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STATE OF THE LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES 2016

Follow up of the Implementation of
the Istanbul Programme of Action for
the Least Developed Countries

SPECIAL THEME

Coherence and Synergies between
the IPoA and the 2030 Agenda

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FOREWORD

The United Nations Office of the High Representative for the Least Developed Countries, Landlocked Developing Countries and Small Island Developing States (UN-OHRLLS) is presenting the *State of the Least Developed Countries 2016* as part of its mandated analytical activities on the eight priority areas of the Istanbul Programme of Action (IPoA) for the Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2011-2020.

The current report builds on the first and second editions, which considered the issues of productive capacity building as well as extreme poverty eradication in the least developed countries (LDCs) and the post-2015 development agenda. These reports provided analysis relating to the inclusion of LDC issues in the 2030 Agenda for sustainable development. This year's report is dedicated to the implementation of the SDGs in LDCs using synergies with the IPoA.

Part 1 of the report assesses progress towards achieving the goals and targets of the Istanbul Programme of Action, particularly in the eight priority areas; reviews efforts towards this end; and identifies challenges ahead. National leadership and ownership play a critical role in accelerating progress in LDCs. In addition, the report argues that enhanced, coordinated and targeted support to the LDCs fulfilling ODA commitments but also going beyond, will remain critical to effectively implementing the Istanbul Programme of Action. The recently concluded midterm review of the IPoA reinforces the commitments by LDCs and development partners.

Part 2 of the report assesses the complementarities of the IPoA and the 2030 Agenda. It maps the goals, targets and actions of the IPoA with the SDGs, focusing on means of implementation. Furthermore it looks at how the implementation of the SDGs in LDCs can be fostered, including its mainstreaming and monitoring and follow-up. The conclusions and policy recommendations cover the findings in both parts of the report. As the report finds significant synergies between the IPoA and the Agenda 2030 it highlights the importance of leadership and political will and effective global partnership.

The report also contains comprehensive statistical data on the implementation of the IPoA.

It is my sincere hope that this report will be useful for policy formulation for full and effective implementation of the Istanbul Programme of Action – taking into account the outcome of its mid-term review in Antalya in May 2016 – as well as the 2030 Agenda.

Gyan Chandra Acharya

United Nations Under-Secretary-General and
High Representative for LDCs, LLDCs and SIDS

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ACRONYMS

A4AI	Alliance for Affordable Internet
AAAA	Addis Ababa Action Agenda
AfDB	African Development Bank
AfT	Aid for Trade
AGOA	African Growth and Opportunity Act
BDF	Bangladesh Development Forum
BPPS	Bureau for Policy and Programme Support
CCCR	*Cellule de Collecte et Centralisation des Recettes du pétrole*
CCR	Catastrophe Containment and Relief Trust
CETA	Comprehensive Economic and Trade Agreement
COP21	Paris Agreement on climate change / Twenty First Conference of Parties
CRW	Crisis Response Window
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
DFQF	Duty-free quota-free
EBA	"Everything but Arms" initiative
ECF	Extended Credit Facility
ECOSOC	Economic and Social Council
EIF	Enhanced Integrated Framework
EITI	Extractive Industry Transparency Initiative
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FDI	Foreign direct investment
FISP	Farm Input Subsidy Programme
GA	United Nations General Assembly
GCF	Green Climate Fund
GDP	Gross domestic product
GEF	Global Environment Facility
GNI	Gross national income
GPI	Gender Parity Index
HIPC	Heavily Indebted Poor Country Initiative
HIV/AIDS	Human immunodeficiency virus/acquired immunodeficiency syndrome
IBRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
ICT	Information, communication and technology
IDA	International Development Assistance
IIED	International Institute for Environment and Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IMR	Infant mortality rates
IP	Intellectual Property
IPoA	Istanbul Programme of Action
JCS	Bangladesh Joint Cooperation Strategy
LAPA	Local Action Plan for Adaptation
LCG	Local consultative group
LDCF	Least Developed Country Fund
LDCs	Least developed countries
MC10	10th Ministerial Conference of the WTO in December 2015
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MDRI	Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative
MIGA	Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency
MOI	Means of Implementation
MTR	Midterm Review
NAMA	Nationally Appropriate Mitigation Actions
NAPAs	National adaptation programmes of action
NTBs	Non-tariff barriers
ODA	Official development assistance
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PRGT	Poverty Reduction and Growth Trust
PRSPs	Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers
PSNP	Productive Safety Net Program
RCF	Rapid Credit Facility
ROO	Rules of origin
SACMEQ	Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SCF	Standby Credit Facility
SDGs	Sustainable development goals
SE4All	Sustainable Energy for All initiative
SIDS	Small island developing states
SNAENF	National literacy strategy and non-formal education
STEM	Science, technology, engineering and mathematics
STI	Science, technology and innovation
TPP	Trans-Pacific Partnership
TRIPS	Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights
TTIP	Transatlantic Trade and Investment Partnership
TVET	Technical and vocational education and training
UNCT	United Nations Country Team
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNESCWA	United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UN-Habitat	United Nations Human Settlements Programme
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNISDR	United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UN-OHRLLS	United Nations Office of the High Representative for the Least Developed Countries, Landlocked Developing Countries and Small Island Developing States
UNU-WIDER	United Nations University
WESP	World Economic Situation and Prospects
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organization
WIPO	World International Property Organization
WTO	World Trade Organization

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The first five years of the implementation of the Istanbul Programme of Action (IPoA) coincided with the last five years of the MDGs. The next five years will be the second half of the implementation of the IPoA and the first five years of the 2030 Agenda, which includes the SDGs. Thus, Part 1 of this report reviews the implementation of the IPoA so far while Part 2 discusses the synergies in the implementation of the IPoA and the 2030 Agenda in the coming five years.

Progress in the implementation of the Istanbul Programme of Action

Progress towards meeting the goals and targets of the IPoA has been mixed. Over the past five years, progress by the LDCs towards graduation from the category accelerated, with 10 LDCs currently in the graduation process. Furthermore, progress has been made towards several goals and targets. Extreme Poverty has seen consistent reduction in LDCs albeit slowly. Despite the progress, poverty levels in LDCs remained high on average, 51 per cent based on the latest data in the period 2001-2012. LDCs continue to face structural challenges of low productivity, low economic base, low development and multiple vulnerabilities. However, they are also making good progress in some of the important priority areas. For example, mobile cellular subscriptions almost doubled and access to clean water increased from 60 per cent in 2005 to 68 per cent in 2014. In addition, in child mortality and gender parity in primary education, LDCs made significant progress. By contrast, a majority of the LDCs did not meet most of the IPoA targets on human and social development, which were closely related to the MDGs, despite acceleration of efforts over the past five years. Challenges to the sustainable development of LDCs remain, with some new and increasing risks and uncertainties threatening their development gains, including lower and volatile commodity prices, major natural disasters, climate change impact and health epidemics like the Ebola outbreak in West Africa. LDCs are more vulnerable to such shocks due to high levels of poverty, limited fiscal space, limited capacity and export concentration.

A precondition for structural transformation in LDCs is the increase in productivity in agriculture, industry and services sector, which is crucial in eradicating poverty and hunger. Much more emphasis should be placed on agriculture and rural development where productivity is not improving and on which a large population is dependent for employment.

With respect to domestic resource mobilization in LDCs an upward trend can be observed. The ratio of government revenue to GDP, excluding grants, increased from 13 per cent in 2001-2010 to 16 per cent in 2014. Support for domestic resource mobilisation can leverage ODA significantly especially if it also addresses inequality. ODA to LDCs declined since 2011 and the average share of ODA to LDCs as a percentage of GNI of Development Assistance Committee (DAC) donors was only 0.09 per cent in 2014. While there has been an uptick in ODA going to LDCs in 2015, this trend should be ratcheted up and sustained going forward. Following very strong growth between 2005 and 2010, overall FDI flows to LDCs have remained broadly constant over the past five years, accounting for 2 per cent of world FDI.

Trade is an integral part of both the IPoA and the SDGs. However, since 2011 the share of LDC exports in total world trade has largely been stagnant at around 1.1 per cent.

The operationalization of a Technology Bank for LDCs is foreseen by the 2030 Agenda for 2017. The Technology Bank will help LDCs strengthen their national Science, Technology and Innovation (STI) and IT capacities and enhance access to technology in order to bring about rapid and transformative change in the lives of the people in LDCs. In order to support and expedite the process of establishing the Technology Bank, the United Nations Secretary General has recently appointed several leading STI experts to serve on the Governing Council of the Technology Bank.

Conclusions from Part 1 entail a set of recommendations on how to move forward:

- National leadership and ownership for the effective implementation of IPoA-integrated national development strategies will play a crucial role in ensuring rapid, equitable and sustainable development in LDCs.
- Development partners need to fulfil at the earliest their commitment to provide the equivalent of 0.15 - 0.2 per cent of their GNI as ODA to LDCs and uphold the principles of aid and development effectiveness.
- Increased investment support is needed for including adopting and implementing investment promotion regimes for LDCs.
- Much more focus on agriculture and rural development, together with productive capacity development across the sectors, is needed. A comprehensive support package, ranging from improvements in infrastructure to access to credit, insurance and technology should be provided to boost output and productivity.

- Another area where policies of LDCs need to focus more to achieve structural transformation is employment generation with targeted policies and programs where groups like youth and women need to be given special priority, as they remain the most potent agents of change.
- LDCs need to further build their national capacity to respond to various kinds of shocks – including through insurance and social protection measures – with support from development partners.
- The Midterm Review of the IPoA stressed that measures at both the national and international levels need to be enhanced to mitigate and manage risks and address the vulnerability of the least developed countries to various kinds of shocks and crises. The establishment of a dedicated mechanism for crisis mitigation should be explored further and the international community should continue to lend full support with appropriate instruments to overcome their recurrent and devastating vulnerabilities.
- In order to adapt to the effects of climate change, LDCs need financial support as well as access to technology, going beyond the means of implementation in the 2030 Agenda and the AAAA, being additional to ODA. Thus, relevant funds including the Green Climate Fund and the LDC Fund need to be financed adequately and allocated equitably with appropriate focus on LDCs.
- Full implementation of DFQF market access for all products from all LDCs, more beneficial rules of origin, reduction of Non-Tariff Barriers (NTBs), operationalization of the services waiver and implementation of the trade facilitation agreement are crucial. In addition, the share of Aid for Trade provided to LDCs should be increased.
- South-South and triangular cooperation need to be deepened and scaled up. This form of cooperation should be able to leverage more resources and investment and serve as a platform for peer learning. A more institutionalised contribution of South-South and triangular cooperation to LDCs including enhanced availability of information would be important to reflect the growing capacity of partner countries from the South.

Coherence and Synergies between the IPoA and the 2030 Agenda

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development focuses on all dimensions of sustainable development with a special focus on the least developed countries as the most vulnerable countries. The agenda is transformational and ambitious and puts a focus on equality under the headline “Leaving no one behind”, which implies giving priority to the LDCs. The SDGs provide a broad and integrated development framework and the 2030 Agenda aims to support the implementation of relevant strategies and programmes of action, including the IPoA. The challenges and priorities of LDCs are firmly embodied in the basic architecture of the 2030 Agenda.

In addition to the 2030 Agenda, there have been a number of other important international events in 2015 where LDC issues have drawn special attention. The Sendai Framework for disaster risk reduction, AAAA and the Paris Agreement are among those that have implications for implementation of the IPoA and the SDGs.

The second Part of this report maps the goals and targets of the IPoA to the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda. It focuses on the actions agreed in the IPoA and the means of implementation under each SDG as well as in goal 17, and how their implementation can be enhanced. The report thus gives special attention to the issue of coherence in the implementation, review and follow-up of the IPoA on the one hand and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the outcomes of other processes, on the other.

The IPoA has 47 goals and targets. In addition, LDCs committed to undertake 126 actions and development partners committed to implement 109 actions. LDCs and development partners will undertake 16 joint actions to implement the eight IPoA priority areas. Several of those goals and targets coincide with the SDGs, which address the root causes of poverty and the universal need for sustainable development. They seek to promote economic growth, structural transformation, environmental sustainability and human and social development, which are priority areas for LDCs.

The analysis of the mapping exercise shows that in relation to the LDC priorities as agreed in the IPoA, the global frameworks have many similarities. In fact, SDGs provide a global development framework and commitment to global partnership. The IPoA could be understood as the focussed priorities of LDCs going towards SDGs. There is a strong overlap between the IPoA and SDGs. In particular, in the areas of health, education, gender empowerment, poverty and hunger, energy, infrastructure as well as peace, justice and institutions, and means of implementation significant similarities exist. In some instances, differences occur at the level of specificity, deadlines for meeting some targets as well as actual thresholds to be achieved. For example the SDG target relating to commodities mainly focus on price volatility. However, the IPoA covers this priority in a more comprehensive manner by including the broadening of the LDC economic base in order to reduce commodity dependence, among others. Nevertheless, diversification in the context of the SDGs is covered in goal 9, which calls for promotion of inclusive and sustainable industrialisation and fostering innovation, among others. Overall, the findings in this section suggest that fully implementing the IPoA priorities on productive capacity as well as human development and building resilience will significantly contribute towards the achievement of the 2030 Agenda.

With respect to implementation, the principle of country ownership and leadership, which is contained in the IPoA as well as the 2030 Agenda, remains crucial in order to accelerate progress towards sustainable development. LDCs should take the lead in formulating, implementing, following up and reviewing their own coherent economic and development policies, strategies and plans.

Given the amplitude and scope of the SDGs, their implementation will require integration of global targets into national plans, ownership of the SDGs by all stakeholders, monitoring of targets and indicators with the help of real time data both at national and global levels, coordination among various agencies and departments of the government and the private sector, and effective partnership amongst all stakeholders.

In order to implement the 2030 Agenda, several LDCs have already started mainstreaming the SDGs into national development plans, including strategies on how to mobilize more external support. This mainstreaming needs to continue, building on mainstreaming experiences of the MDGs and the IPoA. In addition, there is a need to enhance institutional capacity in order to achieve integration of different dimensions of sustainable development across policies and to prioritize SDG targets. The report makes several suggestions in this regard, for example enhancing inter-ministerial coordination.

In order to achieve the universal SDGs, systemic issues also need to be better addressed as highlighted in the AAAA. These should include coherence of development policies with other areas, especially trade and finance. In addition, international tax cooperation and the fight against capital flight need to be enhanced.

The importance of monitoring and follow up at the national, regional and global levels – involving various stakeholders – has been stressed in the IPoA as well as in the 2030 Agenda. In this respect, it is important to align the monitoring processes as much as possible, so as to avoid duplication and excessive reporting burden on national systems. Capacity building for collecting and processing timely and accurate data as well as strengthening mutual and domestic accountability is especially critical in areas where the IPoA overlaps with the SDGs. More disaggregated data are needed in order to bring about transformative change in all regions and groups within LDCs – especially rural populations, women, youth, children and the disabled – and ensure that no one is left behind.

RÉSUMÉ

Les cinq premières années de la mise en œuvre du Programme d'action d'Istanbul (PAI) ont coïncidé avec les cinq dernières années de la réalisation des Objectifs du Millénaire pour le Développement (OMD). Les cinq prochaines années constitueront la deuxième moitié de la mise en œuvre du PAI et les cinq premières années de l'Agenda 2030, englobant les ODD. La Première partie du présent rapport examine la mise en œuvre du PAI, tandis que la seconde partie traite des synergies entre le PAI et l'Agenda 2030 pour les cinq prochaines années.

Les progrès réalisés dans la mise en œuvre du Programme d'Action d'Istanbul

Les progrès accomplis vers la réalisation des objectifs et cibles du le Programme d'Action d'Istanbul sont mitigés. Au cours de ces cinq dernières années, les progrès des Pays les Moins Développés (PMA) vers la sortie de cette catégorie se sont accélérés, avec 10 PMA étant actuellement engagés dans ce processus de sortie. Par ailleurs, des progrès ont également été effectués dans plusieurs domaines. L'extrême pauvreté a connu, à un rythme certes lent, une réduction constante dans les PMA. Malgré ces avancées, les taux de pauvreté des PMA sont restés élevés avec une moyenne de 51% selon les données les plus récentes couvrant la période de 2001 à 2012. Les PMA continuent à faire face aux défis structurels liés à une faible productivité, des structures économiques faibles, un développement faible et des multiples vulnérabilités. Cependant, ils ont également enregistré de nombreuses avancées dans certains domaines prioritaires. Par exemple, le nombre d'abonnements à la téléphonie mobile a presque doublé et l'accès à une source d'eau potable est passé de 60 pour cent en 2005 à 68 pour cent en 2014. De plus, dans les domaines de la mortalité infantile et de la parité dans l'éducation primaire, les PMA ont réalisés des progrès significatifs. Par contre, une majorité de PMA n'a pas pu atteindre les objectifs fixés dans les secteurs du développement humain et social étroitement liés à la réalisation des OMD et ce en dépit d'une intensification des efforts au cours de ces cinq dernières années. Plusieurs défis pour le développement durable des PMA demeurent donc, avec des incertitudes et risques nouveaux et croissants qui menacent les gains du développement, tels que la baisse et la volatilité des prix des matières premières, les catastrophes naturelles, l'impact du changement climatique et les épidémies sanitaires de type Ebola en Afrique de l'Ouest. Les PMA sont les plus vulnérables à ces chocs en raison des niveaux élevés de pauvreté, des ressources budgétaires faibles et des capacités industrielles et d'exportation limitées.

Une condition préalable à la transformation structurelle des PMA est l'augmentation de la productivité dans l'agriculture, l'industrie et les services, qui est cruciale pour éradiquer la faim et la pauvreté. L'accent devrait être mis sur l'agriculture et le développement rurale où la productivité ne s'est pas améliorée et dont une large population est dépendante comme source d'emplois.

Une tendance à la hausse peut être observée en ce qui concerne la mobilisation des ressources domestiques dans les PMA. Le ratio des recettes publiques sur le PIB, en excluant les dons, a augmenté de 13 pour cent entre 2001-2010 à 16 pour cent en 2014. L'appui à la mobilisation des ressources domestiques peut faciliter la mobilisation de l'Aide Publique au Développement (APD), surtout si cet appui est également orienté vers la réduction des inégalités. L'APD aux PMA a diminué depuis 2011 et la part moyenne du RNB des donateurs du Comité d'aide au développement (CAD) était seulement de 0,09 pour cent en 2014. Alors qu'une légère hausse de l'APD aux PMA a été constatée en 2015, cette tendance doit être intensifiée et soutenue à l'avenir. Après une très forte croissance entre 2005 et 2010, le flux global d'Investissements Directs à l'Etranger (IDE) vers les PMA est resté à peu près stable au cours de ces cinq dernières années, représentant 2 pour cent des IDE mondiaux.

Le commerce fait partie intégrante du PAI et des ODD. Cependant, depuis 2011, la part des exportations des PMA dans les échanges mondiaux a largement stagnée autour de 1,1 pour cent.

La mise en place d'une Banque de Technologies est prévue pour 2017 par l'Agenda 2030. Cette Banque de Technologies permettra aux PMA de renforcer leurs capacités nationales dans les domaines des sciences, des technologies et de l'innovation (STI) et les capacités dans les technologies de l'information(TI), d'améliorer l'accès à la technologie afin d'entrainer des changements rapides et profonds dans la vie des populations des PMA. Récemment et dans l'optique de soutenir et mener à bien le projet d'établissement de la Banque de Technologies, le Secrétaire Général des Nations Unies a nommé plusieurs experts réputés des STI pour siéger au Conseil d'administration de cette Banque.

Les conclusions de la première partie contiennent un ensemble de recommandations sur les moyens d'aller de l'avant :

- Le leadership national et l'appropriation interne dans la mise en œuvre effective des stratégies nationales de développement qui intègrent le PAI joueront un rôle clé dans la réalisation d'un développement rapide, équitable et durable dans les PMA.

- Les partenaires au développement sont incités à honorer leurs engagements au plus tôt et à consacrer l'équivalent de 0,15 à 0,2 pour cent de leur RNB à l'APD en faveur des PMA, ainsi qu'à faire respecter les principes de l'efficacité de l'aide et du développement.
- Un soutien accru à l'investissement est nécessaire pour la mise en œuvre et l'adoption des régimes de promotion des investissements en faveur des PMA.
- L'accent doit être mis sur l'agriculture et le développement rural, en plus du développement des capacités de production dans tous les secteurs. Un programme d'appui global allant de l'amélioration des infrastructures à l'accès au crédit, aux assurances et à la technologie devrait être fourni de sorte à stimuler la production et la productivité.
- Un autre domaine où les politiques nationales des PMA doivent être davantage tournées vers la réalisation de transformations structurelles est celui de la création d'emplois, et ce à travers des politiques et programmes axés sur la jeunesse et les femmes en tant qu'agents du changement.
- Les PMA doivent renforcer davantage leurs capacités nationales pour répondre aux différents types de chocs – à travers l'assurance et des mesures de protection sociale – avec l'appui des partenaires au développement.
- L'examen à mi-parcours du PAI a souligné que des mesures à la fois aux niveaux national et international doivent être renforcées pour atténuer et gérer les risques et remédier à la vulnérabilité des PMA aux chocs et crises multiples. La mise en place d'un mécanisme spécifique pour l'atténuation des crises devrait être explorée et la communauté internationale devrait continuer à soutenir pleinement les victimes de ces chocs avec des instruments appropriés pour les aider à surmonter leurs vulnérabilités récurrentes et dévastatrices.
- Afin de s'adapter aux changements climatiques, les PMA ont besoin d'un soutien financier pour les mécanismes d'adaptation aux effets du changement climatique, ainsi que l'accès à la technologie, allant au-delà des moyens de mise en œuvre de l'Agenda 2030 et du Programme d'Action d'Addis Abeba, s'ajoutant à l'APD. Ainsi, le Fonds Vert pour le climat et le Fonds pour les PMA doivent être financés de manière adéquate et répartis équitablement avec une attention centrée davantage sur les PMA.
- La mise en œuvre intégrale de l'accès au marché en franchise de droits et hors contingent pour tous les produits en provenance de tous les PMA, des règles d'origine plus avantageuses, la réduction des barrières non-tarifaires (BNT), l'opérationnalisation de la renonciation des services et la mise en œuvre de l'accord de facilitation des échanges sont cruciaux. En complément, la part de l'aide pour le commerce fournie aux PMA devrait être augmentée.
- La coopération Sud-Sud et triangulaire doit être approfondie et accélérée. Cette forme de coopération doit être en mesure d'entrainer plus de ressources et d'investissements et servir de plate-forme d'apprentissage par les pairs. Une contribution plus institutionnalisée de la coopération Sud-Sud et triangulaire avec les PMA couplée à une meilleure disponibilité de l'information serait important afin de refléter les capacités grandissantes des pays partenaires du Sud.

Cohérence et synergies entre le PAI et l'Agenda 2030

L'Agenda 2030 pour le Développement Durable aborde toutes les dimensions du développement durable avec un accent particulier sur les pays les moins avancés et les plus vulnérables. Le programme est transformationnel et ambitieux et met l'accent sur l'égalité sous le titre "ne laisser personne de côté", qui sous-entend accorder une priorité aux PMA. Les ODD fournissent un cadre de développement large et intégrée et l'Agenda 2030 vise à soutenir la mise en œuvre des stratégies et programmes d'action pertinents, y compris le PAI. Les défis et les priorités des PMA sont incarnés dans l'architecture fondatrice de l'Agenda 2030.

En complément de l'Agenda 2030, il y a eu de nombreux événements internationaux importants au cours desquels les questions relatives aux PMA ont suscité une attention particulière. Le Cadre d'Action de Sendai pour la réduction des risques de catastrophe, le Programme d'Action d'Addis Abeba et l'Accord de Paris sont parmi ceux qui ont des implications sérieuses dans la mise en œuvre du PAI et les ODD.

La deuxième partie de ce rapport cartographie les objectifs et les cibles du PAI dans l'Agenda du Développement Durable pour 2030. Il se concentre sur les actions convenues dans le PAI et les moyens de mise en œuvre de chaque ODD ainsi que dans la cible 17, et sur la manière dont leur mise en œuvre peut être améliorée. Le rapport accorde donc une attention particulière à la cohérence dans la mise en œuvre, l'examen et le suivi du PAI d'une part et de l'Agenda 2030 pour le développement durable et les résultats de ces processus, d'autre part.

Le PAI comprend 47 objectifs et cibles. Par ailleurs, les PMA se sont engagés à entreprendre 126 actions et les partenaires au développement ont annoncés la mise en œuvre de 109 actions. Les PMA et leurs partenaires au développement vont entreprendre 16 actions conjointes pour mettre en place les huit domaines prioritaires du PAI. Plusieurs de ces objectifs et cibles correspondent d'ailleurs avec les ODD, qui cernent les causes profondes de la pauvreté et de la nécessité pour un développement durable global. Ils cherchent à promouvoir la croissance économique, la transformation structurelle, la durabilité environnementale et le développement humain et social, qui sont des domaines prioritaires pour les PMA.

L'analyse de l'exercice de cartographie montre que les cadres d'action globaux présentent en effet de nombreuses similitudes par rapport aux priorités des PMA figurant dans le PAI. En effet, les ODD fournissent un cadre de développement global et la souscription à un partenariat mondial. Le PAI peut être compris comme un ensemble de priorités des PMA vers les ODD. Il existe un chevauchement important entre le PAI et les ODD, en particulier dans les domaines de la santé, de l'éducation, de l'autonomisation des femmes, de la pauvreté et de la faim, de l'énergie, des infrastructures ainsi que de la paix, de la justice et des institutions, dont les mécanismes de mise en œuvre particuliers sont similaires. Dans certains cas, des différences sont observés aux niveaux des spécificités, des délais impartis pour atteindre les cibles ainsi que des seuils à atteindre. Par exemple la cible des ODD relative aux matières premières se concentre principalement sur la volatilité des prix. Cependant, le PAI couvre cette priorité d'une manière plus globale pour inclure, entre autres, l'élargissement de la base économique des PMA afin de réduire la dépendance aux matières premières. Néanmoins, la diversification dans le contexte des ODD est traitée dans la cible 9, qui appelle à la promotion de l'industrialisation inclusive et durable et la favorisation de l'innovation. Dans l'ensemble, les conclusions de cette section suggèrent que la mise en œuvre intégrale des priorités du PAI sur la capacité de production, ainsi que le développement humain et le renforcement de la capacité de résilience contribuera de manière significative à la réalisation de l'Agenda 2030.

En ce qui concerne la mise en œuvre, le principe de l'appropriation par le pays et du leadership national, contenu dans le PAI ainsi que dans l'Agenda 2030, reste cruciale pour l'accélération des progrès vers le développement durable. Les PMA doivent prendre l'initiative dans la formulation, la mise en œuvre, le suivi et l'examen de leurs propres politiques, stratégies et plans de développement économique.

Compte tenu de l'amplitude et la portée des ODD, leur mise en œuvre nécessitera l'intégration de cibles globales dans des plans nationaux, l'appropriation nationale des ODD par toutes les parties prenantes, le suivi des objectifs et des indicateurs à l'aide de données en temps réel à la fois aux niveaux national et international, la coordination entre les divers organismes et ministères des gouvernements et du secteur privé, et un partenariat efficace entre tous les parties prenantes.

Dans l'optique de la mise en œuvre de l'Agenda 2030, plusieurs PMA ont déjà commencé à intégrer les ODD dans des plans nationaux de développement, y compris dans les stratégies visant à mobiliser plus de soutiens extérieures. Cette intégration doit être renforcée et basée sur des leçons d'intégration apprises des OMD et du PAI. En outre, il est nécessaire de renforcer les capacités institutionnelles afin de parvenir à intégrer les différentes dimensions du développement durable dans les politiques et de donner la priorité aux cibles des ODD. Le rapport propose plusieurs suggestions à cet égard, telles que l'amélioration de la coordination interministérielle.

Afin d'atteindre les ODD mondiaux, les problèmes systémiques doivent également être mieux traités comme le souligne le Programme d'Action d'Addis Abeba. Ces mesures doivent inclure la cohérence entre les politiques de développement et d'autres domaines, en particulier le commerce et les finances. En plus, la coopération fiscale internationale et la lutte contre les fuites de capitaux doivent être renforcées.

Les mécanismes de surveillance et de suivi aux niveaux national, régional et mondial – et impliquant diverses parties prenantes – restent primordiaux comme cela a été souligné dans le PAI, ainsi que dans l'Agenda 2030. À cet égard, il est important d'aligner les processus de surveillance autant que possible, afin d'éviter des duplications et un fardeau excessif de compte rendu sur les systèmes nationaux. Le renforcement des capacités de collecte et de traitement des données pertinentes et précises, ainsi que le renforcement de la responsabilité mutuelle et domestique est particulièrement critique dans les zones où il existe un chevauchement entre le PAI et les ODD. Des données plus désagrégées sont nécessaires afin d'apporter des changements et transformations dans toutes les régions et groupes au sein des PMA – en particulier les populations rurales, les femmes, les jeunes, les enfants et les personnes handicapées – et veiller à ce que personne ne soit laissé de côté.

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PART 1

PROGRESS IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE ISTANBUL PROGRAMME OF ACTION

1. INTRODUCTION

The Istanbul Programme of Action (IPoA) for the Least Developed Countries (LDCs) for the decade 2011-2020 was adopted at the Fourth United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries in May 2011. It constitutes a global compact supporting the development of the world's most vulnerable countries. Eight priority areas of action aim at overcoming the structural challenges faced by these countries, eradicating poverty, achieving internationally agreed development goals and enabling half the countries to meet the criteria for graduation from the LDC category. Each area contains commitments by both the LDCs and their development partners, and a set of goals and targets.

The second part of the decade 2011-2020 constitutes both the last five years of the implementation period for the IPoA and the first five years of the implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, including the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The year 2016 is therefore a critical time for assessing both progress and gaps from the perspective of the LDCs in terms of their achievement of the targets of the IPoA as well as other internationally agreed development goals.

The comprehensive Midterm Review, which was held in May 2016 in Antalya Turkey, was an important milestone in the review and monitoring of the IPoA. It stressed that the implementation of the agreed actions needs to be accelerated in order to meet the goals and targets, with a special focus on resilience building and means of implementation, including investment promotion and support for science and technology. The MTR also reiterated a strong commitment by the international community to give special attention to LDCs in the implementation of the 2030 Agenda.

In this context the concrete opportunities and challenges of LDCs in the implementation of the international agreements and especially the SDGs need to be explored in order to ensure coherence and synergies between the different agendas. The overall goal of the report, therefore, is to take stock of progress made and challenges encountered in the first five years of the IPoA's implementation, as well as to look forward to where it needs to be scaled up and how synergies with the new agendas of 2015 – the 2030 Agenda, the SDGs, the Addis Ababa Action Agenda (AAAA), and the Paris Agreement on climate change (COP 21) – can be enhanced.

Part 1 of the *State of the Least Developed Countries 2016* surveys the overall progress made by LDCs under the eight priority areas of the IPoA over the first five years of implementation, noting both successes and challenges encountered in the process. The analysis reviews efforts towards the goals and targets of the IPoA; draws lessons learned from an analysis of actions taken by the various stakeholders; identifies challenges ahead; and proposes some recommendations for further implementation. It examines how continued, coordinated and targeted support to the LDCs in all areas of international development cooperation can contribute to the effective implementation of the IPoA and unlocking of the LDCs' immense growth and development potential. Furthermore it assesses the accelerated progress towards graduation and smooth transition.

Part 2 of the report maps the goals and targets of the IPoA to the new Global Development Agenda, especially the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, focusing on the actions agreed in the IPoA and the means of implementation in the 2030 Agenda under each SDG as well as in Goal 17 and how their implementation can be enhanced. This part of the report thus gives special attention to the issue of coherence in the implementation, review and follow-up of the IPoA on the one hand and the 2030 Agenda and the outcomes of other processes, on the other.

Furthermore, Part 2 takes into account the Addis Ababa Action Agenda and the outcome of COP 21, including the announcement of several LDC-related measures, and their potential impact on accelerating progress towards meeting both the IPoA and global targets in LDCs. Specific new initiatives for LDCs like a Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) supporting mechanism, provisions for LDCs to enhance crisis mitigation and resilience building, and access to funding for climate change adaptation and mitigation are highlighted.

Both parts will be followed by conclusions and recommendations. Finally, comprehensive statistical data on the implementation of the IPoA are presented in the Statistical Annex at the end of the report.

2. RECENT ECONOMIC PERFORMANCE AND NEAR-TERM PROSPECTS

The growth rate of LDC economies dipped in 2011 to 3.7 per cent due to lingering effects of the economic and financial crisis, but recovered in the following three years to more than 5 per cent annually (please see Figure A1 in the Appendix, p.27). Aggregate gross domestic product (GDP) for the group is estimated to have grown at 4.5 per cent in 2015, with 5.6 per cent growth forecast for 2016-2017.

Although displaying an overall positive trend and growing faster than both developed countries and developing countries as a whole, this performance (an average annual growth of 4.9 per cent) is below that of 2001-2010, when aggregate GDP in LDCs rose by more than 6 per cent annually (and exceeded 7 per cent between the years 2004 and 2008). This is especially important given the low economic base from which LDCs have started.

The number of LDCs which grew at an annual rate of 7 per cent or more, the target set in the Istanbul Programme of Action (as well as in Sustainable Development Goal 8), declined in recent years, from 14 and 16 in 2011 and 2012, respectively (and an average of 15 in 2001-2010) to 11 in 2013 and 8 in 2014, suggesting an unevenly distributed recovery.

Overall, the limited economic progress observed in LDCs was due to several factors at the global, regional and domestic levels. Globally, these included weakening export demand from emerging economies, fiscal consolidation in many developed countries, decreasing commodity prices and net capital outflows from LDCs. Combined with volatile flows of Official Development Assistance (ODA) and investment to LDCs, these factors have reduced domestic demand and economic growth. At the regional and local levels, growing regional insecurity, protracted conflict, natural disasters and weather-driven supply shocks, especially in agriculture, hampered economic activity in some LDCs. The cost of the Ebola epidemic in West Africa is estimated to have been at least US$1.6 billion or 12 per cent of GDP in 2015 in forgone economic growth (World Bank Press Release 2015).

The aggregate rate of GDP growth for the 48 LDCs masks wide differences in growth performance among countries. Seven LDCs displayed a stable path of high growth rates from 2011 to 2015 (with the trend forecast to continue in 2016-2017), while at the other end of the spectrum, seven other LDCs registered very low or even negative growth rates over the period.

However, the growth rate of total output (GDP) is not a sufficient measure to appraise progress in LDCs. A more relevant indicator for the average standard of living in a country is GDP per capita. As LDC populations have grown at around 2.5 per cent per year in the past decades, the growth rate of per capita GDP is thus correspondingly lower than the growth rate of GDP. As a result, LDCs' per capita GDP was only US$952 (in current prices) in 2014 (up from US$750 in 2010), compared with US$4,290 for all developing countries.

In 2015, the population of LDCs was 954 million—13 per cent of the world's total. This share will increase until 2050, when 20 per cent of the world's population will live in LDCs. The population in LDCs is expected to double between 2010 and 2050. In the same time period, the total world population is expected to grow by only 33 per cent.

The proportion of people living in poverty remained high on average, 51 per cent based on the latest data in the period 2001-2012.[1] For the 25 LDC which have more than one data point on poverty since 2000, 20 have registered a reduction in poverty between 2000-2009 and 2010-2012. In addition to the overall poverty rate, the proportion of the working poor in LDC decreased from 47.8 per cent in 2010 to 38.9 per cent in 2015 (ILO forthcoming), and the share of vulnerable employment (which includes own-account workers and unpaid family workers) slightly decreased from 77.6 per cent to 75.6 per cent over the same period, which is still extremely high.

Underemployment was also common in LDCs, with nearly 20 per cent of all employment occurring for less than 20 hours a week, and 40 per cent for less than 35 hours a week. Furthermore, informal employment is the norm in LDCs, with only 6 per cent of all workers in LDCs worked under a permanent contract 2015 (covered by labour laws and social protection). The corresponding figure was 14 per cent in other developing countries.

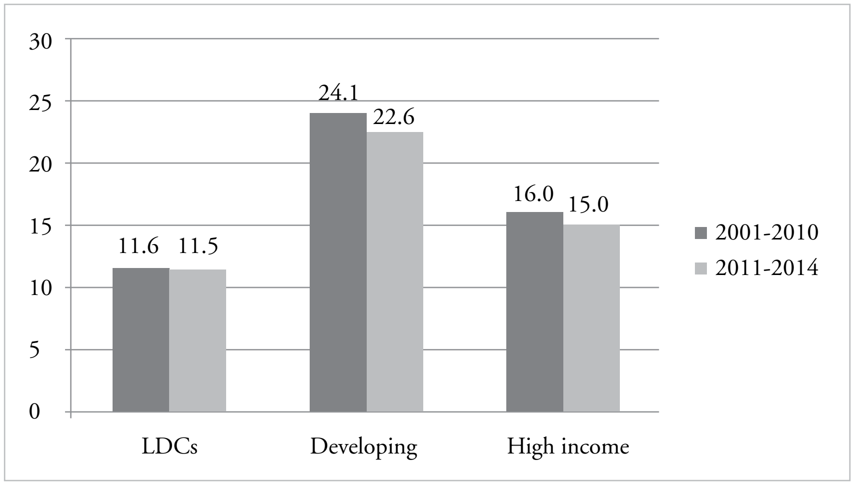
3. PROGRESS ON IMPLEMENTING KEY PRIORITES OF THE ISTANBUL PROGRAMME OF ACTION

3.1 Productive capacity building

Addressing the disadvantages of the LDCs and helping them embark on a path towards sustainable growth and the reduction of extreme poverty requires major progress across all eight priority areas of the Istanbul Programme of Action. An overarching challenge has been limited structural transformation, since changes in the sectoral composition of GDP and technological content and innovation in productivity have been much slower in most LDCs than in other developing countries, indicating obstacles to structural transformation. The share of manufacturing in LDCs remained stable, around 11.5 per cent during the period 2011-2014 as compared with 2001-2010 (see Figure 1).

[1] As of October 2015, the new global poverty line has been updated to US$1.90 using 2011 Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) information from the latest round of the International Comparison Programme (ICP).

Figure 1. Manufacturing, value added (per cent of GDP)

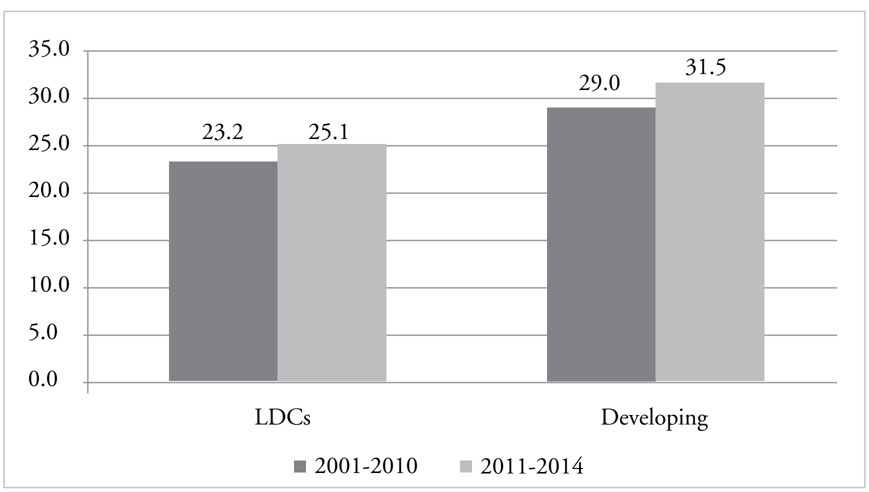


Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators database as of 22 February 2016.

The transition of leading developing countries (especially China) from low skilled, labour-intensive manufacturing industries towards services as well as higher-technology and more capital-intense manufacturing presents an opportunity for LDCs to absorb the estimated 85 million labour-intensive manufacturing jobs which will be freed up as a result. This would require decisive policies to "implement economically viable growth strategies, those that rely on the benefits of their comparative advantage at any given level of development" (Lin 2012).

A major hindrance to building productive capacity across the LDCs has been low investment rates combined with institutional bottlenecks, limited human resource development and lack of infrastructure. Gross capital formation as a percentage of GDP rose only modestly, from an average of 23.2 per cent in 2001-2010 to 25.1 per cent in 2011-2014. This is low compared to other developing countries as shown in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2. Gross capital formation as per cent of GDP



Source: SG Report and World Bank, World Development Indicators database as of 22 February 2016.

3.1.1 Infrastructure

The Istanbul Programme of Action recognized the overall importance of infrastructure for the development of LDCs as essential for putting existing assets and enterprises into productive use, and promoting economic development and regional integration. While LDCs have made progress in some aspects of infrastructure development, other areas remain seriously weak and hamper efforts to accelerate progress towards meeting other targets in the IPoA.

Information and communication technology

LDCs continued to make progress in terms of the share of people having access to information and communication technologies (ICT) between 2011 and 2014. Mobile cellular subscriptions increased fastest from 33 per 100 people in 2010 to 63 in 2014 (see Figure A2), with Angola, Cambodia, the Gambia, Lesotho and Mali reaching penetration rates above 100 per cent. However, between 2013 and 2014, Haiti, Malawi, Mauritania, South Sudan, the Sudan and Yemen saw a slight decline. Even in countries that did relatively well, significant rural-urban disparities need to be bridged.

