

FINANCING CHALLENGES FOR DEVELOPING STATISTICAL SYSTEMS

A REVIEW OF FINANCING OPTIONS

RACHAEL CALLEJA AND ANDREW ROGERSON

PARIS21 DISCUSSION PAPER N°. 14

JANUARY 2019



PARiS
21!

Partnership in statistics
for development
in the 21st century

Financing challenges for developing statistical systems:

A review of financing options

Rachael Calleja and Andrew Rogerson¹

This work was commissioned by PARIS21. Generous support was provided by the Swiss Confederation.



¹ Respectively, Senior Research Officer and Senior Research Associate, ODI. The authors are grateful for the helpful comments provided by Annalisa Prizzon, Rolando Avendano, Johannes Jütting and Barbara Baredes. We are also grateful for suggestions provided anonymously by many expert interviewees. This work was commissioned by PARIS21. Neither PARIS21 nor ODI bears responsibility for any errors of fact or interpretation, which is solely the authors'.

PARIS21 Discussion Papers

The PARIS21 Discussion Paper series features expert authors ranging from statisticians to academics who seek to lend their voices to the discourse on statistical capacity development.

For more: <http://paris21.org/paris21-discussion-and-strategy-papers>

Please cite this publication as:

PARIS21 (2019), “Financing challenges for developing statistical systems: A review of financing options”, PARIS21 Discussion Paper, No. 14, Paris.

<http://paris21.org/paris21-discussion-and-strategy-papers>

CONTENTS

Executive Summary.....	4
1. Introduction, purpose and setting the scene.....	7
2. How much will it cost to fund CTGAP objectives?	8
2.1 Methodology for costing statistical capacity development.....	8
2.2 Annual cost of funding three scenarios for differing coverage of the CTGAP	14
3. How is developing and expanding statistical capacity being funded so far? A review of sources and instruments.....	17
3.1 Public finance	17
3.2 Bilateral and multilateral donors	18
3.3 Private sources: philanthropic foundations and PPPs	19
3.4 Financial instruments.....	20
3.5 International Funding gap for statistics	22
4. What are the challenges for funding statistical capacity?	24
5. How do sources and instruments for funding statistical capacity compare? A comparative analysis	27
5.1 Public finance	27
5.2 Budget support	29
5.3 Parallel funding by donors	30
5.4 Pooled funding through MDTFs.....	32
5.5 Global funds	35
6. Key findings.....	39
7. Conclusions	41
ANNEX I List of ‘strategic areas’ and ‘objectives’ in the CTGAP	42
ANNEX II Estimates by strategic areas and objectives of the CTGAP	43
ANNEX III List of countries and NSDS reports included in dataset	45
ANNEX IV List of former Tier III indicators – new Tier assessment and description of data sources.....	46
ANNEX V Annual cost of funding the CTGAP by activity and funding source (USD)	58
ANNEX VI Philanthropic contributions to statistical capacity building	59
ANNEX VII: Comparison of global funds: GFATM, GAVI, GPE, GFF and GCF.....	60
References.....	63

Executive Summary

Introduction

In the context of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (2030 Agenda) agreed in September 2015, measuring progress towards multiple critical objectives relies on quality data as an input into better outcomes. Regular and reliable data can contribute to planning cycles, monitoring and course-correcting, and measuring the impact of development activities.

Yet, meeting the measurement demands of the ambitious 2030 Agenda remains a challenge. National statistical systems in many developing countries require additional resources and capacity to monitor domestic trends and progress towards the SDGs.

Agreed in March 2017 by the UN Statistical Commission (UNSC), the Cape Town Global Action Plan for Sustainable Development Data (CTGAP) provides a roadmap and key actions towards modernising statistical systems and expanding statistical capacity to meet future needs.² However, there are ongoing questions about how building such statistical capacity will be funded.

The primary objective of this paper is to examine and compare financing mechanisms to address this challenge, i.e. financing statistical capacity and the implementation of the CTGAP. To do so, this paper:

- Identifies three costing scenarios for funding different levels of ambition for statistical capacity building, measures current funding and assesses the funding gap.
- Assess and compares how six sources and mechanisms for funding statistical capacity building can address eight challenges for funding statistics.

Three costing scenarios, the current funding landscape and the funding gap

The analysis begins by identifying the amount of resources required to build statistical capacity at various levels of ambition. We considered three different options:

- **Low ambition** – amount needed to meet the cost of supporting statistical production to measure the SDGs.
- **Medium ambition** – amount needed to support statistical production for measuring the SDGs plus capacity building activities.
- **High ambition** – amount needed to implement all objectives listed under the CTGAP.

The total cost estimates per scenario are calculated for all International Development Association (IDA) and International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) countries. We use a combination of pre-existing estimates³ and a novel dataset building on national statistical development strategies (NSDS) documents. The current volume of ODA for statistics is

² The plan builds on earlier global action plans for development data launched in Marrakesh (2004) and Busan (2011) and it was adopted by the United Nations Statistical Commission and welcomed by the UN General Assembly in July 2017 (Resolution 71/313)

³ Notably, we draw on SDSN et al. (2015) and GPSDD (2016) for estimates of the cost of measuring the SDGs. All assumptions underlying our costing are taken from these studies also.

approximately \$600 million each year. From the total costs, we subtract the share, which is expected to be paid from domestic sources and assess the funding gap under each scenario (see Table below).

Funding Gap by Scenario

Costing Scenario	Total cost	Cost paid from domestic sources	Current volumes of ODA for statistics	Funding gap
Low-ambition	\$2.9 billion	\$2.2 billion	\$600 million	\$100 million
Medium-ambition	\$4.2 billion	\$3.3 billion	\$600 million	\$300 million
High-ambition	\$5.6 billion	\$4.3 billion	\$600 million	\$700 million

Based on this analysis, the high-ambition scenario would require more than doubling the current share of ODA allocated to statistics, from 0.33% to 0.7% of total ODA from all donors.

Eight challenges for funding statistical capacity and how they compare across financing mechanisms

Addressing such financing gaps requires overcoming at least eight key challenges that have constrained support and investment in building statistical capacity. These include:

- Improved awareness/demand: poor awareness of the needs of national statistical systems relative to other sectors,
- Predictability: predictability of disbursements,
- Sustainability: long-term sustainability of financing,
- Alignment to national priorities: poor alignment of programming with country systems and strategies,
- Harmonisation (across channels/donors): poor harmonisation and coordination across donors in statistical interventions,
- Transparency: lack of transparency of donor activities,
- Manage for results: difficulties measuring results of statistical capacity building activities, and
- Incentivise capacity: incentives that prioritise data collection and production over systems strengthening.

We assess whether and how six main funding mechanisms and sources – a) domestic resources; b) budget support; c) parallel single-source aid (grants and loans; d) multi-donor trust funds (MDTFs), and e) global funds – can address each of the eight challenges for funding statistical capacity building. We use desk research and examples from the statistical sector where possible. We summarize the results of this assessment in the table below.

Summary table assessing funding instruments for statistical capacity

		Awareness	Predictability	Sustainability	Alignment	Harmonisation	Transparency	Manage for results	Incentivise capacity development
a) Domestic Resources		Low	High	High	High	High	Mixed	Low	Low
b) Budget Support		Low	Mixed	Low	High	Mixed	Mixed	Low	Mixed
c) Parallel single-source aid	Grants	Mixed	Low	Low	Low	Low	Mixed	Mixed	Mixed
	Loans	Mixed	High	Low	Low	Low	Mixed	Mixed	Mixed
d) MDTFs		Mixed	Mixed	Mixed	Low	Mixed	Low	Low	Mixed
e) Global Funds		Mixed	Mixed	Mixed	Low	Mixed	High	Mixed	Mixed

Overall, we find that:

- **Domestic resources are a first-best option** for funding statistical capacity due to higher predictability and sustainability associated with domestic revenues. While scaling-up domestic resources is a long-term goal, the short-term funding realities suggest that financing beyond public finances will be necessary to build statistical capacity.
- **Pooled mechanisms are better than bilateral parallel funding** as they can reduce fragmentation across donors, improve funding predictability and reduce the risk of engagement by spreading risk across multiple funders.
- **Global funds have a greater capacity to address the challenges of funding statistical capacity than MDTFs**, as global funds have been better at supporting the awareness of development challenges, financial sustainability, and promoting transparency of funding activities and results.
- **Global funds are not a panacea** and the capacity of global funds to address the challenges facing the statistical sector varies significantly across individual funds. Indeed, our analysis finds that global funds differ in terms of the degree to which they meet and overcome the challenges identified in this study. As a result, any global fund for statistics must be sure to draw upon the best practices available in order to maximise long-term viability and ultimately, results.

Mobilising an additional \$700 million for funding statistical capacity to meet a high ambition scenario for funding the CTGAP is no small task. While strengthening the capacity for developing countries to mobilise domestic resources for statistical systems is a first-best option, pooled financial through a global fund mechanism has been found to be a funding alternative with the potential to overcome several of the key challenges facing statistical capacity.

1. Introduction, purpose and setting the scene

Development data is a critical input into informed policymaking. Regular and reliable data can contribute to planning cycles, monitoring and course correcting, and measuring the impact of development activities. In the context of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the importance of quality data to measure progress towards multiple critical objectives is increasing as the global community recognises the importance of data as an input into better outcomes.

Despite the importance of development data for policymaking and development outcomes, national statistical systems in many developing countries require additional resources and capacity to monitor domestic trends and progress towards the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Meeting the measurement demands of this ambitious agenda remains an ongoing challenge.

In March 2017, the United Nations Statistical Commission adopted the Cape Town Global Action Plan for Sustainable Development Data (CTGAP). The CTGAP was welcomed by the UN General Assembly with the adoption of the resolution “Work of the UN Statistical Commission pertaining to the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development” (71/313) in July 2017. The plan, which builds on earlier global action plans for development data launched in Marrakesh (2004) (MAPS) and Busan (2011), provides a roadmap towards modernising statistical systems and expanding statistical capacity to meet future needs. While the CTGAP outlines the key actions needed to make national statistical systems fit for the future, there are real questions about how the plan to increase statistical capacity will be funded.

The purpose of this paper is to examine and compare financing options that could be used to bridge the gap between the financing needs to meet statistical capacity and data goals and current levels of financing for statistics. Its analysis is based on an extensive desk-based review of key source material conducted between July and September 2018 and interviews with eight experts held between August and October 2018.

Throughout this study, we adopt the definition of statistical capacity used by PARIS21 (2018a), which understands statistical capacity as “the ability of a country’s national statistical system, its organisations and individuals to collect, produce, analyse and disseminate high quality and reliable statistics and data to meet users’ needs” (p. 4).

This paper, which was commissioned by PARIS21, provides background and analysis for assessing the feasibility of potential options for closing the financing gap for statistical capacity. A preliminary draft of this study was presented at the “Assessing the prospects of a Global Fund for Development Data” Experts Meeting held in Paris on 4 October 2018. The final version will be discussed at the Bern High-level Dialogue on Funding for Data for SDGs to be held in Bern, Switzerland on 24 January 2019.

This study is structured as follows. Section 2 of this study provides three estimates of funding different levels of coverage of the CTGAP. Section 3 maps the financial landscape for funding statistical capacity by examining the major sources and instruments that currently support statistical activities. The financial instruments identified provide the basis for further discussions of the key challenges for funding statistical capacity (Section 4) and a comparative analysis of the degree to which each instrument can be used to scale-up resources for funding statistical capacity (Section 5). The final section of this paper identifies key findings from the comparative analysis and outlines next steps for the feasibility study.

2. How much will it cost to fund CTGAP objectives?

Understanding the amount of resources required to build statistical capacity is a necessary first step before comparing the viability of alternative financing instruments to mobilise resources for statistical capacity. To the best of our knowledge, there have been no prior attempts to estimate the cost of implementing the CTGAP in its entirety. Prior costing estimates have instead focused on the costs of financing the statistical capacity needed to measure progress against the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (Sustainable Development Solutions Network (SDSN) et al., 2015; Global Partnership for Sustainable Development Data (GPSDD), 2016) or on the costs of funding specific activities such as data dissemination (SDSN et al., 2014), using survey measurement (Jerven, 2014) or strengthening civil registration and vital statistics (CRVS) data systems (World Bank and WHO, 2014; Kilic et al., 2017). As a result, the estimates provided in the current literature accounts for only a sub-set of activities listed under the CTGAP.

Our costing exercise is intended to provide three estimates for costing a different range of activities included in the CTGAP. This is done to provide a basis for comparing potential instruments for funding statistical capacity in terms of the degree to which they can mobilise resources in alignment with those required to fund the CTGAP. Our purpose is not to replicate any of the costing estimates that have previously sought to examine the cost of developing statistical capacity (see SDSN et al., 2015; GPSDD, 2016). Rather, our aim is to bring together such costings to provide a fuller estimate for implementing the many strategic areas included in the CTGAP.⁴

We caution that while the CTGAP is a global plan to support the development of statistical capacity in all countries, including high-income economies, our analysis focuses exclusively on the funding needed to implement the CTGAP in developing countries. Any funding gap identified through this study is expected to be filled by international resources, including official development assistance (ODA). Given that high-income countries are ineligible for such support, we have excluded them from the current analysis.⁵

2.1 Methodology for costing statistical capacity development

The data underlying our costing estimate is derived from two main sources. First, current estimates for costing statistical capacity from the academic and policy literature. Second, novel dataset which combines planned costing estimates from national statistical development strategy (NSDS) documents from developing countries to fill some of the gaps in the literature where costing for CTGAP objectives were not available.

Review of the current costing literature and NSDS dataset

The first phase began with an analytical review of current literature on costing for statistical capacity development (see SDSN et al., 2015; GPSDD, 2016; Jerven, 2014; World Bank and WHO, 2014). We then matched pre-existing costing estimates to the objectives listed under each strategic area of the CTGAP (see Table 1). For a summary of findings from this phase of analysis, please see Annex II.

Most costing estimates focus only on CTGAP strategic objective 3.1, which aims to “strengthen and expand household survey programs, integrated survey systems, business and other economic survey programmes, population and housing census programmes, civil registration and vital statistics programmes and the International Comparison Programme taking into account the needs posed by

⁴ See Annex I for full list of CTGAP strategic areas and objectives

⁵ High-income countries have gaps in statistical capacity but they are expected to mobilize domestic resources to fund them.

the 2030 Agenda” (UN, 2017). Several studies were either too outdated to provide a meaningful estimate of current costing (see MAPS, 2004), or were loosely linked to objectives 2.3, 3.2, 4.1, 5.1, and 6.1. In part, the challenge of finding appropriate proxies for the CTGAP throughout the literature is likely linked to the broad scope of the plan and its approval in 2017. Therefore, from the review conducted, we only included one study in the costing estimate. We chose the estimate presented by the GPSDD (2016), which was the most comprehensive and recent analysis available as a proxy for objective 3.1.⁶

Of the 14 objectives of the CTGAP, our literature review provided a costing estimate for objectives 3.1 and 3.4 only. To fill these gaps, we developed a dataset, which compiles planned expenditures on statistical objectives reported in the national statistical development strategies (NSDS) of partner countries. The dataset includes costing for all active NSDS documents that included financial plans for IDA countries. Seeing as the majority of active plans are currently being implemented in African countries, we also included costing from expired plans in Asia and Latin America to ensure that the average costs accounts for differences across regions; any plan from IDA countries in Asia and Latin America with a costing estimate were included.⁷ A list of countries included in the NSDS dataset is available in Annex III.

By compiling costing estimates for key objectives listed in the NSDS plans, we were able to identify the planned expenditures for countries in relation to key statistical priorities listed in NSDS documents. In each case, costs per objective or sub-objective were divided by the number of years covered by the corresponding NSDS plan to identify the **average annual cost of each activity per country** (see Table 1). Once the data was compiled, each statistical objective listed in NSDS plans was matched to the corresponding CTGAP objectives. Costs compiled under each objective were averaged to **find the estimated annual cost per country for each CTGAP objective**.

Important exceptions are objectives 3.1 and 3.4, for which we use estimated costs identified in the GPSDD (2016) study. For objective 3.1, we use the mid-point of the high and low estimated cost of measuring the SDGs for IDA and IBRD countries as presented in GPSDD (2016). According to the GPSDD study, measuring the SDGs are expected to cost IDA countries \$1.1-1.2 billion per year, while IBRD countries are expected to require between \$1.7-1.8 billion per year; we use \$1.15 billion and \$1.75 billion, respectively. From this, we subtract the costs of integrating geospatial techniques into data production. This is done to avoid double counting, as these costs will instead be used for objective 3.4, which focuses specifically on geospatial integration.

SDSN et al. (2015) and GPSDD (2016) estimate that geospatial integration will cost approximately \$80 million per year for IDA and blend countries. When we subtract this figure from the total estimated cost of data production for monitoring the SDGs, we find the estimated cost of data production for IDA and blend countries to be approximately \$1.07 billion per year. For IBRD countries, we multiply the estimated cost of geospatial technologies (\$80 million) by a 1.56 multiplier, which is used in the GPSDD study to scale IDA cost estimates to account for the higher

⁶ The GPSDD (2016) study was selected over the SDSN et al. (2015) for providing the costing estimate for data production in relation to the SDGs. This was done on the understanding that the GPSDD study uses a similar estimate to SDSN et al. (2015) but expands the SDSN figure to include additional surveys, which were recommended as necessary for monitoring new SDG indicators. The additional surveys included in the GPSDD estimate include: victimization and literacy surveys, health management information systems, time-use surveys and additional agriculture surveys.

⁷ Seeing as expired plans were quite old, estimated costs were converted into LCU per USD according to the first year of the strategy and then converted into current (2017) prices. This was done to ensure that cost estimates were not dragged down by lower estimates due to price differentials over time.

costs of statistical production in IBRD countries, which is partly due to larger population size.⁸ This figure is then subtracted from the total estimated cost of data production for the SDGs in blend countries (\$1.75 billion), making the revised estimate for SDG data production for IBRD countries to be approximately \$1.63 billion per year.

The cost estimate for geospatial integration is subsequently included under objective 3.4, which pertains directly to enhancing the use of geospatial technologies in data production. We divide the \$80 million estimated for geospatial technologies and use by the number of IDA and blend countries used by SDSN et al. (2015) to create this estimation (77) to identify an approximate annual cost of implementing geospatial data collection per country of \$1.04 million per year (see Table 1, below).

It should be noted that the SDSN and GPSDD studies do not include the cost of measuring all SDG indicators, on the basis that appropriate measurements for Tier III indicators have not yet been determined. In 2018, GPSDD noted a proposed methodology for updating their estimate to include the cost of monitoring newly identified SDG indicators and to account for changes in the income classification of developing countries.

Table 1 (below), provides an overview of the costs associated with each CTGAP objective as identified from the literature and through the NSDS documents. A description of the types of activities included under each CTGAP objective are listed in the footnotes below; for further information, please consult the Cape Town Global Action Plan.

