

I. Tracking the Millennium Development Goals in Asia and the Pacific

The countries of Asia and the Pacific have made substantial progress towards the MDGs, particularly those related to poverty. Nevertheless on present trends many countries remain “off track” for some vital targets, including those for child and maternal mortality. Comparing the performance of countries across the region can reveal how and why some countries are performing better on certain goals, while others have stalled or are even slipping backwards – and also indicate the kind of institutional changes needed to get back on track.

Five years ago, in September 2000, at the Millennium Summit in New York, leaders of the world’s Governments signed the Millennium Declaration and committed themselves to a series of targets that came to be known as the Millennium Development Goals, most of which are to be achieved by 2015. One third of the way through the target period, it is now time to take stock. How have the countries of Asia and the Pacific performed? Are they likely to achieve the targets – and if not what do they need to do to get back on track?

Each country has to assess its own prospects and possibilities, and many have explored these through their own national MDG progress reports – looking at where they stand, goal by goal. In addition, ESCAP and UNDP in 2005 produced a report that looked specifically at some of the poorest countries in the region: *Voices of the Least Developed Countries of Asia and the Pacific: Achieving the Millennium Development Goals through a Global Partnership*.

The purpose of this chapter is to build on this data and analysis to offer a broader regional perspective. This is partly to get a sense of what all these efforts add up to; Asia and the Pacific is, after all, home to around 60 per cent of the world’s population so what happens here

will have a strong bearing on the global picture. Moreover, while the region shows dynamism and promise, the tasks ahead are immense. The United Nations Millennium Project, for example, has estimated that in 2005, Asia is home to 71 per cent of the total number of people in the world without access to improved sanitation; 58 per cent of those without access to safe water; 56 per cent of the world’s undernourished; 54 per cent of those living in slums; and accounts for 43 per cent of the world’s child mortality. It could also be pointed out that some of the subregions are in a worse position than other parts of the world. South Asia, for instance, had more undernourished people than Sub-Saharan Africa, more people without access to improved sanitation and more people living in slum conditions.

This chapter will also highlight these problems through various aggregations and comparisons across the region that can reveal patterns of success and failure and indicate lessons and priorities for the years ahead – and particularly the kinds of institutional changes that will be needed if countries are to hit their targets by 2015.

This is a daunting task. Asia and the Pacific is a vast and diverse region. At one end of the scale it includes

China, India and Indonesia, 3 of the world's 4 most populous countries; at the other it also includes Kiribati and Nauru, 2 of the smallest member States of the United Nations. And as well as having some highly developed countries, such as Australia and Japan, it also includes Central Asian countries in transition such as Kazakhstan and Tajikistan, 14 of the world's least developed countries, such as Cambodia and Timor-Leste, a number of which are landlocked and small island developing States. In these circumstances any regional review must be highly selective. This one focuses on the developing and transition countries of the region, and in particular the poorest sections of their populations.

This is the second such regional synthesis. The first, published in 2003 as *Promoting the Millennium Development Goals in Asia and the Pacific*, sketched the picture for the early years, and looked particularly at the achievements in poverty reduction. This second report builds on that analysis and takes advantage of the greater volume and range of data that have become available to paint a more detailed picture for a greater number of indicators. Even so, the data still fall far short of the ideal; either they are missing completely, or are available for only one or two years, making it difficult to discern a trend. So in many parts of the picture the paint can still only be thinly applied, leaving some issues sketchy and unresolved.

Tracking progress

To encapsulate the diversity of country experience and achievement, for each indicator this report places each country in one of four categories.

- *Early achiever* – Has already met the target
- ▶ *On track* – Expected to hit the target by 2015
- *Off track – Slow* – Expected to hit the target, but after 2015
- ◀ *Off track – Regressing* – Slipping backwards, or stagnating

Note that a country can be an early achiever for one indicator but off track on another; Turkey, for example, is an early achiever for poverty but is regressing on primary school enrolment; Azerbaijan is on track for primary completion but slow on infant mortality. All countries for which sufficient data were available on at least one indicator are listed in table I.1. This table also serves to highlight the extent of data gaps.

Table I.1 also gives an early indication of the most difficult areas. On this basis, some of the most serious problem indicators are clearly under goal 5 for maternal mortality, where more than two thirds of countries are off track, and under goal 7 for carbon dioxide emissions, where more than half of the countries are

off track. On a more positive note, some of the best performance has been under goal 3 for gender equality in education, for which more than three quarters of the countries are on track. The following sections will first assess the region goal by goal then stand back to draw more general conclusions on the goals and on the performance of different subregions.

Goal 1 – Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

The first goal is the most fundamental: to ensure that everyone has the basic resources they need, with sufficient income to lead healthy, productive and fulfilling lives. If this goal is reached, then countries will not only fulfil the rights of their people to a decent income but also be in a much better position to achieve the other goals. Within this goal, there are two targets:

Target 1: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar per day

On this basis the Asian and Pacific region has made dramatic progress. Between 1990 and 2001 in the 23 countries for which data are available the proportion of people living in income poverty fell from 31 per cent to 20 per cent. Despite population growth, the absolute number of poor people also fell – from 931 million to 679 million.

Poverty can, however, also be assessed using national poverty lines; each country determines the level of income required to purchase essential food and non-food items and then estimates how many people fall below this. This has the advantage over the international \$1-per day line that it is more attuned to local realities and most countries do indeed use this measure in their national MDG reports. However, these results may not be internationally comparable and only 13 countries offer sufficient data to indicate a trend; even then the dates of observation vary widely from one country to another. This makes it more difficult to produce an aggregate picture; nevertheless, by this measure, and for these countries, the proportion of people living in poverty also fell, though less dramatically – from 21.3 to 19.4 per cent.

Asia and the Pacific's overall poverty reduction on either basis will inevitably be swayed by the achievements of China and India. In China between 1990 and 2001 the proportion of people living in poverty fell from 33 to 16 per cent – and the total number of poor people fell from 381 million to 213 million. India, also based on the \$1-per day line, had a significant reduction: between 1993 and 1999 the proportion of people in poverty fell from 42 to 35 per cent – with the total number of poor falling from 381 million to 354 million.

Table I.1. Asian and Pacific countries, on track and off track for the MDGs

Goal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Indicators	Poverty \$1 Poverty nat. line Malnourishment	Primary enrolment Reaching grade 5 Primary completion	Gender primary Gender secondary Gender tertiary	Under-5 mortality Infant mortality	Maternal mortality	HIV prevalence TB prevalence TB death rate	Forest cover Protected area CO ₂ emissions ODP/CFC cons.	Water, urban Water, rural Sanitation, urban Sanitation, rural
East and North-East Asia								
China	▶ ●	▶ ● ●	● ▶	● ●	■	▶ ● ●	● ● ▲ ●	▲ ■ ■ ▶
DPR of Korea		▲			■ ■	▲	▶ ▶ ● ●	● ●
Hong Kong, China		●	● ● ●			▶ ● ●	● ▲	
Macau, China		■	● ▲ ● ●			▶ ▲ ▲	▲	
Mongolia	▲	▶	● ● ● ●	■ ■	■	▶ ● ●	▶ ● ▲	▶ ▲
Republic of Korea		● ● ● ●	● ● ● ■	● ● ●	●	▶ ● ● ●	▶ ● ▲ ● ●	●
South-East Asia								
Brunei Darussalam		▶ ●	● ● ●	● ●	▲	▶ ▲ ▲	▶ ▶ ● ●	
Cambodia	■ ▶	▶ ▶ ▶	▶ ■ ▶	▲ ▲	▶	● ● ●	▶ ● ●	
Indonesia	● ▲ ▲	▶ ▶ ●	● ● ▶	● ●	▶	▶ ● ●	▶ ● ▲ ●	▶ ■ ■ ▲
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	▶ ▶	▶ ▶ ■	▶ ■ ▶	▶ ■	▶	▶ ● ●	▶ ● ▲ ▲	
Malaysia	●	● ●	● ● ●	● ●	▶	▶ ● ●	▶ ● ● ●	●
Myanmar		▶ ▲	● ▲	■ ■	▶	▶ ● ●	▶ ● ▲ ▲	● ● ● ●
Philippines	▶ ▶ ■	▶ ●	● ● ●	● ●	■	▶ ● ●	▶ ● ▲ ●	▶ ▲ ▶ ▶
Singapore				● ●	▶	▶ ● ●	▶ ● ● ●	● ●
Thailand	● ▶ ▶	▶ ▲	● ● ●	● ●	●	● ● ●	▶ ● ▲ ●	● ■ ● ●
Timor-Leste				■ ■	■	● ●	▶	
Viet Nam	● ▶	▶ ▶ ●	■ ■ ■	● ●	▶	▶ ● ●	▶ ● ▲ ●	▶ ▲ ● ■
South and South-West Asia								
Afghanistan			▲	■ ■	▶	● ●	▶ ▶ ●	▶
Bangladesh	▶ ■ ■	▶ ▶ ▲	● ● ▲	▶ ▶	▶	● ●	▶ ● ▲ ▲	▶ ■ ■ ▶
Bhutan		▶		▶	▶	● ●	▶ ● ▲	
India	▶ ▶ ▲	▶ ▲ ▶	▶ ▶ ▶	■ ■	▶	▶ ● ●	▶ ● ▲ ●	● ● ● ▶
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	●	▶ ▲ ▲	● ● ●	● ●	■	▶ ● ●	▶ ● ▲ ▲	● ● ▲ ▶ ▲
Maldives		●	● ●	■ ■	●	● ●	▶ ▲ ▲	● ● ●
Nepal		■ ▶ ▶	▶ ▶ ▲	■ ■	▶	▶ ● ●	▶ ● ▲ ▲	▶ ▶ ■ ▶
Pakistan	● ▲ ▲	▶	▶ ▶	■ ■	▶	▶ ● ●	▶ ▶ ▲ ▲	● ▶ ● ▶
Sri Lanka	▶ ▲ ■	●	●	● ●	▶	▶ ● ●	▶ ▶ ▲ ●	● ▶ ● ●
Turkey	●	▶	▶ ▶ ▶	● ●	▶	● ●	● ▶ ▲ ●	● ● ▲ ▶
North and Central Asia								
Armenia	▶ ■ ▶	▶ ▲	● ● ●	● ●	▶	▶ ▲ ▲	● ● ▲ ▲	● ●
Azerbaijan	● ▶ ●	▶ ▶	● ● ●	■ ■	▶	● ● ▲	● ▶ ● ●	● ■ ● ●
Georgia	● ▶ ▶	▶ ▲	● ● ●	● ▲	▶	● ● ●	▶ ● ● ●	●
Kazakhstan	●	▶ ▶	● ● ●	▶ ▲	▶	▶ ▲ ▲	● ● ● ●	● ▲ ▲ ▲
Kyrgyzstan	● ▶ ●	▶ ▲	● ● ●	■ ■	▶	▶ ● ●	● ● ● ●	●
Russian Federation	●	▶ ▲	● ● ●	● ●	■	▶ ▲	● ● ● ●	● ■ ▲ ▲
Tajikistan	●	▶ ●	● ● ▲ ▲	■ ■	■	▶ ▲ ▲	● ▶ ● ●	
Turkmenistan	●	●		▶ ▲	▶	● ●	▶ ● ▲ ●	
Uzbekistan	■ ▶	▶	● ●	■ ■	●	▶ ▲ ▲	● ▶ ● ●	● ▲ ▲ ▲
Pacific								
American Samoa						● ●	▶ ▶ ●	
Cook Islands				● ●		▶ ● ●	▶ ● ▲	● ■ ● ●
Fiji		● ▲ ●	● ●	● ●	▶	● ● ●	▶ ● ▲ ●	● ● ● ●
French Polynesia					●	● ●	▶ ▶	● ● ● ●
Guam					●	● ▲	▶ ▶ ▲	● ● ● ●
Kiribati				■ ■		● ●	▶ ● ▲ ●	■ ▶ ▶ ■
Marshall Islands				▶ ■		● ●	▶	▶ ● ▶ ■
Micronesia (Federated States of)				● ●		● ●	▶ ▶	● ● ■ ▲
Nauru				● ●		● ●	●	
New Caledonia					●	● ●	▶ ▶ ●	
Niue		●	▶ ●			● ●	▶ ▶ ▲	● ● ● ●
Northern Mariana Islands						● ▲	▶ ▶	● ● ● ●
Palau		● ●	▶ ● ●	● ●		● ●	▶ ● ● ●	▶ ▲ ● ▲
Papua New Guinea		▶ ▲ ■	▶ ▶ ▶	■ ■	▶	▶ ● ●	▶ ● ● ●	▶ ▲ ▲ ▲
Samoa		▶ ▶ ▲	● ● ▲	● ●	▶	● ●	▶ ▲ ▲ ●	▶ ▲ ▲ ●
Solomon Islands				● ●	▶	● ●	▶ ● ● ●	● ●
Tonga		● ▲ ●	● ● ●	● ●		● ▲	▶ ● ▲ ●	● ● ● ●
Tuvalu				■ ▶		● ●	▶ ▶	▶ ▶ ● ▶
Vanuatu		▶ ▶	● ●	● ●	▶	● ▲	● ● ▲	▶ ▲

Key: ● early achiever; ▶ on-track; ■ slow; ▲ regressing

As a result of these declines, China and India are well on track to hit their poverty targets. In addition, 17 other countries are either also on track or, like Indonesia, have already hit their targets. Table I.2, however, summarizes the position for both international and national poverty

lines. Thus China and India registered significant falls on both the \$1-per day measure and in their national poverty rates – though for some other countries, such as the Lao People’s Democratic Republic and Pakistan, the two measures show opposite trends.

Table I.2. Poverty rates, \$1 per day and national poverty lines

Country	Proportion of population below \$1 per day (percentage)			Proportion below national poverty line (percentage)		
	On first observed date	On last observed date	Annual rate of change	On first observed date	On last observed date	Annual rate of change
◀ Armenia	6.7	12.8	38.90	54.7	53.7	-0.61
● Azerbaijan	10.9	3.7	-16.64	68.1	49.6	-5.15
◀ Bangladesh	35.9	36.0	5.59	51.0	49.8	-0.59
◀ Cambodia				39.0	36.1	-2.54
▶ China	33.0	16.6	-6.45	6.0	4.6	-12.44
● Georgia	2.0	2.7	8.39			
▶ India	42.3	35.3	-2.97	36.0	28.6	-3.76
● Indonesia	17.4	7.5	-9.24	15.7	27.1	19.96
● Iran (Islamic Republic of)	2.0	2.0	0.00			
● Kazakhstan	2.0	2.0	0.00			
● Kyrgyzstan	8.0	2.0	-18.90	51.0	64.1	12.11
◀ Lao People's Democratic Republic	7.8	26.3	27.71	45.0	38.6	-3.02
● Malaysia	2.0	2.0	0.00			
◀ Mongolia	13.9	27.0	24.74			
● Pakistan	47.8	13.4	-18.74	28.6	32.6	2.21
▶ Philippines	19.8	15.5	-3.20	40.6	36.8	-3.22
● Russian Federation	6.1	2.0	-11.09			
◀ Sri Lanka	3.8	7.6	7.12	20.0	25.0	4.56
● Tajikistan	13.9	7.4	-14.48			
● Thailand	6.0	2.0	-13.03	18.0	13.1	-14.69
● Turkey	2.4	2.0	-2.65			
● Turkmenistan	20.7	12.1	-10.18			
◀ Uzbekistan	3.3	17.3	-4.92			
● Viet Nam	14.6	2.0	-20.00			

Notes: Poverty rates are not available every year. The first date is the closest available to 1990 while the last is the most recent available data. The rate of change is expressed as a percentage of the value on the first date; thus if it is negative the poverty rate has been falling.

Key: ● early achiever; ▶ on track; ◀ slow; ◀ regressing

This table also highlights the countries that are having the greatest problems – Armenia, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Lao People’s Democratic Republic, Mongolia and Uzbekistan. Apart from Uzbekistan, all have actually been regressing – moving away from the target. Of these, probably the most worrying case is that of Bangladesh, which during the early 1990s seemed to be making good progress, but since 1996 has suffered a setback: by 2001 poverty had risen to 36 per cent. The most surprising case appears to be that of Sri Lanka, which has done well on some of the other indicators, such as infant mortality, but is drifting backwards on poverty. It should be emphasized, however, that Sri Lanka starts from a much better position and is attempting to halve a poverty rate – 7.6 per cent – that is already far lower than those of the other larger South Asian countries: India has a rate of 35 per cent but is classified as “on track” and Pakistan has a rate of 13.4 per cent and is classified as an “early achiever”.

The position of most countries is summarized graphically in figure I.1. Similar pairs of charts are presented for many of the other indicators; the one on the left shows both the current value of the indicator, in this case of poverty, along with the distance from the target, while the one on the right, using the “progress index”, is designed to show how fast a country is moving towards, or away from, the target. A fuller explanation of these charts is given in box I.1.

