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The Untold Global History

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The History of Well-Being in East Asia: From Global Conflict to Global Leadership

10

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There is no way to happiness

Happiness is the way. (Hanh n.d.)

The mind is the source of happiness and unhappiness.

(Buddha n.d.)

Vulnerability is the only authentic state.

Being vulnerable means being open,

for wounding, but also for pleasure.

Being open to the wounds of life means

also being open to the bounty and beauty.

Don't mask or deny your vulnerability:

it is your greatest asset.

Be vulnerable: quake and shake in your boots with it.

the new goodness that is coming to you,

in the form of people, situations, and things can only come to you

when you are vulnerable, i.e. open.

(Russell 1999)

10.1 Introduction

East Asia is among the largest, most culturally diverse, and economically robust regions of the world. The region comprises China, Hong Kong SAR,¹

Macau SAR, Japan, North Korea, South Korea, Mongolia, and Taiwan (Map 10.1). Together, these eight societies and territories have a combined population of 1600 million people or about 22 % of the world's total in 2015. The region occupies approximately 28 % of the Asian continent, the world's largest, and somewhat more than 8 % of the world's total land mass. The East Asian region is 15 % larger than Europe but has a population density that ranges from a low of two people per square mile for Mongolia to a high of 6390 people per square mile for Hong Kong with a region-wide average of 340 people per square mile (versus 188 and 59 persons per square mile for Europe and North America, respectively). The majority of the region's capital cities are among the world's leading metropolises—Beijing, Seoul, Taipei, and Tokyo—and, taken together, exert considerable influence on the world's economies, politics, and even its

¹Hong Kong and Macau are not, of course, independent nation-states. Rather they are Special Administrative Regions (SARs) within the People's Republic of China and, as such, experience considerable freedom of choice in all sectors except the selection of their chief executive and the ability to conduct international affairs. Both SARs, however, differ appreciably from other provinces of China and are therefore sometimes included in the chapter's more detailed analyses (Estes et al. 2002).

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ASIA



Map 10.1 Regional map of Asia (CIA 2015a; public domain)

broad-based social development outcomes. The region's two largest societies, China and Japan, but especially China, have historically wielded a major influence on all aspects of the region's social, cultural, and religious life, including through their ancient religions and philosophies, e.g., Buddhism, Confucianism (and Neo-Confucianism), Shamanism in Korea, Shintoism in Japan, Daoism and, in recent years, Christianity in South Korea (de Mente 2009; Nadeau 2014).

Well-being in East Asia is remarkably high when measured by a variety of objective and subjective indicators. Japan, for example, leads the world in years of average life expectancy (average = 84.6) as does South Korea (average = 81.0) and Taiwan (average = 80.6 years) versus average years of life expectancy for the United States of just 79.8 (Inoguchi 2012).

Achievements in average years of life expectancy are remarkable and mirror the region's 20-year successes in reducing infant and child mortality rates and increasing levels of both per capita gross domestic product (PCGNP) and per capita gross national income (Perkins 2013). The region's highly favorable position on these key components of the United Nation's *Human Development Index* is especially impressive in that East Asia contains one of the world's two population "super giants"—China—whose population makes up 92 % of the region's total. Since the introduction of the country's "Four Modernizations" program by Deng Xiaoping in 1978, China has succeeded in lifting literally hundreds of millions of its rural poor from absolute poverty to economically sustainable and even higher levels of living. The privatization of most smaller and communal farms, the increase in the levels of at least local political participation, and the aggressive adoption of an open market economic system, albeit one with "Chinese characteristics," has accelerated China's remarkable rate of social and economic development and, thereby, has hastened the rate of improvements in well-being throughout the entire East Asian region (Perkins 2013).

10.1.1 Framework

This chapter explores the changing nature, state, and achievements in advancing well-being among the nations of East Asia. More particularly, the chapter attempts to answer the following questions that will help us better understand the underlying well-being dynamics of the region:

- What is the current state of well-being in East Asia and within the region's member countries?
- To what extent does East Asia's current state of well-being differ from that of its past but particularly with levels of well-being that existed following the end of the Second World War (Japan), the wars of liberation fought in China and the Koreas, and the devastating wars that occurred in Southeast Asia (Cambodia, Laos, and Vietnam), large elements of which spilled over into the East Asian region as well?
- What are the underlying sociocultural-religious factors that account for the differences in the attainment of well-being for the region's nations?
- What have been East Asia's most significant well-being accomplishments and challenges since at least 1990?
- To what extent do all areas of the region share the same or at least similar patterns of well-being gains and losses?
- What impact does the continuing negative social, political, and economic trends occurring in North Korea have on East Asia's well-being more generally?
- In what ways, and to what extent, has well-being in East Asia been impacted by the region's dramatic political and military events:
 - The creation of the communist People's Republic of China (PRC) in 1949
 - The Korean War, which ended with the country's division into a communist North and a democratic South in 1953
 - The granting of full autonomy and international recognition to Mongolia (often referred to as "outer Mongolia") in 1961

- The return of Hong Kong SAR from Great Britain in 1997 and Macau SAR from Portugal in 1999 to the PRC
- The continuing political, sometimes military, tensions between the Republic of China (Taiwan) and the PRC?

10.1.2 Study Countries and Societies

Though the eight societies (a term that is used to include both sovereign nations and two of China's SARs [Hong Kong SAR and Macau SAR]) that make up the East Asian region share many geopolitical, social, and cultural characteristics with one another, there are important differences between them as well. We have, therefore, chosen to focus on only a subset of the region's societies, i.e., China (PRC), Japan, North Korea, South Korea, and Taiwan (Republic of China). These five societies account for almost 95 % of the region's total population (United Nations Population Division 2012). Well-being patterns for Hong Kong SAR² and Macau SAR are not treated separately in this chapter inasmuch as these regions are semiautonomous territories of the PRC, and their well-being data are presented as part of the data reported for the PRC. We also have excluded North Korea from major aspects of our analysis because most of the data needed for North Korea are either unavailable, incomplete, or unreliable. Where possible, though, we include selected data for North Korea in the figures when we think the data are reasonably reliable. Where possible, we also include data for Mongolia but much of the data needed for Mongolia are either missing or incomplete. In any case, we have attempted to optimize use of the social indicator data that are available.

²These recently reacquired territories of the PRC enjoy considerable autonomy in managing their social, economic, and internal affairs. All matters relating to internal security, defense, international agreements and treaties, and the like are under the direct control of the central government of the PRC in Beijing. In time, all internal and external matters relating to the functioning of these territories will be transferred to China's central government.

For purposes of comparison, we occasionally report similar data for the United States, which is also a Pacific Rim country in that it shares the Pacific Ocean with East Asia, Singapore (a predominantly Chinese society geographically grouped with the Southeast Asian group of nations), and selected countries of Indo-China that have predominately ethnic Chinese populations and strong ties to East Asia, especially Vietnam. In including selected non-East Asian countries in the analyses, the authors make no claims concerning the political relationships that may or may not exist between the countries of the region and countries that clearly fall outside the region, e.g., the United States, which has made major contributions to promoting East Asia's political and economic development.³

10.2 Well-Being

A complete picture of well-being in East Asia can only be ascertained from an analysis of both objective and subjective forces that are at work in the region. The objective indicators measure the visible outcomes that are attained through social investments whereas subjective indicators reflect the cognitions and feelings that people experience and, therefore, are the invisible outcomes of well-being investments. Often though, objective and subjective assessments can be polar opposites, especially in cultures that place less emphasis on consumption of goods and services and more emphasis on improved levels of personal, interpersonal, familial, and community relationships. For such cultures, social investments, i.e., accumulating social capital, are valued more significantly than the accumulation of the material,

³America's major contributions to the region have taken a variety of forms: (1) military occupation of Japan following the end of World War II; (2) military alliance with South Korea, where it fought to help bring to an end a protracted war (1950–1953) between the communist North and democratic South and where it continues to provide a significant military presence; and (3) defense treaty with Taiwan, for whom the United States continues to extend its defense umbrella to prevent invasion of this small, but densely populated, island nation by the PRC (Hickey 2005; Winkler 2012).

always transitory, consumer goods and services. This view of well-being is consistent with the teachings of the region's much admired religions and philosophies and is reflected in the values, norms, and traditions around which East Asian societies are organized.

Our discussion of well-being in the East Asia region focuses on the three components that are used to form the United Nations *Human Development Index* as well as self-assessment made by the region's people of their own state of social, psychological, and emotional well-being, life satisfaction, and quality of life. Thus, this chapter follows more or less the same model of analysis used by the authors of the other regional chapters: the extent of social improvements in health as measured by advances in years of average life expectancy and reductions in infant and child death rates; improvements in education as reflected in the access of children to primary and secondary schools and of young adults and others to university and technical schools; and, finally, the region's generation of wealth and income and the extent of its distribution to the region's population. We also examine regional changes in self-assessed (subjective) well-being, especially self-assessments made by the region's different population groups, i.e., men vs. women, children vs. adults, the young vs. the old, recognized ethnic and sexual minorities, and people who live on the periphery of society.

10.3 Brief History

The history of East Asia spans at least 40,000 years, likely longer. Much information about the region's earliest history, however, has been lost due to the destruction of ancient settlements, archeological sites, sculptures, and written documents. Much historical information was also lost during the "cultural revolution" (1966–1976) in the PRC due to the destruction of ancient structures and the massive amounts of textual material contained within them. Fortunately, many important artifacts and critical written records were transported from pre-PRC to Taiwan from the seventeenth century until the island's formal

break from the PRC in 1949. In Japan, temples and monasteries have served as centuries-long repositories of that country's social, political, economic, cultural, and religious history as well (Oxtoby and Amore 2010).

Critically important textual and nontextual materials do exist, however, that document much of the region's history from as early as 600 Before the Common Era (BCE) to the present. The underlying teachings and values promulgated through oral traditions and narratives taught by the region's various religions also provide us with important insights into the organizing principles around which much of the region has been organized, i.e., those promulgated through Buddhism (since about 563 BCE forward) and Daoism (since about 550 BCE forward) (Fig. 10.1). These principles are deeply embedded in the region's history and continue to be relevant in the contemporary Asian world (Fig. 10.2):

- an emphasis on collective "needs" rather than personal "wants" in the pursuit of well-being;
- the pursuit of personal and interpersonal peace, balance, and social harmony in all aspects of private and social life;
- deferential attitudes toward persons and institutions occupying positions of authority;
- personal adherence to a code of social conduct that informs individual and collective roles and responsibilities at each level of social organization;
- filial piety toward the elderly and others; and,
- a concern for individual and collective prosperity within the values and norms of each society (de Bary 2000).

Although what may be called the Chinese centrality of East Asia is not questioned, it must be noted that Zhonghua, a small area located at the midstream basin of the Yellow River, was the origin of the ancient Chinese state and that only through interactions between ancient Chinese and surrounding non-Chinese including Persians, Uighurs, Mongols, Tibetans, Manchus, Thais, Burmese, Vietnamese, Koreans, and Japanese, has China become what it is today. By interactions we mean the invasion and occupation by

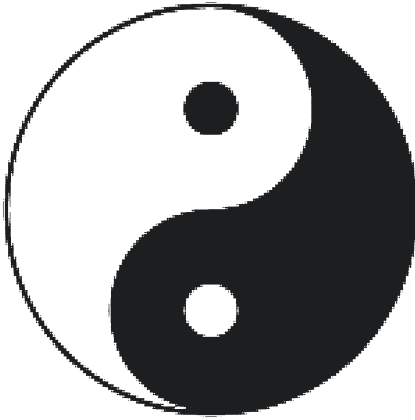


Fig. 10.1 The symbol of opposites in Chinese philosophy—yin and yang



Fig. 10.2 Teaching Buddha (563 BCE–480 BCE), Gupta period (Archaeological Museum, Sarnath, India; photo by Tevaprapas Makklay; Creative Commons Attribution-Share Alike 3.0 Unported license)

non-Chinese and the assimilation of non-Chinese into what is now broadly called the Chinese state. Alternately, these Chinese states were ruled by non-Chinese: most notably, Tang (618–906 Common Era [CE]) by Persians and Turks; Yuan

(1279–1368 CE) by Mongols; and Qing (1644–1912) by Manchus, Mongols, and Uighurs. The Chinese civilization has been a key factor in assimilating those and other invaders and occupiers. It consists of rice agriculture, Chinese ideographs, and weapons technology. In the current PRC, Manchus, Thais, Burmese, and Vietnamese are well assimilated; Tibetans and Uighurs are often defiant dissidents whereas Mongols and Koreans are to a lesser degree.

10.3.1 From Chaos to Order and the Foundations of the Modern Nation-States

As already suggested, the history of East Asia is long, rich, and multilayered. However, much of the region's history is linked to the history of China, which comprises more than 90 % of the region's combined population. Although each of the region's countries has its own rich history, many of the countries, such as Japan, have influenced religious thought, philosophy, and politics worldwide.

The unification of all ethnically related Chinese people into a geographically distinct and shared space has been a central dynamic (Callahan 2015) of China's history. It has been China's goal for more than a thousand years. Today it is almost a reality following the return of Hong Kong and Macau from colonial powers (Estes 2005a, b). The challenges confronting premodern China, however, were not unlike those confronting the region's younger nations today: (1) the absence of a shared sense of identity among the various Chinese clans that resided in a vast, largely unmapped, territory; (2) competing linguistic dialects with no unifying common dialect or language; (3) recurrent intra- and interregional conflict; (4) the absence of public symbols that promote a sense of unity among the country's peoples (including a common language or at least dialect, a country-wide integrated military, shared financial and monetary systems, and the like). Each of East Asia's societies underwent more or less the same process of unification but did so at different times

with different sets of organizational priorities (Ryu 2007).

The most important dynasties that shaped early China and, in turn, the entirety of East Asia were the short-lived, but highly influential, Qin Dynasty of 221 BCE to 206 BCE and the four-centuries long Han Dynasty of 206 BCE to 220 CE. The former dynasty brought about the long sought after unification of China under the authority of a single emperor and formally demarcated China's borders from those of Korea and Mongolia. The division of the region into the Chinese "mainland" and, in time, into Mongolia and Korea was to prove long-lasting and contributed to a flourishing of unique cultural identities for all three countries. The Qin dynasty also helped to formalize the political separation of present-day Japan and Taiwan from the Chinese mainland, although many conflicts, and even occupations, have ensued over subsequent centuries concerning China's role in each of these nations. Another of the significant political achievements of the Qin dynasty was the confinement of the warring and land-ambitious Mongols who, in fact, ruled China and much of East Asia for centuries (including, of course, Genghis Khan [1162 CE–1227 CE; Fig. 10.3] and his successors). Today, Mongolia is a divided society, with "Inner" Mongolia and its capital, Hothot (Huhehaote), located in the PRC and "Outer" Mongolia and its capital, Ulaanbaatar, existing as an independent nation. Mongolia has had its own discrete territory since at least 1206 CE, albeit the country underwent many wars with and occupation by neighboring states.

