Asia-Europe meeting (ASEM)

A STATISTICAL PORTRAIT

2016 edition

Asia-Europe Meeting

STATISTICAL BOOKS

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2016 edition

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Foreword

It is an honour for Eurostat to present the second statistical portrait of the Asia-Europe Meeting (ASEM) on the occasion of the 11th ASEM Summit in Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia in July 2016. This Summit also marks the 20th Anniversary of ASEM.

Statistics are important for evidence based decision making and, in particular, for the dialogue between Europe and Asia.

This publication starts with an overview of the development of ASEM during the last two decades. It also provides the latest available data regarding the population, education, labour market, tourism, economic and financial status of ASEM partners using European and international sources.

This statistical portrait, as last time, is a result of a joint effort of Eurostat, the European External Action Service and the European Commission's Directorate-General for International Cooperation and Development.

I hope this publication will support the discussions at the Summit and also be of interest to anyone involved in Asia-Europe relations.

Walter Radermacher
Director-General, Eurostat
Chief Statistician of the European Union

Acknowledgements

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The production of this publication has been funded by the ASEM Dialogue Facility. For more information about the EU's involvement in ASEM, see http://eeas.europa.eu/asem/index_en.htm.

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DATA EXTRACTION PERIOD

The data presented within this publication were largely extracted during April and May 2016.

An online data code available under each table/figure can be used to directly access the most recent data on Eurostat's website.

Contents

Introduction

Asia-Europe Meeting

The Asia-Europe Meeting (ASEM) was created in 1996 and has since become a key forum for dialogue and cooperation between Europe and Asia. Starting from the original 26 partners in 1996, ASEM currently has 53 partners, including: the European Union (EU), the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Secretariat and 51 countries. See Table 1 for a timeline of the expansion of the ASEM partners.

ASEM provides a unique platform to bring Europe and Asia closer together on a number of issues of global importance, such as the revival of economic growth worldwide, climate change and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

Political dialogue in ASEM takes place at the highest level every two years, with a summit of Heads of State and Government where ASEM's priorities are set. These summits are held alternatively in Asia and Europe.

The theme of the 11th ASEM Summit, hosted by the Mongolian capital of Ulaanbaatar on 15–16 July 2016, is '20 Years of ASEM: Partnership for the Future through Connectivity'.

In the years between the summits, several other meetings of Ministers, officials and experts are held regularly to address political, economic, financial, cultural, social and education-related issues. Beyond government-level meetings, ASEM also brings together members of parliament, business sectors, civil society, youth, academia and media.

The EU is committed to supporting ASEM through the ASEM Dialogue Facility, a financing instrument created in 2008, which aims to provide a solid platform for sustainable ASEM cooperation, and to ensure balanced participation of less developed partner countries.

Table 1: Timeline of ASEM enlargement, 1996–2014

Year	Partners founding/joining ASEM
1996	Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Greece, Spain, France, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Finland, Sweden, United Kingdom and European Commission Brunei Darussalam, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam China, Japan and Republic of Korea
2004	Czech Republic, Estonia, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Slovenia and Slovakia Cambodia, Laos and Myanmar
2008	Bulgaria and Romania ASEAN Secretariat India, Mongolia and Pakistan
2010	Australia, New Zealand and Russian Federation
2012	Norway, and Switzerland Bangladesh
2014	Croatia Kazakhstan

Source: ASEM Infoboard

High quality statistics and capacity-building

As any other discussions on policy-making, the ASEM dialogue needs to rely on good quality statistics to analyse the situation and help identify the most appropriate policies to increase our welfare.

The need to address current global challenges is generating a growing demand for good quality statistics. Therefore, both European and Asian ASEM partners are very active — on national, regional and international levels — in promoting approaches to strengthen the relevance and comparability of statistical data.

ASEM partners are committed to complying with the United Nations (UN) Fundamental Principles of Official Statistics, endorsed by the UN General Assembly resolution 68/261 of 29 January 2014.

In the EU context, the European Statistics Code of Practice has become the foundation of the quality framework on which the production of European statistics is based. The principles of the code set the standards with which the institutional environment of statistical authorities, the statistical processes and statistical outputs have to comply; hence, they are the guarantee of top statistical quality for users of European statistics.

The experience of the European Statistics Code of Practice is also becoming a reference for other partners in ASEM. In ASEAN, for example, it has inspired the ASEAN Community Statistical System Code of Practice, which was adopted by the ASEAN national statistical offices in 2012.

Ensuring good quality statistics is a common priority for all producers of official statistics in ASEM, and it is therefore essential to guarantee that no disparities in statistical capacity exist among countries. The need to address current global challenges puts additional pressure on national statistical systems. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development is a particular example of such a challenge and statisticians have played an important role in the definition of the indicators that will help measure the implementation of the sustainable development goals. Capacity building for producing all these indicators based on sound methodology and corresponding to the required quality levels will be a focus of cooperation in statistics.

By working together to improve the quality of official statistics, it will be possible to meet user needs for the policy of sustainable development.

Publication structure and coverage

The *Asia-Europe Meeting (ASEM) — A statistical portrait* provides users of official statistics with a snapshot of the information that is available on Eurostat's website and the websites of other international organisations. The publication provides indicators for a selection of topics; it is composed of an introduction, a special focus on changes over the 20 years since the first meeting in 1996, as well as five chapters which provide information on different socioeconomic issues.

The publication aims to present information for the ASEM partners, including:

- the European ASEM partners — the European Union, the 28 Member States of the EU, Norway and Switzerland;
- the Asian ASEM partners — the ASEAN Secretariat, the 10 members of ASEAN and the 11 remaining partners referred to in this publication as Northeast and South Asia (NESA).

SPATIAL DATA COVERAGE

The geographical aggregates such as ASEM, EU-28, ASEAN and NESA include information for all of the partners or estimates for missing information; any incomplete totals, shares or ratios that are created are systematically footnoted. Time series for these geographical aggregates are based on a fixed set of partners for the whole of the time period (unless otherwise indicated). For example, any time series for the EU-28 refers to a sum or an average for all 28 current EU Member States regardless of when they joined the EU.

The order of the EU-28 Member States used in this publication follows the alphabetical order of their names in their national languages, whereas for all other ASEM partners the order follows their names in English. For the Asian ASEM partners the English names used are those normally used within the context of the ASEM. In many of the figures the data are ranked according to the values of a particular indicator. Where possible, data for European ASEM partners are shown in blue and those for Asian ASEM partners are shown in red.

If data for a reference period are not available for a particular ASEM partner or an aggregate, then efforts have been made to fill tables and figures with data for previous reference years (these exceptions are footnoted); generally this involved taking account of at least the two previous reference periods. In the event that data for a particular partner or an aggregate are not available at all the partner or aggregate has not been included in the tables and figures.

DATA SOURCES

The indicators presented are often compiled according to international — sometimes global — standards, for example, United Nations standards for national accounts and the International Monetary Fund's standards for balance of payments statistics. Although most data are based on international concepts and definitions there may be certain discrepancies in the methods used to compile the data.

Almost all of the indicators presented for the EU (and its Member States), Norway and Switzerland have been drawn from Eurobase, Eurostat's online database. In exceptional cases some indicators for the EU have been extracted from international sources, for example, when values are expressed in purchasing power parities (based on United States dollars).

For the Asian ASEM partners and their aggregates (ASEAN and NESA), the data presented in this publication have generally been extracted from a range of international sources. For the ASEAN aggregate some data for foreign direct investment have been drawn from the online data provided by the statistics pages of the ASEAN website.

For many of the indicators, multiple international statistical sources are available, each with their own policies and practices concerning data management (for example, concerning data validation, the correction of errors, the estimation of missing data, and the frequency of updating). In general, attempts have been made to use only one source for each indicator in order to provide a comparable analysis between the partners.

The international data sources are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: National and international data sources

Organisation	Data source(s)
The United Nations (UN) and its agencies	
The International Labour Organisation (ILO)	ILOSTAT
The International Telecommunications Union	Statistics
The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD)	UNCTADstat
The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA), Population Division	World Population Prospects; World Urbanisation Prospects; Trends in International Migrant Stock
The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO)	UIS: Education; Science, Technology and Innovation
The United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD)	National Accounts Main Aggregates Database
The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO)	World Tourism Data
The International Monetary Fund (IMF)	World Economic Outlook Database
The World Bank	DataBank
The International Energy Agency	Statistics
ASEAN statistics	Macroeconomic Indicators
National tourism bodies	Department of Tourism (Thailand), Tourism Malaysia, Singapore Tourism Board, Statistics Indonesia, Vietnam National Administration of Tourism, Tourism Australia, Statistics New Zealand, Ulaanbaatar Tourism Department (Mongolia), Federal Agency for Tourism (Russian Federation), Government of India (Ministry of tourism), China National Tourism Administration and Japan National Tourism Organization

Source: Eurostat

Aggregates

Aggregates for ASEM, the European ASEM partners and the Asian ASEM partners have been compiled from the data for individual partners as indicated above. As such, they may combine data from Eurostat and international sources.

Data for each aggregate have been compiled based on each aggregate's current composition, regardless of the time period presented. For example, data for ASEAN are always based on the 10 current members, even if old data are presented, for example from 1960.

Data extraction and processing

The statistical data presented in this publication were extracted during April and May 2016 and the accompanying text was drafted in May 2016. Eurobase, ASEAN's statistics and international sources are regularly updated, frequently in some cases, so there may be differences between the data presented in this publication and any data that are subsequently downloaded.

Many of the international sources from which data were extracted present monetary data in national currencies and/or United States dollars (USD), whereas Eurostat data are normally presented in national currencies and/or euro (EUR). Monetary data for Asian ASEM partners have been converted into euro using current exchange rates. Data that are expressed in USD having been converted from national currencies using purchasing power parities have been left in dollar based purchasing power standards. Equally, time series for indicators expressed in constant prices have not been converted from the original currency (whether for national currencies or in USD).

Several indicators have been standardised by expressing their values relative to an appropriate measure of the size of a partner, for example, in relation to the total population or the size of the economy (gross domestic product (GDP)). Whenever possible, these size measures have been extracted from the same source as the indicator itself; otherwise these data have been extracted from the World Bank's databases.

Data presentation

Many of the data sources contain metadata that provide information on the status of particular values or data series. In order to improve readability, only the most significant information has been included as footnotes under the tables and figures. Where appropriate, breaks in series are indicated in the footnotes provided under each table and figure. The following symbols are used, where necessary:

Italic	data value is forecasted, provisional or estimated and is likely to change;
billion	a thousand million;
:	not available, confidential or unreliable value.

1 20 years of ASEM

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20 YEARS OF ASEM | ULAANBAATAR 2016

POPULATION

In 2015, the population of ASEM partners was around 4.6 billion, compared with a global population of 7.3 billion. The ASEM partners' share of the world's population fell from 65.5 % in 1996 to 62.1 % in 2015 (see Figure 1.1), as the population of other parts of the world grew at a faster rate, notably in parts of Africa. This relative decline in population was observed among the European ASEM partners whose share of the world's population fell from 8.5 % to 7.1 % and also among the Asian ASEM partners whose share fell from 57.0 % to 55.0 %. The relative decline among the Asian ASEM partners was mainly concentrated in China, the Russian Federation and Japan, whereas the shares in India, Bangladesh and Pakistan grew, as did those of Indonesia and collectively all other ASEAN members.

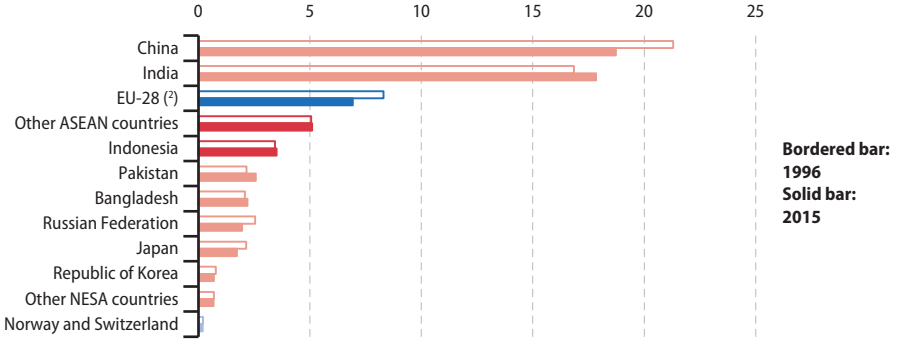
China and India had by far the largest populations, both over 1.3 billion in 2015. The EU-28's population was 508 million, while that of Indonesia — the largest ASEAN member in population terms — was around half this size (258 million). As both China and India are included in the data for NESA, this group of countries dominates the ASEM total in population terms, as can be seen from Figure 1.2. NESA's share of the ASEM total increased steadily from 74.1 % in 1996 to 74.7 % in 2015, while ASEAN's share increased by a larger amount, from 13.0 % to 13.9 % over the same period. As a consequence, the EU-28's share of ASEM's total population fell progressively from 12.7 % in 1996 to 11.1 % in 2015.

Figure 1.3 summarises the overall change in population numbers between 1996 and 2015 in each of the ASEM partners. The highest growth rates were recorded mainly by ASEAN members, most notably Singapore, although Pakistan and Luxembourg also reported a rapid expansion in their number of inhabitants. Among the Asian ASEM members, the Russian Federation was the only country to see its population decline between 1996 and 2015. This situation was repeated in nine of the EU Member States, with the largest overall contractions being recorded in the Baltic Member States as well as Bulgaria, Romania and Croatia.

For more information concerning the population of ASEM partners, please refer to Chapter 2.

Figure 1.1: Share of world population, selected aggregates and countries, 1996 and 2015 (1)

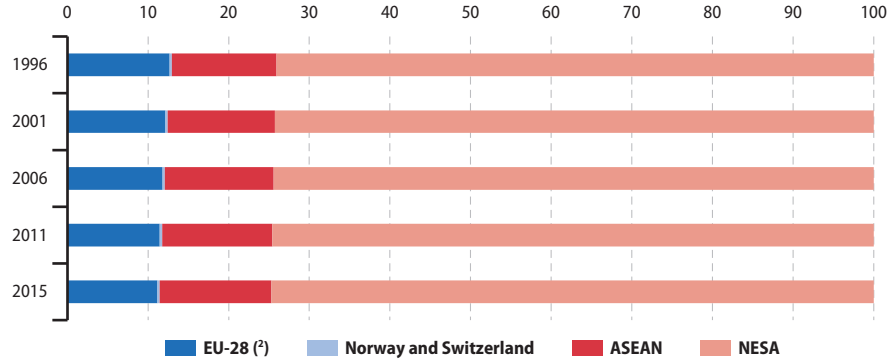
(%)



(1) Includes estimates.
(2) 2015: population on 1 January.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_gind) and the United Nations Population Division (World Population Prospects: The 2015 Revision)

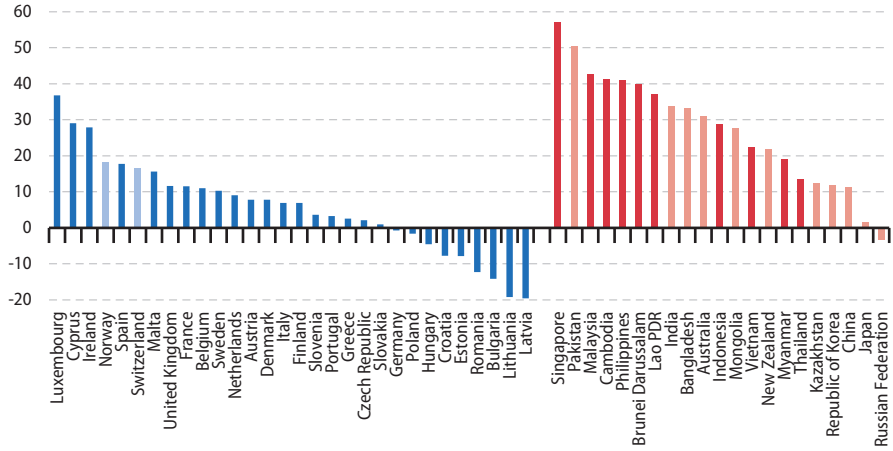
Figure 1.2: Distribution of ASEM population, 1996, 2001, 2006, 2011 and 2015 (1)
(% of ASEM total)



(1) Includes preliminary data.
(2) 2015: population on 1 January.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_gind) and the United Nations Population Division (World Population Prospects: The 2015 Revision)

Figure 1.3: Change in population, 1996–2015 (1)
(%)



(1) EU Member States, Norway and Switzerland: population on 1 January. Includes provisional data and estimates.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_gind) and the United Nations Population Division (World Population Prospects: The 2015 Revision)

POPULATION AND LABOUR MARKET INDICATORS

Table 1.1: Population and labour market indicators, 1996, 2013, 2014 and 2015

	Old-age dependency ratio (%)		Fertility rate (births per woman)		Unemployment rate (%)		Female share of the labour force (%)	
	1996	2014	1996	2014	1996	2015	1996	2015
World	10.6	12.3	2.82	:	:	:	:	:
ASEM	10.9	13.3	:	:	:	:	:	:
European ASEM partners (1)	22.3	*28.1*	:	:	:	:	:	:
EU-28 (2)	22.3	28.1	:	1.58	10.3	9.4	42.5	46.1
Belgium	24.3	27.3	1.59	1.74	9.5	8.5	*41.9*	46.4
Bulgaria	22.6	29.3	1.23	1.53	:	9.2	:	46.8
Czech Republic	19.4	25.7	1.18	1.53	3.9	5.1	:	44.2
Denmark	22.5	28.3	1.75	1.69	6.3	6.2	*45.7*	47.5
Germany	22.8	31.5	:	1.47	8.9	4.6	*43.1*	46.7
Estonia	20.9	27.9	1.37	1.54	:	6.2	:	48.3
Ireland	17.6	19.3	1.88	1.94	11.7	9.4	*39.0*	45.3
Greece	23.3	31.6	1.26	1.30	:	24.9	*38.9*	44.7
Spain	22.7	27.2	1.16	1.32	19.9	22.1	38.3	46.3
France	23.1	28.4	:	2.01	10.5	10.4	:	48.1
Croatia	20.8	27.6	:	1.46	:	16.3	:	46.5
Italy	24.7	33.1	1.20	1.37	11.2	11.9	*37.4*	42.5
Cyprus	17.2	19.9	1.95	1.31	:	15.1	:	49.2
Latvia	20.9	28.8	:	1.65	:	9.9	:	49.6
Lithuania	19.0	27.5	1.49	1.63	:	9.1	:	50.5
Luxembourg	20.9	20.4	1.77	1.50	2.9	6.4	37.7	45.6
Hungary	21.2	25.8	1.46	1.44	9.9	6.8	:	45.9
Malta	16.8	26.4	2.03	1.42	:	5.4	:	38.9
Netherlands	19.5	26.4	1.53	1.71	7.7	6.9	*42.0*	46.8
Austria	22.7	27.2	1.45	1.47	4.7	5.7	*43.1*	47.0
Poland	16.9	21.2	1.59	1.32	:	7.5	:	45.1
Portugal	22.4	30.3	1.44	1.23	8.0	12.6	*45.6*	49.5
Romania	18.0	24.3	1.30	1.52	:	6.8	:	42.4
Slovenia	18.0	25.7	1.28	1.58	6.9	9.0	:	46.0
Slovakia	16.4	19.0	1.47	1.37	:	11.5	:	45.1
Finland	21.5	30.2	1.76	1.71	14.6	9.4	*47.8*	48.8
Sweden	27.4	30.6	1.60	1.88	9.6	7.4	*48.0*	48.0
United Kingdom	24.5	27.0	1.73	1.81	7.9	5.3	*44.2*	46.9
Norway	24.6	24.2	1.89	1.75	4.7	4.4	*46.7*	47.4
Switzerland	21.9	26.1	1.50	1.54	3.7	4.6	:	46.9

(1) 1996: based on data for EU-27, Norway and Switzerland.

(2) Old-age dependency, 1996: EU-27. Unemployment rate and female share of the labour force, 1996: EU-15.

Source: Eurostat (online data codes: demo_pjanbroad, demo_pjanind, demo_find, une_rt_a and lfsi_emp_a), the World Bank (DataBank) and the International Labour Organisation (ILOSTAT)

The global old-age dependency ratio increased by just less than 2 percentage points between 1996 and 2014, while in the EU this ratio increased by close to 6 percentage points. Among the Asian ASEM partners the increase was slightly higher than the global average, pulled up by relatively large increases in several countries, notably, Japan, China and the Republic of Korea.

Table 1.1: Population and labour market indicators, 1996, 2013, 2014 and 2015 (continued)

	Old-age dependency ratio (%)		Fertility rate (births per woman)		Unemployment rate (%)		Female share of the labour force (%)	
	1996	2014	1996	2013	1996	2015	1996	2015
World	10.6	12.3	2.82	2.48	:	:	:	:
ASEM	10.9	13.3	:	:	:	:	:	:
Asian ASEM partners	9.1	11.4	:	:	:	:	:	:
ASEAN	7.4	8.6	:	:	:	:	:	:
Brunei Darussalam (1)	4.0	5.8	2.81	1.89	:	:	:	43.2
Cambodia (1)(2)	6.0	6.3	4.50	2.68	0.8	0.2	53.1	48.2
Indonesia (1)	6.8	7.6	2.63	2.48	4.8	6.0	39.1	38.2
Lao PDR (3)	6.8	6.2	5.16	3.06	:	:	51.0	:
Malaysia (1)(2)	6.1	8.2	3.28	1.96	2.5	2.9	34.4	38.4
Myanmar	7.6	7.9	2.99	2.24	:	:	:	:
Philippines	5.4	7.1	3.96	3.01	7.4	6.3	37.2	39.4
Singapore (1)	9.1	15.1	1.70	1.19	3.0	1.7	41.5	45.0
Thailand (1)(2)	8.4	14.0	1.82	1.52	1.1	0.8	45.1	45.6
Vietnam (1)(2)	10.2	9.4	2.48	1.74	1.9	1.9	50.7	48.7
NESA	9.4	11.9	:	:	:	:	:	:
Australia	18.0	22.1	1.80	1.92	8.5	6.1	43.0	46.1
Bangladesh (4)(5)	6.1	7.6	3.59	2.21	2.3	4.3	38.1	29.9
China (2)	9.0	12.5	1.66	1.67	3.0	4.1	:	:
India (2)(6)	7.0	8.4	3.58	2.47	2.1	4.9	:	25.9
Japan	21.5	41.9	1.43	1.43	3.4	3.4	40.5	43.1
Kazakhstan (4)(5)	11.4	10.0	2.13	2.64	13.0	5.2	:	49.1
Mongolia (1)(2)	6.5	5.8	2.57	2.66	:	7.9	47.6	47.1
New Zealand	17.7	22.1	1.96	1.95	6.0	5.8	44.7	47.5
Pakistan (6)	7.5	7.4	5.20	3.68	5.4	5.9	13.3	22.7
Republic of Korea	8.6	17.4	1.57	1.19	2.0	3.6	40.4	42.2
Russian Federation (1)(2)	18.4	18.8	1.28	1.70	9.9	5.2	46.6	48.7

(1) Female share of the labour force: 2014 instead of 2015.
(2) Unemployment rate: 2014 instead of 2015.
(3) Female share of the labour force: 1995 instead of 1996.
(4) Unemployment rate: 2013 instead of 2015.
(5) Female share of the labour force: 2013 instead of 2015.
(6) Female share of the labour force: 2010 instead of 2015.

