

MOVING FROM MDGs TO SDGs

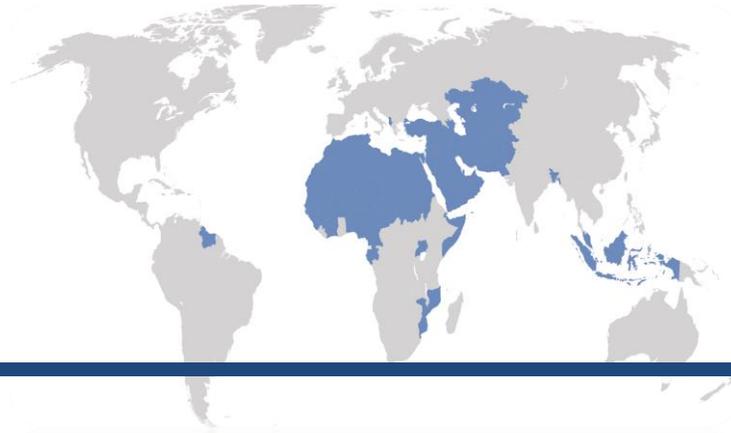
PROSPECTS AND CHALLENGES FOR OIC MEMBER COUNTRIES



ORGANISATION OF ISLAMIC COOPERATION

STATISTICAL ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL RESEARCH
AND TRAINING CENTRE FOR ISLAMIC COUNTRIES





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© 2016 Statistical, Economic and Social Research and Training Centre for Islamic Countries (SESRIC)

Address: Kudüs Cad. No: 9, Diplomatik Site, 06450 Oran, Ankara –Turkey

Telephone 0090–312–468 6172

Internet www.sesric.org

E-mail pubs@sesric.org

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For additional information, contact Research Department, SESRIC through: research@sesric.org

This report has been prepared by a research team at SESRIC led by Mazhar Hussain and comprising Kenan Bagci, Cem Tintin, Atilla Karaman, and Fadi Farasin. Substantive assistance was provided by Cihat Battaloglu, Adem Bensaid and Davron Ishnazarov.

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Acronyms

COMCEC	Standing Committee for Economic and Commercial Cooperation of the OIC
EAP	East Asia and Pacific
ECA	Europe and Central Asia
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
GPI	Gender Parity Index
HLP	High Level Panel
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IDB	Islamic Development Bank
IDP	Internally Displaced People
IEAG	Independent Expert Advisory Group
IMR	Infant Mortality Rate
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
LAC	Latin America and the Caribbean
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MMR	Maternal Mortality Rate
NER	Net Enrolment Rate
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
NSOs	National Statistics Offices
NSSs	National Statistical Systems
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OIC	Organization of Islamic Cooperation
SA	South Asia
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
U5MR	Under 5 Mortality Rate
UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNOCHA	UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
UNSC	United Nations Security Council
WHO	World Health Organization

Foreword

The recently adopted 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development promotes a sustainable future for the humankind. Compared to the former Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the current Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are more ambitious in scope and universal in coverage. These goals set targets for both developing and developed countries and adopt a more comprehensive approach towards development by integrating social, economic and environmental dimensions of development.

At this transitional phase, the OIC member countries are taking stock of their MDGs performance to reflect on lessons learned for the SDGs era. Based on their previous MDGs performance, it is clear that Millennium Development agenda is an unfinished business in many OIC countries where serious developmental issues related with poverty, employment, education, health and environment remained important priorities to be addressed.

Though the comprehensive nature of the 2030 Agenda makes the SDGs planning and implementation a challenging task for all, some OIC countries are particularly vulnerable due to their overwhelming MDGs performance deficit. In general, prospects for achieving SDGs are bleak especially in the low income and least developed OIC countries. The successful implementation of SDGs, therefore, demands a renewed strong commitment among the governments and all other relevant stakeholders—civil society, private sector, academia and multilateral development partners—to work together and seek synergies.

In general, the realization of the SDGs in OIC countries and elsewhere in the developing world depends largely on their ability to address issues and challenges related with national ownership and stewardship, institutional capacity and governance, data collection and monitoring, peace and security, and financial resources. To this end, among others, existing mechanisms of South–South and triangular cooperation can be very effective to facilitate sharing of resources, capacities and experiences among the OIC countries to meet the challenges of the 2030 Agenda.

This report aims to contribute towards the national and regional efforts to spearhead successful transition of the Islamic world to the ambitious global agenda for sustainable development.

Amb. Musa Kulaklıkaya
Director General
S E S R I C

Executive Summary

Assessment of MDGs Achievements

MDG1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

At the global level, the target of reducing extreme poverty rates by half was met five years ahead of the 2015 deadline. According to the MDG 2015 Report, the proportion of people living on less than \$1.25 a day globally fell from 36% in 1990 to 15% in 2011, which is projected to further decline to 12% in 2015. Despite the significant disparities across regions and countries, this reflects a major achievement by the international community. In line with the global trends, many OIC member countries have also achieved the target on extreme poverty, but country level experiences were quite diverse. Notably, Guinea reduced the total number of poor by 57.0 percentage points to 35.3%. On the other hand, poverty rates in Guinea-Bissau increased by 24.1 percentage points to reach 67.1%.

Although the share of vulnerable employment in total employment is falling in many OIC countries, total number of people working under vulnerable conditions has been increasing over time. The share of vulnerable employment has continuously declined to reach 53.2% in 2014 compared to 63.8% in 2000, but the total number of people with vulnerable employment status is estimated to reach 326 million in 2015 in OIC group, which is the highest number recorded so far. This reflects the need for further efforts to reduce the total number of workers in informal working arrangements where incomes received are low and adequate social protection is deficient.

In terms of halving the proportion of people who suffer from hunger, 41 OIC countries achieved to reduce the rate during the period under consideration. Total number of undernourished people in OIC countries decreased from 30 million to 23 million. Accordingly, the share of undernourished population in OIC countries decreased from 19% to 11%.

Overall, while the progress in achieving the target on extreme poverty is more advanced, the success in meeting the target on nourishment is less satisfactory. There are quite a number of OIC countries still seriously off the targets. This implies that although the target for extreme poverty has been achieved and hunger has been considerably reduced in many OIC countries, eradication of extreme poverty and hunger is far from being a reality. Main constraints and challenges in achieving MDG1 include lack of inclusive growth, inefficient use of existing resources, limited access to income generation and employment opportunities, lack of incentives and support mechanisms for vulnerable groups to promote local development, and lack of good governance for effective implementation of development policies and programs.

MDG2: Achieve universal primary education

Average rates for primary school enrolment have increased all over the world during the period 2000-2014. This upward trend was particularly strong for the OIC countries as their average net enrolment rate has increased by 7.6 percentage points since 2000 and reached 82.0% in 2014. Despite these improvements, this indicates that still around one-fifth of the children in OIC countries who are at their

primary school age have not registered in schools. There are more than ten OIC countries where youth literacy rate is lower than 70%.

Overall, achievements of OIC countries in MDG2 are less satisfactory. Most countries are off the target in achieving universal primary education. While greater attention will be paid to quality education during the SDG era, there are still needs for further investments in improving the outcomes for completion of primary education in many OIC countries.

Main constraints and challenges observed in achieving the MDG2 were lack of appropriate policies for ensuring access of children in remote areas, lack of coordination across development partners in overcoming the barriers, limited resources for the promotion of education and lack of good quality data to monitor and evaluate the progress.

MDG3: Promote gender equality and empower women

Many more girls are now in school compared to 15 years ago both in developing countries including OIC members. In terms of wage employment in the non-agriculture sector, 31 OIC countries witnessed an improvement where women employees are less vulnerable when compared to the 1990s. The average proportion of women in parliaments has nearly doubled and 46 OIC countries achieved to record an increase in the number of women representatives at their parliaments.

Despite these significant gains made in reducing gender disparity and improving opportunity and well-being for women, women and girls continue to face challenges in several OIC countries from staying out of education to lack of job opportunities. It is therefore during the implementation of SDGs, more coherent and decisive policy-actions are required to cope with these challenges in OIC countries.

MDG4: Reduce child mortality

OIC member countries as a group have witnessed substantial decline in preventable child mortality over the past quarter of a century. According to the latest estimates, under five child mortality has fallen by more than half (52%), dropping from 126 to 60 deaths per 1,000 live births between 1990 and 2015. Meanwhile, total number of under-five child deaths dropped from 4.5 million in 1990 to 2.8 million in 2015. During 1990-2015, 37 OIC countries registered over 50% reduction in under-five deaths whereas it ranged between 41 to 49% for 12 countries.

A declining trend can also be observed in case of infant mortality rate, dropping from 84 to 44 deaths per 1000 live births between 1990 and 2015. Nevertheless, drop in infant mortality (48%) remained slightly lesser than the under-five mortality rate. It's worth highlighting that first days of life are the most critical for the survival of a child. Around 40% of total under-five deaths in OIC countries were recorded during the first 28 days of life in 2015. At the national level, all 56 OIC members with data have recorded a declining IMR trend between 1990 and 2015.

Despite the impressive performance over the years, decline in child mortality was insufficient to enable the OIC member countries as a group to achieve the targets of MDG4. At the country level, only 22 OIC member countries have achieved the target of two-third reduction in U5MR whereas, 34 member

countries are off-track. The situation remained comparatively worse in case of achieving the target on IMR reduction, as only 12 member countries were successful while 45 members have missed the target.

MDG5: Improve maternal health

OIC member countries have witnessed significant improvement in maternal health situation with maternal mortality rate (MMR) dropping from 534 to 327 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births between 1990 and 2015. This corresponds to an overall decrease of 39% against the MDG5 target of three quarters reduction until 2015. However, despite this progress, around 0.15 million women still die from preventable causes related to the pregnancy and childbirth in OIC countries. Maternal mortality remained highly concentrated in a handful of OIC countries. In 2015, around half (48.6%) of the OIC's total maternal deaths were reported only in three countries namely: Nigeria, Pakistan, and Indonesia.

Skilled health care and assistance at the time of delivery are critical for the health and very survival of both mother and baby. According to the latest estimates, 64% of deliveries in OIC countries were assisted by a doctor, nurse or midwife in 2010-2015. Meanwhile, health personnel assisted more than 90% of deliveries in 28 OIC countries.

The overall assessment of OIC countries performance towards achieving the MDG5 targets reveals that only 11 OIC member countries have achieved the target of three quarters reduction in MMR whereas 45 member countries are off-track. The situation remained comparatively well in case of achieving the target on universal access to maternal health services as 28 member countries recorded over 90% coverage for skilled birth attendance. With the exception of Indonesia, Tajikistan, Bangladesh and Egypt rest of low and lower middle income countries are characterized by very high incidence of maternal mortality and low coverage of critical health interventions.

MDG6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases

Over the last 15 years, many developing countries including many OIC countries recorded some significant progress in combating against major communicable diseases especially HIV/AIDS, malaria and tuberculosis that are listed as sub-targets under MDG6. Globally, new HIV infections fell by approximately 40 per cent between 2000 and 2013, from an estimated 3.5 million cases to 2.1 million. Over 6.2 million malaria deaths have been averted between 2000 and 2015, primarily of children under five years of age in sub-Saharan Africa. In 42 OIC countries, antiretroviral therapy coverage as the main therapy for HIV/AIDS patients recorded an increase where malaria cases in 34 OIC countries went down over the period 1990-2014. In total 37 OIC countries achieved to reverse the positive trend seen in the incidence of tuberculosis.

Despite these remarkable gains, many OIC countries failed to reach several sub-targets of MDG6 stems from underdeveloped living conditions to poverty where still millions of people have to live in environments with lack of sanitation and/or drinking water. Therefore scaling up investments into health systems and basic infrastructure in collaboration with regional and international organizations may help many OIC countries to reverse the spread of diseases as well as to reach the targets of SDGs.

MDG7: Ensure environmental sustainability

The OIC member countries have shown a slow, but steady decline in forest area, compared to forest area growth in developed countries. This is critical given the 22.6% precipitation share of the OIC, and the essential role played by forests as water traps. With respect to the CO₂ emissions, the OIC group exhibited moderate and sustained increase throughout the MDGs observation period, where the OIC share of total world CO₂ emissions rose from 9% to 13%. The CO₂ emission increases roughly correspond to average energy use trends in OIC member countries. This indicates the significant role played by non-renewable fuel, and raises questions of sustainability and over-reliance. Biodiversity, territorial and marine area protection remained critical issues given reliance on natural food stocks. This witnessed a measure of progress, where 55 member countries met the specific target.

With expanding populations, growing birth rates and increasing urbanization in OIC member countries, issues of water scarcity and water infrastructure stress are increasingly challenging. Nonetheless, OIC member countries collectively increased the proportion of their population with access to improved drinking water sources from 70% in 1990 to 82% in 2015. Similar progress has been made in providing improved sanitation facilities, where 60% (2015) of the collective OIC population now use improved sanitation facilities, compared to 43% in 1990. There also remains a significant disparity between water and sanitation facility access between urban and rural areas. Slum population reduction has moreover witnessed significant reductions, but remains a challenge given population expansion, already aging infrastructure and the lack of policy coherence on infrastructure development projects.

MDG8: Develop a global partnership for development

The official development assistance to OIC countries has substantially increased over the MDGs era; this is particularly true for the 21 OIC LDCs who benefited significantly from the influx of aid resources. As for debt burden, Only 15 out of 42 OIC countries for which data is available demonstrate having a lower level of debt burden compared to the developing countries average. Nonetheless, most OIC countries achieved some progress over the MDGs period with 36 OIC countries making effective progress and only 6 OIC countries having a higher burden of debt in 2013, when compared to the 2000. As for the access to new technologies, OIC countries have made great strides in improving coverage although in the case of internet access room for improvement still exists.

In implementing MDG 8 several lessons were learned which have implications for the implementation of SDGs; chief among them: the importance of training and capacity building; the need for establishing more effective cooperation mechanism among OIC countries; the need to develop innovative sources of development financing and the need to improve domestic resource mobilization; and finally the importance of South-South cooperation.

Prospects and Challenges for SDGs

Political will and policy dialogue

Insufficient political will and limited policy dialogue reduced the potential achievements of MDGs in developing countries including OIC members. To this end, under the guidance of the UN, international

community prepared and adopted SDGs with more stakeholder involvement that improved the feeling of ownership. Almost all OIC countries actively contributed the process of determination phases of SDGs at the national, regional and global level meetings and foras. As SDGs complements national and regional development plans, political willingness for the implementation of SDGs is on the rise in the developing world. 9 OIC countries (Mauritania, Sierra Leone, Uganda, Egypt, Morocco, Somalia, Indonesia, Pakistan, and Turkmenistan) from different geographical regions of the OIC have already started aligning their national development plans with SDGs under the coordination of the United Nations Development Group (UNDG).

If OIC countries and OIC GS can utilize existing mechanisms and OIC institutions within the OIC system to improve political willingness of member countries and scale up their determination to follow up SDGs, it is likely to see increased cooperation among OIC countries as well as with the international community to achieve SDGs that ultimately would lead to improve millions of people's standards of living.

Crises and conflicts

The frequency, duration and impacts of humanitarian crises, mainly driven by natural disasters and conflicts, continue to increase, particularly in OIC countries. While the global figures on the number of people affected from natural disasters and conflicts are constantly rising, OIC member countries are affected more than any other parts of the world by large-scale humanitarian crises and disasters, and the trend is unfortunately on the rise. Combined threats of instability, conflict and violence, often coupled with and accelerated by other factors, including natural disasters and climate change pose significant humanitarian and development challenges.

Such disastrous threats to sustainable development should leave no doubt for any policy maker in any developing country that disaster risk reduction ought to be an integral part of any national or local economic development strategy and plan. Substantial investments in institutional and legal frameworks, physical infrastructures, education and awareness, and beyond are required to educate people and organizations, and create capacities for prevention, preparation, response and recovery, with emphasis on prevention and preparation. The OIC countries, if not the most in need of such provisions, are no exceptions.

Institutional capacity and governance

The SDGs advance a variety of issues, which are significant for political, social, economic and environmental development. Yet, when looking at the practices, institutional capacity and governance remains as the critical factors for developing and implementing effective and equitable policy measures, particularly, in OIC Member Countries.

In terms of the robustness of the institutions and their capacity; OIC countries demonstrate the weakest level of institutional performance among the group of developed and non-OIC developing countries with a score of 0.32. Also, when it comes to the governance, OIC countries perform poorly in the six indicators of governance, which are: voice and accountability; political stability and absence of violence/terrorism, government effectiveness, regulatory quality, rule of law, and control of corruption. Nevertheless, the above mentioned realities are not absent from the mind of the OIC which has launched several programs

and initiatives to improve institutional and governance quality, such as the OIC 2025 Plan of Action, which specifically addresses the necessity of good governance and accountability and OIC institutional reforms.

Data and monitoring

The MDGs have also brought about a symbiotic relationship with the official statistics. The MDGs have raised awareness about the evidence-based decision making which in effect improved the conditions for the National Statistical Systems (NSSs) which are tasked with providing high quality data for national and international stakeholders. The push for quality data has had a positive impact on monitoring progress and sound policy making. However, the improvements have not been even in all countries due to the fact that “one size does not fit all”. The literature states that the limitations in the MDGs development process have also given birth to the limitations in the MDGs structure, content, implementation and enforcement. Some of these limitations have also been carried to the post-2015 development agenda and availability of and capacity to collect, collate, process, and disseminate high quality data is again at the centre of the processes related to the SDGs monitoring and evaluation.

Based on the experience gained during the MDGs period, some very valuable lessons have also been learnt. The SDGs, contrary to the MDGs, are mainly driven by the member states, civil society organisations, and the private sector. Given the new ambitious agenda, new initiatives and approaches are also put in place to facilitate the monitoring and evaluation of SDGs. The “Data Revolution” as mentioned in the High Level Panel on the Post-2015 Development Agenda Report is expected to transform how the official statistics is integrated into decision making processes based on roadmap with four pillars of principles and standards; technology, innovation and analysis; capacity and resources; and leadership and governance.

Yet, there is still more to be done. The Inter-Agency and Expert Group on the SDGs Indicators (IAEG-SDGs), tasked with the design of the SDGs indicator framework, is expected to finalise the tiers for 230 indicators, most of which are classified under Tier 2 and 3, indicator classes with irregular or no data collection and no developed methodology. Following that, a significant level of resources and efforts will be needed to develop the skills of the NSSs in order they can keep up the pace for monitoring, evaluating, and reporting the progress on the current SDGs indicator framework. Given that the Statistical Capacity Score of the OIC Member Countries as a group lags behind that of the world average, the cooperation linkages to be established among the national and international stakeholders should focus on the transfer of transfer know-how for the SDGs indicators to achieve a sound monitoring and reporting mechanism both at the national and global levels.

Financing

The implementation of SDGs requires a sustainable financing strategy to address the investment needs effectively. Experience with the implementation of MDGs shows that public finances contributed the largest share of investment in MDGs related sectors in OIC countries and elsewhere in the developing world (Oxfam & DFI, 2015). Over the years, many OIC countries have witnessed steady increase in public revenues due to improvement in collection mechanisms and effectiveness of tax authorities. However,

despite progress, there are differences between countries and efforts to raise domestic resources are often constrained by tax evasion and avoidance and by illicit financial flows in many countries.

Though quantifying the exact financial implications of the SDGs for the world is a daunting task, preliminary findings of various studies estimated total cost to be ‘trillions of dollars a year’. The World Investment Report (UNCTAD, 2014) put global investment needs for SDG-related sectors between 5 to 7 trillion US dollars per year. Most of these funds (3.3 to 4.5 trillion US dollars) are needed for developing countries to invest in basic infrastructure, food security, climate change mitigation and adaptation, health, and education. Effective mobilization of domestic and international resources is crucial, with developing countries facing an annual SDG-financing gap of 2.5 trillion US dollars.

The total cost for the SDG targets related to poverty, health and education is estimated to be US\$ 280 billion a year in 30 low and lower middle income OIC countries. More than half (54%) of this amount is needed for the implementation of SDG on health, 36% for education and 11% for poverty. Among the OIC countries with data, 15 low income countries accounted for only 22% (i.e. \$62 billion) of the total cost for these three SDGs. The annual per person costs on a country by country basis for low and lower middle income OIC countries is shown in Figure. In line with the conventional wisdom, the cost of ending poverty is highest in poorer countries whereas education and health costs are highest in lower middle income OIC countries.

Financing needs differ across countries based on their social-economic profile and existing level of investments in the SDGs related sectors. While needs are relatively small for the developed countries, there are serious challenges especially for the low and lower middle income countries (including OIC countries) to mobilize the necessary financial resources for the implementation of SDGs. If potential revenue is attained, majority of lower middle income OIC countries can afford the implementation of these three SDGs whereas; cost remained significantly higher than the potential government revenue in all low income OIC countries. Therefore, these countries will not be able to achieve these targets on their own and will require additional resources.



1. Global Development Agenda and OIC Countries

The new 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development builds directly on the MDGs which are regarded as the first ever targets established by the world collectively to improve the living standards in the developing world by targeting the eradication of poverty. In contrast to the MDGs, the SDGs are more ambitious in scope and universal in coverage. There are multiple interrelations between these goals underlining the broad scope for horizontal and vertical policy interventions across several areas.

The implementation of MDGs over the last quarter of a century has led to significant development progress related especially with policy coherence and technical cooperation across the OIC countries. Based on the latest available information, many OIC countries have achieved the MDG targets on reducing poverty, increasing the school enrolment, preventing and controlling the spread of diseases, decreasing avoidable deaths of mothers and children, improving access to technology and addressing the environmental issues. Nevertheless, despite improvement, MDGs achievements in OIC group remained uneven and widespread inequalities persist between and within countries. The situation is particularly alarming in low income and least developed member countries, which not only missed most of the MDG targets but are still characterized by low economic growth, limited financial resources, weak institutional capacity, and fragile peace and security situation. Given the fact that starting point matters, prospects for achieving SDGs targets especially on poverty, hunger, health and illiteracy are bleak for many high-burden countries especially in case of 'business as usual' scenario.

Given the broad scope of 2030 Agenda, transition from MDGs to SDGs is a complex matter for all countries. In this regard, OIC countries need to build on the lessons learned from their experience in implementing the MDGs to address the new demands and opportunities offered by the SDGs. Furthermore, the operationalisation of the new OIC-2025 Programme of Action, which provides a strategic vision for the intra-OIC cooperation and joint Islamic action on specific priorities addressing 18 sectors encompassing a wide range of social, economic, environmental and security issues, can also spearhead and complement efforts towards realization of SDGs in the Islamic world.

This report takes stock of MDGs performance of OIC countries by looking into the latest available statistics on selected targets of MDGs in Section 2. The Section 3 discusses the transition from MDGs to SDGs by highlighting the relationship between MDGs and SDGs. It also provides a detailed analysis of lessons learned from the implementation of MDGs in OIC countries to draw a broad sketch of their readiness for SDGs era. The Section 4 analysis the prospects and challenges for the implementation of SDGs in OIC countries by evaluating their ability to integrate and mainstream the SDGs in their national policies and plans; develop institutional mechanisms for coordination, management and implementation of SDGs; enhance capacities of national statistical agencies to produce necessary data for effective monitoring and evaluation of the progress; identify and channelize adequate financial resources for the implementation of SDGs; and involve all stakeholders—government authorities, academics and civil society organizations—in planning, implementation and monitoring of SDGs. The report concludes with remarks on some major findings in the Section 5.



2. Assessment of MDGs Achievements

The OIC member countries have made significant progress on improving the living standards and implementing the MDGs over the past quarter of a century. However, despite improvement, progress remained highly uneven within and between OIC countries. Based on the latest available estimates, this section evaluates the performance of OIC countries in terms of achieving the MDGs targets. To do so, a set of selected indicators has been analyzed under each MDG to assess the achievements as well as highlight the current standing of OIC countries at this initial stage of transition from the MDGs to the SDGs.

2.1 MDG1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

Eradicating extreme poverty

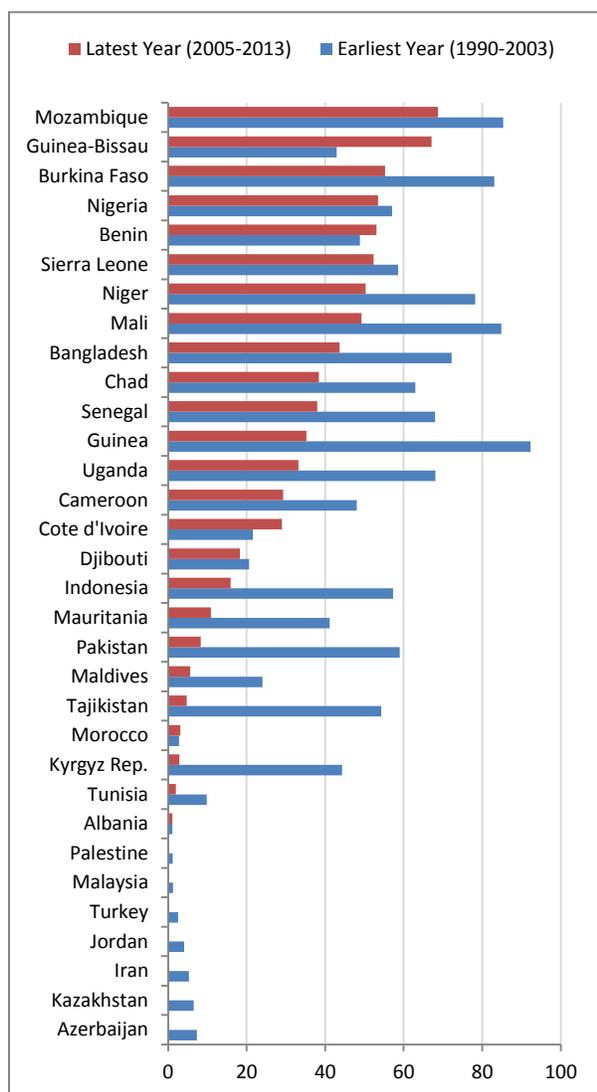
The MDG1 has three global targets for 2015 to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger. In order to measure the target on extreme poverty, the World Bank first introduced a global poverty line in 1990, setting it at \$1 a day. It was adjusted in 2008, when the group raised it to \$1.25 a day at 2005 prices. In order to address the differences in the cost of living across the world, the new global line of extreme poverty is updated once again by the Bank to \$1.90 at 2011 prices as of October 2015.

At global level, the target of reducing extreme poverty rates by half was met five years ahead of the 2015 deadline. According to the MDG 2015 Report of the UN, the proportion of people living on less than \$1.25 a day globally fell from 36% in 1990 to 15% in 2011, which is projected to further decline to 12% in 2015. Despite the significant disparities across regions and countries, this reflects a major achievement by international community. However, there are still more than 800 million people living in extreme poverty across the globe.

In line with the global trends, many OIC member countries have achieved the target of halving the share of people living in extreme poverty. Notably, Guinea reduced the total number of poor by 57.0 percentage points (pp), the highest rate observed among the 32 OIC countries for which data are available. It was followed by Pakistan (50.7 pp), Tajikistan (49.6 pp), Kyrgyzstan (41.4 pp) and Indonesia (41.4 pp). Seven OIC member countries almost eradicated extreme poverty, namely Azerbaijan (0%), Kazakhstan (0.04%), Iran (0.08%), Jordan (0.13%), Turkey (0.26%), Malaysia (0.28%) and Palestine (0.3%), which recorded a rate below 0.3% (Figure 2.1). On the other hand, poverty rates in some OIC countries have increased during this period, Guinea-Bissau experiencing the largest increment with 24.1 pp, followed by Cote d'Ivoire (7.4 pp), Benin (4.3) and Morocco (0.3 pp).