Table 1: Estimated annual cost for CTGAP activities per country based on NSDS dataset⁹

CTGAP Strategic Area	Objective	Average annual cost per IDA country (\$US, 2017)
1. Coordination and strategic leadership	Objective 1.1¹⁰: Strengthen national statistical systems and the coordination role of NSOs	347,000
	Objective 1.2: Strengthen coordination among NSSs and regional and international organisations active in the production of data and statistics for sustainable development.	N/A
2. Innovation and modernization of NSS	Objective 2.1¹¹: Modernise governance and institutional frameworks to allow NSS to meet the demands and opportunities of constantly evolving data ecosystems	619,000
	Objective 2.2¹²: Modernise statistical standards aimed to facilitate data integration and automation of data exchange across different stages of statistical production	240,000
	Objective 2.3¹³: Facilitate the application of new technologies and new data sources into mainstream statistical activities	4,880,000

⁸ \$80 million times 1.56 is equal to \$124.8 million.

⁹ Raw data based on averages from NSDS dataset. Assumptions and transformations are discussed below. Please note that these figures are based on the costs of objectives or sub-objectives listed in NSDS documents and do not correspond to a list of specific activities (except for objectives 3.1, 3.2, and 3.4).

¹⁰ This objective includes the cost of assessing national statistical capacities, integrating data production into government planning, and strengthening coordination between NSOs and other government departments.

¹¹ This objective refers to the costs of revising statistical laws and regulatory frameworks, clarifying and supporting the role of NSS in open data initiatives and embracing open data.

¹² This objective includes the cost of defining and implementing standardized structures, particularly for the integration of data and metadata on key pillars of sustainable development across levels of data collection, and promoting “interoperability of these systems to facility such integration” (UN, 2017 p. 5).

¹³ This objective refers to costs associated with aspects of applying new technologies and data sources into statistical activities, including identifying specifications for the use of new technologies, removing barriers and

3. Strengthening of basic statistical activities and programmes, with focus on addressing the monitoring needs of the 2030 Agenda	Objective 3.1¹⁴: Strengthen and expand household survey programmes, integrated survey systems, business and other economic survey programmes, population and housing census programmes, CRVS programmes and the International Comparison Programme taking into account the needs posed by the 2030 Agenda	\$1.07 billion per year (IDA and blend countries); \$1.63 billion per year (IBRD countries)
	Objective 3.2¹⁵: Improve the quality of national statistical registers and expand the use of administrative records integrating them with data from surveys and other new data sources	1,180,000
	Objective 3.3¹⁶: Strengthen and expand System of National Accounts and the System of Environmental Economic Accounts	1,160,000
	Objective 3.4¹⁷: Integrate geospatial data into statistical production programmes at all levels	1,040,000
	Objective 3.5¹⁸: Strengthen and expand data on all groups of population to ensure that no one is left behind	597,000
	Objective 3.6¹⁹: Strengthen and expand data on domains that are not well developed within the scope of official statistics	246,000
4. Data dissemination	Objective 4.1²⁰: Develop and promote innovating strategies to ensure proper dissemination and use of data for sustainable development	1,070,000
5. Multi-stakeholder partnerships	Objective 5.1²¹: Develop and strengthen partnerships of national and international statistical systems with governments, academia, civil	202,000

integrating new sources into statistical programs, developing guidelines for data generated outside of official systems, and promoting the creation of integrated database systems.

¹⁴ Defined above, please also see SDSN et al. (2015) and GPSDD (2016) for full list of activities

¹⁵ We note that the estimates provided for objective 3.2 is significantly lower than the estimate provided in an earlier draft of the costing model presented during the Experts Meeting in Paris on October 4, 2018. Following the meeting, we reviewed the estimates for objective 3.2 to avoid potential double counting with objective 3.1. The current estimate reflects these changes and pertains exclusively to activities related to building or enhancing the quality of national statistical registers. These include activities such as “Developing national statistical register” (Bangladesh), “Updating business registers” (Ethiopia), “Expand compilation and use of data from administrative records” (Ghana), “Births, deaths and marriage registration and population” (Samoa), and “Strengthened administrative records and statistics” (Rwanda).

¹⁶ It includes costs related to implementing the System of national accounts and supporting the development of other satellite accounts including unpaid work and tourism.

¹⁷ Defined above, please also see SDSN et al. (2015) for further detail on costs included.

¹⁸ There may be some double counting between the activities included in this category and those counted under the GPSDD estimate counted under objective 3.1. In particular, the GPSDD study includes the cost of implementing victimization surveys. Seeing as the majority of activities included in the estimate for objective 3.5 pertain to gender related statistics, there is the possibility of some duplication. However, seeing as the leave no one behind agenda is far broader than gender, and given that these activities have often not been included in NSDS documents, we contend that the amount reported for funding data to measure LNOB in objective 3.5 is likely still an underestimate. The objective includes the costs of activities related to the production of timely, reliable and disaggregated data by all national characteristics to ensure no one is left behind.

¹⁹ It refers to the costs of activities related to developing and improving coverage of data beyond official statistics, develop quality assurance framework for new data sources, constructing concepts and methodologies for new indicators and promoting the implementation of the Framework for the Development of Environmental Statistics.

²⁰ It covers the costs associated with strengthening data dissemination including the promotion of related technological infrastructure, developing effective communication and dissemination strategies, leveraging e-learning platforms, implementing education programs to increase data literacy, and promoting policies for access and use of micro-data.

	society, private sector and other stakeholders involved in the production and use of data for sustainable development.	
6. Mobilize resources and coordinate efforts	Objective 6.1²²: Ensure that resources are available to implement the necessary programmes and actions as outlined in this global action plan (both domestic and from international cooperation).	3,820,000

There are a few important remarks worth noting regarding the data compiled from the NSDS documents:

1. **The NSDS documents vary in quality and coverage:** While the NSDS documents provide a strategic plan for strengthening national statistical capacity, these documents are based on the costing projections by governments and are likely to vary both in terms of the quality of the estimates and the coverage of the activities included in the NSDS plans. Seeing as we use a non-random subset of countries for the NSDS estimates, we recognize that the quality of the estimate provided is dependent on the strength of the NSDS plans surveyed in our sample. However, despite the potential ambiguity associated with the use of the NSDS as the primary source of costing estimates, these documents remain the most holistic spending plans available for costing a broad range of activities related to statistical capacity development.
2. **Planned versus actual expenditure:** NSDS documents reference planned rather than actual expenditures. This means that the estimates provided may not reflect *actual* expenditures per objective.
3. **Not all CTGAP objectives have a dollar value:** We found that not all CTGAP objectives were represented with clear costing estimates from the NSDS documents. Table 1 shows that costing for objective 1.2 was unavailable and has been excluded from this analysis. For objective 1.2, which relates to strengthening coordination between NSSs and regional or international organisations, the costs associated with such coordination are likely to be opportunity costs and may not have an associated dollar value.
4. **Matching activities to the CTGAP:** In most cases, activities listed in the NSDS did not exactly match the CTGAP objectives. This is expected given that many of the NSDS documents reviewed were developed before the CTGAP was developed. As a result, the matching of activities in relation to CTGAP objectives is subjective and represents a best approximation based on the author's interpretation.
5. **Currency conversion:** Seeing as NSDS are national documents, costing estimates are routinely expressed in national currency as of the year in which the plan was developed. To ensure that costing estimates across country were comparable, costs provided in national currencies were converted to 2017 USD.²³

²¹ It refers to the costs of improving accessibility of official statistics, consulting with stakeholders on data production, and developing institutional arrangements needed for public-private cooperation.

²² This objective includes the costs of developing a programme for statistical capacity building, promote coordination mechanisms for capacity building, providing an overview of capacity needs, identifying and coordinating existing resources. This objective also includes the costs of capacity building objectives as outlined in NSDS plans.

²³ Currency conversions assumed that amounts were reported in the currency of the year in which the NSDS plan began. For instance, a plan spanning 2006-2010 was assumed to reflect expected costs in 2006 currency. Amounts per activity were divided by the 'LCU per USD' amount for the base year used for each NSDS. This amount was then converted into 2017 USD using the rate of inflation calculated between the LCU per USD base year and LCU per USD for 2017, for each country.

To transform the raw data from NSDS plans into a costing estimate, we make several assumptions in line with the current costing literature. These assumptions are outlined below:

- **The share of domestic resources that can be mobilised for statistical capacity differs between IDA and IBRD countries:** We adopt the assumption developed by the GPSDD (2016) that IDA-eligible countries will require external financing to cover 50% of the statistical costs, while IBRD countries will require 5% external finance.²⁴ We multiply each costing estimate by the number of IDA (75) and IBRD (69) countries and the estimated amount of external financing required.²⁵
- **The absolute costs of building statistical capacity are higher in IBRD countries:** We assume that the absolute cost of implementing statistical plans and building statistical capacity is higher in IBRD countries. This assumption is based on costing literature, which shows that on average, the estimated per country cost of financing data for the SGDs is higher for IBRD countries than IDA counterparts (see GPSDD, 2016). To account for this difference, we scale-up the estimated costs to IBRD countries using the same formula used by GPSDD (2016).²⁶ In this study, GPSDD scales up the cost estimates for IDA countries by the geometric average of the ratio of population size and the number of countries (IBRD/IDA). We apply the same method using updated data on both population size and IBRD eligibility.²⁷
- **Costs remain constant over time:** We assume that the costs of data production are constant across years. We acknowledge that the costs of data collection, management infrastructures and capacities could be higher in the short term, tapering off as capacities are institutionalised over time. Similarly, the costs of data collection and analysis could be reduced by new technologies and innovations including high-resolution satellite imagery, mobile devices, crowd-sourcing and biometrics, which could “dramatically advance our ability to monitor the impact of government programs and interventions to assess the wellbeing of people, and to forecast future social, economic and environmental trends” (see GPSDD, 2016 p. 17). Despite this cost-saving potential there is little clarity on the expected scale of any future decline in costs, and in the case of new technologies, on when and whether such technologies can be scaled and rolled-out globally (GPSDD, 2016; Sandefur, 2016).

²⁴ We tested this assumption using data on the share of NSDS funding which countries expected to finance from domestic resources. On average, we found that IDA countries required about 52% of financing from external sources. This finding was based on data from NSDS reports included in this analysis where the share of funding expected to be provided by governments was identified. This corroborates findings by SDSN et al. (2015), which underlie the continued use of this proportion. Due to the limited availability of IBRD NSDS documents with costing estimates, we could not update or substantiate the 5% external funding need for IBRD countries.

²⁵ The number of IDA and IBRD countries has changed since the 2016 GPSDD study due to the graduation of countries over recent years. However, the use of the actual number of IDA and IBRD countries (75 and 69 respectively) is aligned with the changes to the costing methodology proposed by GPSDD in 2018 (see GPSDD, 2018). The changing number of IDA and IBRD countries means that our costing estimate is not comparable to prior estimates.

²⁶ GPSDD (2016) uses the “geometric average of the ratio of population sizes...and the number of countries” (p. 16).

²⁷ We use that latest data available on population (2017) taken from the World Bank Databank. Based on this analysis, we find that on average, the per country cost of implementing statistical programs for IBRD countries is approximately 1.65 times that of IDA counterparts.²⁷ As a result, we multiply all costing estimates by 1.65 to obtain the approximate equivalent per country cost for IBRD countries.

- **In the absence of a clear estimate of the scale of potential for future efficiency gains and cost reductions, this study errs on the side of caution by assuming constant costs over time.** However, we recognize that doing so may overstate the scale of future resources needed. Further research should assess the scale of efficiency gains, to be included in future estimates.
- **We do not control for future inflation:** All costs are presented in 2017 USD and are calculated in current currency going forward. This is consistent with past costing estimates for development data (see SDSN, 2015; GPSDD, 2016) and is done on the understanding that future price changes cannot be meaningfully predicted.
- **The costing provided is likely an underestimate:** We assume that our costing is an underestimate due to two main reasons. Firstly, as noted above, not all objectives of the CTGAP have been costed due to the absence of clear cost estimates for objective 1.2. Second, as noted by GPSDD (2018), changes to the classification of SDG indicators means that newly defined indicators have not been captured by this analysis. Since the initial GPSDD (2016) study, 18 formerly “Tier III” indicators have been reclassified, which could increase costs for recipient countries depending on measurement requirements (see Annex IV for full list of indicator changes and new data sources required).²⁸ Meaningfully assessing such costs would require in-depth research and interviews with statistical experts, which falls beyond the scope of this exercise.

2.2 Annual cost of funding three scenarios for differing coverage of the CTGAP

Using the data outlined in Table 1, we multiply the average cost of each activity by the current number of IDA and IBRD countries. We then multiply the share allocated to IBRD countries by the population weight (1.65) to account for higher expected costs in these countries; doing so also aligns with the methodology used in prior costing estimates (see GPSDD, 2016).²⁹ The total estimated amount required for each CTGAP objective is presented by funding source (domestic and external) in Annex V.

Based on the costing outlined above, we develop three scenarios for funding the CTGAP. The scenarios present different levels of ambition for data production, capacity building and systems development in line with the CTGAP.³⁰ The three scenarios – low ambition, medium ambition, and high ambition – are presented in detail below and summarized in Table 2. Each scenario is built on the dataset described above; the caveats mentioned apply in each case.

Table 2: CTGAP scenarios by level of ambition

CTGAP Strategic Area	Objective	Low Ambition	Medium Ambition	High Ambition
1. Coordination and strategic leadership	Objective 1.1			X
	Objective 1.2			X

²⁸ This costing exercise is based on the assumption that all SDG indicators will be collected by every country. However, countries may choose instead to focus on a smaller sub-set of indicators.

²⁹ The population weight was calculated using the geometric average of the ratio of population size and the number of countries (IBRD/IDA). Data on population size uses the latest available (2017) taken from the World Bank databank and uses the current (2018) list of IDA/IBRD eligible countries.

³⁰ We do not provide a differentiated estimate for institutional capacity building and substantive capacity building activities. To the best of our knowledge, this differentiation has not been presented or costed in prior studies (e.g. SDSN et al., 2015; GPSDD, 2016).

2. Innovation and modernisation of national statistical systems	Objective 2.1			X
	Objective 2.2			X
	Objective 2.3			X
3. Strengthening of basic statistical activities and programmes, with a focus on addressing the monitoring needs of the 2030 Agenda	Objective 3.1	X	X	X
	Objective 3.2		X	X
	Objective 3.3		X	X
	Objective 3.4	X	X	X
	Objective 3.5		X	X
	Objective 3.6		X	X
4. Dissemination and use of data	Objective 4.1			X
5. Multi-stakeholder partnerships	Objective 5.1			X
6. Mobilise resources and coordination for statistical capacity building	Objective 6.1		X	X
Total (annual)		\$2.9 billion	\$4.2 billion	\$5.6 billion

Scenario 1 (Low ambition): Data production and the cost of measuring the SDGs

Our low-ambition scenario estimates the costs needed to support the production of data to monitor the SDGs. We view data production to monitor the SDGs as the most basic statistical objective for all countries. The estimate is based on the sum of costs associated with CTGAP objective 3.1 and 3.4, which covers activities related to statistical production and integrating geospatial data into statistical program. This is in line with the activities included in the GPSDD (2016) estimate for cost of producing the SDG indicators.³¹

Based on the methodology described above, the estimated annual cost of strengthening data production (including via the implementation and use of geospatial technologies) is approximately \$2.9 billion per year.

Scenario 2 (Medium ambition): SDG monitoring and statistical capacity building

Our medium-ambition scenario includes the cost of all objectives covered under Strategic Area 3 of the CTGAP, which focuses on basic statistical activities in line with the SDGs, as well as the cost of building statistical capacity. We contend that efforts to support statistical capacity building in developing countries are crucial to ensuring the long-term quality and reliability of data produced and should be prioritized alongside efforts to expand data coverage. These activities correspond to all objectives covered under Strategic Areas 3 and 6 of the CTGAP.

The cost of covering a full range of activities related to statistical production and capacity building is estimated to cost approximately \$4.2 billion per year, of which developing countries are expected to cover around \$3.3 billion per year. The remaining \$900 million per year will be required from external sources.

³¹ We note that some capacity building to support statistical production were factored in to the costs associated with objectives 3.1 and 3.4 in the studies from which the estimates were sourced (SDSN et al., 2015; GPSDD, 2016). As a result, the point is not to suggest that these activities do not contribute to or support capacity building, which is added as a separate line item in Scenario 2, but that the costs covered under these objectives can be considered the minimum needed to meet the basic objective of data production for the SDGs.

Scenario 3 (High ambition): Funding the CTGAP

This high-ambition cost scenario provides an estimate of the full costs of funding each objective listed under the CTGAP. **We estimate the cost of funding the CTGAP to be approximately \$5.6 billion per year, of which developing countries are expected to cover \$4.3 billion from domestic sources. Based on this assumption, a further \$1.3 billion per year is required from external sources.**

3. How is developing and expanding statistical capacity being funded so far? A review of sources and instruments

Having identified the size of the funding gap for building statistical capacity in alignment with the CTGAP, this section reviews the main sources, instruments and amounts of funding available for development data and statistics. Doing so allows us to map the financial landscape for statistics and provides a basis for both identifying potential sources for scaling-up resources for statistical capacity.

We attempt to capture the full range of funding available from domestic, international, private and public sector sources. This represents the funding available for financing development activities, including statistical development.

We review trends in funding statistics from each source over the short to medium term, based on data availability. All trends presented should be viewed as indicative and understood as guidance only as global data on development financing are inconsistently reported and tracked, with partial and total gaps in reporting from private donors (voluntary giving, private companies, and foundations), non-DAC donors, domestic actors, delivery agencies, and financing mechanisms.

3.1 Public finance

Public finance is the single largest source of funding for statistical capacity. Based on the analysis presented above, we expect that IDA and IBRD countries will collectively spend approximately \$4.3 billion per year on funding for statistical capacity. This is the equivalent of almost 77% of the total expected annual cost of building statistical capacity.

The amount of public finance allocated to statistical capacity development varies across countries. While middle-income countries will finance most of their statistical plans via domestic resources (based on GPDDS (2016) estimates), Badiie et al. (2017) point out that lower-income countries may “struggle with mobilising a tax base or fail to prioritise the use of funds for statistics” (p. 83) over competing domestic objectives. Table 3 shows the share of domestic resources available for funding national statistical development strategies (NSDS) across a sample of IDA countries. Any shortfall not covered by domestic funding is expected to be funded by international sources.