Although one of the main determinants of poverty reduction in the Asia-Pacific region is economic growth, the degree of inequality also plays a significant role. Countries that grow rapidly will see their poverty rate fall, provided that inequality does not increase too much. An important measure of inequality is the Gini coefficient, which takes a value between 0, representing absolute equality, and 1 which corresponds to one person owning everything. China, for example, grew

Figure I.1. Poverty, target distance and progress index

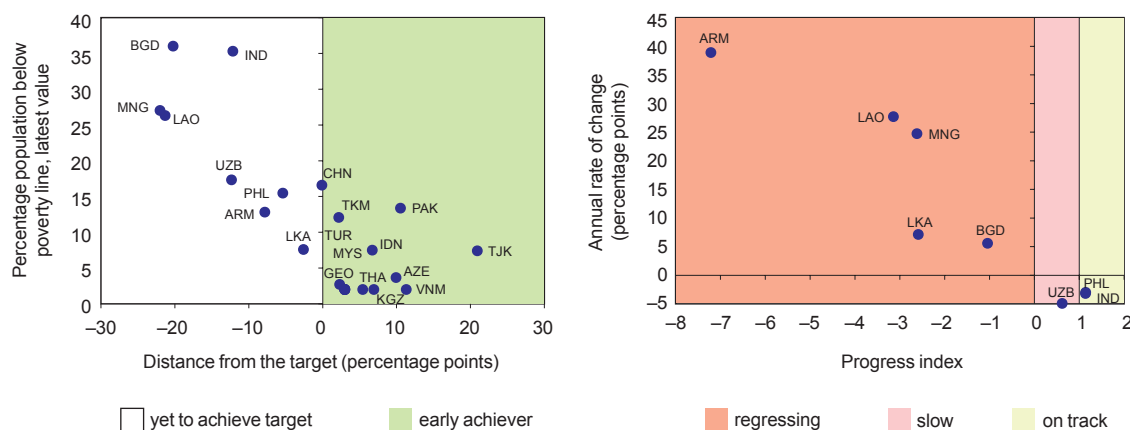


Figure I.1a shows for the 23 countries with income poverty data their current poverty rates and distance that they have to travel; those in the left zone have yet to reach their target, those in the right have already surpassed it. Thus Sri Lanka (LKA) has yet to reach the target, but is actually in a better position than Pakistan (PAK) to the right, which has already passed its target.

Figure I.1b looks only at those countries that have yet to reach their targets. Thus Armenia (ARM) is in a particularly difficult situation. First, being in the red zone it is regressing, second it is doing so very rapidly, third, it would not only need to turn the negative change positive it would also need to change seven times more rapidly.

- Notes: 1. For a fuller explanation of these charts, see box I.1.
 2. For a key to the country codes, see box I.2.
 3. For China the progress index is too high to fit on the scale of figure I.1b.

Box I.1. Guide to the “distance” and “progress index” charts

For each of those MDGs where the target is quantitative – targets 1 to 6 – this report presents a pair of charts. The left-hand chart shows on the vertical axis a country’s current position for that indicator and on the horizontal axis the distance to its target value; since many of the targets are based on reducing a 1990 value by a certain proportion, each country’s target is likely to be different. The value on the horizontal axis is thus the actual value in the most recent year minus the target value, expressed in percentage points or the appropriate measure. If this number is positive a country has thus surpassed its target and is an “early achiever” and falls within the green zone. If the number is negative the country still has a gap to bridge before reaching the target, and falls within the white zone.

The right-hand chart offers further information on the countries in the white zone, though in this case it looks at how fast the situation is changing. The vertical axis displays the country’s current annual rate of change; if it is positive the indicator is improving; if negative, deteriorating – though in some cases, of course, like primary school enrolment, improvement will mean an increase, while for others, such as poverty, improvement will mean a decrease. The horizontal axis indicates how the current rate of change compares with the rate necessary to reach the target by 2015. Termed the “progress index”, this is simply the current rate divided by the desired rate. If the progress index is negative this means that the value is moving in the wrong direction; if as well as being negative it is also a large number this means that it is moving in the wrong direction very fast.

On this basis, for each indicator, countries fall into one of three colour-coded zones:

- Light green zone – The progress index is greater than or equal to 1 (i.e., annual rate of change greater than or equal to the required rate of change); the countries in this area are therefore “on track”, as they are projected to meet the target on or before time;
- Pink zone – The progress index is positive but less than 1; these countries are “off track, slow progress”; they are expected to achieve the target, but only after 2015;
- Red zone – The progress index is negative or zero; these countries are classified as “off track, regressing” because they are stagnating or moving in the wrong direction.

Box I.2. Key to country codes

AFG	Afghanistan	MMR	Myanmar
ARM	Armenia	MNG	Mongolia
ASM	American Samoa	MNP	Northern Mariana Islands
AUS	Australia	MYS	Malaysia
AZE	Azerbaijan	NCL	New Caledonia
BGD	Bangladesh	NIU	Niue
BRN	Brunei Darussalam	NPL	Nepal
BTN	Bhutan	NRU	Nauru
CHN	China	NZL	New Zealand
COK	Cook Islands	PAK	Pakistan
FJI	Fiji	PHL	Philippines
FSM	Federated States of Micronesia	PLW	Palau
GEO	Georgia	PNG	Papua New Guinea
GUM	Guam	PRK	Democratic People's Republic of Korea
HKG	Hong Kong, China	PYF	French Polynesia
IDN	Indonesia	RUS	Russian Federation
IND	India	SGP	Singapore
IRN	Islamic Republic of Iran	SLB	Solomon Islands
JPN	Japan	THA	Thailand
KAZ	Kazakhstan	TJK	Tajikistan
KGZ	Kyrgyzstan	TKM	Turkmenistan
KHM	Cambodia	TML	Timor-Leste
KIR	Kiribati	TON	Tonga
KOR	Republic of Korea	TUR	Turkey
LAO	Lao People's Democratic Republic	TUV	Tuvalu
LKA	Sri Lanka	UZB	Uzbekistan
MAC	Macao, China	VNM	Viet Nam
MDV	Maldives	VUT	Vanuatu
MHL	Marshall Islands	WSM	Samoa

rapidly in economic terms during the 1990s with an 8.8 per cent increase in GDP per year. It also suffered an increase in inequality: between 1992 and 2001 China's Gini coefficient increased from 0.38 to 0.45. Even so, this did not completely offset growth. The growth and inequality experience of all 23 countries is summarized in table I.3.

The significance of economic growth, or the lack of it, for poverty is evident in the case of Mongolia. Here, poverty increased dramatically during 1990-1994, the early years of transition, as national income plummeted and unemployment increased. So even though inequality fell, poverty rose. The significance of inequality is also illustrated by the cases of Georgia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic and Sri Lanka: although their per capita GDP and household consumption grew substantially, all three suffered a dramatic increase in poverty as a result of rising inequality. The issue of increases in inequality as part of the growth process is becoming a concern in the Asia-Pacific region, as this would tend to lower the impact of future growth on poverty reduction. This highlights the importance of focusing on growth strategies that are more inclusive and broad-based.

Target 2: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger

A reduction in poverty can also be expected to lead to a reduction in malnutrition – one measure of which is the proportion of the population consuming less than the minimum daily dietary requirement. In this case 27 countries offer sufficient data to indicate a trend and taken together they show an overall reduction between the early 1990s and 2001 – from 18.7 to 15.1 per cent.

This overall trend is strongly influenced by the weak performance of India. Here the proportion below the minimum daily energy requirement fell between 1991 and 2001, from 25.0 to 21.4 per cent, but as a result of population increase the absolute number of hungry people rose: from 217 to 222 million. Even so, India is not the country most seriously affected. Far and away the worst situation is in Tajikistan, where 61 per cent of the population go hungry, followed by the Democratic People's Republic of Korea with 36 per cent. Both have also been regressing: falling into the red zone of figure I.2b.

Table I.3. Annual percentage rates of change in poverty rates, inequality and GDP

Country	\$1/day poverty rate	First date	Final date	Gini coefficient	GDP per capita	Household final consumption expenditure per capita
Armenia	38.90	1996	1998	-7.58	6.82	7.82
Azerbaijan	-16.64	1995	2001	0.23	6.94	11.02
Bangladesh	-0.03	1991	2000	1.46	3.08	0.88
China	-6.45	1990	2001	1.84	8.83	7.75
Georgia	8.39	1996	2001	0.28	4.44	3.84
India	-2.97	1993	1999	8.37	4.68	3.70
Indonesia	-9.24	1993	2002	-0.28	0.54	2.93
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	0.00	1990	1998	1.98	1.98	1.14
Kazakhstan	0.00	1993	2003	-0.58	4.00	0.00
Kyrgyzstan	-18.90	1993	2002	-1.49	1.31	-2.28
Lao People's Democratic Republic	27.71	1992	1997	4.01	4.46	
Malaysia	0.00	1992	1997	0.67	6.68	5.53
Mongolia	24.74	1995	1998	-3.03	2.16	
Pakistan	-18.74	1990	1998	0.00	1.41	2.54
Philippines	-3.20	1991	2000	1.20	1.33	1.48
Russian Federation	-11.09	1994	2002	-6.65	2.34	1.93
Sri Lanka	7.12	1990	2000	0.99	3.93	3.41
Tajikistan	-14.48	1999	2003	8.85	21.85	
Thailand	-13.03	1992	2000	-0.85	2.04	1.53
Turkey	-2.65	1994	2000	-0.60	2.31	2.24
Turkmenistan	-10.18	1993	1998	2.54	-9.77	
Uzbekistan	29.68	1993	2000	-1.35	0.66	
Viet Nam	-20.00	1993	2002	0.40	5.68	3.55

Note: The first date and final date refer to the poverty data. Changes for the Gini coefficient and GDP are within this period, though not necessarily corresponding to these dates.

Figure I.2. Proportion of malnourished people, target distance and progress index

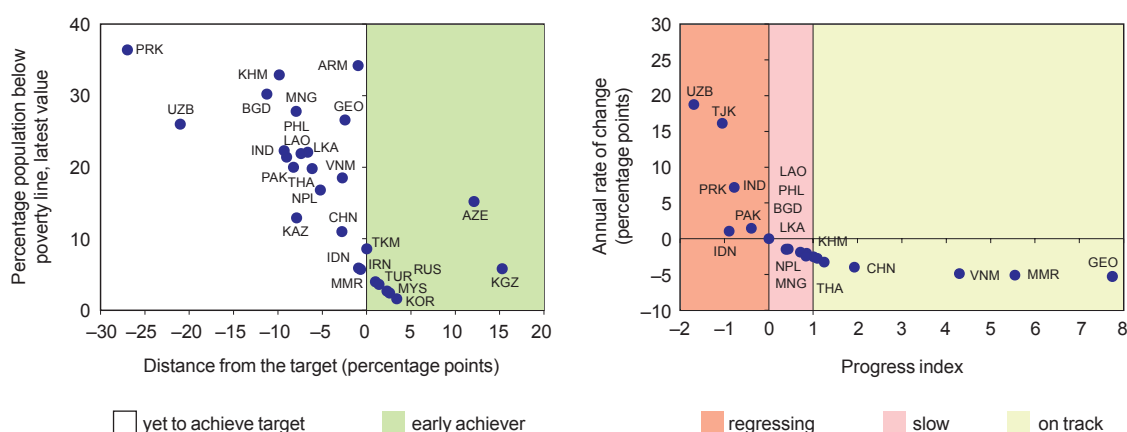


Figure I.2a shows for the 27 countries with the necessary data the current proportion of people below the dietary minimum and the distance the country is from its goal. Those in the left zones have yet to reach their target, those in the right have already achieved it. Tajikistan is in the worst position: its latest value of 61 per cent is so high that it falls outside the range of this figure, but Uzbekistan (UZB) with 26 per cent of its people hungry is also more than 20 percentage points away from its target.

Figure I.2b looks only at those countries that have yet to reach their targets. Thus the same two countries are also in the red zone since they are regressing. The progress index shows that Tajikistan's (TJK) rate, which has been rising by 0.2 percentage points per year, would instead need to fall – and by twice as fast as it has been rising. Viet Nam (VNM), however, is well on track and is actually progressing four to five times faster than it needs to meet its target.

Notes: 1. For a more detailed explanation of these charts, see box I.1.
2. For a key to the country codes, see box I.2.

Box I.3. Cut-offs used for deciding whether MDGs have been achieved

Many of the MDGs require reducing an indicator value by a certain proportion. However, for the purpose of the analysis in this report the goal is also treated as achieved if the country has reached a certain absolute value. In the case of primary school enrolment, for example, this is 95 per cent, and for the poverty rate 5 per cent. The “cut-offs” for each indicator are indicated below.

Indicators	MDG target	Cut-off
Prop. of population below \$1	Reduce by half	5%
Prop. of population undernourished	Reduce by half	5%
Primary enrolment ratio	100	95%
Proportion of pupils reaching grade 5	100	95%
Primary completion rate	100	95%
Primary girls-boys ratio	100	95%
Secondary girls-boys ratio	100	95%
Tertiary girls-boys ratio	100	95%
Child mortality rate	Reduce by 2/3	45 per 1,000 live births
Infant mortality rate	Reduce by 2/3	35 per 1,000 live births
Maternal mortality rate	Reduce by 3/4	25 per 100,000 live births
HIV prevalence	Reverse prevalence	decrease
TB prevalence	Reverse prevalence	decrease
TB death rate	Reverse incidence	decrease
Forested land cover	Reverse loss	increase
Protected areas	Reverse loss	increase
Per capita carbon dioxide emissions	Reverse emissions	decrease
Per capita CFC consumption	Reverse consumption	decrease
% of pop. without access to water – urban areas	Reduce by half	5%
% of pop. without access to water – rural areas	Reduce by half	5%
% of pop. without access to sanitation – urban areas	Reduce by half	5%
% of pop. without access to sanitation – rural areas	Reduce by half	5%

The proportion of people malnourished is affected by many factors, primarily the availability of food in a country and the economic and social access of the poor to that food. Tajikistan has serious problems of food availability. Only 6 per cent of the territory is arable land and in the Soviet era much of irrigated arable land was used for cotton, with wheat production often on inefficient State farms relegated to the non-irrigated land. Poverty is also a major factor: although Tajikistan has achieved its poverty target, one fifth of the population is poor. This situation can be contrasted with that in Viet Nam, which is on track: not only does it have more fertile land it has also boosted output through liberalization and has increased economic access to food by reducing poverty.

Perhaps an even more important indicator of hunger is the proportion of children under five who are malnourished. In this case there are insufficient data to indicate general trends across the region, but the most recent are collected in table I.4, which indicates proportions significantly different from the proportion of malnourished people. This is partly because this indicator refers only to children but also because the data

are gathered in very different ways: child malnutrition is measured in household surveys that weigh individual children, while the proportion of people eating less than the dietary minimum is calculated indirectly through measures of food availability and income distribution.

For many countries, child malnutrition is disturbingly high; and surprisingly so since most households are not seriously short of food and should have enough for the small amounts that young children consume. The problems often start before and during pregnancy since malnourished mothers are more likely to produce low birth-weight babies. Then, during the first two years of life many children lose ground because they are not given sufficient high-quality food – particularly if mothers have low standards of education. Low standards of health and hygiene also play an important part since sick children are less able to absorb essential nutrients. It is also important to ensure that children receive adequate quantities of micronutrients such as iron, iodine and vitamin A. Micronutrient deficiencies represent a “hidden hunger” not evident from calorific measures.

Table I.4. Malnutrition and poverty

Country	Proportion of underweight children (percentage)	Proportion of malnourished people (percentage)	\$1 per day poverty (percentage)
Nepal	48.3	16.8	
Afghanistan	48.0		
Bangladesh	47.7	30.2	36.0
India	47.0	21.4	35.3
Cambodia	45.2	32.9	
Timor-Leste	42.6		
Lao People's Democratic Republic	40.0	22.1	26.3
Pakistan	38.0	20.0	13.4
Myanmar	35.3	5.7	
Viet Nam	33.1	18.5	2.0
Philippines	30.6	22.3	15.5
Maldives	30.4		
Sri Lanka	29.4	21.9	7.6
Indonesia	26.1	5.9	7.5
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	20.8	36.4	
Bhutan	18.7		
Thailand	18.6	19.8	2.0
Mongolia	12.7	27.8	27.0
Malaysia	12.4	2.4	2.0
Turkmenistan	12.0	8.6	12.1
Kyrgyzstan	11.0	5.8	2.0
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	10.9	4.0	2.0
China	10.0	11.0	16.6
Turkey	8.3	2.7	2.0
Fiji	7.9		
Uzbekistan	7.9	26.0	17.3
Azerbaijan	6.8	15.2	3.7
Kazakhstan	4.2	12.9	2.0
Georgia	3.1	26.6	2.7
Russian Federation	3.0	3.6	2.0
Armenia	2.6	34.2	12.8

Note: This table only includes countries that have data on the proportion of underweight children.

Goal 2 – Achieve universal primary education

All Governments in the region accept not just that education is a basic right but that future national prosperity will depend on having an educated workforce – whether for boosting agricultural output or for adapting to the rapidly changing technological demands of both manufacturing and service industries. After significant investment of resources, a number of countries have already achieved the goal of universal primary education, and many others are on track to do so.

Target 3: Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling

Within this target there are three indicators: the net enrolment ratio, the proportion of children starting in grade one who reach grade five, and the proportion of all children who complete a course of primary education. For net enrolment the target is conventionally considered to be 95 per cent. Most countries in the region have ratios above 80 per cent, and many above 90 per cent. Of the 33 countries with sufficient data available for estimating a trend, 8 have already achieved the target and 11 others are on track to do so. Even

Pakistan, with a net enrolment ratio in 2000 of only 59 per cent, should still hit the target if it maintains its current rate of progress. Worryingly, however, 13 countries are regressing, as indicated by their position in the red zone of figure I.3b.

It should be noted that net enrolment refers only to children of primary school age and may present an over-pessimistic picture. Many schools also educate over-age children. A child of 13, for example, who is enrolled in grade 5 of primary school class would be considered over-age and not be counted even though the child could be on his or her way to successfully completing primary school.

Although many countries have succeeded in enrolling children in the different primary classes they may then struggle to prevent them from dropping out. The cumulative effect of dropout can be measured by a “cohort analysis” that follows a group of children through primary school. Only 17 countries in the region have cohort analyses suitable for the calculation of a trend. Among these, those with the highest dropouts are Papua New Guinea, where only about half of school entrants make it to grade 5, along with India, Myanmar and the Lao People's Democratic Republic, where the proportion is less than two thirds (figure I.4a).

