



Development  
Progress

## Regional Scorecard

# Projecting progress

## The SDGs in Latin America and the Caribbean

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## Abbreviations and acronyms

<b>CAM</b>	Central America	<b>ODI</b>	Overseas Development Institute
<b>CAR</b>	Caribbean	<b>OECD</b>	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
<b>ECLAC</b>	UN Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean	<b>OWG</b>	Open Working Group
<b>GDP</b>	Gross domestic product	<b>PPP</b>	Purchasing power parity
<b>LAC</b>	Latin America and the Caribbean	<b>PSA</b>	Payments for Environmental Services ( <i>Pago por Servicios Ambientales</i> )
<b>LDC</b>	Least-developed country	<b>SAR</b>	South America
<b>MDG</b>	Millennium Development Goal	<b>SDG</b>	Sustainable Development Goal

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## Map of regions used in report\*



\* While care was taken in the creation of this map, neither the authors nor ODI can accept any responsibility for errors, omissions, or positional accuracy. This report has used standard UN geographical classifications.

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# Key messages

- This paper presents Latin America and the Caribbean's (LAC) likely progress across the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) agenda, if trends continue on their current trajectories.
- LAC is set to do particularly well on three goals and targets. Notably the region has been the most unequal globally, but reductions will count as some of the most impressive globally if present trends continue.
- Ending extreme poverty and expanding energy access are the other two areas in which the region is set to make significant gains. A further seven goals are moving in the right direction but progress will need to accelerate significantly to reach targets by 2030.
- Five goals and targets are moving in the wrong direction across LAC: reducing slum populations, reducing waste, combating climate change, marine conservation, and reducing violent deaths. While the negative trajectory is similar to global trends for the first four of these, the target on ending violent deaths is projected to fare much worse in the region than elsewhere.
- There are significant disparities across the globe in progress both between and within countries; LAC is no exception. There are a number of disparities across sub-regions and there are disparities within countries – ethnicity, for example, is a crucial factor in determining whether someone is likely to benefit from development gains.
- During the Millennium Development Goals era considerable gains were made in a number of countries in LAC. However, already strong outcomes in some areas compared with other developing regions will make continued progress towards the new goals difficult.
- This analysis is one of a series of regional scorecards that also includes papers on sub-Saharan Africa and the Asia-Pacific regions. The work is modelled on a global scorecard for the SDGs, presented in the ODI report *Projecting Progress: Reaching the SDGs by 2030*.



# 1. Introduction



Woman in Nicaragua. Photo: © Elaine Faith.

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), consisting of 17 goals and 169 targets, are an ambitious agenda that will shape international development efforts for the next 15 years. They highlight the complexity and wide scope of development challenges, and the need for solutions to the world's urgent development issues, with 'all countries and all stakeholders, acting in collaborative partnership, [to] implement this plan' (UN, 2015a).

But can the SDG agenda really be achieved, and what will it take to do so? While there is agreement on what the global goals are, there is significant variation in the likelihood of achieving these goals by 2030 across regions and countries. As SDG implementation begins, it is timely to look more closely at trends in progress across the goals. Assessing what the SDGs mean for the scale of ambition in different regions can help inform prioritisation and early actions on the SDGs.

In September 2015, we published a global SDG scorecard, *Projecting Progress: Reaching the SDGs by 2030*. That report offered the first systematic attempt to project progress across the SDG agenda, and it assessed how close to achieving the goals the world will be in 2030 if current trends continue (Nicolai et al., 2015).

This report, modelled on that global scorecard, presents a more detailed analysis of projected progress for Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC). It uses data collected during the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) period, and calculates progress forward to establish how the region would be doing in 2030 if current trends continue. It is one of a series of three regional scorecards we are publishing in the first half of 2016, identifying in more detail where things are going well, what issues need greater attention, and which trends must be reversed to achieve the goals by 2030.

## 1.1 LAC during the MDG era

LAC made impressive strides overall towards achieving the MDGs. The share of people considered to be in extreme poverty, defined as those living on less than US\$1.25 a day (2005 purchasing power parity – PPP), declined by two-thirds – from 13% in 1990 to 4% in 2015 (UN, 2015b). The extreme poverty rate in Latin America declined from 12% to 4% while that for the Caribbean was higher, at 33% in 1990 and declining to 22% by 2015. Income distribution also improved over the past decade (ECLAC, 2015). These improvements can be attributed

### Box 1: What do people in Latin America and the Caribbean want?

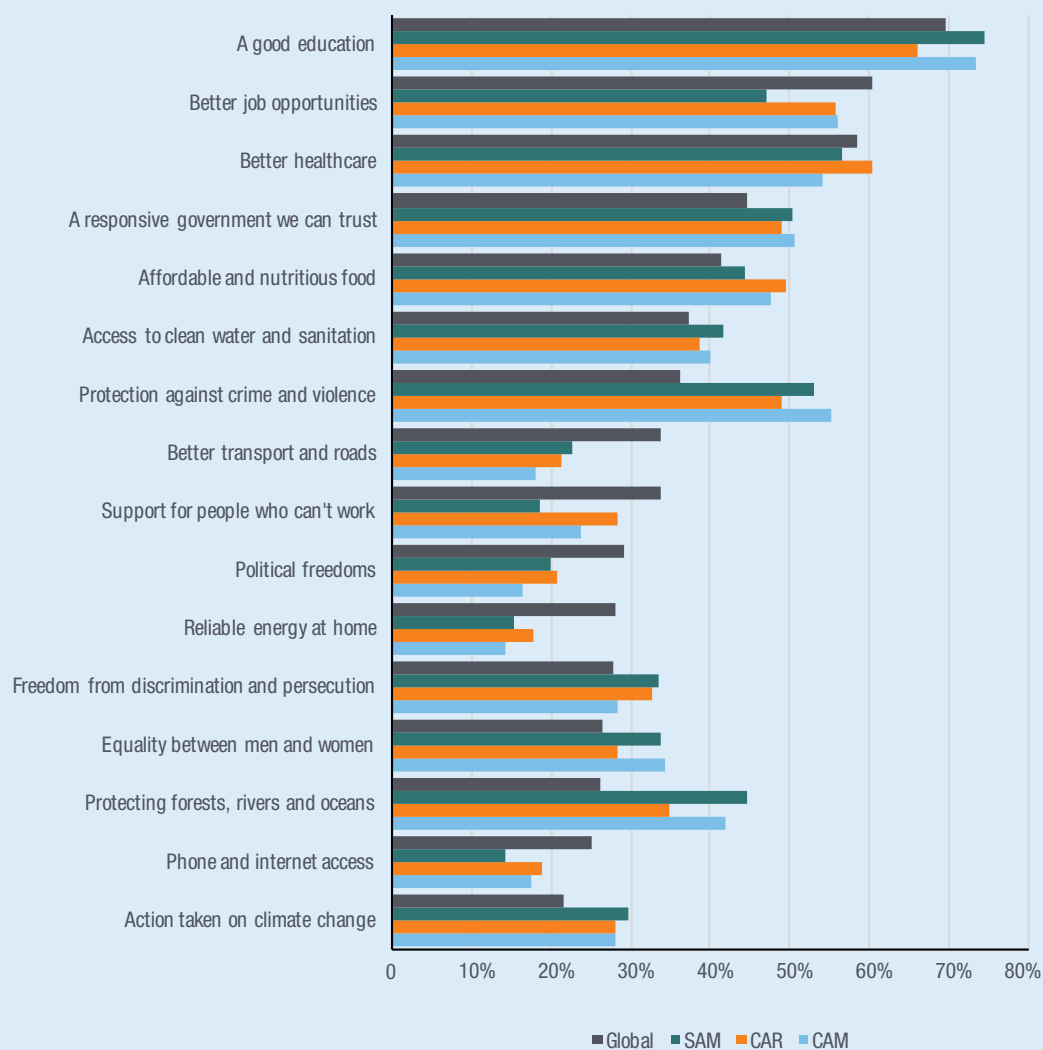
We can gain further knowledge of development priorities in the region through the MY World survey, a global UN survey, which aimed to understand the development priorities of people from across the world in order to inform and influence the SDGs.\* It asked respondents one simple question: which six (out of 16) development priorities were most important to them and their families? To date, over 9.7 million people have responded to the survey.

In the MY World survey Latin American priorities seem to reflect much of what is important to people globally. Both globally and in LAC, people have ranked a good education highest (Figure 1). In addition, better job opportunities, better healthcare and a responsive government that can be trusted are ranked in the top five both globally and in all of the sub-regions looked at here.

However, there are some marked differences relative to the global average. For instance, protection against crime and violence ranked third in Central America and South America, while it was sixth for the Caribbean and seventh globally. The importance of equality between men and women was also demonstrated as it was selected by a higher share of people in the region compared to the global average.

Finally, it is noteworthy that the two environmental goals – protecting forests, rivers and oceans, and action on climate change – were prioritised much higher in the region than globally. The former ranks fourteenth globally but sixth in South America, where it is selected by 45% of respondents as a priority, seventh in Central America and eighth in the Caribbean. Similarly, while action on climate change ranks last globally, it ranks eleventh in the region.

**Figure 1: MY World priorities (% of respondents selecting each option)**



\*The MyWorld survey is available online (in the six UN official languages), through mobile phones using a short message service (SMS) and toll-free phone using interactive voice response, and via paper-and-pencil-based offline surveys conducted by grassroots organisations. It was designed to be as open as possible to encourage maximum responses; as a result, it does not employ a rigorous sampling methodology and is not intended to be representative in the statistical sense.

to a lower dependency ratio, redistributive cash transfers, and favourable labour market conditions including rising employment and a narrowing wage gap between skilled and unskilled workers (ECLAC, 2014a). Increases in remittances have also contributed to declining poverty in some countries, for instance Mexico, El Salvador and Dominican Republic (UN, 2010).

The region also reached the MDG hunger-reduction target, as the proportion of undernourished people decreased from 14.7% in 1990-92 to 5.5% in 2014-16 (ECLAC, 2015). Here too, however, the Caribbean trailed Latin America; the proportion of those who are undernourished remains considerably higher in the Caribbean (20%) relative to Latin America (5%) (UN, 2015b).

In the late 1990s a recessionary cycle affected the region, but in the 2000s growth in most countries supported broader progress (UN, 2015b). Greater economic dynamism translated into higher social spending by governments, with per capita social spending in the region increasing by 43% between 2003 and 2008 alone (*ibid.*), which helped to improve social-development outcomes.

Latin America and the Caribbean made considerable progress on education; the adjusted net enrolment rate for primary schooling increased from 87% in 1990 to 94% in 2015, and the region achieved gender parity at the primary level. High levels of participation in primary education have gone hand in hand with high completion rates. In addition, major progress has occurred in secondary education in many countries although inequalities in access and completion remain a challenge (ECLAC, 2015). In terms of gender, the region was within the range of gender parity in primary education by 2015, and girls had better access to secondary and tertiary education than boys (*ibid.*).

Since the early 1990s, LAC has nearly tripled women's representation in national parliaments and increased the number of women at the highest levels of national government (ECLAC, 2015). Nonetheless, there are significant differences between countries on this front.

There have also been improvements on the health front. The region notably reached the target for the under-five mortality rate, which was reduced by 69% between 1990 and 2015. The Caribbean sub-region has seen the sharpest decline in the number of people newly infected with HIV, dropping by 56% between 2000 and 2015 (UN, 2015b). However, progress has been unequal and, in some cases, insufficient. For instance, only a third of countries in LAC are expected to have met the goal of halving the infant mortality rate.

The region reached the MDG target on drinking water five years ahead of schedule, with 95% coverage by 2015. It was also very close to achieving the target of halving the share of people without basic sanitation; sanitation coverage increased from 67% in 1990 to 83% in 2015 (UN, 2015b).

With regard to environmental sustainability, performance has been mixed. Latin America and the Caribbean leads the way in protecting land and marine

areas: it increased the share of land that is 'protected' from 9% in 1990 to 23% in 2014 – the highest for any region globally (UN, 2015b). Despite this, the region has some of the highest deforestation rates in the world.

Finally, the MDGs helped spur improvements in the availability of basic data in the region. For instance, there has been a remarkable increase in the availability of data on indigenous people in the region; 17 out of 20 countries in Latin America included questions on indigenous people in the 2010 census (UN, 2015b). This disaggregated data is likely to have contributed to the adoption of more effective interventions to reduce inequality.

## 1.2 The SDGs and LAC

The SDGs were adopted through an inclusive process involving an unprecedented level of buy-in from, and ownership by, governments from across the world. Developing countries in particular played a key role in the process, and a number of countries from LAC were closely involved.

