

Statistical Challenges in the Preparation of NHDRs and MDGRs and Statistical Capacity Building in Asia and the Pacific

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The publication of the global Human Development Report (HDR) annually since 1990 has marked a watershed in development discourse and initiated what can legitimately be termed as the human development movement across the world. The hallmark of these Reports is that in assessing progress in development across countries, they seek to go beyond the traditional measures of national and per capita income and adopt wider concepts such as 'entitlements', 'enlarging the range of peoples' choices' and 'freedoms'. In the words of Mahbub ul Haq, creator of the HDR, 'the basic purpose of development is to enlarge people's choices...the objective of development is to create an enabling environment for people to enjoy long, healthy and creative lives' (www.undp.org/hdro).

1. National, sub-National and Regional Reports

Following the practice set by the global HDR, a number of countries have been preparing National and sub-national Human Development Reports. Currently, over 135 countries have been engaged in the preparation of NHDRs with over 400 such reports having been published on a variety of themes. The Asia and the Pacific region has emerged as a front runner in the preparation of NHDRs. Apart from having the distinction of having the first NHDR being prepared from within the region in Bangladesh a decade ago in 1992 (along with Cameroon in sub-Saharan Africa which brought out a NHDR in the same year the region has produced over 50 Regional and National HDRs addressing not only traditional problems of poverty, education, and health but also more recent concerns such as governance, and environment ([See Annexure 1](#)).

The publication of the NHDRs has been in some cases either accompanied or even preceded by the publication of sub-national HDRs¹. These have focused on local issues and attempted to break down the conclusions based on averages at the national level to more manageable units of governance. In the light of growing importance of decentralization and local planning, such efforts are likely to become increasingly important in the future. In the same league are efforts in some national HDRs to focus on ethnic groups (for example the Nepal HDR 2001) within countries. In addition, there has

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¹ This has been the case in India where the first ever sub-national HDR (SHDR) was published in Madhya Pradesh in the year 1995. Since then 22 provincial (state) governments, supported by the Planning Commission, Government of India and the UNDP, India Country Office, have been preparing SHDRs. 5 HDRs have already been published, 2 by Madhya Pradesh, and one each by Karnataka, Rajasthan and Sikkim. The national HDR was published only in the year 2001. A unique feature of these HDRs is that they are owned by the respective provincial governments and actively used as tools for planning. For more details regarding the status of preparation of the Sub-national HDRs and their impact, please visit <http://hdrc.undp.org.in>

also been a spurt in regional HDRs, which while supplementing national HDRs focus attention on issues common to countries within a region or sub-region.

These HDRs have been recognised as effective tools for action by not only governments and civil society organisations, but also by bilateral and multi-lateral donors in their joint effort to promote human development. The growing recognition that the HDRs should reflect 'people's aspirations' has also a bearing on the type of analysis attempted in various HDRs at the global, regional, national and sub-national levels.

A related development is the movement towards Right to Information in several countries in the region. This has taken the form of people at the grass roots level demanding access to information that is often compiled from them but while not made accessible to them, though such data affects their lives in significant ways. This development implies that traditional methods of treating individuals as 'respondents' and collating information from such dispersed 'sample units' for use at a distant location by 'national' and 'international' users may be increasingly questioned. The philosophical and ethical questions that this raises for compilation and use of data need urgent attention.

2. Data Requirements for NHDRs

While the concept of human development has been broad in its sweep emphasising entitlements, choices and freedoms, the measurement of human development has had to confine itself to the more easily quantifiable dimensions in income, education and health. The main measure of human development is the Human Development Index, measuring average achievement in three basic dimensions of human development -a long and healthy life, knowledge and a decent standard of living. In 1995 UNDP incorporated two Gender related Indices- the Gender-related Development Index (GDI) which measures achievements reflecting the inequalities between men and women and the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) that focuses on women's opportunities and empowerment. The Human Poverty Index was introduced in 1997 as a summary measure of average deprivations in education, health and nutrition.

In addition to these indices that are reported annually in the HDRs, data on a variety of indicators is presented supporting specific themes addressed in each year's report. Thus, the global HDR of 1992 presented indicators and indices on freedom, the 1995 HDR reported on gender and that of 2002 listed subjective and objective indicators on governance. With such a variety of issues being covered under the HDRs, the demand for data on aspects such as environment, gender equality and governance has grown. To quote a few examples:

- ◆ The South Asia Regional report, 1999 provides a new index, Humane Governance Index, which looks at countries' governance performance on the basis of quantitative and qualitative data. The data compiled includes indicators such as budget deficit, inflation rate, public expenditure on education and health for economic governance aspects, corruption, quality of bureaucracy, and accountability for the political governance aspect, and freedom of expression, non-discrimination and political participation and rule of law for the civic governance aspect. Obviously, data on many of these indicators would have been compiled for the first time.

- ◆ The China HDR, 2002 which addresses the environment issue, has come out with a Health Risk Index and rated the provinces according to the environmental health risk that the people are exposed to. Some of the indicators used here at the provincial level were potential exposure to air pollution including indoor and outdoor pollution, potential exposure to polluted water, nutrition and capacity of health services. Many of these indicators do not have a ready database.
- ◆ The India HDR, 2001 put together indicators and composite indices to evaluate the development process in terms of input and process indicators rather than in terms of outcomes as the purpose was to evolve indicators to monitor progress on human development. It also tried to highlight inequalities by estimating "gender-gaps" and the "rural-urban gap" in all indicators wherever the data was available. This required modification of currently available indicators (for example the intensity of formal education), and compiling data on some new indicators.

