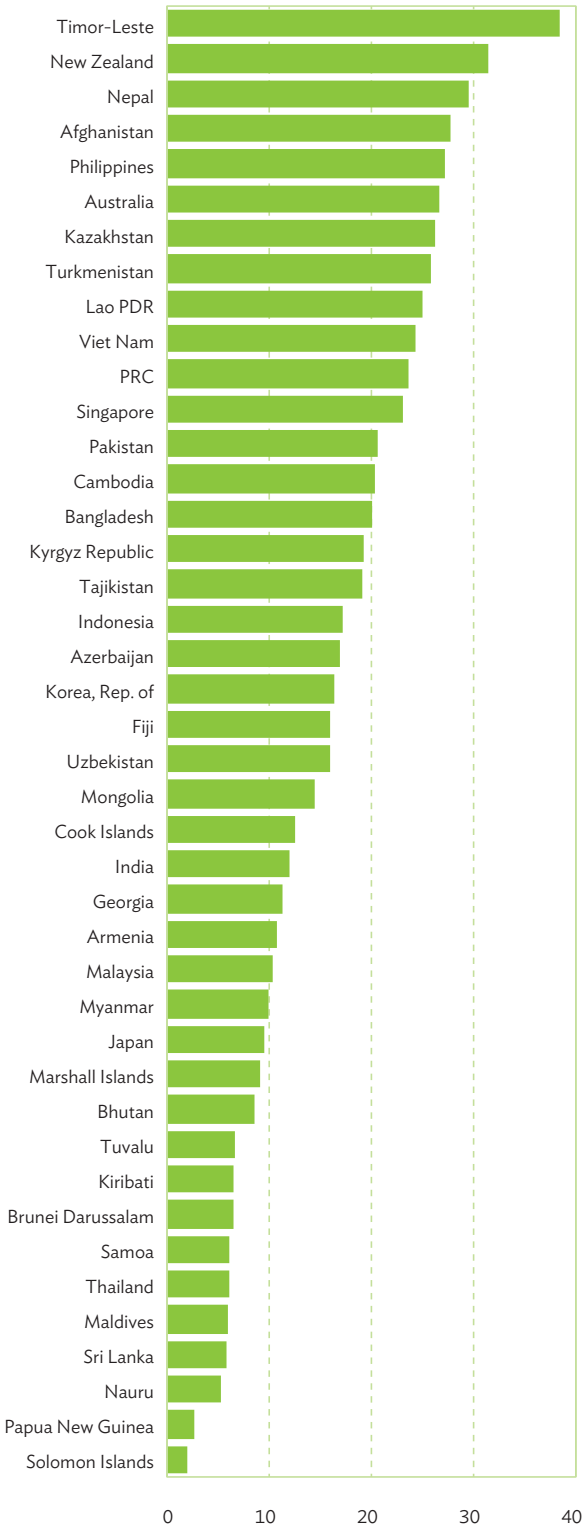
Sources: Table 2.9 and World Bank. World Development Indicators. http://databank.worldbank.org/data/reports.aspx?source=world-development-indicators (accessed 3 August 2017).

Click here for figure data

Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments. An adequate representation of women in parliament increases the chances that interests of women and issues on gender equality will be served. In Asia and the Pacific, significant gaps persist, which do not lend to women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for political leadership. Eighteen out of 46 economies in Asia and the Pacific have 10% or less representation of women in parliament (Figure 2.14). Of these economies, four Pacific economies—the Federated States of Micronesia, Palau, Tonga, and Vanuatu—reported no representation of women. Timor-Leste (38.5%) reported the highest percentage of female parliamentarians in 2016. Meanwhile, almost a third of the regional economies have at least one-fifth of parliamentary seats held by women, but this still stands well below parity, given that women represent roughly 49.0% of the total population in Asia and the Pacific.[5]

[5] Estimated based on available data from the 2017 Revision of World Population Prospects. http://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/ (accessed on 1 August 2017).

Figure 2.14: Proportion of Seats Held by Women in National Parliaments, 2016
(%)

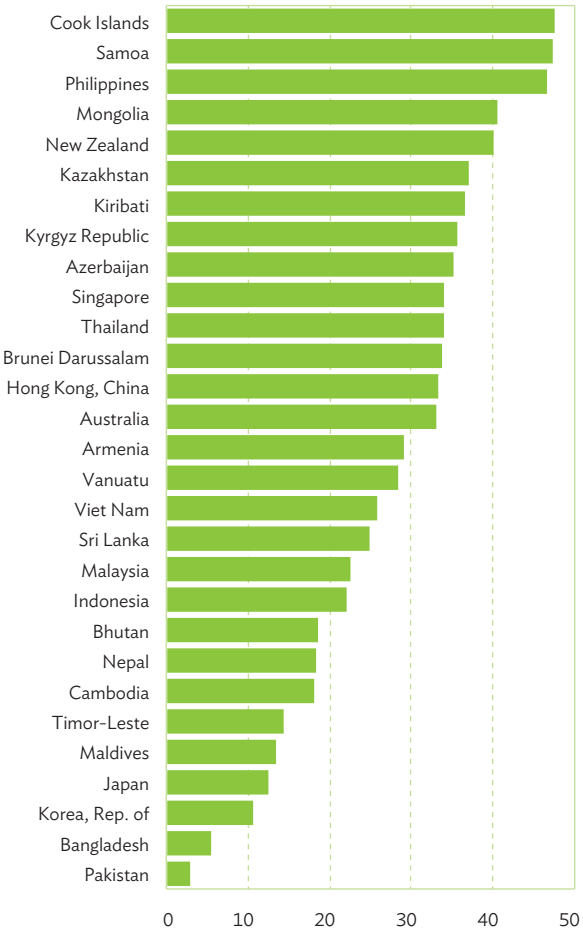


Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC= People's Republic of China.
Note: Data for the Cook Islands refer to 2014.
Source: Table 2.9.

Click here for figure data

Proportion of women in managerial positions. Greater involvement of women in managerial positions, both in public and private enterprises, translates into women's economic empowerment. Among the 29 economies in the region with available data, 12 economies have at least one-third of women in managerial positions (Figure 2.15). Women in the Cook Islands, the Philippines, and Samoa, accounted for almost half the managerial positions in their countries. Meanwhile, women in Bangladesh and the Kyrgyz Republic hold just 5% and 3%, respectively, of managerial jobs.

Figure 2.15: Proportion of Women in Managerial Positions, Latest Year
(%)



Source: Table 2.9.

Click here for figure data

Equity, Data Gaps, and Other Related Issues

While most countries achieved significant poverty reduction in rural compared to urban areas (based on national-level data), the rural population continues to be more at risk of being poor than the urban population. Sex disaggregation is not available for poverty rates using the international poverty line, except for the working population; neither is there any urban–rural breakdown. Poverty data, even based on national poverty lines, is not available for small segments of society, such as ethnic minorities and persons with disability, who may be at more risk of being poor than the average socioeconomic classes. For these cases, data should be collected from sources such as special surveys, administrative reporting systems, or crowdsourcing using innovative techniques. Furthermore, data on living conditions are typically sourced from household surveys that are usually conducted every 3–5 years, whereas more frequent poverty monitoring may be required to examine the effect of interventions, especially in economies that are very vulnerable to factors such as food price crises, armed conflict, and natural disasters.

Some developing economies have proxied sex-disaggregated poverty rates for the entire population through sex of the household head. However, the sex of the household head may not be a useful way of examining gender issues on poverty as the operational definition of the head of the household may be unclear and is often left either to the respondent or the field personnel collecting data to determine. There may be an inherent bias, both from the respondent and field personnel, toward reporting males as the head of the household, leading to lower estimates on the number of households headed by women, thereby rendering analysis on the difference in poverty rates between households headed by men and those headed by women challenging.

The methodology employed by the World Bank to establish the international poverty line and to generate comparable poverty rates with purchasing power parity (PPP) income and consumption data across countries and across time has been consistent. However, the measurement of household income or expenditure and the calculation of 2011 PPPs may have relatively high error margins in some countries as well as nonsampling errors. Even similar surveys may not be strictly comparable across countries due to differences in timing of survey, reference periods, sampling frames, and quality of data collected.

Poor people are exposed to various risks that make them vulnerable to income shocks and worsen their well-being. Conventional monitoring of poverty summarizes or provides a snapshot of people's welfare, but often does not examine movements of people across the socioeconomic ladder across time. Box 2.2 describes intergenerational mobility and why tracking it is important, but this will require longitudinal data on living conditions, which are not regularly conducted.

There are also conceptual challenges with measuring some indicators in SDG 2. For instance, a seemingly easy to measure indicator 2.3.2 (average income of small-scale food producer, disaggregated by sex and indigenous status), there are practical questions regarding its measurement. Should income of food producers be limited to agricultural sources, or also include other sources? Further, how do we define food producers? Should food producers include those engaged in farming, pastoral, and fishing activities, but exclude small industrial firms processing food? Finally, even if we are able to define food producers explicitly, will there be an internationally agreed cut-off for defining what is meant by "small-scale"?

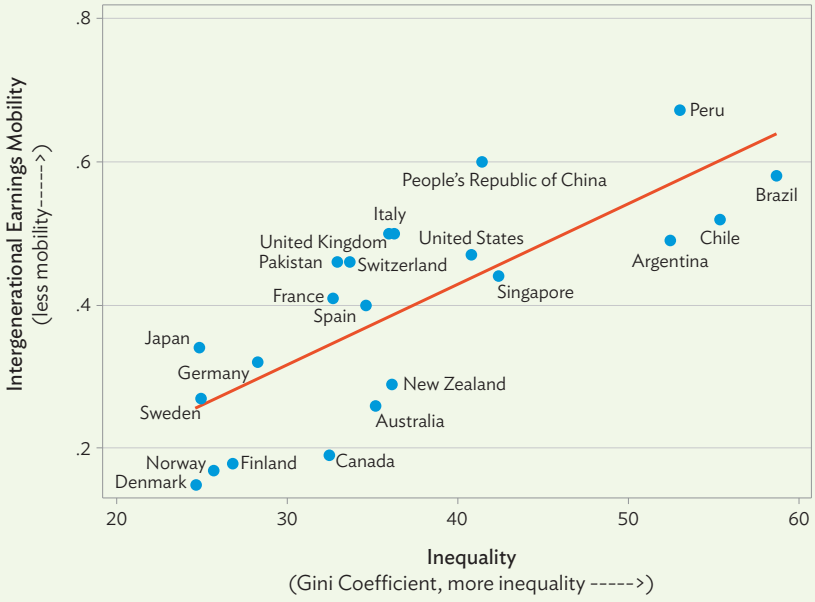
Box 2.2: What is Intergenerational Mobility?

Poverty and inequality are usually presented in official headline statistics as cross-sectional measures. Nonetheless, leading researchers have argued that these measures are not to be regarded as one-off events because of the possibility for some people to either be consistently advantaged or disadvantaged and for others to move in and out of states of advantage and disadvantage over time, corresponding to the concept of socioeconomic mobility. Mobility is generally measured over a life cycle (intragenerational) or across generations (intergenerational).

Intergenerational mobility refers to the up and down movements along the socioeconomic ladder across generations. Higher rates of intergenerational mobility are usually found in fairer societies or those with lower levels of inequality (see Box Figure 2.2.1), as there exist more opportunities for everyone, regardless of family background, to move up and down the ladder. Meanwhile, in unfair societies, the poor tend to persist at the bottom and the rich stay on top because family background is still a major key to opportunities. There are a variety of ways to estimate intergenerational mobility, one of which is a calculation based on the relationship between parents' and children's educational attainment, occupation, or income.

Other than a benchmark for fairness, intergenerational mobility is also a valuable metric for assessing long-term international competitiveness, as it provides a glimpse of how today's younger generation will perform when they become adults. Moreover, there are many reasons why it is valuable to do international comparisons of intergenerational mobility. First, with the world becoming increasingly interconnected with globalization and international competitiveness becoming more vital, greater scrutiny has been made on the degree of intergenerational mobility among countries. Second, while it is important to reduce the intergenerational persistence of socioeconomic advantage, it is also generally recognized that having uncorrelated socioeconomic outcomes across generations is not a desired goal.

Box Figure 2.2.1: The Great Gatsby Curve



Source: Adapted from M. Corak. 2010. Inequality from Generation to Generation. The United States in Comparison. *IZA Discussion Paper.* No. 9929. http://ftp.iza.org/dp9929.pdf

continued.

Box 2.2: *(continued)*

If this were so, there would be no incentive and reason for parents to work hard for a better future for their children, as resources would not enhance their children's long-term prospects in this case. The comparison of intergenerational mobility levels across countries will help in identifying which mobility levels are relatively low and relatively high. As such, the common ground between countries sharing similar mobility regimes can be studied, which can then be fed into public discussion and policy planning.

However, finding the causal link between cross-country differences in intergenerational mobility and corresponding specific policy actions have proven to be tough, given the sparse comparable estimates of intergenerational mobility for many countries. Furthermore a lot of developing countries do not possess the data requirements for estimation, e.g., panel data or retrospective data with information on parent and adult child characteristics.

Nevertheless, initiatives have taken place to address this matter. First, increasingly, countries have begun regularly collecting the necessary and relevant panel data. Second, countries that have been collecting cross-sectional survey data are integrating retrospective data on the educational and occupational backgrounds of adult respondents' parents. Third, to address the lack of panel data, pseudo-panel estimation methods have been developed and are increasingly being used.

While progress in the region toward attaining universal primary education has been impressive, keeping children in primary school and transitioning them into upper levels of basic education continues to be challenging given supply-side and demand-side bottlenecks. Disparities in school participation and learning achievement between boys and girls, between children in rural and urban areas, and between children from poor and nonpoor families persist within economies. Specific interventions will be required to address these learning inequities.

Anthropometric measures of undernutrition (including stunted heights and wasting) as well as overnutrition (such as overweight) reflect the current nutritional status of persons being measured. These measures make use of objective methods of physical measurement of heights and weights with high specificity and sensitivity, in conjunction with ages. Basic measurement data are reproducible, inexpensive, and require minimal training for observing measurement protocols. However, there are errors in measurement and issues about reference standards, i.e., local versus international standards. Further, there are arbitrary statistical cut-off levels for what are considered as anomalous values.

SDG indicators on mortality such as maternal mortality ratio, under-five mortality rate, neonatal mortality rate, mortality rate from the four main noncommunicable diseases, and suicide mortality rate—would ideally be sourced from vital registration systems. However, across many developing economies, these systems do not have full coverage. While there may be more incentives to have births registered, death registration may be incentivized. Further, aside from deaths being underreported, the causes of deaths, whether from death registration systems or medical certifications, may also be misreported. Data on mortality indicators for these economies are therefore usually based on household surveys, but sample surveys have varying reliability (based on sample size) and accuracy.

Data on under-five and neonatal mortality discussed in this report are produced by the United Nations Inter-Agency Group for Child Mortality Estimation based on a standardized methodology and data sourced nationally. These estimates are not necessarily the same as the official data from the countries.

Table 2.1: **Selected Indicators for SDG 1 - No Poverty**

By 2030,eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere, measured as people living below the international poverty line

By 2030, reduce at least by half the proportion of men, women, and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions

Regional Member[a]	1.1.1a Proportion of Population below the International Poverty Line[b] (%)		1.1.1b Proportion of Employed Population below the International Poverty Line[b],by Sex (%)		
			2016		
	2000	2015	Total	Female	Male
Developing Member Economies					
Central and West Asia					
Afghanistan	...	...	82.9	87.2	82.0
Armenia	19.3 (2001)	2.3 (2014)	2.0	2.0	2.1
Azerbaijan	2.7 (2001)	0.5 (2008)	0.6	0.5	0.8
Georgia	21.0	9.8 (2014)	3.8	3.1	4.5
Kazakhstan	10.5 (2001)	0.0 (2013)	1.2	0.7	1.7
Kyrgyz Republic	42.2	1.3 (2014)	3.3	1.7	4.4
Pakistan[c]	28.7 (2001)	6.1 (2013)	7.6	8.7	7.3
Tajikistan	30.8 (2003)	19.5 (2014)	3.0	2.7	3.2
Turkmenistan	...	...	2.9	1.6	3.7
Uzbekistan[d]	68.1	...	4.7	3.2	5.8
East Asia					
China, People's Rep. of	32.0[e] (2002)	1.9[e] (2013)	4.4	4.6	4.3
Hong Kong, China	...	...	–	–	–
Korea, Rep. of[f]	...	...	–	–	–
Mongolia	10.6 (2002)	0.2 (2014)	2.9	3.0	2.9
Taipei,China	...	...	3.1	3.2	3.0
South Asia					
Bangladesh	33.7	18.5 (2010)	63.9	66.2	62.7
Bhutan	35.2 (2003)	2.2 (2012)	4.0	4.3	3.8
India	38.2[e] (2004)	21.2[e] (2011)	12.1	13.3	11.7
Maldives	10.0 (2002)	7.3 (2009)	5.9	6.5	5.4
Nepal	46.1 (2003)	15.0 (2010)	7.7	7.8	7.6
Sri Lanka	8.3 (2002)	1.9 (2012)	4.0	3.8	4.1
Southeast Asia					
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	–	–	–
Cambodia	18.6 (2004)	2.2 (2012)	20.3	20.2	20.5
Indonesia	39.8[e]	8.3[e] (2014)	10.5	10.6	10.4
Lao PDR	26.1 (2002)	16.7 (2012)	46.0	45.6	46.4
Malaysia	0.4 (2004)	0.3 (2009)	2.9	3.1	2.8
Myanmar	...	...	9.7	9.0	10.3
Philippines	18.4	13.1 (2012)	8.6	6.6	9.8
Singapore	...	...	–	–	–
Thailand	2.6	0.0 (2013)	0.1	0.1	0.1
Viet Nam	38.8 (2002)	3.1 (2014)	3.8	4.0	3.7
The Pacific					
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji[c]	5.5 (2002)	4.1 (2008)	4.2	4.8	3.9
Kiribati	14.1 (2006)	...	...	...	...
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	11.4 (2005)	17.4 (2013)	...	...	...
Nauru	...	...	...	...	...
Palau	...	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	...	39.3 (2009)	14.6	13.8	15.4
Samoa	...	0.8 (2008)	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	45.6 (2005)	...	6.8	6.5	7.0
Timor-Leste[n]	44.2 (2001)	...	9.7	9.0	10.1
Tonga	2.8 (2001)	1.1 (2009)	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	2.7 (2010)	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	15.4 (2010)	...	...	...
Developed Member Economies					
Australia	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	...	...	...	...	...

(continued)

Goal 1. End poverty in all its forms everywhere

Table 2.1: **Selected Indicators for SDG 1 - No Poverty** *(continued)*

By 2030,eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere, measured as people living below the international poverty line

By 2030, reduce at least by half the proportion of men, women, and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions

Regional Member[a]	1.2.1 Proportion of Population Living below the National Poverty Line, by Urban–Rural Location (%)					
	2000			2015		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan	36.3 (2007)	28.9 (2007)	38.2 (2007)	39.1 (2013)	...	...
Armenia	53.5 (2004)	...	...	29.8	29.4	30.4
Azerbaijan	49.0 (2001)	...	...	4.9	...	...
Georgia	24.6[c] (2004)	23.0[c] (2004)	26.2[c] (2004)	20.6[c] (2016)	14.5[c] (2016)	26.5[c] (2016)
Kazakhstan	46.7 (2001)	36.0 (2001)	59.4 (2001)	2.6 (2016)	...	...
Kyrgyz Republic	62.6	53.3	67.6	25.4 (2016)	18.6 (2016)	29.0 (2016)
Pakistan	64.3 (2001)	50.0 (2001)	70.2 (2001)	29.5 (2013)	18.2 (2013)	35.6 (2013)
Tajikistan	72.4 (2003)	68.8 (2003)	73.8 (2003)	31.0	...	...
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan[d]	...	...	...	12.8	...	...
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	...	...	49.8	...	...	5.7
Hong Kong, China	...	...	...	...	...	...
Korea, Rep. of[f]	...	...	...	16.0	...	...
Mongolia	36.1 (2002)	30.3 (2002)	42.7 (2002)	21.6 (2014)	18.8 (2014)	27.9 (2014)
Taipei,China	0.7[g]	...	...	1.5[g]	...	...
South Asia						
Bangladesh	48.9	35.2	52.3	31.5 (2010)	21.3 (2010)	35.2 (2010)
Bhutan	23.2 (2007)	1.7 (2007)	30.9 (2007)	12.0 (2012)	1.8 (2012)	16.7 (2012)
India	37.2[h] (2004)	25.7[h] (2004)	41.8[h] (2004)	21.9[h] (2011)	13.7[h] (2011)	25.7[h] (2011)
Maldives	21.0[i] (2002)	...	...	15.7 (2009)	18.2 (2009)	14.3 (2009)
Nepal	30.9 (2003)	9.6 (2003)	34.6 (2003)	25.2 (2010)	15.5 (2010)	27.4 (2010)
Sri Lanka	22.7 (2002)	7.9 (2002)	24.7 (2002)	6.7 (2012)	2.1 (2012)	7.6 (2012)
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	47.8 (2007)	...	53.2 (2007)	14.0 (2014)	...	...
Indonesia	19.1[j]	14.6[j]	22.4[j]	10.9[k] (2016)	7.8[k] (2016)	14.1[k] (2016)
Lao PDR	33.5 (2003)	19.7 (2003)	37.6 (2003)	23.2 (2013)	10.0 (2013)	28.6 (2013)
Malaysia	6.0 (2002)	2.3 (2002)	13.5 (2002)	0.6 (2014)	0.3 (2014)	1.6 (2014)
Myanmar	32.1 (2005)	21.5 (2005)	35.8 (2005)	25.6 (2010)	15.7 (2010)	29.2 (2010)
Philippines	26.6 (2006)	...	...	21.6	...	...
Singapore	...	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand	42.3	22.2	51.4	7.2	...	...
Viet Nam	28.9 (2002)	6.6 (2002)	35.6 (2002)	7.0	2.5	9.2
The Pacific						
Cook Islands	28.4 (2006)	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji[c]	35.0[l] (2002)	28.0[l] (2002)	40.0[l] (2002)	28.1[l] (2013)	19.8[l] (2013)	36.7[l] (2013)
Kiribati	21.8[l] (2006)	...	...	...	...	...
Marshall Islands	52.7[l] (2002)	...	...	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	31.4[l] (2005)	...	...	41.2[l] (2013)	...	...
Nauru	25.1[l] (2005)	...	...	...	...	...
Palau	24.9[l] (2006)	...	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	...	...	...	39.9[m] (2009)	29.3[m] (2009)	41.6[m] (2009)
Samoa	22.9[l] (2002)	...	...	18.8[l] (2013)	...	...
Solomon Islands	22.7[m] (2006)	...	...	12.7[m] (2012)	9.1[m] (2012)	13.6[m] (2012)
Timor-Leste[n]	50.4 (2007)	38.3 2007	54.7 (2007)	41.8 (2014)	28.3 (2014)	47.1 (2014)
Tonga	16.2[l] (2001)	...	...	22.1[l]	...	...
Tuvalu	21.2[l] (2004)	...	...	26.3[l] (2010)	24.8[l] (2010)	27.5[l] (2010)
Vanuatu	13.0[l] (2006)	...	11.5[l] (2006)	12.7[l] (2010)	...	10.0[l] (2010)
Developed Member Economies						
Australia	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	...	...	...	...	...	...

... = data not available at cutoff date, – = magnitude equals zero, 0.0 = magnitude is less than half of unit employed, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

a For indicators 1.1.1a and 1.2.1 and some economies, household income and expenditure surveys were conducted in overlapping years. The table adopts the approach of the World Bank's World Development Indicators of using the initial year of the survey as the reference period for the poverty estimates. This applies to Fiji, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, and Sri Lanka for indicator 1.1.1a; and to Afghanistan, Fiji, India, Maldives, Pakistan, Samoa, Solomon Islands, and Tuvalu for indicator 1.2.1.
b For indicator 1.1.1a, data are consumption-based, except for Malaysia, which are income-based. For indicators 1.1.1a and 1.1.1b, the estimates are based on the international poverty line of $1.90 a day (2011 PPP).
c Refers to relative poverty or the share of population under 60% of the median consumption.
d For indicator 1.1.1a, the latest available data for Uzbekistan is for 2003: 66.8%.
e Weighted average of rural and urban estimates.
f For indicator 1.2.1, the earliest available data for the Republic of Korea is for 2012: 16.5%.
g Refers to percentage of low-income population to total population.
h Based on Tendulkar methodology, using mixed reference period.
i Based on half the median of Atoll expenditure per person per day equivalent to 22 rufiyaa.
j Reference period is February 2000.
k Reference period is March 2016.
l Data refer to percentage of population below the basic needs poverty line.
m Refers to poverty headcount ratio using the upper poverty line.
n For indicator 1.1.1a, the latest data for Timor-Leste is for 2007: 46.8%.

Sources: World Bank. PovcalNet Database. http://iresearch.worldbank.org/PovcalNet/povDuplicateWB.aspx (accessed 17 July 2017); economy sources; United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Database. http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 18 July 2017); World Bank. World Development Indicators. http://databank.worldbank.org/data/reports.aspx?source=world-development-indicators (accessed 15 July 2017); International Labour Organization. ILOSTAT. http://www.ilo.org/ilostat (accessed 30 June 2017).

Table 2.2: **Selected Indicators for SDG 2 - Zero Hunger**

By 2030, end hunger and ensure access by all people, in particular the poor and people in vulnerable situations, including infants, to safe, nutritious and sufficient food all year round

By 2030, end all forms of malnutrition, including achieving, by 2025, the internationally agreed targets on stunting and wasting in children under 5 years of age, and address the nutritional needs of adolescent girls, pregnant and lactating women and older persons

Regional Member	2.1.1 Prevalence of Undernourishment (%)		2.2.1 Prevalence of Stunting among Children under 5 Years of Age[a] (%)	
	2000[b]	2015[c]	2000	2015
Developing Member Economies				
Central and West Asia				
Afghanistan	45.2	26.8	59.3 (2004)	40.9 (2013)
Armenia	21.4	5.8	17.7	9.4 (2016)
Azerbaijan	22.5	<5.0	24.1	18.0 (2013)
Georgia	14.8	7.4	14.7 (2005)	11.3 (2009)
Kazakhstan	<5.0	<5.0	17.5 (2006)	8.0
Kyrgyz Republic	15.2	6.0	18.1 (2006)	12.9 (2014)
Pakistan	22.4	22.0	41.5 (2001)	45.0 (2012)
Tajikistan	38.8	33.2	42.1	26.8 (2012)
Turkmenistan	9.0	<5.0	28.1	11.5
Uzbekistan	11.5	<5.0	25.3 (2002)	...
East Asia				
China, People's Rep. of	16.2	9.3	17.8	9.4 (2010)
Hong Kong, China	...	...	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	<5.0	<5.0	2.5 (2003)	2.5 (2010)
Mongolia	38.2	20.5	29.8	10.8 (2013)
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...
South Asia				
Bangladesh	23.1	16.4	50.8	36.1 (2014)
Bhutan	...	...	34.9 (2008)	33.6 (2010)
India	17.0	15.2	47.9 (2006)	38.4
Maldives	11.8	5.2	31.9 (2001)	20.3 (2009)
Nepal	22.2	7.8	57.1 (2001)	37.4 (2014)
Sri Lanka	29.9	22.0	18.4	14.7 (2012)
Southeast Asia				
Brunei Darussalam	<5.0	<5.0	...	19.7 (2009)
Cambodia	32.0	14.2	49.2	32.4 (2014)
Indonesia	17.2	7.6	42.4	36.4 (2013)
Lao PDR	39.2	18.5	48.2	43.8 (2011)
Malaysia	<5.0	<5.0	17.2 (2006)	17.7
Myanmar	52.4	14.2	40.8	29.2 (2016)
Philippines	21.3	13.5	33.8 (2003)	30.3 (2013)
Singapore	...	...	4.4	...
Thailand	19.0	7.4	15.7 (2006)	16.3 (2012)
Viet Nam	28.1	11.0	43.4	24.6
The Pacific				
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...
Fiji	<5.0	<5.0	7.5 (2004)	...
Kiribati	<5.0	<5.0	...	...
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...	...
Nauru	...	...	24.0 (2007)	...
Palau	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	...	...	43.9 (2005)	49.5 (2010)
Samoa	6.6	<5.0	...	...
Solomon Islands	15.0	11.3	32.8 (2007)	...
Timor-Leste	43.9	26.9	55.7 (2002)	50.2 (2013)
Tonga	...	...	...	8.1 (2012)
Tuvalu	...	...	10.0 (2007)	...
Vanuatu	8.1	6.4	25.9 (2007)	28.5 (2013)
Developed Member Economies				
Australia	<5.0	<5.0	2.0 (2007)	...
Japan	<5.0	<5.0	...	7.1 (2010)
New Zealand	<5.0	<5.0	...	...

(continued)

Table 2.2: **Selected Indicators for SDG 2 - Zero Hunger** *(continued)*

Regional Member	2.2.2.a Prevalence of Malnutrition (Wasting) among Children under 5 Years of Age[a] (%)		2.2.2.b Prevalence of Malnutrition (Overweight) among Children under 5 Years of Age[a] (%)	
	2000	2015	2000	2015
Developing Member Economies				
Central and West Asia				
Afghanistan	8.6 (2004)	9.5 (2013)	4.6 (2004)	5.4 (2013)
Armenia	2.5	4.2 (2016)	16.0	13.6 (2016)
Azerbaijan	9.0	3.1 (2013)	6.2	13.0 (2013)
Georgia	3.0 (2005)	1.6 (2009)	21.0 (2005)	19.9 (2009)
Kazakhstan	4.9 (2006)	3.1	16.9 (2006)	9.3 (2016)
Kyrgyz Republic	3.4 (2006)	2.8 (2014)	10.7 (2006)	7.0 (2014)
Pakistan	14.2 (2001)	10.5 (2012)	4.8 (2001)	4.8 (2012)
Tajikistan	9.4	9.9 (2012)	6.7 (2005)	6.6 (2012)
Turkmenistan	7.1	4.2	4.5 (2006)	5.9
Uzbekistan	8.9 (2002)	...	11.1 (2002)	...
East Asia				
China, People's Rep. of	2.5	2.3 (2010)	3.4	6.6 (2010)
Hong Kong, China	...	...	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	0.9 (2003)	1.2 (2010)	6.2 (2003)	7.3 (2010)
Mongolia	7.1	1.0 (2013)	12.7	10.5 (2013)
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...
South Asia				
Bangladesh	12.5	14.3 (2014)	0.9	1.4 (2014)
Bhutan	4.7 (2008)	5.9 (2010)	4.4 (2008)	7.6 (2010)
India	20.0 (2006)	21.0	1.9 (2006)	...
Maldives	13.4 (2001)	10.2 (2009)	3.9 (2001)	6.5 (2009)
Nepal	11.3	11.3 (2014)	0.7 (2001)	2.1 (2014)
Sri Lanka	15.5	21.4 (2012)	1.0	0.6 (2012)
Southeast Asia				
Brunei Darussalam	...	2.9 (2009)	...	8.3 (2009)
Cambodia	16.9	9.6 (2014)	4.0	2.0 (2014)
Indonesia	5.5	13.5 (2013)	1.5	11.5 (2013)
Lao PDR	17.5	6.4 (2011)	2.7	2.0 (2011)
Malaysia	...	8.0	...	7.1
Myanmar	10.7	7.0 (2016)	2.4	1.3 (2016)
Philippines	6.0 (2003)	7.9 (2013)	2.4 (2003)	5.0 (2013)
Singapore	3.6	...	2.6	...
Thailand	4.7 (2006)	6.7 (2012)	8.0 (2006)	10.9 (2012)
Viet Nam	6.1	6.4	2.5	5.3
The Pacific				
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...
Fiji	6.3 (2004)	...	5.1 (2004)	...
Kiribati	...	...	...	...
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...	...
Nauru	1.0 (2007)	...	2.8 (2007)	...
Palau	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	4.4 (2005)	14.3 (2010)	3.4 (2005)	13.8 (2010)
Samoa	...	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	4.3 (2007)	...	2.5 (2007)	...
Timor-Leste	13.7 (2002)	11.0 (2013)	5.7 (2002)	1.5 (2013)
Tonga	...	5.2 (2012)	...	17.3 (2012)
Tuvalu	3.3 (2007)	...	6.3 (2007)	...
Vanuatu	5.9 (2007)	4.4 (2013)	4.7 (2007)	4.6 (2013)
Developed Member Economies				
Australia	– (2007)	...	7.7 (2007)	...
Japan	...	2.3 (2010)	...	1.5 (2010)
New Zealand	...	...	...	...

... = data not available at cutoff date, – = magnitude equals zero, 0.0 = magnitude is less than half of unit employed, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

a According to the World Health Organization, for some economies, the estimates were adjusted where necessary to be nationally representative and to cover the age range 0–5 years, which might result in slight differences in prevalence from the survey results reported. Estimates for some economies are also "pending reanalysis." Details can be found in the "Notes" column of the *Joint Child Malnutrition Estimates – 2017 Edition*.
b Data refer to 3-year average for 1999–2001.
c Data refer to 3-year average for 2014–2016.

Sources: United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Database. http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 18 July 2017); Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. FAOSTAT. http://www.fao.org/economic/ess/ess-fs/ess-fadata/en/#.WXG4D2dlK71 (accessed 26 June 2017); UNICEF. *Joint Child Malnutrition Estimates – 2017 Edition*. http://data.unicef.org/resources/joint-child-malnutrition-estimates-2017-edition/ (accessed 26 June 2017).

Table 2.3: **Selected Indicators for SDG 2 - Improved Agricultural Investment**
Increase investment, including through enhanced international cooperation, in rural infrastructure, agricultural research and extension services, technology development and plant and livestock gene banks in order to enhance agricultural productive capacity in developing countries, in particular least developed countries

Regional Member	2.a.1 The Agriculture Orientation Index for Government Expenditures		2.a.2 Total Official Flows (Official Development Assistance Plus Other Official Flows) to the Agriculture Sector[a]	
	2001	2015	2000	2015
Developing Member Economies				
Central and West Asia				
Afghanistan	0.1 (2003)	0.2 (2013)	4.2	328.1
Armenia	...	0.1	14.5	36.6
Azerbaijan	...	0.5 (2014)	71.9	51.2
Georgia	0.1 (2003)	0.3	35.4	41.3
Kazakhstan	0.6 (2005)	0.6	3.7	65.2
Kyrgyz Republic	0.1	0.1 (2011)	79.0	24.0
Pakistan	0.0	0.0	60.0	291.7
Tajikistan	...	...	22.5	33.3
Turkmenistan	...	...	0.0	0.1
Uzbekistan	...	0.5 (2014)	0.2	68.8
East Asia				
China, People's Rep. of	0.3 (2007)	0.3 (2014)	310.1	386.4
Hong Kong, China	...	...	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	1.5	1.7 (2014)	...	...
Mongolia	0.2	0.1	4.1	17.5
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...
South Asia				
Bangladesh	0.2	0.7 (2013)	341.2	249.4
Bhutan	0.3	0.7	5.4	6.6
India	0.2	0.4 (2013)	221.9	1,048.5
Maldives	0.2	0.2 (2011)	0.0	0.6
Nepal	0.2 (2002)	0.4	74.7	101.0
Sri Lanka	0.2	0.6	50.0	33.6
Southeast Asia				
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	...	...	153.4	111.0
Indonesia	0.2 (2004)	0.1 (2013)	204.5	218.3
Lao PDR	...	...	26.8	66.1
Malaysia	0.4	0.3	8.1	4.6
Myanmar	...	...	1.9	142.3
Philippines	0.3	0.4	338.8	110.0
Singapore	1.9	7.6	...	...
Thailand	0.9	0.7	26.9	7.3
Viet Nam	0.1 (2006)	0.2 (2014)	102.0	236.7
The Pacific				
Cook Islands	...	...	0.0	0.3
Fiji	0.3 (2005)	0.3	1.0	19.7
Kiribati	...	...	7.1	2.5
Marshall Islands	...	0.1 (2014)	3.0	1.4
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	0.2 (2014)	8.8	1.8
Nauru	...	...	0.2 (2003)	0.4
Palau	...	0.1 (2014)	0.2	0.7
Papua New Guinea	...	...	55.8	29.0
Samoa	...	0.4	2.5	3.8
Solomon Islands	...	0.1 (2014)	3.3	12.2
Timor-Leste	...	0.6	8.2	23.9
Tonga	...	...	0.2	1.8
Tuvalu	...	...	6.6 (2001)	2.1
Vanuatu	0.1 (2005)	0.2 (2012)	3.7	3.7
Developed Member Economies				
Australia	0.2	0.2	...	...
Japan	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	0.3 (2004)	...	...	...

... = data not available at cutoff date; 0.0 = magnitude is less than half of unit employed, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

a Data refer to gross disbursements (constant 2015 $ million).

Sources: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data/EA (accessed 6 June 2017); United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Database. http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 18 July 2017).

