

# Chapter 1

## ASEAN and ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community: Progress and Challenges

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# Chapter 1

## ASEAN and ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community: Progress and Challenges

### I. Introduction

The ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community (ASCC) provides the broader and deeper context of, as well as a critical complement to, the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), arguably the most visible and popular pillar of the ASEAN Community. At base, the AEC's drive towards an integrated, highly cohesive, competitive, innovative, dynamic, inclusive, and global ASEAN regional economy (ASEAN, 2014a, p.3) aims towards the development of vibrant, open, socially cohesive, and caring ASEAN societies '...where hunger, malnutrition, deprivation and poverty are no longer basic problems...' (ASEAN, 1997, p.5). In addition, the regional integration and economic development process needs to be undertaken '...in line with the aspiration of (ASEAN) peoples, which put emphasis on sustainable and equitable growth, and enhance national as well as regional resilience' (ibid, p.3) and in the context of '...an ASEAN community conscious of its ties of history, aware of its cultural heritage and bound by a common regional identity' (ibid) as well as in support of '...a truly people-oriented, people-centred and rules-based ASEAN' (ASEAN, 2013a, p.1).

The ASCC brings people at the heart of its regional community building, bringing a human face to the regional integration efforts. And as ASEAN post-2015 aims for a 'people-oriented, people-centred community', the ASSC becomes an even more important pillar of the ASEAN Community. The ASCC's drive towards a community that 'engages and benefits the people and is inclusive, sustainable, resilient, dynamic' (ASEAN, 2014a, p.4) is as important and compelling as the AEC's drive towards an '...integrated, highly

cohesive, competitive, innovative, dynamic...inclusive...and global ASEAN' (ibid, p.3).<sup>1</sup>

This report frames the ASCC post-2015 focusing on its three most important characteristics:

- (1) inclusive and caring ASEAN society,
- (2) resiliency and sustainability in ASEAN, and
- (3) a deep sense of shared ASEAN identity and destiny facilitated in part by a participative and responsive ASEAN.

Achieving these three characteristics would involve strategies, policies and/or programmes, and initiatives that constitute the corresponding three pillars<sup>2</sup> of engendering<sup>3</sup> inclusiveness, resiliency and sustainability, and shared ASEAN identity.

To wit:

- In the report, the **drive toward inclusiveness in ASEAN** draws on three critical components. They are: (a) robust growth with equity, with emphasis on the role of agricultural and rural development, small and medium enterprise (SME) development, and geographic connectivity of the periphery to the growth centres; (b) ensuring virtually universal access to (good) basic education and basic healthcare, including strengthening regional cooperation and coordination to regional and subregional health concerns, as important foundations of social mobility and human capital; and (c) improved social assistance and protection of the more vulnerable groups in society, with emphasis on social insurance, regulatory regimes for migrant workers, and emergency assistance during disasters. In the drive towards

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<sup>1</sup> There are three communities in the ASEAN Community, the third one being the ASEAN Political-Security Community (APSC), and the three need to work synergistically. Nonetheless, the APSC tends to be foundational relative to the AEC and the ASCC (for example, peace is an essential condition for the AEC and the ASCC to work). Thus, it is the deep synergy of the AEC and the ASCC that is of importance towards a well-performing ASEAN Community that engages and benefits its peoples.

<sup>2</sup> Pillars is used to reflect its critical importance in the building of or achieving the ASEAN Socio-cultural Community (ASCC). In ASEAN Community jargon, the term 'pillars' have been commonly used in the AEC, while the term 'characteristics' has been mainly used in the ASCC.

<sup>3</sup> 'Engender' is used here in its usual meaning of 'to cause or bring about' (a feeling, situation, or condition). It does not refer to another nuance of the term, which is to highlight the gender (primarily women) dimension.

inclusiveness, the report also emphasises the importance of developing ASEAN member states investing more on improved, detailed, and up-to-date data and information, as well as analysis, on poverty, inequality, and vulnerability nationally and subnationally in each member state. Although removed from direct equity-oriented interventions, inclusive growth is also furthered by a facilitative industrial relations environment that smoothens the impact of industrial adjustments on workers and that facilitates and promotes worker training and upgrading, while at the same time facilitating smoother firm and industry adjustments to the changing market and technological environments.

It is apparent from the discussion above that both the AEC and the ASCC, with support from the APSC, especially with respect to preventing human trafficking and responding to natural disasters, play critical complementary and interacting roles in the drive towards an inclusive ASEAN. Only a holistic strategy involving both economic and socio-cultural dimensions can ensure success in the drive towards greater inclusiveness in ASEAN.

- ***Engendering resiliency and sustainable development*** is increasingly the area of high policy concern for ASEAN. ASEAN is one of the more disaster-prone regions in the world. Climate change does not only aggravate the frequency, periodicity, and intensity of natural disasters such as stronger typhoons but also threatens food security in the region and globally. The poor are more vulnerable to sharper rises in food prices and to more frequent and more serious natural disasters. Towards engendering greater resiliency, this report focuses on strengthening ex ante disaster risk reduction and ex post disaster response. Of special interest is the issue of financing disaster response and recovery, particularly the role of insurance versus contingency funds. In addition, the report emphasises that addressing the challenge of food security in the future of increasingly variable weather induced by climate change is a shared province of both the AEC and the ASCC in order to comprehensively address issues of availability, accessibility, utility, and stability of food.

Green growth and sustainable development are a huge challenge for ASEAN. Many ASEAN member states are still in the rising portion of the 'Kuznets'

inverted U curve<sup>4</sup> wherein there remains rising per unit of environmental degradation as per capita national income increases. The challenge is to reduce the negative impact on the environment – and climate change – of the expected robust growth of the ASEAN economies, and thereby ensure a more sustainable development path for ASEAN countries and the region. In addressing sustainable development, the report looks more closely at strengthening natural resources management (NRM) in the region, empowering communities and countries to engage in biodiversity conservation and sustainable use at the national and ASEAN levels, engendering liveable and low carbon cities in ASEAN, promoting clean energy in the region, promoting deeper appreciation of the connectivity of hills to seas ecosystems, and strengthening efforts to address the trans-boundary haze problem in ASEAN.

- ***Engendering a deep sense of shared ASEAN identity and destiny*** in a region of cultural diversity and rising nationalism is an enduring challenge for ASEAN. There is one fundamental difference between ASEAN and the European Union, the regional group that is frequently used as reference point for ASEAN. That is, the fundamental impulse for the European Union is political, rooted in the efforts of France and Germany to prevent another war in Western Europe, a region of intense interchanges across a wide range of areas over centuries. In contrast, the most important impulses for ASEAN are diplomatic and economic even if ASEAN has its roots in anti-communist initiatives in the latter 1960s. With ASEAN member states of wide levels of economic development and of varied colonial histories and ties, there has been far less appreciation of the shared cultures and interaction in the region except primarily amongst communities in the border areas. As such an ingrained sense of an ASEAN identity in the socio-cultural sense is lacking.

Arguably, at present, an ASEAN identity is largely institutional rather than socio-cultural, exemplified by all the ASEAN meetings and summits,

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<sup>4</sup> Known in the academic literature as the Environmental Kuznets Curve (EKC) hypothesis, wherein at the early stages of economic development environmental degradation is expected to rise as per capita increases until a certain level of (per capita) income is reached, after which there would be environmental improvement or reduced pollution. This inverted U curve is named after Simon Kuznets who hypothesised initially rising income inequality and, after reaching a threshold, declining income inequality as per capita income rises.

agreements, and blueprints. Thus, **engendering a deep sense of an ASEAN identity in a socio-cultural sense entails continuing purposeful initiatives.** The report focuses on a deeper understanding of the shared cultures, histories, and geographies in the region, people-to-people connectivity, and initiatives that engender a greater sense of ownership and participation amongst ASEAN peoples of the 'institutional' ASEAN.

The rest of **Chapter 1** presents the progress and challenges of ASEAN socio-cultural development and the implementation of the ASCC Blueprint, the latter based on the results of the mid-term review of the blueprint. On key outcomes, the chapter focuses on poverty, inequality, and vulnerability indicators and the related Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) indicators given that the '... MDGs mirror ASEAN's commitment to building a caring and sharing Community by 2015' (ASEAN, 2012a, p.1). The chapter also highlights key challenges facing ASEAN in the social development, resiliency, and sustainable development arenas.

**Chapter 2** presents the vision, indicative outcomes, and proposed framework in framing the ASCC post-2015. The vision has already been well articulated in the 1997 ASEAN Vision 2020 and the central elements of the ASEAN Community's Post-2015 Vision embodied in the Nay Pyi Taw Declaration of 12 November 2014. The chapter proposes some key indicative outcomes for 2025–2030, taking into consideration the United Nations (UN) Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and targets that are currently being proposed and negotiated for the UN post-2015 development agenda. More importantly, the chapter elaborates on the proposed framework of moving ASCC forward post-2015. Engendering the three characteristics discussed earlier constitutes the proposed framework in the report. It must be emphasised that there may be other characteristics of the ASCC moving forward post-2015. Nonetheless, the report focuses on the most important elements of engendering inclusiveness, resiliency, sustainability, and unity in diversity in building a people-centred, inclusive, resilient, and sustainable ASCC post-2015.

**Chapter 3, 4, and 5** discuss in detail the major components of engendering inclusiveness (Chapter 3), resiliency and sustainability (Chapter 4), and a deep sense of shared ASEAN identity and destiny (Chapter 5). Each

chapter contains specific recommendations on strategies, policies and/or programmes, and initiatives arising from the discussion of the major components of the three pillars. It is hoped that, given the proposed framework and the recommended specific policies and initiatives, the next ASCC blueprint – the ASCC Blueprint (2016–2025) – would be a **transformative ASCC Blueprint**.

**Chapter 6** concludes with a summary of the framework and recommendations.

## II. ASEAN Socio-Economy and Millennium Development

### Goals: Progress and Challenges

ASEAN member states have experienced marked socio-economic progress during the past two-and-a-half decades. Extreme poverty has dramatically declined in a number of member states. Correspondingly, the size of the middle class has expanded remarkably. Other social indicators such as those on health and education show substantial improvements also. Despite such remarkable progress, there is much more to be done. Tens of millions, if not one hundred or two hundred million depending on how dire poverty is estimated, remain in dire poverty. Public health scourges like malaria and tuberculosis are still a significant presence in some member states. Millions are still deprived of full primary education and survival rates are substantially below 100 percent. Hunger, as reflected in malnutrition, remains a problem in a significant share of the population. Similarly, a large percentage of the population in a number of member states are vulnerable to sliding into poverty or deeper into poverty from significant food price hikes, as the 2007–2008 global food price surge shows. A number of member states are also vulnerable to natural disasters, which also tend to disproportionately adversely affect the poor and the near poor or low-income populace. Pollution and resource degradation are also increasingly serious problems in a number of ASEAN countries. Thus, much more is to be done to fully realise human development, resiliency, and sustainable development in ASEAN.

### Poverty and Inequality

**Figure 1.1** shows the evolution of the distribution of population by income class in the past two-and-a-half decades in seven member states, excluding Brunei Darussalam, Singapore, and Myanmar.<sup>5</sup> The figure shows the shares for ‘extreme poverty (1)’ using the international poverty line of \$1.25 purchasing power parity (PPP) per day per capita, ‘extreme poverty (2)’ using the \$1.51 PPP per day per capita recommended by the Asian

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<sup>5</sup> Brunei Darussalam and Singapore are excluded because they are high-income countries while Myanmar is not included because of lack of comparable data.



Development Bank (ADB) as more relevant for developing Asia, 'poor' using the increasingly popular \$2 PPP per day per capita poverty line. In addition to the three indicators of poverty mentioned above, Figure 1.1 shows the percentage share of 'low income', 'middle class', and 'high income'. Note that the three indicators of poverty above are NOT the official measures of poverty incidence; they are used primarily for international comparison. Figure 1.1 shows that the incidence of extreme poverty declined markedly in the seven ASEAN member states from the early 1990s to the early 2010s, most especially in Viet Nam and Cambodia. Viet Nam's (extreme) poverty rate declined from about three-fifths to nearly three-fourths in the early 1990s to less than 5 percent by 2012. Viet Nam's national poverty line was raised recently with the resulting much higher poverty incidence; this is discussed below.

