2019 PCSDI Report
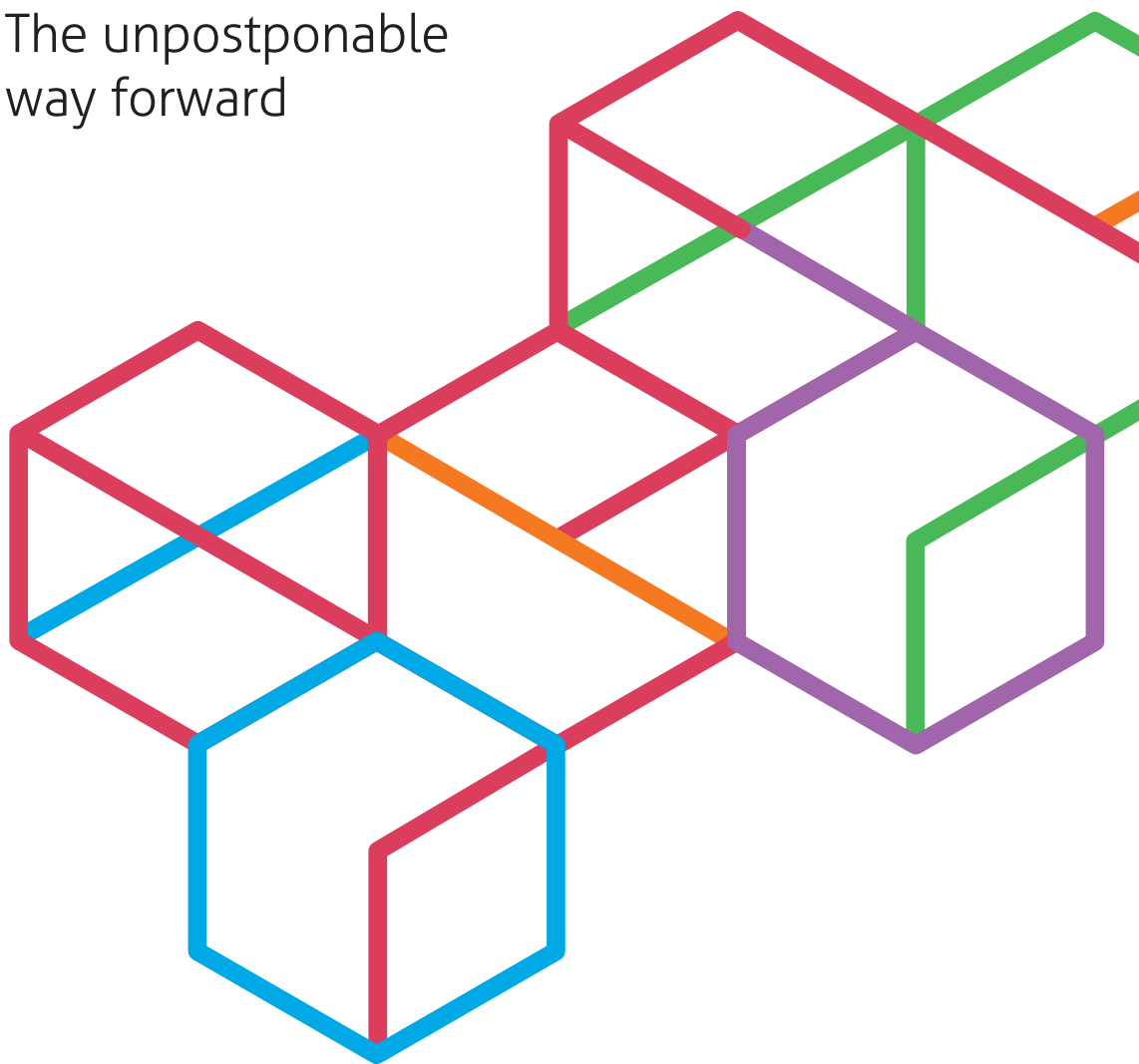
The unpostponable way forward

PCSDI

The alternative GDP

2019 PCSDI

Policy Coherence for Sustainable Development Index

The unpostponable way forward

A tool to view and guide the
world down the path towards
sustainable development

PCSDI

The alternative GDP

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Foreword

Intelligible numbers for accountability

By Roberto Bissio*

An innkeeper lodging Don Quixote recounts that sceptics cannot be convinced "with commentaries from Holy Scripture, or arguments that depend on the rational understanding or are founded on articles of faith; instead, they must be presented with palpable, comprehensible, intelligible, demonstrable, indubitable examples, with mathematical proofs that cannot be denied".

Following Cervantes's advice, the negotiators of the 2030 Agenda, unanimously approved by the United Nations in 2015, provided that compliance with its 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) was to be a "systematic follow-up and review" using"quality, accessible, timely and reliable disaggregated data will be needed to help with the measurement of progress and to ensure that no one is left behind" (paragraphs 47 and 48 of the 2030 Agenda).

More than four years later, the task of building this framework of indicators has not yet concluded. In order to evaluate the 169 specific targets included in the 2030 Agenda, experts from the development agencies and national statistics bureaus from around the world have identified 232 indicators. However, as alerted by

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Antonio Guterres, UN Secretary General, in his 2019 report on the implementation of the 2030 Agenda "for more than half of the global indicators, data are not regularly collected by most of the countries or there is no established methodology to measure them. This has a negative impact on the ability to fully understand Sustainable Development Goal progress and challenges".

To fill this gap, Guterres resorts to qualitative analysis and concludes that "the transformation required to meet the Sustainable Development Goals by 2030 is not yet advancing at the speed or scale required".

However, the age-old appetite for "demonstrative, indubitable" data, the press' lust for knowing who is winning the race or the public's interest in evaluating the performance of their governments requires "mathematical demonstrations". The policy Coherence for Sustainable Development Index comes to fill that unavoidable demand.

For decades, "development" has meant "economic growth" and has been measured with the sole yardstick of per capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Still today, this is the indicator that the World Bank uses to classify countries into low, middle and high-income groups, while the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) determines which countries may receive Official Development Aid (ODA) based on this same classification.

During the 1990s, the United Nations Development Program began to calculate a Human Development Index combining per capita income with health and education indicators in order to emphasize that money (in and of itself) does not bring happiness.

Yet sustainable development involves a different paradigm as it can only be defined as meeting "the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs". This necessarily involves preserving heritage that must not be consumed beyond its capacity to regenerate, i.e. by not overfishing, not felling forests, not burning fossil fuels.

The 2030 Agenda puts forward sustainable modes of consumption, production, and confronting climate change, but does not establish specific parameters as no consensus has yet been reached about how to allocate responsibilities. Meanwhile, those who least contribute to climate change or resource depletion because their consumption is minimal, often below levels of dignified living, are those who most suffer the consequences.

This is why progress towards sustainable development cannot merely be considered, as in Olympic medals, by countries' progress towards each one of the goals. The material "progress" of some elbowing their way forward should not be commended if it is to the detriment of others.

Heads of State and government solemnly affirmed in the 2030 Agenda "we commit to pursuing policy coherence and an enabling environment for sustainable development". Yet it is not coherent for the same country that donates money to support the economies of poorer countries to harbour tax havens fostering the flight of capital. It is fine to record the high- income countries that meet their solemn commitments to increase aid to those most underprivileged, yet coherence requires taking into account whether that same country is receiving illicit financial flows from those it purports to help.

The PCSDI is an ambitious attempt to reflect this reality through opportune, reliable data and transparent calculations. Faithful to the 2030 Agenda spirit whose motto is "Transforming Our World", the PCSDI analyzes the policies that would bring about the necessary transformation. And it does so by making the values underscored by the 2030 Agenda, universally accepted at least through declarations if not through hard facts, explicit, i.e. environmental sustainability, gender equality and democracy.

Any attempt to evaluate a set of different dimensions through a single figure, be it a grade at school or the PCSDI, involves the dilemma of how to prioritize the various built-in factors. How much should talent in sports offset poor knowledge of history or geography? There is no perfect formula to weigh these different factors. To reach a final score, the PCSDI naturally must take a stance. And it does so transparently, through a detailed, explicit and reasoned methodology based on the principles that the 2030 Agenda upholds and a plausible narrative.

One of these principles is that of "common but differentiated responsibilities". My responsibility as a consumer to no longer use plastic packaging is real, but different from that of a multinational company that uses these plastics and billon dollar budgets as vehicles to generate addiction to overly sugary drinks.

When evaluating responsibilities, one important comparison is that of each country with itself over time. The PCSDI's continuity will enable this to be visualized in the future. In the meanwhile, comparisons between countries can already be made with the available data and the index's design promotes the authorities' accountability as it begs the question of why certain countries achieve more than others with similar resources.

The PCSDI shows that no country in the world can boast having achieved sustainable development. All must improve their performance and the inaction of other countries is no excuse for a country not to act itself. At the same time, not even the largest and most powerful countries can achieve sustainability at home if it is not achieved globally. Solidarity and international cooperation stands not as a choice, but as an imperative.

The PCSDI shows that no country in the world can boast having achieved sustainable development. All must improve their performance and the inaction of other countries is no excuse for a country not to act itself

Executive summary

FROM THE 2016 PCDI TO THE 2019 PCSDI

The 2019 Policy Coherence for Sustainable Development Index (PCSDI) 2019 revises and enhances the Policy Coherence Development Index (PCDI) drawn up by the Plataforma 2015 y más. This edition was put together by a multi-disciplinary team of researchers with the cooperation of specialists in statistics and was coordinated by the Spanish Platform for NGDOs and the Spanish Network of Development Studies (REEDES).

In addition to adding the adjective sustainable to the name of the tool and adapting it to the new international framework of agendas and sustainable development goals, the PCSDI incorporates stricter thresholds for missing data, revised and adjusted variables, modifications in the methods for weighting and standardizing, and an overhaul of the environmental component. While maintaining and consolidating the focus of the original research, these developments add rigour, consistency, transparency and ease of interpretation to the 2019 PCSDI, thus heightening its potential for use in research and studies.

Owing to these differences, the 2019 PCSDI findings are not comparable to those of the 2016 PCDI, meaning that changes in the countries' scores and rankings cannot be interpreted as variations in these countries' policy coherence performance.

The 2019 PCSDI

Through 57 variables grouped together under 5 components (economic, social, global, environmental and productive) this index measures the behaviour of 148 countries in terms of policy coherence for sustainable development (PCSD). Thus, the PCSDI analyses the degree to which 19 different public policies integrate the sustainable development perspective in each one of the countries analysed. Instead of analysing them sectorially in and of themselves, each policy is analysed through the four dimensions of sustainable development (economic, social, environmental and political) in order to reveal their interactions, synergies, tensions, conflicts and trade-offs.

The PCSDI was built by combining five theoretical approaches that consider development as an expansion of people's capabilities (human development), bearing in mind that we are eco-dependent (sustainable development), that we live in an interdependent world that is connected beyond political borders (cosmopolitan development); that development processes are not gender neutral (gender approach); and that people are bearers of rights (human rights approach).

The PCSDI conceives coherence as the mainstreaming of the sustainable development perspective into the entire public policy cycle, that is, in the design, formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation phases. Therefore, of the 57 indicators, 28 measure elements relating to policy design, while 29 of them attempt to capture the more complex findings resulting from the interaction with other policies and contextual elements.

Of the 57 variables, 38 measure positive contributions to the processes of sustainable development while 19 measure those that run against it. By incorporating both direct and indirect negative impacts, the PCSDI reflects the complexity and contradictions inherent to development and brings to light practices that must be transformed or even eliminated.

The gender perspective in sustainable development processes is factored in through 20 of the 57 variables, 11 of which are main gender indicators, and 9 of which measure aspects of processes significantly impacting inequality between men and women.

The PCSDI has 29 variables drawn from governmental or official bodies and 10 from sources springing from other types of initiatives and research centres. The remaining 18 were built by the team of researchers, 11 from official data and 9 from non-official data. Most of the data were drawn between February and June 2018. Therefore, due to lags in the publication of statistical information, most of the variables refer to the 2014 to 2017 period, meaning that the snapshot provided is not absolutely current.

Though they vary depending on the aspect of the PCSDI in question, often departing from prevailing approaches, issues of data availability around the world have inevitably compromised the analysis and made it necessary to exclude certain significant elements. This holds true particularly for indicators enabling proper evaluation of public policies from a gender perspective. This opens a field of possibilities for improving the PCSDI in the future with further research and studies for more in-depth analysis.

MAIN 2019 PCSDI FINDINGS

One of the PCSDI's virtues is that it affords different analytical possibilities for each one of the five components it comprises. This means that a given country's overall ranking is not as significant as the analysis that can be drawn of each individual country as regards its room for improvement and performance in each one of the components, which is what would lead it to improve its overall ranking in policy coherence for sustainable development.

From this standpoint, the PCSDI shows that no country is properly developed and that we need new models across the globe. These new models must not only ensure social and productive coherence with a system geared towards people and national legislation protecting all social groups equitably, but also responsible behaviour vis-à-vis the planet and other human beings through democratic economic practice and effective contribution to a fair and environmentally sustainable global order to ensure the future.

The general PCSDI ranking

Of the countries analysed, 76% (113 countries) have lower-middle, low or very low scores, while only 24% (35 countries) stand in medium or high positions. In other words, generally speaking, countries neither design nor implement public policy by putting human beings and the sustainability of the planet at the heart of these policies. Nor do they adequately take on their global responsibilities. Therefore, all countries must overhaul their public policies in line with the sustainability of life, equity and justice, and global governance.

The PCSDI shows that no country is properly developed and that we need new models across the globe

Denmark leads the ranking with a score of 79.02 (on a scale from 0 to 100) while India is in last place with a score of 26.76. The group of 9 countries with a high PCSDI score is made up of five Nordic countries (Denmark, Iceland, Sweden, Norway and Finland) in addition to New Zealand, Australia, Portugal and Spain. These countries offer welfare and adequate economic, social and civil rights to a significant part of their population levels, but have tremendous environmental impact, as seen in their averages for the environmental component, far lower than the average score for the rest of the countries on that same component.

The group of 26 countries with a middle score is comprised mostly of high-income countries with a very high HDI. Western European countries prevail in this group, where the average on the environmental component is lower than the average for all of the countries taken together. This reflects the very significant environmental impact of their development. The only two Latin American countries in this category are Argentina and Uruguay, thanks to their high scores on the environmental component, although their scores on other components are weak. Japan is the only country from the Pacific and Oceania region in this group, which contains certain countries with very low scores on certain components. Switzerland, with a very low score on the economic component (the worst scoring due to financial opacity) and Belarus, among the 30 lowest ranking countries on the global component, stand as examples.

The most heterogeneous group is made up of 46 countries with a lower-middle ranking. Middle to high income countries from Latin America and Central Asia and Eastern Europe prevail to a certain extent in this group, although there are no clear patterns. For instance, the Netherlands scores second best on the global component while Israel scores the worst. Likewise, Nicaragua is the second ranking country of the 148 on the environmental component, and Luxembourg is the third worst scoring in that same ranking.

All countries must overhaul their public policies in line with the sustainability of life, equity and justice, and global governance

The 35 in the low scoring group are mostly middle and lower-middle income countries, most of which are in Sub-Saharan Africa and East Asia. This group is characterized by its lower scores than the average for the 148 countries on the five components. There are a set of five high income countries (United States, Singapore, Qatar, Kuwait and Trinidad and Tobago) that score relatively high on the social and productive components, but have very low scores on the environmental and global components.

In the very low PCSDI group comprising the 31 worst-ranking countries, two distinct patterns arise, but also some shared features. Most of these countries are low income. Sub-Saharan African countries scoring lower than average on all of the components except for the environmental component prevail. Yet there is a sub-group of 6 high income countries from the Middle East and North Africa (Iran, Lebanon, the United Arab Emirates, Bahrein, Oman and Saudi Arabia), that share significant shortcomings in human rights, gender equality, fiscal progressiveness and environmental sustainability.

The five components

The PCSDI economic component measures fiscal and financial policies to establish which are the most coherent in order to reduce inequality, ensure women's financial inclusion, combat financial opacity and enhance economic transparency. Finland scores the best on this count with 93.16 points while Lebanon scores the worst. Those scoring the best are countries with low rates of financialization and low opacity with well-endowed tax systems for collection and redistribution. There, the Nordic counties prevail. Among the worst scoring countries are those highly exposed to the financialization of the global economy which also significantly discriminate against women in their economic systems.

The PCSDI social component measures the behaviour of six public policies - education, social protection, equality, health, science and technology, and employment – in order to establish those that best ensure social rights and decent work. Iceland leads the ranking with a score of 88.10 and Guinea comes in last. The best-performing countries on the social component are mostly European. The Nordic countries excel. All of these countries share significant social protection and active policies on gender and vulnerable groups and are thus able to cover most of their population. The worst scoring countries, most of which are in Africa, have weak or almost non-existent social protection.

From the social component standpoint, coherence is determined by States' ability to safeguard social rights based on significant levels of social spending, incorporating feminist policies that address gaps between men and women.

The PCSDI global component measures behaviour in four public policies – justice and human rights, peace and security, cooperation, and human mobility and migrations. It establishes each country's degree of commitment to global democratic governance by evaluating its stances on international treaties and it penalises high degrees of militarization. Denmark ranks the highest on this component with a score of 84.51 while Israel comes in last. The best scoring countries on this component are those that, while making a positive contribution to global governance, have low degrees of militarization. Those prevailing among the worst scoring countries in this regard are both those that currently are or recently have been engaged in conflicts and those that have social structures heavily discriminating against women.

The PCSDI environmental component measures behaviour in four public policies – fisheries, rural and agricultural development, biodiversity and energy. It evaluates each country's national and global impact and its commitment to the main international environmental agreements. The scores on this component are the lowest of all five. Kenia leads with 69.92 points while Qatar brings up the rear. The scores on this component are also the most disruptive of the five as the challenges in confronting the environmental sustainability of development require the greatest transformation.

The best-scoring countries are low to very-low income. They include African countries whose development triggers low environmental impacts, mainly owing to low levels of development and consumption. Meanwhile, countries like Bolivia, Argentina and Brazil are characterised by their middle to high levels of development and great biodiversity. However, they all have great room for improvement, as reflected in their gaps vis-à-vis the best scoring countries on the environmental component.

It should be highlighted that none of the countries with high degrees of social welfare that customarily have been considered to be most developed countries stand among the 25 best scoring countries on the environmental component. Quite to the contrary, the 15 worst ranking countries on the environmental component are high income countries and all except one have very high HDI scores. Most of these countries have productive sectors highly focused on fossil fuel extraction, entailing noxious emissions and very large ecological footprints. The environmental component adequately spotlights differences in between countries in their environmental responsibility, which all countries share.

The PCSDI productive component measures the behaviour of three public policies (urban planning, infrastructure and transport, and industry). It establishes the balance struck between solid productive infrastructure and environmental and social factors. Iceland leads the ranking on this component with 94.60 points while the Democratic Republic of the Congo comes in last. European countries prevail among the best scoring on this component, and are in the company of some Latin American countries such as Uruguay, Argentina, Paraguay and Chile. While African countries with a paucity of productive infrastructure are among the worst scoring, China and India also fall into this category. Despite their high levels of production, their imbalances are great both in ecological terms and in terms of the geographical distribution of their productive infrastructure.

THE PCSDI AFFORDS NEW WAYS OF MEASURING AND UNDERSTANDING SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

The PCSDI falls within the context of efforts made by multilateral institutions to overcome the limitations observed in measuring progress based on the quantification of economic growth as the main indicator. Over the last few years, both the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) have developed new ways of measuring the multi-dimensional nature of development. The PCSDI stands as a transformative means of measuring countries' behaviour and status in the face of the challenges posed by the global development agendas such as the 2030 Agenda. The aim is to overcome the supremacy that GDP continues to have as a prescriber of public policy despite the evident shortcomings of its conception. The pressing transitions currently faced by the world today require solutions that factor in multi-dimensional measurements and the interdependency that we highlight involved in the challenges of sustainable development.

To this end, the PCSDI has chosen three fundamental areas that drive sustainable development and underpin indications of coherence: the ecological sustainability of development, the application of a feminist approach, and a democratisation dimension in society. In each one of its 5 components, the PCSDI includes variables that refer to each one of these three areas, thus providing a multi-dimensional picture of each one of the 19 policies analysed.

Lastly, it is useful to note the difference between the PCSDI and other rankings. As compared with the most consolidated measurement of human development, the updated and enhanced 2018 version of the Human Development Index (HDI), we observe that it is very true that the social component (very much aligned with the HDI) properly includes requirements for certain degrees of social development in order for a country to be considered more coherent. However, we can also observe significant deviations in countries with high HDIs because the PCSDI includes an environmental component that usually penalizes these countries due the high impact and ecological effects of their development models.

Given its specific approach to countries' behaviour vis-à-vis the 2030 Agenda and its 17 sustainable development goals (SDGs), we also compared the PCSDI with the SDG Index recently elaborated by the Sustainable Development Solutions Network (SDSN). Though slighter, there are still deviations of the most advanced countries in this comparison owing to their differences of approach. The PCSDI evaluates issues such as commitments to human rights, combatting gender violence, and degree of militarization, which are not present in the SDG index. Furthermore, the latter includes economic growth as positive while in the PCSDI it is not included as it does not necessarily contribute to sustainable development.