Among the many factors that made possible East Asia's innovations in science, technology, and the humanities, including the printing technique and gun powder, is the fact that they occurred through trial and error observations as well as through the application of scientific method that would be recognized as valid even today. Further, all of the region's seminal contributions to its own and to greater Asia's well-being brought unprecedented prosperity to a large percentage of Asia's total population. In turn, the centuries of relative peace and prosperity that followed China's unification contributed



Fig. 10.3 Genghis Khan (1162–1227) (From *Dschingis Khan und seine Erben* [exhibition catalogue], München 2005, p. 304; public domain)

to a great flourishing of the arts and sciences throughout the East Asia region, especially in painting, sculpture, poetry, dance, and even in daily dress. All of these innovations were supported by the communal values derived from East Asia's ancient religions, i.e., Daoism, Shintoism in Japan (1000 BCE forward), Buddhism, and Confucianism and Neo-Confucianism. Common to these religions and to their contributions to well-being were their essentially nontheistic nature combined with well-articulated practices for achieving high levels of individual and collective well-being. Most of these religions and philosophical traditions taught the importance of moderation and following the "middle way" as the ideal path for achieving spiritual, psychological, and material well-being. At the same time, it must be pointed out that their emphasis may not be compatible with the values of contemporary society. Some examples include the emphasis on humility (Confucianism), forbearance and tolerance (Buddhism), and harmony (Daoism). Extremes along either end of any continuum were to be avoided no matter how attractive they

may appear on the surface, i.e., to be self-denying, self-punishing, or living in abject poverty versus achieving great wealth and influence. Also, emphasis was placed on the attainment of these preconditions for well-being within a communal, collectivist process rather than one that each individual would initiate and complete on his own (Iwai and Ueda 2011; Nadeau 2014).

Among its many other accomplishments, the Han Dynasty (206 BCE–220 CE) brought to China a well-organized, efficient bureaucracy that served as a direct interface between the emperor, his surrogates, and people at all levels of social organization. The emergence of a highly effective and efficient civil servant class permitted the development of systems for transmitting and enforcing the emperor's will at a fast pace. Not since the civil servant class of the former pharaohs of Egypt did the world witness such a narrowing of the time gap between imperial commands and actions throughout all regions of a vast, multilingual empire. East Asian civilization, given the basic tenets of its religions, rituals, and philosophies, found the hierarchical nature of a civil service class highly compatible with its search for progressively higher levels of societally promoted well-being (de Bary 2000; Inoguchi 2013; Oxtoby and Amore 2010).

The comparative peace and security brought to the region by the Han Dynasty also contributed to heightened levels of well-being that, in time, found expression in the arts, the humanities, the physical and social sciences, and mathematics and astronomy. These developments also resulted in the formalization of relations with modern-day Korea, Mongolia, and Taiwan including complex, and expensive, systems of tributes between these countries and China in exchange for independence, peace, normalization of at least regional sea and land trade, and the promotion of religious, educational, and cultural exchanges. Today, the vast majority of China's population is of the Han lineage (more than 91 %) and, through them, the ideals and social organization promoted through the dynasty's four centuries of rule in the distant past continue to be advanced. Thus, political, social, cultural, and religious continuities are

among the major elements that distinguish East Asia from other world regions and, in turn, suggest many of the approaches used to advance individual and collective well-being (Inoguchi and Fujii 2011; Kivimäki 2011).

The material contributions of ancient China, and of East Asia more generally, to well-being were many and varied. They included:

- the invention of paper (made from many fibrous products including wood, bamboo, and cloth);
- large-scale shipbuilding (still a major industry in China, Japan, and Korea);
- the compass (necessary to sea travel, house-building, and the like);
- the cultivation of silk and the development of a silk trade (both China and Japan excelled in its making). The process of making silk did not spread to Byzantium, Arabia, and the West until many centuries after the formation of the "Silk Road" through China and Central Asia;
- the invention of porcelain (a major source of trade between East Asia and Europe. The complex processes required to make porcelain were replicated in Europe until late in the eighteenth century);
- the invention of innovative approaches to printing;
- the invention of gun powder initially used for fireworks but quickly adapted to military use;
- significant innovations in medicine, but especially through the introduction of acupuncture, acupressure, understanding of the "Qi" (ch'i; organic, material energy), as well as innovations in surgery and herbal medicine; and
- important intellectual innovations in philosophy, mathematics, engineering, geology, and weaponry.

In the social arenas, the nations of East Asia traditionally have emphasized orderliness and harmony in both their public and private lives. Thus, the following norms have been more dominant throughout this region than in other regions that have been discussed in the book:

- deference to men in all matters pertaining to public and public affairs;
- for men, the centrality of work and the workplace as their central life interest;
- for both men and women a strong preference for boys as their firstborn child;
- for women, a deferential role toward men and, in the absence of a husband, toward their eldest male child;
- for children, filial piety and deference toward parents, other older family members, the elderly in general, and toward public officials and other representatives of the government; and
- for men, women, and children alike, compliance with the collective norms, traditions, and related social expectations of their local communities and the larger society of which all are a part (de Mente 2009; Iwai and Ueda 2011).

These expectations carried over to the subtleties of all aspects of family life. Rarely, for example, would non-blood-related persons be considered suitable for adoption and, in the rare occasions in which nonsanguine adoptions do (or did) occur, they were primarily of boys (Estes 2001). Girls were almost never adopted outside of their extended families of origin, which forced many girls into pauperism, commercial or sexual exploitation, work as housemaids or servants, and, not infrequently, early death from exposure. The underlying premise of these practices was that, in time, women married, left home, and became members of someone else's family or clan. On the other hand, boys remained forever active members of their families of origin and, not infrequently, assumed the financial and social responsibilities of their father upon his death. Wives traditionally assisted their husbands in carrying out these familial obligations (Iwai and Ueda 2011; Iwai and Yasuda 2011).

Charity and benevolence toward strangers, to the extent that they existed at all, were organized through monasteries and temples that received financial and in-kind support from their members and the general community in support of the monks and nuns themselves, childless war veter-

ans, never-married women, and others who were judged to be worthy of the charity of others. Much of this charity was provided anonymously and rarely, if ever, did benefactors and beneficiaries meet one another. Aid, in general, was not given to unknown persons apart from that provided by monasteries and temples to designated groups of people (Dubs 1951).

Increases in the level of well-being that resulted from the gradual unification of East Asia's nation-states are reflected in dramatic increases in overall years of life expectancy (from about 35 years in early nineteenth century to an average of more than 80 years today); lower rates of infant and child mortality (which were well below 15 per 1000 live births in 2012); higher levels of both formal and informal education (which touched nearly every child in the region); and, of course, significant improvements in each region's financial and monetary systems. These changes occurred rapidly and steadily over a comparatively brief period and, ultimately, forever altered East Asia's socio-political-economic-cultural and even religious profile. The changes also had a profound impact on the extent to which foreigners from other Asian regions and the world at large would be welcomed into the region's newly established countries. Long gone are the days when items stamped "made in Japan" or "made in China" were only cheap, mass-produced goods (Hanley and Yamamura 1977; Lee 2000; Perkins 2013; Vogel 1979).

10.3.2 East Asia's Modern History: Social Chaos, Hegemony, Defeat, and the Emergence of "Modern" Nation-States

As discussed previously, despite East Asia's present-day prosperity, even in the modern era, the region's nations have been the focal point of many national, regional, and global conflicts. These conflicts have their roots in the seventeenth, eighteenth, nineteenth, and up through the middle of the twentieth centuries. All were large scale and all resulted in death and destruction not



Fig. 10.4 Mao Zedong (1893–1976) (Photo by Georg Denda; http://www.panoramio.com/user/128586?with_photo-id=701721; Creative Commons Attribution-Share Alike 3.0 Unported license)

previously experienced by the region's societies. The conflicts took place primarily within the region but many of the most recent ones were global in nature: (1) the Pacific front of the Second World War in 1945; (2) the popular revolution in China led by Mao Zedong (Fig. 10.4) that resulted in the imposition of communist rule on the country in 1949; (3) the forced separation of the two Koreas; (4) the reunification of Hong Kong (1997) and Macau (1999) with the Chinese mainland; and (5) recurring, often serious, confrontations between the region's two Chinas, i.e., the PRC and Taiwan. Mongolia transitioned more peacefully as a satellite state of the former Soviet Union to a sovereign nation-state in its own right (1991). Currently, only the Republic of China (Taiwan) remains a disputed territory, a situation that has been exacerbated by the exclusion of Taiwan as a member state of the United Nations in 1971 (Estes 2005a).

Elsewhere in the greater East Asian region, wars in Indo-China (Cambodia, Laos, and Vietnam) also influenced East Asian and global political development. These conflicts have had a profound impact on the region's development and have shaped the attitudes of many East Asian nations toward France and the United States in particular, the two leading Western powers against which regional wars were fought. The independence of predominately Chinese-populated Singapore (74 %) from Malaysia in 1965 also impacted the region's democratic and open market economic orientation (Barr and Skrbis 2008; Inoguchi 1991).

Social, political, economic, and cultural developments in Japan also have exerted a profound influence on the region's overall successes in well-being. Japan's unique, innovative approach to socioeconomic and political-cultural development is tied to a number of major political philosophers and statespersons. One example is Kinjiro Ninomiya (1787–1856), a prominent agricultural and business leader, moralist, economist, and beloved statesperson who was born of humble origins and who succeeded in introducing agricultural reforms that virtually ended famines throughout Japan and hunger in much of the larger East Asian region. Figure 10.5 shows a typical sculpture of Ninomiya and depicts him as an older boy or young man carrying firewood on his back while reading, representing two of the core values of East Asia—hard work and scholarship. Such sculptures once were commonplace in all Japanese educational institutions but are rarely seen today. Ninomiya himself rarely appears even in modern day textbooks despite the enormity of the contribution he made to Japanese society and greater East Asia (Iwai 2010; Johnson 1982).

Table 10.1 summarizes the major historical challenges and achievements that have confronted the East Asian regions since the nineteenth century. The table focuses on major social, political, military, economic, and cultural events that occurred at the same point for the world, the region, and for three of East Asia's most culturally distinctive countries: China, Japan, and South Korea.



Fig. 10.5 Kinjiro Ninomiya (1787–1856) statue (Museum of History of Folklore of Kawaba; photo by Qurren; Creative Commons Attribution-Share Alike 3.0 Unported Generic license)

10.4 Social Progress and Challenges Since 1990

This section focuses on those domains of well-being that are central to the discussions contained in this volume: regional progress over time in health, education, income, and wealth and subjective well-being. The following discussion parallels that of the book's other regional chapters and provides comparative analyses of well-being trends occurring in East Asia and in other world regions. We focus on well-being accomplishments and challenges experienced by the region from 1990 to 2015. In some cases, and where information is available, we include data for other Asian nations as well (Estes 1990, 1991, 1996b, 2007; Maddison 2007).

10.4.1 Population and Fertility

Population issues are always of particular interest to well-being specialists. In most parts of the world, population size is steadily increasing, and,

as it increases, greater demands are placed on both the public and private sectors of society to provide a more comprehensive range of programs and services to an increasing number of people, especially for the new arrivals, e.g., children, and those who are living longer. In most societies, population growth also occurs through the migration from other, usually poorer, countries and regions of the world of people desiring increased economic opportunities. Thus, changes in gross population size are a function of births plus migrants, less deaths that occur on an annual basis.

Figure 10.6 summarizes population growth trends for each of the East Asian countries included in this analysis as well as for the region as a whole. The data reported cover 60 years and reflect the remarkable changes in population that have occurred in East Asia since 1950.

Figure 10.7 shows the magnitude of the net population increases with which all of the region's countries are struggling, though the nature of the struggle differs for each country. China's population increase has slowed somewhat since the introduction of the one-child policy in 1979. After three decades, its consequence is a dramatic decrease in the number of births. A more serious issue now is the reality that the age dependent population of children under 15 and adults aged 65 and older are increasing more rapidly than the economically active members of the population (16–64 years). The situation is exacerbated by the comparatively weak social nets that characterize the majority of the region's countries. In the intermediate term of 10–15 years, China's net reproductive rate is estimated to further decline below 1.2, the same as that of South Korea, the lowest in East Asia. At that rate, China's population decline would be accelerated.

Japan, South Korea, and Taiwan struggle with their rapidly growing numbers of older people whose average years of life expectancy are well above those of the world as a whole. Many years of peace, stability, and prosperity have contributed to this remarkable longevity. Japan's population has tripled since 1945; both longevity and government expenditure on the social safety net

Table 10.1 East Asian Timeline, 1823 to the Present (AsiaBarometer 2006)

Year	World	China	Japan	North and South Korea
1823	United States proclaims Monroe Doctrine, making Latin America part of U.S. sphere			
1839		First Opium War		
1842		Treaty of Nanjing opens Chinese ports and provides preferential treatment for Western nationals		
1854			Perry's military threats result in Convention of Kanagawa, ending Japan's isolation policy. Other treaties follow, providing preferential treatment for Western nationals	
1856		Second Opium War		
1858		Treaties of Tianjin open more ports and open interior to Westerners. Later treaties signed in Shanghai condone opium trade		
1861–1865	U.S. Civil War			
1868			Meiji Restoration	
1869	Suez Canal opens			
1870		Backlash against Western presence results in "Tianjin massacre"		
1876			Japan opens Korean ports under Treaty of Ganghwa	
1882		U.S. enacts China Exclusion Act restricting immigration by Asians		
1884		Sino-French war		
1889			Japan adopts formal constitution as part of bid to renegotiate treaties on a more equal basis	
1894–1895		First Sino-Japanese war (ends with Japan victorious) China cedes Taiwan to Japan and grants Japan free hand in Korea		
1895		China recognizes Korean independence under Treaty of Shimonoseki		

(continued)

Table 10.1 (continued)

Year	World	China	Japan	North and South Korea
1898–1901		Boxer Rebellion against Western domination		
1904–1905			Russo-Japanese war (ends with Japan victorious)	
1903	Wright brothers' flight			
1905			Korea becomes Japanese protectorate	
1906	San Francisco earthquake			
1910			Japan annexes Korea	
1911		Xinhai Revolution overthrows Qing dynasty		
1912		Kuomintang (KMT) party established		
1912			Great Kanto earthquake destroys Tokyo/Yokohama	
1912		Republic of China (Taiwan) established		
1914	Outbreak of World War I			
1914	Panama Canal opens			
1915		Japan issues 21 demands		
1917	Russian revolution			
1918	End of World War I			
1919	Treaty of Versailles imposes stiff reparation requirements on Germany			
1921		Chinese Communist Party (CCP) founded		
1922	USSR established			
1923	Washington Naval Treaty seeks to limit sizes of French, Italian, Japanese, UK, and US navies		Washington Naval Treaty denounced within Japan as discriminatory and unduly restrictive	
1924		U.S. Immigration Act prohibits immigration by East Asians		
c. 1927		Chinese civil war (CCP vs KMT) starts		
1928	Kellogg-Briand Pact signed renouncing war as an instrument of national policy		Kellogg-Briand Pact signed	

(continued)

Table 10.1 (continued)

Year	World	China	Japan	North and South Korea
1929	Start of Great Depression			
1931		Mukden incident provides pretext for Japanese invasion of Manchuria and start of second Sino-Japanese war		
1933			Japan quits League of Nations	
1934		CCP embarks on Long March		
1937		Nanjing massacre		
1937		Marco Polo Bridge incident extends Japanese invasion to China proper		
1938	Munich agreement gives Czechoslovakia to Germany			
1941			Japan bombs Pearl Harbor, bringing the United States formally into the war	
1945	Bombing of Dresden		Bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki	Korea gains independence but is divided into north and south administrations
	End of World War II in Europe		Japan surrenders	
	End of World War II in Asia			
1946			Postwar constitution promulgated	
1948				North and South Korea established as separate states
1949	North Atlantic Treaty Organization created	CCP forces defeat the KMT, which flees to Taiwan; CCP establishes the People's Republic of China		
1950				Outbreak of Korean war
1951		China annexes Tibet		
1951			San Francisco peace treaty restores Japanese sovereignty	
1952			Occupation of Japan ends. Japan signs Joint Security Treaty with the United States	
1953				Korean war cease-fire signed, dividing peninsula at 38th parallel

(continued)

Table 10.1 (continued)