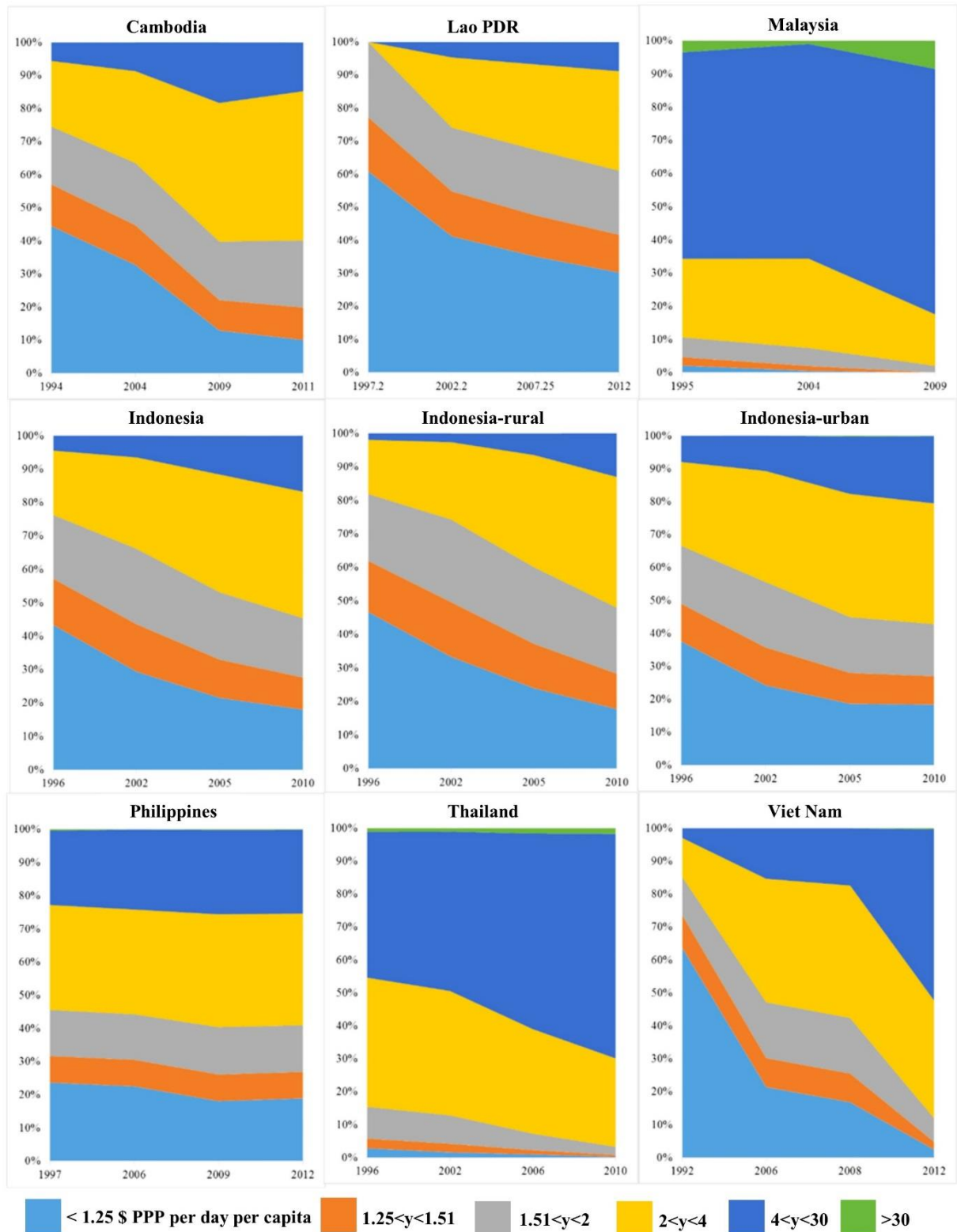
The official measures of poverty incidence are given in **Table 1.1** based on national poverty lines which vary substantially amongst ASEAN member states and which can also change significantly over time within a country.<sup>6</sup> **Table 1.2** presents measures of the poverty gap, that is, how far the average income/consumption of the poor is from the poverty line, and of income or consumption inequality as reflected in the Gini ratio.<sup>7</sup> The evolution of the two measures helps explain the performance of ASEAN member states in poverty reduction over time, as the discussion below shows.

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<sup>6</sup> The national poverty lines in 2005 PPP per day per capita range from \$1.29 at 2005 PPP for Viet Nam to \$3.02 at 2005 PPP for Malaysia (ADB, 2014a, Table 2.1, p.8). Viet Nam's national poverty line has recently been raised upwards to around \$1.72 at 2005 PPP per day per capita for urban areas and \$1.38 per day per capita (World Bank, 2013a).

<sup>7</sup> The Gini ratio is a popularly used measure of (income or wealth) inequality. The value ranges from 0 (perfect equality) to 1 (or 100 if put in percentage terms) which indicates perfect inequality. Generally, a Gini ratio of less than 0.40 (but especially in the high 0.20s or low 0.30s) would be considered relatively equal; values in the 0.40s (especially high 0.40s as relatively inequitable; while values of 0.50 and up are particularly worrisome.

**Figure 1.1. The Trend of Population Distribution by ‘Income Class’  
in Seven ASEAN Member States**



Source: World Bank, PovcalNet. <http://iresearch.worldbank.org/PovcalNet/index.htm> (accessed 3 February 2015).

**Table 1.1. Poverty Headcount Ratio at National Poverty Lines (% of population)**

Country	1992	1997	2004	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Cambodia	..	..	50.2	45	34	23.9	22.1	20.5	17.7	..	..
Indonesia	..	17.6 (1996)	16.7	16.6	15.4	14.2	13.3	12.5	12	11.4	11.3
Lao PDR	46	39.1	33.5 (2002)	27.6	..	..	..	..	23.2	..	..
Malaysia	12.4	6.1	5.7	3.6	..	3.8	..	..	1.7	..	..
Myanmar			32.1 (2005)				25.6				
Philippines	..	..	24.9 (2003)	26.6 (2006)	..	26.3	..	..	25.2	..	..
Thailand	50.1	35.3 (1996)	26.9	20.9	20.5	19.1	16.9	13.2	..	..	..
Viet Nam	..	..	..	..	..	..	20.7	..	17.2	..	..

Note: .. = no data.

Sources: World Bank, Global Poverty Working Group. Data are compiled from official government sources or are computed by World Bank staff using national (i.e. country-specific) poverty lines. For Myanmar, the source is Asian Development Bank, Interim Country Partnership Strategy: Myanmar, 2012–2014.

**Table 1.2. Poverty Gap and Gini Index in Selected ASEAN Member States****Poverty gap (%)**

Income class	USD per day per capita	Cambodia				Indonesia				Indonesia-rural				Indonesia-urban			
		1994	2004	2009	2011	1996	2002	2005	2010	1996	2002	2005	2010	1996	2002	2005	2010
Extreme Poverty (1)	<1.25	11.95	7.79	2.08	1.43	11.44	6.04	4.59	3.28	11.9	6.76	5.03	2.93	10.65	5.12	4.06	3.63
Extreme Poverty (2)	<1.51	18.26	12.8	4.56	3.59	17.74	10.93	8.25	6.43	18.79	12.39	9.16	6.17	15.93	9.05	7.17	6.7
Poor	1.25<y<2	18.27	15.3	8.73	8.4	18.59	15.84	12.29	10.59	20.29	18.02	13.95	11.15	15.69	13.01	10.36	10.03

Income class	USD per day per capita	Lao PDR			Malaysia			Philippines			Thailand			Viet Nam			
		1997.2	2007.25	2012	1995	2004	2009	1997	2009	2012	1996	2006	2010	1992	2006	2008	2012
Extreme Poverty (1)	<1.25	14.03	9.15	7.66	0.26	0.06	0	6.08	3.62	4.02	0.48	0.18	0.04	23.58	5.3	3.74	0.55
Extreme Poverty (2)	<1.51	20.5	14.36	12.15	0.76	0.24	0	9.57	6.61	7.07	1.08	0.4	0.11	30.91	8.45	6.3	1.03
Poor	1.25<y<2	18.66	15.94	14.22	2.18	1.23	0.13	10.68	9.58	9.69	2.87	1.22	0.49	19.4	10.6	9.37	2.23

**Gini Index**

Country	1994	2004	2009	2012
Cambodia	38.28	35.53	34.67	31.82 ('11)
Indonesia	29.19 ('93)	34.01 ('05)	35.57 ('10)	n.d.
Indonesia-rural	25.97 ('93)	n.d.	31.45	34.02
Indonesia-urban	35.34 ('93)	39.93 ('05)	38.13	42.15
Lao PDR	30.43 ('92)	32.47 ('02)	35.46 ('07)	36.22
Malaysia	47.65 ('92)	37.91	46.21	n.d.
Philippines	42.89	44.04 ('06)	42.98	43.03
Singapore	n.d.	46.0	47.1	46.3 ('13)
Thailand	43.47	42.35 ('06)	39.37 ('10)	n.d.
Viet Nam	35.68 ('92)	35.81	39.25 '10)	35.62

Notes : n.d. = no data. All data is based on consumption expenditure, except for Malaysia, which is based on income.

Sources : World Bank, PovecalNet. <http://iresearch.worldbank.org/PovcalNet/index.htm> (accessed 3 February 2015) and communication from the Government of Singapore.

The decline of extreme poverty in Viet Nam resulted from a consistently marked reduction in poverty incidence in the 1990s and the 2000s. High per capita growth rate combined with a stable and equitable distribution of income/consumption (**Table 1.2**) explain the poverty reduction performance. Robust growth in agriculture (and fishery) and labour-intensive manufacturing as well as more geographically dispersed economic growth centres (for example, Ha Noi in northern Viet Nam, Da Nang in central Viet Nam, and Ho Chi Minh in southern Viet Nam) likely contributed to the equitable and robust economic growth. It is also important to note that Viet Nam scores well in basic education (especially the percentage of grade 1 pupils who reach the last grade of primary school) and health welfare indicators that come close to those of the upper middle and rich ASEAN member states during the past-two-and-a-half decades, as will be discussed below. Viet Nam's long-standing investment on basic education and on basic health welfare is an important foundation of its equitable and inclusive robust economic growth over the past two-and-a-half decades.

Cambodia's performance, especially during the 2000s, shows that the incidence of extreme poverty more than halved in less than a decade (**Figure 1.1** and **Table 1.1**). A high economic growth rate, fuelled by a surge in foreign direct investment per capita, coupled with equitable growth (that is, secular decline in inequality as reflected in the Gini ratio of consumption expenditures) at the same time there was a very low poverty gap (**Table 1.2**) in a country of only about 15 million explains the impressive performance in poverty reduction by Cambodia in the past decade. Robust growth in agriculture, a surge in labour-intensive manufacturing, especially garments, a tourism and construction boom, and continuing robust employment opportunities in higher paying Thailand have meant a marked tightening of Cambodia's labour market and a substantial rise in wages, and therefore of incomes, especially those of the poor. It is also worth highlighting that the 2000s also saw a very sharp expansion in access to education (albeit with the likelihood of lower quality as indicated by the substantial rise in pupil-to-teacher ratio) and health services, which have likely contributed to the remarkable inclusive growth economic story in the country. Cambodia, as one of the most open economies in ASEAN, has demonstrated that economic

openness, a less rigid labour market, and investments in human capital and health as well as infrastructure can go a long way in markedly reducing poverty in a developing country.

The Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR) also recorded a significant decline in poverty in the 2000s (**Figure 1.1 and Table 1.1**). It had the highest average growth of per capita gross domestic product (GDP) amongst all ASEAN member states during the latter 2000s, taking that distinction from Cambodia, which had the highest average growth in the first half of 2000s.<sup>8</sup> Despite higher average economic growth rate in the latter 2000s, the Lao PDR experienced a relatively slow reduction in the poverty gap (**Table 1.2**) during the period, likely due in part to the increase in income inequality during the period. A key reason for the poverty reduction performance of the Lao PDR, despite its economic growth performance, is that the nature of its economic growth relies more on the capital-intensive energy and mining sectors.<sup>9</sup> Thus, despite having a much smaller population of less than 7 million people and having most of the country's poor being in the Mekong corridor rather than the sparsely populated south central midlands and highlands (Epprecht, et.al., 2008, p.80), the impact on employment and wage pressures of the high economic growth rate in the Lao PDR – and the concomitant poverty reduction – was low. Given the mountainous topography of the country, agro-ecological factors and access to market are important determinants of rural poverty; however, connectivity within the country is challenging.

Indonesia's significant declines in (extreme) poverty incidence occurred during the 'golden decade' of the latter 1980s and early 1990s when the country experienced very high economic growth. During that period, the decline in urban poverty incidence was nearly of equal magnitude as the decline in rural poverty incidence, which suggests a relatively balanced and

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<sup>8</sup> Using official estimates, Myanmar had the highest average growth rate of gross domestic product (GDP) among ASEAN member states during the 2000s. However, it is widely considered that the official data at that time was overblown and not credible. Recent studies provide substantially lower GDP figures using alternative estimates. Precisely because of the poor quality of data and estimates, Myanmar's President U Sein Thein made improvement of statistical system and information as one of the government's priority programmes.

<sup>9</sup> Although the services, manufacturing (especially in Savannakhet), and tourism sectors have been growing in recent years.

equitable high economic growth. Indonesia also experienced a significant decline in poverty incidence during 1996–2002, which includes the devastating 1997–1998 (East) Asian financial crisis that hit the country. Moreover, the degree of decline in urban poverty was almost the same as the decline in rural poverty during 1996–2002.

The pace of reduction of overall (extreme) poverty slowed in 2002–2010 as the pace of poverty reduction diverged significantly between rural poverty and urban poverty. Specifically, the incidence of (extreme) rural poverty was nearly halved during the period, while (extreme) urban poverty rate stagnated during 2005–2010 after some reduction during 2002–2005. Two factors for this divergence in poverty reduction performance are worth mentioning. The first is the export commodity boom of the 2000s, which naturally benefited the rural sector more. The other factor was the new labour law in the early 2000s that markedly increased labour rigidity in the country. The result is a marked reduction in the ‘employment elasticity’ of manufacturing output (that is, number of workers per million of manufacturing output) as the manufacturing sector shifted from the labour-intensive sectors like textile and garments towards the more capital-intensive and skilled labour-intensive manufacturing sectors like chemicals and machineries. Indeed, there were even concerns of ‘jobless growth’ in the manufacturing sector in Indonesia during the period. It is likely that this pattern of Indonesia’s economic growth during the past decade helps explain the rise in inequality in the country during the period that tempered the poverty reduction impact of the country’s robust economic growth (**Table 1.2**).

