

WORLD VIEW



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Measuring development—in ways familiar and new

To achieve the Millennium Development Goals by 2015 many countries need to quickly improve their economic growth and their education and health systems, their management of environmental resources, and their infrastructure for water, sanitation, telecommunications, and transportation.

Over the last 10 years developing economies have grown faster than in any period since 1965—and even faster since 2000. While the global picture is dominated by the larger economies—Brazil, China, India, Russia, and South Africa, recently joined by the major oil exporters—more are now doing well and fewer have suffered severe recessions, raising average growth rates.

Economic growth is a clear marker of development, and countries that grow usually reduce poverty. But if the fruits of growth are not widely shared many poor people can be left behind even as average incomes rise. Nor does economic growth guarantee that access to water will improve or that more children will attend school. But failing to grow almost always makes matters worse.

In considering the recent progress of developing countries on many social, economic, and environmental indicators, the Millennium Development Goals set one standard for all countries. But country performance is influenced by many factors. One is the starting point. Countries starting from worse positions have the potential to make faster progress, as they may benefit from the experience and technologies of more advanced economies. But poor countries may also face unusual obstacles in reaching their development goals. In either case, comparing a country's progress over the last decade with the average progress of those starting from a similar position can help to identify countries that have made exceptional progress—and those whose progress has been unexpectedly slow.

This section compares the progress of developing countries measured by the rate of change of selected indicators after first taking into account countries' starting points. The difference between actual progress and the average progress of countries starting from a similar position is referred to as *country performance*, and countries are classified as follows:

- *Best performers* are significantly above the average of countries with similar starting points.
- *Good performers* are above average, yet not significantly so in a statistical sense.
- *Poor performers* are below the average, yet not significantly so in a statistical sense.
- *Worst performers* are significantly below the average of countries with similar starting points.

Those that perform well on one indicator may not perform well on another. The patterns are complex, but they begin to highlight more of the diversity—and sometimes the commonality—of outcomes in development.

Economic growth

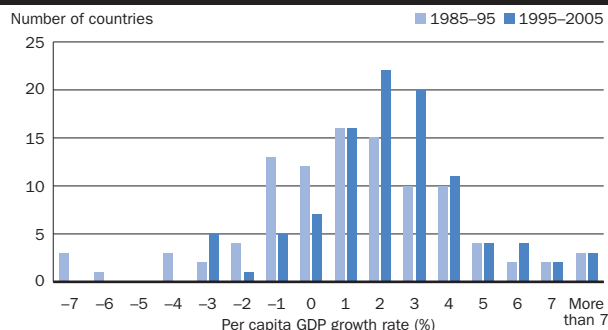
Per capita GDP growth accelerated in low- and middle-income countries in the last decade (1995–2005), as more countries grew at a moderate pace and fewer experienced severe recessions (figure 1a). And it was systematically faster in developing countries than in high-income countries in the last five years—for the first time since the de-colonization period (figure 1b).

Current projections suggest that developing countries will continue to grow more rapidly than high-income ones in the next 25 years. Based on these scenarios, the developing country share of the global economy could rise from 23 percent of world GDP today to 31 percent in 2030, and developing country average incomes could increase from 16 percent to 24 percent of those of high-income countries (World Bank, *Global Economic Prospects 2007*). But the income gap between developing and high-income economies will remain substantial, and the absolute difference in per capita incomes will continue to widen.

Although developing economies as a whole are catching up with high-income economies, there is little evidence of convergence between low- and middle-income economies. For them, the relationship between per capita growth rates and initial levels of per capita GDP shows that lower initial per capita GDP was not systematically associated with higher per capita GDP growth (figure 1c). This tells us that countries start out with roughly the same potential for economic growth. Differences in performance are likely to be associated with policies and institutions that encourage productive investment in human, social, and physical capital. But luck also plays an important role, particularly in the small and poor countries, which are more sensitive to external shocks, good and bad: conflicts, terms of trade, and the like.

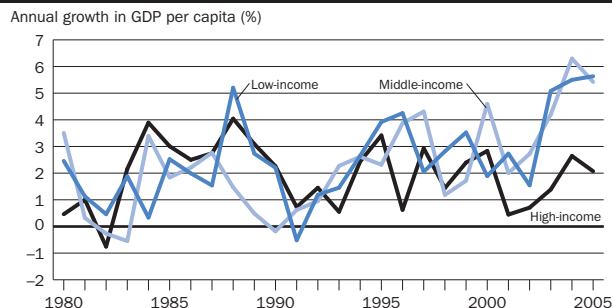
Globalization's intense pace in the last decade—in trade, finance, technology, ideas, and migration—has changed the external environment for countries. Most developing countries have further integrated into world markets, notably through a reduction in trade barriers and transport costs. Here, trade integration is measured by the ratio of imports and exports of goods and services to GDP. For countries starting from

Faster growth, less dispersion among developing economies in the last decade 1a



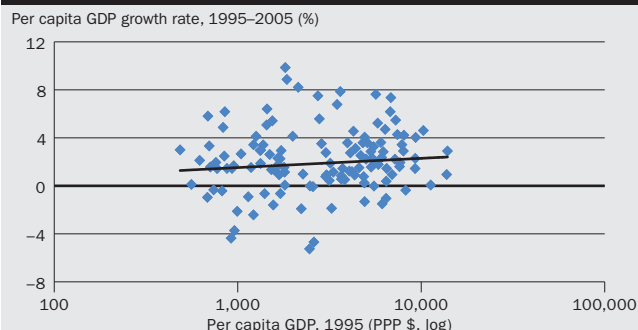
Note: Based on 100 country observations.
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

Growth accelerated in low- and middle-income countries 1b



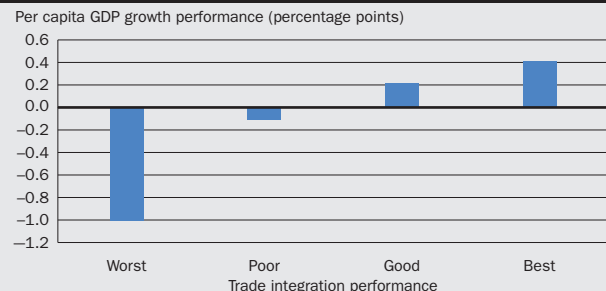
Note: Based on market exchange rates.
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

Poor developing countries are not systematically catching up with richer ones 1c



Note: Based on 125 country observations.
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