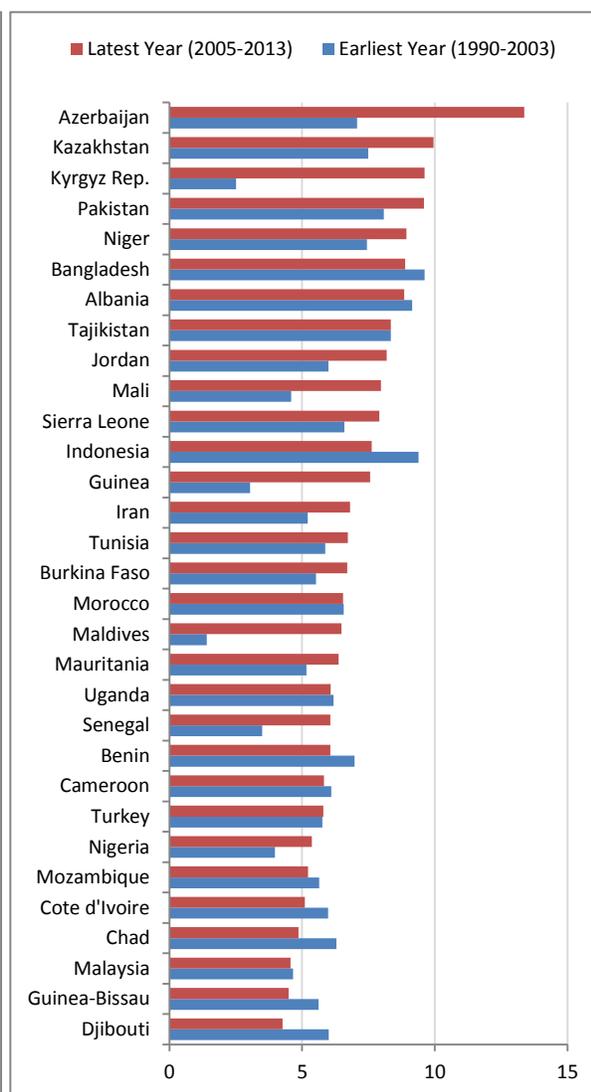
An improvement has also been observed in the distribution of income (Figure 2.2). According to the latest statistics, the share of income held by the poorest households increased in 18 OIC countries among the 31 OIC countries for which data are available. The highest increases are observed in Kyrgyzstan (7.1 pp), Azerbaijan (6.3 pp), Maldives (5.1 pp), Guinea (4.5 pp) and Mali (3.4 pp). With a 13.4% share of income held by the bottom 20%, Azerbaijan presents a better distribution of income among the OIC countries. Other OIC countries have an income share of poorest households between 4% and 10%.

Figure 2.1: Proportion of Population Living on less than \$1.90 (2011 PPP) a Day



Source: World Bank, WDI Database.

Figure 2.2: Income Share Held by Lowest 20%

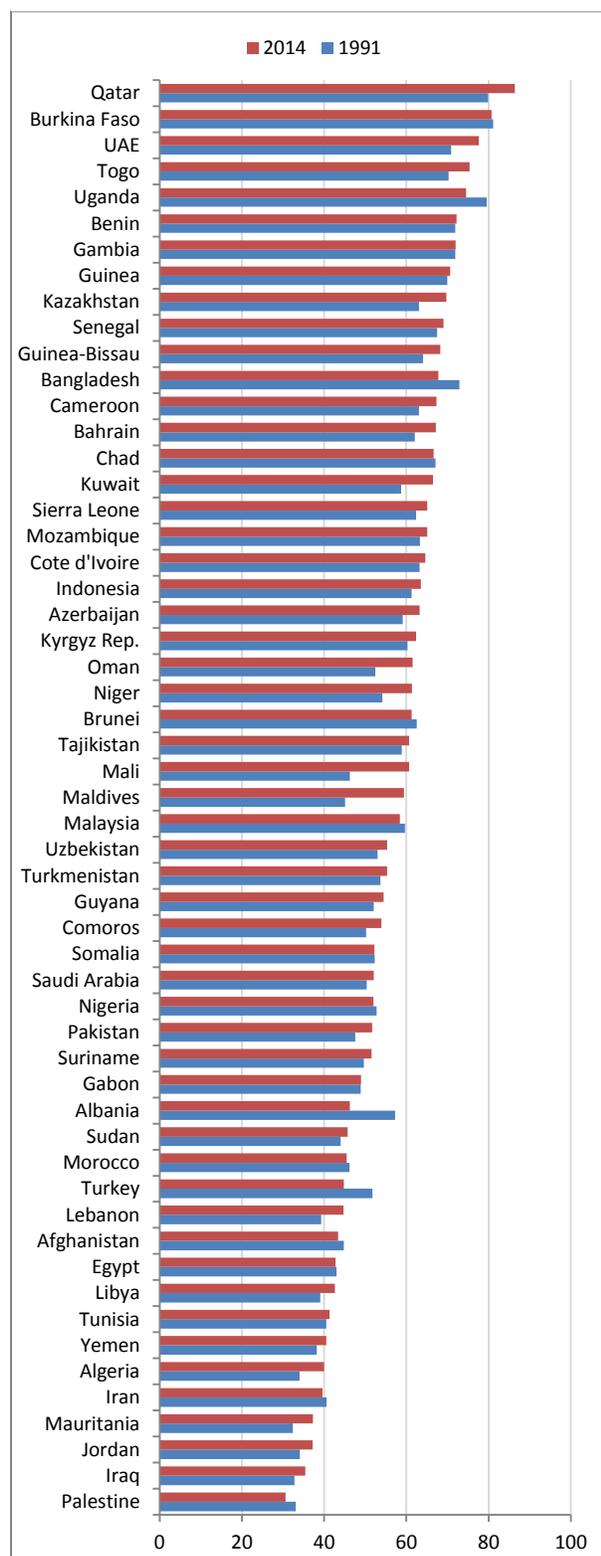


Source: World Bank, WDI Database.

Achieving full and productive employment

Employment opportunities appear to be slightly outpacing the growth of the labour force in the OIC region. As depicted in Figure 2.3, employment-to-population ratios have marginally increased in most OIC countries between earliest and latest years. As an indicator of the economy's ability to provide employment, the employment-to-population ratio is defined as the proportion of a country's working-age population that is employed. A high ratio means that a large proportion of a country's population is employed, while a low ratio means that a large share of the population is not involved directly in market-related activities, because they are either unemployed or out of the labour force altogether. Overall, it is observed that the ratio in OIC countries increased narrowly from 55.0% in 1991 to 55.3% in 2014. At individual country level, 40 OIC countries recorded an increase in employment to population ratio. While

Figure 2.3: Employment to population ratio, 15+, total (%)



Source: World Bank, WDI Database.

highest increase was observed in Mali with 14.4 percentage points increase, Albania witnessed 11 percentage points fall in the ratio during this period.

On the other hand, although the share of vulnerable employment in total employment (or the percentage of own-account and contributing or unpaid family workers in total employment) is falling in many OIC countries, total number of people working under vulnerable conditions has been increasing over time. Vulnerable employment reflects working under inappropriate conditions and persons in vulnerable employment are more likely to have limited or no access to social security or secure income. With the increasing shares of wage and salary workers and employers in OIC countries, share of vulnerable employment has continuously declined to reach 53.2% in 2014 compared to 63.8% in 2000 (SESRIC, 2015). However, the total number of people with vulnerable employment status is estimated to reach 326 million in 2015 in OIC region, which is the highest number recorded so far. This reflects the need for further efforts to reduce the total number of workers in informal working arrangements where incomes received are low and adequate social protection is deficient.

Reducing hunger

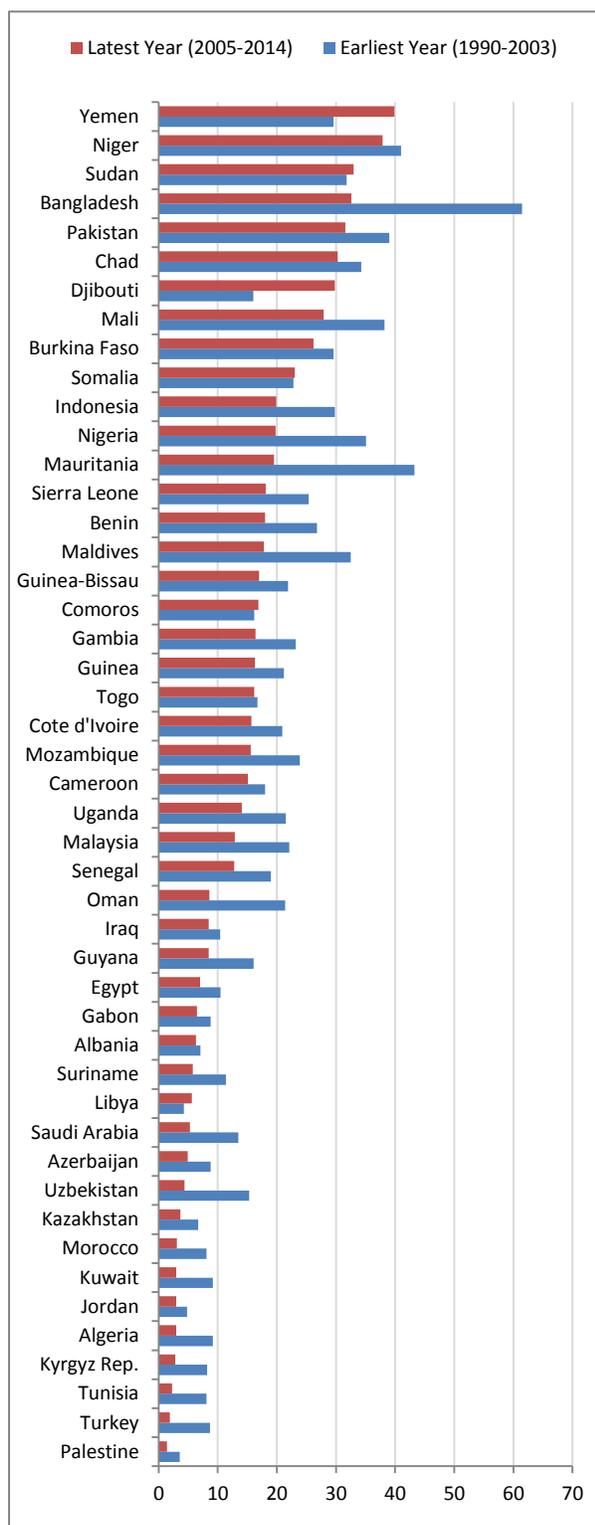
Out of 47 OIC countries for which data are available on the prevalence of underweight as a proxy for hunger, 41 OIC countries achieved to reduce the rate during the period under consideration. Most remarkable achievement is observed in Bangladesh with a 28.9 percentage points reduction in hunger. Mauritania (23.8 pp), Nigeria (15.3 pp) and Maldives (14.7) also recorded major improvement in prevalence of malnutrition. On the other hand, it is observed an increase in hunger in 6 OIC countries, with the sharpest increase recorded in Djibouti (13.8 pp), followed by Yemen (10.3 pp), Libya (1.3 pp), Sudan (1.2 pp), Comoros (0.7 pp), Somalia (0.2 pp), majority of which are conflict affected countries. In

addition to political instabilities and conflicts, volatile commodity prices, higher food and energy prices, natural disasters, and economic crises have affected the progress in food security and nutrition.

Data also reveals that total number of undernourished people in OIC countries have been decreasing since 1990. During the period between 1990 and 2015, it decreased from 30 million to 23 million. Accordingly, the share of undernourished population in OIC countries decreased from 19% to 11%. It should be noted that the real data is somewhat higher than these numbers, as data excludes the countries that have less than 5% undernourished people. There were 9 OIC countries that had less than 5% undernourished in 1990, but this number increased to 21 in 2015. Figure 2.4 shows the OIC countries that have the highest prevalence of undernourishment in different time periods. Instead of concentrating just in the sub-Saharan African countries, the prevalence of undernourishment appears to spread conflict affected regions in the Middle East and West Asia.

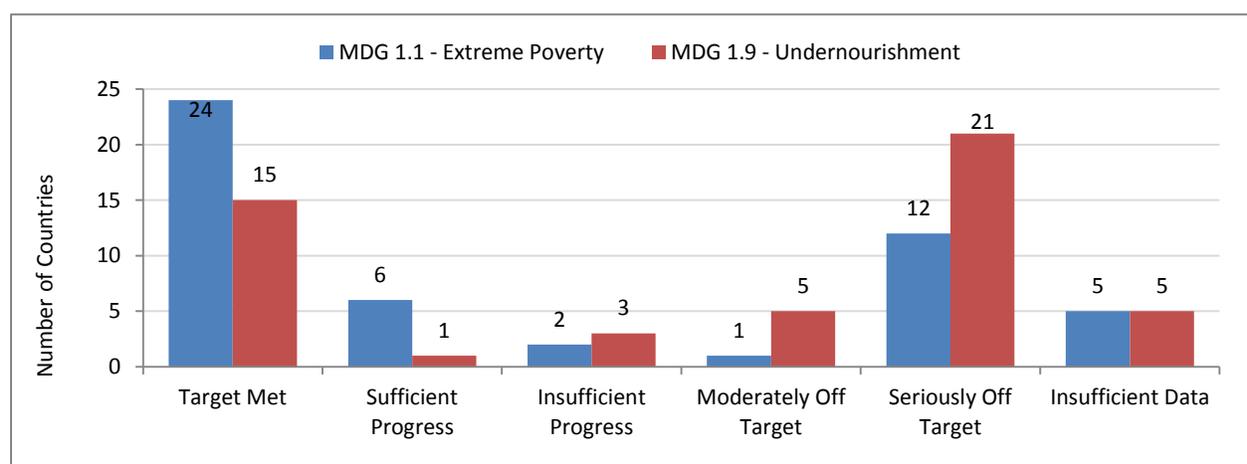
Finally, Figure 2.5 summarizes the number of OIC countries that are meeting or missing the MDG1 targets. While progress in achieving the target on extreme poverty is more advanced, the success in meeting the target on nourishment is less satisfactory. There are quite a number of OIC countries still seriously off the targets. This implies that although the target for extreme poverty has been achieved and hunger has been considerably reduced in many OIC countries, eradication of extreme poverty and hunger is far from being a reality. The eradication of poverty and hunger will continue to be part of the global development goals in the post-2015 era.

Figure 2.4: Prevalence of Underweight, weight for age (% of children under 5)



Source: World Bank, WDI Database.

Figure 2.5: MDG Progress Status in MDG 1



Source: World Bank, MDG Progress Status.

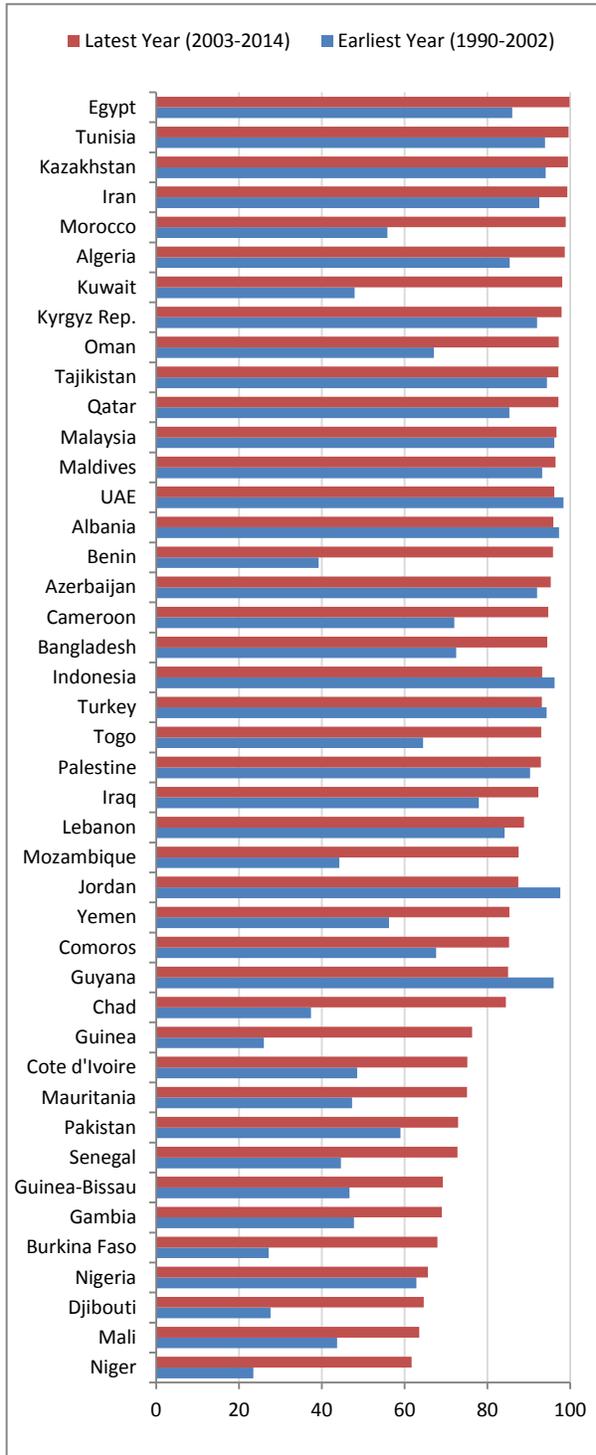
2.2 MDG2: Achieve universal primary education

The target for MDG2 is to ensure that by 2015, children everywhere will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling. It is critical to invest in people and human capital through providing a good quality education. Investment in education of people has typically wider benefits than any other investment made on physical capital in improving the standards of life. There is overwhelming evidence that education improves personal health, encourages stronger national identity and promotes peace and stability. Moreover, quality education generates benefits to the society that go beyond the gains secured by the individuals involved. The development literature has also drawn attention to the role of education in reducing inequalities that exist in many countries, particularly in developing societies with lower levels of income.

Average gross enrolment rates (GER) for primary school have increased all over the world during the period 2000-2014. This upward trend was particularly strong for the OIC countries as the average GER in the member countries has improved from 91.9% in 2000 to as high as 99.3% in 2014. Similarly, the average net enrolment rate (NER) in OIC countries has increased by 7.6 percentage points since 2000 and reached 82.0% in 2014 (SESRIC, 2016). Despite these improvements, this indicates that still around one-fifth of the children in OIC countries who are at their primary school age have not registered in primary schools.

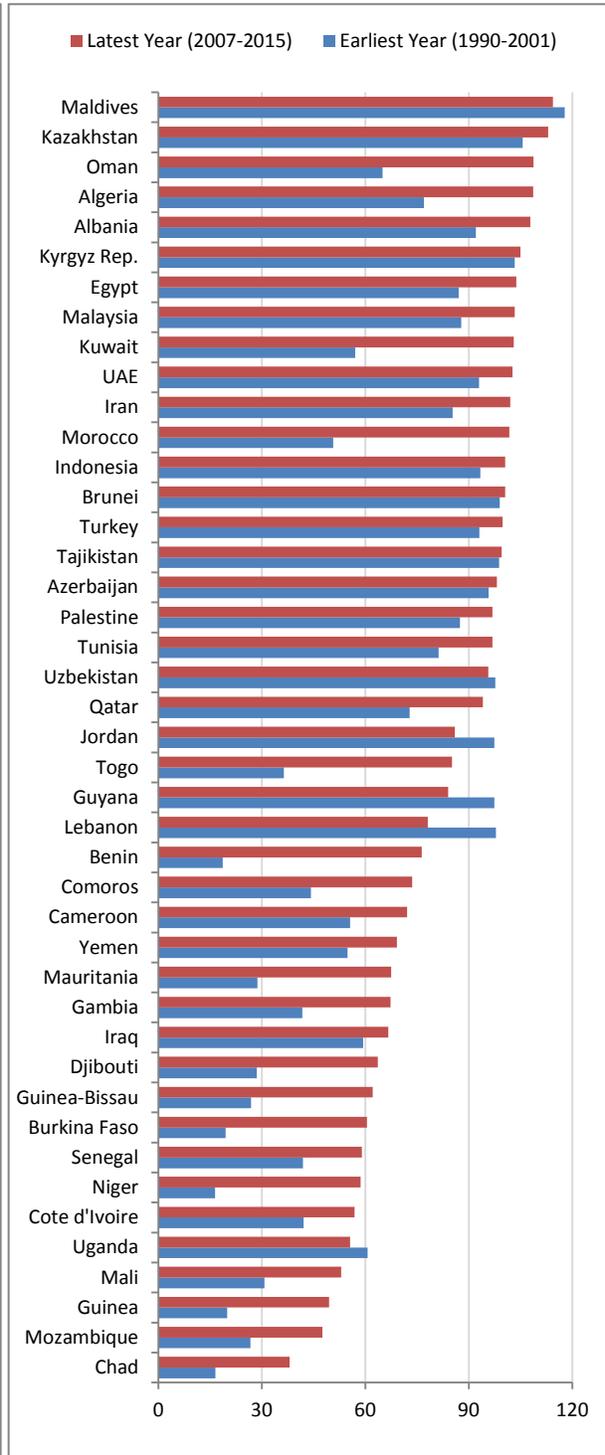
At the individual country level, 17 OIC countries out of 43 OIC countries with available data achieved an enrolment rate at primary level that is above 95% (Figure 2.6). Most remarkable achievement was made by Benin, which increased the rate from 39.2% in 1990 to 95.9% in 2014. Guinea, Kuwait, Chad and Morocco have also significantly increased the enrolment rates at primary level by 50.3, 50.1, 47.1 and 43.1 percentage points. Except Guyana, Jordan, Turkey, Indonesia, Albania and United Arab Emirates, remaining OIC countries have experienced an increase in NERs at primary level. Nonetheless, Niger, Mali, Djibouti, Nigeria, Burkina Faso, Gambia and Guinea-Bissau, NERs are still below 70%.

Figure 2.6: Adjusted Primary NER, both (%)



Source: World Bank, WDI Database.

Figure 2.7: Primary Completion Rate, total (% of relevant age group)



Source: World Bank, WDI Database.

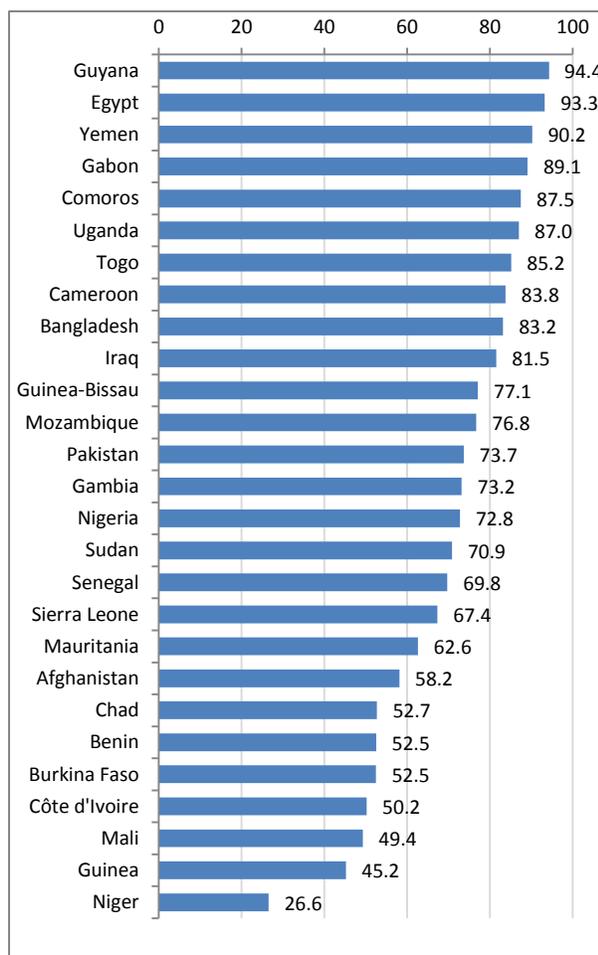
Considerable progress has been made in expanding primary education enrolment since 1990, particularly since the adoption of the MDGs in 2000. However, to achieve this MDG target, countries need to ensure

that primary school-age children also complete the full primary years. As shown in Figure 2.7, completion rate is above 95% in 20 OIC countries. Chad (38.1%), Mozambique (47.6%) and Guinea (49.5%) have the lowest completion rates, although they raised the ratio around 20-30 percentage points since 1990.

In addition to ensuring participation and completion at primary level, it is also important to ensure that students get a quality education. Youth literacy (among 15–24-year-olds) is an indicator of the quality and effectiveness of the primary educational system. The youth literacy rate indicates how well basic reading and writing skills acquired in primary school have prepared the young people to join the workforce or pursue higher education. As shown in Figure 2.8, OIC countries depict a quite diverse picture. Member countries in Sub-Saharan Africa need particular attention to invest in the quality of education in order to improve learning outcomes.

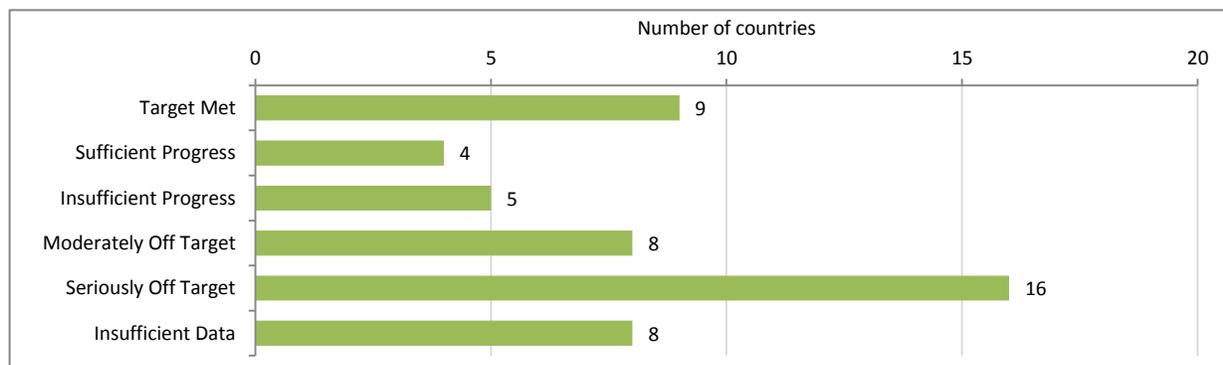
Overall, achievements of OIC countries in MDG2 are less satisfactory (Figure 2.9). Most countries are off the target in achieving universal primary education. While greater attention will be paid to quality education during the post-2015 development process, there are still needs for further investments in improving the outcomes for completion of primary education in many OIC countries.

Figure 2.8: Youth literacy rate, population 15-24 years, both sexes (%)



Source: World Bank, WDI Database.

Figure 2.9: Progress on Achieving MDG2 (target 2.1: primary completion)



Source: World Bank, MDG Progress Status.

2.3 MDG3: Promote gender equality and empower women

Gender equality in education

The Gender Parity Index (GPI) measures progress towards gender parity in education participation and/or learning opportunities available for girls in relation to those available to boys. In other words, a GPI score less than 1 implies a disparity in favour of boys. A GPI score exceeding 1 shows the existence of inequality in favour of girls. A GPI score of 1 is the point where the exact equality persists between male and female students.¹ Driven by national and international efforts gender disparity has narrowed down substantially at the global level (UN, 2015). Similarly some OIC countries achieved the target by eliminating gender disparity at all levels of education.

