Global Report

Improving transit cooperation, trade and trade facilitation for the benefit of the landlocked developing countries:

Current status and policy implications

UN-OHRLLS
Office of the High Representative for the Least Developed Countries, Landlocked Developing Countries and Small Island Developing States

LLDCs Global Report 2017

Photo: *Merke-Taraz highway, Zhambyl Oblast, Kazakhstan.* Asian Development Bank/Flickr

"This report reviews the status of transit cooperation, trade and trade facilitation for the benefit of the Landlocked Developing Countries."

Foreword

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development provides a blueprint for global development, and if implemented urgently, effectively, and at scale, will transform our world by eradicating extreme poverty, and address all the pillars of sustainable development. In order for the 17 Sustainable Development Goals to be realized for the more than 480 million people living in the 32 Landlocked Developing Countries, we should give focused attention to the unique economic challenges that these nations face due to their geographic location.

Due to long distances to the seaports, poorly developed transport and transit systems, and cumbersome border and transit procedures, the landlocked developing countries face disproportionally high trade costs and they pay more than double what coastal countries. High trade costs matter as they affect export competitiveness, access to imported goods and foreign direct investment and overall sustainable development. In landlocked developing countries, these costs represent an even greater constraint than tariffs to their participation in international trade.

Addressing transit issues between the LLDCs and the transit countries at the border, and behind the border is key to reducing these high costs. It requires addressing the hard infrastructure issues such as improving the physical infrastructure including the roads, railroads, seaports, border crossing points, and intermodal points. It also requires addressing the soft infrastructure through enhancing the legal framework that includes the international conventions, and regional, sub-regional and bilateral agreements that govern transit issues.

UN-OHRLLS is committed to help address the special needs of the landlocked developing countries and to help ensure the coordinated follow-up, implementation and monitoring of the Vienna Programme of Action for Landlocked Developing Countries for the period 2014 to 2024. The Vienna Programme of Action stresses the importance of the effective implementation of international agreements aimed at improving transit such as the WTO Trade Facilitation Agreement.

This report reviews the status of transit cooperation, trade and trade facilitation for the benefit of the Landlocked Developing Countries. It identifies key achievements and constraints and suggests solutions required to address transit issues and scale up trade facilitation for the successful participation of the LLDCs in international trade and for their overall development. From the findings, it is clear that enhanced cooperation between the LLDCs and the transit countries is key to better integration of the LLDCs into the global markets. Such cooperation will create a win-win situation, since it is through multifaceted cooperation and smooth regional connectivity that they will be able to improve transit systems and transport infrastructure, enhance trade and government revenue and overall sustainable development.

I hope that this publication will prove to be a valuable and timely resource for decision-makers in governments, intergovernmental organizations, international and regional organizations, development partners, academia and the general public.

FEKITAMOELOA KATOA 'UTOIKAMANU
Under-Secretary-General, and High Representative for the Least Developed Countries, Landlocked Developing Countries and Small Island Developing States

Acronyms and Abbreviations

AAAA	Addis Ababa Action Agenda
ADB	Asian Development Bank
AEC	African Economic Community
AfDB	African Development Bank
AfT	Aid for Trade
APoA	Almaty Programme of Action
APEC	Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
ASYCUDA	Automated System for Customs Data
AU	African Union
BWG	Business Working Group
CAREC	Central Asian Regional Economic Cooperation
CBN	Continental Business Network
CBTA	Cross-Border Transport Agreement
CIS	Commonwealth of Independent States
EAC	East African Community
EATL	Euro-Asia Inland Transit Links
ECO	Economic Cooperation Organisation
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EPA	Economic Partnership Agreement
EU	European Union
EurAsEC	Eurasian Economic Community
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FTA	Free Trade Area
GATT	General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GMS	Greater Mekong Subregion
GST	General Sales Tax
HDI	Human Development Index
HHI	Herfindahl-Hirschman Index
ICA	Infrastructure Consortium for Africa
ICT	Information Communications Technology
ICTSD	International Centre for Trade and Sustainable Development
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority on Development
ITC	International Trade Centre
IRU	International Road Transport Union
ITT-LLDCs	International Think Tank for Landlocked Developing Countries
JBP	Joint-Border Post
LDC	Least Developed Country
LLDCs	Landlocked Developing Countries
LPI	Logistics Performance Index
MERCOSUR	Southern Common Market
MFN	Most Favoured Nation
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NSW	National Single Windows
OAU	Organisation of African Unity
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OSBPs	One-Stop Border Posts
PAP	Priority Action Plan
PICI	Presidential Infrastructure Champion Initiative
PIDA	Programme for Infrastructure Development in Africa
PPP	Public-Private Partnership
REC	Regional Economic Community
RFID	Radio Frequency Identification
SADC	Southern Africa Development Community
SCO	Shanghai Cooperation Organisation
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SEforALL	Sustainable Energy for All
SME	Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises
TAH	Trans-African Highway
TEU	Twenty-foot Equivalent Unit
TFA	Trade Facilitation Agreement
TIR	Convention on the International Transport of Goods under Cover of the TIR Carnets
TPO	Trade Promotion Organisation
TRACECA	Europe Caucasus Asia Transport Corridor
TSI	Trade Support Institution
TTCC	Transit Transportation Coordination Council
UN	United Nations
UNCLOS	United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNESCAP	United Nations Economic and Social Commission of Asia and the Pacific
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UN-OHRLLS	United Nations Office of the High Representative for the Least Developed Countries, Landlocked Developing Countries, and Small Island Developing States
USD	United States Dollar
VAT	Value-Added Tax
VPoA	Vienna Programme of Action
WCO	World Customs Organisation
WTO	World Trade Organisation

Executive Summary

Thirty-two landlocked developing countries have no direct territorial access to the sea, and thus their international trade depends on transit through other countries. Additional border crossings and long distances from major markets coupled with cumbersome transit procedures and inadequate infrastructure act as major stumbling blocks to LLDCs' equitable and competitive access to global markets and their ability to fully harness their trade and overall sustainable development potential. Because of these disadvantages, landlockedness has an enormous negative impact on their economic growth and subsequently negatively affects their capacity to promote sustained economic development, human and social progress and environmental sustainability.

In this context, the United Nations Office of the High Representative for Least Developed Countries, Landlocked Developing Countries and Small Island Developing States prepared a Global Report providing a comprehensive review of the status of global transit issues, identifying key achievements and constraints and suggesting solutions required to address transit issues for the successful participation of the LLDCs in international trade. The report is organized around several themes that are important in addressing transit issues as a way to provide more specific policy insight to better connect the LLDCs regionally and globally. The report also contains comprehensive statistical data on the Vienna Programme of Action that can be used as baseline in assessing the Programme of Action.

The first chapter of the report looks at the socio-economic development of LLDCs in the context of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Looking at acquired statistical data, the report tracks the progress of select economic and social indicators for the LLDCs. Overall, it finds that LLDCs have made steady economic growth over the last ten years, though they still greatly lag behind developed or non-landlocked developing countries. Furthermore, the data shows that social development among LLDCs is extremely lacking, with LLDCs holding half of the bottom 25 spots on the Human Development Index (HDI). As a group, LLDCs accounted for 1.4 per cent of total global FDI inflows in 2015, with LLDCs' FDI receipts falling for the fourth consecutive year. The bulk of FDI flows to the LLDCs has been concentrated in a few countries only, mainly resource-rich, mineral-exporting economies. The first chapter concludes with a look at the Addis Ababa Action Agenda and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development in the context of LLDCs' development, particularly the development of the energy sector, addressing institutional and human capacity weaknesses, obtaining FDI and bridging infrastructure gaps.

The second chapter of the report presents the status of the legal frameworks tasked with addressing the transit issues for the LLDCs, with the aim of reducing the duration of transit processes and trade costs. The report finds that ratification of international conventions on transport and trade facilitation is low among LLDCs and transit developing countries. The report highlights the importance of LLDCs ratifying the WTO Trade Facilitation Agreement which has a large potential positive impact on the developing economies of the LLDCs. The report then presents the status of regional and sub-regional agreements, addressing the state of each region relevant to LLDCs and the history of their regional organisations and agreements. Finally, this chapter takes a look at the many bilateral agreements that LLDCs engage in with transit countries in order to have access to seaports, and how some may be construed to be counterproductive to the needs of the LLDCs. The chapter also notes the launching of the WCO transit guidelines in July 2017 and underscores the importance of quick use of the guidelines in order to facilitate faster customs and border procedures and reduce the high trade costs that the LLDCs face.

The third chapter of the report provides a review of the status of transport, ICT and energy infrastructure development, highlighting successful examples and identifying major constraints and gaps and provides suggestions to address them. This section finds that there have been improvements in transit infrastructure development in all regions, particularly road transport, ICT and port development. However, the transit infrastructure is still inadequate and still accounts for why the LLDCs face high trade costs. The magnitude of the required resources to invest in infrastructure development remains a major challenge, requiring forging sub-regional and regional cooperation and Public-Private Partnerships. Furthermore, in order to address the transit issues in a holistic and sustainable manner, it is important to develop ancillary infrastructure along the transit corridors in order to spur growth and development; explore investment options to support the development in transit infrastructure; and promote increased trade.

The fourth chapter of the report focuses on the status of trade facilitation, customs and border procedures for the LLDCs. Trade facilitation, referring to policies and measures aimed at easing trade costs by improving efficiency at each stage of the international trade chain, is of particular interest to LLDCs, as their participation in international trade is severely constrained by inefficient procedures inside as well as outside their territorial borders. These inefficiencies have become accentuated in recent years since trade volumes in LLDCs and transit countries have expanded more rapidly than the national capacity required to cope with the increased traffic flow. According to an OECD (2015) study, the full implementation of the WTO Trade Facilitation Agreement could reduce the costs of trade by between 12.5 per cent and 17.5 per cent among both developed and developing countries, with developing countries that are open to trade likely to benefit the most. The WTO Trade Facilitation Agreement entered into force on 22 February 2017. It is important for the LLDCs and the transit countries that have not yet done so to ratify the agreement. Overall rapid and effective implementation of the Agreement is necessary in order for the LLDCs to realize the benefits of improved trade facilitation.

The fifth chapter of the report looks at how LLDCs participate in international and regional trade. The contents of this section indicate that LLDCs continue to account for a negligible amount of global trade. Furthermore, LLDC's exports are generally highly concentrated with less value addition and they have remained relatively so for the past fifteen years. This situation has worsened their exposure to external shocks. This section also notes that while intra-regional trade is important for LLDCs, they perform below recommended capacity. The report finds that the dismal performance of LLDCs in global as well as regional trade is indicative of structural weaknesses and other impediments that would require the concerted efforts of the global community to meaningfully address them. It is, thus, a matter of urgency that LLDCs implement the many actions related to trade and trade facilitation as outlined in the VPoA.

The sixth chapter of the report reviews various means of implementation that relate to transport infrastructure and trade facilitation, among others. Mobilization and efficient use of domestic resources, attracting foreign direct investment, better and targeted use of official development assistance, strategic deployment of workers' remittances, promotion of public-private partnerships, south-south cooperation, and increased use of innovative financing should form components of a coherent and comprehensive strategy to mobilize resources for infrastructure and transit transport investment including establishment of multimodal transport corridors. This section, through its consideration of various means of implementation, uncovers several obstacles towards implementation. For instance, ODA remains important for many LLDCs, especially those not well endowed with natural resources. It also shows that while ODA flows are critical, it is important that LLDCs receive greater flows towards the production sectors as well as into the economic pillar – both of which are substantially below the needed level.

The seventh and final chapter of the report provides a list of recommendations to LLDCs, transit countries, development partners and international organisations in order to address the transit issues that the LLDCs face.

— Contents //

Photo: Yangon Myanmar Railway Station in Yangon, Myanmar. ADB/Flickr

The VPoA underscores the importance of partnerships between LLDCs and transit countries for the improvement and constant maintenance of their infrastructure connectivity and of technical and administrative arrangements in their transport, customs and logistic systems and stresses the importance of promoting an enabling legal environment and institutional arrangements.

The Vienna Programme of Action

The Vienna Programme of Action (VPoA) is specifically designed to support national, regional and international action on six inter-related priority areas:

— PRIORITY AREA ONE
Fundamental transit policy issues

— PRIORITY AREA TWO
Infrastructure development and maintenance

— PRIORITY AREA THREE
International trade and trade facilitation

— PRIORITY AREA FOUR
Regional integration and cooperation

— PRIORITY AREA FIVE
Structural economic transformation

— PRIORITY AREA SIX
Means of implementation

LLDCs Global Report 2017

Introduction

Thirty-two landlocked developing countries (LLDCs) have no direct territorial access to the sea. Their international trade depends on transit through other countries. Additional border crossings and long distances from major markets, coupled with cumbersome transit procedures and inadequate infrastructure substantially increase the total expenses for transport and other transaction costs resulting in the LLDCs paying more than double what the transit countries incur in transport and trade transaction costs. These high transport and trade transaction costs are a major stumbling block to LLDCs' equitable and competitive access to global markets and fully harnessing their trade and overall sustainable development potential. Because of these disadvantages, landlockedness has an enormous negative impact on their economic growth and subsequently negatively affects their capacity to promote sustained economic development, human and social progress and environmental sustainability. It is estimated that the level of development in LLDCs is, on average, 20 per cent lower than what it would be were they not landlocked.

Reducing these high costs and improving the export competitiveness of the LLDCs requires addressing the transit issues between the LLDCs and the transit countries. The World Bank indicates that a transit system includes: the hard physical infrastructure, the soft infrastructure that includes the legal framework and institutions, and the procedures serving trade corridors. Improved physical movement of goods belonging to the LLDCs, i.e. the actual transport within, across and through countries' sovereign territories can be achieved through improved physical infrastructure including the roads, bridges, railroads, seaports, border posts and airports which are the necessary landing docks for the business of doing trade.

It also requires improving the soft infrastructure that involves enhancing the: legal framework (e.g. international transit treaties, and regional, sub-regional and bilateral agreements); customs and border procedures; automation of processes; transparent and consistent fees and charges; regulatory consistency in how rules at the border are applied; harmonization of policies between the LLDCs and transit countries the institutions involved (e.g. Transport sector, customs, immigration etc.), and the private sector including truckers, forwarders, banks, business associations etc. These improvements depend on effective transit cooperation between the LLDCs, their transit neighbors and development partners.

The international community adopted the Vienna Programme of Action for the LLDCs for the decade 2014 to 2024 (VPoA) at the Second United Nations Conference on the LLDCs held in Vienna, Austria in 2014. The VPoA is a holistic and results-oriented programme based on renewed and strengthened partnerships between LLDCs, their transit neighbours and their development partners to address the special needs of the LLDCs. The VPoA is specifically designed to support national, regional and international action on six inter-related priority areas: Fundamental transit policy issues; Infrastructure development and maintenance; International trade and trade facilitation; Regional integration and cooperation; Structural economic transformation; and Means of implementation.

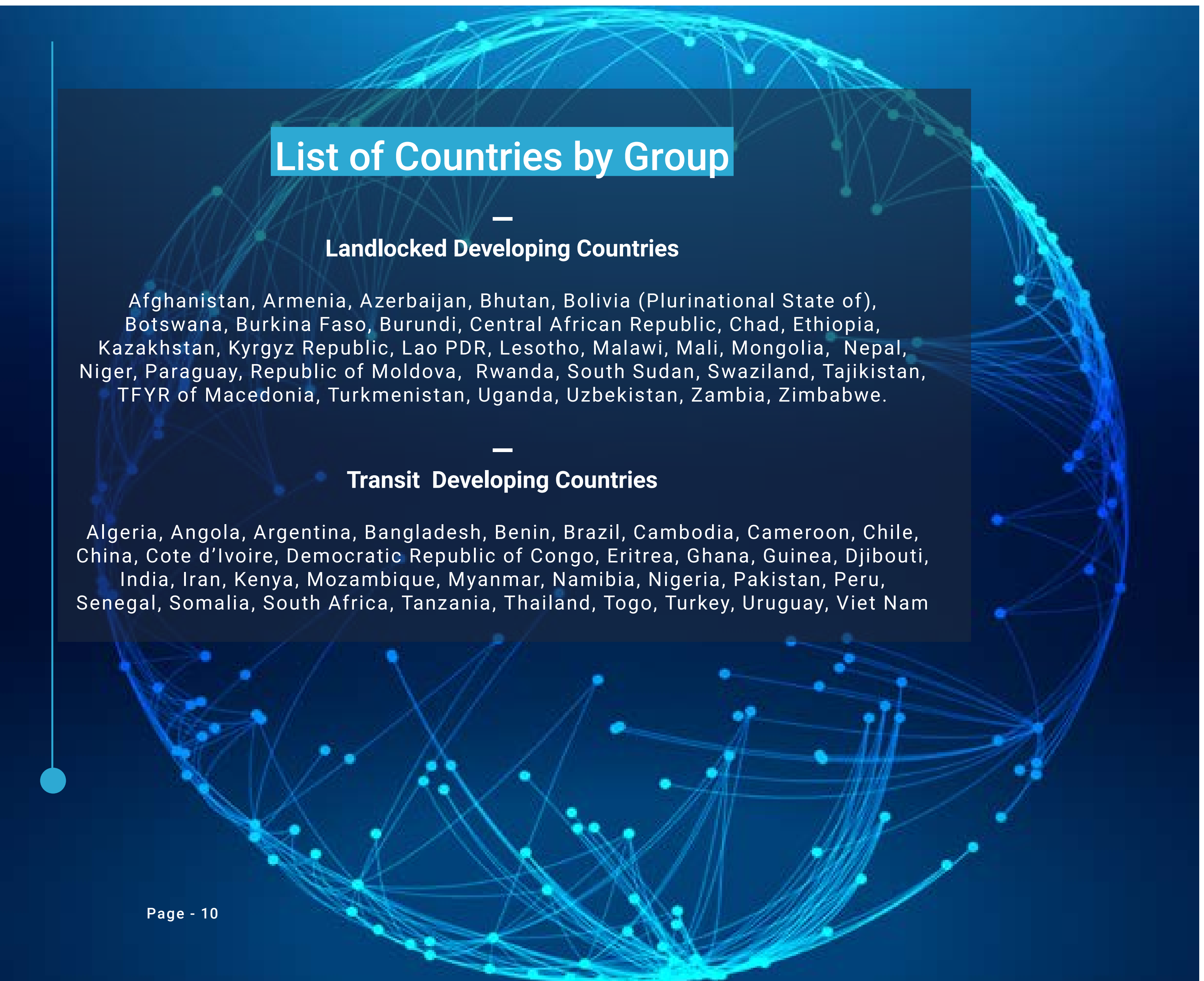
The VPoA underscores the importance of partnerships between LLDCs and transit countries for the improvement and constant maintenance of their infrastructure connectivity and of technical and administrative arrangements in their transport, customs and logistic systems and stresses the importance of promoting an enabling legal environment and institutional arrangements. The VPoA stresses the need to promote harmonization, simplification and standardization of rules and documentation, including the full and effective implementation of international conventions on transport and transit and bilateral, subregional and regional agreements. It underscores that bilateral provisions should be no less favourable than what is provided for in the international conventions standards and best practices. It stresses that the cooperation on fundamental transit policies, laws and regulations between LLDCs and their transit neighbours is crucial for the effective and integrated solution to cross-border trade and transit transport problems. The VPoA stresses the importance of the implementation of the WTO Trade Facilitation Agreement which will have a great impact on effective transit procedures if fully implemented and will be beneficial to the LLDCs. The agreement clarifies and improves articles V, VIII and X of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade of 1994, with a view to further expedite the movement, release and clearance of goods, including goods in transit.

Under its priority area on fundamental transit policy issues, the VPoA sets the ambitious specific objectives of: reducing travel time along corridors with the aim of allowing transit cargo to move 300-400 kilometres per 24 hours; significantly reducing the time spent at land borders; and improving intermodal connectivity so as to ensure efficient transfers from rail to road and vice versa and from port to rail and/or road and vice versa. In order to achieve these specific goals within the ten years of implementing the VPoA, it is important to review the status of transit issues in the regions with LLDCs, identify the major achievements and obstacles and provide recommendations to improve transit for the accelerated development of the LLDCs.

It is against this background that UN-OHRLLS has prepared this report. This report is based on substantive regional studies that were undertaken in Africa, Asia and Latin America, on review of available secondary literature and data and from detailed comments provided by experts who participated in the Experts Group Meeting on Improving Transit Cooperation, Trade and Trade Facilitation for the Benefit of the LLDCs organized by the UN-OHRLLS that was held on 10 and 11 December 2015 at the UN Headquarters in New York. This report provides a comprehensive review of the status of transit issues, identifies key achievements and constraints and suggests solutions required to address transit issues for the successful participation of the LLDCs in international trade and for their overall development. The report is organized around several themes that are important in addressing transit issues, as a way to provide more specific policy insight to better connect the LLDCs regionally and globally.

The report is organized as follows: ¬ Chapter 1: Socio-economic development in LLDCs and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development; Chapter 2: The Legal Framework on Transit issues; Chapter 3: Transit Infrastructure Development; Chapter 4: Trade Facilitation, Customs and Border Procedures; Chapter 5: LLDCs' Participation in International and Regional Trade, Chapter 6: Means of Implementation; and Chapter 7: Recommendations

The report also contains comprehensive statistical data on the Vienna Programme of Action that can be used in assessing the Programme of Action.



List of Countries by Group

—

Landlocked Developing Countries

Afghanistan, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bhutan, Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Central African Republic, Chad, Ethiopia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, Lao PDR, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mongolia, Nepal, Niger, Paraguay, Republic of Moldova, Rwanda, South Sudan, Swaziland, Tajikistan, TFYR of Macedonia, Turkmenistan, Uganda, Uzbekistan, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

—

Transit Developing Countries

Algeria, Angola, Argentina, Bangladesh, Benin, Brazil, Cambodia, Cameroon, Chile, China, Cote d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo, Eritrea, Ghana, Guinea, Djibouti, India, Iran, Kenya, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nigeria, Pakistan, Peru, Senegal, Somalia, South Africa, Tanzania, Thailand, Togo, Turkey, Uruguay, Viet Nam

Chapter 1: Socio-economic development in LLDCs and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development

With a combined population of nearly 480 million[1], LLDCs constitute one of the most vulnerable groups of countries across the world. Spread over four continents, the 32 LLDCs collectively find it very difficult to overcome the challenges imposed by their geographical location and remoteness from nearest sea ports. Although some of them have recently achieved high economic growth, significant improvements in per capita incomes and steady social progress during the past few years, the recent slowdown in global and regional growth and trade and investment flows have adversely affected them. The steep falls in commodity prices, rapid depreciation of their currencies, and lay-offs caused by the slowdown in the construction sector have compounded the difficulties faced by the resource-dependent LLDCs. The devastating earthquake in Nepal severely disrupted its growth prospects[2].

At the turn of the millennium, LLDCs experienced steady but rising annual GDP growth rate, rising from around 3.4 per cent in 2000 to 9.3 per cent in 2007. However, the onset of the global financial downturn slowed that expansion to 4 per cent in 2009 before recovering to 7.6 per cent in 2010, which is shown in Table 1. Regrettably, a multiplicity of challenges, some of which are highlighted above, has continued to prevent the full economic recovery and a return of rapid growth rates experienced prior to the crisis. In 2014, LLDCs grew by 5.5% – a full percentage point lower than in 2013 and economic growth in 2015 was even slower at 3.6%. GDP grew by more than 7% in only 3 LLDCs in 2015.

The combined economies of LLDCs have expanded 48% from US$ 317 billion in 2008 to over US$ 470 billion in 2015 (in constant 2005 US$). The average GDP increased from US$ 11.2 billion in 2010 to US$ 14.7 billion in 2015. However the average hides wide disparities among countries which vary from a minimum of US$ 1.2 billion to a highest of US$ 97 billion. More than half of these countries have extremely small economies of less than US$ 10 billion in real terms. This in itself has serious implications in the ability of these countries to undertake large scale, capital intensive projects such as the development and maintenance of modern transport networks. Furthermore, this situation limits their ability to absorb or address external shocks, including volatility in global prices and demand.

On the basis of the Human Development Index (HDI), only five LLDCs rank amongst countries with high human development. The average HDI of the LLDCs in 2015 was 0.57, with the highest HDI amongst the group of 0.79 and lowest of 0.35. While most LLDCs have improved their HDI ranking in recent years, 15 LLDCs are among the 41 countries with the lowest levels of HDI and classified as low human development countries.

Despite efforts and commitment to tackle poverty, it remains prevalent in many LLDCs although it has been on the decline since 2002. The LLDCs' proportion of population below the international poverty line of US$1.90 per day (in 2011 purchasing power parity prices) declined from 48.6% in 2002 to 30.5% in 2012. There are large variations amongst the countries. In 9 LLDCs, half of the population lives below the poverty line of $1.90 per day. Greater efforts will be needed in order to reduce poverty and eradicate extreme poverty in the next 15 years of implementing the SDGs.

Table 1: Some select indicators for LLDCs

INDICATORS	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Average GDP (Constant 2005 US$ Billions)	11.21	11.92	12.47	13.36	14.19	14.70
Constant GDP Growth Rate	7.6%	6.5%	5.8%	6.9%	5.5%	3.6%
Population (Million)	424.8	435.5	446.3	457.4	468.7	480.2
Population growth (Annual)	5.1%	2.6%	2.5%	2.5%	2.5%	2.5%
Mortality rate, under-5 (per 1,000 live births)	84.7	80.6	76.6	73.3	70.4	67.9
Prevalence of undernourishment	24.7	24.1	23.5	23.2	23.0	22.7
Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments	21.6	22.9	23.3	23.7	24.6	24.9
Days required to get electricity	130.2	127.1	131.0	123.4	119.7	101.7
FDI receipts (US$, current prices, billion)	26.2	36.3	35.0	30.3	29.7	24.5
FDI receipts (Percentage of Global flows)	1.9%	2.3%	2.3%	2.1%	2.3%	1.4%

Sources: World Bank, UNSD SDG Indicators Global Database, and UNCTADstat

1 - World Development Indicators of the World Bank.

2 - There have been other disasters that have negatively impacted LLDCs in recent years, including the 2015 earthquake in Afghanistan.

LLDCs are characterized by high prevalence of food insecurity and are exposed to higher and more volatile food prices. LLDCs remain vulnerable to the effects of climate change, which is aggravating desertification and land degradation. The LLDCs have gradually lost forest area as a proportion of total land area from 17.1% in 2000 to 15.7% in 2015, compared to the world average of 30.7%. In addition, most agricultural land in LLDCs is arid and semi-arid, characterised by high variability in rainfall. These challenges have devastating consequences for the livelihoods of poor families and undermine LLDCs' efforts to eradicate hunger. The prevalence of undernourishment in LLDCs is estimated at 22.7% in 2014-16, and is 76% higher than the average of developing countries. More investment is needed, both public and private, from domestic and foreign sources to support the LLDCs to increase their agricultural productivity.

With regards to health, LLDCs have made some progress towards reducing under-five mortality rates from 84.7 per 1000 live births in 2010 to 67.9 in 2015. However, the current rate is more than 46% higher than the average for the developing world. The LLDCs made progress in reducing the HIV incidence rate from 2.13 per 1000 uninfected population in 2000 to 0.84 in 2015. However, despite this improvement, the LLDCs have the highest incidence rate that is more than double the average rate of the developing world. The LLDCs also have high rates of malaria incidence which is double the average of the developing world.

LLDCs have made overall improvements in both primary and secondary school enrolment indicators. The progress notwithstanding, more remains to be done. With regards to gender equality and empowering all women and girls, the LLDCs have made progress on the related indicators over the period 2000 to 2015 in particular on women's representation in national parliaments which increased from 7.8% in 2000 to 24.9% in 2015. Access to improved drinking water source and sanitation remains low in many LLDCs. Data on the level of water stress shows that the LLDCs have higher level of water stress when compared to the world average or average for developing regions.

One of the main reasons for this lackluster performance in human and social development by most LLDCs is the continued scarcity of investment in social sector, largely due to non-availability of internal as well as external resources. Neglect of social sector in investment priorities can lead to serious deficits in the supply of skilled and motivated human resources, compounding the difficulties in reducing trade and transit barriers between LLDCs and their transit neighbours and also reducing the returns on existing investment in trade and transit infrastructure and undertaking new investments. This underscores the importance of enhanced domestic and international resources mobilization which is underscored in the VPoA and in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

THE VIENNA PROGRAMME OF ACTION

The recent global processes underscored the special challenges facing most vulnerable countries, including LLDCs. The second United Nations Conference that took place in November 2014 in Vienna, Austria marked an important milestone. It provided a comprehensive framework through which the global community could support LLDCs to tackle their structural limitations that go well beyond the lack of territorial access to the sea. The Vienna Programme of Action for the LLDCs for the decade 2014-2024, adopted at the conclusion of that Conference proposes a set of actions to be undertaken under its six priority areas of fundamental transit policy issues; infrastructural development and maintenance; international trade, and trade facilitation, regional integration and cooperation, structural economic transformation and means of implementation.

The VPoA's priority areas on fundamental transit policy issues and infrastructure development and maintenance emphasizes the importance of addressing transport and transit issues for improved trade facilitation to reduce the costs of trade and promote the integration of the LLDCs into international markets. The priority area on international trade and trade facilitation seeks to increase value addition and manufactured components of LLDC exports and takes note of the importance of timely implementation of the WTO Trade Facilitation Agreement. The priority area on structural economic transformation focuses on capacity building, increasing value addition, economic diversification, promoting services sector and private sector development and emphasizes industrial development.

The VPoA priority area on regional integration emphasizes the promotion of deeper integration to encompass cooperation among countries in a broader range of areas including trade and trade facilitation, investment, research and development and policies aimed at accelerating regional industrial development and regional connectivity. Regional integration is thus aimed at fostering structural change and economic growth in LLDCs as a goal, and also as a means of collectively linking regions to global markets. Under the priority area on means of implementation, the VPoA recognizes that adequate domestic and external resources will need to be mobilized for its effective implementation. In this regard it underscores the important role of official development assistance (ODA), foreign direct investment (FDI), south-south and triangular cooperation, increased role of the private sector and enhanced support from international and regional organisations.

LLDCS AND ADDIS ABABA ACTION AGENDA AND THE 2030 AGENDA FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

LLDCs' concerns have also received attention in other important global forums. The United Nations Sustainable Development Summit in 2015 adopted the outcome document "Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development", as a new, ambitious and universal development agenda to be implemented over the next 15 years. The 2030 agenda encompasses the 3 pillars of sustainable development – economic, social and environmental - in its 17 sustainable development goals (SDGs) and 169 targets. The 2030 agenda is a transformative agenda that emphasizes equality and inclusiveness and underscores the principle of leaving no one behind. The means of implementation targets under Goal 17 and under each SDG are key to realising the 2030 Agenda. The Addis Ababa Action Agenda adopted at the Third International Conference on Financing for Development is an integral part of the 2030 Agenda and supports and complements it and helps to contextualize its means of implementation targets with concrete policies and actions. The full implementation of the Addis Ababa Action Agenda is critical for the realization of the SDGs.

Both the 2030 Agenda and the Addis Ababa Action Agenda recognize the special needs of LLDCs. The 2030 Agenda states that the implementation of the VPoA is integral to the new Agenda. All the 17 SDGs are relevant for the LLDCs in their pursuit of sustainable development. In addition, the 2030 Agenda has specific reference to the LLDCs in various paragraphs including in 3 SDGs: Goal 7 on energy; Goal 9 on infrastructure and sustainable industrialization and Goal 10 on reducing inequality. The 2030 Agenda also has provisions on: capacity-building support on statistics for developing countries including LLDCs, including the strengthening of national data systems and evaluation programmes; promotion of inclusive and sustainable industrialization; significant increase in the exports of developing countries; provision of trade-related capacity-building to developing countries, including LLDCs; and promotion of regional economic integration and interconnectivity.

The Addis Ababa Action Agenda reaffirmed the need to address special challenges and needs of LLDCs in structurally transforming their economies, harnessing benefits from international trade, and developing efficient transport and transit systems. It stresses that technical assistance and improvement of trade-and transit-related logistics are crucial in enabling LLDCs to fully participate in and benefit from multilateral trade negotiations, effectively implement policies and regulations aimed at facilitating transport and trade, and diversify their export base. It suggested the establishment of a multilateral development banks-led global infrastructure forum, which builds on existing multilateral collaboration mechanisms. The purpose of this forum would include, in part, attempts to bridge the global infrastructure gap that includes the $1 trillion to $1.5 trillion annual gap in developing countries. The forum would also facilitate the development of sustainable, accessible and resilient quality infrastructure in developing countries through enhanced financial and technical support.

The Global Infrastructure Forum, led by the multilateral development banks has held 2 meetings in April 2016 and April 2017 in Washington, DC. It is an important follow-up process from the Addis Ababa Action Agenda that is very relevant to the special needs of the LLDCs. The Addis Ababa Action Agenda also encourages multilateral development banks, including regional banks, in collaboration with other stakeholders, to address gaps in trade, transport and transit-related regional infrastructure, connecting LLDCs. The global community pledged to work towards developing domestic capital markets, particularly long-term bonds and insurance markets, including crop insurance on non-distortive terms and pledged to support efforts to develop domestic capital markets in LLDCs through capacity building measures, facilitate knowledge sharing, and technical assistance and data sharing.

The prevalent institutional and human capacity weaknesses in LLDCs remain a matter of great concern. Various reports of the Secretary-General and other thematic studies have pointed out this challenge. A number of important remedial proposals are contained in the Addis Ababa Action Agenda as well as in the 2030 Agenda. For instance, LLDCs would be supported to develop the capacity of their national statistical offices and data systems to ensure access to high-quality, timely, reliable and disaggregated data. This is especially critical in monitoring and evaluation of both the VPoA and the SDGs.

It is vital for the LLDCs to implement the VPoA and SDGs in a coherent and integrated manner, including prioritizing financing, capacity-building and technology to effectively achieve the goals of both programmes. Mainstreaming of the 2030 Agenda and the VPoA in a coherent manner into national development planning is important as it will help capitalize on the synergies for effective implementation and monitoring and evaluation.

Other global development frameworks that are relevant to the LLDCs and vital for their achievement of the SDGs include the Paris Agreement and the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030. The Paris Agreement on climate change resolves to enhance the provision of urgent and adequate finance, technology and capacity-building support to the developing countries. The Sendai Framework notes that disaster-prone developing countries, in particular LLDCs warrant particular attention in view of their higher vulnerability and risk levels, which often greatly exceed their capacity to respond to and recover from disasters. It calls for enhanced provision of coordinated, sustained and adequate international support for disaster risk reduction to the LLDCs. The Fourteenth session of UNCTAD and the International Conference on Sustainable Transport adopted outcomes that are relevant to the LLDCs. It is important that the VPoA and these global programmes are taken and implemented together to ensure that the LLDCs derive optimal support.

// Learn More

Vienna Programme of Action for Landlocked Developing Countries for the Decade 2014-2024

The Vienna Programme of Action, the new holistic document centered upon addressing the challenges faced by landlocked countries, aims to contribute to the eradication of poverty stemming from their landlockedness, through the implementation of specific actions in the priority areas of the renowned document.

Addis Ababa Action Agenda of the Third International Conference on Financing for Development

The Action Agenda establishes a strong foundation to support the implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. It provides a new global framework for financing sustainable development by aligning all financing flows and policies with economic, social and environmental priorities.

Transforming our World: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development

This Agenda is a plan of action for people, planet and prosperity. It also seeks to strengthen universal peace in larger freedom. We recognise that eradicating poverty in all its forms and dimensions, including extreme poverty, is the greatest global challenge and an indispensable requirement for sustainable development.

Chapter 2: The Legal Framework on Transit Issues

Facilitating transit for the flow of goods and services, means of transport and movement of human beings for the LLDCs requires not only an adequate transport infrastructure, but also a supportive legal framework that provides freedom of transit to access the sea. LLDCs need agreements with not only their immediate neighbours, but also all other transit countries en-route to the market for their goods. The legal instruments are important for facilitating collaboration, cooperation and management of transit issues between the different parties at different levels – international, regional, sub-regional and bi-lateral levels.

The Vienna Programme of Action for the LLDCs and its predecessor, the Almaty Programme of Action (APoA) recognize the importance of freedom of transit for the LLDCs and the need to reduce the high transit and trade transaction costs that the LLDCs incur. One of the important objectives in the VPoA which was also in the APoA is to "promote unfettered, efficient and cost-effective access to and from the sea by all means of transport, on the basis of freedom of transit". The VPoA stresses that the ratification of the relevant international and regional legal instruments is crucial for the successful implementation of the programme. It also stresses that mainstreaming of the VPoA by the LLDCs and transit countries is crucial for the effective implementation of the programme.

This chapter presents the status of the legal framework in place to address the transit issues for the LLDCs with the aim of reducing the duration of transit processes and trade costs.

INTERNATIONAL LEGAL FRAMEWORKS FOR TRANSIT

Ratification and effective implementation of the relevant international conventions and agreements to improve transit and border crossing procedures for LLDCs by both the LLDCs and the transit countries is necessary for simplifying, harmonizing and standardising transit operations and therefore plays a significant role in reducing transit delays and costs. A working international transit system facilitates flows of goods, information and documents between customs and other relevant authorities in the countries where transit operations take place and reduces the need for physical and administrative controls at each border crossing, with a positive impact on international transaction times and costs. For over 100 years, international agreements have been developed to provide freedom of transit for the landlocked countries. The principle of freedom of transit has been enshrined in international conventions including the Barcelona Statute on freedom of transit (1921), Article V of the GATT 1947, the New York Convention on Transit Trade of Landlocked Countries (1965), and the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) (1982).

There are also over 50 UN conventions on international transport and trade facilitation under the auspices of the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE). Countries from regions other than Europe can become parties to these legal instruments. In particular, the Customs Convention on the International Transport of Goods under Cover of TIR Carnets (TIR Convention) of 1975, implemented in Europe and parts of the Middle East, North Africa and Asia, is usually considered a successful example of an international transit treaty. The TIR Convention facilitates border crossing through an internationally recognized and harmonized procedure with a single internationally valid customs document and guarantee, while providing governments with simple and secure revenue protection. The LLDCs that are located in Central Asia and the Eurasian region that are party to the TIR Convention (Armenia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Republic of Moldova, Uzbekistan and the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia) have largely benefited from becoming countries actively involved in the TIR system. The LLDCs in the region have witnessed an increase in the use of TIR carnets from 63,300 in 2002 to 193,758 in 2013, which has resulted in an improved flow of transit transport in the region.

The World Customs Organisation (WCO) manages the International Convention on the Simplification and Harmonization of Customs Convention (the Revised Kyoto Convention). The Revised Kyoto Convention provides a set of comprehensive Customs procedures to facilitate legitimate international trade while effecting customs controls, including the protection of customs revenue and society. It deals with key principles of simplified and harmonized customs procedures, such as transparency and predictability of customs actions, standardization and simplification of the goods declaration and supporting documents, simplified procedures for authorized persons, coordinated interventions with other border agencies, and minimum necessary customs control to ensure compliance with regulations. The Revised Kyoto Convention has also modernized the customs procedures by incorporating risk management techniques and use of information and communication technology. It is increasingly becoming the template for trade facilitation as it has greatly facilitated the application of simple and efficient customs procedures and specified maximum and minimum levels of facilitation and control for import, export and transit of goods.

An important step forward in ensuring a common platform for improving freedom of transit and increased implementation and widespread use of trade facilitation measures at the global level was the adoption of the World Trade Organization (WTO) Trade Facilitation Agreement (TFA). The Agreement has as its main objectives to reduce the bureaucracy in trade, improve the flow of goods through borders and reduce trade transaction costs. It has provisions for expediting the movement, release and clearance of goods, including goods in transit and clarifies and improves the relevant articles V, VII and X of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) 1994. It also sets out provisions for customs cooperation. Of particular importance for LLDCs are the provisions covering goods in transit, as well as the requirements on customs-related fees, procedures and documentation; transparency; trade facilitation measures; and improving cooperation between different countries' customs authorities and border agencies. Additionally, the Agreement contains innovative special and differential treatment provisions for developing countries, which will be related to the capacity of each country.

The WTO TFA entered into force on 22 February 2017 following its ratification by two-thirds of the WTO membership. As of 21 August 2017, 121 countries have ratified the agreement including 19 LLDCs and 20 transit countries. It is important that the remaining LLDCs and transit countries who are members of WTOs make efforts to ratify the agreement. Overall the rapid and effective implementation of the agreement is necessary to ensure that the LLDCs can derive benefits of improved freedom of transit and reduced transit and trade transaction costs.

The other international legal instruments that are important for the international carriage of goods and passengers by maritime, air and railway transport modes. These include: the Convention on Facilitation of International Maritime Traffic (1965); the Convention on the Carriage of Goods by Sea (Hamburg Rules) (1978); Convention and Statute on the Regime of Navigable Waterways of International Concerns (1921, Barcelona); the Convention on International Civil Aviation (1944); Convention and Statute on the International Regime of Railways (1923, Geneva), the Convention concerning International Carriage by Rail (1980) and the Convention on Temporary Admission 1990 (Istanbul Convention) whose ATA Carnet can be used for transit procedures. The European region has the following agreements that are also international agreements: European Agreement on Main International traffic arteries (1975); European Agreement on Main International Railway Lines (1985); and European Agreement on Important International Combined Transport Lines and Related Installations (1991).

Table 2 presents the status of ratification of selected key international legal instruments promoting transit interests of the LLDCs and transport and trade facilitation and the status of their ratification by the LLDCs and the transit countries.

Table 2: Status of Ratification of Key International Conventions on the Rights of Transit of the Landlocked Countries and to promote International Trade and Transport Facilitation

CONVENTION	LLDCs	Transit Countries	World Total
World Trade Organization Trade Facilitation Agreement (2013)	19	20	121
The Revised Kyoto Convention (2006) (WCO)	18	23	110
1994 World Trade Organization Agreement (WTO)	26	30	164
United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (1982)	20	29	168
International Convention on the Harmonization of Frontier Controls of Goods (1982)	12	2	58
Customs Convention on the International Transport of Goods under Cover of the TIR Carnets (1975)	11	7	71
Customs Convention on Containers (1972)	7	2	40
Convention on Road Signs and Signals (1968)	10	9	65
Convention on Road Traffic (1968)	13	12	75
Convention on Transit Trade of Landlocked Countries (New York, 1965)	18	5	43
Convention on the Contract for the International Carriage of Goods by Road (1956)	10	1	55
Customs convention on the Temporary Importation of Commercial Road Vehicles (1956)	6	2	42
Geneva Convention on Road Traffic (1949)	13	18	97
Convention on freedom of transit (Barcelona, 1921)	7	7	53

Source: UN OLA Treaty Collection, UNECE, WCO, WTO. Data was updated on 21 August 2017

When landlocked and transit developing countries become party to relevant conventions and effectively implement them, both parties will tend to benefit from the mutual cooperation. While progress is being made to ratify relevant international conventions, more needs to be done. Both LLDCs and transit countries face challenges such as: lack of awareness about the legal instruments; limited information on the potential benefits from ratification; information on conventions not available in the language that can be easily utilized; cumbersome domestication; lack of sharing of experience; and capacity constraints.

More work is needed to create greater awareness and understanding of the implications of accession to the international conventions through capacity building among policymakers and administrators, in-depth studies on the costs and benefits of joining the conventions and guidelines for the implementation of the conventions. Mainstreaming of the conventions at the national level is also important as it will allow their incorporation in national development plans and budgetary allocations. In depth studies and analyses encompassing the costs and benefits of joining the conventions are needed to obtain greater insights into the challenges faced the LLDCs. Based on these studies, clear strategic options and recommendations should be formulated which can then feed into developing robust and effective advocacy tools. Guidelines could be developed for the implementation of the conventions and agreements. The WCO launched transit guidelines in July 2017 to assist their member states on how to apply the standards set in international conventions in order to facilitate faster customs and border procedures and reduce the high trade costs that the LLDCs face.

REGIONAL AND SUB-REGIONAL AGREEMENTS

A number of regional and sub-regional agreements relevant to transit and trade facilitation for the LLDCs have been developed and agreed upon in all the regions with the LLDCs. The legal instruments at the regional/sub-regional levels are guided by the international treaties and conventions. It is important for the LLDCs and the transit countries to have regional and sub-regional agreements in place to further define the terms and modalities of the freedom of transit. As presented in Tables 3 through 6, these regional agreements cover elements such as regional agreement on development of transport networks, harmonization of customs transit procedures and documents, enhancing trade, regional cooperation between authorities in particular at border posts and regional customs transit guarantee systems among others. It is important to stress that regional and sub-regional agreements should reflect the standards that are set in the relevant international conventions such as the WTO Trade Facilitation Agreement.

During recent years a complementary approach to transit agreements that has been used is transit corridor and cluster arrangements. Although limited to a certain geographical area, they tend to be inclusive and across-the-board approaches which allow for the development of a good physical infrastructure and harmonized and simple procedures along a transit corridor between several countries, including all stakeholders, public and private. Some of the corridors have a multi-lateral agreement in place such as Northern Corridor Transit Agreement, and Central Corridor whilst others could be operating under a memorandum of agreement. The agreements could be on the ports, transit, road or rail or inland waterway transport.

AFRICA REGION

The region has relevant legal instruments at continental level under the auspices of the African Union (AU) (previously called the Organization of African Unity (OAU)) and at sub-regional level under the relevant Regional Economic Community (REC). Table 3 presents the legal instruments including treaties, decisions, and declarations relevant to transit and trade in Africa. The Africa regional report and de Matons Jean Grosdidier, 2014 discuss the provisions of each instrument in detail.

