ECONOMIC OUTLOOK FOR SOUTHEAST ASIA, CHINA AND INDIA 2020:

DIGITAL ECONOMY

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Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India



Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India



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What is the Outlook?

Thematic focus of the Outlook

2010: Infrastructure development 2011/12: Green growth **2013: Narrowing development gaps** 2014: Beyond the middle-income trap **2015: Strengthening institutional capacity** 2016: Enhancing regional ties **2017: Addressing energy challenges** 2018: Fostering growth through digitalisation 2018 Update: Promoting opportunities in ecommerce **2019: Towards smart urban transportation 2019 Update: Responding to environmental** hazards in cities **2020: Human capital development**

1. Macroeconomic Assessments and Economic Outlook and Regional Integration

2. Thematic Focus

3. Structural Policy Country Notes



Outline

- Macroeconomic outlook and risks
- Digital economy:
 - Growth through Digitalisation (2018)
 - Digital education (2020)
 - Smart cities (2019)



Macroeconomic outlook and risks



Real GDP growth in ASEAN and Emerging Asia, 2018-24

Percentage

ASEAN-10 Emerging Asia





| | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | Changes from previous forecast (July 2019) | | 2020-24 |
|---------------------------|---------|------|------|---|--------------|---------|
| | | | | 2019 | 2020 | |
| ASEAN-5 countries | | | | | | |
| Indonesia | 5.2 | 5.0 | 5.0 | \downarrow | \downarrow | 5.1 |
| Malaysia | 4.7 | 4.4 | 4.4 | - | \downarrow | 4.4 |
| Philippines | 6.2 | 5.6 | 6.0 | \downarrow | \downarrow | 6.2 |
| Thailand | 4.1 | 2.7 | 3.0 | \downarrow | \downarrow | 3.2 |
| Viet Nam | 7.1 | 6.8 | 6.6 | 1 | - | 6.5 |
| Brunei Darussalam and Sir | igapore | | | | | |
| Brunei Darussalam | 0.1 | 2.0 | 1.7 | 1 | \downarrow | 1.9 |
| Singapore | 3.1 | 0.6 | 1.2 | \downarrow | \downarrow | 2.3 |
| CLM countries | | | | | | |
| Cambodia | 7.5 | 7.0 | 6.8 | - | - | 6.7 |
| Lao PDR | 6.3 | 6.5 | 6.6 | \downarrow | \downarrow | 6.8 |
| Myanmar | 6.5 | 6.6 | 6.7 | \downarrow | \downarrow | 6.9 |
| China and India | | | | | | |
| China | 6.6 | 6.2 | 5.7 | - | \downarrow | 5.6 |
| India | 6.8 | 5.8 | 6.2 | \downarrow | \downarrow | 6.6 |
| ASEAN-10 average | 5.2 | 4.6 | 4.7 | \downarrow | \downarrow | 4.9 |
| Emerging Asia average | 6.4 | 5.8 | 5.6 | \downarrow | \downarrow | 5.7 |

MPF: Medium-term projection framework



• One of the key assumptions for the medium-term projections is related to potential output, which is estimated by baseline models.

- Statistical filter approach (the Hodrick-Prescott filter)
 - → 'end-point' problem
- Production function approach in which potential output is related to labour and capital inputs
 - → the lack of reliable data

OECD dev



Households :

$$y_{t} = \frac{1}{1+b} E_{t} y_{t+1} + \frac{b}{1+b} y_{t-1} - \frac{1-b}{\sigma(1+b)} (r_{t}^{n} - E_{t} \pi_{t+1}) + \frac{1-b}{\sigma(1+b)} (z_{t}^{d} - E_{t} z_{t+1}^{d})$$

where *b* represents external habit persistence in consumption preferences, σ measures the risk aversion. r_t^a is the nominal interest rate, π_t is inflation, and z_t^d is the demand shock.

Following the price-setting of profit-maximising firms, the New Keynesian Phillips curve:

$$\pi_{t} = \frac{\beta}{1+\omega\beta} E_{t}\pi_{t+1} + \frac{\omega}{1+\omega\beta}\pi_{t-1} + \frac{(1-\theta)(1-\theta\beta)}{\theta(1+\omega\beta)} \left[\left(\eta + \frac{\sigma}{1-b}\right) y_{t} - \frac{\sigma b}{1-b} y_{t-1} - (1+\eta)A_{t} \right]$$

In each period, a fraction $1-\theta$ of firms re-optimise prices, while the remaining fraction keeps prices unchanged or indexes prices to past inflation.