Year	World	China	Japan	North and South Korea
1956		Hundred Flowers campaign starts		
1958		Great Leap Forward starts		
1959	Hawaii becomes U.S. state			
1961	Berlin Wall goes up	Great Leap Forward ends		
1962	Cuban missile crisis			
1964			Tokyo Olympics	
1965			Japan normalizes relations with (South) Korea	
1965	Communists purged in Indonesia			
1966		Cultural Revolution starts		
1971		Mainland China replaces Taiwan in the United Nations		
1972			Okinawa reverts to Japan, yet U.S. bases remain	
1972		Japan and (mainland) China normalize diplomatic relations		
1973	Oil crisis develops as supplies are curtailed and prices soar			
1975	End of Vietnam War			
1976		Cultural Revolution ends		
1979	Iranian Revolution	One-child policy begun		
1980		Four modernizations begun		Gwangju massacre
1988				Olympics/para-Olympics held in Seoul
1989		Tiananmen Square cleared		
1989	Berlin Wall falls			
1990		Two-digit economic growth in 1990s		South establishes diplomatic relations with Russia
1991			Deceleration of high growth and deflation begin	North and South Korea join the United Nations

(continued)

Table 10.1 (continued)

Year	World	China	Japan	North and South Korea
1992		Establishes diplomatic relations with (South) Korea		South establishes diplomatic relations with China
1992	Maastricht Treaty creates European Union			
1994				Kim Il-Sung dies and son, Kim Jong-Il, takes reins in North Korea
1995			Aum Shinrikyo sarin gas attack in Tokyo	
1995			Hanshin earthquake devastates Kobe	
1997		Hong Kong reverts to China (from UK)		
2001	New York World Trade Center destroyed			
2002			Japan-Korea jointly host the World Cup of the Fédération Internationale de Football Association	
2003	United States attacks Iraq			
2005	Kyoto Protocol goes into effect	Conflict between China and Japan begins		
2007	Collapse of subprime loans triggers global recession			
2008		Olympics/ Paralympics held in Beijing		
2010	Arab Spring starts			
2011				Kim Jong-Il dies and son, Kim Jong-Un, takes reins in North Korea
2011			Fukushima nuclear accident	

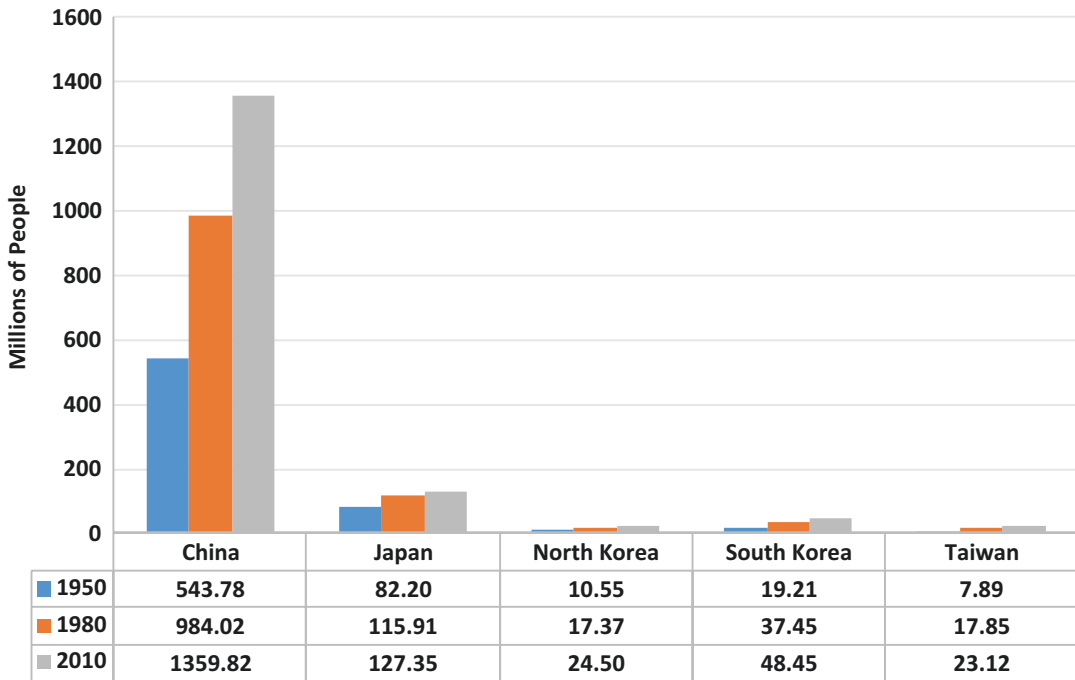


Fig. 10.6 East Asian population in millions for selected countries, 2015 (Data from United Nations Population Division 2012)

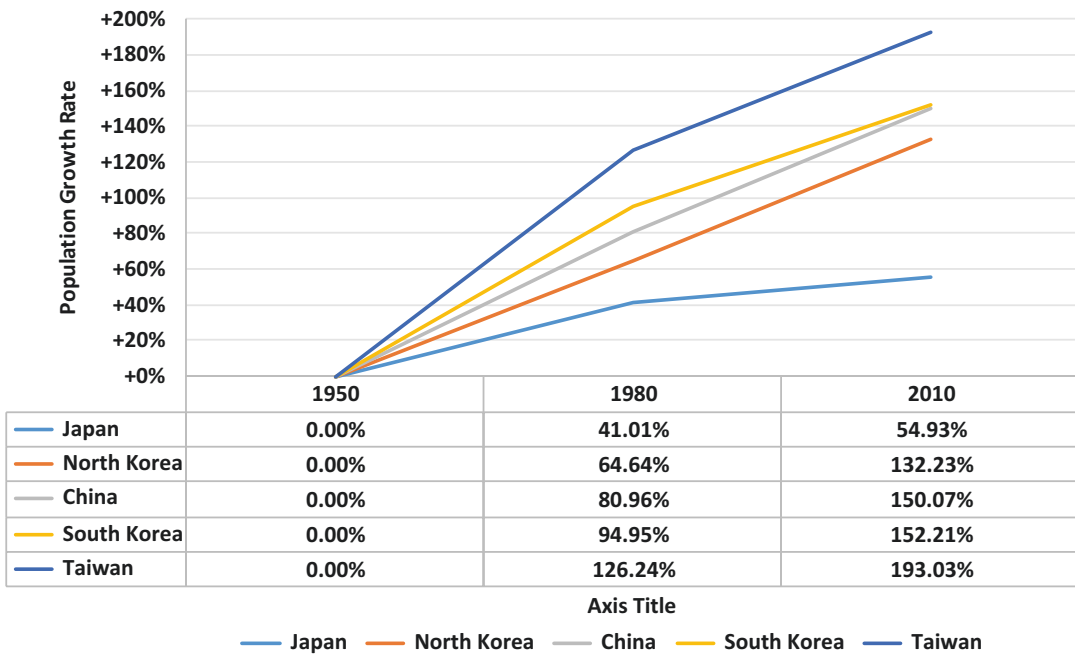


Fig. 10.7 East Asian population growth rate, 1950–2010 (Data from United Nations Population Division 2012)

have grown alarmingly large whereas the productive population (15–60 years old) is rapidly shrinking. The Japanese government expenditure on social policy has surpassed that of the United Kingdom and is on a par with that of the Netherlands. The net reproductive rate has been below 2.0 for years in all three of these societies (cf. South Korea, 1.20; Japan, 1.46; and Taiwan 2.42).

Thus, the region's countries and societies, even with lower than average fertility levels, can be expected to continue to struggle with all of the social welfare issues surrounding population growth much as they have in the recent past (Fig. 10.8).

10.4.2 Life Expectancy and Infant Mortality

Along with this East Asian prosperity has been a general improvement in health care, as reflected in both longevity and decreased infant mortality rates (Figs. 10.9, 10.10, and 10.11). East Asians are generally living longer, which is attributed to

better and more balanced diets, better health care, and modernization, e.g., home, farm, factory, and office equipment that makes work less strenuous (Estes 1996a). At the same time, the region's extended longevity statistics and improved natal care initiatives have been accompanied by declining fertility rates, although the data on fertility are skewed somewhat by China's imposition in 1979 of a one-child per family policy. This policy has been partially modified because it has brought dramatic increases in the number of China's rapidly aging population and still shrinking population of young people.

10.4.3 Leading Causes of Death

The 12-item short form (SF-12) health survey developed by the New England Medical Center attempts to measure quality of life in eight dimensions: total health, physical functioning, everyday physical limitations, everyday emotional limitations, bodily pain, mental health, vitality, and social functioning. The results allow not only cross-societal comparisons but also age and

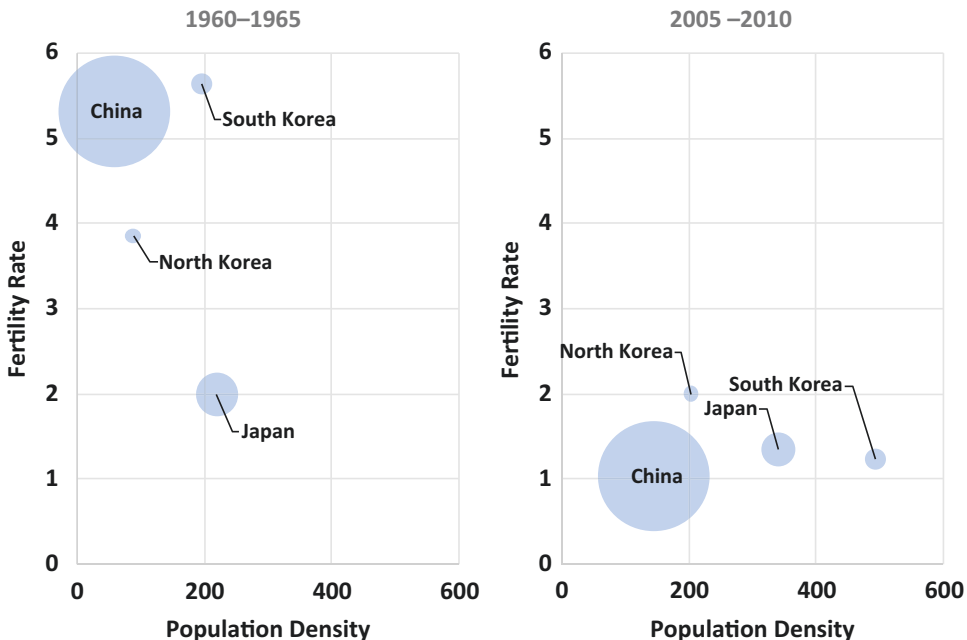


Fig. 10.8 Fertility rates in selected Asian countries, 2000–2004 and 2010–2014 (Data from World Bank 2014)

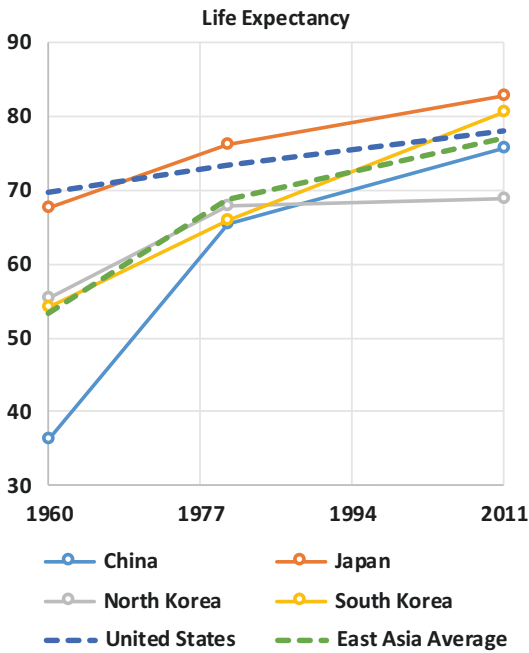


Fig. 10.9 Average years of life expectancy in selected East Asian countries, 1960–2011 (Data from UNPOP 2015)

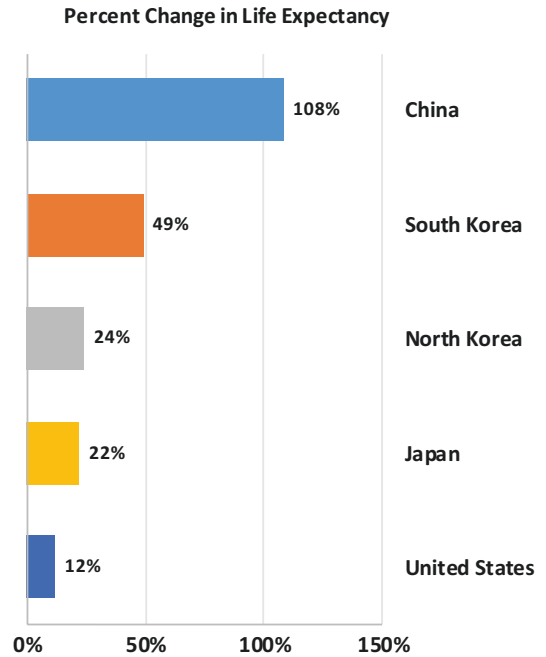


Fig. 10.10 Percentage increase in average life expectancy from 1960 to 2011 (Data from AsiaBarometer 2006)

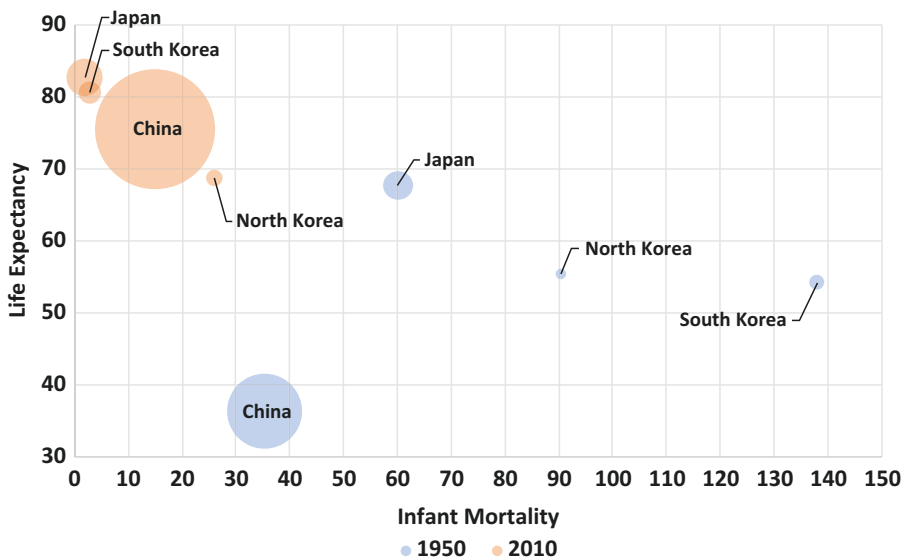


Fig. 10.11 Infant mortality in East Asian countries: 1950, 1980, 2013 (Data from United Nations Development Programme 2014; World Health Organization 2014b)

Table 10.2 Top ten causes of death in selected Asian countries, 2013 (Data from World Health Organization 2014b)

	World	China	Japan	Korea, North	Korea, South	Taiwan	United States
Coronary heart disease	1	3	3	1	2	2	1
Stroke	2	1	1	3	1	3	3
Influenza and pneumonia	3		2	2		4	
Lung disease	4	2		7		6	5
Diarrheal diseases	5						
HIV/AIDS	6						
Lung cancers	7	4	4	6	3		
Tuberculosis	8			5			
Diabetes mellitus	9			8	4	7	7
Road traffic accidents	10	7			8		8
Hypertension		10		4		9	10
Other injuries		9				5	
Liver disease					10	8	
Suicide			8		7	10	
Kidney disease			9	9			
Stomach cancer		6	5		5		
Liver cancer		5	7		6		
Colorectal cancers			6		9		9
Violence				10			
Esophageal cancer		8					
Pancreatic cancer			10				
Lung cancer							2
Alzheimer's disease/ dementia							4
Breast cancer							6
Malignant neoplasms						1	

gender comparisons within a society (Table 10.2). For example, they show Japanese age/gender differences as relatively slight and South Korean age/gender differences as the most pronounced among the East Asian societies, China being somewhere in the middle on most measures. What do the narrower Japanese age/gender gaps or, conversely the wider Korean gaps, mean? Iwai and Hanibuchi (2013) explained that (1) since Japanese scores decline with age, they should not be interpreted as meaning that Japanese live long and healthy lives irrespective of age or gender and (2) they may indicate that the inevitable deterioration of health among older cohorts does not prevent them from being active in their work and other roles.

