



Development
Progress

Regional Scorecard

Projecting progress

The SDGs in Asia and the Pacific

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Suggested citation: Nicolai, S., Bhatkal,
T., Hoy, C., and Aedy, T. (2016) *Projecting
progress: The SDGs in Asia and the Pacific*.
London: Overseas Development Institute.

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Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to Nagesh Kumar (ESCAP), Matthew Hammill (ESCAP), Martin Staab (Georgetown University), Shekhar Shah (NCAER), Mousumi Das (NCAER) and Elizabeth Stuart (ODI) for comments on an earlier draft of this report. Editorial and publication support was provided by Sophy Kershaw and Chris Little.

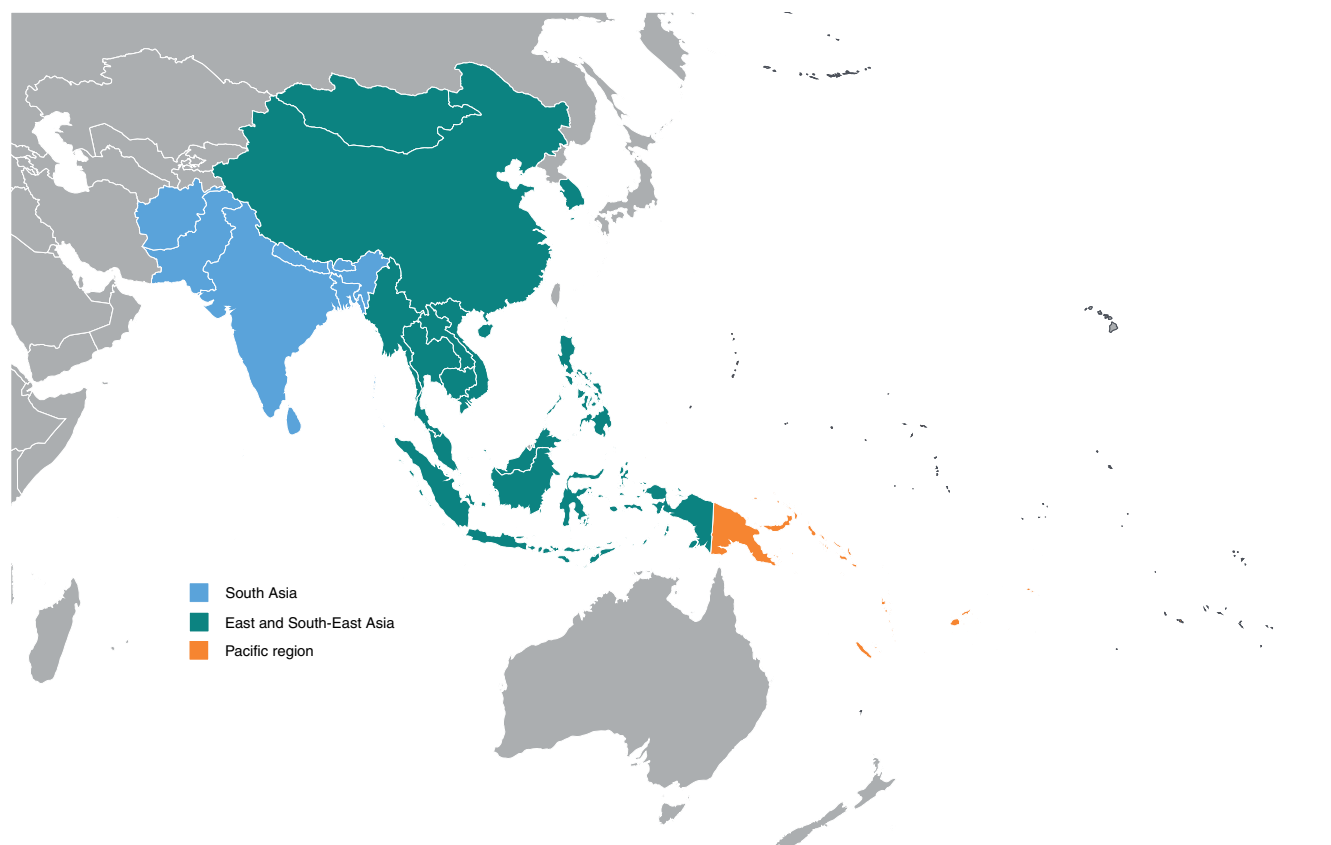
The paper was funded by the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation as part of Development Progress, a four-year research project that aims to better understand, measure and communicate what has worked in development and why. Its findings and conclusions are those of the authors and do not reflect the positions or policies of the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation.

Acronyms

EAS	East and South-East Asia
GDP	Gross domestic product
HIC	High-Income Country
LDC	Least-Developed Country
LIC	Low-Income Country
LMIC	Lower-Middle-Income Country

MDG	Millennium Development Goal
PAC	Pacific Region
SAS	South Asia
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
WDI	World Development Indicators

Map of regions used in report*



* While care was taken in the creation of this map, neither the authors nor ODI can accept any responsibility for errors, omissions, or positional accuracy.

Key messages

- This paper presents Asia-Pacific's likely progress across the Sustainable Development Goals agenda, if trends continue on their current trajectories. Some Asian countries have been the world's top performers on a number of Millennium Development Goal targets. The region's progress sets it up well to continue making gains, but there are a number of goals and targets that will not be met without major new effort.
- The region is on track to do well on five goals and targets: those related to halting deforestation, bringing an end to extreme poverty, improving access to sanitation, expanding energy access, and economic growth in Least Developed Countries. A further eight goals are progressing, but at speeds nowhere near fast enough to reach targets by 2030.
- Four goals and targets are of particular concern: these will need to see a reversal in current trajectories, as they are moving in the wrong direction. These targets relate to reducing slum populations, reducing waste, combating climate change and marine conservation, and will require global reversals.
- Disparities across the region mean that progress is unequal, and disparities are often persistent. East and South-East Asia is set to do much better on industrialisation and peace, and South Asia on domestic resource mobilisation, than other sub-regions. The Pacific will lag behind others on a number of targets if present trends continue. Significant inequalities can also be found in-country, where factors like ethnicity, gender and age lead to certain groups falling behind.
- This analysis is one of a series of regional scorecards, which also includes papers on sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America. The work is modelled on a global scorecard for the SDGs, presented in the ODI report *Projecting Progress: Reaching the SDGs by 2030* (Nicolai et al., 2015).

1. Introduction

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), made up of 17 goals and 169 targets, form an ambitious agenda across a wide range of development imperatives that will shape international development efforts for the next 15 years. They highlight the complexity and wide scope of development challenges, and the need for solutions to the world's urgent development issues, with 'all countries and all stakeholders, acting in collaborative partnership, [to] implement this plan' (UN, 2015).

But can the SDG agenda really be achieved, and what will it take to do so? While there is agreement on what the global goals are, there is significant variation in the likelihood of achieving these goals by 2030 across regions and countries. As SDG implementation begins, it is timely to look more closely at current rates of progress. Assessing what the SDGs mean for the scale of ambition in different regions can help guide prioritisation and early actions across the goals.

In September 2015, ODI published a global SDG scorecard, *Projecting Progress: Reaching the SDGs by 2030*. This report offered the first systematic attempt to project progress across the SDG agenda, and assessed how close to the achieving the goals the world would be in 2030 if current trends continue (Nicolai et al., 2015).

This report, modelled on that global scorecard, presents a more detailed look at projected progress for Asia-Pacific. It uses data collected during the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) period and calculates progress forward to establish where we would be in 2030 if current trends continue. It is one of a series of three regional scorecards being published in the first half of 2016, identifying in more detail where there is significant progress, what issues need greater attention, and which trends must be reversed to achieve the goals by 2030.

1.1 Asia-Pacific during the MDG era

Since 2000, the MDGs have focused attention and development finance on action to address a range of critical issues. The Asia-Pacific region¹ has played a key role in helping the world move towards achieving many of the MDGs, as some Asian countries have been the world's top performers. By 2015 Asia-Pacific reached 13 out of the 21 MDG targets tracked (ESCAP et al., 2015).

Overall, the biggest success for the Asia-Pacific region has been in reducing extreme poverty – between 1990 and 2012, the share of the region's population living on less than US\$1.25 (2005 PPP) declined from 53% to

14% (World Bank, 2016a). The MDG target to halve the poverty rate was achieved in all but one of the countries with available data in the region.

In terms of social development, nearly all primary school-aged children in the region complete school, with gender parity at all education levels. On the health front, there has been success in reducing the incidence and prevalence of tuberculosis. While targets on maternal and child health were not reached, there has been considerable progress. For instance, even though the target of a two-thirds reduction in the under-five mortality rate has not been met, this rate has fallen by 58% since 1990. The maternal mortality rate declined by 61%, although short of the MDG target of a 75% reduction (ESCAP et al., 2015).

Significant progress has also occurred on other fronts. For instance, more than two-thirds of Asia-Pacific countries are expected to meet the target of halving the proportion of population without access to safe drinking water, with the share falling from 28% to 7% over the past 15 years (ibid.). Yet progress on sanitation has been much slower, with the share of people without access to adequate sanitation falling by only 37%. Today, 42% of the population, amounting to around 1.7 billion people – with a disproportionate share in India – still lack access to sanitation (ibid.).

Progress has also been slow in some other areas. Asia-Pacific as a whole struggled to improve nutrition among children. Even today, more than 20% of children under five are moderately or severely underweight (ESCAP et al., 2015). There was considerable reduction in maternal mortality, but the proportion of live births without skilled birth attendance fell by only 36% – compared to the target of universal coverage – with 27% of births still occurring without any qualified medical attention (ibid.).

There are some differences between sub-regions. South-East Asia is expected to have met 14 MDG targets, notably three that were missed by the region overall – on the share of underweight children, access to sanitation, and antenatal care (ibid.). However, it is not expected to have met the targets on increasing forest cover and achieving universal primary enrolment, which have been met by the continent as a whole.

South Asia is expected to meet 11 of the 21 MDG targets tracked. Its main successes reflect those of Asia-Pacific as a whole but are notable in a few respects: South Asia failed to reduce the incidence of school drop-outs, and to achieve gender parity in secondary and tertiary education (ibid.). However, India's performance sways the outcomes for the sub-region heavily. Excluding India,

1 The focus of this discussion is on East and South-East Asia, South Asia, and the Pacific countries, which are the sub-regions examined in the projections in the following sections.

the sub-region it is expected to achieve gender equality in tertiary education – but fares lower on four other targets.

Data gaps make tracking progress in the Pacific region difficult; for instance, of the 19 countries studied in the regional MDG progress report, only one had data on extreme poverty. Of the 17 targets that could be tracked for the sub-region, it is expected to meet eight (ESCAP et al., 2015).

Overall, progress made over the past two decades leaves the Asia-Pacific region well placed to tackle new challenges set out by the SDG agenda. Equally, slow gains on some MDGs mean the region has an extensive unfinished agenda.

The SDGs, many of which follow from key MDGs and their remaining agenda, for the first time bring together goals on social, economic and environmental issues. In this regard, it is timely to look at the SDGs, projecting forward what progress Asia-Pacific is likely to make across a range of targets by 2030, if present trends continue.

1.2 The SDGs and Asia-Pacific

The SDGs have been adopted through an inclusive process that involved an unprecedented level of buy-in and ownership among governments from across the world. Developing countries in particular played a key role in the process through which the SDGs were formulated, and a number of leaders from the Asia-Pacific region were closely involved in the process.

For instance, the High Level Panel on the post-2015 development agenda, which ran from 2012 to 2013, was co-chaired by His Excellency Mr. Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono, the President of Indonesia, and involved representatives from other countries in the region including China, Japan, India and Timor-Leste. The Asia-Pacific region also had seven out of the 30 seats on the Open Working Group (OWG) on the Sustainable Development Goals: although less than the population share of the region, these seats were shared by 21 countries through rotation.

China and India in particular pushed for ‘common but differentiated responsibilities (CBDR)’ till the end of the OWG’s consultations on the post-2015 development agenda, insisting on its importance to the climate change agenda, but also extending it to financing for development (Lucci et al., 2015). Without China and India and their weight behind the G77+China group, such issues may not have been deliberated upon. They also pushed for greater ‘South-South’ cooperation and for technology transfer.

Countries from Asia-Pacific have actively participated on other fronts. Several countries from the region are members of the inter-agency and expert group on SDG indicators. Five countries from the region are members of the High Level Group for Participation, Coordination and Capacity Building for post-2015 monitoring. In addition, four countries from Asia and the Pacific – China, Philippines, Republic of Korea, and Samoa – have volunteered to be reviewed by the High Level Political Forum on Sustainable Development in 2016.

Moreover, civil society organisations within the region also played a significant role. The Asia-Pacific Regional CSO Engagement Mechanism, driven by civil society organisations under the auspices of UN ESCAP, aims to ensure stronger cross-constituency coordination and that voices from the grassroots are heard in intergovernmental processes.

1.3 About this regional scorecard

This regional scorecard presents projections based on recent trends extended forward to 2030. Following on from the global analysis prepared for the *Projecting Progress* scorecard (Nicolai et al., 2015), we used the same 17 targets and the same methodology, and projected forward to 2030, grading sub-regions within Asia-Pacific according to how close they will be to goal-completion in 2030.

Based on these projections, we provide a scorecard of where Asia-Pacific as a whole, as well as the three sub-regions of South Asia, East and South-East Asia, and the Pacific, will be in 2030 on each target, assuming progress continues at its present pace.²

While the SDG agenda is indeed a universal global agenda, given the heterogeneity of challenges across countries, high-income countries (HICs) are excluded from this analysis, which pertains mainly to projected progress in developing regions.³

The report is structured in five sections. Following this introduction, Section 2 provides a brief overview of the methodology used to produce the scorecard, with further details offered in the annex. Section 3 discusses the key findings of the projections by goal and target for Asia-Pacific and the three sub-regions, and highlights case studies of top performers across some of the goals. Section 4 focuses on the importance of equity issues in achieving the SDGs, looking more closely at what the core SDG commitment to ‘leave no one behind’ might mean for Asia-Pacific, and providing a few country examples. Section 5 concludes.