The attempt, as is evident, both at the global and national levels is to go beyond conventional measures and to reach out to concepts that are fundamental to the paradigm. It is this very approach that makes the HDRs valuable but also poses challenges for national statistical systems that are most often steeped in traditional modes of functioning and are yet to grasp fully the implications of the newer demands being made on them.

What I would like to emphasise is that the issue of measurement is not one of the inevitable hiatus between concept and measurement-it is much larger-both in conceptual and empirical terms. Measurement would not be so serious an issue if the HDRs were mere academic exercises and debates on their findings confined to the intellectuals. However, the HDRs by their very design are visualised to be 'tools for action'. Over the years, the reports have highlighted critical HD issues, articulated people's perceptions and priorities and have been actively used as tools for development planning,. They have in the process of advocating the human development paradigm inspired many policy initiatives and spurred national debates. To quote a few examples specifically from Asia and the Pacific region:

- ◆ Japan and South Korea have adopted the HDR's Gender Empowerment Measure in the formulation of national legislation.
- ◆ In India, HD analysis and priorities have become an integral part of government planning. The HDI is being used to compare the performance of states and districts in monitoring performance on HD goals.
- ◆ The Philippines 1999 report on education spurred debates on educational reforms in the country's Senate and Executive Cabinet, and the 1997 report led to Presidential directive mandating all local governments to devote at least 20 per cent of the revenue to HD priorities. The President also asked the National Statistical Coordination Board to include the Human Development Index (HDI) in the system of statistics to track variations across provinces.

It is this special feature of the HDRs that makes it imperative that the disjunct between the concept that they seek to advocate and the measurement of that concept is as minimal as is possible. Since the HDR covers different regions and sections, it is important that the national statistical systems provide data that is dis-aggregated geographically and across various sections of people. Further the data should also be comparable and consistent in the methodology used- both in generating indicators as well as in the methods of data collection used.

Furthermore, since human development is a people-centred concept, data used in the HDRs should also be relevant from this point of view, be demystified and made intelligible to the masses for whom the HDR is prepared and also be readily accessible for use by people on whose lives the HDR has a profound impact. This often involves a transformation of the national statistical systems, not only in the *type* of data that is collected, but more importantly in the *ways in which data is collected and disseminated*.

3. Data Requirements for Millennium Development Goal Reports (MDGRs)

In addition to the HDRs, there have been other more recent initiatives such as the Millennium Development Goal Reports and the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers, which have generated their own demands on data systems. It was in September 2000 that leaders from 180 countries came together at the United Nations Millennium Summit and pledged their commitment to certain specific development goals. These consist of 8 development goals comprising 18 specific targets and are known as the Millennium Development Goals. Each target consists of some specific indicators, the total number of these indicators being 48 (See [Annexure 2](#)). The UNDP country office teams are mandated with the task of monitoring these MDGs through support to MDG Reports. These reports would show at a glance the progress achieved on the MDGs by the respective countries. So far, six MDGRs have been issued including Cambodia and Vietnam from Asia and the Pacific². By the end of 2004, at least one MDGR per country is planned.

MDGRs are expected to build upon existing reports such as Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (See [Annexure 3](#)) and the NHDRs. It has been observed that though the NHDRs and the MDGRs are qualitatively different products, they nonetheless address similar topics, draw on similar data and employ similar processes for national ownership. The MDGRs track progress of countries on a number of indicators which include aspects of human development, though not all dimensions of human development are included. Though the MDGRs are dependent on the data produced in the NHDRs to a large extent, the specific HD related data requirement of MDGRs would further add to the already existing demands from the National Statistical Systems (NSSs).

Another issue that the MDGRs raise is one of the indicators chosen for monitoring. Many of the indicators selected are not yet widely accepted by participating countries; for example the one dollar a day definition of poverty, as well as the definition and measurement of literacy are subject to much debate.

² Source: HDRO website (www.undp.org/hdro)

4. Statistical Challenges in the Preparation of National and Regional HDRs and MDGRs

The above range of developments indicate the increasing expectations and demands from National Statistical Systems. With the growing use of data, not only by the policy makers, but also by the media, international agencies, donors and academicians, the National Statistical Systems are burdened with demands for data on an ever increasing range of issues. However, these demands are being made at a juncture when Governments around the globe are facing fiscal constraints at a level not experienced before and when resources for maintenance of even routine functions of the National Statistical Systems are being increasingly threatened. The enthusiasm to expand the range of indicators and indices has not been met with an equally forceful movement for capacity building of National Statistical Systems nor have the requisite resources-both financial and human-been devoted to the task.

