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Indicator Framework to Assess Progress on Harnessing the Demographic Dividend with a Gender Dimension in Asia and the Pacific

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Acronyms

DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
ESCAP	(United Nations) Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
GDP	gross domestic product
ICPD	International Conference on Population and Development
LFPR	labour force participation rate
MIPAA	Madrid International Plan of Action on Ageing
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
STEM	science, technology, engineering and mathematics
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund

Introduction

People's economic behaviours and needs change with age. Therefore, changes in a country's age structure can have significant impacts on the economic development of a country. By monitoring and understanding the age structure changes of a population, countries can develop and implement policies that aim to capitalize on these changes for the benefit of all.

The purpose of this Indicator Framework is to build capacity among policymakers and other stakeholders in devising social and economic plans and tracking progress in reaping the benefits of the demographic dividend and attaining gender equality. The Indicator Framework supports this by defining relevant indicators and demonstrates effective ways to collect and analyse data. It also presents a statistical dashboard in which the indicators are classified and contextualized to support monitoring of the demographic situation in a country on a regular basis. In addition, the Indicator Framework presents relevant resources, good practices and proposes a way forward, including necessary steps, to harness the demographic dividend.

The demographic dividend is the economic growth potential presented by a change in the age structure of the population with an increasing number of people in the workforce relative to the number of dependents.¹

Such a demographic shift can lead to accelerated economic development if policies in areas such as education, health, the economy and governance are put in place to lead to sustained economic development.

The Indicator Framework is informed by a four-year project, entitled "*Demographic Dividend with a Gender Dimension: Entry Points for Implementation of Sustainable Development Goals in Africa and Asia and the Pacific*", implemented by the United Nations Economic Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) in partnership with the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA).

In Asia and the Pacific, the two target countries for this project are Papua New Guinea and Timor-Leste (with Nepal added for certain analytical purposes, including in this Indicator Framework). The two good practice countries are Malaysia and the Republic of Korea.

Situational analyses conducted in the good practice countries, and informing the Indicator Framework, show how gender-inclusive policies addressing changes in the age structure of the population can result in unprecedented rates of economic growth.²

The key indicators featured in this Indicator Framework, which make up the statistical dashboard, focus on gender concerns. The indicators cover the five "pillars" of the demographic dividend:

- Demography
- Health and well-being
- Education
- Economic structures and participation in productive activities
- Governance and decision making.

Statistics and indicators presented in the dashboard help identify areas that require more attention to respond optimally to demographic change.

¹ Bloom, D. and Williamson, J. (1998) "*Demographic transitions and economic miracles in emerging Asia.*" World Bank Economic Review 12(3): 419–455.

² Ibid.

Gender concerns are central to achieving the demographic dividend. Gender inequality and discrimination in both public and private spheres are widely recognized as key barriers to sustainable development. Integrating gender into national plans is essential, as outlined by the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs),³ the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) and the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action.

In many countries across Asia and the Pacific, gender norms pressure women to be the primary caregiver and focus on unpaid work in the home. Gender norms can inhibit women and girls from education opportunities and labour force participation or limit their opportunities to informal and lower paid employment. Harmful practices such as early marriage and gender-based violence have far reaching implications for societies and economies. Gender inequality is detrimental to human capital development and economic growth. Research shows that women's empowerment plays a significant role in accelerating economic growth during the demographic transition.

Declining fertility rates, followed by a shift from a population that consists of mainly young dependents (15 or below) to one comprised of those of working age (15–64) are proved to have a substantial impact on economic growth and per capita increases in human and physical capital.⁴

Section 1 of the Indicator Framework provides a regional overview of demographic trends, followed by an outline of the demographic dividend as a concept. Section 2 illustrates key indicators used in the statistical dashboard with examples to monitor the status of the demographic dividend in the countries under consideration. Section 3 presents an overview of data sources and descriptions of the 39 indicators identifying key challenges and opportunities for data collection and monitoring. Section 4 of the Indicator Framework provides policy recommendations and good practices to support strategic action in harnessing the demographic dividend and achieving gender equality. Section 5 concludes by presenting a checklist of relevant criteria and necessary steps for harnessing the demographic dividend.

³ The Indicator Framework works largely in the context of this global, transformative agenda and related goals that identify the key obstacles in the way of sustainable development and ways forward to address these challenges. Available at: <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/?menu=1300>

⁴ Galor, O., & Weil, D. N. (1999). From Malthusian stagnation to modern growth. *The American Economic Review*, 89(2), 150–154.

I. Key social development trends and challenges in Asia and the Pacific

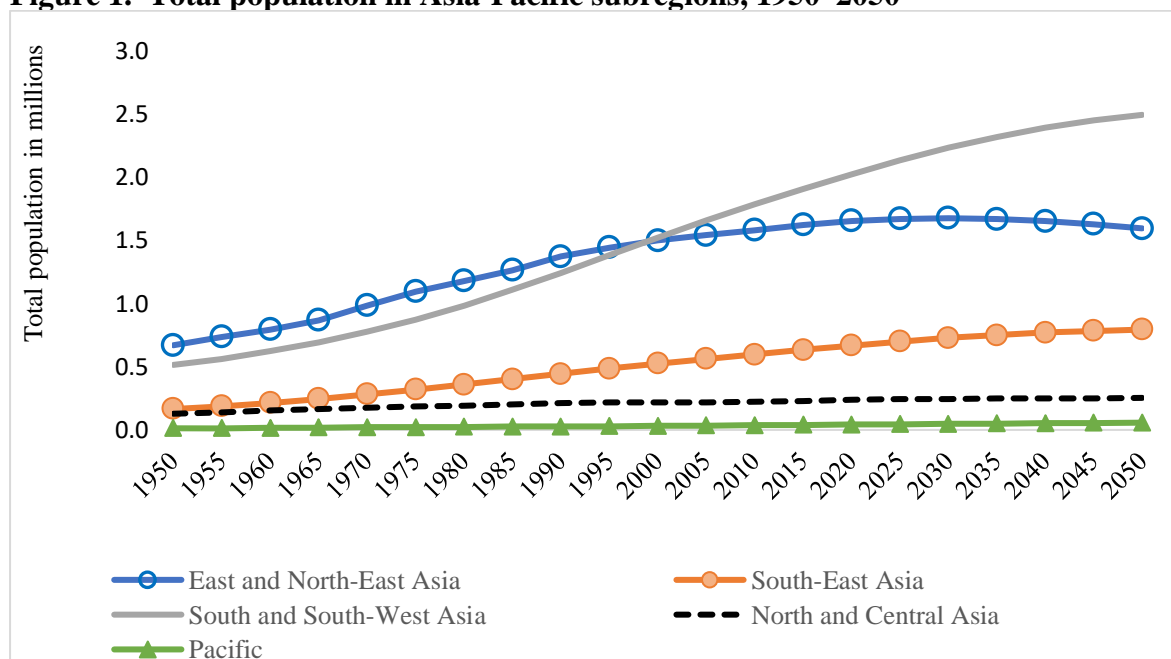
Over the last few decades, the Asia-Pacific region has made considerable progress in socioeconomic development. However, it has been uneven across the region, within countries and some dimensions of development have progressed more than others. Inequalities have been exacerbated by numerous factors including gender dynamics, climate change and the COVID-19 pandemic. This section examines population development trends and patterns in Asia and the Pacific and explores ways to address the remaining gaps in line with the 2030 Agenda.

A. Population dynamics and sustainable development

1. Population trends: increasing longevity and declining fertility

The Asia-Pacific population increased from 3.8 billion in 2000 to 4.6 billion in 2019. Population growth rates are gradually declining, but there has still been an average increase of 42 million people each year over the last 19 years. By 2030 and by 2050, the regional economy will have to support approximately 4.9 billion and 5.1 billion people, respectively. The populations of East and North-East Asia are projected to decline by 2030, but other subregions are expected to grow until at least 2050 (figure 1).

Figure 1. Total population in Asia-Pacific subregions, 1950–2050



Source: ESCAP based on United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, World Population Prospects: the 2019 revision. Available at: <https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/>

Substantial economic and social development across the region has reduced mortality rates and increased life expectancy. Over the past five decades, life expectancy in Asia-Pacific countries has increased by 20 years on average. The biggest improvements are in South and South-West Asia where since 1960, average life expectancy has risen by 29 years. This progress has been made possible due to universal immunization, improvements in sanitation and access to clean water, better nutrition, healthier lifestyles and enhanced education.

In all countries, women generally outlive men. As of 2018, this trend is particularly evident in Viet Nam, where women live an average of nine years longer than men. In contrast, Bhutan, has the lowest gender gap in life expectancy of approximately half a year.

Substantial progress has been made by countries in the region in reducing fertility and improving maternal and child health. Achieving sustainable development goals and targets for health and well-being (SDG 3), education (SDG 4), and gender equality and women's empowerment (SDG 5) could further reduce fertility and increase life expectancy, improving well-being and prosperity for all.

Countries have committed to making progress in these areas and that requires the regular production of quality statistics, monitoring and reporting. ESCAP, in close collaboration with the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and other partners, supports further progress towards development by conducting regular reviews of the implementation of the ICPD Programme of Action and the 2013 Asian and Pacific Ministerial Declaration on Population and Development.⁵ It also contributes to the indicator framework for monitoring progress in the context of the aforementioned processes developed by ESCAP and UNFPA.⁶

2. Rapid population ageing

The combination of sharp declines in fertility rates and rising life expectancy at birth has led to a significant rise in the number and proportion of older persons in the population, making Asia and the Pacific the most rapidly ageing region in the world. The region's population is currently in an 'ageing stage', with 12 per cent of the regional population being aged 60 years or over in 2016. The region will transition to an 'aged stage' by 2030.⁷

Population ageing is a universal trend, but the timing and speed of the process varies between countries and regions. In France, it took 115 years to transition from an 'ageing' to an 'aged' society. Viet Nam will take only 19 years to go through the same transition.⁸ This leaves little time for countries to strengthen social protection systems, including affordable health care and social security for older persons, while also providing meaningful employment opportunities among youth.

Ageing societies face other important development challenges due to changes in population age-structures.⁹ A decline in the size of the working age population relative to the number of older persons leads to a greater dependency ratio. The old-age support ratio is the ratio of the working age population (ages 15–64 years) to those aged 65 years or over. A declining old-age support ratio represents fewer people in the labour force, alongside a growing number of older persons.

⁵ See: <https://www.unescap.org/intergovernmental-meetings/MTR-APPC>

⁶ See: https://www.unescap.org/commission/76/document/E76_10E.pdf

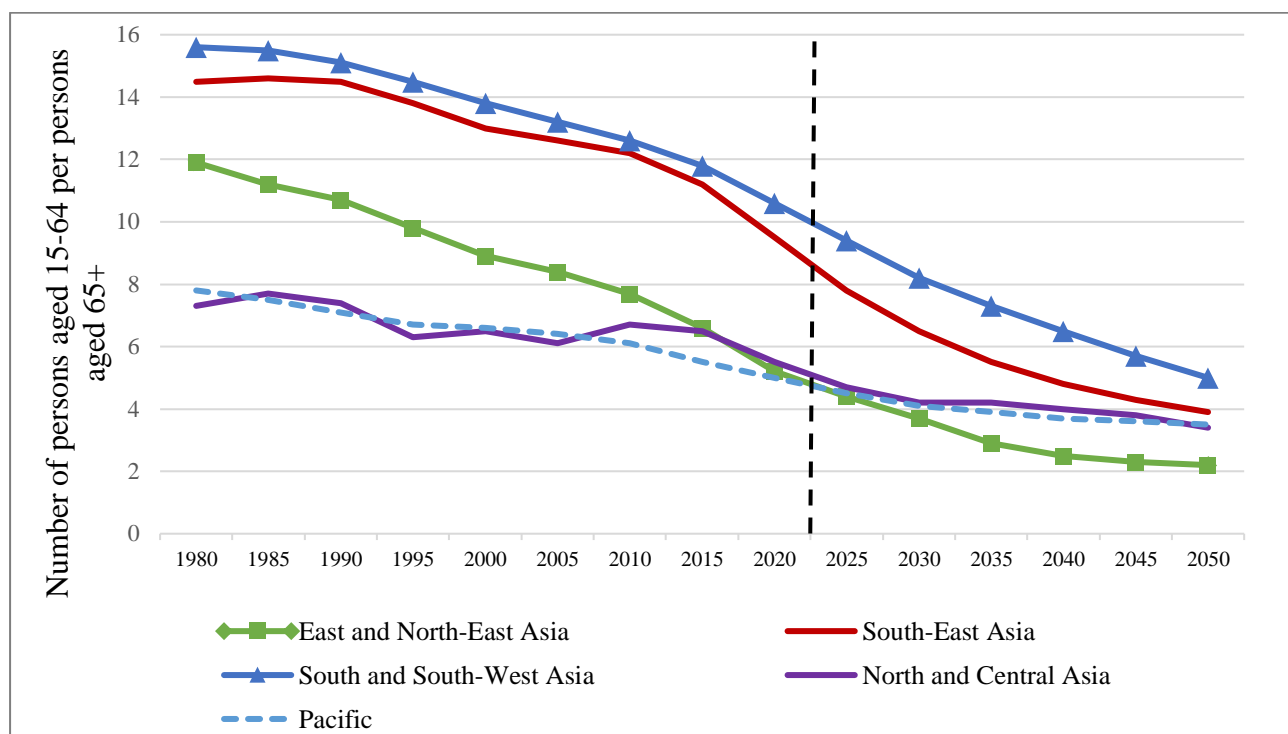
⁷ According to United Nations categorization, a population is considered ageing, aged, very aged and hyper aged when the population aged 65 or over accounts for 7.0 to 9.9 per cent, 10.0 to 19.9 per cent, 20.0 to 29.9 per cent, and 30.0+ per cent of the total population, respectively. When age 60 is considered the threshold, the population is classified as ageing, aged, very aged and hyper aged at 10, 20, 30 and 35 per cent, respectively.

⁸ ESCAP, 2017. *Ageing in Asia and the Pacific. Overview*. Available at: <http://www.unescap.org/resources/ageing-asia-and-pacific-overview>

⁹ The age structure of a population can also be affected by international migration, especially for countries with low levels of fertility that receive significant numbers of immigrants.

Figure 2 demonstrates the decline in old-age support ratios across the five subregions of Asia and the Pacific. In East and North-East Asia, North and Central Asia, and the Pacific the ratios have declined substantially, while in South-East Asia and South and South-West Asia they are projected to decline in the near future.

Figure 2. Old age support ratio in Asia-Pacific, 1980–2050



Source: ESCAP based on United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, World Population Prospects: the 2019 revision. Available at: <https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/>

The Madrid International Plan of Action on Ageing (MIPAA), adopted in 2002 at the Second World Assembly on Ageing, is an internationally agreed guiding framework that addresses the opportunities and challenges associated with an ageing world, and it calls for building societies that are inclusive for people of all ages. The key provisions of MIPAA have been recognized in the 2030 Agenda.¹⁰ ESCAP supports member States in implementing the provisions of MIPAA by providing technical assistance and capacity-building activities on raising old-age income security and improving well-being.

ESCAP member States reaffirmed their commitments to MIPAA at the Third Review and Appraisal of the Madrid International Plan of Action on Ageing in Bangkok from 12 to 14 September 2017. At the meeting, they reported on progress in implementation of MIPAA, highlighting emerging areas that require additional attention and identified policies to expedite the process. Additionally, in 2019, ESCAP hosted a meeting focusing on utilizing Technology for Ageing in East and North-East Asia¹¹; and in 2020, ESCAP produced a policy paper on ‘Ageing and its Economic Implications’.¹²

¹⁰ ESCAP (2017) Addressing the Challenges of Population Ageing in Asia and the Pacific: Implementation of the Madrid International Plan of Action on Ageing (chapter 2).

¹¹ See: <https://www.unescap.org/events/2019-international-meeting-technology-ageing-east-and-north-east-asia>

¹² See: <https://www.unescap.org/resources/social-development-policy-paper-ageing-and-its-economic-implications>

3. Youth inclusion and empowerment

Despite population ageing being the most significant demographic trend in the region, the Pacific, South and South-West Asia, as well as the region's least developed countries, still have sizable youth populations. Approximately 700 million young people aged 15–24 are currently living in the Asia-Pacific region, accounting for 15 per cent of the total population.¹³ Youth unemployment in the region, an increasing concern given the COVID-19 pandemic, is approximately 10 per cent, which is over twice the figure of the average rate of unemployment.¹⁴ Young people often face obstacles when transitioning from education to employment while in the earlier stages of developing their skills and confidence. Adolescent birth rates compound the issue for young women and girls. Asia and the Pacific has some of the highest adolescent birth rates across the globe, especially in South and South-West Asia, mainly due to early marriage. This typically cuts short the education for millions of young women and girls, puts their and their children's health at greater risk, and makes finding decent work particularly challenging.

Where youth form a greater proportion of the population and where fertility rates are still high or declining slowly, investments in education, vocational training and health care, including sexual and reproductive health-care services, are vital to creating a window of opportunity and harnessing the benefits of a demographic dividend. Several South and South-West Asian, and Pacific island countries fit this description. Measures should be introduced to enhance the productivity of the working-age population. Governments should design and implement sustainable social protection systems by encouraging the working-age population to save money for old age while their populations are still youthful.

In the context of the 2030 Agenda, ESCAP promotes the role of youth in sustainable development. Between 2014 and 2017, it led the implementation of an interregional project to bolster the capacity of governments in Asia and the Pacific, Africa and Western Asia to respond to the needs of youth in forming inclusive and sustainable development policies. The Youth Policy Toolbox¹⁵ is an online resource which seeks to refine youth policies, especially in the context of promoting effective school-to-work transitions, environmentally sustainable employment and active youth engagement. Such engagement has been an important aspect of the annual Asia-Pacific Forum on Sustainable Development, which brings young people together for a youth forum before and for participation during the main event itself.¹⁶

Migration and development

Asia and the Pacific has been a major destination for international migrants. As of 2019, approximately 106 million people from the region lived outside their countries of birth, and Asia-Pacific countries hosted nearly 65 million migrants. There has been an increase in the number of migrants from South and South-West Asia, and South-East Asia, while the number of migrants from North and Central Asia has been relatively constant (figure 3). In terms of emigration, South and South-West Asia has by far the largest numbers, while the Pacific has by far the lowest (figure 4). Importantly, most of the movement is South-South migration. In

¹³ United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA) World Population Prospects 2020.

¹⁴ Ibid.

¹⁵ See: <https://yptoolbox.unescapsdd.org/>

¹⁶ See: <https://www.unescap.org/events/asia-pacific-youth-forum-sdgs>

2017, 53.2 per cent of migrants from the Asia-Pacific region resided in developing or least-developed countries.^{17, 18}

Figure 3. Number of immigrants to Asia-Pacific by subregion, 2000, 2010 and 2019

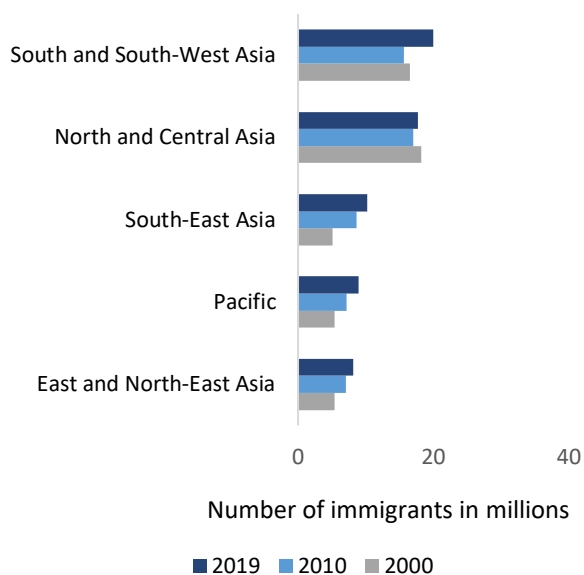
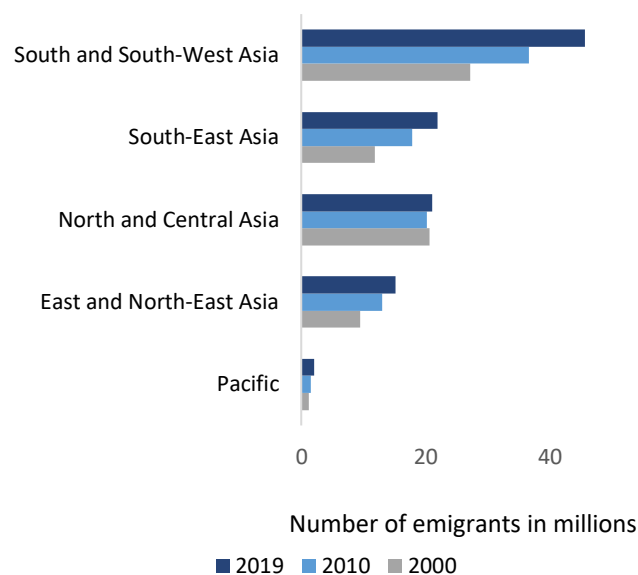


Figure 4: Number of emigrants to Asia-Pacific by subregion, 2000, 2010 and 2019



Source: ESCAP calculations based on United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Population Division (2019). International Migrant Stock 2019 (United Nations database, POP/DB/MIG/Stock/Rev.2019).