Brazil hosted the UN Conference on Sustainable Development, or Rio+20, in 2012. Following this, an Open Working Group (OWG) was formed with representation from all major world regions. The Latin American and Caribbean Group had six out of the 30 seats on the OWG, shared by 14 countries by rotation. In addition, several countries from the region had representatives serving on the UN High-level Panel on the Post-2015 Development Agenda (Brazil, Colombia, Cuba and Mexico).

Countries in the region have actively advocated to forward various priorities during SDG formulation. Brazil in particular made strong contributions to the SDG agenda, especially on the follow-up on Rio+20 (including adopting the principle of 'common but differentiated responsibilities' for the SDG agenda) and in pushing the technology transfer agenda (Lucci et al., 2015). Colombia played a key role in formulating the SDG agenda and provided an influential first proposal for the SDGs at the start of the negotiations with Guatemala (Lucci et al., 2015). It was also the first country that planned to align its national development objectives with the goals.

Regional bodies have also been involved. For example, the UN Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) set out shared priorities in the High-Level Political Forum on Sustainable Development (ECLAC, 2014b). These included the need to continue with the unfinished agenda for the MDGs and to meet emerging challenges relating to energy, demographics, urbanisation, natural disasters and public safety. It stressed the need for a new development model based on structural change for equality and environmental sustainability, and to address key policy and institutional issues in terms of regulation, financing and governance. It also advocated for a global system of governance for development that provides genuine opportunities for socially participatory

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decision-making. In addition, the ECLAC secretariat's position document, 'Horizons 2030: Equality at the Centre of Sustainable Development', examines the policies and partnerships that the region will need in order to ensure greater equality and environmental sustainability. As a result of the debates, ECLAC's member states decided to establish the 'Forum of the Countries of Latin America and the Caribbean on Sustainable Development' as a mechanism to follow up and review SDG implementation at the regional level.

Finally, three Latin American countries – Colombia, Mexico and Venezuela<sup>1</sup> – are among 22 countries that have undertaken voluntary reviews to be presented at the High-Level Political Forum on Sustainable Development in July 2016.

### 1.3 About this regional scorecard

This regional scorecard presents projections based on recent trends extended forward to 2030. Following from the global analysis prepared for the *Projecting Progress*

report (Nicolai et al., 2015), we used the same 17 targets and the same methodology, and projected forward to 2030, grading sub-regions within LAC according to how close they will be to goal-completion in 2030.

Based on these projections, we provide a scorecard of where LAC as a whole, as well as three sub-regions of South America, Central America, and the Caribbean, will be in 2030 on each target, assuming progress continues at its present pace.

The report is structured in five sections. Following this introduction, Section 2 provides a brief overview of the methodology used to produce the scorecard, with further details offered in Annex X. Section 3 discusses the key findings of the projections by goal and target for LAC and the three sub-regions, and details case studies of top performers across some of the goals. Section 4 points to the key role equity issues play in the achievement of the SDGs. It also looks more closely at what the core SDG commitment to 'leave no one behind' might mean for LAC, and provides a few country examples. Section 5 concludes.

**'The 17 Sustainable Development Goals reaffirm the basic tenet of Rio+20: it is possible to grow, include, preserve and protect. They establish genuinely inclusive goals, highlight the need for cooperation among peoples and point towards a common path for humanity' – Dilma Rousseff, Federative Republic of Brazil**

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1 Initially, Peru had also volunteered for national review under the High-Level Political Forum on Sustainable Development.



# 2. Approach and methodology

This section explains how we constructed the projections, assigned grades, and sourced data. Annex 1 contains further detailed description of the methodology and shows how certain targets were adjusted to allow for projections to be made.

The SDGs comprise an integrated agenda across 17 goals and 169 targets. Projections for all the targets are not feasible, for several reasons: not all targets are quantifiable, and, for those that are, data are not always available. Among the targets that can be projected, we selected only one target per goal in order to make analysis and discussion more manageable.

Each of the 17 targets we selected broadly reflects the essence of its overarching goal. That said, the projections only relate to a specific target within each goal, and should not be interpreted as indicative of how the whole goal will fare. This scorecard therefore presents the trend for one key target for each goal, as opposed to all targets under all goals. For some goals a different target or indicator from the one used here may be more appropriate since LAC has a different starting point. However, in the interest of consistency we retain the same targets and indicators as the global SDG scorecard, *Projecting Progress: Reaching the SDGs by 2030* (Nicolai et al., 2015). A detailed discussion about the selection of each target and the assumptions

behind projecting the SDG indicators to 2030 can be found in the annex to that report.<sup>2</sup>

Most of the projections in the global SDG scorecard were sourced from leading international organisations. However, when no projections were available, we calculated our own. Very few of the projections sourced from international organisations are disaggregated to the country level. To produce this regional SDG scorecard, we needed to develop our own projections for most of the targets. The target exceptions are: education (Goal 4), waste (Goal 12), domestic resource mobilisation (Goal 17) and marine environment (Goal 14). For the first three, country-level projections are available<sup>3</sup>. For marine environment, the best available data indicated that it is impossible to disaggregate beyond the regional level.

This LAC scorecard provides grades at regional, sub-regional and, to some extent, country level. We have used standard UN geographic breakdowns.<sup>4</sup> To determine regional and sub-regional grades, we calculated a simple average<sup>5</sup> across countries that had data available. In some instances, there are only a small number of countries in a specific sub-region, owing to limited data availability; this is indicated by an asterisk in the scorecard on page 17.

**Table 1: SDG Scorecard 2030 grading system**

Grading System	A	B	C	D	E	F
Current trends suggest:	Meets the target	More than half-way to target	More than a third of the way to target	More than a quarter of the way to target	Little to no progress	Reverse direction of current trends

2 [http://www.developmentprogress.org/sites/developmentprogress.org/files/scorecard\\_annex.pdf](http://www.developmentprogress.org/sites/developmentprogress.org/files/scorecard_annex.pdf)

3 The target for domestic-resource mobilisation relies on International Monetary Fund (IMF) projections to 2020. The trajectory of the IMF projections is assumed to continue to 2030, as per the methodology in the global SDG scorecard.

4 <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/methods/m49/m49regin.htm>

5 A simple average was used, as opposed to a population weighted average, for two main reasons. Firstly, owing to limited data availability, it was not possible to produce a robust population-weighted average. This is because, when data was missing, we would have had to make assumptions about how countries performed. Secondly, a population-weighted average would mean that a few populous countries would drive the sub-regional average.

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## Steps to calculate grades

Four main steps were used to calculate the grades assigned to countries in the LAC scorecard. Each of these steps is summarised below (see Annex 1 for further details).

1. Calculate current rates of progress based on recent trends: we calculated the average annual change over the past decade using the most recent 10 years of data.<sup>6</sup>
2. Project what would be achieved in 2030 if current trends continue: we determined levels of achievement by 2030 by assuming that the current rate of progress would continue over the next 15 years.
3. Determine how much faster progress would need to be to achieve the SDGs: we applied a standard approach to each indicator in order to determine how much faster the rate of progress would need to be to achieve the relevant SDG. The formula used can be found in Annex 1.

4. Assign grades based upon the projected rate of progress: we allocated grades in order to provide an easy way to understand the increase in rates of progress needed, in order to achieve the SDG target by 2030. The table on page 13 explains the basis of each of the grades.

## Data sources

The World Bank was the main source of data for 12 of the projections. For the remaining five projections, we relied on the leading international organisation to provide the best available data (see Table 2). For example, data on child marriage was sourced from UNICEF (2016) and data on slums was sourced from UN-Habitat (2016).

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<sup>6</sup> For illustrative purposes the formulas included in this section show data being available in 2015. However, sometimes the most recent data was earlier than 2015. In these instances the formula was adjusted accordingly.

**Table 2: Data sources used in projections**

	Topic	Target	Indicator used	Data Source
1	Poverty	1.1 End extreme poverty	Share of population living under the international poverty line	World Bank (2016c) <i>PovcalNET</i>
2	Hunger	2.1 End hunger	Share of population that is under-nourished (food intake is insufficient to meet dietary-energy requirements continuously)	World Bank (2016a) <i>World Development Indicators (WDI)</i>
3	Health	3.1 Reduce maternal mortality	Maternal mortality ratio (modelled estimate, per 100,000 live births)	World Bank (2016a) <i>WDI</i>
4	Education	4.1 Universal secondary education	Percentage of the population aged 20-24 that have completed upper secondary-level education	World Bank (2016b) <i>EdStats: Education Statistics</i>
5	Gender	5.3 End child marriage	Share of women aged 20-24 who were married before 18	UNICEF (2016) <i>State of the World's Children reports</i>
6	Water/ Sanitation	6.1 Universal access to sanitation	Share of population with access to improved sanitation facilities	World Bank (2016a) <i>WDI</i>
7	Energy	7.1 Universal access to energy	Share of population with access to electricity	World Bank (2016a) <i>WDI</i>
8	Growth	8.1 Economic growth in LDCs	Annual percentage GDP growth	World Bank (2016a) <i>WDI</i>
9	Industrialisation	9.2 Industrialisation in LDCs	Industry, value added (% of GDP)	World Bank (2016a) <i>WDI</i>
10	Inequality	10.1 Reduce income inequality	Growth of income of the bottom 40% relative to average	World Bank (2016c) <i>PovcalNET</i>
11	Cities	11.1 Reduce slum populations	Share of urban population living in slums	UNHABITAT (2016) <i>Urban Data</i>
12	Waste	12.5 Reduce waste	Solid waste generated per person (tonnes)	Hoornweg and Bhada-Tata (2012)
13	Climate change	13.2 Combat climate change	Average annual carbon emissions per country (millions of tonnes)	World Bank (2016a) <i>WDI</i>
14	Oceans	14.2 Protect marine environments	Reefs under threat (%)	Burke et al. (2011)
15	Biodiversity	15.2 Halt deforestation	Forest area as a share of total land area	World Bank (2016a) <i>WDI</i>
16	Peace	16.1 Reduce violent deaths	Violent deaths as a share of total deaths	WHO (2016) <i>Mortality and Causes of Death</i>
17	Partnerships	17.1 Mobilise domestic resources	Government revenue as a share of GDP	IMF (2016) <i>World Economic Outlook</i>

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# 3. Projections based on current trends

This section indicates the level of progress that countries in Latin America are projected to achieve by 2030 against the selected SDG targets, if current trends continue. We discuss the findings for each target and include case studies that focus on the drivers of progress in top-performing countries. Annex 2 includes grades on a country-by-country basis as well as charts of the projected progress for each target. Goals 8 and 9 are not included because the key targets selected for those goals in the global scorecard (Nicolai et al., 2015) relate to least-developed countries (LDCs) and Haiti is the only LDC in the LAC region.

The scorecard opposite shows the grades based on the projected performance of Latin America and the Caribbean and each sub-region. If current trends continue, some targets are close to being achieved by 2030, while many targets are a long way off track, including the target on climate change. We have grouped the targets into three categories, depending on how much faster progress will need to be, relative to current trends, to achieve the targets by 2030.

- Those that require **reform**. Current trends would take these targets more than half-way to achievement by 2030. Notably the region is on track to reduce inequality (Goal 10), although the Caribbean lags behind. In addition, this group includes ending extreme poverty (Goal 1) and access to energy (Goal 7), which will be more than half the way to achievement if present trends continue.
- Those that require **revolution**. These are targets where progress needs to speed up by multiples of current rates to meet the target. This group includes eight targets: eliminating hunger (Goal 2), reducing maternal mortality (Goal 3), secondary-school completion (Goal 4), ending child marriage (Goal 5), access to sanitation (Goal 6), halting deforestation (Goal 15), and strengthening domestic-resource mobilisation (Goal 17).
- Those that need a **reversal**. The targets in this group are heading in the wrong direction. They include reducing slum populations (Goal 11), reducing waste (Goal 12), combating climate change (Goal 13), marine conservation (Goal 14), and reducing violent deaths (Goal 16).

In addition to looking at aggregate projected grades across the region, it is crucial to consider the differences between sub-regions and countries, which are often quite significant. For instance, large differences are found for the targets on access to sanitation (Goal 6) and inequality (Goal 10), both of which fare poorly in the Caribbean. Conversely, with halting deforestation (Goal 15), the Caribbean is set to outperform significantly both the South and Central American sub-regions.