Table 3: Share of NSDS covered by public finances

Country	Share of NSDS covered by public finance	NSDS program years
Burkina Faso	31%	2016-2020
Mali	50.4%	2015-2019
Niger	43.1%	2017-2021
Maldives	76.6%	2010-2019
Cameroon	27%	2015-2020
Laos	35%	2010-2020
Honduras	9%	2006-2010
Georgia	61.7%	2011-2014
Bolivia	37%	2010-2014
Tajikistan	25.8%	2012-2016

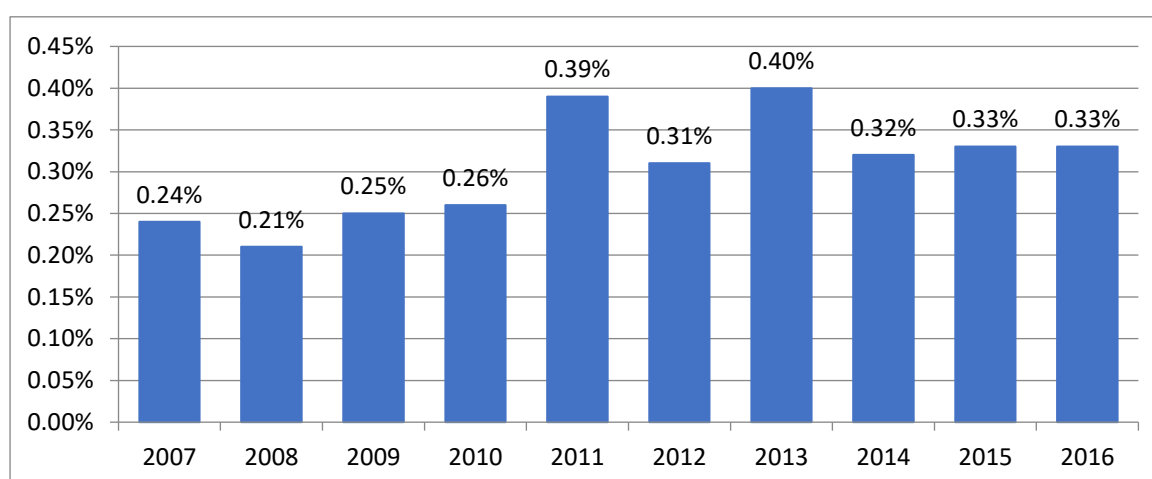
Source: Author's compilation from NSDS documents

3.2 Bilateral and multilateral donors

Between 2014-2016, official development assistance (ODA) from bilateral and multilateral sources for statistics amounted to an average of US\$600 million per year (PARIS21, 2018b).³² At current funding levels, closing the financing gap for funding the CTGAP will require a four-fold increase in ODA for statistics.

As a share of total ODA, funding for statistics has remained relatively flat at around 0.33% in recent years, except for 2014 when exceptional commitments made in Asia-Pacific and the graduation of 11 countries to upper-middle-income status resulted in an increased share of funding for statistics (PARIS21, 2018b).

Figure 1: Commitments for statistics, share of total ODA



Source: PARIS21 (2018b).

ODA for statistics tends to be supplied by a few key donors, with 69% of total ODA commitments for statistics provided by five donors (World Bank, UNFPA, the European Commission/EUROSTAT, IMF and Canada) in 2016 (PARIS21, 2018c). Smaller ODA commitments for statistics were also provided by the UK, Sweden, Norway and UNICEF (PARIS21, 2018c).

The bulk of the funds for statistical capacity attributed to the World Bank are likely to be linked to a number of major data partnerships housed at the World Bank in the form of Multi-donor Trust Funds (MDTFs). These include: Knowledge for Change Trust Fund, ECASTAT Trust, and the Trust Fund for Statistical Capacity Building. Indeed, the IEG (2017) notes that between 2000-2016, the World Bank received \$250 million in donor contributions for data partnerships for which the World Bank served as trustee and the implementing agency. Over the same period, the largest donor to World Bank hosted MDTFs for statistics was the UK's Department for International Development (DFID), which provided 65% of funding for activities focused on general statistical capacity building (see IEG, 2017 p. 12).

In addition to traditional development actors, there is some evidence that emerging donors also contribute to supporting statistical capacity development, mostly through contributions to MDTFs.

³² We use PARIS21 estimates for funding for statistical capacity throughout. It is important to note that PARIS21 figures are based on both the CRS and responses to the PRESS questionnaire. As a result, funding reported under the CRS code for statistical capacity building '16062' does not match the overall figure used by PARIS21. A detailed description of the PARIS21 methodology is available at: <http://www.paris21.org/sites/default/files/2017-09/PRESS2009-methodology.pdf>

In a recent paper, Open Data Watch (2016) lists several multi-donor funding schemes for statistical capacity development to which emerging donors contribute. Examples include the Technical Cooperation Trust Fund Projects Between the UN and Country Governments through which China provided a total of US\$9 million for two rounds of funding, and the IMF Regional Technical Assistance Centers, which received funding from China, Brazil, Kuwait, Oman, and Mexico (Open Data Watch, 2016). While data on the scale of financing for statistics from emerging donors is limited, a recent survey by PARIS21 finds evidence that recipients expect emerging donors to engage in statistical capacity building in the future, reporting that **77% of 'southern' countries seeking bilateral funds to support statistical development expect to receive some form of 'south-south' cooperation** (PARIS21, 2018a).

3.3 Private sources: philanthropic foundations and PPPs

From 2013-2015, philanthropic funders contributed between US\$539-628 million to support statistical development (see Annex VI).³³ By far, the largest philanthropic donor was the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation (BMFG), which provided US\$406.1 million for statistical capacity between 2013-2015 (PARIS21, 2018b). This represents about 3.2% of BMFGs total spending on “global programs” over the same period.³⁴ The second largest philanthropic donor to the statistical sector was the William and Flora Hewlett Foundation, which allocated \$51-55 million for statistics between 2013-2015 (PARIS21, 2018b).

As a share of total philanthropy for development support for statistical capacity amounted to between 2.3%-2.6%, almost eight times the share of ODA for statistics.³⁵ Moreover, philanthropic flows appear to be increasing, with the OECD (2018) reporting an annual increase in total giving by foundations between 2013-2015, from \$6.9 billion in 2013 to \$7.4 billion in 2014 and \$9.6 billion in 2015. Assuming that statistics remain funded at the same level, such an increase in absolute funding could lead to additional support for statistics.

There is no clear estimate of private sector engagement in statistics through public private partnerships. This is perhaps unsurprising given that such partnerships tend to involve sharing data rather than investments by the private sector. However, there is some evidence to suggest that the private sector has begun engaging in statistics through PPPs. A recent study by Robin, Klein and Jütting (2016) explores the use of non-official data sources supplied by commercial operations within NSOs from four cases of PPPs for statistics. The study clearly highlights several challenges for engaging the private sector in statistical development, including ethical issues related to data confidentiality, unclear legislation around the use of unofficial data sources, and poor incentives linked to questions around the demand for unofficial data and the benefits of partnering in the statistical sector for private sector actors. While such challenges act as barriers for cooperation, Robin et al. (2016) suggest that there are potential opportunities for engaging with private actors to support data production.

³³ Own calculation - sum of funding listed in Annex VI.

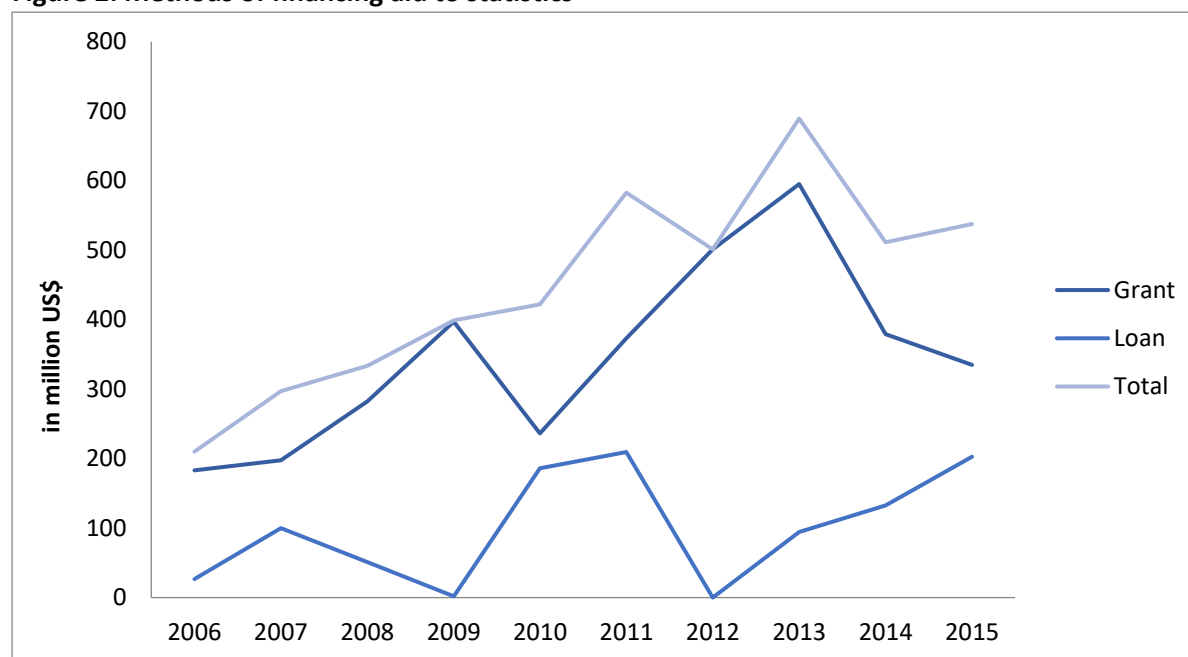
³⁴ Own calculation based on amounts sourced from BMFG audited financial statements for 2013, 2014 and 2015. Funding for “global programs” amounted to approximately 3.3 billion in 2013, 3.9 billion in 2014, and 5.3 billion in 2015. BMFG financial statements can be accessed from: <https://www.gatesfoundation.org/Who-We-Are/General-Information/Financials>

³⁵ Own calculation using OECD (2018) estimate of total philanthropy for development as US\$23.9 billion between 2013-2015 and estimated amount of philanthropic ODA for statistics outlined in Annex V. To arrive at this figure, we summed the low and high estimates presented in Annex V and divided by the US\$23.9 billion estimate of total philanthropic funding.

3.4 Financial instruments

In 2015, the share of ODA for statistics allocated as grants (approximately US\$335 million, or 62% in 2015) was slightly below the average use of grants across sectors by DAC donors, which was valued at 67%. The share of grants used in statistics is also low in comparison to other social sectors. For instance, according to data from the OECD's Creditor Reporting System, about 96% of ODA for education and 85% of ODA for health was allocated as grants in 2015.

Figure 2: Methods of financing aid to statistics



Adapted from: PARIS21 (2017).

There are significant differences in the use of financing instruments across regions. Notably, Latin America and the Caribbean received a lower proportion of funding as grants (52% between 2006 and 2013) than Africa, which received 80% of funding as grants over the same period (PARIS21, 2017).

ODA funding can be used to support a variety of interventions including statistical production, capacity building and to purchase necessary equipment, yet the types of activities funded as grants and loans tends to differ. For instance, the larger funding envelope typically allocated as loans “allows funding to cover many statistical domains, as well as the total overhaul of the national statistical systems” (Badiie et al., 2017 p. 83), which may make loans more suitable for statistical programs or systemic interventions. Grants by comparison, tend to be smaller in size and are better suited towards project-type interventions, while technical assistance is typically used to support statistical capacity building in partner countries.³⁶

Interestingly, there is little evidence that ODA allocated as sector budget support has routinely been used to finance statistical capacity. Using the OECD-DAC's Creditor Reporting System, ODA disbursements allocated for “statistical capacity building” (CRS purpose code 16062) in 2016 were a

³⁶ For an indicative analysis of the difference in size between grants and loans, we compared the average size of grant and loan funding by the World Bank. We found that in 2015, the average size of loans provided for statistical capacity by the World Bank was approximately US\$14.8 million, almost 20 times larger than the average World Bank grant for statistics (valued at approximately \$750,000).

mere 593,000 and were spent by EU institutions. In prior years, small ODA disbursements have also been made by the World Bank's IDA, with \$1.5 million allocated in 2015, and \$10.7 million spent on statistics in 2013.

Beyond official ODA statistics, there are few estimates of the use of other instruments for funding statistical capacity. A key resource in this regard is a 2016 survey of 51 instruments for funding statistics conducted by Open Data Watch. While it should be noted that the figures reported in this analysis do not match figures presented by PARIS21 as they "do not include bilateral donors' direct support to countries" (Open Data Watch, 2016 p. 6), the report provides indicative figures of the share of ODA allocated through a variety of funding instruments for statistics that are not compiled and tracked elsewhere.

Open Data Watch's (2016) survey found that of the \$328 million funding covered by their analysis, approximately 86% (or \$282 million) was provided as technical cooperation or other grant-based trust funds. A further 6% (or \$19 million) was allocated as technical assistance, while the remaining 8% (\$27.5 million) was disbursed as loans.³⁷

The report also differentiates between seven funding instruments including: multilateral lending with a country focus, bilateral grants, bilateral, multilateral, or organisational support in the form of technical assistance, multi-donor trust funds when funding is executed by recipients, multi-donor trust funds where funding is executed by host agencies, multi-donor trust funds where funding is executed by host agencies or partners, and special development grants. Open Data Watch (2016) reports that most of the funding reviewed was allocated as bilateral grants (\$108.8 million or about 33% of total funding in 2016), followed by country executed multi-donor trust funds, which were used for \$96.5 million or 29% of funding in 2016. A comparison of the funding provided through the instruments reviewed by Open Data Watch is available in Table 4, below.

Table 4: Estimated annual value of financing for statistics by instrument

Mechanism	2016 \$ millions
Multilateral lending - country focus	\$27.5
Bilateral grant (country, regional, thematic focus)	\$108.8
Bilateral, multilateral, or organisation support (technical assistance)	\$18.5
Multi-donor trust fund – country executed	\$96.5
Multi-donor trust fund – host agency executed	\$54.14
Multi-donor trust fund – host agency or partner executed	\$3.48
Special development grants	\$18.93
Total	\$327.85

Source: Open Data Watch (2016) p. 5.

In addition, the **OECD's 2015 Multilateral Aid Report** noted the emergence of new instruments such as vertical funds and pooled funding mechanisms as key modalities for attracting multilateral financing. A recent survey of vertical funds and pooling mechanisms for statistics shows that as of 2018, 16 funds of the survey sampled presented either a primary or secondary focus on statistics

³⁷ Discrepancies in the use of instruments between the PARIS21 and Open Data Watch reporting is due to the absence of direct funding from bilateral donors to recipients as part of the Open Data Watch analysis (see Open Data Watch, 2016).

(Open Data Watch, 2018). Of these, eight funds had a primary focus on statistics and managed total resources of about \$303 million (Open Data Watch, 2018).

Most of the vertical funds for statistics identified by Open Data Watch (2018) are hosted at the World Bank. Importantly, the World Bank managed funds tend to be quite small, with five of the six statistical vertical funds managed by the bank holding total funds equal to or less than \$25 million. Of the other funds identified, the largest is hosted by the African Development Bank, which holds \$140 million for statistical capacity building (see Open Data Watch, 2018). While the vertical funds for statistical capacity are smaller in size than other vertical funds for key sectoral initiatives (think the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria and the Green Climate Fund), larger global funds have sometimes also provided support for statistics. For instance, in 2015, the Global Financing Facility pledged to support the strengthening of Civil Registration and Vital Statistics (CRVS) in order to monitor progress made towards their key objective of ending preventable maternal, newborn, child and adolescent deaths (Badiie et al., 2017; GFF, 2017). While more work is needed to assess the scope of interventions from such funds, vertical and global funding mechanisms appear to act as a new and emerging modality for managing financing for statistics.

In addition to the instruments discussed above, there has been some debate about the potential to implement a “data tax” which could be used to generate revenues for funding statistical capacity. Such a tax could be levied on companies, which hold citizens’ data and returned to citizens for the data they create (see Hughes, 2018). In early 2018, the European Commission proposed the idea of implementing a 3% data tax on the profits of digital companies with revenues over €750 million globally and €50 within Europe, approximately 150 of which operate within the EU (see Vie publique, 2018). While the application of such a tax for statistics is largely only a discussion, any potential tax on the profits of private companies that use citizens data could provide a regular and sustainable source of additional income for funding statistical systems.

3.5 International Funding gap for statistics

As we have seen, according to the latest figures reported by PARIS21, between 2014-2016, donors provided approximately \$600 million per year in ODA for statistics. This includes bilateral, multilateral and some philanthropic support. However, it is likely to be an underestimate of the total levels of external financing available for statistics, as it may not cover all philanthropic donations. We subtract the amount from the total cost per scenario, and subtract the share which we assume will be covered by domestic resources (as described in the prior section) to identify the estimated funding gap based on each scenario (see Table 5, below). **We find an annual funding gap of between \$100-\$700 million per year based on donor ambition towards reaching the CTGAP. This equates to a total financing gap of between \$1.1-\$7.7 billion between 2019-2030 assuming ODA flows for statistics remain constant.**³⁸

³⁸ We calculate total costs by multiplying the financing gap per scenario by the 11 years (2019-2030) remaining to reach the SDGs. Given that this paper is being written towards the end of 2018, we opted to estimate the total costs going forward excluding the current year.

Table 5: Estimated funding gap by costing scenario

Costing Scenario	Total cost	Cost paid from domestic sources ³⁹	Current volumes of ODA for statistics	Funding gap ⁴⁰
Low-ambition	\$2.9 billion	\$2.2 billion	\$600 million	\$100 million
Medium-ambition	\$4.2 billion	\$3.3 billion	\$600 million	\$300 million
High-ambition	\$5.6 billion	\$4.3 billion	\$600 million	\$700 million

If funding needs were to be met exclusively by ODA, meeting the financing needs for the high-ambition scenario requires moving from current levels of 0.3% of total ODA allocated for statistics, to around 0.7% of total ODA per year.⁴¹ This suggests that more than doubling current funding is needed to meet the demands of the CTGAP across countries.

While the level of international funding needed for statistics is high in the context of current levels, ODA for statistics represents a fraction of the funding needed to support the implementation of the global SGD agenda. According to Schmidt-Traub (2015), the incremental spending needs in low and lower-middle-income countries could amount to a minimum of \$1.4 trillion per year, with an estimated external financing gap of between \$152-163 billion per year. Based on the estimation for the highest-ambition scenario presented above, the annual financing gap for statistics is estimated between 0.4%-0.5% of the total external funding needs to finance the SDGs.⁴² The total cost of funding the high ambition scenario of the CTGAP is approximately 0.05% of the total \$1.4 trillion per year needed to finance the SDGs.

³⁹ This amount pertains to the share of the total cost of funding statistics, which we assume will be covered by domestic sources. This assumption is based on the discussion presented above and is in line with SDSN et al. (2015) and GPSDD (2016) which assume that IDA governments will cover an average of 50% of costs for statistics, while IBRD countries are assumed to cover 95%. For more detail on the expected cost per objective by funding source, please see Annex V.

⁴⁰ This is calculated as the total cost, minus the share, which we assume will be covered by governments, minus the current level of ODA.

⁴¹ Based on total ODA (net disbursements) from all donors in 2017, which are valued at \$177.6 billion. This amounts to almost 0.9% of total ODA (net disbursements) allocated by DAC donors in 2017, which were valued at \$146.6 billion.

⁴² Own calculation, \$700 million financing gap divided by \$152-163 billion estimated gap for SDGs.