The Philippines poverty reduction performance in the past two-and-a-half decades is indicated in **Figure 1.1** and **Table 1.1**. After some significant reduction from 1991 to 1997, the incidence of (extreme) poverty registered a very slow decline over the next one-and-a-half decades, and appeared to have marginally inched up in 2010–2012. Comparatively much lower growth of average per capita gross national product (GNP), together with comparatively inequitable distribution of income/consumption over much of the period (**Table 1.2**), explains the Philippines’ performance on poverty reduction. The reasons for the poor growth performance during much of the

latter 1990s into the 2000s are many and complex. It is worth highlighting that the failure of the country to provide remunerable employment to the less educated (given the poor growth in agriculture and low-skilled-labour-intensive-manufactures) and the reliance on skilled labour-intensive manufactures (for example, semiconductors) and services (business process outsourcing) have meant that the poverty reduction impact of the country's economic growth is substantially less. The country's human capital appears to be increasingly inequitable given the low survival rates in primary education compared to most ASEAN member states. It may be noted that the country's leadership is concerned with the need for more inclusive growth. The resurgence of the country's manufacturing sector and the significant increase in the number of newly employed during the past 2 years are giving government officials greater hope that the country's surge in economic growth would end with a significant decline in (extreme) poverty.

Malaysia and Thailand have joined Brunei Darussalam and Singapore where extreme poverty is largely non-existent and are societies consisting largely of middle-class and upper-income households (**Figure 1.1**). Thailand's income/consumption inequality is also declining secularly. Malaysia's income inequality appears to be the highest amongst the ASEAN member states, together with Singapore, drawing from **Table 1.2**. However, this is likely overstated since Malaysia's Gini ratio (as well as Singapore's) is based on income while those of the other member states are based on consumption which tend to be lower than income-based Gini ratios.<sup>10</sup> It is likely that Malaysia has a relatively more inequitable income/consumption society compared to a number of member states. Moreover, there is no indication of a secular decline in income inequality. This suggests that addressing income inequality remains an important concern for the country, perhaps increasingly in the context of intra-ethnic income inequality as Roslan (n.d.) stated, and as such may call for a broader equity-oriented economic and social policy in the country.<sup>11</sup> In Singapore, income inequality amongst

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<sup>10</sup> This is because consumption expenditures include household smoothing decisions financed by dissaving (saving) or borrowing (repayment).

<sup>11</sup> Arguably, the country's *bumiputera* policy is meant to engender a more equitable society, albeit racially-based. The country's continuing challenge is the translation of the equity bias of the *bumiputera* policy into a broader, non-racial, equity-oriented, spatially attuned (for example, Peninsular Malaysia and Eastern Malaysia) but robust economic



Singapore citizens and permanent residents has been rising since 2000. The government is increasingly concerned about this; the government's decision to give higher priority to Singapore residents in private sector hiring versus foreign workers is reflective of this greater concern on Singapore's state of income inequality.

Myanmar is not included in **Figure 1.1** and **Table 1.2** because of the lack of comparable data. Based on the national poverty line, the poverty incidence of Myanmar declined from 32.1 percent in 2005 to 25.6 percent in 2010 (**Table 1.1**). Food poverty incidence (that is, based on the poverty line that accommodates the cost of food only) declined from 47 percent of population in 1990 to about 5 percent in 2010 (ADB, 2012a). Myanmar's overall poverty incidence appears to be similar to those of Cambodia and the Lao PDR based on the national poverty lines. However, the national poverty lines differ amongst ASEAN member states (for example, the national poverty line of the Lao PDR is significantly lower than those for Cambodia and the Philippines [ADB, 2014a, p.8], and therefore are not completely comparable. Schmitt-Degenhart (2013) reports that Myanmar's incidence of extreme poverty at \$1.25 PPP is about 1.7 percent in 2010,<sup>12</sup> which, if correct, would make the supposedly 'poor country' an even better performer than Viet Nam and Cambodia, let alone Indonesia and the Philippines. Schmitt-Degenhart (2013, p.5) also states that Myanmar's poverty gap is low and its Gini coefficient, being one of the lowest in the world, is reflective of traditional or agrarian societies. This implies that robust growth in the economy would lift most of the poor relatively easily, and thereby reduce poverty markedly.

While it may be true that Myanmar has low inequality, the dynamics of economic growth in the early stages away from an agrarian society is that

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growth. Roslan (n.d.) stated that the success of the New Economic Policy in minimising the inter-ethnic gap between 1970 up to the early 1990s has been accompanied by rising income inequality within the Malay community during the 1990s. It is noteworthy that the Gini ratios for Malays, Chinese, and Indians in the 1990s in Roslan's paper were all in the low 40s. This suggests that income inequality in Malaysia is concerning in all three major races in the country; as such, a broader equity-oriented economic and social policy may be warranted.

<sup>12</sup> Schmitt-Degenhart's paper did not state whether the 1.7 percent estimate pertains to 2005 or to 2010. Nonetheless, it likely pertains to 2010 since much of the paper focuses on the results of the (Myanmar) Integrated Household Living Conditions Survey of 2010.

there tends to be some inevitable widening of income inequality – that is, the ‘Kuznets inverted U curve’ – between the degree of income inequality on the vertical axis and the per capita income on the horizontal axis. This is because not everyone and everywhere benefit from the growth surge from industrialisation in the early stages. Moreover, there is at present significant regional variation in poverty incidence, ranging from 2–16 percent in urban/rural Kayah to 52–80 percent in urban/rural Chin (ERIA, 2013, pp. 242–245). Equally important, the four regions with the highest incidence of poverty are border states (Chin, Rakhine, Shan East, and Shan West), which have unsettled conditions and ethnic tensions. Thus, the concern for inclusive growth in Myanmar has a significant implication for peace in the country, and it is for this reason that border development is an important component of Myanmar’s long-term development strategy (see for example, Myanmar Comprehensive Development Vision [ERIA, 2013]).

In summary, many ASEAN member states have seen a marked reduction in poverty incidence during the past two-and-a-half decades. Indeed, Cambodia, Indonesia, and Viet Nam have more than met the MDG goal of halving the percentage of people in extreme poverty (at \$1.25 at 2005 PPP per day per capita) by 2015; while Malaysia, Thailand, Brunei Darussalam, and Singapore have virtually no people in extreme poverty. In addition, apart from the near-zero poverty gap in Malaysia and Thailand, the poverty gap in Viet Nam, Cambodia, and to a lesser extent Indonesia has declined substantially to very low levels so much so that continued robust growth would bring virtually all the people out of extreme poverty. It is not possible to have a comparable analysis for Myanmar because of the lack of data; nonetheless, if the change in the food poverty index is similar to the change in extreme poverty in the country, then Myanmar has also met the MDG goal of halving the incidence of extreme poverty because the country’s food poverty index declined from about 45 percent in 1990 to less than 5 percent in 2010 (ADB, 2012a). As the tables and the discussion above indicate, the Philippines and, to a less extent, the Lao PDR have been less successful in meeting the MDG goal on reducing extreme poverty.

There remain significant challenges for ASEAN on poverty reduction. Despite the success in the reduction in extreme poverty over the past two-

and-a-half decades, the number of people in extreme poverty is still substantial in ASEAN: about **68 million and 103 million (excluding Myanmar) living below \$1.25 PPP and \$1.51 PPP at 2005 prices per day per capita, respectively, during 2010–2012**. More than three-fifths of ASEAN's extreme poor are in Indonesia and about a quarter of them live in the Philippines. Indeed, about nine-tenths of the extreme poor in the region (excluding Myanmar) live in Indonesia and the Philippines. Thus, the greatest burden of eliminating extreme poverty in ASEAN lies primarily on Indonesia and the Philippines (and possibly on Myanmar).

In addition, the national poverty lines in ASEAN member states are largely higher than the \$1.25 and \$1.51 extreme poverty lines. As **Table 1.1** indicates, the poverty incidence based on the national poverty lines remains substantial. As such, poverty elimination remains an important policy and development concern for most ASEAN countries. It should be noted that the numbers in **Figure 1.1 and Tables 1.1 and 1.2** are national averages and there is a wide divergence in the poverty incidence and poverty gaps at the national levels.

Thus, for example, the rate of poverty incidence amongst Indonesian provinces in 2012–2013 ranges from 3.7 percent in DKI Jakarta to 31.5 percent in Papua Barat; similarly, the Gini ratio ranges from 0.31 in Sulawesi Barat to 0.44 in Papua (Sumarto and de Silva, 2014, p.34). This brings out the importance of effective targeting in poverty reduction strategies, discussed further in **Chapter 3**. The importance of effective targeting becomes even more compelling when the multidimensionality of poverty is considered, which brings out the relevance of the MDGs. In addition, when food price volatility and natural disasters are taken into consideration (because the income poor are more vulnerable to both), then the number of poor and the people most vulnerable to sliding into poverty increases markedly. The issues of multidimensional poverty, the MDGs, and vulnerability are discussed below. Finally, mixed performances on inequality amongst ASEAN member states, and even within some member states, suggest that engendering growth that is both robust and inclusive remains an important challenge, most especially for the Philippines, Malaysia, Indonesia, and even Singapore.

## Multidimensional Poverty, MDGs, and Vulnerability

Poverty is a multidimensional phenomenon; conversely, human development is a multidimensional phenomenon. This is the fundamental anchor of the Human Development Index and the MDGs. Equally important, there is no one-to-one correspondence between income poverty and multidimensional poverty, and as such income-based poverty measures such as the \$1.25 at 2005 PPP do not capture all the complexities of poverty. Behind the insufficiency of income poverty measures includes the fact that markets do not function well for needs such as education or access to clean water, that households differ in their capacity to transform income into functioning and capabilities, and perhaps more important, ‘...poor people describe their state of deprivation with a wide range of dimensions, from health, nutrition, lack of adequate sanitation and water, social exclusion, low education, violence, shame and disempowerment’ (Alkire and Santos, 2013, p.250). Interestingly, based on the Indonesian case, there is significant **non-overlap** between those who are poor as measured by consumption and those populations that are considered to be multidimensionally poor. In the Indonesian case, there are more than twice the number of poor people who are multidimensionally non-poor than those who are both income/consumption poor and multidimensionally poor. Similarly, there are three times more multidimensionally poor who are income/consumption non-poor than there are multidimensionally poor who are also income/consumption poor (Sumarto and de Silva, 2014, p.40).

The dimensions of poverty of interest differ amongst countries. Nonetheless, indicators of deprivation in basic education, nutrition, as well as child and maternal health, access to improved sanitation, water, and electricity, and standards of living such as quality of housing, are common dimensions used in the measures of multidimensional poverty. Most of the above are also included in the MDGs with clear targets by 2015. In measuring the progress on multidimensional poverty, it is ideal that the various indicators of multidimensional poverty are examined at the household level similar to the Indonesian case. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has developed and published the **Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI)** for a number of ASEAN member states using recent data; this is

discussed further in Chapter 2. This is similar to the Sumarto and de Silva paper but it does not allow the determination of income poor (or non-poor) in tandem with the multidimensionally poor (or non-poor) as in Sumarto and de Silva. Given that, the performance of ASEAN member states on the relevant MDG indicators indicates the progress of member states with respect to multidimensional poverty.

The Indonesia study (Sumarto and de Silva, 2014) shows that multidimensional poverty in Indonesia has substantially improved from 2004 to 2013. The greatest improvements are in school enrolment, housing quality, and access to electricity. There is wide variation amongst the provinces in the country, however. Thus, for example, while there has been a marked reduction in the school enrolment deprivation from around 8.3 percent in 2004 to 3.7 percent in 2013, the net enrolment rates for senior secondary school in 2012 ranged from about 45 percent in Papua to more than 85 percent in Bali. Similarly, the deprivation of skilled birth attendance substantially reduced from 14.9 percent in 2004 to 8 percent in 2013, births assisted by skilled birth attendants in 2012 ranged from 40 percent in Papua to almost 100 percent in Bali. Nonetheless, despite the wide regional variation, 2004–2013 saw a narrowing of the gap amongst regions because the regions with initially higher levels of multidimensional poverty experienced greater absolute reductions during this period (Sumarto and de Silva, 2014).