Source: the World Bank (DataBank) and the International Labour Organisation

The global fertility rate fell from 2.82 to 2.48 births per woman between 1996 and 2013. During this period all ASEAN members reported a fall in their fertility rates, most notably in Lao PDR and Cambodia. Between 1996 and 2014 many of the EU Member States reported moderate increases in their fertility rates.

The EU-28's unemployment rate was lower in 2015 than the EU-15's rate had been in 1996 and a small majority of EU Member States for which data are available reported a similar development. By contrast, a small majority recorded higher unemployment rates in 2015. Among ASEAN members, the changes in unemployment rates were relatively small. The female share of the labour force increased between 1996 and the most recent year in all ASEM partners (for which data are available) except Cambodia, Indonesia, Vietnam, Bangladesh and Mongolia.

GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT

In 2014, the total economic output of the world, as measured by gross domestic product (GDP), was valued at EUR 58 741 billion, of which the ASEM partners accounted for 57.6 %, 1.5 percentage points less than in 1996. In 2014, the European ASEM partners contributed 25.3 % of the world's GDP, down from 32.5 % in 1996. Among the Asian ASEM partners, China's share of world GDP grew from 2.7 % in 1996 to 13.4 % by 2014, while that of Japan fell from 14.9 % to 5.9 % over the same period. Among the other large Asian economies shown in Figure 1.4, the Indian share of the world's GDP more than doubled, while the share accounted for by the Russian Federation also increased substantially.

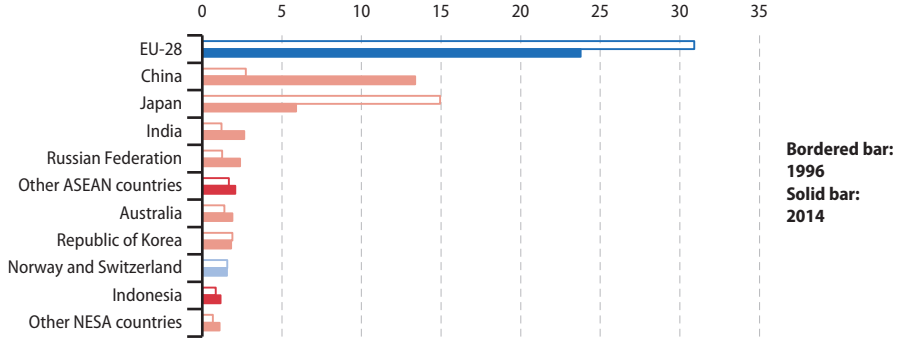
Between 1996 and 2014, the contribution of different groups to the total GDP of all ASEM partners shifted. In 1996, the EU-28 contributed more than half (52.3 %) of the total output, which it still did in 2006 (53.7 %). However, after the global financial and economic crisis the EU-28 share fell such that by 2011 it was less than half (43.3 %), and by 2014 it had fallen further to 41.3 %. Between 2006 and 2014, the shares of ASEAN members and NESA countries both increased, with NESA accounting for a majority (50.5 %) of the GDP generated by ASEM members in 2014.

Figure 1.6 summarises the overall change in GDP between 1996 and 2014 in each of the ASEM partners; these rates of change are based on constant price data. The highest growth rates were mainly recorded by Asian ASEM partners. The size of Myanmar and China's economies more than quintupled during this period, while the economies of Cambodia, Lao PDR, Mongolia, India, Kazakhstan and Vietnam more than tripled. Five more Asian ASEM partners — Bangladesh, Singapore, the Philippines, Malaysia and the Republic of Korea — reported than their GDP more than doubled, as did the economies of Ireland and the Baltic Member States (despite their declining populations) within the EU. Italy and Japan recorded the lowest economic growth over this period among all ASEM partners.

For more information concerning the economy of ASEM partners, please refer to Chapter 5.

Figure 1.4: Share of world gross domestic product (GDP), selected aggregates and countries, 1996 and 2014

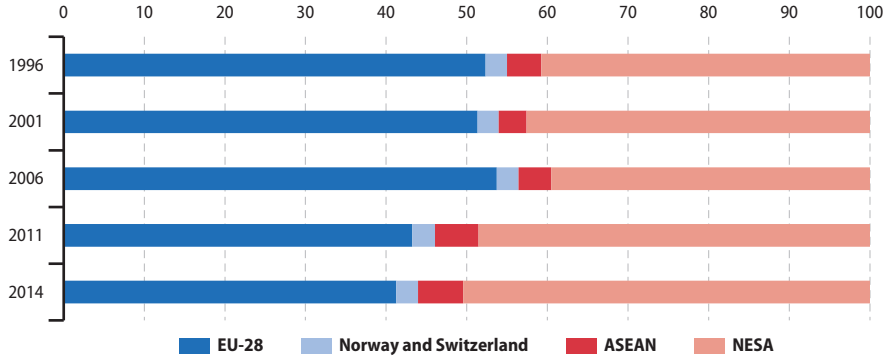
(%)



Source: Eurostat (online data code: nama_10_gdp) and the United Nations Statistics Division (National Accounts Main Aggregates Database)

Figure 1.5: Distribution of ASEM gross domestic product (GDP), 1996, 2001, 2006, 2011 and 2014

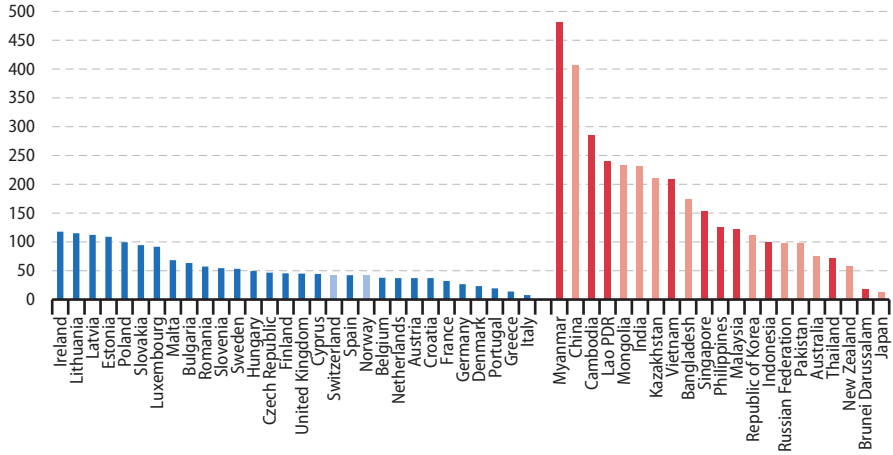
(% of ASEM total)



Source: Eurostat (online data code: nama_10_gdp) and the United Nations Statistics Division (National Accounts Main Aggregates Database)

Figure 1.6: Change in gross domestic product (GDP) (US dollars in 2005 prices and 2005 exchange rates), 1996–2014

(%)



Source: the United Nations Statistics Division (National Accounts Main Aggregates Database)

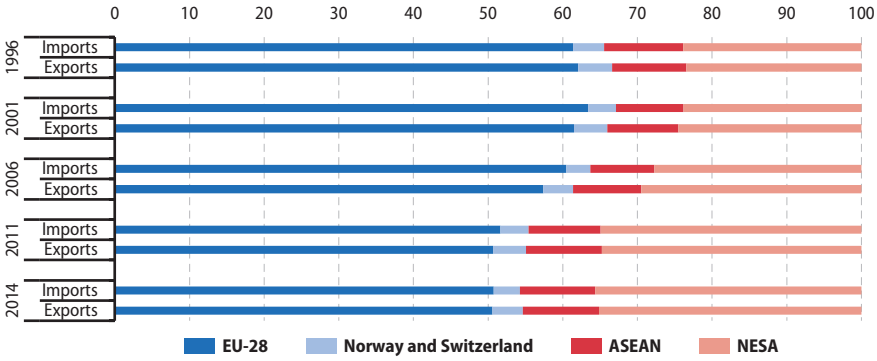
INTERNATIONAL TRADE

As well as a great deal of other information, national accounts provide statistics on international trade in goods and services. As for GDP, between 1996 and 2014 the contribution of different groups of partners to the total exports and imports of all ASEM partners shifted (see Figure 1.7). In 1996 and 2001, the EU-28 contributed more than three fifths of all ASEM trade flows, which it still did in 2006 for imports but not for exports. However, after the global financial and economic crisis this share fell such that by 2011 it was just over half for both flows, a position that was maintained in 2014 when the EU-28's share of ASEM exports was 50.6 % and its share of ASEM imports was 50.7 %. The contribution of NESA countries to the total trade flows of ASEM partners increased, such that by 2014 they accounted for over one third of both exports and imports, compared with just under a quarter in 1996.

The level of international trade relative to overall economic activity (the ratio of traded goods and services to GDP) is shown in Figures 1.8 and 1.9. Among the four groupings of ASEM partners, the relatively small ASEAN economies reported much higher relative flows of exports and imports between 1996 and 2014, while the NESA economies collectively reported much lower trade flows relative to their overall economic activity.

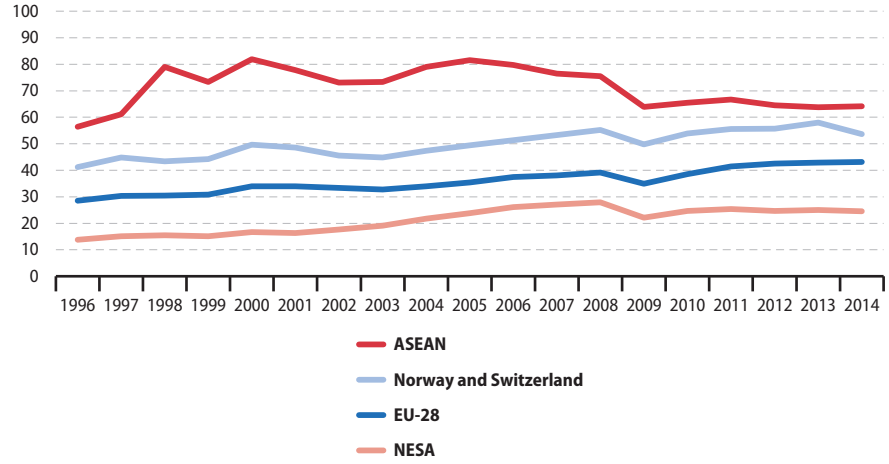
Between 1996 and 2014 the level of exports and imports relative to GDP increased in all four of the groupings of ASEM partners shown in Figures 1.8 and 1.9. For example, EU-28 exports and imports (relative to GDP) increased by a half between 1996 and 2014, while NESA imports relative to GDP more than doubled and NESA exports relative to GDP increased by about three quarters. The levels of ASEAN exports and imports (relative to GDP) were more volatile than for the other geographical groupings, most notably during the global financial and economic crisis in 2008 and 2009, when there were rapid falls for both ratios.

Figure 1.7: Distribution of ASEM exports and imports, 1996, 2001, 2006, 2011 and 2014
(% of ASEM total)



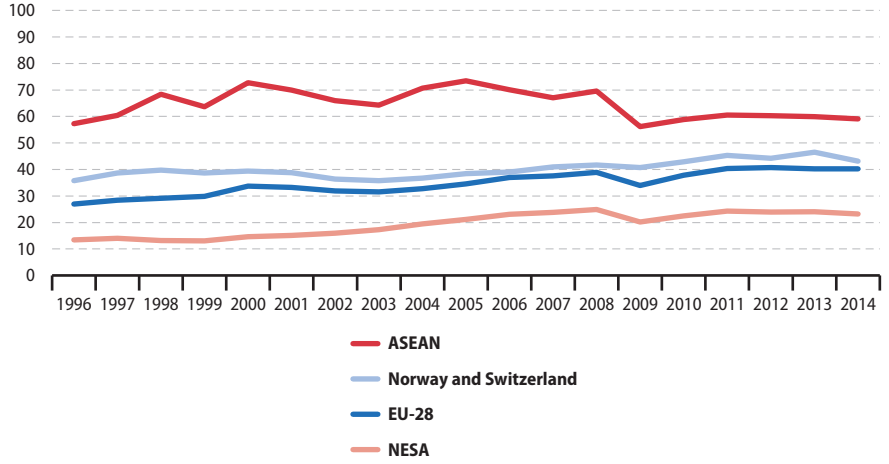
Source: Eurostat (online data code: nama_10_gdp) and the United Nations Statistics Division (National Accounts Main Aggregates Database)

Figure 1.8: Exports of goods and services relative to gross domestic product, 1996–2014
(% of gross domestic product)



Source: Eurostat (online data code: nama_10_gdp) and the United Nations Statistics Division (National Accounts Main Aggregates Database)

Figure 1.9: Imports of goods and services relative to gross domestic product, 1996–2014
(% of gross domestic product)



Source: Eurostat (online data code: nama_10_gdp) and the United Nations Statistics Division (National Accounts Main Aggregates Database)

GROSS INLAND ENERGY CONSUMPTION

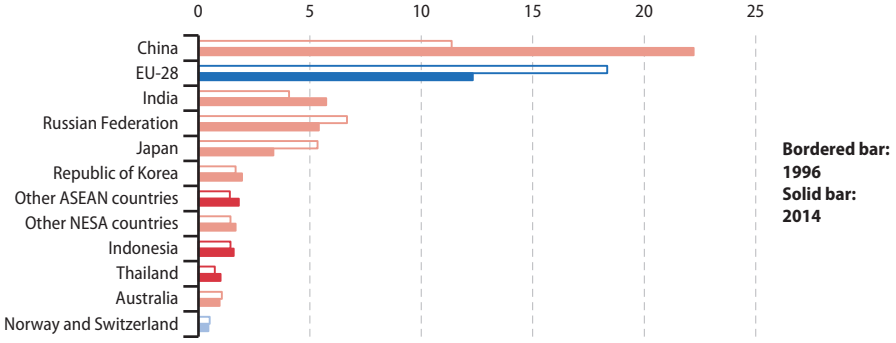
In 2013, the gross inland energy consumption of ASEM partners was around 7.9 billion tonnes of oil equivalent (toe), compared with a global total of 13.5 billion toe. The ASEM partners' share of the world's gross inland energy consumption increased from 54.0 % in 1996 to 58.4 % in 2013 (see Figure 1.10), despite its shares of world GDP and population falling. This relative increase in gross inland energy consumption was observed among the Asian ASEM partners, as the EU-28's share fell from 18.3 % to 12.3 %, while that of Norway and Switzerland (combined) fell from 0.5 % to 0.4 %. Indeed, China's share of the world's gross inland energy consumption nearly doubled from 11.4 % to 22.2 %, while the shares of India, the Republic of Korea, Indonesia and Thailand also increased, as did collectively the other ASEAN members and NESA countries not shown in Figure 1.10. Like the European ASEM partners, the Russian Federation and Japan both recorded a reduction in their shares of the world's gross inland energy consumption.

In 1996, the Asian ASEM partners' share of the total gross inland energy consumption of ASEM partners was close to two thirds; this share had passed three quarters by 2011 and was approaching four fifths by 2013, as can be seen from Figure 1.11. NESA and ASEAN's shares both increased during this period.

Japan was the only Asian ASEM partner to record a fall in gross inland energy consumption between 1996 and 2013 (see Figure 1.12), while reductions were registered for half of the European ASEM partners. Whereas EU-28 consumption decreased by almost 4 %, among ASEAN members there was an average increase of 75 % and among NESA countries the rate of change was higher still, rising 87 %: these increases contributed towards a 43 % global increase in energy consumption during the period under consideration. Gross inland energy consumption more than doubled between 1996 and 2013 in Cambodia, India, Bangladesh, Malaysia, Mongolia, Vietnam and China.

Figure 1.10: Share of world gross inland energy consumption, selected aggregates and countries, 1996 and 2013 (1)

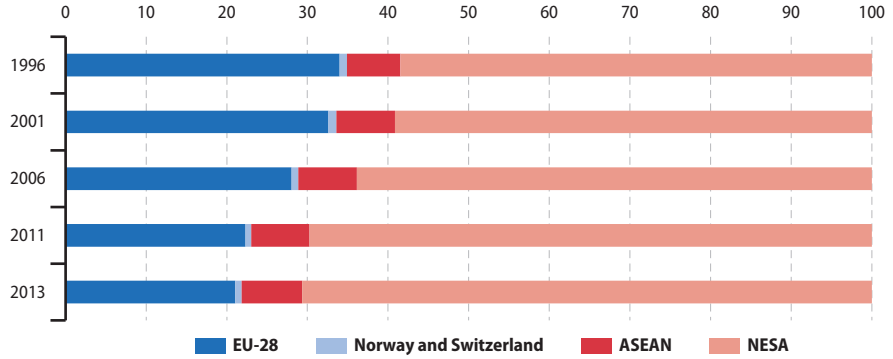
(%)



(1) Lao PDR: not available.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: nrg_100a) and the International Energy Agency

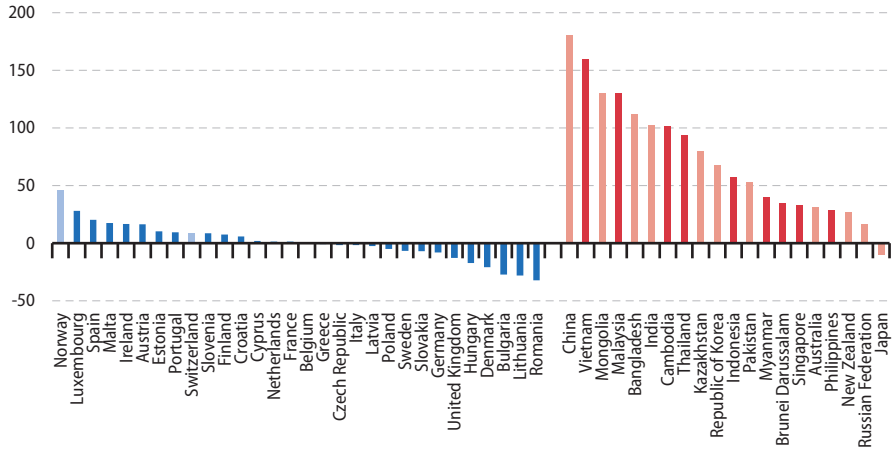
Figure 1.11: Distribution of ASEM gross inland energy consumption, 1996, 2001, 2006, 2011 and 2013 (1)
(% of ASEM total)



(1) Excluding Lao PDR.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: nrg_100a) and the International Energy Agency

Figure 1.12: Change in gross inland energy consumption, 1996–2013 (1)
(%)



(1) Lao PDR: not available.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: nrg_100a) and the International Energy Agency

TOURISM AND TECHNOLOGY

Table 1.2: Tourism and technology, 1996, 2013, 2014 and 2015

	Tourist arrivals (per 100 inhabitants) (1)		Proportion of individuals using the Internet (%) (2)		Mobile phone subscriptions (per 100 inhabitants)		R&D intensity (%)	
	1996	2015	1996	2014	1996	2013	1996	2013
World	:	:	:	:	:	:	1.42	1.70
EU-28	:	:	:	82	7	132	:	2.03
Belgium	57	:	3	87	5	118	1.73	2.43
Bulgaria	:	40	1	63	0	163	0.51	0.64
Czech Republic	:	83	2	84	2	126	0.90	1.91
Denmark	40	*46*	6	97	25	150	*1.81*	3.06
Germany	19	43	3	89	7	127	*2.14*	2.83
Estonia (3)	:	147	4	87	5	153	0.57	1.71
Ireland	:	:	2	84	8	122	*1.27*	*1.54*
Greece (4)	59	*140*	1	67	5	123	0.42	0.81
Spain	46	119	1	79	8	118	*0.79*	1.26
France	:	71	3	88	4	111	2.21	2.24
Croatia	:	297	1	72	1	121	:	0.82
Italy	52	88	1	67	11	166	0.95	1.31
Cyprus (3)	:	235	1	72	11	129	0.20	0.46
Latvia	:	74	1	79	1	231	0.40	0.61
Lithuania	:	48	0	75	1	168	0.49	0.95
Luxembourg	174	:	6	96	11	149	:	1.30
Hungary	:	50	1	78	5	114	0.63	1.40
Malta	:	332	1	75	3	132	:	0.84
Netherlands	42	88	10	95	7	120	1.86	1.96
Austria	177	275	7	85	7	156	*1.58*	2.96
Poland	:	:	1	72	1	135	0.64	0.87
Portugal	45	96	3	70	7	160	*0.55*	1.33
Romania	:	:	0	61	0	113	0.67	0.39
Slovenia	:	125	5	76	2	109	1.27	2.60
Slovakia	:	31	1	85	1	121	0.89	0.83
Finland	34	48	17	94	29	172	*2.45*	3.29
Sweden (4)	27	63	9	94	28	147	3.13	*3.31*
United Kingdom	33	40	4	94	12	130	1.71	1.66
Norway (4)(5)	63	100	18	97	28	116	1.65	1.65
Switzerland (6)	95	113	5	92	9	137	2.45	2.97

(1) Arrivals at tourism accommodation establishments.
(2) 1996: data from the International Telecommunications Union. 2014: Eurostat data.
(3) R&D intensity: 1998 instead of 1996.
(4) R&D intensity: 1995 instead of 1996.
(5) Tourist arrivals, 1996: arrivals at hotels and similar accommodation.
(6) Tourist arrivals, 2015: arrivals at hotels and similar accommodation. R&D intensity: 2012 instead of 2013.