More specifically, at the primary school level the world average went up from 0.88 in 1990 to 0.97 in 2014. In the same period, 27 OIC countries achieved to reach the target value (the range of 0.97 and 1.03) (Table 2.1). Among 6 OIC sub-regions², MENA and SSA are the only two regions, which have a number of OIC countries that could not reach the target (i.e. off-track). As of 2014, the average GPI score of OIC countries ranged between 0.55 (Somalia) and 1.05 (Bangladesh) (Figure 2.10). At the secondary school level, the world average also reached 0.97 as of 2014 likewise at the primary school level. However, the number of OIC countries who reached the target at the secondary school level was only 15 that is a considerably lower number when compared with the primary school level. All OIC countries in the SSA region are found to be off-track where 12 OIC countries out of 19 in the MENA region are identified to be off-track. As of 2014, at the secondary school level, the average GPI score of OIC countries changed between 0.45 (Chad) and 1.30 (Suriname) (Figure 2.10). When it comes to the tertiary school enrollment, the GPI score of OIC countries are found to be the most problematic. 53 OIC countries out of 54, with available data, are classified to be off-track (Table 2.1). The largest gender disparities in the enrolment ratios existed at the tertiary education level among OIC countries, which ranged between 0.20 (Chad) and 6.32 (Qatar) as of 2014 (Figure 2.10). Between 1990 and 2014, the world average GPI score at the tertiary level climbed from 0.90 to 1.10 that gender equality could not be eliminated at the global level as well.

Table 2.1: School Gross Enrollment GPI, 1990 vs 2014*

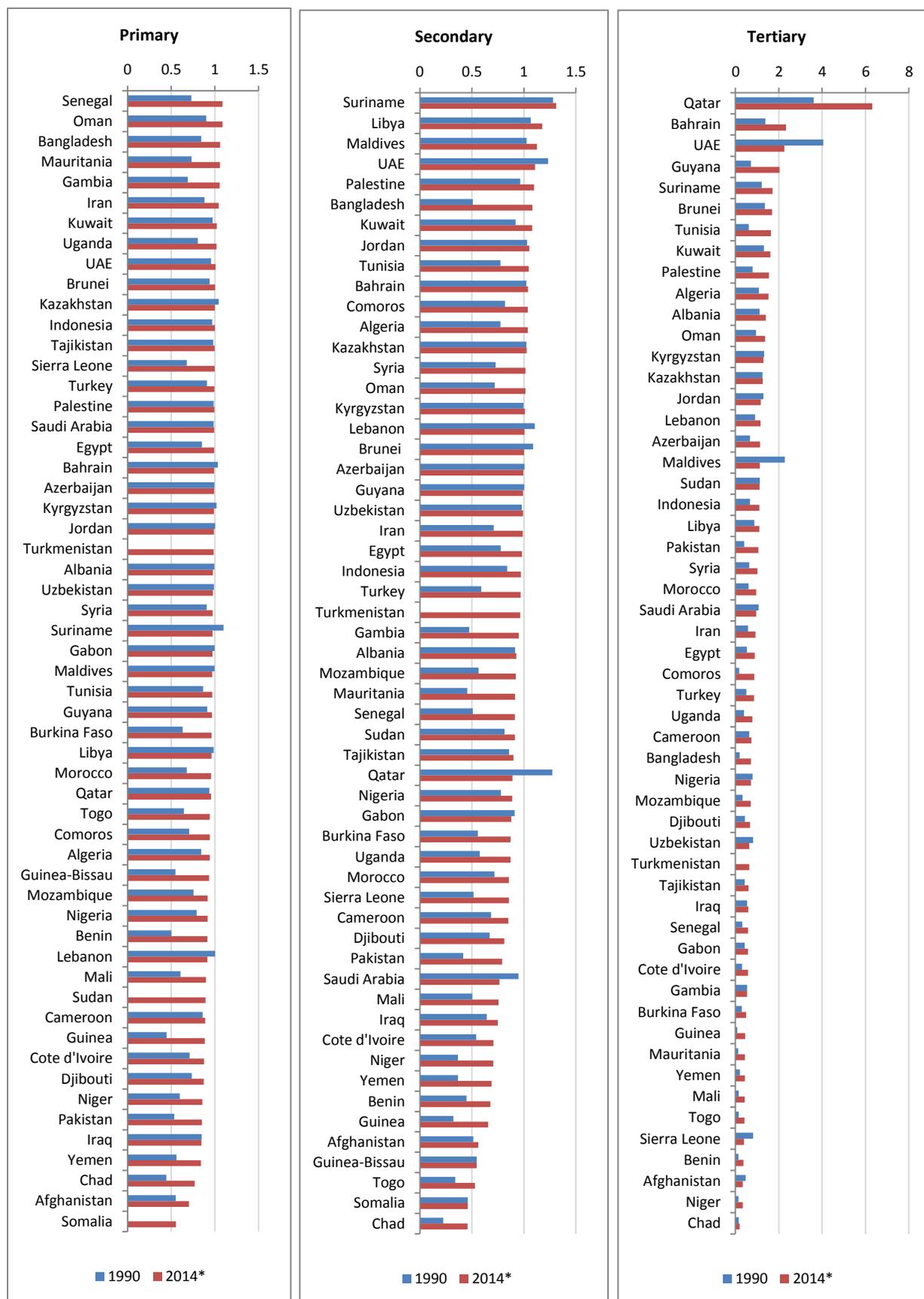
Target	Achieved <i>GPI between 0.97 and 1.03</i>	Off-Track <i>GPI less than 0.97 or greater than 1.03</i>
Primary	27	29
Secondary	15	41
Tertiary	1	53

*Source: World Bank, MDG Database. * Or latest year available.*

¹ However, the UN Millennium Development Goals Report (2015) accepted a GPI score in the range of 0.97 and 1.03 in 2015 rather than exact "1" as an achievement.

² Based on the World Bank regional classification: East Asia & Pacific (EAP), Europe & Central Asia (ECA), Latin America and Caribbean (LAC), Middle East & North Africa (MENA), South Asia (SA), Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA).

Figure 2.10: GPI Score for Gross Enrollment



Source: World Bank, MDG Database. * Or latest year available

Share of Women in Wage Employment in the Non-Agricultural Sector

Equal access to decent paid work, with earnings that support an adequate standard of living and that are compatible with women's and men's shared responsibility for unpaid care work is essential for gender equality and women's empowerment (UNDP, 2015). Despite significant progress in the world, notable disparities remain between women and men in the labor market (UN, 2015).

Women and men work in three major economic sectors: agriculture, industry and services. Both for women and men, the share of agriculture and services (i.e. non-agricultural) sectors in employment continues to grow where the agriculture sector has a declining share in employment all over the world over time. This reflects the movement of the labor force (both men and women) from agriculture towards non-agricultural sectors.

During the last two decades, there is a positive trend in women's share of wage employment in OIC countries. The average share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector has increased, on average, almost 6 per cent in OIC countries. Nonetheless, according to the most recent year's available data, the OIC average is found to be around 26.5 per cent that is lagging behind the world average of 41 per cent (a projected value for 2014-2015). These figures imply that in OIC countries, the majority of women still remained in low-skilled, low-paid jobs, often in the urban, informal and agricultural sectors that do not allow them to get rid of poverty and force them to live at the subsistence level.

In terms of achieving the MDG sub-target on the wage employment, 31 OIC countries recorded an increase in their share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector, where these OIC countries accepted to be "achievers". In 2 OIC countries this share remained at the same level, where these countries are classified to be on-track. In 12 OIC countries, the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector regressed, where these OIC countries are identified to be off-track (Table 2.2). As of 2013, OIC countries in the Central Asia are the ones with the highest level of share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector namely, Kazakhstan (50.6%) followed by Azerbaijan (42.6%) (Figure 2.11).

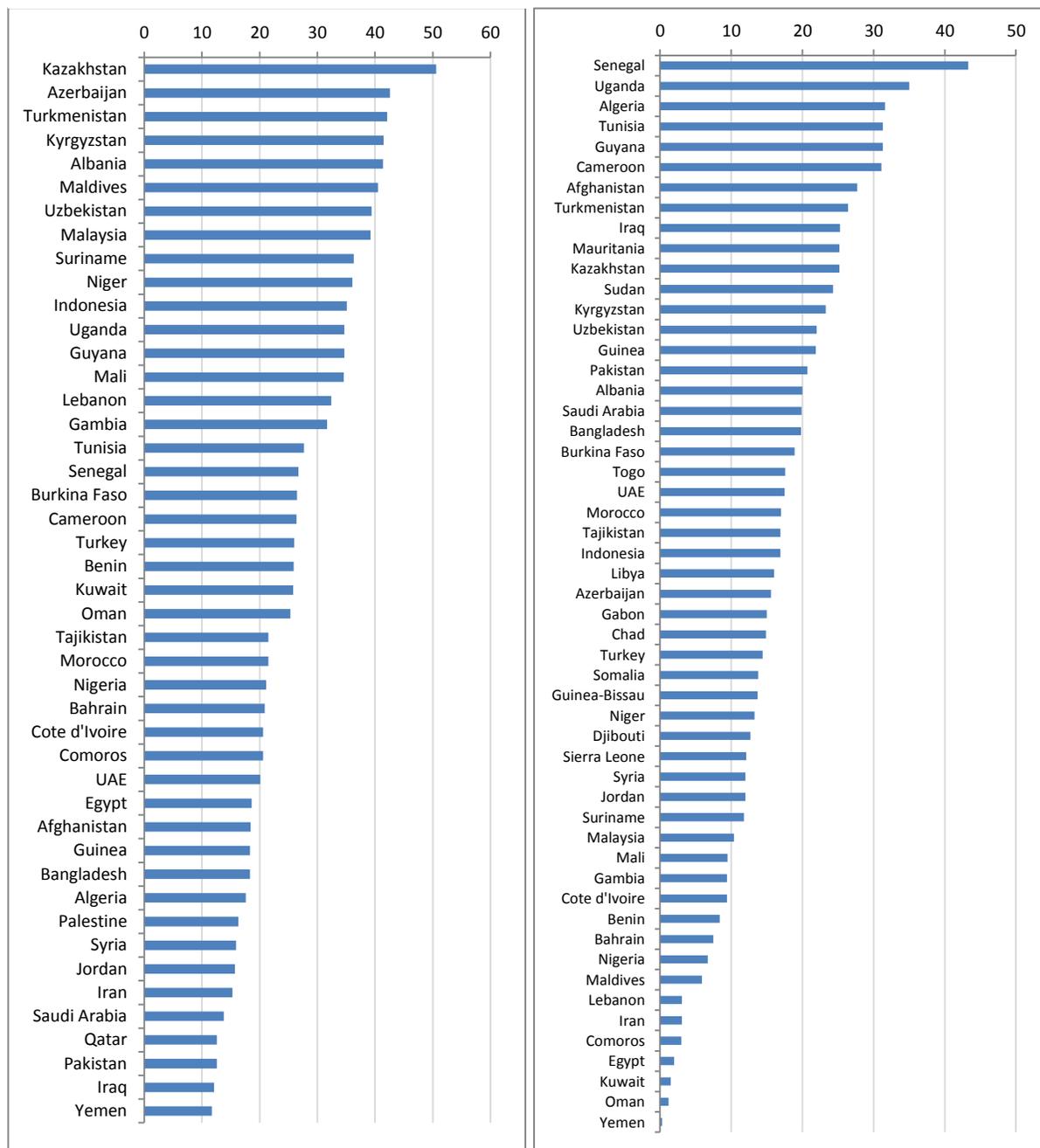
Seats Held by Women in National Parliaments

Equal access of men and women to power, decision-making and leadership at all levels is a necessary precondition for the proper functioning of democracy. As women are in every walk of life, their contribution to the conduct of public affairs is essential to use their resources and potential to determine political and development priorities that benefit societies and the global community. To this end, women's suffrage is one of the important steps towards taking part in the decision making processes of a nation.

Since the MDGs were adopted, progress in women's representation in national parliaments has been significant (UN, 2015). Globally, the proportion of women in parliaments increased from 12.7 per cent in 1990 to 21.2 per cent in 2014 (UN, 2015). In OIC countries, however, women still remained underrepresented at the national parliaments. Women hold around 16.5 per cent of the seats in national parliaments in OIC countries in 2014, which is less than the world average.

In terms of reaching the sub-target of MDG Goal 3 on representation of women in national parliaments, between 1990 and 2014, 46 OIC countries with data recorded an increase in their share of seats held by women in national parliaments. These member countries are classified as “achievers”. However, 9 OIC countries witnessed a decrease in this share between 1990 and 2014 that are identified as off-track (Table 2.2). All OIC countries in the SA region and 7 OIC countries in the ECA region were found to be achievers. Only 2 OIC member countries in the SSA region could not achieve this sub-target under Goal 3.

Figure 2.11: Women Share in Wage Employment in Non-Agricultural Sector (2013*) and Seats in Parliament (RHS, 2014*)



Source: World Bank, MDG Database. * Or latest year available

As of 2014, in the OIC group, Senegal reached the highest share of women representation in its parliament where 43.3 % of all seats held by women. In Comoros, Iran and Egypt, this share was found to be around 3% representing about 40 percentage-point difference with the average share observed in the Senegal (Figure 2.11). If the actual levels of women representation in national parliaments are taken into account, it becomes evident that still many OIC countries need to exert more efforts to record meaningful increase in the number women representatives.

Table 2.2: Gender Parity in Employment in Non-Agricultural Sector and Seats in Parliament

Target	Achieved	On-track	Off-track	No data
Wage employment in non-agricultural sector	31	2	12	12
Seats held in national parliaments	46	..	9	2

Source: World Bank, MDG Database.

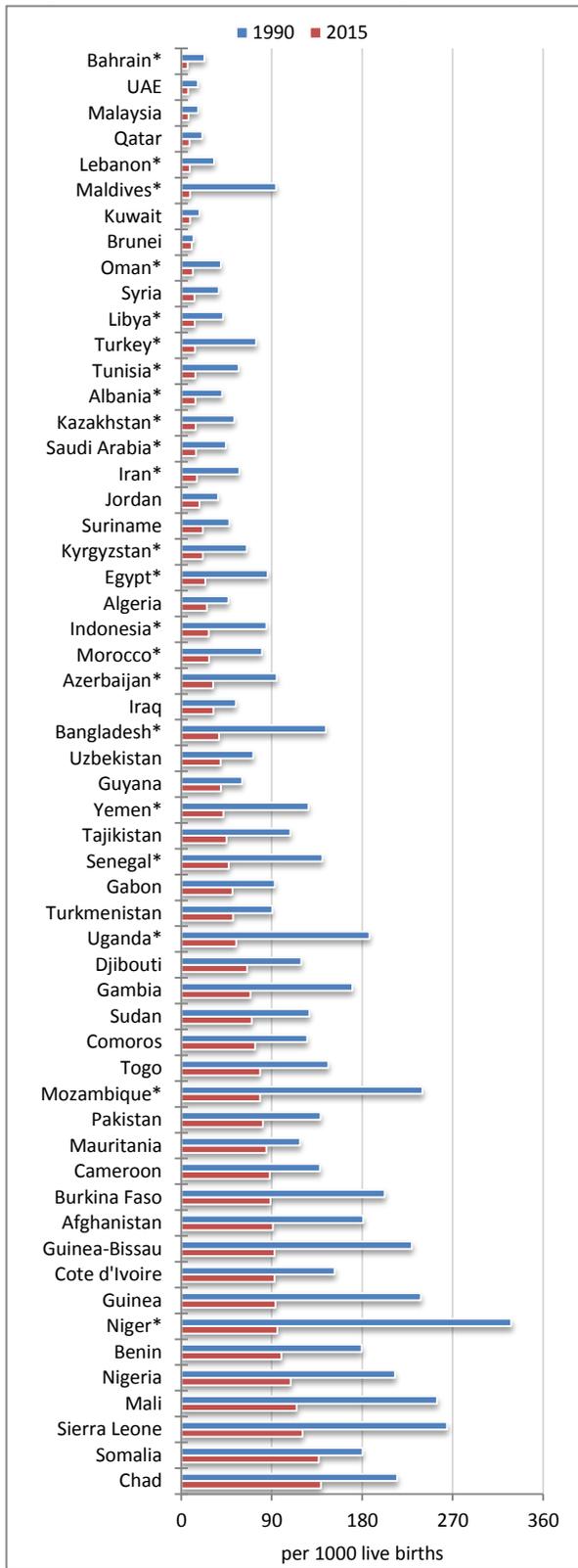
2.4 MDG4: Reduce child mortality

OIC member countries as a group have witnessed substantial decline in preventable child mortality over the past quarter of a century. According to the latest estimates, under five child mortality rate (U5MR) has fallen by more than half (52%), dropping from 126 to 60 deaths per 1,000 live births between 1990 and 2015. Meanwhile, total number of under-five child deaths dropped from 4.5 million in 1990 to 2.8 million in 2015. At the national level, many OIC countries have made great strides against the child mortality since 1990. During 1990-2015, 37 OIC countries registered over 50% reduction in U5MR whereas it ranged between 41 to 49% for 12 countries (Figure 2.12). The most remarkable decline was recorded by the Maldives (91%), Turkey (82%) and Tunisia (75%). Furthermore, seven OIC countries registered less than 10 under-five child deaths per 1000 live births in 2015. Among these countries, Bahrain recorded the lowest U5MR (6.2) followed by United Arab Emirates (6.8) and Malaysia (7). On the opposite side of the scale, despite recording an overall declining trend since 1990, U5MR remained above the 100 mark in five OIC countries located in the SSA region. Among these countries the highest U5MR was recorded in Chad (139) and Somalia (137).

A declining trend can also be observed in case of infant mortality rate (IMR), dropping from 84 to 44 deaths per 1000 live births between 1990 and 2015. Nevertheless, drop in IMR (48%) remained slightly lesser than the U5MR. It's worth highlighting that first days of life are the most critical for the survival of a child. Around 40% of total under-five deaths in OIC countries were recorded during the first 28 days of life in 2015. At the national level, all 56 OIC members with data have recorded a declining IMR trend between 1990 and 2015 (Figure 2.13). Once again the highest drop was recorded by the Maldives (90%) followed by Turkey (79%) and Bahrain (75%). Overall, 32 member countries reported over 50% reductions in IMR whereas; decline was ranged between 40% to 46% for 15 countries. On the opposite side of the scale, despite recording an overall declining trend since 1990, IMR remained above 80 deaths in Sierra Leone (87), Chad (85) and Somalia (85).

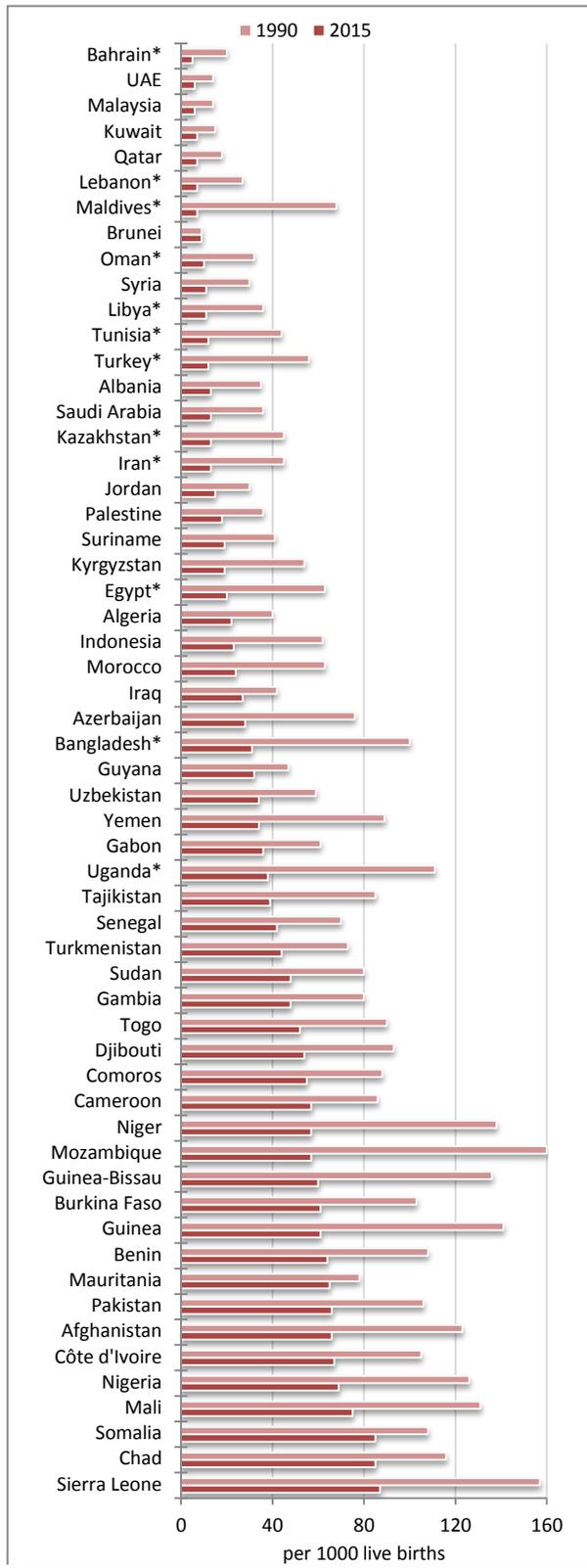
Despite the impressive performance over the years, decline in child mortality was insufficient to enable the OIC member countries as a group to achieve the targets of MDG4. As shown in Table 2.3, only 22 OIC member countries have achieved the target of two-third reduction in U5MR whereas 34 member countries are off-track. The situation remained comparatively worse in case of achieving the target on IMR reduction, as only 12 member countries were successful while 45 members have missed the target.

Figure 2.12: Under Five-Mortality Rate



Source: WHO, Data Repository. * Achieved MDG targets

Figure 2.13: Infant Mortality Rate



In general, OIC member countries classified as high and upper middle income countries have performed comparatively better and hence are more likely to achieve the relevant targets under the SDG 3 by the end of 2030. On the other hand, majority of low and lower middle income countries are off-track. At the regional level, OIC countries in the MENA region have performed better and accounted for over 45% of successful countries. On the other hand, from the SSA region which accounts for over one third (38%) of the total membership of the OIC, only four countries were successful to achieve the targets.

Table 2.3: Achievements on MDG 4 in OIC Member Countries

Targets	Achieved	Off-track
Two-third decrease in U5MR	22	34
Two-third decrease in IMR	12	45

Source: WHO, Data Repository.

2.5 MDG5: Improve maternal health

The OIC member countries have witnessed significant improvement in maternal health situation with maternal mortality rate (MMR) dropping from 534 to 327 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births between 1990 and 2015. This corresponds to an overall decrease of 39% against the MDG5 target of three quarters reduction until 2015. However, despite this progress, around 0.15 million women still die from preventable causes related to the pregnancy and childbirth in OIC countries. Maternal mortality remained highly concentrated in a handful of OIC countries. In 2015, around half (48.6%) of the OIC's total maternal deaths were reported only in three countries namely: Nigeria, Pakistan, and Indonesia. Among these high burden countries, Nigeria alone accounted for 38% of OIC total maternal deaths.

Efforts made to achieve MDG5 targets have actually paid off and MMR has declined across the OIC countries. According to the latest estimates, 23 OIC countries registered a drop of 50% in MMR whereas 15 OIC countries recorded 40% to 49% drop since 1990 (Figure 2.14). Among these countries, Maldives recorded the highest drop of 90% followed by Kazakhstan (85%), Turkey (84%), Lebanon (80%) and Iran (80%). Furthermore, 10 OIC countries registered less than 20 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births in 2015. The lowest MMR was recorded in Kuwait (4) followed by United Arab Emirates (6) and Libya (9). Contrary to the OIC wide positive trend, maternal health situation actually worsened in Guyana, Suriname, and Afghanistan with 34%, 22% and 16% increase in MMR respectively. Nevertheless, the highest MMR for 2015 was recorded in Sierra Leone (1360), Chad (856), and Nigeria (814).

Skilled health care and assistance at the time of delivery are critical for the health and very survival of both mother and baby. According to the latest estimates, 64% of deliveries in OIC countries were assisted by a doctor, nurse or midwife in 2010-2015. Coverage of skilled personnel attendance at the time of delivery has been significantly high in majority of OIC countries. During 2010-2015, health personnel assisted more than 90% of deliveries in 28 OIC countries (Figure 2.15). In contrast, less than 50% of total pregnant women received skilled health care during birth in 11 OIC countries. Sudan and Chad were ranked at the bottom of the scale with less than a quarter of total births attended by skilled health personnel.

Figure 2.14: Maternal Mortality Rate

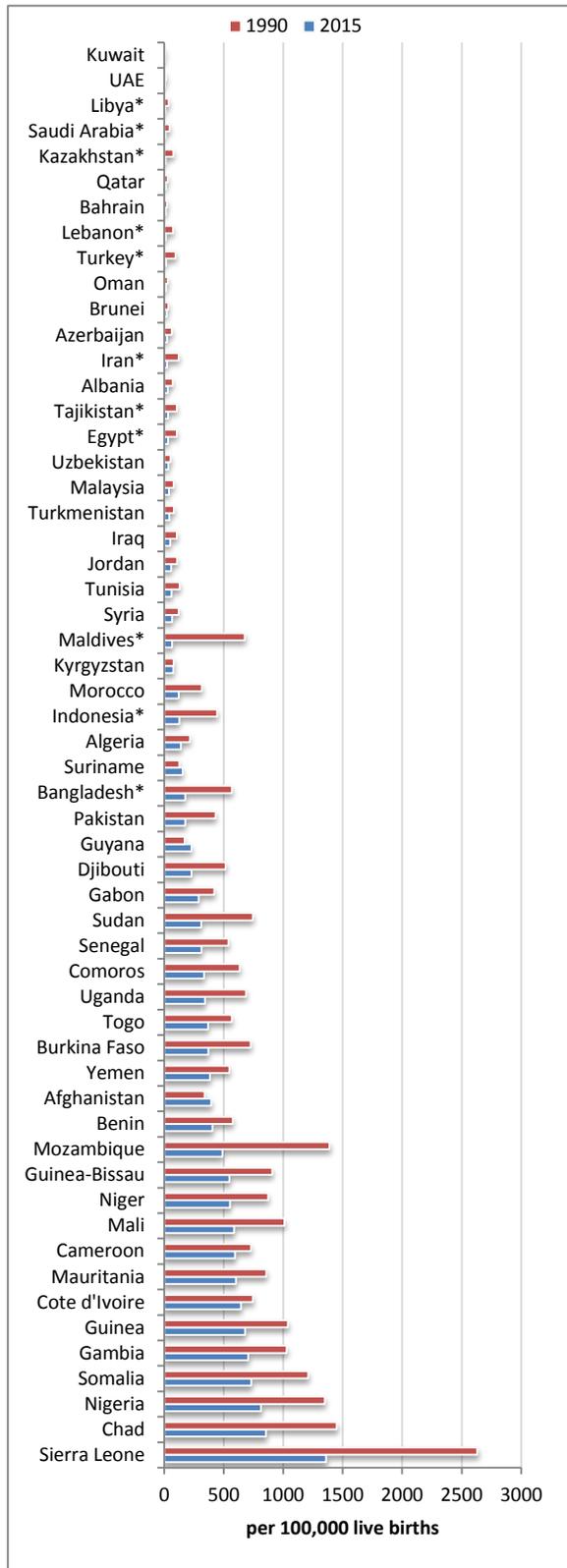
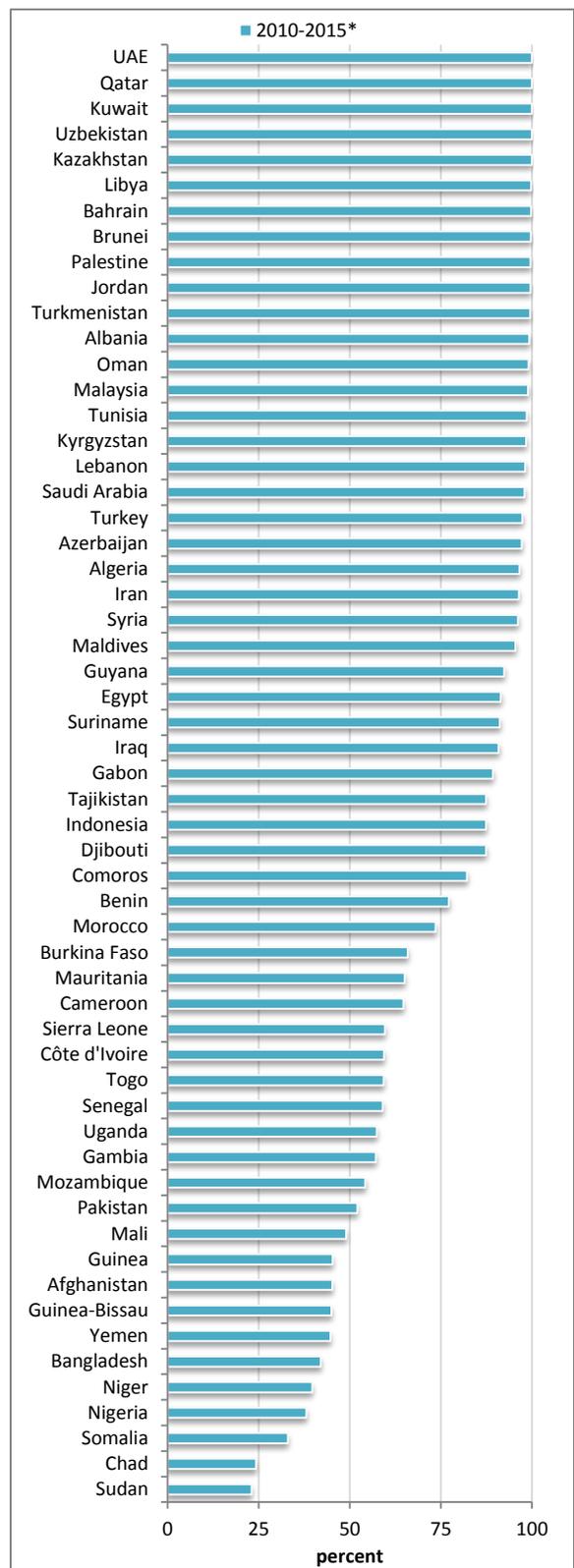


Figure 2.15: Skilled Attendance of Births



Source: WHO, Data Repository. * Achieved MDG targets

The overall assessment of OIC countries performance towards achieving the MDG5 targets reveals that despite significant improvement, majority of them could not achieve the required momentum. As summarized in Table 2.4, only 11 OIC member countries have achieved the target of three quarters reduction in MMR whereas 45 member countries are off-track. The situation remained comparatively well in case of achieving the target on universal access to maternal health services as 28 member countries recorded over 90% coverage for skilled birth attendance. With the exception of Indonesia, Tajikistan, Bangladesh and Egypt rest of low and lower middle income countries are characterized by very high incidence of maternal mortality and low coverage of critical health interventions.