Finally, it is worth noting that even a negative score does not imply a prediction of failure, but rather sets out the scale of the challenge. The purpose of goals is to stretch beyond current trends, and the SDGs set out an ambitious agenda that aims to inspire action. Indeed, based on present trends we will not achieve any of the targets considered globally (Nicolai et al., 2015). In that regard the SDGs set out an ambitious agenda with the aim of inspiring countries and the global community to action.

## 3.1 'Reform': moving toward the last mile

### Target 10.1 Reduce income inequality (Grade A)

*By 2030 progressively achieve and sustain income growth of the bottom 40% of the population at a rate higher than the national average.*

Almost all countries in the region<sup>7</sup> are on track to achieve this target if current trends continue (Figure 2, overleaf), which is why the region receives an 'A' grade. Growth for the bottom 40% of the population was at least two-and-a-half percentage points faster than the average in Bolivia, El Salvador, Ecuador (see Box 2, overleaf, for drivers of progress in Ecuador), Nicaragua and Peru. The Caribbean countries of Jamaica and Haiti are the only countries where the incomes of the bottom 40% of the population have grown slower than the average. These countries will need to change their current trajectory to achieve this target.

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<sup>7</sup> This is based upon 19 countries for which data is available. There was data for nine countries in South America, eight in Central America and three in the Caribbean.



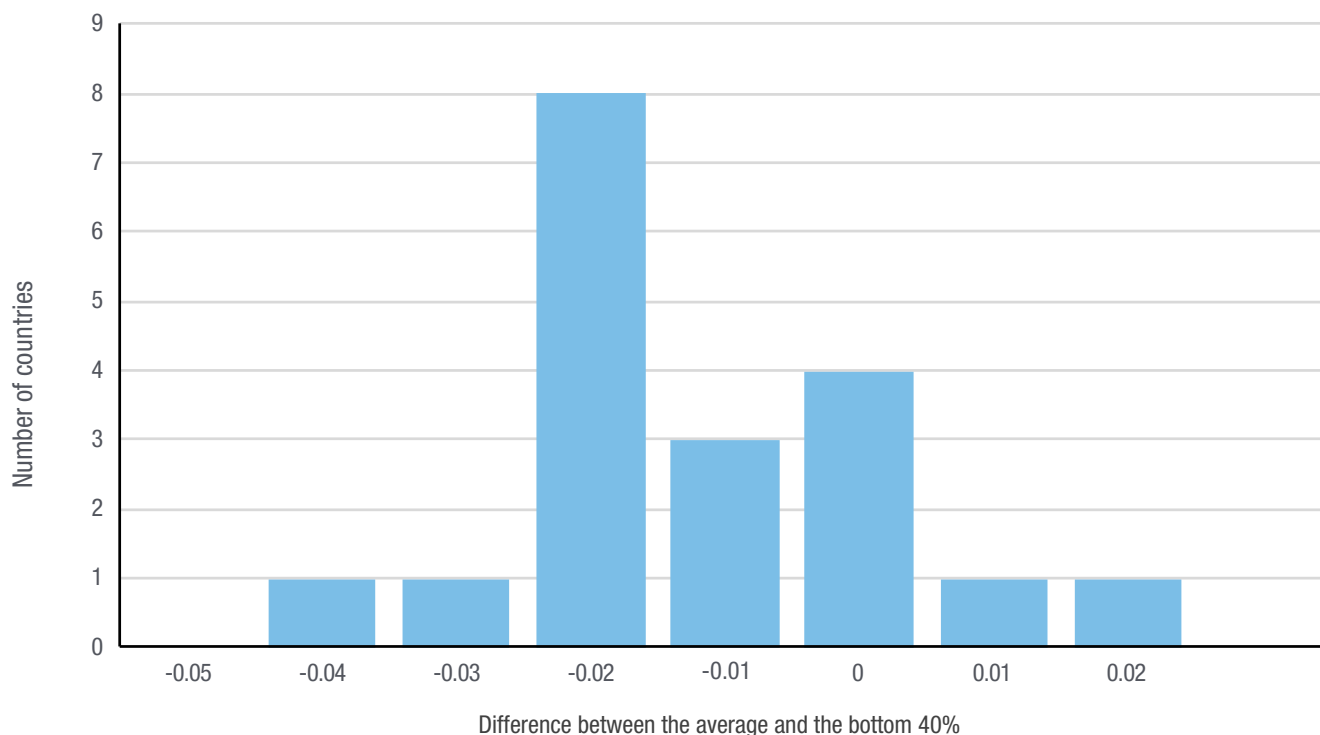
# SDG SCORECARD 2030

## LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

Goal	Target	Grade			
		Latin America	Central America	Caribbean	South America
<b>10. INEQUALITY</b>	<b>10.1</b> Reduce Income Inequality	<b>A</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>D*</b>	<b>A</b>
<b>1. POVERTY</b>	<b>1.1</b> End Extreme Poverty	<b>B</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>B</b>
<b>7. ENERGY</b>	<b>7.1</b> Universal Access to Energy	<b>B</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>B</b>
<b>6. WATER &amp; SANITATION</b>	<b>6.2</b> Universal Access to Sanitation	<b>C</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>B</b>
<b>15. BIODIVERSITY</b>	<b>15.2</b> Halt Deforestation	<b>D</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>D</b>
<b>2. HUNGER</b>	<b>2.1</b> End Hunger	<b>E</b>	<b>E</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>D</b>
<b>3. HEALTH</b>	<b>3.1</b> Reduce Maternal Mortality	<b>E</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>E</b>	<b>D</b>
<b>4. EDUCATION</b>	<b>4.1</b> Universal Secondary Education	<b>E</b>	<b>E</b>	<b>E</b>	<b>D</b>
<b>5. GENDER</b>	<b>5.3</b> End Child Marriage	<b>E</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>C*</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>17. PARTNERSHIPS</b>	<b>17.1</b> Mobilise Domestic Resources	<b>E</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>F*</b>	<b>F*</b>
<b>11. CITIES</b>	<b>11.1</b> Reduce Slum Populations	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>12. WASTE</b>	<b>12.5</b> Reduce Waste	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>13. CLIMATE CHANGE</b>	<b>13.2</b> Combat Climate Change	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>14. OCEANS</b>	<b>14.2</b> Protect Marine Environments	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>16. PEACE</b>	<b>16.1</b> Reduce Violent Deaths	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>E</b>
<b>8. GROWTH</b>	<b>8.1</b> Economic Growth in LDCs	<b>N/A</b>	<b>N/A</b>	<b>D*</b>	<b>N/A</b>
<b>9. INDUSTRIALISATION</b>	<b>9.2</b> Industrialisation in LDCs	<b>N/A</b>	<b>N/A</b>	<b>N/A</b>	<b>N/A</b>

Note: \*means that grades are based on trends in three or less countries due to limited data availability.

**Figure 2: Projections for target 10.1 – Reduce income inequality**



### Target 1.1 End extreme poverty (Grade B)

*By 2030, eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere, currently measured as people living on less than US\$1.25 a day<sup>8</sup>*

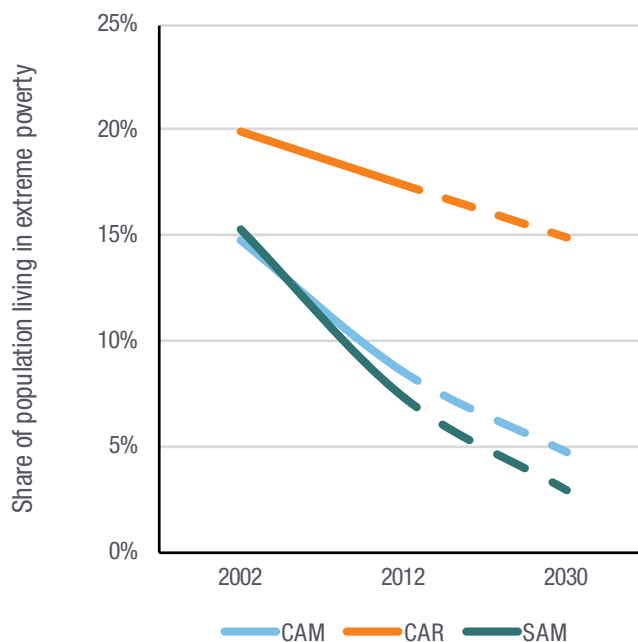
The region is set to make most of the progress needed to achieve this target by 2030, which is why it is awarded a ‘B’ grade. All three sub-regions also receive a ‘B’ grade, although disparities in levels exist across sub-regions (Haiti skews the performance of the Caribbean sub-region) (Figure 3).

In fact, over half the countries in the region are on track to reduce extreme poverty by more than 80% if current trends continue.

By 2030, the vast majority of countries in the region are set to reduce the share of people living in extreme poverty to below 5%. The countries with extreme-poverty headcount ratios projected to be above this level are Honduras, Guyana, Suriname, St Lucia, Haiti and Belize.

While the region as a whole and all three sub-regions receive a ‘B’ grade, progress will need to speed up in some countries in the Caribbean which start from a high base and so for whom, although they are projected to make considerable progress, poverty rates will remain high in 2030. In particular, half the population in Haiti is set to remain in extreme poverty in 2030 unless progress is hastened.

**Figure 3: Projections for target 1.1 – End extreme poverty**



<sup>8</sup> The international poverty line has since shifted to US\$1.90 (2011 PPP) which is equivalent to the US\$1.25 (2005 PPP).

## Box 2: Ecuador's progress on reducing inequality

Income inequality has fallen sharply in Ecuador over the past two decades; the Palma ratio – the ratio of the income share of the top 10% over the bottom 40% – almost halved over the past 20 years (World Bank, 2016a). An increasingly stable economy and political environment has allowed Ecuador to enact pro-poor policies aimed at tackling poverty and inequality.

Recent governments have sought to increase dramatically revenue available for social policies. In 2007 Ecuador established a windfall tax, under which additional revenue from oil-price rises over the contracted price would be split 99-1 between the government and oil companies. This helped to increase tax revenue from 5.6% in 1996 to 14.5% of gross domestic product (GDP) by 2012, which has funded redistribution through direct transfers and universalism.

Conditional cash transfers began in 1998 as a strategy to compensate poor families for the removal of universal subsidies. Registries and means-testing helped to improve targeting through the years, with an emphasis on families with children. In 2007 transfers increased to US\$35 a month to all beneficiaries and in 2013 to US\$50 a month to all beneficiaries. The programme has reduced poverty headcounts while also having a positive impact on school attendance, child labour and food consumption amongst the poorest (Edmonds and Schady, 2009; Paxson and Schady, 2010).

Universalism has involved eliminating barriers to education and public healthcare in order to extend access to the poorest. Large increases in financing were used to make services free at the point of delivery and reduce associated costs for the user. In education, this included extending free meals, providing free school uniforms and abolishing tuition contributions to public schools in 2007. The gap between the richest and poorest households in access to primary education fell from 21% in 1999 to 2.5% in 2014. For secondary education, the same gap fell from 67% in 1999 to 22% in 2014 (INEC, 2014). In the health sector, free access was expanded to include preventive care: preventive medical consultations increased by 21% between 2000 and 2005, and by 130% from 2005 to 2011 (Ministerio de Salud Pública, 2011).

As a result, the proportion of Ecuador's population who live in extreme poverty, which had doubled from 10% in 1998 to 20% in 2000 after a major economic and financial crisis, fell back to 10% by 2004 and to 4% by 2012.

Further gains in poverty reduction will require action in hard-to-reach areas. In 2014, nearly 50% of the rural population was poor in relation to the national poverty line, compared with about 14% in urban areas, and the ratio of rural-urban chronic poverty reached a high of 3.6 in 2014.\* Ecuador currently relies heavily on traditional exports (oil, shrimps and agricultural commodities) for economic growth and sources of public revenue – further progress will depend on the creation of new skilled and non-skilled labour-market opportunities through economic diversification.

For more information on poverty reduction in Ecuador, see Ordóñez et al. (2015).

\* Computed from data in INEC (2014).

## Target 7.1 Universal access to energy (Grade B)

*By 2030, ensure universal access to affordable, reliable and modern energy services.*

If current trends continue, the region and all three sub-regions in LAC are projected to get very close to achieving universal access to energy, and in particular electricity, which is why it receives a 'B' grade.<sup>9</sup> Over 80% of countries in Latin America are on track to achieve this target by 2030.<sup>10</sup> On average, all sub-regions are set to have over 95% of their populations with access to electricity by 2030.

Brazil is one example of a top-performing country for this target (see Box 3, overleaf, for drivers of this progress). In addition, Bolivia, Peru, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Jamaica, El Salvador and Honduras are expected to make significant progress. The only countries projected

to fall short are Nicaragua, Guyana, St Vincent and the Grenadines, Haiti, Guatemala and Colombia.