The number of Internet users per 100 people almost doubled, from 4.4 per cent in 2010 to 8.6 per cent in 2014, with progress in almost all LDCs. Overall, Bhutan had the highest rate, with 34.4 per cent in 2014, followed by the Sudan, Sao Tome and Principe, Yemen and Angola, all with at least 20 per cent. In several Eastern and Central African countries and in Myanmar and Timor-Leste, low one-digit rates persisted. High access costs contributed to low rates of access to the internet in LDCs.

Low use of the Internet overlaps with sub-par services and high access costs. In many LDCs, very few of those who use the Internet, have high-speed services. Access to fixed broadband subscriptions remained marginal in LDCs, averaging 0.43 per 100 people in 2014, compared with 3.8 in developing countries as a whole, and 28.0 in high-income countries.

A recent report by the Alliance for Affordable Internet (A4AI) estimates that if current trends persist, the SDG target 9.c of affordable universal (defined as at least 90 per cent penetration) internet access in LDCs by 2020 will be missed by 22 years, due to the high cost of connectivity. Furthermore, a recent World Bank report revealed that “benefits of rapid digital expansion had been skewed towards the better-off and the more highly skilled, who were better able to take advantage of the new technologies” (World Bank 2016). In order for ‘digital dividends’ to benefit society more broadly, there is need for improving countries’ business climate, education, health and good governance.

Railways

In recent years, renewed investments in railway connections – both within LDCs and between LDCs and neighbouring countries – have been made, often in cooperation with other developing countries. The role of South-South cooperation in this context is crucial, as demonstrated by several large railway projects currently under construction to connect China, Lao People’s Democratic Republic and Myanmar. Other railways under way will connect two landlocked countries – Burkina Faso and Niger – with Côte d’Ivoire, their main transit country, as well as the Northern Corridor Transit Agreement to connect Burundi, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Kenya, Rwanda, South Sudan and Uganda.

However, there are many shortfalls in railway networks of many LDCs, including underinvestment, lack of sufficient regulatory institutions, and missing links which undermine the efficiency of the systems.

Roads

Road density in LDCs remains at a much lower level than in other developing countries, despite evidence that public investment in rural roads would have a large positive impact on transformation in the lives of the rural people, such as educational opportunities, better access to health services and agricultural productivity. Starkey and Hine (2014) provide examples of significant social and economic benefits in Ethiopia, Nepal and Uganda from upgrading footpaths to motorable roads. Investments in initial connectivity through rural roads has also resulted in greater school enrolment (in Bangladesh and Ethiopia) as well as improved staffing at village-level primary schools (in Zambia). The improvement of roads (as well as railway and communication) networks in Angola has reduced delays and transaction costs, increasing connectivity. In spite of these benefits, paved roads constituted only 20.9 per cent of total roads in LDCs in 2011 (up from 19 per cent in 2005), compared to 37.9 per cent in developing countries and 83.7 per cent in high-income countries.

The paucity of paved roads in LDCs has several negative impacts on their economies, including limiting internal, regional and international trade, reducing competitiveness, and raising transport costs. Some national and regional initiatives have attempted to improve and extend road networks in LDCs, including the Asia Highway Network, the Trans-African Highway, and a pan-African project to connect many small roads to the continental highway network.

In addition to the need for physical investment in new roads and maintenance of existing road networks, LDCs need robust road safety measures and stronger institutional regulations and greater funding for roads, possibly supplementing ODA by private-public partnerships and innovative financing.

Air transport

Despite its potential – especially for the 17 landlocked LDCs – the level of air traffic in the LDCs, both in passenger flows and the volume of freight, is on average well below that of other developing countries. While the share of air freight of LDCs in world transport has almost doubled, from 0.47 per cent in 2010 to 0.81 per cent in 2014 (compared to developing countries which accounted for 20.4 per cent of world air freight in 2014), most of the increase was driven by Ethiopia and Bangladesh. The number of passengers carried per 1,000 people also increased somewhat in LDCs to 28.3 in 2014, although that is still very much below the 197.4 per 1,000 in developing countries (the data on passengers carried is shown on the right axis in Figure A3).

The obstacles to increased air traffic include the high prices and therefore low demand for air transport, limited domestic competition, and high taxes as well as user-fees for infrastructure.

One success story has been the role of air transport in the growth of the Ethiopian flower industry. The government made state-owned land near the airport affordable for flower farms, reducing the cost of transportation and facilitating market entry, while also coordinating between flower exporters and the national airlines, resulting in 87 per cent of firms using them for transporting their goods. The airline assisted with leasing of cargo planes as well as running up to 10 daily flights for transporting flowers to the major auction markets (Gebreeyesus and Iizuka 2010).

Maritime transport

Most LDCs depend on maritime traffic as the main mode of transport for international trade, although their share of global trade is still very low, implying that LDC shipping markets are very limited. This is evident in high shipping costs, long delayed at ports due to inadequate infrastructure development, limited processing and administrative capacity.

A good measure of these logistical challenges is the scorecard of the Liner Shipping Connectivity Index, which measures maritime connectivity. For LDCs on average, the index increased from 7.2 in 2010 to 8.9 in 2014. Angola, Djibouti and Togo display the highest values, with Liner Shipping Connectivity Index scores of around 20 in 2014, on a scale that runs from 0 to 100, with 100 assigned to the country with the most advanced shipping connectivity infrastructure. As connectivity is crucial for the participation of LDCs in global value chains, much higher investment and regulatory reforms are needed for the countries to bridge the infrastructure gap.

Landlocked LDCs and Small Island LDCs face even greater challenges in this area, as the first group lacks direct access to maritime transport which increases transit times and economic costs, while the second group suffer from remoteness, small populations and therefore very high costs for regular inter-island as well as international shipping.

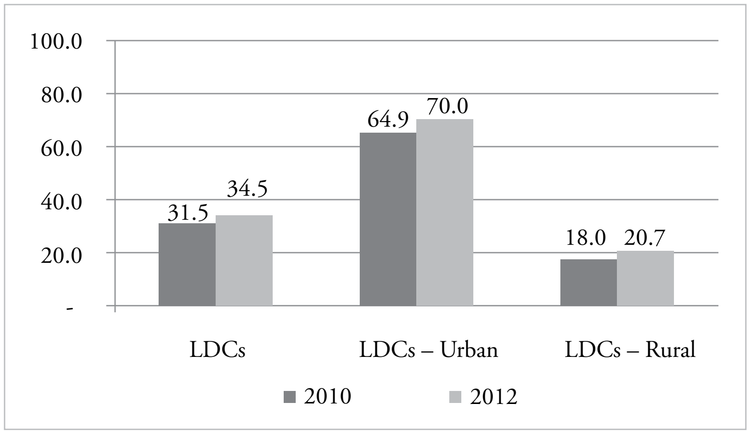
Benin has taken major actions to develop its maritime transport and port infrastructure, as this sector accounts for more than 90 per cent of its trade, mainly the port of Cotonou (which is also the source of 45-50 per cent of government revenues and 80-85 per cent of customs revenue). These actions included the continuing consolidation work related to the operation of the new container terminal, continuing the process of exploration for the construction of the second deep-water port at Seme-Kpodji, work on the construction of dry ports in Parakou and Tori, and the construction of a Maritime Affairs Centre (Benin 2016).

Energy

The acute energy gap faced by LDCs is a binding constraint on their structural transformation and human development. Reliable and affordable access to energy is a key development multiplier with large transformative power. It is essential for private sector development, productive capacity building and expansion of trade and it also has strong linkages to climate action, health, education, water, food security and women empowerment.

The percentage of population having access to electricity in LDCs has increased slowly from 31.5 per cent in 2010 to 34.5 per cent in 2012. At this rate, it would take almost 40 years to provide access to energy for all in LDCs. Furthermore, progress was faster in urban than in rural areas, with energy access rates of 70 per cent versus 21 per cent in 2012 (see Figure 3 below). All Asia-Pacific LDCs have urban access rates above 50 per cent. Several landlocked LDCs in Africa are falling behind in improving access to electricity.

Figure 3. Access to electricity (per cent of population)



Source: SG Report and World Bank, World Development Indicators database as of 22 February 2016.

The IPoA recognizes that access to affordable, reliable and renewable energy and related technologies, as well as the efficient use and distribution of energy will be critically important for accelerating growth, improving livelihoods and advancing sustainable development. Therefore, access to energy is one of its priority areas for action. There has been good progress with efforts to create stronger public-private partnerships, such as the Sustainable Energy for All initiative (SE4All) of the Secretary-General, which promotes partnerships among Governments, business and civil society.

Since the launch of the SE4All initiative numerous activities have been carried out at the global and national levels. In total 39 LDCs have chosen to be so called "Opt-in" countries in the SE4All initiative and started to develop their national strategies for energy transition. The majority of these countries have prepared their rapid assessments and in many LDCs work is underway and/or finalised on country Action Agendas laying out the nationally tailored approaches to achieve the sustainable energy targets. In addition, currently 14 LDCs are preparing their investment prospectuses and a few LDCs have already adopted them. Investment Prospectuses provide an approach to operationalizing the Action Agenda by identifying and developing a set of implementable programs and projects, including their investment requirements, that can be presented to potential private and public investors.

Given the limited financial capability, low economic development, under-developed capital markets, and low human development, financing energy access remains a major challenge. First, LDC Governments need to take necessary actions to improve enabling policy and regulatory frameworks to promote investments in the energy sector. Second, for the LDCs, all forms of finance – ODA, concessional, non-concessional loans and blended finance – will be necessary. Development finance institutions will have to play a larger role in investing in these projects, mitigating risks and ensuring guarantees. Accordingly, additional sources of financing and tailored programmes and initiatives appropriate for LDCs are needed to accelerate energy transition.

3.1.2 Science, technology and innovation

The low use of science, technology and innovation (STI) in LDCs contributes to their low productivity. 13 of the 14 countries with the lowest productivity in the World Economic Forum's *Global Competitiveness Report 2015-2016* were LDCs. This is partly due to the limited scope of FDI and imports of high-technology and capital goods to LDCs.

One result of these challenges is that citizens of LDCs filed a total of 628 patents in 2013 (up from 516 in 2010), accounting for a mere 0.07 per cent of patents filed by all developing countries (940,165). Only very few of those countries reported filing patents at all and most of them were filed by LDCs in Asia, with Bangladesh filing half of the total. By contrast, much higher numbers of patents were filed, for example, by Viet Nam alone (3,995).

Similar gaps are seen in other areas, with only 0.185 per cent of scientific and technical articles published in journals worldwide in 2011 coming from LDCs, which corresponds to 1.8 articles per 1 million people. Similarly, the funds dedicated to research and development in LDCs have been negligible, contributing to the limited use of advanced technology across sectors. The ratio of researchers in research and development per million people is also low, but varies across LDCs from 6 in Lesotho to 361 in Senegal (compared to an average of 525 in developing countries and 3,691 in developed economies).

The exemptions granted under the intellectual property rights regimes of the World International Property Organization (WIPO) and the Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) Agreement of the World Trade Organization (WTO) were renewed in July 2013 for another eight years, but have not been fully implemented and utilized. It is crucial to do so as they offer some flexibility to the LDCs in accessing technologies relevant to their development.

In November 2015 the TRIPS Council for extended until January 2033 the period during which key provisions of the WTO's intellectual property agreement do not apply to pharmaceutical products in LDCs. This means LDCs can choose whether or not to protect pharmaceutical patents and clinical trial data before 2033, providing some policy space.

Because of all the challenges associated with improving STI capacity and the diffusion of technology in LDCs, the IPoA called for the establishment of a technology bank dedicated to the LDCs. A feasibility study, prepared by the Secretary-General's High-level Panel, concluded in 2015 that the Technology Bank is indeed both feasible and desirable, and its operationalization is foreseen by the 2030 Agenda for 2017. The Technology Bank should be composed of two inter-related units: a Science, Technology and Innovation Supporting Mechanism to help LDCs strengthen their national STI capacities, which are essential for the development, acquisition, adaptation and absorption of technologies; and an Intellectual Property (IP) Bank to help build LDCs' national IP capacity and facilitate technology transfer on voluntary and mutually agreed terms and conditions to bring about a transformative change in LDCs. In order to support and expedite the process of establishing the Technology Bank, the Secretary General has recently appointed several leading STI experts to serve on the Interim Governing Council of the Technology Bank. The Midterm review of the IPoA also called for financial and technical assistance for its sustained and effective operation. Synergies need to be established between the Technology Bank and the Technology Facilitation Mechanism established by the 2030 Agenda and AAAA as well as with the Science-Technology-Innovation forum to explore ways to address STI issues in LDCs.

3.1.3 Private sector development

There has been some improvement in creating an enabling environment for the private sector in LDCs. Several countries, such as Rwanda (46th), Vanuatu (76th) and Solomon Islands (87th), are now among the top 100 in the overall ranking of the World Bank's Doing Business indicators. Eleven LDCs were ranked among the top 100 for starting a business.

Some remaining challenges to private sector development include the missing middle of the enterprise structure – LDCs have a large number of small firms and very few large firms – which reduces inter-firm linkages, hampering opportunities for innovation, learning and skills development and thus productivity growth; high transport and transaction costs and obstacles to trade which further restrict the competitiveness of LDCs; low productivity; and the large size of the informal sector in many LDCs.

Examples of institutional and regulatory policy changes which can ease access to resources include improved transparency on collateral (Afghanistan), improving the efficiency of credit bureaus and protecting borrowers' rights to access credit information (Bhutan).

3.2 Agriculture, food security and rural development

Agriculture plays a crucial role in almost all LDCs, both in promoting food security and as the major economic activity for much of the population, with direct linkages to the eradication of poverty and hunger and rural development as well as exports, commodity and production diversification and agro-processing capacity. It is only through access to safe and nutritious food that those living in poverty and most at risk of chronic malnutrition, in particular women, children and the elderly, can improve their health and nutrition status. A recent UNCTAD report noted that "rural development is the main driver of poverty reduction and will be essential to achieving the SDGs in [LDCs]" (UNCTAD 2015).

Agriculture still employs the largest share of the population in most LDCs, with an average of 60 per cent. The average share of value added in agriculture as a percentage of GDP has declined somewhat, from 25.4 per cent in 2001-2010 to 23.7 per cent in 2011-2014 (compared to 10 per cent in developing countries as a whole). Agricultural productivity in LDCs remained constant from 2010 to 2013. The index of production per capita stood at around 110 from the baseline of 100 during the period 2004-2006[2]. Figure A4 show that government expenditures on agriculture, forestry and fishing (per cent of total outlays) first declined but recovered in 2013.

This stagnating trend in agricultural productivity notwithstanding, several success stories stand out. Grain production in Rwanda more than tripled between 2000 and 2014, helping poverty decline from 77 per cent of the population to 60 per cent. Likewise, the production of cereal in Ethiopia tripled over the same period, with poverty declining from 55.3 per cent to 33.5 per cent. Ethiopian agriculture is dominated by smallholder farmers, and employs over 80 per cent of the country's rural population. Accordingly, the government's Growth and Transformation Plan for 2010/11-2014/15 focused on modernizing agriculture and increasing its productivity. Additionally, the Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP) focused on building the capacity of the rural poor through asset creation, aimed at ensuring food security and poverty reduction. Over this period, small scale irrigated agricultural land increased from 0.85 million hectare in 2009/10 to 2.4 million hectare in 2014/15, while the prevalence of stunting (low height for age) in Ethiopia

[2] These figures do not take into account further reductions in agricultural productivity which may result from the effects of climate change.

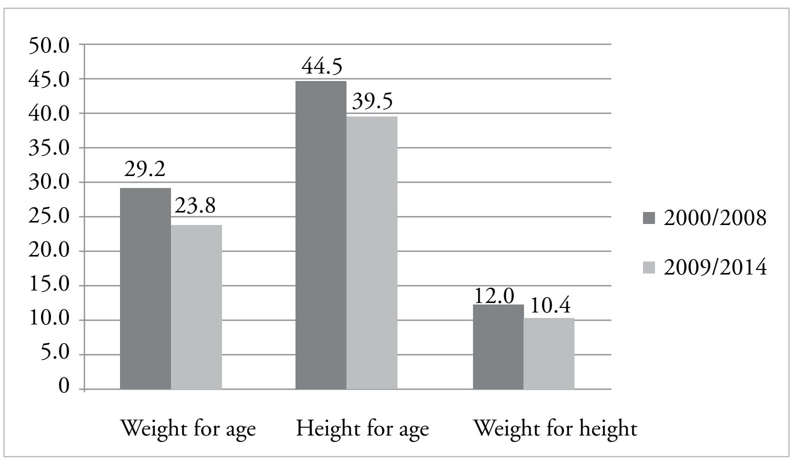
has declined from 44 per cent in 2010/11 to 40 percent in 2014/15, though this level is still high and would require increased efforts in the remaining period of IPoA implementation (which is parallel to Ethiopia's second Growth and Transformation Plan 2015/16-2019/20) (Ethiopia 2015).

There are several reasons why this success has not been replicated in more LDCs. The use of fertilizer increased only marginally for African LDCs, from 10.2 kilograms per hectare of arable land in 2010 to 11.3 kilograms in 2013 (compared with the global average of 124 kg. per hectare). In Asia, the use of fertilizer was much higher, with 60 kilograms in 2013. However, this was mainly driven by very high use in Bangladesh. Most other Asian countries used around 20 kilograms of fertilizer. Irrigation has not improved much, either, with only 4.2 per cent of total agricultural land in LDCs being irrigated (in African LDCs this is only 1 per cent, compared to 13.7 per cent in Asia Pacific LDCs). Others factors holding back the development of agriculture include poor roads, insecure property rights and in some cases tariffs on farm goods. In addition to legal reform, strengthening transport infrastructure and reducing tariffs, priority should be given to addressing the potentially negative effects of climate change on agricultural production, including severe droughts and flooding and more irregular weather patterns such as the effects of El Nino.

Almost all LDCs are food deficit countries. Thus the decline in world prices for food might enhance access to food for the urban poor, but could also negatively affect rural food producers and hamper investment. In general, enhancing productivity in agriculture through improved access to inputs and innovations, including agricultural extension services, remains a challenge for most of these countries.

It is estimated that 22.6 per cent of the population of LDCs – around 211 million people – lived with hunger in 2014, mainly in rural areas. The reliance on agriculture for their livelihoods and the high share of expenditure of the poor on food makes agriculture key to alleviating poverty and hunger. Malnutrition of children under five years of age is still high in LDCs, although some improvement has been registered compared to the last decade. Figure 4 shows the reduction in three forms of malnutrition in recent years (see also section 3.5.2).

Figure 4. Prevalence of malnutrition, children under five in LDCs



Source: SG Report and World Bank, World Development Indicators database as of 22 February 2016.

There is need to increase investment in agriculture, including through enhanced international cooperation in rural infrastructure, agricultural research and extension services, access to finance, building irrigation facilities, technology development and the establishment of plant and livestock gene banks in order to enhance agricultural productive capacity in LDCs. The Midterm review of the IPoA suggested to explore ways to improve the effectiveness of food reserve mechanisms for LDCs. Collaboration across many initiatives in this area should be strengthened, including regional initiatives, and further commitments to supporting strong economic, social and environmental links between urban, peri-urban and rural areas by strengthening national, regional and local development planning.

3.3 Trade

Trade is critical for LDCs in order to enhance access to finance and technology and to overcome constraints of mostly small domestic markets. It can also play an important role in employment creation. While the percentage of LDC exports in total world exports almost doubled between 2001 and 2010, progress has been slow thereafter with LDCs accounting for roughly 1.1 per cent of world's exports in 2014, which is well below the targets of the IPoA and SDGs of 2 per cent. The slight decline from the 2013 level is mainly due to the decline in commodity prices.

LDC exports also remained highly concentrated with almost 70 per cent of merchandise exports depending on three main products in 2014.[3] The share of clothing products in LDCs exports increased from 7 per cent in 1995 to 11 per cent in 2014. Thus exports of products with higher value added and use of more advanced technology remain very limited. By contrast, the geographic diversification of LDC exports has increased with 57 per cent going to developing countries (23 per cent to China alone), mainly agricultural products and fuels and mining products. However, developed economies still represent the biggest market for LDC exports in manufacturing with a share around 60 per cent (WTO 2015). Intra-LDC trade increased from 1 per cent in 1995 to 5 per cent in 2014, most of which took place within Africa.[4]

Member states started the implementation of the 2013 Bali LDC package and the agreement on trade facilitation of the WTO. Duty-free quota-free (DFQF) market access for LDCs in developed economies increased only slightly, reaching 84 per cent in 2014. However, access varies significantly by products – with agricultural and manufactured exports (except textile and clothing) having almost completely free market access (98 per cent and 97 per cent respectively). The African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA) scheme, which grants preferential market access by the US to African countries including 26 LDCs, was renewed until 2025. As of end of 2015, Australia, New Zealand, Norway and Switzerland provided 100 per cent DFQF coverage, while the European Union provided 99 per cent coverage, excluding arms. However, the erosion of preferences has continued due to ongoing tariff liberalization, although it slowed down in recent years (WTO 2015). There is a risk for further preference erosion due to the negotiations of trade agreements involving developed countries, such as the Transatlantic Trade and Investment Partnership (TTIP), the Trans-Pacific Partnership (TPP) and the Comprehensive Economic and Trade Agreement (CETA), limiting the potential benefits from DFQF market access.

The design and application of preferential rules of origin (ROO) also plays a crucial role for enabling LDCs to make use of preferential market access and enhance their exports. In order to join international value chains, LDCs need to be able to use intermediary products from other developing countries. Recently, the EU and Japan simplified their ROOs. The 10th Ministerial Conference of the WTO in December 2015 (MC10) decided on detailed guidelines for the requirements for the assessment of transformations as well as rules for cumulation. It calls on preference-granting countries to consider allowing the use of non-originating materials up to 75 per cent of the final value of the product.

At least 18 developing countries are also providing preferential market access to LDCs, the latest being Chile and Thailand. LDCs benefitted on average from a preference margin of 5 per cent in the past few years, mainly in the areas of clothing and textiles as well as agriculture. Several developing countries improved their preferences for LDCs recently. China has been granting DFQF market access on 97 per cent of its tariff lines since 2015 and India had increased DFQF coverage to 96 per cent of its tariff lines in 2014 (WTO 2015).

The MC10 agreed to eliminate export subsidies for agricultural products by developed countries immediately and by developing countries by the end of 2018 (with some exceptions). However, most developed countries had already reduced export subsidies for agricultural exports to very low levels. Subsidies for cotton are also to be terminated and it was agreed to grant DFQF market access for cotton and cotton-related products. However, domestic support for cotton growers in developed countries has not yet been addressed.

The share of LDC exports of commercial services in world exports started to increase significantly in 2008, despite the financial crisis, and reached 0.7 per cent in 2014. Several LDCs have a high share of service exports, mainly tourism and transport. Communications services were the fastest growing service exports. Since the adoption of an LDC Services Waiver in 2011, 25 countries and regional groups indicated sectors and modes where they intended to provide preferences to LDC services and service providers as of February 2015. The MC10 decided to extend the Services Waiver until end of 2030 and encourages members to enhance notification of preferences with commercial value.

Between 2011 and 2014, three LDCs acceded to the WTO (Vanuatu in 2012, Lao PDR in 2013 and Yemen in 2014). The accession packages for Afghanistan and Liberia were approved at the MC10 and these 2 countries have become members in July 2016, increasing the total to 36 LDCs. Another six LDCs (Bhutan, Comoros, Equatorial Guinea, Ethiopia, Sao Tome and Principe and Sudan) are in the accession process.

Aid for Trade (AfT) to LDCs has also seen some improvement, with disbursements for LDCs increasing from US$9 billion in 2009-11 to US$11 billion in 2013, mainly for economic infrastructure. There is evidence that AfT, when utilized to reduce trade costs through infrastructure development and complemented by reforms, has a positive effect on trade capacity (Cadot et al. 2014).

Phase Two of the Enhanced Integrated Framework (EIF) entitled “Trade for LDC Development” started in January 2016, with a focus on capacity building, including for public officials and non-state actors like private sector representative bodies. At a Pledging

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[3] Their composition varies among countries.

[4] These figures are likely to underestimate intra-LDC trade as this is frequently under-recorded.

Conference in December 2015, US$90 million were raised to help LDCs integrate trade into national development strategies and to develop a comprehensive action plan for the export sector in order to use it as a vehicle for economic growth. Two thirds of the EIF funding for productive capacity building goes to agriculture or agro-based enterprises as this is an important sector with respect to export potential, value addition possibilities, employment and livelihood, women's economic empowerment and poverty reduction.

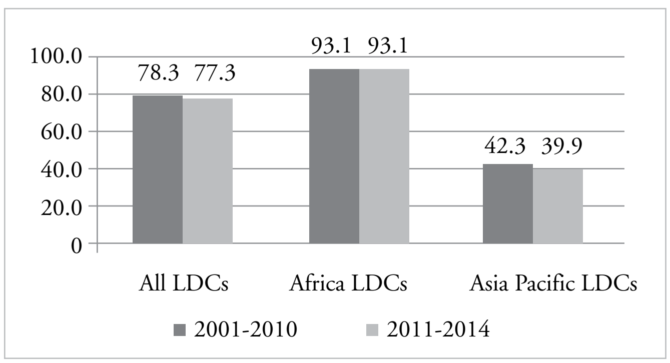
In order for LDCs to be able to reap the potential benefits from trade, they need reliable preferential market access to all major trading partners with minimal exceptions, through the full implementation of DFQF market access. Likewise rules of origin need to be further simplified and allow for cumulation in order for LDCs to be able to participate in value chains. Furthermore, countries that have not done so should provide notifications of preferences for service providers in LDCs, which are commercially meaningful.[5] In order to strengthen the export potential of LDCs and to support them to overcome supply side constraints, a higher share of AfT should be allocated to LDCs in line with commitments reiterated at the Midterm review.

The Trade Facilitation Agreement of the WTO can also provide benefits to LDCs as it contains provisions for transparency, predictability and expediting the movement, release and clearance of goods. It also sets out measures for effective cooperation between customs and other appropriate authorities on trade facilitation and customs compliance issues and contains provisions for technical assistance and capacity building in this area, which have the potential to reduce trade costs.

3.4 Commodities

Exports of the majority of LDCs are still dominated by primary commodities (including oil and minerals), precious stones and non-monetary gold, accounting for almost 80 per cent of exports over the past 5 years, with some fluctuation owing to price volatility (see Figure 5).

Figure 5. Exports of primary commodities, precious stones and non-monetary gold, percentage of total merchandise exports



Source: SG Report and World Bank, World Development Indicators database as of 22 February 2016.

Several LDCs reduced their dependence on commodities substantially. The share of commodities in Comoros's total exports declined by 30 per cent between 2001-2010 and 2011-2014, with smaller reductions registered in Bhutan (22 per cent), Uganda (14 per cent), Nepal (11 per cent), Solomon Islands (10 per cent) and Bangladesh (9 per cent) over the same period. On the downside, Angola and Equatorial Guinea displayed no change in their dependence on primary commodity, while 23 LDCs actually saw this dependence rise between the two periods.

LDC exports also remained highly concentrated with almost 70 per cent of merchandise exports depending on three main products in 2014 (composition varies among countries). Thus exports of products with higher value added and use of more advanced technology remains very limited.

On the positive side, over half the LDCs (26 of 48) have decreased their product concentration from 2011 to 2014. Of these, 10 have reduced their concentration index by more than five points, as shown in Table 1 below. By contrast, the geographic diversification of LDC exports has increased with 57 per cent going to developing countries in 2014 (23 per cent to China alone) and 5 per cent going to other LDCs (WTO 2015).

5 Commercially meaningful refers to preference for such services that LDCs actually are able to deliver.

Table 1. LDCs with largest reduction in product concentration index (HHI), 2011-2014

	2011	2014	Change
Eritrea	0.61	0.37	-0.24
Burundi	0.50	0.36	-0.14
Djibouti	0.29	0.17	-0.12
Mozambique	0.37	0.26	-0.12
Myanmar	0.38	0.27	-0.11
Zambia	0.71	0.61	-0.09
Burkina Faso	0.55	0.47	-0.07
Solomon Islands	0.60	0.52	-0.07
Ethiopia	0.38	0.31	-0.07
Yemen	0.59	0.53	-0.06

Source: United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, UNCTADstat database as of February 2016.

Commodity prices declined rapidly starting in 2014, after a peak in 2011 (see Figure A5). Food prices fell by 27.5 per cent between 2011 and October 2015, while the prices of agricultural raw materials declined by 46 per cent. Price drops were especially large for cotton (-55 per cent), sugar (-47 per cent) and coffee (-45 per cent), which are all commodities of high relevance to LDCs. Metal prices also declined by 45 per cent. Oil prices remained relatively constant initially but dropped sharply in 2015, by 51 per cent as of October. However, mechanisms to mitigate and manage the risks associated with the volatility of commodity prices are largely lacking.

The fiscal impact of this sell-off in global commodity markets is serious for governments for which natural resources represent a large share of revenues. Some, like Angola, have not built sufficient fiscal buffers when commodity prices were high. Other LDCs, which are oil importers, are benefitting from the drop in prices. Still others, e.g. Zambia, are feeling the effects of both lower import prices and falling commodities exports such as copper and iron ore (Addison, 2015). Mauritania also experienced a drop in investment in its mining industry due to falling prices for iron ore and gold.

3.5 Human and social development

Enhancing human and social development enables people to enlarge their choices and to realise their full potential. It also significantly contributes to sustainable development, in all its forms. The fundamental elements of human and social development include living a long and healthy life, being educated, having access to resources needed for a decent standard of living, political freedom and guaranteed human rights (UNDP 1990).

3.5.1 Education and training

LDCs have made impressive strides in reducing the education deficit. The average net enrolment in primary education was about 86 per cent in 2013, up from 79.1 per cent in 2005 (see Table 2). This improvement has the potential to yield positive externalities, including better health and nutrition (Alderman and Headey 2014), adoption of new technologies and ultimately reaching and retaining global competitiveness (Chandra 2006). Initiatives such as implementation of free primary education policies, increased allocation of financial resources to education, construction of new classrooms, setting up of community schools, and school-feeding programmes have helped to boost the net enrolment in education in LDCs.

The IPoA recognises that while enrolment in primary education has improved, quality and completion rates need to be enhanced and enrolment rates at the secondary and tertiary levels need to increase. For example, the primary education pupil/teacher ratio in LDCs is almost double that of the world average. Additionally, in a third of the LDCs, at least 10 per cent of students repeated a grade in 2013/2014[6]. The percentage of repeaters in Burundi, Chad, Comoros and Madagascar was over 20 per cent.

To improve the quality of education, the following interventions could yield considerable results: providing extra literacy and numeracy lessons to pupils who are falling behind the pace of curriculum programmes; improving the content, quality and language appropriateness of instructional materials; providing attendance incentives, for example, compulsory school meals; and implementing interventions that improve teacher performance and accountability.

6 Data extracted from UNESCO Institute of Statistics on 07 March 2016.

Table 2. Net enrolment and pupil/teacher ratios in primary and secondary education, 2005 and 2013

Area, average	Net enrolment in primary education (per cent)		Pupil/ teacher ratio in primary education (headcount basis)		Net enrolment in secondary education (per cent)		Pupil/ teacher ratio in secondary education (headcount basis)	
	2005	2013	2005	2013	2005	2013	2005	2013
Average, LDCs	79.1	86	48.0	41.9	36.8	41.3	25.7	19.7
World	86.9	89	25.3	24.0	56.7	66.0	17.9	17.4

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics

Enrolment in secondary education is much lower in LDCs (41.3 per cent, on average in 2013) relative to around 60 per cent in developing countries. If left unchanged, low levels of secondary education may have implications on future earnings. A study on Africa by Fox and Gaal (2008) found that returns on education below university level are falling but returns on primary education are falling fastest. Other studies found that the likelihood of being poor decreases with the level of education (with a ratio of nearly 2:1 between persons who graduated from university and those who have never attended school) (see also: International Monetary Fund 2015). These findings suggest that higher education increases the potential to mitigate poverty. In the lead up to 2020, a similar push as that observed in primary education is needed for secondary and tertiary education in LDCs.

Furthermore, technical and vocational education and training (TVET) plays a crucial role in poverty reduction and increasing the likelihood of finding decent work or generating income through self-employment. Technical and vocational skills can be acquired through work placement programmes linked to secondary schooling and formal technical and vocational education, or through work-based training, including traditional apprenticeships and agricultural cooperatives (UNESCO 2012). In Lesotho, since the 2012/2013 financial year, 500 youths have been equipped with entrepreneurship skills. 30 per cent of the trained youths started their businesses using their own savings (Lesotho 2015). The Government of Bangladesh has devised a special scheme for providing training and temporary employment to unemployed youths under the National Service Programme (NSP). After completion of the training, the youths are offered temporary employment locally for two years in different sectors of the Government. A total of 83,626 youths have been trained in order to engage in temporary employment for two years. As of June 2015, 81,355 of the total trained youths (97.3 per cent) were engaged in temporary employment in different sectors (Bangladesh 2016 and UN-OHRLLS 2016).

Expenditure analysis provides an indication of how a country prioritizes a sector in relation to the overall allocation of resources. In 2012, expenditure on education ranged from 8 per cent to 25 per cent of total government expenditure in LDCs. The median expenditure by level of education as a percentage of total government expenditure on education in 2012 was 51.3 per cent for primary education, 24.8 per cent for secondary education and 15.7 per cent for tertiary education. In comparison, in most of the OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) countries, public spending on secondary education, as a percentage of total government expenditure on education is larger (39 per cent) than spending on primary (25.9 per cent) and tertiary education (25.9 per cent)[7].

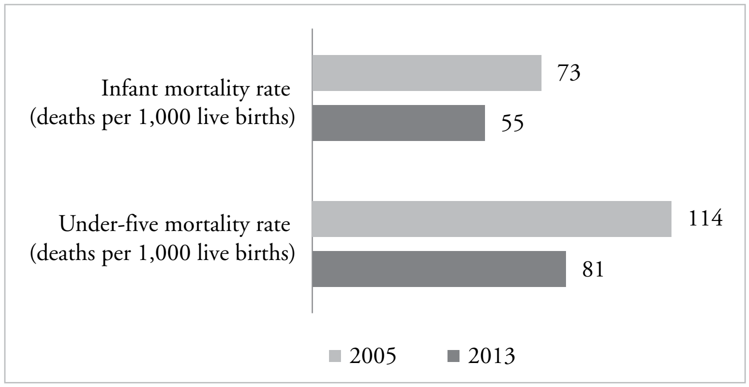
3.5.2 Population and primary health

Significant progress has been made in reducing child mortality globally. Infant mortality rates (IMR), a widely used indicator of the health status of the entire population as well as the level of development of a country, have declined in LDCs (see Figure 6). In 2013, 55 of every 1,000 children died before reaching the age of one. In the same year, 81 of every 1,000 children died before reaching the age of five. 16 LDCs[8] have achieved the MDG 4 target of reducing their under-five mortality by two-thirds or more.

7 These are median expenditures. Data was extracted from UNESCO Institute of Statistics on 22 March 2016.

8 Bangladesh, Bhutan, Cambodia, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, Nepal, Niger, Rwanda, Uganda, Tanzania, Timor-Leste and Yemen (see UN, 2015. Levels and Trends in Child Mortality – http://www.childmortality.org/files_v20/download/IGME%20Report%202015_9_3%20LR%20Web.pdf)

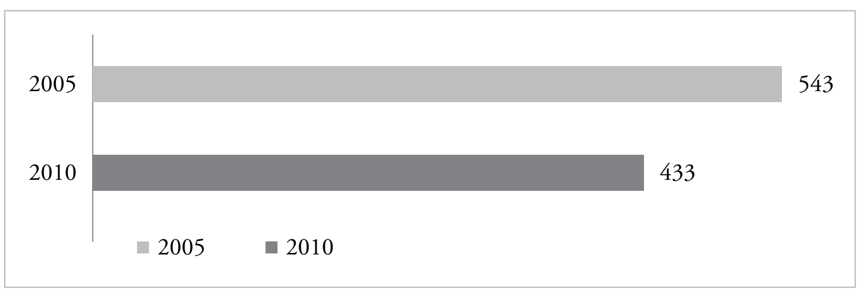
Figure 6. Infant, under-five mortality rates (2005-2013) in LDCs



Source: Inter-agency Group for Child Mortality Estimation (http://www.childmortality.org); World Development Indicators (http://databank.worldbank.org).

Globally, of all the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the goal of maternal mortality has shown the least progress[9]. In 2010 in LDCs, 433 women died from pregnancy related causes[10] (see Figure 7), down from 543 in 2005. In Chad and Somalia, however, the number is more than double that of the LDC average. Maternal mortality in countries such as Bhutan, Djibouti, Nepal, Solomon Islands and Vanuatu is less than half of the LDC average. Initiatives that contributed to the lower than average maternal mortality in these countries included: provision of free essential drugs to the poor and vulnerable[11] ; increasing access to health care by constructing new health care centres and implementing mobile outreach clinics; and deploying doctors to health centres in remote villages[12].

Figure 7. Maternal mortality rates (2005-2013) in LDCs



Source: Maternal Mortality Estimation Inter-agency Group (http://www.maternalmortalitydata.org); World Development Indicators (http://databank.worldbank.org).

However, good health has many dimensions and is harder to measure than whether or not someone is alive (Deaton 2013). One good indicator is stunted growth[13]. Stunting is caused by among others, early life suboptimal health and/ or poor nutritional conditions, which can have negative effects on cognitive development and restrict opportunities in adult life. Between 2009 and 2014, almost 50 per cent of children below the age of five in LDCs were stunted. Interventions such as improving maternal nutrition, ensuring appropriate feeding practices for infants, and preventing children's exposure to adverse conditions such as illness could halt and reverse the trend.

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9 See UNDP, MDG Good Practices, Scaling up efforts on the ground. Available at http://www.undp.org/content/dam/aplaws/publication/en/publications/poverty-reduction/poverty-website/mdg-good-practices/MDGGoodPractices.pdf and http://www.worldbank.org/mdgs/maternal_health.html

10 Estimated as, the number of women who die while pregnant or within 42 days of pregnancy termination per 100,000 live births

11 Bhutan has enshrined the provision of free and quality universal healthcare in its constitution.

12 For Bhutan, Djibouti and Nepal, see: National Reports at http://unohrlls.org/national-reports-mtr-ipoa/

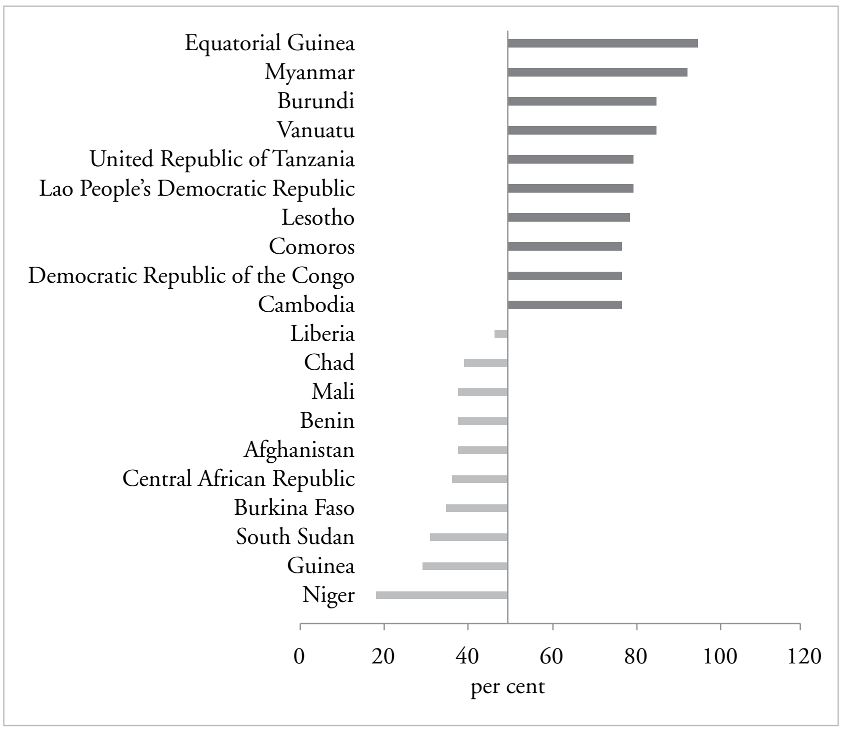
13 Stunting reflects a process of failure to reach linear growth potential and result in children becoming too short for their age.

3.5.3 Youth development

About 60 per cent of the population in LDCs are under the age of 25, compared with 46 per cent in other developing countries. Whether this has a positive or negative effect depends largely on how well governments respond to young people's needs and enable them to engage fully and meaningfully in civic and economic affairs.

In LDCs, youth literacy as a percentage of the population aged 15-24 was estimated at an average of 77 per cent in the period 2010-2012 in LDCs, rising from 70 per cent between 2000 and 2009. Gross enrolment in tertiary education in LDCs remains very low and largely unchanged from an average of 7 per cent in 2010 to 8 per cent in 2011-2013. Figure 8 shows the performance of the top and bottom 10 LDCs on adult literacy rate. While the adult literacy rate in Equatorial Guinea is around 100 per cent, Niger is lagging far behind, at about 20 per cent. Most of the worst performing countries (below 50 per cent) are those emerging from or still experiencing violent conflict or political unrest. ESCWA's research suggests that households in areas affected by violence generally show poorer indicators of nutrition, education, living conditions and sources of income affecting women and girls disproportionally (UNESCWA forthcoming).