Table 2.4: Achievements on MDG 5 in OIC Member Countries

Targets	Achieved	Off-track
Three quarters reduction in MMR	11	45
Skilled attendance of births	28	29

Source: WHO, Data Repository.

2.6 MDG6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases

Infectious diseases are caused by microorganisms, such as bacteria, viruses, parasites or fungi; the diseases can be spread, directly or indirectly, from one person to another. These type of diseases usually called as communicable and most of the time these diseases are preventable. Despite being preventable, each year these diseases cost millions of lives all around the world and affect the life quality of people severely especially in the developing world including OIC countries. In this respect, Goal 6 of MDGs set targets on combating with the selected major communicable diseases including HIV/AIDS, malaria and tuberculosis that are quite prevalent in many parts of the developing world.

In the OIC group, the share of communicable diseases (as a cause of mortality) decreased from 40.7% in 2000 to 33.7% in 2012 thanks to the efforts of OIC countries to cope with communicable diseases in cooperation with relevant international institutions (SESRIC, 2015a). However, at the OIC sub-regional level, particularly Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) OIC countries continue suffering the most from communicable diseases (including maternal, prenatal and nutrition conditions) where 61% of all death led by these diseases in 2012. It is therefore OIC countries in general and specifically the ones who are located in the SSA region need to exert special efforts to reduce mortalities from such diseases.

Prevalence of HIV/AIDS

The Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) targets the immune system and weakens people's surveillance and defence systems against infections and some types of cancer. As the virus destroys and impairs the function of immune cells, infected individuals gradually become immunodeficient. The most advanced stage of HIV infection is Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS), which can take from 2 to 15 years to develop depending on the individual. AIDS is defined by the development of certain cancers, infections, or other severe clinical manifestations.

Since the beginning of the epidemic, almost 78 million people have been infected with the HIV virus and about 39 million people have died of HIV. Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) remained the most severely affected region, with nearly one in every 20 adults living with HIV and accounting for nearly 71% of the people living with HIV worldwide. HIV can be transmitted via the exchange of a variety of body fluids from infected individuals, such as blood, breast milk, semen and vaginal secretions. For diagnosis, an HIV test is required check infection status by detecting the presence or absence of antibodies to HIV in the blood.

Since the 1990s, globally a significant progress has been achieved in combating with HIV that especially prevalence of new cases went down sharply. According to the UN (2015), new HIV cases declined by about 40% between 2000 and 2013, falling from an estimated 3.5 million new infections to 2.1 million. More than 75% of the new infections in 2013 occurred in 15 countries. SSA remains the most severely affected region by the HIV epidemic, with 1.5 million new infections in 2013. Of these, almost half occurred in only three countries: Nigeria, South Africa and Uganda. According to the latest available data, despite recording a decline in the speed of spread of epidemic, the prevalence of HIV (% of population) in the SSA region went up from 2.4% in 1990 to 4.5% in 2014.³

According to the prevalence rate of HIV/AIDS, 28 OIC countries are found to be off-track that could not reduce the rate. 12 OIC countries kept their existing prevalence rates at the same level that are identified to be on-track (Table 2.5). As of 2014, only 3 OIC countries (Mali, Uganda, and Burkina Faso) from the SSA region achieved to reduce the overall prevalence rate when compared their average values in 1990, where 18 OIC countries in the SSA region still struggle to reverse the positive trend seen in the prevalence rate. As of 2014, the highest prevalence of HIV/AIDS was recorded in Mozambique (10.6%) and Uganda (7.3%) in the OIC group (Figure 2.15).

As in any other disease, prevention is the most effective way of combating with the spread of HIV/AIDS. Increasing the use of condom and improving proportion of population with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS were identified by the WHO as less costly and effective ways of prevention methods of HIV/AIDS. According to UN (2015), since 2000 there has been a moderate progress in HIV prevention efforts especially for young people aged 15 to 24. Risky sexual behavior and insufficient knowledge about HIV remain at high levels among youth in many countries particularly in the Sub-Saharan Africa region that spread of HIV/AIDS could not be stopped or reduced considerably.

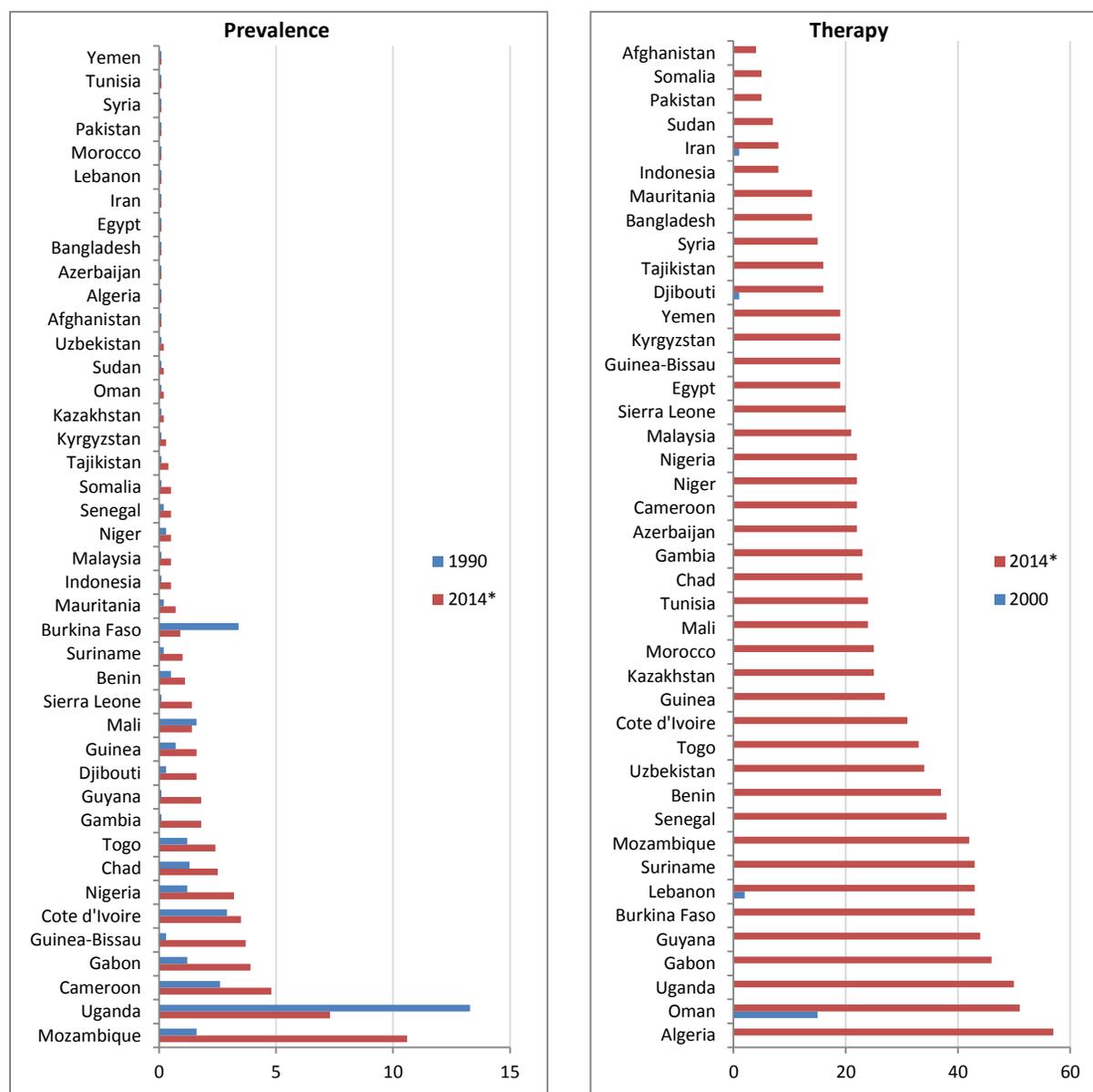
Access to treatment for HIV/AIDS

The antiretroviral therapy (ART) is one of the most effective ways of AIDS prevention and treatment. According to the WHO, antiretroviral drugs allow people with HIV to live for many years before developing symptoms of AIDS. Therefore, antiretroviral therapy coverage rate is an important indicator to monitor the progress in this domain. According to the UN (2015), in 2014 around 13.6 million people living with HIV were ART globally, an immense increase from just 800,000 in 2003. The ART averted 7.6 million deaths between 1995 and 2013. According to the available data, 42 OIC witnessed increase in the ART coverage (% of people living with HIV) (Table 6.2).

³ Thanks to development in treatment methods, on average, a patient with HIV/AIDS can survive longer in 2014 when compared to 1990. This is one of the reasons to see an increase in the share of people with HIV in total population.

As of 2014, the highest antiretroviral therapy coverage rates were recorded in Algeria (57%) followed by Oman (51%), and Uganda (50%) (Figure 2.15).

Figure 2.15: Incidence of HIV and Antiretroviral Therapy Coverage



Source: World Bank, MDG Database.

Table 2.5: Achievements on MDG 6 Targets on HIV in OIC Member Countries

Targets	Achieved	On-track	Off-track	No data
Prevalence of HIV/AIDS	3	12	28	14
Antiretroviral therapy coverage	42		0	15

Source: World Bank, MDG Database. Note: Achieved: Reduction or elimination; On-track: Same Level; Off-track: An increase in cases reported.

Incidence of malaria

Malaria is a life-threatening disease caused by parasites that are transmitted to people through the bites of infected mosquitoes. In 2013, malaria caused an estimated 584,000 deaths mostly among African children. Increased malaria prevention and control measures are dramatically reducing the malaria burden in many places (SESRIC, 2015).

Despite efforts of national governments and international organizations, the number of malaria cases reported in the world has increased from 58.1 million in 1990 to 77.9 million in 2014. OIC countries also followed a positive pattern in terms of number of malaria cases reported where the total cases jumped from 14.2 million in 1990 to 39.1 million in 2014. This implies a failure in terms of combating against malaria. However, when individual OIC countries are considered, it became evident that 34 OIC countries achieved to reduce the number of total cases (i.e. on-track) whereas 11 OIC countries recoded an increase in total numbers (i.e. off-track). In particular, seven OIC countries in the SSA region are found to be off-track. Nigeria was the leading country in terms of reported malaria cases among OIC countries with a total of 7.8 million cases in 2014 (Figure 2.16).

Coverage of insecticide-treated bed nets and antimalarial drugs

The use of insecticide-treated bed nets and antimalarial drugs are very effective to combat with malaria especially among children. 25 OIC countries out of data available 26 OIC countries achieved to improve the use of insecticide-treated bed nets for population under-5 over the period 2000-2014 (Table 2.6). In particular, all OIC countries in the SSA region achieved to see an increase in this share. Among data available OIC countries, Guinea-Bissau had the highest use of insecticide-treated bed nets with a rate of 80.6% in 2014. On the other hand, in the same period, 19 OIC countries out of 25 data available OIC countries could not increase the share of children (with fever) receiving antimalarial drugs. In particular, 16 OIC countries in the SSA region could record any increase, which are identified as off-track (Table 2.6). Among data available OIC countries in 2014, 65% of children in Sudan were able to receive antimalarial drugs whereas in Indonesia only 1.2% children could reach these drugs in the same year.

Table 2.6: Achievements on MDG 6 Targets on Malaria in OIC Member Countries

Targets	Achieved	Off-track	No data
Cases Reported	34	11	12
Use of insecticide-treated bed nets	25	1	31
Children with fever receiving antimalarial drugs	6	19	32

Source: World Bank, MDG Database. Note: Achieved: Reduction or elimination; Off-track: An increase in cases reported.

Tuberculosis

Tuberculosis (TB) is an infectious bacterial disease caused by mycobacterium tuberculosis, which most commonly affects the lungs. It is transmitted from person to person via droplets from the throat and lungs of people with the active respiratory disease. TB is the second only to HIV/AIDS as the deadliest killer worldwide due to a single infectious agent. In 2013, about 1.5 million people died from the disease. Over 95% of TB deaths occur in low- and middle-income countries.

Tuberculosis is treatable with a six-month course of antibiotics. The estimated number of people falling ill with TB each year is declining, although very slowly. According to the WHO estimations, the incidence of tuberculosis (per 100,000 people) declined from 161 in 1990 to 133 in 2014 that is in line with MDG target 6C. OIC countries also followed a similar negative trend. Between 1990 and 2014, 37 OIC countries achieved to record a decrease in the incidence of tuberculosis, where 16 OIC countries saw an increase. However, 4 OIC countries kept their incidence rate at the same level. OIC countries in the MENA and SSA regions particularly performed well. 16 OIC countries in the MENA region were identified as “achievers” where 11 OIC countries in the SSA region recorded a decrease in the incidence rate, and therefore listed among “achievers” (Table 2.7). Among OIC countries, Djibouti had the highest incidence of tuberculosis (per 100,000 people) with a rate of 619 in 2014. On the other hand, in the United Arab Emirates, the incidence rate was as low as 1.6 (386 times lower than the average of Djibouti) (Figure 2.17).

The worldwide TB death rate also decreased from 29 in 1990 to 16 in 2014 (per 100,000 people). 44 OIC countries also achieved to see a decrease in the death rate stemming from tuberculosis in the same period. On the contrary, the death rate in 11 OIC countries representing all six geographical sub-regions of the OIC group went up between 1990 and 2014 (Table 2.7). Among OIC countries, Djibouti had the highest death rate due to tuberculosis (per 100,000 people) with a rate of 120 in 2014. On the other hand, in the same year in Egypt the death rate stemming from tuberculosis was as low as 0.25 (Figure 2.17).

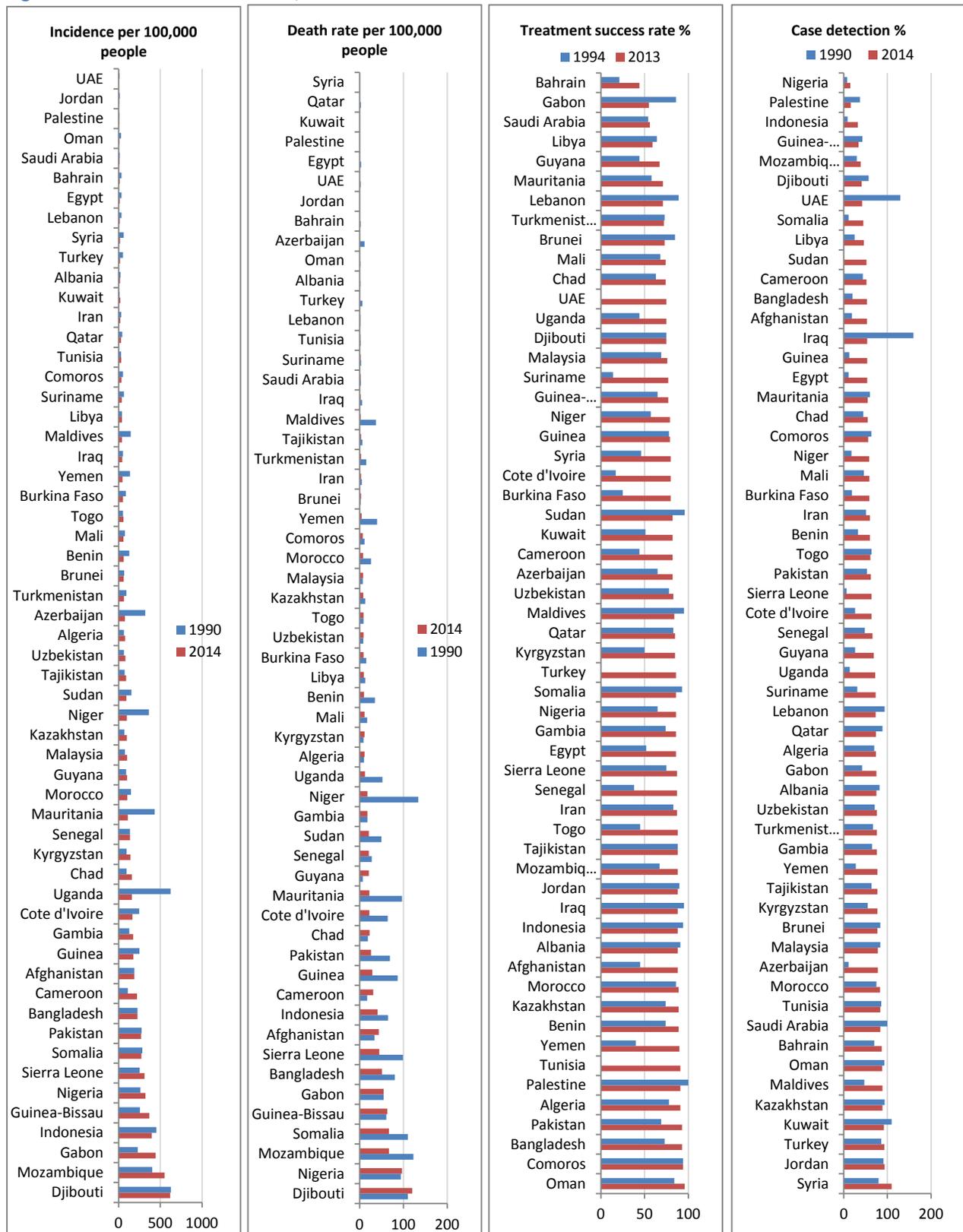
Apart from prevention efforts, the high success rate in tuberculosis detection and treatment was one of the reasons behind the reduction in death tolls. Between 1994 and 2013, the world treatment success rate increased from 75% to 86%. In the same period, the tuberculosis treatment success rate went up in 38 OIC countries. In 14 OIC countries, the success rate saw a decrease (off-track) and 5 OIC countries kept their success rates at the same level (on-track) (Table 2.7). In 2013, Oman was the OIC country with the highest rate of treatment rate corresponding to 96% (Figure 2.17). Global tuberculosis detection rate increased from 44% to 63% between 1990 and 2014 that was an impressive of 19 percentage-point increase. In the same period, the vast majority of OIC countries (40 OIC countries) successfully increased their tuberculosis detection rates. However, in 17 OIC countries the detection rates were found to be regressed in the same period. In particular, in nine OIC countries from MENA region the detection rates went down between 1990 and 2014 (Table 2.7). Among OIC countries, as of 2014, Nigeria and Palestine were two OIC countries with the lowest tuberculosis case detection rates (Figure 2.17).

Table 2.7: Achievements on MDG 6 Targets on Tuberculosis in OIC Member Countries

Targets	Achieved	On-track	Off-track	No data
Incidence of tuberculosis	37	4	16	14
Tuberculosis death rate	44	2	11	
Tuberculosis treatment success rate	38	5	14	
Tuberculosis case detection rate	40		17	

Source: World Bank, MDG Database. **Note:** Achieved: Reduction or elimination; On-track: Same level; Off-track: An increase in cases reported.

Figure 2.17: Tuberculosis Incidence, Prevention and Control



Source: World Bank, MDG Database.

2.7 MDG7: Ensure environmental sustainability

The MDG 7 aimed to foster sustainable development, with its focus on the organization of finite resources critical to the sustained life and future of countries and societies. This goal was not limited to the environment but rather extend to energy, health, and development planning. This was particularly relevant to OIC member countries undergoing development or with potential for development, in that MDG7 seeks to mitigate the harmful effects of industrialization on both society and the environment.

This is perhaps all the more relevant, given that the absence of environmental security poses a threat to development, agriculture, and raises issues of concern regarding water scarcity, public health and dwindling food stocks. OIC member countries are specifically vulnerable to extreme weather change, rise in sea levels, pest intensification, and or potential ecological cascade effects due to low resiliency of infrastructure, the irreversible, permanent nature of ecological and environmental catastrophes and the relative absence of guiding principles of environmental sustainability in national development strategies.

Forest area

Nearly 30% of the world land area is forested, with a minimum of 1.6 billion people reliant on forests for sustenance. More critically, forests are directly responsible for preserving vital fauna and flora, air purification, and nearly three-fourths of fresh water collection. This is particularly relevant given that the OIC world share in precipitation in depth is 22.6%.

Figure 2.18 reflects the share of forest area as a percentage of total area per year. The OIC member countries have shown a slow but steady decline, when compared to the non-OIC developing countries with maintained forest area ratios, or develop countries with growth of forest areas. The practice of deforestation to clear land for agricultural purpose and logging however, poses risks to OIC countries, particularly given that the amount of carbon released into the atmosphere through such practices. From 1990 to 2015, OIC member countries lost a total of 702,457 square kilometers of forest area, accounting for nearly 53% of total forest area lost throughout the world during the defined period. This a by-product of timber exploitation in light of

Figure 2.18: Forest Area Share (%) 1990 vs 2015



Source: UN SD & World Bank, WDI Database.

declining oil markets, population expansion, necessitating slash-and-burn methods for increased agricultural space to meet food demand or for the growth of profitable palm oil plantations in the case of Indonesia. Taken as a net consideration, 25 OIC member countries experienced reductions in their forest areas, foremost among them Indonesia, Uganda, Benin, Cameroon, Nigeria and Togo. With respect to the specific MDG 7 target, a total of 27 member countries met the trend reversal target while 30 are off track (Table 2.8).

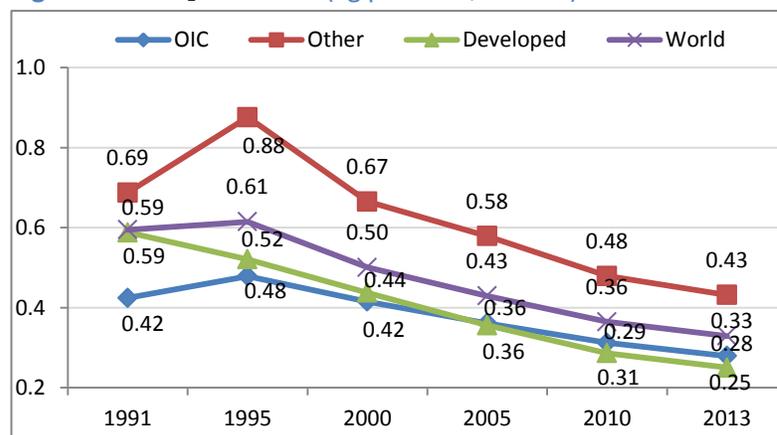
Carbon dioxide emissions

With increased greenhouse gas emission, world temperatures are expected to continue in their rise, with grave implications for OIC member country states given their geographical predominance in temperate and arid regions, and close proximity to rivers and oceans. Rises in temperature as a result of Carbon Dioxide emissions threaten permanent consequences for the continued sustainability of OIC member states, and the world at large.

Impacts may include extreme weather, droughts, rising sea levels, and damaged food chains to name a few. Global average surface temperatures have increased at double their usual rate over the last 50 years, going from 0.6 to 0.9 degrees Celsius from 1906 to 2005. Land surface air temperatures also show clear signs of nearly doubling over the last century, and are corroborated by multiple independent research initiatives. This results in increased heat waves, droughts and the like. Meanwhile, ocean temperatures also exhibit near doubling over the last century, which correlates clearly with melting polar ice, thereby raising water levels. This would be catastrophic to a large group of OIC member countries given the reliance on river irrigation, and close proximity of major cities near coasts.

Certain member countries already face challenges in this respect, most notable among which are Bangladesh and the Maldives. With potential for mass population displacement, the implications of rising temperatures and the role CO₂ plays in exacerbating the issue should be taken into strong consideration; particularly given the link between population displacement and human security. From 1991 to 2013, world CO₂ emissions have increased by over 50% (WDI, 2016). Over the years, OIC countries CO₂ emissions (kt) continue to rise, though at slower levels than

Figure 2.19 CO₂ Emissions (kg per PPP \$ of GDP)



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on World Bank, WDI Database.

that the developing world, and are projected to overtake the decreasing carbon footprint of the developed world. On a more critical note, CO₂ emissions among OIC member countries roughly correspond to energy use trends, which reflect a heavy dependence on carbon based fuels, as opposed to developed countries where energy use increases while CO₂ emissions show decreases. The need for investment in sustainable energy alternatives is critical not only to ensuring sustainable development, but to developing resiliency against finite carbon-based fuels. In general OIC countries have registered good results when it comes to CO₂ emissions trend reversal with 43 OIC countries meeting the goal, and 7 that did not achieve the goal.

The benchmark for achieving the MDG 7 Target 7.A.2 on integrating principles of sustainable development into national policy and reversing loss of environmental resources is assessed by means of trend reversal. To this end, it is relevant to note that while total global CO₂ emissions have seen a sustained growth across all regional groupings except the developed countries, a cursory overview often leaves unaddressed the intuitive norm of CO₂ emission growth given the role of industrialization and development in producing a carbon footprint. To more clearly illustrate CO₂ emission growth dynamics, Figure 2.19 reflects kilograms of CO₂ emissions as a measure of GDP (PPP), which accounts for economic and population growth in the studied countries. This reflects a reality where carbon footprints are proportionate to economic and population growth throughout overall regional groupings, with the majority of carbon emissions originating from developing economies.

Territorial and marine area protection

Biodiversity is an inclusive issue directly linked to CO₂ emission rates, forest area loss and species survival, and is critical given the sensitive nature of food chains and ecological balance. The MDG 7 seeks to ensure sustainable fish stocks while increasing marine and territorial areas of protection. Through nearly 52% of biodiversity loss since 1970 alone, and projections reaching 26% for the next 20 years, already fragile ecosystems are undergoing changes through fish exploitation, global warming and so on; with clear impacts on human life.

