

# 2007 | WORLD DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS

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# 2007 | WORLD DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS



THE WORLD BANK



# PREFACE

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You can't monitor development progress without good data. The point may seem obvious, but it bears repeating. What we know about development—successes and failures—depends on the availability and quality of data. Data are the evidence for evidence-based decisionmaking. When we talk about managing for development results, we are talking about using data to plan, implement, guide, and evaluate development programs. We won't know when we have achieved the Millennium Development Goals unless we have the data to measure progress.

Strong statistical systems, based on institutional autonomy, professional integrity, and commitment to high standards, provide the basis for producing credible statistics for informed decisionmaking. That is why we are working with our partners to improve international databases, which provide the data for *World Development Indicators*, and to strengthen national statistical systems, the ultimate source of the data.

Three years ago in Marrakech, Morocco, the Second Roundtable on Managing for Development Results endorsed a new strategy for improving development statistics, the Marrakech Action Plan for Statistics (MAPS). Since then, countries and donor agencies have united behind those joint goals.

Much has been accomplished. With support from the Partnership for Statistics in Development in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century (PARIS21), regional bodies, international agencies, and bilateral donors, 88 countries have adopted National Statistical Development Strategies to guide the maturation of their statistical systems. Many are also subscribers to the General Data Dissemination System. Based on these plans, countries and donors have begun to increase their investments in statistics.

MAPS also called for actions to improve the quality and availability of data needed in the near term to measure progress on national development plans and the Millennium Development Goals. An Accelerated Data Program, piloted in six African countries, is demonstrating that even existing data sets can yield valuable information.

Work on the next round of population and housing censuses has begun. The United Nations Statistics Division has initiated an intergovernmental process to increase support for censuses in developing countries.

Along with censuses, surveys are a major source of development statistics. In 2005 the International Household Survey Network was formed to coordinate activities and provide tools for documenting and archiving surveys, thus ensuring that investments in surveys will continue to pay dividends into the future.

All of these are important steps in building national and international statistical systems that respond to the demand for evidence to guide development. But more remains to be done, and the need is urgent.

The challenges to us—national and international statisticians, donors, data users, and everyone concerned with measuring results—are threefold:

- How to accelerate investment in statistics.
- How to produce statistics that meet the needs of users.
- And how to harmonize donor efforts in support of developing countries as they build their statistical systems.

Building statistical systems is a long-term process. So is our commitment. As we plan for the future, we are learning from our experience and realizing the results of past investments.

# PREFACE

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This year the preliminary results of the International Comparison Program are being released, providing new comparisons of price levels for more than 140 countries. The program, the largest single data collection effort ever undertaken, is a salutary example of what can be accomplished through global partnership, technical innovation, and systematic attention to building local statistical capacity. When the final results become available in next year's *World Development Indicators*, we will know more about the size of the world's economy and the welfare of its people than ever before. And what we have learned by working together through the program will help us to manage new large-scale efforts to improve development statistics.

As always, we welcome your comments and suggestions for making *World Development Indicators*, its databases, and related publications more useful to you.

Shaida Badiie  
Director  
Development Data Group

# ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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This book and its companion volumes, *The Little Data Book* and *The Little Green Data Book*, are prepared by a team led by Eric Swanson and comprising Awatif Abuzeid, Mehdi Akhlaghi, Azita Amjadi, Uranbileg Batjargal, David Cieslikowski, Sebastien Dessus, Richard Fix, Masako Hiraga, Kiyomi Horiuchi, Raymond Muhula, M.H. Saeed Ordoubadi, Brian Pascual, Sulekha Patel, Changqing Sun, and K.M. Vijayalakshmi, working closely with other teams in the Development Economics Vice Presidency's Development Data Group. The CD-ROM development team included Azita Amjadi, Ramgopal Erabelly, Saurabh Gupta, Reza Farivari, and William Prince. The work was carried out under the management of Shaida Badiee.

The choice of indicators and text content was shaped through close consultation with and substantial contributions from staff in the world Bank's four thematic networks—Sustainable Development, Human Development, Poverty Reduction and Economic Management, and Financial and Private Sector Development—and staff of the International Finance Corporation and the Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency. Most important, the team received substantial help, guidance, and data from external partners. For individual acknowledgments of contributions to the book's content, please see *Credits*. For a listing of our key partners, see *Partners*.

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# PARTNERS

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The organizations listed here have made *World Development Indicators* possible by sharing their data and their expertise with us. More important, their collaboration contributes to the World Bank's efforts, and to those of many others, to improve the quality of life of the world's people. We acknowledge our debt and gratitude to all who have helped to build a base of comprehensive, quantitative information about the world and its people.

For easy reference, Web addresses are included for each listed organization. The addresses shown were active on March 1, 2007. Information about the World Bank is also provided.

## International and government agencies

### Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center

The Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center (CDIAC) is the primary global climate change data and information analysis center of the U.S. Department of Energy. The CDIAC's scope includes anything that would potentially be of value to those concerned with the greenhouse effect and global climate change, including concentrations of carbon dioxide and other radiatively active gases in the atmosphere; the role of the terrestrial biosphere and the oceans in the biogeochemical cycles of greenhouse gases; emissions of carbon dioxide to the atmosphere; long-term climate trends; the effects of elevated carbon dioxide on vegetation; and the vulnerability of coastal areas to rising sea levels.

For more information, see <http://cdiac.esd.ornl.gov/>.

### Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit

The Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) GmbH is a German government-owned corporation for international cooperation with worldwide operations. GTZ's aim is to positively shape political, economic, ecological, and social development in partner countries, thereby improving people's living conditions and prospects.

For more information, see [www.gtz.de/](http://www.gtz.de/).



### Food and Agriculture Organization

The Food and Agriculture Organization, a specialized agency of the United Nations, was founded in October 1945 with a mandate to raise nutrition levels and living standards, to increase agricultural productivity, and to better the condition of rural populations. The organization provides direct development assistance; collects, analyzes, and disseminates information; offers policy and planning advice to governments; and serves as an international forum for debate on food and agricultural issues.

For more information, see [www.fao.org/](http://www.fao.org/).



### **International Civil Aviation Organization**

The International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), a specialized agency of the United Nations, is responsible for establishing international standards and recommended practices and procedures for the technical, economic, and legal aspects of international civil aviation operations. ICAO's strategic objectives include enhancing global aviation safety and security and the efficiency of aviation operations, minimizing the adverse effect of global civil aviation on the environment, maintaining the continuity of aviation operations, and strengthening laws governing international civil aviation.

For more information, see [www.icao.int/](http://www.icao.int/).



### **International Labour Organization**

The International Labour Organization (ILO), a specialized agency of the United Nations, seeks the promotion of social justice and internationally recognized human and labor rights. As part of its mandate, the ILO maintains an extensive statistical publication program.

For more information, see [www.ilo.org/](http://www.ilo.org/).



### **International Monetary Fund**

The International Monetary Fund (IMF) was established to promote international monetary cooperation, facilitate the expansion and balanced growth of international trade, promote exchange rate stability, help establish a multilateral payments system, make the general resources of the IMF temporarily available to its members under adequate safeguards, and shorten the duration and lessen the degree of disequilibrium in the international balance of payments of members.

For more information, see [www.imf.org/](http://www.imf.org/).



### **International Telecommunication Union**

The International Telecommunication Union (ITU), a specialized agency of the United Nations, covers all aspects of telecommunication, from setting standards that facilitate seamless interworking of equipment and systems on a global basis to adopting operational procedures for the vast and growing array of wireless services and designing programs to improve telecommunication infrastructure in the developing world. The ITU is also a catalyst for forging development partnerships between government and private industry.

For more information, see [www.itu.int/](http://www.itu.int/).



### **National Science Foundation**

The National Science Foundation (NSF) is an independent U.S. government agency whose mission is to promote the progress of science; to advance the national health, prosperity, and welfare; and to secure the national defense. It is responsible for promoting science and engineering through almost 20,000 research and education projects. In addition, the NSF fosters the exchange of scientific information among scientists and engineers in the United States and other countries, supports programs to strengthen scientific and engineering research potential, and evaluates the impact of research on industrial development and general welfare.

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# PARTNERS

## **Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development**

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) includes 30 member countries sharing a commitment to democratic government and the market economy. With active relationships with some 70 other countries, nongovernmental organizations, and civil society, it has a global reach. It is best known for its publications and statistics, which cover economic and social issues from macroeconomics to trade, education, development, and science and innovation.

The Development Assistance Committee (DAC, [www.oecd.org/dac/](http://www.oecd.org/dac/)) is one of the principal bodies through which the OECD deals with issues related to cooperation with developing countries. The DAC is a key forum of major bilateral donors, who work together to increase the effectiveness of their common efforts to support sustainable development. The DAC concentrates on two key areas: the contribution of international development to the capacity of developing countries to participate in the global economy and the capacity of people to overcome poverty and participate fully in their societies.

For more information, see [www.oecd.org/](http://www.oecd.org/).



## **Stockholm International Peace Research Institute**

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For more information, see [www.sipri.org/](http://www.sipri.org/).



## **Understanding Children's Work**

As part of broader efforts to develop effective and long-term solutions to child labor, the International Labor Organization, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), and the World Bank initiated the joint interagency research program "Understanding Children's Work and Its Impact" in December 2000. The Understanding Children's Work (UCW) project was located at UNICEF's Innocenti Research Centre in Florence, Italy, until June 2004, when it moved to the Centre for International Studies on Economic Growth in Rome.

The UCW project addresses the crucial need for more and better data on child labor. UCW's online database contains data by country on child labor and the status of children.

For more information, see [www.ucw-project.org/](http://www.ucw-project.org/).

## **United Nations**

The United Nations currently has 192 member states. The purposes of the United Nations, as set forth in the Charter, are to maintain international peace and security; to develop friendly relations among nations; to cooperate in solving international economic, social, cultural, and humanitarian problems and in promoting respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms; and to be a center for harmonizing the actions of nations in attaining these ends.

For more information, see [www.un.org/](http://www.un.org/).



### **United Nations Centre for Human Settlements, Global Urban Observatory**

The Urban Indicators Programme of the United Nations Human Settlements Programme was established to address the urgent global need to improve the urban knowledge base by helping countries and cities design, collect, and apply policy-oriented indicators related to development at the city level.

With the Urban Indicators and Best Practices programs, the Global Urban Observatory is establishing a worldwide information, assessment, and capacity building network to help governments, local authorities, the private sector, and nongovernmental and other civil society organizations.

For more information, see [www.unhabitat.org/](http://www.unhabitat.org/).

### **United Nations Children's Fund**

The United Nations Children's Fund works with other UN bodies and with governments and nongovernmental organizations to improve children's lives in more than 140 developing countries through community-based services in primary health care, basic education, and safe water and sanitation.

For more information, see [www.unicef.org/](http://www.unicef.org/).



### **United Nations Conference on Trade and Development**

The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) is the principal organ of the United Nations General Assembly in the field of trade and development. Its mandate is to accelerate economic growth and development, particularly in developing countries. UNCTAD discharges its mandate through policy analysis; intergovernmental deliberations, consensus building, and negotiation; monitoring, implementation, and follow-up; and technical cooperation.

For more information, see [www.unctad.org/](http://www.unctad.org/).



### **United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Institute for Statistics**

The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization is a specialized agency of the United Nations that promotes "collaboration among nations through education, science, and culture in order to further universal respect for justice, for the rule of law, and for the human rights and fundamental freedoms . . . for the peoples of the world, without distinction of race, sex, language, or religion."

For more information, see [www.uis.unesco.org/](http://www.uis.unesco.org/).



### **United Nations Environment Programme**

The mandate of the United Nations Environment Programme is to provide leadership and encourage partnership in caring for the environment by inspiring, informing, and enabling nations and people to improve their quality of life without compromising that of future generations.

For more information, see [www.unep.org/](http://www.unep.org/).



### **United Nations Industrial Development Organization**

The United Nations Industrial Development Organization was established to act as the central coordinating body for industrial activities and to promote industrial development and cooperation at the global, regional,



# PARTNERS

national, and sectoral levels. Its mandate is to help develop scientific and technological plans and programs for industrialization in the public, cooperative, and private sectors.

For more information, see [www.unido.org/](http://www.unido.org/).

## **World Bank Group**

The World Bank Group is the world's largest source of development assistance. Its mission is to fight poverty and improve the living standards of people in the developing world. It is a development bank, providing loans, policy advice, technical assistance, and knowledge sharing services to low- and middle-income countries to reduce poverty. The Bank promotes growth to create jobs and to empower poor people to take advantage of these opportunities. It uses its financial resources, trained staff, and extensive knowledge base to help each developing country onto a path of stable, sustainable, and equitable growth in the fight against poverty. The World Bank Group has 185 member countries.

For more information, see [www.worldbank.org/data/](http://www.worldbank.org/data/).



## **World Health Organization**

The objective of the World Health Organization (WHO), a specialized agency of the United Nations, is the attainment by all people of the highest possible level of health. The WHO carries out a wide range of functions, including coordinating international health work; helping governments strengthen health services; providing technical assistance and emergency aid; working for the prevention and control of disease; promoting improved nutrition, housing, sanitation, recreation, and economic and working conditions; promoting and coordinating biomedical and health services research; promoting improved standards of teaching and training in health and medical professions; establishing international standards for biological, pharmaceutical, and similar products; and standardizing diagnostic procedures.

For more information, see [www.who.int/](http://www.who.int/).



## **World Intellectual Property Organization**

The World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) is an international organization dedicated to helping to ensure that the rights of creators and owners of intellectual property are protected worldwide and that inventors and authors are thus recognized and rewarded for their ingenuity. WIPO's main tasks include harmonizing national intellectual property legislation and procedures, providing services for international applications for industrial property rights, exchanging intellectual property information, providing legal and technical assistance to developing and other countries facilitating the resolution of private intellectual property disputes, and marshalling information technology as a tool for storing, accessing, and using valuable intellectual property information. A substantial part of its activities and resources is devoted to development cooperation with developing countries.

For more information, see [www.wipo.int/](http://www.wipo.int/).



## **World Tourism Organization**

The World Tourism Organization is an intergovernmental body entrusted by the United Nations with promoting and developing tourism. It serves as a global forum for tourism policy issues and a source of tourism know-how.

For more information, see [www.world-tourism.org/](http://www.world-tourism.org/).



### **World Trade Organization**

The World Trade Organization (WTO) is the only international organization dealing with the global rules of trade between nations. Its main function is to ensure that trade flows as smoothly, predictably, and freely as possible. It does this by administering trade agreements, acting as a forum for trade negotiations, settling trade disputes, reviewing national trade policies, assisting developing countries in trade policy issues—through technical assistance and training programs—and cooperating with other international organizations. At the heart of the system—known as the multilateral trading system—are the WTO's agreements, negotiated and signed by a large majority of the world's trading nations and ratified by their parliaments.

For more information, see [www.wto.org/](http://www.wto.org/).



### **Private and nongovernmental organizations**

#### **Containerisation International**

*Containerisation International Yearbook* is one of the most authoritative reference books on the container industry. The information can be accessed on the Containerisation International Web site, which also provides a comprehensive online daily business news and information service for the container industry.

For more information, see [www.ci-online.co.uk/](http://www.ci-online.co.uk/).



#### **International Institute for Strategic Studies**

The International Institute for Strategic Studies (IISS) provides information and analysis on strategic trends and facilitates contacts between government leaders, business people, and analysts that could lead to better public policy in international security and international relations. The IISS is a primary source of accurate, objective information on international strategic issues.

For more information, see [www.iiss.org/](http://www.iiss.org/).



#### **International Road Federation**

The International Road Federation (IRF) is a nongovernmental, not-for-profit organization with a mission to encourage and promote development and maintenance of better and safer roads and road networks. It helps put in place technological solutions and management practices that provide maximum economic and social returns from national road investments.

The IRF has a major role to play in all aspects of road policy and development worldwide. For governments and financial institutions, the IRF provides a wide base of expertise for planning road development strategy and policy. For its members, the IRF is a business network, a link to external institutions and agencies and a business card of introduction to government officials and decisionmakers. For the community of road professionals, the IRF is a source of support and information for national road associations, advocacy groups, companies, and institutions dedicated to the development of road infrastructure.

For more information, see [www.irfnet.org/](http://www.irfnet.org/).



# PARTNERS

## **Netcraft**

Netcraft's work includes the provision of network security services and research data and analysis of the Internet. It is an authority on the market share of Web servers, operating systems, hosting providers, Internet service providers, encrypted transactions, electronic commerce, scripting languages, and content technologies on the Internet.

For more information, see [www.netcraft.com/](http://www.netcraft.com/).

## **PricewaterhouseCoopers**

PricewaterhouseCoopers provides industry-focused assurance, tax, and advisory services for public and private clients in corporate accountability, risk management, structuring and mergers and acquisitions, and performance and process improvement.

For more information, see [www.pwcglobal.com/](http://www.pwcglobal.com/).

## **Standard & Poor's Emerging Markets Data Base**

Standard & Poor's Emerging Markets Data Base (EMDB) is the world's leading source for information and indices on stock markets in developing countries. It currently covers 53 markets and more than 2,600 stocks. Drawing a sample of stocks in each EMD market, Standard & Poor's calculates indices to serve as benchmarks that are consistent across national boundaries. Standard & Poor's calculates one index, the S&P/IFCG (Global) index, that reflects the perspective of local investors and those interested in broad trends in emerging markets and another, the S&P/IFCI (Investable) index, that provides a broad, neutral, and historically consistent benchmark for the growing emerging market investment community.

For more information, see [www.standardandpoors.com/](http://www.standardandpoors.com/).

## **World Conservation Monitoring Centre**

The World Conservation Monitoring Centre provides information on the conservation and sustainable use of the world's living resources and helps others to develop information systems of their own. It works in close collaboration with a wide range of people and organizations to increase access to the information needed for wise management of the world's living resources.

For more information, see [www.unep-wcmc.org/](http://www.unep-wcmc.org/).

## **World Information Technology and Services Alliance**

The World Information Technology and Services Alliance (WITSA) is the global voice of the information technology industry. It is dedicated to advocating policies that advance the industry's growth and development; facilitating international trade and investment in information technology products and services; strengthening WITSA's national industry associations; and providing members with a broad network of contacts. WITSA also hosts the World Congress on Information Technology and other worldwide events.

For more information, see [www.witsa.org/](http://www.witsa.org/).

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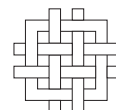


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**World Resources Institute**

The World Resources Institute is an independent center for policy research and technical assistance on global environmental and development issues. The institute provides—and helps other institutions provide—objective information and practical proposals for policy and institutional change that will foster environmentally sound, socially equitable development. The institute's current areas of work include trade, forests, energy, economics, technology, biodiversity, human health, climate change, sustainable agriculture, resource and environmental information, and national strategies for environmental and resource management.

For more information, see [www.wri.org/](http://www.wri.org/).



# USERS GUIDE

## Tables

The tables are numbered by section and display the identifying icon of the section. Countries and economies are listed alphabetically (except for Hong Kong, China, which appears after China). Data are shown for 152 economies with populations of more than 1 million, as well as for Taiwan, China, in selected tables. Table 1.6 presents selected indicators for 56 other economies—small economies with populations between 30,000 and 1 million and smaller economies if they are members of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) or, as it is commonly known, the World Bank. The term *country*, used interchangeably with *economy*, does not imply political independence, but refers to any territory for which authorities report separate social or economic statistics. When available, aggregate measures for income and regional groups appear at the end of each table.

Indicators are shown for the most recent year or period for which data are available and, in most tables, for an earlier year or period (usually 1990 in this edition). Time-series data are available on the *World Development Indicators* CD-ROM and in *WDI Online*.

Known deviations from standard definitions or breaks in comparability over time or across countries are either footnoted in the tables or noted in *About the data*. When available data are deemed to be too weak to provide reliable measures of levels and trends or do not adequately adhere to international standards, the data are not shown.

## Aggregate measures for income groups

The aggregate measures for income groups include 208 economies (the economies listed in the main tables plus those in table 1.6) whenever data are available. To maintain consistency in the aggregate measures over time and between tables, missing data are imputed where possible. The aggregates are totals (designated by a *t* if the aggregates include gap-filled estimates for missing data and by an *s*, for simple totals, where they do not), median values (*m*),

weighted averages (*w*), or simple averages (*u*). Gap filling of amounts not allocated to countries may result in discrepancies between subgroup aggregates and overall totals. For further discussion of aggregation methods, see *Statistical methods*.

## Aggregate measures for regions

The aggregate measures for regions include only low- and middle-income economies (note that these measures include developing economies with populations of less than 1 million, including those listed in table 1.6).

The country composition of regions is based on the World Bank's analytical regions and may differ from common geographic usage. For regional classifications, see the map on the inside back cover and the list on the back cover flap. For further discussion of aggregation methods, see *Statistical methods*.

## Statistics

Data are shown for economies as they were constituted in 2005, and historical data are revised to reflect current political arrangements. Exceptions are noted throughout the tables.

Additional information about the data is provided in *Primary data documentation*. That section summarizes national and international efforts to improve basic data collection and gives country-level information on primary sources, census years, fiscal years, statistical methods and concepts used, and other background information. *Statistical methods* provides technical information on some of the general calculations and formulas used throughout the book.

## Data consistency, reliability, and comparability

Considerable effort has been made to standardize the data, but full comparability cannot be assured, and care must be taken in interpreting the indicators. Many factors affect data availability, comparability, and reliability: statistical systems in many developing economies are still weak; statistical methods,

coverage, practices, and definitions differ widely; and cross-country and intertemporal comparisons involve complex technical and conceptual problems that cannot be resolved unequivocally. Data coverage may not be complete because of special circumstances affecting the collection and reporting of data, such as problems stemming from conflicts.

For these reasons, although data are drawn from the sources thought to be most authoritative, they should be construed only as indicating trends and characterizing major differences among economies rather than as offering precise quantitative measures of those differences. Discrepancies in data presented in different editions of *World Development Indicators* reflect updates by countries as well as revisions to historical series and changes in methodology. Thus readers are advised not to compare data series between editions of *World Development Indicators* or between different World Bank publications. Consistent time-series data for 1960–2005 are available on the *World Development Indicators* CD-ROM and in *WDI Online*.

Except where otherwise noted, growth rates are in real terms. (See *Statistical methods* for information on the methods used to calculate growth rates.) Data for some economic indicators for some economies are presented in fiscal years rather than calendar years; see *Primary data documentation*. All dollar figures are current U.S. dollars unless otherwise stated. The methods used for converting national currencies are described in *Statistical methods*.

## Country notes

- Unless otherwise noted, data for China do not include data for Hong Kong, China; Macao, China; or Taiwan, China.
- Data for Indonesia include Timor-Leste through 1999 unless otherwise noted.
- Although Montenegro declared independence from Serbia and Montenegro on June 3, 2006, this edition of *World Development Indicators* continues to list and show data for Serbia and Montenegro together; any exceptions are noted. Data

from 1999 onward for Serbia and Montenegro for most indicators exclude data for Kosovo, a territory within Serbia that is currently under international administration pursuant to UN Security Council Resolution 1244 (1999); any exceptions are noted.

### Classification of economies

For operational and analytical purposes the World Bank's main criterion for classifying economies is gross national income (GNI) per capita (calculated by the *World Bank Atlas* method). Every economy is classified as low income, middle income (subdivided into lower middle and upper middle), or high income. For income classifications see the map on the inside front cover and the list on the front cover flap. Low- and middle-income economies are sometimes referred to as developing economies. The term is used for convenience; it is not intended to imply that all economies in the group are experiencing similar development or that other economies have reached a preferred or final stage of development. Note that classification by income does not necessarily reflect development status. Because GNI per capita changes over time, the country composition of income groups may change from one edition of *World Development Indicators* to the next. Once the classification is fixed for an edition, based on GNI per capita in the most recent year for which data are available (2005 in this edition), all historical data presented are based on the same country grouping.

Low-income economies are those with a GNI per capita of \$875 or less in 2005. Middle-income economies are those with a GNI per capita of more than \$875 but less than \$10,726. Lower middle-income and upper middle-income economies are separated at a GNI per capita of \$3,465. High-income economies are those with a GNI per capita of \$10,726 or more. The 13 participating member countries of the European Monetary Union (EMU) are presented as a subgroup under high-income economies. Note that Slovenia joined the EMU on January 1, 2007.

### Symbols

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means that data are not available or that aggregates cannot be calculated because of missing data in the years shown.

0 or 0.0

means zero or small enough that the number would round to zero at the displayed number of decimal places.

/

in dates, as in 2003/04, means that the period of time, usually 12 months, straddles two calendar years and refers to a crop year, a survey year, or a fiscal year.

\$

means current U.S. dollars unless otherwise noted.

>

means more than.

<

means less than.

### Data presentation conventions

- A blank means not applicable or, for an aggregate, not analytically meaningful.
- A billion is 1,000 million.
- A trillion is 1,000 billion.
- Figures in italics refer to years or periods other than those specified or to growth rates calculated for less than the full period specified.
- Data for years that are more than three years from the range shown are footnoted.

The cutoff date for data is February 1, 2007.

# WORLD VIEW



# M

## Measuring development—in ways familiar and new

To achieve the Millennium Development Goals by 2015 many countries need to quickly improve their economic growth and their education and health systems, their management of environmental resources, and their infrastructure for water, sanitation, telecommunications, and transportation.

Over the last 10 years developing economies have grown faster than in any period since 1965—and even faster since 2000. While the global picture is dominated by the larger economies—Brazil, China, India, Russia, and South Africa, recently joined by the major oil exporters—more are now doing well and fewer have suffered severe recessions, raising average growth rates.

Economic growth is a clear marker of development, and countries that grow usually reduce poverty. But if the fruits of growth are not widely shared many poor people can be left behind even as average incomes rise. Nor does economic growth guarantee that access to water will improve or that more children will attend school. But failing to grow almost always makes matters worse.

In considering the recent progress of developing countries on many social, economic, and environmental indicators, the Millennium Development Goals set one standard for all countries. But country performance is influenced by many factors. One is the starting point. Countries starting from worse positions have the potential to make faster progress, as they may benefit from the experience and technologies of more advanced economies. But poor countries may also face unusual obstacles in reaching their development goals. In either case, comparing a country's progress over the last decade with the average progress of those starting from a similar position can help to identify countries that have made exceptional progress—and those whose progress has been unexpectedly slow.

This section compares the progress of developing countries measured by the rate of change of selected indicators after first taking into account countries' starting points. The difference between actual progress and the average progress of countries starting from a similar position is referred to as *country performance*, and countries are classified as follows:

- *Best performers* are significantly above the average of countries with similar starting points.
- *Good performers* are above average, yet not significantly so in a statistical sense.
- *Poor performers* are below the average, yet not significantly so in a statistical sense.
- *Worst performers* are significantly below the average of countries with similar starting points.

Those that perform well on one indicator may not perform well on another. The patterns are complex, but they begin to highlight more of the diversity—and sometimes the commonality—of outcomes in development.

# Economic growth

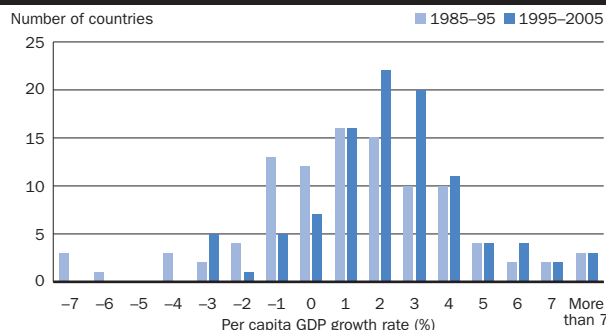
Per capita GDP growth accelerated in low- and middle-income countries in the last decade (1995–2005), as more countries grew at a moderate pace and fewer experienced severe recessions (figure 1a). And it was systematically faster in developing countries than in high-income countries in the last five years—for the first time since the de-colonization period (figure 1b).

