Chapter VI

Global partnerships for achieving development goals

Summary

• Global partnership, as specified by MDG 8, and other types of broad partnerships have played important roles in promoting the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by aligning political vision, mobilizing resources, coordinating policies, and monitoring and reviewing progress.

• A number of targets under MDG 8 are close to being achieved, particularly in the areas of developing countries’ market access, debt relief under the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative, and access to information and communications technologies (ICT); but progress on other targets has been slow.

• The achievement of the sustainable development goals (SDGs) will require an even stronger global partnership for sustainable development, to be complemented by multi-stakeholder partnerships geared towards mobilizing and sharing knowledge, expertise, technology and financial resources.

• In the post-2015 period, the broad global partnerships would need to be strengthened so as to deliver on the unfinished MDG commitments and meet, in an integrated manner, a number of new challenges in the three dimensions of sustainable development.
Introduction

The present chapter is focused mainly on lessons derived from the global partnership for development as defined under MDG 8, but also examines other types of partnerships at the global or international level that emerged during the MDG reference period. The term “global partnerships” is used as shorthand to signify all of these types of partnerships. The partnerships forged at national and subnational levels are discussed in chapter V.

While many different definitions have been put forward for development partnerships, this chapter uses the following working definition formulated in the report of the Secretary-General on enhanced cooperation between the United Nations and all relevant partners, in particular the private sector (United Nations, General Assembly, 2003, para. 9):

*Partnerships are commonly defined as voluntary and collaborative relationships between various parties, both State and non-State, in which all participants agree to work together to achieve a common purpose or undertake a specific task and to share risks, responsibilities, resources, competencies and benefits.*

The chapter is organized as follows. The next section briefly reviews the evolution of international partnerships for development cooperation which ushered in the global partnership for development, as defined under MDG 8.

The third section focuses on the role of MDG 8 in promoting other MDGs, including its role in mobilizing official development assistance (ODA) flows; improving the access of developing countries, especially the least developed countries, to global markets; strengthening debt sustainability in developing countries; making essential medicines more available and affordable for developing countries; and accelerating developing countries’ access to new technologies.

The fourth section examines other global partnerships that contributed to the promotion of MDGs and other development goals, including partnerships for South-South and triangular development cooperation and a variety of multi-stakeholder partnerships, as well as partnerships focused on innovative sources of development financing.

The fifth section, building on the findings presented in the two preceding sections, discusses a few important challenges that will be faced by global partnerships in the post-2015 era. These include strategically allocating ODA so as to support the achievement of the sustainable development goals (SDGs); making the international trading system more conducive to the achievement of the SDGs; strengthening international tax cooperation; managing orderly international migration; protecting the planet’s ecosystem; and improving global partnerships and global governance.

The final section offers a summary of the MDG lessons learned regarding global partnerships for development and their implications for the post-2015 era.
Evolution of international partnerships leading to MDG 8

The international community has long used the concept of partnership for promoting international development cooperation. Some analysts believe this concept was derived from the report entitled Partners in Development (Commission on International Development, 1969). However, the role of the United Nations in taking the lead in the practice of international partnership for development predated that report. As early as 1949, the General Assembly, in its resolution 304 (IV) (of 16 November 1949), having considered Economic and Social Council resolution 222 (IX) A of 15 August 1949 on an Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance for economic development, approved the principles to serve as guides to the United Nations and specialized agencies participating in the Programme, as set out in annex I of the Council’s resolution. The primary objective of the Programme was to strengthen the economies of underdeveloped countries. It was stressed, however, that the assistance should be provided only at the request of the recipient countries and should not infringe on their sovereignty. To pursue this objective, a number of United Nations agencies were established in the following decades. In its resolution 2029 (X X) of 22 November 1965, the Assembly decided to combine the Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance and the Special Fund for financing the economic development of the less developed countries into a programme to be known as the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP).

It was also recognized early on within the United Nations that technical assistance to developing countries should be accompanied by the transfer of financial resources to fund physical capital investment in those countries. In the early 1950s (see, for example, General Assembly resolution 622 (VII) of 21 December 1952), the Assembly initiated a plan to set up a special fund to provide concessional loans and grants to finance infrastructure investment in low-income countries, but eventually this task was assigned to the International Development Association (IDA) established within the World Bank Group in January 1960. In 1961, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) was formed pursuant to the reorganization of the Organization for European Economic Cooperation (OEEC) (established in 1948). In the same year, OECD set up the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) to facilitate and coordinate consultation among major developed donor countries on assistance to developing countries.

The first official target of development assistance financial flows was set in 1961, when the General Assembly, in its resolution 1710 (XVI) of 19 December 1961, designated the 1960s as the First United Nations Development Decade. In that resolution (para. 1), an objective was set for developing countries for achieving a minimum annual economic growth rate of aggregate national income of 5 per cent by the end of the Decade. There was another target for DAC donor countries, namely, to provide 1 per cent of their total national income as development assistance (including private capital flows and ODA) to developing countries. During the First Development Decade, it was recognized that economic and social development in developing countries was the joint responsibility of both developed and developing countries, that is to say, of a partnership for development (Stokke, 2009).
Most targets set for the First Development Decade were not met: the aggregate financial flows declined from 0.84 per cent of combined income of donor countries in 1961 to about 0.6 per cent by the end of the 1960s. Facing the shortfall in the ODA target, in 1968, the World Bank convoked the Commission on International Development, which produced the above-mentioned report, Partners in Development, to emphasize the urgency of the situation. The report offered two justifications for ODA: a moral justification based on the universally accepted precept according to which those who are fortunate have the duty to help those who are in need; and the principle of enlightened self-interest, according to which, in an interdependent world, improvement in developing countries will also benefit developed ones. The Commission proposed a new ODA target of 0.7 per cent of donor countries’ gross national income. In its resolution 2626 (X XV) of 19 November 1970, the General Assembly proclaimed the Second United Nations Development Decade starting from 1 January 1971 and adopted the International Development Strategy for the Decade. Under paragraph 43 of that Strategy, a minimum amount of 0.7 per cent of gross national income was adopted as the ODA target for the middle of the Decade. While some donor countries managed to deliver on their commitments, the overall ODA target was again not met.

In the 1980s, the content of international partnership for development underwent significant changes, with the Bretton Woods institutions, namely, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank, playing a more active role in shaping that partnership. Most developing countries, particularly those in Latin America, faced a debt crisis in the 1980s. As a consequence, a greater proportion of ODA resources was reallocated to managing the debt crisis, as well as reforming the economy (Stokke, 2009).

More substantial changes occurred in the international partnership for development in the 1990s, following the end of the cold war. New components were added to the objectives of development assistance, including the promotion of democracy, human rights and good governance (Stokke, 1995; and Hewitt and Killick, 1996). In the 1990s, the United Nations convened a number of development summits (see chap. I). The outcomes and commitments reached in those summits required a greater allocation of ODA towards, inter alia, poverty reduction, education, children and women, and health programmes. Also in the 1990s, the flare-up of severe intra-State conflicts in the former Yugoslavia and various parts of Africa brought about certain changes in terms of the function of ODA, with the direction of more resources towards humanitarian assistance and conflict resolution (Stokke, 2009).

Meanwhile, OECD/DAC put more emphasis on effectiveness of development assistance to be achieved through a number of measures including, to some extent, policy coherence, in particular the coherence of developed countries’ macroeconomic, trade and finance policies as focused on developing countries.