Table 3: Africa Regional Treaties and Conventions on Facilitation of Transit Transport and Trade

LEGAL INSTRUMENT
1963 Organization of African Unity (OAU) Addis Ababa Charter
1973 Addis Ababa Declaration on Cooperation, Development, and Economic Independence
1979 Monrovia Declaration
1980 Lagos Plan of Action and Final Act of Lagos
1991 Abuja Treaty Establishing the African Economic Community (AEC)
1993 African Maritime Transport Charter
1999 Yamoussoukro Decision
2000 Constitutive Act of the African Union
2002 New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD)
2009 African Maritime Transport Charter
2010 Programme for Infrastructure Development in Africa (PIDA).
2000 ACP-EU Partnership Agreement; Second Revision 2010.
2014 Agenda 2063: The Africa We Want and the First Ten-year implementation Plan 2014-2023
2014 Inter-governmental Agreement on the Trans African Highway endorsed by the African Union Summit of June 2014 in its decision Doc. EX.CL/838(XXV)

Source: Africa Regional Report - UN-ORHLLS, 2016a

Tables 4 and 5 show the various sub-regional agreements relevant to transit that have been adopted in their respective sub-regions in Africa. However, the levels of implementation vary significantly, especially among Regional Economic Communities (RECs).

Table 4: Eastern and Southern Africa - Sub-Regional Treaties and Conventions on Transit Transport and Trade

INSTRUMENT	MEMBERS
1910 Southern African Customs Union Agreement (SACU). Amended in 1969 Updated in 2002.	Members (5): South Africa, Namibia, Botswana, Swaziland, Lesotho.
1980 Southern African Development Coordination Committee (SADCC). Treaty Amended in 1992 to SADC in Windhoek Treaty. Amended again in 2001	Members: 15 States in Southern Africa and Indian Ocean Islands.
1986 IGAD Treaty. Amended in 1996 Djibouti Agreements on the Inter-Governmental Authority for Development (IGAD)	Members (6): Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Sudan, Uganda. South Sudan admitted in 2011.
1993 Treaty establishing the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA). Replaces 1981 Preferential Trade Area Treaty	Members: 20 States in Eastern Africa and Indian Ocean Islands.
1999 Treaty Establishing the East African Economic Community (EAC). Treaty Amended in 2006. Modified in 2007	Members (5): Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi.
2008 Tripartite Agreement on Inter Regional Cooperation and Integration – COMESA, EAC, SADC	States Members of Tripartite: COMESA, EAC, SADC.
Northern Corridor Transit Agreement (NCTA) 1985 Multilateral Treaty established the Transit Transport Coordination Authority of the Northern Corridor (TTCA-NC) to manage development of the corridor.	Members: Kenya, Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi. DRC joined 1987. South Sudan joined in 2012. Treaty amended in 2007 transforming it into a Development Corridor.
Central Corridor Transit Transport Facilitation Agency Agreement (TTFA) 2006.	Members: Tanzania, Burundi, Rwanda, DRC, Uganda.
Multi-lateral Agreement - Lapsset Corridor Development Authority 2012	Members: Kenya, South Sudan, Ethiopia, Uganda
Dar-es-Salaam Corridor Committee (DCC) Managed under an Institutional Constitution 2008. PPP Arrangement	Joint Venture between Malawi, Tanzania and Zambia
Maputo Corridor Logistics Initiative (MCLI) Memorandum and Article of Association 2004	Members: Mozambique, South Africa, Swaziland
North-South Corridor Management Committee (NSCMC) 2009	Members: South Africa, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Tanzania, DRC, Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique
Trans- Kalahari Corridor Management Committee Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) 2003	Members: Botswana, Namibia, South Africa
Trans Caprivi Corridor: Trans-Caprivi Corridor Management Committee Under Walvis Bay Management Group	Members: Namibia, Zambia, DRC, Zimbabwe

Source: Africa Regional Report - UN-ORHLLS, 2016a

Table 5: Central and West Africa - Sub-Regional Treaties and Conventions on Transit Transport and Trade

INSTRUMENT	MEMBERSHIP
1975 Treaty establishing the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS). Replaced by a new Treaty in 1993 and further modified in 2003 and 2005	15 Member States in West Africa region
1982 Treaty of Gisenyi establishing Economic Community of the Great Lakes Countries (CEPGL)	Members (3): DRC, Rwanda, Burundi
1983 Treaty of Libreville establishing Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS)	All 12 States in Central Africa region
1994 Treaty Establishing West African Economic and Monetary Union (UEMOA). Modified in 2003.	Benin, Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Guinea Bissau, Mali, Niger, Senegal, Togo
1998 Treaty of Ndjamena establishing Central Africa Economic and Monetary Community (CEMAC). Replaces the 1964 Treaty of Brazzaville establishing UDEAC	Cameroon, Central Africa Republic, Congo Republic, Gabon, Chad, Equatorial Guinea
1999 Brazzaville Agreement Establishing a Uniform Regime Applicable to Rivers	Cameroon, the Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of the Congo and Congo
Brazzaville Agreement creating the International Commission for the Congo-Oubangui-Sangha River Basin (ICCOSB)	Members: DRC, Central Africa Republic, Congo Republic
Treaty establishing Abidjan-Lagos Corridor Organization (ALCO) 2004	Members: Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, Togo, Benin, Nigeria
Dakar – Bamako Corridor Agreement on: Port; Transit; Road Transport; and Rail Transport	Senegal, Mali
Abidjan – Ouagadougou – Bamako – Niamey Corridor Agreement on: Port; Transit; Road Transport; and Rail Transport	Cote d'Ivoire, Burkina Faso,. Mali, Niger
Tema - Ouagadougou – Bamako – Niamey Corridor Agreement on: Port; Transit and Road Transport	Ghana, Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger
Lome - Ouagadougou – Niamey – Bamako Corridor Agreement on: Port; Transit; and Road Transport	Togo, Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger
Cotonou – Niamey – Ouagadougou – Bamako Corridor Agreement on: Port; Transit; Road Transport; and Rail Transport	Benin, Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger
Douala – Bangui - Nsoger-Bur Corridor	Cameroon, Central African Republic, Tchad
Pointe Noire - Repub- Ninte Noi Corridor Agreement on: Port; Transit; Road Transport; and Rail Transport	Republic of the Congo, Central African Republic, Tchad

Source: Africa Regional Report - UN-ORHLLS, 2016a

EURO-ASIA REGION

In the Euro-Asia region, ESCAP has been facilitating the establishment and adoption of the Intergovernmental Agreement on the Asian Highway Network, the Intergovernmental Agreement on the Trans-Asian Railway Network, and the Intergovernmental Agreement on Dry Ports. Table 6 shows the status of ratification of these agreements.

Table 6: Regional Agreements on Transit Transport in Asia

INSTRUMENT	MEMBERS
The Intergovernmental Agreement on the Asian Highway Network entered into force on 4 July 2005.	30 are parties of which 12 are LLDCs
Intergovernmental Agreement on the Trans-Asian Railway Network established in 2006 and entered into force in 2009.	19 are parties of which 6 are LLDCs
The Intergovernmental Agreement on Dry Ports opened for signature in November 2013 and entered into force 23 April 2016, after eight of the 17 signatory countries became a Party to it.	As of August 2017, 13 member States had ratified the agreement including 5 LLDCs and 7 transit countries.

Source: ESCAP 2013, 2015, and 2016 and UN OLA Treaty Collection

The sub-regions in the Euro-Asia region have several agreements of relevance to transit and international trade. They cover both infrastructure development and trade facilitation. Some of the main agreements are discussed in the following section.

Basic Multilateral Agreement on International Transport for the Development of the Europe-Caucasus-Asia Corridor, 1998

The Basic Multilateral Agreement on International Transport for the Development of the Europe-Caucasus-Asia Corridor was signed in 1998 under TRACECA programme by Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bulgaria, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Romania, Tajikistan, Turkey, Ukraine and Uzbekistan. The objectives of the agreement are to develop economic relations, trade and transport, facilitate access to international market of transport and international transport, ensure safety, security and environment, harmonize transport policy/ legislation and create equal competition of transport modes. The scope of the agreement extends to road, rail, maritime, air and multimodal transport, as well as transportation by pipeline, and covers cross-border and transit transport. It is one of the most comprehensive agreements for fostering economic integration, trade and transport and facilitating access to international markets.

ASEAN[3] Agreements on Transport Facilitation

Under the auspices of ASEAN, several agreements relating to transit and transport facilitation have been formulated, including:

- Agreement on the Recognition of Domestic Driving Licenses issued by ASEAN Countries, 1985;
- Customs Code of Conduct, 1995;
- Agreement on Customs, 1997;
- Agreement on the Recognition of Commercial Vehicle Inspection Certificates for Goods Vehicles and Public Service Vehicles issued by ASEAN Member Countries, 1998;
- Framework Agreement on the Facilitation of Goods in Transit, 1998;
- Agreement to Establish and Implement the ASEAN Single Window, 2005;
- Framework Agreement on Multimodal Transport, 2005;
- Framework Agreement on Facilitation of Inter-State Transport, 2009; and
- ASEAN Trade in Goods Agreement 2009.

These agreements follow similar structure and obligations, and the modes of transport covered by them are indicated by their titles. The 1998 agreement on transit is used to frame the regimes and definitions in transport agreements. This particular agreement also covers both road and rail transport with the objectives of facilitating transport of goods in transit, harmonizing and simplifying regulations and requirements, and establishing an integrated efficient transit transport system.

Agreements of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS)[4] and the Eurasian Economic Community (EurAsEC)[5] related to Transport Facilitation

The CIS and EurAsEC countries use stand-alone agreements to regulate different issues in transit transport. Since 1992 when the CIS came into existence, a large number of agreements have been formulated, signed, and most of them have been ratified and are in force now. CIS and EurAsEC agreements are stand-alone agreements covering different aspects in transit transport. With the establishment of the Customs Union of Belarus, Kazakhstan and Russian Federation within EurAsEC framework in 2007, several other agreements have been concluded, spelling out the custom union's policies concerning international road transport. Some of the key agreements in this sub-region include:

3 - Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) with member countries of Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Viet Nam.

4 - CIS member-states are: Azerbaijan, Armenia, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Russian Federation, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Ukraine and Uzbekistan.

5 - EurAsEC member-states are: Belarus, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Russian Federation, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan.

- CIS Agreement on Transit Procedures, 1992;
- CIS Agreement on Inter-State Transport of Dangerous and Discharge Goods, 1993;
- CIS Convention on International Road Transport of Passengers and Luggage within the CIS, 1997;
- CIS Agreement on Implementation of the Coordinated Policy in the Field of Evaluation of Transport Tariff, 1997;
- CIS Convention on the Reciprocal Recognition and Enforcement of Judgments in the cases of offences of traffic rules, 1997;
- CIS Agreement on Principles of Formation of Common Transport Area and Cooperation of the CIS Member States in the Field of Transport Policy, 1997;
- EurAsEC Agreement on Establishment of Transport Union, 1998;
- EurAsEC Agreement on International Road Transport between the Member States of the Transport Union, 1998;
- CIS Agreement on Transit through the Territories of the CIS Countries, 1999;
- EurAsEC Agreement on mutual visa-free travels, 2000;
- EurAsEC Protocol on Common Approach in Application of Information Technology under Customs Control over Transit Goods and Transport Means across the Frontiers of the Member States of the Eurasian Economic Community, 2001;
- EurAsEC Protocol on Organization of Information Exchange on Movement of Goods and Transport Means among Customs Authorities of the Member States of the Eurasian Economic Community, 2001;
- CIS Agreement on the cooperation of CIS Member States in the sphere of international road transport of goods, 2003;
- EurAsEC Agreement on Concerted Implementation Policy of Formation and Development of the Eurasian Economic Community Transport Corridors, 2005;
- CIS Agreement on the introduction of an international certificate of weighing commercial vehicles on the territories of CIS Member States, 2004;
- CIS Agreement on harmonization of requirements for additional training and professional competence of international automobile carriers of CIS Member States, 2006;
- Treaty on the Customs Code of the Customs Union, 2010;
- Agreement on the Specifics of Use of International Carriage Transport Vehicles, transporting Passengers as well as Trucks, Semitrailers, Containers and Railway Rolling Stocks transferring Cargo and/or Luggage for Internal Carriage within the Customs Territory of the Customs Union, 2010;
- Agreement on Provision and Exchange of Preliminary Information on Goods and Transport Vehicles crossing the Customs Border of the Customs Union, 2010; and
- Eurasian Economic Union, 2015

ECO Transit Transport Framework Agreement, 1998

Signed in 1998, this agreement covers transit transport by road, rail, inland waterway, and access by port. The agreement aims to facilitate transit transport by providing necessary facilities, ensuring safety, avoiding unnecessary delay, fraud/tax evasion, and harmonizing administrative rules and procedures. All ECO members namely Afghanistan, Azerbaijan, Islamic Republic of Iran, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Pakistan, Tajikistan, Turkey and Turkmenistan are signatories to this agreement. It came into force in May 2007.

Greater Mekong Subregion (GMS)[6] Agreement for Facilitation of Cross-border Transport of Goods and People, 1999

The Greater Mekong Subregion (GMS) Agreement for Facilitation of Cross-border Transport of Goods and People (GMS Cross-border Transport Agreement) was formulated with support of the Asian Development Bank (ADB). It was originally a trilateral agreement among the Lao PDR, Thailand and Viet Nam and signed by the three countries in November 1999. With accession of other GMS countries, the agreement became a subregional agreement. The main agreement entered into force in December 2003.

The objectives of the agreement are to facilitate cross-border transport of goods and people, simplify and harmonize legislation, regulations, procedures and requirements, and promote multimodal transport. It covers road transport and road-related multimodal transport. The GMS countries adopted economic corridor approach to development during 8th GMS ministerial meeting held in Manila in 1998. Under the GMS economic cooperation programme three economic corridors were identified in 2000 to accelerate the subregional economic cooperation. The corridors were planned to be operated under the GMS Agreement for Facilitation of Cross-border Transport of Goods and People.

Agreement between the Governments of the Shanghai Cooperation Organization (SCO)[7] Member States on Facilitation of International Road Transport

With support of the SCO secretariat, ESCAP and ADB, the SCO member states reached consensus on the main agreement at Cholpon-Ata, Kyrgyzstan, in June 2008. Afterwards, ESCAP and the SCO secretariat have been supporting the negotiation of the annexes to the agreement, which was concluded in March 2012. It will be open for other countries to accede to after entry into force. In the outcome of the Meeting of the Heads of State of the Shanghai Cooperation Organization held in Tashkent on June 24, 2016, Member States noted the importance of the early entering into force and implementation of the Agreement between the Governments of SCO Member States on Establishing Favorable Conditions for International Road Transport. The outcome noted that the agreement shall promote multilateral cooperation in transport sector and facilitate the formation of international transport corridors, which must become a connecting link between Asia and Europe, implement joint infrastructure projects providing for the expansion of economically justified transport and communication opportunities and fulfil the transit potential of the region.

6 - Greater Mekong Subregion (GMS) includes Cambodia, China, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Thailand and Viet Nam.

7 - Member countries of SCO are China, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Russian Federation, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan.

The Eurasian Economic Union (EEU)

The Eurasian Economic Union was established by a treaty signed on 29 May 2014 by the leaders of Belarus, Kazakhstan and Russian Federation, and came into force on 1 January 2015. The agreements for the accession of Armenia and Kazakhstan to EEU were signed on 9 October and 23 December 2014 respectively. The EEU introduces free movement of goods, capital, services and people and provides for common transport, agriculture and energy policies with provisions for a single currency and greater integration in the future.

European Agreement on Main International Traffic Arteries (AGR) of 1975

This agreement defines the main roads linking Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Kazakhstan, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, the Russian Federation, Turkey, and Ukraine. Annexes to the agreement list relevant roads and standards to which the international arteries should conform.

European Agreement on Main International Railway Lines (AGC) of 1985

This agreement seeks to facilitate and develop international railway traffic in Europe by adopting a common plan of railway network coordination. Annex I defines the railway lines of international importance. Annex II defines the technical characteristics of the international railway lines. Contracting parties include EU member states and some former Soviet republics.

European Agreement on Important International Combined Transport Lines and Related Installations

Signed in 1991 by EU member states and some former Soviet republics, this agreement seeks to facilitate the international transport of goods through combined transport to alleviate the burden on the European road network, make international combined transport in Europe more efficient and attractive to customers, and establish a legal framework to lay down a coordinating plan for the development of combined transport services. Annexes I and II define railway lines, installations, and border-crossing points of importance for international combined transport. Annex II defines the technical characteristics of the network.

LATIN AMERICA

The International Land Transport Agreement, (ATIT) by Latin American Integration Association (ALADI)

This agreement sets the rules for transit in the region. The agreement has been in force since 1990 and was adopted by seven countries: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay. The agreement consists of 3 annexes, besides the main body, 1) "Customs matters"; 2) "Immigration matters" and 3) "Aspect of Insurance," and with a "Regime of Infringements and Sanctions", called Annex 4. It defines how a truck company can become an international transport agent, how the permits are provided, how the rules of technical revision for vehicles are determined, the documents that are required, and which institutions are in charge of enforcement. The applicable authorities are the Ministries of Transport or Public Works in each of the countries.[8]

The main characteristics of the agreement include: Transport services between the parties are to be exclusively performed by means of transport registered by one of the Contracting Parties that need to have original and supplementary permits; Cabotage (local transport) among the signatory countries is prohibited; There are routes prescribed for transit, as well as exit and entry points; There are technical requirements for transit vehicles as well as definitions on weight and dimensions; There are provisions for facilitation measures regarding minimizing boxing and checking time, priority for perishable goods and live animals, and harmonizing of opening hours; and there are civil liability levels fixed in the agreement for risk.

MERCOSUR

The Common Market of the South (MERCOSUR) agreement governs the transit issues between the member countries. MERCOSUR, established in 1991, is a custom union that has, as its goal, the free movement of goods and services, productive factors, and a common external tariff.[9] MERCOSUR is composed of Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay, Uruguay, Bolivia

8 - Argentina: Secretary of Transport, part of the Ministry of Interior and Transport. Bolivia: Ministry of Transport and Communications. Brazil: Ministry of Transport. Chile: Ministry of Transport and Telecommunications. Paraguay: Ministry of Public Works and Communications. Peru: Ministry of Transport and Communications. Uruguay: Ministry of Transport and Public Works.

9 - In 1996, Chile and Bolivia became associate states of MERCOSUR, with Peru, Ecuador, Colombia, Guyana and Surinam following later one. Associate states sign agreements of Economic Complementarity. In 2006, Venezuela joined the area as a member and its full membership became effective in 2012.

and Venezuela. Chile is an "Associate State" of the Common Market and the rules of transit apply to it also. The same applies for Peru.[10]

The most important MERCOSUR rules related to transit are: Technical vehicular inspection Fluvial and maritime transit, Agreement on weight and dimension of trucks, Requirement of sleeper cabin on international transport trucks, Transit guarantees, Regime of sanctions in case of not meeting the weight limits, Minimum amount of liability insurance for the international road transporter, and Driver immigration requirements. The International Manifest of Cargo and Transit Customs Document (MIC/DTA) and the Declaration of International Customs Transit and Unified Customs Declarations (DUA/DTAI) are the unified customs documents within the trading blocks of MERCOSUR and CAN, intended to simplify clearance processing at the border and transit trade. Both of these documents are required to be submitted electronically, allowing the customs officials at the border to review them in advance, thus expediting the process.

Andean Community

The transit regime in the Andean Community (CAN)[11] is regulated by Decision 399 on international surface transport adopted by the Community's Commission in 1997 and Decision 617 approved in 2005, which describes the Transit Regime in detail. The principles, as well as the provisions of this transit regime, are very similar to those in ATIT. The Andean Community of Nations (CAN) transit regime has regulations related to the authorizations and permits that trucking companies need to obtain to be able to operate in international transport operations. The special permit to operate as an international transport carrier is issued by CAN and needs an *apostille* from the respective of national internal revenue agency. The CAN also has technical requirements for vehicles related to maximum weights and dimensions; observance of regulations on the maximum weight per axle; presenting a valid certificate of technical inspection.

As in ATIT, CAN decisions specifically rule that operator and vehicle permits and certificates issued by a member country should be accepted as valid by the Customs and other public authorities involved in transit operations controls of the other members. The required documents for freight under the transit regime are as follows: DTAI (Declaration of International Customs Transit) which is incorporated into the DUA (Unified Customs Declaration), the common customs document accepted by all members of the Andean Community, plus truck's bill of lading, certificate of origin of freight, freight insurance, civil responsibility insurance to circulate in neighbour country (extendable to other countries), other documents such as packing lists and sanitary certificates, depending on the type of freight.[12]

Treaty of the River Plate Basin

In 1969, five countries (Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay), signed the Treaty of the River Plate Basin, whereby they pledged to "promote harmonious development and physical integration of the River Plate Basin and its areas of direct and measurable influence", and, in 1989, the International Committee of the Waterway was formed, with specific functions and a permanent secretariat in Buenos Aires. The agreements in the treaty are implemented through a series of protocols, but, in practice, no country has signed all of them, which often leads to problems for navigation or docking of vessels of any nationality.

The treaty establishes the general principle that these countries will promote the identification of common interest areas, the realization of studies, programs and works, and the formulation of operational instruments from legal documents necessary to foster: The facilitation of and assistance to navigation; The rational use of water resources, especially through the regulation of waterways passages and their multiple and equitable use; Plant life preservation and development of animal and plant life; The improvement of road, rail, river, air, electrical and telecommunications inter-connections; The promotion and establishment of industries of interest for the complementary regional development of the basin; The economic complementation of neighbouring areas; and Increase of comprehensive knowledge of the River Plate Basin.

Agreement on fluvial transportation

This agreement, also called "Santa Cruz de la Sierra", has the objective of facilitation of navigation and commercial transport on the Waterway under the River Basin treaty, through the establishment of a common regulatory framework conducive to the development, efficiency and modernization of the Waterway operations, to provide competitive access to the external markets. The signatory countries are: Argentina, Brazil, Bolivia, Paraguay and Uruguay.

The agreement has the following principles: Freedom of navigation; Equal treatment; Freedom of transit; Reservation of national and regional cargo; Ship-owner of the waterway; Trade and transport facilitation; Port and auxiliary services for navigation; Bodies for the application of the agreement; Dispute resolution mechanisms; and Evaluation and adjustments.

10 - According to Sudol and Rotaondo, Los Caminos de la Integracion, Peru is a special case, since it also implements the transit agreements of CAN.

11 - CANntina: Secretary of Transport, part of the Ministry of Interior and Transport. ikistan and Uzbekistan.

12 - Section based on Barbero and Abad (2008), Trade and Transit Facilitation: Overview of Existing Regimes in Mercosur and Andean Countries.

Challenges in ratifying and implementing the regional or sub-regional agreements

Even though the ATIT agreement has shown the benefits of a single document and the use of single truck to transit through regional roads, there is still a lot of work to do in terms of enforcement of the rules of the agreement (not stopping trucks for unnecessary checks), improving border procedures (such as expedited lines for transit trucks).

BILATERAL AGREEMENTS

Numerous bilateral transit and transport agreements have been signed between landlocked and transit countries to provide landlocked countries with access to seaport(s) through the transit countries. Table 4.1 presents some of the countries that the LLDCs have bi-lateral agreements with.

During 2006-2007, the ESCAP secretariat collected and analyzed more than thirty bilateral agreements on international road transport. The study found that while some existing bilateral agreements are clearly structured, others do not follow a logical sequence of issues or cover different issues in the same article. Also, many of the agreements have not been fully implemented due to difficulties in some specific arrangements or issues beyond transport.

The bilateral agreements generally make reference to existing international practice and rules and contain provisions determining the scope of application of the freedom of transit (e.g. including or not the persons), designating transit routes (limited to certain routes or not), regulating permits/quotas, procedures and documents, driving licences, cross-border cooperation, dispute settlement, technical specifications of vehicles and technical certifications, motor vehicle third-party insurance, customs transit issues, duties, taxes and charges, safety and security, environment, visas for professional driver and crew, overall customs controls and other controls, application of domestic legislation, institutional arrangements, relationship with other treaties etc. The ESCAP study noted that bilateral agreements often define specific routes rather than road networks and carriers are permitted to deliver goods only to fixed destinations as designated in agreements, causing many empty runs and long idle time for vehicles. Due to this restriction the advantage of road transport, including door-to-door delivery and flexibility, over other modes of transport is lost.

A World Bank[13] study that reviewed over seventy bilateral agreements on road freight transport concluded that over-elaborate bilateral treaties could even be counterproductive for they introduce rigidities in implementation, deviate from international best practices, or could be defending vested interest. In such situations, bilateral agreements reduce efficiency and increase the cost of international road transport services. The study suggested that Member States should be supported to adopt a more comprehensive approach in formulating bilateral agreements.

SUMMARY AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

The foregoing review shows that a lot has been done to create a legal framework that is supportive of transit issues – both to support development of the physical infrastructure and of the soft infrastructure at all levels: international, regional/sub-regional and bilateral. At international level, the review has shown that although the LLDCs and the transit countries have made progress in acceding to and ratifying the WTO Agreement, their accession to the other relevant key conventions is slow. Given that accession to and effective implementation of international legal instruments, conventions and agreements is proven to be the best way of achieving simplification and harmonization of formalities and procedures for international transport, it is important that LLDCs and transit countries consider ratifying and effectively implement the relevant conventions.

In depth studies and analyses encompassing the costs and benefits of joining the international conventions are needed to obtain greater insights into the challenges faced by the LLDCs and their transit partners. Based on these studies, clear strategic options and recommendations should be formulated which can then feed into developing robust and effective advocacy tools. Guidelines could be developed for the implementation of the conventions and agreements. More resources could be mobilized for the LLDCs to take part in international meetings and conferences which take important decisions on the international conventions and agreements to generate their ownership and accountability. It is important for the international community to provide financial and technical support to the LLDCs and transit countries in this endevour.

The LLDCs and transit countries are also encouraged to fully utilize trade facilitation tools developed by international organizations such as WCO, WTO, UNECE, ESCAP, UNCTAD and other international organisations. The international organizations should enhance technical assistance to LLDCs and transit countries to build their capacities to ratify and effectively implement relevant international conventions that promote transit.

At the regional and bi-lateral level, the LLDCs and transit countries also require capacity building support to establish comprehensive agreements and to effectively implement them. Technical assistance could also be offered to undertake country-specific studies to formulate concrete policy measures in further enhancing the participation of the LLDCs in regional and bilateral agreements and benefiting from those arrangements in deepening their trade and transport links with their transit countries.

13 - Kunaka Charles, Virginia Tanase, Pierre Latrille, Peter Krausz, 2013, Quantitative Analysis of Road Transport Agreements (QuARTA), World Bank.

Chapter 3: Transit Infrastructure Development

The establishment of a secure, reliable and efficient transit transport system is critical for LLDCs to be able to reduce transport costs and enhance their competitiveness and become fully integrated in the global market. In this regard, the development and maintenance of physical infrastructure including the development of the transport infrastructure in both landlocked and transit developing countries, closing of the missing links and development of ancillary infrastructure is important as indicated in Priority Area 2 of the Vienna Programme of Action. Equally important is the development and maintenance of the ICT and energy infrastructure that play a crucial complementary role of improving the physical connectivity and transit of the LLDCs. Improved ICT can open the flow of information and combined with improved customs, can promote a strong environment for businesses and consumers in LLDCs to access global markets.

This chapter provides a review of the status of transport, ICT and energy infrastructure development, highlighting successful examples and identifying major constraints and gaps and provides suggestions to address them.

TRANSPORT INFRASTRUCTURE

The World Bank *Logistics Performance Survey* provides an index that rate the quality of trade and transport related infrastructure based on surveyed opinions of transport and logistics professionals. Table 7 presents the average logistics performance index (LPI) for the LLDCs, transit and the world. Higher values reflect a better quality of trade and transport related infrastructure and logistics. As shown, this index has increased steadily since 2007 in both the LLDCs and the transit countries – although it fell in 2016 in the LLDCs. However the value for the LLDCs has always been lower than that of the transit countries and the world average. This implies that infrastructure, although it has improved in LLDCs and transit countries, it is still perceived to be a constraint by transport and logistics professionals. The survey also revealed that satisfaction with rail infrastructure was low in all regions implying that where feasible, railway infrastructure needs to be developed.

Table 7: The Average Logistics Performance Index

	2007	2010	2012	2014	2016
Landlocked Developing Countries	2.19	2.47	2.40	2.49	2.43
Transit Developing	2.56	2.65	2.73	2.69	2.77
World	2.74	2.87	2.87	2.89	2.88

Source: World Bank Development Indicators

ROAD INFRASTRUCTURE

The road transport system is the leading mode of transport for most LLDCs, followed by rail. The LLDCs have relatively poor road network when compared to their transit neighbours and they lag behind the averages of all developing countries, developed countries and world. In Asia, the Asian Highway covers 142,000 kms of roads, connecting 32 countries in the region. The status of development and upgrading of the Asian Highway is shown in Table 8. As shown in the table, about 60% of the highway is in class I or II. The proportion of the highway that is in the LLDCs is 29%. About 58 per cent of the highway that is in the LLDCs falls below Class III category, indicating the large requirement to invest and improve this transport infrastructure in these countries.

Table 8: Status of Asian Highway in ESCAP member States in km

	Primary	Class I	Class II	Class III	Below Class III	Total
Total in Asian Member States	15,657	25,392	52,435	24,396	10,148	128,027
% in Landlocked		9%	28%	58%	58%	29%

Source: UN-ORHLLS, 2016b.
*** This data does not include approximately 15,400 km of potential Asian Highway routes.*

In Africa, the Trans-African Highway (TAH), which is at the heart of regional connectivity for the continent has a total length of 54,120 km distributed along nine corridors. However, it is characterized by missing links and poor maintenance in key segments. To provide a meaningful level of continental connectivity, between 60,000 and 100,000 km of regional roads are required.

Table 9 presents updated data of the road network in Africa by sub-region. As can be seen the percentage of paved roads is still low in sub-Saharan Africa where most of the LLDCs are located. Africa has adopted the strategy of corridor development for closing the infrastructure deficit which is viewed as a regional and continental problem that requires a regional and continental solution. A Short Term Action Plan (STAP) was defined in 2003 and various institutional mechanisms were put in place to facilitate implementation of NEPAD infrastructure projects. This was followed in 2009 with the launch, by the AU Summit of Heads of State and Government, of the Programme for Infrastructure Development in Africa (PIDA) to identify priority projects for implementation.

The Programme for Infrastructure Development in Africa (PIDA) provides a long-term vision for Africa's infrastructure development as well as a platform for African countries to engage with investors and development partners. A total of 51

priority regional projects were identified in PIDA Priority Action Plan (PAP) and was endorsed by the AU Summit in 2012 as the continental framework for infrastructure development from 2012 to 2040. To emphasize the strategy of corridor development, PIDA includes 16 projects geared towards corridor development out of the 24 transport infrastructure projects in PAP.

Table 9: Summary of African Road Network by Sub-Region in 2015

Sub-Region	Total Length (km)	Density (km/1000 km2)	% Paved Roads
Southern	1,055,682	17.58	21.05
Eastern	595,874	8.05	7.62
West	558,851	10.93	14.05
North	451,450	5.21	74.19
Central	141,287	4.68	8.5
Total	**2,803,144**	**10.32**	**25.77**

Source: Africa Regional Report - UN-ORHLLS, 2016a

The cost of the PAP projects is estimated at $67.9 billion, or $8 billion per year. That is less than 0.2% of Africa's estimated combined 2010 GDP, or 1% of national budgets and 5% of investment budgets. The investment programme appears affordable on a continental basis. On a country-by-country basis, however, the picture is not uniform. For example, the Democratic Republic of Congo, with the proposed Inga hydroelectric installation and transmission system, would have to contribute in excess of 3% of its GDP, or 10 times the continental average. The principle of solidarity will have to come to play, with such countries being assisted by neighbours.

The NEPAD Presidential Infrastructure Champion Initiative (PICI), consisting of nine projects championed by African Heads of State and Government drawn mostly from PIDA projects, provides further impetus to the implementation of regional infrastructure projects in Africa. Table 10 presents the status of the African PICI projects.

The status of the road infrastructure in Latin America is presented in the Table 11. Bolivia[14] has a total of 81 thousand

Table 10: PICI Projects – Status Update 2015

Project	Champion Country	Description	Current Status
Missing Link of Trans-Sahara Highway (TAH 2 – Algiers - Lagos)	Algeria H.E. Mr. President Abdelaziz Bouteflika	225 km. missing link from Assamaka (border of Algeria) to Arlit in Niger	Construction of missing link in progress scheduled completion in 2016/2017
Optic Fibre Link from Algeria to Nigeria	Algeria H.E. Mr. President Abdelaziz Bouteflika	4,500 km. terrestrial fibre optic cable from Algiers (Algeria – 2,700 km.) via Niger (950 km.) to Lagos (Nigeria – 850 km.)	Algeria section completed and operational. Feasibility study by ADB for extension to Chad
Dakar – Ndjamena – Djibouti Road – Rail	Senegal H.E. Mr. President Mackay Sall	8,715 km. Combination of TAH 5 (Dakar-Ndjamena) and TAH 6 (Ndjamena –Djibouti) Corridor. Includes Senegal, Mali, Burkina Faso, Niger, Cameroun, Chad, Sudan, Ethiopia and Djibouti	Dakar-Bamako Rail Project priority by Senegal. Section Bamako – Bobo Dialasso also under study. 1,276 km road missing links on the Ndjamena to Djibouti corridor. The rail missing link along the entire Dakar-Ndjamena-Djibouti corridor total 3,871 km. Addis Ababa – Djibouti Railways ready for operations in early 2016.
Nigeria – Algeria Trans-Saharan Gas Pipeline	Nigeria H.E. Mr. President Muhammadu Buhari	4,400 km. natural gas pipeline from Nigeria (1,037 km.) via Niger (841 km.) to Algeria (2,303 km.), and onwards to Spain (220 km.)	Feasibility study revised by Nigeria. Bid documents have been issued. The 48" pipeline from Calabar to Kano has been completed and the pipeline right-of-way identified and surveyed. The engineering designs for Calabar have also been completed.
Kinshasa – Brazzaville Bridge – Road-Rail	Republic of Congo H.E. Mr. President Sassou Ngwesso	Construction of a fixed link road-rail bridge linking DRC to Congo onwards to Central Africa, East Africa and Southern Africa.	Feasibility study done in 2013. Site of bridge at Maloukou Trechot selected. Bid documents not issued.
ICT Broadband and Fibre Optic Connectivity Network in Africa	Rwanda H.E. Mr. President Paul Kagame	Includes UMOJANET (a cross-border terrestrial network that will connect African countries through broadband links) and UHURUNET (a submarine ring around the continent coastal countries linking Africa to the rest of the world). Phase 1 business plan of Umojanet covers 12 countries in Eastern and Southern Africa, and 12 in West and Central Africa.	Phase 1 completed. Extension to Smart Africa Initiative approved by AU Summit in 2014.

Table 10: PICI Projects – Status Update 2015 (continued)

Project	Champion Country	Description	Current Status
Navigational Link from Lake Victoria to Mediterranean Sea via River Nile	Egypt H.E. Mr. President Abdel Fattah El Sisi	Phase 1 of the project will comprise the section from Lake Albert in Uganda to Khartoum in Sudan; the section from Gambeila in Ethiopia to the White Nile in South Sudan; and the section from Khartoum in Sudan to Aswan in Egypt. Phase 2 will comprise the section from Lake Victoria to Lake Albert, both in Uganda, and the section between the Blue Nile Basin in Ethiopia and the Main Nile in Sudan. Feasibility study. Training Centres in riparian countries.	Pre-feasibility study completed by Egypt.
North-South Corridor Development	South Africa H.E. Mr. President Jacob Zuma	Upgrading road and rail infrastructure along the corridor and establishment of OSBP at Beit Bridge.	eit Bridge OSBP included in the national plan of South Africa. North-South Corridor Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) under preparation to establish the institutional framework for Corridor Management.
Lamu Port South Sudan Ethiopia Transport Corridor Project (LAPSSET)	Kenya H.E. Mr. President Uhuru Kenyatta	New corridor including development of Lamu Port (Kenya); Standard Gauge Railways to Juba (South Sudan) and Addis Ababa (Ethiopia); Road Network; Oil Pipelines; Oil Refinery at Bargoni (Kenya); 3 Airports and Resort Cities in Kenya.	New addition to PICI. Studies and preparatory work have begun.

Source: Africa Regional Report - UN-ORHLLS, 2016a

km, of which only 8% are paved and Paraguay has a total road network of 32 thousand km, and, 16% is paved. According to official data from Paraguay, 48% of the roads are regular or bad.[15] About 40 thousand km have no maintenance program. Multilateral organizations have services contracts for 2,000 km (World Bank) and 900 km (IADB), while another 1,800 km are maintained by municipal or state, and 1,570 km by third parties.[16] For Bolivia, the maintenance net represents 2.7% of the km over 1000 km2, compared to 7.8% for Peru.[17] This represents about the 37% of the total net.

Bolivia has 5 corridors that integrate the country to regional transit, with the neighboring countries:[18]

- West East, Tambo Quemado-Puerto Suarez, integrating Bolivia, Brazil and Chile.
- West North, integrating the north of Brazil with the ports of Peru and Chile, through Guayamerin to Desaguadero.

14 - IADB Logistics Observatory http://pentaho.devgw.org/kmpfl/

15 - Data from Ministry of Public Works and Communications.

16 - Data from Ministry of Public Works and Communications.

17 - CAF Ideal, Bolivia Transport Sector, 2003.

18 - Transport Plan 2009, Ministry of Public Works and Communications.

Table 11: Road Transport Indicators in Latin America

COUNTRY NAME	Road Transport		Pave net		Vehicles (Trucks)	Density	Average fleet age	Average Tariff road cargo
	Year	Total net (km)	km	%	Thousands of vehicles	(Trucks over 1000 Inhabitants)	Years	US $ / t-km (40"containers)
Argentina	2012	628,693	216,270	34	540	10.54	13	0.10
Bolivia	2012	81,022	6,482	8	99	9.80	N/A	0.13
Brazil	2012	1,691,164	202,940	12	7,619	26.41	13	0.19
Chile	2012	77,442	18,818	24	202	11.58	10	0.13
Paraguay	2012	32,059	5,129	16	242	28.12	17	0.12*
Peru	2012	149,660	19,950	13	106	2.37	13	0.47

Source: IADB Logistics Observatory (http://logisticsportal.iadb.org/), Latin America Regional Report

- West South, from Desaguadero to Bermejo, connecting Bolivia with Argentina.
- North South, connecting Puerto Suarez with Trinidad-Yacuiba, linking the northwest of Bolivia with Argentina and Paraguay.
- Central South, connecting Hito LX, Villamontes, south of Bolivia with Paraguay, Argentina and Chile.[19]

Paraguay's transit corridors are:

- Clorinda-Puerto Falcón, Asunción-Ciudad del Este. Links West to East, Argentina, Paraguay and Brazil.
- Infante Rivarola-Cañada Oruro, linking Bolivia with Paraguay.
- Peralta- Porto Murtinho, linking Paraguay and Brazil in the north of Paraguay.

There are some success cases of the transit corridors and border crossings in the Latin America LLDCs, including improvement of National Highways in transit countries (especially Argentina), to the benefit of Paraguay and Bolivia. Several investments carried out by the Argentinean Government on updating and maintenance of roads benefit both Bolivia and Paraguay. A good example is the case of the National Highway 34 in Argentina, which links the border crossing of Yacuiba (Bolivia) with the major grain port of Rosario.

A similar case is the one for National Road 81 in the north of Argentina, which allows connection between the port of Iquique and Asunción in Paraguay. This is an important entry port for cars, minerals and food imports for Paraguay, and exit port for exports of meat from Paraguay to Chile. The investments on modernizing and maintenance of this road have benefited the Paraguayan-Chilean exports and imports as well. Paraguayan exports to Chile sharply rose from 63,821 thousand US$ in 2005 to 669,556 thousand US$ in 2014.[20] Data from the National Statistics Office of Paraguay shows that the entry points of Jose Falcon and Chacoi (under the National Administration of Ports and Navigation) have increased the tons traded over the last years.

RAILWAY

The Asian LLDCs are engaged in implementing several projects to improve and modernize their railway systems and improve their connectivity with their neighbors and transit countries under the framework of the Intergovernmental Agreement on the Trans-Asian Railway Network) as well as by the Euro-Asia inland transport links (EATL) project. The Trans-Asian Railway networks cover over 117,000 kilometers and some progress has been made in improving the railway network through closing of some of the missing links. The Trans-Asian railway network has more than 10,500 km of missing links. Some recent successful examples of Asian LLDCs' efforts include the Afghanistan-Turkmenistan Lajaward railway network (inaugurated in 2016); and a rail link connecting China, Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan and the Islamic Republic of Iran (inaugurated in 2016). Other initiatives being undertaken include: The construction of 205 km rail way link from Sangan (Iran) to Herat (Afghanistan).

Another project mooted by China and Kyrgyzstan with an estimated cost of some US$4 billion will open up an additional route to sea for the Central Asian LLDCs through China. The completion of 105-km line section between Kars (Turkey) and Akhalkalaki (Georgia) will improve Azerbaijan's access to the Mediterranean ports of Turkey. The Government of Armenia has approved a feasibility study for a 316-km single track line to link its national system with that of Islamic Republic of Iran. In 2010, the Government of Mongolia began the expansion of its rail network with the construction of approximately 2,500 km to the ports in China and the Russian Federation.

In South Asia, Bhutan and Nepal, the two LLDCs are also engaged in modernizing and creating new links with their transit neighbours. Nepal has a plan to build a 917-km east-west line and is also exploring options with India to link its cities with that of India. Bhutan is also exploring options in collaboration with Indian railways to connect with neighbouring towns and cities in India. As Part of ASEAN's Singapore-Kunming Rail Link (SKRL) project, a US$7 billion project is envisaged to create a 417-km north-south rail link, going over Lao PDR to all the way to China. This project is also aimed at developing a modern rail way system that will connect Lao PDR with China, Thailand and Vietnam.

The African railway network of 74,775 km has very low density and is mostly in North Africa and Southern Africa. There are over 26,362 km of missing links in the rail network. Part of the network is closed due to war damage, natural disasters, or general neglect and lack of funds. 17 African countries are without railways, five of which are the landlocked countries of Burundi, Central African Republic, Chad, Lesotho and Niger. Some railway projects are underway under the PIDA programme and corridor development by the subregions. The Djibouti-Addis Ababa railway was completed and was launched in September 2016. Kenya launched a new high speed railway from Mombasa which is to extend to South Sudan, DR Congo and Burundi. The Governments of Benin, Burkina Faso, Niger and Cote d'Ivoire are collaborating on the reconstruction and upgrading of the Cotonou-Niamey-Ouagadougou-Abidjan Railway that will link Mali and Burkina Faso to the sea ports in the ECOWAS sub-region.

19 - Ministry of Public Works, Services and Housing. Transport Development Sectorial Planning.

20 - COMTRADE.

In Latin America, Bolivia increased its railway network from 2,866 kilometres in 2009 to 3,652 in 2013. Major successes of the Bolivian railroad corridors are the abilities to provide services for soya producers and import cargo. Not only do they provide an option to truck transport, but they also are combined with passenger service. The challenges may be both how to streamline the processes and how to lower costs.

In Paraguay the rail transport is currently being redesigned, with a focus on development of integrated freight corridors. The old route has fallen into disuse, because the country's bulk grain production, for instance in the Paraná River basin, has moved eastwards. The bi-oceanic railway segment (Paraguayan section) is being developed there and will interface with the rest of the corridor running east-west, with a one-metre gauge. The project is being implemented under a Cooperation Agreement between the Governments of the Republic of Paraguay and the Republic of Korea and coordinated by the Korean Cooperation Agency.

The major challenges facing the railway network in all the regions include aging track—insufficient ballast, rail wear, deteriorating earthworks, and formation; inadequate maintenance - most structures are in poor condition; and rail signalling and telecommunications—obsolete equipment and a lack of spare parts. The closing of the missing links is important as is harmonizing different infrastructure standards, including railway gauges. The slow interchange of rolling stock between railway networks not only holds up goods in transit but also results in poor utilization of railway assets, thus reducing their revenues.

WATERWAYS

Inland water transport offers competitive freight rates for low-value, high-bulk commodities and is used in some LLDCs. Inland waterways are used by selected African LLDCs including Central African Republic, Malawi, Mali and Niger. In Latin America the most important rivers, as regards both volume of flow and navigability, are the Paraguay River and the Paraná River. The Paraguay-Paraná Waterway is in particular an important transit river corridor for transporting Paraguayan exports and imports. It links Bolivia, Brazil, Paraguay, Argentina and Uruguay.

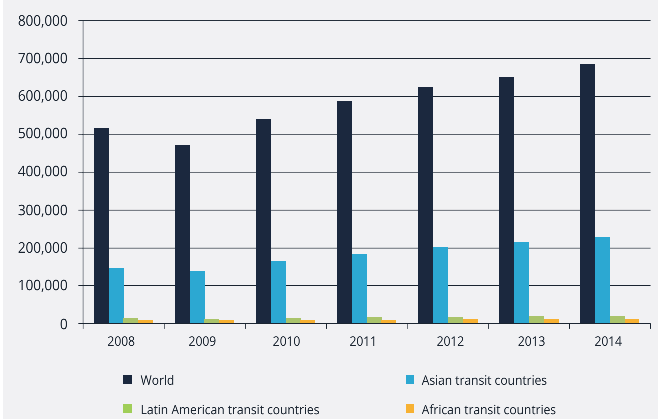
The major challenges of inland waterways include: the reduction in water level at low periods; silting; and other physical/material constraints as well as operational/management-related and regulatory issues. To realize its potential and safeguard navigational safety and environmental protection, inland water transport involved in transit trade need improvement in infrastructure to improve navigability.

The enforcement of the multilateral agreements that are on paper, but not put as much into practice also present a major challenge. A study by the World Bank mentioned that the strategy that each country follows, at the end, was bilateral, and that explained in part why the multilateral rules were not put into practice.[21] "The analysis of the evolution of institutional negotiations indicates that progress with a fragmented strategy is inevitable, country by country, since the regionally-coordinated and integrated strategy has reached its apex of development and has not prospered."