The PCSDI has chosen three fundamental areas that drive sustainable development and underpin indications of coherence: the ecological sustainability of development, the application of a feminist approach, and a democratisation dimension in society

Introduction

From the 2016 PCDI to the 2019 PCSDI

**INCLUDING THE TERM SUSTAINABLE
IN POLICY COHERENCE FOR DEVELOPMENT**

This report presents the policy coherence for sustainable development index (PCSDI) which comes to enhance the Policy Coherence for Development Index (PCDI) published in 2016. The inclusion of the term sustainable in the name of the tool underscores, particularly since the approval of the 2030 Agenda, and, as explained throughout this report, the need to take on and work with an ambitious, comprehensive policy coherence for development approach from a universal, cosmopolitan, comprehensive multi-dimensional perspective. A few years ago, the Policy Coherence for Sustainable Development Unit of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) led the inclusion of the term sustainable when speaking of Policy Coherence for Development. It did so to adapt this approach, first put forward in the 1990s, to the new challenges posed by the 2030 Agenda and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). More and more institutions and organizations are including this term given the growing awareness of the need to transform current development models to make them socially, economically and environmentally sustainable.

The policy coherence for sustainable development approach alludes to the required inclusion of sustainable development in the public policies of any given government. In other words, there must be a rethinking and reorienting of public policies to factor in their effects on the human welfare not only of those living within the country in question, but also of those feeling their effects beyond those borders. The sustainability of life on the planet must be considered.

AN ENHANCED PRODUCT
OF TRANSDISCIPLINARY RESEARCH

The first edition of the PCDI was published in 2016 after broad, intense research conducted by a multi-disciplinary team from the now defunct umbrella group Plataforma 2015 y más[1]. Once its activities ceased, the Spanish Platform of Development NGO, in cooperation with the Spanish Network of Development Studies (REEDES), took over the coordination of the initiative.

Over the last few years, work was done to revise and update the index in order to launch the edition presented in this report. As part of this process, an analysis of the methodology used in the 2016 index was analysed together with the coherence and solvency of the findings. A team was established for this purpose as well as a committee made up of representatives of the Spanish Platform of Development NGO, REEDES and individuals belonging to the initial group of researchers. Several meetings were also held to exchange views with various groups, organizations and experts in the field. Two teams specialised in statistics were also brought on board[2]. The following are the most significant modifications made in building the 2019 PCSDI:

- The threshold for analyzing missing data was modified to become stricter. It was set at 80%, to minimize the number of estimated data, thus making the tool more substantial.
- The set of variables taken as a starting point to build the index were revised and adjusted so that its pertinence and solvency could be examined in the light of the new available data.
- The methods for weighting the variables and components were modified for greater transparency and interpretive ease.
- Adjustments were made to the standardisation method by revising the maximum and minimum demarcations of the outliers in order to better reflect the specifics of each variable.
- The indicators were classified and interpreted according to their typology from the gender perspective in order to enhance the index's analytical capability and its potential for use in research and studies.
- The environmental component was overhauled in order to better capture environmental limitations associated with development.

The result brings a more solid, enhanced second edition similar to but also different from the first. Owing to these differences, the 2019 PCSDI findings are not comparable to the findings from the 2016 PCDI. Therefore, differences in country scores and rankings cannot be interpreted as variations in their policy coherence performance.

1. The umbrella group known as the Plataforma 2015 y más was a network of development NGOs specialised in research, education for development and advocacy that wound up in 2016.
2. Specifically, in the first phase of the process, the R+D Group "Métodos Cuantitativos para la Economía y la Empresa" (Quantitative methods for Economics and Business) from the Universidad de Cantabria and in the final phase of building the 2019 PCSDI, the consultancy Smart&City (http://www.smartandcity.com/).

Part one

The 2019 PCSDI

1.
The tool

The PCSDI examines policy coherence for sustainable development in 148 countries. In order to do so, through 57 indicators it evaluates the extent to which the public policies of these countries integrate the sustainable development perspective. The PCSDI is divided up into five components: economic, social, global, environmental and productive.

It is calculated by taking an average of these five components and thus offers a final ranking and five intermediate rankings, one per component. This enables countries' behavior to be taken comprehensively as well as by policy areas. It facilitates an analysis of the interdependencies, synergies and conflicts involved.

The PCSDI scores range from between 0 and 100, zero being the country that performs the worst on all of the five components taken together. A score of 100 would hypothetically be given to the country that obtains the highest score of all of the countries on all of the indicators of all of the components.

1.1. THE APPROACHES

Like the 2016 PCDI, the 2019 PCSDI is conceived from a broad, transformative understanding of development, and based on four interrelated approaches that enhance and complement each other (Martínez-Osés et al., 2016), i.e.:

Human development According to the PCSDI, policies that are coherent with sustainable development must be oriented to enhancing people's capabilities. This is why the PCSDI includes indicators that allow for evaluating the extent to which countries place human well-being at the heart of public policies.

Sustainable development The PCSDI is based on the recognition that people are eco-dependent beings. Coherent development policies must take the biophysical limits of the planet we inhabit into consideration. This is why the four dimensions (economic, social, environmental and political) are analysed along with their interdependencies.

Cosmopolitan development. In a globalized, interdependent world, countries' responsibilities cannot be limited to merely what lies within their geopolitical borders. From the PCSD perspective that this index uses, public policies must be designed and implemented by also taking into consideration their effects on other geographies and persons.

Gender perspective. No public policy is gender neutral. The PCSDI therefore approaches public policy by attempting to capture the extent to which it reproduces inequalities between men and women and the extent to which it attempts to combat them.

Human rights approach. The PCSDI considers people as rightsholders. This, among other things, means that countries must have solid institutions that safeguard these rights for the entire population, without any type of discrimination and with mechanisms that facilitate the empowerment and participation of citizens in generating public policies. Countries must also have transparent, effective accountability systems.

Table 1. PCSDI components and policies

Component	Policy
ECONOMIC	Fiscal
	Financial
SOCIAL	Education
	Social protection
	Equality
	Health
	Science & technology
	Employment
GLOBAL	Justice & Human Rights
	Defence, peace & security
	Cooperation
	Human mobility & migrations
ENVIRONMENTAL	Fisheries
	Rural development & agriculture
	Biodiversity
	Energy
PRODUCTIVE	Urban planning
	Infrastructure & transport
	Industry

1.2. THE STRUCTURE

The components and the policies

The PCSDI is divided up into five components: economic, social, global, environmental and productive. These components group together 19 public policies that are analyzed in order to evaluate the different countries and calculate how coherent their policies are with sustainable development, as shown on table 1.

This classification is strictly methodological in nature, aiming to structure and facilitate analysis and interpretation of findings. Therefore, in no event should it be understood as a sectorial approach to the analysis of the policies evaluated. Rather, in line with the index's approach, policies are examined from a more appropriate inter-sectorial standpoint for explaining the interdependence and multi-dimensionality of development processes. Each policy is thus analysed through the four dimensions of sustainable development (economic, social, environmental and political), in order to bring to light their interrelations, synergies, conflicts and trade-offs.
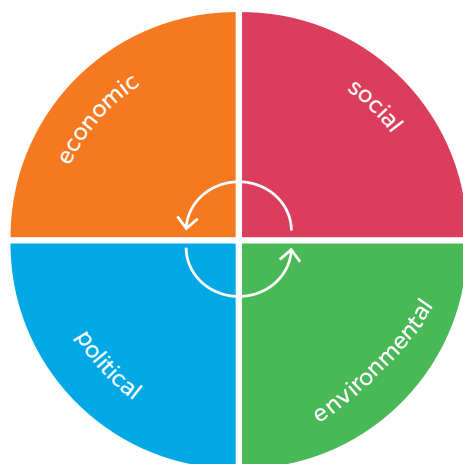
Variables

The 2019 PCSDI is built on 57 variables grouped under the five components and the 19 previously mentioned policies, as seen in table 2. As can be seen, the social and global components have the most indicators, followed by the environmental, productive and economic components. The number of variables per component depends on different factors. To be highlighted are basically the number of policies that each encompasses and the availability of data worldwide to be used with PCSDI as some do not align with dominant approaches. This, to an extent, limited available information. As subsequently explained, the variables and components are given equal weighting to calculate the index, meaning that the greater the number of variables in the component, the lesser each variable's average weight in the final result will be.

In turn, these 57 indicators are grouped into two categories. One includes those that positively impact development, such as healthy living, access to water, or proportion of women parliamentarians, all weighing positively in the PCSDI, while the other includes those that evaluate policy elements thwarting sustainable development such as the ecological footprint, CO_2 emissions, and financial opacity.

The 2019 PCSDI is built on 57 variables grouped under the five components (economic, social, global, environmental and productive)

Table 2. Number of variables per policy and component

Components	Policies	Num. Variables per policy	Num. Variables per component
ECONOMIC	Fiscal	3	5
	Financial	2	
SOCIAL	Education	4	21
	Social protection	2	
	Equality	5	
	Health	4	
	Science & technology	3	
	Employment	3	
GLOBAL	Justice & Human Rights	7	16
	Peace & security	6	
	Cooperation	2	
	Human mobility & migrations	1	
ENVIRONMENTAL	Fisheries	1	8
	Rural development & agriculture	1	
	Biodiversity	3	
	Energy	3	
PRODUCTIVE	Urban planning	2	7
	Infrastructure & transport	3	
	Industry	2	

With this set of indicators, the PCSDI aims to capture the complexity of the host of often contradictory effects that policies have on sustainable development. The group of variables that penalised development have been included to enable the index to spotlight both direct and indirect negative public policy impacts on development processes and draw attention to the aspects and practices that must be transformed or even eliminated. Again, one of the breakthroughs of the PCSDI is its comprehensive, multidimensional analysis of public policy. By paying close attention to their interaction and interdependence from a sustainable development perspective, it can identify, spotlight and address potential synergies, tension and conflicts thus opening the door for their transformation.

Of the 57 indicators underpinning the 2019 PCSDI, 38 (or 67%) contribute positively to development, while 19 (33%) are variables that penalise the score. Table 3 illustrates the list of 2019 PCSDI indicators in line with this classification per component.

Table 3. 2019 PCSDI variables classified according to their contribution to development

Component	Contributing Variables		Penalizing Variables	
ECONOMIC	FIS1	General government revenue (% GDP)	FIS6	Financial Secrecy Index
	FIS3	Variation rate of the Gini index before and after taxes and transfers	F2	Oversized banking sector
			F4	Account at a financial institution: difference between men and women (%)
SOCIAL	EDU5	Survival rate to the last grade of secondary education, both sexes (%)	EDU8	Pupil-teacher ratio in pre-primary education
	PS1	Public social protection expenditure (% of GDP)	EDU9	Pupil-teacher ratio in primary education
	PS5	Old age pension beneficiaries (%)	EDU14	Repetition rate in primary education (all grades), both sexes (%)
	IG1	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%)	IG2	Vulnerable employment, female (% of female employment)
	IG5_6_7	Legislation against gender violence, sexual harassment and marital rape	EM1	Unemployment rate
	IG11_12	Maternity an paternity leaves	EM6	Vulnerable employment, total (% of total employment)
	IG14	Position at the UN in favour of the LGTBI community		
	S2	Healthy life expectancy at birth (years)		
	S3	Medical doctors (per 10 000 population)		
	S9	Universal Health Coverage Index		
	S11	Improved sanitation facilities (%population with access)		
	CIT1	Internet access in schools		
	CIT6	Percentage of students in tertiary education who are female		
	CIT13	Percentage of graduates from tertiary education who are female (%)		
	EM4	Share of unemployed receiving regular periodic social security unemployment benefits (%)		

Component		Contributing Variables		Penalizing Variables
GLOBAL	J3	Abolition of the death penalty	PYS1	Military expenditure (% of GDP)
	J4_5	Legality of homosexuality and equal marriage	PYS3	Armed forces personnel (per 100,000 inhabitants)
	J6	Ratification of UN Human Rights treaties	PYS4	Ease of access to small arms and light weapons
	J8	Universal Jurisdiction	PYS9	Nuclear and heavy weapons capabilities
	J9	Ratification of Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court		
	J10	Legislation on abortion		
	J13_14_15	Women's rights in the sphere of justice		
	PYS6	Participation in international arms treaties and conventions		
	PYS12	Plan of action to implement UN Security Council Resolution 1325		
	C5	Contributions to UNWOMEN (GDP per capita)		
	C6	Contributions to UNEP (GDP per cápita)		
	M4_5	Convention and Protocole relating to the Status of Refugees and International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families		
ENVIRON-MENTAL	P4	Clean water	DR9	Fertilizers use
	B10	Participation in international environmental agreements	B2	Ecological footprint of production (gha per person)
	B13	Biocapacity reserves/deficit (ha. per person)	EN2	Ecological footprint of imports (gha per person)
	EN1	Electricity production from renewable sources, excluding hydroelectric (% of total)	EN4	Carbon Dioxide Emissions (metric tons per person)
PRODUCTIVE	U2	Improved sanitation facilities, urban sector (% of population with access)	U4	PM2.5 air pollution, mean annual exposure (micrograms per cubic meter)
	IT3	Improved water sources, rural sector (% of the population with access)	IN5	Annual freshwater withdrawals, industry (% of total freshwater withdrawal)
	IT4	Access to electricity (% population)		
	IT5	Internet users (per 100 people)		
	IN7	Ratifications of the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention		

The index PCSD approach conceives this as mainstreaming the sustainable development perspective throughout the public policy cycle, that is, in its design, formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. This is why the index includes different types of indicators that allow for gleaning information on all of these phases of public policy generation. As seen on figure 1, of the 57 indicators in the index, 28 (49%) measure public policy design elements (in terms of inputs and stances) and their direct impact, while 29 indicators (51%) attempt to capture more complex results tied to interaction with other polices and contextual elements[3].

The PCSDI makes a particular effort to include the gender perspective in policy analysis. Of the 57 indicators comprising the PCSDI, 11 (19%) evaluate women's specific situation in significant areas of their economic, social and political spheres, for instance the number of female parliamentarians or the percentage of women in vulnerable employment. Nine of the indicators (16%) measure aspects that are significantly important for quality of life and that notably determine the chances of attaining effective equality, for instance public spending on social protection and access to electricity, water and sanitation, as it is normally women who carry the burden of working to make up for these services' lacking or not offering sufficient quality.

Figure 1.Number of variables by typology

7 6 15 29

■ Policy input

■ Policy output

■ Outcomes

■ Stance

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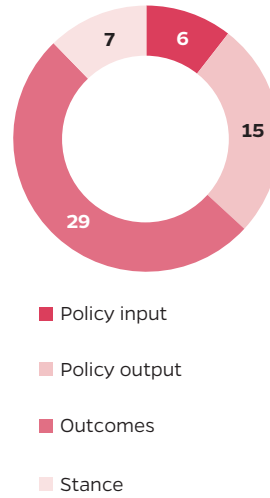
3. This classification is inspired on the proposal put forward by King, M., & Matthews, A. (2011). *Policy coherence for development: indicators for Ireland*. Report for the Advisory Board for Irish Aid, for the analysis of Ireland.

Table 4. Variables by typology and gender marker

Code	Name of the variable	Type of PCSD indicator	Gender marker
FIS1	General government revenue (% GDP)	Policy input	Significant
FIS3	Variation rate of the Gini index before and after taxes and transfers	Policy output	Significant
FIS6	Financial Secrecy Index	Outcomes	-
F2	Oversized banking sector	Outcomes	-
F4	Account at a financial institution: difference between men and women (%)	Policy output	Main
EDU5	Survival rate to the last grade of secondary education, both sexes (%)	Outcomes	-
EDU8	Pupil-teacher ratio in pre-primary education	Outcomes	-
EDU9	Pupil-teacher ratio in primary education	Outcomes	-
EDU14	Repetition rate in primary education (all grades), both sexes (%)	Outcomes	-
PS1	Public social protection expenditure (% of GDP)	Policy input	Significant
PS5	Old age pension beneficiaries (%)	Policy output	-
IG1	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%)	Outcomes	Main
IG2	Vulnerable employment, female (% of female employment)	Outcomes	Main
IG5_6_7	Legislation against gender violence, sexual harassment and marital rape	Policy output	Main
IG11_12	Maternity an paternity leaves	Policy output	Main
IG14	Position at the UN in favour of the LGTBI community	Stance	-
S2	Healthy life expectancy at birth (years)	Outcomes	-
S3	Medical doctors (per 10 000 population)	Policy output	-
S9	Universal Health Coverage Index	Policy output	Significant
S11	Improved sanitation facilities (% population with access)	Outcomes	Significant
CIT1	Internet access in schools	Policy output	-
CIT6	Percentage of students in tertiary education who are female	Outcomes	Main
CIT13	Percentage of graduates from tertiary education who are female (%)	Outcomes	Main
EM1	Unemployment rate	Outcomes	-
EM4	Share of unemployed receiving regular periodic social security unemployment benefits (%)	Policy output	-
EM6	Vulnerable employment, total (% of total employment)	Outcomes	Significant
J3	Abolition of the death penalty	Policy output	-
J4_5	Legality of homosexuality and equal marriage	Policy output	-
J6	Ratification of UN Human Rights treaties	Stance	-
J8	Universal Jurisdiction	Policy output	-
J9	Ratification of Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court	Stance	-
J10	Legislation on abortion	Policy output	Main
J13_14_15	Women's rights in the sphere of justice	Policy output	Main
PYS1	Military expenditure (% of GDP)	Policy input	-
PYS3	Armed forces personnel (per 100,000 inhabitants)	Policy input	-
PYS4	Ease of access to small arms and light weapons	Outcomes	-

Table 4. Variables by typology and gender marker

Code	Name of the variable	Type of PCSD indicator	Gender marker
PYS6	Participation in international arms treaties and conventions	Stance	-
PYS9	Nuclear and heavy weapons capabilities	Outcomes	-
PYS12	Plan of action to implement UN Security Council Resolution 1325	Policy output	Main
C5	Contributions to UNWOMEN (GDP per capita)	Policy input	Main
C6	Contributions to UNEP (GDP per cápita)	Policy input	-
M4_5	Convention and Protocole relating to the Status of Refugees and International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families	Stance	-
P4	Clean water	Outcomes	-
DR9	Fertilizers use	Outcomes	-
B2	Ecological footprint of production (gha per person)	Outcomes	-
B10	Participation in international environmental agreements	Stance	-
B13	Biocapacity reserves/deficit (ha. per person)	Outcomes	-
EN1	Electricity production from renewable sources, excluding hydroelectric (% of total)	Outcomes	-
EN2	Ecological footprint of imports (gha per person)	Outcomes	-
EN4	Carbon Dioxide Emissions (Metric Tons per Person)	Outcomes	-
U2	Improved sanitation facilities, urban sector (% of population with access)	Outcomes	Significant
U4	PM2.5 air pollution, mean annual exposure (micrograms per cubic meter)	Outcomes	-
IT3	Improved water sources, rural sector (% of the population with access)	Outcomes	Significant
IT4	Access to electricity (% population)	Outcomes	Significant
IT5	Internet users (per 100 people)	Outcomes	-
IN5	Annual freshwater withdrawals, industry (% of total freshwater withdrawal)	Outcomes	-
IN7	Ratifications of the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention	Stance	-

The sources

Most of the data used to build the PCSDI come from official sources generated by major international institutions and bodies such as the World Bank, UNESCO and the United Nations.

However, it was not always possible to find official sources providing quantitative information to evaluate policies comprehensively and critically as the PCSDI does. Therefore, in certain cases, non-official sources needed to be used, as were indicators elaborated by think tanks and community based organisations recognized for their reliability were used as well. The Tax Justice Network's Financial Secrecy Index, Global Footprint Network's ecological footprint, and the Institute for Economics & Peace's Global Peace Index all stand as examples.

In addition, the research team has built some indicators from data emanating from both official and non-official sources. Most of these are variables that verify the ratification, membership and/or signing of international treaties or legislation pertinent to the sustainable development approach and the gender and human rights approaches. Standing as examples are variable "J6. Ratification of UN Human Rights treaties", elaborated with UN information, and variable "J4_5. Legality of Homosexuality and Equal Marriage" with information from the International Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Trans and Intersex Association (ILGA).

Figure 2 shows the sources of the 57 variables comprising the 2019 PCSDI by their typology. The list of these sources appears in the appendix at the end of this report.

Nonetheless, it is important to note that there are several aspects that could not be included in the 2019 PCSDI because of the lack of data availability enabling political

Figure 2. Sources of variables by typology

- Official sources
- Non official sources
- Built with official sources
- Built with non official sources
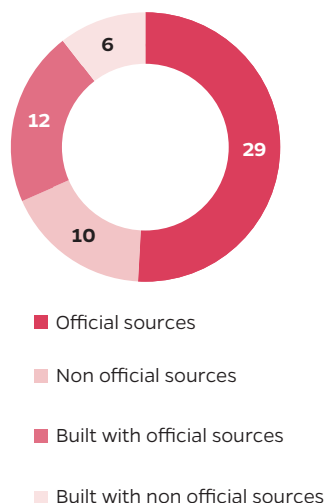
processes and their results in such a large group of countries to be analysed from comprehensive, multi-dimensional perspectives factoring in the approaches put forward in this index. This can be seen particularly when identifying indicators broken down by gender and variables enabling this variety of perspectives to be used to measure direct foreign investment, international trade, and country's performance in certain specific sectors.

Finally, it should be noted that the data were taken mostly between February and June 2018. Because there is usually a lag in publishing statistical information, most of the variables refer to the 2014 to 2017 period, although there are fewer variables that refer to other periods, in some cases to 2018.

The countries

The 2019 PCSDI offers a PCSD ranking for 148 countries, as compared with the 133 countries that it evaluated in its 2016 edition. In line with the cosmopolitan viewpoint imbuing the PCSDI, these countries present different scores and socio-economic and geopolitical profiles. The final selection was made base on the criterion of having enough statistical information. The index includes 15 additional countries thanks to greater availability of information than when this index was published in 2016.