4. What are the challenges for funding statistical capacity?

Any potential funding option must be positioned to address the key challenges for financing statistical capacity. **Filling the financing gap for implementing all CTGAP objectives is less likely unless funding options can overcome the challenges that limit or fail to adequately incentivise donors to fund statistical capacity.**

The following challenges for funding statistical capacity were identified through desk-research and triangulated through interviews with key experts. We will assess whether and how each funding mechanism can address the following challenges:

- **Poor awareness:** Over the course of this study, we consistently heard that raising awareness for statistics within donors and recipients is an ongoing challenge for generating interest and finance. For donors and recipients alike, challenges facing national statistical systems are less visible than other development priorities, particularly in low-income countries where meeting basic needs remains an ongoing concern. Any effort to scale-up funding for statistics must work to raise the profile and visibility of the importance of statistical capacity to generate interest and increase funding.
- **Sustainability, predictability, and transparency:** Ensuring the long-term sustainability of financing, predictable disbursements and transparency of donor activities are among the challenges for funding statistical capacity as for other sectors. While there is little evidence to suggest that such issues are either more or less acute in the statistical sector, potential instruments for funding statistics should be capable of embodying best practices and supporting the sustainability, predictability and transparency of funding and activities.
- **Poor alignment of programming with country systems and strategies:** Despite repeated calls for country ownership, funding for statistics tends to be aligned more closely with the measurement priorities of donors than those of recipients (see OECD, 2009; OECD, 2017). The issue is linked to both the low-level of funding available for statistical capacity as well as differences in reporting and measurement requirements by donors. In terms of funding, the low availability of funding for statistics creates an incentive for recipients to accept funding where available and has spurred a “what gets funded gets done” mentality (OECD, 2009 p. ix). At the same time, funding for statistics “has been seen as an add-on to other sectoral projects”, meaning that key recipient priorities in administrative data and civil registration have often been neglected (Badiie et al., 2017 p. 84).

The results of this model are often that any improvements to statistical capacity and data production are not necessarily made in areas of national priority to recipient governments (OECD, 2009), and that funding is likely to support specific data production activities rather than the development of statistical systems. In this context, funding mechanisms for building statistical capacity must promote recipient ownership over statistical programming to ensure that core national priorities are met and build capacity through engagement.

- **Harmonisation and coordination:** The harmonisation challenge in the statistical sector appears to be linked to two main causes. First, the small size of grants traditionally allocated for statistics means that multiple providers are likely to operate small programs in the same country (Open Data Watch, 2016; IEG, 2017; OECD, 2017). Indeed, a 2009 study conducted

by the OECD found that in some cases, “several donors provided earmarked funds for the same activity, but had different accounting and disbursement schedules delaying the statistical production process and increasing transaction costs” (p. xii). More recently, a survey of DAC donors acknowledges the need for a “division of labour between donors to enhance synergies and impact and to ensure more effective allocation of resources by avoiding duplication of efforts and minimising the burden on capacity constrained national statistical offices of partner countries” (Sanna and McDonnell, 2017, p. 6).

Second, discrepancies in the range of “standard indicators” used by donors often differs from those used by partner countries themselves, which “complicates and fragments the country-level data landscape” (Zwart and Egan, 2017 p. 106). Moreover, unaligned reporting requirements by donors often leads to the creation of parallel mechanisms for data collection in developing countries that “can divert attention and resources away from measuring development change and outcomes at the country level” (Zwart and Egan, 2017 p. 106).

- **Measuring results:** In the context of scarce resources for development, donors and policy-makers seek to measure the return on ODA investments. However, efforts to build capacity, whether for statistics or in other sectors, are notoriously difficult to link clearly to results achieved (see Vallejo and Wehn, 2016). While it is possible to link capacity building interventions to immediate outputs such as the number of trained staff or specific changes to sectoral knowledge management policies, it is difficult to make a liner assessment of the degree to which such outputs relate to longer-term outcomes and strengthened capacity (Vallejo and When, 2016). Indeed, Vallejo and Wehn (2016) note that “Clear performance indicators are difficult to attribute to each CD [capacity development] project, since many projects are interrelated and are implemented at the same time as others (i.e., different projects from different donors are sometimes run simultaneously at the same location and by the same organisation, sometimes involving the same participants)”. For donor governments facing reporting requirements and short political timelines, the challenge of identifying the link between financing inputs and clear outcomes reduces the incentive for investing in institutional capacity over other project-type interventions. Any instrument adopted to scale-up financing for statistical capacity should remedy the challenge of linking inputs to outcomes to provide donors with a greater incentive to invest in statistical capacity.

The result of both challenges is a funding landscape for statistics that is highly fragmented and often unable to make the best use of the resources available. Lack of incentives for coordination across donors and harmonisation of development efforts is a key challenge facing the sector.

- **Investments in statistics prioritise data collection and production over systems strengthening:** While most donors provide support for statistical capacity (see Sanna and McDonnell, 2017), the bulk of such activities tend to prioritise data collection and production (i.e. survey data) over capacity building activities. In part, the challenge may be linked to the scale of resources typically provided for statistics, which tend to be relatively small, allocated through parallel channels and often linked to larger projects to provide data needed for donors to measure results. With small amounts of funding typically allocated for statistics, the incentives and rationale for engaging in long-term system strengthening over project-type interventions are unclear. In this context, scaling-up investment in statistical

capacity will require actors to actively prioritise investment in capacity building in addition to statistical production. Overcoming this bias towards quick and project-based statistical engagement is a key challenge to financing the CTGAP.

The challenges identified above are primarily supply-side issues which either limit the incentives for donors to increase resources for statistical capacity development or have been identified as challenges linked to the ways and means by which donors support statistics. In addition to these challenges, we acknowledge that there may also be demand-side factors that limit funding for statistics. For instance, Dargent et al (2018) note that two factors linked to the state capacity of developing countries may adversely affect the development of statistical capacity: 1. the investment capacity of the state, which may be linked to poor or less stable bureaucracies, where poor state quality will likely contribute to poor statistical capacity; and, 2. the lack of political will of leaders to demand transparent data needed to hold government to account. Additionally, other country-level factors, such as absorptive capacity, could also limit the scale-up of donor resources for statistical capacity building.

While these factors could affect the uptake and development of statistical capacity, we do not directly consider such challenges in the comparison of funding instruments provided in the following section. While recipient-country factors may limit the capacity (or willingness) of recipients to mobilize domestic resources for statistics, these demand-side factors are less likely to directly affect the mobilization and programming of resources by donors. Seeing as our comparison focuses on funding instruments, factors that do not directly affect the use of such instruments are excluded from the analysis.

5. How do sources and instruments for funding statistical capacity compare? A comparative analysis ⁴³

This section compares the five funding instruments currently used to fund statistical capacity: domestic tax resources, flexible budget support, parallel donor funding, pooled funding through MDTFs, and pooled funding through vertical funds. Each mechanism is discussed in turn and assessed against its ability to overcome the key challenges discussed in the prior section. Evidence presented in this section was compiled through desk-research and triangulated via interviews with key experts.

In doing so, this section assesses the degree to which financing mechanism can reasonably contribute to meeting the challenges of scaling-up financing for statistics and strengthening statistical systems. The description of each mechanism follows the same basic format. The assessment begins with a summary table of the degree to which the instrument addresses the challenges listed above. This is followed by a text analysis that highlights the main characteristics of each mechanism in alignment with key challenges. We give equal weight to each challenge throughout the analysis. We assess the ability for funding mechanisms to overcome the key challenges identified as being either ‘high’ (green), ‘mixed’ (yellow) or ‘low’ (red) based on the evidence provided. We note that this assessment is based on the evidence from the statistical sector where provided and is otherwise reflective of the broader literature on development effectiveness. The interpretations of the literature and classification, while subjective, are based on the evidence presented and experience of the author.

While this analysis discusses each instrument separately, we recognize that different instruments can be considered and applied simultaneously. The potential for funding instruments to complement and add value to each other is an important consideration in the context of scaling-up funding for statistical capacity. However, for the sake of this analysis, we focus on each instrument in isolation. Doing so provides an outline of the main strengths and weaknesses of each instrument and provides a basis for identifying potential synergies and complementarities in practice.

5.1 Public finance

As illustrated in the prior section, public finances are the single largest source of funding for statistics available across developing countries and are broadly expected to be the key funding source for the CTGAP (PARIS21a, 2018). Such resources are sourced from national budgets and provide core support for national statistical systems. These revenues can be used to fund all aspects of the system including materials, operations and capacity.

Table 6: Assessing public finance against key challenges

Awareness	Predictability	Sustainability	Alignment	Harmonisation	Transparency	Manage for results	Incentivise capacity development
Low	High	High	High	High	Mixed	Low	Low

⁴³ See ANNEX V for full list of characteristics.

Awareness: There is no evidence that increasing the volume of domestic resources available for statistical capacity will increase the awareness of needs and importance of developing statistical systems both within governments and constituents.

Predictability: Public finance is typically more predictable and stable than international funding sources making them a preferable source of funding over the long-term. Supported by the tax base, public financing is a renewable source of finance that can support planned development and long-term action in national statistics offices (NSOs) through multi-year funding commitments in alignment with statistical plans. While countries may have different degrees of difficulty mobilising funds and prioritising statistics over competing priorities, public finance can generally be considered relatively more predictable than other financing modalities.

Sustainability: As a predictable, renewable and long-term source of financing which does not rely on buy-in and support from external actors, domestic resources are a sustainable source of financing for statistics. As such, advancing the capacity for countries to fund statistical capacity through supporting domestic resource mobilisation is likely to be a key objective for ensuring long-term and sustainable funding for statistical capacity.

Alignment: Domestic resources are managed by partner governments and are allocated in direct alignment with domestic statistical objectives and support the NSDS plans developed by governments. This means that domestic resources are highly aligned to supporting national statistical priorities and make full use of government systems. As such, this mechanism is well positioned to contribute to the long-term development of both statistical and institutional capacity and is emblematic of best practices in development in terms of country ownership and alignment.

Harmonisation: Using public finances to fund statistical systems can reduce issues related to coordination and fragmentation caused by donor engagement by reducing recipient reliance on donor funded programming for statistical capacity. However, domestic resources cannot lessen coordination challenges caused by the complexity of statistical systems, where responsibility for the production of statistics is often located across government ministries.

Transparency: The transparency of domestic funding for statistical capacity is likely to differ significantly across countries based on government capacity. In countries where NSDS are in place, the transparency of spending on statistical capacity could be linked to key objectives in alignment with national plans. However, there are real questions about the degree to which results from such spending will be accounted for via domestic monitoring. While the modality could lend itself to institutional learning – governments can choose to evaluate and learn from past experiences – the degree to which such monitoring and course-correcting occurs is likely to be linked to capacity and revenue available for evaluation and monitoring.

Manage for results: The degree to which domestic resource inputs can be linked to outcomes is likely to differ across countries based on their capacity and willingness to monitor and evaluate outcomes.

Incentives for scaling-up funding for capacity building: Perhaps the largest challenge for domestic resources pertains to the levels of funding which governments are able and willing to provide. Indeed, there are questions about whether countries can afford to increase funding for statistical capacity in light of multiple and on-going development challenges, particularly in low-income countries. At the same time, the willingness of countries to invest scarce resources in statistics may be limited by a misalignment of the incentives for building statistical capacity with governments. For instance, Dargent et al. (2018) note that while governments need data to make informed decisions,

such data can simultaneously allow citizens to hold governments to account. As a result, “the best and most transparent statistics policies can sometimes run counter to the government’s interest, creating incentives to ensure that these offices remain weak” (Dargent et al., 2018 p. 2).

5.2 Budget support

Budget support is ODA provided by international donors (either bilateral or multilateral), which is given to support either the general budget or budget for specific sectors in recipient countries. The use of budget support as an instrument for funding statistical capacity is relatively limited and is most commonly used by the World Bank’s IDA programming. Budget support can be used to support a range of interventions and typically involves a capacity building component, which could contribute to strengthening statistical systems.

Table 7: Assessing budget support for statistical capacity against key challenges

Awareness	Predictability	Sustainability	Alignment	Harmonisation	Transparency	Manage for results	Incentivise capacity development
Low	Mixed	Low	High	Mixed	Mixed	Low	Mixed

Awareness: Budget support is not necessarily designed to promote awareness of a specific policy issue. At most, budget support could raise domestic awareness of key issues, which donors seek to promote through policy engagement and budget support conditions. However, as an instrument for channelling funds through recipient government institutions, it is unlikely that budget support can increase the awareness of statistical capacity beyond government actors.

Predictability: Budget support is designed to provide predictable aid flows to support the general budget of recipient countries (Faust, Kock and Leiderer, 2011). Indeed, Rønsholt (2014) notes that conclusions regarding predictability of budget support disbursements are “overall positive”. However, budget support as a modality does not overcome challenges linked to “in-year predictability where some countries have suffered from delays in disbursements” on the donor side (Rønsholt, 2014 p. 14).

Sustainability: As an external source of revenue funded by sovereign donors, the long-term sustainability of budget support financing is low. In terms of sustainability, budget support faces the same challenges as other instruments where continued support is ultimately linked to the preferences of donors.

Alignment: Unlike other ODA modalities, by allocating resources through recipient government budgetary process and systems, budget support is well aligned to recipient institutions and priorities. According to Rønsholt (2014), budget support “reflects good, though not perfect, alignment with national development strategies” (p. 12), with some challenges remaining in relation to parallel result measurement requirements between donors and recipients (Rønsholt, 2014; Booth, 2005). For the statistical sector, such alignment could ensure that funding is used to support the statistical priorities of recipients rather than donors.

Harmonisation: Budget support has the potential to improve donor harmonisation by aligning funding to recipient systems and priorities. However, Faust et al. (2011) note that for multi-donor budget support in particular, “aligning behind a joint financing mechanism alone is not enough to make the intervention logic work in practice”. Rather, the degree to which budget support can promote donor harmonisation is based on whether donors can agree to similar underlying principles

in terms of conditionality (i.e. the conditions on which budget support is granted) and create consensus on performance assessment frameworks.

Transparency: Similar to other ODA modalities, transparency related to budget support activities is likely to vary by donor in relation to specific policies and practices.

Manage for results: Budget support activities are monitored to ensure that they achieve the desired results. Budget support could struggle to link inputs to specific outcomes given that financing is channelled through recipient systems and is typically intended to contribute to longer-term development than project-type approaches. However, given the type of change desired through budget support, which typically aims to strengthen governance quality or key cross-cutting issues, donors allocating through this model may prioritise short-term results and clear linkages between inputs and outcomes less so than those spending through project channels.

Incentives for scaling-up funding for capacity building: Budget support, by design, would be suited to funding statistical capacity over statistical production, given that funding is allocated through budgets and typically intended to build institutions and capacities. However, similar to domestic resources, there is a question about the degree to which recipients are willing to use budget support resources to fund statistical capacity over alternative objectives.

5.3 Parallel funding by donors⁴⁴

Most international financing for statistics is provided in the form of parallel funding by bilateral donors and can be used to fund a variety of activities including statistical production and capacity building. Responsibility for such funding is typically located within donor agencies, ministries, or governing bodies responsible for programming and implementation.

Table 8: Assessing parallel funding for statistical capacity against key challenges

	Awareness	Predictability	Sustainability	Alignment	Harmonisation	Transparency	Manage for results	Incentivise capacity development
Grants	Mixed	Low	Low	Low	Low	Mixed	Mixed	Mixed
Loans	Mixed	High	Low	Low	Low	Mixed	Mixed	Mixed

Awareness: The various forms of parallel support provided by donors (grants and loans) are not necessarily designed to increase awareness of statistics at a global level, however it could raise awareness of the importance of data within donors or recipient countries. For instance, in recipient countries, donors could leverage their ability to engage in policy dialogue with partners to increase knowledge and awareness of the importance of statistics. Indeed, the provision of technical assistance for statistics in Cambodia was said to have contributed to the uptake in statistical legislation and coordination, improved strategic planning, and improved consistency with international standards as well as improved data collection and quality (Abbasi, 2005). Alternatively, donors seeking to increase awareness of statistics domestically could choose to highlight the importance of statistics as a key crosscutting issue as part of development policies; according to Sanna and McDonnell (2017), Sweden and Portugal cite statistics as a key strategic priority of its development cooperation. Ultimately however, the degree to which parallel funding increases the

⁴⁴ We consider parallel funding by donors to include grants, loans and technical assistance. However, due to limited data and assessments, we are unable to assess technical assistance as a separate financing instrument.

awareness of the need for statistical capacity would largely depend on the willingness of the donor to raise the issue with partners or at home.

Predictability: A key challenge of ODA as an instrument for funding statistical capacity development pertains to the predictability of funds. Unlike domestic resources, ODA tends to be a volatile source of financing in the short term due to discrepancies between planning commitments and actual disbursements as well as over the medium-term due to changing political and economic realities in both donors and recipients (Clements et al., 2004; Bulir and Hamman, 2007). In this sense, relying on ODA funding could undermine statistical capacity and the ability to administer critical statistical instruments at frequent and regular intervals (Kindornay, Bhattacharya and Higgins, 2016; OECD, 2009).

In this regard, loans often provide a more predictable source of funding (Clements et al., 2004). According to Arakawa (2005) “ODA loans can mitigate the volatility and predictability of aid funds based on large multi-year commitments thereby creating stability within partner government budget processes” (p. 3). Moreover, loans have the potential to support country systems when provided on-budget, suggesting that the potential for parallel allocations by donors to act as a predictable funding source varies across grants and loans.

Sustainability: The sustainability of parallel financing is low. As a political resource allocated by donor governments to recipients, the reality of parallel funding by bilateral donors is that funding is subject to the preferences of donors, which may change over time in line with domestic support for development and international priorities. As a result, this model is unlikely to generate the continued resource flow necessary to support statistical capacity development.

Alignment: Despite international calls to improve the alignment of parallel funding with domestic priorities as part of global aid effectiveness standards, such alignment is not consistently achieved in the statistical sector. According to a 2009 study conducted by the OECD, parallel funding for statistics (grants, lending, technical assistance) has tended to undermine national ownership of statistical activities, by prioritising donor statistical needs over domestic priorities, where funding routinely gives preference to sector-specific data collection to allow donors to monitor progress in relation to their programming (in health or education, for instance) over more basic data production and systemic capacity building (OECD, 2017 p. 30). While the degree to which parallel funding is aligned to country priorities and systems varies across donors, the most recent monitoring round of the GPEDC (2016) notes that donors have failed to meet the 50% target for using country systems through their development activities. For the statistical sector, misalignment of parallel funding by donors with recipient systems and priorities will likely perpetuate the current model where donors prioritise data production over statistical capacity.

Harmonisation: There are real questions about the ability of parallel funding to support harmonised activities for statistical capacity, with parallel funding typically allocated through multiple bilateral donors and channels. Evidence from the statistical sector shows a fragmented and donor-driven system, which prioritises the monitoring needs of multiple funders (OECD, 2009). Indeed, a 2017 survey of DAC donors shows that funders acknowledge the coordination problem within the statistical sector, with the majority of donors agreeing that “there is a need for more systematic coordination between donors and partner country national statistical offices on the surveys and other forms of data collection that is paid for by official development assistance” (Sanna and McDonnell, 2017 p. 6-7).