The question is not merely of the increase in the number of variables on which data is sought; it is also on the different and often not easily measurable aspects on which data is demanded. The reporting on newly devised indicators is more intensive in terms of time and resources. In fact, underlying this entire HD reporting exercise is the fundamental question of how effectively quantitative indicators capture dimensions of quality of life. Also important to note is the fact that the new indicators may also require newer methods of data collection such as participatory assessments. The question is whether the NSS are geared to transform the way in which they function in order to meet this challenge. Since often the NSS are not consulted while devising the indicators but demanded to provide data subsequently, they are often taken by surprise and have no mechanisms in place to respond to such sudden demands.

A crucial purpose of the preparation of the HDRs, PRSPs and MDGRs is to sensitise policy makers to human development issues. This requires ownership of the HDRs by a variety of stakeholders-governments, civil society and academicians to name a few. The issue of the data used is crucial here. The Global HDRs use global sets of data which are compiled from official statistics reported by various countries. These global data sets are often inadequate in bringing to the fore the types of issues that are more central to people's concerns. The very compilation of data is an issue that needs to be addressed more squarely. Who collects the data? What is the purpose for which such data is collected? Who gains access to such data? These questions are acquiring increasing importance particularly in view of the Right to Information movements across countries. For people centred development to have meaning, the data collected should be relevant to them and be accessible to them. However, the demands of reporting on uniform indicators at the national and international levels implies that there have to be standardised formats for reporting and compilation of data. The demands that these seemingly contrary requirements make is a challenge that has yet to be addressed, which is only a necessary step for it to be resolved.

To be able to cater to such varying yet crucial aspects, statistical capacity building of the systems has been identified as a pressing need. In order to build their capacities, a need is felt to first understand the deficiencies in the existing systems. The various Regional and

National HDRs and the UNDP Inter Agency Expert Group on MDG Indicators³ have highlighted a number of lacunae in the existing Statistical Systems.

These lacunae can be classified under the following broad sections:

4.1 Data Availability

As compared to the 1960s and 1970s, there has been a huge expansion in data collection and production in the developing countries.

- ◆ One third or more of all countries (representing more than 70% of the world population) have statistics on poverty and inequality.
- ◆ Three quarters have data on the ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education.
- ◆ Four fifths are able to estimate their carbon dioxide emissions⁴.

However not all countries have made significant progress in ensuring data availability (See Annexure 4). Huge gaps are found in the coverage of HD data and these present serious obstacles to the implementation and monitoring of poverty reduction policies. In fact, one thing that is common to all HDRs is the by now mandatory section on data gaps.

For example the India NHDR 2001 expresses a need to improve the coverage of HD related data. The National Statistical Commission set up in January 2000 addresses the growing need for reforms in the Indian Statistical Systems.

Another major area of concern with respect to data gaps is gender dis-aggregated data. By the introduction of GDI and GEM in 1995, the HDRs have highlighted the need for a gender perspective in development. But very few countries collect and present data by sex, which would reflect issues related to gender disparities in their region. The non-market economic activities of women are yet to be taken into account by the NSSs. The Philippines HDR, 1997 on Women and Gender in Development also emphasizes the need to develop a system gathering, processing and dissemination of gender dis-aggregated data at local as well as national levels.

A third area of concern is with respect to data on prevalence of HIV/AIDS which is spreading in Asian countries at an alarming rate. In the absence of data on its prevalence, countries have not yet grasped the gravity of the situation and have not had in place policies to arrest the spread of this disease. Suitable statistical methods to capture this sensitive information needs to be devised urgently.

Even when data are collected, the *periodicity* of such collection is a problem. Census data available at decadal intervals can hardly serve the purpose of using the NHDR as a tool for measuring change in human development indicators. The problem is acute in the case

³ The Inter Agency Expert Group on MDG Indicators has highlighted the data gaps in a document titled "United Nations Millennium Development Goals, Data and Trends 2002"

⁴ Jacques Loup, David Naudet and Developpement et insertion internationale (DIAL) (2000) 'The State of Human Development Data and Statistical Capacity Building in Developing Countries'.

of MDGRs which are essentially monitoring tools. In most South Asian countries, civil registration systems rarely capture the extent of births, deaths and marriages. In the absence of effective Civil Registration Systems the reliability of the available data is questionable. Routine data on schools, students enrolled, hospitals, medical and para medical personnel are also not collected due to lack of emphasis on these data and the inadequate administrative back up for compilation and analysis.

The gaps mentioned above however do not necessarily imply a lack of effort on the part of the national statistical systems. At times such gaps result more from ineffective dissemination of data than from the non-existence of data.

4.2 Data Quality

Very often it is true that more than the lack of data it is the poor quality of available data that is a more important issue. While preparing NHDRs often the problem of incoherent data within a data source or among various sources is faced, raising serious concerns about the reliability of the available data. In developing countries such inconsistencies are frequent and significant. Often the root of the problem lies in the data collection methods which are different across different sources. It is also observed that definitions of terms vary from one source to another. A lack of coordination is observed among different ministries and departments leading to inconsistent data at different administrative levels⁵.

An important shortcoming of official data, particularly for the human development sectors, is that they are often compiled through the administrative system, which is also responsible for implementing various programmes in these sectors. Self-interest lies in reporting optimistic estimates of 'achievements' when in reality, the shortfall from stated goals may be quite high. Gross enrolment ratios in schooling are particularly prone to this type of over reporting as a result of which the phenomenon of 'drop-outs' also is exaggerated. Wherever possible, systematic efforts to correct for such biases and cross verification of official data with independently conducted field surveys and case studies must be an ongoing exercise if National Statistical Systems are to be credible and relied upon for providing much of the human development related data.