In terms of the World Bank income groups, of the 148 countries, 48 are high income, 41 are upper-middle income, 35 are lower-middle income and 23 are low income. Insofar as their human development, 54 countries have very high scores, 38 have high scores, 30 have middle scores and 26 have low scores.

In addition, the countries are grouped into eight geo-political regions. By number of countries, those most present in the PCSDI are in the Sub-Saharan Africa region (36),

Figure 3. Number of countries by income level

- High income
- Upper-middle income
- Lower-middle income
- Low income
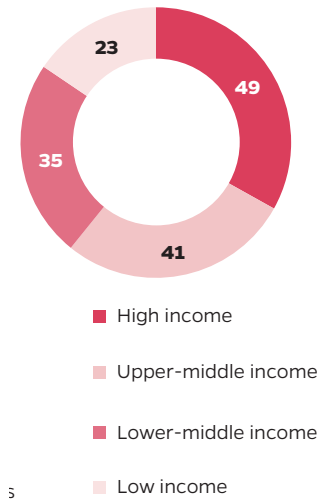
Figure 4. Number of countries by HDI score

- Very high HDI
- High HDI
- Middle HDI
- Low HDI
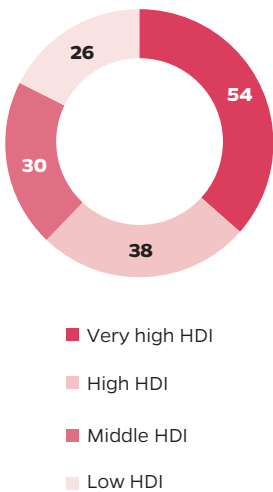
followed by Western Europe, USA and Canada (30), and then by Latin America and the Caribbean (24), Central Asia and Eastern Europe (20), and Middle East and North Africa (16). Among the regions with the fewest countries are East Asia (10) South Asia (7), and Pacific and Oceania (5).

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Figure 5. Number of countries by region

- Sub-Saharan Africa
- Western Europe, USA and Canada
- Latin America and the Caribbean
- Central Asia and Eastern Europe
- Middle East and North Africa
- East Asia
- South Asia
- Pacific and Oceania
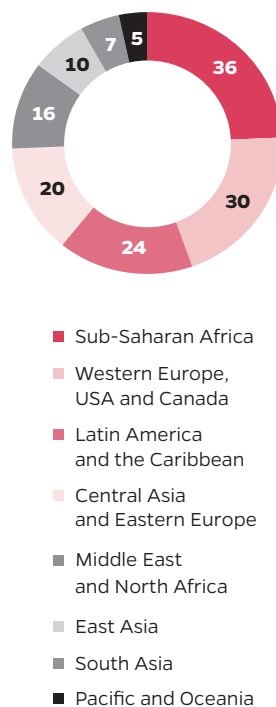
2.
2019 PCSDI findings

2.1. THE 2019 PCSDI RANKING

Economic
Social
Global
Environmental
Productive

0-20

20-40

40-60

60-80

80-100
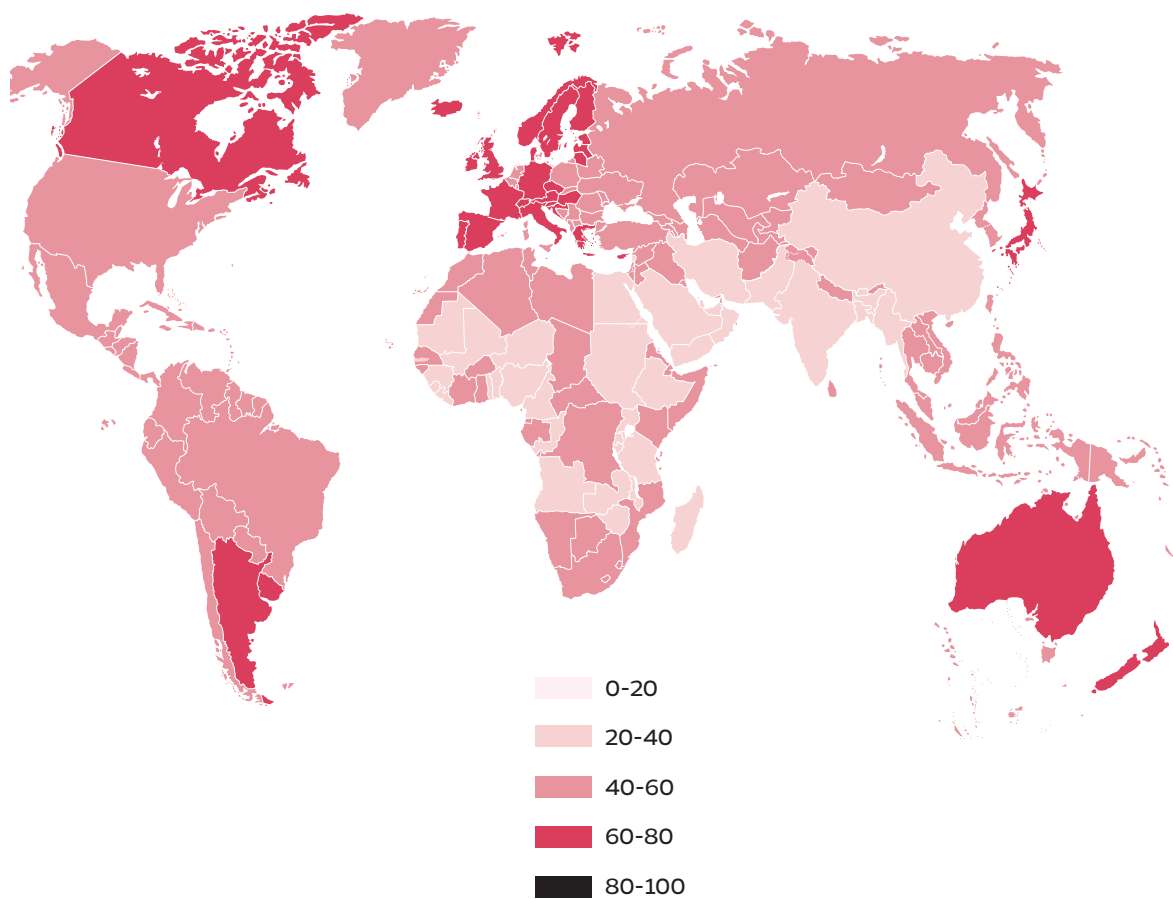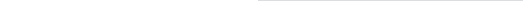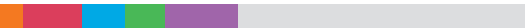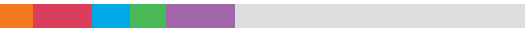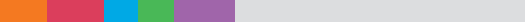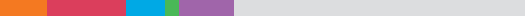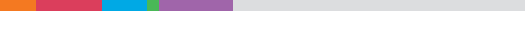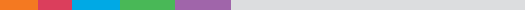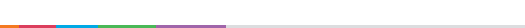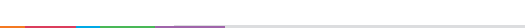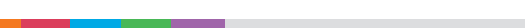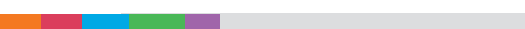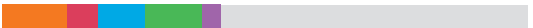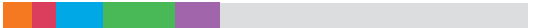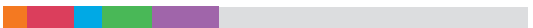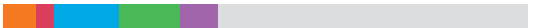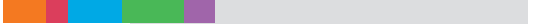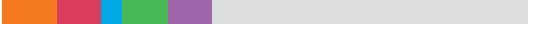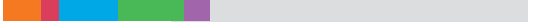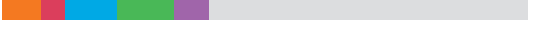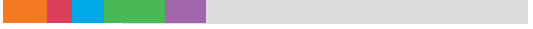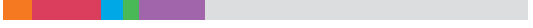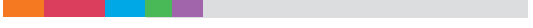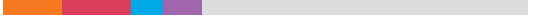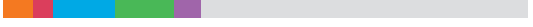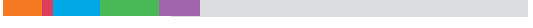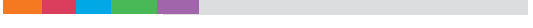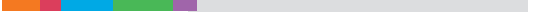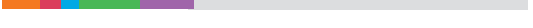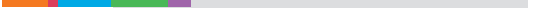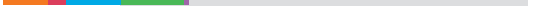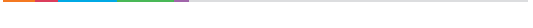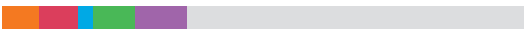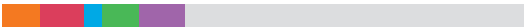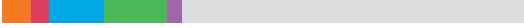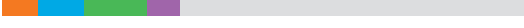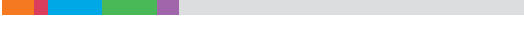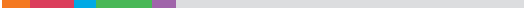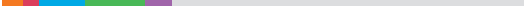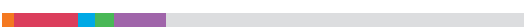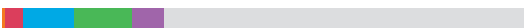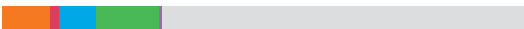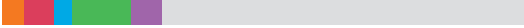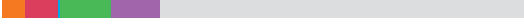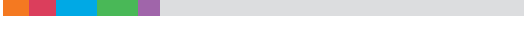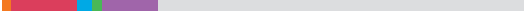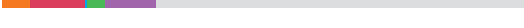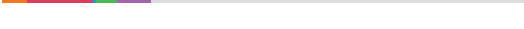
ORDER	COUNTRY	SCORE	COMPONENTS
1	**Denmark**	**79.02**	
2	**Iceland**	**77.18**	
3	**Sweden**	**73.21**	
4	**Norway**	**72.75**	
5	**Portugal**	**71.71**	
6	**New Zealand**	**71.25**	
7	**Australia**	**70.61**	
8	**Finland**	**70.40**	
9	**Spain**	**69.37**	
10	**Croatia**	**68.42**	
11	**Ireland**	**66.92**	
12	**Argentina**	**66.40**	
13	**Cyprus**	**65.86**	
14	**Greece**	**65.57**	
15	**Hungary**	**65.23**	
16	**United Kingdom**	**64.95**	
17	**Austria**	**64.73**	
18	**Latvia**	**64.67**	
19	**Malta**	**64.53**	
20	**Slovakia**	**64.30**	
21	**Germany**	**64.16**	
22	**Italy**	**64.06**	
23	**Serbia**	**64.02**	
24	**Uruguay**	**63.24**	
25	**Japan**	**62.98**	

ORDER	COUNTRY	SCORE	COMPONENTS
26	**Canada**	**62.97**	
27	**Czechia**	**62.15**	
28	**France**	**61.62**	
29	**Switzerland**	**61.56**	
30	**Estonia**	**61.49**	
31	**Slovenia**	**60.82**	
32	**Lithuania**	**60.69**	
33	**Georgia**	**59.12**	
34	**Belarus**	**58.91**	
35	**Belgium**	**58.81**	
36	**Kyrgyzstan**	**58.08**	
37	**Bosnia and Herzegovina**	**57.90**	
38	**Netherlands**	**57.89**	
39	**Montenegro**	**57.78**	
40	**Albania**	**57.46**	
41	**Mauritius**	**57.44**	
42	**Luxembourg**	**57.32**	
43	**Paraguay**	**57.26**	
44	**Brazil**	**57.07**	
45	**Moldavia**	**56.98**	
46	**Guyana**	**56.74**	
47	**Chile**	**56.28**	
48	**Bolivia**	**56.27**	
49	**Cuba**	**56.16**	
50	**Poland**	**56.10**	

ORDER	COUNTRY	SCORE	COMPONENTS
51	**Costa Rica**	**55.99**	
52	**North Macedonia**	**55.61**	
53	**Ecuador**	**55.39**	
54	**Azerbaijan**	**55.09**	
55	**Philippines**	**54.88**	
56	**Fiji**	**54.84**	
57	**Mexico**	**54.73**	
58	**Panama**	**54.33**	
59	**Kazakhstan**	**54.17**	
60	**South Africa**	**54.15**	
61	**Dominican Republic**	**54.06**	
62	**Armenia**	**54.05**	
63	**Uzbekistan**	**54.01**	
64	**Bulgaria**	**53.88**	
65	**Romania**	**53.82**	
66	**Barbados**	**53.09**	
67	**Cape Verdi**	**52.92**	
68	**Nicaragua**	**52.64**	
69	**Belize**	**52.48**	
70	**Jamaica**	**51.65**	
71	**Venezuela**	**51.60**	
72	**Ukraine**	**50.74**	
73	**Maldives**	**50.66**	
74	**Honduras**	**50.51**	
75	**Israel**	**50.02**	

ORDER	COUNTRY	SCORE	COMPONENTS
76	**Peru**	**49.71**	
77	**Tajikistan**	**49.60**	
78	**South Korea**	**49.45**	
79	**Russia**	**48.96**	
80	**Senegal**	**48.57**	
81	**Tunisia**	**47.98**	
82	**El Salvador**	**47.27**	
83	**Indonesia**	**47.20**	
84	**Namibia**	**47.19**	
85	**Mongolia**	**46.78**	
86	**Colombia**	**46.49**	
87	**Botswana**	**46.03**	
88	**Turkey**	**45.52**	
89	**Malaysia**	**45.04**	
90	**Vietnam**	**45.03**	
91	**United States**	**44.72**	
92	**Trinidad and Tobago**	**44.58**	
93	**Cambodia**	**44.08**	
94	**Thailand**	**43.83**	
95	**Ghana**	**43.71**	
96	**Jordan**	**43.65**	
97	**Morocco**	**43.26**	
98	**Sri Lanka**	**43.14**	
99	**Guatemala**	**42.99**	
100	**Nepal**	**41.97**	

ORDER	COUNTRY	SCORE	COMPONENTS
101	**Lesotho**	**41.88**	
102	**Kenya**	**41.72**	
103	**Algeria**	**41.26**	
104	**Ivory Coast**	**41.08**	
105	**Kuwait**	**41.05**	
106	**Mozambique**	**40.63**	
107	**Burkina Faso**	**40.56**	
108	**Iraq**	**40.09**	
109	**Madagascar**	**39.78**	
110	**Zambia**	**39.37**	
111	**Zimbabwe**	**38.84**	
112	**Singapore**	**38.63**	
113	**China**	**38.32**	
114	**Qatar**	**38.22**	
115	**Ruanda**	**37.94**	
116	**Malawi**	**37.91**	
117	**Bhutan**	**37.52**	
118	**Gambia**	**37.20**	
119	**Yemen**	**36.66**	
120	**Burundi**	**36.17**	
121	**Cameroon**	**35.51**	
122	**Niger**	**35.37**	
123	**Sierra Leona**	**35.24**	
124	**Mali**	**35.23**	
125	**Togo**	**35.11**	

ORDER	COUNTRY	SCORE	COMPONENTS
126	**Iran**	**35.06**	
127	**Egypt**	**34.80**	
128	**Uganda**	**34.31**	
129	**Guinea**	**33.77**	
130	**Benin**	**33.57**	
131	**Myanmar**	**32.98**	
132	**Tanzania**	**32.43**	
133	**Mauritania**	**32.30**	
134	**Congo (DR)**	**31.80**	
135	**Lebanon**	**31.79**	
136	**Angola**	**31.71**	
137	**Ethiopia**	**31.53**	
138	**Liberia**	**31.49**	
139	**United Arab Emirates**	**30.96**	
140	**Nigeria**	**30.87**	
141	**Congo (Rep.)**	**30.45**	
142	**Sudan**	**30.39**	
143	**Pakistan**	**30.02**	
144	**Bangladesh**	**29.92**	
145	**Bahrein**	**29.60**	
146	**Oman**	**29.31**	
147	**Saudi Arabia**	**28.36**	
148	**India**	**26.76**	

2.2. THE 2019 PCSDI: ALL COUNTRIES MUST TRANSFORM THEIR DEVELOPMENT MODEL

In this second edition of the index, Denmark comes in first in the ranking with a score of 79.02 while India brings up the rear with a score of 26.76 points.

Figure 6 shows the breakdown of PCSDI countries into five groups after dividing the scores into quintiles, that is, five segments of equal value. As can be seen in the figure, most countries (76%) show low PCSD scores (very low, low and low-to-middle) while 26 countries (18%) have middle PCSD scores and only 9 countries (un 6%) are in the high PCSDI group.

What follows is the analysis of each of these five groups with a view to identify their specificities and fundamental challenges and bring out their main interdependencies, contradictions and the conflicts between the different policy areas and dimensions of sustainable development.

Figure 6. Number of countries broken down into PCSDI groups

Very low PCSDI	31
Low PCSDI	36
Lower-middle PCSDI	46
Middle PCSDI	26
High PCSDI	9
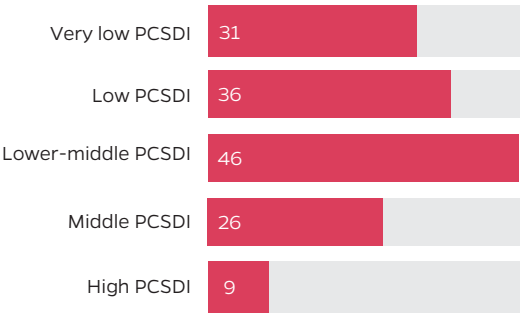
Generally speaking, countries neither design nor implement their public policies by putting people and the sustainability of the planet at the heart of their public policies. Nor are they sufficiently taking on their global responsibilities. All countries therefore must overhaul their public policies in line with the sustainability of life, with equity, and with justice and global governance

High PCSDI

The high PCSDI group is made up of nine high income and high HDI countries. Seven are European and two, New Zealand and Australia, belong to the Pacific and Oceania region. Of the European Countries, five are Nordic (Denmark, Iceland, Sweden, Norway and Finland) and two are from the Mediterranean area (Portugal and Spain). The scores in this group of countries range between 79.02 points for Denmark and 69.37 for Spain. As shown on the table, none of the countries in the ranking scores higher than 80 points.

Figure 7 allows for comparing the average of this group of countries to the overall 148 countries, both in terms of their total PCSDI scores and for the scores on each component. As can be gleaned from the figure, the group of high PCSDI countries has values that are significantly higher than the overall scores of all of the countries on all of the components except the environmental component where they are almost four points lower. Furthermore, the figure depicts the average scores of the high PCSDI group on the environmental component (41.5) which is far lower than it is on the remaining components (for which the average is roughly 80 points).

Generally speaking, this reflects the fact that these countries have development models that provide a significant part of their population with well-being and adequate economic, social and civil rights, yet they have an enormous impact environmentally. The cost of their lifestyle is a burden carried by others elsewhere. Thus, although these countries' inhabitants can enjoy acceptable levels of well-being, they cannot be considered models to be aspired to or followed as their development patterns are unsustainable and have a negative impact on others elsewhere. These models therefore cannot be extended around the rest of the globe.

Table 5. High PCSDI countries

Ranking	Country	PCSDI
1	Denmark	79.02
2	Iceland	77.18
3	Sweden	73.21
4	Norway	72.75
5	Portugal	71.71
6	New Zealand	71.25
7	Australia	70.61
8	Finland	70.40
9	Spain	69.37

Figure 7. High PCSDI countries. Breakdown by components (average scores)

	High PCSDI countries	All countries
PCSDI	72.8	49.5
Economic	79.9	46.1
Social	81.8	52.1
Global	79.1	49.0
Environmental	41.5	45.0
Productive	81.8	55.3
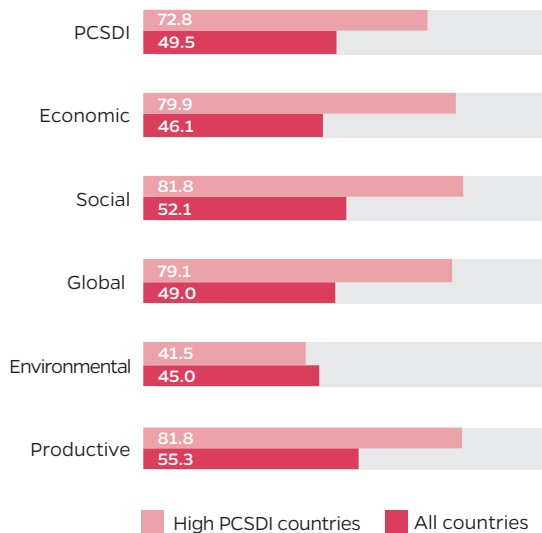
Norway
An unsustainable development model that cannot be spread around the globe

Norway is a high-ranking PCSDI country that performs well on the economic, social, global and productive components. However, it scores very low on the environmental component due to its welfare model's severe ecological impact. Because of its model's environmental interdependencies and impacts (within and beyond its borders), it cannot be made universal. It is thus more important for Norway to overhaul its policies than it is to take it as a development model to emulate

Norway

PCSDI

72.75

Position: 4

Components

Component	Value
Economic	90.7
Social	84.5
Global	81.1
Environmental	29.9
Productive	77.6
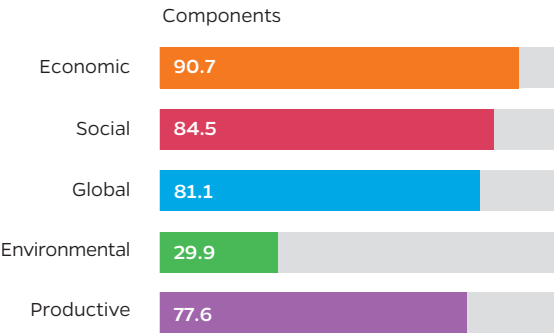
Income	High income
HDI	Very high HDI
Region	Western Europe, USA, and Canada

Middle PCSDI

The middle PCSDI group is made up of 26 countries spanning position 10 in the ranking, occupied by Croatia, and position 36, occupied by Belgium. Most of these countries are high income (23 of the 26). The group includes only two middle income countries (Serbia and Belarus) and one other middle-low income country (Georgia). Furthermore, 24 of the 26 countries have very high HDI while the other two (Serbia and Georgia) have a high HDI.