Source: OECD Southeast Asia Economic Outlook 2011/12.



Monetary authorities follow the Taylor rule:

$$r_{t}^{n} = \rho_{r} r_{t-1}^{n} + (1 - \rho_{r}) \left\{ \psi_{\pi} \frac{1}{4} \sum_{j=0}^{3} \pi_{t-j} + \psi_{y} (y_{t} - y_{t}^{*}) \right\} + \varepsilon_{t}^{r}$$

where ρ_r determines the degree of policy smoothing, and ψ_{π} and ψ_{y} measure the responsiveness of the interest rate to inflation and the output gap respectively. ε_t^r is the monetary policy shock interpreted as an unsystematic component of the monetary policy.

The data used for estimation are real GDP (GDP_t), the CPI inflation rate (INFL_t), and the short term interest rate (SR_t). These data are related to model variables by the following measurement equations:

$$\begin{bmatrix} GDP_t \\ INFL_t \\ SR_t \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \overline{\pi} \\ \overline{\pi} + \overline{r} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} y_t \\ \pi_t \\ r_t^n \end{bmatrix}$$

where π and \overline{r} are the inflation rate and the nominal interest rate that prevail in the long-run respectively The real GDP series are de-trended by the HP filter prior to estimation.

Source: OECD Southeast Asia Economic Outlook 2011/12.

Trade tensions largely underpin the export performance

Growth in goods imports of China and the US by partner, 2017-19



Recent trends of exports

Growth in goods exports of Emerging Asia, 2017-19

3-month moving average, year-on-year, percentage



Viet Nam and Malaysia have broader links to China in terms of intermediate goods

Intermediate good exports to China, 2018

Percentage of GDP

Industrial supplies nes, primary
Fuels and lubricants, primary
Parts and accessories of transport equipment
Food and beverages, processed, mainly for industry

□ Industrial supplies nes, processed

Parts and accessories of capital goods (except transport equipment)

□ Food and beverages, primary, mainly for industry

Fuels and lubricants, processed (other than motor spirit)



Note: The calculations made use of broad economic categories commodity classification.

Source: OECD Development Centre calculations based on UN Comtrade; OECD Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India 2019.

India and Southeast Asia are more forwardly integrated with China in the value chain

Emerging Asia's forward and backward GVC participation in trade with China, 2011

Participation in percentages



Source: OECD Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India 2019.

Exports of some Emerging Asian countries are susceptible to Brexit

Cambodia's exports of textile and clothing to the United Kingdom



The speed of export adjustment matters in containing the trade tension effects

Selected goods exports of Thailand and Viet Nam by partner economy, 2018-19



Consumer confidence is holding up

Consumer confidence indices in Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand



Note: All indices are adjusted to set 100 as neutral confidence point. The latest data for Indonesia and Thailand are as of August 2019.

Private consumption growth steadies as export and investment growth ease

Private consumption, exports and fixed investment real growth

Percentage

Private Consumption Exports **Fixed** investment 25 20 15 10 5 0 -5 -10 2018 2018 2018 2018 2019 2019 2018 2018 2018 2018 2019 2019 2018 2018 2018 2019 2019 2019 2018 2018 2018 2018 2019 2018 2018 2018 2019 2019 2019 ∞ 201 02 04 02 02 02 020203 22 Q2 22 Q 4 δ δ δ 33 **Q** 02 02 Q4 33 δ δ 22 33 22 δ Indonesia Malaysia Philippines Singapore Thailand



Foreign direct investment in Emerging Asia, 2017-19



Note: All data are in calendar years. Quarterly data are annualised (i.e. 4-quarter sum as of the period indicated. Latest data for Brunei Darussalam and Myanmar are as of Q4 2018. Source: OECD Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India 2020.

Hot money capital inflows have not been disruptive thus far

Portfolio and other investment liability inflows in Emerging Asia 2017-19



Exchange rate volatility has been fairly contained

Nominal effective exchange rate of selected Emerging Asian economies, 2019, 1 January 2019=100



Monetary tools have been employed to support economic growth

Monetary policy actions in selected Emerging Asian economies in 2019



Headline inflation stays subdued but food prices are rising in some countries

Headline, core and food inflation in Emerging Asia, 2017-19

Percentage



Source: OECD Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India 2020.