There are many reasons why people migrate, including to look for work, escape marginalization and poverty, to obtain education or training, or to marry. Many are fleeing war and other conflicts. Most migrants seek work, usually in other developing countries within the same region or in the countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council.¹⁹

Migration reshapes economies and societies in both countries of origin and destination. Migrants contribute to countries of destination by engaging in jobs that national workers may find undesirable or for which they lack the necessary skills.²⁰ Moreover, remittance flows have a very significant impact on countries of destination. In 2019, Asia-Pacific countries received almost \$327 billion in remittances. Migrant households often use remittances to combat poverty. Remittances can also facilitate improved housing, function as informal health insurance, pay for better quality education and diversify incomes.²¹

At a macroeconomic level, remittances have become a stable, even countercyclical source of foreign exchange for a large number of countries, often exceeding foreign direct investment, export receipts and official development assistance. They have also contributed in some

¹⁹ ESCAP, 2017. *Towards Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration in the Asia-Pacific Region*. Available at: <http://www.unescap.org/publications/towards-safe-orderly-and-regular-migration-asia-pacific-region>

¹⁹ ESCAP, 2017. *Towards Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration in the Asia-Pacific Region*. Available at: <http://www.unescap.org/publications/towards-safe-orderly-and-regular-migration-asia-pacific-region>

¹⁹ ESCAP, 2017. *Towards Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration in the Asia-Pacific Region*. Available at: <http://www.unescap.org/publications/towards-safe-orderly-and-regular-migration-asia-pacific-region>

²⁰ Ibid.

²¹ Ibid.

countries to ensure that current account deficits are regulated and kept under control. Nevertheless, countries that are dependent on remittances are at greater risk of external shocks. The COVID-19 pandemic, for instance, is anticipated to have a significant impact on remittance flows, which are expected to fall at the global level by 20 per cent from \$554 billion in 2019 to approximately \$445 billion in 2020.²²

A large proportion of international migration within and from the Asia-Pacific region is irregular. For example, a 2018 IOM report notes that there are between 35,000 to 200,000 undocumented migrants in the Maldives.^{23,24} IOM estimates that for 2018 the number of irregular migrants in Malaysia ranges between 2 million to 4 million.^{25,26} The gendered segmentation of employment in countries of destination often underplays the significance of women's work, forcing women into irregular migration channels and informal labour. As part of the irregular migrant flows, victims of human trafficking, asylum seekers, refugees, unaccompanied migrant children and labour migrants contribute to the creation of mixed migration flows. Aside from the volume, the mixed composition and unclear status of the migrants in question adds complexity to their situations and a great deal of them fall through a protection gap.²⁷

For migrants to contribute to development, their human rights and successful integration in the community are essential. Migrants, regardless of their status, often have limited access to services, such as health care, including sexual and reproductive health services, and other forms of social protection. They often encounter discrimination and are vulnerable to exploitation. In the 2030 Agenda, Member States committed to cooperating internationally to ensure safe, orderly and regular migration involving full respect for human rights and the humane treatment of migrants, regardless of migration status, of refugees and of displaced persons.

International migration was mainstreamed into the 2030 Agenda, with SDG 10, among others, making explicit reference to it. In 2018, United Nations Member States adopted the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration. It is the first global framework to focus on improving cooperation on migration for the benefit of all – countries of origin, destination, transit and migrants and their families, and non-migrants alike. The Global Compact is embedded in the 2030 Agenda and achieving each of its goals is mutually reinforcing. In support of the stocktaking phase of the Global Compact, ESCAP, in collaboration with United Nations partners, organized the Asia-Pacific Regional Preparatory Meeting for the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration in Bangkok from 6 to 8 November 2017.²⁸ The Regional United Nations Network on Migration for Asia and the Pacific,²⁹ in which ESCAP is a member, is supporting member States in its follow-up and review in 2020.

²² See: <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/989721587512418006/pdf/COVID-19-Crisis-Through-a-Migration-Lens.pdf>

²³ See: https://www.unodc.org/documents/human-trafficking/Migrant-Smuggling/2018-2019/SOM_in_Asia_and_the_Pacific_II_July_2018.pdf

²⁴ See: https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/mp_maldives_2018.pdf

²⁵ See: <https://www.iom.int/countries/malaysia>

²⁶ UNODC, 2012. *Migrant Smuggling in Asia: A Thematic Literature*. Available from: www.unodc.org/unodc/en/publications-by-date.html.

²⁷ ESCAP, 2017. *Towards Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration in the Asia-Pacific Region*. Available from: <http://www.unescap.org/publications/towards-safe-orderly-and-regular-migration-asia-pacific-region>

²⁸ For the Chair's summary, see: http://www.unescap.org/sites/default/files/CompactChairSummaryfinal_0.pdf

²⁹ See: <https://migrationnetwork.un.org/asia-and-pacific>

II. The demographic dividend, an overview

a. Definition and introduction to the five pillars

The demographic dividend refers to changes in demographic age structure that spur increased economic growth and welfare or the promotion of development, given an enabling policy environment. It is closely linked to the demographic transition, a process describing the shift from high to low fertility and mortality rates and increased longevity leading to a decline in the ratio of dependents to working-age adults.³⁰

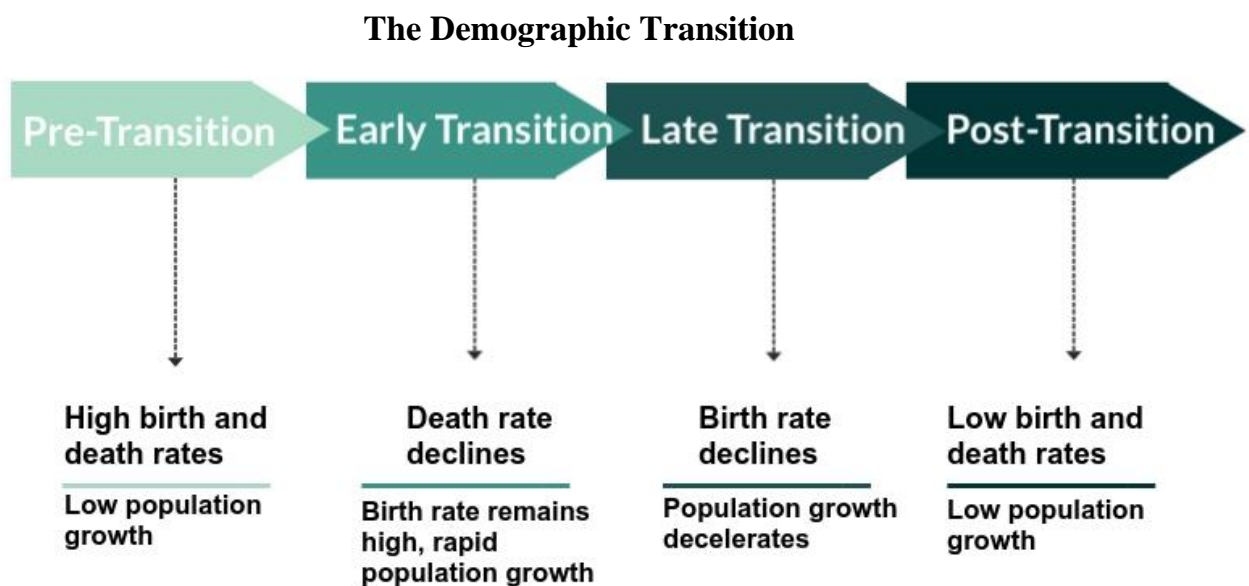
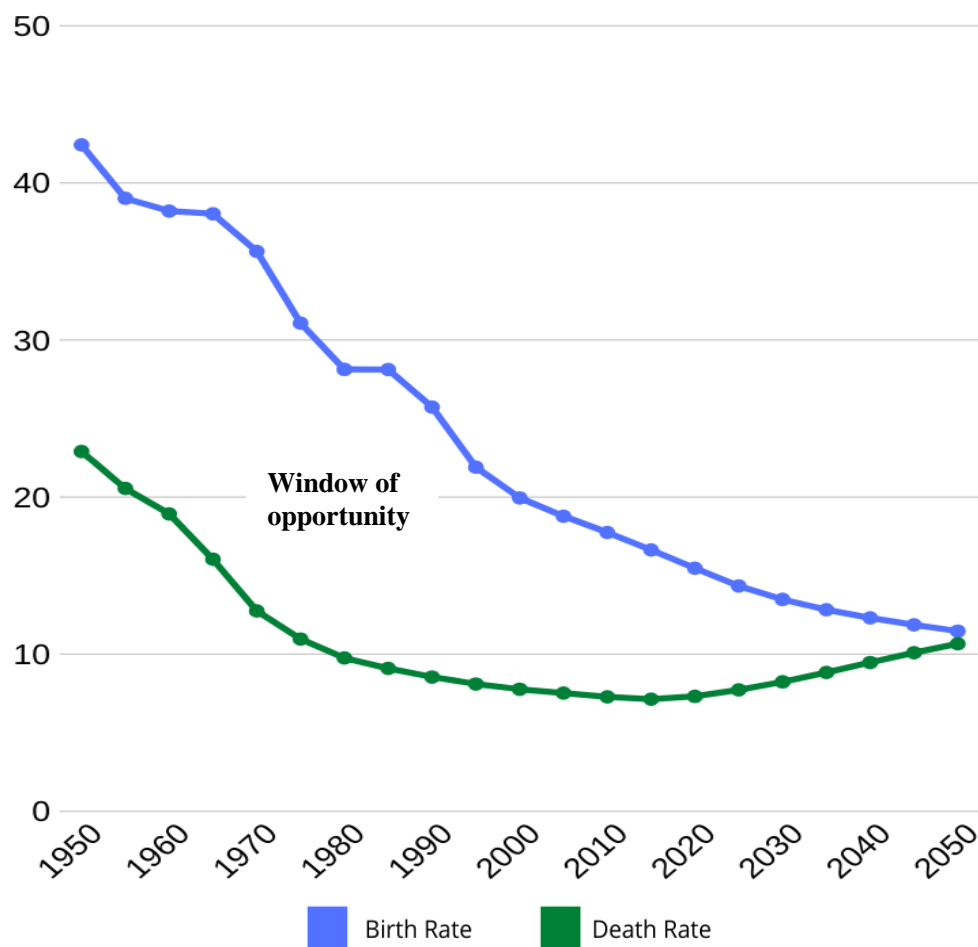


Figure 5 shows the declines in birth and death rates for the region. The gap between the two lines represents population growth and ‘a window of opportunity’ with countries in a position to harness the demographic dividend currently experiencing this.

³⁰ Bloom, D. and Williamson, J. (1998) “Demographic transitions and economic miracles in emerging Asia.” World Bank Economic Review 12(3): 419–455.

Figure 5. Comparison of total crude birth and death rates in Asia-Pacific, 1950–2050



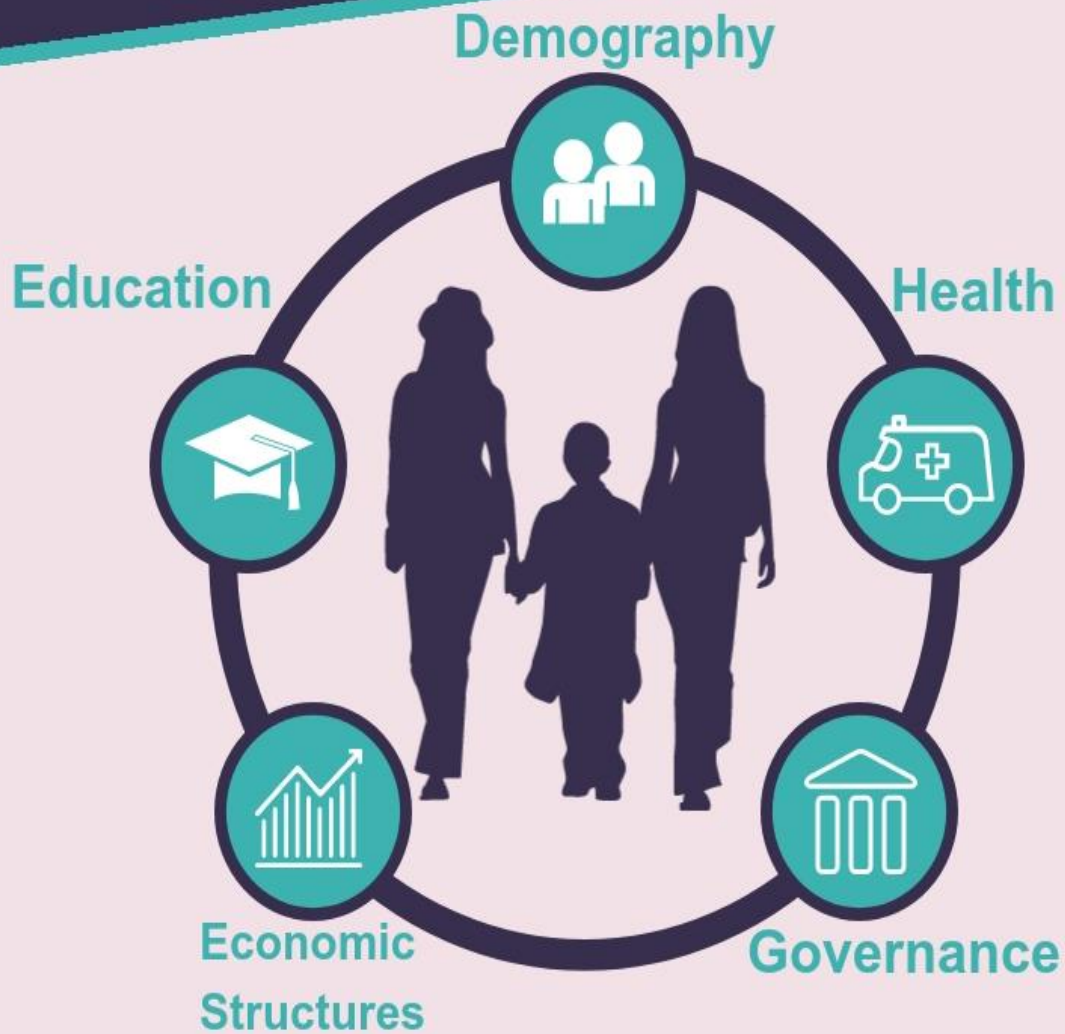
Source: ESCAP statistical database 2019.

The demographic dividend refers to the potential economic benefits that can be harnessed as the population age structure changes towards fewer dependent persons and more people of working-age, as long as relevant investments are made in the social and economic sectors. This generally comes in two stages, with a second demographic dividend being the subsequent wave of economic benefits that occur as a result of the investments of the accumulated wealth among those in the first wave.

The benefits of a greater proportion of people of working age translates to more savings per capita; this allows for greater investment in human capital, a fundamental component of national economic growth.

The demographic dividend is time-limited and not a guaranteed or automatic process that results from the demographic transition, but rather something that can be achieved through concerted efforts and investments in specific areas (as demonstrated in the chart of the five pillars or domains below).

THE FIVE PILLARS OF THE THE DEMOGRAPHIC DIVIDEND



Four key sectoral domains for harnessing the demographic dividend

This section provides a brief overview of each of the four key domains (or pillars) that correspond to sectors which need to be invested in to harness the demographic dividend and achieve greater gender equality as well as support the achievement of SDGs.³¹



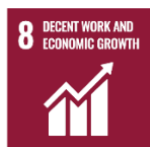
Health

Ensuring healthy lives and promoting well-being for all at all ages (SDG 3) is also a critical factor. Health risks and unequal access to health care are often exacerbated by socially constructed gender roles, and pose as key obstacles to development. Most relevant to the demographic dividend are areas such as healthy childbearing and maternal and infant mortalities. Generally speaking, poorer health and well-being translate to poorer participation in productive work. Achieving a healthier population is possible through effective policy programming, service provisions and accountability processes. Here are **8 key indicators** which link health and the demographic dividend, focusing on child and maternal health, sexual and reproductive health, and family planning, which, in turn, contribute to increased female participation in production processes and employment.



Education

Ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and promoting lifelong learning opportunities for all (SDG 4) is essential in harnessing the demographic dividend. Education is a universal right³² and an indispensable tool for enhancing social mobility and economic growth. Policymakers should focus on promoting widespread, affordable education, with a gender-inclusive approach to national policies, programmes and plans. This will promote sustainable development and help raise awareness of critical challenges such as socioeconomic disparities, gender inequality, climate change and health concerns including the COVID-19 pandemic. Drawing on good practice countries, this Indicator Framework highlights **5 key indicators** that can be used to track endeavours to ensure that quality education is available to all groups of society, especially marginalized groups, and women and girls.



Economic factors

Promoting sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all (SDG8) is another vital component of realizing the demographic dividend. Social and economic policies lay the foundations for improvements in human capital and economic growth, in addition to facilitating gender-inclusive approaches to socioeconomic development. Women are often disadvantaged compared to men in the context of education, health care and employment. In most developing countries such as Papua New Guinea and Timor-Leste, women are predominantly engaged in domestic work and informal (often unpaid) labour, such as agriculture. Ensuring the relevant provisions are in place to support people (especially women

³¹ See: <https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/sustainable-development-goals/>

³² See: <https://www.ohchr.org/en/professionalinterest/pages/cescr.aspx>

and girls) with the transition from unpaid informal labour to being educated and joining the formal national workforce is an essential component of harnessing the demographic dividend. Here are **15 key indicators** that are useful for countries to establish and track conducive economic environments, focusing on labour force participation, employment rates and social support in place to support workers.



Governance and leadership

Promoting peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, providing access to justice for all and building effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels (SDG 16) further supports attaining the demographic dividend. Achieving greater equality in the participation of women and men in leadership, decision-making and governance is a crucial component in this regard. This requires policies that encourage institutions to take a multi-level approach to implementing gender-inclusive programmes and plans focused on increasing women's participation in managerial, influential and decision-making roles across society. The Indicator Framework features **4 key indicators** to highlight gaps and track progress towards gender equality and effective representation.

III. Overview of statistical indicators of the framework

This section presents an outline of the most significant indicators in the statistical dashboard. This is based on their importance in the process of reaping the demographic dividend, with a categorization according to the five aforementioned pillars. The numbering of each indicator corresponds to its placing in the statistical dashboard and can be seen below. The annex features a comprehensive list of all indicators, each with their respective definitions.

Descriptions of indicators begin with an explanation of why they are relevant to the demographic dividend, before proceeding to draw on examples from the Asia-Pacific region, then outlining the status of the target and good practice countries used in this project, as well as other noteworthy examples and good practices. Each part concludes with a summary of key policy recommendations and selected measures on how to apply the data in moving forward.

Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) are the primary data sources used for the three target countries. These are listed below with relevant links:

Nepal:

Ministry of Health (MOH), Nepal; New ERA; and ICF. 2017. *Nepal Demographic and Health Survey 2016*. Kathmandu,

Link: <https://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR336/FR336.pdf>

Papua New Guinea:

National Statistical Office (NSO) [Papua New Guinea] and ICF. 2019. *Papua New Guinea Demographic and Health Survey 2016-18*. Port Moresby, Papua New Guinea, and Rockville, Maryland, USA: NSO and ICF.

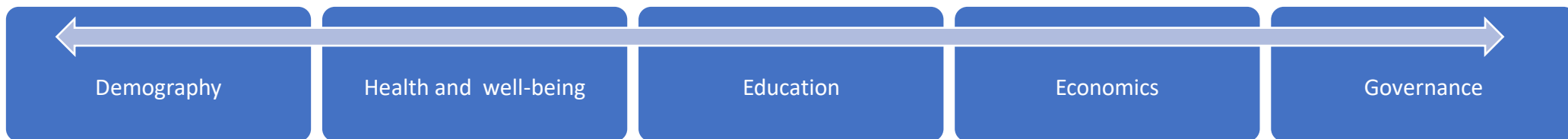
Link: <https://www.dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR364/FR364.pdf>

Timor-Leste:

General Directorate of Statistics (GDS), Ministry of Health and ICF. 2018. *Timor-Leste Demographic and Health Survey 2016*. Dili, Timor-Leste and Rockville, Maryland, USA: GDS and IFC.

Link: <https://www.dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR329/FR329.pdf>

In addition, this section draws primarily (unless otherwise indicated) from United Nations data sources such as the ESCAP statistical database, and UNDESA World Population Prospects.