The prevailing geopolitical regions in this group, accounting for 19 of the 26 countries, are Western Europe, USA and Canada. There are also four countries from Central Asia and Eastern Europe in this group (Cyprus, Serbia, Georgia, Belarus), two from Latin America and the Caribbean (Argentina and Uruguay) and one from the Pacific and Oceania (Japan).

As in the previous category, the average score of the middle PCSDI countries falls above the 148 countries in the ranking on all of the components except the environmental component, for which their average falls nearly seven points below. As in the high PCSDI group, the main challenges here are found in their development models' ecological impact on the planet as a whole. Belgium can be singled out as an example, as it is one of the five worst scoring countries among the 148 that the PCSDI evaluates. The only two countries from Latin America and the Caribbean (Argentina and Uruguay) with medium PCSDI scores are those that score the best in their group on the environmental component.

On the other four components, these countries have more room for improvement in human rights and the sustainability of their production models. One of the 30 worst scoring countries in the overall ranking on the global component (Belarus) is in this group.

Table 6. Middle PCSDI countries

Ranking	Country	PCSDI
10	Croatia	68.42
11	Ireland	66.92
12	Argentina	66.40
13	Cyprus	65.86
14	Greece	65.57
15	Hungary	65.23
16	United Kingdom	64.95
17	Austria	64.73
18	Latvia	64.67
19	Malta	64.53
20	Slovakia	64.30
21	Germany	64.16
22	Italy	64.06
23	Serbia	64.02
24	Uruguay	63.24
25	Japan	62.98
26	Canada	62.97
27	Czechia	62.15
28	France	61.62
29	Switzerland	61.56
30	Estonia	61.49
31	Slovenia	60.82
32	Lithuania	60.69
33	Georgia	59.12
34	Belarus	58.91
35	Belgium	58.81

Figure 8. Middle PCSDI countries.
Breakdown by components (average scores)

Component	Middle PCSDI countries	All countries
PCSDI	63.4	49.5
Economic	69.7	46.1
Social	74.1	52.1
Global	65.7	49.0
Environmental	38.1	45.0
Productive	69.3	55.3

Middle PCSDI countries — All countries
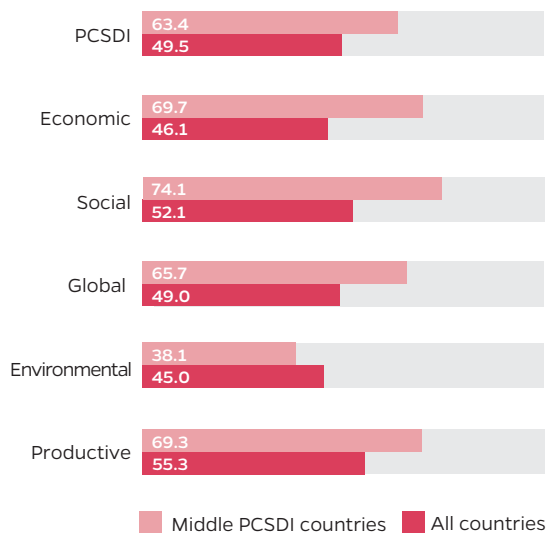
Switzerland
A development model with high economic and environmental costs for the planet

Switzerland has a middle PCSDI score, performing well on the social, global and productive components. However, its scores very low on the economic and environmental components. Economically speaking, out of the 148 in the ranking, it is the country with the greatest financial opacity. It is also a country with an ecological deficit, that is, it cannot support itself without consuming resources from elsewhere

Switzerland

PCSDI

61.56

Position: 29

Components

Component	Score
Economic	32.8
Social	80.7
Global	79.8
Environmental	35.9
Productive	78.7
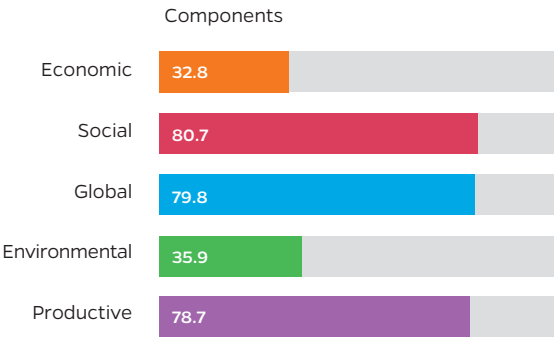
Income	High income
HDI	Very high HDI
Region	Western Europe, USA, and Canada

Lower-middle PCSDI countries

In the lower-middle PCSDI group are 46 countries ranking between position 36, occupied by Kirghizstan, and position 81, occupied by Tunisia. The scores range from 58.08 to 47.98.

This is the most heterogeneous group in terms of income, HDI scores and geographical area. Of the 46 countries in this group, 26 are upper middle-income countries, 10 are lower-middle income, 8 are high income and 2 are low income. Insofar as their HDI scores, 24 are countries with high HDI, 12 with very high HDI, 9 with middle HDI and 1 with low HDI. The prevailing regions are Latin America and the Caribbean

(18 countries) and Central Asia and Eastern Europe (15 countries), followed by Sub-Saharan Africa (4 countries), Western Europe, USA and Canada (3) and both Pacific and Oceania and Middle East and North Africa with 2 countries each. There is also one country from East Asia region (The Philippines) in this group and another from South Asia (Maldives).

As can be seen in figure 9, on average, this group of countries scores very close to the average value for the countries evaluated in the PCSDI.

Only on the productive component do they score significantly better that the 148 countries examined. This highlights that, overall, these countries have more balanced systems of production in terms of access to services and infrastructure and environmental sustainability. They are the worst scoring countries however on the economic and environmental components.

Because of their diversity and heterogeneity, their scores should nevertheless be interpreted with caution. Indeed, in this group certain countries have very high scores on certain components and at the same time very low scores on others, making it difficult to draw behavioural patterns. For instance, on the global component, the group includes the Netherlands with the second-best score of the 148 countries examined on the environmental component, and at the same time it encompasses Luxembourg, the third worst scoring country on this same component.

Table 7. Lower-middle PCSDI countries

Ranking	Country	PCSDI
36	Kyrgyzstan	58.08
37	Bosnia and Herzegovina	57.90
38	Netherlands	57.89
39	Montenegro	57.78
40	Albania	57.46
41	Mauritius	57.44
42	Luxembourg	57.32
43	Paraguay	57.26
44	Brazil	57.07
45	Moldavia	56.98
46	Guyana	56.74
47	Chile	56.28
48	Bolivia	56.27
49	Cuba	56.16
50	Poland	56.10
51	Costa Rica	55.99
52	North Macedonia	55.61
53	Ecuador	55.39
54	Azerbaijan	55.09
55	Philippines	54.88
56	Fiji	54.84
57	Mexico	54.73
58	Panama	54.33
59	Kazakhstan	54.17
60	South Africa	54.15
61	Dominican Republic	54.06
62	Armenia	54.05
63	Uzbekistan	54.01
64	Bulgaria	53.88
65	Romania	53.82
66	Barbados	53.09
67	Cape Verdi	52.92
68	Nicaragua	52.64
69	Belize	52.48
70	Jamaica	51.65
71	Venezuela	51.60
72	Ukraine	50.74
73	Maldives	50.66
74	Honduras	50.51
75	Israel	50.02
76	Peru	49.71
77	Tajikistan	49.60
78	South Korea	49.45
79	Russia	48.96
80	Senegal	48.57
81	Tunisia	47.98

Figure 9. Lower-middle PCSDI countries. Breakdown by components (average scores)

	Lower middle PCSDI countries	All countries
PCSDI	54.0	49.5
Economic	46.6	46.1
Social	58.9	52.1
Global	50.9	49.0
Environmental	47.6	45.0
Productive	66.3	55.3

Israel
A country that is not committed to human rights and does not take on its global responsibilities

Israel scores in the medium low category on the PCSDI. It performs well on the production and social components and moderately on the economic component. Yet it is the worst scoring of all of the 148 analysed on the global component owing to its lack of commitment to many international human rights standards and to its great militarization. It also has issues of environmental unsustainability

Israel

PCSDI

50.02
Position: 75

Components

Component	Score
Economic	66.7
Social	75.9
Global	0.0
Environmental	21.9
Productive	85.6
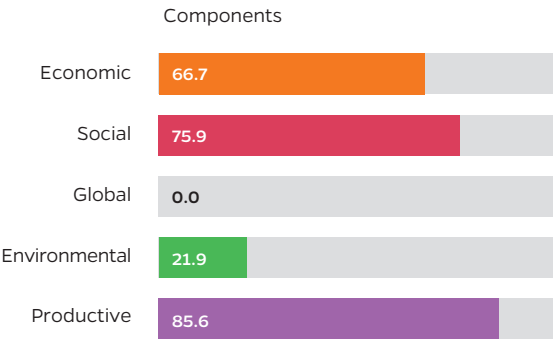
Income	High income
HDI	Very high HDI
Region	Middle East and North Africa

Low PCSDI countries

The low PCSDI group brings together 36 countries ranking between positions 82 (El Salvador) and 117 (Bhutan) whose index scores are 47.27 and 37.52 respectively. As in the previous group, there is a great diversity and countries of all income and HDI levels. The group also includes nearly all of geopolitical areas. Of these 36 countries, 13 are middle income, 11 upper-middle, 7 low income and 5 high income. On the HDI, 13 have middle HDI, 10 high HDI, 8 low HDI and 5 very high HDI. Sub-Saharan Africa is the region with the greatest presence in this group (13 countries), followed by East Asia (8 countries) Middle East and North Africa (6 countries) Latin America and the Caribbean (4 countries) and South Asia (3 countries). Western Europe, USA and Canada and Central Asia and Eastern Europe each have one country in this group.

As the figure shows, on all components, these countries score lower on average than the 148 countries evaluated in the PCSDI. This means that, overall, they face challenges in virtually all of the policy areas, although these challenges are greater in the economic and social spheres.

Here again, the average values should be taken with caution because of the great heterogeneity observed among the countries in this group. A more in-depth analysis of these different countries allows us to see that, just as in the lower-middle PCSDI group, here again there are countries with very different scores on all of the different components. This group, for instance, brings together Kenya, the best scoring of the 148 countries on the environmental component, and Qatar, the worst scoring country. Analogously, the United States and Malawi, both countries

belonging to this group, stand at positions 23 and 143 respectively in the social ranking of the 148.

In general terms, this can be explained because there are countries which score well on some components while they are penalised due to incoherent behavior in other policy areas. Taking the countries' specific results is interesting for analysing and spotlighting the major contradictions that may arise between the various public policies from a sustainable development perspective.

To illustrate this, we can take a set of five high income countries (the United States, Singapore, Qatar, Kuwait, and Trinidad and Tobago) in this group that score relatively well on the social and productive components, but very low on the environmental and global components. They also stand significant room for improvement on the economic component, in certain cases due to the progressive tax policy factor and in others due to their financial opacity.

Table 8. Low PCSDI countries

Ranking	Country	PCSDI
82	El Salvador	47.27
83	Indonesia	47.20
84	Namibia	47.19
85	Mongolia	46.78
86	Colombia	46.49
87	Botswana	46.03
88	Turkey	45.52
89	Malaysia	45.04
90	Vietnam	45.03
91	United States	44.72
92	Trinidad and Tobago	44.58
93	Cambodia	44.08
94	Thailand	43.83
95	Ghana	43.71
96	Jordan	43.65
97	Morocco	43.26
98	Sri Lanka	43.14
99	Guatemala	42.99
100	Nepal	41.97
101	Lesotho	41.88
102	Kenya	41.72
103	Algeria	41.26
104	Ivory Coast	41.08
105	Kuwait	41.05
106	Mozambique	40.63
107	Burkina Faso	40.56
108	Iraq	40.09
109	Madagascar	39.78
110	Zambia	39.37
111	Zimbabwe	38.84
112	Singapore	38.63
113	China	38.32
114	Qatar	38.22
115	Ruanda	37.94
116	Malawi	37.91
117	Bhutan	37.52

Figure 10. Low PCSDI countries. Breakdown by components (average scores)

Component	Low PCSDI countries	All countries
PCSDI	42.4	49.5
Economic	36.2	46.1
Social	41.8	52.1
Global	40.9	49.0
Environmental	44.8	45.0
Productive	48.4	55.3

Low PCSDI countries   All countries

Singapore
A country with a costly development model for the world

Singapore usually comes out as a top-rate country in the major rankings measuring progress, development and welfare. Yet its PCSDI score is among the lowest. This owes fundamentally to its great financial opacity, its high degree of militarization, and its environmental unsustainability. Its social and productive development has, therefore, extremely high costs for the whole planet

Singapore

PCSDI

38.63

Position: 112

Components

Economic	27.3
Social	67.6
Global	20.6
Environmental	15.9
Productive	61.8

Income	High income
HDI	Very high HDI
Region	East Asia
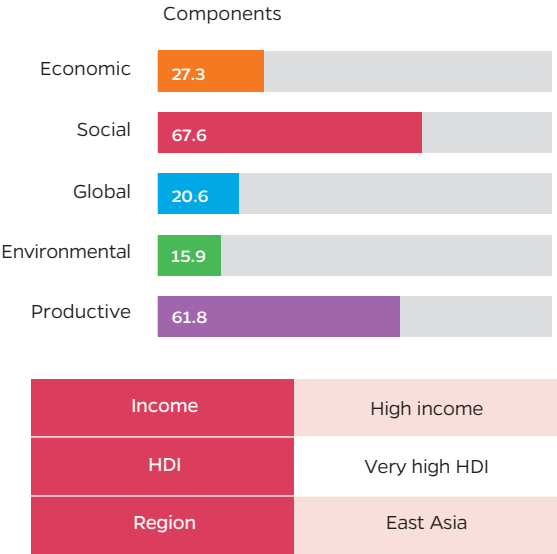
Figure 11. Very low PCSDI countries[a]. Breakdown by components (average scores)

	Very low PCSDI countries[a]	All countries
PCSDI	33.0	49.5
Economic	29.8	46.1
Social	20.0	52.1
Global	38.7	49.0
Environmental	54.4	45.0
Productive	22.2	55.3

Very low PCSDI countries

The very low PCSDI is made up of 31 countries between position 118, occupied by Gambia with a score of 37.20, and 148, occupied by India with a score of 26.76 points.

In turn, two sub-groups can be identified within this group. First, there is the majority subgroup that includes 25 countries with low (14) and middle-to-low (1) incomes and low (17) and middle HDI (8), most of which are in Sub-Saharan Africa (19), although 3 are in South Asia, 2 two in the Middle East and Northern Africa and 1 in East Asia. Secondly, there is a group of 6 Middle Eastern and Northern African countries with high and
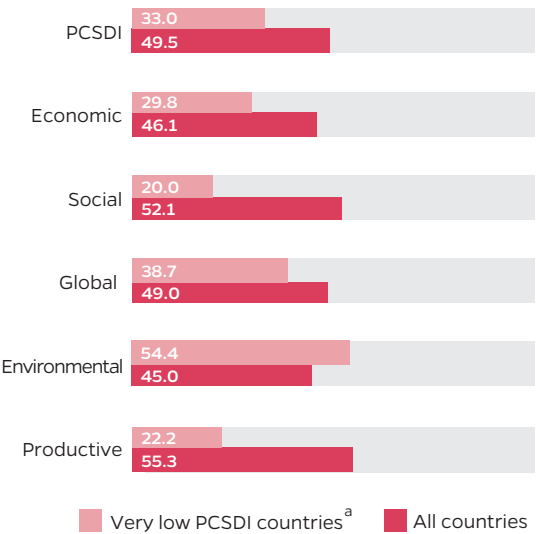
a. Subgroup of 25 countries: Gambia, Yemen, Burundi, Niger, Sierra Leona, Mali, Togo, Uganda, Guinea, Benin, Tanzania, Dem. Rep. of the Congo, Ethiopia, Liberia, Cameroon, Egypt, Myanmar, Mauritania, Angola, Nigeria, Congo (Rep.), Sudan, Pakistan, Bangladesh, India.

middle-to-high incomes and very high and high HDI: Iran, Lebanon, United Arab Emirates, Bahrein, Oman and Saudi Arabia.

A separate analysis of the average scores of these two groups of countries (figures 11 and 12) shows their different policy coherence for sustainable development profiles.

As can be appreciated in figure 11, the first group of countries has scores below the overall average for all of the countries in all of the components except for the environmental component where it is nearly 10 points above average. The average scores are especially low on the economic, social and productive components, showing the difficulties that these countries have in mobilizing public resources with which to ensure social services and endow themselves with infrastructure and strong productive sectors.

Table 9. Very low PCSDI countries

Ranking	Country	PCSDI
118	Gambia	37.2
119	Yemen	36.7
120	Burundi	36.2
121	Cameroon	35.5
122	Niger	35.4
123	Sierra Leona	35.2
124	Mali	35.2
125	Togo	35.1
126	Iran	35.1
127	Egypt	34.8
128	Uganda	34.3
129	Guinea	33.8
130	Benin	33.6
131	Myanmar	33.0
132	Tanzania	32.4
133	Mauritania	32.3
134	Congo (DR)	31.80
135	Lebanon	31.79
136	Angola	31.71
137	Ethiopia	31.53
138	Liberia	31.49
139	United Arab Emirates	30.96
140	Nigeria	30.87
141	Congo (Rep.)	30.45
142	Sudan	30.39
143	Pakistan	30.02
144	Bangladesh	29.92
145	Bahrein	29.60
146	Oman	29.31
147	Saudi Arabia	28.36
148	India	26.76

Figure 12. Very low PCSDI countries[b]. Breakdown by components (average scores)

PCSDI: 30.8 / 49.5
Economic: 17.2 / 46.1
Social: 54.9 / 52.1
Global: 9.7 / 49.0
Environmental: 22.1 / 45.0
Productive: 50.2 / 55.3

■ Very low PCSDI countries[b] ■ All countries
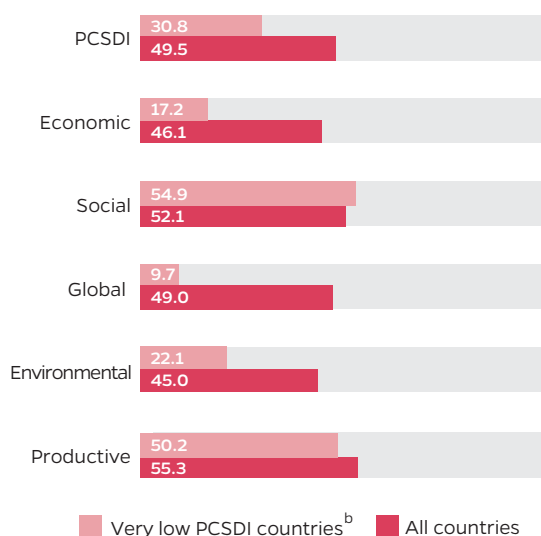
b. Subgroup of 6 countries: Iran, Lebanon, United Arab Emirates, Bahrein, Oman and Saudi Arabia.

The second group of countries scores better on the social component, slightly above the overall average for the 148 countries, and the productive component, while it scores very low on the economic, global and environmental components (figure 12). This indicates that, although these countries face serious challenges on all of the components, the policy coherence for development issues are generated mostly because of their shortcomings in human rights, environmental sustainability and progressiveness in taxation.

Bahrein
An example of an incoherent country

Bahrein is among the five worst-scoring countries in the PCSDI. Its levels of social welfare are moderately acceptable and it scores relatively well on the productive component. Yet it has serious issues of incoherence in the economic, global and environmental spheres. It is a country whose women have serious difficulties in accessing the financial system and enormous lacks in human rights. It has a high level of militarization and of environmental unsustainability. It is among the countries in the ranking with the greatest ecological shortcomings and the highest per capital CO_2 emissions

Bahrein

PCSDI

29.60

Position: 145

Components

Economic	7.3
Social	63.9
Global	15.1
Environmental	9.2
Productive	52.5
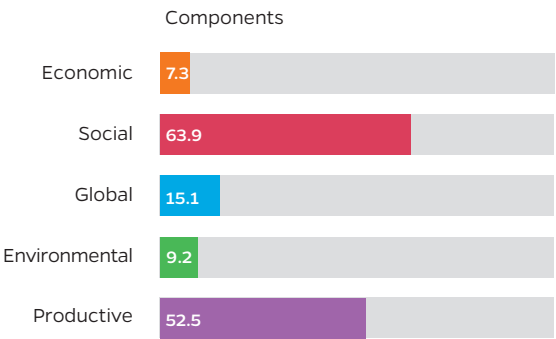
Income	High income
HDI	Very high HDI
Region	Middle East and North Africa

Ethiopia
A country with problems in ensuring its people's social rights

Ethiopia is one of the worst-performing countries in the ranking due to its poor performance in the social sphere. It also has very low scores in the productive and economic spheres. Here, development incoherence is determined by the country's problems in ensuring rights and endowing its people with services and infrastructure but not, as in previous examples, because of its ecological and economic impact on the rest of the planet

Ethiopia

PCSDI

31.53

Position: 137

Components

Economic	35.7
Social	4.6
Global	39.9
Environmental	54.8
Productive	22.6
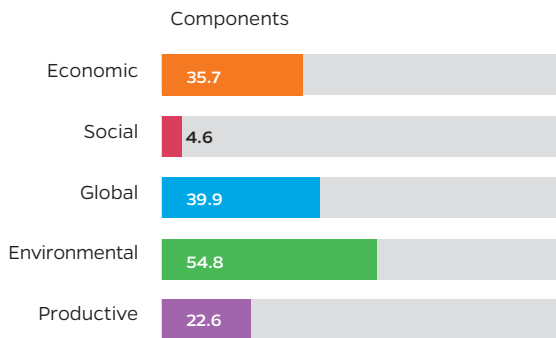
Income	Low income
HDI	Low HDI
Region	Sub-Saharan Africa
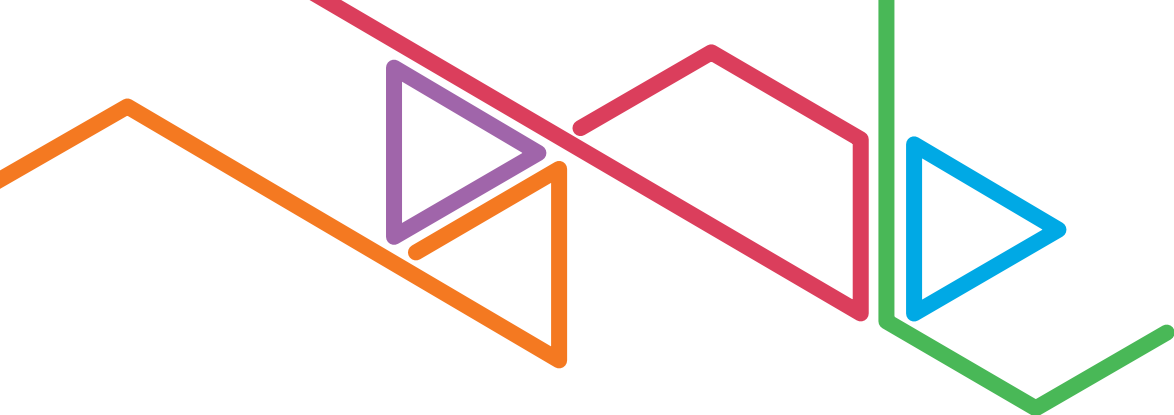
3.
In depth

3.1. A CROSS-CUTTING PERSPECTIVE

One of the key strengths of the PCSDI is that it enables us to compare different angles of policy coherence for sustainable development. Such comparison is crucial if we are to gauge any internal contradictions in the development models of a given country and also, from the broader perspective, identify the particular aspect of coherence where most work remains to be done. This applies both to individual countries and globally, when all the scores in each country are taken into account.