Another problem that is likely to be faced in increasing measure in the future arises from the increasing trend towards globalization, liberalization and privatisation. These processes make it difficult to monitor progress and attribute it to various inputs that were hitherto used for the purpose. For example, as the role of information technology and use of internet increases, educational levels may improve even if the formal educational infrastructure does not show an appreciable increase in numbers. Quantifying the impact of such inputs would be a challenge faced by statistical systems.

Projections across census years in order to get estimates for specific years often creates several problems. An example that dramatically highlights the pitfalls associated with

⁵ The India NHDR 2001 also stresses the need for synchronisation of independently carried out surveys of different agencies to check overlap and improve coverage of indicators. The National Statistical Commission of India has recommended that the census should adopt the same definition as that of the National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) in order to maintain consistency of data across the sources.

projections between inter censal years is available from Fiji. The 1998 Global HDR placed Fiji 44 on the global scale, with the HDI value of 0.869, which meant that it was the only Pacific country to be included in the category of high human development. However the Pacific Regional HDR, 1999 using more recently available data adjusts the index which places the country at 102 in the scale with a HDI value of 0.667. The reason for the discrepancy was partly due to the life expectancy figure, which was based for 1998 Global HDR on a projection from the 1986 census figure and assumed that longevity would steadily improve. The Pacific HDR, 1999, on the other hand used the data released from the 1996 census, which revealed that progress in life expectancy was much lower than assumed. More importantly, the estimates of per capita GDP used in the two reports were markedly different. While the global report used an adjusted real per capita GDP (US\$ 6,016), the Pacific HDR used GDP per capita (US\$ 2,684), leading to a sharp fall in the relative position of the country on the HDI. A similar situation was reported for Samoa whose ranking was 94 in the global HDR as compared to 118 in the Pacific HDR, Solomon Islands (123 in Global HDR and 148 in the Pacific HDR) and Vanuatu (124 in global and 140 in Pacific HDR) (as reported in Pacific HDR, 1999, page 15). While the two sets of ranks are not strictly comparable being calculated for different years and with different sets of data and methodologies, from the advocacy point of view this poses a serious problem. Conflicting reports on the position of the country on the HDI could seriously undermine the use of the HDI as a tool for planning.

A similar problem exists when the gaps created by inadequate civil registration systems are filled by estimates from surveys. Surveys however, by their very nature, are liable to sampling and non-sampling error (See Box 1). Also when specific data such as cause - specific deaths data is required the survey estimates do not lead to accurate results. In the case of Pacific region, the problem is acute on account of the small size of countries. The Pacific HDR for 1999 states categorically that 'In almost every country, the HDI data are neither reliable nor current' (See Box 2).

Box 1
How Representative are Sample Surveys?

The Nepal HDR has calculated human development indices based on the Nepal Living Standard Survey (NLSS), 1996. The NLSS was designed as a multi dimensional survey to collect comprehensive sets of data on different aspects of household welfare, such as consumption, income, housing, labour market, education and health. The sample size of NLSS was 3373 households, which were distributed among different regions from the country. The report points out that although the NLSS has disaggregated data on different ecological zones, development regions, eco-development regions, castes and administrative districts, the sample size at the district is too small. This fact raises questions about the accuracy of the data used.

Apart from this the report also utilizes information from the National Population Census, 1991 to obtain fertility and mortality rates. However in different reviews of the Census it has been felt that fertility has been under reported. Similarly it has been claimed that the mortality rate too is under reported (CBS 1995b).

Source: Quoted from Nepal HDR, 1998

Box 2

Misleading Indicators and Periodicity of the Census

In almost every country in the Pacific HDI related data are neither reliable nor current. Adult literacy is a case in point. The figures usually cited for the region are misleadingly high. In most cases they are not based on any real measurement of functional literacy but instead come from census counts of the number of adults with three or less years of primary school education.

Another major challenge faced in analysing HD issues is measuring change over time. Statistics that come from censuses change depending on how often censuses are held. This is usually once a decade but some are even delayed. Values for intervening years can be projected, based on assumptions about probable trends, but they can be sometimes misleading.

Source: Quoted from Pacific HDR, *Creating Opportunities*, 1999

4.3 Data Comparability

A major role of Regional and National HDRs is in monitoring and assessing the impact of various policy initiatives. The UN system is also mandated with the task of monitoring the progress of MDGs across the globe as well as within each country. To measure progress it is essential that data is comparable across the sub - national levels and over time. But very often it is found that there are considerable variations in the qualitative aspects of data across time and space.

The South Asia HDR 2001 indicates the lack of time series even for the most basic HD data (See Box 3). Monitoring of MDGs faces similar challenges since the indicators for the latest available year have to be compared with the 1990 indicators which has been fixed as the benchmark year. In some countries data for 1990 is not available, while in some even when available, it is difficult to compare with the current data due to different concepts and methods used in data collection.

Comparability across countries also poses a challenge when the data is to be aggregated at the regional (for the Regional HDRs) or global level owing to differences in definitions across geographical regions and economic groups.