Given that OIC member countries face challenges in meeting rising population food demands, and given shared reliance on fish as an integral source of protein, more effort needs to make to ensure sustainable regulation and consumption of natural fish stocks. Growing alternatives in the form of fisheries and aquaculture show promise in OIC member countries. Of the 57 OIC member countries, 37 have met the target of MDG target 7.B, while 17 are on track to achieving the target, with three off track (Table 2.8).

In 2014, captured fisheries and aquaculture supplied the world with nearly 167.2 million tonnes of fish in 2014. From 2004 to 2013 alone, the per capita consumption of fisheries production in the OIC grew by 16%, which is positive giving a 6.5% growth in fisheries production consumption per capita in developed countries. The growing global share of marine fisheries and aquaculture emphasizes the potential for sustainability. That said, increased state regulation and safeguarding of animal and fish stocks is needed, alongside the implementation of sustainable initiatives to meet rising demand. This is particularly critical given global fish stocks have been subject to a near 40-year low, falling below the level of maximum sustainable production.

Table 2.8: Achievements on MDG 7 Targets in OIC Member Countries

Targets	Achieved	Off-track	No data
Proportion of land area covered by forest	27	30	
CO ₂ emissions	43	7	7
Territorial and marine area protection	55	2	

Source: World Bank, WDI Database.

Sustainable access to improved drinking water and sanitation facilities

Given the rising populations among OIC member states, existing issues of water scarcity and security are only made more serious. Sustainable policies governing renewable water withdrawal are required to prevent water stress, or consumption of finite non-renewable sources of water. A number of OIC member countries from the MENA region have withdrawn more than 100% of total renewable water resources, which poses critical threats to not only sustainability, but to agriculture and to maintaining water scarcity which acts against sustainable development in other sectors. Improved access to drinking water and sanitation requires sustainable provision of water, taking into account growing urban populations in OIC member countries, and public health considerations and challenges.

Sustainable access to improved drinking water and improved sanitation is critical given rising weather temperatures, with increased water stress projected on OIC member country in the decades to come, aside from burgeoning population growth that already taxes existing water infrastructure and agricultural irrigation demand. The specific target on ensuring improved drinking water sources has been achieved however, prior to 2015; where by the end of 2011, 89% of the world had access to improved drinking water sources. As of 2015, 82% of OIC member country populations have access to improved water, compared to the norm of 89% in developing countries inclusive of the OIC, or as opposed to the developed country grouping population with 99% population access to improved drinking water. In reality however, significant disparities exist between rural and urban access to improved drinking water in OIC member countries, suggesting inconsistent results in adopted water infrastructure development strategies. Among the OIC member countries, a total of 25 countries have met the MDG 7.C.1 target of halving the proportion of people without access to sustainable improved water drinking sources.

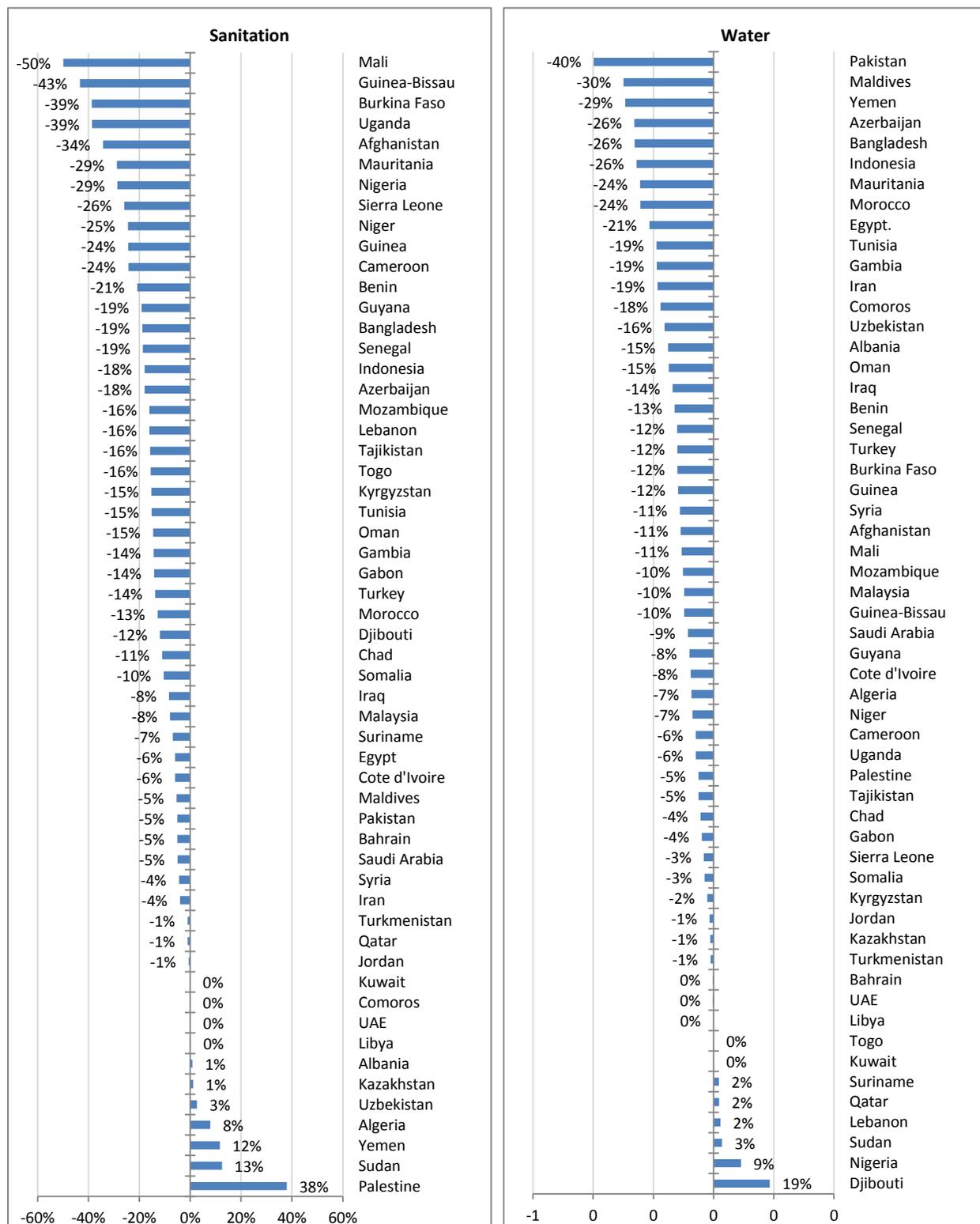
The second component of MDG target 7.C seeks the halving of the proportion of world population lacking access to improved sanitation facilities. The percentage of OIC population using improved sanitation went up from 43% in 1990 to 60% in 2015, compared to an overall developing world average of 43% in 1990 to 62% in 2015. The OIC average however, falls short of the developed world average of 94% in 1990 to 96% in 2015. Out of 57 OIC member countries, a total of 16 countries have met the target, while 40 did not achieve the target (Table 2.9).

Table 2.9: Achievements on MDG 7 Targets in OIC Member Countries

Targets	Achieved	Off-track	No data
Access to improved drinking water sources	25	31	1
Access to improved sanitation sources	16	40	1

Source: World Bank, WDI Database.

Figure 2.20: Change in Proportion of Population Without Access to Improved Sanitation and Drinking Water Sources, 1990 vs 2015 (%)

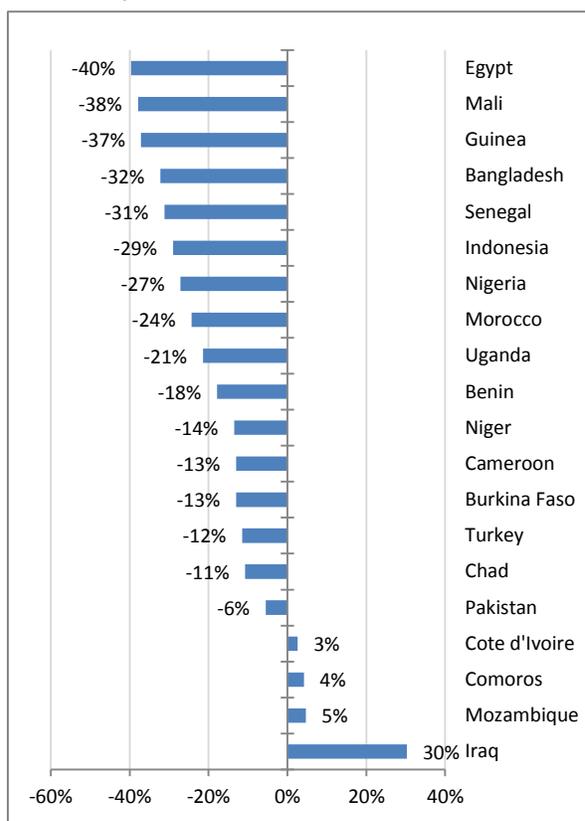


Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on World Bank, WDI Database.

Reducing slums

While the world has met MDG target 7D concerned with improving the lives of over 100 slum dwellers by providing improved water access, improved sanitation facilities and so on; specific challenges remain for OIC member countries given high urban density and high population increase rates. This compounds existing challenges addressing public health, providing social mobility and education and reducing risk for epidemics and resurgent diseases. From 1990 to 2014, urban population in OIC member countries has increased significantly. This is particularly reflected in Figure 2.21, reflecting average population growth in urban centers in millions. The comparative increase is seen when compared to the developed country groupings, which presents its own set of challenges to existing slum populations and how they fair in the face of urban stress while accommodating and adapting for increasing population density.

Figure 2.21: Change in Slum Population as % of Urban Population, 1990 vs 2014



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on World Bank, WDI Database.

Figure 2.21 reflects significant reductions in slum population proportions of urban areas in OIC member countries for which data is available. During the MDG period, 16 countries achieved substantial reductions in the proportion of slum dwellers in urban areas. In countries such as Afghanistan and Bangladesh, more than 50% of urban populations are classified as living in slums for 2014. Iraq has seen a large increase in slum dwelling due to large numbers of internally displaced persons as a result of war-torn infrastructure and conflict.

2.8 MDG8: Develop a global partnership for development

The goal of developing a global partnership for development (MDG 8) includes five substantive areas which are: official development assistance (ODA), market access, debt sustainability, access to essential affordable medicine, and access to new technologies. It is noteworthy to mention that the main feature, envisaged in MDG 8, was increasing international financing of developing countries' endeavors toward development. In this regard, the effort of donor countries, such as allocation of aid, is one of the important determining factors for developing global partnership for development.

The lack of specific predetermined targets and quantitative measures accurately tracking the success of the goal is a challenge. Nonetheless, according to a combination of UN, IDB and COMCEC methods, the relative progress of OIC member countries toward MDG 8 is analyzed. In this context, OIC countries, including the least developed member countries have achieved significant progress in all MDG 8 target areas.

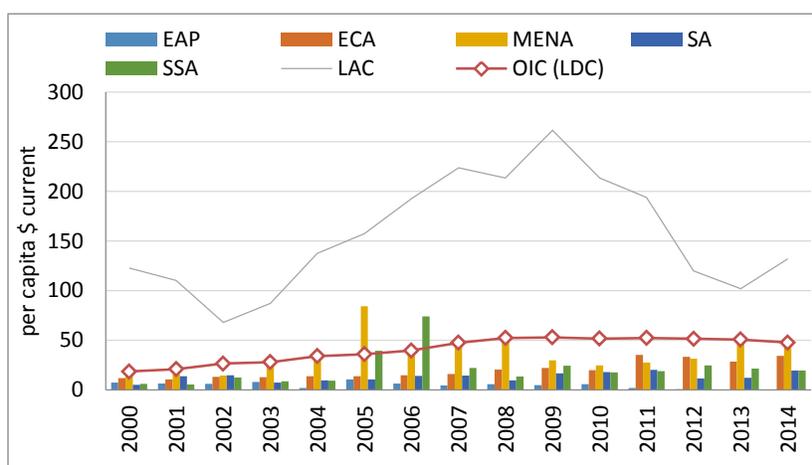
Official development assistance

As a main instrument of international public finance, ODA to the developing countries has substantially increased from 2000 to 2015. Particularly, ODA to the least developed countries (LDCs) has increased significantly. Accounting for 21 out of 44 LDCs, the OIC countries as a group benefited significantly from the influx of aid resources.

In 2000, approximately only \$15.2 billion was disbursed as ODA to OIC countries in total, which was much lower than ODA allocated to non-OIC developing countries and even multilateral institutions. ODA to OIC countries increased significantly in 2005 reaching \$53.4 billion. This figure was due to the large amount of ODA allocated to Iraq, 22.1 billion at that year. Throughout the MDG period, non-OIC developing countries and multilateral recipients observed a significant increase in ODA influxes, although it was relatively higher across OIC member countries, as they ended up receiving more ODA in 2014.

Figure 2.22, provides a broader picture of ODA disbursements by illustrating per capita ODA allocation across OIC regions and least developed OIC member countries. LAC (Guyana and Suriname) received much lower amounts of total ODA disbursements; however, on per capita terms they received the highest ODA compared to the other groups between 2000 and 2014. The least developed OIC member countries were the largest recipients of ODA over

Figure 2.22: ODA across Regions and LDCs within OIC Group



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on OECD, International Development Statistics. Number of countries included: EAP 4, ECA 8, LAC 2, MENA 17, SA 1, SSA 5, OIC-LDC 20.

the period observed in absolute terms and second to LAC in per capita terms, except for two years. The first year, 2005, the MENA region received the highest per capita ODA due to the huge influx of aid to Iraq for the purpose of alleviating the consequences of the war which started in 2003. Second, in 2006, the SSA region was the largest ODA receiving regional group thanks to Nigeria, because the country received enormous debt relief. Furthermore, Nigeria was the most popular destination for international aid across the whole African continent at that year.

While observing aid flow data, analyzing and discussing aid effectiveness would give a better idea for building SDGs strategies. The United Nations target of disbursing 0.7% of GNI to developed countries for aid would unquestionably lead to rapid achievement of development goals. Recent literature puts forward a number of suggestions for donors' aid strategies such as focusing on education and health sectors through allocating more ODA as this leads to better socio-economic and human development. Also, more qualitative targets rather than quantitative should be set by aid projects and finally; promoting

aid for innovative projects would lead to more successful targeting in terms of reaching people most in need, and a more effective utilization of aid resources.

Debt burden of OIC member countries

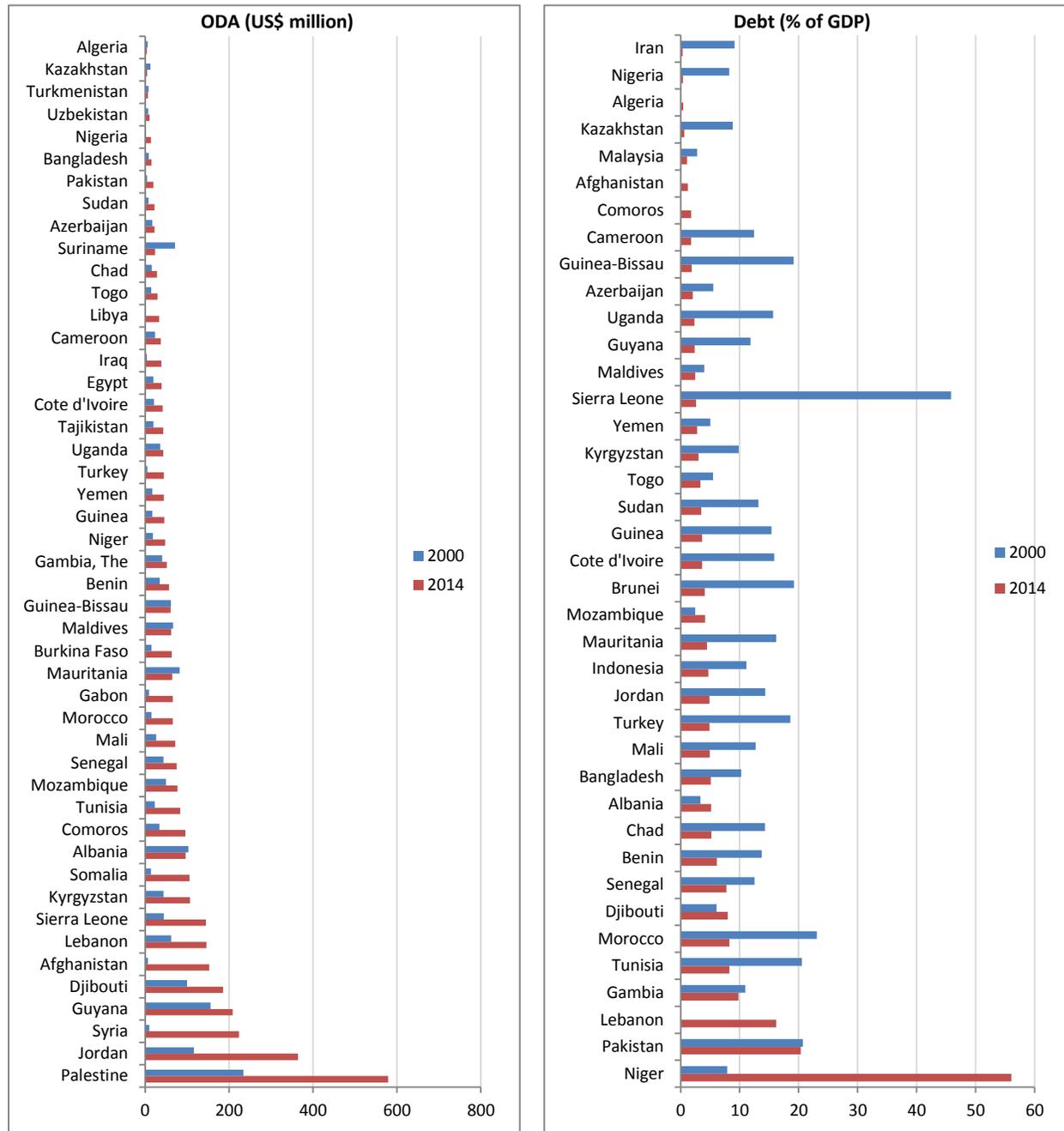
Debt burden of a country is one of the most important indicators in determining its vulnerability to external shocks. On average, developing countries have debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services and income from abroad, equal to around 3%. Only 15 out of 42 OIC countries for which data is available demonstrate having a lower level of debt burden compared to the developing countries average. 36 OIC countries made effective progress, while only 6 OIC countries had a higher burden of debt in 2013, when compared to 2000. Among the OIC countries, the most heavily indebted countries are Niger, Pakistan and Lebanon; while Iran, Nigeria and Algeria have the lowest debt burdens.

Access to new technologies

Today, it is hard to imagine life without information and communication technologies. Whether it is private or public sector institutions, information and communication technology (ICT) plays an essential role in the quality and delivery of services. Particularly after 2000s, the internet and mobile phones became a main means for communication and sources for information. Technical progress leads to a notable increase in the coverage and utilization of ICT and to making ICT more affordable to the general public over time.

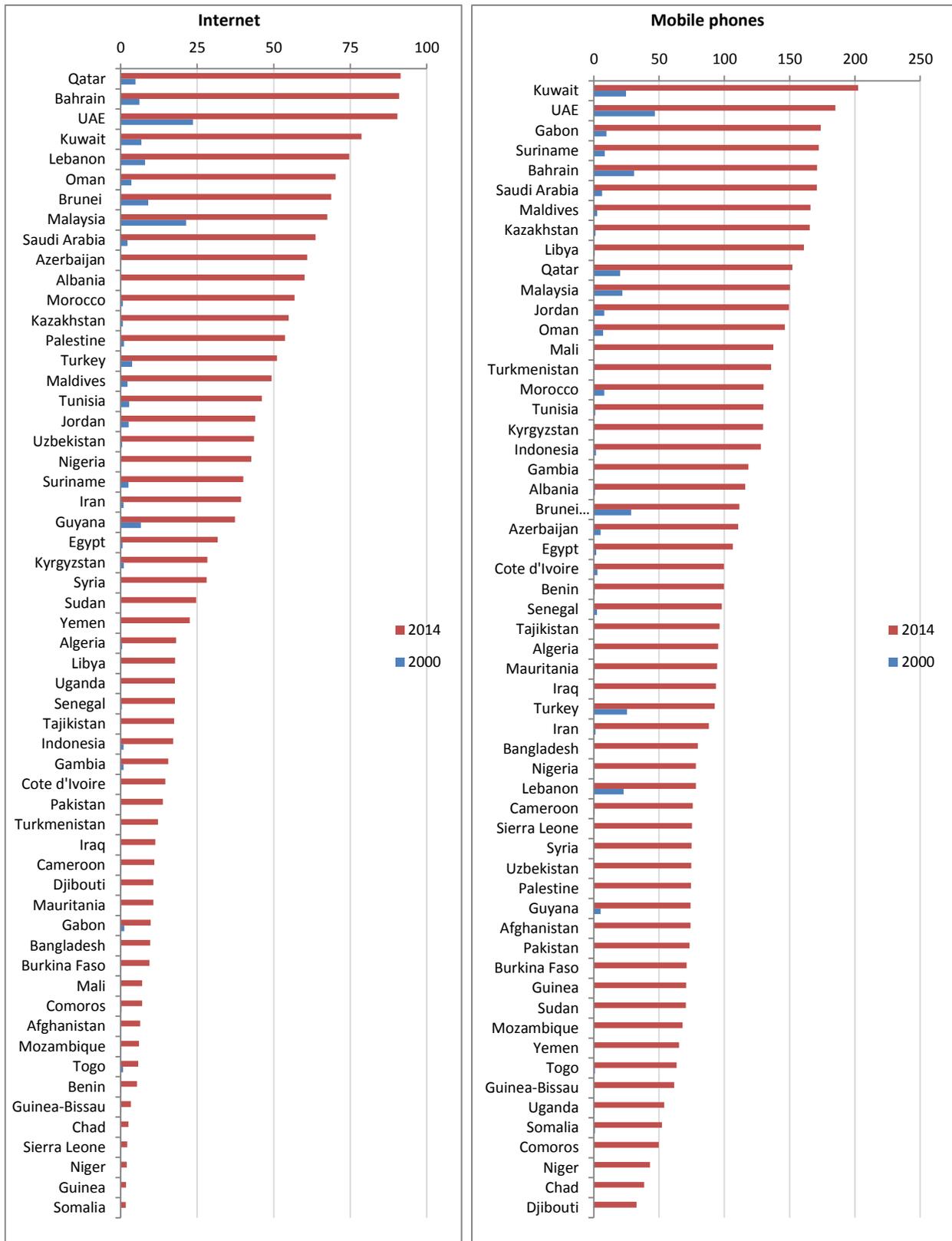
According to the latest estimates, internet usage increased significantly between 2000 and 2014 across all country groups. Non-OIC developing countries on average performed better than the average of OIC countries. As expected, least developed OIC members lagged behind in providing access to internet with only 11 out of 100 people having access (Figure 2.25). As for mobile cellular usage, great progress has been made during the MDG period. In 2000 only 3.9% of the OIC (non-LDC) population had a mobile cellular subscription; but, in 2014 this figure stands at 103.3 and this figure is higher than that observed in non-OIC developing countries. The performance of individual OIC country in this area is illustrated in Figure 2.25.

Figure 2.24: ODA Disbursement and Debt Burden in Selected OIC Countries



Source: OECD, International Development Statistics.

Figure 2.25: Access to Internet and Cellular Mobile Phones (per 100 inhabitants), 2000-2014



Source: World Bank, MDG Database.

A goldfish is captured mid-jump, leaping out of a glass of water. The water splashes around the fish, and droplets are suspended in the air. To the right, another glass of water is partially visible, filled with clear water. The background is a soft, light blue gradient.

3. Transition from MDGs to SDGs

As elaborated in the previous section, OIC member countries as a group have witnessed significant progress in achieving the MDG targets on reduction of poverty, increasing the school enrolment and decreasing the avoidable deaths of mothers and children. However, this progress has been uneven and widespread inequalities persist between and within countries. The situation is particularly alarming in low income and least developed member countries. Majority of these countries are characterized by slow economic growth, limited resources, widespread income inequality, inadequate capacity development, insufficient coverage of social services, fragile peace and security situation and lack of an enabling environment to attract investment and encourage active participation of private sector in socio-economic development. Against this backdrop, it is clear that MDG agenda is an unfinished business in OIC countries and issues related with poverty, employment, education and health are still an important development priority for the majority of member countries.

3.1 2030 agenda for sustainable development

The new global 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development officially came into effect in January 2016 at the conclusion of the MDGs. It is an ambitious and universal agenda to support a sustainable future for the humankind by integrating social, economic and environmental dimensions of development. The 17 SDGs aim to attain prosperity and welfare for all people by ensuring sustained and inclusive economic growth, social development and environmental protection. In fact, more than half of the SDGs address

various aspects of environmental sustainability, underlining a shift towards suitability oriented development and growth.

Though most of the SDGs build upon MDGs (Table 3.1), SDGs are more ambitious in scope and universal in coverage. These goals adopt a more comprehensive approach towards development by integrating social, economic and environmental dimensions of development and set targets both for developing and developed countries. While the overall process of goal setting was more participatory, the implementation, monitoring and evaluation for the SDGs are also going to be a multi stakeholder venture. The new goals are also emphasizing on some critically important issues that were missed in MDGs like peacebuilding and improvement of governance (SDG16).

In contrast to the MDGs, the sustainable development agenda reflects an integrated approach towards development. There are multiple interrelations between its goals underlining the broad scope for horizontal and vertical policy interventions across several areas. For example, the poverty reduction, employment, and nutrition dimensions of MDG1 are extensively covered in the SDG framework, being addressed in different goals, including 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10 and 12. Similarly, many MDGs and targets like gender equality are considered as both a cross cutting theme and stand-alone goal (NECE, 2015). While these interlinkages and interdependencies between goals and targets offer opportunities for developing synergies and cooperation, there are trade-offs between different goals and failure to achieve some targets might adversely affect several goals (Nilsson, M., 2016).

The interrelations between the SDGs can also be underlined by looking into the intended outcomes and targets of the sustainable development framework. Based on their major thrusts (OFID, 2016), six SDGs (1, 3, 4, 5, 10, and 16) basically aim to deliver individual and collective wellbeing through improved health and education and their equitable distribution within and between countries. These goals are supported by the seven infrastructure related goals (2, 7, 6, 8, 9, 11, 12) which cater to the production, distribution and delivery of goods and services, including food, energy, clean water, and waste and sanitation services in cities and other settlements. Remaining three goals are related with the governance of natural resources and public goods in land, ocean and air, including biodiversity and climate change.

Table 3.1: Relationship between MDGs and SDGs at the Goal Level

Millennium Development Goals (2000-2015)	Sustainable Development Goals (2016-2030)
MDG 1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger	SDG 1. End poverty in all its forms everywhere SDG 2. End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture SDG 8. Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all SDG 10. Reduce inequality within and among countries
MDG 2. Achieve universal primary education	SDG 4. Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all
MDG 3. Promote gender equality and empower women	SDG 5. Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls
MDG 4. Reduce child mortality MDG 5. Improve maternal health MDG 6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases	SDG 3. Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages
MDG 7. Ensure environmental sustainability	SDG 6. Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all SDG 7. Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all SDG 9. Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation SDG 11. Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable SDG 12. Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns SDG 13. Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts SDG 14. Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development SDG 15. Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss
MDG 8. Develop a global partnership for development	SDG 17. Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership for sustainable development
	SDG 16. Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels

Source: NECE, 2015.

In nutshell, SDGs framework represents a more comprehensive but complex approach to the sustainable development. Keeping in view the interdependencies and interlinkages between the goals, adopting an integrated and coherent implementation approach will be helpful to achieve multiple targets simultaneously. On the other hand, ambitious targets like zero poverty, hunger, preventable deaths etc. are going to pose serious implementation and monitoring challenges especially for the low and lower middle income countries with significantly poor performance in implementing the MDGs.