One way to study this is by comparing the country distribution in ranking of each component. With this in mind, the five charts that follow reflect the number of countries in each quintile of the component ranking.

Figure 13. Number of countries per segment for the economic component

Number of countries
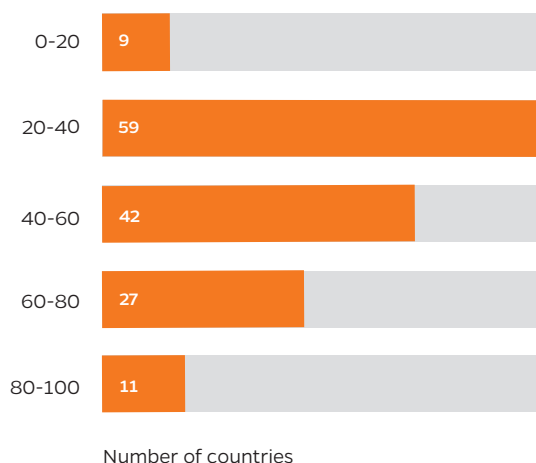
The PCSDI's economic component shows the extent to which each country's taxation and financial policies are at the service of the people, placing at the heart of the analysis those aspects that most contribute to combining development with internal equity while, at the same time, avoiding practices that do not support or are harmful to global economic development potential. On this basis, in the breakdown by segment, we see relatively low scores for most countries. In fact, only 38 out of 148 countries are in the top two segments, whereas 68 of the countries analysed fail to reach a score of 40. This suggests there is a great deal of work to be done to increase economic coherence in most countries.

The PCSDI's social component evaluates the highest number of policies and includes the most variables in its analysis. In our view, a country that is coherent from the social perspective constructs strong social protection systems which allow citizens to fully develop their lives, with social rights and access to basic services.

In this case, we note certain differences from the economic component. Most countries are in the top two segments (a total of 86, compared to 62 in the other segments). Moreover, most of the remainder are in the middle segment, while a minority are in the lowest spots.

The global component shows us country coherence where this is understood to mean contribution to democratic global governance by building multilateral frameworks and collective security with disarmament and peace-building structures.

Analysis by segment shows a more even distribution: whereas most of the countries analysed fall into the middle segment (40 to 60), there is a similar distribution in the two top and the two bottom segments, with the same number of countries in both. This distribution suggests moderate coherence from the global perspective, with much work still to be done by most countries individually.

Figure 14. Number of countries per segment for the social component

Segment	Number of countries
0-20	17
20-40	24
40-60	47
60-80	49
80-100	37

Number of countries
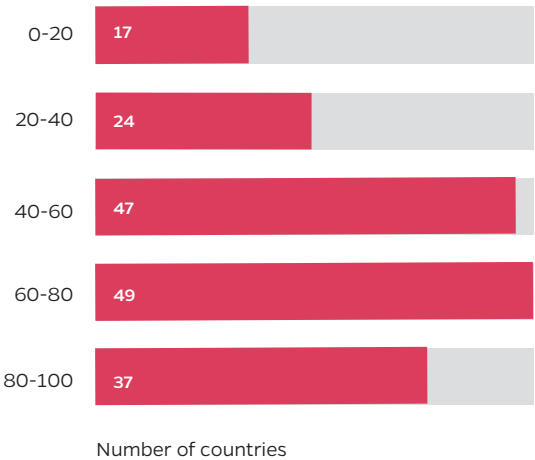
Figure 15. Number of countries per segment for the global component

Segment	Number of countries
0-20	14
20-40	28
40-60	64
60-80	38
80-100	4

Number of countries
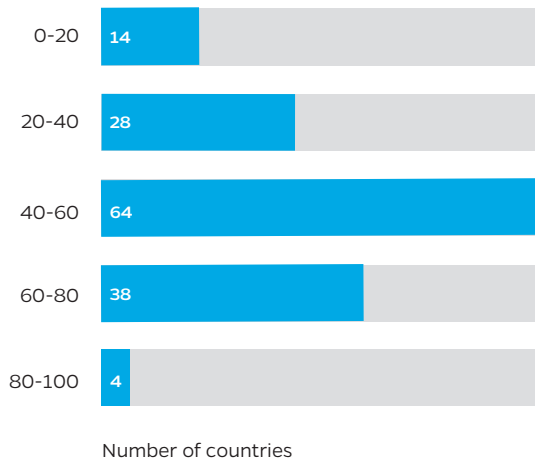
The environmental component analyses coherence between a country's development and its environmental sustainability, also incorporating issues like pollution or stewarding biodiversity, and, in a more structural sense, with regard to its commitment to the overall sustainability of the planet.

From this perspective, the chart showing the breakdown by tranche provides very clear results. Development in most countries is incoherent from the environmental perspective, with only 9 standing above 60 in the ranking. Most stand in the middle part of the ranking, while 43 stand in the lower segments. This distribution shows, firstly, that from the environmental coherence perspective, all countries should be making substantial changes to their development models. Secondly, and also significant, is that no country is positioned in the upper segments of the ranking, which is proof that no country can act as a role model in this sense or, put another way, no country can currently be considered environmentally sustainable.

Finally, the productive component analyses countries by the extent to which the development of basic infrastructures results in access to basic services for the whole population in an environmentally and socially sustainable manner. It includes variables that qualify the former on the basis of environmental costs, and a legal commitment to equality and social justice.

Here, we note that the lower segments contain a relatively small number of countries compared to the two upper tiers. Most countries fall within the medium and low segments (49 and 43 respectively), and a significant number fall within the high end of the ranking (80-100). These data indicate that the development of the set of countries analysed is moderately coherent in the productive component. Moreover, polarization is not excessive, and most

Figure 16. Number of countries per segment for the environmental component

	Number of countries
0-20	12
20-40	31
40-60	96
60-80	9
80-100	0
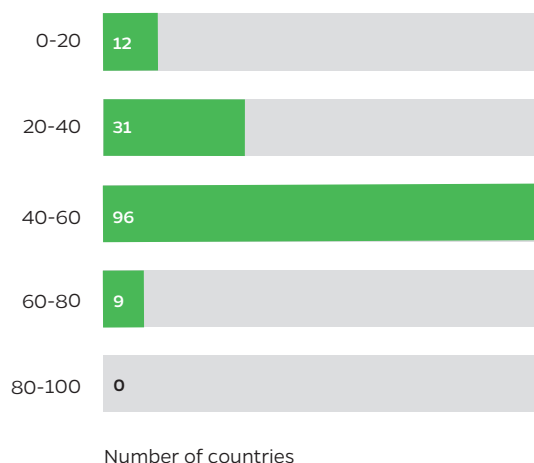
Figure 17. Number of countries per s egment for the productive component

	Number of countries
0-20	10
20-40	27
40-60	43
60-80	49
80-100	19
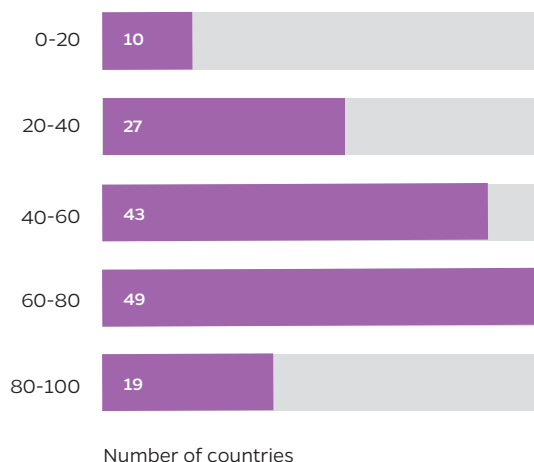
countries stand in the middle segments of the ranking while only a relatively small number stand in the bottom segment.

From the cross-cutting angle, by comparing the charts broken down by segment seen so far we can point to clear coherence trends both overall and broken down by component:

• Firstly, the components are considerably heterogenous. Their very diverse results reveal major contradictions in the different development models and their coherence. This contradiction is clear in the economic and environmental components when compared to the productive and social areas.

• Where the first two of these are concerned, it can be concluded that the world is profoundly incoherent from the economic and environmental perspectives. Most countries will have to carry out far-reaching changes in their development models if they are to attain acceptable levels in these two areas. Moreover, no country or example can serve as a role model on the environmental component: there is no country with a truly coherent performance.

• Where the production and social components are concerned, although these perform best, we should still bear in mind that there are major differences worldwide. Some countries are very advanced in social and productive development while others have very low positions in the ranking.

• The performance of the global component shows that there is as yet no clear commitment by States to build democratic global governance structures. Although most countries fall in the middle, this is insufficient to face up to global challenges like the transformation of economic and ecological structures that, as discussed, are necessary.

3.2. ANALYSIS OF THE COMPONENTS

The economic component

Figure 18 shows the 25 best-performing countries on the economic component where, as we can see, there is considerable disparity. Finland, best placed in the ranking, obtains 93.2 whereas Canada, at number 25, earns only 68.2. This 25-point difference (1/4 of the total possible score) indicates that there are very few countries with high levels of coherence on this component.

As for the geopolitical makeup of the ranking, domination by European and Western countries can be observed, with Scandinavian countries in very high positions. Importantly, however, of the countries considered world powers[4], only Germany and France are among the 25 best-positioned countries, although they perform relatively discreetly. This data shows us that economic power status entails certain limitations from the perspective of compatibility with sustainable development.

To explore this further, figure 19 analyses the performance of two countries in the economic ranking, Finland and Germany. As we can see, both obtain similar results on the variables indicating the degree of equity in public spending and fiscal capacity, which is common among States with consolidated fiscal systems and advanced levels of economic development. However, when we turn to the penalizing

4. For instance, of the countries in the G20 (the informal group of industrialized and emerging countries) only three occupy the top 25 positions and none stand in the ranking's highest segment.

Figure 18. The 25 best-performing countries in the economic component

Country	Score
Finland	93.2
Denmark	91.9
Norway	90.7
Hungary	89.2
Sweden	87.3
Iceland	83.6
Greece	82.2
Austria	81.7
Slovenia	81.7
Croatia	81.6
Slovakia	81.1
Serbia	79.5
Belgium	78.9
Estonia	76.5
Czechia	75.9
France	75.0
Belarus	73.9
Portugal	73.1
Germany	72.5
Malta	70.9
Montenegro	70.0
Lithuania	69.3
Cyprus	68.8
Latvia	68.2
Canada	68.2

variables which show spotlight factors such as gender parity in financial services and the level of financialization of the economy and financial opacity, considerable differences come to light, with Germany being the most heavily penalized.

Indeed, it cannot be asserted that a country's development is coherent with the principles of sustainable development if it contributes to the financialization process of the global economy and secondly, as is the case with Germany, it has a high degree of financial secrecy. Of the countries analysed, Germany has the fifth highest level of financial secrecy globally[5], which means that its economic development, though advanced and equitable internally, is preventing the fair economic development of much of the planet.

Figure 20 shows the ranking of the economic component from the perspective of the worst-performing countries. Of the 25 countries, 20 are in the range from 17 to 27 points, with very minor variations (fewer than in the case of the 25 best-performing countries). This points to greater similarities in their very low level of coherence.

Insofar as the geopolitical context of the countries analysed, we essentially find countries whose economies are focused on exporting raw materials (such as oil producers) or whose economies are very weak. Only Singapore and India depart from this pattern, the former being a high-income country central to international trade and the latter an emerging power.

Exploring incoherence in the economic component in more detail, figure 21 compares three countries: Singapore, India and Lebanon.

As we can see, all three countries show performances that, while discreet, are not poor. However, they are heavily penalized

Figure 19. Economic component, Finland and Germany
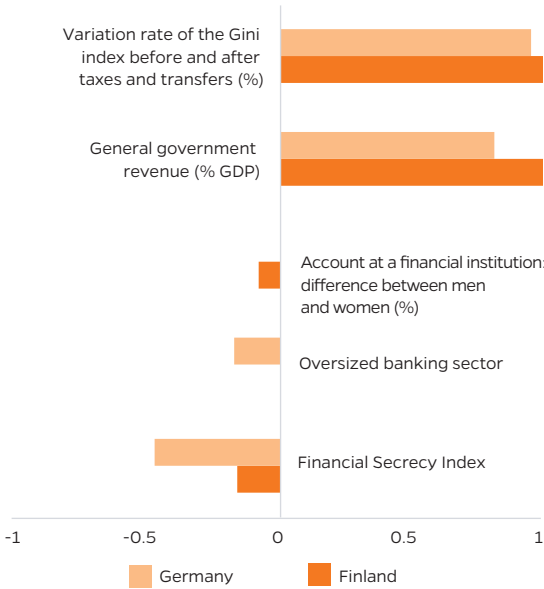
Germany ⬛ Finland

---

by three variables that attest to the incoherence of their development models. Indeed, on Gini variation pre and post taxes and transfers, they rank 61st, 87th and 100th, respectively.

Singapore's high position on the Financial Secrecy Index places it very low in coherence terms. Indeed, its economic specialization in exporting services in international trade, as it is largely linked to financial opacity, proves extremely detrimental to the economic development chances for the planet as a whole.

India's low position in the ranking is accounted for, above all, the patriarchal structure of its economy, reflected in the vast gap between male and female holders of bank accounts: roughly 20%.

It cannot be asserted that a country's development is coherent with the principles of sustainable development if it contributes to the financialization process of the global economy and it has a high degree of financial secrecy

Figure 20. The 25 worst-performing countries in the economic component

Country	Value
Singapore	27.3
Tunisia	27.2
Myanmar	27.1
Oman	27.0
Uganda	26.9
Peru	26.8
Panama	26.1
Bangladesh	25.3
Indonesia	24.1
Saudi Arabia	23.3
Algeria	22.8
Sri Lanka	22.8
Jordan	22.6
Turkey	21.4
Pakistan	21.0
Sudan	20.9
Tanzania	19.8
Guatemala	19.3
Morocco	17.7
India	17.0
Arab Emirates	11.5
Liberia	9.2
Bahrein	7.3
Nigeria	2.1
Lebanon	0.0
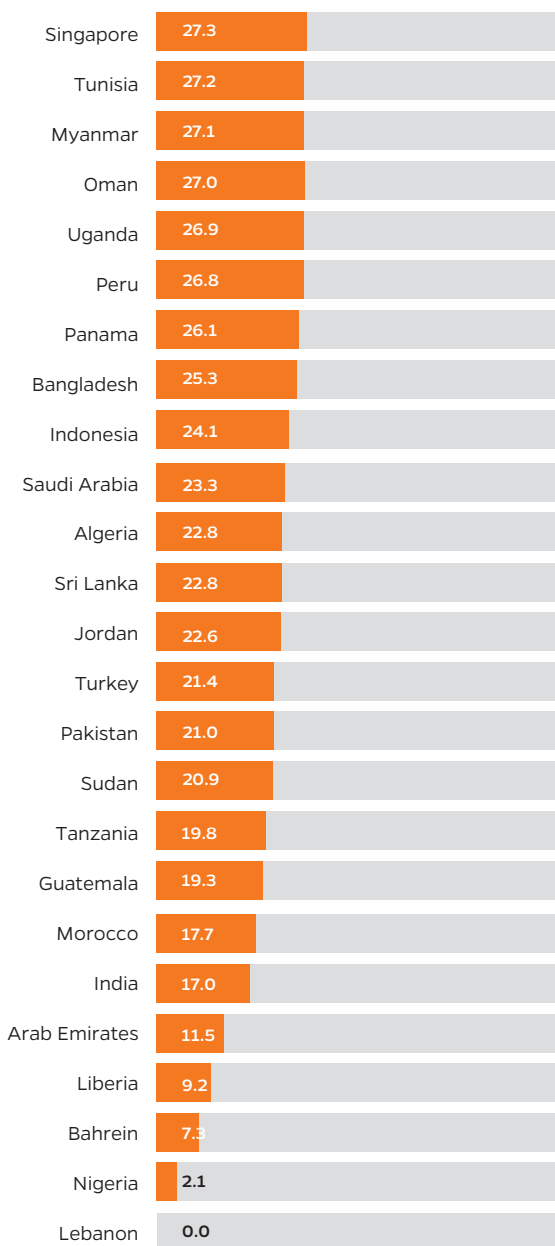
Finally, Lebanon is heavily penalized for the disproportionate size of its banking sector, which accounts for 2.4 times the weight of its real economy.

Where, then, does the difference lie? As analysis of the component reveals, the key factors for coherent development from the economic perspective lie in a concerted tax collection and revenue generation effort combined with active engagement in the economy to mitigate socio-economic and gender inequalities and reduce exposure to financialization and financial opacity.

Figure 21. Economic component, Singapore, India and Lebanon
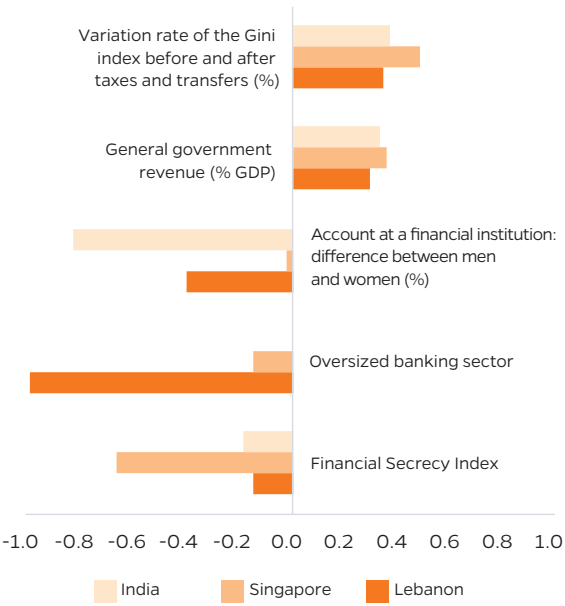
The key factors for coherent development from the economic perspective lie in a concerted tax collection and revenue generation effort combined with active engagement in the economy to mitigate socio-economic and gender inequalities and reduce exposure to financialization and financial opacity

El componente social

Figure 22 shows the 25 countries with the highest coherence on the social component.

As we can see, all 25 countries perform in similarly, with just a 13 point gap between first and last. The highest, Iceland with 88.1 points, shows a very advanced social development system, with high social protection in inclusive economies that are relatively sustainable in social terms. With the odd exception to be analysed below, the same applies to most of the countries in this segment of the ranking.

Geopolitically, the 25 countries analysed (except Belarus) are all advanced economies at the heart of the global economy. It is the countries which built welfare systems in the twentieth century which perform best in social coherence terms.

Exploring this in more detail, figure 23 analyses the performance, variable by variable, of two countries with very different development models, namely Iceland and the United States. The chart shows two differentiated models of social welfare with comparable results for social protection. On the one hand, Iceland, which leads the ranking in the social component, combines very high levels of protection, as shown by variables reflecting coverage level for social rights, with effective positionings on equality between men and women. In particular it provides extensive maternity and paternity leave, which indicates an advanced welfare model coherent with development from the gender equality perspective.