2 We do not include Central Asia as part of this analysis, partly as it is often grouped together with Eastern Europe as a region and it would be difficult to disaggregate for some goals and targets.

3 The excluded HICs in Asia-Pacific are Australia, Brunei, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, Singapore and as well as Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan when they are listed separately to China.

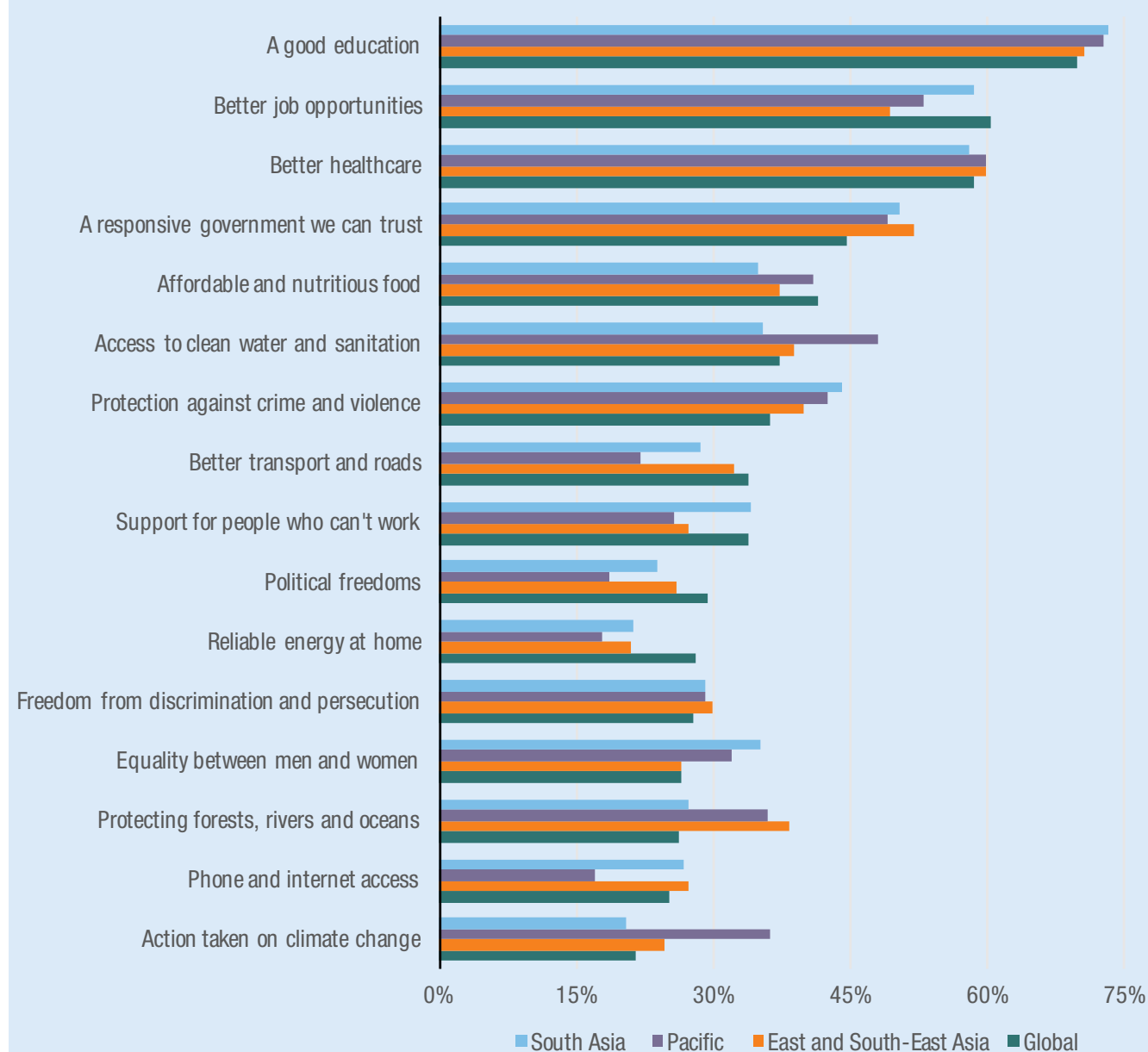
Box 1: What do people in Asia-Pacific want?

We can gain further knowledge of Asian development priorities through the MY World survey, a global UN survey that aimed to understand the development priorities of people from across the world in order to inform and influence the SDGs. It asked respondents one simple question*: which six (out of 16) development priorities were most important to them and their families? To date, over 9.7 million people have responded to the survey.

In the MY World survey Asian priorities seem to reflect much of what is important to people globally. Both globally and in Asia-Pacific people have ranked highest a good education, better healthcare, job opportunities, and a responsive government that can be trusted, with at least half of respondents selecting these four among their six top priorities.

There are, however, two marked differences between the global average priorities and those reported in Asia-Pacific (Figure 1). One relates to the environmental options. While ‘action on climate change’ ranks last overall globally and in South Asia (and fifteenth in East and South-East Asia), it ranks eighth in the Pacific region. ‘Protecting forests, rivers and oceans’ ranks fourteenth globally, but is prioritised higher in Asia-Pacific where it ranks seventh in East and South-East Asia, ninth in the Pacific region and twelfth in South Asia. The other difference relates to the prioritisation of equality between men and women, particularly in South Asia. While this option ranks thirteenth globally, it is seventh in South Asia and tenth in the Pacific.

Figure 1: MY World Asia-Pacific priorities (%)



*The MyWorld survey is available online (in the six UN official languages), through mobile phones using a short message service (SMS) and toll-free phone using interactive voice response, and via paper-and-pencil-based offline surveys conducted by grassroots organisations. It was designed to be as open as possible to encourage maximum responses; as a result, it does not employ a rigorous sampling methodology and is not intended to be representative in the statistical sense.

‘We [have] adopted a pro-people and pro-planet universal development Agenda. Shared prosperity through shared responsibility is the hallmark of Agenda 2030. For the global community to transform, we need to ensure equality across communities and countries’ – Sheikh Hasina, Prime Minister of Bangladesh

2. Approach and methodology

This section explains how we constructed the projections, assigned the grades and sourced data. Annex 1 contains further detailed description of the methodology and shows how certain targets were adjusted to allow for projections to be made.

The SDGs form an integrated agenda across 17 goals and 169 targets. It is not feasible to make projections for all the targets, for several reasons: not all targets are easily quantifiable, and, for those that are, data is not always available. Among the targets for which we could make projections, we only chose one target per goal in order to make analysis and discussion more manageable.

Each of the 17 targets we selected broadly reflects the essence of its overarching goal. That said, the projections only relate to a specific target within each goal, and should not be interpreted as indicative of how the whole goal will fare. This scorecard therefore presents the trend for one key target for each goal, as opposed to all targets under all goals. Therefore, this exercise is only intended to be illustrative of progress across a wide range of targets. We used the same targets and indicators as the global SDG scorecard, *Projecting Progress: Reaching the SDGs by 2030*⁴ (Nicolai et al., 2015); a detailed discussion about the selection of each target and the assumptions behind projecting the SDG indicators to 2030 can be found in the annex to that report.⁵

Most of the projections in the global SDG scorecard were sourced from leading international organisations. However, when no projections were available, we calculated our own. However, of the projections on SDG targets available from international organisations, very few are disaggregated to the country level. To produce this regional scorecard, we needed to develop our own projections for most of the targets. The exceptions are: education (Goal 4), waste (Goal 12), domestic resource mobilisation (Goal 17) and marine environment (Goal 14). For the first three, country-level projections are

available⁶ (see Table 2, overleaf). For marine environment, the best available data indicated that it is impossible to disaggregate beyond the regional level.

We calculate all grades at the country level (see Annex 2, page 40) as the SDGs will be implemented at the country level. However, this regional scorecard is intended to provide a broader picture for the Asia-Pacific region as a whole and therefore it discusses grades at regional, sub-regional and, to some extent, country level.

We have used standard UN geographic breakdowns.⁷ To determine regional and sub-regional grades, we calculated a simple average across countries that had data available instead of a population-weighted average. In instances where only a small number of countries in a specific sub-region have data, we indicate this by an asterisk in the scorecard on page 16.

This has been done for two main reasons. Firstly, a population-weighted average would mean that a few populous countries would drive the sub-regional average. Using the example of South Asia, where India makes up the vast majority of the population, a population-weighted average for the sub-region would obscure the performance of other countries. Secondly, owing to limited data availability, it was not possible to produce a robust population-weighted average. This is because, when data was missing, we would have had to make assumptions about how countries performed.

Steps to calculate grades

Four main steps were used to calculate the grades assigned to countries in the Asian scorecard. Each of these steps is summarised below:

1. Calculate current rates of progress based on recent trends: we calculated the average annual change over

‘Just as our vision behind the Agenda 2030 is lofty, our goals are comprehensive. It gives priority to the problems that have endured through the past decades. And it reflects our evolving understanding of the social, economic and environmental linkages that define our lives. We live in an age of unprecedented prosperity, but also unspeakable deprivation around the world’ – Narendra Modi, Prime Minister of India

4 The indicators used were selected in mid-2015, when the indicators used to measure progress on the SDGs were still under initial discussion.

5 http://www.developmentprogress.org/sites/default/files/scorecard_annex.pdf

6 The domestic resource mobilisation target relies on International Monetary Fund (IMF) projections to 2020. The trajectory of the IMF projections is assumed to continue to 2030, as per the methodology in the global SDG scorecard.

7 <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/methods/m49/m49regin.htm>



Railway in Bangladesh. Photo: © Asian Development Bank.

the past decade was calculated using the most recent 10 years of data.

2. Project what would be achieved in 2030 if current trends continue: we determined levels of achievement by 2030 by assuming that the current rate of progress would continue over the next 15 years.
3. Determine how much faster progress would need to be to achieve the SDGs: we applied a standard approach to each indicator in order to determine how much faster the rate of progress would need to be to achieve the relevant SDG. The formula used can be found in the annex.
4. Assign grades based upon the projected rate of progress: we assigned grades to provide an easy way to understand the increase in rates of progress needed to achieve the SDG target by 2030. Table 1 explains the basis of each of the grades.

Our grades and discussion are not a reflection of countries' and regions' likely performance on the targets under consideration but rather where they will be in 2030 if present trends continue. The implicit assumption made here is that progress does not get easier or harder as countries get the closer to achieving the target, which may not always be the case in practice.

Data sources

The World Bank was the main source of data for 12 of the projections. For the remaining five projections, we relied on the leading international organisation to provide the best available data (see Table 2, overleaf). For example, data on child marriage was sourced from UNICEF (2016) and data on slums was sourced from UNHABITAT (2016).

Table 1: SDG Scorecard 2030 grading system

Grading system	A	B	C	D	E	F
Current trends suggest:	Meet the target	More than half-way to target	More than a third of the way to target	More than a quarter of the way to target	Little to no progress	Reverse direction of current trends

Table 2: Data sources used in projections

	Topic	Target	Indicator used	Data Source
1	Poverty	End extreme poverty	Share of population living under the international poverty line	World Bank (2016c) <i>PovcalNET</i>
2	Hunger	2.1 End hunger	Share of population that is under-nourished (food intake is insufficient to meet dietary-energy requirements continuously)	World Bank (2016a) <i>World Development Indicators (WDI)</i>
3	Health	3.1 Reduce maternal mortality	Maternal mortality ratio (modelled estimate, per 100,000 live births)	World Bank (2016a) <i>WDI</i>
4	Education	4.1 Universal secondary education	Percentage of the population aged 20-24 that have completed upper secondary-level education	World Bank (2016b) <i>EdStats: Education Statistics</i>
5	Gender	5.3 End child marriage	Share of women aged 20-24 who were married before 18	UNICEF (2016) <i>State of the World's Children reports</i>
6	Water/ Sanitation	6.1 Universal access to sanitation	Share of population with access to improved sanitation facilities	World Bank (2016a) <i>WDI</i>
7	Energy	7.1 Universal access to energy	Share of population with access to electricity	World Bank (2016a) <i>WDI</i>
8	Growth	8.1 Economic growth in LDCs	Annual percentage GDP growth	World Bank (2016a) <i>WDI</i>
9	Industrialisation	9.2 Industrialisation in LDCs	Industry, value added (% of GDP)	World Bank (2016a) <i>WDI</i>
10	Inequality	10.1 Reduce income inequality	Growth of income of the bottom 40% relative to average	World Bank (2016c) <i>PovcalNET</i>
11	Cities	11.1 Reduce slum populations	Share of urban population living in slums	UNHABITAT (2016) <i>Urban Data</i>
12	Waste	12.5 Reduce waste	Solid waste generated per person (tonnes)	Hoornweg and Bhada-Tata (2012)
13	Climate change	13.2 Combat climate change	Average annual carbon emissions per country (millions of tonnes)	World Bank (2016a) <i>WDI</i>
14	Oceans	14.2 Protect marine environments	Reefs under threat (%)	Burke et al. (2011)
15	Biodiversity	15.2 Halt deforestation	Forest area as a share of total land area	World Bank (2016a) <i>WDI</i>
16	Peace	16.1 Reduce violent deaths	Violent deaths as a share of total deaths	WHO (2016) <i>Mortality and Causes of Death</i>
17	Partnerships	17.1 Mobilise domestic resources	Government revenue as a share of GDP	IMF (2016) <i>World Economic Outlook</i>

3. Projections based on current trends

This section provides an indication of the level of progress countries in Asia-Pacific are set to achieve by 2030 against the selected SDG targets. We include a discussion of projected progress on each target and a series of case studies of top-performing countries to contextualise how progress can happen. This section gives an overview of some of the key findings, while Annex 2 provides a comprehensive breakdown of grades at the country level.

We focus on projections for three sub-regions: South, East and South-East Asia, and the Pacific.⁸ In the scorecard below we show grades based on the projected performance of Asia-Pacific and each sub-region.