Current projections suggest that developing countries will continue to grow more rapidly than high-income ones in the next 25 years. Based on these scenarios, the developing country share of the global economy could rise from 23 percent of world GDP today to 31 percent in 2030, and developing country average incomes could increase from 16 percent to 24 percent of those of high-income countries (World Bank, *Global Economic Prospects 2007*). But the income gap between developing and high-income economies will remain substantial, and the absolute difference in per capita incomes will continue to widen.

Although developing economies as a whole are catching up with high-income economies, there is little evidence of convergence between low- and middle-income economies. For them, the relationship between per capita growth rates and initial levels of per capita GDP shows that lower initial per capita GDP was not systematically associated with higher per capita GDP growth (figure 1c). This tells us that countries start out with roughly the same potential for economic growth. Differences in performance are likely to be associated with policies and institutions that encourage productive investment in human, social, and physical capital. But luck also plays an important role, particularly in the small and poor countries, which are more sensitive to external shocks, good and bad: conflicts, terms of trade, and the like.

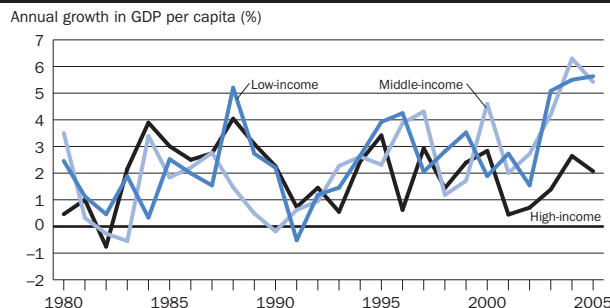
Globalization's intense pace in the last decade—in trade, finance, technology, ideas, and migration—has changed the external environment for countries. Most developing countries have further integrated into world markets, notably through a reduction in trade barriers and transport costs. Here, trade integration is measured by the ratio of imports and exports of goods and services to GDP. For countries starting from

**Faster growth, less dispersion among developing economies in the last decade 1a**



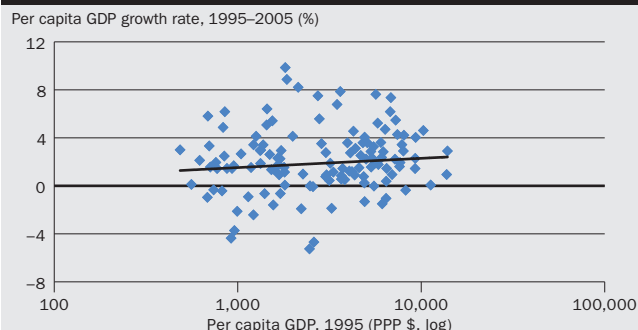
**Note:** Based on 100 country observations.  
**Source:** World Bank staff calculations.

**Growth accelerated in low- and middle-income countries 1b**



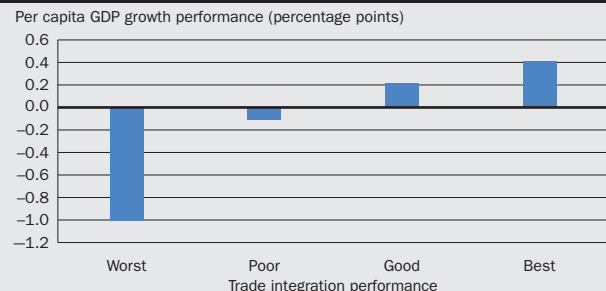
**Note:** Based on market exchange rates.  
**Source:** World Bank staff calculations.

**Poor developing countries are not systematically catching up with richer ones 1c**



**Note:** Based on 125 country observations.  
**Source:** World Bank staff calculations.

**Countries that opened up to trade also performed better on growth 1d**



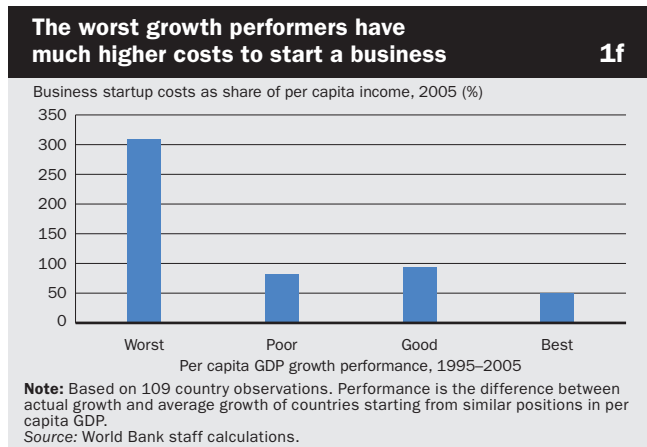
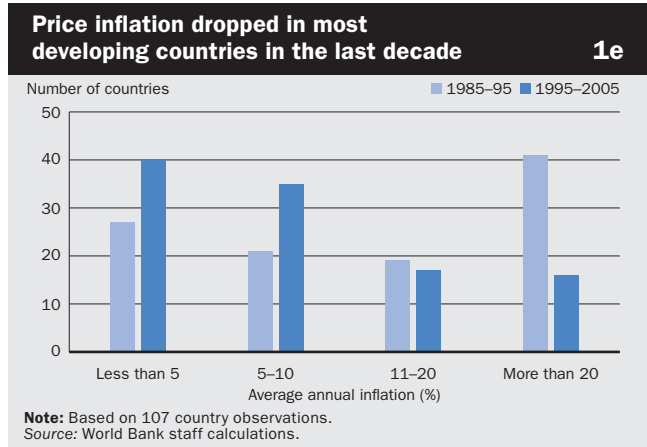
**Note:** Based on 109 country observations. Performance is the difference between actual rate of change and average rate of change of countries starting from similar positions in trade integration or per capita GDP. Trade integration is measured by the ratio of imports and exports of goods and services to GDP.  
**Source:** World Bank staff calculations.



similar positions, countries integrating less rapidly recorded much lower per capita GDP growth (figure 1d). But that does not mean that trade integration necessarily causes growth. Other factors, such as gains in competitiveness caused by domestic policies, can cause both faster growth and increased trade.

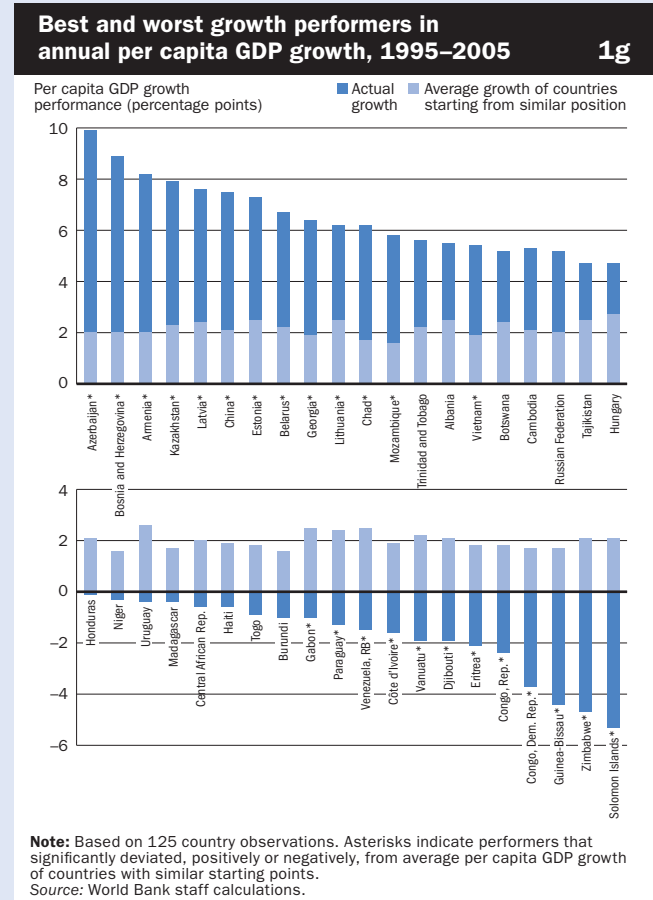
Macroeconomic management also improved in the developing world, reflected in the sharp drop in the number of countries with very high price inflation (figure 1e). The best growth performers recorded average annual inflation of 12 percent over the last decade—worst performers, 29 percent.

Cumbersome business environments also hamper growth. The cost of starting a private business, as a percentage of per capita income, is an indicator of the opportunity for entrepreneurs to develop new economic activities and to compete with existing businesses, an important force driving economic growth. That cost varies from less than 5 percent to a striking 1,440 percent—or 14 years of per capita income in 2005. Countries that performed worst on growth in the last decade also had much higher startup costs than other countries in 2005 (figure 1f).



Country growth performance is benchmarked against the average growth rate for countries that started with a similar per capita GDP in 1995 (in purchasing power parity terms). Because initial levels of per capita GDP had little influence on growth rates over the period, potential average growth is almost identical for all countries (figure 1g). The best and worst performers, which significantly deviated from averages in one direction or the other, are marked with an asterisk.

Among rapidly growing countries, many are in Eastern Europe or are oil exporters. One can also find some post-conflict countries. At the slow end of the spectrum are countries that experienced major conflicts or financial crises in the last decade, are landlocked, or are far from major trade routes. Most of them are located in Sub-Saharan Africa.



# Poverty reduction

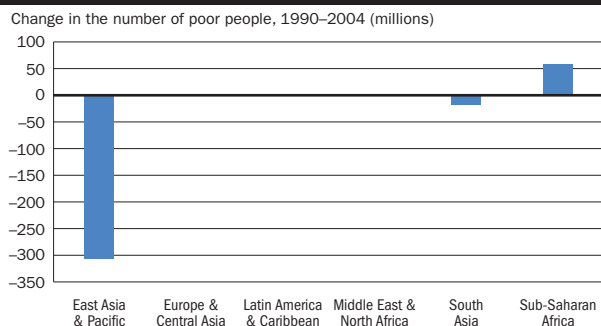
The number of people living on less than \$1 a day in developing countries fell by more than 260 million over 1990–2004, thanks in large part to massive poverty reduction in China. In contrast, the number of poor people continued to increase in Sub-Saharan Africa, rising by almost 60 million (figure 1h). In turn, the share of the population in Sub-Saharan Africa living on less than \$1 a day dropped from 47 percent in 1990 to 41 percent in 2004 (figure 1i).

The Millennium Development Goal of halving the proportion of poor people is still within reach at the worldwide level—with a projected decline from 29 percent to 10 percent between 1990 and 2015. But many countries will most likely not reach it, particularly those in Sub-Saharan Africa, where average poverty rates remain above 40 percent, raising concerns of widening inequalities between regions.

The responsiveness of poverty to growth depends on the distribution of income (or consumption) and how it changes. Many factors influence how the benefits of growth are shared: health, education, infrastructure, gender parity, social safety nets, rule of law, political voice and participation, and access to markets, technology, information, and credit (World Bank 2005d). In the last decade poverty reduction was not always or everywhere commensurate with income growth. In some countries and regions, inequality worsened, as poor people did not reap the fruits of economic expansion, lacking opportunities to do so.

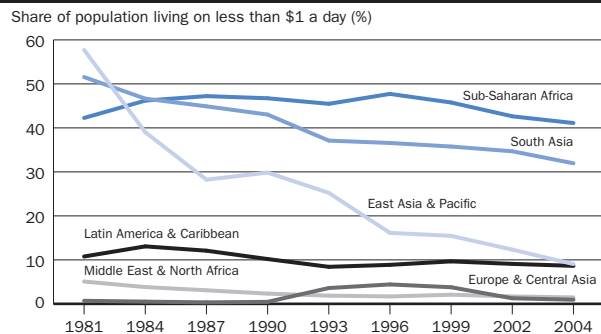
Fifty-nine countries with comparable \$1 or \$2 a day poverty data measured at two points in time (with a gap of at least 10 years) over the last two decades show that growth and changes in income distribution can reinforce or offset their effects on poverty reduction (figures 1j and 1k). In 26 cases income growth was accompanied by increased inequality, and in 20 more income distribution worsened as average incomes fell.

**The number of poor people declined, mostly in East Asia and Pacific** 1h



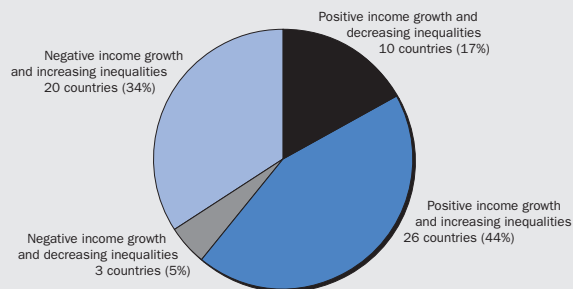
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

**Poverty rates are on the decline in South and East Asia** 1i



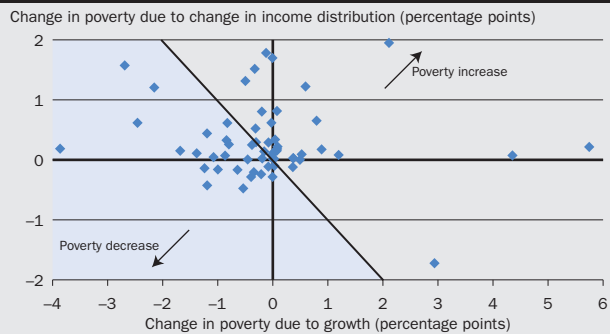
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

**Inequality has increased in many countries, with or without growth** 1j



Note: Based on 59 country observations.  
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

**Changes in income growth and distribution both affect poverty reduction** 1k

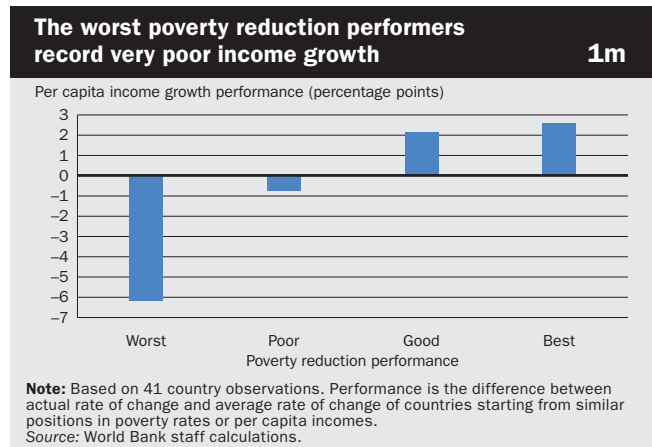
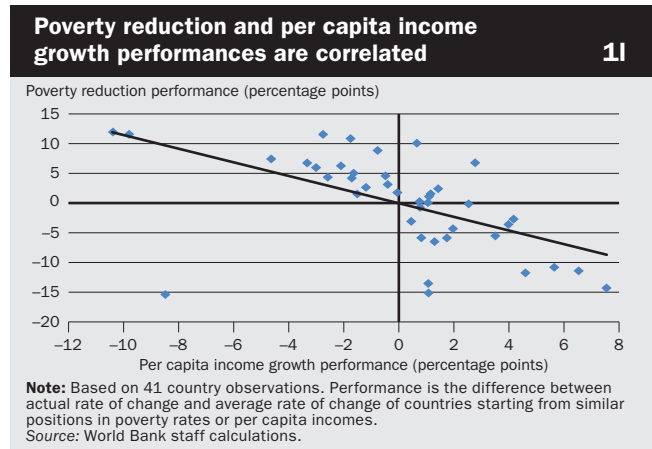


Note: Based on 59 country observations.  
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

But this is not to say that growth is bad for poverty reduction. In 17 cases the contribution of growth to poverty reduction surpassed the negative impact of worsening inequality, and in another 11 cases reduction in inequality added to the poverty-reducing effect of positive growth. In only one case—out of 60—was poverty reduced despite negative income growth.

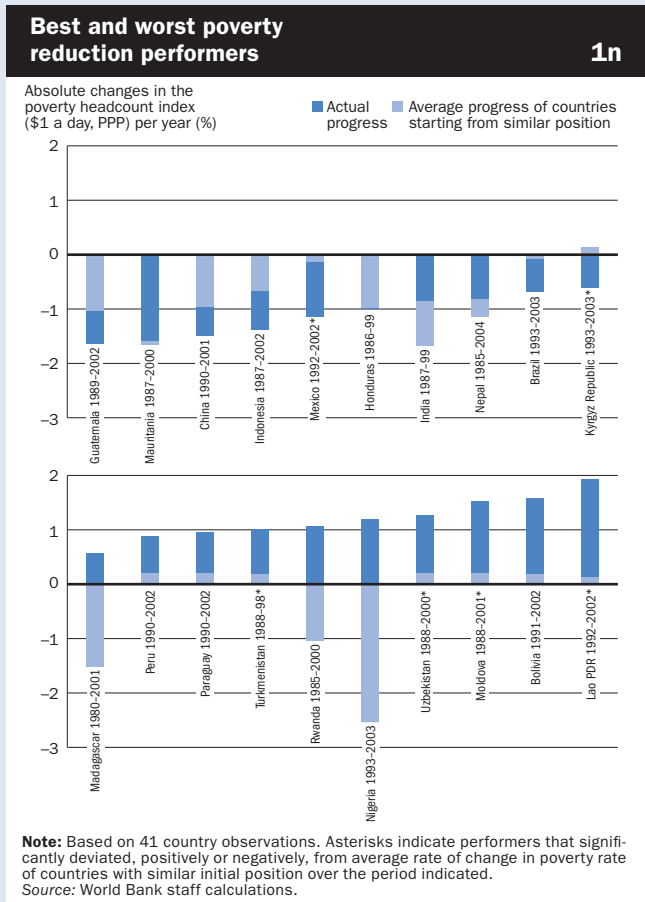
Looking at the relationship between countries' per capita income growth and performance in reducing \$1 a day poverty (controlling for starting points) also suggests a positive and significant statistical relationship between the two (figure 1l).

The worst poverty reduction performers recorded particularly weak income growth performance (figure 1m). But the distinction among the three other groups of performers (poor, good, and best) is less pronounced. This suggests that the relationship between income growth and poverty reduction is more diverse when the economy is not in deep recession. In other words, income growth is necessary but may not be sufficient for sustained poverty reduction.



Countries are ranked here by poverty reduction in the most recent 10-year period with data (figure 1n; periods vary from country to country depending on the availability of poverty surveys). Also shown is the average poverty reduction of countries starting from a similar initial poverty rate. The best and worst performers, which significantly deviated from expectations in one direction or the other, are marked with an asterisk.

There is great diversity in the characteristics of good performers. Among them are low- and middle-income countries from most regions and with varying population sizes. Note too that the best and worst performers are not necessarily the countries that recorded the largest absolute changes in poverty rates. Mauritania, for example, recorded a substantial reduction but still fell short of the average performance of countries with similar initial poverty rates. Mexico experienced a smaller poverty reduction but significantly exceeded the average benchmark.

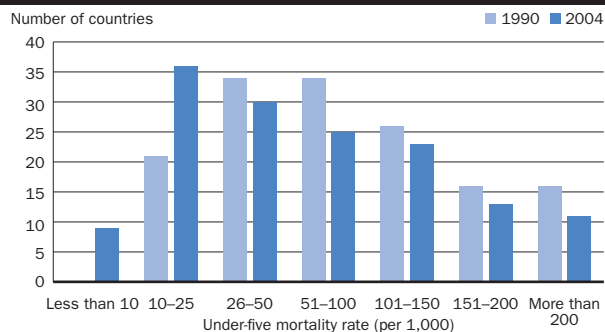


More than 10 million children in developing countries die before the age of five every year, mostly from preventable illnesses. Child mortality has declined in every region since 1990 (figure 1o), but progress is slow: only 35 countries are on track to meet the Millennium Development Goal of reducing under-five mortality by two-thirds between 1990 and 2015. Progress is particularly slow in Sub-Saharan Africa, where AIDS, malaria, and malnutrition are driving up mortality rates.

Improving maternal health, itself a goal, is a powerful instrument for reducing child mortality. More than 500,000 women in developing countries die in childbirth each year, and at least 10 million suffer injuries, infections, and disabilities. High mortality results from malnutrition, frequent pregnancies, and inadequate healthcare during pregnancy and delivery. Women are receiving better care during childbirth, with the proportion of births attended by skilled health staff going up from 60 percent to 70 percent between 1990 and 2004 (figure 1p). Countries in Africa and South Asia nevertheless lag behind, with much lower ratios.

**Under-five mortality rates have improved almost everywhere**

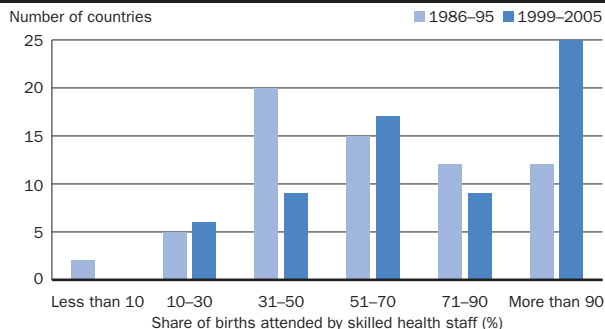
1o



Note: Based on 147 country observations.  
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

**The proportion of births attended by skilled staff increased greatly in many countries**

1p



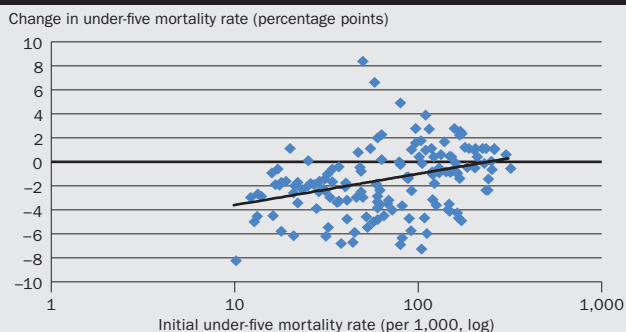
Note: Based on 66 country observations.  
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

Performance in reducing child mortality is measured by progress from a given starting position. Worrying—and unlike other development goals—countries with high initial mortality rates face greater difficulties in reducing them (in relative terms) than do countries starting from more favorable positions (figure 1q). HIV/AIDS and other communicable diseases are probably behind this, as countries with higher HIV prevalence rates record significantly lower reductions in child mortality. Countries with high under-five mortality rates are also often countries where malaria is prevalent and difficult to curb.

Economic growth is associated with improving mortality outcomes. On average, good and best performers in reducing under-five mortality had significantly higher growth performance than did poor and worst performers (figure 1r). Accordingly, country case studies emphasize the influence of poverty in determining child mortality. Because poor children are more likely to be malnourished and to receive less healthcare, they are more exposed to the risk of dying before the age of five.

**Countries with high initial mortality rates progress more slowly**

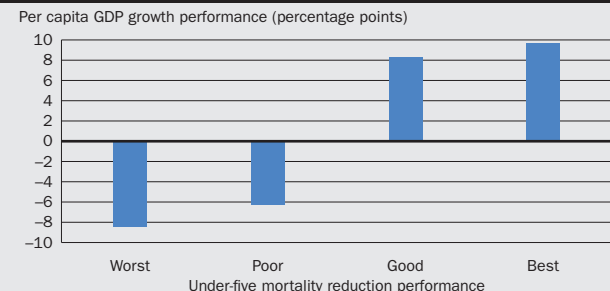
1q



Note: Based on 147 country observations.  
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

**Under-five mortality reduction performance is associated with good growth performance**

1r



Note: Based on 116 country observations. Performance is the difference between actual rate of change and average rate of change of countries starting from similar positions in under-five mortality rates or per capita GDP.  
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

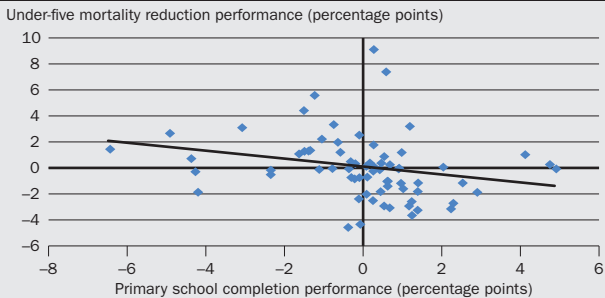
Performance in reducing under-five mortality rates is significantly associated with education (primary school completion) and gender (equal access to schooling), suggesting that there are synergies among the Millennium Development Goals (figure 1s).

The relationship between per capita GDP growth performance and improvements in maternal healthcare performance (as measured by the proportion of births attended by skilled health staff) is not straightforward—no direct statistical relationship can be observed between the two. But performance in improving maternal healthcare is strongly associated with performance in reducing under-five mortality (figure 1t). This might not reflect any direct causal relationship between these two indicators. Rather, it could reflect the impact of health infrastructure and policies on these two indicators.

Countries are ranked here by their reduction in under-five mortality rates over 1990–2004 (figure 1u). Also shown is the average reduction of countries starting from a similar position. The best and worst performers, which far exceeded averages in one direction or the other, are marked with an asterisk.

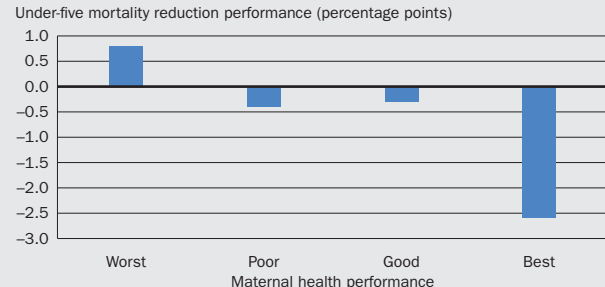
Most of the worst performers are in Sub-Saharan Africa, where HIV is rampant, particularly in the east and south. But Sub-Saharan Africa also hosts some of the countries that recorded the largest drops in under-five mortality. In South Asia 4 of the 8 countries are among the 10 countries that recorded the largest improvements in mortality rates. Three of them are among the best performers, after accounting for their starting positions. Iraq, starting from a favorable initial position, saw its under-five mortality rate grow from 50 to 125 per 1,000 over the period 1990–2004.

### Important synergies between health- and education-related Millennium Development Goals 1s



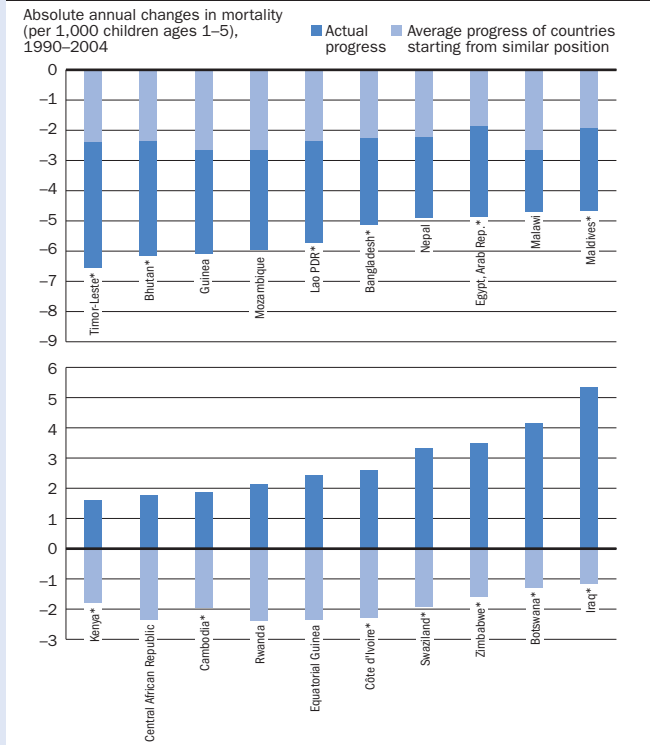
**Note:** Based on 70 country observations. Performance is the difference between actual rate of change and average rate of change of countries starting from similar positions in under-five mortality rates or primary school completion rates. Source: World Bank staff calculations.