## 3.2 'Revolution': slow gains mean falling short

### Target 6.1 Universal access to sanitation (Grade C)

*By 2030, achieve access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene for all and end open defecation, paying special attention to the needs of women and girls and those in vulnerable situations.*

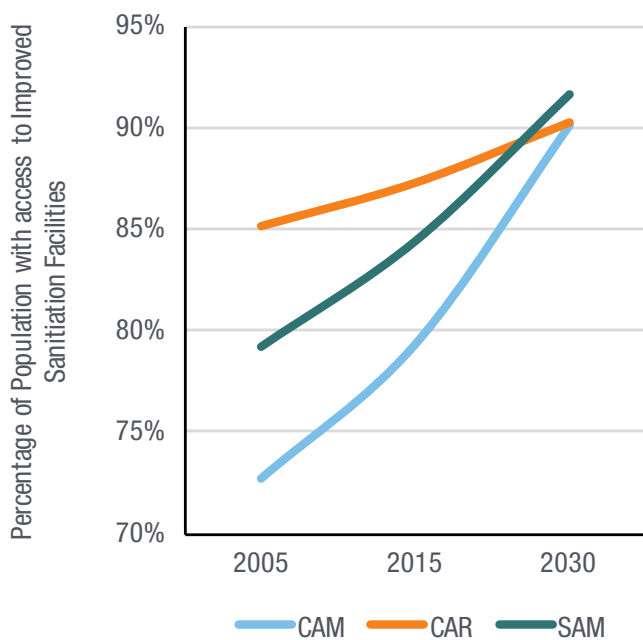
Current progress will need to be two to three times faster on average for LAC to meet this target by 2030, which is why it receives a 'C' grade. On average, all three sub-regions are set to have access to sanitation for around 90% of their populations by 2030, if current trends continue (Figure 4).

<sup>9</sup> As per *Projecting Progress* (Nicolai et al., 2015), access to energy is simplified to mean access to electricity.

<sup>10</sup> For ease of communication, achieving this target is defined as providing access to 97% or more of the population. This is in line with the World Bank target that defines 'ending' extreme poverty as the global poverty rate falling to 3% or less.

While nearly a quarter of countries in the region are on track to achieve universal access to sanitation by 2030, these countries are largely in South America. For example, Chile, Argentina, Venezuela and Paraguay are set to achieve the target.

**Figure 4: Projections for target 6.1 – Universal access to sanitation**



On the other hand, around a quarter of countries are projected to make no progress in achieving universal access to sanitation. These countries are largely in the Caribbean and include Haiti, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago. As a result, the Caribbean receives a ‘D’ grade on this target although it started from a relatively high base compared to the other two sub-regions.

### Target 15.2 Halt deforestation (Grade D)

*By 2020, promote the implementation of sustainable management of all types of forests, halt deforestation, restore degraded forests, and increase afforestation and reforestation.*

Around two-thirds of countries in LAC are set to experience little change by 2020 in the share of total land area covered by forests. On average there are set to be slight differences across sub-regions; forest area as a share of total area is projected to increase in the Caribbean, but decrease in Central and South America (Figure 5).

Some countries including Costa Rica, Dominican Republic and Uruguay are on track to make significant progress, if current trends continue. In particular, Costa Rica increased the share of forest area in total land area from 48% to 53% between 2003 and 2013 (Box 4,

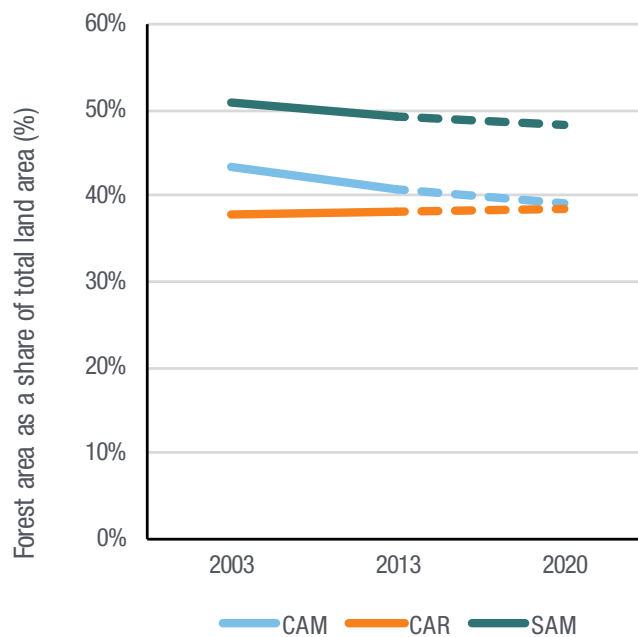
overleaf). On the other hand, others including Honduras and Paraguay are heading in the wrong direction.

### Target 2.1 End hunger (Grade E)

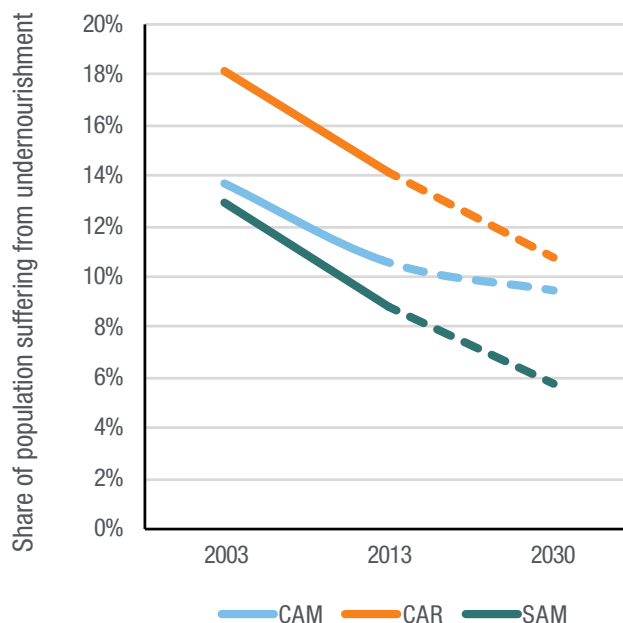
*By 2030, end hunger and ensure access by all people, in particular the poor and people in vulnerable situations, including infants, to safe, nutritious and sufficient food all year round.*

On average, LAC is set to make little progress in reducing undernourishment over the next 15 years, which is why

**Figure 5: Projections for target 15.2 – Halt deforestation**



**Figure 6: Projections for target 2.1 – End hunger**



### Box 3: Brazil's success on sustainable energy

Between 1990 and 2010, Brazil more than doubled its overall energy supply, while reducing its energy imports from 25% to less than 10% of total production (EPE, 2011). About 55 million people gained access to electricity over this period (SE4ALL, 2013). In 2010, about 45% of total energy consumption was from renewable sources, with 40% of its petrol/gasoline needs replaced with home-grown ethanol fuel (EPE, 2013). This impressive progress was achieved through a combination of sustained leadership, public and private investment in research and technology, and government programmes to provide affordable electricity as part of wider poverty-reduction efforts.

Brazil's energy policy since 1990 has shown remarkable consistency in its principal objectives, maintained across successive administrations. One key driver has been the goal of national energy security. The 1970s oil shock and ensuing dramatic rise in oil prices and corresponding rapid deterioration of Brazil's macroeconomic position strongly influenced Brazil's energy policy. Reducing imports and developing domestic-energy sources: hydropower capacity, national oil production, and ethanol use, to reduce oil demand became priority (Potter, 2008).

Brazil's progress can also be attributed to the development of a supportive financing environment. The government used Brazil's national development bank (Brazilian Development Bank or BNDES) to subsidise financing of new electricity generation and transmission. To extend electricity access, the government provided R\$18.38 billion (US\$10.38 billion) for 'Luz no Campo' (Light the Field) 'Luz para Todos' (Light for All), from both federal and state budgets between 2003 and 2010. Government subsidies also aimed to stimulate investment in renewable energy through two initiatives: the National Programme for Energy Development of States and Municipalities or 'PRODEEM' – R\$60m (\$25m) from 2001 – and Programme of Incentives for Alternative Electricity Sources or 'PROINFA' – up to R\$5.5bn (\$1.83bn) from 2002.

Another driver of Brazil's progress in developing sustainable energy was sustained investment in new technologies for ethanol production. A significant proportion of this technology development resulted from public action. Since the start of the National Fuel Alcohol Programme or 'PRO-ALCOOL' programme in the 1970s, there has been public investment in improvement of sugarcane yields and ethanol extraction. The existence of a sustained and robust market for ethanol products as a result of government intervention provided clear incentives for additional private research and development. The structuring of the market to mandate ethanol's application as a blending agent and promote its use as a separate fuel spurred ethanol producers and car manufacturers to develop commercially viable technologies. As a result, the total amount of energy recoverable from sugarcane grew at roughly 1.5% a year from 1977 to 2005 (Goldemberg, 2008).

Brazil still faces a number of challenges. The proportion of renewable energy in its energy mix is declining, and may continue as new oil and gas deposits become available. Improvements in the design and management of individual large hydropower plants have not been matched by the government setting out a persuasive case to the public for the proposed further major expansion of hydropower. Wind and solar power currently make only a small contribution, despite wide acknowledgement of their potential and some recent increases in capacity.

For more information on energy in Brazil, see Newborn and Welham (2014).

it receives an 'E' grade for this target. In South America and the Caribbean progress would need to be on average around three to four times faster than current trends, and in Central America more than four times, to achieve the target by 2030. Yet, since the Caribbean begins from a higher base, faster progress is not enough to catch up with Central America – countries in the Caribbean are set to have about 11% of the population undernourished in 2030 compared with 9% in Central America (Figure 6).

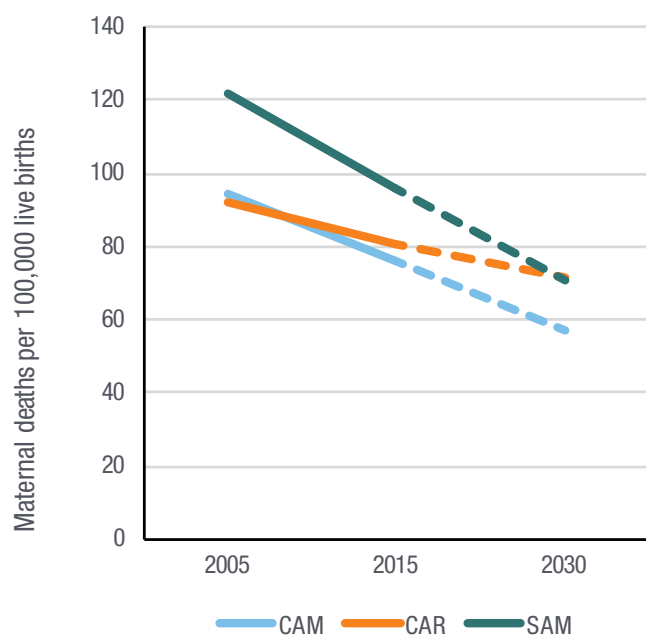
However, the range of outcomes projected for countries across the region is wide. If current trends continue, a third of countries will make zero or negative progress, including El Salvador and Belize. Around a fifth of countries are on track to make more than two-thirds of the required progress to achieve the target.

### Target 3.1 Reduce maternal mortality (Grade E)

*Target 3.1 By 2030, reduce the global maternal mortality ratio to less than 70 per 100,000 live births.*

LAC is set to make limited progress on reducing maternal mortality over the next 15 years if present trends continue, which is why it receives an 'E' grade. All three sub-regions are set to make slow progress on this target (Figure 7, overleaf), although all will individually meet the global target of reducing the maternal mortality ratio to 70 per 100,000 live births. However, as discussed in Annex 1, the global maternal-mortality target of 70 is translated to a country-level target of ending maternal mortality. In this context, progress would need to be around three to four times faster in countries in South and Central America for this target to be reached, whereas countries in the Caribbean would need to increase current progress more than four-fold.

**Figure 7: Projections for target 3.1 – Reduce maternal mortality**



Only 10% of countries in the region will reduce maternal mortality by more than 50%. In Peru, for example, maternal mortality will fall from 68 to 31 deaths per 100,000 live births if current trends continue.

More than half the countries will fail to make 30% of the required progress to achieve this target. Three Caribbean countries – Trinidad and Tobago, Grenada and Dominican Republic – are on track to experience an increase in maternal deaths per 100,000 live births.