Figure 8. LDCs with the highest and lowest adult literacy rate, population 15+ years, both sexes, 2015



Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (Data extracted on 07 March 2016)

A major challenge for young people in LDCs is the considerable difficulty they experience in finding decent and secure employment. The youth unemployment rate in LDCs is almost two times higher than is the case for total unemployment. These results are partly a result of the mismatch between skills and qualifications, on the one hand, and labour market demands on the other. Youth unemployment rates remain a significant concern for conflict affected LDCs. There is a close and significant relationship between unemployment, limited opportunities for youth and conflict intensity, as the most intense conflicts are closely linked to the highest levels of unemployment (UNESCWA 2015a).

Large numbers of young people continue to face a future of irregular employment and informality. In many LDCs for which data is available, over 50 per cent were in informal employment (as a percentage of non-agricultural employment). As informality in most countries is associated with low levels of education (ILO and WTO 2009), LDCs should invest more in higher education and promote science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) education in order to participate fully in the local and global economy. There is also need to make education relevant to labour market requirements and enhance TVET, including apprenticeships. Furthermore, it is important to implement targeted interventions for young people, such as countercyclical policies and demand-side interventions, public employment programmes, employment guarantee schemes, labour-intensive infrastructure, wage and training subsidies and other specific youth employment interventions (ILO 2012).

3.5.4 Shelter, water and sanitation

While urbanization can bring large benefits, including through enabling firms to reap the productivity gains of scale and specialization and making ordinary workers better off (Collier and Jones, 2016), it has put pressure on the already limited housing stock. For many LDCs, slum dwellers represent over 50 per cent of the urban population. In six LDCs, the fraction of the urban population living in slums is over 80 per cent[14].

Slums are characterized by poor or non-existent public services, including water supply, electricity, sanitation, overcrowding and dilapidated housing. All these have significant implications on the quality of life. Furthermore, the prevalence of slums poses a considerable threat to food security and nutrition, as the majority of the urban population are net food buyers and spend a large proportion of their disposable income on food. A study by Benjamin et al. (2013) found that the prevalence of acute malnutrition is greater in the slum outskirts of the capital of Sierra Leone, Freetown, than in rural areas nationwide. A recent report on Djibouti indicated that the housing sector is still characterized by a large deficit despite efforts towards the development of housing units. The estimated accumulated deficit over the past five years is around 8,500 housing units (Djibouti 2015). Given the multi-dimensional challenges associated with slums, a holistic approach is needed to adequately address challenges related to housing needs, health, water and sanitation.

Clean water and sanitation are essential elements in achieving a basic standard of health. According to the World Health Organization (WHO)[15], interventions in water supply, sanitation and hygiene are estimated to reduce child mortality by 65 per cent, on average. The data in Table 4 show that in 2014, 31.8 per cent in LDCs did not have access to an improved drinking water source. The proportion of people without any sanitation facility (Table 5) in LDCs was much higher (63.5 per cent).

The collection of water, primarily the responsibility of women and children, represents an additional burden. In rural Benin, girls aged 6-14 spend an average of one hour a day collecting water compared with 25 minutes for their brothers. In Malawi, women consistently spend four to five times longer than men on this task. In Tanzania, a survey found school attendance to be 12 per cent higher for girls in homes located 15 minutes or less from a water source than in homes one hour or more away. Attendance rates for boys appeared to be far less affected by distance from water sources[16].

Table 3. Percentage of population using an improved drinking water source

Year	Average, LDCs	Urban	Rural
2005	60.4	79.9	52.7
2013	67.5	84.5	60.2
2014	68.2	84.6	60.9

Table 4. Percentage of population using an sanitation facility

Year	Average, LDCs	Urban	Rural
2005	31.6	45.7	26.6
2013	36	46.8	31.3
2014	36.5	47	31.8

Source: WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation (http://www.wssinfo.org)

Access to water and sanitation is higher in urban areas relative to rural areas. However, low income urban dwellers living in informal settlements have reduced access to water compared to wealthier city residents (UNICEF 2014). Low-income urban dwellers pay up to twice as much for water as high-income inhabitants living in the same city[17].

Reaching the ambitious goal of ensuring universal and equitable access to safe and affordable drinking water for all as agreed in the 2030 Agenda will also require the following: addressing issues of quality and supply, improving water management to protect ecosystems and building resilience.

3.5.5 Gender equality and empowerment of women

Gender equality and women's empowerment are key contributors to social and economic development. However, progress in this respect has been mixed. Women's representation in parliament has been rising. In 2015, 19.2 per cent of parliamentarian seats in LDCs were held by women, an increase of 1.4 per cent since 2011. Rwanda has the highest proportion of women in parliament

14 United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat), Global Urban Indicators Database 2014 – http://unhabitat.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/03/Table-2.3-Proportion-of-urban-population-living-in-slums-and-urban-slum-population-by-country-1990-2014.pdf

15 See WHO Children's environmental health. Available at http://www.who.int/ceh/risks/cehwater2/en/

16 See UNDESA International Decade for Action Water for Life 2005-2015 – http://www.un.org/waterforlifedecade/gender.shtml

17 See: http://unhabitat.org/urban-themes/water-and-sanitation-2

with 64 per cent. Senegal, which adopted a gender parity law in 2010 to, among others, ensure proper representation of women in all elected offices, experienced an increase in the proportion of women in parliament from 24 per cent in 2007 to 43 per cent in 2012[18] (Senegal National Report, 2015). In Nepal, there is a statutory provision to ensure one-third of the seats for women in all elected bodies including the national parliament as well as in the government services. In Bhutan, a legislation to ensure a quota for women in elected offices including the parliament and local government bodies has been drafted and is being discussed for approval (Bhutan 2015).

Many studies evidence a strong relationship between mothers' education and child welfare. Mokoka (2013) found a correlation between mothers' education level and improved child nutrition, measured by stunting, wasting and underweight in two LDCs, Malawi and Tanzania, and another developing country Zimbabwe. Also, there is a strong association between maternal education of at least one year and higher test scores in children from low income countries (World Bank 2012). Many studies have found clear evidence of a relationship between mothers' education and earnings as well as between mothers' education and child welfare. For example, Smith and Haddad (2001) and Alderman et al. (2006) found that maternal education positively affects child health outcomes as children of more educated mothers tend to be taller and healthier.

On average, LDCs have almost achieved gender parity in primary education. Mauritania and Nepal had reversed the gender gap with slightly more girls than boys enrolled in primary education. Djibouti established a national literacy strategy and non-formal education (SNAENF) in 2010 to provide, for the first time, literacy training in national languages in order to promote women's empowerment[19]. However, the proportion of female students was 46 per cent for secondary education in LDCs and 38 per cent for tertiary education in 2011/12.

Women's empowerment in LDCs has been limited by several constraints, such as the lack of formal education and discrimination in the credit, land and technology markets. Longstanding socio-cultural barriers include attaching less importance to the education of girls compared to that of boys; the high prevalence of child marriage; the tendency for women to cultivate land for producing food crops and men for cash crops; and women and girls inheriting fewer assets such as land. For example the share of women (aged 15 years or older) in LDCs with an account at a financial institution was only 16.8 per cent on average as compared with the share of men, which was 23.3 per cent in 2014.

Women in LDCs also face barriers in entering formal employment. This is evidenced by the higher proportion of women in non-agriculture sectors who occupy informal jobs, relative to men. Excluding Lesotho, all the other LDCs where data was available had a higher proportion of females in non-agriculture sectors occupying informal jobs[20].

Such barriers have long-term consequences. For example, the lifetime opportunity costs of teen pregnancy are estimated to be as high as 30 per cent of lost income in Uganda. In Burkina Faso, more than twice as many men as women own a house, which is a large gap even compared to other LDCs. Gender inequality can result in poverty traps, where discriminatory cultural practices result in higher gender-related poverty, leading to a less inclusive growth process and, in turn, to greater poverty (UN-OHRLLS 2014).

Efforts towards women's empowerment should not be limited to gender parity in primary and secondary education, as this does not always translate into gainful employment due to the barriers mentioned above. Women and girls also need better access to economic opportunities through vocational and managerial skills, and access to land, technology and finance. Harmful practices, such as child marriage and sexual violence need to be reduced through the adoption and enforcement of adequate laws, including ending discrimination. Equal leadership of women in decision-making at all levels needs to be ensured, including through women's collective action. One promising example is the National Solidarity Programme in Afghanistan, which mandates participation of women in community development councils, which has led to increased mobility of women, enabled access to information and increased the likelihood that women would be involved in income-generating activities (UN-OHRLLS 2014).

3.5.6 Social Protection

Due to high levels of poverty coupled with multiple crises and other emerging challenges (see section 3.6), LDCs face difficult choices on the type of social protection scheme to implement, its affordability as well as sustainability.

Most of the social protection schemes being implemented in LDCs are targeted at the most vulnerable groups. Examples include the following: In Zambia, a social cash transfer programme, which provides bimonthly grants to households that are vulnerable, is being implemented. The Programme currently has over 180,000 beneficiary households in 50 of the 107 Districts (Zambia National Report, 2016). In Guinea, the Government set up a social safety net to meet the needs of vulnerable groups. One of the country's initiatives is the extension of the school feeding program through the opening of canteens in schools (Guinea National Report, 2015). Malawi

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18 Senegal's 2012 elections were the first to be held since the adoption of a gender parity law
19 See http://unohrlls.org/national-reports-mtr-ipoa/
20 See http://laborsta.ilo.org/applv8/data/INFORMAL_ECONOMY/2012-06-Statistical%20update%20-%20v2.pdf

implements the Farm Input Subsidy Programme (FISP) and prioritises vulnerable groups, especially households headed by children and women.

LDCs are taking significant steps to expand social protection to older persons. In Bangladesh, for instance, the Old Age Allowance Programme reached an estimated one-fifth of older persons aged 60 and over, and approximately one-third of older persons aged 65 and over in 2008 and 2009. In Nepal, a universal non-contributory pension scheme was introduced in 1995 that granted everyone older than 75 years a pension, with the eligible age reduced to 70 in 2009 (and to 60 years in some disadvantaged regions of the country). Furthermore, universal retirement pensions are paid in Kiribati from age 70 (UNESCAP 2015; Nepal 2016). In Lesotho, an old-age pension scheme for all citizens aged 70 years and above helps to provide security to elders with no pension benefits. Some countries provide free access to basic public health services as well as free education to all children of school going age up to the tenth grade[21]. These transfers to the poor help to protect the vulnerable against livelihood risks as well as to smooth consumption.

Scholars such as Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler (2004) suggested that a basic social protection package could be affordable while contributing to the fundamental goals of poverty eradication and economic development. In 2008, the ILO undertook a cost estimation study by simulating a basic social transfer package (excluding access to basic health care) of 12 developing countries, 7 of which were LDCs. They projected that the initial gross annual cost of this social transfer package was between 2.2 to 5.7 per cent of GDP (ILO 2015a).

3.6 Multiple crises and other emerging challenges

LDCs are highly vulnerable to a variety of shocks, including food, fuel, financial and economic crises, natural disasters, effects of climate variability and violent conflict. As shocks have an adverse effect on the economy and affect many households simultaneously, they can lead to increases in poverty, significantly impede sustainable development and in most instances, reverse the hard-earned development gains that may have been made. The Midterm Review of the IPoA stressed that measures at both the national and international levels need to be enhanced to mitigate and manage risks and build resilience to address the vulnerability of the LDCs to various kinds of shocks and crises.

3.6.1 Economic shocks

The economic crisis in 2007/2008 had little initial and medium term impact on the fiscal and current account balances of LDCs. Between 2010 and 2013, the share of foreign reserves as a percentage of external debt stocks in the LDCs increased from 55 per cent in 2010 to 60 per cent in 2011-2013. In addition, the total debt service relative to exports of goods, services and income remained unchanged. However, this may change once the latest data is released given the recent slump in commodity prices.

LDCs are largely primary commodity producers and exporters and their economies are significantly affected by external shocks, such as fluctuations in commodity prices (see section 3.4). The size of the effect is dependent on the underlying factors of the shock, policy responses and the extent of the pass-through to households and firms.

For example, the significant drop in cotton prices (-55 per cent) is likely to affect the livelihoods of LDCs in West and Central Africa who are large cotton producers. Cotton contributes significantly to West African economies and accounts for 25 to 45 per cent of their GDP and total merchandise exports (Sodjinou et al. 2015). Cotton is especially vital to the economies of Benin, Burkina Faso and Mali, where cotton respectively makes up 30 per cent, 80 per cent and 85 per cent of their agricultural export values (Theriault and Serra 2014). In oil exporting LDCs, implementing a balanced budget plan remains highly dependent on global oil demand and prices. By contrast, LDCs that are net importers of oil could translate the windfall into reducing unsustainable subsidies and expanding public infrastructure for purposes of stimulating production and increasing social services (e.g. water and sanitation).

LDCs have also been further exposed to exogenous shocks by the sharper than expected slowdown in China as well as the rebalancing of its economic activity from investment and manufacturing towards consumption and services. Recent reports[22] indicate that China's imports from Africa declined by over 30 per cent. This demand shock has contributed to the plummeting of currencies in some LDCs. The deterioration of fiscal balances signals a reduction of the available fiscal space that is needed to provide vital services and social protection to LDCs. A further external risk for LDCs is the uncertainty regarding the tightening of the monetary policy in the United States, which may exert downward pressure on capital flows to LDCs.

By 2013, a majority of LDCs had graduated from the list of heavily indebted poor countries. As of November 2015, Sudan was the only LDC remaining in debt distress. However, nine LDCs are classified as being at high risk of debt distress[23]. The average debt

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21 See the country reports, available at http://unohrlls.org/national-reports-mtr-ipoa/

22 Financial Times – https://next.ft.com/content/c53e7f68-9844-11e5-9228-87e603d47bdc

23 Debt sustainability analyses, Joint World Bank-IMF Debt Sustainability Framework for Low-Income Countries, 1 October 2015. Available from http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/dsa/dsalist.pdf

service as a percentage of exports remained low (4 per cent from 2010 to 2013) in LDCs. The ratio of total reserves to external debt improved from 50.1 per cent to 60.1 per cent, on average. Heightened vigilance is needed to capture financial risks early and ensure debt sustainability, including through sound debt management policies.

The IMF plays an important role in LDCs to facilitate their resilience to external shocks, including economic shocks. IMF's concessional lending for LDCs is provided from the Poverty Reduction and Growth Trust (PRGT) through three concessional lending windows: the Extended Credit Facility (ECF), the Standby Credit Facility (SCF), and the Rapid Credit Facility (RCF). To strengthen its support for low income countries, the IMF reformed its concessional lending facilities in 2010. In September 2012, the Fund also adopted a strategy to establish long-term concessional lending capacity of about US$2 billion a year on average, financed, in part, by the use of resources linked to windfall profits from gold sales. The effectiveness of these concessional lending windows could be further improved by scaling up their resources and better targeting them to the needs of the poorest and most vulnerable countries.

The World Bank also helps LDCs, among other countries, to build resilience to shocks through IDA lending for reducing structural vulnerabilities in the long-run and building resilience in the short and medium run. These include diversifying exports, improvements to the management of public expenditures, reforestation of land and irrigation projects, shared resource management and power pools, and the development of targeted social safety nets. Regional development banks also fund disaster recovery and resilience projects in both Asia and Africa. For example, since 2008, for its medium-term strategy, the African Development Bank has emphasized climate change mitigation and adaptation among its priority areas. The draft 2013-2015 Work Program and Budget Framework for the Asian Development Bank (ADB) stipulates that 15 per cent of ADB's sovereign operations will include disaster risk management components.

Some LDCs have benefitted from the central bank liquidity swaps as a response to shocks. Examples include, the Central Bank of India, which signed an agreement of US$2 billion currency swap with the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) members (Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka) in 2012 to ensure financial stability in the region. In 2015, the agreement was extended to November 2017. The swap amount available to various member central banks was estimated based on two months import cover subject to a floor of US$100 million and a maximum of US$400 million per country[24]. In addition, the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) swap Arrangement, that serves a group of 13 members of this community (including Cambodia, Laos and Myanmar) and provides a substantial amount of US$120 billion as a swap facility for the group. This amount was doubled in 2012 to ensure strengthened resilience to economic shocks and financial volatility of international markets[25].

3.6.2 Climate change and environmental sustainability

The World Bank (2014) warned that a warming of close to 1.5°C above pre-industrial times – up from 0.8°C warming today – is already locked into Earth's atmospheric system by past and predicted greenhouse gas emissions. Extreme temperatures and unpredictable variations are likely to harm agriculture, ecosystems and human health, among other impacts, which would further undermine efforts to reduce poverty in LDCs.

Climate related shocks disproportionately affect LDCs, in particular small island LDCs, because of their location as well as their limited economic, institutional, scientific and technical capacities to manage and adapt to shocks. People in LDCs were found to be 5 times more likely to die from climate-related disasters than people living elsewhere, based on 2010 to mid-2013 data. In addition, the high incidence of poverty exacerbates vulnerability to climate change. Nevertheless LDCs have made significant progress increasing the percentage of terrestrial key biodiversity areas from 16.5 in 2000 to 19.2 in 2016 and of freshwater key biodiversity areas from 13.4 in 2000 to 16.2 in 2016 (UN 2016d).

The needs imposed by large weather-related shocks cannot be met by LDCs without external support. As recognized in article 4.9 of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), LDCs need financial and technological support to adapt to climate change[26]. The global community has made progress in recognizing and responding to the special needs of LDCs. The Global Environment Facility (GEF) reported that 164 LDCs projects (excluding preparation of national adaptation programmes of action) had been approved for funding by the GEF Council, with grants from the Fund amounting to US$919.3 million since 2007. However, the demand for the Fund's resources considerably exceeded the funds available for new approvals. A total of US$248 million was newly pledged by 11 donors at the start of the twenty-first session of the Conference of the Parties, providing a much-needed boost to clear the backlog of some 35 projects for climate adaptation in LDCs that had already been approved by the Facility but for which resources were unavailable.

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24 http://www.thehindu.com/business/Economy/rbi-extends-swap-arrangement-with-saarc-nations/article8272165.ece
25 http://globalnation.inquirer.net/29841/asian-nations-to-double-currency-swap-deal-%E2%80%93-report
26 United Nations, Treaty Series, vol. 1771, No. 30822.

Other multilateral funds for climate change investments and environment protection available to LDCs include the International Development Assistance (IDA) Crisis Response Window (CRW) and the Least Developed Country Fund (LDCF).

In December 2015, the Parties to the UNFCCC adopted the Paris Agreement, which among others called for enhanced coordination and delivery of resources to support country-driven strategies through simplified and efficient application and approval procedures, and through continued readiness support to LDCs and SIDS. In addition, the aim to limit global warming to 1.5 degrees Celsius, as advocated by LDCs, was emphasised. Commitments by developed countries to provide US$100 billion annually by 2020 were reiterated in recognition of the importance of adaptation finance. The board of the Green Climate Fund (GCF) decided to simplify the funding proposal template to facilitate the application process. Funding under the GCF will be split 50-50 between mitigation and adaptation. Due to capacity constraints, LDCs may face significant difficulties in preparing the required complex and technical proposals to access the GCF. They may not have the baseline data and statistics for decent project designs which require thorough social and environmental safeguards, valid consultation processes, accountability mechanisms and transparency, feasibility studies and financial and economic analysis, along with evidence on potential impact on sustainable development. The pilot phase for new additional modalities to Enhance Direct Access will provide an initial allocation of US$200 million for around 10 pilots, including at least four to be implemented in small island developing States, LDCs and African States.

3.6.3 Disaster risk reduction

Major natural disasters in recent years have had high human and economic costs in LDCs. For instance, after three years of the worst drought ever recorded in Tuvalu, a category 5 Cyclone (Pam) hit the country in March 2014 and affected about 89 per cent of the population with damages estimated to be around 200 per cent of GDP (Tuvalu National Report, 2016). The unprecedented 2014 floods in Solomon Islands damaged infrastructure, housing, water and sanitation facilities and agricultural output, causing economic losses equivalent to 4.7 per cent of GDP. The earthquake that hit Nepal in April 2015 affected 8 million people. The death toll was about 9000. In addition, 23,000 people were injured and 0.9 million houses in 14 hard hit districts were damaged (Nepal 2016). The impact of the earthquake on agriculture-based livelihoods and food security is expected to be extremely high. The severe floods that occurred from June to August 2015 in Myanmar affected approximately 1.6 million people. In addition, 861,976 acres of farm land were destroyed (Myanmar 2016).

An additional challenge is that natural hazards affect poor people more. For example, in Bangladesh, after Cyclone Aila hit in 2009, a post-disaster survey of 12 villages on the southwest coast revealed that 25 per cent of poor households in these villages were exposed to the cyclone while only 14 per cent of non-poor households were (Akter and Mallick 2013).

As most LDCs are prone to natural disasters, the extent of the devastation caused by natural disasters should be reduced through better preparedness. Many of the countries have designed and implemented national disaster reduction strategies and have embedded them in national development plans. For example, after the devastating earthquake in Nepal in April 2015, the country prepared a National Adaptation Programme of Action (NAPA) and Local Action Plan for Adaptation (LAPA) to mitigate and adapt to the growing impacts of climate change. To facilitate the implementation of these plans, Nepal adopted a climate change budget code system in order to ensure sufficient resources for climate change adaptation and mitigation (Nepal 2016).

There has been recent renewed global progress, particularly in strengthening disaster management and addressing the issue of resilience-building in LDCs. The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030, which has seven global targets, calls for a substantial increase in the number of countries with disaster risk reduction strategies by 2020 and, by 2030, enhanced international cooperation with developing countries to support their implementation of the framework, and a substantial increase in the availability of and access to multi-hazard early warning systems and disaster risk information and assessment.

Many LDCs are severely challenged by rising economic losses from natural disasters, as most losses are uninsured and Governments do not have the financial reserves or sufficient, rapid access to contingency financing that would allow them to absorb the losses, recover and rebuild. Some LDCs have also benefited from resources for debt relief provided under the Heavily Indebted Poor Country Initiative (HIPC), Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative (MDRI) and the recently restructured Catastrophe Containment and Relief (CCR) Trust, which expanded the circumstances under which it can provide exceptional assistance to its low-income members to include public health disasters.

LDCs are also vulnerable to health threats, including the recent Ebola crisis in West Africa, which hampered the efforts of the affected countries to reduce poverty and generate decent jobs and food security for at least the next five years (UNECA 2015).

LDCs such as Burkina Faso and Burundi recorded political unrests. The uprising at the end of October 2014 in Burkina Faso caused at least 24 deaths and about 600 were left wounded. Substantial damage to property was also reported. The transition Government is implementing support measures for victims of the uprising (Burkina Faso 2015).

3.7 Mobilizing financial resources for development and capacity building

3.7.1 Domestic resources mobilization

The rate of gross domestic savings as a percentage of GDP in LDCs increased from 17 per cent in 2001-2010 to 20 per cent in 2014. The ratio of government revenue to GDP, excluding grants, has also increased from 13 per cent to 16 per cent over the same period. Although domestic resource mobilization has improved, the current level stands far below the needs of the LDCs, as well as one-third lower than middle-income countries. It is also much lower than high-income countries which average 20–30 per cent of GDP collected as government revenue[27].

The LDC average rate of domestic resource mobilization masks wide differences between countries. Angola, Kiribati and Mozambique all have revenue shares of GDP in excess of 20 per cent, while Afghanistan, the Central African Republic, Uganda and Sierra Leone have revenue to GDP ratios of around 10 per cent. This heterogeneity within the LDC group suggests that while a country's income level may represent its *potential* for domestic resource mobilisation, it is the tax efforts of national institutions which will determine the actual mobilisation of revenues. A recent estimate puts the resources which could be mobilized from a 1 per cent increase in tax revenue in LDCs at roughly US$5.8 billion (Bhattacharya, 2016).

Greater domestic resource mobilization should be an essential pillar of overall resource mobilization. That approach would not only secure access by LDCs to a stable stream of resources but also provide increased policy space in the use of those resources. Furthermore, strengthening domestic resource mobilization goes hand in hand with improved accountability of governments to their citizens and thus improved governance. Improved domestic resource mobilization will require strong and sustained growth through productive capacity building, as well as the pursuit and consolidation of ongoing reforms. These include the modernization of tax systems, making them more progressive; the streamlining of tax incentives; addressing problems with transfer pricing; and improving tax compliance. Equally strong support of the international community for building capacity in these areas is needed, as it will enable the LDCs to generate more resources in the medium term. Private sector development and an enabling business environment will play a crucial role in domestic resource mobilization. However, the overall trend of net transfer of resources to LDCs (including of capital and capital servicing, the net foreign earnings of labour, plus the net change in reserves) has been marginal since 2003 (UN-DESA, 2016).

3.7.2 Official development assistance

Owing to their vulnerability, high poverty rates, limited capacities and limited access to other sources of capital, LDCs have been highly dependent on global support in terms of resources, capacity development and technical assistance. At a time when their vulnerability is growing and capacities are still limited, international support will be critical in the full implementation of the Istanbul Programme of Action in the years ahead.

Bilateral official development assistance (ODA) to LDCs increased by 4 per cent in real terms in 2015 after several years of diminishing flows. Total ODA flows to LDCs in 2014 were still below the level reached in 2008, prior to the global economic crisis. Looking forward, there are indications that the declining aid trends are likely to be reversed. A survey of donor country spending plans through 2018 suggests that country-programmable aid is likely to increase by US$2.7 billion in 2015, with LDCs benefiting most (LDC aid levels are expected to grow by 5.7 per cent in real terms). This upward trajectory of aid to LDCs is projected to remain stable until 2018, with increases in aid expected for two-thirds of LDCs (OECD 2015).

While international public resources are the smallest source of development finance for developing countries in general (Overseas Development Institute et al. 2015) (behind FDI, domestic investment and domestic resource mobilization), LDCs still depend on ODA for an average of six per cent of their GNI (see Figure A6), and 14 LDCs received more than 50 per cent of their government expenses from ODA in 2011-14 (including five LDC depending on ODA for more than 100 per cent of central government expenses).

In 2014, a total of eight OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC) donors (Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Luxembourg, Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland) reached the goal of providing at least 0.15 per cent of gross national income (GNI) in ODA to LDCs, down from 9 in 2013 and 10 in 2011. However, the average share of ODA to LDCs in the GNI of DAC donors was only 0.09 per cent, well below the targets.

Commitments on delivering untied aid have yet to be fulfilled, with 13 per cent of ODA channelled to LDCs in 2013 still subject to requirements regarding suppliers in donor countries. In addition, challenges related to the fragmentation and predictability of such assistance also persisted.

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[27] World Bank (2013). Financing for Development Post-2015, p. 9.

Development partners need to fulfil at the earliest possible date their commitment – which was reiterated at the Midterm review of the IPoA – to provide the equivalent of 0.15-0.2 per cent of their GNI as official development assistance to LDCs. In the meantime, a strong policy signal would be to commit to channelling a higher share of their total ODA to these countries. In 2014-2015, several DAC members committed to increasing the share of their total ODA provided to LDCs (Belgium, Czech Republic, Ireland and the Republic of Korea) (OECD 2016). It is also important to uphold the principles of aid and development effectiveness, including predictability and transparency, harmonization, country ownership and untied aid. The impact of ODA will have a multiplier effect, if a greater amount of ODA goes to the productive sector[28] and if it is used to leverage more resources for infrastructure development and energy as well as domestic resource mobilisation.

3.7.3 External Debt

The external debt stock of LDCs as a whole averaged 25.6 per cent of GNI in 2011-14. For many LDCs the level of debt burden is currently sustainable, following the Enhanced HIPC and the Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative (MDRI) debt relief initiatives as coupled with improved economic growth in recent years.

In 2014, the total external debt of the LDCs amounted to US$217 billion, an increase of 8.8 per cent compared with 2013. International reserves increased by 6.1 per cent to US$76.3 billion, helping to raise the coverage of reserves to short-term debt from 539.5 per cent in 2013 to 550.2 per cent in 2014. Despite the increase in total debt stock, the ratio of debt to GDP remained stable at 24.7 per cent in 2014 as it did in 2013. The recent decline of commodity prices, however, poses a risk of debt distress as many commodity-exporting LDCs experience declining revenues. To avoid unsustainable debt situations, new attempts for sovereign debt restructuring need to be considered. A resolution on "Basic Principles on Sovereign Debt Restructuring Processes" (A/RES/69/319) was adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations on 10 September 2015. The resolution endorses a set of nine principles for the sovereign debt restructuring processes, including sovereignty, good faith, transparency, legitimacy, equitable treatment and sustainability.

3.7.4 Foreign direct investment

Foreign direct investment (FDI) flows to the LDCs increased by one third in 2015 to US$35 billion, led by greenfield investment projects. Around half of all greenfield investment in these countries originated from developing countries. Following very strong growth between 2005 and 2010, overall FDI flows to LDCs have remained broadly constant over the past five years, accounting for 2 per cent of world FDI (see Figure A7).

Table 5. Inward FDI as a percentage of the world total

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Developed economies	50.4 %	52.2 %	52.1 %	47.7 %	40.9 %	54.6 %
Developing economies	45.0 %	42.8 %	43.6 %	46.4 %	54.7 %	43.4 %
LDCs	1.7 %	1.4 %	1.5 %	1.5 %	2.1 %	2.0 %

Source: UNCTAD, World Investment Report 2016.

Foreign direct investment inflows are concentrated in a few countries, with five countries accounting for 58 per cent of the total in 2014: Mozambique (US$4.9 billion), Zambia (US$2.5 billion), the Democratic Republic of the Congo (US$2.1 billion), the United Republic of Tanzania (US$2.1 billion) and Equatorial Guinea (US$1.9 billion). The Lao People's Democratic Republic and Myanmar saw strong FDI growth of 69 per cent and 62 per cent, respectively. In 2014 greenfield FDI in mining, quarrying and petroleum increased again. Although FDI in the service sector declined, it remained the largest sector. Greenfield investment in manufacturing was the lowest, reflecting limited structural transformation. For LDCs, it is important to attract not only more FDI but FDI that contributes to structural transformation, employment creation and equitable and sustainable growth.

To meet the acute need of LDCs for rapid industrialization, energy generation, infrastructure development and technology and innovation, more foreign direct investment is required. The current level of FDI is not only low; it is also concentrated in a few countries and sectors. Both home-country and host-country measures need to be initiated and/or strengthened. The international community should increase coordinated investment support for the countries with the contribution of all stakeholders, in line

28 See From Billions to Trillions: MDB Contributions to Financing for Development. Available at: http://www.worldbank.org/mdgs/documents/FfD-MDB-Contributions-July-13-2015.pdf

with the pledge made in the Addis Ababa Action Agenda and the Midterm review of the IPoA to adopt and implement investment promotion regimes for the LDCs. In that regard, key measures could include (a) financial and technical support for project preparation and contract negotiation, (b) advisory support in investment-related dispute resolution, (c) access to information on investment facilities and (d) enhanced risk insurance and guarantees such as those available through the Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA). LDCs will need to further improve their business and regulatory environment to attract larger and more diversified FDI flows.

3.7.5 Remittances

Remittances, which are mostly private flows out of wages, are a very important source of financing for LDCs, much more so than for other developing countries. Table 7 below shows remittances as a per cent of GDP and per cent of total trade in goods and services for both country groups:

Table 6. Remittances as a per cent of GDP and of total trade

Remittances as a per cent of GDP	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**
LDCs	4.1	4.0	4.5	4.2	4.1
Developing economies excluding LDCs	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.4
Remittances as a per cent of total trade in goods and services	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**
LDCs	14.6	13.5	15.2	14.6	15.4
Developing economies excluding LDCs	4.8	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.4

Source: United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, UNCTADstat database as of 25 February 2016.

Remittance flows to LDCs increased from US$25.5 billion in 2010 to US$35.8 billion in 2014. The cost of remitting continues to be a challenge. In some of the corridors, costs of remitting continue to be exorbitant, particularly to the African countries, partly because of limited competition among service providers. In 2009, the G8 set a target, later adopted by the G20, to reduce the cost of international remittances from 10 to 5 per cent within five years. The Addis Ababa Action Agenda called for even lower costs of 3 per cent. The introduction of money transfer services has somewhat reduced the costs of remitting, which declined by two percentage points to 7.7 per cent in 2015 compared to 2009, but is yet to be generalized in many countries. Such services also present challenges that relate, inter alia, to safety and reliability safeguards and the level of literacy required for their use.

Remittances from other developing countries to LDCs, particularly emerging markets within their own region, are also extremely important. Understanding the impact that different types of remittances have for the recipients is important as equitability and impact in the local economy are both related to the type of migration. For example, a study on the impact of remittances in Burkina Faso found that this source of finance from migrants can help households “overcome credit constraints and facilitate investment in relatively high return activities”, thus enabling recipients to enter labour-intensive activities with high returns that have high entry barriers (Wouterse and Taylor 2008).

Scaling up the development impact of remittances will require reducing their transaction cost, channelling a growing share of the flows towards the productive sector and leveraging their potential for the development of the financial and banking industry.

3.8 Governance at all levels

Good governance and the rule of law at local, national and international levels are essential for sustained, inclusive and equitable economic growth, sustainable development and the eradication of poverty and hunger.

Overall progress towards improving governance in LDCs since 2011 has been slow. For example, most African LDCs did not make progress, as measured by the Ibrahim Index of African Governance, including in public sector management, rule of law and state accountability to citizens (AfDB, OECD, UNDP 2015). However, there are also several success stories with Senegal and Lesotho among the top 10 performers in Africa having made significant improvements. Among Asian LDCs, the biggest change over the past five years took place in Myanmar, which made significant progress towards a democratic system, culminating in a largely free and fair election at the end of 2015. Furthermore, the proportion of LDCs with national human rights institutions has more than doubled over the past 15 years, increasing from 12.5 per cent in 2000 up to 27.1 per cent in 2015 (UN 2016e).

The commitment to the fight against corruption increased significantly, with 42 LDCs now parties to the United Nations Convention against Corruption, as it has been ratified by five additional LDCs and five others acceded between 2011 and 2015.

Since 2010, 12 additional LDCs were considered compliant with the Extractive Industry Transparency Initiative (EITI), increasing the total to 14. In addition, eight LDCs were EITI candidate countries at the end of 2015. Compliance means that the country has published satisfactory EITI reports and has a functioning EITI process to oversee and improve levels of transparency and accountability further. For example, Chad reached EITI compliance in 2014. A new unit created in response to recommendations by previous EITI reports in the country is dedicated to tracking government revenues from oil, gas and mining companies. The unit – called *Cellule de Collecte et Centralisation des Recettes du pétrole (CCCR)* – monitors that companies' payments are adequately recorded and the revenues flow to the right accounts.

E-government can help to address many of the challenges LDCs are facing, including providing greater access to public services, enhancing disaster risk reduction and enabling greater government efficiency and transparency to ensure more effective use of limited resources. However, LDCs score lowest at the e-Government Development Index with an average of 0.21 in 2014 as compared to 0.41 for lower middle-income countries (UN-DESA 2014). This low score is partly due to the lack of ICT infrastructure. However, while all LDCs have some basic e-Governance in place, they are making little or no progress in moving to the more advanced stages of e-government development, including the provision of e-services, e-participation and open government data.

Improving the transparency of public spending needs to be complemented by other measures such as expenditure control, fiscal management and the efficiency of public spending. Several LDCs have improved service delivery despite limited tax revenues. Some general principles of policy improvement in this respect include better priority setting, improved consistency of responsibility assignment across levels of government or agencies, better user information and better balanced provider payment schemes (AfDB, OECD, UNDP 2016).

The general lack of data in all areas covered by the IPoA and the SDGs, especially in areas of poverty, employment, road coverage, air transport, and agricultural inputs makes policy planning very difficult. Thus, due priority should be given to LDCs for building capacity to collect and process timely and accurate data. This will greatly enhance the implementation and monitoring of the IPoA as well as SDGs and promote accountability.

No significant progress has been made in reforming global governance structures. Forty-eight LDCs, with 12 per cent of the global population, collectively hold only 3.33 per cent of the voting power of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and 3.84 per cent of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD). None of the 48 LDCs are represented in the Basel Committee on Banking Supervision or in the Financial Stability Board of the Group of 20. As a result, their concerns and priorities remain largely unrepresented in many international forums and global standards are not always relevant to the LDCs or within their near-term capacity to implement.

The IPoA principle of country ownership and leadership remains crucial in order to accelerate progress with respect to sustainable development in LDCs. In this respect governance is a key element, which includes improved institutions, the formulation of coherent economic and development policies and strategies and the alignment of resource allocations with priorities. The mainstreaming of the SDGs into national plans is also needed in this respect, especially SDG 16 in this context on building effective, accountable and inclusive institutions. Furthermore, country leadership is closely related to mutual accountability with respect to the implementation of the actions agreed in the IPoA.

4. PERFORMANCE AND PROSPECTS TOWARDS GRADUATION

LDCs have made some progress towards graduation, which is the overarching goal of the IPoA, since 2011. While only three countries graduated from the LDC category up to 2011, namely Botswana, Cabo Verde and Maldives, the number of countries meeting the graduation criteria increased significantly since then. Samoa graduated in January 2014 and ten additional LDCs reached the graduation thresholds as of March 2015. Equatorial Guinea is scheduled to graduate in 2017. A decision on the postponement of the graduation of Vanuatu until 2020 was recently adopted by the UN General Assembly (GA) in view of the serious disruption of its economic and social progress caused by Cyclone Pam in March 2015. The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) will consider the issue of Tuvalu's graduation in 2018. Angola met the graduation thresholds for the second time in 2015 and the GA passed a resolution which will lead to its graduation in February 2021. Kiribati was also found to have met the thresholds for the second consecutive time in 2015. However, the Committee for Development Policy decided to defer its decision on a recommendation on Kiribati's graduation to 2018, as this small island LDC scores highest on the vulnerability index among all countries and as there are associated concerns on the sustainability of its current level of income. Five additional LDCs met the graduation thresholds for the first time in 2015, namely Bhutan, Nepal, Sao Tome and Principe, Solomon Islands and Timor-Leste, and will be considered for possible graduation at the next triennial review in 2018.

An encouraging number of LDCs have announced their ambition to graduate around 2020. Countries such as Bangladesh, Bhutan, Cambodia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar and Nepal in Asia have included clear timetables for graduation in their national development plans and started preparing assessments of the impact that the loss of LDC status would have on official development assistance flows and trade preferences, including through an exchange of views with already graduated countries. The long-term national development visions of several African LDCs, such as Rwanda, Ethiopia, the United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda, lay out plans to foster economic growth, eradicate poverty, bring about structural transformation and enable the countries to reach middle-income status and graduate from the LDC category in the next decade or so.

Support for the graduation of LDCs has increased in recent years. UN entities, led by OHRLLS, have provided analytical support and capacity building and have organized various workshops and meetings to facilitate an exchange of experiences among LDCs (UN 2015e). The Support Measures Portal for Least Developed Countries[29] provides detailed information including on smooth transition measures.

There are several general smooth transition measures in place which are available to all graduating LDCs. In the case of the LDC Fund (LDCF) established under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), if a national adaptation programme of action (NAPA) is prepared before the country graduates, access to LDCF funds can continue but only for a few projects, after which the funds may no longer be accessible. Beneficiary countries of the EIF that graduate from the LDC category will automatically continue to access benefits for at least three years following graduation. In the area of trade preferences, the European Union has applied, since 2012, a general smooth transition measure which extends the benefits under the "Everything but Arms" (EBA) initiative for a transitional period of at least three years for countries that graduate from the LDC category. The objective is to alleviate any adverse effects which may be caused by the removal of the tariff preferences granted under the special arrangement for LDCs (UN 2015e).

Recently graduated countries – namely Maldives and Samoa – overall continued on their development path. They also had similar levels of ODA flows and exports after graduation. Their smooth transition strategies also received support from some development partners.

It is important that graduation be seen not as a cut-off point but rather as a resolute move towards better and sustained economic development and virtuous structural transformation. Underpinned by the ownership and leadership of the LDCs, the process of graduation and smooth transition needs to be accompanied by concrete and substantially enhanced international support measures provided by development and trade partners in a spirit of shared responsibility and mutual accountability in line with General Assembly resolution 67/221. At both the bilateral and multilateral levels, support measures need to be tailored to the particular situation of each graduating and graduated country, including a gradual phasing out of these support measures to ensure that their development process is not jeopardized by the sudden loss of LDC-specific preferences.

Graduation and smooth transition strategies should be integrated into national development strategies as well as donors' development cooperation strategies. The cycle of preparation of such strategies needs to be taken into account at an early stage in the graduation process. Countries that are found eligible for graduation need to start the consultative process on their transition strategy as early as possible, engaging all relevant donors and stakeholders. The strategy should be flexible to adjust to the new challenges that may arise during the process.

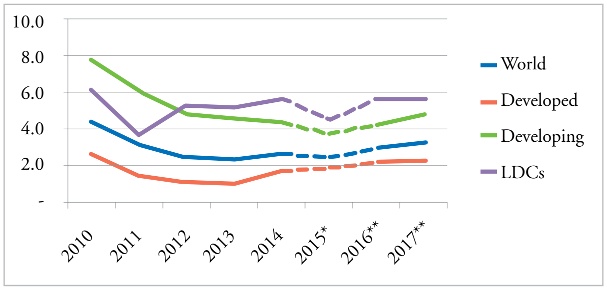
Development partners should provide timely information about support measures directed specifically towards the LDCs and on smooth transition measures to allow graduating countries to adjust to a phasing-out of LDC-specific support.

In line with General Assembly resolution 67/221, development partners should apply the LDC criteria, namely the gross national income per capita, the human assets index and the economic vulnerability index, in their process of aid allocation. This would constitute a built-in smooth transition measure and also make the allocation of ODA more stable and predictable.

