Chapter 3

Implication of the 2030 Agenda for the Istanbul Programme of Action

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3.1 Introduction

A strong argument can be made that the 2030 Agenda, captured in the 17 goals and 169 targets of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), provides an important opportunity to realise the work plan set out in the Istanbul Programme of Action (IPoA), by way of drawing synergies and establishing coherence between these two aspirational documents. Indeed, it is not an exaggeration to state that least developed countries (LDCs)—the most vulnerable among the developing countries—are likely to emerge as the battleground for implementation of the SDGs. As it happens, 2016 marks the beginning of the SDGs as well as the midpoint of the period of implementation of IPoA, which was geared towards helping the LDCs undertake a transformational journey over the period 2011–2020 (UN, 2011). Similarly, when the implementation period for IPoA approaches the finishing line in 2020, it will also likely be time for the first review of implementation of the SDGs. Also, the end period of the Programme of Action of the possible LDC V coincides with the end of the implementation period of the SDGs: 2030.

As may be recalled, the SDG declaration expressed strong support for implementation of IPoA (UNGA, 2015). Many of the SDG targets find resonance in the priority areas set out in IPoA and also in the envisaged actions implemented by various actors (LDCs, developed countries and joint efforts). It is from this vantage point that the two global commitments could be mutually reinforcing and complementary. Lack of progress in terms of implementing IPoA will also mean weak progress in attaining the SDGs. On the other hand, IPoA implementation will contribute to advancing the cause of the SDGs. Indeed, recently, Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) of the United Nations has also emphasised this issue (ECOSOC, 2016).

In view of the above, this chapter seeks to examine progress in a number of key common areas in IPoA and the SDGs over the period when IPoA was being implemented. This will also establish the benchmark for the SDGs. At the same time, the chapter takes a close look at developments concerning official development assistance (ODA) inflow to the LDCs and LDCs' exports to the world, which are defining factors in the realisation of both IPoA and the SDGs. As is known, developed countries have made specific and similar commitments as regards ODA and exports to support LDCs to attain both IPoA and SDG targets. The analyses presented in this chapter are based on 19 selected indicators covering areas of poverty, health, education, inequality, water and sanitation, investment opportunity, technology use, economic growth, trade and global partnership.[1]

3.2 Midterm review of IPoA implementation and benchmarking the 2030 Agenda for LDCs

3.2.1 LDCs experienced slowdown in a number of key target areas

GDP growth rates in the majority of LDCs declined during the first four years of IPoA. The IPoA envisaged an annual average growth rate of 7 per cent for the LDCs. During the earlier Brussels Programme of Action (BPoA) period (2001–2010),[2] the average GDP growth rate for the LDCs as a group was 5.9 per cent. During 2011–2014, the corresponding GDP growth rate had indeed declined to 5.1 per cent. Among the 44 LDCs for which data were available, only seven had reached or crossed the threshold of 7 per cent GDP growth. The progress of LDCs as a group slowed down in such areas as prevalence of undernourishment, maternal and child mortality rates and gender equality. On the other hand, LDCs as a group witnessed accelerated progress in terms of ensuring access to an improved water source and electricity.

3.2.2 LDC progress was uneven during the IPoA period

In half of the LDCs, the GDP growth rate accelerated during the first four years of IPoA (2011–2014) compared with the respective BPoA period averages. Indeed, in two LDCs, Central African Republic and Yemen, the GDP growth rate had declined in the reported IPoA period. In terms of other development indicators, a number of LDCs were able to make notable progress. Bhutan, for example, emerged as the best performer among LDCs in the areas concerning poverty, public expenditure on education, safe drinking water, access to electricity and internet usage. On the other hand, on the majority of the indicators, the progress of Madagascar had been slower compared with its LDC peers.