Source: Eurostat (online data codes: tour_occ_arm, isoc_ci_ifp_iu, isoc_tc_ac2, isoc_tc_mcsupe and rd_e_gerdtot) and the International Telecommunications Union

Between 1996 and 2015, tourism intensity among the EU Member States increased at its most rapid pace in Austria, Greece and Spain, while among Asian ASEM partners the fastest increases (between 1996 and 2014) were recorded in Malaysia, Singapore and Lao PDR.

Table 1.2: Tourism and technology, 1996, 2013, 2014 and 2015 (continued)

	Tourist arrivals (per 100 inhabitants) (1)		Proportion of individuals using the Internet (%)		Mobile phone subscriptions (per 100 inhabitants)		R&D intensity (%)	
	1996	2014	1996	2014	1996	2014	1996	2013
World	:	:	:	:	:	:	1.42	1.70
Brunei Darussalam (2)	277	:	3	69	14	110	:	:
Cambodia (3)(4)	2	29	0	9	0	133	:	:
Indonesia	3	4	0	17	0	129	:	0.08
Lao PDR (5)	2	47	0	14	0	67	:	:
Malaysia (6)	34	92	1	68	7	149	0.22	1.13
Myanmar (7)	1	6	:	2	0	54	0.06	:
Philippines	3	5	0	40	1	111	:	:
Singapore (6)	169	215	8	82	12	147	1.32	2.00
Thailand (8)	12	37	0	35	3	144	0.12	0.39
Vietnam (8)	2	9	0	48	0	147	:	0.19
Australia (8)(9)	23	29	3	85	22	131	1.66	2.25
Bangladesh (4)	0	0	0	10	0	80	:	:
China (10)	2	4	0	49	1	92	0.57	2.01
India (8)(9)	0	1	0	18	0	74	0.63	0.82
Japan (9)(11)	3	11	4	91	22	120	2.77	3.47
Kazakhstan (7)	:	26	0	55	0	172	0.29	0.17
Mongolia (7)	3	14	0	27	0	105	0.17	0.23
New Zealand (7)(8)	41	63	8	86	13	112	1.06	1.25
Pakistan (7)(12)	0	1	0	14	0	73	0.16	0.29
Republic of Korea	8	28	2	84	7	116	2.24	4.15
Russian Federation	11	23	0	71	0	155	0.97	1.13

(1) Tourist arrivals at the frontier. Brunei Darussalam, Vietnam, Australia, Japan, New Zealand, the Republic of Korea and Russian Federation: visitor arrivals at the frontier.
(2) Tourist arrivals: arrivals by air.
(3) Tourist arrivals, 1996: arrivals by air.
(4) Proportion of individuals using the Internet: 1997 instead of 1996.
(5) Proportion of individuals using the Internet: 1998 instead of 1996.
(6) R&D intensity: 2012 instead of 2013.
(7) R&D intensity: 1997 instead of 1996.
(8) R&D intensity: 2011 instead of 2013.
(9) Tourist arrivals: excluding non-resident nationals.
(10) Tourist arrivals, 1996: excluding non-resident nationals.
(11) Tourist arrivals: break in series.
(12) Tourist arrivals: 2012 instead of 2014.

Source: the World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), the International Telecommunications Union, and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS)

Subject to data availability, the only ASEM partner which did not register an increase in tourism intensity was Bangladesh.

In 1996, only three ASEM partners reported that 1 in 10 individuals used the internet, whereas by 2014 there were only 12 ASEM partners where less than half of the population used the internet. Equally, there were more than 20 mobile phone subscriptions per 100 inhabitants in just six ASEM partners in 1996, whereas the most recent data show that it had passed 100 subscriptions per 100 inhabitants.

R&D intensity is the ratio of expenditure on research and development to GDP. In 1996, seven ASEM partners reported R&D intensities of 2.00 % or higher, but by 2013 (earlier reference years for some countries) the R&D intensity of nine European ASEM partners had reached or passed 2.00 % as was the case in five Asian ASEM partners.

2 Population

Table 2.1: Key data on population, 1960, 1961 and 2014

	Population (million)		Share in world population (% of total)		Population density (inhabitants per km²)	
	1960	2014	1960	2014	1961	2014
World	3 035.0	7 259.7	100.0	100.0	24	56
ASEM	2 103.3	*4 517.7*	69.3	*62.2*	41	*91*
European ASEM partners	417.3	*521.1*	13.7	*7.2*	91	*111*
EU-28	408.4	*507.8*	13.5	*7.0*	98	*117*
Belgium (1)	9.2	11.2	0.3	0.2	*303*	370
Bulgaria	7.9	7.2	0.3	0.1	72	66
Czech Republic	9.6	10.5	0.3	0.1	124	136
Denmark	4.6	5.6	0.2	0.1	109	132
Germany	55.6	81.0	1.8	1.1	210	227
Estonia	1.2	1.3	0.0	0.0	29	30
Ireland	2.8	*4.6*	0.1	*0.1*	41	68
Greece	8.3	10.9	0.3	0.2	65	83
Spain	30.5	46.5	1.0	0.6	62	93
France (2)	45.7	*66.3*	1.5	*0.9*	87	105
Croatia	4.1	4.2	0.1	0.1	75	75
Italy	50.2	60.8	1.7	0.8	172	201
Cyprus	0.6	0.9	0.0	0.0	62	93
Latvia	2.1	2.0	0.1	0.0	35	32
Lithuania	2.8	2.9	0.1	0.0	45	47
Luxembourg (1)	0.3	0.6	0.0	0.0	*122*	215
Hungary	10.0	9.9	0.3	0.1	111	106
Malta	0.3	0.4	0.0	0.0	1 016	1 352
Netherlands	11.5	16.9	0.4	0.2	345	501
Austria	7.0	8.5	0.2	0.1	86	104
Poland	29.6	38.0	1.0	0.5	98	124
Portugal	8.9	*10.4*	0.3	*0.1*	98	113
Romania	18.4	*19.9*	0.6	*0.3*	81	87
Slovenia	1.6	2.1	0.1	0.0	79	102
Slovakia	4.1	5.4	0.1	0.1	87	111
Finland	4.4	5.5	0.1	0.1	15	18
Sweden	7.5	9.7	0.2	0.1	18	24
United Kingdom	52.4	*64.6*	1.7	*0.9*	218	266
Norway	3.6	5.1	0.1	0.1	10	17
Switzerland	5.3	8.2	0.2	0.1	137	205

(1) Population density, 1961: estimate made for the purpose of this publication.
(2) Population and share in world population, 1960: excluding overseas departments and territories.

Source: Eurostat (online data codes: demo_gind, demo_r_d3area and demo_r_d3dens) and the World Bank (DataBank)

Table 2.1: Key data on population, 1960, 1961 and 2014 (continued)

	Population (million)		Share in world population (% of total)		Population density (inhabitants per km²)	
	1960	2014	1960	2014	1961	2014
World	3 035.0	7 259.7	100.0	100.0	24	56
ASEM	2 103.3	*4 517.7*	69.3	*62.2*	41	*91*
Asian ASEM partners	1 686.0	3 996.5	45.7	56.1	36	70
ASEAN	215.4	623.3	5.8	8.7	51	144
Brunei Darussalam	0.1	0.4	0.0	0.0	16	79
Cambodia	5.7	15.3	0.2	0.2	33	87
Indonesia	87.8	254.5	2.4	3.6	50	140
Lao PDR	2.1	6.7	0.1	0.1	9	29
Malaysia	8.2	29.9	0.2	0.4	26	91
Myanmar	21.5	53.4	0.6	0.8	34	82
Philippines	26.3	99.1	0.7	1.4	91	332
Singapore	1.6	5.5	0.0	0.1	2 541	7 737
Thailand	27.4	67.7	0.7	1.0	55	133
Vietnam	34.7	90.7	0.9	1.3	109	293
NESA	1 470.6	3 373.2	39.9	47.3	35	64
Australia	10.3	23.5	0.3	0.3	1	3
Bangladesh	48.2	159.1	1.3	2.2	381	1 222
China	667.1	1 364.3	18.1	19.1	70	145
India	449.7	1 295.3	12.2	18.2	154	436
Japan	92.5	127.1	2.5	1.8	259	349
Kazakhstan	9.7	17.3	0.3	0.2	4	6
Mongolia	1.0	2.9	0.0	0.0	1	2
New Zealand	2.4	4.5	0.1	0.1	9	17
Pakistan	44.9	185.0	1.2	2.6	60	240
Republic of Korea	25.0	50.4	0.7	0.7	267	517
Russian Federation	119.9	143.8	3.3	2.0	7	9

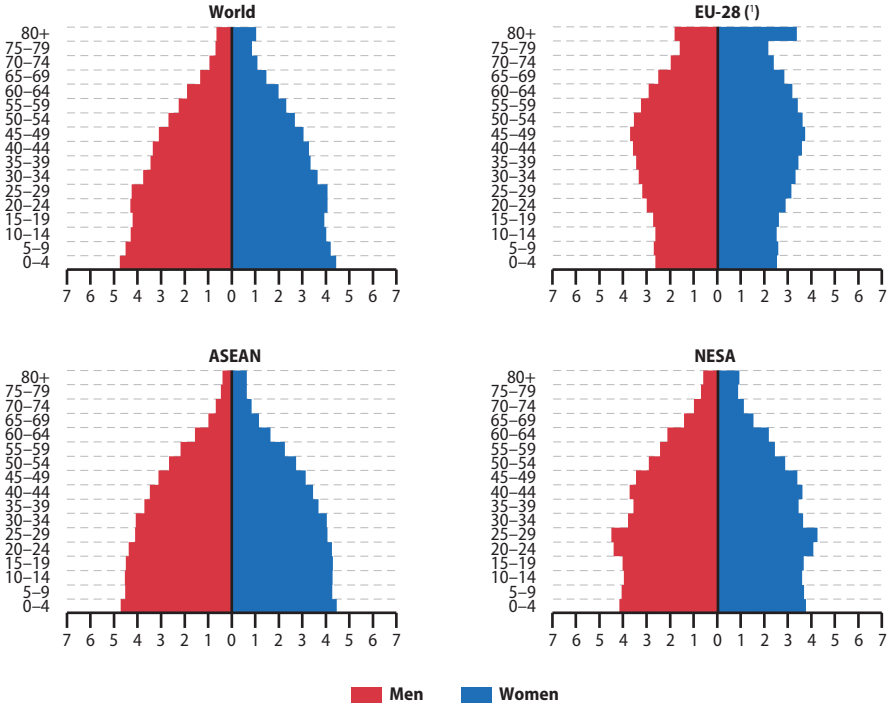
Source: Eurostat (online data codes: demo_gind, demo_r_d3area and demo_r_d3dens) and the World Bank (DataBank)

The Asian ASEM partners recorded substantially faster population growth during the period shown in Table 2.1. Between 1960 and 2014, European ASEM partners recorded average population growth of 0.4 % per year, whereas growth for Asian ASEM partners averaged 1.6 % per year, the latter being the same rate as the world average which it greatly influences. Between 1995 and 2000, ASEAN's population overtook that of the EU-28.

As the population of the ASEM partners grew in recent decades, so did its population density, from 41 inhabitants per km² in 1961 to 91 inhabitants per km² by 2014. The European ASEM partners reported a population density of 111 inhabitants per km² in 2014 compared with an average of 70 inhabitants per km² among the Asian ASEM partners; both of these figures were above the world average of 56 inhabitants per km². Malta from the EU-28 and Bangladesh among the NESA partners both recorded population densities in excess of 1 000 inhabitants per km², while Singapore among the ASEAN members had the highest density of all, 7.8 thousand inhabitants per km². The least densely populated ASEM partners were Mongolia, Australia, Kazakhstan and the Russian Federation (all NESA countries).

Figure 2.1 compares the age structure, in 2014, of the world, the EU-28, ASEAN and NESA, as well as the four largest ASEM partners. The peaks in the population structure of China among those in the age group 20–29 can be seen in the structure for NESA and that for the whole of the world, although the Chinese peaks for the age group 40–49 are less apparent. The age structures for India, Indonesia and Pakistan are somewhat more regular 'bell' shapes, with Pakistan displaying a particularly broad base and rapid narrowing starting at the age group 25–29, synonymous with relatively high birth rates and low life expectancy.

Figure 2.1: Age pyramids, 2014
(% of total population)

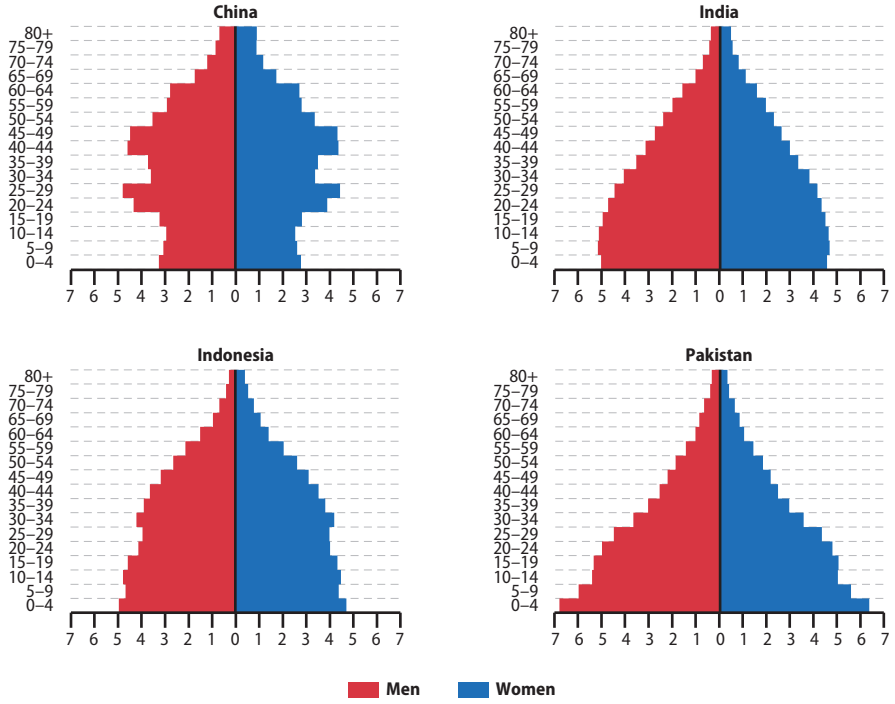


(1) Provisional. Data for 1 January 2014.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_pjangroup) and the World Bank (DataBank)

The age structure for the EU-28 is quite different: a much higher share of older persons reflecting higher life expectancy and the impact of the 'baby-boomer' cohorts on the population structure; the share of the age groups below those aged 45–49 years gets progressively smaller approaching the youngest cohorts, reflecting falling fertility rates over several decades. Another difference is the somewhat greater gender imbalance (than is typical for the world as a whole) within the EU-28 among older age groups.

Figure 2.1: Age pyramids, 2014 (continued)
(% of total population)

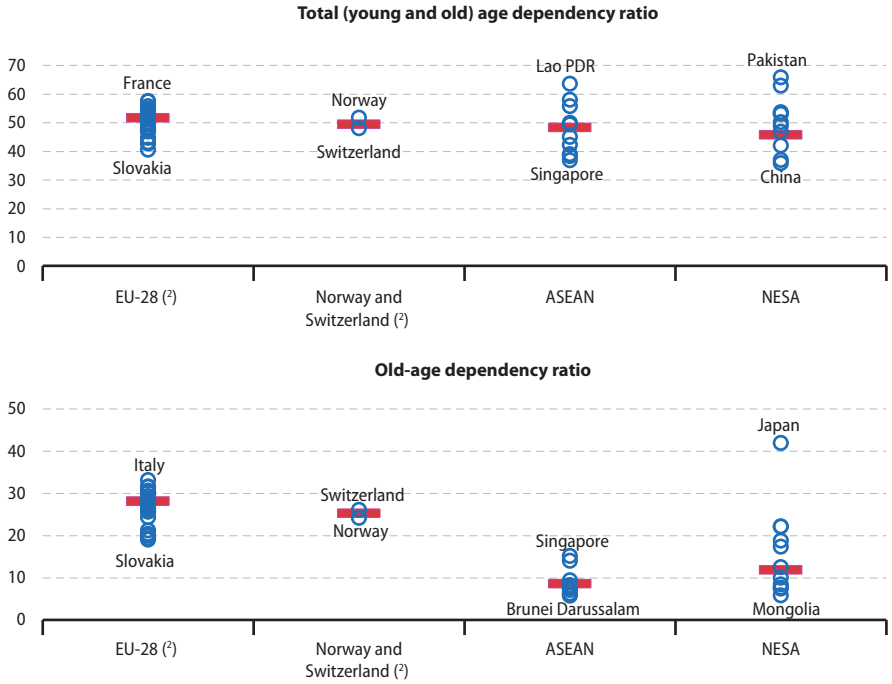


Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_pjangroup) and the World Bank (DataBank)

The age dependency ratio (young and old) shown in Figure 2.2 summarises the level of support for younger persons (aged less than 15 years) and older persons (aged 65 years and over) provided by the working-age population (those aged 15–64 years). Despite different age structures across the various partners, the average ratios for the four groupings in 2014 are relatively similar, with the overall ratio pulled up by high old-age dependency ratios in some partners and by high young-age dependency ratios in others. The second part of Figure 2.2 focuses on the old-age dependency ratio and this shows a much greater range across the four groupings in 2014, with ASEAN members and NESA partners generally reporting relatively low old-age dependency ratios, aside from the notable exception of Japan.

The share of the foreign-born population was relatively high in some of the wealthier, smaller ASEM partners, notably Singapore, Australia and Brunei Darussalam in Asia, and Luxembourg and Switzerland in Europe, where in 2015 around one quarter or more of the population was foreign-born (see Figure 2.3). By contrast, less than 0.1 % of the population was foreign-born in China and in Vietnam. For comparison, across the world around 3.3 % of the global population was living in a different country from the one in which they

Figure 2.2: Age dependency ratios, 2014 (1)
(%)



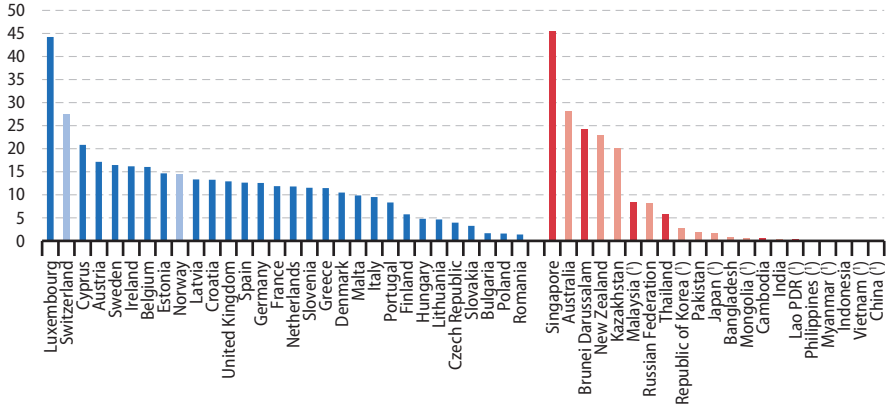
(1) The circles in the figure represent the values for each partner and collectively show the range from the highest to the lowest values for each geographical grouping; the horizontal line is the average (mean) within each grouping; the names of the partners with the highest and lowest values are also included.
(2) Data for 1 January 2014.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_pjangroup) and the World Bank (DataBank)

were born, a share that rose to an estimated 10.4 % for the EU-28 while it stood at 1.6 % in ASEAN and 1.1 % in NESA.

Within the EU-28, nearly half of all foreign-born residents in 2015 came from countries that were not ASEM partners, such as other parts of Europe (for example, Turkey and parts of the former Yugoslavia), Asia or other continents. Some 15.8 % of foreign-born residents in the EU-28 were from Asian ASEM partners (mainly from NESA). By comparison, the share of foreign-born residents in Asian ASEM partners that were born in European ASEM partners was lower (8.2 %). The share was particularly low in ASEAN members where just 1.1 % of foreign-born residents were from European ASEM partners.

Figure 2.3: Foreign-born population, 2015
(% of total population)



(1) Foreign citizenship rather than foreign born.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: migr_pop3ctb) and the United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (Trends in International Migrant Stock)

Table 2.2: Foreign-born population, 2015

Resident in:	Number of foreign-born (million)	Share of foreign-born (% of total population)	Analysis of foreign-born (% of foreign-born)							
			Not ASEM	ASEM	European ASEM partners	EU-28	Norway and Switzerland	Asian ASEM partners	ASEAN	NESA
World	191.3	2.6	53.9	46.1	15.5	15.2	0.4	30.6	7.3	23.3
ASEM	85.3	1.9	42.6	57.4	23.2	22.5	0.6	34.3	9.0	25.3
European ASEM partners	44.9	8.7	47.9	52.1	36.7	35.5	1.1	15.5	2.9	12.5
EU-28	42.7	8.5	48.4	51.6	35.8	34.7	1.2	15.8	2.9	12.9
Norway and Switzerland	2.2	16.0	38.6	61.4	52.9	52.8	0.2	8.5	3.4	5.1
Asian ASEM partners	40.4	1.0	36.6	63.4	8.2	8.1	0.1	55.1	15.6	39.5
ASEAN	6.5	1.0	13.1	86.9	1.1	1.0	0.0	85.8	67.3	18.5
NESA	33.9	1.0	41.2	58.8	9.6	9.5	0.1	49.3	5.7	43.6

Source: the United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (Trends in International Migrant Stock)

In 2015, the three largest urban agglomerations in the world were in ASEM partners, namely Tokyo (Japan), Delhi (India) and Shanghai (China). The 10 largest urban agglomerations in ASEM partners are shown in Table 2.3: they were all in Asian ASEM partners and ranked among the 16 largest agglomerations in the world. The largest urban agglomerations outside of the ASEM partners were São Paulo (Brazil), Mexico City and Cairo (Egypt). The largest urban agglomerations within the EU-28 were Paris (France) and London (the United Kingdom).