[29] See: http://esango.un.org/ldcportal/

APPENDIX

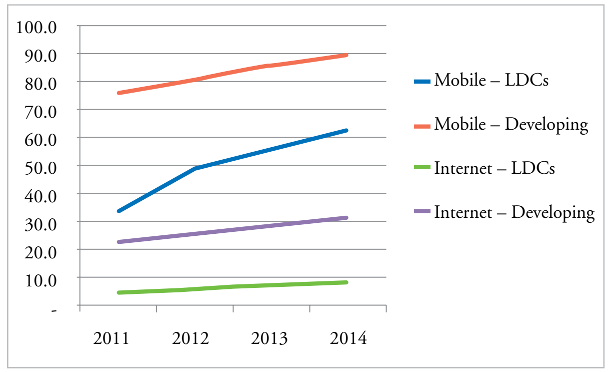
Figure A1.
Average GDP growth rates by country grouping, 2010-2017



** Estimate. ** Forecast.*

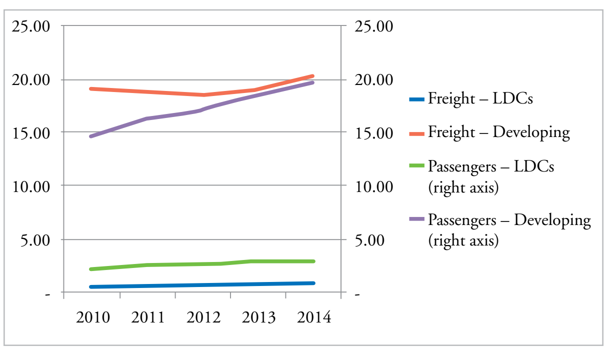
Source: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA), World Economic Situation and Prospects (WESP) database as of December 7, 2015.

Figure A2.
Mobile cellular subscriptions and internet users per 100, LDCs and developing countries.



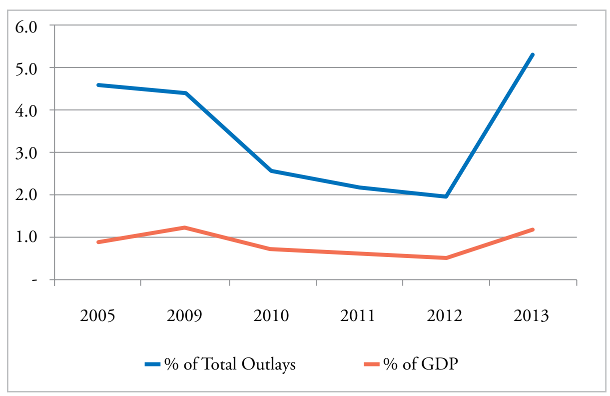
Source: SG Report and World Bank, World Development Indicators database as of 22 February 2016.

Figure A3.
Air transport, freight (million ton-km, left axis) and passengers carried (per 1000 people, right axis)



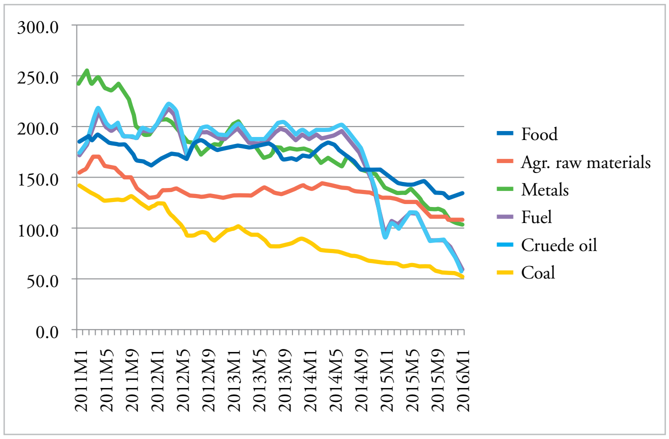
Source: SG Report and World Bank, World Development Indicators database as of 22 February 2016.

Figure A4.
Total Government Expenditure on Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing in LDCs as per cent of Total Outlays and as per cent of GDP, 2005-2013



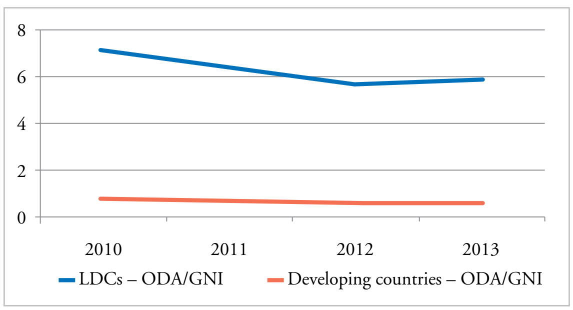
Source: SG Report and World Bank, World Development Indicators database as of 22 February 2016.

Figure A5.
Prices indices of selected commodities, 2005=100



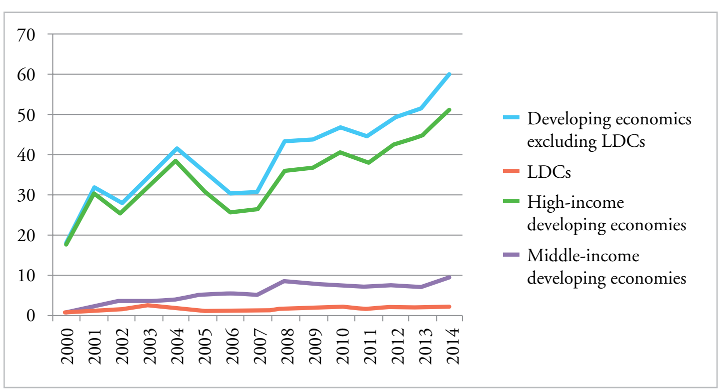
Source: IMF Primary Commodity Prices[30] *as of 25 February 2016.*

Figure A6.
Official Development Assistance as percentage of Gross National Income in LDCs (average)



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators database as of 29 February 2016.

Figure A7.
Inward FDI as a per cent of the total world



Source: United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, UNCTADstat database as of August 2016.

30 http://www.imf.org/external/np/res/commod/index.aspx

PART 2

COHERENCE AND SYNERGIES BETWEEN THE IPOA AND THE 2030 AGENDA

1. INTRODUCTION

The Istanbul Programme of Action (IPoA) for the decade 2011-2020 includes a number of goals, targets and actions under eight priority areas and progress, which have been reviewed in Part 1 of this report. The comprehensive midterm review of the IPoA stressed the coherence of the IPoA with the other new development frameworks agreed in 2015.

Four years after the adoption of the IPoA, heads of states adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, including the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) with the objective to fight poverty and achieve sustainable development during the next 15 years. The SDGs, with 17 goals and 169 targets (UN 2015a) as opposed to only 8 goals and 21 targets of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), are far more coherent, comprehensive and elaborate. It is also universal as it applies both to developed and developing countries, as challenges facing the world are perceived as being global.

This new global development agenda focuses on all dimensions of sustainable development with a special focus on the least developed and most vulnerable countries. The agenda is transformational and ambitious and puts a focus on equality under the headline "Leaving no one behind", which implies giving priority to the LDCs as marginalised and vulnerable countries. The SDGs provide a broad and integrated development framework. LDCs received special attention in the 2030 Agenda as the most vulnerable countries in the world. Indeed, the 2030 Agenda aims to support the implementation of relevant strategies and programmes of action, including the IPoA. The challenges and priorities of LDCs are firmly embodied in the basic architecture of the 2030 Agenda.

In addition to the2030 Agenda, there have been a number of other important international events in 2015 where LDC issues have received special attention. The Sendai Framework for disaster risk reduction, Addis Ababa Action Agenda (AAAA) and the Paris Agreement (COP21) of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) are among those which have implications for implementation of the IPoA and the SDGs.

This report maps the goals and targets of the IPoA to the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda. It focuses on the actions agreed in the IPoA and the means of implementation under each SDG as well as in goal 17, and how their implementation can be enhanced. The report thus gives special attention to the issue of coherence in the implementation, review and follow-up of the IPoA on the one hand and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the outcomes of other processes, on the other. Policy implications for mainstreaming the global frameworks at the national, regional and global levels are also made.

2. Matching the IPoA Priorities to the SDGs

2.1 A Brief overview of the IPoA and the SDGs

LDCs face several structural challenges, which impede their progress towards poverty eradication and achieving various globally set development goals. Stemming from the political commitment of Member States, the IPoA has the overarching objective of overcoming the structural challenges faced by the LDCs in order to eradicate poverty, achieve internationally agreed development goals and enable graduation from the LDC category.

At the time of the adoption of the IPoA, the global economy was just recovering from a number of global economic shocks, including food, fuel and the economic crises. In addition, emerging challenges such as climate change were also prominent. Hence, the IPoA also put special focus on how LDCs can overcome such vulnerabilities.

Furthermore, the IPoA calls for renewed and strengthened partnership for the development of LDCs. To realize the IPoA objectives, Member States incorporated the role of various actors including LDCs, developing countries, developed countries, parliaments, the private sector, civil society, academia and the United Nations system. The IPoA emphasised that through implementation of the right policies and support measures that are mentioned in the IPoA and through the political will of global leaders, it was possible to have balanced, sustained, equitable and inclusive economic growth in LDCs. As such, meeting the development needs of LDCs as agreed in the IPoA would contribute to meeting the SDGs that were set out in the 2030 Agenda.

The IPoA has 47 goals and targets. In addition, LDCs committed to undertake 126 actions and development partners committed to implement 109 actions. LDCs and development partners will undertake 16 joint actions to implement the eight IPoA priority areas.

Several goals and targets of the IPoA coincide with the SDGs, which address the root causes of poverty and the universal need for sustainable development. They seek to promote economic growth, structural transformation, environmental sustainability and human development, peace, justice and institutions, which are priority areas for LDCs. Furthermore, the SDGs are aspirational, comprehensive and holistic aiming to "leave no one behind".

The SDGs have been built on the success of the MDGs, which helped to lift more than one billion people out of extreme poverty (UN 2015). However, despite such achievements, the world still experiences high rates of poverty and inequality. In addition, progress on various economic and social indicators among and within countries has been uneven. The transformational agenda of the SDGs adopts a universal approach for all countries and groups and calls for integration of equity and sustainability in all activities. In comparison with the MDGs, removing all forms of inequalities, advancement of human rights and dealing with the negative implications of climate change have also received prominence in the SDGs. The need for reliable data and enhanced and effective global partnerships for Means of Implementation (MOI) have been highlighted. People, planet, prosperity, peace and partnership (5 Ps) are considered as the essential elements of the SDGs.

Therefore, the scope of the SDGs is much wider than MDGs. They are transformational, ambitious and encompass three dimensions of sustainable development – economic, social and environmental. This distinction is also extended to the IPoA. While the majority of the IPoA priorities can be categorised under economic and social dimensions, the environmental aspect is not comprehensively covered. This point will be returned to in the final section of this chapter.

2.2 Comparing IPoA and the SDGs: goals, targets and selected actions

There are several areas of complementarity between the IPoA and SDGs, which will lead LDCs towards achieving sustainable development. This will however require building synergies and coherence in the implementation of these frameworks (discussed in the next section). Previous publications, including the Global Sustainable Development Report (2015) have conducted assessments on the level of comprehensiveness between the IPoA and the SDGs. In the present publication, a comparison of the alignment of various SDG targets in relation to the overarching objectives and the eight IPoA priority areas is presented.

Matching these two frameworks will be conducted using the following criteria:

- The focus of the comparison is based on the IPoA overarching objectives and priority areas. Hence, the SDGs are matched with commitments made by Member States in the IPoA.
- The matching is conducted between the SDG targets and the IPoA goals, targets and actions. The IPoA subdivides the responsibilities by actions to be implemented by LDCs, actions to be undertaken by development partners and actions to be implemented jointly.
- When comparing the two frameworks, attention is paid to the similarity in meaning of the goals, targets and/ or actions being matched. Where variations exist, they are highlighted in both the text and the table.

The subsequent sub-sections compare the IPoA overarching objectives and priority areas to the global commitments made by Member States through the SDGs.[31]

2.2.1 Overarching Goal of the IPoA

As described earlier, the IPoA is guided by an overarching goal of eradicating poverty, achieving internationally agreed development goals and enabling at least half the number of LDCs to meet the criteria for graduation from the LDC category by 2020. While the SDGs do not highlight the issue of meeting the graduation criteria, Member States dedicated SDG 1 to ending poverty in all its forms everywhere. This goal is more comprehensive than what is stated in the IPoA. It includes targets such as eradicating extreme poverty for all people everywhere by 2030 (SDG 1.1) and reducing by half the proportion of people living in poverty in all its' dimensions according to national definitions (SDG 1.2).

In order to meet the IPoA overarching goal, Member States set forth specific objectives (paragraph 28, IPoA). One of the objectives emphasises the need to achieve sustained, equitable and inclusive economic growth. Member States agreed that it was necessary to attain at least 7 per cent Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per annum. Analogously, Member States made a similar commitment for LDCs in SDG 8.1.

[31] In the following tables commitments are marked as same (=) if the text is (almost) identical, similar (≈) if they are related to the same issue but differ somewhat in scope or ambition, and different (X) if an issue is only covered in one of the frameworks.

Priority Areas of the IPoA

2.2.2 Productive capacity

In most LDCs, productive sectors are still underdeveloped, which leads to a high dependence on exports of unprocessed commodities. Most LDCs are also constrained by their vulnerability to economic shocks and commodity price fluctuations. In order to benefit from greater integration into the global economy and achieve structural transformation, inter alia, the IPoA calls for building a critical mass of viable and competitive productive capacity in agriculture, manufacturing and services. The pre-requisites for facilitating productive capacity in the IPoA are as follows: infrastructure; energy; science, technology and innovation; and private sector development.

In the SDGs, Member States call for building resilient infrastructure, promoting inclusive and sustainable industrialization and fostering innovation. Target 9.2 sets the objective for inclusive and sustainable industrialization and raising industry's share of employment and gross domestic product by 2030.

A matching exercise between the SDGs and the IPoA on infrastructure reveals similarities. For example, SDG 9.1 calls for development of quality, reliable, sustainable and resilient infrastructure to support economic development and human well-being with a focus on affordable and equitable access for all. Several targets highlight the importance of infrastructure, industrialization, technological upgrade and access to information and communication (Table 7). A related IPoA target more specifically calls for a significant increase in combined rail and paved road mileage and sea and air networks by 2020.

Similarly, the energy component is largely comparable between the two agendas (see table 7). For example, Member States agreed in both agendas to ensure access to energy for all by 2030 (IPoA paragraph 45.f; SDG 7.a), improving energy efficiency and expanding energy generation, especially renewable energy. In addition to and unlike in the 2030 Agenda, the IPoA calls for an increase in energy supply per capita to the same level as other developing countries (paragraph 45.d). On the other hand, compared to the IPoA, some SDGs have more specific quantitative targets. For example, SDG 7.3 calls for doubling of the global rate of improvement in energy efficiency by 2030. A related action in the IPoA calls for improving the generation, transmission and distribution of energy but does not provide a quantitative target.

Regarding science, technology and innovation, Member States agreed in both global agendas to increase access to information and communications technology. Member States also agreed to establish a technology bank dedicated to LDCs. Unlike the SDGs, the IPoA also calls for building and expanding broadband connectivity, e-networking and e-connectivity in relevant areas. The Member State's commitments related to private sector development are similar.

Table 7: IPoA on Productive Capacity and the SDGs

	Istanbul Programme of Action (Goals, targets and selected actions)	Sustainable Development Goals (Target)	
Infrastructure	**45.g** Ensure that the LDCs have significant increase in combined rail and paved road mileage and sea and air networks by 2020	**9.1** Develop quality, reliable, sustainable and resilient infrastructure[32]	≈
	48.1.a. Allocate and disburse annually an adequate percentage of the budget for the development and maintenance of infrastructure (**LDC action**) **48.2.a.** Provide enhanced financial and technical support for infrastructure development in line with least developed countries' sectoral and development needs and priorities and use concessional funds, where appropriate, to catalyse and leverage other sources of funding for infrastructure development and management (**action by development partners**) **48.2.c.** Actively support private sector investment, including through public private partnerships and grant/loans blending, for infrastructure development and maintenance in communication and multimodal transport such as railways, roads, waterways, warehouses and port facilities (**action by development partners**)	**9.a** Facilitate sustainable and resilient infrastructure development **11.c** Support least developed countries, including through financial and technical assistance, in building sustainable and resilient buildings utilizing local materials	≈

32 The indicators for this target are "share of the rural population who live within 2 km of an all-season road" and "Passenger and freight volumes, by mode of transport" (see UN, 2016 available at http://unstats.un.org/unsd/statcom/47th-session/documents/2016-2-IAEG-SDGs-Rev1-E.pdf)

	Istanbul Programme of Action (Goals, targets and selected actions)	Sustainable Development Goals (Target)	
Energy	**45.f** Enhance capacities in energy production, trade and distribution with the aim of ensuring access to energy for all by 2030	**7.1** By 2030, ensure universal access to affordable, reliable and modern energy services	≈
	45.d Strive to increase total primary energy supply per capita to the same level as other developing countries		x
	45.e Significantly increase the share of electricity generation through renewable energy sources by 2020	**7.2** By 2030, increase substantially the share of renewable energy in the global energy mix	≈
	50.2.c Facilitate the transfer of appropriate and affordable technology under mutually agreed terms and conditions for the development of clean and renewable energy technologies in accordance with relevant international agreements. (**action by development partners**)	**7.a** By 2030, enhance international cooperation to facilitate access to clean energy research and technology	=
	50.1.c Improve efficiency in the generation, transmission and distribution of energy and sustainable use of energy resources; (**LDC action**)	**7.3** By 2030, double the global rate of improvement in energy efficiency	≈
	50.1.d Expand power infrastructure and increase capacity for energy generation, especially renewable energy which includes, inter alia, hydro power, geothermal, tidal, solar, wind and biomass energy. (LDC action) **50.2.a** Provide enhanced financial and technical support to the least developed countries to improve efficiency in the generation, the transmission and distribution, and the sustainable use of energy resources with the aim of ensuring access to energy for all; (action by development partners)	**7.b** By 2030, expand infrastructure and upgrade technology for supplying modern and sustainable energy services for all in developing countries, in particular least developed countries, small island developing States, and land-locked developing countries, in accordance with their respective programmes of support	≈
Science, technology and innovation	**45.c** Significantly increase access to telecommunication services and strive to provide 100 per cent access to the Internet by 2020 **45.2.c** Ensure that the development of science, technology and innovation receives priority in budget allocation **48.1.c.** Develop modern ICT infrastructure and Internet access, including expansion into rural and remote areas, including through mobile broadband and satellite connections (**LDC action**)	**9.c** Significantly increase access to information and communications technology and strive to provide universal and affordable access to the Internet in LDCs by 2020	=
	48.1.d. Build and expand broadband connectivity, e-networking and e-connectivity in relevant areas, including education, banking, health and governance (**LDC action**)		x

	Istanbul Programme of Action (Goals, targets and selected actions)	Sustainable Development Goals (Target)	
Science, technology and innovation (continued)	**52.1** Undertake on a priority basis by 2013 a joint gap and capacity analysis with the aim of establishing a Technology Bank and Science, Technology and Information supporting mechanism, dedicated to LDCs which would help improve LDCs' scientific research and innovation base, promote networking among researchers and research institutions, help LDCs access and utilize critical technologies, and draw together bilateral initiatives and support by multilateral institutions and the private sector, building on the existing international initiatives. (**Joint actions**)	**17.8.** Fully operationalize the technology bank and science, technology and innovation capacity-building mechanism for least developed countries by 2017 and enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology	≈
Private Sector Development	**45.a** Increase significantly the value addition in natural resource-based industries paying special attention to employment generation **45.b** Diversify local productive and export capability with a focus on dynamic value added sectors in agriculture, manufacturing and services	**9.2** Promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and, by 2030, significantly raise industry's share of employment and gross domestic product, in line with national circumstances, and double its share in LDCs **12.2** By 2030, achieve the sustainable management and efficient use of natural resources	≈
	46.1.d Strengthen the capacity of domestic financial institutions to reach out to those who have no access to banking, insurance and other financial services, including through leveraging the contribution of, among others, micro-finance, micro-insurance, and mutual funds, in creating and expanding financial services targeted to poor and low-income populations, as well as small- and medium-size enterprises; (LDC action)	**9.3** Increase the access of small-scale industrial and other enterprises in particular in developing countries, to financial services	≈

Note: ≈, Similar; =, Same; X, different.

2.2.3 Agriculture, food security and rural development

Agriculture is still the dominant sector in most LDCs, which are dependent on agriculture for food security. It is also the source of employment for a vast majority of the rural population. However, the sector faces a number of challenges, including inadequate investment in the following areas; physical infrastructure, research and development, and scientific and technological development. The sector also suffers from the adverse effects of climate change. This priority area aims to make substantial progress towards eradicating hunger by 2020, increasing investment in rural infrastructure and ensuring food safety and food assistance in LDCs (IPoA paragraph 59).

Compared to the IPoA's three targets, SDG 2 presents a longer list of objectives with regard to agricultural production and sustainable food production. In addition, while both agendas aim to eradicate hunger, the SDGs also include nutrition targets, such as, ending stunting and wasting in children and addressing nutritional needs of adolescent girls, pregnant and lactating women (SDG 2.2).

Like the IPoA, the SDGs also call for increased investment in rural infrastructure, agricultural research and extension services. Member States also agreed in both the IPoA and the 2030 Agenda to eliminate all forms of export subsidies. The variation here is that the target year identified in the IPoA was 2013 while the deadline in the SDGs is open-ended. In general however, the SDG targets and the IPoA goals, targets and actions in this priority area are aligned.

Table 8. IPoA on agriculture, food security and rural development and the SDGs

Istanbul Programme of Action (Goals, targets and selected actions)	Sustainable Development Goals (Target)	
59.a Make substantial progress towards eradicating hunger by 2020	**2.1** By 2030, end hunger and ensure access by all people, in particular the poor and people in vulnerable situations, including infants, to safe, nutritious and sufficient food all year round **2.2** By 2030, end all forms of malnutrition, including achieving, by 2025, the internationally agreed targets on stunting and wasting in children under 5 years of age, and address the nutritional needs of adolescent girls, pregnant and lactating women and older persons	≈
59.b Substantially increase investment in rural infrastructure **60.3.i.** Support least developed countries' national, regional and international agricultural and fishery research institutions, as appropriate, build capacities in tropical agricultural technologies and strengthen agricultural knowledge and information systems supported by agricultural extension services targeting sustained, inclusive and equitable economic growth and poverty eradication in least developed countries (action by development partners)	**2.a** Increase investment in rural infrastructure, agricultural research and extension services, technology development and plant and livestock gene banks in order to enhance agricultural productive capacity	≈
60.1.d Fulfil in the Doha Development Agenda the 2005 pledge of members of the World Trade Organization to ensure the parallel elimination in agriculture of all forms of export subsidies and disciplines on all export measures with equivalent effect to be completed by the end of 2013. (Joint actions)	**2.b** Correct and prevent trade restrictions and distortions in world agricultural markets, including through the parallel elimination of all forms of agricultural export subsidies and all export measures with equivalent effect, in accordance with the mandate of the Doha Development Round	≈
60.2.a Strengthen institutions, including cooperatives, to boost small-holder farmer food production, agricultural productivity and sustainable agricultural practices	**2.3** By 2030, double the agricultural productivity and incomes of small-scale food producers, in particular women, indigenous peoples, family farmers, pastoralists and fishers, including through secure and equal access to land, other productive resources and inputs, knowledge, financial services, markets and opportunities for value addition and non-farm employment	≈
59.c Ensure access to safe food and emergency food assistance in all least developed countries	**2.1** By 2030, end hunger and ensure access by all people, in particular the poor and people in vulnerable situations, including infants, to safe, nutritious and sufficient food all year round	≈

Note: ≈, Similar; =, Same; X, different.

2.2.4 Trade

Due to structural constraints, LDCs do not effectively participate in global trade. The share of LDC exports as a percentage of global exports is very low and is concentrated on a few products, particularly primary commodities (see Part 1, Section 3.3). LDCs are also faced with a limited number of markets, which makes them vulnerable to trade shocks. Hence, the need for market access for their goods is crucial for strengthening their trade capacity and contributing to economic development. To this effect, both the IPoA (paragraph 65.a) and the SDGs (17.11) call for doubling the LDCs' share of global exports by 2020. Paragraph 65.a of the IPoA goes further by calling for a broadening of LDCs' export base. In addition, Member States committed to diversifying export products and markets to non-traditional destinations in the IPoA. This target is missing in the SDGs.

Like the IPoA, SDG 17.12 emphasizes the realization of timely implementation of duty-free and quota-free market access on a lasting basis for all LDCs, consistent with the World Trade Organization decisions, including by ensuring that preferential rules of origin applicable to imports from LDCs are transparent and simple and contribute to facilitating market access. The implementation of special and differential treatment for developing countries, in particular LDCs, has been referred to in SDG 10. Both the IPoA and SDGs also call for increasing Aid for Trade (AfT) for LDCs, including through the Enhanced Integrated Framework for Trade-Related Technical Assistance to LDCs (SDG 8.a). Table 9 draws similarities between the IPoA and the SDGs.

Table 9. IPoA on trade and the SDGs

Istanbul Programme of Action (Goals, targets and selected actions)	Sustainable Development Goals (Target)	
65.a Significantly increase the share of LDCs trade in global trade with the aim of doubling the share of LDCs' exports in global exports by 2020, including by broadening LDCs' export base	**17.11** Significantly increase the exports of developing countries, in particular with a view to doubling the LDCs' share of global exports by 2020	≈
66.2.c Diversify export products and markets to non-traditional destinations (**LDC action**)	**8.2** Achieve higher levels of economic productivity through diversification, technological upgrading and innovation, including through a focus on high-value added and labour-intensive sectors	≈
65.b Make substantial efforts for an early and successful conclusion of the Doha Round of trade negotiations with an ambitious, comprehensive, balanced and development-oriented outcome **66.1.b** Address non-tariff measures and reduce or eliminate arbitrary or unjustified non-tariff barriers, i.e., those that are not in conformity with World Trade Organization rules; standards and technical regulations must be developed transparently and applied in a non-discriminatory manner, and should be technically justified and not constitute a disguised restriction on international trade; (**Joint actions**)	**17.12** Realize timely implementation of duty-free and quota-free market access on a lasting basis for all LDCs, consistent with World Trade Organization decisions, including by ensuring that preferential rules of origin applicable to imports from LDCs are transparent and simple, and contribute to facilitating market access **17.10** Promote a universal, rules-based, open, non-discriminatory and equitable multilateral trading system under the World Trade Organization, including through the conclusion of negotiations under its Doha Development Agenda	≈
66.1.a Resist protectionist tendencies and rectify trade-distorting measures, including in agriculture, that are inconsistent with multilateral obligations; (**Joint actions**)	**2.b** Correct and prevent trade restrictions and distortions in world agricultural markets, including through the parallel elimination of all forms of agricultural export subsidies and all export measures with equivalent effect, in accordance with the mandate of the Doha Development Round	≈
66.3.e Implement effective trade-related technical assistance and capacity building to least developed countries on a priority basis, including by enhancing the share of assistance to least developed countries for Aid for Trade and support for the Enhanced Integrated Framework, as appropriate, and strengthening their capacity to access available resources, in support of the needs and demands of least developed countries expressed through their national development strategies (action by development partners)	**8.a** Increase Aid for Trade support for developing countries, including through the Enhanced Integrated Framework for Trade-related Technical Assistance to Least Developed Countries	≈

Note: ≈, Similar; =, Same; X, different.

2.2.5 Commodities

Commodity production and trade are critical sources of employment, income, savings and foreign exchange in many LDCs. However, the production base of LDCs is dominated by natural resource based sectors. The sector is also fragile as it faces a number of difficulties including volatility of markets and prices, competition from global suppliers and challenges in participating in value chains.

Given these challenges, the IPoA (paragraph 69.2a) calls for better mitigation and management of risks associated with the volatility of commodity prices. While there is no separate goal on commodities among SDGs, Member States in SDG 2.c highlight the need to have proper functioning food markets and facilitating timely access to market information to help limit extreme food price volatility. Beyond responding to the challenges of price volatility, Member States agreed in paragraph 68 of the IPoA to broaden the LDCs' economic base, with the intention of reducing commodity dependence. Similarly, industrial diversification and value addition to commodities were included in the SDGs.

Table 10. IPoA on commodities and the SDGs

Istanbul Programme of Action (Goals, targets and selected actions)	Sustainable Development Goals (Target)	
69.2.a Assist LDCs to better mitigate and manage the risks associated with the volatility of commodity prices without distorting market behavior by strengthening and expanding existing facilities, on a mutually agreed basis	**2.c** Adopt measures to ensure the proper functioning of food commodity markets and their derivatives and facilitate timely access to market information, including on food reserves, in order to help limit extreme food price volatility	≈
68 Broaden LDCs' economic base in order to reduce commodity dependence **69.2.d** Support LDCs in strengthening effective marketing systems and support frameworks for small commodity producers in LDCs	**9.b** Support domestic technology development, research and innovation in developing countries, including by ensuring a conducive policy environment for, inter alia, industrial diversification and value addition to commodities	≈

Note: ≈, Similar; =, Same; X, different.

2.2.6 Human and social development

The IPoA adopted human and social development goals in line with the MDGs and thus reconfirmed the commitments of MDGs in areas such as education, population and primary health, youth development, shelter, water and sanitation, gender equality and empowerment, and social protection. The IPoA expresses commitments in these areas beyond 2015. It emphasizes that improvement in human and social development is a pre-condition for improved productive capacity.

In both the IPoA and SDGs, the human and social development agenda is exhaustive. These priorities have received the highest attention in the SDGs as was the case during the MDGs. The first five SDGs encompass these aspects. Many similar targets also appear in a number of goals. For example, gender equality and empowerment features as a cross cutting issue and is reflected in many targets of the SDGs apart from a separate gender related goal (SDG 5). As can be observed from Table 11, the SDGs emphasize elimination of discrimination in accessing education, training and economic opportunities.

Both agendas call for universal access to free primary education. In the SDGs, this call is extended to secondary education. The quality of education is also emphasized in both agendas. Furthermore, in both the IPoA and the SDGs, Member States committed to increase access to higher education, including vocational education and skill development training. Additionally, it was agreed in the SDGs to ensure affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university for all.

Regarding the population and primary health sub-theme, both the IPoA and the SDGs call for a reduction in infant, under-five and maternal mortality. On these targets, the SDGs are more specific on the level of reduction to be achieved (see SDG 3.1 and 3.2).

Similar to the SDGs, the IPoA targets for water and sanitation aim to provide universal access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation to all. The IPoA has an earlier target date (2020) for meeting this target.

Under youth development, the SDGs go further than the IPoA by incorporating targets 8.6 and 8.b on reducing the proportion of unemployed youths as well as operationalizing a global strategy for youth unemployment, respectively. Social protection, particularly for marginalized and vulnerable people, received attention in both the IPoA and the SDGs.

Table 11. IPoA on human and social development and the SDGs

	Istanbul Programme of Action (Goals, targets and selected actions)	Sustainable Development Goals (Target)	
Education and training	**73.a** Ensure universal access to free primary education in least developed countries by increasing the enrolment and retention rates, and also increase access to secondary, tertiary and vocational education and skill development training **73.b** Increase the quality of education and training that is offered at all levels and increase literacy and numeracy rates of adults and children	**4.1** By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes **4.3** By 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university	≈
	73.c Eliminate gender disparities in education and training and ensure equal quality of education between males and females	**4.5** By 2030, eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations	≈
Population and primary health	**77.a** Achieve targets under MDGs 4 and 5 by 2015 and, building on these, further significantly reduce the infant, under-five and maternal mortality rates and child under nutrition by 2020	**3.1** By 2030, reduce the global maternal mortality ratio to less than 70 per 100,000 live births **3.2** By 2030, end preventable deaths of new-born and children under 5 years of age, with all countries aiming to reduce neonatal mortality to at least as low as 12 per 1,000 live births and under 5 mortality to at least as low as 25 per 1,000 live births	≈
	77.c Achieve targets under MDG 6 by 2015 and, building on this, further reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS and the incidence of malaria and other major diseases	**3.3** By 2030, end the epidemics of AIDS, tuberculosis, malaria and neglected tropical diseases and combat hepatitis, water-borne diseases and other communicable diseases **3.b** Support the research and development of vaccines and medicines for the communicable and non communicable diseases that primarily affect developing countries, provide access to affordable essential medicines and vaccines, in accordance with the Doha Declaration on the TRIPS Agreement and Public Health, which affirms the right of developing countries to use to the full the provisions in the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights regarding flexibilities to protect public health, and, in particular, provide access to medicines for all	≈
	77.b Provide universal access to reproductive health by 2015, including integrating family planning, sexual health and health-care services in national strategies and programmes	**3.7** By 2030, ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health-care services, including for family planning, information and education, and the integration of reproductive health into national strategies and programmes	≈
	78.2.a Take steps to realize the right of everyone to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health, including sexual and reproductive health; **(LDC action)**	**5.6** Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights as agreed, in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of their review conferences	≈

	Istanbul Programme of Action (Goals, targets and selected actions)	Sustainable Development Goals (Target)	
Youth development	**80.a** Strive to ensure the full and effective participation of youth in the life of society and in decision-making processes **80.c** Enhance youth participation in the economy through improving access to vocational education, volunteering and employment **81.2.a** Provide financial and technical assistance to support least developed countries' policies and programmes that provide economic opportunities and productive employment to youth (**LDC action**) **81.1.a** Develop and pursue suitable strategies for the effective participation of youth in economic, social and political life and facilitate their interaction among themselves and with local and national authorities (**LDC action**)	**4.4** By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship **4.6** By 2030, ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy **8.5** By 2030, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value	≈
	80.b Build the educational and skills capacity of youth and achieve full and productive employment and decent work **81.2.b** Support formal and non-formal education systems in least developed countries for capacity-building and skill development of youth and adolescent through financial and technical assistance (action by development partners) **81.1.b** Develop policies and programmes for supporting youth access to secondary and higher education, vocational training and productive employment, and health-care services, especially to young women and girls (**LDC action**)	**4.4** By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship **4.6** By 2030, ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy	≈
		8.6 By 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training	x
		8.b By 2020, develop and operationalize a global strategy for youth employment and implement the Global Jobs Pact of the International Labour Organization	x
Shelter	**83** Increase access to affordable housing, land and housing-related infrastructure and basic services while achieving a significant improvement in the lives of slum-dwellers and rural poor	**11.1** By 2030, ensure access for all to adequate, safe and affordable housing and basic services and upgrade slums	≈

	Istanbul Programme of Action (Goals, targets and selected actions)	Sustainable Development Goals (Target)	
Water and sanitation	**86** Halve by 2015 the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation and strive to provide sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation to all by 2020	**6.1** By 2030, achieve universal and equitable access to safe and affordable drinking water for all **6.2** By 2030, achieve access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene for all and end open defecation, paying special attention to the needs of women and girls and those in vulnerable situations	=
Gender equality and empowerment of women	**89.a** Achieve equal access of women and girls to education, basic services, health care, economic opportunities, and decision-making at all levels **89.c** Accelerate efforts to promote women's rights and gender equality, including women with disabilities **90.2.b** Provide women and girls with full access to education and training, basic services, health care and economic opportunities, including ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, financial services and social protection (**LDC action**)	**5.5** Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision making in political, economic and public life **5.b** Enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women **5.c** Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels **1.4** By 2030, ensure that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including microfinance **5.1** End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere	≈
	89.b Take steps to realize the right of everyone to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health, including sexual and reproductive health	**3.7** By 2030, ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health-care services, including for family planning, information and education, and the integration of reproductive health into national strategies and programmes	≈
	77.b Provide universal access to reproductive health by 2015, including integrating family planning, sexual health and health-care services in national strategies and programmes	**5.6** Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights as agreed, in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of their review conferences	≈
	90.2.d Take resolute action against violence, abuse and discrimination to ensure that women and girls have the full enjoyment of all human rights and can attain the highest living standards possible and equal participation in the economic, social and political life of their communities (**LDC action**)	**5.2** Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation **5.3** Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation **5.a** Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws	≈

	Istanbul Programme of Action (Goals, targets and selected actions)	Sustainable Development Goals (Target)	
Social protection	**92** Enhance social protection systems to improve the resilience of all, including poor and disadvantaged groups	**1.3** Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all **5.4** Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate	=

Note: ≈, Similar; =, Same; X, different.

2.2.7 Multiple crises and other emerging challenges

Given that LDCs are vulnerable to various shocks including food, fuel, economic crises, natural disasters and climate change, commitments from the international community for supporting risk mitigation and capacity development for better resilience is crucial. The IPoA calls for financial and technical support to LDCs so that they can develop strategies for risk mitigation and strengthen their capacity to deal with economic shocks. The IPoA also calls for enhanced climate funding including early operationalization of the Green Climate Fund. Development partners are also encouraged to support LDCs in disaster risk reduction and strengthen LDCs' capacity to reduce vulnerability to natural disasters and to address the effects of conflict. In this respect they should enable them to benefit from regional and international risk assessment tools and early warning systems.

The SDGs highlighted the LDCs' vulnerability to various shocks in a number of goals (Table 12). For example, SDGs 1, 2, 13 and 15 have relevance to the vulnerability of the poor to various crises, including economic and climate change related shocks. Similar to Goal 95.a of the IPoA, the SDGs also recognize the need for building the resilience of poor and vulnerable people and reducing their exposures to climate, economic, social, environmental and disaster related shocks (SDG 1.5).

Unlike the IPoA, the SDGs also call for reducing the number of deaths and the number of people affected by disasters, as well as developing and implementing holistic disaster risk management at all levels, in line with the Sendai Framework (SDG 11.b).

Table 12. IPoA on multiple crises and other challenges and the SDGs

	Istanbul Programme of Action (Goals, targets and selected actions)	Sustainable Development Goals (Target)	
Economic shocks	**95.a** Build the resilience of least developed countries to withstand economic shocks and to mitigate their adverse effects	**1.5** By 2030, build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations and reduce their exposure and vulnerability to climate-related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters	≈
Climate change and environmental sustainability	**95.b** Strengthen LDCs' ability to withstand and overcome the adverse effects of climate change, enhance sustainable growth and protect biodiversity	**13.b** Promote mechanisms for raising capacity for effective climate change-related planning and management in least developed countries and small island developing States, including focusing on women, youth and local and marginalized communities	≈

	Istanbul Programme of Action (Goals, targets and selected actions)	Sustainable Development Goals (Target)	
Climate change and environmental sustainability (continued)	**104.2.a** In line with international conventions and agreements, provide adequate financial and technical assistance and support, as appropriate, to least developed countries to access appropriate, affordable and sustainable technologies needed for the implementation of NAPAs and NAMAs and the transfer of such technologies under mutually agreed terms (**action by development partners**) 1**04.2.b** Facilitate least developed countries' access to required resources from different environment and climate funds, including the Global Environment Facility (GEF) (**action by development partners**)	**15.a** Mobilize and significantly increase financial resources from all sources to conserve and sustainably use biodiversity and ecosystems **15.b** Mobilize significant resources from all sources and at all levels to finance sustainable forest management and provide adequate incentives to developing countries to advance such management, including for conservation and reforestation	≈
	104.1.g Take measures to mainstream sustainable management of marine biodiversity and ecosystems **104.1.f** Mainstream policies dealing with climate change, biodiversity conservation and sustainable use of the ecosystem, including protection and sustainable management of forests through afforestation and preventing deforestation and illegal logging, into national development policies and strategies, particularly those dealing with poverty eradication and economic sectors (LDC action)	**15.9** By 2020, integrate ecosystem and biodiversity values into national and local planning, development processes, poverty reduction strategies and accounts	≈
		15.c Enhance global support for efforts to combat poaching and trafficking of protected species, including by increasing the capacity of local communities to pursue sustainable livelihood opportunities	x
Disaster risk reduction	**95.c** Build the resilience of LDCs to withstand natural hazards in order to reduce the risk of disasters **108.2.b** Support least developed countries to strengthen their capacity to reduce their vulnerability to natural disasters and to benefit from regional and international early warning systems and other information-sharing mechanisms (**action by development partners**) **108.1.d** Develop and strengthen, as appropriate, risk mitigation strategies and strengthen social protection policies and programmes that take account of natural disasters (**Action by LDCs**) **104.2.h** Support enhancing the capacity of meteorological and hydrological services of least developed countries (**action by development partners**) **104.2.f** Implement measures to promote and facilitate clean development mechanism projects in least developed countries to enable them to harness benefits of mitigation of climate change for sustainable development (**action by development partners**)	**13.1** Strengthen resilience and adaptive capacity to climate-related hazards and natural disasters in all countries	≈

	Istanbul Programme of Action (Goals, targets and selected actions)	Sustainable Development Goals (Target)	
Disaster risk reduction (continued)		**11.5** By 2030, significantly reduce the number of deaths and the number of people affected and substantially decrease the direct economic losses relative to global gross domestic product caused by disasters, including water-related disasters, with a focus on protecting the poor and people in vulnerable situations	x
	104.2.g Help least developed countries address the challenges of livelihood and food security and health of the people affected by the adverse impact of climate change and respond to the needs of the people displaced as a result of extreme weather events, where appropriate, at national, regional and international levels (**action by development partners**)	**2.4** By 2030, ensure sustainable food production systems and implement resilient agricultural practices that increase productivity and production, that help maintain ecosystems, that strengthen capacity for adaptation to climate change, extreme weather, drought, flooding and other disasters and that progressively improve land and soil quality	≈
		11.b By 2020, substantially increase the number of cities and human settlements adopting and implementing integrated policies and plans towards inclusion, resource efficiency, mitigation and adaptation to climate change, resilience to disasters, and develop and implement, in line with the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030, holistic disaster risk management at all levels	x

Note: ≈, Similar; =, Same; X, different.