Transparency: The degree of transparency related to parallel activities varies by donor and is more closely linked to donor specific policies and practices. Typically, discussions concerning ODA and transparency have been linked to discussions of aid effectiveness and related monitoring. In this vein, the most recent progress report on aid effectiveness by the GPEDC noted that while the amount of publicly available information of development cooperation has increased, there remains scope to improve the timeliness and forward-looking nature of parallel donor reporting (GPEDC, 2016). While DAC donors have committed to reporting financial flows to the DAC, transparency across non-DAC donors varies considerably.

Manage for results: As a mechanism for funding statistical capacity, there is some capacity to provide an incentive for scaling-up resources when parallel funding is allocated using results-based methodologies that can strengthen the link between inputs and outcomes. For instance, innovating aid modalities such as results-based aid, tie disbursements directly to results achieved towards clearly defined objectives (see Klingebiel and Janus, 2014; Pearson, Johnson and Ellison, 2010 for more on results-based aid). This mechanism has already been used in the statistical sector via the World Bank's Kenya Statistics Program for Results, which linked the disbursement of resources to achievement on four intermediate result areas: filling data gaps and strengthening capacity through implementation of integrated survey programs, improved quality of statistical products and processes, strengthening dissemination and access to data and strengthening statistical management systems (Mistiaen, 2017). The latest status report from the World Bank finds that progress on the project has been "satisfactory" suggesting improvements in line with planned outcomes (World Bank, 2018b). While the results from such modalities have largely been mixed (see Perakis and Savedoff, 2015), the ability for results-based modalities to link outcomes to inputs is critical and could reduce the risk of investment for donors.

Incentives for scaling-up funding for capacity building: There are important questions about the incentive for donors to scale-up funding for statistics in light of budget constraints and competing development objectives. Indeed, the question is whether donors are willing to pay for basic administration and staff overheads, which are necessary for capacity building yet traditionally less popular than other activities.

Overall, the ability for parallel funding from traditional sources to meet the challenges of funding all CTGAP objectives is limited at best. Donors are facing a confluence of domestic and international pressures (think aging population, climate change and migration), which limits the availability of new resources as governments face pressure to do more with less. In the absence of increased visibility or awareness for statistical capacity, donor incentive for increasing spending on statistics is unlikely and suggests that any funding mechanism for statistics will require the capacity to leverage funding beyond traditional development sources in order to properly diminish the financing gap of implementing the CTGAP.

5.4 Pooled funding through MDTFs⁴⁵

MDTFs are pooling mechanisms used to channel aid resources from a range of donors (both governmental and non-governmental). The funding pool is typically administered by a trustee organisation such as the World Bank or UN (IEG, 2011) and serves as a "dedicated source of funding for programs and activities agreed between the donor(s) and the trustee organization" (IEG, 2011 p.

⁴⁵ For the purpose of this exercise, we do not distinguish between centrally managed and country-based MDTFs.

vi). Trust funds can provide financing either to single or multiple recipient countries in support of specific policy issues.

Trust funds are located within a host organisation, which serves as a “trustee”. A variety of regional and multilateral agencies currently serve as trustees for multi-donor trust funds including the World Bank, UN and the African Development Bank.

Within a host organisation, MDTFs share key governing characteristics including: a deliberative body to set policy, a funding decision-making body (i.e. Steering/ Management Committee), a project review body in cases where project funding is involved, and a secretariat (Guder, 2010). In some cases, MDTFs grant observer status to non-contributing donors and civil society organisations to join the policy body, while contributing donors and national authorities are granted decision-making power within funds. Funds are managed by an MDTF administrator who “holds and manages funds in trust, providing tools for ensuring transparency, tracking results and reporting” (UN, 2018).

The governance structures of MDTFs have sometimes been a major stumbling block to the effectiveness of programs, suggesting that such partnerships work best when roles and responsibilities between actors, such as the steering committee and the secretariat, are clearly defined (IEG, 2014). This ensures that the governance structure of the fund is positioned as legitimate, effective and accountable.

Table 9: Assessing MDTFs for statistical capacity against key challenges

Awareness	Predictability	Sustainability	Alignment	Harmonisation	Transparency	Manage for results	Incentivise capacity development
Mixed	Mixed	Mixed	Low	Mixed	Low	Low	Mixed

Awareness: There is some evidence that MDTFs contribute to the awareness and visibility of specific issues, specifically in host agencies. Both the IEG (2014) and Guder (2011) find that MDTFs helped to increase the visibility of particular policy issues within the World Bank.

At the same time however, there is evidence that MDTFs tend to obscure the visibility of individual donors when supporting activities through funds. For instance, an assessment of World Bank Trust Funds notes that donors “typically get less visibility and ‘credit’ from trust funds” (IEG, 2011 p.7). The IEG notes that low visibility for donors from trust funds creates incentives for donors to engage in special reporting to assure donor publics and parliaments of results achieved (IEG, 2011).

Predictability: There is mixed evidence on the ability of MDTFs to promote predictability in funding. On one hand, the pooling mechanism has the potential to improve the predictability of funding by attracting revenues from multiple donors over the long-term (see Barakat, Rzeszut and Martin., 2012; Guder, 2011). However, this assumes that donors allocate funding to MDTFs in a regular and predictable way in practice. Indeed, the World Bank is sceptical of the degree to which such predictability actually occurs, noting that “the unpredictability of multi-year donor contributions to established trust funds and, therefore, of trust fund financing to recipient poses risks to sustainability of support and program planning, both for clients and the Bank” (IEG, 2011 p. 83).

Sustainability: Similar to the predictability of funding, the sustainability of financing provided by MDTFs will partly depend on the ability of the fund to continue attracting resources from donors throughout its life-cycle. Indeed, Reinsberg, Michaelowa and Knack (2015), suggest that MDTFs are temporary entities by design, stating that “Trust funds hosted at international development

organisation are temporary mechanisms, often created in an ad hoc manner and with a donor base that usually changes little, if at all, over the lifetime of the fund” (p. 6). This seems to suggest that while the pooling mechanism of MDTFs could support sustained financing over the medium term, the long-term sustainability of such mechanisms is questionable based on their specific purpose and intended longevity. For the data sector, which requires consistent and renewed funding to support data production rounds at various intervals in addition to long-term statistical capacity, challenges related to the sustainability of funding could hinder progress.

Alignment: There is little evidence that MDTFs support alignment with country systems or priorities. For instance, a systematic review of MDTF programs against the Paris Declaration for Aid Effectiveness points to limited evidence of alignment in MDTF programs, noting “mostly dismal” results in relation to alignment, which was often not stated as a goal of individual MDTFs (Bakarat et al., 2012). Similarly, the IEG (2014) warns that “As earmarked pots of money with separate approval and allocation processes, trust funds tend to increase the transaction costs for the client country, making them inconsistent with principles of aid alignment and government ownership” (p. 7).

Harmonisation: Despite the common understanding that pooled funding mechanisms contribute to harmonisation of donor actions by reducing the number of parallel reporting structures, interfaces and reducing the duplication of efforts (see IEG, 2011), Bakarat et al’s (2012) systematic assessment of MDTFs found mixed evidence that MDTFs contribute to increased harmonisation. Indeed, Bakarat et al. (2012) noted that while 27 of the studies explored showed a positive impact on harmonisation, a further 26 showed that MDTFs had a negative effect on donor harmonisation. In part, the issue may stem from the fact that MDTFs work in an already fragmented environment. Indeed, while coordination between donors within MDTFs may be strengthened through pooled programming, the IEG (2011) notes that coordination “between this group and other donors outside trust fund arrangements...will be as strong or as weak as the overall aid environment in the country permits” (p. 43).

Transparency: The transparency of funds often varies across funding mechanisms and hosts. The World Bank, for instance, recognises that the transparency of its programmes “could often be better” (World Bank, 2014). In some cases, “programs’ websites don’t display their charters, financial reports, and evaluations” (World Bank, 2014). In others, “special interests find unfair ways to influence decisions on grant allocations due to insufficient transparency of grant making processes and unequal access to information by potential beneficiaries” (World Bank, 2014 p. 9).

Manage for results: Aside from the traditional challenges facing measuring impact of aid activities, the IEG (2011) notes that determining the impact of MDTF activities is made more difficult by “the frequent lack of a results framework with clear outcome objectives and indicators for monitoring progress in trust-funded programs and activities” (p. viii). While the IEG notes that there are exceptions, many funds neither outlined specified objectives nor measurable indicators for progress. Indeed, Bakarat et al (2012) find similar results, noting that MDTFs “historically have had a poor record” when it comes to manage for results with 36 of 57 studies showing negative impacts on results management (p. ix). However, Bakarat et al. (2012), continue to suggest that this has improved over time thanks to the incorporation of governance structures at the early stages of fund design and more regulated reporting.

Incentives for scaling-up funding for capacity building: The capacity for MDTFs to encourage new and scaled-up funding is perhaps linked to the capacity for such mechanisms to reduce the risk for individual donors through pooled funding. In terms of risk management, the pooling of resources and implementation of common practices under the auspice of a single administrator can reduce

both the costs of information, coordination and administration, as well as the fiduciary and political risk of engaging in development activities (Guder, 2011). The perceived reduction of risk could serve as an incentive for donors to contribute to pooled funding mechanisms, particularly when working either in risky contexts (fragile and conflict-affected states) or innovative activities.

5.5 Global funds

Much of the information presented in this section is based on a preliminary assessment of five of the largest global funds (see Annex VII). The assessment provides an outline of the various governing structures, membership and allocation methodology used across major funds.

Global Funds are multilateral mechanisms, which pool funding from a variety of donors to focus “vertically” on specific issues or themes.⁴⁶ According to the World Bank, the first Global Fund was the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR), set up in the 1970s (World Bank, 2007). Since then, several large funds have been developed to address a variety of issues including health, education and climate change.

The scale of resources managed by global funds varies significantly. At the larger end, the Green Climate Fund currently manages \$10.3 billion is the easily the largest global fund in existence. Alternatively, other funds have attracted more modest pledges with the Global Education Fund, for instance, managing a mere \$350,000 in total funds (see Open Data Watch, 2018).

Typically, global funds attract resources from a range of contributors including traditional OECD-DAC donors, non-DAC donors, and philanthropic organisations (see Annex VII for indicative list of global funds, funders and resources). Vertical funds “have been successful in leveraging financing resources and knowledge from non-DAC providers” while creating incentives for investment in new technologies and methods from the private sector (OECD, 2015 p. 15).

The scope of activities conducted by global funds can vary based on the type of fund (vertical and horizontal funds, by definition, differ in the scope of their action).⁴⁷ In some cases, such as the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria, narrow health related activities are combined with efforts to promote “health systems strengthening” including through building capacity, in order to advance the sustainability of national health systems alongside reducing the burden of disease. While global funds program funding in the form of both grants and loans in alignment with their mandate and objectives, they typically do not provide technical assistance and opt to provide financing instead (SDSN et al., 2015; Gartner and Kharas, 2014).

In general, global funds adopt one of two organisational forms. The first structure links funds closely to large multilateral institutions including the World Bank and the United Nations. For instance, IFAD is a specialised agency of the UN, while GAFSP is housed within the World Bank as a Financial Intermediary Fund yet retains an independent steering committee which serves as its decision-making body (Gartner and Kharas, 2014; GAFSP, 2018).⁴⁸ A second structural type preferred by

⁴⁶ Some, such as the SDSN et al. (2015) also consider horizontal funds to be “Global Funds”. However, for the purpose of this analysis, we use the World Bank’s definition, which categorizes horizontal funds as “Country-based” trust funds. This is consistent with the OECD’s definition, which differentiates between vertical/global funds and horizontal/country-specific multi-donor trust funds.

⁴⁷ While “vertical funds” tend to focus on a specific set of investment needs (i.e. for a specific sector/cause), “horizontal funds” focus on a broader range of investment needs (see SDSN et al., 2015).

⁴⁸ Financial intermediary funds (FIFs) are “financial arrangements that typically leverage a variety of public and private resources in support of international initiatives, enabling the international community to provide a direct and coordinated response to global priorities” (World Bank, 2018a). While the World Bank serves as a

larger funds tends to locate the funds as independent institutions. This model is used by both GAVI and the Global Fund.

Table 10: Assessing global funds for statistical capacity against key challenges⁴⁹

Awareness	Predictability	Sustainability	Alignment	Harmonisation	Transparency	Manage for results	Incentivise capacity development
Mixed	Mixed	Mixed	Low	Mixed	High	Mixed	Mixed

Awareness: According to SDSN (2015), “One of the greatest strengths of Global Funds is their potential to mobilise local and international civil society around shared objectives”, where the modality, by design, can increase the visibility of single issues. However, the global fund mechanism should not be considered a perfect solution for generating awareness in all cases. Rather, cases where global funds have contributed to awareness building tend to be those where policy challenges “can be framed in terms of focused, simple, and compelling outcomes” where more resources can contribute to visible transformational change (Gartner and Kharas, 2014 p. 133).

Predictability: Evidence on the predictability of global fund resources has been mixed. Isenman et al., (2010) note that global funds often struggle to disburse funding “in the quarter or even the year for which they were scheduled”, making it difficult for partners to plan development activities (p. 14). In part, concern around the predictability of funding from global funds is linked to the nature of its financing and reliance on international replenishment rounds, which limit the ability of funds to make longer-term commitments to partners (Isenman et al., 2010; Bezanson and Isenman, 2012; OECD, 2015). While some funds have managed to attract large and multi-year funding from donors – the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria, for instance - Isenman et al., (2010) note that such long-term donor commitments are not the norm.

Aware of the predictability challenge faced by global fund arrangements, two initiatives to improve the predictability of funds over the long-term have been explored. The first involves increasing the share of support through innovative financing.⁵⁰ Alternatively, other funds, such as the Global Environment Fund, provide indicative country envelopes or multi-year agreements with recipients in order to improve the predictability and long-term sustainability of funding (SDSN et al., 2015; Isenman et al., 2010). In essence, mixed findings suggest that the capacity for global funds to act as predictable sources of development finance for statistics are likely to differ across funds based on the ability to consistently attract funding and disburse funds in a timely manner.

Sustainability: There are several examples of sustainable financing mechanisms used by large global funds. Perhaps one of the clearest examples of sustainable financing through global fund mechanisms is GAVI’s International Finance Facility for Immunisation (IFFIm) program, which uses “long-term pledges from donor governments to sell ‘vaccine bonds’ on the capital markets” that serve to both make capital available for GAVI programs and attract long-term financial commitments from donors to enhance program predictability (IFFIm, 2018). Moreover, an additional benefit of

trustee for all FIFs, unlike MDTFs, World Bank trusteeship “does not involve overseeing or supervising the use of funds” (World Bank, 2018a).

⁴⁹ Please see Annex VI for more on Global Funds.

⁵⁰ The International Financing Facility for Immunisation (IFFIm), for instance, “has secured US\$2 billion for GAVI by raising funds in the capital market based on donor pledges of future contributions” (Isenman et al., 2010 p. 14).

global funds in relation to other pooled funding mechanisms, such as MDTFs, is perhaps the ability to source funding from actors beyond traditional bilateral donors, which increases the revenue base and ultimately leads to a more sustainable funding source (Browne, 2016).⁵¹ While in many cases global funds rely on financing replenishments, which may or may not meet funding targets, the use of innovative financing mechanisms and ability to attract funds from a wider range of donors highlights the potential sustainability of the global fund mechanism for funding statistics.

Alignment: In terms of operations, global funds have received criticism for failing to use country systems for aid delivery, opting instead to create parallel implementation systems and reporting structures (Alemu, 2009; Isenman et al., 2010). These systems require recipients to follow donor-specific formats, timetables and procedures, increasing the transaction cost of assistance (Isenman et al., 2010). Indeed, a comparative study of aid effectiveness across financing mechanisms (bilateral, multilateral and vertical funds) shows that while vertical funds are typically well aligned to effectiveness principles, they perform below multilaterals on the capacity to foster institutions and have been shown to undermine the capacity of the sectors in which they engage (see Gartner and Kharas, 2014; Isenman et al., 2010).

Harmonisation: A key benefit of global fund mechanisms as a potential instrument for funding statistical capacity is the ability to reduce fragmentation and promote donor coordination through pooling resources (OECD, 2017). While global funds have often faced criticism as additional actors in an already complex development environment, Schmidt-Traub and Sachs (2015) contend that well-designed pooled financing mechanisms can reduce transaction costs by passing funding through a single entity. The degree to which such coordination gains are achieved however, also relies on the assumption that only a small number of pooling mechanisms are active in a single policy space. In this sense, the capacity of a global fund to improve harmonisation within the statistics sector would depend on the degree to which it can incentivise donors to *reallocate* resources towards a pooled mechanism rather than funding any potential global fund in addition to other forms of engagement.

Transparency: Global funds have typically been praised for operational transparency. To a degree, such transparency is linked to the funding arrangement, where transparency is the main mechanism for accountability between donors and the activities of the fund. As such, donors require transparency to monitor and ensure resources are being well spent, and ultimately, to make informed decisions about whether funding to specific funds should be maintained (Browne, 2017).

Beyond transparent reporting, some global funds have also sought to ensure transparency in their allocation and funding choices. The Global Fund, for instance, publishes a clear allocation methodology, applications for funding, funding decisions, grant performance, and governance as well as traditional results reporting and oversight.

Manage for results: The ability for global funds to demonstrate a “clear causal chain between resources, interventions, and outcomes and which rewards partner-country contributions and effectiveness” has often been highlighted as a key strength of global fund mechanisms (Gartner and Kharas, 2014). Yet the evidence is mixed across different funds. At best, the Global Fund’s ability to link the approval of all follow-up funding “to an evaluation of the performance of the principal recipient in meeting the agreed-upon program objectives” creates an incentive for performance through result-based management (Gartner and Kharas, 2014 p. 124). Combined with a clear and simple impact objective – to save lives - transparent allocation approach, independent evaluation of

⁵¹ See Annex VI for list of donors to major global funds. Most receive funding from non-sovereign donors.

projects to “determine if it will achieve results”, and performance monitoring, the Global Fund is perhaps a best-practice example of how resources can be linked to outcomes via global funding mechanisms. Indeed, the Global Fund touts that its investments have saved 27 million lives (Global Fund, 2018).

However, other global funding mechanisms have had relatively less success linking funding to clear results. Gartner and Kharas (2014) note that the Global Partnership for Education (GPE), which was not developed on the principle of performance-based funding, struggles to link funding to results as its financing tends to be channelled through national budgets, making it difficult to disaggregate results achieved through GPE interventions. Similarly, neither IFAD nor GAFSP are shown to explicitly link funding to results (Gartner and Kharas, 2014). In this sense, the ability to link inputs to results in terms of statistical capacity is not inherent in the global fund mechanism, but can be built into such mechanisms through the design of policies for allocation, monitoring and transparency.

Incentives for scaling-up funding for capacity building: A strength of vertical fund mechanisms is the ability to foster innovation and manage donor risk, which provides a clear incentive for donors to invest. Like other pooled funding mechanisms, global funds have the potential to manage risk to individual donors by sharing it across donors. However, the capacity to link inputs to outcomes through performance-based allocations, as well as transparent allocation and monitoring practices can further reduce the political risk for donors by showing that funding supports mechanisms capable of achieving clear results (see Schmidt-Traub (2018) for discussion of the role of the Global Fund’s Technical Review Panel and allocation methodology).