3.2.3 LDCs had disparate levels of success in different areas

An assessment of the trends in progress made by the LDCs in terms of the aforesaid selected areas shows that LDCs experienced a diverse range of success in the various action areas. For example, Malawi is one of the worst performers in terms of poverty reductions and prevalence of stunting; however, the country is one of the highest spenders on education among the LDCs. Similarly, Tuvalu is one of the star performers among LDCs on safe drinking water and child mortality; in contrast, its performance as regards gender equality has been less than satisfactory. It has also been observed that, in spite of policy priority, progress in certain areas has been limited. A case in point concerns the employment to population ratio in Bangladesh since the adoption of IPoA.[3]

3.2.4 The IPoA and SDGs are interlinked

It is worth noting that SDG-related targets in areas such as poverty, hunger, employment, health, water and sanitation, education, gender, inequalities, climate issues (including disaster risks), governance and global partnerships are closely interlinked with IPoA priority areas. In contrast, IPoA addresses those related to energy, technology and innovation, cities, consumption and production only partially. Only two goal areas—SDG 14 on 'life below water' and SDG 15 on 'life on land'—are new and go beyond IPoA priorities (Figure 3.1).

A number of SDG goal areas include crosscutting targets and correspond to multiple IPoA priority areas. These are SDG 1 on poverty (with IPoA 5 and 6), SDG 2 on hunger (with IPoA 2, 3, 4 and 5), SDG 8 on decent work and growth (with IPoA 3 and 5), SDG 10 on inequalities (with IPoA 3 and 7), SDG 11 on cities and communities (with IPoA 1, 5 and 6), SDG 12 on consumption and production (with IPoA 2 and 6), and SDG 17 on global partnerships (with IPoA 1, 3 and 7). SDG 3 on health, SDG 4 on education, SDG 5 on gender equality, SDG 6 on water and sanitation, SDG 7 on energy, SDG 9 on industry, technology and innovation, SDG 13 on climate action and SDG 16 on governance are similar to only one particular IPoA priority area each.

3.2.5 Not all LDCs will kick off SDG implementation from a single starting point

LDCs will commence implementation of the SDGs from a wide range of starting points. For example, in eradicating poverty by 2030, Bhutan will need to reduce its poverty rate from only 2.2 per cent (in 2012). For Madagascar, this will be an uphill task, given the poverty rate of 81.8 per cent (in 2010). Indeed, between 2001 and 2010, the poverty rate in Madagascar increased by 13 per cent. Similarly, with respect to eradicating hunger, Haiti will need to start from its undernourishment rate, which was 51.8 per cent (in 2013); for Gambia, the benchmark figure was 6 per cent (in 2013). As it appears from the current vantage point, for many LDCs, despite notable progress, it will be very difficult to achieve the envisaged SDG targets. For example, Sierra Leone reduced maternal deaths per 100,000 live births from 2,650 in 2000 to 1,360 in 2015. The corresponding figure for Vanuatu was 78 in 2015, which will give the country an edge in terms of attaining the SDG-related target in this area.

3.2.6 IPoA could help identify priority areas for LDCs in the SDGs

LDCs have limited productive capacities to tackle multidimensional poverty; they also have limited opportunities available for enhancing social services for disadvantaged groups. Agriculture plays a critical role in almost all LDCs, particularly from the perspective of providing employment and ensuring food security. Lack of adequate investment in physical infrastructure for agriculture, research and development, technology transfer and agricultural extension services is common in LDCs. Agriculture development has been, and is likely to be, adversely affected by the impact of climate change in a number of LDCs.