Despite some variation over time, the partnership for international development cooperation up until the 1990s essentially entailed an approach whereby developed countries made financial transfers and provided technical assistance to developing countries. Developed countries also granted developing countries trade preferences and accorded them “special and differential treatment” in global trade negotiations. The offers of assistance were generally accompanied by donor policy advice, often coordinated at the country level by the
international financial institutions (IFIs) through formal “conditionality” agreements. The policy advice received from donors and international financial institutions in the 1990s seems to have led to a mixed result in many developing countries and, in some cases, to serious economic and social setbacks.

Meanwhile, donor countries increasingly refocused the objectives of their assistance away from basic economic activities to such areas as poverty, gender inequality, health and education. The United Nations Millennium Declaration, adopted by the General Assembly by its resolution 55/2 of 8 September 2000, provided a huge opportunity for reviving and redefining the concept of a partnership for international development cooperation. In this regard, among the eight MDGs, Goal 8 was “(t)o develop a global partnership for development. The several targets and indicators under Goal 8 covered five areas: ODA, market access (trade), debt sustainability, access to affordable essential medicines, and access to new technologies (see chap. I, table I.2, for the official list of MDGs and targets).

It is also important to note that in MDG 8, the term “international partnership” was replaced by “global partnership”. This change was neither arbitrary nor trivial, but was introduced purposively to inaugurate a new model of partnership, one designed to tackle the new challenges and opportunities emerging worldwide at the turn of the new millennium through ever deepening globalization. This change was dictated by the theme of the report of the Secretary-General entitled “We the peoples: the role of the United Nations in the twenty-first century” (United Nations, General Assembly, 2000). That report pointed out emphatically that globalization rendered the designs of the post-war multilateral system antiquated: the post-war institutions were built for an international world, but that world had become global (para. 30).

The role of MDG 8 in promoting development goals

During the MDG reference period, a large number of policy steps were taken to strengthen the global partnership for development as defined under MDG 8. In addition, other types of partnerships also played important roles (see the following sect.).

One of the most important outcomes of such efforts was the Monterrey Consensus, adopted by the International Conference on Financing for Development, held in Monterrey, Mexico, in 2002 (United Nations, 2002), in which Governments jointly made a wide range of policy commitments to substantiate and broaden the scope of MDG 8. After- wards, major providers of ODA made more concrete pledges at the G8 Summit held in Gleneagles, United Kingdom, in July 2005. The Development Assistance Committee led the intensified work on the international scale to increase aid effectiveness. Moreover, the Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative (MDRI) of 2005 deepened substantially the debt relief made available to a group of heavily indebted poor countries (HIPCs). The pledge was also made to strengthen the voice and participation of developing countries in decision-making at IMF and the World Bank. Other efforts included the reduction of barriers to imports from least developed countries; proposals by interested developed and developing countries on innovative approaches to

In 2007, the Secretary-General created the inter-agency MDG Gap Task Force to monitor and report annually on progress in the implementation of the policy commitments made towards the achievement of MDG 8 and to offer necessary policy recommendations.1

As of 2015, several targets under MDG 8 are close to being achieved. For example, duty- and quota-free (DFQF) access to developed-country markets has been largely extended for exports from least developed countries. Countries eligible for the HIPC Initiative have successfully completed that process and achieved substantial and irrevocable debt relief. However, progress on other targets has been slow, in particular with regard to the pledged volumes of ODA.

Some key issues in the five areas covered by MDG 8 are analysed below. More comprehensive information can be found in the forthcoming MDG Gap Task Force Report 2015 (United Nations, 2015b).

**Mobilizing official development assistance (ODA)**

During the MDG reference period, ODA flows increased from $84 billion in 2000 to more than $134 billion in 2013 (figure VI.1).2 Among the 28 DAC members, the largest donors in order of volume were the United States of America, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, Germany, Japan and France. However, only Denmark, Luxembourg, Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom met the United Nations target of 0.7 per cent of their GNI as ODA. From the perspective of recipients, per capita ODA to low-income countries increased significantly during the MDG reference period, from $16 in 2000 to nearly $52 per at the peak in 2011, representing a 222 per cent increase (figure VI.2).

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2 ODA was measured in 2012 constant U.S. dollars, so as to factor out inflation and fluctuation in the exchange rates.
The global financial crisis and the aftermath of recessions in developed countries may have had considerable impact on the shortfalls in meeting the ODA target, as reflected in the decline of ODA flows from a number of European countries, which fell into deep recessions in the period 2010-2013. There are other factors as well. For example, the OECD/ DAC synthesis of peer reviews between 2012 and 2014 found that the delivery of ODA was significantly influenced by trends in the following four areas (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2014c).
With respect to strategic orientations, as development is increasingly linked to foreign policy and trade interests, national interest and global public goods have gained in importance with respect to defining the ODA agenda. As regards allocation priorities, although the impact of the financial crisis on ODA delivery has varied, most donors adopted a geographical and/or thematic focus. Least developed country recipients have seen a decrease in support, despite the continued focus of the international community on least developed countries and countries affected by conflict. With regard to organization and management, changes in organizational and management structures in donor country institutions, as development and other policies became more closely integrated, has led to some difficulties in maintaining a core of development expertise within organizations. Finally, concerning development effectiveness, despite donor efforts to deliver on development effectiveness commitments, new funding streams and actors are affecting predictability, alignment, use of country systems, and mutual accountability.

Efforts have been made in the MDG reference period to improve the “quality” of ODA. For example, the share of grants in ODA has remained high, with the average share of grants in total ODA of OECD member countries standing at 85.4 per cent as of 2013, compared with the minimum requirement of 25 per cent. At the same time, some donors have gradually untied their aid, allowing recipient countries that have proceeds fully and freely available to finance procurement from all OECD countries and substantially all developing countries. However, the share of untied aid by some donors remains low and the overall share of untied aid has stayed largely constant over the period 2000-2014.

Efforts have also been made to improve the effectiveness of ODA, as well as development cooperation in general. For example, States Members of the United Nations decided at the 2005 World Summit to create the Development Cooperation Forum to promote greater coherence among the development activities of different development partners.3

Since 2011, the Global Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation has committed to shifting the focus from aid effectiveness to a broader concept of effective development cooperation.

Despite some progress in terms of their economic development, many least developed countries still depend heavily on ODA as their primary source of external and public financing. ODA continues to represent over 70 per cent of total external financing in those countries, as their capacity to attract other forms of external financing remains limited. The median of the ratio of ODA to government revenues, although decreasing, still stood at about 60 per cent for least developed countries as a whole as of 2013. Some studies regard the shortfalls in ODA as one of the major causes of the inadequate progress in the achievement of the MDGs in those countries (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, 2014).

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3 See 2005 World Summit Outcome (General Assembly resolution 60/1), para. 155 (b).
Improving the access of developing countries, especially least developed countries, to global markets

One key objective under MDG 8 is to promote trade of developing countries by ensuring their equal opportunity in an open, rule-based, predictable and non-discriminatory trading system, with some degree of special and differential treatment given to those countries, so that they, in particular the least developed among them, can use trade as a vehicle for boosting their economic growth and achieving poverty reduction and other MDGs.

The completion of the Uruguay Round of multilateral trade negotiations in the mid-1990s contributed to declines in tariffs in the MDG reference period. Tariffs fell to zero on a substantial number of products, partly owing to the multilateral elimination of tariffs under the most favoured nation (MFN) provision. In addition, least developed countries increased their exports of the dutiable textile and agricultural products in which they had a competitive advantage. An increasing share of these dutiable products has been gradually incorporated into duty-free schemes. As a result, duty-free access for least developed countries has been higher than for developing countries as a whole.