Goal 3. Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages

Table 2.4: **Selected Indicators for SDG 3 - Maternal and Child Health**

By 2030, reduce the global maternal mortality ratio to less than 70 per 100,000 live births

By 2030, end preventable deaths of newborns and children under 5 years of age, with all countries aiming to reduce neonatal mortality to at least as low as 12 per 1,000 live births and under-5 mortality to at least as low as 25 per 1,000 live births

Regional Member	3.1.1 Maternal Mortality Ratio (per 100,000 live births)[a]		3.1.2 Proportion of Births Attended by Skilled Health Personnel (%)[b]		3.2.1 Under-5 Mortality Rate (per 1,000 live births)[a]		3.2.2 Neonatal Mortality Rate (per 1,000 live births)[a]	
	2000	2015	2000	2015	2000	2015	2000	2015
Developing Member Economies								
Central and West Asia	**366**	**174**			**106**	**71**	**52**	**37**
Afghanistan	1100	396	14.3[c] (2003)	50.5[e]	137	91	45	36
Armenia	40	25	96.8[c]	99.8[e] (2016)	30	14	16	7
Azerbaijan	48	25	80.7[c]	99.9[e] (2014)	74	32	33	18
Georgia	37	36	95.5[e]	99.9[c] (2014)	36	12	21	7
Kazakhstan	65	12	98.3[e]	100.0[e] (2014)	44	14	20	7
Kyrgyz Republic	74	76	98.6[e]	98.4[c] (2014)	49	21	22	12
Pakistan	306	178	23.0[c] (2002)	52.1[d] (2013)	112	81	60	46
Tajikistan	68	32	70.7[c]	90.3[e] (2014)	93	45	30	21
Turkmenistan	59	42	97.2[c]	...	82	51	31	23
Uzbekistan	34	36	94.9[c]	100.0[e] (2014)	63	39	29	20
East Asia	**57**	**27**			**36**	**11**	**21**	**5**
China, People's Rep. of	58	27	96.6[e]	99.9[e] (2014)	37	11	21	6
Hong Kong, China	6	2	...	...	...	...	2[g]	1[g] (2012)
Korea, Rep. of	16	11	99.9[f]	100.0[f]	6	3	2	2
Mongolia	161	44	96.6[d]	98.9[c] (2013)	63	22	26	11
Taipei,China	8	12	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Asia	**377**	**174**			**90**	**46**	**44**	**27**
Bangladesh	399	176	12.1[d]	42.1[d] (2014)	88	38	43	23
Bhutan	423	148	23.7[e]	81.0[e] (2012)	80	33	33	18
India	374	174	42.5[c]	81.4[c] (2014)	91	48	45	28
Maldives	163	68	84.0[c] (2004)	95.5[c] (2012)	44	9	26	5
Nepal	548	258	11.9[e]	55.6[e] (2014)	81	36	39	22
Sri Lanka	57	30	96.0[e]	...	16	10	10	5
Southeast Asia	**200**	**110**			**49**	**27**	**21**	**13**
Brunei Darussalam	31	23	99.5[e]	100.0[e]	9	10	5	4
Cambodia	484	161	31.8[c]	89.0[d] (2014)	108	29	36	15
Indonesia	265	126	66.3[e] (2003)	87.4[c] (2013)	52	27	22	14
Lao PDR	546	197	16.7[c]	40.1[c] (2012)	118	67	43	30
Malaysia	58	40	96.6[e]	99.0[e] (2014)	10	7	5	4
Myanmar	308	178	57.0[c] (2001)	60.2[d] (2016)	82	50	37	26
Philippines	124	114	58.0[c]	72.8[c] (2013)	40	28	17	13
Singapore	18	10	99.7[f]	99.6[f]	4	3	2	1
Thailand	25	20	99.3[e]	99.6[d] (2012)	23	12	13	7
Viet Nam	81	54	58.8[c]	93.8[c] (2014)	34	22	16	11
The Pacific	**346**	**192**			**73**	**51**	**28**	**22**
Cook Islands	...	...	98.0[d]	100.0[e] (2009)	17	8	9	4
Fiji	42	30	96.9[c]	99.7[e] (2013)	25	22	14	10
Kiribati	166	90	85.0[d]	98.3[e] (2010)	71	56	29	24
Marshall Islands	...	...	86.2[c] (2007)	90.1[c] (2011)	41	36	19	17
Micronesia, Fed. States of	153	100	82.8[c]	100.0[e] (2009)	54	35	26	19
Nauru	...	...	97.4[d] (2007)	...	41	35	25	23
Palau	...	...	100.0[e]	100.0[c]	27	16	15	9
Papua New Guinea	342	215	39.0[e] (2004)	...	79	57	30	25
Samoa	93	51	80.0[d]	82.5[d] (2014)	22	18	12	10
Solomon Islands	214	114	85.5[d] (2007)	...	33	28	14	12
Timor-Leste	694	215	24.0[d] (2002)	29.3[c] (2010)	110	53	37	22
Tonga	97	124	95.0[d]	95.5[c] (2012)	18	17	8	7
Tuvalu	...	...	100.0[d]	...	43	27	25	18
Vanuatu	144	78	88.0[d]	89.4[d] (2013)	29	28	12	12
Developed Member Economies	**10**	**5**			**5**	**3**	**2**	**1**
Australia	9	6	99.3[f]	99.3[f] (2013)	6	4	4	2
Japan	10	5	99.8[f]	99.8[f] (2014)	5	3	2	1
New Zealand	12	11	97.3[f]	96.6[f] (2014)	7	6	4	3
DEVELOPING MEMBER ECONOMIES	**269**	**126**			**71**	**36**	**35**	**20**
REGIONAL MEMBERS	**264**	**123**			**70**	**36**	**35**	**20**
WORLD	**385**	**216**			**76**	**43**	**31**	**19**

... = data not available at cutoff date, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

a Regional aggregates are weighted averages estimated using population of annual live births for the respective year headings. The data for maternal, under-five, and neonatal deaths are from UNICEF Global databases. Aggregates are derived for reporting economies only. For maternal mortality ratio, aggregates for East Asia exclude Hong Kong, China and Taipei,China.
b Based on population-based national household survey data and routine health systems.
c Estimates are aligned with the standard definition of doctor, nurse, and/or midwife.
d Includes other health personnel not in alignment with the standard definition.
e No clear definition of health personnel.
f Institutional birth including all deliveries that occurred at a health facility.
g Calculated based on known births and deaths.

Sources: For indicator 3.1.1: World Health Organization. *Trends in Maternal Mortality: 1990 to 2015 Estimates by WHO, UNICEF, UNFPA, World Bank Group and the United Nations Population Division*; for Hong Kong, China: Centre for Health Protection. http://www.chp.gov.hk/en/data/4/10/27/110.html (accessed 30 June 2017), and Department of Health. *Annual Report 2012/2013*. Supplementary Tables. http://www.dh.gov.hk/english/pub_rec/pub_rec_ar/pub_rec_arpis_1213_html.html; for Taipei,China: Directorate-General of Budget, Accounting, and Statistics. http://eng.dgbas.gov.tw/public/data/dgbas03/bs2/yearbook_eng/y066.pdf (accessed 29 June 2017); for Indicator 3.1.2: UNICEF and WHO. Database 2016 of Skilled Health Personnel. https://data.unicef.org/topic/maternal-health/delivery-care/ (accessed 30 June 2017); for Indicators 3.2.1 and 3.2.2: United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund. Global Databases. http://www.data.unicef.org (accessed 30 June 2017); for Hong Kong, China: Department of Health. Annual Report 2012/2013. Supplementary Tables. http://www.dh.gov.hk/english/pub_rec/pub_rec_ar/pub_rec_arpis_1213_html.html (accessed 29 June 2017).

Table 2.5: **Selected Indicators for SDG 3 - Incidence of Communicable Diseases, Death Rate, and Adolescent Birth Rate**

By 2030, end the epidemics of AIDS, tuberculosis, malaria and neglected tropical diseases and combat hepatitis, water-borne diseases, and other communicable diseases

By 2030, reduce by one-third premature mortality from noncommunicable diseases through prevention and treatment and promote mental health and well-being

Strengthen the prevention and treatment of substance abuse, including narcotic drug abuse, and harmful use of alcohol

By 2020, halve the number of global deaths and injuries from road traffic accidents

By 2030, ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health care services, including for family planning, information and education, and the integration of reproductive health into national strategies and programs

By 2030, substantially reduce the number of deaths and illnesses from hazardous chemicals and air, water and soil pollution and contamination

Substantially increase health financing and the recruitment, development, training and retention of the health workforce in developing countries, especially in least developed countries and small island developing states

Regional Member	3.3.1 Number of New HIV Infections (per 1,000 uninfected population)		3.3.2 Tuberculosis Incidence (per 100,000 population)		3.3.3 Malaria Incidence (per 1,000 population)		3.4.1 Mortality Rate Attributed to Cardiovascular Disease, Cancer, Diabetes, or Chronic Respiratory Disease (%)	
	2000	2015	2000	2015	2000	2015	2000	2015
Developing Member Economies								
Central and West Asia								
Afghanistan	0.02	0.03	190.0	189.0	107.1	23.6	34.2	31.0
Armenia	0.12	0.14	61.0	41.0	...	...	27.0	23.2
Azerbaijan	0.05	0.12	681.0	69.0	17.9	–	29.8	23.8
Georgia	0.07	0.28	254.0	99.0	11.3	–	24.4	22.2
Kazakhstan	0.06	0.21	177.0	89.0	...	...	40.9	28.6
Kyrgyz Republic	0.05	0.16	244.0	144.0	6.7	–	31.4	24.0
Pakistan	0.01	0.09	275.0	270.0	44.8	8.6	24.8	24.7
Tajikistan	0.17	0.19	219.0	87.0	18.3	–	30.6	25.8
Turkmenistan	...	...	208.0	70.0	...	...	34.7	34.5
Uzbekistan	0.32	0.01	99.0	79.0	5.6	–	29.8	26.9
East Asia								
China, People's Rep. of	...	...	109.0	67.0	0.1	–	22.6	18.1
Hong Kong, China	...	...	102.0	71.0	...	...	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	...	...	50.0	80.0	2.8	0.8	16.5	8.3
Mongolia	–	0.02	428.0	428.0	...	...	38.2	29.9
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Asia								
Bangladesh	–	0.01	225.0	225.0	12.5	0.8	22.9	21.5
Bhutan	...	...	253.0	155.0	26.4	0.1	30.3	23.1
India	...	...	289.0	217.0	42.7	18.6	26.7	23.4
Maldives	...	...	59.0	53.0	...	...	21.2	12.4
Nepal	0.32	0.05	163.0	156.0	18.3	3.3	27.1	21.8
Sri Lanka	0.01	0.03	66.0	65.0	107.0	–	21.8	17.7
Southeast Asia								
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	107.0	58.0	...	...	21.1	12.6
Cambodia	0.82	0.05	575.0	380.0	207.0	13.0	26.3	23.3
Indonesia	0.07	0.29	449.0	395.0	99.1	26.1	26.9	26.6
Lao PDR	...	...	330.0	182.0	77.5	20.9	30.4	25.8
Malaysia	0.55	0.17	74.0	89.0	16.3	1.9	20.1	17.1
Myanmar	0.84	0.24	411.0	365.0	78.3	11.8	23.9	24.5
Philippines	0.01	0.06	368.0	322.0	4.3	0.4	27.9	28.6
Singapore	...	...	51.0	44.0	...	...	16.7	10.2
Thailand	0.52	0.11	241.0	172.0	11.9	2.7	19.5	16.2
Viet Nam	0.34	0.16	197.0	137.0	6.4	0.3	18.7	17.3
The Pacific								
Cook Islands	...	...	6.5	7.8	...	...	...	...
Fiji	...	...	22.0	51.0	...	...	35.8	31.4
Kiribati	...	...	373.0	551.0	...	...	30.5	28.2
Marshall Islands	...	...	81.0	344.0	...	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	106.0	124.0	...	...	27.4	25.9
Nauru	...	...	46.0	113.0	...	...	...	...
Palau	...	...	65.0	76.0	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	0.87	0.36	432.0	432.0	270.3	122.2	38.5	36.1
Samoa	...	...	28.0	11.0	...	...	29.2	22.1
Solomon Islands	...	...	92.0	89.0	475.7	67.0	28.6	26.4
Timor-Leste	...	...	498.0 (2002)	498.0	482.6	0.2	26.3	20.7
Tonga	...	...	28.0	15.0	...	...	27.0	24.1
Tuvalu	...	...	195.0	232.0	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	110.0	63.0	135.0	3.3	26.5	22.3
Developed Member Economies								
Australia	0.05	0.05	6.3	6.0	...	...	13.0	8.9
Japan	...	...	36.0	17.0	...	...	11.4	8.8
New Zealand	...	...	10.0	7.4	...	...	15.9	10.4

(continued)

Table 2.5: **Selected Indicators for SDG 3 - Incidence of Communicable Diseases, Death Rate, and Adolescent Birth Rate** *(continued)*

Regional Member	3.6.1 Death Rate due to Road Traffic Injuries (per 100,000 population)		3.7.2 Adolescent Birthrate (Aged 15–19 Years) per 1,000 Women in That Age Group		3.9.1 Mortality Rate Attributed to Household and Ambient Air Pollution (per 100,000 population)	3.9.2 Mortality Rate Attributed to Unsafe Water, Unsafe Sanitation and Lack of Hygiene (exposure to unsafe Water, Sanitation and Hygiene for All (WASH) services) (per 100,000 population)
	2000	2013	2000	2014	2012	2012
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan	15.7	15.5	...	...	114.8	34.6
Armenia	20.6	18.3	30.0 (2004)	22.7 (2013)	93.2	1.1
Azerbaijan	7.9	10.0	38.0	54.3 (2015)	47.0	2.1
Georgia	10.5	11.8	48.0 (2004)	46.5	204.9	0.2
Kazakhstan	14.1	24.2	33.0	31.0 (2015)	90.0	1.2
Kyrgyz Republic	12.0	22.0	34.7	65.0 (2013)	87.1	1.8
Pakistan	14.8	14.2	...	...	87.2	20.7
Tajikistan	19.7	18.8	37.3	54.0 (2011)	92.0	7.5
Turkmenistan	18.0	17.4	26.1	...	70.9	5.8
Uzbekistan	9.7	11.2	25.5 (2006)	29.5 (2010)	76.5	2.4
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	18.0	18.8	8.0	5.9 (2010)	161.1	0.4
Hong Kong, China	...	...	5.0	3.0	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	26.4	12.0	2.6	1.6	23.2	0.2
Mongolia	18.7	21.0	...	...	132.4	3.1
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Asia						
Bangladesh	14.3	13.6	...	...	68.6	6.0
Bhutan	16.5	15.1	61.7	28.4 (2012)	58.9	7.1
India	16.3	16.6	...	...	133.7	27.4
Maldives	2.9	3.5	...	...	15.3	0.6
Nepal	16.9	17.0	...	...	103.2	12.9
Sri Lanka	18.3	17.4	...	...	125.4	3.3
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam	16.3	8.1	31.8	11.4	0.2	0.1
Cambodia	17.8	17.4	47.0 (2004)	57.0 (2013)	71.4	5.6
Indonesia	15.2	15.3	54.0	48.0 (2010)	85.0	3.6
Lao PDR	14.0	14.3	...	...	108.3	13.9
Malaysia	26.6	24.0	15.3 (2001)	12.7 (2012)	21.6	0.4
Myanmar	21.8	20.3	...	...	128.2	10.4
Philippines	9.9	10.5	55.0 (2001)	57.0 (2012)	88.7	5.1
Singapore	6.7	3.6	8.0 (2002)	2.7 (2015)	20.7	0.1
Thailand	37.7	36.2	...	...	64.0	1.9
Viet Nam	23.6	24.5	...	...	83.2	2.0
The Pacific						
Cook Islands	5.6	24.2	...	...	...	...
Fiji	9.6	5.8	34.8 (2002)	27.5 (2008)	95.1	3.0
Kiribati	8.5	2.9	42.0	49.9 (2010)	0.0	15.9
Marshall Islands	17.3	5.7	127.0 (2005)	82.2 (2011)	...	7.6
Micronesia, Fed. States of	16.8	1.9	57.9	...	0.1	9.7
Nauru	19.9	19.9	...	...	...	...
Palau	15.6	4.8	...	...	...	4.8
Papua New Guinea	17.3	16.8	...	...	46.3	12.4
Samoa	16.6	15.8	...	...	...	3.7
Solomon Islands	18.7	19.2	82.0	62.0 (2008)	54.3	10.4
Timor-Leste	17.1	16.6	78.3 (2001)	50.0 (2010)	91.6	10.3
Tonga	15.3	7.6	...	...	...	4.8
Tuvalu	21.2	20.3	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	15.7	16.6	...	78.0 (2011)	0.9	7.3
Developed Member Economies						
Australia	9.5	5.4	17.8	12.6	0.4	0.0
Japan	12.3	4.7	5.1 (2005)	4.4	24.2	0.1
New Zealand	12.1	6.0	27.9	19.0 (2015)	0.5	0.6

... = data not available at cutoff date, – = magnitude equals zero, 0.0 = magnitude is less than half of unit employed, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

Sources: United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Database. http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 18 July 2017); World Health Organization. http://www.who.int/tb/country/data/download/en/ (accessed 20 July 2017); http://www.who.int/violence_injury_prevention/road_safety_status/2015/GSRRS2015_data/en/ (accessed 21 July 2017); http://apps.who.int/gho/data/view.main.GSWCAH37v (accessed 22 July 2017); http://apps.who.int/gho/data/node.main.INADEQUATEWSH?lang=en (accessed 23 July 2017).

Table 2.6: **Selected Indicators for SDG 4 - Proficiency in Reading and Mathematics**
By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable, and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes

Regional Member	4.1.1.a Proportion of Children and Young People at the End of Primary Achieving at Least a Minimum Proficiency Level in Mathematics (%)	4.1.1.b Proportion of Children and Young People at the End of Primary Achieving at Least a Minimum Proficiency Level in Reading (%)	4.1.1.c Proportion of Children and Young People at the End of Lower Secondary Achieving at Least a Minimum Proficiency Level in Mathematics (%)	4.1.1.d Proportion of Children and Young People at the End of Lower Secondary Achieving at Least a Minimum Proficiency Level in Reading (%)
	2011	2011	2015	2015
Developing Member Economies				
Central and West Asia				
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...
Armenia	71.5	...	76.4 (2011)	...
Azerbaijan	71.5	81.9	...	...
Georgia	72.8	86.5	42.9	48.3
Kazakhstan	88.0	...	90.8	42.9 (2012)
Kyrgyz Republic	...	...	...	...
Pakistan	...	...	...	...
Tajikistan	...	...	...	...
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	...	...	...	...
East Asia				
China, People's Rep. of	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong, China	99.2	99.2	91.0	90.7
Korea, Rep. of	99.6	...	84.5	86.3
Mongolia	...	...	...	...
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...
South Asia				
Bangladesh	...	...	...	...
Bhutan	...	...	...	...
India	...	...	...	...
Maldives	...	...	...	...
Nepal	...	...	...	...
Sri Lanka	...	...	...	...
Southeast Asia				
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	92.8	94.0	...	...
Indonesia	...	66.2	31.4	44.6
Lao PDR	...	...	...	...
Malaysia	...	...	75.8	47.3 (2012)
Myanmar	...	...	...	...
Philippines	...	...	...	...
Singapore	98.8	96.7	98.9	90.1 (2012)
Thailand	77.3	...	46.2	50.0
Viet Nam	100.0	100.0	80.9	86.2
The Pacific				
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...
Fiji	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	...	...	...	...
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...	...
Nauru	...	...	...	...
Palau	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	...	...	...	...
Samoa	...	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	86.7 (2013)	62.2 (2013)	...	...
Timor-Leste	...	...	...	...
Tonga	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	...	...
Developed Member Economies				
Australia	95.2 (2014)	94.9 (2014)	78.0	81.9
Japan	99.0	...	89.3	87.1
New Zealand	85.2	91.7	78.4	82.7

... = data not available at cutoff date, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

Sources: United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Database. https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 18 July 2017); United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization Institute for Statistics. http://uis.unesco.org/ (accessed 27 July 2017).

Table 2.7: **Selected Indicators for SDG 4 - Early Childhood Education**
By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care, and preprimary education so that they are ready for primary education

Regional Member	4.2.2 Participation Rate in Organized Learning (1 year before the official primary entry age)[a,b] (%)					
	2000			2015		
	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Armenia	...	...	...	...	...	...
Azerbaijan	15.8	16.1	15.6	27.6	28.0	27.3
Georgia	50.0 (2004)	53.3 (2004)	47.0 (2004)	...	...	...
Kazakhstan	...	...	...	90.7 (2016)	94.6 (2016)	87.1 (2016)
Kyrgyz Republic	42.1	42.9	41.3	69.2	70.5	68.0
Pakistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tajikistan	...	...	...	14.9 (2016)	14.0 (2016)	15.7 (2016)
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	...	...	...	31.1 (2016)	31.1 (2016)	31.2 (2016)
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong, China	99.9 (2007)	99.8 (2007)	100.0 (2007)	99.2 (2011)	98.3 (2011)	100.0 (2011)
Korea, Rep. of	50.3 (2005)	51.0 (2005)	49.8 (2005)	90.3	90.1	90.5
Mongolia	96.5 (2007)	100.0 (2007)	93.1 (2007)	89.4 (2012)	89.3 (2012)	89.4 (2012)
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Asia						
Bangladesh	...	...	...	59.9 (2011)	59.6 (2011)	60.3 (2011)
Bhutan	...	...	...	...	...	...
India	...	...	...	...	...	...
Maldives	69.5	70.0	69.1	99.6 (2016)	100.0 (2016)	99.3 (2016)
Nepal	...	...	...	83.7 (2016)	82.5 (2016)	84.8 (2016)
Sri Lanka	...	...	...	...	...	...
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam	98.8 (2006)	97.4 (2006)	100.0 (2006)	99.6	99.1	100.0
Cambodia	26.5 (2006)	27.1 (2006)	25.9 (2006)	42.8 (2012)	43.4 (2012)	42.3 (2012)
Indonesia	...	...	...	99.3 (2014)	98.6 (2014)	100.0 (2014)
Lao PDR	...	...	...	52.2	52.9	51.5
Malaysia	76.9 (2002)	79.3 (2002)	74.7 (2002)	98.4	99.3	97.7
Myanmar	...	...	...	...	...	...
Philippines	24.0 (2001)	23.8 (2001)	24.1 (2001)	42.2 (2009)	43.0 (2009)	41.4 (2009)
Singapore	...	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand	99.1 (2006)	100.0 (2006)	98.2 (2006)	95.5	90.7	100.0
Viet Nam	78.8 (2006)	...	...	98.7	97.4	100.0
The Pacific						
Cook Islands	...	...	...	93.4	100.0	87.2
Fiji	48.6 (2004)	50.2 (2004)	47.1 (2004)	...	...	...
Kiribati	...	...	...	...	...	...
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	66.2	70.3	62.3
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...	76.4	72.9	79.7
Nauru	89.4 (2007)	78.5 (2007)	100.0 (2007)	71.2 (2014)	82.3 (2014)	61.6 (2014)
Palau	...	...	...	90.8 (2014)	81.1 (2014)	100.0 (2014)
Papua New Guinea	...	...	...	...	...	...
Samoa	...	...	...	30.5	31.0	30.1
Solomon Islands	...	...	...	66.0	66.3	65.8
Timor-Leste	...	...	...	73.2	77.4	69.2
Tonga	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	...	...	96.9	100.0	94.0
Vanuatu	...	...	...	...	...	...
Developed Member Economies						
Australia	52.5 (2001)	53.2 (2001)	51.9 (2001)	86.8	86.9	86.7
Japan	97.3	...	...	95.7 (2013)	...	...
New Zealand	...	...	...	94.8	94.9	94.8

... = data not available at cutoff date, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

a Covers participation in early childhood education and preprimary education.
b The indicator measures the exposure of children to organized learning, but not the intensity of the learning programs.

Sources: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization Institute for Statistics. http://uis.unesco.org/ (accessed 28 June 2017); United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Database. http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 18 July 2017).

Table 2.8: **Selected Indicators for SDG 4 - Teacher Training and Supply**
By 2030, substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers, including through international cooperation for teacher training in developing countries, especially least developed countries and small island developing states

Regional Member	4.c.1.a Proportion of Teachers in Preprimary Education Who Have Received at Least the Minimum Organized Teacher Training (% of total teachers)		4.c.1.b Proportion of Teachers in Primary Education Who Have Received at Least the Minimum Organized Teacher Training (% of total teachers)		4.c.1.c Proportion of Teachers in Lower Secondary Education Who Have Received at Least the Minimum Organized Teacher Training (% of total teachers)		4.c.1.d Proportion of Teachers in Upper Secondary Education Who Have Received at Least the Minimum Organized Teacher Training (% of total teachers)	
	2000	2016	2000	2016	2000	2016	2000	2016
Developing Member Economies								
Central and West Asia								
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Armenia	97.1(2002)	80.0 (2015)	66.7(2004)	...	...	...	...	...
Azerbaijan	79.2	91.2 (2015)	99.9	99.3 (2015)	...	...	...	...
Georgia	99.1	...	94.7	94.6 (2009)	76.8	94.6 (2009)	93.0	94.8 (2009)
Kazakhstan	...	100.0	...	100.0	...	...	...	...
Kyrgyz Republic	32.1	46.2 (2011)	46.4	72.0 (2012)	...	...	...	...
Pakistan	...	...	78.0(2004)	82.5 (2015)	...	61.2 (2015)	...	...
Tajikistan	91.3(2001)	100.0	81.6(2001)	100.0	94.0(2003)	...	94.4(2003)	...
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	100.0(2006)	100.0 (2011)	100.0(2006)	100.0 (2011)	...	...	...	...
East Asia								
China, People's Rep. of	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong, China	...	...	87.6	96.2 (2015)	...	...	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mongolia	100.0	93.6 (2012)	100.0	100.0 (2014)	100.0	...	100.0	...
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Asia		...		...		...		...
Bangladesh	...	...	53.4(2005)	47.6 (2015)	36.8	59.6 (2013)	22.4	56.2 (2013)
Bhutan	93.8	100.0	94.8	100.0	93.5(2005)	100.0	...	72.2 (2008)
India	...	...	...	77.3 (2014)	...	...	...	...
Maldives	47.2	73.2 (2014)	66.5	86.1 (2014)	76.3	92.8 (2014)	54.4(2002)	...
Nepal	...	88.5	15.4(2001)	97.0	32.6	89.2	28.5(2002)	91.6
Sri Lanka	...	...	...	71.3 (2015)	...	57.3 (2015)	...	...
Southeast Asia								
Brunei Darussalam	64.4(2005)	58.9 (2015)	84.5(2005)	82.3 (2015)	...	92.3 (2015)	...	90.1 (2015)
Cambodia	98.1(2001)	100.0 (2015)	95.9(2001)	100.0 (2015)	99.7(2001)	100.0 (2015)	99.1(2001)	...
Indonesia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lao PDR	83.1	88.9 (2015)	76.7	98.4 (2015)	98.5	99.5 (2015)	95.6	99.0 (2015)
Malaysia	...	99.6 (2015)	97.9	99.9 (2015)	...	...	...	...
Myanmar	50.3(2006)	48.4 (2014)	62.7	99.6 (2014)	62.1	93.3 (2014)	97.1	95.2 (2014)
Philippines	...	...	...	100.0 (2013)	...	...	...	...
Singapore	...	...	96.1(2007)	94.4 (2009)	94.4(2007)	91.6 (2009)	95.0(2007)	91.7 (2009)
Thailand	...	...	...	100.0 (2015)	...	100.0 (2015)	...	100.0 (2015)
Viet Nam	50.5	98.7 (2015)	80.1	99.6 (2015)	86.3	99.6 (2015)	...	...
The Pacific								
Cook Islands	60.9(2005)	83.9 (2015)	79.2(2007)	100.0 (2015)	...	...	...	...
Fiji	...	...	...	100.0 (2012)	...	100.0 (2012)	...	100.0 (2012)
Kiribati	...	...	93.9(2005)	85.4 (2008)	83.6(2005)	86.7 (2014)	43.1(2005)	33.6 (2008)
Marshall Islands	100.0(2002)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nauru	77.5(2006)	...	74.2(2007)	...	...	...	...	...
Palau	...	...	...	33.7	...	59.3	...	...
Papua New Guinea	...	...	...	100.0 (2012)	...	100.0 (2012)	...	100.0 (2012)
Samoa	...	100.0 (2015)	...	...	...	...	...	100.0 (2014)
Solomon Islands	...	59.5 (2014)	...	59.2 (2015)	...	80.3 (2015)	...	63.0 (2015)
Timor-Leste	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tonga	...	100.0 (2012)	...	97.1 (2014)	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	74.6 (2014)	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	100(2007)	46.0 (2015)	100.0(2007)	27.9 (2015)	...	21.5 (2015)	...	20.5 (2015)
Developed Member Economies								
Australia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

... = data not available at cutoff date, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

Sources: United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Global Database. http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 19 July 2017); United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. Institute for Statistics Data Centre Online. http://data.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed 26 June 2017).

Table 2.9: **Selected Indicators for SDG 5 - Early Marriage and Women in Leadership**

Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage, and female genital mutilation

Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decisionmaking in political, economic, and public life

Regional Member	5.3.1 Proportion of Women Aged 20–24 Years Who Were Married or in a Union (%)				5.5.1 Proportion of Seats Held by Women in National Parliaments (%)	5.5.2 Proportion of Women in Managerial Positions (%)
	Before Age 15		Before Age 18			
	2000	2015	2000	2015	2016	2015
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan	...	8.8	...	34.8	27.7	...
Armenia	...	– (2010)	...	7.2 (2010)	10.7	29.1
Azerbaijan	...	1.9 (2011)	...	11.0 (2011)	16.9	35.1
Georgia	...	...	...	...	11.3	...
Kazakhstan	...	0.2	...	7.0	26.2	37.1
Kyrgyz Republic	...	0.9 (2014)	...	11.6 (2014)	19.2	35.7
Pakistan	...	2.8 (2013)	...	21.0 (2013)	20.6	3.0 (2008)
Tajikistan	...	0.1 (2012)	...	11.6 (2012)	19.1	...
Turkmenistan	...	– (2016)	...	5.7 (2016)	25.8	...
Uzbekistan	0.3 (2006)	...	7.2 (2006)	...	16.0	...
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	...	...	...	...	23.6	...
Hong Kong, China	...	...	...	...	...	33.2
Korea, Rep. of	...	...	...	...	16.3	10.5
Mongolia	...	0.1 (2013)	...	5.2 (2013)	14.5	40.6
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Asia						
Bangladesh	...	22.4 (2014)	...	58.6 (2014)	20.0	5.4 (2011)
Bhutan	...	6.2 (2010)	...	25.8 (2010)	8.5	18.5
India	18.2 (2006)	...	47.4 (2006)	...	12.0	...
Maldives	...	0.3 (2009)	...	3.9 (2009)	5.9	13.4 (2010)
Nepal	...	10.4 (2014)	...	36.6 (2014)	29.6	18.3 (2008)
Sri Lanka	1.7 (2007)	...	11.8 (2007)	...	5.8	24.8 (2014)
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...	...	6.5	33.8 (2014)
Cambodia	...	1.9 (2014)	...	18.5 (2014)	20.3	18.0 (2010)
Indonesia	...	1.1 (2013)	...	13.6 (2013)	17.1	22.0
Lao PDR	...	8.9 (2012)	...	35.4 (2012)	25.0	...
Malaysia	...	...	...	...	10.4	22.5
Myanmar	...	...	...	...	9.9	...
Philippines	...	2.0 (2013)	...	15.0 (2013)	27.2	46.6
Singapore	...	...	...	...	23.1	34.0
Thailand	...	3.8 (2012)	...	22.1 (2012)	6.1	33.9 (2014)
Viet Nam	...	0.9 (2014)	...	10.6 (2014)	24.3	25.8
The Pacific						
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	12.5 (2014)	47.5 (2011)
Fiji	...	...	...	...	16.0	...
Kiribati	...	2.8 (2009)	...	20.3 (2009)	6.5	36.5 (2010)
Marshall Islands	5.5 (2007)	...	26.3 (2007)	...	9.1	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...	...	–	...
Nauru	1.9 (2007)	...	26.8 (2007)	...	5.26	...
Palau	...	...	...	...	–	...
Papua New Guinea	2.1 (2006)	...	21.3 (2006)	...	2.7	...
Samoa	...	0.7 (2014)	...	10.8 (2014)	6.1	47.3 (2014)
Solomon Islands	3.1 (2007)	...	22.4 (2007)	...	2.0	...
Timor-Leste	...	3.0 (2010)	...	18.9 (2010)	38.5	14.3 (2010)
Tonga	...	0.3 (2012)	...	5.6 (2012)	–	...
Tuvalu	0.0 (2007)	...	9.9 (2007)	...	6.7	...
Vanuatu	...	2.5 (2013)	...	21.4 (2013)	–	28.5 (2009)
Developed Member Economies						
Australia	...	...	...	...	26.7	33.1
Japan	...	...	...	...	9.5	12.5
New Zealand	...	...	...	...	31.4	40.0 (2008)

... = data not available at cutoff date, – = magnitude equals zero, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

Sources: United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Database.https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database (accessed 18 July 2017); for indicator 5.5.2 for Brunei Darussalam: Inter-Parliamentary Union. Women in National Parliaments. http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/arc/classif011216.htm (accessed 4 August 2017); for the Cook Islands: Secretariat of the Pacific Community. http://www.spc.int/nmdi/mdg3 (accessed 30 June 2017).

Planet

To protect the planet from degradation, including through sustainable consumption and production, sustainably managing its natural resources and taking urgent action on climate change, so that it can support the needs of the present and future generations.

Snapshot

- In 29 out of 44 economies of Asia and the Pacific with available data for 2015, at least 90% of the population are using safely managed drinking water services.
- In about half of the 43 economies of Asia and the Pacific with available data for 2015, at least 85% of the population are using safely managed sanitation services.
- In more than half of the regional economies with available data, the annual urban mean concentration of fine suspended particles less than 2.5 microns in diameter (PM 2.5) is at least two-and-a-half times the maximum level set by the World Health Organization.
- The majority of the economies in Asia and the Pacific have experienced an increase in material footprint per capita since 2000.
- Between 2000 and 2015, Timor-Leste, Cambodia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, the People's Republic of China, and Viet Nam more than doubled their domestic material consumption per capita, while in 9 out of 47 regional economies, including the three developed economies, negative growth in materials per person consumed was registered.
- Twenty eight out of 48 regional economies are known to have strategies and regulatory mechanisms for disaster risk reduction and management, in line with the Sendai Framework.
- Between 2000 and 2015, 17 out of 47 regional economies reported an increase in the proportion of forest area.
- More than half of regional economies scored at least 0.80 in the Red List Index in 2016. The Red List Index ranges between 0.0 (which means all species are "extinct") and 1.0 (which means all species are of "least concern").

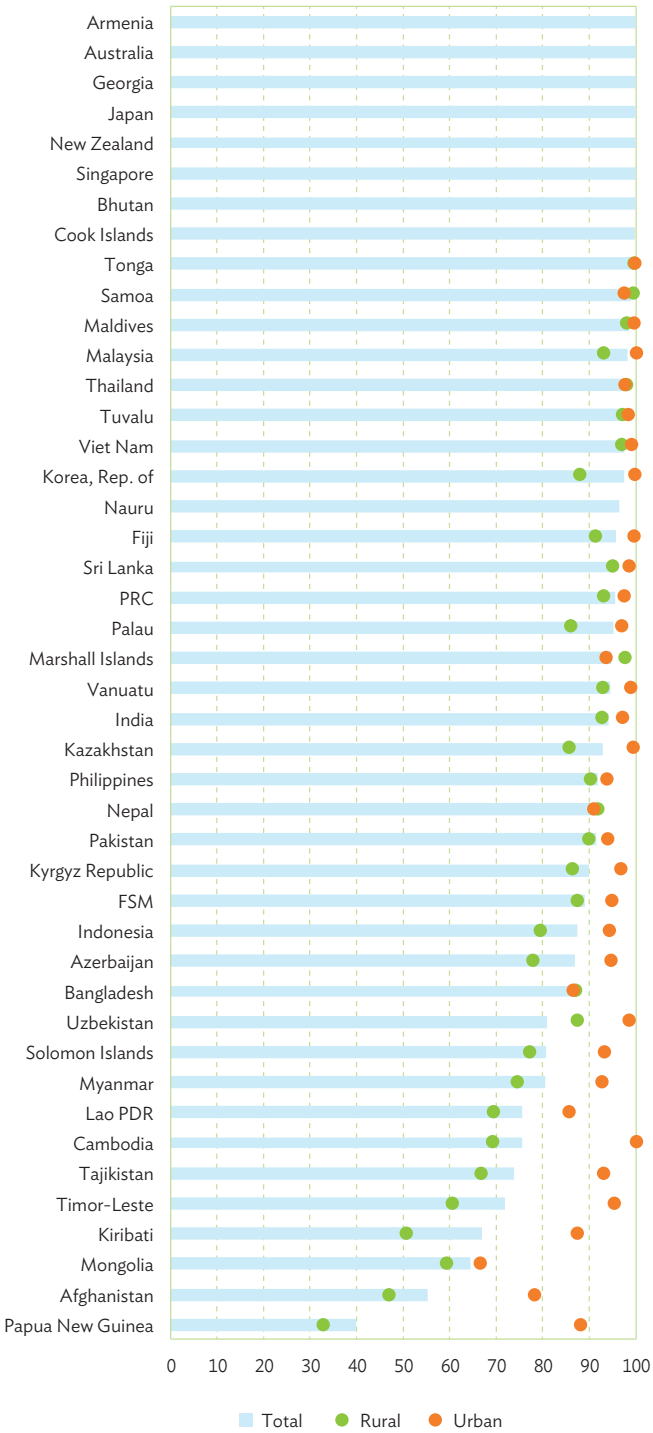
Economic growth in many parts of the world has been accompanied by food and water insecurity, climate change, ocean acidification, and sea-level rise. SDGs 6, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15 work toward ensuring availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation; building inclusive, safe, resilient, and sustainable cities; shifting production and consumption patterns; improving resilience and adaptive capacity to climate-related hazards and natural disasters; ensuring healthy coastal and marine resources for diversity; and using sustainable terrestrial ecosystems coupled with promoting resilience and quality of soil.

SDG 6: Ensure Availability and Sustainable Management of Water and Sanitation for All

Water supply, sanitation, hygiene, and management of water resources are linked to poverty reduction, good health, gender equality, as well as environmental sustainability. Contaminated water and poor sanitation are associated with the transmission of diseases such as cholera, diarrhea, dysentery, hepatitis A, typhoid, and polio; as well as protein-energy malnutrition, intestinal nematode infections, and schistosomiasis. Thus, the absence, inadequacy, or inappropriate management of water and sanitation services ultimately render people vulnerable to health risks. SDG 6 aims for universal access to water, sanitation, and hygiene under a broad framework.

Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services. In Asia and the Pacific, 38 out of the 44 reporting economies have at least 90% access to safely managed drinking water services in urban areas, while 22 out of 42 reported a similar rate of access in rural areas (Figure 3.1). Universal access to safely managed drinking water services is available to all residents of Armenia, Bhutan, Georgia, Singapore; and developed economies of Australia, Japan, and New Zealand. On the other hand, Papua New Guinea is yet to provide three-fifths of its population access to safely managed drinking water services. Several South Asian economies have reported minimal urban–rural disparity in access to safe water. Rural areas in Bangladesh (87.0%) and Nepal (91.8%) report slightly greater access to safely managed drinking water services than urban areas (86.5% and 90.9%, respectively).

Figure 3.1: Proportion of Population Using Safely Managed Drinking Water Services, 2015
(%)



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Note: For the Republic of Korea and Uzbekistan, total and rural refer to 2012 data (latest available data); for Palau, total and rural refer to 2011 data. The values for proportion of population using improved drinking water sources are the same for urban, rural, and total for Armenia, Australia, Bhutan, the Cook Islands, Georgia, Japan, New Zealand, and Tonga; and for urban and total for Nauru and Singapore.
Source: Table 3.1.