### Performance in maternal health and under-five mortality are associated 1t



**Note:** Based on 66 country observations. Performance is the difference between actual rate of change and average rate of change of countries starting from similar positions in maternal healthcare or under-five mortality rates. Source: World Bank staff calculations.

### Best and worst performers in reducing child mortality 1u



**Note:** Based on 147 country observations. Asterisks indicate performers that significantly deviated, positively or negatively, from average rate of change in under-five mortality rate of countries with similar initial position. Source: World Bank staff calculations.

# Education and gender

As a result of significant progress over the last decade, the average primary completion rate has risen from 62 percent to 72 percent (figure 1v). But even at this pace Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia may not reach the Millennium Development Goals target of having all children of relevant age complete primary school by 2015. In 2001–02 it was estimated that about 100 million primary-school-age children were not attending school, three-quarters of them in these two regions.

Beyond the necessity of educating all children, eliminating discrimination against girls' participation in school is a powerful instrument for empowering half the world's people, improving the health of children, and reducing poverty. Progress in eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary school has been remarkable in the last decade (figure 1w). On average the deviation from perfect parity (a gender parity index of 100 percent) shrank from 14 percent in 1991 to 8 percent in 2003–05.

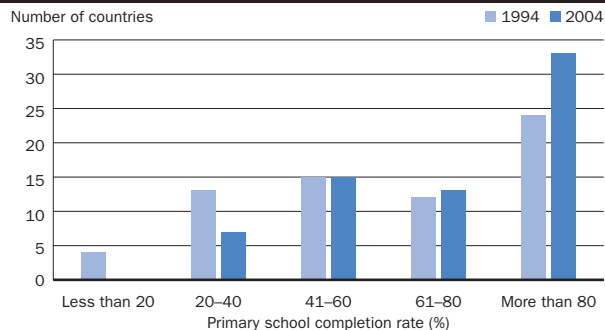
The ability of countries to raise their primary school completion rates in the last decade was determined largely by their starting point. Countries with lower initial primary completion rates made faster progress (figure 1x), probably reflecting the fact that it becomes more difficult and costly to enroll and keep all children in school as the number of those left out falls. Country case studies suggest that girls, poor children, and children living in rural areas are less likely to complete schooling. These are the areas where faster progress must be made to achieve education for all.

Improvements in gender parity in school are also significantly associated with initial conditions. On average countries starting with greater initial gender disparity have made faster progress (figure 1y).

When all children are enrolled and complete school, there will be no gender disparity in school. Over the last decade the number of countries in which the number of boys in primary and secondary schools exceed that of girls by more than 40 percent (a gender parity index below 60 percent) fell—from

**Most countries are progressing in primary school completion**

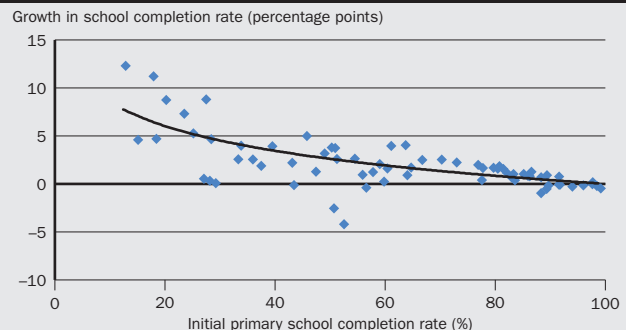
1v



Note: Based on 68 country observations.  
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

**Countries starting from low levels progress faster in primary school completion**

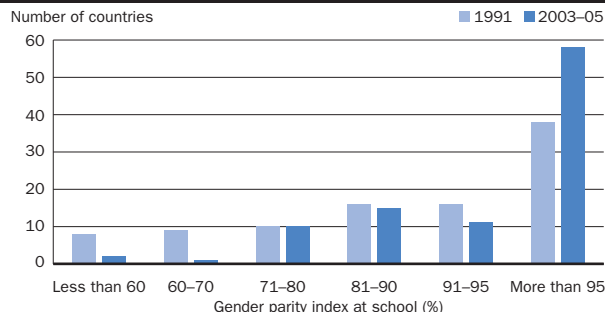
1x



Note: Based on 70 country observations.  
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

**The number of countries with large gender disparity gaps in school is falling rapidly**

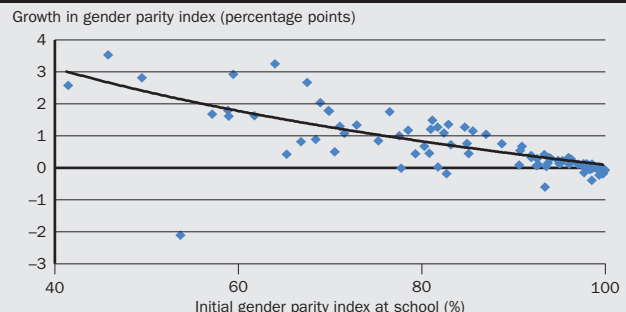
1w



Note: Based on 97 country observations. The gender parity index is equal to 100 minus the relative excess or deficit of boys over girls in primary and secondary school.  
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

**Countries starting from low levels improve gender parity more rapidly**

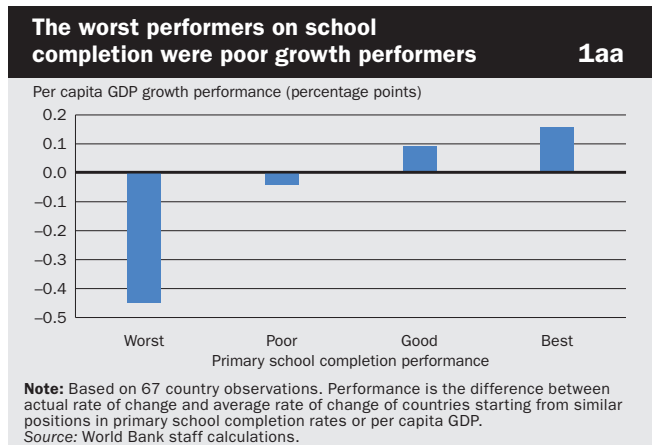
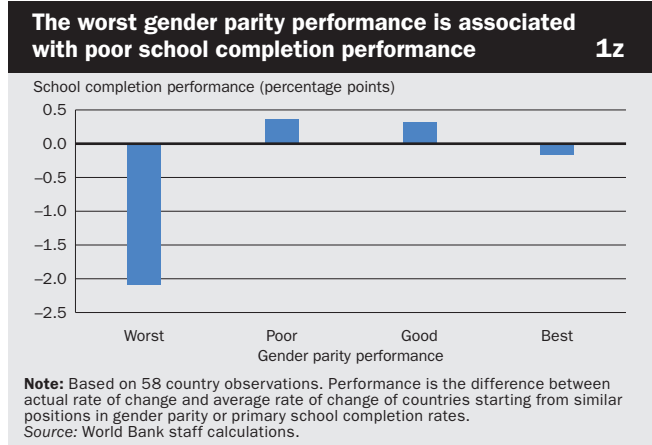
1y



Note: Based on 97 country observations. The gender parity index is equal to 100 minus the relative excess or deficit of boys over girls in primary and secondary school.  
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

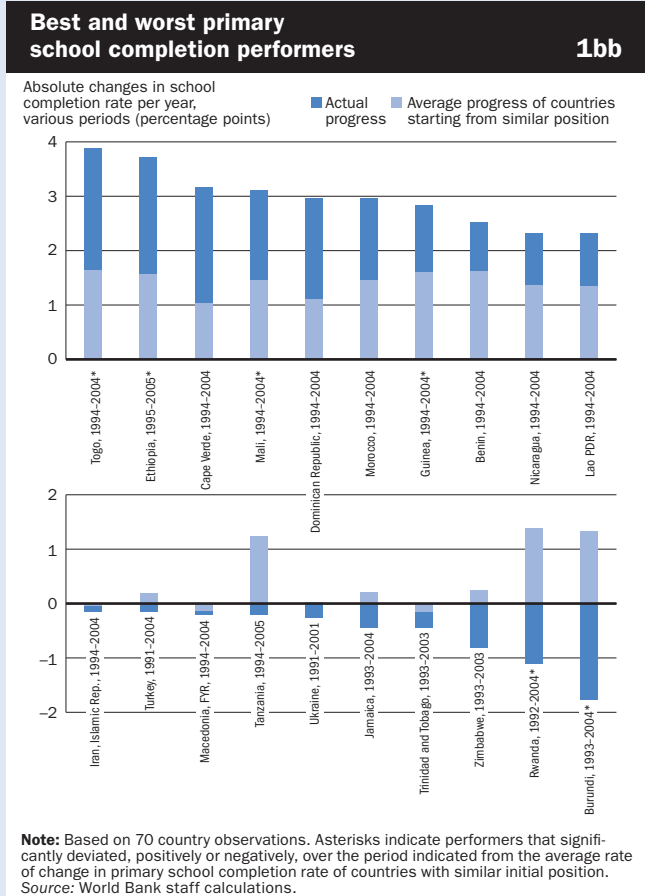
17 (of 97) to 3. And the number of countries with gender parity index above 90 percent increased from 54 to 69. But the relationship between school completion and improvements in gender parity performance (accounting for initial conditions) appears to be more pronounced and uniform on the negative side than it is on the positive side (figure 1z). Countries that most improved their gender parity index did not record significantly higher school completion performances. But countries in which gender parity declined the most were countries where school completion performance was also particularly poor, possibly reflecting the fact that dropout rates are higher for girls than for boys during difficult periods.

There is not a statistically significant correlation between performance in per capita GDP growth and primary school completion. While the relationship shows up at the extremes—the best and worst school completion performers record very distinct growth performances—the growth performance of poor school completion performers cannot be clearly distinguished from that of good performers (figure 1aa).



Countries are ranked here by their primary school completion progress in the last decade (figure 1bb). Also shown is the average progress of countries starting from a similar position. The best and worst performers, which far exceeded averages in one direction or the other, are marked with an asterisk.

The two groups of performers, best and worst, both include a large number of Sub-Saharan African countries, illustrating the diversity of performance in the region. Developing countries improved their primary completion rates by 1 percentage point every year on average over the last decade or so. The best performers all recorded yearly increases exceeding 2.8 percentage points.



Access to improved water sources and emissions of carbon dioxide are among the indicators that the international community uses to monitor progress toward environmental sustainability.

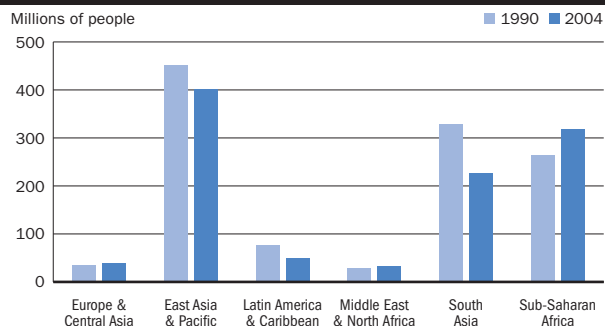
Today, more than a billion people in developing countries lack access to an adequately protected source of water close to their dwellings (figure 1cc). Progress to improve access has been significant in the last decade, but probably insufficient in Africa to meet the 2015 Millennium Development Goal target of halving the proportion of people in 1990 without sustainable access to safe drinking water.

The role of carbon dioxide in climate change is now well documented, but the use of carbon-based energy has additional effects on human health through local air pollution. Yet emissions mount as countries grow economically, unless they reduce the carbon content of their economic activity through technological progress or shift away from carbon-intensive production and consumption (figure 1dd).

Between 1990 and 2004 the proportion of people in developing countries with access to an improved water source increased from 73 percent to 80 percent, and the number of countries with more than half the population lacking access fell from 24 to 11 (figure 1ee). Countries starting from lower positions advanced faster.

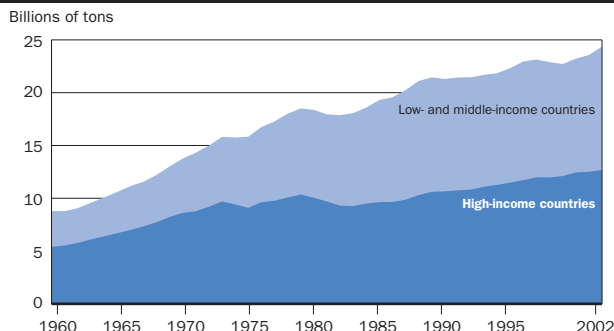
Economic activity, agriculture, and industry in particular compete with human needs for access to water sources. But greater wealth and urbanization allow more of the population to connect to safe drinking water networks. The data do not reveal a statistically significant correlation between water access and growth performance overall. But the worst growth performers distinctively record poor water access performance (figure 1ff). Such countries may also be those with degraded water infrastructure and poor management capacity.

**More than a billion people still lack access to safe drinking water** 1cc



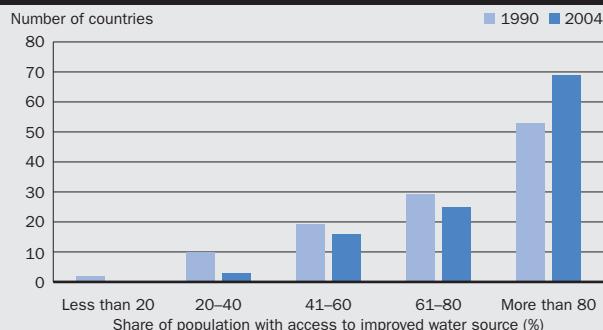
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

**Carbon dioxide emissions are mounting and accumulating in the atmosphere** 1dd



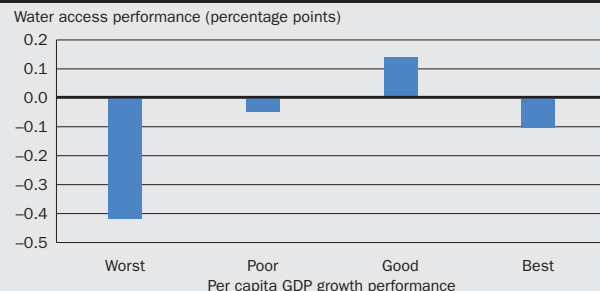
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

**Access to water improved almost everywhere** 1ee



Note: Based on 113 country observations.  
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

**Growth and water access performance are not systematically associated** 1ff

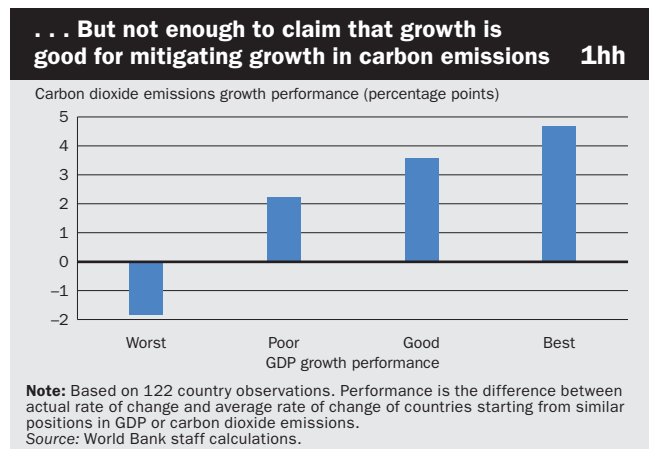
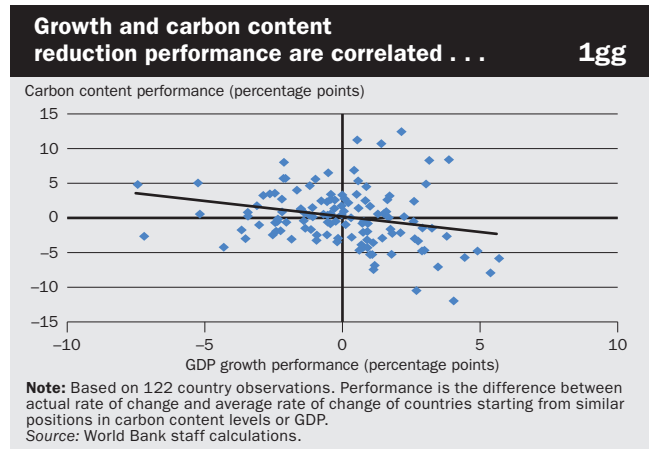


Note: Based on 84 country observations. Performance is the difference between actual rate of change and average rate of change of countries starting from similar positions in per capita GDP or water access.  
Source: World Bank staff calculations.



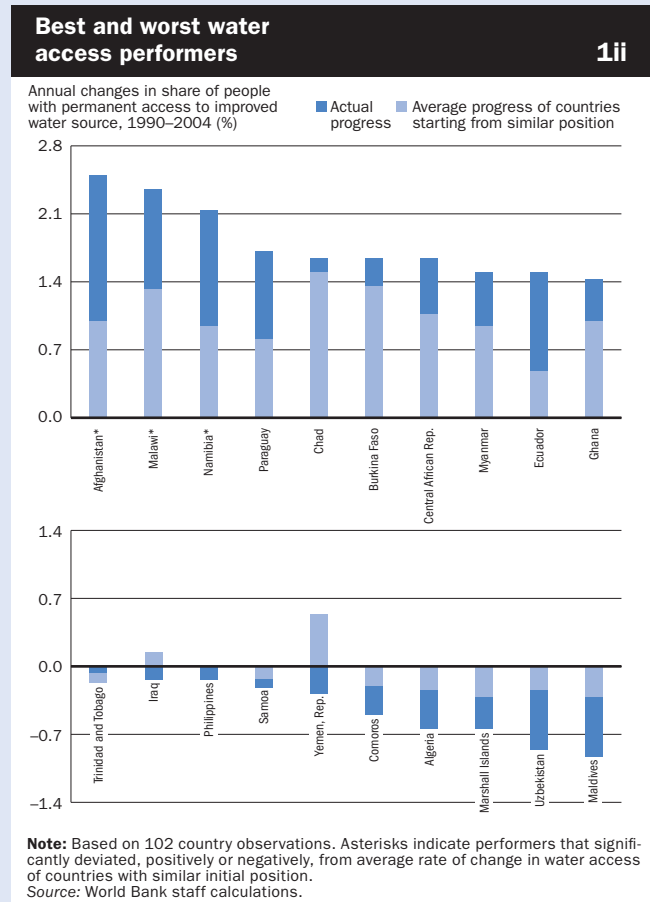
In the next decades all countries need to make important efforts to reduce their carbon emissions. In developing economies such a commitment might be perceived as at odds with that of fostering growth. But recent history suggests that developing countries that have grown the fastest also made the greatest reductions in the carbon content of their economic activities (measured by carbon dioxide emissions per unit of GDP in PPP terms; figure 1gg). It is likely that growth was accompanied by more rapid adoption of new, more energy efficient technologies and a shift toward less carbon-intensive production and consumption.

This is not enough, however, to claim that growth is good for mitigating carbon dioxide emissions: the best growth performers recorded much higher growth in carbon dioxide emissions than other groups (figure 1hh). Technical efficiency gains were not sufficient to compensate for the growth in output.



Countries are ranked here by their progress in water access in 1990–2004. Also shown is the average progress of countries starting from a similar position (figure 1ii). The best and worst performers, which far exceeded averages in one direction or the other, are marked with an asterisk.

A number of poor performers suffered from particularly difficult geographical constraints—small Pacific island or desert countries with low rainfall, for instance. But others, also facing difficult geographical constraints, greatly improved access to safe water. The best and worst performers are not necessarily countries that registered the largest absolute changes. Indeed, the initial rate of access to improved water sources can alone explain almost half the differences in progress across countries. Accounting for starting points thus portrays a different picture of relative performances across countries.



# Goals, targets, and indicators

## Goals and targets from the Millennium Declaration Indicators for monitoring progress

### Goal 1 Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

Target 1	Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than \$1 a day	1	Proportion of population below \$1 (PPP) a day <sup>a</sup>
		1a	Poverty headcount ratio (percentage of population below the national poverty line)
		2	Poverty gap ratio [incidence × 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 enrollment ratio in primary education
		7	Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach grade 5 <sup>b</sup>
		8	Literacy rate of 15- to 24-year-olds

### Goal 3 Promote gender equality and empower women

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 enrollment ratio in primary education
		7	Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach grade 5 <sup>b</sup>
		8	Literacy rate of 15- to 24-year-olds
Target 4	Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015	9	Ratios of girls to boys in primary, secondary, and tertiary education
		10	Ratio of literate women to men ages 15–24
		11	Share of women in wage employment in the nonagricultural sector
		12	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments

### 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 one-year-old children immunized against measles

### Goal 5 Improve maternal health

Target 6	Reduce by three-quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio	16	Maternal mortality ratio
		17	Proportion of births attended by skilled 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 pregnant women ages 15–24
		19	Condom use rate of the contraceptive prevalence rate <sup>c</sup>
		19a	Condom use at last high-risk sex
		19b	Percentage of 15- to 24-year-olds with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS <sup>d</sup>
		19c	Contraceptive prevalence rate
		20	Ratio of school attendance of orphans to school attendance of nonorphans ages 10–14
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 <sup>e</sup>
		23	Prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis
		24	Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under directly observed treatment, short course (DOTS)

### Goal 7 Ensure environmental sustainability

Target 9	Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs and reverse the loss of environmental resources	25	Proportion of land area covered by forest
		26	Ratio of area protected to maintain biological diversity to surface area
		27	Energy use (kilograms of oil equivalent) per \$1 GDP (PPP)
		28	Carbon dioxide emissions per capita and consumption of ozone-depleting chlorofluorocarbons (ODP tons)
		29	Proportion of population using solid fuels
Target 10	Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation	30	Proportion of population with sustainable access to an improved water source, urban and rural
		31	Proportion of population with access to improved sanitation, urban and rural

## Goals and targets from the Millennium Declaration Indicators for monitoring progress

Target 11	By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers	32 Proportion of households with access to secure tenure
<b>Goal 8 Develop a global partnership for development</b>		
Target 12	Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, nondiscriminatory trading and financial system  Includes a commitment to good governance, development and poverty reduction—both nationally and internationally	Some of the indicators listed below are monitored separately for the least developed countries (LDCs), Africa, landlocked countries and small island developing states.  <b>Official development assistance (ODA)</b> 33 Net ODA, total and to the least developed countries, as a percentage of OECD/DAC donors' gross national income 34 Proportion of total bilateral, sector-allocable ODA of OECD/DAC donors to basic social services (basic education, primary healthcare, nutrition, safe water and sanitation) 35 Proportion of bilateral official development assistance of OECD/DAC donors that is untied 36 ODA received in landlocked countries as a proportion of their gross national incomes 37 ODA received in small island developing states as proportion of their gross national incomes
Target 13	Address the special needs of the least developed countries  Includes tariff and quota free access for the least developed countries' exports; enhanced programme of debt relief for heavily indebted poor countries (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 the Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States and the outcome of the 22nd special session of the General Assembly)	<b>Market access</b> 38 Proportion of total developed country imports (by value and excluding arms) from developing countries and from the least developed countries, admitted free of duty 39 Average tariffs imposed by developed countries on agricultural products and textiles and clothing from developing countries 40 Agricultural support estimate for OECD countries as a percentage of their gross domestic product 41 Proportion of ODA provided to help build trade capacity
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	<b>Debt sustainability</b> 42 Total number of countries that have reached their HIPC decision points and number that have reached their HIPC completion points (cumulative) 43 Debt relief committed under HIPC Debt Initiative 44 Debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services
Target 16	In cooperation with developing countries, develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth	45 Unemployment rate of 15- to 24-year-olds, male and female and total <sup>f</sup>
Target 17	In cooperation 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 cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications	47 Telephone lines and cellular subscribers per 100 people 48a Personal computers in use per 100 people 48b Internet users per 100 people

**Note:** Goals, targets, and indicators effective September 8, 2003.

a. For monitoring country poverty trends, indicators based on national poverty lines should be used, where available. b. An alternative indicator under development is "primary completion rate." c. Among contraceptive methods, only condoms are effective in preventing HIV transmission. Since the condom use rate is only measured among women in union, it is supplemented by an indicator on condom use in high-risk situations (indicator 19a) and an indicator on HIV/AIDS knowledge (indicator 19b). Indicator 19c (contraceptive prevalence rate) is also useful in tracking progress in other health, gender, and poverty goals. d. This indicator is defined as the percentage of 15- to 24-year-olds who correctly identify the two major ways of preventing the sexual transmission of HIV (using condoms and limiting sex to one faithful, uninfected partner), who reject the two most common local misconceptions about HIV transmission, and who know that a healthy-looking person can transmit HIV. However, since there are currently not a sufficient number of surveys to be able to calculate the indicator as defined above, UNICEF, in collaboration with UNAIDS and WHO, produced two proxy indicators that represent two components of the actual indicator. They are the percentage of women and men ages 15–24 who know that a person can protect herself from HIV infection by "consistent use of condom," and the percentage of women and men ages 15–24 who know a healthy-looking person can transmit HIV. e. Prevention to be measured by the percentage of children under age five sleeping under insecticide-treated bednets; treatment to be measured by percentage of children under age five who are appropriately treated. f. An improved measure of the target for future years is under development by the International Labour Organization.



2



PEOPLE

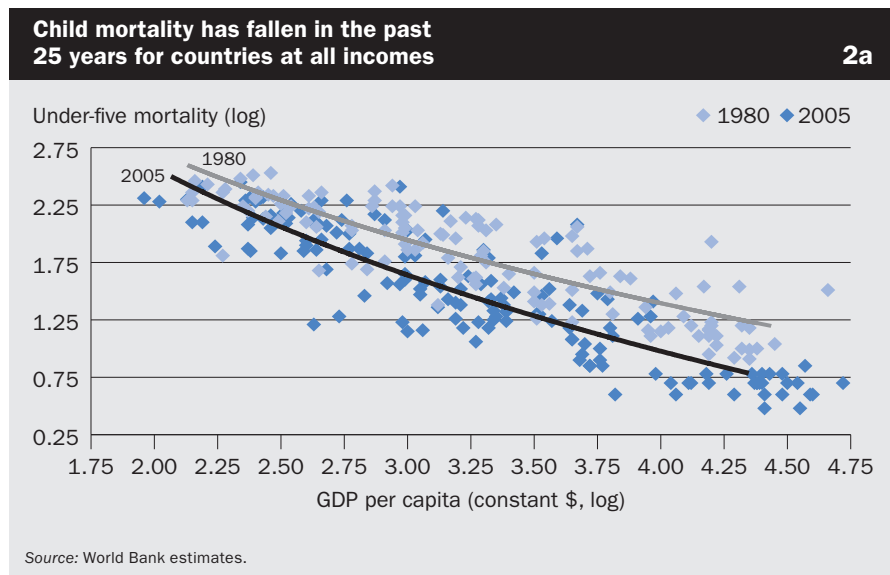
# T

## he wide health divide

Advances in technology and knowledge for health and hygiene have transformed life over the past 50 years. In 1960 more than 20 percent of children in developing countries died before reaching their fifth birthday; by 2005 this had fallen to just over 8 percent. The declines are large, even for the poorest countries (figure 2a). But this reassuring picture, painted by rising global averages, obscures substantial disparities among the world's regions and among the poor within countries. For millions of people health services and modern medicines are still out of reach, and many die prematurely from diseases that are easily prevented or cured. More than 25 years after the Health for All declaration, improving the health of the poorest people in developing countries remains a challenge.

What can improve all this? There is no consensus on which determinants are most important across countries. But there is agreement on the need to reduce extreme income poverty, the major risk for poor health and premature death. The World Health Organization (WHO) concurs, noting that a poverty-oriented health strategy requires complementary policies in other sectors (WHO 2003). These include improving access to education, enhancing the position of women and other marginalized groups, shaping development policies in agriculture and rural development, and promoting open and participatory governance.

Priorities in healthcare are also clear: focus on health problems and diseases that affect the poor disproportionately. Health gains require directing program benefits toward the poor and increasing the quality and availability of health services, especially where they are least available. This section looks at the rich-poor health divide between and within countries—and at the factors behind that divide.