During the decade following the Uruguay Round, the average tariff applied by developed countries to textile and clothing products from developing countries decreased by 2 and 3 percentage points, respectively, but by only 1 percentage point for agricultural products. From 2005 to 2012, there was an additional point reduction in tariffs applied to agricultural products, but a less significant tariff reduction has been observed for textiles and clothing. Least developed country exports faced similar conditions in terms of tariff reductions, but the difference in the treatment of agricultural products from 2005 onward was more marked. In fact, least developed country agricultural exports now receive the largest preference margin relative to competing products from other developing countries.

However, tariff peaks and tariff escalation remain two impediments to the access of developing countries to the markets of developed countries. The term “tariff peaks” refers to a situation where tariffs on some products are considerably higher than the average tariff, defined as being above 15 per cent. For example, over 9 per cent of tariff lines continue to be affected by tariff peaks in OECD countries, with little change over the past decade. The term “tariff escalation” refers to the situation where a country applies a higher tariff rate to products at the later stages of production, thus giving relatively stronger protection to its own high value added products in the same category. The difference between tariffs applied on processed agricultural products and those for raw agricultural products remains high in developed countries.

A breakthrough was achieved in the Doha Round of World Trade Organization negotiations at the Ninth Ministerial Conference of the World Trade Organization, held in

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4 For the details concerning duty-free schemes, see the annexes to the 2005 Hong Kong Ministerial Declaration (World Trade Organization, document WT/MIN(05)/DEC ). Available from https://www.wto.org/english/thewto_e/minist_e/min05_e/final_annex_e.htm#annexf.
Bali, Indonesia, from 3 to 6 December 2013, where agreement was reached on trade facilitation, agriculture, a package of decisions related to the least developed countries, and a monitoring system on provisions for special and differential treatment. With respect to least developed country-related issues, the Bali outcomes (the set of ministerial decisions, understandings and declarations known as the “Bali package”) are relatively modest. The Bali outcomes urged, but did not require, expeditious improvement of duty- and quota-free coverage by 2015 for those countries that had not provided such treatment for 97 per cent of tariff lines.

The Bali package is just a small part of the Doha Round. Challenges remain in the implementation of the agreements reached, and more challenges stand in the way of completion of the entire Doha Round. On the other hand, three concurrent multilateral negotiation processes—the setting of the post-2015 development agenda, the third International Conference on Financing for Development (Addis Ababa, 13-16 July 2015) and the Doha Round of World Trade Organization negotiations—present both a unique challenge and a unique opportunity with respect to strengthening global policy coherence, through linking international trade more closely to proposed sustainable development goal 17 (“To strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership for sustainable development”).

**Strengthening debt sustainability for developing countries**

During the MDG reference period, the situation of sovereign debt in developing countries has changed considerably, with an increasing number of low- and middle-income countries accessing international capital markets, some of them for the first time.

Debt relief under the HIPC Initiative and the Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative alleviated debt burdens in a large number of countries, thereby enabling reallocation of resources in those countries towards poverty reduction.

The external debt of the developing countries relative to GDP as a whole declined by more than 10 percentage points over the past decade (figure VI.3), to a level of 22.6 per cent by 2013. However, short-term debt levels and debt servicing burdens have continued to rise, indicating a growing vulnerability in the short term, while fiscal deficits have widened. Meanwhile, small States (as defined by the Commonwealth Secretariat) present significant debt sustainability challenges, as the average ratio of public debt to GDP in this group amounted to 107.7 per cent. At the same time, although the HIPC Initiative is drawing to a close, several HIPC countries are once again approaching moderate or high levels of debt distress.
Making essential medicines more available and affordable for developing countries

Thanks to increased global action, progress has been made during the MDG reference period in combating both non-communicable and acute diseases, through greater coordination in implementing coherent national policies aligned to global agreements (see chap. III for more details). However, essential medicines remain unaffordable and insufficiently available in developing countries. Greater efforts by the international community, pharmaceutical companies and Governments are therefore still needed to ensure the enhancement and expansion of accessibility.

According to the latest data, covering the period 2007-2013, the level of availability of generic medicines in both the public and private sectors of developing countries remained low, at 55 per cent and 66 per cent, respectively. Prices of generic medicines also remained high for patients in low-income and lower-middle-income countries, averaging three times of international reference prices. Further, there is a critical need to find policy and legislative solutions that will assure the quality of medicines.

There have been some efforts to increase treatment access. The World Trade Organization on Trade-related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS Agreement)\textsuperscript{5} contains certain flexibilities, through which developing countries are allowed to manage their own intellectual property systems, and pharmaceutical companies to promote the supply of generic medicines in those countries by entering into voluntary licensing agreements. Least developed countries are exempt from complying with the TRIPS Agreement with respect to

pharmaceutical products until 2016 and have a general extension with respect to the implementation of the TRIPS Agreement, except with respect to non-discrimination, until 1 July 2021. This grants least developed countries the opportunity to create viable bases for technology and to overcome various capacity constraints with regard to absorption of technology from abroad. Many multi-stakeholder partnerships in developing countries also aim at improving access to medicines.

In recent years, there have been more international commitments directed towards promoting the availability and affordability of essential medicines for developing countries, as discussed in box VI.1.

**Increasing access to new technologies for developing countries**

Access to advanced technologies in developing countries has been growing at a fast pace in the MDG reference period, particularly with regard to information and communications technologies (ICT), including mobile telephony and Internet usage. Penetration rates of mobile-cellular subscriptions in developing countries are estimated to have reached 90 per cent by the end of 2014, compared with 121 per cent in developed countries. The growth rate in Internet usage in developing countries continues to outpace that in developed countries. However, gaps in respect of access to advanced technologies still persist between developed and developing countries. Mobile-broadband penetration is estimated to be 84 per cent in developed countries, compared with 21 per cent in developing countries. A similar large gap between developed countries and developing countries exists in respect of fixed-broadband penetration rates.

Governments are increasing the use of ICT and e-government approaches in public administration to attain development objectives in the areas of education, health, agriculture and poverty reduction, among others. By 2014, all 193 United Nations Member States had established online government websites for information and service delivery. Governments have invested in strategic collaborative efforts towards integrating sectoral organizations through e-government, simplifying administrative procedures, streamlining bureaucratic functions and providing a greater amount of information in order to promote efficiency and transparency. Nevertheless, the progress in e-government continues to be uneven among countries: only 31 per cent of countries in Africa provided online information on social welfare and 65 per cent on finance.

Access to know-how for reducing disaster risks has also improved, along with effective mobilization of data and information. For example, the number of countries developing national disaster loss databases continues to grow. Fifteen Pacific countries joined in efforts to set up a risk transfer facility and the Pacific Catastrophe Risk Assessment and Financing Initiative. An aim of the Initiative is to provide Pacific island countries with disaster risk modelling and assessment tools, including regional historical hazard and loss
databases; probabilistic hazard models for major hazards, including cyclones, earthquakes and tsunamis; and a comprehensive exposure database. Geospatial information is another important tool in the area of disaster risk reduction and sustainable development. This has been demonstrated through the practical application of satellite imagery to extracting detailed elevation data in support of approaches to managing natural hazards, such as earthquakes, tsunamis and landslides.

More international initiatives have been undertaken in recent years to further narrow the gap between developing countries and developed countries in terms of access to technologies, as illustrated by the examples presented in box VI.2.