Worldwide, there were more than 660 urban agglomerations with a population in excess of 750 thousand inhabitants in 2015 and together their aggregated population of 1.8 billion people was equivalent to nearly one quarter of the world's population. More than half (363) of these large urban agglomerations were in ASEM partners, with 277 in NESA (China was home to 147 and India 67, as can be seen in Figure 2.4). There were 48 of these large urban agglomerations in the EU-28, 36 in ASEAN and two in Norway and Switzerland.

There is no globally accepted standard for distinguishing urban from rural areas, nor for delimiting the boundaries of urban agglomerations. For example, definitions and boundaries may be based on the availability of certain infrastructure, nationally-specific administrative boundaries, overall levels of population and/or levels of population density. The focus of Figure 2.5 is on the change in the share of the urban population between 1960 and 2015; at a global level this rose from 33.7 % to 54.0 %. Among the ASEM partners shown, particularly large increases in the share of the urban population were recorded for the Republic of Korea, Malaysia, China and Indonesia, while the highest increase in percentage point terms among the EU-28 Member States was in Bulgaria. Aside from Singapore, where the whole population lives in urban areas, the highest shares of urban population in 2015 were in Belgium and Malta in the EU-28 and in Japan among the Asian ASEM partners.

Table 2.3: Largest urban agglomerations in ASEM partners, 1950, 2000–20 (1)
(million inhabitants)

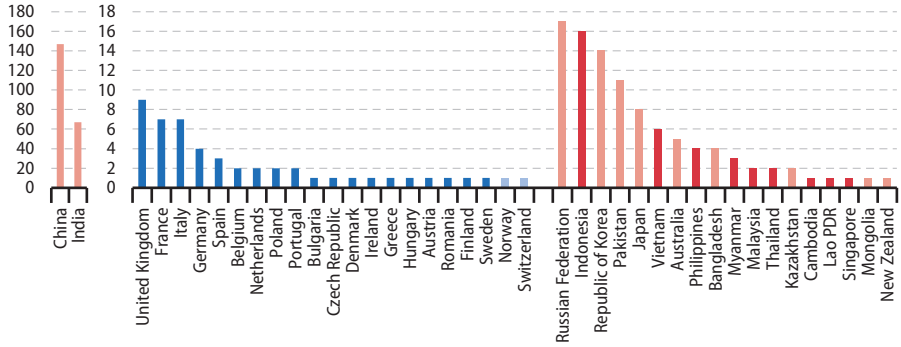
World rank	City	Country	1950	2000	2005	2010	2015	2020
1	**Tokyo**	**Japan**	11.3	34.4	35.6	36.8	38.0	*38.3*
2	**Delhi**	**India**	1.4	15.7	18.7	21.9	25.7	*29.3*
3	**Shanghai**	**China**	4.3	14.0	16.8	20.0	23.7	*27.1*
5	**Mumbai (Bombay)**	**India**	2.9	16.4	17.9	19.4	21.0	*22.8*
7	**Beijing**	**China**	1.7	10.2	12.8	16.2	20.4	*24.2*
8	**Osaka**	**Japan**	7.0	18.7	18.8	19.5	20.2	*20.5*
11	**Dhaka**	**Bangladesh**	0.3	10.3	12.3	14.7	17.6	*21.0*
12	**Karachi**	**Pakistan**	1.1	10.0	11.9	14.1	16.6	*19.2*
14	**Kolkata (Calcutta)**	**India**	4.5	13.1	13.7	14.3	14.9	*15.7*
16	**Chongqing**	**China**	1.6	7.9	9.5	11.2	13.3	*15.2*

(1) Ranked on 2015 values. Note that city definitions vary between countries.

Source: the United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (World Urbanisation Prospects)

Figure 2.4: Number of urban agglomerations with more than 750 000 inhabitants, 2015 (1)

(number)

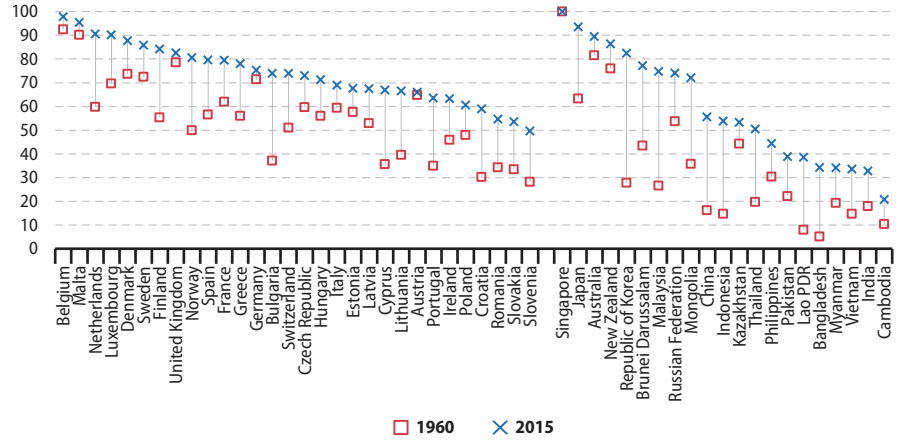


(1) Estonia, Croatia, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Slovenia, Slovakia and Brunei Darussalam do not have any urban agglomerations with more than 750 000 inhabitants. Note that the two parts of the figure have different scales on the y-axis.

Source: the United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (World Urbanisation Prospects)

Figure 2.5: Share of urban population, 1960 and 2015

(% of total population)

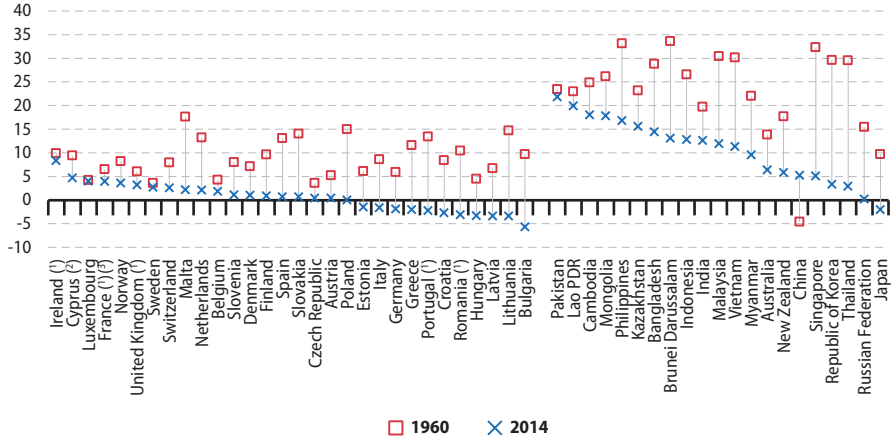


Source: the United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (World Urbanisation Prospects)

There are two distinct components to population change: natural population change that results from the difference between the number of live births and the number of deaths (see Figure 2.6); and the net effect of migration (see Figure 2.7), in other words, the balance between people coming into and people leaving a territory.

Comparing with 1960, China was the only ASEM partner where the natural population change was higher in 2014: in fact, China moved from a position of negative natural population change in 1960 to growth in 2014. Among the Asian ASEM partners, Japan moved in the other direction, from natural population growth to decline. All other Asian ASEM partners reported natural population growth in 2014, albeit slower than in 1960. Among the European ASEM partners, natural population growth also slowed between 1960 and 2014, with a negative rate of natural population change (the death rate exceeded the birth rate) in 11 of the EU Member States in 2014 and a balanced position in Poland. In 2014, natural population change was equal to or below 4.0 per 1 000 inhabitants in all European ASEM partners except for Ireland and Cyprus, while it exceeded this level in all Asian ASEM partners except for the Republic of Korea, Thailand, the Russian Federation and Japan. The rate of natural population change in the EU-28 in 2014 was 0.4 per 1 000 inhabitants, well below the world average of 11.6 per 1 000 inhabitants.

Figure 2.6: Natural population change, 1960 and 2014
(per 1 000 inhabitants)



(1) 2014: provisional or estimates.
(2) 1970 instead of 1960.
(3) 1960: excluding overseas departments and territories.

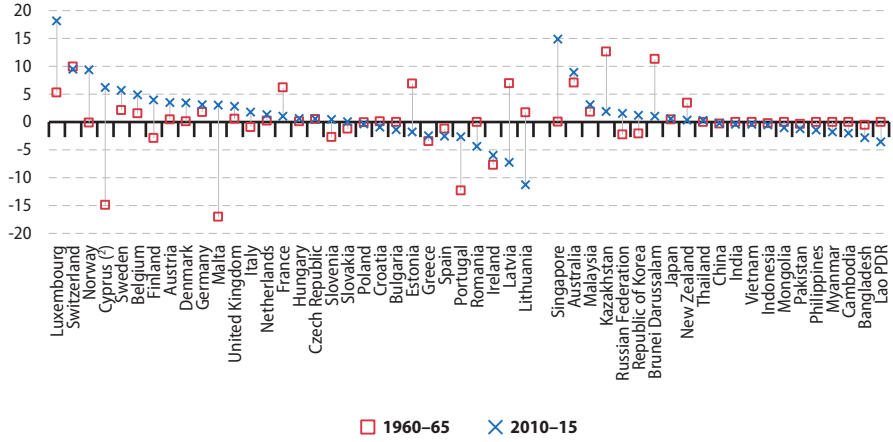
Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_gind) and the World Bank (DataBank)

The combined effect of immigration and emigration can be seen in the net migration rate. Figure 2.7 compares average net migration rates for the periods 1960–65 and 2010–15. Across all of the ASEM partners the two small, wealthy countries of Luxembourg and Singapore reported the highest rates of net inward migration for the latter period (2010–15).

Bangladesh, Pakistan, Mongolia and several of the ASEAN members reported balanced net migration in the first half of the 1960s and negative net migration (more emigration than immigration) between 2010 and 2015, most notably in Lao PDR, Bangladesh and Cambodia. Singapore was unusual in that it moved from balanced migration between 1960 and 1965 to a particularly high net inward migration between 2010 and 2015. The Republic of Korea and the Russian Federation experienced net outward migration during the earlier period but net inward migration between 2010 and 2015. Five Asian ASEM partners reported net inward migration for both of the periods under consideration: Brunei Darussalam, Malaysia, Australia, Kazakhstan and New Zealand.

Among the European ASEM partners, net inward migration was relatively common during the period 2010–15. The main exceptions were the three Baltic Member States (Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania) which recorded net outward migration having had net inward migration between 1960 and 1965, Romania that moved from a balanced position to net outward migration, and Ireland, Greece, Spain and Portugal which recorded net outward migration for both periods. Several European ASEM partners moved from a position of net outward migration between 1960 and 1965 to net inward migration between 2010 and 2015, most notably the islands of Cyprus and Malta, as well as Finland, Slovenia and Italy.

Figure 2.7: Net migration rate, 1960–65 and 2010–15 (1)
(per 1 000 inhabitants)



(1) Estimates.
(2) Including the whole of the island.

Source: the United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (World Population Prospects: The 2015 Revision)

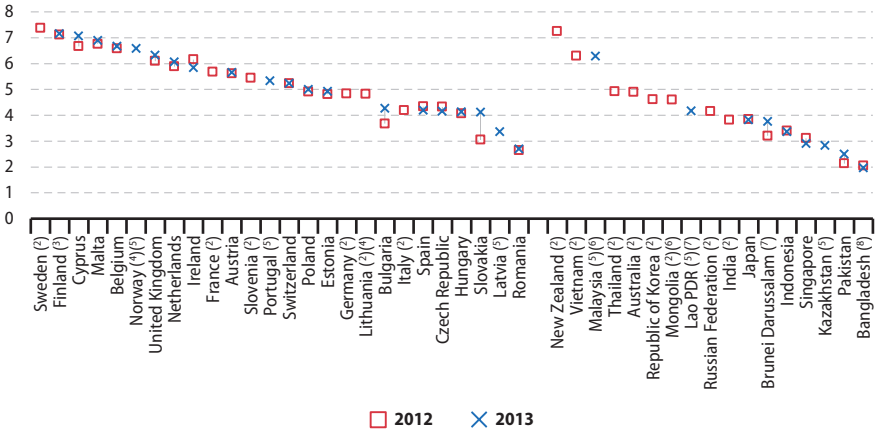
3 Education

Comparisons between countries relating to levels of public expenditure on education are influenced by differences in price levels and by the number of students; it is important to note that some countries have sizeable private education sectors too. In relative terms, public expenditure on education was highest among the ASEM partners in 2012 or 2013 in Sweden, New Zealand, Finland, Cyprus and Malta, where it was close to or above 7.0 % of gross domestic product (GDP), as can be seen in Figure 3.1. The lowest public expenditure relative to GDP was recorded in Bangladesh, Pakistan, Romania, Kazakhstan and Singapore, all below 3.0 %.

The division of public expenditure on education by level of education (see Figure 3.2) depends on a number of factors, such as the age structure of younger people, the enrolment rates for different levels of education and the average expenditure per pupil at each level. Among the ASEM partners, the greatest variability in the share of expenditure on a particular level of education in 2013 was observed for pre-primary education. This education level accounted for 1 % or less of public expenditure on education in Bangladesh and India, but close to one quarter in Mongolia (2011 data) and Bulgaria.

Figure 3.3 presents data for average public expenditure per pupil/student, by education level, in 2012; the data is presented in a common currency (United States dollars) having converted to this using purchasing power parities to adjust for price level differences. The cost of teaching tends to increase as a child moves through the education system, with expenditure per pupil/student generally highest in tertiary education and lowest in primary education. Notable exceptions among the ASEM partners were Bulgaria and Thailand where expenditure per pupil was highest for primary education.

Figure 3.1: Government/public expenditure on education, 2012 and 2013 (1)
(% of gross domestic product)

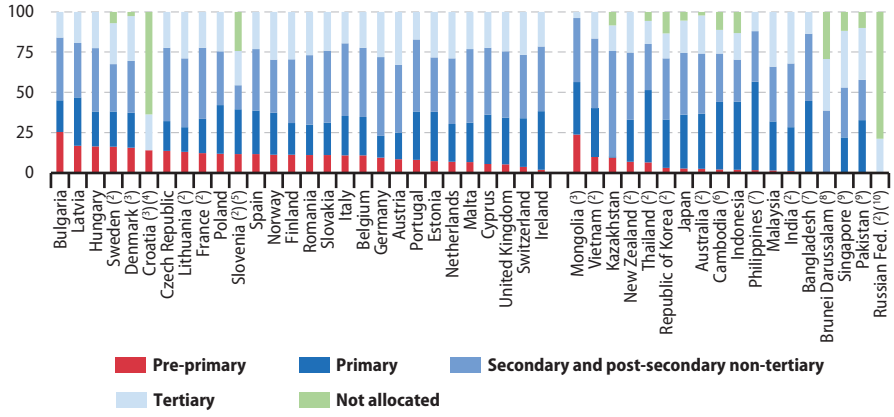


(1) Denmark, Greece, Croatia, Luxembourg, Cambodia, China, Myanmar and Philippines: not available.
(2) 2013: not available.
(3) 2012: definition differs..
(4) Definition differs.
(5) 2012: not available.
(6) 2011 instead of 2012.
(7) 2014 instead of 2013.
(8) Estimates.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: educ_uoe_fine06) and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS)

Figure 3.2: Government/public expenditure on education, analysis by education level, 2013 (1)

(% of total government/public education expenditure)

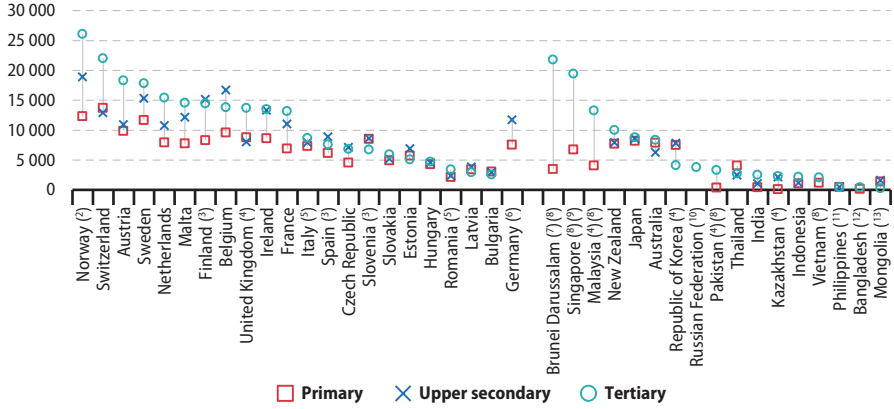


(1) Greece, Luxembourg, China, Lao PDR and Myanmar: not available.
(2) 2012.
(3) 2011.
(4) Primary and secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary: not available.
(5) Secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary: lower secondary only.
(6) 2010.
(7) 2009.
(8) 2014. Pre-primary and primary: not available.
(9) Pre-primary: not available.
(10) Data only available for tertiary and not allocated.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: educ_uoe_fine04) and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS)

Figure 3.3: Government/public expenditure per pupil/student, by education level, 2012 (1)

(USD based on purchasing power parities)



(1) Denmark, Greece, Croatia, Cyprus, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Poland, Portugal, Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar and China: not available. Ranked on tertiary when available.
(2) 2011.
(3) Upper secondary: 2011.
(4) 2013.
(5) Tertiary: 2011.
(6) Tertiary: not available.
(7) 2010.
(8) Upper secondary: not available.
(9) Primary: 2010.
(10) Primary and upper secondary: not available.
(11) 2008.
(12) Primary: 2009. Tertiary: 2011. Upper secondary: not available.
(13) Primary and tertiary: 2011. Upper secondary: 2010.

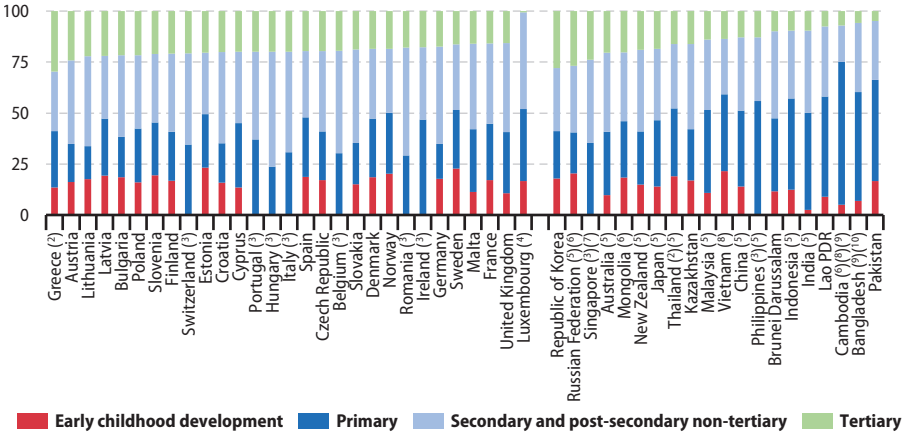
Source: the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS)

The level of educational enrolment depends on a wide range of factors, such as the age structure of the population, legal requirements concerning the start and end (or duration) of compulsory education, the availability of educational resources and the demand for secondary and tertiary education.

In 2014, there were more than 80 million pupils in the EU-28 spread across early childhood development, primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary levels of education, while a further 19 million students were enrolled in tertiary education. Worldwide, the total enrolment from pre-primary education through to post-secondary non-tertiary education was 1.48 billion in 2013 with a further 199 million students in tertiary education.

Comparing the division of pupils/students by education level, the main difference between European and Asian ASEM partners was the higher proportion of primary education students in Asian ASEM partners, particularly in ASEAN members, most notably Cambodia in 2011 (see Figure 3.4). Within NESA there were different situations: the distribution of pupils/students by educational level in the Republic of Korea, the Russian Federation, Australia, Mongolia, New Zealand and Japan was broadly similar to that observed in most of the EU Member States; China and India had similar structures with a relatively high share of primary pupils, which influenced greatly the NESA average; Bangladesh and Pakistan had even higher proportions of pupils in primary education. Among the ASEAN members, Singapore and Brunei Darussalam were the only countries where the combined share of early childhood development and primary education was below 50 %, as it was in nearly all of the EU Member States.

Figure 3.4: Distribution of pupils and students, by education level, 2014 (1)
(% of total number of pupils and students)



(1) Ranked on tertiary. The Netherlands and Myanmar: not available.
(2) Post-secondary non-tertiary education: not available.
(3) Early childhood development: not available.
(4) Tertiary only includes short-cycle tertiary.
(5) 2013.
(6) Estimate made for the purpose of this publication.
(7) 2009.
(8) Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education: not available.
(9) 2011.
(10) Estimates.