Moreover, the independence of global funds from political processes in recipient countries and the absence of the types of strategic and geopolitical interests that affect donors means that global funds can credibly hold recipients to account if standards or practices are not met. An example from the Global Fund saw China rejected for AIDS funding due to failure to comply with medical best practices before eventually receiving funding upon changing their approach (see Manuel and Manuel, 2018). Where traditional donors may have been less likely to withdraw or withhold funds due to broader strategic interests, the independence of global funds makes them able to manage political risks and exert tough action in the face of fraud or poor performance.

Overall, the best evidence of the capacity for global funding mechanisms to increase the incentives for investment and scale-up resources is linked to the track-record of global funds for health, including the Global Fund, GAVI, and the U.S. President’s Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR). These funds, which have become important funding channels in the sector and as of 2014, were found to allocate 60% of all health-related ODA. Indeed, such funds “have been the key driver of the expansion of global health funding over the last decade” with global funds accounting for almost two-thirds of the funding increase (Gartner and Kharas, 2014 p. 116). While other sectors (education and agriculture) have seen more modest growth, suggesting that the global fund model is not a panacea for increasing financing, Gartner and Kharas (2014) suggest that the discrepancy in revenue increases across sectors and funds is likely linked to divergent governance approaches and the role of diverse stakeholders, clarity of mission, and the ability to link to specific development outcomes deemed critical for achieving international goals.

6. Key findings

Table 11: Summary table assessing funding instruments for statistical capacity

		Awareness	Predictability	Sustainability	Alignment	Harmonisation	Transparency	Manage for results	Incentivise capacity development
a) Domestic Resources		Low	High	High	High	High	Mixed	Low	Low
b) Budget Support		Low	Mixed	Low	High	Mixed	Mixed	Low	Mixed
c) Parallel single-source aid	Grants	Mixed	Low	Low	Low	Low	Mixed	Mixed	Mixed
	Loans	Mixed	High	Low	Low	Low	Mixed	Mixed	Mixed
d) MDTFs		Mixed	Mixed	Mixed	Low	Mixed	Low	Low	Mixed
e) Global Funds		Mixed	Mixed	Mixed	Low	Mixed	High	Mixed	Mixed

Table 11 provides an overview of the capacity for each funding mechanism assessed in this review to overcome the challenges associated with funding statistical capacity. This assessment and the findings below are ultimately subjective and based on the authors best interpretation and understanding of the evidence presented in this study. Our key findings are identified below. We caution that while this analysis has examined funding instruments in isolation, we expect that in practice, mechanisms can be used together to foster complementarities across the system for statistical capacity development.

- Domestic resources are a first-best option for funding statistical capacity:** Perhaps unsurprisingly, the best option for funding statistical capacity in a manner that is predictable, sustainable and best aligned to country resources and priorities is via domestic resources. The challenge however, is that many IDA countries, and to a lesser extent IBRD countries, currently cannot fund statistical capacity through public finances alone. While scaling-up domestic resources and working with countries to advance domestic resource mobilisation and capacity for countries to fund statistical programs is a long-term goal, the short-term funding realities suggest that financing beyond public finances will be necessary to build statistical capacity.
- Pooled mechanisms are better than bilateral parallel funding:** The capacity for pooled funding mechanisms to reduce fragmentation across donors, improve funding predictability and reduce the risk of engagement by spreading risk across multiple funders makes it preferable to traditional bilateral engagement. Unlike parallel bilateral support, which tends to be provided as small project-type grants, pooled mechanisms may be more likely to support longer-term programmes through larger funding pools. Such programmatic-type support is more conducive to statistical capacity building and institutional change than current parallel funding modalities.
- The characteristics of global funds suggest they could play a vital role in filling the funding gaps:** While both MDTFs and global funds provide the potential advantages associated with pooling mechanisms to support specific objectives, global funds are shown to be better at supporting the awareness of development challenges, financial sustainability and transparency of funding activities and results. In terms of transparency, the differing experiences between global funds and MDTFs suggests that donors may have more incentive to provide resources to a global fund where decisions, activities and results are

transparently reported than to MDTFs where lower transparency reduces the ability for donors to hold MDTFs to account. .

The capacity of global funds to address the challenges facing the statistical sector varies significantly across funds. The results of our comparative analysis show that global fund mechanisms are perhaps the second-best option for funding statistical capacity. These mechanisms have been shown to increase the awareness of global development challenges, have the potential to remain sustainable sources of financing through the use of innovative financial mechanisms, and have demonstrated how transparency can ensure accountability to donors. While the most successful example of global fund mechanisms is perhaps the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria, it is important to recognise that other funds have shown somewhat mixed results. The main take-away is that global funds are not a panacea. There are better and worse ways to program such mechanisms, and any global fund for statistics must be sure to draw upon the best practices available in order to maximise long-term viability and ultimately, results.

7. Conclusions

Mobilising an additional \$700 million for funding statistical capacity to meet a high ambition scenario for funding the CTGAP is no small task. This study has sought to provide a basic mapping of the current financial landscape for funding statistics as well as a comparison of potential funding mechanisms based on those currently used. While strengthening the capacity for developing countries to mobilise domestic resources for statistical systems is perhaps a first-best option, pooled financial through a global fund mechanism has been found to be a funding option with the potential to overcome several of the key challenges facing statistical capacity.

The complementary paper to this analysis, entitled *Mobilising Data for the SDGs: How could a Data Acceleration Facility help, and how might it work* outlines practical considerations for potential funding mechanisms to support efforts to scale-up resources for statistical capacity development.

ANNEX I List of ‘strategic areas’ and ‘objectives’ in the CTGAP

Strategic Area 1: Coordination and strategic leadership on data for sustainable development	Objective 1.1: Strengthen national statistical systems and the coordination role of national statistical offices
	Objective 1.2: Strengthen coordination among national statistical systems and regional and international organizations active in the production of data and statistics for sustainable development
Strategic Area 2: Innovation and modernization of national statistical systems	Objective 2.1: Modernize governance and institutional frameworks to allow national statistical systems to meet the demands and opportunities of constantly evolving data ecosystems
	Objective 2.2: Modernize statistical standards, particularly those aimed to facilitate data integration and automation of data exchange across different stages of the statistical production process
	Objective 2.3: Facilitate the application of new technologies and new data sources into mainstream statistical activities
Strategic Area 3: Strengthening of basic statistical activities and programmes, with particular focus on addressing the monitoring needs of the 2030 Agenda	Objective 3.1: Strengthen and expand household survey programmes, integrated survey systems, business and other economic survey programmes, population and housing census programmes, civil registration and vital statistics programmes and the International Comparison Programme taking into account the needs posed by the 2030 Agenda
	Objective 3.2: Improve the quality of national statistical registers and expand the use of administrative records integrating them with data from surveys and other new data sources, for the compilation of integrated social, economic and environmental statistics and in relation to follow up on the 2030 Agenda
	Objective 3.3: Strengthen and expand System of National Accounts and the System of Environmental Economic Accounts
	Objective 3.4: Integrate geospatial data into statistical production programmes at all levels
	Objective 3.5: Strengthen and expand data on all groups of population to ensure that no one is left behind
	Objective 3.6: Strengthen and expand data on domains that are currently not well developed within the scope of official statistics
Strategic Area 4: Dissemination and use of sustainable development data	Objective 4.1: Develop and promote innovating strategies to ensure proper dissemination and use of data for sustainable development
Strategic Area 5: Multi-stakeholder partnerships for sustainable development data	Objective 5.1: Develop and strengthen partnerships of national and international statistical systems with governments, academia, civil society, private sector and other stakeholders involved in the production and use of data for sustainable development
Strategic Area 6: Mobilize resources and coordinate efforts for statistical capacity building	Objective 6.1: Ensure that resources are available to implement the necessary programmes and actions as outlined in this global action plan (both domestic and from international cooperation)

Source: High-Level Group for Partnership, Coordination and Capacity-Building for Statistics (2017), ‘Cape Town Global Action Plan for Sustainable Development Data’. Available from: <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/hlg/Cape-Town-Global-Action-Plan/>

ANNEX II Estimates by strategic areas and objectives of the CTGAP

Strategic Area of CTGAP	Objective	Description of estimate	Estimated costs	Fixed costs	Recurring costs (Min)	Recurring costs (Max)	Author	Year	Assumptions
1. Coordination and strategic leadership	Objective 1.1								
	Objective 1.2								
2. Innovation and modernization of NSS	Objective 2.1								
	Objective 2.2								
	Objective 2.3	Cost of using crowdsourcing for food pricing	Varied	N/A	N/A	N/A	Zeug et al.	2017	N/A
		Cost of conducting surveys via mobile device.	\$150000 per survey/year	N/A	150,000	150,000	Dabalen, et al.	2016	Average costs based on analysis in four African countries
3. Strengthening of basic statistical activities and programmes	Objective 3.1	Estimated costs to establish and strengthen civil registration and vital statistics (CRVS) systems in 73 COIA countries between 2015-2024	\$199 million per year	N/A	199,000,000	199,000,000	World Bank and WHO	2014	Estimate based on CRVS development costs of five countries (Mozambique, Philippines, Bangladesh, Kenya and Ethiopia).
		Creates an estimate of the cost for supporting the MDG surveys from 1990-2015; this estimate is extrapolated to create rough estimate for costing SDGs.	\$1.08 billion per year	N/A	1,080,000,000	1,080,000,000	Jerven, Morten	2014	MDG data is mostly survey-based; the cost of data collection is born by ministries rather than NSOs; survey-based data should be collected annually; some pre-existing there is existing statistical capacity; covers package of data collection that includes census DHS, LSMS, CWIQ
		Estimates total cost to international donors of closing all remaining survey gaps in countries with income below \$2000 per capita.	\$300 million per year	N/A	300,000,000	300,000,000	Demombynes and Sandefur	2014	Focus exclusively on surveys and use same group of surveys as available under Jerven (2014); assumes that higher income countries can fully or partially cover data costs; measures total rather than additional costs; assumes full costs will be borne by international donors
		Provides a first estimate of the financing gap for monitoring and gathering data on the SDGs.	\$100-\$200 million per year (additional, 2016-2030); \$400-\$500 million total annual ODA for statistics	N/A	100,000,000	200,000,000	SDSN	2015	Assume that costed activities will place additional demands on national statistical systems; assumes that statistical programs will be country-executed, even though external assistance may be required; includes calculated costs of acquiring statistical infrastructure only and excludes operational costs or costs of strengthening administrative data collection across ministries; assumes that costs of use of new technologies will remain constant

44 | Financing challenges for developing statistical systems

		Provides an updated estimate of total aid needed to produce the final set of Tier I and Tier II SDG indicators.	\$350-\$400 million per year in additional resources; \$635-\$685 million per year (2016-2030) total financing for statistics.	N/A	635,000,000	685,000,000	GPSDD	2016	Provides estimates for 77 IDA-eligible countries and 67 IBRD countries; assumes IDA-eligible countries can cover 50% of statistical costs; assumes IBRD countries will require 5% external financing.
		Measures cost of monitoring MDGs and extrapolates to SDGs.	\$60-\$150 billion (total resources; 2015-2030) to measure SDGs	N/A	4 billion	10 billion	Jerven, Morten	2017	1. Only considers surveys; 2. assumes that existing statistical capacity is sufficient to support survey measurement; 3. does not include costs of running and expanding statistical offices.
	Objective 3.2	Estimated incremental requirement for statistical capacity building in developing countries (strengthening of national statistical systems).	\$115-\$120 million per year; approx \$153-160 million (2018)	N/A	153,000,000	160,000,000	Marakesh Action Plan for Statistics	2004	1. Assumes low income countries cannot afford the recurrent costs of a statistical system; and 2. that middle-income countries' government allocations were sufficient to meet the annual running costs of data system.
	Objective 3.3								
	Objective 3.4	Cost of using satellite imagery in survey sampling and implementation.	170 GBP per survey; approx \$US 222	N/A	222	222	Haenssger	2015	Costs based on study surveys conducted in Rajasthan and Gansu (India and China); costs exclude costs of labour, laptops and GPS units;
		Average cost of using satellite imagery to chart human settlement.	\$1-\$2 million for mapping per country	N/A	1,000,000	2,000,000	Seaman, quoted in Tollefson	2017	N/A
	Objective 3.5								
	Objective 3.6								
4. Dissemination and use of sustainable development data	Objective 4.1	Basic estimate for making data accessible via technological platforms in low, medium and high-income countries.	\$250,000 to \$1 million per year; upfront costs between \$300,000 - \$3 million based on income category	\$300000-\$3 million	250,000	1,000,000	SDSN, Paris 21, Simon Fraser University	2014	N/A
5. Multi-stakeholder partnerships for sustainable development data	Objective 5.1	Estimate is total estimated for 'partnership and information exchange' between 2004-2006	\$631,000 between 2004-2006; approx \$813021 in 2018 prices	N/A	813,021	813,021	PARIS21	2004	N/A
6. Mobilize resources and coordinate efforts for statistical capacity building.	Objective 6.1:	Expert cost estimates for strengthening the international statistical system.	\$9-10 million/year (strengthening international statistical system); between 11.6-12.9 million in 2018 prices	N/A	11,600,000	12,900,000	MAPS; PARIS21	2004	Includes funding already committed; assumes costs to donors are not all new.

ANNEX III List of countries and NSDS reports included in dataset

Country	NSDS Programme Year
Bangladesh	2013-2023
Burkina Faso	2016-2020
Cameroon	2015-2020
Comoros	2015-2019
Ethiopia	2015/16-2019/20
Ghana	2017-2021
Honduras	2006-2010
Laos	2010-2020
Maldives	2010-2019
Mali	2015-2019
Nicaragua	2006-2010
Niger	2017-2021
Rwanda	2014/15-2018/19
Samoa	2011-2021
Senegal	2014-2019
Timor-Leste	2010-2019
Uganda	2013/14-2017/18
Vanuatu	2016-2018
Zambia	2014-2018
Zimbabwe	2016-2020

ANNEX IV List of former Tier III indicators – new Tier assessment and description of data sources

<i>UNSD Indicator Code*</i>	Target	Indicator	Initial Proposed Tier (by Secretariat)	Possible Custodian Agency(ies)	Partner Agency(ies)	Updated Tier Classification (by IAEG-SDG Members)	Notes (including timing of review and explanation for change in Tier)	Description of data source	Information Source
C010402	1.4 By 2030, ensure that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including microfinance	1.4.1 Proportion of population living in households with access to basic services	Tier III	UN-Habitat	UNICEF, WHO	Tier II	Reviewed at September 2018 WebEX meeting	Data sourced from household surveys including DHS, MICS< LSMS, World Bank, UNICEF and UNDP, the censuses and administrative data.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-01-04-02.pdf

C010402		1.4.2 Proportion of total adult population with secure tenure rights to land, (a) with legally recognized documentation, and (b) who perceive their rights to land as secure, by sex and type of tenure	Tier III	World Bank, UN-Habitat	FAO, UNSD, UN Women, UNEP, IFAD	Tier II	Reviewed at 6th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II)	Data compiled from census and household surveys conducted by NSOs, and where available, through administrative data on land tenure reported by national land institutions.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-01-04-02.pdf
C010a02	1.a Ensure significant mobilization of resources from a variety of sources, including through enhanced development cooperation, in order to provide adequate and predictable means for developing countries, in particular least developed countries, to implement programmes and policies to end poverty in all its dimensions	1.a.2 Proportion of total government spending on essential services (education, health and social protection)	Tier III	Under discussion among agencies (ILO, UNESCO-UIS, WHO)		Tier II	IAEG-SDG 3rd meeting: There is an established methodology for the indicator (classified as Tier II)	N/A	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-01-0a-02.pdf

C020301	2.3 By 2030, double the agricultural productivity and incomes of small-scale food producers, in particular women, indigenous peoples, family farmers, pastoralists and fishers, including through secure and equal access to land, other productive resources and inputs, knowledge, financial services, markets and opportunities for value addition and non-farm employment	2.3.1 Volume of production per labour unit by classes of farming/pastoral/forestry enterprise size	Tier III	FAO		Tier II	Reviewed at Sept 2018 WebEx meeting (classified as Tier II) IAEG-SDG 6th meeting: Needs additional work on definition of "small scale food producers"	Data to be sourced from agricultural surveys. Where surveys are missing, data to come from household surveys integrated with an agricultural module, agricultural censuses and administrative data.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-02-03-01.pdf
C020302		2.3.2 Average income of small-scale food producers, by sex and indigenous status	Tier III	FAO	World Bank	Tier II	Reviewed at Sept 2018 WebEx meeting (classified as Tier II) IAEG-SDG 6th meeting: Needs additional work on definition of "small scale food producers"	Data to be sourced from agricultural surveys. Where surveys are missing, data to come from household surveys integrated with an agricultural module, agricultural censuses and administrative data	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-02-03-02.pdf

C020501	2.5 By 2020, maintain the genetic diversity of seeds, cultivated plants and farmed and domesticated animals and their related wild species, including through soundly managed and diversified seed and plant banks at the national, regional and international levels, and promote access to and fair and equitable sharing of benefits arising from the utilization of genetic resources and associated traditional knowledge, as internationally agreed	2.5.1 Number of plant and animal genetic resources for food and agriculture secured in either medium- or long-term conservation facilities	Tier III	FAO	UNEP	Tier I	Data availability reviewed in Nov. 2017 (classified as Tier I) IAEG-SDG 4th meeting: There is an agreed methodology, but lack of sufficient data coverage (classified as Tier II)	Officially appointed National Focal Points report on plant genetics FAO through World Information and Early Warning System reporting. Data on animal genetic resources are provided by National Coordinators for Management of Animal Genetic Resources who provide data to FAO Domestic Animal Diversity Information System.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-02-05-01.pdf
C020c01	2.c Adopt measures to ensure the proper functioning of food commodity markets and their derivatives and facilitate timely access to market information, including on food reserves, in order to help limit extreme food price volatility	2.c.1 Indicator of food price anomalies	Tier III	FAO		Tier II	Fast Track; Reviewed at 5th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II)	Source is indicator food price anomalies (IFPA); data for IFPA compiled from national line-ministries, mostly agricultural ministries.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-02-0C-01.pdf