Other partnerships for development cooperation

In addition to the global partnership for development as defined under MDG 8, several other partnerships of different types also contributed to the achievement of MDGs and broad development cooperation. Some of those partnerships involve multi-stakeholders, including Governments, multilateral and regional institutions, foundations, civil society organizations, and for-profit enterprises.

South-South and triangular development cooperation

The landscape of the world economy has undergone tectonic changes in the MDG reference period, with radical alterations in the relative economic sizes of the developed and developing worlds. Along with this change, South-South development cooperation has also become important. South-South development cooperation led to significant expansion of trade and foreign direct investment (FDI) flows among developing countries. For example, since 2008, developing countries have exported more to each other than to developed countries.

The volume of financial flows associated with South-South development cooperation has increased (United Nations, General Assembly, 2014d). Driven by official as well as private initiatives, those flows have arisen from a wide variety of partners, ranging from Governments and international agencies to corporations, civil society organizations and networks acting to protect the disempowered, including women, children and slum dwellers. Infrastructure projects account for an estimated 55 per cent of South-South cooperation flows, while over one third of these flows are in support of social sectors. Box VI.3 offers a comparison between China’s foreign aid and the official development assistance (ODA) flows from Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development/Development Assistance Committee (DAC) members. Given the large gaps in financing for development in many developing countries, particularly the least developed among them, the international
community is aware that South-South concessional flows can still play a role that is only complementary to that of conventional ODA flows.

International organizations, including United Nations agencies, funds and programmes, have been strengthening their support for South-South development partnerships and, in many cases, have formed triangular development partnerships.

For example, the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) has established a broad trust fund framework agreement with China and works with African partners to scale up the impact of South-South cooperation on food security and nutrition; assure quality production of veterinary vaccines; strengthen networking between agricultural research and training centres in China and Africa; develop aquaculture; and increase the production and use of renewable energy. FAO has other trust fund agreements, with Angola, Chad and Nigeria, under which financial resources are provided to secure expertise from Brazil, China and Viet Nam, respectively. The trust fund agreement of FAO with Angola and Brazil’s Agricultural Research Corporation supports FAO services provided for agricultural research rehabilitation and development. Under a cooperation agreement with the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, FAO directs South-South cooperation in the fields of safety, nutrition and food sovereignty and poverty reduction in Latin American and Caribbean countries.

Other examples in this regard include a number of innovative and inclusive partnerships developed by WIPO to promote access to knowledge and technology within the context of South-South cooperation in the field of intellectual property. The United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP)-China-Africa Cooperation on the Environment partnership provides technical support to countries of Africa in scaling up several solutions that have proved successful in China, such as dryland agriculture and water treatment. Numerous similar partnerships also exist.

**Multi-stakeholder partnerships and innovative sources of development financing**

The Secretary-General undertook a number of initiatives in recent years to focus the attention of public policymakers and private actors around the world on mobilizing additional resources for and actions on some specific MDG targets. These include the Every Woman, Every Child initiative, the Sustainable Energy for All initiative, the Global Education First Initiative, the Zero Hunger Challenge initiative, the Scaling Up Nutrition Movement and the Call to Action on Sanitation initiative. These initiatives—which encompass highly focused voluntary partnerships involving Governments, multilateral and regional institutions, foundations, civil society organizations and for-profit enterprises—are serving as a means of encouraging multi-stakeholder collaboration on individual projects and programmes.

For example, the Every Woman, Every Child initiative, launched during the high-level plenary meeting of the General Assembly on the Millennium Development Goals, held at United Nations Headquarters from 20 to 22 September 2010, is an unprecedented global movement involving more than 300 partners established to mobilize international and national action by Governments, multilateral organizations, the private sector and civil society on addressing the major health challenges faced by women and children around the
world. The movement puts into action the Global Strategy for Women’s and Children’s Health (2010), which presents a road map towards enhancing financing, strengthening policy and improving services on the ground for the most vulnerable women and children. More than $40 billion was pledged at the 2010 launch, and numerous partners have made additional—and critical—financial, policy and service delivery commitments. Specific actions under this initiative include formation of a Commission on Information and Accountability for Women’s and Children’s Health (December 2010), co-led by the President of the United Republic of Tanzania, Jakaya Kikwete, and the Prime Minister of Canada, Stephen Harper; establishment of the United Nations Commission on Life-saving Commodities for Women and Children, co-led by the former President of Nigeria, Goodluck Jonathan, and the former Prime Minister of Norway, Jens Stoltenberg; inauguration of the India Public-Private Partnership to End Child Diarrhoeal Deaths; strengthened coordination among the World Health Organization (WHO), UNAIDS, the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF), the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN-Women) and the World Bank (the H4+) to support countries’ implementation of their plans to improve women’s and children’s health.

On a much smaller scale, Girl Up, launched by the United Nations Foundation in September 2010, has evolved into both an advocacy and a fundraising campaign. The Girl Up campaign has mobilized about $2.7 million for adolescent girl empowerment programmes managed and implemented by United Nations organizations in Ethiopia, Guatemala, Liberia and Malawi. In addition to receiving contributions from individuals, the Girl Up campaign has been supported, inter alia, by the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, Levi Strauss, Johnson & Johnson, American Express and Caterpillar Inc. (United Nations, General Assembly, 2014d).

There has also been a search for innovative sources of development financing (United Nations, 2012a).

Some new delivery mechanisms have benefited partly from innovative sources, for example, Gavi, the Vaccine Alliance; and the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria. The Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria has provided financial support in more than 140 countries and supports 7.3 million people who receive antiretroviral therapy for AIDS (United Nations, 2012a; and Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria, 2015). The Gavi Alliance reports that since its launch in 2000, the initiative has been instrumental in preventing 6 million deaths by supporting immunization against a number of deadly diseases (Gavi, the Vaccine Alliance, 2015). The Alliance also reports that, with its support, over 440 million people have been immunized over the same period. Between 2011 and 2015, Gavi has received $7.3 billion in donor support and has committed $8.7 billion through 2017 in support of vaccination efforts in 73 of the world’s poorest countries. The impact of these efforts is significant, but the full long-term socioeconomic
impact remains unknown, as broad population-level effects are typically neglected in evaluations of vaccination (see chap. III for details on national implementation). These funds, through addition of new players and mechanisms, may in fact have also contributed to a fragmentation of the aid architecture (United Nations, 2012a, p. 115).

The Global Partnership for Education provides another example of development financing. It covers 59 developing countries, 28 of which are fragile or conflict-affected States. While nearly $4 billion has been allocated for education programmes in those countries, and there have been pledges of an additional $28.5 billion through 2018 (albeit mostly pledges of an increase in the education budgets of the developing countries themselves), over $2 billion in funds from donor countries has also been promised. The Global Partnership for Education has therefore been instrumental in supporting the efforts of the lowest-income countries to increase the number of students enrolled in primary school, reduce the number of out-of-school children, and raise the completion rate for primary school education. The Global Partnership has also been successful in enabling both the expansion of access to pre-primary education and the greater accessibility of education to girls (Global Partnership for Education, 2014).

In addition to multi-stakeholder partnerships and innovative sources of development financing, private organizations have also provided concessional financing during the MDG reference period. In 2012, total net private grants from non-governmental organizations and other private voluntary agencies amounted to $29.8 billion, down from $32 billion in 2011. However, it must be noted that the purpose of these grants and their relationship to development vary greatly. One of the most prominent sources of development financing among private organizations is the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, which reports disbursements of about $2.7 billion in 2011 for development, an amount 34 per cent greater than that in 2010. About two thirds of these flows were directed to Africa. Two thirds of the amount of $29.8 billion covered grants in the area of health, including reproductive health (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2013b, 2015b; and United Nations, 2012a).