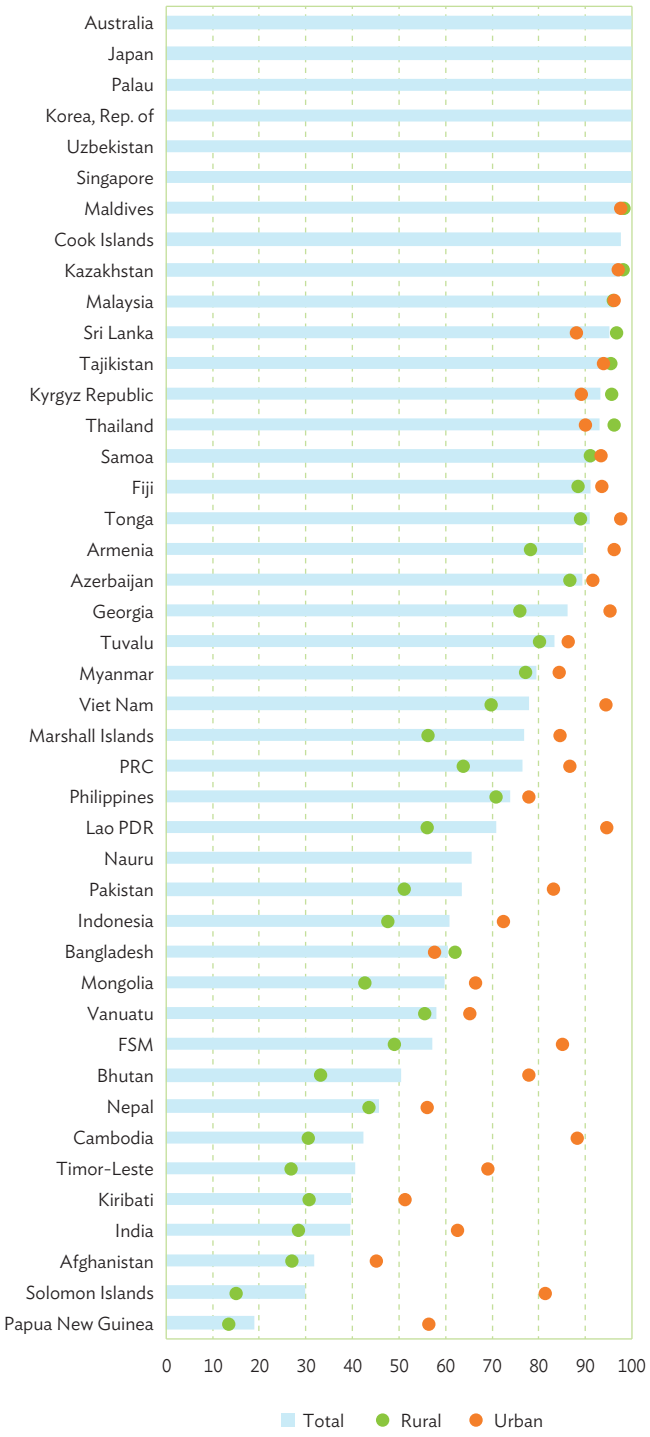
Click here for figure data

Proportion of population using safely managed sanitation services. While full access to safely managed sanitation services exists in the three developed economies of the region, namely, Australia, Japan, and New Zealand, significant efforts are still required to improve access in some developing member economies (Figure 3.2). In Afghanistan, less than half the population residing in urban areas use safely managed sanitation services, while only around a fourth do so in rural areas. In eight economies—Nepal (45.8%), Cambodia (42.4%), Timor-Leste (40.6%), Kiribati (39.7%), India (39.6%), Afghanistan (31.9%), Solomon Islands (29.8%), and Papua New Guinea (18.9%)—more than half of the total population lack access to safely managed sanitation facilities.

SDG 11: Make Cities and Human Settlements Inclusive, Safe, Resilient and Sustainable

The share of urban population to the total population in Asia and the Pacific has been rising at an average annual rate of 2.7% between 2005 and 2016, with the urban share of the region's population expected to be greater than 55% by 2030 (UN ESCAP 2016). This rapid pace of urbanization can be partly attributed to high labor demand in urban areas due to growth in industrial activities and services. Cities offer economies of scale in providing consumer services such as transport. However, faster economic growth and increased labor mobility also pose challenges for planning affordable housing, making cities inclusive, safe, resilient, and sustainable.

Figure 3.2: Proportion of Population Using Safely Managed Sanitation Services, 2015
(%)



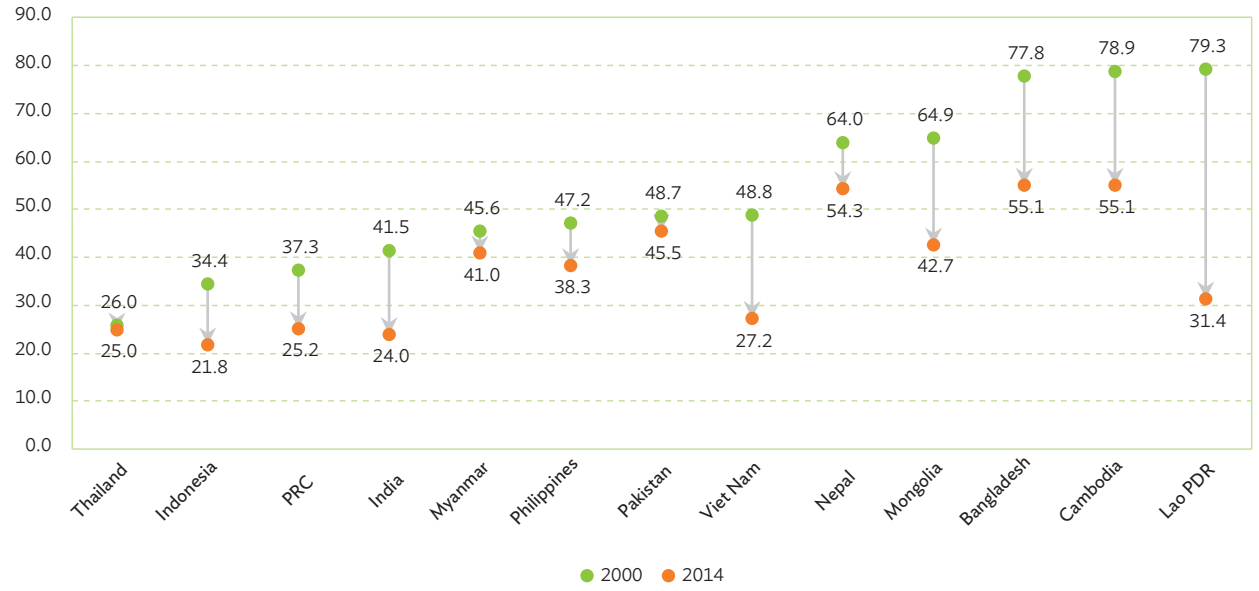
FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Note: For Tuvalu, total and rural refer to 2013 data (latest available data). The values for proportion of population using safely managed sanitation services is the same for urban, rural, and total for Australia, the Cook Islands, Japan, Palau, the Republic of Korea, and Uzbekistan; and for urban and total for Nauru and Singapore.
Source: Table 3.1.

Click here for figure data

Proportion of urban population living in slums, informal settlements, or inadequate housing. In all 13 economies in Asia and the Pacific for which data are available, the proportion of urban population living in slum areas has declined between 2000 and 2014 (Figure 3.3). The Lao People's Democratic Republic has seen the largest decline in latest years at 47.9 percentage points from its initial 2005 figure of 79.3%. Cambodia (23.8), Bangladesh (22.7), Mongolia (22.2), and Viet Nam (21.6), have done exceedingly well in reducing the share of their urban population living in slums by over 20 percentage points. Meanwhile, Myanmar (4.6), Pakistan (3.2), and Thailand (1.0) have reduced the proportion of urban population living in slum areas by less than 5 percentage points since 2000. Inadequate housing persists in several economies, with more than half of the urban population in Afghanistan (62.7%), Bangladesh (55.1%), Cambodia (55.1%), and Nepal (54.3%) still residing in slum areas or informal settlements as of 2014.

Average annual mean concentration levels of particulate matter 2.5 microns in diameter or smaller in urban areas. Air quality is usually measured by the levels of particulate matter equal to 2.5 microns in diameter or less (PM 2.5). The maximum level set by the World Health Organization (WHO) is 10 micrograms per cubic meter (μg/m³) as a standard for the average annual PM 2.5. In more than half of the regional economies, the concentration level in urban areas exceeds the WHO's threshold by 2.5 times (Figure 3.4). Out of the 37 economies in Asia and the Pacific that have data for recent years, Brunei Darussalam (5.4 μg/m³); Fiji (6.0 μg/m³), the Federated States of Micronesia (6.0 μg/m³), Solomon Islands (5.0 μg/m³), Vanuatu (7.0 μg/m³); Australia (5.8 μg/m³) and New Zealand (5.3 μg/m³)

Figure 3.3: Proportion of Urban Population Living in Slums in Selected Economies
(%)

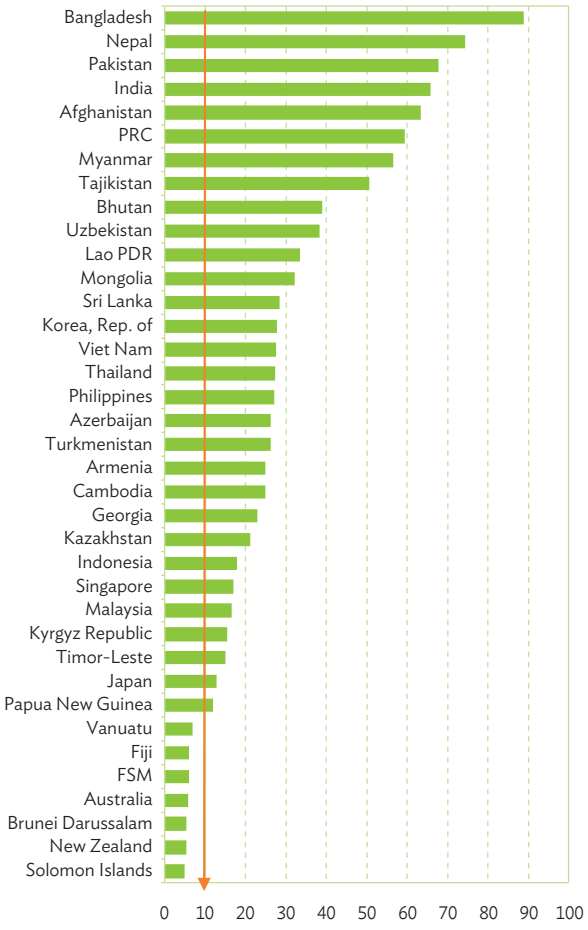


Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Note: For reference year 2000, data for Cambodia, the Lao PDR, Myanmar, and Thailand refer to 2005.
Source: Table 3.2.

Click here for figure data

are within the WHO standards. Bangladesh has the highest average annual mean concentration level of 88.8 μg/m³. Aside from Bangladesh, two South Asian economies—Nepal (74.3 μg/m³) and India (65.7 μg/m³); three Central and West Asian economies—Pakistan (67.7 μg/m³), Afghanistan (63.4 μg/m³), and Tajikistan (50.7 μg/m³); the People's Republic of China (59.5 μg/m³) and Myanmar (56.6 μg/m³) comprise the list of economies with concentration levels beyond 5 times the WHO standards.

Figure 3.4: Average Annual Mean Concentration Levels of Particulate Matter 2.5 Microns in Diameter or Smaller in Urban Areas, 2014
(μg/m³)



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 3.2.

Click here for figure data

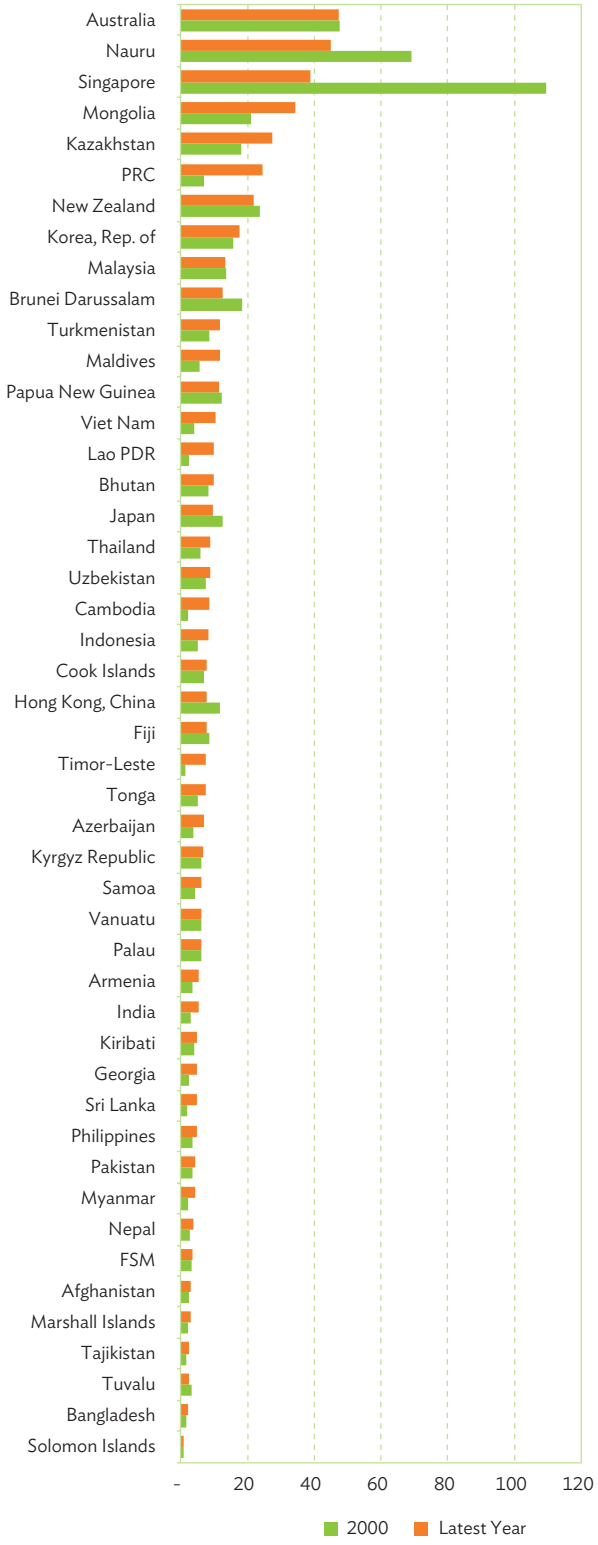
SDG 12: Ensure Sustainable Consumption and Production Patterns

Consumption and production are fundamental to economic activities, but when unmanaged can contribute to depletion of natural capital. SDG 12 motivates achieving sustainable consumption and production through minimal extraction of natural resources, reduction in the use of toxic materials, and reliance on production processes that result in less waste and fewer pollutants.

Material footprint per capita. Between 2000 and data available for latest year, 35 out of 37 economies in Asia and the Pacific have increased their material footprint per capita. Among economies, Hong Kong, China has the largest material footprint per capita at 120.1 million metric tons per capita (Table 3.2). Other economies with material footprint per capita greater than 20 million metric tons include Singapore (75.9), Australia (40.4), New Zealand (23.5), Japan (20.9), the People's Republic of China (20.8), and the Republic of Korea (26.4).

Domestic material consumption per capita. Between 2000 and the latest year for which data are available, a decline in domestic material consumption per person is observed in 12 out of 47 regional economies reporting data, including the developed economies of Australia, Japan, and New Zealand. For recent years, Australia had the highest domestic material consumption per person at 47.3 tons of materials per capita (Figure 3.5). Other economies with high domestic material consumption per capita at over 20 tons per person include Nauru (45.0), Mongolia (34.2), Singapore (39.0), Kazakhstan (27.3), the People's Republic of China (24.4), and New Zealand (21.9). Solomon Islands registered the lowest domestic material consumption per capita at 1.0 tons per person.

Figure 3.5: Domestic Material Consumption Per Capita, 2000 and Latest Year
(metric tons per capita)



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Note: Data refer to 2015 for all economies except Armenia; Azerbaijan; Brunei Darussalam; Georgia; Hong Kong, China; Kazakhstan; the Kyrgyz Republic; Pakistan; Samoa; Tajikistan; Turkmenistan; Uzbekistan; and Vanuatu, data for which are from 2010.
Source: Table 3.2.

Click here for figure data

SDG 13: Take Urgent Action to Combat Climate Change and Its Impacts

Various scientific studies have called attention to increasing occurrences of extreme weather events, rising sea levels, and drastic fluctuations in climatic variables. The impact of climate change on livelihoods, food production, and energy security are important concerns for the region. SDG 13 aims at development that builds resilience to climate-related hazards and natural disasters, especially among those who are most vulnerable to climate change and its impacts.

Countries adopting and implementing national disaster risk reduction strategies. The socioeconomic impact of a natural disaster depends on the extent of exposure of people to the hazard, as well as their vulnerability and coping mechanism. Disaster prevention, which is seldom emphasized as much as disaster response, needs to be featured as an integral part of development strategies. The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030, successor to the Hyogo Framework for Action 2005–2015, outlines seven targets and four priorities for action to build the resilience of nations and communities to disaster and climate risks. The Sendai Framework is a voluntary, nonbinding agreement among nations that recognizes that the state has the primary role to reduce disaster risk, but that responsibility should be shared with other stakeholders, including local governments and the private sector. The monitoring as well as implementation program for the Sendai Framework are meant to improve interventions aimed at disaster risk reduction, especially for several economies in the region that are extremely at risk from the harmful effects of climate-related disasters.

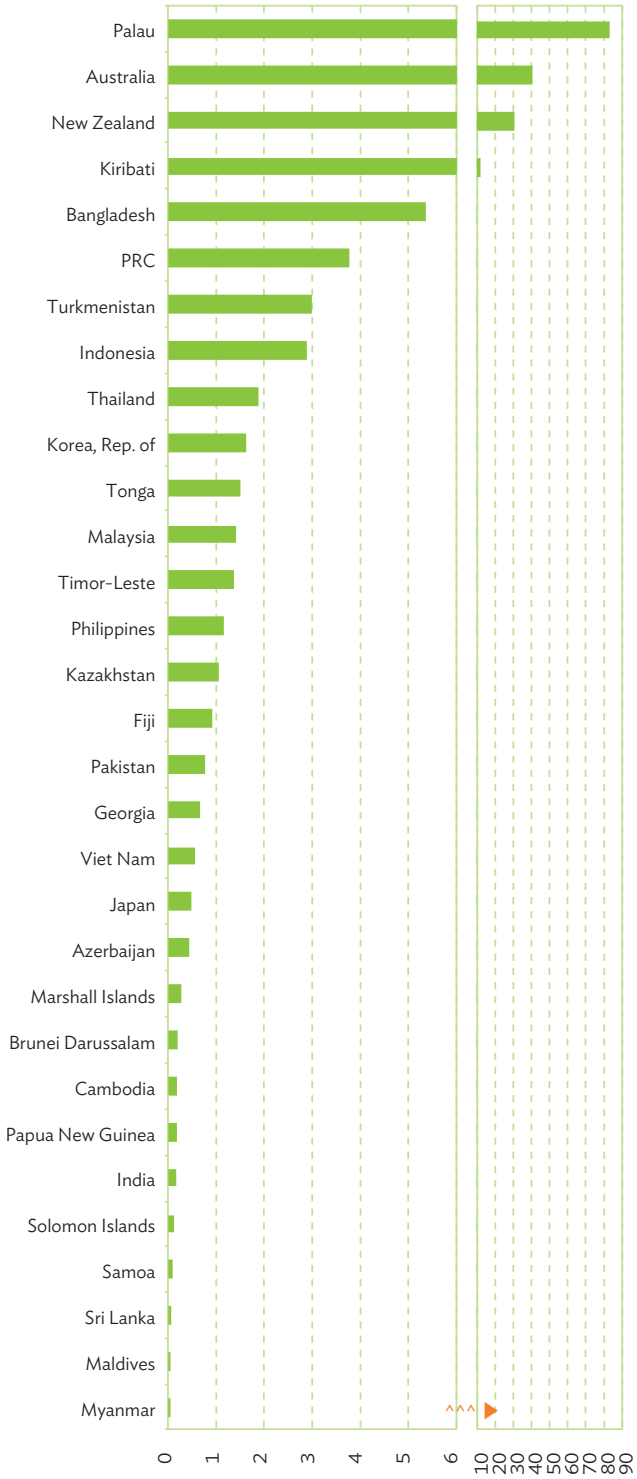
Twenty eight out of 48 regional economies are known to have strategies and regulatory mechanisms for disaster risk reduction and management, in line with the Sendai Framework. These are Afghanistan, Armenia, Australia, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Fiji, Georgia, India, Indonesia, Japan, Kazakhstan, the Republic of Korea, the Kyrgyz Republic, Malaysia, Mongolia, Nauru, Nepal, New Zealand, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines, the PRC, Samoa, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Tonga, Vanuatu, and Viet Nam (Table 3.2).

SDG 14: Conserve and Sustainably Use the Oceans, Seas and Marine Resources for Sustainable Development

Oceans are facing various threats from resource depletion, marine pollution, as well as climate change, all of which can be partially attributed to human actions. Marine protected areas not only balance the ecological system, but also ensure the availability of more than enough fish and other aquatic resources for those who rely on fishing for a living. SDG 14 aims to conserve and sustainably use the world's oceans, seas, and marine resources.

Coverage of protected areas in relation to marine areas. Palau has registered 83.0% coverage of protected marine areas (Figure 3.6). Australia and New Zealand have managed to protect at least 30% of their marine areas, while Kiribati has managed to protect over 10% of its marine area. The remaining 31 countries have less than 6% coverage of protected marine areas. Twenty economies had less than 1% coverage of protected marine areas in 2016.

Figure 3.6: Coverage of Protected Areas in Relation to Marine Areas, 2016
(%)



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Note: Economies with values less than 0.05 are not presented in the chart. These include the Cook Islands, the Federated States of Micronesia, Tuvalu, and Vanuatu.
Source: Table 3.2.

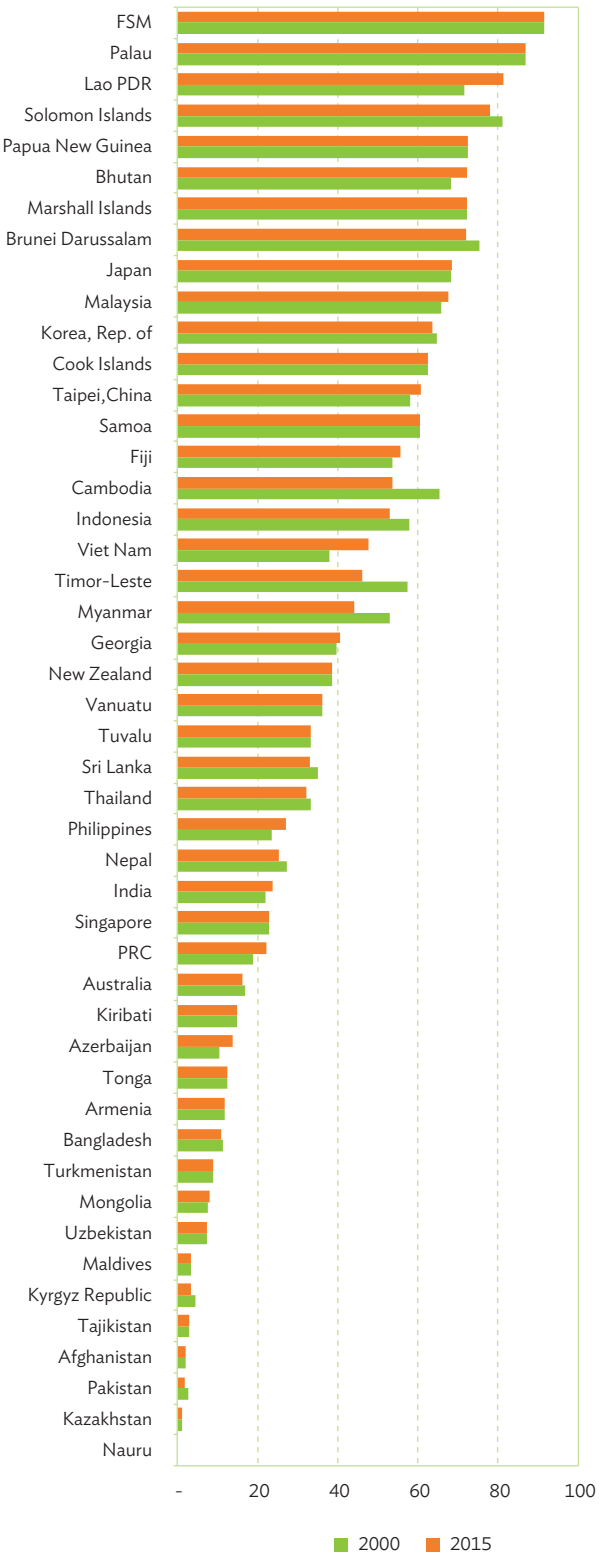
Click here for figure data

SDG 15: Protect, Restore and Promote Sustainable Use of Terrestrial Ecosystems, Sustainably Manage Forests, Combat Desertification, and Halt and Reverse Land Degradation and Halt Biodiversity Loss

Forests sustain the air we breathe, the water we drink, and the food we eat. As the world's population grows, the demand for forest-related goods rises. Another major consequence of population growth is land-use change. Sustainable development involves protecting our forests, preventing desertification, and conserving biodiversity, all in sync with targets to mitigate the harmful impacts of climate change. SDG 15 seeks to ensure that present and future generations continue to benefit from the use of natural habitats and terrestrial ecosystems that are part of our common heritage.

Forest area as a proportion of total land area. Examining forest area over time helps with managing forests sustainably. Seventeen out of 47 reporting economies in the region have more than half of their land area covered with forests (Figure 3.7). Five of these economies are from the Pacific and registered a proportion of forest area to total land area not less than 70% in 2015—the Federated States of Micronesia, Palau, Solomon Islands, Papua New Guinea, and the Marshall Islands. Seven economies in Central and West Asia reported a forest cover of less than 10% in 2015—Turkmenistan (8.8%), Uzbekistan (7.3%), the Kyrgyz Republic (3.3%), Tajikistan (3.0%), Afghanistan (2.1%), Pakistan (1.9%), and Kazakhstan (1.2%). Viet Nam and the Lao People's Democratic Republic increased their forest cover by more than 10 percentage points between 2000 and 2015. Decline in forest cover of more than 10 percentage points was observed in Cambodia and Timor-Leste.

Figure 3.7: Proportion of Forest Area to Total Land Area
(%)

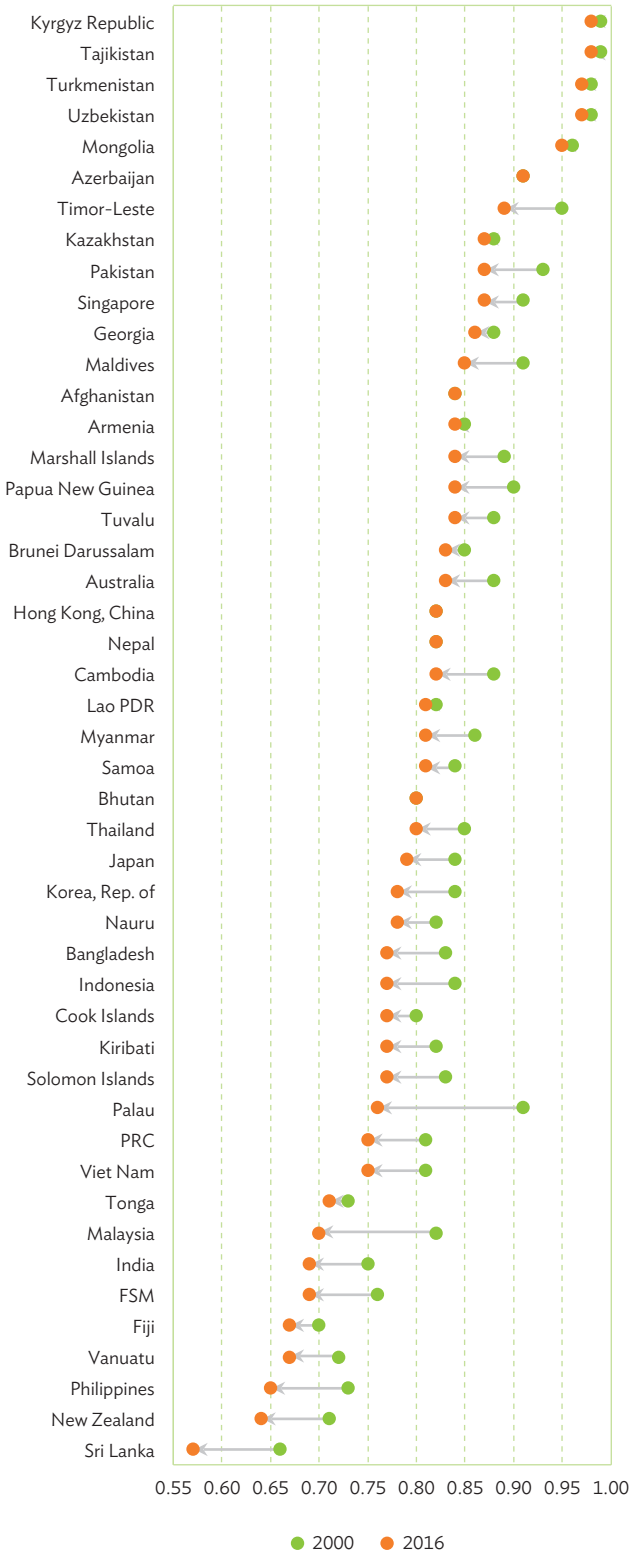


FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Note: 2000 data for Taipei,China refers to 2001.
Source: Table 3.2.

Click here for figure data

Red List Index. The International Union for the Conservation of Nature measures changes in aggregate extinction risk across groups of species using a Red List Index. The value of this index ranges from 0.0 (which means all species are categorized as "extinct") to 1.0 (which means all species are categorized as "least concern"). More than half of regional economies scored at least 0.80 in the index in 2016, but seven economies—Sri Lanka (0.57), New Zealand (0.64), the Philippines (0.64), Fiji (0.67), Vanuatu (0.67), India (0.69), and the Federated States of Micronesia (0.69)—scored below 0.7 (Figure 3.8). Sri Lanka experienced the biggest decline in the index of 0.09 points, (from 0.66 in 2000 to 0.57 in 2016). Five economies in Central and West Asia registered a score of at least 0.9 in the Red List Index in 2016: the Kyrgyz Republic (0.98), Tajikistan (0.98), Turkmenistan (0.97), Uzbekistan (0.97), and Azerbaijan (0.91). East Asia also performed relatively well, with Hong Kong, China able to completely halt the extinction of its species for the past 16 years. Mongolia registered a Red List Index score of 0.95 in 2016, slightly lower than its score in 2000 of 0.96.

Figure 3.8: Red List Index



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 3.2.

Click here for figure data

Equity, Data Gaps, and Other Related Issues

In examining data and statistics on SDG indicators for Planet, one must be aware of issues on data comparability arising from conflicting definitions and lack of available data on sub-indicators. For instance, how countries define "urban" and "rural" varies considerably. According to the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2014), to define an urban area, countries must use one or a combination of characteristics based on administrative criteria; a minimum population threshold; population density; economic activities (proxied by the number of establishments); physical characteristics (such as the presence of churches, markets, public buildings); infrastructure (such as paved roads, electricity, piped water, or sewers); and presence of education or health care services. Although many countries globally use minimum population thresholds to define an area as "urban," the thresholds vary across countries. The conflicting definitions on what is an urban area make it challenging to draw meaningful cross-country examinations on urbanization and the urban–rural divide.

In several regional economies, significant disparities on proportion of population using safely managed drinking water sources and sanitation services exist between rural and urban areas. These overall levels of access, and the relative levels of disparity, hold important consequences for sustainable human development.

The proportion of the urban population living in slums, informal settlements, or inadequate housing refers to the proportion of people living in urban households that lack at least one of the following five housing conditions: (i) access to safely managed drinking water services, (ii) access to safely managed sanitation services, (iii) sufficient living space (not overcrowded), (iv) durable housing, and (v) security of tenure (UN 2014). While data availability is generally good for safely managed drinking water and sanitation services, and sufficient living space, data on durable housing and security of tenure are unavailable in several countries.

While methodologies to calculate fish stocks are well established in developed economies, a substantial share of fish capture is in economies with inadequate mechanisms for systematic fisheries data collection. A concerted effort is required to collect and analyze high-quality fisheries data.

Although targets on pollution control are dependent on reliable data and statistics, pollution indicators are not regularly updated in many developing economies.

Climate change and its impact often hit the poor much harder than those in the upper segment of the income distribution. Disaggregation by sex and age groups on deaths from disasters would also be helpful as women and men, and people of varying age groups, are confronted with different challenges when facing disasters. Data on people affected by disasters in UNSD Global Database may have double counts in a year as some people may get affected by several disasters.

Table 3.1: **Selected Indicators for SDG 6 - Clean Water and Sanitation**

By 2030, achieve universal and equitable access to safe and affordable drinking water for all

By 2030, achieve access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene for all and end open defecation, paying special attention to the needs of women and girls and those in vulnerable situations

By 2030, substantially increase water-use efficiency across all sectors, and ensure sustainable withdrawals and supply of freshwater to address water scarcity and substantially reduce the number of people suffering from water scarcity

By 2030, expand international cooperation and capacity-building support to developing countries in water- and sanitation-related activities and programmes, including water harvesting, desalination, water efficiency, wastewater treatment, recycling, and reuse technologies

Regional Member	6.1.1 Proportion of Population Using Safely Managed Drinking Water Services (%)					
	2000			2015		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan	30.3	52.2	24.3	55.3	78.2	47.0
Armenia	92.6	98.5	81.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Azerbaijan	74.1	88.3	59.0	87.0	94.7	77.8
Georgia	89.3	97.1	80.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kazakhstan	93.8	98.0	88.5	92.9	99.4	85.6
Kyrgyz Republic	78.4	96.2	68.8	90.0	96.7	86.2
Pakistan	88.5	95.4	85.0	91.4	93.9	89.9
Tajikistan	59.6	92.3	47.8	73.8	93.1	66.7
Turkmenistan	59.6	89.1	34.6	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	88.7	97.6	83.4	87.3 (2012)	98.5	80.9 (2012)
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	80.3	97.2	70.8	95.5	97.5	93.0
Hong Kong, China	...	...	...	...	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	93.4	98.1	75.3	97.6 (2012)	99.7	87.9 (2012)
Mongolia	56.3	74.2	32.4	64.4	66.4	59.2
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Asia						
Bangladesh	76.0	83.2	73.7	86.9	86.5	87.0
Bhutan	83.9	98.2	79.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
India	80.6	92.3	76.1	94.1	97.1	92.6
Maldives	95.2	99.9	93.3	98.6	99.5	97.9
Nepal	77.1	94.3	74.5	91.6	90.9	91.8
Sri Lanka	79.7	94.8	76.3	95.6	98.5	95.0
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	41.6	57.1	38.1	75.5	100.0	69.1
Indonesia	77.9	91.3	68.2	87.4	94.2	79.5
Lao PDR	45.5	72.2	37.9	75.7	85.6	69.4
Malaysia	94.1	97.4	88.6	98.2	100.0	93.0
Myanmar	66.6	84.6	59.9	80.6	92.7	74.4
Philippines	87.1	92.0	82.5	91.8	93.7	90.3
Singapore	100.0	100.0	...	100.0	100.0	...
Thailand	91.9	96.6	89.7	97.8	97.6	98.0
Viet Nam	77.4	93.6	72.2	97.6	99.1	96.9
The Pacific						
Cook Islands	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9
Fiji	90.7	96.6	85.2	95.7	99.5	91.2
Kiribati	58.9	80.3	42.7	66.9	87.3	50.6
Marshall Islands	93.1	91.9	95.8	94.6	93.5	97.6
Micronesia, Fed. States of	90.1	94.1	89.0	89.0	94.8	87.4
Nauru	93.0	93.0	...	96.5	96.5	...
Palau	92.2	97.3	80.4	95.3 (2011)	97.0	86.0 (2011)
Papua New Guinea	35.1	87.5	27.1	40.0	88.0	32.8
Samoa	93.3	97.0	92.3	99.0	97.5	99.3
Solomon Islands	79.7	93.2	77.2	80.8	93.2	77.2
Timor-Leste	54.3	68.9	49.7	71.9	95.2	60.5
Tonga	98.6	97.4	99.0	99.6	99.7	99.6
Tuvalu	94.0	95.1	93.0	97.7	98.3	97.0
Vanuatu	75.8	95.7	70.3	94.5	98.9	92.9
Developed Member Economies						
Australia	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Japan	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
New Zealand	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

(continued)

Table 3.1: **Selected Indicators for SDG 6 - Clean Water and Sanitation** *(continued)*

Regional Member	6.2.1 Proportion of Population Using Safely Managed Sanitation Services, Including a Hand-Washing Facility with Soap and Water (%)					
	2000			2015		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan	23.4	31.2	21.3	31.9	45.1	27.0
Armenia	89.3	95.4	78.3	89.5	96.2	78.2
Azerbaijan	65.6	77.0	53.5	89.3	91.6	86.6
Georgia	95.7	96.4	94.9	86.3	95.2	75.9
Kazakhstan	96.8	96.5	97.1	97.5	97.0	98.1
Kyrgyz Republic	91.8	91.7	91.8	93.3	89.1	95.6
Pakistan	36.9	71.6	19.6	63.5	83.1	51.1
Tajikistan	90.4	92.4	89.7	95.0	93.8	95.5
Turkmenistan	62.3	76.9	49.9	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	90.9	97.5	86.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	58.8	75.3	49.6	76.5	86.6	63.7
Hong Kong, China	...	...	...	...	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Mongolia	48.2	65.1	25.8	59.7	66.4	42.6
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Asia						
Bangladesh	45.4	51.1	43.7	60.6	57.7	62.1
Bhutan	31.0	58.5	21.6	50.4	77.9	33.1
India	25.6	54.5	14.5	39.6	62.6	28.5
Maldives	79.4	97.7	72.5	97.9	97.5	98.3
Nepal	21.7	43.6	18.3	45.8	56.0	43.5
Sri Lanka	81.2	85.1	80.3	95.1	88.1	96.7
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	16.3	43.3	10.2	42.4	88.1	30.5
Indonesia	47.1	65.8	33.6	60.8	72.3	47.5
Lao PDR	28.0	66.1	17.2	70.9	94.5	56.0
Malaysia	91.2	92.8	88.5	96.0	96.1	95.9
Myanmar	61.9	78.6	55.8	79.6	84.3	77.1
Philippines	63.8	72.5	55.9	73.9	77.9	70.8
Singapore	99.7	99.7	...	100.0	100.0	...
Thailand	91.3	89.4	92.2	93.0	89.9	96.1
Viet Nam	52.9	76.7	45.2	78.0	94.4	69.7
The Pacific						
Cook Islands	92.1	92.1	92.1	97.6	97.6	97.6
Fiji	74.6	89.1	61.3	91.1	93.4	88.4
Kiribati	34.2	46.9	24.7	39.7	51.2	30.6
Marshall Islands	70.1	80.4	47.6	76.9	84.5	56.2
Micronesia, Fed. States of	33.6	63.7	25.0	57.1	85.1	49.0
Nauru	65.7	65.7	...	65.6	65.6	...
Palau	81.0	88.6	63.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Papua New Guinea	19.2	59.9	13.0	18.9	56.4	13.3
Samoa	92.2	93.9	91.8	91.5	93.3	91.1
Solomon Islands	25.5	81.4	15.0	29.8	81.4	15.0
Timor-Leste	37.4	52.7	32.5	40.6	69.0	26.8
Tonga	93.0	97.3	91.7	91.0	97.6	89.0
Tuvalu	78.4	81.1	76.0	83.3 (2013)	86.3	80.2 (2013)
Vanuatu	41.7	54.4	38.1	57.9	65.1	55.4
Developed Member Economies						
Australia	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Japan	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
New Zealand	...	...	...	...	...	...