PORTS

The share of port throughput for the transit developing countries as measured by the number of containers that pass through the port has increased by more than 50 per cent from 2008 to 2014 as shown in table 1.3 in the annex, while the world's throughput was by 33% (see figure 1). Asian ports dominate both for port throughput and for terminal efficiency. China continues to lead the world in terms of port throughput and efficiency and increasingly as a provider of expertise in port construction and management. The ports for the Asian transit countries account for one third of the world's total throughput. Throughput in the African and Latin American transit countries have also grown, however the volume of throughput is much less when compared to Asian transit countries.

Figure 1. Container port throughput for transit developing countries compared to World total ('000 Twenty-foot Equivalent Units)



Source: World Bank World Development Indicators

The third specific objective of the VPoA priority area on Fundamental transit policy issues is aimed at reducing the time spent at intermodal points - the transfer from port to rail or road. Although data to measure progress on this specific objective is not readily available, World Bank studies indicate that the average cargo dwell time in most ports in East Asia or in Europe is close to 4 days. In Africa, some progress has been made to reduce cargo dwell time from 14 in 2012 to 9 days in 2016 at Dar es Salaam port and 11 to 6 days for Mombasa port over the same period. The port dwell times were: in Durban – 4 days; Douala -19 days; Lomé 18 days and Tema – 20 days. More efforts are needed to reduce the port dwelling times and there is need to capture data and regularly update it in order to monitor this specific objective.

Progress is being made in developing port infrastructure, especially in port extension and port reforms. According to UNCTAD 2013, in Cambodia a new cargo terminal officially opened in the capital in 2013, in response to a sharp increase in shipments moving through the country's existing ports. The new terminal is located in the Kien Svay district of Kandal province, about 30 kilometres from the existing port in Phnom Penh, and cost over $28 million. It was financed by the Chinese government and will be capable of handling 300,000 TEUs when the second phase is complete (UNCTAD, 2013).

Thailand has undertaken port construction and updating over the past decade. In Africa, the Tanzanian Government is undertaking port expansion detailed in box 1. According to UNCTAD 2013, in Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire, port expansion plans include increasing TEU capacity to 1 million–1.5 million. In early 2013, a $933-million contract was signed between the Abidjan Port Authority and China Harbour Engineering Company Limited. The project involves waterway and basin dredging, construction of a container terminal and a ro-ro terminal, and waterway breakwater reconstruction.

In Kenya, the Government invested into land to develop Mombasa into a free port where manufacturers may undertake

21 - The World Bank, Southern Cone Inland Waterways Transportation Study. The Paraguay-Paraná Hidrovía: Its Role in the Regional Economy and Impact on Climate Change, 2010.

BOX 1.
Dar-es-Salaam Port Expansion

The Dar es Salaam Port serves the: Dar-es-Salaam Corridor connecting Malawi and Zambia and Southern DRC and forms part of the North-South Corridor; and the Central Corridor serving the Great Lakes Region of East Africa (Burundi, Rwanda and Uganda) and extending into Eastern DRC. The Port Expansion is among the PIDA PAP projects. Compared to the Port of Mombasa, the total cumulative cost of the delays and additional monetary costs at the Dar es Salaam Port are reported to be equivalent to a tariff of 22 per cent on container imports and of about 5 per cent on bulk imports. Shippers using the port of Dar es Salaam have to pay higher fees than in Mombasa to port operators and agencies for their services and the official port fees are on average 74 per cent higher in Dar es Salaam than in Mombasa, principally as a result of higher wharfage charges.

The new 'Big Results, Now!' (BRN) initiative launched by the Government of Tanzania has put the port of Dar es Salaam at the center of the agenda. Under BRN Programme, the following are some of the projects that are being, or will be implemented soon at the port to increase efficiency: Deepening of berths 1-7; Construction of a new RoRo terminal at Gerezani Creek, of which re-evaluation of Technical Proposal was completed and a report re-submitted to the World Bank on 17th July, 2015; Two additional berths (13 and 14), with expected capacity of 600,000 TEUs, are to be developed; Two mobile scanners were recently procured from China to eliminate manual checks on cargo and save time, once installed; Procurement process for upgrade of rail handling equipment at the port with Rubber Tyred Gantry (RTG) is now under supplier's credit; Works for deepening and widening of the entrance channel and turning basins to commence after completion of the study, which is expected to have started in August 2015, and to end in February 2016; Implementation of a Port Community System to integrate stakeholder systems to support a Single Window System (eSWS) and improving information environment; TPA started implementing the eSWS in April 2014, and completion of the project is expected in December 2015.

Upgrading of the Port Infrastructure is being undertaken to increase handling capacity for short-term development and modernise the port to facilitate long-Term Development. Among the improvements going on at Dar es Salaam port is the implementation of Integrated Electronic Payment System (IePS) for all port dues and the Integrated Security System (ISS) to enhance security and installation of CCTV. The port in collaboration with other stakeholders is now operating 24/7. The new e-payment system is already operational and Tanzania Ports Authority (TPA) said it would stop using paper invoices effective immediately as it embraces electronic payment system to modernize port services. A total of about US$ 600 has been mobilized from both bilateral and multilateral partners and civil works have begun on the upgrade of Dar es Salaam Port. Modernizing and expanding Dar es Salaam Port will reduce ship's dwell time from the current nine to 10 days down to just five days by 2020. Dar es Salaam Port has already seen significant growth in its throughput, growing from 7.4 million tons in 2007 to 12.1 million tons in 2012 and is projected to reach 18 million tons in 2015. On completion port capacity will double to 28 million tonnes by 2020.

Source: Africa Regional Report - UN-ORHLLS, 2016a works at reduced tax. This will help LLDCs such as Uganda which is the largest destination of transit cargo accounting for nearly 85 per cent (4.2 million tons), of which 90 per cent comprises imports. In 2003, the Maputo Port Development Company anticipated levels of investment for upgrading the Port of Maputo of around US$56 million. Between 2003 and 2013, the Port received US$500 million, and over the next twenty years it foresees investment of approximately US$1.8 billion.

In Latin America, in Peru, the Ministry of Transport and Communications and the Ministry of Land, Transport and Maritime Affairs of the Republic of Korea signed an MOU to update the development plans for four Peruvian ports (those of Iquitos, Ilo, Salaverry and San Juan de Marcona) (UNCTAD, 2013). The port sector in Peru will benefit from more than US$2 billion of investment into the port development, according to the National Port Authority.

Major challenges to port infrastructure include natural disasters and the impact of climate change in particular coastal flooding. This heightens the need for adaptation strategies to improve the resilience of port infrastructure and systems.

DRY PORTS

More recently, strong attention has been paid to the development of dry ports, which is of the great importance for landlocked developing countries as they are very useful for facilitating customs clearance procedures intermodal transfers and for other diverse cargo handling, warehousing, and logistics services. ESCAP defines dry port to be - a secure inland location for handling, temporary storage, inspection and customs clearance of freight moving in international trade.

The major benefits of dry ports include - helping bring economic development from coastal area to hinterland, improved supply chain, logistics leading to reductions in transportation costs, relief of capacity constraints at seaport especially associated with customs clearance of goods and modal shift to a more efficient mode of transport. Thus overall dry ports will allow greater integration between infrastructure networks and increase the efficiency of transport in the region.

Many LLDCs have or are making progress in establishing dry ports in all regions. For example: Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Botswana, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Bolivia, Paraguay, Afghanistan, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bhutan, Mongolia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Uzbekistan, Lao Peoples Democratic Republic, Nepal, and Tajikistan. The "Khorgos-East Gate" free economic area located in the south-east of Kazakhstan and a kilometre away from Kazakhstan's border with China is one such example. Expected to be completed by 2020 at an estimated cost of US$3.5 billion, the project will go a long way in prompting cross border trade and contribute significantly to regional integration. The major challenges facing development of dry ports include: high costs for establishing the facility, availability of land, lack of efficient logistics facilities and support systems, shortage of skilled manpower and lack of coordinating between different stakeholders.

CORRIDOR APPROACH TO DEVELOPMENT

Governments and multilateral funds and programmes have invested in corridors in order to stimulate regional economic development. In Asia, some major initiatives include the Euro-Asian Transport Links (EATL), Central Asian Regional Economic Cooperation (CAREC) corridors and Greater Mekong Subregion (GMS) economic corridors. Under CAREC initiative, 19,200 km corridor roads have been improved by 2013. The length of the expressways and highways totalling 1312 kms were upgraded by 2013. The Refined Transport and Trade Facilitation Strategy 2020 envisions extending six original CAREC corridors to 29,350 kms by 2020.

In the GMS, the economic corridor approach was adopted in 1998 as a means of achieving connectivity. Transport infrastructure forms the backbone of the key economic corridors that have been substantially completed over 15 years. The GMS corridor development effort has so far concentrated on three main corridors: (i) The East–West Economic Corridor (EWEC), running from Da Nang in Viet Nam through the Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR) and Thailand to Myanmar; (ii) the North–South Economic Corridor (NSEC), which covers the major routes running from Kunming in Yunnan, [the People's Republic of China through the Lao PDR and Myanmar, and to Bangkok in Thailand and (iii) The Southern Economic Corridor (SEC), which runs through the southern part of Thailand, Cambodia, and Viet Nam (Brunner, 2013). These key economic corridors have expanded the benefits of improved transport links to remote and landlocked locations in the GMS. A 2007 study by Phyrum et al. of the Southern Economic Corridor's (SEC) impact on Cambodia found an increase in living standards of those along the corridor. The study reported improved access to healthcare, education, and markets as well as the development of additional public service facilities. It also reported an improvement in trade routes and reduced trade costs at cross-border points. The study also noted that the development of the East-West Economic Corridor (EWEC) in the same line gave the province of Savannakhet in Lao Peoples' Democratic Republic better connectivity and regional integration. It reduced travel times, in some cases from 12 to 3 hours, and cut the cost of transportation, increasing competitiveness. Townships and economic activities also grew, and new concrete houses, markets, guesthouses and restaurants, petrol stations, automobile repair shops and other micro enterprises emerged.

However, Brunner 2013 notes that trade facilitation remains a

constraint for international road transport and rail remains an underutilized transport mode in the movement of international trade in the GMS. He suggests recommendations that include expansion and completion of the infrastructure base, establishment of multimodal and intermodal transport facilities, and the promotion of logistics development. It also means more intensive area development around the corridors, with capacity building in productive economic hubs.

All African LLDCs, with the exception of Lesotho and Swaziland which are well linked to South Africa, are directly linked to projects that are part of the main continental infrastructure programmes, namely the Trans-African Highway network, PIDA, and PICI. Specific corridor organisations have been established to improve the smooth operation of some transit corridors. The Maputo Corridor is one corridor that has been noted to be successful. It has experienced tremendous growth, attracted large industrial and transport investments, and strengthened ties between neighboring countries over its almost two decade long history since the end of the apartheid era in South Africa and the Peace Agreement in Mozambique.

Another notable success story is the current development in the Djibouti-Addis Ababa Multimodal Transport Corridor which is designated to serve Djibouti, Ethiopia, Sudan and South Sudan. The corridor composes of the Ethiopia - Djibouti Standard Gauge Railway and the Horn of Africa Pipeline. The railway is designed to increase transport capabilities, regional trade and the ease of border crossing, all of which will lead to cost savings and better regional integration. The railway started operating in 2016 and was partly financed by private capital from various sources as part of the ambitious national railways development programme in Ethiopia which aims to build a total of 5,000 km. of rail throughout the country.

AIRFREIGHT

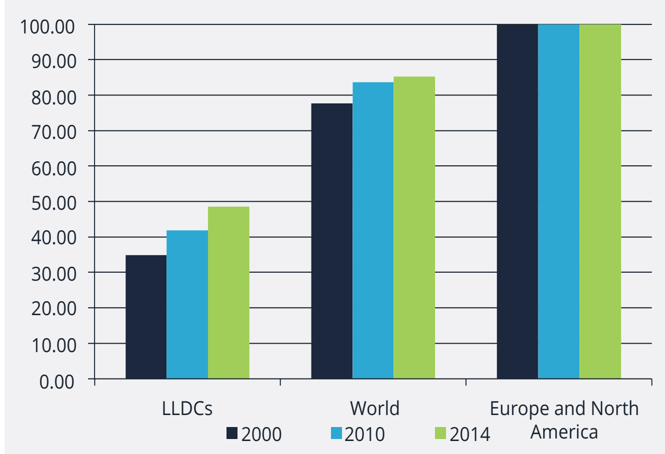
Use of airfreight has increased in some LLDCs as shown in 2.4; however, the demand for air freight is limited by cost which is typically priced 4–5 times that of road transport and 12–16 times that of sea transport. This limits commodities that could be shipped by air to be of high value per unit or are very time-sensitive, such as documents, pharmaceuticals, fashion garments, production samples, electronics consumer goods, and perishable agricultural and seafood products. They also include some inputs to meet just-in-time production and emergency shipments of spare parts. LLDCs have had limited demand for airfreight exports because the majority of the enterprises are SMEs which produce relatively small volume shipments of low value goods. Higher fuel prices have also affected the chances of LLDCs to make greater use of air freight. Some airports also need new passenger terminals and freight sheds; facilities like cold storage, security and handling systems need improvements and the air traffic control and need upgrading.

ENERGY

A reliable, modern and affordable energy infrastructure is vital for reducing the delays in the transit time for landlocked developing countries' consignments and for building the productive capacity. Even though marked improvements in electrification have been achieved over the last decade, the LLDCs fall behind other groups of countries in terms of access to energy. As shown in the 2.6 and figure 2, the LLDCs still lag behind the world average.

Furthermore there are wide disparities between countries; with 9 countries having reached universal access, while 9 countries are trailing behind others with an access rate lower than 20% and the remaining 14 LLDCs lie in between. There are also wide disparities between urban and rural areas with urban areas having access rates that are much higher than the rural areas. It is important that access to modern energy is enhanced to specifically target the rural areas. In this regard it is important to scale up renewable energy which represents one of the most cost-effective solutions for off-grid areas and has a cost advantage over diesel-fired power generation. The LLDCs also require higher quantity and quality of investment in infrastructure facilities to close the rural-urban gap and to achieve universal access in sustainable energy including involving a combination of off-grid, mini-grid and decentralized grid-connected energy solutions.

Figure 2. Proportion of population with access to electricity (%)



Source: UNSD SDG Indicators Global Database

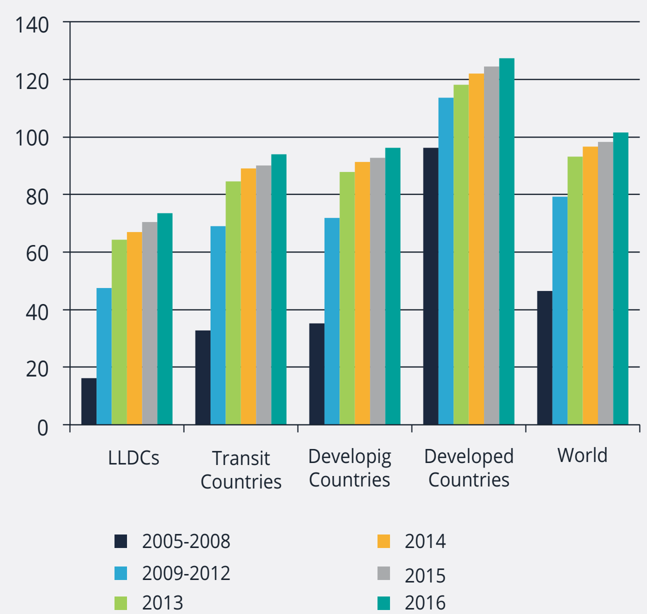
According to the recent data by the International Energy Agency, about 300 million people in the LLDCs or two thirds of their total population rely on traditional use of biomass for cooking. The indoor pollution resulting from biomass use kills more people, especially young children and women, than malaria and tuberculosis and HIV-AIDS combined, underscoring the urgent need for improved access to clean and modern cooking energy.

Since energy is at the heart of every economic, environmental and development issue (including transit issue), more effort is needed to expand access to reliable and modern energy services in the LLDCs if they are to alleviate poverty, enhance productivity, and ultimately attain rapid and inclusive economic growth and development. In order for them to achieve the Sustainable Energy for All (SE4ALL) goal by 2030, universal access to electricity and safe household fuels, doubling improvements of energy efficiency and a doubled share of renewable energy in the global energy mix are required.

ICT

The LLDCs experienced strong growth over the past decade in information and communications technology (ICT) in particular mobile communications, where subscriptions grew by twenty-fold as shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Mobile Cellular Subscriptions (per 100 people)

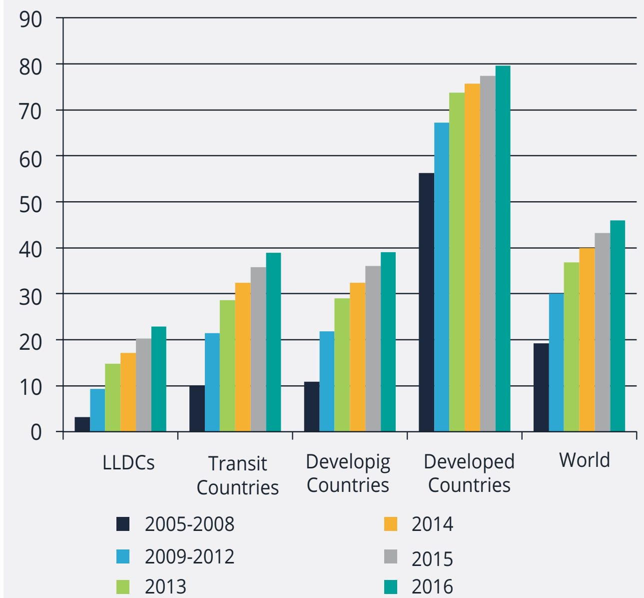


Source: International Telecommunication Union Statistics

By contrast, access to the Internet, although increasing steadily, remained low in the majority of LLDCs, with an average 23 out of 100 people being Internet users in 2016 compared to 39 out of 100 people in transit countries (Figure 4). This average also masks important disparities among the LLDCs with Azerbaijan recording the highest with 78.2 Internet users per 100 people in 2016 compared to 4 in Central African Republic.

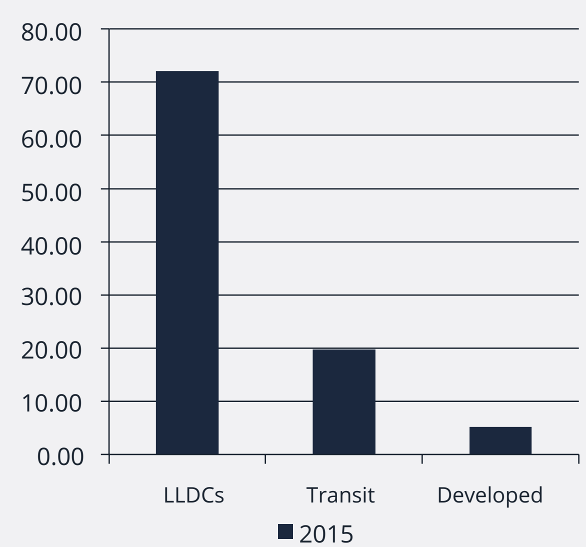
The LLDCs still face high costs of broadband. Whereas a monthly fixed broadband price is 5% of average per capita monthly income in developed countries, and 20% in transit developing countries, it is 72% in LLDCs (Figure 5a). Similarly, the average price of a mobile-cellular sub-basket in 2015 is much higher in LLDCs when compared to transit and developed countries (Figure 5b). More efforts are required to lower these prices.

Figure 4. Internet Users (per 100 people)



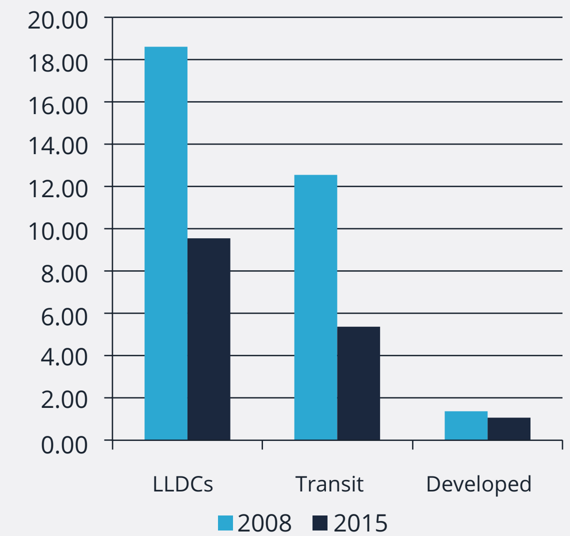
Source: International Telecommunication Union Statistics

Figure 5a. Fixed-broadband price (% of monthly GNI per capita)



Source: ITU Statistics

Figure 5b. Mobile-cellular sub-basket price (% of monthly GNI per capita)



Source: ITU Statistics

Access to international networks of communications technology and data transmission lines is still a major challenge for some LLDCs. Special importance is attached to fibre optics providing a cost-effective means of telecommunication and access to international fibre optics in landlocked countries is a basic requirement to stimulate their comprehensive development. Unreliable supply of energy and poor access to computers caused restricted access to increased internet use are other challenges affecting increased ICT use by the LLDCs. More efforts are required to improve the necessary infrastructure and develop concomitant relevant policy and regulatory frameworks in order to make significant strides towards reaching the VPoA specific objectives of promoting open and affordable access to the Internet for all and to address the digital divide.

SUMMARY

This section has reviewed the status of infrastructure development -- transport, energy and information and communications technology – which is important for improving the flow of LLDC's goods and people in transit important. Infrastructure is also an input into building productive capacities to accelerate and sustain growth as well as increase access to regional and global value chains.

As reviewed in the section, there has been improvements in transit infrastructure development in all regions particularly road transport, ICT and port development. However the transit infrastructure is still inadequate and still accounts for why the LLDCs face high trade costs. The magnitude of the required resources to invest in infrastructure development remains a major challenge. It requires forging sub-regional and regional cooperation on infrastructure projects; strengthening national budgets, and international development assistance. It is also important to explore innovative financing mechanisms including the use of Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs). The role of the private sector in infrastructure development needs to be strengthened.

In order to address the transit issues in a holistic and sustainable manner and to spur development along the transit corridors, development of road, rail and inland waterways should be supplemented by the simultaneous development of roadside, rail side and river side support infrastructure. Ancillary infrastructure will ensure not only the road and rail safety, but also the involvement of local businesses in the ancillary roadside services distribution along highways and railway networks thereby resulting in the creation of development corridors along transit highways and railroads.

Chapter 4: Trade Facilitation, Customs and Border Procedures

Trade facilitation refers to policies and measures aimed at easing trade costs by improving efficiency at each stage of the international trade chain. They cover a wide range of areas and activities such as government regulations and controls, business efficiency, transportation, information and communication technologies as well as payment systems. The World Trade Organization defines trade facilitation as the simplification and harmonization of international trade procedures covering the activities and practices and formalities involved in collecting, presenting, communicating and processing data required for the movement of goods in international trade. Accordingly, the Trade Facilitation Agreement of 2013 covers issues such as freedom of transit, fees and formalities related to importing and exporting, and transparency of trade regulations covering border procedures such as customs and port procedures, and transport.

As traditional barriers to trade have come down in many places, the focus has increasingly been placed on the easing of trade flows. Within bilateral and multilateral arrangements, measures have been undertaken to facilitate cross-border flow of goods and services. In particular, attention has shifted to the cumbersome data and documentation requirements, as well as excessive administrative formalities, fees, corruption and general operational inefficiencies. Inefficiencies in areas such as customs, other border-crossing procedures and transport can often create roadblocks to the integration of LLDCs into the global economy, and may severely impair export competitiveness or inflow of foreign direct investment, it is the position of the WTO that trade facilitation benefits importers and consumers who face higher prices caused by administrative red tape as well as exporters.

This chapter highlights the importance of trade facilitation to the LLDCs, highlights the specific objectives of the VPoA on trade facilitation and presents trade facilitation initiatives that the LLDCs and the transit countries are implementing.

THE IMPORTANCE OF TRADE FACILITATION TO THE LLDCS

Trade facilitation is of particular interest to LLDCs as their participation in international trade is severely constrained by inefficient procedures inside as well as outside of their territorial borders. Delays at the ports and border crossings, coupled with cumbersome procedures and inefficiencies hold negative implications for governments, businesses, customers and the entire economy as they are costly. The World Trade Organization estimates that trade costs of LLDCs amount to applying an ad valorem tariff of 260% to international trade. Furthermore, Roberts (2014) states that it has been estimated that on average, customs transaction involves 20-30 different parties, 40 documents, 200 data elements (30 of which are repeated at least 30 times) and re-keying of 60-70 per cent of all data at least once.[22] An OECD (2003) survey of studies conducted shows that transaction costs due to delays in trade caused by cumbersome border procedures have been estimated at some 1-15 per cent of the value of world trade. This cost is particularly steep for developing countries such as LLDCs that have not undertaken sufficient trade facilitation reforms, and thus still have relatively more cumbersome and inefficient procedures for trade.

Such findings collaborate with conclusions reached by other studies. For instance, a World Bank (Djankov et al 2006) study found that for each day that a shipment of goods is delayed due to import or export procedures, trade decreases by at least one per cent. Trade facilitation is directed towards reducing the complexity and cost of the trade transaction processes and ensuring that customs and other border and port activities take place in an efficient, transparent and predictable manner. In the absence of efforts to reduce costs pertinent to these inefficiencies, imports would remain expensive to the country and consumer. Furthermore, the high transport costs would also limit the ability of a country to source inputs such as raw material and technology from abroad. It would also render exported goods to be less competitive in the global markets.

Inefficiencies and high costs in transit transport have negative implications to the performance of the small and medium size enterprises (SMEs), which are important drivers of economic activity. Some analysts point out that the reason why many SMEs which collectively contribute, in some incidences, up to 60 per cent of GDP creation[23] are not active players in international trade due to red tape rather than tariff barriers.

According to continuously updated analysis from the OECD,[24] the full implementation of the Trade Facilitation Agreement could reduce the costs of trade between 12.5 per cent and 17.5 per cent worldwide, with developing countries that are open to trade likely to benefit the most. Potential cost reduction from a full implementation of the TFA is 16.5% of total costs for low income countries, 17.4% for lower-middle income countries, 14.6% for upper-middle income countries and 11.8% for OECD countries. The WTO notes that the full implementation of the TFA would reduce LLDCs' trade costs by an average of 15.4%.[25] Improvements in the area of formalities (simplification of trade documents; streamlining of border procedures; and automation of the border process) appear to have the greatest impact on trade costs, generating cost savings of 2.8% to 4.2% depending on the level of development.

The WTO also estimated that the full implementation of the TFA would increase GDP growth by up to 0.5% annually. World Bank research based on Logistical Performance indicators (LPI) found that reducing trade logistics costs by half could raise trade by 15 per cent and production by 5 per cent globally.[26] The TFA is also expected to help developing countries in some key areas for their sustainable development such as export diversification, participation in global value chains and improved ability to attract investment.

THE VPOA AND TRADE FACILITATION

The Vienna Programme of Action acknowledges that the high transport cost and continued marginalization of LLDCs from global trade stem, in part, from non-physical barriers to trade such as delays and inefficiencies associated with border crossings and ports, including customs procedures and documentation requirement. In order to comprehensively address these problems, VPoA proposes that LLDCs and their transit neighbours continue to streamline and harmonize their customs and transit procedures and formalities, implement transparent and efficient border management systems, and improve the coordination of the agencies involved in border clearance.

While underscoring the importance of pursuing trade facilitation strategies that would reduce transport and transaction costs and enhance competitiveness, it is also acknowledged that a majority of LLDCs suffer human and institutional weaknesses in this realm. Such weaknesses continue to undermine or hinder their efforts to implement many important strategies, including the 2013 Trade Facilitation Agreement. In all, there are three specific objectives in this priority area on trade facilitation along with fourteen actions to be undertaken by LLDCs themselves, their transit neighbours or development partners. The specific objectives are i) to significantly simplify and streamline border crossing procedures with the aim of reducing port and border delays; ii) to improve transit facilities and their efficiency with the aim of reducing transaction costs; and iii) to ensure that all transit regulation, formalities and procedures for traffic in transit are published and updated in accordance with the Trade Facilitation Agreement. If fully implemented, the VPoA can successfully contribute to the LLDCs' performance in international trade, and in their overall pursuit of sustainable development.

Trade facilitation measures often focus on issues that include but are not limited to: the reduction of trade and transport cost; reduction in documents required for export and import; reducing or eliminating rent seeking and corruption opportunities; faster customs clearance and release through predictable official intervention; simpler commercial framework for doing both domestic, regional and international trade; and the encouragement of foreign direct investment. In general, however, there can be no trade facilitation package that fits all countries alike. Each country must develop and pursue a facilitation programme that fits its unique environment.

Key cardinal trade facilitation pillars, namely: transparency, simplification, harmonization and standardization. To be successful, countries need to ensure that all information requirements and processes for crossing borders are clear, specific and easily accessible for all involved. Simplification requires that administrative and commercial formalities, procedures and documents reduce the red tape for companies, and that it contributes to a less bureaucratic trade process. For instance, governments should commit to reducing the number of official documents required for exports and imports, as well as reducing or even abolishing official signatures and stamps on documents.

Besides ensuring that trade facilitation package reflects those four pillars above, there is a need to also consider the following critical elements. First, to ensure that there is a strong political leadership, will and commitment; second, there is a clear strategic plan in place; third, that close cooperation exists with the business community and other stakeholders; and lastly, that there is a well-funded and long-term technical assistance programme based on genuine partnership between developing and developed countries.

TRADING ACROSS BORDERS AND LOGISTICS PERFORMANCE

Border crossing formalities have been identified as major bottlenecks to transit transport in many developing countries, especially LLDCs. International conventions, regional frameworks and bilateral agreements provide the main platforms through which LLDCs can work with their development partners and transit neighbours to harmonize, simplify and standardize rules and procedures governing transit trade and transit infrastructure. LLDCs have also continued to adopt a wide range of policies and programmes

22 - UNCTAD findings as reported in WTO Staff Working Paper ERSD-2014-07.

23 - Katua (2014)

24 - OECD (2015) Trade Facilitation Indicators: The Potential Impact of Trade Facilitation on Developing Countries' Trade (OECD Trade Policy Paper No. 144, 2013).

25 - WTO World Trade Report 2015

26 - World Bank (2014)

aimed at promoting transit infrastructure development, and in overcoming the constraints to transit transport and cross-border movement of goods and services. These trade facilitation efforts have begun to bear fruits - even though there is a long way to go before these countries can catch up with the rest of the world, including transit countries. Despite these efforts, transit transport and cross border movement of goods and services continue to face a series of challenges.

Steady progress across many LLDCs has been achieved on time taken to conclude an international trade transaction that has continued to decline. For instance, time to export fell from 48 days in 2005 to 41 days in 2014 (see table 12). While the group had experienced an average improvement of seven days, several countries have witnessed more impressive results. Rwanda has cut days required to export by 34, followed by Lao PDR (32), Armenia (21), Mali (18) and Burundi (15). Group-wide time required to import a container has fallen by some 8 days: from 57 days in 2005 to 49 days in 2014. On the account of this measure, LLDCs in East Africa showed the strongest performance. Once again, Rwanda and Lao PDR have been particularly successful, having reduced the time required to import a container by an impressive 68 and 39 days respectively. Mali also reduced their time required by 35 days, followed by Uganda (33) and Burundi (28). However even though the LLDCs have made progress, they still take much longer time to import and export when compared to the transit countries.

While import and export costs remain relatively higher for LLDCs than for transit countries, they have also been increasing at a faster rate for LLDCs. Since 2005, average export costs have increased some 54 per cent, while import costs have gone up much faster, by 61 per cent. Export cost for a standard container has more than doubled over the past ten years for Afghanistan, Tajikistan, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe. On the other hand, average import costs have doubled for Afghanistan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Although it is difficult to provide a generalized analysis for this rapid increases in transit costs one thing is apparent: they erode a country's competitiveness on the global markets.

The reduction in the number of required documentation is an important focus of any trade facilitation solution. In addition to documents, many countries require an array of various stamps in different colours, and official signatures at different levels of approval – both of which are time consuming and needlessly costly. For this reason, the simplification of border procedures is strongly recommended, with an emphasis placed on the automation of custom services.

Table 13 demonstrates that import and export documentation requirement is greater for LLDCs than transit countries. On average, there are 2 additional forms that are required to be able to process an imported container to LLDCs. That being said though, the table also shows that LLDCs continue to work on this challenge since it represents costs and delays to the business community. Rwanda has cut the number of forms required to export and import by 6 and 12 respectively between 2005 and 2014. Other countries that have realized commendable progress in this endeavour include Uganda, Lao PDR, Uzbekistan, and Kyrgyzstan. However, it must be emphasized that there is a need to make further progress, especially in countries where one needs more than 10 documents to complete a single transaction.

Table 12: Import and Export Cost and Time Indicators for LLDCs

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Time to Export (days)	48.1	48.1	46.9	46.4	44.2	42.5	41.9	42.1	41.5	40.8
Time to Import (days)	57.1	56.8	53.5	51.7	49.3	47.8	47.2	49.9	49.3	49.1
Export Cost ($ per container)	2211	2211	2242	2554	2629	2746	2792	3164	3328	3444
Import Cost ($ per container)	2701	2701	2727	3068	3155	3368	3411	3917	4167	4344

Source: World Development Indicators, World Bank

Table 13: Documents to Import and Export

Documents to export (number)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
LLDCs	9.3	9.3	8.9	8.8	8.6	8.5	8.5	8.5	8.5	8.5
Transit Countries	7.8	7.7	7.4	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1
Documents to import (number)	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**
LLDCs	11.5	11.5	10.7	10.7	10.4	10.2	10.3	10.5	10.2	10.1
Transit Countries	9.8	9.2	8.7	8.4	8.4	8.4	8.3	8.5	8.4	8.4

Source: World Development Indicators, World Bank

Many countries, including LLDCs have instituted a system that requires and accepts advance electronic filing of necessary documents for a shipment before it actually arrives at the border. This measure has resulted in the reduction of the number of people needed to process documents, border crossing times, and rent seeking opportunities.

Overall, there is evidence that LLDCs remain at a logistics disadvantage when compared to their transit countries as shown in table 7 which shows that the LLDCs' LPI has consistently been lower than for transit countries. This implies the need to scale up and strengthen trade facilitation initiatives between the LLDCs and the transit countries.

EXAMPLES OF INITIATIVES TO IMPROVE BORDER CROSSING OPERATIONS

The LLDCs and transit countries, with the support from development partners, have undertaken some major initiatives during the last decade to simplify formalities and procedures of border crossing operations. This section presents some examples of the efforts.

A. COORDINATED BORDER MANAGEMENT

In practical terms, a number of important initiatives for coordinated border management are being implemented by LLDCs in all regions, made possible with the support of their transit and development partners. In Africa, efforts have been made to promote the establishment of the One-Stop Border Posts (OSBPs) or Joint-Border Posts (JBP).[27] Referred to as One-Stop Border Post (OSBP) in East and Southern Africa, and a Joint Border Post (JBP) in West Africa, this is a border post that combines two stops for national border control processing into one and consolidates border control functions in a shared space for exiting one country and entering another. It uses simplified procedures and joint processing wherever appropriate.[28] It is seen as a practical way to reduce duplication of procedures and clearance processing times. By reducing time lost, OSBP/JBP can also lower the cost of transport for shippers and goods to consumers, thus accruing benefits across the national economic spectrum.

The primary reason for establishing OSBPs is to achieve greater trade facilitation by combining border clearance activities in a single location, pursuing economies of scale, reducing time of border crossing, simplifying clearance procedures, fostering cooperation, achieving coordination of controls, data and intelligence sharing, and improvement in fraud control. Furthermore, OSBPs help in the optimal utilization of available resources such as scanning facilities and office accommodation. There is evidence that revenue inflows improve as a result of effective sharing of intelligence and joint risk management initiatives.

OSBPs were first piloted in Africa at the Chirundu border post between Zambia and Zimbabwe in 2009 as part of the transit transport facilitation programme on the North-South Corridor. Since then, several countries have initiated development of OSBPs along the major transit corridors. There are three common modes of OSBP, the selection of which depends on the topography of the border area, the condition of the existing border facilities, willingness of countries to share facilities, traffic volumes and the degree of political integration. All three are in use in Africa today.

The first type is the straddle Border Post, which is located on the border, enabling officers to work on national territory in one common facility. The second type is known as a Single Country Border Post, which as its name suggests, is located solely in one country. It offers the efficiency of a single facility, but requires extraterritorial jurisdiction. Finally, a Juxtaposed Border Post is the most commonly used type of OSBP in Eastern and Southern Africa. Juxtaposed Border Posts require a dedicated facility in each country, each serving one direction of traffic. This model is generally used where facilities already exist and/or where a river or other natural barrier forms the boundary, as is the case at Chirundu.

Following the successful outcome of the pilot project at Chirundu, the East African Community passed the OSBP Bill, 2012 which envisaged establishment of 15 common border posts within the 5 Partner States. In this regard, EAC together with the corridor authorities and their Member States have decided to convert all major border posts into OSBP, whether situated on a gateway corridor or on a purely regional route. Several OSBPs have since been developed and are operational in East Africa. These include: Malaba (Kenya – Uganda); Busia (Kenya –Uganda); Kagitumba (Rwanda) – Mirama Hills (Uganda); Taveta (Kenya) – Holili (Tanzania); Mutukula (Tanzania – Uganda); Kobero (Burundi) – Kabanga (Tanzania); Tunduma (Tanzania) – Nakonde (Zambia); Nemba (Burundi) – Gasenyi (Rwanda); Ruhwa (Rwanda – Burundi); and Elegu (Uganda) – Nimule (South Sudan). The results have been remarkable. In the Northern Corridor, for example, crossing time was reduced by 20 hours on the average; before reform, 49% of trucks spent more than 24 hours at the border (of which 13% over 48hrs.), and after the reform, all trucks passed in less than 6 hours (Hartmann, 2013).

The experience in West Africa region differs from those in Eastern and Southern Africa regions in that the process is entirely driven by ECOWAS and UEMOA, mainly because there are few operational corridor management institutions. Following ECOWAS Resolution No.2 relating to the implementation of the Joint Border Posts Program of ECOWAS

27 - The development of OSBP/JBP along the transit corridors are being undertaken to complement the development of hard infrastructure spearheaded by NEPAD under PIDA.

28 - JICA and EAC, OSBP Sourcebook, 2011.

and UEMOA member states, ECOWAS and UEMOA initiated a joint programme since 2003 to build 11 JBPs in West Africa. Cinkansé on the border between Togo and Burkina Faso is the first to be built. An agreement with Mali was signed in 2008 to build the second JBP at Heremakono on the Burkina-Mali border. Detailed engineering designs have been prepared for seven other OSBPs at Noepe (Ghana–Togo); Seme–Krake (Nigeria–Benin); Malanville (Benin–Niger); Noe-Elubo (Ghana - Cote d'Ivoire); Paga (Ghana–Burkina Faso); Hillacondji-Sanveekondji (Bénin-Togo); and Kouramalé (Mali–Guinea). However, only the first three received funding so far. ECOWAS and UEMOA are searching for more funds for OSBPs.

Supplementary Act /SA.1/07/13 Relating to the establishment and Implementation of the Joint Border Posts Concept within Member States of the Economic Community of West African States was approved and signed in June, 2013. Presently, West Africa has adopted Juxtapost and One Single Country Facility JBP Model with a control zone designated as international/ Community territory (UEMOA) and operated by a concessionaire. The Cinkansé JBP on the Togo/Burkina Faso border uses a single common one country facility in Burkina Faso that has been defined legally as international territory. The completed Noepe JBP on the Ghana/Togo border uses a single common one facility in Togo that has been defined legally as international territory. Other JBPs for which funds has been secured are: Mfum JBP (Nigeria/ ECOWAS and Cameroon/ECCAS) along Enugu-Bamenda Corridor; Trans-Gambia Corridor (Senegal – The Gambia); Border between Côte d'Ivoire - Guinea, and Border between Côte d'Ivoire – Liberia.

In Latin America region one-stop border posts are already working in several of the key border-crossings linking trade corridors from Bolivia and Paraguay. The West-East, Tambo Quemado-Puerto Suarez corridor that integrates Chile with Bolivia and Brazil west to east has seen investments in the integrated border control of Puerto Suarez-Corumba, on the border of Bolivia and Brazil. This advancement was signed by both countries in 2005, and has been operating since 2013. According to official data from Bolivia,[29] trade has spiked at that point of exit, as well as at Tambo Quemado.

For the West North Bolivian corridor, integrating the North of Brazil with the ports of Peru and Chile, through Guayamerin to Desaguadero, IIRSA has an ongoing project (at execution stage) worth US$ 40.2 million that provides for the construction of adequate facilities and the implementation of integrated border control systems agreed upon by the member countries of the CAN. This project is located at the Peru-Bolivia border, 1.8 km from where the Ilo-Desaguadero and Puno-Desaguadero roads, on the Peruvian side, and the La Paz-Desaguadero road, on the Bolivian side, converge (International Bridge). The purpose is to facilitate the flow of people, vehicles and goods, fostering bilateral, as well as regional trade. In addition, complementary actions, associated with the regulatory frameworks and with binationally-integrated border control operations, have been identified. The project also entails the construction of an international bridge. Currently, border controls are performed in the area of Carancas, in Peruvian territory, in provisional facilities which poses obstacles to smooth bilateral trade and tourism. It is worth mentioning that the Desaguadero border-crossing is the most important one for trade between Peru and Bolivia. Both the Jose Falcón-Clorinda and Jama border-crossings in the corridor that links Paraguay with Chile also have integrated border control processes.

National and Regional Single Windows

In Africa, National Single Window (NSW) systems are also under construction. NSWs enable traders and operators to submit their documents at a single location and/or single entity. Time and cost savings can be achieved for traders in their dealings with government authorities for obtaining the relevant clearance for moving cargoes across borders. NSWs are under construction in Kenya, Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Libya, Morocco, Republic of Congo, Mali and Cote d'Ivoire. While some of these countries are not LLDCs, they are important transit partners and as such, they must be lauded for these efforts. A number of LLDCs in Africa, namely Rwanda and Uganda have also launched Single Window projects and is being developed in Zimbabwe. While it is commendable that these countries have prioritized these initiatives, it is imperative to keep in mind that the cost and complexity of setting a NSW system could be the reason why Africa is lagging behind. The benefits, though, are known to far outweigh the costs.

The Central Asia Regional Economic Cooperation (CAREC) programme has prioritized customs cooperation component of trade facilitation through its Joint Customs controls programme. In this context, participating countries are implementing a border crossing point improvement and single window development projects in the sub-region with the aim of supporting National Single Windows. These measures are also expected to lead to the development of a regional platform for networking of NSWs through the participation of the private sector.

UNECE and ESCAP are also implementing a Single Window system and several Asian LLDCs are participating in this initiative. ASEAN is also very active in promoting Single Window as a means for coordinating border management and facilitating trade amongst its members including Lao PDR, the sole LLDC in this group. Single window facilities are operational in Azerbaijan. Mongolia has drawn up and the

29 - National Institute of Statistics (INE).

LLDCs Global Report 2017

Government has endorsed a master plan on a national single window system and Kyrgyzstan has set up the Single Window Center for Foreign Trade in its Ministry of Economy.

A similar initiative in Asia is that of the Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS). Involving six countries, along with landlocked Lao PDR, the Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS) Agreement for Facilitation of Cross-border Transport of Goods and People promotes the simplification of border formalities by having a single window inspection for goods and people. This Agreement also promotes the elimination of intermediary stops or trans-shipment, as well as reduction in the amount of time spent crossing borders. Increasing the number of border checkpoints that are implementing the Cross-Border Transport Agreement (CBTA) will help maximize the effectiveness of the GMS transport networks. The CBTA complements the existing physical infrastructure of the GMS countries.

In Latin America, Paraguay introduced the Single Window for Exporters in 2006 and later the Single Window for Importers. As a result, the formalities on the National Registry of Exports were reduced by 99 per cent on average; the number of steps to get the Certificate of Origin has been reduced by 95 per cent and the time needed to process it was cut by 98 per cent.

B) USE OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGIES

Simplification and harmonization of customs procedures involves the introduction of comprehensive automated systems for document checking and clearing. Improving the level of automation in customs services can help regularize the procedures, speeding up the process and lead to increased revenues for the governments. Indeed, the efficient use of modern information technologies for customs procedures has significantly cut processing time and increased customs revenues.

For instance, the deployment of the Automated System for Customs Data (ASYCUDA) has enabled border agencies to access data pertaining to their mandated area. In Uganda, information technology is being used at the custom processes and tax administration. The country migrated from the use of ASYCUDA + to ASYCUDA ++ - and now to ASYCUDA World, which has the advantage of allowing access by other stakeholders (Single Window), declarations to be made from around the world, as well as electronic client feedback. In Southern Africa region, Zimbabwe Revenue Authority seeks to implement a Single Window environment at its major ports of entry, with Beitbridge border post set to be the pilot port at which the concept will be launched. The ASYCUDA World version 4.2.0 which is due to be implemented in Zimbabwe has a platform which allows for the introduction of the Single Window environment. Overall, 22 LLDCs are using ASYCUDA.

The WCO Data Model helps with the development of ICT and contributes to smooth movement of goods. It is a set of carefully combined data requirements that are mutually supportive and which will be updated on a regular basis to meet the procedural and legal needs of cross-border regulatory agencies such as customs, controlling export, import and transit transactions. WCO Data Model not only includes data sets for different customs procedures but also information needed by other Cross-border Regulatory Agencies for the cross-border release and clearance at the border. The WCO Data Model supports the implementation of a Single Window as it allows the reporting of information to all government agencies through the unique way it organizes regulatory information. This instrument is already 10 years old and is seeing increased use by WCO members.