**Millennium Development Goals.** There are indications that multidimensional poverty has been declining in most of ASEAN during the past two decades based on the member states' performance on MDGs. **Table 1.3** and **Appendix 1.A** present the evaluation of the ADB report (2014a) on MDG performance. The following are the key findings (ADB, 2014a):

- All ASEAN member states, except the Philippines, are on track to achieving the MDG goal of halving the \$1.25 PPP at 2005 prices per day between 1990 and 2015.
- Although all ASEAN member states registered improvements, only Malaysia, Thailand, and Viet Nam are on track to meeting the MDG goal of halving hunger by 2015, as reflected in the percentage of underweight

children under 5 years of age (**Table 1.4**). (Brunei Darussalam and Singapore not covered.) At the same time, it is worth noting that there has been a dramatic reduction in the percentage of the population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption, especially in Viet Nam, Thailand, Cambodia, and Indonesia. There is slower progress in the Lao PDR and the Philippines. Note that in Brunei Darussalam, virtually nobody falls below the minimum level of dietary energy consumption by 2012 (no data for Myanmar and Singapore).

- All ASEAN member states, except the Philippines, are early achievers in meeting the 95 percent cut-off target for net enrolment rate in primary school by 2015. The rise in the net enrolment rate for Cambodia and especially for the Lao PDR is remarkable. Lao PDR's net enrolment rate in primary school rose from 65 percent in 1990 to 96 percent in 2012, while that of Cambodia rose from 83 percent in 1990 to 98 percent in 2012. The Philippines net enrolment rate declined from 98 percent in 1990 to 89 percent in 2012. Although continued high extreme poverty may be a factor for this apparent retrogression, it is also possible that the retrogression is 'artificial' as the primary school age group starting at 6-years-old appears to be too early (as against the more usual 7 years old) for some Filipino families to send their children to primary school, if the results of analysis of net enrolment rates for 2007 by Maligalig and Cuevas (2010) are an indication where most of the 6 year olds not yet in school were still in preschool. The other possible explanation is that the 89 percent in 2012 is correct (based on cleaned-up school-based data) but the 98 percent figure in 1990 overstated the true situation at that time.

**Table 1.3. MDGs Performance in ASEAN Member States**

MDG targets and indicators	On track	Off track–slow
<b>Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger</b>		
Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than \$1.25 PPP a day.	Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Thailand, Viet Nam <sup>1/</sup>	Philippines

MDG targets and indicators	On track	Off track–slow
Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.	Malaysia, Thailand, Viet Nam <sup>2/</sup>	Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Philippines, Myanmar
<b>Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education</b>		
100 percent total net enrolment ratio in primary education (both sexes)	Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand, Viet Nam	Philippines
100 percent proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach the last grade of primary school	Brunei Darussalam, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand, Viet Nam	Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Philippines
<b>Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women</b>		
Eliminate gender disparity in primary education, preferably by 2005.	Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Viet Nam	Malaysia
Eliminate gender disparity in secondary education, preferably by 2005.	Brunei Darussalam, Indonesia, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Viet Nam	Cambodia, Lao PDR
Eliminate gender disparity in tertiary education, preferably by 2015.	Brunei Darussalam, Indonesia, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Viet Nam	Cambodia, Lao PDR
<b>Goal 4: Reduce child mortality</b>		
Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-5 mortality rate.	Cambodia, Indonesia, Singapore, Thailand	Brunei Darussalam, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Viet Nam.

MDG targets and indicators	On track	Off track–slow
Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the infant mortality rate.	Singapore, Thailand	Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Viet Nam
<b>Goal 5: Improve maternal health</b>		
Reduce by three-quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio.	Cambodia, Lao PDR, Singapore	Brunei Darussalam, Indonesia, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Thailand, Viet Nam
Reduce by three-quarters, between 1990 and 2015, birth without attendance by skilled health personnel.	Brunei Darussalam, Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand, <sup>3/</sup> Viet Nam	Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Philippines
100 percent antenatal care coverage	Brunei Darussalam, Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand, Viet Nam	Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Philippines
<b>Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases</b>		
Have halted by 2015 the HIV prevalence and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS.	Brunei Darussalam, Philippines, Singapore, <sup>4/</sup> Thailand	Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Viet Nam
Target for tuberculosis incidence per year, per 100,000 population.	Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Viet Nam	n.a.
Target for tuberculosis prevalence rate per 100,000 population.	Brunei Darussalam, <sup>5/</sup> Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Viet Nam	n.a.
<b>Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability</b>		



MDG targets and indicators	On track	Off track–slow
Target for proportion of land area covered by forest	Philippines, Singapore, Viet Nam	Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Thailand
Halve, by 2015, the proportion of population without access to improved drinking water.	Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Viet Nam	n.a.
Halve, by 2015, the proportion of population without improved sanitation facilities.	Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Singapore, Thailand, Viet Nam	Philippines, Indonesia

Notes: <sup>1/</sup>, <sup>2/</sup> Not applicable for Brunei Darussalam and Singapore. <sup>3/</sup> Most births in Malaysia and Thailand are attended by skilled health personnel. Reduction by three-quarters might not be relevant. <sup>4/</sup> Singapore HIV prevalence rate increases from 0.004 percent (2001) to 0.022 percent (2012); however, the rate is considered low globally. <sup>5/</sup> Tuberculosis prevalence rate increased in Brunei Darussalam from 55 (1990) to 73 (2013); however the rate is relatively low regionally. Sources: ADB (2014a), communication from the governments of Brunei Darussalam and Singapore, and ASCC scorecard data from the ASEAN Secretariat.

**Table 1.4. Progress in Eradicating Hunger in ASEAN Member States**

Country	Prevalence of underweight children under 5 years of age		Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption		
	Earliest Year	Latest Year	1991	2000	2012
Brunei Darussalam	n.a.	n.a.	3	2	0
Cambodia	42.6 (1996)	29.0 (2010)	39	34	15
Indonesia	29.8 (1992)	18.6 (2010)	22	20	9
Lao PDR	39.8 (1993)	31.6 (2006)	45	40	27
Malaysia	22.1 (1990)	12.9 (2006)	4	3	4
Myanmar	32.5 (1990)	22.6 (2009)	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Philippines	29.9 (1990)	20.2 (2011)	25	21	16
Singapore	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Thailand	16.3 (1993)	7.0 (2006)	43	20	6
Viet Nam	36.9 (1993)	12.0 (2011)	48	20	8

Note: n.d. = no data, n.a. = not applicable.

Sources: ADB (2014a), data taken from different sources.

- The MDG goal of 100 percent survival rate (with a cut-off rate of 95 percent) in primary education – that is, the proportion of pupils starting in grade 1 who reach the last grade of primary school – would likely be achieved only by five ASEAN member states by 2015: Brunei Darussalam, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand, and Viet Nam. Viet Nam’s performance is noteworthy with its survival rate reaching almost 98 percent in 2011 from 83 percent in 1990. Cambodia and the Lao PDR also registered remarkable improvements in survival rates during the period considering their level of development, almost doubling their rates from about a third in the early 1990s to about two-thirds by 2011. Nonetheless, with survival rates far less than the ideal of 100 percent survival rate in Cambodia and the Lao PDR, as well as in Myanmar (75 percent survival rate), the Philippines (76 percent survival rate), and, to a lesser extent, Indonesia (89 percent survival rate), this failing effectively hinders greater income equality in the future considering that human capital is increasingly the means for the poor to move up towards the middle class. How the concerned ASEAN member states can raise the survival rates to nearly 100 percent is an important policy and development issue in the decade post-2015.
- The MDG target on the mortality of children under 5 years of age is to reduce it by two-thirds between 1990 and 2015. Cambodia, Indonesia, Singapore, and Thailand are on track. The Lao PDR and Myanmar are also noteworthy given that the mortality rates from 1990 to 2012 had halved. The under-5 mortality rate in Brunei Darussalam and Malaysia are already down to the low single digits and are the second and third best after Singapore.
- Although only Singapore and Thailand are on track on the MDG goal of reducing infant mortality rate by two-thirds from 1990 to 2015, there has been a marked reduction in infant mortality in all ASEAN member states; in most cases the 2012 values are about half of the 1990 values. The performances of Cambodia and the Lao PDR are particularly noteworthy as they came from high initial mortality rates.
- Cambodia and the Lao PDR are even more noteworthy in the reduction of maternal mortality rate during 1990–2012. Indeed, they are the only two member states that meet the MDG goal of reducing maternal mortality rate in 2015 to only one-third of the 1990 values. Myanmar, Viet Nam, Indonesia,

and Brunei Darussalam have also registered remarkable reductions during the period. Singapore's performance is also noteworthy, with a sharp reduction from 2000 to 2013, which at 3 per 100,000 live births is one of the lowest in the world. Related to the performance on maternal mortality rate reduction is the proportion of births attended by skilled personnel, which improved markedly in Cambodia, Indonesia, and the Lao PDR during the period. Myanmar and especially Viet Nam also registered remarkable increases. The Philippines posted the lowest increase, such that by 2012 the country ranked as second lowest amongst ASEAN member states after the Lao PDR in the percentage of births attended by skilled personnel. Singapore, Brunei Darussalam, Thailand, and Malaysia have virtually all births attended by skilled personnel.

- All ASEAN member states are early achievers with respect to the MDG target of reducing by half the proportion of people without access to safe drinking water. Cambodia, the Lao PDR, Myanmar, and Viet Nam, most especially Cambodia, registered the biggest improvements. Brunei Darussalam, Malaysia, and Singapore are noteworthy for complete coverage of the population with access to improved water sources. Similarly, most member states are on track with respect to the halving of the percentage of population without access to basic sanitation. Cambodia, Viet Nam, and the Lao PDR are the most improved during the period. Indonesia and the Philippines also registered significant improvements, although not to the same extent as demanded in the MDG.
- The MDGs do not include access to electricity. Yet, access to electricity is an important means of moving the poor upwards since electricity allows for improved access to communication and knowledge; it also enhances access of the poor to employment opportunities both on the farm and off-farm. Access to electricity is included in the multidimensional poverty measure for Indonesia by Sumarto and de Silva (2014).

Based on 2012 data, access to electricity is where there is a large difference amongst ASEAN member states (**Table 1.5**). Specifically, the percentage of population with access to electricity is only 32 percent in Myanmar and 34 percent in Cambodia. This contrasts sharply with the effectively fully electrified Brunei Darussalam, Malaysia, Thailand, and

Singapore (at more than 99 percent to 100 percent) and, to a lesser extent, Viet Nam (at 96.1 percent). Indonesia's rate, at 75.9 percent, is substantially lower than the ideal target of total electrification, which means about 60 million people remain without access to electricity. It is worth noting that the geographically huge country China has ensured access to electricity to virtually all its citizens (at 99.4 percent rate).

**Table 1.5. Access to Electricity in ASEAN Member States**

Country	Electrification rate (%)		Population without electricity (millions)	
	2009	2012	2009	2012
Brunei Darussalam	99.66	99.7	0.0	0.0
Cambodia	24	34.1	11.3	9.8
Indonesia	64.5	75.9	81.6	59.5
Lao PDR	55	78.3	2.6	1.4
Malaysia	99.4	99.5	0.2	0.1
Myanmar	13	32.0	43.5	35.9
Philippines	89.7	70.3	9.5	28.7
Singapore	100	100.0	0.0	0.0
Thailand	99.3	99.0	0.5	0.7
Viet Nam	97.6	96.1	2.1	3.5

Sources: IEA (2011, 2014).

In summary, the ASEAN member states have been remarkable in their performance of the MDG targets. As such, multidimensional poverty has likely declined in ASEAN, probably substantially consistent with the remarkable reduction in income poverty in the region. Nonetheless, there remains the challenge of the 'one last mile' for a number of ASEAN countries. Thus, for example, the primary school survival rates are not yet 100 percent, which means that there remain many young people who do not have the requisite human capital to move up in an increasingly knowledge intensive world. Moreover, there is growing pressure to improve the quality of basic education as reflected in indicators like the number of pupils per teacher. For a few ASEAN countries, perhaps most especially the Philippines, there is the urgent challenge to invest much more in meeting the MDG targets into 2015 and beyond woven into the forthcoming SDG targets that are expected to be agreed upon in later 2015.

***Vulnerability and poverty.*** The poor and the near poor are particularly vulnerable to food price shocks and natural disasters. The poor and near poor are more vulnerable to food price spikes simply because food constitutes a much higher percentage of total expenditures of the poor and the near poor than of the higher-income groups. Also, a large percentage of the poor and near poor live in areas that are more vulnerable to natural hazards, like flooding and landslides. In addition, they are less capable of withstanding natural hazards like typhoons because of the quality of their housing. Adverse shocks can lead the poor to going deeper into poverty (for example, higher debt) and the near poor to slide into poverty. Thus, while shocks such as food price spikes and serious flooding affect virtually everybody whether poor or not, there is merit on the greater concern for their impact on the poor and the near poor.

The Asian Development Bank estimated the poverty-inducing effect of food price hikes and natural disasters (ADB, 2014a). Using the food price index instead of the overall consumer price index as the appropriate price deflator or inflator for the poverty line, an increase in the price of food relative to the overall consumer price would necessitate an increase in the poverty line in order to maintain the overall welfare of the poor. The impact of this adjustment for 2010 is the rise in the poverty line; that is, the ‘food insecurity-adjusted poverty line’ (ADB, 2014a) in virtually all the ASEAN member states, from about 5.6 percent for the Philippines to about 16 percent for Thailand, 17.6 percent for Viet Nam, and 20.8 percent for Indonesia (**Table 1.6**). The resulting higher food insecurity poverty line means a higher resulting poverty rate and therefore a larger number of poor people. The incremental number of poor people reflects the number of people who are vulnerable to poverty arising from the rise in the relative price of food. As **Table 1.6** shows, the number of food insecure people (that is, people thrown into poverty due to a surge in food prices) in ASEAN is large, especially in Indonesia and Viet Nam. The juxtaposition of a net rice importer (Indonesia) and a net rice exporter (Viet Nam), given that rice is the most important item in the food basket of the poor, highlights the merit and the importance of regional initiatives in ASEAN to help temper the volatility of the price of rice and of the regional emergency rice reserves initiative (that is, the ASEAN+3 Emergency Rice Reserve). The results above suggest the

importance and relevance of the growing policy interest in the region on food security. This is discussed further in **Chapter 4**.