#### Target 4.1 Universal secondary education (Grade E)

*By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes.*

LAC is set to make slow progress on this target, which is why it receives an ‘E’ grade. To meet this target by 2030, progress will need to be more than three times faster in South America, and even faster in the Caribbean and Central America. On average, by 2030, countries in Central America are only set to achieve the level of secondary-school completion that countries in the Caribbean have

#### Box 4: Costa Rica’s success on halting deforestation

Set against the severe rates of deforestation experienced in Costa Rica in the 1970s and 1980s – when its rate of forest loss was amongst the highest globally – the country’s recent conservation record has been impressive. By 2005 the deforestation rate had fallen almost to zero, while registering strong economic growth of 4.8% between 1990 and 2005 (World Bank, 2016a). Several regulatory and policy innovations have been responsible for Costa Rica’s success.

First, the state has introduced a robust Protected Area system that has preserved a significant proportion of forest cover, starting from a base of almost no protection in the 1960s. The total share of land area now accorded Protected Area status stands as high as 24%, with a number of primary forests incorporated within National Parks and Nature Reserves, providing the highest possible protected status. This puts the proportion of protected areas significantly higher than the developing-world average of 13% (WRI, 2007).

Second, the Costa Rican state went beyond restrictive regulatory mechanisms by providing fiscal incentives to encourage forest owners to conserve their land. The introduction of the Payments for Environmental Services (PSA) system in 1996 saw payments to forest and forest-plantation owners in return for conserving and reforesting their land (De Camino et al., 2000). This policy has changed landowners’ perceptions of the value of forest land and the merits of environmental protection.

Third, strong coherence between Costa Rica’s economic and environmental goals has allowed growth objectives to be pursued without compromising on environmental concerns. Ecotourism has formed a core part of the government’s economic strategy, in keeping with its forest-management policies. Studies estimate that conferring protected-area status on forest land has reduced poverty in neighbouring towns, in large part due to increased tourism revenue (Andam et al., 2010; Ferraro and Hanauer, 2014).

With support from the World Bank’s Wealth Accounting and Valuation of Ecosystem Services (WAVES) project, the Central Bank of Costa Rica is developing a natural-asset account that will incorporate physical and monetary values of services provided by forests and estimate the economy-wide impact of an expanding forest cover.

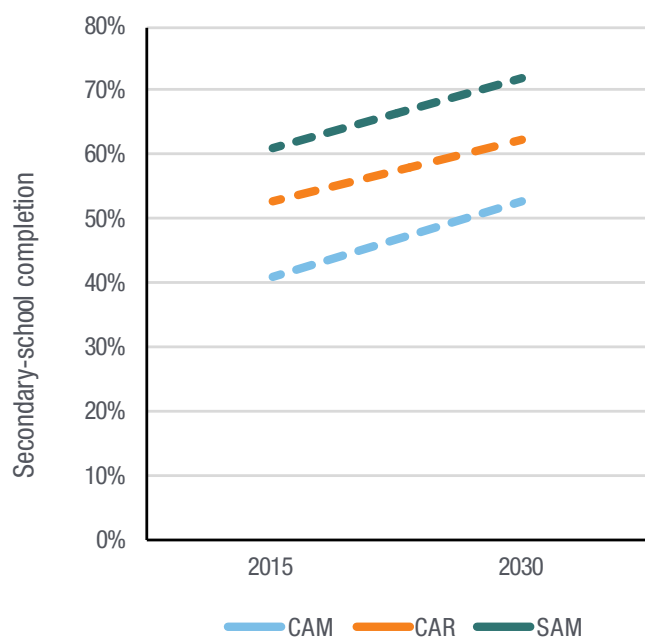
Costa Rica’s PSA programme must address the challenge of financial sustainability. With only 25% of current revenue covered by the national fuel tax, the country relies on the international donor community and voluntary contributions from the private sector. Inequity remains an issue. The majority of funds are still captured by relatively wealthy landowners with larger landholdings. In disadvantaged socio-economic regions, 76% of all contracts have gone to those with over 30 hectares of land (Porrás, 2010).

For more information on forest conservation in Costa Rica, see Brown and Bird (2011).



today. Countries in the Caribbean are meanwhile projected to reach the levels of secondary-school completion of South American countries today (Figure 8).

**Figure 8: Projections for target 4.1 – Universal secondary education**



Nearly all countries in the region are projected to cover only between 10% and 40% of the gap needed to achieve universal secondary education. Countries with relatively lower levels of secondary-school completion are set to make less progress towards achieving this target.

The only exception is Chile, a top performer where secondary school completion is set to rise from 82% in 2015 to 90% in 2030, thereby making 44% of the progress needed to meet the target (see Box 5, overleaf, on drivers of progress).

### Target 5.3 End child marriage (Grade E)

*Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation.*

Progress will need to be significantly faster to end child marriage in LAC by 2030, which is why the region receives an ‘E’ grade. On average, countries in the Caribbean will need to speed up progress two- to three-fold and in Central America three- to four-fold to meet the target. In South America there will need to be a complete reversal in the average trend.

Most countries in Latin America and the Caribbean are on track to reduce child marriage by 25%-50% by 2030, and the only country in the region set to perform faster than this is Trinidad and Tobago. Colombia and Peru will make no progress towards ending child marriage while Brazil will experience an increase in child marriage if current trends continue.

### Target 17.1 Mobilise domestic resources (Grade E)

*Strengthen domestic resource mobilisation, including through international support to developing countries, to improve domestic capacity for tax and other revenue collection.*

Six out of the seven low- and lower-middle-income countries in the region with data available will fail to increase government revenue as a share of GDP significantly (Table 3, overleaf). As a result, the region received an ‘E’ grade for the target on domestic resource mobilisation. In the case of Guyana, Haiti and Bolivia, government revenue is set to fall as a share of GDP.

On the other hand, countries in Central America are projected to all make some progress, and the sub-region as a whole received a ‘B’ grade on this target. In Honduras, government revenue is projected to increase from 23% to 27% of GDP between 2013 to 2020.

Yet, two notes of caution in regard to these projections: first, progress on this indicator may not reflect improvements in overall taxation capacity, such as broader tax bases or greater efficiencies in collection, as the indicator also includes non-tax sources of revenue. Secondly, the projections are sensitive to oil prices, which have fallen lower than expected. At the time of publication, the current oil price is nearly half what the IMF assumed it would be in 2016. These revenue projections are therefore likely to be an overestimate for oil-exporting countries and underestimates for oil-importing ones.

## 3.3 ‘Reversal’: changes in direction are needed

### Target 11.1 Reduce slum populations (Grade F)

*By 2030, ensure access for all to adequate, safe and affordable housing and basic services, and upgrade slums.*

About half the countries in LAC, including Haiti, Jamaica and Honduras, are projected to see increases in the number of people living in slums. On average, the region is travelling in the opposite direction to the target, which is why it receives an ‘F’ grade.

However it is noteworthy that in around a quarter of countries the number of people living in slums is set to reduce by at least 25%. These countries are largely in South America and the Caribbean, including Uruguay, Dominican Republic and Peru (see Box 6, overleaf, for drivers of progress in Peru).

### Target 12.5 Reduce waste (Grade F)

*By 2030, substantially reduce waste generation through prevention, reduction, recycling, and reuse.*

More than two-thirds of countries in LAC are on track to experience increases in the amount of waste generated

per person living in urban areas, which is why it receives an 'F' grade. The increases are set to be particularly high in Uruguay, Mexico and Bolivia. The main exceptions

are a number of Caribbean nations, such as Trinidad and Tobago as well as Barbados.

### Box 5: Education progress in Chile

Chile has made great strides across much of its education sector over the past two decades, with improvements in completion, inputs and quality. Primary-completion rates rose from 83% in 1990 to 95% in 2011. The primary-level pupil-teacher ratio fell from 32 children per teacher in 1999 to 23.5 in 2010 (UNESCO, 2012). It became one of only three OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) countries to improve pupil reading assessments by more than 20 points between 2000 and 2009, and improvements in science tests were also above the OECD average (World Bank, 2012; OECD, 2013).

Education became a major policy focus of the Concertación alliance, elected in 1989. The renewed prioritisation of the sector had three important effects. First, it freed up an increasing flow of public resources for education after contractions in the Pinochet era. It justified a shift away from the hands-off approach the Ministry of Education pursued in the 1980s, towards a more active and interventionist role. A series of large-scale consultation exercises and national education plans brought together major academic authorities to build consensus around long-term proposals for reform.

Secondly, a series of mutually reinforcing interventions starting in the 1990s led to improved test scores, with greater improvements among rural and state schools. Key interventions include the MECE Básica programme launched in 1992, which improved access to basic education materials such as textbooks, libraries, IT training and computers; and the 1996 Full School Day reform and extension to the school-year calendar, which added 232 hours of schooling every year for Grade 3-6 students, and 145 extra hours for Grade 7-8 students (OECD, 2004).

These reforms would not have happened without extensive budgetary support: the school-day reform alone raised the operational cost of public education by almost 25%, with US\$883 million needed for related infrastructure development and new teachers between 1997 and 2003 (Cox, 2004; Bellei, 2009). In just over a decade Chile's education budget increased three-fold from US\$907 million in 1990 to US\$3.07 billion by 2002 (Wales et al, 2014).

Thirdly, improvements in the employment status of teachers raised the quantity and quality of applications to the education sector (OECD, 2004). The 1991 Teachers' Statute restored municipal teachers' status as public servants and reintroduced central bargaining for wages. The Ministry of Education launched two waves of teacher performance incentives. In 1995, a new teacher bonus was introduced and allocated according to schools' education quality scores. It was followed, in 2003, by the National Teacher Evaluation Programme, which concentrated specifically on increasing teachers' skills. The general consensus from impact evaluations indicates that these measures have had a positive effect on learning outcomes (e.g. Contreras and Rau, 2011).

However, inequity in learning outcomes remains a challenge: Chile has the strongest correlation between socioeconomic background and Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) scores for science for any OECD country (OECD, 2011). Low-income students are left primarily in municipal schooling where they achieve lower-than-average test scores (Elacqua, 2009). Although top in South America, Chile's test scores remain lower than the OECD average, with teachers ranked low against international benchmarks for subject-specific and pedagogical knowledge (IEA, 2012).

For more information on education in Chile, see Wales et al. (2014).

**Table 3: Projections of government revenue as a share of GDP**

Country	Region	2013	2030
Honduras	CAM	22.95%	33.99%
Nicaragua	CAM	24.04%	24.92%
Guatemala	CAM	11.64%	12.04%
El Salvador	CAM	18.39%	18.97%
Guyana	SAM	25.67%	23.71%
Haiti	CAR	20.90%	18.56%
Bolivia	SAM	39.09%	25.89%

Source: IMF, 2016



### Box 6: Peru's progress on improving living conditions in slums

In the 1990s, a staggering 66% of the urban population of Peru were living in slums, a higher proportion than any other South American country; Brazil, Colombia and Argentina for example reported proportions about half that. However, by 2007 Peru had nearly halved its proportion of slums dwellers, to 36% (UN-Habitat, 2012).

There were also improvements in access to services for slum dwellers. Between 2002 and 2007, the share of slum dwellings with piped water rose from 41% to 63%, and those with electricity from 65% to 85%. Slum dwellings made of durable materials increased from 51% in 2002 to 62% in 2007. Home connections to public sewers rose from 35% in 2002 to 59% in 2007 (Ministerio del Vivienda, 2005 and 2014).

Significant investments, at both the national and household level, as well as strong community pressure on state authorities, explain these rapid gains.

In the 1990s, the government embarked on major service provision, housing and titling programmes, which sought to balance the impact of structural-adjustment policies and bolster their legitimacy. Many of these policies continued in the 2000s, often responding to short-term political interests, such as focusing benefits on low-income urban communities in exchange for votes (Raffo, 2011).

In 1992, budgetary allocation to the National Housing Fund (FONAVI) increased. Its focus was to bring utilities to slum settlements. Between 1992 and 1996, 50% of FONAVI (approximately US\$892 million) was directed to slum upgrading (Calderón, 2005). Services were typically subsidised to enable access for the poorest households. Since 2003, subsidies for housing improvements have been disbursed under the 'Construction on Own Site' programme, subject to feasibility checks and legitimate title deeds.

As part of a major titling programme launched in 1996, 2.3 million slum dwellers received title deeds between 1996 and 2014, providing legal recognition for certain informal settlements. Donors have played an important contributory role, but strong economic growth has created the fiscal space for rising public investment in slum-upgrading activities.

Improvements in housing and services access would not have happened without the pressure exerted by neighbourhood organisations ('Juntas Vecinales'). These have a leadership committee ('Junta Directiva'), which negotiates with the authorities on behalf of the community (Calderón, 2005; Raffo, 2011).