Countries that opened up to trade also performed better on growth 1d

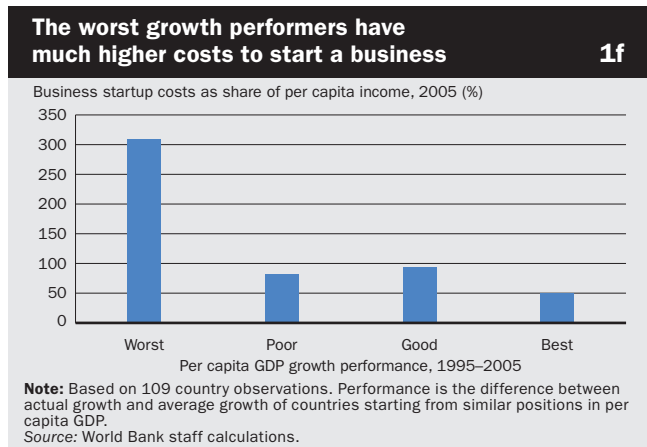
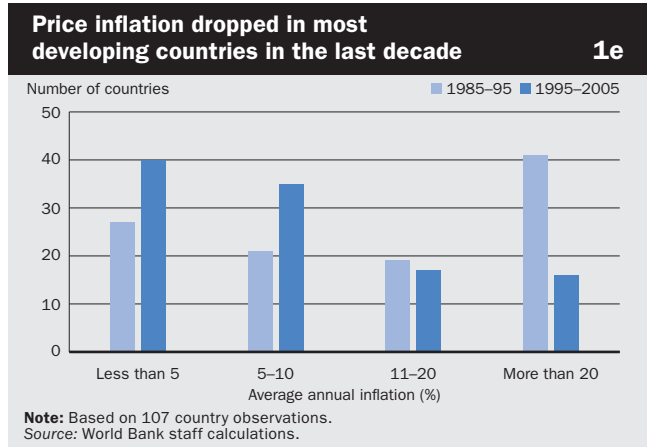


Note: Based on 109 country observations. Performance is the difference between actual rate of change and average rate of change of countries starting from similar positions in trade integration or per capita GDP. Trade integration is measured by the ratio of imports and exports of goods and services to GDP.
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

similar positions, countries integrating less rapidly recorded much lower per capita GDP growth (figure 1d). But that does not mean that trade integration necessarily causes growth. Other factors, such as gains in competitiveness caused by domestic policies, can cause both faster growth and increased trade.

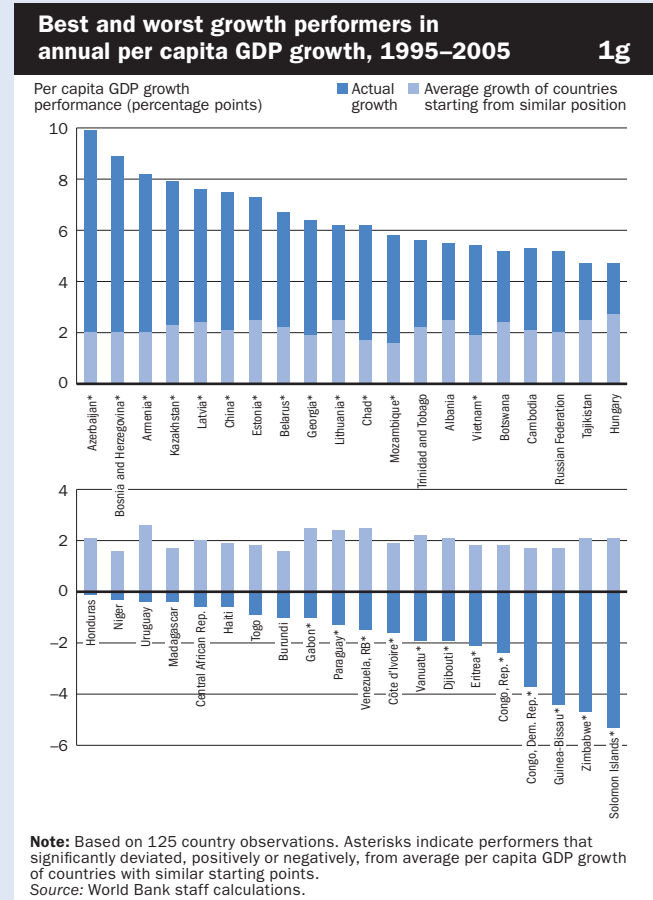
Macroeconomic management also improved in the developing world, reflected in the sharp drop in the number of countries with very high price inflation (figure 1e). The best growth performers recorded average annual inflation of 12 percent over the last decade—worst performers, 29 percent.

Cumbersome business environments also hamper growth. The cost of starting a private business, as a percentage of per capita income, is an indicator of the opportunity for entrepreneurs to develop new economic activities and to compete with existing businesses, an important force driving economic growth. That cost varies from less than 5 percent to a striking 1,440 percent—or 14 years of per capita income in 2005. Countries that performed worst on growth in the last decade also had much higher startup costs than other countries in 2005 (figure 1f).



Country growth performance is benchmarked against the average growth rate for countries that started with a similar per capita GDP in 1995 (in purchasing power parity terms). Because initial levels of per capita GDP had little influence on growth rates over the period, potential average growth is almost identical for all countries (figure 1g). The best and worst performers, which significantly deviated from averages in one direction or the other, are marked with an asterisk.

Among rapidly growing countries, many are in Eastern Europe or are oil exporters. One can also find some post-conflict countries. At the slow end of the spectrum are countries that experienced major conflicts or financial crises in the last decade, are landlocked, or are far from major trade routes. Most of them are located in Sub-Saharan Africa.



Poverty reduction

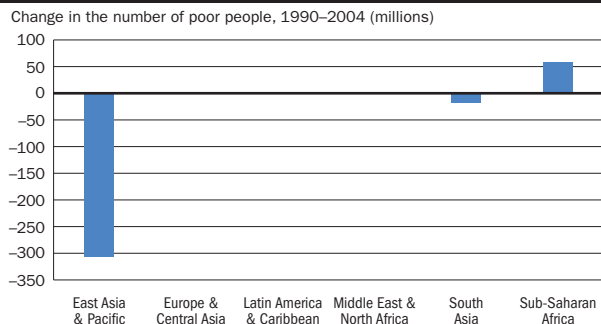
The number of people living on less than \$1 a day in developing countries fell by more than 260 million over 1990–2004, thanks in large part to massive poverty reduction in China. In contrast, the number of poor people continued to increase in Sub-Saharan Africa, rising by almost 60 million (figure 1h). In turn, the share of the population in Sub-Saharan Africa living on less than \$1 a day dropped from 47 percent in 1990 to 41 percent in 2004 (figure 1i).

The Millennium Development Goal of halving the proportion of poor people is still within reach at the worldwide level—with a projected decline from 29 percent to 10 percent between 1990 and 2015. But many countries will most likely not reach it, particularly those in Sub-Saharan Africa, where average poverty rates remain above 40 percent, raising concerns of widening inequalities between regions.

The responsiveness of poverty to growth depends on the distribution of income (or consumption) and how it changes. Many factors influence how the benefits of growth are shared: health, education, infrastructure, gender parity, social safety nets, rule of law, political voice and participation, and access to markets, technology, information, and credit (World Bank 2005d). In the last decade poverty reduction was not always or everywhere commensurate with income growth. In some countries and regions, inequality worsened, as poor people did not reap the fruits of economic expansion, lacking opportunities to do so.