Box 3

The Comparability Problem

Several limitations remain regarding coverage, consistency, and comparability of data across time and countries. Generally the latest data are not available for several

indicators. Some statistical indicators date back ten years or more. Analysis of the current economic and social situation is greatly handicapped in the absence of up-to-date data. Time series are often missing for even the most basic data as population growth, adult literacy, or enrolment ratios. An effort must be made to build consistent time series for some of the important indicators.

Source: Quoted from The South Asia Regional HDR, 2001

Recognising the need to establish standards and uniform concepts to allow comparisons among countries, the United Nations Statistical Commission adopted the fundamental principles of official statistics in 1994. These consist of 10 Principles of Official Statistics ([See Annexure 5](#)), which are set as a standard to be adopted by the NSSs. These however are yet to be fully adopted by all the countries.

4.5 Data Analysis

The task of the NSSs does not end with data collection or by ensuring its quality. The next crucial step is to undertake a preliminary analysis of data in order to highlight findings and draw inferences, which would give a clear picture of the current problems and help in formulating policies to address them. The analysis of data is also important from the point of view of the inter linkages and the cause-effect relationships of diverse yet related issues. However the capacity for analysing data is limited in the NSS of developing countries due to limited manpower, skills and infrastructure. Limited application of information technology and the lack of continuous training of manpower are other issues that constrain these bodies.

5. Recommendations

The analysis above indicates the following steps for improving the functioning of national statistical systems to enable them to fulfill the enhanced role that they need to play in supporting and ensuring the accuracy of the analysis presented in the NHDRs and MDGRs.

1. Improve periodicity of information collection - Censuses are the most comprehensive and often the most preferred source of data. The frequency of these however is limited, hence sample surveys should be held between censuses, which would facilitate data comparison across time periods.
2. Need to harmonize methods and definitions across agencies within countries and over the NSOs in different countries. Each National Statistical Office (NSO) should expedite the process of adoption of the international statistical standards.
3. Improve dissemination of data by using IT tools such as the Internet. This however would also require modernization of the infrastructure in various statistical agencies.
4. Effective implementation of Civil Registration Systems and greater awareness of the importance of such data for planning by all concerned. Greater use of information

technology for compilation of data from the field will need to be an essential component.

5. Continuous Training of manpower in HD related issues, new data analysis techniques and in use of computers and latest IT tools for data collection, compilation and processing. Modules on human development need to be an integral part of all training courses for statisticians.
6. Gender concerns need to be mainstreamed into the general data collection systems with which the National Statistical Systems are involved. The tendency to have special surveys for gender should be avoided as this inhibits its mainstreaming into the larger surveys.
7. Participation of the Private sector and the NGOs - Recognising the increasing role of the private sector in the development sectors such as health and education, the NSOs should collaborate with them to obtain integrated information on different sectors. Similar effort is also required to obtain information to assess private expenditures incurred on the social sectors as well as for training of the statistical staff.
8. Need for coordination - There is a need for coordination among statistical agencies and various administrative levels within countries to achieve uniformity and efficiency. Cooperation between international agencies and the NSOs for the enhancement of the Statistical Systems would be essential for ensuring a meaningful dent in tackling the problem of inadequate data. To quote two examples from Asia and the Pacific:
 - I. United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) and United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) worked along with the Indian Department of Women and Children Development to engender the 2001 Indian census. The 1981 Indian Census reported women's work participation rate of at 13.9 per cent. In fact, in some of the villages in an Indian province, Punjab, 1981 Census figures reported that not a single woman worked in agriculture. Such misleading figures highlighted a need to make the census operations more gender sensitive. The project (1990-2001) involved modification of the census questionnaires along with training of the census enumerators keeping the gender perspective in mind. The success of the project was reflected in a better estimate of female workforce participation (25.6 per cent of the total female population) in the 2001 census as well as the framework being replicated in many other countries in the region (Laos, Cambodia, Indonesia, China, Sri Lanka, Pakistan and Nepal).
 - II. A similar collaboration was observed between the UNDP and the National Statistics Centre (NSC) in Laos. The project was named Gender Resource Information and Development (GRID) and was designed to enhance gender related development information and resources and to build staff capacity in gender planning and management. This project is an excellent example of cooperation between an international development agency (UNDP) and a National Statistical Office (NSC). As a result, the NSC committed to improve data collection so that gender dis-aggregated data is collected routinely by every

ministry and organisation. In this project too training was an integral part of the implementation strategy.

What we see in these two case studies is that development organisations and the NSOs can establish a robust partnership in bringing about a human development orientation into statistical systems. Training and sensitization of manpower to development related issues would play a crucial role in this partnership.

The issue essentially is of matching the human development paradigm's people centred approach with an equally people oriented system of data collection. The collection of such data that can be used by people in monitoring human development progress would require a complete overhaul of the data collection and dissemination mechanisms. This would also require substantial resources-both financial and human –to make this happen.

This workshop brings together senior statisticians from the National Statistical Organisations of countries within the Asia Pacific region as also UNDP representatives from various countries. It is therefore uniquely placed to address these issues in depth and arrive at ways and means of transforming statistical systems a reality. I am sure that our deliberations over the next three days would provide a roadmap for this. It must be realized that failing to act now could jeopardize not only the quality of NHDRs and reporting on MDGs but also planning for sustainable human development across countries.