(continued)

Table 3.1: **Selected Indicators for SDG 6 - Clean Water and Sanitation** *(continued)*

Regional Member	6.4.2 Level of Water Stress: Freshwater Withdrawal as a Proportion of Available Freshwater Resources (%)		6.a.1 Amount of Water- and Sanitation-Related Official Development Assistance That is Part of a Government-Coordinated Spending Plan ($ million)	
	2000	2015	2000	2015
Developing Member Economies				
Central and West Asia				
Afghanistan	31.0	...	4.2	34.0
Armenia	22.3 (2002)	37.9 (2012)	10.3	36.3
Azerbaijan	29.0 (2002)	34.5 (2012)	20.3	55.7
Georgia	2.9 (2005)	2.9 (2008)	0.8	34.0
Kazakhstan	17.2 (2002)	18.4 (2010)	6.9	0.2
Kyrgyz Republic	42.7	...	0.5	17.5
Pakistan	69.9	74.4 (2008)	4.0	55.2
Tajikistan	53.2	...	3.8	36.1
Turkmenistan	100.6	...	0.0	0.2 (2011)
Uzbekistan	110.0 (2001)	...	2.0	96.1
East Asia				
China, People's Rep. of	19.5 (2005)	21.3 (2013)	516.4	183.2
Hong Kong, China	...	...	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	41.8 (2002)	...	...	...
Mongolia	1.6 (2006)	1.6 (2009)	0.3	6.4
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...
South Asia				
Bangladesh	...	2.9 (2008)	77.4	184.8
Bhutan	...	0.4 (2008)	0.2	0.9
India	31.9	33.9 (2010)	159.2	316.0
Maldives	...	15.7 (2008)	0.6 (2001)	7.2
Nepal	4.5	...	57.6	72.7
Sri Lanka	24.6	...	30.1	125.5
Southeast Asia				
Brunei Darussalam	...	1.9 (2014)	...	...
Cambodia	0.5 (2006)	...	1.6	52.0
Indonesia	5.6	...	81.5	72.3
Lao PDR	1.0 (2005)	...	36.3	38.2
Malaysia	1.6	...	352.2	63.7
Myanmar	2.8	...	1.4	35.2
Philippines	16.5 (2006)	17.0 (2009)	18.7	14.0
Singapore	...	31.7 (2014)	...	...
Thailand	13.1 (2007)	...	70.0	7.3
Viet Nam	9.3 (2005)	...	161.0	388.6
The Pacific				
Cook Islands	...	...	0.4	4.0
Fiji	0.3	...	0.4	1.9
Kiribati	...	...	0.6 (2001)	6.3
Marshall Islands	...	...	0.0 (2003)	1.0
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	0.0 (2003)	1.7
Nauru	...	...	0.0 (2005)	0.0
Palau	...	...	0.0 (2003)	1.3
Papua New Guinea	0.0	...	11.9	4.4
Samoa	...	...	0.2	15.0
Solomon Islands	...	0.0 (2014)	2.0	7.2
Timor-Leste	14.3 (2004)	...	3.7	10.6
Tonga	...	...	9.3	1.6
Tuvalu	...	...	0.5 (2002)	2.7
Vanuatu	...	0.0 (2014)	0.5 (2003)	2.7
Developed Member Economies				
Australia	4.4 (2001)	3.9 (2013)	...	...
Japan	19.6 (2002)	18.9 (2009)	...	...
New Zealand	1.5 (2006)	1.6 (2010)	...	...

... = data not available at cutoff date, 0.0 = magnitude is less than half of unit employed, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

Sources: United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Database. https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 18 July 2017); Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. AQUASTAT. http://www.fao.org/nr/water/aquastat/data/query/index.html?lang=en (accessed 26 June 2017); World Health Organization and United Nations Children's Fund. Joint Monitoring Programme for Water and Supply Sanitation. https://www.wssinfo.org/data-estimates/tables/ (accessed 26 June 2017); Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. Credit Reporting System. http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=CRS1 (accessed 5 July 2017).

Goal 11. Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient, and sustainable
Goal 12. Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns
SDG 13: Take Urgent Action to Combat Climate Change and its Impacts
Goal 14. Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas, and marine resources for sustainable development
Goal 15. Protect, restore, and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation, and halt biodiversity loss

Table 3.2: **Selected Indicators for SDGs 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15 - Sustainable Cities and the Environment, Responsible Consumption and Production, Life below Water, and Life on Land**

By 2030, ensure access for all to adequate, safe, and affordable housing, and basic services and upgrade slums

By 2030, reduce the adverse per capita environmental impact of cities, including by paying special attention to air quality and municipal and other waste management

By 2030, achieve the sustainable management and efficient use of natural resources

Strengthen resilience and adaptive capacity to climate-related hazards and natural disasters in all countries

By 2020, conserve at least 10 % of coastal and marine areas, consistent with national and international law and based on the best available scientific information

By 2020, ensure the conservation, restoration, and sustainable use of terrestrial and inland freshwater ecosystems and their services, in particular forests, wetlands, mountains, and drylands, in line with obligations under international agreements

Take urgent and significant action to reduce the degradation of natural habitats, halt the loss of biodiversity and, by 2020, protect and prevent the extinction of threatened species

Regional Member	11.1.1 Proportion of Urban Population Living in Slums, Informal Settlements or Inadequate Housing (%)		11.6.2 Average Annual Mean of Particulate Matter of 2.5 Microns in Diameter or Smaller (PM2.5) Concentration Levels in Urban Areas (µg/m3)	
			Total	Urban
	2000	2014	2014	2014
Developing Member Economies				
Central and West Asia				
Afghanistan	...	62.7	46.0	63.4
Armenia	...	14.4	20.7	25.0
Azerbaijan	...	...	23.8	26.3
Georgia	...	...	18.7	23.0
Kazakhstan	...	...	15.4	21.1
Kyrgyz Republic	...	...	15.0	15.4
Pakistan	48.7	45.5	59.8	67.7
Tajikistan	...	...	40.8	50.7
Turkmenistan	...	...	25.1	26.2
Uzbekistan	...	...	31.7	38.3
East Asia				
China, People's Rep. of	37.3	25.2	54.3	59.5
Hong Kong, China	...	...	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	...	...	26.8	27.8
Mongolia	64.9	42.7	20.1	32.1
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...
South Asia				
Bangladesh	77.8	55.1	83.5	88.8
Bhutan	...	...	48.3	39.0
India	41.5	24.0	62.4	65.7
Maldives	...	...	16.0	...
Nepal	64.0	54.3	64.0	74.3
Sri Lanka	...	...	26.7	28.5
Southeast Asia				
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	5.5	5.4
Cambodia	78.9 (2005)	55.1	23.0	25.0
Indonesia	34.4	21.8	14.4	17.8
Lao PDR	79.3 (2005)	31.4	26.8	33.5
Malaysia	...	...	14.8	16.6
Myanmar	45.6 (2005)	41.0	51.0	56.6
Philippines	47.2	38.3	22.2	27.1
Singapore	...	...	17.0	17.0
Thailand	26.0 (2005)	25.0	24.6	27.3
Viet Nam	48.8	27.2	25.7	27.6
The Pacific				
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...
Fiji	...	...	5.9	6.0
Kiribati	...	...	5.1	...
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	6.0	6.0
Nauru	...	...	...	...
Palau	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	...	...	10.4	12.0
Samoa	...	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	...	...	5.0	5.0
Timor-Leste	...	...	14.8	15.0
Tonga	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	6.3	7.0
Developed Member Economies				
Australia	...	...	5.7	5.8
Japan	...	...	12.5	12.9
New Zealand	...	...	5.2	5.3

(continued)

Goal 11. Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient, and sustainable
Goal 12. Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns
SDG 13: Take Urgent Action to Combat Climate Change and its Impacts
Goal 14. Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas, and marine resources for sustainable development
Goal 15. Protect, restore, and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation, and halt biodiversity loss

Table 3.2: **Selected Indicators for SDGs 11, 12, 14, and 15 - Sustainable Cities and the Environment, Responsible Consumption and Production, Life below Water, and Life on Land** *(continued)*

Regional Member	12.2.1 Material Footprint				12.2.2 Domestic Material Consumption				
	Million Metric Tons		Per Capita		Million Metric Tons			Per Capita	
	2000	2015	2000	2015	2000	2015		2000	2015
Developing Member Economies									
Central and West Asia									
Afghanistan	17.2	63.0	0.8	2.0	52.1	94.3		2.5	2.9
Armenia	7.8	14.3 (2010)	2.5	4.8 (2010)	10.4	16.0	(2010)	3.4	5.4 (2010)
Azerbaijan	16.9	40.7 (2010)	2.1	4.5 (2010)	29.5	63.2	(2010)	3.6	6.9 (2010)
Georgia	15.0	29.7 (2010)	3.2	6.8 (2010)	11.6	21.5	(2010)	2.4	4.9 (2010)
Kazakhstan	181.0	292.8 (2010)	12.4	18.4 (2010)	264.5	434.8	(2010)	18.1	27.3 (2010)
Kyrgyz Republic	29.8	37.8 (2010)	6.0	7.1 (2010)	30.3	35.2	(2010)	6.1	6.6 (2010)
Pakistan	325.9	577.2	2.3	3.1	488.1	813.7		3.4	4.3
Tajikistan	4.5	13.6 (2010)	0.7	1.8 (2010)	9.4	19.0	(2010)	1.5	2.5 (2010)
Turkmenistan	34.1	66.7 (2010)	7.6	13.2 (2010)	39.0	59.3	(2010)	8.7	11.8 (2010)
Uzbekistan	126.4	172.7 (2010)	5.1	6.2 (2010)	182.9	245.0	(2010)	7.4	8.8 (2010)
East Asia									
China, People's Rep. of	7,434.4	29,188.9	5.7	20.8	9,144.2	34,267.4		7.0	24.4
Hong Kong, China	597.0	847.0 (2010)	87.3	120.1 (2010)	81.0	54.6	(2010)	11.8	7.7 (2010)
Korea, Rep. of	1,013.3	1,311.6	22.0	26.4	727.7	872.3		15.8	17.5
Mongolia	8.9	46.0	3.7	15.7	50.2	100.0		20.9	34.2
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...
South Asia									
Bangladesh	196.9	306.3	1.5	1.9	230.1	346.8		1.7	2.2
Bhutan	3.2	9.2	5.7	11.9	4.6	7.6		8.2	9.8
India	2,575.2	5,783.2	2.5	4.5	3,133.0	6,766.5		3.0	5.3
Maldives	2.1	6.6	7.6	18.4	1.6	4.2		5.7	11.6
Nepal	29.8	71.2	1.3	2.5	59.8	105.4		2.6	3.7
Sri Lanka	27.3	71.9	1.4	3.3	36.0	105.4		1.9	4.9
Southeast Asia									
Brunei Darussalam	6.2	6.6 (2010)	18.5	16.5 (2010)	6.1	5.0	(2010)	18.3	12.4 (2010)
Cambodia	18.9	74.5	1.5	4.8	25.0	132.6		2.0	8.5
Indonesia	590.2	1,606.2	2.8	6.3	1,054.4	2,141.0		5.0	8.4
Lao PDR	7.8	44.4	1.4	6.3	13.5	70.0		2.5	10.0
Malaysia	382.0	632.7	16.3	20.6	318.4	409.1		13.6	13.3
Myanmar	29.9	116.8	0.6	2.2	106.5	226.4		2.2	4.2
Philippines	312.6	488.8	4.0	4.8	279.5	481.3		3.6	4.7
Singapore	261.7	426.5	66.8	75.9	429.2	219.0		109.6	39.0
Thailand	403.1	750.6	6.5	11.1	367.3	600.9		5.9	8.9
Viet Nam	272.5	832.3	3.4	8.9	327.2	965.9		4.0	10.3
The Pacific									
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	0.1	0.2	(2010)	7.0	7.9 (2010)
Fiji	4.3	5.7	5.3	6.4	7.0	6.9		8.6	7.7
Kiribati	...	...	...	...	0.3	0.5	(2010)	4.1	5.0 (2010)
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...	0.1	0.2	(2010)	2.2	2.9 (2010)
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...	...	0.3	0.4	(2010)	3.2	3.5 (2010)
Nauru	...	...	...	...	0.7	0.4	(2010)	69.0	45.0 (2010)
Palau	...	...	...	...	0.1	0.1	(2010)	6.2	6.1 (2010)
Papua New Guinea	13.0	28.8	2.4	3.8	66.1	86.7		12.3	11.4
Samoa	1.2	1.7 (2010)	7.1	9.1 (2010)	0.8	1.1	(2010)	4.3	6.2 (2010)
Solomon Islands	...	...	...	...	0.3	0.5	(2010)	0.8	1.0 (2010)
Timor-Leste	...	...	...	...	1.2	8.0	(2010)	1.4	7.4 (2010)
Tonga	...	...	...	...	0.5	0.8	(2010)	5.2	7.4 (2010)
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...	0.0	0.0	(2010)	3.2	2.3 (2010)
Vanuatu	1.2	2.2 (2010)	6.3	9.1 (2010)	1.1	1.4	(2010)	6.1	6.1 (2010)
Developed Member Economies									
Australia	633.2	967.0	32.9	40.4	917.4	1,132.2		47.6	47.3
Japan	3,138.1	2,651.5	25.0	20.9	1,564.1	1,231.3		12.4	9.7
New Zealand	85.3	107.8	22.1	23.5	91.8	100.6		23.8	21.9

(continued)

Goal 11. Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient, and sustainable
Goal 12. Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns
SDG 13: Take Urgent Action to Combat Climate Change and its Impacts
Goal 14. Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas, and marine resources for sustainable development
Goal 15. Protect, restore, and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation, and halt biodiversity loss

Table 3.2: **Selected Indicators for SDGs 11, 12, 14, and 15 - Sustainable Cities and the Environment, Responsible Consumption and Production, Life below Water, and Life on Land** *(continued)*

Regional Member	13.1.2 Number of countries that adopt and implement national disaster risk reduction strategies in line with the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030[a]	14.5.1 Coverage of Protected Areas in Relation to Marine Areas (%)	15.1.1 Forest Area as a Proportion of Total Land Area (%)		15.5.1 Red List Index[b]	
	Latest Year	2016	2000	2015	2000	2016
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan	2015	...	2.1	2.1	0.84	0.84
Armenia	2013	...	11.8	11.8	0.85	0.84
Azerbaijan		0.4	10.5	13.8	0.91	0.91
Georgia	2015	0.7	39.7	40.6	0.88	0.86
Kazakhstan	2013	1.1	1.2	1.2	0.88	0.87
Kyrgyz Republic	2015	...	4.5	3.3	0.99	0.98
Pakistan	2015	0.8	2.7	1.9	0.93	0.87
Tajikistan		...	3.0	3.0	0.99	0.98
Turkmenistan		3.0	8.8	8.8	0.98	0.97
Uzbekistan		...	7.3	7.3	0.98	0.97
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	2013	3.8	18.8	22.1	0.81	0.75
Hong Kong, China		...	...	...	0.82	0.82
Korea, Rep. of	2013	1.6	64.8	63.7	0.84	0.78
Mongolia	2015	...	7.5	8.1	0.96	0.95
Taipei,China		...	58.1(2001)	60.7	...	...
South Asia						
Bangladesh	2015	5.4	11.3	11.0	0.83	0.77
Bhutan	2015	...	68.4	72.3	0.80	0.80
India	2015	0.2	22.0	23.8	0.75	0.69
Maldives		0.1	3.3	3.3	0.91	0.85
Nepal	2015	...	27.2	25.4	0.82	0.82
Sri Lanka	2015	0.1	35.0	33.0	0.66	0.57
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam		0.2	75.3	72.1	0.85	0.83
Cambodia		0.2	65.4	53.6	0.88	0.82
Indonesia	2015	2.9	57.8	53.0	0.84	0.77
Lao PDR		...	71.6	81.3	0.82	0.81
Malaysia	2013	1.4	65.7	67.6	0.82	0.70
Myanmar		0.1	53.0	44.2	0.86	0.81
Philippines	2015	1.2	23.6	27.0	0.73	0.65
Singapore		...	22.9	22.9	0.91	0.87
Thailand	2015	1.9	33.3	32.1	0.85	0.80
Viet Nam	2015	0.6	37.8	47.6	0.81	0.75
The Pacific						
Cook Islands		–	62.5	62.5	0.80	0.77
Fiji	2015	0.9	53.6	55.7	0.70	0.67
Kiribati		11.8	14.8	14.8	0.82	0.77
Marshall Islands		0.3	72.2	72.2	0.89	0.84
Micronesia, Fed. States of		0.0	91.4	91.4	0.76	0.69
Nauru	2013	...	0.0	0.0	0.82	0.78
Palau		83.0	87.0	87.0	0.91	0.76
Papua New Guinea	2013	0.2	72.6	72.5	0.90	0.84
Samoa	2013	0.1	60.4	60.4	0.84	0.81
Solomon Islands		0.1	81.0	78.1	0.83	0.77
Timor-Leste		1.4	57.4	46.1	0.95	0.89
Tonga	2013	1.5	12.5	12.5	0.73	0.71
Tuvalu		0.0	33.3	33.3	0.88	0.84
Vanuatu	2013	0.0	36.1	36.1	0.72	0.67
Developed Member Economies						
Australia	2015	40.7	16.8	16.2	0.88	0.83
Japan	2015	0.5	68.2	68.5	0.84	0.79
New Zealand	2015	30.3	38.5	38.6	0.71	0.64

... = data not available at cutoff date, – = magnitude equals zero, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

a Refers to the most recent year when the economy adopted and implemented national disaster risk reduction strategies in line with the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030.

b The Red List Index value ranges from 1, which means all species are categorized as "Least Concern" hence, that none are expected to go extinct in the near future; to 0, or all species are categorized as "Extinct," and so indicates how far the set of species has moved overall toward extinction.

Sources: United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Database. https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 17 July 2017); United Nations Human Settlement Programme (UN-Habitat). World Cities Report. https://unhabitat.org/books/world-cities-report/. World Health Organization. Global Health Observatory data repository. http://apps.who.int/gho/data/view.main.SDGPM25116v?lang=en (accessed 28 June 2017). United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), Natural Resources: Resource Efficiency Indicators https://uneplive.unep.org/material (accessed 30 June 2017) Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. Global Forest Resources Assessment 2015. http://www.fao.org/3/a-i4808e.pdf (accessed 30 June 2015). For Taipei,China: economy source.

Prosperity

To ensure that all human beings can enjoy prosperous and fulfilling lives and that economic, social, and technological progress occurs in harmony with nature.

Snapshot

- As of 2014, 20 out of 47 economies in Asia and the Pacific have access to electricity, but in 11 regional economies, including Bangladesh and India, more than 20% of the population still do not have access to electricity.
- In 2014, 14 out of 46 economies reported at least 90% of their populations relying primarily on clean fuels and technology for cooking.
- The Lao People's Democratic Republic, Bhutan, and Nepal have over 80% of their respective final energy consumption based on renewable sources.
- Based on latest available data, unemployment rates for the age group of 15 years and above in 23 out of 41 reporting economies are below 5%.
- In 2014, less than 60% of adults in 19 out of 27 developing economies of Asia and the Pacific had an account at a bank or other financial institution.
- Manufacturing value added per capita in Asia and the Pacific has grown by at least 50% from 2000 to 2016 in more than half of 47 reporting economies, but negative growth has been observed in 13 economies.
- Research and development expenditures are rising in the Asia and Pacific economies; however, only four developing economies and three developed economies have research and development expenditures exceeding 1% percent of gross domestic product.
- Based on latest available data over about a five year period, the bottom 40% of the population experienced faster growth in per capita income (or expenditure) than the national average in 13 out of 16 developing economies in the region.

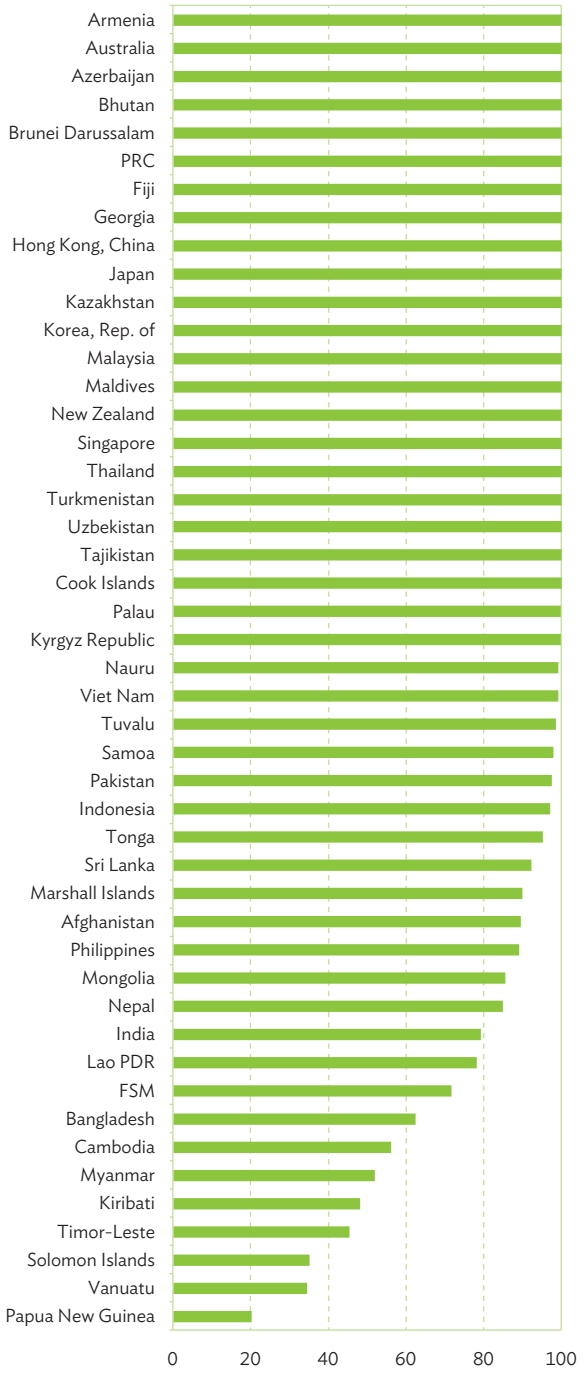
Ensuring sustainable development not only entails economic prosperity, but also requires growth to be inclusive, fair, and environmentally sustainable. SDGs 7 to 10 are focused on guaranteeing that everyone can enjoy prosperous and fulfilling lives, and that socioeconomic progress occurs in harmony with nature. The goals include universal access to affordable and clean energy; economic growth and decent work for all; resilient infrastructure, inclusive and sustainable industrialization, and fostered innovation; and reduced inequalities.

SDG 7: Ensure Access to Affordable, Reliable, Sustainable and Modern Energy for All

Energy is fundamental to almost every major human endeavor, and lack of access to affordable, reliable, sustainable, and modern energy can impede economic development. Emissions from inefficient energy usage may contribute to negative health outcomes, particularly among the poorest segments of society that rely on these unclean energy sources and have little or no access to health care. Expanding infrastructure and upgrading technology to provide affordable and clean energy to all can encourage growth as well as protect the environment.

Proportion of population with access to electricity. As of 2014, at least 95% of the population in 30 out of 47 economies with available data in Asia and the Pacific have access to electricity. Of these 30 economies, two-thirds enjoy universal access to electricity (Figure 4.1), an increase by 13 economies from seven economies in 2000. Across the region, 45 of 47 economies have increased or maintained the share of their populations with electricity access in the period 2000 to 2014. Despite this progress, a significant number of people still do not have access to electricity. Eleven economies are reported to provide electricity access to less than 80% of its population—Bangladesh (62.4%); Cambodia (56.1%) India (79.2%); the Lao People's Democratic Republic (78.1%); Myanmar (52.0%); and the Pacific economies of Kiribati (48.1%), the Federated States of Micronesia (71.7%), Papua New Guinea (20.3%), Solomon Islands (35.1%), Timor-Leste (45.4%), and Vanuatu (34.5%) (Table 4.1).

Figure 4.1: Proportion of Population with Access to Electricity, 2014
(%)



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 4.1.

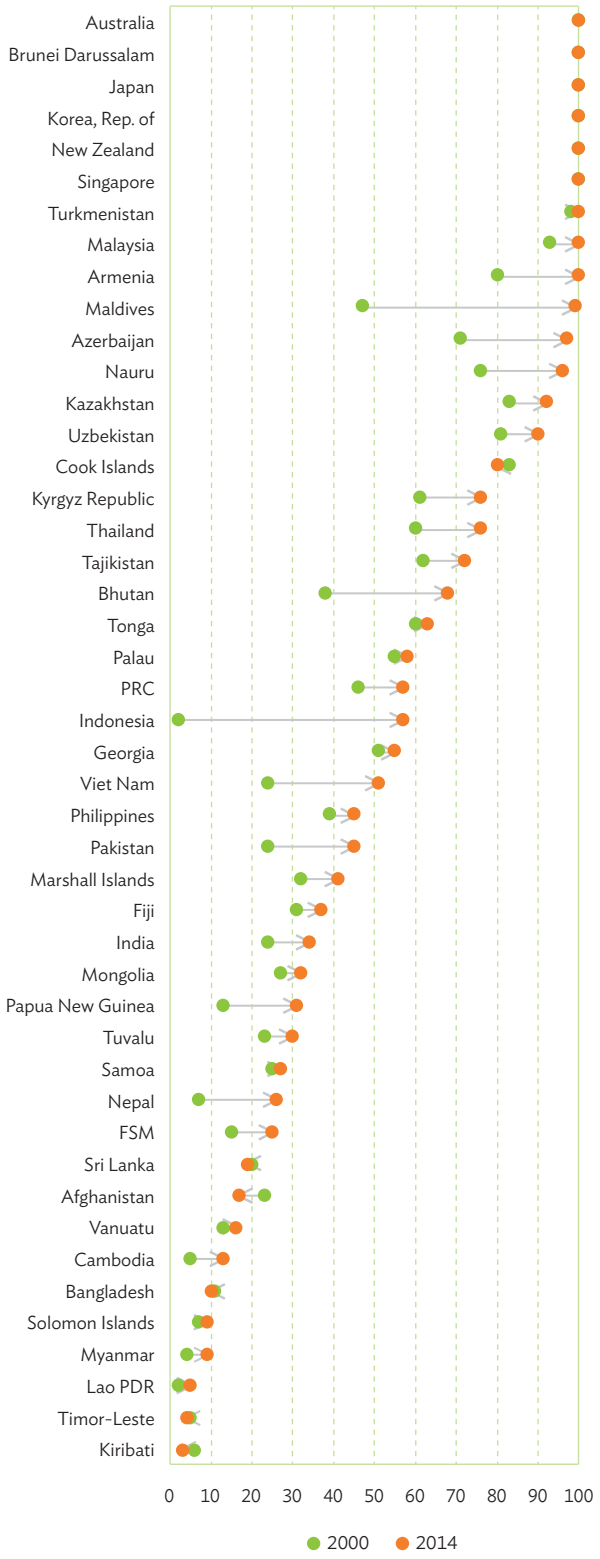
Click here for figure data

Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology for cooking. Seven out of 46 reporting economies in 2000—Australia, Brunei Darussalam, Japan, the Republic of Korea, New Zealand, Singapore, and Turkmenistan—already had at least 95% of their respective populations relying on clean fuels and technology for cooking (Figure 4.2). Of the remaining 39 economies, 33 have reported an increase in reliance on clean fuels among their respective populations during 2000–2014, with Indonesia and Maldives reporting the biggest increases at over 50 percentage points (Table 4.1). By 2014, five other economies—Armenia, Azerbaijan, Malaysia, Maldives, Nauru—also had at least 95% of their populations relying on clean fuels and technology. On the other hand, the proportion of people relying on unclean fuels and technologies for cooking is over 80% in 10 economies—Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Cambodia, Kiribati, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar, Solomon Islands, Sri Lanka, Timor-Leste, and Vanuatu.

Renewable energy share in total final energy consumption. Overall, 21 out of 47 economies reported at least one-fourth of their energy consumption coming from renewable resources (Figure 4.3). Over 80% of total final energy consumption in the Lao People's Democratic Republic (90.3%), Bhutan (86.7%), and Nepal (84.4%) is based on renewable sources (Table 4.1). The largest percentage point decline in the share of total final energy consumption coming from renewable resources was reported for Afghanistan (37.5 percentage points). Three other economies reported at least 20 percentage points decline in their renewable energy usage from 2000 to 2014: Bangladesh, Tajikistan, and Viet Nam.

Figure 4.2: Proportion of Population with Primary Reliance on Clean Fuels and Technology for Cooking

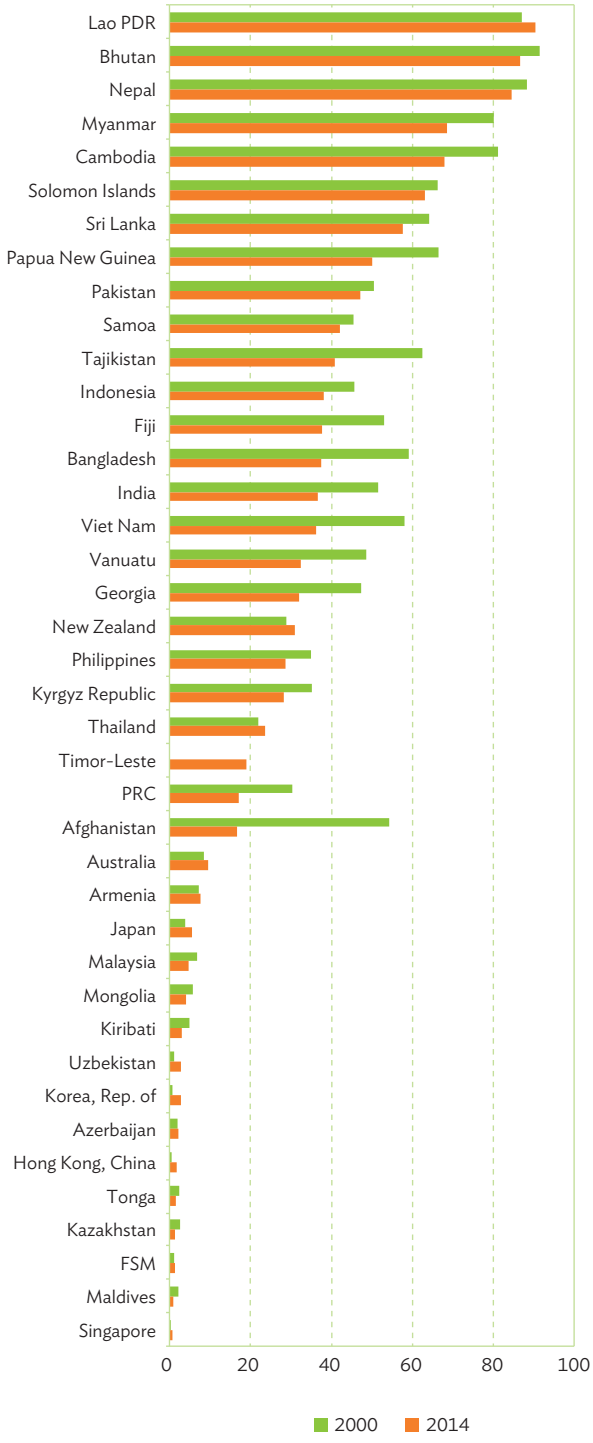
(%)



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 4.1.

Click here for figure data

Figure 4.3: Renewable Energy Share in the Total Final Energy Consumption, (%)



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Note: Economies with values less than 0.5 are not presented in the chart. These include Brunei Darussalam, the Cook Islands, the Marshall Islands, Nauru, Palau, Turkmenistan, and Tuvalu.
Source: Table 4.1.

Click here for figure data

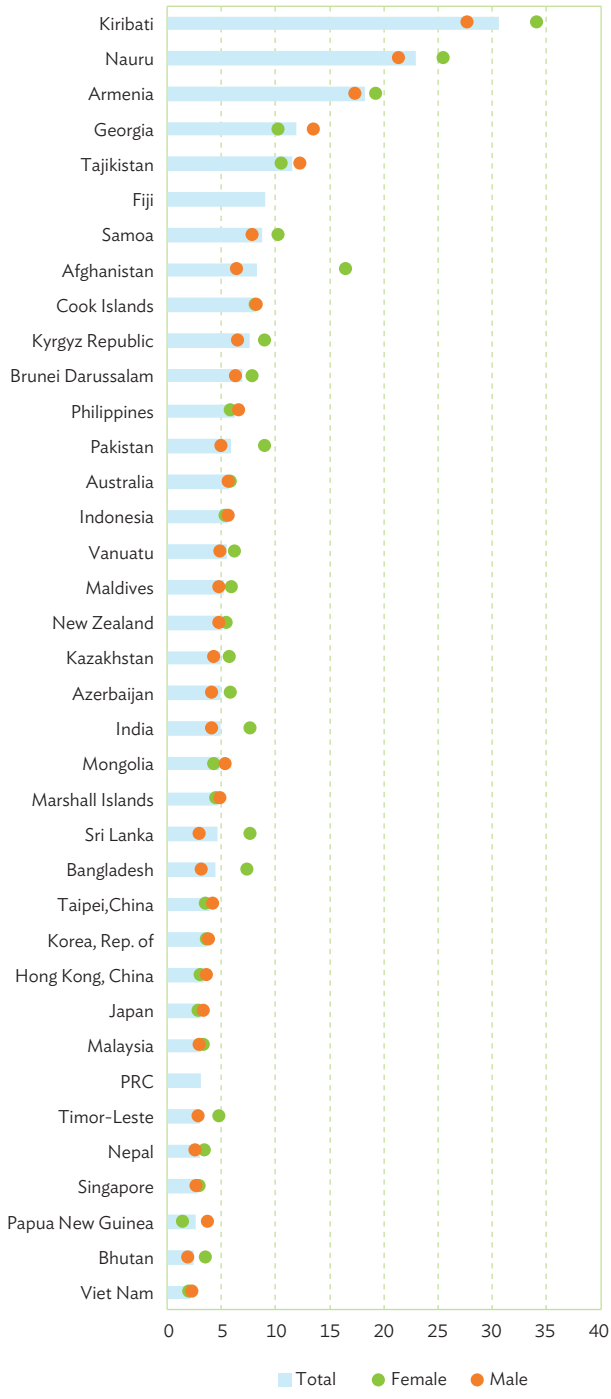
Energy intensity measured in terms of primary energy and GDP. Energy intensity is a proxy for energy efficiency, as it describes how much energy is used to produce one unit of economic output. Across most economies in Asia and the Pacific, energy intensity has improved. Latest data (Table 4.1) show that energy intensity levels are over 10 megajoules per US dollar (MJ/$) constant 2011 purchasing power parity (PPP) gross domestic product (GDP) in Turkmenistan (14.3), Palau (13.0), Uzbekistan (11.2), and Bhutan (11.1). In other economies in Asia and the Pacific, the energy intensity level ranges between 1.6 MJ/$ 2011 PPP GDP and 8.6 MJ/$ 2011 PPP GDP.

SDG 8: Promote Sustained, Inclusive and Sustainable Economic Growth, Full and Productive Employment and Decent Work for All

While economic growth is necessary for a country's progress, it is not sufficient to ensure increased access to opportunities and better living conditions for all segments of society. The pursuit of inclusive growth is therefore an important objective within the context of the SDGs. Promoting full and productive employment, and providing decent work for all plays a pivotal role in ensuring that growth is inclusive and sustainable.

Unemployment rate. Based on the latest available data, 23 out of 41 economies with data have registered unemployment rates for the age group of 15 years and above as 5% or below, while another five economies have over 10% unemployment rates (Table 4.3). Women registered a higher unemployment rate than men in 23 out of 38 economies with data available for the latest year. Figure 4.4 presents results for all reporting economies where total and sex-disaggregated unemployment rates for the age group of 15 years and above are greater than 1.

Figure 4.4: Unemployment Rate, 15 Years Old and Above, by Sex, Latest Year
(%)



PRC = People's Republic of China.
Notes: Sex-disaggregated unemployment rates for population aged 15 years and above in the PRC and Fiji are not available. For Myanmar, total unemployment rate for population aged 15 years and above is less than 1; For Cambodia, the Lao PDR, and Thailand, total and sex-disaggregated unemployment rates for population 15 years old and above are less than 1, which are not presented in this chart.
Source: Table 4.3.

Click here for figure data

Proportion of adults (15 years and older) with an account at a bank or other financial institution or with a mobile money service provider. While at least 97% of adult populations in developed member economies have accounts in banks, other financial institutions, or with mobile money service providers, only 8 out of 27 developing economies have reported at least 60% of people 15 years and older having access to the same (Table 4.5). East Asia is the only region where more than 80% of adults have an account a bank, or other financial institution, or with a mobile money provider. For 17 out of 23 economies of Central and West Asia, Southeast Asia, and South Asia, less than 50% of adults reported having an account at a bank, financial institution or with a mobile money service provider.

SDG 9: Build Resilient Infrastructure, Promote Inclusive and Sustainable Industrialization, and Foster Innovation

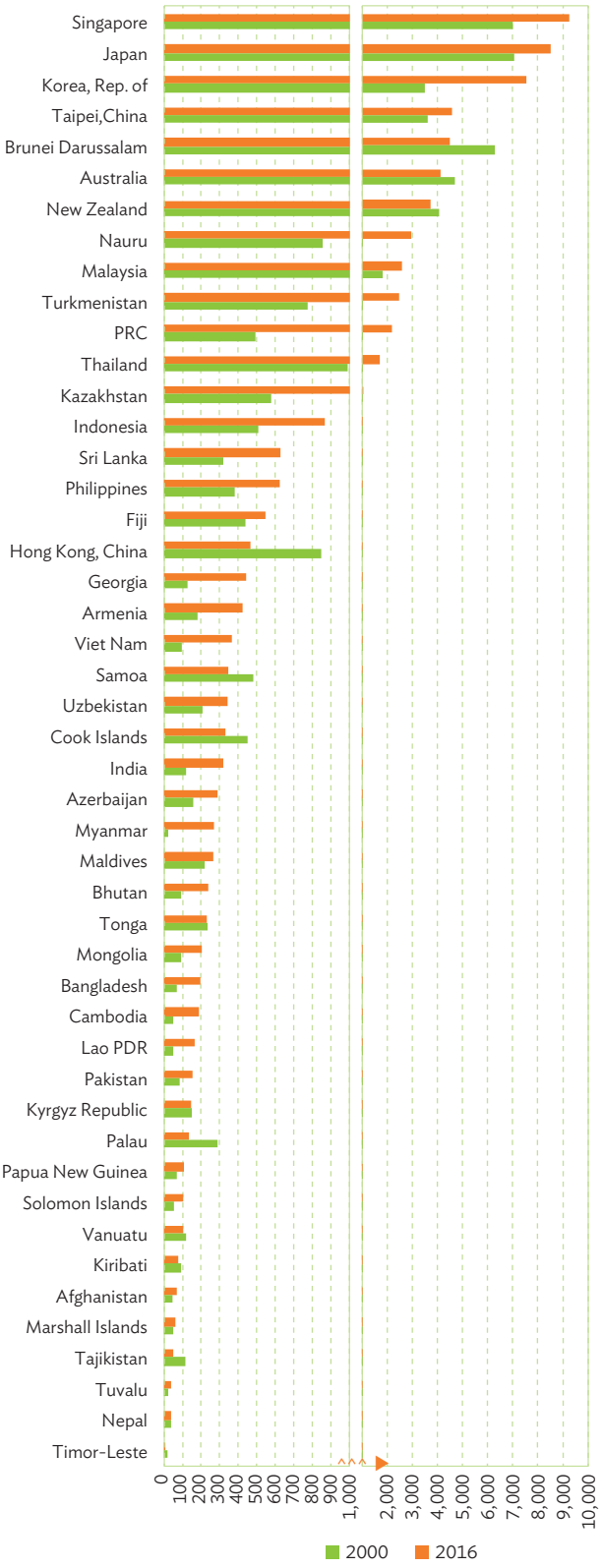
Infrastructure provides basic physical facilities and services necessary to stimulate economic activity and growth. Inclusive and sustainable industrialization drives economic growth, creates jobs and wealth, and ultimately reduces poverty. Innovation leads to the development of new skills and competencies, and strengthens the productivity and competitiveness of industries. Amidst a rapidly changing global economic landscape, it is imperative that these three facets of SDG 9 work in tandem to ensure sustainable economic growth and adequate response to climate change.