Many of the LDCs have made significant improvements in reducing maternal mortality, under-five child deaths and improving reproductive health. In contrast, a number of other LDCs have been lagging behind and have remained off-track in terms of achieving targets relating to child mortality and maternal health. Large imbalances exist between and within countries with respect to access to improved health care. Enrolment in primary education has improved in LDCs, while quality issues and

Figure 3.1 Synergies between the IPoA and SDGs

IPoA 1: Productive capacity (*Infrastructure, Energy, Science, technology and innovation, and Private sector development*)	SDG 7: Affordable and clean energy SDG 9: Industry, innovation and infrastructure SDG 11: Sustainable cities and communities SDG 17: Partnerships for the goals
IPoA 2: Agriculture, food security and rural development	SDG 2: Zero hunger SDG 12: Responsible consumption and production
IPoA 3: Trade	SDG 2: Zero hunger SDG 8: Decent work and economic growth SDG 10: Reduced inequalities SDG 17: Partnerships for the goals
IPoA 4: Commodities	SDG 2: Zero hunger
IPoA 5: Human and social development (*Education, Health, Youth, Shelter, Water and sanitation, Gender equality and Social protection*)	SDG 1: No poverty SDG 2: Zero hunger SDG 3: Good health and well-being SDG 4: Quality education SDG 5: Gender equality SDG 6: Clean water and sanitation SDG 8: Decent work and economic growth SDG 11: Sustainable cities and communities
IPoA 6: Multiple crises and other emerging challenges (*Economic shocks, Climate issues and DRR*)	SDG 1: No poverty SDG 11: Sustainable cities and communities SDG 12: Responsible consumption and production SDG 13: Climate action
IPoA 7: Mobilising financial resources (*DRM, ODA, External debt, FDI and Remittances*)	SDG 10: Reduced inequalities SDG 17: Partnerships for the goals
IPoA 8: Good governance	SDG 16: Peace, justice and strong institutions
Beyond IPoA	SDG 14: Life below water SDG 15: Life on land

Source: Authors' elaboration.

completion rates call for urgent attention. However, enrolment in secondary and tertiary levels needs significant improvement.

LDCs have achieved significant progress in terms of broadening coverage of safe drinking water and basic sanitation. However, several African LDCs are still struggling to lower the share of the population without access to safe drinking water. Several LDCs have made notable progress during the past decade with regard to enhancing access to basic energy, but a number of them have lagged behind in this respect. Lack of access to adequate physical infrastructure, electricity, transport, information and communication technology and water is common in most LDCs. Reliable and affordable infrastructure services, critical to attracting new investment and the envisaged structural transformation, are absent in most LDCs.

Many LDCs have attained commendable progress towards attaining gender equality in primary education. On the other hand, youth unemployment remains a matter of great concern. Gender equality and the empowerment of women are central to achieving inclusive growth and sustainable development across the board in LDCs. The IPoA document recognises that LDCs remained marginalised and continue to suffer from extreme poverty, inequality and structural weakness. It is to be recalled that IPoA addressed gender inequality and youth development and came up with dedicated actions to work on these areas.

IPoA did not talk of an action plan that focused particularly on reducing inequalities, as has been the case with the SDGs. Actions for the elderly, the disabled and the transgender population were not highlighted. Indeed, SDG targets related to reducing inequality are particularly relevant for the LDCs. Climatic phenomena disproportionately affect LDCs' socioeconomic development. LDCs have limited capacity to tackle climatic and natural disasters, hence the need for adequate and continuous support from developed communities. Many LDCs have to divert limited resources to address the consequences of these. IPoA mentions separate action areas concerning trade and commodities, and also for resource mobilisation.

In view of the above, we need to recognise that, without establishing good governance, it will not be possible for the LDCs to achieve both the SDGs and the IPoA targets. This is an issue the IPoA emphasises by specifying a dedicated action area; it is also given prominence in SDG 16. IPoA calls for a renewed and strengthened partnership for development based on mutual commitment and accountability between LDCs and development partners; SDG 17 has also highlighted this need. SDG 17 also includes a target related to making data available for measuring and monitoring progress, which will be challenging for LDCs (see Box 3.1 for details).

As may be recalled, the SDGs have provided individual countries the opportunity to adopt the 2030 Agenda based on their particular national situation and realities. However, it will be important for LDCs to avoid 'cherry picking' and to push themselves to pursue ambitious but pragmatic targets. One key aspect of the SDGs—'leave no one behind'—is a powerful driver of development that is participatory and based on shared prosperity. This will give IPoA implementation in LDCs a new dimension, whereby development is one of a more inclusive in nature.