In contrast to Iceland, the United States has a different model based more on market freedom in the provision of goods than on guaranteeing public and universal access to them. Nevertheless, its scores

Figure 22. The 25 best-performing countries in the social component

Country	Score
Iceland	88.1
Denmark	86.8
Sweden	85.2
Germany	84.7
Norway	84.5
Austria	82.8
Finland	82.8
Slovenia	81.2
Switzerland	80.7
New Zealand	80.6
Australia	80.0
Luxembourg	79.9
Estonia	79.8
Belarus	78.3
Malta	77.9
Belgium	77.6
Netherlands	77.3
U. Kingdom	77.3
Portugal	76.6
Italy	76.1
Lithuania	76.0
Israel	75.9
United States	75.8
France	75.7
Ireland	75.6
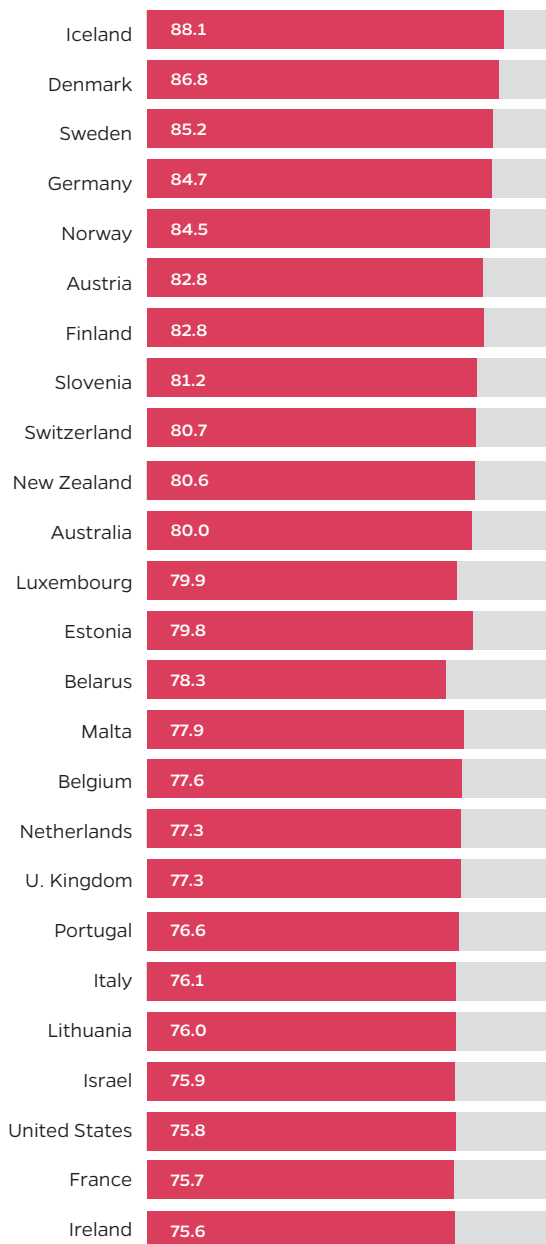
Figure 23. Social component, Iceland and United States

Graphic legend categories (from top):
- Graduates from tertiary education who are female (%)
- Students in tertiary education who are female (%)
- Internet access in schools
- Improved sanitation facilities (%population with access)
- Medical doctors (per 10000 population)
- Healthy life expectancy at birth (years)
- Position at the UN in favour of the LGTBI community
- Maternity and paternity leaves
- Legislation against gender violence, sexual harassment and marital rape
- Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%)
- Universal Health Coverage Index
- Old age pension beneficiaries (%)
- Public social protection expenditure (% of GDP)
- Share of unemployed receiving regular periodic social security unemployment benefits (%)
- Survival rate to the last grade of secondary education, both sexes (%)
- Pupil-teacher ratio in pre-primary education
- Pupil-teacher ratio in primary education
- Repetition rate in primary education, all grades, both sexes (%)
- Vulnerable employment, female (% of female employment)
- Unemployment rate
- Vulnerable employment (% of total employment)

Axis: -1.0 -0.8 -0.6 -0.4 -0.2 0.0 0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8 1.0

Legend: United States   Iceland

are equivalent to those of Iceland except on aspects such as the number of doctors per 10,000 inhabitants and healthy life expectancy, which may be a result of the absence of a public health system. Moreover, the lack of commitment from US institutions on equality between men and women as translated into specific legislation and initiatives places USA at a lower position.

With regard to the 25 countries that perform the worst on the social component, figure 24 provides two very clear pieces of evidence. On the one hand, regarding overall performance, minimum scores are very low, with most countries obtaining under 20, but in a very narrow range.

Geopolitically, this group is very homogeneous because, with the exception of Yemen, 24 countries are in Africa, on the periphery of the international economic system. In this respect, we can see that social coherence is linked to longstanding development problems. However, it is worth noting that no clear relationship emerges between low coherence on the economic and low the social components. Of the 25 worst-performing countries on the social component, only five appear in the ranking shown above.

Given that the performance structures here are similar for all 25 countries, our analysis focuses on Guinea Conakry, the least coherent country from the social perspective. Figure 25 shows that, in addition to scoring very low on most of the variables contributing to development, Guinea is also heavily penalized on issues of employment structure and the quality of its education system.

Figure 24. The 25 worst-performing countries in the social component

Country	Score
Sierra Leona	22.3
Mauritania	22.0
Ghana	21.9
Cameroon	21.7
Yemen	21.4
Mozambique	21.2
Gambia	20.8
Ruanda	20.3
Angola	18.7
Liberia	18.4
Nigeria	17.8
Uganda	17.8
Ivory Coast	17.7
Niger	17.3
Madagascar	16.7
Tanzania	15.0
Togo	15.0
Burkina Faso	13.9
Benin	13.0
Malawi	10.3
Burundi	9.6
Congo (Rep.)	7.6
Ethiopia	4.6
Mali	3.0
Guinea	0.0
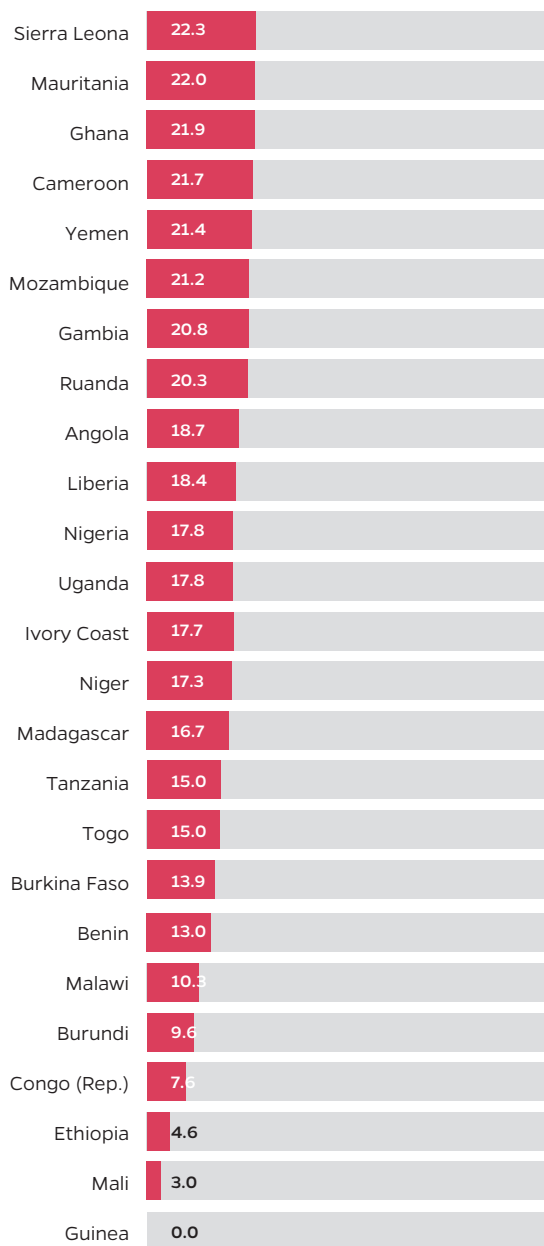
Where does the difference lie? Coherence on the social component is determined by a State's ability to combine high levels of social protection, based on significant levels of public spending, with rules and regulations ensuring the effective enjoyment of social rights. Within this framework, for social systems to be more coherent, feminist policies which address the differences between men and women must be incorporated.

Figure 25. Social component, Guinea Conakry
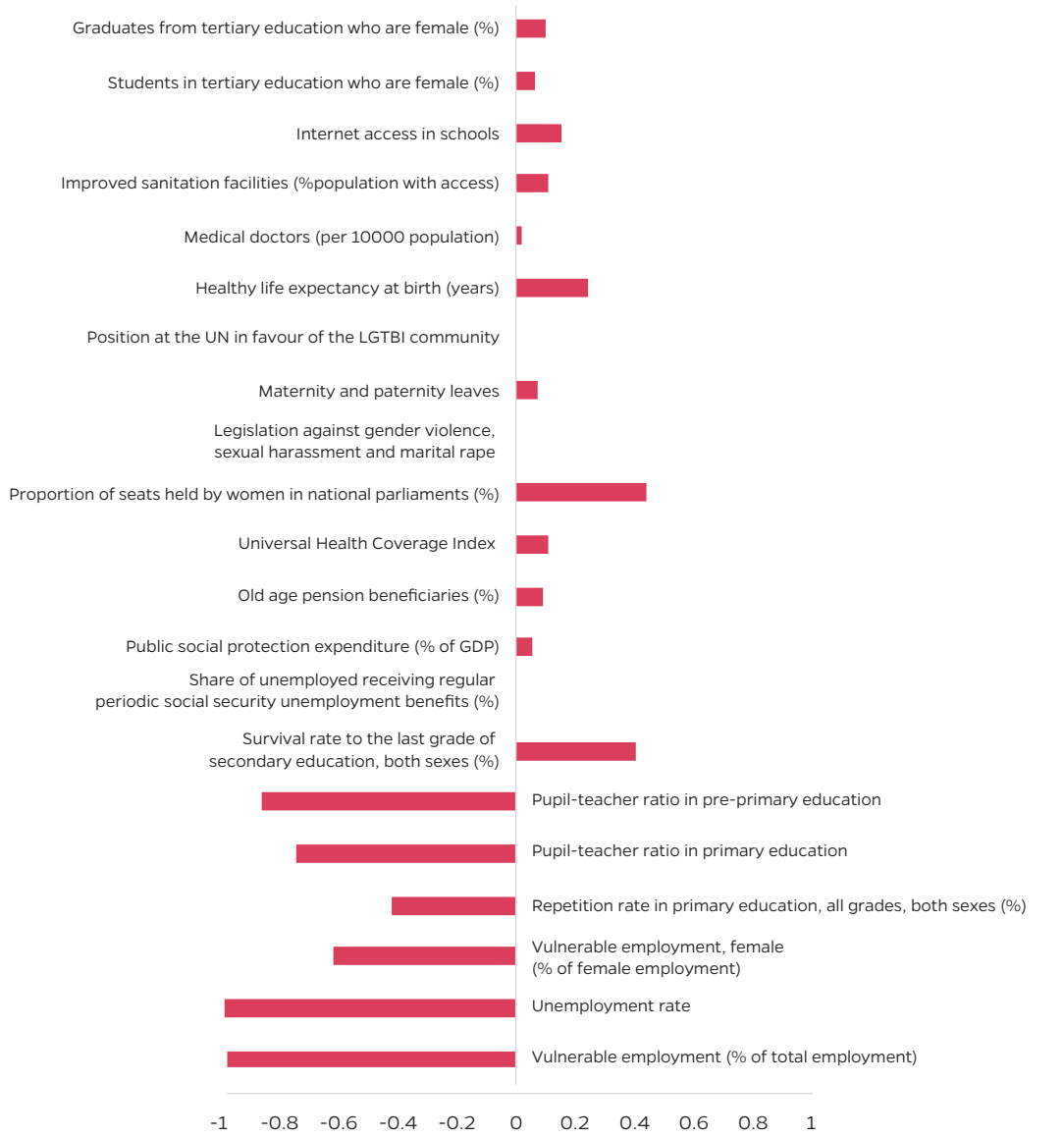
The global component

Figure 26 shows the 25 best-scoring countries on the global component. From the performance perspective, the ranking shows that level of coherence on this component is moderate. Only four countries score higher than 80 points, whereas the rest are in the 60 to 80 segment.

Geographically, the ranking here is heterogeneous, although most are Western countries. This is normal for an indicator built from available data reflecting a liberal governance structure, as it has been built historically by European countries.

Figure 27 shows three examples of global coherence with a similar performance structure but certain significant differences. Denmark, for instance, combines a strong commitment to progress on human rights and international legality in global governance frameworks, including on issues related to gender equality, with low levels of militarization and military capabilities. This makes it the country with the highest global coherence.

By comparison, a more moderate degree of coherence can be found in Bosnia-Herzegovina and Senegal. Both countries are firmly committed to global governance structures as signatories to different instruments of international law and—indeed more so than Denmark—as signatories to instruments of international human rights law and the ratification of the convention on the right to asylum. However, both countries' global coherence is limited with regard to their protection of women's rights (Senegal) and their material contribution to key United Nations institutions from the sustainable development perspective. Both also have higher than desirable levels of militarization from the coherence perspective.

Figure 26. The 25 best-performing countries in the global component

Country	Score
Denmark	84.5
Netherlands	82.0
Sweden	81.7
Norway	81.1
Switzerland	79.8
Iceland	78.9
New Zealand	78.8
Australia	78.7
Germany	78.2
Finland	78.0
Canada	77.6
Belgium	77.5
Spain	75.7
Slovenia	75.1
Portugal	74.7
Austria	73.4
Czech Republic	72.7
Bosnia and Herz.	72.1
Ireland	72.0
Hungary	70.9
Japan	69.3
Luxembourg	68.7
Moldavia	67.8
Senegal	67.5
Croatia	67.0
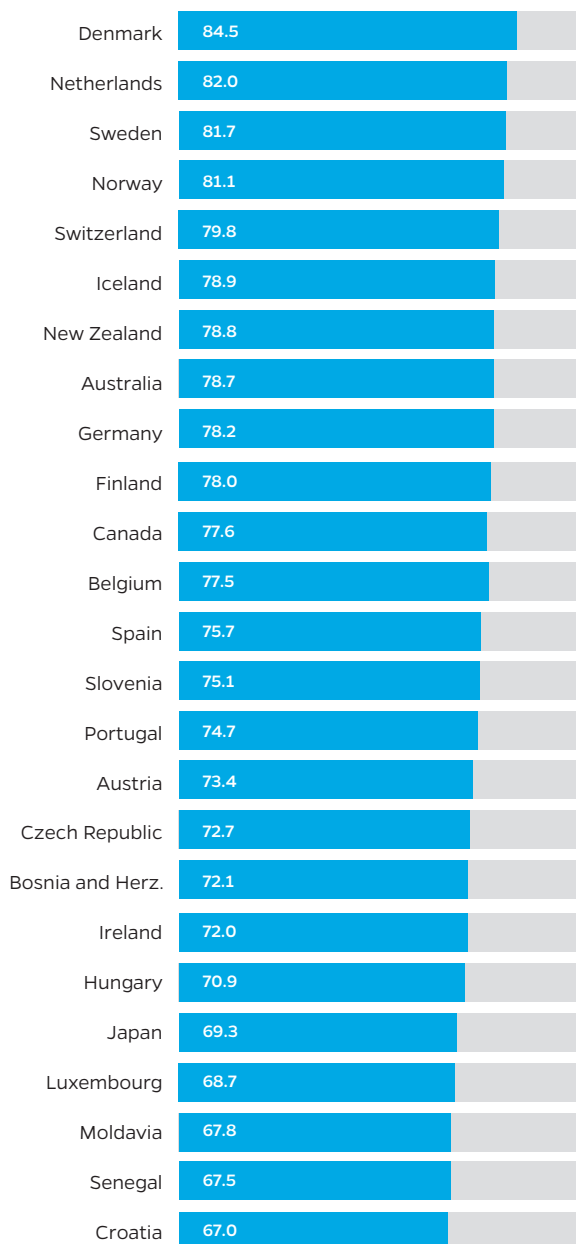
Performance on the global component is more diverse at the lower part of the ranking. Firstly, it is interesting to note that the range here is broader than on the other components. Thailand, the country closing the list, scores over 32.3 points (more than for the previous components).

Figure 27. Global component, Denmark, Bosnia-Herzegovina and Senegal
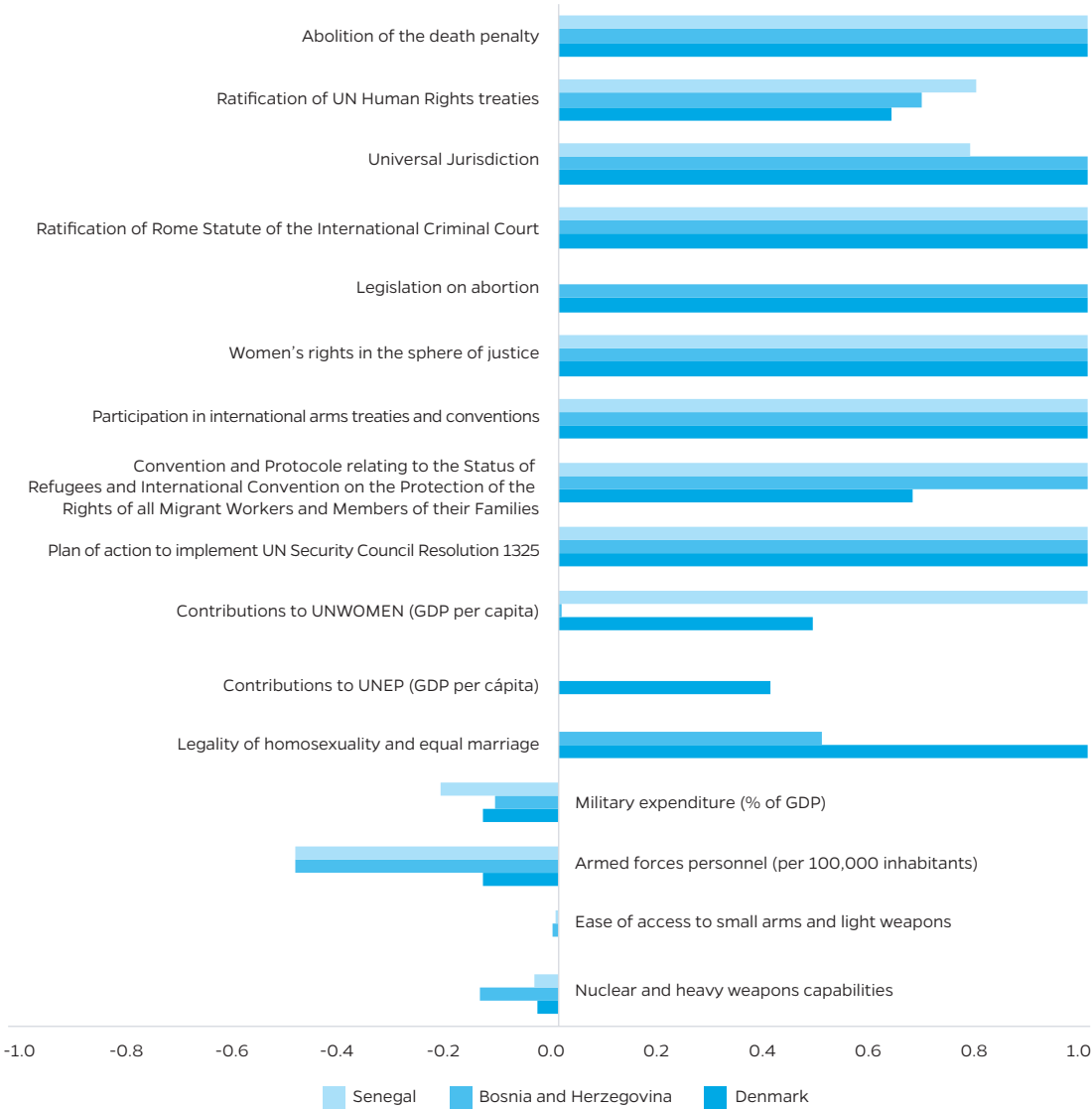
Geopolitically, this segment of the ranking features several elements of interest. Firstly, all the countries belong to non-Western cultural contexts. Again, this provides an indication of the Western bias of global governance structures that has historically made it easier for Western countries to join (and not always democratically). Two further aspects enable us to trace two different global incoherence paths. First, most of the countries concerned find themselves in situations of conflict or are experiencing high levels of regional tension. Also, they retain social structures with deep-rooted discrimination against women.

A comparison of two very low-scoring countries, Saudi Arabia and Israel, allows us to analyse this in more detail. As we can see, both contribute very little to building global governance structures. In the case of Israel, except on universal jurisdiction and the existence of legislation supporting formal equality between men and women, none of the other elements which contribute to global coherence obtain noteworthy scores, at least in comparison to the degree of consolidation of its democratic structures.

Saudi Arabia, on the other hand, is a good example to analyse the other global incoherence path taken by those countries which retain structures with deeply-ingrained discrimination against women.

Given their high levels of militarization, both countries also represent a collective security risk. Of the countries analysed, Saudi Arabia allocates the highest percentage of its GDP to military expenditure, whereas Israel has the highest level of armed forces personnel in proportion to the population.