If present trends continue, some targets look set to be, or close to being, achieved by 2030, while other targets are far off track or need current trends to be reversed. We group targets into three categories based on how much faster progress will need to be compared to present trends to achieve the targets by 2030. The following discussion of regional performance is framed around three groups of targets:

- Those that require **reform**. Current trends will take these targets more than half-way to achievement. Across Asia-Pacific, five targets are included in this group. This group includes halting deforestation (Goal 15), which the region is on track to achieve based on our grading system. In addition, Asia-Pacific is projected to make more than half the progress needed on: ending extreme poverty (Goal 1), access to sanitation (Goal 6), access to energy (Goal 7), and strong economic growth in Least Developed Countries (LDCs) (Goal 8).
- Those that will need a **revolution**. These are targets where progress needs to speed up by multiples of current rates. This group includes eliminating hunger (Goal 2), reducing maternal mortality (Goal 3), secondary-school completion (Goal 4), ending child marriage (Goal 5), reducing inequality (Goal 10), strengthening domestic resource mobilisation for development (Goal 17), industrialisation in LDCs (Goal 9), and reducing violent deaths (Goal 16).
- Those that require a **reversal**. The targets in this group are heading in the wrong direction. They include lowering slum populations (Goal 11), reducing waste

(Goal 12), combating climate change (Goal 13), and marine conservation (Goal 14).

In addition to looking at aggregate projected grades across the region, it is crucial to consider the differences between sub-regions and countries, which are often quite significant. For instance, East and South-East Asia as well as South Asia receive a 'B' for the targets on sanitation and energy. However, the Pacific scored worse ('E' and 'D' respectively), meaning it would need a 'revolution' to meet the goal. On the other hand, while South Asia is on track to achieve the target for domestic resource mobilisation and was assigned an 'A' grade, the other two sub-regions both need to reverse their present trend in order to stand a chance of achieving the target. In addition, while the Pacific and South Asia are projected to make limited progress on reducing inequality – and were assigned a 'D' grade – East and South-East Asia is moving the wrong direction.

A poor score does not imply a prediction of failure but rather highlights the scale of the challenge set out by the SDG targets. The very purpose of goals is to stretch countries beyond present trends. Indeed, based on present trends we will not achieve any of the targets considered globally (Nicolai et al., 2015). In that regard the SDGs set out an ambitious agenda with the aim of inspiring countries and the global community to action.

3.1 'Reform': moving toward the last mile

Target 15.2 Halt deforestation (Grade A)

By 2020, promote the implementation of sustainable management of all types of forests, halt deforestation, restore degraded forests, and increase afforestation and reforestation globally.

On average, no change is projected for forest area as a share of land area in the region, which is why it receives an 'A' grade.⁹ On average there are set to be slight differences across sub-regions; in South Asia and the Pacific, forest area as a share of total area is set to increase, while in East and South-East Asia it is set to decrease slightly (Figure 2).

⁸ The excluded HICs in Asia-Pacific are Japan, Korea, Australia, New Zealand, Singapore, Brunei, as well as Hong Kong, Taiwan and Macau when they are listed separately to China.

⁹ See Annex 1 for detailed discussion around grading of this target.

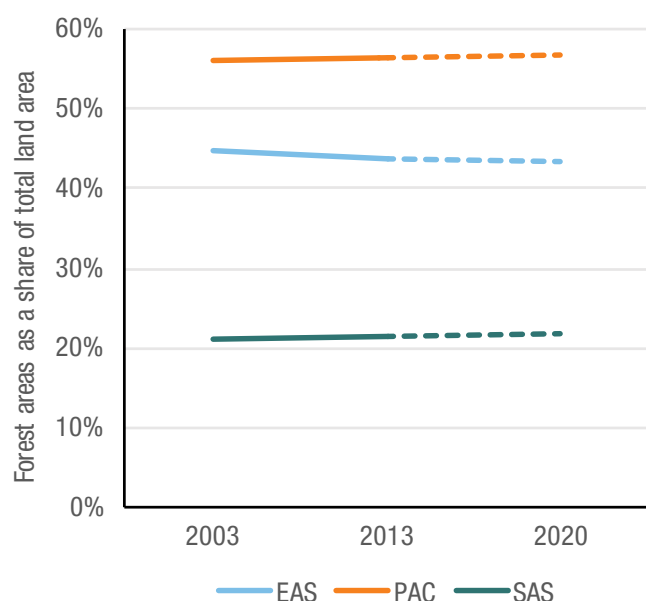
SDG SCORECARD 2030

ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

Goal	Target	Grade			
		Asia**	East/ Southeast Asia	Pacific	South Asia
15. BIODIVERSITY	15.2 Halt Deforestation	A	A	A	B
1. POVERTY	1.1 End Extreme Poverty	B	B	C	B
6. WATER & SANITATION	6.2 Universal Access to Sanitation	B	B	E	B
7. ENERGY	7.1 Universal Access to Energy	B	B	D	B
8. GROWTH	8.1 Economic Growth in LDCs	B	A	C	B
2. HUNGER	2.1 End Hunger	C	C	E	C
3. HEALTH	3.1 Reduce Maternal Mortality	C	C	D	B
4. EDUCATION	4.1 Universal Secondary Education	D	D	D	E
5. GENDER	5.3 End Child Marriage	D	D	N/A	E
10. INEQUALITY	10.1 Reduce Income Inequality	D	F	D*	D
17. PARTNERSHIPS	17.1 Mobilise Domestic Resources	D	F	F	A
9. INDUSTRIALISATION	9.2 Industrialisation in LDCs	E	B*	F*	E
16. PEACE	16.1 Reduce Violent Deaths	E	C	E*	F
11. CITIES	11.1 Reduce Slum Populations	F	F	N/A	F
12. WASTE	12.5 Reduce Waste	F	F	E	F
13. CLIMATE CHANGE	13.2 Combat Climate Change	F	F	F	F
14. OCEANS	14.2 Protect Marine Environments	F	F	F	F

Note: *means that grades are based on trends in three or less countries due to limited data availability. ** Developing countries in South Asia, East and Southeast Asia, the Pacific with available data are included in the projections discussed.

Figure 2: Projections for Target 15.2 – Halt deforestation



Around nine out of 10 countries in the region are on track to see little change in the share of total land area covered by forests. However, there is considerable variation between the remaining countries. Some, such as Laos and Bhutan, are on track to make significant progress if current trends continue, increasing their forest cover between now and 2020. In Bhutan the share of forests in total land area increased from 66% to 72% in the past decade, and the drivers of progress here are discussed in Box 2. On the other hand, countries like Pakistan and Timor-Leste appear to be heading in the wrong direction on this target.

Target 1.1 End extreme poverty (Grade B)

*By 2030, eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere, currently measured as people living on less than US\$1.25 a day.*¹⁰

If current trends continue, Asia-Pacific will almost achieve this target by 2030, which is why it receives a ‘B’ grade. Nearly half the countries in Asia-Pacific are on track to reduce extreme poverty by 90% or more by 2030. Some lower middle-income countries (LMICs) such as Vietnam,

Box 2: Bhutan’s success on environmental conservation

The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) estimates that Bhutan’s forests (and other wooded land) covered 77% of the land area in 1990; by 2000, this had increased to 81% (Meyfroidt and Lambin, 2010). The government of Bhutan has placed environmental conservation at the core of its development policy. Strong policies, matched by financial support from the government and donors, explain this environmental success.

Forests are recognised for their long-term value as rich ecosystems and cultural heritage through bold legislation. Protective legislation began to appear in the 1960s. Today, 10 formally protected areas comprise 38% of Bhutan’s land area. ‘Wildlife corridors’ between protected areas preserve biodiversity by avoiding habitat fragmentation. The National Forest Policy 1991 set restrictions on tree felling, created new afforestation programmes and declared all non-private forest land to be government-owned forest reserves. The Forest and Nature Conservation Act 1995, which created new protected areas, mandates the protection of certain species while allowing provision for communities to continue accessing forest resources (Uddin et al., 2007). Tree planting on degraded and barren forest land has been a longstanding policy activity of the Department of Forestry and has featured in all Bhutan’s five-year plans, with approximately 2,500 hectares planted per plan (NEC, 2008).

Financial backing for capacity-building purposes has been key to the implementation of this legislation. The Bhutan Trust Fund for Environmental Conservation, the world’s first environmental trust fund, was established in 1991 as a collaborative venture between the government and international donors. It has issued grants worth US\$11 million to build local human and institutional capacity to manage national parks, improve awareness and public support for conservation, and ensure economic development is integrated with environmental conservation.

There has been a significant push to ensure environmental concerns are mainstreamed in national plans and policies. Article 5 of the 2008 Constitution stipulates that a minimum of 60% of land must be maintained under forest cover in perpetuity. The Constitution requires the government to ensure economic development is ecologically balanced. The Environmental Assessment Act was passed in 2000 to establish procedures to assess potential environmental effects of development plans, programmes, policies and projects. The Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) regulation of 2002 requires any agency that creates, modifies or implements a policy to perform an SEA before proposals are considered for adoption.

The government’s current policy is not without challenges. Greater community participation in forestry management is needed to minimise adverse impacts of conservation enforcement, such as restrictions on the use of forest products, damaged crops and livestock killed by protected predators (Gurung and Seeland, 2008).

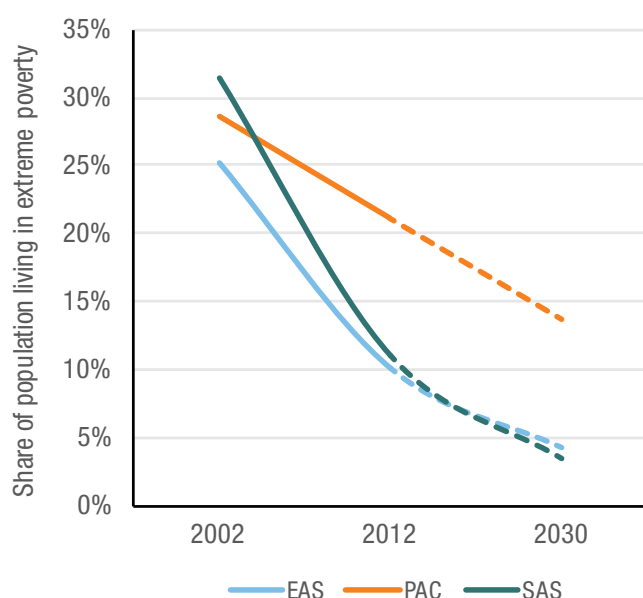
For more information on forest cover in Bhutan, consult Brown and Bird (2011).

10 The international poverty line has since shifted to US\$1.90 (2011 PPP) which is equivalent to the US\$1.25 (2005 PPP).

Pakistan and Sri Lanka are set to eliminate extreme poverty. However, around a fifth of countries will fail to make even half the required progress to reach this target; these countries are Kiribati, Micronesia, the Philippines, Laos and Tonga.

On average, countries in East and South-East Asia, South Asia and the Pacific had fairly similar rates of poverty in 2002. However, based on current trends, the Pacific will be left behind the other sub-regions. In 2030, East and South-East Asia, as well as South Asia, are on track to have less than 5% of their populations living in extreme poverty (Figure 3), whereas in the Pacific the percentage is set to be around three times higher than that. To eliminate extreme poverty by 2030 in the Pacific, progress will need to be around two to three times faster than current trends.

Figure 3: Projections for Target 1.1 – Ending extreme poverty



Target 6.1 Universal access to sanitation (Grade B)

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

The region is set to make more than half the required progress to achieving universal access to sanitation, which is why it receives a 'B' grade. However, there is significant variation between countries. While almost a third of countries are on track to achieve the target, a similar number of countries are set to make effectively zero progress.

On average, countries in East and South-East Asia are on track to make more than half the progress required to achieve this target. One example of a top-performing

Box 3: Contestations around Pakistan's success on poverty reduction

Pakistan appears to have made remarkable progress in reducing poverty. The share of people living on less than US\$1.25 a day (at 2005 purchasing power parity or PPP) is estimated to have fallen from 64.7% in 1990 to 12.7% in 2010 (World Bank, 2015). Using the national poverty line, poverty declined from 25.5% in 1992 (Cheema, 2005) to 12.4% in 2010 (GoP, 2014). Other official data provides complementary evidence. For example, public spending on 17 pro-poor sectors has increased (GoP, 2013). In particular, a major boost to safety-net spending since 2007 and to the Benazir Income Support Programme (BISP) has been credited with reducing poverty in recent years (GoP, 2014).

Data collected on the prevalence of multidimensional poverty further confirms this view. The Social Policy Development Centre, a Pakistan-based think tank, finds that the proportion of people who identified as multidimensionally poor fell marginally from 49.4% in 2005 to 48.1% in 2011 (Jamal, 2012). The Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) reports a greater fall from 49.4% in 2007 to 45.2% in 2013 (OPHI, 2015).

Still, major doubts exist about the validity of the official figures. A significant number of stakeholders in the policy arena disagree that poverty has reduced. They raise two key issues. First, the official data suffer from a series of technical flaws. Outdated census data may mean that as many as 47 million people are missing from the national poverty statistics (Malik et al., 2014a). Changes to the reference period for consumption in the household survey after 1998 are likely to have affected the comparability of figures collected prior to 1998 with those collected after (World Bank, 2002). The underlying basket used to calculate the Consumer Price Index (CPI) may underestimate household spending on food, particularly in rural areas, leading to an underestimate of the rural poverty figures (Malik et al., 2014b). Second, a number of indicators contradict the official narrative. These include declining rates of growth in real GDP per capita, an increase in child stunting and wasting, and data that suggests over half the households in Pakistan were food-insecure in 2011.