Challenges facing global partnerships in the post-2015 era

The post-2015 development agenda, along with the SDGs, will no doubt require the support of renewed global partnerships, whose efforts will need to be stronger and broader than those of the MDG reference period.

The formulation of SDG 17, as proposed, already delineates a number of key elements in the global partnership for sustainable development in the areas of finance, technology, capacity-building, trade, and systemic issues. Some elements are focused on completing the shortfalls under MDG 8, such as target 17.2 (Developed countries to provide 0.7 per cent of gross national income (GNI) in ODA to developing countries, of which 0.15
to 0.20 per cent should be provided to least developed countries; target 17.10 (Promote a
universal, rules-based, open, non-discriminatory and equitable multilateral trading system
under the World Trade Organization, including through the conclusion of negotiations under
its Doha Development Agenda; and target 17.12 (Realize timely implementation of duty-free
and quota-free market access on a lasting basis for all least developed countries). SDG 17
also introduces new elements, which were not covered by MDG 8. For example, target 17.6
is to enhance North-South, South-South and triangular regional and international cooperation
on science, technology and innovation and enhance knowledge sharing; and target 17.7 is to
promote the development, transfer, dissemination and diffusion of environmentally sound
technologies to developing countries. Further stressed is the need to enhance global
macroeconomic stability, including through policy coordination (target 17.13) and to enhance
support to developing countries in improving their capacity for data development, monitoring
and accountability (target 17.18). Target 17.16 is to enhance the global partnership for
sustainable development, complemented by multi-stakeholder partnerships that mobilize and
share knowledge, expertise, technology and financial resources for the achievement of the
SDGs.

A successful outcome of the aforementioned third International Conference on
Financing for Development (Addis Ababa, July 2015), is crucial for ensuring implementation
of an ambitious post-2015 development agenda. Building on the Monterrey Consensus of the
International Conference on Financing for Development (United Nations, 2002) and the Doha
Declaration on Financing for Development: outcome document of the Follow-up
International Conference on Financing for Development to Review the Implementation of the
Monterrey Consensus, it will devise a new international financial framework that is
adequate, predictable and effective in meeting the challenges of the post-2015 era. Just as the
scope of the Monterrey Consensus overlapped to a certain extent with that of MDG 8, so is
the Addis Ababa accord expected to share some common elements with SDG 17, while
including a set of commitments for all countries at the national, regional and international
levels. The accord will address issues in the areas of domestic public finance, domestic and
international private finance, international public finance, trade, technology, innovation and
capacity-building, debt sustainability, and systemic concerns.

Two other high-level international events will also exert a significant influence on
defining global partnerships for sustainable development, namely, the United Nations summit
for the adoption of the post-2015 development agenda (New York, 25-27 September 2015);
and the twenty-first session of the Conference of the Parties to the United Nations Framework
Convention on Climate Change (Paris, 30 November-11 December 2015), which is expected
to adopt an ambitious and legally binding agreement designed to tackle climate change.

While keeping in view that these events will chart a clear-cut path for the overall
sustainable development agenda in the next 15 years, the following discussion focuses on
only a few challenges within the broad context of global partnerships for sustainable

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8 General Assembly resolution 63/239, annex.
development, which reflect the lessons learned from MDG 8 and other types of partnerships during the MDG reference period.

**Strategically allocating ODA for the SDGs**

In addition to the challenge to developed countries of meeting the target of providing 0.7 per cent of GNI as ODA to developing countries, with 0.15 to 0.20 per cent of GNI being allocated to least developed countries, as well as the continued efforts to improve the effectiveness of ODA and development cooperation, there is also the challenge of allocating ODA strategically so as to meet national and international priorities. While ODA will continue to have a distinctive role as the primary international public resource dedicated explicitly to poverty reduction, current ODA allocation practices fall short of reaping this comparative advantage, that is to say: ODA levels are higher where the depth of poverty is lower; more ODA is allocated per poor person to countries where there are fewer people living in poverty; and ODA is lower in countries with fewer domestic resources. Also, ODA allocations often do not take into account the multidimensional character of poverty and the diverse types of vulnerabilities of the people living in extreme poverty.

Evidence shows that a clear and focused objective is essential. For example, agencies with a formal legal mandate for poverty reduction are more effective in allocating ODA—and in fact allocate more than 2.5 times more ODA to poverty reduction—compared with those agencies that do not have such a mandate. Refining the ODA objective should be formalized at the global level and institutionalized across the agencies that provide and deploy ODA. This refined objective for ODA should encompass work aimed at incentivizing the right form of assistance—namely, assistance that considers the scale, nature and causes of poverty in their specific contexts and is tailored to the needs of people living in extreme poverty in developing countries.

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9 The present section is based on the findings of Strawson and others (2015).
Eradicating poverty will require dedicated resources for making the necessary investments across all three dimensions of sustainable development. Ninety-six per cent of people living in extreme poverty inhabit countries that are politically unstable, environmentally vulnerable or both (figure VI.4). Design and allocation of ODA should be conducted in accordance with country-specific circumstances.

Sharply focused ODA during the post-2015 era should help countries improve stability and increase the resilience of the most vulnerable in confronting climate and other shocks, so that the goal of eradicating poverty in all its forms and leaving no one behind can be achieved, along with other SDGs.

**Making the international trading system more conducive to achieving the SDGs**

In the post-2015 era, besides the challenge posed by the need for fulfilling the unfinished target of duty- and quota-free market access for the least developed countries, as set under MDG 8, and for concluding a balanced Doha Round of World Trade Organization negotiations, another key challenge is to promote a universal, rules-based, open, non-discriminatory and equitable multilateral trading system which is consistent and coherent at
both international and national levels with respect to other policies within the economic, social and environmental dimensions.

The MDG experience has shown that trade, if managed well, can act as the engine of economic growth, through helping countries reduce poverty and achieve other development goals. However, as the SDGs for the post-2015 era focus on the broad goal of sustainable development, determining how to manage trade for balanced achievements in the domains of economic efficiency, social equity and environmental sustainability becomes a much more daunting task for policymakers worldwide.

For example, with respect to the social dimension, an increase in openness to international trade can usher in a challenging transition period for many countries, in terms of the resulting economic and social displacement to which certain sections of the population become subject. While international trade creates new jobs in sectors of comparative advantage, it also displaces jobs in non-competitive sectors. For many developing countries, particularly the least developed among them, trade integration may involve significant economic restructuring, most likely entailing a shift from agricultural to industrial and service sector employment (see chap. II). A number of emerging economies may face the double challenge of having to employ large numbers of rural workers while simultaneously moving into higher value added activities. The adjustment process following trade opening has led to surges in unemployment and a decline in wages for certain groups of workers, thus widening income inequality, at least in some countries during certain periods. In some cases, it can also lead to deindustrialization.

With respect to the environmental dimension, international trade has the potential to generate changes in the methods by which goods and services are produced, thereby lowering the energy and pollution intensity of production. However, increase in international trade can also have adverse environmental effects, such as those produced by carbon emissions arising from trade-related transport, which is projected to increase sharply during the next few decades. In some cases, international trade, as well as trade-related foreign investment, has also been criticized for being the channel through which developed countries shift their environmental stresses to developing countries.