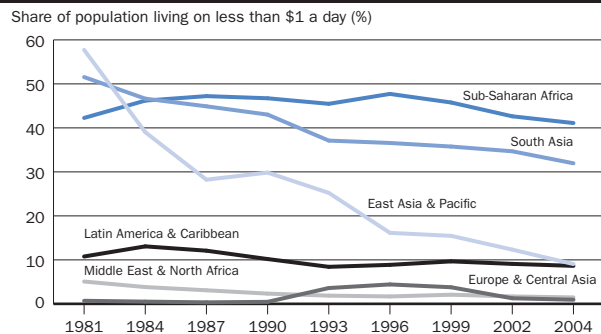
Fifty-nine countries with comparable \$1 or \$2 a day poverty data measured at two points in time (with a gap of at least 10 years) over the last two decades show that growth and changes in income distribution can reinforce or offset their effects on poverty reduction (figures 1j and 1k). In 26 cases income growth was accompanied by increased inequality, and in 20 more income distribution worsened as average incomes fell.

The number of poor people declined, mostly in East Asia and Pacific 1h



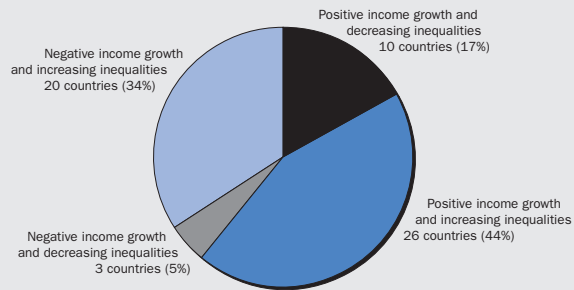
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

Poverty rates are on the decline in South and East Asia 1i



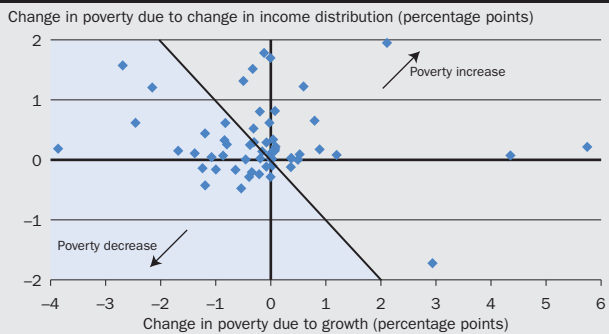
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

Inequality has increased in many countries, with or without growth 1j



Note: Based on 59 country observations. Source: World Bank staff calculations.

Changes in income growth and distribution both affect poverty reduction 1k

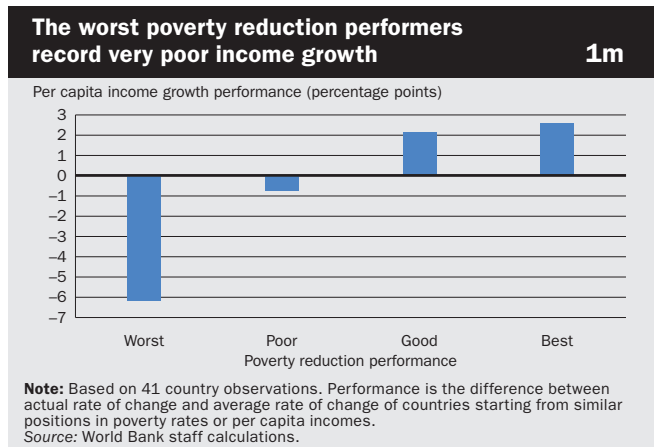
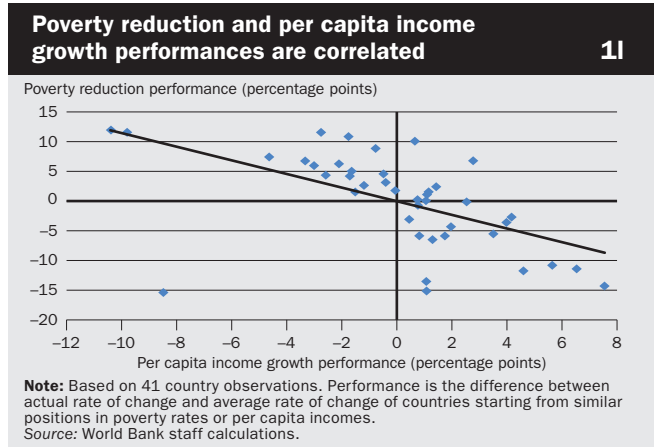


Note: Based on 59 country observations. Source: World Bank staff calculations.

But this is not to say that growth is bad for poverty reduction. In 17 cases the contribution of growth to poverty reduction surpassed the negative impact of worsening inequality, and in another 11 cases reduction in inequality added to the poverty-reducing effect of positive growth. In only one case—out of 60—was poverty reduced despite negative income growth.

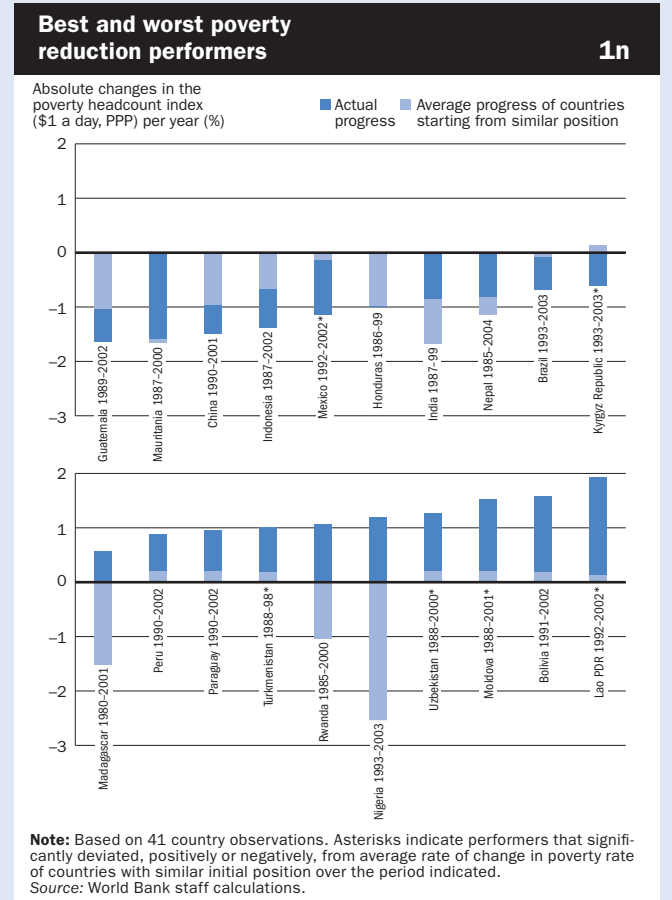
Looking at the relationship between countries' per capita income growth and performance in reducing \$1 a day poverty (controlling for starting points) also suggests a positive and significant statistical relationship between the two (figure 1l).

The worst poverty reduction performers recorded particularly weak income growth performance (figure 1m). But the distinction among the three other groups of performers (poor, good, and best) is less pronounced. This suggests that the relationship between income growth and poverty reduction is more diverse when the economy is not in deep recession. In other words, income growth is necessary but may not be sufficient for sustained poverty reduction.



Countries are ranked here by poverty reduction in the most recent 10-year period with data (figure 1n; periods vary from country to country depending on the availability of poverty surveys). Also shown is the average poverty reduction of countries starting from a similar initial poverty rate. The best and worst performers, which significantly deviated from expectations in one direction or the other, are marked with an asterisk.