Figure I.3. Net primary enrolment ratio, target distance and progress index

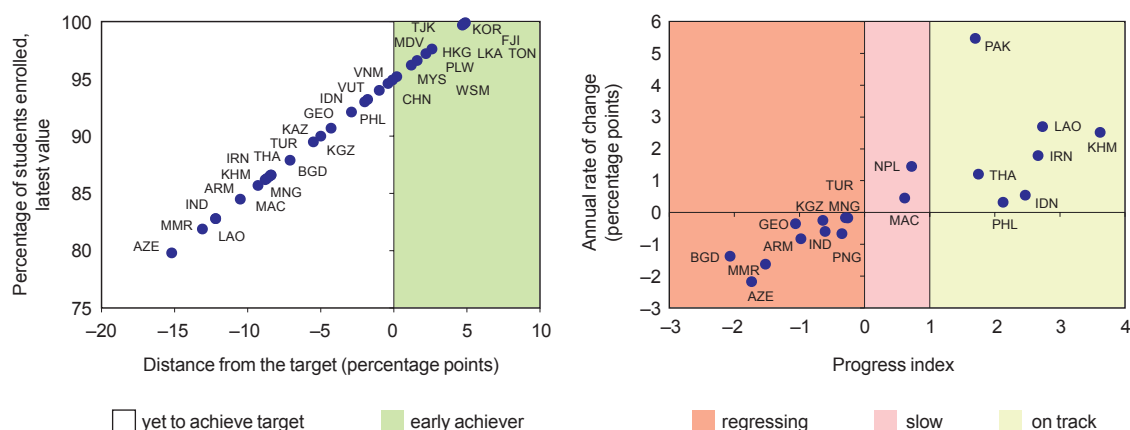


Figure I.3a shows for the 33 countries with the necessary data the current net enrolment ratio and the distance the country is from 95 per cent – the conventional cut-off point. Those in the left zone have yet to reach their target, those in the right have achieved 95 per cent or more. This chart, compared with many of the others, locates the countries along a straight line because in this case they all have the same target. Thus Azerbaijan (AZE) has both the lowest figure and is necessarily the furthest from the common target.

Figure I.3b looks only at those countries that have yet to reach the target. This shows the position of Azerbaijan (AZE) as even more alarming, being in the red zone it is actually regressing. The Philippines (PHL), however, in the green zone, is well on track: although its rate of change is quite small it is already quite close to 95 per cent and its rate of progress is more than twice that required to meet to the target by 2015.

Notes: 1. For a more detailed explanation of these charts, see box I.1.
2. For a key to the country codes, see box I.2.

Figure I.4. Children who make it to grade 5, target distance and progress index

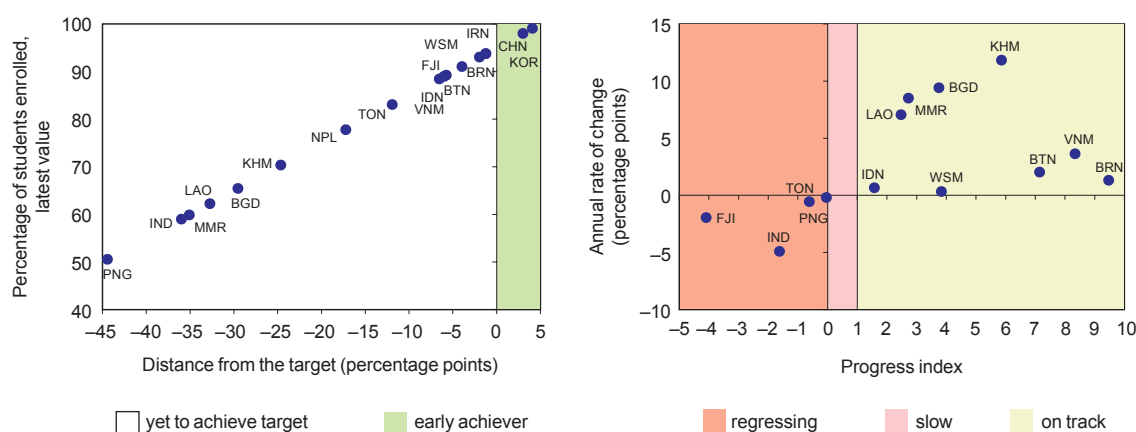


Figure I.4a shows for the 17 countries with the necessary data the current proportion of school entrants who make it to grade 5 and the distance the country is from 95 per cent – the conventional cut-off point. Those in the left section have yet to reach their target, those in the right have already achieved 95 per cent or more. Papua New Guinea (PNG) has the highest drop-out rate of this group.

Figure I.4b shows only those countries that have yet to reach 95 per cent. The position of India (IND) appears to be worrying in that it is regressing, though since the data are from two consecutive years, 1998 and 1999, they may be too close together to indicate a trend. The Lao People's Democratic Republic (LAO) and Myanmar (MMR) are indicated as "on track" and making positive progress, though again the data points may be too close to represent a real trend.

Notes: 1. For a more detailed explanation of these charts, see box I.1.
2. For a key to the country codes, see box I.2.

A third measure of success in education is the primary completion rate. This, however, is really only an indication of what happens in the final year: the primary completion rate is the total number of students successfully graduating from the final year of primary school in a given year, expressed as a proportion of the total number of children in the population who are of the correct age to do so. For the region as a whole this figure can be quite high: increasing between 1998 and 2001 from 89 to 93 per cent. It may seem strange that this is often higher than the enrolment ratio, but the number of graduates is usually swollen by over-age children so this figure probably gives an overoptimistic picture.

Why do some countries do better than others in education? Based on these data the following factors are associated with higher enrolment:

- *Higher per capita income* – This reflects, among other things, the difficulty that poor families have in paying the expenses of education or in managing without their children's work.
- *Higher government expenditure on education* – A 1 per cent increase in expenditure on education is associated with a 1.5 per cent increase in enrolment.
- *Higher literacy rate of adult women* – Mothers who themselves have been educated recognize the value of education for their children.
- *Lower rural proportion of the population* – Rural children are less likely to go to school. This may be because the school can be some distance away, or because the quality of rural education is lower, or because more rural children are needed for work.
- *Higher share of women in wage employment* – This can be taken as an indication of women's status within the home, and suggests that when they have the power to do so they will send their children to school.

Countries such as Thailand that have remained on track have done so by reducing poverty while also finding ways of encouraging children to go to school by, for example, providing the children of poor families with scholarships, lunch and transport. Children in Papua New Guinea, however, are in a more difficult situation, with much higher levels of poverty. They also face measurable cultural obstacles – having to cope, for example, with an imported education system that does not fully meet their needs, and also often having to learn in a language different from the one they speak at home.

Goal 3 – Promote gender equality and empower women

At the Millennium Summit, the world's Governments placed great importance on women's rights – aiming not just to ensure parity in service delivery but also to

empower women in their families and their communities. The actual targets for this goal are, however, restricted to educational enrolment.

Target 4: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005 and in all levels of education by no later than 2015

This is one of the most successful areas for the countries of Asia and the Pacific. At all three levels the target for the ratio between girls and boys' enrolment is taken to be 95 per cent. At the primary level, of the 38 countries or territories with data available, 26 have already achieved the target and 5 are on track to do so. Among the countries that have made particularly rapid progress since 1990 are Bangladesh and China, followed by the Lao People's Democratic Republic, India and Nepal. Because most countries are so close to the target and some countries of concern lie outside a usable scale, the distance and progress charts for these are not included here.

Of the 5 that are regressing, the most serious situations are in Afghanistan, where between 1990 and 1999 the ratio fell dramatically from 0.55 to 0.08, and in Pakistan, where the proportion has stalled at 0.74. In Afghanistan the situation will have improved considerably since 1999 following the restoration of democracy; the 2004 Afghanistan human development report, for example, indicates that the ratio for combined primary, secondary and tertiary enrolment is now around 0.5. In Pakistan, however, the outlook does not appear good and the Government will need to make enormous efforts to get even close to the target. The other countries that should strictly be classified as regressing are doing so very close to the target.

At the secondary level the situation also seems quite positive. Of the 36 countries with relevant data 25 have already achieved the target. And even some of those where the ratio is still quite low, such as Pakistan at 0.66 and Nepal at 0.75, have been making up ground so quickly that they are likely meet the target of 0.95 by 2015 – thus they fall into the “on track” zone in figure I.5b. Across the region, weighted for population, between 1990 and 2001 the ratio of boys to girls at the secondary level increased from 0.73 to 0.87. Of those countries in South-East Asia that are off track, 2, Myanmar and Viet Nam, are still nevertheless quite close to the target; Cambodia and the Lao People's Democratic Republic, however, are some way away and progressing too slowly. Tajikistan too needs to do much better since it is now slipping badly; in 1990 almost all children went to secondary school, but by 2002 the proportion had fallen to 90 per cent for boys and 74 per cent for girls.

Figure I.5. Gender equality in secondary education, target distance and progress index

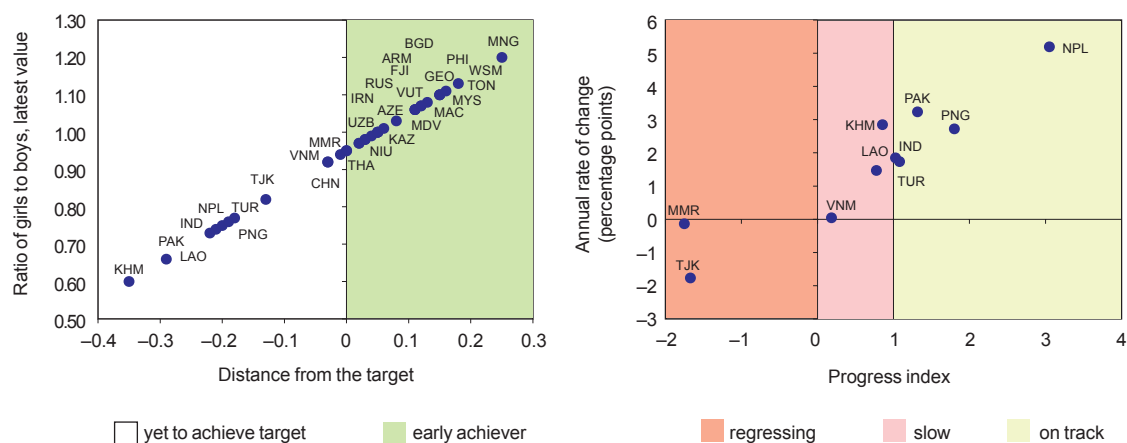


Figure I.5a shows for 30 countries with the necessary data the current ratio of boys to girls in secondary school and the distance from the target ratio of 0.95. Those in the left zone have yet to reach their target; those in the right zone have already surpassed it. Cambodia (KHM) has the lowest ratio, 0.6. Note that many countries have more girls than boys: in Mongolia (MNG) the ratio is 1.2 and in Armenia (ARM) 1.1.

Figure I.5b shows only countries that have yet to reach 0.95. Nepal (NPL), where the ratio is still only 0.75, has nevertheless been advancing at a rate three times that required to make the target so falls within the on track zone. Cambodia (KHM), however, is proceeding too slowly to hit the target on time. Tajikistan (TJK) is regressing rapidly. Myanmar (MMR) is also regressing but is actually not far from the target.

Notes: 1. For a more detailed explanation of these charts, see box I.1.
2. For a key to the country codes, see box I.2.

For tertiary education, the picture also seems fairly positive. Of the 27 countries with the necessary data, 15 have already achieved the 0.95 target, while 5 others are on track. Overall, weighted for population, between 1990 and 2001 the ratio of girls to boys increased from 0.66 to 0.80. Indeed in a number of countries there are more girls than boys enrolling for tertiary education: twice as many in Palau, for example, and 30 per cent more in the Philippines. However, as with secondary education, there are concerns about slow progress in Viet Nam and a serious reversal in Tajikistan.

Goal 4 – Reduce child mortality

One of the most sensitive indicators of success in development is the survival rate of children, and particularly of infants under 1 year old. Across the region nearly 5 million children die before reaching their fifth birthday.

Target 5: Reduce by two thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-5 mortality rate

For this index the 47 countries of the region with data available divide into two halves (figure I.6a). Half have already achieved their targets, and all of these now have child mortality rates below 45 per 1,000 live births. The other half, however, are in a very different position: only 4 are on track to meet the target; 14 are off track, making progress too slowly; while 3 are regressing (figure I.6b).

It should be pointed out, however, that this is slow progress against a challenging target: to reduce not by half but by two thirds.

In 2003, the largest number of child deaths was in India, 2.3 million, followed by China, 650,000, and Pakistan, 481,000. Of these countries, however, only China has been making sufficient progress on this indicator; indeed it is an early achiever. Both India and Pakistan are off track since they are progressing too slowly. The most shocking rate, however, is in Afghanistan with 257 deaths per 1,000 life births: 1 child in 4 dies before reaching the age of 5 – resulting in 2003 in 340,000 deaths – and the country seems to be making scarcely any progress. Rates are also too slow in several countries in Central Asia.

As child mortality rates come down, the majority of deaths take place in the earliest years, months, and even days, of life. Thus in India, while the child mortality per 1,000 live births in 2003 was 87, the infant mortality rate was 63, so three quarters of child deaths take place in the first year. In countries with lower rates, an even higher proportion are in the first year: in the Islamic Republic of Iran, for example, 33 out of 39. Overall therefore, the pattern for infant mortality is similar to that of under-5 mortality, though some countries that are doing well on child mortality appear to be less successful on infant mortality (figure I.7b).

Figure I.6. Child mortality, target distance and progress index

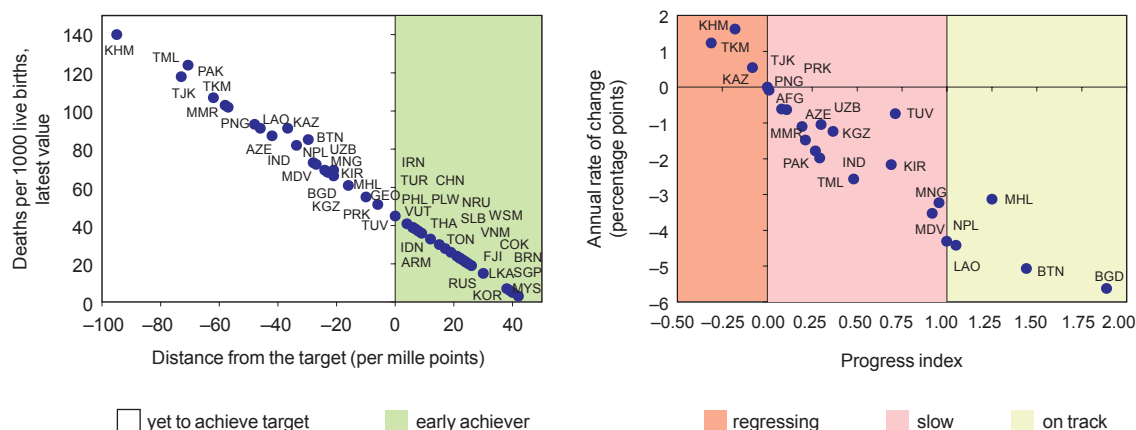


Figure I.6a shows for 47 countries with the necessary data the number of child deaths per 1,000 live births. Those in the left zone have yet to reach their target, those in the right have surpassed it. The highest rate, 257 for Afghanistan, is so high as to be outside the scale of this figure. Cambodia (KHM) has the highest rate at 140. At the other end of the scale countries such as Singapore (SGP) have surpassed their targets and have “developed country” rates.

Figure I.6b shows only countries that have yet to reach their targets. Bangladesh (BGD) is well on track, reducing at almost twice the rate needed to reach the target, as are Bhutan (BTN) and the Marshall Islands (MHL). Many countries are in the pink zone, however, progressing too slowly to meet the target by 2015, while Cambodia (KHM), Turkmenistan (TKM) and Kazakhstan (KAZ) are regressing.

Notes: 1. For a more detailed explanation of these charts, see box I.1.
2. For a key to the country codes, see box I.2.

Figure I.7. Infant mortality, target distance and progress index

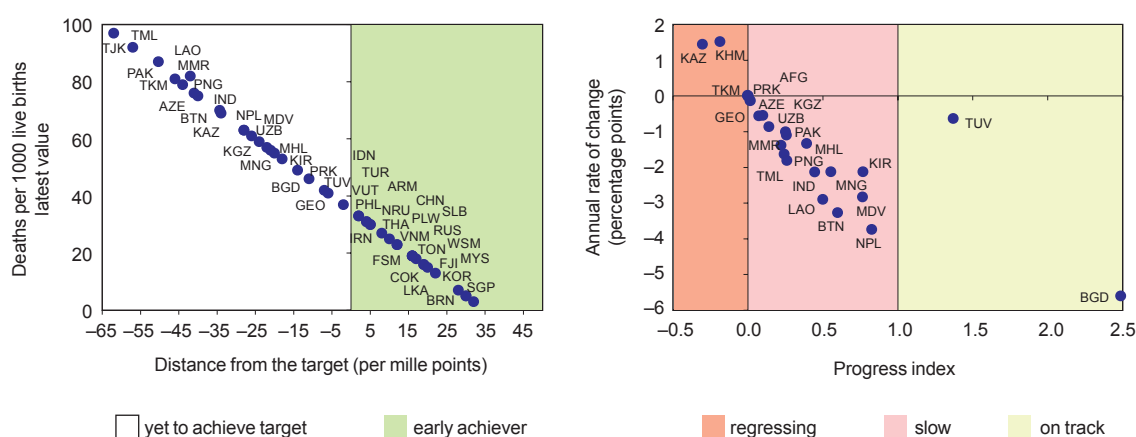


Figure I.7a shows for 47 countries with the necessary data the number of infant deaths per 1,000 live births. Those in the left zone have yet to reach their target, those in the right have surpassed it. The highest rate, 165 for Afghanistan, is so high as to be outside the scale of this figure. Cambodia (KHM) has the highest rate at 97.