2.2.8 Mobilizing financial resources for development and capacity-building

The IPoA recognized that sustained, inclusive and equitable growth of LDCs is constrained due to lack of financial resources. LDCs face challenges in generating adequate domestic resources for undertaking their development programmes as a result of low per capita income, a small tax base, and inadequate savings and investment, among others. Hence, there is a high reliance on external financial resources such as Official Development Assistance (ODA), Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), concessional lending and remittances. The IPoA thus calls for enhancing the capacity of LDCs for domestic resource mobilization and developing productive capacity. Finance and capacity building have been captured under SDG 17, which is the means of implementation of all the other SDGs. Finance under the SDGs also has specific targets in the areas of ODA, FDI, external debt and remittances.

In both the IPoA and the SDGs, Member States called for developed countries to fully implement their ODA commitments, including providing 0.15 to 0.20 per cent of ODA/GNI to LDCs. ODA providers were also encouraged to consider setting a target to provide at least 0.20 per cent of ODA/GNI to LDCs. The IPoA further called for not only increasing the volume of aid to LDCs, but the quality of aid as well. In Paragraph 115.b of the IPoA, Member States emphasized the need to align aid with LDCs' national priorities. This aspect is missing in the SDGs.

Member States in both the IPoA and SDGs recognized the need to attain long-term debt sustainability in all LDCs. Additionally, the IPoA urges Member States to remain vigilant in monitoring the debt situation of LDCs and the need to continue to take effective measures within the existing frameworks (paragraph 118.b).

Regarding FDI, the IPoA and SDGs called for higher investment in LDCs for development purposes. Such investment will be required for implementing national plans and programmes in developing countries.

In both global frameworks, Member States also agreed that the transaction costs of remittances should be reduced so that LDCs' development efforts are fully realized. The SDGs specifically calls for reducing to less than 3 per cent the transaction costs as well as eliminating remittance corridors with costs higher than 5 per cent.

Table 13 provides the relevant goals and targets of the two frameworks.

Table 13. IPoA on mobilising financial resources for development and capacity building and the SDGs

	Istanbul Programme of Action (Goals, targets and selected actions)	**Sustainable Development Goals (Target)**	
Domestic resource mobilization	**111.a** Enhance the mobilization of domestic resources, including by raising domestic savings, increasing tax revenue and strengthening institutional capacity **111.b** Reduce corruption and increase transparency at all levels	**17.1** Strengthen domestic resource mobilization, including through international support to developing countries, to improve domestic capacity for tax and other revenue collection	≈
Official development assistance	**115.a** Ensure the fulfilment of all ODA commitments to LDCs **115.b** Ensure the alignment of aid with LDCs' national priorities and increase the alignment of aid with least developed countries' national systems and procedures **116.2.a** Donor countries will implement the following actions that they committed to at the Third United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries as soon as possible: (i) Donor countries providing more than 0.20 per cent of their GNP as ODA to least developed countries: continue to do so and maximize their efforts to further increase ODA to least developed countries; (ii) Other donor countries which have met the 0.15 per cent target: undertake to reach 0.20 per cent expeditiously; (v) Donor countries should review their ODA commitments in 2015 and consider further enhancing the resources for least developed countries (**action by development partners**)	**17.2** Developed countries to implement fully their official development assistance commitments, including the commitment by many developed countries to achieve the target of 0.7 per cent of ODA/GNI to developing countries and 0.15 to 0.20 per cent of ODA/GNI to LDCs; ODA providers are encouraged to consider setting a target to provide at least 0.20 per cent of ODA/GNI to LDCs	≈
External debt	**118.a** Achieve sustainable debt levels in all least developed countries, bearing in mind LDCs' special development needs **118.b** Remain vigilant in monitoring the debt situation of LDCs and continue to take effective measures within the existing frameworks **118.c** Provide specific debt relief measures for LDCs that are not HIPC countries on a case-by-case basis. **119.1** Further ensure the provision of debt relief by all countries taking part in the HIPC Initiative, including non-Paris Club creditors, especially in countries where a large proportion of debt is not debt owed to Paris Club creditors (**Joint action**)	**17.4** Assist developing countries in attaining long-term debt sustainability through coordinated policies aimed at fostering debt financing, debt relief and debt restructuring, as appropriate, and address the external debt of highly indebted poor countries to reduce debt distress	≈

	Istanbul Programme of Action (Goals, targets and selected actions)	Sustainable Development Goals (Target)	
Foreign direct investment	**121.a** Attract and retain increased foreign direct investment in LDCs, especially with the aim of diversifying the production base and enhancing productive capacity **121.b** Enhance initiatives to support investment in LDCs **121.1** Promote strategic and regulatory frameworks for foreign direct investment and other resource flows in this sector that include vital policy areas such as infrastructure development, trade and trade facilitation, research and development and transfer of technology (**Joint action**)	**10.b** Encourage official development assistance and financial flows, including foreign direct investment, to States where the need is greatest, in particular LDCs, African countries, small island developing States and landlocked developing countries, in accordance with their national plans and programmesw	≈
Remittances	**124** Reduce the transaction cost of remittance flows and foster the development impact of remittances	**10.c** By 2030, reduce to less than 3 per cent the transaction costs of migrant remittances and eliminate remittance corridors with costs higher than 5 per cent	≈

Note: ≈, Similar; =, Same; X, different.

2.2.9 Good governance at all levels

The IPoA and SDGs call for promoting the rule of law and ensuring equal access to justice for all. Prevention of corruption, increasing transparency of budgets and expenditures and improving institutional capacity in LDCs to ensure good governance have all been targeted in the IPoA. Member States also agreed that resources to LDCs should be provided and used in a predictable, transparent and timely manner. In addition, LDCs should be supported to participate in the institutions of global governance. Peace, stability, security and sustainable and inclusive development have also been emphasized in the IPoA (Table 14). In the absence of peace, stability and the rule of law, the SDGs will not be fully attained in LDCs affected by conflict.

Table 14. IPoA on good governance at all levels and the SDGs

	Istanbul Programme of Action (Goals, targets and selected actions)	Sustainable Development Goals (Target)	
Good governance at all levels	**129.a** Strengthen good governance, the rule of law, human rights, gender equality and empowerment of women, and democratic participation, including by enhancing the role of parliaments	**16.3** Promote the rule of law at the national and international levels and ensure equal access to justice for all	≈
	129.b Strengthen and effectively implement measures to prevent corruption and to increase transparency of budgets and expenditure **130.1.j** Strengthen efforts to fight corruption, bribery and money-laundering, the illegal transfer of funds and other illicit activities by strengthening anti-corruption laws and regulations and their effective application; (**LDC action**)	**16.5** Substantially reduce corruption and bribery in all their forms	≈
	129.e Provide continued support for strengthened and effective voice and participation of LDCs in relevant international forums	**16.8** Broaden and strengthen the participation of developing countries in the institutions of global governance	≈

	Istanbul Programme of Action (Goals, targets and selected actions)	Sustainable Development Goals (Target)	
Good governance at all levels (continued)	**129.c** Enhance the institutional capacity of LDCs to ensure good governance **129.d** Ensure that resources to LDCs are provided and used in a predictable, transparent and timely manner **129.f** Build durable peace and ensure stability, security and sustainable and inclusive development in least developed countries	**16.1** Significantly reduce all forms of violence and related death rates everywhere **16.a** Strengthen relevant national institutions, including through international cooperation, for building capacity at all levels, in particular in developing countries, to prevent violence and combat terrorism and crime	≈

Note: ≈, Similar; =, Same; X, different.

2.3 Results of the mapping exercise

While efforts were made to be comprehensive, the list of goals, targets and actions presented in this section is by no means exhaustive. The selection of goals, targets and actions to show the coherence and synergies between the IPoA and the 2030 Agenda was based on their relevance to the priority areas identified in the IPoA. In addition, for clarity purposes and in order to synthesise the discussion, not all actions that appear in the IPoA have been included in the analysis in this section.

The analysis shows that in relation to the LDC priorities as agreed in the IPoA, the global frameworks (IPoA and SDGs) have many similarities. However, in some instances, differences occur at the level of specificity, deadlines for meeting some targets as well as actual thresholds to be achieved. One of the major differences between the two frameworks is that there is no separate SDG on commodities. The SDG targets relating to commodities mainly focus on price volatility. However, the IPoA covers this priority in a more comprehensive manner to also include broadening the LDC economic base in order to reduce commodity dependence, among others. Nevertheless, diversification in the context of the SDGs is covered is covered in goal 9, which calls for promotion of inclusive and sustainable industrialisation and fostering innovation, among others.

Overall, the findings in this section suggest that fully implementing the IPoA priorities with due focus on productive capacity building as well as human development and building resilience will significantly contribute towards the achievement of the 2030 Agenda.

2.4 Additionality of the SDGs

The mapping criteria adopted in this publication provides an understanding to what extent the LDCs priorities agreed upon in the IPoA have been integrated into the SDGs. As the 2030 Agenda is an embodiment of sustainable development and incorporates other emerging issues that have direct relevance to the LDCs but may not have been well reflected in the IPoA, this sub-section highlights some of these SDG targets.

While the IPoA makes reference to slum dwellers, the 2030 Agenda takes a more comprehensive approach to the issue and dedicates SDG 11 to making cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable. Apart from upgrading slums, Member States agreed to the following, inter alia: providing access to safe, affordable, accessible and sustainable transport systems for all and improving road safety; reducing the adverse environmental impact of cities, including paying attention to air quality and municipal and other waste management; providing universal access to safe, inclusive and accessible green and public spaces; and, supporting LDCs, including through financial and technical assistance in building sustainable and resilient buildings utilising local materials.

As highlighted in section 2.1, the SDGs introduce additional dimensions on environmental issues and the importance of factoring in multiple dimensions of sustainability. For example, SDGs 13, 14 and 15 are dedicated to environmental issues. Some select provisions of exceptional relevance to LDCs are as follows:

- 13.a Implement the commitment undertaken by developed-country parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change to a goal of mobilizing jointly US$100 billion annually by 2020 from all sources to address the needs of developing countries in the context of meaningful mitigation actions and transparency on implementation and fully operationalize the Green Climate Fund through its capitalization as soon as possible.
- 14.6 By 2020, prohibit certain forms of fisheries subsidies which contribute to overcapacity and overfishing, eliminate subsidies that contribute to illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing and refrain from introducing new such subsidies, recognizing that

appropriate and effective special and differential treatment for developing and least developed countries should be an integral part of the World Trade Organization fisheries subsidies negotiation.

- 14.7 By 2030, increase the economic benefits to SIDS and LDCs from the sustainable use of marine resources, including through sustainable management of fisheries, aquaculture and tourism.
- 15.3 By 2030, combat desertification, restore degraded land and soil, including land affected by desertification, drought and floods, and strive to achieve a land degradation-neutral world.

Other SDGs such as Goal 2, 6 and 8 also reflect issues related to the environment and sustainability that are of particular relevance to LDCs. For example, Member States in SDG 6.3 committed to improving water quality by reducing pollution, eliminating dumping and minimising release of hazardous chemicals and materials. They also committed to halving the proportion of untreated wastewater and substantially increasing recycling and safe reuse globally. In the context of SDG 2.4, amongst other things, the objective is to ensure sustainable food production systems and implement resilient agricultural practices that increase productivity and production, that help maintain ecosystems. SDG 8.4 focuses on global resource efficiency in consumption and production and endeavour to decouple economic growth from environmental degradation.

Furthermore, the inclusion of SDG 10 (reducing inequality within and among countries) has direct and great relevance to LDCs. It is for the first time that inequality has been agreed as a goal by itself in a global development framework. Inequality is a growing challenge in every country. It is also increasingly becoming a challenge in LDCs. More importantly, inequality at the international level has been articulated more prominently than before. Similarly, SDG 16.4, which calls for significantly reducing illicit financial and arms flows, is extremely important for the primary commodity-dependent LDCs.

3. IMPLEMENTATION, FOLLOW-UP AND REVIEW OF THE 2030 AGENDA IN LDCS

3.1 Means of Implementation (MOI) and other recent agreements

Achievement of the SDGs will also depend on the progress in a number of other relevant global frameworks. The Paris Agreement shows a cross-cutting nature of climate change and the need to consider the implementation of both agreements together. The Paris Agreement recognizes the special financial needs of LDCs regarding climate change and declares that LDCs will enjoy priority in scaled up financial measures, technology transfer and capacity building. For LDCs, which are disproportionally affected by climate change, it is important that climate finance will be additional to ODA, directed towards adaptation and also accessible for them. It has been estimated that the cost of all 48 LDCs implementing their post-2020 climate action plans will be around US$93 billion per year, for which current available resources are not sufficient (IIED 2015).[33] Commitments are lacking also in case of transfer and diffusion of technology which is one of the pillars of the UNFCCC.

The Third United Nations Conference on Financing for Development, held in Addis Ababa from 13-16 July 2015, has been defined as a milestone for global partnership in achieving the SDGs (UN 2015b). The Addis Ababa Action Agenda (AAAA), which is an integral part of the 2030 Agenda, has special significance for mobilising means of implementation for the SDG as it comprises a broad range of measures that can support LDCs in carrying out the realization of the SDGs, including finance, technology, science, innovation, trade, infrastructure, taxation, illicit financial flows and institutional issues. In view of declining foreign aid, the AAAA promised to reverse this trend and recommitted developed countries to provide 0.7 percent of their gross national income (GNI) as ODA, and 0.15 - 0.20 percent of their GNI to LDCs. It called for implementation of the Bali Package of the WTO including the decisions taken in favour of LDCs' trade and LDC-focused Aid for Trade. The AAAA further encourages investment in value addi¬tion and processing of natural resources and productive diversifi¬cation. It envisions to adopt and implement investment promotion regimes for least developed countries and to offer financial and technical support, inter alia for project preparation and contract negotiation.

The need for improving domestic resource mobilisation though improving tax collection and prevention of illicit financial flow from countries was highlighted in the agenda. Capacity building of LDCs for science, technology and innovation received special attention in the AAAA. The fulfilment of the Addis commitments will thus facilitate the implementation of several the SDGs.

The 2030 Agenda constitutes a revitalized Global Partnership for Sustainable Development, focusing in particular on the needs of the poorest and most vulnerable. As the SDGs are much more ambitious than the MDGs, both in terms of development aspects covered and in terms of setting absolute goals to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, it is clear that the means of implementation also need to be enhanced, including by expanding international public support to the LDCs.

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33 http://www.iied.org/ldc-climate-action-plans-estimated-cost-us937-billion-year

One of the reasons for the non-fulfilment of the MDGs in most LDCs is that their monitoring primarily focused on the first 7 goals and not sufficiently on the means of implementation of MDG 8 (Bhattacharya 2013; Vos 2012). Furthermore, the financing of the MDGs was not discussed until after the agenda was adopted. This led to a late commencement of the implementation of the agenda in many countries.

Additionally, the lack of precise benchmarks for progress towards MDG 8 was related to the limited progress towards the intended partnership (UN 2013). For example, the issue of science and technology was not given sufficient attention. Recent reports demonstrate how technology can be deployed to deliver improvements in health, education, payments, business development and agricultural production which in turn can contribute towards achieving a number of the SDGs (Sachs et. al. 2016).

Enhancing the institutional capacity of LDCs is at the core of implementing both the 2030 Agenda and the IPoA. Resource mobilization requires appropriate policies and a supportive and effective institutional setting that ensures efficient and accountable resource utilization. Even when external resources are available, the absorptive capacity of LDCs is often weak due to limited capacity of both public and private actors. This calls for policy and institutional reforms in many countries (see also Part 1). LDCs would require technical and financial support to improve their institutional capacity for enhanced governance for implementation of the SDGs at the country level.

3.2 Implementation of the SDGs

The common goal of the IPoA and the 2030 Agenda is to achieve a poverty-free, equitable, inclusive and sustainable world. Hence, there should be synergies and coherence in implementation, review and monitoring of these agreements in order to deliver efficient resource utilization and acceleration towards meeting the goals and targets.

As was the case with the MDGs, also for the SDGs, most LDCs are among the countries furthest away from the targets, which in many cases are absolute (e.g. eradicating poverty). LDCs with their many structural impediments and challenges, including high vulnerabilities, also have the least means to make progress towards the new targets. In order to realize the mainstay of the 2030 Agenda to leave no one behind there is a need to prioritize support to LDCs (UN ESCAP 2016).

Given the amplitude and scope of the SDGs, their implementation will require integration of global targets into national plans, ownership of the SDGs by all stakeholders, monitoring of targets and indicators with the help of real time data both at national and global levels, coordination among various agencies and departments of the government and the private sector, and effective partnership amongst all stakeholders.

The analysis above indicates that the IPoA and the 2030 Agenda are complementary (see Section 2). Thus the IPoA provides concrete guidance to LDCs on how to achieve the SDGs. The experience of LDCs with the implementation of the MDGs will also be useful in guiding the operationalization of the SDGs, especially as they build on MDGs and need to achieve the unfinished business of MDGs. This section will provide some recommendations on the mainstreaming and follow-up of SDGs by LDCs and their development partners.

3.3 Integration of SDGs into the national planning process

The mainstreaming of the SDGs into national development plans needs to happen rapidly in order to start the implementation in a timely manner. Many developing countries mainstreamed MDGs into their national plans (UNDP 2015b), from which lessons can be drawn.[34]

Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) were a key entry point for MDG mainstreaming, as the MDG targets and indicators were translated into national targets and provided a framework to make national development strategies MDG-based (UNDG 2016a). However, such mainstreaming has been limited and was not always reflected in national budgets. Furthermore MDG-based PRSPs were not always adapted to local conditions and priorities (Fukuda-Parr 2008). Studies show that even if MDGs were incorporated into national plans of countries, they were not necessarily coupled with a higher alignment of national budgets (Seyedsayamdost 2014).[35]

With respect to mainstreaming the IPoA, by the end of 2013, the majority of the LDCs had already aligned their national development strategies with its eight priority areas and many of them had moved towards the implementation phase. The level of implementation and progress towards the goals and targets varied across the eight priority areas as well as across LDCs. This also reflected the different prioritizations of the different LDCs. Several LDCs did not only align goals and targets but also used the IPoA

34 http://www.iied.org/ldc-climate-action-plans-estimated-cost-us937-billion-year

35 Seyedsayamdost (2014) shows that 32 out of 50 countries from diverse income groups, geographical locations, human development tiers, and ODA levels had aligned MDGs in their national plans.

to develop sectoral strategies and programmes (UN 2014). Given the synergies between the IPoA and the SDGs, LDCs can build on their experiences with mainstreaming the IPoA as well.

In some countries, the early implementation of the IPoA has also encountered challenges, both domestic and external, including inadequate financial, technical and technological capacities. In particular, improving technical and technological capacities in both the public and private sectors is seen as critical to effectively implementing and operating various investment projects (UN 2014).

Based on these experiences, several LDCs have started the mainstreaming of the SDGs into national development strategies early. Incorporation of the SDGs into national plans will require a thorough scrutiny of the SDG agenda vis-à-vis national plans since several goals under the SDGs feature in national plans of many LDCs, into which the IPoA and other relevant agendas have already been mainstreamed. Therefore, an assessment to understand the extent of alignment of the SDGs that is already existent in national plans will be useful.

The experience of these LDCs, which are already in the process of integrating the SDGs into their national plans, can be useful guides for others. Uganda, for example, has incorporated the SDGs into its second National Development Plan which aims to propel the country into middle income status by 2020 through strengthening the country's competitiveness for sustainable wealth creation, employment and inclusive growth (UN 2016b). The rapid mainstreaming of the SDGs in the National Development Plan of Uganda was possible since the post-2015 consultative process in Uganda coincided and was aligned with the consultations on the country's Vision 2040. As a result, 76 percent of the SDG targets have been mainstreamed in the National Development Plan of Uganda. The localization of the SDGs is accordingly being cascaded to sector and local government planning and implementation frameworks (Uganda 2016).

Bangladesh has made an assessment to understand the progress on SDG alignment in its national plan. The exercise indicates that one third of the SDGs are already aligned with Bangladesh's 7th Five Year Plan while 22 percent of targets are partially aligned (Alam 2016).

In prioritizing the SDGs for implementation at the national level, countries' national development plans should be the basis as they reflect national priorities. An institutional mechanism where specific ministries and departments will be responsible for overseeing both prioritization and implementation of actions is needed. Availability of financial resources will also play an important role in the prioritization of national targets. The SDGs put great emphasis on broader participation of stakeholders who will be directly affected by various goals and targets. Stakeholders, including government representatives, members of parliament, academics, civil society, private sector, community-based organisations, non-governmental organisations, trade bodies and media can also contribute towards prioritisation of the SDGs at the national level. In this respect a multi-stakeholder coordination mechanism or task force to implement the LDCs, including regular dialogues has proven to be useful (UNDG 2016b). However, the capacity of these stakeholders also needs to be enhanced in order for them to meaningfully participate in the implementation and follow-up (UN 2016d). Sierra Leone provides an example on how raising public awareness and political leadership has been used in the mainstreaming of the SDGs. The government has informed parliament about the SDGs and organised sensitization workshops with civil society, local councils, and academia. Several radio programmes were held to explain the SDGs to the general public. Furthermore an SDG communications strategy with domesticated and simplified messages was rolled out (Sierra Leone 2016).

The 2030 Agenda recognizes that differences across countries in capacities and levels of development must be taken into account in its implementation. For LDCs their capacity constraints and limited financial resources make it especially necessary to prioritize and sequence the implementation of the SDGs, taking into account the interdependencies, synergies and trade-offs across goals, targets and indicators (UNESCAP 2016). Furthermore, it is important to take local conditions into account while prioritizing goals and targets. With respect to SDG implementation it is also important to start by taking stock of the array of financing mechanisms available for implementing the 2030 Agenda and emphasising the importance of transforming national budgeting processes to support the results-based nature of the SDGs. This could include taking stock of available financing mechanisms by considering all sources of financing as outlined in the Addis Ababa Action Agenda; moving towards outcome-based and participatory budgeting to support the results-based framework and participatory nature of the 2030 Agenda and SDGs; and budget mainstreaming for integrating specific issues into fiscal budgets (UNDG 2016a).

The linkages among various SDGs have been highlighted in the process of defining them, which resulted in the fact that cross-cutting issues are present in many targets. Thus coordination at national, sub-national and local levels will be crucial. In addition, it is important to identify risks and vulnerability to external shocks and ensure that national development plans further the building of resilience and risk management, allowing for timely reactions to lessons learned during the implementation (UNDG 2016b).

In pursuing the MDGs, a silo approach was often used – not taking into account trade-offs and synergies within various ministries and departments of government. Weak coordination among implementing agencies at the country level often created problems (Bhattacharya et.al. 2016). In Uganda for example, due to the limited alignment of the national development plan with the MDGs, a separate financing, implementation and reporting framework was put in place (Tentrop 2015).

All relevant ministries and departments will need to be aware of policies in specific areas that may have implications on other sectors. Therefore, inter-ministerial mechanisms as well as participation of stakeholders to oversee the SDG implementation process can play a very important role. Likewise the institutional mechanisms for the implementation of different frameworks, especially the 2030 Agenda and the IPoA, should be coordinated. Capacity building of stakeholders in understanding the issue of linkages among various targets of the SDGs will be useful for better implementation.

Policy coherence is even more important for implementing the 2030 Agenda. This requires a whole of government approach – overcoming silos – not only in recipient countries but also for development partners. They need to take a holistic approach pursuing policies in different sectors that are complementary rather than contradictory (UNDESA 2015b).

According to the UNDG (2016a), approaches for creating horizontal policy coherence, integration and partnerships include the following:

1. Integrated policy analysis: to ensure that proposed policies, programmes and targets are supportive of nationally-adapted SDGs;
2. Coordinated institutional mechanisms: to create formal partnerships across sectoral line ministries and agencies;
3. Integrated modelling: to help clarify and articulate the interconnected system of goals and targets and to analyse and inform key policies, programs and projects for their impact on nationally adapted SDGs.

As the SDGs are universal it is expected that development partners will also prioritise targets, including with respect to their development support. It remains to be seen how these two prioritization processes will match. After the adoption of the IPoA, several development partners announced that they would prioritize LDCs in their cooperation. Several donor countries featured a majority of LDCs in their list of partner countries. The concerns specific to LDCs have also been reflected in reports and outcome documents of many of their development partners, including G20 documents (UN 2014).

Development partners need to make efforts to align their development coordination with the priorities of LDCs and make institutional adjustments in order to increase the interoperability of their systems with those of recipient countries, to be able to use country systems (UN 2016d).

In this respect it has to be noted that policies taken at the national level by some countries may be related to the achievement of the SDGs in other countries and globally. Global measures may also affect the achievement of the SDGs at the national level, which calls for additional attention to systemic issues. For example, food security and nutrition are affected by trade measures such as subsidies or climate change related measures. As the negative impact of any development outcome is felt mostly by the poor, policy coherence will be fundamental to the success of the global development agenda.

To strengthen country ownership and alignment, LDCs should prepare national development cooperation policies with preferred modalities, division of labour and performance assessment frameworks for individual development partners to ensure better alignment of resources and reduce fragmentation (UN 2016d). Bangladesh provides an example of the advantages and challenges of such an approach. In the past the lack of a system for sharing development partners' annual schedules or plans with government, reflecting in-year predictability on a regular and systematic basis, has been identified as a cause for unpredictability of aid flows. In 2013 a web based Aid Information Management System (AIMS) has been developed and launched to remove the bottlenecks of real time aid data sharing. Recently several development partners have started to provide aid information in the system (Bangladesh 2016).

There is evidence that programme-based approaches, including general and sectoral budget support, can effectively enhance aligning and harmonization of development cooperation with national priorities and reduce transaction costs. However, there has been a trend of declining budget support since 2008, which led to a decrease in coordination and joint dialogues between donor and recipient governments in affected countries (Janus and Klingenbiel 2016).

The SDGs, a global framework that involves a large and diverse range of stakeholders, require greater coordination, including among global institutions. Better coordination both of donors with recipient government as well as among donors can improve the effectiveness of aid (Janus and Holzapfel 2016). For LDCs, in which international public aid constitutes the most important source of development finance, this is especially important.

On the other hand new providers of finance can strengthen the negotiation power of LDCs with traditional donors. Countries with clearly defined priorities in their national development strategies seem to be able to achieve better alignment with these priorities.[36] However, the issue of how to integrate new providers in the development effectiveness processes needs to be further explored (Prizzon et al. 2016).

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36 The study by ODI included Cambodia, Ethiopia, Lao PDR, Senegal, Uganda and Zambia.

3.4 Follow up and review

Both the IPoA and the SDGs share the common objectives of enabling LDCs to overcome their current high poverty and make their development sustainable. The exercise presented in Section 2 demonstrates how several similar goals and targets are aligned across these two global agreements.

Furthermore, both frameworks have follow-up and review provisions at the national, regional and global levels, involving a broad range of stakeholders. The 2030 Agenda highlights that as national ownership is key to achieving sustainable development, the outcome from national level processes will be the foundation for reviews at the regional and global levels, which is in line with the IPoA where the importance of national reviews is also linked to the ownership and leadership of LDCs (UN 2015a and UN 2011).

The 2030 Agenda states that its follow-up and review will promote accountability to citizens, support effective international cooperation in achieving its goals and foster exchanges of best practices and mutual learning. It is important that these follow-up and review processes are aligned and reinforce each other in order to enhance coherence and avoid overstretching of the capacities of LDCs. The review should also include the implementation of the actions agreed in the IPoA, which have been shown to be linked to the implementation not only of the goals and targets of the IPoA but also the SDGs. The voluntary national reviews at the 2016 high-level political forum on sustainable development, held from 11 to 20 July already heard the national reviews from four LDCs (Madagascar, Sierra Leone, Togo and Uganda)[37].

The high-level comprehensive midterm review of the IPoA also stressed the linkage with the 2030 Agenda. It reaffirmed the commitment to the full, effective and timely implementation of the IPoA and to the full and timely implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development as well as support for mainstreaming it into the national development policies and programmes of the LDCs (UN 2016a).

Both frameworks also stress the importance of the national level reviews. The IPoA states that national-level arrangements are particularly important, as they are owned and led by the LDCs. The first national monitoring reports from member countries on the implementation of the SDG indicators are expected by 2018. As most LDCs also have reporting requirements for other global or regional frameworks it is especially important that such reporting is integrated and streamlined as much as possible to reduce the burden on LDCs.[38]

The UN Statistical Commission emphasized that global indicators are to be used for global follow-up and review of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, and that indicators for regional, national and sub-national levels of monitoring have to be developed at the regional and national levels (UN 2016c).

LDCs have made progress with respect to the availability of data. For example the number of LDCs with a national statistical plan increased LDCs from 21 in 2010 to 31 in 2015 (UN 2016e). However, both availability and quality of data are still insufficient in many LDCs, and thus monitoring of the SDGs at the national level will require substantial investment towards building of national statistical capacities, including national statistical offices. The difficulty in getting detailed, sector-wise, real time and quality data has been recognized in the SDGs and has prompted a call for a "Data Revolution". In this connection, it must also be noted that improved data availability in LDCs would not only contribute to the follow-up and review of the IPoA, SDGs and other such frameworks but also enable LDCs to improve their ability to plan effectively. In this respect disaggregated data as called for in the 2030 Agenda can play a crucial role.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

The first five years of the implementation of the IPoA coincided with the last five years of the MDGs. The coming five years will be the second half of the implementation of the IPoA and the first 5 years of the 2030 Agenda, which incorporates the SDGs. Part 2 of this report demonstrates that the IPoA and the SDGs are largely mutually reinforcing.

The Outcome document of the midterm review of the IPoA reiterates many of the provisions of both the IPoA and the SDGs and stresses the need to accelerate progress towards sustainable development in LDCs. It highlights the need to further strengthen the global partnership for development for the LDCs in all priority areas of the IPoA in order to ensure its timely, effective and full implementation during the remainder of the decade, in the context of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and other recent agreements.

[37] https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/hlpf/inputs
[38] For example landlocked LDCs are also reporting on the implementation of the Vienna Programme of Action and African LDCs on the 2063 Agenda.

The principle of country ownership and leadership, which is contained in the IPoA as well as the 2030 Agenda, remains crucial in order to accelerate progress with respect to sustainable development. LDCs should take the lead in formulating, implementing, following up and reviewing their own coherent economic and development policies, strategies and plans.

The implementation of the IPoA over the past five years has seen continued progress by the LDCs towards meeting several of its goals and targets, for example in access to ICT and clean water, as well as reduced child mortality and gender parity in primary education. While the MDG target of halving poverty was achieved globally, progress in LDCs was slow. However, to meet SDG 1, poverty in all countries and for all groups needs to be eradicated. Most LDCs did not meet the IPoA targets of human and social development, which were closely related to the MDGs, despite acceleration efforts over the past 5 years. This was partly due to the way the MDG targets were designed, which required much more progress for countries starting with high levels of poverty and low levels of education, health and economic activity and a high degree of vulnerability. Many of the IPoA targets are not on track after half of its implementation period has been passed.

Challenges to the progress of LDCs remain, with some new and increasing risks and uncertainties threatening their development gains, including volatile commodity crises, major natural disasters, climate change impacts and health epidemics. External shocks can also undermine their debt sustainability, necessitating risk insurance. Debt cancellation, debt rescheduling and debt-to-SDGs swap for LDCs also need to be considered. The Addis Ababa Action Agenda provision, which welcomes "ongoing work in relevant institutions to support efforts by LDCs, LLDCs and SIDS to build their national capacity to respond to various kinds of shocks including financial crises, natural disasters, and public health emergencies, including through funds and other tools" (paragraph 68), needs to be developed further.

So far progress towards mobilizing financial support and other means of implementation for LDCs has also been mixed. On average, the ODA target of the IPoA has not been achieved, with only eight OECD/DAC donors reaching the goal of providing at least 0.15 per cent of GNI in ODA to LDCs in 2014. The trend of declining ODA to LDCs needs to be reversed. A strong policy signal would be to commit to channelling a higher share of donors' total ODA to LDCs. It is also crucial to uphold the principles of aid and development effectiveness, including predictability and transparency, harmonization, country ownership, and untying of aid. The impact of ODA will have a multiplier effect if more ODA goes to the productive sector and if ODA is used catalytically to leverage more resources for infrastructure development and sustainable energy. The relevant provisions of the AAAA, which constitute means of implementation for the global partnership for development, need to be implemented on a priority basis.

One key aspect of aid effectiveness is the alignment of ODA with national priorities of recipient countries. As LDCs are most aid dependent, this is a crucial factor to enhance their ownership. The increased use of country systems as well as budget support would facilitate this multi-stakeholder approach and could result in enhanced inter-operability and cost effectiveness in administrative processes.

FDI flows to LDCs have remained broadly constant over the past five years, accounting for only 1.9 per cent of world FDI. LDCs need to attract larger and more diversified FDI flows, including from emerging countries. The international community should increase investment support for LDCs with the contribution of all stakeholders in line with the pledge made in the AAAA and the outcome document of the MTR to adopt and implement investment promotion regimes for LDCs. Key activities could include (i) dedicated financial and technical support for project preparation and contract negotiation, (ii) advisory support in investment-related dispute resolution, (iii) access to information on investment facilities, and (iv) risk insurance and guarantees such as through MIGA in a targeted manner to LDCs. LDCs will need to further enhance a domestic environment conducive to attracting FDI flows and ensure that there is an effective mechanism to promote and implement FDI related projects in an expeditious and coherent manner together with the promotion of domestic investment.

Increased investment in productivity in agriculture, industry and services sector is a precondition for structural transformation, poverty eradication and hunger in LDCs. Much more emphasis should be placed on rural areas where productivity is not improving and on which a large population is dependent for employment. A comprehensive support package, from improvements in infrastructure to access to finance, insurance and technology should be provided to boost output and productivity across the sectors. This will not only improve the living conditions of a large number of people, but also create a long term basis for a higher level of domestic resource mobilization.

In addition, setting employment creation as the outcome of macroeconomic policies and as the means to achieve meaningful and sustainable improvements in living standards in LDCs would need to address several bottlenecks. In this context, LDCs not only need to raise the rate of output growth but also the labor intensity of growth with a strong program of increasing their skills, knowledge, capacity and entrepreneurship. Furthermore, disadvantaged groups like youth and women need to be targeted, as they remain the most potent agents of change.

As the share of LDC's in international trade has remained stagnant, despite some increase in volume, it is imperative that agreements in Doha and Nairobi will be implemented without delay, especially the full implementation of DFQF market access for all products from all LDCs, more beneficial rules of origin, reduction of non-tariff barriers (NTBs), operationalization of the services waiver and implementation of the trade facilitation agreement. The potential of regional integration also needs to be further harnessed. In addition, the share of Aid for Trade provided to LDCs should be increased.

Both ICT and modern energy have been identified as development enablers in the IPoA and the SDGs. To ensure access for all – including women and people in remote areas – much more investment and better policy and regulatory environment than what is currently available is necessary. Capacities of countries to take a strategic approach to these sectors need to be enhanced and prices need to be brought down. Public-private partnerships that provide solutions for the poorest and can reach the last mile need to be developed further.

Likewise, the capacity of governments for service delivery would be critical. Basic services need to be expanded to rural areas and all sectors of society at affordable prices or free of charge, and the quality of services needs to be improved.

The IPoA foresees the establishment of a Technology Bank for the LDCs, for which an interim governing council has been appointed by the Secretary-General. It is crucial that this institution is operationalized in 2017, especially given its huge potential to improve productive capacity, accelerate structural transformation, and contribute to reduction of poverty and sustainable development.

Increasing domestic resource mobilisation is not only going to increase resources for development but will also enhance the fiscal space of LDCs. However, the tax base in LDCs can only be significantly enhanced through building productive capacity and inclusive growth. Support for domestic resource mobilization needs to be provided in line with country ownership. Furthermore, it should not only have the goal to raise revenue but also ensure that the effects of new taxes are properly understood and that financial policies are in place to support the SDG of reducing inequality, ensuring sustainability and demonstrating the importance of the interlinkages among the SDGs. Reducing and eliminating illicit financial flows and a scaled up international tax cooperation are vitally important as mentioned in the AAAA. The cost of transferring remittances, which have grown further in the past 5 years, also needs to be reduced to enable greater flows, as these are linked to poverty reduction in many LDCs.

With respect to climate change, LDCs are the countries that contributed least to the problem, but are affected by it the most. For them, adaptation to the effects of climate change is at the core of their development, even though most LDCs are also making efforts to contribute to mitigation. In order to adapt to the effects of climate change, LDCs need financial support as well as access to technology which go beyond the means of implementation in the 2030 Agenda and AAAA, being additional to ODA. Thus relevant funds including the GCF and LDC Fund need to be financed adequately and allocated equitably.

Recent progress towards graduation from the LDC category is encouraging, with several LDCs having expressed their aspiration to graduate from the category by 2020 or shortly thereafter. In order to enhance the effectiveness of smooth transition measures, monitoring and follow-up need to be further strengthened. This should include comprehensive support measures in the areas of official development assistance, trade, investment and debt sustainability to ensure a smooth transition of countries that have graduated from LDC status.

Expanded trade, investment, and development financing among members of the global South could form the basis for more sustainable growth that does not depend on economic conditions in the North. South-South and triangular cooperation need to be deepened and scaled up. South-South cooperation has increased during the first five years of the IPoA implementation in accordance with its principles to attain the objectives of supporting national and regional development efforts, strengthening institutional and technical capacities and improving the exchange of experience and know-how among developing countries. This form of cooperation should be able to leverage more resources and investment and serve as a platform for peer learning. A more institutionalised contribution of South-South and triangular cooperation to LDCs including enhanced availability of detailed information would be important to share best practices as well as reflect the growing capacity of partner countries from the South.

A mapping exercise of the goals, targets and actions of the IPoA with the SDGs shows that these global frameworks have many similarities. In fact, SDGs have provided a global development framework and commitment to global partnership. The IPoA could be understood as the focussed priorities of LDCs going towards SDGs. SDGs have more goals and targets. They will have to be taken in a holistic and integrated manner, but also translated into national strategies while taking into account national capacities and specific circumstances. In some instances, differences occur in the level of specificity, deadlines for meeting some targets as well as actual thresholds to be achieved. Overall, the findings suggest that fully implementing the IPoA will significantly contribute towards the achievement of the SDGs.

In order to accelerate the implementation of the IPoA and to start the implementation of the SDGs as soon as possible, several institutional arrangements have been suggested. A high level multistakeholder body needs to take up the integration, implementation and follow up of the SDGs and IPoA at the national level. Parliamentarians, civil society, the private sector and academia should be involved. Appropriate interministerial coordination mechanisms should be put in place in order to promote effective and continuous monitoring of SDGs and IPoA so that vertical and horizontal coordination is ensured on a continuous basis. The existence of a unified national vision on development cooperation that builds on the IPoA, the 2030 Agenda as well as Paris climate change agreement and disaster risk reduction frameworks would be instrumental in ensuring coherence, building on integrated policy analysis.

Several LDCs have already started the mainstreaming of the SDGs into national development plans, including strategies on how to mobilize more external support. This mainstreaming needs to continue, building on experiences with mainstreaming of the MDGs and the IPoA. In addition, there is a need to enhance institutional capacity in order to achieve policy integration across the different dimensions of sustainable development. LDCs would be taking the leadership and ownership of the process, but the international community should be providing focused and sustained support for policy coherence, synergy and institutional mechanisms.

In order to achieve the universal SDGs, systemic issues also need to be better addressed as highlighted in the AAAA. These should include coherence of development policies with other areas, especially trade and finance. In addition, international tax cooperation and the fight against capital flight need to be enhanced.

The importance of monitoring and follow up at the national, regional and global levels – involving various stakeholders – has been stressed in the IPoA as well as in the 2030 Agenda. In this respect, it is important to align the monitoring processes as much as possible, so as to avoid duplication and excessive reporting burden on national systems. Capacity building for collecting and processing timely and accurate data as well as strengthening mutual and domestic accountability is especially critical in areas where the IPoA overlaps with the SDGs. More disaggregated data are needed in order to reach all regions and groups within LDCs – especially rural populations, women, youth, children and the disabled – and ensure that no one is left behind.

References

For a detailed list of references please visit our website at
http://unohrlls.org/state-least-developed-countries-report-2016/

SCAN ME

STATISTICAL ANNEX

DATA

The tables contained in the present annex were largely compiled from official, published international sources by the United Nations Office of the High Representative for the Least Developed Countries, Landlocked Developing Countries and Small Island Developing States. The published sources are cited with each table. Since national data sources have improved, international estimates were rarely used, except to adjust national data for comparability. Where sources made retrospective adjustments to data, the newer data were incorporated in the tables. As a result, some of the data may differ from those published in previous years.
Where shown, totals and averages for the least developed countries and developing regions are weighted by absolute numbers of population or economic variable used in the denominator.

Explanatory notes for tables

1. Years separated by a hyphen (such as 2001-2010) indicate data based on averages in the period shown, unless otherwise indicated in the notes to the tables. Years separated by a slash (such as 2009/2010) indicate that data are shown for the latest year available in the period.