Manufacturing value added per capita. Figure 4.5 shows that in 2016, Singapore posted the highest manufacturing value added per capita across all regional economies at $9,265.7 (at constant 2010 dollars). Manufacturing value added per capita was over $3,000 per person (at constant 2010 dollars) in six other regional economies, including Brunei Darussalam ($4,482.2); the Republic of

Korea ($7,556.8); Taipei,China ($4,586.1); and the developed member economies of Australia ($4,118.1), Japan ($8,514.2), and New Zealand ($3,719.1). Latest available year data for economies show that low manufacturing value added per capita (at constant 2010 dollars) has been registered in Timor-Leste ($7.3), Nepal ($38.8), and Tuvalu ($39.6). Meanwhile, negative growth in manufacturing value added per capita between 2000 and 2016 has been observed in Brunei Darussalam; Hong Kong, China; the Kyrgyz Republic; Tajikistan; in seven Pacific economies, the Cook Islands, Kiribati, Palau, Samoa, Timor-Leste, Tonga, Vanuatu; and in two developed economies, Australia and New Zealand.

Carbon dioxide emission per unit of value added. Three-fifths of 30 Asia and Pacific economies managed to lower carbon dioxide (CO_2) emissions per unit of gross domestic product (GDP) (2005 purchasing power parity) by at least a 20.0% between 2000 and 2014 (Table 4.8). Four of the five economies with the highest CO_2 emissions per unit of GDP in 2000 are in Central and West Asia: Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan, Kazakhstan, and Azerbaijan, respectively. Central and West Asia, however, has succeeded in reducing CO_2 emissions per value added, with half of 10 economies reducing CO_2 emissions by at least 28% between 2000 and 2014.

Figure 4.5: Manufacturing Value Added per Capita
(constant 2010 $)



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Note: For the Cook Islands and Nauru, the latest available year is 2014.
Source: Table 4.7.

Click here for figure data

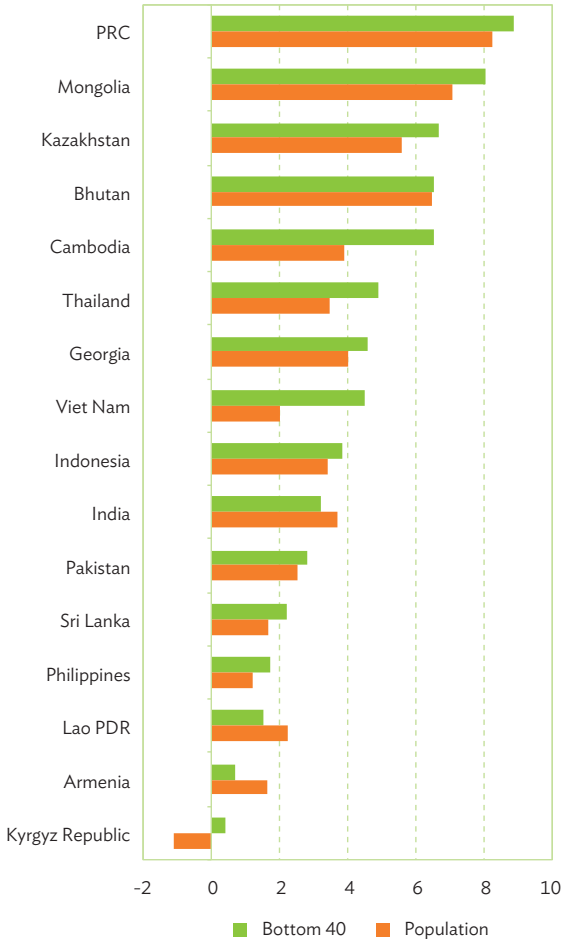
Research and development expenditure as a proportion of GDP. Research and development (R&D) spending as a proportion of GDP has risen between 2000 and 2015 in 16 economies in Asia and the Pacific (Table 4.9). However, in 2015, only seven economies fulfilled or surpassed the 1% R&D spending benchmark recommended by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. These are the Republic of Korea (4.2%), Japan (3.3%), Australia (2.2%), Singapore (2.2%), the People's Republic of China (2.1%), Malaysia (1.3%), and New Zealand (1.2%). Except for Hong Kong, China (0.8%); India (0.6%); and Thailand (0.6%), the rest of the regional economies had expenditures on R&D less than 0.5% of GDP.

SDG 10: Reduce Inequality Within and Among Countries

Stark, pervasive, and often mutually reinforcing economic inequalities are evident within and among economies in Asia and the Pacific. These income, wealth, and asset inequalities typically occur because of initial conditions that are beyond one's control, such as wealth, sex, residence, disability status, ethnicity, migrant status, and social marginalization. SDG 10 aims to reduce inequalities through the adoption of policies facilitating labor mobility and empowerment of the bottom group of income earners, alongside promoting socioeconomic inclusion regardless of one's sex, race, ethnicity, and other social constructs.

Growth rates of household expenditure or income per capita among the bottom 40% of the population and the total population. Available data for recent years show that in 13 out of 16 developing economies in the region with available data (Figure 4.6), the per capita income of the bottom 40% has grown faster than the national average, with the People's Republic of China (8.9%) and Mongolia (8.0%) reporting at least 8% growth rate for the poorest 40% of their respective households. The growth rate of per capita income among the bottom 40% of the population is lower than the average for the whole population in Armenia, India, and the Lao People's Democratic Republic.

Figure 4.6: Growth Rates of Expenditure (or Income per Capita) among the Bottom 40% and the Entire Population
(%)



Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Source: Table 4.12.

Click here for figure data

Equity, Data Gaps, and Other Related Issues

In Asia and the Pacific, some segments of the population including the poor and those living in rural areas, do not have access to electricity, clean fuels, and technology for cooking. Closing this gap remains a challenge given the high costs of supplying electricity to rural households, limited capacity of rural households to pay for the service, and electricity generation shortages.

Employment generation is critical for inclusive economic growth, and the unemployment rate is an important indicator for understanding labor market dynamics. However, inequities in employment continue to persist, with unemployment rates being significantly higher for youth aged 15–24 years compared to adults aged 25 years and above. Data on unemployment for persons with disabilities is not available in most countries. Also, the sole use of the unemployment rate as a measure of success in job creation can be unsuitable for some developing economies in the region with a large informal sector. For these countries, examining underemployment and vulnerable employment is more suitable.

Labor share in GDP underestimates the proportion of GDP accrued to total employment, as it only covers the compensation of employees and does not include labor income for self-employed people. Moreover, data on income from self-employment are not always available for developing economies. Thus, labor share in GDP may be less relevant in developing economies within the region, where a large proportion of employment is in self-employment. However, an adjusted labor share may be estimated to account for labor income of self-employed workers.

Finally, while a positive correlation exists between poverty and inequality, the relative importance of growth and inequality to poverty varies across countries (ADB, 2016). Some countries such as the PRC, India, Indonesia, and Viet Nam have reduced poverty significantly, even if the income of the bottom 40% has grown more slowly than that of the national average.

Table 4.1: **Selected Indicators for SDG 7 - Energy Efficiency and Access to Modern and Renewable Energy Sources**

By 2030, ensure universal access to affordable, reliable, and modern energy services

By 2030, increase substantially the share of renewable energy in the global energy mix

By 2030, double the global rate of improvement in energy efficiency

Regional Member	7.1.1 Proportion of Population with Access to Electricity (%)		7.1.2 Proportion of Population with Primary Reliance on Clean Fuels and Technology (%)		7.2.1 Renewable Energy Share in the Total Final Energy Consumption (%)		7.3.1 Energy Intensity Measured in Terms of Primary Energy and GDP (MJ/$ 2011 PPP GDP)	
	2000	2014	2000	2014	2000	2014	2000	2014
Developing Member Economies								
Central and West Asia								
Afghanistan	0.2	89.5	23.0	17.0	54.2	16.8	1.7	2.6
Armenia	98.9	100.0	80.0	100.0	7.2	7.7	9.4	5.4
Azerbaijan	98.0	100.0	71.0	97.0	2.1	2.1	13.2	3.8
Georgia	99.8	100.0	51.0	55.0	47.3	31.9	8.3	5.6
Kazakhstan	99.0	100.0	83.0	92.0	2.5	1.4	9.7	7.6
Kyrgyz Republic	99.8	99.8	61.0	76.0	35.2	28.3	9.6	8.6
Pakistan	75.2	97.5	24.0	45.0	50.4	47.2	5.5	4.4
Tajikistan	98.4	100.0	62.0	72.0	62.4	40.7	12.3	5.5
Turkmenistan	99.6	100.0	98.0	100.0	0.1	0.0	25.9	14.3
Uzbekistan	99.8	100.0	81.0	90.0	1.2	2.9	35.0	11.2
East Asia								
China, People's Rep. of	94.8	100.0	46.0	57.0	30.3	17.1	10.2	7.4
Hong Kong, China	100.0	100.0	...	...	0.6	1.8	2.5	1.6
Korea, Rep. of	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.7	2.8	8.1	6.6
Mongolia	67.3	85.6	27.0	32.0	5.7	4.0	9.0	6.8
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Asia								
Bangladesh	32.0	62.4	11.0	10.0	59.0	37.5	3.5	3.1
Bhutan	32.1	100.0	38.0	68.0	91.4	86.7	21.8	11.1
India	59.6	79.2	24.0	34.0	51.6	36.5	7.0	4.9
Maldives	83.8	100.0	47.0	99.0	2.1	0.9	3.3	4.0
Nepal	27.2	84.9	7.0	26.0	88.3	84.4	9.3	7.7
Sri Lanka	69.4	92.2	20.0	19.0	64.2	57.6	3.4	2.0
Southeast Asia								
Brunei Darussalam	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	–	0.0	4.0	5.3
Cambodia	16.6	56.1	5.0	13.0	81.1	68.0	8.5	5.6
Indonesia	86.3	97.0	2.0	57.0	45.6	38.1	5.3	3.7
Lao PDR	43.1	78.1	2.0	5.0	87.1	90.3	5.4	2.3
Malaysia	96.7	100.0	93.0	100.0	6.7	4.8	5.4	5.1
Myanmar	45.9	52.0	4.0	9.0	80.2	68.5	9.0	3.2
Philippines	73.6	89.1	39.0	45.0	34.9	28.7	5.1	3.0
Singapore	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.3	0.6	3.8	2.7
Thailand	82.1	100.0	60.0	76.0	22.0	23.6	5.2	5.6
Viet Nam	86.1	99.2	24.0	51.0	58.0	36.2	5.9	5.7
The Pacific								
Cook Islands	97.5	99.9	83.0	80.0	–	–	...	...
Fiji	74.8	100.0	31.0	37.0	52.9	37.6	3.8	3.1
Kiribati	75.8	48.1	6.0	3.0	4.9	3.0	3.4	4.8
Marshall Islands	68.1	90.0	32.0	41.0	0.0	0.2	6.8	7.5
Micronesia, Fed. States of	46.0	71.7	15.0	25.0	1.2	1.3	5.5	6.8
Nauru	99.9	99.2	76.0	96.0	0.0	0.0	...	...
Palau	98.4	99.8	55.0	58.0	0.0	0.0	13.4	13.0
Papua New Guinea	12.3	20.3	13.0	31.0	66.4	50.0	9.9	7.9
Samoa	87.2	97.9	25.0	27.0	45.4	42.1	4.4	4.3
Solomon Islands	9.5	35.1	7.0	9.0	66.3	63.0	7.6	5.3
Timor-Leste	24.2	45.4	5.0	4.0	...	19.0	2.9	3.0
Tonga	85.4	95.3	60.0	63.0	2.5	1.6	3.3	3.1
Tuvalu	94.2	98.5	23.0	30.0	–	–	3.3	3.7
Vanuatu	22.2	34.5	13.0	16.0	48.7	32.4	4.0	4.3
Developed Member Economies								
Australia	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	8.4	9.5	6.7	5.2
Japan	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	3.9	5.5	5.3	4.1
New Zealand	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	28.9	30.9	6.6	5.6

... = data not available at cutoff date, – = magnitude equals zero, 0.0 = magnitude is less than half of unit employed, GDP = gross domestic product, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, MJ = megajoule, PPP = purchasing power parity, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

Sources: World Bank Energy Sector Management Assistance Program and International Energy Agency. Global Tracking Framework 2017. http://gtf.esmap.org/downloads (accessed 6 July 2017); United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Database. http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 17 July 2017).

Goal 8. Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all

Table 4.2: **Selected Indicators for SDG 8 - Decent Work and Economic Growth**

Sustain per capita economic growth in accordance with national circumstances and, in particular, at least 7% gross domestic product per annum in the least developed countries

Achieve higher levels of economic productivity through diversification, technological upgrading, and innovation, including through a focus on high-value added and labor-intensive sectors

Regional Member	8.1.1 Annual Growth Rate of Real GDP per Capita at Constant 2005 $ (%)		8.2.1 Annual Growth Rate of Real GDP per Employed Person (%)	
	2000	2015	2000	2016
Developing Member Economies				
Central and West Asia				
Afghanistan	−8.7	−5.1	−8.1	−1.9
Armenia	6.5	2.6	7.3	2.5
Azerbaijan	10.1	−0.6	17.0	−2.9
Georgia	3.1	6.7	2.3	3.4
Kazakhstan	10.6	−0.3	8.8	−1.3
Kyrgyz Republic	4.1	1.8	3.0	1.2
Pakistan	1.9	3.4	1.8	2.0
Tajikistan	6.7	1.9	5.6	3.8
Turkmenistan	4.3	5.2	2.6	3.6
Uzbekistan	2.6	5.3	1.0	4.3
East Asia				
China, People's Rep. of	7.9	6.4	7.1	6.4
Hong Kong, China	6.2	1.6	4.3	1.8
Korea, Rep. of	8.2	2.2	4.8	2.0
Mongolia	0.2	0.6	−1.6	−2.2
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...
South Asia				
Bangladesh	3.9	5.3	1.2	4.7
Bhutan	5.7	3.9	1.8	3.4
India	2.2	6.3	2.0	5.6
Maldives	2.5	1.1	−4.0	0.1
Nepal	4.2	1.5	4.5	−1.7
Sri Lanka	5.3	4.3	5.1	4.7
Southeast Asia				
Brunei Darussalam	0.8	−1.9	−1.0	−0.8
Cambodia	6.4	5.3	3.1	5.0
Indonesia	3.5	3.5	2.7	3.1
Lao PDR	4.1	5.8	3.6	4.9
Malaysia	6.4	3.5	3.3	2.6
Myanmar	12.4	6.4	11.3	6.6
Philippines	2.2	4.3	6.0	3.8
Singapore	6.2	0.2	3.7	0.2
Thailand	3.3	2.5	1.1	2.8
Viet Nam	5.6	5.5	4.5	4.9
The Pacific				
Cook Islands	13.8	4.9	...	...
Fiji	−2.3	2.9	−2.5	1.5
Kiribati	10.1	1.9	...	...
Marshall Islands	5.7	0.5	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	4.9	3.3	...	...
Nauru	−6.8	18.2	...	...
Palau	−1.3	4.7	...	...
Papua New Guinea	−4.9	4.4	−5.5	−0.2
Samoa	6.6	2.1	4.0	0.8
Solomon Islands	−16.5	1.2	−17.2	0.5
Timor-Leste	12.8	1.8	24.1	3.7
Tonga	2.6	3.2	2.4	1.2
Tuvalu	12.8	3.3	...	...
Vanuatu	3.1	−3.2	4.3	1.3
Developed Member Economies				
Australia	0.9	1.0	1.4	1.3
Japan	2.6	1.4	2.5	0.7
New Zealand	1.1	2.3	0.3	1.9

... = data not available at cutoff date, GDP = gross domestic product, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

Source: United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Database. http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 17 July 2017).

Goal 8. Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all

Table 4.3: **Selected Indicators for SDG 8 - Unemployment**

By 2030, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value

Regional Member	8.5.2.a Unemployment Rate for Age Group 15+, by Sex (%)					
	2000			2015		
	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan	8.5 (2005)	9.5 (2005)	7.6 (2005)	8.2 (2011)	16.5 (2011)	6.4 (2011)
Armenia	35.8 (2001)	40.2 (2001)	31.9 (2001)	18.3	19.2	17.4
Azerbaijan	11.8	12.7	10.9	5.0	5.9	4.1
Georgia	10.8	10.5	11.1	12.0	10.2	13.5
Kazakhstan	10.4 (2001)	12.1 (2001)	8.9 (2001)	5.0	5.7	4.3
Kyrgyz Republic	12.6 (2002)	14.3 (2002)	11.2 (2002)	7.6	9.0	6.5
Pakistan	7.2	15.8	5.5	5.9	9.0	5.0
Tajikistan	...	...	...	11.5 (2009)	10.5 (2009)	12.3 (2009)
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	2.6	...	...	3.1 (2014)	...	...
Hong Kong, China	4.9	4.0	5.6	3.4 (2016)	3.0 (2016)	3.7 (2016)
Korea, Rep. of	4.4	3.7	5.0	3.7 (2016)	3.6 (2016)	3.8 (2016)
Mongolia	6.2 (2002)	6.2 (2002)	6.2 (2002)	4.9	4.3	5.4
Taipei,China	3.0	...	...	3.9 (2016)	3.6 (2016)	4.2 (2016)
South Asia						
Bangladesh	3.3	3.3	3.2	4.4 (2013)	7.4 (2013)	3.2 (2013)
Bhutan	1.9 (2001)	3.2 (2001)	1.3 (2001)	2.5 (2014)	3.5 (2014)	1.9 (2014)
India	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.9 (2014)	7.7 (2014)	4.1 (2014)
Maldives	2.0	2.7	1.6	5.2 (2014)	5.9 (2014)	4.8 (2014)
Nepal	8.8 (2001)	10.7 (2001)	7.4 (2001)	3.0 (2014)	3.4 (2014)	2.6 (2014)
Sri Lanka	7.7	11.4	5.9	4.7	7.6	3.0
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...	7.0 (2014)	7.9 (2014)	6.3 (2014)
Cambodia	2.5	2.8	2.1	0.2 (2014)	0.2 (2014)	0.2 (2014)
Indonesia	9.1 (2007)	10.8 (2007)	8.1 (2007)	5.6 (2016)	5.4 (2016)	5.7 (2016)
Lao PDR	1.4 (2005)	1.4 (2005)	1.4 (2005)	0.7 (2010)	0.7 (2010)	0.8 (2010)
Malaysia	3.0	3.1	3.0	3.1	3.4	2.9
Myanmar	...	...	...	0.8 (2016)	...	...
Philippines	11.2	11.5	11.0	6.3	5.8	6.6
Singapore	3.7	3.5	3.9	2.8 (2014)	3.0 (2014)	2.7 (2014)
Thailand	2.4	2.3	2.4	0.2	0.2	0.2
Viet Nam	2.3	2.1	2.4	2.1	2.0	2.3
The Pacific						
Cook Islands	13.1 (2001)	14.8 (2001)	11.7 (2001)	8.2 (2011)	8.1 (2011)	8.2 (2011)
Fiji	4.7 (2004)	6.0 (2004)	4.1 (2004)	9.0 (2012)	...	...
Kiribati	14.7 (2005)	18.2 (2005)	12.3 (2005)	30.6 (2010)	34.1 (2010)	27.6 (2010)
Marshall Islands	25.4 (2005)	...	...	4.7 (2011)	4.5 (2011)	4.9 (2011)
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nauru	22.8 (2002)	29.7 (2002)	17.0 (2002)	23.0 (2011)	25.5 (2011)	21.4 (2011)
Palau	2.3	2.8	2.0	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	2.9	...	...	2.6 (2011)	1.4 (2011)	3.7 (2011)
Samoa	5.0 (2001)	6.2 (2001)	4.4 (2001)	8.7 (2014)	10.3 (2014)	7.8 (2014)
Solomon Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...
Timor-Leste	...	...	...	3.1 (2010)	4.8 (2010)	2.8 (2010)
Tonga	5.2 (2003)	7.4 (2003)	3.6 (2003)	...	...	...
Tuvalu	6.5 (2002)	8.6 (2002)	5.0 (2002)	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	...	5.5 (2009)	6.2 (2009)	4.9 (2009)
Developed Member Economies						
Australia	6.3	6.1	6.5	5.7 (2016)	5.8 (2016)	5.7 (2016)
Japan	4.7	4.5	4.9	3.1 (2016)	2.8 (2016)	3.4 (2016)
New Zealand	6.1	6.0	6.3	5.1 (2016)	5.5 (2016)	4.8 (2016)

(continued)

Table 4.3: **Selected Indicators for SDG 8 - Unemployment** *(continued)*
By 2030, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value

Regional Member	8.5.2.b Unemployment Rate for Age Group 15–24, by Sex (%)					
	2000			2015		
	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Armenia	48.2 (2001)	56.4 (2001)	41.9 (2001)	32.0	36.7	28.0
Azerbaijan	14.0 (2007)	10.5 (2007)	18.2 (2007)	13.4	15.8	11.4
Georgia	21.1	20.5	21.6	30.8	35.2	28.6
Kazakhstan	17.3 (2002)	19.3 (2002)	15.7 (2002)	3.9 (2013)	4.3 (2013)	3.6 (2013)
Kyrgyz Republic	20.1 (2002)	21.2 (2002)	19.3 (2002)	15.0	19.1	12.5
Pakistan	13.3	29.2	11.1	7.7 (2008)	10.5 (2008)	7.0 (2008)
Tajikistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong, China	11.2	10.4	11.9	9.9 (2016)	8.5 (2016)	10.9 (2016)
Korea, Rep. of	10.8	9.0	13.6	10.7 (2016)	10.5 (2016)	11.0 (2016)
Mongolia	...	...	...	13.1	14.4	12.2
Taipei,China	7.3	...	...	12.1 (2016)	12.5 (2016)	11.7 (2016)
South Asia						
Bangladesh	10.7	10.3	11.1	9.9 (2013)	9.6 (2013)	10.1 (2013)
Bhutan	6.2 (2005)	7.2 (2005)	5.5 (2005)	10.7	12.7	8.2
India	10.0 (2005)	10.4 (2005)	9.8 (2005)	10.1 (2012)	12.0 (2012)	9.5 (2012)
Maldives	4.4	5.1	4.0	25.4 (2010)	21.4 (2010)	29.1 (2010)
Nepal	...	...	...	2.2 (2008)	1.6 (2008)	2.9 (2008)
Sri Lanka	23.7	30.8	19.9	20.7	27.3	16.5
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...	25.4 (2014)	28.1 (2014)	23.5 (2014)
Cambodia	...	...	...	1.6 (2012)	1.4 (2012)	1.8 (2012)
Indonesia	25.1 (2007)	27.3 (2007)	23.8 (2007)	18.7 (2016)	18.8 (2016)	18.6 (2016)
Lao PDR	...	...	...	1.8 (2010)	1.7 (2010)	1.9 (2010)
Malaysia	10.9 (2007)	11.5 (2007)	10.5 (2007)	10.7	11.8	9.9
Myanmar	...	...	...	1.6	1.8	1.4
Philippines	25.3	29.5	22.9	15.0	16.0	14.3
Singapore	8.8	11.2	6.4	9.2 (2008)	12.2 (2008)	6.4 (2008)
Thailand	6.6	6.0	7.0	1.0	1.1	0.8
Viet Nam	4.6 (2004)	4.9 (2004)	4.4 (2004)	7.0	7.3	6.8
The Pacific						
Cook Islands	...	...	...	15.5 (2011)	15.3 (2011)	15.6 (2011)
Fiji	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	39.3 (2005)	41.6 (2005)	37.2 (2005)	54.0 (2010)	61.8 (2010)	47.6 (2010)
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nauru	38.0 (2002)	46.1 (2002)	31.6 (2002)	...	...	...
Palau	...	...	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	5.3	...	...	...	...	...
Samoa	12.2 (2001)	15.5 (2001)	10.6 (2001)	19.1 (2014)	25.3 (2014)	15.6 (2014)
Solomon Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...
Timor-Leste	...	...	...	11.1 (2010)	20.0 (2010)	11.1 (2010)
Tonga	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	...	10.6 (2009)	11.2 (2009)	10.2 (2009)
Developed Member Economies						
Australia	12.1	11.2	12.9	12.7 (2016)	11.4 (2016)	13.9 (2016)
Japan	9.1	7.9	10.2	5.1 (2016)	4.5 (2016)	5.7 (2016)
New Zealand	13.5	12.4	14.6	13.2 (2016)	13.4 (2016)	13.1 (2016)

(continued)

Goal 8. Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all

Table 4.3: **Selected Indicators for SDG 8 - Unemployment** *(continued)*
By 2030, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value

Regional Member	8.5.2.c Unemployment Rate for Age Group 25+, by Sex (%)					
	2000			2015		
	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Armenia	32.7 (2001)	36.5 (2001)	29.2 (2001)	16.4	17.0	15.8
Azerbaijan	5.2 (2007)	4.3 (2007)	6.1 (2007)	3.8	4.6	3.0
Georgia	9.7	9.5	9.8	10.2	8.5	11.6
Kazakhstan	7.9 (2002)	9.9 (2002)	6.0 (2002)	5.4 (2013)	6.1 (2013)	4.7 (2013)
Kyrgyz Republic	10.4 (2002)	12.4 (2002)	8.8 (2002)	5.9	7.0	5.1
Pakistan	4.9	12.3	3.4	3.8 (2008)	7.9 (2008)	2.8 (2008)
Tajikistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong, China	4.1	3.0	4.8	2.8 (2016)	2.5 (2016)	3.0 (2016)
Korea, Rep. of	3.7	2.7	4.3	3.2 (2016)	2.9 (2016)	3.4 (2016)
Mongolia	...	...	...	3.9	3.3	4.5
Taipei,China	2.3	...	...	3.2 (2016)	2.8 (2016)	3.6 (2016)
South Asia						
Bangladesh	0.9	0.7	1.0	2.9 (2013)	6.4 (2013)	1.6 (2013)
Bhutan	1.9 (2005)	1.7 (2005)	2.0 (2005)	1.3	1.6	1.1
India	2.8 (2005)	3.6 (2005)	2.5 (2005)	2.0 (2010)	2.8 (2010)	1.8 (2010)
Maldives	1.1	1.8	0.8	6.6 (2010)	9.9 (2010)	4.7 (2010)
Nepal	...	...	...	1.0 (2008)	0.9 (2008)	1.1 (2008)
Sri Lanka	3.5	6.2	2.2	2.6	4.8	1.3
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...	4.1 (2014)	4.9 (2014)	3.5 (2014)
Cambodia	...	...	...	1.2 (2012)	1.0 (2012)	1.3 (2012)
Indonesia	5.0 (2007)	6.3 (2007)	4.2 (2007)	3.0 (2016)	2.6 (2016)	3.2 (2016)
Lao PDR	...	...	...	0.4 (2010)	0.3 (2010)	0.4 (2010)
Malaysia	1.4 (2007)	1.3 (2007)	1.5 (2007)	1.5	1.6	1.4
Myanmar	...	...	...	0.5	0.6	0.5
Philippines	7.1	6.6	7.4	4.0	3.3	4.5
Singapore	5.6	5.9	5.5	3.4 (2008)	3.5 (2008)	3.4 (2008)
Thailand	1.5	1.5	1.4	0.3	0.3	0.3
Viet Nam	1.5 (2004)	1.8 (2004)	1.1 (2004)	1.3	1.1	1.4
The Pacific						
Cook Islands	...	...	...	6.5 (2011)	6.5 (2011)	6.4 (2011)
Fiji	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	7.9 (2005)	10.1 (2005)	6.5 (2005)	20.9 (2010)	22.8 (2010)	19.2 (2010)
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nauru	14.1 (2002)	20.7 (2002)	8.6 (2002)	...	...	...
Palau	...	...	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	2.1	...	...	...	...	...
Samoa	2.7 (2001)	3.0 (2001)	2.6 (2001)	6.4 (2014)	7.1 (2014)	6.0 (2014)
Solomon Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...
Timor-Leste	...	...	...	2.1 (2010)	2.7 (2010)	1.9 (2010)
Tonga	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	...	3.7 (2009)	4.5 (2009)	3.2 (2009)
Developed Member Economies						
Australia	4.9	4.7	5.1	4.3 (2016)	4.6 (2016)	4.1 (2016)
Japan	4.2	3.9	4.3	2.9 (2016)	2.7 (2016)	3.2 (2016)
New Zealand	4.6	4.6	4.6	3.6 (2016)	4.0 (2016)	3.1 (2016)

... = data not available at cutoff date, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

Sources: United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Database. https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 18 July 2017); International Labour Organization. ILOSTAT. http://www.ilo.org/ilostat/ (accessed 26 June 2017).

Table 4.4: **Selected Indicators for SDG 8 - Youth Participation in Education and Work, Child Labor**

By 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education, or training

Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labor, end modern slavery and human trafficking; and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labor, including recruitment and use of child soldiers; and by 2025 end child labor in all its forms

Regional Member	8.6.1 Proportion of Youth (Aged 15–24 Years) Not in Education, Employment, or Training (%)		8.7.1 Proportion of Children Aged 5–17 Years Engaged in Child Labour (%)	
	2000	2015	2000	2014
Developing Member Economies				
Central and West Asia				
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...
Armenia	...	35.6	...	...
Azerbaijan	19.5 (2005)	9.6 (2010)	6.1 (2005)	...
Georgia	...	...	...	...
Kazakhstan	18.6 (2001)	9.5 (2016)	...	...
Kyrgyz Republic	10.6 (2007)	21.4	36.3 (2007)	37.1
Pakistan	...	...	...	...
Tajikistan	38.2 (2007)	...	5.0 (2005)	...
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	...	...	...	...
East Asia				
China, People's Rep. of	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong, China	...	6.6	...	...
Korea, Rep. of[a]	...	18.0 (2013)	...	...
Mongolia	18.5 (2006)	16.8	6.2 (2002)	9.4 (2013)
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...
South Asia				
Bangladesh	31.5 (2002)	20.2 (2013)	15.1 (2003)	6.8 (2013)
Bhutan	...	...	...	...
India	26.1 (2004)	27.5 (2012)	4.1 (2004)	2.1 (2012)
Maldives	...	56.4 (2010)	...	...
Nepal	...	9.2 (2013)	...	19.1
Sri Lanka	...	27.7 (2014)	...	10.3 (2009)
Southeast Asia				
Brunei Darussalam	...	17.2 (2014)	...	...
Cambodia	...	7.8 (2012)	25.3 (2007)	16.3
Indonesia	...	24.8	...	5.2 (2009)
Lao PDR	...	5.1 (2010)	...	11.9 (2010)
Malaysia	...	1.2	...	...
Myanmar	...	18.6	...	...
Philippines	...	22.1 (2016)	11.4 (2001)	9.4 (2011)
Singapore	...	11.4 (2014)	...	...
Thailand	...	14.6 (2016)	...	...
Viet Nam	...	0.6	...	...
The Pacific				
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...
Fiji	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	...	...	...	...
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...	...
Nauru	...	...	...	...
Palau	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	...	...	...	...
Samoa	...	38.2 (2012)	...	...
Solomon Islands	...	...	...	...
Timor-Leste	...	...	...	...
Tonga	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	...	...
Developed Member Economies				
Australia	...	11.1	...	...
Japan	...	3.6	...	...
New Zealand	10.8 (2004)	12.0 (2016)	...	...

... = data not available at cutoff date, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

a Refers to youth aged 15–29 years.

Sources: United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Database. https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 18 July 2017); International Labour Organization. ILOSTAT. http://www.ilo.org/ilostat (accessed 21 July 2017); for the Republic of Korea (Indicator 8.6.1): The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. OECD. https://data.oecd.org/ (accessed 7 July 2017).

Goal 8. Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all

Table 4.5: **Selected Indicators for SDG 8 - Access to Banking, Insurance, and Financial Services, and Trade**

Strengthen the capacity of domestic financial institutions to encourage and expand access to banking, insurance, and financial services for all

Increase Aid for Trade support for developing countries, in particular least developed countries, including through the Enhanced Integrated Framework for Trade-related Technical Assistance to Least Developed Countries

Regional Member	8.10.1 Number of Commercial Bank Branches and ATMs per 100,000 Adults				8.10.2 Proportion of Adults (15 Years and Older) with an Account at a Bank or Other Financial Institution or with a Mobile Money Service Provider (%)	
	Commercial Bank Branches		ATMs			
	2004	2015	2004	2015	2011	2014
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan	0.4	2.3	0.0	1.0	14.4	12.2
Armenia	10.8	22.2	3.0	57.5	18.6	21.8
Azerbaijan	6.5	10.5	17.0 (2006)	35.7	18.5	30.7
Georgia	9.4	32.4 (2016)	2.0	73.6 (2016)	39.8	47.5
Kazakhstan	3.7	3.0 (2016)	10.0	74.4 (2016)	47.5	59.0
Kyrgyz Republic	5.1	8.3	0.6	30.2	6.0	20.9
Pakistan	7.7	10.6 (2016)	0.8	10.1 (2016)	13.1	10.4
Tajikistan	5.0	6.5 (2013)	0.6 (2005)	10.4 (2013)	3.6	16.0
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	0.7	2.2
Uzbekistan	38.8	37.1 (2016)	0.9	22.1 (2016)	24.9	45.2
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	...	8.8 (2016)	9.6 (2006)	81.4 (2016)	75.6	83.6
Hong Kong, China	23.5	22.3	...	49.8	92.9	97.1
Korea, Rep. of	16.8	16.5 (2016)	208.3	278.7	94.8	95.7
Mongolia	40.0	70.4	...	72.7	81.2	93.7
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Asia						
Bangladesh	6.9	8.4	0.1	6.8	39.8	34.5
Bhutan	14.4	15.7 (2016)	0.5	33.2 (2016)	...	38.9
India	9.0	13.5	2.3 (2005)	19.7	40.5	58.6
Maldives	10.3	15.2 (2016)	7.4	32.4 (2016)	...	...
Nepal	2.6	8.9	...	9.0	32.6	41.1
Sri Lanka	8.8	18.6	9.4 (2007)	17.2	76.5	85.4
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam	21.2	20.3	35.3	77.1	...	...
Cambodia	2.3 (2006)	6.1	0.0 (2005)	13.3	5.6	15.3
Indonesia	5.2	17.8	8.6	53.3	26.0	45.3
Lao PDR	...	2.9	...	23.2	31.2	...
Malaysia	14.1	10.6 (2016)	27.2	49.7 (2016)	77.1	84.1
Myanmar	1.8	3.4 (2016)	...	2.6 (2016)	...	27.0
Philippines	8.2	9.1 (2016)	10.3	27.8 (2016)	37.1	37.1
Singapore	11.7	9.1 (2016)	47.9	58.7 (2016)	99.3	96.5
Thailand	7.8	12.5 (2016)	19.9	114.6 (2016)	78.5	82.3
Viet Nam	...	3.8	1.4	24.0	29.5	39.5
The Pacific						
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	9.3	12.3	19.0	45.9	...	...
Kiribati	...	5.7 (2013)	...	14.3 (2013)	...	...
Marshall Islands	12.0	20.6	3.0 (2007)	5.9	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	12.3	14.5 (2016)	3.1	14.5 (2016)	...	...
Nauru	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palau	31.2	47.1	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	1.9	2.8	4.0	7.9	...	...
Samoa	17.6	21.5	12.1	41.3	...	...
Solomon Islands	7.5	4.2 (2016)	1.5	11.9 (2016)	...	...
Timor-Leste	1.2	5.0	...	6.7	...	...
Tonga	24.1	29.8	22.5	28.3	...	...
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	19.6	21.4	4.9	39.9	...	...
Developed Member Economies						
Australia	30.7	28.7	133.8	164.6	99.7	99.2
Japan	34.6	34.1 (2016)	124.3	127.7 (2016)	96.4	97.5
New Zealand	35.0	29.0	59.1	69.5	99.4	99.9

... = data not available at cutoff date, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

Sources: For indicator 8.10.1; International Monetary Fund. IMF Financial Access Survey database http://data.imf.org/?sk=E5DCAB7E-A5CA-4892-A6EA-598B5463A34C (accessed 11 July 2017); for Indicator 8.10.2. United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Database. http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 9 June 2017).