Figure I.7b shows only countries that have yet to reach their targets. Bangladesh (BGD) is again well on track, reducing at almost twice the rate needed to reach the target, as is Tuvalu (TUV). However, Bhutan (BTN) and the Lao People’s Democratic Republic (LAO), which were on track for child mortality, are not doing so well on infant mortality. More surprising, Georgia (GEO), an early achiever on child mortality, is regressing on infant mortality.

Notes: 1. For a more detailed explanation of these charts, see box I.1.
2. For a key to the country codes, see box I.2.

Most infant and child deaths result from a combination of malnutrition and preventable or treatable diseases such as acute respiratory infections, diarrhoea, measles and malaria. Reduction in poverty and improved living conditions, along with improved health care, would eliminate many of these deaths. The 10 countries with the highest child mortality rates include 7 of those in the top 10 for poverty. These mortality rates also correlate strongly with the share of health expenditure in government outlay, the measles immunization rate, and the extent of access to clean water. The Islamic Republic of Iran, for example, after 1980 devoted more resources to health care and to the rural areas and by 2002 it was reaching 84 per cent of communities through rural health houses and the rest through rural clinics. Cambodia, however, devotes a smaller proportion of its smaller budget to health services and its high child death rate can also be linked to poor water supplies and sanitation.

Goal 5 – Improve maternal health

A clear sign of discrimination against women is the low priority afforded in many countries to maternal health. Each year, across the region around one quarter

of a million mothers die as a result of pregnancy and childbirth. Almost all these deaths can be avoided if mothers have access to emergency obstetric care.

Target 6: Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio

One of the difficulties in addressing maternal mortality is that the statistics are typically very inexact. Most of the poorest countries in the region lack effective systems for vital registration, so their data on maternal deaths typically have to come from household and other surveys. But because a maternal death is less common than other forms of death an accurate picture requires a very large sample size. Moreover, since definitions and methods of data collection have changed, comparisons across time and across countries may not be warranted.

Accepting these limitations, some the latest trends are captured in figure I.8. Even this cannot show the full scale of the problem. The highest maternal mortality rates per 100,000 live births are actually in Afghanistan (1,900), Nepal (740), Timor-Leste (660) and Pakistan (500), which are off the scale of figure I.8a, though the latter three do appear in figure I.8b.

Figure I.8. Maternal mortality, target distance and progress index

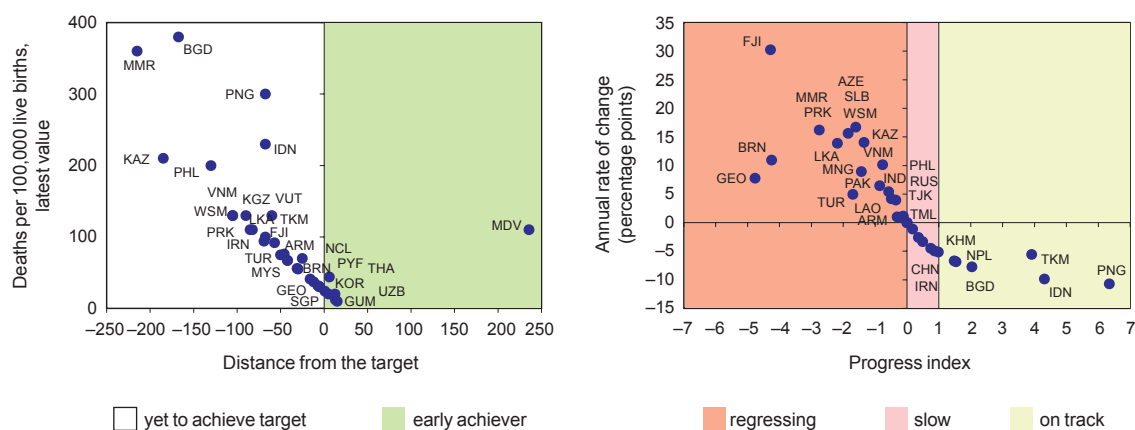


Figure I.8a shows for 42 of the countries with the necessary data the number of maternal deaths per 100,000 live births. Those in the left zone have yet to reach their target; those in the right zone have surpassed it. The worst situations are in Afghanistan, Nepal and Timor-Leste but their numbers are so high as to be beyond the boundaries of this figure. At the other end of the scale Thailand (THA), for example, has reduced its rate to 44.

Figure I.8b shows only countries that have yet to reach their targets. Some countries with high rates evident in figure I.7a, Bangladesh (BGD) and Papua New Guinea (PNG) as well as Nepal (NPL), are nevertheless making sufficient progress to be on track for the 2015 target. Afghanistan, however, with a progress index of -8.5, is regressing so fast as to be off the scale of this figure too. There are also 22 other countries that are regressing.

Notes: 1. For a more detailed explanation of these charts, see box I.1.
2. For a key to the country codes, see box I.2.

Overall, between 1990 and 2000, the ratio in the average Asian developing country declined from 395 to 342. This is still a very high figure but, even more

alarming, of the 42 countries for which data are available, maternal mortality has gone up in 22 of them so they are placed in the regressing zone of figure I.8b.

For some of these, however, the apparent increase may be the result of better reporting of deaths. Around two thirds of Asian maternal deaths, 164,000, take place in India and Pakistan, both of which are among the regressing countries.

Mothers all over the world, regardless of nationality, social class or state of health can develop childbirth complications – which globally are estimated to occur in 15 per cent of all pregnancies. These typically include haemorrhage, eclampsia, obstructed labour and the consequences of unsafe abortion. The difference between countries largely reflects the care available to deal with such emergencies – having births attended by skilled attendants who if necessary can refer women quickly to emergency obstetric care services. Bangladesh, for example, which is on track to meet the target, has done so at least partly because it has been able to bring care closer to mothers in rural communities. Currently only 14 per cent of births are attended by skilled personnel but between 1992 and 2002 Bangladesh increased the number of emergency obstetric care centres from 30 to 127. In Afghanistan only 11 per cent of births are attended by skilled personnel; most women have little access to antenatal or primary health care and live far from any emergency services.

Goal 6 – Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases

Many countries in the region have been badly affected both by the arrival of HIV/AIDS and the resurgence of other infections such as malaria, though for some diseases such as TB they have made more progress. Within this goal there are no numeric targets; the aim is simply to reduce the prevalence, so the accompanying charts show only the latest available values and the rate of change in the prevalence.

Target 7: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS

Although the prevalence of HIV/AIDS is lower in this region than in Africa, or some other parts of the world, large population sizes in Asia translate into large absolute numbers. As a result, this is where the future course of the pandemic will be determined. By 2004 the Asia-Pacific region had over 9 million people living with the disease and each year half a million people die. Overall, the region is off track since between 2001 and 2003 the prevalence among those aged 15-49 in the average Asian country rose from 0.39 to 0.45 per cent.

The highest prevalences among adults aged 15-49 are all in South-East Asia: Cambodia, 2.6 per cent; Thailand, 1.5 per cent; and Myanmar, 1.2 per cent –

though the first two of these have already achieved their MDG targets since they have reduced the prevalence and thus begun to reverse the spread of the disease (figure I.9). The highest numbers of infected people, however, are to be found in India, the Russian Federation and China, and disturbingly the prevalence in the first two of these is rising. China, which has kept the prevalence fairly stable, can be considered “on track”.

Figure I.9. HIV prevalence among those aged 15-49

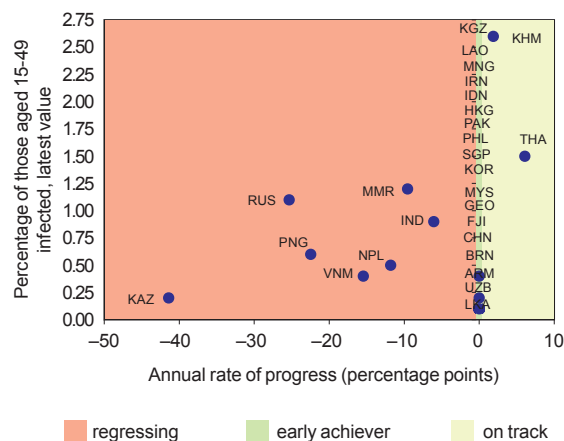


Figure I.9 bunches a large number of countries at low HIV prevalence of 0.5 per cent or lower and where the prevalence has remained the same. To the right are Cambodia (KHM) and Thailand (THA), which have high prevalences but have reversed the trend. However, both India (IND) and the Russian Federation (RUS) have large populations and are regressing. Kazakhstan (KAZ) is another of the countries regressing, though still at a relatively low prevalence.

Note: For a key to the country codes, see box I.2.

On current trends, between 2004 and 2010 around 10 million more people are likely to become infected, by which time the annual death toll would be 750,000. In the year 2001, HIV/AIDS was thought to be costing the region around \$7.3 billion in loss of output and medical costs, a figure that could rise to \$17.5 billion by 2010, with millions more people being pushed into poverty. However, a successful response to the pandemic should be able to contain the number of new infections at 4 million, keep the death toll at 600,000 and hold the losses to around \$15.5 billion.

Other countries in the region should be able to draw inspiration from Thailand. Here strong political leadership led to an open and frank public health campaign that recognized the role of sex workers and, despite their status not being legalized, gave them information and condoms – though Thailand now perhaps needs

to restore its momentum. India, however, has yet to tackle the pandemic with the appropriate urgency and neither NGOs nor the Government seem to have found ways of discussing sex and sexuality and HIV/AIDS in an open and frank manner and using a vocabulary that is widely understood.

Target 8: Have halted and reversed by 2015 the incidence of malaria and other major diseases

Malaria remains a serious problem. Around 3.3 million people are infected and each year 73,000 people die. Although there are insufficient data to calculate trends, in some countries malaria seems to be making a comeback as mosquitoes have developed resistance to DDT

and other insecticides, and the parasite has developed resistance to many of the drugs that have been used for treatment.

Table I.5 shows the prevalence and death rates across the region – though even these data will probably underestimate the extent of the problem since they are usually based on clinically reported cases. The highest prevalences are in the Pacific, notably Solomon Islands, where the disease affects 15 per cent of the population. The largest number of people sick are in Indonesia with 1.9 million people infected. The largest number of deaths are in India, more than 30,000 each year. The highest death rate, however, is in the Lao People's Democratic Republic and Papua New Guinea.

Table I.5. Malaria prevalence and death rates, per 100,000 people, 2000

Country	Prevalence	Death rate	Country	Prevalence	Death rate
Afghanistan	936.88	8	Myanmar	224.32	20
Armenia	3.72	0	Nauru		13
Azerbaijan	18.98	0	Nepal	33.05	8
Bangladesh	40.45	1	Niue		6
Bhutan	284.63	5	Pakistan	58.42	4
Brunei Darussalam		0	Palau		6
Cambodia	476.49	14	Papua New Guinea	1,688.26	28
China	1.46	0	Philippines	15.14	2
Cook Islands		6	Republic of Korea	8.86	0
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	454.39	0	Russian Federation	0.55	0
Fiji		7	Samoa		6
Georgia	4.66	0	Singapore		0
India	7.31	3	Solomon Islands	15,172.05	8
Indonesia	919.77	1	Sri Lanka	1,109.92	9
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	27.25	0	Tajikistan	303.04	0
Kazakhstan	0.23	0	Thailand	130.07	8
Kiribati		17	Tonga		9
Kyrgyzstan	0.24	0	Turkey	17.15	0
Lao People's Democratic Republic	759.03	28	Turkmenistan	0.51	0
Malaysia	57.18	1	Tuvalu		14
Maldives		3	Uzbekistan	0.51	0
Marshall Islands		15	Vanuatu		11
Micronesia (Federated States of)		10	Viet Nam	95.13	9
Mongolia		0			

A number of countries have made determined efforts to combat the disease. In Viet Nam, for example, where one third of the population live in malaria-endemic regions, the Government has, since 1992, had an extensive anti-malaria programme that includes providing insecticide-treated bednets and indoor insecticides, along with new drugs, including artemisinin. As a result it has reduced morbidity by 60 per cent and mortality by 97 per cent.

Tuberculosis (TB) too remains a major concern, though the region as a whole is making progress. Between 1990 and 2003 the number of people infected declined from 12.8 to 10.3 million and the number of people dying each year fell from 1.1 to 1.0 million. The

largest number of people infected were in the most populous countries: China, 3.2 million; India, 3.1 million; and Indonesia, 1.5 million – and these countries also accounted for around 70 per cent of deaths. All three are making progress, however. In some countries, though the prevalence has been rising, particularly in Central Asia and parts of the Pacific.

Reducing the prevalence of TB depends on early detection and treatment, which is now principally through the Directly Observed Treatment Short Course strategy (DOTS), which aims to offer patients the most effective treatment and minimize the emergence of further drug-resistant strains. Some countries, however, have insufficient clinics or equipment needed for diagnosis.

Figure I.10. Tuberculosis prevalence, 2003

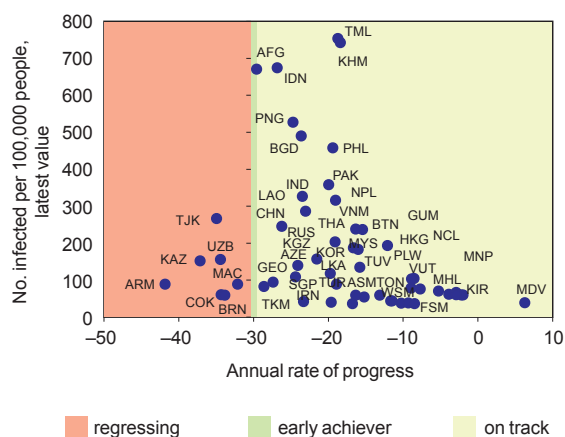


Figure I.10 shows the extent of achievement in TB control. Thus, although the prevalence is high in Timor-Leste (TML) and Cambodia (KHM), it has been falling. A number of the Central Asian republics, however, including Armenia (ARM), Kazakhstan (KAZ), Tajikistan (TJK) and Uzbekistan (UZB), have been regressing, as have Macao, China, (MAC), Cook Islands (COK) and Brunei Darussalam (BRN).

Note: For a key to the country codes, see box I.2.

Goal 7 – Ensure environmental sustainability

This goal reflects the critical relationship between people and their environment. The first target is concerned with conserving and developing environmental resources so as to maintain livelihoods. The other aims for safe water supplies and sanitation – to enable people to protect themselves from infection and pollution.

Target 9: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources

The first half of this goal concerns policies and programmes on sustainable development. The assessment here is based on the Plan of Implementation adopted by the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg in 2002. This called on all

countries to formulate national sustainable development strategies (NSDS) and to begin implementation by 2005. Each country can therefore be placed in one of the following categories:

- NSDS being implemented
- NSDS document approved by the Government
- NSDS development in progress
- Components of sustainable development in place
- No action taken or no information available

Countries under the first two categories can be classified as early achievers; those in the third can be considered on track; while those in the fourth and fifth categories can be identified as off track: slow progress and regressing, respectively. The results are shown in table I.6. This shows 5 of the 55 Asia-Pacific countries to be early achievers – which makes this region the second after Europe in the proportion of countries implementing strategies. Nevertheless, this is also the region with the largest number of countries that have either taken no action or for which there is no information.

The second part of this goal is concerned with reversing the loss of environmental resources – a long-term process that needs to start now. Progress here is also difficult to assess because of the breadth of the target and the lack of suitable data. This section focuses initially therefore on two areas where more data are available. The first is the proportion of land covered by forests. This varies enormously across the region: from 2 per cent of national territory in Afghanistan to 96 per cent in Cook Islands. Over the period 1990-2000, in the 48 countries reporting data the proportion of land forested increased in 13, remained unchanged in 17 and decreased in 18. It should be noted, however, that “forests” here include plantations, so the best-performing countries may have been establishing plantations for timber production using faster-growing varieties while allowing the proportion of natural forests that are high in bio-diversity to decline. The most rapid rates of deforestation have been in the Federated States of Micronesia, Myanmar, Indonesia and Malaysia.

Table I.6. Implementation of national sustainable development strategies, 2004

●	Bhutan, Kyrgyzstan, Myanmar, Sri Lanka, Uzbekistan
▶	China, Hong Kong, China, India, Macao, China, Mongolia, Philippines, Republic of Korea, Russian Federation, Tajikistan, Turkey
■	Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bangladesh, Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Georgia, Indonesia, Iran (Islamic Republic of), Kazakhstan, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, Singapore, Thailand
◀	Afghanistan, American Samoa, Cook Islands, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Fiji, French Polynesia, Guam, Kiribati, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Maldives, Marshall Islands, Micronesia (the Federated States of), Nauru, New Caledonia, Niue, Northern Mariana Island, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Timor-Leste, Tonga, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, Vanuatu, Viet Nam

Figure I.11. Proportion of land covered by forests

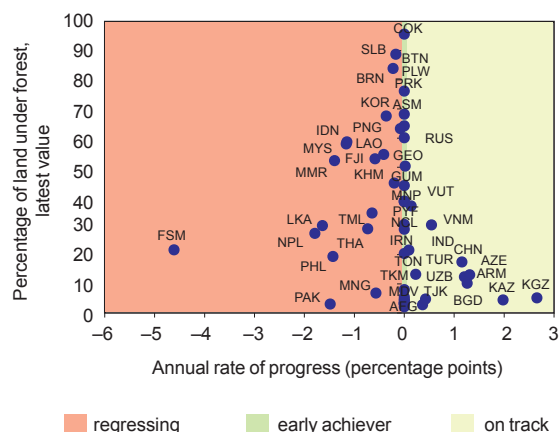


Figure I.11 shows the extent of forest cover and also the current rate of change. The rate of deforestation is highest in the Federated States of Micronesia (FSM). Probably the largest number of trees, however, are disappearing in Indonesia (IDN). A number of countries have managed to increase their forest cover, if only marginally, including China (CHN) and Viet Nam (VNM).

Note: For a key to the country codes, see box I.2.