**Table 1.6. Food Insecurity-adjusted Poverty Incidence in ASEAN Member States**

Country	Poverty under \$1.25 PPP 2005		Food Insecurity-adjusted poverty incidence (2010)		Additional poverty due to food insecurity (2010, in million)
	%	1. million	2. %	3. million	
Cambodia	18.6 (2009)	2.63	22.8 (2008)	3.28	0.64
Indonesia	16.2 (2011)	39.50	28	67.39	27.89
Lao PDR	33.9 (2008)	2.08	39.8 (2008)	2.55	0.46 (2008)
Malaysia	0.0 (2009)	0.00	0.2	0.06	0.06
Philippines	18.4 (2009)	16.91	20.3	18.97	2.06
Thailand	0.4	0.27	0.9	0.60	0.33
Viet Nam	16.9 (2008)	14.39	22.4 (2008)	19.47	5.09 (2008)

Notes: The result for Cambodia and Indonesia is slightly overestimated due to the more recent data in the baseline (that is, poverty rate at \$1.25 PPP); while the result for Malaysia and the Philippines is slightly underestimated due to more recent data used compared to the baseline estimate. No estimate for Brunei Darussalam, Myanmar, and Singapore. Sources: ADB (2014a), data taken from different sources.

ADB also undertook a similar exercise taking into consideration the vulnerability to poverty arising from natural disasters, climate change, economic crises, and idiosyncratic shocks. Similar to the food insecurity-adjusted poverty line, the vulnerability-adjusted poverty line estimates the poverty line that compensates for the risk, assuming a given parameter for the appetite for risk taking, and thereby ends with the same welfare of the poor as the (certain) benchmark poverty line. In effect, the estimation takes all kinds of risks, including especially natural disasters. The resulting vulnerability-adjusted poverty lines are even much higher than those for the food insecurity-adjusted poverty lines (**Table 1.7**). Specifically, for 2010, the increase in the vulnerability-induced poverty line over the benchmark poverty line (\$1.25 in 2005 PPP) is from 16.8 percent for Cambodia to 27.2 percent for Thailand, 28 percent for Viet Nam, and 45.6 percent for Malaysia. As **Table 1.7** shows, the resulting poverty rates increase substantially for all lower middle-income and low-income ASEAN member states; there is marginal effect on the poverty incidence of Malaysia and Thailand as their

poorest decile (that is, 10 percent of population) have average incomes higher than the vulnerability-induced poverty line.

**Table 1.7. Disaster Vulnerability-adjusted Poverty Incidence in ASEAN Member States**

Country	Poverty under \$1.25 PPP 2005		Disaster vulnerability-adjusted poverty Incidence (2010)		Additional poverty due to food insecurity (2010, in million)
	4. %	5. million	6. %	7. million	
Cambodia	18.6 (2009)	2.63	30.8 (2008)	4.42	1.79
Indonesia	16.2 (2011)	39.50	27.1	65.22	25.73
Lao PDR	33.9 (2008)	2.08	42 (2008)	2.69	0.61 (2008)
Malaysia	0.0 (2009)	0.00	1.2	0.34	0.34
Philippines	18.4 (2009)	16.91	26.4	24.67	7.76
Thailand	0.4	0.27	1.5	1.00	0.73
Viet Nam	16.9 (2008)	14.39	27.6 (2008)	23.99	9.61 (2008)

PPP = purchasing power parity.

Notes: The result for Cambodia and Indonesia is slightly overestimated due to the more recent data in the baseline (that is, poverty rate at \$1.25 PPP), while the result for Malaysia and the Philippines is slightly underestimated due to more recent data used compared to the baseline estimate. No estimate for Brunei Darussalam, Myanmar, and Singapore.

Sources: ADB (2014a), data taken from different sources.

A number of ASEAN member states are significantly vulnerable to natural disasters as exemplified by the devastating effects of Typhoon Nargis on Myanmar in 2008, Typhoon Haiyan on the Philippines in 2013, and the 2009 earthquake in Padang, Indonesia as well as a typhoon in the Lao PDR in 2009 and large scale/serious flooding that has occurred in Cambodia, Indonesia, Thailand, Philippines, Viet Nam, and most recently Malaysia. The number of people affected, mortalities, and economic damage from natural disasters are given in **Table 1.8**. As the table indicates, in most years since 2000, ASEAN has a higher number of people affected and more mortalities (per thousand or million people) and economic damage as a percent of GDP than the rest of the world. The Philippines leads ASEAN in terms of the number of people (per 1,000 people) affected by natural disasters. The most economically disastrous disasters are Typhoon Nargis in Myanmar in 2008 and Thailand's flood in 2011. Nonetheless, there have been other disasters with significant economic impact in Cambodia (in 2000, 2011, and 2013), the Lao PDR (2009 and 2013), the Philippines (2013), and Viet Nam (2006 and 2007).

**Table 1.8. Effect of Natural Disasters in ASEAN Member States**

Country	Mortalities from natural disasters (Per million population)				People affected by natural disasters (Per 1,000 population)				Economic damage from natural disasters (% of GDP)			
	2008	2011	2013	2004–2013	2008	2011	2013	2004–2013	2008	2011	2013	2004–2013
Brunei Darussalam	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Cambodia	n.d.	16.9	13.2	5	n.d.	112.3	99.1	28.9	n.d.	4.1	3.3	1.1
Indonesia	0.6	0.5	0.7	76.2	2.1	0.1	2.7	3.8	0	0	0.3	0.3
Lao PDR	1	7.4	14.8	2.9	33.3	71.6	90.1	22.7	0	0	1.2	0.4
Malaysia	0	0.6	0.1	0.9	0.3	0.7	2.5	1.6	0	0	0	0.1
Myanmar	2703.8	4.3	0.4	270.6	46.9	1	1.4	6.3	15.5	0	0	1.4
Philippines	10.6	20.9	85.2	23.3	93	123.3	260.6	99.9	0.3	0.3	4.6	0.9
Singapore	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Thailand	0.6	13.9	1.3	15.3	174.8	169	52.2	70	0	11.1	0.1	1.5
Viet Nam	4.7	1.5	2.2	3.3	8.9	15.1	45	19.8	0.7	0.2	0.9	0.7
ASEAN	240.4	6.2	14.8	60.5	41	44	58.6	29.6	0.3	1.9	0.7	0.5
World	35.9	4.9	3.2	15.1	32.3	30.1	13.4	25.5	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.2

Notes: GDP = gross domestic product, n.d. = no data.

Sources: ADB (2014a), data taken from different sources.



The results bring out that the need for greater resiliency to such risks as natural disasters is even more pressing for the lower middle – and low-income ASEAN countries, which have relatively fewer resources and less capacity to address natural disasters and other shocks. The large number of people who are vulnerable to poverty arising from risks such as natural disasters as indicated above in tandem with the proneness of the ASEAN region to natural disasters, highlight how critical it is for ASEAN to give special emphasis on disaster risk reduction and disaster management in order for the region to have greater resiliency to natural disasters. The issue of disaster management and resiliency is discussed in **Chapter 4**.

## **Environment and Sustainable Development**

The ASEAN state of environment reports and the ASEAN Declaration on Environmental Sustainability exemplify the high policy profile that environment, sustainability, and climate change hold in the ASEAN member states. The state of environment reports, published every 3 years, provide an intensive review of the status, prospects, and challenges of the freshwater and marine and terrestrial ecosystems as well as the atmosphere in the region. The following section provides information on the status of ASEAN's environment based on the *Fourth ASEAN State of the Environment Report*:

- The region is abundant in water resources but fresh water resources in some member states are threatened by population expansion, growth of agriculture and aquaculture, and pollution. The region holds 60 percent of global tropical peatland area; however, the trans-boundary haze problem that is linked to some extent to the burning of peatlands (primarily for agricultural plantations, especially oil palm) reflects the incentive problem facing peatlands in the region. ASEAN has the largest extent of mangroves in the world, but there has been significant deforestation and conversion of mangrove areas in some member states, most especially in Viet Nam. Nonetheless, there are now 29 Ramsar sites (wetlands of international importance).
- The region is a global centre of tropical marine biodiversity, exemplified by the Coral Triangle around Indonesia, Malaysia, and the Philippines. However, land-based pollution, aquaculture, unplanned development activities without proper coastal zone management planning, and global warming, amongst others, are threatening the marine ecosystems in the region. The good news is that there has been a 58-percent increase in

marine-protected areas in the region, mainly in the Philippines, Indonesia, and Malaysia.

- ASEAN is one of the most densely forested areas in the world, with a very high proportion of forest area to the total land area in Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, and Malaysia. The ASEAN terrestrial ecosystem is also one of the most diverse in the world with very high species endemism, especially in the three mega-diverse countries of Indonesia, Malaysia, and the Philippines. Because of the rich diversity, there has always been global concern about deforestation. The rate of deforestation in the ASEAN region was higher than the global average during 2000–2007. The good news is that Viet Nam has been experiencing a rising share of forest area because of reforestation initiatives. There is also a growing number of protected areas in ASEAN, with six member states declaring protected areas that are at least 13 percent of the total land area as of 2008, although the enforcement of the laws meant to protect species in protected areas leaves much to be desired.
- ASEAN is one of the most biodiversity-rich regions in the world. At the same time, however, it has four of the world's 34 biodiversity hotspots; that is, areas that have exceptional levels of endemism of species facing serious loss of habitat. Deforestation, the introduction of invasive alien species, illegal wildlife trade, and climate change all pose challenges to ASEAN biodiversity. Perhaps, most important is the challenge of an inadequate appreciation of the true value of biodiversity to society and economy, which would engender the impetus for conservation and sustainable use of biodiversity resources in the region.
- Pollution and trans-boundary haze are the most visible dimensions of interest with respect to the region's atmosphere. Singapore and Brunei Darussalam have good air quality most of the year: air quality is more variable in the other member states. Pollution is a problem in the region's megacities such as Manila, Jakarta, and Bangkok, although key air pollutants have been declining in Malaysia, Bangkok, and Manila. Viet Nam, the Lao PDR, and Cambodia registered the fastest rise in per capita emissions of carbon dioxide between 1990 and 2010 in Asia, but Myanmar, Cambodia, and the Lao PDR have amongst the lowest per capita emissions in carbon dioxide in Asia. Similarly, Brunei Darussalam has the highest per capita emission of carbon dioxide but the total amount is small given the small size of the population. Singapore and Brunei Darussalam are amongst the few Asian countries that reduced their per capita emissions of carbon dioxide during 1990–2010 (ADB,

2014a). Haze remains a recurring problem in the region despite years of regional concern.

- Climate change is a serious concern because the region is highly vulnerable given that a large percentage of the population and economic activity is concentrated along coastlines and the region is also heavily reliant on agriculture and fishery. Climate change has many adverse impacts in the region in such areas and resources as water resources, biodiversity, and food security, amongst others.

It is clear that environment and sustainable development would be an even more important concern and issue for ASEAN post 2015. Aiming towards a green ASEAN, which can be an economic opportunity itself, is discussed in **Chapter 4**.

### **III. Towards the ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community: Progress and Challenges**

The ASCC is one of the troika of ‘closely intertwined and mutually reinforcing’ communities in ASEAN that are to be the embodiment of the vision laid out by the ASEAN heads of state in 1997 of an ASEAN Community as ‘... a concert of Southeast Asian nations, outward looking, living in peace, stability and prosperity, bonded together in partnership in a just, democratic, and harmonious environment, dynamic development and ever closer economic integration and in a community of caring societies, conscious of its ties of history, aware of its shared cultural heritage and bond by a common regional identity’ (ASEAN, 2009a, p.1; ASEAN, 1997). Building the three component communities of the ASEAN Community involves deeper integration, enhanced regional cooperation, and concerted national actions. None is more important than the other; each contributes to the success of the other ‘...for the purpose of ensuring durable peace, stability and shared prosperity in the region’ (ASEAN, 2009a, p.1).

Alongside the deepening economic integration and robust political-security cooperation in the region, there has been heartening progress towards the building of an ASCC especially during the last half decade. Note that in contrast to the AEC where market integration many times drives official initiatives, the building of an ASEAN socio-cultural community in a region of diverse cultures and religions and rising nationalism necessitates more continued purposeful initiatives. The ASCC Blueprint 2009–2015 puts

together the purposeful initiatives into a ‘framework for action ...structured into six characteristics or strategic – level development and cooperation outcomes and ... (further decomposed into the)... elements or inter-woven cross-pillar, thematic, sectoral and cross-sectoral outcomes’ (ibid, p.xiii).