There is great diversity in the characteristics of good performers. Among them are low- and middle-income countries from most regions and with varying population sizes. Note too that the best and worst performers are not necessarily the countries that recorded the largest absolute changes in poverty rates. Mauritania, for example, recorded a substantial reduction but still fell short of the average performance of countries with similar initial poverty rates. Mexico experienced a smaller poverty reduction but significantly exceeded the average benchmark.

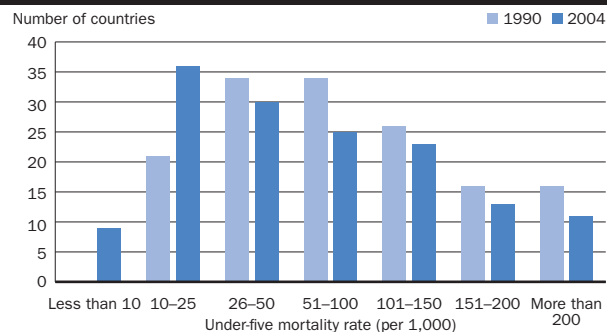


More than 10 million children in developing countries die before the age of five every year, mostly from preventable illnesses. Child mortality has declined in every region since 1990 (figure 1o), but progress is slow: only 35 countries are on track to meet the Millennium Development Goal of reducing under-five mortality by two-thirds between 1990 and 2015. Progress is particularly slow in Sub-Saharan Africa, where AIDS, malaria, and malnutrition are driving up mortality rates.

Improving maternal health, itself a goal, is a powerful instrument for reducing child mortality. More than 500,000 women in developing countries die in childbirth each year, and at least 10 million suffer injuries, infections, and disabilities. High mortality results from malnutrition, frequent pregnancies, and inadequate healthcare during pregnancy and delivery. Women are receiving better care during childbirth, with the proportion of births attended by skilled health staff going up from 60 percent to 70 percent between 1990 and 2004 (figure 1p). Countries in Africa and South Asia nevertheless lag behind, with much lower ratios.

Under-five mortality rates have improved almost everywhere

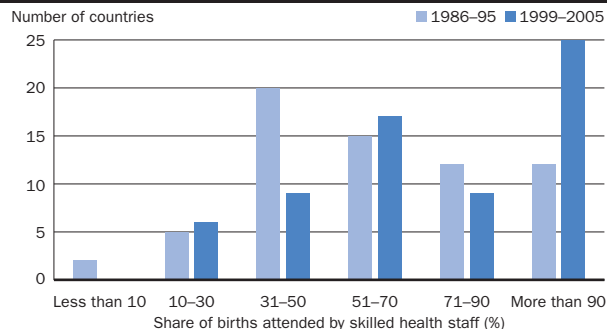
1o



Note: Based on 147 country observations.
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

The proportion of births attended by skilled staff increased greatly in many countries

1p



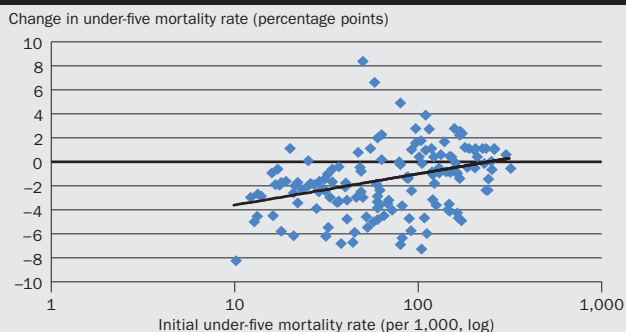
Note: Based on 66 country observations.
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

Performance in reducing child mortality is measured by progress from a given starting position. Worrying—and unlike other development goals—countries with high initial mortality rates face greater difficulties in reducing them (in relative terms) than do countries starting from more favorable positions (figure 1q). HIV/AIDS and other communicable diseases are probably behind this, as countries with higher HIV prevalence rates record significantly lower reductions in child mortality. Countries with high under-five mortality rates are also often countries where malaria is prevalent and difficult to curb.

Economic growth is associated with improving mortality outcomes. On average, good and best performers in reducing under-five mortality had significantly higher growth performance than did poor and worst performers (figure 1r). Accordingly, country case studies emphasize the influence of poverty in determining child mortality. Because poor children are more likely to be malnourished and to receive less healthcare, they are more exposed to the risk of dying before the age of five.

Countries with high initial mortality rates progress more slowly

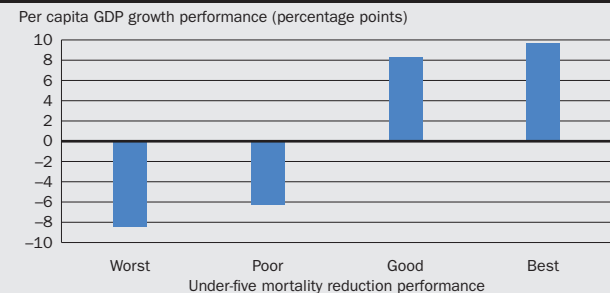
1q



Note: Based on 147 country observations.
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

Under-five mortality reduction performance is associated with good growth performance

1r



Note: Based on 116 country observations. Performance is the difference between actual rate of change and average rate of change of countries starting from similar positions in under-five mortality rates or per capita GDP.
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

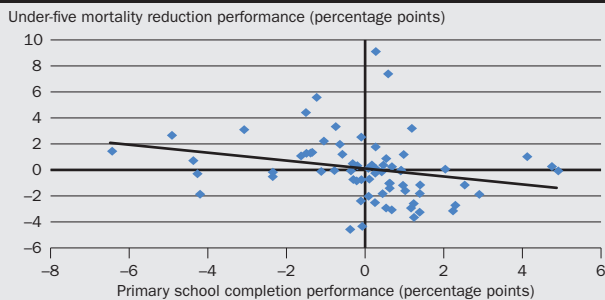
Performance in reducing under-five mortality rates is significantly associated with education (primary school completion) and gender (equal access to schooling), suggesting that there are synergies among the Millennium Development Goals (figure 1s).

The relationship between per capita GDP growth performance and improvements in maternal healthcare performance (as measured by the proportion of births attended by skilled health staff) is not straightforward—no direct statistical relationship can be observed between the two. But performance in improving maternal healthcare is strongly associated with performance in reducing under-five mortality (figure 1t). This might not reflect any direct causal relationship between these two indicators. Rather, it could reflect the impact of health infrastructure and policies on these two indicators.

Countries are ranked here by their reduction in under-five mortality rates over 1990–2004 (figure 1u). Also shown is the average reduction of countries starting from a similar position. The best and worst performers, which far exceeded averages in one direction or the other, are marked with an asterisk.