1. Population by sex and five-year age groups.
2. Population growth rate
3. Dependency ratio
4. Total fertility rate
5. Adolescent fertility rate
6. Proportion of women aged 20-24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18
7. Sex ratio at birth

8. Life expectancy at birth (by sex)
9. Proportion of women of reproductive age (aged 15-49 years) who have their needs for family planning satisfied with modern methods
10. Maternal mortality ratio
11. Antenatal care coverage
12. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel
13. Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by form of violence and by age.
14. Unmet need for family planning
15. Contraceptive prevalence rate

16. Youth literacy rate of persons (15-24 years), by sex
17. Out-of-school rate for youth of upper secondary school age, by sex
18. Gender parity index of the gross enrolment ratios in tertiary education
19. Educational attainment of the population aged 25 and older, by sex
20. Share of female science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) graduates at tertiary level

21. Proportion of population living below the national poverty line, by sex and age
22. Proportion of employed who are contributing family workers, by sex
23. Length of maternity leave
24. Proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture, by sex
25. Labour force participation rate for persons aged 15-24 and 15+, by sex
26. Unemployment rate, by sex, age and persons with disabilities
27. Average hourly earnings of female and male employees, by occupation, age and persons with disabilities
28. Percentage distribution of employed population by sector, each sex
29. Proportion of adults (15+) with an account at a bank or other financial institution
30. Volume of remittances (USD) as a proportion of total GDP.
31. Proportion of manufacturing to GDP (World Development Indicators).
32. Proportion of working poor (men/women) – from ILOSSTAT
33. Migrant stock by age and sex (country of origin and destination)
34. Active contributors to an old age contributory scheme as a percent of the working age population by sex (%)
35. Number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation

36. Proportion of households with access to mass media (radio, television, internet), by sex of household head
37. Proportion of seats held by women in (a) national parliaments and (b) local governments
38. Women's share of government ministerial positions
39. Proportion of women in managerial positions



Demography

Understanding demographic change is key to all successful planning in the diverse domains of development. The statistical indicators in this section are based on estimates and projections and related policies with an emphasis on the gender dimension.

2. Population growth (percentage change per annum)

Asia and the Pacific exhibits severe disparities in terms of population growth. The regional average in 2019 was 0.8 per cent per year, sub-regional rates ranged from East and North-East Asia at 0.3 per cent to 1.3 per cent per year for the Pacific.

In the long-term, high population growth makes it harder to reap the demographic dividend since it is linked to high fertility rates. Countries such as Japan and the Republic of Korea, which invested substantially in health care and education for women, have been able to grow their economies along with reductions in fertility rates. In 2019, the good practice country of Republic of Korea's annual population growth rate was 0.1 per cent. In the target countries of Timor-Leste and Papua New Guinea, population growth rates were approximately 2.0 per cent per annum.³³

3. Dependency ratio (ratio of population aged 0–14 and 65+ per 100 population 15–64)

The dependency ratio measures those who can contribute to the national economy relative to those who are reliant on it. Bloom, Canning and Malaney³⁴ show that having a declining dependency ratio, in conjunction with a diminishing fertility rate, is important for developing countries to achieve economic growth. From a regional context, China, the Republic of Korea and Thailand, all countries which lowered fertility and population growth through health-care initiatives and public awareness campaigns, were able to significantly reduce their dependency ratios to current levels of approximately 40 dependents for every 100 people of working age. This is in stark contrast to developing countries, such as Timor-Leste, with a dependency ratio of 70 dependents per 100 people of working age (age 15-64).³⁵

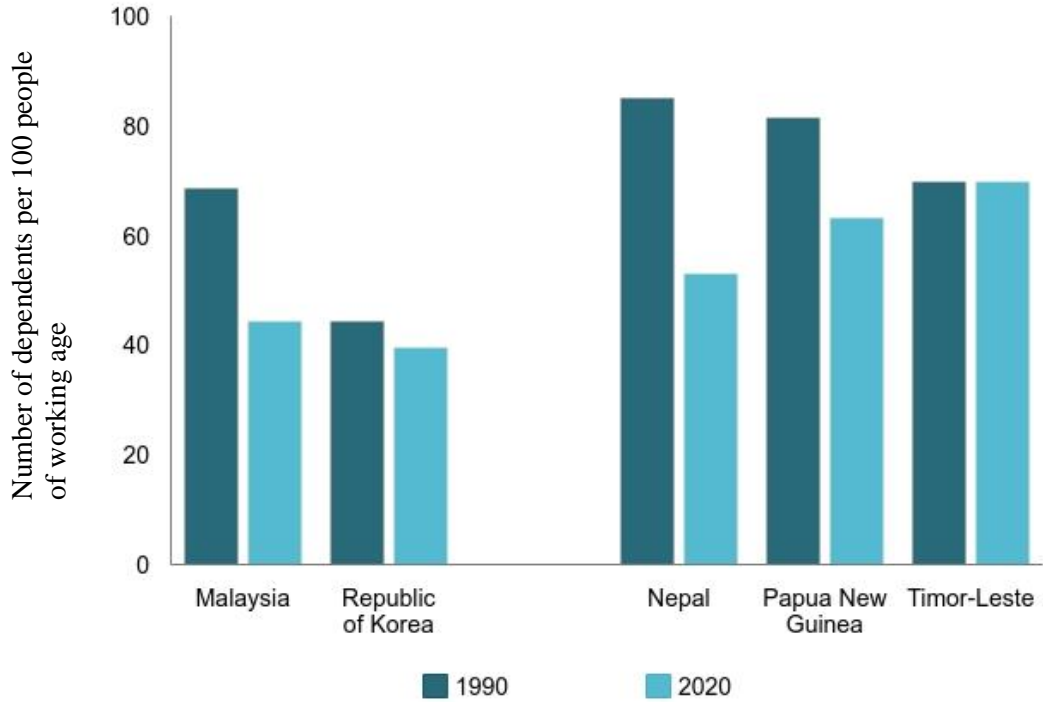
Figures 6 and 7 show changes (including projections) over time for good practice and target countries, with the former figure looking in greater detail at the countries with the highest and lowest levels.

³³ See: <https://www.unescap.org/sites/default/files/Population%20Data%20Sheet%202019.pdf>

³⁴ Bloom D, D Canning, and P Malaney. (2000) "Population dynamics and economic growth in Asia."

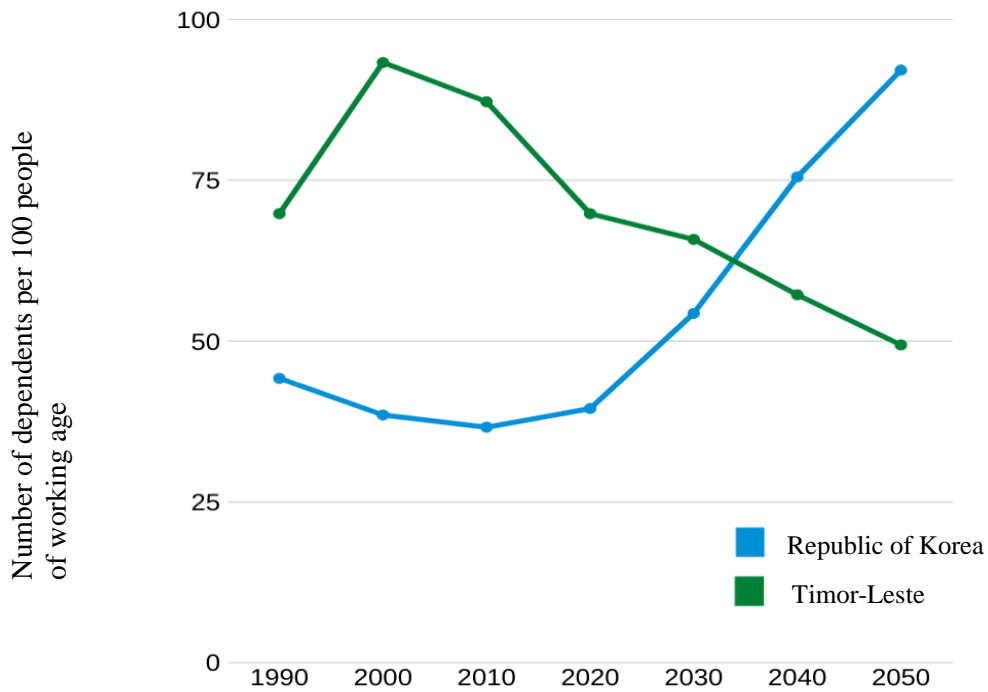
³⁵ United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2019). World Population Prospects 2019, custom data acquired via website.

Figure 6: Dependency ratios for all five countries, 1990 and 2020



Source: UNDESA (2019), World Populations Prospects.

Figure 7: Dependency ratios for Timor-Leste and the Republic of Korea, 1990-2050

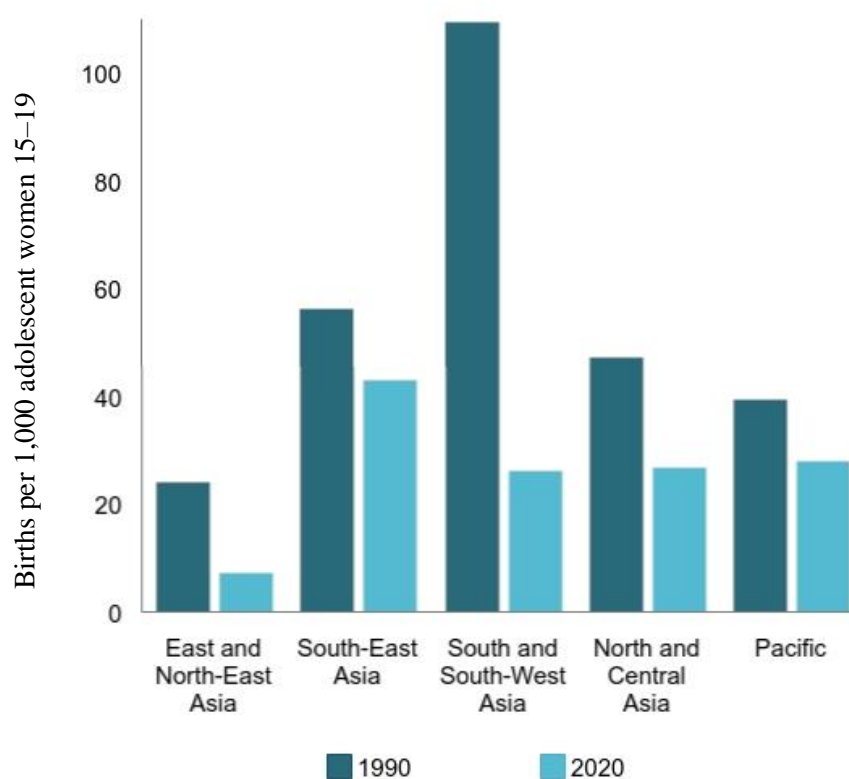


Source: UNDESA (2019), World Populations Prospects.

5. Adolescent fertility rate (births per 1,000 adolescent women, 15–19)

The Adolescent fertility, a subcomponent of the fertility rate (indicator 4), is a key indicator to track efforts to eliminate harmful practices, achieve gender equality and boost women’s participation in the labour force. Research shows that high rates of adolescent pregnancies are linked to lower levels of female education and labour force participation. In 2019, Nepal had a high rate of adolescent fertility (65.1 births per 1,000 adolescent women aged 15–19), second only to Lao People’s Democratic Republic at 65.4. In both Malaysia and the Republic of Korea, significant investments in family planning and women’s education, have meant fewer adolescents are tasked with raising children, and the number of women pursuing higher education has increased. As figure 8 shows, in 2020, only East and North-East Asia has an adolescent fertility rate below 10 per cent (7.1). These data highlight how much potential there is for the majority of the Asia-Pacific region to reduce adolescent fertility and challenge traditional gender roles through providing more education and employment opportunities for women.

Figure 8: Adolescent fertility rates, ESCAP subregions, 1990 and 2020



Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2019). World Population Prospects 2019, Online Edition.

Traditional views of gender can contribute to abnormal sex ratios, and these can have major and lasting impacts. In China, for example, which has the world’s highest sex ratio at birth³⁶ combined

³⁶ For 2015-2020, China’s estimated sex ratio at birth is 113 boys for every 100 girls (United Nations World Population Prospects 2019. Available at: <https://population.un.org/wpp/DataQuery/>)

with specific population policies, men significantly outnumber women, which among other implications, makes it difficult for men to find a spouse, impacting family formation and social security for older persons.³⁷

Policy implications and selected measures

Policymakers need to have a comprehensive grasp of population dynamics – their size, structure and characteristics, such as age profile and sex ratio. This will allow for a clearer understanding of the way plans and interventions influence fertility, mortality and migration. It will also determine how to most effectively use demographic change, including harnessing the demographic dividend, and promoting greater gender equality to achieve sustainable and inclusive development.

The fertility rate, including **the adolescent fertility rate** (indicator 5) for example, is an important demographic indicator, and its decline can contribute to the realization of a demographic dividend. When fertility rates decline, the structure of the population shifts towards having fewer young children to more people of working age (15–64), resulting in a potential demographic dividend. Fertility can be shaped by population policies and service delivery associated with family planning and reproductive health, including the provision of information and methods for people to limit and/or space the number of children they have.

Policies and programmes that encourage people to delay marriage and childbirth also affect fertility rates. These may include sex education for adolescents, increasing education and work opportunities for young people, and legalisation changes, such as to legal age of marriage or to promote safe abortion.

Another measure, the **dependency ratio** (indicator 3) provides a point in time measure of how many children and older persons there are compared to people of working age. The lower the ratio, the lower the level of dependency, with more working age people relative to those who need care. The actual level of dependency is influenced by policies related to child and elderly care, the provision of services and to balancing work and family life, for example, with part-time work and flexible work arrangements.

³⁷ Quanbao, J. et al. 2011. Demographic Consequences of Gender Discrimination in China: Simulation Analysis of Policy Options. *Population research and policy review*. 2011 Aug; 30(4).



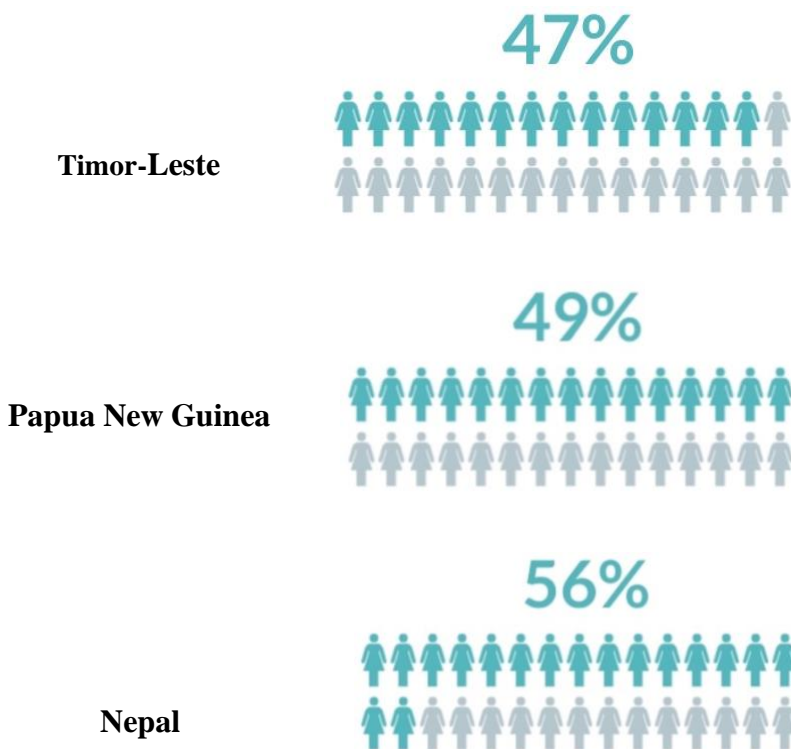
Health and well-being

Health and well-being are central to all aspects of socioeconomic development, allowing for better learning and more productive employment. The demographic dividend cannot be harnessed without significant investments in health, especially sexual and reproductive health. The implications for gender empowerment and equality should not be underestimated.

9. Proportion of women of reproductive age (15–49 years) who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods

“Contraceptive use and unmet need for family planning are key to understanding profound changes in fertility and to improving reproductive health worldwide”.³⁸ Statistics show that countries successful in reaping the demographic dividend have provided universal modern family planning as one of the principal means to reducing fertility. According to the Demographic and Health Surveys, less than half of women in both Papua New Guinea and Timor-Leste have access to modern family planning and the figure is only slightly higher in Nepal (figure 9).

Figure 9: Percentage of women of reproductive age (15–49) with need for family planning satisfied by modern methods, target countries



Source: DHS data for target countries.

³⁸ UNDESA, 2020. Available at: <https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/theme/family-planning/index.asp>

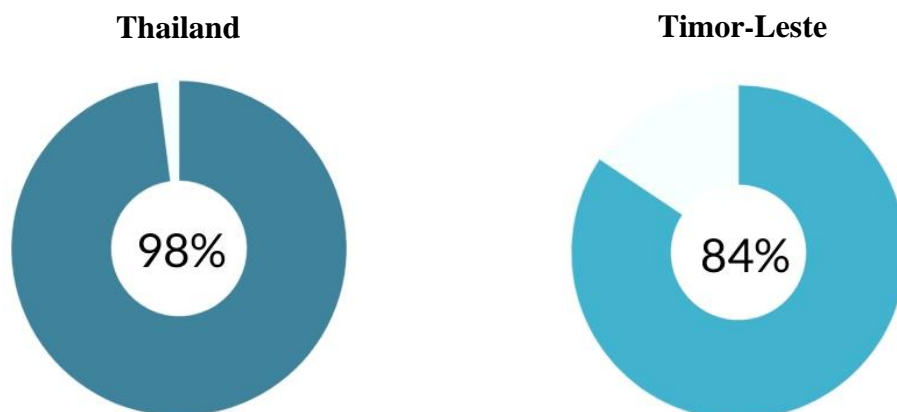
Without widespread use of modern contraceptive methods, the probability of countries being able to reduce fertility significantly is very low. Within the region, Thailand exemplifies good practice. In 2012, approximately 90 per cent of Thai women aged 15–49 had their needs for family planning satisfied, contributing to a substantial reduction in the total fertility rate. In 2019, when Timor-Leste’s total fertility rate was approximately 4 children per women, Thailand’s was well under half of this at 1.5 children per woman on average.³⁹

11. Antenatal care coverage (percentage distribution of women aged 15–49 who had a live birth in the 5 years preceding the survey by number of antenatal care visits for the most recent live birth, and by the timing of the first visit, and among women with antenatal care, median months pregnant at first visit, according to residence)

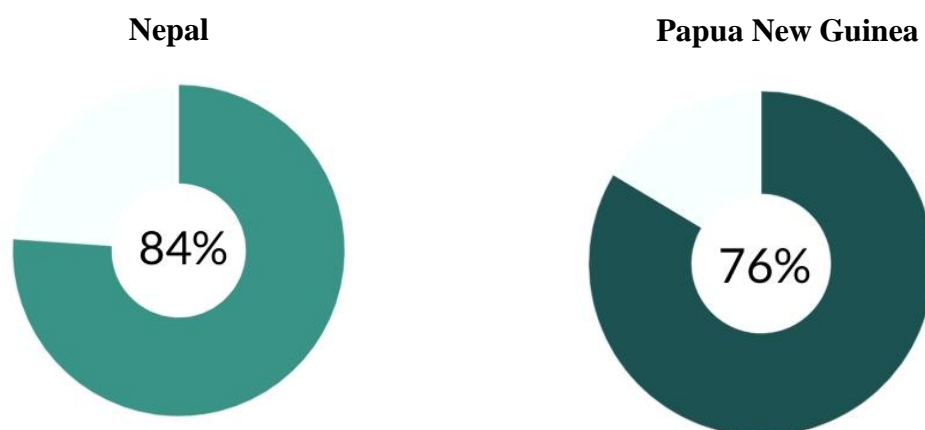
Antenatal care is essential to reducing maternal mortality by protecting the health of mothers and babies during pregnancy and childbirth. Statistics show that countries with widespread antenatal care coverage have lower levels of maternal mortality. Developing countries in the Asia-Pacific region are still challenged in ensuring that antenatal care reaches women in rural areas compared to urban areas.

Figure 10 shows the percentage of antenatal care coverage in selected countries. Failing to provide adequate antenatal care, countries cannot maximize the benefits that the demographic window of opportunity presents. Thailand’s government targeted rural communities across the country and successfully increased antenatal care, a key factor in bringing its overall fertility rates down and harnessing the demographic dividend.

Figure 10: Percentage of antenatal care coverage in Thailand and target countries, percentage



³⁹ United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2019). Model-based Estimates and Projections of Family Planning Indicators 2019. New York: United Nations. Available at: http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/theme/family-planning/cp_model.shtml



Sources: Thailand: 2016, UNICEF, State of the World's Children, Childinfo; DHS data for target countries.

12. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel (percentage)

As with antenatal care, access to skilled health personnel during birth is a fundamental component of ensuring the health of mothers and new-borns. Being attended by skilled health personnel lowers the chance of preventable deaths during childbirth. In East and North-East Asia, 99.9 per cent of all births are attended by skilled health personnel. While the Asia-Pacific figure is 87 per cent,⁴⁰ the target countries (drawing on DHS data) exhibit much lower levels. In 2016, Nepal's figure was 58.0 per cent, followed by Timor-Leste (56.7 per cent) and Papua New Guinea (56.4 per cent). This is in stark contrast to Thailand at 99.1 per cent of births.⁴¹ Such high rates were achieved in Thailand by investing significantly in national public health service and minimizing the disparity of services available between rural and urban areas.