The ASCC Blueprint 2009–2015, as part of the ASEAN Community Blueprint (2009–2015), clearly describes the ASCC key characteristics and elements, as well as its strategic objectives and actions. The ASCC aims to promote a people-centred and socially responsive ASEAN community to achieve unity by building a society that is inclusive and harmonious (ASEAN, 2009b). As shown by **Figure 1.2**, the ASCC has six characteristics: (1) human development, (2) social welfare and protection, (3) social justice and rights, (4) environmental sustainability, (5) ASEAN identity, and (6) narrowing the development gap. Out of around 635 action lines under the ASEAN Community road map, 339 (53 percent) of them fall under the ASCC.<sup>13</sup> This reflects the importance and wide-ranging areas covered by the ASCC.

**Figure 1.2. Characteristics of the ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community**



Source: ASEAN (2009b).

The ASCC Council oversees the implementation of the blueprint. It coordinates with at least 14 ASEAN sectoral ministerial bodies, which range from ASEAN ministers responsible for information; culture and arts; education, youth and sports; disaster management; social welfare and

<sup>13</sup> Calculated from the ASEAN Community Blueprint. The number of action lines under political-security is 142 and under economic community is 154.

development; women and children; health; science and technology; environment; labour; rural development and poverty reduction; and civil service matters.

## Progress

ASEAN undertook a mid-term review of the implementation of the ASCC Blueprint in 2013. One of the objectives of the review was to assess whether or not the measures and actions in the blueprint have been implemented. **Table 1.9** presents the summary of the ASCC accomplishments. As the table shows, the progress of implementation is satisfactory, with 86 percent of the measures and actions having been addressed as of September 2013.

**Table 1.9. Summary of the ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community Accomplishments**

ASCC characteristics		Number of action lines	Completed or ongoing action	Percentage
A	Human development	61	57	93
B	Social welfare and protection	94	91	97
C	Social justice and rights	28	21	79
D	Ensuring environmental sustainability	98	67	68
E	Building ASEAN identity	50	48	96
F	Narrowing the development gap	8	8	100
<b>Total</b>		<b>339</b>	<b>292</b>	<b>Average: 86%</b>

ASCC = ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community.

Source: ASEAN (2014b).

The following discussion presents the summary and accomplishments of the six ASCC characteristics, based on the ASCC Blueprint status matrix as of 18 September 2014:

**Human development.** In the human development characteristic, the ASCC has seven key elements. These are: (1) advancing and prioritising education, (2) investing in human resources development, (3) promoting decent work, (4) promoting information and communication technology (ICT), (5) facilitating access to applied science and technology (S&T), (6) strengthening entrepreneurship skills for women, youth, elderly, and persons with disabilities, and (7) building civil service capability.

On advancing and prioritising education, ASEAN aims to achieve universal access to primary education by 2015, to promote early childcare and development, and to enhance ASEAN awareness amongst young people. It consists of 21 action lines with 89 projects/activities/objectives. Of the 89 projects, only three projects are not completed or are ongoing. Overall, 30 projects are completed, 56 projects are ongoing, and three projects are pending.

On investing in human resources development, ASEAN aims to develop a qualified, competent, and well-prepared labour force. The element consists of eight action lines with 20 projects/activities/objectives. The projects include initiatives such as strengthening the centres of excellence in the region, promoting the use of English in the workplace, identifying gaps in training needs, and many others. Overall, 7 projects are completed and 13 projects are ongoing.

On promoting of decent work, ASEAN aims to promote decent work principles in the ASEAN work culture, safety and health in the workplace, and promote entrepreneurship in ASEAN's employment policy. It has eight action lines with around eight projects. They include developing labour market information systems, cross-national frameworks, guidelines for human resource competencies and skill recognition, and ASEAN guidelines on industrial relations good practices. Overall, four projects are completed and four projects are ongoing.

On promoting ICT, ASEAN aims to improve human development through the use of ICT. It has six action lines and 20 projects. Its action lines include increasing ICT literacy, promoting secure internet access, and encouraging the use of ICT in educational institutions. Overall, 10 projects are completed, 9 projects are ongoing, and 1 is pending.

On facilitating access to applied S&T, ASEAN, through the Committee on Science and Technology, aims to promote active cooperation in research, science, and technology development, technology transfer, and commercialisation, with active participation from the private sector and other relevant organisations. The various S&T actions include establishing a network of S&T centres of excellence, strengthening collaborative research and development (R&D) in applied S&T, facilitating exchange and mobility of scientists and researchers, and collaborating with the private sector to promote R&D. Overall, 31 projects have been completed and 41 projects are ongoing.

On strengthening entrepreneurship skills for women, youth, elderly, and persons with disabilities, ASEAN has three action lines with 10 projects. The projects include ASEAN entrepreneurs' youth forum, establishment of an ASEAN Women Entrepreneurs' Network, and implementation of the ASEAN Decade of Persons with Disabilities (2011–2020) to officially promote disability inclusive development in ASEAN. Overall, four projects are completed and six projects are ongoing.

Finally, on building civil service capability, ASEAN aims to establish effective, efficient, transparent, responsible, and accountable civil service systems. The element has 10 action lines and 30 projects. The action lines include conducting annual workshops to promote ASEAN collaboration on an effective and efficient civil service, public accountability, and good governance; developing pools of experts in civil service capacity building and conducting training programmes; enhancing and establishing mechanisms such as service standards, citizens' feedback procedures, and output-based performance rating systems. Overall, 20 projects are completed, 9 are ongoing, and 1 is pending.

***Social welfare and protection.*** The ASCC has seven key elements in the social welfare and protection characteristic. These are: (1) poverty alleviation, (2) social safety net and protection from the negative impacts of integration and globalisation, (3) enhancing food security and safety, (4) access to healthcare and promotion of healthy lifestyles, (5) improving the capability to control communicable diseases, (6) ensuring a drug-free ASEAN, and (7) building disaster-resilient nations and safer communities.

On poverty alleviation, ASEAN aims to address socio-economic disparities and poverty amongst the member states. It has 10 action lines with 25 associated projects/activities/objectives. Its action lines include developing and implementing an ASEAN road map to meet the MDGs, intensifying the Initiative for ASEAN Integration (IAI) efforts, developing a support system for families under the poverty line, and sharing best practices. Overall, 13 projects are completed, 11 are ongoing, and 1 is pending.

On social safety net and protection from the negative impacts of integration and globalisation, ASEAN aims to improve the quality, coverage, and sustainability of social protection in member states and increase the capacity of social risk management. It has 10 action lines with 17 associated projects. The action plans include mapping the social protection regime in ASEAN, exchanging best practices, promoting social protection in labour

policy, developing measures to counter the use of the Internet for pornography, preparing studies on natural disaster risk safety mechanisms in selected sectors and on the impact of economic integration and globalisation from a gender perspective, and strengthening cooperation to protect female migrant workers. Overall, nine projects are completed and eight are ongoing.

On enhancing food security and safety, ASEAN identified 16 action lines with 41 associated projects. Its action lines include harmonising national food safety regulations with internationally accepted standards, promoting production of safe and healthy food, developing further the competency of the existing ASEAN food laboratory network, establishing a network to enhance intra- and extra-ASEAN food trade cooperation, and encouraging the use of environmentally sound technologies in farming and food processing, amongst others. Overall, 10 projects are completed, 25 are ongoing, and 6 are pending.

On access to healthcare and promotion of healthy lifestyles, ASEAN aims to ensure adequate and affordable access to healthcare, medical services, and medicine as well as a healthy lifestyle. It has 24 action lines with 27 associated projects. Its action lines include employing strategies to strengthen integrated risk management; promoting a healthy lifestyle and behavioural changes; enhancing awareness on the impact of regional trade policies and economic integration on health; sharing best practices in improved access to healthcare products; encouraging public-private partnership, community empowerment, and gender-sensitive policies in improving community health standards; and improving pharmaceutical management capability, amongst others. Overall, 3 projects are completed and 24 are ongoing.

On improving capability to control communicable diseases, ASEAN aims to enhance the regional preparedness capacity through integrated approaches to prevention, surveillance, and timely responses to communicable and emerging infectious diseases. It has 13 action lines with 13 associated projects. Its action lines include consolidating, further strengthening, and developing regional cooperative arrangements through multi-sectoral and integrated approaches in the prevention, control, and preparedness for emerging infectious diseases, developing programmes to improve second-generation HIV surveillance, and promoting the sharing of information and best practices. Overall, 2 projects are completed and 11 are ongoing.



On ensuring a drug-free ASEAN, ASEAN aims to reduce the overall prevalence of illicit drug abuse in the general population through preventive measures and by increasing access to treatment, rehabilitation, and aftercare services as well as through enhanced partnership between the public and private sectors and civil society organisations. It has nine action lines with nine projects. Its action lines include implementing family, school, workplace, and community-based drug prevention and drug abuse control programmes; sharing best practices on drug demand reduction programmes; and facilitating the establishment and maintenance of treatment and rehabilitation centres in member states. Overall, one project is completed and eight are ongoing.

Finally, on building disaster-resilient nations and safer communities, ASEAN aims to strengthen effective mechanisms and capabilities to prevent and reduce disaster losses in lives as well as in social, economic, and environmental assets of member states, and to jointly respond to disaster emergencies through concerted national efforts and intensified regional and international cooperation. It has 12 action lines with 24 associated projects. Its action lines include implementing an ASEAN agreement on disaster management and emergency response by 2015, supporting the establishment and operationalisation of the ASEAN Coordinating Centre for Humanitarian Assistance on Disaster Management Centre (AHA Centre), and improving member states' capacity building programmes, amongst others. Overall, 3 projects are completed and 21 are ongoing.

***Social justice and rights.*** In the social justice and rights characteristic, ASEAN aims to promote social justice and incorporate people's rights into policies, especially those of the disadvantaged, vulnerable, and marginalised groups. The three main elements in this characteristic are: (1) promotion and protection of the rights and welfare of women, children, the elderly, and persons with disabilities, (2) protection and promotion of the rights of migrant workers, and (3) promotion of corporate social responsibility (CSR).

On promotion and protection of the rights and welfare of women, children, the elderly, and persons with disabilities, ASEAN aims to 'safeguard the interest and rights as well as provide equal opportunities, and raise the quality of life and standard of living, for women, children, the elderly, and persons with disabilities' (ASEAN, 2009b). It has 15 action lines with 28 associated projects. The action lines include establishing an ASEAN commission on the promotion and protection of the rights of women and children, establishing an ASEAN network of social works by 2013, enhancing support and commitment to improve social protection for the elderly, and

using sex-disaggregated data to promote awareness on gender equality. Overall, 12 projects are completed and 16 are ongoing.

On the protection and promotion of the rights of migrant workers, ASEAN aims to ensure fair and comprehensive migrant policies and adequate protection for migrant workers as well as implementing the ASEAN Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers. It has nine action lines with nine associated projects. Its action lines include operationalising the ASEAN Committee to implement the ASEAN Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers, institutionalising the ASEAN Forum on Migrant Labour as a platform for migrant labour issues, promoting fair and appropriate employment protection payment of wages and adequate access to decent working and living conditions as well as adequate access to legal and judicial systems, facilitating data sharing related with migrant workers, strengthening policies and procedures in the sending state, and facilitating access to resources and remedies in accordance with legislation of the receiving state. Overall, three projects are completed and six projects are ongoing.

On the promotion of CSR, ASEAN aims to promote the application of CSR by corporations. It has four action lines. The action plans include developing a model of public policy on CSR by 2010, engaging the private sector, encouraging adoption of international standards on CSR, as well as increasing awareness on CSR. The first two action lines are managed by the ASEAN Foundation, which formed a regional network for CSR. The awareness improvement programme is ongoing.

***Ensuring environmental sustainability.*** On the environmental sustainability characteristic, ASEAN aims to achieve sustainable development as well as promoting a clean and green environment. ASCC has identified eleven elements: (1) addressing global environmental issues, (2) managing and preventing trans-boundary environmental pollution, (3) promoting sustainable development through environmental education and public participation, (4) promoting environmentally sound technologies (EST), (5) promoting quality living standards in ASEAN cities/urban areas, (6) harmonising environmental policies and databases, (7) promoting the sustainable use of coastal and marine environment, (8) promoting sustainable management of natural resources and biodiversity, (9) promoting the sustainability of freshwater resources, (10) responding to climate change and addressing its impacts, and (11) promoting sustainable forest management (SFM).

On addressing global environmental issues, ASEAN aims to ‘address global environmental issues without impinging on competitiveness, or social and economic development based on the principle of equity, flexibility, effectiveness and common but differentiated responsibility, respective capabilities as well as reflecting on different social and economic conditions’ (ASEAN, 2009b). It has four action lines with seven associated projects. Its action lines include intensifying regional cooperation to improve national and regional capabilities to address issues and commitment to relevant multilateral environmental agreements (MEAs). Overall, three projects are completed and four are ongoing.

On managing and preventing trans-boundary environmental pollution, ASEAN aims to cooperate on mitigating trans-boundary environmental pollution, including haze pollution and trans-boundary movement of hazardous wastes. It has 8 action lines with 14 associated projects. Its action lines include operationalising the ASEAN Agreement on Trans-boundary Haze Pollution, operationalising the ASEAN Coordinating Centre for Trans-boundary Haze Pollution Control Fund, securing funds for the ASEAN Trans-boundary Haze Pollution Control Fund, strengthening regional cooperation on hazardous waste management, and establishing effective and fully functioning regional mechanisms to address trans-boundary hazardous waste. Overall, 3 projects are completed and 11 are ongoing.