Goal 9. Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation

Table 4.6: **Selected Indicators for SDG 9 - Air Transport, Passenger, and Freight Volumes**
Develop quality, reliable, sustainable, and resilient infrastructure, including regional and transborder infrastructure, to support economic development and human well-being, with a focus on affordable and equitable access for all

Regional Member	9.1.2 Passenger Volume, by Road Transport (thousand passenger kilometers)	9.1.2 Passenger Volume, by Air Transport (thousand ton kilometers)	9.1.2 Passenger Volume, by Air Transport (thousand passenger kilometers)	9.1.2 Freight Volume, by Air Transport (metric tons)
	2015	2015	2015	2015
Developing Member Economies				
Central and West Asia				
Afghanistan	5,066.0	6,991.0	2,232,946,027	89,622.0
Armenia	3,129.0	559.0	...	...
Azerbaijan	45,708.0	12,157.0	3,318,010,600	11,535.5
Georgia	7,734.0	677.0	418,577,760	84.8
Kazakhstan	83,813.0	15,978.0	9,691,533,108	13,911.0
Kyrgyz Republic	1,531.0	1,316.0	1,007,497,593	50.2
Pakistan	59,933.0	168,186.0	19,263,161,478	66,605.4
Tajikistan	2,104.0	822.0	2,030,386,690	31.7
Turkmenistan	18,647.0	4,368.0	4,585,583	...
Uzbekistan	12,750.0	11,801.0	6,463,850,350	38,778.0
East Asia				
China, People's Rep. of	4,501,733.0	6,489,321.0	725,901,418,000	6,292,942.0
Hong Kong, China	363,014.0	43,782.0	136,155,721,870	2,272,888.3
Korea, Rep. of	378,372.0	104,812.0	119,739,105,696	2,312,236.2
Mongolia	5,164.0	12,215.0	1,091,997,741	3,535.6
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...
South Asia				
Bangladesh	53,793.0	16,972.0	6,928,356,170	53,733.2
Bhutan	1,828.0	956.0	381,111,389	406.6
India	10,526,770.0	1,508,550.0	140,474,446,040	832,258.0
Maldives	1,167.0	710.0	...	...
Nepal	6,552.0	16,225.0	681,332,822	10,821.0
Sri Lanka	41,475.0	11,903.0	14,103,822,000	118,456.0
Southeast Asia				
Brunei Darussalam	12,283.0	6,286.0	3,717,686,000	20,440.0
Cambodia	5,964.0	2,723.0	1,259,604,870	1,592.5
Indonesia	362,073.0	288,357.0	87,569,012,595	567,306.4
Lao PDR	3,467.0	547.0	789,902,283	1,275.5
Malaysia	348,913.0	27,398.0	93,691,664,990	524,070.5
Myanmar	16,492.0	4.0	1,058,121,849	22,937.7
Philippines	124,142.0	62,194.0	51,553,808,890	204,547.7
Singapore	229,617.0	...	123,329,081,529	1,113,826.4
Thailand	235,460.0	187,640.0	87,123,868,045	573,589.1
Viet Nam	58,208.0	38,597.0	39,401,803,730	239,759.3
The Pacific				
Cook Islands	...	...	29,100,984	3,658.0
Fiji	1,223.0	1,711.0	4,554,096,000	16,888.9
Kiribati	40.0	23.0	...	...
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	63.0	54.0	...	...
Nauru	...	...	148,380,876	5,494.3
Palau	290.0	77.0	...	...
Papua New Guinea	3,604.0	3,671.0	1,295,451,023	17,296.4
Samoa	149.0	130.0	21,490,172	69.2
Solomon Islands	255.0	176.0	329,065,262	1,206.1
Timor-Leste	205.0	...	...	...
Tonga	140.0	88.0	...	...
Tuvalu	6.0	3.0	...	...
Vanuatu	204.0	118.0	286,179,430	1,155.7
Developed Member Economies				
Australia	296,201.0	212,848.0	144,361,100,926	291,033.4
Japan	1,027,902.0	255,394.0	167,906,000,000	2,321,511.0
New Zealand	44,728.0	17,836.0	31,776,294,127	181,885.7

... = data not available at cutoff date, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

Source: United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Global Database. http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 27 June 2017).

Goal 9. Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation

Table 4.7: **Selected Indicators for SDG 9 - Growth in Manufacturing**
Promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and, by 2030, significantly raise industry's share of employment and gross domestic product, in line with national circumstances, and double its share in least developed countries

Regional Member	9.2.1.a Manufacturing Value Added Share in GDP[a] (%)		9.2.1.b Manufacturing Value Added per Capita[a] (at constant 2010 $)		9.2.2 Manufacturing Employment as a Proportion of Total Employment (%)	
	2000	2016	2000	2016	2000	2015
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan	17.2	10.4	47.2	67.6	...	...
Armenia	13.0	10.8	179.3	423.3	10.7 (2002)	8.0
Azerbaijan	9.6	5.0	158.2	289.9	4.6	4.9
Georgia	9.6	11.5	128.1	442.7	5.9	...
Kazakhstan	13.0	9.9	578.9	1,024.6	7.7 (2001)	6.4
Kyrgyz Republic	23.2	14.4	149.9	147.0	6.4	7.4
Pakistan	10.0	13.1	84.1	152.2	11.5	13.0 (2008)
Tajikistan	27.1	5.3	114.0	49.3	4.7 (2004)	5.5 (2009)
Turkmenistan	33.0	34.9	773.4	2,473.5	...	...
Uzbekistan	25.4	16.7	206.9	342.1	...	...
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	28.3	32.1	494.4	2,170.2	...	...
Hong Kong, China	3.7	1.3	847.4	467.5	10.4	3.0
Korea, Rep. of	22.9	29.5	3,499.1	7,556.8	20.3	17.1 (2016)
Mongolia	5.9	5.3	93.9	204.9	6.8	7.1
Taipei,China	24.6	22.5	3,613.1	4,586.1	...	...
South Asia						
Bangladesh	13.5	19.3	67.6	198.0	7.3	12.5 (2010)
Bhutan	7.6	8.6	92.2	238.0	2.0 (2005)	6.5
India	15.7	17.0	119.2	319.4	12.1 (2005)	11.4 (2010)
Maldives	5.2	2.9	219.9	266.2	12.9	11.2 (2014)
Nepal	8.1	5.6	37.5	38.8	8.8 (2001)	6.6 (2008)
Sri Lanka	20.1	18.1	319.1	628.6	16.5 (2002)	18.2 (2014)
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam	17.4	14.0	6,288.2	4,482.2	8.5 (2001)	3.8 (2014)
Cambodia	11.5	17.6	49.1	189.2	3.3 (2004)	10.9 (2010)
Indonesia	23.7	21.8	508.3	866.0	13.0	13.5
Lao PDR	8.1	10.8	51.3	164.2	...	...
Malaysia	27.0	23.9	1,817.9	2,595.7	22.8	16.5
Myanmar	8.5	22.7	23.7	267.6	...	...
Philippines	23.6	22.5	380.5	624.7	10.0	8.3
Singapore	20.5	18.2	7,011.3	9,265.7	20.7	11.1
Thailand	28.5	28.7	989.3	1,711.8	14.5	16.5 (2014)
Viet Nam	12.8	21.0	95.9	365.4	9.2	14.4 (2014)
The Pacific						
Cook Islands	3.5	2.5 (2014)	448.8	332.4 (2014)	...	3.9 (2011)
Fiji	12.8	12.5	439.8	548.5	...	...
Kiribati	5.1	4.9	91.8	78.3	1.6	13.2 (2010)
Marshall Islands	1.8	1.7	48.1	62.3	...	0.7 (2010)
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nauru	15.1	24.6 (2014)	855.6	2,955.1 (2014)	...	...
Palau	2.9	1.3	290.5	133.7	0.7	3.2 (2008)
Papua New Guinea	5.8	5.7	70.2	105.8	1.1	...
Samoa	17.0	9.2	482.8	346.7	14.6 (2001)	6.8 (2014)
Solomon Islands	4.9	7.0	52.4	103.3	...	...
Timor-Leste	2.0	0.2	16.9	7.3	...	3.2 (2010)
Tonga	7.1	6.1	235.0	230.6	24.7 (2003)	...
Tuvalu	0.8	1.0	24.2	39.6	...	...
Vanuatu	4.3	3.5	117.2	102.7	...	1.9 (2009)
Developed Member Economies						
Australia	9.4	6.6	4,679.6	4,118.1	12.1	7.6 (2016)
Japan	17.4	18.8	7,050.1	8,514.2	20.5	16.2 (2016)
New Zealand	13.7	9.9	4,063.0	3,719.1	15.8	9.9 (2016)

... = data not available at cutoff date, GDP = gross domestic product, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

a United Nations Statistics Division data used for indicators 9.2.1.a and 9.2.1.b were computed from GDP, manufacturing value added, and population data.

Sources: United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Database. https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 13 June 2017); United Nations Industrial Development Organization. MVA Database. https://stat.unido.org/database/MVA%202017 (accessed 30 June 2017).

Table 4.8: **Selected Indicators for SDG 9 - Carbon Dioxide Emissions**
By 2030, upgrade infrastructure and retrofit industries to make them sustainable, with increased resource-use efficiency and greater adoption of clean and environmentally sound technologies and industrial processes, with all countries taking action in accordance with their respective capabilities

Regional Member	9.4.1 Carbon Dioxide Emissions[a]			
	Per Unit of GDP (PPP) (kilograms CO_2 equivalent per $1 constant 2005 PPP GDP)		Per Unit of Manufacturing Value Added (kilograms per constant $)	
	2000	2014	2000	2014
Developing Member Economies				
Central and West Asia				
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...
Armenia	0.4	0.2	1.3	0.4
Azerbaijan	0.8	0.2	2.0	0.7
Georgia	0.3	0.2	1.0	0.8
Kazakhstan	0.8	0.6	2.1	1.9
Kyrgyz Republic	0.4	0.5	1.1	1.7
Pakistan	0.2	0.2	1.9	1.2
Tajikistan	0.3	0.2	-	0.2
Turkmenistan	1.6	0.9	0.2	0.2
Uzbekistan	1.9	0.6	3.0	1.4
East Asia				
China, People's Rep. of	0.7	0.5	1.4	1.1
Hong Kong, China	0.2	0.1	0.7	2.1
Korea, Rep. of	0.4	0.3	0.6	0.2
Mongolia	0.8	0.6	2.2	2.4
Taipei,China	0.4	0.3	...	...
South Asia				
Bangladesh	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.4
Bhutan	...	...	...	...
India	0.3	0.3	1.5	1.5
Maldives	...	...	...	...
Nepal	0.1	0.1	1.3	1.7
Sri Lanka	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Southeast Asia				
Brunei Darussalam	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2
Cambodia	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Indonesia	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.4
Lao PDR	...	...	...	...
Malaysia	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.4
Myanmar	0.1	0.1	2.1	0.3
Philippines	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.2
Singapore	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2
Thailand	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.5
Viet Nam	0.2	0.3	1.9	1.7
The Pacific				
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...
Fiji	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	...	...	...	...
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...	...
Nauru	...	...	...	...
Palau	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	...	...	...	...
Samoa	...	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	...	...	...	...
Timor-Leste	...	...	...	...
Tonga	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	...	...
Developed Member Economies				
Australia	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4
Japan	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2
New Zealand	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.4

... = data not available at cutoff date, GDP = gross domestic product, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PPP = purchasing power parity, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

a Refers to carbon dioxide emissions from fuel combustion.

Sources: United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Database. http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 18 July 2017); for Taipei,China: International Energy Agency. http://www.iea.org/publications/freepublications/publication/CO2-emissions-from-fuel-combustion-highlights-2016.html (accessed 6 July 2017).

Goal 9. Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation

Table 4.9: **Selected Indicators for SDG 9 - Research and Development**
Enhance scientific research, upgrade the technological capabilities of industrial sectors in all countries, in particular developing countries, including, by 2030, encouraging innovation and substantially increasing the number of research and development workers per 1 million people and public and private research, and development spending

Regional Member	9.5.1 Research and Development Expenditure as a Proportion of GDP[a] (%)		9.5.2 Researchers (Full-Time Equivalent)[b] (per million inhabitants)	
	2000	2015	2000	2015
Developing Member Economies				
Central and West Asia				
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...
Armenia	0.19	0.25	...	...
Azerbaijan	0.34	0.22	...	...
Georgia	0.22	0.32	...	1,641
Kazakhstan	0.18	0.17	556 (2007)	1,028 (2013)
Kyrgyz Republic	0.16	0.12	...	...
Pakistan	0.13	0.25	347 (2005)	537
Tajikistan	0.09 (2001)	0.11	...	...
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	0.36	0.21	...	687
East Asia				
China, People's Rep. of	0.90	2.07	726	2,732
Hong Kong, China	0.46	0.76	1,445	3,788 (2014)
Korea, Rep. of	2.18	4.23	2,988	8,789
Mongolia	0.19	0.16	...	...
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...
South Asia				
Bangladesh	...	...	...	...
Bhutan	...	...	...	...
India	0.74	0.63	302	403
Maldives	...	...	...	...
Nepal	...	0.30 (2010)	265 (2002)	...
Sri Lanka	0.14	0.10 (2013)	283 (2004)	224 (2013)
Southeast Asia				
Brunei Darussalam	0.02 (2002)	...	408 (2002)	...
Cambodia	0.05 (2002)	0.12	39 (2002)	122
Indonesia	0.07	0.08 (2013)	213	90 (2009)
Lao PDR	0.04 (2002)	...	49 (2002)	...
Malaysia	0.47	1.30	430	2,666
Myanmar	0.11	...	91 (2001)	...
Philippines	0.14 (2002)	0.14 (2013)	113 (2003)	272 (2013)
Singapore	1.82	2.20 (2014)	4,942	7,726 (2014)
Thailand	0.24	0.63	505 (2001)	1,319
Viet Nam	0.18 (2002)	0.37 (2013)	139 (2002)	879 (2013)
The Pacific				
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...
Fiji	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	...	...	...	...
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...	...	...
Nauru	...	...	...	...
Palau	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	...	...	...	...
Samoa	...	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	...	...	...	...
Timor-Leste	...	...	...	...
Tonga	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	...	...
Developed Member Economies				
Australia	1.58	2.20 (2013)	5,004	6,434 (2008)
Japan	2.90	3.28	7,134	6,913
New Zealand	1.10 (2001)	1.15 (2013)	3,830 (2001)	5,576 (2013)

... = data not available at cutoff date, 0.0 = magnitude is less than half of unit employed, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, R&D = research and development, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

a R&D expenditure as a proportion of gross domestic product is the amount of R&D expenditure divided by the total output of the economy.
b The researchers (in full-time equivalent) per million inhabitants is a direct measure of the number of R&D workers per 1 million people.

Sources: UNESCO Institute of Statistics, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Eurostat (Statistical Office of the European Union), and Network on Science and Technology Indicators – Ibero-American and Inter-American. African STI Indicators Initiative of AU/NEPAD. http://www.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed 27 June 2017).

Goal 9. Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation

Table 4.10: **Selected Indicators for SDG 9 - Official International Support and Industry Value Added**
Facilitate sustainable and resilient infrastructure development in developing countries through enhanced financial, technological and technical support to African countries, least developed countries, landlocked developing countries and small island developing States

Support domestic technology development, research and innovation in developing countries, including by ensuring a conducive policy environment for, inter alia, industrial diversification and value addition to commodities

Regional Member	9.a.1 Total Official Flows for Infrastructure[a] (constant 2014 $ million)		9.b.1 Proportion of Medium and High-Tech Industry Value Added in Total Value Added (%)	
	2000	2015	2000	2014
Developing Member Economies				
Central and West Asia				
Afghanistan	0.4	521.5	13.6	9.5
Armenia	130.3	355.2	9.5	4.0
Azerbaijan	23.4	321.3	16.5	15.7
Georgia	137.7	432.4	21.4	17.8
Kazakhstan	224.2	588.4	5.2	16.5
Kyrgyz Republic	89.8	138.7	5.9	6.7
Pakistan	464.4	1,822.0	25.2	24.6
Tajikistan	16.1	191.6	2.7	2.5
Turkmenistan	1.8	12.4	...	...
Uzbekistan	45.7	525.8	...	...
East Asia				
China, People's Rep. of	2,178.8	2,322.1	42.9	41.4
Hong Kong, China	...	...	39.5	33.9
Korea, Rep. of	...	...	58.9	63.2
Mongolia	110.7	177.1	2.5	6.2
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...
South Asia				
Bangladesh	607.0	1,041.1	21.1	9.5
Bhutan	29.8	50.5	...	...
India	2,924.5	4,716.1	41.3	39.9
Maldives	11.2	5.4	...	...
Nepal	110.4	289.1	12.1	8.6
Sri Lanka	73.0	544.4	9.4	6.7
Southeast Asia				
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	3.3	3.3
Cambodia	42.4	192.8	0.3	0.3
Indonesia	104.9	5,051.2	35.7	35.1
Lao PDR	69.8	142.0	...	...
Malaysia	514.0	68.5	51.2	42.1
Myanmar	0.0	139.6	...	...
Philippines	722.9	738.1	38.1	55.2
Singapore	...	...	78.5	80.7
Thailand	628.2	150.4	37.9	40.7
Viet Nam	1,039.2	2,900.9	23.5	31.1
The Pacific				
Cook Islands	0.9	9.8	...	...
Fiji	0.2	8.0	8.5	6.8
Kiribati	1.4	23.3	...	...
Marshall Islands	3.1	253.7	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	4.8	10.7	...	...
Nauru	0.0 (2002)	7.6	...	...
Palau	0.2	4.6	...	...
Papua New Guinea	205.8	220.7	12.6	12.6
Samoa	2.9	23.3	...	...
Solomon Islands	8.8	32.5	...	...
Timor-Leste	2.4	61.5	...	...
Tonga	4.7	23.6	1.6	1.6
Tuvalu	0.1 (2002)	22.6	...	...
Vanuatu	9.4	29.4	...	...
Developed Member Economies				
Australia	...	...	27.2	29.9
Japan	...	...	52.0	55.0
New Zealand	...	...	12.5	17.3

... = data not available at cutoff date, 0.0 = magnitude is less than half of unit employed, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

a Gross disbursements of total official development assistance and other official flows from all donors in support of infrastructure.

Source: United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Database. http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 18 July 2017).

Goal 9. Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation

Table 4.11: **Selected Indicators for SDG 9 - Coverage by Mobile Networks**
Significantly increase access to information and communications technology and strive to provide universal and affordable access to the internet in least developed countries by 2020

Regional Member	9.c.1.a Proportion of Population Covered by 2G Mobile Networks[a] (%)		9.c.1.b Proportion of Population Covered by 3G Mobile Networks[b] (%)	9.c.1.c Proportion of Population Covered by LTE/ WiMAX Mobile Networks[c] (%)
	2000	2015	2015	2015
Developing Member Economies				
Central and West Asia				
Afghanistan	72.0 (2007)	89.2	40.0	...
Armenia	38.0 (2001)	100.0	99.9	46.5
Azerbaijan	93.5	100.0	97.3	50.0
Georgia	79.0 (2001)	99.0	99.0	82.0
Kazakhstan	94.0 (2001)	96.6	72.7	65.5
Kyrgyz Republic	5.2 (2004)	97.8	59.0	1.6
Pakistan	27.1 (2001)	86.0	46.0	16.0
Tajikistan	0.0 (2001)	...	...	60.0
Turkmenistan	12.4 (2001)	...	...	25.0
Uzbekistan	75.0 (2002)	98.0	32.0	10.0
East Asia				
China, People's Rep. of	50.0 (2001)	99.5	95.0	85.0
Hong Kong, China	100.0	100.0	99.0	99.0
Korea, Rep. of	99.0	99.9	99.0	99.0
Mongolia	58.0	99.0	95.0	90.0
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...
South Asia				
Bangladesh	40.0 (2001)	99.4	71.0	65.0
Bhutan	5.4 (2005)	98.0	80.0	40.0
India	21.1 (2001)	93.5 (2013)	0.1 (2009)	4.0
Maldives	40.0	100.0 (2013)	100.0	58.0
Nepal	10.0 (2006)	82.0	20.4 (2009)	0.0
Sri Lanka	57.9 (2001)	99.0	83.0	35.0
Southeast Asia				
Brunei Darussalam	...	97.0	91.0	80.0
Cambodia	80.0	99.0	70.0	30.0
Indonesia	89.0	95.0	60.0	5.0
Lao PDR	55.0 (2005)	98.0	65.0	5.0
Malaysia	95.0 (2001)	96.0	92.0	71.0
Myanmar	10.0 (2006)	95.0	79.3	0.0
Philippines	70.0	99.0 (2014)	78.0 (2014)	39.0
Singapore	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Thailand	25.9 (2005)	97.0	97.0	21.0
Viet Nam	70.0 (2006)	94.0	...	0.0
The Pacific				
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...
Fiji	40.0	88.0	68.4	17.0
Kiribati	...	70.0	63.0	54.0
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	65.0
Micronesia, Fed. States of	0.0	80.0	15.0	...
Nauru	...	98.0	98.0	0.0
Palau	30.0 (2005)	98.0	88.0	...
Papua New Guinea	...	89.0	...	35.0
Samoa	...	97.0	86.0	0.0
Solomon Islands	35.0	91.0	11.5	...
Timor-Leste	38.0 (2003)	96.0	96.0	...
Tonga	70.0 (2001)	92.0	70.0	0.0
Tuvalu	15.0 (2004)	...	...	...
Vanuatu	20.0 (2002)	93.0	51.0	18.0
Developed Member Economies				
Australia	95.6	99.0	99.0	94.0
Japan	99.0	99.9	99.9	99.0
New Zealand	97.0	98.0	98.0	88.0

... = data not available at cutoff date, 0.00 = magnitude is less than half of unit employed, EV-DO = evolution-data optimized, HSPA = high speed packet access, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, LTE = long-term evolution, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal, UMTS = universal mobile telecommunications system, WiMAX = worldwide interoperability for microwave access.

a The original indicator refers to "Percentage of the population covered by a mobile-cellular network." This refers to the percentage of inhabitants within range of a mobile-cellular signal, irrespective whether or not they are subscribers or users. This is calculated by dividing the number of inhabitants within range of a mobile-cellular signal by the total population and multiplying by 100.

b The original indicator refers to "Percentage of the population covered by at least a 3G mobile network." This refers to the percentage of inhabitants within range of at least a 3G mobile-cellular signal, irrespective whether or not they are subscribers. This is calculated by dividing the number of inhabitants covered by at least a 3G mobile-cellular signal by the total population and multiplying by 100.

c The original indicator refers to "Percentage of the population covered by at least an LTE/WiMAX mobile network." This refers to the percentage of inhabitants within range of LTE/ LTE-Advanced, mobile WiMAX/WirelessMAN, or other more advanced mobile-cellular networks, irrespective of whether or not they are subscribers. This is calculated by dividing the number of inhabitants covered by the previously mentioned mobile-cellular technologies by the total population and multiplying by 100. It excludes people covered only by HSPA, UMTS, EV-DO, and previous 3G technologies; and also excludes fixed WiMAX coverage.

Sources: International Telecommunication Union. Official communication, 30 March 2017; United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Global Database. http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 18 July 2017).

Table 4.12: **Selected Indicators for SDG 10 - Household Income and Consumption Growth**
By 2030, progressively achieve and sustain income growth of the bottom 40% of the population at a rate higher than the national average

Regional Member	10.1.1.a Growth Rates of Household Expenditure or Income per Capita among the Bottom 40% of the Population[a] (%)	10.1.1.b Growth Rates of Household Expenditure or Income per Capita[a] (%)
Developing Member Economies		
Central and West Asia		
Afghanistan	...	...
Armenia	0.7 (2009–2014)	1.6 (2009–2014)
Azerbaijan	...	...
Georgia	4.6 (2009–2014)	4.0 (2009–2014)
Kazakhstan	6.7 (2008–2013)	5.6 (2008–2013)
Kyrgyz Republic	0.4 (2009–2014)	–1.1 (2009–2014)
Pakistan	2.8 (2007–2013)	2.5 (2007–2013)
Tajikistan	...	...
Turkmenistan	...	...
Uzbekistan	...	...
East Asia		
China, People's Rep. of	8.9 (2008–2012)	8.2 (2008–2012)
Hong Kong, China	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	...	...
Mongolia	8.0 (2010–2014)	7.1 (2010–2014)
Taipei,China	...	...
South Asia		
Bangladesh	...	...
Bhutan	6.5 (2007–2012)	6.5 (2007–2012)
India	3.2 (2004–2011)	3.7 (2004–2011)
Maldives	...	...
Nepal	...	...
Sri Lanka	2.2 (2006–2012)	1.7 (2006–2012)
Southeast Asia		
Brunei Darussalam	...	...
Cambodia	6.5 (2008–2012)	3.9 (2008–2012)
Indonesia	3.8 (2011–2014)	3.4 (2011–2014)
Lao PDR	1.5 (2007–2012)	2.2 (2007–2012)
Malaysia	...	...
Myanmar	...	...
Philippines	1.7 (2006–2012)	1.2 (2006–2012)
Singapore	...	...
Thailand	4.9 (2008–2013)	3.5 (2008–2013)
Viet Nam	4.5 (2010–2014)	2.0 (2010–2014)
The Pacific		
Cook Islands	...	...
Fiji	...	...
Kiribati	...	...
Marshall Islands	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	...
Nauru	...	...
Palau	...	...
Papua New Guinea	...	...
Samoa	...	...
Solomon Islands	...	...
Timor-Leste	...	...
Tonga	...	...
Tuvalu	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...
Developed Member Economies		
Australia	...	...
Japan	...	...
New Zealand	...	...

... = data not available at cutoff date, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

a Based on real mean per capita consumption or income measured at 2011 purchasing power parity using the PovcalNet database (http://iresearch.worldbank.org/PovcalNet). Data reported are based on consumption, except for the Philippines, which collects income data.

Source: World Bank. Global Database of Shared Prosperity. http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/poverty/brief/global-database-of-shared-prosperity (accessed 27 June 2017); International Labour Organization. Key Indicators of the Labour Market. http://www.ilo.org/ilostat (accessed 29 June 2017); United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Global Database. http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 18 July 2017).

Peace

To foster peaceful, just, and inclusive societies which are free from fear and violence. There can be no sustainable development without peace and no peace without sustainable development.

Snapshot

- Intentional homicide rates were lower in 29 out of 39 economies between 2003 and 2015.
- The proportion of unsentenced detainees declined between 2005 and 2015 in 15 out of 31 regional economies with available data.
- In 17 out of 32 economies of Asia and the Pacific with available data, 25% or more of firms experienced at least one bribe payment request, while in Bhutan, Georgia, and the Federated States of Micronesia, the proportion of firms experiencing at least one bribe payment request was less than 5%.

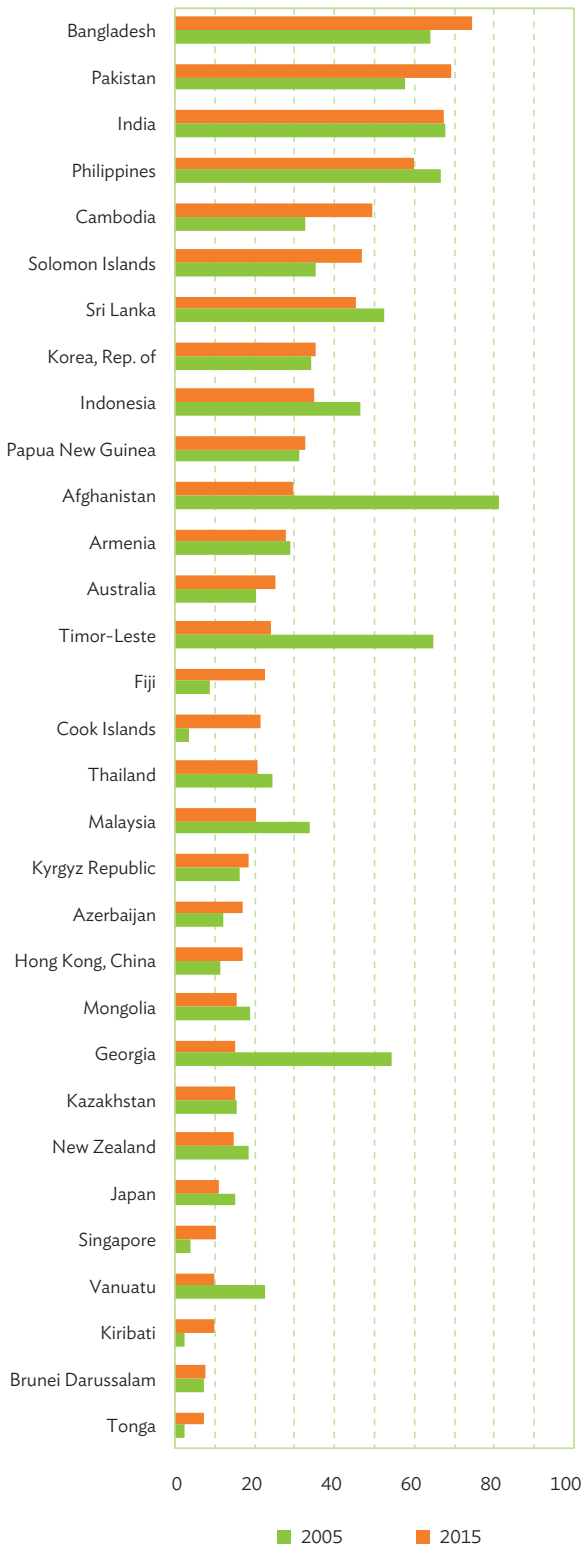
The Sustainable Development Agenda aims to promote peaceful and inclusive societies by promoting access to justice for all, and building effective, transparent, and accountable institutions at all levels to uphold political stability, human rights, and the rule of law.

SDG 16: Promote Peaceful and Inclusive Societies for Sustainable Development, Provide Access to Justice for All and Build Effective, Accountable and Inclusive Institutions at All Levels

Number of victims of intentional homicide per 100,000 population. While reported crime rates may underestimate incidence of crime, official crime rates, particularly reports on intentional homicide, provide a description of broad crime patterns and a sense of overall level of safety on the streets. Latest data show that three of the five economies with the highest rates of intentional homicide are in the Pacific, while 11 economies including the three economies of Developed Asia have intentional homicide rates of 1.0 or less for every 100,000 persons (Table 5.1). These rates have been decreasing in 29 economies, including three most populous economies in the region—the PRC, India, and Indonesia. In the Pacific, rates have increased in four out of eight economies that have reported data from 2003 to latest year. Among 47 regional economies with data, Tuvalu, with 20.3 intentional homicides for every 100,000 persons, has the highest homicide rate, followed by Papua New Guinea (10.4). Other economies with homicide rates of at least 7.5 intentional homicides for every 100,000 persons include the Philippines (9.8), Pakistan (7.8), and Kiribati (7.5). Singapore has the lowest rate at 0.2 intentional homicides per 100,000 people. Aside from Singapore, economies with rates under 1.0 intentional homicides for every 100,000 persons include Australia (1.0); Brunei Darussalam (0.5); Hong Kong, China (0.3); Indonesia (0.5); Japan (0.3); Maldives (0.9); New Zealand (0.9); the PRC (0.7); Taipei,China (0.8); and Tonga (1.0).

Unsentenced detainees as a proportion of overall prison population. In 15 out of 31 regional economies with available data, the proportion of unsentenced detainees has decreased between 2005 and 2015 (Table 5.1), with Afghanistan having the largest reduction of 51.5 percentage points from 81.0% in 2005 to 29.5% in 2015. Timor-Leste (24.1%) and Georgia (15.2%) have also reduced the proportion of unsentenced detainees by over 30 percentage points. However, over 60% of the prison population are unsentenced detainees in Bangladesh (74.6%), Pakistan (69.3%), India (67.3%), and the Philippines (60.0%). The percentage of unsentenced detainees is less than 10% in Kiribati (9.8%), Brunei Darussalam (7.9%) and Tonga (7.4%). Figure 5.1 illustrates how unsentenced detainees as a proportion of overall prison population has changed between 2005 and 2015.

Figure 5.1: Unsentenced Detainees as a Proportion of Overall Prison Population
(%)

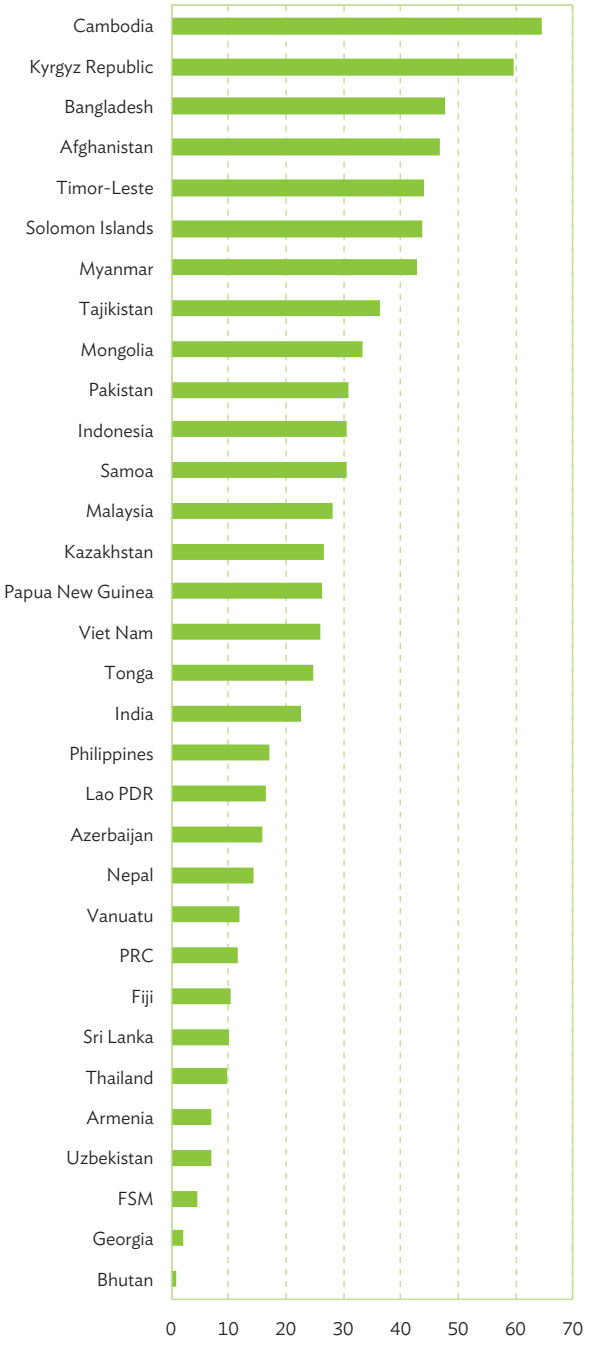


Source: Table 5.1.

Click here for figure data

Bribery incidence among firms in Asia and the Pacific. Corruption is not only an impediment to good governance, but also harms society, particularly development and prosperity. In its Enterprise Surveys, the World Bank obtains information on whether firms are solicited for gifts or informal payments while meeting public officials. Latest year data show that in 17 out of 32 reporting economies, the proportion of firms that have experienced at least one bribe payment request is 25% or more (Figure 5.2). Economies with the smallest proportion of firms experiencing at least one bribe payment request include Bhutan (0.9%), Georgia (2.2%), and the Federated States of Micronesia (4.5%).

Figure 5.2: Proportion of Firms Experiencing at Least One Bribe Payment Request, Latest Year
(%)



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
Note: Fiji, the Federated States of Micronesia, Samoa, Tonga, and Vanuatu use data for 2009. Sri Lanka uses data for 2011. The PRC uses data for 2012. Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bangladesh, Georgia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Mongolia, Nepal, Pakistan, Tajikistan, and Uzbekistan use data for 2013. Afghanistan, India, and Myanmar use data for 2014. Bhutan, Indonesia, Malaysia, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines, Solomon Islands, Timor-Leste, and Viet Nam use data for 2015. Cambodia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, and Thailand use data for 2016.
Source: Table 5.1.

Click here for figure data

Equity, Data Gaps, and Other Related Issues

Data needed to monitor SDG 16 can be quite sparse, even for indicators that are available. Further, statistics on these indicators are not always collected regularly. Some indicators, such as conflict-related deaths by sex, age, and cause, are of clear relevance to monitoring peace, but the international standards for these indicators have not yet been established.

Indicators on intentional homicide, conflict-related deaths, and the proportion of children under 5 years of age whose births have been registered, should rely on information from vital registration systems. However, in many developing countries, vital registration systems are not fully functional. Producing reliable estimates of the number and causes of death, in both conflict and nonconflict situations, is challenging. The systematic recording of births in many developing countries is also a serious challenge. In the absence of reliable administrative data, household surveys such as the Demographic and Health Surveys, and the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey have become a key source of data to monitor levels and trends in birth registration, as well as deaths.

As information and communication technology becomes an integral part of everyday life, new opportunities such as open data initiative and crowdsourced data can be explored to spread and access information. Civil society organizations and research institutions have a vast role to play in supplementing data and statistics collected by governments to monitor the extent to which peace, justice, and the rule of law are being sustained.