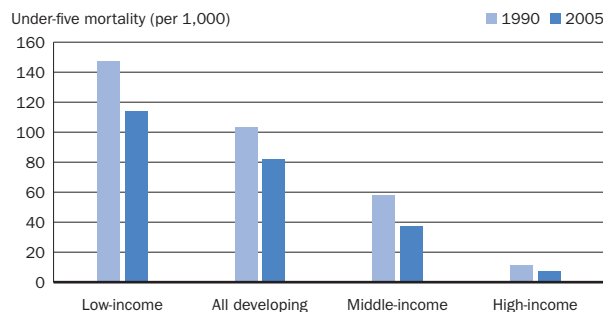


## The divide between rich and poor countries

Differences in the health of rich and poor countries remain large and in some cases are increasing. Under-five mortality fell more than 36 percent in high-income countries from 1990 to 2005, but only 20 percent in developing countries, as preventable diseases continue to take a toll on the world's poorest people. But more important than the changes in proportions are the levels: under-five mortality is five times higher in middle-income countries than in high-income countries and 15 times higher in lower-income countries (figure 2b).

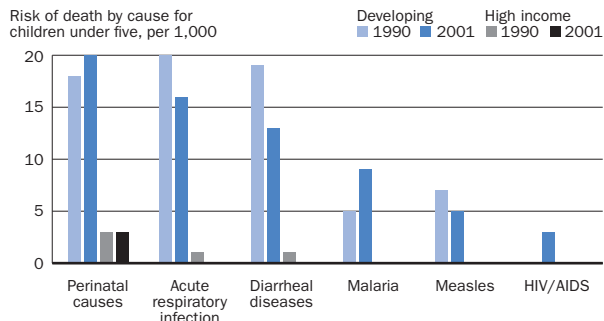
What accounts for these disparities? Child mortality from malaria doubled from 1990 to 2001, with the largest increase in Sub-Saharan Africa (Lopez and others 2006). Other increases in child mortality in developing countries came from HIV/AIDS, again with the largest increase in Sub-Saharan Africa, and problems in the first months of life, which depend strongly on the quality and availability of prenatal services. Child deaths from these causes are far less common in high-income countries, just as they are from acute respiratory infections, diarrheal diseases, and measles. But for developing countries, these diseases, along with malnutrition, remain significant causes of avoidable child deaths (figure 2c).

### Under-five mortality is 15 times higher in low-income countries than in high-income countries 2b



Source: Harmonized estimates from WHO, UNICEF, and World Bank.

### Little reduction in risks for poor children 2c

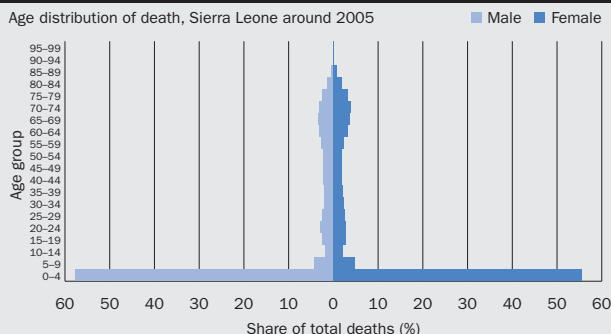


Source: Lopez and others 2006.

The differing patterns of mortality and well-being reflected in the age distributions of death for developing and high-income countries show their impact on life expectancies at birth (figures 2d, 2e, and 2f). In developing countries, where deaths of children under age five are still the major health issue, average life expectancy at birth is 65 years. But several countries—such as Lesotho, Zambia, and Zimbabwe, with high AIDS-related mortality—have life expectancies of less than 40 years. In high-income countries, by contrast, noncommunicable illnesses—such as cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, and related conditions of high blood pressure, high cholesterol, and excessive body weight—cluster deaths at older ages, and the average life expectancy at birth is 79 years. Indeed, in Canada, France, Japan, Norway, Sweden, and Switzerland life expectancies of 80 years and above are the norm. So any efforts to improve health and increase life expectancy in developing countries will have to focus on diseases that kill children.

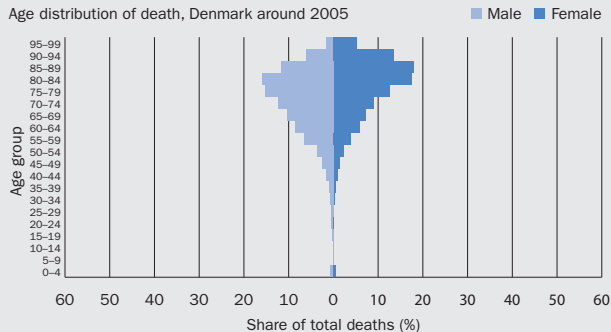
Why are there health gaps between rich and poor countries? Poverty makes people in developing countries more vulnerable to disease. Nearly a third of the people in South Asia and half those in Sub-Saharan Africa lived on less than \$1

### In Sierra Leone most deaths occur before age 5 2d



Source: World Bank 2006f.

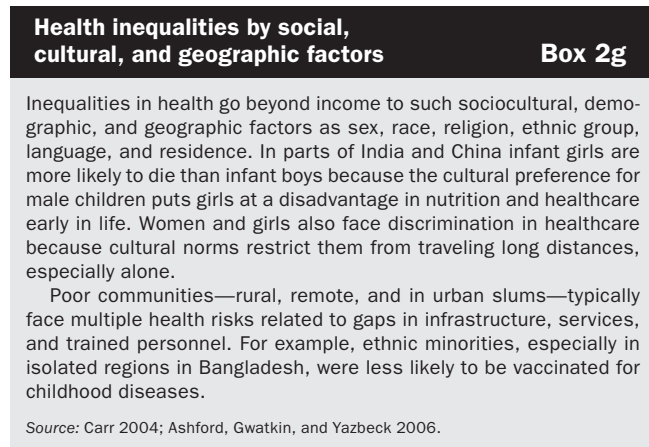
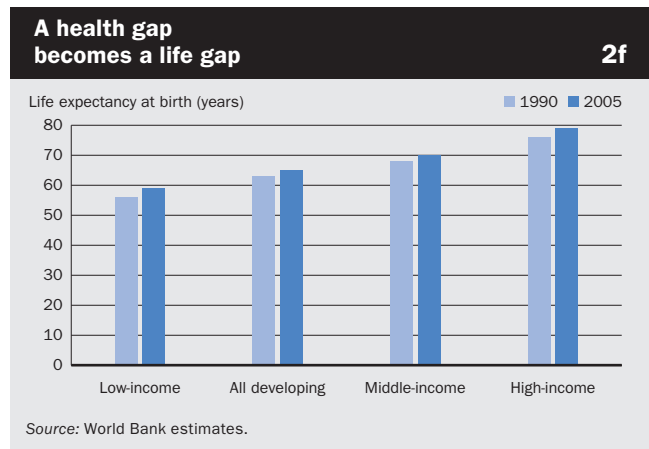
### A child born in Denmark can expect to live to be 78 2e



Source: World Bank 2006f.

a day in 2002. The majority of them typically lack access to safe drinking water and adequate sanitation, food, education, employment, health information, and professional healthcare. Almost half the people in Sub-Saharan Africa cannot obtain essential drugs (Jamison and others 2006). Many developing countries experienced little increase in immunization coverage between 1990 and 2005, and in 2005 only 75 percent of children ages 12–23 months were vaccinated against measles and diphtheria, pertussis, and whooping cough, compared with almost 95 percent for high-income countries.

Several barriers beyond low income exclude people in developing countries from getting appropriate care, and these can be related to services, clients, and institutions. Service factors include the high cost of care and transportation, poor quality and inappropriate care, and negative staff attitudes. Client factors include social and cultural constraints on women's movements and limited information about their health needs and availability of services. And institutional factors include men's control over decisionmaking and budgets, local perceptions about illness and treatment norms, and discrimination in health settings.

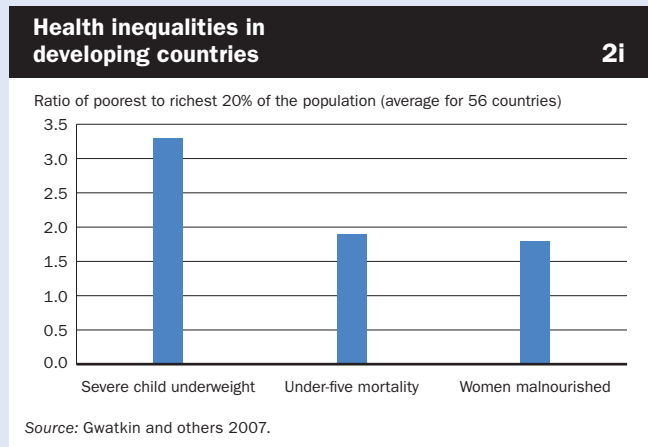
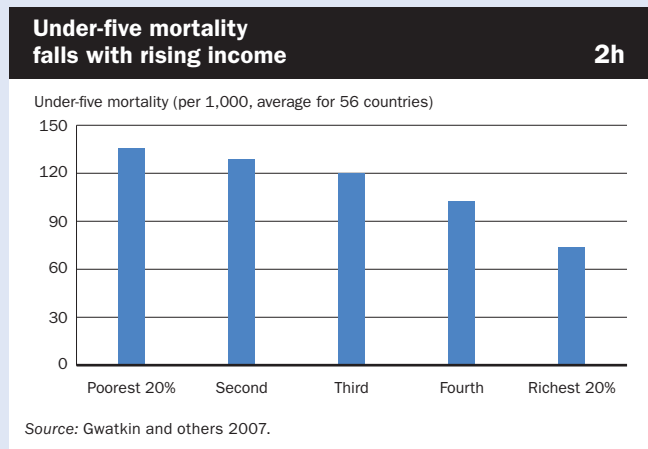


## The health divide within countries: the rich-poor gap

Inequalities in health within countries are pervasive. Even in healthy countries such as Finland, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom, the poor die 5–10 years before the rich (Carr 2004). But the inequalities are most apparent in poorer developing countries. Studies from many developing countries show that the poorest 20 percent of the population fares far worse than the richest 20 percent on a range of health outcomes, including child mortality and nutritional status (box 2g, figures 2h and 2i). On average a child in the poorest 20 percent is twice as likely to die before age 5 as a child in the richest 20 percent. The disparity is similar for maternal nutrition, with women in the poorest 20 percent almost twice as likely to be malnourished as those in the richest 20 percent.

Severe malnutrition among children reveals more pronounced inequality, with children in the poorest 20 percent more than three times as likely to be underweight as children in the richest 20 percent. The inequality is largest in South Asia, where 21 percent of children in the poorest 20 percent were underweight, compared with 6 percent in the richest.

Demographic and Health Surveys find that gaps in the use of health services are closely related to economic



status (box 2j and figure 2k). On average, children ages 12–23 months in the richest 20 percent of the population are more than twice as likely as those in the poorest 20 percent to have received basic immunizations. Inequality in immunization is especially high in Sub-Saharan Africa: only 32 percent of children in the poorest 20 percent have been fully immunized, compared with 60 percent in the richest 20 percent.

Use of professional healthcare during childbirth also varies by income. Rich women are four times more likely to use modern methods of birth control than their poorer counterparts and nearly five times more likely to be attended by a skilled health professional during childbirth. Several countries, such as Benin, Morocco, Nicaragua, and Vietnam, have reduced inequalities and increased the coverage of trained medical staff attending childbirths for the poorest women (figure 2l). Childbirths attended by trained staff among the poorest 20 percent more than doubled in Nicaragua from 1997 to 2001, from 33 percent to 78 percent. In a few countries, such as Chad and Ghana, inequalities increased because of lack of progress in coverage among poor women.

### Why do the poor receive and seek less health care than the rich?

Box 2j

According to *World Development Report 2006: Equity and Development* (World Bank 2005d), inequities occur when some groups of people have less say and fewer opportunities to shape events and institutions around them, resulting in institutions that favor the privileged, who are often the rich. In health this translates into a lower likelihood of the poor taking preventive measures and seeking and using healthcare.

Government actions affect the health of poor people. Public spending on health can influence the type and quality of services available to the poor. Governments may allocate high proportions of their health budgets to urban hospitals, leaving rural residents without adequate health facilities. Income is another important constraint. In South Africa people in the poorest 20 percent have to travel an average of nearly two hours to obtain medical attention, compared with 34 minutes for those in the wealthiest 20 percent.

Additional barriers that lower demand for health services include a lack of knowledge about hygiene, nutrition, and the availability of treatment options, particularly among the uneducated. This can keep people from seeking care when they need it, even when price is not an issue. In India immunization rates are low, even though immunization is free: mothers cited lack of knowledge of the benefits of vaccination and of the clinic location as the main reasons why their children had not been immunized.

Lack of knowledge can also lead people to pay for inappropriate healthcare. Unqualified providers can overprescribe treatment to patients who do not know what is in their best interest. For example, instead of effective and inexpensive oral rehydration therapy, a poor child in Indonesia gets more than four (often useless) drugs per diarrhea episode.

Poorer members of a community often have less say in whether to seek care than wealthier members, and this can affect the level of resources used in their interest. Similarly, within a family, women and children have less voice than men and older family members.

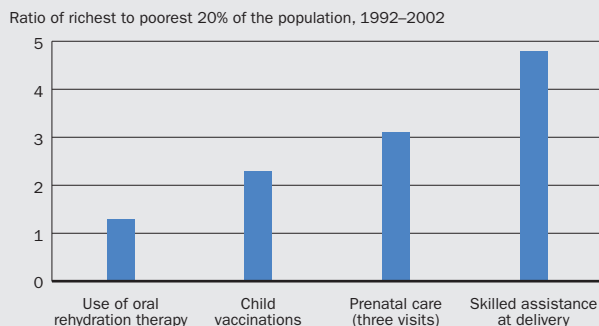
## Main determinant of health status: health spending

Differences in health spending contribute to global disparities in health outcomes (figure 2m). In rich countries, total health spending, at 6 percent of GDP, is almost twice that of developing countries, and childhood vaccinations, skilled attendants at birth, and access to effective health interventions are almost universal. In developing countries, where access to free health services is seen as a basic human right, public spending on health is less than 3 percent of GDP. In low-income countries the annual per capita spending on healthcare in 2004 was just \$32, well below the \$60 that the WHO deems sufficient for an adequately performing health system (WHO, *World Health Report 2000*). By contrast, annual per capita health spending in high-income countries was \$3,724.

The most obvious barrier to expanding health coverage in developing countries is the current low level of spending. Expanding access to successful interventions will require more funds, a situation made more difficult as HIV/AIDS spreads and more spending is allocated to the treatment of AIDS and AIDS-related opportunistic infections, such as tuberculosis and pneumonia. As public funds for general health shrink, the

### Rich people use health services more than poor people

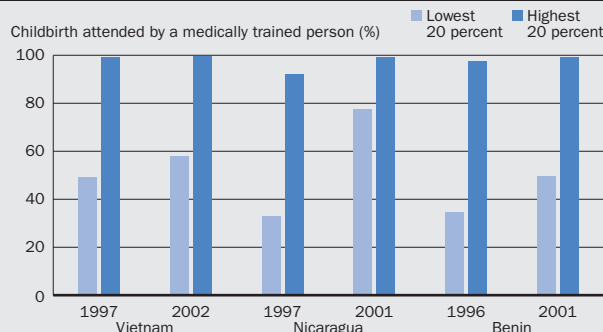
2k



Source: Ashford, Gwatkin, and Yazbeck 2006.

### Some countries have reduced inequalities in use of professional healthcare in childbirth

2l



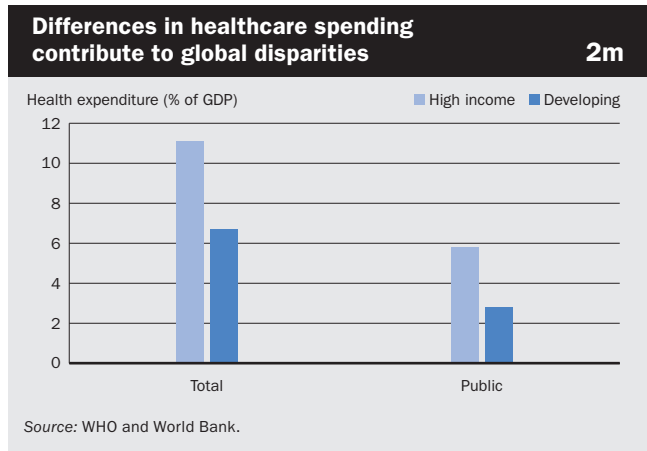
Source: Demographic and Health Surveys.



costs are borne more by households and the private sector. In 2004 more than 80 percent of the people in developing countries paid out of pocket for health services, compared with just 37 percent in high-income countries.

Greater public spending is not, however, always associated with better outcomes, and performance varies across countries based on the capabilities of government and health systems. In many countries staff ostensibly delivering services do not, and absenteeism is high (figure 2n). Corruption in the form of informal payments, coupled with the low technical quality of service providers and the poor attitudes of health staff, especially to the poorer population, often discourage a second visit. According to *World Development Report 2006: Equity and Development* (World Bank 2005d), more than 70 percent of patients in Azerbaijan, Poland, and the Russian Federation, and more than 90 percent in Armenia, made “informal payments” for services.

To improve health conditions among the poor and vulnerable in developing countries, governments support free or subsidized health services, often as part of a national policy to reduce poverty. Government spending on health is



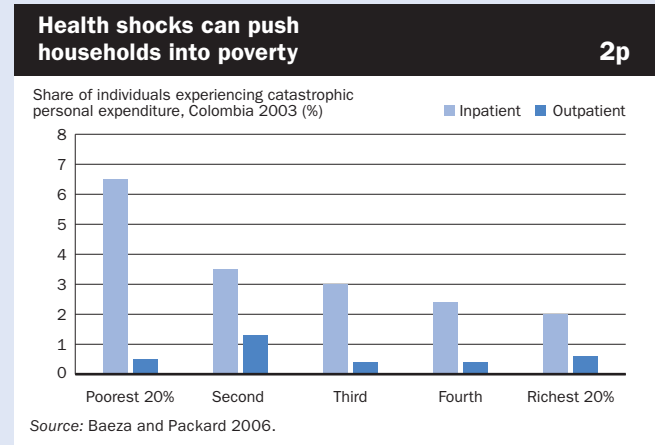
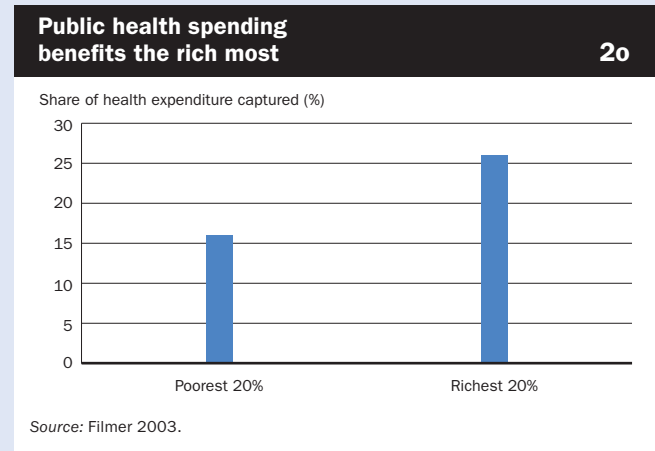
### Where are healthcare workers hiding? 2n

Country	Absence rates among healthcare workers in primary health facilities (%)
India (14 states)	43
Indonesia	42
Bangladesh	35
Uganda	35
Peru	26
Papua New Guinea	19

Source: World Bank 2003c.

thus designed to give everyone equal access to care, and this rationale is typically invoked to justify direct government involvement in service provision. In reality, equal access is elusive, and research confirms that publicly financed health-care benefits the rich more than the poor (figure 2o). In 21 countries the richest 20 percent received more than 26 percent of government health spending, compared with 16 percent for the poorest 20 percent. Even health programs that address illnesses affecting the poor tend to favor the rich. In Sub-Saharan Africa the rich benefited more (53 percent) from prophylactic treatment for malaria than did the poor (34 percent).

Primary healthcare is often free in the public health system, but treatment for major illnesses can be costly if payment is required for drugs and services on top of transport costs and time off from work. Indeed, health shocks can push a high proportion of households into poverty because of out-of-pocket health expenditures (figure 2p). This underscores the need for policymakers to maintain and improve the health status of the poor through effective interventions—and to protect households from falling into poverty.



# ENVIRONMENT



33



# A

## griculture is environment

For the 70 percent of the world's poor in rural areas, agriculture is the major source of income and employment. It takes up more than one-third of the world's area and more than two-thirds of the world's water withdrawals. Competition for these resources is increasing with growth of population, cities, and demand for food. And climate change is altering the patterns of rainfall and temperature that agriculture depends on. The depletion and degradation of these resources thus pose serious challenges to the capacity of agriculture to produce enough food and other agricultural products to sustain the livelihoods of rural populations and accommodate the needs of urban populations.

In the agriculture-based economies of Sub-Saharan Africa agriculture contributed a third to economic growth in 1990–2005. In the transforming economies of Asia, mainly China, India, and Indonesia, it contributed 8 percent to economic growth, while making up a fifth of the economy and employing half the labor force. And in the urbanizing economies of Latin America and some countries of Eastern Europe and Central Asia, it contributed 10 percent to the economy and to growth. Agriculture is a way of life throughout the world, with 2.5 billion of 3 billion rural people tied to agricultural activities, particularly to producing food.

Producing food requires enormous amounts of water and cropland. In some parts of the world, the demand for water exceeds the supply. But in many places it appears that water scarcity is caused not by shortages of water but by its mismanagement. Not enough is known because data on the availability and productivity of water are limited. However, water is clearly central to the social, political, and economic affairs of a country and to cooperation or conflict across boundaries.

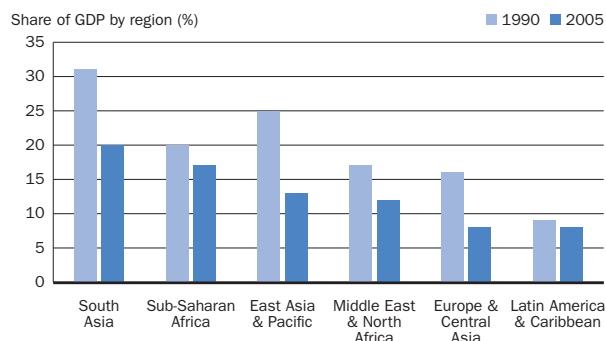
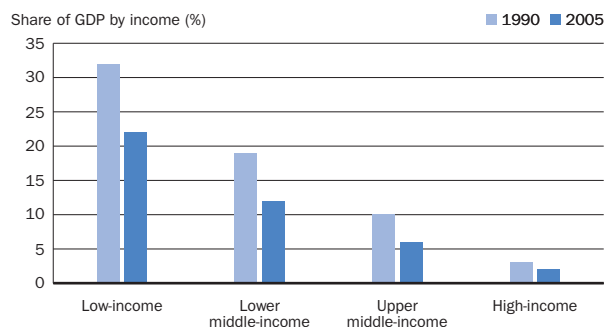
Agricultural intensification—producing more crops on the same or smaller amounts of land—along with irrigation and the conversion of forest lands to cropland have helped meet the increasing demand for food. Food production has thankfully outpaced population growth in most regions. But this has too often been at the expense of soil degradation, water pollution, and added pressure on water resources. Turning forests into agricultural lands reduces biodiversity and contributes to global warming. Rising sea levels, warming temperatures, and changes in weather patterns affect millions of people. The impact is especially severe for those in developing countries, threatening their potential to move out of poverty.

## Agriculture, poverty reduction, and food security

With economic growth the share of agriculture in the global economy declines. Even so, agriculture remains important in many developing economies and the source of income for many poor people. In some African countries more than half the GDP is in agriculture—in Liberia 64 percent, in Guinea-Bissau 60 percent, and in Central African Republic 54 percent. On average agriculture contributes more than 20 percent to value added in low-income economies (figure 3a).

Globally, about 40 percent of the active labor force is in agriculture, but in Sub-Saharan Africa and Asia and the Pacific about 60 percent is in agriculture. Compare that with 18 percent in Latin America and 4 percent in high-income economies. Variations across countries are even greater, with agricultural employment's share ranging from less than 2 percent in the United Kingdom and the United States to 44 percent in China and 80 percent in Nepal. Agriculture is associated with natural wealth—particularly in developing economies. A recent World Bank study estimates that roughly two-thirds of the natural wealth in low-income countries is embodied in cropland and pastureland (World Bank 2006e).

**Agriculture's share in GDP—declining, but still more than a fifth in low-income economies 3a**

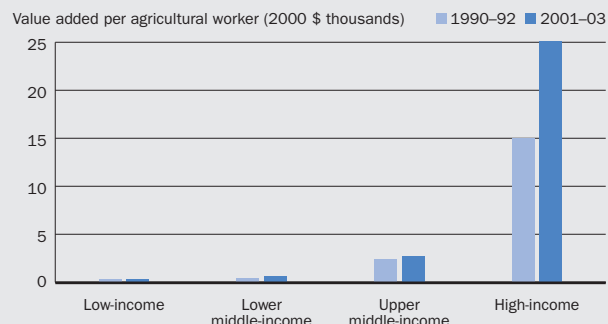
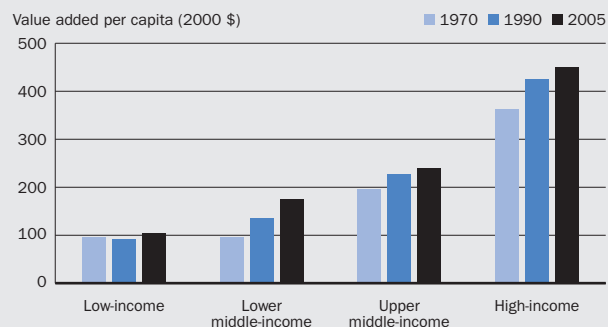


Source: Table 4.2.

Agriculture's changing role is underscored by rapid rural-urban migration. The United Nations estimates that in 2007, for the first time, the majority of the global population will be urban (United Nations Population Division 2005, *World Population Prospects 2004*). And this will continue. Urban population is expected to grow 1.8 percent a year through 2030, almost twice as fast as the global population. Productivity must continue to rise, so that the shrinking rural population can provide more agricultural products for a rising urban population with higher incomes.

In recent years the increases in demand for food have been met by higher productivity through agricultural intensification, technological advance, mechanization, and irrigation (figure 3b). However, continuing depletion and degradation of natural resources that constitute the agricultural sector's main inputs—water and land—could slow the growth of productivity and undermine food security.

**Agricultural productivity has increased, yielding more output for all 3b**



Source: World Bank data files.