14. Unmet need for family planning (percentage of currently married women aged 15–49 with unmet need for family planning)

Unmet need for family planning refers to the proportion of women who (1) are not pregnant and not postpartum amenorrhoeic and are considered fecund and want to postpone their next birth for two or more years or stop childbearing altogether but are not using a contraceptive method, or (2) have a mistimed or unwanted current pregnancy, or (3) are postpartum amenorrhoeic and their most recent birth in the last two years was mistimed or unwanted. Alkama et al.⁴² highlight the link between a reduced unmet need for family planning and an improvement in reproductive

⁴⁰ ESCAP Statistical Database.

⁴¹ ESCAP Statistical Database.

⁴² Alkama L., V. Kantorová, C. Menozzi and A. Biddlecom (2013). National, regional and global rates and trends in contraceptive prevalence and unmet need for family planning between 1990 and 2015: a systematic and comprehensive analysis. *The Lancet*. Vol. 381, Issue 9878, pp. 1642– 1652. Available at: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5688432/>

health. Furthermore, Stover et al.⁴³ show how in countries with high fertility, reducing unmet need can contribute to a decrease in fertility.

Government efforts to ensure that family planning needs are met have enabled countries such as the Republic of Korea and Thailand, where unmet need is around 5 per cent, to significantly improve reproductive health and reduce fertility rates. This has created more opportunities for women to participate in the labour force. According to their respective DHSs, all three target countries have high percentages of unmet need for family planning (Timor-Leste, 25.3, Nepal 23.7 and Papua New Guinea 25.9).

15. Contraceptive prevalence rate (percentage of women who use any contraceptive method)

“The growing use of contraceptive methods in recent decades has resulted not only in improvements in health-related outcomes, such as reduced unintended pregnancies, high-risk pregnancies, maternal mortality, and infant mortality, but also in improvements in schooling and economic outcomes, especially for girls and women. Beyond the impacts of contraceptive use at the individual level, there are benefits at the population level. From a macroeconomic perspective, reductions in fertility enhance economic growth as a result of reduced youth dependency and an increased number of women participating in paid labour.”⁴⁴

Figure 11, relying on the most recent data available, shows that countries with a higher gross domestic product have higher contraceptive prevalence than developing nations (with Japan being a notable exception). In Asia and the Pacific, China, the Republic of Korea and Thailand - each with a relatively high gross domestic product (GDP) – were able to significantly reduce fertility by ensuring contraception was available and accessed through government initiatives such as targeted promotional campaigns.

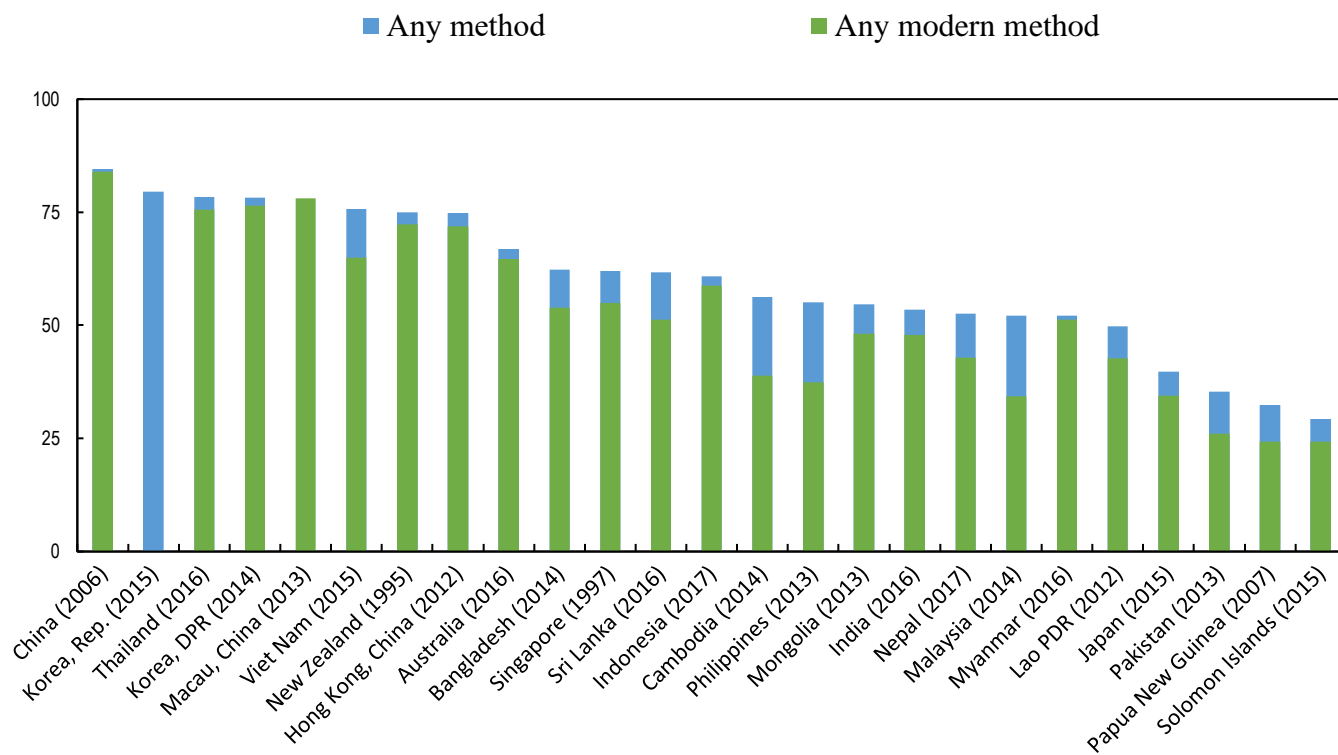
According to the DHSs, contraceptive prevalence rates (percentages) of Papua New Guinea (26.8) and Timor-Leste (26.1) are far lower than that of Nepal (40.8). The higher rate of contraceptive prevalence in Nepal has translated to a lower total fertility rate of 1.9 children per woman, in comparison to Papua New Guinea (3.5) and Timor-Leste (3.9).

⁴³ Stover, John, and William Winfrey. “The effects of family planning and other factors on fertility, abortion, miscarriage, and stillbirths in the Spectrum model.” *BMC public health* vol. 17, Suppl 4 775. 7 Nov. 2017, doi:10.1186/s12889-017-4740-7

⁴⁴ UNDESA, 2020. Available at:

https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/publications/pdf/family/World_Fertility_and_Family_Planning_2020_Highlights.pdf

Figure 11: Contraceptive prevalence, married or in-union women, in Asia-Pacific countries, latest estimates



Source: OECD/WHO, 2018. Health at a Glance: Asia/Pacific 2018: Measuring Progress towards Universal Health Coverage, OECD Publishing, Paris. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1787/health_glance_ap-2018-en

13. Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years or older subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by form of violence and by age.

Gender-based violence is violence directed against a person because of their gender. It is both a cause and a consequence of gender inequality. It can be experienced by both women and men, but is more prevalent among women and girls due to a prevailing power imbalance between genders.

The DHSs conducted in the target countries reveal some of the highest rates of gender-based violence in the world. Over half of women (54.3 per cent) in Papua New Guinea, and over a third in Timor-Leste (36.8 per cent) reported violence from a current or former partner in the last 12 months. Nepal's rate is lower (16 per cent) but still extremely high in comparison to other countries in the region.

Intimate partner violence against women – the most common form of violence women tend to experience – comes with a huge individual and economic cost. Data are scarce but where available, show direct and indirect economic costs are significant.⁴⁵ They include out-of-pocket expenses

⁴⁵ UN Women. 2014. *The Costs of Violence: Understanding the costs of violence against women and girls and its response: selected findings and lessons learned from Asia and the Pacific*. Bangkok. Available at: <https://asiapacific.unwomen.org/en/digital-library/publications/2014/1/the-costs-of-violence>

associated with health care, reduced productivity in their paid and unpaid work and lost opportunities due to the impact violence has on physical and mental health. Children who witness or overhear violence between their parents often display more behavioural problems and issues with school performance than children of women who do not have a violent partner. Partner violence is often intergenerational, with those exposed to violence as a child having a higher probability to be victims or perpetrators of similar violence as adults.

Eliminating partner violence is essential to protect the human rights of women and children and to provide the maximum opportunity for happy, productive and healthy lives.

Policy implications and selected measures

Health-related indicators of policy relevance to gender and the demographic dividend include those related to maternal health, such as **satisfying the need for family planning with modern methods** (indicator 9), **antenatal care coverage** (indicator 11) **and the proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel** (indicator 12). Ensuring women can have children in a planned and safe way improves health outcomes for mothers and babies. Strengthening the public health system and reducing maternal and child mortality has been shown to play a role in decreasing fertility rates.

Good health and well-being are fundamental for a society to be productive and contribute to economic growth. Policies that balance work with physical activity and support good mental health ensure that the working population can sustain economic growth.

Health systems should always promote gender equality, by building a network of people and services that represent all genders and support equitable access to health care. Public health campaigns promoting healthy lifestyles should be tailored towards different genders, ages and groups within society, with concerted action to address **physical, sexual and psychological violence against women and girls** (indicator 13).



Education

Raising educational levels is crucial for alleviating poverty and spurring economic growth. In the case of the demographic dividend, a highly educated youth population is more versatile and productive than a less educated one. Educating young women is of utmost importance, as research from good practice countries highlights how women with higher levels of education are more likely to transition from unpaid care work to direct labour force participation. In addition, integrating groups that may be left behind by education systems, such as persons with disabilities and minority groups, is also vital to maximizing potential for economic growth during the demographic window of opportunity.

16. Youth literacy rate of those aged 15–24, by sex

The literacy rate is an important indicator to monitor a country’s educational achievements. As youth play a crucial role in the demographic dividend, it is essential that governments ensure universal literacy among their incoming working-age populations. Due to gender roles, related disparities often exist with regard to literacy rates, a key obstacle that governments must address to ensure women can contribute to the national economy. According to UNESCO data from its Institute for Statistics statistical database, China, Indonesia, Singapore and Turkey, and all of Central Asia have 100 per cent rates of youth literacy (Malaysia is close at 98 per cent).⁴⁶ As shown in table 1, gender disparities exist in all three target countries. These statistics highlight the significant need to promote women’s education to reap the demographic dividend.

Table 1: Youth literacy rates by sex, target countries

	Female	Male
Nepal	84.5	95.4
Papua New Guinea	77.3	85.4
Timor-Leste	88.5	85.4

Source: DHS data for target countries.

17. Out-of-school rate for youth of upper secondary school age, by sex

While men outside of school are more likely to be involved in some sort of paid labour, high out-of-school rates among women are linked to early marriage, and the burden of unpaid care work in the home. In many societies, boys and young men are underperforming in school and leaving earlier than girls and young women. Monitoring the out-of-school rate for both sexes is key to

⁴⁶ UNESCO, 2018, UIS statistical database, UNESCO (2020). Available at: <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>

identifying the gaps and push and pull factors that keep young people in school. Table 2 looks at the target countries and their respective out of school rates for secondary education level youth.

Table 2: Out of school rates (percentage) for youth of upper secondary school age, by sex, target countries

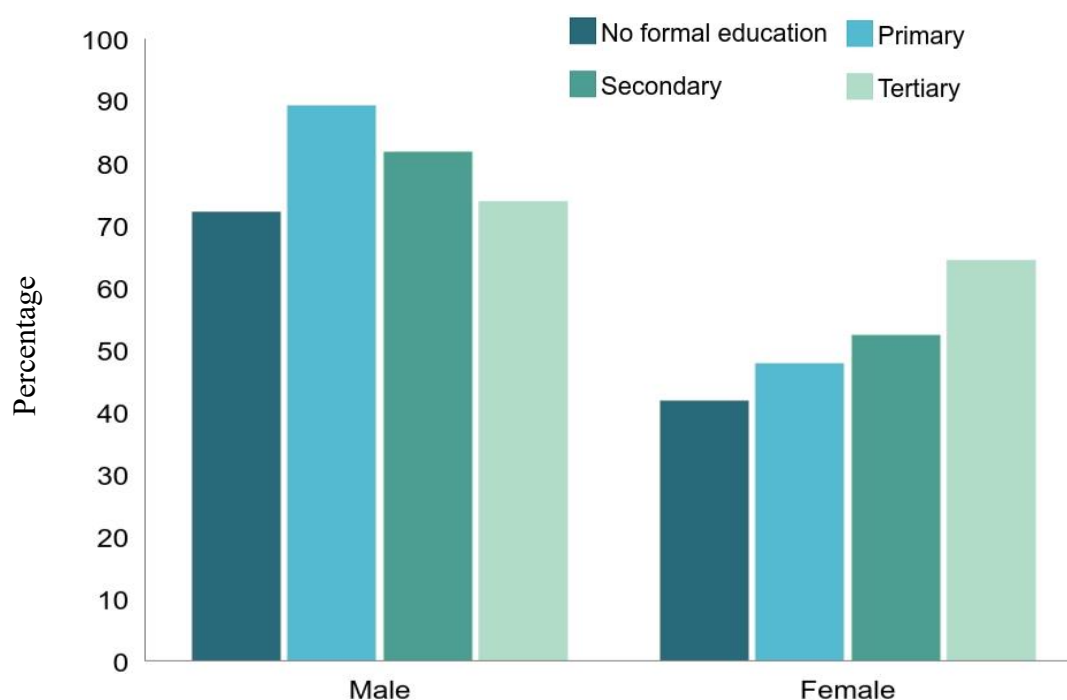
	Female	Male
Nepal	18.0	33.0
Papua New Guinea	50.1	38.8
Timor-Leste	25.9	29.9

Source: DHS data for target countries.

18. Gender parity index of gross enrolment ratios in tertiary education

Tertiary education is a driver of economic competitiveness and an important component of a knowledge-based economy. It contributes to human capital formation, the building of a knowledge base and the possibility of disseminating knowledge by sharing it with other knowledge seekers and between generations. As shown in figure 12 for Malaysia, the greater the level education of women, the higher their participation in paid employment. In contrast, having no formal education or only primary school education does not limit the participation of men

Figure 12: Labour force participation rates in Malaysia by educational level and gender, 2018



Source: DOSM, 2019, The Labour Force Survey Report, Malaysia, 2018, Putrajaya, Malaysia.

20. Share of female science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) graduates at tertiary level

Often, women and girls are under-represented in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) fields. As technology is evolving rapidly, ensuring that the greatest number of the population is at the forefront of this field is key in maximizing economic gains; this is impossible, however, if women are not integrated into the field. The good practice countries in this study exhibit severe disparities in this regard; in 2018, Malaysia women were only 26.2 per cent of all STEM graduates (tertiary). In 2017, in the Republic of Korea's women were 14.4 per cent of graduates in these fields. As it stands, no data is currently available for this in the target countries.⁴⁷

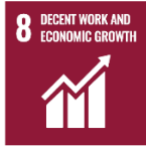
Policy implications and selected measures

Education policies will affect the demographic dividend in several ways. Keeping girls and boys in formal education for as long as possible will minimize early marriage and teenage pregnancy and delay the start of childbearing years, bringing down the fertility rate. Policies that encourage children to be enrolled, attend, and perform well throughout compulsory education should be evidence-based and monitored using sex-disaggregated data. Measuring **youth literacy** (indicator 16) and **out-of-school rates** (indicator 17) by sex, location and other characteristics, for example, will show policymakers where action may be required to level the playing field.

Education policies also should ensure young women and men develop the work and life skills they need for the future. Education should be equitable and gender-sensitive, with curriculums and opportunities that break down gender stereotypes by giving girls and boys the confidence to pursue any field of study and expertise they wish. Policies that encourage greater **shares of female STEM graduates** (indicator 20) act as examples that can help to achieve gender equality and maximize the demographic dividend by increasing the skilled workforce.

Lifelong opportunities for learning are ever-more important, especially in developing countries where the rate of socioeconomic change is fast, and systems must be responsive. Policies should support adults to learn and to reskill where needed to move into changing and emerging sectors. Recording the education level of women and men over the age of 25 (through population-based surveys and censuses) provides measures at different points in time about the expertise and qualifications of the population. Meaningful education policies need to be informed by gender analysis and assessments of the labour market, including current and anticipated skills shortages. Vocational education and training are essential components of the formal education system and should be strengthened to upskill workers of all ages.

⁴⁷ UIS statistical database, UNESCO (2020). Available at: <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>



Economic structures, participation in productive activities and access to resources

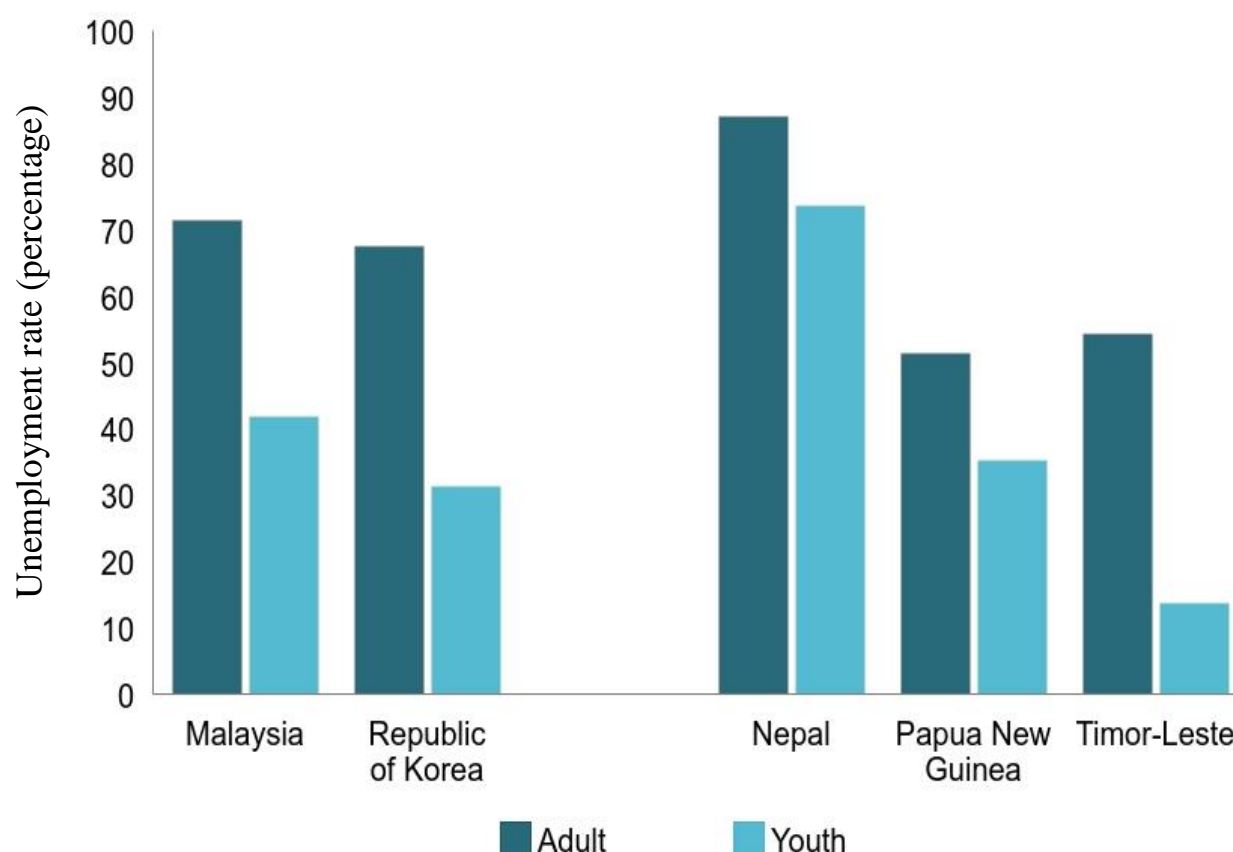
Economic structures determine the capacity of a population to produce greater economic output. When countries fail to establish formal labour sectors with meaningful employment, the population will be unable to benefit from social protection measures that are typically in place with formal employment. In addition, when countries do not have adequate structures in place to ensure women's labour force participation, they also miss out on the potential for substantial economic growth. Women's transition from unpaid domestic labour to formal employment has been proven to be an effective tool for harnessing the demographic dividend. Access to social provisions such as education and training, health care, childcare benefits and pensions are thus essential for supporting people transitioning from informal to formal, and unpaid to paid labour.

25. Labour force participation rate for persons 15–24 and 15+, by sex

The labour force participation rate (LFPR) is an important indicator to track how much of a population is actively contributing to the national economy. During the early stages of the demographic dividend, it is important to act on the mobilization of young people into the workforce. From a regional context, the largest gender disparities in this indicator exist in South and South-West Asia. In 2020, for instance, female youth LFPR in South and South-West Asia was only 18.4 per cent compared to 50.6 per cent among males. Culture plays a significant role in this regard, women are often expected to stay at home in order to, among others, raise children, look after older relatives and take care of domestic work.