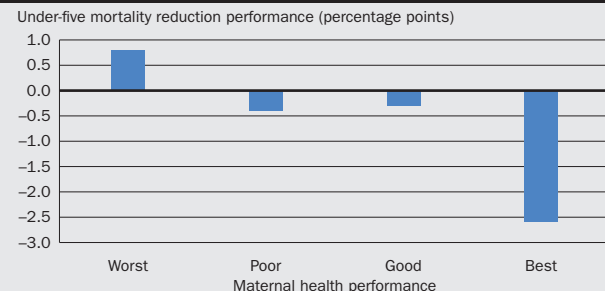
Most of the worst performers are in Sub-Saharan Africa, where HIV is rampant, particularly in the east and south. But Sub-Saharan Africa also hosts some of the countries that recorded the largest drops in under-five mortality. In South Asia 4 of the 8 countries are among the 10 countries that recorded the largest improvements in mortality rates. Three of them are among the best performers, after accounting for their starting positions. Iraq, starting from a favorable initial position, saw its under-five mortality rate grow from 50 to 125 per 1,000 over the period 1990–2004.

Important synergies between health- and education-related Millennium Development Goals 1s



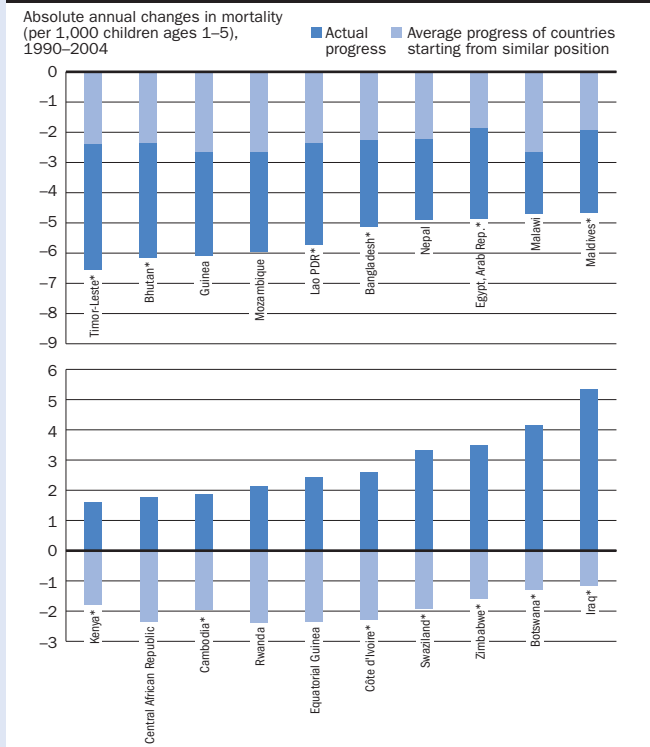
Note: Based on 70 country observations. Performance is the difference between actual rate of change and average rate of change of countries starting from similar positions in under-five mortality rates or primary school completion rates. Source: World Bank staff calculations.

Performance in maternal health and under-five mortality are associated 1t



Note: Based on 66 country observations. Performance is the difference between actual rate of change and average rate of change of countries starting from similar positions in maternal healthcare or under-five mortality rates. Source: World Bank staff calculations.

Best and worst performers in reducing child mortality 1u



Note: Based on 147 country observations. Asterisks indicate performers that significantly deviated, positively or negatively, from average rate of change in under-five mortality rate of countries with similar initial position. Source: World Bank staff calculations.

Education and gender

As a result of significant progress over the last decade, the average primary completion rate has risen from 62 percent to 72 percent (figure 1v). But even at this pace Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia may not reach the Millennium Development Goals target of having all children of relevant age complete primary school by 2015. In 2001–02 it was estimated that about 100 million primary-school-age children were not attending school, three-quarters of them in these two regions.

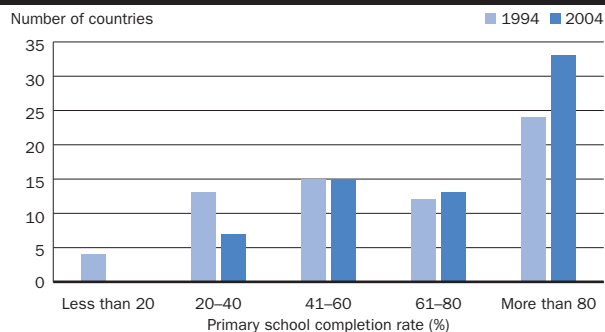
Beyond the necessity of educating all children, eliminating discrimination against girls' participation in school is a powerful instrument for empowering half the world's people, improving the health of children, and reducing poverty. Progress in eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary school has been remarkable in the last decade (figure 1w). On average the deviation from perfect parity (a gender parity index of 100 percent) shrank from 14 percent in 1991 to 8 percent in 2003–05.

The ability of countries to raise their primary school completion rates in the last decade was determined largely by their starting point. Countries with lower initial primary completion rates made faster progress (figure 1x), probably reflecting the fact that it becomes more difficult and costly to enroll and keep all children in school as the number of those left out falls. Country case studies suggest that girls, poor children, and children living in rural areas are less likely to complete schooling. These are the areas where faster progress must be made to achieve education for all.

Improvements in gender parity in school are also significantly associated with initial conditions. On average countries starting with greater initial gender disparity have made faster progress (figure 1y).

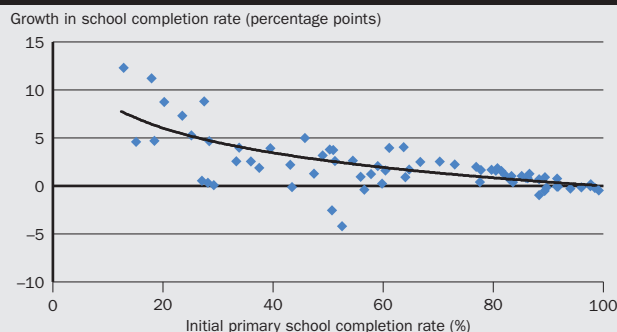
When all children are enrolled and complete school, there will be no gender disparity in school. Over the last decade the number of countries in which the number of boys in primary and secondary schools exceed that of girls by more than 40 percent (a gender parity index below 60 percent) fell—from

Most countries are progressing in primary school completion 1v



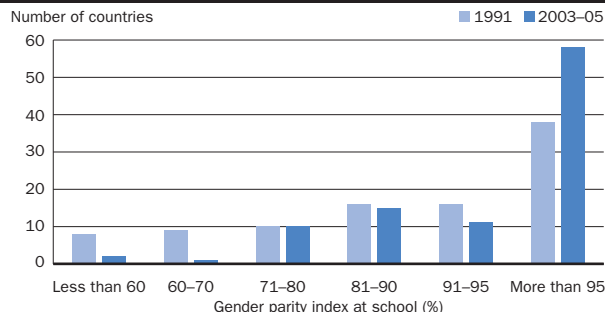
Note: Based on 68 country observations.
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

Countries starting from low levels progress faster in primary school completion 1x



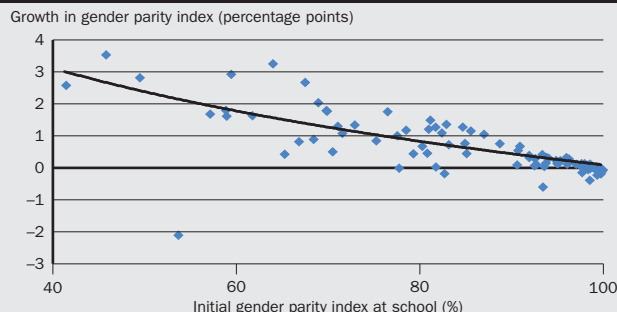
Note: Based on 70 country observations.
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