Among the on-track countries is Bhutan, where the King and the Government have been determined to protect the environment and have defined the minimum forest cover by law at 60 per cent, a policy that has strong local support and is monitored by voluntary forest guards. Indonesia, though, which also has a policy to protect its forests, has been unable to enforce it and has suffered from widespread illegal logging.

Another, related indicator is the proportion of land that has been designated for protection in order to maintain biological diversity. No countries report that they have reduced this proportion so all would be considered as on track or early achievers.

Intensive deforestation can also result in an increase in the amount of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere as people burn wood and also remove the trees that can act as “carbon sinks”. Between 1990 and 2002, average per capita CO₂ emissions increased across the region from 2.2 to 2.5 tons. Of the 50 countries for which data are available, 30 are regressing, while 20 are early achievers since they have managed to reduce output. Most of the increase in carbon dioxide production is the result of energy-intensive economic growth and particularly the burning of fossil fuels – as in China, for example, as well as in Malaysia and Thailand. However, most of the North and Central Asian States have reduced their emissions dramatically as a result of a contraction in economic activity and the shift away from heavy industry following the collapse of the Soviet Union. More

impressive therefore is the achievement of Singapore, which, although it still has relatively high emissions, has been successfully reducing them by, among other things, switching from fuel oil to natural gas, enforcing strict vehicle emission standards and carrying out energy audit programmes for industry, as well as encouraging consumers to reduce their emissions through various “green” labelling schemes. Across the region, however, it will be important to step up advocacy for measures to prevent the devastation that can come from climate change.

Figure I.12. Carbon dioxide emissions per capita

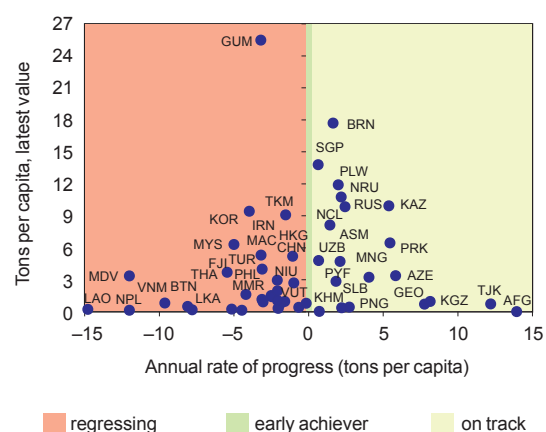


Figure I.12 shows both the current levels of emissions and the rate of change. Many countries are clustered along the bottom since their levels of CO₂ emission are very low, so even if, as in the Lao People’s Democratic Republic (LAO), they are regressing this will not represent a very large increase in output. This is the case in most Pacific islands, except for Guam (GUM), where between 1990 and 2002 output increased from 17 to 22 tons per capita as a result of using imported oil for military installations, industry and transport.

Note: For a key to the country codes, see box I.2.

Target 10: Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and sanitation

The Asian and Pacific region is well endowed with water resources, yet millions of people do not have access to clean water – and are exposed to many kinds of water-borne diseases. These pressures are bound to grow: the expansion of human populations and the increasing demands of both industry and agriculture are not only going to make water far scarcer they are also going to increase the dangers of pollution.

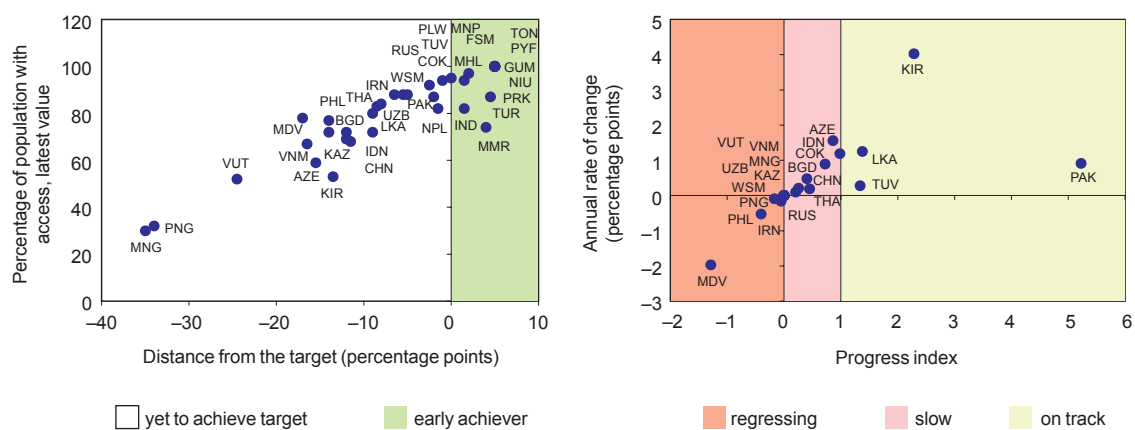
While the problems of both water and sanitation vary greatly from one country to another, in almost all the developing countries there is a sharp contrast between urban and rural areas, both in current availability and potential solutions.

In the case of water, for example, by 2002 typically more than 90 per cent of urban dwellers had access to safe water. Of the 40 countries offering data, 31 were early achievers or on track and even those that were regressing had achieved quite high values: Nepal, for example, is regressing slightly but still has a coverage of 93 per cent. The lowest levels, around 80 per cent, were in the smaller Pacific islands such as the Marshall Islands, Kiribati and Palau, though this may be because the distinction between urban and rural areas is quite blurred. Of the large countries, coverage is also relatively low in Bangladesh, 82 per cent, and Papua New Guinea, 88 per cent.

The situation in the rural areas is quite different, with coverage typically 10 to 20 percentage points lower. Nevertheless there has been progress and the rural-urban gaps have been narrowing. Of the 34 countries with data available, 11 are early achievers, 5 are on track and 18 are off track, of which 11 are regressing (figure I.13).

Mongolia's lack of progress reflects its sparse population and poverty in the rural areas. But even relatively prosperous Thailand is failing to offer clean water to 20 per cent of its rural population; nor is it improving sufficiently quickly to meet the target by 2015.

Figure I.13. Sustainable access to improved water sources in rural areas, target distance and progress index



Countries and territories in the left zone have yet to reach their target, whereas those in the right zone have already surpassed it. The lowest levels of coverage are in Mongolia (MNG) and Papua New Guinea (PNG), where around 70 per cent of rural dwellers lack access to clean water. Myanmar (MMR) has already achieved its target; nevertheless, coverage is still only 74 per cent.

Countries in the green zone are on track. Pakistan (PAK), for example, whose target is 89 per cent, is progressing at five or six times the rate needed to achieve it. Other large countries, like China (CHN), Indonesia (IDN) and Bangladesh (BGD), however, fall into the pink zone because they are advancing too slowly at present to meet their targets by 2015. In Maldives (MDV) coverage slipped between 1990 and 2001 from 99 to 78 per cent.

Notes: 1. For a more detailed explanation of these charts, see box I.1.
2. For a key to the country codes, see box I.2.

Access to improved sanitation is also far better in urban than rural areas, where the risks of human contact with waste are greater (73 against 31 per cent). This is illustrated in figure I.14, which shows that the latest values are much lower in the rural areas and that many countries are still some distance from their targets.

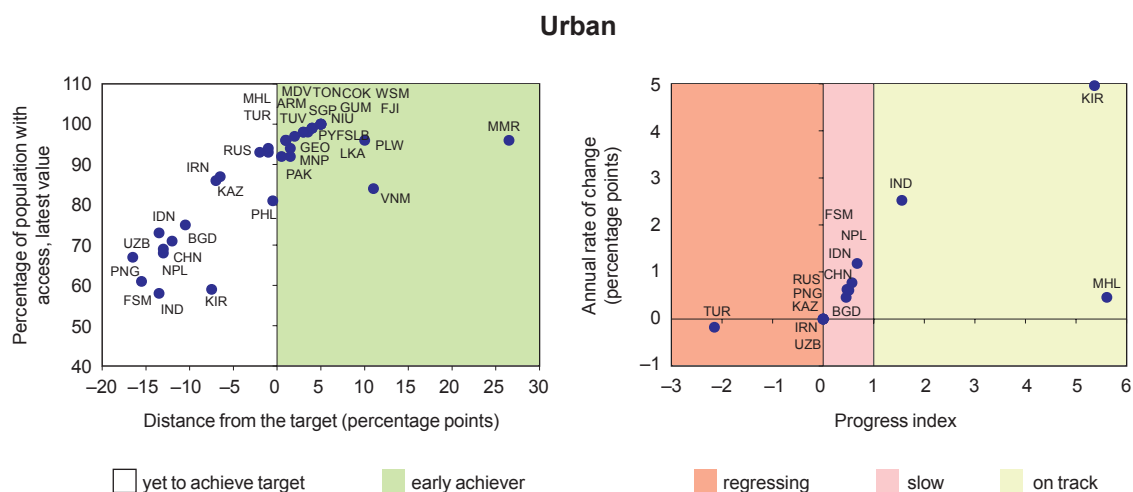
The availability of good sanitation facilities is often lower than improved water supplies. For many countries the main task in improving sanitation in both urban and rural areas is persuasion – convincing people of the value of sanitary latrines, since once they

are convinced they need one, even the poorest households should be able to afford the most basic systems.

Indicators of major concern

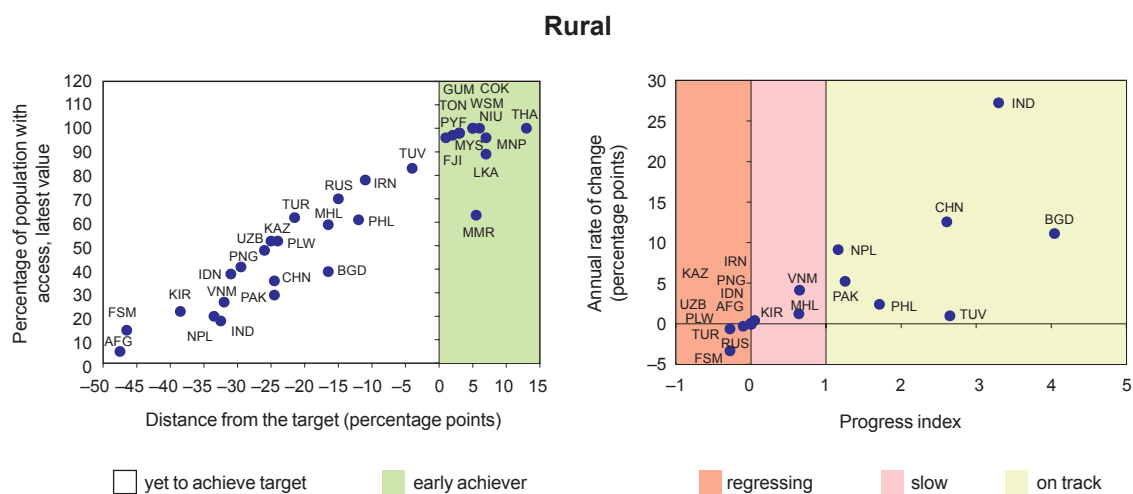
When it comes to meeting the MDGs each country will have its own priority indicators – but it should also be possible to identify those indicators that should be of greatest concern for the region as a whole. One approach would be to consider which indicators have the highest proportion of countries off track. This would of course be swayed to an unpredictable extent by data availability since while all countries provide the

Figure I.14. Access to improved sanitation, target distance and progress index



Countries and territories in the white zone have yet to reach their target, whereas those in the green zone have already surpassed it. India (IND) still has relatively low urban coverage at 58 per cent, as does China (CHN) at 69 per cent. A notable performer among the early achievers is Myanmar (MMR), which between 1990 and 2002 increased urban coverage from 39 to 96 per cent and comfortably exceeded its target.

Countries in the right zone are on track. This includes India (IND), which, despite the low coverage indicated in the figure above, is just progressing fast enough to be on target for 2015. Indonesia (IDN), China (CHN) and Bangladesh (BGD), however, are progressing too slowly and will probably only hit their targets after 2015. Turkey (TUR) appears to be slipping badly, but it is doing so from a high level; coverage is still 94 per cent.



Sanitation coverage is much lower in the rural areas. Nepal (NPL), for example, which has 68 per cent coverage in the urban areas, has only 20 per cent in rural areas. Similarly in Pakistan (PAK) the proportions are 92 and 35 per cent respectively. Thailand (THA) appears to be much more successful at rural sanitation than at rural water supplies.

A number of the more populous countries, including Bangladesh (BGD), China (CHN) and India (IND), even if starting from low levels are nevertheless making progress at a pace three or four times greater than that required to hit their targets by 2015. Viet Nam (VNM) and Indonesia (IDN), however, are moving too slowly.

Notes: 1. For a more detailed explanation of these charts, see box I.1.
2. For a key to the country codes, see box I.2.

necessary data on TB, for example, fewer than one third provide data on the proportion of children reaching grade 5 in primary school. Bearing that in mind table I.7 offers a simple ranking which suggests that the most severe problems are in maternal mortality and carbon dioxide emissions, with fewer problems

in TB and in gender parity in education. Another approach would be to rank the indicators according to the percentage of population in off track countries, though the resulting ranking would not offer much more information than would be gained just by looking at what is happening in China and India.

Table I.7. Indicators ranked by the percentage of countries off track

Indicator	Countries off track (percentage)	Countries with data available (percentage)	Population in off track (percentage)	Average value		
				off-track countries	non off-track countries	Target
Maternal mortality	66.7	76.4	83.6	353.4	282.9	107
CO ₂ emissions	60.0	90.9	92.2	2.0	8.7	
National poverty line	53.8	23.6	17.5	34.9	17.1	13
Water rural	52.9	61.8	57.4	69.9	82.3	81
Infant mortality	46.8	85.5	50.3	69.7	29.7	35
Malnutrition	42.9	50.9	51.4	20.4	10.3	10
Sanitation rural	40.6	58.2	14.1	43.5	29.0	57
Under-5 mortality	40.4	85.5	49.8	95.8	38.5	46
Primary enrolment	39.4	60.0	46.1	83.8	89.9	95
Forest cover	37.5	87.3	24.4	36.3	30.9	
Sanitation urban	31.4	63.6	64.3	75.3	69.2	82
Water urban	30.8	70.9	49.5	91.0	96.7	95
Reaching grade 5	29.4	30.9	40.8	61.8	91.5	95
Primary completion	28.1	58.2	54.1	82.6	92.6	95
\$1 poverty	26.1	41.8	5.4	29.7	19.5	17
HIV prevalence	25.9	65.5	40.5	0.9	0.2	
Gender tertiary	25.9	49.1	14.6	56.7	83.9	95
CFC consumption	20.5	70.9	18.1	16.5	14.1	
TB death rate	20.0	100.0	1.6	17.2	28.0	
Gender primary	18.4	69.1	49.6	73.3	94.1	95
Gender secondary	13.9	65.5	5.0	88.0	86.9	95
TB prevalence	12.7	100.0	1.4	163.4	289.2	

Note: See Statistical Appendix for units of the indicators.

Another factor to take into account is that some indicators may appear tougher to achieve than others: the fact that maternal mortality, for example, has to be reduced by three quarters while poverty only has to be reduced by half might make the former more difficult to achieve. These differences should, however, be considered as reflecting the emphasis that the international community placed on these targets when setting them.

A further concern about this ranking is that some of the countries that are off track on a particular indicator may be trying to improve on already respectable values – better perhaps than those of some countries that are on track. Sri Lanka, for example, has a lower rate of poverty than Pakistan, but while Sri Lanka is drifting away from its higher target, Pakistan has already achieved its lower one. One way of taking this into account is, for a given indicator, to compare the average values of the off-track and on-track countries – if these are near each other, then all countries are more or less near the Asian average and so the countries that are off track do not face a serious problem. However, if the two averages are wide apart, then the countries that are off track are quite distant from the all-Asia average and so face a major challenge. In the case of TB prevalence, for example, the average values in the off-track countries are actually somewhat lower than those in the on-track ones, so the ratio between the two is less than one. For HIV prevalence there is a much wider gap: the prevalence in the off-track countries is more than five times greater than in the

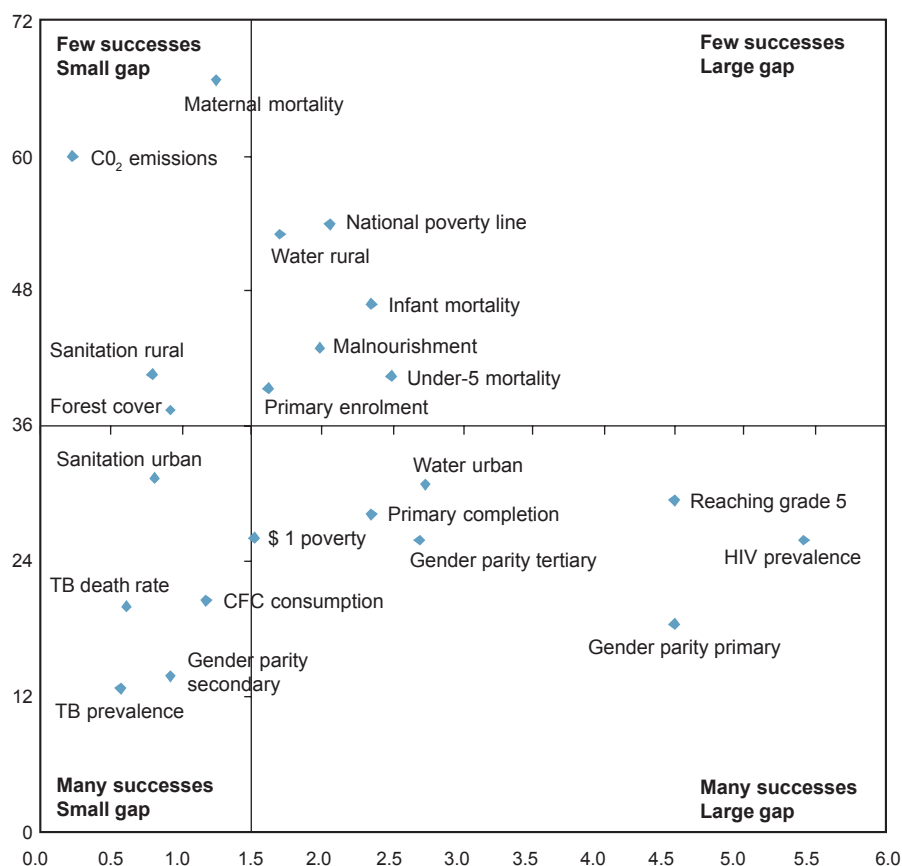
on-track ones, which indicates a far more serious problem.