On promoting sustainable development through environmental education and public participation, ASEAN aims to have environmentally literate citizens. It has 20 action lines with 24 associated projects. Its action lines include implementing the ASEAN Environmental Education Action Plan (AEEAP) 2008–2012, ensuring the inclusion of environmental education and environmentally sustainable development (ESD) in the education curricula, promoting sustainable school practices across ASEAN, providing environmental education and ESD training to stakeholders, and enhancing participation of local community leaders in promoting public awareness. Overall, 20 projects are completed and 4 are ongoing.

On the EST element, ASEAN aims to use EST in development activities. It has six action lines with six associated projects. Its action lines include operationalising the ASEAN Network on EST (ASEAN–NEST) by 2015, working towards adopting a region-wide environmental labelling scheme by 2015, as well as intensifying cooperation on joint research, development, deployment, and transfer of EST. All projects are completed.

On promoting quality living standards in ASEAN cities/urban areas, ASEAN plans to ensure ASEAN cities are environmentally sustainable, while meeting the social and economic needs of the people. It has 6 action lines with 10 associated projects. Its action lines include expanding existing work under the ASEAN Initiative on Environmentally Sustainable Cities, intensifying efforts to improve the quality of air and water through a reduction in industrial and transportation pollution, sharing best practices in the area of urban planning, as well as developing measures for ASEAN cities' environmental sustainability. Overall, six projects are completed and four are ongoing.

On harmonising environmental policies and databases, ASEAN identified five action lines with six associated projects. The action lines include working towards the implementation of 13 priority environmental parameters and harmonising their measurement, monitoring, and reporting by 2015; harmonising standards and conformity assessment procedures for environmental performance by 2015; and promoting environmental sustainable procurement practice in member states. Overall, four projects are completed and two are ongoing.

On promoting sustainable use of coastal and marine environment, ASEAN aims to ensure sustainable management in ASEAN's coastal and marine environment as well as protect pristine areas and species. It has eight action lines with nine associated projects. Its action lines include improving regional coordination, building capacities to develop marine water quality standards, promoting conservation and sustainable management of key ecosystems in coastal and marine habitat, and enhancing the capacity and capability of fishery and coastal communities in protecting the environment. Six projects are completed and the rest are ongoing.

On promoting sustainable management of natural resources and biodiversity, ASEAN aims to ensure the rich biological diversity is conserved and sustainably managed. It has 13 action lines with 20 associated projects. Among its action lines are to significantly reduce the rate of biodiversity loss by 2010, promote collaboration on access and equitable sharing of genetic and biological resources by 2015, promote further lists and coordinated management of ASEAN heritage parks, and enhance the role and capacity of the ASEAN Centre for Biodiversity. Overall, 9 projects are completed and 11 are ongoing.

On promoting the sustainability of freshwater resources, ASEAN aims to promote sustainable use of water resources. It has six action lines with six

associated projects. Among its action lines are to continue to implement the ASEAN Strategic Plan of Action on Water Resources Management, reduce by half the number of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water by 2010, promote the implementation of integrated river basin management by 2015, as well as promote regional cooperation on water conservation measures and programmes. Overall, four projects are completed and two are ongoing.

On responding to climate change and addressing its impacts, ASEAN aims to enhance regional and international cooperation to address the issue of climate change and its impacts on socio-economic development, health, and environment. It has 11 action lines with 18 associated projects. Among its action lines are encouraging ASEAN common understanding on climate change issues, encouraging the effort to develop the ASEAN Climate Change Initiative (ACCI), encouraging participation of international communities in ASEAN's afforestation and reforestation efforts, as well as promoting public awareness. Overall, six projects are completed and 12 projects are ongoing.

On promoting sustainable forest management, ASEAN aims to eradicate illegal logging and its associated trade through capacity building, technology transfer, improving public awareness, and law enforcement. It has 11 action lines and 6 associated projects. Among its action lines are encouraging environmentally sustainable planning and management in ASEAN forests, addressing illegal logging problems, and strengthening the implementation of forest law enforcement and governance.

***Building ASEAN identity.*** In the ASEAN identity characteristic, the ASCC envisages to 'promote greater awareness and common values in the spirit of unity in diversity at all levels of society' (ASCC Blueprint, p.20). It has four key elements: (1) promotion of ASEAN awareness and sense of community, (2) preservation and promotion of ASEAN cultural heritage, (3) promotion of cultural creativity and industry, and (4) engagement with the community.

On the promotion of ASEAN awareness and sense of community, ASEAN aims to instil a sense of belonging as well as mutual understanding amongst member states about their culture, history, religion, and civilisation. It has 22 action plans lines and 61 associated projects. Among its projects are developing a regional and national communication plan to support ASEAN identity and community awareness, improving coordination in disseminating print, broadcast, and multimedia materials on ASEAN identity, supporting school activities promoting ASEAN awareness, promoting ASEAN sporting

events, supporting the ASEAN Foundation's role, encouraging interfaith dialogue and its coverage in the media, as well as promoting youth exchanges. Overall, 31 projects are completed, 29 are ongoing, and 1 is pending.

On the preservation and promotion of ASEAN cultural heritage, ASEAN identified 14 action lines with 47 associated projects. Its action lines include developing or improving national legislation and regional instrument mechanisms to protect, preserve, and promote ASEAN cultural heritage and living traditions in each member state by 2015; documenting the cultural heritage in the region; conducting risk assessment and preparing emergency responses to threatened significant cultural heritage, capacity building in heritage management, preserving, and developing traditional handicraft villages and occupations; as well as promoting interaction between scholars, artists, and heritage media practitioners. Overall, 41 projects are completed and 6 are ongoing.

On the promotion of cultural creativity and industry, ASEAN aims to promote cultural creativity activities and industries. It has 9 action lines with 38 associated projects. Amongst its action lines are facilitating collaboration between small and medium-sized cultural enterprises, promoting exchange of knowledge and best practices on developing cultural industries, as well as improving marketing and distribution of cultural products and services. Overall, 19 projects are completed and 19 are ongoing.

On the engagement with the community, ASEAN identified five action lines with two associated projects. Among its action lines are engaging the ASEAN-affiliated non-governmental organisations in the ASEAN community-building process, convening annual ASEAN social forums and ASEAN civil society conferences, exploring the establishment of an ASEAN volunteers programme, as well as supporting the youth to participate in the humanitarian mission. All projects are ongoing.

***Narrowing the development gap.*** This characteristic aims to reduce the social dimensions of the development gap between the CLMV (Cambodia, the Lao PDR, Myanmar, and Viet Nam) and ASEAN-6 (ASEAN member states other than CLMV) countries. It has 8 action lines with 15 associated activities. Its action lines include promoting various subregional cooperation frameworks; implementing the second IAI Work Plan 2009–2015; continuing ASEAN-6 support in the Second IAI Work Plan; undertaking assessment studies on the social impact of regional integration; and adopting and implementing regional advocacy programmes in agriculture, marine and

fisheries, agro-based industry, and integrated rural development. Overall, 2 projects are completed and 13 are ongoing.

## **Observations and Challenges**

A browse of the ASCC Blueprint Status Matrix brings out the remarkable variety and quantity of the ASCC initiatives and activities. Many are one-off activities (for example, seminars, forums, training, and publications) primarily for confidence building. Many more are ongoing, longer-term initiatives such as a series of forums, training programmes, or development of a network. There is sharing of good practices and experiences. Some activities are harmonisation initiatives, development of regional implementation mechanisms linked to the development of regional agreements and the like, or the formulation of regional policy initiatives. In many cases, there is internal logic in the flow of the activities towards a defined objective. Overall, they indicate the apparent energy, enthusiasm, and goodwill of many, including dialogue partners and civil society organisations, in undertaking the ASCC initiatives. They are a good foundation of what the ASEAN Community is being built on.

It is worthwhile to provide a few examples drawn from the status matrix:

- Towards improving capability to control communicable diseases, the Seventh Senior Officials' Meeting on Health Development in March 2012 developed and endorsed a medium-term plan on emerging infectious diseases. There is planned collaboration with the animal health sector on highly pathogenic emerging diseases with the support of World Health Organization and the European Commission. The non-health aspects are undertaken by the ASEAN–USAID project on pandemic preparedness and response. There is a Communication and Information System for the Control of Avian Influenza, funded by the Japan–ASEAN Solidarity Fund. A special focus is on Lao PDR and Viet Nam to enhance health reporting and response systems for avian influenza, implemented and coordinated by the ASEAN Foundation. An ASEAN Risk Communication Resource Centre, an ASEAN+3 (ASEAN plus China, Japan, and South Korea) Partnership Laboratory, and an ASEAN+3 Field Epidemiology Training Programme Network (FETN) have been established. The FETN conducted a joint surveillance system evaluation at the border of Thailand and Cambodia. A website has been developed to promote information sharing on emerging infectious diseases. A number of capacity building workshops were undertaken. Overall, the list of initiatives above

suggests a well-rounded and comprehensive set of interventions with the end view of an ASEAN with a much stronger capability and with systems to control communicable diseases.

- To strengthen mechanisms and capabilities to prevent and reduce disaster losses in ASEAN member states, ASEAN has implemented the ASEAN Agreement on Disaster Management Emergency Response (AADMER), established the AHA Centre, and developed and put into operation the standard operating procedures for regional standby arrangements and the coordination of joint disaster relief and emergency response operations. In addition, ASEAN has developed the monitoring and evaluation indicators of the AADMER work programme, developed and implemented regional training programmes, put in place a pool of trainers on disaster management emergency response, and established the ASEAN Disaster Information Sharing and Communication Network, amongst others.
- Towards the protection and promotion of the rights of migrant workers, the ASCC initiatives include the development of a series of forums primarily as a platform for the exchange of views and experiences, the development and publication of a repository matrix of member states' regulations that bear on migrant workers, the development of a workshop on sharing practices on eliminating recruitment malpractices and a training course on labour migration issues. But the most important is the series of meetings of the ASEAN Committee on the Rights of Migrant Workers with the objective of developing and approving an ASEAN instrument on the protection and promotion of the rights of migrant workers, which remains under discussion. In contrast to the first two cases above where there is overwhelming consensus among member states, ASEAN has yet to agree on the finalisation of the instrument despite the series of forums and workshops.

The examples above indicate that there is some 'local coherence' (coherence within the specific sub-group or sub-theme) in many of the initiatives in the ASCC Blueprint. The major challenge, however, is that there seems to be no 'global coherence' among the various sub-groups or sub-theme programmes and initiatives. Behind this is the lack of a unifying sector framework (cf. ASCCD internal note) that ties the component actions together, with clear outcomes and targets that will be the basis for evaluating the relevance, effectiveness, and success of the various component measures and actions.

This lack of a unifying framework and agreed-upon outcomes and targets has led to two important failings of the current ASCC Blueprint. **The**



**first one is the failure to set out sub-theme or sub-group outcomes and targets (for example, the degree of reduction in the incidence of communicable diseases) and not just output targets.** This is a critical concern because the setting of outcomes and targets raises the bar of expectations on the measures and actions, which is whether the actions have been implemented or not (the focus of the ASCC mid-term review scoring), but more importantly whether those measures and actions have been delivered, or whether they are well performing. This raises the correlative issues of budget, organisation, coordination, and quality of personnel. Also, coordination involves both the coordination of regional and national measures and actions as well as coordination among concerned government agencies and stakeholders within a country. The lack of emphasis on outcomes and targets in the ASCC Blueprint has meant that the performance of the implementation of the blueprint measures and actions could not be evaluated in relation to the performance of ASEAN member states in the socio-economic arena and the MDGs.

The issues of budget and quality of personnel and lack of a unifying framework with clear outcomes and targets bring out the **second failing**, that is, **the apparent lack of prioritisation among the initiatives in the ASCC Blueprint, which includes the possibility of the omission of important initiatives in support of the outcomes and targets.** A greater focus on the outcomes and targets means that both national and regional strategies and actions need to be considered. At present, the ASCC Blueprint does not emphasise concerted national efforts that complement the regional initiatives. The prioritisation of initiatives towards achieving agreed outcomes and targets entails a clear understanding of the relationships, including the magnitude of the relationships between the sub-group or sub-theme outputs and outcomes on the one hand, and the theme or group and overall outcomes and targets on the other hand.

**In short, the major challenge for the ASCC Blueprint is to reframe the measures and actions in terms of outcomes and targets, and not just outputs, which will help shape the unifying frameworks, the clearer understanding of the nature and degree of linkages of initiatives within the ASCC and those from the AEC and the APSC, focus on critical regional and national initiatives to have more impact given limited budgets, and allows for more rigorous monitoring and evaluation of the effectiveness of the ASCC Blueprint measures.**

This report proposes a framework and indicative outcomes and/or targets for ASCC post-2015 that hopefully would give greater cohesion and

help in prioritising the ASCC measures and actions post-2015. To a large extent, this could address the concerns of the current ASCC Blueprint raised earlier. The vision, indicative outcomes and/or targets, and framework for the ASCC post-2015 are discussed in Chapter 2.