Household investment in housing improvements has also proved critical. In Peru, 80% of housing is self-built (Anderson, 2007; Raffo, 2011). The construction of a decent home is one of the key aspirations among slum households and a two- or three-storey home separates the 'poor' from the 'non-poor' (Cockburn et al., 2015). Households rely on extended family networks to contribute resources and time to house-building, as well as informal credit. Furthermore, Peru's positive macro-economic environment has enabled slum dwellers to find work and set up micro-enterprises to generate savings for housing investments.

Considerable challenges remain. Strong urban growth has led to a doubling of the slum population between 1993 and 2012. New settlements are increasingly occupying high-risk, precarious locations, as public lands are being used up. Peru's informal economy contributes an estimated 38% to GDP, with slum dwellers over-represented in the informal sectors, undermining their access to steady incomes for housing investments (IPE, 2013).

For more information on slums in Peru, see Cockburn et al. (2015).

### Target 13.2 Combat climate change (Grade F)

#### *Integrate climate-change measures into national policies, strategies, and planning.*

Carbon emissions in virtually all countries in LAC are projected to increase over the next 15 years, if current trends continue.

The only exceptions are Jamaica, Belize and Suriname.

For SDG 13 to be successfully delivered globally, a reduction in annual greenhouse-gas emissions below current levels is essential. The proxy indicator chosen for ODI's global scorecard was accordingly to 'reduce greenhouse-gas

emissions below current levels'. We use the same indicator for the regional report to maintain comparability.

However, a few caveats are warranted with regard to the use of this indicator. First, the principle of 'common but differentiated responsibilities', included in the Paris Agreement made in December 2015, recognises that the pace of emissions reduction should not be shared equally across all countries. Countries with large historical emissions should make the steepest, early cuts to emissions per capita. Developing countries must be accorded 'carbon

**'The 2030 sustainable development agenda is a clarion call for ambitious and immediate action on climate change. The international community has spent the last twenty odd years painstakingly assembling the nuts and bolts of a global climate change regime' – Honourable Dennis Moses, Minister of Foreign and CARICOM Affairs of the Republic of Trinidad & Tobago**

space' to further their development. Adaption and resilience to climate shocks will form stronger priorities than reducing emissions in these countries. Our choice of indicator is therefore more appropriate for those middle- and high-income countries in the region with large emissions.

### Target 14.2 Sustainably manage marine ecosystems (Grade F)

*By 2020, sustainably manage and protect marine and coastal ecosystems to avoid significant adverse impacts, including by strengthening their resilience, and take action for their restoration, to achieve healthy and productive oceans.*

Across the world, 90% of all reefs are set to be at risk by 2020, from a starting point of 75% of reefs under threat in 2007. All regions, including LAC, are heading in the wrong direction to manage marine ecosystems sustainably by 2020.

Around half the reefs in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans (which border Latin America and the Caribbean) are projected to be at 'high risk' of being threatened in 2030, up from around 25% in 2007. As a result of this negative

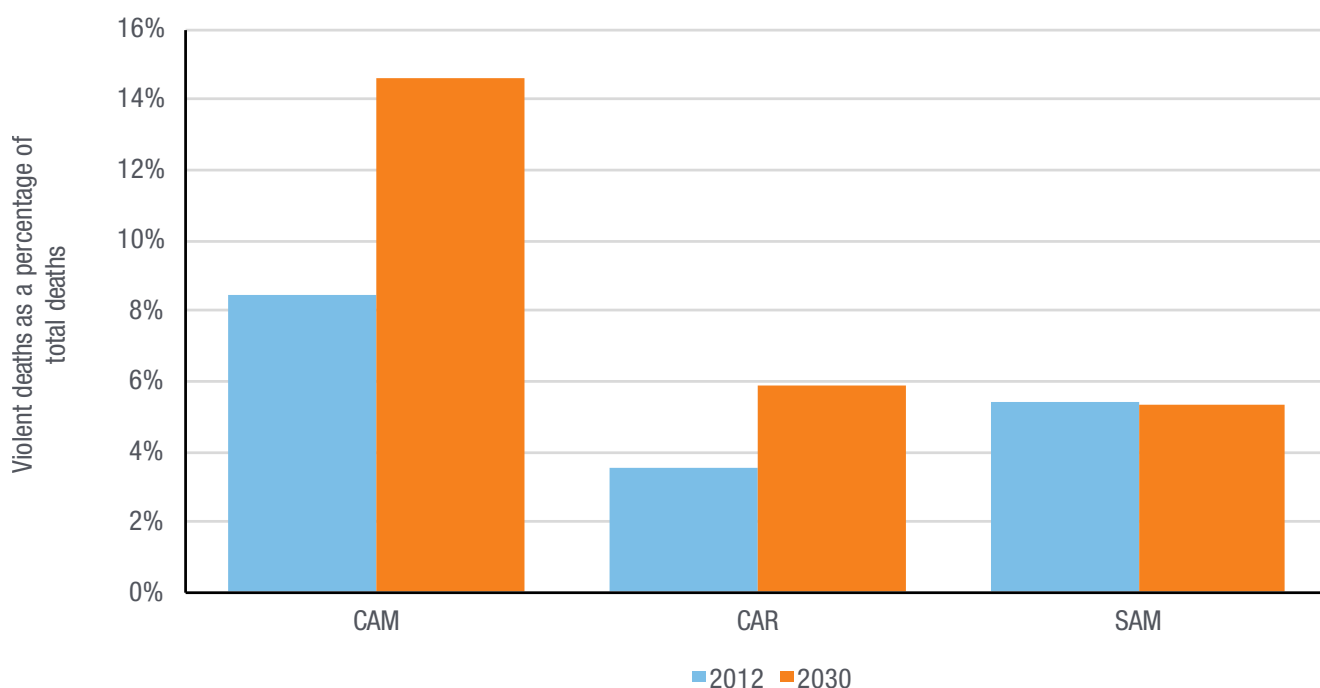
trend the region receives an 'F' grade. However, given that few reefs are directly linked a particular country, we did not pursue further analysis on this, and so progress on this target could not be broken down as for other targets.

### Target 16.1 Reduce violent deaths (Grade F)

*Significantly reduce all forms of violence and related death rates everywhere.*

On average, the region will fail to reduce violent deaths significantly over the next 15 years, which is why it receives an 'F' grade. Half the countries in Latin America and the Caribbean are heading in the wrong direction to meet this target, as the proportion of violent deaths as a share of total deaths is increasing in many countries, such as Mexico and Panama. In fact, Central America is projected to witness a significant increase in the share of violent deaths (Figure 9). Only one country in the region, Colombia, is on track to reduce the share of violent deaths by 50% (see Box 7 on drivers of progress), although this should be viewed in the context of very high levels of violent deaths at the turn of the millennium.

Figure 9: Projections for target 16.1 – Reduce violent deaths



### Box 7: Peace and progress despite fragility in Colombia

Although security remains fragile, and clashes between government and paramilitary forces continue, Colombia has made appreciable strides over the past decade in reducing the human cost of its 40-year conflict and establishing restitution mechanisms for the victims. Homicides fell from 70.2 to 30 per 100,000 inhabitants between 2002 and 2012 (Fox, 2012). The state now has a presence in each of the state's municipalities – unprecedented for the country – although its authority varies by municipality (Farah, 2014). Women have played a noteworthy role in pushing for state recognition of the gendered experience of conflict.

Direct military action to tackle hostile groups and seize control of major urban areas was key to degrading their military capabilities. Peace negotiations between the Colombian state and the *Fuerzas Armadas Revolucionarias de Colombia* (FARC) in the early 2000s allowed time for the Colombian military to strength its capacity (DeShazo et al., 2007).

Transitional justice mechanisms, while controversial, also played a part in demobilising conflict actors and recognising the needs of victims. These included the Justice and Peace Law of 2005 (under President Uribe) and the Victims and Land Restitution Law of 2011 (under President Santos). The Justice and Peace Law was signed by demobilised actors who were ineligible for existing amnesty opportunities. It reduced prison sentences in return for participation in truth-seeking and providing reparations for victims, although use of its provisions was hugely divisive among women's groups (Díaz and Marin, 2013). The Victims and Land Restitution Law showed greater ambition to provide reparations to conflict victims, including state abuses. Over 7.4 million victims have registered for reparation, of whom 2.3 million are women and 1.1 million girls (UARIV, 2015).

Women's groups have played an active role in foregrounding the costs of conflict to women and girls and securing official recognition of their needs from the state. They exacted favourable rulings from the Constitutional Court in a number of areas, ranging from recognising the needs and rights of women internally displaced persons, to acknowledging the gendered experience of conflict-related violence and recommending reparations for female victims of the conflict.

Gender activists have increasingly made strategic use of different media to denounce conflict-related injustices. International donor support has provided organisational help in the form of capacity training, technical support and funding for victim-support organisations. Donors have also played a more strategic 'brokering' role between different stakeholders, overcoming distrust while extending visibility and protection to sub-national women's rights groups.

Unresolved grievances leave the peace process in a fragile position. To date, there has been no substantial re-articulation of the political settlement relating to unresolved issues of land, inequality and exclusion (Herbert and Rocha Menocal, 2014). Between 60% and 70% of women have experienced some form of physical or sexual violence, with continued use of violence to ensure impunity by 'silencing' victims who may provide testimony on violence and other crimes. Indigenous and Afro-Colombian women are particularly vulnerable to gender-based violence, since they have faced higher rates of displacement than other groups (Oxfam, 2009).

For more information on female participation in Colombia's peace process, see Domingo et al. (2015).

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# 4. Leaving No One Behind

Countries in Latin America and the Caribbean have made dramatic progress towards meeting many of the MDGs. LAC therefore started from a high base on several of the targets and goals in 2015 relative to the other major developing regions. However, these headline results conceal differences within and across countries that are often quite large. It is important the SDG agenda recognises the need to reduce inequalities between countries (Bhattacharya, 2015; Samman, 2015). For instance, some of the Caribbean countries – in particular Haiti – fare considerably worse than the rest of the region on many of the targets and are also projected to make slower progress.

However, in terms of inequality, the region as a whole has made considerable progress over the past two decades – the only target on which the region receives an ‘A’ grade. The Gini coefficient of income inequality has fallen steadily from its peak of 0.58 in 1996 to the lowest ever recorded for LAC of 0.52 in 2011 (World Bank, 2013). A considerable portion of the fall in inequality has been attributed to increases in labour incomes due to increasing minimum wages and formalisation of work in the region (ECLAC, 2014a). Transfer incomes, both private and public, have also played an important role (World Bank, 2013).

Despite this, LAC remains the most unequal region in the world. This may be a case where significant progress was possible because inequality had been so extreme. On average across the countries in the region, the top 20% of the distribution hold close to half of the income, the bottom 40% have 16% (World Bank, WDI). By the end of the past decade, the region housed 10 of the world’s 15 most unequal countries as measured by the Gini coefficient (Gasparini and Lustig, 2011). So, even though a fairly small share of people live in extreme poverty, a much larger number struggle to reach middle-class status and are at risk of falling back into poverty (Rodriguez Takeuchi and Mariotti, 2016).

While this report focused on headline performance, it is just as important for assessments of progress on the SDGs to disaggregate performance of different groups. This is because a large part of this pattern of exclusion can be explained by inequalities between groups of people. Horizontal or group-based inequalities between culturally defined or constructed groups (e.g. based on ethnicity, religion or race) persist in countries across the world, although their specific forms and extent depend on regional and national context. Such inequalities are multidimensional, including political, social and economic dimensions, and often persist over long periods (Stewart and Langer, 2006).

In the case of LAC in particular, it is important to address the wellbeing gaps associated with gender, race and ethnicity for full achievement of the MDGs (UN, 2010). Horizontal inequality has also been linked to violence: the region is the most unequal but also the most unsafe in the world, excluding war zones (Oxfam, 2015). The LAC contribution to the High-Level Political Forum (ECLAC, 2014b) stressed the need to tackle economic and social inequality while identifying that it was contributing to social instability.

Context matters, as the extent and types of group-based inequality vary from country to country. Each country’s unique political, economic and historical circumstances influence how inequality manifests itself. Yet ethnic marginalisation is an issue across a vast set of countries.

In a study across 16 developing countries including Bolivia and Peru, the two countries included from LAC displayed the strongest relationship between ethnicity and wealth (Lenhardt and Samman, 2015). For instance, in Bolivia, the Quechua and Aymara people are overwhelmingly in the poorest wealth quintile, whereas the richest quintile consists almost entirely of Spanish speakers who are likely to be of European descent. In Peru too, Quechua, Aymara and other indigenous groups are found almost entirely in the poorest or second-poorest wealth quintiles (*ibid*).