Goal 16. Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels

Table 5.1: **Selected Indicators for SDG 16 - Peace, Justice, and Strong Institutions**

Significantly reduce all forms of violence and related death rates everywhere
Promote the rule of law at the national and international levels and ensure equal access to justice for all
Substantially reduce corruption and bribery in all their forms
By 2030, provide legal identity for all, including birth registration

Regional Member	16.1.1 Number of Victims of Intentional Homicide (per 100,000 population)		16.3.2 Unsentenced Detainees as a Proportion of Overall Prison Population (%)	
	2003	2015	2005	2015
Developing Member Economies				
Central and West Asia				
Afghanistan	...	6.6 (2012)	81.0	29.5
Armenia	2.7 (2004)	2.5	29.0	27.9
Azerbaijan	2.2	2.5 (2014)	12.1	17.0
Georgia	6.6	2.7 (2014)	54.2	15.2
Kazakhstan[b]	13.2	4.8	15.6	15.0
Kyrgyz Republic	8.3	5.1	16.2	18.4
Pakistan	6.3	7.8 (2012)	57.8	69.3
Tajikistan	3.1 (2006)	1.4 (2013)	...	...
Turkmenistan	4.9 (2005)	4.2	...	...
Uzbekistan	3.6 (2005)	3.0	...	...
East Asia				
China, People's Rep. of	1.9	0.7 (2014)	...	...
Hong Kong, China	0.8	0.3	11.5	16.9
Korea, Rep. of	...	...	34.2	35.1
Mongolia	13.9	7.2	18.8	15.6
Taipei,China	1.0 (2006)	0.8	...	...
South Asia				
Bangladesh	2.5	2.5	64.0	74.6
Bhutan	...	2.7 (2014)	...	...
India	3.6	3.2 (2014)	67.9	67.3
Maldives	1.0 (2007)	0.9 (2013)	...	...
Nepal	3.0	2.3 (2014)	...	...
Sri Lanka[b]	6.8	2.9 (2013)	52.4	45.4
Southeast Asia				
Brunei Darussalam	0.9	0.5 (2013)	7.2	7.9
Cambodia	3.9	1.8 (2011)	32.6	49.3
Indonesia	0.7	0.5 (2014)	46.7	35.0
Lao PDR	9.6 (2005)	6.9	...	...
Malaysia	2.3	1.9 (2010)	33.8	20.4
Myanmar	1.7	2.4	...	...
Philippines[b]	7.8	9.8 (2014)	66.7	60.0
Singapore	0.6	0.2	4.1	10.2
Thailand	9.9	3.5	24.6	20.8
Viet Nam	1.3	1.5 (2011)	...	...
The Pacific				
Cook Islands	...	3.1 (2012)	3.7	21.6
Fiji	2.6 (2007)	3.0 (2012)	8.7	22.7
Kiribati	...	7.5 (2012)	2.6	9.8
Marshall Islands	...	4.7 (2012)	...	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	4.6 (2005)	4.7	...	...
Nauru	...	1.3 (2012)	...	...
Palau	...	3.1 (2012)	...	...
Papua New Guinea	10.5	10.4 (2010)	31.3	32.5
Samoa	...	3.2 (2013)	...	...
Solomon Islands	4.4 (2004)	3.8 (2008)	35.4	46.7
Timor-Leste	2.4 (2004)	3.7 (2010)	64.7	24.1
Tonga	6.0	1.0 (2012)	2.6	7.4
Tuvalu	–	20.3 (2012)	...	...
Vanuatu	2.5 (2005)	2.1	22.5	10.0
Developed Member Economies				
Australia	1.7	1.0	20.4	25.3
Japan	0.6	0.3 (2014)	15.0	11.2
New Zealand[e]	1.1	0.9 (2014)	18.4	14.9

(continued)

Goal 16. Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels

Table 5.1: **Selected Indicators for SDG 16 - Peace, Justice, and Strong Institutions**
Significantly reduce all forms of violence and related death rates everywhere
Promote the rule of law at the national and international levels and ensure equal access to justice for all
Substantially reduce corruption and bribery in all their forms
By 2030, provide legal identity for all, including birth registration

Regional Member	16.5.2 Proportion of Firms Experiencing at Least One Bribe Payment Request (%)	16.9.1 Proportion of Children Under 5 Years of Age Whose Births have been Registered with a Civil Authority[a] (%)	
	2013	2006	2014
Developing Member Economies			
Central and West Asia			
Afghanistan	46.8 (2014)	6.0 (2003)	42.3 (2015)
Armenia	7.1	96.0 (2005)	99.6 (2010)
Azerbaijan	15.9	93.6	...
Georgia	2.2	92.0 (2005)	99.6 (2013)
Kazakhstan[b]	26.7	99.0	99.7 (2011)
Kyrgyz Republic	59.8	95.7	97.7
Pakistan	30.8	26.6 (2007)	33.6 (2013)
Tajikistan	36.3	88.0 (2005)	88.4 (2012)
Turkmenistan	...	95.5	...
Uzbekistan	7.0	99.9	...
East Asia			
China, People's Rep. of	11.6 (2012)	...	...
Hong Kong, China	...	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	...	...	...
Mongolia	33.4	98.0 (2005)	99.3 (2013)
Taipei,China	...	...	...
South Asia			
Bangladesh	47.7	10.0	20.2
Bhutan	0.9 (2015)	...	99.9 (2010)
India	22.7 (2014)	41.1	71.9
Maldives	...	73.0 (2000)	92.5 (2009)
Nepal	14.4	35.0	58.1
Sri Lanka[b]	10.0 (2011)	97.2 (2007)	...
Southeast Asia			
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...
Cambodia	64.7 (2016)	66.4 (2005)	73.3
Indonesia	30.6 (2015)	55.0 (2002)	68.5[c] (2013)
Lao PDR	16.4 (2016)	72.0	74.8 (2012)
Malaysia	28.2 (2015)	...	...
Myanmar	42.9 (2014)	64.9 (2003)	72.4 (2010)
Philippines[b]	17.2 (2015)	83.0 (2000)	90.2 (2010)
Singapore	...	...	...
Thailand	9.9 (2016)	99.5	99.4[c] (2012)
Viet Nam	26.1 (2015)	92.7 (2005)	96.1
The Pacific			
Cook Islands	...	...	...
Fiji	10.5 (2009)	...	...
Kiribati	...	...	93.5 (2009)
Marshall Islands	...	95.9 (2007)	...
Micronesia, Fed. States of	4.5 (2009)	...	...
Nauru	...	82.6 (2007)	...
Palau	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	26.4 (2015)	...	...
Samoa	30.5 (2009)	...	58.6
Solomon Islands	43.8 (2015)	80.0 (2007)	...
Timor-Leste	44.2 (2015)	53.0 (2003)	55.2 (2010)
Tonga	24.9 (2009)	...	93.4 (2012)
Tuvalu	...	49.9 (2007)	...
Vanuatu	11.9 (2009)	43.0 (2007)	43.4[c] (2013)
Developed Member Economies			
Australia	...	...	100.0[d] (2015)
Japan	...	...	100.0[d] (2015)
New Zealand[e]	...	...	100.0[d] (2015)

... = data not available at cutoff date, – = magnitude equals zero, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, MICS = Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

a Changes in the definition of birth registration were made from the second and third rounds of MICS2 and MICS3 to the fourth round (MICS4). In order to allow for comparability with later rounds, data from MICS2 and MICS3 on birth registration were recalculated according to the MICS4 indicator definition. Therefore, the recalculated data presented here may differ from estimates included in MICS2 and MICS3 national reports.
b For indicator 16.1.1, changes in definitions and/or counting rules are reported by the member state to indicate a break in the time series.
c Data differ from the standard definition or refer to only part of an economy.
d As indicated in the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime data, estimates of 100% were assumed given that civil registration systems in these economies are complete and all vital events (including births) are registered.
e For indicator 16.1.1, data for 2000–2006 refer to offenses; data for 2007 onward refer to victims of intentional homicide.

Sources: For indicator 16.1.1: United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. UNODC Statistics Online. https://data.unodc.org/ (accessed 29 June 2017); for indicator 16.3.2: United Nations. SDG Indicators Global Database. https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 13 June 2017); for indicator 16.5.2: World Bank. World Development Indicators. http://data.worldbank.org/ (accessed 29 June 2017); for indicator 16.9.1: United Nations Children's Fund: http://data.unicef.org/child-protection/birth-registration.html (accessed 29 June 2017); World Bank. World Development Indicators. http://databank.worldbank.org/data/reports.aspx?source=sustainable-development-goals-(sdgs)# (accessed 7 July 2017).

Partnership

To mobilize the means required to implement this agenda through a revitalized Global Partnership for Sustainable Development, based on a spirit of strengthened global solidarity, focused in particular on the needs of the poorest and most vulnerable and with the participation of all countries, all stakeholders, and all people.

Snapshot

- In four-fifths of 40 developing economies in Asia and the Pacific, the average financial and technical assistance (through North–South, South–South, and triangular cooperation) has risen between 2000–2007 and 2008–2015.
- More than 90% of regional economies have conducted a population census since 2007. Nearly half of the developing economies (23 out of 45) have prepared a national statistical plan to address the growing demand for statistics to monitor development.

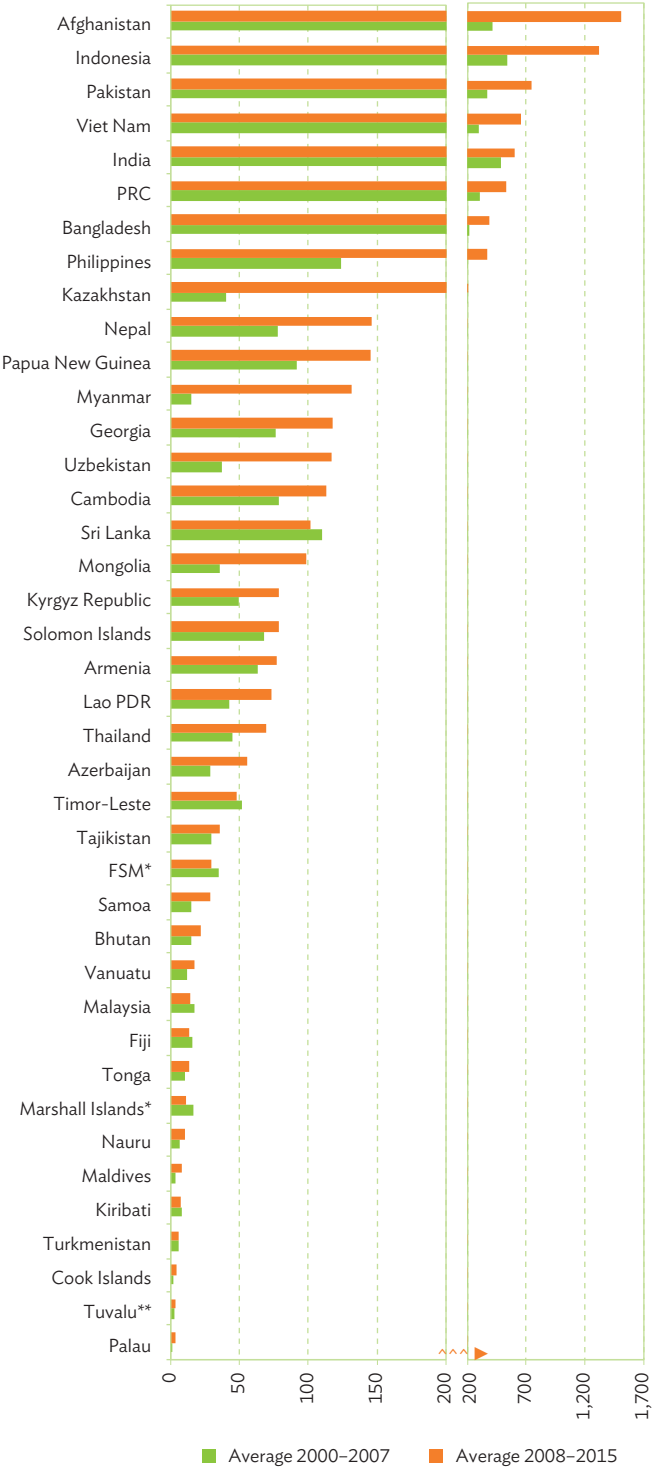
The attainment of the Global Goals by 2030 requires strengthened partnerships and improved coordination across governments, the development community, and the private sector. This will not only ensure that financial and technical resources are mobilized strategically, but also increase transparency and accountability.

SDG 17: Strengthen the Means of Implementation and Revitalize the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development

Dollar value of financial and technical assistance (including through North–South, South–South and triangular cooperation) committed to developing countries. Since the value of financial and technical assistance can fluctuate annually, it is useful to examine averages over a longer period. Upon examining the periods 2000–2007 and 2008–2015, it is observed that in four-fifths of 40 developing economies, financial and technical assistance has, on average, risen between the two periods (Figure 6.1). The value of financial and technical assistance in Myanmar increased by more 8.7 times, from $15.2 million in 2000–2007 to $131.7 million in 2008–2015. This was followed by Kazakhstan, Afghanistan, Uzbekistan, and the Philippines, respectively, which all experienced at least a two time increase in value of financial and technical assistance between 2000–2007 and 2008–2015. Afghanistan received the largest financial and technical assistance, averaging at $1.5 billion per year between 2008 and 2015. Other developing economies receiving over $500 million, on average, in 2008–2015 include Indonesia ($1,326.4 million), Pakistan ($744.0 million), Viet Nam ($658.4 million), India ($604.2 million), and the PRC ($533.2 million). Less than $5 million of financial and technical assistance were provided in 2008–2015 to the Pacific economies of Palau ($3.2 million), Tuvalu ($3.7 million), and the Cook Islands ($4.1 million).

Value of all resources made available to strengthen statistical capacity in developing countries. Data on value of resources made available to strengthen statistical capacity are available for 40 out of 45 developing economies in 2014. Viet Nam ($6,559,859.4), reported the highest value for this indicator, followed by Armenia ($3,696,148.0) and Afghanistan ($3,020,102.4) (Table 6.1).

Figure 6.1: Dollar Value of Financial and Technical Assistance Committed to Developing Countries
(constant 2015 $ million)



FSM = Federated States of Micronesia, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.
*Value for average 2000–2007 refers to average of 2001 to 2007, **Value for average 2000–2007 refers to average of 2000 and 2002 to 2007.
Source: Table 6.1.

Click here for figure data

Number of countries that have conducted at least one population and housing census in the last 10 years. While statistics production does not fully reflect statistical capacity, the non-conduct of key statistical activities such as population censuses that are considered vital suggest the lack of support from governments for national statistical systems. This indicator not only tracks countries that have conducted a population and housing census, but also those compiling detailed population and housing statistics from population registers, administrative records, sample surveys, and other sources. In the Asia and Pacific region, 42 out of 45 developing economies have conducted a population and housing census since 2007 (Table 6.1).

Equity, Data Gaps, and Other Related Issues

Indicators for various targets under the theme of partnership are not available, and when available, they are sparse and not regularly updated. Difficulty in monitoring progress with respect to SDG 17 may also arise due to the lack of quantitative targets in some areas.

In its *Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific (2015)*, the United Nations (UN) Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) examined results of the World Bank's Statistical Capacity Index Dashboard, and suggested that countries in Asia and the Pacific have generally more adequate key data sources than in the Middle East, North Africa, and Sub-Saharan Africa, but adequacy is lower than in Latin America and the Caribbean. ESCAP also reports that while 50 out of 51 reporting countries in the Asia and Pacific region have statistical legislation specifying the responsibilities of statistics producers across government, only 44

of these countries have articles in these legislations protecting the independence of official statistics from political influence. Thus, countries will need to strengthen national statistical institutions so that they can improve existing data sources, as well as quickly adapt to the rapid increase in use of new data sources. This not only involves the provision of adequate resources and infrastructure for development of statistics, but also the establishment and/or maintenance of enabling environments and ecosystems to produce reliable data and statistics. Strong national statistical institutions will be required, not only to build, but also maintain partnerships for a data ecosystem that utilizes available information to attain sustainable development by 2030. Box 6.1. discusses measurement errors from using traditional recall-based methods to estimate total plot area, rice yield, and rice production in one province of the Lao People's Democratic Republic; and calls for an improvement in statistical capacity of government agencies tasked with providing such information.

Box 6.1: Bias in Plot Area, Yield, and Production Measurement: Evidence from Savannakhet Province, Lao People's Democratic Republic

Goal 2 of the Sustainable Development Agenda on zero hunger aims, among other targets, to "double the agricultural productivity and incomes of small scale food producers by 2030." To accurately monitor the progress made toward achieving this goal and target, timely, cost-effective, and high-quality estimates of agricultural land area, yield, and production are needed. Collecting such data in developing countries can, however, be time-consuming, costly, and methodologically challenging. Estimates of these agricultural statistics are also prone to measurement errors in the absence of a sound and well-designed methodology. Inaccurate agricultural statistics can lead to inappropriate policies, thereby impacting food security.

In the Lao People's Democratic Republic, the Asian Development Bank (ADB) in collaboration with the Center for Agricultural Statistics of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry conducted a methodological study in Savannakhet Province. This work was undertaken through a statistics capacity building technical assistance project piloted across four Southeast Asian countries.[a] Rice area and yield were estimated through the implementation of a farmer recall survey and compared with objective measures, such as plot areas[b] mapped using global positioning system (GPS), and rice yields[c] estimated by crop cutting for the same set of plots. A multistage stratified random sample utilizing an area frame was implemented to select the plots for this study. Fieldwork was implemented during the rainy season of 2015.

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a ADB. 2013. *Innovative Data Collection Methods for Agricultural and Rural Statistics*. Manila (Regional Capacity Development Technical Assistance 8369). This technical assistance was implemented by ADB in partnership with government agricultural ministries and national statistical offices in the Lao People's Democratic Republic, the Philippines, Thailand, and Viet Nam.

b Although GPS measures are more objective than farmer estimates and are often referred to as the new "gold standard" (Carletto et al. 2015), measurement bias may arise due to satellite position, signal propagation, and receiver type, with overall position error ranging from 0.5 meters to 4 meters (Hofmann-Wellenhof et al. 2008). These errors are likely to be more prominent for smaller plots than larger plots.

c The crop-cutting technique relies on identifying a randomized spot on a plot (a square, circle, or triangle) of a certain dimension and harvesting the crop within this spot to calculate the quantity harvested. It is considered as the gold standard for estimating yield (FAO 1982).

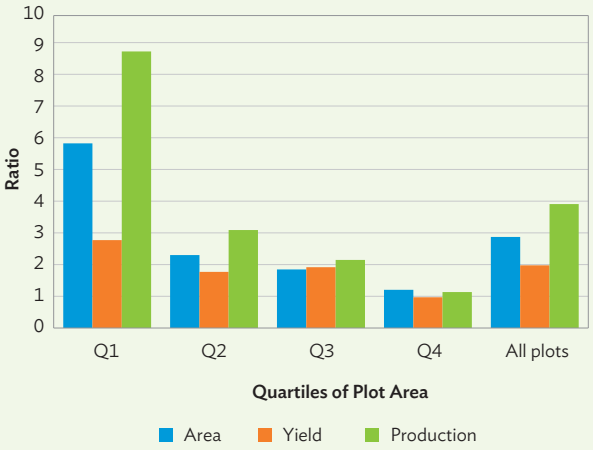
continued.

Box 6.1: *(continued)*

Box Figure 6.1.1 shows the ratio of farmer-reported area, yield, and production versus values for the same variables objectively measured by GPS-based plot area quartile. For all three variables, a clear overestimation is observed. For the full sample, plot area, on average, is overreported by farmers roughly 2.9 times relative to GPS measurement; meanwhile, the average farmer-reported yield is roughly twice the yield estimate obtained through crop cutting. Consequently, rice production is overestimated roughly 3.9 times by farmers relative to objectively measured production.

Also, a clear downward trend exists for all three measures, whereby farmers significantly overestimate area, yield, and production on smaller plots, with the degree of overestimation decreasing with plot area. Such a systematic bias is likely to have direct consequences on the interpretation of results while estimating several policy-relevant agricultural relationships.

Box Figure 6.1.1: Ratio of Farmer Estimates to Objective Measures for Rice Area, Yield, and Production by Plot Area Quartile Based on Global Positioning System



Finally, administrative data for the Lao People's Democratic Republic[d] point to a yield estimate of 4.3 tons per hectare for the rainy season of 2015 in Savannakhet, revealing an overestimation of roughly 2.2 tons per hectare relative to crop cutting estimates for the same season from this validation study.

The results from this study suggest that data users need to carefully consider existing agricultural statistics and survey methods. They also point toward the need to improve agricultural data quality through targeted investments in quality data, objective measurement approaches, as well as improvement in statistical capacity of government agencies tasked with providing such information.

d Department of Planning and Cooperation, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. 2016. *Agricultural Statistics Yearbook 2015*. Vientiane, Lao PDR: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

Sources:

C. Carletto, S. Gourlay, and P. Winters. 2015. From Guesstimates to GPStimates: Land Area Measurement and Implications for Agricultural Analysis. *Journal of African Economies*. 24 (5). pp. 593–628

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. 1982. *Estimation of Crop Areas and Yields in Agricultural Statistics*. Rome

B. Hofmann-Wellenhof, H. Lichtenegger, and E. Wasle. 2008. GNSS—*Global Navigation Satellite Systems*. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Official development assistance and partnerships in the development community, including North–South and South–South cooperation, have provided mechanisms to assist those ravaged by conflict, natural disasters, and other risks factors, and have encouraged growth and trade across countries. Cross-thematic linkages in the Global Goals and targets point to the need for multistakeholder partnerships that go beyond a traditional sectoral approach to a more integrated approach. This requires strong coordination among various stakeholders in the development community, including cofinancing of partnership initiatives, as well as joint progress reporting on the extent of attainment of the SDGs.

Goal 17. Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development

Table 6.1: **Selected Indicators for SDG 17 - Development Financing and Statistical Capacity Building**

By 2020, enhance capacity-building support to developing countries, including for least developed countries and small island developing states, to increase significantly the availability of high-quality, timely, and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability, geographic location, and other characteristics relevant in national contexts

By 2030, build on existing initiatives to develop measurements of progress on sustainable development that complement gross domestic product, and support statistical capacity building in developing countries

Regional Member	17.9.1 Dollar Value of Financial and Technical Assistance (including through North-South, South-South and triangular cooperation) Committed to Developing Countries (constant 2015 $ million)		17.18.3 Availability of National Statistical Plan[a]	17.19.1 Value of All Resources Made Available to Strengthen Statistical Capacity in Developing Countries ($)		17.19.2 Number of Countries That Have Conducted at Least One Population and Housing Census in the Last 10 Years[b]
	Average, 2000–2007	Average, 2008–2015	2016	2006	2014	Latest Year
Developing Member Economies						
Central and West Asia						
Afghanistan	411.8	1,509.4	B	2,069,399.8	3,020,102.4	...
Armenia	63.2	77.1	B	56,731.6	3,696,148.0	2011
Azerbaijan	29.1	55.7	...	140,534.9	32,316.8	2009
Georgia	76.2	117.9	C, D	342,978.6	152,019.0	2014
Kazakhstan	40.3	204.8	...	372,625.0	1,600.0	2009
Kyrgyz Republic	49.3	78.4	B	260,060.6	87,885.0	2009
Pakistan	368.2	744.0	...	4,916,521.4	16,150.0	...
Tajikistan	29.2	36.0	B	2,411,705.4	2,500,000.0	2010
Turkmenistan	6.1	5.6	...	279,722.6	18,738.0	2012
Uzbekistan	37.5	117.3	...	272,261.8	161.2	...
East Asia						
China, People's Rep. of	306.2	533.2	A, B, C	1,568,187.0	418,083.5	2010
Hong Kong, China	...	...	B	...	...	2016
Korea, Rep. of	...	...	A, B, C, E	...	...	2015
Mongolia	35.9	98.2	...	2,994,147.0	94,714.7	2010
Taipei,China	...	...	...	...	...	2010
South Asia						
Bangladesh	216.3	389.8	B	1,245,957.6	357,903.0	2011
Bhutan	14.8	21.6	B	528,875.6	176,752.2	2017
India	483.7	604.2	B	1,171,518.6	1,717,187.1	2011
Maldives	3.6	8.0	B	136,444.6	200,000.0 (2013)	2014
Nepal	78.2	145.8	...	568,917.5	163,912.8	2011
Sri Lanka	110.1	101.8	...	361,402.2	469,210.3	2012
Southeast Asia						
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...	...	...	2011
Cambodia	78.4	112.8	...	5,058,885.2	322,949.9	2008
Indonesia	539.2	1,326.4	B, D	795,895.3	1,500.0 (2013)	2010
Lao PDR	42.9	73.0	A, B, C, D	468,513.1	246,420.1	2015
Malaysia	17.4	13.9	...	274,242.8	92,130.2 (2012)	2010
Myanmar	15.2	131.7	...	1,187,054.1	1,314,445.9	2014
Philippines	124.2	371.8	B, C, D, E	773,000.7	186,702.0	2010
Singapore	...	...	B	...	...	2010
Thailand	45.2	69.2	...	510,883.2	24,017.1	2010
Viet Nam	298.0	658.4	B	1,698,915.4	6,559,859.4	2009
The Pacific						
Cook Islands	2.1	4.1	B	43,363.3	36,337.0	2016
Fiji	15.6	13.7	...	151,154.8	28,758.5	2017
Kiribati	7.7	7.6	...	34,046.4 (2007)	5,089.9 (2013)	2015
Marshall Islands	16.8	11.5	...	53,283.3	1,630.0	2011
Micronesia, Fed. States of	35.2	29.9	...	210,191.8	5,090.9 (2013)	2010
Nauru	6.6	10.7	...	34,046.4 (2007)	5,089.9 (2013)	2011
Palau	1.6	3.2	...	120,972.2	46,661.1	2015
Papua New Guinea	91.8	145.3	...	1,018,701.9	15,721.0	2011
Samoa	15.0	28.8	B	174,911.1	26,717.0	2016
Solomon Islands	67.9	78.3	...	66,377.7	25,543.0	2009
Timor-Leste	51.5	47.7	B	172,795.8	32,361.5	2015
Tonga	10.0	13.5	...	120,885.9	15,702.1	2016
Tuvalu	2.9	3.7	...	7,618.0 (2007)	5,089.9 (2013)	2012
Vanuatu	11.9	17.5	B	489,116.6	5,089.9 (2013)	2016
Developed Member Economies						
Australia	...	...	B	...	...	2016
Japan	...	...	A, B, C	...	...	2015
New Zealand	...	...	...	...	...	2013

... = data not available at cutoff date, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, SDG = Sustainable Development Goal.

a A - National statistical plan fully funded, B - National statistical plan under implementation, C - National statistical plan with funding from government, D - National statistical plan with funding from donors, E - National statistical plan with funding from others.
b Refers to the most recent year population and housing census was conducted.
c Value for average 2000–2007 refers to average of 2001–2007.
d Value for average 2000–2007 refers to average of 2000 and 2002–2007.

Sources: Partnership in Statistics for Development in the 21st Century (PARIS21) http://www.paris21.org/ (accessed 28 June 2017); United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Indicators Global Database. http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed 19 July 2017); national statistics office of Taipei,China. https://eng.stat.gov.tw/np.asp?ctNode=1549 (accessed 28 June 2017); Bhutan Trust Fund for Environmental Conservation. http://www.bhutantrustfund.bt/?p=925 (accessed 21 July 2017); and Fiji Bureau of Statistics. http://www.statsfiji.gov.fj/census (accessed 21 July 2017).

Section 2. Collecting Sex-Disaggregated Data on Asset Ownership: Evidence from Pilot Surveys

Introduction

The Beijing Platform for Action 1995, heralded as one of the most progressive frameworks for advocating gender equality, is more than 2 decades old. Since its inception, tremendous progress has been made in achieving gender equality globally, but significant gaps continue to exist. Bridging the inequalities with respect to women's access to productive resources is still a challenge in many parts of the world.

While the need to promote greater gender equality is recognized and addressed in both the Millennium Development Goals and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), the SDGs take on the issue by explicitly linking gender equality in economic resources to the sustainable development agenda. In particular, the importance of ensuring women's equal rights to economic resources, ownership, and control over land and other forms of property is mentioned under SDG targets 1.4, 2.3, and 5.a (Box 7.1).

The importance of asset ownership and wealth for individual and household welfare has been documented in recent decades. There is a greater appreciation for the complex interlinkages between asset ownership, sustainable livelihoods, and the ability to transition and stay out of poverty, with implications for current and intergenerational household well-being. Often, it is the ownership of certain kinds of assets (a house or land, for example) that determines if households are structurally poor (in poverty over a longer period) or have temporarily slipped into poverty due to a negative income shock. Assets can aid income diversification and can be used to access credit by serving as collateral.

The ability of women to own and control assets is critical for securing gender equity and delivering on the sustainable development agenda. Empirical evidence from the intrahousehold resource allocation literature across diverse contexts suggests that women's asset ownership is associated with better nutrition and education for their children (Quisumbing and Maluccio 2000, Doss 2006); increased bargaining power within the household as evinced by greater participation in household decision making and increased mobility (Garikipati 2009, Twyman et al. 2015, Swaminathan et al. 2011); and protection against the experience of domestic violence (Panda and Agarwal 2007, Oduro et al., 2016, Bonilla et al. 2017). Research from Sub-Saharan Africa suggests that strengthening women's land rights and tenure security has implications for agricultural productivity and soil conservation practices (Goldstein and Udry 2008; Ali, Deininger, and Goldstein 2014).

Despite this body of strong evidence linking women's asset ownership and development goals, such sex-disaggregated data needed for monitoring of the progress on relevant targets in the 2030 Agenda is scarce. Conventional surveys, including those conducted by national statistical agencies, use the household as the unit of data collection. Information is obtained on household asset ownership (land, dwelling, and so on) from a household member, usually the head of the household; but this information is of rather limited use as individuals own assets, not households. Any gender analysis (or for that matter, any analysis based on individual characteristics) gets limited to comparisons between households headed by males and households headed by females, categorized based on the sex of the household head. This approach does not shed any light on men in households headed by women or women in households headed by men. Data from Latin America and Caribbean show that for certain categories of assets, gender inequality is overestimated by headship analysis as it ignores women in male-headed households (Deere, Alvarado, and Twyman 2012). Similarly, Peterman et al. (2011) found in

Uganda that using the sex of the household head as a gender indicator underestimates the differences in agricultural productivity between male-owned and female-owned plots.

Sex-disaggregated asset data can also highlight the gendered experience of poverty, which is not captured using household-level data. A study on multidimensional poverty from Karnataka, India finds that gender differentials in poverty are significant based on individual poverty lines (a difference of 34 percentage points between male and female poverty rates), but are almost nonexistent when assigned the household poverty line (1 percentage point difference) (Vijaya, Lahoti, Swaminathan 2014). Among other attributes, individual-level asset ownership data was used to construct individual poverty scores. The study also finds that the poverty of poor women in nonpoor households was driven largely by lack of education and lack of asset ownership, even when the household was classified as an asset holder.

Recent numerous initiatives have embarked on collecting individual-level asset data. However, the data collection protocols including the questionnaire design, methodology, and sampling procedure, are not standardized across these initiatives, rendering cross-data comparisons difficult. Hence, despite these initiatives, there is still a lot of ground to cover in terms of providing methodological guidelines and building capacity of national statistical agencies for basic data collection.

The Evidence and Data for Gender Equality (EDGE) project is an attempt to systematically address the data and methodological lacuna in the domain of sex-disaggregated data. EDGE is a global initiative that seeks to accelerate the production of internationally comparable sex-disaggregated data on health, education, asset ownership, employment, and entrepreneurship through two related activities: creation of an online gender data portal to share existing data on education, health, and employment; and development of methodological guidelines for collecting sex-disaggregated asset ownership and entrepreneurship data.

The second objective of the EDGE initiative was achieved through a multistakeholder approach involving national statistical agencies, researchers with relevant expertise, and regional and international agencies: United Nations Statistics Division, UN Women, Asian Development Bank (ADB), Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, and the World Bank. The methodology developed under the EDGE initiative was piloted in seven countries: Georgia, Maldives, Mexico, Mongolia, the Philippines, South Africa, and Uganda, and the experience gained from the conduct of pilot household surveys is being used by the UN Statistics Division to develop methodological guidelines on the collection of data on asset ownership and control from a gender perspective.

ADB provided technical and financial support for the implementation of the household Pilot Surveys on Measuring Asset Ownership and Entrepreneurship from a Gender Perspective in Georgia, Mongolia, and the Philippines using methodology developed under the EDGE initiative and adapted to the country context.[6] The project partners are the National Statistics Office of Georgia (GeoStat), National Statistics Office of Mongolia, Philippine Statistics Authority, and UN Statistics Division.

This section summarizes some of the preliminary findings and valuable lessons from the pilot surveys conducted by ADB and collaborating national statistical agencies.[7]

6 ADB. 2012. *Statistical Capacity Development for Social Inclusion and Gender Equality*. Manila (R-CDTA 8243).

7 Detailed final results of the initiative will be disseminated in a forthcoming publication. Survey questionnaires are available online and can be accessed through https://unstats.un.org/edge/

Box 7.1: SDGs and Women's Rights to Ownership and Control of Economic Resources

In September 2015, the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development to end poverty, protect the planet, and ensure prosperity for all by building upon the achievements of the Millennium Development Goals. The 2030 Agenda comprises 17 Sustainable Development Goals and 169 targets. The 2030 Agenda recognizes that empowerment of women and girls through gender equality in ownership and control of economic resources among other measures is critical to achieving the vision set out in the 2030 Agenda. Explicit targets relating of economic ownership of assets in the SDGs are as follows:

SDG Target 1.4: By 2030, ensure that all men and women, particularly the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology, and financial services, including microfinance.

SDG 2 Target 2.3: By 2030, double the agricultural productivity and the incomes of small-scale food producers, in particular women, indigenous peoples, family farmers, pastoralists and fishers, including through secure and equal access to land, other productive resources and inputs, knowledge, financial services, markets and opportunities for value addition, and non-farm employment.

On the other hand, SDG 5 (achieve gender equality and empower women and girls) recognizes gender equality as an intrinsic human right, and target 5.a notes that countries should ***"undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws."*** Asset ownership and control by women and their security of tenure is central to the indicators for monitoring progress in target 5.a:

SDG Indicator 5.a.1: (a) Proportion of total agricultural population with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex; and (b) share of women among owners or rights-bearers of agricultural land, by type of tenure.

SDG Indicator 5.a.2: Proportion of countries where the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women's equal rights to land ownership and/or control.

Asset Ownership and Control: A Gender Perspective

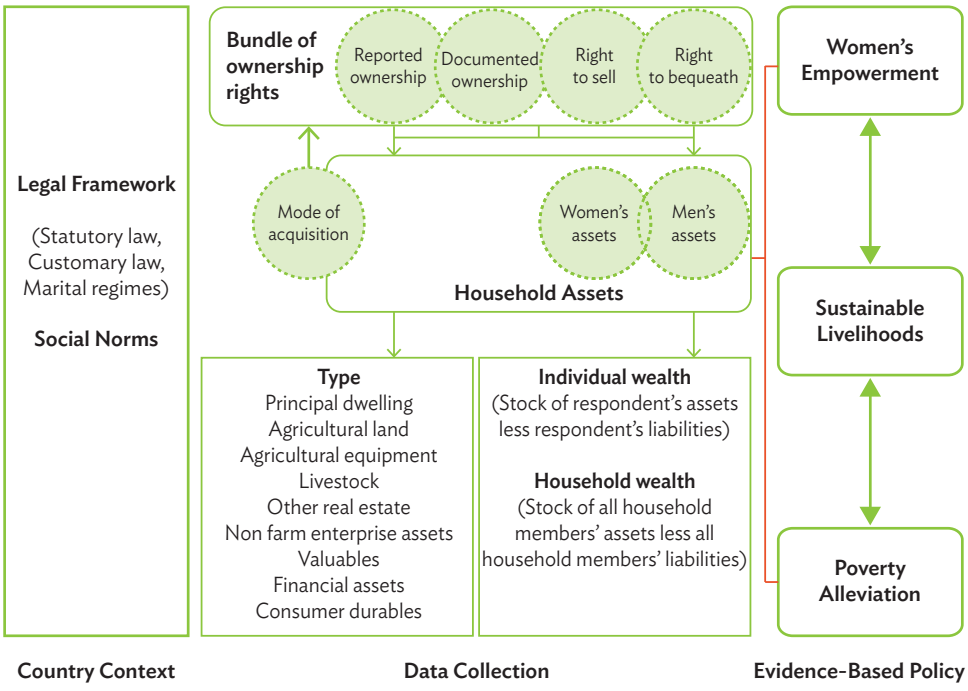
Figure 7.1 presents the EDGE conceptual framework for measuring asset ownership and control from a gender perspective, which guided the implementation of the pilot surveys. The framework maps out the different domains of information needed to be collected through the survey so that it can facilitate a comprehensive gender analysis of asset ownership and control.

What sets this framework apart is that the notion of asset ownership is deconstructed so there is a clear recognition that assets are held by individual household members and not by a notional household unit. This framework forces us to think about the ways in which gender intersects with how assets are acquired, what ownership means, and how these assets are used.

The left panel of Figure 7.1 suggests that any exploration of the gendered ownership of assets must be located within the specific country context with respect to social norms, inheritance laws, and marital regimes as these determine how men and women acquire assets. Social norms that delineate roles and responsibilities between men and women are important contextual factors that can affect the implementation of such laws as well as the effective use of and control over assets by women. Furthermore, countries with pluralistic legal regimes determine acquisition of assets and offer a diverse meaning of ownership across customary and statutory law.

The center panel of the EDGE framework illustrated in Figure 7.1 implies that ownership can be conceptualized as a bundle of rights that can vary according to the context and type of asset. The most frequently collected information from household surveys is **reported ownership** and is based on the

Figure 7.1: Conceptual Framework for Measuring Asset Ownership and Control from a Gender Perspective



Source: United Nations. 2017. United Nations Methodological Guidelines on the Production of Statistics on Asset Ownership from a Gender Perspective. Draft presented to the Statistical Commission in its 48th Session, 7–10 March 2017.

respondent's assessment of who owns an asset. If individuals are asked only about the assets they own, then reported ownership reflects their self-perception of being owners or not. Reported ownership data can also be collected via proxy reporting (for example, when the head or most knowledgeable member of the household identifies all owners of a house or parcel of land). Both approaches are interesting from a bargaining power perspective, as a woman's bargaining power and empowerment may depend on whether she considers herself an owner of an asset and how she is perceived by other household members.

Documented ownership, on the other hand, is a more formalized concept where individuals can claim legal right over an asset by having their name listed on an ownership document. Examples of such documents include formal title deed, purchase agreement, and property tax records. The documentation requirements can vary across countries and sometimes, several supporting documents are necessary to prove ownership. Having one's name listed on a document can provide greater security of tenure in some situations.

The **right to alienate** an asset is also an important aspect of ownership. These are captured through the **right to sell** and the **right to bequeath**.

In many countries, particularly in Asia and Africa, the full bundle of rights may not be vested in one individual. Someone could be a reported owner, but not be listed on any ownership document. Gendered social norms could influence reporting of ownership; women may never be reported as owners even if the law allows them to own property. In some contexts, due to a tenure system where land is not owned but leased for 99 years or more, one may not possess the right to sell the property but can have the right to bequeath it to their children.

The framework also illustrates the diverse forms in which assets can be held, i.e., whether owned exclusively by an individual, or jointly with household or nonhousehold members. Joint ownership with spouses is the most typical, but joint ownership with parents, siblings, other family members, and nonfamily members is also possible. The form of ownership of an asset could be significant in explaining the bundle of rights. One would expect stronger alienation rights in individual ownership, whereas in joint ownership, the distribution of rights between the owners may be subject to negotiation or determined by the social context. This may have relevance in the context of gender analysis of asset ownership and rights.

Assets are acquired via the market, through state transfers, within marriage and/or consensual union, or through inheritance or gifts. A country's legal framework that governs inheritance and marital regimes interacts with prevalent social norms to promote or discriminate against women's asset ownership. Countries that do not legally discriminate between sons and daughters in terms of inheritance may still show a male bias in property transfer due to patriarchal traditions. The marital regime that regulates marital assets (or assets within a consensual union) affects how assets are owned, either individually or jointly. Three types of marital regimes are distinguished: separation of property, partial community property, and full community property.[8] Georgia and Mongolia follow the partial community property regime, while the Philippines follows the full community property regime. The main difference in these regimes is in the treatment of inherited property. In the full community property, inheritance is treated on par with marital assets; in partial community property, inheritance is kept separate from marital assets.

[8] Under a separation of property regime, separate ownership of property brought into marriage and any property acquired and inherited during marriage is maintained. Under a partial community property regime, property acquired during marriage by either spouse is treated as joint property of both spouses. On the other hand, all individual property brought into, acquired, and inherited during marriage is treated as the joint property of both spouses under a full community property regime.

An asset in the EDGE framework is defined as "a store of value representing a benefit or a series of benefits accruing to the economic owner by holding or using the entity over a period of time," consistent with the 2008 System of National Accounts (SNA).

The EDGE surveys collected individual-level data on physical and financial assets, with a broader definition of physical assets than considered under the SNA approach. Data were collected on the following items: (i) dwelling, (ii) agricultural land, (iii) livestock, (iv) small and large agricultural equipment, (v) nonagricultural enterprise owned by household members and enterprise assets, (vi) other real estate, (vii) consumer durables, (viii) financial assets, (ix) liabilities, and (x) valuables. These items were chosen because they are important in crafting policies and programs that strengthen women's property rights and promote women's empowerment. Small agricultural equipment, and consumer durables are not considered assets under the 2008 SNA, but were included along with nonagricultural enterprises owned by household members in the EDGE pilots due to their importance for livelihoods, and overall individual and household well-being.

The surveys also collected valuation data on assets for two reasons. First, valuation data enables the calculation of individual wealth, an important component of well-being. It can enable an understanding of wealth inequality among individuals. Typically, wealth inequality is higher than consumption or income inequality as it represents accumulated assets over a period of time (OECD 2015). Second, valuation captures other attributes of an asset such as quality, size, location, and so on, which are missed by a numerical count of assets owned by men and women. Often, women own fewer assets relative to men. These assets may be of inferior quality. For example, women may own a few parcels of land with poorer soil quality. Since individual wealth is determined by quantity and quality of assets, these differences in ownership patterns may show a significant gender wealth gap that is not revealed when one compares data on

men's and women's likelihood of owning assets. The respondents reported the value of their assets at current market price. Operationally, the collection of data on assets' values in the pilot survey posed severe challenges due to high levels of nonresponse to valuation-related questions.