The number of countries with large gender disparity gaps in school is falling rapidly 1w



Note: Based on 97 country observations. The gender parity index is equal to 100 minus the relative excess or deficit of boys over girls in primary and secondary school.
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

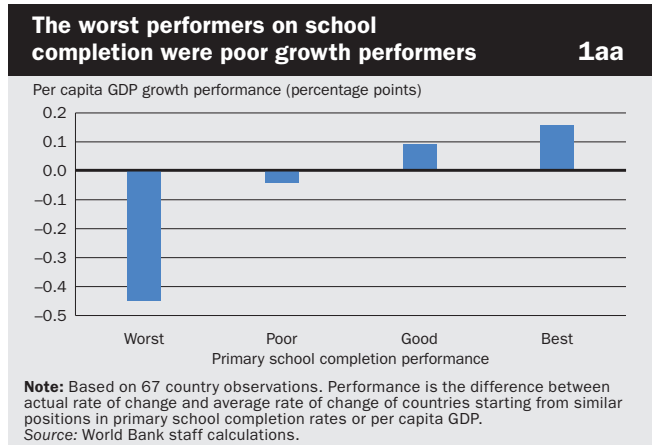
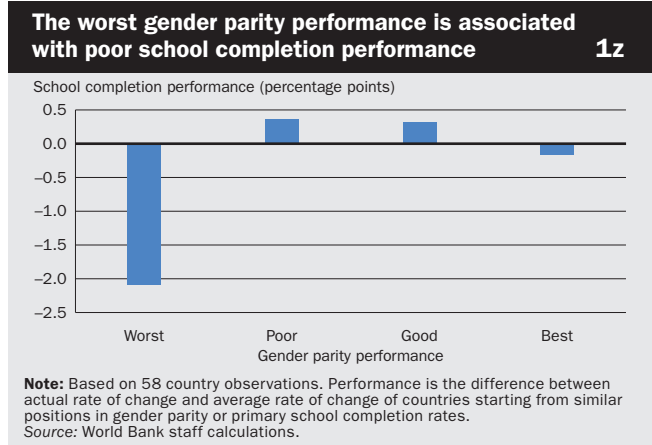
Countries starting from low levels improve gender parity more rapidly 1y



Note: Based on 97 country observations. The gender parity index is equal to 100 minus the relative excess or deficit of boys over girls in primary and secondary school.
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

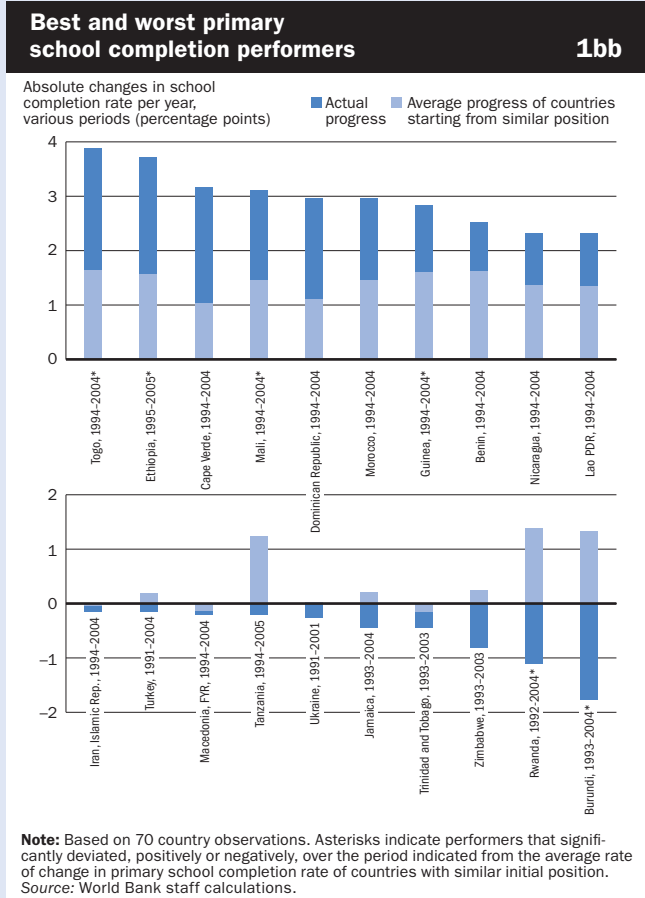
17 (of 97) to 3. And the number of countries with gender parity index above 90 percent increased from 54 to 69. But the relationship between school completion and improvements in gender parity performance (accounting for initial conditions) appears to be more pronounced and uniform on the negative side than it is on the positive side (figure 1z). Countries that most improved their gender parity index did not record significantly higher school completion performances. But countries in which gender parity declined the most were countries where school completion performance was also particularly poor, possibly reflecting the fact that dropout rates are higher for girls than for boys during difficult periods.

There is not a statistically significant correlation between performance in per capita GDP growth and primary school completion. While the relationship shows up at the extremes—the best and worst school completion performers record very distinct growth performances—the growth performance of poor school completion performers cannot be clearly distinguished from that of good performers (figure 1aa).



Countries are ranked here by their primary school completion progress in the last decade (figure 1bb). Also shown is the average progress of countries starting from a similar position. The best and worst performers, which far exceeded averages in one direction or the other, are marked with an asterisk.

The two groups of performers, best and worst, both include a large number of Sub-Saharan African countries, illustrating the diversity of performance in the region. Developing countries improved their primary completion rates by 1 percentage point every year on average over the last decade or so. The best performers all recorded yearly increases exceeding 2.8 percentage points.



Access to improved water sources and emissions of carbon dioxide are among the indicators that the international community uses to monitor progress toward environmental sustainability.

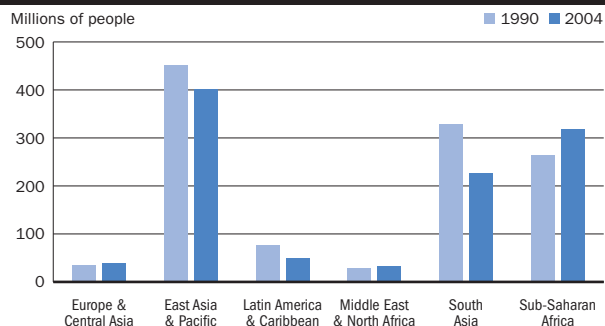
Today, more than a billion people in developing countries lack access to an adequately protected source of water close to their dwellings (figure 1cc). Progress to improve access has been significant in the last decade, but probably insufficient in Africa to meet the 2015 Millennium Development Goal target of halving the proportion of people in 1990 without sustainable access to safe drinking water.

The role of carbon dioxide in climate change is now well documented, but the use of carbon-based energy has additional effects on human health through local air pollution. Yet emissions mount as countries grow economically, unless they reduce the carbon content of their economic activity through technological progress or shift away from carbon-intensive production and consumption (figure 1dd).

Between 1990 and 2004 the proportion of people in developing countries with access to an improved water source increased from 73 percent to 80 percent, and the number of countries with more than half the population lacking access fell from 24 to 11 (figure 1ee). Countries starting from lower positions advanced faster.