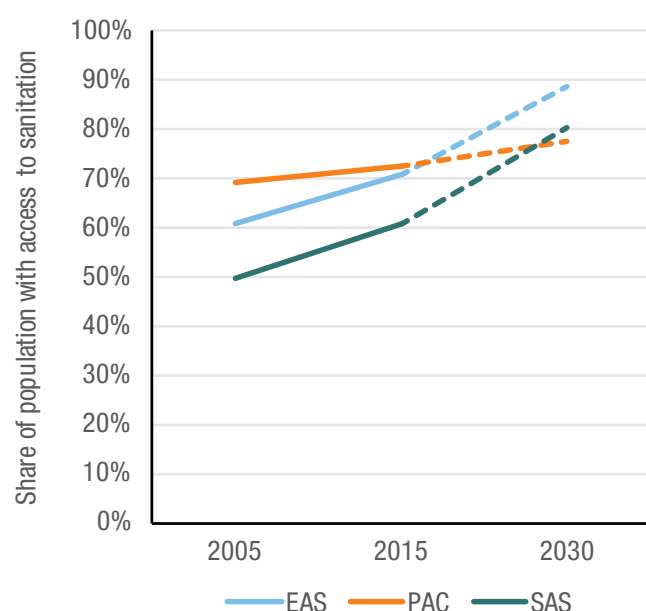
For further information on extreme-poverty reduction in Pakistan, consult Khan et al. (2015).

country is Laos, which is set to achieve universal access to sanitation by 2030 owing to progress over the past decade that saw access to sanitation increase from 43% to 71% of the population (see Box 4 on drivers of progress).

South Asia is also projected to make more than half the progress needed to reach the target. However, India – which accounts for over 70% of the population of the sub-region (World Bank, 2016a) – receives a ‘D’ grade for this target which means it needs to progress three to four times faster than present trends. So, while the country-averaged grade for the sub-region is a ‘B’ driven by faster progress in other countries, it is worth noting that the absolute number of people in the sub-region without access to adequate sanitation would actually still remain high if all countries continue to progress based on present trends given India’s large population size and slow progress.

Progress in the Pacific would need to be more than four times faster than current trends to reach the target of universal access (Figure 4).

Figure 4: Projections for Target 6.1 – Universal access to sanitation



Target 7.1 Universal access to energy (Grade B)

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

On average, countries in Asia-Pacific are on track to make more than half the required progress to achieve this target, which is why it receives a ‘B’ grade. More than a third of countries in Asia-Pacific are projected to achieve universal access to energy by 2030.¹¹ However, more than half the countries will only make around 30% of the progress

Box 4: Sanitation improvement in Laos

Despite severe challenges, not least the poverty and inaccessibility of its rural population, Laos has recorded appreciable progress in rolling out improved sanitation access to its population since the 1990s. In 1995 an estimated 18% of the population had access to improved sanitation in 1995, and this increased to 53% by 2008, placing Laos first globally in terms of relative average annual progress over this period. Coverage increased nearly fourfold in rural areas over this period, from a low base of 10% to 38%. Policy changes and institutional reforms designed to address the MDGs, donor financing and wider socio-economic development explain these achievements.

Progress has been demand-led. Household investment in latrine construction has been the single most important contributor to expanding sanitation coverage (Bajwa, 2010). These investments have been largely unsubsidised, undertaken in major part by non-poor rural households living close to markets and roads. A number of factors have underpinned household prioritisation of sanitation: rising incomes, better rural-urban migration linkages, and exposure to messages on the importance of hygiene.

Policy changes and institutional reform have also played a part. Key improvements include the creation of an institution directly responsible for rural water supply and sanitation (RWSS), a national RWSS strategy, and progress on policy implementation. The National Centre for Environmental Health and Water Supply (Nam Saat), which is responsible for RWSS, has grown in capacity since the 1990s and shifted its policy focus from a supply-driven to a demand-driven participatory approach, in line with the wider decentralisation of public policy. Since 2004, Nam Saat has prioritised raising community demand for improved sanitation through targeted public-awareness campaigns. The 2004 revised strategy added measures to include disadvantaged groups in community appraisals of sanitation service delivery.

Donor partnerships have also played a vital role. Precise figures on sanitation funding are not available, but Nam Saat, in particular, has been almost wholly financed by aid, with negligible budgetary support from government (Giltner et al., 2010).

Significant gains are still in needed, including stronger efforts to stimulate household demand and end open-defecation. Greater budgetary support for the RWSS and Nam Saat, clearer lines of accountability and stronger prioritisation of sanitation issues in political discourse are also important.

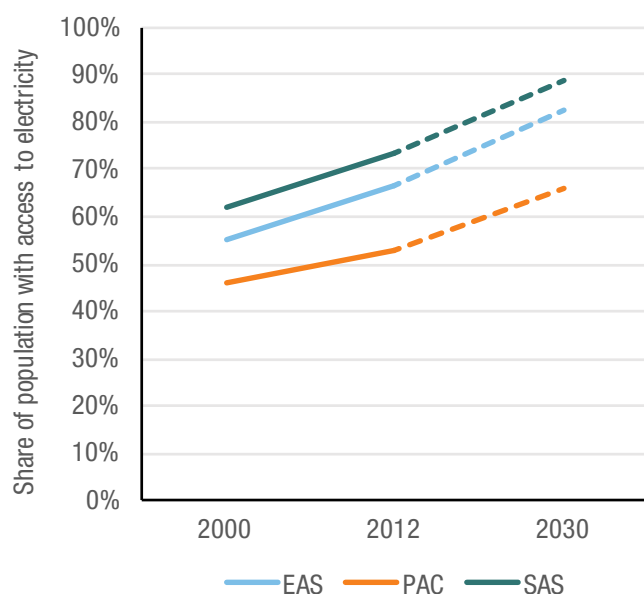
For more information on sanitation in Laos, consult O’Meally (2011).

¹¹ As per the global SDG scorecard, access to energy is simplified to mean access to electricity.

required to achieve universal access to electricity, such as Afghanistan, Myanmar and Solomon Islands.

On average, both East and South-East Asia and South Asia are set to make more than half the required progress to achieve universal access. However, most of the countries lagging behind are in the Pacific, where progress would need to be at least three to four times faster (Figure 5).

Figure 5: Projections for Target 7.1 – Universal access to energy

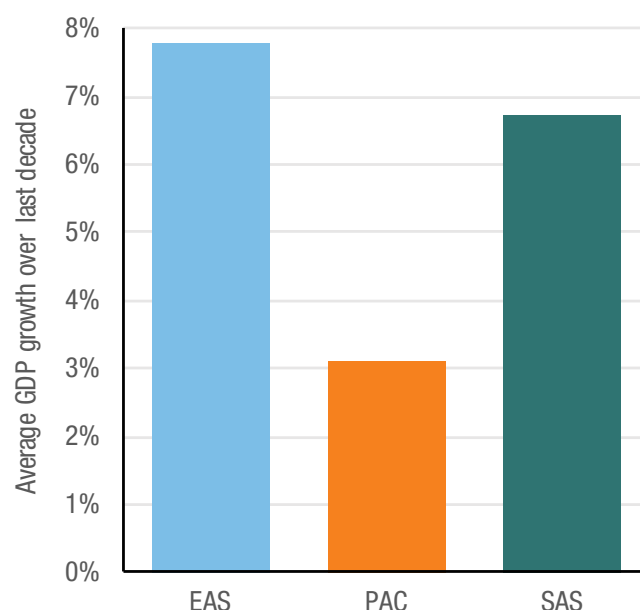


Target 8.1 Economic growth in LDCs (Grade B)

Sustain per capita economic growth in accordance with national circumstances, and in particular at least 7% per annum GDP growth in the least-developed countries.

More than half the 12 LDCs in Asia-Pacific¹² that had data available are projected to achieve the target of 7% GDP growth if current trends continue. On average, LDCs in both East and South-East Asia as well as in South Asia will meet the target (Figure 6), with all of the four countries in the former and half the countries in South Asia expected to exceed the target. On the other hand, in the Pacific growth is projected to be only 3% on average. This target is especially challenging in Kiribati and Tuvalu, where growth is set to be less than 2% and will need to be more than four times faster to meet this target.

Figure 6: Projections for Target 8.1 – Economic growth in LDCs



3.2 ‘Revolution’: slow gains mean falling short

Target 2.1 End hunger (Grade C)

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

On average, progress will need to be around two to three times faster than current trends for the region to reach this target, which is why it receives a ‘C’ grade. Almost half the countries are set to reduce under-nourishment by more than 50%. For example, in Thailand and Indonesia levels of under-nourishment are on track to reduce by around 75%. The prevalence of under-nourishment in Thailand fell from over 16% to under 7% between 2003 and 2013, and the drivers of this rapid progress are discussed in Box 5, overleaf.

East and South-East Asia and South Asia are set to make significant improvements in reducing under-nourishment, but they will still need to progress around two to three times faster than current trends to achieve the target. Figure 7 shows how the Pacific already has relatively low levels of under-nourishment compared to the other sub-regions, but it is projected to make effectively zero progress over the next 15 years. To reach the target by 2030, progress will need to be more than four times current trends.

¹² Four in South Asia, four in Pacific and four in East Asia.

Figure 7: Projections for Target 2.1 – Ending hunger

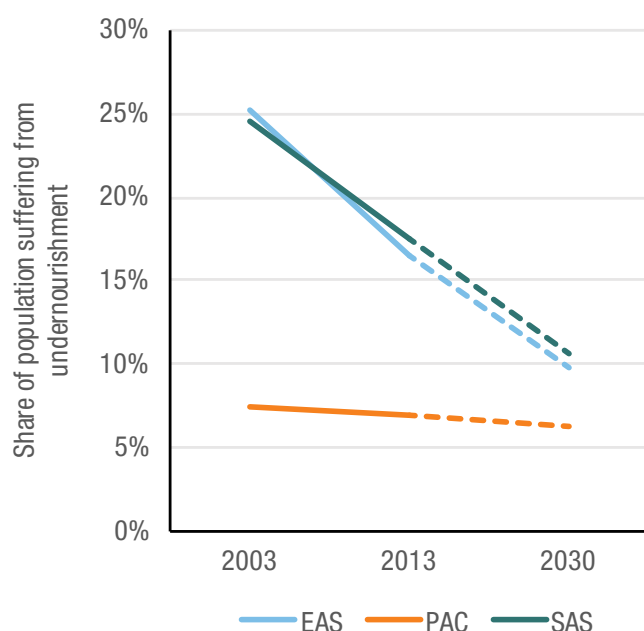
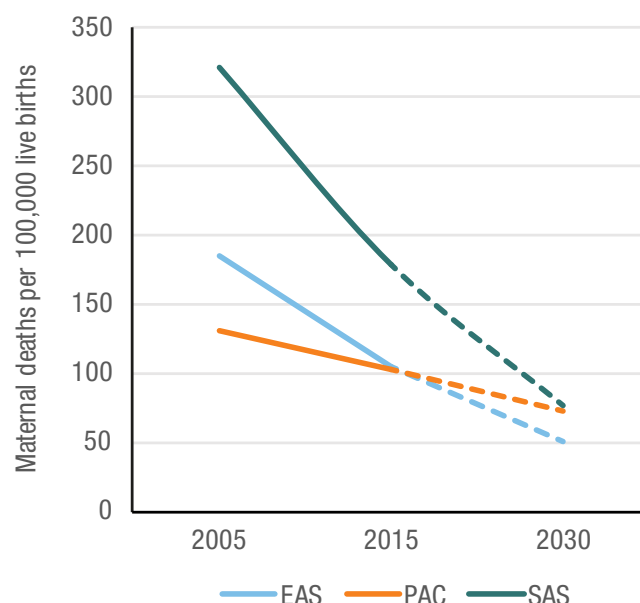


Figure 8: Projections for Target 3.1 – Reduce maternal mortality



Target 3.1 Reduce maternal mortality (Grade C)

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

On average, progress will need to be around two to three times faster than current trends for the region to reach this target, which is why it receives a ‘C’ grade. Almost 90% of countries in Asia-Pacific are on track to reduce maternal mortality by between a third and two-thirds by 2030.¹³

If the current rate of progress in South Asia continues, the sub-region is set to make more than half the required progress to achieve the target. This can be seen in Figure 8, which shows how, despite very different starting positions, all sub-regions are on track to achieve similar maternal-mortality rates around the global target of 70 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2030.

As with other targets, there is considerable variation between countries. Especially fast progress is projected to occur in Timor-Leste, which is set to reduce maternal mortality by almost 75% over the next 15 years, whereas Tonga is on track to experience a slight increase in maternal deaths per 100,000 live births.

Target 4.1 Universal secondary education (Grade D)

By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes.

No country in Asia-Pacific is on track to make even half the progress required to achieve this target. Around half are set to make less than one-fifth of the necessary progress. On average progress in this region will need to be three to four times faster than current trends to reach the target, which is why it receives a ‘D’ grade.

On average, countries in East and South-East Asia and the Pacific will need to speed up current rates of progress at least three-fold to meet the target (Figure 9, overleaf). By 2030, secondary-school completion is set to reach around 65% in both sub-regions. However, it is only projected to reach 50% in South Asia, which is lower than current average levels of secondary-school completion in East and South-East Asia and the Pacific. To meet the target, progress in South Asia will need to be more than four times faster than current trends.

One example of a top-performing country is Indonesia, where secondary-school completion is projected to increase from 65% to 79% over the next 15 years (see Box 6, page 24, for the drivers behind past progress).

¹³ As discussed in Annex 1 in detail, the global maternal mortality target of 70 deaths per 100,000 live births is translated to a country-level target of ending maternal mortality.

Box 5: Thailand's progress on food security

Thailand's progress on food security since 1990 has outstripped all of its regional peers. The prevalence of undernourishment fell from 34.6% in 1990-1992 to 8.9% in 2010-2012, lifting 13.8 million people out of hunger.* This 74% reduction is higher than any other country in the Asia-Pacific region over the period, including China and Vietnam.

Recognising the important contribution of economic growth, we focus here on some government initiatives that have facilitated agricultural growth: taxation reform, credit support and infrastructure investment.