## Water . . . water . . .

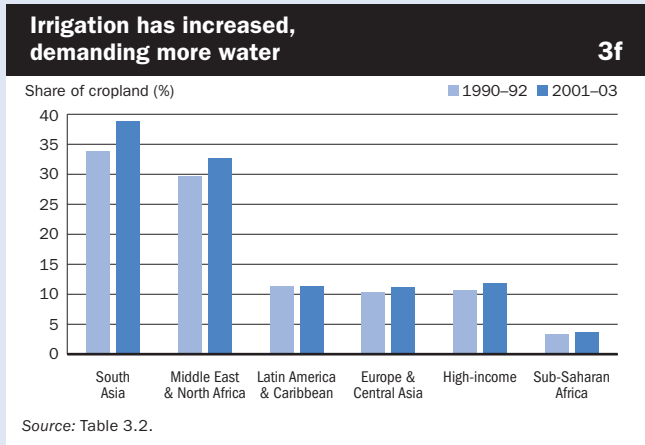
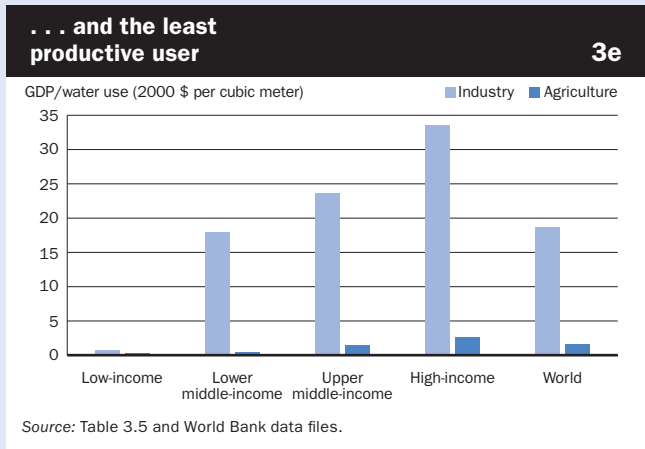
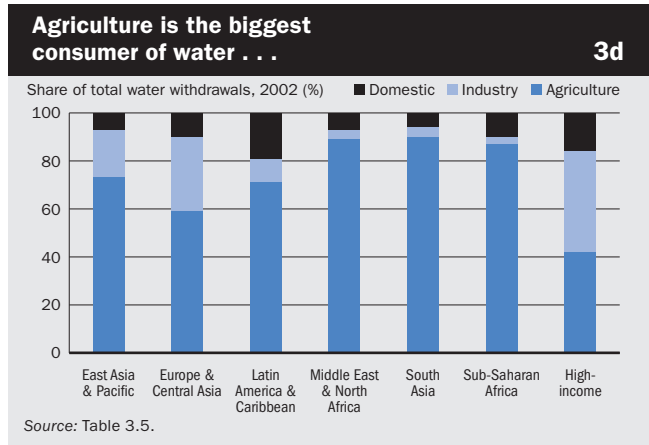
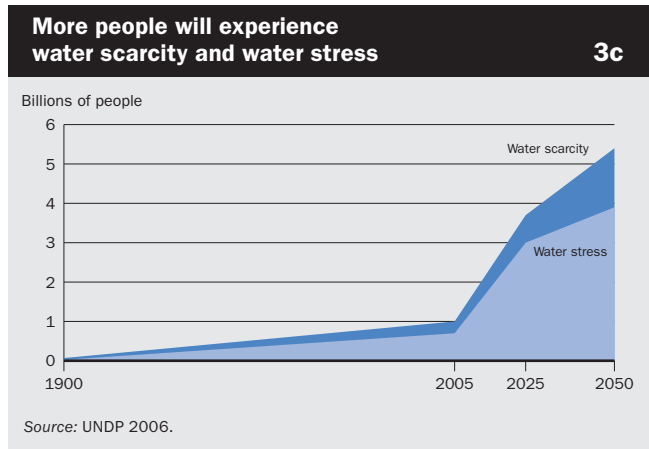
Water is life. Water is health. Water is livelihood. But some 1.1 billion people in developing countries have inadequate access to water, and about 700 million people in 43 countries live below the water-stress threshold of 1,700 cubic meters per person per year (figure 3c). One billion people live in areas of *economic* water scarcity—where human, institutional, and financial capital limit access to water even though water in nature is available locally to meet human demands, a situation especially prevalent in much of Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia (CAWMA 2007).

Water is needed for most economic activities, but agriculture is the most water-intensive sector (figure 3d), using 70 percent of global water withdrawals (indicator table 3.5). Each year some 7,100 cubic kilometers of water are consumed by crops to meet global food demand, the equivalent of 90 times the annual runoff of the Nile River, or more than 3,000 liters per person per day. Most of it (78 percent) comes directly from rainfall, the remainder from irrigation (CAWMA 2007). Competition between water for food production and for other sectors will intensify, but food production will remain the larg-

est consumer of water worldwide. Water productivity is much lower in agriculture than it is in industry (figure 3e).

Globally, there is more than enough water for domestic purposes, for agriculture, and for industry. But access to water is very uneven across and within countries. Poor people have limited access, not so much because of physical water scarcity, but because of their lack of purchasing power and because of inappropriate policies that limit their access to infrastructure.

Techniques to control soil moisture and intensify agricultural production have been substantially improved in the last 50 years in many parts of the world. Irrigation is increasing globally, in all income groups and all regions (figure 3f). While the world's cultivated land increased by about 13 percent from 1961 to 2003, the irrigated area almost doubled, from 10 percent to 18 percent of cropland. About 70 percent of the world's irrigated land and 30 percent of cultivated land are in Asia. By contrast, there is very little irrigation in Sub-Saharan Africa, where agriculture is almost exclusively rainfed.



## Land use and land loss

Global demand for food is projected to double in the next 50 years, as urbanization proceeds and income rises (CAWMA 2007). But arable land per capita is shrinking. In the last 12 years it has fallen from 2,100 square meters per person to 1,700 in low-income countries, and from 2,300 to 2,100 in high-income economies.

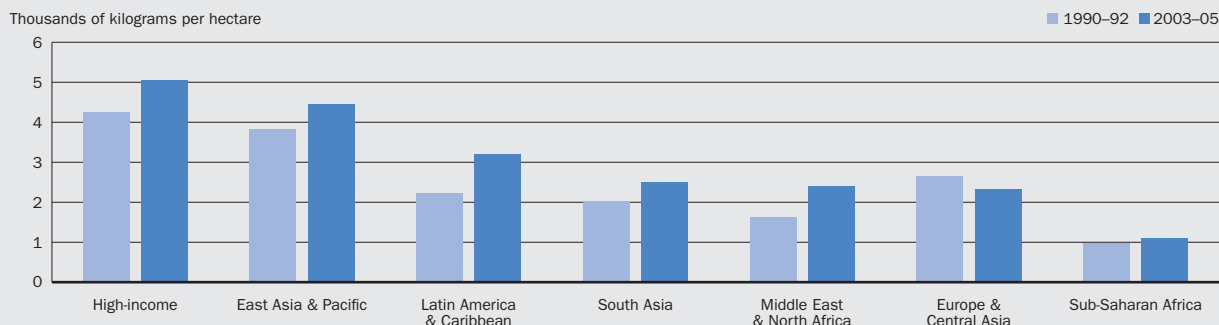
Agricultural intensification has met global food demand. In Asia land under cereal production increased only 4 percent between 1970 and 1995, while cereal production doubled due to the green revolution (Rosengrant and Hazel 2000). More recently, the high-income economies, already the most intensified producers, realized an almost 20 percent increase—from 4,260 kilograms per hectare in 1990–92 to 5,040 in 2003–05 (figure 3g), substantially higher than their rate of population increase. In contrast, cereal yields in water-stressed Sub-Saharan Africa increased by 10 percent—far less than the region’s population growth. The differences in productivity are even starker among countries, ranging from 296 kilograms per hectare in Eritrea to 8,710 in Belgium.

Perhaps more worrisome, productivity has declined substantially on approximately 16 percent of agricultural land in developing countries, especially in Africa and Central America. One study estimates that global cropland production is 12.7 percent lower and pastoral production 3.8 percent lower than would have been the case without soil degradation. This implies a total agricultural production loss of 4.8 percent. Another estimate puts the global loss at 8.9 percent (Scherr 1999, pp. 16–20).

In many countries soil degradation and the loss of agricultural land combined with population growth have created pressure that led to substantial deforestation. Global forested area in 2005 was about 4 billion hectares, covering 30 percent of total land area (figure 3h). But deforestation continues at about 13 million hectares a year. Reforestation reduced the net loss of forest areas to 7.3 million hectares a year in 2000–05—an improvement from losses of 8.9 million hectares a year in 1990–2000. Africa and Latin America continued to have the largest loss of forest after 1990.

### Cereal yields have increased in most regions— East Asia has almost reached the high-income economies

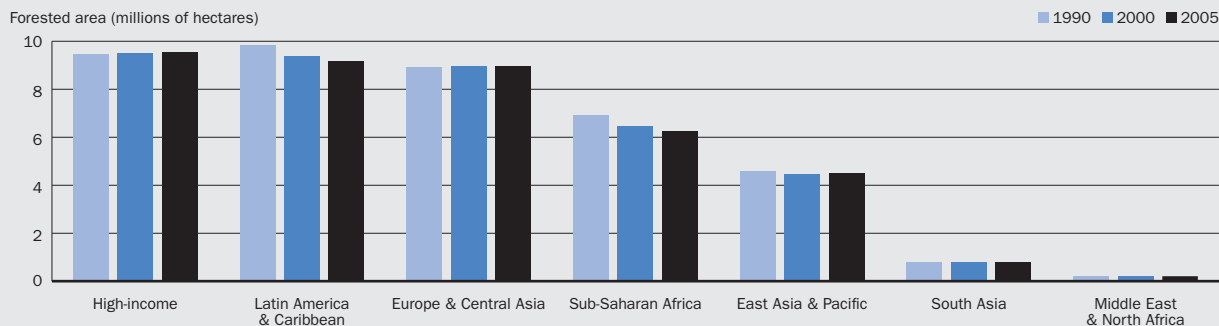
3g



Source: Table 3.3.

### Forested areas are shrinking in Latin America and Sub-Saharan Africa—recovering in East Asia

3h



Source: Table 3.4.

## Agriculture and climate change

Agriculture and deforestation are estimated to be responsible for one-third of greenhouse gas emissions, which are the main contributors to climate change (figure 3i). In turn, climate change affects agriculture more than any other sector, increasing risks of crop failures and livestock losses and threatening food security. The decline in crop yields, especially in Africa, could leave hundreds of millions without the ability to produce or purchase sufficient food. Warming may also induce sudden shifts in regional weather patterns that would have severe consequences for water availability and flooding in tropical regions. And the impact of sea level rise could be catastrophic for many developing countries (Dasgupta and others 2007).

Changes in climate patterns are already observed in some parts of the world. Average rainfall has fallen in the Sahel (figure 3j), with droughts in the 1970s and 1980s that resulted in more than 100,000 deaths (UNEP 2002, p. 219). Africa has had one major drought in each of the last three decades (box 3k). Ethiopia's 1984 drought affected 8.7 million people—one million died and millions more faced malnourishment and famine (UNEP 2002). The 1991–92 drought

in South Africa reduced cereal harvests and exposed more than 17 million to the risk of starvation (UNEP 2002).

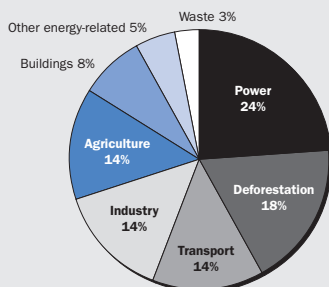
Delay in addressing climate change could prove tremendously costly, while efforts to mitigate may be less expensive than commonly feared. A recent cost assessment argues that tackling climate change is a pro-growth strategy—and that ignoring it will ultimately undermine economic growth (Stern 2006). If action does not start now, the world may face far higher costs later. Efforts to stabilize emissions must aim not only at the energy sector, but also at reducing deforestation, encouraging reforestation, and fostering more sustainable agricultural practices.

While all countries will be affected, the poorest countries and people will suffer earliest and most because they depend heavily on agriculture, the most climate-sensitive of all economic sectors. The developing regions are also at a geographic disadvantage. They are already warmer, on average, than developed regions. They suffer from high rainfall variability. And their low incomes and other vulnerabilities make their adaptation to climate change particularly difficult.

### Agriculture accounts for a seventh of all greenhouse gas emissions

3i

Greenhouse gas emissions by source, 2000



Source: Stern Review.

### Horn of Africa suffers floods after parching drought

Box 3k

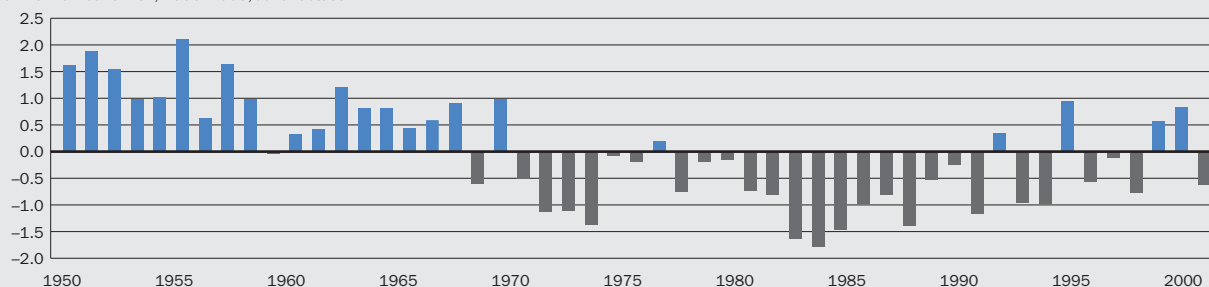
In November 2006 thousands of Somalis trekked from flooded refugee camps to drier ground in northeast Kenya as UN agencies rushed emergency supplies to some 1.8 million people hit by the worst floods in the Horn of Africa in 50 years. The floods, which also affected Kenya and Ethiopia, began in late October. They worsened food insecurity caused by severe drought earlier this year. In some areas the soil was so parched that it was not able to absorb the rain, and the few crops that survived the drought were destroyed by floods.

The flood displaced more than 100,000 of the estimated 160,000 mainly Somali refugees in Dadaab, who had fled the increasing violence in their country. At least 80 people died in floods in southern Somalia. The rain also dislodged landmines seeded during Somalia's long-standing conflict, posing additional hazards.

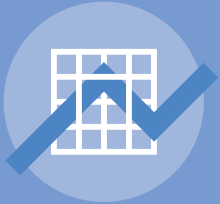
### Less rain is falling in the Sahel, with dire consequences

3j

Mean normalized rainfall, 1950–2000, June–October



Note: The averages are standardized for the period 1950–2000 so that the mean of the series is zero and the standard deviation is one.  
Source: World Bank 2003c.



4



# ECONOMY



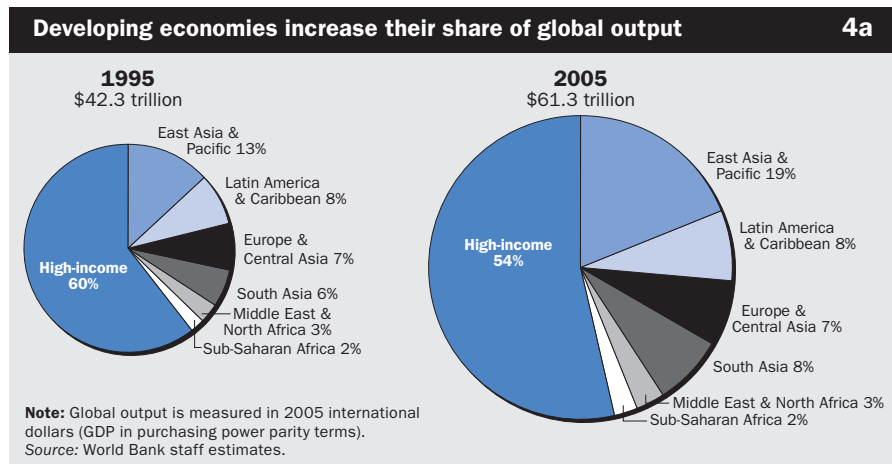
# A

## portrait of the global economy

A portrait of the global economy and the activity of more than 200 countries and territories that produce, trade, and consume the world's output—that is what the data in this section provide. Timely and reliable macroeconomic statistics are important for three reasons. First, they provide a measure of the wealth of economies, reflecting the welfare of their residents and prospects for future growth. Second, because the design of sound macroeconomic policies requires an understanding of historical patterns and trends, they provide guidance in shaping development policies. Third, they inform consumers, workers, investors, taxpayers, voters, and citizens on how their economy is managed so that they can make appropriate choices and exert control over their governments.

Developing economies grew faster over the last decade (1995–2005) than in the two previous decades and faster than high-income countries. World output in 2005 amounted to about \$61 trillion, measured in purchasing power parities. This was a 45 percent increase over 1995, when the world output was \$42.3 trillion (figure 4a). The share of developing economies in global output increased from 39 percent to 46 percent. The developing economies in the East Asia and the Pacific region grew the most, doubling their output and increasing their share of global output from 13 percent to 19 percent.

Further integration into world markets, better functioning internal markets, and rising demand for many commodities all contributed to the acceleration of growth in developing countries. Past periods of growth were often interrupted by financial or balance of payments crises. Indeed, from 1997 to 1998 some of the fastest growing economies experienced a major financial crisis, which started in Asia and spread to the transition economies of Europe and Central Asia. But recovery from this crisis has been widespread and durable. Developing economies are running lower fiscal and external deficits, accumulating larger reserves, and adopting more cautious monetary and financial policies. These policies make economies less vulnerable to shocks and less volatile, increasing the confidence of investors. The financial shocks of the period also revealed the importance of reliable, publicly available data for monitoring the actions of governments and private agents.



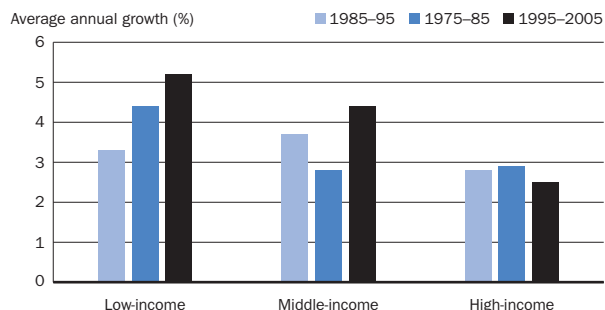
## Long-term trends

Developing economies are expected to grow faster than high-income economies. The surprise is that they often don't. Labor surpluses and higher returns to physical capital in developing countries, along with ready access to technology already developed and amortized in high-income countries, are among the reasons that developing economies are expected to grow faster and, in the long run, close the gap with richer economies. But until recently only a few developing economies enjoyed sustained periods of high growth. And even fewer have reached the average growth of the high-income economies. Poverty traps, exclusion from global markets, and government and market failures are some of the reasons put forward to explain the failure to converge.

The last decade brought a change, however. The average growth of low- and middle-income economies surpassed that of high-income economies (figure 4b). The most successful are no longer counted as "developing." During this period 13 countries graduated from the World Bank's classification of low- and middle-income economies: Antigua and Barbuda, Bahrain, Greece, Guam, Isle of Man, Republic of Korea, Malta, New Caledonia, Northern Mariana Islands, Puerto Rico, Saudi Arabia, San Marino, and Slovenia. But these are only a few, and they account for less than 2 percent of the world's population. Growth is still uneven (figure 4c). Global and regional averages are driven by a few large countries, which carry large weights in the aggregate measures.

### Growth is accelerating in the low-income economies

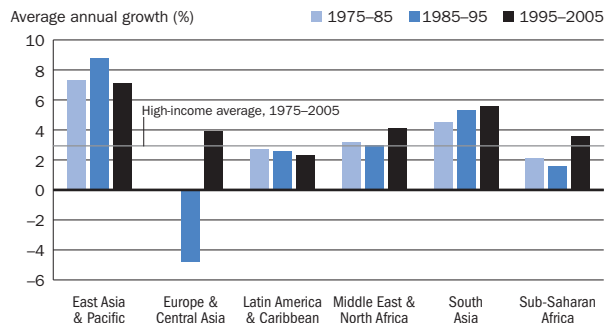
4b



Source: World Bank data files.

### Patterns of regional growth vary widely

4c



Source: World Bank data files.

## Better policies to achieve macroeconomic stability

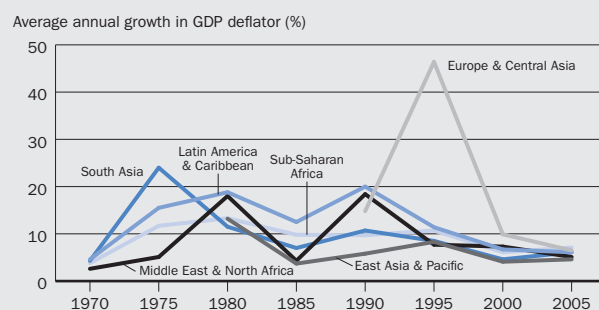
The high growth experienced in the developing world was due in part to expanding trade (section 6) and a better investment climate (section 5). The very rapid industrialization of large countries such as China and India also benefited the exporters of primary commodities—oil, metals and minerals, and agricultural produce.

Macroeconomic stability also helped. Since the high inflation and the debt crises of the 1970s and 1980s, better fiscal, monetary, and exchange rate policies have brought inflation rates down in most developing countries. And the very rapid inflation in European and Central Asian countries after the collapse of the Soviet Union came back to earth after their transition from central planning to market economies (figure 4d).

Macroeconomic stability, one factor in a favorable investment climate, promotes economic growth (figure 4e). But low inflation does not always lead to high economic growth. In general, developed economies have lower inflation and economic growth rates. The median inflation rate was below 10 percent in all developing regions, well below the median of around 15 percent or higher in 1990 in three regions.

### Inflation is now less than 10 percent in all developing regions

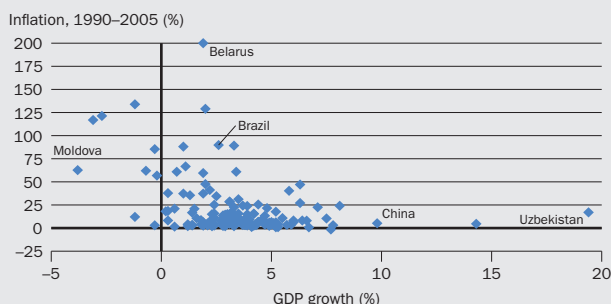
4d



Source: World Bank data files.

### Economies with high growth rates generally have lower rates of inflation

4e



Source: World Bank data files.

## Rising reserves

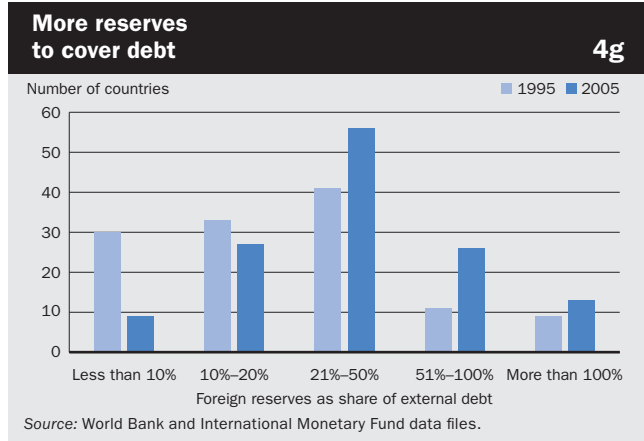
Trade surpluses and growing workers' remittances have allowed many developing countries to accumulate large holdings of reserve assets over the past five years. One motive may be the desire to maintain larger precautionary reserves to protect against financial and balance of payments crises. Indeed, the globalization of financial transactions may have made countries with open capital accounts more vulnerable.

China, India, and the Russian Federation are now among the top 10 economies with the largest reserves holdings (table 4f). Together they accounted for 25 percent of the world reserves in 2005. In contrast, the United States holds only 4 percent of the world reserves. With one exception in 1991, the current account deficit of the United States increased steadily from around \$12 billion in 1982 to \$792 billion in 2005. The U.S. current account deficit is financed largely by China's current account surplus and growing investments by major oil exporters.

Large reserve holdings also make economies less vulnerable to debt crises, reassuring lenders and lowering interest rates. Economies with large reserves are less likely to require assistance from lenders of last resort, such as the World Bank or International Monetary Fund (IMF). Since 1995 the ratio of reserves to external debt has increased for many economies (figure 4g).

Economy	International reserves \$ billions		Share of world total (%)	Increase over 2004 (%)	Reserves (months of import coverage)
	2004	2005			
Japan	844.7	846.9	18	0.3	16
China	622.9	831.4	18	33.5	14
Taiwan, China	247.7	260.3	6	5.1	14
Korea, Rep.	199.2	210.6	5	5.7	8
United States	190.5	188.3	4	-1.2	1
Russian Federation	126.3	182.3	4	44.4	11
India	131.6	137.8	3	4.7	12
Hong Kong, China	123.6	124.3	3	0.6	4
Singapore	112.2	115.8	3	3.2	5
Germany	97.2	101.7	2	4.6	1

Source: International Monetary Fund and World Bank data files.



## External public debt relief

Improvements in macroeconomic management of the poorest countries have also paved the way for more extensive debt relief.

Since 1996 developing countries have benefited from debt writeoffs by official donors and will continue to do so. It makes sense to relieve debt when the causes of excessive indebtedness are being tackled at their roots and when the benefits of debt reduction are directed toward more effective poverty reduction programs.

Making debt sustainable for poor countries is one of the Millennium Development Goals. Debt can bridge financing gaps and meet investment needs for projects with high social returns. But when unsustainable, it obliges countries to undertake policies that might be disruptive and harmful for growth and welfare, such as default, large fiscal adjustments, and devaluation.

In 2005 the external debt of developing countries amounted to \$2,730 billion, and related debt service (principal and interest) to \$513 billion. The debt stock has been declining in most regions and, accordingly, debt service declined. The ratio of debt service to exports in 2005 was 13.8 percent, the lowest in the last 20 years. The ratio of total external debt to GDP declined from nearly 6.6 percent in 1999 to 5.4 percent in 2005.

The debt crises of the 1980s and 1990s were the result of excessive borrowing with overly optimistic expectations. But cyclical global recessions, declining agricultural commodity prices, and conflicts also left many poor countries unable to service their debt. Traditional debt relief, based on rescheduling and restructuring of payments, proved ineffective for them.

Special programs to address the problems of the poor countries with predominantly official creditors were started in 1996, when the World Bank and the IMF launched the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative. The initiative aims to provide permanent relief from unsustainable debt by redirecting the resources for debt service toward social expenditures aimed at poverty reduction. The initiative relieved \$61 billion in total nominal debt service for 29 countries, and another 11 countries are eligible for additional debt relief.

The debt stock of the 29 HIPCs was reduced by 90 percent and their debt service by 2 percent between 1999 and 2005. And as a direct result of debt relief, public expenditures in education and health have increased by 3 percent in these countries.

The International Development Association (IDA), the IMF, and the African Development Fund have committed to cancel an additional debt stock of \$49 billion for all HIPCs under the new Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative in 2006. IDA has since canceled \$27 billion and the IMF \$3 billion for 19 countries that have made progress in their economic and social reforms.

# STATES & MARKETS

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50



# C

## Country policies and governance matter for development

Governance matters for economic development. Capable governments and high-quality institutions promote growth, raise incomes, and reduce poverty. Governance indicators are tools for assessing the performance of governments and the strengths and weaknesses of public institutions. Donors and governments use them to identify weaknesses and improve the management of development programs. And by providing feedback to policymakers and citizens, governance indicators can help to improve the quality of governance over time. This section—on states and markets—includes a broad range of indicators showing how effective and accountable government, together with energetic private initiative, help to create opportunities for growth and development.

The World Bank defines governance as the way public officials and public institutions acquire and exercise authority to provide public goods and services, including basic services, infrastructure, and a sound investment climate. Measuring governance and measuring corruption are not the same thing. While governance encompasses all of the state institutions and arrangements that shape the relations between the state and society, corruption is one aspect of poor governance—an outcome and a consequence of the failure of public accountability. Measuring the quality of policies, institutions, and governance—and corruption—is difficult and often subject to margins of error, whether based on objective or subjective information.

The World Bank has used assessments of government performance in allocating concessional resources since the mid-1970s. Focusing at first on macroeconomic management, the assessment criteria have expanded to include trade and financial policies, business regulation, social sector policies, the effectiveness of the public sector, and transparency, accountability, and corruption. Now called the Country Performance and Institutional Assessment (CPIA), the criteria are assessed annually for all World Bank borrowers.