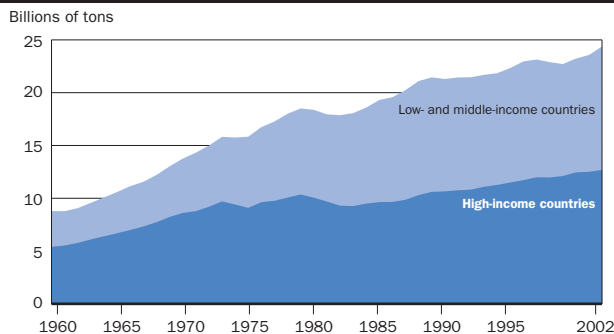
Economic activity, agriculture, and industry in particular compete with human needs for access to water sources. But greater wealth and urbanization allow more of the population to connect to safe drinking water networks. The data do not reveal a statistically significant correlation between water access and growth performance overall. But the worst growth performers distinctively record poor water access performance (figure 1ff). Such countries may also be those with degraded water infrastructure and poor management capacity.

More than a billion people still lack access to safe drinking water 1cc



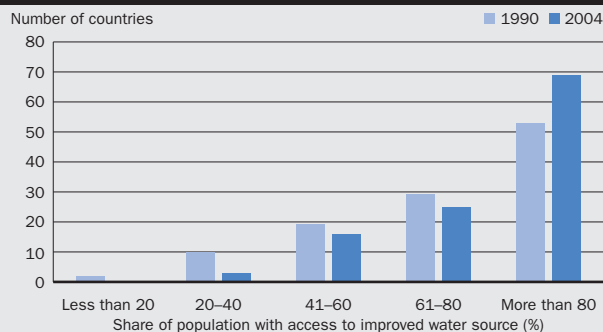
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

Carbon dioxide emissions are mounting and accumulating in the atmosphere 1dd



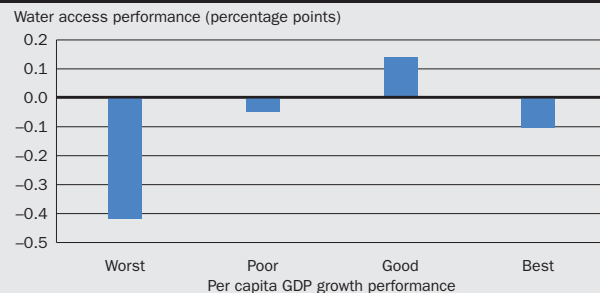
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

Access to water improved almost everywhere 1ee



Note: Based on 113 country observations.
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

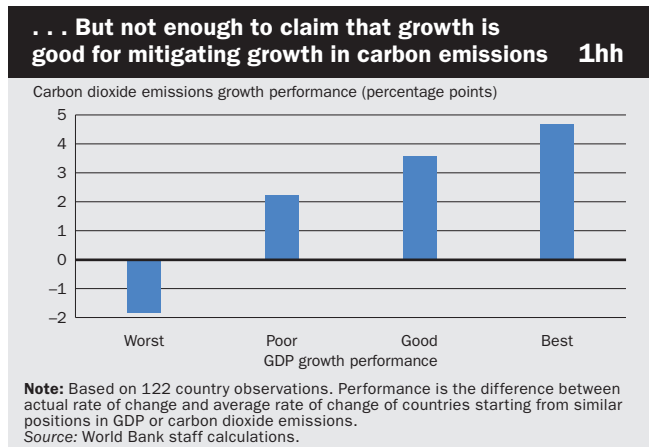
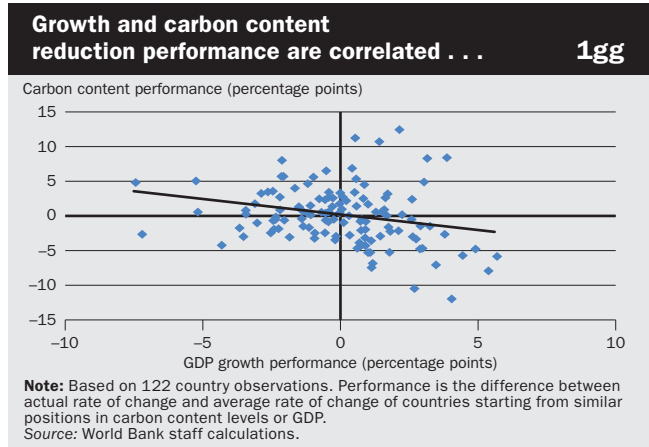
Growth and water access performance are not systematically associated 1ff



Note: Based on 84 country observations. Performance is the difference between actual rate of change and average rate of change of countries starting from similar positions in per capita GDP or water access.
Source: World Bank staff calculations.

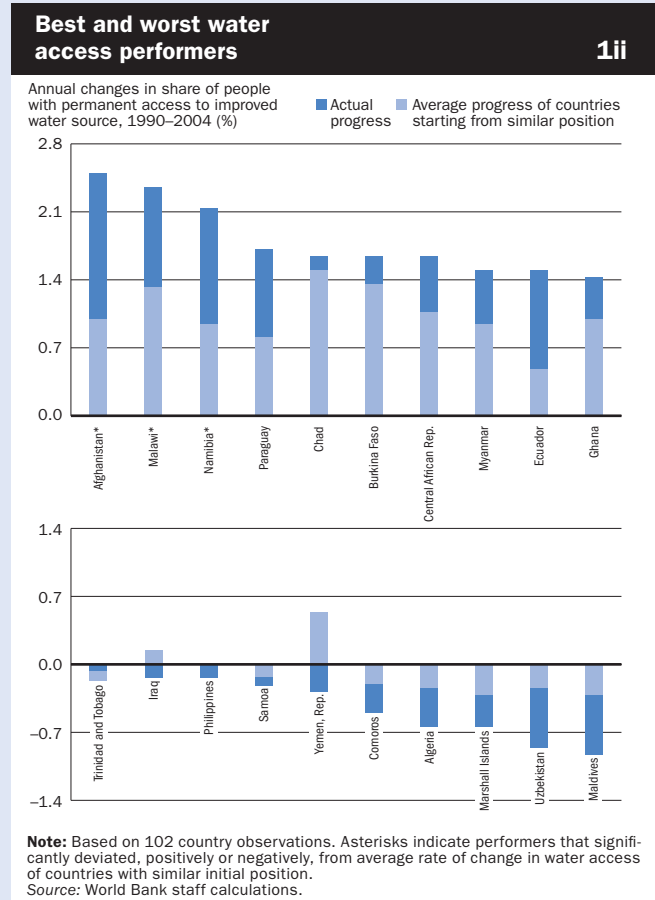
In the next decades all countries need to make important efforts to reduce their carbon emissions. In developing economies such a commitment might be perceived as at odds with that of fostering growth. But recent history suggests that developing countries that have grown the fastest also made the greatest reductions in the carbon content of their economic activities (measured by carbon dioxide emissions per unit of GDP in PPP terms; figure 1gg). It is likely that growth was accompanied by more rapid adoption of new, more energy efficient technologies and a shift toward less carbon-intensive production and consumption.