Both individual countries and global partners need additional policies in order to enhance the benefits and mitigate the costs of trade for sustainable development. For example, to alleviate social shocks from trade, Governments should ensure that promotion of international trade is accompanied by labour-market policies, including well-designed education and training measures, and by social protection measures for displaced workers (see chaps. II and III for a more detailed discussion). It is also important for least developed countries to receive capacity-building assistance from global partners to enable them to achieve a benign transition in the period during which they increase their opening to trade. Further, as least developed and landlocked developing countries are facing a greater number of constraints, they require global partners to adopt special and differential treatment measures. Regarding the effects of trade on environment, the effective combination of a rules-based trade regime, sound environmental policies and other institutional initiatives is
needed at both the national and the global level. The achievement of such a combination will depend, inter alia, on improved multilateral cooperation within both the World Trade Organization and the global environmental governance system, as well as on improved coordination between the international trading system and the global environmental governance system.

**Strengthening international cooperation on taxation and illicit financial flows**

International rules, policies and cooperation have an important effect on the capability of Governments, particularly those of developing countries, to raise sufficient revenue domestically. Current rules and conditions, particularly regarding illicit flows as well as tax avoidance, often impose limits on the domestic revenues that can be raised by Governments (Ndikumana, 2014; and United Nations, 2015b).

In response to this problem, there have been initiatives created in the area of international tax cooperation to better align taxing rights with value creation and real economic activity, as well as efforts to improve transparency and strengthen the national and inter-national regulatory frameworks that encourage responsible corporate and banking practices. The OECD/G20 project on base erosion and profit shifting is currently developing proposals for new national and international tax rules whose aim would be to counter the practice of double non-taxation and aggressive tax planning. The United Nations, through the Committee of Experts on International Cooperation in Tax Matters, currently plays a unique role in considering the policy and administrative factors associated with international tax cooperation and their influence on developing countries and their respective tax systems and administrations. The Committee of Experts proposes solutions focused on the needs and priorities of developing countries, which may ultimately benefit all States Members of the United Nations. One way in which the Committee aids developing countries in dealing with aggressive tax planning strategies is to focus on simpler and more easily administered (even if imperfect) solutions to major issues of concern and possible transitional solutions. Such aid is available, for example, through the United Nations Practical Manual of Transfer Pricing for Developing Countries, a product of the Committee which offers practical guidance to developing countries on profit shifting-related issues (United Nations, 2013f).

The overarching framework for combating corruption, and the corruption-related component of illicit financial flows, is provided by the United Nations Convention Against Corruption, which serves as a point of reference for anti-corruption policies at national and regional levels, such as those embedded in the African Union Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption. The OECD Principles of Corporate Governance, which are also considered global in reach, serve to promote better corporate practices in the area of illicit flows, for example, through the suggestion that related-party transactions should be subject to

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disclosure (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2004, part one, chap. V, sect. A.5). Money laundering is addressed by the Financial Action Task Force (FATF), while the Basel Committee on Banking Supervision Core Principles for Effective Banking Supervision serve to promote sound prudential regulation and supervision of banks and to combat illicit activity throughout the banking system. Securities regulators, in turn, have access, through the International Organization of Securities Commissions (IOSCO) Multilateral Memorandum of Understanding concerning Consultation and Cooperation and the Exchange of Information, to a framework for information exchange and cooperation.

In the post-2015 period, reforms made to the international framework for tax cooperation should properly assess and address their distributional impacts across countries, particularly developing countries. The forums for discussion of those reforms should ensure the legitimacy of the participation and representation of developing countries. Intergovernmental tax cooperation at the United Nations, which has a universal membership and strong legitimacy, could play a key role in such efforts, building in this regard on the intergovernmental cooperation model that has worked at OECD, and could facilitate enhanced cooperation among international organizations, including regional institutions.

**Managing orderly international migration**

International migration has grown in scope and complexity. The number of international migrants rose by nearly 5 per cent in the period from 2010 to 2013, from 221 million to 232 million (or 3.2 per cent of the world’s population). If current trends continue, 30 million international migrants will be added worldwide in the next 15 years.

As the MDG experience demonstrates, migration can be a transformative force, by offering opportunities for millions of people to work their way out of poverty and contributing to the development of countries of origin and of destination alike, but only if the process is well managed and the human rights of migrants are protected. Migrants are often among the most innovative members of society. They offer a diversity of cultural viewpoints which enrich host societies, facilitate the exchange of knowledge and skills, and foster technological innovation. Migrants fill labour shortages, complement the skills of native-born workers, create jobs and contribute to social welfare and pension systems. At the same time, the emigration of highly skilled workers can undermine the development efforts of developing countries, particularly in such critical sectors as health and education.

Several issues remain. For example, as the number of international migrants continues to rise, destination countries are confronted with the challenge of integrating these growing migrant populations including, in some cases, large proportions of forced migrants. Moreover, those belonging to the group of victims of human trafficking, who suffer exploitation

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11 The Financial Action Task Force comprises 34 member jurisdictions and two regional organizations, representing the majority of the world’s major financial centres.

and abuse, are in need of specific attention. Too often, people are compelled to flee their homes to escape conflict, persecution, environmental degradation or the effects of climate change. The number of internally displaced persons has risen sharply, with approximately 33.3 million persons forcibly displaced within their own county (see chap. V). In addition, with the anticipated increase in the frequency and intensity of adverse climate events, climate-related migration could become more prevalent in the future.

Several partnership initiatives among Governments in countries of origin and destination, international organizations and civil society have proved successful. However, greater efforts are needed in the post-2015 period to strengthen and broaden global partnerships so as to ensure an orderly management of international migration and enable it to act as a driver for achieving the SDGs.

This observation is relevant to remittances, for example, which are the contribution of emigrants to countries of origin. In 2014, remittance flows to developing countries were estimated to have reached US$ 435 billion. Improved international cooperation mechanisms are required to facilitate labour mobility, and reduce the costs of labour migration and the transaction costs for remittances.

For migration to fully meet its development potential in a sustainable, equitable and inclusive manner, the human rights of migrants must be protected and fulfilled. This requires ensuring that migrants and their families have equal access to fair wages and social protection, as well as to the highest attainable standards of health and education, regardless of their migration status. More specifically, improving the recognition by both the country of origin and the country of destination of educational and professional qualifications would constitute an important step towards reducing the underutilization of human capital and skills and would enable migrants to more fully realize their potential in their country of destination and, following return, in their country of origin. Enhancing the portability of social security benefits and other acquired rights is also important.

Protecting the planet’s ecosystems

One of the most challenging tasks to be faced by global partnerships in the post-2015 era entails effective protection of the planet’s ecosystems (see chap. IV for a more detailed discussion of the issues set out below).

Human impacts on the planet’s ecosystems have reached a scale that threatens the long-term prospects for sustainable development of humankind. For example, adverse effects of global climate change and disasters have taken a toll on the decade-long MDG efforts in many developing countries, including in Africa, small island developing States and the low-lying coastal countries. Africa’s dependence on climate-sensitive sectors makes it particularly vulnerable to climate hazards, as has been witnessed most dramatically in the Sahel and the Horn of Africa. In addition, sea-level rise, abnormal weather patterns and the increased incidence and scope of extreme weather events and natural disasters have hampered
those countries’ efforts to achieve the MDGs and will continue to impede their endeavours on behalf of achieving the SDGs in the post-2015 period. Extreme weather events are affecting developed countries, too, and have forced them to spend more on relief, rehabilitation and reconstruction. In addition to confronting climate change, many countries are also contending with far-reaching environmental challenges which threaten their livelihoods, such as deforestation, loss of biodiversity, desertification, land degradation, freshwater scarcity, resource depletion and pollution. The planet’s ecosystems, which underpin all human economic activity and life in general, are under serious stress (United Nations, 2013g).