Developing countries typically have higher LFPRs among men. Governments should therefore prioritize to increase female LFPR so the economic potential of women is not wasted. This indicator can be misconstrued if aspects such as education are not factored into its analysis. A higher youth LFPR is not always an effective indicator to represent efforts in harnessing the demographic dividend, as, especially in the case of women, it could predominantly represent those in unskilled labour (refer to figure 12). Figure 13 presents a comparison of adult and youth LFPR between the target and good practice countries.

Figure 13: Comparison of adult (25+) and youth (15–24) LFPR, 2020, good practice and target countries



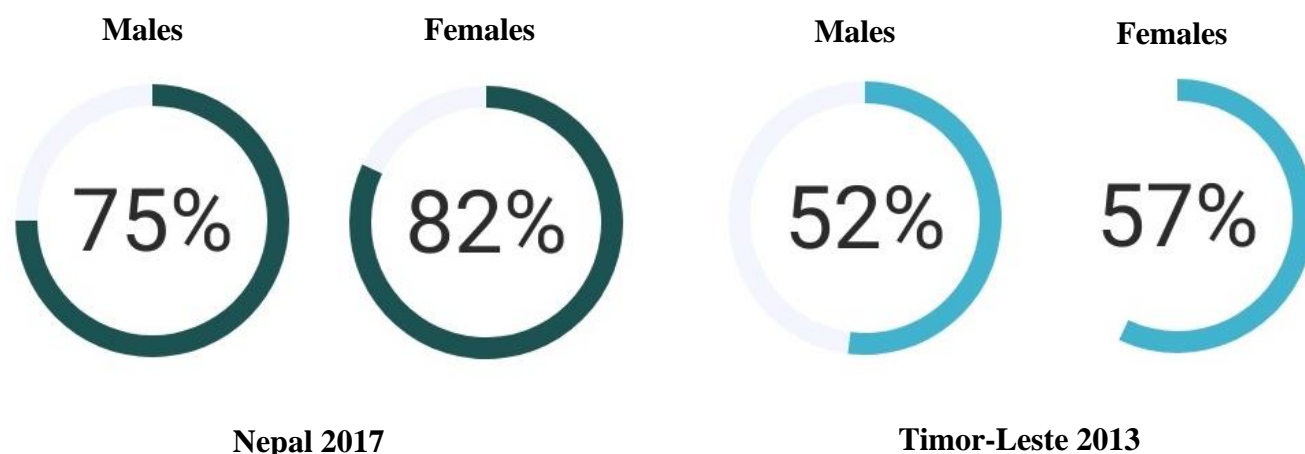
Source: ESCAP Statistical Database.

24. Proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment, by sex

One of the key problems facing developing countries is the large percentage of workers engaged in the informal sector. In order to harness the demographic dividend, governments must diversify their economies while ensuring that labour undertaken contributes to the formal economy rather than smaller networks of informal businesses where the benefits of tax-revenue, subsidies and social protection are limited. Regionally, South Asian countries particularly face challenges in this regard. For instance, Bangladesh has a rate of approximately 90 per cent of informal employment for both sexes.⁴⁸ In the case of the target countries, rates of informal employment in non-agriculture employment are greater among females than males, highlighting the importance of integrating women into the formal economy to realizing the demographic dividend. Figure 14 compares the proportions for Nepal and Timor-Leste.

⁴⁸ SDG Database, 2017. Available at: <http://www.sdg.org/datasets/indicator-8-3-1-proportion-of-informal-employment-in-non-agriculture-employment-by-sex-ilo-harmonized-estimates-percent?geometry=76.446%2C20.269%2C104.131%2C27.300>

Figure 14: Proportion of informal employment in non-agricultural employment in Timor-Leste and Nepal



Source: ILO Stat Database, 2019.

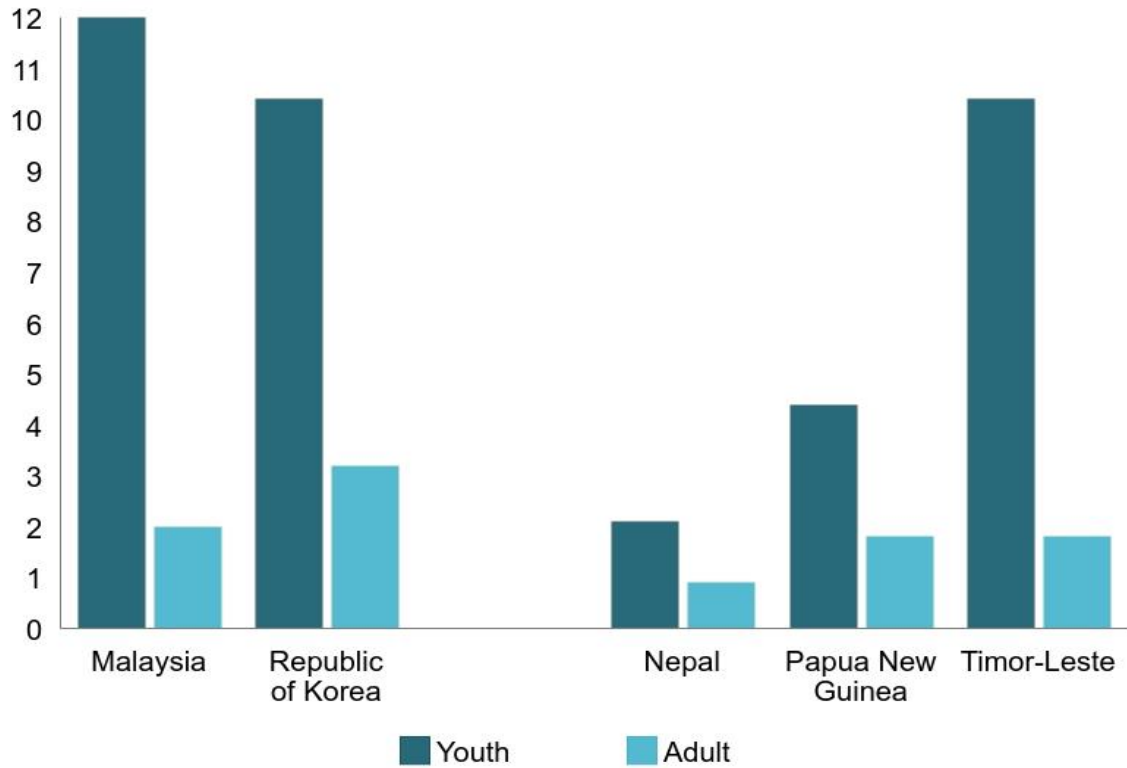
26. Unemployment rate, by sex, age – gender comparison and age comparison

As with informal employment, unemployment is one of the most vital indicators that must be addressed to harness the demographic dividend. Youth unemployment rates are higher than those with adults across all countries (figure 15). The higher the ratio of those actively employed in formal employment, the more an economy is expected to gain from taxation, develop and diversify the economy and generate national income. Unemployment rates are often high as a result of unregistered informal labour. Due to socially constructed gender roles, especially in the case of South and South-West Asia, (figure 16) domestic duties often take precedence over engaging in paid employment.

Citizens may be registered as unemployed yet participate in informal labour. Addressing youth unemployment is of crucial importance for developing countries wishing to harness the demographic dividend. As the dependency ratio decreases during the demographic transition, countries must ensure that work is readily available for the growing youth population. Failure to do so will lead to a waste of huge economic potential during the demographic window of opportunity.

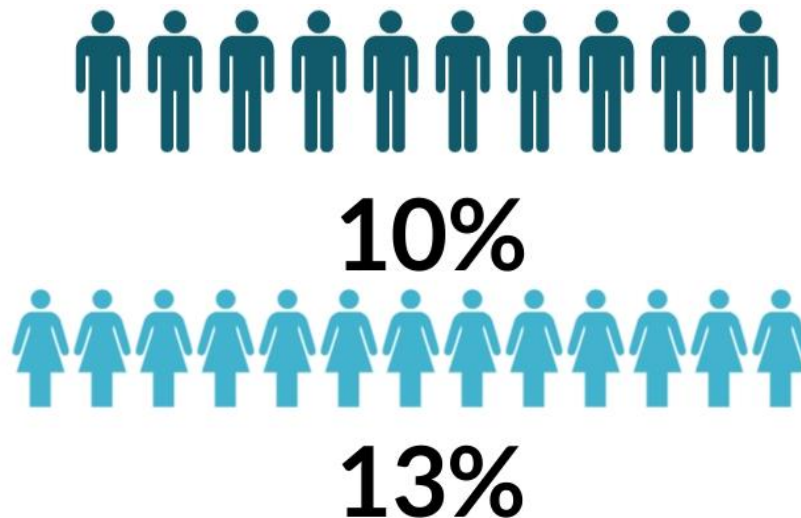
Countries with greater welfare provisions (Malaysia and the Republic of Korea, below) can support unemployed citizens whereas people in developing countries without such provisions are typically forced to either work in any job, or risk their survival through other means.

Figure 15: Comparison of adult (25+) and youth (15-24) unemployment rates, estimates for 2020



Source: ESCAP database (using ILO estimates), 2020.

Figure 16: Comparison of male and female youth unemployment rates in South and South-West Asia, 2020

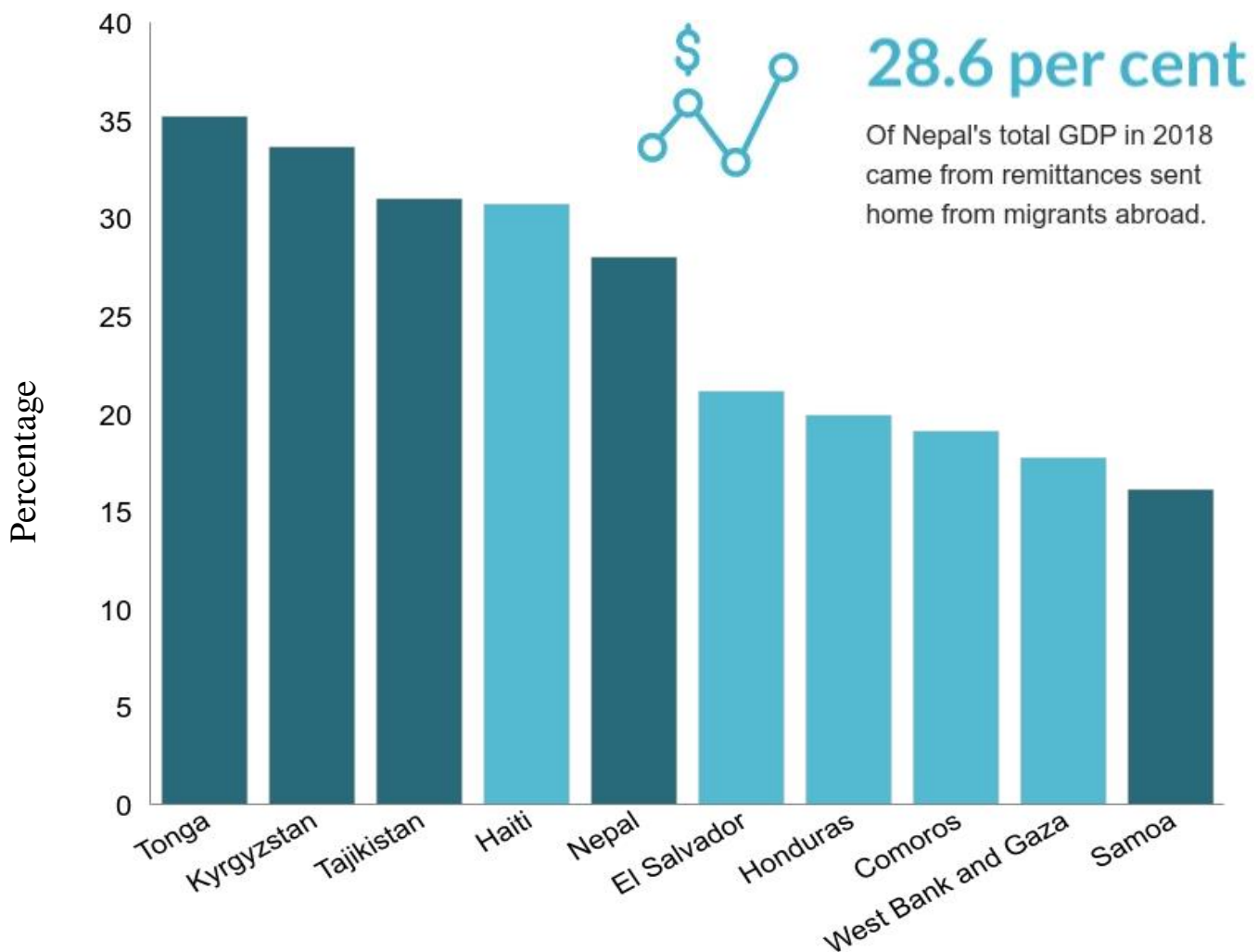


Source: ESCAP database (using ILO estimates), 2020.

30. Volume of remittances (in United States dollars) as a proportion of total GDP

Remittances, if invested effectively, can have a significant impact on the development of human capital in a country's efforts to reap the demographic dividend. Half of the world's 10 countries with the highest volumes of remittances as a proportion of total GDP are from the Asia-Pacific region (figure 17). The case of the Philippines demonstrates the potential benefits of remittances, as its Government has been able to effectively tax and use remittances to bolster human capital, particularly health and education. Remittances play different roles in the target countries. While in 2018 a considerable portion of Nepal's GDP (28.6 per cent) was made up of remittances, the respective figure for Timor-Leste was only 3.7 per cent, and Papua New Guinea's estimates indicated no remittance revenue.

Figure 17: Countries with the highest levels of remittances as a percentage of GDP



Source: World Bank staff estimates, World Development Indicators, IMF Balance of Payments Statistics. (World Bank 2018) World Bank staff estimates based on IMF balance of payments data, and World Bank and OECD GDP estimates.

33. Migrant stock by age and sex (country of origin/destination)

When people from developing countries migrate abroad for the purpose of employment, education, and training their newly-acquired skills, upon return to their countries of origin, can be applied to the local economy. Regionally, Australia and New Zealand are common destinations for people from the entire region. Due to socially constructed gender roles (especially in the case of South and South-West Asia), women are often restricted from moving abroad, which also perpetuates gender inequalities. However, the ‘brain drain’, which generally entails educated citizens from the developing world staying and residing in developed countries after becoming qualified rather than returning to their countries of origin, can also hinder countries from reaping the demographic dividend. The overall impact of this can be evaluated by weighing up the benefits of remittances against the loss of skilled workers domestically.

34. Active contributors to an old age contributory scheme as a percentage of the working age population by sex

Directly linking to the indicator on informal labour, contributions to old age schemes are significant to the demographic dividend, as a lack of pension funds, for example, can increase the risk of informal workers suffering from poverty during old age. This can consequently put more pressure on the working-age population to provide for them. It is important for youth to start early and contribute to an old-age scheme, so that, rather than being vulnerable at old age, people will be able to provide for themselves and even invest surplus funds for their children’s benefit (the second demographic dividend).

Policy implications and selected measures

The product of a less dependent population, good health and quality education can be a strong work force, ready to drive economic growth. Policies need to support the reproductive roles of women and men and ensure unpaid care work is seen as valuable. Providing care alternatives and getting a maximum of women and men into decent jobs is fundamental to reaping the demographic dividend.

Labour force policies are designed to create work and income earning potential in response to a growing or evolving labour force. This includes increasing **LFPR** (indicator 25), especially of women and reducing **unemployment rates** (indicator 26) and underemployment, particularly among youth. Comprehensive work and education policies should keep unemployment low, particularly among young people and women, who may miss out on opportunities in societies that value adult men as the main breadwinners. Social protection policies that provide an income for people hit by economic hardship are also needed as are initiatives that take into account **for the volume of remittances** (indicator 30) and maximize the benefits derived from them.

The quality of employment is a further key policy area, with regulations, incentives and disincentives needed to foster decent work conditions. Status in employment is a key indicator, with the proportion of women and men engaged as contributing family workers (unpaid in a family business) providing a measure that can highlight gender gaps or groups vulnerable to being left behind. Policies that support private sector growth and increasing formal and informal paid jobs will augment opportunities for a growing working population.



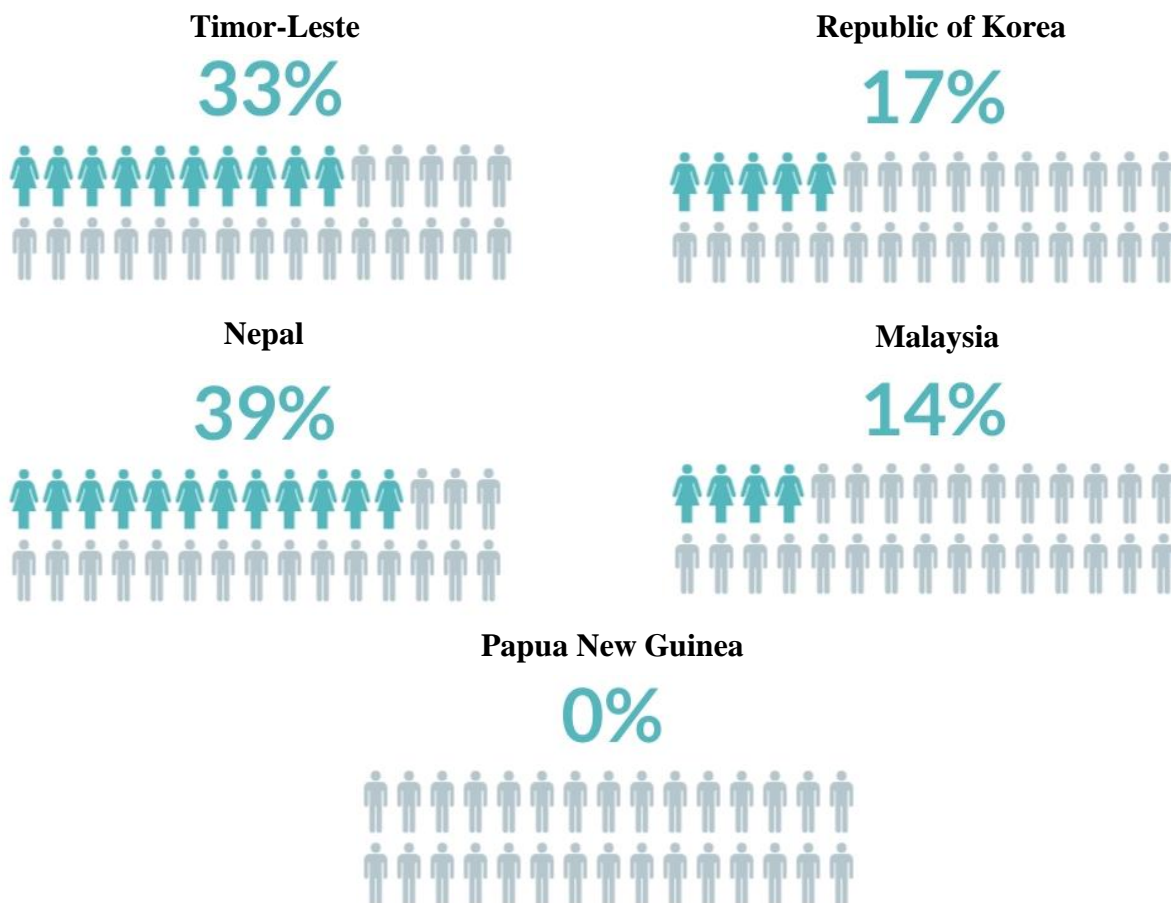
Governance and decision-making

Harnessing the demographic dividend requires investments in good governance, such as ensuring participatory, representative and inclusive political processes, as well as responsive state institutions. The enjoyment, protection and respect for fundamental civil, political and socioeconomic rights of young people, with particular attention to young women, is crucial in this context.

37. Proportion of seats held by women in (a) national parliaments and (b) local governments

In many countries, women have traditionally been isolated from decision-making positions in both public and private spheres. Endeavours to achieve equality in education and the labour market should thus be accompanied by sufficient representation in the political sphere that governs a country. Despite a common expectation that increased female rates of education and labour force participation translate to more female representation in decision-making positions, in both good practice countries, women remain heavily underrepresented in parliament and local government. In fact, two of the target countries (Nepal and Timor-Leste) have higher proportions of women in national parliaments than the two good practice countries (figure 18), indicating that culture and other factors also contribute to the levels of female representation in decision-making positions.

Figure 18: Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments, 2019



Sources: Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), 2019 and SDG Database (2019).