2. Figures may not add to totals, owing to rounding.

Table A1. Economic growth and poverty

	Annual growth rate of GDP (percentage)					Percentage of population below international poverty line of US$1.90 per day (2011 PPP prices)
	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2001-2012
Africa						
Angola	3.4	3.9	5.2	6.8	3.9	30.1
Benin	2.6	3.3	5.4	5.6	5.4	51.0
Burkina Faso	8.4	6.5	6.5	6.7	4.0	56.3
Burundi	3.8	4.2	4.0	4.6	4.7	77.7
Central African Republic	3.0	3.3	4.1	-36.0	1.0	65.5
Chad	13.6	0.1	8.9	5.7	7.3	50.7
Comoros	2.2	2.6	3.0	3.5	3.0	13.5
Congo, Democratic Republic of	7.1	6.9	7.2	8.5	9.0	84.2
Djibouti	4.5	5.4	3.0	5.0	5.5	19.5
Equatorial Guinea	-1.3	5.0	3.2	-4.8	-3.1	—
Eritrea	2.2	8.7	7.0	1.3	1.7	—
Ethiopia	12.6	11.2	8.6	10.5	9.9	34.9
Gambia	6.5	-4.3	5.9	4.8	-0.2	45.3
Guinea	1.9	3.9	3.9	2.3	-0.3	52.2
Guinea-Bissau	4.4	9.0	-2.2	0.3	2.5	60.5
Lesotho	7.9	4.0	5.0	4.6	2.0	60.5
Liberia	6.1	8.2	8.0	8.7	0.5	68.6
Madagascar	0.3	1.5	3.0	2.4	3.0	74.8
Malawi	6.5	4.3	1.9	5.2	5.7	72.3
Mali	5.8	2.7	-0.4	2.1	7.2	52.6
Mauritania	4.8	4.4	6.0	5.7	6.4	12.7
Mozambique	6.8	7.4	7.1	7.3	7.4	74.6
Niger	8.4	2.3	11.8	4.6	6.9	65.8
Rwanda	7.3	7.9	8.8	4.7	7.0	64.1
Sao Tome and Principe	4.5	4.9	4.0	4.0	4.2	33.9
Senegal	4.3	2.1	3.5	3.5	3.9	41.4
Sierra Leone	5.3	6.0	15.2	20.1	7.0	55.5
Somalia	—	—	—	—	—	—
South Sudan	5.5	-4.6	-46.1	13.1	36.2	—
Sudan	3.5	-2.0	-2.2	3.3	3.1	14.9
Tanzania, United Republic of	4.0	4.9	5.9	5.1	5.7	54.9
Togo	5.2	9.7	4.4	3.3	4.5	47.5
Uganda	6.4	7.9	5.1	7.3	7.0	49.7
Zambia	10.3	6.3	6.7	6.7	6.0	57.8
Average, Africa	**5.7**	**4.7**	**4.8**	**5.7**	**5.4**	**55.1**

	Annual growth rate of GDP (percentage)					Percentage of population below international poverty line of US$1.90 per day (2011 PPP prices)
	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2001-2012
Asia and the Pacific						
Afghanistan	8.4	6.1	14.4	1.9	2.0	—
Bangladesh	5.6	6.5	6.5	6.0	6.1	47.6
Bhutan	11.7	7.9	5.1	2.0	6.3	11.7
Cambodia	6.0	7.1	7.3	7.4	7.0	16.8
Kiribati	-0.5	2.7	2.8	3.0	3.0	14.14
Lao	8.5	8.0	8.0	8.5	7.5	36.3
Myanmar	—	—	—	8.2	8.5	—
Nepal	4.8	3.4	4.9	3.8	5.5	31.0
Solomon Islands	6.9	12.9	4.7	3.0	1.5	45.60
Timor-Leste	9.4	14.7	7.8	5.4	6.7	45.5
Tuvalu	-2.7	8.5	0.2	1.3	—	—
Vanuatu	1.6	1.2	1.8	2.0	—	15.36
Yemen	3.3	-15.1	2.5	4.2	—	—
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**5.6**	**4.0**	**6.6**	**5.5**	**5.8**	**29.4**
The Americas						
Haiti	-5.5	5.5	2.9	4.2	2.7	54.8
Average, all LDCs	**5.5**	**4.5**	**5.4**	**5.6**	**5.5**	**51.0**

Source: United Nations Statistics Division (http://unstats.un.org/unsd/databases.htm) and World Bank, Development Research Group (http://iresearch.worldbank.org/PovcalNet/index.htm); United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs; International Monetary Fund.

Note: Figures for the proportion of population below the poverty line are averages of all available observations between 2001 and 2013.

Table A2.1. Productive capacity
Value-added share of manufacturing, agriculture and services

	Value added share of manufacturing (percentage of GDP)		Value added share of agriculture (percentage of GDP)		Value added share of services (percentage of GDP)		Gross capital formation (percentage of GDP)	
	2001-2010	2011-2014	2001-2010	2011-2014	2001-2010	2011-2014	2001-2010	2011-2014
Africa								
Angola	4.77	6.74	8.69	8.99	27.74	30.53	13.02	14.29
Benin	8.34	8.27	34.74	36.31	51.19	49.49	20.15	24.29
Burkina Faso	13.33	8.31	25.07	22.39	52.15	48.74	21.85	31.10
Burundi	11.53	9.50	43.18	40.00	39.78	42.54	17.50	28.13
Central African Republic	6.42	6.26	54.86	56.21	31.15	30.89	10.38	12.37
Chad	3.66	2.37	46.30	53.18	37.09	33.08	32.86	30.65
Comoros	4.30	6.54	41.05	36.52	47.03	52.30	13.21	8.66

	Value added share of manufacturing (percentage of GDP)		Value added share of agriculture (percentage of GDP)		Value added share of services (percentage of GDP)		Gross capital formation (percentage of GDP)	
	2001-2010	2011-2014	2001-2010	2011-2014	2001-2010	2011-2014	2001-2010	2011-2014
Democratic Republic of the Congo	20.63	17.58	25.31	22.62	41.84	43.84	11.85	19.64
Djibouti	2.59	—	3.61	—	80.07	—	19.98	—
Equatorial Guinea	—	—	—	—	—	—	74.31	57.44
Eritrea	7.85	—	18.15	—	60.25	—	18.96	10.00
Ethiopia	5.25	3.97	44.76	45.00	42.89	42.97	30.33	36.32
Gambia	—	—	—	—	—	—	22.30	23.16
Guinea	6.18	6.85	24.02	20.74	38.33	38.81	16.39	15.51
Guinea-Bissau	—	—	44.13	45.59	41.15	40.55	5.61	6.61
Lesotho	19.30	11.36	8.99	5.94	57.20	62.54	27.66	27.94
Liberia	—	—	—	—	—	—	16.81	24.15
Madagascar	13.75	—	28.11	27.65	56.24	56.29	24.42	16.88
Malawi	11.13	11.46	33.25	32.02	48.99	49.73	21.84	15.89
Mali	3.12	—	37.71	40.80	38.79	36.60	22.44	20.23
Mauritania	9.57	7.80	28.99	21.06	37.42	37.32	32.42	47.08
Mozambique	14.89	11.75	27.69	28.89	48.47	49.92	18.87	17.41
Niger	5.73	5.83	37.12	37.19	47.52	43.16	23.20	37.78
Rwanda	5.95	5.16	36.15	33.07	51.01	52.42	17.85	25.56
Sao Tome and Principe	7.02	6.41	18.46	19.78	64.29	64.29	47.39	46.00
Senegal	15.19	14.01	16.33	16.79	59.62	58.94	23.45	27.21
Sierra Leone	2.81	2.13	53.05	58.68	37.14	33.62	12.61	24.13
Somalia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South Sudan	—	—	—	—	—	—	12.17	10.86
Sudan	6.78	7.68	32.23	28.15	41.78	49.09	26.37	20.46
Togo	8.64	6.67	36.37	37.97	46.01	44.92	16.26	21.64
Uganda	7.77	—	25.60	—	50.35	—	22.29	28.78
United Republic of Tanzania	8.28	7.28	32.36	32.31	45.81	43.50	24.12	30.77
Zambia	10.12	8.20	14.89	10.06	54.25	55.21	29.88	—
Average, Africa	**8.63**	**7.78**	**27.13**	**25.05**	**43.07**	**42.17**	**22.32**	**23.91**
Asia and the Pacific								
Afghanistan	16.68	12.79	31.20	24.26	43.38	53.85	18.60	16.73
Bangladesh	15.96	17.04	19.74	16.74	55.28	56.10	25.50	28.19
Bhutan	8.10	8.79	22.23	17.07	37.02	39.40	52.03	57.20
Cambodia	17.96	16.25	33.63	33.90	41.04	40.92	19.07	19.27
Kiribati	5.29	5.32	25.01	26.00	65.91	67.26	—	—
Lao People's Democratic Republic	8.46	8.27	37.69	27.91	37.84	38.31	24.51	30.63

	Value added share of manufacturing (percentage of GDP)		Value added share of agriculture (percentage of GDP)		Value added share of services (percentage of GDP)		Gross capital formation (percentage of GDP)	
	2001-2010	2011-2014	2001-2010	2011-2014	2001-2010	2011-2014	2001-2010	2011-2014
Myanmar	9.59	—	52.64	—	33.84	—	11.20	—
Nepal	7.99	6.48	35.88	36.06	46.80	48.46	27.08	36.62
Solomon Islands	6.49	—	33.78	—	56.29	—	10.18	—
Timor-Leste	2.27	0.92	26.16	17.78	61.29	60.80	27.92	62.89
Tuvalu	1.05	1.12	23.35	25.05	67.03	66.94	—	—
Vanuatu	4.25	4.12	24.87	27.19	64.95	63.44	27.79	25.49
Yemen	6.86	—	12.13	—	42.72	—	18.99	—
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**14.27**	**15.06**	**22.52**	**20.95**	**51.41**	**53.20**	**24.52**	**27.74**
The Americas								
Haiti	—	—	—	—	—	—	27.75	20.97
Average, all LDCs	**10.61**	**10.22**	**25.36**	**23.69**	**46.00**	**45.77**	**23.15**	**25.05**

Source: World Bank national accounts data (http://databank.worldbank.org/data/home.aspx); United Nations Statistics Division (http://unstats.un.org/unsd/databases.htm).

Table A2.2. Productive capacity
Internet and mobile cellular subscriptions

	Internet users (per 100 people)				Mobile cellular subscriptions (per 100 people)			
	2010	2012	2013	2014	2010	2012	2013	2014
Africa								
Angola	10.0	16.9	19.1	21.3	48.1	61.4	61.9	63.5
Benin	3.1	4.5	4.9	5.3	74.4	83.7	93.3	101.7
Burkina Faso	2.4	3.7	9.1	9.4	36.7	60.6	66.4	71.7
Burundi	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.4	18.2	22.8	25.0	30.5
Central African Republic	2.0	3.0	3.5	4.0	22.5	25.3	29.5	31.4
Chad	1.7	2.1	2.3	2.5	24.5	35.4	35.6	39.8
Comoros	5.1	6.0	6.5	7.0	24.2	39.5	47.3	50.9
Democratic Republic of the Congo	0.7	1.7	2.2	3.0	19.0	30.6	41.8	53.5
Djibouti	6.5	8.3	9.5	10.7	19.9	24.7	28.0	32.4
Equatorial Guinea	6.0	13.9	16.4	18.9	57.4	68.1	67.5	66.4
Eritrea	0.6	0.8	0.9	1.0	3.2	5.0	5.6	6.4
Ethiopia	0.8	1.5	1.9	2.9	7.9	22.4	27.3	31.6
Gambia	9.2	12.4	14.0	15.6	88.0	85.2	100.0	119.6
Guinea	1.0	1.5	1.6	1.7	36.8	48.8	63.3	72.1
Guinea-Bissau	2.5	2.9	3.1	3.3	42.7	63.1	55.2	63.5

	Internet users (per 100 people)				Mobile cellular subscriptions (per 100 people)			
	2010	2012	2013	2014	2010	2012	2013	2014
Lesotho	3.9	4.6	5.0	11.0	49.2	75.3	86.3	101.9
Liberia	2.3	2.6	3.2	5.4	39.7	56.8	59.4	73.4
Madagascar	1.7	2.3	3.0	3.7	36.6	39.4	36.9	38.2
Malawi	2.3	4.4	5.1	5.8	20.8	29.2	32.3	30.5
Mali	2.0	2.8	3.5	7.0	53.2	98.4	129.1	149.0
Mauritania	4.0	5.0	6.2	10.7	76.9	106.0	102.5	94.2
Mozambique	4.2	4.8	5.4	5.9	30.1	34.9	48.0	69.7
Niger	0.8	1.4	1.7	2.0	23.1	31.4	39.3	44.4
Rwanda	8.0	8.0	9.0	10.6	32.7	49.7	56.8	64.0
Sao Tome and Principe	18.8	21.6	23.0	24.4	57.6	65.0	64.9	64.9
Senegal	8.0	10.8	13.1	17.7	64.4	83.6	92.9	98.8
Sierra Leone	0.6	1.3	1.7	2.1	34.8	37.0	65.7	76.7
Somalia	NA	1.4	1.5	1.6	6.7	22.6	49.4	50.9
South Sudan	7.0	NA	14.1	15.9	14.4	21.2	25.3	24.5
Sudan	16.7	21.0	22.7	24.6	41.5	74.4	72.9	72.2
Togo	3.0	4.0	4.5	5.7	41.3	49.9	62.5	69.0
Uganda	12.5	14.7	16.2	17.7	37.7	45.0	48.1	52.4
United Republic of Tanzania	2.9	4.0	4.4	4.9	46.7	57.0	55.7	62.8
Zambia	10.0	13.5	15.4	17.3	41.2	74.8	71.5	67.3
Average, Africa	**4.4**	**5.8**	**6.9**	**8.0**	**30.7**	**44.8**	**50.7**	**56.7**
Asia and the Pacific								
Afghanistan	4.0	5.5	5.9	6.4	45.8	65.5	70.7	74.9
Bangladesh	3.7	5.0	6.6	9.6	44.9	62.8	74.4	75.9
Bhutan	13.6	24.0	29.9	34.4	55.0	75.6	72.2	82.1
Cambodia	1.3	4.9	6.8	9.0	56.7	128.5	133.9	155.1
Kiribati	9.1	10.7	11.5	12.3	10.8	15.9	16.6	17.4
Lao People's Democratic Republic	7.0	10.7	12.5	14.3	62.6	64.7	68.1	67.0
Myanmar	0.3	1.1	1.6	2.1	1.1	7.1	12.8	49.5
Nepal	7.9	11.1	13.3	15.4	34.3	60.5	76.8	82.5
Solomon Islands	5.0	7.0	8.0	9.0	21.9	55.0	57.6	65.8
Timor-Leste	0.2	0.9	1.1	1.1	43.8	55.7	57.4	58.7
Tuvalu	25.0	35.0	37.0	—	16.3	28.4	34.4	38.4
Vanuatu	8.0	10.6	11.3	18.8	71.9	59.1	50.3	60.4
Yemen	12.4	17.4	20.0	22.6	48.7	58.3	69.0	68.5
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**4.1**	**6.0**	**7.5**	**9.7**	**37.8**	**56.2**	**66.1**	**74.9**
The Americas								
Haiti	8.4	9.8	10.6	11.4	40.4	59.9	69.4	64.7
Average, all LDCs	**4.4**	**5.9**	**7.1**	**8.6**	**33.4**	**49.0**	**56.3**	**63.1**

Source: International Telecommunication Union, World Telecommunication/ICT Development Report and database, and World Bank estimates.

Table A2.3. Productive capacity
Connectivity

	Air transport, freight (million ton-km)			Air transport, passengers carried (per 1000 people)			Air transport, passengers carried (per 1000 people)			Liner shipping connectivity index		
	2010	2012	2013	2014	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2010	2013	2014
Africa												
Angola	47.9	71.0	70.4	78.4	48	45	50	56	55	10.7	13.8	19.3
Benin	0	0.4	1.3	0.6	6	6	6	13	6	11.5	14.3	17.2
Burkina Faso	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	10	8	8	8	7	—	—	—
Burundi	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Central African Republic	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Chad	0	0.6	0.5	0.5	4	6	4	2	2	—	—	—
Comoros	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5.7	5.2	6.8
Democratic Republic of the Congo	0	0.2	0.1	0.1	3	4	7	8	7	5.2	4.0	4.1
Djibouti	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	19.6	20.3	20.2
Equatorial Guinea	0	0.8	0.4	0.3	36	173	409	504	369	4.4	4.0	8.4
Eritrea	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	0.0	4.0	4.0
Ethiopia	407.1	703.6	790.6	950.9	38	49	54	60	64	—	—	—
Gambia	0	0.2	2.2	2.2	—	—	6	79	79	5.4	5.9	5.6
Guinea	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6.3	8.1	5.8
Guinea-Bissau	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3.5	4.0	4.0
Lesotho	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Liberia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6.0	5.9	6.0
Madagascar	23.8	25.0	34.6	31.1	25	25	26	24	22	7.4	11.9	11.4
Malawi	0.6	0.3	0.0	0.0	6	5	3	0	0	—	—	—
Mali	8.3	5.4	1.2	0	20	23	11	2	—	—	—	—
Mauritania	0.2	0	0	0	146	103	86	68	68	5.6	6.5	6.0
Mozambique	6.1	4.9	5.9	5.7	23	23	22	27	28	8.2	10.2	9.0
Niger	0	1.5	1.1	1.1	—	—	7	5	5	—	—	—
Rwanda	3.3	17.5	20.0	20.7	18	25	55	55	55	—	—	—
Sao Tome and Principe	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3.3	6.9	6.1
Senegal	0	4.6	4.5	3.6	—	29	39	15	9	13.0	11.1	12.9
Sierra Leone	0	0	—	—	—	8	8	—	—	5.8	5.2	5.6
Somalia	0	1.3	1.4	1.4	17	18	18	25	24	4.2	4.2	5.5
South Sudan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sudan	14.6	23.5	12.4	11.9	16	26	21	14	13	10.1	—	—
Togo	53.2	53.7	32.4	34.0	104	127	111	121	110	14.2	14.8	19.1
Uganda	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.7	5	4	5	5	4	—	—	—

	Air transport, freight (million ton-km)			Air transport, passengers carried (per 1000 people)			Air transport, passengers carried (per 1000 people)			Liner shipping connectivity index		
	2010	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**	**2010**	**2013**	**2014**
United Republic of Tanzania	1.2	1.6	2.0	2.3	19	21	9	1	1	10.6	11.1	11.8
Zambia	0	0	0	0	16	19	21	28	28	—	—	—
Total, Africa	**567.2**	**917.0**	**981.7**	**1,145.3**	**19.9**	**24.2**	**25.8**	**27.1**	**26.7**	**7.6**	**8.6**	**9.4**
Asia and the Pacific												
Afghanistan	108.0	116.7	84.6	71.9	71	79	58	67	68	—	—	—
Bangladesh	164.4	152.3	225.2	260.3	12	13	14	18	20	7.6	8.0	8.4
Bhutan	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.9	252	309	260	276	395	—	—	—
Cambodia	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.8	19	34	34	43	71	4.5	5.3	5.5
Kiribati	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2.9	2.9	2.9
Lao People's Democratic Republic	0.1	1.0	1.4	1.4	71	84	136	224	196	—	—	—
Myanmar	2.1	3.8	4.0	4.0	18	30	32	30	24	3.7	6.0	6.3
Nepal	6.5	5.8	5.8	4.6	34	33	28	23	18	—	—	—
Solomon Islands	2.5	3.0	3.1	3.2	271	261	252	539	578	5.6	6.0	6.9
Timor-Leste	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tuvalu	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Vanuatu	0.2	1.9	1.9	1.9	1,049	994	1,288	1,292	1,237	3.8	3.4	6.4
Yemen	0	0	0	0	65	62	52	65	64	12.5	19.0	18.4
Total, Asia and the Pacific	**284.3**	**285.0**	**327.2**	**349.0**	**27.9**	**32.0**	**31.0**	**36.8**	**37.5**	**5.8**	**7.2**	**7.8**
The Americas												
Haiti	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	7.6	5.1	5.1
Total, all LDCs	**851.5**	**1,202.0**	**1,308.9**	**1,494.3**	**23.0**	**27.2**	**27.8**	**30.7**	**30.7**	**7.2**	**8.1**	**8.9**

Source: World Development Indicators (http://databank.worldbank.org), United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, Review of Maritime Transport 2010.

Table A2.4. Productive capacity
Energy

	Access to electricity (percentage of population) Change in total installed generation capacity per capita									Share of renewable capacity in total capacity (percentage)		Change in total installed generation capacity per capita
	Total			Urban			Rural					
	2000	2010	2012	2000	2010	2012	2000	2010	2012	2000	2010	2000-2010
Africa												
Angola	31.1	34.6	37.0	62.8	55.3	83.0	0.6	5.5	6.0	49.5	43.1	40.4
Benin	25.4	27.9	38.4	57.4	52.3	68.0	5.5	8.5	14.5	1.9	1.6	-15.9
Burkina Faso	6.9	13.1	13.1	37.7	47.0	48.5	0.2	1.4	1.4	26.4	12.7	55.6
Burundi	3.9	5.3	6.5	37.3	41.4	58.5	0.9	1.0	1.2	78.2	98.1	-31.7
Central African Republic	6.0	9.5	10.8	14.8	16.0	14.9	0.7	5.4	8.2	47.2	56.8	-7.4
Chad	2.3	3.5	6.4	10.3	15.0	18.3	0.1	0.3	3.1	0.0	0.0	-24.3
Comoros	44.8	51.5	69.3	76.3	76.5	85.1	32.5	41.8	61.4	20.0	16.7	-7.2
Democratic Republic of the Congo	6.7	15.2	16.4	20.2	39.2	36.3	1.1	3.0	5.8	98.7	98.6	-25.6
Djibouti	46.2	49.7	53.3	58.6	61.5	65.2	5.5	10.2	13.0	0.0	0.0	2.4
Equatorial Guinea	61.0	65.2	66.0	100.0	100.0	93.1	11.3	14.5	43.0	16.7	2.6	135.7
Eritrea	32.2	32.5	36.1	100.0	100.0	100.0	3.0	9.2	12.0	0.0	1.3	61.0
Ethiopia	12.7	23.0	26.6	83.9	100.0	100.0	0.4	4.8	7.6	90.4	90.1	201.7
Gambia	34.3	31.0	34.5	51.2	37.2	41.0	18.2	22.9	25.7	0.0	0.0	56.3
Guinea	16.4	20.2	26.2	49.5	52.6	74.2	1.5	2.8	2.9	40.1	31.6	-8.5
Guinea-Bissau	53.5	57.0	60.6	100.0	100.0	100.0	14.0	18.7	21.5	0.0	0.0	-0.6
Lesotho	5.0	17.0	20.6	14.3	43.2	46.9	2.7	7.4	10.2	100.0	100.0	-7.2
Liberia	0.6	4.1	9.8	0.6	7.5	18.9	0.5	1.0	1.2	0.0	0.0	-23.4
Madagascar	11.4	14.3	15.4	24.3	24.7	60.7	6.6	9.4	8.1	46.3	34.4	41.5
Malawi	4.8	8.7	9.8	27.0	37.0	37.1	1.0	3.5	2.0	91.3	99.7	-10.6
Mali	16.7	16.6	25.6	53.8	42.3	50.4	2.2	3.2	11.9	47.4	51.6	17.4
Mauritania	14.7	18.2	21.8	35.1	41.9	46.0	1.0	1.6	4.4	56.6	36.9	36.1
Mozambique	7.1	15.0	20.2	24.2	44.7	54.5	0.1	1.7	5.4	91.5	89.7	-22.3
Niger	6.7	9.3	14.4	40.4	45.8	61.8	0.2	1.5	5.2	0.0	0.0	-36.1
Rwanda	6.2	10.8	18.0	39.4	40.2	61.5	0.9	4.0	7.7	81.4	47.6	3.1
Sao Tome and Principe	52.9	56.9	60.5	65.0	64.7	68.3	39.0	44.2	47.0	43.9	42.9	-23.1
Senegal	36.8	56.5	56.5	77.0	97.4	87.8	9.6	26.6	26.6	0.4	0.3	71.7
Sierra Leone	8.6	12.1	14.2	23.7	28.9	46.5	0.1	1.4	1.2	7.3	52.9	33.5
Somalia	25.9	29.1	32.7	55.2	53.7	57.7	11.3	14.5	17.3	0.0	0.0	2.2
South Sudan	0.0	1.5	5.1	0.1	5.2	12.3	0.1	0.7	3.5	—	—	—
Sudan	25.5	29.0	32.6	57.0	57.3	62.1	10.3	15.0	17.8	44.9	69.3	116.0

	Access to electricity (percentage of population) Change in total installed generation capacity per capita									Share of renewable capacity in total capacity (percentage)		Change in total installed generation capacity per capita
	Total			Urban			Rural					
	2000	2010	2012	2000	2010	2012	2000	2010	2012	2000	2010	2000-2010
Togo	17.0	27.9	31.5	46.7	64.2	67.6	2.4	6.1	8.9	72.8	78.8	-28.7
Uganda	8.6	14.6	18.2	53.7	66.7	71.2	2.4	5.3	8.1	98.6	68.5	37.5
United Republic of Tanzania	8.8	14.8	15.3	33.5	45.9	46.4	1.7	3.7	3.6	65.0	66.8	-26.2
Zambia	17.4	18.5	22.1	44.6	43.0	46.9	2.9	3.0	5.8	99.1	99.6	-23.8
Average, Africa	**13.1**	**19.1**	**22.2**	**43.8**	**52.2**	**58.6**	**2.4**	**5.4**	**7.6**	**74.9**	**70.9**	**17.9**
Asia and the Pacific												
Afghanistan	37.5	41.0	43.0	88.3	80.6	83.0	24.3	29.0	32.0	71.7	76.5	-12.9
Bangladesh	32.0	55.2	59.6	69.2	88.0	90.2	20.5	42.5	49.3	6.4	4.0	62.3
Bhutan	68.5	72.0	75.6	100.0	100.0	100.0	45.3	50.0	52.8	97.2	98.9	178.3
Cambodia	16.6	31.1	31.1	49.9	80.9	91.3	9.0	18.8	18.8	7.7	5.2	135.6
Kiribati	52.5	55.8	59.3	69.8	72.6	76.9	39.5	42.7	45.5	0.0	0.0	5.9
Lao People's Democratic Republic	46.3	66.0	70.0	68.7	94.3	97.9	40.0	52.0	54.8	97.3	97.4	149.8
Myanmar	47.0	48.8	52.4	100.0	92.0	95.0	23.7	28.4	31.2	29.5	46.7	38.9
Nepal	72.8	76.3	76.3	100.0	99.8	97.0	17.4	71.6	71.6	85.9	92.1	60.1
Solomon Islands	15.7	19.2	22.8	72.1	56.8	61.6	5.1	9.8	12.6	—	—	101.4
Timor-Leste	34.5	38.0	41.6	81.8	74.1	78.3	19.3	24.0	26.8	0.0	0.0	—
Tuvalu	37.5	41.0	44.6	52.9	52.9	56.9	24.3	29.0	31.8	—	—	—
Vanuatu	19.1	23.5	27.1	51.0	49.6	54.7	10.3	15.0	17.8	—	10.7	37.1
Yemen	41.3	44.8	48.4	84.2	75.1	78.9	26.0	30.7	33.5	0.0	0.0	16.4
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**39.1**	**52.8**	**56.2**	**79.4**	**87.5**	**90.0**	**21.3**	**39.8**	**44.0**	**29.1**	**36.5**	**70.3**
The Americas												
Haiti	31.4	33.9	37.9	78.8	54.4	72.3	5.2	11.7	15.0	25.8	20.7	-5.5
Average, All LDCs	**23.62**	**31.54**	**34.46**	**57.74**	**64.94**	**70.03**	**10.01**	**18.00**	**20.65**	**57.01**	**55.06**	**30.15**

Source: Sustainable Energy for All Global Tracking Framework (www.se4all.org/tracking-progress/).

Table A2.5. Productive capacity
Scientific and Technical Journal Articles

	Scientific and Technical Journal Articles	
	2001-2010	2011
Africa		
Angola	3.8	6.0
Benin	34.8	51.2
Burkina Faso	40.7	52.5
Burundi	3.0	3.4
Central African Republic	5.6	4.2
Chad	3.8	1.7
Comoros	0.6	0.3
Democratic Republic of the Congo	8.2	20.6
Djibouti	0.8	1.3
Equatorial Guinea	0.8	0.7
Eritrea	6.0	1.4
Ethiopia	123.9	170.0
Gambia	21.6	12.5
Guinea	4.0	4.0
Guinea-Bissau	6.0	4.5
Lesotho	3.3	5.7
Liberia	1.0	4.4
Madagascar	35.8	32.7
Malawi	49.0	56.7
Mali	20.6	28.6
Mauritania	4.8	5.8
Mozambique	19.5	37.9
Niger	16.2	17.8
Rwanda	7.3	22.4
Sao Tome and Principe	0.4	0.3
Senegal	63.2	79.3
Sierra Leone	2.5	4.0
Somalia	0.4	1.0
South Sudan	—	—
Sudan	47.8	69.3
Togo	9.6	8.2
Uganda	115.8	158.2
United Republic of Tanzania	111.1	121.1
Zambia	33.3	59.6
Articles per 1.000.000 people, Africa	**1.8**	**2.0**

	Scientific and Technical Journal Articles	
	2001-2010	2011
Asia and the Pacific		
Afghanistan	4.0	7.7
Bangladesh	213.5	290.8
Bhutan	4.1	8.3
Cambodia	19.4	32.5
Kiribati	0.0	0.0
Lao People's Democratic Republic	11.1	21.4
Myanmar	9.5	9.1
Nepal	59.5	63.5
Solomon Islands	2.0	4.9
Timor-Leste	—	—
Tuvalu	0.0	0.0
Vanuatu	2.8	4.7
Yemen	16.5	33.3
Articles per 1.000.000 people, Asia and the Pacific	**1.2**	**1.5**
The Americas		
Haiti	5.2	14.0
Articles per 1.000.000 people, all LDCs	**1.5**	**1.8**

Source: World Development Indicators (http://databank.worldbank.org).

Table A2.6. Science, Technology and Innovation
Number of patents filed

	Number of patents filed, aggregate for residents & non-residents			
	2010	2011	2012	2013
Africa				
Angola	0	0	0	0
Benin	0	0	0	0
Burkina Faso	2	0	0	0
Burundi	0	0	0	0
Central African Republic	0	0	0	0
Chad	0	0	0	0
Comoros	0	0	0	0
Democratic Republic of the Congo	0	0	0	0
Djibouti	0	0	0	3
Equatorial Guinea	0	0	0	0
Eritrea	0	0	0	0
Ethiopia	0	0	0	0
Gambia	0	0	0	0
Guinea	0	0	0	0
Guinea-Bissau	0	0	0	0
Lesotho	0	0	0	0
Liberia	0	0	0	0
Madagascar	43	61	44	51
Malawi	0	0	0	0
Mali	0	0	0	0
Mauritania	0	0	0	0
Mozambique	0	0	0	0
Niger	0	0	0	0
Rwanda	0	0	70	0
Sao Tome and Principe	1	2	0	8
Senegal	0	0	0	0
Sierra Leone	0	0	0	0
Somalia	0	0	0	0
South Sudan	0	0	0	0
Sudan	0	0	0	0
Togo	0	0	0	0
Uganda	0	0	0	14
United Republic of Tanzania	0	0	0	0
Zambia	17	24	38	39
Total, Africa	**63**	**87**	**152**	**115**
Asia and the Pacific				
Afghanistan	0	0	0	0
Bangladesh	342	306	354	303
Bhutan	0	0	4	7
Cambodia	26	43	53	75

	Number of patents filed, aggregate for residents & non-residents			
	2010	2011	2012	2013
Kiribati	0	0	0	18
Lao People's Democratic Republic	0	0	0	0
Myanmar	0	0	0	0
Nepal	0	23	17	30
Solomon Islands	0	0	0	0
Timor-Leste	0	0	0	0
Tuvalu	0	0	0	0
Vanuatu	0	0	0	0
Yemen	75	44	85	80
Total, Asia and the Pacific	443	416	513	513
The Americas				
Haiti	10	35	0	0
Total, All LDCs	**516**	**538**	**665**	**628**
Developing Countries				
Average, East Asia & Pacific	420,364	557,412	681,696	854,912
Average, Europe & Central Asia	16,532	16,694	14,598	16,966
Average, Latin America & Caribbean	45,041	48,149	51,223	51,579
Average, Middle East & North Africa	16,876	17,297	163,10	16,708
Average, Sub-Saharan Africa	0	0	0	0
Total, ALL Developing Countries	**498,813**	**639,552**	**763,827**	**940,165**

Source: World Development Indicators (http://databank.worldbank.org).

Table A3.1. Agriculture, food security and rural development

	Malnutrition prevalence, weight for age (percentage of children under 5)		Malnutrition prevalence, height for age (percentage of children under 5)		Malnutrition prevalence, weight for height (percentage of children under 5)		Agricultural irrigated land (percentage of total agricultural land)	Value added share of agriculture, percentage difference	
	2000/ 2008	2009/ 2014	2000/ 2008	2009/ 2014	2000/ 2008	2009/ 2013	2006/ 2013	2001- 2010	2011- 2013
Africa									
Angola	15.6	—	29.2	—	8.2	—	—	0.2	0.3
Benin	20.2	—	44.7	—	8.4	—	0.3	0.2	-0.1
Burkina Faso	37.6	26.2	42.4	35.1	24.4	10.9	—	-0.2	-16.9
Burundi	35.2	29.1	57.7	57.5	9.0	6.1	—	-0.6	-0.2
Central African Republic	28.0	23.5	45.1	40.7	12.2	7.4	—	0.1	-27.4
Chad	33.9	30.3	44.8	38.7	16.1	15.7	—	1.2	-0.5
Comoros	25.0	16.9	46.9	32.1	13.3	11.1	—	0.0	-1.0
Democratic Republic of the Congo	28.2	23.4	45.8	42.6	14.0	8.5	—	-1.1	-0.4

	Malnutrition prevalence, weight for age (percentage of children under 5)		Malnutrition prevalence, height for age (percentage of children under 5)		Malnutrition prevalence, weight for height (percentage of children under 5)		Agricultural irrigated land (percentage of total agricultural land)	Value added share of agriculture, percentage difference	
	2000/ 2008	2009/ 2014	2000/ 2008	2009/ 2014	2000/ 2008	2009/ 2013	2006/ 2013	2001- 2010	2011- 2013
Djibouti	29.6	29.8	32.6	33.5	26.0	21.5	—	0.0	0.0
Equatorial Guinea	10.6	5.6	35.0	26.2	2.8	3.1	—	-0.4	0.0
Eritrea	34.5	38.8	43.7	50.3	14.9	15.3	—	0.1	0.2
Ethiopia	34.6	25.2	50.7	40.4	12.3	10.1	0.5	-0.1	0.1
Gambia	15.8	17.4	27.6	23.4	7.4	9.5	—	0.6	0.0
Guinea	20.8	16.3	40.0	35.8	8.3	9.9	—	-0.1	-0.6
Guinea-Bissau	16.6	18.1	27.7	32.2	4.8	5.8	—	0.8	-0.9
Lesotho	16.6	13.5	45.2	39.0	5.6	3.9	0.1	-0.4	-4.1
Liberia	20.4	15.3	39.4	32.1	7.8	2.8	—	-3.3	-22.3
Madagascar	36.8	—	52.8	49.2	15.2	—	2.2	0.0	-0.7
Malawi	15.5	16.7	53.2	42.4	4.2	4.1	0.5	-0.9	-1.0
Mali	27.9	—	38.5	38.5	15.3	—	—	0.3	-19.7
Mauritania	15.9	19.5	23.0	22.0	8.1	11.6	—	-0.9	0.4
Mozambique	18.3	15.6	43.7	43.1	4.2	6.1	—	0.7	-0.3
Niger	39.9	37.9	54.8	43.0	12.4	18.7	0.2	0.1	-0.4
Rwanda	18.0	11.7	51.7	44.3	4.8	3.0	—	-0.5	0.3
Sao Tome and Principe	14.4	—	31.6	31.6	11.2	—	—	-0.1	-0.2
Senegal	14.5	16.8	20.1	19.2	8.7	8.9	0.7	-0.1	0.6
Sierra Leone	21.3	18.1	37.4	37.9	10.5	9.2	—	0.7	0.8
Somalia	32.8	—	42.1	42.1	13.2	—	—	0.0	0.0
South Sudan	32.5	27.6	36.2	31.1	24.6	22.7	—	1.7	-0.2
Sudan	27.0	—	38.3	38.3	14.5	16.4	1.4	-1.8	0.9
Togo	20.5	16.5	26.9	29.8	6.0	4.8	—	0.5	-0.6
Uganda	16.4	14.1	38.7	33.7	6.3	4.8	0.1	-0.4	-0.1
United Republic of Tanzania	16.7	13.6	44.4	34.8	3.5	6.6	—	-0.5	0.2
Zambia	14.9	—	45.8	—	5.6	—	—	-0.7	-0.2
Average, Africa	**25.9**	**21.5**	**43.7**	**39.1**	**10.8**	**9.5**	**1.0**	**-0.8**	**-0.3**
Asia and the Pacific									
Afghanistan	32.9	—	59.3	—	8.6	—	5.5	3.0	-0.2
Bangladesh	41.3	31.9	43.2	42.0	17.5	15.7	52.6	-0.6	-0.5
Bhutan	10.4	12.8	34.9	33.6	4.7	5.9	6.7	-0.9	0.0
Cambodia	28.8	29.0	39.5	40.9	8.9	10.8	—	0.0	-1.1
Kiribati	—	14.9	—	—	—	—	—	0.1	-0.2
Lao People's Democratic Republic	31.6	26.5	47.6	43.8	7.3	6.4	—	-1.1	-1.0
Myanmar	29.6	22.6	40.6	35.1	10.7	7.9	24.8	-2.0	0.2

	Malnutrition prevalence, weight for age (percentage of children under 5)		Malnutrition prevalence, height for age (percentage of children under 5)		Malnutrition prevalence, weight for height (percentage of children under 5)		Agricultural irrigated land (percentage of total agricultural land)	Value added share of agriculture, percentage difference	
	2000/ 2008	**2009/ 2014**	**2000/ 2008**	**2009/ 2014**	**2000/ 2008**	**2009/ 2013**	**2006/ 2013**	**2001-2010**	**2011-2013**
Nepal	38.8	29.1	49.3	40.5	12.7	11.2	29.7	-0.1	-1.1
Solomon Islands	11.5	—	32.8	—	4.3	—	—	0.5	0.0
Timor-Leste	48.6	45.3	53.9	57.7	24.5	18.9	—	-0.3	-8.6
Tuvalu	—	—	10.0	—	3.3	—	—	0.7	-1.8
Vanuatu	11.7	—	25.9	—	5.9	—	—	-0.4	0.8
Yemen	43.1	35.5	57.7	46.6	15.2	13.3	3.3	0.0	0.3
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**37.5**	**30.2**	**46.7**	**41.3**	**14.9**	**13.2**	**13.7**	**-0.3**	**-0.5**
The Americas									
Haiti	18.9	11.6	29.7	21.9	10.3	5.2	4.3	-0.3	-0.3
Average, All LDCs	**29.2**	**23.8**	**44.5**	**39.5**	**12.0**	**10.4**	**4.2**	**-0.6**	**-0.4**

Source: World Health Organization, Global Database on Child Growth and Malnutrition (http://www.who.int/nutgrowthdb/en/); Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (http://www.fao.org/statistics/en/); World Bank national accounts data (http://databank.worldbank.org/data/home.aspx).

Note: The aggregate for Agricultural irrigated land (percentage of total agricultural land) reflects the Median.