Elsewhere, UNECE and ESCAP are collaborating in establishing an Electronic TIR Customs Transit System (eTIR) which is expected to greatly simplify transit formalities and procedures. Similarly, important initiative in Latin America include the integrated border control and simplified customs documentation (electronic system called SINTIA - Sistema Informático de Seguimiento de los Tránsitos en el MERCOSUR) that has been deployed at several border posts between Bolivia, Paraguay and their transit neighbors. SINTIA is also being used in Argentina and Chile, and should be fully operational in Brazil soon.

Bolivian customs are using SIDUNEA, the computerized system that allows processing of the customs declaration, information of the national regulations, selectivity of risk assessment and electronic clearance of goods. Paraguay is using a system called SOFIA (System for the fiscal organization of customs levies), which is a computerized custom clearance system that allows operators to prepare the import/export manifests at their own offices.

As an example of transit country, the Argentine Custom has an initiative called Customs Transit Iniciative of Security (Iniciativa de Seguridad en Tránsito Aduanero I.S.T.A). The initiative includes an electronic monitoring system by seal that enables one to check, in real time, deviations from the road, detentions, news and contingencies or alarms in the course of the operations. This initiative incorporates technological innovations that ensure smooth and safe movement of goods, preserving the integrity of the load, optimizing safety and facilitating the international supply chain, in line with the indications of the World Customs Organization.

C) HARMONIZATION OF CUSTOM PROCEDURES

Streamlining and simplifying clearance procedures not only enhances efficiency but also contributes to eliminating corruption and illegal payments (including bribes to officials) at borders and check points.

There have been efforts to harmonize custom procedures in several LLDCs. In the Latin America region, the Recife Agreement from 1993 and the Additional Protocol from 1994 defining measures and simplified procedures to regulate the functioning of integrated border controls between the MERCOSUR member countries have been approved. One of the key achievements under this Agreement is the integrated border crossing controls.

In Asia, several LLDCs have come together in a regional dialogue to promote joint customs controls and many of them have succeeded in establishing joint customs controls. For example Kazakhstan has joint customs controls with China, Kyrgyzstan and Russian Federation. Showcasing that such initiatives are key in improving performance, a CAREC (2010) study found that the introduction and increased use of joint custom manifests has reduced customs clearance time by 35 per cent. The CAREC Joint Customs controls programme is aimed at promoting customs cooperation among the participating countries, mostly the Asian LLDCs.

Likewise, there are similar efforts in Africa aimed at benefiting LLDCs. As RECs move towards respective Customs Union in line with the Abuja Treaty (1991), the customs administrations will be further harmonized. For instance, under the EAC Single Customs Territory, the Destination Model of clearance of goods where assessment and collection of revenue is at the first point of entry and revenues are remitted to the destination Partner States.

Despite the efforts in harmonization of customs procedures, several problems persist that impede transit movement. These include inadequate guarantee systems, poor risk management and customs convoys.

D) ESTABLISHMENT OF INLAND CLEARANCE DEPOTS (ICD) OR DRY PORTS

The major objectives of Dry Ports and Inland Container Depots (ICD) are to bring port services closer to shippers in the hinterland through specialized rail service as well as decongesting the sea port. Their functions include transshipment, distribution, consolidation, storage, customs services, and possibly equipment maintenance.

Dry ports can be close to the sea port, such as Mombasa Dry Port in Kenya which is only 4 km from the Port of Mombasa; distant inland of the coastal country such as Isaka in Tanzania; or be located in the landlocked country itself, such as Kigali, Rwanda or Kampala, Uganda. The dry ports are run by State agencies or private operators. Generally, distant dry ports are the most common type of dry port that is found in Africa.

In both Burundi and Rwanda, customs clearance is not performed at the border but inland. In Rwanda, state-owned company Magasins Generaux du Rwanda (Magerwa) runs four small ICDs in Kigali, but in 2008 a private company, SDV Transami Rwanda, was allowed to open one as well. In Burundi, customs clearance is performed at a small ICD in Bujumbura. Ugandan customs can be cleared either at the border or at small ICDs in Kampala. However, a new facility, Tororo Dry Port, is under consideration about 1 kilometre inside the border at Malaba. The facility will be developed and operated by Great Lakes Ports Ltd. of Kenya, which has plans to establish a cargo handling facility just outside the port of Mombasa, with the aim to pass all Uganda-bound imports from the port of Mombasa through this facility and then to the dry port, in order to facilitate a smoother process.

The main reasons behind creation of dry ports in East Africa were to reduce congestion at the main seaports, increase trade between the hinterland and the coast, as well as creating efficiency in services related to shipping. A press conference by Kampala City Traders Association (KACITA) indicated that the period of clearance and movement of goods from Mombasa sea port to Kampala in Uganda reduced from 15 days to only four days with completion of Malaba dry port. In the Djibouti–Ethiopia Corridor, until recently, Ethiopian cargo was cleared directly at the Port of Djibouti by Ethiopian Customs, requiring no further inspections afterwards. In recent years Ethiopia has established two new dry ports, one at Semera near Djibouti to cater for cargo moving to the north of the country, and another at Mojo (73 kilometres east of Addis Ababa) for cargo moving to the south and west. Additional are being planned at Dire Dawa, Jijiga, Bahir Dar, and Woreta.

In Southern Africa, a number of dry port projects are in different stage of construction to facilitate modal interface in the network. In the Nacala Development Corridor, the rail link from Mchinji (Malawi) to Chipata (Zambia) will have a cargo terminal to serve the adjacent part of Zambia with rail access through Malawi to the Mozambican seaports. A dry port at Dona Ana and a container terminal at Tete (Mozambique) are planned in conjunction with the rehabilitation of the Sena railway line to serve Malawi and eastern Zambia. Other dry ports are planned for Lusaka, Kitwe and Ndola in Zambia, outside Dar-es-Salaam in Tanzania, at the Lebombo/Ressano Garcia border between South Africa and Mozambique, and at Walvis Bay in Namibia.

In the Trans-Kalahari Corridor Port of Walvis Bay, the Zambia ICD is now operational through outsourced management; land has been granted by Government of Namibia for establishment of similar facilities for Botswana and Zimbabwe. At the Lobito Port in Angola, the project of the new dry port covers the construction of a containers storage area of about 80,000 cubic meters. Construction of all support buildings is also included in this project.

In Cameroon, Bolloré Africa Logistics, a private company,

operates a dry port at Ngaoundere where they move cargo from the Port of Douala to the dry port for onward transportation by road to Chad. The operation is emerging as one of the most significant in Sub-Saharan Africa. Bolloré Africa Logistics currently manages 25 dry ports on the African continent. Nigeria has also embarked on the development of ICDs, including at Kano and Kaduna to serve Niger.

In Asia many of the LLDCs have established dry ports. Afghanistan has 8, Armenia, 4, Azerbaijan 21, Bhutan 6, Kazakhstan 5, Kyrgyzstan 2, Lao PDR 9, Mongolia 5, Nepal 5, and Tajikistan 7. LLDCs continue to face challenges in developing their dry ports. In addition to lack of financial resources, shortage of skilled manpower and limited capacity of existing infrastructure have hampered their progress. Lack of coordination between different stakeholders has compounded their difficulties.

E) OTHER TRADE FACILITATION INITIATIVES

Table 14 summarizes some of the measures adopted at regional economic community level to facilitate transit for goods and persons being implemented based on the various regional agreements on transit transport by RECs in Africa.

Customs in the Latin America region have adopted the Authorized Economic Operator (AEO) programs, whereby operators meeting a set of security requirements receive a certification that facilitates trade operations through faster clearance processes and priority attention by customs agencies. This is the case of the efficient operators that have demonstrated long term compliance to the rules. Such operators are still subject to random verifications and audits. Bolivia, as well as a number of transit countries has introduced AEO programs.

Table 14: Status of Implementation of Key Transit Transport Issues by Region

Issue for Harmonization	East Africa EAC COMESA	Southern Africa SADC	Central Africa ECCAS CEMAC	West Africa ECOWAS UEMOA
Vehicle Load and Dimensions Control (Axle load and Gross Vehicle Mass limits)	Yes. Axle Load/GVM Weighbridges installed	Yes. Axle Load/GVM Weighbridges installed		ECOWAS Supplementary Act/SP.1/02/12 on Harmonization of Standards and Procedures for the Control of Dimensions, Weight and Axle Load/GVM of Goods Vehicles.
Road Transit Charges	Harmonized Road Transit Charges within SADC	Harmonized Road Transit Charges with COMESA and EAC		
Carrier License and Transit Plates	COMESA Carrier License and Transit Plates			Inter-State Road Transport (TIE).
Third Party Motor Vehicle Insurance Schemes	Yellow Card (3rd. Party Insurance)	Yellow Card (of COMESA)	Orange Card	ECOWAS Brown Card insurance scheme (Convention A/P1/5/82) -ECOWAS "Carte Brune" (Brown Card) and CIMA Code
Road Customs Transit Declaration Document	COMESA Customs Declaration Document (CD-COM)	Single Administrative Document (SAD)		COWAS' Interstate Road Transit Scheme (ISRT) – Convention A/P4/5/82 and Supplementary Convention A/SP.1/5/90
Road check points	Significant reduction			ECOWAS Interstate Road Transport (IST) – Convention A/P.2/5/82; Resolution C/RES/.4/5/90 on reduction of number road check points in ECOWAS Member States
Regional Customs Bond	Customs Bond Guarantee Scheme - Harmonized with SADC	Customs Bond Guarantee Scheme - Harmonized with COMESA and EAC		Customs Agreements on Inter-State Road Transit (TRIE Convention)
Border Posts Operations	15 OSBP envisaged; 7 under development	Chirundu OSBP Pilot; Other OSBP Projects in NSC		
ICT for Vehicle Tracking and Fleet Management	Automated Systems for Customs Data (ASYCUDA)	ASYCUD	ASYCUD	ASYCUD

Source: UNSD SDG Indicators Global Database

TRADE FACILITATION COMMITTEES

At the national level, WTO provision on Trade Facilitation Agreement calls on each Member State to establish and maintain a national committee on trade facilitation or designate an existing mechanism to facilitate both domestic coordination and implementation of provisions of the WTO Agreement.

Trade Facilitation Committees work as an efficient instrument to establish and maintain a communications channel between the Government and the private sector and to maintain coordination among all public agencies.[30] The committees contribute to raising awareness of the importance of trade facilitation and work as a learning platform, as well as in many cases acting as WTO negotiation support groups. Furthermore, having a trade facilitation body in a country is a good preparation for the implementation of the WTO Trade Facilitation Agreement. According to UNCTAD work on National Trade Facilitation Committees 18 LLDCs have a formally established national trade facilitation Committee created by a legal instrument and 4 LLDCs have a de facto Committee which is an existing committee, although not created by a legal instrument.

THE WCO TRANSIT GUIDELINES

The WCO recently launched the WCO Transit Guidelines that provides WCO Member States with an instrument to help improve transit cooperation and contribute to reducing the high trade costs faced by the LLDCs and improve their export competitiveness. All the topics of the Transit Guidelines are very important to help reduce delays and the trade costs of the LLDCs and raise revenues of both the LLDCs and the transit countries. Some of the trade facilitation related topics include: Legal framework; ICT and efficient information management ICT; Fees and Charges; Simplification of formalities; Coordinated border management, Hard infrastructure and equipment; Authorized Economic Operator; Transparency and anti-corruption; Partnership with Business; and Performance Measurement. These are the measures at the core of the Vienna Programme of Action and The WTO Trade Facilitation Agreement.

The effective implementation of these guidelines will significantly contribute to improved trade facilitation. In many LLDCs, custom revenues account for a significant share of government revenues. Increased trade encouraged by efficient transit systems will result in increased government revenues.

CONCLUSION

This section has underscored the importance of trade facilitation for LLDCs. It has demonstrated that there are different strategies and initiatives being undertaken in this realm, across the continents. While commendable, this work is relatively new and far from being fully developed.

The establishment of One Stop Border Post (OSBP) or Joint Border Post (JBP) systems or integrated border management has helped reduce delays at the borders. ICDs/Dry Ports also greatly improve transit efficiency. It is recommended that more ICDs/Dry Ports be built along the corridors as necessary.

Application of ICT systems in border management (ASYCUDA, Single Window, biometric ID Cards, etc.) increases efficiency in border operations. It is recommended that more use of ICT be required at all borders.

Limited capacity and other challenges, including lack of financial resources, remain key impediments for improving and harmonizing customs administrations and border crossing procedures and applying IT solutions in order to enhance trade facilitation in LLDCs and transit countries. In this context, multilateral institutions and development partners need to strengthen their support to LLDCs and their transit neighbours to implement and scale up the trade facilitation measures. It is critical that LLDCs receive adequate technical and financial resources as called for in the VPoA.

LLDCs and transit countries are also encouraged to effectively implement the WCO transit guidelines as they will significantly contribute to improved trade facilitation.

30 - UNCTAD (2014), National Trade Facilitation Bodies in the World, available at http://unctad.org/en/PublicationsLibrary/dtltlb2014d1_en.pdf

Chapter 5: TLLDCs' Participation in International and Regional Trade

With globalization, trade has become more and more an important element for the economy of most countries. One measure of the importance of international trade in a nation's economy is trade openness, defined as exports plus imports as a share of the gross domestic product (GDP). Although trade openness does not necessary say much about a country's policies, in general, large countries are less dependent on international trade because many of their firms can reach an optimal production size without having to sell to foreign markets. On the other hand, small countries tend to have higher measures of trade openness (Gerber, 1999).

An important determinant of trade pattern is the opportunity cost of producing traded goods. Countries that sacrifice the least amount of alternative production when producing a particular good have the lowest opportunity cost, or a comparative advantage. Countries that produce according to their comparative advantage also maximize gains from trade, and consequently, their national welfare. Todaro and Smith (2003, pp 610) identify what they term "trade optimist arguments". They say that trade promotes competition, improves resource allocation and economies of scale in areas where developing countries have a comparative advantage. They also posit that trade lowers the cost of production, generates efficiencies and product improvements as well as technical change that contributes to the rise in factor productivity. They also observe that trade accelerates overall economic growth, which raises profits and promotes greater savings and investment, and thus furthers growth. Furthermore, international trade enables participating countries to attract foreign capital and expertise, which is often in short supply in developing countries, including LLDCs.

This chapter highlights the specific objectives of the VPoA on international and regional trade and reviews the trends in trade of the LLDCs and identifying major constraints and provides suggestions to address them.

VPOA AND INTERNATIONAL TRADE

One of the primary goals of the VPoA is to foster partnerships that can support LLDCs to harness benefits from international trade. Under the international trade priority, the VPoA aims to promote increased participation in global trade, value addition, diversification and reduction of dependency on commodities. Since services are important enablers of trade in goods and effective participation in global value chains, it is imperative that LLDCs are supported to increase the share of their services sector in GDP as well as in exports.

Trade expansion is also seen as means rather than an end in itself. Greater integration of LLDCs into world trade and global value chains is vital for increasing their competitiveness and ensuring their economic development. Subsequently, linking into global value chains can lead to the further integration of LLDCs into world markets, increase their competitiveness and make LLDCs important links in the global production and distribution chains.

Specific objectives in the VPoA that are related to international trade include: increasing the participation of LLDCs in global trade, with a focus on substantially increasing exports; increasing the value added and manufactured component of LLDCs' exports, with the ultimate goal of substantially diversifying their markets and products; as well as increasing the share of LLDCs in intra-regional trade.

In particular, VPoA calls for special attention to be paid, through 2024, to the enhancement of competitiveness and expansion of trade. There are a number of ways through which this can be possible. For instance, LLDCs need to undertake concrete measures focused at reducing trade transaction costs and transport costs and implementing trade facilitation measures such as the simplification and standardization of rules and regulations.

The VPoA requires LLDCs to develop national trade strategies that are based on comparative advantages as well as regional and global opportunities; they are to integrate trade policies into national development strategies, and promote a business environment where national firms can integrate into regional and global value chains. LLDCs are also expected to leverage preferential trading arrangements, and implement policies and measures that will significantly increase economic and export diversification, value addition and the participation of SMEs in trade and sustainable development. These efforts are to be complemented by actions to be undertaken by transit and development partners.

LLDCS' PARTICIPATION IN INTERNATIONAL TRADE

While trade is a known engine for growth and sustainable development, LLDCs remain marginalized largely as a result of great distances from the nearest seaports which translate into unsustainably high transit transport costs and delays.

The participation of LLDCs in international trade depends on transiting through other countries. Additional border crossings and long distances from major markets, coupled with cumbersome transit procedures and inadequate infrastructure increase the total expenses for transport and other transaction costs. Indeed, analytical work in this area reveals significant challenges that prevent LLDCs from reaching their full potential. First, the 32 LLDCs only account for less than 1% of global merchandize trade. Second, their level of engagement in international trade is roughly 60% that of their maritime neighbours. Third, average import and export costs, as well as other trade logistics, are far worse for LLDCs than most other groups of countries. As a result of landlockedness and its effect on trade competitiveness, LLDCs receive relatively low amounts of FDI and other development assistance than other developing countries.

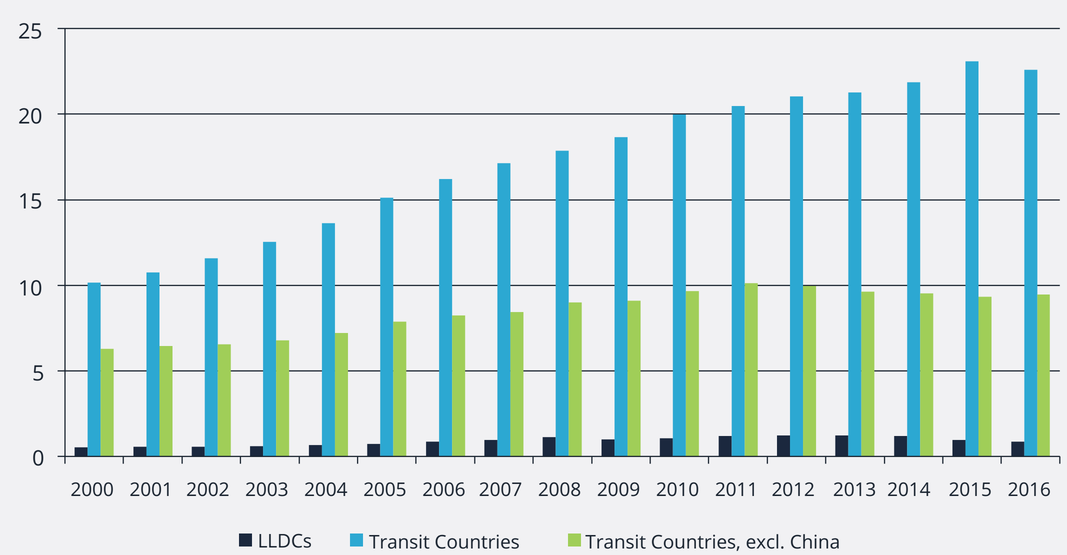
In current prices, total global merchandise trade has increased more than threefold in the last 15 years. During that period, LLDCs' participation in international trade, measured as the share of their merchandise exports in global exports, rose from 0.53 per cent (2000) to a peak of 1.22 per cent (2012), before suffering a decline to 1.19 per cent in 2014 and 0.88 per cent in 2016. Figure 6 shows this trend as compared to a group of 34 transit countries that includes trade powerhouse economies of China and India. In all, transit countries contribution to total merchandise trade has more than doubled since 2000 to around 23% in 2016. Excluding China, that share has been much lower, climbing from 6.3% (2000) to 9.5% in 2015.

LLDCs' dismal performance when it comes to global merchandise trade is readily apparent from the chart above. A closer examination of disaggregated data at the country level provides further insights into the LLDC group. For instance, just four LLDCs in central Asia (Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan) accounts for 49 per cent of the group's total merchandise export (Figure 7). It is even more remarkable that Kazakhstan – alone - represents more than 26 per cent of LLDCs' merchandise. At the same time, a majority of LLDCs (19 in number) account for no more than 2 per cent each.

It is also evident that LLDCs' trade performance has been negatively impacted by external shocks, in particular the 2008 global financial crisis. In fact, the inability of the world economy to return to the strong performance of the pre-crisis era, and the threat of relapse into widespread recession contributed to the observed reduction in the relative share of LLDC's contribution to world merchandise exports. Several countries have experienced significant drops in their export earnings since 2008: Central African Republic, Tajikistan, Chad, Kyrgyzstan, Azerbaijan, Nepal and Mali.

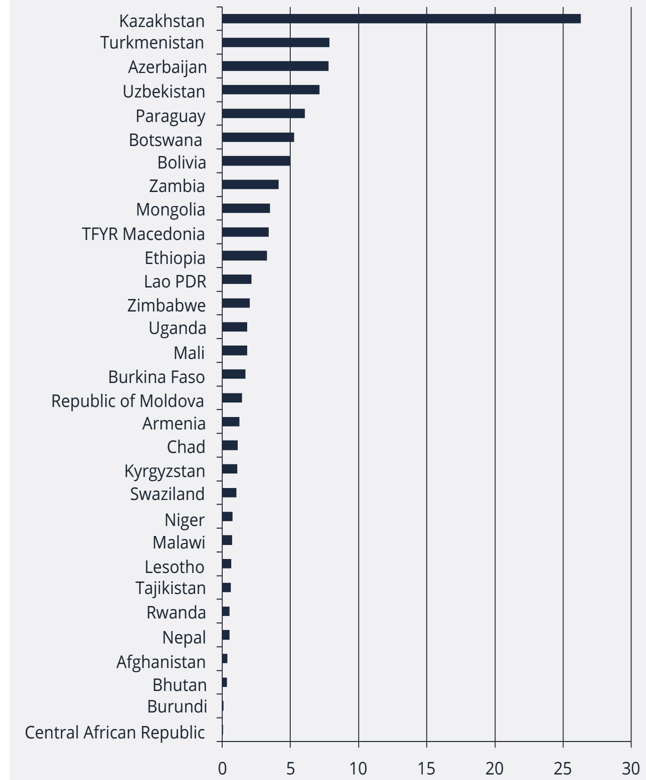
Due to their relatively smaller economic sizes, LLDCs have a greater percentage of exports of goods and services relative to their GDP. The average for the 26 LLDCs where data was available had trade average of 35.5% of the total GDP in 2014. By contrast, it was around 30% for the world on average. On the basis of this indicator, there is scope for growth for several countries, as indicated by their lower percentages: Ethiopia (11%); Nepal (12%); Rwanda (16%); Uganda (17%) and Tajikistan (9%).

Figure 6. Share of LLDCs and transit countries in global merchandise exports



Source: UNCTADstat

Figure 7. National merchandise exports' share of total LLDC exports (based on 2016 data)



Source: UNCTADstat

LLDCS' PARTICIPATION IN REGIONAL TRADE

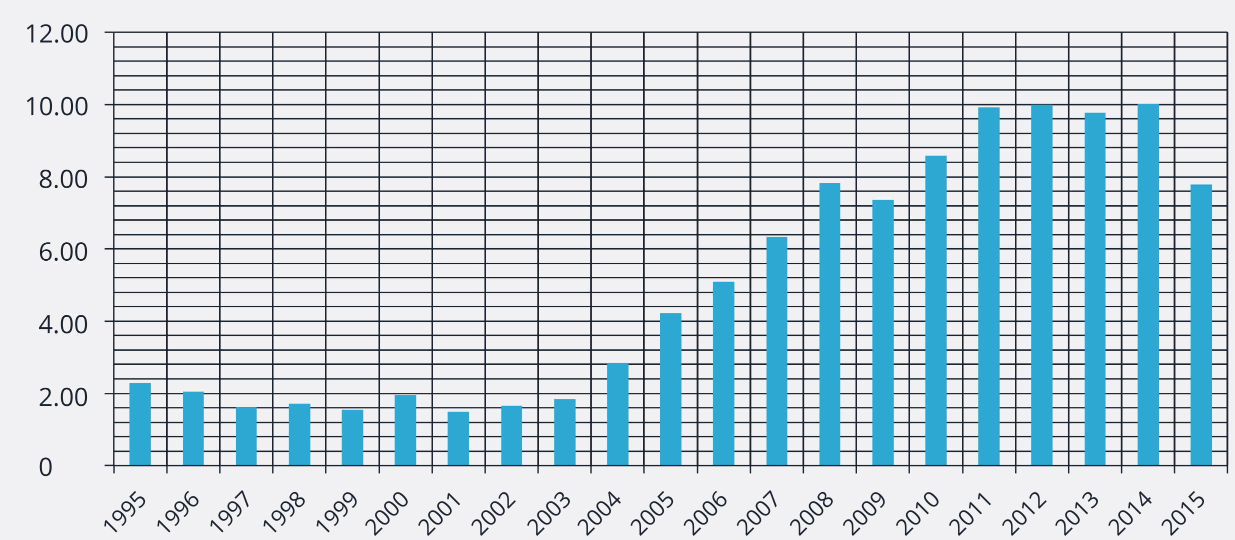
For LLDCs, regional integration offers an opportunity to benefit from competition and scale effects. The international community has long recognized this potential, with virtually all countries participating in or seeking to create a free trade area (FTA) aimed at leading to a common market for goods and services. Deeper regional integration could remove most of the supply-side and demand-side constraints on regional and international trade, and facilitate LLDCs' participation in the global trading system. Effective implementation of integration measures requires the removal of tariffs and quotas, while at the same time facilitating the free movement of people and the flow of goods, services and investment. By leveraging on regional comparative advantage, and pooling of resources, the participation of LLDCs in regional integration frameworks could lead to market expansion, stimulate productivity, connections to value chains and rise in trade and investment. Furthermore, regional integration and trade is an avenue through which LLDCs can achieve economic diversification, shifting their economies away from reliance on commodities to manufactured goods.

For LLDCs, total intra-group exports[31] have grown steadily[32] since 2003 – (see Figure 8). In just a year, export volumes had

31 - "Intra-group" is defined as the intra-trade of the group, which is the trade between all members of the group.

32 - Caution must be exercised in interpreting this data since it is based on current prices. In view of the volatility in prices and inflation, it may be useful to consider real changes in export volumes.

Figure 8. LLDCs' intra-group export volume (Billions of US $, Current Price)



Source: UNCTADstat

bypassed the previous record set in 1995. Growth has also remained fairly steady and positive. Following the onset of the financial crisis in 2007, there was a one-time decline before it picked up once again. While still positive, growth during the past four years has been generally slackened and total intra-group exports fell in 2015. In terms of policy recommendation, LLDCs must continue to implement corrective measures that can enhance growth in their exports.

It is not enough to simply consider the intra-group trade volumes in situ: they must be understood in the context of total exports. In 1995, intra-group exports represented roughly 8% of LLDCs exports. Since then, this share declined to 4.4% in 2014, but went back up to about 5% in 2015. This may seem rather contradictory in view of what was previously observed in current prices. One possible explanation is that a number of LLDCs have experienced an export boom as a result of the exploration, discovery, production and export of minerals or oil. Such exports are most likely destined to advanced and emerging economies. Considering intra-group import data, it becomes clear that LLDCs are importing less and less within regional trading arrangements with other LLDCs. As a share of total imports, average imports from other LLDCs have dropped from 6.7% in 1995 [4.1% in 2003] to 3.6% in 2015 (see Figure 9).

Figure 9. Total intra-group trade (percentage of total trade)

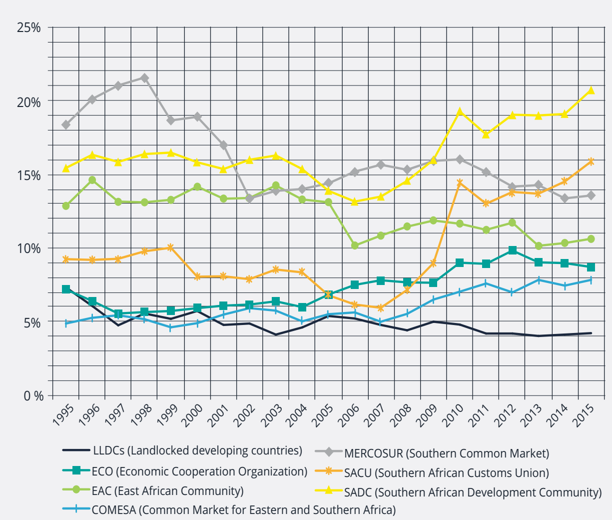
Source: UNCTADstat

At the national, regional and global levels, policymakers must explore ways and means through which LLDCs could become better integrated in their regions to allow them to realize more of the benefits of regional integration. Within Africa, intra-regional trade is in general relatively low compared to trade within other regions of the World, and has remained stable in the range 10-12% over recent years. The intensity of intra-regional trade varies among the RECs in Africa, but none of them trades more than 20% of its total trade with its regional partners. EAC and SADC regions record relatively higher shares of intra-regional trade compared to other regions. These two regions contain 11 out of the 16 LLDCs in Africa.
In case of Asia and the Pacific region, intra-regional trade has slowed down largely because China's economy has slowed down. Trade amongst Asian LLDCs themselves is very low, except in the case of Kyrgyzstan, indicating that most of trade takes place with countries outside this sub-region. However, trade with transit neighbours tends to be high particularly with large ones such as China and Russia (in case of Mongolia), India (in case of Bhutan and Nepal), China and Thailand (in case of Lao PDR).

Latin America LLDCs trade relatively a lot within their region. Total intra-regional trade represented 55% of total trade for Bolivia and 49% for Paraguay in 2014. While Bolivia's intra-regional trade share has been increasing since the late 1990s, Paraguay's has been decreasing.

Figure 10 shows the average intra-regional trade for LLDCs along with a number of regional entities. Total intra-trade is calculated as the total of intra-regional imports and intra-regional exports. Clearly, LLDCs have room for improvement when compared to others. While their intra-regional trade stood at around 7.3 per cent in 1995, it is now less than 5 per cent. Intra-regional trade has increased for ECO, SADC and COMESA for example, while it has declined for MERCOSUR and EAC. In seeking to reverse the decline in their intra-regional trade, LLDCs need to look to others for lessons. Poor quality infrastructure and missing links in transport infrastructure connecting LLDCs may be behind the low intra-regional trade connectivity of some LLDCs and need to be addressed.

Figure 10. Intra-regional (intra-group) trade (percentage of total trade with the World)



Source: UNCTADstat

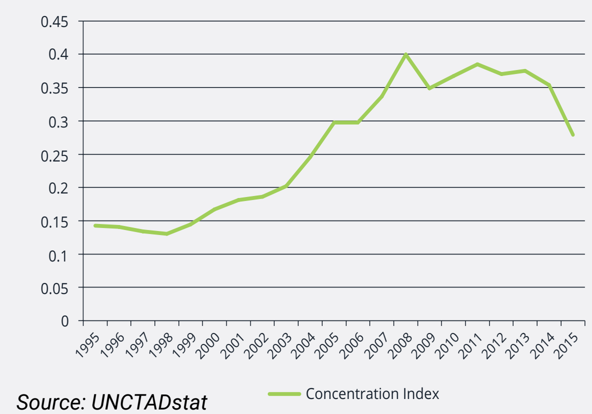
STRUCTURE OF LLDCS' TRADE

UNCTAD provides an export Hirschman Herfindahl Index for each country. HHI is a commonly accepted measure of the

degree of product concentration, ranging from 0 to 1. An index value closer to 1 indicates a country's exports or imports are highly concentrated on a few products. On the contrary, values closer to 0 reflect exports or imports are more homogeneously distributed among a series of products. With a 2015 HH index of 0.3, LLDCs have greater market concentration than other groups – developed countries 0.06, developing countries 0.09, and world 0.06. Figure 10 which shows the trend indicate that the concentration index had been increasing since 1995 peaking in 2008. The concentration index has experienced some decline since 2011. In the order of their magnitude, the most concentrated LLDCs in 2015 were: Botswana (0.79); Turkmenistan (0.74); Azerbaijan (0.81); and Chad (0.88).

Countries that manifest greater export concentration are also at greater risk to external shocks such as volatility in global demand and prices. The LLDCs rely on a limited number of products, in particular primary commodities with little value added to their export earnings. The high export concentration also demonstrates that the LLDCs are not integrated into the global and regional value chains (GVCs). Integration into the value chains is very important as it serves as a conduit for industrial transformation.

Figure 11. LLDCs' trend in Hirschman Herfindahl Index



Source: UNCTADstat

It is important for LLDCs to explore means through which they could achieve diversification of their exports. In order to foster structural economic transformation and diversification, LLDCs should strive to shift productive resources towards higher value added and high-productivity sectors. This requires the use of modern technology and technologically sophisticated production. The high-technology content of manufactured exports from LLDCs is still low, specifically below 10% of manufactured exports in 16 of the 20 LLDCs where data is available. In contrast, this share amounts to 19% in high and middle income countries. In LLDCs where agriculture accounts for large proportion of employment and a major contributor to GDP, efforts should be made to raise agricultural productivity and industrialize agriculture.

The services sector such as sustainable tourism also presents another opportunity for the LLDCs to diversify their economies. In 2015, LLDCs recorded 32 million international tourist arrivals, up from 14 million in 2005, increasing their share of the global market from 1.7% to 2.7%.

Several LLDCs have made efforts to diversify and transform their economies. For example, Uzbekistan attempts to follow import-substitution industrialization focused initially on labour intensive industries with a gradual increase in their technology intensity. Kazakhstan's development targeting is currently aimed, among others, at transport services, energy efficiency and agriculture. Mongolia's sustainable development 2030 plan targets agriculture, tourism, energy and industrial materials processing. Botswana is undertaking reforms to promote development of services, industry, tourism and agriculture sectors. One way of doing this is to pursue policies that would allow alternative engines of growth as well as gaining a meaningful participation in regional and global markets and value chains.

CONCLUSION

LLDCs continue to account for a negligible amount of global trade. In general, LLDC's exports are highly concentrated, even though they have remained relatively so for the past fifteen years. This situation has however left them exposed to external shocks. In fact, by nearly all macroeconomic indicators, the 2007 global financial crisis had significant negative impacts on the group. Its lingering effect, coupled with other new and emerging challenges, including commodity price volatility, impede these economies from returning to their robust, pre-crisis levels.

A number of countries have had relatively good success in boosting their trade level while at the same time achieving greater diversity in export products and markets. This section has also noted that while intra-regional trade is important for LLDCs, they perform below capacity.

A number of policy recommendations are apparent. Transit related costs and delays remain major impediments to LLDCs quest to deepen their participation in global trade. Despite efforts to pursue trade facilitation measures, it is evident that this needs to be strengthened and expanded.

Dismal performance of LLDCs in global as well as regional trade is indicative of structural weaknesses and other impediments that would require the concerted efforts of the global community to meaningfully address them. It is, thus, a matter of urgency that LLDCs implement the many actions related to trade and trade facilitation as outlined in the VPoA, including in particular diversifying and upgrading their exports. It is also important that these efforts are complemented by those of transit countries as well as development partners.

Chapter 6: Means of Implementation

LLDCs are in a unique situation: they need good physical infrastructure in their own countries to exploit their economic potential, while also needing sound infrastructure in their transit neighbours to access sea ports and distant markets. This dual dependence has accentuated their infrastructure challenge by many folds. As discussed in chapter 3, the state of infrastructure is quite inadequate in LLDCs with wide variations in the quality and coverage of existing infrastructure both within their national boundaries as well as across transit countries. There is additional challenge when it comes to the financing of transit and transport networks: such investments involve considerable amount of resources, and often have long gestation periods. LLDCs also require investment resources to maintain existing transport and transit infrastructures. Investment in transit infrastructure has the added challenge of devising cost and benefit sharing arrangements that are acceptable to both the LLDCs and their transit neighbours. Some LLDCs that are not well endowed in natural resources and with limited borrowing capacity will continue to depend on ODA and grant resources for infrastructure development. In particular, regional investment projects are unlikely to be undertaken without support from ODA and grant resources.

This chapter reviews various means of implementation that relate to transport infrastructure and trade facilitation among others. Given the huge infrastructure and transit transport investment requirements and the fast evolving domestic and external environment, LLDCs need to explore and utilize all available forms of investment resources. Mobilization and efficient use of domestic resources, attracting foreign direct investment (FDI), better and targeted use of official development assistance (ODA), strategic deployment of workers' remittances, promotion of public-private partnerships, south-south cooperation, and increased use of innovative financing including blended financing should form components of a coherent and comprehensive strategy to mobilize resources for infrastructure and transit transport investment including establishment of multimodal transport corridors and infrastructure at the borders.

PUBLIC DOMESTIC RESOURCES

The first priority of all LLDCs should be to raise as much revenue as possible from domestic sources such as resourced-based rents, general tax receipts, and household and corporate savings. These are considered to be traditional sources of domestic resources which will have to be supplemented by ODA, private sector capital, public-private partnerships, remittances and innovative sources of financing to meet their infrastructure deficits. Tax revenue forms a key traditional resource for financing development in developing countries. A general rule suggests that tax to GDP ratio in developing countries should exceed 20 per cent to meet general development needs but would have to be supplemented by ODA and other forms of private capital to meet the infrastructure investment needs which tend to be lumpy with long gestation periods. In such investment projects, government revenue contribution plays a key role in encouraging other stakeholders. Table 15 shows the average tax revenue as a percentage of GDP for 2010-2015, where data is available. On the basis of this measure, Botswana has the highest percentage (24.5%), followed by Moldova (18.4%), Mongolia (17.8%), Armenia (17.6%), Macedonia (16.8%) and Kyrgyzstan (16.4%).

Table 15: Relative tax revenue in LLDCs (Average in 2010-2015 of available data)

	Tax Revenue (Percentage of GDP)
Afghanistan	8.15
Armenia	18.87
Azerbaijan	13.44
Bhutan	13.81
Botswana	25.00
Burkina Faso	25.12
C. African Republic	8.92
Ethiopia	8.69
Kyrgyz Republic	16.94
Lao PDR	13.64
Macedonia	16.76
Malawi	14.95
Moldova	18.81
Mongolia	17.28
Nepal	14.75
Paraguay	12.51
Rwanda	13.07
Swaziland	20.34
Uganda	11.19
Zambia	14.70

Source: World Development Indicators, World Bank

For LLDCs in general, there is an urgent need for significantly increased efforts in mobilizing domestic resources from taxes as well as other sources. Besides making efforts to mobilize resources domestically through taxation, it would be also important that LLDCs minimize wasteful government expenditure and improve efficiency so that resources can be released for economic and social development - including physical infrastructure development. Rationalization and prioritization of public expenditure could generate significant savings for investment in infrastructure. Budgets should be more results-based and monitored more vigorously. Subsidies should be carefully targeted so that they reach the intended beneficiaries. Significant resources can be mobilized by eliminating subsidies which do not serve the objectives of efficiency and equity. Another source of drain on public resources is widespread tax evasion and avoidance and illicit transfer of funds abroad. These issues need to be addressed.

A number of LLDCs have ample supply of natural resources including oil, gas, coal, minerals and hydro-power which could be harnessed to meet part of the infrastructure investments needs as shown in table 16. The rich and varied resource base of these countries can be an effective source for mobilizing finance by setting aside a certain proportion of the resource-rents collected by their governments for investment in infrastructure including transit infrastructure.

As domestic capital markets are either quite underdeveloped or shallow, LLDCs should pay more attention to broadening and deepening those markets. Together with equity markets, bond markets and pension funds should be encouraged. LLDCs could also actively promote the establishment of sovereign wealth funds as many of them are endowed with vast quantities of natural resources.

FOREIGN DIRECT INVESTMENT

Foreign direct investment (FDI) constitutes another important source of development finance for the LLDCs. FDI has provided the bulk of private capital flows to LLDCs with portfolio investment being less significant and more volatile. FDI is an important source of finance for the LLDCs in terms of both the

33 - Minerals included in the calculation are tin, gold, lead, zinc, iron, cooper, nickel, silver, bauxite, and phosphate as described in "The Changing Wealth of Nations: Measuring Sustainable Development in the New Millennium" (World Bank, 2011).

Table 16: Mineral, Oil, and Natural Gas Rents* (% of GDP) for LLDCs (2015)

Mineral[33]		Oil		Natural Gas	
Mongolia	12.22	South Sudan	11.97	Turkmenistan	15.23
Zambia	10.09	Azerbaijan	11.04	Uzbekistan	4.59
Burkina Faso	9.82	Chad	6.77	Azerbaijan	2.21
Mali	8.25	Kazakhstan	5.63	Bolivia	2.00
Kyrgyz Republic	7.49	Turkmenistan	3.74	Kazakhstan	0.84
Lao PDR	6.66	Niger	1.67	South Sudan	0.12
Uzbekistan	4.64	Bolivia	1.19	Afghanistan	0.12
Bolivia	4.21	Mongolia	1.12	Niger	0.06
Zimbabwe	3.27	Uzbekistan	0.13	Tajikistan	0.02
Armenia	3.21	Kyrgyz Republic	0.10	Chad	0.01
Kazakhstan	2.21	Afghanistan	0.04	Kyrgyz Republic	0.01
Botswana	2.01	Tajikistan	0.02		
Macedonia, FYR	1.91				
Tajikistan	1.88				
Ethiopia	0.55				
Burundi	0.34				
Niger	0.15				
Azerbaijan	0.10				
Central African Republic	0.09				
Bhutan	0.05				
Rwanda	0.04				
Chad	0.02				
Malawi	0.02				
Afghanistan	0.01				
Uganda	0.01				
LLDC total average	**2.48**		**2.29**		**1.26**

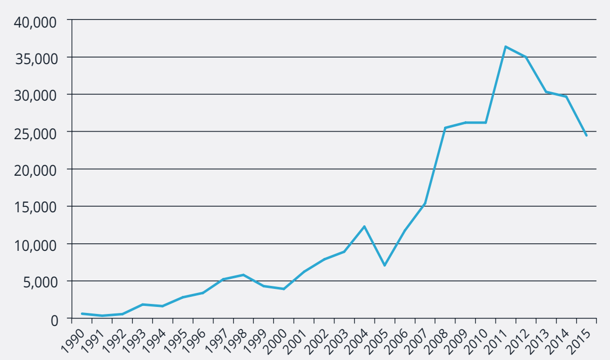
Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators
*Note: * The estimates of natural resources rents are calculated as the difference between the price of a commodity and the average cost of producing it; these unit rents are then multiplied by the physical quantities countries extract or harvest to determine the rents for each commodity as a share of gross domestic product (GDP) World Bank, 2011.*

value of FDI stock as a percentage of GDP, and the contribution of FDI to capital formation. FDI is a capital account transfer which can contribute to reducing current account deficits and towards infrastructure development.

Figure 12 shows that FDI inflows have been increasing in the 2000s, but began to decrease in 2012. In 2015, LLDCs received US$24.5 billion a dramatic fall of 18% from $29.7 billion in 2014. In 2016, FDI inflows fell by 2.2% to US$24.3 billion. About half of the LLDCs received less than 1% of total FDI flows to the group in 2015, while 3 LLDCs, accounted for more than 50% of the group's total. Overall, the top five host economies in 2016, in terms of value of inflows, were Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan, Azerbaijan (same as Turkmenistan), Ethiopia, and Lao PDR, in that order. On the other hand, the top five investor economies to LLDCs by FDI stock in 2015 are China, Canada, the Russian Federation, Turkey, and South Africa[34]. According to UNCTAD extractive industries still account for the largest share of FDI. FDI inflows to LLDCs in 2015 accounted for 1.4% of total global FDI inflows.

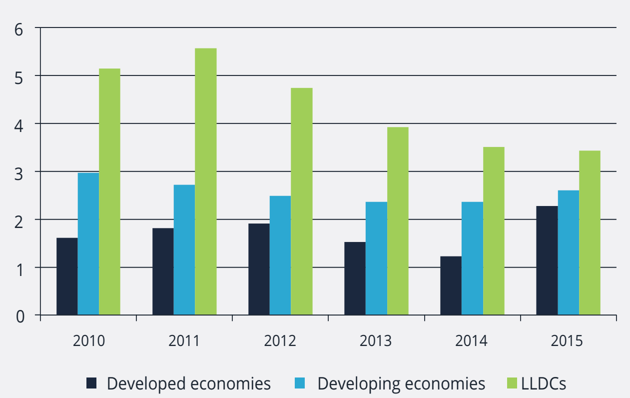
34 - UNCTAD, 2017

Figure 12. FDI inflows to LLDCs in Current US $, Million



Source: UNCTADstat

Figure 13. FDI inflows as a percentage of GDP



Source: UNCTAD

While FDI inflows have decreased since 2011, it still contributes to a larger percentage of GDP than in developed economies and developing economies in general, illustrating the importance of FDI to LLDCs once again. Figure 13 displays the FDI inflows, as a percentage of GDP, in LLDCs, developing economies, and developed economies. While the LLDC's average share of FDI to the GDP is relatively large, it is negligible in Bolivia, Central African Republic, Lao PDR, Swaziland, South Sudan, Nepal, and Burundi.

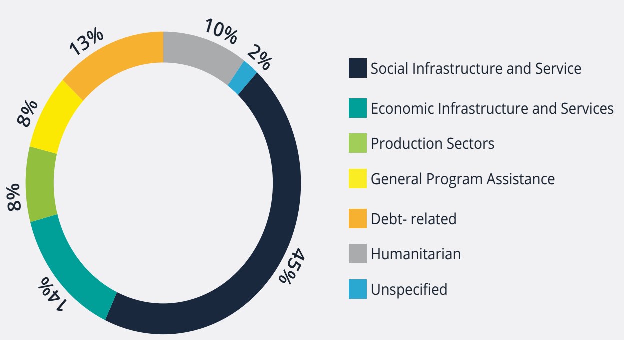
As a key element in international economic integration, FDI creates stable and long-lasting links between economies. FDI is an important channel for the transfer of technology between countries, promotes international trade through access to foreign markets, and thus contributing to economic development. It is important to find ways of helping all landlocked developing countries attract and retain foreign direct investment, especially for infrastructure development and the reduction of trade barriers.