10.4.4 Suicide: The Ultimate Despair on the Part of Individuals and Societies

Suicide may be seen to correlate inversely with psychological well-being in that it is thought to be the ultimate expression of the individual's inability to deal with his/her perceived problems—what the unknown author quoted on the title page might call an escape from the unhappiness of being unable to cope (Fig. 10.12). As the 2013 *OECD Factbook* notes, “The intentional killing of oneself can be evidence not only of personal breakdown, but also of a deterioration of the social context in which an individual lives.... Because of this, suicide is often used as a proxy

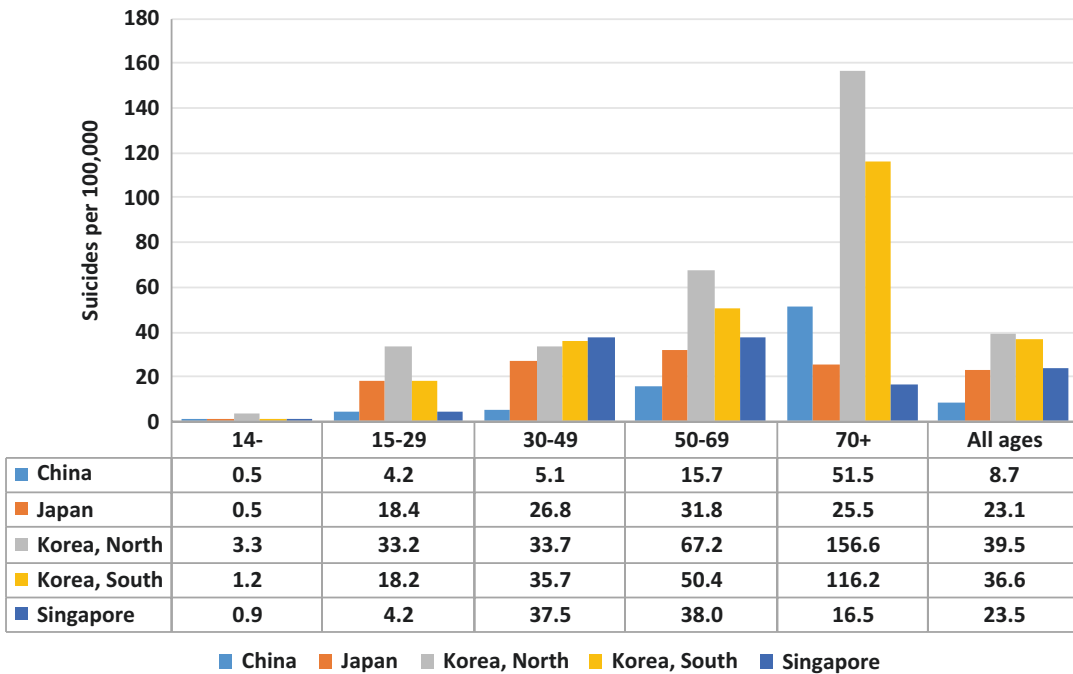


Fig. 10.12 East Asian suicide rates for selected countries by age, 2012 (Data from World Health Organization 2014a)

indicator of the mental health status of a population.” As such, it follows that “a comprehensive multisectoral suicide prevention strategy is needed” and “Communities ... can provide social support to vulnerable individuals and engage in follow-up care, fight stigma and support those bereaved by suicide” (World Health Organization WHO 2014a).

10.5 East Asian Family and Social Life

Family, not only the nuclear family but, by extension, the extended family, is generally thought to provide identity stability and support in coping with problems. Dysfunctional families are the obvious counterexample, but the fact that “dysfunctional” is defined as not offering such personal support and even impeding the ability to cope highlights the importance of family to well-being. If one accepts the importance of family and the fact that the difficulties created by space and other constraints caused by urbanization

make it more difficult to sustain the extended or even nuclear family in the city than in the countryside, the question arises as to what East Asian family values are and how they impact well-being.

When asked which is more important, individual happiness or family happiness, Taiwanese and South Koreans responded in favor of family happiness whereas Chinese and Japanese respondents said that family happiness was less of a priority. However, people in all four East Asian societies in their 20s gave individual happiness a high priority.

What does the division of labor within the family look like in East Asia? The prevailing pattern in China is for both husband and wife to hold full-time jobs. That said, fully one third of Chinese couples who work full time work together at family businesses. This same pattern of both spouses working full time, with wives often working for the family business, is also common in South Korea and Taiwan. In Japan, the prevailing pattern is for both husband and wife to work but with the husband working full

time at one firm while the wife works part-time elsewhere. The distribution of labor for household chores perhaps parallels this. Even though the prevailing pattern is for East Asian husbands to do far less than their wives even when both work full time, Chinese husbands are more involved at home, fixing dinner and cleaning the house several times a week, whereas Japanese husbands are the least involved.

These are, however, the patterns for couples who do not yet have children. Once they have children, Japanese and South Korean wives typically quit working full time late in the pregnancy and remain at home to raise their children; Chinese and Taiwanese wives keep working full time even when their children are young, presumably because the extended family is more intact and they have family nearby to help them.

When these East Asian wives were asked if they were happy with their marriages, about half of the Japanese and South Korean wives said they were happily married and only about 10 % said they were unhappily married. Yet even the 10 % of “unhappy” wives was higher than the number of unhappy Chinese and Taiwanese wives. There is, however, a generational aspect to these data in that Japanese and South Korean wives are significantly more likely to express unhappiness in their 40s and beyond—a phenomenon not seen among Chinese and Taiwanese wives. This difference might be attributable to the difference between the Japanese and South Korean nuclear family pattern and the fact that Chinese and Taiwanese extended-families have many members living, if not together, at least close to one another.

Looking at the sources of care and support for the aged, there is much more emotional support from China and Taiwan than from South Korea and Japan. The same relationship holds for operational support and for emotional support from friends, colleagues, and neighbors. China also leads in narrow and extended-family financial support. Of the four countries, China provides the most and Japan, the least, financial support from friends, colleagues, and neighbors. The same holds true for operational support from friends,

colleagues, and neighbors. Financial support from financial institutions and public sources is minimal in all four societies, as is operational support from care service providers. It is not coincidental that the highest suicide figures for older people are in the countries where traditional family support networks are most frayed.

Although it originated in China, Confucianism informs all of the East Asian societies. Having been adopted by the ruling class, this system of social rituals and consideration designed to promote harmony is often invoked to prioritize obedience/deference (to parents, elders, and other authority figures) over independence and initiative. As such, it finds its echo in, for example, the characterization of the Japanese in the 1890 *Japanese Imperial Rescript on Education* as “ever united in loyalty and filial piety” and its injunction that they “be filial to your parents, affectionate to your brothers and sisters; as husbands and wives be harmonious, as friends true; . . . advance public good and promote common interests; always respect the Constitution and observe the laws” (Government of Japan 1890) It has been a major philosophical mainstay of family and community solidarity and support.

Indeed, this *Confucian tradition* is one reason that East Asian societies are generally regarded as collectivist societies. When Iwai and Ueda (2011) asked representative samples in the four countries whether they agree with the proposition that, in a collectivist society, silence is golden even when you are dissatisfied, South Korean, Chinese, and Taiwanese respondents voiced strong agreement with this proposition and Japanese, weak agreement. Corroborating this finding, Hofstede et al. (2010) individuality rankings put Japan 35th, China 58th, South Korea 65th, and Taiwan 66th among the 75 societies they examined. In a similar vein, respondents were asked if they thought they should follow their boss’s instructions even if they disagreed with them. Chinese and Taiwanese respondents agreed more strongly than Japanese and South Koreans did, suggesting that the Confucian influence is stronger in China and Taiwan than in Japan and South Korea.

10.6 Education

A number of nonmaterial measures contribute to enhanced well-being, among them educational opportunity. Education becomes increasingly important and educational level becomes an indicator of well-being as the society becomes more advanced technologically and comes to rely more on written than verbal communication. Modern prosperity has (1) demanded higher skill levels for gainful employment and (2) enabled both society at large and individual citizens and families to better afford the costs of higher education (including the opportunity cost of deferred earnings). In addition, governments have promoted continued education both to enhance international competitiveness and as an instrument of social integration. It is thus encouraging that most of the East Asian countries and societies have stipulated at least 9 years of education as compulsory and that the people often opt for more. Similarly, East Asia boasts a number of world-class universities and research facilities. The main value of education comes not from higher earnings but from enabling people to deal successfully with the problems they face and to enhance their own and their societies' well-being.

Chen (2012) reported that survey data from the four East Asian countries show a common pattern in Japan, Taiwan, and South Korea. Although both monetary and nonmonetary factors play a role in explaining the relationship between education and higher reports of happiness in these countries, the monetary factor is relatively unimportant, and nonmonetary factors such as interpersonal networks and greater cosmopolitanism account for a significant part of the correlation between education and happiness. China deviates from this pattern because of the higher relative importance of personal income to happiness.

That said, there are times and places where educational achievement is a mere rite-of-passage formality that people go through to obtain the necessary certification and not because they are interested in or even plan to use the content being taught. Done right, education is empowering;

done wrong, it is a deadening ritual undertaken in preparation for further deadening. In such situations, education is a ticket to social class (e.g., white-collar vs. blue-collar vs. unemployed) membership rather than an indication of psychological well-being, although there is some correlation in that higher social class is often accompanied by financial rewards that lead at least to material well-being.

As part of the *AsiaBarometer* project (AsiaBarometer 2006), Inoguchi and his team asked parents to select the two most important items from a list of qualities that children might be encouraged to learn (Inoguchi 2011). These values are learned at an early age, with values and norms most visibly inculcated by parents. As shown in Fig. 10.13, *independence*, *diligence*, and *honesty* were the clear leaders in China, South Korea, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Vietnam, and Singapore, with Japan an obvious outlier in prioritizing consideration for others and putting independence a distant third. Given that Confucius advocated both the virtue of independence (“Do not be concerned that no one recognizes our merits. Be concerned that you may not recognize others.”) and the virtue of consideration for others (“Consideration for others is the basis of a good life and a good society.”), it would clearly be misleading to call China Confucian and Japan non-Confucian. Both are Confucian with different emphases.

Independence is a top-three quality emphasized everywhere in East Asia except Japan. Why the difference? The other East Asian societies are all continental and have suffered frequent conquests, revolutions, wars, and other civil disturbances. Japan has been largely spared these kinds of events. A student of Mongol history, Okada (1999), argued that societies that fell under the Mongol empire's sway tended to be politically authoritarian whereas societies outside the reach of the Mongolian empire (e.g., Japan) were more able to develop free market-oriented societies. In addition, the continental societies are all more or less recent-settler societies. China, Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan, and Vietnam are full of migrants, both internal and external.

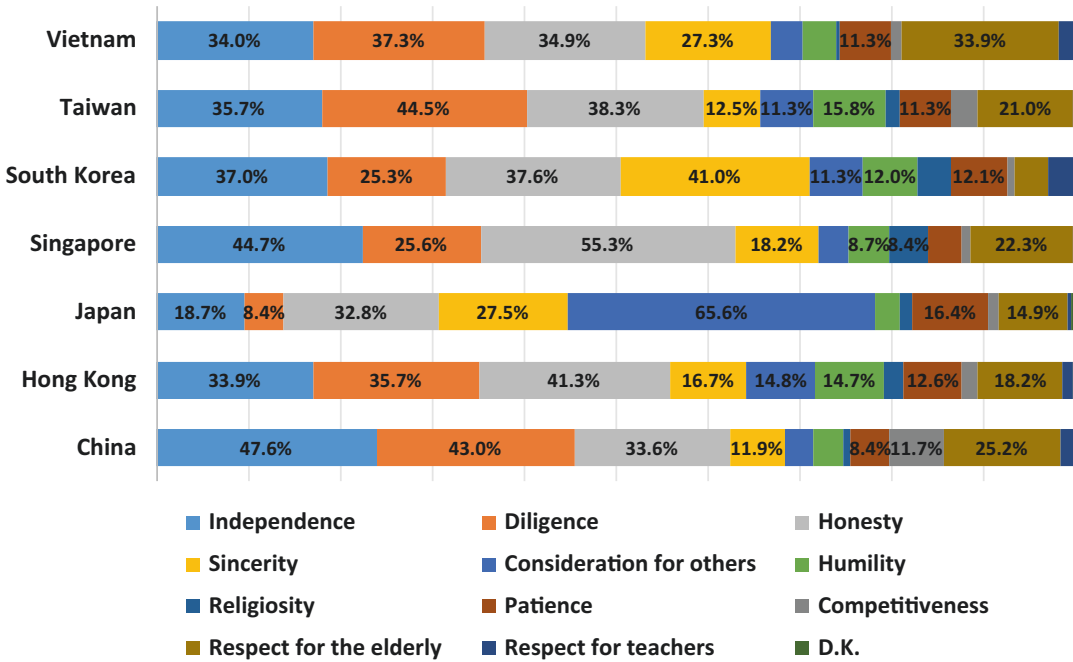


Fig. 10.13 Ranking of values children should learn in selected Asian countries, 2006. Percentages reflect percentage of people within each of the value categories so

the total percentage for each country per line exceeds 100%. D.K. = don't know (Data from AsiaBarometer 2006)

Diligence used to be a key virtue stressed in Japanese compulsory education textbooks. Kinjiro Ninomiya (1787–1856), discussed previously, was held up as an exemplary figure for the way he first worked his way out of poverty and then served as a moral administrator in developing local economies, and statues of him (typically reading a book as he carried a heavy load of firewood) were common sights in Japanese schoolyards. Yet he has disappeared from twenty-first-century Japanese primary and junior high school textbooks. In the other countries studied, individual competition is highly valued as a means to survive and thrive, as epitomized by the fact that the entrance examinations for prestigious universities are more competitive than they are in Japan.

Honesty is another virtue stressed in the Confucian doctrine. Recent-settler societies are societies of strangers living in close proximity, and honesty is an essential virtue in such a society. Likewise, sincerity is also stressed in the Confucian doctrine, yet it is stressed more in the

Chinese periphery (e.g., Japan, Korea, Taiwan, and Vietnam) than in China itself, which stresses the result of sincerity rather than sincerity itself.

Consideration for others scores highest only in Japan, perhaps because the other societies are more mobile, have shorter-lasting relationships, and hence have lower expectations that such consideration will be repaid. Humility is ranked relatively high in Hong Kong, Korea, and Taiwan but not in China, Japan, Singapore, or Vietnam.

Patience is seen as anachronistic everywhere in East Asia except Japan. Even in Japan, the favorite make-good storyline has shifted from Oshin, a girl patiently persevering in the face of hardship and separation from her parents, to Hanzawa Naoki, a hard-driving and somewhat impulsive businessman wreaking revenge for decades-old slights.

Respect for the elderly is definitely a Confucian virtue, and it is highly regarded in culturally Chinese societies such as Vietnam, China, Singapore, Taiwan, and Hong Kong in that order—i.e., in negative correlation to per capita

income. Although people profess respect for the elderly, it is unclear how much of this is sincere and how much is pro forma. The suicide data deserve another look. Perhaps “Confucian capitalism” would be an oxymoron?