3.2 Lessons learned and readiness for SDGs

Keeping in view the MDGs performance of OIC countries, this section will take stock of lessons learned from the implementation of MDGs in OIC countries to draw a broad sketch of their readiness to embark on the implementation of SDGs. In doing so, we aim to highlight some critical policy imperatives for the joint action of the Islamic world.

A key general lesson learned from the implementation of MDGs is that despite being the most powerful instrument in achieving prosperity and welfare, economic growth will not reduce poverty, improve equality and produce jobs unless it is inclusive. Only policies that enable the poor and marginalized people to benefit more from economic growth can promote greater income equality and eliminate poverty. Economic growth policies that do not put these people at the center of development priorities may end up with greater income disparities and social exclusion. Therefore, it was no wonder that countries with inclusive growth achieved the MDG targets earlier than the others.

Progress on any one of the MDGs affects progress on the others. For example, China has greatly contributed to the achievement of the MDGs worldwide by putting significant efforts in addressing the multi-dimensional nature of poverty and focusing on sustainable and equitable wellbeing. While rapid economic growth was instrumental in poverty reduction in China, it was also supported by improvements in physical infrastructure as well as human capital formation and investment in livelihoods (UNDP, 2015). Lessons from China suggest that government commitment, efficient implementation of public interventions, creating an enabling environment for human capabilities, developing policies for equal access to opportunities, and balancing economic growth, poverty reduction and environmental sustainability are some of the critical factors in achieving goals in reducing poverty.

Even though some countries were successful in identifying innovative mechanisms and programs to achieve MDGs, poor implementation methods and monitoring typically hinder the successful conclusion of these programmes. Particularly the conflict affected and fragile countries often need to establish fully functional institutions and governance mechanisms with an employment strategy of hiring people with adequate technical and managerial skills or training them to get these skills to implement policies and projects effectively.

Significant constraints and challenges are faced by many countries in achieving universal access to basic services like education, health, water and sanitation. Good governance, adequately designed administrative structures sufficient human and financial resources are indispensable for the provision of these social services. However, inclusive and enabling policies and programs were typically inadequate and government-led coordination mechanisms often suffered from lack of adequate monitoring and evaluation.

Within many countries, some regions lag behind others because of their geography, social exclusion, conflict or natural disaster. It is rather difficult to reach the most needy and vulnerable people in such settings. Local development should be embedded in the national development process particularly in such settings. In general, interventions should ensure equal access to education and health services, decent jobs, unemployment schemes as well as food and nutrition assistance programmes. Moreover, it

is evidenced that targeted investments in rural development help vulnerable people to overcome poverty, hunger and disease. The infrastructure investment that facilitates agricultural production and access to markets (such as rural transportation, irrigation and water supply networks) was effective in combating hunger and poverty by increasing agricultural productivity and income in rural areas, especially when they are supported with some additional incentives for better development outcomes. For example, Nigeria's National Special Programme for Food Security helped almost double agricultural yields and farmers' incomes. Farmers were able to buy inputs using interest-free loans to be repaid following harvest through innovative finance schemes (UN, 2010).

Poverty, hunger and education

Countries that prioritized the need of people who are vulnerable to various shocks, including economic crises, natural disasters and conflicts, through different protection and support mechanisms made greater progress in reducing poverty. Social safety nets are typically effective tools in supporting vulnerable populations. Moreover, measures to alleviate poverty should seek sustainability in achievements. Successful countries are observed to incorporate sustainability as an important objective for future public sector interventions and investments. Moreover, countries that could not ensure efficient use of existing resources and create a partnership among local governments, private sector and education institutions commonly fail to generate synergy for more jobs and skills development programmes available for the poor.

Policies that target reducing poverty and hunger commonly focuses on agricultural investments, job creation, expansion of social safety nets and nutrition programs as well as promoting education and gender equality. It has also been shown that countries that have successfully reduced hunger achieved to ensure inclusive economic growth, outreach to the most vulnerable with safety nets and disaster risk reduction programs and invested in sustainability in an integrated fashion (FAO, 2009).

Food insecurity and hunger aggravate the vulnerability of countries to shocks and increase the frequency of humanitarian crises. It is important to note that many of the conflicts and natural disasters take place in regions with high prevalence of malnutrition, or in "low income food deficit" countries as classified by FAO. Extreme food insecurity can lead to conflicts over scarce resources and worsen the humanitarian situation even further. Countries that lack coping strategies to protect their people against such crises experience the largest impact

In many cases, poor households do not have the resources to send their children to school or get needed medicines, especially if they are paying from their pockets. For the extreme poor, the opportunity cost to send their children to school is very high. Even where education is free, sending a child to school often means forgoing a child's income. Nevertheless, abolishing of school fees in many countries has led to a surge in enrolment. But the surge in enrolment in developing regions has brought a new set of challenges in providing enough teachers and classrooms. In addition to lowering or eliminating the cost barriers, the provision of financial support to poor households and incentives to attend school, including transfers and food supplements, have been effective measures, triggering dramatic increases in enrolment, especially among the poor (UNDG, 2010). Targeted policies in educational attainment of girls and students in remote areas were quite critical in numerous countries. Egypt's Girls' Education Initiative and Food-for-

Education programme encouraged girls to attend school by providing free education and by constructing and promoting 'girl-friendly schools'.

During the post-2015, strong but inclusive and sustainable growth rates will remain critical. Inclusive growth is needed to eliminate poverty in chronically weak and fragile economies; otherwise, it would be unrealistic to expect complete elimination of utter deprivation by 2030. High and widening inequality among different strata of a society may reduce social mobility, weaken social capital, and create additional vulnerabilities with tremendous social, political and economic consequences.

Noting that some of the most vulnerable countries to disaster and conflict-induced poverty are OIC member countries, there is a need for collaborative actions in reducing the impacts of climate change and strengthening governance for inclusive societies in OIC countries. Disaster risk management should be a key component of poverty reduction efforts, focusing on protecting livelihoods as well as saving lives. There is a need to identify and then act where the poor and disaster risks are most concentrated. Disasters hit the poorest people the hardest, those living in vulnerable areas with limited resources to adapt or recover quickly from crises.

In this connection, eliminating extreme poverty will not only require pulling people above the poverty line, but ensuring people remain above the line. While MDGs have not paid enough attention to such risk factors that push people back into poverty, the post-2015 development goals recognize the threat posed by disasters, climate change and conflicts in achieving the global goal of eradicating extreme poverty by 2030. Addressing the risk factors is critical in raising people above and beyond extreme poverty. Therefore, it is important for OIC countries to focus on disaster and conflict resilience efforts with clear strategies to reduce vulnerabilities and build resilience.

Gender equality

Due to increasing role of international cooperation for development where women and men are treated equally, development actors and policy-makers have started to better realize that without women, it is unlikely to achieve development. Global developments and the increasing role of emerging countries in global value chains allowed creation of more jobs both for women and men in the non-agricultural sector. Also increasing education level of women in many developing countries including OIC members enabled women to move from agriculture to non-agricultural sector.

Despite significant gains made in reducing gender disparity and improving opportunity and well-being for women, women and girls continue to suffer discrimination and violence in every part of the world at varying degrees. Women in developing world need to address challenges from education rights to employment opportunities. And their voice is still not equally heard at decision-making processes when compared to men. One of the main failure factors behind picture is that in many parts of the developing world including OIC countries, a significant portion of women went on staying out of education due to lack of schools, teachers, financial reasons, cultural and social barriers. By staying out of education, female population enters into a vicious circle where they usually have to work in the agriculture sector and face the risk of early marriage and other different forms of violence. It is therefore highly important to scale up budgets allocated to the education sector and to ensure that public education services reach

population in rural areas particularly in the Sub-Saharan Africa and South East Asia regions of the OIC. In addition, improving the level of correct knowledge on the rights of men and women in Islam within the society can play a constructive and transformative role to face up some harmful gender beliefs and practices in OIC countries. It is therefore during the course of design of education policies for youth and adult in OIC countries this dimension needs to be taken into account by policy-makers.

As in MDGs, SDGs also target to reduce gender inequality and aim to restore the status of women that they can enjoy their social, political and economic rights without any discrimination. As mentioned elsewhere, this can be achieved with long-term policies on education planning. Although overcoming the social barriers and changing the mindset of employers and parents towards women are not an easy task, it is not an impossible mission. With the well-planned education policies and programmes targeting all segments of the society without excluding population living in rural and remote areas and by benefiting from the power of conventional and social media, it is likely that perception towards women especially in OIC countries will be improved, which naturally can be reflected into SDG indicators. However, for many OIC countries reaching out these targets on gender issues require additional budget allocated for education, a new understanding on national planning on education with a gender focus and international cooperation.

In order to restore the status of women in OIC countries aligned with SDGs, policy-makers also need to address local dynamics including social barriers, customs, traditions and misinterpretation of religious orders on women in Islam. Put differently, to tackle gender inequality in OIC countries, economic interventions must be accompanied by social and cultural policies that target value change. In particular, economic development policies towards empowerment of women need to go hand in hand with social and cultural policies to address misperceptions towards women in socio-economic life mostly stemming from traditions, customs, and misinterpretation of religious orders. It is therefore policy design requires a multifaceted approach that would tap into culture and engage it. Culture's power as a constraining affect shows that it has a potential power to serve equally as an enabler. The task for policymakers is to identify where culture interacts with development, and how it can be devised as a transformative force for the advancement of women.

Such a multifaceted approach can be achieved with all stakeholders' engagement including public and private sector representatives as well as NGOs and civil society. For instance, the Ministry of National Education of Turkey started the Girls to Schools campaign "Girls to School" (Haydi kızlar okula) in cooperation with the UNICEF in June 2003. Results of the campaign are very successful and the number of the girls attending primary and secondary school has been increasing year by year in Turkey. Major private sector representatives and NGOs also supported this campaign in Turkey that increased the success of the program.

The experience of the woman-focused approach over the last two decades has shown that exclusion of men limits the success of gender equalizing efforts, in fact in many cases, works against it. Policy-makers in OIC countries need to take the men's value change into account while addressing the gender issues. The neglect of men's value change may result in increased fractions between men and women and a stalled revolution curbing effects of otherwise potentially effective policies. Moreover, a focus on men will provide a key insight into the mechanisms generating or inhibiting more egalitarian gender relations,

while demonstrating why men too suffer costs from gender stereotypes and how they can benefit from egalitarian gender values. It is therefore tackling gender inequality requires an equal focus on both women and men.

While pursuing an agenda to reach SDGs on empowerment of women, it is highly important to refer the initiatives and documents of the OIC. First of all, both the first and second OIC Ten Year of Programme Action paid a special attention to the empowerment and advancement of women in OIC countries and specifically mentioned this in the documents. Moreover, OIC countries have successfully held 5 ministerial sessions on the “Role of Women in the Development of OIC Member States” since 2006. In 2008, the 2nd OIC Ministerial Conference on Women, held in Cairo, adopted the OIC Plan of Action for the Advancement of Women (OPAAW) which is a key guideline document prepared for OIC countries. The 6th OIC Ministerial Conference on Women that was held in November 2016 adopted the amended version of the OPAAW (2008) document that includes an implementation mechanism and follow up indicators. Moreover, at the same Conference, it was also agreed to set up an ‘OIC Advisory Council on Women’ with the involvement Member States to develop broad policy-guidelines and suggestions on the advancement of women living in OIC countries.

The OIC foras on women such as ministerial level meetings, experts meetings, workshops, and consultative meetings can help policy-makers in member countries to identify cooperation opportunities within the OIC group and serve as a platform where member countries exchange their views and share best-practices on gender issues. Also, the decision on the formation of a specialized organ namely ‘Organization of Women’s Development in OIC Member States’, which will be based in Cairo, Egypt, to follow up gender equality and women issues is a strategic step forward. It is hoped that with the active support and participation of OIC member countries, this institution would help member countries at various capacities in this critical field of development.

Health and wellbeing

Improving the health of mothers, new-borns and children and reducing the number of preventable deaths are identified as among the top priorities for collective actions. In this respect, special efforts have been made to improve the quality and availability of health services including antenatal and postnatal care, safer deliveries, care for new-borns and infants, better nutrition, and routine immunization against preventable diseases. There are important country success stories within the OIC countries in implementing these interventions and delivery strategies. For example, Egypt has achieved universal coverage with the integrated management of childhood illnesses and high coverage of maternal health interventions. Iran and Indonesia has scaled up primary care for maternal, new-born and child health building on the success of community health workers.

The progress made in OIC countries in maternal and child survival over time reflect the successful interventions across a range of social determinants of health, such as female education, empowerment, poverty alleviation, investments in health systems and good governance. Yet in some countries, especially those with high mortality rates, implementation strategies remain limited and ineffective due, in part, to inadequate political support and leadership, restricted and unequal access to care, weak health systems, low workforce capacities and inadequate ability to monitor progress and track results and resources. The

challenge now facing the high-burden OIC countries is how to achieve universal coverage of effective interventions while optimizing investments and enhancing accountability to improve the health of women and children.

Thanks to global and national efforts, many OIC countries have made significant progress in the prevention and control of many infectious diseases that manifested itself through a significant increase in average life expectancy in the member countries. Over the years, new HIV infections fell significantly whereas millions of malaria deaths have been averted. Antiretroviral therapy coverage as the main therapy for HIV/AIDS patients has improved, malaria cases went down and positive trend seen in the incidence of tuberculosis has been reversed. However, several countries particularly located in the Sub-Saharan Africa could not make significant achievements in disease prevention and control.

In many OIC countries, failure to reach high health standards stems from poor living conditions where people have to live in environments with lack of sanitation and/or drinking water quality is an issue. Therefore scaling up investments into health systems is not a stand-alone solution for stopping the spread of such diseases. Without large-scale and nation-wide infrastructural development projects, it is not fully possible to cope with some basic but deadly infectious diseases. In addition, deficiencies in the education system about public health and unavailability of basic health services both in slums areas of cities and in rural areas of some OIC countries made it almost impossible to reverse the spread of diseases.

Given the population growth and high prevalence of diseases, achieving the SDG targets on health will be a daunting task for many OIC countries. There are significant bottlenecks from funding of basic infrastructure projects to scaling up national health systems. It is therefore highly recommended to develop cooperation among OIC member as well as with the regional and international organizations. In fact, many cooperation efforts yielded significant and tangible outputs during the era of MDGs where many OIC countries successfully controlled some deadly diseases or they were able to develop health systems to cope with.

The necessities and priorities of OIC countries vary significantly in the domain of MNCH and disease prevention and control depending on their climate, quality of infrastructure, available public funds etc. Therefore, international guidelines and intra-OIC cooperation have their limits to help OIC countries in this domain. In this regard, the lion share of the responsibility remains with national policy-makers, experts and civil society in OIC countries. Therefore, training of policy-makers, experts and civil society needs to be an integral part of developing and implementing a successful healthcare strategy in order to equip them with the recent scientific knowledge, information and state-of-the-art technologies to combat diseases. In this regard, OIC countries can benefit from training and capacity building programmes of the SESRIC, which aims to foster intra-OIC transfer of knowledge and expertise.

Many OIC countries still need to undergo a major reform process to have better health education and training systems. For the success of the reforms in this field, cooperation with international community and organisations is very critical. Following up some international guidelines (e.g. the WHO Guidelines and the OIC Strategic Health Programme of Action 2014-2023) can help OIC countries to save money and time during the reform process. Enhancing intra-OIC cooperation through identifying and transferring

best practices in health education and training can also make a significant contribution to improve the quality of health services and education in OIC countries. For a successful reform process, it is of importance to understand the local conditions in OIC countries and take views of civil society organisations into account. One of the major differences between MDGs and SDGs emerge at this point where SDGs were built with a more inclusive understanding where local conditions of developing countries were taken more carefully into consideration during the course of design. In this regard, it is hoped that OIC countries will be more active in their engagement with SDGs and international community in combating these diseases in all aspects (i.e. prevention, detection and treatment).

Environmental sustainability

With the onset of the Sustainable Development Framework, a number of critical issues affect assessment of progress which have their roots in the initial prioritization of targets for development. Of all 57 OIC member countries, 21 are classified as LDC's, and face significant challenges in the areas of economic growth and development, not to mention the upkeep of existing aging infrastructure.

To this end, targets set with respect to achieving MDGs may have often been at odds with existing national development agendas. In this respect, the increased focus of the SDGs framework on integrating the principles of sustainability does not necessarily reflect lessons learned from difficulties encountered in achieving sustainability targets in MDG 7. This is in spite of progress in other critical areas of Millennium Development Goal 7 such as increasing access of improved sanitation sources and reducing CO₂ emissions.

More relevantly, the equal weighting given to elements of MDG 7 reflects the nominal, cursory value of some of its targets, as found in the ease of fulfilling targets. Examples include the ease with which member countries met trend reversal targets in establishing territorial and marine area protection and reducing CO₂ emission levels. This as opposed to the difficulty of halving proportions of population without access to improved drinking water and improved sanitation sources. This is particularly the case in countries challenged by rapid population growth and infrastructure stresses, which impose their own demands on national development agendas.

Critically enough, the achievability of MDG 7 targets raises questions regarding the equality of MDG development agendas, and their feasibility. While developing countries for instance may have large total carbon emissions, they are often proportionate to their economies. For instance, in 2011 alone developed countries were responsible for 37% of total carbon emissions worldwide (CGD, 2011). Historically, the same developed countries, from the period of 1850 to 2011 were responsible for 79% of total emissions (CGD, 2011a). Energy consumption disparity between developed and developing countries is equally great. This is significant given that developing countries are most at risk of climate change stress and environmental change (IPCC, 2014). In terms of MDGs and SDGs development agendas however, developing countries are expected to serve as equal stakeholders, and compromise on the necessities of development and industrialization which developed countries have already undergone. This must be taken into account if development agendas are to engage with genuine stakeholders who are fully committed to achieving development targets in the current SDGs or future development frameworks.

The reality remains that the selective fulfillment of development targets across OIC LDCs cannot only be generally attributed to a country's capacity for target achievement. Rather, such assessment should reflect the complex interplay between finite resources, political will and socio-political circumstances which influence the prioritization of development agenda items, and more often than not, cause a lack of attention to targets of sustainability.

To better facilitate achievement of targets that may be as secondary in priority by member country policy makers, there is a need to engage and increase the pool of stakeholders by means of active development agencies and partners. Such an approach should target stakeholders with value-added incentives and reverse-linkage capacity development to assist in a more balanced prioritization of development agenda items.

With respect to water consumption and resources, OIC countries face a host of water stress and sustainability issues in terms of agriculture, public health and poverty; underlining the future threat posed by water shortages to OIC security and sustainability. The results of a targeted questionnaire entitled 'Implementation of the OIC Water Vision and Future Cooperation Activities' identifies common challenges faced in achieving clean water and sanitation, which directly correspond to SDG Goal 6 at the same.

Over the years, OIC countries have made significant progress in fostering and inculcating concerted action towards addressing the critical nature of environmental degradation, extreme weather and, biodiversity protection and rising sea levels. To this end, the OIC 2025 Programme of Action directly assigns a priority status to 'Environment, Climate Change and Sustainability (1.5)'. The strategic ten year plan of action recognizes the necessity to address the impending security concerns associated with sustainability, while further addressing the issue of biodiversity, water and sanitation infrastructure directly in its priority sections on 'Agriculture and Food Security (1.8)', and 'Health (1.12)'. Also the OIC has developed the OIC Water Vision; the vision emphasizes access to improved water and sanitation as critical areas of priority for OIC countries, and emphasized the need to address urban-rural disparities in water and sanitation provision. Furthermore, the Islamic Conference of Environment Ministers in its forth meeting in Tunisia in 2010 made a declaration on "Enhancing the Efforts of the Islamic World towards Environment Protection and Sustainable Development" and agreed on promoting cooperation between the Islamic countries on issues pertaining to environment and sustainable development, within the framework of Islamic solidarity and joint Islamic action.

The SDGs provide a framework for the integration of various aspects relevant for environmental sustainability and, as such, represent a significant advance for the global development agenda. This however, is also its own challenge given finite political will as well as limited policy coherence and few stakeholders engaged in actualizing target achievement. The challenges inherent in fulfilling MDG 7 will only increase proportionate to the number of SDGs branching from it. Readiness for implementation of relevant SDGs must come in the form of realistic, coherent, and effective policy geared towards pragmatic achievements, and should be based in statistical feedback loops to assess progress and ensure dynamic, adaptable strategy. OIC countries are facing a host of critical water stress and sustainability issues in terms of agriculture, public health and poverty; underlining the future threat posed by water shortages to OIC security and sustainability. The results of a targeted questionnaire entitled

‘Implementation of the OIC Water Vision and Future Cooperation Activities” highlight common challenges faced in achieving access to clean water and sanitation, which directly correspond to the realization of SDG 6 targets.



4. Prospects and Challenges

The OIC member countries constitute a substantial part of the developing world and reflect high levels of heterogeneity and divergence in terms of socio-economic development. This heterogeneity in development profiles could also be seen in their performance towards achieving the MDGs targets. Though complex nature of Agenda 2030 makes the SDGs planning and implementation a challenging task for all countries, some countries are particularly vulnerable due to unfinished MDGs business. In general, the realization of sustainable development agenda in OIC countries and elsewhere in the developing world depends largely on their ability to address issues and challenges related with political will and policy dialogue, institutional capacity and governance, data collection and monitoring, peace and security, and financial resources.

4.1 Political will and policy dialogue

While the MDGs have catalysed significant development, the underlying prerequisite of political and by extension socio-institutional will remains a critical factor in the realization of sustainable development. Though commitment to the goals has been inconsistent throughout the OIC member countries, it is worth noting that the MDGs were but a framework seeking to elicit global engagement, dialogue and strategic focus on unaddressed issues in need of local, national and regional resolution as it were. To this end, while the former MDGs and current SDGs may not meet the necessary levels of political will and capital for effective large-scale implementation, the reality remains that the necessity, responsibility and

imperative for strategic development, policy implementation and follow-up in all critical areas highlighted by the SDGs framework are no less a priority and need for each and every OIC member country.

Rather, the SDGs framework often complements national and regional development policies and strategies by highlighting a number of central pillars of these initiatives. Given that the implementation and achievement of both MDGs and SDGs are not impractical by any means, paradigms shifts are needed in increasing accountability, transparency, and stakeholder inclusion in decision-making processes. Policy affirmations and ratifications alone will not suffice in realizing development goals, rather an approach of policy coherence is required to not only maximize efficiency in terms of resource pooling and targeting, but also to further decrease opportunity cost, reduce barriers to implementation and develop some measure of heterogeneity of policy across OIC countries. Through increased policy coherence across local, national and regional levels; member countries are in better positions to make use of existing mechanisms and modalities. On a regional level, this is conducive in and of itself as increased regional and consequently international interlinkages provides a higher measure of stakeholder accountability.

The existing gap between civil society, NGOs and public policy decision-making, youth disenfranchisement, unemployment and the spectre of radicalism and terrorism are some of the prime factors that led to exhaustion of existing political will at regional and global levels.

In spite of the evident necessity of the contents of the SDGs agenda, and even in the light of the interdependent nature of challenges faced by member countries, strong policy signalling, good governance and strong leadership is no less a critical requisite of effective development strategy. In this respect, it may be necessary to generate regional public appeal to the necessity for development strategy implementation manually. In this respect, the civil society – public policy gap may be bypassed in favor of a bridged civil society – regional organization divide, by means of platforms bringing together civil society organizations and media with agenda setting regional institutions, inversely raising awareness on the national level of SDGs policies and concurrent OIC development strategies. This would enable the sharing of good practices, while ensuring inverted grassroots policy-making pressure, which would accordingly raise levels of political will in even centralized decision making member-countries.

To the same end, targeted aid and strategic partnerships with organizations and groups espousing the significance of fulfilling SDG development goals would make significant inroads into crystallizing public opinion and generating demand; particularly through the effective use of informative social media engagement campaigns underlining the role of policy coherence towards creating force multipliers in achieving development goals at all levels.

It should be emphasized that in the struggle for legitimacy of governance, clear policy signalling, increased public participatory decision-making and transparent engagement with critical development areas by policy makers goes much farther than reactionary policy or attempts to grapple with the national security challenges these unresolved crises generate.

Clear benefits can be found in such an approach, chiefly in providing improved, efficient governance; enhanced development and civic support. Governance is specifically enhanced through a higher quality and quantity of information, allowing for better resource targeting, and conception of challenges allowing

a decentralized larger approach to interlinked local, national and regional challenges. In this manner, improved implementation of policy is brought about; through increasingly efficient fiscal expenditure process and institutional capacities.

The role of increased civic engagement through participatory governance not only increases political will across a broad range of stakeholder actors, but is also correlated with catalyzing creativity, innovation and human capital development; indirectly stimulating economic growth, scientific and intellectual output, and institutional strategic capacities.

More critically, direct benefits exist to member country governance actors, specifically in increasing legitimacy, resources, popularity, political stability and societal unity. Rather significantly, civic engagement and participatory governance in the context of achieving development goals has the added advantage of providing a critical counter-narrative to destructive radical ideology and civic disenfranchisement. To this end, civic engagement would directly counter-act radicalization, by addressing many contentions normally used as recruitment tools for radical actors.

Through outcomes of participatory governance, civic populations are more inclined to act in provided mediums for engagement and development, rather than violent radical means. Also relevantly, the approach enables higher tax collection, by engaging society as a stakeholder in its own growth and development, thereby increasing government revenues and opening up further options for development.

To this end however, key factors must be recognized as requisites to political action, including whether core member country interests are involved, whether capacity and capability, both institutional and financial, can be prioritized to such goals, and whether support exists among civic society for such action. These questions in and of themselves require targeted case-by-case research to empower constructive lobbying efforts.

Moreover, effective or insightful analysis is often not enough in galvanizing political opinion to action without the use of effective strategic communication, which emphasizes the role of formal and informal media as stakeholders in identifying parameters of national public focus to this end. In this respect, policy objectives require different mechanisms of implementation that mobilize non-governmental sectors, including academia, NGOs, international organizations, private sectors and media groups to fulfilling items of mutual interest; though it may be argued that facilitated networking and interaction in itself allows for the facilitation of other priority interests they may share.

Towards increasing modalities for cooperation on creating political will, a number of models may be utilized. First, convening policy development groups, former officials, social media experts, and media figures with substantial political influence to signal the necessity of certain policy to the public; a matter not necessarily requiring government mandates. Second, leveraging NGOs and academia into expert research groups where sensitive issues that cannot be directly tackled by state-actors arise such as some institutional reforms. Third, NGOs can engage in 'field' collaboration with governments in the context of providing information for better policy design as a tentative step, nonetheless setting the state for further civil society-governance cooperation.

While the issue of political will is certainly an endemic one, stakeholder coalitions must step up to providing stronger mutual accountability mechanisms; given the preferable ease involved in avoiding complex or challenging socio-political change. More critically, the gap between “political will” and “public will” needs to be bridged by dynamic NGO and INGO programs of action; reconciling decision-maker perceived effective policy solutions with public recognition of solutions to shared problems. Through clearer understanding and communication of challenges and obstacles to development, less space is allowed backing out of commitments, while the understanding of shared interests reduces the likelihood of defaulting on commitments and agreements.

It should be emphasized that the MDG and SDG agenda are of critical significance to the OIC development agenda. In this respect, the OIC has long since established its commitment to sustainable and comprehensive development in the interest of furthering socio-economic standards throughout its member countries.