Until the early 1980s, agricultural exports were taxed heavily to hold down urban labour costs and raise public revenues. Rice exports were subject to export tax, ad valorem duty and volume limits, and exporters needed to sell a share of rice below market price (Krongkaew, 1985). In the 1980s taxation eased, the baht devalued and, under growing pressure from a better-educated rural population, measures were taken to support farmers, taking net taxation to almost zero (Poapongsakorn, 2006).

Institutional innovations to facilitate credit access have also helped. As well as instructing banks to direct subsidised credit towards agriculture, the government created the Bank for Agriculture and Agricultural Cooperatives (BAAC), to supplement public and international funding for smallholder agricultural investment. BAAC had grown to 962 rural offices by 2008, helping it to reach 90% of farm households and all farm cooperatives (BAAC, 2009). The bank uses a group liability guarantee to enable small farmers to access short-term credit without land titles as collateral.

Finally, targeted investments in rural infrastructure and agricultural research have supported productivity gains, reduced input prices and increased market access. The expansion of rural telecom lines and innovative agricultural research has proved highly cost-effective in stimulating productivity growth (Fan et al., 2004). Uptake of agricultural research outputs has delivered important yield gains in modern rice, rubber, maize, soy-bean and cassava varieties. The state's construction of rural roads led to a tenfold increase in the rural road network, from 6,285 km in 1977 to 67,138 km in 2000. Road expansion played a particularly strong development role in the formerly isolated northeast, where half of Thai farmers live (World Bank, 2009).

Despite rapid progress, challenges remain. Data on stunting is limited, but according to the most recent data point (from 2006), 17% of the Thai population is stunted (FAO, 2015). Thailand needs greater opportunities for diversification of non-farm livelihoods, and stronger efforts to reach the most marginalised households with cheap credit and access to increasingly demanding supply chains. Finally, the country must pay greater attention to the environmental harm caused by intensifying farming systems.

For more information on hunger reduction in Thailand, consult Leturque and Wiggins (2011).

*According to the FAO, undernourishment occurs when a person is not able to acquire enough food to meet their daily minimum dietary-energy requirement, over a period of one year. When referring to an entire population, the minimum energy requirement is the weighted average of the minimum energy requirements of the different age/sex groups. Hunger is defined as chronic undernourishment (FAO, 2015).

Figure 9: Projections for Target 4.1 – Universal secondary education



Target 5.3 End child marriage (Grade D)

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

Asia-Pacific¹⁴ is not set to make even a third of the progress needed to achieve this target by 2030, which is why it receives a 'D' grade. The countries reducing child marriage the fastest include Indonesia, Nepal and Cambodia. At the other end of the spectrum, Bangladesh, India and the Philippines are projected to make the slowest rates of progress, although the Philippines have a relatively low rate of child marriage. Based on current trends, the incidence of child marriage is set to remain over 50% in India and Bangladesh in 2030.

Current trends need to speed up four-fold in East and South-East Asia as well as in South Asia to end child marriage by 2030, which is why the region and both sub-regions receive a 'D' grade. In East and South-East Asia, levels of child marriage are projected to be around 10% in 2030. The need for accelerated progress is especially prevalent in

¹⁴ Adequate data was unavailable for countries in the Pacific. As such, this discussion only focuses on countries in South Asia, and East and South-East Asia.

South Asia, where a third of girls will still be married before the age of 18 by 2030 if current trends continue.

Target 10.1 Reduce income inequality (Grade D)

By 2030 progressively achieve and sustain income growth of the bottom 40% of the population at a rate higher than the national average.

In many countries there were relatively small differences between the mean and the bottom 40% income-growth rates (Figure 10). However, on average the bottom 40% of the income distribution has grown almost one percentage point slower than the mean for countries in the region¹⁵ over the past decade.¹⁶ If this rate continues, income inequality will grow at a moderate pace, which is why this target receives a ‘D’ grade. In countries where income inequality has reduced, such as Nepal and Cambodia, the bottom 40% grew at least 1.5 percentage points faster than the mean. However, in some countries where inequality has been worsening, such as China and Indonesia, the mean growth rate was around 2 percentage points higher than the bottom 40%.

Target 17.1 Mobilise domestic resources (Grade D)

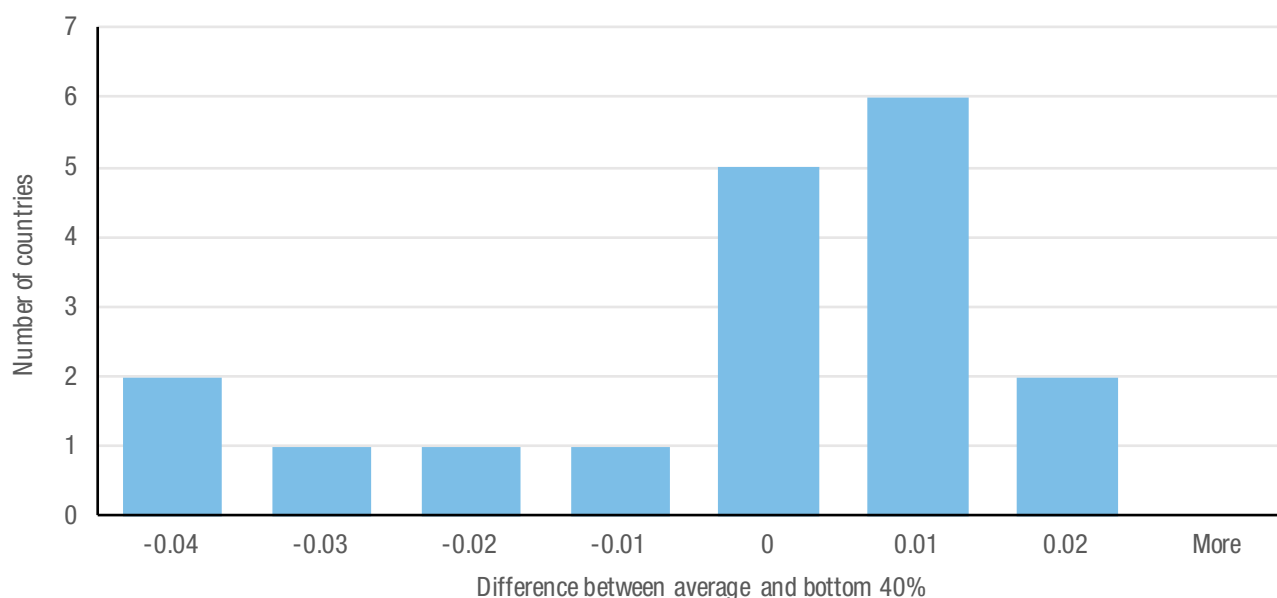
Strengthen domestic resource mobilisation, including through international support to developing countries, to improve domestic capacity for tax and other revenue collection.

On average, progress will need to be three to four times faster than the present trend for LICs and LMICs¹⁷ in Asia-Pacific to meet this target, which is why it receives a ‘D’ grade. Around a third of countries are set to see their government revenue as a share of GDP increase by 20% or more,¹⁸ including Pakistan and Nepal. On the other hand, more than half of countries are on the road to seeing their revenue decline over the next 15 years, such as in Timor Leste and Vietnam.

On average, countries in South Asia are on track to meet the target. We show the fast rate of projected progress for this sub-region in Figure 11, overleaf. In both East and South-East Asia and the Pacific current trends will need to reverse completely for this target to be achieved.

We advise caution on two points in regard to these projections. First, progress on this indicator may not reflect improvements in overall taxation capacity, such as broader tax bases or greater efficiencies in collection, as it also includes non-tax sources of revenue. The political

Figure 10: Projections for Target 10.1 – Reduce income inequality



¹⁵ Data is only available for one Pacific country, Fiji, so the discussion for this target largely relates to South Asia and East and South-East Asia.

¹⁶ See annex, which contains a detailed description of the analysis behind the grading for this specific target.

¹⁷ For this target we only analysed LICs and LMICs. We discuss the rationale for this in the annex to the global SDG scorecard. In the Pacific six relevant countries had data available, seven in South Asia and seven in East and South-East Asia.

¹⁸ See the annex to the global SDG scorecard for discussion around the construction of this target.

Box 6: Education progress in Indonesia

Since 2000, Indonesia has made huge improvements in access to education and learning outcomes. Its results in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) improved by 8.4% between 2000 and 2009, with a narrowing of the gap between high- and low-performing students. Secondary-school completion rates rose from 63% to 76% between 2002 and 2012, with strong equity between genders and progress for all ethnic, socio-economic and rural groups.

Major reforms to raise teacher quality have played an important role. Qualification standards initially rose in the 1990s, with teachers being required to have a two-year diploma. Another set of reforms introduced in 2005 included a Teacher Law that established a new teacher certification system, minimum standards for teacher competencies, and increases in pay. Under this law, teachers who meet certification requirements receive double the salary (World Bank, 2012). Between 2006 and 2010, the share of teachers with a bachelor's degree increased from 17% to 27% at the primary level and from 62% to 76% at the junior secondary level.

Indonesia has also implemented strong decentralisation reforms. Schools acquired increased autonomy over curriculum choices and development under the School-Based Curriculum reform in the early 2000s (MoEC, 2013). Communities now have the right to participate on school committees that manage planning, budgeting and staffing issues under the 2002 school-based management reform. One evaluation found that democratic elections to committee positions could improve learning outcomes when accompanied by stronger collaboration between school committees and village councils (World Bank, 2011).

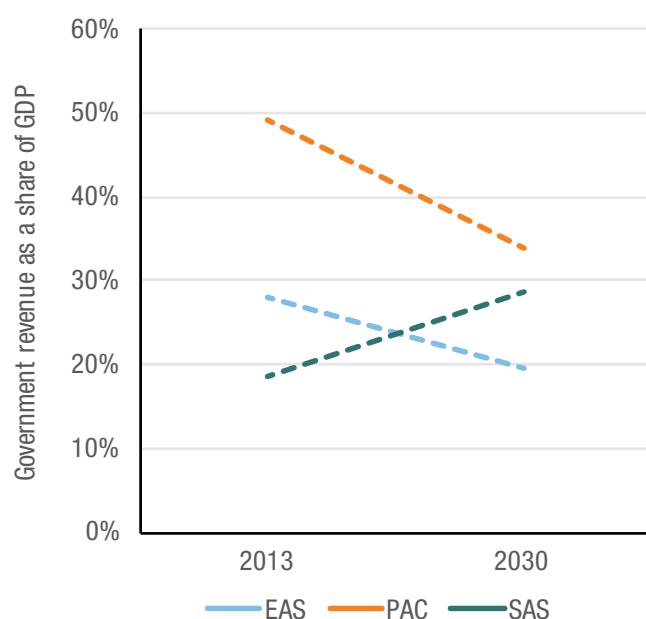
Prioritisation of education in public finance has played a critical role in enabling these reforms. Commitment to devote 20% of the national budget to education has seen funding almost triple in real terms since 2001. In support of decentralisation, block grants from central governments to schools reached 228,000 schools in 2012, covering 44 million students (out of a total of 55 million). These grants have been credited with lowering fees, increasing enrolment and completion rates, and, in certain cases, raising learning outcomes (World Bank, 2013).

Concerns about equity, quality and financial sustainability persist. Education outcomes are lagging behind in parts of eastern Indonesia in particular: 72 districts still had net primary-enrolment rates below 90% in 2012-13 (UNESCO, 2014). Only one in four Indonesian students achieves the international benchmark in PISA mathematics assessments, with half gaining this in reading and fewer than 40% doing so in science (OECD, 2013).

The school-to-work transition remains patchy, with youth unemployment between 20-32% over 2000 to 2011 (ILO, 2013).

For more information on education in Indonesia, consult Tobias et al. (2015).

Figure 11: Projections for Target 17.1 – Mobilise domestic resources



environment in terms of government change and volatility are likely to be directly and immediately related to this indicator.

Second, the projections are sensitive to oil prices, which have fallen lower than expected. At the time of publication, the current oil price is almost half what the IMF assumed it would be in 2016. These revenue projections are likely to be an over-estimate for oil exporting countries and an underestimate for oil importing ones.

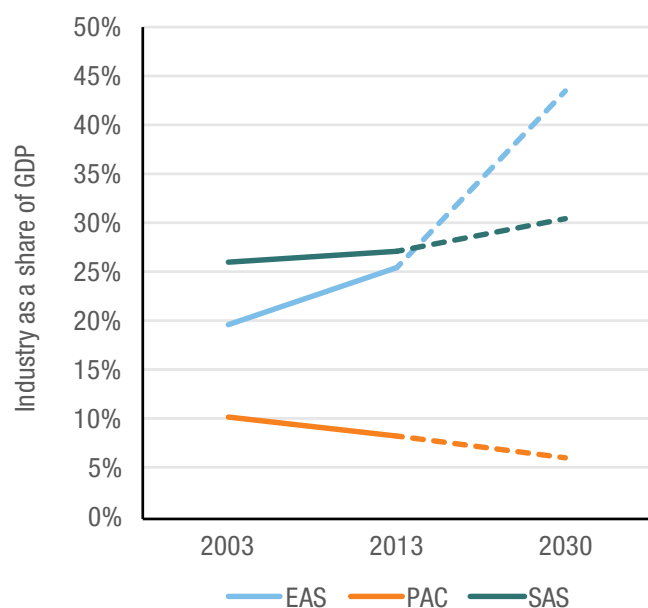
Target 9.2 Industrialisation in LDCs (Grade E)

Promote inclusive and sustainable industrialisation, and by 2030 raise significantly industry's share of employment and GDP in line with national circumstances, and double its share in LDCs.

Average progress for LDCs in Asia-Pacific will need to increase dramatically to double industry's share of GDP over the next 15 years, which is why the region receives an 'E' grade. In more than half the 10 LDCs in Asia-Pacific¹⁹ that had data available, industry's share of GDP is

19 Four in South Asia, three in Pacific and three in East Asia.

Figure 12: Projections for Target 9.2 – Industrialisation in LDCs



projected to shrink over the next 15 years, which is in the opposite direction to the target.