Constructing Individual-Level Asset Ownership Estimates—Survey Methodology

The Georgia and Mongolia surveys (sample of 3,160 and 3,008 households, respectively) are nationally representative, while the Philippines survey (sample of 1,536 households) is representative for the province of Cavite only. The samples were selected following a two-stage stratified sampling design in Georgia and the Philippines, and a three-stage design in the case of Mongolia. Households within each selected primary sampling unit formed the succeeding sampling units.

A maximum of three adults 18 years of age or above were interviewed in each sampled household. A *primary respondent* was identified by the household members as the most knowledgeable member with respect to the household assets. The spouse or partner, if any, of the primary respondent formed the second respondent. The two together formed the principal couple. For households with three adult members or less, all adults were included in the sample. For households with more than three adult members, the two adults comprising the principal couple were selected with probability equal to one, and a third member was chosen randomly from the remaining adults. The total respondents interviewed were 5,937; 5,592, and 3,456 in Georgia, Mongolia, and Cavite, Philippines respectively. Table 7.1 summarizes the profile of the respondents based on the distribution of sex, marital status, and educational level.

A methodological innovation of the EDGE pilots was the construction of individual-level asset ownership estimates once such data were collected. Each respondent was asked to provide individual ownership information of all assets owned either exclusively or jointly with others by each adult member of the household, including those held by themselves. The interview protocol required interviews to be conducted separately and simultaneously to prevent any bias due to information sharing among the respondents. Based on this information, individual asset ownership was analyzed and estimated following two approaches: self-assigned ownership (SAO) and ownership assigned by any respondent (OAAR).

Table 7.1: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Sex, Marital Status, and Educational Level

Key sociodemographic variables	Georgia	Mongolia	Cavite, Philippines
Sex			
Male	42.1	44.5	46.4
Female	57.9	55.5	53.6
Marital Status			
Married	66.1	71.3	67.7
Widowed/Separated/Divorced	19.3	13.9	11.5
Never married	14.6	14.8	20.8
Educational level			
Primary or lower	3.2	26.9	17.2
Secondary	43.4	45.3	46.4
Post secondary nontertiary	24.5	n.a.	n.a.
Tertiary or above	29.0	27.7	36.4

n.a. = not applicable.
Source: Asian Development Bank estimates using Evidence and Data for Gender Equality pilot surveys.

The SAO approach considers only those assets that are owned by the respondents themselves. Thus, the information provided by the respondent on assets owned by other members of the household and in which she or he does not have a stake is ignored. The SAO approach is premised on the notion that individuals have the most accurate knowledge about the assets they themselves own.

The OAAR method aggregates information from all respondents to arrive at a universe of asset owners for all household assets. It is the most inclusive approach to identifying owners. A household member is treated as an owner as long as he or she is reported as an owner by at least one respondent. This is closer to conventional household surveys that allow for proxy reporting by one respondent, but is different in that there is more than one respondent per household. Thus, the expectation would be that ownership information is more diffused across

household members than what is obtained with one proxy respondent.

Another interesting perspective to the survey methodology was to collect information from self-assigned owners about "hidden assets," i.e., assets that the respondent owns, but has not been revealed to other household members. A large proportion of hidden assets can bias the estimates of asset ownership. It also reflects a fear of appropriation of assets or loss of control over assets, which provides insights into the larger institutional context of asset ownership.

Obviously, estimates of asset ownership will vary depending on the approach to data collection, and the data collected from the EDGE pilot surveys in the three countries also provide an opportunity to see a comparative picture or divergence in the estimates from these two approaches of calculating individual asset ownership estimates. These questions—how many people to interview in a household, whom to interview, should there be proxy reporting or self-reporting of information on asset ownership—are important considerations for survey design.

Key Results from the Surveys in Georgia, Mongolia, and Cavite, Philippines

This section presents the main findings from the EDGE pilots such as trends and patterns in asset ownership and control for men and women, and how these assets are acquired. These are examined using a gender lens, highlighting gender disparities in the asset domain.

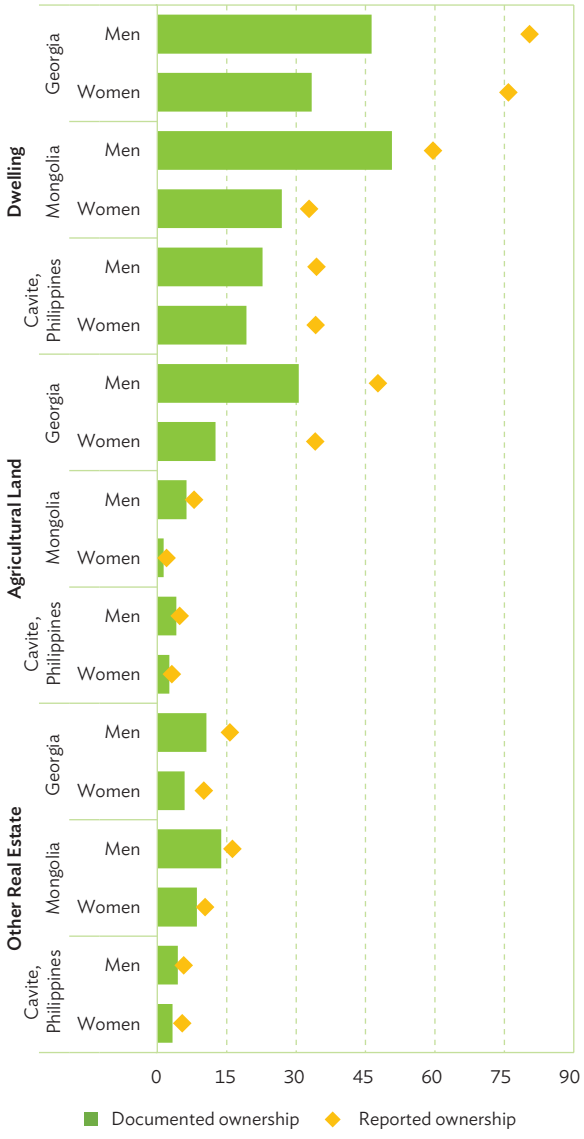
Three sets of indicators summarized by sex and other sociodemographic characteristics—incidence of asset ownership, distribution of form of ownership, and the gender wealth gap—were generated to understand inequalities in asset ownership from a gender perspective. Indicators on incidence and distribution of asset ownership were calculated for all assets covered in the pilot surveys, while the gender wealth gap was computed only for the dwelling.

The EDGE surveys also obtained information on **forms of ownership** by sex (whether an asset is owned exclusively or jointly) and **modes of acquisition**, also by sex. These may impact the rights that owners, especially women, can wield over assets. The discussion below focuses on estimates based on the SAO approach and are calculated for individuals 18 years and above. However, a comparison of estimates for incidence of asset ownership using SAO and OAAR approaches is also presented.

Incidence of Asset Ownership: Reported and Documented

The incidence measure tells us what percentage of the total adult population, by sex, are asset owners. The incidence gap or the gender asset gap is the difference in ownership rates between men and women. Figure 7.2 presents the reported and documented incidence by sex for immovable property (these are high-valued and are also likely to be income-generating assets) across the three countries. The dwelling is an important asset and is widely owned as reflected in the reported ownership numbers: by 80% of men and 76% of women in Georgia, by 60% of men and 33% of women in Mongolia, and by 34% of men and equal proportion of women in Cavite. The incidence measure for dwellings shows the highest gender gap for Mongolia, almost no gap for Cavite, and only a 5 percentage points difference for Georgia. This ranking of countries is maintained for documented ownership as well, though the proportion of men and women with documents is significantly lower, suggesting that many reported owners do not have their names on documents. This is particularly stark for Georgia where documented owners are about half of reported owners.

Figure 7.2: Incidence of Ownership of Select Assets
(%)



Source: Asian Development Bank estimates using Evidence and Data for Gender Equality pilot surveys.

Click here for figure data

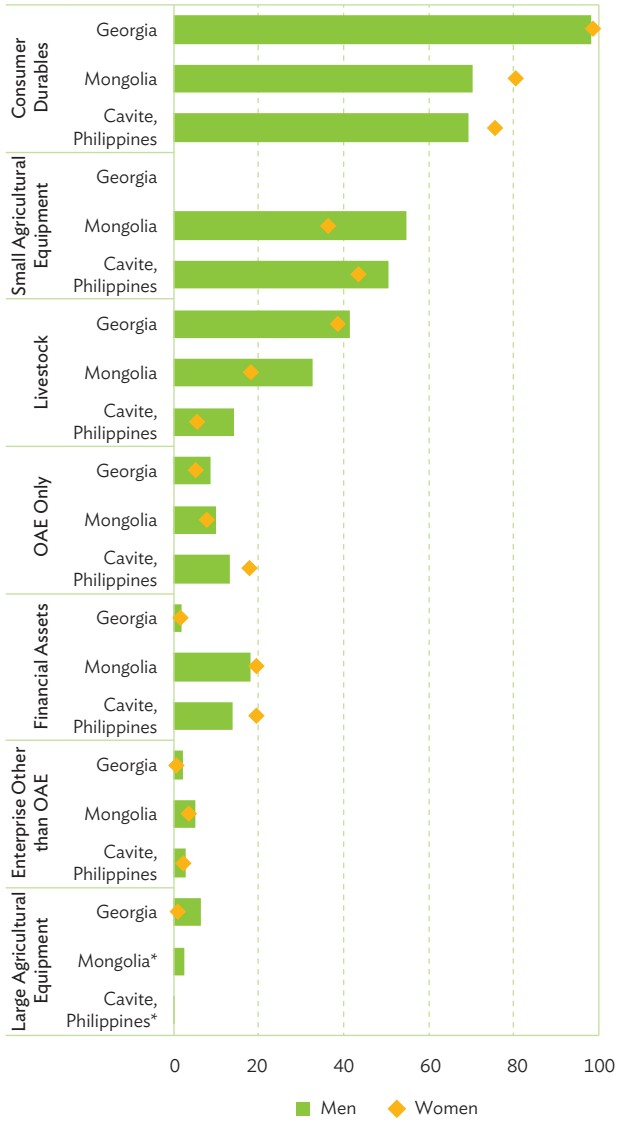
The incidence of ownership of agricultural land is much lower in Mongolia and Cavite compared to Georgia. Landownership is less than 5% in Cavite and reflects the relatively urban nature of Cavite province. In Mongolia, landownership is only 8% and 2% for men and women, respectively, but much higher in Georgia at 48% and 34% for men and women, respectively. The relatively low proportion of land ownership in Mongolia is presumably due to the communal nature of land and the relatively high proportion of landownership in Georgia is mainly due to the receipt of private land by rural households after the collapse of the Soviet Union. The absolute gender gaps in incidence are of course smaller; however, the pattern of gender disparity in ownership is similar to that of the dwelling unit.

Among the immovable assets for which data are collected through the survey, the asset with the highest prevalence of ownership varies by sex and by country. The incidence of ownership is highest for the dwelling unit for men and women in Georgia (80% and 76%, respectively) but only for men in Mongolia (60%). At 36% for women in Mongolia and 51% and 44% for men and women, respectively, in Cavite, it is small agricultural equipment that has the highest ownership rate. Interestingly, livestock is held by almost 40% of men and women in Georgia, and is more commonly owned by men in the other two countries. Documented ownership rates are lower in all countries, with not much of a difference between reported and documented in Mongolia and Cavite, and ranging from 4 to 43 percentage points in Georgia.

Other real estate refers to residential and nonresidential buildings other than dwelling and nonagricultural land. Within the category of immovable property, real estate ownership is lowest in Georgia. In Mongolia and Cavite, it is higher than ownership of agricultural land, but lower than ownership of dwelling. Men and women are equally likely to own real estate in Cavite while in Georgia and Mongolia, there is a gender gap of less than 5 percentage points.

Figure 7.3 presents the incidence of assets other than immovable property summarized by sex. Ownership of large agricultural equipment is almost negligible in Mongolia and Cavite; but it is not uncommon to hold small agricultural equipment. Low ownership of large agricultural equipment could be due to low ownership of agricultural land, and often, farmers will rent the equipment due to their high costs of acquisition. The module on small agricultural equipment was not implemented in Georgia as small agricultural equipment tends

Figure 7.3: Incidence of Reported Ownership of Select Assets
(%)



OAE = own-account enterprise.
Note: * Corresponds with fewer than 25 observations and thus may not be sufficient for data analysis.
Source: Asian Development Bank estimates using Evidence and Data for Gender Equality pilot surveys.

Click here for figure data

to be owned by all household members. However, ownership pattern among men and women seems more distinct for large agricultural equipment, with only 1% of Georgian women owning such equipment compared to 6% of Georgian men. Approximately 40% of both men and women adult population in Georgia own livestock; whereas at 33% for men and 18% for women, the gender gap in ownership is highest in Mongolia.

Overall, the incidence of ownership of nonagricultural enterprises is low for both men and women and concentrated in the own-account enterprises—defined as those with no paid workers but possibly employing (unpaid) contributing family workers—suggesting that these are fairly small operations. Interestingly, in Cavite, the gender gap is reversed in favor of women for own-account enterprises, but not for enterprises that employ at least one paid worker.

As expected, the incidence of ownership of consumer durables is highest among all assets in all the three countries, with overall incidence in favor of women. On the other hand, the results suggest that women are slightly more likely to own financial assets than men in Mongolia and Cavite.[9]

Comparing overall trends, men are more likely to be owners of assets than women in all three countries. On average, the gender gap in incidence is highest in Mongolia for most assets and lowest in Cavite. Focusing on immovable property, men in Mongolia are twice as likely as women to own their dwellings, four times as likely to own land, and a little more than one-and-a-half times as likely to own other real estate.

The incidence of hidden physical assets was observed to be less than 2% in all three countries with the exception of financial assets and liabilities. Mongolia shows the lowest proportion of hidden financial assets and liabilities; the highest incidence is in Georgia for financial assets; while Cavite is highest for liabilities, though still less than 5%. The gender gaps in the proportion of hidden assets are not substantive, with the maximum gap being 4 percentage points for financial assets in Mongolia.

[9] The estimates of incidence of ownership of financial asset are lower than expected. This finding could be attributed to the limitations on how the concept of financial assets was conceptualized in the survey instruments. Further investigation is needed to be able to understand this issue.

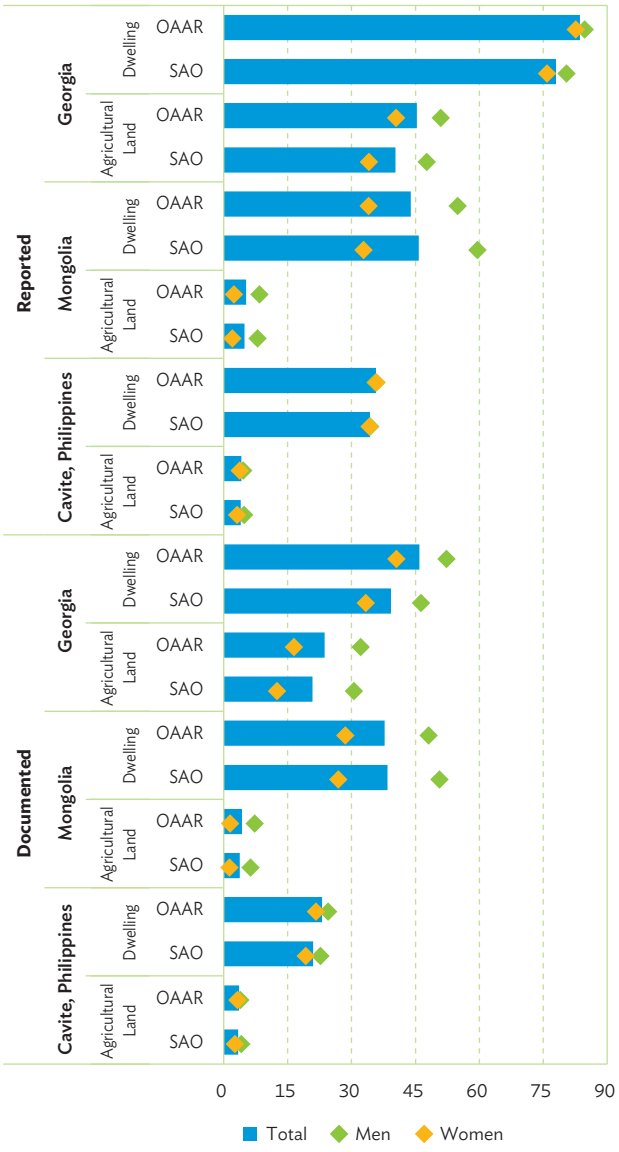
Lastly, comparing SAO and OAAR, the results suggest that the estimates of the incidence of reported and documented ownership are generally higher using the OAAR approach but there are variations across asset types, sex, and country. On average, these differences are small, less than 5 percentage points in most instances, barring a few. Georgia shows the largest difference for reported and documented ownership, where the self-assigned approach gives lower estimates for dwelling and agricultural land incidence rates for men and women (Figure 7.4). Rather surprisingly, reported and documented ownership for Mongolian men using the self-assigned approach is higher by 5 and 3 percentage points, respectively, suggesting a lack of information sharing within the household on such matters.

On the other hand, the trends in gender disparities in ownership do not change. A larger proportion of men are more likely to own dwelling and agricultural land compared to women, with the greatest disparities in Mongolia, and almost negligible in Cavite.

Gender Wealth Gap

There are a couple of advantages to the incidence indicator. For one, data for it are relatively easy to collect. For another, it lends itself to easy interpretation: what proportion of the population by sex are homeowners or owners of agricultural land? There is, however, information that incidence indicators cannot provide. For example, incidence indicators mask variations in the quantity owned, say, of agricultural land. In computing for proportions, an individual with 10 hectares of land is treated equally as an individual with 0.5 hectares of land. In addition, incidence indicators also do not reveal the quality of the asset in question. In such cases, the gender wealth gap complements the gender incidence gap. Following other surveys, valuation in the EDGE pilots was based on current sale price where respondents were asked to value the asset if it were to be sold on the date of the interview.

Figure 7.4: Comparison of Estimates of Incidence of Ownership of Select Assets Using Self-Assigned Ownership and Ownership Assigned by Any Respondent Approaches
(%)



OAAR = ownership assigned by any respondent, SAO = self-assigned ownership.
Source: Asian Development Bank estimates using Evidence and Data for Gender Equality pilot surveys.

Click here for figure data

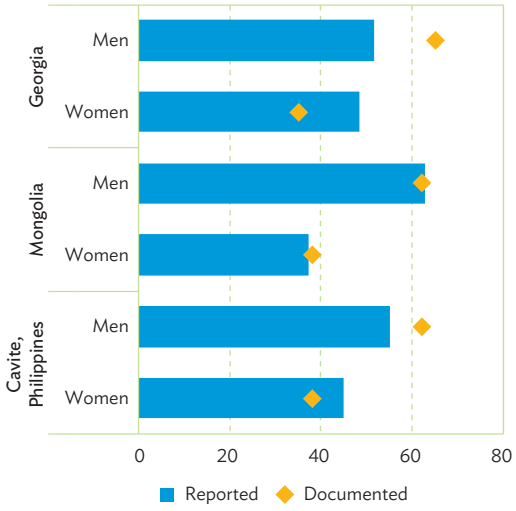
However, there are several challenges associated with the collection of valuation data and construction of wealth indicators. Depending on the asset and the context, it may be difficult to obtain valuation data due to missing markets, lack of awareness of the respondent regarding markets prices, or simply reluctance to share sensitive financial information.

These lead to a high proportion of missing values, which might render the data less reliable or unusable. Considering the dwelling example, the EDGE pilots show some variation in the proportion of missing values. On average, women are less likely than men to provide a value for their dwelling. At 15% for men and 18% for women, the nonresponse for dwelling valuation is lowest in Mongolia, followed by Cavite (48% for men and 60% for women); then Georgia (65% for men and 72% for women). Obviously, the nonresponse rates for valuation of dwelling in Cavite and Georgia are very high for both men and women and therefore any estimates using this data will be subject to limitations. Unsurprisingly, there are more missing values for agricultural land than dwelling. The trends for men and women's responses across the three countries are similar to that of valuation of the dwelling unit. Imputation of missing values is a possibility, but it requires information on asset characteristics that may be correlated with its value.

Another aspect to valuation is that once data is obtained, it is important to ensure that there is no double counting of assets. For example, if an asset is jointly owned, the value of the asset must be apportioned among all the owners, equally or in the same ratio as indicated by the ownership share.

Keeping these caveats on data in mind, we now consider the gender wealth gap for the dwelling unit based on the self-assigned ownership of assets (Figure 7.5).[10] Looking at the wealth shares based on reported ownership of dwelling, in no country is women's share of dwelling wealth greater than 50%. At 49%, it is almost equal in Georgia, followed by Cavite at 45% and Mongolia at 37%. Contrasting women's share of wealth to their share of owners provides some insights. In Georgia and Cavite, women represent more than half of all reported dwelling owners (53% and 51%, respectively), but their share of dwelling wealth is lower than 50%, suggesting that the dwellings owned by women may be less valuable than those owned by men. Figure 7.5 also presents wealth shares calculated based on documented ownership. Compared with reported ownership, the gap becomes more pronounced for documented ownership in Georgia and Cavite, while it is more or less same in Mongolia.

Figure 7.5: Share of Men and Women in Total Value of Dwellings
(%)



Notes: Estimates are weighted and calculated based on self-assigned ownership approach. The share of men and women owners in the population corresponds to owners who have reported and documented values of dwellings and excludes owners who are nonhousehold members. Philippines refers to the province of Cavite.
Source: Asian Development Bank estimates using Evidence and Data for Gender Equality pilot surveys.

Click here for figure data

Mode of Acquisition

As earlier illustrated in the conceptual framework (Figure 7.1), men and women acquire their assets in several ways, an understanding of which can help in addressing gender inequalities in asset ownership. For the dwelling unit, the market is the dominant means of asset acquisition for women in Mongolia (48%) and Cavite (50%), whereas women in Georgia are most likely to acquire it through marriage or custom (39%), followed by purchase (32%). The pattern is similar for men who are most likely to purchase their dwelling in Mongolia and Cavite, but about 45% of men owners receive it as a gift from a household member in Georgia. At 34%, purchase is the second most prevalent means of acquiring a dwelling

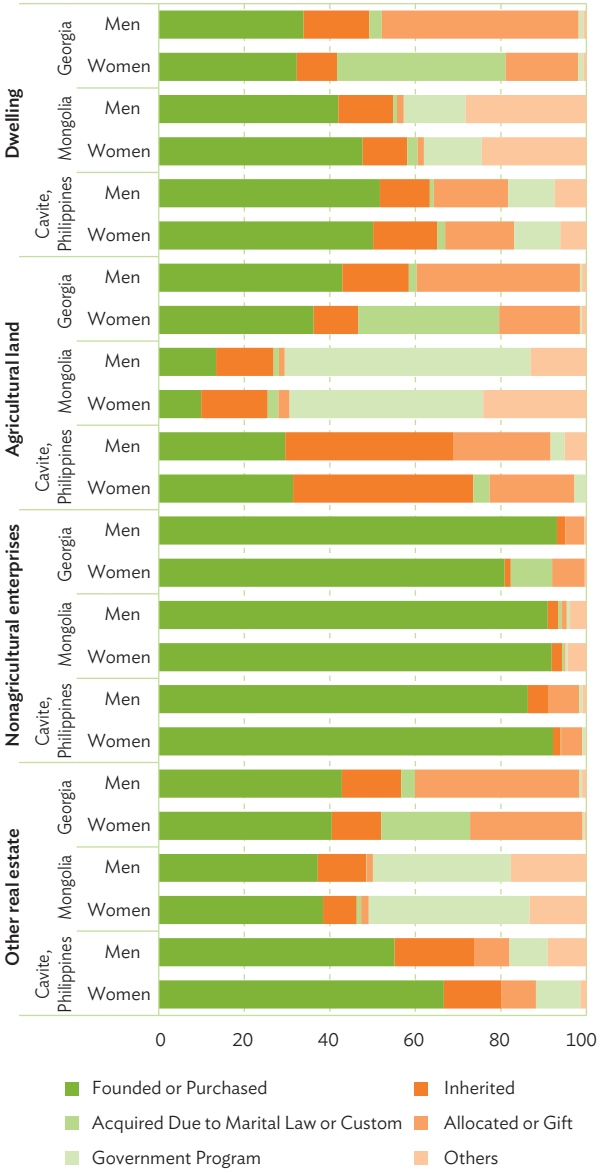
[10] Although wealth gap between men and women can be calculated for other types of assets, there are technical issues associated with doing such calculations. Thus, we focus on dwelling only.

for male owners in Georgia. Inheritance, whether natal or marital, while not totally unimportant, is also not a typical means of acquiring a dwelling; at 15%, inheritance is relatively more important for women in Cavite than in the other countries. The patterns are largely similar for male inheritance. Between 10% to 15% of male and female owners are beneficiaries of government programs in Mongolia and Cavite. On the other hand, nonagricultural enterprises were mostly founded directly by the respondents and no substantial difference is observed between men and women (Figure 7.6).

In general, with regard to dwellings, EDGE results suggest that the modes of acquisition are not gender-biased in Cavite. On the contrary, in Mongolia, markets and marital custom are slightly biased toward women, while inheritance shows a slight male bias. In Georgia, one finds more significant gender biases. Women are less likely than men to inherit or receive a gift from household members, but more likely to acquire via marital law and custom.

The mode of acquisition of agricultural land shows greater variation between countries, but is more similar for men and women within countries. For both men and women, the dominant means to acquire land is through purchases in Georgia (43% and 36%, respectively); via government programs in Mongolia (57% and 45%, respectively); and through inheritance in the Philippines (39% and 42%, respectively), which is almost fully comprised of natal family inheritance. Among the three countries, purchase of land is least common in Mongolia, presumably due to the communal nature of land. Acquisition within marriage or custom is the second most prevalent means for Georgian women, while it is natal inheritance[11] for women in Mongolia, and purchasing for women in Cavite. It is worth noting that unlike Georgia and Mongolia, there is no gender bias in market participation in Cavite, with about 30% of men and women purchasing their agricultural land.

Figure 7.6: Distribution of Mode of Acquisition of Select Assets
(%)



Note: Inherited combines natal and non-natal family members; allocated combines household and nonhousehold members; and others combines encroachment, "do not know", and other responses. "Founded" relates to nonagricultural enterprises only.
Source: Asian Development Bank estimates using Evidence and Data for Gender Equality pilot surveys.

Click here for figure data

Purchase is the dominant mode of acquisition for other real estate in all three countries, with similar levels between men and women within each country. Cavite is the exception, with a greater proportion of women purchasing property than men (67% versus 55%). In line with the patterns observed for other

11 The ranking excludes acquisition classified under "others" category.

property (dwelling and agricultural land), the second most prevalent means of acquiring other real estate is marital law and custom for Georgian women (but not for men who acquire through allocation or gift from household members); government allocations for men and women in Mongolia (32% and 38%, respectively); and natal inheritance for men and women in the Philippines (18% and 11%, respectively).

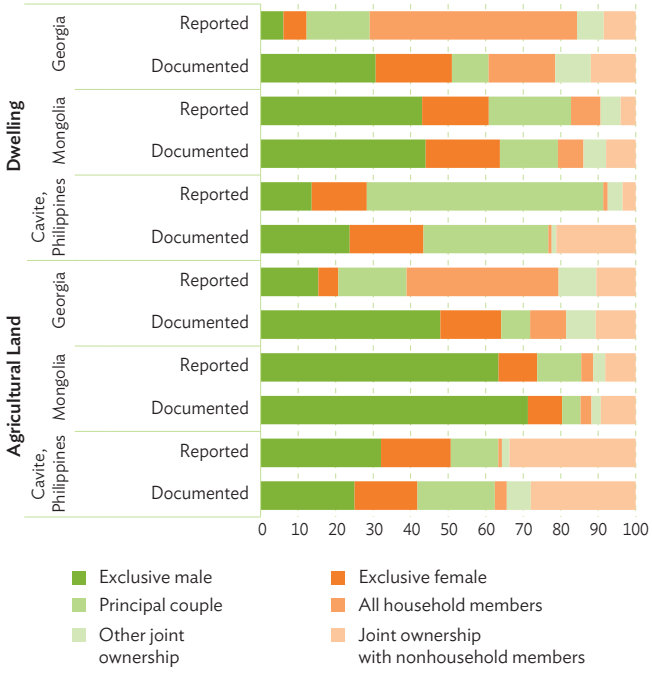
There seems to be no male bias in inheritance in Cavite; in fact, for dwelling and agricultural land, women are more likely to inherit than men. In Georgia, women are purchasing immovable property, but there is also a substantive proportion of women who acquire their assets within the institution of marriage, reflecting the importance of the partial community of marriage regime followed in that country.

Forms of Ownership and Alienation Rights over Assets

Asset incidence measures, while providing a sense of the prevalence of asset ownership by men and women, do not reveal any information on whether the asset is owned exclusively or jointly owned with one or more individuals. The forms of ownership are influenced by inheritance and marital regimes, which in turn impact the bundle of ownership rights (Figure 7.1). Figure 7.7 presents different forms of ownership by sex for dwelling and agricultural land in Georgia, Mongolia, and Cavite.

For dwelling owners, there is no variation in trend (except for Georgia) between reported and documented ownership. In Mongolia, exclusive male owners are dominant (43% and 44% for reported and documented, respectively), while in Cavite, ownership by the principal couple is the most prevalent 63% and 33% for reported and documented, respectively. This partly reflects the Philippines's full community of property marital regime whereby marital assets are treated as joint, whether inherited or acquired. In Georgia, all household members are

Figure 7.7: Distribution of Forms of Asset Ownership
(%)



Source: Asian Development Bank estimates using Evidence and Data for Gender Equality pilot surveys.

Click here for figure data

the dominant category as reported owners (55%), but this moves to exclusive male owners for documented ownership (31%), suggesting that the perception of ownership is more inclusive than the documented reality (Figure 7.7).

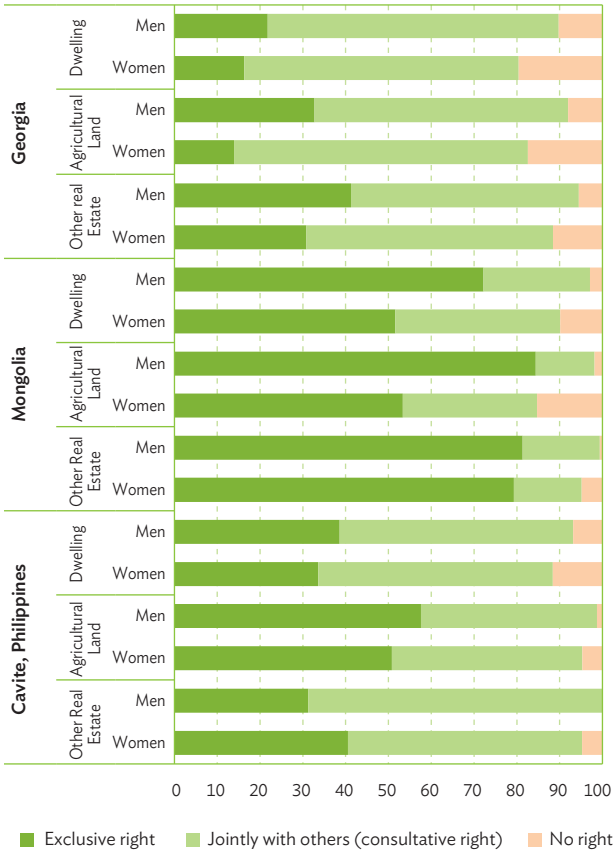
Agricultural land shows more variation between reported and documented ownership. Reported ownership by all household members (40%) is most common in Georgia. In Mongolia and Cavite, men are most likely to be exclusive owners. Reported and documented ownership with nonhousehold members is also common in Cavite, reflecting the relatively urban nature of Cavite province, with urban households co-owning agricultural land in rural areas with extended family members. (Recall from Figure 7.2 that less than 5% of the adult population in Cavite owns any agricultural land.) Similar with Georgia, the proportion of exclusive male owners is higher for documented than reported dwelling owners in Mongolia, and mainly comes

at the expense of women as exclusive owners, and principal couple owners. On average, the gender gap in exclusive ownership is highest in Mongolia for reported and documented owners of immovable property and is also high for documented ownership for agricultural land in Georgia.

Gender differences in alienation rights over assets, selling, or bequeathing as depicted in Figures 7.8 and 7.9 are quite stark across the three countries, and to a certain extent, mirror the forms of ownership. Male owners are more likely to have stronger alienation rights than female owners as to sale and bequeathing of assets. The dwelling is the most commonly held asset across countries, where the right of sale for men and women, respectively, are 90% versus 80% in Georgia, 97% versus 90% in Mongolia, and 93% versus 88% in Cavite (Figure 7.8).

A larger proportion of Mongolian men and women owners have exclusive alienation rights over sale and bequeathing compared to owners in the other countries. For example, nearly three quarters of Mongolian male owners have exclusive rights to bequeath their dwelling compared to 25% and 38% for men in Georgia and Cavite, respectively. Similar trends are observed with women owners as well in Mongolia. About 52% have an exclusive right to

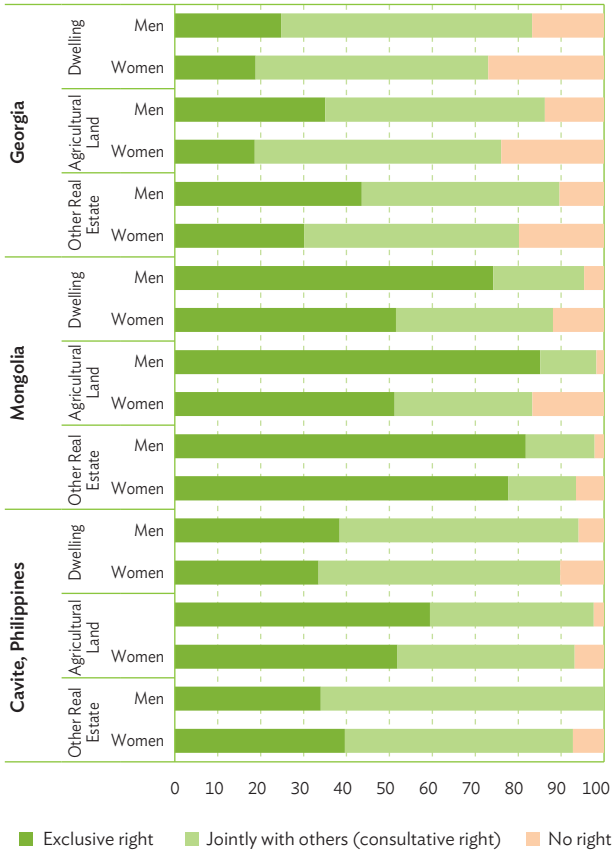
Figure 7.8: Distribution of Rights to Sell of Select Assets
(%)



Note: The number of observation for large agricultural equipment is too small to facilitate comparison of categories of right to sell. Detailed information on the number of observations can be found at https://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/publication/357006/sdgedge-fig-7-8.xlsx
Source: Asian Development Bank estimates using Evidence and Data for Gender Equality pilot surveys.

Click here for figure data

Figure 7.9: Distribution of Rights to Bequeath of Select Assets
(%)



Note: The number of observation for large agricultural equipment is too small to facilitate comparison of categories of right to bequeath. Detailed information on the number of observations can be found at https://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/publication/357006/sdgedge-fig-7-9.xlsx
Source: Asian Development Bank estimates using EDGE pilot surveys.

Click here for figure data

bequeath their dwelling, compared to 19% and 34% in Georgia and Cavite, respectively (Figure 7.9). This can be related to the relatively strong individual ownership patterns that are evident among Mongolian men and women.

Within Mongolia however, the proportion of female owners with no rights of alienation is higher than the proportion of male owners with no rights, reflecting a gender bias against women owners. It is Georgian women though, who seem the most disadvantaged compared with Mongolian and Cavite women owners in terms of having no economic rights over their assets. Almost one-fifth of women owners do not have any right to sell their dwelling or land, while a quarter do not have any bequeathing rights over these assets. Further, the results suggest that consulting rights are more prevalent in Georgia for both men and women. This could presumably be due to how the asset was acquired. Allocation or gifts from household members is the dominant mode for men, while women acquire due to custom, or within the marriage, or from household members, which could possibly explain why economic decisions regarding these assets are either taken consultatively, or with women are excluded.

Women in Cavite, on the other hand, are more likely to have purchased their immoveable property or inherited it from their natal family, which ensures that they are not deprived of their economic rights over their assets. On average, the proportion of owners in Cavite with no rights to sell or bequeath their assets is largely smaller than those in the other countries. The survey results suggest that exploring how men and women acquire and own assets provides a perspective to the enjoyment of rights over these assets (Figures 7.8 and 7.9).

Summary

Collecting sex-disaggregated data on asset ownership is a critical step in in building evidence toward bridging inequalities with respect to women's access to and control over productive resources. The lack of comparable national-level data on men and women's asset ownership using standard concepts is a serious constraint in shaping policy and programs that promote gender equality.

Even as absence of standardized methodological approaches for collecting individual-level asset data has been a constraint, these data are typically not collected by national statistical agencies for several reasons: time taken to administer the survey, financial and technical capacity constraints, cultural notions of how property or assets may be owned, and so on. The EDGE pilot surveys in Georgia, Mongolia, and the Philippines conducted by national statistics offices are powerful case studies as they have demonstrated that with the availability of standardized methods and guidelines, such data collection is feasible. The key contribution of the three pilot surveys is the development of methodological guidelines by the United Nations Statistics Division efforts under the global EDGE initiative for collecting such data. These guidelines are grounded in field experience, and with minimal adaptation can be applied across diverse geographies and social contexts. The methodological and practical experience through the three pilot surveys under ADB's project along with other methodological surveys and approaches piloted in Maldives, Mexico, South Africa, and Uganda also under EDGE initiative provide a solid basis for finalizing the United Nations methodological guidelines on the production of statistics on asset ownership from a gender perspective.

It is important to reiterate a few valuable lessons learned through these pilot surveys. First, one needs a basket of indicators (incidence, distribution, forms, wealth) to undertake a comprehensive gender analysis of asset ownership. Depending on what is being examined, the objectives of data collection can be defined while being cognizant of its strengths and limitations. Second, with clarity on survey objectives and information needs, it is possible to prioritize an indicator or set of indicators and

decide data collection, i.e., the survey design, survey questionnaires, and sampling methodology. Third, collection of valuation data through household surveys is challenging. It may be necessary to supplement survey data with other administrative information, or to plan ahead for imputation of missing data.

The pilot surveys have produced an extremely rich data on asset ownership and control at the individual level and provided valuable lessons for the methodological guidelines for data collection. For this initiative to become part of statistical program of national statistics agencies and sustainable in the long term, both data producers and data users—have to work together. There has to be a conscious effort to ensure that such data is produced regularly, is of the highest quality, and is disseminated in a timely fashion. It is also incumbent on policy makers, researchers, and the larger development community to utilize such data to monitor the progress of and advocate for gender equality in the economic sphere.

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