These two aspects of each indicator are illustrated in figure I.15, which groups each indicator into one of four clusters, according to the proportion of countries that are having some success with that indicator (early achiever or on track) and also the severity of under-achievement as expressed by the gap between successful and unsuccessful countries. Arguably the indicators of greatest concern for the region as a whole would be those in the top-right cluster since many countries are unsuccessful and are lagging far behind the others. Next, perhaps, would come those in the bottom-right cluster, which involves fewer countries, but these still lag some way behind. The fact that maternal mortality falls in the top-left cluster should not, however, diminish its importance; indeed it partly reflects the fact that maternal mortality even in the on-track countries, at an average level of 342, is still unacceptably high, so for this case the measure chosen to indicate severity may not be appropriate.

Countries of major concern

This clustering also suggests a way of identifying the countries that are having particular difficulties with the MDGs. Of the 55 developing countries in the Asia-Pacific region around half are off track for more than half their indicators. This can, however, be narrowed down still further just by considering performance on the indicators in the high-priority cluster in figure I.15.

Figure I.15. Clustering the indicators by achievement and severity



Each indicator is shown in two dimensions. Its position on the vertical axis represents the extent to which countries are unsuccessful with this indicator – the percentage that are off track. The horizontal axis indicates the severity of the problem in the off-track countries: using the ratio between their average values and those of the countries that are on track or are early achievers. On this basis, the indicators of most general concern would be those such as the infant mortality rate that fall into the top right cluster. The lines that delineate the clusters could be placed anywhere; those chosen here are on the vertical axis at the point beyond which 36 per cent of countries are off track and on the horizontal axis at the point beyond which the average value in the off-track countries is 50 per cent worse than in the on-track countries or early achievers.

The results are shown in figure I.16. Five countries are not expected to achieve a single one of their targets for all high-priority indicators – Afghanistan, Timor-Leste, Papua New Guinea, Uzbekistan and Mongolia – and 14 others are off track for more than half of them.

Analysis by subregion and level of development – LDCs, LLDCs and SIDS

The analysis in this chapter has looked at the performance of individual countries on each indicator and then at the indicators as a whole to see which are of greatest concern across the region. This section will now focus on each subregion to highlight contrasts between countries that may have a number of similar characteristics but perform differently on the MDGs. It will also highlight three important categories of countries: least developed countries, landlocked developing countries and small island developing States. These categories overlap somewhat – as indicated in table I.18.

For each region there is a chart that shows for each country the proportion of indicators on which they are reporting and the proportion on which they are off track. The countries are then ranked by the proportion of indicators on which they are reporting and are off track.

South and South-West Asia

This is the poorest-performing subregion: the only one in which a majority of its countries, 6 out of 10, are off track for more than one third of their indicators.

The slow progress here is largely because this region includes 5 of the LDCs – Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Maldives and Nepal – 3 of which are also landlocked and one of which is a small island developing State. The ranking shows Nepal to be in a worse position than Afghanistan though, as is also evident from the chart. Afghanistan reports on only a small number of indicators – with no data on poverty and hunger, for example, or on education or water or sanitation, on which it would certainly not fare very well.

Figure I.16. Countries off track on indicators in the high-priority cluster

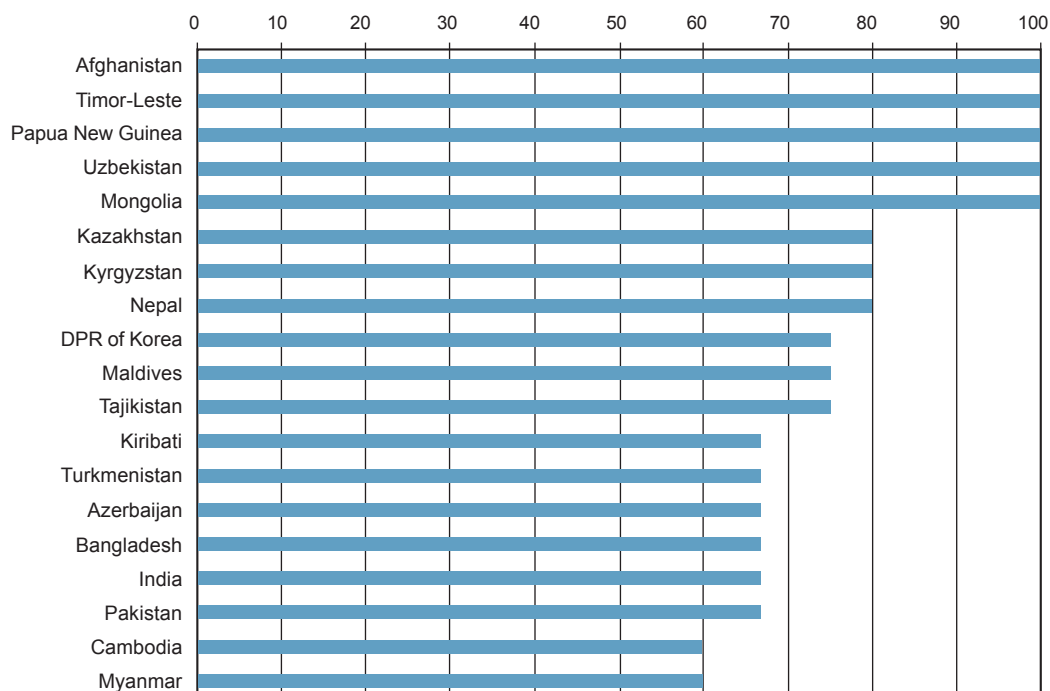


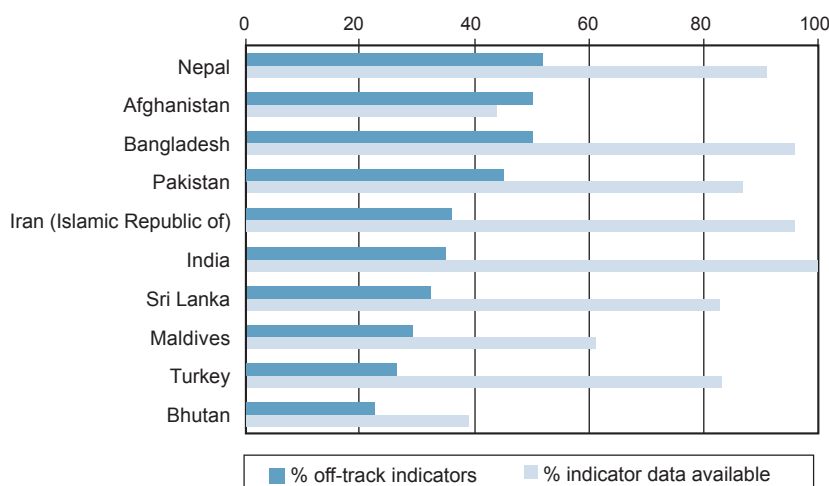
Table I.8. Least developed countries, landlocked developing countries and small island developing States

	LDC	LLDC	SIDS
Afghanistan	•	•	
American Samoa			
Armenia		•	
Azerbaijan		•	
Bahrain			•
Bangladesh	•		
Bhutan	•	•	
Cambodia	•		
Cook Islands			•
Fiji			•
French Polynesia			
Guam			
Kazakhstan		•	
Kiribati	•		•
Kyrgyzstan		•	
Lao People's Democratic Republic	•	•	
Maldives	•		•
Marshall Islands			•
Micronesia (Federated States of)			•
Mongolia		•	
Myanmar	•		
Nauru			•
Nepal	•	•	
New Caledonia			
Niue			•
Northern Mariana Islands			
Palau			•
Papua New Guinea			•
Samoa	•		•
Singapore			•
Solomon Islands	•		•
Tajikistan		•	
Timor-Leste	•		
Tonga			•
Turkmenistan		•	
Tuvalu	•		•
Uzbekistan		•	
Vanuatu	•		•

At the other end of the list the position of Bhutan, one of the LLDCs, may be boosted by its small number of reported indicators. It may also be surprising to see the Islamic Republic of Iran in a worse position

than India or Sri Lanka. This is largely because, although for primary pupils reaching grade 5 and for primary completion it is actually quite close to the target, it has slipped back from earlier achievements.

Figure I.17. South and South-West Asia, off-track indicators



Most countries in South Asia, particularly some of the LDCs, will find it difficult to reach the majority of the MDGs. In this subregion, where around 60 per cent of workers still depend on agriculture for their livelihoods, growth has not been as fast as in other Asian countries and inequality is high, making it difficult to make inroads into poverty. Indeed, income poverty has gone up in Bangladesh and Sri Lanka and, on the basis of some evidence, in Pakistan as well.

There are also concerns about the social indicators. Pakistan, for example, has the lowest primary enrolment rate in the whole region and has been making no progress in achieving gender parity. Moreover, apart from Sri Lanka, all the South Asian countries have under-5 or infant mortality rates above the Asian average. For India, one of the biggest threats is HIV/AIDS.

On a more positive note, the majority of South Asian countries should be able to achieve the targets on water and sanitation, and around half have also managed to halt deforestation.

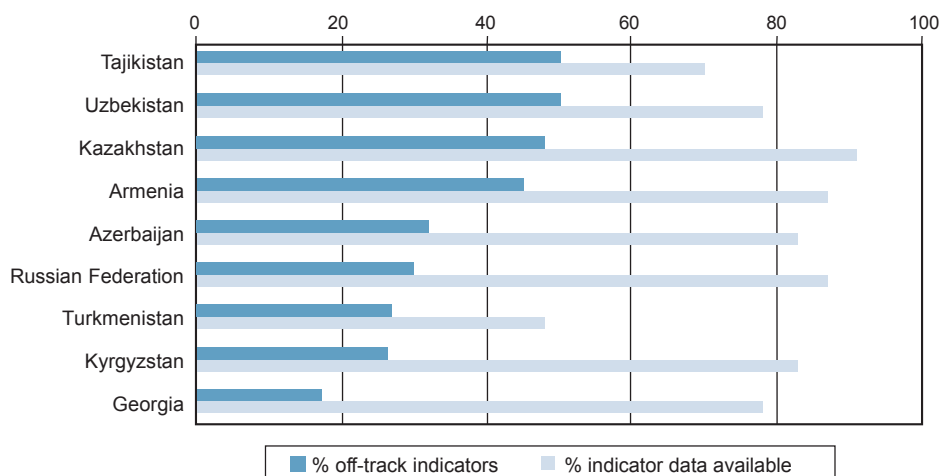
North and Central Asia

This region has a high proportion of LLDCs, which have severe disadvantages because of their lack of territorial access to the sea, their remoteness and isolation from world markets and high transit costs. At the time of independence in 1990-1991 the Central Asian republics were middle-income countries with high lev-

els of human development. The political and economic transitions since then have proved profoundly disruptive: between 1990 and 1995, per capita GDP nearly halved; social services were cut; and millions of people were plunged into poverty. In this region, achieving the MDG targets will in the first instance mean restoring earlier achievements. In recent years there has at least been stronger economic growth and GDP per capita is on average the highest in developing Asia-Pacific. Nevertheless education expenditure remains too low and public services generally are in a poor state.

As figure I.18 shows, the countries of greatest concern are Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan and Armenia – all of them landlocked. The first two have high and increasing rates of malnutrition. In Armenia too the level of malnutrition is high, though here it is coming down. Educational standards have also slipped in a number of countries, with net primary enrolment falling in Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia and Kyrgyzstan – though, on the positive side, all the countries except Tajikistan have achieved gender parity at all levels of education. The virtual collapse of the social sector has also resulted in a general deterioration of health indicators; a number of countries have registered increases in infant mortality as well as in the prevalence of TB. And although the lack of data makes it difficult to draw overall conclusions, access to clean water and safe sanitation have also become more difficult.

Figure I.18. North and Central Asia, off-track indicators



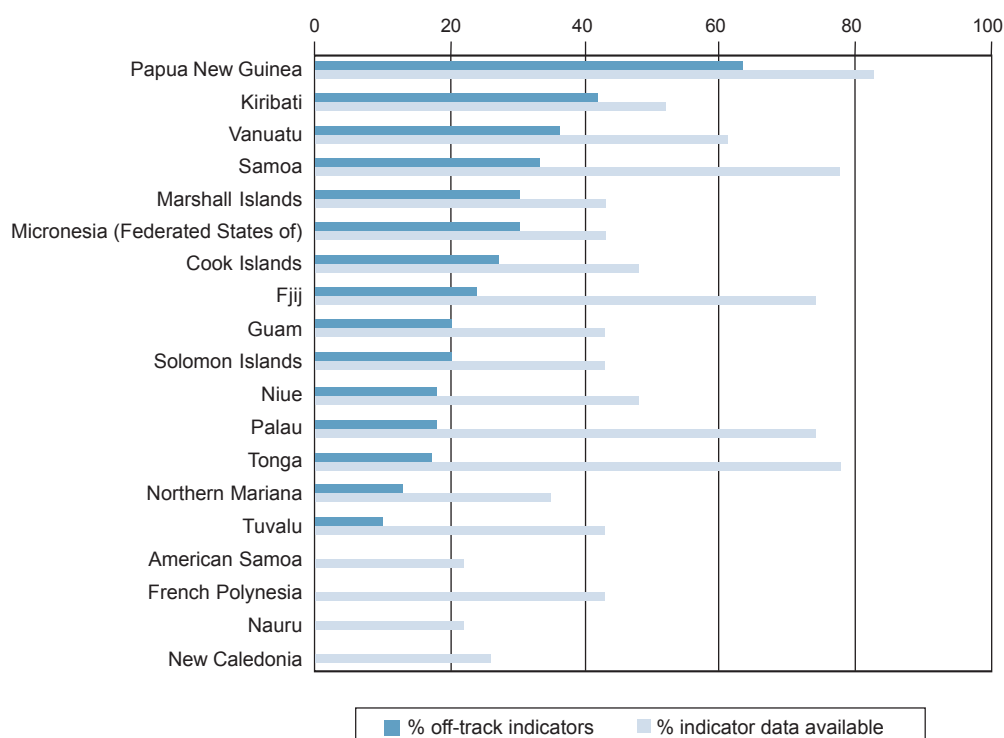
Pacific

The countries of the Pacific are in many respects very different from most of those in the other subregions. The majority are SIDS and consist of scattered islands with fragile, overexploited environments, high population densities and poor infrastructure. Economically too they are vulnerable and per capita incomes have often been sustained by international investment and aid. Most people rely heavily on the public sector for

the provision of goods and services and per capita health and education expenditures are generally high.

Assessing progress towards the MDGs is hampered by the shortage of data. As figure I.19 shows, fewer than half the countries have data for the majority of indicators. None offers any information on poverty or hunger and few on education or gender. Papua New Guinea offers more information, though this shows that on most indicators it is off track – regressing on

Figure I.19. Pacific, off-track indicators



education, for example, and on water supplies and sanitation. Even on child mortality it is not making sufficient progress to be on track for 2015. It also faces a rising prevalence of HIV infection.

Water supplies and sanitation are a problem in many Pacific countries with a number of them regressing, though Tuvalu is a notable exception; indeed for urban sanitation it is an early achiever. It should also be noted that many have managed to halt deforestation, the exceptions being Fiji, the Federated States of Micronesia, Papua New Guinea and Solomon Islands.

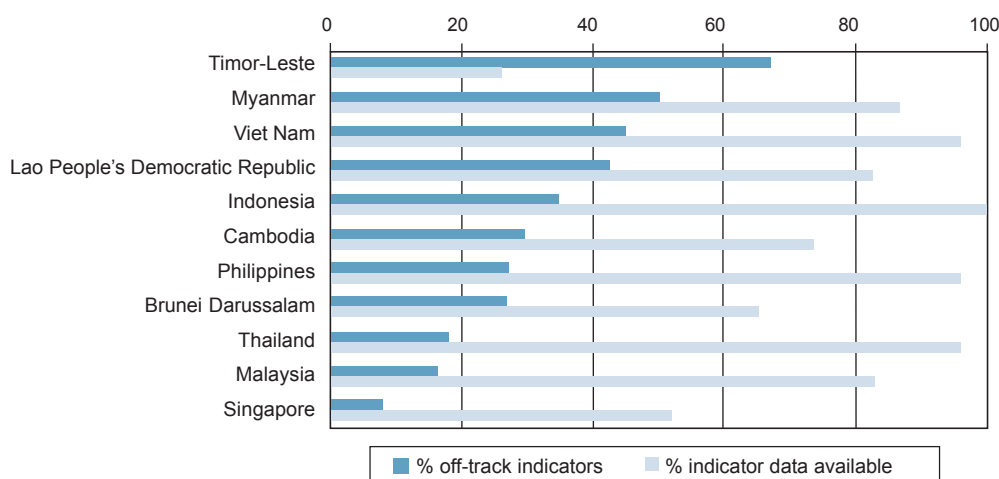
South-East Asia

This includes some of the more prosperous countries in the region along with some of the LDCs, so it is no

surprise that success in the MDGs largely reflects this division, with Timor-Leste as the least successful and Singapore the most.

Probably the most surprising feature of the figure I.20 is that Viet Nam, which is not classified as an LDC, is off track for a higher proportion of its indicators than is Cambodia, which is an LDC. This is largely because Viet Nam has fairly good values for many indicators but has not made much progress lately and in some cases has been sliding backwards. Thus for primary education Viet Nam has one of the highest enrolment rates in the region, but has slipped back to 94 per cent, hence is considered as regressing. Nevertheless there are some more urgent concerns in Viet Nam such as the rise in HIV prevalence.