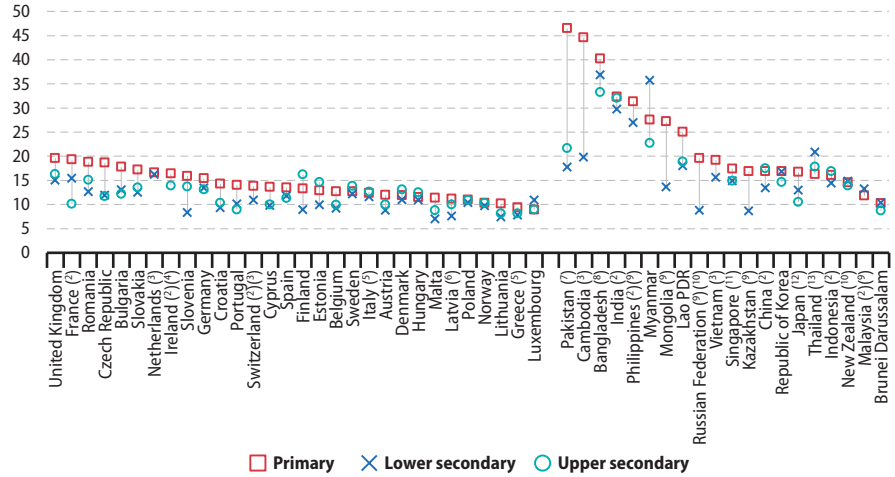
Source: Eurostat (online data code: educ_uoe_enra01) and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS)

Figure 3.5 shows the pupil-teacher ratio for primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education: for the European ASEM partners these ratios are calculated by dividing the number of full-time equivalent pupils by the number of full-time equivalent educational personnel; for the Asian ASEM partners they are based on head counts.

In 2014, the average number of pupils per teacher was generally higher for primary education than for secondary education. Globally, the pupil-teacher ratio for primary education was 24.2 in 2013, whereas it was 18.0 for lower secondary and 16.7 for upper secondary education. The main exceptions to this general pattern among ASEM partners were recorded for those partners who displayed similar ratios across all three levels of education (such as Denmark, Luxembourg, Hungary, Sweden, Brunei Darussalam, Indonesia, Malaysia, China or New Zealand). Otherwise, pupil-teacher ratios in upper secondary education were higher than those in primary education in Finland, Estonia and Thailand, while the ratios in lower secondary education were higher than those in primary education in Malaysia and Thailand.

Pupil-teacher ratios in European ASEM partners were generally below 20, whereas for Asian ASEM partners around one third of the ratios were above this level. For each of the three levels of education shown in Figure 3.5 there were seven or eight Asian ASEM partners with pupil-teacher ratios that were above the 2013 world averages, while none of the European ASEM partners recorded higher than average ratios.

Figure 3.5: Pupil-teacher ratios by education level, 2014 (1)
(number)



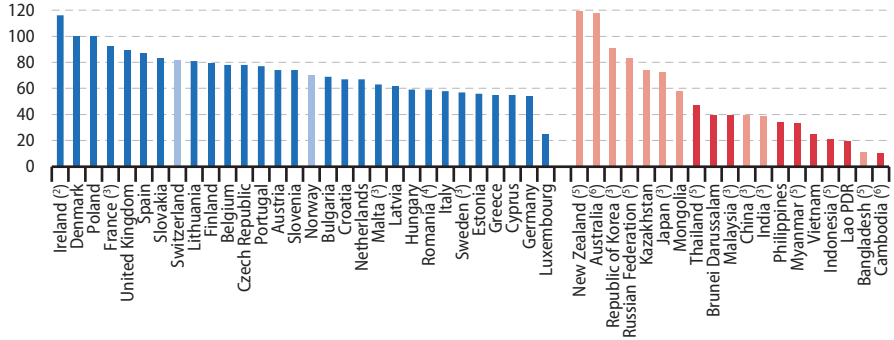
(1) Australia: not available. Ranked on primary education. For the European ASEM partners these ratios are calculated by dividing the number of full-time equivalent pupils by the number of full-time equivalent educational personnel; for the Asian ASEM partners these ratios are based on head counts.
(2) 2013.
(3) Upper secondary: not available.
(4) Lower secondary: not available.
(5) Upper secondary: 2013.
(6) Primary: 2013.
(7) Upper secondary: 2012.
(8) Primary: 2011. Secondary: 2013.
(9) Lower secondary includes upper secondary.
(10) 2012.
(11) 2009.
(12) Upper secondary: 2012. Primary and lower secondary: 2013.
(13) Upper secondary: 2011. Primary and lower secondary: 2012.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: educ_uoe_perp04) and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS)

Figure 3.6 provides an analysis of the number of graduates from tertiary education in 2014 relative to the population aged 20–29. This ratio varied more among the Asian ASEM partners than among the European ASEM partners, with the highest ratios — in New Zealand (2012 data) and Australia (2011 data) — ten times as high as the lowest ratios — in Bangladesh (2012 data) and Cambodia (2011 data).

An analysis of tertiary graduates by their field of study in 2014 is presented in Figure 3.7 for the EU-28, Norway and Switzerland, and a selection of nine Asian ASEM partners.

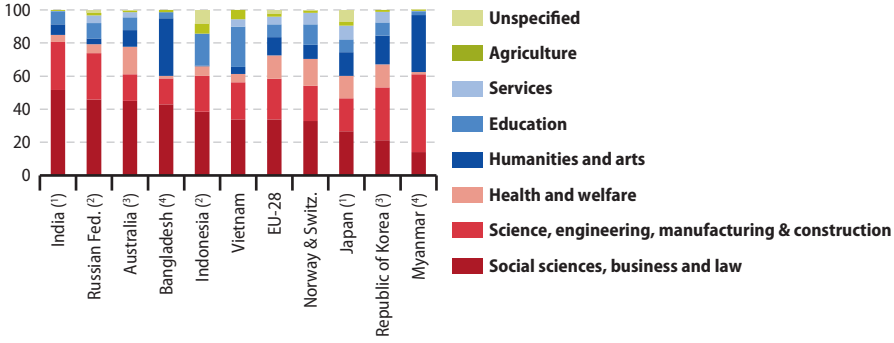
Figure 3.6: Tertiary graduates relative to population, 2014 (1)
(per 1 000 population aged 20-29)



(1) Pakistan and Singapore: not available.
(2) Provisional.
(3) 2013.
(4) Estimate.
(5) 2012.
(6) 2011.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: educ_uoe_grad05), the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and the World Bank (DataBank)

Figure 3.7: Tertiary graduates by field of study, selected ASEM partners, 2014
(% of all graduates)



(1) 2013.
(2) 2009.
(3) 2011.
(4) 2012.

Source: Eurostat (online data codes: educ_uoe_grad02 and educ_uoe_grad03) and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS)

4 Labour market

Table 4.1: Activity and employment rates, persons aged 15–64, 2015
(% of persons aged 15–64)

	Activity rate			Employment rate		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
EU-28	72.5	78.3	66.8	65.6	70.9	60.4
Belgium	67.6	72.2	63.0	61.8	65.5	58.0
Bulgaria	69.3	73.2	65.4	62.9	65.9	59.8
Czech Republic	74.0	81.4	66.5	70.2	77.9	62.4
Denmark	78.5	81.6	75.3	73.5	76.6	70.4
Germany	77.6	82.1	73.1	74.0	78.0	69.9
Estonia	76.7	80.4	73.0	71.9	75.3	68.5
Ireland	70.0	77.4	62.8	63.3	68.7	57.9
Greece	67.8	75.9	59.9	50.8	59.3	42.5
Spain	74.3	79.5	69.0	57.8	62.9	52.7
France	71.2	75.3	67.3	63.8	67.1	60.6
Croatia	66.8	71.5	62.2	55.8	60.1	51.5
Italy	64.0	74.1	54.1	56.3	65.5	47.2
Cyprus	73.6	78.4	69.3	62.4	66.2	58.9
Latvia	75.7	78.9	72.8	68.1	69.9	66.4
Lithuania	74.1	75.8	72.5	67.2	68.0	66.5
Luxembourg	70.9	76.0	65.6	66.1	71.3	60.8
Hungary	68.6	75.3	62.2	63.9	70.3	57.8
Malta	67.6	80.8	53.8	63.9	76.2	51.0
Netherlands	79.6	84.6	74.7	74.1	79.0	69.2
Austria	75.5	80.1	70.9	71.1	75.1	67.1
Poland	68.1	74.8	61.4	62.9	69.3	56.6
Portugal	73.4	76.7	70.3	63.9	66.9	61.1
Romania	66.1	75.3	56.7	61.4	69.5	53.2
Slovenia	71.8	75.4	67.9	65.2	69.2	61.0
Slovakia	70.9	77.5	64.3	62.7	69.5	56.0
Finland	75.8	77.2	74.4	68.5	69.3	67.7
Sweden	81.7	83.5	79.9	75.5	77.0	74.0
United Kingdom	76.9	82.2	71.7	72.7	77.6	68.0
Norway	78.2	80.3	76.1	74.8	76.5	73.0
Switzerland	84.2	88.5	79.8	80.2	84.4	76.0

Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfsi_emp_a)

The labour force — also referred to as the workforce — is made up of economically active persons, in other words people who are employed or unemployed. The activity rate is the share of economically active persons in the working-age population, while the employment rate is the share of employed persons in the working-age population. The difference between the two rates reflects the level of unemployment relative to the working-age population. There are many reasons for low activity rates, including a large proportion of the working-age population that is still studying, in early retirement, or not available for employment through long-term sickness, invalidity or caring for family members.

Table 4.1: Activity and employment rates, persons aged 15–64, 2015 (continued)
(% of persons aged 15–64)

	Activity rate			Employment rate		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Brunei Darussalam (1)(2)	:	:	:	61.1	67.9	53.8
Cambodia (1)	82.6	87.9	77.5	82.4	87.8	77.4
Indonesia (3)	69.1	85.4	52.5	64.6	80.1	49.0
Lao PDR	:	:	:	:	:	:
Malaysia (1)	67.5	80.4	53.6	65.6	78.3	51.9
Myanmar	:	:	:	:	:	:
Philippines (2)	63.6	77.3	50.1	59.6	72.2	47.2
Singapore (1)(4)	84.0	93.2	75.2	80.8	89.9	72.0
Thailand (1)	76.7	84.6	69.1	75.9	83.7	68.4
Vietnam (1)	83.6	87.2	80.1	82.0	85.5	78.6
Australia	77.0	82.7	71.2	72.2	77.6	66.8
Bangladesh (2)(3)	57.1	81.7	33.5	54.7	79.2	31.1
China (1)(5)	70.6	:	:	68.5	:	:
India (1)(2)	52.5	74.4	25.8	49.9	71.4	23.8
Japan	75.9	85.0	66.8	73.3	81.8	64.6
Kazakhstan (2)(3)	71.3	77.3	66.7	68.0	73.7	62.8
Mongolia (1)	65.5	71.7	59.7	60.3	65.6	55.3
New Zealand	79.0	84.2	74.1	74.3	79.6	69.2
Pakistan (6)	53.5	81.7	24.2	41.8	63.5	18.8
Republic of Korea	68.3	78.6	57.9	65.8	75.7	55.7
Russian Federation (1)(7)	73.1	78.6	68.1	69.3	74.3	64.8

(1) 2014.
(2) Persons aged 15 and over.
(3) 2013.
(4) National residents only.
(5) Persons aged 16 and over.
(6) 2010. Persons aged 10 and over.
(7) Persons aged 15–72.

Source: the International Labour Organisation (ILOSTAT) and the World Bank (DataBank)

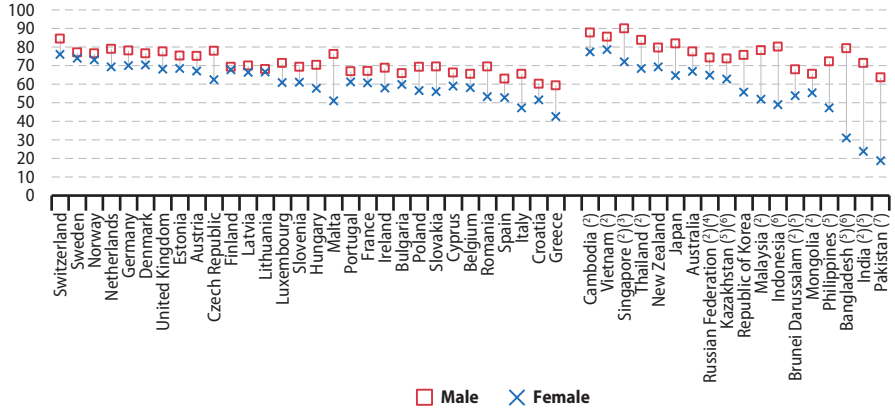
Table 4.1 shows the activity and employment rates for all ASEM partners with a further analysis by sex: activity and employment rates for men in 2015 were consistently higher than those for women in each partner. The female activity rate among European ASEM partners and ASEAN members in 2015 was in a range between 50 % and 80 %, while for NESA the range was wider, with rates falling closer to one third in Bangladesh (2013 data) and one quarter in India (2014 data) and Pakistan (2010 data); it should be noted that there are differences in the age coverage for all three of these countries. Female employment rates were particularly high in Vietnam and Cambodia (both 2014 data).

The difference between male and female employment rates is shown in Figure 4.1. Among the European ASEM partners the largest differences were in Malta, Italy, Greece, Romania and the Czech Republic: for the EU-28 as a whole the difference in 2015 was 10.5 percentage points. Among the Asian ASEM partners gender differences were generally greater, as only New Zealand, Cambodia, Mongolia, the Russian Federation and Vietnam (all 2014 data, except for New Zealand) reported gender differences that were smaller than the EU-28 average. The biggest gender gaps were observed for Bangladesh, India and Pakistan, all of which reported particularly low employment rates for women.

The working status of persons in employment varied substantially between the ASEM partners as can be seen from Figure 4.2 which presents data for the EU-28 (for 2015) and a selection of Asian ASEM partners (mainly for 2014). The Russian Federation had a particularly high proportion of paid employees and consequently fewer self-employed persons — referred to as employers (if having paid employees) or own-account workers — and family workers. Several of the Asian ASEM partners shown in Figure 4.2 had much lower shares of paid employees: in Indonesia, Thailand, Cambodia and Vietnam less than half of the total workforce were employees. In Cambodia, the share of own-account workers was around 50 %, while in Vietnam the proportion of contributing family workers was more than one fifth.

Comparing earnings between countries can be complicated by a number of issues, not least the fact that a conversion to a common currency using market exchange rates does not reflect the differences in purchasing power between countries. Other comparability issues relate to the accounting nature (whether gross or net of taxes and social security contributions), the type of workers or jobs covered (full-time or not, nationals or all residents, main job or also secondary jobs) and the type of employers (public or private sector). In 2010, average monthly gross earnings in the EU-28 were EUR 2 324, a level that was surpassed among the other ASEM partners in Norway and Switzerland, as well as in New Zealand in 2014 (see Figure 4.3).

Figure 4.1: Employment rates by sex, persons aged 15–64, 2015 (1)
(% of persons aged 15–64)

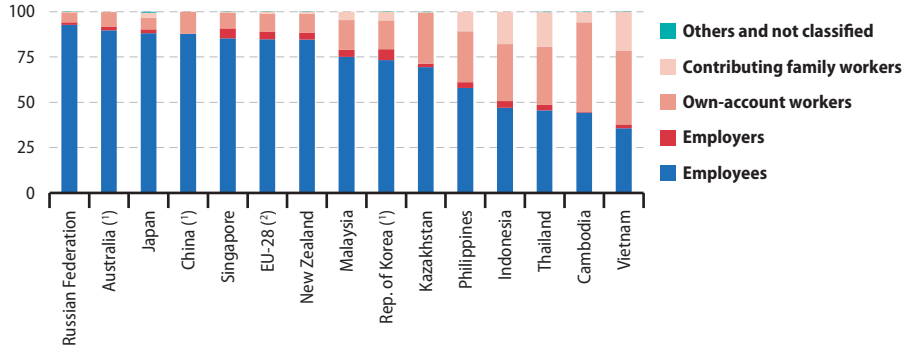


(1) Lao PDR, Myanmar and China: not available.
(2) 2014.
(3) National residents only.
(4) Persons aged 15–72.
(5) Persons aged 15 and over.
(6) 2013.
(7) 2010. Persons aged 10 and over.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfsi_emp_a) and the International Labour Organisation (ILOSTAT)

Figure 4.2: Analysis of working status of those in employment, EU-28 and selected ASEM partners, 2014

(%)

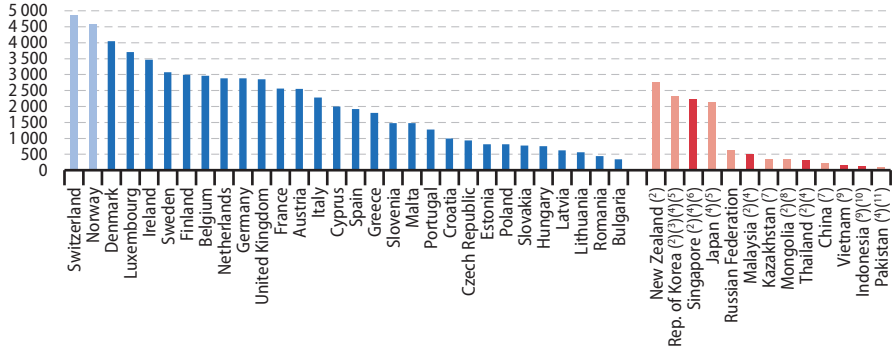


(1) 2013.
(2) 2015.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfsa_egaps) and the International Labour Organisation (ILOSTAT)

Figure 4.3: Mean monthly gross earnings of employees, 2010 or 2014, (1)

(EUR)



(1) Philippines, EUR 6 per day (main job); Australia, EUR 26 per hour. Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Bangladesh and India: not available. EU Member States, Norway and Switzerland: employees in enterprises of 10 employees or more in industry, construction and services (except public administration, defence, compulsory social security); 2010. Asian ASEM partners: 2014 unless otherwise footnoted.
(2) Main job.
(3) Private sector only.
(4) Full-time workers
(5) Establishments with at least 5 employees.
(6) Resident nationals. Median.
(7) 2008.
(8) Salaried employees.
(9) 2013.
(10) Net earnings.
(11) Persons aged 10 and over.

Source: Eurostat (online data codes: earn_ses10_19 and ert_bil_eur_a), the International Labour Organisation (ILOSTAT) and the United Nations Statistics Division (National Accounts Main Aggregates Database)

Unemployed persons are those without work, but actively searching work. The unemployment rate is calculated as the number of unemployed persons as a proportion of the labour force.

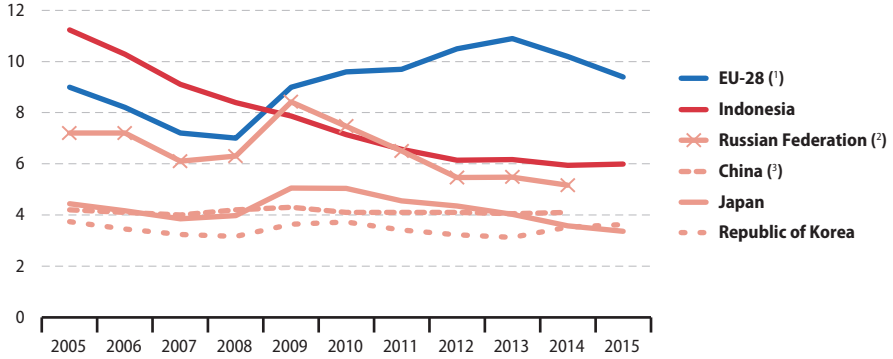
Just prior to the financial and economic crisis — around 2006 and 2007 — falling unemployment rates could be clearly seen in all of the economies shown in Figure 4.4, except for China. By 2009, this situation had reversed in the EU-28, the Russian Federation, Japan and the Republic of Korea, although the unemployment rate continued to fall in Indonesia. As the unemployment rate for the EU-28 continued to climb through to 2013 (after which it fell back), the rates for most of the other economies returned to a downward path in 2010 or 2011. Throughout the period under consideration, the unemployment rate remained relatively low and stable in China and to a lesser extent in Japan and the Republic of Korea.

Unemployment rates were below the EU-28 average (9.3 % for men and 9.5 % for women) in Norway, as well as in all of the Asian ASEM partners. In most ASEM partners, regardless of whether they were European or Asian, male and female unemployment rates were quite similar. The main exceptions in 2015 were Greece, Bangladesh (2013 data), Pakistan and India (2014 data) where female rates were notably higher and Ireland where male rates were clearly higher.

In 2013, all ASEM partners except for Kazakhstan had higher youth unemployment rates (for persons aged 15–24) than their unemployment rates for the total labour force, as can be seen in Figure 4.6. It should be remembered that these rates are calculated as a percentage of the labour force (not the population) and many people between the ages of 15 and 24 years may be outside of the labour force, for example studying or travelling.

The youth unemployment rate in the EU-28 stood at 20.3 % in 2015, which was around 2.2 times as high as the overall EU-28 unemployment rate. Youth unemployment rates were more than three times as high as overall unemployment rates in Italy and Romania. More than one quarter of the labour force aged 15–24 was without work in a group of southern and eastern EU Member States covering Greece, Spain, Croatia, Italy, Cyprus, Portugal and Slovakia. Indonesia reported a youth unemployment rate of 21.6 % (2013 data), while none of the other Asian ASEM partners (for which data are available) reported rates above 20 % .