Food has a large share in the CPI of Emerging Asian economies

Consumer price index weights

Percentage



Note: Definitions of the components and the level of breakdown published may not be necessarily the same across countries. China does not publish the weights of the CPI. 1-For Indonesia, data includes food, processed food, beverages and tobacco. For Viet Nam, data refer to foods and foodstuffs. 2-For Thailand, data refer shelter and utilities. For Viet Nam, data refer to housing and construction materials. 3-For India and Lao PDR, data includes communication. For Indonesia, data includes communication and finance. For Thailand, data refer to public transportation, vehicles and vehicle operation. Source: OECD Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India 2020.

Global oil prices pass through relative to headline inflation

Global oil prices pass through relative to headline inflation



Global oil price to inflation pass through

Local projection method

$$\pi_{t+k} = \alpha_k + \sum_{i=1}^{12} \gamma_{k,t-i} \pi_{t-i} + \beta_k \pi_t^{oil} + \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_j \pi_{t+i}^{oil} + \varepsilon_{k,t}.$$

where ϖ_{t+k} stands for headline inflation at period t and horizon k, ϖ_t^{oil} global oil inflation and _{k,t} is the error term. We take $\sum_{k=1k}^{l}$, for l=4,12 as our measure for global oil price pass through. It is the cumulative effect over 4 and 12 months after the shock.



The flattening of the Phillips curve needs attention to enhance policy efficacy

The Phillips curve for Singapore and Thailand Singapore Thailand

Q1 2000 - Q4 2008

Inflation (%, YOY)

• Q1 2010 - Q1 2019

• Q1 2000 - Q4 2008 • Q1 2010 - Q1 2019

Inflation (%, YOY)



Source: OECD Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India 2020.



Phillips curve augmented form

 $\pi_t^{cpi} = c + \beta_1 \pi_t^m + \beta_2 \pi_{t-1}^{mean} + \beta_3 OG_t^c + e_t$

Note: The relative price of imports is measured as the import price deflator divided by the GDP deflator. In equation (1) π_t^{cpi} , stands for the CPI inflation rate; π_t^m stands for the inflation of the relative price of imports; π_{t-1}^{mean} stands for the average inflation rate of the 4 previous quarters at t-1; and OG_t^c stands for the output gap. The output gap is measured as the difference between the real GDP growth rate and its trend component. The sample was split in two, from Q1 2000 to Q4 2008, and from Q1 2010 to Q1 2019; the estimation thus does not include the global financial crisis (GFC).



Source: OECD Outlook for Southeast Asia Economic China and India 2020.

Inflation targeting has seemingly worked well in anchoring inflation in Emerging Asia

Target inflation band and actual inflation in Thailand and Indonesia



Emerging Asian economies are susceptible to natural disasters

Recorded occurrences of natural disasters in Emerging Asia, 1950-2018



There is scope to mitigate the impact of natural disasters further

■ Earthquake and Volcanic activity, LHS □ Flood, LHS ■ Storm, LHS ■ Others, LHS ◆ Total incidents per year, RHS



Source: EM-DAT & OECD Development Centre calculations using World Bank data.

The impact of natural disasters lingers and is hardly captured by economic data

Three-year average growth rates of selected variables after a natural disaster, based on principal component analysis (PCA) approach



Disaster risk management can benefit from "smart" approaches

Conventional vs. smart approaches to disaster risk management

| Aspect | Conventional approaches | Smart approaches | | |
|---------------------------------|--|--|--|--|
| Data availability and use | Manual formats Data usefulness is limited by timeliness and accuracy constraints | Digital formats Live or nearly live and widely shared data Effective and targeted early warning | | |
| Infrastructure | Employed as a substitute for ecological and social systems Defensive and not reflecting projected threats due to climate change Single-use design | Employed as a complement to ecological and social systems Adaptive, taking into consideration the effects of climate change Multi-purpose design | | |
| Institutions | Silos prevent data sharing Policies and actions are fragmented across sectors and organisations | Data is developed and used collaboratively Integrated and co-ordinated policies across sectors and organisations | | |
| Incentives | Short-term orientation | Long-term orientation | | |

Mitigating the risk of Fintech

| Country | Regulatory sandbox | Lending and capital raising | Data protection and cyber security |
|-------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Brunei Darussalam | Х | Х | Х |
| Cambodia | *1 | nci | *1 |
| China | *2 | Х | Х |
| India | *3 | Х | Х |
| Indonesia | Х | Х | Х |
| Lao PDR | nci | nci | Х |
| Malaysia | Х | Х | Х |
| Myanmar | nci | nci | *4 |
| Philippines | *5 | *5 | Х |
| Singapore | Х | Х | Х |
| Thailand | Х | Х | *6 |
| Viet Nam | *7 | *7 | Х |