The OIC as an international organization has developed several policy documents, action plans and held high-level foras to address development issues in its member countries from water to youth issues. Moreover, OIC regularly organizes ministerial and high level meetings in around 20 different areas from healthcare to empowerment of women. These foras allow policy-makers in OIC countries to discuss and exchange views about national initiatives as well as encourage them to improve intra-OIC cooperation. The existing subsidiary, affiliated and specialized organs of the OIC can also be useful institutional mechanisms in the implementation of SDGs in OIC countries. For instance, SESRIC can provide statistical capacity building programmes to generate a reporting capacity for statistical indicators in line with SDG standards for OIC countries. The Islamic Development Bank can provide support and fund for some national poverty alleviation programmes in OIC countries to assist them to reach SDG sub-targets in this domain. The COMCEC can provide project funding to OIC countries for their existing soft development projects. All these examples clearly reflect that the existing platforms of the OIC need to be utilized in a more effective way during the implementation of SDGs by member countries.

In this context, it is important mention that the OIC’s both former Ten Year Plan of Action and the current OIC 2025 Plan of Action specifically address the necessity for a number of SDG Goals in the fields of poverty alleviation, education, health and trade facilitation. Aside from the necessity for clear and vocal OIC-guidance and lobbying on the importance and concurrence of SDG goals with OIC and member country development strategies, no effort can be reduced parallel initiatives addressing the role of youth empowerment, inclusive development decision-making and participatory governance. Aside from the role of inclusive decision-making and participatory governance in mitigating the loss of political will, and in setting the stage for institutional transparency, reform and efficient bureaucratic practices; consistent efforts in these areas will also address a number of root obstacles to the achieving development goals, whether they be the SDG agenda, OIC 2025 Programme of Action, IDB 2020 Vision, or COMCEC strategy.

One of the major differences between the preparation phases of MDGs and SDGs can be found in the domain of stakeholder involvement. While MDGs were prepared with limited participation of developing countries and often by neglecting their local conditions, SDGs were the ultimate outcome of a series of meetings and studies where almost all developing countries as well civil society organizations participated in and their views counted. Almost all OIC countries actively contributed to the process of determination

phases of SDGs at the national, regional and global level meetings and foras. Therefore, it is expected that OIC countries are going to own the SDGs to a higher extent when compared to MDGs. This naturally will reflect into political determination and willingness to follow up SDGs and implement policies in order to reach them.

According to the latest information (UNDG, 2016), nine OIC countries (Egypt, Indonesia, Mauritania, Morocco, Pakistan, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Turkmenistan, and Uganda) from different geographical regions of the OIC have already started aligning their national development plans with SDGs under the coordination of the United Nations Development Group (UNDG), comprised of over 30 UN agencies. This positive development exemplifies the increased political will of OIC countries to be more active in the implementation of SDGs in their respective countries. Therefore, the OIC GS needs to develop similar mechanisms to the UNDG with a view to benefit from this positive momentum observed in the international development agenda to guide and assist all OIC countries for the implementation and follow up of SDGs.

4.2 Institutional capacity and governance

The SDGs aim to advance a variety of issues, which are significant for political, social, economic and environmental development. Yet, when looking at the practices, institutional capacity and governance remain as the critical factors for developing and implementing effective and equitable policy measures. Particularly, in the developing countries, including OIC members, this issue is the central concern to enhance transparency; inform effective government decision-making; strengthen the fight against corruption, and have a positive impact on the levels of trust in society.

The formation of the modern state inevitably involved the creation of new legitimizations of authority and power. It increases necessity for institutional innovation, qualified by the principles: performance, adaptability, and stability; and the main governance principles, which are participation, inclusion, equality, rule of law and accountability. When individual institutions or entire systems adopt a combination of these principles, governments boost their ability to formulate and take effective and legitimate actions (UNDP, 2011). These key qualities and principles can also help countries design and implement more inclusive policies and avoid implementing recovery measures that could erode social protection (such as cash transfers) and social services (such as health and education) (Sepulveda 2011).

In that regard, the SDG framework underlines the importance of institutional capacity, which involves three prominent principles (performance, adaptability and stability of the systems) in the state agenda. Firstly, performing institutions, with the capacity to deliver basic public services and to design and implement policies, became critically important to countries' efforts to achieve their development goals, and even more so during crisis (UNDP, 2011).

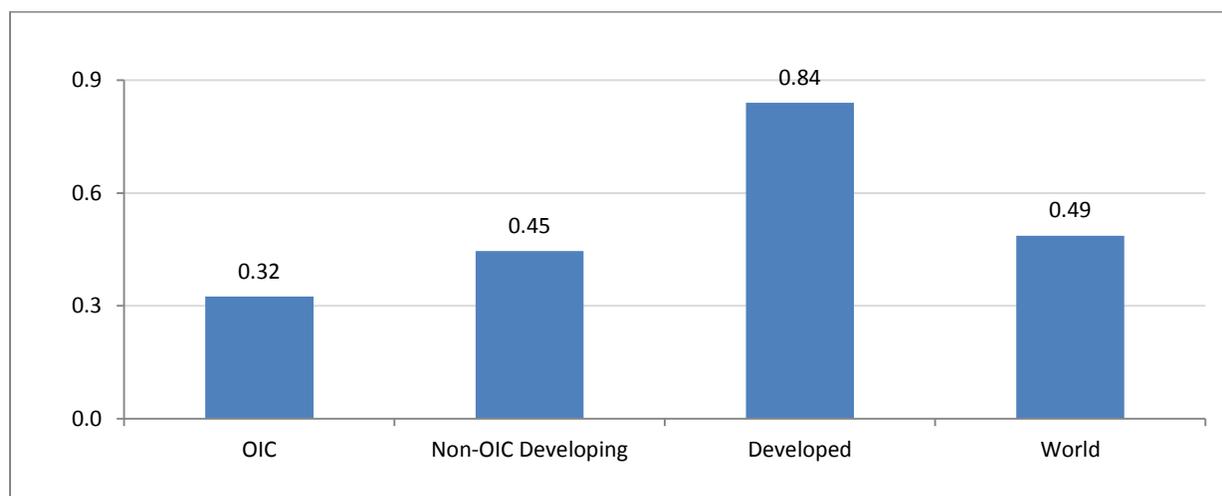
In addition, in times of crisis, countries need institutions with the capacity to anticipate, adapt and respond to changing needs and shifting priorities. Adaptability is thus an ability to perform in future conditions and to innovate to meet future needs (UNDP 2010, 2011). Adaptable institutions are flexible and able to continuously invest in endogenous improvements, while anticipating and responding to crises with innovative solutions (UNDP 2010 and Killick 1995). Stability is also important for the institutional

capacity and quality in a country, because with stable institutions, a country can decrease volatility of performance through institutionalization of good practices and norms and can identify and mitigate internal and external risks through risk management (UNDP 2010, 2011).

Good governance can also be marked as an important principle for the process leading to and formulation of the SDGs, achieving and maintaining MDGs goals which include participation; equity, non-discrimination and inclusiveness; gender equality; rules-based; transparency; and accountability and responsiveness (UNDP, 2014).

Nevertheless, when looking at the institutional quality and governance indicators, only developed countries have shown progressive performance in both institutional and governance qualities. In this context, in terms of the robustness of the institutions and their capacity, developed countries have improved their institutional quality after an enhancement to their economic institutions as a result of several reforms implemented at the end of the last century (Krause, 2014). According to the institutional quality index (IQI) published by the Latin American Liberal Net, these countries demonstrate the highest institutional performance with the average of 0.84. The OIC countries, on the other hand, demonstrate the weakest level of institutional performance among the group of countries shown in Figure 4.1 with a score of 0.32. This score is lower than the score registered by the non-OIC developing countries (0.45) and the world average (0.49).

Figure 4.1: Institutional Quality Index 2014



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on the Latin American Liberal Net IQI.

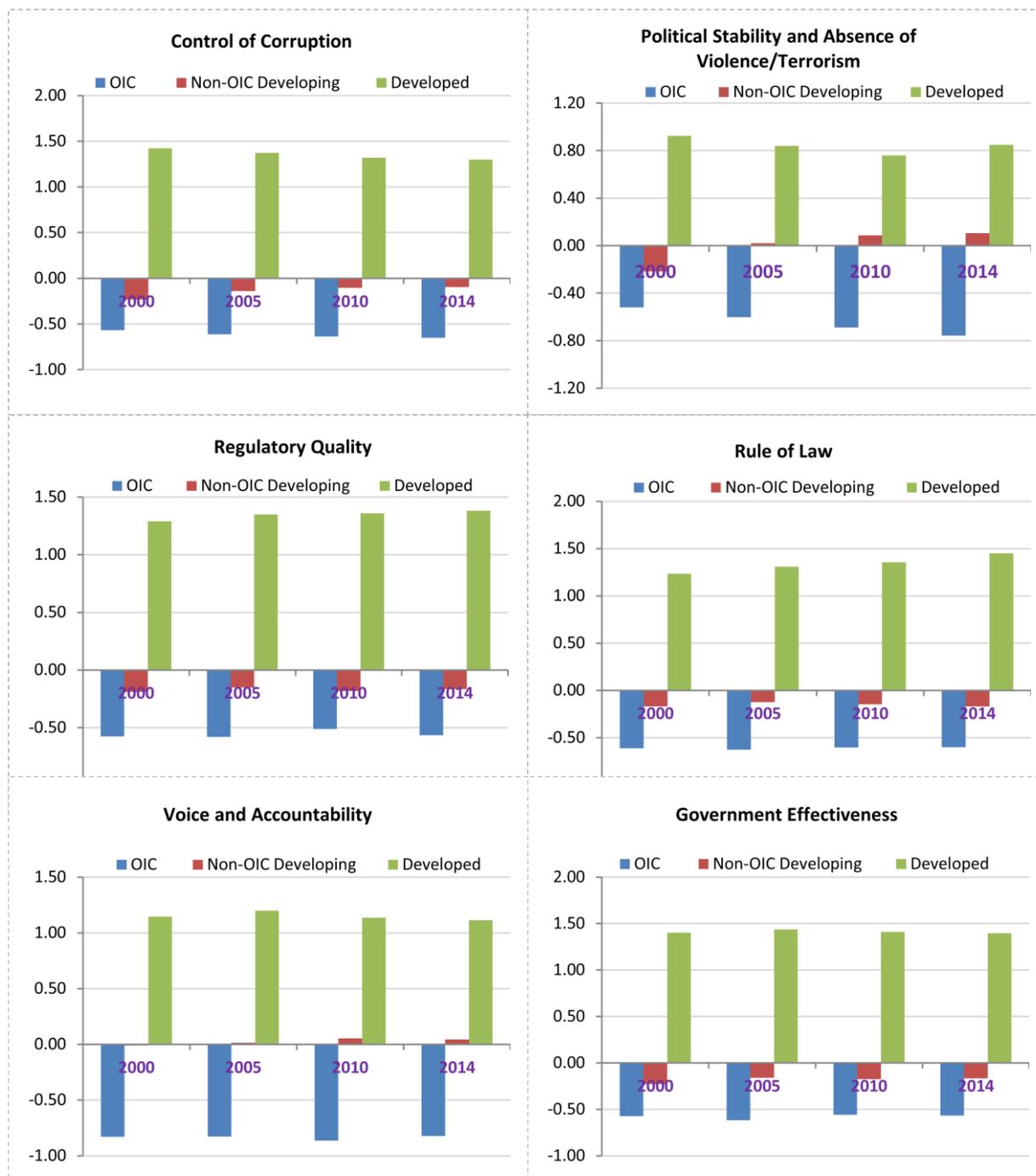
Also, when it comes to the governance, OIC countries perform rather poorly. Figure 4.2 shows the Worldwide Governance Indicators (WGI) of the World Bank, which measures voice and accountability, political stability and absence of violence/terrorism, government effectiveness, regulatory quality, rule of law, and control of corruption. All indicators range from -2.5 (weak) to 2.5 (strong) governance performance, and in order to provide a better comparability, the indicators were standardized to an average of zero and standard deviation of one (Kaufmann, Kraay & Mastruzzi, 2010).

Figure 4.2 indicates that governance quality is comparatively high in the developed countries, where the level of social capital is the highest. Conversely, developing countries suffer from poor governance. Particularly OIC countries, as a group, have much lower levels of governance quality than the non-OIC developing countries. For the OIC countries, indicators do not change much between 2000 and 2014 except for the political stability and absence of violence/terrorism which deteriorated significantly from a value of -0.52 in year 2000 to a value of -0.76 in year 2014.

The above mentioned facts on institutional capacity and governance are not absent from the mind of the OIC. In fact, the OIC Charter (Article 1.15) calls upon all Member States to uphold and promote, at the national and international levels, good governance, democracy, rule of law, human rights and fundamental freedoms. The OIC has also launched several programs and initiatives to improve institutional and governance quality. In this context, the OIC 2025 Plan of Action specifically addresses the necessity of good governance and accountability and OIC institutional reforms. This Plan also underlines the importance of promoting knowledge and sharing experience about best practices in good governance, justice, due process, equality of opportunity, accountability, and rule of law. According to the para 56 of the OIC 2025 Plan of Action:

“A sound legal framework is necessary for the achievement of durable peace and stability, which should inspire actions in different spheres. Efforts should be geared towards creating enabling environment for active participation of all relevant stakeholders and providing the legislative and judicial framework for the eradication of corruption in all its forms, as well as for proper dispensation of justice”.

Figure 4.2: Governance Indicators



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on the World Bank, WGI.

The OIC organs have also initiated a number of project and programs to enhance institutional structure and good governance principles in the member countries. More specifically, the subsidiary institutions, such as SESRIC and ICDT, and standing committees, i.e. COMCEC, carry out programs to advance institutional and governance quality, involving training programs in selected fields; fostering the economic

development and social progress of member countries; and extending consultancy and expert services to the member countries.

When looking at the institutional capacities and governance in OIC countries (Figure 4.1 and 4.2), some challenges are still critical for the implementation of the SDGs, which can be summarized as: (1) administrative gap; created by the problems in administrative boundaries in achieving intended outcomes, which are legitimate and requires thorough assessment of their capacity to carry out their duties properly, (2) policy gap, which are fragmented across authorities and levels of government which raises the question of vertical and horizontal coordination for effective implementation of SDGs, (3) information gap, in which many countries are still lagging behind and a huge asymmetry of information exists between authorities, end users, service providers and other stakeholders, (4) capacity gap in terms of human resources, expertise and infrastructure remains a major challenge, and (5) accountability gap; the capacity of governments to deliver quality public services at an affordable cost is an indicator of accountability vis-à-vis citizens. Issues of transparency and integrity are also important in a sector that has a high degree of monopolistic behavior.

In the light of the above, it can be argued that OIC countries should step up measures to strengthen their institutional structure and improve the quality of governance strategies as part of a new sustainable development agenda. In that regard, three recommendations, discussed in the UNDP (2011) report for the use of governance principle, can be important to enhance the implementation of SDGs in OIC member countries. These are:

- Strengthen oversight institutions (e.g., constitutional courts, national human rights institutions) to improve the ability of a system or institution to negotiate, through inclusive and transparent processes, distributive measures;
- Institutionalize and/or strengthen participatory decision-making and consultation processes at the national level (e.g., establish civil society councils or inclusive policy round tables);
- Invest in effective ‘voice mechanisms’ that allow for the free, active and meaningful participation of citizens and stakeholders in the decision-making processes;

4.3 Data and monitoring

Data revolution

Measuring sustainability is a highly technical task that requires capturing complex economic, societal and environmental interactions. Despite the progress on processes related to data has been recorded during the MDGs period, there is clearly insufficient high-quality data and insufficient or no usage of data for sound policy design and evidence-based decision making. Against this background and the need for data to better plan, implement, measure, and monitor the SDGs, the High Level Panel (HLP) on the Post-2015 Development Agenda coined the term “data revolution” in 2013 (UN High Level Panel, 2013). The report of the HLP defines the “true data revolution” as transformative actions that would draw on existing and new sources of data to fully integrate statistics into decision making, promote open access to, and use of, data and ensure increased support for statistical systems.

To support this, the HLP has recommended establishing a *Global Partnership on Development Data* that would bring together national statistics offices (NSOs), international organisations, civil society organisations, and the private sector to develop a global strategy to fill critical gaps, expand data accessibility, and galvanise international efforts to ensure a baseline for post-2015 targets is in place by January 2016.

In November 2014, the UN Secretary-General's Independent Expert Advisory Group (IEAG) set a vision for "data revolution" in its "A World That Counts" Report. By basing their roadmap on four pillars of principles and standards; technology, innovation and analysis; capacity and resources; and leadership and governance, the IEAG proposed the following five key recommendations for actions to be taken in the near future (UN IEAG, 2014):

Develop a global consensus on principles and standards: Creation of a "Global Consensus on Data" is proposed to adopt principles concerning legal, technical, privacy, geospatial and statistical standards which, among other things, will facilitate openness and information exchange and promote and protect human rights;

Share technology and innovations for the common good: Creation of a global "Network of Data Innovation Networks" is proposed to bring together the organisations and experts in the field which is expected to contribute to the adoption of best practices for improving the monitoring of SDGs, identify areas where common data-related infrastructures could address capacity problems and improve efficiency, encourage collaborations, identify critical research gaps and create incentives to innovate;

New resources for capacity development: A new funding stream based on an assessment concerning the scale of investments, capacity development and technology transfer for data revolution in developing countries and to implement an education program aimed at improving people's capacity and data literacy to break down barriers between people and data;

Leadership for coordination and mobilisation: "Global Partnership for Sustainable Development Data" is proposed to mobilise and coordinate the actions and institutions required to make the data revolution serve sustainable development, promoting several initiatives, such as:

- "World Forum on Sustainable Development Data" to bring together the whole data ecosystem to share ideas and experiences for data improvements, innovation, advocacy and technology transfer.
- A "Global Users Forum for Data for SDGs" to ensure feedback loops between data producers and users, help the international community to set priorities and assess results;
- Brokering key global public-private partnerships for data sharing;

Exploit some quick wins on SDG data: Creation of a "SDGs data lab" is proposed to support the development of a first wave of SDG indicators, developing an SDG analysis and visualisation platform using the most advanced tools and features for exploring data, and building a dashboard from diverse data sources on "the state of the world".

Starting from April 2015, the data revolution has been given a concrete roadmap for actions including:

As for political ownership and leadership: The “African Data Consensus” (High Level Conference on Data Revolution, 2015) that envisions a partnership of all data communities in the African region that upholds the principles of official statistics as well as openness across the data value chain, which creates a vibrant data ecosystem providing timely, user-driven and disaggregated data for public good and inclusive development;

As for financing the transformation of the NSSs: The “Data for Development: A Needs Assessment for SDG Monitoring and Statistical Capacity Development” study by the UN Sustainable Development Solutions Network (SDSN, 2015) estimates that the IDA-eligible countries will need to spend 1 billion USD a year to upgrade their statistical systems and carry out regular data collection for the SDGs. Donors must maintain current contributions to statistics, of approximately 300 million USD per annum, and go further, leveraging 100-200 million USD more in Official Development Assistance (ODA) to support country efforts;

As for data gaps: The “Data Revolution: Finding the Missing Millions” report by the Overseas Development Institute (ODI, 2015) presents the inconvenient truth about data gaps by stating that as many as 350 million people worldwide are not covered by household surveys. There could be as many as a quarter more people living on less than 1.25 USD a day than current estimates suggest, because they have been missed out of surveys.

As for highlighting the central role of NSOs for country-led data revolution: The “A Roadmap for a Country-Led Data Revolution” by PARIS21 (2015) clearly states that capacity building must support NSOs to become centres of excellence and support users with the resources they need to make use of statistical material. Based on the IEAG report, the roadmap proposed by PARIS21 sits on the same four main pillars; including, Capacity and Resources, Principles and Standards, Technology-Innovation and Analysis, and Governance and Leadership.

As for bringing together data providers and users and fostering new partnerships: The Cartagena Data Festival (2015) focused on solving critical gaps in coverage, access and analysis of data by gathering both data providers and users whose innovations, resources, expertise and influence drive the changes that are needed to advance a data revolution.

SDGs indicator framework

The United Nations Statistical Commission (UNSC) created an Inter-agency and Expert Group on SDG Indicators (IAEG-SDGs) at its 46th Session. The IAEG-SDGs has mainly been tasked to develop an indicator framework for the goals and targets of the post-2015 development agenda at the global level, and to support its implementation.

In establishing the IAEG-SDGs, the UNSC requested the use of existing regional mechanisms in order to ensure equitable regional representation and technical expertise. The IAEG-SDGs is currently composed of 28 Member States (of which 7 are OIC Member States including Algeria, Bahrain, Cameroon, Egypt, Kyrgyzstan, Senegal and Uganda) and including regional and international agencies as observers.

The IAEG-SDGs provided a proposal of a global indicator framework (and associated global and universal indicators which can be grouped under three tiers) which was endorsed by the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) at its 47th Session in March 2016. At the end of three meetings that were held in 2015 and 2016, the IAEG-SDGs has proposed to group 230 SDGs indicators into 3 tiers based on their level of methodological development and data availability.

Tier 1 currently includes 81 indicators which are conceptually clear with established methodology and standards available and data are regularly produced by countries.

Tier 2 includes 57 indicators which are conceptually clear with established methodology and standards available but data are not regularly produced by countries.

Tier 3 includes 88 indicators for which there are no established methodologies and standards or methodology/standards are being developed and tested.

The remaining 4 SDGs indicators have multiple tiers as different components of the indicators are assigned different tiers.

The current SDGs indicator framework not only classifies the indicators under three different tiers but also requires the disaggregation of SDGs indicators by income, sex, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability, geographic location, or other characteristics, in accordance with the Fundamental Principles of Official Statistics. As more than 145 indicators out of 230 indicators are classified under Tier 2 and Tier 3 and there are multiple levels of required for data disaggregation, developing nations face more challenges for the SDGs monitoring framework as compared to that of the MDGs period.

A recent study by the Statistics Division of the United Nations Economic and Social Council for Western Asia (UNESCWA) found out that the Arab countries could produce 3 and more data points in the majority of indicators under Goals 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 12, 16, and 17; while they could not produce data for the majority of the indicators under Goals 1, 9, 10, 11, 14, and 15.

This brings us to the question of strengthening statistical capacities of NSSs to achieve the SDGs monitoring framework.

Strengthening statistical capacities in the post-2015 development period

Investing in the development of national statistical capacities is not a luxury but a must. In present day conditions, an NSS can keep its relevance against the emerging alternative data providers if its statistical capacity is improved and enriched with a continuous stream of resources.

The World Bank (2016) defines statistical capacity as "... a nation's ability to collect, analyse, and disseminate high-quality data about its population and economy". The Statistical Capacity Indicator (SCI) of World Bank is a composite score assessing the capacity of a country's statistical system. It is based on a diagnostic framework assessing the following areas: statistical methodology (SM); data source (DS); and periodicity and timeliness (PT). Countries are scored against 25 criteria in these areas (10 criteria for SM, 5 criteria for DS, and 10 criteria for PT), using publicly available information and/or country input. The

overall Statistical Capacity score is then being calculated as simple average of all three area scores on a scale of 0-100.

The 2016 SCI scores clearly show that there is a lot more to be done for the NSSs of OIC member countries. With wide varying SCI scores between 20 and 92 over 100, the 50 OIC countries assessed against the three sub-dimensions of the SCI yielded in 2016 a lower average (63.64) than the averages of the 146 countries (66.32) and non-OIC developing countries (67.56) assessed.

While only 26 OIC member countries have recorded overall SCI scores higher than the world average in 2016, it is noteworthy that nine OIC member countries (Bangladesh, Gabon, Gambia, Maldives, Mozambique, Nigeria, Palestine, Turkey, and Uzbekistan) are with diminishing scores since 2014 and even 2013.

There is an urgent need to address the problems related to import and export price indexes (a full score was obtained by three OIC countries out of 50), subscription to Special Data Dissemination Standard (only 10 OIC countries with a full score), industrial production index (only 17 OIC countries with a full score), and government finance accounting concept (only 18 OIC countries with a full score) under Statistical Methodology; and vital registration system coverage (only 12 OIC countries with a full score) under Source Data.

Against this background and in accordance with the Resolution #117 of the Thirty-First Session of the COMCEC of the OIC that was held on 23-26 November 2015 in Istanbul, Turkey, the SESRIC has circulated a survey to identify the priorities given by the OIC member countries to each of the 17 SDGs. The survey not only tries to identify the prioritisation of SDGs and expected achievement levels by OIC countries, and limiting factors on SDGs in their national contexts, it also tries to uncover the national commitments of member countries to SDGs; their relevant agencies for SDGs planning, coordination, implementation, and monitoring; their human resource capacities; cooperation with international agencies relevant to SDGs; and training needs and capacities on SDGs. To better analyse these points, the SESRIC invites all OIC countries to complete the survey by visiting: www.sesric.org/activities-announcements-detail.php?id=386

4.4 Crisis and conflict

The frequency, duration and impacts of humanitarian crises, mainly driven by natural disasters and conflicts, continue to increase, particularly in OIC countries. While the global figures on the number of people affected from natural disasters and conflicts are constantly rising, OIC member countries are affected more than any other parts of the world by large-scale humanitarian crises and disasters, and the trend is unfortunately on the rise. Combined threats of instability, conflict and violence, often coupled with and accelerated by other factors, including natural disasters and climate change pose significant humanitarian and development challenges. As a direct outcome, today OIC countries account for 58.9% of all displaced population in the world with more than 22 million displaced people. More alarmingly, around 83% of all new internal displacement in the world during 2014-15 took place in OIC countries.

Crises across the world are exhibiting complex characteristics, where conflict coincides with multiple additional factors such as environmental, economic and social instabilities. Coincidence with already existing vulnerabilities such as poverty, inequality and lack of access to basic services exacerbates the

destructive impacts of disasters and conflicts. On the other hand, conflicts and disasters can create other instabilities and new vulnerabilities. This may include food insecurity and entrenched poverty, displacement, environmental degradation, political instabilities and epidemics. Conflicts at increased frequency and grievance as well as natural disasters, environmental degradation, poverty and poor governance force people to flee their home.

There is also mounting evidence that many countries especially in the developing world are experiencing both natural and man-made disasters (conflict) at the same time or shortly one after the other. The interface between natural disasters and conflicts usually has adverse impacts on the welfare of communities by increasing their vulnerabilities and worsening the poverty and inequality situation. This fact underlines the need for a paradigm shift in current risk reduction and management approaches of humanitarian crises and conflicts at national, regional and international levels. A new holistic approach needs to be developed which reflects complexities of humanitarian crises and provides an integrated framework to manage associated risks and vulnerabilities in an effective manner.

Crises and development

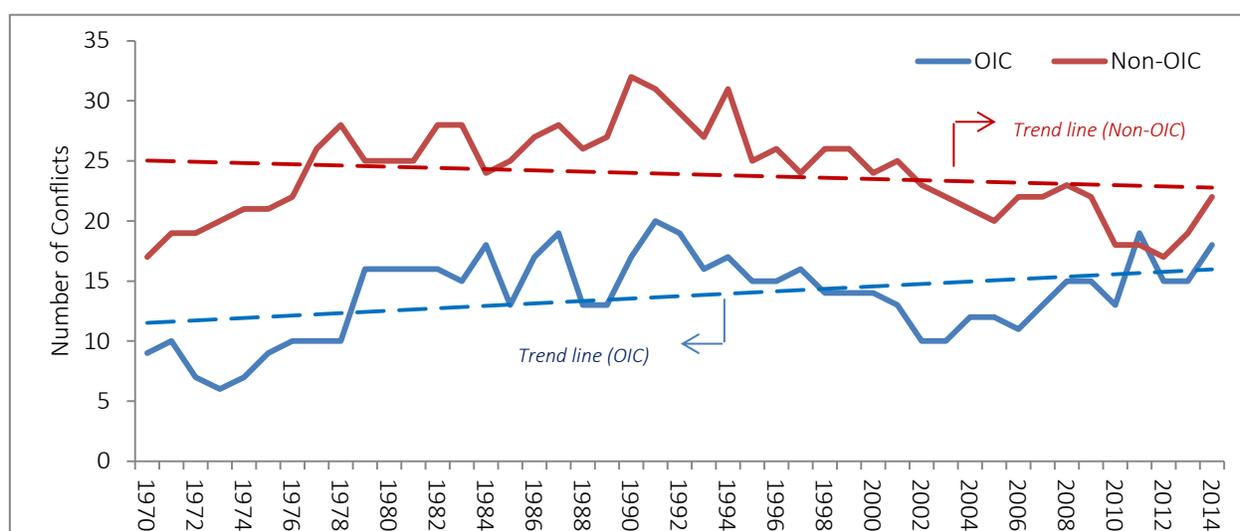
Relationship between development and peace and stability is strong and goes in both directions. While peace and security are prerequisites for development and prosperity, failures in development substantially increase proneness to civil conflict. The consequences of violent conflicts on development are far from simple. Socio-economic costs not only vary from one country to another, but are also uneven within countries as the costs of such conflicts affect the population within a country unequally and distort the income distribution. On average, the cost of civil war is equivalent to more than 30 years of GDP growth for a medium-size developing country (World Bank, 2011). Similarly, trade levels after major episodes of violence take 20 years to recover (Martin et al. 2008). In other words, unlike natural disasters or economic crises, a major incident of violent conflict can exterminate an entire generation of economic progress. The negative effects of armed conflicts also extend well beyond these measurable social and economic costs. It destroys essential infrastructure, including schools, hospitals, and energy systems; destroys social cohesion; and triggers forced displacement of people. Yet, interaction between disasters and conflicts may further exacerbate the situation and increase the socio-economic costs. Conflicts may increase disaster risks by increasing vulnerabilities and hampering effective response and recovery. This indicates that whenever disaster and conflict overlap, it can be difficult to verify whether the existence or severity of conflict is an outcome of the disaster.