Figure 4.4: Unemployment rates, EU-28 and selected Asian ASEM partners, 2005–15
(unemployed persons aged 15 and over as a % of the labour force)

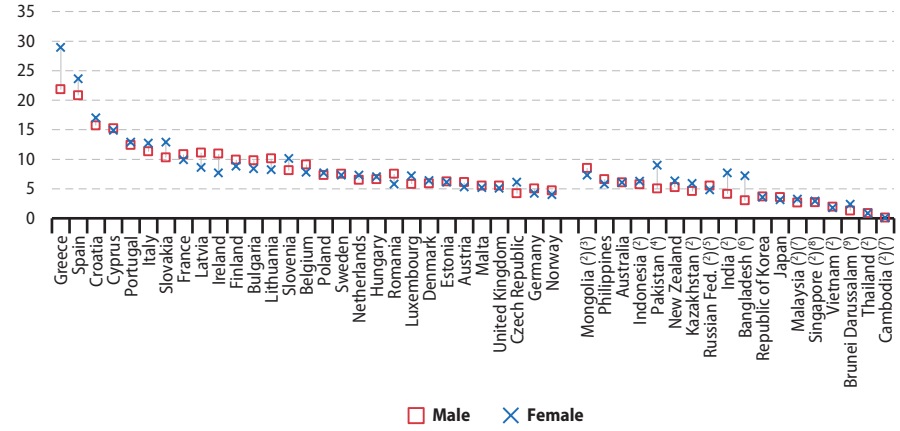


(1) Persons aged 15–74.
(2) Persons aged 15–72. 2015: not available.
(3) Registered unemployed. Persons aged 16 and over. Urban areas only. 2015: not available.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: une_rt_a) and the International Labour Organisation (ILOSTAT)

Figure 4.5: Unemployment rates, analysis by sex, 2015 (1)

(%)

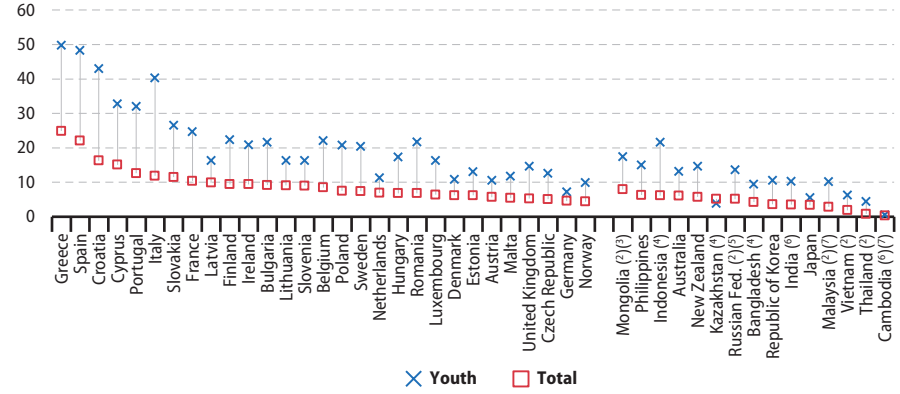


(1) Switzerland, Lao PDR, Myanmar and China: not available. Ranked on total unemployment rate. EU Member States and Norway: persons aged 15–74. Asian ASEM partners: persons aged 15 and over unless otherwise footnoted.
(2) 2014.
(3) Persons aged 15–60.
(4) Persons aged 10 and over.
(5) Persons aged 15–72.
(6) 2013.
(7) Persons aged 15–64.
(8) Resident nationals.
(9) 2011.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: une_rt_a) and the International Labour Organisation (ILOSTAT)

Figure 4.6: Youth and total unemployment rates, 2015 (1)

(unemployed persons as a % of the labour force)



(1) Switzerland, Brunei Darussalam, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Singapore, China and Pakistan: not available.
(2) 2014.
(3) Total: persons aged 15–60.
(4) 2013.
(5) Total: persons aged 15–72.
(6) 2010.
(7) Total: persons aged 15–64.

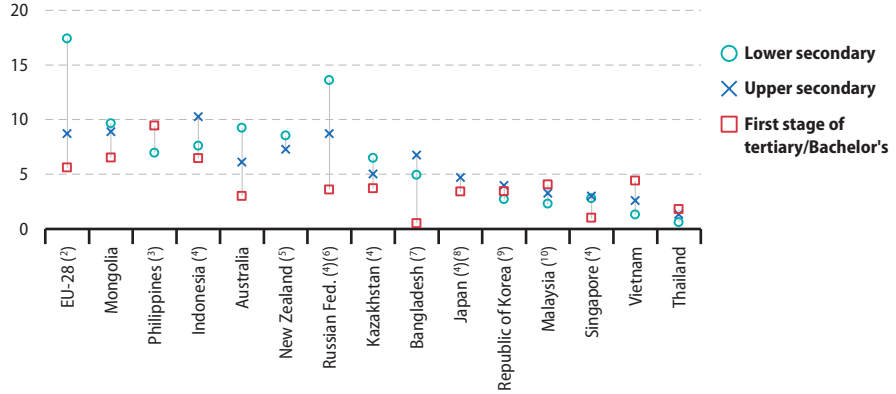
Source: Eurostat (online data code: une_rt_a) and the International Labour Organisation (ILOSTAT)

The likelihood that a person faces the risk of unemployment often depends on their level of education. Figure 4.7 provides information for the EU-28 and a selection of Asian ASEM partners, comparing unemployment rates for persons according to their highest level of educational attainment: note that rates are not shown for all levels of education.

The EU-28, Australia, Kazakhstan, Mongolia and the Russian Federation displayed a similar pattern, with lower unemployment rates for those persons with higher levels of educational attainment. A similar situation was apparent in Indonesia, Singapore and Bangladesh as their lowest unemployment rates were among those persons having completed the first stage of tertiary education, although unemployment rates for persons having completed upper secondary education were higher than for those having completed at most lower secondary education.

The reverse pattern was displayed for Malaysia, Thailand and Vietnam, as unemployment rates rose as a function of people completing higher levels of education; note that the unemployment rates in these three countries were below 5 % for all three levels of educational attainment.

Figure 4.7: Unemployment rates by highest completed level of education, EU-28 and selected Asian ASEM partners, 2014 or 2015 (1)
(unemployed persons as a % of the labour force)



(1) EU-28: persons aged 15–74; 2015. Selected Asian ASEM partners (unless otherwise footnoted): persons aged 15 and over; 2014. EU-28, Thailand, Australia and New Zealand: based on ISCED 2011. All other ASEM partners: based on ISCED 1997.
(2) Lower secondary includes all lower levels. Upper secondary includes also post-secondary non-tertiary. First stage of tertiary includes all tertiary.
(3) Upper secondary: not available.
(4) 2013.
(5) First stage of tertiary/Bachelor's: not available.
(6) Persons aged 15–72.
(7) 2010. Persons aged 15–65.
(8) Upper secondary includes all lower levels. First stage of tertiary includes all tertiary.
(9) Upper secondary includes also post-secondary non-tertiary. First stage of tertiary includes all tertiary.
(10) Persons aged 15–64.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfsa_urgaed) and the International Labour Organisation (ILOSTAT)

5 Economy and finance

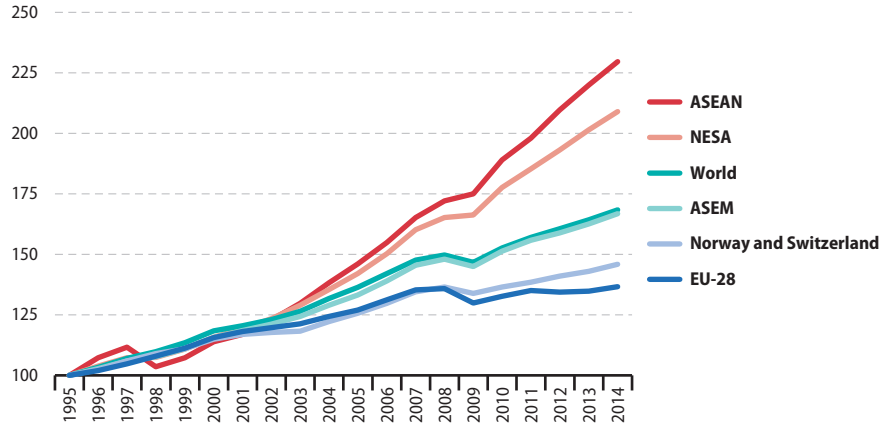
Growth in gross domestic product (GDP) averaged 2.7 % per year between 1995 and 2014 among the ASEM partners, roughly in line with the global average of 2.8 %. It should be noted that this period includes the Asian financial crisis and the global financial and economic crisis, both of which can clearly be seen in Figure 5.1 (with a downturn in activity in 1998 on one hand, as well as in 2008–09 on the other). GDP growth in ASEAN members averaged 4.5 % per year between 1995 and 2014, which was slightly higher than the 4.0 % average recorded for NESA countries and well above the growth rates recorded for Norway and Switzerland (2.0 % combined) or the EU-28 (1.7 %).

China's GDP overtook that of Japan in 2009 to become the largest Asian economy (by this measure); by 2014, its GDP was more than double that of Japan and accounted for 13.4 % of the global total, between half and three fifths of the size of the EU-28's GDP.

The annual rate of change for GDP in real terms (therefore, after removing the impact of price changes) is shown in Figure 5.2 for the period 2004–14. Among the larger ASEAN economies shown in the top half of the figure, Indonesia recorded uninterrupted growth, whereas the others reported a contraction in activity during the global financial and economic crisis. The bottom half of the figure shows the largest NESA economies, with uninterrupted growth recorded in China and India, while the Russian Federation posted one year of contraction during the crisis in 2009. The Japanese and EU-28 economies also contracted during the global financial and economic crisis and in addition Japan reported a small fall in GDP in 2011 and the EU-28 a small fall in 2012.

Figure 5.1: Index of the development of gross domestic product at constant prices, 1995–2014

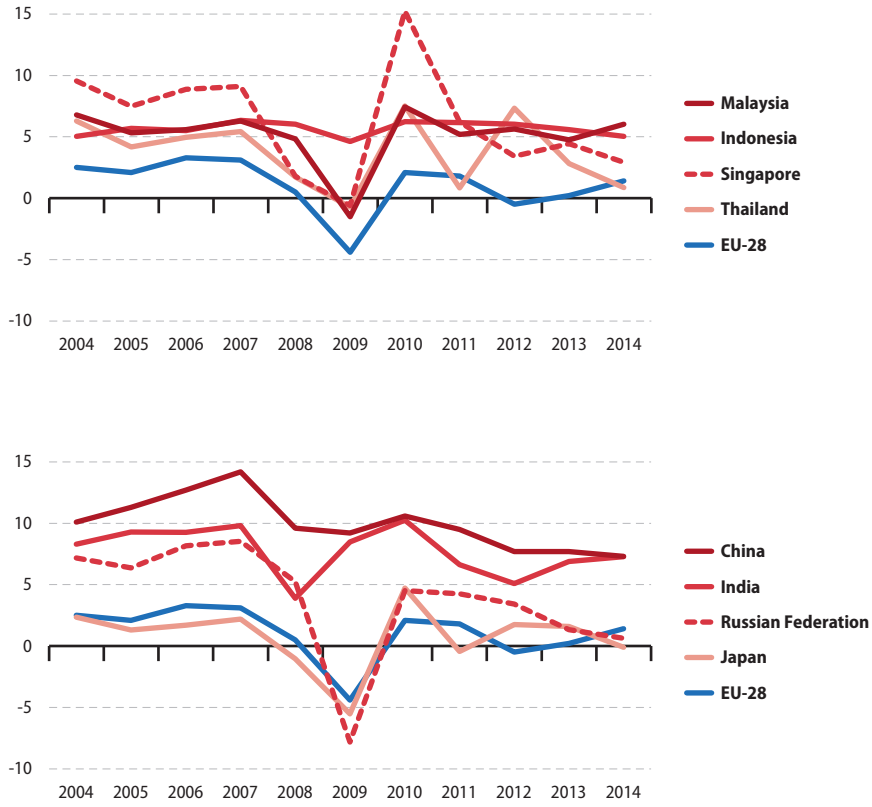
(1995 = 100, based on USD in 2005 prices)



Source: the United Nations Statistics Division (National Accounts Estimates of Main Aggregates) and the World Bank (DataBank)

During the period 2004–14, China's economy averaged annual growth of 10.0 % and India's averaged 7.2 % growth, while Singapore, Indonesia and Malaysia all had average growth between 4.0 % and 6.0 % per year. Thailand (3.5 %) and the Russian Federation (3.4 %) recorded slightly lower annual average growth rates for GDP, while that of Japan was 0.6 %, which was below the 0.9 % average recorded for the EU-28. Among the Asian ASEM partners not shown in Figure 5.2, the fastest annual average growth rates for GDP between 2004 and 2014 were recorded for Myanmar (9.9 %) and Mongolia (8.8 %), while the slowest rate was 0.4 % in Brunei Darussalam.

Figure 5.2: Real rate of change of gross domestic product, 2004–14
(%)



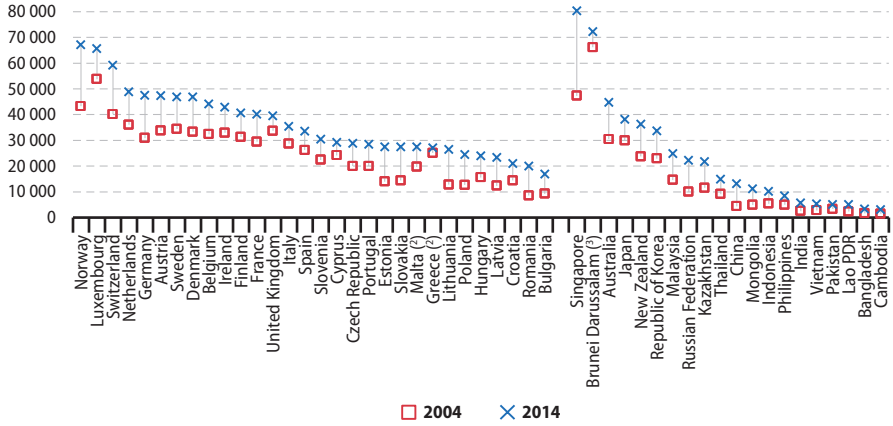
Source: Eurostat (online data code: nama_10_gdp) and the United Nations Statistics Division (National Accounts Main Aggregates Database)

Figure 5.3 shows an analysis of gross national income (GNI) per capita in terms of purchasing power parities; in other words, the GNI data have been divided by the size of the population and adjusted for price level differences. Among the ASEM partners, the highest GNI per capita in 2014 was USD 80.3 thousand recorded in Singapore, although it should be noted that the data for Brunei Darussalam — which had the second highest value — are from 2012 rather than 2014. Norway, Luxembourg and Switzerland also reported high levels of GNI per capita, all above USD 50 thousand. All of the other European ASEM partners reported GNI per capita above the world average of USD 14.9 thousand as did seven of the remaining Asian ASEM partners. The lowest values of GNI per capita were USD 3.3 thousand per capita in Bangladesh and USD 3.1 thousand per capita in Cambodia: this gave a ratio between the average GNI per capita in Singapore and that in Cambodia of 26:1.

An analysis of the broad structure of value added is presented in Figure 5.4, which shows some key differences between the European and Asian ASEM partners in 2014:

- the relative weight of services was larger, on average, among European ASEM partners (73.5 % of total value added) than in any of the Asian ASEM partners except for Singapore (75.0 %);
- agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing was much smaller, on average, among European ASEM partners (1.6 % of total value added) than in any of the Asian ASEM partners except for Japan (1.2 %) and Singapore (0.0 %);
- industry was also smaller, on average, among European ASEM partners (19.5 % of total value added) than any of the Asian ASEM partners except for Pakistan (19.2 %), Australia (19.1 %), Cambodia (18.0 %) and New Zealand (17.3 %).

Figure 5.3: Gross national income per capita, 2004 and 2014 (1)
(USD based on purchasing power parities)



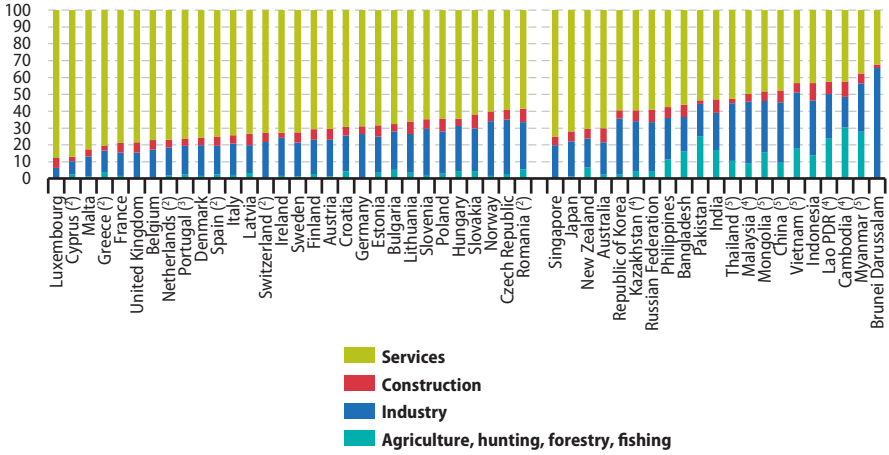
(1) Myanmar: not available.
(2) 2013 instead of 2014.
(3) 2012 instead of 2014.

Source: the World Bank (DataBank)

Between the ASEAN members and NESA there were also some notable differences. ASEAN members often had a higher contribution from agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing, although this share was also high in Pakistan, and to a lesser extent in India, Bangladesh and Mongolia. Equally, there were several ASEAN members where services contributed less than half of their total value added, which was only the case in Mongolia and China among the NESA countries.

Brunei Darussalam — which is rich in petroleum and natural gas resources — had by far the highest contribution from industry, as these activities provided close to two thirds (64.9 %) of its total value added, far ahead of the next highest industrial share which was 36.6 % in Malaysia. Among the Asian ASEM partners, the share of services in total value added peaked at 75.0 % in Singapore. There were 11 EU Member States that reported a higher share of their economic activity within services than the level recorded in Singapore, most notably the tourism focused economies of Greece, Malta and Cyprus — where shares above 80.0 % were recorded — and the financial services focused economy of Luxembourg, where the highest share among all ASEM partners was recorded, with services accounting for 87.8 % of total value added.

Figure 5.4: Analysis of gross domestic product by activity, 2014 (1)
(% of total value added at basic prices)

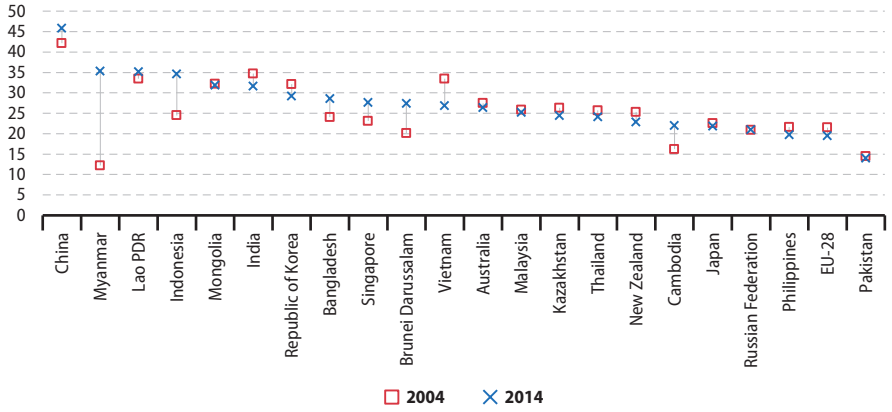


(1) EU Member States, Norway and Switzerland: based on NACE Rev. 2. Other ASEM partners: based on ISIC Rev.3 or approximations thereof.
(2) Provisional.
(3) Estimate.
(4) Excluding financial intermediation services indirectly measured (FISIM).
(5) At producers' prices.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: nama_10_a10) and the United Nations Statistics Division (National Accounts Main Aggregates Database)

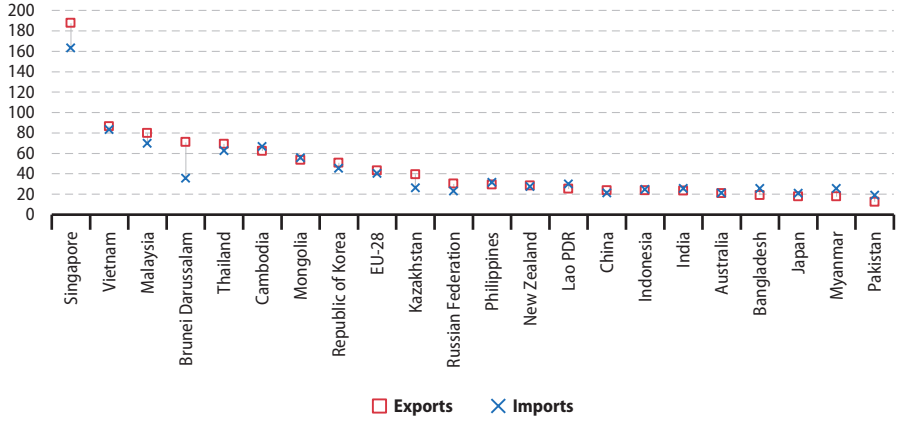
Gross capital formation includes investment in fixed capital and valuables, as well as changes in stocks; relative to GDP it gives a broad indication of the scale of investment in an economy. For the EU-28, gross capital formation was 19.5 % of GDP in 2014 (see Figure 5.5), a figure that was higher than that recorded for Pakistan, but lower than in all of the other Asian ASEM partners. China had, by some margin, the highest ratio of gross capital formation to GDP in 2014, while Myanmar recorded by far the largest increase in this ratio over the last decade (2004–14).

Figure 5.5: Gross capital formation, EU-28 and Asian ASEM partners, 2004 and 2014
(% of gross domestic product)



Source: Eurostat (online data code: nama_10_gdp) and the United Nations Statistics Division (National Accounts Main Aggregates Database)

Figure 5.6: Exports and imports, EU-28 and Asian ASEM partners, 2014
(% of gross domestic product)



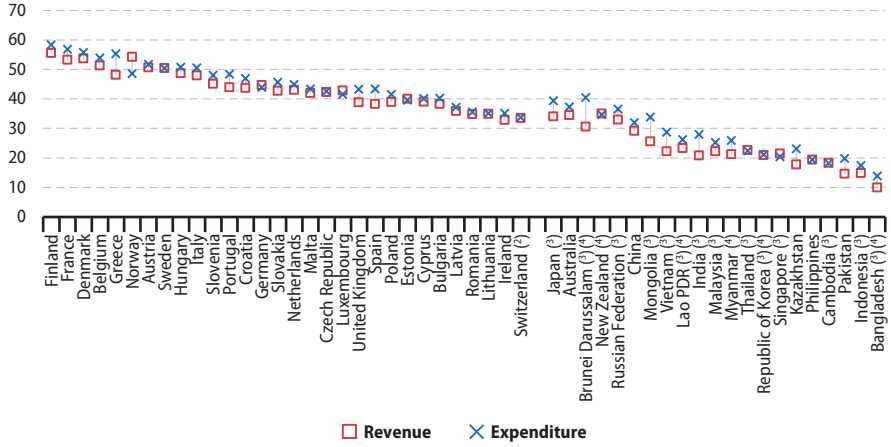
Source: Eurostat (online data code: nama_10_gdp) and the United Nations Statistics Division (National Accounts Main Aggregates Database)

The trading nature of Singapore's economy can be clearly seen from Figure 5.6, as the value of exports and imports both far exceeded its level of GDP in 2014. In several other ASEAN members and in Mongolia the combined value of exports and imports also exceeded GDP. Brunei Darussalam recorded the largest trade surplus relative to GDP (35.3 %), while Myanmar, Bangladesh and Pakistan reported trade deficits in excess of 5.0 % of GDP.