Box 3.1 Data challenges confronting LDCs continue to be enormous

Data in LDCs are limited and irregular in many areas. Assessment of the IPoA and SDG achievements hinges on generating data and information. While the 2030 Agenda called for a 'data revolution' worldwide for monitoring global development goals and targets, data availability in LDCs remains inadequate.

This study used the 19 development indicators that are commonly available globally and that cover many of the areas prioritised in IPoA and the SDGs. Data relating to LDCs reveal that the situation was comparatively better for indicators concerning variables such as primary health, undernourishment, maternal health, water and sanitation, electricity access, macro variables and development aid (see Annex 3.1 for more details). However, consistent data were not available for many LDCs to measure progress over time as regards poverty, economic development and education, although LDCs' achievements, aggregately, were notable in these areas during the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) era.

A few LDCs (i.e. Cambodia, Bangladesh) have periodic comparable data in these areas. On a positive note, many LDCs, particularly African LDCs, have registered significant improvement in terms of data availability, thanks to new surveys conducted. However, there is a need for further improvement in this respect. Data are of very poor quality in LDCs as regards employment indicators. Finally, regarding new areas identified in the SDGs (such as consumption, production, sustainable cities, life under water, etc.), monitorable data are not available in most cases for most of the LDCs.

There is now a need for LDCs to undertake concerted efforts to address emerging data demands to monitor development indicators. First, LDCs must realise investment required to generate disaggregated data according to national priorities and needs. This will entail searching for committed funds towards this. Second, LDCs will need good-quality data more often and supplied in a user-friendly and timely manner, with easy access, for appropriate monitoring of developmental targets. Third, to widen data availability, a more methodical approach will be required as regards data generated by non-state actors, as well as for development and recognition of administrative records maintained by government institutions. Finally, strengthening of relevant institutions and development of a healthy data ecosystem are important for LDCs to address data challenges. Technically skilled and digitally endowed human capacity-building is required to strengthen national statistical organisations and relevant government entities. These initiatives will need to be reinforced by strengthened global partnerships to meet data needs in LDCs.

3.3 Leveraging ODA for SDGs and IPoA

3.3.1 While formulating the 2030 Agenda, the Addis Ababa Action Agenda (AAAA) recognised ODA as a multidimensional tool

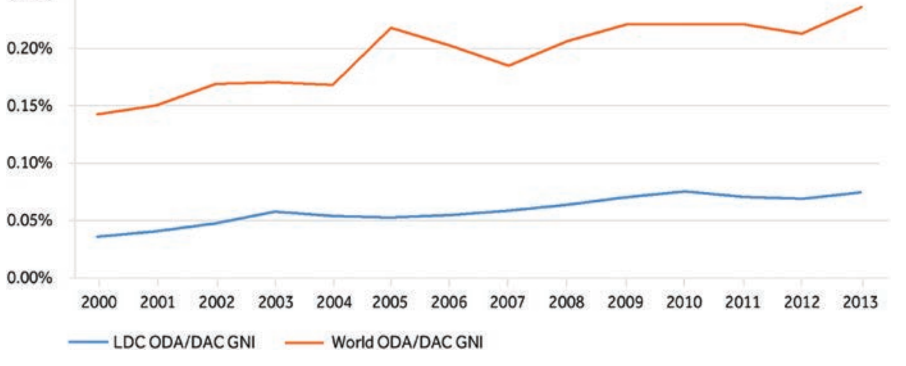
It may be recalled that, among the MDGs, implementation of the goal concerning global partnership (MDG 8) was the weakest. It is becoming increasingly important to make effective use of ODA, both in terms of reinforcing domestic efforts, and also to draw benefits from global cooperation. These relate to enhancing domestic resource mobilisation through capacity-building; development, dissemination, diffusion and transfer of environmentally sound technologies; and international cooperation and collaboration in science, research, technology and innovation. IPoA mentions specific actions for mobilisation of resources targeted at ensuring committed ODA flows by donor countries to LDCs.