Digital economy:

- Growth through Digitalisation (2018)
- Digital education (2020)
- Smart cities (2019)
ICT and Internet use have grown rapidly

Internet users in Emerging Asian countries, 2000-16

Percent of population



Greenfield FDI in ICT and electronics in Emerging Asia

Greenfield FDI in ICT and electronics as a share of manufacturing total, 2012-16 average



Source: OECD Development Centre calculations, using fDiMarkets (2017), fDiMarkets.

Information technologies change how firms operate...

Shares of firms with websites or using email to communicate with clients or suppliers, by sector



Shares of firms with websites or using email to communicate with clients or suppliers, by exporting activity



Source: World Bank (2017), Enterprise Surveys.

Use of digital technologies affects aggregate and firm productivity

Average TFP in manufacturing firms with ICT use as a percent of average TFP in firms without ICT use

Percent



Note: Average TFP in firms with websites and/or using email is presented as a percentage of the average TFP of firms using neither technology, so 100% represents no difference in the average productivity of these two groups. Cambodia and Lao PDR were excluded from this analysis because they contained too few (fewer than 100) observations with sufficient data.

Source: OECD Development Centre's calculations, using World Bank (2017), Enterprise Surveys, World Bank, Washington, D.C.

Firms need to make more effective use of ICT tools...

Diffusion of selected ICT tools and activities in enterprises, 2016

As a percentage of enterprises with ten or more employees



Source: OECD (2017), OECD Digital Economy Outlook OECD Publishing, Paris.

Trade and investment reforms may be needed to boost digitalisation

Policy restrictiveness in telecommunications and the proportion of telecommunications services embodied in gross exports, 2016

Embodied telecommunications services, %



DEVELOPMENT CENTRE

Source: OECD (2017), OECD Services Trade Restrictiveness Index, OECD, Paris; OECD (2017), OECD-WTO TiVA Database, OECD, Paris.

With digitalisation, e-commerce in Asia is seen to grow briskly...

E-commerce market revenue 2015-21



Source: OECD Development Centre's calculations based on data from Statista.

- In 2015, Emerging Asia accounted for an estimated USD 320 billion in e-commerce revenue (29% of the global total)
- By 2021, it is estimated that the region will account for USD 900 billion in e-commerce revenue (41% of the global total)





- Digital economy:
 - Growth through Digitalisation (2018)
 - Digital education (2020)
 - Smart cities (2019)

ICT jobs have expanded, but growth can be facilitated further

Employment in the ICT sector in Emerging Asia



Source: OECD Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India 2020.

There is a large policy scope to narrow the digital skills gap in Emerging Asia

Current and future skills demand and supply in three Emerging Asian countries – simulation



Source: OECD Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India 2020.

Emerging Asian countries face different, but related challenges in digital education

Country-specific challenges for digital education in Emerging Asia

| Countries | Digital education challenges | | |
|-------------------|--|--|--|
| ASEAN-5 countries | | | |
| Indonesia | Ensuring access to technology at schools across the country | | |
| Malaysia | Bridging the gap between ICT graduates and industry demands | | |
| Philippines | Providing schools with more ICT infrastructure and trained teachers | | |
| Thailand | Improving teachers' readiness for digital education | | |
| Viet Nam | Strengthening vocational education to meet demand for digital skills | | |
| Brunei Darussalam | | | |
| and Singapore | | | |
| Brunei Darussalam | Fostering teachers' capacity for ICT use in classrooms | | |
| Singapore | Strengthening teachers' belief in ICT use in the classroom | | |
| CLM countries | | | |
| Cambodia | Improving ICT infrastructure and power supplies for better access | | |
| Lao PDR | Increasing access to ICT tools for both teachers and students | | |
| Myanmar | Providing quality ICT to all schools | | |
| China and India | | | |
| China | Bridging the digital talent gap between demand and supply | | |
| India | Raising digital literacy through broader access to digital devices | | |

Source: OECD Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India 2020.

Bridging the socio-economic gap in digital access is a pressing issue

Socio-economic gap in digital access in schools, 2012



Note: The socio-economic gap in digital access in schools is defined as the difference in internet connection access between schools with students of high socio-economic background and schools with students of low socioeconomic background. The high and low socio-economic background schools are defined based on their students being part of the top quarter or bottom quarter of the PISA index of economic, social and cultural status (ESCS).