10.7 Religions and Religious Traditions

Overt religiosity does not dominate in East Asian societies the way it does in some Judeo-Christian and Islamic societies. Official China, for example, has long been wary of organized religions as potential countervailing forces; yet the Chinese and Japanese cultures are so multitheistic that ordinary people may well have a Christian wedding and a Buddhist funeral with occasional visits to local folk religion shrines and temples in between in search of ways to improve their everyday well-being. East Asia is perhaps the most secular region in Asia; South Asia is the most religious, be it Christian, Islam, or Hindu; and Central and Southeast Asia fall in the middle. Religion seems to be making a modest comeback

in many countries as people seek solace and belonging, but it is not clear to what extent this desecularization will reverse the twentieth-century trend toward scientific secularism. Studies of “religion” in East Asia can be misleading because, as discussed in Chap. 3, East Asian languages had no term corresponding to the English word “religion.” Therefore, as researchers in the following studies of “religious affiliation” ask East Asian people if they have a religious tradition with which they affiliate themselves, most people answer negatively unless they have made a personal commitment to follow a particular set of religious ideas. Overall, most people throughout East Asia do not do this, but they do visit Buddhist, Daoist, Confucian, and folk religious temples and even sometimes Christian churches, “to worship” (lit: “to bow to a deity and to light incense”) when they need help in their lives, when they want extra good luck, or during important festival dates. These patterns are reflected in the data pertaining to religious affiliation summarized in Fig. 10.14.

For decades, East Asia has been one of the world’s most rapidly developing regions. Indeed,

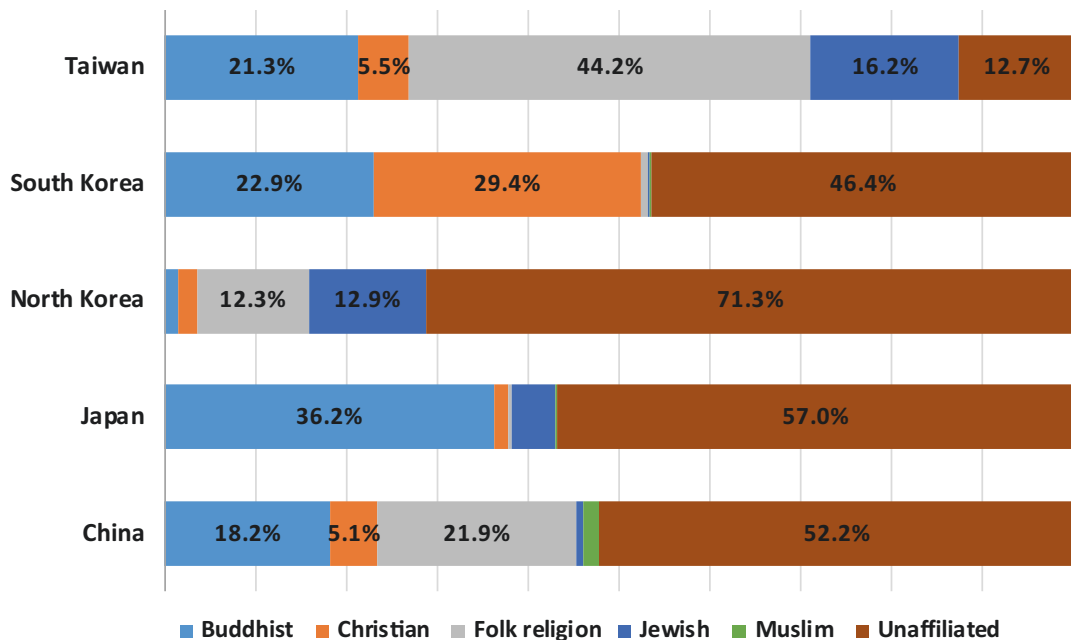


Fig. 10.14 Percent religious affiliation by East Asian country, 2010 (Data from Central Intelligence Agency 2015b)

the region’s annual rate of economic expansion ranged from 6 % to as much as 12–13 % and even higher for the PRC (World Bank 2014). The result of these rapid rates of economic growth, in combination with low to modest levels of growth in Europe and North America, is that China now ranks as the second largest economy (USD 9; 181.2 million; 12.6 %) in the world, and Japan is third (USD 4; 898.5 million; 6.7 %)—even allowing for the sluggish pace of economic growth that has characterized the Japanese economy since the early 1990s. Thus, China and Japan, along with first-ranked United States (USD 16; 768.1 million; 23.0 %), now account for more than USD 30,844.3 million, or approximately 42.3 % of the planet’s total economic output.

Despite the region’s long history of warfare between bordering states, the East Asian region has been at peace with itself for much of the past three decades. Peace, in combination with new affluence, has resulted in impressive gains in the region and in the well-being of the member countries. The gains are represented in all areas of social development and are reflected in all four of

the volume’s four sectors of well-being, i.e., health, education, income, and subjective well-being. The remainder of the chapter is devoted to a detailed discussion of the gains and continuing challenges faced by the region in each sector of well-being (Estes 2007; Estes and Van Roy 1992).

10.7.1 Financial Well-Being

Economic prosperity is widely accepted as a prerequisite for economic well-being. Thus, it is instructive to look at different levels of economic prosperity that exist in each society and, in turn, to draw comparisons between these countries and others with very different income and wealth profiles. Among the many measures available to assess economic well-being are GDP and, taking the size of each country’s population into consideration, PCGDP. As reported in Figs. 10.15, 10.16, and 10.17, all East Asian countries and societies—with the exception of North Korea—have GDP and PCGDP levels that compare favor-

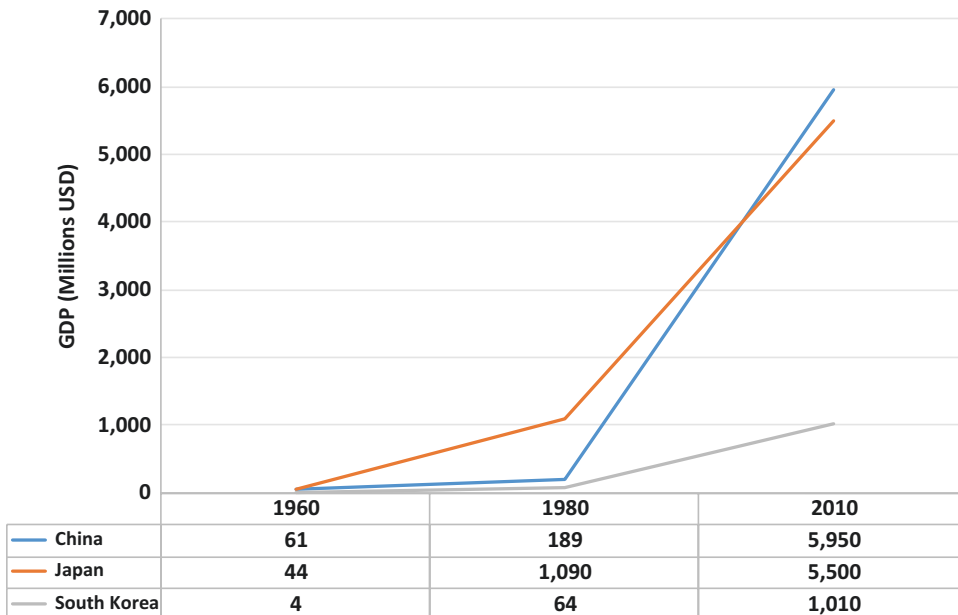


Fig. 10.15 Gross domestic product (GDP) in USD in selected East Asian countries, 1960–2010 (Data from World Bank 2014)

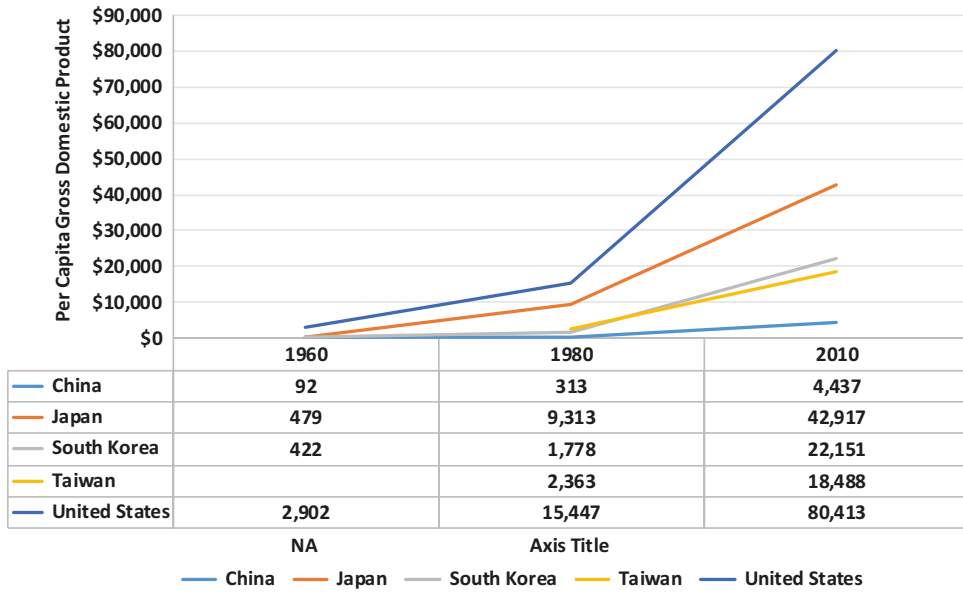


Fig. 10.16 Per capita gross domestic product (in USD) in selected East Asian countries, 1960–2010 (Data from World Bank 2014)

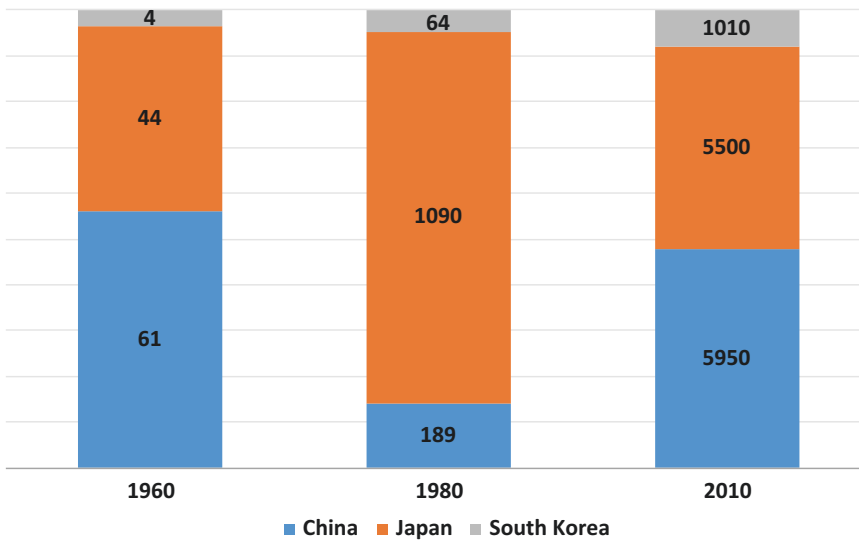


Fig. 10.17 Relative sizes of gross domestic products (Data from World Bank 2014)

ably with those of other economically leading nations of the world. The improvement in PCGDP that occurred between 1980 and 2015, however, did not occur in a straight line; indeed, there were many periods in which net economic losses were more typical. This pattern is comparable to global

trends in GDP and PCGDP and, therefore, is not unique to the East Asian region, which struggles with the same economic investments and financial flows as do other economically advanced countries (World Bank 2014). The overall direction of these changes is, however, decidedly posi-

tive and, today, the majority of the region's countries are among the most significant wealth-producing nations worldwide.

10.7.2 Gini Coefficients and Subjective and Objective Assessments of Well-Being

Gini coefficients are an economic tool used to assess the extent to which income and wealth are distributed more or less equally in a society (Fig. 10.18). Ranging from “0” to “100,” scores closer to 0 indicate less inequality in access to and the distribution of income and wealth; conversely, scores closer to “100” indicate high levels of income and wealth inequality within and between a nation's various population groups. At the global level, the most favorable Gini scores are reported for the Scandinavian countries: Denmark 26.9, Finland, 27.8, Norway, 26.8; conversely the societies with the highest levels of financial inequality are in Latin America, i.e.,

Panama, 51.9., Colombia, 53.5, Costa Rica, 48.2, and Paraguay, 48.0.

On average, the countries of East Asia have Gini scores that reflect high levels of income inequality both within and between the region's countries, i.e., China (47.0), Japan (38.1), South Korea (35.1), and Taiwan (35.1). These high levels of financial inequality parallel those found in the United States (41.1) and the Russian Federation (41.7). In all respects, these Gini scores reflect values that are more consistent with economically developing nations than those reported for countries with fully developed economies (World Bank 2014) (Fig. 10.18). These severe disparities in income inequality are manifesting themselves in growing levels of economic discontent throughout the East Asia region—a phenomenon that the region has not experienced for many decades. Thus, objective economic performances profoundly impact subjective assessment of well-being, with the result that the two core domains of well-being cannot really be separated from one another (Wan 2007).

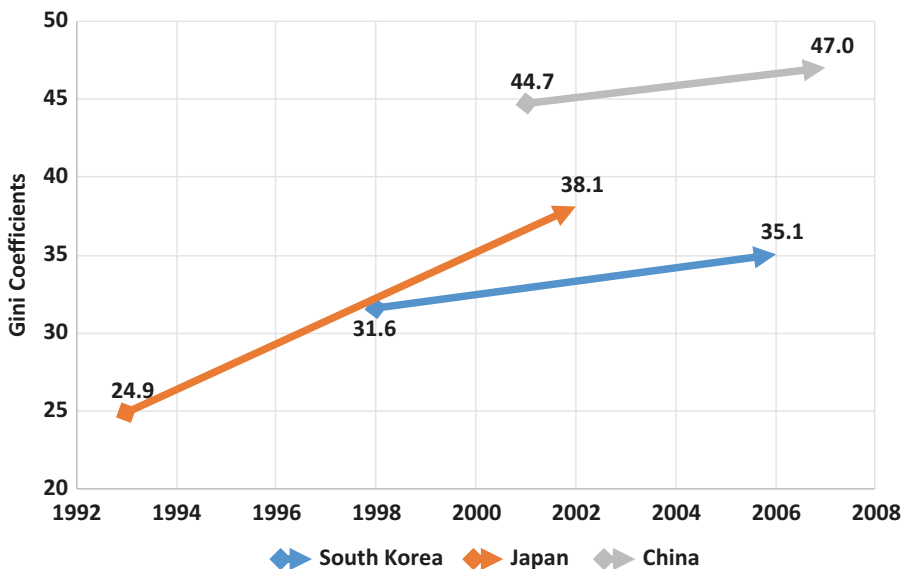


Fig. 10.18 Trending direction of most recent Gini coefficients for the largest East Asian countries, 1992–2008 (Data from United Nations Development Programme 2014; World Bank 2014)

10.8 Technical Infrastructure Quality

It is impossible to overemphasize the importance of public utility infrastructure to everyday well-being (Fig. 10.19). As shown, East Asian societies generally have good access to core public utilities. Although taken from official government sources and needing to be understood as such, the available data show that electricity is nearly 100 % available in all of the societies; safe drinking water is 92 % available in China and 95–100 % available elsewhere. Similarly, liquefied propane gas/city gas is 73.5 % available in China and 93–99 % elsewhere. This situation, while much better than before, is still not as good as it should be, and both inadequate hygiene and sanitation facilities and pollution pose long-term threats to the people's well-being (Inoguchi 2006).