Table A3.2. Agriculture and Rural Infrastructure

	Agriculture (PIN), Gross per capita Production Index (2004-2006 = 100) (Int. $)					
	2000	**2005**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**
Africa						
Angola	74.3	102.3	145.6	154.7	125.1	163.1
Benin	104.4	101.8	98.7	105.3	107.0	114.6
Burkina Faso	76.2	103.4	100.3	88.1	99.8	97.7
Burundi	100.4	91.7	90.8	83.4	75.1	98.8
Central African Republic	103.0	99.5	103.8	106.4	105.8	105.4
Chad	94.6	104.0	89.1	80.3	96.5	89.9
Comoros	108.7	95.7	99.9	94.1	93.9	92.8
Democratic Republic of the Congo	117.5	100.0	92.5	93.4	95.1	93.6
Djibouti	91.3	95.4	110.5	121.5	121.6	119.7
Equatorial Guinea	108.7	100.4	96.3	94.8	95.1	93.0
Eritrea	99.5	106.2	90.1	89.1	87.9	84.6
Ethiopia	82.2	102.4	120.2	118.7	121.7	119.1
Gambia	114.6	93.9	114.0	73.0	86.2	76.2
Guinea	92.1	100.8	99.9	100.0	102.3	100.2
Guinea-Bissau	97.5	99.3	109.0	112.1	117.5	117.2

	Agriculture (PIN), Gross per capita Production Index (2004-2006 = 100) (Int. $)					
	2000	**2005**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**
Lesotho	105.6	102.3	105.9	103.3	93.2	103.5
Liberia	113.3	104.8	83.2	83.7	81.6	76.9
Madagascar	102.1	103.2	107.3	105.3	106.4	94.9
Malawi	112.4	85.3	133.8	137.7	141.2	147.7
Mali	82.5	102.6	121.7	112.9	117.7	110.3
Mauritania	103.9	100.4	98.1	94.7	99.7	97.3
Mozambique	93.0	95.7	129.7	134.6	126.3	127.3
Niger	86.3	102.0	120.6	102.3	106.4	98.1
Rwanda	92.8	100.8	126.4	132.4	137.2	136.6
Sao Tome and Principe	107.1	100.3	89.2	85.0	84.3	89.3
Senegal	122.6	109.5	131.1	91.5	105.2	100.4
Sierra Leone	55.4	93.4	132.3	135.7	137.8	142.2
Somalia	102.7	100.4	91.7	91.9	91.9	94.5
South Sudan	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sudan	—	—	—	—	—	—
Togo	102.1	96.4	108.0	116.6	110.5	98.0
Uganda	103.7	100.0	94.2	92.8	87.6	85.4
United Republic of Tanzania	81.3	97.8	111.4	116.8	120.5	121.4
Zambia	89.1	100.6	140.8	145.8	147.5	141.0
Average, Africa	**97.5**	**99.8**	**108.9**	**106.2**	**107.0**	**107.2**
Asia and the Pacific						
Afghanistan	102.3	105.9	101.5	94.6	102.3	97.8
Bangladesh	96.9	102.8	122.5	124.4	123.8	124.6
Bhutan	79.3	105.8	85.9	98.1	87.7	83.6
Cambodia	82.0	104.9	138.0	155.9	157.2	156.6
Kiribati	81.3	95.7	108.4	106.1	107.2	107.1
Lao People's Democratic Republic	90.1	100.5	117.6	122.7	135.2	133.9
Myanmar	70.6	99.1	130.8	127.5	123.3	124.5
Nepal	94.1	100.3	107.4	114.4	130.0	119.7
Solomon Islands	93.0	103.1	98.6	97.6	98.1	98.8
Timor-Leste	104.1	98.0	111.2	95.7	109.4	99.0
Tuvalu	105.0	101.4	110.7	104.4	105.6	107.8
Vanuatu	113.9	100.2	117.1	110.0	110.0	113.9
Yemen	95.2	97.7	120.7	115.3	118.7	113.7
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**92.9**	**101.2**	**113.1**	**112.8**	**116.0**	**113.9**
The Americas						
Haiti	104.9	101.7	104.2	103.0	100.6	106.3
Average, All LDCs	**96.4**	**100.2**	**110.0**	**108.0**	**109.4**	**109.1**

Source: Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations (http://www.fao.org/home/en/).

Table A3.3. Agriculture and Rural Infrastructure

	Total Outlays of Government Expenditure (in million US$)						
	2001	2005	2010	2011	2012	2013	2010-2013
Africa							
Angola	—	10,149	28,622	37,946	38,712	—	35,093
Benin	429	828	1,174	1,234	1,245	—	1,218
Burkina Faso	—	1,239	2,185	2,465	2,848	—	2,499
Burundi	—	—	566,891	647,492	786,275	—	666,886
Central African Republic	—	—	502	411	380	—	431
Chad	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Comoros	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Democratic Republic of the Congo	720	2,476	3,953	—	—	—	3,953
Djibouti	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Equatorial Guinea	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Eritrea	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ethiopia	1,635	2,523	4,922	4,995	—	—	4,959
Gambia	93	127	—	—	—	—	—
Guinea	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Guinea-Bissau	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Lesotho	365	682	—	—	—		—
Liberia	—	—	292	389	—	—	341
Madagascar	787	1,075	788	960	—	—	874
Malawi	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mali	609	1,304	2,128	2,517	1,755	2,542	2,236
Mauritania	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mozambique	1,035	1,601	3,034	4,232	—	—	3,633
Niger	—	676	—	—	—	—	—
Rwanda	—	—	1,480	1,695	—	—	1,588
Sao Tome and Principe	—	—	94	—	—	—	94
Senegal	—	—	3,495	4,122	3,982	—	3,866
Sierra Leone	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Somalia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South Sudan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sudan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Togo	—	431	661	891	1,047	—	866
Uganda	1,498	1,806	3,116	3,492	3,603	—	3,404
United Republic of Tanzania	1,973	3,692	9,979	8,616	7,628	11,401	9,406
Zambia	741	1,630	3,512	—	—	—	3,512
Average, Africa	**8,99**	**2,016**	**35,379**	**48,097**	**84,748**	**6,972**	**41,381**
Asia and the Pacific							
Afghanistan	—	1,051	33,07	4,195	4,622	—	4,041
Bangladesh	5,118	6,843	—	—	—	—	—
Bhutan	227	245	—	—	—	—	—

	Total Outlays of Government Expenditure (in million US$)						
	2001	**2005**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2010-2013**
Cambodia	—	763	2,253	2,526	2,904	—	2,561
Kiribati	—	—	90	130	113	—	111
Lao People's Democratic Republic	—	—	1,529	1,791	2,197	—	1,839
Myanmar	40,203	173,331	—	—	—	—	—
Nepal	—	1,244	3,180	3,602	3,458	3,327	3,392
Solomon Islands	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Timor-Leste	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tuvalu	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Vanuatu	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Yemen		5,760	9,519	8,416	12,282	—	10,072
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**15,183**	**27,034**	**3,313**	**3,443**	**4,263**	**3,327**	**3,669**
The Americas							
Haiti	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Average, All LDCs	**3,960**	**9,976**	**27,363**	**35,339**	**54,566**	**5,757**	**31,953**

Source: Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations (http://www.fao.org/home/en/).

Table A3.4. Agriculture and Rural Infrastructure

	Total Government Expenditure on Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing (per cent of Total Outlays)						Total Government Expenditure on Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing (per cent of GDP)					
	2005	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2005	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Africa												
Angola	1.7	4.1	1.3	1.4	1.1	—	0.62	2.19	0.45	0.49	0.38	—
Benin	—	—	1.6	—	—	—	—	—	0.29	—	—	—
Burkina Faso	0.1	2.1	2.6	3.0	—	—	0.02	0.51	0.65	0.69	—	—
Burundi	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Central African Republic	—	2.0	1.8	—	—	—	—	0.40	0.45	—	—	—
Chad	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Comoros	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Democratic Republic of the Congo	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Djibouti	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Equatorial Guinea	—	0.8	—	—	—	—	—	0.51	—	—	—	—
Eritrea	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ethiopia	15.9	—	—	—	—	—	3.24	—	—	—	—	—
Gambia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Guinea	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Guinea-Bissau	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Lesotho	3.5	3.0	—	—	—	—	1.75	1.81	—	—	—	—
Liberia	—	2.4	2.4	1.8	—	—	0.18	0.52	0.54	0.45	—	—
Madagascar	9.5	1.8	1.7	1.6	—	—	2.02	0.16	0.15	0.15	—	—

	Total Government Expenditure on Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing (per cent of Total Outlays)						Total Government Expenditure on Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing (per cent of GDP)					
	2005	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2005	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Malawi	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mali	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mauritania	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mozambique	4.6	4.6	3.6	3.3	—	—	1.12	1.24	1.09	1.04	—	—
Niger	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Rwanda	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sao Tome and Principe	—	4.0	3.3	—	—	—	—	2.04	1.49	—	—	—
Senegal	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sierra Leone	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Somalia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South Sudan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sudan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Togo	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Uganda	3.1	3.8	4.8	3.6	3.4		0.61	0.55	0.79	0.68	—	—
United Republic of Tanzania	3.7	3.3	3.3	1.7	1.7	2.5	0.81	0.86	1.06	0.42	0.33	0.65
Zambia	4.5	8.4	6.6	—	—	—	0.89	1.51	1.14	—	—	—
Average, Africa	**4.1**	**3.5**	**2.2**	**1.6**	**1.3**	**2.5**	**1.11**	**1.41**	**0.68**	**0.53**	**0.37**	**0.65**
Asia and the Pacific												
Afghanistan	4.7	5.4	3.7	4.3	4.3	—	0.78	1.13	0.77	1.00	0.97	—
Bangladesh	5.4	9.0	—	—	—	—	0.53	1.03	—	—	—	—
Bhutan	11.0	11.2	—	—	—	—	3.30	3.72	—	—	—	—
Cambodia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Kiribati	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Lao People's Democratic Republic	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Myanmar	9.3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Nepal	8.2	6.9	8.6	11.2	10.5	14.8	1.25	1.38	1.71	2.13	1.93	2.56
Solomon Islands	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Timor-Leste	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tuvalu	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Vanuatu	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Yemen	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Average, Asia and the Pacific	5.8	8.2	6.1	7.4	6.9	14.8	0.65	1.10	1.24	1.58	1.43	2.56
The Americas												
Haiti	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Average, All LDCs	**4.6**	**4.4**	**2.6**	**2.2**	**2.0**	**5.3**	**0.89**	**1.28**	**0.76**	**0.70**	**0.58**	**1.23**

Source: Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations (http://www.fao.org/home/en/).

Table A3.5. Agriculture and Rural Infrastructure

	Fertilizer consumption (kilograms per hectare of arable land)			
	2010	2011	2012	2013
Africa				
Angola	8.4	8.2	10.1	8.8
Benin	9.0	5.4	19.4	5.5
Burkina Faso	9.4	10.7	11.0	14.3
Burundi	3.6	5.6	5.7	7.4
Central African Republic	—	—	—	—
Chad	—	—	—	—
Comoros	—	—	—	—
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1.1	1.6	0.9	1.3
Djibouti	—	—	—	—
Equatorial Guinea	—	—	—	—
Eritrea	0.4	0.8	1.3	0.8
Ethiopia	21.8	20.8	23.8	19.2
Gambia	7.3	10.3	6.5	0.5
Guinea	0.9	3.6	2.3	1.6
Guinea-Bissau	—	—	—	—
Lesotho	—	—	—	—
Liberia	—	—	—	—
Madagascar	2.4	3.2	2.5	3.9
Malawi	35.4	29.5	39.9	43.2
Mali	19.6	22.0	26.0	27.9
Mauritania	—	—	—	—
Mozambique	8.2	7.4	6.0	9.3
Niger	0.5	0.5	1.3	0.7
Rwanda	0.1	0.1	4.1	9.3
Sao Tome and Principe	—	—	—	—
Senegal	8.1	7.7	8.0	11.0
Sierra Leone	—	—	—	—
Somalia	—	—	—	—
South Sudan	—	—	—	—
Sudan	10.8	9.4	10.6	12.8
Togo	9.0	10.2	5.0	11.7
Uganda	1.7	1.8	1.8	2.2
United Republic of Tanzania	8.8	8.6	7.7	4.7
Zambia	29.2	46.1	33.9	42.1
Average, Africa	**10.2**	**10.4**	**11.3**	**11.3**
Asia and the Pacific				
Afghanistan	4.3	6.3	4.6	5.1
Bangladesh	213.0	271.3	278.8	208.7
Bhutan	10.0	13.1	10.7	15.2
Cambodia	11.5	15.5	16.6	14.2

	Fertilizer consumption (kilograms per hectare of arable land)			
	2010	2011	2012	2013
Kiribati	—	—	—	—
Lao People's Democratic Republic	—	—	—	—
Myanmar	6.6	15.2	15.8	16.8
Nepal	25.1	34.9	44.1	57.7
Solomon Islands	—	—	—	—
Timor-Leste	—	—	—	—
Tuvalu	—	—	—	—
Vanuatu	—	—	—	—
Yemen	19.5	12.4	9.7	21.5
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**55.7**	**72.7**	**74.6**	**60.1**
The Americas				
Haiti	—	—	—	—
Average, All LDCs	**20.1**	**23.9**	**24.4**	**21.7**

Source: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (http://www.fao.org/).

Table A4. Trade and commodities

	Percentage of exports in world total exports					Exports of primary commodities, precious stones and non-monetary gold, percentage of total merchandise exports	
	2001	2005	2010	2013	2014	2001-2010	2011-2014
Africa							
Angola	0.1055	0.2296	0.3306	0.3601	0.3284	99.1	99.1
Benin	0.0060	0.0055	0.0084	0.0099	0.0106	88.2	87.0
Burkina Faso	0.0036	0.0045	0.0104	0.0124	0.0131	91.8	93.5
Burundi	0.0006	0.0006	0.0007	0.0005	0.0007	87.8	82.2
Central African Republic	0.0023	0.0012	0.0009	0.0008	0.0005	93.6	91.8
Chad	0.0031	0.0293	0.0235	0.0201	0.0189	97.6	98.8
Comoros	0.0003	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	66.5	46.4
Democratic Republic of the Congo	0.0142	0.0229	0.0346	0.0327	0.0363	95.7	95.0
Djibouti	0.0005	0.0004	0.0006	0.0006	0.0007	70.1	67.2
Equatorial Guinea	0.0280	0.0673	0.0654	0.0776	0.0663	95.8	95.8
Eritrea	0.0003	0.0001	0.0001	0.0017	0.0040	52.0	88.8
Ethiopia	0.0073	0.0086	0.0152	0.0215	0.0234	88.7	89.0
Gambia	0.0001	0.0001	0.0005	0.0006	0.0006	80.9	78.6
Guinea	0.0118	0.0081	0.0096	0.0069	0.0074	96.0	97.4
Guinea-Bissau	0.0010	0.0009	0.0008	0.0007	0.0009	93.4	99.3
Lesotho	0.0045	0.0062	0.0057	0.0045	0.0049	20.9	39.4
Liberia	0.0021	0.0013	0.0015	0.0030	0.0031	33.2	68.7
Madagascar	0.0150	0.0081	0.0075	0.0101	0.0112	48.3	65.0

	Percentage of exports in world total exports					Exports of primary commodities, precious stones and non-monetary gold, percentage of total merchandise exports	
	2001	2005	2010	2013	2014	2001-2010	2011-2014
Malawi	0.0073	0.0048	0.0070	0.0064	0.0072	88.7	85.1
Mali	0.0117	0.0105	0.0131	0.0123	0.0111	91.2	88.6
Mauritania	0.0057	0.0060	0.0136	0.0140	0.0102	94.9	93.9
Mozambique	0.0114	0.0170	0.0196	0.0212	0.0249	91.7	91.5
Niger	0.0044	0.0047	0.0075	0.0084	0.0079	68.9	71.1
Rwanda	0.0014	0.0012	0.0019	0.0037	0.0039	88.2	89.0
Sao Tome and Principe	0.0000	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	65.0	62.8
Senegal	0.0162	0.0150	0.0141	0.0141	0.0148	66.0	69.3
Sierra Leone	0.0005	0.0015	0.0022	0.0101	0.0099	72.7	84.5
Somalia	0.0046	0.0024	0.0029	0.0027	0.0027	93.9	94.6
South Sudan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sudan	—	—	—	0.0253	0.0229	98.8	97.1
Togo	0.0058	0.0063	0.0064	0.0080	0.0071	62.1	58.1
Uganda	0.0073	0.0077	0.0106	0.0127	0.0120	77.0	66.3
United Republic of Tanzania	0.0137	0.0160	0.0265	0.0233	0.0244	84.8	83.8
Zambia	0.0159	0.0172	0.0471	0.0559	0.0510	88.2	85.1
Total/ Average, Africa	**0.3121**	**0.5049**	**0.6886**	**0.7819**	**0.7409**	**93.1**	**93.1**
Asia and the Pacific							
Afghanistan	0.0010	0.0037	0.0025	0.0027	0.0030	65.2	67.2
Bangladesh	0.0980	0.0885	0.1254	0.1536	0.1600	7.6	6.9
Bhutan	0.0020	0.0025	0.0042	0.0029	0.0029	49.0	38.0
Cambodia	0.0240	0.0294	0.0336	0.0488	0.0568	8.1	12.5
Kiribati	0.0001	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	81.0	94.9
Lao People's Democratic Republic	0.0052	0.0053	0.0114	0.0119	0.0139	72.4	85.2
Myanmar	0.0381	0.0360	0.0566	0.0593	0.0580	76.7	90.7
Nepal	0.0119	0.0082	0.0056	0.0046	0.0047	31.2	27.8
Solomon Islands	0.0008	0.0010	0.0015	0.0024	0.0024	98.1	88.1
Timor-Leste	—	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	80.8	94.5
Tuvalu	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	18.8	76.8
Vanuatu	0.0003	0.0004	0.0003	0.0002	0.0003	70.8	74.0
Yemen	0.0545	0.0534	0.0529	0.0438	0.0421	98.2	96.7
Total/ Average, Asia and the Pacific	**0.2357**	**0.2284**	**0.2942**	**0.3303**	**0.3444**	**42.3**	**39.9**
The Americas							
Haiti	0.0044	0.0045	0.0038	0.0047	0.0048	9.4	11.3
Total/ Average, All LDCs	**0.5478**	**0.7333**	**0.9828**	**1.1122**	**1.0853**	**78.3**	**77.3**

Source: UNCTAD (http://unctadstat.unctad.org).

Table A5.1. Human development
Education and training

	Net enrolment in primary education (percentage)		Pupil/teacher ratio in primary education		Gross enrolment in secondary education (percentage)		Pupil/teacher ratio in secondary education	
	2010	2011/ 2013	2010	2011/ 2014	2010	2011/ 2013	2010	2011/ 2014
Africa								
Angola	86	86	46	43	31	32	—	27
Benin	94	95	46	44	—	54	—	10
Burkina Faso	60	67	52	46	22	28	30	27
Burundi	94	95	51	45	23	33	30	32
Central African Republic	71	72	84	80	—	18	—	68
Chad	—	79	62	62	23	23	32	30
Comoros	—	81	—	28	—	64	—	9
Democratic Republic of the Congo	—	—	37	37	41	43	16	15
Djibouti	—	59	—	33	—	46	—	25
Equatorial Guinea	57	61	27	26	—	—	—	—
Eritrea	—	—	38	40	—	—	39	38
Ethiopia	—	—	54	54	—	—	43	39
Gambia	68	69	—	36	57	—	—	—
Guinea	70	74	42	44	—	38	—	33
Guinea-Bissau	70	—	52	—	—	—	—	—
Lesotho	78	80	34	33	50	53	24	25
Liberia	—	38	—	26	—	45	—	15
Madagascar	—	—	40	40	—	38	—	28
Malawi	—	—	79	69	33	37	43	42
Mali	70	64	50	41	42	45	—	19
Mauritania	71	73	37	35	20	30	—	—
Mozambique	89	87	58	55	25	26	34	31
Niger	56	63	39	36	14	16	31	35
Rwanda	89	93	65	60	30	33	—	23
Sao Tome and Principe	98	96	—	33	52	80	—	20
Senegal	73	73	34	32	36	41	—	27
Sierra Leone	—	—	—	35	—	45	—	21
Somalia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South Sudan	—	41	—	50	—	—	—	—
Sudan	—	—	—	46	42	41	—	31
Togo	—	97	41	41	—	55	—	26
Uganda	88	91	49	46	26	27	19	21
United Republic of Tanzania	91	83	51	43	32	33	—	26
Zambia	88	91	53	48	—	—	—	—
Average, Africa	**82**	**83**	**50**	**47**	**32**	**34**	**27**	**23**

	Net enrolment in primary education (percentage)		Pupil/teacher ratio in primary education		Gross enrolment in secondary education (percentage)		Pupil/teacher ratio in secondary education	
	2010	**2011/ 2013**	**2010**	**2011/ 2014**	**2010**	**2011/ 2013**	**2010**	**2011/ 2014**
Asia and the Pacific								
Afghanistan	—	—	44	45	50	54	—	—
Bangladesh	92	—	43	40	50	54	28	32
Bhutan	88	88	26	24	66	78	21	20
Cambodia	98	98	48	47	—	—	—	—
Kiribati	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Lao People's Democratic Republic	94	97	29	26	45	50	20	18
Myanmar	—	—	28	—	50	—	34	—
Nepal	—	98	32	24	60	67	32	29
Solomon Islands	—	—	—	21	49	48	28	26
Timor-Leste	85	91	30	31	55	57	23	24
Tuvalu	—	74	—	—	—	84	—	—
Vanuatu	—	—	22	23	60	—	—	—
Yemen	82	88	31	30	44	49	—	16
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**88**	**92**	**39**	**38**	**51**	**55**	**29**	**28**
The Americas								
Haiti	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Average, All LDCs	**83**	**84**	**46**	**44**	**40**	**43**	**28**	**26**

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (http://www.uis.unesco.org).

Table A5.2. Human development
Population and primary health

	Under-five mortality rate (deaths per 1,000 live births)		Infant mortality rate (deaths per 1,000 live births)		Maternal mortality rate (deaths per 100,000 births)		Contraceptive prevalence (percentage of women aged 15-49)	HIV prevalence (percentage of population aged 15-49)				
	2005	2013	2005	2013	2005	2010	2001- 2014	2005	2010	2012	2013	2014
Africa												
Angola	205	167	122	102	650	450	6	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.4
Benin	119	85	75	56	430	350	13	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.1
Burkina Faso	159	98	86	64	370	300	16	1.4	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9
Burundi	119	83	75	55	910	800	22	2.5	1.6	1.3	1.2	1.1
Central African Republic	169	139	111	96	1,000	890	15	7.0	5.2	4.7	4.5	4.3
Chad	178	148	101	89	1,100	1,100	5	3.5	3.0	2.8	2.6	2.5

	Under-five mortality rate (deaths per 1,000 live births)		Infant mortality rate (deaths per 1,000 live births)		Maternal mortality rate (deaths per 100,000 births)		Contraceptive prevalence (percentage of women aged 15-49)	HIV prevalence (percentage of population aged 15-49)				
	2005	2013	2005	2013	2005	2010	2001- 2014	2005	2010	2012	2013	2014
Comoros	97	78	70	58	310	280	19	—	—	—	—	—
Democratic Republic of the Congo	156	119	105	86	660	540	20	1.4	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.0
Djibouti	88	70	71	57	220	200	19	2.4	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.6
Equatorial Guinea	123	96	87	69	270	240	13	3.9	6.1	6.3	6.3	6.2
Eritrea	70	50	47	36	300	240	8	1.3	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7
Ethiopia	110	64	70	44	510	350	29	2.1	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.2
Gambia	98	74	57	49	430	360	13	2.1	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.8
Guinea	137	101	85	65	800	610	6	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6
Guinea-Bissau	157	124	96	78	890	790	14	3.5	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.7
Lesotho	123	98	85	73	720	620	47	22.9	23.3	23.4	23.4	23.4
Liberia	118	71	83	54	1100	770	20	2.1	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.2
Madagascar	82	56	55	40	310	240	40	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3
Malawi	121	68	73	44	630	460	46	14.1	11.7	10.9	10.5	10.0
Mali	172	123	97	78	620	540	10	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Mauritania	110	90	75	67	560	510	11	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7
Mozambique	133	87	91	62	630	490	12	11.4	11.2	10.9	10.7	10.6
Niger	173	104	82	60	720	590	14	1.1	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.5
Rwanda	106	52	67	37	550	340	52	3.7	3.1	3.0	2.9	2.8
Sao Tome and Principe	70	51	48	37	87	70	38	1.5	1.1	0.9	0.8	0.8
Senegal	98	55	57	44	430	370	18	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5
Sierra Leone	202	161	128	107	1,000	890	17	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.4
Somalia	174	146	105	90	1,000	1,000	15	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5
South Sudan	140	99	87	64	—	—	4	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.7
Sudan	95	77	61	51	800	730	9	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Togo	107	85	68	56	370	300	15	3.4	2.8	2.6	2.5	2.4
Uganda	109	66	68	44	420	310	30	6.3	6.9	7.2	7.2	7.3
United Republic of Tanzania	90	52	57	36	610	460	34	7.0	6.1	5.7	5.5	5.3
Zambia	127	87	76	56	500	440	41	13.6	13.0	12.8	12.6	12.4
Average, Africa	**129**	**89**	**80**	**60**	**612**	**494**	**18**	**3.9**	**3.5**	**3.1**	**3.0**	**3.0**
Asia and the Pacific												
Afghanistan	119	97	84	70	710	460	21	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Bangladesh	67	41	51	33	330	240	62	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Bhutan	59	36	45	30	270	180	66	—	—	—	—	—
Cambodia	64	38	52	33	340	250	51	1.1	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6
Kiribati	66	58	50	45	—	—	22	—	—	—	—	—

	Under-five mortality rate (deaths per 1,000 live births)		Infant mortality rate (deaths per 1,000 live births)		Maternal mortality rate (deaths per 100,000 births)		Contraceptive prevalence (percentage of women aged 15-49)	HIV prevalence (percentage of population aged 15-49)				
	2005	2013	2005	2013	2005	2010	2001- 2014	2005	2010	2012	2013	2014
Lao People's Democratic Republic	97	71	70	54	650	470	50	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Myanmar	67	51	51	40	230	200	46	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7
Nepal	60	40	47	32	250	170	50	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2
Solomon Islands	35	30	29	25	110	93	35	—	—	—	—	—
Timor-Leste	80	55	65	46	410	300	22	—	—	—	—	—
Tuvalu	37	29	30	24	—	—	31	—	—	—	—	—
Vanuatu	21	17	18	15	110	110	49	—	—	—	—	—
Yemen	75	51	56	40	270	200	28	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**75**	**52**	**56**	**41**	**375**	**269**	**52**	**0.3**	**0.3**	**0.2**	**0.2**	**0.2**
The Americas												
Haiti	90	73	66	55	410	350	35	2.4	2.1	2.0	2.0	1.9
Average, All LDCs	**114**	**81**	**73**	**55**	**543**	**433**	**32**	**2.3**	**2.1**	**2.0**	**2.0**	**2.0**

Source: Inter-agency Group for Child Mortality Estimation (http://www.childmortality.org); Maternal Mortality Estimation Inter-agency Group (http://www.maternalmortalitydata.org); World Development Indicators (http://databank.worldbank.org); UNAIDS estimates (http://www.unaids.org/en/dataanalysis/datatools/aidsinfo).

Table A5.3. Human development Youth development

	Youth literacy (percentage of population aged 15-24)		Female youth literacy (percentage of females aged 15-24)		Gross enrolment in tertiary education (percentage)	
	2000-2009	2010-2013	2000-2009	2010-2013	2010	2011-2013
Africa						
Angola	72	73	63	67	—	7
Benin	44	—	32	—	13	12
Burkina Faso	34	—	28	—	4	4
Burundi	81	—	79	—	3	—
Central African Republic	61	36	49	27	3	3
Chad	40	50	27	46	2	2
Comoros	80	87	78	87	6	10
Democratic Republic of the Congo	68	84	58	77	—	8
Djibouti	—	—	—	—	3	5
Equatorial Guinea	97	98	97	99	—	—

	Youth literacy (percentage of population aged 15-24)		Female youth literacy (percentage of females aged 15-24)		Gross enrolment in tertiary education (percentage)	
	2000-2009	2010-2013	2000-2009	2010-2013	2010	2011-2013
Eritrea	78	92	69	90	2	—
Ethiopia	50	—	40	—	—	—
Gambia	53	71	41	67	—	—
Guinea	47	31	34	22	10	10
Guinea-Bissau	59	75	46	71	—	—
Lesotho	87	—	95	—	—	11
Liberia	49	—	36	—	9	12
Madagascar	68	—	66	—	4	4
Malawi	—	72	—	70	1	1
Mali	35	46	27	36	7	7
Mauritania	59	—	52	—	4	5
Mozambique	65	—	53	—	5	5
Niger	28	24	19	15	1	2
Rwanda	78	80	77	81	6	7
Sao Tome and Principe	88	—	86	—	4	8
Senegal	55	61	47	55	8	—
Sierra Leone	48	64	37	56	—	—
Somalia	—	—	—	—	—	—
South Sudan	37	—	30	—	—	—
Sudan	78	88	72	86	15	16
Togo	78	80	69	73	9	10
Uganda	82	86	79	84	4	4
United Republic of Tanzania	78	80	76	79	2	4
Zambia	67	—	62	—	—	—
Average, Africa	**59**	**71**	**52**	**66**	**6**	**6**
Asia and the Pacific						
Afghanistan	—	47	—	32	—	4
Bangladesh	64	81	60	83	—	13
Bhutan	74	—	68	—	7	9
Cambodia	86	—	83	—	14	16
Kiribati	—	—	—	—	—	—
Lao People's Democratic Republic	81	—	76	—	16	17
Myanmar	95	96	93	96	—	14
Nepal	70	85	60	80	14	14
Solomon Islands	—	—	—	—	—	—
Timor-Leste	—	80	—	79	18	—
Tuvalu	—	—	—	—	—	—
Vanuatu	92	95	92	95	—	—
Yemen	77	88	60	80	11	10
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**83**	**77**	**78**	**74**	**13**	**13**

	Youth literacy (percentage of population aged 15-24)		Female youth literacy (percentage of females aged 15-24)		Gross enrolment in tertiary education (percentage)	
	2000-2009	2010-2013	2000-2009	2010-2013	2010	2011-2013
The Americas						
Haiti	77	—	76	—	—	—
Average, All LDCs	**63**	**73**	**57**	**69**	**7**	**8**

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (http://www.uis.unesco.org).

Table A5.4. Human development
Shelter, water and sanitation

	Percentage of population using an improved drinking water source								
	Total			**Urban**			**Rural**		
	2005	**2013**	**2014**	**2005**	**2013**	**2014**	**2005**	**2013**	**2014**
Africa									
Angola	46.0	48.2	48.6	66.1	75.4	75.4	34.6	28.2	28.2
Benin	70.3	77.0	77.8	80.6	84.7	85.2	63.4	71.2	72.1
Burkina Faso	69.1	81.9	82.1	90.0	97.5	97.5	63.4	75.8	75.8
Burundi	73.3	75.5	75.8	92.9	91.3	91.1	71.2	73.5	73.8
Central African Republic	64.8	68.3	68.4	86.2	89.6	89.6	51.6	54.4	54.4
Chad	47.2	50.8	50.8	64.7	71.8	71.8	42.4	44.8	44.8
Comoros	90.1	90.1	90.1	93.8	92.7	92.6	88.6	89.1	89.1
Democratic Republic of the Congo	49.0	51.8	52.1	83.5	81.6	81.3	28.2	30.6	30.9
Djibouti	85.7	89.9	90.0	92.5	97.4	97.4	63.3	64.7	64.7
Equatorial Guinea	47.3	47.7	47.8	64.1	72.5	72.5	36.7	31.5	31.5
Eritrea	53.7	57.6	57.7	70.2	73.2	73.2	49.8	53.3	53.3
Ethiopia	38.3	53.5	55.4	89.1	92.3	92.7	28.8	44.7	46.7
Gambia	85.9	90.1	90.2	91.5	94.2	94.2	79.7	84.4	84.4
Guinea	67.8	75.7	76.7	90.3	92.5	92.7	56.8	66.2	67.4
Guinea-Bissau	60.7	75.5	77.4	77.9	94.6	96.7	48.9	58.0	59.1
Lesotho	79.9	81.4	81.6	93.6	94.4	94.5	76.0	76.8	76.9
Liberia	66.8	73.8	74.7	80.4	87.0	87.8	55.2	61.1	61.9
Madagascar	42.1	49.7	50.6	77.5	80.8	81.2	27.8	33.8	34.5
Malawi	71.8	86.5	88.4	93.8	95.3	95.5	67.9	84.9	87.0
Mali	56.7	73.0	75.0	79.1	93.1	94.8	46.1	60.5	62.3
Mauritania	48.3	57.9	57.9	50.4	58.4	58.4	45.9	57.1	57.1
Mozambique	44.8	50.8	50.9	77.0	80.6	80.6	31.0	37.0	37.0
Niger	48.7	57.3	58.1	86.4	99.8	100.0	41.2	47.8	48.6
Rwanda	69.8	74.9	75.5	85.9	86.5	86.5	65.9	70.7	71.3
Sao Tome and Principe	87.0	97.0	97.1	91.6	98.9	98.9	80.6	93.6	93.6
Senegal	71.1	77.0	77.8	91.4	92.6	92.8	56.9	65.2	66.3
Sierra Leone	52.3	60.6	61.6	78.8	83.7	84.3	36.8	45.6	46.7
Somalia	28.4	—	—	60.5	—	—	11.0	—	—

	Percentage of population using an improved drinking water source								
	Total			Urban			Rural		
	2005	2013	2014	2005	2013	2014	2005	2013	2014
South Sudan	—	58.7	58.7	—	66.7	66.7	—	56.9	56.9
Sudan	58.5	55.5	55.5	71.2	66.0	66.0	53.1	50.2	50.2
Togo	56.7	61.8	62.4	86.6	90.4	90.9	40.5	43.5	43.8
Uganda	64.5	77.4	78.9	89.0	94.8	95.5	60.8	74.2	75.8
United Republic of Tanzania	54.7	55.4	55.5	83.0	78.4	77.8	45.4	45.5	45.5
Zambia	57.3	63.8	64.6	86.7	85.8	85.7	40.3	49.1	50.2
Average, Africa	**53.1**	**60.8**	**61.6**	**81.1**	**83.6**	**83.8**	**42.8**	**51.1**	**52.0**
Asia and the Pacific									
Afghanistan	39.1	53.4	55.2	58.6	76.3	78.2	32.4	45.4	47.0
Bangladesh	79.8	85.5	86.2	84.3	86.1	86.3	78.2	85.3	86.1
Bhutan	90.4	99.1	100.0	99.2	99.9	100.0	86.6	98.6	100.0
Cambodia	52.9	71.1	73.4	72.4	94.8	97.8	48.4	65.0	67.1
Kiribati	62.2	66.8	66.8	83.3	87.3	87.4	46.0	50.6	50.6
Lao People's Democratic Republic	56.8	73.5	75.5	77.0	84.7	85.6	49.2	67.1	69.4
Myanmar	72.3	80.4	80.5	89.4	92.7	92.7	66.0	74.4	74.4
Nepal	82.2	89.8	90.7	92.6	91.3	91.1	80.2	89.5	90.6
Solomon Islands	80.0	80.6	80.7	93.2	93.2	93.2	77.2	77.2	77.2
Timor-Leste	60.9	71.4	71.7	79.9	95.2	95.2	54.2	60.5	60.5
Tuvalu	96.0	97.7	97.7	96.9	98.3	98.3	95.3	97.0	97.0
Vanuatu	82.2	92.1	93.3	96.6	98.5	98.7	77.8	89.9	91.4
Yemen	56.5	—	—	75.9	—	—	48.5	—	—
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**71.7**	**80.6**	**81.4**	**82.5**	**87.2**	**87.6**	**68.0**	**77.8**	**78.6**
The Americas									
Haiti	60.6	58.0	57.5	75.6	66.1	64.9	48.7	47.7	47.6
Average, All LDCs	60.36	67.47	68.19	79.94	84.63	84.63	52.74	60.15	60.90

Source: WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation (http://www.wssinfo.org).

Table. A5.5. Human development
Shelter, water and sanitation

	Percentage of population using an improved sanitation facility								
	Total			Rural			Rural		
	2005	2013	2014	2005	2013	2014	2005	2013	2014
Africa									
Angola	39.0	50.6	51.1	79.0	88.6	88.6	16.3	22.5	22.5
Benin	14.5	19.0	19.6	29.0	34.9	35.6	4.9	7.0	7.3
Burkina Faso	14.4	19.0	19.4	48.3	50.4	50.4	5.1	6.7	6.7
Burundi	45.6	47.8	48.0	39.1	43.3	43.8	46.3	48.3	48.6

	Percentage of population using an improved sanitation facility								
	Total			Rural			Rural		
	2005	2013	2014	2005	2013	2014	2005	2013	2014
Central African Republic	18.9	21.6	21.7	35.3	43.6	43.6	8.8	7.2	7.2
Chad	10.7	12.0	12.0	28.1	31.4	31.4	5.8	6.5	6.5
Comoros	28.9	35.0	35.8	41.7	47.6	48.3	23.9	30.1	30.9
Democratic Republic of the Congo	24.8	27.9	28.3	29.2	28.7	28.6	22.2	27.4	28.1
Djibouti	53.9	47.3	47.4	64.5	59.8	59.8	18.9	5.1	5.1
Equatorial Guinea	78.0	74.5	74.5	80.4	79.9	79.9	76.4	71.0	71.0
Eritrea	13.0	15.4	15.6	49.8	44.5	44.5	4.4	7.3	7.3
Ethiopia	15.2	25.5	26.8	24.3	26.6	26.9	13.5	25.3	26.7
Gambia	59.2	58.8	58.8	60.5	61.5	61.5	57.7	55.0	55.0
Guinea	15.3	19.4	20.0	27.9	33.4	34.1	9.2	11.5	11.8
Guinea-Bissau	15.6	20.5	20.7	29.7	33.5	33.5	5.9	8.5	8.5
Lesotho	26.2	29.8	30.2	35.9	37.2	37.3	23.4	27.1	27.6
Liberia	14.3	16.4	16.6	25.8	27.6	27.8	4.5	5.6	5.8
Madagascar	10.8	11.7	11.9	16.9	17.8	17.9	8.3	8.6	8.7
Malawi	36.5	40.1	40.6	46.6	47.2	47.3	34.8	38.8	39.3
Mali	20.2	23.8	24.2	34.8	37.0	37.3	13.3	15.5	15.8
Mauritania	29.5	39.5	39.7	46.0	57.5	57.5	10.9	13.8	13.8
Mozambique	16.5	20.3	20.4	39.0	42.4	42.4	6.8	10.1	10.1
Niger	7.9	10.5	10.8	30.8	37.1	37.9	3.4	4.5	4.6
Rwanda	52.2	60.0	60.8	59.6	58.8	58.7	50.4	60.4	61.7
Sao Tome and Principe	26.9	34.5	34.6	33.1	40.8	40.8	18.4	23.3	23.3
Senegal	42.6	46.6	47.1	62.5	64.8	65.1	28.7	32.8	33.3
Sierra Leone	11.9	13.0	13.1	22.3	22.7	22.8	5.9	6.7	6.8
Somalia	22.4	—	—	50.0	—	—	7.4	—	—
South Sudan	—	6.7	6.7	—	16.4	16.4	—	4.5	4.5
Sudan	24.0	23.6	23.6	46.0	43.9	43.9	14.7	13.4	13.4
Togo	11.4	11.6	11.6	24.1	24.6	24.6	4.5	3.2	3.1
Uganda	16.8	18.8	19.0	28.4	28.5	28.5	15.1	17.0	17.3
United Republic of Tanzania	11.0	14.5	15.0	21.3	29.3	30.3	7.6	8.1	8.2
Zambia	41.7	43.5	43.7	56.9	55.9	55.8	32.9	35.2	35.4
Average, Africa	**21.1**	**25.1**	**25.6**	**36.9**	**38.7**	**38.8**	**15.4**	**19.4**	**19.8**
Asia and the Pacific									
Afghanistan	26.3	31.1	31.8	36.1	44.1	45.1	23.3	26.6	27.0
Bangladesh	50.7	58.7	59.6	53.3	56.8	57.2	49.8	59.6	60.8
Bhutan	39.0	49.7	50.1	67.2	77.9	77.9	26.4	33.1	33.1
Cambodia	24.9	39.0	40.8	58.6	83.0	86.0	16.9	27.8	29.1

	Percentage of population using an improved sanitation facility								
	Total			Rural			Rural		
	2005	2013	2014	2005	2013	2014	2005	2013	2014
Kiribati	36.5	39.7	39.7	48.7	51.2	51.2	27.2	30.6	30.6
Lao People's Democratic Republic	43.4	67.6	70.5	76.3	92.4	94.5	31.1	53.3	56.0
Myanmar	69.4	79.5	79.5	81.0	84.3	84.3	64.6	77.1	77.1
Nepal	29.9	42.6	44.2	47.8	54.4	55.2	26.7	40.1	41.8
Solomon Islands	26.8	29.2	29.5	81.4	81.4	81.4	15.0	15.0	15.0
Timor-Leste	37.8	40.1	40.4	59.5	69.0	69.0	30.1	26.8	26.8
Tuvalu	81.1	83.3	—	84.0	86.3	86.3	78.3	80.2	—
Vanuatu	49.1	57.9	57.9	59.3	65.1	65.1	46.0	55.4	55.4
Yemen	47.3	—	—	88.7	—	—	30.4	—	—
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**48.3**	**57.1**	**57.9**	**60.8**	**63.1**	**63.6**	**44.0**	**54.5**	**55.4**
The Americas									
Haiti	23.7	27.1	27.4	33.4	33.5	33.6	16.0	18.8	19.2
Average, All LDCs	**31.61**	**35.99**	**36.47**	**45.70**	**46.80**	**47.04**	**26.57**	**31.31**	**31.79**

Source: WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation (http://www.wssinfo.org).