This edition of *World Development Indicators* includes a new indicator table—Table 5.8, Public policies and institutions—showing the most recent CPIA data for 76 countries eligible to receive grants or credits from the International Development Association (IDA), the World Bank's concessional lending arm. Indicator tables 5.2 and 5.3 continue to report on government policies and regulations affecting the investment climate. Improved infrastructure such as roads, ports, and rails (indicator table 5.9), power and telecommunications (indicator tables 5.10 and 5.11), and water supply and sanitation (indicator table 2.15) are crucial for citizens' health, economic growth, and competitiveness. And effective, accountable governments are needed to complement an energetic private sector to deliver these services.

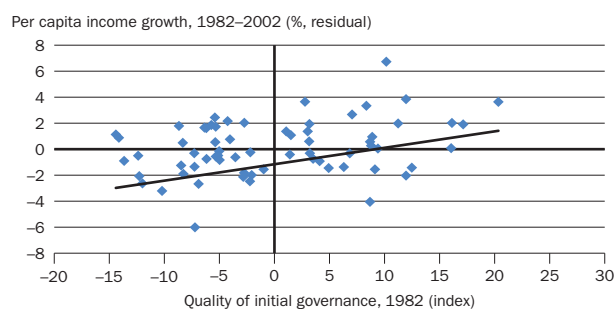
## Governance and growth

The first major World Bank discussion of the role of governance was the 1991 World Bank Discussion Paper *Managing Development: The Governance Dimension* (World Bank 1991). A few years later *World Development Report 1997: The State in a Changing World* (World Bank 1997d) argued that a determining factor in development was the effectiveness of the state. The report noted that “an effective state is vital for the provision of the goods and services—and the rules and institutions—that allow markets to flourish and people to lead healthier, happier lives. . . .” The 1997 report presented systematic assessments of the reliability of governmental institutions (predictability of rulemaking, perceptions of political stability, crime against persons and property, and reliability of judicial enforcement) and of corruption from a 1996 World Bank–sponsored survey. Subsequent research suggests that the causality between growth and governance is two-way—that improvements in either income or governance can give momentum to development—but that causation is stronger from governance to growth in income.

Although the links are complex, there is ample evidence of the connection between governance and long-term growth. Figure 5a shows the statistical relationship (controlling for initial income and schooling levels) between the quality of governance measured by an International Country Risk Guide (ICRG) index in 1982 and the growth of per capita income through 2002. The ICRG index comprises five elements of governance: corruption in government, rule of law, risk of expropriation, repudiation of contracts by government, and quality of the bureaucracy in 71 developing countries.

### Governance and growth go together

5a



Source: Knack 2006.

## Country Policy and Institutional Assessment

The CPIA indicators measure the extent to which a country’s policy and institutional framework supports sustainable growth and poverty reduction and, consequently, the effective use of development assistance. Country performance is assessed against 16 criteria grouped in four clusters: economic management, structural policies, policies for social inclusion and equity, and public sector management and institutions (box 5b).

The overall score for each country, known as the IDA Resource Allocation Index (IRAI), is a key element of a country’s IDA country performance rating. IDA resources are allocated in per capita terms on the basis of the country performance rating and, to a limited extent, per capita gross national income. This ensures that good performers receive a higher IDA allocation, in per capita terms. The individual CPIA criteria are also used to inform the World Bank’s country policy dialogue with member governments and for other operational and research purposes. Reflecting the IDA14 funding agreement, the numerical IRAI scores and separate CPIA criteria were first publicly disclosed for IDA recipient countries in June 2006 to enhance transparency and external scrutiny of these scores (see indicator table 5.8 and figure 5c).

The scores depend on actual policies and performance, rather than on promises or intentions. In some cases the passage of specific legislation can represent an important action that deserves consideration. But it is implementation of legislation that determines its impact. The average

### Criteria for measuring economic and sector policies and governance system

Box 5b

#### Cluster A: Economic management

- Macroeconomic management
- Fiscal policy
- Debt policy

#### Cluster B: Structural policies

- Trade
- Financial sector
- Business regulatory environment

#### Cluster C: Policies for social inclusion and equity

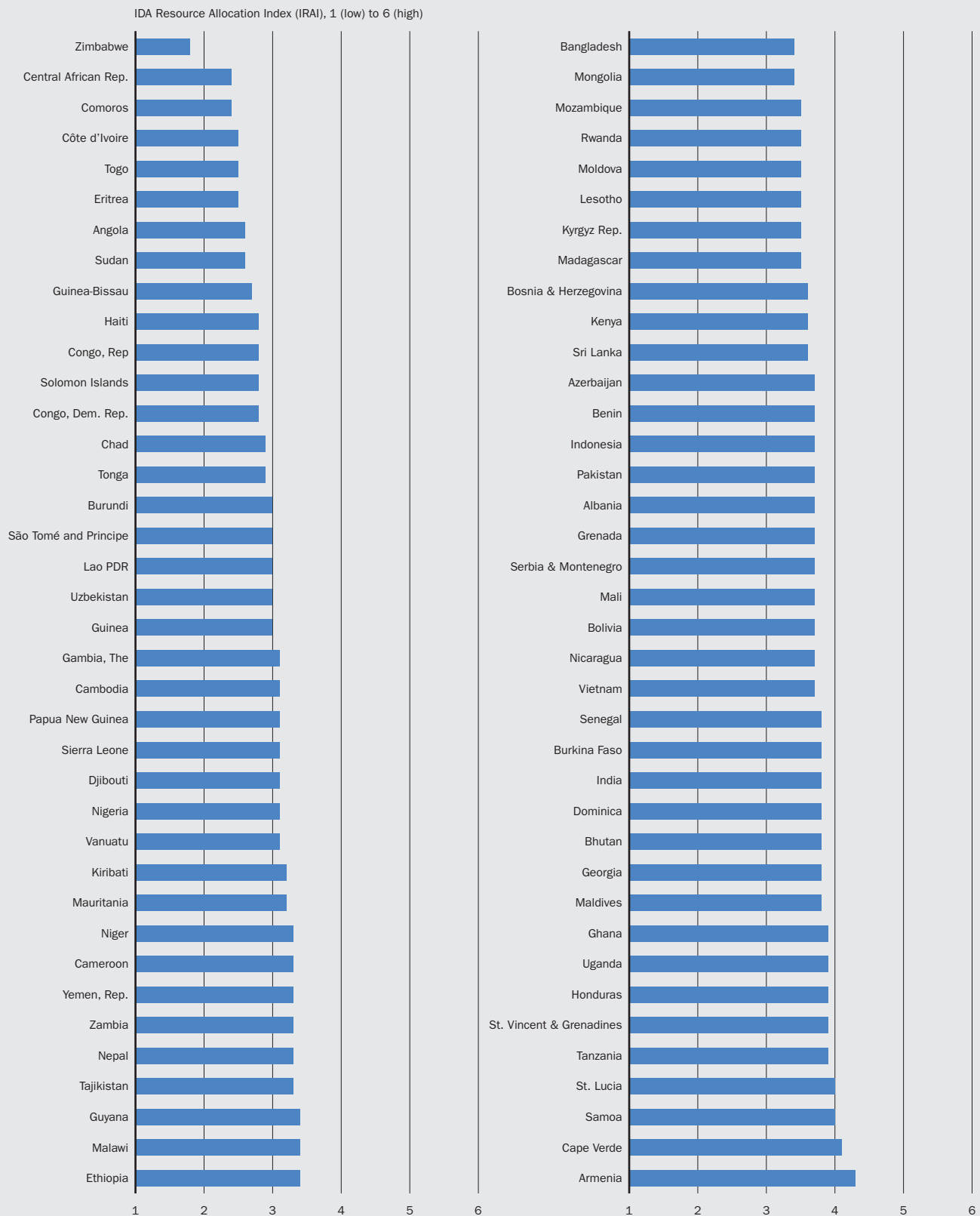
- Gender equality
- Equity of public resource use
- Building human resources
- Social protection and labor
- Policies and institutions for environmental sustainability

#### Cluster D: Public sector management and institutions

- Property rights and rule-based governance
- Quality of budgetary and financial management
- Efficiency of revenue mobilization
- Quality of public administration
- Transparency, accountability, and corruption in the public sector

The IDA Resource Allocation Index is a key element of a country's IDA performance rating

5c



Source: World Bank.

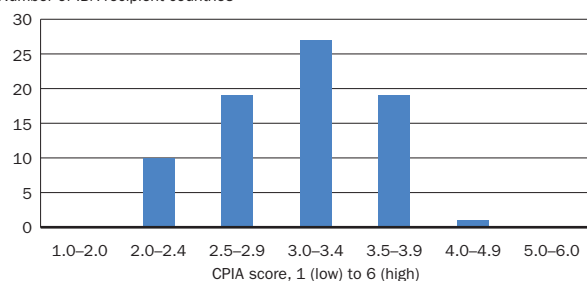
score on public sector management and institutions can be used as an aggregate indicator of the country's governance system (focused primarily on economic governance). It is a part of the "governance factor" that is given extra weight in the IDA country performance rating for determining IDA resource allocations. (For more information see [www.worldbank.org/ida](http://www.worldbank.org/ida).)

Scores on the CPIA public sector management and institutions cluster are bunched around the mid-range, with no countries scoring in either the lowest or highest ranges, and only one country in the 4.0–4.9 range (figure 5d). Although these measures give some indication of the quality of public sector management and institutions, for some countries they do not always match the strong performance on economic management policies (macroeconomic management, fiscal policy, and debt policy). Armenia, Bangladesh, Kyrgyz Republic, Tajikistan, and Uganda score relatively well on CPIA cluster A, economic management, but not so well on cluster D, public sector management and institutions (figure 5e). These patterns reveal the complexity of the relationships between measures of the quality of public sector management and institutions and economic outcomes, requiring better diagnostics and understanding of each country's situation to develop workable approaches to governance reform.

### On public sector management, countries bunch around the middle 5d

Distribution of IDA recipient scores for CPIA cluster D, public sector management and institutions, 2005

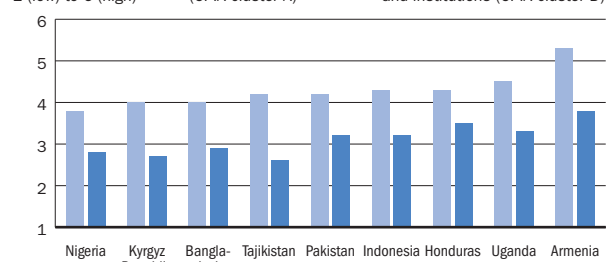
Number of IDA recipient countries



Source: World Bank.

### Strong performance on economic management, weaker on public sector management 5e

CPIA score, 1 (low) to 6 (high)



Source: World Bank.

## Other World Bank sources of data for monitoring governance

The growing recognition of the link between good governance and successful development has stimulated efforts to monitor the performance of governments and other public institutions by private commercial rating agencies, multilateral development institutions, and nongovernmental agencies. In addition to the CPIA policy and governance measures, the World Bank has several other governance and governance-related measurement programs and indicators that are used in monitoring governance. (See box 5g at the end of this introduction for other selected organizations' governance measurement initiatives.)

- **Worldwide Governance Indicators** are the most comprehensive publicly available governance indicators and among the most widely used by the media, academia, and international organizations for assessing governance. Compiled since 1996, these data measure the quality of six dimensions of governance for 213 countries, based on 31 data sources produced by 25 organizations (box 5f). The underlying data are based on hundreds of variables and reflect the perceptions and views of experts, firm survey respondents, and citizens worldwide on various dimensions of governance. The measures, also known as Kaufmann-Kraay, include the margins of error associated with each estimate, allowing users to identify a range of statistically likely ratings for each country, not just a

### Worldwide Governance Indicators—Six key dimensions of governance Box 5f

The Worldwide Governance Indicators measure the quality of six dimensions of governance:

- *Voice and accountability*, the extent to which a country's citizens are able to participate in selecting their government, as well as freedom of expression, freedom of association, and free media
- *Political stability and absence of violence*, perceptions of the likelihood that the government will be destabilized or overthrown by unconstitutional or violent means, including political violence and terrorism
- *Government effectiveness*, the quality of public services, the quality of the civil service and the degree of its independence from political pressures, the quality of policy formulation and implementation, and the credibility of the government's commitment to such policies
- *Regulatory quality*, the ability of the government to formulate and implement sound policies and regulations that permit and promote private sector development
- *Rule of law*, the extent to which agents have confidence in and abide by the rules of society, and in particular the quality of contract enforcement, the police, and the courts, as well as the likelihood of crime and violence
- *Control of corruption*, the extent to which public power is exercised for private gain, including both petty and grand forms of corruption, as well as "capture" of the state by elites and private interests.



single rating. Margins of error are present in all efforts to measure governance; some sources explicitly report them, while others do not. See [www.govindicators.org](http://www.govindicators.org).

- **Enterprise Surveys and the Business Environment and Enterprise Performance Surveys** capture business perceptions of the biggest obstacles to enterprise growth, the relative importance of various constraints to increasing employment and productivity, and the effects of a country's investment climate on its international competitiveness. Surveys cover almost 58,000 firms in 97 countries. Although designed to monitor the investment climate, which is a product of a number of governance-related factors, these surveys include measures, such as a business managers' perception of corruption as a constraint to doing business, that can be directly linked to governance and are therefore useful for governance monitoring at the country level. See indicator table 5.2 and [www.enterprisesurveys.org](http://www.enterprisesurveys.org) and <http://info.worldbank.org/governance/beeps>.
- **Doing Business** surveys cover key indicators on the environment for doing business for 175 economies. The indicators identify regulations that enhance or constrain business investment, productivity, and growth. Some indicators, such as enforcing contracts, are useful in monitoring governance. See indicator table 5.3 and [www.doingbusiness.org](http://www.doingbusiness.org).
- **Anticorruption Diagnostic Surveys** are designed to facilitate governance monitoring by providing inputs to policy-makers and civil society. The World Bank Institute's Governance Diagnostic Capacity Building program aims to strengthen the capacity of countries to conduct governance diagnostic surveys through technical assistance for the design of surveys and governance action plans, training, and partnerships between the government and civil society organizations. Agencies in several countries have undertaken governance and anticorruption diagnostic surveys. See [www.worldbank.org/wbi/governance](http://www.worldbank.org/wbi/governance) and click on Diagnostics.

- **HIPC (Highly Indebted Poor Countries) Public Expenditure Management Assessment and Action Plans** use expenditure tracking tools developed by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund to monitor poverty-reducing public expenditures in HIPCs. Data are collected on 15 indicators on budget formulation, execution, and reporting, and 1 indicator on government procurement. A new program to measure public expenditure and management has been developed and will be used for monitoring in HIPCs. See [www.worldbank.org/hipc](http://www.worldbank.org/hipc).
- **Public Expenditure and Financial Accountability Program**, started by the World Bank in 2001, is now a partnership with several multilateral and bilateral development institutions that support an integrated and harmonized approach to assessment and reform in public expenditure, procurement, and financial accountability. The public expenditure and financial accountability framework includes 28 indicators on budget credibility, transparency, auditing, and procurement, and three indicators on donor practices that affect the country public financial management system. The program is being implemented in 70 countries; 8 countries have completed reviews and made them available publicly (in addition, one country has published data for the indicators). See [www.pefa.org](http://www.pefa.org).
- **The Joint Venture on Procurement of the World Bank and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development's Development Assistance Committee** has selected 22 pilot developing countries to test the Common Benchmarking and Assessment Tool for Public Procurement, which developing countries and donors can use to assess the quality and effectiveness of national procurement systems. See [www.oecd.org](http://www.oecd.org) and search for Joint Venture on Procurement. For an overview of the World Bank's framework for global monitoring of governance and in-depth discussion of the uses and limitations of governance measures, see the World Bank and International Monetary Fund's (2006a) *Global Monitoring Report 2006*.

#### Other selected sources of data for monitoring governance

#### Box 5g

- **Freedom House**, a private nonprofit advocacy organization founded in 1941, was among the earliest to systematically measure and publish governance ratings. Freedom House has published *Freedom in the World* since 1972; it now includes ratings of political rights and civil liberties in 192 countries and territories. See [www.freedomhouse.org](http://www.freedomhouse.org).
- **International Country Risk Guide** is privately owned and has been assessing financial, economic, and political risks since 1980 for about 140 countries. See [www.prsgroup.com](http://www.prsgroup.com).
- **Transparency International (TI)**, a newer entrant, has attracted media attention since 1995 with its Corruption Perceptions Index. The index is a compilation of surveys of perceptions of resident and nonresident business people and expert assessments of the degree of corruption in a country. See [www.transparency.org](http://www.transparency.org).
- **Global Integrity**, a Washington, D.C.-based nonprofit organization funded by private foundations and the World Bank, assesses the existence and effectiveness of anticorruption mechanisms that promote public integrity. More than 290 indicators are used to generate the Global Integrity Index for more than 40 countries. See [www.globalintegrity.org](http://www.globalintegrity.org).
- **The Open Budget Initiative**, sponsored by the International Budget Project, tracks 122 indicators of budget transparency for almost 60 countries. The country reports give citizens, legislators, and civil society advocates comprehensive and practical information that can be used to assess a government's commitment to budget transparency and accountability. The initiative is funded by private foundations and bilateral aid agencies such as the U.K. Department for International Development and the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency. See [www.openbudgetindex.org](http://www.openbudgetindex.org).

# GLOBAL LINKS

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69



# G

## lobalization and global links

Globalization—the integration of the world economy—has been a persistent theme of the past quarter century. The growth of cross-border economic activity has changed the structure of economies and the political and social organization of countries. Not all effects of globalization can be measured directly. But the scope and pace of change can be monitored along four important channels: trade in goods and services, financial flows, the movement of people, and the diffusion of technology and knowledge.

- Exports and imports of goods and services exceeded \$26 trillion in 2005, or 58 percent of total global output, up from 44 percent in 1980. Developing economies still account for less than one-third of global trade, but their share has been increasing steadily.
- Gross private capital flows across national borders exceeded 32 percent of global output in 2005, up from 9 percent in 1980. Foreign direct investment and cross-border portfolio investment flows to developing economies have soared despite occasional setbacks.
- People have become more mobile. More than 800 million people traveled to foreign destinations in 2005, nearly triple the number in 1980. Some 190 million people are estimated to reside outside their land of birth, nearly double the 1980 level.
- Technology and knowledge are diffusing at unprecedented speed across countries. International phone traffic, measured in minutes, increased more than fourfold between 1995 and 2005 (see section 5).

Many factors have accelerated the pace of globalization. Barriers to international trade and investment are coming down. Technological progress has dramatically cut transportation and communications costs, enabling production processes and distribution networks to move from local to global. Some previously nontradable services can now be traded easily around the world. Efficiency gains due to resource allocation at global scale have made globalization an increasingly powerful source of growth.

Globalization has created opportunities and challenges for developing countries. While the experiences of China, India, Indonesia, Thailand, and some other countries have demonstrated that integration into the global economy is necessary for long-term growth and poverty reduction, concerns have emerged over equality of opportunity and the unequal distribution of benefits. Many poor countries and poor people in many countries have not been able to take full advantage of the opportunities brought by globalization or to participate in its benefits.

Removing the obstacles to full participation by poor countries and poor people is essential to making globalization more inclusive. For example, subsidies to domestic farmers in high-income economies have created formidable barriers for developing economies trying to reach global markets for agricultural products. But there is much that developing countries need to do to make their economies more competitive. Scaling up and increasing the flexibility of official development assistance could assist low-income countries' efforts to attract investment and improve their trade-facilitating infrastructure, whose limitations now constrict poor countries' capacity to take advantage of growing global opportunities.

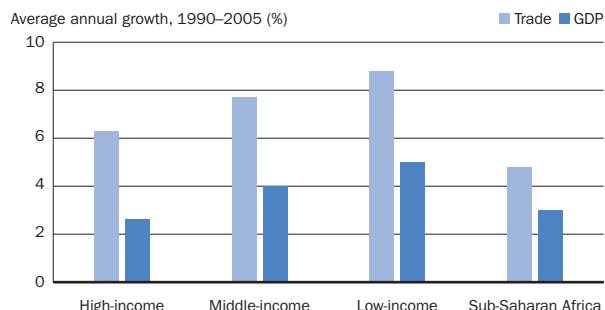
## Expanding trade

International trade is the hallmark of an integrated global economy. Between 1990 and 2005 growth in trade outpaced growth in the overall economy across the board (figure 6a). Low- and middle-income economies gained market share in world merchandise exports—from about 16 percent in 1990 to almost 30 percent in 2005 (indicator table 6.3)—but the Sub-Saharan share lagged at around 1.5 percent.

Trade between developing economies has expanded considerably and now makes up about 8 percent of world merchandise exports. Between 1990 and 2005 merchandise exports between developing economies grew at an impressive average annual rate of 13 percent, compared with less than 6 percent for exports between high-income economies (figure 6b). But tariff barriers affecting exports to developing economies are still much higher than those affecting exports to high-income economies. The simple mean tariff rate averages 9 percent in developing economies but less than 4 percent in high-income economies (indicator table 6.7).

### Trade growth outpaces GDP growth

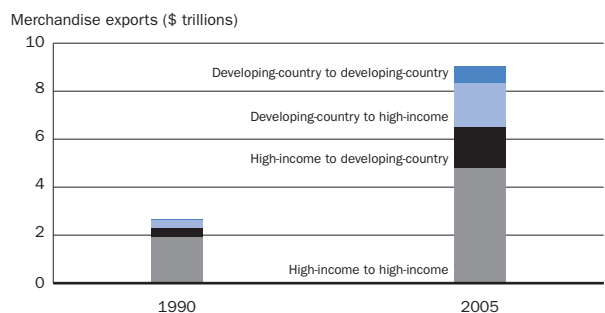
6a



Source: World Bank staff estimates.

### Exports from developing countries have grown fast

6b



Source: World Bank staff estimates.

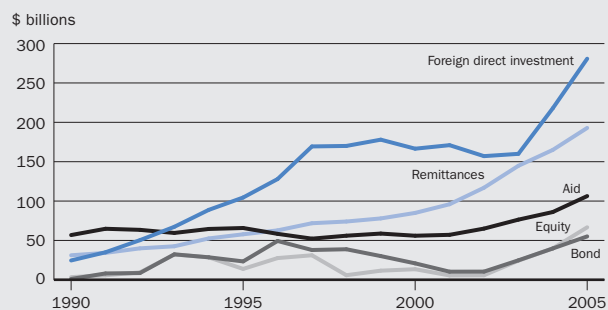
## Expanding flows of private financial resources

International private financial flows have increased rapidly in both gross and net terms. Between 1990 and 2005 total gross capital flows recorded in the balance of payments tripled as a share of world GDP, and high-income economies still account for the lion's share (indicator table 6.1). All types of external financial flows to developing economies have soared during this period, but foreign direct investment (FDI) remains the largest (figure 6c). From a low initial level of less than \$25 billion in 1990, net inflows of FDI to developing countries increased tenfold by 2005 (indicator table 6.8).

Large differences in external financial inflows exist among developing economies. The top 10 receivers of FDI net inflows accounted for about two-thirds of total FDI inflows among developing economies in 2005. FDI inflows are dominant in Latin America and Caribbean and East Asia and Pacific; portfolio investments are more important in South Asia (figure 6d). Meanwhile, some developing economies are increasingly investing overseas to expand their global operations.

### Foreign direct investment leads resource flows to developing economies

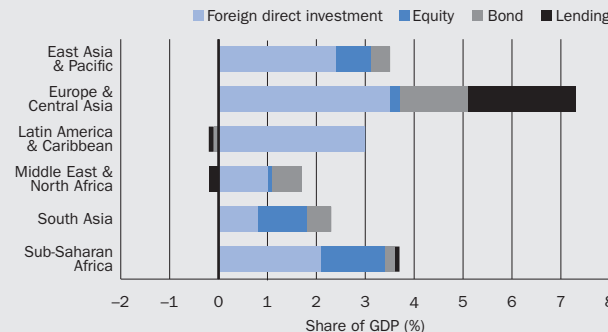
6c



Source: World Bank staff estimates.

### Developing economies differ greatly in external resource flows

6d

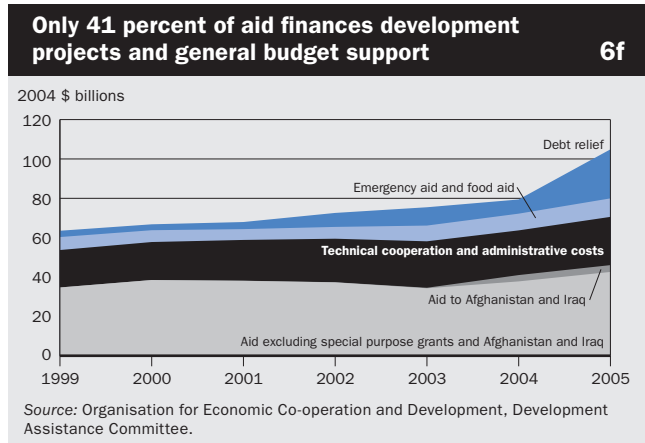
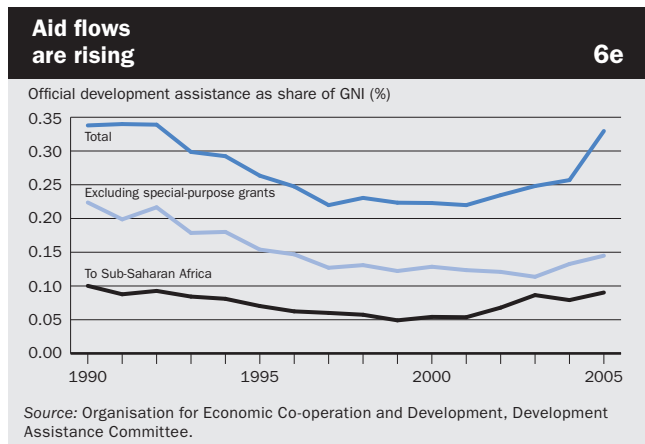


Source: World Bank staff estimates.

## Expanding aid and increasing emphasis on effective aid

Developed economies have committed to providing more and better aid, especially to the poorest economies that commit themselves to poverty reduction and good governance. After a period of decline and stagnation, aid flows began to rise, particularly after the Financing for Development conference in Monterrey, Mexico, in 2002. Total official development assistance (ODA) rose to a record high of \$106.8 billion in 2005 (indicator table 6.9). However, many donor economies still need to scale up aid significantly to fulfill commitments made at the Monterrey conference and at the Gleneagles Group of Eight summit in 2005 (figure 6e).

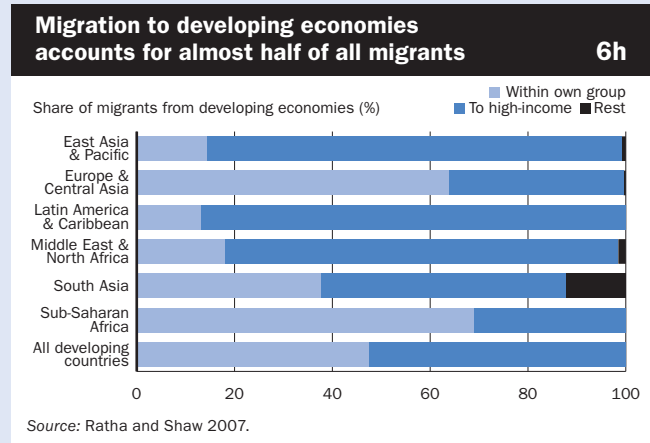
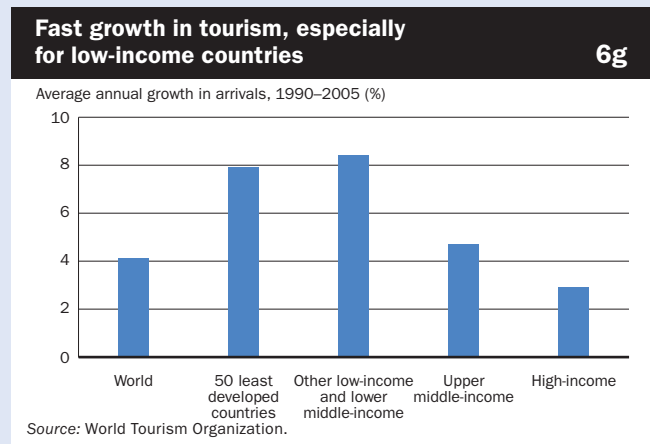
A large amount of aid is earmarked for special purposes. In 2005 more than half of ODA was used for special purposes such as debt relief, technical cooperation and administrative costs, and emergency relief and food aid (indicator table 6.10). Excluding these “special purpose” items and setting aside aid to Afghanistan and Iraq, only 41 percent of ODA in 2005 was available to finance development projects and budget support for general financing needs (figure 6f).