The mid-term review of the ASCC Blueprint (2009–2015) listed other important challenges for the ASCC. Four are highlighted: (1) coordination and cross-sectoral mechanisms, (2) financial, (3) human and technical capacity, and (4) lack of awareness. The first three are important operational constraints. The financial, human, and technical capacity constraints are important challenges for some sectors and some member states. Thus, for example, lack of funds from ASEAN and/or member states meant that some sectors had to rely on dialogue partners for financing. Some member states have low capacity to prepare project proposals, and thereby exacerbated their financing constraints. Similarly, given that many ASCC themes and programmes are inherently multi-sectoral and multi-agency, effective coordination at the national level and well-performing cross-sectoral mechanisms at the regional level are important for the success of the ASCC Blueprint. As the mid-term review brings out, the lack of well-functioning coordination mechanisms in some sectors has led to delays and inefficient resource allocation. Problems of coordination in some member states were aggravated by constant changes in personnel and focal points. Finally, the mid-term review noted the limited awareness of ASEAN in general and the ASCC and its blueprint in particular (ASEAN, 2014b). These issues are addressed in **Chapters 5 and 6**.

## Appendix 1.A. Evaluation of the Performance of the Millennium Development Goals in ASEAN Member States

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

Country	Proportion of Population below the Poverty Line (%)				Poverty Gap Ratio		Share of Poorest Quintile in National Income or Consumption (%)
	\$1.25 a Day (PPP)		National				
	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	
Brunei Darussalam	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.d.
Cambodia	44.5 (1994)	18.6 (2009)	47.8 (2007)	18.9 (2012)	12.0 (1994)	3.5 (2009)	7.9 (2009)
Indonesia	54.3 (1990)	16.2 (2011)	17.6 (1996)	11.4 (2013)	15.6 (1990)	2.7 (2011)	7.3 (2011)
Lao PDR	55.7 (1992)	33.9 (2008)	46.0 (1992)	26.0 (2010)	16.2 (1992)	9.0 (2008)	7.6 (2008)
Malaysia	1.6 (1992)	0.0 (2009)	8.5 (1999)	1.7 (2012)	0.1 (1992)	0.0 (2009)	4.5 (2009)
Myanmar	n.d.	n.d.	32.1 (2005)	25.6 (2010)	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Philippines	30.7 (1991)	18.4 (2009)	34.4 (1991)	25.2 (2012)	8.6 (1991)	3.7 (2009)	6.0 (2009)
Singapore	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	4.9 (2013)
Thailand	11.6 (1990)	0.4 (2010)	58.11 (1990)	13.21 (2011)	2.4 (1990)	0.0 (2010)	6.8 (2010)
Viet Nam	63.7 (1993)	16.9 (2008)	20.7 (2010)	17.2 (2012)	23.6 (1993)	3.8 (2008)	7.4 (2008)

Note: n.d. = no data, n.a. = not applicable.

Sources: ADB (2014a) (data taken from different sources) and communication from the Government of Singapore.

**Target 1B: Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people**

Country	Growth Rate of GDP per Person Employed (% at constant 1990 \$ PPP)		Employment-to-Population Ratio (% aged 15 years and over)		Proportion of Employed People Living below \$1.25 (PPP) per Day (%)	
	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year
Brunei Darussalam	n.d.	n.d.	62.6 (1991)	63.1 (2001)	n.d.	n.d.
Cambodia	-5.8 (2001)	9.8 (2012)	76.4 (2000)	84.1 (2012)	43.3 (1994)	19.9 (2008)
Indonesia	8.1 (1991)	5.1 (2011)	55.7 (1992)	63.9 (2011)	52.3 (1993)	15.5 (2011)
Lao PDR	n.d.	n.d.	68.6 (1995)	65.7 (2005)	57.1 (1992)	32.8 (2008)
Malaysia	4.9 (1993)	2.0 (2012)	63.5 (1990)	63.5 (2012)	1.3 (1992)	0.1 (2009)
Myanmar	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	35.6 (2005)	n.d.
Philippines	-2.5 (1991)	5.6 (2012)	59.3 (1990)	59.7 (2012)	25.7 (1991)	15.2 (2009)
Singapore	17.6 (1991)	-0.8 (2012)	59.4 (2000)	64.1 (2013)	n.a.	n.a.
Thailand	7.5 (1991)	5.7 (2012)	76.9 (1990)	71.4 (2012)	6.6 (1992)	0.3 (2009)
Viet Nam	3.6 (1991)	3.6 (2012)	74.3 (1996)	75.5 (2012)	63.4 (1993)	15.8 (2008)

Note: n.d. = no data, n.a. = not applicable.

Sources: ADB (2014a), data taken from different sources, and communication from the Government of Singapore.

*(Continued)*

**Target 1C: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger**

Country	Prevalence of Underweight Children under 5 Years of Age (%)		Proportion of Population below Minimum Level of Dietary Energy Consumption (%)		
	Earliest Year	Latest Year	1991	2000	2012
Brunei Darussalam	n.a.	n.a.	3	2	0
Cambodia	42.6 (1996)	29.0 (2010)	39	34	15
Indonesia	29.8 (1992)	18.6 (2010)	22	20	9
Lao PDR	39.8 (1993)	31.6 (2006)	45	40	27
Malaysia	22.1 (1990)	12.9 (2006)	4	3	4
Myanmar	32.5 (1990)	22.6 (2009)	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Philippines	29.9 (1990)	20.2 (2011)	25	21	16
Singapore	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Thailand	16.3 (1993)	7.0 (2006)	43	20	6
Viet Nam	36.9 (1993)	12.0 (2011)	48	20	8

Note: n.d. = no data, n.a. = not applicable.

Sources: ADB (2014a), data taken from different sources.

**Target 2A: Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling**

Country	Net Enrolment Ratio in Primary Education (%)		Proportion of Pupils Starting Grade 1 Who Reach the Last Grade of Primary (%)	
	1990	2012	1990	2011
Brunei Darussalam	91.5 (1991)	95.7	79.7 (1991)	96.4
Cambodia	82.7 (1997)	98.4	34.4 (1994)	65.9
Indonesia	97.9	95.3	79.7	89
Lao PDR	64.9	95.9	32.7	69.9
Malaysia	96.2 (1994)	97.0 (2005)	83	99.2 (2009)
Myanmar	n.d.	n.d.	55.2 (2000)	74.8 (2009)
Philippines	98.4	88.6 (2009)	60.9	75.8 (2008)
Singapore	95.7 (2000)	100 (2013)	n.d.	100 (2013)
Thailand	93.9 (2006)	95.6 (2009)	81.5 (1999)	93.6 (2000)
Viet Nam	97.9 (1998)	98.2	82.8 (1999)	97.5

Note: n.d. = no data.

Sources: ADB (2014a), data taken from different sources, and communication from the Government of Singapore.

*(Continued)***Target 3A: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015**

Country	Ratio of Girls to Boys in Education Levels					
	Primary		Secondary		Tertiary	
	1991	2012	1991	2012	1991	2012
Brunei Darussalam	0.94	0.98	1.09	1.01	1.36 (1992)	1.74
Cambodia	0.84 (1994)	0.95	0.54 (1998)	0.85 (2008)	0.21 (1993)	0.61 (2011)
Indonesia	0.98	1	0.82	1.03	0.66 (1993)	1.03
Lao PDR	0.79	0.95	0.66 (1992)	0.87	0.43 (1993)	0.82
Malaysia	1	0.94 (2005)	1.05	0.97 (2011)	1.07 (1998)	1.20 (2011)
Myanmar	0.94	0.99 (2010)	0.96	1.05 (2010)	1.22 (1992)	1.34 (2011)
Philippines	0.99	0.98 (2009)	1.04 (1990)	1.08 (2009)	1.49 (1992)	1.24 (2009)
Singapore	0.99 (2000)	1 (2013)	1 (2000)	1 (2013)	0.91 (2000)	1.08 (2013)
Thailand	0.98	0.95 (2013)	0.96	1.06	1.14 (1993)	1.34 (2013)
Viet Nam	0.99	1.01	0.90 (1998)	1.09 (2010)	0.66 (1998)	1.02 (2011)

Sources: ADB (2014a), data taken from different sources, and communication from the Government of Singapore. Data for Viet Nam's 2010 secondary ratio is obtained from ASCC scorecard data provided by the ASEAN Secretariat.

**Target 4A: Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-5 mortality rate**

Country	Under-5 Mortality Rate (per 1,000 live births)			Infant Mortality Rate (per 1,000 live births)		
	1990	2000	2012	1990	2000	2012
Brunei Darussalam	10	10	10	7	7	9
Cambodia	116	111	40	85	82	34
Indonesia	84	52	31	62	41	26
Lao PDR	163	120	72	112	85	54
Malaysia	17	10	9	14	9	7
Myanmar	106	79	52	76	59	41
Philippines	59	40	30	41	30	24
Singapore	8	4	3	6	3	2
Thailand	38	23	13	31	19	11
Viet Nam	51	32	23	36	25	18

Sources: ADB (2014a), data taken from different sources, and communication from the Government of Brunei Darussalam.

*(Continued)***Target 5A: Reduce by three-quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio**

Country	Maternal Mortality Ratio (per 100,000 live births)		Proportion of Births Attended by Skilled Health Personnel (%)		Antenatal Care Coverage (% of live births)	
	1990	2013	Earliest Year	Latest Year	≥ One Visit	≥ Four Visits
Brunei Darussalam	0	15	97.8 (1991)	99.7 (2013)	99.0 (2009)	n.d.
Cambodia	1,200	170	34.0 (1998)	71.7 (2011)	89.1 (2010)	59.4 (2010)
Indonesia	430	190	31.7 (1991)	83.1 (2012)	95.7 (2012)	87.8 (2012)
Lao PDR	1,100	220	19.4 (2000)	41.5 (2012)	54.2 (2012)	36.9 (2012)
Malaysia	56	29	92.8 (1990)	98.6 (2011)	97.4 (2011)	n.d.
Myanmar	580	200	46.3 (1991)	70.6 (2010)	83.1 (2010)	73.4 (2007)
Philippines	110	120	52.8 (1993)	62.2 (2008)	91.1 (2008)	77.8 (2008)
Singapore	17 (2000)	3 (2013)	99.7 (2000)	99.7 (2013)	n.d.	n.d.
Thailand	42	26	99.3 (2000)	99.5 (2009)	99.1 (2009)	79.6 (2009)
Viet Nam	140	49	77.1 (1997)	92.9 (2011)	93.7 (2011)	59.6 (2011)

Note: n.d. = no data.

Sources: ADB (2014a), data taken from different sources, and communication from the governments of Brunei Darussalam and Singapore.

**Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases**

Country	HIV Prevalence (% of population 15–49 years)		Incidence of Tuberculosis (per 100,000 population)		Prevalence of Tuberculosis (per 100,000 population)	
	2001	2012	1990	2012	1990	2012
Brunei Darussalam	0.008	0.003	56	52 (2013)	55 (1995)	73 (2013)
Cambodia	1.5	0.8	580	411	1667	764
Indonesia	0.1	0.4	206	185	442	297
Lao PDR	0.1	0.3	492	204	1491	514
Malaysia	0.4	0.4	127	80	242	101
Myanmar	0.8	0.6	393	377	894	489
Philippines	0.1	0.1	393	265	1003	461
Singapore	0.004	0.022	46 (2000)	38 (2013)	n.d.	n.d.
Thailand	1.8	1.1	138	119	227	159
Viet Nam	0.3	0.4	251	147	525	218

Note: n.d. = no data.

Sources: ADB (2014a), data taken from different sources, and communication from the governments of Brunei Darussalam and Singapore.

(Continued)

**Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability**

Country	Proportion of Land Area Covered by Forest (%)		Terrestrial Areas Protected to Total Surface Area (%)		Marine Areas Protected to Territorial Waters (%)		Population Using Improved Water Sources (%)		Population Using Improved Sanitation Facilities (%)	
	1990	2010	1990	2012	1990	2012	1990	2012	1990	2012
Brunei Darussalam	78.4	72.1	36.7	44	1.4	1.4	100 (2009)	100	95	95
Cambodia	73.3	57.2	0	26.2	n.d.	0.5	22	71	3	37
Indonesia	65.4	52.1	10	14.7	0.4	5.8	70	85	35	59
Lao PDR	75.0	68.2	1.5	16.7	n.d.	n.d.	40 (1994)	72	20 (1994)	65
Malaysia	68.1	62.3	17.1	18.4	1.5	2.3	88	100	84	96
Myanmar	59.6	48.3	3	7.3	0.2	0.2	56	86	53 (1991)	77
Philippines	22	25.7	8.7	10.9	0.3	2.5	84	92	57	74
Singapore	24 (2000)	23 (2013)	5	5.4	n.d.	1.4	100	100	100	100
Thailand	38.3	37.1	11.9	18.8	3.8	5.1	86	96	82	93
Viet Nam	30.2	44.5	4.6	6.5	0.3	1.7	61	95	37	75

Note: n.d. = no data.

Sources: ADB (2014a), data taken from different sources, and communication from the Government of Singapore. Data for Brunei Darussalam's share of population with improved water sources and sanitation facilities is obtained from ASCC scorecard data provided by the ASEAN Secretariat.