While several proposed SDGs have their own particular focus with respect to protecting the planet’s ecosystems in the post-2015 era, each goal is nevertheless an integral part of the holistic set of SDGs for sustainable development.

The unique challenge for global partnerships in addressing the issues related to the planet’s ecosystems (compared with the challenges posed by other SDG-related issues, such as those discussed in previous sections), arises from their character as public and common goods, as well as from the high degree of externality and incomplete information associated with them.

For example, the problem of CO2 emissions, which has been determined to be a key factor in global climate change, involves a high degree of externality in at least three dimensions: (a) externality across individuals, that is, the environmental costs of CO2 emissions discharged by a factory, say, are not (or not fully) covered by that factory, but are borne by society as a whole; (b) externality across countries, that is to say, the environmental costs of CO2 emissions produced by a country are not (or not fully) covered by that country, but are shared by the world; and (c) externality across generations, that is to say, the environmental costs of CO2 emissions produced by one generation are not (or not fully) covered by that generation, but are passed on to future generations. Similar scenarios apply to other dimensions of the planet’s ecosystems, encompassing, for example, natural resources and biodiversity. This being the case, there is usually a substantial shortfall, in terms of the funding and policy actions needed to underpin efforts towards tackling these issues, at both global and national levels.

A degree of modest progress has been achieved in this area, however. For example, developed countries have committed to mobilizing $100 billion per year on climate change alone by 2020 under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, although more efforts are needed to deliver on that commitment. An effective global partnership, however, is not yet in place to deliver on existing commitments and to generate more sources of funding through various forms of financing mechanisms. More important, every effort must be made to ensure that an ambitious and legally binding climate agreement is reached by the end of 2015, at the twenty-first session of the Conference of the Parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change.

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Examples of multi-stakeholder partnerships in this area exist under the Sustainable Energy for All initiative, which was launched by the Secretary-General in 2011, with the aim of making sustainable energy for all a reality by 2030. The initiative mobilizes action from all sectors of society in support of three interlinked objectives: providing universal access to modern energy services; doubling the global rate of improvement in energy efficiency; and doubling the share of renewable energy in the global energy mix. The latest progress report on this initiative underscores the need for a comprehensive package of policy measures, including fiscal, financial and economic incentives, the phasing out of fossil fuel subsidies, and the pricing of carbon at the appropriate level.

Overall, the efforts of global partnerships towards protecting the planet’s ecosystems need to be doubled and redoubled, in terms of the scaling up of funding and actions, and a broadening of scope.

Global partnerships and global governance

Global partnerships are closely linked with global governance. All of the types of partnerships for development cooperation discussed above can be considered important components of broad global governance frameworks encompassing economic, social and environmental issues.

Global governance in the economic, social and environmental domains comprises all of the rules and institutions established worldwide to govern the process of globalization, that is to say, the cross-border movements of goods, services, capital flows, labour, technology and natural flows (such as rivers), as well as the effects of those cross-border movements on the planet’s ecosystems.

Inasmuch as the world does not function under a centralized global government, the current global governance framework is underpinned by a highly distributive system composed of many intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations whose composition, structure and purposes are diverse and whose large set of rules, regulations and norms—some binding and others not—are wide-ranging. Many organizations are part of the broad United Nations system with its universal (or almost universal) membership, including IMF, the World Bank Group and some 60 specialized agencies, funds and programmes. Several intergovernmental bodies with limited membership, such as G7, G20 and many country groups formed under regional trade agreements, as well as non-governmental organizations and civil societies are also part of this distributive system (United Nations, General Assembly, 2011).

The complex framework of global governance, which has the advantage of flexibility, has been able in consequence to deal with various specific issues. However, as globalization continues to deepen, this framework has exhibited a number of systemic deficits, such as inadequacies in delivering global public goods (including protection of the planet’s ecosystems) and the power asymmetries between developed and developing countries in rule-
setting and decision-making, not to mention the deficits associated with meeting the overarching challenge of coordinating the components of this deeply decentralized and fragmented system so as to ensure coherence (United Nations, General Assembly, 2013b).

The international community has been working on improving global governance through various reforms of the global governance framework. These include reforms to the international financial system in the aftermath of the global financial crisis, as well as reforms designed to increase the voice and voting power of developing countries in international financial institutions. Progress in this regard, however, has been very slow.

The effectiveness of global partnerships for sustainable development will depend to a large extent on the fairness, inclusiveness and effectiveness of global governance. Conversely, the strengthening of global partnership for sustainable development should contribute to the improvement of global governance.

Conclusion

The present section summarizes the lessons derived from the experience of the global partnerships in the MDG reference period and their implications for the post-2015 era.

First, the achievement of the SDGs in the post-2015 era will depend on stronger and broader global partnerships, including the global partnership among Member States for sustainable development and other types of partnerships, as defined under SDG 17. Broad multi-stakeholder partnerships will help mobilize the generation and sharing of knowledge, expertise, technology and financial resources for the achievement of the SDGs.

Second, in the post-2015 period, efforts should be redoubled to deliver on the existing commitment by DAC member countries to provide 0.7 per cent of GNI for ODA to developing countries, with 0.15-0.20 per cent of GNI for ODA allocated to least developed countries. Given the high dependency on ODA of a number of least developed countries, eradicating poverty in these economies will require extra dedicated resources for making the necessary investments across all three dimensions of sustainable development.

Third, in the post-2015 period, efforts are needed to fulfil accomplishment of the unfinished target of implementing duty- and quota-free market access for least developed countries, and enable the conclusion of a balanced Doha Round of World Trade Organization negotiations. It is important for least developed and landlocked developing countries to continue to receive capacity-building assistance and for global partners to adopt special and differential treatment measures so that those countries can increase their trade share in the global market under conditions where unnecessary external trade shocks are mitigated. In addition, greater efforts are needed to ensure consistency and coherence between trade policy and other policies in the three dimensions of sustainable development so that the management of international trade produces balanced achievements in economic efficiency, social equity
and environmental sustainability. Coordination needs to be improved among the international trading system, the international financial system and the global environmental governance system.

Fourth, a continuation of partnership efforts is needed to solidify the gains attained during the MDG reference period in respect of debt relief under the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative and the Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative (MDRI), so that the resources saved through reduction of the debt burden can be invested in those countries to enable achievement of poverty reduction and other SDGs.

Fifth, the concerted global efforts during the MDG reference period towards combating both non-communicable and acute diseases, through greater coordination in implementing coherent national policies aligned to global agreements, should be further strengthened in the post-2015 period so that broader progress can be achieved in meeting these health-related SDGs and targets. Further efforts are needed to make essential medicines more affordable and available in developing countries, through multi-stakeholder partnerships that include Governments in both developed and developing countries and pharmaceutical companies.

Sixth, additional efforts are needed to further narrow the gaps between developed and developing countries in terms of access to advanced technologies. Access to know-how related to reducing disaster risks along with effective mobilization of data and information have to be increased so as to strengthen countries’ resilience. Developing and sharing geospatial information worldwide are also important for disaster risk reduction and sustainable development.

Seventh, South-South development cooperation and triangular cooperation are expected to grow in the post-2015 era, with South-South concessional flows complementing the conventional ODA flows.