C030801	3.8 Achieve universal health coverage, including financial risk protection, access to quality essential health-care services and access to safe, effective, quality and affordable essential medicines and vaccines for all	3.8.1 Coverage of essential health services (defined as the average coverage of essential services based on tracer interventions that include reproductive, maternal, newborn and child health, infectious diseases, non-communicable diseases and service capacity and access, among the general and the most disadvantaged population)	Tier III	WHO	UNICEF, UNFPA, DESA Population Division	Tier II	Reviewed at 7th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II) IAEG-SDG 6th meeting: Because indicator 3.b.3 is a component of this indicator and is a Tier III indicator, indicator 3.b.3 must have agreed methodology prior to indicator 3.8.1 being upgraded Fast Track; Reviewed at 5th IAEG-SDG meeting: Request additional work on aggregation method at regional and global levels	Indicators of health service coverage is typically measured by household surveys, administrative data, facility data, facility surveys, and surveillance systems. Data typically provided by Ministries of Health and NSOs oversee data collection and reporting.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-03-08-01.pdf
C030802		3.8.2 Proportion of population with large household expenditures on health as a share of total household expenditure or income	Tier III	WHO	World Bank	Tier II	UNSC 48 Refinement, Reviewed at 5th IAEG-SDG meeting: Data coverage for some regions is limited (classified as Tier II)	Recommended that data be taken from "household surveys with information on household consumption expenditure on health and total household consumption expenditures, which are routinely conducted by NSOs".	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-03-08-02.pdf
C050101	5.1 End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere	5.1.1 Whether or not legal frameworks are in place to promote, enforce and monitor equality and nondiscrimination on the basis of sex	Tier III	UN Women, World Bank, OECD Development Centre	OHCHR	Tier II	Reviewed at 7th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II)	Data derived from "an assessment of legal frameworks using primary sources/official government documents, in particular laws, policies/action plans. The assessment is carried out by national counterparts, included National Statistical Offices (NSOs) and/or National Women's Machinery (NWMs), and legal practitioners/researchers on gender equality, using a questionnaire comprising 45 yes/no questions".	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-05-01-01.pdf

C050501	5.5 Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life	5.5.1 Proportion of seats held by women in (a) national parliaments and (b) local governments	Tier I/III	IPU, UN Women	World Bank	Tier I (a)/ Tier II (b)	Reviewed at 6th IAEG-SDG meeting (part (b) classified as Tier II)	Data provided by national parliaments; administrative data based on electoral records are main source of data. Electoral records typically produced by Electoral Management Bodies (EMBs) which are part of the National Statistical System.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-05-05-01b.pdf
C050601	5.6 Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights as agreed in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of their review conferences	5.6.1 Proportion of women aged 15–49 years who make their own informed decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive health care	Tier III	UNFPA	UN Women	Tier II	IAEG-SDG 3rd meeting: There is an established methodology for the indicator (classified as Tier II)	Data derived from demographic and health surveys and provided by agencies responsible for DHS at the national level.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-05-06-01.pdf
C050a01	5.a Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws	5.a.1 (a) Proportion of total agricultural population with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex; and (b) share of women among owners or rights-bearers of agricultural land, by type of tenure	Tier III	FAO	UN Women, UNSD, UNEP, World Bank, UN-Habitat	Tier II	Fast Track; Reviewed at 5th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II)	Data could be sourced using household surveys or other national survey instruments (population and housing census, agricultural surveys) and will likely be provided by NSOs.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-05-0a-01.pdf
C050a02		5.a.2 Proportion of countries where the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women's equal rights to land ownership and/or control	Tier III	FAO	World Bank, UN Women	Tier II	Reviewed at 6th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II)	Data sourced from official policies, primary law and secondary legislation, which should be collected and monitored by a national entity.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-05-0a-02.pdf

52 | Financing challenges for developing statistical systems

C050c01	5.c Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels	5.c.1 Proportion of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment	Tier III	UN Women, OECD		Tier II	Reviewed at 6th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II)	Data to be sourced via electronic questionnaire; may be part of GPEDC country-level monitoring.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-05-0c-01.pdf
C050602	5.6 Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights as agreed in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of their review conferences	5.6.2 Number of countries with laws and regulations that guarantee full and equal access to women and men aged 15 years and older to sexual care, information and education	Tier III	UNFPA	UN Women, DESA Population Division, WHO	Tier II	Reviewed at Sept 2018 WebEx meeting (classified as Tier II) UNSC 48 Refinement, Reviewed at 5th IAEGSDG meeting: Internationally agreed methodology and standard to be developed (indicator in piloting stage of methodology development) (classified as Tier III)	Data to be collected through electron, self-reported national survey tool.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-05-06-02.pdf
C060301	6.3 By 2030, improve water quality by reducing pollution, eliminating dumping and minimizing release of hazardous chemicals and materials, halving the proportion of untreated wastewater and substantially increasing recycling and safe reuse globally	6.3.1 Proportion of wastewater safely treated	Tier III	WHO, UN-Habitat, UNSD	UNEP, OECD, Eurostat	Tier II	Fast Track; Reviewed at 5th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II)	Data collected from country sources and is to be provided by NSOs, Ministries of water, sanitation, health and or environment (regulators of sanitation services).	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-06-03-01.pdf
C060302		6.3.2 Proportion of bodies of water with good ambient water quality	Tier III	UNEP	UN-Water	Tier II	Reviewed at 7th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II)	Data to be sourced via Global Environment Monitoring System for Water via electronic reporting from Water National Focal Points in relevant Ministries, Water Authorities etc.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-06-03-02.pdf

C060401	6.4 By 2030, substantially increase water-use efficiency across all sectors and ensure sustainable withdrawals and supply of freshwater to address water scarcity and substantially reduce the number of people suffering from water scarcity	6.4.1 Change in water-use efficiency over time	Tier III	FAO	UNEP, IUCN, UNSD, OECD, Eurostat	Tier II	Reviewed at 6th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II) Fast Track; Reviewed at 5th IAEG-SDG meeting; More information on terminology is requested (classified as Tier III)	Needs "administrative data collected at the country level by the relevant institutions, either technical (for water and irrigation) or economic (for value added)." Data are compiled by the FAO, World Bank, UNSD, and other international institutions.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-06-04-01.pdf
C060502	6.5 By 2030, implement integrated water resources management at all levels, including through transboundary cooperation as appropriate	6.5.2 Proportion of transboundary basin area with an operational arrangement for water cooperation	Tier III	UNESCO-IHP, UNECE		Tier II	Fast Track; Reviewed at 5th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II)	Indicator requires spatial data from national agencies or ministries responsible for water resources; data not currently included in NSS.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-06-05-02.pdf
C060601	6.6 By 2020, protect and restore water-related ecosystems, including mountains, forests, wetlands, rivers, aquifers and lakes	6.6.1 Change in the extent of water-related ecosystems over time	Tier III	UNEP, Ramsar	UN-Water, IUCN	Tier II	Reviewed at 7th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II)	Measured using satellite imagery and annual monitoring in-country.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-06-06-01a.pdf
C070a01	7.a By 2030, enhance international cooperation to facilitate access to clean energy research and technology, including renewable energy, energy efficiency and advanced and cleaner fossil-fuel technology, and promote investment in energy infrastructure and clean energy technology	7.a.1 International financial flows to developing countries in support of clean energy research and development and renewable energy production, including in hybrid systems	Tier III	OECD, IRENA	IEA, UN-Energy, UNEP	Tier II	Reviewed at 6th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II) UNSC 48 Refinement, Reviewed at 5th IAEG-SDG meeting; Internationally agreed methodology and standard needs to be developed (classified as Tier III)	Data compiled from current reporting to OECD-DAC Creditor Reporting System (CRS) and International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA)	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-07-0a-01.pdf

C090302	9.3 Increase the access of small-scale industrial and other enterprises, in particular in developing countries, to financial services, including affordable credit, and their integration into value chains and markets	9.3.2 Proportion of small-scale industries with a loan or line of credit	Tier III	UNIDO, World Bank	UNCDF	Tier II	Reviewed at 6th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II) Fast Track; Reviewed at 5th IAEG-SDG meeting: Request additional work on the definition of small-scale industries (classified as Tier III)	Data collected using the currently available World Bank Enterprise Surveys, which collects data every four-years	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-09-03-02.pdf
C120c01	12.c Rationalize inefficient fossil-fuel subsidies that encourage wasteful consumption by removing market distortions, in accordance with national circumstances, including by restructuring taxation and phasing out those harmful subsidies, where they exist, to reflect their environmental impacts, taking fully into account the specific needs and conditions of developing countries and minimizing the possible adverse impacts on their development in a manner that protects the poor and the affected communities	12.c.1 Amount of fossil-fuel subsidies per unit of GDP (production and consumption) and as a proportion of total national expenditure on fossil fuels	Tier III	UNEP		Tier II	Reviewed at Sept 2018 WebEx meeting (classified as Tier II)	Data are reported in government budgets and documented in sectoral and program ministries; to be collected by the UN Environment through electronic reporting currently being developed.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-12-0c-01.pdf

C140601	14.6 By 2020, prohibit certain forms of fisheries subsidies which contribute to overcapacity and overfishing, eliminate subsidies that contribute to illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing and refrain from introducing new such subsidies, recognizing that appropriate and effective special and differential treatment for developing and least developed countries should be an integral part of the World Trade Organization fisheries subsidies negotiation ^[b]	14.6.1 Progress by countries in the degree of implementation of international instruments aiming to combat illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing	Tier III	FAO		Tier II	Reviewed at 7th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II) Reviewed at Webex meeting in Nov. 2017 following 6th IAEG-SDG meeting: Request results of additional pilot studies	Data collected from Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries (CCRF) survey, conducted online with departments responsible for fisheries.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-14-06-01.pdf
C140a01	14.a Increase scientific knowledge, develop research capacity and transfer marine technology, taking into account the Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission Criteria and Guidelines on the Transfer of Marine Technology, in order to improve ocean health and to enhance the contribution of marine biodiversity to the development of developing countries, in particular small island developing States and least developed countries	14.a.1 Proportion of total research budget allocated to research in the field of marine technology	Tier III	IOC-UNESCO	UNEP	Tier II	Reviewed at 6th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II)	Data sourced from biannual direct submission to the GOSR data portal (currently in development) and the GOSR questionnaire; data collected from national focal points and NSOs.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-14-0a-01.pdf

56 | Financing challenges for developing statistical systems

C140b01	14.b Provide access for small-scale artisanal fishers to marine resources and markets	14.b.1 Progress by countries in the degree of application of a legal/regulatory/policy/institutional framework which recognizes and protects access rights for small-scale fisheries	Tier III	FAO		Tier II	Reviewed at 7th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II) Reviewed at Webex meeting in Nov. 2017 following 6th IAEG-SDG meeting: Request results of additional pilot studies	Data collected from Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries (CCRF) survey, conducted online with departments responsible for fisheries. Data is collected by the FAO every two-years.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-14-0b-01.pdf
C150201	15.2 By 2020, promote the implementation of sustainable management of all types of forests, halt deforestation, restore degraded forests and substantially increase afforestation and reforestation globally	15.2.1 Progress towards sustainable forest management	Tier III	FAO	UNEP, UNFCCC	Tier I	Data availability reviewed in Nov. 2017 (classified as Tier I) IAEG-SDG 4th meeting: There is agreement on the components of the indicator, with limited data availability for some components (classified as Tier II)	Data collected from reports by countries to FAO every five years.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-15-02-01.pdf
C150301	15.3 By 2030, combat desertification, restore degraded land and soil, including land affected by desertification, drought and floods, and strive to achieve a land degradation-neutral world	15.3.1 Proportion of land that is degraded over total land area	Tier III	UNCCD	FAO, UNEP	Tier II	Reviewed at 6th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II) Fast Track; Reviewed at 5th IAEG-SDG meeting: Request finalised methodology development with metadata (classified as Tier III)	Data to be provided by national sources to the UNCCD; metadata reports that indicators should be available from existing sources.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-15-03-01.pdf
C150601	15.6 Promote fair and equitable sharing of the benefits arising from the utilization of genetic resources and promote appropriate access to such resources, as internationally agreed	15.6.1 Number of countries that have adopted legislative, administrative and policy frameworks to ensure fair and equitable sharing of benefits	Tier III	CBD-Secretariat	FAO, UNEP	Tier I	Data availability reviewed in Nov. 2017 (classified as Tier I) IAEG-SDG 4th meeting: There is an agreed methodology, but low data availability (classified as Tier II)	Uses data published by the Access and Benefit-sharing Clearing-House, Online Reporting System on Compliance of the International Treaty on PGRFA and Easy-SMTA. Data compiled by the Convention on Biological Diversity and International Treaty Secretariats.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-15-06-01.pdf

C150801	15.8 By 2020, introduce measures to prevent the introduction and significantly reduce the impact of invasive alien species on land and water ecosystems and control or eradicate the priority species	15.8.1 Proportion of countries adopting relevant national legislation and adequately resourcing the prevention or control of invasive alien species	Tier III	IUCN	UNEP	Tier II	Reviewed at 6th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II)	Data compiled from four sources (national legislatures, online survey administered by the Convention on Biological Diversity, UN Multilateral Environmental Agreements portal and National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan targets) by the International Union for Conservation of Nature Species Survival Commission Invasive Species Specialist Group.	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-15-08-01.pdf
C161001	16.10 Ensure public access to information and protect fundamental freedoms, in accordance with national legislation and international agreements	16.10.1 Number of verified cases of killing, kidnapping, enforced disappearance, arbitrary detention and torture of journalists, associated media personnel, trade unionists and human rights advocates in the previous 12 months	Tier III	OHCHR	ILO, UNESCO-UIS	Tier II	Reviewed at 6th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II)	Data to be compiled from administrative data produced by OHCHR, ILO, UNESCO and other UN agencies	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-16-10-01.pdf
C171802	17.18 By 2020, enhance capacity-building support to developing countries, including for least developed countries and small island developing States, to increase significantly the availability of high-quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability, geographic location and other characteristics relevant in national contexts	17.18.2 Number of countries that have national statistical legislation that complies with the Fundamental Principles of Official Statistics	Tier III	PARIS21		Tier II	Reviewed at 6th IAEG-SDG meeting (classified as Tier II)	PARIS21 SDG survey (online)	https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-17-18-02.pdf

Source: Compiled using “Tier classification for Global SDG Indicators dataset” and “SDG indicator Metadata”. Data reported as of January, 2019.

ANNEX V Annual cost of funding the CTGAP by activity and funding source (USD)

CTGAP Strategic Area	Objective	Average annual cost per country	IDA (domestic)	IBRD (domestic)	IDA (external)	IBRD (external)	Total
1. Coordination and strategic leadership	Objective 1.1	347,000	13,000,000	38,000,000	13,000,000	2,000,000	66,000,000
	Objective 1.2	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
2. Innovation and modernisation of national statistical systems	Objective 2.1	619,000	23,000,000	67,000,000	23,000,000	4,000,000	117,000,000
	Objective 2.2	240,000	9,000,000	26,000,000	9,000,000	1,000,000	45,000,000
	Objective 2.3	4,880,000	183,000,000	528,000,000	183,000,000	28,000,000	922,000,000
3. Strengthening of basic statistical activities and programmes, with a focus on addressing the monitoring needs of the 2030 Agenda	Objective 3.1	\$1.07 billion per year (IDA) \$1.63 billion per year (IBRD)	535,000,000	1,548,500,000	535,000,000	81,500,000	2,700,000,000
	Objective 3.2	1,180,000	44,300,000	127,000,000	44,300,000	6,000,000	223,000,000
	Objective 3.3	1,160,000	44,000,000	125,000,000	44,000,000	6,000,000	219,000,000
	Objective 3.4	1,040,000	39,000,000	112,000,000	39,000,000	6,000,000	196,000,000
	Objective 3.5	597,000	22,000,000	65,000,000	22,000,000	3,000,000	113,000,000
	Objective 3.6	246,000	9,000,000	27,000,000	9,000,000	1,000,000	46,000,000
4. Dissemination and use of data	Objective 4.1	1,070,000	40,000,000	116,000,000	40,000,000	6,000,000	202,000,000
5. Multi-stakeholder partnerships	Objective 5.1	202,000	8,000,000	22,000,000	8,000,000	1,000,000	39,000,000
6. Mobilise resources and coordination	Objective 6.1	3,820,000	143,000,000	413,000,000	143,000,000	22,000,000	721,000,000
Total			1,113,000,000	3,214,000,000	1,113,000,000	169,000,000	5,609,000,000
Grand Total (\$US)⁵²			\$4,327,000,000		\$1,282,000,000		\$5,609,000,000

⁵² All costs are rounded to the nearest million or thousand.

ANNEX VI Philanthropic contributions to statistical capacity building

Name of foundation	USD million (margin) 2013-2015
Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation	406.1
William and Flora Hewlett Foundation	51-55
Bloomberg Philanthropies	25-30
Michael and Susan Dell Foundation	15-20
Ford Foundation	10-15
Wellcome Trust	5-10
Rockefeller Foundation	5-10
Omidyar Network	5-10
Open Society Foundations	5-10
Li Ka Shing Foundation	1-5
MasterCard Foundation	1-5
Fundación Telefónica	1-5
Oak Foundation	1-5
Citi Foundation	1-5
Gordon and Betty Moore Foundation	1-5
Walmart/Walmart Foundation	1-5
Kresge Foundation	1-5
C&A Foundation	1-5
John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation	1-5
David and Lucile Packard Foundation	1-5
Google Foundation	1-5

Source: PARIS21 (July, 2018)

ANNEX VII: Comparison of global funds: GFATM, GAVI, GPE, GFF and GCF

	Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria	GAVI	Global Partnership for Education	Global Financing Facility	Green Climate Fund
Purpose	Accelerate the end of AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria epidemics.	Saving children's lives and protecting people's health by increasing equitable use of vaccines in lower-income countries.	Improve literacy	Support the SDGs by ending preventable maternal, new-born and child deaths by 2030.	Support developing countries in responding to climate change
Total Funding	\$38.9 billion disbursed as of September 2018	Between 2000-2020, donor contributions are expected to reach \$20.8 billion	\$5.2 billion from 2004-2018	As of June 2018, GFF Trust Fund contributions reached \$807 million. This amount is combined with an additional \$3.9 billion in IDA and IBRD financing (GFF, 2018)	Has gathered pledges worth \$10.3 billion since 2014.
Donors	Australia, Belgium, Benin, Canada, China, Côte d'Ivoire, Denmark, European Commission, France, Germany, India, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Kenya, Korea, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Namibia, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nigeria, Norway, Portugal, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, South Africa, Sweden, Switzerland, Thailand, Togo, Uganda, United Kingdom, United States, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, Debt2Health, Catholic Relief Services, Comic Relief, Duet Group, Ecobank, Fullerton Health Foundation, Goodbye Malaria, Munich RE, REDTM and Partners, Standard Bank, Tahir Foundation, Takeda Pharmaceutical, United Methodist Church, and other donors.	Alwaleed Philanthropies, Australia, Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, Brazil, Canada, The Children's Investment Fund Foundation, China, China Merchants Charitable Foundation, Comic Relief, Denmark, ELMA Vaccines and Immunization Foundations, European Commission, France, Girl Effect, Germany, His Highness Sheikh Mohammed Bin Zayed Al Nahyan, India, International Federation of Pharmaceutical Wholesalers', Ireland, Italy, Japan, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 'la Caixa' Banking Foundation, LDS Charities, Lions Club International Foundation, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, other private donors, Principality of Monaco, Reckitt Benckiser Group, Red Nose Day Fund, Republic of Korea, Russian Federation, South Africa, Spain, State of Qatar, Sultanate of Oman, Sweden, Switzerland, Unilever, United Kingdom, United States	Australia, Belgium, Canada, Children's Investment Fund Foundation, Denmark, European Commission, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Republic of Korea, Romania, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom, United States, Open Society Foundation, Dubai Cares, Stichting Benevolentia, Rockefeller Foundation	Canada, Denmark, Norway, United Kingdom, Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, MSD for Mothers, JICA< United States, GAVI, Global Fund.	Australia, Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Chile, Colombia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Iceland, Indonesia, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Mexico, Monaco, Mongolia, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Panama, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Romania, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom, United States, Vietnam.