Source: OECD (2015b), Students, Computers and Learning: Making the Connection - OECD Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India 2020.

Appropriate technology use is vital in digital education; More is not always better

PISA 2015 performance and ICT use at school



▲ Second quartile

 \odot Third quartile

🔲 Top quartile

Students' mean scores in science by quartile of the index of ICT use at school



Source: OECD calculations based on OECD (2015c), PISA database 2015, http://www.oecd.org/pisa/data/2015database/; OECD Economic Outlook for

Appropriate technology use is vital in digital education; More is not always better

PISA 2015 performance and ICT use at school



Source: OECD calculations based on OECD (2015c), PISA database 2015, http://www.oecd.org/pisa/data/2015database/; OECD Economic Outlook for

Appropriate technology use is vital in digital education; More is not always better

PISA 2015 performance and ICT use at school



▲ Second quartile

○ Third quartile

Top quartile

Students' mean scores in reading by quartile of the index of ICT use at school



Source: OECD calculations based on OECD (2015c), PISA database 2015, http://www.oecd.org/pisa/data/2015database/; OECD Economic Outlook for

Teacher quality across education levels necessitates support

Vocational teachers with satisfactory computer skills in Viet Nam, 2017



Source: OECD Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India 2020.

There is scope to deepen the use of ICT in TVET programmes

Examples of initiatives on ICT use in TVET

| Countries | Initiatives | | |
|-------------------|---|--|--|
| Brunei Darussalam | Project 4C-Minecraft | | |
| Indonesia | Digital Simulation (mainly for all fields of studies in vocational secondary school) Course Development Plans for e-commerce and Industry 4.0 in vocational higher institution level | | |
| Malaysia | Internet of Things Expertise in Agriculture Diploma in Database Management System and Application Industrial Centre of Excellence for Integrated Welding Program | | |
| Philippines | National Technical Education Skills Development Plan 2018-22 | | |
| Singapore | Interactive Scenario-Based Learning Experience Project-Based Learning with Webinar Learning Through Filming | | |

Source: OECD Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India 2020.

Monitoring and supervision of lifelong learning initiatives can be improved

Change in adult learning participation rates in Emerging Asia since 2009



Source: OECD Southeast Asia Economic Outlook 2020.



OECD PISA score in Southeast Asia and OECD countries, 2015 Average for all students





- Digital economy:
 - Growth through Digitalisation (2018)
 - Digital education (2020)
 - Smart cities (2019)

ASEAN Smart Cities Network pilot cities

| countries | Cities |
|-------------------|---|
| Brunei Darussalam | Bandar Seri Begawan |
| Cambodia | Battambang, Phnom Penh, Siem Reap |
| Indonesia | Banyuwangi, DKI Jakarta, Makassar |
| Lao PDR | Luang Prabang, Vientiane |
| Malaysia | Johor Bahru, Kota Kinabalu, Kuala Lumpur, Kuching |
| Myanmar | Mandalay, Nay Pyi Taw, Yangon |
| Philippines | Cebu City, Davao City, Manila |
| Singapore | Singapore |
| Thailand | Bangkok, Chonburi, Phuket |
| Viet Nam | Da Nang, Ha Noi, Ho Chi Minh City |

Source: ASEAN Secretariat.



National strategies are in place

National-level smart city strategies in Emerging Asia

| Country | Name of strategy | Country | Name of strategy | Country | Name of strategy | Count ry | Name of strategy |
|--------------------------|---|-------------|---|----------------------|--|---------------------------|--|
| Brunei Darussala m | Wawasan Brunei 2035/Brunei Vision 2035 | Malaysia | 11th Malaysian Plan 2016 – 2020 | Thailand | Thailand 4.0 National Development Plan | China (<i>cont.</i>) | Opinions of the State Council on Improving Urban Planning |
| Cambodia | Strategic Plan 2018- 2023 | | Communication s and Multimedia Blueprint 2018- | | Plan for the Promotion of the Digital Economy 2018-2021 | | and Development Control |
| Camboula | Development Plan 2014 – 2018 | Myanmar | 2025* Myanmar Sustainable Development Plan 2018 – | Viet Nam China | Sustainable Smart City Development Plan 13th 5-Year Plan (2016-2020) | India | Smart Cities Mission |
| Indonesia | Movement to 100 Smart City | | 2030 | | Guidance on Promoting Healthy | | |
| Lao PDR | 8th Five-Year National | Philippines | Philippine Development Plan 2017 | | Smart City Development | | |
| | Socio-Economic Development Plan 2016 – 2020 | | 2022 | | New-Type Urbanisation Plan | | |
| | | Singapore | Smart Nation Initiative | | | | 58 |