Last, greater efforts will be needed post-2015 in such areas as reducing international illicit flows and tax avoidance, orderly management of international migration, and combating climate change and other global environmental problems. Global partnerships and global governance should be improved at the same time.
Box VI.1

Recent efforts to promote availability and affordability of essential medicines

In May 2013, the World Health Assembly endorsed the Global Action Plan for the Prevention and Control of Noncommunicable Diseases 2013-2020 (World Health Organization, 2013b) (a). The Global Action Plan includes a monitoring framework with nine voluntary global targets. Target 9 is to reach 80 per cent availability of the affordable basic technologies and essential medicines, including generics, required to treat major non-communicable diseases in public and private facilities by 2025. Non-communicable diseases, such as cardiovascular diseases, cancers, chronic respiratory diseases and diabetes, account for over 60 per cent of deaths worldwide. As non-communicable diseases impede social and economic development and are associated with underlying social, economic, political, environmental and cultural factors, United Nations country teams were urged to accelerate the development of multisectoral joint programmes centred on those diseases.

The Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) and the medical journal Lancet launched the UNAIDS and Lancet Commission: Defeating AIDS—Advancing Global Health in May 2013. It will coordinate consultations within regions and with civil society, think tanks and other organizations on strategies to achieve zero new HIV infections, zero discrimination, and zero AIDS-related deaths in the coming decades.

The African Union Commission and the NEPAD Planning and Coordinating Agency, in collaboration with UNAIDS, drafted the Roadmap on Shared Responsibility and Global Solidarity for AIDS, TB and Malaria Response in Africa in 2012, as a strategy for sustainable action in Africa on HIV, malaria and tuberculosis for 2012-2015. The Roadmap is centred around three pillars: diversified financing, access to affordable and quality-assured medicines, and enhanced leadership and governance.

A group of pharmaceutical companies, together with a range of public and private partners, met in London in 2012 and agreed to accelerate progress towards eliminating or controlling 10 neglected tropical diseases. In the London Declaration on Neglected Tropical Diseases, all of the partners commit to expanding current programmes that ensure the necessary supply of medicines and other interventions for treatment of neglected tropical diseases and advancing research and development through partnerships and provision of funding for development of next-generation treatments.

Footnote for Box VI.1

(a) See para. 1 (1) of resolution WHA66.10 of 27 May 2013 on the follow-up to the Political Declaration of the High-level Meeting of the General Assembly on the Prevention and Control of Non-communicable Diseases. As contained in document WHA66/2013/REC/1. The text of the Global Action Plan is contained in annex 4 thereof.
Box VI.2

Recent examples of initiatives undertaken to narrow technology gaps

The International Telecommunication Union (ITU) held its sixth World Telecommunication Development Conference at Dubai, from 30 March to 10 April 2014. The theme of the Conference was “Broadband for sustainable development”. The Dubai Declaration and Action Plan include agreements to foster international cooperation on telecommunication and ICT issues; create an enabling environment conducive to ICT development, which furthers the development of ICT networks and relevant applications and services; bridge the standardization gap; build human and institutional capacity, provide data and statistics, promote digital inclusion and provide concentrated assistance to countries in special need; and enhance applications to climate change adaptation and mitigation and disaster management efforts through tele-communications.

Efforts at the sessions of the Conference of the Parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change in the past two years have aimed at reaching a universal climate change agreement by 2015, which will entail adoption and adaptation of new as well as standard technologies. Governments also completed work on the Climate Technology Centre and Network (CTCN) so that it can immediately respond to requests from developing countries for advice and assistance on the transfer of technology.

In 2013, with the support of key partners, the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) launched WIPO GREEN, an interactive marketplace which promotes innovation and diffusion of green technologies by connecting technology and service providers with those seeking innovative solutions. In addition, during 2013, there was a significant expansion of WIPO Res:Search, which provides access to intellectual property assets, including pharmaceutical compounds, technologies, know-how and data, available for research on and development of medical products for neglected tropical diseases, tuberculosis and malaria.

The 2013 annual ministerial review of the Economic and Social Council was conducted under the theme “Science, technology and innovation, and the potential of culture, for promoting sustainable development and achieving the Millennium Development Goals”. It was agreed that tackling extreme poverty, inequality and environmental degradation should draw on innovations from science, technology and culture in the public and private sectors. During the high-level segment of 2013 of the Council, WIPO, along with its partners Cornell University and INSEAD, launched the Global Innovation Index 2013. The Index allows policymakers to analyse their innovation performance and introduce policies that strengthen their national innovation systems and enhance their capacity to develop, transfer, adapt and disseminate technologies to support sustainable development.

The General Assembly held four structured dialogues in 2014 to consider possible arrangements for a facilitation mechanism for promoting the development, transfer and
dissemination of clean and environmentally sound technologies. Recommendations from the dialogues included developing an online platform through which to undertake a thorough mapping of existing technology facilitation mechanisms, frameworks and processes for clean and environmentally sound technologies, and improve coordination within the United Nations system on those technologies.
Box VI.3

Comparing China’s foreign assistance and OECD official development assistance

As its economy grew rapidly, China increased its foreign aid to other developing countries. According to the latest data, during the period 2010-2012, China provided a total of 89.3 billion yuan (or $14.4 billion) as foreign assistance in the form of grants (aid gratis) and concessional loans at low or zero interest rates (Xinhua, 2014b). The size of China’s foreign assistance during this period was approximately equal to that of Norway, which ranked tenth among the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development/Development Assistance Committee (OECD/DAC) members in terms of total official development assistance (ODA) during 2010-2012. However, the definition of China’s foreign assistance may not be identical to that of OECD/DAC official development assistance.

Grants account for 36.2 per cent of China’s total foreign assistance, for use by recipient countries mainly to create small or medium-sized social welfare projects and fund human resources development cooperation, technical cooperation, material assistance and emergency humanitarian aid. Interest-free loans, which account for 8.1 per cent, are used by recipient countries mainly to construct public facilities. Concessional loans (excluding interest-free loans) account for 55.7 per cent of foreign assistance and are focused on financing manufacturing projects and large and medium-sized infrastructure projects in recipient countries.

In terms of distribution of ODA by income level of recipient countries, 52.1 per cent of China’s foreign assistance went to least developed countries, a proportion much higher than the 35.9 per cent average for OECD countries (figures VI.3.1 and VI.3.2). In terms of regions, 51.8 per cent of China’s foreign assistance went to Africa, compared with the 35.6 per cent average for OECD countries (figures VI.3.3 and VI.3.4). In terms of sectors, China’s foreign assistance is focused more on economic infrastructure (44.8 per cent), compared with the 22.8 per cent OECD average. In contrast, OECD/DAC official development assistance is concentrated more in the area of social and public infrastructure (54.1 per cent), compared with China’s assistance to this sector (27.6 per cent) (figures VI.3.5 and VI.3.6).

When providing foreign assistance, China’s authorities emphasize that China adheres to the principles of non-imposition of political conditions, non-interference in the internal affairs of the recipient country and full respect for that country’s right to choose independently its own paths and models of development (Xinhua, 2014b).

Figures in Box VI.3
Figure VI.3.1
Distribution of China’s foreign assistance outflows to different groups of recipient countries, 2010–2012

- Least developed countries: 52.1%
- Lower-middle-income countries: 21.2%
- Upper-middle-income countries: 12.3%
- Other low-income countries: 9.9%
- Others: 5.4%