Telephone service is another oft-cited measure of development and prosperity (Fig. 10.20). Communications connectivity is important not just in terms of giving more people better access to information that they can use in their daily

lives (e.g., weather forecasts for agricultural communities) but also in terms of integrating them into the society and keeping them connected with family and friends even when these people do not live nearby. Many of the later-developing East Asian societies are bypassing fixed-line networks and going directly to mobile/cellular service. In China, for example, many are even bypassing subscribing to mobile services and are instead going online with prepaid access.

Many observers see automobile ownership as a measure of prosperity and well-being, despite the serious pollution and other problems that accompany automobile ownership and use. This paper cites two sets of data: paved road length (which is linked to automobile ownership but is also indicative of the distribution system and mobility in general) and rail track (a measure of both mobility efficiency and social infrastructure development). The four leading East Asian countries have made obvious progress here as well. Figure 10.21 shows the land area and transport infrastructure for each of the region's countries.

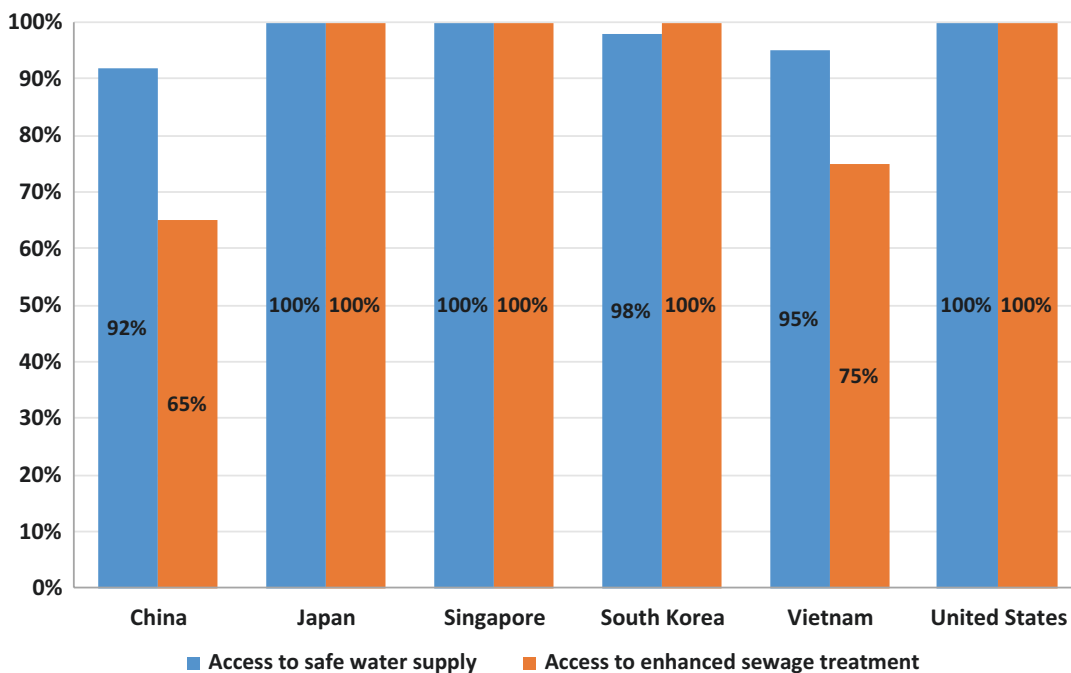


Fig. 10.19 Access to core public utilities in selected East Asian countries, 2012 (Data from World Bank 2014)

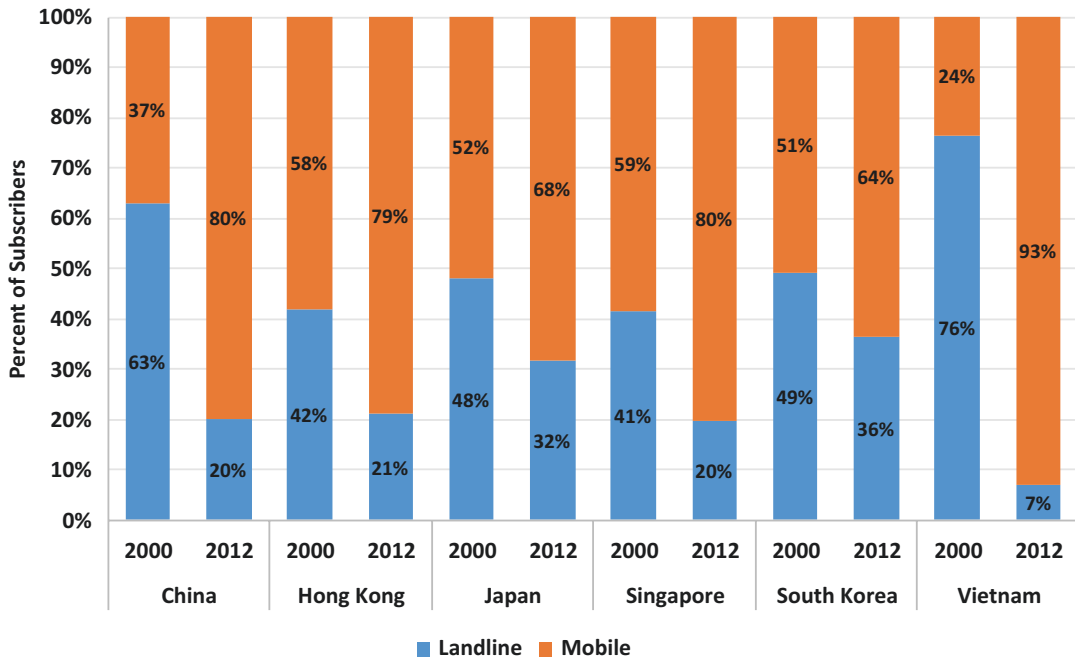


Fig. 10.20 Comparison of landline and mobile subscribers in 2000 and 2012 (Data from World Bank 2014)

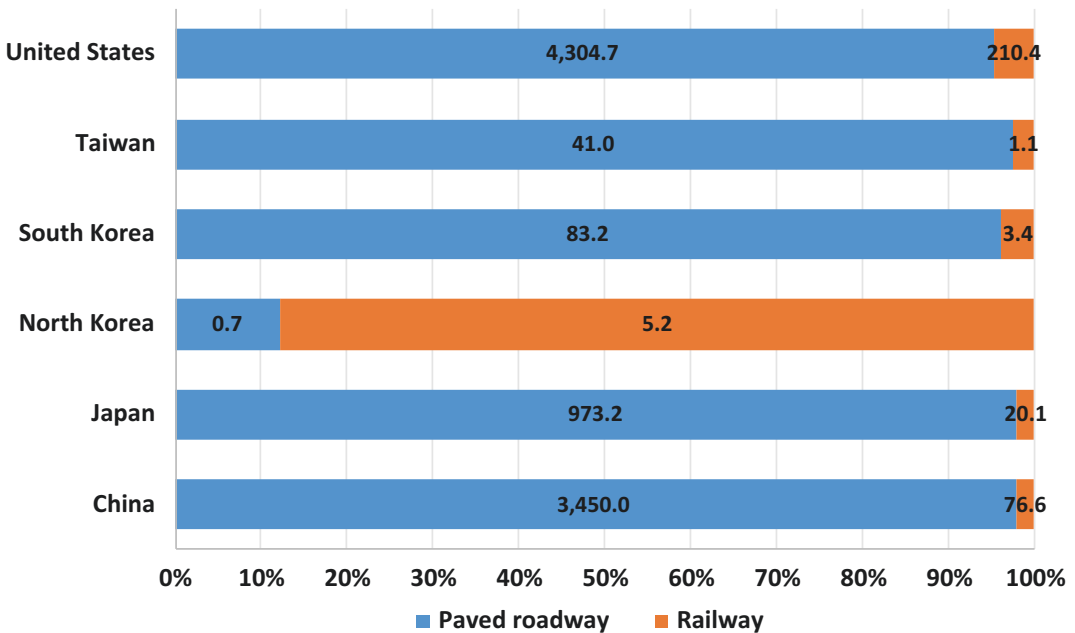


Fig. 10.21 Paved roadway (km) vs. railway and per land area of country (km²) (Data from 18dao 2015; NationMaster 2015)

10.9 Psychological or Subjective Well-Being

In large part, deriving from but nonetheless transcending public performance on the objective measures just described, are self-assessed, or subjective, feelings of well-being. These two dimensions of well-being differ significantly from one another. Fortunately, we have sophisticated methods for assessing the extent to which people are happy with their lives as they are currently living them. Questions to be asked of people in obtaining these self-assessments include, but are not limited to, “Do you think life is good?” or “Do you feel trapped in a ‘no-exit’ maze of personal nonrewards and despair?” The answers that result from these questions are intriguing and reinforce the individual’s sense of personal and collective achievements in both the objective and subjective arenas of well-being.

Thus, although the overall levels of economic and social prosperity noted above are encouraging from a well-being perspective, concern has been expressed that the distribution of wealth within and between the region’s societies is increasingly unequal, and this inequality may be a factor that correlates with subjective dissatisfaction and a subjective social disconnect as people become more aware of the discrepancy. That is to suggest that a profound sense of relative deprivation slowly, but profoundly, creeps into a population as major income groups recognize the imbalances that exist between actual and relative attained levels of objective and subjective achievement. The larger the gap in the imbalance, the greater is the likelihood that subjective assessments of well-being will decline (Gornick and Jantti 2014; Inoguchi and Fujii 2011).

The period following the end of the Second World War in Japan offers valuable insights into how this mix of objective and subjective assessments of well-being interact with one another. Following the war, for example, only a minority of Japanese lived under circumstances in which their daily needs, housing needs, the ability to return to university, and the like could be met.

Only a handful of the population had the access necessary to bring about what, then, was regarded as a high level of social and economic inclusion. The typical picture was one of deprivation, denial, and having to suspend a concern for the future in order to focus on meeting the basic day-to-day needs that confronted the majority of the population. People’s attitudes toward having to live under such harsh conditions were not confrontational in nature. Over time, however, the living conditions of many population groups began to change for the better, e.g., access to better food on a predictable and sustainable basis, governmental approval to build more secure living units, and regular employment even in low paying jobs; at the same time, the majority of the population did not share in these benefits. Thus, the material and subjective well-being of the few improved dramatically within a short time whereas the self-assessments of well-being of the many declined precipitously in an environment within which a minority were able to rebuild their lives to at least a prewar level. These disparities resulted in many internal conflicts between the relatively advantaged and the relatively disadvantaged population groups, a process that undermined the already fledgling political, economic, and social welfare systems that clearly were designed to meet all of the victims of war—at least in principle. The end result of these disparities, of course, was that personal and communal hardships became less acceptable when some people were living luxuriously and their neighbors were unable to escape poverty no matter how hard they worked (Graham 2011; Walker and Smith 2011).

As mentioned briefly above, longevity and infant mortality are significant social data but do not necessarily reflect how the individual feels about his or her own health. Although inherently subjective, self-assessment of health is an important component of personal well-being. Of the four East Asian societies, China and South Korea register high health self-assessments and Japan and Taiwan register cautiously good self-assessments. In large part, chronic diseases such

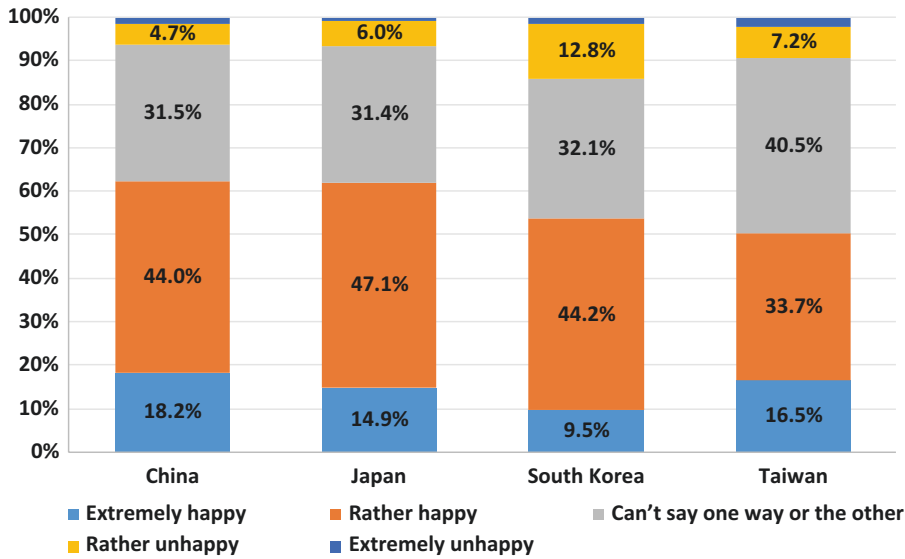


Fig. 10.22 Self-assessment of personal happiness in selected East Asia (Data from Inoguchi and Fujii 2011)

as high blood pressure, diabetes, cardiovascular difficulties, and respiratory problems increase with age and become increasingly important as the East Asian societies age. Figure 10.22 summarizes the major findings with respect to how selected groups of East Asian citizens and residents view their satisfaction with life and with happiness.

10.10 Discussion and Conclusions

We began this chapter with a series of questions that guided our exploration of a complex body of objective and subjective well-being data with respect to changes in development that occurred in East Asia. Among others, our major findings include the following:

- East Asia has been and continues to be one of the world's most rapidly developing regions and experiences high levels of self-assessed well-being.
- The region's contemporary development patterns are linked to one another and to the

region's rich historic past, which has had major socio-political-cultural-religious impacts not only on the region but on the rest of the world as well.

- Through the region's ancient religions and philosophical systems, East Asia teaches compassion toward others, including toward strangers. In fact, however, the region has spun a comparatively weak social safety net to care for its elderly, disabled poor, and others who cannot participate fully in East Asia's "economic miracle."

Japan may perhaps be an outlier in East Asia in two senses. First, Japan registered a government social policy expenditure higher than that of the United Kingdom and on a par with that of the Netherlands. Second, given alarmingly increasing government debts and the need to reduce government expenditure on social issues, those with lower income may feel the crunch similar to those in the rest of East Asia.

Instead, the region's cultures and, in turn, their governments emphasize individual savings and family social care responsibility to meet the

majority of these needs. Government involvement in this sector is limited to small pensions for previous members of its civil service, to widows, to childless single persons, and to the poor who are found in every community. But the levels of financial security provided through the publicly administered systems of social welfare tend to be minimal. Local temples and monasteries pick up the void left by the absence of help from the public sector.