Industry's share of GDP is set to double in only two out of three LDCs in East and South-Asia, Timor-Leste and Laos, if current trends continue. However, this progress has been driven largely by growth in the mining sector, which is included as 'industry' (World Bank, 2016a).

Progress needs to be at least four times faster in South Asia, and the Pacific needs to reverse its current trajectory, to meet the target by 2030 (Figure 12). In countries in these two sub-regions, the services and agricultural sectors are on track to continue to make up a significant share of GDP.

Target 16.1 Reduce violent deaths (Grade E)

Significantly reduce all forms of violence and related death rates everywhere.

On average, Asia-Pacific is set to make little to no progress against the target to reduce violent deaths, which is why it receives an 'E' grade.²⁰ Around 15% of countries will reduce the share of violent deaths by more than half by 2030, but around a third will experience an increase in

Box 7: Security in Timor-Leste

Since 2008, Timor-Leste has experienced a notable reduction in violence. According to one conflict-monitoring group, the average number of violent incidents per month halved between 2009 and 2014 (Belun, 2014). The 2012 elections were markedly more peaceful than those in 2007. The charismatic leadership of Prime Minister Xanana Gusmão, combined with a government willingness to spend oil and gas revenues to placate potential spoilers, such as powerful gang leaders, has been central to keeping the peace.

Xanana's personal authority has been critical. Timorese politics is characterised by a strong focus on personality; participation in the resistance struggle remains paramount for politicians to assert authority (ICG, 2013). As a leading resistance figure who unified hostile factions, Xanana embodies this dynamic. In response to a violent political-military crisis in 2006, he created and assumed the role of Minister of Defence and Security, sitting above other security and defence ministers, to prevent institutional fragmentation and bring the police and military together (Kocak, 2014).

Targeted transfers of cash and political goods to disaffected groups have helped disincentivise violence. After the 2006 crisis, the government offered US\$8,000 to each petitioner in return for demobilisation. This amounted to 70 times the monthly minimum civil-service wage, and was financed by growing oil and gas reserves (ICG, 2013). Forty per cent of the cash-transfer budget is reserved for payments to veterans: the number of recipients grew from 2,000 in 2008 to 64,000 in 2012 (Barma et al., 2014). In addition, state contracts were disbursed to potential spoilers through a system of patronage that extends to district and sub-district levels.

Specific reforms designed to enhance the effectiveness and legitimacy of the national police force have helped security efforts. The Timorese police assumed national responsibility for security following UN withdrawal in 2012. Reforms have increased meritocracy in the ranks and promoted a 'philosophy' of community policing. The proportion of the public reporting good relations between the police and community grew from 48% in 2008 to 94% in 2013 (The Asia Foundation, 2014).

While progress has occurred, it rests on fragile foundations. Violence persists between security forces and martial-arts groups, with criticism among non-governmental organisations (NGOs) about the heavy-handedness of security-led crackdowns. Sexual and gender-based violence is likely to be considerably under-reported. The patronage system, while effective in the short-term, may prove financially unsustainable and fuel destabilising grievances in the future. Once the charismatic Xanana is replaced, tensions between security actors, both military and police, may be difficult to contain.

For more information on violence in Timor-Leste, consult Valters et al. (2015).

20 See the annex in the global SDG scorecard for discussion around the construction of this target.

violent deaths as a proportion of total deaths, if existing trends continue.

South Asia is of particular concern: current trends need to reverse to be able to come close to meeting the target. In East and South-East Asia progress needs to be two to three times faster than current trends, and in the Pacific more than four times faster, to meet the target by 2030.

Despite being a post-conflict country, Timor-Leste has made significant progress on reducing the share of violent deaths in total deaths. We discuss some of the drivers of peace and security in the country over the past decade in Box 7 (previous page).

3.3 ‘Reversal’: changes in direction are needed

Target 11.1 Reduce slum populations (Grade F)

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

Almost all countries in Asia-Pacific are set to experience increases in the number of people living in slums. This

means Asia-Pacific is going in the opposite direction to the target, which is why it receives an ‘F’ grade. Only three South Asian countries – Sri Lanka, Bhutan and India – are on track to reduce the number of slum dwellers by 2030. The challenges and drivers for progress in one large city in India, Ahmedabad, are discussed in Box 8.

Target 12.5 Reduce waste (Grade F)

By 2030, substantially reduce waste generation through prevention, reduction, recycling, and reuse.

The vast majority of countries in Asia-Pacific are on track to experience increases in the amount of waste generated per person living in urban areas, which is why it receives an ‘F’ grade for this target. This is especially the case in East and South-East Asia, where waste per person is set to increase by 40% between 2010 and 2025 (Figure 13). The rate of increase in South Asia is much slower, less than 5% over the 15-year period. A small group of island nations is the exception and is projected to experience a decline in waste per person: Sri Lanka, Maldives, Vanuatu, Solomon Islands and Tonga. This is why on average the Pacific experiencing a slight decline in waste generated person

Box 8: Slum upgrading in Ahmedabad, India

Ahmedabad has recorded substantial falls in the share of the population reported to be living in slum settlements, from 25.6% in 1991 to 4.5% by 2011, despite significant growth in the urban population. This impressive record has been the result of both state-led and citizen-led forces: the local government has planned proactively for urban expansion outside of city limits as well as funding slum-improvement projects, while civil society actors and trade union groups have reinforced strong political engagement by the local population.

Central to Ahmedabad’s success has been a series of bold national and municipal reforms, introduced since the 1990s, that have increased the bureaucratic and financial capacity of the Ahmedabad Municipal Corporation (AMC), the local governing body. At the national level, decentralisation under the 1992 Constitutional Amendment Act marked a watershed moment in extending the powers and democratic accountability of Indian municipal authorities.

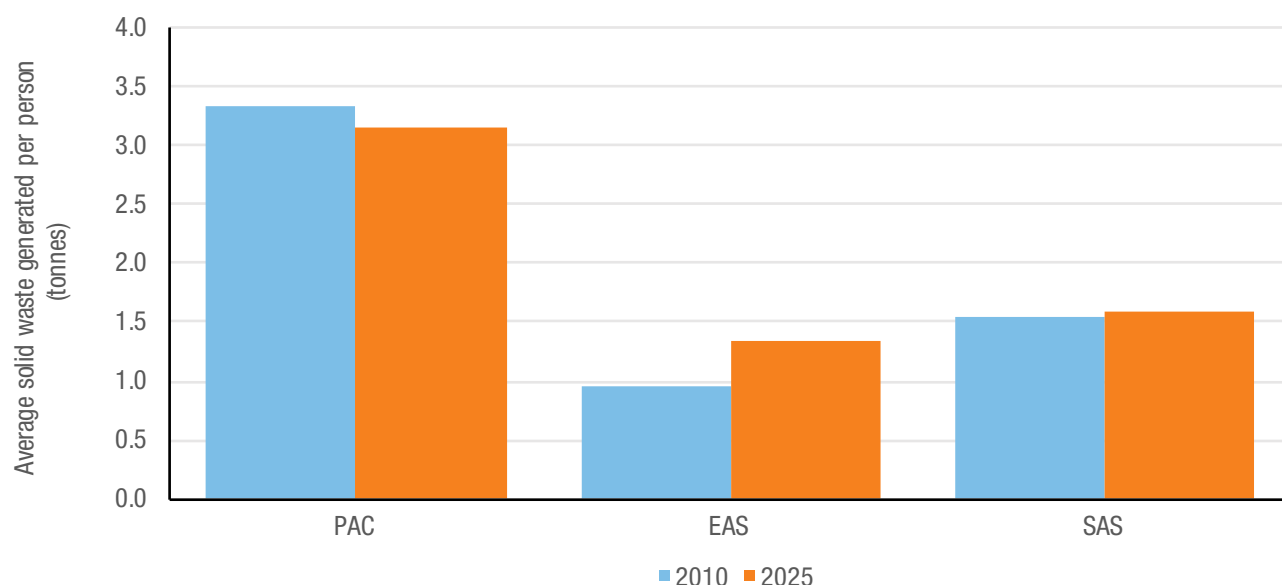
The AMC has thrown considerable political commitment behind urban regeneration, with 20% of the AMC’s annual budget earmarked for improving services for the urban poor, and legal rights temporarily extended to slum dwellers to increase tenure security and incentivise participation in development schemes. A series of programmes have materially improved slum conditions for many, while also signalling state commitment to development objectives and raising trust. Examples include the Slum Networking Project (1996-2009), a community-led development scheme that provided physical infrastructure and service amenities, and the Slum Electrification Scheme (2001 onwards), which has connected 200,000 houses in 710 slums to legal sources of electricity.

Strong civil society action has been a key driver of success, with most slum-upgrading initiatives taking a multi-stakeholder approach including municipal authorities, donors, local NGOs and communities. It has played a facilitative role, strengthening dialogue between municipal authorities and urban groups. The Slum Networking Project, for example, took a strong participatory approach, with civil society actors engaging the local population in the project. It has also played an activist role, mobilising communities to make claims on authorities when conditions of mutual trust have broken down.

A number of challenges remain. The formal recognition of slum settlements and the rights of inhabitants remains an issue across India, and Ahmedabad is no exception. Significant sections of the population continue to lack access to good-quality services. The city is segmented by class, caste and religion. The 2002 violence between Hindu and Muslim groups has deepened these divisions, and led to the ‘ghettoisation’ of Muslim communities outside the city centre. These divisions have caused breakdowns in dialogue between community groups and municipal authorities. Finally, infrastructural development is depleting the groundwater table, as water-management regulations are poorly enforced.

For more information on slums in Ahmedabad, India, consult Bhatkal et al. (2015).

Figure 13: Projections for Target 12.5 – Reduce waste



from 3.35 to 3.15 tonnes. However, these countries tend to have high levels of waste generated per person, more than twice the level in South Asia and East and South-East Asia, so reductions may be less difficult to achieve.

Target 13.2 Combat climate change (Grade F)

Integrate climate-change measures into national policies, strategies, and planning.

Effectively all countries, and so all three sub-regions, in Asia-Pacific are set to experience increases in carbon emissions over the next 15 years, which is why it receives an ‘F’ grade for this target. The only exceptions are North Korea and Micronesia, both of which may have unreliable data. Figure 14 (overleaf) shows the rapid growth in carbon emissions projected for all sub-regions, especially in East and South-East Asia.

However, a few caveats are warranted when using this indicator for the Asia-Pacific region.

First, the principle of ‘common but differentiated responsibilities’, included in the Paris Agreement in December 2015, recognises that emissions reductions should not be shared equally by countries. The countries with large historical emissions should make the steepest, early cuts to emissions per capita. In this context, low-income countries in Asia and elsewhere should be accorded ‘carbon space’ to further their development.

Second, many of the countries in the region account for such a small share of global greenhouse gas emissions that emissions per capita could rise in these countries without affecting the pace of emissions reduction globally. For example, Lao PDR’s carbon emissions were 0.19 metric tonnes per capita in 2011, while the US’s carbon emissions were almost 90 times higher, at 17.02 metric tonnes per capita in 2011 (World Bank, 2016a).

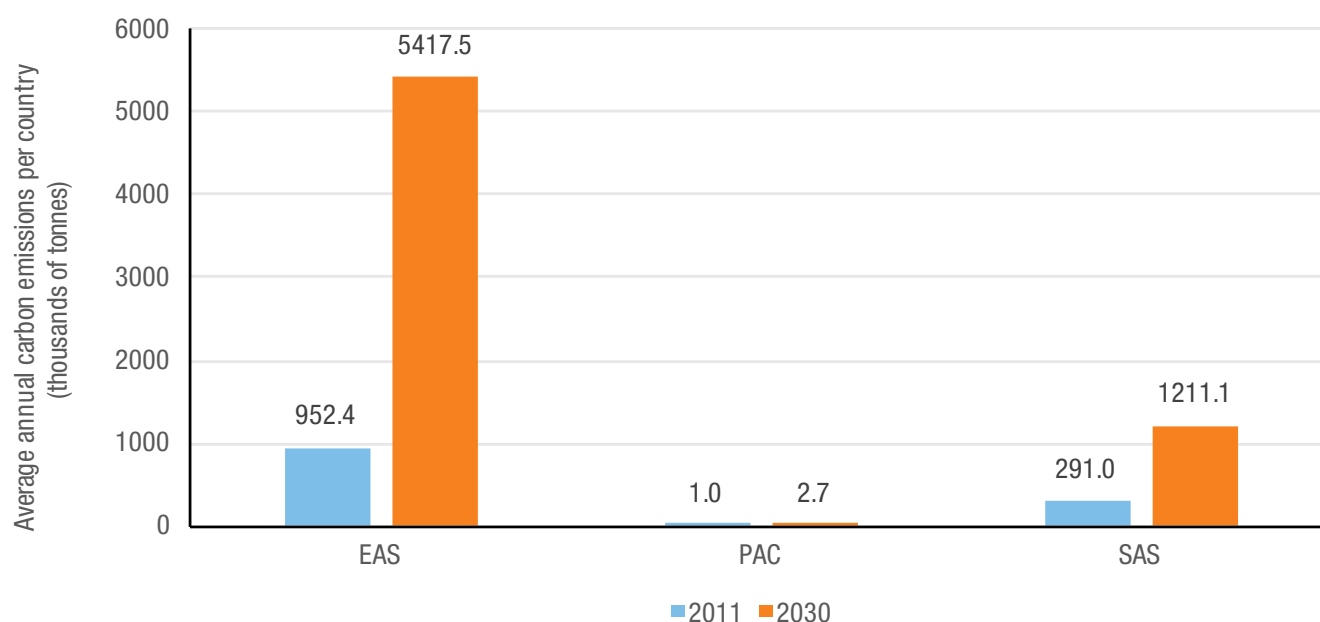
Two exceptions to this are India and China: while these two countries are responsible for a small share of historical emissions, they have amongst the highest emissions in absolute terms with scope for reduction. For instance, a recent World Bank study found that their emission can be reduced by nearly a third at no or ‘negative’ costs in two sectors alone (energy efficiency and clean transport) when improved air quality was taken into account (Akbar et al., 2014).