Figure I.20. South-East Asia, off-track indicators



Cambodia, however, which through the 1990s experienced political instability, seems for one of the LDCs not to have done too badly. In some areas it has certainly advanced, notably in turning the corner on HIV infection, but elsewhere its ranking may be boosted by the lack of data for some crucial indicators, including the \$1-per day poverty line and access to water and sanitation. Child and infant mortality rates are also of great concern – already the highest in the region, bar Afghanistan.

Timor-Leste, the subregion's only SIDS, and Myanmar also have high infant mortality rates, and along with the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Indonesia, the Philippines and Viet Nam, also have unacceptably high rates of maternal mortality. Another health concern is TB: prevalence in Timor-Leste, Cambodia and Viet Nam is the highest in the region.

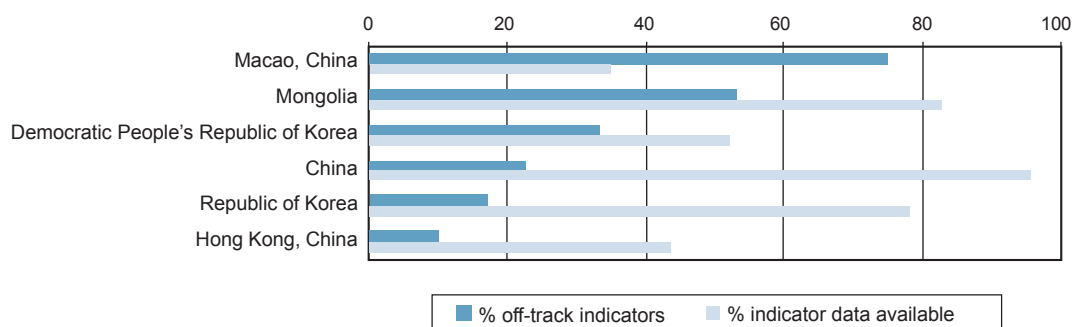
This subregion also has severe environmental problems. Forest coverage is disappearing and carbon diox-

ide emissions per head are rising rapidly: in the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Malaysia, Thailand and Viet Nam, emissions per head have more than doubled.

East and North-East Asia

The experience of this region is dominated largely by that of China and its two special administrative regions. Over the past two decades, China has experienced very rapid economic growth that has lifted 168 million people out of poverty – but it has also faced rising income inequality and a widening gap between urban and rural areas. China is on track for, or has already achieved, three quarters of the indicators considered. Where it is lacking is in access to water and sanitation; indeed the proportion of urban citizens with access to clean water actually declined over the 12-year period up to 2002 – not surprising, perhaps, given the country's rapid pace of urbanization. Another area of concern is per capita carbon dioxide emissions, which since 1990 have risen by 31 per cent.

Figure I.21. East and North-East Asia, off-track indicators



The Republic of Korea has achieved most of the MDGs, though it too is lagging on environmental issues: per capita carbon dioxide emissions have risen by two thirds since 1990 and, although this is still one of the most-forested countries in the region, coverage has continued to decline. The Republic of Korea is also slow on one of the gender indicators – gender parity in tertiary education, where it ranks in the bottom quarter of all countries in the region.

Mongolia, which is one of the LLDCs, has during its period of transition struggled with most of the MDGs and is slipping backwards on poverty and hunger, universal primary education and water and sanitation, as well as environmental sustainability. It will also need to speed up progress on child mortality if it is to reach the goal by 2015. It has, however, done well on gender parity in education, for which it is an early achiever.

For the Democratic People's Republic of Korea it is difficult to assess progress since data are missing on almost half the indicators – including those on poverty and education. It is clear, however, that malnutrition has increased and that the country has made no progress in reducing child mortality.

Gender disparities in MDG achievement

A country's achievements on the MDGs give a good indication of how the nation is faring as a whole. However, national data often mask wide disparities within countries – between different regions and social groups. This uneven pattern of progress not only denies the rights of those people that it leaves behind, it also exacerbates structural problems and has a strong bearing on future national development – on its nature, its pace and its sustainability.

One of the most serious and persistent disparities is between males and females. The MDGs do address

this issue with respect to education – under Goal 3. The information available on Goal 3 presents a fairly positive picture in that many countries have achieved gender parity at the primary and secondary levels; indeed in some countries secondary schools have more girls enrolled than boys. However, this goal fails to address many of the other dimensions of gender disparity.

This section will attempt to fill some of the gaps with respect to health, employment and women's opportunities to control resources and the decisions that affect their lives. It should be emphasized, however, that this is based on rather limited information. Most national data are not disaggregated by gender: poverty, for example, is based on information at the household level and does not explore the often very different experiences of individual family members. Governments also consider some issues, such as violence against women, as too private or sensitive for public enquiry.

Health

The main overall health indicator is life expectancy. Women have a biological advantage that should on average enable them to live four or five years longer than men. An advantage of less than four years can be taken as a signal that women are being treated unequally and probably that they are not getting fair and adequate access to health services. This would also incorporate the effects of high maternal mortality. The life expectancy gap would not, however, reflect the fact that in some countries selective abortion favours boys over girls.

The position on the age gap and other health indicators is summarized in table I.9. Of the 46 countries in the region with the necessary data, 18 had a life expectancy gap of less than four years. The most severe problems are evidently in South Asia: in Pakistan,

Nepal and Maldives women actually have shorter lives than men and in Afghanistan, Bangladesh and India their advantage is less than one year. The Russian

Federation is notable for a very high death rate among men which is due partly at least to lifestyle issues such as alcohol consumption and smoking.

Table I.9. Key health indicators by sex

Subregion/country	Life expectancy						Child mortality per 1,000 (2002)		
	1990			2000			Female	Male	Ratio
	Female	Male	Gap ¹	Female	Male	Gap ¹			
East and North-East Asia									
China	68	66	3	72	68	4	41	31	132.3
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	74	68	6	66	61	6	7	8	87.5
Hong Kong, China	80	74	6	82	77	6			
Macao, China	79	74	5	80	76	5			
Mongolia	62	59	4	64	60	4	66	75	88.0
Republic of Korea	74	66	8	78	71	8	4	4	100.0
North and Central Asia									
Armenia	72	67	5	75	68	7	35	39	89.7
Azerbaijan	73	65	8	75	67	7	70	80	87.5
Georgia	75	68	8	77	69	8	20	26	76.9
Kazakhstan	73	64	9	71	59	12	28	38	73.7
Kyrgyzstan	71	64	8	71	63	8	55	63	87.3
Russian Federation	74	64	11	73	60	12	16	21	76.2
Tajikistan	71	66	5	70	64	6	57	68	83.8
Turkmenistan	68	61	7	69	62	7	47	63	74.6
Uzbekistan	71	65	6	71	65	6	26	37	70.3
South and South-West Asia									
Afghanistan	41	41	0	42	42	0	256	258	99.2
Bangladesh	53	53	0	59	58	1	73	71	102.8
Bhutan	54	52	3	62	60	3	92	93	98.9
India	58	58	0	63	62	1	95	87	109.2
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	64	62	2	70	67	3	36	45	80.0
Maldives	58	61	-3	65	66	-2	43	38	113.2
Nepal	51	53	-2	57	58	-1	87	81	107.4
Pakistan	55	55	0	59	59	0	115	105	109.5
Sri Lanka	72	67	5	75	69	6	16	20	80.0
Turkey	66	62	4	72	67	5	42	44	95.5
South-East Asia									
Brunei Darussalam	75	72	4	78	73	5	12	14	85.7
Cambodia	56	52	4	59	55	4	124	149	83.2
Indonesia	62	59	4	67	63	4	36	45	80.0
Lao People's Democratic Republic	50	47	3	54	51	3	131	146	89.7
Malaysia	72	68	4	75	70	5	8	10	80.0
Myanmar	56	51	4	59	54	5	94	118	79.7
Philippines	66	62	4	71	67	4	33	39	84.6
Singapore	76	71	5	79	75	4	3	4	75.0
Thailand	70	64	6	73	64	9	26	32	81.3
Timor-Leste	43	42	2	48	47	2	108	142	76.1
Viet Nam	65	61	4	70	65	5	33	41	80.5
The Pacific									
American Samoa									
Cook Islands							19	21	90.5
Fiji	69	65	4	70	67	4	27	30	90.0
French Polynesia	71	66	5	74	69	5			
Guam	74	69	5	76	71	5			
Kiribati							69	80	86.3
Marshall Islands							36	46	78.3
Micronesia (Federated States of)	67	65	1	68	67	1	51	63	81.0
Nauru							12	18	66.7
New Caledonia	73	67	6	77	72	5			
Niue							24	38	63.2
Northern Mariana Islands									
Palau							22	24	91.7
Papua New Guinea	53	51	2	57	55	2	92	98	93.9
Samoa	67	61	7	72	65	7	21	27	77.8
Solomon Islands	64	62	2	69	66	2	75	86	87.2
Tonga	67	65	1	68	67	1	15	23	65.2
Tuvalu							56	72	77.8
Vanuatu	65	61	4	69	66	3	40	40	100.0

¹ The figures representing the difference between Female and Male have been rounded off.

Another indicator of preferential treatment for one sex over another is the under-5 mortality rate. Infant boys are biologically at greater risk than girls so if they do not get preferential treatment the ratio between the mortality rates of boys and girls should be less than one. Of these 46 countries, 10 show rates that are abnormally high: 0.99 or above. In this case it is China that shows the highest level of discrimination, with a ratio of 1.3: the child mortality rate per 1,000 live births is 31 for boys, but 41 for girls. The neighbouring Republic of Korea shares a similar cultural attitude. Most South Asian countries also have high ratios: in Maldives, Pakistan, India, Nepal, Bangladesh, Afghanistan and Bhutan.

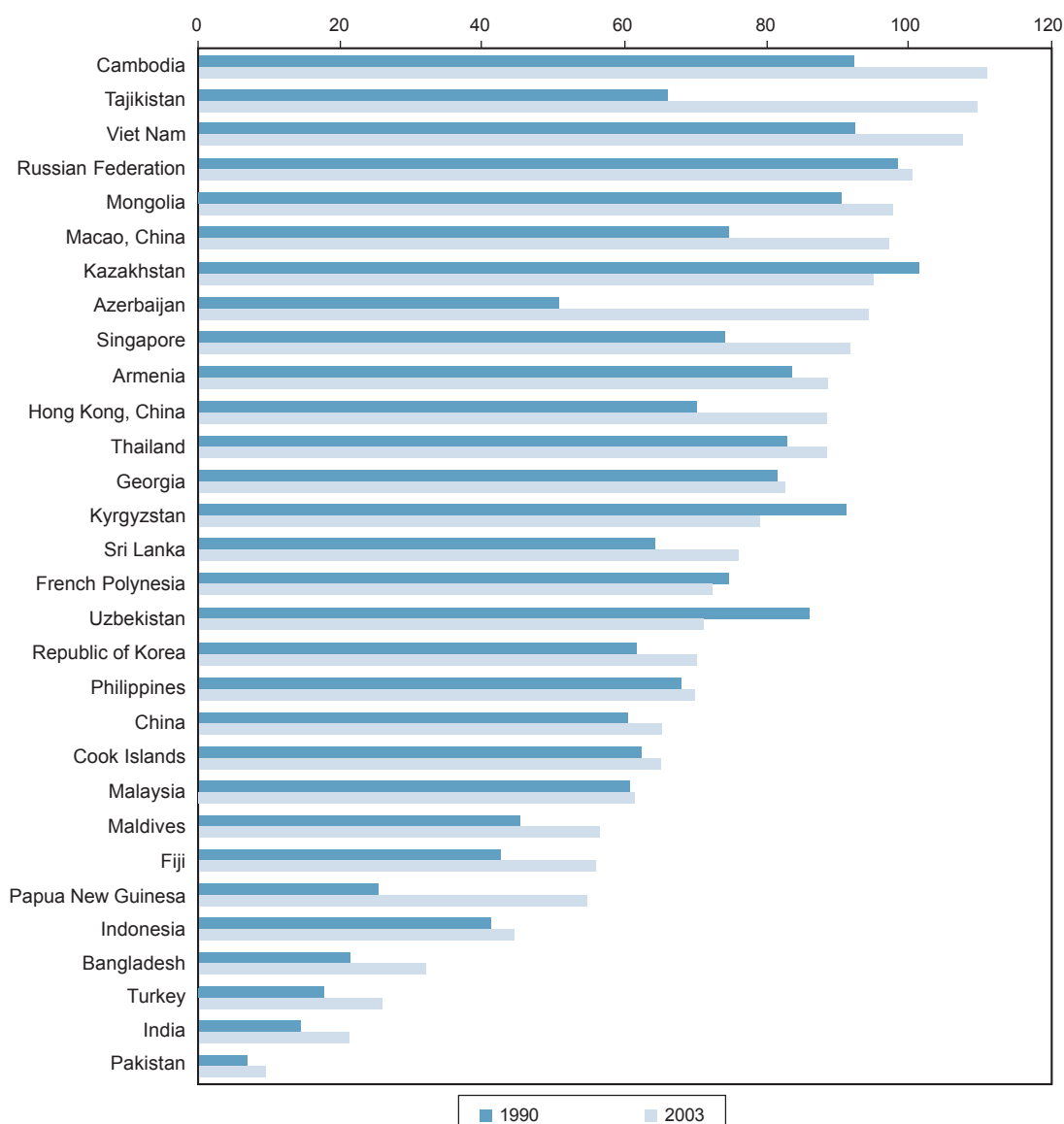
Employment and wages

Women's share of non-agricultural wage employment is lower than men's in every country. But it is strikingly low in some countries: in Bangladesh, for example, 24 per cent; in India, 17 per cent; in Turkey, 21 per cent; and only 9 per cent in Pakistan. Nor for most countries

has the share been increasing significantly. It should be noted, however, that in a number of countries employment data for women are not fully reliable, especially when they fail to cover casual, irregular or part-time work or subsistence activities.

However, many of the women who are working are likely to be employed in family businesses, particularly in agriculture in the rural areas. In this case employment will not be a good pointer to empowerment. A better indicator may therefore be the extent of women's participation in waged employment outside the agricultural sector – which tends to be in the urban areas and outside patriarchal controls. Figure I.22 shows this for a selection of countries – highlighting a relatively small proportion in a number of South Asian countries with the notable exception of Sri Lanka. Encouragingly, however, overall the proportion seems to be rising: among the countries reporting data, the average rose from 28.8 to 31.1 per cent. Only four countries reported falls.

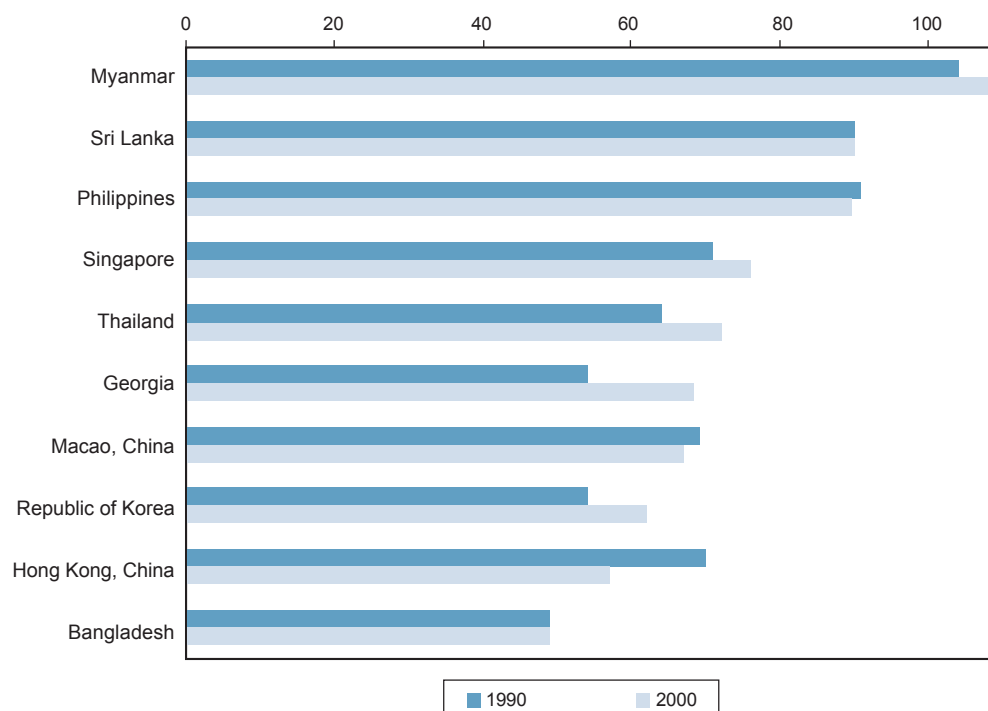
Figure I.22. Women's share of non-agricultural wage work, as a percentage of men's, 1990 and 2003



Women may be moving closer to men in terms of employment, but they still tend to earn less, either because they are doing the lower-status jobs, or because they are paid less than men even for the same work. In most Asian countries women working in the

non-agricultural sector earn only around two thirds of men's incomes and in some cases less than half. This is illustrated in figure I.23, which also shows some small changes, in both directions, between 1990 and 2000.

Figure I.23. Women's wages as a percentage of men's in non-agricultural work, 1990 and 2000



Empowerment

An important measure of women's empowerment is their status in employment, as it signals their access to ownership of assets, credit and markets. The presence of women in managerial positions is also a good indicator of women's general decision-making power in society. A number of these indicators are shown for a

selection of countries in table I.10. This shows that women are clearly far less likely than men to be running their own businesses, either as employers or as own-account workers. They are also less likely to be employed as legislators, senior officials and managers. Here, however, it is encouraging to note that, apart from Turkey and Pakistan, women in all these countries made progress between 1996 and 2003.