The global financial and economic crisis of 2008–09 and the subsequent sluggish recovery in much of the EU-28 resulted in a considerable impact on key government finance indicators, notably government borrowing/lending for a particular year (public balance) and the consolidated stock of debt at the end of the year (general government debt).

An excess of government expenditure relative to revenue leads to a deficit and this situation was observed for most ASEM partners in Figure 5.7 for 2015. In the EU-28, government expenditure was equivalent to 47.4 % of GDP in 2015, while for revenues the equivalent ratio was 45.0 %. New Zealand's ratio of government revenue to GDP was 35.0 %, 10 percentage points below the EU-28 average but nevertheless the highest such ratio among the Asian ASEM partners. Brunei Darussalam's ratio for government expenditure to GDP was 40.4 %, some 7 percentage points below the EU-28 average but the highest among the Asian ASEM partners.

Figure 5.7: Government expenditure and revenue, 2015 (1)
(% of gross domestic product)



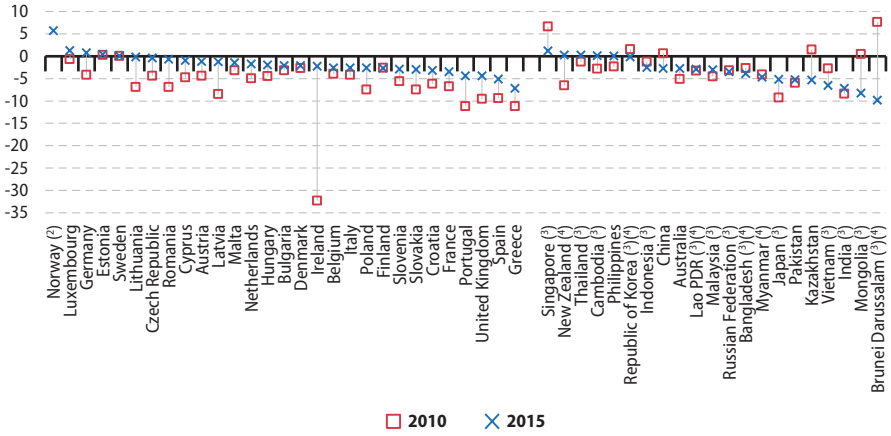
(1) Ranked on the sum of expenditure and revenue relative to gross domestic product.
(2) 2014.
(3) Estimates.
(4) Central government only.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: gov_10a_main) and the International Monetary Fund (World Economic Outlook Database)

Norway had the largest government surplus in 2015 among all ASEM partners, equivalent to 5.7 % of GDP. Luxembourg and Singapore were the only other ASEM members with a surplus in excess of 1.0 % of GDP, while Germany, Estonia, New Zealand, Thailand and Cambodia reported smaller surpluses, and Sweden and the Philippines had almost balanced positions. The largest government deficit in 2015 reported by any of the ASEM partners was in Brunei Darussalam where the deficit was equivalent to 9.8 % of GDP. Deficits in excess of 5.0 % of GDP were also reported by Mongolia, Greece, India, Vietnam, Kazakhstan, Pakistan, Japan and Spain.

As can be seen from Figure 5.8, most ASEM partners, particularly the European ones, had recorded larger government deficits (or occasionally smaller surpluses) in 2010 than they did in 2015, as measures were taken to try to counter the effects of the global financial and economic crisis. Among the European ASEM partners only Finland had a slightly bigger deficit in 2015 than in 2010, while this was the case in several Asian ASEM partners: Vietnam, Indonesia, Bangladesh, Myanmar and the Russian Federation. Furthermore, Brunei Darussalam, Mongolia, Kazakhstan, China and the Republic of Korea moved from a government surplus in 2010 to a government deficit in 2015, while Singapore's surplus contracted between these years.

Figure 5.8: General government net lending/borrowing, 2010 and 2015 (1)
(% of gross domestic product)



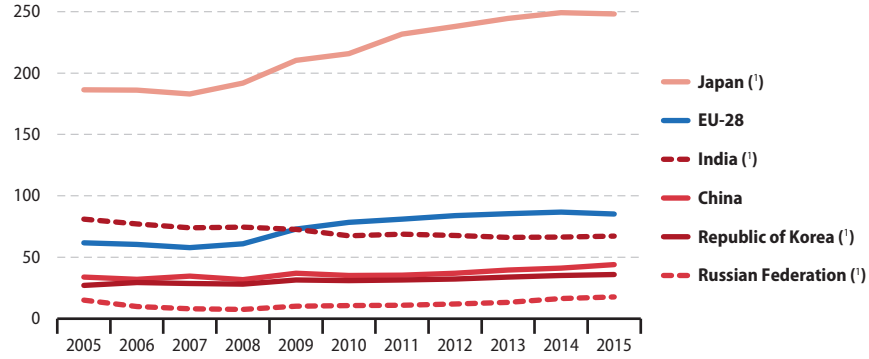
(1) Switzerland: not available.
(2) 2010: not available.
(3) 2015: estimate.
(4) Central government only.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: gov_10dd_edpt1) and the International Monetary Fund (World Economic Outlook Database)

Figure 5.9 shows the development of general government gross debt for the EU-28 and a selection of larger Asian ASEM partners. Government debt for the EU-28 was relatively stable between 2005 and 2008, but it increased notably in 2009 and 2010 and then more slowly in the next four years, to reach 86.8 % of GDP in 2014, which was 25.8 percentage points higher than in 2008. In 2015, this ratio fell in the EU-28 for the first time since 2007.

Japan's government debt-to-GDP ratio was relatively stable between 2005 and 2007 before increasing rapidly through to 2014, when Japan's gross government debt was almost two and a half times the level of its GDP; in 2015 it stabilised at this level. The pattern of development in the Russian Federation was similar, although the ratio initially halved from 14.9 % in 2005 to 7.5 % in 2008, before more than doubling to 17.7 % in 2015. The government debt-to-GDP ratio in China and the Republic of Korea increased in 2009, stabilised for two or three years, and increased again through to 2015. In India, the development was different to all of the other economies shown in Figure 5.9, as this ratio fell almost every year between 2005 and 2015.

Figure 5.9: General government gross debt, 2005–15
(% of gross domestic product)



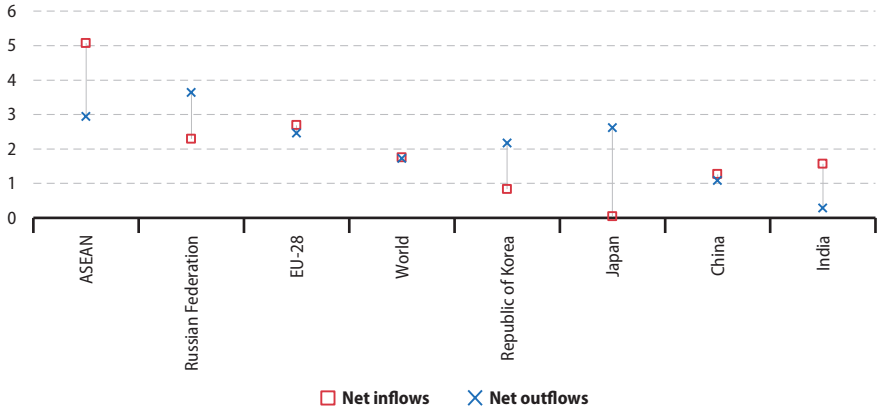
(1) 2015: estimate.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: gov_10dd_edpt1) and the International Monetary Fund (World Economic Outlook Database)

Foreign direct investment (FDI) concerns investment in new foreign plant or similar assets as well as the purchase of existing assets that belong to a foreign enterprise. Unlike portfolio investment, FDI involves gaining control or an effective voice in the management of the direct investment enterprise. The indicators presented in Figures 5.10–5.12 are averaged over the period 2013–14 as values can vary greatly from one year to the next. Collectively, the ASEAN members were net recipients of FDI during these two years, as were India, China and the EU-28. By contrast, Japan, the Russian Federation and the Republic of Korea all recorded higher net outflows than net inflows.

The main source of net inward FDI to the EU-28 from other ASEM partners in 2013 and 2014 was Switzerland, which contributed 7.6 % of the EU-28's inward FDI, the third highest share behind the United States (55.9 %) and Bermuda (13.1 %). Collectively, ASEM partners contributed 18.0 % of all FDI flowing into the EU-28 while they accounted for 18.1 % of the net outward FDI from the EU-28 during the same period. China and Singapore's shares were the largest (4.1 % and 3.9 % respectively) and were the seventh and eighth largest destinations for EU-28 outward investment after several countries in the Americas (the United States, Brazil, Canada and Mexico) as well as Bermuda and Gibraltar.

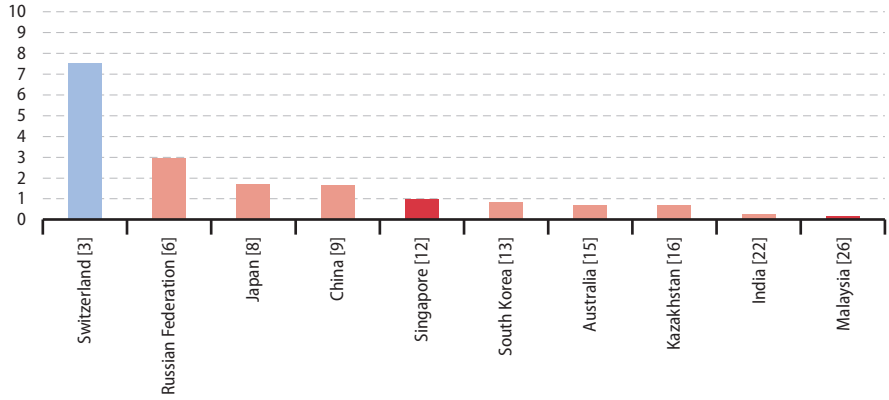
Figure 5.10: Foreign direct investment net inflows and net outflows, average 2013–14 (1)
(% of gross domestic product)



(1) Ranked on the combined in and outflows relative to gross domestic product.

Source: Eurostat (online data codes: bop_fdi6_flow and nama_10_gdp), the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTADstat) and ASEAN statistics (Macroeconomic Indicators)

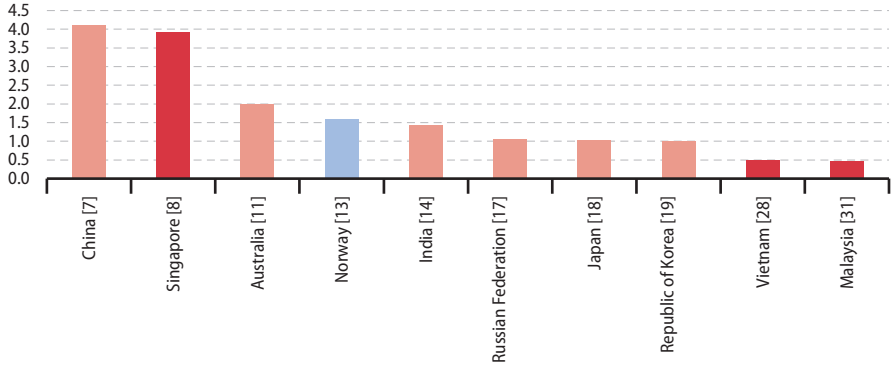
Figure 5.11: Net inflows to the EU-28 of foreign direct investment from top 10 ASEM investors, average 2013–14 (1)
(% share of extra-EU-28 net inflows of foreign direct investment)



(1) The value in square brackets after each country's name indicates its rank among all extra-EU-28 partners of the world; note that data are not available for all partners so some of the lower rankings may be overstated.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: bop_fdi6_flow)

Figure 5.12: Net outflows from the EU-28 of foreign direct investment to top 10 ASEM destinations, average 2013–14 (1)
(% share of extra-EU-28 net outflows of foreign direct investment)



(1) The value in square brackets after each country's name indicates its rank among all extra-EU-28 partners of the world; note that data are not available for all partners so some of the lower rankings may be overstated.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: bop_fdi6_flow)

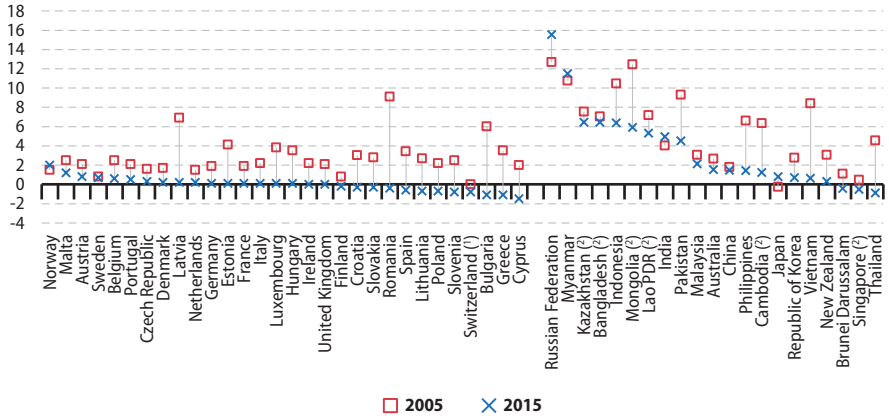
The world inflation rate (based on the GDP deflator) climbed from 5.4 % in 2005 to 7.9 % in 2008 at the onset of the global financial and economic crisis, before falling to 2.0 % in 2014. The inflation rate for the EU — based on the harmonised index of consumer prices — followed a similar development, although price movements were much more subdued: in 2005 inflation was 2.2 %, rising to 3.7 % in 2008, dropping to 1.0 % in 2009, increasing to 3.1 % by 2011 and then declining to 0.0 % in 2015.

In 2015, consumer price changes among the European ASEM partners ranged from an increase of 0.8 % in Austria to a decrease (deflation) of 0.8 % in Slovenia and Switzerland, with Malta (1.2 %) and Norway (2.0 %) above this range and Bulgaria, Greece (both decreases of 1.1 %) and Cyprus (a decrease of 1.5 %) below this range. Among the Asian ASEM countries, only Thailand, Singapore and Brunei Darussalam reported deflation (all less than 1.0 %) in 2015, while inflation rates exceeded 5.0 % in seven partners, among which Myanmar (11.5 %) and the Russian Federation (15.5 %) reported the fastest increases.

All European ASEM members, except for Norway, reported lower inflation rates in 2015 than they had in 2005, with particularly strong falls reported for Romania, Bulgaria and Latvia. Among the Asian ASEM countries, the Russian Federation, Japan, India and Myanmar had higher inflation rates in 2015 than 10 years earlier, while the biggest falls in inflation were observed in Vietnam, Mongolia, Thailand, the Philippines and Cambodia.

Figure 5.13: Inflation rate — annual change, 2005 and 2015

(%)



(1) 2005: not available.
(2) 2015: estimates.

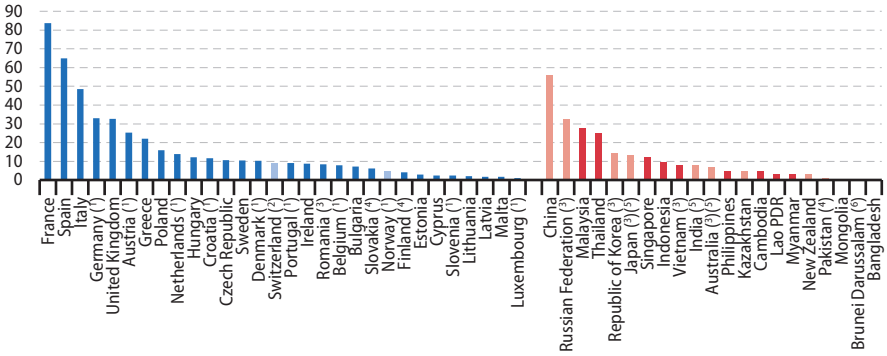
Source: Eurostat (online data code: prc_hicp_aind) and the World Bank (DataBank)

6 Tourism

Tourists include people travelling for all reasons, including pleasure, business or visiting family. According to the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) there were almost 1.1 billion international tourist arrivals worldwide in 2013, among which 436 million were in the European ASEM partners (of which 423 million in the EU-28) and 207 million in the Asian ASEM partners. As such, the ASEM partners were the destination for close to three fifths of all of the world's international tourists. Among the European ASEM partners, the five largest EU Member States (in terms of population) received, in 2012, the largest numbers of international tourists, followed by Austria and Greece (see Figure 6.1). China and the Russian Federation received the most international tourists among NESA partners, while Malaysia and Thailand were the biggest international destinations among ASEAN members.

Table 6.1 looks at the share of tourists from a selection of NESA countries among all of the tourists arriving at hotels and similar establishments in the EU-28 in 2014. Collectively, 29 million tourists from the five selected partners stayed in such accommodation, a 4.1 % share of the 696 million tourist arrivals from all over the world. Among these, the largest number, some 10 million tourists, were from the only Asian ASEM partner with a land border to the

Figure 6.1: Arrivals of non-resident tourists at national borders, 2014
(million)



(1) Arrivals of non-resident tourists in all types of accommodation establishments.
(2) Arrivals of non-resident tourists in hotels and similar establishments (including health establishments).
(3) Arrivals of non-resident visitors (therefore including day-trip visitors) at national borders.
(4) 2012.
(5) Excluding nationals residing abroad.
(6) Arrivals by air.

Source: the World Tourism Organisation (World Tourism Data)

EU, namely the Russian Federation. The number of tourist arrivals in the EU from China (including Hong Kong) has grown rapidly in recent years and by 2014 these numbered 7.4 million, having overtaken the 5.2 million arrivals from Japan.

Table 6.1 shows the destination of tourist arrivals in the 10 European ASEM partners with the highest number of arrivals from these five NESA countries: the nine EU Member States among them collectively hosted around four fifths of the tourist arrivals in the EU-28, both in terms of all arrivals and from the five selected NESA countries.

Although Germany and France boasted a greater number of overall tourist arrivals in hotels and similar establishments, Italy was the leading destination for tourists from the five selected NESA countries. None of the five partners dominated, although the shares of arrivals in Italy from Japan and China were above the average for the EU-28 as a whole, while the share from the Russian Federation was notably lower. Among these five NESA countries, the share of tourists from the Russian Federation was particularly high in Greece and the Czech Republic. The share from China was highest in Switzerland, accounting for more than half (54.0 %) of the total number of arrivals in hotels and similar establishments from these five NESA countries, a share that was almost matched by Australian arrivals in the United Kingdom (53.6 % in 2013).

Table 6.1: Top European ASEM partners as destinations for tourist arrivals from selected Asian ASEM partners, 2014 (1)

	All arrivals (2)	Arrivals from Russian Federation, China, Japan, Republic of Korea, Australia	Share from:				
			Russian Federation	China (including Hong Kong)	Japan	Australia	Republic of Korea
	(thousands)		(%)				
EU-28	*695 704*	*28 744*	*35.2*	*25.7*	*18.2*	*12.7*	*8.1*
Italy	84 240	6 179	25.8	35.3	20.0	11.2	7.7
France	111 366	3 626	21.7	35.6	30.4	12.3	0.0
Spain	87 815	3 211	40.0	17.9	20.2	8.7	13.2
Germany	126 725	3 036	29.7	32.7	21.5	8.5	7.6
United Kingdom (3)	65 400	1 936	9.5	16.7	11.4	53.6	8.8
Greece	17 419	1 580	65.8	15.3	5.5	13.1	0.4
Austria	28 163	1 414	28.2	33.7	16.8	7.8	13.5
Czech Republic	12 566	1 242	52.1	16.4	9.8	6.6	15.1
Netherlands	23 122	766	24.2	32.0	18.9	19.1	5.7
Switzerland	17 162	1 648	11.8	54.0	15.2	7.7	11.2

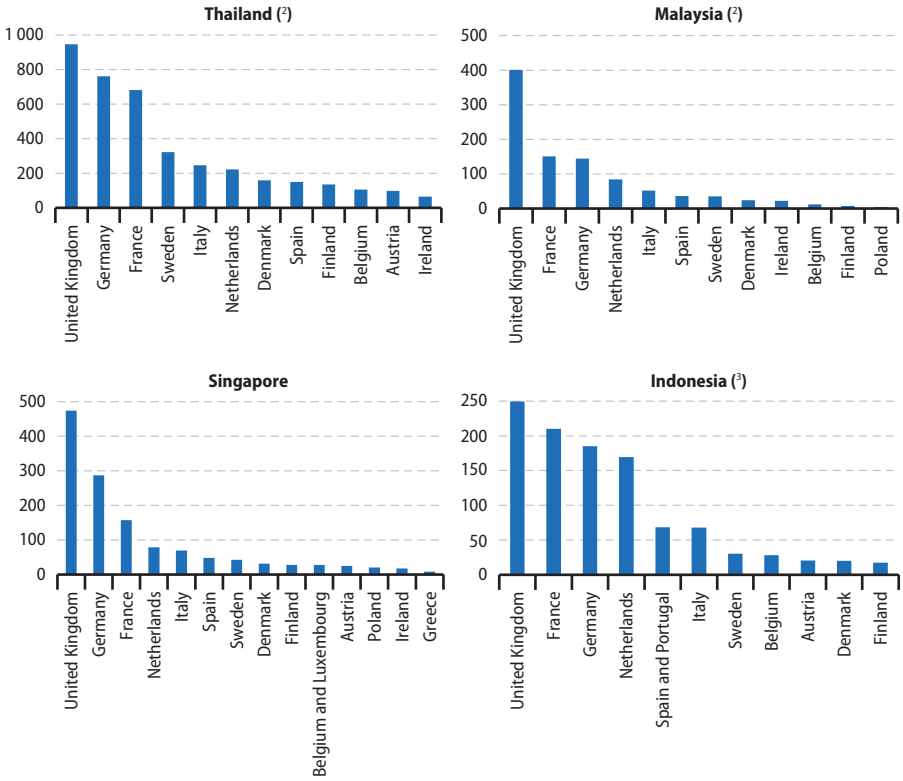
(1) Based on arrivals at hotels and similar establishments.
(2) Including residents and non-residents.
(3) 2013.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: tour_occ_arnraw)

Figures 6.2–6.4 look at inbound tourism for a selection of Asian ASEM partners showing arrivals from EU Member States; in some cases data are based on nationality rather than residence. The various parts of Figures 6.2–6.4 are based on national data for the arrivals of visitors/tourists. Although visitors include same-day visitors as well as tourists (the latter staying at least one night), for EU-28 tourists in Asian ASEM partners the distinction between visitors and tourists is likely to be very small.