However, in order to increase the resource flow for ODA, donor countries will have to raise public awareness in support of resource allocation, provide data on aid effectiveness and ensure tangible results. ODA then can also help catalyse additional resource mobilisation from other sources (public and private). Achieving sustainable development remains a crucial challenge for the LDCs, and ODA and other concessional finance geared towards implementing the SDGs will play an important role in implementing IPoA in specific areas.

3.3.2 While the volume of ODA flows to LDCs has increased, the share of LDCs as a group of total ODA has declined

As part of the AAAA, developed countries have pledged to reverse this trend. Developed countries have reaffirmed disbursing ODA equivalent to 0.7 per cent of their respective gross national income (GNI), and 0.15–0.20 per cent of GNI is to be targeted to the LDCs. This target was also included in the IPoA. Regrettably, net ODA as percentage of Development Assistance Committee (DAC) countries'

Figure 3.2 ODA inflow to LDCs



Source: Authors, using OECD/DAC database. Retrieved from: http://www.oecd.org/dac/stats/idsonline.htm (Accessed on 16 March 2016).

GNI increased from 0.14 per cent in 2000 to only 0.24 per cent in 2013 (Figure 3.2). During the same period, net ODA to LDCs as a percentage of DAC countries' GNI increased from 0.04 per cent to 0.07 per cent. Indeed, both the figures are well below the corresponding targets. During the IPoA implementation period, in 2013 net ODA as a percentage of DAC countries' GNI increased marginally to 0.24 per cent. However, the corresponding figure for LDCs remained stagnant at 0.07 per cent in 2013. As a result, the share of LDCs in total aid flow declined from 34 per cent in 2010 to 32 per cent in 2013. With little improvement in the trend of ODA inflow to LDCs, some countries are looking for additional support through South–South cooperation. The current scenario also indicates that, for implementing SDGs and IPoA, the LDCs will need to put increasingly more emphasis on domestic resource mobilisation—but raising the revenue and tax to GDP ratio by a significant margin will be challenging for many LDCs (ECOSOC, 2016).

3.3.3 Aid for Trade (AfT) also remained inadequate for LDCs

AAAA also committed to raising the proportion of AfT directed to the LDCs. It promised that enhanced technical assistance would be provided to landlocked developing countries, including to enable them to participate in trade negotiations. Indeed, the Enhanced Integrated Framework (EIF)[4] was set up to make AfT more effective. It may be recalled that the central objective of the EIF is to attain economic growth and reduce poverty through the mainstreaming of trade in the LDCs. Between 2010 and 2014, the volume of AfT to LDCs increased by only an insignificant amount (US$1.3 billion). Average AfT disbursement to LDCs was about US$10.2 billion during the first four years of IPoA. However, it is important to note that AfT commitments were never fully realised. Between 2002 and 2010, on an average, 70 per cent of AfT commitments were disbursed. During the reported IPoA implementation period (2011–2014), the corresponding figure was about the same (70.7 per cent). The commitment to the EIF over the next five years also falls short of what was hoped for.

3.3.4 LDCs' share in global exports has improved marginally

During 2000–2010, the LDCs experienced a rise in the share of total global merchandise exports from 0.54 per cent in 2000 to 0.97 per cent in 2010. In 2014, the figure further improved to 1.11 per cent. However, in the backdrop of this trend, it will be difficult for the LDCs to raise their share in global exports to 2 per cent by 2020, as committed to in IPoA and reiterated in the SDGs. It is also to be noted that the export earnings of many LDCs are highly dependent on commodity export prices, which tend to experience significant volatility. For these LDCs, in view of the prevailing low level of global commodity prices, it will become even more difficult to generate export earnings that can then be deployed to attain the IPoA and SDG targets.[5] In this context, greater and more meaningful market access and enhanced financial and technical assistance for LDCs have become more important. Indeed, to attain the aforesaid SDG target, it is important to implement market access commitment for LDCs in line with the Doha Development Agenda.[6]