Key features of smart city initiatives

| | Key features of the smart city strategies assessed |
|-----------|--|
| Country | Key Features of Smart City Initiatives |
| China | Significant scope of 500 cities as of 2017 – with pilots including large, medium and small cities as well as smart city clusters – that have been equipped with a range of technologies (e.g. smart transport, CCTV). Strong national-level engagement with corresponding financial support, but a lack of private sector financial contribution places a burden on public expenditure. |
| | While there is evidence of horizontal co-ordination across national ministries, a lack of vertical co-ordination limits subnational authority and financial autonomy. |
| India | Broad scope (targeting the development of 100 smart cities) with the establishment of urban- led special purpose vehicles intended to promote transparency in decision making. Strong national-level engagement with corresponding financial support as well as flexibility regarding how local government can secure financing: the local government must match the sum provided by the national government but may do so via PPPs, multi-lateral funding, user charges, or other taxes. |
| | The bottom-up approach requiring each city to establish its own smart city vision empowers local government with competences and autonomy; however, the lack of a national-level master plan may hamper co-ordination and lead to silo approaches to common issues. |
| Indonesia | Broad scope targeting the development of 100 smart cities. The bottom-up approach allows cities to propose strategies adapted to local context that are subsequently subject to assessment. The lack of clear national-level smart city criteria and objectives may hinder co-ordination and lead to the development of silo approaches to common issues. |

Key features of smart city initiatives

| | Key features of the smart city strategies assessed (cont.) |
|-----------|---|
| Country | Key Features of Smart City Initiatives |
| Malaysia | The lack of a national-level master smart city plan stands as an obstacle to the development of smart cities. A national-level smart services strategy identifies multi-stakeholder working groups that seek to promote multi-level co-ordination for the development and deployment of smart services but the participants and responsibilities of these working groups remain unclear. There appears to be a lack of vertical co-ordination concerning the involvement of local government in designing and implementing the smart services strategy. |
| Singapore | Comprehensive and advanced smart city initiative promoting a multi-stakeholder approach that accounts for key digital and socio-economic opportunities as well as challenges, including measures to boost cybersecurity, ensure data privacy and (re)train different segments of the population (e.g., displaced workers, low-income residents, students, the elderly). Co-ordination between ministries and agencies is promoted through the appointment of Chief Digital Strategy Officers and Chief Information Officers in order to share data and optimise co-ordinated decision making. Key performance indicators for digital government will assess a range of objectives such as stakeholder satisfaction, AI and data analytics. |
| Thailand | The lack of a national-level master smart city plan could slow development of smart cities. The current national development plan, Thailand 4.0, acknowledges the development of smart cities but has no explicit strategy per se, while Thailand's "Plan for the Promotion of the Digital Economy 2018-2021" details six smart city domains (economy, living, people governance, mobility and energy and environment) to be pursued. The range of themes covered in the six smart city domains reflects efforts to promote co-ordination and to limit silo approaches to common issues. The extent of multi-level co-ordination is unclear. |

Source: OECD Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India 2019-Update.





Note: Travel Time Index is defined as peak hour travel time divided by free-flow hour travel time, where 1=no congestion and higher values indicate worse traffic. In travel time figures, markers refer to average travel time at a specific hour in the day while the vertical bars represent the ranges of travel time. Traffic congestion data are based either on the entire specified road if possible or a selected representative segment of a specified road. Data are not necessarily comparable across the five areas shown above.

Source: OECD Development Centre calculations based on data from Google Maps (accessed on 24th September/2018).

Inefficiencies in urban transportation impose significant economic costs

Estimated annual hours spent in traffic congestion in selected cities, per person using motorised transportation

| | Hours lost per worker per year | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------|--|
| Jakarta, Indonesia | 124.8 | |
| Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia | 99.2 | |
| Manila, Philippines | 233.6 | |
| Singapore, Singapore | 89.6 | |
| Bangkok, Thailand | 208.0 | |
| Ho Chi Minh City, Viet Nam | 100.0 | |
| Beijing, China | 208.0 | |
| Shanghai, China | 264.0 | |
| Delhi, India | 76.8 | |
| Mumbai, India | 68.8 | |

Notes: Congestion costs were estimated using the average speed of motorised transportation and average trip length in selected cities to calculate average trip duration. This was compared with a counterfactual average trip duration if average motorised transport speeds were 30 km/h and average trips were of the same length. The difference between the actual average trip duration and the counterfactual was assumed to be the result of traffic congestion. Time spent in congestion per person per year was calculated assuming two trips per day and twenty trips per month. Source: OECD Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India 2019-Update.