## Expanding movements of people

The flow of people across national borders is another mark of integration. Important for many developing economies, international tourism has increased rapidly since its downturn in 2001. In 2005 international tourist arrivals worldwide exceeded 800 million, nearly double the 1990 level. Receipts reached \$680 billion (excluding air tickets), accounting for 6.5 percent of global exports of goods and services (indicator table 6.15). Developing economies, accounting for a third of international tourist arrivals, are attracting new tourists at a faster rate than the world as whole (figure 6g).

International migration is a major global development issue, posing opportunities and challenges to both developed and developing economies. In 2005 recorded remittance flows repatriated by developing economy migrants were \$188 billion, close to 2 percent of GDP (indicator table 6.14). While high-income economies are the most popular destinations, migration between developing economies accounts for nearly half the migrants from developing economies (figure 6h). Migration between developing economies occurs primarily between neighbors, particularly in Europe and Central Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa.





# PRIMARY DATA DOCUMENTATION

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The World Bank is not a primary data collection agency for most areas other than business and investment climate surveys, living standards surveys, and external debt. As a major user of socioeconomic data, however, the World Bank recognizes the importance of data documentation to inform users of differences in the methods and conventions used by the primary data collectors—usually national statistical agencies, central banks, and customs services—and by international organizations, which compile the statistics that appear in the World Development Indicators database. These differences may give rise to significant discrepancies over time both within countries and across them. Delays in reporting data and the use of old surveys as the base for current estimates may further compromise the quality of data reported here.

The tables in this section provide information on sources, methods, and reporting standards of the principal demographic, economic, and environmental indicators in *World Development Indicators*. Additional documentation is available from the World Bank's Country Statistical Information Database at [www.worldbank.org/data](http://www.worldbank.org/data).

The demand for good quality statistical data is increasing. Timely and reliable statistics are key to the broad development strategy often referred to as “managing for results.” Monitoring and reporting on publicly agreed indicators is central to implementing poverty reduction strategies and lies at the heart of the Millennium Development Goals and the new Results Measurement System adopted for the 14th replenishment of the International Development Association.

A global action plan to improve national and international statistics was agreed on during the Second Roundtable on Managing for Development Results in February 2004 in Marrakech, Morocco. The plan, now referred to as the Marrakech Action Plan for Statistics, or MAPS, has been widely endorsed and forms the overarching framework for statistical capacity building. The Third Roundtable conference, held in February 2007 in Hanoi, Vietnam, reaffirmed MAPS as the guiding strategy for improving the capacity of the national and international statistical systems. See [www.mfdr.org/RT3](http://www.mfdr.org/RT3) for reports from the conference.

# PRIMARY DATA DOCUMENTATION

	Currency	National accounts					Balance of payments and trade			Government finance	IMF data dissemination standard	
		Base year	Reference year	System of National Accounts	SNA price valuation	Alternative conversion factor	PPP survey year	Balance of Payments Manual in use	External debt	System of trade	Accounting concept	
Afghanistan	Afghan afghani	2002/03			VAB						B	
Albania	Albanian lek	<sup>a</sup> 1996		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		1996	BPM5	Actual	G	C	G
Algeria	Algerian dinar	1980			VAB			BPM5	Actual	S	B	
Angola	Angolan kwanza	1997			VAB	1991–96		BPM4	Preliminary	S		G
Argentina	Argentine peso	1993		<sup>b</sup>	VAB	1971–84	1996	BPM5	Actual	S	C	S
Armenia	Armenian dram	<sup>a</sup> 1996		<sup>b</sup>	VAB	1990–95	2000	BPM5	Actual	S	C	S
Australia	Australian dollar	<sup>a</sup> 2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5		G	C	S
Austria	Euro	2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5		S	C	S
Azerbaijan	New Azeri manat	<sup>a</sup> 2003		<sup>b</sup>	VAB	1992–95	2000	BPM5	Actual	G	C	G
Bangladesh	Bangladesh taka	1995/96		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		1996	BPM5	Actual	G	C	G
Belarus	Belarusian rubel	<sup>a</sup> 2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB	1990–95	2000	BPM5	Actual	G	C	S
Belgium	Euro	2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5		S	C	S
Benin	CFA franc	1985			VAP	1992	1996	BPM5	Preliminary	S	B	G
Bolivia	Boliviano	1990		<sup>b</sup>	VAB	1960–85	1996	BPM5	Actual	S	C	G
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Konvertible mark	<sup>a</sup> 1996		<sup>b</sup>	VAB			BPM5	Actual		C	
Botswana	Botswana pula	1993/94		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		1996	BPM5	Actual	G	B	G
Brazil	Brazilian real	1990		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		1996	BPM5	Actual	S	C	S
Bulgaria	Bulgarian lev	<sup>a</sup> 2002		<sup>b</sup>	VAB	1978–89, 1991–92	2002	BPM5	Actual	G	C	S
Burkina Faso	CFA franc	1990			VAP	1992–93		BPM4	Actual	G	B	G
Burundi	Burundi franc	1980			VAB			BPM5	Actual	S	C	
Cambodia	Cambodian riel	2000			VAB			BPM5	Actual	G	C	G
Cameroon	CFA franc	2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		1996	BPM5	Preliminary	S	B	G
Canada	Canadian dollar	2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5		G	C	S
Central African Republic	CFA franc	1987			VAB			BPM4	Preliminary	S	B	G
Chad	CFA franc	1995			VAB			BPM5	Actual	S	C	G
Chile	Chilean peso	1996		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		1996	BPM5	Actual	S	C	S
China	Chinese yuan	2000	1990	<sup>b</sup>	VAP	1978–93	1986	BPM5	Preliminary	S	B	G
Hong Kong, China	Hong Kong dollar	2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		1996	BPM5		G	C	S
Colombia	Colombian peso	1994		<sup>b</sup>	VAB	1992–94		BPM5	Actual	S	C	S
Congo, Dem. Rep.	Congo franc	1987			VAB	1999–2001		BPM5	Preliminary	S	C	G
Congo, Rep.	CFA Franc	1978			VAP		1996	BPM5	Preliminary	S	C	G
Costa Rica	Costa Rican colon	1991		<sup>b</sup>	VAB			BPM5	Actual	S	C	S
Côte d'Ivoire	CFA franc	1996			VAP		1996	BPM5	Estimate	S	C	G
Croatia	Croatian kuna	<sup>a</sup> 1997		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5	Actual	G	C	S
Cuba	Cuban peso	1984			VAP					G		
Czech Republic	Czech koruna	2000	1995	<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5		G	C	S
Denmark	Danish krone	2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5		G	C	S
Dominican Republic	Dominican peso	1990			VAP			BPM5	Actual	G	C	G
Ecuador	U.S. dollar	2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		1996	BPM5	Preliminary	S	B	S
Egypt, Arab Rep.	Egyptian pound	1991/92			VAB		1996	BPM5	Actual	S	B	S
El Salvador	U.S. dollar	1990			VAB	1982–90		BPM5	Actual	S	C	S
Eritrea	Eritrean nakfa	1992			VAB			BPM4	Actual			
Estonia	Estonian kroon	2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB	1991–95	2002	BPM5	Actual	G	C	S
Ethiopia	Ethiopian birr	1999/2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB			BPM5	Actual	G	C	G
Finland	Euro	2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5		G	C	S
France	Euro	<sup>a</sup> 2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5		S	C	S
Gabon	CFA franc	1991			VAP	1993	1996	BPM5	Preliminary	S	B	G
Gambia, The	Gambian dalasi	1987			VAB			BPM5	Actual	G	B	G
Georgia	Georgian lari	<sup>a</sup> 1994		<sup>b</sup>	VAB	1990–95	2000	BPM5	Actual	G	C	G
Germany	Euro	2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5		S	C	S
Ghana	Ghanaian cedi	1975			VAP	1973–87		BPM5	Actual	G	B	G
Greece	Euro	<sup>a</sup> 2000			VAB		2002	BPM5		S	C	S
Guatemala	Guatemalan quetzal	1958			VAP		1980	BPM5	Actual	S	B	G
Guinea	Guinean franc	1996	1994		VAB		1996	BPM5	Estimate	S	B	G
Guinea-Bissau	CFA franc	1986			VAB			BPM5	Estimate	G		G
Haiti	Haitian gourde	1975/76			VAB	1991		BPM5	Actual	G		



# PRIMARY DATA DOCUMENTATION

	Latest population census	Latest demographic, education, or health household survey	Source of most recent income and expenditure data	Vital registration complete	Latest agricultural census	Latest industrial data	Latest trade data	Latest water withdrawal data
Afghanistan	1979	MICS, 2003					1977	1987
Albania	2001	RHS, 2002	LSMS, 2004	Yes	1998	1990	2005	1995
Algeria	1998	MICS, 2000	HLSS, 1995		2001	2004	2004	1995
Angola	1970	MICS, 2001			1964–65		1991	1987
Argentina	2001		EPH, 2003	Yes	2002	2001	2005	1995
Armenia	2001	DHS, 2000	ILCS, 2003	Yes			2005	1994
Australia	2001		SIHC, 1994	Yes	2001	2004	2005	1985
Austria	2001		Microcensus 2000	Yes	1999–2000	2004	2005	1991
Azerbaijan	1999	RHS, 2001	HBS, 2003	Yes			2005	1995
Bangladesh	2001	DHS, 2004	HES, 2000		1996	2004	2004	1990
Belarus	1999		IES, 2002	Yes	1994		2005	1990
Belgium	2001		ECHP, 2000	Yes	1999–2000 <sup>c</sup>	2004	2005	
Benin	2002	DHS, 2001	CWIQ, 2003		1992	1999	2005	1994
Bolivia	2001	DHS, 2003	MECOVI, 2002		1984–88	2001	2005	1987
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1991	MICS, 2000	LSMS, 2001	Yes		1991	2005	1995
Botswana	2001	MICS, 2000	HIES, 1993–94		1993	2003	2003	1992
Brazil	2000	DHS, 1996	PNAD, 2004		1996	1995	2005	1992
Bulgaria	2001		HBS, 2003	Yes		2003	2005	1988
Burkina Faso	1996	DHS, 2003	EVCBM, 2003		1993	2004	2004	1992
Burundi	1990	MICS, 2000	Priority survey, 1998			2004	2005	1987
Cambodia	1998	DHS, 2005	SES, 2004				2004	1987
Cameroon	1987	DHS, 2004	Priority survey, 2001		1984	2002	2005	1987
Canada	2001		EBC, 2001	Yes	1996/2001	2004	2005	1991
Central African Republic	2003	MICS, 2000	SLID, 2000		1985	2004	2005	1987
Chad	1993	DHS, 2004	EPI, 1993			1975	1995	1987
Chile	2002		CASEN, 2003	Yes	1996–97	2004	2005	1987
China	2000	Intercensal survey 1995	HHS (Rural/Urban), 2004		1997	2003	2005	1993
Hong Kong, China	2006			Yes		2002	2005	
Colombia	2005	DHS, 2005	ECV, 2003		2001	2004	2005	1996
Congo, Dem. Rep.	1984	MICS, 2001			1990		1986	1990
Congo, Rep.	1996	DHS, 2005			1985–86	1988	1995	1987
Costa Rica	2000	RHS, 1993	EHPM, 2003	Yes	1973	2004	2005	1997
Côte d'Ivoire	1998	MICS, 2000; AIS, 2005	LSMS, 2002		2001	1997	2005	1987
Croatia	2001		HBS, 2001	Yes	2003	1992	2005	1996
Cuba	2002	MICS, 2000		Yes		1989	2004	1995
Czech Republic	2001	RHS, 1993	Microcensus 1996/97	Yes	2000	1998	2005	1991
Denmark	2001		Income Tax Register 1997	Yes	1999–2000	2004	2005	1990
Dominican Republic	2002	DHS, 2002	ENFT, 2004		1971	2004	2001	1994
Ecuador	2001	RHS, 2004	LSMS, 1998		1999–2000	2004	2005	1997
Egypt, Arab Rep.	1996	DHS, 2005	HECS, 2000	Yes	1999–2000		2004	1996
El Salvador	1992	RHS, 2002/03	EHPM, 2002	Yes	1970–71	2004	2004	1992
Eritrea	1984	DHS, 2002				2003	2003	
Estonia	2000		HBS, 2003	Yes	2001	2003	2005	1995
Ethiopia	1994	DHS, 2005	ICES, 2000		2001–02	2002	2003	1987
Finland	2000		IDS, 2000	Yes	1990–2000	2004	2005	1991
France	1999		HBS, 1994/95	Yes	1999–2000	2004	2005	1999
Gabon	2003	DHS, 2000			1974–75		2004	1987
Gambia, The	2003	MICS, 2000	HHS, 1998		2001–02	1982	2005	1982
Georgia	2002	MICS, 1999; RHS, 1999	SGH, 2003	Yes			2005	1990
Germany	2004		GSOEP, 2000	Yes	1999–2000	2003	2005	1991
Ghana	2000	SPA, 2002; DHS, 2003	LSMS, 1998/99		1984	2004	2004	1997
Greece	2001		ECHP, 2000	Yes	1999–2000	2004	2005	1980
Guatemala	2002	RHS, 2002	ENEI-2, 2002	Yes	2003	2004	2005	1992
Guinea	1996	DHS, 2005	LSMS, 1994		2000		2002	1987
Guinea-Bissau	1991	MICS, 2000	IES, 1993		1988		1995	1991
Haiti	2003	DHS, 2000	ECVH, 2001		1971	1996	1997	1991

# PRIMARY DATA DOCUMENTATION

	Currency	National accounts					Balance of payments and trade			Government finance	IMF data dissemination standard	
		Base year	Reference year	System of National Accounts	SNA price valuation	Alternative conversion factor	PPP survey year	Balance of Payments Manual in use	External debt	System of trade	Accounting concept	
Honduras	Honduran lempira	1978			VAB	1988–89		BPM5	Actual	S		G
Hungary	Hungarian forint	<sup>a</sup> 2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5	Actual	S	C	S
India	Indian rupee	1999/2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB			BPM5	Actual	G	C	S
Indonesia	Indonesian rupiah	2000			VAP		1996	BPM5	Preliminary	S	C	S
Iran, Islamic Rep.	Iranian rial	1997/98			VAB	1980–90	1996	BPM5	Actual	G	C	
Iraq	Iraqi dinar	1997			VAB					S		
Ireland	Euro	2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5		G	C	S
Israel	Israeli new shekel	2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAP		2002	BPM5		S	C	S
Italy	Euro	2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5		S	C	S
Jamaica	Jamaica dollar	1996			VAB		1996	BPM5	Preliminary	G	C	G
Japan	Japanese yen	2000			VAB		2002	BPM5		G	C	S
Jordan	Jordan dinar	1994			VAB		1996	BPM5	Actual	G	B	G
Kazakhstan	Kazakh tenge	<sup>a</sup> 1995		<sup>b</sup>	VAB	1987–95	2000	BPM5	Actual	G	C	S
Kenya	Kenya shilling	2001		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		1996	BPM5	Preliminary	G	B	G
Korea, Dem. Rep.	Democratic Republic of Korea won							BPM5				
Korea, Rep.	Korean won	2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5		S	C	S
Kuwait	Kuwaiti dinar	1995			VAP			BPM5		S	C	G
Kyrgyz Republic	Kyrgyz som	<sup>a</sup> 1995		<sup>b</sup>	VAB	1990–95	2000	BPM5	Actual	G	B	S
Lao PDR	Lao kip	1990			VAB		1993	BPM5	Preliminary	G		
Latvia	Latvian lat	2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB	1991–95	2002	BPM5	Actual	S	C	S
Lebanon	Lebanese pound	2003			VAB		1996	BPM4	Actual	G	B	G
Lesotho	Lesotho loti	1995		<sup>b</sup>	VAB			BPM5	Actual	G	C	G
Liberia	Liberian dollar	1992			VAB				Estimate			G
Libya	Libyan dinar	1975			VAB	1986		BPM5		G		
Lithuania	Lithuanian litas	2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB	1990–95	2002	BPM5	Actual	G	C	S
Macedonia, FYR	Macedonian denar	1997	1995	<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5	Actual	G		G
Madagascar	Malagasy ariary	1984			VAB		1996	BPM5	Actual	S	C	G
Malawi	Malawi kwacha	1994			VAB		1996	BPM5	Actual	G	B	G
Malaysia	Malaysian ringgit	1987			VAP		1993	BPM5	Estimate	G	C	S
Mali	CFA franc	1987			VAB		1996	BPM4	Actual	G		G
Mauritania	Mauritanian ouguiya	1985			VAB			BPM4	Actual	G		G
Mauritius	Mauritian rupee	1997/98			VAB		1996	BPM5	Actual	G	C	G
Mexico	Mexican new peso	1993		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5	Actual	G	C	S
Moldova	Moldovan leu	<sup>a</sup> 1996		<sup>b</sup>	VAB	1987–95	2000	BPM5	Actual	G	C	S
Mongolia	Mongolian tugrik	2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2000	BPM5	Actual	S	C	G
Morocco	Moroccan dirham	1980			VAP		1996	BPM5	Actual	S	C	S
Mozambique	Mozambican metical	1995			VAB	1992–95		BPM5	Actual	S		G
Myanmar	Myanmar kyat	1985/86			VAP			BPM5	Estimate	G	C	
Namibia	Namibia dollar	1995/96		<sup>b</sup>	VAB			BPM5			B	G
Nepal	Nepalese rupee	1994/95			VAB		1996	BPM5	Actual	S	C	G
Netherlands	Euro	<sup>a</sup> 2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5		S	C	S
New Zealand	New Zealand dollar	2000/01			VAB		2002	BPM5		G	C	
Nicaragua	Nicaraguan gold cordoba	1994		<sup>b</sup>	VAB	1965–93		BPM5	Actual	S	C	G
Niger	CFA franc	1987			VAP	1993		BPM5	Preliminary	S		G
Nigeria	Nigerian naira	1987			VAB	1971–98	1996	BPM5	Preliminary	G		G
Norway	Norwegian krone	<sup>a</sup> 2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5		G	C	S
Oman	Rial Omani	1988			VAP		1996	BPM5	Actual	G	B	G
Pakistan	Pakistan rupee	1999/2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		1996	BPM5	Actual	G	C	G
Panama	Panamanian balboa	1996		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		1996	BPM5	Actual	S	C	G
Papua New Guinea	Papua New Guinea kina	1983			VAB	1989		BPM5	Actual	G	B	
Paraguay	Paraguayan guarani	1994		<sup>b</sup>	VAP	1982–88		BPM5	Actual	S	B	G
Peru	Peruvian new sol	1994			VAB	1985–91	1996	BPM5	Actual	S	C	S
Philippines	Philippine peso	1985			VAP		1996	BPM5	Actual	G	B	S
Poland	Polish zloty	<sup>a</sup> 2002		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5	Actual	S	C	S
Portugal	Euro	2000		<sup>b</sup>	VAB		2002	BPM5		S	C	S
Puerto Rico	U.S. dollar	1954			VAP					G		

# PRIMARY DATA DOCUMENTATION

	Latest population census	Latest demographic, education, or health household survey	Source of most recent income and expenditure data	Vital registration complete	Latest agricultural census	Latest industrial data	Latest trade data	Latest water withdrawal data
Honduras	2001	DHS, 2005	EPHPM, 2003		1993	2004	2005	1992
Hungary	2001		FBS, 2002	Yes	2000	2004	2005	1991
India	2001	MICS, 2000	NSS, 2004/05		1995-96/ 2000-01	2004	2005	1990
Indonesia	2000	DHS, 2002	SUSENAS, 2002		2003	2003	2005	1990
Iran, Islamic Rep.	1996	DHS, 2000	SECH, 1998	Yes	2003	2004	2005	1993
Iraq	1997	MICS, 2000			1981	2004	1976	1990
Ireland	2006		ECHP, 2000	Yes	2000	2004	2005	1980
Israel	1995		HES, 2001	Yes	1981	2004	2005	1997
Italy	2001		SHIW, 2000	Yes	2000	2003	2005	1998
Jamaica	2001	RHS, 2002/03	LSMS, 2004		1978-79	2004	2004	1993
Japan	2005			Yes	2000	2004	2005	1992
Jordan	2004	DHS, 2002	HIES, 1997		1997	2004	2005	1993
Kazakhstan	1999	DHS, 1999	HBS, 2003	Yes			2005	1993
Kenya	1999	DHS, 2003; SPA, 2004	WMS II, 1997		1977-79	2004	2004	1990
Korea, Dem. Rep.	1993	MICS, 2000						1987
Korea, Rep.	2000		NSFIE, 1998/99	Yes	2000	2004	2005	1994
Kuwait	1995	FHS, 1996		Yes	1970	2001	2001	1994
Kyrgyz Republic	1999	DHS, 1997	HBS, 2003	Yes	2002		2005	1994
Lao PDR	2005	MICS, 2000	ECS I, 2002		1998-99		1974	1987
Latvia	2000		HBS, 2003	Yes	2001	2003	2005	1994
Lebanon	1970	MICS, 2000			1998-99		2004	1996
Lesotho	1996	DHS, 2004	HBS, 1995		1999-2000	1985	2002	1987
Liberia	1984	MICS, 1995					1984	1987
Libya	1995	MICS, 2000			2001	2004	2004	1999
Lithuania	2001		HBS, 2003	Yes	1994	2003	2005	1995
Macedonia, FYR	2002		HBS, 2003	Yes	1994	1996	2005	1996
Madagascar	1993	DHS, 2003/04	Priority survey, 2001		1984-85	2003	2004	1984
Malawi	1998	DHS, 2004	HHS, 2004/05		1993	2004	2005	1994
Malaysia	2000		HIBAS, 1997	Yes		2002	2005	1995
Mali	1998	DHS, 2001	EMCES, 2001		1984		2001	1987
Mauritania	2000	DHS, 2000/01	LSMS, 2000		1984-85	1978	1996	1985
Mauritius	2000			Yes		2004	2005	
Mexico	2000	ENPF, 1995	ENIGH, 2004		1991	2000	2005	1998
Moldova	2004	DHS, 2005	HBS, 2003	Yes		2003	2005	1992
Mongolia	2000	MICS, 2000	LSMS/Integrated Survey, 2002	Yes		1995	2005	1993
Morocco	2004	DHS, 2003/04	LSMS, 1998/99		1996	2001	2005	1998
Mozambique	1997	DHS, 2003	NHS, 2002/03		1999-2000	2004	2005	1992
Myanmar	1983	MICS, 2000			2003		1993	1987
Namibia	2001	DHS, 2000	NHIES, 1993		1996-97	1994	2003	1991
Nepal	2001	DHS, 2001	LSMS, 2003/04		2002	2002	2003	1994
Netherlands	2001		ECHP, 1999	Yes	1999-2000 <sup>c</sup>	2004	2005	1991
New Zealand	2006			Yes	2002	2004	2005	1991
Nicaragua	2005	DHS, 2001	LSMS, 2001		2001	2004	2005	1998
Niger	2001	MICS, 2000			1980	2002	2005	1988
Nigeria	2006	DHS, 2003	LSMS, 2003		1960		2003	1987
Norway	2001		IF 2000	Yes	1999	2004	2005	1985
Oman	2003	FHS, 1995			1978-79	2003	2005	1991
Pakistan	1998	RHS, 2000/01	PIHS, 2002		2000	2004	2005	1991
Panama	2000	LSMS, 2003	EH, 2003		2001	2004	2005	1990
Papua New Guinea	2000	DHS, 1996	HGS, 1996			2004	2003	1987
Paraguay	2002	RHS, 2004	EIH, 2003		1991	2004	2004	1987
Peru	2005	DHS, 2004	ENAHQ, 2003		1994	1996	2005	1992
Philippines	2000	DHS, 2003	FIES, 2003	Yes	2002	2004	2005	1995
Poland	2002		HBS, 2002	Yes	1996/2002	2004	2005	1991
Portugal	2001			Yes	1999	2004	2005	1990
Puerto Rico	2000	RHS, 1995/96		Yes	1997/2002	2002		

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	Currency	National accounts						Balance of payments and trade			Government finance	IMF data dissemination standard	
		Base year	Reference year	System of National Accounts	SNA price valuation	Alternative conversion factor	PPP survey year	Balance of Payments Manual in use	External debt	System of trade	Accounting concept		
Romania	New Romanian leu	a	1999	b	VAB	1987–89, 1992	2002	BPM5	Actual	S	C	S	
Russian Federation	Russian ruble		2000	b	VAB	1987–95	2002	BPM5	Preliminary	G	C	S	
Rwanda	Rwanda franc		1995		VAP			BPM5	Preliminary	G	C	G	
Saudi Arabia	Saudi Arabian riyal		1999		VAP			BPM4		G			
Senegal	CFA franc		1999	1987	b	VAP	1996	BPM5	Preliminary	S	B	G	
Serbia and Montenegro	Yugoslav new dinar		1998		VAB				Actual		C		
Sierra Leone	Sierra Leonean leone		2001	1990	b	VAB	1996	BPM5	Actual	G	B	G	
Singapore	Singapore dollar		1995		b	VAB	1996	BPM5		G	C	S	
Slovak Republic	Slovak koruna		2000	1995	b	VAP	2002	BPM5	Actual	G	C	S	
Slovenia	Slovenian tolar		a	2000	b	VAB	2002	BPM5		S	C	S	
Somalia	Somali shilling		1985		VAB	1977–90			Estimate				
South Africa	South African rand		2000		b	VAB		BPM5	Preliminary	S	C	S	
Spain	Euro		2000		b	VAB	2002	BPM5		S	C	S	
Sri Lanka	Sri Lankan rupee		1996		VAB		1996	BPM5	Actual	G	B	G	
Sudan	Sudanese dinar	1981/82 <sup>d</sup>	1982		VAB			BPM5	Actual	G	B	G	
Swaziland	Lilangeni		1985		VAB		1996		Actual		B	G	
Sweden	Swedish krona		a	2000		VAB	2002	BPM5		G	C	S	
Switzerland	Swiss franc		2000		VAB		2002	BPM5		S	C	S	
Syrian Arab Republic	Syrian pound		2000		VAB	1970–2005	1996	BPM5	Estimate	S	C		
Tajikistan	Tajik somoni		a	1997	b	VAB	1990–95	2000	BPM5	Preliminary	G	C	G
Tanzania	Tanzania shilling		1992		VAB		1996	BPM5	Estimate	S		G	
Thailand	Thai baht		1988		VAP		1996	BPM5	Preliminary	G	C	S	
Togo	CFA franc		1978		VAP			BPM5	Actual	S	B	G	
Trinidad and Tobago	Trinidad and Tobago dollar		2000		b	VAB	1996	BPM5	Actual	S	C	G	
Tunisia	Tunisian dinar		1990		VAP		1996	BPM5	Actual	G	C	S	
Turkey	Turkish lira		1987		VAB		2002	BPM5	Actual	S	B	S	
Turkmenistan	Turkmen manat		a	1987	b	VAB	1987–95, 1997–2005	2000	BPM5	Actual	G		
Uganda	Uganda shilling	1997/98			VAB			BPM5	Actual	G	B	G	
Ukraine	Ukrainian hryvnia		a	2003	b	VAB	1990–95	2000	BPM5	Actual	G	C	S
United Arab Emirates	U.A.E. dirham		1995		VAB			BPM4		G	C		
United Kingdom	Pound sterling		2000		b	VAB	2002	BPM5		G	C	S	
United States	U.S. dollar		a	2000		VAB	2002	BPM5		G	C	S	
Uruguay	Uruguayan peso		1983		VAB		1996	BPM5	Actual	S	C	S	
Uzbekistan	Uzbek sum		a	1997	b	VAB	1990–95	2000	BPM5	Actual	G		
Venezuela, RB	Venezuelan bolivar		1984		VAB		1996	BPM5	Actual	G	C	G	
Vietnam	Vietnamese dong		1994		b	VAP	1991	1996	BPM4	Actual	G	C	G
West Bank and Gaza	Israeli new shekel		1997		VAB						B	G	
Yemen, Rep.	Yemen rial		1990		VAP	1991–96	1996	BPM5	Actual	G	B	G	
Zambia	Zambian kwacha		1994		VAB	1990–92	1996	BPM5	Actual	G	B	G	
Zimbabwe	Zimbabwe dollar		1990		VAB	1991, 1998	1996	BPM5	Actual	G	C	G	