- Nonconsanguine adoptions are a rarity in East Asia and, to the extent they do occur, the preference is for the adoption of boys rather than girls, for whom other forms of social support must be found.
- Economic development has been one of the region's most significant social accomplishment.
 - East Asia, for example, contains two of the world's three largest economies and, in general, levels of PCGDP and per capita gross national income are well above world averages.
 - Similarly, cell phone ownership, paved roads, railways, and other transportation and communications infrastructures are among the world's most developed, even when compared with those of the United States.
 - Long gone are the days when products with the notation "made in Japan" or "made in China" were considered cheaply produced, mass market items. As was the case for nearly a thousand years, selected products of Japan and China, especially in the electronics sector, are considered to be among the best available in the global market place.
- Self-assessed levels of well-being are exceptionally high in the majority of East Asian countries. Positive ratings on self-assessment tools are closely related to the levels of educational and income attainment, the presence of a strong sense of social mobility, engagement in productive work in which individuals take considerable pride, and the presence of children, but especially boys.
- On the negative side, the countries and societies of East Asia are confronted by a wide range of recurrent natural and man-made disasters. In recent years these have included:
 - The near meltdown of the Fukushima nuclear plant in Japan (United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific [UNESCAP] 2015)
 - The devastating destruction brought about by an earthquake of large expanses of Kobe in Japan (UNESCAP 2015)
 - Less frequent, and certainly more contained, flooding associated with China's extensive rivers and other waterways (UNESCAP 2015)
 - Devastating and recurring earthquakes in both China and Japan (UNESCAP 2015)
 - Frequent tsunamis among the coastal cities of virtually all of East Asia's major territories (UNESCAP 2015)
 - Air pollution of nearly unbreathable levels related to the burning of fossil fuels (coal) in China, Taiwan, and, often, South Korea (UNESCAP 2015)
 - The accumulation of large amounts of nuclear waste in all of the region's countries dependent on nuclear power as a major energy source (UNESCAP 2015)
 - The rapid spread of frequent public health pandemics from China to other areas of East Asia and, owing to airplane travel, quickly to other world regions, e.g., avian flu epidemics, severe acute respiratory syndrome, or SARS, among others (WHO 2014b)
- Also problematic for a majority of East Asian countries are continuing problems with overpopulation, albeit the nature of the dilemmas differs enormously from one country to another, e.g., on-going rapid population growth in China, which ranks 2nd behind India in the size of the total population, and, owing to declining fertility and increases in overall years of life expectation, rapid population aging in Japan, Taiwan, and even China

(United Nations Population Division 2012). The complex social care needs of the region's elderly are placing extraordinarily high levels of demands on East Asia capacity to provide adequately for their needs (UNESCAP 2014).

10.11 Looking Ahead

The East Asian countries, with the notable exception of North Korea, have achieved remarkable progress in well-being and their people have benefitted enormously. Some of these accomplishments have been government-directed, yet government policy obviously had to be backed up and supplemented by private initiative as people saw the benefits to development.

Modernization and industrialization have raised standards of living throughout the region and enhanced physical well-being in general (Estes and Van Roy 1992). Yet, these forces have also had their downside, as epitomized by pollution at public-disaster levels (e.g., the mercury poisoning of Minamata in Japan; the current levels of air, water, and soil pollution in China; and the near meltdown of the Fukushima nuclear plant in Japan). Conducive to enhanced well-being, modernization and industrialization have not had unmitigated results. Including greenhouse gas emissions and climate change, it is clear the East Asian economies must do more to develop and adopt nonpolluting (or, at a minimum, less-polluting) manufacturing processes and lifestyles.

There are clearly lessons here that other countries can learn, with the understanding that not all East Asian economies offer the same lessons and that not all lessons apply equally to all situations. Some of the lessons from East Asia are *dos* and others are *don'ts*. Allowing room for innovation is an obvious *do*; rampant pollution that, in effect,

poisons the wells for future generations is an obvious *don't*. In many areas, the East Asian economies have learned how to curb much of their pollution, both industrial and personal. Desulphurization scrubbers on smoke stacks, emission regulations for automobiles, and sewage treatment plants are just a few examples.

Having come this far and possessing advanced design and technology skills, it is incumbent upon the East Asian economies to move to the next stage and develop solutions to some of the urgent pollution issues facing the global community. Climate change and sea-level increases associated with global warming represent just two of the many issues needing to be addressed worldwide. Other imperatives are the need to check and reverse desertification, to ensure adequate fresh water supplies in tandem with robust water conservation programs, to wean our economies from fossil fuels, and to vigorously promote and protect species diversity. These are all essential if our current well-being is to be more than just a one-off blip on the radar of history.

Moreover, all of these changes have to be done against the backdrop of declining and aging populations. As fertility rates have fallen well below the developed-country 2-to-1 replacement rate (with less developed countries needing higher fertility rates to offset their higher infant mortality rates) and as improved health and living conditions have extended lifespans, many societies are finding their social security structures stressed by having fewer working-age people to support more retired people and by having fewer young people to maintain infrastructure, production, and distribution systems. Nevertheless, it is hoped that this demographic issue, which is by no means restricted to East Asia, can spur these societies to devise innovative solutions applicable to enhanced well-being worldwide.

Supplemental Tables

Supplemental Table 10.1 Demography
SOCIAL INDICATORS: Demography
REGION: Asia (N= 24)

	Country	Population (Mil)			% Population growth rate					% Urban			
		1960	1985	2010	2013–2014	1960	1985	2010	2013–2014	1960	1985	2010	2013–2014
Source	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	
East Asia	China	667.1	1051.0	1337.7	1364.3	1.8	1.4	0.5	0.5	16.2	22.9	49.2	54.4
East Asia	Hong Kong SAR	3.1	5.5	7.0	7.2	4.5	1.1	0.7	0.8	85.2	92.9	100.0	100.0
East Asia	Japan	92.5	120.8	128.1	127.1	0.9	0.6	0.0	-0.2	63.3	76.7	90.5	93.0
East Asia	Korea, North	11.4	18.8	24.5	25.0	2.5	1.6	0.5	0.5	40.2	57.6	60.2	60.7
East Asia	Korea, South	25.0	40.8	49.4	50.4	2.9	1.0	0.5	0.4	27.7	64.9	81.9	82.4
East Asia	Mongolia	1.0	1.9	2.7	2.9	2.5	2.7	1.5	1.5	35.7	55.0	67.6	71.2
East Asia	Taiwan	10.6	19.3	23.2	23.4	3.7	1.3	0.2	0.3				
South Central Asia	Afghanistan	8.8	11.5	28.4	31.3	2.0	-2.8	2.5	2.4	8.2	17.0	24.7	26.3
South Central Asia	Bangladesh	49.5	94.3	151.1	158.5	2.8	2.7	1.1	1.2	5.1	17.5	30.5	33.5
South Central Asia	Bhutan	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.8	2.3	2.8	1.7	1.5	3.6	12.9	34.8	37.9
South Central Asia	India	449.6	781.7	1205.6	1267.4	2.0	2.2	1.3	1.2	17.9	24.3	30.9	32.4
South Central Asia	Iran	22.0	47.5	74.5	78.5	2.6	4.0	1.2	1.3	33.7	53.4	70.6	72.9
South Central Asia	Nepal	9.5	16.1	26.8	28.1	1.7	2.3	1.1	1.2	3.5	7.4	16.8	18.2
South Central Asia	Pakistan	45.5	94.8	173.1	185.1	2.4	3.4	1.8	1.6	22.1	29.3	36.6	38.3
South Central Asia	Sri Lanka	9.9	15.8	20.7	20.6	2.8	1.5	1.0	0.8	16.4	18.6	18.3	18.3
South East Asia	Cambodia	5.7	7.8	14.4	15.4	2.5	3.6	1.5	1.8	10.3	13.9	19.8	20.5
South East Asia	Indonesia	88.7	162.5	240.7	252.8	2.4	2.1	1.3	1.2	14.6	26.1	49.9	53.0
South East Asia	Lao, PDR	2.1	3.7	6.4	6.9	2.3	2.8	2.0	1.8	7.9	13.8	33.1	37.6
South East Asia	Malaysia	8.2	15.8	28.3	30.2	3.2	2.8	1.7	1.6	26.6	45.9	70.9	74.0
South East Asia	Myanmar	21.5	38.5	51.9	53.7	2.2	2.1	0.8	0.9	19.2	24.1	31.4	33.6
South East Asia	Philippines	26.3	54.3	93.4	100.1	3.3	2.7	1.7	1.7	30.3	43.0	45.3	44.5
South East Asia	Singapore	1.6	2.7	5.1	5.5	6.4	0.1	1.8	1.3	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
South East Asia	Thailand	27.4	52.0	66.4	67.2	3.0	1.8	0.2	0.3	19.7	28.1	44.1	49.2

(continued)

Supplemental Table 10.1 (continued)

	Population (Mil)				% Population growth rate				% Urban			
	1960	1985	2010	2013–2014	1960	1985	2010	2013–2014	1960	1985	2010	2013–2014
Country	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l
Source												
South East Asia	34.7	58.9	86.9	90.7	1.6	2.0	1.0	1.1	14.7	19.6	30.4	33.0
Viet Nam	115.8	179.7	224.7	228.6	2.7	1.4	0.6	0.5	44.7	61.7	74.9	77.0
East Asia (N=7)	74.4	132.8	210.1	221.3	2.3	2.0	1.5	1.4	13.8	22.6	32.9	34.7
South Central Asia (N=8)	24.0	44.0	65.9	69.2	3.0	2.2	1.3	1.3	27.0	34.9	47.2	49.5
South East Asia (N=9)	67.6	113.2	160.3	166.4	2.7	1.9	1.2	1.1	27.1	37.6	49.5	51.5
Regional average												

Population: Total population is based on the de facto definition of population, which counts all residents regardless of legal status or citizenship—except for refugees not permanently settled in the country of asylum, who are generally considered part of the population of their country of origin. The values shown are midyear estimates
 % Population Growth Rate: Population growth (annual %) is the exponential rate of growth of midyear population from year t-1 to t, expressed as a percentage
 % Urban: Urban population refers to people living in urban areas as defined by national statistical offices. It is calculated using World Bank population estimates and urban ratios from the United Nations World Urbanization Prospects

a World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.POP.TOTL>. Taiwan: <http://www.populstat.info/Asia/taiwanc.htm>

b World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.POP.TOTL>. Taiwan: <http://www.indexmundi.com/taiwan/population.html>

c World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.POP.TOTL>. Taiwan: <http://www.indexmundi.com/taiwan/population.html>

d World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.POP.TOTL>. Taiwan: <http://www.indexmundi.com/taiwan/population.html>

e World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.POP.GROW>. Taiwan: <http://www.populstat.info/Asia/taiwanc.htm>

f World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.POP.GROW>. Taiwan: <http://www.indexmundi.com/taiwan/population.html>

g World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.POP.GROW>. Taiwan: <http://www.indexmundi.com/taiwan/population.html>

h World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.POP.GROW>. Taiwan: <http://www.indexmundi.com/taiwan/population.html>

i World Bank: United Nations, World Urbanization Prospects. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.URB.TOTL.IN.ZS>

j World Bank: United Nations, World Urbanization Prospects. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.URB.TOTL.IN.ZS>

k World Bank: United Nations, World Urbanization Prospects. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.URB.TOTL.IN.ZS>

l World Bank: United Nations, World Urbanization Prospects. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.URB.TOTL.IN.ZS>

Supplemental Table 10.2 Education
SOCIAL INDICATORS: Education
REGION: Asia (N= 24)

	Country	% Secondary school enrollment					% Adult literacy					% Tertiary education				
		1960	1985	2010	2013–2014	2014	1960	1985	2010	2013–2014	2014	1960	1985	2010	2013–2014	2014
Source	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o	
East Asia	China		32.2	83.1	92.4		65.5	95.1		2.5	23.3	29.7				
East Asia	Hong Kong SAR		72.4	87.2	99.3					12.2	57.8	66.8				
East Asia	Japan		94.9	101.6	101.8					29.0	58.1	61.5				
East Asia	Korea, North					97.0	100.0	100.0								
East Asia	Korea, South		90.6	97.1	99.0					31.6	101.0	96.6				
East Asia	Mongolia		87.5	91.6	91.6		98.3	98.3		23.8	53.8	62.3				
East Asia	Taiwan															
South Central Asia	Afghanistan		13.3	50.2	54.3		31.7	31.7		2.2	3.9	3.7				
South Central Asia	Bangladesh		20.1	49.9	53.6		58.8	58.8		5.0	10.5	13.2				
South Central Asia	Bhutan		11.9	66.3	77.7			52.8		0.7	7.0	10.9				
South Central Asia	India		34.9	65.1	71.5			62.8		5.8	18.2	24.7				
South Central Asia	Iran		44.1	81.1	86.3	52.3	85.0	84.3			43.1	57.9				
South Central Asia	Nepal		27.5	60.4	67.0	8.8	57.4	57.4		3.5	14.4	17.2				
South Central Asia	Pakistan		19.1	34.1	38.3		55.4	54.7		2.9	6.6	9.8				
South Central Asia	Sri Lanka		61.1	97.2	99.2		91.2	91.2		3.7	16.0	18.8				
South East Asia	Cambodia			45.0	45.0		73.9	73.9		0.3	14.1	15.8				
South East Asia	Indonesia		34.8	78.4	83.1		92.6	92.8		6.2	24.9	31.5				
South East Asia	Lao, PDR		21.4	44.8	50.5			72.7		1.5	16.1	17.7				
South East Asia	Malaysia		53.7	66.9	70.8		93.1	93.1		5.6	37.1	37.2				
South East Asia	Myanmar		23.1	50.2	50.2	78.6	92.6	92.6		4.8	13.8	13.4				
South East Asia	Philippines		67.1	84.6	85.4		95.4	95.4		27.7	29.4	33.8				
South East Asia	Singapore						95.9	96.4								
South East Asia	Thailand		30.7	83.5	85.9		96.4	96.4		20.6	50.0	51.2				
South East Asia	Viet Nam				43.0		93.5	93.5		1.9	22.4	24.6				
South East Asia	East Asia (N=7)		75.5	92.1	96.8	81.3	97.8	97.8		19.8	58.8	63.4				

(continued)

Supplemental Table 10.2 (continued)

Country	% Secondary school enrollment					% Adult literacy					% Tertiary education				
	1960	1985	2010	2013–2014		1960	1985	2010	2013–2014		1960	1985	2010	2013–2014	
Source	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o
South Central Asia (N=8)		29.0	63.0	68.5	8.8	52.3	63.2	61.7		3.4	15.0	19.5			
South East Asia (N=9)		38.5	64.8	64.2		78.6	91.7	89.7		8.6	26.0	28.2			
Regional average		44.2	70.9	73.6	8.8	73.3	82.7	79.7		9.6	29.6	33.3			

% Secondary school enrollment: Gross enrollment ratio. Secondary. All programs. Total is the total enrollment in secondary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population of official secondary education age. GER can exceed 100% due to the inclusion of over-aged and under-aged students because of early or late school entrance and grade repetition

% Adult literacy: Adult (15+) literacy rate (%). Total is the percentage of the population age 15 and above who can, with understanding, read and write a short, simple statement on their everyday life. Generally, 'literacy' also encompasses 'numeracy', the ability to make simple arithmetic calculations. This indicator is calculated by dividing the number of literates aged 15 years and over by the corresponding age group population and multiplying the result by 100

% Tertiary education: Gross enrollment ratio. Tertiary (ISCED 5 and 6). Total is the total enrollment in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6), regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the total population of the five-year age group following on from secondary school leaving

Note: can also find data directly from UNESCO (World Bank has same values since data comes from UNESCO)

a

b World Bank: UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SE.SEC.ENRR>. UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>

c World Bank: UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SE.SEC.ENRR>. UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>

d World Bank: UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SE.SEC.ENRR>. UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>

e UNESCO (1970) – Literacy 1967–1969 Progress Achieved in Literacy Throughout the World. Paris (1970)

f World Bank: UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SE.ADT.LITR.ZS>. UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>

g World Bank: UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SE.ADT.LITR.ZS>. UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>

h World Bank: UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SE.ADT.LITR.ZS>. UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>

i

j World Bank: UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SE.TER.ENRR>. UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>

k World Bank: UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SE.TER.ENRR>. UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>

l World Bank: UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SE.TER.ENRR>. UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>

Supplemental Table 10.3 Health
SOCIAL INDICATORS: Health
REGION: Asia (N= 24)