This is not enough, however, to claim that growth is good for mitigating carbon dioxide emissions: the best growth performers recorded much higher growth in carbon dioxide emissions than other groups (figure 1hh). Technical efficiency gains were not sufficient to compensate for the growth in output.



Countries are ranked here by their progress in water access in 1990–2004. Also shown is the average progress of countries starting from a similar position (figure 1ii). The best and worst performers, which far exceeded averages in one direction or the other, are marked with an asterisk.

A number of poor performers suffered from particularly difficult geographical constraints—small Pacific island or desert countries with low rainfall, for instance. But others, also facing difficult geographical constraints, greatly improved access to safe water. The best and worst performers are not necessarily countries that registered the largest absolute changes. Indeed, the initial rate of access to improved water sources can alone explain almost half the differences in progress across countries. Accounting for starting points thus portrays a different picture of relative performances across countries.



Goals, targets, and indicators

Goals and targets from the Millennium Declaration Indicators for monitoring progress

Goal 1 Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

Target 1	Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than \$1 a day	1	Proportion of population below \$1 (PPP) a day ^a
		1a	Poverty headcount ratio (percentage of population below the national poverty line)
		2	Poverty gap ratio [incidence × depth of poverty]
		3	Share of poorest quintile in national consumption
Target 2	Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger	4	Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age
		5	Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption

Goal 2 Achieve universal primary education

Target 3	Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling	6	Net enrollment ratio in primary education
		7	Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach grade 5 ^b
		8	Literacy rate of 15- to 24-year-olds

Goal 3 Promote gender equality and empower women

Target 3	Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling	6	Net enrollment ratio in primary education
		7	Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach grade 5 ^b
		8	Literacy rate of 15- to 24-year-olds
Target 4	Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015	9	Ratios of girls to boys in primary, secondary, and tertiary education
		10	Ratio of literate women to men ages 15–24
		11	Share of women in wage employment in the nonagricultural sector
		12	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments

Goal 4 Reduce child mortality

Target 5	Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate	13	Under-five mortality rate
		14	Infant mortality rate
		15	Proportion of one-year-old children immunized against measles

Goal 5 Improve maternal health

Target 6	Reduce by three-quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio	16	Maternal mortality ratio
		17	Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel

Goal 6 Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases

Target 7	Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS	18	HIV prevalence among pregnant women ages 15–24
		19	Condom use rate of the contraceptive prevalence rate ^c
		19a	Condom use at last high-risk sex
		19b	Percentage of 15- to 24-year-olds with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS ^d
		19c	Contraceptive prevalence rate
		20	Ratio of school attendance of orphans to school attendance of nonorphans ages 10–14
Target 8	Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases	21	Prevalence and death rates associated with malaria
		22	Proportion of population in malaria-risk areas using effective malaria prevention and treatment measures ^e
		23	Prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis
		24	Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under directly observed treatment, short course (DOTS)

Goal 7 Ensure environmental sustainability

Target 9	Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs and reverse the loss of environmental resources	25	Proportion of land area covered by forest
		26	Ratio of area protected to maintain biological diversity to surface area
		27	Energy use (kilograms of oil equivalent) per \$1 GDP (PPP)
		28	Carbon dioxide emissions per capita and consumption of ozone-depleting chlorofluorocarbons (ODP tons)
		29	Proportion of population using solid fuels
Target 10	Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation	30	Proportion of population with sustainable access to an improved water source, urban and rural
		31	Proportion of population with access to improved sanitation, urban and rural

Goals and targets from the Millennium Declaration **Indicators for monitoring progress**

Target 11	By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers	32 Proportion of households with access to secure tenure
Goal 8 Develop a global partnership for development		
Target 12	Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, nondiscriminatory trading and financial system Includes a commitment to good governance, development and poverty reduction—both nationally and internationally	Some of the indicators listed below are monitored separately for the least developed countries (LDCs), Africa, landlocked countries and small island developing states. Official development assistance (ODA) 33 Net ODA, total and to the least developed countries, as a percentage of OECD/DAC donors' gross national income 34 Proportion of total bilateral, sector-allocable ODA of OECD/DAC donors to basic social services (basic education, primary healthcare, nutrition, safe water and sanitation) 35 Proportion of bilateral official development assistance of OECD/DAC donors that is untied 36 ODA received in landlocked countries as a proportion of their gross national incomes 37 ODA received in small island developing states as proportion of their gross national incomes
Target 13	Address the special needs of the least developed countries Includes tariff and quota free access for the least developed countries' exports; enhanced programme of debt relief for heavily indebted poor countries (HIPC) and cancellation of official bilateral debt; and more generous ODA for countries committed to poverty reduction	
Target 14	Address the special needs of landlocked countries and small island developing states (through the Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States and the outcome of the 22nd special session of the General Assembly)	Market access 38 Proportion of total developed country imports (by value and excluding arms) from developing countries and from the least developed countries, admitted free of duty 39 Average tariffs imposed by developed countries on agricultural products and textiles and clothing from developing countries 40 Agricultural support estimate for OECD countries as a percentage of their gross domestic product 41 Proportion of ODA provided to help build trade capacity
Target 15	Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term	Debt sustainability 42 Total number of countries that have reached their HIPC decision points and number that have reached their HIPC completion points (cumulative) 43 Debt relief committed under HIPC Debt Initiative 44 Debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services
Target 16	In cooperation with developing countries, develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth	45 Unemployment rate of 15- to 24-year-olds, male and female and total ^f
Target 17	In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries	46 Proportion of population with access to affordable essential drugs on a sustainable basis
Target 18	In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications	47 Telephone lines and cellular subscribers per 100 people 48a Personal computers in use per 100 people 48b Internet users per 100 people

Note: Goals, targets, and indicators effective September 8, 2003.

a. For monitoring country poverty trends, indicators based on national poverty lines should be used, where available. b. An alternative indicator under development is "primary completion rate." c. Among contraceptive methods, only condoms are effective in preventing HIV transmission. Since the condom use rate is only measured among women in union, it is supplemented by an indicator on condom use in high-risk situations (indicator 19a) and an indicator on HIV/AIDS knowledge (indicator 19b). Indicator 19c (contraceptive prevalence rate) is also useful in tracking progress in other health, gender, and poverty goals. d. This indicator is defined as the percentage of 15- to 24-year-olds who correctly identify the two major ways of preventing the sexual transmission of HIV (using condoms and limiting sex to one faithful, uninfected partner), who reject the two most common local misconceptions about HIV transmission, and who know that a healthy-looking person can transmit HIV. However, since there are currently not a sufficient number of surveys to be able to calculate the indicator as defined above, UNICEF, in collaboration with UNAIDS and WHO, produced two proxy indicators that represent two components of the actual indicator. They are the percentage of women and men ages 15–24 who know that a person can protect herself from HIV infection by "consistent use of condom," and the percentage of women and men ages 15–24 who know a healthy-looking person can transmit HIV. e. Prevention to be measured by the percentage of children under age five sleeping under insecticide-treated bednets; treatment to be measured by percentage of children under age five who are appropriately treated. f. An improved measure of the target for future years is under development by the International Labour Organization.