OFFICIAL DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE (ODA)

Official development assistance (ODA) in its various forms – multilateral, bilateral and blended - plays a critical role in infrastructure development of the LLDCs. In line with international commitment, ODA flows to all the LLDCs increased from US$11.4 billion in 2000 to US$26.1 billion in 2014. It however fell in 2015 to US $24.82 billion. ODA remains the main source of external financing for many LLDCs, accounting for more than 10% of GNI in 8 LLDCs. In three LLDCs, it accounts for more than 20% of GNI.

Since 2002, LLDCs have received a total of US$ 308.02 billion in bilateral assistance, allocated for several functions such as: social infrastructure and services; economic infrastructure and services; production sectors; multi-sector and cross-cutting roles; commodity aid and/or general programme assistance; action relating to debt; as well as humanitarian assistance. Figure 14 shows the sectoral allocation of this assistance.

Figure 14. Bilateral aid distribution

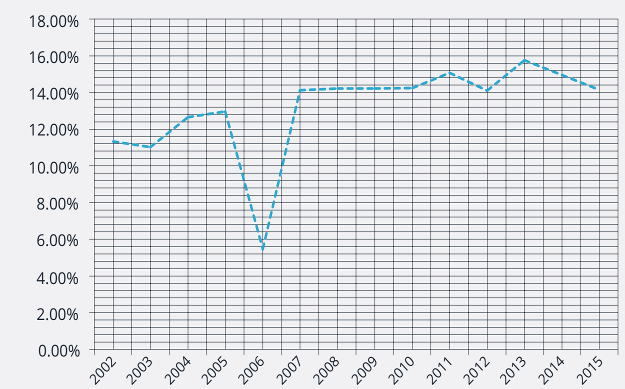


Source: OECD

From the above chart, it is evident that social infrastructure and services pillar attract the most aid, 45%. This is followed by economic infrastructure, actions related to debt, general programme work, and humanitarian assistance. Despite its importance to LLDCs, the production sector only receives about 8% of bilateral assistance. For the purposes of the VPoA, especially actions related to transport infrastructure development and maintenance, it would be important that development partners consider raising the amounts allocated to the economic pillar as well as to the production sectors.

Since 2002, bilateral assistance to economic infrastructure and services has been around 14%. This is perhaps the most important sector for the LLDCs when it comes to the implementation of VPoA - in particular – in terms of infrastructure development, transport and energy, SME development among others. This category includes flows that are directed towards transport and storage, communications, energy, banking, financial services, business and other services. ODA flows to this sector have been positive and increasing – albeit at a slow rate (Figure 15). In 2002, they represented less than 12% of all flows. This has since increased to about 16% in 2013, but it went down again to around 14% in 2015. The graph also shows a one-off steep decline in 2006, a period associated with the implementation of debt forgiveness programme. In view of the greater need for financial support to implement economic programmes, including transit infrastructure development and maintenance, especially for LLDCs that are not resource-rich, it is necessary to increase aid flows to economic pillar, and to those LLDCs that are most in need.

Figure 15. FDI inflows to LLDCs in Current US $, Million



Source: OECD

MIGRANT REMITTANCES

Migrant remittance has become one of the most important sources of development finance for the developing countries, in some cases surpassing that of ODA and FDI. It is also an important development resource for some LLDCs, as shown by Table 17 below. Between 2010 and 2015, Nepal has received – on average - more than US$ 5 billion in remittances a year. Other leading recipients include Uzbekistan, Tajikistan, Kyrgyz Republic, Armenia, Moldova, and Azerbaijan. For some LLDCs, remittances have remained more or less at the same level from 2008 to 2015. Indeed, as a proportion of GDP, remittances can be quite high for some LLDCs: Nepal, Tajikistan, Kyrgyz Republic, Moldova and Lesotho.

Table 17: Migrant remittances inflows Average [2010-2015]

Remittance Inflows in Current US $		Percentage of GDP in 2015	
Nepal	5,113.66	Nepal	32.23
Uzbekistan	4,732.83	Tajikistan	28.76
Tajikistan	3,142.11	Kyrgyz Republic	25.68
Kyrgyz Republic	1,869.13	Moldova	23.51
Armenia	1,857.54	Lesotho	17.51
Moldova	1,827.74	Armenia	14.12
Azerbaijan	1,690.52	Mali	6.25
Bolivia	1,114.95	Uzbekistan	4.57
Uganda	896.28	Uganda	3.98
Mali	782.06	Bolivia	3.59
Ethiopia	559.32	Burkina Faso	3.53
Paraguay	544.70	Macedonia, FYR	3.04
Lesotho	503.79	Azerbaijan	2.39
Macedonia, FYR	377.58	Mongolia	2.22
Afghanistan	277.02	Paraguay	2.00
Burkina Faso	274.52	Rwanda	1.99
Mongolia	272.97	Burundi	1.65
Kazakhstan	202.23	Afghanistan	1.57
Rwanda	145.97	Niger	1.51
Niger	141.96	Ethiopia	1.01
Lao PDR	67.22	Bhutan	1.00
Zambia	53.69	Lao PDR	0.75
Burundi	45.78	Malawi	0.52
Swaziland	32.89	Swaziland	0.46
Turkmenistan	32.20	Zambia	0.21
Malawi	30.37	Botswana	0.21

Source: World Development Indicators, World Bank

Remittances are private flows which play a very important role in reducing poverty by boosting household consumption and expanding educational, housing and micro-scale investment opportunities for recipients who are mostly based in rural communities. Remittances also take the pressure off the government to provide some basic social services, and instead, such resources could be devoted to the development of the country's physical infrastructure. Although the private nature of these flows restricts their use for public goods such as roads, railways and ports, LLDCs could explore the possibility of providing matching funds to remittances sent from abroad and use the combined resources to finance public infrastructure projects in the local communities. It is entirely possible that LLDCs could also tap into these resources

LLDCs Global Report 2017

through issuance of diaspora bonds. Strategic deployment of migrant' remittance should be pursued as a real possibility for countries that show high remittances as a share of GDP, or with large inflows of the same.

REGIONAL RESOURCE MOBILIZATION

LLDCs can utilize regional capital markets to raise resources for infrastructure investments. For that to happen, however, local currency bond markets need to first be developed. Such markets can also help reduce currency and maturity mismatches. Presently, such markets are quite underdeveloped in the LLDCs. They lack liquidity and sufficient legal safeguards for external investors. Several LLDCs have resorted to regional markets to raise foreign currency loans, one estimate suggesting it to be about US$200 billion in 2014. Recent capital market volatility have put at risk such schemes. Regional development banks continue to support LLDCs to develop regional capital markets as well as mobilize resources for regional infrastructural development and maintenance.

Asian Development Bank's CAREC programme is one of the most important sources of multilateral finance for the Asian LLDCs in building their infrastructure. Serving 10 countries and partnering with five other multilateral financial institutions, ADB's CAREC programme has grown significantly over the years. CAREC's portfolio of investments has risen from 6 projects with $24.7 million in 2001 to $24.6 billion in 2014. Of that amount, ADB has provided 37.3%, 3 other partner institutions have provided 35.4%, 22.2% by participating governments and 5.1% by co-financiers. IMF and UNDP have provided technical assistance. Transport sector has accounted for $19,058 million (106 projects), energy sector $5,284 million (37 projects), and trade facilitation $286.8 million (13 projects).

In Africa, NEPAD provides the regional framework for mobilizing resources needed for the improvement of infrastructure in Africa. Many initiatives have been taken by African countries, including at the Heads of State level, to mobilize resources required for NEPAD in general, and infrastructure in particular. Given the fact that the estimated resource requirements far exceed both the financial resources available as well as the technical and institutional capacity of African countries, several criteria have been established with the aim to identify high priority projects and/or quick wins for immediate implementation. Similar high level initiatives have also been taken at the REC and transit corridor levels.

For NEPAD, enormous financing requirements for infrastructure programme also calls for strategies to involve as many stakeholders as possible in the process of resource mobilization from external as well as internal sources. External sources include Private Participation in Infrastructure (PPI), Official Development Finance (ODA, IFI), and Chinese Financing. Domestic sources include public and private financing. The stakeholders have been organized under different arrangements, most notably, the Infrastructure Consortium for Africa (ICA). Other such frameworks for stakeholder participation include Continental Business Network (CBN) on Infrastructure Financing, PIDA Business Working Group (BWG).

Infrastructure Consortium for Africa (ICA) is the first and largest arrangement for financing NEPAD infrastructure programme. Under the leadership of the African Development Bank (AfDB), the Infrastructure Consortium for Africa was formed in 2005 by G-8 countries in partnership with South Africa, African Development Bank, Development Bank of Southern Africa, European Commission, European Investment Bank, and the World Bank Group to coordinate financing for infrastructure projects under NEPAD programme. In its role as facilitator for NEPAD infrastructure financing, ICA has succeeded in mobilizing significant amounts from its members as well as non-members. ICA Annual Report 2015 shows continued upward trend in commitments in financing African infrastructure after the short decline in 2011.

ICA report Infrastructure Financing Trends in Africa – 2015 shows an increase in total commitments from all sources analysed to $83.4billion compared with $74.5billion in 2014 (for all the sectors transport, energy, water and ICT. This 12% increase is encouraging, though some sources of funds differ markedly. China announced $20.9billion of investments in infrastructure in 2015 compared with $3.1billion in 2014. Identified budget allocations from 44 African governments were limited to $28.4billion in 2015, compared with $34.5billion from 42 countries in the previous year. For the transport sector overall commitments remained broadly the same in 2015 at $34.7billion compared with $34.3billion in 2014.

PIDA Business Working Group (BWG): The African Strategic Infrastructure Initiative was launched at the World Economic Forum on Africa in Addis Ababa, in May 2012 as a mechanism for implementation of PIDA PAP. The Initiative is led by the World Economic Forum in partnership with the African Development Bank, and is supported and guided by the African Union Commission and the NEPAD Agency. The Initiative aims to: help the public sector benefit from objective, transparent and informed input from the private sector to prioritize and systematically select projects for acceleration from PIDA, including a pilot project; develop innovative ideas and informative publications on project acceleration (including enablement and capacity building), transnational infrastructure programme management and early stage project financing to improve infrastructure delivery in Africa; provide a model to be replicated across Africa, creating an enabling environment for private sector involvement in infrastructure development, with a core focus on accelerating the implementation of PIDA PAP.

PRIVATE SECTOR AND PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIPS

Public-private partnerships are becoming increasingly popular in many countries as platforms for mobilizing resources for infrastructure development. They help reduce the risks that the private sector face in investing in otherwise risky public sector projects which tend to be lumpy with long gestation periods. Similarly, governments can also shift some elements of risks to the private sector. As large infrastructure projects can typically be broken down into production and supply segments, such arrangements allow for greater utilization of the comparative advantages of the public and private sectors. Public-private partnerships in infrastructure development also allow governments and/or public entities to leverage some fundamental strengths of the private sector such as superior management efficiency, innovations and flexibility. Similarly, governments have offered several kinds of incentives which only it can offer including "minimum revenue guarantees", "default guarantees", "exchange rate guarantees" to make private sector participation attractive and feasible.

In fully exploiting the potential of public-private partnerships, LLDCs need to develop their institutional capacity and have the appropriate regulatory framework in place. Public sector entities need to have the capacity to harness the strengths of the private sector including their technical expertise and financial resources. LLDC governments can also work with their development partners in devising public-private partnerships whereby the later also provide risk capital and underwrites private participation. To underscore the importance of public-private partnerships, from 1990 to the 1997 Asian financial crisis, private investment in infrastructure in developing countries of the region increased almost by 25 fold: from US$2 billion to US$48.9 billion.

African countries have developed frameworks through which the private sector is participating in infrastructure development and trade facilitation. For instance, the Continental Business Network (CBN) that was launched in June 2015. CBN is a high-level advocacy and investment platform for increased private sector participation in PIDA financing, investment and implementation, and more generally as a forum for addressing challenges and opportunities relating to the development of Africa's infrastructure. The CBN is an exclusive Infrastructure Investment Advisory platform for African Heads of State providing thought leadership and engagement on a range of strategic issues like policy, investment risk rating(s), project structuring and specifically the existing constraints to the implementation of PIDA. The Network comprises leading African and global business and finance bodies as well as regional and international organizations, including ADB. The CBN will enable African governments and their partners to engage the private sector on specific regional and cross-border projects, so that the private sector can explain market requirements for project development, risk mitigation, and access to private finance, and suggest specific solutions.

There is also the Business Working Group (BWG) which was established to integrate private sector input regarding the direction and acceleration of infrastructure mega programmes, and to ensure a coordinated business voice to prioritize and accelerate implementation of the PIDA programmes. Currently the BWG consists of more than 40 public institutions and private companies and it was recognized and endorsed at the 20th Assembly of the African Union Heads of State in January 2013. The Initiative has been structured into two phases, with the first focusing on "Project Prioritization and Pilot Selection"; the second focuses on "Pilot Project Acceleration". Key outcomes of phase I included the evaluation of the 51 PIDA programmes from which 16 programmes were shortlisted for potential acceleration. Heads of state and business representatives agreed to accelerate the Central Corridor as the pilot project, due to its significant potential for Africa to unlock landlocked countries and support secondary markets, and as it benefitted from strong political support.

Phase II, focused on pilot acceleration, was initiated in June 2014. The Central Corridor served as the pilot, with an integrated multimodal transport programme across five countries, Tanzania, Burundi, Rwanda, Uganda and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), and an investment need of approximately $18 billion. The Initiative has facilitated the mobilization of much needed technical resources, sponsored by the DBSA, to complete required project packaging exercises of the stage one projects in preparation for their showcasing and market sounding during a presidential roundtable and Investors' Forum in March 2015 in Dar es Salaam. The NEPAD Agency will continue the work and replicate the acceleration for further pilots, using the tools and processes created over the past years, adapting and enhancing them as they systematically progress through the remaining PIDA programmes.

Like in Asia and Africa, the private sector plays a role in Latin America. For instance, it was closely involved in the formation of the MERCOSUR. Private sector concerns were transmitted to the public officials and taken into account on the Protocol 14. They also participated in several meetings that preceded the MERCOSUR and ATIT. The more institutionalized participation of the private sector is through the subgroup 5 of work of MERCOSUR. There is also a Business Council of Land Cargo (CONDESUR) which represents private sector in institutions of MERCOSUR members: Chile and Bolivia. Since December of 1996, the Council meets annually to coordinate meetings of subgroup 5. The meeting results in a consensus document that is presented to the subgroup 5, so that the private sector concerns are taken onboard.

CONDESUR is integrated by the Brazilian Association of International Transport (ABTI), International Transport Business Union of Chile (AGETICH), International Cargo Transportation Association of Argentina (ATACI), Paraguayan Chamber of International Road Transport (CAPATIT), Uruguayan Chamber of International Transport (CATIDU), National Confederation of Truck Owners of Chile (CNDC), Argentine Federation of Cargo Transport Business (FADEEAC), National Association of Transport and Logistics from Brazil (NTC & Logistica). In some occasion, there has also been a representation of the Bolivia business sector.

Examples of the private sector contribution in this region include in the development of an integrated border crossing and customs controls, and the electronic documentation systems. In Argentina and Paraguay, the electronic seal monitoring system has a large private sector component.

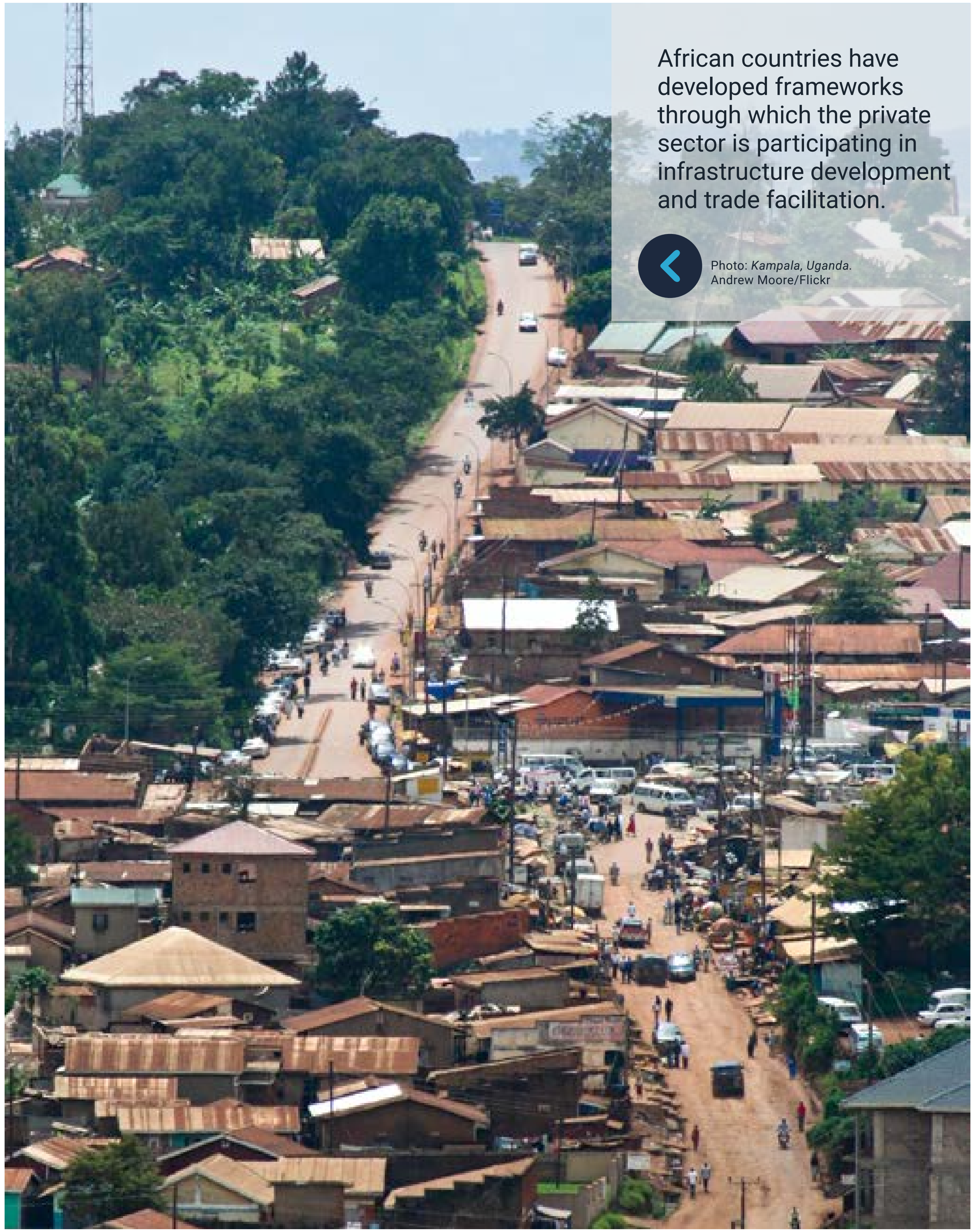
CONCLUSION

This section has considered various sources of means of implementation that are available to LLDCs when it comes to the implementation of the Vienna Programme of Action. While not being exhaustive, several issues have emerged. For instance, ODA remains important for many LLDCs, especially those not well endowed with natural resources. It was also shown that while ODA flows are critical, it is important that LLDCs receive greater flows towards the production sectors as well as into the economic pillar – both of which are substantially below the need level.

There is scope for improvement in terms of domestic and foreign resource mobilization, strengthening of regional platforms as well as Public-private partnerships. It is also important for LLDCs to improve the business environment in order to attract more domestic and foreign investment.

Photo: *Railway construction from Poyle to Salakhle in Azerbaijan.* ADB/Flickr

Mobilization and efficient use of domestic resources, attracting foreign direct investment (FDI), better and targeted use of official development assistance (ODA), strategic deployment of workers' remittances, promotion of public-private partnerships, south-south cooperation, and increased use of innovative financing including blended financing should form components of a coherent and comprehensive strategy to mobilize resources for infrastructure and transit transport investment.



African countries have developed frameworks through which the private sector is participating in infrastructure development and trade facilitation.

Photo: *Kampala, Uganda.* Andrew Moore/Flickr

Chapter 7: Recommendations

A holistic strategy

For the development of LLDCs

— Based on the presentation made in the foregoing chapters, the following specific recommendations are put forward as part of a holistic strategy for the development of LLDCs to address the challenges that they face in transit, trade and trade facilitation:

General

The international community should extend full support to the LLDCs in implementing the VPoA as its full and timely implementation can greatly facilitate the achievement of the SDGs.
The concerns of the LLDCs should be adequately taken up in other global forums such as the Doha Development Agenda of the WTO, and in the UNFCCC.

LLDCs need to mainstream the VPoA for the LLDCs in their national development strategies, plans and programmes with a particular focus on improving transit cooperation, trade and trade facilitation for their speedy integration into regional and global growth process.

It is important for LLDCs to foster strong synergy and coherence at all levels in the implementation, follow-up, and review of the VPoA with the 2030 Agenda and other development processes such as the Paris Agreement.

Photo: *Walvis Bay in Namibia.* John Hogg, World Bank/Flickr

The Legal Framework on Transit Issues

The LLDCs and transit countries to ratify and put into operation in their territories the various international/regional instruments that would greatly contribute to reduced transit delays and costs.
National implementation of legal instruments such as the TIR Convention is very important for improving trade facilitation.

The international community should provide support to countries to ratify, accede and implement the key regional/sub-regional agreements and international conventions to buttress the facilitation efforts.
UN system organisations, development partners, international and regional organizations and all relevant stakeholders should provide capacity building support to the LLDCs and transit countries in order to raise greater awareness and understanding of the implications of accession to the international conventions.

The LLDCs should mainstream the conventions and other regional agreements at the national level to allow their incorporation in national plans and budgetary allocations.
UN system organisations, development partners, international and regional organizations and all relevant stakeholders should conduct indepth studies and analyses encompassing the costs and benefits of joining the conventions and develop robust and effective advocacy tools.and reduce trade costs.
Prepare guidelines for the implementation of the conventions and agreements. In this regards the launch of the WCO Transit Guidelines during the GTC held in Brussels in July 2017 is welcomed. The Transit Guidelines will help customs administrations and their respective governments to initiate and implement measures for transit facilitation in order to boost their economies and increase trade flows. The LLDCs and the transit countries are encouraged to use the guidelines to improve their transit regimes and reduce trade costs.

With the successful entry into force of the WTO TFA there is need to promote its rapid and effective implementation. The international community should assist the LLDCs and transit countries to implement the Agreement.

Photo: *Tribhuvan International Airport in Kathmandu, Nepal.* ADB/Flickr

Infrastructure Development

Support closing of the missing links and harmonization of different infrastructure standards, including railway gauges.
Promote development of roadside, rail side and river side ancillary infrastructure.

Prioritize mobilisation of resources for infrastructure development from all sources and promote emerging and innovative sources of funding as these would form critical elements in mobilizing and channeling resources to the LLDCs.

Leverage the role of foreign direct investment and other forms of external private resources for transit infrastructure development.
Relevant regional and global organizations are encouraged to provide technical support on infrastructure development.

LLDCs and transit countries should collaborate on the implementation of best practices in developing transit infrastructure.
Landlocked developing and transit countries are encouraged to promote the development and use of inland water transport in line with regional and international legal instruments.
LLDCs need to be supported in participating more fully in the regional transport/trade/economic corridors to maximize their transit trade and improve their links with international markets. The regional development banks, UN regional commissions, regional organizations and WB should provide additional technical support to LLDCs in facilitating the growth of ancillary industries and small businesses around the corridors, leading to poverty reduction, agricultural and rural development, and employment generation. Wherever feasible, ICT applications should be applied to increase the productivity of these corridors.

LLDCs and their development partners should encourage increased participation of the private sector in enhancing the prospects of creating more efficient transit transport infrastructure. All support measures in that regard need to be addressed in a systematic way so that LLDCs succeed in improving their international trade competiveness and secure increased shares of global trade and investment flows.

Photo: Customs area in Rwanda at the border with Democratic Republic of Congo. Simone D. McCourtie, World Bank/Flickr

LLDCs and their development partners should encourage increased participation of the private sector

International Trade and Trade Facilitation

WTO TFA provides a window of opportunity for the LLDCs to participate more effectively in the global trading system. Effective and timely technical assistance should be provided to the LLDCs to improve their capacity in implementing the provisions of the TFA.

LLDCs should move speedily to implement the trade facilitation measures, as contained in the international, regional and bilateral agreements so that the high trading costs faced by them can be brought down progressively and their supply-side capacities can be significantly increased. More support should be provided to them in improving the efficiencies of their trade-related infrastructure including transport logistics. Efforts should be strengthened to further simplify and harmonize customs and border crossing procedures to reduce time costs and number of documents needed for conducting international trade.

Regional economic integration is critical for the Asian LLDCs to improve their competiveness and benefit from regional and global growth processes. They should actively promote regional connectivity, participate fully and effectively in regional trading and investment arrangements, and implement regional agreements and frameworks in developing regional infrastructure and transport corridors and harmonizing regional policies and programmes.

LLDCs and transit countries should promote coordinated border management to harmonize and simplify border procedures.

LLDCs should institute national measures to identify and evaluate the adverse impact of various transit trade barriers on their economies and take concrete actions to overcome / remove those barriers. In particular, they should harmonize and streamline customs and border crossing procedures and formalities on an urgent basis. They should also allocate sufficient resources in developing intuitional capacities and skilled human resources to adopt new and emerging ICT solutions to promote transit trade.

Under the AfT initiative, increased concessional development assistance should be provided to the LLDCs, focusing on infrastructure development and improving their supply side capacity in fully benefiting from new and emerging market access opportunities. LLDCs should fully harness the potential of AfT in improving their capacity to reduce their trade costs and increasing their competiveness.

While there are efforts to facilitate the cross-border movements of goods and services, many obstacles remain. There is a clear imperative to improve trade and transport infrastructure and services and to strengthen the efficiency of border clearance procedures as a means to reducing the high cost of trade for LLDCs, which would make them more competitive.

Since LLDCs' exports remain highly concentrated, and vulnerable to external shocks, it would be important that they explore means through which they could achieve diversification. One way of doing this is to pursue policies that would allow alternative engines of growth as well as gain meaningful participation regional integration arrangements and markets.

Photo: *Danang Port: the GMS East–West Economic Corridor (EWEC), which connects Viet Nam with Lao PDR, Thailand, and Myanmar.* ADB/Flickr

Means of Implementation

Mobilization and efficient use of domestic resources, attracting FDI, better and targeted use of ODA, strategic deployment of workers' remittances, promotion of public-private partnerships, south-south cooperation, and increased use of innovative financing including blended financing should form components of a coherent and comprehensive strategy to mobile resources for infrastructure and transit transport investment including establishment of multimodal transport corridors. Besides making efforts to mobilize resources domestically through taxation, it is also important that LLDCs improve efficiency so that resources could have greater economic and social impact - including in the development of physical infrastructure.

A number of LLDCs have ample supply of natural resources including oil, gas, coal, minerals and hydro-power which could be harnessed to meet part of the infrastructure investments needs. The rich and varied resource base can be an effective source for mobilizing finance by setting aside a certain proportion of the resource-rents collected by their governments for investment in infrastructure including transit infrastructure.

LLDCs - in partnership with their development partners - should adopt policies and measures to attract foreign direct investment that could enhance their productive capacity, promote employment generation, and ensure environmental integrity.

As domestic capital markets are either quite underdeveloped or shallow, LLDCs should pay more attention to broadening and deepening those markets. Together with equity markets, bond markets and pension funds should be encouraged. LLDCs could also actively promote the establishment of sovereign wealth funds as many of them are endowed with vast quantities of natural resources. Financial inclusion could be another effective means to raise domestic resources and channel those to infrastructure development projects.

It is critical for the international community to strengthen its support for infrastructure development in LLDCs, including in the transit countries. In addition to providing increased ODA, other forms of innovative financing options should be put in place, including greater use of blended financing, public-private partnerships and regional capital markets.

Measures should be adopted to further encourage mobilization of international remittances as a valuable development resource for LLDCs. In particular, working conditions of the migrant workers should be improved and transaction costs in remitting earnings to home countries should be reduced. Although the private nature of remittances restricts their use for public goods such as roads, railways and ports, LLDCs could explore the possibility of providing matching funds to remittances sent from abroad and use the combined resources to finance public infrastructure projects in the local communities. It is entirely possible that LLDCs could also tap into these resources through issuance of diaspora bonds.

Photo: *The Samarkand Railway Station in Uzbekistan.*
Relisa Granovskaya ADB Photo/Flickr

Photo: *Bolivia.* Alex Proimos/Flickr

References

Arvis, J.F., Duval, Y., Shepherd, B. and Utoktham, C (2013) "Trade Costs in the Developing World: 1995–2010", Policy Research Paper 6309. World Bank, Washington DC, 2013

APEC (1997) "The Impact of Trade Liberalization in APEC" APEC Secretariat, Singapore APEC #97-EC-01.2 ISBN981-00-9644-5

Brunner Hans-Peter, 2013 What is Economic Corridor Development and What Can It Achieve in Asia's Subregions? ADB Working Paper Series on Regional Economic Integration number 117.

CAREC (2010) "Transport and Trade Facilitation Progress Report and Work Plan (late 2010-2011) Reference Document For Session 3 of the Senior Officials' Meeting 31 October 2010, http://www.carecprogram.org/uploads/events/2010/SOM-Oct/Progress-Report-Transport-and-Trade-Facilitation.pdf

de Matons Jean Grosdidier, 2014, A Review of International Legal Instruments: Facilitation of Transport and Trade in Africa, SSATP, World Bank, Washington DC.

Djankov Simeon, Caroline Freund Cong S. Pham (2006) "Trading on Time" World Bank Policy Research Working Paper 3909, May 2006

ESCAP, 2015, Status of implementation of the Intergovernmental Agreement on Dry Ports, E/ESCAP/DP/WG(1)/1, Bangkok.

ESCAP, 2013, Discussion Paper on Harmonization and Strengthening of the Regulatory and Legal Framework Pertaining to International Transport and Transit; Presented at the ESCAP/OHRLLS/ECE/ Government of Lao PDR Final Regional Review of the Almaty Programme of Action for the Landlocked Developing Countries held 5-7 March 2013 in Vientiane, Lao People's Democratic Republic.

Gerber, James (1999) "International Economics" Addison-Wesley, United States

Hartmann, Olivier. 2013. Corridor Transport Observatory Guidelines. SSATP, Working Paper No. 98, World Bank.

Infrastructure Consortium for Africa (ICA) Secretariat c/o African Development Bank, 2016, Infrastructure Financing Trends in Africa – 2015, Abidjan.

Katua Thomas Ngui (2014) "The Role of SMEs in Employment Creation and Economic Growth in Selected Countries" International Journal of Education and Research Vol. 2 No. 12 December 2014, pp461-472

Kunaka Charles and Robin Carruthers, World Bank, 2014, Trade and Transport Corridor Management Toolkit, Washington DC.

Kunaka Charles, Virginia Tanase, Pierre Latrille, Peter Krausz, 2013, Quantitative Analysis of Road Transport Agreements (QuARTA), World Bank.

Mbekeani Kennedy (2013) "Intra-Regional Trade in Southern Africa: Structure, Performance, Performance and Challenges", Regional Integration Policy Papers, No. 2, African Development Bank, Tunis, Tunisia

Roberts Michael (2014) "Thoughts on how trade, and WTO rules, can contribute to the post-2015 development agenda", World Trade Organization Economic Research and Statistics Division, WTO Staff Working Paper ERSD-2014-07

OECD (2003) "Quantitative Assessment of the Benefits of Trade Facilitation" Document TD/TC/WP (2003) 31/FINAL, Paris

OECD (2015) "Implementation of the WTO Trade Facilitation Agreement: The Potential Impact on Trade Costs" retrieved at http://www.oecd.org/tad/tradedev/WTO-TF-Implementation-Policy-Brief_EN_2015_06.pdf

Phyrum K, Sothy V, and Horn K S. 2007, Social and Economic Impact of the GMS Southern Economic Corridor on Cambodia. Mekong Institute Re- search working paper Series.

Todaro, M and Smith S (2003) "Economic Development" Dorling Kindersley Pvt Ltd., Delhi, India

UNCTAD, 2015, World Investment Report: Reforming International Investment Governance, United Nations, Geneva

UNCTAD, 2014, Review of Maritime Transport 2014, Geneva.

UNCTAD, 2013, Review of Maritime Transport 2013, Geneva.

UNECA. 2016. Assessing Regional Integration in Africa 7: Innovation, Competitiveness and
Regional Integration, Addis Ababa.

UN-ORHLLS, 2016a, Africa Regional Report on Improving transit cooperation, trade and trade facilitation for the benefit of the LLDCs: Current Status and Policy implications, New York.

UN-ORHLLS, 2016b, Asia Regional Report on Improving transit cooperation, trade and trade facilitation for the benefit of the LLDCs: Current Status and Policy implications, New York.

UN-ORHLLS, 2016c, Latin America Regional Report on Improving transit cooperation, trade and trade facilitation for the benefit of the LLDCs: Current Status and Policy implications, New York.

World Bank (2014) "Connecting to Compete; Trade Logistics in the Global Economy" the World Bank, Washington DC.

World Bank and UN-OHRLLS (2014) "Improving Trade and Transport for Landlocked Developing Countries" A Ten-Year Review World Bank-United Nations report in preparation for the 2nd United Nations Conference on Landlocked Developing Countries (LLDCs), World Bank, Washington DC.

World Bank, 2014"Connecting to Compete – Trade Logistics in the Global Economy", the World Bank, Washington DC.

World Bank. 2011. The Changing Wealth of Nations: Measuring Sustainable Development in the New Millennium. Environment and Development. World Bank. https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/2252 License: CC BY 3.0 IGO.

Statistical Annex on Selected Indicators to Monitor the Vienna Programme of Action

EXPLANATORY NOTES FOR DATA AND TABLES:

1. Where shown, averages for the landlocked developing countries and transit developing countries are weighted by absolute numbers of population or economic variable used in the denominator. For SDG indicators data, totals and averages for the landlocked developing countries are as reported in the United Nations SDG Indicators database.
2. Years separated by a hyphen (such as 2003-2013) indicate data based on averages in the period shown, unless otherwise indicated in the notes to the table.
3. Figures may not add to totals, owing to rounding.

List of Countries by Group:

Landlocked Developing Countries Afghanistan, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bhutan, Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Central African Republic, Chad, Ethiopia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, Lao PDR, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mongolia, Nepal, Niger, Paraguay, Republic of Moldova, Rwanda, South Sudan, Swaziland, Tajikistan, TFYR of Macedonia, Turkmenistan, Uganda, Uzbekistan, Zambia, Zimbabwe

Transit Developing Countries:

Algeria, Angola, Argentina, Bangladesh, Benin, Brazil, Cambodia, Cameroon, Chile, China, Cote d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo, Eritrea, Ghana, Guinea, Djibouti, India, Iran, Kenya, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nigeria, Pakistan, Peru, Senegal, Somalia, South Africa, Tanzania, Thailand, Togo, Turkey, Uruguay, Viet Nam

BROAD VPOA INDICATORS

Table 0.1 Trends in Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

COUNTRY NAME	GDP (Constant 2005 US $ Billions)									
	1995	2000	2003	2008	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Afghanistan	4.53	3.50	5.89	8.59	10.39	11.29	12.53	13.34	13.63	13.30
Armenia	2.25	2.89	4.15	7.20	6.32	6.61	7.08	7.31	7.58	7.81
Azerbaijan	5.08	7.15	9.47	24.71	28.28	27.82	28.41	30.07	30.87	31.08
Bhutan	0.40	0.56	0.72	1.08	1.29	1.39	1.46	1.49	1.57	1.65
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	6.92	8.20	8.78	11.11	11.95	12.58	13.22	14.12	14.89	15.61
Botswana	6.45	8.31	9.25	12.38	12.41	13.16	13.75	15.11	15.59	15.55
Burkina Faso	2.93	4.01	4.81	6.39	7.14	7.61	8.10	8.57	8.95	9.31
Burundi	1.07	1.01	1.06	1.28	1.39	1.45	1.51	1.59	1.66	1.59
Central African Republic	1.30	1.44	1.34	1.58	1.67	1.70	1.75	1.11	1.12	1.17
Chad	2.93	3.35	4.63	7.84	9.70	9.47	10.42	11.20	13.78	14.69
Ethiopia	7.12	8.90	9.58	16.65	20.39	23.07	25.06	27.71	30.56	33.50
Kazakhstan	30.85	34.88	47.51	71.14	77.25	82.96	86.94	92.16	96.03	97.18
Kyrgyzstan	1.56	2.04	2.30	2.98	3.06	3.24	3.24	3.58	3.72	3.85
Lao People's Democratic Republic	1.48	2.00	2.38	3.43	3.99	4.31	4.65	5.02	5.40	5.81
Lesotho	0.98	1.19	1.30	1.58	1.76	1.83	1.93	2.01	2.08	2.14
Malawi	2.74	3.25	3.36	4.52	5.23	5.48	5.59	5.88	6.21	6.39
Mali	3.36	4.31	6.03	8.34	10.33	11.13	12.38	13.24	14.28	15.36
Mongolia	1.86	2.14	2.47	3.81	4.00	4.70	5.28	5.89	6.35	6.50
Nepal	5.50	6.96	7.65	9.40	10.30	10.65	11.16	11.62	12.32	12.65
Niger	2.31	2.70	3.16	4.03	4.33	4.43	4.96	5.22	5.59	5.79
Paraguay	6.78	6.71	8.22	10.26	11.15	11.63	11.49	13.10	13.72	14.14
Republic of Moldova	2.41	2.12	2.59	3.48	3.50	3.74	3.71	4.06	4.26	4.22
Rwanda	1.06	1.75	2.20	3.37	3.85	4.15	4.51	4.72	5.05	5.41
South Sudan	..	..	..	9.85	10.92	10.41	5.61	7.11	8.26	8.43
Swaziland	2.26	2.60	2.86	3.55	3.70	3.77	3.90	4.08	4.19	4.26
Tajikistan	1.46	1.46	1.96	2.85	3.16	3.24	3.48	3.74	3.99	4.16
TFYR Macedonia	4.90	5.68	5.71	7.39	7.61	7.79	7.75	7.98	8.27	8.59
Turkmenistan	8.89	11.06	11.95	20.05	23.23	26.64	29.60	32.62	35.98	38.31
Uganda	5.67	7.75	9.58	14.25	16.48	17.45	18.01	18.86	19.77	20.84
Uzbekistan	9.06	10.99	12.49	18.51	21.71	23.51	25.44	27.47	29.70	31.72
Zambia	5.16	6.17	7.26	10.50	12.65	13.36	14.37	15.11	15.87	16.32
Zimbabwe	7.83	7.75	6.73	5.53	9.57	10.71	11.85	12.38	12.85	12.99
Average, LLDCs	**4.75**	**5.58**	**6.69**	**9.93**	**11.21**	**11.92**	**12.47**	**13.36**	**14.19**	**14.70**
Average, Transit Countries	**103.50**	**131.35**	**153.83**	**227.42**	**259.78**	**278.23**	**292.97**	**310.09**	**325.39**	**341.17**
World	**164.48**	**194.74**	**208.31**	**242.66**	**248.34**	**255.40**	**261.07**	**267.01**	**273.77**	**280.98**

Source: United Nations Statistics Division

Table 0.2 Economic Growth and Poverty

COUNTRY NAME	GDP Growth (Annual %) based on Constant Price GDP					Poverty headcount ratio at $1.90 a day (2011 PPP) (% of population	
	1991-2002	2003-2012	2013	2014	2015	Latest data	Year
Afghanistan	-0.43	8.7	6.48	2.16	-2.41	..	
Armenia	-1.3	6.87	3.26	3.64	3.02	2.31	2014
Azerbaijan	-2.84	12.7	5.87	2.66	0.66	0.49	2008
Bhutan	6.06	8.1	2.14	5.46	5.21	2.17	2012
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	3.49	4.46	6.8	5.46	4.85	6.81	2014
Botswana	4.59	4.52	9.86	3.2	-0.26	18.24	2009
Burkina Faso	5.25	6.14	5.8	4.4	4.07	43.73	2014
Burundi	-0.86	3.5	4.9	4.7	-4.1	77.65	2006
Central African Republic	1.66	1.94	-36.7	1.04	4.8	66.26	2008
Chad	3.69	9.91	7.4	23.1	6.6	38.43	2011
Ethiopia	3.12	9.86	10.58	10.28	9.61	33.54	2010
Kazakhstan	-1.2	7.18	6	4.2	1.2	0.04	2013
Kyrgyzstan	-2.92	4.16	10.53	4.02	3.47	1.29	2014
Lao People's Democratic Republic	6.12	7.58	7.97	7.56	7.56	16.72	2012
Lesotho	3.73	4.46	4.5	3.6	2.82	59.65	2010
Malawi	1.72	5.8	5.2	5.7	2.95	70.91	2010
Mali	5.39	8.77	7.01	7.79	7.61	49.25	2009
Mongolia	0.6	8.64	11.65	7.89	2.3	0.22	2014
Nepal	4.64	4.25	4.13	5.99	2.73	14.99	2010
Niger	3.01	4.95	5.27	7.05	3.61	45.70	2014
Paraguay	2.68	3.84	14.04	4.72	3.08	2.77	2014
Republic of Moldova	-7.39	4.34	9.4	4.79	-0.75	0.00	2014
Rwanda	2.24	7.7	4.68	6.96	6.95	60.43	2013
South Sudan	..	..	26.72	16.12	2.03	42.71	2009
Swaziland	2.89	3.61	4.57	2.75	1.66	42.03	2009
Tajikistan	-6.23	7.01	7.43	6.69	4.2	19.51	2014
TFYR Macedonia	-0.24	3.33	2.92	3.63	3.84	1.33	2008
Turkmenistan	-1.62	9.85	10.2	10.3	6.5	..	
Uganda	7.11	7.15	4.7	4.85	5.38	34.64	2012
Uzbekistan	0.57	7.83	8.0	8.1	6.8	66.79	2003
Zambia	2.02	7.79	5.13	5.02	2.87	64.42	2010
Zimbabwe	-0.11	5	4.48	3.85	1.07	21.40	2011
Average, LLDCs	**0.55**	**7.03**	**6.9**	**5.5**	**3.58**	**..**	**..**
Average, Transit Countries	**5.12**	**7.37**	**5.84**	**4.94**	**4.85**	**..**	**..**
World	**2.5**	**2.57**	**2.28**	**2.53**	**2.63**	**..**	**..**

Source: United Nations Statistics Division and World Bank, World Development Indicators

Table 0.3: Relative Economic Performance

COUNTRY NAME	GDP per capita (Constant 2010 US$)								
	1990	2000	2003	2008	2010	2013	2014	2015	2016
Afghanistan	..	..	377	445	553	622	610	599	596
Armenia	1,797	1,404	2,020	3,629	3,218	3,711	3,827	3,928	3,925
Azerbaijan	3,119	1,633	2,158	5,262	5,843	6,078	6,123	6,117	5,859
Bhutan	789	1,201	1,425	1,898	2,179	2,400	2,500	2,626	2,751
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	1,358	1,617	1,638	1,902	1,981	2,231	2,317	2,393	2,458
Botswana	3,860	4,955	5,280	6,553	6,346	7,409	7,574	7,309	7,383
Burkina Faso	332	422	465	547	575	613	620	626	644
Burundi	329	228	221	230	231	239	243	227	218
Central African Republic	469	412	398	436	446	300	303	315	326
Chad	517	463	573	809	897	935	967	954	860
Ethiopia	207	197	194	294	341	421	453	487	511
Kazakhstan	5,890	4,492	6,108	8,698	9,071	10,369	10,645	10,617	10,570
Kyrgyzstan	1,096	654	716	880	880	984	1,004	1,021	1,038
Lao People's Democratic Republic	462	672	763	1,009	1,141	1,384	1,471	1,557	1,643
Lesotho	682	880	936	1,100	1,173	1,304	1,316	1,372	1,387
Malawi	331	385	362	421	459	472	484	484	482
Mali	481	554	656	684	708	679	706	726	743
Mongolia	1,761	1,600	1,793	2,605	2,650	3,686	3,902	3,923	3,895
Nepal	357	459	476	552	592	645	676	686	682
Niger	382	322	336	349	348	374	385	384	388
Paraguay	2,671	2,693	2,633	3,050	3,226	3,641	3,762	3,823	3,928
Republic of Moldova	..	968	1,189	1,617	1,632	1,895	1,987	1,980	2,063
Rwanda	360	327	380	522	563	641	673	715	739
South Sudan	..	..	..	1,532	1,562	818	820	745	..
Swaziland	2,720	2,953	3,159	3,633	3,690	3,995	4,089	4,073	3,911
Tajikistan	1,278	414	530	698	738	856	893	926	968
TFYR Macedonia	3,854	3,449	3,437	4,418	4,543	4,752	4,920	5,105	5,223
Turkmenistan	3,713	2,381	2,495	3,949	4,439	5,910	6,399	6,694	6,987
Uganda	302	412	453	565	595	633	644	654	662
Uzbekistan	997	813	885	1,228	1,377	1,646	1,744	1,851	1,961
Zambia	1,045	938	1,018	1,286	1,463	1,596	1,621	1,618	1,622
Zimbabwe	1,267	1,256	932	591	714	929	933	924	909
Average, LLDCs	**1,146**	**872**	**926**	**1,227**	**1,304**	**1,433**	**1,472**	**1,485**	**1,510**
Average, World	**7,163**	**8,163**	**8,420**	**9,505**	**9,509**	**9,948**	**10,108**	**10,263**	**10,391**