3.4 Challenges in attaining the SDGs in LDCs

LDC decadal conferences and the SDGs provide an opportunity for an alignment of efforts in LDCs to attain common goals and aspirations. Indeed, the 2030 Agenda could be a powerful driver for attaining the key deliverables of IPoA in a number of ways. We might note that LDC IV (from midway) and the likely LDC V (fully) will coincide with the 2030 Agenda. The discussion above shows that some of the key milestones of both IPoA and the SDGs are closely aligned. The 2016 midterm review of IPoA is indeed a good opportunity to undertake an assessment of the likelihood of attaining the SDGs in the LDCs and to identify the new initiatives needed to address the gaps and deficits. In addition, in 2020 there will be an opportunity to design the work programme in the context of LDC V in a way that could align the targets of the two aspirational documents as well as their implementation.

When viewing from the current vantage point, it is important to recognise that successful implementation of the SDGs in the LDCs will face enormous challenges. These challenges may be summarised in six broad areas: (i) 'aligning' LDC decadal action plans with goals and targets of Agenda 2030; (ii) ensuring coherence in implementing initiatives in the context of IPoA and the SDGs; (iii) identifying specific areas in the context of the SDGs where more attention will be needed in view of implementing them in the LDCs; (iv) mobilising financial and other resources for implementation of IPoA and SDG measures in the LDCs; (v) addressing the data revolution in the LDCs to monitor progress of IPoA and the SDGs; and (vi) leveraging global partnership and actions undertaken by national stakeholders towards SDG implementation in order to achieve IPoA targets. Indeed, successful implementation of both the SDGs and IPoA will critically hinge on how LDCs and other relevant stakeholders are able to address the aforesaid challenging tasks.

3.5 Concluding remarks

The preceding sections reveal that, as the global community moves towards the midterm assessment of IPoA, the recently adopted Agenda 2030 offers a unique opportunity to take appropriate measures to ensure that the SDGs get implemented in countries likely to emerge as battlegrounds of SDG success or failure. The message that transpires from these discussions is that ensuring coherence, leveraging initiatives, drawing synergies, generating resources and coordinating various implementation measures will help in realising the ambitions of both the SDGs and IPoA in the particular context of the LDCs.

Notes

1 Suitable reference indicators are not readily available for areas such as commodity, governance and climate actions.
2 See UN (2001).
3 Bangladesh's employment to population ratio declined between 2010 (56.6 per cent) and 2015 (55.4 per cent).

4 The EIF covers 51 countries (48 LDCs plus Cape Verde, Maldives and Samoa) with the combined effort of 23 donors and eight partner agencies.
5 It needs to be conceded that a number of commodity-importing LDCs, such as Bangladesh, have benefitted from the lower level of commodity prices.
6 This commitment has been reaffirmed in both the IPoA and the SDGs.

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Annex 3.1: Data availability situation concerning selected indicators in LDCs

Indicator	Maximum number of data points during 2000 and 2015 (16 years) available	Countries with no data	Number of LDCs (out of 48 LDCs) reporting data in benchmark year/latest year*	Data availability situation
Goal 1: End poverty in all its form everywhere				
Poverty headcount ratio at US$1.90 a day (2011 PPP) (% of population)	7 years (Cambodia)	Afghanistan Equatorial Guinea Eritrea Myanmar Somalia South Sudan Tuvalu Yemen	8 (2012) 12 (2010) 6 (2000)	Below average
Government expenditure on education, total (% of GDP)	14 years (Togo)	Guinea-Bissau Haiti Myanmar Somalia South Sudan Tuvalu	15 (2013) 29 (2010) 30 (2000)	Average