Figure 28. The 25 worst-performing countries in the global component

Country	Score
Thailand	32.3
Qatar	30.4
Zimbabwe	30.3
Maldives	29.5
Mauritania	27.9
Algeria	27.1
Jordan	23.9
Sri Lanka	22.6
Myanmar	21.7
Singapore	20.6
Iraq	20.1
Kuwait	19.3
India	17.5
Yemen	16.0
Egypt	15.8
Arab Emirates	15.8
Russia	15.8
Sudan	15.8
Bahrein	15.1
Iran	14.1
Lebanon	8.6
Saudi Arabia	3.5
Oman	1.3
Pakistan	1.2
Israel	0.0
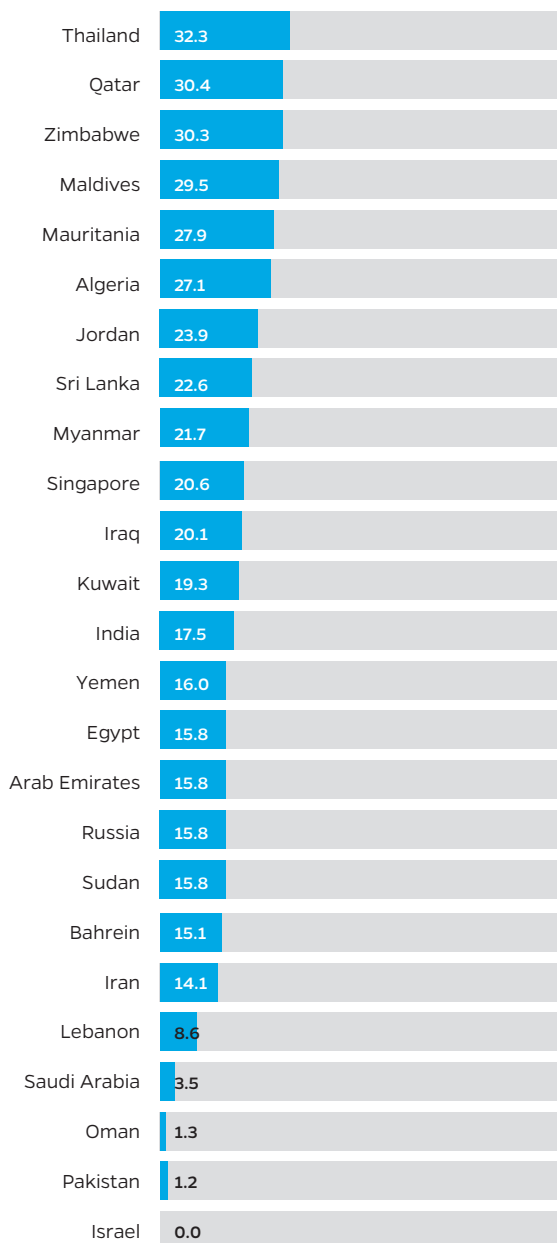
Where does the difference lie? The most globally coherent countries are those committed to participation in global governance structures while maintaining low levels of military structures. In this respect, it is important to underline the importance of commitment to building instruments of international law in areas such as human rights and equality between men and women as factors making a clear difference to progress on this component.

Figure 29. Global component, Saudi Arabia and Israel
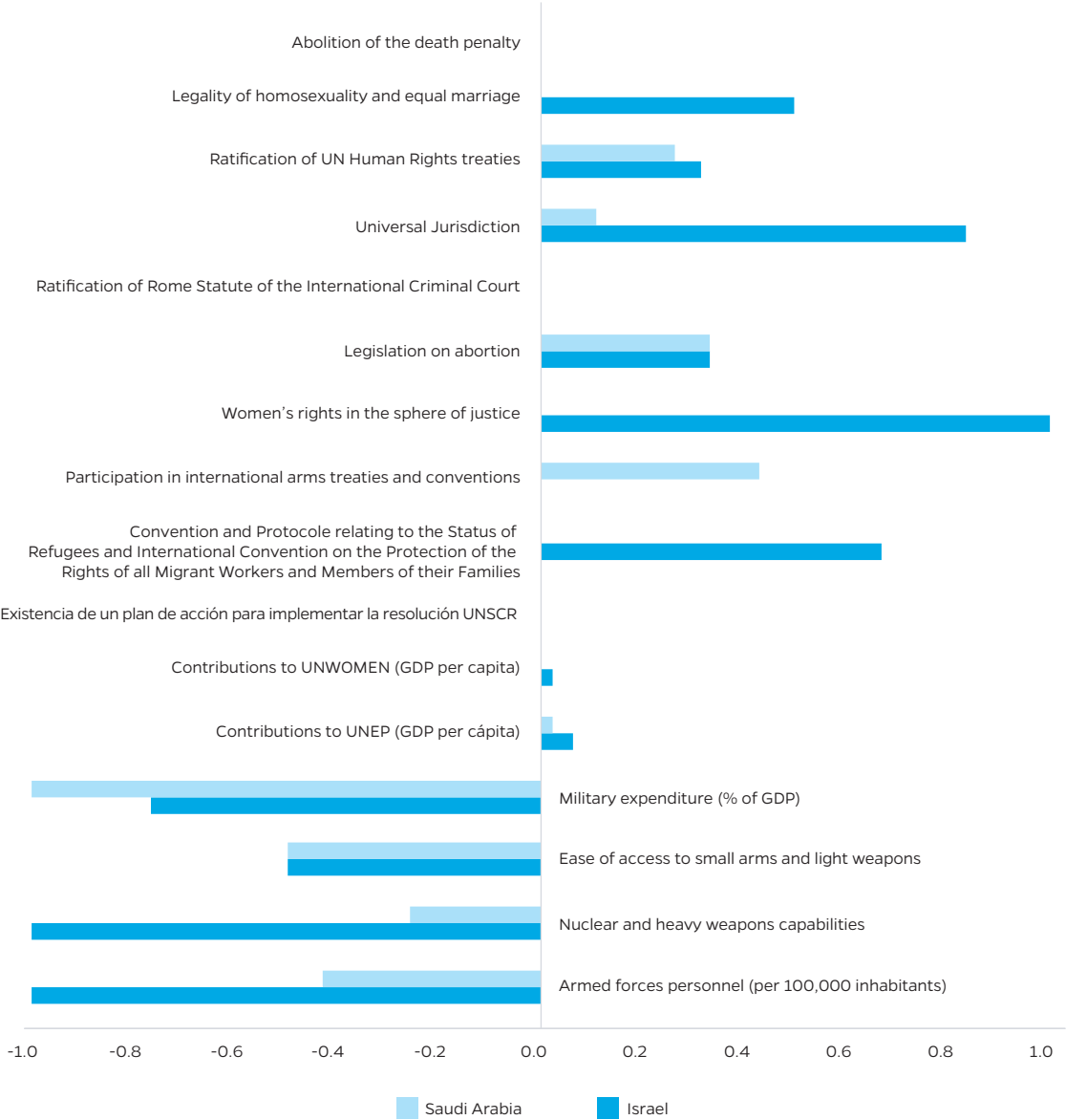
The environmental component

The ranking of the environmental component is defined by the poorest performance of all five components. Indeed, on the basis of these results, it can be said that even Kenya, the most coherent country, obtains a very modest score here.

Figure 30 shows the 25 best-performing countries on this component. As we can see, these all fall within a 12-point range, suggesting similar results.

Geopolitically, the ranking shows some diversity. On the one hand, we find African countries with lower-impact development models, partly as a result of their low income and consumption levels. On the other, countries like Bolivia, Argentina and Brazil, with middle to high development levels and very high levels of wealth in biodiversity, are high up in the ranking. It is important to note that none of the 25 environmentally most coherent countries are European or Western, owing to the unsustainability of their development models.

Analysing this further in depth, figure 31 shows how Kenya and Argentina scored for each variable of the environmental component.

As we can see, the component structure is similar in both cases. Kenya combines a lower ecological impact on the environment, from the global sustainability perspective, and it is engaged in international environmental protection and electricity production from renewable sources. However—and this is relevant to and illustrative of the difficulties in general of scoring high in this area—its scores for clean water and biocapacity are relatively low.

Figure 30. The 25 best-performing countries in the environmental component

Country	Score
Kenya	69.9
Nicaragua	69.4
Bolivia	66.0
Guyana	65.3
Madagascar	64.0
Mauritania	60.5
Namibia	60.5
Guinea	60.1
Congo (Rep.)	60.1
Uganda	59.9
Yemen	59.7
Niger	59.5
Mozambique	59.4
Argentina	59.3
Burkina Faso	59.3
Philippines	59.1
Ivory Coast	58.9
Senegal	58.3
Mali	58.3
Zimbabwe	58.0
Honduras	57.9
Tanzania	57.6
Ruanda	57.6
Gambia	57.5
Brazil	57.4
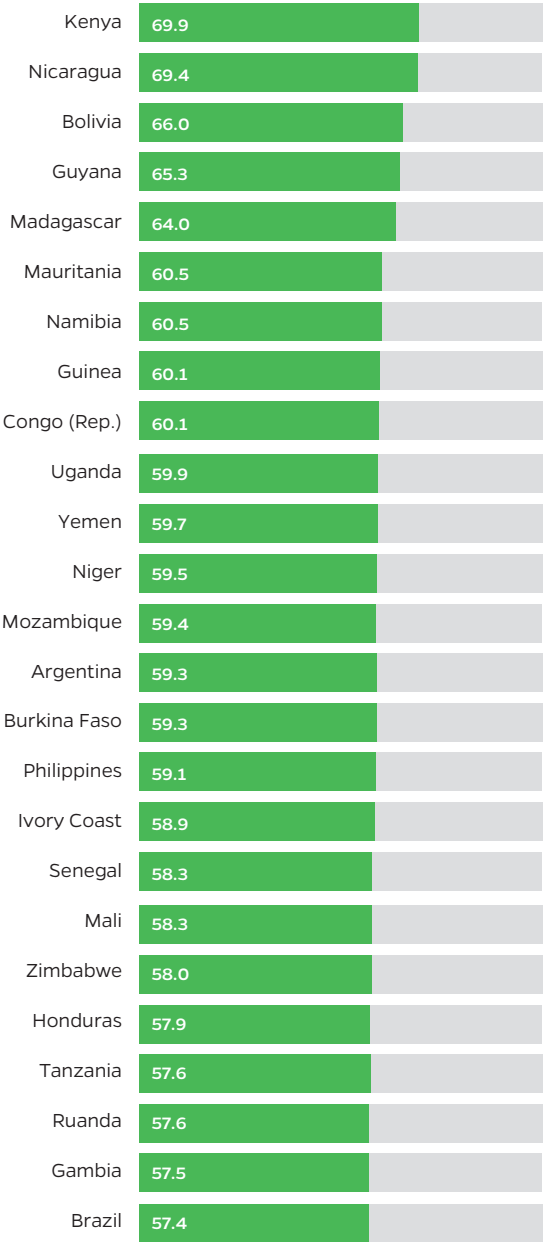
For its part, Argentina faces similar problems. Whereas it performs well on clean water and biocapacity reserve, this is not adequately combined with renewable energy production, where it scores very low. Particularly noteworthy regarding Argentina is how its development seems to adversely impact its ecological footprint due to its production and air pollution. This would appear to indicate that per capita income differences often come hand in hand with higher levels of environmental incoherence.

Figure 31. Environmental component, Kenya and Argentina

Argentina   Kenya
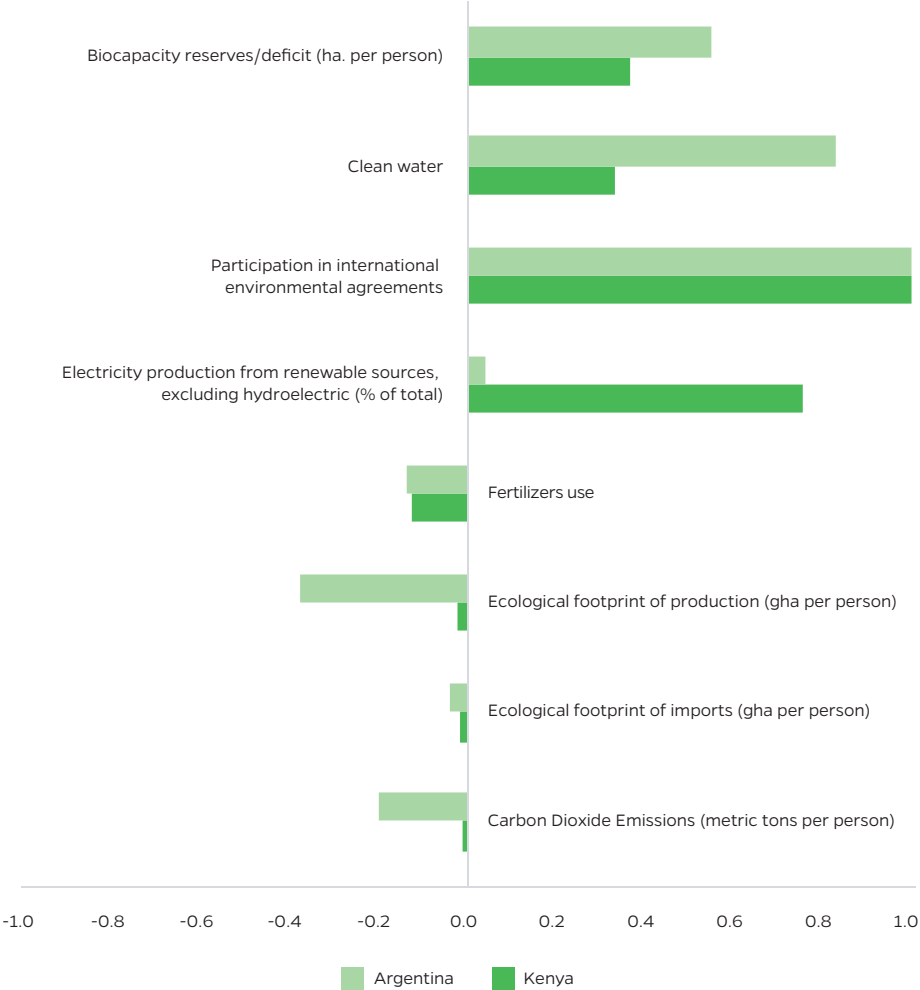
The range for the 25 worst-performing countries on the environmental component is relatively broad, with quite a few differences in internal scores giving rise to a certain degree of polarization. The lowest-scoring group of countries show substantial environmental impact.

From the geopolitical perspective, the link between per capita income and environmental incoherence appears to be confirmed. Of the 25 worst-performing countries, most have a high level of income. Here, two types of environmental incoherence patterns emerge. On one hand there are Western countries which score high on the social and economic components, but are structurally unsustainable. Secondly, there are oil producers in the Persian Gulf, which are highly polluting in terms of both production and consumption.

Figure 33 shows the breakdown of variables for two of these countries: Norway and Qatar. As we can see, Norway combines discreet results on variables contributing to and most indicative of the implementation of environmental policies, such as the percentage of clean water or global commitment to environmental protection. Yet it scores high on penalizing components, showing that, despite these policies, the impact of its development model is incompatible with planetary sustainability.

Qatar, for its part, hardly obtains any positive scores on contributory variables and its environmental impact is highly unsustainable. It is interesting to note, however, that its ecological footprint owes mainly to production whereas Norway's owes to the ecological footprint of imports which is higher due to consumption models that are highly dependent on external production. The key to understanding the direction of change required for each of these countries lies here.

Figure 32. The 25 worst-performing countries in the environmental component

Country	Score
Japan	33.5
Uzbekistan	33.0
Germany	32.9
Estonia	32.4
Austria	32.4
Norway	29.9
Lebanon	29.4
Czech Republic	28.9
Malta	26.6
China	25.5
South Korea	24.2
Israel	21.9
Slovenia	20.9
Saudi Arabia	19.6
Oman	17.9
Arab Emirates	17.0
Singapore	15.9
United States	14.6
Netherlands	13.2
Trinidad and Tobago	12.1
Belgium	10.8
Bahrein	9.2
Luxembourg	7.5
Kuwait	6.4
Qatar	0.0
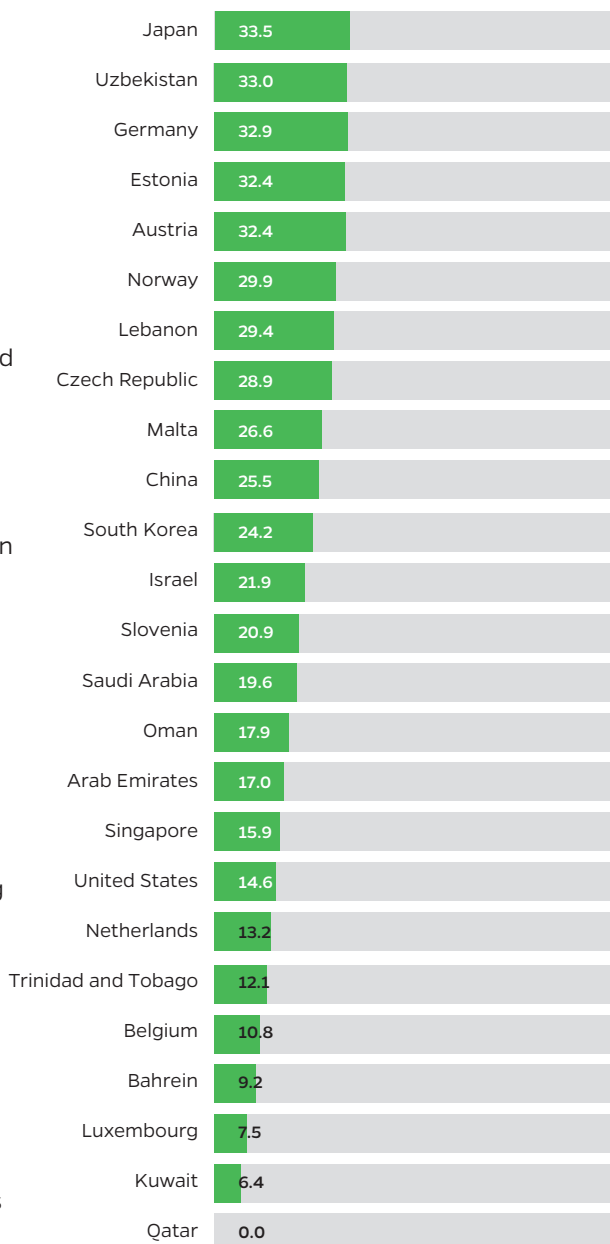
Where does the difference lie? The environmental component is the one that shows greatest incoherence for all countries. It is difficult to point to a specific type of behaviour that can serve as a role model for other States. Rather, it would appear that all countries need to undertake structural changes enabling them to build sustainable development models. Drastic ecological impact reduction, in terms of both production and consumption, is key to this transformation and means that the richest countries bear the greatest responsibility for leading this change.

Figure 33. Environmental component, Norway and Qatar
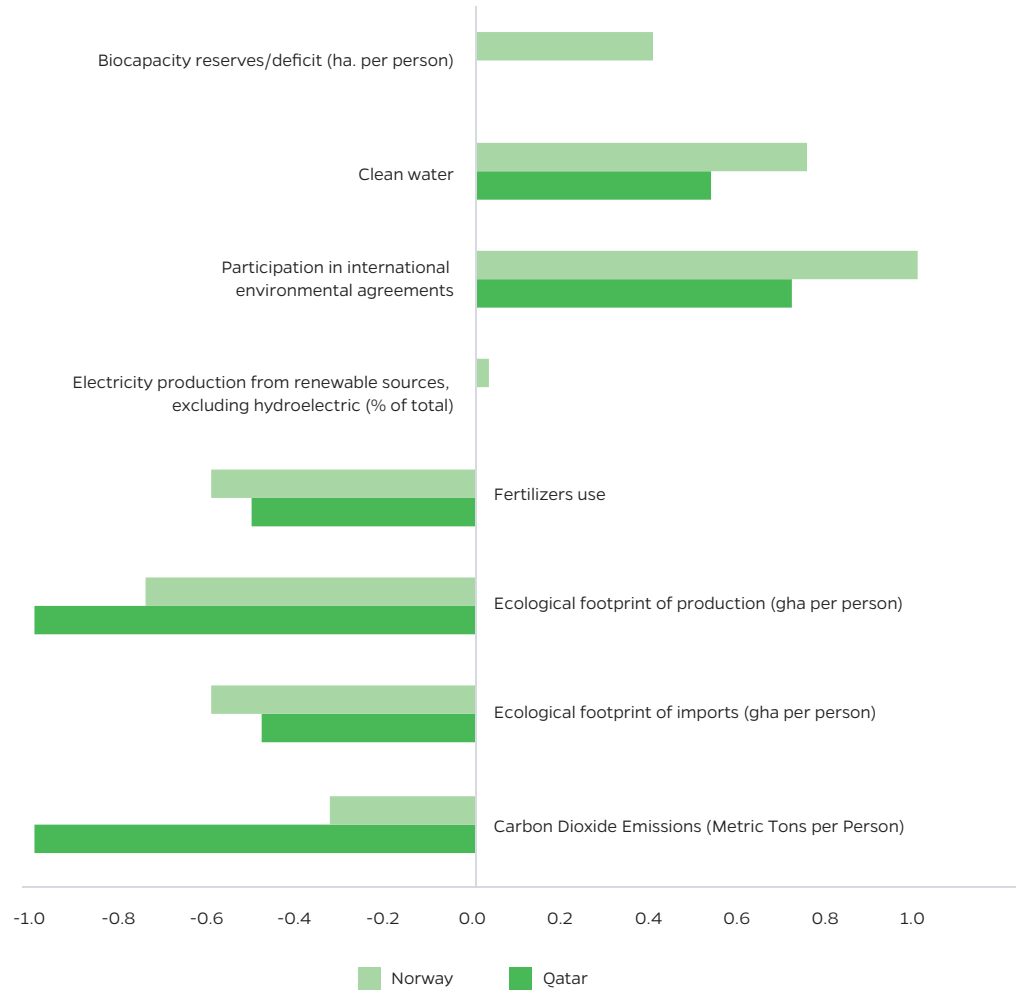
Figure 34 shows the 25 best-performing countries on the productive component. As we can see, they vary very little. Iceland leads the ranking with 94.6 points, a very high score (the highest on any component). Here, up to 19th position, all countries score higher than 80.

Geopolitically, coherence in the productive component is mainly led by European countries with high levels of income. Interestingly, five Latin American countries stand alongside them, show us two types of pattern.

Figure 35 shows the breakdown by variable for Iceland and Uruguay. As we can see in the chart, while Iceland scores very high levels for development in basic infrastructure, where it obtains its highest score for most variables, it is hardly penalized for the two component variables pointing to production model unsustainability: freshwater withdrawals for industry and air pollution.