	Avg. years life expectancy				Infant <1/1k live born				Child mortality <5/1K				Maternal mortality rate				TB incidence per 100k				
	1960	1985	2010	2013-2014	1960	1985	2010	2013-2014	1960	1985	2010	2013-2014	1960	1985	2010	2013-2014	1960	1985	2010	2013-2014	
Country	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o	p	q	r	s	t	
Source	43.5	68.3	74.9	75.4		42.1	13.6	10.9		53.8	15.8	12.7	49.8	5.2	36.0	32.0		21.6	92.0	70.0	
China	67.0	76.4	83.0	83.8														138.3	94.0	76.0	
Hong Kong SAR																					
Japan	67.7	77.7	82.8	83.3	30.4	5.5	2.4	2.1	39.7	7.5	3.2	2.9	131.0	14.0	6.0	6.0		48.5	24.0	18.0	
Korea, North	51.1	67.4	68.9	69.8		27.7	24.8	21.7		35.1	31.3	27.4			98.0	87.0			383.0	429.0	
Korea, South	53.0	68.5	80.6	81.5	80.6	8.5	3.5	3.2	113.6	9.9	4.1	3.7		17.4	21.0	27.0		213.6	97.0	97.0	
Mongolia	48.4	58.4	66.9	67.5		94.3	29.3	26.4		135.2	35.7	31.8			74.0	68.0		155.8	227.0	181.0	
Taiwan																					
Afghanistan	31.6	44.4	59.6	60.9	234.9	146.7	75.3	70.2	359.5	219.6	105.2	97.3			500.0	400.0		93.2	189.0	189.0	
Bangladesh	47.0	57.4	69.5	70.7	176.0	117.8	38.9	33.2	263.8	173.3	49.1	41.1			200.0	170.0		44.3	225.0	224.0	
Bhutan	32.4	48.6	67.0	68.3		113.0	34.2	29.7		165.4	42.5	36.2			140.0	120.0		228.7	287.0	169.0	
India	41.4	57.1	65.7	66.5	164.9	100.6	46.4	41.4	247.4	145.2	60.2	52.7			220.0	190.0		149.5	209.0	171.0	
Iran	44.9	55.7	73.1	74.1		56.1	16.4	14.4		75.1	19.2	16.8			25.0	23.0		18.4	20.0	21.0	
Nepal	38.5	51.2	67.1	68.4	221.6	120.5	36.2	32.2	330.0	177.8	45.3	39.7			220.0	190.0		0.3	163.0	156.0	

(continued)

Supplemental Table 10.3 (continued)

	Avg. years life expectancy				Infant <1/1k live born				Child mortality <5/1K				Maternal mortality rate				TB incidence per 100k			
	1960	1985	2010	2013-2014	1960	1985	2010	2013-2014	1960	1985	2010	2013-2014	1960	1985	2010	2013-2014	1960	1985	2010	2013-2014
Country	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o	p	q	r	s	t
Source	46.4	59.6	66.1	66.6	186.4	114.6	73.4	69.0	253.9	150.8	91.8	85.5			190.0	170.0		117.6	276.0	275.0
South Central Asia																				
South Central Asia	59.7	69.3	73.8	74.2	70.7	25.2	9.2	8.2	98.0	30.2	10.7	9.6	302.5	50.6	32.0	29.0		37.2	66.0	66.0
South East Asia																				
South East Asia	41.2	52.9	70.6	71.7	87.4	37.3	32.5	32.5	120.9	43.8	37.9	37.9			200.0	170.0		130.4	511.0	400.0
South East Asia	44.8	61.2	70.2	70.8	149.9	73.7	27.4	24.5	224.7	102.7	33.2	29.3			210.0	190.0		10.9	199.0	183.0
South East Asia	43.2	50.9	66.9	68.2	122.9	59.0	53.8	53.8	181.7	79.6	71.4	71.4			270.0	220.0		115.8	270.0	197.0
South East Asia	59.5	69.5	74.5	75.0	67.3	18.6	7.2	7.2	92.7	21.8	8.5	8.5	242.3	37.1	31.0	29.0		67.0	75.0	99.0
South East Asia	42.7	56.9	64.6	65.1		86.5	43.7	39.8	122.9	56.1	50.5	50.5			220.0	200.0		27.3	403.0	373.0
South East Asia	57.8	63.8	68.2	68.7	66.8	50.2	25.0	23.5	104.1	74.8	32.1	29.9	153.2		120.0	120.0		278.0	337.0	292.0
South East Asia	65.7	73.9	81.5	82.3	35.5	8.8	2.2	2.2	47.8	10.9	2.8	2.8	44.2	4.4	4.0	6.0		71.3	35.0	47.0
South East Asia	55.2	67.9	73.8	74.4	102.1	38.3	12.5	11.3	147.6	48.2	14.5	13.1	329.6	35.5	28.0	26.0		149.2	157.0	119.0
South East Asia	59.1	68.9	75.3	75.8	76.1	41.7	20.6	19.0	120.6	59.7	25.9	23.8			51.0	49.0		79.7	176.0	144.0
South East Asia	55.1	69.5	76.2	76.9	55.5	35.6	14.7	12.9	76.7	48.3	18.0	15.7	90.4	12.2	47.0	44.0		115.6	152.8	145.2
South Central Asia (N=8)	42.7	55.4	67.7	68.7	175.8	99.3	41.3	37.3	258.8	142.2	53.0	47.4	302.5	50.6	190.9	161.5		86.1	179.4	158.9

South East Asia (N=9)	52.1	62.9	71.7	72.5	83.0	58.7	26.1	23.8	122.9	82.6	32.9	29.7	192.3	25.7	126.0	112.2	103.3	240.3	206.0
Regional Average	49.6	62.0	71.5	72.3	118.8	68.2	29.0	26.2	174.5	96.5	36.8	32.9	178.9	23.5	131.6	114.6	99.8	196.3	173.7

Avg. years life expectancy: Life expectancy at birth indicates the number of years a newborn infant would live if prevailing patterns of mortality at the time of its birth were to stay the same throughout its life

Infant <1/1k live born: Infant mortality rate is the number of infants dying before reaching one year of age, per 1000 live births in a given year

Child mortality <5/1K: Under-five mortality rate is the probability per 1000 that a newborn baby will die before reaching age five, if subject to age-specific mortality rates of the specified year

Maternal mortality rate: Maternal mortality ratio is the number of women who die from pregnancy-related causes while pregnant or within 42 days of pregnancy termination per 100,000 live births. The data are estimated with a regression model using information on the proportion of maternal deaths among non-AIDS deaths in women ages 15–49, fertility, birth attendants, and GDP

TB incidence per 100k: Incidence of tuberculosis is the estimated number of new pulmonary, smear positive, and extra-pulmonary tuberculosis cases. Incidence includes patients with HIV

a World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.LE00.IN>

b World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.LE00.IN>

c World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.LE00.IN>

d World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.LE00.IN>

e World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.IMRT.IN>

f World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.IMRT.IN>

g World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.IMRT.IN>

h World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.IMRT.IN>

i World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.DYN.MORT>

j World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.DYN.MORT>

k World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.DYN.MORT>

l World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.DYN.MORT>

m http://www.who.int/healthinfo/mortality_data/en/; <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.CBRT.IN>. Note: some estimates made from pregnancy related deaths, birth rate, and population

n http://www.who.int/healthinfo/mortality_data/en/; <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.CBRT.IN>

o World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.STA.MMRT>

p World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.STA.MMRT>

q <http://www.who.int/tb/country/data/download/en/>

r <http://www.who.int/tb/country/data/download/en/>

s World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.TBS.INCD>

t World Bank: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.TBS.INCD>

South Central Asia	Nepal	1.7	3.4	10.1	12.0	177.8	209.5	376.3	426.5	1.9	6.1	4.8	5.5			32.8	32.8
South Central Asia	Pakistan	10.0	44.0	129.5	151.6	219.4	464.2	748.0	818.9	6.0	7.6	1.6	5.4	33.4		29.6	29.6
South Central Asia	Sri Lanka	3.3	10.2	33.3	44.1	336.7	644.2	1610.1	2135.7	4.2	5.0	8.0	7.4	32.5		36.4	36.4
South East Asia	Cambodia			8.7	11.5			605.2	744.9			6.0	7.0			33.6	31.8
South East Asia	Indonesia	25.4	106.4	377.9	471.7	286.0	654.7	1570.2	1865.9	6.1	3.5	6.2	5.0	29.3		35.6	38.1
South East Asia	Lao, PDR		0.9	4.0	5.5		244.5	628.8	793.9		5.1	8.5	7.5			36.2	36.2
South East Asia	Malaysia	8.1	41.1	178.7	220.5	986.5	2609.3	6319.0	7304.1	7.6	-1.1	7.4	6.0	47.0		46.2	46.2
South East Asia	Myanmar									0.5	2.9	8.2	8.5				
South East Asia	Philippines	18.3	49.3	131.1	165.1	696.1	907.1	1403.4	1649.4	5.6	-7.3	7.6	6.1	41.0		43.0	43.0
South East Asia	Singapore	4.2	33.4	176.5	208.3	2529.9	12192.9	34758.4	38087.9	8.1	-0.7	15.2	2.9				
South East Asia	Thailand		54.5	210.1	232.0		1046.5	3163.9	3451.3		4.6	7.8	0.7	43.8		39.4	39.4
South East Asia	Viet Nam		15.7	78.3	97.8		267.5	900.5	1077.9		3.8	6.4	6.0			39.3	35.6
	East Asia (N=7)	254.5	735.8	1967.6	2309.1	2769.1	8888.8	18805.0	20430.0	-3.4	6.8	7.0	4.2	29.9		36.9	35.2
	South Central Asia (N=8)	26.4	64.1	220.1	271.6	250.8	639.0	1219.5	1353.1	4.4	4.8	7.1	5.2	34.4		33.1	33.0

(continued)

Supplemental Table 10.4 (continued)

	GDP (Billions of constant 2005 USD)				PCGDP (Constant 2005 USD)		% Growth in GDP		GINI or other measure of wealth disparity							
	1960	1985	2010	2013–2014	1960	2010	2013–2014	1960	1985	2010	2013–2014	1960	1985	2010	2013–2014	
Country	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o	p
South East Asia (N=9)	14.0	43.0	145.7	176.5	1124.6	2560.4	6168.7	6871.9	5.6	1.3	8.2	5.5	40.3	39.0	38.6	
Regional Average	79.3	233.1	607.8	720.5	1171.6	3517.9	7291.9	7997.6	3.0	3.9	7.5	5.1	36.3	36.2	35.7	

GDP (constant 2005 USD): GDP at purchaser's prices is the sum of gross value added by all resident producers in the economy plus any product taxes and minus any subsidies not included in the value of the products. It is calculated without making deductions for depreciation of fabricated assets or for depletion and degradation of natural resources. Data are in constant 2005 U.S. dollars. Dollar figures for GDP are converted from domestic currencies using 2005 official exchange rates. For a few countries where the official exchange rate does not reflect the rate effectively applied to actual foreign exchange transactions, an alternative conversion factor is used

PCGDP (constant 2005 USD): GDP per capita is gross domestic product divided by midyear population. GDP is the sum of gross value added by all resident producers in the economy plus any product taxes and minus any subsidies not included in the value of the products. It is calculated without making deductions for depreciation of fabricated assets or for depletion and degradation of natural resources. Data are in constant 2005 U.S. dollars

% Growth in GDP: Annual percentage growth rate of GDP at market prices based on constant local currency. Aggregates are based on constant 2005 U.S. dollars. GDP is the sum of gross value added by all resident producers in the economy plus any product taxes and minus any subsidies not included in the value of the products. It is calculated without making deductions for depreciation of fabricated assets or for depletion and degradation of natural resources

GINI or other measure of wealth disparity: Gini index measures the extent to which the distribution of income or consumption expenditure among individuals or households within an economy deviates from a perfectly equal distribution. A Lorenz curve plots the cumulative percentages of total income received against the cumulative number of recipients, starting with the poorest individual or household. The Gini index measures the area between the Lorenz curve and a hypothetical line of absolute equality, expressed as a percentage of the maximum area under the line. Thus a Gini index of 0 represents perfect equality, while an index of 100 implies perfect inequality

a World Bank national accounts data, and OECD National Accounts data files. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.KD>

b World Bank national accounts data, and OECD National Accounts data files. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.KD>

c World Bank national accounts data, and OECD National Accounts data files. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.KD>

d World Bank national accounts data, and OECD National Accounts data files. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.KD>

e World Bank national accounts data, and OECD National Accounts data files. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.PCAP.KD>

f World Bank national accounts data, and OECD National Accounts data files. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.PCAP.KD>

g World Bank national accounts data, and OECD National Accounts data files. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.PCAP.KD>

h World Bank national accounts data, and OECD National Accounts data files. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.PCAP.KD>

i World Bank national accounts data, and OECD National Accounts data files. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.KD.ZG>

j World Bank national accounts data, and OECD National Accounts data files. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.KD.ZG>

k World Bank national accounts data, and OECD National Accounts data files. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.KD.ZG>

l World Bank national accounts data, and OECD National Accounts data files. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.KD.ZG>

m

n World Bank, Development Research Group; US Census Historical Income Tables: Income Inequality. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SI.POV.GINI>

o World Bank, Development Research Group; US Census Historical Income Tables: Income Inequality. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SI.POV.GINI>

p World Bank, Development Research Group; US Census Historical Income Tables: Income Inequality. <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SI.POV.GINI>

Supplemental Table 10.5 Subjective well-being
SOCIAL INDICATORS: Subjective well-being
REGION: Asia (N= 24)

	Country	World Values Survey (WVS), 1981-2014					
		WVS 1 1981–1984	WVS 2 1990–1994	WVS 3 1995–1998	WVS 4 1999–2004	WVS 5 2005–2009	WVS 6 2010–2014
		a	b	c	d	e	f
East Asia	China		7.3	6.8	6.5	6.8	6.9
East Asia	Hong Kong SAR					6.4	6.9
East Asia	Japan	6.6	6.5	6.6	6.5	7.0	6.9
East Asia	Korea, North						
East Asia	Korea, South	5.3	6.7		6.2	6.4	6.5
East Asia	Mongolia						
East Asia	Taiwan			6.6		6.6	6.9
South Central Asia	Afghanistan						
South Central Asia	Bangladesh			6.4	5.8		
South Central Asia	Bhutan						
South Central Asia	India		6.7	6.5	5.1	5.8	5.1
South Central Asia	Iran				6.4	6.4	
South Central Asia	Nepal						
South Central Asia	Pakistan				4.9		7.5
South Central Asia	Sri Lanka						
South East Asia	Cambodia						
South East Asia	Indonesia				7.0	6.9	
South East Asia	Lao, PDR						
South East Asia	Malaysia					6.8	7.1
South East Asia	Myanmar						
South East Asia	Philippines			6.8	6.7		7.3

(continued)

Supplemental Table 10.5 (continued)

		World Values Survey (WVS), 1981-2014					
	Country	WVS 1 1981–1984	WVS 2 1990–1994	WVS 3 1995–1998	WVS 4 1999–2004	WVS 5 2005–2009	WVS 6 2010–2014
	Source	a	b	c	d	e	f
South East Asia	Singapore				7.1		7.0
South East Asia	Thailand					7.2	7.6
South East Asia	Viet Nam				6.5	7.1	
	East Asia (N=7)	6.0	6.8	6.7	6.4	6.6	6.8
	South Central Asia (N=8)		6.7	6.5	5.5	6.1	6.3
	South East Asia (N=9)			6.8	6.8	7.0	7.2
	Regional Average	6.0	6.8	6.6	6.2	6.7	6.9

Mean life satisfaction: Averaged value of responses to the following survey question: All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days? Using this card on which 1 means you are “completely dissatisfied” and 10 means you are “completely satisfied” where would you put your satisfaction with your life as a whole?
 a WVS 1 1981–84: V65.- All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days?
 b WVS 2 1990–04: V96.- All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days?
 c WVS 3 1995–98: V65.- All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days?
 d WVS 4 1999–04: V81.- All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days?
 e WVS 5 2005–09: V22.- All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days?
 f WVS 6 2010–14: V23.- All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days?

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