Overall, while it is important that countries in Asia-Pacific adopt low-carbon development strategies, adaption and resilience to climate shocks will form stronger priorities in most countries in the region. Tropical regions and small island nations, in particular, have already begun to experience greater impacts of climate change.

Successfully meeting SDG13 at the global level will necessitate a reduction in greenhouse gas emissions, which is why our global scorecard report used ‘reduce greenhouse gas emissions below current levels’ as a proxy indicator, used here for the sake of comparability. Yet, the indicator

‘Solomon Islands welcome the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. The new Agenda is about people, pursuing prosperity through partnerships, and operating within safe levels of our planetary boundary’ – Manasseh Sogavare, Prime Minister of the Solomon Islands

Figure 14: Projections for Target 13.2 – Combat climate change



used here while appropriate at the global level raises some issues when applied regionally in Asia-Pacific. Thus, it is not intended to capture the performance of these countries across the breadth and variation of Goal 13. In fact, as stated, the ‘F’ grade is the result of using an indicator that is appropriate at the global level but problematic when applied at a country level in many cases.

Target 14.2 Sustainably manage marine ecosystems (Grade F)

By 2020, sustainably manage and protect marine and coastal ecosystems to avoid significant adverse

impacts, including by strengthening their resilience, and take action for their restoration, to achieve healthy and productive oceans.

Across the world, 90% of all reefs are at risk of being threatened by 2020, from a starting point of 75% of reefs in 2007. All regions, including Asia-Pacific, are heading in the wrong direction to manage marine ecosystems sustainably by 2020. This is especially the case in South-East Asia where 83% of reefs in the sub-region are set to be at ‘high risk’ of being threatened by 2020. Given that few reefs are directly linked a particular country, we did not pursue further analysis on this, and so progress on this target could not be broken down as for other targets.

4. Leaving No One Behind



Basic skills development project in Bhutan. Photo: © Asian Development Bank.

Countries in Asia-Pacific have made dramatic progress towards meeting many of the MDGs. The region has witnessed remarkable performance in economic growth and poverty reduction over the past 15 years. However, these headline results conceal differences within and across countries that are often quite large.

It is important the SDG agenda recognises the need to reduce inequalities between countries (Bhattacharya, 2015; Samman, 2015). A wide range of country-specific factors including location and social and political tensions impact countries' abilities to enable broad-based development. When assessing progress, such factors must be considered, and they also highlight the role of the international community in helping to address these concerns.

In addition, inequality within countries has increasingly been identified as a growing concern. Although income inequality remains lower in Asia-Pacific than in Africa or Latin America, it has been on the rise. For Asia-Pacific, the Gini coefficient, which measures the extent of distribution of income where 0 represents perfect equality and 100 represents perfect inequality, increased from 33.5 in the 1990s to 37.5 (ESCAP, 2013). One of the consequences of a growth in inequality has been slower progress on poverty reduction than would have occurred otherwise. For

instance, if growth had been distribution-neutral between the 1990s and 2000s, poverty rates in Indonesia would have fallen to 6.1% instead of 16.3% (ADB, 2014).

While disparities in income are a worry, just as concerning is the fact that these inequalities are linked to non-monetary development outcomes. For instance, in Indonesia, stunting rates for the poorest quintile increased in recent years (from 40% in 2007 to 43% in 2010), while they have been falling for the wealthiest quintile (30% to 24% over the same period) (Thomas and Yusran, 2013).

The fact that progress on the MDGs has taken place alongside the persistent growth of inequality demonstrates the inadequacy of monitoring by focusing on aggregates (Melamed, 2012). The SDGs explicitly highlight the need for progress to 'leave no one behind', identifying a series of groups that have been typically disadvantaged and excluded from progress. These groups include the elderly, people with disabilities, ethnic and religious minorities, and women and girls, among others. While here we focus on headline performance, it is just as important for assessments of progress on the SDGs to disaggregate performance of different groups. Group-based inequalities between culturally defined or constructed groups (e.g. based on ethnicity, religion or race) persist, although their

Box 9: Ethnicity and marginalisation in Vietnam

Vietnam is an ethnically diverse country marked by considerable ethnic inequalities. Deprivation also has a strong spatial bias, with the highest poverty rates in the upland areas of the Northern Mountains and Central Highlands, where many of the ethnic minorities live. The different minorities vary tremendously in terms of assimilation and economic status. Nonetheless, in the present analysis, 52 of the minority ethnic groups are classified together as ‘ethnic minorities’, due to limits to the disaggregation of data by ethnicity. Following van de Walle and Gunewardena (2000), we classify the Kinh and Hoa collectively as the ‘majority’ group.

Poverty is concentrated among the ethnic minorities. In 2011, about 68% of ethnic-minority households were in the bottom wealth quintile compared with only 15% of the majority group. In 2006, the probability for households headed by an ethnic minority of being in the bottom quintile was 3.2 times that of the majority-group counterpart. This ratio increased to 3.5 by 2011, indicating a widening of the relative income difference between the ethnic majority and ethnic minority.

Ethnic disadvantage varies by location, with minorities living in the lowlands faring better than those in the highlands. Ethnic minorities in the Red River Delta had a less than 20% chance of being in the bottom income quintile. This rose to a 70% chance for minorities in the Northern Midlands and Mountains, North Central and Central Coastal, the Central Highlands and the Mekong River Delta. Ethnic minority groups in these areas remain stuck in extreme poverty (Kabeer, 2010).

Regional variation in the ethnic gap holds true across a range of social indicators, including access to basic services (e.g. water, energy and sanitation) as well as numerous health indicators (e.g. child mortality and antenatal care coverage). Progress on equalising access to improved sanitation is indicative. The ethnic gap in improved sanitation access more than halved in the Red River Delta – ethnic majority households were 3.1 times more likely to have sanitation than minority ethnicities in 2006, but only 1.4 times more likely in 2011. The decline in the ethnic gap was much lower in other regions. In the South-East and Mekong River Delta, the gap between the ethnic majority and minorities increased in absolute terms, by 2 and 12 percentage points respectively, although it declined in relative terms.

Nonetheless, location does not fully explain the variation in outcomes between ethnic groups. In the analysis above, even after controlling for sub-national region, wide ethnic gaps prevailed. In other words, even within the less-developed regions, the Kinh and Hoa majority were better off than the minority ethnic groups (Bhatkal and Mariotti, 2016).

For more information on ethnic inequalities in Vietnam, consult Bhatkal and Mariotti (2016).

specific forms and extent depend on regional and national context. These emerge not only in income terms but also in various aspects of development, which often overlap and reinforce one another and persist over long periods (Stewart and Langer, 2006). Overcoming these inequalities takes great political and cultural will, and perhaps less in terms of economic cost.

Available data points to the persistence of group-based inequalities in many countries in Asia-Pacific. While each country’s unique political, economic and historical circumstances influence how inequality manifests itself, ethnic marginalisation is an issue across a vast set of countries. Opportunities are segmented by ethnicity across the region. For instance, members of the minority ethnic groups in Vietnam are more likely to be poor, more vulnerable to poverty and face lower returns to endowments such as education, landholding and location compared to the dominant Kinh and Chinese (Imai et al., 2011) (see Box 9). Given that ethnic minorities often experience discrimination based on their identities, it points to the need to address politically sensitive drivers of change.

Gender is also an axis of inequality in most countries in Asia-Pacific. Girls and women often have worse development outcomes; inequalities associated with where a woman lives, her ethnic group and her household’s

wealth quintile – and the overlap of these factors – are sizeable in many countries (Lenhardt and Samman, 2015). Intimate partner violence is also very prevalent in the region. More than 60% of women in Kiribati, Solomon Islands and Vanuatu report exposure to intimate partner violence. Female-headed households often face higher levels of deprivation and exclusion; it is important however to understand differences based on the lived experiences of women – for instance, by looking at the differences between *de facto* and *de jure* female-headed households (see Box 10 on Bangladesh, where there have been improvements).

The deprivations faced by older people also warrant attention. Across the world, only 20% of older people have pensions (United Nations Population Fund and HelpAge International, 2012), and coverage is even lower in developing countries. However, we often don’t know enough about their circumstances. Some of the most common household surveys only ask detailed questions of women up to the age of 49 in most countries, meaning the needs of older people cannot be assessed comprehensively. Age can be a marker of disadvantage, with both children and older people facing considerable deprivations (see Box 11 on Vanuatu, overleaf).

Reaching the SDGs by 2030, particularly those that require universal achievement, is critically dependent on

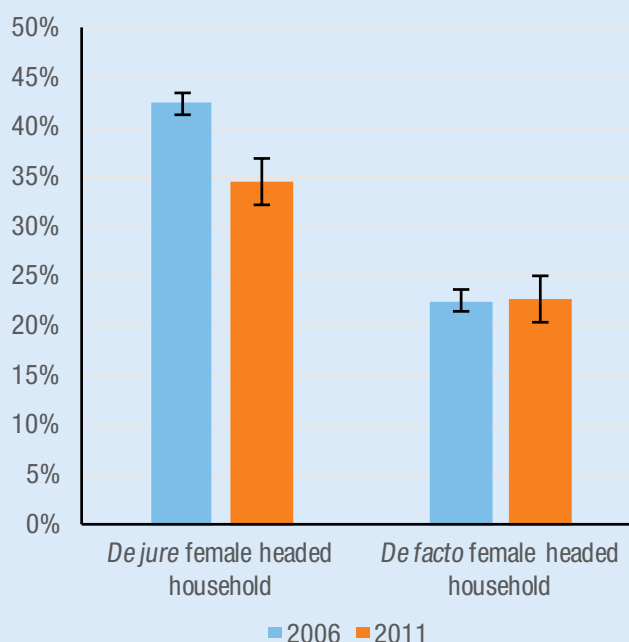
Box 10: Improvements for female-headed households in Bangladesh

In the past two decades, Bangladesh has recorded significant progress in reducing income poverty and across a range of economic and social indicators. Steady growth led the share of the population living below US\$1.25 a day to fall from 70% in 1991 to 43% in 2010 (WDI). Nevertheless, group-based inequalities persist. Here, we focus on the situation of female-headed households.

We define *de jure* female-headed households as those headed by widows, women separated from partners, or those who never married. *De facto* female-headed households are headed by married women whose husbands live away, perhaps for migratory reasons. These partners may contribute to household income and decision-making.

Controlling for various characteristics*, the probability of being poor was the highest for *de jure* female-headed households in 2005 and lowest for *de facto* female-headed households in both 2005 and 2010 (Figure 15). However, over the five-year period, *de jure* female-headed households recorded considerable improvements. As a result, the gap in the probability of being poor between people in *de jure* and *de facto* female-headed households reduced by 8 percentage points. While the probability of being poor for members of *de jure* female-headed households was 1.9 times that of *de facto* female-headed households in 2005, this declined to 1.5 times in 2010.

Figure 15: Likelihood of being poor by household head's gender, Bangladesh



Source: Bhatkal and Mariotti (2016) based on Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (2011).

A similar pattern held true for improved sanitation access. The likelihood of having improved sanitation facilities was lowest among *de jure* female-headed households. On average, these were 13 percentage points less likely than *de facto* female-headed households, to have improved sanitation in 2010. Between 2005 and 2010, the gap between *de jure* female-headed households and *de facto* female-headed households reduced by 5 percentage points. In relative terms, inequality reduced slightly as *de facto* female-headed households were 1.4 times as likely as *de jure* female-headed households to have improved sanitation in 2005 and 1.3 times in 2010.

Not all households fared the same way, however. For instance, religion was associated with considerable variation. *De jure* female-headed households among the religious minorities – mainly Buddhists and Christians – fared worst. *De facto* female-headed households belonging to the Muslim majority were 2.3 times more likely than *de jure* female-headed households of religious minorities to have sanitation in 2005. This ratio increased considerably to 2.8 in 2010.

* The analysis controlled for place of residence (rural/urban), sub-region, religion and age of household head.

efforts by governments and other stakeholders to include these groups. In the future, there must be a focus on equity across the full SDG agenda; the goals will not be reached

unless progress is made for all groups, and in all countries (UN, 2015).

Box 11: Age and inequality in Vanuatu

Vanuatu has been much less affected than other Pacific countries by the negative global economic shocks of the past decade. In fact, economic growth led to a modest decline in poverty, from 13% in 2006 to 12.7% in 2010. Inequality fell markedly, with a decline in the expenditure-based Gini coefficient from 0.41 in 2006 to 0.31 in 2010.

Despite this overall progress, intersecting vulnerabilities overlap in Vanuatu to create pockets of deprivation. In this respect, the gains from growth have been uneven.

Age is a predictor of disadvantage in Vanuatu, for both the young and the elderly. Older people, defined as those aged 60 years or more, tend to be over-represented in the bottom quintile and under-represented in the top quintile. If the distribution of expenditure for elderly-headed households matched the distribution for the national average, 20% of the elderly would fall in both the bottom and top quintiles. However, in reality, 22.6% of the elderly fall into the bottom quintile, while only 15.3% fall into the top quintile.

Table 3: Percentage of elderly-headed households in expenditure quintile, Vanuatu

	Vanuatu	Port Vila (urban)	Luganville (urban)	Rural
Lowest quintile	22.6	28.6	24.6	19.2
Highest quintile	15.3	20	15.8	17.1

Source: UNDP (2013).

Relative deprivation is higher in urban areas – 28.6% of the elderly in Port Vila and 24.6% of those in Luganville fall into the bottom quintile. By contrast, in rural areas, 19.2% of the elderly fall into the bottom expenditure quintile.

On the other hand, children aged below 14 years are also more likely to fall below the basic-needs poverty line, although the gap is relatively narrow (see Table 4).