Governance	The Global Fund is an independent institution governed by a Board. The Board is responsible for setting the strategy, governing the institution, and approving all funding decisions. A Secretariat is responsible for day-to-day operations.	GAVI is an independent institution governed by a Board and managed operationally by a Secretariat. The Board is responsible for strategic direction and policy making. The Board is composed of 18 representatives from key GAVI partners including UNICEF, WHO, the World Bank, Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation and other stakeholders, 9 "unaffiliated" seats held by private individuals with no professional connection to GAVI's work, and the GAVI CEO.	GPE is an independent institution governed by a Board of Directors. The Board is comprised of 19 constituencies representing all partners including donors, developing countries, CSOs, private sector, and multilateral agencies.	GFF is a facility hosted by the World Bank. It has two main governance structures. A GFF Investors Group composed of representatives from participating countries, bilateral donors, NGOs, private sector, foundations, multilateral agencies and technical agencies, works to mobilise complimentary funding for GFF investment cases. Second, a Trust Fund Committee has decision-making authority on the operations of the GFF Trust Fund hosted by the World Bank. The Trust Fund Committee is composed of trust fund founding donors and donors that contribute to the GFF Trust Fund at a level of at least US\$30 million in one year, or US\$50 million for the first two years provided they meet additional requirements.	GCF is an "operational entity" on the financial mechanism of the Convention and is accountable to and functions under the Conference of the Parties (COP). The Fund is governed by a Board that has full responsibility for funding decisions, yet the Board receives guidance from COP on policies, priorities and funding eligibility. The Board is composed of 24 members with equal representation between developed and developing countries. Day-to-day operations are managed by an independent secretariat which is accountable to the Board.
Role of partners	Representatives from partner countries hold seats on the Global Fund Board; each board member has equal voting rights.	Representatives from partner countries hold seats on GAVI's board. At present, five members of the board are representatives of partner countries.	Representatives from partner countries hold six seats on GPE Board of Directors.	Partner countries are included in the Investors Group but are presumable left out of the Trust Fund Committee as this group is reserved for donors.	Board includes an equal number of representatives from developed and developing countries.

Allocation Methodology	The Global Fund allocates funding to eligible countries (based on GNI and disease burden); allocations are made every three years at the beginning of each funding cycle. Requests for funding are reviewed for technical merit and strategic focus by the Technical Review Panel composed of independent health, development and finance experts is responsible for evaluating the technical merit of all requests for funding. Amount allocated to successful proposals is based on a formula that accounts for disease burden, economic capacity, and contextual factors. Allocations and allocation methodology are published ahead of each funding cycle.	Eligible countries submit requisitions for support to GAVI. These requests are reviewed by GAVI's Independent Review Committee (IRC), composed of independent experts from public health, epidemiology, development, finance and economics. The IRC reviews proposals and provides recommendations to the Board, which makes the final decision on whether funding is approved.	Countries eligible to become GPE partners (low or lower-middle income countries with 85% primary completion rate) are able to apply for a range of funding grants. There is little information on the allocation criteria or selection process for GPE funds available publicly.	GFF funds projects in 62 high burden low, and lower-middle income countries. Countries wishing to access funding "must be willing to commit to addressing the sustainability of its RMNCAH financing, including by demonstrating that it is committed to by increasing domestic resource mobilization for RMNCAH" (GFF, 2016). GFF is not prescriptive on the form of the commitment. However, trust fund resources are only allocated to countries that indicate their interest in using IDA or IBRD resources for RMNCAH.	GCF balances spending on "mitigation" and "adaptation" activities, and ring fences support for the urgent needs of Lead Developed Countries, Small Island States and African countries; the board also stresses a geographic balance. Funding proposals are initially assessed on compliance with GCF policies including on: fiduciary standards, environmental and social standards, risk management, monitoring and evaluation criteria, legal standards and gender policy. The initial review is followed by an independent technical assessment by the Independent Technical Advisory Panel (ITAP) against GCF's six investment criteria (potential impact, paradigm shift potential, needs of the beneficiary country, country ownership and institutional capacity, economic efficiency and financial viability).
Transparency	Global Fund regularly publishes data on finances, allocation and results. It received a score of "good" on Publish What You Fund's 2018 Transparency Index.	GAVI regularly publishes data on finances, allocation and results. It received a score of "good" on Publish What You Fund's 2018 Transparency Index and receives the highest ranking of all global funds measured.	Documentation on funding and results are reported via the GPE website.	Documentation on funding and results are reported via the GFF website.	GCF publishes a trove of data on their website, including reports from all Board meetings.
Source	https://www.theglobalfund.org/en/ ; http://www.publishwhatyoufund.org/reports/2018-Aid-Transparency-Index.pdf	https://www.gavi.org/ ; http://www.publishwhatyoufund.org/reports/2018-Aid-Transparency-Index.pdf	https://www.globalpartnership.org/data-and-results	https://www.globalfinancingfacility.org/	https://www.greenclimate.fund/home

References

- Abbasi, Z. (2005). 'Cambodia: Multisector Statistics' in Morrison, T.K. (ed.) *Statistical Capacity Building: Case Studies and Lessons Learned*. Washington D.C.: International Monetary Fund, pp. 11-24.
- Alemu, G. (2009). *A Case Study on Aid Effectiveness in Ethiopia: Analysis of the Health Sector Aid Architecture*. Washington, DC: The Brookings Institute.
- Arakawa, H. (2005). *Budget Support and Aid Effectiveness, Experience in East Asia*. Washington D.C.: World Bank Group. Available at: <http://siteresources.worldbank.org/PROJECTS/Resources/40940-1114615847489/budgetsupportineastasia.pdf>
- Badiee, S., Klein, T., Appel, D., Mohamedou, E. I., and Swanson, E. (2017). 'Rethinking Donor Support for Statistical Capacity Building', in *Development Co-operation Report 2017: Data for Development*. Paris: OECD.
- Barakat, S., Rzeszut, K., and Martin, N. (2012). *What is the Track Record of Multi-donor Trust Funds in Improving Aid Effectiveness?: An Assessment of the Available Evidence*. London: EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education, University of London. Available at: <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.834.8996&rep=rep1&type=pdf>
- Bezanson, K. A. and Isenman, P. (2012). 'Governance of New Global Partnerships: Challenges, Weaknesses, and Lessons.' *Center for Global Development Policy Paper 014*. Washington D.C.: Center for Global Development. Available at: https://www.cgdev.org/files/1426627_file_Bezanson_Isenman_FINAL.pdf
- Biesma, R.-G., Brugha, R., Harmer, A., Walsh, A., Spicer, N. and Walt, G. (2009). 'The Effects of Global Health Initiatives on Country Health Systems: A Review of Evidence from HIV/AIDS Control,' *Health Policy and Planning*, 24(4), p.239-252.
- Browne, S. (2017). 'Vertical Funds: New Forms of Multilateralism,' *Global Policy*, 8(55), p.36-45.
- Bulir, A., and Hamann, A. J. (2006). 'Volatility of Development Aid: From the Frying Pan into the Fire?', IMF Working Paper 06/65. Washington D.C.: International Monetary Fund. Available at: <http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/wp/2006/wp0665.pdf>.
- Clements, B., Gupta, S., Pivovarsky, A., and Tiongson, E. R. (2004). 'Foreign Aid: Grants Versus Loans,' *Finance & Development*. Available at: <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/fandd/2004/09/pdf/clements.pdf>
- Dargent, E., Lotta, G., Mejia, J.A., and Moncada, G. (2018). *Who Wants to Know?: The Political Economy of Statistical Capacity in Latin America*. Washington D.C.: Inter-American Development Bank.
- Faust, J., Koch, S., and Leiderer, S. (2011). 'Multi-donor Budget Support: Only Halfway to Effective Coordination'. *German Development Institute Briefing Paper 8/2011*. Bonn: German Development Institute. Available at: <https://www.oecd.org/dac/evaluation/dcdndep/50036948.pdf>
- Gartner, D. and Kharas, H. (2013). 'Scaling Up Impact: Vertical Funds and Innovative Governance,' in Chandy, L., Hosono, A., Kharas, H. and Finn, J. F. (eds.) *Getting to Scale: How to Bring Development Solutions to Millions of Poor People*. Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution Press, p. 103-137.
- Global Agriculture and Food Security Program (GAFSP). (2018). 'Governance'. Available at: <https://www.gafspfund.org/governance>
- Global Financing Facility (GFF). (2017). 'Civil Registration and Vital Statistics & GFF', *GFF Fact Sheet*. Available at: <https://www.globalfinancingfacility.org/civil-registration-and-vital-statistics-gff>
- Global Fund. (2018). "Impact". Available at: <https://www.theglobalfund.org/en/impact/>

- Global Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation (GPEDC). (2016). *Making Development Co-operation More Effective: 2016 Progress Report*. Paris: OECD.
- Global Partnership for Sustainable Development Data (GPSDD). (2016). *The State of Development Data Funding, 2016*. Available from <https://opendatawatch.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/09/development-data-funding-2016.pdf>
- Guder, L. (2010). *Multi-Donor Trust Funds: Instruments of First Choice for Post-Crisis Situations?* Washington D.C.: World Bank Group. Available at: https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/4574/deor_11_1_36.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y
- Hughes, C. (2018). 'The wealth of our collective data should belong to us,' *The Guardian*, 27 April. Available at: <https://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2018/apr/27/chris-hughes-facebook-google-data-tax-regulation>
- Independent Evaluation Group (IEG). (2011). *An Evaluation of the World Bank's Trust Fund Portfolio: Trust Fund Support for Development*. Washington D.C.: World Bank Group.
- IEG. (2014). *Opportunities and Challenges from Working in Partnerships: Findings from IEG's Work on Partnership Programs and Trust Funds*. Washington D.C.: World Bank Group.
- IEG. (2017). *Data for Development: An Evaluation of World Bank Support for Data and Statistical Capacity*. Washington D.C.: World Bank Group.
- IFFIm. (2018). "Overview". Available at: <https://www.iffim.org/about/overview/>
- Isenman, P., Wathne, C. and Baudienville, G. (2010). *Global Funds: Allocation Strategies and Aid Effectiveness*. London: Overseas Development Institute.
- Jerven, M. (2014). 'Benefits and Costs of the Data for Development Targets for the Post-2010 Development Agenda'. Post-2015 Consensus Working Paper. Available at: https://www.copenhagenconsensus.com/sites/default/files/data_assessment_-_jerven.pdf
- Kilic, T., Serajuddin, U., Uematsu, H., and Yoshida, N. (2017). 'Costing Household Surveys for Monitoring Progress Toward Ending Extreme Poverty and Boosting Shared Prosperity.' World Bank Policy Research Working Paper 7951. Available at: <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/260501485264312208/pdf/WPS7951.pdf>
- Kindornay, S., Bhattacharya, D., and Higgins, K. (2016). *Implementing Agenda 2013: Unpacking the Data Revolution at Country Level*. Bangladesh: Centre for Policy Dialogue. <http://www.post2015datatest.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/07/Implementing-Agenda-2030-Unpacking-the-Data-Revolution-at-Country-Level.pdf>
- Klingebiel, S., Janus, H. (2014). 'Results-Based Aid: Potential and Limits of an Innovative Modality in Development Cooperation.' *International Development Policy*, 6.1. Available at: https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=2436625
- Manuel, M., and Manuel, C. (2018). 'Achieving Equal Access to Justice for All by 2030: Lessons from Global Funds'. *Overseas Development Institute Working Paper 537*. London: Overseas Development Institute. Available at: <https://www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/resource-documents/12307.pdf>
- Marrakech Action Plan for Statistics. (2004). 'Better Data for Better Results: An Action Plan for Improving Development Statistics'. Available at: <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/493571468279866267/pdf/840610WP0Marra0Box0382094B00PUBLIC0.pdf>
- Mistiaen, J. A. (2017). *Kenya – Kenya Statistics Program for Results: P149718 – Implementation Status Results Report: Sequence 03*. Washington D.C.: World Bank Group.

- Nakhooda, S., Fransen, T., Caravani, A., Kuramochi, T., Prizzon, A., Shimizu, N., Halimanjaya, A., Tilley, H. and Welham, B. (2013). *Mobilising International Climate Finance: Lessons from the Fast-Start Finance Period*. London and Washington D.C.: Overseas Development Institute and World Resources Institute.
- Open Data Watch. (2016). 'Aid for Statistics: An Inventory of Financial Instruments'. Available at: <https://opendatawatch.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/09/2016-Aid-For-Statistics-An-Inventory-of-Financial-Instruments.pdf>
- Open Data Watch. (2018). 'Global Funds Research'. Available at: <https://opendatawatch.com/reference/global-funds-research/>
- Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). (2009). *Thematic Study of Support to Statistical Capacity Building: Evaluation of the Paris Declaration*. Paris: OECD. <https://www.oecd.org/dac/evaluation/dcdndep/43189996.pdf>
- OECD. (2015). *Multilateral Aid 2015: Better Partnerships for a Post-2015 World, Highlights*. Paris: OECD. Available at: <https://www.oecd.org/dac/aid-architecture/OverviewChapter-MEP.pdf>
- OECD. (2016). *Development Cooperation Report 2017: Data for Development*. Paris: OECD.
- OECD. (2017). *Development Co-operation Report: Data for Development*. Paris: OECD.
- OECD. (2018). *Private Philanthropy for Development*. Paris: OECD.
- PARIS21. (2017). *Partner Report on Support to Statistics: PRESS 2017*. Paris: PARIS21.
- PARIS21. (2018a). "Measuring Statistical Capacity Development: A review of current practices and ideas for the future – moving towards Statistical Capacity 4.0". Available at: http://www.paris21.org/sites/default/files/inline-files/Measuring-Statistical-Capacity-Development_draft.pdf
- PARIS21 (2018b). "Financing for Data: The Scale of the Challenge". Presented at High Level Event on "More and Better Financing for Development Data" in New York, July 2018. *Unpublished*.
- PARIS21. (2018c). *Partner Report on Support to Statistics: PRESS 2018. Unpublished draft*.
- Pearson, M., Johnson, M., and Ellison, R. (2010). *Review of Major Results Based Aid (RBA) and Results Based Financing (RBF) Schemes*. London: DFID Human Development Resource Centre. Available at: <https://www.oecd.org/dac/peer-reviews/Review-of-Major-RBA-and-RBF-Schemes.pdf>
- Perakis, R., and Savedoff, W. (2015). 'Does Results-Based Aid Change Anything,' *Center for Global Development Blog*. Available at: <https://www.cgdev.org/blog/does-results-based-aid-change-anything>
- Reinsberg, B., Michaelowa, K., and Knack, S. (2015). 'Which Donors, Which Funds?: The Choice of Multilateral Funds by Bilateral Donors at the World Bank'. *Policy Research Working Paper 7441*. Washington D.C.: World Bank Group.
- Robin, N., Klein, T., Jütting, J. (2016). *Public-Private Partnerships for Statistics: Lessons Learned, Future Steps*. Paris: OECD.
- Rønsholt, F. E. (2014). *Review of Budget Support Evaluations*. Denmark: DANIDA. Available at: <https://www.oecd.org/derec/denmark/Review-of-Budget-Support-Evaluation.pdf>
- Sandefur, J. (2016). Views from the Center. 'Can We Measure Poverty from Outer Space?' *Center for Global Development Blog*. Available at: <http://www.cgdev.org/blog/can-we-measure-poverty-outer-space>
- Sanna, V., and McDonnell, I. (2017). *Data for Development: DAC Members Priorities and Challenges*. Paris: OECD.

- Schmidt-Traub, G. and Sachs, J. D. (2015). 'Financing Sustainable Development: Implementing the SDGs through Effective Investment Strategies and Partnerships,' *UNSDSN Working Paper*. New York: United Nations Sustainable Development Solutions Network.
- Schmidt-Traub, G. (2018). 'The Role of the Technical Review Panel of the Global Fund to Fight HIV/AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria: an analysis of grant recommendations', *Health Policy and Planning*, 33(3), p.335-344.
- Sustainable Development Solutions Network (SDSN), PARIS21, and Simon Fraser University. (2014). 'A Needs Assessment for SDG Monitoring and Statistical Capacity Development'. Available at: <http://unsdsn.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/11/A-Needs-Assessment-For-SDG-Monitoring-and-Statistical-Capacity-Development.pdf>
- SDSN, PARIS21, UNIDO, UNICEF, Open Data Watch, Overseas Development Institute, Simon Fraser University, Center for International Earth Science Information Network, and World Bank Group . (2015). *Data for Development: A Needs Assessment for SDG Monitoring and Statistical Capacity Development*. Available at: <http://unsdsn.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/04/Data-for-Development-Full-Report.pdf>
- SDSN. (2015). 'The Role of Global Funds in a Post-2015 Development Framework: Frequently Asked Questions,' *SDSN Issue Brief*. Available at: <http://unsdsn.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/05/150515-FAQ-Global-Funds.pdf>
- United Nations (UN). (2017). *Cape Town Global Action Plan for Sustainable Development Data*. Available at: https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/hlg/Cape_Town_Global_Action_Plan_for_Sustainable_Development_Data.pdf
- UN. (2018). 'About MDTF Office Funds'. Available at: <http://mptf.undp.org/overview/funds>
- Vallejo, B., and Wehn, U. (2016). 'Capacity Development Evaluation: The Challenge of the Results Agenda and Measuring Return on Investment in the Global South', *World Development*, 79, p. 1-13.
- Vie publique. (2018). 'Fiscalité du numérique : les propositions de la Commission européenne'. *Vie publique – en bref*, 29 March. Available at: <http://www.vie-publique.fr/actualite/alaune/fiscalite-du-numerique-propositions-commission-europeenne.html>
- World Bank. (2007). *Aid Architecture: An Overview of the Main Trends in Official Development Assistance Flows*. Washington D.C.: World Bank Group – International Development Association.
- World Bank. (2018a). 'Financial Intermediary Funds'. Available at: <http://fiftrustee.worldbank.org/Pages/FIFSOversview.aspx>
- World Bank. (2018b). *Kenya Statistics Program for Results (P149718) Implementation Status & Results Report*. Washington D.C.: World Bank Group. Available at: <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/538971535796099033/pdf/Disclosable-Version-of-the-ISR-Kenya-Statistics-Program-for-Results-P149718-Sequence-No-05.pdf>
- World Bank and World Health Organization (WHO). (2014). *Global Civil Registration and Vital Statistics: Scaling up Investment Plan 2015-2024*. World Bank Group: Washington D.C. Available at: <http://www.worldbank.org/content/dam/Worldbank/document/HDN/Health/CRVS%20Scaling-up%20plan%20final%205-28-14web.pdf>
- Zwart, R., and Egan, J. (2017). 'Making Better use of Results Data in Development Co-operation,'. in *Development Co-operation Report 2017: Data for Development*. Paris: OECD.

PARiS21!

WWW.PARIS21.ORG