While the figure for Papua New Guinea is by far the lowest, in recent years there has been progress, with support of the United Nations Country Team, in building capacity among women to participate more actively in political spheres.⁴⁹

39. Proportion of women in managerial positions

In addition to political representation, as women's presence in managerial and decision-making positions increases, it sends a clear message that they are capable of transitioning from traditional roles and expectations of women in society to more progressive ones. Furthermore, rather than only contributing in the form of workers, the added value of the insight and skills of women in decision-making positions that were previously untapped will be of great value across all areas of the national economy. The proportion of women in managerial positions in Timor-Leste was 23.0 per cent (2015) compared to 18.8 percent (2008) in Nepal and 18.1 per cent (2010) in Papua New Guinea. Despite the noteworthy economic growth of the good practice countries, both the Republic of Korea and Malaysia also exhibited low figures with regard to this indicator, 12.3 per cent in 2017 and 20.4 per cent in 2016, respectively.⁵⁰

Policy implications and selected measures

Good governance is the foundation of sustainable development and equal representation in decision-making is a part of that. Gender equality policies should aim to increase the **proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments and local governments** (indicator 37), as well as the **proportion of women in managerial positions** (indicator 39). In most settings, women remain vastly underrepresented. Other groups are also lacking a voice in decision-making, such as persons with disabilities, older persons, and ethnic groups. Governance policies should seek to increase their agency and support civil society organizations to represent these groups.

Policies should encourage open and transparent public administration and empower people to understand and exercise their rights. Access to information is crucial and governments have a responsibility to protect privacy while encouraging freedom of speech and healthy public debate.

Harnessing the demographic dividend relies on cohesive policymaking across sectors. Population, health, education, employment and gender equality policies must complement each other, not be isolated in silos, to create an enabling environment for economic growth before, during and after the window of opportunity provided by a demographic dividend. This involves careful planning, quality data and effective monitoring systems, with accountability to develop, implement, evaluate and adapt policies to changing situations.

⁴⁹ See: <https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/2019-Annual-Progress-Report-UN-in-PNG.pdf>

⁵⁰ SDG Database, 2020. Available at: <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>

IV. Data driven policies and decision-making

Data and statistical information underpin monitoring and analysing opportunities and gaps in the five pillars of the demographic dividend. Accessing, understanding and interpreting statistics is often a challenge for non-statisticians. Investment in data analysis and communication is limited, particularly in developing and under-resourced countries, and data are often presented with little explanation or guidance on how to use it effectively.

This section presents what is behind the production of the indicators presented above. It aims to help readers understand the strengths and limitations of data and encourage them to develop their data literacy and make more use of statistics in designing policies and making decisions.

Where do statistical data come from?

Official statistics are those produced or endorsed by government. Countries may have a central national statistical office that does much of the work in producing official statistics, or a highly devolved system, such as in the United States, with data production being the responsibility of sectoral level departments and ministries. No matter what the structure, official statistics are typically produced by a wide range of government institutions through one of three primary sources: censuses, sample surveys and/or administrative records. The three types of sources are described in table 3. Definitions are adapted from the Statistical Data and Metadata Exchange (SDMX) 2009. Metadata Common Vocabulary is a common standard adopted by United Nations and development partner agencies for describing elements of statistical production.

Table 3. Sources of data and related descriptions

Source	Description
Censuses	<p>A survey conducted on the full set of observation objects belonging to a given population or universe. A census is the complete enumeration of a population or groups at a point in time with respect to well defined characteristics.</p> <p>Commonly conducted national censuses include the population and housing census, typically conducted every five or ten years to count all people and dwellings in a country. An agriculture census is also conducted by many countries in the region, being a survey of all agricultural holdings in a country.</p>
Sample surveys	<p>A survey which is carried out using a sampling method. In a sample survey only a portion, and not the whole population is surveyed.</p> <p>Based on a sub-set of the target population, sample surveys are more cost effective than a census but are limited in how far the results can remain representative. Surveys are good for high-level aggregates (national, urban, rural for example) and for exploring complex and sensitive topics. A survey could be of the general population (household survey), or registered businesses (establishment survey) or another target population.</p>
Administrative data	<p>The set of units and data derived from an administrative source. A set of administrative data can be referred to as an administrative register.</p>

Source	Description
	<p>Administrative sources are the organisational unit responsible for implementing an administrative regulation (or group of regulations), for which the corresponding register of units and the transactions are viewed as a source of statistical data. For example, the Ministry of Education will collect data on the education system and produce statistical indicators relevant to tracking education goals.</p> <p>Statistics can be produced from administrative data as a byproduct of the information gathered. This presents challenges and opportunities for statistics as the administrative processes are not primarily designed for producing data. Another example of an indicator from administrative data is the volume (amount) of remittances paid. This is typically derived from banking records about money flowing into and out of the country.</p>

Source: Statistical Data and Metadata Exchange (SDMX). 2009. Metadata Common Vocabulary. Available at: https://unstats.un.org/unsd/dnss/docs-nqaf/04_sdmx_cog_annex_4_mcv_2009.pdf

What is a statistical indicator?

An indicator is “a data element that represents statistical data for a specified time, place, and other characteristics, and is corrected for at least one dimension (usually size) to allow for meaningful comparisons”.⁵¹ There are hundreds of indicators that can be produced relevant to gender and the demographic dividend. Examples described above include:

- Total fertility rate (average number of children per woman)
- Life expectancy at birth
- Out-of-school rate for youth of upper secondary school age, by sex

What indicators do we need to prepare for a demographic dividend?

This Indicator Framework recommends a set of 39 indicators that can be used to monitor and report on harnessing the demographic dividend with a gender dimension for countries in Asia and the Pacific. They are all taken from existing monitoring frameworks that countries are reporting against and are frequently updated.

Of the 39 recommended indicators, 12 are SDG indicators,⁵² 9 are indicators regularly produced by the United Nations Population Division for the World Population Prospects,⁵³ and 14 are part of the United Nations Minimum Set of Gender Indicators.⁵⁴ Most are also part the Asia-Pacific indicator framework for monitoring progress towards the implementation of the Programme for Action of ICPD and the Asian and Pacific Ministerial Declaration on Population and Development.⁵⁵ Using commonly defined and internationally agreed indicators increases the chance that they are already produced and reduces the reporting burden for countries.

⁵¹ Statistical Data and Metadata Exchange (SDMX). 2009. Metadata Common Vocabulary. Available at: https://unstats.un.org/unsd/dnss/docs-nqaf/04_sdmx_cog_annex_4_mcv_2009.pdf

⁵² These are [Sustainable Development Goal Indicators](#) number 5.3.1, 3.1.1, 3.1.2, 5.2.1, 1.2.1, 8.5.2, 8.5.1, 8.10.2, 17.3.2, 16.2.2, 5.5.1 and 5.5.2.

⁵³ See: [United Nations Population Division World Population Prospects](#)

⁵⁴ See: [United Nations Statistics Division Minimum Set of Gender Indicators](#)

⁵⁵ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. Seventy-sixth session, Bangkok, 21 May 2020. Asia-Pacific indicator framework for monitoring progress towards the implementation of the Programme



Statistical indicators are recommended for monitoring and reporting on gender and the demographic dividend

Internationally agreed indicators of the 2030 Agenda have been classified as Tier I, Tier II and Tier III indicators.⁵⁶ This relates to whether statistical methods exist and how widely the indicators are being produced by countries following certain criteria:

- **Tier 1:** Indicator is conceptually clear, has an internationally established methodology, standards are available, and data are regularly produced by countries for at least 50 per cent of countries and of the population in every region where the indicator is relevant.
- **Tier 2:** Indicator is conceptually clear, has an internationally established methodology and standards are available, but data are not regularly produced by countries.
- **Tier 3:** No internationally established methodology or standards are yet available for the indicator, but methodology/standards are being (or will be) developed or tested.

As shown in Table 4, data to produce the 39 indicators in this set are primarily sourced from sample surveys (39 per cent), population and housing censuses (37 per cent), and from administrative sources (24 per cent). This reflects the typical or likely primary source for the data; however, some indicators can be produced from multiple sources.

Table 4. Overview of data sources for gender and demographic dividend indicators

Data sources	Number of indicators from this source	Percentage of indicators from this source
Censuses		
Population and Housing Census (PHC)	14	37
Surveys	15	39
Labour Force Survey (LFS) ⁵⁷ - a household survey that asks adults and sometimes children about what they do in order to classify them as employed, unemployed or outside the labour force. The LFS is a rich source of data on paid employment, occupations, industries and other aspects relevant to the world of work.	8	21

of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and of the commitments contained in the Asian and Pacific Ministerial Declaration on Population and Development: Note by the secretariat (ESCAP/76/10). Available at: https://www.unescap.org/commission/76/document/E76_10E.pdf

⁵⁶ United Nations Statistics Division. Available at: <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/iaeg-sdgs/tier-classification/>

⁵⁷ Where there is no Labour Force Survey, as in Papua New Guinea, the data could be produced from the Population and Housing Census.

Data sources		
Type of collection	Number of indicators from this source	Percentage of indicators from this source
Household Income and Expenditure Survey (HIES) ⁵⁸ – also known as a Household Budget Survey, this collection gathers data on incomes, goods (e.g. food, homewares) generated for own use and what households spend money on. These surveys provide the basis for estimating GDP, poverty levels, amongst other key indicators.	1	3
Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey / Demographic and Health Survey – these household surveys gather detailed data primarily from women and children, but also men, on many different aspects of health, including reproductive and sexual health, children’s nutrition and health.	5	13
Violence against Women Survey – a carefully conducted household survey to gather data on women’s experiences with violence both within and outside the home.	1	3
Administrative sources	9	24

Guidance to produce statistical indicators

To be of value for policymaking, statistical indicators need to be produced consistently and coherently over time. Following the same approach in each country allows comparison as well as increasing the quality of data for national monitoring. Producing statistics in a standard way, in line with international recommendations, is one of the Fundamental Principles of Official Statistics, which guides the production of statistics across the world.⁵⁹

The consistent production of statistics requires *metadata* that describes why the indicator is important, from where the data are sourced, what calculations need to be done and any guidance to help understand the strengths and limitations of that indicator. Examples of metadata for one key indicator under each of the pillars is provided as examples in tables 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9. To keep this Indicator Framework short, a full set of metadata for each of the 39 indicators is provided in a separate Annex. A glossary of statistical terms such as numerator, denominator, rate, ratio, etc. is provided in Annex II.

Table 5: Metadata for Pillar 1: Demography

Relevant framework	SDG Indicator 3.7.2
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⁵⁸ Timor-Leste last conducted a HIES in 2011 and a Living Standard Survey in 2014 that collects similar data; Nepal conducts an Annual Household Survey that collects income and expenditure data.

⁵⁹ United Nations. 2013. Fundamental Principles of Official Statistics. Available at: <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/dnss/gp/fundprinciples.aspx>

<i>Custodian Agency (Global)</i>	Population Division, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA) United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA).
<i>Definition</i>	Annual number of births to females aged 15-19 years per 1,000 females in the respective age group.
<i>Rationale for use</i>	<p>Reducing adolescent fertility and addressing the multiple factors underlying it are essential for improving sexual and reproductive health and the social and economic well-being of adolescents. There is substantial agreement in the literature that women who become pregnant and give birth very early in their reproductive lives are subject to higher risks of complications or death during pregnancy and birth than their peers, and their children are also at greater risk of morbidity and death than children born to older women. Therefore, preventing births very early in a woman's life is an important measure to improve maternal health and reduce infant mortality.</p> <p>Furthermore, having children at an early age curtails a woman's opportunities for socio-economic improvement, particularly because young mothers are less likely to keep on studying and, if she needs to work, may find it especially difficult to combine family and work responsibilities. The adolescent birth rate also provides indirect evidence of young people's access to health services since youth, in particular unmarried adolescent women, often experience difficulties in access to sexual and reproductive health services.</p>
<i>Method of computation</i>	<p>The adolescent birth rate is computed as a ratio. The numerator is the number of live births to women aged 15-19 years, and the denominator is the estimate of the exposure to childbearing by women aged 15-19 years. The computation can also be produced for the age group 10-14 years if those data are available. The numerator and the denominator are calculated differently for civil registration, survey and census data.</p> <p>In the case of civil registration data, the numerator is the registered number of live births born to women aged 15-19 years during a given year, and the denominator is the estimated or enumerated population of women aged 15-19 years.</p> <p>In the case of survey data, the numerator is the number of live births obtained from retrospective birth histories of the interviewed women who were 15-19 years of age at the time of the births during a reference period before the interview, and the denominator is person-years lived between the ages of 15 and 19 years by the interviewed women during the same reference period. The reported observation year corresponds to the middle of the reference period. For some surveys without data on retrospective birth histories, computation of the adolescent birth rate is based on the date of last birth or the number of births in the 12 months preceding the survey.</p>

	<p>With census data, the adolescent birth rate is computed on the basis of the date of last birth or the number of births in the 12 months preceding the enumeration. The census provides both the numerator and the denominator for the rates. In some cases, the rates based on censuses are adjusted for under-registration based on indirect methods of estimation. For some countries with no other reliable data, the ‘own-children’ method of indirect estimation provides estimates of the adolescent birth rate for a number of years before the census.</p> <p>For a thorough explanation of the different methods of computation, see Handbook on the Collection of Fertility and Mortality Data, United Nations Publication, Sales No. E.03.XVII.11 (publicly accessible at http://unstats.un.org/unsd/publication/SeriesF/SeriesF_92E.pdf). Indirect methods of estimation are analyzed in Manual X: Indirect Techniques for Demographic Estimation, United Nations Publication (http://www.un.org/esa/population/publications/Manual_X/Manual_X.htm).</p>
Data sources	<p>Civil registration, if sufficiently complete and otherwise reliable, is the preferred data source. Census and household survey are alternate sources when there is no reliable civil registration. Data on births by age of mother are obtained from civil registration systems covering 90 per cent or more of all live births, supplemented eventually by census or survey estimates for periods when registration data are not available.</p> <p>For the numerator, the figures reported by National Statistical Offices to the United Nations Statistics Division have first priority. When they are not available or present problems, use is made of data from statistical entities of intergovernmental organizations at the regional and sub-regional levels or directly from National Statistical Offices.</p> <p>For the denominator, first priority is given to the latest revision of World Population Prospects (WPP) produced by the Population Division, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations. In cases where the numerator does not cover the complete de facto population, an alternative appropriate population estimate is used, if available. When either the numerator or denominator is missing, the direct estimate of the rate produced by the National Statistics Office is used. Information on sources is provided at the cell level. When the numerator and denominator come from two different sources, they are listed in that order.</p> <p>In countries lacking a civil registration system or where the coverage of that system is lower than 90 per cent of all live births, the adolescent birth rate is obtained from household survey data and census data. Registration data regarded as less than 90 per cent complete are exceptionally used for countries where the alternative sources present problems of compatibility</p>

	<p>and registration data can provide an assessment of trends. In countries with multiple survey programmes, large sample surveys conducted on an annual or biennial basis are given precedence over registration systems with coverage of less than 90 per cent.</p> <p>For information on the source of each estimate, see United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2017). World Fertility Data 2017 (POP/DB/Fert/Rev2017), publicly accessible online.</p>
Disaggregation	Age, education, number of living children, marital status, socioeconomic status, geographic location and other categories, depending on the data source and number of observations.

Table 6: Pillar 2: Health and well-being

Indicator 15	Contraceptive prevalence rate (%)
Source framework	United Nations Population Division World Contraceptive Use Report
Custodian Agency (Global)	United Nations Population Division
Definition	Contraceptive prevalence is the proportion of women who are currently using, or whose sexual partner is currently using, at least one method of contraception, regardless of the method being used. It is reported as a percentage with reference to women of respective marital status and age group.
Rationale for use	
Method of computation	<p>Contraceptive prevalence =</p> $\frac{\text{Number of women of respective marital status and age group who are currently using a method of contraception}}{\text{Number of women of respective marital status and age group}}$ <p>For analytical purposes, contraceptive methods are often classified as either modern or traditional. Modern methods of contraception include female and male sterilization, the intra-uterine device (IUD), the implant, injectables, oral contraceptive pills, male and female condoms, vaginal barrier methods (including the diaphragm, cervical cap and spermicidal foam, jelly, cream and sponge), the lactational amenorrhea method (LAM), emergency contraception and other modern methods not reported separately (e.g., the contraceptive patch or vaginal ring).</p> <p>Traditional methods of contraception include rhythm (e.g., fertility awareness-based methods, periodic abstinence), withdrawal and other traditional methods not reported separately.</p>

	Among women who are married/in-union, this data set presents levels of contraceptive prevalence for individual methods, any modern method, any traditional method, and any method (modern or traditional). In some cases, data for specific methods are not available, and the corresponding missing values are designated in the database by two dots (..). Notes on data in “Contraceptive use: residuals” indicate if the method is included in the respective residual category.
Data sources	The indicators presented in World Contraceptive Use 2019 have been estimated using data from nationally-representative household surveys. Much of the information was obtained from multi-country survey programmes that routinely collect the necessary data, including the Contraceptive Prevalence Surveys (CPS), the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS), the Fertility and Family Surveys (FFS), the Gender and Generations Survey (GGS), the Reproductive Health Surveys (RHS), the Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS), the Performance Monitoring and Accountability 2020 surveys (PMA), and the World Fertility Surveys (WFS). Additional information was provided by other international survey programmes and national surveys.
Disaggregation	Urban and rural areas.

Table 7: Metadata for Pillar 3: Education

Indicator 16	Proportion of population in a given age group achieving at least a fixed level of proficiency in functional (a) literacy and (b) numeracy skills, by sex
Source framework	SDG Indicator 4.6.1
Custodian Agency (Global)	UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UNESCO-UIS)
Definition	The proportion of youth (aged 15-24 years) and of adults (aged 15 years and above) have achieved or exceeded a given level of proficiency in (a) literacy and (b) numeracy. The minimum proficiency level will be measured relative to new common literacy and numeracy scales currently in development.
Rationale for use	The indicator is a direct measure of the skill levels of youth and adults in the two areas: literacy and numeracy. There is only one threshold that divides youth and adults into above and below minimum level:

	<p>(a) Below minimum level is the proportion of youth and adults who do not achieve the minimum standard as set-up by countries according to the globally defined minimum competencies.</p> <p>(b) Above minimum level is the proportion of youth and adults who have achieved the minimum standard. Due to heterogeneity of performance levels set by national and cross-national assessments, these performance levels will have to be mapped to the globally defined basic and proficiency levels. Once the performance levels are mapped, the global education community will be able to identify for each country the proportion of youth and adults above and below minimum level.</p>
Method of computation	<p>Proportion of youth and adults who have achieved above the minimum threshold of proficiency as defined for large-scale (sample representative) adult literacy assessment:</p> <p>Performance achieve above minimum level, $PL_{t,a,s,above\ minimum} = p$.</p> <p>where p is the proportion of youth and adults at a national or cross-national adult literacy assessment at age group a, in learning domain s in any year (t-i) where $0 \leq i \leq 5$, who has achieved above the minimum level of proficiency.</p>
Data sources	<p>This indicator is collected via skills' assessment surveys of the adult population (e.g., PIAAC, STEP, LAMP, RAMAA) and national adult literacy surveys.</p>
Disaggregation	<p>By age-group, sex, location, income and type of skill. Disability status is not currently available in most national and cross-national learning assessments.</p>

Table 8: Metadata for Pillar 4: Economic structures and participation in productive activities

	Unemployment rate, by sex, age and persons with disabilities
Source framework	SDG Indicator 8.5.2
Custodian Agency (Global)	International Labour Organization (ILO)

Definition	The unemployment rate conveys the percentage of persons in the labour force who are unemployed.
Rationale for use	The unemployment rate is a useful measure of the underutilization of the labour supply. It reflects the inability of an economy to generate employment for those persons who want to work but are not doing so, even though they are available for employment and actively seeking work. It is thus seen as an indicator of the efficiency and effectiveness of an economy to absorb its labour force and of the performance of the labour market. Short-term time series of the unemployment rate can be used to signal changes in the business cycle; upward movements in the indicator often coincide with recessionary periods or in some cases with the beginning of an expansionary period as persons previously not in the labour market begin to test conditions through an active job search.
Method of computation	Unemployment rate = $\frac{\text{Total unemployment}}{\text{Total labour force}} \times 100$
Data sources	<p>The preferred official national data source for this indicator is a household-based labour force survey.</p> <p>In the absence of a labour force survey, a population census and/or other type of household surveys with an appropriate employment module may also be used to obtain the required data.</p> <p>It is important to note that unemployment data derived from employment office records or unemployment registers would not refer to unemployment (as defined for the purposes of this indicator, using the three-criteria of being without a job, seeking employment and available for employment) but to registered unemployment, and thus, it would not be comparable with indicator 8.5.2.</p>
Disaggregation	This indicator should, ideally, be disaggregated by sex, age group and disability status.