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

LLDCs Global Report 2017

Table 0.4: Human Development Index

COUNTRY NAME	Human Development Index									
	2000	2003	2005	2008	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Afghanistan	0.340	0.381	0.405	0.434	0.454	0.463	0.470	0.476	0.479	0.479
Armenia	0.644	0.668	0.692	0.725	0.729	0.732	0.736	0.739	0.741	0.743
Azerbaijan	0.642	0.668	0.682	0.728	0.741	0.742	0.745	0.752	0.758	0.759
Bhutan	..	..	..	..	0.572	0.581	0.589	0.596	0.604	0.607
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	0.607	0.620	0.625	0.636	0.649	0.655	0.661	0.666	0.671	0.674
Botswana	0.560	0.580	0.610	0.661	0.678	0.687	0.693	0.697	0.698	0.698
Burkina Faso	..	..	0.325	0.356	0.377	0.384	0.392	0.398	0.399	0.402
Burundi	0.268	0.279	0.290	0.336	0.385	0.393	0.398	0.404	0.406	0.404
Central African Republic	0.314	0.315	0.323	0.345	0.361	0.366	0.370	0.345	0.347	0.352
Chad	0.300	0.301	0.303	0.343	0.370	0.381	0.387	0.390	0.394	0.396
Ethiopia	0.283	0.310	0.346	0.393	0.411	0.422	0.427	0.435	0.441	0.448
Kazakhstan	0.685	0.725	0.747	0.758	0.766	0.774	0.782	0.789	0.793	0.794
Kyrgyzstan	0.593	0.609	0.613	0.629	0.632	0.638	0.647	0.656	0.662	0.664
Lao People's Democratic Republic	0.463	0.485	0.503	0.525	0.542	0.554	0.563	0.573	0.582	0.586
Lesotho	0.443	0.439	0.437	0.453	0.469	0.479	0.484	0.491	0.495	0.497
Malawi	0.387	0.366	0.377	0.415	0.444	0.454	0.459	0.466	0.473	0.476
Mali	0.297	0.333	0.350	0.385	0.404	0.411	0.421	0.430	0.438	0.442
Mongolia	0.588	0.621	0.649	0.686	0.701	0.712	0.720	0.729	0.733	0.735
Nepal	0.446	0.463	0.476	0.502	0.529	0.538	0.545	0.551	0.555	0.558
Niger	0.255	0.270	0.286	0.307	0.323	0.331	0.341	0.345	0.351	0.353
Paraguay	0.624	0.639	0.648	0.663	0.675	0.679	0.679	0.688	0.692	0.693
Republic of Moldova	0.597	0.630	0.648	0.668	0.672	0.679	0.686	0.696	0.701	0.699
Rwanda	0.332	0.371	0.404	0.447	0.464	0.475	0.485	0.488	0.493	0.498
South Sudan	..	..	..	..	0.429	0.419	0.417	0.421	0.421	0.418
Swaziland	0.506	0.492	0.502	0.519	0.526	0.534	0.539	0.541	0.541	0.541
Tajikistan	0.535	0.563	0.579	0.601	0.608	0.613	0.617	0.622	0.625	0.627
TFYR Macedonia	..	..	0.703	0.730	0.735	0.739	0.741	0.743	0.746	0.748
Turkmenistan	..	..	..	..	0.665	0.672	0.678	0.683	0.688	0.692
Uganda	0.396	0.427	0.434	0.464	0.477	0.477	0.478	0.483	0.488	0.493
Uzbekistan	0.594	0.613	0.626	0.651	0.664	0.673	0.681	0.690	0.697	0.701
Zambia	0.424	0.456	0.479	0.518	0.543	0.554	0.565	0.570	0.576	0.579
Zimbabwe	0.427	0.407	0.408	0.419	0.452	0.464	0.488	0.498	0.507	0.516
Average, LLDCs	**0.465**	**0.483**	**0.499**	**0.527**	**0.545**	**0.552**	**0.559**	**0.564**	**0.569**	**0.571**
Average, Transit Countries	**0.513**	**0.529**	**0.540**	**0.562**	**0.576**	**0.583**	**0.590**	**0.596**	**0.600**	**0.604**
World	**0.629**	**0.644**	**0.652**	**0.671**	**0.680**	**0.685**	**0.690**	**0.694**	**0.697**	**0.699**

Source: UNDP Human Development Reports

Table 0.5: Employment Characteristics

COUNTRY NAME	Employment-to-population ratio						Unemployment rate (%)	
	1991-2002	2003-2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	Latest data	Year
Afghanistan	50.5	47.2	48.0	48.0	48.0	48.0	8.5	2011
Armenia	47.8	49.2	51.9	52.5	52.9	53.2	17.6	2014
Azerbaijan	59.3	59.8	61.5	61.8	61.9	61.9	5.0	2015
Bhutan	64.5	67.9	64.3	64.8	65.2	65.5	2.5	2015
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	65.9	68.8	70.5	70.6	70.5	70.5	3.5	2014
Botswana	60.4	62.5	64.0	63.5	63.2	63.1	17.9	2010
Burkina Faso	81.2	80.9	80.8	80.9	80.9	80.9	3.3	2007
Burundi	85.3	81.6	82.3	82.3	82.3	82.3	1.6	2008
Central African Republic	72.7	72.3	72.8	72.7	72.7	72.7	..	
Chad	68.0	67.5	67.5	67.4	67.4	67.5	5.7	2011
Ethiopia	76.2	79.3	78.8	78.6	78.2	78.3	5.0	2013
Kazakhstan	62.8	65.3	67.3	67.7	67.7	67.5	5.0	2015
Kyrgyzstan	59.7	58.8	57.6	58.1	58.2	58.4	7.6	2015
Lao People's Democratic Republic	79.0	76.9	76.2	76.3	76.5	76.6	1.4	2005
Lesotho	52.3	49.0	49.9	48.8	48.4	48.6	24.4	2013
Malawi	72.2	76.2	75.7	75.6	75.6	75.6	6.4	2013
Mali	46.9	55.0	60.6	60.8	61.0	61.1	8.2	2014
Mongolia	56.3	57.4	57.3	57.9	58.5	58.9	7.5	2015
Nepal	83.3	81.6	80.5	80.5	80.3	80.5	3.0	2014
Niger	58.5	63.0	63.1	63.0	63.0	63.0	2.4	2007
Paraguay	65.7	66.2	67.1	67.7	67.7	67.7	5.3	2015
Republic of Moldova	58.1	42.1	40.0	40.0	40.2	40.5	4.9	2015
Rwanda	85.4	82.7	82.0	82.5	82.7	82.8	3.4	2012
South Sudan	..	..	..	..	..	..	12.2	2008
Swaziland	37.9	36.4	37.7	38.5	39.0	39.4	28.2	2007
Tajikistan	59.1	59.3	61.0	61.1	61.2	61.3	11.5	2009
TFYR Macedonia	37.1	36.4	40.2	41.3	40.9	40.5	26.1	2015
Turkmenistan	54.8	55.1	56.2	56.6	56.7	56.7	..	
Uganda	79.6	79.5	83.3	83.1	83.1	83.0	1.9	2013
Uzbekistan	53.7	54.5	56.1	56.3	56.5	56.6	..	
Zambia	67.0	67.6	69.5	69.6	69.7	69.8	7.9	2012
Zimbabwe	70.2	79.9	78.1	78.2	78.3	78.5	5.4	2011
Average, LLDCs	**67.7**	**69.0**	**69.9**	**70.0**	**70.0**	**70.1**	**5.7**	**2016**
World	**61.6**	**60.0**	**59.2**	**59.3**	**59.2**	**59.2**	**5.7**	**2016**

Source: United Nations Statistics Division and World Bank, World Development Indicators

Table 0.6: Proportion of Seats Held by Women in National Parliaments

COUNTRY NAME	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%)							
	2000	2003	2010	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Afghanistan	..	..	27.3	27.7	27.7	27.7	27.7	27.7
Armenia	3.1	3.1	9.2	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	9.9
Azerbaijan	10.4	10.5	11.4	16.0	15.6	15.6	16.9	16.8
Bhutan	2.0	9.3	8.5	8.5	8.5	8.5	8.5	8.5
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	11.5	18.5	22.3	25.4	25.4	53.1	53.1	53.1
Botswana	17.0	17.0	7.9	7.9	9.5	9.5	9.5	9.5
Burkina Faso	8.1	11.7	15.3	15.8	18.9	13.3	9.5	11.0
Burundi	6.0	18.4	31.4	30.5	30.5	30.5	36.4	36.4
Central African Republic	7.3	7.3	9.6	12.5	..	..	..	8.6
Chad	2.4	5.8	5.2	14.9	14.9	14.9	14.9	12.8
Ethiopia	2.0	7.7	21.9	27.8	27.8	27.8	38.8	38.8
Kazakhstan	10.4	10.4	17.8	24.3	25.2	26.2	26.2	27.1
Kyrgyzstan	1.4	10.0	25.6	23.3	23.3	23.3	19.2	19.2
Lao People's Democratic Republic	21.2	22.9	25.2	25.0	25.0	25.0	25.0	27.5
Lesotho	3.8	11.7	24.2	26.7	26.7	26.7	25.0	25.0
Malawi	8.3	9.3	20.8	22.3	22.3	16.7	16.7	16.7
Mali	12.2	10.2	10.2	10.2	9.5	9.5	8.8	8.8
Mongolia	7.9	10.5	4.0	14.9	14.9	14.9	14.5	17.1
Nepal	5.9	..	33.2	33.2	29.9	29.5	29.6	29.6
Niger	1.2	1.2	9.7	13.3	13.3	13.3	13.3	17.0
Paraguay	2.5	2.5	12.5	12.5	15.0	15.0	15.0	13.8
Republic of Moldova	8.9	12.9	23.8	19.8	18.8	20.8	21.8	22.8
Rwanda	17.1	25.7	56.3	56.3	63.8	63.8	63.8	61.3
South Sudan	..	..	..	26.5	26.5	26.5	26.5	28.5
Swaziland	3.1	3.1	13.6	13.6	6.2	6.2	6.2	6.2
Tajikistan	2.8	12.7	17.5	19.1	15.9	17.0	19.1	19.1
TFYR Macedonia	7.5	18.3	32.5	32.5	34.2	33.3	33.3	31.7
Turkmenistan	26.0	26.0	16.8	16.8	26.4	25.8	25.8	25.8
Uganda	17.9	24.7	31.5	35.0	35.0	35.0	35.0	34.3
Uzbekistan	6.8	7.2	22.0	22.0	22.0	16.0	16.0	16.0
Zambia	10.1	12.0	14.0	11.5	10.8	12.7	12.7	18.0
Zimbabwe	14.0	10.0	15.0	15.0	31.5	31.5	31.5	32.6
Average, LLDCs	**7.8**	**11.8**	**21.6**	**23.7**	**24.6**	**24.9**	**26.0**	**25.9**
World	**13.3**	**15.1**	**19.0**	**20.8**	**22.1**	**22.3**	**22.7**	**23.4**

Source: United Nations SDG Indicators database

Table 0.7: Forest Area

COUNTRY NAME	Forest area as a proportion of total land area (%)				
	1990	2000	2005	2010	2015
Afghanistan	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1
Armenia	11.9	11.8	11.8	11.7	11.8
Azerbaijan	10.3	10.6	10.6	12.2	13.8
Bhutan	65.8	68.4	69.7	71.0	72.3
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	58.0	55.5	54.2	51.9	50.6
Botswana	24.2	22.1	21.1	20.0	19.1
Burkina Faso	25.0	22.8	21.7	20.7	19.6
Burundi	11.3	7.7	7.1	9.9	10.8
Central African Republic	36.2	36.0	35.8	35.7	35.6
Chad	5.3	5.0	4.9	4.4	3.9
Ethiopia	13.8	12.5	11.9	11.2	11.4
Kazakhstan	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.2
Kyrgyzstan	4.4	4.5	4.6	3.5	3.3
Lao People's Democratic Republic	76.5	71.6	73.1	77.2	81.3
Lesotho	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.6
Malawi	41.3	37.8	36.1	34.3	33.4
Mali	5.5	4.8	4.5	4.2	3.9
Mongolia	8.1	7.5	7.3	8.4	8.1
Nepal	33.6	27.2	25.4	25.4	25.4
Niger	1.5	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9
Paraguay	53.3	48.8	46.5	42.7	38.6
Republic of Moldova	9.7	9.9	11.1	11.8	12.5
Rwanda	12.9	13.9	15.6	18.1	19.5
South Sudan	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3
Swaziland	27.4	30.1	31.5	32.7	34.1
Tajikistan	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
TFYR Macedonia	36.2	38.0	38.7	39.6	39.6
Turkmenistan	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8
Uganda	23.8	19.4	17.2	13.8	10.4
Uzbekistan	6.9	7.3	7.5	7.4	7.3
Zambia	71.0	68.8	67.7	66.5	65.4
Zimbabwe	57.3	48.8	44.6	40.4	36.4
Average, LLDCs	**18.2**	**17.1**	**16.6**	**16.2**	**15.7**
Average, World	**31.0**	**30.5**	**30.3**	**30.1**	**30.0**

Source: United Nations SDG Indicators database

INDICATORS FOR PRIORITY 1 – FUNDAMENTAL TRANSIT POLICY ISSUES

Table 1.1: Logistics Performance Index and Country Policy and Institutional Assessment Index

COUNTRY NAME	Logistics Performance Index: Overall (1=low to 5=high)					CPIA: Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector (1=low to 6=high)					
	2007	2010	2012	2014	2016	2005	2010	2012	2013	2014	2015
Afghanistan	1.21	2.24	2.30	2.07	2.14	...	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
Armenia	2.14	2.52	2.56	2.67	2.21	2.5	3.0	3.5	3.5	...	...
Azerbaijan	2.29	2.64	2.48	2.45	...	2.5	2.5	...	...	...	...
Bhutan	2.16	2.38	2.52	2.29	2.32	4.0	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	2.31	2.51	2.61	2.48	2.25	3.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.0
Botswana	...	2.32	2.84	2.49	3.05	...	...	...	...	...	...
Burkina Faso	2.24	2.23	2.32	2.64	2.73	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5
Burundi	2.29	...	1.61	2.57	2.51	3.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.5	2.0
Central African Republic	...	...	...	2.36	...	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5
Chad	1.98	2.49	2.03	2.53	2.16	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.5	2.5
Ethiopia	2.33	2.41	2.24	2.59	2.38	2.5	2.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
Kazakhstan	2.12	2.83	2.69	2.70	2.75	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kyrgyzstan	2.35	2.62	2.35	2.21	2.16	2.5	2.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
Lao People's Democratic Republic	2.25	2.46	2.50	2.39	2.07	2.0	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5
Lesotho	2.30	...	2.24	2.37	2.03	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.0
Malawi	2.42	...	2.81	2.81	...	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.5
Mali	2.29	2.27	...	2.50	2.50	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
Mongolia	2.08	2.25	2.25	2.36	2.51	2.5	3.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5
Nepal	2.14	2.20	2.04	2.59	2.38	2.5	2.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
Niger	1.97	2.54	2.69	2.39	2.56	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
Paraguay	2.57	2.75	2.48	2.78	2.56	...	...	...	...	...	...
Republic of Moldova	2.31	2.57	2.33	2.65	2.61	3.0	3.0	3.5	3.5	3.0	2.5
Rwanda	1.77	2.04	2.27	2.76	2.99	3.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5
South Sudan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.5
Swaziland	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tajikistan	1.93	2.35	2.28	2.53	2.06	2.0	2.0	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5
TFYR Macedonia	2.43	2.77	2.56	2.50	2.51	...	...	...	...	...	...
Turkmenistan	...	2.49	...	2.30	2.21	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uganda	2.49	2.82	...	...	3.04	3.0	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
Uzbekistan	2.16	2.79	2.46	2.39	2.40	1.5	1.5	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
Zambia	2.37	2.28	...	2.46	2.43	3.0	2.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
Zimbabwe	2.29	...	2.55	2.34	2.08	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	2.0
Average, LLDCs	**2.19**	**2.47**	**2.40**	**2.49**	**2.43**	**2.71**	**2.72**	**2.84**	**2.82**	**2.79**	**2.73**
Average, Transit Countries	**2.56**	**2.65**	**2.73**	**2.69**	**2.77**	**2.75**	**2.70**	**2.75**	**2.79**	**2.76**	**2.76**
World	**2.74**	**2.87**	**2.87**	**2.89**	**2.88**	**2.89**	**2.85**	**2.91**	**2.91**	**2.91**	**2.88**

Source: United Nations Statistics Division

Table 1.2: Status of Ratification of Key International Conventions to promote Trade and Transport Facilitation

CONVENTION	LLDCs	Transit Countries	Total
World Trade Organization Trade Facilitation Agreement (2013)	19	20	121
Revised Kyoto Convention (2006)	18	23	110
World Trade Organization Agreement (1994)	26	30	164
United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (1982)	20	29	168
Customs Convention on the International Transport of Goods under Cover of the TIR Carnets (1975)	11	7	71
International Convention on the Harmonization of Frontier Controls of Goods (1982)	12	2	58
Customs Convention on Containers (1972)	7	2	40
Convention on Road Signs and Signals (1968)	10	9	65
Vienna convention on Road Traffic (1968)	13	11	75
Convention on the Contract for the International Carriage of Goods by Road (1956)	10	1	55
Customs convention on the Temporary Importation of Commercial Road Vehicles (1956)	6	2	42
Geneva Convention on Road Traffic (1949)	13	18	97

Source: UN OLA, UNECE, WCO, WTO. Updated 7 August 2017

Table 1.3: Container Port Throughput for Transit Developing Countries

	Container Port Throughput ('000 Twenty-foot Equivalent Units)							
	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	% change 2008-2014
World	516,255	472,274	540,817	587,484	624,480	651,201	684,429	32.6
ASIA								
China	115,942	108,800	130,290	144,642	161,319	170,859	181,635	56.7
India	7,672	8,014	9,753	10,285	10,279	10,883	11,656	51.9
Viet Nam	4,394	4,937	5,984	6,930	7,548	9,137	9,531	116.9
Thailand	6,726	5,898	6,649	7,171	7,469	7,702	8,284	23.2
Turkey	5,218	4,522	5,574	5,990	6,736	7,284	7,623	46.1
Russian Federation	3,372	2,428	3,200	3,955	3,931	3,968	3,903	15.8
Pakistan	1,938	2,058	2,149	2,193	2,375	2,485	2,597	34.0
Bangladesh	1,091	1,182	1,356	1,432	1,436	1,500	1,655	51.7
Cambodia	259	208	224	237	255	275	289	11.6
Myanmar	180	164	190	201	216	233	245	36.0
TOTAL	**146,793**	**138,210**	**165,369**	**183,036**	**201,563**	**214,327**	**227,418**	**54.9**
% of World	**3.3**	**29.3**	**30.6**	**31.2**	**32.3**	**32.9**	**33.2**	
LATIN AMERICA								
Brazil	7,256	6,590	8,139	8,714	9,323	10,177	10,679	47.2
Chile	3,164	2,796	3,172	3,450	3,597	3,723	3,743	18.3
Peru	1,235	1,233	1,534	1,815	2,031	2,086	2,235	80.9
Argentina	1,997	1,627	2,022	2,159	1,986	2,141	1,776	-11.1
Uruguay	675	588	672	861	753	861	905	34.0
TOTAL	**14,328**	**12,834**	**15,538**	**17,000**	**17,690**	**18,988**	**19,336**	**35.0**
% of World	**2.8**	**2.7**	**2.9**	**2.9**	**2.8**	**2.9**	**2.8**	
AFRICA								
South Africa	3,876	3,726	3,806	4,393	4,360	4,695	4,831	24.7
Nigeria	73	87	101	840	878	1,011	1,062	1365.4
Kenya	616	619	696	736	903	894	1,010	64.0
Angola	..	..	..	676	750	913	1,000	47.8
Ghana	613	557	647	684	735	793	834	36.0
Côte d'Ivoire	714	677	608	642	691	745	783	9.7
Djibouti	356	520	600	634	682	736	773	116.9
Tanzania	363	371	429	454	488	526	638	75.6
Senegal	347	331	349	369	397	428	450	29.5
Benin	300	273	317	335	360	388	408	36.0
Cameroon	270	246	285	301	324	350	367	36.0
Algeria	225	250	280	296	318	343	361	60.1
Mozambique	241	219	255	269	289	312	328	36.0
Namibia	184	266	256	108	116	125	131	-28.6
TOTAL	**8,178**	**8,141**	**8,629**	**10,737**	**11,290**	**12,259**	**12,977**	**58.7**
% of World	**1.6**	**1.7**	**1.6**	**1.8**	**1.8**	**1.9**	**1.9**	

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

Note: Port container traffic measures the flow of containers from land to sea transport modes., and vice versa, in twenty-foot equivalent units (TEUs), a standard-size container.

INDICATORS FOR PRIORITY 2 – INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT AND MAINTENANCE

Table 2.1: Select Transport Indicators

COUNTRY NAME	Roads		Railways		Waterways	Pipelines	
	Kilometres	% Paved	Kilometres		Kilometres	Kilometres	
	2001-2011	2011	2009	2013	2012	2006	2013
Afghanistan	23,133 (2010)	36	..	..	1,200	466	466
Armenia	7,749 (2011)	90	845	826	..	2,233	2,233
Azerbaijan	18,986 (2011)	56	2,099	2,068	..	4,785	6,425
Bhutan	8,366 (2011)	34	..		..	..	..
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	82,288 (2011)	12	2,866	3,652	10 000	8,994	9,646
Botswana	25,798 (2005)	33	888	888	..	..	..
Burkina Faso	15,304 (2011)	20	622	622	..	..	..
Burundi	12,322 (2004)	10	..		Lake Tanganyika	..	..
Central African Republic	20,278 (2010)	6.8	..		2 800	..	..
Chad	40,000 (2006)	1	..		Seasonal	250	582
Ethiopia	44,359 (2007)	14	..		..	..	..
Kazakhstan	97,155 (2011)	90	14,205	14,319	4 000	24,740	26,963
Kyrgyzstan	34,000 (2007)	91	417	417	600	270	496
Lao People's Democratic Republic	41,029 (2011)	14	..		4 600	540	540
Lesotho	5,940 (2001)	18	..		..	..	..
Malawi	15,451 (2003)	45	797	797	700	..	..
Mali	22,474 (2009)	25	734	593	1 800	..	..
Mongolia	49,250 (2014)	4	1,810	1,818	580 (Seasonal)	..	..
Nepal	19,875 (2008)	54	59	59	..	..	..
Niger	19,267 (2010)	21	..		300 (Seasonal)	..	..
Paraguay	32,404 (2011)	16	36	36	3 100	..	..
Republic of Moldova	12,845 (2011)	86	1,156	1,157	558	1,906	1,906
Rwanda	14,008 (2004)	19	..		Lac Kivu (Shallow)	..	..
Swaziland	3,594 (2002)	30	300	300	..	..	..
Tajikistan	27,767 (2000)	..	616	621	200	587	587
TFYR Macedonia	13,983 (2011)	58	699	699	..	388	388
Turkmenistan	59,623 (2012)	81	3,181	4,980	1 300	7,864	9,001
Uganda	70,746 (2003)	23	261	2,244	lakes	..	..
Uzbekistan	81,600 (2000)	87	4,230	4,280	1 100	10,574	11,345
Zambia	66,781 (2000)	22	1,273	2,157	2 250	771	771
Zimbabwe	97,267	19	2,583	3,427	Lake Kariba	270	270
LLDCs	**1,047,876**	**37**	**39,677**	**45,960**		**64,638**	**71,619**

Source: World Bank (Data Series Publishing Discontinued)

Table 2.2: Rail lines

COUNTRY NAME	Rail lines, total route (km)					
	2000	2003	2010	2013	2014	2015
Afghanistan	..	..	..	..	..	..
Armenia	842	711	826	826	703	703
Azerbaijan	2,116	..	2,079	2,068	2,066	2,068
Bhutan	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	..	..	..	..	..	..
Botswana	..	..	888	888	..	..
Burkina Faso	..	..	622	622	622	..
Burundi	..	..	..	..	..	..
Central African Republic	..	..	..	..	..	..
Chad	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ethiopia	..	..	..	..	..	..
Kazakhstan	13,545	13,770	14,202	14,767	14,767	14,767
Kyrgyzstan	..	..	417	417	417	..
Lao People's Democratic Republic	..	..	..	..	..	..
Lesotho	..	..	..	..	..	..
Malawi	710	710	..	..	..	..
Mali	734	..	..	..	..	..
Mongolia	1,810	..	1,814	1,810	1,823	1,810
Nepal	..	..	..	..	..	..
Niger	..	..	..	..	..	..
Paraguay	..	..	..	..	..	..
Republic of Moldova	..	..	1,157	1,157	1,156	1,151
Rwanda	..	..	..	..	..	..
South Sudan	..	..	..	..	..	..
Swaziland	..	..	300	300	300	..
Tajikistan	..	..	621	621	621	..
TFYR Macedonia	699	699	699	699	699	683
Turkmenistan	..	..	3,115	3,115	3,115	..
Uganda	261	..	..	..	..	..
Uzbekistan	3,645	..	4,227	4,192	4,192	..
Zambia	1,273	1,273	..	..	..	..
Zimbabwe	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total, LLDCs	**25,635**	**17,163**	**30,967**	**31,482**	**30,481**	**21,182**
Total, Transit Countries	**195,767**	**195,213**	**249,845**	**264,493**	**267,007**	**172,453**
World	**968,936**	**959,886**	**1,076,590**	**1,051,799**	**1,055,264**	**1,051,839**

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

Table 2.3: Air Transport

COUNTRY NAME	Air transport, Registered Carrier Departures Worldwide							
	2003	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Afghanistan	..	21,677	25,021	17,775	21,696	25,920	23,532	22,771
Armenia	3,842	8,761	5,561	6,043	852	0	0	..
Azerbaijan	9,195	9,885	15,082	16,597	15,886	21,910	23,781	24,009
Bhutan	1,890	3,053	4,146	3,553	5,820	8,772	4,640	6,065
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	28,901	37,019	40,751	41,975	33,467	51,017	42,681	45,722
Botswana	7,214	7,681	7,910	8,422	9,396	8,304	7,741	7,933
Burkina Faso	1,285	4,235	3,983	3,856	3,780	3,672	3,875	3,861
Burundi	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Central African Republic	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Chad	..	700	984	664	72	72	..	..
Ethiopia	27,204	48,783	57,728	62,136	68,131	71,166	83,940	94,330
Kazakhstan	19,560	33,483	40,916	44,580	66,108	71,220	72,485	73,188
Kyrgyzstan	4,810	7,371	9,274	7,719	12,189	17,388	16,826	17,904
Lao People's Democratic Republic	7,068	11,374	12,262	15,836	16,944	12,732	9,772	9,985
Lesotho	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Malawi	4,940	3,340	3,172	3,201	1,644	1,644	1,687	1,819
Mali	..	4,656	5,580	2,753	360	0	0	..
Mongolia	7,358	6,528	7,194	9,611	4,212	5,706	5,231	6,009
Nepal	4,912	45,990	44,126	34,745	30,612	19,560	19,395	24,063
Niger	..	0	0	1,416	1,044	407	469	471
Paraguay	8,557	6,459	6,874	6,594	6,408	5,496	4,116	3,864
Republic of Moldova	4,333	6,571	7,147	6,560	7,500	8,400	8,739	8,603
Rwanda	..	5,867	7,265	10,410	11,532	12,096	3,205	4,314
South Sudan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Swaziland	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tajikistan	7,210	5,710	7,320	6,530	6,263	7,985	6,884	6,472
TFYR Macedonia	2,263	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Turkmenistan	24,460	3,221	1,618	1,441	12,871	6,068	8,549	12,890
Uganda	263	6,290	4,879	5,990	8,616	6,864	2,332	3,828
Uzbekistan	22,325	22,924	23,773	24,328	23,962	23,149	22,579	21,486
Zambia	5,214	9,730	11,497	8,288	7,997	8,050	10,049	10,017
Zimbabwe	3,950	7,077	10,021	11,560	27,684	3,730	4,145	4,231
Total, LLDCs	**206,754**	**328,385**	**364,084**	**362,583**	**405,046**	**401,328**	**386,652**	**413,833**
World	**21,282,617**	**29,637,930**	**30,564,978**	**30,771,385**	**31,464,399**	**32,339,782**	**33,271,775**	**34,484,948**

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

Table 2.4: Passenger and freight volumes, by mode of transport

COUNTRY NAME	Air transport		Rail transport		Road transport	
	Freight volume (millions of tonne kilometres)	Passenger volume (millions)	Freight volume (millions of tonne kilometres)	Passenger volume (millions of passenger kilometres)	Freight volume (millions of tonne kilometres)	Passenger volume (millions of passenger kilometres)
	2015	2015	2015	2015	2015	2015
Afghanistan	33.10	1.93	952	..	6,991	5,066
Armenia	..	..	807	44	559	3,129
Azerbaijan	41.95	1.80	9,407	490	12,157	45,708
Bhutan	0.54	0.16	337	..	956	1,828
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	9.46	2.58	2,162	291	19,238	19,906
Botswana	0.09	0.19	773	250	2,133	29,312
Burkina Faso	0.06	0.12	176	..	2,038	6,038
Burundi	..	..	40	..	461	1,993
Central African Republic	..	..	12	..	148	1,112
Chad	..	..	185	..	2,088	5,351
Ethiopia	1,228.74	7.07	1,225	..	11,958	28,512
Kazakhstan	37.67	5.08	253,683	16,932	15,978	83,813
Kyrgyzstan	0.07	0.63	978	73	1,316	1,531
Lao People's Democratic Republic	1.36	1.18	..	..	547	3,467
Lesotho	..	..	2	..	17	911
Malawi	0.01	0.01	80	..	88	4,530
Mali	..	..	191	..	2,227	4,926
Mongolia	7.13	0.54	30,808	1,357	12,215	5,164
Nepal	4.54	0.51	5,239	..	16,225	6,552
Niger	..	0.02	104	..	1,124	4,231
Paraguay	1.64	0.45	..	..	11,938	14,559
Republic of Moldova	0.49	1.01	1,175	181	4,280	4,804
Rwanda	21.38	0.65	109	..	1,208	4,015
Swaziland	..	..	701	..	8	707
Tajikistan	0.11	0.80	1,635	23	822	2,104
TFYR Macedonia	..	..	425	178	10,996	9,263
Turkmenistan	0.00	2.14	19,209	1,757	4,368	18,647
Uganda		0.04	397	..	4,650	13,753
Uzbekistan	114.33	2.49	30,840	3,334	11,801	12,750
Zambia	79.09	0.01	713	..	3,726	6,529
Zimbabwe	0.96	0.37	2,400	..	444	2,452
LLDCs	**1,582.74**	**29.78**	**364,765**	**24,910**	**162,705**	**352,663**
World	**188,596.02**	**3,499.47**	**12,676,218**	**3,701,631**	**19,724,755**	**39,369,083**

Source: United Nations SDG Indicators Database

Table 2.5: Total official international support (official development assistance plus other official flows) to infrastructure

COUNTRY NAME	Total official flows (gross disbursements) for infrastructure (Millions of constant 2015 United States dollars)			
	2000	2005	2010	2015
Afghanistan	0.4	800.3	1,212.5	521.5
Armenia	130.3	25.9	213.8	355.2
Azerbaijan	23.4	36.1	201.4	321.3
Bhutan	29.8	22.6	86.0	50.5
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	38.9	45.0	99.4	167.9
Botswana	0.5	1.8	19.9	0.0
Burkina Faso	89.2	61.5	119.4	177.8
Burundi	0.1	8.6	75.0	41.9
Central African Republic	32.4	4.2	25.5	10.4
Chad	168.4	63.5	5.9	58.4
Ethiopia	175.8	271.4	339.0	400.6
Kazakhstan	224.2	80.6	1,094.4	588.4
Kyrgyzstan	89.8	26.2	62.4	138.7
Lao People's Democratic Republic	69.8	55.3	96.7	142.0
Lesotho	5.3	7.6	23.6	9.0
Malawi	55.1	45.5	70.7	108.1
Mali	127.7	104.2	125.3	122.5
Mongolia	110.7	38.3	87.0	177.1
Nepal	110.4	106.4	173.8	289.1
Niger	57.2	19.8	52.9	48.8
Paraguay	87.9	4.2	110.1	130.7
Republic of Moldova	37.0	29.4	101.7	96.1
Rwanda	2.2	59.2	80.3	136.5
South Sudan	..	..	..	59.2
Swaziland	1.3	40.6	0.8	12.4
Tajikistan	16.1	19.7	117.0	191.6
TFYR Macedonia	62.9	33.3	62.9	201.9
Turkmenistan	1.8	0.8	1.5	12.4
Uganda	153.8	93.7	320.5	301.7
Uzbekistan	45.7	24.8	81.4	525.8
Zambia	99.7	84.3	64.1	237.0
Zimbabwe	5.1	1.2	21.8	6.8
LLDCs	**2,052.7**	**2,216.0**	**5,146.5**	**5,640.8**
Total Flows	**22,016.0**	**16,259.8**	**43,154.2**	**56,929.7**

Source: United Nations SDG indicators database
**Based on commitments*

Table 2.6: Select Energy Indicators

COUNTRY NAME	Proportion of population with access to electricity (%)				Power outages in firms in a typical month (number)		Electric power consumption (kWh per capita)				
	2000	2005	2010	2014	Latest data	Year	2000	2005	2010	2012	2014
Afghanistan	0.2	23.0	42.7	89.5	11.5	2014	..	..	..	..	..
Armenia	98.9	99.8	99.8	100.0	0.3	2013	1,298	1,522	1,726	1,894	1,966
Azerbaijan	98.0	99.7	100.0	100.0	0.6	2013	2,040	2,388	1,603	2,053	2,202
Bhutan	32.1	59.8	82.4	100.0	0.4	2015	..	..	..	..	..
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	70.0	68.3	84.5	90.0	1.2	2010	420	482	604	663	753
Botswana	27.2	37.5	48.0	56.5	4.1	2010	1,099	1,420	1,540	1,714	1,749
Burkina Faso	9.2	12.1	13.1	19.2	9.8	2009	..	..	..	..	..
Burundi	3.9	4.8	5.3	7.0	16.6	2014	..	..	..	..	..
Central African Republic	6.0	7.9	9.8	12.3	29.0	2011	..	..	..	..	..
Chad	2.9	4.6	6.4	8.0	19.6	2009	..	..	..	..	..
Ethiopia	12.7	14.0	21.9	27.2	8.2	2015	23	33	48	57	70
Kazakhstan	99.0	99.3	99.7	100.0	0.5	2013	3,170	4,012	4,728	5,181	5,600
Kyrgyzstan	99.8	99.6	99.0	99.8	0.9	2013	1,696	1,374	1,372	1,809	1,941
Lao People's Democratic Republic	43.1	57.2	68.0	78.1	0.9	2016	..	..	..	..	..
Lesotho	0.4	8.6	19.0	27.8	2.2	2016	..	..	..	..	..
Malawi	4.8	6.8	8.7	11.9	6.7	2014	..	..	..	..	..
Mali	10.4	16.3	22.3	27.3	4.2	2016	..	..	..	..	..
Mongolia	67.3	86.2	81.9	85.6	1.0	2013	1,054	1,252	1,493	1,594	2,018
Nepal	27.2	47.3	67.5	84.9	8.7	2013	59	77	103	118	139
Niger	8.0	7.1	12.4	14.3	18.5	2009	33	37	44	50	51
Paraguay	88.7	94.7	97.4	99.0	2.7	2010	887	864	1,179	1,368	1,564
Republic of Moldova	98.4	98.6	99.9	100.0	0.3	2013	1,638	2,048	1,723	1,515	1,386
Rwanda	6.2	4.8	9.7	19.8	4.0	2011	..	..	..	..	..
South Sudan		0.4	1.5	4.5	1.5	2014	..	..	..	39	40
Swaziland	22.0	36.4	51.0	65.0	3.7	2016	..	..	..	..	..
Tajikistan	98.4	99.3	99.4	100.0	6.1	2013	2,162	2,129	1,865	1,735	1,480
TFYR Macedonia	95.8	98.5	100.0	100.0	1.2	2013	2,896	3,374	3,574	3,681	3,497
Turkmenistan	99.6	99.7	100.0	100.0	..		1,692	2,052	2,382	2,429	2,679
Uganda	8.4	8.9	13.2	20.4	6.3	2013	..	..	..	..	..
Uzbekistan	99.8	100.0	100.0	100.0	5.7	2013	1,780	1,717	1,653	1,611	1,645
Zambia	16.7	20.4	22.0	27.9	5.2	2013	591	681	580	721	707
Zimbabwe	33.1	34.3	35.6	32.3	4.5	2016	873	832	547	543	537
Average, LLDCs	**34.9**	**36.9**	**41.9**	**48.5**	**..**		**867**	**916**	**904**	**925**	**962**
World	**77.6**	**80.2**	**83.6**	**85.3**	**6.5**	**2016**	**2,386**	**2,655**	**2,956**	**3,047**	**3,128**

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators, United Nations SDG Indicators database

Table 2.7: Renewable energy

COUNTRY NAME	Renewable energy share in the total final energy consumption (%)						
	2000	2003	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Afghanistan	54.2	41.7	14.8	10.8	14.0	14.3	16.8
Armenia	7.2	9.8	9.4	8.0	6.6	6.8	7.7
Azerbaijan	2.1	2.9	4.5	3.6	2.9	2.5	2.1
Bhutan	91.4	91.9	90.9	89.4	87.9	86.8	86.7
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	27.4	26.1	20.1	19.4	17.9	18.6	16.8
Botswana	36.6	34.2	30.2	30.3	30.3	30.0	29.2
Burkina Faso	85.4	79.1	83.7	80.5	77.6	74.4	76.5
Burundi	93.2	97.0	96.8	96.6	94.0	94.1	90.1
Central African Republic	85.1	85.5	79.8	78.8	78.0	77.5	77.2
Chad	97.2	92.0	90.8	90.6	90.7	89.5	89.2
Ethiopia	96.0	94.8	94.5	94.0	93.8	93.0	92.7
Kazakhstan	2.5	2.3	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.4
Kyrgyzstan	35.2	30.5	25.6	26.0	22.5	24.6	28.3
Lao People's Democratic Republic	87.1	87.0	88.0	87.0	88.3	89.1	90.3
Lesotho	56.7	55.9	53.5	53.1	52.3	52.2	51.8
Malawi	82.5	81.4	79.7	80.0	81.2	80.4	80.6
Mali	85.6	86.8	84.9	84.7	85.1	84.7	83.6
Mongolia	5.7	6.1	4.4	3.9	3.5	3.6	4.0
Nepal	88.3	89.4	87.3	87.0	84.7	86.3	84.4
Niger	87.7	87.1	80.7	77.3	72.7	78.7	78.1
Paraguay	70.4	67.1	64.3	63.1	62.7	63.1	63.1
Republic of Moldova	5.7	5.9	8.4	9.9	10.5	13.1	13.1
Rwanda	86.5	87.3	90.7	89.8	89.0	88.5	88.5
South Sudan	..	..	..	..	30.2	29.7	29.8
Swaziland	48.2	49.8	62.7	61.3	63.0	65.3	63.6
Tajikistan	62.4	64.6	61.8	60.0	56.1	49.6	40.7
TFYR Macedonia	19.4	17.3	22.6	17.9	16.9	18.0	18.3
Turkmenistan	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Uganda	94.5	94.4	92.0	91.5	91.4	90.0	89.2
Uzbekistan	1.2	1.5	2.6	2.3	2.4	2.9	2.9
Zambia	90.0	89.4	92.1	90.9	88.6	88.5	88.1
Zimbabwe	69.3	77.8	82.9	79.6	78.0	79.6	81.1
Average, LLDCs	**43.6**	**43.6**	**43.1**	**41.0**	**40.6**	**41.9**	**43.1**
World	**17.5**	**17.2**	**17.5**	**17.5**	**17.9**	**18.2**	**18.3**

Source: United Nations SDG Indicators Database

Table 2.8: Access to Internet

COUNTRY NAME	Fixed broadband subscriptions per 100 inhabitants						Internet users (% of population)					
	2003	2010	2013	2014	2015	2016	2003	2010	2013	2014	2015	2016
Afghanistan	..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	4.0	5.9	7.0	8.3	10.6
Armenia	0.0	3.2	8.2	9.1	9.6	10.1	4.6	25.0	41.9	54.6	59.1	62.0
Azerbaijan	..	5.2	18.2	19.9	19.8	18.6	..	46.0	73.0	75.0	77.0	78.2
Bhutan	..	1.2	2.7	3.3	3.6	3.9	2.4	13.6	22.4	30.3	39.8	41.8
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	0.1	0.9	1.4	1.6	1.6	2.6	3.5	22.4	37.0	34.6	35.6	39.7
Botswana	..	0.6	1.1	1.6	1.8	2.8	3.3	6.0	30.0	36.7	37.3	39.4
Burkina Faso	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	2.4	9.1	9.4	11.4	14.0
Burundi	..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	1.0	1.3	1.4	4.9	5.2
Central African Republic	..	..	..	..	0.0	0.0	0.2	2.0	3.4	3.6	3.8	4.0
Chad	..	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	1.7	2.5	2.9	3.5	5.0
Ethiopia	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.1	0.8	4.6	7.7	11.6	15.4
Kazakhstan	0.0	5.5	11.9	12.9	13.7	13.7	2.0	31.6	63.0	66.0	72.9	76.8
Kyrgyzstan	0.0	0.4	2.5	3.0	3.7	4.1	3.9	16.3	23.0	28.3	30.2	34.5
Lao People's Democratic Republic	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.3	7.0	12.5	14.3	18.2	21.9
Lesotho	..	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.5	3.9	15.0	22.0	25.0	27.4
Malawi	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.3	2.3	5.1	5.8	9.3	9.6
Mali	..	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	2.0	3.5	7.0	10.3	11.1
Mongolia	0.0	2.8	4.9	6.8	7.1	7.6	..	10.2	17.7	19.9	21.4	22.3
Nepal	..	0.2	1.1	0.9	1.1	0.8	0.4	7.9	13.3	15.4	17.6	19.7
Niger	..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.8	1.7	2.0	2.5	4.3
Paraguay	0.0	1.4	2.3	2.7	3.1	3.4	2.1	19.8	36.9	43.0	48.4	51.3
Republic of Moldova	0.0	7.6	13.5	14.7	15.5	16.3	7.4	32.3	45.0	46.6	63.3	71.0
Rwanda	..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.4	8.0	9.0	10.6	18.0	20.0
South Sudan	..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	..	..	3.8	4.5	5.5	6.7
Swaziland	..	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	2.4	11.0	24.7	26.2	25.6	28.6
Tajikistan	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	11.6	16.0	17.5	19.0	20.5
TFYR Macedonia	..	12.3	16.1	16.8	17.2	17.9	19.1	51.9	65.2	68.1	70.4	72.2
Turkmenistan	..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.4	3.0	9.6	12.2	15.0	18.0
Uganda	..	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.5	12.5	15.5	16.9	17.8	21.9
Uzbekistan	0.0	0.4	1.1	2.8	6.0	9.1	1.9	15.9	26.8	35.5	42.8	46.8
Zambia	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	1.0	10.0	15.4	19.0	21.0	25.5
Zimbabwe	0.1	0.3	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.8	6.4	15.5	16.4	22.7	23.1
Total, LLDCs	**0.0**	**0.6**	**1.4**	**1.7**	**2.0**	**2.1**	**0.9**	**8.5**	**14.8**	**17.2**	**20.3**	**22.9**
Total, Transit Countries	**0.4**	**4.3**	**6.3**	**6.7**	**8.6**	**9.8**	**4.6**	**20.1**	**28.6**	**32.4**	**35.8**	**38.9**
World	**1.6**	**7.6**	**9.7**	**10.1**	**11.5**	**12.4**	**12.3**	**28.9**	**36.9**	**39.9**	**43.2**	**45.9**

Source: ITU

Table 2.9: Mobile cellular subscriptions

COUNTRY NAME	Mobile-cellular subscriptions per 100 inhabitants					
	2003	2010	2013	2014	2015	2016
Afghanistan	0.9	36.0	55.0	58.8	61.6	66.0
Armenia	3.8	130.4	112.4	115.9	115.9	114.8
Azerbaijan	12.6	100.1	107.6	110.9	111.3	106.3
Bhutan	0.4	55.0	72.2	81.6	87.0	88.8
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	14.2	70.7	97.7	96.3	92.2	90.7
Botswana	24.3	120.0	160.6	167.3	169.0	158.5
Burkina Faso	1.9	36.7	66.4	71.7	80.6	83.6
Burundi	0.9	18.2	25.0	30.5	46.2	48.0
Central African Republic	1.0	22.5	29.5	24.5	25.9	25.5
Chad	0.7	24.5	35.6	39.8	40.2	44.5
Ethiopia	0.1	7.9	27.3	31.6	42.8	50.5
Kazakhstan	9.0	121.9	184.7	172.2	156.9	150.0
Kyrgyzstan	2.8	98.9	121.4	134.5	132.8	131.4
Lao People's Democratic Republic	2.0	62.6	68.1	67.0	53.1	55.4
Lesotho	6.6	49.2	86.3	102.0	100.9	106.6
Malawi	1.1	20.8	32.3	33.5	37.9	40.3
Mali	2.2	53.2	129.1	149.1	139.6	120.3
Mongolia	12.9	92.5	101.4	105.1	105.0	113.6
Nepal	0.3	34.3	76.8	81.9	96.7	111.7
Niger	0.7	23.1	39.3	44.4	46.5	48.9
Paraguay	31.2	91.7	103.7	105.6	105.4	104.8
Republic of Moldova	12.2	71.4	106.0	108.0	108.0	111.0
Rwanda	1.4	32.7	56.8	64.0	70.5	69.9
South Sudan	..	14.4	25.3	24.5	23.9	21.5
Swaziland	7.8	60.8	71.5	72.3	73.2	76.4
Tajikistan	0.7	77.9	91.8	95.1	98.6	106.7
TFYR Macedonia	37.3	102.4	106.2	105.5	98.8	100.7
Turkmenistan	0.2	63.4	116.9	135.8	145.9	157.7
Uganda	2.9	37.7	48.1	52.4	50.4	55.1
Uzbekistan	1.3	75.5	74.3	73.8	73.3	77.3
Zambia	2.2	41.2	71.5	67.3	74.5	74.9
Zimbabwe	2.9	58.9	96.3	80.8	84.8	83.2
Total, LLDCs	**3.2**	**42.6**	**64.3**	**67.0**	**70.5**	**73.5**
Total, Transit Countries	**12.2**	**65.9**	**84.6**	**89.0**	**90.1**	**94.1**
World	**22.2**	**76.6**	**93.1**	**96.7**	**98.2**	**101.5**

Source: ITU

INDICATORS FOR PRIORITY 3 – INTERNATIONAL TRADE AND TRADE FACILITATION

Table 3.1: International Trade – Merchandise Exports

COUNTRY NAME	Total Merchandise Exports (US$ millions)								
	1995	2000	2003	2008	2010	2013	2014	2015	2016
Afghanistan	166	137	144	540	388	515	571	571	520
Armenia	271	294	686	1,057	1,011	1,480	1,519	1,487	1,783
Azerbaijan	635	1,745	2,592	30,586	26,476	31,703	28,260	15,586	10,900
Bhutan	103	103	133	521	641	544	583	549	470
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	1,101	1,230	1,597	6,525	6,402	11,657	12,300	8,299	6,969
Botswana	2,142	2,675	2,810	4,951	4,693	7,911	8,513	6,321	7,365
Burkina Faso	276	209	321	693	1,591	2,356	2,453	2,176	2,400
Burundi	106	50	38	57	101	94	132	121	120
Central African Republic	171	161	128	150	140	116	96	85	93
Chad	243	183	601	4,169	3,600	3,800	3,800	2,600	1,600
Ethiopia	423	486	496	1,602	2,330	4,077	5,667	5,028	4,612
Kazakhstan	5,250	8,812	12,927	71,172	59,971	84,700	79,460	45,956	36,776
Kyrgyzstan	409	511	582	1,856	1,756	2,058	1,897	1,470	1,545
Lao People's Democratic Republic	311	330	335	1,092	1,746	2,264	2,662	2,769	3,020
Lesotho	160	221	476	884	878	847	826	844	911
Malawi	405	379	525	879	1,066	1,208	1,342	1,080	1,017
Mali	441	545	928	2,097	1,996	2,339	2,779	2,717	2,538
Mongolia	473	536	616	2,539	2,899	4,269	5,774	4,669	4,917
Nepal	345	804	662	939	856	879	889	721	740
Niger	288	283	352	910	1,150	1,600	1,450	1,100	1,050
Paraguay	2,019	2,200	2,585	6,407	6,505	9,456	9,636	8,361	8,494
Republic of Moldova	745	472	790	1,591	1,541	2,428	2,340	1,967	2,045
Rwanda	52	53	63	268	297	703	723	684	744
South Sudan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Swaziland	866	914	1,638	1,700	1,800	1,895	1,902	1,730	1,433
Tajikistan	750	785	797	1,409	1,195	1,162	977	891	900
TFYR Macedonia	1,204	1,323	1,367	3,991	3,351	4,299	4,964	4,490	4,787
Turkmenistan	1,880	2,506	3,632	11,945	6,500	16,800	17,500	14,000	11,000
Uganda	460	403	532	1,724	1,619	2,408	2,262	2,267	2,543
Uzbekistan	3,430	2,817	3,189	10,298	11,695	12,000	11,500	10,000	10,000
Zambia	1,032	892	980	5,099	7,200	10,594	9,688	6,983	5,801
Zimbabwe	2,121	1,925	1,670	2,200	3,199	3,507	3,064	2,703	2,832
Total, LLDCs	**28,279**	**33,984**	**44,190**	**179,851**	**164,596**	**229,668**	**225,528**	**158,226**	**139,925**
Total, Transit Countries	**455,198**	**655,753**	**952,055**	**2,884,024**	**3,057,220**	**4,033,315**	**4,156,047**	**3,809,726**	**3,606,350**
World	**5,176,236**	**6,452,318**	**7,589,983**	**16,148,864**	**15,302,138**	**18,953,465**	**19,006,231**	**16,490,373**	**15,956,403**

Source: UNCTAD
Numbers in Italic are estimated.