Table A5.6. Human development
Gender equality and empowerment of women

	Percentage of parliamentary seats held by women			Percentage of female students in primary education			Percentage of female students in secondary education			Percentage of female students in tertiary education	
	2001	2010	2014	2009-2010	2011-2012	2013	2009-2010	2011-2012	2013	2009-2010	2011-2012
Africa											
Angola	15	39	37	45	39	—	42	39	—	—	27
Benin	6	11	8	46	47	47	—	38	40	27	21
Burkina Faso	8	15	19	46	47	48	42	43	45	32	33
Burundi	14	31	30	49	50	51	42	43	45	35	—
Central African Republic	7	10	—	42	43	—	36	35	—	28	27
Chad	2	5	15	42	43	43	29	31	—	15	19
Comoros	—	3	3	—	45	48	—	—	50	41	44
Democratic Republic of the Congo	—	8	11	46	46	47	36	37	38	24	33
Djibouti	0	14	13	47	47	46	42	43	43	41	40
Equatorial Guinea	5	10	24	49	49	—	—	—	—	—	—
Eritrea	15	22	22	45	45	45	42	44	44	26	—

	Percentage of parliamentary seats held by women			Percentage of female students in primary education			Percentage of female students in secondary education			Percentage of female students in tertiary education	
	2001	2010	2014	2009-2010	2011-2012	2013	2009-2010	2011-2012	2013	2009-2010	2011-2012
Ethiopia	8	22	28	48	48	—	44	47	—	30	31
Gambia	2	8	9	50	51	51	49	—	—	—	—
Guinea	9	—	22	45	45	45	—	38	—	25	26
Guinea-Bissau	8	10	11	48	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Lesotho	4	24	27	49	49	49	58	58	—	—	59
Liberia	8	13	11	46	47	—	—	44	—	34	38
Madagascar	8	—	23	49	49	50	49	49	49	48	48
Malawi	9	21	22	50	50	50	47	47	47	38	39
Mali	12	10	10	45	46	—	40	41	43	29	30
Mauritania	4	22	25	50	51	50	45	45	48	28	29
Mozambique	30	39	39	47	47	48	45	47	48	39	39
Niger	1	10	13	43	44	45	39	40	41	29	29
Rwanda	26	56	64	51	51	51	50	52	52	44	44
Sao Tome and Principe	9	7	18	50	49	49	51	53	52	48	46
Senegal	12	23	43	51	51	—	46	47	—	37	—
Sierra Leone	9	13	12	—	49	50	—	45	47	—	—
Somalia	—	7	14	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South Sudan	—	—	27	—	39	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sudan	—	—	24	47	46	—	46	47	—	53	52
Togo	5	11	16	47	48	51	—	—	—	—	21
Uganda	18	31	35	50	50	47	46	46	46	44	44
United Republic of Tanzania	—	31	36	50	50	50	45	46	48	45	35
Zambia	10	14	11	50	50	50	—	—	—	—	—
Average, Africa	**10**	**19**	**24**	**48**	**48**	**49**	**43**	**44**	**44**	**37**	**37**
Asia and the Pacific											
Afghanistan	—	27	28	39	41	40	32	35	34	18	24
Bangladesh	9	19	6	50	50	—	51	52	—	37	41
Bhutan	9	9	9	50	50	50	50	51	51	37	40
Cambodia	7	21	20	48	48	47	—	—	—	36	38
Kiribati	5	4	9	50	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Lao People's Democratic Republic	21	25	25	47	48	48	44	46	46	43	43
Myanmar	—	—	6	49	—	—	51	—	—	—	56
Nepal	6	33	30	50	50	50	48	50	51	40	42
Solomon Islands	2	0	2	48	48	48	45	46	—	—	—
Timor-Leste	—	29	38	48	48	—	49	50	—	41	—
Tuvalu	0	0	7	—	—	47	—	—	53	—	—
Vanuatu	0	4	0	47	—	47	49	—	—	—	—
Yemen	1	0	0	44	44	45	37	38	40	30	30

	Percentage of parliamentary seats held by women			Percentage of female students in primary education			Percentage of female students in secondary education			Percentage of female students in tertiary education	
	2001	2010	2014	2009-2010	2011-2012	2013	2009-2010	2011-2012	2013	2009-2010	2011-2012
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**7**	**21**	**16**	**48**	**47**	**45**	**48**	**48**	**43**	**36**	**39**
The Americas											
Haiti	—	4	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Average, All LDCs	**9**	**19**	**21**	**48**	**47**	**48**	**46**	**46**	**44**	**36**	**38**

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union (http://www.ipu.org); UNESCO Institute for Statistics (http://www.uis.unesco.org).

Table A6.1. Multiple crises and emerging challenges Debt

	Total reserves (percentage of external debt)		Total debt service (percentage of exports of goods, services and income)		Total debt service (percentage of government expenditure)	
	2010	2011-2013	2010	2011/2013	2010	2011/2013
Africa						
Angola	117	151	4	6	16	20
Benin	75	37	3	4	7	8
Burkina Faso	50	36	2	2	3	—
Burundi	53	48	2	9	1	4
Central African Republic	29	30	—	—	—	—
Chad	29	50	—	—	—	—
Comoros	52	84	5	8	6	15
Democratic Republic of the Congo	21	27	3	3	11	9
Djibouti	32	38	8	9	—	—
Equatorial Guinea	—	—	—	—	—	—
Eritrea	11	11	—	—	—	—
Ethiopia	—	—	4	7	6	12
Gambia	39	44	8	8	24	36
Guinea	4	11	5	7	10	27
Guinea-Bissau	14	68	9	3	—	—
Lesotho	138	118	2	2	4	4
Liberia	111	102	1	1	3	1
Madagascar	38	35	4	2	—	—
Malawi	31	21	2	2	2	3
Mali	55	43	2	2	4	5
Mauritania	11	23	5	5	—	21
Mozambique	60	58	3	2	5	4
Niger	49	39	2	2	3	4
Rwanda	89	75	2	3	2	4

	Total reserves (percentage of external debt)		Total debt service (percentage of exports of goods, services and income)		Total debt service (percentage of government expenditure)	
	2010	2011-2013	2010	2011/2013	2010	2011/2013
Sao Tome and Principe	27	26	6	18	5	21
Senegal	52	44	9	8	16	16
Sierra Leone	44	41	3	2	4	5
Somalia	—	—	—	—	—	—
South Sudan	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sudan	5	1	4	5	7	6
Togo	56	79	3	1	13	—
Uganda	91	80	2	1	4	5
United Republic of Tanzania	43	36	3	2	5	3
Zambia	47	50	2	2	26	—
Average, Africa	**48**	**56**	**4**	**4**	**10**	**11**
Asia and the Pacific						
Afghanistan	213	263	0	0	0	1
Bangladesh	43	49	4	5	18	21
Bhutan	115	71	14	13	27	24
Cambodia	102	86	1	1	9	19
Kiribati	—	—	—	—	—	—
Lao People's Democratic Republic	19	16	13	10	45	21
Myanmar	74	88.4	0	3	—	—
Nepal	79	118	11	9	12	11
Solomon Islands	115	211	6	5	—	—
Timor-Leste	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tuvalu	—	—	—	—	—	—
Vanuatu	93	90.3	2	2	4	7
Yemen	89	74	3	3	—	—
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**65**	**70**	**4**	**4**	**17**	**19**
The Americas						
Haiti	199	214	13	0	—	—
Average, All LDCs	**55**	**62**	**4**	**4**	**11**	**13**

Source: International Monetary Fund, International Financial Statistics and data files (http://www.imf.org/external/data.htm); World Bank, International Debt Statistics (http://databank.worldbank.org).

Table A6.2. Multiple crises and emerging challenges
Deforestation

	Forest area (percentage of land area)				Percentage Change
	1990 (percentage)	2000 (percentage)	2012 (percentage)	2013 (percentage)	1990-2013
Africa					
Angola	48.9	47.9	46.7	46.6	-5
Benin	51.1	44.9	39.6	39.1	-23
Burkina Faso	25.0	22.8	20.2	20.0	-20
Burundi	11.3	7.7	10.2	10.4	-8
Central African Republic	36.2	36.0	35.7	35.6	-2
Chad	5.3	5.0	4.2	4.1	-24
Comoros	26.3	24.2	20.5	20.3	-23
Democratic Republic of the Congo	70.7	69.4	67.7	67.6	-4
Djibouti	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0
Equatorial Guinea	66.3	62.1	57.1	56.7	-14
Eritrea	16.0	15.6	15.1	15.0	-6
Ethiopia	15.2	13.7	12.4	12.4	-18
Gambia	43.7	45.6	47.7	47.9	10
Guinea	29.6	28.1	26.3	26.2	-11
Guinea-Bissau	78.8	75.4	71.2	70.8	-10
Lesotho	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.5	18
Liberia	51.2	48.1	44.3	44.0	-14
Madagascar	23.5	22.4	21.5	21.5	-9
Malawi	41.3	37.8	34.0	33.8	-18
Mali	5.5	4.8	4.1	4.0	-27
Mauritania	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	-44
Mozambique	55.2	52.4	49.0	48.8	-12
Niger	1.5	1.0	0.9	0.9	-40
Rwanda	12.9	13.9	18.6	18.9	47
Sao Tome and Principe	58.3	58.3	55.8	55.8	-4
Senegal	48.6	46.2	43.6	43.4	-11
Sierra Leone	43.2	40.5	39.5	40.4	-6
Somalia	13.2	12.0	10.5	10.4	-21
South Sudan	—	—	—	—	—
Sudan	12.9	12.2	8	8	-36
Togo	12.6	8.9	4.5	4.2	-67
Uganda	23.8	19.4	12.4	11.7	-51
United Republic of Tanzania	63.1	58.6	53.3	52.8	-16
Zambia	71.0	68.8	66.1	65.9	-7
Average, Africa	**30.3**	**29.1**	**27.2**	**27.0**	**-11**
Asia and the Pacific					
Afghanistan	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	0
Bangladesh	11.5	11.3	11.0	11.0	-4

	Forest area (percentage of land area)				Percentage Change
	1990 (percentage)	2000 (percentage)	2012 (percentage)	2013 (percentage)	1990-2013
Bhutan	53.7	65.5	71.5	71.8	34
Cambodia	73.3	65.4	55.7	55.0	-25
Kiribati	15.0	15.0	15.0	15.0	0
Lao People's Democratic Republic	76.5	71.6	78.8	79.6	4
Myanmar	60.0	53.4	47.0	46.1	-23
Nepal	33.7	27.2	25.4	25.4	-25
Solomon Islands	83.0	81.0	78.7	78.5	-5
Timor-Leste	65.0	57.4	48.4	47.6	-27
Tuvalu	33.3	33.3	33.3	33.3	0
Vanuatu	36.1	36.1	36.1	36.1	0
Yemen	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**32.2**	**29.3**	**27.5**	**27.3**	**-15**
The Americas					
Haiti	4.2	4.0	3.6	3.6	-15
Average, All LDCs	**30.5**	**29.1**	**27.2**	**27.0**	**-11**

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators (http://databank.worldbank.org).

Table A7. Mobilizing financial resources for development and capacity-building

	Gross domestic savings (percentage of GDP)			Government revenue, excluding grants (percentage of GDP)		
	2001-2010	2013	2014	2001-2010	2011	2012
Africa						
Angola	32	30	31	39	48	40
Benin	11	12	12	17	17	17
Burkina Faso	8	22	24	13	16	18
Burundi	-7	2	2	—	—	—
Central African Republic	2	-2	-11	10	10	11
Chad	16	24	25	—	—	—
Comoros	-10	-31	-33	—	—	—
Democratic Republic of the Congo	7	14	15	9	—	—
Djibouti	7	—	—	—	—	—
Equatorial Guinea	69	78	75	48	—	—
Eritrea	-19	—	—	—	—	—
Ethiopia	13	19	23	11	11	—
Gambia	3	7	—	11	—	—
Guinea	13	-11	-11	—	—	—
Guinea-Bissau	-5	0	0	—	—	—
Lesotho	-44	-29	—	55	—	—
Liberia	-30	-30	-34	0	0	0

	Gross domestic savings (percentage of GDP)			Government revenue, excluding grants (percentage of GDP)		
	2001-2010	2013	2014	2001-2010	2011	2012
Madagascar	8	3	—	11	10	—
Malawi	5	3	5	—	—	—
Mali	11	—	—	16	16	17
Mauritania	11	25	21	—	—	—
Mozambique	7	7	5	18	21	23
Niger	8	20	21	12	—	—
Rwanda	4	11	11	14	15	15
Sao Tome and Principe	4	5	6	20	18	15
Senegal	8	6	7	19	20	20
Sierra Leone	-2	12	14	9	11	11
Somalia	—	—	—	—	—	—
South Sudan	43	-13	—	—	—	—
Sudan	24	15	15	—	—	—
Togo	0	3	-29	16	18	19
Uganda	11	19	20	12	14	11
United Republic of Tanzania	17	17	21	13	13	13
Zambia	36	—	—	15	17	—
Average, Africa	**19**	**19**	**21**	**14**	**16**	**16**
Asia and the Pacific						
Afghanistan	-23	-25	-22	9	11	10
Bangladesh	20	21	23	9	10	—
Bhutan	35	25	18	19	—	—
Cambodia	12	11	16	11	12	13
Kiribati	—	—	—	59	51	67
Lao People's Democratic Republic	15	20	26	13	15	17
Myanmar	11	—	—	5	—	—
Nepal	10	10	9	12	15	16
Solomon Islands	-5	—	—	—	—	—
Timor-Leste	-86	—	—	—	—	—
Tuvalu	—	—	—	—	—	—
Vanuatu	20	22	—	18	19	—
Yemen	20	—	—	—	—	—
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**16**	**15**	**18**	**12**	**15**	**16**
The Americas						
Haiti	-3	-15	-9	—	—	—
Average, All LDCs	**17**	**18**	**20**	**13**	**15**	**16**

Source: World Bank national account data (http://databank.worldbank.org), International Monetary Fund, Government Finance Statistics Yearbook and data files (http://www.imf.org/external/data.htm).

Note: Aggregate figures for the Government revenue, excluding grants (percentage of GDP) are not averages but reflect the median due to limited data availability. This is based on the assumption of a normal distribution for government revenues across all countries.

Table A8. External debt and debt forgiveness

	External debt stock (percentage of GNI)		External debt stock (percentage point difference)	Debt forgiveness or reduction, cumulative since 2003 (percentage of GDP)
	2012	2013	2012-2013	2003-2013
Africa				
Angola	20	22	2	-2
Benin	27	29	1	-30
Burkina Faso	23	23	0	-25
Burundi	27	24	-4	-58
Central African Republic	25	37	12	-28
Chad	18	17	-1	-1
Comoros	42	22	-20	-22
Democratic Republic of the Congo	22	22	0	-35
Djibouti	—	—	—	0
Equatorial Guinea	—	—	—	—
Eritrea	32	28	-5	0
Ethiopia	24	27	2	-51
Gambia	58	59	1	-27
Guinea	21	21	0	-40
Guinea-Bissau	34	32	-2	-103
Lesotho	30	31	1	-2
Liberia	31	31	0	-164
Madagascar	30	27	-3	-81
Malawi	32	44	12	-88
Mali	31	33	2	-40
Mauritania	89	92	3	-51
Mozambique	34	45	11	-37
Niger	35	36	1	-48
Rwanda	18	23	5	-46
Sao Tome and Principe	77	70	-8	-167
Senegal	35	35	0	-34
Sierra Leone	33	31	-2	-68
Somalia	—	—	—	—
South Sudan	—	—	—	—
Sudan	39	48	9	-2
Togo	23	24	2	-43
Uganda	19	21	2	-39
United Republic of Tanzania	42	40	-2	-36
Zambia	27	26	-1	-53
Average, Africa	**28**	**31**	**2**	**-27**

	External debt stock (percentage of GNI)		External debt stock (percentage point difference)	Debt forgiveness or reduction, cumulative since 2003 (percentage of GDP)
	2012	2013	2012-2013	2003-2013
Asia and the Pacific				
Afghanistan	13	12	-1	-2
Bangladesh	21	19	-1	-1
Bhutan	80	84	3	0
Cambodia	42	44	2	-13
Kiribati	—	—	—	—
Lao People's Democratic Republic	84	81	-2	-45
Myanmar	—	—	—	—
Nepal	20	20	0	0
Solomon Islands	25	21	-4	-2
Timor-Leste	—	—	—	—
Tuvalu	—	—	—	—
Vanuatu	49	17	-33	-1
Yemen	25	22	-2	-2
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**24**	**23**	**-1**	**-3**
The Americas				
Haiti	14	15	1	-34
Average, All LDCs	**27**	**28**	**1**	**-19**

Source: World Bank: International Debt Statistics (http://databank.worldbank.org).

Table A9. Aid from DAC Countries to the LDCs
Net disbursements

	2002-2003			2012			2013		
	US$ million	Percentage of donor's total	Percentage of donor's GNI	US$ million	Percentage of donor's total	Percentage of donor's GNI	US$ million	Percentage of donor's total	Percentage of donor's GNI
Australia	272	25	0.06	1,639	30	0.11	1,337	28	0.09
Austria	175	34	0.08	244	22	0.06	342	29	0.08
Belgium	737	50	0.27	704	30	0.14	813	35	0.16
Canada	564	28	0.07	1,945	34	0.11	1,849	37	0.10
Czech Republic	9	14	0.01	59	27	0.03	52	25	0.03
Denmark	636	37	0.34	1,004	37	0.31	926	32	0.27
Finland	176	34	0.12	445	34	0.18	510	35	0.19
France	2,463	39	0.15	2,533	21	0.10	3,448	30	0.12
Germany	2,025	33	0.09	3,678	28	0.11	3,368	24	0.09
Greece	57	18	0.04	50	15	0.02	45	19	0.02
Iceland	5	31	0.05	12	45	0.10	16	46	0.12

	2002-2003			2012			2013		
	US$ million	Percentage of donor's total	Percentage of donor's GNI	US$ million	Percentage of donor's total	Percentage of donor's GNI	US$ million	Percentage of donor's total	Percentage of donor's GNI
Ireland	253	56	0.22	418	52	0.24	426	50	0.23
Italy	1,169	49	0.09	701	26	0.04	958	28	0.05
Japan	2,096	23	0.05	4,640	44	0.08	7,006	60	0.14
Korea	93	29	0.02	579	36	0.05	712	41	0.05
Luxembourg	57	34	0.28	146	37	0.37	163	38	0.38
Netherlands	1,323	36	0.29	1,166	21	0.15	1,366	25	0.17
New Zealand	41	28	0.06	144	32	0.09	148	32	0.09
Norway	759	41	0.37	1,382	29	0.27	1,540	28	0.30
Poland	4	17	0.00	78	18	0.02	125	26	0.03
Portugal	179	56	0.14	177	30	0.09	143	29	0.07
Slovak Republic	3	24	0.01	15	19	0.02	21	24	0.02
Slovenia	0	—	—	10	17	0.02	11	18	0.02
Spain	388	21	0.05	483	24	0.04	449	19	0.03
Sweden	749	34	0.28	1,542	29	0.29	1,805	31	0.31
Switzerland	340	30	0.10	710	23	0.11	828	26	0.12
United Kingdom	1,855	33	0.11	4,615	33	0.19	6,203	35	0.24
United States	3,878	26	0.04	11,419	37	0.07	10,221	33	0.06
Total DAC	**20,303**	**32**	**0.07**	**40,537**	**32**	**0.09**	**44,830**	**33**	**0.10**
Of which:									
DAC-EU countries	**12,257**	**36**	**0.13**	**18,069**	**28**	**0.11**	**21,172**	**30**	**0.13**

Table A10.2. Doing business

	Trading across borders index			
	2013		2014	
	Rank	Index	Rank	Index
Africa				
Angola	167.0	40.2	167.0	41.0
Benin	129.0	64.1	121.0	66.5
Burkina Faso	174.0	28.1	174.0	29.5
Burundi	171.0	33.5	169.0	37.5
Central African Republic	185.0	9.4	186.0	6.5
Chad	184.0	10.7	182.0	10.7
Comoros	144.0	59.1	144.0	59.3
Democratic Republic of the Congo	173.0	30.4	175.0	29.1
Djibouti	56.0	78.5	56.0	78.7
Equatorial Guinea	141.0	60.1	143.0	59.7

	Trading across borders index			
	2013		2014	
	Rank	Index	Rank	Index
Eritrea	172.0	31.0	172.0	32.2
Ethiopia	168.0	39.1	168.0	38.6
Gambia	76.0	75.3	77.0	75.5
Guinea	142.0	59.7	141.0	60.3
Guinea-Bissau	114.0	67.6	119.0	67.4
Lesotho	145.0	58.5	147.0	57.9
Liberia	148.0	56.1	149.0	56.4
Madagascar	110.0	68.2	109.0	69.0
Malawi	170.0	33.9	170.0	37.4
Mali	161.0	46.1	163.0	46.3
Mauritania	149.0	56.0	151.0	55.5
Mozambique	128.0	64.2	129.0	64.8
Niger	179.0	19.0	179.0	19.7
Rwanda	157.0	51.8	164.0	44.7
Sao Tome and Principe	107.0	68.3	111.0	68.7
Senegal	79.0	74.8	79.0	75.1
Sierra Leone	137.0	62.4	133.0	63.6
Somalia	—	—	—	—
South Sudan	187.0	5.7	187.0	5.7
Sudan	164.0	42.7	162.0	47.0
Togo	108.0	68.3	112.0	68.6
Uganda	163.0	45.7	161.0	48.0
United Republic of Tanzania	139.0	60.7	137.0	63.0
Zambia	177.0	21.8	177.0	20.9
Average, Africa	**145.58**	**48.20**	**145.88**	**48.62**
Asia and the Pacific				
Afghanistan	183.0	10.8	184.0	9.2
Bangladesh	140.0	60.2	140.0	61.4
Bhutan	166.0	40.8	165.0	43.1
Cambodia	120.0	65.9	124.0	65.9
Kiribati	78.0	74.9	81.0	74.8
Lao People's Democratic Republic	156.0	52.0	156.0	53.0
Myanmar	135.0	63.2	103.0	70.0
Nepal	169.0	36.1	171.0	36.1
Solomon Islands	86.0	73.8	87.0	74.2
Timor-Leste	97.0	72.3	94.0	72.5
Tuvalu	—	—	—	—
Vanuatu	109.0	68.3	113.0	68.5
Yemen	130.0	63.9	134.0	63.5
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**130.75**	**56.83**	**129.33**	**57.68**

	Trading across borders index			
	2013		2014	
	Rank	Index	Rank	Index
The Americas				
Haiti	147.0	56.4	142.0	60.0
Average, All LDCs	**141.74**	**50.63**	**141.48**	**51.23**

Source: Doing business (http://www.doingbusiness.org/).

Table A10.3. Doing business

	Starting a business index			
	2013		2014	
	Rank	Index	Rank	Index
Africa				
Angola	172.0	55.6	174.0	56.6
Benin	173.0	55.1	117.0	80.9
Burkina Faso	149.0	69.2	153.0	69.1
Burundi	20.0	93.7	18.0	94.3
Central African Republic	184.0	39.1	187.0	34.3
Chad	186.0	34.3	185.0	40.0
Comoros	171.0	56.4	173.0	57.7
Democratic Republic of the Congo	188.0	27.6	172.0	58.5
Djibouti	164.0	61.0	163.0	65.9
Equatorial Guinea	185.0	36.9	186.0	36.7
Eritrea	182.0	42.8	183.0	44.8
Ethiopia	165.0	60.6	168.0	63.2
Gambia	163.0	61.3	159.0	68.4
Guinea	168.0	58.2	175.0	55.4
Guinea-Bissau	170.0	57.7	176.0	54.8
Lesotho	98.0	82.6	108.0	82.8
Liberia	31.0	92.2	30.0	92.4
Madagascar	33.0	92.1	37.0	92.0
Malawi	161.0	61.8	157.0	68.5
Mali	159.0	63.5	169.0	62.9
Mauritania	166.0	58.2	164.0	65.8
Mozambique	95.0	82.8	107.0	83.0
Niger	174.0	53.5	177.0	54.4
Rwanda	72.0	86.8	112.0	81.7
Sao Tome and Principe	130.0	74.5	23.0	94.0
Senegal	133.0	74.2	90.0	85.0
Sierra Leone	87.0	84.3	91.0	85.0
Somalia	—	—	—	—
South Sudan	175.0	54.0	178.0	54.0

	Starting a business index			
	2013		2014	
	Rank	Index	Rank	Index
Sudan	132.0	74.3	139.0	74.7
Togo	179.0	47.1	134.0	76.1
Uganda	162.0	61.7	166.0	63.4
United Republic of Tanzania	118.0	78.4	124.0	78.9
Zambia	72.0	86.8	68.0	88.6
Average, Africa	**139.91**	**64.18**	**135.24**	**68.60**
Asia and the Pacific				
Afghanistan	17.0	94.1	24.0	93.5
Bangladesh	111.0	80.5	115.0	81.4
Bhutan	106.0	81.2	92.0	85.0
Cambodia	183.0	39.8	184.0	41.2
Kiribati	116.0	79.3	122.0	79.7
Lao People's Democratic Republic	150.0	68.8	154.0	69.0
Myanmar	189.0	20.3	189.0	22.9
Nepal	97.0	82.7	104.0	83.0
Solomon Islands	94.0	83.1	93.0	84.6
Timor-Leste	169.0	58.1	96.0	83.7
Tuvalu	—	—	—	—
Vanuatu	126.0	75.3	137.0	75.3
Yemen	131.0	74.5	140.0	74.4
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**124.08**	**69.80**	**120.83**	**72.81**
The Americas				
Haiti	187.0	33.4	188.0	33.5
Average, All LDCs	**136.80**	**64.97**	**132.63**	**68.93**

Source: Doing business (http://www.doingbusiness.org/).

Table A11. Commodity prices

	Price indices of selected primary commodities of importance to LDCs (2000=100)								Percentage change 2014-2015 (*)	Percentage change 2011-2015 (**)
	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	Oct. 2015		
All food	**236**	**216**	**232**	**273**	**269**	**249**	**239**	**198**	**-17.2**	**-27.5**
Wheat	288	197	204	276	275	270	254	183	-28	-33.6
Rice	344	289	256	271	285	255	209	177	-15	-34.7
Sugar	156	222	260	318	263	216	208	170	-18	-46.5
Fish meal	274	298	409	372	377	423	416	371	-11	-0.3
Coffee, Arabicas	163	166	228	321	220	166	238	176	-26	-45.2
Coffee, Robustas	252	183	200	275	263	239	251	197	-21	-28.5

	Price indices of selected primary commodities of importance to LDCs (2000=100)								Percentage change 2014-2015 (*)	Percentage change 2011-2015 (**)
	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	Oct. 2015		
Cocoa beans	291	325	353	336	269	275	345	360	4	7.2
Tea	109	127	125	140	141	107	96	158	65	13.2
Agricultural raw materials	**198**	**163**	**226**	**289**	**223**	**206**	**186**	**156**	**-16.1**	**-46.0**
Tobacco	120	142	144	150	144	153	167	164	-2	9.5
Cotton	121	106	175	258	150	153	139	116	-17	-55.1
Non-coniferous woods (1)	154	154	161	158	153	157	—	—	2	-0.9
Non-coniferous woods (2)	—	—	—	—	100	103	107	92	-14	-8.0
Mineral, ores and metals	**332**	**232**	**327**	**375**	**322**	**306**	**280**	**206**	**-26.4**	**-45.1**
Iron ore (3)	83	100	184	210	161	169	121	67	-45	-68.1
Aluminium	166	107	140	155	130	119	120	98	-19	-36.7
Copper	384	283	416	487	438	404	378	288	-24	-40.8
Gold	312	349	440	562	598	506	454	416	-8	-26.0
Crude Petroleum	**344**	**219**	**280**	**368**	**372**	**369**	**341**	**166**	**-51.3**	**-54.9**

Source: United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (http://unctadstat.unctad.org/).

(1) Non-coniferous woods: series discontinued end September 2013, United Kingdom import price index 2005=100, dollar equivalent.

(2) Non-coniferous woods: new series starting January 2012, United Kingdom import price index 2010=100, dollar equivalent.

(3) Iron ore: China import, fines 62 per cent Fe spot (CFR Tianjin port) (US$/dry ton).

(*) 2012-2013 percentage change is depicted for Non-coniferous woods (1).

(**) 2011-2013 percentage change is depicted for Non-coniferous woods (1) and 2012-2015 percentage change for Non-coniferous woods (2).

This table depicts a selected price for each commodity with several kinds (e.g. two kinds of wheat in data source).

Table A12. Good governance

	Status of adoption of the United Nations Convention against Corruption		
	Signature	Ratification	Acceptance
Africa			
Angola	10 December 2003	29 August 2006	
Benin	10 December 2003	14 October 2004	
Burkina Faso	10 December 2003	10 October 2006	
Burundi			10 March 2006 (a)
Central African Republic	11 February 2004	6 October 2006	
Chad			
Comoros	10 December 2003	11 October 2012	

	Status of adoption of the United Nations Convention against Corruption		
	Signature	Ratification	Acceptance
Democratic Republic of the Congo			23 September 2010 (a)
Djibouti	17 June 2004	20 April 2005	
Equatorial Guinea			
Eritrea			
Ethiopia	10 December 2003	26 November 2007	
Gambia			8 July 2015 (a)
Guinea	15 July 2005	29 May 2013	
Guinea-Bissau			10 September 2007 (a)
Lesotho	16 September 2005	16 September 2005	
Liberia			16 September 2005 (a)
Madagascar	10 December 2003	22 September 2004	
Malawi	21 September 2004	4 December 2007	
Mali	9 December 2003	18 April 2008	
Mauritania			25 October 2006 (a)
Mozambique	25 May 2004	9 April 2008	
Niger			11 August 2008 (a)
Rwanda	30 November 2004	4 October 2006	
Sao Tome and Principe	8 December 2005	12 April 2006	
Senegal	9 December 2003	16 November 2005	
Sierra Leone	9 December 2003	30 September 2004	
Somalia			
South Sudan			
Sudan	14 January 2005	5 September 2014	
Togo	10 December 2003	6 July 2005	
Uganda	9 December 2003	9 September 2004	
United Republic of Tanzania	9 December 2003	25 May 2005	
Zambia	11 December 2003	7 December 2007	
Asia and the Pacific			
Afghanistan	20 February 2004	25 August 2008	
Bangladesh			27 February 2007 (a)
Bhutan	15 September 2005		
Cambodia			5 September 2007 (a)
Kiribati			27 September 2013 (a)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	10 December 2003	25 September 2009	
Myanmar	2 December 2005	20 December 2012	
Nepal	10 December 2003	31 March 2011	
Solomon Islands			6 January 2012 (a)
Timor-Leste	10 December 2003	27 March 2009	
Tuvalu			4 September 2015 (a)
Vanuatu			12 July 2011 (a)
Yemen	11 December 2003	7 November 2005	

	Status of adoption of the United Nations Convention against Corruption		
	Signature	Ratification	Acceptance
The Americas			
Haiti	10 December 2003	14 September 2009	

Source: United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) (http://www.unodc.org/).

Table A13.1. Foreign financial flows

	Foreign direct investment, net inflows (percentage of GDP)				
	2005	2010	2011	2012	2013
Africa					
Angola	-4.62	-3.91	-2.90	-5.98	-5.73
Benin	-0.20	0.81	2.21	3.73	3.85
Burkina Faso	0.95	0.43	1.34	2.95	3.09
Burundi	0.05	0.04	0.14	0.02	0.25
Central African Republic	0.75	3.10	1.68	3.28	0.05
Chad	-1.49	2.94	2.32	2.77	4.16
Comoros	0.15	1.57	3.94	1.82	2.25
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1.39	13.30	6.69	10.53	-1.33
Djibouti	3.13	3.23	6.38	8.13	19.64
Equatorial Guinea	9.36	23.64	12.57	12.22	12.28
Eritrea	0.13	4.30	1.50	1.34	1.27
Ethiopia	2.14	0.96	1.96	0.64	2.01
Gambia	8.60	3.93	4.00	3.67	2.84
Guinea	3.57	2.14	18.87	10.68	2.17
Guinea-Bissau	1.48	3.10	3.33	1.33	1.53
Lesotho	5.14	8.12	7.94	3.09	2.09
Liberia	15.28	34.99	84.95	37.26	35.98
Madagascar	1.70	9.28	7.46	8.17	5.34
Malawi	5.07	1.80	2.29	3.05	3.05
Mali	3.02	3.94	5.22	3.85	2.77
Mauritania	37.27	3.01	11.49	28.61	22.26
Mozambique	1.86	12.43	27.62	37.73	43.33
Niger	1.46	13.92	16.56	12.04	8.22
Rwanda	0.31	0.74	1.66	2.21	1.47
Sao Tome and Principe	12.71	25.17	12.95	8.53	3.47
Senegal	1.93	2.06	2.34	1.97	2.02
Sierra Leone	5.57	9.25	32.42	5.94	2.92
Somalia	—	—	—	—	—
South Sudan	—	—	—	—	—
Sudan	5.89	3.14	3.44	3.52	2.54
Togo	4.54	3.94	19.38	3.10	1.94
Uganda	4.21	2.89	4.79	5.08	4.83

	Foreign direct investment, net inflows (percentage of GDP)				
	2005	2010	2011	2012	2013
United Republic of Tanzania	5.53	5.92	3.66	4.64	4.22
Zambia	4.28	8.53	4.67	6.94	7.83
Average, Africa	2.74	3.64	4.22	3.66	2.84
Asia and the Pacific					
Afghanistan	4.32	0.47	0.51	0.46	0.29
Bangladesh	1.10	0.75	0.92	1.11	1.07
Bhutan	0.76	4.75	1.71	1.34	2.79
Cambodia	5.99	6.54	6.20	10.25	8.83
Kiribati	2.46	-4.35	0.81	0.49	5.33
Lao People's Democratic Republic	1.01	3.88	3.63	3.15	3.81
Myanmar	—	—	—	1.79	3.84
Nepal	0.03	0.55	0.50	0.49	0.39
Solomon Islands	0.13	35.42	16.30	7.85	4.21
Timor-Leste	0.18	3.25	4.37	1.58	3.80
Tuvalu	-0.05	1.43	-0.30	3.32	0.88
Vanuatu	3.36	5.93	7.34	4.82	4.11
Yemen	-1.80	0.61	-1.67	-0.04	-0.37
Average, Asia and the Pacific	1.04	1.30	1.00	1.58	1.84
The Americas					
Haiti	0.60	2.69	1.58	1.98	2.20
Average, All LDCs	**2.08**	**2.85**	**3.14**	**2.85**	**2.46**

Source: World Development Indicators (http://data.worldbank.org/); IMF (http://www.imf.org/external/index.htm); OECD (http://www.oecd.org/); international Financial Statistics and Balance of Payments databases; International Debt Statistics.

Table A13.2. Foreign financial flows

	Personal remittances, received (percentage of GDP)				
	2005	2010	2011	2012	2013
Africa					
Angola	—	0.02	0.00	0.00	—
Benin	3.37	2.12	2.36	2.75	—
Burkina Faso	1.04	1.34	—	—	—
Burundi	0.01	1.70	1.93	1.88	1.79
Central African Republic	—	—	—	—	—
Chad	—	—	—	—	—
Comoros	14.21	16.43	18.43	19.31	—
Democratic Republic of the Congo	0.07	0.08	0.48	0.04	0.11
Djibouti	3.65	2.89	2.61	2.46	2.45
Equatorial Guinea	—	—	—	—	—
Eritrea	—	—	—	—	—
Ethiopia	1.40	1.15	1.61	1.44	—

	Personal remittances, received (percentage of GDP)				
	2005	2010	2011	2012	2013
Gambia	9.50	12.16	11.93	15.45	—
Guinea	1.42	0.98	1.27	1.17	1.49
Guinea-Bissau	3.39	5.41	4.72	4.76	—
Lesotho	43.80	27.89	25.73	23.24	21.53
Liberia	5.88	2.43	23.29	29.72	19.70
Madagascar	2.29	6.27	4.03	4.00	4.03
Malawi	0.82	0.40	0.45	0.67	—
Mali	3.34	5.02	7.36	8.00	8.05
Mauritania	—	—	—	—	—
Mozambique	0.90	1.37	1.19	1.47	1.40
Niger	1.95	2.35	2.59	2.19	—
Rwanda	0.34	1.87	2.72	2.53	2.26
Sao Tome and Principe	1.22	3.17	2.77	2.41	8.53
Senegal	9.06	11.43	11.18	—	—
Sierra Leone	0.15	1.72	2.01	1.61	1.37
Somalia	—	—	—	—	—
South Sudan	—	—	—	—	—
Sudan	2.65	1.68	0.66	0.64	0.64
Togo	9.10	10.61	6.50	8.80	—
Uganda	3.57	4.10	4.37	3.84	3.77
United Republic of Tanzania	0.11	0.18	0.23	0.17	0.13
Zambia	0.63	0.22	0.19	0.29	0.20
Average, Africa	**2.65**	**1.91**	**1.81**	**1.43**	**1.69**
Asia and the Pacific					
Afghanistan	—	2.08	1.38	1.88	2.65
Bangladesh	6.69	9.79	10.08	10.68	9.24
Bhutan	—	0.52	0.57	0.99	0.66
Cambodia	2.60	1.36	1.25	1.22	1.16
Kiribati	—	7.77	7.20	7.30	—
Lao People's Democratic Republic	0.03	0.58	1.33	0.63	0.53
Myanmar	—	—	—	0.37	0.39
Nepal	14.91	21.65	22.30	25.43	29.04
Solomon Islands	1.73	1.89	1.62	1.68	1.56
Timor-Leste	—	14.68	12.19	9.44	2.29
Tuvalu	22.58	12.32	11.66	9.62	10.59
Vanuatu	1.29	1.68	2.75	2.82	2.96
Yemen	7.66	4.94	4.52	10.45	9.30
Average, Asia and the Pacific	**7.02**	**8.46**	**8.67**	**7.62**	**7.56**
The Americas					
Haiti	22.88	22.25	20.64	20.43	21.07
Average, All LDCs	**4.82**	**4.45**	**4.46**	**4.22**	**5.16**

Source: World Bank (http://data.worldbank.org/); IMF (http://www.imf.org/external/index.htm); OECD (http://www.oecd.org/).

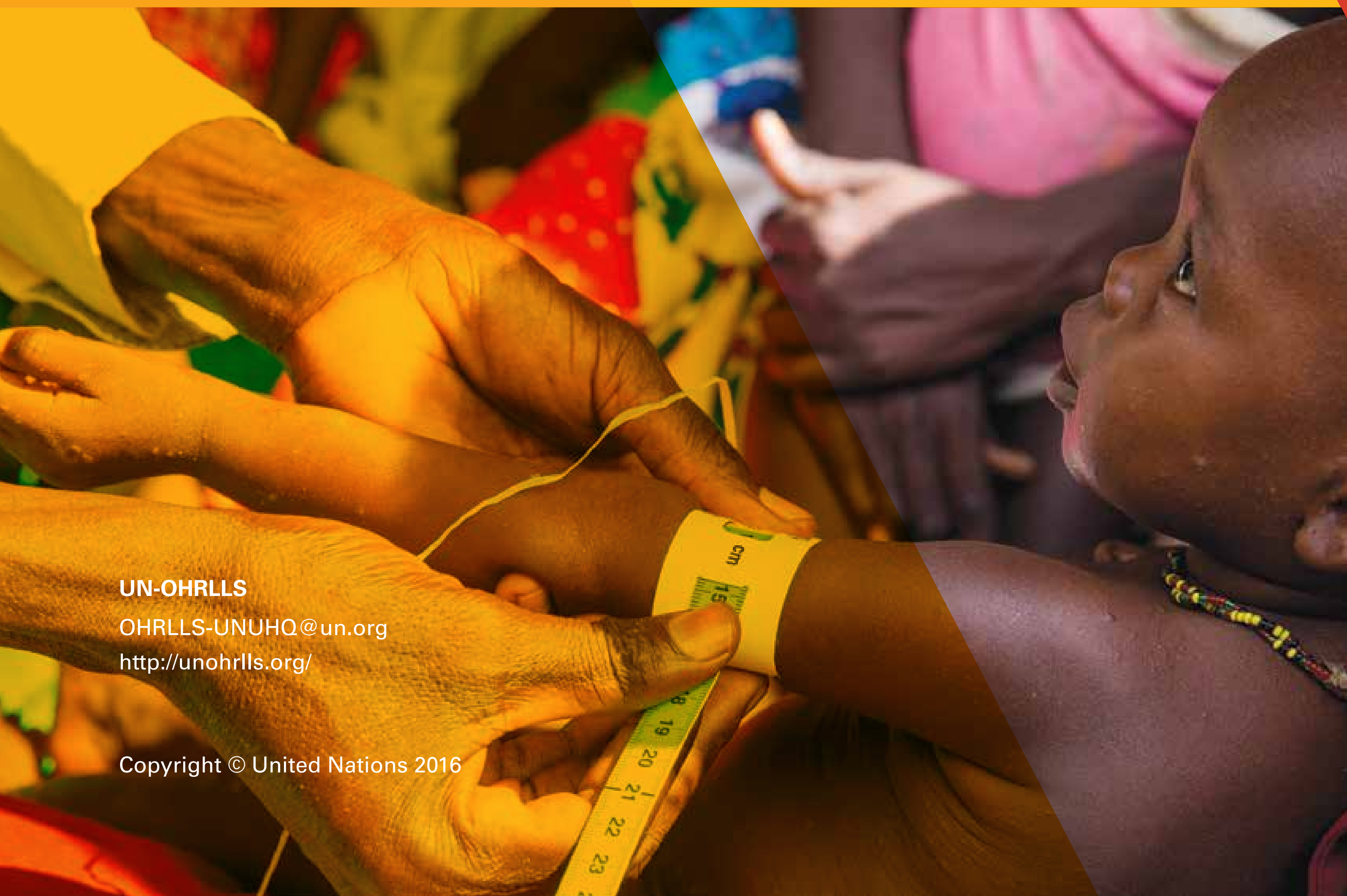
Bangladesh. Photo Credit: Laura Elizabeth Pohl, Bread for the World/Flickr

THE 48 LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

AFRICA [34]
Angola
Benin
Burkina Faso
Burundi
Central African Republic
Chad
Comoros
Democratic Republic of the Congo
Djibouti
Equatorial Guinea
Eritrea
Ethiopia
Gambia
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Lesotho
Liberia
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritania
Mozambique
Niger
Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal
Sierra Leone
Somalia
South Sudan
Sudan
Togo
Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia

ASIA AND THE PACIFIC [13]
Afghanistan
Bangladesh
Bhutan
Cambodia
Kiribati
Lao People's Democratic Republic
Myanmar
Nepal
Solomon Islands
Timor-Leste
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Yemen

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN [1]
Haiti



UN-OHRLLS
OHRLLS-UNUHQ@un.org
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