Such disastrous threats to sustainable development should leave no doubt for any policy maker in any developing country that disaster risk reduction ought to be an integral part of any national or local economic development strategy and plan. Substantial investments in institutional and legal frameworks, physical infrastructures, education and awareness, and beyond are required to educate people and organisations, and create capacities for prevention, preparation, response and recovery, with emphasis on prevention and preparation. The OIC countries, if not the most in need of such provisions, are no exceptions.

Crises trends in OIC countries

A single armed conflict has the potential to inflict devastating human suffering in addition to wiping out development gains accumulated over many years, if not decades. Unfortunately for the OIC countries, the number of armed conflicts exhibits an upward trend which is in contrast to the downward trend observed in non-OIC countries (Figure 4.3). In 2014, 18 of 40 conflicts recorded worldwide occurred in OIC countries. The intensity of conflicts in OIC countries has also been increasing since 2003, which corresponds to the year the USA and UK invaded Iraq. Is this just a coincidence or is there causality between the 2003 invasion of Iraq and the increasing intensity of conflicts in OIC countries? Regardless of the answer, one thing is sure; these high intensity conflicts are resulting in tremendous human suffering and widespread devastation and will leave these countries crippled for many years to come. Moreover, the nature of conflicts in OIC countries has undergone a significant change in the last decade and half. Since the year 2002, OIC countries have witnessed a surge in the number of internationalized internal conflicts. This indicates that many OIC countries have become a battle ground for many regional and international powers fighting directly or using proxies.

Figure 4.3: Conflict Trends



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on the Uppsala Conflict Database.

Moreover, according to the EM-DAT database, over the past decade and a half, natural disasters have been killing more than 91 thousand people, with almost 30% of those fatalities occurring in OIC countries. Furthermore, the number of disasters has been increasing over time. During 1970-2015, the number of natural disasters around the world significantly increased from 903 occurrences in the 1970s to 6,507 during the period 2000-2015 (Table 4.1). The OIC share in the aggregate number of disaster incidents in the world during 1970-2015 stands at 24.0%. It is also worth noting that the OIC countries' share in total number of natural disasters is 24%, but their share of fatalities is around 40%. This implies that OIC countries are more vulnerable to disasters than other country groups.

In order to give further insight on the humanitarian crises in OIC countries, Table 4.2 presents the distribution of vulnerable people in selected OIC countries based on seven different humanitarian needs. In these ten countries, there is a tremendous pressure on basic needs. Food supply and shelter appear to

be highly demanded by the crisis-affected people in Yemen and Syria. Besides, the numbers of conflict-induced displacement have vastly increased in countries like Syria, Iraq, Sudan and Yemen. Many vulnerable people from the affected countries such as Yemen (13.5 million), Syria (12.1 million) and Iraq (7 million) are deprived of receiving water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) services.

Table 4.1: Natural Disaster Trends

	1970-79	1980-89	1990-99	2000-15
OIC	199	420	681	1,628
Rest of the World	704	1,404	2,290	4,879
World	903	1,824	2,971	6,507
OIC % of World	22.0%	23.0%	22.9%	25.0%

Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

Table 4.2: Distribution of Vulnerable People based on Humanitarian Needs (Millions)

COUNTRY	Food	Shelter	Displacement	Health	Wash	Education	Protection
Afghanistan	2.5	0.64	1.65	5.4	1.9	4	1.9
Iraq	4.4	1.2	3.2	6.7	7	3	10
Libya	1.5	0.10	0.37	1.9	0.68	0.15	2.44
Mali	1.9	0.50	0.062	2.2	0.84	0.81	0.75
Niger	3.4	0.09	0.15	1.4	1.5	0.21	1.2
Nigeria	4.5	1	2	1	2.2	0.40	1.64
Somalia	1	1.1	1.1	3.72	2.8	1.7	1.1
Sudan	4.5	3	3.1	5.2	3.8	2.5	3.5
Syria	8.7	2.4	8.5	11.5	12.1	2.4	13.5
Yemen	14.4	1.2	2	9	13.5	1.8	11.4

Source: Global Crisis Overview, 2015; The Crisis Overview 2015: Humanitarian Trends and Risks for 2016.

Impacts of crises

Conflicts and disasters have the largest impact on human life and dignity. Weak and conflict affected states make slower progress in development compared to those with more robust institutions. Similarly, communities that experience the highest levels of violence and political instability in a country or a region are least likely to experience improvements in their livelihoods. They suffer in terms of access to economic opportunities and services, particularly in the area of health, education, water and sanitation. According to the World Bank (2011), the development deficit is concentrated in fragile and conflict-affected and recovering states, which account for 77% of school-age children not enrolled in primary school, 61% of poverty, and 70% of infant mortality.

Despite the devastating natural disasters hitting various countries around the world, armed conflicts have been the greatest driver of prolonged humanitarian need. Crises are becoming more protracted and displacement levels are unprecedented due to the lack of durable political solutions. Majority of people

needing humanitarian assistance are living in conflict-affected areas (OCHA, 2016). Those who are forced to migrate are often confronted by life-threatening dangers in transit and exploitation in their destinations, and they may lose links with their families and communities, and experience severe socio-economic loss and impoverishment, with women and children are particularly at risk (IFRC, 2012).

High incidence of poverty, food security and hunger is a critical dimension of conflicts and disasters. By some estimates, the concentration of the global poor doubled between 2005 and 2010, from 20% to 40%, in around 30 fragile states in the “Alert” category of the Fragile States Index ranking (Chandy and Gertz, 2011). Again, it is estimated that while around 18.5% of the world population lived in fragile states in 2010, these countries hosted about one-third of the poor (400 million out of 1.2 billion), reflecting a more than two-fold difference in the prevalence of poverty between fragile states and nonfragile states: about 20% compared to 40% (Sumner, 2012; OECD, 2013).

People suffering humanitarian crises lack access to good education. In conflict affected regions, it is a key instrument for rehabilitation of affected people. Recovery and reconstruction of a nation is more complicated when younger generations do not get good education. Today, according to UNICEF estimates, nearly 3 million Syrian children inside and outside the country are out of school (HRW, 2015). The educational achievements in Syria deteriorated quickly with the conflict, as countless number of schools have been destroyed, damaged, or converted into shelters.

Another aspect of human deprivation is in the area of health. Whether they are due to natural disasters, conflicts, disease outbreaks or any other hazards, crises can weaken health systems and damage health infrastructure. Disasters and conflicts can put the continuity and sustainability of health sector services at risk, and destroy many years of health sector development. In general, poverty, urbanization and population displacement have led to concentration of human populations in conditions that favour major outbreaks. The challenge in such situations is to strengthen global efforts to detect and contain epidemic disease threats. The famine in Somalia in 2011 affected around 10 million people in the region. Movement of large population across the region fueled the public health challenges that are faced in these areas due to poorly developed health systems and lack of disaster preparedness capacities (SESRI, 2015). Similarly, political unrest and armed conflict in Mali in 2012 had resulted in widespread population displacement, with 300,000 internally displaced populations (IDPs) and 174,000 registered refugees. Access to health care was affected by the destruction and looting of health facilities, equipment and supplies, the departure of public and NGO health care providers, and the suspension of priority health programmes (WHO, 2015).

Violence against women and girls is one of the most prevalent human rights violations in the world and this often intensifies during conflict situations. Gender-based violence has been a weapon of war or conflict, frequently used as an instrument to control and intimidate a population. Refugees and displaced people are particularly vulnerable to gender-based violence. Various factors related to conflict situations, such as forced displacement, separation of families, disruption of community and institutional protection structures, and lack of access to justice, increase the likelihood of gender-based violence. Similarly, disasters can also cause a deterioration of protection systems, which has the potential to increase vulnerability to gender-based violence. While the full scale of the crisis globally is now known, sexual

violence against men and boys has also been reported in over 25 conflict-affected countries in the last decade.

4.5 Financing

The implementation of SDGs requires a sustainable financing strategy to address the investment needs effectively. In general, financing needs for SDGs include (a) basic needs related to eradicating poverty and hunger, improving health and education, providing access to affordable energy and promoting gender equality; (b) national sustainable development investment financing needs, such as for infrastructure, rural development, adaptation and climate resilient development, and energy; and (c) global public goods, including the protection of the global environment and combatting climate change and its impact, as well as other areas (UN, 2016).

Experience with the implementation of MDGs shows that public finances contributed the largest share of investment in MDGs related sectors in OIC countries and elsewhere in the developing world (Oxfam & DFI, 2015). Over the years, many OIC countries have witnessed steady increase in public revenues due to improvement in collection mechanisms and effectiveness of tax authorities. However, despite progress, there are differences between countries and efforts to raise domestic resources are often constrained by tax evasion and avoidance and by illicit financial flows in many countries.

Financing needs differ across the countries based on their social-economic profile and existing level of investments in the SDGs related sectors. While needs are relatively small for the developed countries, there are serious challenges especially for the low and lower middle income countries (including OIC countries) to mobilize the necessary financial resources for the implementation of SDGs.

Cost of SDGs

Though quantifying the exact financial implications of the SDGs for the world is a daunting task, preliminary findings of various studies estimated total cost to be ‘trillions of dollars a year’. The World Investment Report (UNCTAD, 2014) put global investment needs for SDG-related sectors between 5 to 7 trillion US dollars (\$) per year. Most of these funds (3.3 to 4.5 trillion US dollars) are needed for developing countries to invest in basic infrastructure, food security, climate change mitigation and adaptation, health, and education. Effective mobilization of domestic and international resources is crucial, with developing countries facing an annual SDG-financing gap of 2.5 trillion US dollars.

In order to guide the discussion on SDGs-financing needs SDSN also published a working paper which assess the SDGs financing needs for 84 low and lower middle income countries including 33 OIC members (Schmidt-Traub, 2015). The paper proposes an analytical framework for SDG needs assessments by translating the 17 SDGs into eight investment areas: (1) health, (2) education, (3) social protection, (4) food security and sustainable agriculture, (5) infrastructure –including (a) energy access and low-carbon energy infrastructure, (b) water and sanitation, (c) transport infrastructure, and (d) telecommunications infrastructure – (6) ecosystem services and biodiversity, (7) data for the SDGs, and (8) emergency response and humanitarian work.

According to the findings of this paper (Schmidt-Traub, 2015), incremental spending needs in low and lower-middle-income countries may amount to at least 1.4 trillion US dollars per year (\$ 343-360 billion for low-income countries and US\$ 900-944 billion for lower-middle-income countries). Around half of this funding could be financed by the private sector whereas domestic public finance could cover \$805 – \$836 billion. The remaining \$152-163 billion per year must be met through international public finance, including ODA. According to the authors, however, these results are preliminary and meant for discussion and improvement in the future.

Table 4.3: SDG Annual Investment Requirements (US\$ billion)

Sectors	UNCTAD (2014)	UN SDSN (2015)
Food security and agriculture	260	248
Health	140	51–80
Education	250	22
Access to water and sanitation	260	27
Climate change and energy	810–1,470	474–814

Source: UNCTAD 2014, Schmidt-Traub, 2015.

Being a substantial part of the developing world, OIC countries require significant financial resources to implement the SDGs. Though available global and income-group-level estimates on total cost of SDGs include a significant number of OIC countries, such estimates are virtually non-existent for all 57 OIC countries to learn about the total cost and its affordability for the OIC countries. We can, however, partially analyze SDGs investment needs for selected low and lower middle income OIC countries by looking into the findings of a recent report published by the Overseas Development Institute (ODI, 2015). This report basically calculates the cost and affordability of achieving three key SDGs targets –ending extreme poverty, attaining universal primary health care, and attaining universal secondary school completion by 2030– on a country by country basis.

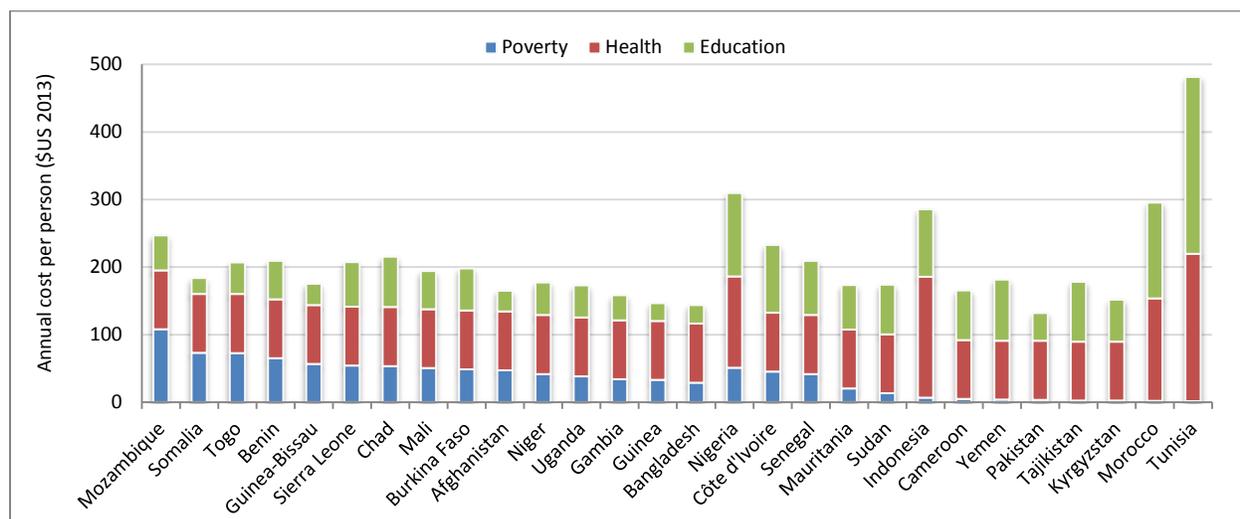
The total cost for the SDGs targets related to poverty, health and education is estimated to be US\$ 280 billion a year in 30 low and lower middle income OIC countries. More than half (54%) of this amount is needed for the implementation of SDG on health, 36% for education and 11% for poverty. Among the OIC countries with data, 15 low income countries accounted for only 22% (i.e. US\$62 billion) of the total cost for these three SDGs. The annual per person costs on a country by country basis for low and lower middle income OIC countries is shown in Figure 4.4. In line with the conventional wisdom, the cost of ending poverty is highest in the poorer countries whereas education and health costs are highest in lower middle income OIC countries.

Financial resource availability and gaps

Affordability of implementing these SDGs targets depends largely on the ability of a country to mobilize sufficient public revenues as bulk of investment in health, education and poverty related initiatives is done by the governments. In order to gage the affordability of SDGs targets on poverty, education and health in the selected OIC countries, potential government revenue is combined with the existing levels of

aid and plotted against the total cost. This is worth highlighting that potential government revenue is based on the IMF and World Bank calculations of how much extra revenue countries could theoretically raise given their present level of development. Provided the fact that governments spend public resources on a variety of sectors, it is assumed that only half of the potential government revenue will be directed towards these three SDGs targets.

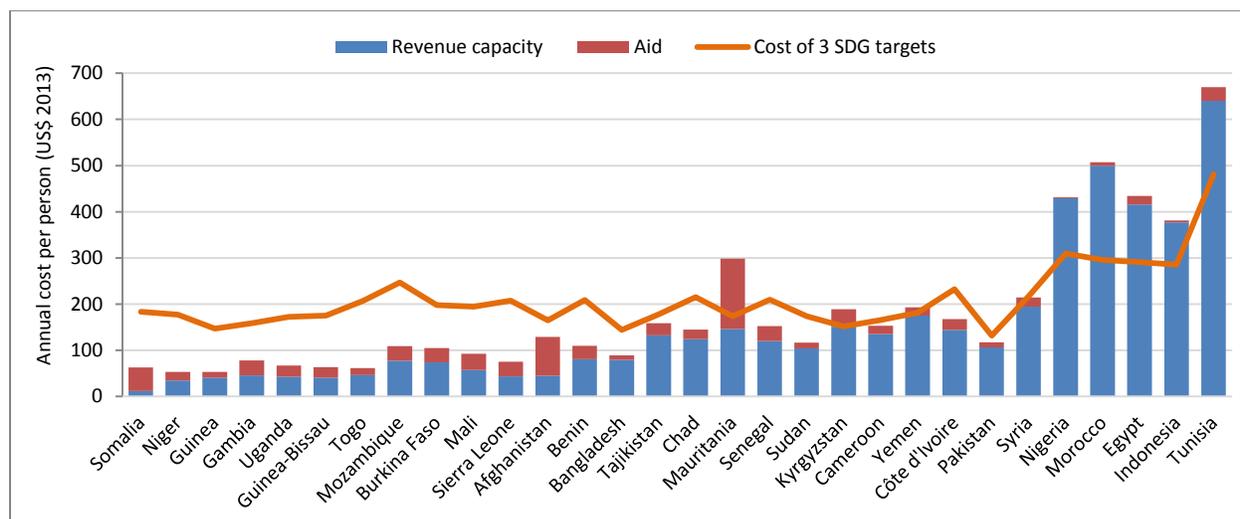
Figure 4.4: Annual Cost of Implementing SDGs on Poverty, Health and Education



Source: Based on Schmidt-Traub, 2015.

As shown in Figure 4.5, if potential revenue is attained, majority of lower middle income OIC countries can afford the implementation of these three SDGs. Sudan, Cad, Senegal and Côte d'Ivoire, however, need substantial increase in public revenues to do so. On the other hand, cost of implementing SDG targets on poverty, education and health remained significantly higher than the potential government revenue in all low income countries. Therefore, these countries will not be able to achieve these targets on their own with current level of government revenue and aid and will require additional resources.

Figure 4.5: Public Finance v/s Annual Cost of Three SDG Targets

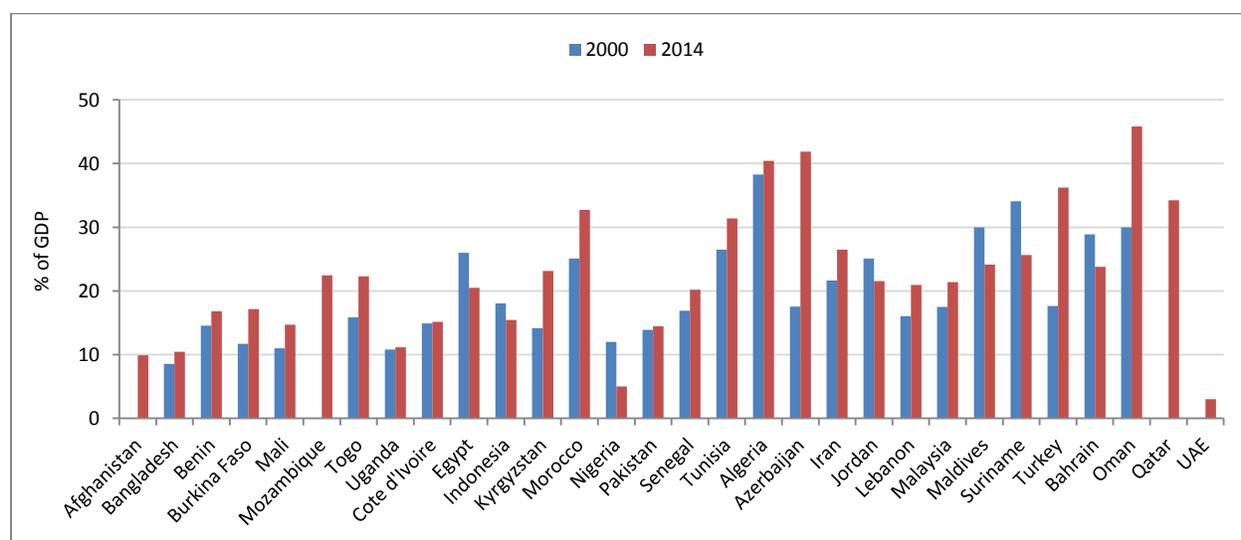


Source: Based on Schmidt-Traub, 2015.

Over the years, improvement in revenue collection mechanisms and effectiveness of tax authorities resulted in steady increase in domestic public finance in OIC countries. According to the latest estimates of the World Bank, domestic public finance in OIC countries witnessed substantial raise between 2000 and 2014, increasing from US\$226 billion to \$1.1 trillion. In absolute terms, however, this improvement is mainly contributed by the upper middle and high income OIC countries which accounted for over two third (67%) of OIC total public revenue collection in 2014. Domestic public finance has also improved in low and lower middle income OIC countries, but increase remained comparatively very low.

As shown in Figure 4.6, public revenue as percent of GDP has improved across the majority of 30 OIC countries with available data. Nevertheless, many low and lower middle income OIC countries are still characterized by low public revenue collection. In part, poor performance of these countries is associated with high incidence of tax evasion and avoidance, poor level of governance, illicit financial flows and widespread corruption and misuse of public resources. This state of affairs necessitates strong national, regional and global partnership to enhance the local capacities and assist these countries in their quest for achieving SDGs targets by 2030.

Figure 4.6: Public Revenue % of GDP



Source: World Bank, WDI Database.

Global financing framework for SDGs

The Addis Ababa Action Agenda (AAAA), adopted during the Third International Conference on Financing for Development in July 2015, outlines a comprehensive financing framework to advance sustainable development and the implementation of the 2030 Agenda (UNDESA, 2015). It addresses all sources of finance: public and private, domestic and international, and stakeholders: national authorities, private sector, and development finance institutions.

The AAAA includes agreements and policy recommendations in seven main areas: i) domestic public resources; ii) domestic and international private business and finance; iii) international development cooperation; iv) international trade as an engine for development; v) debt sustainability; vi) addressing

systemic issues; vii) science, technology, innovation and capacity building; as well as in a concluding section on data, monitoring and follow-up (UNDESA, 2015). Some of the salient recommendations of the AAAA related especially with the mobilization of domestic public and private resources are summarized below.

The AAAA promotes: setting up nationally defined domestic targets and timelines for enhancing revenue; strengthening of international cooperation in tax matters, including by supporting ongoing efforts in the IMF, OECD and World Bank and strengthening the United Nations Committee of Experts on International Cooperation in Tax Matters; stepping up the fight against illicit financial flows including through anti-abuse clauses in tax treaties, a commitment to strengthen accounting, better disclosure and information sharing, and more efforts to ensure tax is paid where economic activity occurs; commitment to transparent and gender responsive budgeting and transparent public procurement frameworks; development of policies and strengthening of regulatory frameworks to better align private sector incentives with public goals; and mainstreaming of financial inclusion as a policy goal in regulations, balancing access to and stability of financial markets.

The series of policy measures outlined in the AAAA, if implemented will make significant contribution to mobilize necessary financial resources for the implementation of SDGs. In the light of these recommendations, OIC member countries need to adopt a comprehensive approach, which mobilizes public finance, sets appropriate public policies and regulatory frameworks, unlocks the transformative potential of people and the private sector, and incentivizes changes in consumption, production and investment patterns in the support of sustainable development.



5. Concluding Remarks

The OIC member countries as a group have witnessed significant progress in achieving the MDGs targets on reduction of poverty, increasing the school enrolment and decreasing the avoidable deaths of mothers and children. However, this progress has been uneven and widespread inequalities persist between and within countries. The situation is particularly alarming in low income and least developed member countries. Majority of these countries are characterized by slow economic growth, limited resources, widespread income inequality, inadequate capacity development, insufficient coverage of social services, fragile peace and security situation and lack of an enabling environment to attract investment and encourage active participation of private sector in socio-economic development. Against this backdrop, it is clear that MDG agenda is an unfinished business in OIC countries and issues related with poverty, employment, education and health are still an important development priority for the majority of member countries.

The new 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development supports a sustainable future for the humankind by integrating social, economic and environmental dimensions of development. Compared to the MDGs, 17 SDGs are more ambitious in scope and universal in coverage by setting targets both for developing and developed countries. These goals adopted a more comprehensive approach towards development by integrating social, economic and environmental dimensions of development.

Though complex nature of Agenda 2030 makes the SDGs planning and implementation a challenging task for all countries, some countries are particularly vulnerable due to unfinished MDGs business. This will

require strong commitment across the regions and development partners. In general, the realization of SDGs in OIC countries and elsewhere in the developing world depends largely on their ability to address issues and challenges related with political will and policy dialogue, institutional capacity and governance, data collection and monitoring, peace and security, and financial resources.

Lack of peace and security remained the single most detrimental risk factor for the realisation of SDGs in OIC group. It is commonly argued that many of the drivers of conflict are rooted in development deficits (UNDP, 2011). This suggests that there are many opportunities for development actors to contribute to breaking cycles of armed violence and creating virtuous cycles of peace and development. A key question from a development perspective then is: given the current understanding of the causes of conflict, how can development practitioners support efforts to address them and reduce the chance of conflict which undermines development progress? More broadly, recent thinking and work should also be guided by greater emphasis on building resilience to shocks and vulnerability through more effective and inclusive governance systems and collaborative efforts to address the complex causes of violence, prevention, as well as early recovery.

A major long lasting challenge facing the majority of OIC countries is lack of sufficient understanding and measurement of main development indicators. The SDGs indicators, as for MDGs indicators, are not necessarily applicable to all national contexts, and are intended for global follow-up and review of the SDGs. There is however a need for the development of indicators for regional, national and subnational levels of monitoring, otherwise using the global indicators without their localization to the national and regional requirements will cause delays and inconsistencies in the achievement of SDGs.

In this respect, national reviews, being voluntary and country-led, need to take into account different national realities, capacities and levels of development with respect to policy space and priorities. Without forgetting that the focus of most of the indicators is exclusively on national action, SDGs undoubtedly call for international cooperation among nations and regional/international stakeholders. The cooperation linkages should focus on the transfer of transfer know-how for the SDGs indicators to achieve a sound monitoring and reporting mechanism both at the national and global levels.

Institutional capacity is central to the planning, management, implementation and monitoring of the efforts towards SDGs. However, OIC countries are generally characterized by the poor government effectiveness, regulatory quality, rule of law, and quality of public administration. And, therefore, lack quality institutions to translate global agreements on the SDGs into policies and practices at the national level. This state of affairs highlights substantial need for an OIC-wide institutional capacity development strategy and commitment. Provided the limited fiscal space and domestic resources, many low income countries will not be able to invest in capacity building on their own and require external help and support. In this regard, several existing capacity building initiatives and programmes need to be promoted and supported to improve the quality of human resources and institutions in OIC countries within the scope of South-South and triangular cooperation model.

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