Table 9: Metadata for Pillar 5: Governance and decision making

Indicator 37	Proportion of seats held by women in (a) national parliaments and (b) local governments
Source framework	SDG Indicator 5.5.1
Custodian Agency (Global)	Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) for part (a) UN-Women for part (b)
Definition	<p>The proportion of seats held by women in (a) national parliaments, currently as at 1 February of reporting year, is currently measured as the number of seats held by women members in single or lower chambers of national parliaments, expressed as a percentage of all occupied seats.</p> <p>National parliaments can be bicameral or unicameral. This indicator covers the single chamber in unicameral parliaments and the lower chamber in bicameral parliaments. It does not cover the upper chamber of bicameral parliaments. Seats are usually won by members in general parliamentary elections. Seats may also be filled by nomination, appointment, indirect election, rotation of members and by-election.</p> <p>Seats refer to the number of parliamentary mandates, or the number of members of parliament.</p> <p>Part (b) measures the proportion of positions held by women in local government.</p> <p>It is expressed as a percentage of elected positions held by women in legislative/ deliberative bodies of local government.</p>
Rationale for use	<p>(a) National parliament. The indicator measures the degree to which women have equal access to parliamentary decision making. Women’s participation in parliaments is a key aspect of women’s opportunities in political and public life, and is therefore linked to women’s empowerment. Equal numbers of women and men in lower chambers would give an indicator value of 50 per cent.</p> <p>A stronger presence of women in parliament allows new concerns to be highlighted on political agendas, and new priorities to be put into practice through the adoption and implementation of policies and laws. The inclusion of the perspectives and interests of women is a prerequisite for democracy and gender equality, and contributes to good governance. A representative parliament also allows the different</p>

	<p>experiences of men and women to affect the social, political and economic future of societies.</p> <p>Changes in the indicator have been tracked over time. Although the international community has supported and promoted women’s participation in political decision-making structures for several decades, improvement in women’s access to parliament has been slow. This has led to the introduction of special policy measures to increase women’s shares of parliamentary seats in several countries. Those countries that have adopted special measures generally have greater representation of women in parliament than countries without special measures.</p> <p>(b) Local government. Women’s and men’s right to exercise their political rights on an equal basis, and at all levels of decision-making, is recognized in the SDGs and enshrined in many human and political rights declarations, conventions and resolutions agreed to by most countries in the world. Indicator 5.5.1(b) measures the degree to which gender balance has been achieved in, and women have equal access to, political decision-making in local government.</p> <p>Indicator 5.5.1(b) complements Indicator 5.5.1(a) on women in national parliaments, and accounts for the representation of women among the millions of members of local governments that influence (or have the potential to influence) the lives of local communities around the world. All tiers of local government are covered by the indicator, consistent with national legal frameworks defining local government.</p>
<p>Method of computation</p>	<p>Part (a): The proportion of seats held by women in national parliament is derived by dividing the total number of seats occupied by women by the total number of seats in parliament.</p> <p>There is no weighting or normalizing of statistics.</p> <p>Part (b): The method of computation is as follows:</p> $(b) = \frac{(Number\ of\ seats\ held\ by\ women) \times 100}{Total\ number\ of\ seats\ held\ by\ women\ and\ men}$
<p>Data sources</p>	<p>Part (a): The data used are official statistics received from parliaments.</p> <p><u>Part (b): Administrative data based on electoral records</u> are the main source of data on elected members of local government, and the recommended data source for Indicator 5.5.1(b). Electoral records are</p>

	<p>produced and upheld by Electoral Management Bodies (EMBs) or equivalent bodies tasked with organizing elections at local level. EMBs are part of the National Statistical System, and often specifically mentioned in the national statistics acts as producers of official statistics.</p> <p>The use of electoral records to measure women’s representation in local government and monitoring of Indicator 5.5.1(b) is cost-effective, straightforward and timely. No adjustments or estimates are necessary to transform the administrative information into statistics for monitoring the indicator. The conceptual framework at the basis of Indicator 5.5.1(b) is consistent with the conceptual framework at the basis of local elections, as both are provided by national legal framework. The data used to calculate Indicator 5.5.1(b) refer to information on election winners, disaggregated by sex, and the coverage of the reference population (in this case, the elected officials) should be complete. In countries where the electoral records are electronic and centralized, information on numbers of women and men in elected positions can be made available as soon as the official results of elections are released.</p> <p><u>Two other types of sources of data</u> may be used in the few instances where electoral records are not electronic or not centralized. One additional type of source is also administrative, and refers to public administration data available to line ministries overseeing local government. However, its use for statistics may be less straightforward compared to centralized electoral records. The scope of public administration records is beyond the elected positions, and information on women and men in elected positions of local government may be mixed with information on public administration employees, which are not covered by this indicator.</p> <p>Therefore, additional data processing and resources may be required to carefully extract the information needed. In some cases, the forms used as the basis for administrative records may need to be modified to ensure recording of the positions as being elected, in legislative/deliberative bodies, as well as the sex of persons in those positions. In other cases, some elected positions may not be covered in the records maintained, for example, if the administrative records are restricted to only those positions that are on the government payroll.</p> <p>Another type of data source that may provide information on women and men in local government in the absence of centralized electronic election records, refers to existing surveys or censuses using local government units as units of observation. These surveys or censuses may be undertaken by National Statistical Offices and/or line</p>
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	<p>ministries and may take the form of (a) local government censuses or surveys; (b) establishment survey; and (c) municipality surveys. These surveys/census may already include, in the data collection tool dedicated to their main purpose, a few questions on the number of members of local legislative/deliberative and executive bodies by sex and other individual characteristics such as age and education; or may require the integration of such questions.</p> <p>Similar to other censuses and surveys, a low response rate can result in bias of the statistics obtained. Sampling errors may also add to the bias, in ways that cannot be assessed in the absence of a good understanding of distribution of women’s and men’s representation across different local government units across the territory of a country.</p>
Disaggregation	<p>The indicator can be disaggregated for analysis by geographical region and sub-region, legislature type (single or lower, parliamentary or presidential), the method of filling seats (directly elected, indirectly elected, appointed) and the use of special measures.</p> <p>Data on elected positions in legislative/deliberative bodies of local government have to be disaggregated by sex to enable the calculation of the indicator. No additional disaggregation is required for SDG reporting.</p>

V. Key issues of implementation and good practices





A sound grasp of implementation parameters and lessons from good practices and resources is required to effectively use the indicators of this Indicator Framework.


A. Overarching implementation

Effective Implementation of policies and programmes to harness the demographic dividend and attain greater gender equality depends on well-executed processes, appropriate personnel and partnerships, adequate resources, and facilitatory socio-political and legal environments. Below, these aspects are broken down to help policymakers and other stakeholders involved in implementation.

Steps to follow

Each country and society have unique characteristics. Yet lessons can be learnt from existing experience and below are the main actions needed to harness the demographic dividend and attain gender equality:

	<p>Assessing the challenges related to demographic change and analysing different scenarios.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This implies effectively using the various indicators under each other the five dimensions covered in this Indicator Framework.
	<p>Developing, compiling, analysing and disseminating up-to-date evidence through building capacity in data collection and analysis and having easily accessible information.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Indicator Framework’s dashboard exemplifies this and having material online can increase accessibility. However, affordable internet connectivity is a requirement for making this information available to a wider audience.
	<p>Raising awareness among all government entities on evidence and developing coordinated policies; using good practices for broader perspectives on what works.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Health and education are examples where means support the end; healthier, more educated people are more aware and able to act for positive change.
	<p>Engaging all stakeholders, especially communities, for consultations and feedback, with a clear presentation of evidence, the challenges and ideas in addressing these.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This implies capitalizing on demographic change and ensuring gender equality requires broad participation, and often tailoring interventions to meet specific community needs.

	<p>Policy and programme implementation and continuous, appraisal, review and scope to adjust for improvements.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Socioeconomic and behavioural parameters change over time and space, including attitudes to childbearing and work. Policies should be dynamic and responsive to change.
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Main stakeholders and relevant partnerships

The key to success in harnessing the demographic dividend with a gender dimension is engaging diverse stakeholders and drawing upon the strength of each in a complementary manner.

Government: Policies, overall coordination and ensuring goods and services provided are accessible and affordable to all; legal aspects need to be clearly and consistently applied.

Civil society: Advocacy, outreach and meaningful engagement, especially at the community level and with a focus on sensitive issues such as sexual and reproductive health, HIV and AIDS.

Pivate sector: investment and innovation, research and development, supply and distribution of efficiently produced goods and services.

Donors and international organizations: Know-how and expertise, funding to support equitable and sustainable development.

Academia: Research and analysis to better understand psychosocial dynamics and economic parameters influencing behaviour across various domains.

Media: Awareness raising and norm changing, especially in terms of initiatives such as family planning, and attitudes to gender and labour force participation.

Costing and funding

World Bank research shows that human capital (the aggregated health, skills and knowledge of a society) constitutes the greatest driving force for national economic growth and stability. However, wealth attributed to human capital varies greatly: for high-income countries it is 70 per cent, while for low- and lower-middle income countries it is just above 40 per cent

This indicates the urgent need to investment in human capital since this potential is vastly untapped.⁶⁰ Yet with limited budgets and competing demands, policymakers must consider all

⁶⁰ Lange, Glenn-Marie; Wodon, Quentin; Carey, Kevin. 2018. The Changing Wealth of Nations 2018: Building a Sustainable Future. Washington, DC: World Bank. Available at: <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/29001>

financial implications of investing in specific programmes and interventions. Money spent on health and education, in particular for youth, though with significant lags on impact and ultimate outcome, give some of the highest socioeconomic returns. An evaluation of 62 low- and middle-income countries over 1985–2007: reducing child deaths by 4.25 per 1,000 children born to mothers with low levels of education was associated with an almost 8 per cent increase in GDP per capita 10 years later.⁶¹

Investing in health by using a life-course approach and empowering citizens contributes to specific targets within the SDGs. Conversely, unhealthy lifestyles have significant health and well-being costs; each year tobacco effects cost the global economy \$500 billion, while alcohol misuse costs society 1–3 per cent of GDP.⁶²

From the latest data (2016), Timor-Leste has the second highest prevalence of tobacco use in the Asia-Pacific region, at 42 per cent. In Papua New Guinea, the figure is 36 per cent (though down from 61 per cent in 2000). These figures are around double the ESCAP aggregate of 21 per cent and indicate much scope for improvement.⁶³

Research using estimates from 139 countries shows that, from the 1950s until around 2015, the private annual average global rate of return to one extra year of schooling is 9 per cent. Social returns also remain high, being over 10 per cent at secondary and higher education levels. Average rates of return for women continue to be higher than for men, indicating that the education of women and girls should be prioritized.⁶⁴

Poverty, health, education and employment are a nexus of development imperatives. Investing in poverty eradication per se may not greatly reduce inequality but can better the lives of billions, often at costs below expectations, especially considering the vast wealth of many individuals across Asia and the Pacific. Recent data from ... show that the cost of closing the poverty (at USD1.9 per day) gap as a percentage of GDP in most lower-income countries is well below 1 per cent. It is 0.35, 0.42 and 0.54 per cent in Myanmar, India and Nepal, respectively. The highest rates are actually in Papua New Guinea and Timor-Leste (2.88 and 2.77 per cent, respectively),⁶⁵ yet these countries are far better endorsed with resources than many other countries.

The rise in public investment in people has lagged GDP growth. Of the 26 Asia-Pacific countries featured in an ESCAP study, none had reached the world average of 20.1 per cent expenditure of GDP on education, health and social protection (figure 19).⁶⁶ Notably, Papua New Guinea and Timor-Leste spend high proportions on education. There is still room for improvement, including

⁶¹ Grimm, M., 2010. Does inequality in health impede growth? ISS Working Papers, General Series 501, International Institute of Social Studies of Erasmus University (ISS), The Hague.

⁶² Ibid.

⁶³ ESCAP Online Statistical database.

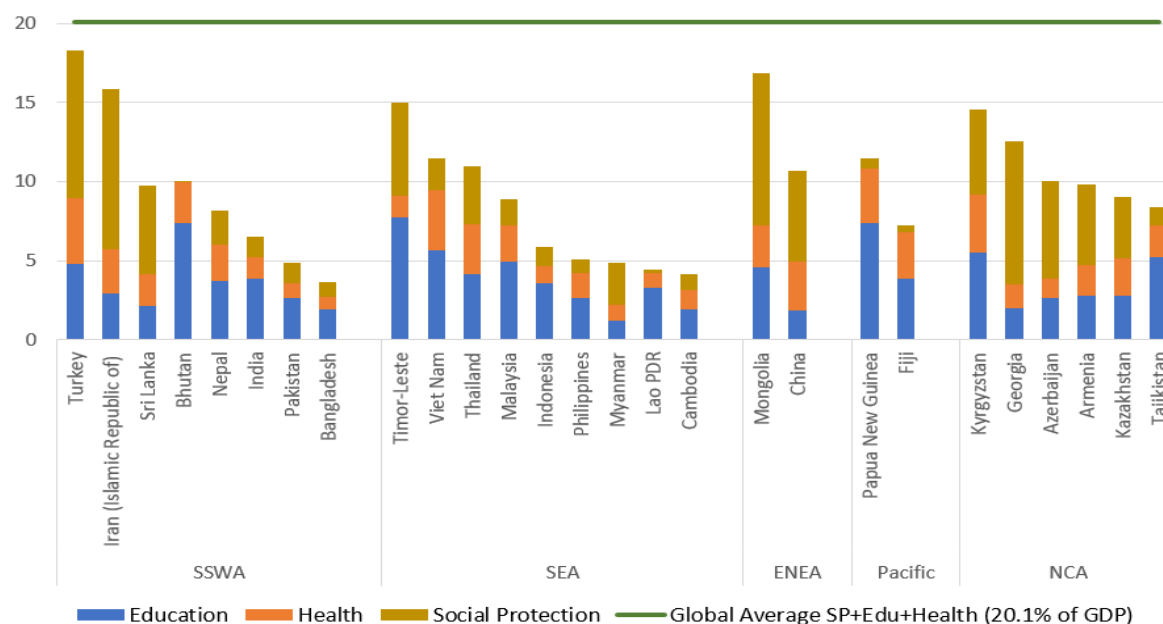
⁶⁴ Psacharopoulos, George; Patrinos, Harry Anthony. 2018. *Returns to investment in education: a decennial review of the global literature (English)*. Policy Research working paper; no. WPS 8402. Washington, D.C.: World Bank Group. Available at: <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/442521523465644318/Returns-to-investment-in-education-a-decennial-review-of-the-global-literature>

⁶⁵ ESCAP, Social Outlook for Asia and the Pacific: Poorly Protected (2019). ESCAP, Bangkok.

⁶⁶ Ibid.

not only the increase in monetary contributions but also enhancing the overall quality of education provided.

Figure 19. Percentage of GDP investment in education, health and social protection, selected Asia-Pacific countries, latest year



Source: ESCAP calculations based on UNESCO, World Bank and ILO.

The ESCAP Social Protection Toolbox,⁶⁷ the Social Protection Simulation Tool⁶⁸ and related capacity development resources provide useful information on how to benefit from good practices and gain access to tools that support effective decision making.

As indicated earlier, there is much scope for governments to increase funding on social protection, especially since most countries in the Asia-Pacific region spend less than one fifth of total government expenditures on this.⁶⁹ Finding the fiscal space to fund public health and education programmes and be in a better position to harness the demographic dividend and achieve gender equality is also a matter of political will rather than resource availability.

Government tax revenues are low in many countries in Asia and the Pacific. In 2015, the regional average was 19.6 per cent of GDP, compared to the OECD average of 34.0 per cent. To broaden the tax base, it is important to move away from informal (limited tax revenue) to more formal jobs. Other possibilities to increase revenue for social spending include:⁷⁰

- Reallocating public expenditures to replace high-cost, low-impact investments (e.g. fuel subsidies), with those that generate larger socioeconomic impact

⁶⁷ See: <https://www.socialprotection-toolbox.org/>

⁶⁸ See: https://devpathways.shinyapps.io/escap_tool_p2/?page=tool

⁶⁹ ESCAP (2019). How to Finance Inclusive Social Protection. ESCAP, Bangkok.

⁷⁰ For further information, see *ibid.*

- Tackling illicit financial flows
- Tapping into fiscal and central bank foreign exchange reserves
- Borrowing or restructuring debt
- Adopting inclusive macroeconomic frameworks
- Developing effective public-private partnerships

At the micro level, access to credit is a critical aspect of any entrepreneurial venture. This applies especially to young women and men. Disparities often cut across wealth and gender lines. In 2017, only around 10 per cent of adults from the poorest quintile in Indonesia had a formal bank account, compared to about 60 per cent of those from the richest quintile. In India, the respective figures were around 46 and 79 per cent, while there is a fourfold difference when considering use of mobile transactions. As for gender differences, when access to financial services is examined in South Asia, in 2017 around 30 per cent of women had a bank account, compared to almost 45 per cent of men.⁷¹

Governance and legislation

Governance, in the context of effective decision-making and implementation is critical in translating political will into action in a sustainable and inclusive manner, with the maximum benefit to society as a whole. This includes eliminating spending inefficiencies and tackling corruption in order to have more efficient and equitable resource allocation that generates greater socioeconomic impact (figure 20).

Figure 20: The eight dimensions of good governance



Source: ESCAP. What is Good Governance?

Available at: <https://www.unescap.org/sites/default/files/good-governance.pdf>

⁷¹ Sarwat Jahan et al. (2019). The Financial Inclusion Landscape in the Asia-Pacific Region: A Dozen Key Findings. IMF Working Paper.

International instruments, such as United Nations resolutions on the rights of children, youth, women, persons with disabilities and other groups can provide guidance on supporting the interests of these groups and more effectively tapping into their potential in the context of harnessing the demographic dividend with a gender dimension. Moreover, capacity building projects, including many carried out by ESCAP, are important for translating international instruments into actionable policies on the ground. The Regional Economic Commissions, in close collaboration with their regional and national partners, promote multilateral dialogue, knowledge sharing and networking at the regional level, and work together to promote intra-regional and inter-regional cooperation, both among themselves and through collaboration with other regional organizations. With the United Nations Country Teams they support governments to formulate policies and programmes in line with international and regional instruments. Examples of these include capacity development by ESCAP to support Lao PDR and Cook Islands to formulate their ageing policies and to support Cambodia, Bangladesh, Nepal, Samoa, Vanuatu and Viet Nam in realizing more inclusive and equitable societies that protect, empower and leave no one behind in the area of women's economic empowerment.

B. Good practices and resources to harness the demographic dividend

Countries across Asia and the Pacific can benefit from the experiences of other countries in the region as well as beyond in terms of reaping the demographic dividend and attaining a greater degree of gender equality. Good practices show the value of having evidence and indicators to monitor and measure progress and guide future policymaking. The sharing of lessons learned is helpful since diversity of experience shows what does and does not work at different stages of development and given differing contexts and scenarios. As with other parts of this Indicator Framework, the following good practices are categorized under each of the four sectoral pillars of the demographic dividend, though preceded by good practices that are overarching from around the world. More generic or regional and subregional initiatives are first presented, then some from Asia-Pacific countries and finally from countries outside the region.

1. All domains



Asia-Pacific Youth Exchange

This initiative involves a series of youth exchange activities focusing on young people and SDG related engagement, and involving collaboration between ESCAP, UNDP and the Urban Youth Academy. Every six months around 200 youth from across the region participate in around ten days of capacity development at ESCAP as well as at the local community level across Thailand. The sharing of experiences and innovative ideas leads to benefits, including related to sustainable tourism in the communities and enhanced knowledge the youth take back to their respective countries.

<https://www.unescap.org/events/asia-pacific-forum-empower-youth-achieve-sdgs>



Pacific Youth Development Framework Partnership

This is a blueprint on how governments in the Pacific and other stakeholders can work together and with young people to enhance their potential. The framework covers how regional organisations, governments, community organizations, and society support young people in the Pacific (22 countries and territories) towards safe and healthy lives and sustainable environments, as active social and economic participants in their communities.

<https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/partnership/?p=7597>



First ASEAN Youth Development Index

This index stresses the need to develop a strong evidence base and use indicators as a foundation for formulating and evaluating policies and programmes on youth development. It covers four main domains, these being education, health and well-being, employment and opportunity, and participation and engagement.

https://asean.org/storage/2017/10/ASEAN-UNFPA_report_web-final-05sep.pdf



African Union Roadmap on Harnessing the Demographic Dividend through Investments in Youth

This highlights strategies to invest in the young people of the world's most youthful continent and move to a future with healthy, well educated people living in robust and developed economies. The roadmap has been developed bearing in mind the urgent necessity to transform the potential of Africa's large youth population into a demographic dividend, and help usher African countries towards the goals of the complementary Agenda 2063: The Africa We Want. and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

<https://wcaro.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/AU%202017%20DD%20ROADMAP%20Final%20-%20EN.pdf>



European Union Youth Strategy

This is the framework for EU youth policy cooperation for 2019–2027 and seeks to foster youth participation in democratic life, while supporting social and civic engagement. The Strategy aims to contribute to realizing the vision of young people set out in the 11 European Youth Goals identified by them and covering cross-sectoral areas that affect their lives as well as point out challenges they face.

https://ec.europa.eu/youth/policy/youth-strategy_en

2. Sectorial pillars

a. Health and well-being

Access to affordable, quality health care and a safe home environment is fundamental. The following are best practices from countries around the globe.



China's Health Care System

Between 1998 and 2007, several new insurance-based schemes were introduced to scale up access to health care. These schemes were designed to target both urban and rural residents through programming tailored in order to make health care more accessible to all Chinese. This builds on successes China has had in health outcomes such as significant reductions in infant mortality.

<http://www.socialprotection-toolbox.org/good-practices-map>



Indonesia's Legal Framework for Health Care

In 2002, the Indonesian Government took a series of important steps to address barriers to health care through amendments to the 1945 Constitution. As a consequence, the 1945 Constitution now recognizes the right to social security and the responsibility of the State to ensuring access to essential health care for all.