Mass transport systems are catching up

Publicly accessible transportation modes in selected Emerging Asian cities

| City | Bus | Bus Rapid Transit | Metro and light rail |
|-----------------------------|--------------|----------------------|-------------------------|
| Bandar Seri Begawan, Brunei | \checkmark | | |
| Darussalam | | | |
| Phnom Penh, Cambodia | \checkmark | | |
| Jakarta, Indonesia* | \checkmark | \checkmark | |
| Vientiane, Lao PDR | \checkmark | | |
| Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia | \checkmark | | \checkmark |
| Yangon, Myanmar | \checkmark | | |
| Manila, the Philippines | \checkmark | | \checkmark |
| Singapore, Singapore | \checkmark | | \checkmark |
| Bangkok, Thailand | \checkmark | \checkmark | \checkmark |
| Hanoi, Viet Nam* | \checkmark | \checkmark | |
| Ho Chi Minh City, Viet Nam* | \checkmark | | |
| Beijing, China | \checkmark | \checkmark | \checkmark |
| Shanghai, China | \checkmark | | \checkmark |
| Delhi, India | \checkmark | | \checkmark |
| Mumbai, India | \checkmark | | \checkmark |

Note: (*) Metro or light rail system currently under construction.

Source: OECD Development Centre compilation, using national sources.

Traffic congestion policy options

- Infrastructure and mass transportation expansion and upgrade
- Price-based and non-price-based vehicle ownership and use policies (e.g. vehicle purchase tax, license quota, fuel tax, road rationing, road use charge and parking fee)
- Effective use of ICT and big data
- Flexible work arrangements
- Improving urban planning

Price-based and non-price-based policies need to be effectively used

| | Price-based | Non-price-based |
|----------------------|---|------------------------------------|
| Vehicle ownership | Vehicle purchase taxes Recurring taxes and charges | License quotas |
| Vehicle use | Fuel taxes and subsidies Road use pricing and parking fees | Road rationing |



Public transportation fares in selected Emerging Asian cities

| | All public transportation | | Mass | transit |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|--------------------------------------|--|
| 19 173 | Average 10-km fare (2007 USD PPP) | Cost as percentage of city GDP per capita | Average 10-km fare (2007 USD PPP) | Cost as percentage of city GDP per capita |
| Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia | 0.16 | 7 | 0.11 | - |
| Singapore, Singapore | 0.39 | 0.8% | 0.36 | 0.9% |
| Bangkok, Thailand | 0.65 | 2.7% | 0.76 | 2.7% |
| Hanoi, Viet <mark>N</mark> am | 0.05 | 12.0% | 5 | ē. |
| Ho Chi Minh City, Viet Nam | 0.05 | 2.4% | - | |
| Beijing, China | 0.16 | 0.7% | 0.15 | 0.8% |
| Shanghai, China | 0.28 | 1.1% | 0.24 | 1.2% |
| Delhi, India | 0.17 | 3.7% | 0.12 | 4.6% |
| Mumbai, India | 0.03 | - | 0.03 | ÷ |

Notes: Mass transit includes all public transit modes except for non-BRT buses. Costs are calculated as the average cost of 40 00 km trips per month. Source: World Bank (2014), Urban Transport Data Analysis Tool.





Percent of GDP



Source: OECD (2016), Database on Policy Instruments for the Environment.

Managing transportation demand through flexible working arrangements

Employees' working hours flexibility in European countries, 2015



Source: Eurofund (2018), European Working Conditions Survey (database).