Annexure-1

REGIONAL AND NATIONAL HDRs in ASIA AND PACIFIC REGION BY YEAR AND THEME

ASIA AND THE PACIFIC	1996*	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
PACIFIC REGION				Creating Opportunities			
SOUTH ASIA		The Challenge of Human Development	The Education Challenge	The Crisis of Governance	The Gender Question	Globalization and Human Development	
BANGLADESH	A pro-poor agenda		Monitoring Human Development		Fighting Human Poverty		Human Security in Bangladesh
BHUTAN					Gross National Happiness		
CAMBODIA		General Human Development Report	Women's Contribution to Development	Village Economy and Development	Children and Employment	Societal Aspects of the HIV/AIDS Epidemic in Cambodia	
CHINA		Poverty Alleviation and Human Development		Transition and the State			Making Green Development a Choice
EAST TIMOR						National HDR	
FIJI		General HDR					
INDONESIA	General HDR					Towards a New Consensus	
INDIA						HDR on Governance and Human Development	
IRAN				General Human Development Report			
LAOS			General Human Development Report				
MALDIVES						Challenges and Responses to Human Development	
MONGOLIA		General HDR			Reorienting		

					the State		
MYANMAR			General HDR				
NEPAL			General HDR			Poverty Reduction and Governance	
PALAU				Progressing with the past			
PAPUA NEW GUINEA			General HDR				
PHILLIPINES		Women and Gender in Development			Quality, Access and Relevance in Basic Education		Human Capital, Employment and Well Being
SAMOA			A situation analysis of Human Development				
SOUTH KOREA			General HDR				
SRI LANKA			Regional Dimensions for Human Development				
THAILAND				General HDR			
TUVALU				General HDR			
VANUATU	Moving on together						
VIETNAM						Doi Moi Process and Human Development	

* For few countries HDRs earlier than 1994 have also been prepared.

For further details please visit www.undp.org/hdro

Sources : Human Development Resource Office website

Regional Bureau for Asia and Pacific website (www.undp.org/rbap)

The respective Country Office websites.

Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

The goals and targets are based on the UN Millennium Declaration, and the UN General Assembly has approved them as part of the Secretary General's road map towards implementing the declaration. UNDP worked with other UN departments, funds and programmes, the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund and the Organization for Economic Cooperation Development to identify over 40 quantifiable indicators to assess progress.

Goals and Targets	Indicators
Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger	
Target 1: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day	1. Proportion of population below \$1 per day (PPP-values) 2. Poverty gap ratio [incidence x depth of poverty] 3. Share of poorest quintile in national consumption
Target 2: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger	4. Prevalence of underweight children (under-five years of age) 5. Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption
Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education	
Target 3: Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling	6. Net enrolment ratio in primary education 7. Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach grade 5 8. Literacy rate of 15-24 year olds
Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women	
Target 4: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005 and to all levels of education no later than 2015	9. Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education 10. Ratio of literate females to males of 15-24 year olds 11. Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector 12. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament
Goal 4: Reduce child mortality	
Target 5: Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate	13. Under-five mortality rate 14. Infant mortality rate 15. Proportion of 1 year old children immunised against measles
Goal 5: Improve maternal health	
Target 6: Reduce by three-quarters, between 1990 and	16. Maternal mortality ratio 17. Proportion of births attended by skilled

2015, the maternal mortality ratio	health personnel
Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases	
Target 7: Have halted by 2015, and begun to reverse, the spread of HIV/AIDS	18. HIV prevalence among 15-24 year old pregnant women 19. Contraceptive prevalence rate 20. Number of children orphaned by HIV/AIDS
Target 8: Have halted by 2015, and begun to reverse, the incidence of malaria and other major diseases	21. Prevalence and death rates associated with malaria 22. Proportion of population in malaria risk areas using effective malaria prevention and treatment measures 23. Prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis 24. Proportion of TB cases detected and cured under DOTS (Directly Observed Treatment Short Course)
Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability	
Target 9: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources	25. Proportion of land area covered by forest 26. Land area protected to maintain biological diversity 27. GDP per unit of energy use (as proxy for energy efficiency) 28. Carbon dioxide emissions (per capita) [Plus two figures of global atmospheric pollution: ozone depletion and the accumulation of global warming gases]
Target 10: Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water	29. Proportion of population with sustainable access to an improved water source
Target 11: By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers	30. Proportion of people with access to improved sanitation 31. Proportion of people with access to secure tenure [Urban/rural disaggregation of several of the above indicators may be relevant for monitoring improvement in the lives of slum dwellers]

Goal 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development*

Target 12: Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system

Includes a commitment to good governance, development, and poverty reduction – both nationally and internationally

Target 13: Address the Special Needs of the Least Developed Countries

Includes: tariff and quota free access for LDC exports; enhanced programme of debt relief for HIPC and cancellation of official bilateral debt; and more generous ODA for countries committed to poverty reduction

Target 14: Address the Special Needs of landlocked countries and small island developing states

(through Barbados Programme and 22nd General Assembly provisions)

Target 15: Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term

Some of the indicators listed below will be monitored separately for the Least Developed Countries (LDCs), Africa, landlocked countries and small island developing states.