Table 4: Percentage of people living below basic-needs poverty line, Vanuatu

	Vanuatu	Port Vila (urban)	Luganville (urban)	Rural
Children in elderly-headed households	16.6	30.4	30.6	13.5
Children in female-headed households	12.9	18.3	14.5	11.5
Children in widow/er-headed households	15.8	18.2	27.3	15.1
All children	13.2	19.4	23.9	11.1
National	12.7	18.4	23.6	10

Source: UNDP (2013).

Further disaggregation by household vulnerability status indicates the importance of moving beyond the averages. Children in elderly-headed, widow-headed and widower-headed households are more likely on average to be poor. Children are most vulnerable when living in elderly-headed households in urban areas – with a poverty incidence of 30.4% in Port Vila and 30.6% in Luganville, compared to 19.4% and 23.9% respectively for children in these areas.

‘I am delighted to see that the Post-2015 Sustainable Development Goals have incorporated the unfinished business of the MDGs and to see that they clearly reflect the unique and the special case of Least Developed Countries and Small Island Developing States’ – Meltek Sato Kilman Livtuanu, Prime Minister of the Republic of Vanuatu

5. Conclusion

The Asia-Pacific region's progress during the MDG era sets it up well to continue making gains, but there are a number of goals and targets that will not be met without major new effort. Now that the *global* SDG agenda is set, the next key step is to adapt and apply these goals and targets at the *national* level. This will involve developing new domestic targets or aligning existing ones, taking action to implement the goals, and efforts around monitoring and accountability.²¹

The projections in this report show how the Asia-Pacific region, its sub-regions and some countries are likely to perform against certain targets, assuming progress continues as it has to date. Changes in trajectories will occur, but a better understanding of trends can help to inform SDG priorities and approaches across the region.

Our analysis shows that Asia-Pacific has five goals on track or close to being on track to meet the target reviewed for this scorecard. The biodiversity target on deforestation fares particularly well, scoring an 'A'. It is set to meet the target in both East and South-East Asia and the Pacific, and to get more than half-way to its target in South Asia. Goals on ending extreme poverty, sanitation, energy and growth are graded 'B' and are projected to get more than half-way to the targets reviewed when scores are averaged across the region.

Eight goals and targets receive a 'C', 'D' or 'E', which means they are showing some progress, but the rate of progress would need to speed up significantly in order to reach the target by 2030. Those scoring a 'C' (needing three times the rate of progress) include goals related to hunger and health. Those scoring a 'D' (needing four times the rate of progress) are the goals on education, gender, inequality and partnership. Those scoring an 'E' (needing five to eight times the rate of progress) relate to industry and peace.

Four goals were graded 'F', as they are moving in the wrong direction and need to reverse current trajectories in order to meet the targets by 2030. They relate to cities, waste, climate and oceans.

In planning for SDG progress, the interlinkages and dependencies between goals and targets should not be ignored. The gains for all of the goals where good progress is being made will have dependencies that may be affected by lagging performance on other goals. While this report does not highlight the links and drivers behind mutually reinforcing the progress for all goals, this deserves attention going forward in order to avoid pursuing policies that achieve some goals at the significant cost of others.

While a number of the goals and targets reviewed will not be met by 2030, Asia-Pacific is set to perform somewhat better than the global average, based on current trends. Key differences between this regional assessment and the global one (Nicolai et al., 2015) are as follows:

- Six goals and targets are progressing faster in Asia-Pacific than globally. These include SDG 15 (halting deforestation), which appears to be making the most progress of all the reviewed targets in Asia-Pacific and slightly better than gains globally. Others faring better in Asia-Pacific than the global average are SDG 2 (ending hunger), SDG 5 (child marriage), SDG 6 (sanitation) and SDG 7 (access to energy). SDG 10 (reducing inequality) is making some progress in Asia-Pacific (though still needing to progress at four times the current rate) compared with the global trend, where it is going in the wrong direction.
- Eight goals and targets are progressing in Asia-Pacific at or about the same speed as the global average across developing regions. Four of them are progressing at similar rates, including SDG 1 (ending extreme poverty), SDG 3 (maternal mortality), SDG 8 (economic growth in LDCs) and SDG 9 (industrialisation). Another four need to see a reversal of trends both globally and in Asia-Pacific: SDG 11 (reducing slum populations), SDG 12 (waste reduction), SDG 13 (climate change) and SDG 14 (marine environments).
- Three goals and targets are progressing more slowly in Asia-Pacific than the global average for developing countries. These are SDG 4 (education and the completion of secondary school), SDG 16 (peace and reduction of violent deaths), and SDG 17 (mobilising domestic resources).

Asia-Pacific as a whole may be set to progress slightly faster than other parts of the world, but there are still many goals and targets where improvement must accelerate in order to meet the goals by 2030. There is still time to make the changes necessary for the region to continue to be a leader in progress across the whole range of development issues.

Particular attention is needed where there are variations across the region. While there are slight sub-regional variations on a number of goals, bigger differences are found for SDG 9 (industrialisation) and SDG 16 (peace) – both these targets fare much better in East and South-East Asia

21 Further, more detailed assessments of progress may wish to make adjustments for population and location. These would be required as there are differences in land cover, population, and natural resources among the different sub-regions and countries. For instance, a number of the SDGs may not have the same importance across different countries or sub-regions. In such cases, policy priorities are likely to differ.

than in South Asia or the Pacific – and for SDG 17 (domestic resource mobilisation) where South Asia is strong but neither East and South-East Asia nor the Pacific are projected to show progress. As a whole, the Pacific sub-region is set to lag behind across a number of the targets reviewed, including SDG 2 (hunger), SDG 6 (sanitation) and SDG 7 (energy access), in addition to the three SDGs mentioned above.

There is much cause for hope in SDG progress across Asia-Pacific. The region can make significant gains across

all kinds of contexts, as evidenced by the case studies shown in this paper. It is also clear, however, that certain groups are disadvantaged, whether due to ethnicity, gender or age, and as countries show progress it is crucial to ensure that Asia-Pacific ‘leaves no one behind’.

For Asia-Pacific, progress can certainly continue and indeed accelerate, especially if efforts focus on early priorities and actions to achieve the SDGs by 2030.

‘Sustainable development encapsulates the equilibrium between social and economic development and environmental protection. Sustainable Development cannot be achieved by a single country alone. Our strategy will therefore envisage a framework for cooperation between the United Nations, regional organisations and other states’ – H.E. Maithripala Sirisena, President of Sri Lanka

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Annexes

Annex 1: Calculating the projections

There are four main steps in calculating the projections used in this regional scorecard on a country-by-country basis. These are:

1. Calculate current rates of progress based upon recent trends

Current rates of progress were calculated by using the most recent 10 years of data.²² The average annual change over the last decade was determined by using the following formula:

$$\text{Average Annual Change} = \left(\frac{X_{2015} - X_{2005}}{X_{2005}} \right)^{\left(\frac{1}{10} \right)}$$

whereby:

X_{2005} represents the relevant indicator for each goal in 2005

X_{2015} represents the relevant indicator for each goal in 2015

2. Project what would be achieved in 2030 if these current trends continue

Levels of achievement by 2030 were determined by assuming that the current rate of progress would continue over the next 15 years. This is calculated by the following formula:

$$X_{2030} = X_{2015} \times (1 + \text{Average Annual Change})^{15}$$

whereby:

X_{2030} represents the relevant indicator for each goal in 2030

3. Determine how much faster progress would need to be to achieve the SDGs

A standard approach was applied for each indicator to determine how much faster the rate of progress would need to be to achieve the relevant SDG. This was calculated as:

$$\text{Rate of Progress towards SDG} = \frac{X_{2030} - X_{2015}}{X_{GOAL} - X_{2015}}$$

whereby:

X_{GOAL} represents what the indicator would need to be in 2030 for the target to be achieved

4. Assign grades based on the projected rate of progress

Grades were assigned based on how much faster the rate of progress would need to be for the SDG target to be achieved. The table below explains the basis of each of the grades.

Specific considerations had to be made for a number of the projections, largely due to the wording of the target or the availability of data. Most of these issues are discussed at length in *Projecting Progress: Reaching the SDGs by 2030*

Table 5: SDG Scorecard 2030 grading system

Grading System	A	B	C	D	E	F
Current trends suggest:	Meet the target	More than half-way to target	More than a third of the way to target	More than a quarter of way to target	Little to no progress	Reverse direction of current trends

²² For illustrative purposes the formulas included in this section show data being available in 2015. However sometimes the most recent data was earlier than 2015. In these instances the formula was adjusted accordingly.

Table 6: SDG Target 10 – Inequality grading system

Grading System	A	C	D	F
Difference in annual income growth between the average and the bottom 40%	-0.5 ppt or greater	Between -0.5ppt and 0	Between 0 and +0.5ppt	+0.5 ppt or greater

(Nicolai et al., 2015). However due to the country-by-country nature of this report some further adjustments had to be made. These are discussed below:

Target 3 – Maternal Mortality

The maternal mortality target aims for the global number of maternal deaths per 100,000 live births to fall to 70. It is not clear what this will require maternal mortality to fall to at the country level. Therefore it is assumed that the target is 0 deaths per 100,000 live births. This is unrealistic as no country has ever achieved this, but it best reflects the spirit of the goal that is to ‘Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages’. An implication of this is countries that already have very low rates of maternal mortality are slightly disadvantaged by selecting a target of zero, as it is expected that the ‘final mile’ will be more difficult.

Target 5 – Child Marriage

Data on child marriage is notoriously patchy. As such, our projections had to rely on dividing the available data into two sub-groups, one that was before 2005 (1986-2005) and the other from 2005 (2005-2012) onwards. This reduces the accuracy of the projection because the exact number of years between surveys is unknown. A simple assumption had to be made that the gap between surveys was the median year of data available before 2005 and the median year of data from 2005 onwards. In line with this assumption, the projection starting year was the median year of the data from 2005 onwards.

Target 10 – Inequality

This target simply requires the incomes of the bottom 40% to grow faster than average incomes. It is challenging to assign a grade based on the general scale above as all countries would receive either an A or an F even if differences were very small. As such, a slightly different grading system is applied that is shown in the table above.

Target 14 – Reefs

It is not possible to disaggregate this target to the country level. However all countries have a role to play in achieving this target. For example, coral reefs are heavily impacted by carbon emissions as well as waterway pollution in land locked and coastal countries. For this reason, the regional grade from the Global SDG scorecard is given to all countries, regardless of specific location.

Target 15 – Forests

This target implies that forest area as a share of total land area needs to increase by 2020. It is challenging to assign a grade based upon the general scale above as all countries would receive either an A or an F even if the differences were very small. As such, a slightly different grading system is applied that is shown in the table below.

Table 7: SDG Target 15 – Forests grading system

Grading System	A	D	F
Forest area as a share of land area in 2020 compared to today	Over 100%	Between 100% and 95%	Less than 95%

Annex 2: Country-level projections

Country	Sub-region	Target															
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	15	16	17
Afghanistan	SAS		B	B		E	E	E	A	F		F		F	A	F	A
American Samoa	PAC						E	D							D		
Bangladesh	SAS	B	E	B	E	E	C	A	B	D	C	F	F	F	D	F	A
Bhutan	SAS	B		B	E		C	C	A	E	A	D	F	F	A	F	B
Cambodia	EAS	B	C	B	E	C	B	B	A	F	A	F		F	D	F	A
China	EAS	B	C	B	D		B				F	F	F	F	A	A	
Fiji	PAC	B	E	D			A	D			F		E	F	A	E	
French Polynesia	PAC				C		D	D						F	A		
Guam	PAC							D							A		
India	SAS	B	C	B	D	F	D	A			F	E	F	F	A	F	B
Indonesia	EAS	B	B	B	C	C	C	A			F	F	F	F	D	B	F
Kiribati	PAC	E					E	D	E	F				F	A		F
Korea, Dem. Rep.	EAS		F	D			A	E				F		E	F	C	
Lao People's Democratic Republic	EAS	C	B	B	E		A	A	A	A	F	F	F	F	A	C	F
Malaysia	EAS	A	E	D	C		A				D		F	F	A	C	
Maldives	SAS	A	B	C	E		A				A		E	F	A	B	
Marshall Islands	PAC						D	D						F	A		
Micronesia	PAC	E		C			B	D						C	A		F
Mongolia	EAS	A	B	B	E		D	A			D	F	F	F	A	E	
Myanmar	EAS		B	C	E		B	E	A			F	F	F	D	E	F
Nepal	SAS	B	B	B	C	C	B	E	B	F	A	F	F	F	D	E	A
New Caledonia	PAC				C		E	D						F	A		
Northern Mariana Islands	PAC						D								D		
Pakistan	SAS	B	D	C	E	C	A	A			C	F	F	F	F	F	A
Palau	PAC						E	D						F	A		
Papua New Guinea	PAC	B		D			E	E						F	A	F	F
Philippines	EAS	C	B	E	C	E	C	A			C	F	F	F	A	B	B
Samoa	PAC		E	C	E		F							F	A		F
Solomon Islands	PAC	C	E	C			E	E	B				E	F	D	D	F
Sri Lanka	SAS	B	D	C		D	A	A			A	B	E	F	D	A	A
Thailand	EAS	A	B	D	C	E	F				A	F	F	F	D	B	
Timor-Leste	EAS	B	D	B	E		E	E	A	A	A				D	F	F
Tonga	PAC	E		F	E		F	A					E	F	A		
Tuvalu	PAC							E	E	F					A		
Vanuatu	PAC	B	E	C	E		C	D	B	F			E	F	A		F
Vietnam	EAS	B	B	E	E	C	A	A			F	F	F	F	A	E	F



Assam integrated flood and riverbank erosion risk management investment program in India. Photo: © Asian Development Bank.

This is one of a series of Development Progress research reports.

Development Progress is a four-year research project which aims to better understand, measure and communicate progress in development. Building on an initial phase of research across 24 case studies, this second phase continues to examine progress across countries and within sectors, to provide evidence for what's worked and why over the past two decades.

This publication is based on research funded by the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation. The findings and conclusions contained within are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect positions or policies of the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation.

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Designed by Soapbox, www.soapbox.co.uk

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