Figure 6.2 looks at arrivals in 2015 for four ASEAN countries: Thailand, Malaysia, Singapore and Indonesia (2014 data). For all of these destinations, the largest number of tourists (from the EU-28 Member States) came from the United Kingdom, followed in second and third places by France and Germany. The Netherlands was the fourth largest origin for three of the countries shown, the exception being Thailand where there were more Swedish and Italian arrivals.

Figure 6.2: Visitor or tourist arrivals from selected EU Member States in selected Asian ASEM partners, 2015 (1)
(thousands)

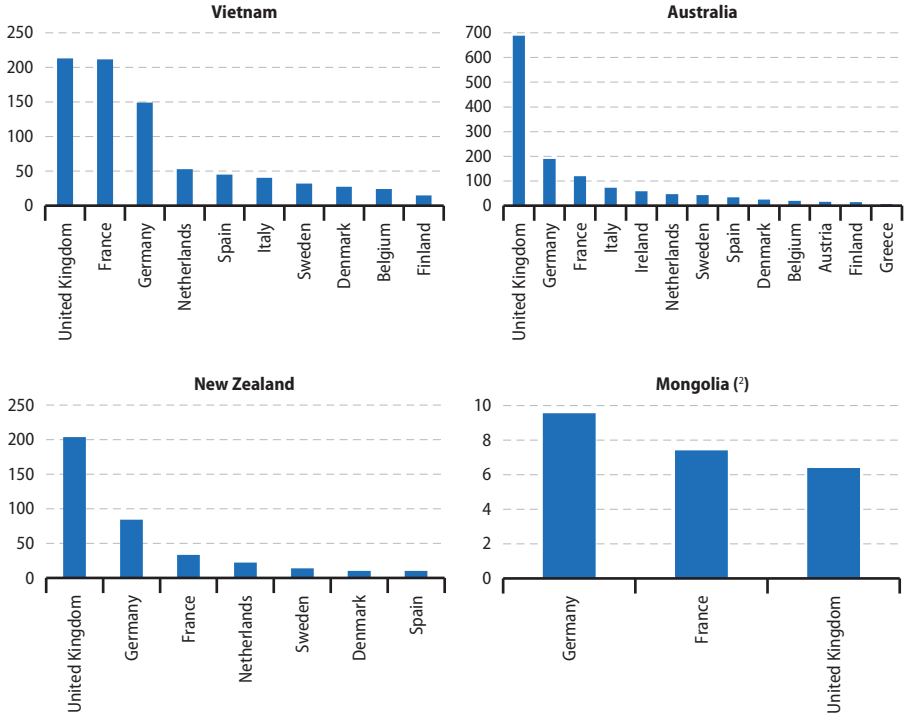


(1) Note that the four parts of the figure have different scales on the y-axis.
(2) Based on nationality.
(3) 2014.

Source: Department of Tourism (Thailand), Tourism Malaysia, Singapore Tourism Board and Statistics Indonesia

Figure 6.3 shows arrivals data for 2015 for one more ASEAN country, Vietnam, as well as Australia, New Zealand and Mongolia (2014 data). For three of the four destinations shown, the largest number of tourists (from the EU-28 Member States) was again from the United Kingdom, the exception being Mongolia where there were more German and French tourists. For Australia, and to a lesser extent New Zealand, the difference between the number of arrivals from the United Kingdom and the next largest EU Member State (Germany) was particularly large. By contrast, in Vietnam the number of arrivals from second placed France was only marginally lower than the number from the United Kingdom. The relatively high number of arrivals in Australia from Ireland can also be noted.

Figure 6.3: Visitor or tourist arrivals from selected EU Member States in selected Asian ASEM partners, 2015 (1)
(thousands)

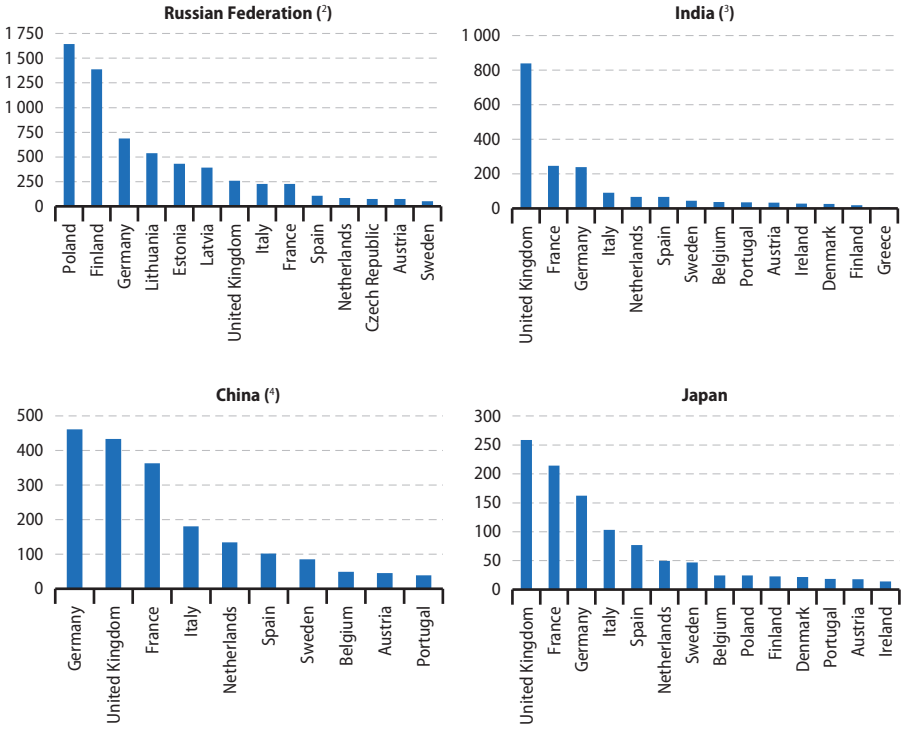


(1) Note that the four parts of the figure have different scales on the y-axis.
(2) 2014. Based on nationality.

Source: Vietnam National Administration of Tourism, Tourism Australia, Statistics New Zealand and Ulaanbaatar Tourism Department (Mongolia)

Figure 6.4 provides data based on nationality for four of the largest NESA countries: the Russian Federation (2013 data), India (2014 data), China (data for January to September 2015) and Japan (2015 data). For three of the four destinations shown a similar situation can be seen as in Figures 6.2–6.3, namely, the largest numbers of arrivals were German, French or British visitors/tourists. The only exception was the Russian Federation, where the highest numbers among citizens from EU Member States were Polish and Finnish tourists, followed by Germans and citizens of the three Baltic Member States.

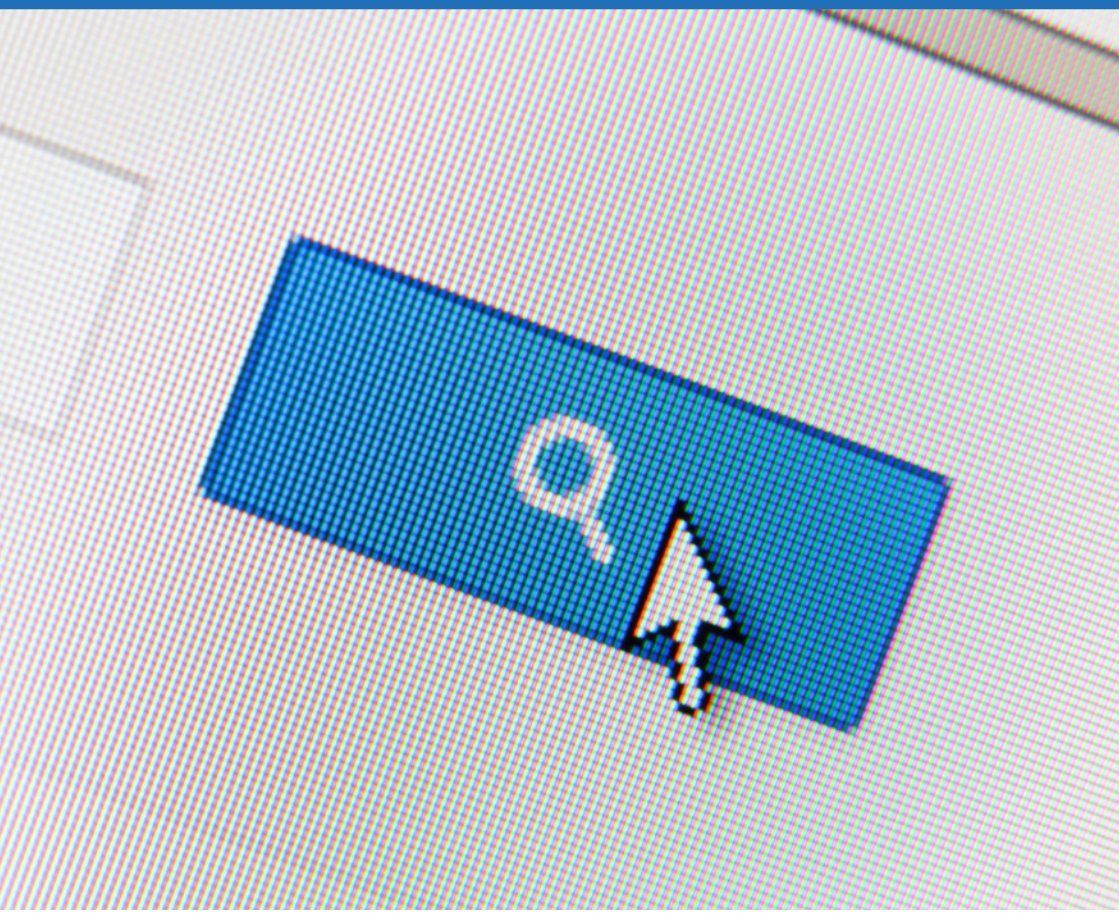
Figure 6.4: Visitor or tourist arrivals from citizens of selected EU Member States in selected Asian ASEM partners, 2015 (1)
(thousands)



(1) Note that the four parts of the figure have different scales on the y-axis.
(2) 2013.
(3) 2014.
(4) January to September 2015.

Source: Federal Agency for Tourism (Russian Federation), Government of India (Ministry of tourism), China National Tourism Administration and Japan National Tourism Organization

Glossary



CHAPTER 1 — 20 YEARS OF ASEM

Arrivals of tourists at the border: see glossary of Chapter 6 (Tourism).

Exports: see glossary of Chapter 5 (Economy and finance).

Fertility rate: see glossary of Chapter 2 (Population).

Gross domestic product (GDP): see glossary of Chapter 5 (Economy and finance)

Gross inland energy consumption is the total energy demand of a country or region. It represents the quantity of energy necessary to satisfy inland consumption of the geographical entity under consideration.

Imports: see glossary of Chapter 5 (Economy and finance).

Labour force (or economically active population): see glossary of Chapter 4 (Labour market).

A **mobile phone subscription** refers to the use of public mobile telecommunication systems (also called mobiles or cellphones) using cellular technology. A person may have more than one subscription.

Internet use is the number of people accessing the internet, usually expressed as a proportion of the population.

The **old-age dependency ratio** is the ratio of the number of elderly people at an age when they are generally economically inactive (aged 65 and over), compared with the number of people of considered to be of working age (15–64 years old).

Population: see glossary of Chapter 2 (Population).

Research and development (R&D) intensity for a country is defined as the R&D expenditure as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP).

The **trade balance** — **surplus** or **deficit** — is the balance of imports (negative, as they have to be paid for) and exports (positive, because they yield revenue). If the balance is positive it is a surplus (exports exceed imports); if it is negative it is a deficit (imports exceed exports).

Unemployment rate: see glossary of Chapter 4 (Labour market).

CHAPTER 2 — POPULATION

The **age dependency ratio** is the population of a specific age (such as 0–14 for young persons or 65 and over for older persons) as a percentage of the population aged 15–64.

The **age structure** is the distribution of various age groups for each gender in a geographical area.

A **cohort** is a group of people who have shared a particular experience during a specified period of time. For instance, people born in 1985 would constitute that year's birth cohort.

The **crude birth rate** is the ratio of the number of births to the population (it is usually expressed per 1 000 inhabitants).

The **crude death rate**, also known as the crude mortality rate, is the ratio of the number of deaths to the population (it is usually expressed per 1 000 inhabitants).

A **death**, according to the United Nations, is the permanent disappearance of all vital functions without possibility of resuscitation at any time after a live birth has taken place; this definition therefore excludes foetal deaths (stillbirths).

The **fertility rate** is the mean number of children who would be born to a woman during her lifetime, if she were to spend her childbearing years conforming to the age-specific fertility rates that have been measured in a given year.

Life expectancy is the mean additional number of years that a person of a certain age can expect to live, if subjected throughout the rest of his or her life to the current mortality conditions.

A **live birth** is the birth of a child who showed any sign of life; the number of live births refers to the number of births excluding stillbirths.

Natural population change is the difference between the number of live births and deaths during a given time period; it can be either positive or negative.

Net migration is the difference between immigration to and emigration from a given area during a given time period. Net migration is positive when there are more immigrants than emigrants and negative when there are more emigrants than immigrants.

The **population density** is the number of inhabitants per square kilometre (km^2) of land area.

The **population** is the number of people in a given area at a point in time. The average population is calculated as the arithmetic mean of the population on 1st January of two consecutive years; it is often used for indicators expressed per inhabitant.

CHAPTER 3 — EDUCATION

There are 25 **fields of study** classified in ISCED 1997, combined in nine broad groups: 0 – general programmes; 1 – education; 2 – humanities and arts; 3 – social sciences, business and law; 4 – science; 5 – engineering, manufacturing and construction; 6 – agriculture; 7 – health and welfare; 8 – services. The more recent ISCED-F 2013 has 11 broad fields of education and 29 narrow fields.

Full-time equivalent is a unit to measure employment or students in a way that makes them comparable although they may work or study a different number of hours per week. The unit is obtained by comparing the number of hours worked or studied by a person with the average number of hours of a full-time worker or student.

Gross domestic product (GDP): see glossary of Chapter 5 (Economy and finance).

There are seven **levels of education** in ISCED 1997 and nine in ISCED 2011.

- **Pre-primary** education (ISCED level 0) is generally for children aged at least three years. A broader concept of early childhood education (including pre-primary education and early childhood educational development) is used in ISCED 2011 (levels 01 and 02).
- **Primary** education (level 1) generally begins between five and seven years of age.
- **Lower secondary** education (level 2) usually begins between the ages of 10 and 13 and the end of this level may coincide with the end of compulsory education.
- **Upper secondary** education (level 3) typically starts between the ages of 14 or 16.
- **Post-secondary, non-tertiary** education (level 4): between upper secondary and tertiary education; programmes designed to prepare pupils for tertiary studies or direct labour market entry.
- **Tertiary** education (ISCED 1997 levels 5 and 6 and ISCED 2011 levels 5 to 8): provides learning activities in specialised fields of education.

Public expenditure on education generally refers to direct expenditure on educational institutions (current and capital expenditure), transfers to private households (financial support for students and their families) as well as public subsidies for educational activities of businesses and non-profit organisations).

Pupil-teacher ratios are calculated by dividing the number of full-time equivalent pupils and students in each level of education by the number of full-time equivalent teachers at the same level; this ratio should not be confused with average class sizes.

Purchasing power parities: see glossary of Chapter 5 (Economy and finance).

CHAPTER 4 — LABOUR MARKET

Earnings are the wage or salary paid to an employee including bonuses. Gross earnings are paid before any deductions for income tax and social security contributions paid by the employee; net earnings are calculated after these deductions and by adding any family allowances.

Economically active persons: see 'labour force'.

An **employed person** is someone who (during the survey reference week) performed work — even if just for one hour a week — for pay, profit or family gain. Included are persons not at work, but having a job or business from which they were temporarily absent due to illness, holiday, industrial dispute or education and training.

An **employee** is an individual who works for an employer and receives in return compensation in the form of wages, salaries, fees, gratuities, payment by results or payment in kind. Professional military staff are also included.

The **employment rate** is the percentage of employed persons in relation to the comparable total population of persons of working-age.

The **labour force** is comprised of employed (self-employed and employees) and unemployed persons, but not the economically inactive, such as pre-school children, school children, students and pensioners.

Level of education: see glossary of Chapter 3 (Education) for more information.

A **self-employed person** is a person who operates his or her own economic enterprise, or engages independently in a profession or trade. Own-account workers have no employees while employers hire one or more employees.

An **unemployed person** is defined by Eurostat, according to the guidelines of the International Labour Organisation, as someone: without work during the (survey) reference week; available to start work within the next two weeks (or has already found a job to start within the next three months); actively having sought employment at some time during the last four weeks.

The **unemployment rate** is the number of unemployed persons as a percentage of the labour force.

CHAPTER 5 — ECONOMY AND FINANCE

Exports are transactions in goods and services (sales, barter, gifts or grants) from residents to non-residents involving a change of ownership. Exports of services consist of all services rendered by residents to non-residents, including direct purchases by non-residents in the economic territory of a country.

Foreign direct investment (FDI) is defined as international investment made by an entity resident in one economy (the direct investor) to acquire a lasting interest in an enterprise operating in another economy (direct investment enterprise); this interest is deemed to exist if the direct investor acquires at least 10 % of the voting power of the direct investment enterprise.

Government debt, often referred to as national debt or public debt, is the sum of external obligations (debts) of the government and public sector agencies. External obligations are the debt or outstanding (unpaid) financial liabilities arising from past borrowing.

A **government deficit** occurs when a government's expenditures are greater than its revenues and a government surplus occurs when its revenues are higher. Together these two situations may be referred to as the public balance.

Government expenditure and revenue are the money a government spends and the income it receives.

Gross capital formation includes the value of gross fixed capital formation, changes in stocks and acquisitions less disposals of valuables.

Gross domestic product (GDP) is the sum of the gross value added of all resident institutional units engaged in production, plus any taxes and minus any subsidies on products not included in the value of their outputs.

Gross national income (GNI) is the sum of incomes of residents of an economy in a given period. It is equal to GDP minus primary income payable by resident units to non-resident units, plus primary income receivable from the rest of the world.

Imports are transactions in goods and services (sales, barter, gifts or grants) from non-residents to residents involving a change of ownership. Imports of services consist of all services rendered by non-residents to residents, including direct purchases by residents in another economic territory.

Inflation is an increase in the general price level of goods and services, whereas **deflation** is a decrease.

The **inflation rate** is the percentage change in the price index for a given period compared with that recorded in a previous period.

Investment is equivalent to gross fixed capital formation which mainly consists of resident producers' investments, deducting disposals, in fixed assets during a given period. Fixed capital is the value of capital assets available for production purposes at a given point in time.

Purchasing power parities (PPPs) are indicators of price level differences across countries. Using PPPs to convert expenditure expressed in national currencies into a common currency eliminates the effect of price level differences.

Real values (**real terms** or **constant prices**) are monetary values adjusted or deflated for changes in prices.

Value added is the production value (output) minus intermediate consumption (goods and services consumed as inputs by a process of production). Value added may be valued in various ways, most commonly at factor cost, basic prices and producer prices.

CHAPTER 6 — TOURISM

Arrivals of tourists at the border refer to the number of non-resident visitors who arrive during a given year in a given country and who stay at least one night.

Hotels and similar accommodation include accommodation provided by hotels (and similar establishments such as bed and breakfast establishments), resort hotels, suite/apartment hotels and motels.

A **tourist** (also known as an **overnight visitor**) is a visitor who stays at least one night in collective or private tourist accommodation in the defined geographical area visited.

Statistical symbols, abbreviations and acronyms

UNITS OF MEASUREMENT

%	per cent
EUR	euro
km^2	square kilometre
PPP	purchasing power parities
toe	tonnes of oil equivalent
USD	United States dollar

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
ASEF	Asia-Europe Foundation
ASEM	Asia-Europe Meeting
EEAS	European External Action Service
EU	European Union
EU-28	European Union of 28 Member States
Eurostat	statistical office of the European Union
FDI	foreign direct investment
GDP	gross domestic product
GNI	gross national income
ISCED	International standard classification of education
NESA	Northeast and South Asia
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PDR	People's Democratic Republic
R&D	research and development
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
US	United States
WTO	World Tourism Organisation
WTO	World Trade Organisation

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Asia-Europe meeting (ASEM)

A STATISTICAL PORTRAIT

This publication provides a statistical portrait of the partners of the Asia-Europe Meeting (ASEM). It presents a range of indicators for the EU-28, Norway, Switzerland, ASEAN members and 11 other ASEM partners. It treats the following areas: 20 years of ASEM; population; education; the labour market; economy and finance; and tourism.

The publication, which complements information found in *Europe in figures — the Eurostat yearbook* and in *The EU in the world*, may be viewed as an introduction to European and Asian statistics. It provides a starting point for those who wish to explore the wide range of data that are freely available from a variety of international organisations.

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