Technological innovations in urban transportation systems

| City | Technology | |
|------------------------------|--|--|
| London, United Kingdom | The Smart Ride system has been introduced in 2018. The concept is a hybrid bus and taxi: the buses are on-demand, are small enough to navigate the smaller streets of the inner city and have bookable seats. It also has the option to change routes dynamically, based on data from users' GPS-enabled smartphones (OECD/ITF, 2018). | |
| Calgary, Canada | Citizens can make use of an app that shows real-time traffic information such as travel times and road closures, as well as giving access to traffic camera footage (City of Calgary, 2018). | |
| Gothenburg, Sweden | An integrated public transport service called UbiGo allows users to use all forms of public transport, car-sharing, rental care service, taxi and bicycle sharing with a single platform. A smartphone app is developed for the mobility service and users receive a single invoice (OECD/ITF, 2015). | |
| Auckland, New Zealand | Nearly all traffic signals at intersections have vehicle-actuated control using vehicle detectors. Based on real-time traffic, the phase length is adjusted continuously (Auckland Transport, 2015). | |
| Seoul, Korea | All expressways use Dedicated Short-Range Communication to automate settlement of tolls wirelessly (Chung, Choi and Yoon, 2018). | |

Welfare cost of pollution is substantial

Estimated additional urban mortality and welfare costs associated with elevated pollution levels

| Country | Additional deaths (thousands) | Welfare loss of pollution-related mortality (2015 USD millions) |
|---------------|----------------------------------|--|
| Cambodia | 1.3 | 237.6 |
| Indonesia | 28.9 | 17 094.3 |
| Lao PDR | 0.3 | 88.0 |
| Malaysia | 2.5 | 4 477.4 |
| Myanmar | 7.4 | 1 477.4 |
| Philippines | 15.7 | 9 585.5 |
| Singapore | 1.2 | 10 404.6 |
| Thailand | 11.3 | 11 129.4 |
| Viet Nam | 17.4 | 5 937.8 |
| China | 767.8 | 1 047 240.8 |
| India | 614.5 | 168 993.5 |
| Emerging Asia | 1 468.1 | 1 276 666.5 |

Notes: Areas with a population density of at least 1 500 people per square kilometre are defined as urban, following OECD (2013). This definition excludes data on Brunei Darussalam, where levels of fine particulate air pollution are relatively low. See Annex 3.A1 for data and methodology used in the estimations. Source: OECD Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India 2019-Update.

A number of Emerging Asian countries have national air quality standards

Emerging Asian countries with national air quality standards, by pollutant

| | Fine particulate matter (PM _{2.5}) | Coarse particulate matter (PM ₁₀) | Ozone (O ₃) | Nitrogen dioxide (NO ₂) | Sulphur dioxide (SO ₂) |
|-------------------|---|--|-------------------------|--|------------------------------------|
| Brunei Darussalam | 30. S ¹ | | | | |
| Cambodia | | | 1 | ~ | 1 |
| Indonesia | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Lao PDR | | | | | |
| Malaysia | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Myanmar | | | | | |
| Philippines | | 1 | ~ | 1 | 1 |
| Singapore | 1 | 1 | ~ | 1 | 1 |
| Thailand | | 1 | ~ | 1 | 1 |
| Viet Nam | 1 | 1 | | | 1 |
| China | 1 | 1 | ~ | 1 | 1 |
| India | 1 | 1 | | Image: A second s | 1 |

Source: OECD Economic Outlook for Southeast Asia, China and India 2019-Update.

More developed Emerging Asian economies have enough air quality monitoring sites

Actual and prescribed number of air quality monitoring sites in selected Emerging Asian cities, 2014

| Country | Number of cities studied | Number of cities with at least the recommended number of sites | Total number of sites | Total recommended number of sites |
|-------------------|--------------------------------|--|-----------------------------|---|
| Brunei Darussalam | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Cambodia | 1 | 0 | 1 | 7 |
| Indonesia | 3 | 1 | 39 | 33 |
| Lao PDR | 1 | 0 | 0 | 4 |
| Philippines | 3 | 1 | 28 | 26 |
| Singapore | 1 | 1 | 15 | 13 |
| Thailand | 5 | 3 | 24 | 19 |
| Viet Nam | 2 | 0 | 10 | 25 |
| China | 9 | 9 | 199 | 124 |
| India | 10 | 2 | 64 | 116 |

Source: ADB (2014), Improving Air Quality Monitoring in Asia: A Good Practice Guide.


Cleaner alternatives to private vehicle use are needed

Transportation energy use in selected Emerging Asian cities



Source: World Bank (2014), Urban Transport Data Analysis Tool.

Emerging Asian countries have relatively less stringent environmental policies

OECD Environmental Policy Stringency Index, 2015

0 (not stringent) to 6 (highest degree of stringency)



Source: OECD (2018a), OECD Environmental Policy Stringency Index.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ATTENTION

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