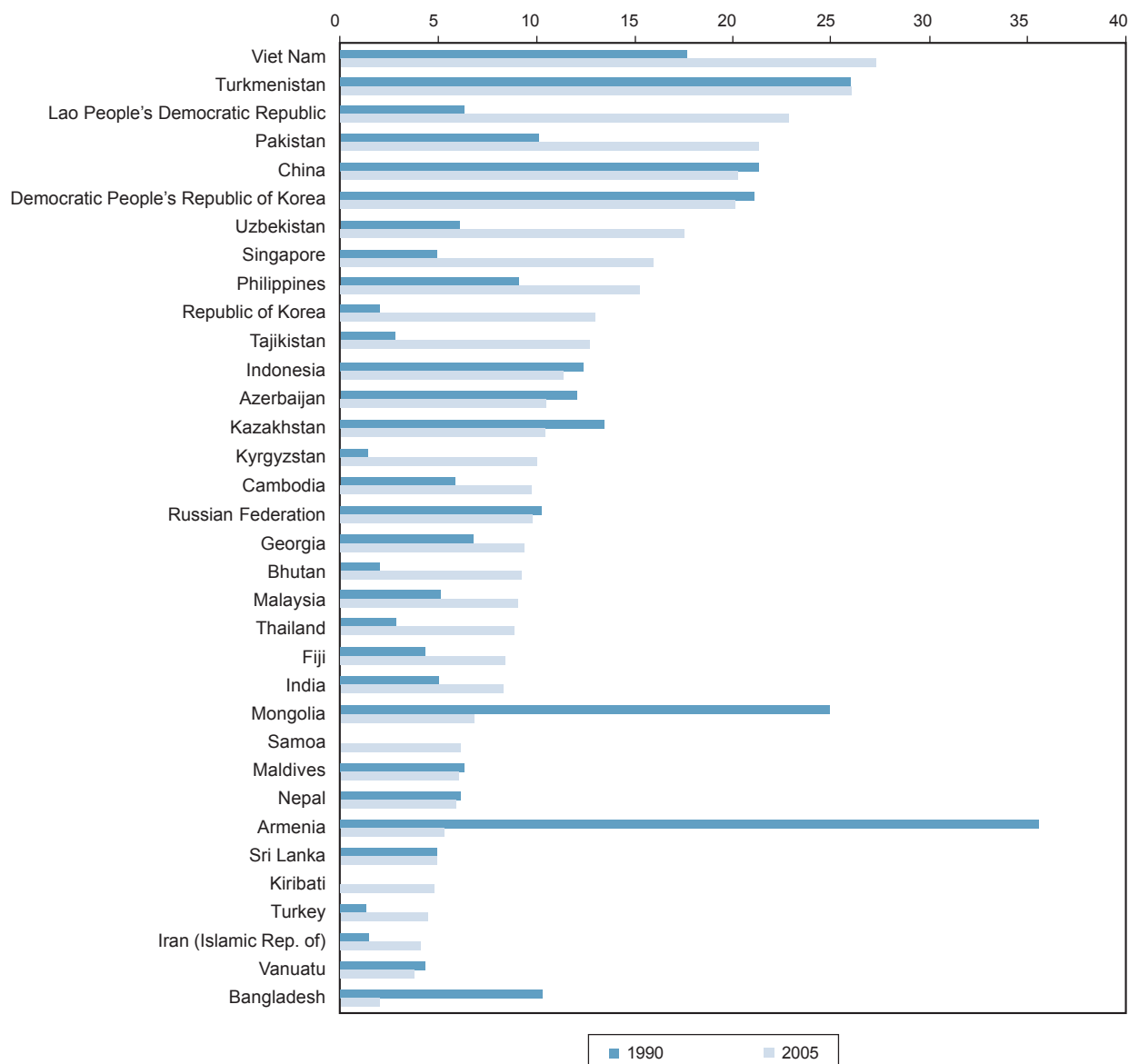
Table I.10. Women as employers, own-account workers and managers

Country	Employers: women as a percentage of men		Own-account workers: women as a percentage of men		Senior officials, legislators and managers: women as a percentage of men	
	1996	2000	1996	2000	1996	2003
Bangladesh	25.4	12.8	11.1	13.3	5.0	8.0
Georgia	13.4	13.6	46.8	43.8		
Hong Kong, China	14.4	16.9	18.1	21.8	20.0	26.0
Macao, China	15.5	13.8	36.8	40.6	19.0	22.0
Malaysia	51.8	57.7	34.7	31.8	16.0	23.0
Pakistan	3.6	2.1	4.0	5.8	4.0	2.0
Republic of Korea	40.8	40.1				
Russian Federation	24.8	48.1	59.6	74.2		
Singapore	18.7	24.5	25.0	26.0	20.0	26.0
Sri Lanka					18.0	21.0
Thailand	24.7	30.3	41.9	41.5	21.0	26.0
Turkey	3.7	4.0	10.7	14.4	10.0	7.0

Another indicator commonly used to register women's decision-making power in Government is women's participation in national parliaments. This does not of course indicate how much power they have in the Government of the country. It is also quite volatile since it can change dramatically with a change of government. As figure I.24 indicates, only 6 countries had parliaments that had more than 20 per cent women, and only 2 had more than one quarter women. Surpris-

ingly high on this list, given its slow progress on other gender indicators is Pakistan, though here the high representation of women may be due to the use of reserved seats for women in the national parliament. The most notable declines have been in former socialist countries, such as Armenia and Mongolia, where the 1990 figures were prior to their first democratic elections; previously many of the women representatives would have been appointed rather than elected.

Figure I.24. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments, 1990 and 2005



As this chart also indicates over the period 1990-2005 most countries have also seen an increase in women's representation – though for most the target of 30 per cent women in national parliaments established by the Beijing Platform of Action remains a distant dream.

Regional disparities

Most countries, particularly the large ones, also display significant subnational disparities. Country averages may therefore disguise the fact that a number of areas within countries are significantly off track while others

are on track. Attempting to help countries to attain their MDG targets in terms of national averages may therefore leave vast numbers of the poor and needy behind. This is an issue of considerable concern for the Asia-Pacific region. Unfortunately there are insufficient data for an extensive cross-country comparison, so this section is confined to 4 countries across a limited range of indicators.

Proportion of people below the national poverty line

For this indicator there are regional data for India, Indonesia and the Philippines. The extremes in poverty rates are illustrated in figure I.25, which shows the average poverty rate and the extremes for each country.

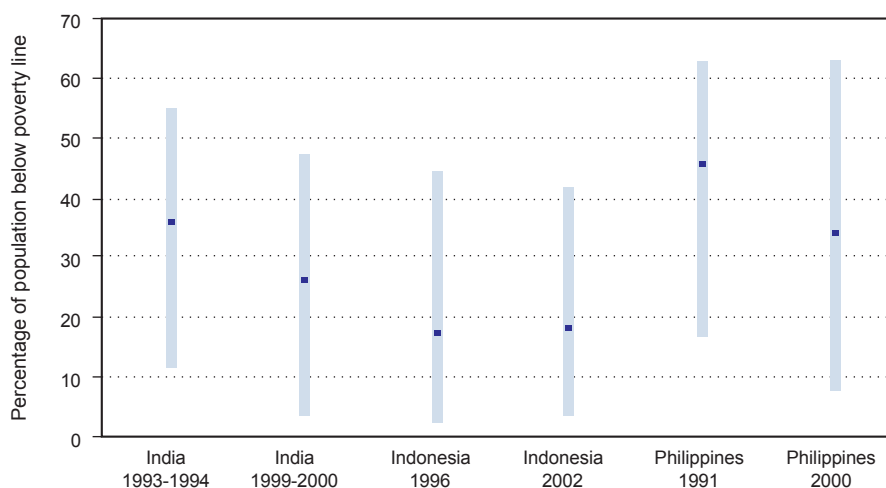
India – In 1999-2000 the poverty rates ranged from less than 10 per cent in Jammu and Kashmir, Goa, Daman and Diu, Chandigarh, Punjab, Himachal Pradesh, Delhi and Haryana to well above 40 per cent in the two poorest states, Orissa and Bihar. These disparities have

persisted over time: the 10 poorest states in 1993-1999 were also the 10 poorest in 1999-2002.

Indonesia – In 2002 the poverty rates were 11 per cent or less in the 5 richest provinces: Jakarta, Bali, South Kalimantan, Banten and North Sulawesi. But they were up to 42 per cent in the 5 poorest provinces: Papua, Maluku, Gorontalo, East Nusa Tenggara and Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam. Here too the disparities have persisted between 1992 and 2002: Jakarta remains by far the richest province, and the poorest remain Papua and Maluku with poverty rates above 40 per cent.

Philippines – Paralleling Indonesia, in 2001 the main imbalance is similarly between the National Capital Region, with a poverty rate of 7.6 per cent, and the rest of the country, where it ranged from 21 per cent in Central Luzon to 63 per cent in the Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao. Between 1991 and 2001 there was no change in the ranking of the 3 richest regions and in 4 of the 5 poorest regions.

Figure I.25. Regional disparities in poverty rates, India, Indonesia and the Philippines



Note: This chart shows the average poverty rate and also the range of poverty rates across states in India, provinces in Indonesia and regions in the Philippines.

The maximum and minimum values indicate the overall range but they do not capture distribution of poverty rates across the range: thus in principle there could be 12 very rich regions and 12 very poor ones. In fact poverty rates are distributed more evenly across richer and poorer provinces. This distribution across the regions can be captured by the “coefficient of variation” (technically, the standard deviation divided by the mean), which is high when the population is very polarized and low when most have similar values and the high and low values are exceptions. In India and the Philippines between the early 1990s and the turn of the millennium, while the national poverty rates went down the coefficients of variation went up, indicating an overall widening of disparities. In Indonesia, however, both the poverty rate and the coefficient of variation went down.

Part of the problem is that the poorest regions are often not reducing poverty even at the national average rate. In India, for example, had the poorest-performing regions done at least as well as the national average – reducing their poverty rate by the same proportion – the national average would have been almost 4 percentage points lower, India would have had 39 million fewer poor people, and it would have reached its MDG target three years earlier.

On the same principle, Indonesia would have had 2.7 million fewer poor people and instead of regressing it would have still have been off track but making slow progress. The Philippines too, on this basis, would have had a poverty rate 3 percentage points lower, 2.9 million fewer poor people, and would have been set to

reach its MDG target more comfortably, rather than with just a few years to spare.

Proportion of children underweight

Here too the picture on disparities is not encouraging. For Bangladesh, India and Indonesia the poorest regions despite starting from a lower base are not improving even by the same proportion as the national average. The disparities in the proportion of children who are either moderately or severely underweight are illustrated in figure I.26.

Bangladesh – Here the highest proportion of children underweight in 1999-2000 was to be found in Sylhet at 88 per cent, compared with just over half in Khulna. Between 1996-1997 and 1999-2000, just two of the six districts swapped rankings: Barisal and Chittagong.

India – In 1998-1999, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa, Uttar Pradesh and Rajasthan had rates of child malnutrition in excess of 50 per cent – the first 3 of these are also the 3 poorest states. Arunachal Pradesh, Nagaland and Sikkim – small states in terms of population size – had rates below 25 per cent. Most of the states that had high rates in 1992-1993 continued to do so in 1998-1999. The exceptions were Sikkim, which improved its relative position by 25 places on a list of 36, and Rajasthan and Tripura, which lost 11 and 12 places respectively.

Indonesia – In 2002, Yogyakarta and Bali had child malnutrition rates below 18 per cent while Gorontalo and Papua had rates above 40 per cent. However, Indonesia also demonstrates that regions that start out at the bottom do not need to stay there. Between 1992 and 2002 Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam, for example, almost halved the prevalence of underweight children and moved from close to the bottom to close to the top of the ranking. The only two provinces where the proportion rose were Central Sulawesi and Papua.

As with poverty it is also possible to see what would have happened if the regions with the highest rates were able to reduce their rates by at least the same proportion as the national average. Bangladesh, which is already on track, though starting from a higher rate, would achieve the MDG target 3 years earlier. But both India and Indonesia, which at present are improving too slowly to hit the target on time, would actually achieve it 10 years earlier, and thus on time.

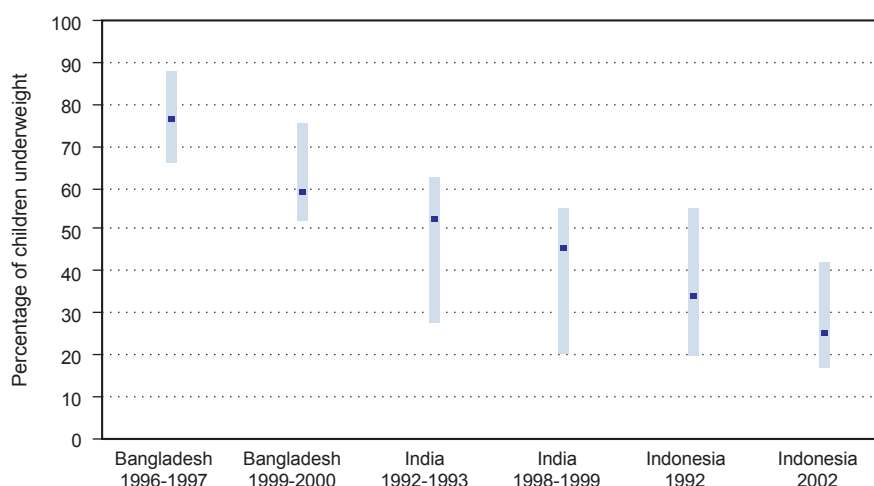
Conclusion

This brief survey has attempted to capture the progress of the countries of Asia and the Pacific towards the MDGs – highlighting which countries seem likely to succeed, and on which goal, and also looking across the region to see which goals overall need much closer attention.

Many countries are evidently making good progress on poverty. This is encouraging, and hopefully many of the countries that are currently off track on poverty will be able to make up sufficient ground to hit the target by 2015. But it is notable that some of the countries that have had reasonable economic growth and are on target for poverty seem destined to miss other important goals related to education and health.

Clearly, growth in national income and reduction in poverty, though necessary, are not sufficient. It is also vital to ensure that more of the country's resources are targeted towards achieving the MDGs. It is just as important, however, to consider the way in which these resources are invested and how progress towards the MDGs is shaped by the character and strength of national institutions. The next chapter looks more closely therefore at institutional change and specifically at the changes needed for better delivery of public services.

Figure I.26. Regional disparities in under-5 children underweight, Bangladesh, India and Indonesia



Note: Average under-5 malnutrition rates and also the range of rates across districts in Bangladesh, states in India and provinces in Indonesia.

Appendix: Methodology

Data

The analysis in chapter 1 is based on the MDG indicator database maintained by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA). The DESA database is continuously evolving; the data used include updates until 31 March 2005.

The DESA database restricts the scope of analysis. First, it contains no data on indicator 18, HIV prevalence among pregnant women aged 15-24 years, for countries in the Asia-Pacific region. This indicator has therefore been replaced with “HIV prevalence, aged 15-49 years”.

Second, only one observation for each country is available for indicator 3, the share of the poorest quintile in national consumption, indicator 17, proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel, and the two series covering indicator 21, prevalence and death rates associated with malaria. Data for indicator 3 have been obtained from the World Bank’s World Development Indicators (WDI) database, as have data on the Gini coefficient, which is not part of the DESA database.

Third, for some countries only one observation is available for specific indicators that are included in the analysis. These countries have been dropped from the analysis of those indicators.

The results derived in chapter 1 should be interpreted with considerable circumspection. Data definitions and methods of data collection may have changed, and or differ by country. A comparison over time and across countries may therefore not be warranted for each indicator. The sharp fluctuations within just a few years of the proportion of the population below \$1 per day in the Lao People’s Democratic Republic and Pakistan, for example, are surprising, as are the findings on maternal mortality for a large number of countries.

Estimation procedures

From a data analysis point of view, the chapter analyses two basic types of indicators. Indicators on poverty, enrolment rates, gender equality, mortality rates and access to water and sanitation are expressed in explicit quantitative targets. For these indicators, a historical annual rate of change is estimated for each country, and compared with the rate of change required for the country to reach the target by 2015. The countries are then classified into four groups:

- Early achievers: countries that have already met the target in the year of the latest observation, so that the required rate of change equals zero
- On track: countries for which the (absolute) estimated rate of progress is larger than or equal to the (absolute) required rate of change
- Slow progress: countries for which the (absolute) estimated rate of progress is smaller than or equal to the (absolute) required rate of change
- Retrogressive: the sign of the estimated rate of progress is the opposite of the sign of the required rate of change

For the remaining indicators, there is no explicit quantitative target, so that no required rate of change can be calculated. The classification of countries is then based on the estimated rate of change alone:

- Early achievers: countries for which the rate of change is positive (negative in case the target is to reduce from the baseline value)
- On track: countries for which the rate of change equals zero
- Retrogressive: countries for which the rate of change is negative (positive in case the target is to reduce from the baseline value)

The historical rate of change is estimated by fitting a least-squares equation of the form:

$$\ln X_t = a + bt,$$

where X is the value of the indicator, t is time and a and b are the parameters to be estimated. The estimated rate of change r is then obtained as:

$$r = \exp(\hat{b}) - 1,$$

where \hat{b} is the estimate of b .

The regression equation is run twice: once on all the available data from 1990 onwards, and then on all the available observations from that year except the first. In case the signs of \hat{b} differ, the value generated by the second run is used to calculate r . The reason for the dual run is that the first observation is often an outlier, reversing the sign of the rate of change of recent years.

For countries not classified as early achievers, the required rate of change r^* is calculated as:

$$r^* = \left(\frac{X^*}{X_T} \right)^{1/(2015-T)} - 1,$$

where X^* is the target value and T is the year of the last observation. For early achievers $r^* = 0$.