Official Development Assistance

- 32.** Net ODA as percentage of DAC donors' GNI [targets of 0.7% in total and 0.15% for LDCs]
- 33.** Proportion of ODA to basic social services (basic education, primary health care, nutrition, safe water and sanitation)
- 34.** Proportion of ODA that is untied
- 35.** Proportion of ODA for environment in small island developing states
- 36.** Proportion of ODA for transport sector in land-locked countries

Market Access

- 37.** Proportion of exports (by value and excluding arms) admitted free of duties and quotas
- 38.** Average tariffs and quotas on agricultural products and textiles and clothing
- 39.** Domestic and export agricultural subsidies in OECD countries
- 40.** Proportion of ODA provided to help build trade capacity

Debt Sustainability

- 41.** Proportion of official bilateral HIPC debt cancelled
- 42.** Debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services
- 43.** Proportion of ODA provided as debt relief
- 44.** Number of countries reaching HIPC decision and completion points

Target 16: In co-operation with developing countries, develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth	45. Unemployment rate of 15-24 year olds
Target 17: In co-operation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable, essential drugs in developing countries	46. Proportion of population with access to affordable essential drugs on a sustainable basis
Target 18: In co-operation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications	47. Telephone lines per 1000 people 48. Personal computers per 1000 people <i>Other Indicators TBD</i>

* *The selection of indicators for Goals 7 and 8 is subject to further refinement*

Annexure-3

The Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper

In September 1999, a Joint Meeting of the Interim and Development Committees adopted the idea that developing countries should prepare Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP) to present their policies for growth and poverty reduction. It is proposed that PRSPs be shared with the World Bank and the IMF, as well as with the development community. PRSPs are now a required document of the Highly-Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) debt reduction programme.

It is proposed that PRSPs include targets and indicators, which should be used for the monitoring of the proposed policies (see Box 7 below). The selection of these indicators should be the country's responsibility; the Bank and the IMF stress that the preparation of the PRSP itself as well as the selection of the targets and indicators should be made by each country in a participatory manner. In spite of this, it appears likely that the Bretton Woods institutions will advise the countries on the content of the PRSPs and on the selection of these targets. (A "Source Book" intended to provide guidance for the preparation of PRSPs is now under preparation in the Bank; it should be finalised before end April 2000). A document prepared by the Bank's and the IMF's staff, and approved by the Board of these two institutions in December 1999, presents in an appendix the "possible elements of a PRSP" outlining (in four pages) the typical content of such a paper, including the selection of targets and the monitoring systems.⁶

Box 7: Targets and monitoring of the PRSP

(Excerpts of "Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers – Operational Issues", a document adopted by the Bank's and IMF's Board, Appendix I)

"Objectives and Policies

In the light of the analysis above, the PRSP could define medium and long-term outcome-oriented targets for the country's poverty reduction strategy, and set out the macroeconomic, structural, and social policies that together comprise a comprehensive strategy for achieving these outcomes.

The PRSP could specify two sets of quantified objectives.

First, long-term goals could be given for key poverty reduction targets. While these goals should be framed realistically in the country context, it would be helpful to the extent possible, if these goals could be compared to the IDGs [International Development Goals]. These goals could include measures of economic

⁶ « Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers – Operational Issues », December 10, 1999. This appendix includes a box on the OECD/DAC International Development Goals.

progress and material deprivation (e.g., per capita income growth, and measures of both the incidence and depth of poverty), and measures of human capabilities (e.g. health and education measures broken-down by gender if possible). The selection of these outcome goals will obviously depend on the country's starting position, the analysis of poverty and the availability of relevant data.

Second, given the long lags—both in reporting and in effects—typically associated with these outcomes, and the need to ensure shorter-term monitoring of progress, these longer-term goals could be translated into annual (or six monthly) targets covering a three-year horizon for related intermediate and proxy indicators. Thus, for example, a long-term goal for improving the literacy rate could be translated into annual (intermediate) targets covering, for example, the primary school enrolment rate. Consistent goals and targets including poverty-related goals, intermediate targets and macroeconomic projections would be set out in an Annex to the paper.

.....

Monitoring Systems

Systematic monitoring of implementation, allowing experience to be gained on the relationship between actions and outcomes, is crucial to the success of the strategy. The PRSP would describe the framework and mechanisms for monitoring implementation, including the extent and planned development of participatory processes designed to strengthen accountability, the indicators to be monitored and the planned frequency of reporting and monitoring. It is proposed that an annual PRSP progress report based on the outcome of monitoring processes and other information would be prepared by the national authorities and published.

.....

As described above, the PRSP could include monitorable intermediate targets consistent with the strategy's longer-term goals for poverty reduction. In this context, where applicable, the PRSP should describe data deficiencies that hamper analysis and timely monitoring of performance, and how these factors have influenced the selection of indicators to be monitored. It is desirable that the PRSP describe the steps being taken to improve the quality, coverage and timeliness of data needed to track performance under this outcome-oriented approach. It should also describe the role played by national and international research agencies, donors and other international institutions, in helping in this regard."

The Bank is concerned about the availability of statistics for monitoring the implementation of PRSPs. They have established a global Trust Fund for Statistical Capacity Building, to be financed by bilateral donors, which could be used to strengthen the capacity of recipient countries to collect the necessary data.