Overall, across the region, there has been progress on reducing gaps in some countries (for instance, see Box 8 on progress for Afro-Brazilians in Brazil). However, in many others indigenous groups continue to underperform and to be over-represented among the poor. For instance, gaps remain high in Guatemala, with the chances of being poor 10% for non-indigenous households but between 15% and 25% for indigenous groups in 2011 (see Box 9, overleaf, for further details).

Gender is often a cross-cutting axis of inequality. While disparities based on factors such as age, ethnicity and location are wide, girls and women often have worse outcomes than their male counterparts. Female-headed households often also face higher levels of deprivation and exclusion.

Overlapping disadvantages or ‘intersecting inequalities’ (Kabeer, 2010) faced by individuals or groups often reinforce exclusion. For instance, in Bolivia in 2008, ethnicity and place of residence each explained around 25% of total inequality in women’s education; but the two taken together explained close to 40% of inequality (Lendarth and Samman, 2015). Similarly, wealth and place of residence helped explain inequalities in women’s years of education in all the 16 countries studied, but here too the highest were in Bolivia (43% of total inequality) and Peru (37%) – and inequalities

### Box 8: Racial inequalities in Brazil

Brazil has long been known for its high levels of income inequality. Comparative data from the region shows the concentration of income in the top 10% of the distribution remains the second highest in LAC, despite a decline in inequality in the 2000s. Data from *Pesquisa Nacional por Amostra de Domicílios* confirm this trend: between 2004 and 2012, the Gini coefficient fell from 0.57 to 0.52.

Ethnic inequalities account for an important proportion of this inequality. Progress in narrowing the gap between Afro-Brazilians and white groups has varied according to the indicator used. On income indicators, relative gaps remain unchanged despite absolute falls in deprivation (i.e. income-poverty reduction). By contrast, relative gaps on non-income indicators (household services and education poverty) have closed.

Afro-Brazilians are over-represented among the income poor. Since the prevalence of extreme poverty is low in Brazil, we focus on the prevalence of moderate poverty, which occurs when monthly income per capita falls below R\$140 per day. In absolute terms, the likelihood of being in poverty for the average Afro-Brazilian declined from 28% in 2004 to 9% by 2012. In relative terms, due to income gains among the white population, their position did not improve over the period. In both years, Afro-Brazilians were 1.6 times as likely to be poor as the white population.

The relative gap has narrowed on some non-income indicators, such as household services and education poverty. By 2012, race and income were no longer associated with a lower likelihood of being in education poverty, defined as having fewer than four years in education. This closed an absolute gap of two percentage points between the Afro-Brazilian population and the white population in 2004. In the case of services, the differences in the likelihood of using clean cooking fuel (gas or electricity rather than coal or wood) between Afro-Brazilians and whites were small in 2004 and non-significant in 2012. The same is true for access to improved sanitation, where racial differences are not significant.

For more details on racial inequalities in Brazil, see Rodriguez Takeuchi and Mariotti (2016).

between groups defined by wealth quintile and place of residence increased over time in both these countries (ibid).

Until recently, international development policy has largely neglected horizontal inequalities. However, the aim to 'leave no one behind' is central to the SDGs. The final outcome document (UN, 2015a) not only emphasises the aim to reduce income inequality but also states 'we emphasise the responsibilities of all States... to respect, protect and promote human rights and fundamental freedoms for all, without distinction of any kind as to race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth, disability or other status' (UN, 2015b). It therefore identifies a series

of groups that have typically been disadvantaged and excluded from progress that deserve attention. These groups include the elderly, people with disabilities, ethnic and religious minorities, and women and girls, among others. In addition, children are overrepresented among those living in poverty, particularly indigenous children (ECLAC and UNICEF, 2012).

Delivering the SDGs by 2030, particularly those that require universal achievement, is critically dependent on active efforts by governments and other stakeholders to include these groups. A focus on equity is needed across the full SDG agenda; the goals will not be reached unless progress is made for all groups, and in all countries (UN, 2015a).

**'Social movements are arising the world over, with information and dissemination technology, inspired by a yearning for justice, equality and universality to which we must respond as Governments' – H.E. Michelle Bachelet Jeria, President of the Republic of Chile**

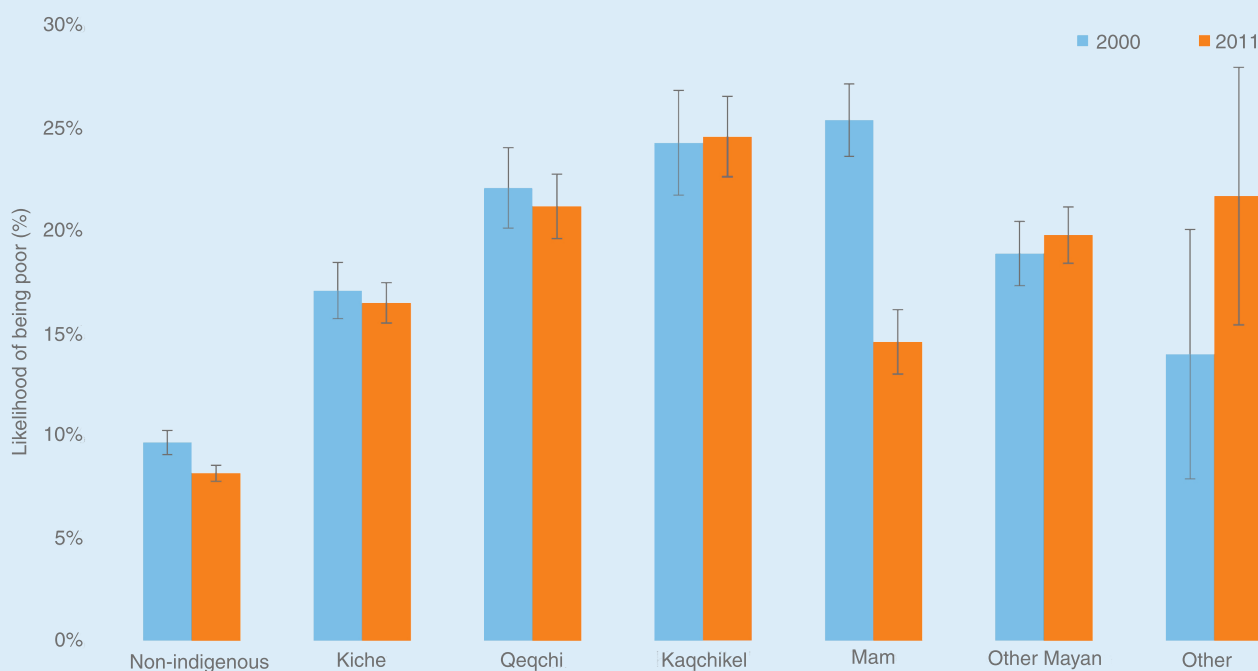
### Box 9: Ethnicity and marginalisation in Guatemala

Guatemala is a lower-middle-income country with a relatively high incidence of poverty. In 2011, 13% of Guatemalans lived in extreme poverty, subsisting on less than Q\$4,300 per capita per year. Income inequality is also high: Guatemala has the third highest Gini coefficient in LAC and is one of only three countries in the region where the Gini has not decreased since 2000. This high and rising vertical income inequality runs in parallel with marked group differences. It is almost two decades since the end of a civil war (1960-1996) in which more than 200,000 people, a large proportion of them indigenous, were killed and tens of thousands disappeared, yet the living conditions of indigenous groups in the country have not improved overall.

The likelihood of being in poverty in Guatemala varies by ethnicity. For the non-indigenous group, the most advantaged, the likelihood of being in poverty was 8% in 2011, controlling for individual and household characteristics that are also associated with poverty. Other ethnicities were all more likely to be in poverty, with some variation between ethnic groups (see Figure 10). The Mam were 6 percentage points more likely to be in poverty than the non-indigenous group (14% likelihood of falling into poverty), while the Kaqchikel were 15 percentage points higher (23% likelihood). Progress in poverty reduction was very limited across all ethnic groups between 2000 and 2011, except for the Mam, whose likelihood of falling into poverty almost halved over the period.

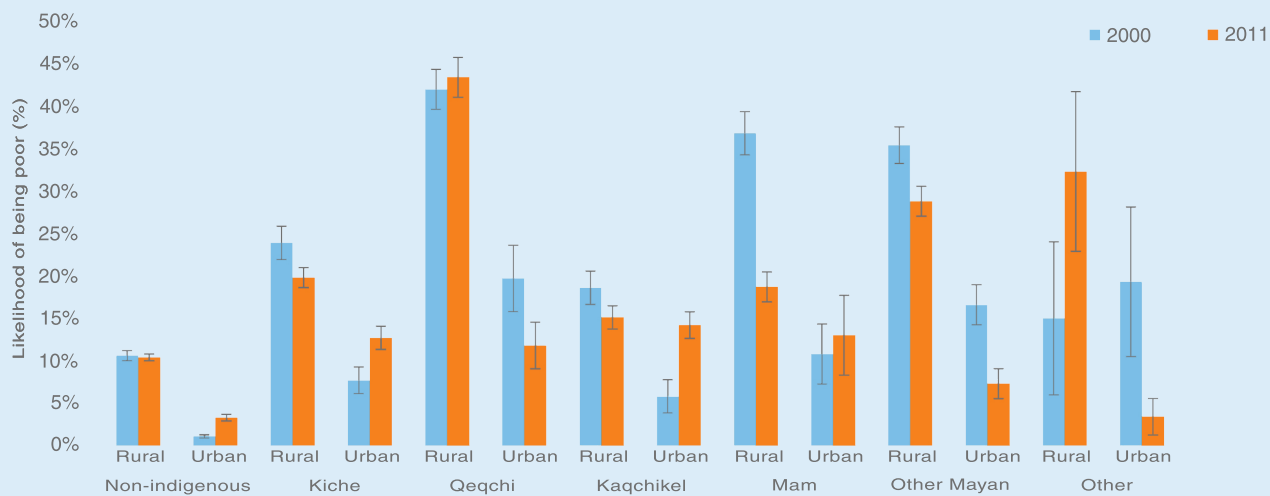
There are also some differences within indigenous groups depending on where they live (see Figure 11). The highest chances of being poor were for Qeqchi in rural areas (44% in 2011) and other Mayan in rural areas (29%). For both ethnic groups, the likelihood of falling into poverty was significantly lower in urban areas.

Figure 10: Likelihood of being poor by ethnicity in Guatemala (%)



Source: Rodriguez-Takeuchi and Mariotti, 2016.

**Figure 11: Likelihood of being poor by region and ethnicity in Guatemala (%)**



Source: Rodriguez-Takeuchi and Mariotti, 2016.

**‘The adoption of the 2030 Agenda is an opportunity to implement actions to accelerate the achievement of a society where poverty is eradicated and greater opportunities are available to all’ – H.E. Juan Alfonso Fuentes Soria, Vice President of the Republic of Guatemala**



# 5. Conclusion



Woman in Guatemala. Photo: © Elaine Faith.

Despite its strong overall starting-point, LAC will need to put major new effort into meeting many of the SDG goals and targets. While our analysis is based on the *global* SDG agenda and a selection of targets, a *national*-level focus is clearly needed for the next stage of analysis and action. This means producing new domestic targets or aligning existing ones, identifying action to implement the goals, and initiatives for greater monitoring and accountability.<sup>11</sup>

The projections in this report show how the LAC region, its sub-regions and some countries are likely to perform against certain targets, assuming progress continues as it has to date. Yet changes in trajectory may occur and indeed are already happening. There has been a slowdown in growth; the average annual GDP per capita growth declined from 3.2% during 2004-2008 to 1.5% in 2014 (World Bank, 2016d). This has translated to waning social gains, lowering of income growth throughout the distribution and slower poverty reduction. Yet a better

understanding of trends can help to inform SDG priorities and approaches across LAC.

Three goals and targets are on track to be met, or be close to being met, of those reviewed for this scorecard. Ahead of much of the rest of the world, almost all countries in the region are set to achieve the inequality target, thus receiving an ‘A’ grade. Slightly more effort will be needed to end extreme poverty, so the region earned a ‘B’ grade for this target. A ‘B’ grade was also given for the energy target; countries in all sub-regions are set to reach over 95% of their populations with access to electricity.