Table 3.2: International Trade – Merchandise Imports

COUNTRY NAME	Total Merchandise Imports (US$ millions)								
	1995	2000	2003	2008	2010	2013	2014	2015	2016
Afghanistan	387	1,176	2,101	3,020	5,154	8,554	7,697	7,723	9,150
Armenia	674	882	1,280	4,426	3,783	4,477	4,401	3,254	3,293
Azerbaijan	668	1,172	2,626	7,574	6,746	10,321	9,332	9,774	9,200
Bhutan	112	175	249	543	854	909	932	1,061	1,030
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	1,424	1,830	1,616	5,081	5,590	9,338	10,519	9,602	8,374
Botswana	1,911	2,081	2,448	5,211	5,657	8,352	8,074	7,247	6,120
Burkina Faso	455	611	925	2,018	2,048	4,365	3,581	2,989	3,171
Burundi	234	148	157	403	509	811	769	857	755
Central African Republic	174	117	118	300	300	213	406	346	382
Chad	365	317	790	2,000	2,400	3,000	3,100	2,600	2,200
Ethiopia	1,145	1,260	2,686	8,277	8,602	12,224	15,551	16,914	16,588
Kazakhstan	3,807	5,040	8,409	37,889	31,107	48,806	41,296	30,568	25,175
Kyrgyzstan	522	558	717	4,072	3,223	6,070	5,732	4,070	3,919
Lao People's Democratic Republic	589	535	462	1,403	2,060	3,081	4,271	5,233	4,720
Lesotho	1,107	809	1,121	1,800	2,300	2,175	2,144	2,018	1,827
Malawi	475	532	786	2,204	2,173	2,845	2,774	2,312	2,425
Mali	772	806	1,271	3,339	3,428	3,807	3,914	3,800	3,509
Mongolia	415	615	801	3,616	3,278	6,358	5,237	3,798	3,358
Nepal	1,333	1,573	1,754	3,590	5,133	6,571	7,561	6,652	9,650
Niger	374	395	622	1,696	2,476	2,020	2,190	1,980	1,650
Paraguay	3,144	2,260	2,228	9,033	10,033	12,142	12,169	10,291	9,753
Republic of Moldova	840	777	1,399	4,899	3,855	5,492	5,317	3,987	4,020
Rwanda	238	213	259	1,174	1,431	2,302	2,468	2,378	2,293
South Sudan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Swaziland	1,008	1,052	1,519	1,600	1,960	1,693	1,690	1,390	1,337
Tajikistan	810	675	881	3,273	2,657	4,151	4,297	3,436	3,100
TFYR Macedonia	1,719	2,094	2,306	6,883	5,474	6,620	7,301	6,400	6,757
Turkmenistan	1,365	1,786	2,512	5,600	5,700	10,000	10,000	8,000	7,000
Uganda	1,056	1,536	1,375	4,526	4,664	5,818	6,074	5,528	5,099
Uzbekistan	2,750	2,697	2,662	9,277	8,689	13,138	13,000	11,500	11,500
Zambia	692	888	1,574	5,060	5,321	10,162	9,539	8,420	7,045
Zimbabwe	2,651	1,863	1,710	2,950	3,800	4,300	4,200	4,000	3,700
Total, LLDCs	**33,216**	**36,473**	**49,362**	**152,737**	**150,406**	**220,112**	**215,536**	**188,126**	**178,101**
Total, Transit Countries	**485,318**	**629,698**	**897,357**	**2,672,626**	**2,957,105**	**4,032,885**	**4,015,384**	**3,470,369**	**3,255,944**
World	**5,234,375**	**6,654,569**	**7,779,532**	**16,467,643**	**15,420,513**	**18,933,692**	**19,004,926**	**16,667,840**	**16,141,460**

Source: UNCTAD
Numbers in Italic are estimated.

Table 3.3: Participation in Global Trade

COUNTRY NAME	Share of Merchandise Exports in Global Trade (%)					Share of Merchandise Imports in Global Trade (%)				
	1990-2002	2003-2013	2014	2015	2016	1990-2002	2003-2013	2014	2015	2016
Afghanistan	0.004	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.017	0.031	0.041	0.046	0.057
Armenia	0.004	0.007	0.008	0.009	0.011	0.012	0.022	0.023	0.020	0.020
Azerbaijan	0.020	0.147	0.149	0.095	0.068	0.017	0.047	0.049	0.059	0.057
Bhutan	0.002	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.004	0.005	0.006	0.006
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	0.021	0.042	0.065	0.050	0.044	0.029	0.034	0.055	0.058	0.052
Botswana	0.044	0.035	0.045	0.038	0.046	0.038	0.036	0.042	0.043	0.038
Burkina Faso	0.004	0.008	0.013	0.013	0.015	0.011	0.014	0.019	0.018	0.020
Burundi	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.003	0.003	0.004	0.005	0.005
Central African Republic	0.003	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.003	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002
Chad	0.004	0.024	0.020	0.016	0.010	0.008	0.014	0.016	0.016	0.014
Ethiopia	0.007	0.013	0.030	0.030	0.029	0.021	0.050	0.082	0.101	0.103
Kazakhstan	0.100	0.376	0.418	0.279	0.230	0.074	0.209	0.217	0.183	0.156
Kyrgyzstan	0.008	0.010	0.010	0.009	0.010	0.009	0.022	0.030	0.024	0.024
Lao People's Democratic Republic	0.005	0.009	0.014	0.017	0.019	0.009	0.011	0.022	0.031	0.029
Lesotho	0.003	0.006	0.004	0.005	0.006	0.017	0.013	0.011	0.012	0.011
Malawi	0.008	0.007	0.007	0.007	0.006	0.012	0.013	0.015	0.014	0.015
Mali	0.010	0.013	0.015	0.016	0.016	0.014	0.018	0.021	0.023	0.022
Mongolia	0.009	0.017	0.030	0.028	0.031	0.010	0.023	0.028	0.023	0.021
Nepal	0.009	0.006	0.005	0.004	0.005	0.024	0.028	0.040	0.040	0.060
Niger	0.006	0.006	0.008	0.007	0.007	0.008	0.011	0.012	0.012	0.010
Paraguay	0.035	0.039	0.051	0.051	0.053	0.043	0.053	0.064	0.062	0.060
Republic of Moldova	0.010	0.011	0.012	0.012	0.013	0.014	0.026	0.028	0.024	0.025
Rwanda	0.001	0.002	0.004	0.004	0.005	0.005	0.008	0.013	0.014	0.014
South Sudan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Swaziland	0.017	0.013	0.010	0.010	0.009	0.018	0.013	0.009	0.008	0.008
Tajikistan	0.010	0.008	0.005	0.005	0.006	0.010	0.018	0.023	0.021	0.019
TFYR Macedonia	0.020	0.022	0.026	0.027	0.030	0.028	0.036	0.038	0.038	0.042
Turkmenistan	0.028	0.064	0.092	0.085	0.069	0.022	0.039	0.053	0.048	0.043
Uganda	0.008	0.011	0.012	0.014	0.016	0.019	0.027	0.032	0.033	0.032
Uzbekistan	0.053	0.062	0.061	0.061	0.063	0.051	0.054	0.068	0.069	0.071
Zambia	0.020	0.038	0.051	0.042	0.036	0.018	0.035	0.050	0.051	0.044
Zimbabwe	0.037	0.019	0.016	0.016	0.018	0.045	0.022	0.022	0.024	0.023
Total, LLDCs	**0.512**	**1.022**	**1.187**	**0.960**	**0.877**	**0.613**	**0.935**	**1.134**	**1.129**	**1.103**
Total, Transit Countries	**9.395**	**18.359**	**21.867**	**23.103**	**22.601**	**9.155**	**17.312**	**21.128**	**20.821**	**20.171**
World	**6.136**	**8.997**	**9.543**	**9.316**	**9.452**	**6.320**	**9.302**	**10.819**	**10.744**	**10.337**

Source: UNCTAD

Table 3.4: International Trade – Size of Exports and Imports as Percentages of Country's Economy

COUNTRY NAME	Exports of Goods and Services (percentage of GDP)					Imports of Goods and Services (percentage of GDP)				
	2005	2010	2013	2014	2015	2005	2010	2013	2014	2015
Afghanistan	..	15.6	7.1	8.8	7.4	..	37.7	43.9	40.7	50.1
Armenia	29.8	23.9	30.2	30.5	31.0	45.7	49.0	51.4	50.2	43.0
Azerbaijan	61.5	53.4	48.4	43.3	33.0	51.4	19.3	26.3	26.2	30.4
Bhutan	31.1	37.2	37.5	33.5	33.8	66.3	59.0	61.8	56.9	56.7
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	34.3	34.8	41.6	40.9	27.1	30.0	31.3	36.1	39.4	31.5
Botswana	53.1	43.6	61.2	62.4	52.0	34.6	51.3	60.7	55.4	53.9
Burkina Faso	10.0	21.0	26.1	25.1	..	25.5	28.5	39.2	33.9	..
Burundi	8.6	8.9	8.8	7.2	..	28.9	29.9	36.1	32.1	..
Central African Republic	12.2	11.5	13.8	..	..	19.8	25.9	24.1	..	..
Chad	47.7	..	..	..	..	37.7	..	..	..	..
Ethiopia	15.9	17.7	13.2	11.9	10.4	40.2	37.7	30.4	33.6	35.8
Kazakhstan	53.2	44.2	39.1	39.5	28.1	44.6	29.9	27.2	26.0	24.6
Kyrgyzstan	38.5	49.6	42.3	36.3	36.1	56.7	78.9	91.7	86.9	67.8
Lao People's Democratic Republic	27.9	33.5	28.3	29.2	27.7	33.9	34.5	33.0	40.5	33.5
Lesotho	48.8	42.2	41.2	41.2	..	121.1	110.4	105.7	105.3	..
Malawi	16.6	17.6	27.0	28.5	24.8	35.8	38.0	57.4	52.7	43.6
Mali	25.1	25.9	30.2	27.0	..	33.4	39.8	48.2	45.6	..
Mongolia	50.7	47.2	39.6	52.6	47.0	53.8	53.8	60.5	57.3	40.8
Nepal	15.5	9.7	12.0	12.1	11.7	32.8	36.1	41.3	44.1	39.1
Niger	16.8	22.2	22.6	21.2	..	31.1	49.1	39.0	39.6	..
Paraguay	58.5	55.3	49.7	44.8	40.2	46.1	51.3	44.7	42.1	39.9
Republic of Moldova	44.6	33.7	38.0	36.9	38.4	85.1	72.3	75.5	73.8	68.5
Rwanda	9.5	10.9	17.1	15.7	15.2	25.2	28.9	37.0	35.0	33.6
South Sudan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Swaziland	56.4	45.4	45.2	46.7	49.9	68.2	57.7	51.7	52.1	48.8
Tajikistan	54.2	15.7	16.1	9.0	8.7	72.8	59.6	65.9	44.8	36.1
TFYR Macedonia	33.4	38.3	43.3	47.5	50.0	50.9	58.1	61.6	65.1	66.8
Turkmenistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Uganda	14.0	17.6	20.9	17.2	20.2	21.4	31.4	30.4	28.5	31.1
Uzbekistan	37.6	32.9	..	..	..	28.4	23.2	..	..	..
Zambia	33.9	39.7	43.3	41.1	..	30.9	27.6	41.1	38.0	..
Zimbabwe	33.5	28.8	..	..	..	42.5	55.5	..	..	..
Total, LLDCs	**40.0**	**38.1**	**36.6**	**35.5**	**28.5**	**41.1**	**35.5**	**36.4**	**35.6**	**33.4**
World	**27.1**	**28.7**	**30.7**	**30.5**	**28.0**	**26.7**	**28.0**	**29.7**	**29.6**	**27.5**

Source: UNCTAD

Table 3.5: International Trade – Size of Total Trade as a part of a Country's Economy

COUNTRY NAME	Total Trade (percentage of GDP)										
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Afghanistan	..	..	..	51.9	52.3	53.3	57.1	57.3	51.0	49.5	57.5
Armenia	75.5	67.8	63.5	60.2	63.4	72.9	75.5	80.8	81.6	80.7	74.0
Azerbaijan	112.9	103.0	95.7	88.2	73.5	72.7	80.0	77.6	74.7	69.5	63.4
Bhutan	97.3	96.1	102.3	112.8	99.3	96.2	112.6	106.3	99.3	90.5	90.6
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	64.3	68.2	69.3	76.8	61.0	66.1	74.7	81.9	77.7	80.3	58.6
Botswana	87.8	85.4	98.2	96.7	93.7	94.9	101.4	106.5	121.9	117.8	105.9
Burkina Faso	35.5	36.4	36.1	39.9	35.8	49.5	59.0	64.2	65.3	59.0	..
Burundi	37.5	42.4	38.8	46.4	35.9	38.8	44.8	49.4	44.9	39.2	..
Central African Republic	32.0	34.6	36.3	33.6	30.3	37.4	36.7	35.5	37.9	..	..
Chad	85.4	94.1	88.3	80.5	78.0	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ethiopia	56.1	49.9	50.3	51.1	44.2	55.3	57.3	47.7	43.6	45.5	46.2
Kazakhstan	97.8	91.7	92.3	94.3	75.5	74.1	74.9	75.3	66.3	65.6	52.7
Kyrgyzstan	95.2	124.8	137.8	142.9	125.6	128.5	129.5	142.5	133.9	123.2	103.9
Lao People's Democratic Republic	61.8	62.2	54.8	56.8	54.6	67.9	64.0	66.4	61.3	69.7	61.2
Lesotho	169.9	174.5	172.4	175.9	163.0	152.7	153.1	156.1	146.9	146.5	..
Malawi	52.5	52.7	54.5	56.4	56.9	55.5	56.1	68.8	84.4	81.1	68.3
Mali	58.5	65.5	63.8	72.2	55.1	65.8	62.5	70.6	78.4	72.6	..
Mongolia	104.5	98.8	102.0	104.2	92.7	101.0	125.2	108.5	100.1	109.9	87.8
Nepal	48.4	46.4	46.5	52.0	52.1	45.8	45.0	49.0	53.3	56.3	50.8
Niger	47.9	45.9	47.4	55.4	67.2	71.3	68.7	61.2	61.6	60.7	..
Paraguay	104.6	108.4	103.0	104.7	97.0	106.7	103.3	98.7	94.5	86.9	80.1
Republic of Moldova	129.7	124.6	132.0	124.2	99.6	106.0	118.4	115.0	113.5	110.7	106.8
Rwanda	34.7	37.9	36.5	44.0	39.9	39.9	48.6	48.5	54.1	50.7	48.8
South Sudan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Swaziland	124.6	123.8	133.5	119.7	112.6	103.1	101.0	97.2	96.9	98.8	98.6
Tajikistan	127.0	141.2	145.5	114.5	86.0	75.3	82.7	90.6	82.0	53.8	44.9
TFYR Macedonia	84.4	92.1	105.7	111.8	86.5	96.4	111.8	111.4	105.0	112.6	116.8
Turkmenistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Uganda	35.5	39.2	43.0	46.5	45.4	49.0	54.1	51.9	51.3	45.7	51.2
Uzbekistan	66.0	64.3	70.3	71.5	62.7	56.2	55.3	59.8	..	..	..
Zambia	64.8	60.3	68.8	61.5	58.6	67.4	71.5	79.3	84.3	79.0	..
Zimbabwe	76.0	82.8	84.2	109.5	71.2	84.4	89.4	80.2	..	..	..
LLDCs	**81.1**	**80.5**	**82.0**	**82.7**	**71.1**	**73.7**	**76.9**	**76.4**	**73.1**	**71.1**	**61.9**
World	**53.9**	**57.1**	**58.9**	**61.8**	**52.1**	**56.7**	**60.7**	**60.4**	**60.4**	**60.1**	**55.5**

Source: UNCTAD

Table 3.6: Trading Across Borders (Doing Business) - Cost of Trade

COUNTRY NAME	Cost to Export (US$ per container)				Cost to Import (US$ per container)			
	2005	2010	2013	2014	2005	2010	2013	2014
Afghanistan	2,180	3,545	4,645	5,045	2,100	3,830	5,180	5,680
Armenia	1,670	1,735	1,885	1,885	1,860	2,025	2,175	2,175
Azerbaijan	3,155	3,420	3,540	3,460	2,945	3,480	3,560	3,450
Bhutan	1,150	2,230	2,230	2,230	1,780	2,505	2,330	2,330
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	1,425	1,425	1,440	1,440	1,452	1,747	1,745	1,745
Botswana	2,088	2,770	3,045	3,145	2,595	3,390	3,610	3,710
Burkina Faso	2,226	2,412	2,455	2,305	3,822	4,130	4,530	4,330
Burundi	2,287	2,687	2,905	2,905	4,035	3,950	4,420	4,420
Central African Republic	4,581	5,491	5,490	5,490	4,534	5,734	5,735	6,335
Chad	4,867	5,902	6,615	6,615	5,715	8,525	9,025	9,025
Ethiopia	2,037	2,180	2,180	2,380	2,790	2,660	2,760	2,960
Kazakhstan	2,730	3,005	4,885	5,285	2,780	3,055	4,865	5,265
Kyrgyzstan	2,500	3,010	4,360	4,760	2,450	3,280	5,150	6,000
Lao People's Democratic Republic	1,420	1,860	1,950	1,950	1,690	2,040	1,910	1,910
Lesotho	1,188	1,680	1,695	1,795	1,210	1,610	1,945	2,045
Malawi	1,623	1,713	2,200	2,200	2,500	2,570	2,895	2,895
Mali	1,752	2,202	2,440	2,440	2,875	3,262	4,540	4,540
Mongolia	1,807	2,131	2,745	2,745	2,274	2,274	2,950	2,950
Nepal	1,600	1,960	2,295	2,545	1,725	2,095	2,400	2,650
Niger	2,743	3,343	4,475	4,475	2,946	3,333	4,500	4,500
Paraguay	1,220	1,440	1,850	1,850	1,400	1,750	2,275	2,275
Republic of Moldova	1,415	1,765	1,545	1,510	1,740	2,090	1,870	1,870
Rwanda	3,840	3,275	3,245	3,245	4,000	4,990	4,990	4,990
South Sudan	..	..	5,335	5,335	..	..	9,285	9,285
Swaziland	1,798	1,754	1,880	1,980	1,820	1,849	2,145	2,245
Tajikistan	3,200	3,350	8,650	9,050	4,500	4,550	10,250	10,650
TFYR Macedonia	1,130	1,376	1,376	1,376	1,130	1,380	1,380	1,380
Turkmenistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Uganda	1,050	2,780	2,800	2,800	2,945	2,940	3,375	3,375
Uzbekistan	3,685	4,285	4,785	5,090	4,167	4,767	5,352	6,452
Zambia	2,098	4,364	4,465	5,165	2,840	6,115	6,360	7,060
Zimbabwe	1,879	3,280	3,765	4,265	2,420	5,101	5,660	6,160
Simple average, LLDCs	**2,211**	**2,746**	**3,328**	**3,444**	**2,701**	**3,368**	**4,167**	**4,344**
Simple average, transit countries	**1.024**	**1,220**	**1,309**	**1,301**	**1,298**	**1,504**	**1,619**	**1,599**

Source: World Bank Doing Business

LLDCs Global Report 2017

Table 3.7: Trading Across Borders (Doing Business) – Number of Documents Required to Export and Import

COUNTRY NAME	Documents to Export (number)				Documents to Import (number)			
	2005	2010	2013	2014	2005	2010	2013	2014
Afghanistan	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Armenia	6	5	5	5	6	8	8	8
Azerbaijan	9	9	9	9	11	11	11	11
Bhutan	9	9	9	9	11	11	11	11
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	7	7	7	7	6	6	6	6
Botswana	6	6	6	6	7	7	6	6
Burkina Faso	11	10	10	10	13	12	12	12
Burundi	9	9	9	9	10	10	9	9
Central African Republic	8	9	9	9	17	17	17	17
Chad	7	7	8	8	10	10	11	11
Ethiopia	8	8	8	8	11	11	11	11
Kazakhstan	11	10	10	10	13	12	12	12
Kyrgyzstan	15	9	9	9	17	11	11	11
Lao People's Democratic Republic	12	10	10	10	15	10	10	10
Lesotho	8	8	7	7	8	8	7	7
Malawi	11	10	11	11	11	11	12	12
Mali	7	6	6	6	12	11	11	11
Mongolia	11	11	11	11	12	12	12	12
Nepal	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
Niger	8	8	8	8	10	10	10	10
Paraguay	7	7	7	7	9	9	9	9
Republic of Moldova	9	9	9	9	11	11	11	11
Rwanda	13	7	7	7	21	9	9	9
South Sudan	..	..	10	10	..	..	12	12
Swaziland	8	8	7	7	7	7	6	6
Tajikistan	11	11	11	11	13	12	12	12
TFYR Macedonia	7	6	6	6	9	8	8	8
Turkmenistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Uganda	12	7	7	7	20	10	10	10
Uzbekistan	13	13	12	11	15	15	14	13
Zambia	7	7	7	7	9	8	8	8
Zimbabwe	7	7	7	7	9	9	8	8
Simple average, LLDCs	**9.3**	**8.5**	**8.5**	**8.5**	**11.5**	**10.2**	**10.2**	**10.1**
Simple average, transit countries	**7.8**	**7.1**	**7.1**	**7.1**	**9.8**	**8.4**	**8.4**	**8.4**

Source: World Bank Doing Business

Table 3.8: Trading Across Borders (Doing Business) - Time to Trade

COUNTRY NAME	Time to Export (days)				Time to Import (days)			
	2005	2010	2013	2014	2005	2010	2013	2014
Afghanistan	67	74	81	86	80	77	85	91
Armenia	37	16	16	16	37	18	18	18
Azerbaijan	34	29	28	27	36	26	25	25
Bhutan	38	38	38	38	37	37	37	37
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	24	19	21	22	36	23	24	28
Botswana	33	28	27	27	43	41	35	35
Burkina Faso	45	41	41	41	54	49	49	49
Burundi	47	41	32	..	71	60	46	..
Central African Republic	57	54	46	46	66	62	55	68
Chad	78	75	73	70	102	101	98	90
Ethiopia	47	45	44	44	41	44	44	44
Kazakhstan	89	76	81	79	76	62	69	67
Kyrgyzstan	64	63	63	63	75	72	75	73
Lao People's Democratic Republic	55	36	23	23	65	37	26	26
Lesotho	44	31	31	31	49	35	33	33
Malawi	45	41	34	34	54	51	39	39
Mali	44	26	26	26	69	35	35	34
Mongolia	44	41	44	44	44	42	45	45
Nepal	43	41	42	40	35	35	39	39
Niger	59	59	57	56	66	66	62	61
Paraguay	36	34	29	29	33	33	30	30
Republic of Moldova	23	23	23	23	31	29	29	27
Rwanda	60	35	26	..	95	34	30	..
South Sudan	..	..	55	55	..	..	130	130
Swaziland	21	18	17	17	30	25	23	23
Tajikistan	71	71	71	71	65	65	72	70
TFYR Macedonia	17	12	12	12	15	11	11	11
Turkmenistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Uganda	38	33	30	..	64	31	33	..
Uzbekistan	79	70	72	54	117	105	108	104
Zambia	53	51	51	51	59	55	53	53
Zimbabwe	52	53	53	53	67	73	71	71
Simple average, LLDCs	**48.1**	**42.5**	**41.5**	**38.0**	**57.1**	**47.8**	**49.3**	**45.8**
Simple average, transit countries	**30.5**	**23.7**	**22.4**	**22.2**	**38.3**	**27.9**	**27.3**	**26.5**

Source: World Bank Doing Business

Table 3.9: Time to clear export and imports though customs

COUNTRY NAME	Year	Days to clear direct exports through customs	Days to clear imports from customs*
Afghanistan	2014	8.1	10.6
Armenia	2013	8.6	17.6
Azerbaijan	2013	..	..
Bhutan	2015	12.7	9.5
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	2010	12.4	30.0
Botswana	2010	6.2	3.7
Burkina Faso	2009	7.4	15.9
Burundi	2014	20.6	32.4
Central African Republic	2011	9.5	13.1
Chad	2009	11.9	27.5
Ethiopia	2015	7.7	19.2
Kazakhstan	2013	7.2	11.8
Kyrgyzstan	2013	7.2	11.8
Lao People's Democratic Republic	2016	2.0	2.0
Lesotho	2016	4.0	2.2
Malawi	2014	11.4	18.8
Mali	2016	16.5	28.3
Mongolia	2013	10.2	11.8
Nepal	2013	8.5	5.2
Niger	2017	..	16.9
Paraguay	2010	21.7	26.6
Republic of Moldova	2013	21.2	3.2
Rwanda	2011	10.2	14.4
South Sudan	2014	..	14.4
Swaziland	2016	4.1	4.5
Tajikistan	2013	5.9	9.3
TFYR Macedonia	2013	3.7	6.7
Turkmenistan		..	..
Uganda	2013	10.0	20.7
Uzbekistan	2013	4.5	6.3
Zambia	2013	10.7	14.6
Zimbabwe	2016	5.9	10.0
Simple average, LLDCs		**9.6**	**9.6**
Simple average, transit countries		**9.2**	**14.1**
Simple average, all countries		**7.8**	**11.5**

Source: World Bank Enterprise Surveys
** This indicator is computed using data from manufacturing firms only.*

Table 3.10: Structure of LLDCs Exports

COUNTRY NAME	Share of primary commodities, precious stones and non-monetary gold in merchandise exports (%)				Share of manufactured goods in merchandise exports (%)			
	2003-2013	2014	2015	2016	2003-2013	2014	2015	2016
Afghanistan	70.7	65.0	86.8	89.3	15.9	7.8	6.3	5.8
Armenia	66.5	79.0	81.5	81.2	32.5	20.7	18.2	18.6
Azerbaijan	94.9	97.3	95.3	95.5	4.7	2.0	2.9	4.5
Bhutan	44.6	34.6	37.7	36.1	54.8	65.4	61.2	63.4
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	91.2	96.2	95.0	95.2	8.3	3.4	4.4	4.8
Botswana	90.5	94.0	91.7	94.0	9.0	5.7	8.0	5.9
Burkina Faso	93.3	93.8	96.3	95.7	6.5	6.1	3.6	4.3
Burundi	88.5	86.7	87.7	85.8	10.9	13.2	11.5	14.0
Central African Republic	94.9	93.7	94.2	94.0	4.5	6.1	5.5	5.8
Chad	97.7	99.5	98.0	97.3	1.9	0.4	1.9	2.6
Ethiopia	89.6	90.4	88.8	65.9	8.9	8.2	9.8	26.9
Kazakhstan	87.3	89.1	85.7	82.4	12.7	10.9	14.3	17.6
Kyrgyzstan	62.6	68.0	69.3	66.3	31.6	27.3	22.3	28.1
Lao People's Democratic Republic	73.6	85.4	77.3	49.8	25.7	14.5	22.1	50.1
Lesotho	24.5	33.5	32.6	33.1	74.3	66.5	67.4	66.9
Malawi	87.2	79.8	86.9	83.0	12.4	16.5	10.5	13.8
Mali	91.2	85.5	87.9	88.7	8.4	14.4	12.0	11.3
Mongolia	89.1	97.6	97.4	97.4	10.7	2.4	2.6	2.6
Nepal	30.8	31.9	32.0	29.3	68.8	67.9	68.0	70.6
Niger	61.4	66.4	59.1	62.8	32.4	32.1	30.2	31.1
Paraguay	91.4	91.0	90.3	91.3	8.4	8.9	9.6	8.6
Republic of Moldova	46.6	47.1	48.7	46.3	52.8	52.8	51.2	53.5
Rwanda	89.4	83.7	85.2	85.5	9.1	12.7	12.3	13.7
South Sudan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Swaziland	38.6	35.2	37.1	36.2	58.4	50.5	50.1	50.3
Tajikistan	85.1	84.6	85.2	83.2	12.9	11.7	12.2	16.6
TFYR Macedonia	26.6	20.0	18.0	17.5	70.9	79.9	82.0	82.5
Turkmenistan	90.7	94.7	93.8	91.7	7.9	5.2	5.9	8.3
Uganda	75.6	69.5	69.8	69.7	23.0	28.3	27.2	27.7
Uzbekistan	64.8	68.1	70.0	85.5	29.4	31.8	28.0	14.5
Zambia	87.4	86.8	88.9	88.6	11.2	12.6	10.9	11.4
Zimbabwe	75.9	81.9	85.3	88.4	23.5	17.3	14.5	11.5
Average, LLDCs	**83.4**	**86.6**	**83.9**	**81.9**	**15.6**	**12.8**	**15.2**	**17.5**
World	**29.5**	**32.3**	**27.6**	**26.1**	**67.2**	**65.0**	**69.4**	**71.1**

Source: UNCTAD

INDICATORS FOR PRIORITY 4 – REGIONAL INTEGRATION AND COOPERATION

Table 4.1: Participation in Regional Trade Agreements

COUNTRY NAME	Number of Trade Agreements	List of Notified RTAs in Force
Afghanistan	2	India, SAFTA
Armenia	9	CIS, EAEU, EAEU – Viet Nam, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Turkmenistan, Ukraine
Azerbaijan	5	CIS, Georgia, GUAM, Russia, Ukraine
Bhutan	3	India, SAFTA, SAPTA
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	3	CAN, GSTP, LAIA
Botswana	4	EFTA - SACU, EU - SADC, SACU, SADC
Burkina Faso	2	ECOWAS, WAEMU
Burundi	2	EAC, COMESA
Central African Republic	1	CEMAC
Chad	1	CEMAC
Ethiopia	1	COMESA
Kazakhstan	9	Armenia, CEZ, CIS, EAEU, EAEU – Viet Nam, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, Russia, Ukraine
Kyrgyzstan	8	Armenia, CIS, EAEU, EAEU – Viet Nam, Kazakhstan, Moldova, Ukraine, Uzbekistan
Lao People's Democratic Republic	8	ASEAN - Australia - New Zealand, ASEAN – China, ASEAN – India, ASEAN – Japan, ASEAN - Republic of Korea, AFTA, APTA, Thailand
Lesotho	4	SACU, SADC, EFTA – SACU, EU – SADC
Malawi	2	COMESA, SADC
Mali	2	ECOWAS, WAEMU
Mongolia	1	Japan
Nepal	3	India, SAFTA, SAPTA
Niger	2	ECOWAS, WAEMU
Paraguay	6	LAIA, PTN, MERCOSUR, MERCOSUR – India, MERCOSUR-Chile, MERCOSUR-Mexico
Republic of Moldova	8	Armenia, CEFTA, CIS, EU, Kyrgyzstan, Turkey, Ukraine, GUAM
Rwanda	2	EAC, COMESA
South Sudan	..	
Swaziland	5	COMESA, EFTA – SACU, EU - SADC, SACU, SADC
Tajikistan	2	CIS, Ukraine
TFYR Macedonia	5	CEFTA, EFTA, EU, Turkey, Ukraine
Turkmenistan	5	Armenia, CIS, Georgia, Russia, Ukraine
Uganda	2	COMESA, EAC
Uzbekistan	4	CIS, Kyrgyzstan, Russia, Ukraine
Zambia	2	COMESA, SADC
Zimbabwe	4	COMESA, EU - Eastern and Southern Africa States Interim EPA, GSTP, SADC

Source: WTO RTA Database, accessed on 10 July 2017

Table 4.2 : Intra-regional trade

COUNTRY NAME	Percentage of exports whose destinations were within the region (%)
	2015
Afghanistan	91.9
Armenia	29.9
Azerbaijan	38.9
Bhutan	84.9
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	45.7
Botswana	74.9
Burkina Faso	24.7
Burundi	28.3
Central African Republic	29.0
Chad	20.0
Ethiopia	2.8
Kazakhstan	64.9
Kyrgyzstan	84.0
Lao People's Democratic Republic	96.8
Lesotho	81.6
Malawi	39.1
Mali	2.2
Mongolia	88.5
Nepal	73.8
Niger	23.4
Paraguay	53.2
Republic of Moldova	73.0
Rwanda	57.3
South Sudan	..
Swaziland	91.3
Tajikistan	66.3
TFYR Macedonia	91.0
Turkmenistan	94.3
Uganda	58.0
Uzbekistan	62.5
Zambia	24.1
Zimbabwe	91.7
Average, LLDCs	**54.3**

Source: ITU
Note: Russian Federation is considered to be part of the Asia region.

INDICATORS FOR PRIORITY 5 – STRUCTURAL ECONOMIC TRANSFORMATION

Table 5.1: GDP Sector Contributions (Value Added Approach)

COUNTRY NAME	Agriculture (% of GDP)						Services (% of GDP)					
	1990	2003	2013	2014	2015	2016	1990	2003	2013	2014	2015	2016
Afghanistan	..	37.8	23.9	23.5	21.4	21.9	..	39.3	55.0	54.2	55.7	55.4
Armenia	17.4	23.7	20.7	20.4	19.3	17.8	30.7	34.3	49.2	51.1	51.9	54.7
Azerbaijan	29.0	13.5	5.7	5.7	6.8	6.0	38.1	34.0	32.3	36.0	43.9	42.3
Bhutan	35.3	25.2	17.0	17.7	17.4	16.4	39.9	35.4	38.3	39.4	39.4	41.4
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	16.7	15.4	13.3	13.0	13.2	13.7	48.5	55.2	48.7	50.2	54.2	55.4
Botswana	4.9	3.0	2.6	2.4	2.4	..	34.1	53.8	60.7	58.9	64.3	..
Burkina Faso	29.1	37.1	35.6	35.2	33.0	32.6	49.6	41.7	43.4	44.3	45.6	45.2
Burundi	55.9	46.4	39.8	39.3	43.0	39.8	25.2	36.6	42.4	42.4	39.5	43.7
Central African Republic	49.3	56.9	46.4	42.2	42.4	42.9	30.4	29.4	36.7	41.2	41.2	41.1
Chad	29.3	33.6	51.9	52.6	52.4	50.1	53.0	42.0	34.3	32.3	33.4	35.1
Ethiopia	52.0	40.1	44.9	41.9	39.2	37.2	38.2	46.0	43.2	43.4	43.0	41.5
Kazakhstan	..	8.4	4.9	4.7	5.0	4.8	..	53.9	58.2	59.4	62.5	61.7
Kyrgyzstan	33.5	37.1	17.0	17.1	15.9	14.9	31.4	40.6	54.1	55.1	55.6	55.9
Lao People's Democratic Republic	61.2	41.0	19.7	19.7	19.7	19.5	24.3	37.7	46.8	48.6	49.4	48.0
Lesotho	13.6	6.9	6.6	5.9	5.7	..	62.5	53.5	62.5	61.1	62.3	..
Malawi	45.0	38.9	30.8	30.8	29.7	28.3	26.1	41.8	53.4	53.5	54.3	55.8
Mali	39.5	33.2	39.8	40.3	41.0	40.7	43.3	41.5	40.0	39.2	39.8	40.2
Mongolia	12.9	20.8	15.1	14.7	14.6	13.3	44.7	50.8	50.4	50.5	51.6	51.4
Nepal	51.6	37.5	35.0	33.8	33.0	33.0	32.1	44.3	49.2	50.7	51.6	52.4
Niger	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Paraguay	..	18.3	21.5	20.5	19.2	20.0	..	44.4	50.1	50.6	51.2	49.7
Republic of Moldova	..	21.5	14.8	15.5	14.4	14.3	..	54.0	68.1	67.3	71.2	71.4
Rwanda	..	..	30.8	30.9	30.2	31.5	..	..	50.9	50.7	51.6	50.8
South Sudan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Swaziland	10.4	13.0	10.3	9.8	9.9	..	46.5	46.7	51.4	52.4	52.2	..
Tajikistan	33.3	27.1	27.4	27.2	25.0	..	29.1	35.4	50.8	46.8	47.1	..
TFYR Macedonia	8.5	13.4	11.5	11.7	11.4	9.9	47.0	60.6	63.0	62.0	62.0	60.4
Turkmenistan	33.3	20.3	..	..	..	..	40.0	38.4	..	..	..	..
Uganda	56.6	26.1	27.3	26.6	25.6	24.4	32.4	49.7	51.5	52.8	54.2	55.8
Uzbekistan	32.8	33.1	19.0	18.8	18.2	17.6	34.3	43.4	47.8	47.6	47.3	49.5
Zambia	20.6	17.5	8.8	7.3	5.3	..	28.1	55.6	56.5	57.4	59.4	..
Zimbabwe	16.5	16.6	10.3	12.2	11.7	11.2	50.4	..	63.1	62.2	63.9	64.5
Average, LLDCs	**31.5**	**21.7**	**15.9**	**16.2**	**16.9**	**18.7**	**38.7**	**47.2**	**50.9**	**51.4**	**53.5**	**52.3**
World	**..**	**4.9**	**4.0**	**3.9**	**3.8**	**..**	**..**	**65.7**	**67.8**	**68.3**	**69.0**	**..**

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

Table 5.2: GDP Sector Contributions (Value Added Approach) – continued

COUNTRY NAME	Manufacturing (% of GDP)						Industry (% of GDP)					
	1990	2003	2013	2014	2015	2016	1990	2003	2013	2014	2015	2016
Afghanistan	..	17.1	12.0	12.3	11.8	11.8	..	22.9	21.2	22.3	22.9	22.7
Armenia	32.8	16.8	10.9	10.9	10.4	10.2	52.0	42.0	30.0	28.5	28.8	27.5
Azerbaijan	19.3	9.4	4.5	5.2	5.8	5.6	32.9	52.6	62.1	58.3	49.3	51.7
Bhutan	7.9	7.4	8.8	8.6	8.3	7.9	24.9	39.4	44.7	42.9	43.2	42.2
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	18.5	14.7	13.2	13.0	13.2	13.4	34.8	29.4	38.0	36.8	32.6	31.0
Botswana	5.1	6.2	6.5	6.0	6.4	..	61.0	43.3	36.7	38.7	33.2	..
Burkina Faso	15.4	14.3	5.9	6.2	6.7	6.1	21.2	21.2	21.0	20.5	21.4	22.2
Burundi	12.9	12.0	9.5	9.7	9.6	10.1	19.0	17.0	17.7	18.3	17.5	16.6
Central African Republic	11.7	6.1	8.6	8.1	7.2	..	20.4	13.7	16.9	16.6	16.4	16.0
Chad	14.4	8.0	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.2	17.7	24.4	13.8	15.1	14.2	14.8
Ethiopia	4.9	6.2	4.0	4.3	4.8	4.3	9.8	13.9	11.9	14.7	17.7	21.3
Kazakhstan	..	15.3	11.6	11.2	10.8	11.3	..	37.6	36.9	35.9	32.5	33.5
Kyrgyzstan	27.1	14.6	18.3	15.9	15.9	16.6	35.0	22.3	28.9	27.8	28.4	29.2
Lao People's Democratic Republic	10.0	8.7	9.3	9.3	9.2	8.8	14.5	21.3	33.5	31.7	31.0	32.5
Lesotho	10.6	24.6	12.0	11.2	10.7	..	23.9	39.6	30.9	33.0	32.0	..
Malawi	19.5	14.5	10.3	10.3	10.4	10.4	28.9	19.3	15.9	15.7	16.0	16.0
Mali	..	..	..	..	..	..	17.2	25.3	20.2	20.5	19.3	19.0
Mongolia	21.0	7.5	9.8	9.7	8.3	7.3	42.5	28.4	34.4	34.7	33.8	35.3
Nepal	6.1	8.4	6.6	6.4	6.3	5.8	16.2	18.1	15.7	15.4	15.4	14.6
Niger	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Paraguay	..	..	11.6	12.0	12.0	11.9	..	37.3	28.3	28.8	29.6	30.3
Republic of Moldova	..	18.3	14.1	14.4	14.0	13.9	..	24.5	17.1	17.2	14.4	14.3
Rwanda	..	..	6.3	6.3	6.4	6.3	..	..	18.3	18.5	18.3	17.6
South Sudan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Swaziland	36.8	34.7	31.8	32.5	33.5	..	43.2	40.3	38.3	37.8	37.9	..
Tajikistan	24.8	31.3	11.2	..	..	..	37.6	37.4	21.7	25.9	28.0	..
TFYR Macedonia	35.7	10.3	11.4	12.6	13.1	15.3	44.5	26.0	25.4	26.3	26.6	29.7
Turkmenistan	..	18.6	..	..	..	..	30.0	41.3	..	..	..	..
Uganda	5.7	7.5	10.1	8.9	9.0	8.8	11.1	24.2	21.2	20.5	20.2	19.7
Uzbekistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	33.0	23.5	33.2	33.6	34.5	32.9
Zambia	36.1	11.3	6.6	7.3	7.9	..	51.3	27.0	34.7	35.3	35.3	..
Zimbabwe	22.8	13.6	11.0	10.4	9.9	9.9	33.1	..	26.6	25.6	24.4	24.3
Average, LLDCs	**17.4**	**13.0**	**9.6**	**9.4**	**9.3**	**9.2**	**29.9**	**30.9**	**33.2**	**32.3**	**29.6**	**29.0**
World	**..**	**18.4**	**16.3**	**15.1**	**15.3**	**..**	**..**	**29.7**	**28.2**	**27.8**	**27.1**	**..**

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

Table 5.3: Manufacturing value added per capita

COUNTRY NAME	Manufacturing value added per capita (at constant 2010 United States dollars)					
	2003	2008	2013	2014	2015	2016
Afghanistan	67.0	67.5	71.5	67.6	67.4	67.6
Armenia	253.8	288.3	376.6	399.5	411.0	423.3
Azerbaijan	196.9	307.3	309.3	317.5	307.3	289.9
Bhutan	102.6	154.9	194.8	216.9	225.8	238.0
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	180.8	214.5	245.3	251.3	258.3	263.7
Botswana	276.7	380.4	461.6	454.6	454.2	463.9
Burkina Faso	57.0	49.3	48.4	53.7	53.6	53.3
Burundi	15.2	15.7	23.1	23.3	21.8	20.7
Central African Republic	61.9	78.4	50.8	50.4	52.7	55.3
Chad	39.4	44.9	74.4	92.8	96.2	98.6
Ethiopia	7.3	10.1	16.7	18.2	19.5	20.5
Kazakhstan	755.0	953.7	1,113.0	1,098.0	1,072.1	1,024.6
Kyrgyzstan	168.5	151.0	156.4	149.2	149.6	147.0
Lao People's Democratic Republic	62.8	95.4	133.4	141.7	152.5	164.2
Lesotho	129.0	131.1	101.4	131.2	135.8	140.0
Malawi	26.4	34.5	45.2	46.5	46.7	46.8
Mali	41.3	31.9	36.2	43.2	42.8	42.5
Mongolia	178.8	193.0	221.6	225.5	217.3	204.9
Nepal	35.2	36.1	38.9	40.8	40.7	38.8
Niger	17.7	16.7	26.1	24.6	24.0	23.5
Paraguay	346.2	351.5	385.5	411.9	411.9	412.8
Republic of Moldova	161.6	173.3	189.4	197.4	189.9	189.1
Rwanda	21.6	28.3	33.5	33.0	34.1	34.9
Swaziland	1,312.7	1,451.5	1,420.7	1,440.3	1,441.3	1,429.2
Tajikistan	146.6	119.4	46.5	48.6	48.9	49.3
TFYR Macedonia	385.7	434.5	541.7	594.9	629.2	646.7
Turkmenistan	752.1	1610.7	2181.3	2359.9	2433.0	2473.5
Uganda	46.9	54.1	53.7	54.1	55.0	55.9
Uzbekistan	219.3	270.4	311.0	323.9	335.6	342.1
Zambia	102.1	111.3	127.0	127.6	126.2	124.8
Zimbabwe	83.6	63.8	88.7	82.3	78.4	74.0
LLDCs	**119.0**	**142.3**	**159.9**	**163.5**	**163.5**	**161.4**
World	**1,262.9**	**1,490.7**	**1,582.7**	**1,611.7**	**1,638.1**	**1,660.8**

Source: United Nations SDG Indicators database

Table 5.4: Competitive Industrial Index

COUNTRY NAME	Competitive Industrial Performance Index							
	Value				Rank			
	2003	2010	2013	2014	2003	2010	2013	2014
Afghanistan	0.004	0.003	0.002	0.002	128	136	138	138
Armenia	0.014	0.011	0.012	0.012	98	109	101	101
Azerbaijan	0.012	0.013	0.013	0.013	104	102	100	100
Bhutan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	0.011	0.015	0.013	0.013	105	97	99	99
Botswana	0.031	0.024	0.024	0.026	72	90	83	79
Burkina Faso								
Burundi	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	140	139	140	140
Central African Republic	0.003	0.002	0.002	0.002	131	137	139	139
Chad	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ethiopia	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	142	141	141	142
Kazakhstan	0.033	0.048	0.046	0.046	69	65	63	62
Kyrgyzstan	0.008	0.007	0.007	0.007	114	120	120	121
Lao People's Democratic Republic	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Lesotho	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Malawi	0.003	0.004	0.004	0.004	134	128	131	128
Mali	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Mongolia	0.008	0.010	0.010	0.012	115	115	115	102
Nepal	0.007	0.005	0.004	0.004	123	127	128	127
Niger	0.003	0.003	0.004	0.004	133	135	129	131
Paraguay	0.011	0.012	0.013	0.014	106	104	98	97
Republic of Moldova	0.012	0.009	0.011	0.011	102	117	107	111
Rwanda	0.001	0.002	0.003	0.003	139	138	135	136
South Sudan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Swaziland	0.037	0.026	0.023	0.023	67	82	86	90
Tajikistan	0.007	0.005	0.006	0.005	122	126	124	124
TFYR Macedonia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Turkmenistan	0.018	0.024	0.024	0.026	90	89	85	81
Uganda	0.003	0.005	0.005	0.005	132	125	127	126
Uzbekistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Zambia	0.008	0.009	0.011	0.009	118	116	108	116
Zimbabwe	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Source: UNIDO
Note: The index is available for 144 countries worldwide.