Source: Jacques Loup, David Naudet and Developpement et insertion internationale (DIAL) (2000) 'The State of Human Development Data and Statistical Capacity Building in Developing Countries'.

Annexure 4

Overview of the coverage of core indicators (1990-1995)

	No. of countries with data (out of 171)	Percentage of countries with data (out of 171)	Percentage of population represented
Economic well-being			
Reducing extreme poverty			
1. Incidence of extreme poverty: population below 1\$ a day	59	35	79
2. Poverty gap ratio: incidence times depth of income poverty	51	30	72
3. Inequality: poorest fifth's share of national consumption	74	43	85
4. Child malnutrition: prevalence of underweight under 5	117	68	93
Social development			
Universal primary education			
5. Net enrolment in primary education	102	60	61
6. Completion of 4 th grade of primary education	101	59	79
7. Literacy rate of 15 to 24 year-olds	77	45	84
Gender equality			
8. Ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education	126	74	87
9. Ratio of literate females to males (15 to 24 year-olds)	77	45	84
Infant and child mortality			
10. Infant mortality rate	126	74	87
11. Under-five mortality rate	77	45	84
Maternal mortality			
12. Maternal mortality ratio	162	95	100
13. Births attended by skilled health personnel	163	95	100
Reproductive health			
14. Contraceptive prevalence rate	159	93	99
15. HIV prevalence in 15 to 24 year-old pregnant women	124	73	98
Environmental Sustainability and Regeneration			
16. Countries with national sustainable development strategy	171	100	100
17. Population with access to safe water	115	67	91
18. Intensity of fresh water use	133	78	100
19. Biodiversity: land area protected	135	79	100
20. Energy efficiency: GDP per unit of energy use	136	80	96
21. Carbon dioxide emissions	136	80	99

Source: "Measuring development progress", Brian Hammond, INTERSTAT, October 1998 in Jacques Loup, David Naudet and Developpement et insertion internationale (DIAL) (2000) 'The State of Human Development Data and Statistical Capacity Building in Developing Countries'.

ANNEXURE 5

The Ten Principles of Official Statistics

The United Nations Statistical commission, at its meeting of 14 April 1994, adopted the fundamental principles of official statistics as set out below.

The Preamble and Principles, As The Statistical Commission,

Bearing in mind that official statistical information is an essential basis for development in the economic, demographic, social and environmental fields and for mutual knowledge and trade among the states and peoples of the world,

Bearing in mind that the essential trust of the public in official statistical information depends to a large extent on respect of the fundamental values and principles which are the basis of any democratic society which seeks to understand itself and to respect the rights of its members,

Bearing in mind that the quality of official statistics and thus the quality of the information available to the Government, the economy and the public depends largely on the co-operation of citizens, enterprises, and other respondents in providing appropriate and reliable data needed for necessary statistical compilations and on the co-operation between users and producers of statistics to meet users' needs,

Recalling the efforts of governmental and non-governmental organizations active in statistics to establish standards and concepts to allow comparisons among countries,

Recalling also the International Statistical Institute Declaration of Professional Ethics,

Having expressed the opinion that resolution C(47), adopted by the Economic Commission for Europe on 15 April 1992, is of universal significance,

Noting that, at its eight session, held at Bangkok, in November 1993, the Working Group of Statistical Experts, assigned by the Committee on Statistics of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific to examine the Fundamental Principles, had agreed in principle to the ECE version and had emphasized that those principles were applicable to all nations,

Noting also that, at its eight session held in Addis Ababa in March 1994, the Joint Conference of African Planners, Statisticians and Demographers considered that the Fundamental Principles of Official Statistics are of universal significance,
Adopts the present principles of official statistics:

1. Official statistics provide an indispensable element in the information system of a democratic society, serving the government, the economy and the public with data about the economic, demographic, social and environmental situation. To this end, official statistics that meet the test of practical utility are to be compiled and made available on an impartial basis by official standard agencies to honour citizens' entitlement to public information.
2. To retain trust in official statistics, the statistical agencies need to decide according to strictly professional considerations, including scientific principles and professional ethics, on the methods and procedures for the collection, processing storage and presentation of statistical data.
3. To facilitate a correct interpretation of the data, the statistical agencies are to present information according to scientific standards on the sources, methods and procedures of the statistics.
4. The statistical agencies are entitled to comment on erroneous interpretation and misuse of statistics.

5. Data for statistical purposes may be drawn from from all types of sources, be they statistical surveys or administrative records. Statistical agencies are to choose the source with regard to quality, timeliness, costs and the burden on respondents.
6. Individual data collected by statistical agencies for statistical compilation, whether they refer to natural or legal persons, are to be strictly confidential and used exclusively for statistical purposes.
7. The laws, regulations and measures under which the statistical systems operate are to be made public.
8. Co-ordination among statistical agencies within countries is essential to achieve consistency and efficiency in the statistical system.
9. The use by statistical agencies in each country of international concepts, classifications and methods promotes the consistency and efficiency of statistical systems at all official levels.
10. Bilateral and multilateral co-operation in statistics contributes to the improvement of systems of official statistics in all countries.

Source: <http://www.escwa.org.lb/divisions/statistics/main.htm>