Seven goals and targets receive a ‘C’, ‘D’ or ‘E’ grade – essentially moving in the right direction but at a pace much slower than needed to meet the target by 2030. The goal and target on sanitation earned a ‘C’ grade and will need to progress at three times the current rates of progress on average, with both South and Central America doing somewhat better than the Caribbean in this area. The region scored a ‘D’ grade for biodiversity and halting

<sup>11</sup> Further, more detailed assessments of progress may wish to make adjustments for population and location as there are differences in land cover, population and natural resources among the different sub-regions and countries. For instance, a number of the SDGs may not have the same importance across different countries or sub-regions. In such cases, policy priorities are likely to differ.



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deforestation, although the Caribbean actually meets this target, unlike the two other sub-regions, which will need to see four times the current rate of progress. A number of goals and targets, including those related to hunger, health, education, gender and partnership, scored ‘E’ grades, which mean progress needs to be five to eight times current rates.

Five goals and targets were graded ‘F’ across LAC, which means the region is moving in the wrong direction and needs to reverse trajectories. These are the targets related to cities, waste, climate, oceans, and peace.

Finally, as explained in the text above, the goals related to growth and industry were not reviewed for the region, as the targets considered in the global scorecard were linked to LDCs, and Haiti is the only LDC in the LAC region. While our analysis looks individually at each goal and selected target, interlinkages and dependencies across the SDG agenda will be essential to its delivery. It is important that discussion and further work be done on how the integrated nature of the new goals will play out across the region, with success or failure in one area often having significant effects on others.

As in other parts of the developing world, LAC is not on track to meet many of the goals and targets reviewed by 2030. There are, however, instances where the region is set to do better than global averages, and others where it is projected to perform worse. Some of the targets with this low score, however, do have strong starting points, so their absolute outcomes are still high despite smaller expected rates of progress – they represent some of the challenges in terms of ‘getting to zero’ on the SDGs.

The main differences between the LAC regional assessment and the global one (Nicolai et al., 2015) are as follows.

- There are three goals and targets with better prospects for progress in LAC than globally. Most significant is SDG 10 (reducing inequality); this region is the only part of the world we reviewed in which the target is on track to be met, a particularly impressive projection given the global need for reversal on current trends. The other goals that fare better regionally than globally are SDG 6 (sanitation) and SDG 7 (access to energy – specifically electricity), although rates of progress still need to speed up on each of the targets reviewed.
- Six goals and targets are progressing in LAC at or about the same speed as the global average across developing regions. The target on SDG 1 (ending extreme poverty) receives a ‘B’ both in the region and globally, and is likely to get more than half-way to achievement across each group. Likewise, SDG 5 (ending child marriage) is scored similarly both regionally and globally, although it is barely progressing in either case. Finally, the remaining four targets that received similar scores for LAC and in our global analysis all need to see a

reversal of trajectories; this includes SDG 11 (reducing slum population), SDG 12 (waste reduction), SDG 13 (climate change) and SDG 14 (marine environments).

- Unfortunately, six goals and targets are progressing more slowly in LAC than the global average for developing countries. Again, while absolute outcomes for the region may look better on some of these, it is clear that gains made some decades ago have slowed, making SDG achievement a challenge. Nonetheless, several goals and targets are making progress in the region, albeit very slowly compared to what is happening in other parts of the world: SDG 2 (ending hunger), SDG 3 on health (maternal mortality), SDG 4 on education (secondary-school completion), SDG 15 on biodiversity (halting deforestation) and SDG 17 on partnership (domestic resources for low- and lower-middle-income countries). For SDG 16 on peace (ending violent deaths), however, the region is going in completely the wrong direction, compared to global averages, which show progress being made across the world.

There is clearly a need in LAC for greater acceleration of progress towards the SDG goals and targets. Although most countries in LAC are starting from a better position than other parts of the developing world, gains are still not projected to be sufficient to achieve this new agenda. However, there is still time to make the changes necessary for the region to continue to be a leader in progress across the whole range of development issues.

In efforts across the region, it will be important to pay attention to some of the main variations. While there are slight sub-regional variations on a number of goals, bigger differences are found for SDG 6 (target on sanitation) and SDG 10 (on inequality), both of which fare poorly in the Caribbean. Conversely, with halting deforestation (Goal 15), the Caribbean is set to outperform significantly both the South and Central American sub-regions. For domestic resource mobilisation (Goal 17) it is Central America that is projected to make the most progress, while the limited data we have shows that reversals in trends are needed for both the Caribbean and South America.

LAC very much has its own context compared to other developing regions of the world. Higher starting points may give more cause for hope, but they can also lead to complacency as some of the most disadvantaged groups are left further and further behind. The case studies throughout this report show both the potential progress to be made and that this does not have to be the case, although other examples also reveal that exclusion continues in too many settings.

If early action on the SDG agenda is indeed taken forward in countries and sub-regions across LAC, there is incredible potential for the region to achieve a great deal of progress.

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# Annexes

## Annex 1: Calculating the projections

There are four main steps in calculating the projections used in this regional scorecard on a country-by-country basis. These are:

### 1. Calculate current rates of progress based upon recent trends

Current rates of progress were calculated by using the most recent 10 years of data.<sup>12</sup> The average annual change over the last decade was determined by using the following formula:

$$\text{Average Annual Change} = \left( \frac{X_{2015} - X_{2005}}{X_{2005}} \right) \left( \frac{1}{10} \right)$$

whereby:

$X_{2005}$  represents the relevant indicator for each goal in 2005

$X_{2015}$  represents the relevant indicator for each goal in 2015

### 2. Project what would be achieved in 2030 if these current trends continue

Levels of achievement by 2030 were determined by assuming that the current rate of progress would continue over the next 15 years. This is calculated by the following formula:

$$X_{2030} = X_{2015} \times (1 + \text{Average Annual Change})^{15}$$

whereby:

$X_{2030}$  represents the relevant indicator for each goal in 2030

### 3. Determine how much faster progress would need to be to achieve the SDGs

A standard approach was applied for each indicator to determine how much faster the rate of progress would need to be to achieve the relevant SDG. This was calculated as:

$$\text{Rate of Progress towards SDG} = \frac{X_{2030} - X_{2015}}{X_{GOAL} - X_{2015}}$$

whereby:

$X_{GOAL}$  represents what the indicator would need to be in 2030 for the target to be achieved

### 4. Assign grades based on the projected rate of progress

Grades were assigned based on how much faster the rate of progress would need to be for the SDG target to be achieved. The table below explains the basis of each of the grades.

**Table 4: SDG Scorecard 2030 grading system**

Grading System	A	B	C	D	E	F
Current trends suggest:	Meet the target	More than half-way to target	More than a third of the way to target	More than a quarter of way to target	Little to no progress	Reverse direction of current trends

<sup>12</sup> For illustrative purposes the formulas included in this section show data being available in 2015. However sometimes the most recent data was earlier than 2015. In these instances the formula was adjusted accordingly.

**Table 5: SDG Target 10 – Inequality grading system**

Grading System	A	C	D	F
Difference in annual income growth between the average and the bottom 40%	-0.5 ppt or greater	Between -0.5ppt and 0	Between 0 and +0.5ppt	+0.5 ppt or greater

Specific considerations had to be made for a number of the projections, largely due to the wording of the target or the availability of data. Most of these issues are discussed at length in *Projecting Progress: Reaching the SDGs by 2030* (Nicolai et al., 2015). However due to the country-by-country nature of this report some further adjustments had to be made. These are discussed below:

### Target 3 – Maternal Mortality

The maternal mortality target aims for the global number of maternal deaths per 100,000 live births to fall to 70. It is not clear what this will require maternal mortality to fall to at the country level. Therefore it is assumed that the target is 0 deaths per 100,000 live births. This is unrealistic as no country has ever achieved this, but it best reflects the spirit of the goal that is to ‘Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages’. An implication of this is countries that already have very low rates of maternal mortality are slightly disadvantaged by selecting a target of zero, as it is expected that the ‘final mile’ will be more difficult.

### Target 5 – Child Marriage

Data on child marriage is notoriously patchy. As such, our projections had to rely on dividing the available data into two sub-groups, one that was before 2005 (1986-2005) and the other from 2005 (2005-2012) onwards. This reduces the accuracy of the projection because the exact number of years between surveys is unknown. A simple assumption had to be made that the gap between surveys was the median year of data available before 2005 and the median year of data from 2005 onwards. In line with this assumption, the projection starting year was the median year of the data from 2005 onwards.

### Target 10 – Inequality

This target simply requires the incomes of the bottom 40% to grow faster than average incomes. It is challenging to assign a grade based on the general scale above as all countries would receive either an A or an F even if differences were very small. As such, a slightly different grading system is applied that is shown in the table above.

### Target 14 – Reefs

It is not possible to disaggregate this target to the country level. However all countries have a role to play in achieving this target. For example, coral reefs are heavily impacted by carbon emissions as well as waterway pollution in land locked and coastal countries. For this reason, the regional grade from the Global SDG scorecard is given to all countries, regardless of specific location.

### Target 15 – Forests

This target implies that forest area as a share of total land area needs to increase by 2020. It is challenging to assign a grade based upon the general scale above as all countries would receive either an A or an F even if the differences were very small. As such, a slightly different grading system is applied that is shown in the table below.

**Table 6: SDG Target 15 – Forests grading system**

Grading System	A	D	F
Forest area as a share of land area in 2020 compared to today	Over 100%	Between 100% and 95%	Less than 95%



## Annex 2: Country-level projections

Country	Region	Target														
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	10	11	12	13	15	16	17
Antigua and Barbuda	CAR							B			B	E	F	D		
Argentina	SAM		E	E	D		A	A			F	F	F	D	B	
Aruba	CAR				E		F	B					F	A		
Bahamas, The	CAR				E		C					E	F	A	F	
Barbados	CAR		D	C			A	B				E	F	A	E	
Belize	CAM	F	F	B	E		B				F	E	C	D	F	
Bolivia	SAM	B	B	C	C	D	D	A		A	F	F	F	D	F	F
Brazil	SAM	B	B	C	D	F	C	A		A	E	F	F	D	E	
Cayman Islands	CAR						E	B					F	A		
Chile	SAM	B	E	D	C		A	A		A	F	F	F	A	E	
Colombia	SAM	B	E	D	C	E	C	E		C	E	F	F	D	A	
Costa Rica	CAM	B	E	D	E		C	A		A	F	F	F	A	F	
Cuba	CAR		E	E	E		B					F	F	A	B	
Dominica	CAR							A			D	F	F	D		
Dominican Republic	CAR	B	B	F	C	E	C	A		A	B	F	F	A	D	
Ecuador	SAM	B	B	E	D	D	A	A		A	F	F	F	D	E	
El Salvador	CAM	B	F	D	E	B	B	A		A	F	F	F	D	F	E
Grenada	CAR			F			E	B			E	E	F	A		
Guatemala	CAM	B	E	C	E	E	D	E		A	F	E	F	D	F	E
Guyana	SAM	C	F	E	D		E	C			F	C	F	A	D	F
Haiti	CAR	E	E	D	E	C	E	E	D	F	F	F	F	D	F	F
Honduras	CAM	C	C	E	E		A	A		A	F	F	F	F	F	A
Jamaica	CAR	B	F	E	E		E	A		F	F	F	C	D	E	
Mexico	CAM	B	E	C	D	D	B	A		A	E	F	F	D	F	
Nicaragua	CAM	B	B	D	E	E	C	C		A	E	F	F	D	D	E
Panama	CAM	B	B	F	D		C	B		A	F	F	F	D	F	
Paraguay	SAM	B	E	E	D	C	A	A		A	E	F	F	F	D	
Peru	SAM	B	B	B	C	E	B	A		A	D	F	F	D	E	
Puerto Rico	CAR			C	C		E	B						A		
St. Kitts and Nevis	CAR							B				D	F	A		
St. Lucia	CAR	E		C	C		B	B			E	E	F	D		
St. Vincent and the Grenadines	CAR		B	E	D			C				F	F	A		
Suriname	SAM	D	B	C	E		F				C	F	D	A	F	
Trinidad and Tobago	CAR	B	D	F	E	B	E	A			E	D	F	A	F	
Turks and Caicos Islands	CAR							B					F	A		
Uruguay	SAM		E	B	E		B	A		A	B	F	F	A	D	
Venezuela, RB	SAM	B	B	F	D		A			A	F	F	F	D	F	
Virgin Islands (U.S.)	CAR							B						D		



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Development Progress is a four-year research project which aims to better understand, measure and communicate progress in development. Building on an initial phase of research across 24 case studies, this second phase continues to examine progress across countries and within sectors, to provide evidence for what's worked and why over the past two decades.

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