Table 5.6: Access to finance

COUNTRY NAME	Concentration Index							Percent of firms identifying access to finance as a major constraint	
	2003	2008	2010	2013	2014	2015	2016	Value	Year
Afghanistan	..	9.3	11.5	4.3	4.0	4.0	3.6	47.6	2014
Armenia	5.7	19.4	28.4	42.4	48.9	45.7	48.9	25.9	2013
Azerbaijan	7.0	15.6	17.9	24.7	30.1	37.1	25.4	22.1	2013
Bhutan	13.0	30.0	41.5	45.6	43.8	45.2	46.5	16.4	2015
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	47.9	34.7	40.3	46.7	50.3	58.1	64.2	28.7	2010
Botswana	20.0	25.8	27.2	31.8	31.0	33.8	32.3	25.5	2010
Burkina Faso	12.1	15.5	15.9	22.9	25.7	25.9	26.6	75.0	2009
Burundi	20.1	13.7	16.9	16.3	15.4	14.3	14.3	36.7	2014
Central African Republic	6.2	7.0	9.0	15.1	14.2	12.5	12.8	46.0	2011
Chad	4.2	3.1	4.2	6.1	7.8	8.4	10.2	46.5	2009
Ethiopia	20.2	17.7	..	..	..	..	..	20.3	2015
Kazakhstan	21.9	49.6	39.3	34.9	33.5	37.7	34.3	8.8	2013
Kyrgyzstan	4.8	13.8	13.6	15.7	20.1	22.6	21.2	26.1	2013
Lao People's Democratic Republic	6.9	9.6	20.9	..	..	..	..	5.7	2016
Lesotho	5.3	9.5	12.5	18.6	18.7	18.5	17.5	32.8	2016
Malawi	4.1	9.1	13.8	12.5	11.4	12.3	10.5	34.9	2014
Mali	13.4	9.9	16.0	19.7	21.1	24.2	25.4	63.5	2016
Mongolia	22.3	39.9	34.2	61.6	59.7	54.8	58.7	31.7	2013
Nepal	26.1	51.7	54.6	58.0	61.9	65.0	81.0	40.1	2013
Niger	4.8	10.2	11.7	12.9	12.9	14.1	13.7	27.4	2017
Paraguay	14.8	25.0	34.6	45.7	49.9	57.5	52.9	19.5	2010
Republic of Moldova	20.3	36.5	35.4	42.5	37.0	34.6	26.9	7.2	2013
Rwanda	10.3	14.2	12.2	19.2	20.8	21.2	21.2	35.1	2011
South Sudan	..	..	..	1.6	1.9	2.7	..	50.0	2014
Swaziland	12.7	20.3	19.1	20.9	20.9	20.1	21.6	10.0	2016
Tajikistan	14.8	26.8	14.2	18.4	21.5	22.7	19.2	22.6	2013
TFYR Macedonia	17.6	42.1	44.2	46.7	49.4	51.1	47.4	19.3	2013
Turkmenistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..		
Uganda	8.4	13.9	13.3	13.4	13.9	14.4	13.7	19.6	2013
Uzbekistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5.2	2013
Zambia	6.0	12.2	9.2	15.8	17.1	19.8	13.0	27.4	2013
Zimbabwe	57.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	55.9	2016
Average, LLDCs	**19.1**	**29.7**	**28.3**	**30.4**	**31.3**	**35.0**	**34.1**	**30.1***	**..**
World	**123.9**	**121.5**	**122.5**	**121.5**	**123.3**	**127.4**	**131.7**	**26.2***	**..**

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators and Enterprise Surveys
** Simple average*

LLDCs Global Report 2017

Table 5.6: Table 5.7: Tourist arrivals

COUNTRY NAME	International Tourist Arrivals (thousands)								Market Share	
	1995	2000	2005	2010	2013	2014	2015	2016*	2005	2015
Afghanistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Armenia	12	45	319	687	1,082	1,204	1,192	1,260	0.04	0.10
Azerbaijan	..	..	693	1,280	2,130	2,160	1,922	2,045	0.09	0.16
Bhutan	5	8	14	41	116	133	155	210	0.00	0.01
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	284	319	524	679	798	871	882	959	0.06	0.07
Botswana	521	1,104	1,474	1,973	1,544	1,966	1,528	..	0.18	0.13
Burkina Faso	124	126	245	274	218	191	163	..	0.03	0.01
Burundi	34	29	148	142	234	235	131	..	0.02	0.01
Central African Republic	26	11	12	54	84	96	121	..	0.00	0.01
Chad	19	43	29	71	100	122	120	..	0.00	0.01
Ethiopia	103	136	227	468	681	770	864	..	0.03	0.07
Kazakhstan	..	1,471	3,143	2,991	4,926	4,560	..	..	0.39	..
Kyrgyzstan	36	59	319	855	3,076	2,849	3,051	..	0.04	0.26
Lao People's Democratic Republic	60	191	672	1,670	2,700	3,164	3,543	3,315	0.08	0.30
Lesotho	87	..	..	414	320	..	..	..	..	..
Malawi	192	228	438	746	795	819	805	..	0.05	0.07
Mali	42	86	143	169	142	168	159	..	0.02	0.01
Mongolia	108	137	339	456	418	393	386	404	0.04	0.03
Nepal	363	464	375	603	798	790	539	753	0.05	0.05
Niger	67	50	58	74	123	135	135	..	0.01	0.01
Paraguay	438	289	341	465	610	649	1,215	1,206	0.04	0.10
Republic of Moldova	32	18	67	64	96	94	94	121	0.01	0.01
Rwanda	..	104	..	504	864	926	987	..	..	0.08
Swaziland	300	281	837	868	968	939	873	947	0.10	0.07
Tajikistan	..	8	..	160	208	213	414	..	..	0.03
TFYR Macedonia	147	224	197	262	400	425	486	510	0.02	0.04
Turkmenistan	218	3	12	..	..	..	..	..	0.00	..
Uganda	160	193	468	946	1,206	1,266	1,303	1,323	0.06	0.11
Uzbekistan	92	302	242	975	1,969	..	..	..	0.03	..
Zambia	163	457	669	815	915	947	932	956	0.08	0.08
Zimbabwe	1,416	1,967	1,559	2,239	1,833	1,880	2,057	2,168	0.19	0.17
Total, LLDCs	**5,933**	**9,131**	**14,067**	**21,077**	**29,565**	**30,774**	**31,606**	**33,010**	**1.74**	**2.66**
World	**525,962**	**673,741**	**809,034**	**953,008**	**1,093,604**	**1,137,796**	**1,189,066**	**1,235,347**	**100.00**	**100.00**

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators and Enterprise Surveys
** Simple average*

Table 5.8: R&D

COUNTRY NAME	Research and development expenditure as a proportion of GDP			
	Value	Year (closet to 2003)	Value	Latest year
Afghanistan	..	..	..	..
Armenia	0.24	2003	0.24	2014
Azerbaijan	0.32	2003	0.21	2014
Bhutan	..		..	
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	0.28	2002	0.16	2009
Botswana	0.53	2005	0.25	2012
Burkina Faso	0.27	2003	0.2	2009
Burundi	0.2	2007	0.12	2011
Central African Republic	..	..	..	..
Chad	..	..	..	..
Ethiopia	0.18	2005	0.6	2013
Kazakhstan	0.25	2003	0.17	2013
Kyrgyzstan	0.22	2003	0.13	2014
Lao People's Democratic Republic	0.04	2002	..	..
Lesotho	0.05	2003	0.01	2011
Malawi	..	..	..	..
Mali	0.25	2007	0.67	2010
Mongolia	0.25	2003	0.23	2014
Nepal	..	..	0.3	2010
Niger	..	..	..	..
Paraguay	0.07	2003	0.09	2012
Republic of Moldova	0.32	2003	0.37	2014
Rwanda	..	..	..	..
South Sudan	..	..	..	..
Swaziland	..	..	..	..
Tajikistan	0.07	2003	0.12	2013
TFYR Macedonia	..	..	..	..
Turkmenistan	0.21	2003	0.44	2013
Uganda	0.26	2003	0.48	2010
Uzbekistan	..	..	0.2	2014
Zambia	0.01	2003	0.28	2008
Zimbabwe	..	..	..	..
Average, LLDCs	**0.25**	**2003**	**0.26**	**2014**
World	**1.53**	**2003**	**1.69**	**2014**

Source: United Nations SDG Indicators database

Table 5.9: Trade in services and transport services exports

COUNTRY NAME	Trade in Services (% of GDP)				Transport Services (% of commercial service exports)			
	2003-2013	2014	2015	2016	2003-2013	2014	2015	2016
Afghanistan	20.9	15.4	11.6	..	19.2	7.5	10.2	..
Armenia	22.7	28.9	29.6	31.7	25.2	11.4	11.0	12.0
Azerbaijan	19.6	19.5	24.7	31.4	17.7	26.1	34.3	25.2
Bhutan	14.0	16.0	15.6	15.2	14.5	29.2	21.2	33.0
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	11.7	12.8	12.3	..	11.3	25.3	25.0	..
Botswana	14.3	13.1	13.0	..	14.0	3.8	4.2	..
Burkina Faso	10.9	14.2	..	..	12.0	15.1	..	..
Burundi	13.9	11.1	9.4	..	13.6	8.6	13.3	..
Central African Republic	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Chad	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ethiopia	16.2	..	..	..	15.5	..	..	..
Kazakhstan	12.5	8.8	9.7	..	10.4	61.1	58.8	..
Kyrgyzstan	28.0	28.8	28.6	..	30.5	17.8	22.3	..
Lao People's Democratic Republic	9.2	9.5	9.6	..	9.6	7.6	8.5	..
Lesotho	22.8	14.2	15.6	15.2	19.5	6.9	2.5	2.2
Malawi	5.4	6.2	6.4	..	5.4	20.2	20.9	..
Mali	14.1	18.8	..	..	14.5	1.0	..	..
Mongolia	25.2	20.5	17.9	..	20.9	33.7	34.7	..
Nepal	10.7	12.9	12.3	..	11.2	2.7	3.0	..
Niger	12.9	..	..	..	14.0	..	..	..
Paraguay	7.0	6.8	7.5	..	7.0	47.3	41.7	..
Republic of Moldova	28.2	27.0	27.7	27.9	27.7	36.1	34.4	34.8
Rwanda	16.5	14.7	19.8	..	16.8	1.8	20.3	..
South Sudan	..	4.1	..	..	..	0.1	..	..
Swaziland	23.1	20.9	20.6	..	23.0	17.9	25.0	..
Tajikistan	15.2	10.0	9.5	8.6	13.2	80.1	65.3	69.5
TFYR Macedonia	21.1	26.0	26.5	25.3	23.1	24.0	23.4	22.6
Turkmenistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Uganda	14.8	16.9	17.6	..	16.5	9.2	7.4	..
Uzbekistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Zambia	9.3	9.2	10.8	..	8.9	7.2	5.1	..
Zimbabwe	15.6	14.6	11.9	..	15.1	26.3	26.2	..
Average, LLDCs	**14.1**	**13.0**	**13.8**	**27.3**	**14.6**	**28.8**	**30.3**	**24.7**
World	**11.4**	**12.8**	**12.7**	**12.3**	**12.1**	**20.8**	**20.5**	**18.9**

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

INDICATORS FOR PRIORITY 6 – MEANS OF IMPLEMENTATION

Table 6.1: Domestic resource mobilization

COUNTRY NAME	Gross domestic investment (% of GDP) (measured by gross capital formation)					Gross fixed capital formation (% of GDP)				
	2000	2003-2013	2014	2015	2016	2000	2003-2013	2014	2015	2016
Afghanistan	..	18.7	18.1	19.4	17.7	..	18.7	18.1	19.4	17.7
Armenia	18.6	30.6	20.9	20.8	18.5	18.4	30.0	20.0	20.8	17.8
Azerbaijan	20.7	29.7	25.7	27.9	24.9	23.1	29.5	25.8	27.8	24.8
Bhutan	48.2	53.1	51.7	54.0	50.1	50.0	53.5	53.5	54.3	50.1
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	18.1	16.0	21.0	20.3	20.8	17.9	15.9	21.0	21.4	20.8
Botswana	29.6	33.4	27.9	32.1	..	25.1	30.5	30.5	34.0	..
Burkina Faso	20.1	25.5	31.5	32.8	33.3	21.2	23.1	30.0	30.4	29.3
Burundi	2.8	22.8	27.8	16.9	16.9	2.8	22.8	27.8	16.9	16.9
Central African Republic	11.1	11.1	10.2	13.9	13.6	11.1	11.1	10.2	13.9	13.6
Chad	23.3	28.8	33.8	28.6	24.4	20.9	28.0	33.2	28.0	23.6
Ethiopia	0.0	9.4	38.0	40.7	39.8	..	34.4	38.0	40.7	39.8
Kazakhstan	18.1	28.0	25.8	27.9	28.4	17.3	25.6	21.6	22.9	23.4
Kyrgyzstan	20.0	24.7	36.8	34.9	..	18.3	23.9	32.8	32.0	..
Lao People's Democratic Republic	13.9	26.9	26.4	28.2	26.4	13.9	26.9	26.4	28.2	26.4
Lesotho	..	26.9	32.0	30.0	..	..	26.1	27.9	27.8	..
Malawi	13.6	17.7	12.0	13.7	33.6	12.3	16.1	12.0	10.9	11.9
Mali	17.2	21.3	18.1	17.9	14.8	17.7	19.6	17.3	17.1	17.1
Mongolia	29.0	42.1	35.2	27.0	17.6	25.2	35.1	28.6	20.0	20.1
Nepal	24.3	30.7	41.2	38.8	22.5	19.3	21.1	23.5	27.7	25.0
Niger	11.4	28.8	37.8	38.8	29.5	11.2	28.3	37.7	38.8	..
Paraguay	15.8	16.1	16.3	16.8	34.0	14.7	15.7	15.9	16.4	17.7
Republic of Moldova	23.9	28.1	26.1	22.7	..	15.4	25.1	24.7	24.1	22.3
Rwanda	13.3	20.6	25.3	26.5	18.0	13.3	20.0	24.4	25.9	25.6
South Sudan	..	11.3	10.4	11.2	26.1	..	11.5	10.4	11.2	..
Swaziland	23.5	15.6	12.3	11.3	..	23.5	15.6	12.3	11.3	..
Tajikistan	9.4	17.8	..	..	..	7.4	15.1	..	..	..
TFYR Macedonia	21.9	24.2	30.3	31.1	..	20.4	22.5	23.4	23.1	25.2
Turkmenistan	34.7	33.9	..	..	..	34.7	33.9	..	..	..
Uganda	19.5	23.5	26.7	24.0	23.6	19.2	23.2	26.2	23.6	23.2
Uzbekistan	22.1	22.0	24.2	23.7	24.8	22.1	22.0	24.2	23.7	24.8
Zambia	..	32.3	34.0	42.8	..	..	26.2	31.0	38.4	..
Zimbabwe	13.6	9.9	11.9	11.2	14.5	11.8	9.7	11.8	11.1	14.4
Average, LLDCs	**18.4**	**24.3**	**26.3**	**27.5**	**26.9**	**18.8**	**23.8**	**24.2**	**25.4**	**24.8**
World	**24.4**	**24.6**	**24.3**	**24.2**	**..**	**23.5**	**23.7**	**23.6**	**23.5**	**..**

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

Table 6.2: Domestic resource mobilization – continued

COUNTRY NAME	Gross domestic savings (% of GDP)					Government revenue, excluding grants (% of GDP)			
	2000	2003-2013	2014	2015	2016	2000	2003-2013	2014	2015
Afghanistan	..	-22.8	-21.2	-22.4	-24.4	..	9.5	..	..
Armenia	-8.5	10.1	2.4	8.6	8.4	..	21.3	24.5	23.1
Azerbaijan	21.3	49.3	42.8	30.9	27.7	..	44.0	39.9	34.2
Bhutan	23.7	34.7	30.7	26.9	27.4	22.9	19.5	19.4	..
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	9.1	21.7	22.4	14.1	13.3	17.8	21.7	..	..
Botswana	41.3	35.6	34.7	30.8	..	..	39.2	38.0	..
Burkina Faso	4.6	12.0	17.5	18.4	21.1	..	14.5	17.4	15.9
Burundi	-7.1	-4.7	2.0	-6.8	-8.8	..	..	..	..
Central African Republic	6.2	1.9	-14.3	-8.0	-3.7	..	9.6	..	..
Chad	5.5	25.1	25.5	21.1	16.3	..	..	..	..
Ethiopia	..	18.0	20.5	19.7	20.1	..	10.5	..	..
Kazakhstan	25.6	39.6	39.5	31.9	31.9	11.3	19.6	19.5	13.7
Kyrgyzstan	14.3	-4.7	-13.5	-1.3	..	14.2	20.3	23.8	24.2
Lao People's Democratic Republic	-0.2	16.8	12.4	15.3	16.7	..	11.0	16.7	15.8
Lesotho	..	-29.9	-19.9	-17.9	..	..	49.3	..	..
Malawi	3.8	4.6	6.1	7.2	2.9	..	15.5	17.2	16.7
Mali	6.7	13.3	9.2	10.6	10.9	11.0	14.7	13.5	15.3
Mongolia	15.1	31.2	30.4	28.0	33.5	24.4	30.5	..	..
Nepal	15.2	10.6	11.9	8.8	5.3	10.6	13.3	18.4	19.4
Niger	3.5	11.3	19.6	16.6	..	..	..	..	..
Paraguay	24.4	23.7	18.6	17.6	20.7	..	19.7	21.9	23.4
Republic of Moldova	-1.7	-12.7	-10.9	-8.4	-5.7	24.5	31.4	30.9	31.4
Rwanda	-5.2	5.0	7.1	5.7	8.0	..	14.0	15.8	16.6
South Sudan	..	23.7	-3.5	-36.6	..	..	..	..	..
Swaziland	9.8	5.4	7.6	10.9	..	19.4	24.7	..	..
Tajikistan	7.3	-19.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
TFYR Macedonia	7.6	5.2	13.1	14.9	19.0	..	30.4	..	..
Turkmenistan	49.3	58.4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Uganda	8.0	11.9	16.9	13.1	13.5	10.8	11.7	11.5	10.4
Uzbekistan	25.2	24.7	20.2	22.2	23.9	..	..	..	..
Zambia	..	34.4	31.6	32.8	..	..	14.9	..	..
Zimbabwe	15.8	-5.4	-4.5	-4.0	-1.3	..	..	..	..
Average, LLDCs	**17.8**	**26.2**	**24.7**	**19.8**	**19.3**	**13.5**	**20.6**	**23.0**	**18.3**
World	**25.4**	**25.4**	**24.9**	**24.9**	**..**	**24.3**	**22.9**	**24.3**	**25.2**

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

Table 6.3: Official Development Assistance

COUNTRY NAME	Gross domestic savings (% of GDP)								
	2003 - 2013 Average			2014			2015		
	Millions of US$	% of total	% of GNI	Millions of US$	% of total	% of GNI	Millions of US$	% of total	% of GNI
Afghanistan	4,575	4.04	40.58	4,573	3.15	23.86	4,239	2.78	21.43
Armenia	299	0.26	4.20	236	0.16	2.19	348	0.23	3.17
Azerbaijan	199	0.18	1.15	194	0.13	0.30	70	0.05	0.14
Bhutan	102	0.09	9.62	116	0.08	7.16	97	0.06	5.26
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	703	0.62	5.47	601	0.41	2.16	787	0.52	2.38
Botswana	158	0.14	1.49	94	0.06	0.64	66	0.04	0.46
Burkina Faso	865	0.76	12.17	1,010	0.70	9.22	997	0.65	9.11
Burundi	451	0.40	30.52	455	0.31	16.66	367	0.24	11.91
Central African Republic	171	0.15	10.36	538	0.37	35.98	487	0.32	32.25
Chad	397	0.35	5.80	348	0.24	2.96	607	0.40	5.74
Ethiopia	2,784	2.46	12.84	3,271	2.25	6.46	3,234	2.12	5.28
Kazakhstan	218	0.19	0.33	84	0.06	0.05	83	0.05	0.05
Kyrgyzstan	336	0.30	9.10	518	0.36	8.66	770	0.50	12.16
Lao People's Democratic Republic	357	0.32	8.80	421	0.29	4.26	471	0.31	4.03
Lesotho	160	0.14	6.95	100	0.07	4.11	83	0.05	..
Malawi	779	0.69	16.20	842	0.58	15.82	1,049	0.69	16.53
Mali	906	0.80	11.04	1,088	0.75	8.82	1,200	0.79	9.45
Mongolia	286	0.25	7.11	285	0.20	2.82	236	0.15	2.21
Nepal	642	0.57	5.48	798	0.55	4.42	1,216	0.80	5.73
Niger	591	0.52	13.27	811	0.56	11.34	868	0.57	12.26
Paraguay	89	0.08	0.65	58	0.04	0.21	56	0.04	0.22
Republic of Moldova	275	0.24	5.29	466	0.32	5.88	313	0.20	4.49
Rwanda	775	0.68	18.74	937	0.65	13.35	1,082	0.71	13.67
South Sudan	921	0.81	9.06	1,818	1.25	16.61	1,675	1.10	21.07
Swaziland	64	0.06	1.96	81	0.06	2.06	93	0.06	2.39
Tajikistan	298	0.26	7.80	319	0.22	3.12	426	0.28	4.55
TFYR Macedonia	205	0.18	2.81	185	0.13	1.91	214	0.14	2.18
Turkmenistan	35	0.03	0.29	31	0.02	0.09	24	0.02	0.07
Uganda	1,498	1.32	11.73	1,497	1.03	6.20	1,628	1.07	6.35
Uzbekistan	202	0.18	0.91	294	0.20	0.50	448	0.29	0.66
Zambia	1,072	0.95	9.48	919	0.63	3.80	797	0.52	3.96
Zimbabwe	539	0.48	7.64	697	0.48	5.81	788	0.52	6.00
Total, LLDCs	**20,279**	**17.89**	**0.84**	**23,683**	**16.32**	**0.64**	**24,817**	**16.26**	**0.65**
Total, All Developing Countries	**113,342**	**100.00**	**..**	**145,103**	**100.00**	**..**	**152,603**	**100.00**	**..**

Source: OECD DAC
Note: Includes ODA from DAC donors, multilateral donors and non-DAC countries.

Table 6.4: Aid for Trade

COUNTRY NAME	Gross domestic investment (% of GDP) (measured by gross capital formation)						Commitments (Millions US Dollars, 2015 Constant Prices)					
	2002-2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2002-2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Afghanistan	937	1,745	1,456	1,159	827	843	1,210	2,149	1,163	2,380	1,236	1,204
Armenia	110	121	106	90	110	198	153	97	126	143	280	242
Azerbaijan	73	114	147	103	129	23	110	109	12	14	37	24
Bhutan	31	56	69	50	76	58	42	32	35	75	58	133
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	165	192	189	207	307	242	213	379	231	210	431	468
Botswana	11	14	12	10	6	5	10	4	82	3	7	3
Burkina Faso	162	220	268	311	393	300	257	305	284	429	320	306
Burundi	49	106	147	140	142	90	79	180	121	237	246	143
Central African Republic	23	80	51	16	22	19	43	80	123	7	9	0
Chad	62	52	41	45	42	88	65	156	63	53	117	130
Ethiopia	482	564	526	781	726	764	609	422	1,753	879	974	1,387
Kazakhstan	78	20	32	42	22	15	80	13	35	9	44	16
Kyrgyzstan	58	112	113	136	131	151	83	188	151	134	264	274
Lao People's Democratic Republic	100	130	137	126	122	202	138	209	183	223	300	250
Lesotho	20	31	18	19	13	15	18	28	1	24	47	2
Malawi	107	153	199	195	181	244	132	263	310	527	205	370
Mali	206	440	304	226	258	251	340	228	86	426	292	189
Mongolia	80	124	166	239	167	140	146	100	137	83	53	403
Nepal	147	240	241	290	292	398	208	393	374	892	581	326
Niger	81	95	114	138	139	107	101	132	305	187	294	318
Paraguay	28	24	51	28	56	43	57	16	15	78	170	62
Republic of Moldova	43	114	172	150	214	161	90	106	267	117	321	76
Rwanda	96	267	174	205	205	341	131	284	196	411	305	336
South Sudan	..	18	66	107	84	132	..	63	74	247	160	98
Swaziland	10	23	23	33	20	26	18	65	9	5	17	57
Tajikistan	60	112	121	177	162	228	119	217	170	306	111	257
TFYR Macedonia	40	78	68	115	155	140	48	75	227	43	170	92
Turkmenistan	2	4	6	4	6	5	4	6	3	10	7	2
Uganda	282	412	340	505	401	432	411	436	292	444	770	814
Uzbekistan	46	62	89	149	139	268	132	59	324	545	832	481
Zambia	139	143	120	218	235	267	199	356	419	219	326	226
Zimbabwe	22	82	82	83	66	60	33	71	89	49	50	109
Total, LLDCs	**3,749**	**5,944**	**5,645**	**6,096**	**5,853**	**6,252**	**5,279**	**7,225**	**7,662**	**9,411**	**9,032**	**8,797**
Total, All Developing Countries	**19,595**	**32,078**	**33,276**	**36,003**	**37,575**	**39,418**	**28,120**	**38,502**	**46,131**	**49,470**	**48,156**	**53,467**

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

Table 6.5: Foreign Direct Investment

COUNTRY NAME	Inward FDI (US$ millions, Current)					Inward FDI (% of GDP)				
	1995	2003	2013	2014	2015	1995	2003	2013	2014	2015
Afghanistan	-0.1	57.8	69.3	53.6	58.0	0.00	1.17	0.32	0.25	0.29
Armenia	25.3	122.9	379.9	404.3	180.5	1.97	4.38	3.64	3.71	1.78
Azerbaijan	155.0	3,285.0	2,632.0	4,430.4	4,047.7	5.03	45.15	3.55	5.89	6.67
Bhutan	0.1	3.4	13.7	31.6	12.1	0.02	0.54	0.77	1.61	0.58
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	374.3	197.4	1,749.6	647.8	503.4	5.57	2.44	5.71	1.96	1.40
Botswana	70.4	418.0	398.5	515.2	393.6	1.49	5.57	2.66	3.26	2.73
Burkina Faso	9.8	29.1	490.3	356.8	167.4	0.41	0.69	4.04	2.80	1.50
Burundi	2.0	..	7.3	47.1	7.4	0.20	..	0.29	1.64	0.26
Central African Republic	6.2	11.3	1.9	3.5	3.0	0.53	0.95	0.12	0.19	0.18
Chad	32.6	712.7	520.2	-675.5	600.2	1.98	23.01	4.37	-5.28	5.24
Ethiopia	14.1	465.0	1,281.3	2,132.0	2,167.6	0.19	5.50	2.75	3.97	3.82
Kazakhstan	964.3	2,092.0	10,321.0	8,405.9	4,020.7	4.69	6.78	4.45	3.89	2.19
Kyrgyzstan	96.1	45.5	626.1	248.0	404.5	6.44	2.37	8.54	3.35	5.95
Lao People's Democratic Republic	95.1	19.4	426.7	720.8	1,219.8	5.57	0.96	3.97	6.14	9.74
Lesotho	23.4	43.9	123.0	162.0	169.0	2.72	4.53	5.76	7.79	9.08
Malawi	5.6	65.9	119.5	130.0	142.5	0.23	2.05	2.29	2.27	2.33
Mali	111.4	132.3	307.9	144.0	152.9	4.25	3.13	2.81	1.20	1.44
Mongolia	9.8	131.5	2,139.6	381.9	195.1	0.58	7.11	17.00	3.16	1.60
Nepal	..	1.8	71.3	29.6	51.4	..	0.03	0.39	0.15	0.25
Niger	14.4	11.5	719.1	821.9	525.0	0.81	0.43	9.36	10.06	7.36
Paraguay	94.5	24.9	71.7	345.7	282.7	1.17	0.38	0.25	1.12	1.00
Republic of Moldova	66.9	73.8	242.7	200.6	228.5	3.79	3.72	3.04	2.52	3.53
Rwanda	2.0	4.7	257.6	458.9	471.2	0.16	0.25	3.43	5.81	5.75
South Sudan	..	..	-793.0	-419.0	-277.0	..	..	-6.72	-3.81	-2.60
Swaziland	43.5	-63.9	29.4	-32.4	-120.9	2.25	-2.87	0.64	-0.72	-3.01
Tajikistan	10.0	31.6	104.5	262.7	226.8	0.82	2.03	1.23	2.84	2.57
TFYR Macedonia	9.5	113.3	334.9	272.2	174.2	0.20	2.29	3.10	2.40	1.78
Turkmenistan	233.0	226.0	3,732.2	4,170.1	4,258.8	10.64	2.01	9.10	8.70	8.82
Uganda	124.5	202.2	1,096.0	1,058.6	1,057.3	1.77	2.62	4.30	3.85	4.32
Uzbekistan	-24.0	82.6	628.9	626.2	1,068.4	-0.18	0.81	1.10	0.99	1.62
Zambia	97.0	346.6	1,809.8	3,194.8	1,653.0	2.55	7.07	6.75	11.85	7.54
Zimbabwe	117.7	3.8	400.0	544.8	421.0	1.23	0.06	2.97	3.70	2.86
Total, LLDCs	**2,784**	**8,892**	**30,313**	**29,674**	**24,466**	**2.30**	**5.48**	**3.89**	**3.71**	**3.31**
Total, Transit countries	**64,901**	**99,032**	**317,599**	**335,677**	**361,638**	**1.95**	**2.26**	**1.68**	**1.69**	**1.81**
World	**341,523**	**550,589**	**1,427,181**	**1,276,999**	**1,762,155**	**1.11**	**1.44**	**2.05**	**1.74**	**2.46**

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

Table 6.6: Remittance Inflows

COUNTRY NAME	Remittance Inflows										
	Millions of US Dollars										Per-cent of GDP
	2000	2005	2008	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016(e)	2015
Afghanistan	..	..	106	342	185	252	314	268	301	312	1.6
Armenia	87	915	1,904	1,669	1,799	1,915	2,192	2,079	1,491	1,339	14.1
Azerbaijan	57	623	1,518	1,410	1,893	1,990	1,733	1,846	1,270	643	2.4
Bhutan	..	..	4	8	10	18	12	14	20	21	1.0
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	127	337	1,135	960	1,043	1,111	1,201	1,184	1,191	1,229	3.6
Botswana	26	118	47	22	20	18	36	46	30	29	0.2
Burkina Faso	67	57	99	120	221	210	308	396	392	397	3.5
Burundi	..	0	4	34	45	46	49	49	51	53	1.7
Central African Republic	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Chad	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ethiopia	53	174	387	345	513	624	624	624	624	642	1.0
Kazakhstan	122	62	126	226	180	178	207	229	194	308	0.1
Kyrgyzstan	9	313	1,223	1,266	1,709	2,031	2,278	2,243	1,688	1,997	25.7
Lao People's Democratic Republic	1	1	18	42	110	59	60	40	93	95	0.8
Lesotho	478	599	576	610	649	555	463	380	366	316	17.5
Malawi	1	23	17	22	25	28	34	38	34	33	0.5
Mali	73	177	431	473	784	827	895	895	819	803	6.3
Mongolia	12	180	225	266	279	320	256	255	261	263	2.2
Nepal	112	1,212	2,727	3,464	4,217	4,793	5,589	5,889	6,730	6,276	32.2
Niger	14	66	94	134	166	152	146	146	108	111	1.5
Paraguay	278	161	363	410	541	634	623	507	554	576	2.0
Republic of Moldova	179	915	1,888	1,351	1,813	1,986	2,192	2,084	1,540	1,444	23.5
Rwanda	7	9	68	106	174	182	123	128	161	163	2.0
South Sudan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Swaziland	57	95	90	55	38	31	30	24	19	17	0.5
Tajikistan	..	467	2,544	2,306	3,060	3,626	4,219	3,384	2,259	1,778	28.8
TFYR Macedonia	81	227	407	388	434	394	376	367	307	289	3.0
Turkmenistan	..	..	50	35	35	37	40	30	16	9	0.0
Uganda	238	322	724	771	816	913	941	887	1,049	1,078	4.0
Uzbekistan	..	..	3,007	2,858	4,276	5,693	6,689	5,828	3,053	2,263	4.6
Zambia	..	53	68	44	46	73	54	58	47	44	0.2
Zimbabwe	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total, LLDCs	**2,079**	**7,106**	**19,845**	**19,739**	**25,083**	**28,699**	**31,683**	**29,918**	**24,668**	**22,528**	..
World	**126,750**	**280,146**	**454,273**	**462,146**	**524,414**	**544,903**	**574,016**	**596,588**	**582,449**	**575,191**	..

Source: World Bank, Migration and Remittances Data
Note: 2016 Data is estimated, except for that of Mongolia.

Table 6.7: Debt stock and debt service

COUNTRY NAME	External debt stock (% of GNI)				Total debt service (% of exports of goods, services and primary income)			
	2000	2003-2013	2014	2015	2000	2003-2013	2014	2015
Afghanistan	..	16.1	12.5	12.6	..	0.6	1.8	2.9
Armenia	51.4	53.7	70.1	81.3	9.1	18.3	31.7	38.7
Azerbaijan	31.8	16.6	16.2	25.8	6.4	3.6	5.2	5.2
Bhutan	48.2	75.1	100.7	105.8	..	10.8	12.2	17.8
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	72.0	45.8	28.1	29.8	39.8	11.6	6.8	8.6
Botswana	8.3	10.1	15.5	15.1	2.0	1.1	0.6	3.1
Burkina Faso	55.2	26.6	20.9	24.0	19.0	5.2	2.7	4.4
Burundi	127.2	80.9	22.3	20.3	40.9	30.6	13.3	13.5
Central African Republic	96.4	53.0	37.8	43.8	..	..	..	..
Chad	80.4	29.1	18.1	15.3	..	..	..	..
Ethiopia	67.4	32.7	29.9	33.3	13.7	5.2	..	..
Kazakhstan	75.7	87.4	77.0	89.3	32.4	40.0	35.0	63.6
Kyrgyzstan	150.5	95.3	100.2	118.6	30.2	13.9	12.1	15.7
Lao People's Democratic Republic	152.4	111.2	91.5	99.6	8.0	15.5	10.7	10.9
Lesotho	75.9	34.8	33.7	..	7.5	3.4	3.1	3.8
Malawi	159.1	40.7	28.2	27.3	13.5	5.2	4.0	4.3
Mali	102.0	34.0	24.5	28.9	14.1	4.0	3.0	4.2
Mongolia	84.8	83.1	185.4	201.7	6.6	11.2	20.9	33.8
Nepal	52.2	32.0	20.1	19.6	7.6	9.5	8.3	8.3
Niger	96.6	38.4	33.0	40.8	8.0	6.2	3.4	7.5
Paraguay	43.8	88.8	56.2	62.0	9.0	8.1	21.9	18.6
Republic of Moldova	140.6	71.1	74.5	91.1	22.5	15.3	14.6	12.9
Rwanda	75.0	33.1	26.1	28.4	25.7	5.9	4.5	7.7
South Sudan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Swaziland	21.4	15.8	9.9	10.1	2.2	2.0	1.7	1.3
Tajikistan	138.4	56.1	45.3	54.4	..	13.7	13.7	16.8
TFYR Macedonia	40.0	53.2	65.1	70.6	11.8	16.5	17.3	20.8
Turkmenistan	96.3	9.7	1.0	1.1	..	..	..	..
Uganda	58.1	28.5	19.0	22.4	10.6	4.4	2.1	1.8
Uzbekistan	36.5	26.0	20.4	21.8	..	..	..	..
Zambia	168.7	47.6	28.7	43.6	21.2	8.8	3.6	6.2
Zimbabwe	60.7	88.6	61.4	66.4	..	13.2	10.9	13.4
Average, LLDCs	**66.9**	**51.2**	**44.0**	**50.3**	**18.0**	**20.1**	**19.2**	**29.3**

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

Table 6.8: Debt distress

COUNTRY NAME	Risk of debt distress	
	Latest publication date*	Risk of debt distress
Afghanistan	05/06/2017	High
Armenia	..	
Azerbaijan	..	
Bhutan	30/06/2016	Moderate
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	..	
Botswana	..	
Burkina Faso	22/12/2016	Moderate
Burundi	01/04/2015	High
Central African Republic	10/08/2016	High
Chad	28/11/2016	High
Ethiopia	04/10/2016	Moderate
Kazakhstan	..	
Kyrgyzstan	02/06/2017	Moderate
Lao People's Democratic Republic	15/02/2017	High
Lesotho	03/02/2016	Moderate
Malawi	05/07/2017	Moderate
Mali	07/12/2016	Moderate
Mongolia	..	
Nepal	27/03/2017	Low
Niger	24/02/2017	Moderate
Paraguay	..	
Republic of Moldova	09/11/2016	Low
Rwanda	16/07/2016	Low
South Sudan	23/03/2017	In debt distress
Swaziland	..	
Tajikistan	13/06/2011	High
TFYR Macedonia	..	
Turkmenistan	..	
Uganda	..	
Uzbekistan	..	
Zambia	16/06/2015	Moderate
Zimbabwe	04/05/2016	In debt distress

Source: IMF, List of LIC Debt Sustainability Analyses for PRGT-Eligible Countries
** Based on Debt Sustainability Analyses publications for PRGT-Eligible Countries, as of 1 July 2017*

LLDCs Global Report 2017

LLDCs Population

COUNTRY NAME	Population (millions, Mid-year Estimates)										
	Millions of US Dollars										
	1990	2000	2003	2008	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Afghanistan	12.2	20.1	23.1	27.3	28.8	29.7	30.7	31.7	32.8	33.7	34.7
Armenia	3.5	3.1	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9
Azerbaijan	7.2	8.0	8.2	8.8	9.1	9.2	9.3	9.4	9.5	9.6	9.8
Bhutan	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	6.9	8.3	8.8	9.6	9.9	10.1	10.2	10.4	10.6	10.7	10.9
Botswana	1.4	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.3
Burkina Faso	8.8	11.6	12.7	14.7	15.6	16.1	16.6	17.1	17.6	18.1	18.6
Burundi	5.4	6.4	7.0	8.2	8.8	9.0	9.3	9.6	9.9	10.2	10.5
Central African Republic	2.9	3.8	4.0	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.6
Chad	6.0	8.3	9.4	11.1	11.9	12.3	12.7	13.1	13.6	14.0	14.5
Ethiopia	48.1	66.5	72.5	83.2	87.7	90.0	92.4	94.9	97.4	99.9	102.4
Kazakhstan	16.3	14.9	14.9	15.7	16.3	16.6	16.8	17.0	17.3	17.5	17.8
Kyrgyzstan	4.4	4.9	5.0	5.3	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.7	5.8	6.0	6.1
Lao People's Democratic Republic	4.3	5.3	5.6	6.1	6.2	6.3	6.4	6.5	6.6	6.7	6.8
Lesotho	1.6	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.2
Malawi	9.4	11.4	12.3	14.3	15.2	15.6	16.1	16.6	17.1	17.6	18.1
Mali	8.5	11.0	12.0	14.1	15.1	15.5	16.0	16.5	17.0	17.5	18.0
Mongolia	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0
Nepal	18.7	23.7	25.0	26.5	27.0	27.3	27.6	28.0	28.3	28.7	29.0
Niger	8.0	11.4	12.7	15.2	16.4	17.1	17.7	18.4	19.1	19.9	20.7
Paraguay	4.2	5.3	5.6	6.0	6.2	6.3	6.4	6.5	6.6	6.6	6.7
Republic of Moldova	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6
Rwanda	7.2	8.0	8.7	9.7	10.2	10.5	10.8	11.1	11.3	11.6	11.9
South Sudan	5.8	6.7	7.5	9.3	10.1	10.4	10.8	11.2	11.5	11.9	12.2
Swaziland	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3
Tajikistan	5.3	6.2	6.6	7.3	7.6	7.8	8.0	8.2	8.4	8.5	8.7
TFYR Macedonia	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1
Turkmenistan	3.7	4.5	4.7	4.9	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.7
Uganda	17.4	24.0	26.6	31.7	33.9	35.1	36.3	37.6	38.8	40.1	41.5
Uzbekistan	20.5	24.7	25.6	27.3	28.6	29.3	29.8	30.2	30.8	31.3	31.8
Zambia	8.0	10.5	11.4	13.1	13.9	14.3	14.7	15.2	15.6	16.1	16.6
Zimbabwe	10.2	12.2	12.6	13.6	14.1	14.4	14.7	15.1	15.4	15.8	16.2
Total, LLDCs	**265.3**	**334.3**	**358.9**	**404.2**	**424.8**	**435.5**	**446.3**	**457.4**	**468.7**	**480.2**	**491.8**
World	**5,284.9**	**6,118.1**	**6,356.3**	**6,763.7**	**6,930.7**	**7,012.8**	**7,097.4**	**7,182.9**	**7,269.0**	**7,355.2**	**7,442.1**

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

Did you know?

UN-OHRLLS

- Supports 91 vulnerable countries with a combined population of 1.1 billion people
- Coordinates and implements Programmes of Actions
- Advocates in favor of vulnerable country groups
- Mobilizes international support
- Supports countries through the United Nations system

Scan QR code for more publications

Front Cover Page Photo: *A 76-kilometer railway from the Uzbekistan border to Mazar-e-Sharif, Afghanistan.* ADB/Flickr
Back Cover Page Photo: *Rwanda.* A'Melody Lee, World Bank/Flickr

UN-OHRLLS

The United Nations Office of the High Representative for the Least Developed Countries, Landlocked Developing Countries and Small Island Developing States (UN-OHRLLS) supports groups of vulnerable countries in the United Nations System. The 47 Least Developed Countries, 32 Landlocked Developing Countries and 58 Small Island Developing States have their own special challenges. Least Developed Countries represent the poorest and most vulnerable segment of the international community. Due to an over reliance on few primary commodities as a major source of earnings, they are typically highly vulnerable to external trade shocks.

UN-OHRLLS helps coordinate and implement the Istanbul Programme of Action which assists least developed countries in areas including economic growth, poverty reduction and meeting targets laid out in the Sustainable Development Goals. UN-OHRLLS plays a coordination role in regard to the UN system support in the elaboration of the graduation and transition strategies in countries aspiring to graduate.

FIND US: unohrlls.org @UNOHRLLS /UNOHRLLS