# PRIMARY DATA DOCUMENTATION

	Latest population census	Latest demographic, education, or health household survey	Source of most recent income and expenditure data	Vital registration complete	Latest agricultural census	Latest industrial data	Latest trade data	Latest water withdrawal data
Romania	2002	RHS, 1999	LSMS, 2003	Yes	2002		2005	1994
Russian Federation	2002	RHS, 1996	LMS, Round 9, 2002	Yes	1994–95	2000	2005	1994
Rwanda	2002	DHS, 2005	LSMS, 1999/2000		1984	2004	2003	1993
Saudi Arabia	2004	Demographic survey, 1999			1999	1989	2005	1992
Senegal	2002	DHS, 2005	ESASM 1995		1998–99	1997	2005	1987
Serbia and Montenegro	Serbia 2002, MICS, 2000 Montenegro 2003			Yes		2002	2004	
Sierra Leone	2004	MICS, 2000	SHEHEA, 1989–90		1984–85	1993	2002	1987
Singapore	2000	General household, 2005		Yes		2004	2005	1975
Slovak Republic	2001		Microcensus, 1996	Yes	2001	1999	2005	1991
Slovenia	2002		HBS, 1998	Yes	2000	2003	2005	1996
Somalia	1987	MICS, 1999				2003	1982	1987
South Africa	2001	DHS, 1998	IES, 2000			2003	2005	1990
Spain	2001		ECHP, 2000	Yes	1999	2004	2005	1997
Sri Lanka	2001	DHS, 1987	HIEs, 2002	Yes	2002	2001	2005	1990
Sudan	1993	MICS, 2000				2001	2005	1995
Swaziland	1997	MICS, 2000	SHIES, 2000/01		2000	2004	2002	
Sweden	2005		HINK, 2000	Yes	1999–2000	2004	2005	1991
Switzerland	2000		EVE, 2000	Yes	2000	1997	2005	1991
Syrian Arab Republic	1994	MICS, 2000			1981	2004	2004	1995
Tajikistan	2000	MICS, 2000	LSMS, 2003	Yes	1994		2000	1994
Tanzania	2002	DHS, 2004	HIES, 2000/01		2003	2004	2005	1994
Thailand	2000	DHS, 1987	SES, 2002		2003	2002	2005	1990
Togo	1981	MICS, 2000			1996	2004	2005	1987
Trinidad and Tobago	2000	MICS, 2000	LSMS, 1992	Yes	2004	2004	2005	1997
Tunisia	2004	MICS, 2000	LSMS, 2000		2004	2004	2005	1996
Turkey	2000	DHS, 1998	LSMS, 2002		2001	2004	2005	1997
Turkmenistan	1995	DHS, 2000	LSMS, 1998	Yes			2000	1994
Uganda	2002	DHS, 2000/01; AIS, 2004	NIHS III, 2002		1991	2004	2005	1970
Ukraine	2001	MICS, 2000	HBS, 2003	Yes			2005	1992
United Arab Emirates	2005				1998	2004	2001	1995
United Kingdom	2001		FRS, 1999	Yes	1999–2000 <sup>c</sup>	2004	2005	1991
United States	2000	CPS (monthly)	CPS, 2000	Yes	1997/2002	2004	2005	1990
Uruguay	1996		ECH, 2003	Yes	2000	1997	2005	1965
Uzbekistan	1989	MICS, 2000; DHS special, 2002	FBS, 2003	Yes				1994
Venezuela, RB	2001	MICS, 2000	EHM, 2003	Yes	1997	2003	2005	1970
Vietnam	1999	DHS 2002; AIS 2005	LSMS, 2004		2001	2000	2003	1990
West Bank and Gaza	1997	Health Survey, 2000			1971			
Yemen, Rep.	2004	DHS, 1997	HBS, 1998		2002	2003	2005	1990
Zambia	2000	DHS, 2001/02; SPA, 2005	LCMS II, 2004		1990	2004	2005	1994
Zimbabwe	2002	DHS, 1999	LCMS III, 1995		1960	2004	2004	1987

**Note:** For explanation of the abbreviations used in the table see notes following the table.

a. Original chained constant price data are rescaled. b. Country uses the 1993 System of National Accounts methodology. c. Conducted annually. d. Reporting period switch from fiscal year to calendar year from 1996. Pre-1996 data converted to calendar year.

• **Base year** is the year used as the base or pricing period for constant price calculations in the country's national accounts. Price indexes derived from national accounts aggregates, such as the implicit deflator for gross domestic product (GDP), express the price level relative to prices in the base year. • **Reference year** is the year in which the local currency, constant price series of a country is valued. In most cases the reference year is same as the base year used to report the constant price series. However, when the constant price data are chain linked, the base year is changed annually, so the data are rescaled to a specific reference year to provide a consistent time series. In a few other cases, when the country has not rescaled following a change in base year, World Bank staff rescale the data to maintain a longer historical series. To allow for cross-country comparison and aggregation of the data, constant price data reported in *World Development Indicators* are rescaled to a common reference year (2000) and currency (U.S. dollars). • **System of National Accounts** identifies countries that use the 1993 System of National Accounts (1993 SNA), the terminology applied in *World Development Indicators* since 2001, to compile their national accounts. Although more and more countries are adopting the 1993 SNA, many countries continue to follow the 1968 SNA, and some low-income countries still use concepts from the 1953 SNA. • **SNA price valuation** shows whether value added in the national accounts is reported at basic prices (VAB) or at producer prices (VAP). Producer prices include the value of taxes paid by producers and thus tend to overstate the actual value added in production. However, the VAB prices can be higher than VAP prices in countries that have high agricultural subsidies. See *About the data* for tables 4.1 and 4.2 for further discussion of national accounts valuation. • **Alternative conversion factor** identifies the countries and years for which a World Bank–estimated conversion factor has been used in place of the official exchange rate (line rf in the International Monetary Fund's [IMF] *International Financial Statistics*). See *Statistical methods* for further discussion of the use of alternative conversion factors. • **Purchasing power parity (PPP) survey year** refers to the latest available survey year for the International Comparison Program's estimates of PPPs. For a more detailed description of PPPs see *About the data* for table 1.1.1. • **Balance of Payments Manual in use** refers to the classification system used for compiling and reporting data on balance of payments items in table 4.15. BPM4 refers to the 4th edition of the

IMF's *Balance of Payments Manual* (1977), and BPM5 to the 5th edition (1993). • **External debt** shows debt reporting status for 2005 data. *Actual* indicates that data are as reported; *preliminary* indicates that data are preliminary and include an element of staff estimation; and *estimate* indicates that data are World Bank staff estimates. • **System of trade** refers to the United Nations general trade system (G) or the special trade system (S). For imports under the general trade system both goods entering directly for domestic consumption and goods entered into customs storage are recorded as imports at the time of arrival; under the special trade system goods are recorded as imports when they are declared for domestic consumption whether at the time of entry or on withdrawal from customs storage. Exports under the general system comprise outward-moving goods: (a) national goods wholly or partly produced in the country; (b) foreign goods, neither transformed nor declared for domestic consumption in the country, that move outward from customs storage; and (c) nationalized goods that have been declared from domestic consumption and move outward without having been transformed. Under the special system of trade exports comprise categories (a) and (c). In some compilations categories (b) and (c) are classified as re-exports. Direct transit trade, consisting of goods entering or leaving for transport purposes only, is excluded from both import and export statistics. See *About the data* for tables 4.4, 4.5, and 6.2 for further discussion. • **Government finance accounting concept** describes the accounting basis for reporting central government financial data. For most countries government finance data have been consolidated (C) into one set of accounts capturing all the central government's fiscal activities. Budgetary central government accounts (B) exclude some central government units. See *About the data* for tables 4.10, 4.11, and 4.12 for further details. • **IMF data dissemination standard** shows the countries that subscribe to the IMF's Special Data Dissemination Standard (SDDS) or General Data Dissemination System (GDDS). S refers to countries that subscribe to the SDDS and have posted data on the Dissemination Standards Bulletin Board web site (posted data are at <http://dsbb.imf.org>). G refers to countries that subscribe to the GDDS. The SDDS was established by the IMF for member countries that have or that might seek access to international capital markets to guide them in providing their economic and financial data to the public. The GDDS helps countries disseminate comprehensive, timely, accessible, and

reliable economic, financial, and sociodemographic statistics. IMF member countries voluntarily elect to participate in either the SDDS or the GDDS. Both the SDDS and the GDDS are expected to enhance the availability of timely and comprehensive data and therefore contribute to the pursuit of sound macroeconomic policies. The SDDS is also expected to improve the functioning of financial markets. • **Latest population census** shows the most recent year in which a census was conducted and in which at least preliminary results have been released. It includes registration-based censuses. Some countries with complete population registration systems produce similar tables every 5 or 10 years instead of conducting regular censuses. • **Latest demographic, education, or health household survey** gives information on the household surveys used in compiling the demographic, education, and health data in section 2. AIS is the AIDS indicator Survey, CPS is Current Population Survey, DHS is Demographic and Health Survey, ENPF is National Family Planning Survey (Encuesta Nacional de Planificación Familiar), FHS is Family Health Survey, MICS is Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey, RHS is Reproductive Health Survey; and SPA is Service Provision Assessments. Detailed information for AIS, DHS, and SPA are available at [www.measuredhs.com/aboutsurveys](http://www.measuredhs.com/aboutsurveys); for MICS at [www.childinfo.org](http://www.childinfo.org); and for RHS at [www.cdc.gov/reproductivehealth/surveys](http://www.cdc.gov/reproductivehealth/surveys). • **Source of most recent income and expenditure data** shows household surveys that collect income and expenditure data. HBS is Household Budget Survey; ICES is Income, Consumption, and Expenditure Survey; IES is Income and Expenditure Survey; LSMS is Living Standards Measurement Study; and SES is Socio-Economic Survey. • **Vital registration complete** identifies countries judged to have at least 90 percent complete registries of vital (birth and death) statistics by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs Statistics Division and reported in *Population and Vital Statistics Reports*. Countries with complete vital statistics registries may have more accurate and more timely demographic indicators than other countries. • **Latest agricultural census** shows the most recent year in which an agricultural census was conducted and reported to the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. • **Latest industrial data** refer to the most recent year for which manufacturing value added data at the three-digit level of the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC, revision 2 or revision 3) are available in the United Nations Industrial Development

## Primary data documentation notes

Organization database. • **Latest trade data** show the most recent year for which structure of merchandise trade data from the United Nations Statistical Division's Commodity Trade (Comtrade) database are available. • **Latest water withdrawal data** show the most recent year for which data on freshwater withdrawals have been compiled from a variety of sources. See *About the data* for table 3.5 for more information.

### Exceptional reporting periods

In most economies the **fiscal year** is concurrent with the calendar year. The exceptions are shown in this table. The fiscal year ending date reported here refers to the fiscal year of the central government. Fiscal years for other levels of government and the reporting years for statistical surveys may differ. Further, some countries that follow a fiscal year report their national accounts data on a calendar year basis as shown in the *reporting period* column.

The **reporting period for national accounts data** is designated as either calendar year basis (CY) or fiscal year basis (FY). Most economies report their national accounts and balance of payments data using calendar years, but some use fiscal years that straddle two calendar years. In *World Development Indicators* fiscal year data are assigned to the calendar year that contains the larger share of the fiscal year. If a country's fiscal year ends before June 30, the data are shown in the first year of the fiscal period; if the fiscal year ends on or after June 30, the data are shown in the second year of the period. Balance of payments data are reported in *World Development Indicators* by calendar year and so are not comparable to the national accounts data of the countries that report their national accounts on a fiscal year basis.

	Fiscal year end	Reporting period for national accounts data
Afghanistan	Mar. 20	FY
Australia	Jun. 30	FY
Bangladesh	Jun. 30	FY
Botswana	Jun. 30	FY
Canada	Mar. 31	CY
Egypt, Arab Rep.	Jun. 30	FY
Ethiopia	Jul. 7	FY
Gambia, The	Jun. 30	CY
Haiti	Sep. 30	FY
India	Mar. 31	FY
Indonesia	Mar. 31	CY
Iran, Islamic Rep.	Mar. 20	FY
Japan	Mar. 31	CY
Kenya	Jun. 30	CY
Kuwait	Jun. 30	CY
Lesotho	Mar. 31	CY
Malawi	Mar. 31	CY
Mauritius	Jun. 30	FY
Myanmar	Mar. 31	FY
Namibia	Mar. 31	CY
Nepal	Jul. 14	FY
New Zealand	Mar. 31	FY
Pakistan	Jun. 30	FY
Puerto Rico	Jun. 30	FY
Sierra Leone	Jun. 30	CY
Singapore	Mar. 31	CY
South Africa	Mar. 31	CY
Swaziland	Mar. 31	CY
Sweden	Jun. 30	CY
Thailand	Sep. 30	CY
Uganda	Jun. 30	FY
United States	Sep. 30	CY
Zimbabwe	Jun. 30	CY

# STATISTICAL METHODS

This section describes some of the statistical procedures used in preparing the World Development Indicators. It covers the methods employed for calculating regional and income group aggregates and for calculating growth rates, and it describes the *World Bank Atlas* method for deriving the conversion factor used to estimate gross national income (GNI) and GNI per capita in U.S. dollars. Other statistical procedures and calculations are described in the *About the data* sections following each table.

## Aggregation rules

Aggregates based on the World Bank's regional and income classifications of economies appear at the end of most tables. The countries included in these classifications are shown on the flaps on the front and back covers of the book. Most tables also include the aggregate Europe EMU. This aggregate includes the member states of the Economic and Monetary Union (EMU) of the European Union that have adopted the euro as their currency: Austria, Belgium, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Slovenia, and Spain. Other classifications, such as the European Union and regional trade blocs, are documented in *About the data* for the tables in which they appear.

Because of missing data, aggregates for groups of economies should be treated as approximations of unknown totals or average values. Regional and income group aggregates are based on the largest available set of data, including values for the 152 economies shown in the main tables, other economies shown in table 1.6, and Taiwan, China. The aggregation rules are intended to yield estimates for a consistent set of economies from one period to the next and for all indicators. Small differences between sums of subgroup aggregates and overall totals and averages may occur because of the approximations used. In addition, compilation errors and data reporting practices may cause discrepancies in theoretically identical aggregates such as world exports and world imports.

Five methods of aggregation are used in *World Development Indicators*:

- For group and world totals denoted in the tables by a *t*, missing data are imputed based on the relationship of the sum of available data to the total in the year of the previous estimate. The imputation process works forward and backward from 2000. Missing values in 2000 are imputed using one of several proxy variables for which complete data are available in that year. The imputed value is calculated so that it (or its proxy) bears the same relationship to the total of available data. Imputed values are usually not calculated if missing data account for more than a third of the total in the benchmark year. The variables used as proxies are GNI in U.S. dollars, total population, exports and imports of goods and services in U.S. dollars, and value added in agriculture, industry, manufacturing, and services in U.S. dollars.
- Aggregates marked by an *s* are sums of available data. Missing values are not imputed. Sums are not computed if more than a third of the observations in the series or a proxy for the series are missing in a given year.
- Aggregates of ratios are denoted by a *w* when calculated as weighted averages

of the ratios (using the value of the denominator or, in some cases, another indicator as a weight) and denoted by a *u* when calculated as unweighted averages. The aggregate ratios are based on available data, including data for economies not shown in the main tables. Missing values are assumed to have the same average value as the available data. No aggregate is calculated if missing data account for more than a third of the value of weights in the benchmark year. In a few cases the aggregate ratio may be computed as the ratio of group totals after imputing values for missing data according to the above rules for computing totals.

- Aggregate growth rates are denoted by a *w* when calculated as a weighted average of growth rates. In a few cases growth rates may be computed from time series of group totals. Growth rates are not calculated if more than half the observations in a period are missing. For further discussion of methods of computing growth rates see below.
- Aggregates denoted by an *m* are medians of the values shown in the table. No value is shown if more than half the observations for countries with a population of more than 1 million are missing.

Exceptions to the rules occur throughout the book. Depending on the judgment of World Bank analysts, the aggregates may be based on as little as 50 percent of the available data. In other cases, where missing or excluded values are judged to be small or irrelevant, aggregates are based only on the data shown in the tables.

## Growth rates

Growth rates are calculated as annual averages and represented as percentages. Except where noted, growth rates of values are computed from constant price series. Three principal methods are used to calculate growth rates: least squares, exponential endpoint, and geometric endpoint. Rates of change from one period to the next are calculated as proportional changes from the earlier period.

**Least-squares growth rate.** Least-squares growth rates are used wherever there is a sufficiently long time series to permit a reliable calculation. No growth rate is calculated if more than half the observations in a period are missing. The least-squares growth rate, *r*, is estimated by fitting a linear regression trend line to the logarithmic annual values of the variable in the relevant period. The regression equation takes the form

$$\ln X_t = a + bt$$

which is equivalent to the logarithmic transformation of the compound growth equation,

$$X_t = X_0 (1 + r)^t.$$

In this equation *X* is the variable, *t* is time, and  $a = \ln X_0$  and  $b = \ln(1 + r)$  are parameters to be estimated. If  $b^*$  is the least-squares estimate of *b*, then the



average annual growth rate,  $r$ , is obtained as  $[\exp(b^*) - 1]$  and is multiplied by 100 for expression as a percentage. The calculated growth rate is an average rate that is representative of the available observations over the entire period. It does not necessarily match the actual growth rate between any two periods.

**Exponential growth rate.** The growth rate between two points in time for certain demographic indicators, notably labor force and population, is calculated from the equation

$$r = \ln(p_n/p_0)/n$$

where  $p_n$  and  $p_0$  are the last and first observations in the period,  $n$  is the number of years in the period, and  $\ln$  is the natural logarithm operator. This growth rate is based on a model of continuous, exponential growth between two points in time. It does not take into account the intermediate values of the series. Nor does it correspond to the annual rate of change measured at a one-year interval, which is given by  $(p_n - p_{n-1})/p_{n-1}$ .

**Geometric growth rate.** The geometric growth rate is applicable to compound growth over discrete periods, such as the payment and reinvestment of interest or dividends. Although continuous growth, as modeled by the exponential growth rate, may be more realistic, most economic phenomena are measured only at intervals, in which case the compound growth model is appropriate. The average growth rate over  $n$  periods is calculated as

$$r = \exp[\ln(p_n/p_0)/n] - 1.$$

Like the exponential growth rate, it does not take into account intermediate values of the series.

#### World Bank Atlas method

In calculating GNI and GNI per capita in U.S. dollars for certain operational purposes, the World Bank uses the *Atlas* conversion factor. The purpose of the *Atlas* conversion factor is to reduce the impact of exchange rate fluctuations in the cross-country comparison of national incomes.

The *Atlas* conversion factor for any year is the average of a country's exchange rate (or alternative conversion factor) for that year and its exchange rates for the two preceding years, adjusted for the difference between the rate of inflation in the country and that in Japan, the United Kingdom, the United States, and the Euro Zone. A country's inflation rate is measured by the change in its GDP deflator.

The inflation rate for Japan, the United Kingdom, the United States, and the Euro Zone, representing international inflation, is measured by the change in the SDR deflator. (Special drawing rights, or SDRs, are the International Monetary Fund's unit of account.) The SDR deflator is calculated as a weighted average of these countries' GDP deflators in SDR terms, the weights being the amount of each country's currency in one SDR unit. Weights vary over time because both the composition of the SDR and the relative exchange rates for each currency change. The SDR deflator is calculated in SDR terms first and then converted to U.S. dollars using the SDR to dollar *Atlas* conversion factor. The *Atlas* conversion factor is then applied to a country's GNI. The resulting GNI in U.S. dollars is divided by the midyear population to derive GNI per capita.

When official exchange rates are deemed to be unreliable or unrepresentative of the effective exchange rate during a period, an alternative estimate of the exchange rate is used in the *Atlas* formula (see below).

The following formulas describe the calculation of the *Atlas* conversion factor for year  $t$ :

$$e_t^* = \frac{1}{3} \left[ e_{t-2} \left( \frac{p_t}{p_{t-2}} / \frac{p_t^{S\$}}{p_{t-2}^{S\$}} \right) + e_{t-1} \left( \frac{p_t}{p_{t-1}} / \frac{p_t^{S\$}}{p_{t-1}^{S\$}} \right) + e_t \right]$$

and the calculation of GNI per capita in U.S. dollars for year  $t$ :

$$Y_t^{\$} = (Y_t/N_t)/e_t^*$$

where  $e_t^*$  is the *Atlas* conversion factor (national currency to the U.S. dollar) for year  $t$ ,  $e_t$  is the average annual exchange rate (national currency to the U.S. dollar) for year  $t$ ,  $p_t$  is the GDP deflator for year  $t$ ,  $p_t^{S\$}$  is the SDR deflator in U.S. dollar terms for year  $t$ ,  $Y_t^{\$}$  is the *Atlas* GNI per capita in U.S. dollars in year  $t$ ,  $Y_t$  is current GNI (local currency) for year  $t$ , and  $N_t$  is the midyear population for year  $t$ .

#### Alternative conversion factors

The World Bank systematically assesses the appropriateness of official exchange rates as conversion factors. An alternative conversion factor is used when the official exchange rate is judged to diverge by an exceptionally large margin from the rate effectively applied to domestic transactions of foreign currencies and traded products. This applies to only a small number of countries, as shown in *Primary data documentation*. Alternative conversion factors are used in the *Atlas* methodology and elsewhere in *World Development Indicators* as single-year conversion factors.

# CREDITS

## Credits

*World Development Indicators* draws on a wide range of World Bank reports and numerous external sources, listed in the bibliography following this section. Many people inside and outside the World Bank helped in writing and producing this book. The team would like to particularly acknowledge the help and encouragement of François Bourguignon, Senior Vice President and Chief Economist of the World Bank, and Shaida Badiee, Director, Development Data Group. The team is also grateful to the people who provided valuable comments on the entire book. This note identifies many of those who made specific contributions. Numerous others, too many to acknowledge here, helped in many ways for which the team is extremely grateful.

### 1. World view

The introduction to section 1 was prepared by Sebastien Dessus and Eric Swanson. Alan Gelb, Sarwar Lateef, and Jeffrey Lewis provided valuable suggestions. Changqing Sun and Raymond Muhula provided the decomposition of poverty rates. K.M. Vijayalakshmi prepared tables 1.1 and 1.6. Changqing Sun prepared the estimates of gross national income in purchasing power parity terms and table 1.4. Tables 1.2, 1.3, and 1.5 were prepared by Masako Hiraga. Dorte Domeland-Narvaez of the World Bank's Economic Policy and Debt Department provided the estimates of debt relief for the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries Debt Initiative and Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative. The team is grateful to Yasmin Ahmad and Aimee Nichols at the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development for data and advice on official development assistance flows and agricultural support estimates.

### 2. People

Section 2 was prepared by Masako Hiraga and Sulekha Patel in partnership with the World Bank's Human Development Network and the Development Research Group in the Development Economics Vice Presidency. Mehdi Akhlaghi and William Prince provided invaluable assistance in data and table preparation, and Kiyomi Horiuchi prepared the demographic estimates and projections under the guidance of Eduard Bos. Sulekha Patel wrote the introduction with valuable comments from Davidson Gwatkin, Sarwar Lateef, Jeffrey Lewis, and Eric Swanson. The poverty estimates were prepared by Shaohua Chen and Prem Sangraula of the World Bank's Poverty Monitoring Group with help from Changqin Sun. The data for table 2.19 on health gaps by income and gender were based on data prepared by Darcy Gallucio and Davidson Gwatkin of the Human Development Network. Other contributions were provided by Eduard Bos and Emi Suzuki (population, health, and nutrition); Montserrat Pallares-Miralles (vulnerability and security); Raymond Muhula, Juan Cruz Perusia, and Lianqin Wang of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization Institute for Statistics (education); and Lucia Fort and Juan Carlos Guzman Roa (gender).

### 3. Environment

Section 3 was prepared by Mehdi Akhlaghi and M. H. Saeed Ordoubadi in partnership with the World Bank's Sustainable Development Network. Important

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### 4. Economy

Section 4 was prepared by K.M. Vijayalakshmi in close collaboration with the Macroeconomic Data Team of the World Bank's Development Data Group, led by Soong Sup Lee. K.M. Vijayalakshmi and Eric Swanson wrote the introduction with valuable suggestions from Sarwar Lateef and Sebastien Dessus. Contributions to the section were provided by Azita Amjadi (trade) and Ibrahim Levent (external debt). The national accounts data for low- and middle-income economies were gathered by the World Bank's regional staff through the annual Unified Survey. Maja Bresslauer, Mahyar Eshragh-Tabary, Victor Gabor, and Soong Sup Lee worked on updating, estimating, and validating the databases for national accounts. The team is grateful to the International Monetary Fund, World Trade Organization, United Nations Industrial Development Organization, and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development for access to the databases.

### 5. States and markets

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## Other parts of the book

Jeff Lecksell of the World Bank's Map Design Unit coordinated preparation of the maps on the inside covers. David Cieslikowski prepared the *Users guide*. Eric Swanson wrote *Statistical methods*. K.M. Vijayalakshmi coordinated preparation of *Primary data documentation*, and Uranbileg Batjargal assisted in updating the *Primary data documentation* table. Richard Fix prepared *Partners* and *Index of indicators*.

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Mehdi Akhlaghi coordinated management of the integrated World Development Indicators database with assistance from William Prince. Operation of the database management system was made possible by the Systems Upgrade team under the leadership of Reza Farivari.

## Design, production, and editing

Richard Fix and Azita Amjadi coordinated all stages of production with Communications Development Incorporated, which provided overall design direction, editing, and layout, led by Meta de Coquereaumont, Bruce Ross-Larson, and Christopher Trott. Elaine Wilson created the graphics and typeset the book.

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## Client services

The Development Data Group's Client Services Team (Azita Amjadi, Uranbileg Batjargal, Richard Fix, and William Prince) contributed to the design and planning of *World Development Indicators* and helped coordinate work with the Office of the Publisher.

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## World Development Indicators CD-ROM

Programming and testing were carried out by Reza Farivari and his team: Azita Amjadi, Uranbileg Batjargal, Ying Chi, Ramgopal Erabelly, Nacer Megherbi, Shahin Outadi, and William Prince. Masako Hiraga produced the social indicators tables. William Prince coordinated user interface design and overall production and provided quality assurance. Photo credits: Curt Carnemark, Julio Etchart, Alan Gignoux, John Isaac, and Bill Lyons (World Bank).

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## WDI Online

Design, programming, and testing were carried out by Reza Farivari and his team: Mehdi Akhlaghi, Azita Amjadi, Uranbileg Batjargal, Saurabh Gupta, Nacer Megherbi, Gonca Okur, and Shahin Outadi. William Prince coordinated production and provided quality assurance. Valentina Kalk and Triinu Tombak of the Office of the Publisher were responsible for implementation of *WDI Online* and management of the subscription service.

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## V

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