<http://www.socialprotection-toolbox.org/good-practices-map>



Sri Lanka's health system

A firm foundation of primary health care has led to a highly successful low-cost universal coverage model. Prudent planning has supported this and now addresses further demographic change. Future challenges that are being worked on include sustaining political commitment, an effective communication strategy, a tailored health workforce policy, performance monitoring and evaluation, coordination mechanisms, and changes in administrative and financial regulations.

<http://www.who-seajph.org/article.asp?issn=2224-3151;year=2019;volume=8;issue=1;spage=21;epage=25;auiast=Perera;type=3>



Thailand's Universal Health Coverage Scheme

This health coverage scheme was introduced in 2001 to close coverage gaps and ensure all Thais have access to effective and affordable health care. It operates through a network of 953 hospitals and 9,765 health centres across the whole country and is managed by the National Health Security Office and implemented by the Ministry of Public Health.

<https://www.socialprotection-toolbox.org/good-practices-map>



Rwanda's Universal Health Coverage

Starting in 1994, the Government of Rwanda started focusing on addressing the need to invest in public health, education and infrastructure. Successes include moving services closer to the population and increasing vaccination. As a result, the country has a 93 per cent vaccination coverage rate. Over 90 per cent of mothers give birth at a health facility; as a result, babies get vaccinated at the very beginning of their life course.

<https://www.afro.who.int/news/rwanda-beacon-universal-health-coverage-africa>



The Netherland's Youth Act (health care)

This was introduced in 2015 and covers support, assistance and care for young people and their families coping with parenting and developmental issues, psychological problems and disorders. The care ranges from general prevention to specialized voluntary or compulsory care. By shifting the responsibility for these various duties to local authorities, it has become easier now for integrated care to be provided young people.

https://na.eventscloud.com/file_uploads/0f57b7c2d0d94ff45769269d50876905_P4-HealthcareintheNetherlands.pdf



United States' teen pregnancy prevention

Teens need to receive comprehensive sexual and reproductive health counseling about the importance of delaying the initiation of sexual activity and about their contraceptive options. Regular health-care services make this possible, with health-care providers playing a fundamental role in supporting youth to make informed choices and this resource covers some of the key issues concerning how to reduce teenage pregnancy rates.

<https://www.cdc.gov/teenpregnancy/health-care-providers/index.htm>

b. Education

Investments in education early will result in building human capital that will positively affect development by, for example, encouraging young people to delay childbirth and enabling them to engage in the labour market. The following are best practices from countries around the globe.



The Philippines' Conditional Cash Transfer for Families

With a very sizable child and youth population, in 2008, the Government of the Philippines launched the Pantawid Pamilya Pilipino Program, or the 4Ps. This initiative works to alleviate the immediate needs of the poor and break the cycle of intergenerational poverty through investments in human capital targeting children.

<http://www.socialprotection-toolbox.org/good-practices-map>



Pakistan's increasing qualified teachers

The Punjab Department of School Education, as part of their reforms, has focused on hiring qualified teachers with master's degrees for public schools. Following recruitment, the teachers are comprehensively trained. Results have been very positive, with this initiative working to address teacher absenteeism, a general shortage of teachers in schools and low levels of learning achievement in public sector institutions.

<https://www.worldbank.org/en/news/feature/2018/12/13/qualified-teachers-become-integral-punjabs-public-school-system>



Sri Lanka's National Youth Corps

With 48 centres nationwide and students receiving a stipend to support their studies, this is the main public institution for the Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) of youth. Each year, the NYC 15,000 students, aged 18 to 28, are enrolled at biannual sessions that offer a variety of subjects, such as physical education, life management, English and information technology.

<http://yptoolbox.unescapsdd.org/portfolio/national-youth-corps-sri-lanka/>



Republic of Korea's investments in human capital

Education and related policies to reduce male-female inequalities across society were a vital component of harnessing the demographic dividend and promoting economic growth.

This helped the country both increase life expectancy at birth and reduce total fertility rate while rising the country's real gross domestic product per capita by 25 times over the period 1955–2017.

<https://www.unescap.org/resources/social-development-working-paper-demographic-change-republic-korea-policy-lessons-other>



Viet Nam's education system

Over the past 20 years, the country has achieved very positive results in terms of attendance, completion and student achievement. This has been made possible by a number of factors including commitment to education, public and private investments, and minimum quality standards for school facilities countrywide.

<https://asiasociety.org/global-cities-education-network/education-vietnam>



Mozambique's Neighbourhood Tutors Project

This tutors' project creates learning spaces for youth who have dropped out of school or never attended school in the first place but want to attend. It offers vocational skills training to improve employability, including self-employment. The initiative focuses on three main intervention areas: neighbourhood day-care, open school, and vegetable gardens in backyards.

<https://yptoolbox.unescapsdd.org/portfolio/neighbourhood-tutors-project-mozambique/>

c. Economic structures, participation in productive activities and access to resources

Includes work and social concerns such as levels of poverty, unpaid care work, and discrimination that impacts upon opportunities and quality of life. The following are examples of best practice from around the globe:



World Bank's designing youth employment programmes

This blog entry succinctly focuses on youth employment programmes and what makes them successful. The keys elements include having systems that allow managers and service providers to understand the constraints that individuals face to access jobs and the resources and incentives to address these constraints, and connecting programmes to interventions that expand job opportunities.

<https://blogs.worldbank.org/jobs/how-design-youth-employment-programs>



World Bank's enhancing youth employment programmes

Another blog entry, this considers maximizing the effectiveness of youth employment programmes, with an emphasis on context, effective design and delivery, and measuring impacts in the longer run. It also stresses the need to look at longer run impacts such as future benefits brought about by equipping youth with relevant skills that are consistent with the needs of the labour demand.

<https://blogs.worldbank.org/jobs/four-ways-maximize-effectiveness-youth-employment-programs>



Papua New Guinea's Urban Youth Employment Project

This project aims at providing disadvantaged urban youth aged 16–35 income from temporary employment opportunities with the goal of increasing their employability through life skills training and work experience. It offers young people five days of Basic Life Skills Training followed by work experience or short-term jobs in order to help participants earn an income and gain much-needed employment experience.

<http://yptoolbox.unescapsdd.org/portfolio/urban-youth-employment-project-papua-new-guinea/>



Lao PDR's Legal Framework for Persons with Disabilities

In 2014, the Government of Lao PDR took fundamental steps toward improved income security for persons with disabilities through the adoption of the Decree on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. This which outlines the rights of persons with disabilities in line with the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities.

<http://www.socialprotection-toolbox.org/good-practices-map>



Madagascar's GoTeach

This programme promotes education, empowerment, employability and entrepreneurship amongst vulnerable youth, with local employers introducing them to the world of work. The local employers also share practical work experiences, teach the youth about developing appropriate work ethics and other soft employability skills.

<https://yptoolbox.unescapsdd.org/portfolio/goteach-madagascar/>



Kuwait's LOYAC Internship Program

This mainly focuses on workshops and paid internships to raise youth employability through providing them with training, work experience and coaching in personal development. The paid internships are provided by participating companies, and volunteer work, while workshops cover personal development and all aspects of work readiness. The internships and volunteer work are closely supervised by LOYAC to ensure commitment from companies and the participating youth.

<https://yptoolbox.unescapsdd.org/portfolio/loyac-internship-program-kuwait/>

d. Governance and decision-making

Effective leadership with adequate representation of women, men and minority groups within society.



World Youth Alliance's Declaration on Good Governance

Here, young people from around the world call for rights and dignity to be respected, and society to be justly governed for the benefit of all, so that individuals, societies and the environment will flourish for collective well-being. They stress, among others, the need for the rule of law, transparency and accountability, as well as free expression and participation.

<https://www.wya.net/publications/declarations/good-governance/>



Timor-Leste's Youth Parliament

This was formed in October 2009, with young parliamentarians aged 12–17 representing their local areas for two years. They contribute to the national dialogue on issues concerning their region and receive training from UNICEF on topics such as children's right to education, protection and health. In addition, they receive briefing sessions from local government officials on issues affecting Timor Leste, such as education, the environment and employment.

<http://yptoolbox.unescapsdd.org/portfolio/1959/>



Sri Lanka's Youth Parliament

This platform allows youth to participate in leadership and innovation processes by networking with professionals to make a responsible, democratic, respectful and

accountable youth generation. The Parliament consists of 225 members, with 165 elected through an island wide democratic election campaign. The 65 other members are selected through a highly competitive interview process based on their academic, leadership and extracurricular qualifications and skills.

<http://yptoolbox.unescapsdd.org/portfolio/sri-lanka-youth-parliament-sri-lanka/>



Vanuatu's National Youth Council

This youth council allows the voice of Vanuatu's young people to be heard at all levels and arenas of national policy discussions and decision-making and promotes their active participation in development. It also works to coordinate and unify all youth groups and activities throughout the country to foster, support and develop youth programmes and financial schemes to assist in the enhancement, development and realization of the role and contribution of youth in the development process.

<https://vnyc.gov.vu/index.php/news-media>



Tunisia's Be Part of the Solution

This project aims at increasing awareness of political knowledge, civic participation and democratic values among youth, including media representatives and young artists. Beneficiaries aged 18-35 years, and the majority of whom are women, are trained in leadership skills, civic engagement and democratic values. They are then encouraged to implement their acquired skills and knowledge in their cities through advocacy work.

<https://yptoolbox.unescapsdd.org/portfolio/solution-tunisia/>



Côte d'Ivoire's technology to enhance governance

Youth have successfully used online means to encourage citizen participation in elections and raise awareness of and influence policy-making decisions; they have also increased transparency and integrity in elections. Using innovative means, such as crowdsourcing, work to has been carried out to promote good governance, including attaining greater transparency, in the policymaking process.

<https://yali.state.gov/yali-voices-how-can-we-inspire-young-people-to-use-technology-for-promoting-transparency-and-accountability-in-west-africa/>

VI. Recommended steps for implementing policies and programmes aimed at harnessing the demographic dividend

Establish and confirm political commitment to put change into effect, including allocation of sufficient resources, to formulate policies and programmes that effectively harness the demographic dividend with a gender dimension.	
Establish a multisectoral unit under the leadership of the National Statistics, Planning, Population or Health Agencies with a focal point to coordinate, monitor and report on progress regarding the demographic dividend	
Conduct national assessment – create a country profile – regarding the situation of the demographic dividend, including a gap analysis by collecting data on as many as 39 indicators on the demographic dividend (as demonstrated in this Indicator Framework).	
Develop national roadmap for harnessing the demographic dividend with a gender dimension.	
Review and use good practices that provide helpful lessons to design and improve interventions.	
Ensure Government capacity exists in the National Statistics, Planning, Population and Health Agencies to analyse and disseminate these data effectively to other entities including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ministry of Planning • Ministry of Finance • Ministry of Education • Ministry of Health • Ministry of Labour • Commissions/bodies on gender and youth 	
Ensure capacity exists to provide effective service delivery especially in the domains of health (including sexual and reproductive health) and education.	
Ensure capacity exists to absorb the expanding labour force in both public and private sector jobs.	
Put in place mechanisms, including use of mass media, to raise awareness of building human capital, in particular regarding health and education.	
Create opportunities for effective consultations to occur, including those that encompass participation of community members and young people.	
Ensure that infrastructure exists to allow for effective monitoring, evaluation and assessment of interventions, with scope for improving them through adjustments.	

Annex I: Technical information for gender and demographic dividend indicators

Indicator reference	Indicator name	International framework*	Tier status (UNSD) /data availability**	Usual data source***
1	Population by sex and five-year age groups This indicator provides the basis for understanding the age and sex structure of the population. It can be used to produce population pyramids, illustrating the shape of the population and how this compares to other points in time. Example... Republic of Korea data for the year 2015 are compared to those for 1955	UN Population Division	Data updated regularly	PHC
2	Population growth rate Explanation and examples...	UN Population Division	Data updated regularly	PHC
3	Dependency ratio Explanation and examples...	UN Population Division	Data updated regularly	PHC
4	Total fertility rate Explanation and examples...	UN Population Division	Data updated regularly	PHC
5	Adolescent fertility Explanation and examples...	UNMGI 52	Data updated regularly	PHC
6	Proportion of women aged 20–24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18 Explanation and examples...	SDG 5.3.1	Data updated regularly	PHC
7	Sex ratio at birth	UN Population Division	Data updated regularly	PHC
8	Life expectancy at birth (by sex)	UN Population Division	Data updated regularly	PHC
9	Proportion of women of reproductive age (aged 15-49 years) who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods	UNMGI 32	Data updated regularly	MICS/DHS
10	Maternal mortality ratio	SDG 3.1.1	Tier I	PHC
11	Antenatal care coverage	UNMGI 35	Tier I	DHS
12	Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel	SDG 3.1.2	Tier I	DHS
13	Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by form of violence and by age	SDG 5.2.1	Tier II	VAW
14	Unmet need for family planning	UN Population Division	Data updated regularly	MICS/DHS
15	Contraceptive prevalence rate	UN Population Division	Data updated regularly	MICS/DHS
16	Youth literacy rate of persons (15-24 years), by sex	UNMGI 20	Tier II	PHC
17	Out-of-school rate for youth of upper secondary school age, by sex	UNESCO		PHC
18	Gender parity index of the gross enrolment ratios in tertiary education	UNMGI 24	Tier II	PHC
19	Educational attainment of the population aged 25 and older, by sex	UNMGI 31	Tier I	PHC
20	Share of female science, technology, engineering and mathematics graduates at tertiary level	UNMGI 25	Tier II	ADMIN

Indicator reference	Indicator name	International framework*	Tier status (UNSD) /data availability**	Usual data source***
21	Proportion of population living below the national poverty line, by sex and age	SDG 1.2.1	Tier I	HIES
22	Proportion of employed who are contributing family workers, by sex	UNMGI 5	Tier I	LFS
23	Length of maternity leave	UNMGI Q3	Tier II	ADMIN
24	Proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment, by sex	UNMGI 9	Tier II	LFS
25	Labour force participation rate for persons aged 15-24 and 15+, by sex	UNMGI 3	Tier I	LFS
26	Unemployment rate, by sex, age and persons with disabilities	SDG 8.5.2	Tier I	LFS
27	Average hourly earnings of female and male employees, by occupation, age and persons with disabilities	SDG 8.5.1	Tier II	LFS
28	Percentage distribution of employed population by sector, each sex (sectors here refer to Agriculture; Industry; Services)	UNMGI 9	Tier I	LFS
29	Proportion of adults (15 years and older) with an account at a bank or other financial institution or with a mobile-money-service provider	SDG 8.10.2	Tier I	Central Bank
30	Volume of remittances (in United States dollars) as a proportion of total GDP	SDG 17.3.2	Tier I	Central Bank
31	Proportion of manufacturing to GDP (World Development Indicators)	UNIDO	Tier I	ADMIN
32	Proportion of working poor (men/women) – from ILOSTAT	ILO	Tier II	LFS
33	Migrant stock by age and sex (country of origin and destination)	UN Population Division	Data updated regularly	UN Estimates and Projections ⁷²
34	Active contributors to an old age contributory scheme as a percent of the working age population by sex (%)	ILO	Tier II	ADMIN
35	Number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation	SDG 16.2.2	Tier II	ADMIN
36	Proportion of households with access to mass media (radio, television, Internet), by sex of household head	UNMGI 19	Tier II	PHC
37	Proportion of seats held by women in (a) national parliaments and (b) local governments	SDG 5.5.1	Tier I (a) Tier II (b)	ADMIN
38	Women's share of government ministerial positions	UNMGI 43	Tier I	ADMIN
39	Proportion of women in managerial positions	SDG 5.5.2	Tier I	LFS

* UNPD = United Nations Population Division; UNMGI = United Nations Minimum Set of Gender Indicators; SDG = Sustainable Development Goals; WHO = World Health Organization

**Tier 1: Indicator is conceptually clear, has an internationally established methodology, standards are available, and data are regularly produced by countries for at least 50 per cent of countries and of the population in every region where the indicator is relevant; Tier 2: Indicator is conceptually clear, has an internationally established methodology and standards are available, but data are not regularly produced by countries; Tier 3: No internationally established methodology or standards are yet available for the indicator, but methodology/standards are being (or will be) developed or tested) (see <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/iaeg-sdgs/tier-classification/>)

*** PHC = Population and Housing Census; MICS/DHS = Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey/Demographic and Health Survey; ADMIN = Administrative sources; LFS = Labour Force Survey; HIES = Household Income and Expenditure Survey; VAW = household surveys on prevalence of violence against women.

⁷² United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2020). International Migrant Stock 2020.

Annex: Glossary of terms

Indicator	<p>A statistical indicator is a measure that signals the state or level of something. It represents statistical data for a specified time, place, and other characteristics. For example, indicators include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Total Fertility Rate (average number of children per woman)• Percentage of government budget spent on education• Hourly gender pay gap• Share of women in national parliament <p>Much work has been done at national, regional and international levels to test and agree on standard indicators for monitoring gender equality.</p>
Concept	<p>A statistical concept is a characteristic of a time series or an observation. For example, 'unemployment', 'birth', and 'tertiary enrolment' are all concepts. To be measured accurately and consistently, concepts must have clear definitions.</p>
Population	<p>The set of elements about which information is wanted and estimates are required. The population could refer to the total number of people in a country or area (e.g. when talking about the population census) or may be a specific group of people (e.g. the youth population aged 15-24 or married/partnered women aged 15-49).</p>
Variable	<p>A variable is a characteristic of a unit being observed that may assume more than one of a set of values to which a numerical measure or a category from a classification can be assigned. For example, income, age, weight, occupation, industry, and cause of death are all variables.</p>
Classification	<p>A set of discrete, exhaustive and mutually exclusive observations, which can be assigned to one or more variables to be measured in the collation and/or presentation of data.</p> <p>Standard classifications are those that follow prescribed rules and are generally recommended and accepted. They aim to ensure that information is classified consistently regardless of the collection, source, point of time, etc. Such standards provide the basis for producing internationally comparable statistics.</p> <p>Examples of standard classifications include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO)• International Standard Industry Classification (ISIC)• International Classification of Diseases (ICD)
Proportions and percentages	<p>A proportion is defined as the relative number of observations in each category of a variable relative to the total number of observations for that variable. It is calculated as the number of observations in the given category divided by the total number of observations. The sum of proportions of observations in each category of a variable should be equal to unity, unless the categories of the variable are not mutually exclusive. Most often, proportions are expressed in percentages. Percentages are obtained from proportions multiplied by 100. Percentages will add up to 100 unless the categories are not mutually exclusive.</p> <p>Proportions expressed as percentages are widely used in statistics on gender and the demographic dividend. For example, the distribution of education attainment level of the population aged 25 and older shows how much of the population has low, medium or high levels of formal education. Also, the share of women in managerial positions is a percentage indicator.</p>

Ratio	<p>A ratio is a single number that expresses the relative size of two numbers. The ratio of one number A to another number B is defined as A divided by B. Ratios can take values greater than unity. Because of the way they are calculated, proportions can be considered a special type of ratio in which the denominator includes the numerator. Ordinarily, however, the term ratio is used to refer to instances in which the numerator (A) and the denominator (B) represent separate and distinct categories. Ratios can be expressed in any base that happens to be convenient; however, the base of 100 is often used.</p> <p>A well-known example of a ratio is the sex ratio: the number of males per 100 females, used to state the degree to which members of one sex outnumber those of the other sex in a population or subgroup of a population. A variation of this indicator is the sex ratio of birth, defined as the number of male live births per 100 female live births.</p>
Rate	<p>In general, proportions and ratios are useful for analysing the composition of a population or of a set of events. Rates, in contrast, are used to study the dynamics of change. Demographic rates such as fertility rates and mortality rates are typical examples of rates used in gender statistics. Some ordinary percentage figures showing the composition of a population group are called rates. For example, what is called a literacy rate is actually a simple percentage of the population that is literate.</p>
Index	<p>Numerous indicators can be aggregated into an index. For example, the Gender Parity Index combines the two indicators of male and female gross enrolment ratio to get an index. So to, the Human Development Index combines a range of variables on socio-economic development to get a single comparable number or index.</p>
Data source	<p>A specific data set, metadata set, database or metadata repository from where data or metadata are available. Data sources can be distinguished, according to the modality of data collection:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) administrative (for data coming from administrative records) b) survey (for data coming from surveys for a specific sector or institutional unit) c) census (for data coming from collections that include all members of a particular population).
Metadata	<p>Metadata are data that define and describe other data. It is all the information needed to understand what the numbers represent. Examples of metadata include this glossary of terms, the title or name of the indicator, definitions of concepts, information on the data source, and guides that explain how the statistics were produced.</p> <p>Metadata are essential for understanding statistics. Without them, users cannot be sure they know what the figures relate to and can easily misinterpret them. As metadata can be detailed and lengthy, many producers of statistics provide the minimum of information with the data and give links to more descriptive metadata on their website or in another publication.</p> <p>Metadata for each of the gender and demographic dividend indicators is provided online at Metadata for Dashboard Indicators.</p>