Health expenditure, public (% of GDP)	15 years (Tuvalu)	Somalia	47 (2013) 47 (2010) 45 (2000)	Very good
Goal 2: End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture				
Prevalence of undernourishment (% of population)	14 years (38 LDCs)	No data for other 10 LDCs Bhutan Burundi Comoros Congo, DR Equatorial Guinea Eritrea Somalia South Sudan Sudan Tuvalu	38 (2013) 38 (2010) 38 (2000)	Very good
Prevalence of stunting, height for age (% of children under 5)	11 years (Bangladesh)	Kiribati	10 (2013) 17 (2010) 26 (2000)	Below average
Prevalence of severe wasting, weight for height (% of children under 5)	11 years (Bangladesh)	Kiribati	10 (2013) 17 (2010) 26 (2000)	Below average
Goal 3: Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages				
Maternal mortality ratio (modelled estimate, per 100,000 live births)	16 years (47 LDCs)	Tuvalu	28 (2013) 26 (2010) 25 (2000)	Very good
Maternal mortality ratio (national estimate, per 100,000 live births)	5 years (Bangladesh)	Angola	2 (2014) 6 (2013) 14 (2010) 8 (2000)	Below average
Mortality rate, under-5 (per 1,000 live births)	16 years (for all 48 LDCs)	None	48 (2015) 48 (2010) 48 (2000)	Very good
Goal 4: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all				
Literacy rate, youth total (% of people ages 15–24)	5 years (Senegal)	Djibouti Kiribati Solomon Islands Somalia Tuvalu	14 (2013) 8 (2010) 15 (2000)	Below average

Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls				
Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%)	16 years (22 LDCs)	None Minimum 6 years (Myanmar)	46 (2015) 44 (2010) 38 (2000)	Very good
Goal 6: Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all				
Improved water source (% of population with access)	16 years (44 LDCs)	None Minimum 12 years (Somalia)	47 (2015) 47 (2010) 45 (2000)	Very good
Goal 7: Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all				
Access to electricity (% of population)	3 years (all 48 LDCs)	None	48 (2012) 48 (2010) 48 (2000)	Very good
Goal 8: Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all				
GDP (constant 2005 US$)	15 years (40 LDCs)	Myanmar Somalia South Sudan	48 (2014) 48 (2010) 48 (2000)	Very good
Employment to population ratio, 15+, total (%) (national estimate)	9 years (Cambodia)	Angola Burundi Central African Republic Chad Comoros Equatorial Guinea Eritrea Guinea-Bissau Haiti Myanmar Somalia	8 (2013) 12 (2010) 5 (2000)	Below average
Goal 9: Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialisation and foster innovation				
Manufacturing, value added (% of GDP)	15 years (27 LDCs)	Equatorial Guinea Guinea-Bissau Haiti Liberia Mali Somalia South Sudan	29 (2014) 34 (2010) 38 (2000)	Very good
Mobile cellular subscriptions (per 100 people)	15 years (43 LDCs)	None Minimum 5 years (South Sudan)	48 (2014) 48 (2010) 46 (2000)	Very good

Goal 17: Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalise the global partnership for sustainable development

Net official development assistance received (current US$)	14 years (47 LDCs)	None Minimum 3 years (South Sudan)	48 (2013) 47 (2010) 47 (2000)	Very good
Internet users (per 100 people)	15 years (38 LDCs)	None Minimum 3 years (South Sudan) 8 years (Tuvalu)	47 (2014) 47 (2010) 44 (2000)	Very good
Merchandise exports (by the reporting economy)	15 years (43 LDCs)	Bhutan Eritrea Lesotho South Sudan Timor-Leste	43 (2014) 43 (2010) 43 (2000)	Very good

Source: Authors, using World Development Indicator data. Retrieved from: http://databank.worldbank.org/data/reports.aspx?source=world-development-indicators (Accessed on 14 March 2016).

Note: Data availability is ranked in the following order: below average, average and very good.

South Sudan gained independence from Sudan in 2011. For a few indicators, 2000 and 2010 data were extrapolated for South Sudan. In most other cases, 47 LDCs were considered for these two time points.