Uruguay, ranking 10th, is penalized by in the lack of Internet access for the whole population. This variable contributes to coherence in production development as it shows the extent to which the benefits of productive force development are passed on to the population. However, on other variables penalising coherence, Uruguay has more sustainable levels of freshwater withdrawals for industry than Iceland, albeit air pollution is an area for improvement.

Figure 34. The 25 best-performing countries in the productive component

Country	Score
Iceland	94.6
Luxembourg	91.4
Australia	91.3
Malta	89.8
Greece	88.5
U. Kingdom	88.4
Japan	88.2
Ireland	88.2
Cyprus	87.5
Uruguay	87.4
Denmark	87.2
Barbados	86.3
New Zealand	86.2
Portugal	86.0
Spain	85.8
Israel	85.6
Argentina	84.8
Mauritius	83.6
Fiji	80.1
Paraguay	79.8
Armenia	79.4
Switzerland	78.7
Panama	78.6
Norway	77.6
Chile	77.4
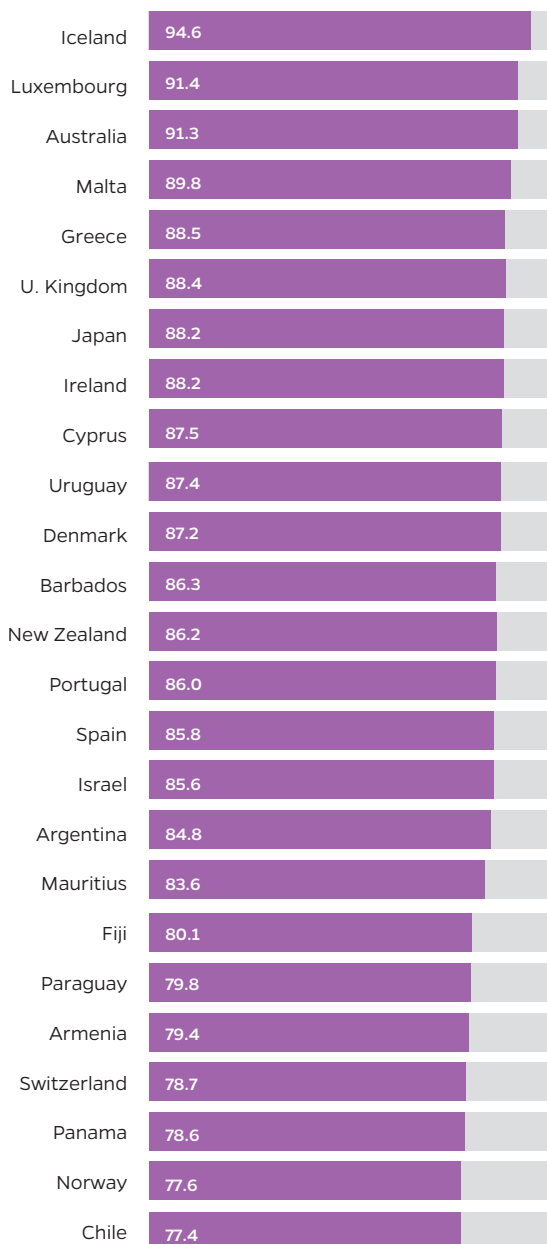
As for the 25 worst-performing countries, relatively low scores can be observed for most countries, although less so than on other components. Moreover, the scores are relatively evenly spread from 29.7 for China, the best in the group, to the most incoherent in the ranking, the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

Geopolitically, it is interesting to see that most countries in the ranking are African states whose productive structure is barely developed and which specialise in extracting resources and raw materials for export. The fact that the country with the highest reserves of what has become the most

Figure 35. Productive component, Iceland and Uruguay
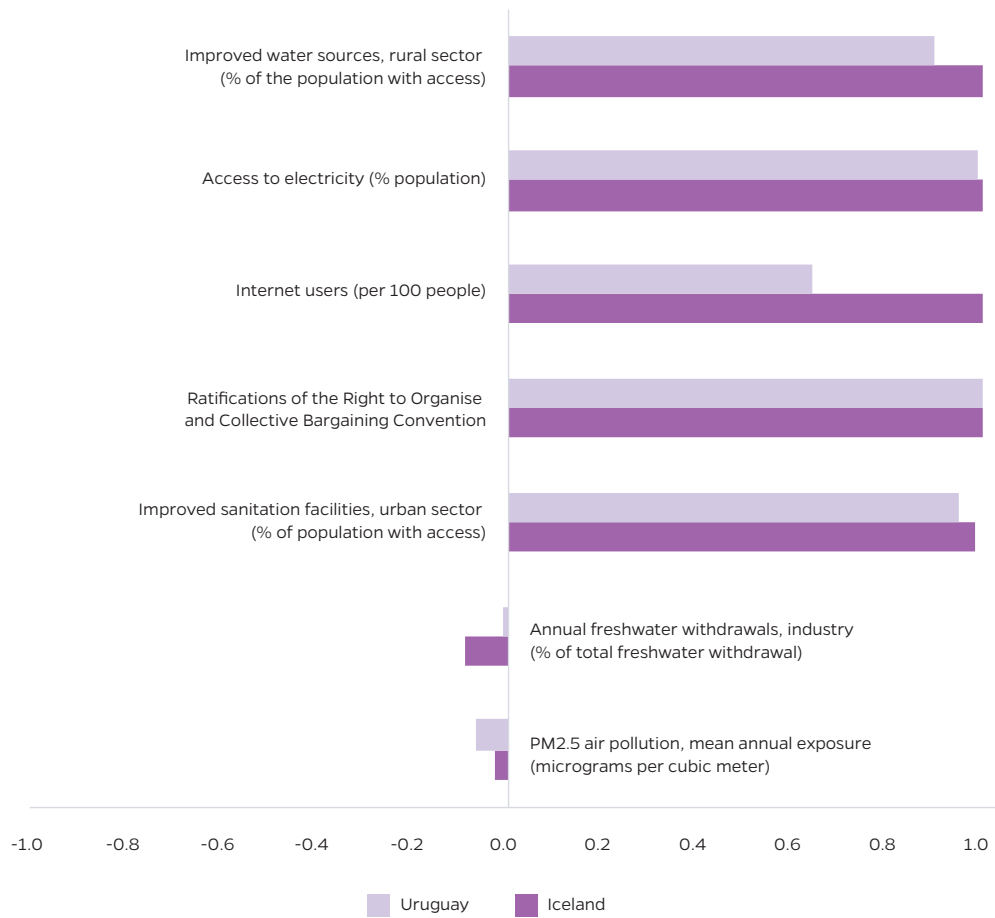
important mineral for technological change in the last two decades is also the country with the most incoherent productive development is indicative of how domestic development potential is limited by the role these countries play in the global economy.

This probably does not hold for two of the countries in the ranking that are two of the world's great industrial powers: China and India. These countries, which have experienced rapid growth since the 1990s by specializing in exporting manufactured goods and services, appear to have been unable to combine this growth with greater internal coherence in their production models.

Figure 37 allows us to analyse this in more detail. Here we can see two clearly differentiated patterns. On the one hand, the Democratic Republic of the Congo obtains a very low score in all the component variables that contribute to coherence (except ratification of the ILO Collective Bargaining Convention), whereas it is moderately penalized for pollution and the sustainability of the water used for industry. In this case, incoherence is primarily due to the country's low production level, which means it is unable to meet its population's most basic needs.

By contrast, both China and India reach significant levels in most of the indicators contributing to coherence, such as access to electricity and the Internet. However, neither have ratified the ILO Collective Bargaining Convention, which may be indicative of highly repressive labour relations. Moreover, and this is the main reason why these two countries score low on coherence, both China and India have ecologically unsustainable models of industrial development, due, in both cases, to their extremely high levels of air pollution and, where China is concerned, the considerable weight of its freshwater withdrawals for industry.

Figure 36. The 25 worst-performing countries in the productive component

Country	Value
China	29.7
Sudan	29.4
Mozambique	29.2
Tanzania	25.9
Ruanda	24.9
Mali	24.7
Togo	24.5
Madagascar	24.2
Gambia	22.8
Ethiopia	22.6
Myanmar	22.2
Burundi	21.7
Benin	20.9
Liberia	20.3
Bangladesh	20.1
Cameroon	19.6
Angola	18.1
Lesotho	17.5
India	17.3
Uganda	13.9
Sierra Leona	13.4
Mauritania	7.6
Niger	5.0
Congo (Rep.)	2.3
Congo (DR)	0.0
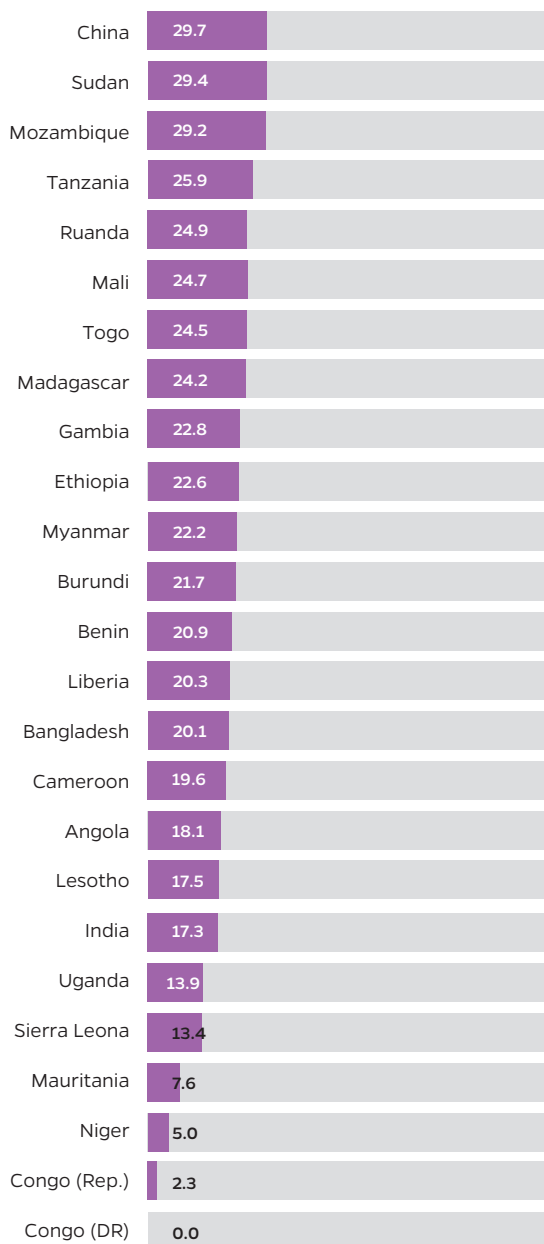
Where does the difference lie? The productive component reflects the development of basic infrastructure and whether it is used to meet the needs of the population or for alternative productive purposes. It also measures countries' productive robustness and sustainability. Here it seems clear that the two key factors to improve coherence from the productive perspective are reducing environmental impact caused by rapid industrialization of emerging countries, and, in the case of less industrialized countries, a policy designed to satisfy domestic requirements rather than international market demand.

Figure 37. Productive component, DR Congo, China and India
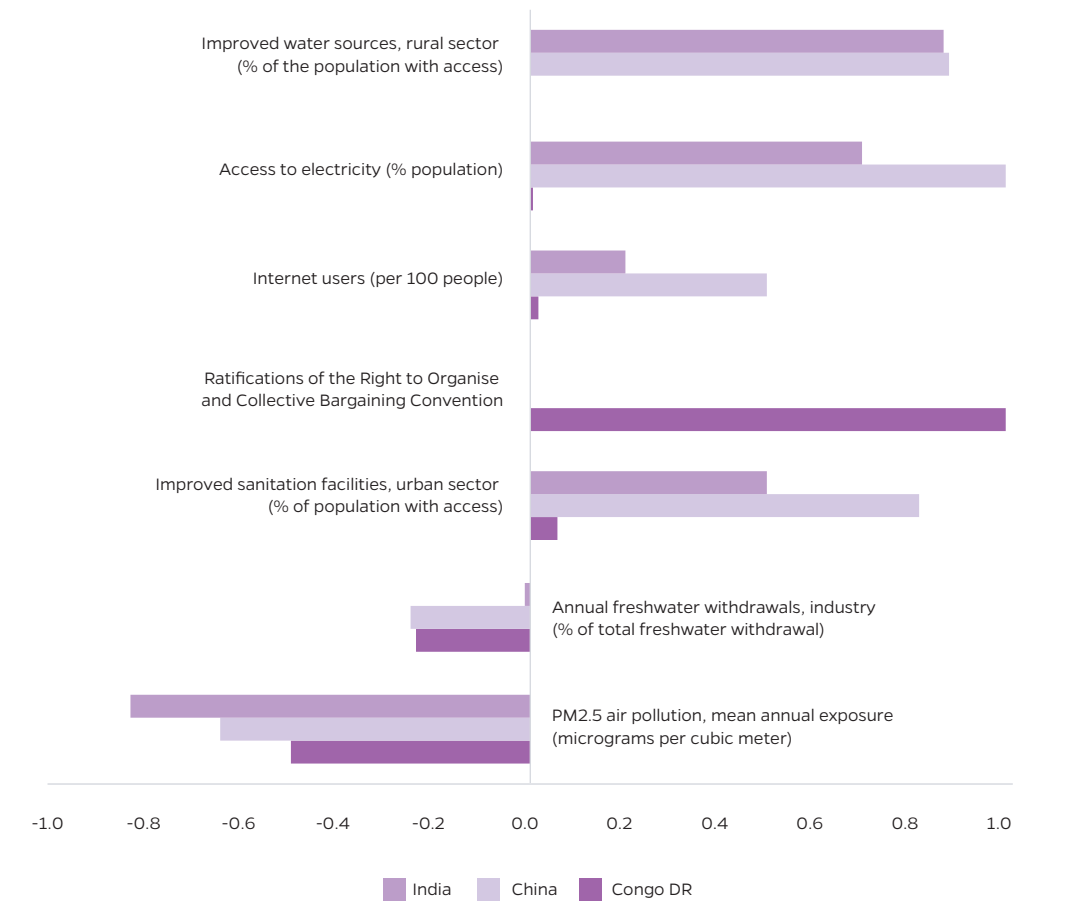
3.3. WHICH ROLE MODEL?

In this analysis, we have examined the five components of the 2019 PCSDI, considering which countries performed best in each. Although not on all components, initial evidence shows a certain uniformity in the type of country that is most coherent with development. Iceland leads in two of the five components (social and productive), Finland in one (economic), and Denmark another (global). At first glance, we might think that Scandinavian and European countries, which also occupy the top position on these components, might be role models for policy coherence for sustainable development. However, additional factors require us to qualify that thesis: the environmental component and, to a lesser extent, certain evidence in the economic component.

Firstly, as we have seen, the environmental component follows a different pattern from the rest. Here, Scandinavian and other European countries appear to be the most incoherent countries, largely due to the high impact of their production and consumption on the planet. This impact crucially highlights the unsustainability of the European model and the need to make structural changes. Moreover, this component is led by Kenya, a country whose low ecological impact is based on highly incoherent social and productive development indicators. Neither is Kenya, then, an appropriate development model choice.

Secondly, when analysing the economic component, an in-depth analysis of Germany points to a country whose taxation structure places it high up in the ranking, but whose Financial Secrecy Index largely penalizes it. This economic development model, repeated elsewhere, where a developed country uses practices that harm other countries' possibilities for development, is incoherent and its potential as a role model is also limited.

In short, in the light of the main conclusions of our analysis by PCSDI component, we cannot venture to say that any one country can serve as a development model for the rest to appropriately imitate. Adopting an analogy that is often used in public debate in Spain: not only is it impossible for every country to be like Denmark, in fact no country should be like Denmark.

The analysis of policy coherence for sustainable development shows us that no country has developed correctly and that we need new models right across the planet. These new models should be "a little bit" like every country. They should ensure social and productive coherence, gearing their system to people's needs and national laws to protect all social groups fairly. At the same time, they should render this compatible with responsible behaviour towards the planet and other people, and use democratic economic practices to thus make an effective contribution to a just world order and achieving the environmental sustainability to safeguard the future.

4.
Constructing the PCSDI

The work carried out to prepare the PCDI 2016 served as a basis for constructing the PCSDI 2019. This index factors in reviewed and updated findings from the previous edition, available up-to-date information and the recommendations of a new statistical team. There are thus similarities and differences between this 2019 PCSDI methodology and composition and the 2016 PCDI.

What follows summarizes the most significant elements involved in constructing the 2019 PCSDI, and highlights key changes that have been made with regard to the 2016 PCDI[6].

4.1. POLICY ANALYSIS

The starting point for constructing the PCSDI was analysis of 20 public policies identified on the basis of four sustainable development dimensions (economic, social, environmental and political) with a view to gauging the key aspects to be evaluated from the perspective of sustainable development, gender and human rights for each policy and dimension and also to identify indicators that allow them to be measured. In addition, the policies[7] are evaluated in a cross-cutting manner from gender, human rights and cosmopolitan standpoints.

This theoretical work—which was performed by a multidisciplinary research team for the first edition of the PCDI in 2016 and enabled the identification of a set of 202[8] variables that were eligible for the PCDI—also provided the basis for the PCSDI 2019[9] .

Environmental dimension	Economic dimension	Social dimension	Political dimension

← →

The PCDI enables us to analyse a country's public policies through four sustainable development dimensions (economic, social, environmental and political)

4.2. VARIABLE SELECTION

Once these 202 variables had been identified, the data base was purged until a smaller group of variables was identified to collect as much information as possible on the whole set. This clean-up task included the following phases that are not necessarily sequential, but are inter-related and feed into each other:

• Review of the variables: the initial data base was examined and adjustments were made on 20 variables, in some cases to correct errors detected in the previous version, and, in others, to improve the way in which policies are measured. Two variables were eliminated because of the difficulties in collecting up-to-date information, and a new one was added in the environmental component.

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6. The methodological document for constructing the PCSDI analyses this process in detail and is available at: www.icpd.info/en/
7. The policies analysed included tourism. However, due to the lack of data suitability for addressing what was to be measured, none of the variables evaluated in this area were ultimately incorporated into the final PCSDI 2019 variables.
8. The number of variables was reduced to 196 after certain category variables measuring related concepts were put in the same group.
9. The findings from the theoretical analysis carried out when constructing the PCDI 2016 are available at https://www.icpd.info/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/Components-and-policies.pdf

• Variable suitability: in the light of the updated information, analysis was conducted to gauge whether the variables properly measured those aspects of policies for which they were selected. As a result, 15 variables were removed.

• Missing data: firstly, countries with data missing for more than 55% of the 197 variables were eliminated from the data base, giving rise to the selection of 148 countries for which the PCSDI was constructed. Secondly, variables were ruled out when there was no data for at least 80% of the 148 countries, which led to the elimination of 61 variables due to missing values.

• Correlation analysis: existing correlation was analysed between the variables of each component to prevent information from overlapping. This resulted in the elimination of 13 variables.

• Final selection of indicators: the final selection of variables was made from a combination of theoretical criteria based on the research team's analysis and of statistical criteria obtained from analysis of the major components. This gave rise to choosing a final set of 57 variables with which the PCSDI was constructed. It is worth noting that, as part of this process, an in-depth review was conducted on the variables eligible to be included in the environmental component in order to better reflect the ecological impact and effects of public policies.

4.3. PCSDI CALCULATION

The PCSDI involves a two tier calculation. Firstly, intermediate indexes are obtained for each component based on the aggregation and weighting of the 57 variables selected. Secondly, the intermediate indexes are aggregated and weighted in order to calculate the final PCSDI.

Calculating indexes by component

The index for each component is calculated from the difference between the variables that contribute to and penalize development, once normalized and weighted, and once missing values have been accounted for.

Weighting the variables

Unlike the 2016 PCDI, in the 2019 PCSDI, variables are not weighted by Principal component analysis, but were given equal weighting instead. This option was chosen as, having ascertained for the 2016 PCDI that there were no significant differences in the final scores in the ranking whichever method was used, it was easier to interpret and understand.

Therefore, the same weight was allocated to all the variables in the set of variables contributing to and all those in the set of

Table 10. Weighting of the variables in each set and component

Component	Set	Num. variables per set	Weighting of each variable in the set
ECONOMIC	Contribute	2	0.500
	Penalize	3	0.333
SOCIAL	Contribute	15	0.067
	Penalize	6	0.167
GLOBAL	Contribute	12	0.083
	Penalize	4	0.250
ENVIRONMENTAL	Contribute	4	0.250
	Penalize	4	0.250
PRODUCTIVE	Contribute	5	0.200
	Penalize	2	0.500

values penalizing development in each component. This means that the implicit weight of the variables would be determined by the number of variables in each of these sets. As this number differs between one component and another, the variables of each set have different weights (table 10).

Normalizing the variables

As for the 2016 PCDI, the variables are normalized using the min-max method, which adjusts the values between 0 and 1, with reference to the maximum and minimum values of each variable. Zero is allocated to the value of the worst-performing country and 1 to the value of the best-performing country.

As this method is highly impacted by the maximum and minimum limits established as the benchmark, outliers in the 57 variables were first identified and the following adjustments were made[10]:

• For the "worst" values, the minimum values were adjusted by percentile 2.5 (or 97.5 for compensating variables).
• For the "best" values, the maximum values were adjusted by the first value excluding atypical values or by the first value excluding extreme values.

For the indicators measuring gender gaps or those relating to targets where there is broad international consensus (such as universal access to health or education), the most widely recognized reference values were used.

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10. The methodology document explains the limits set for the outliers.

Imputation of missing data

Finally, information had to be completed for those countries for which it is not available. Generally, the missing values were estimated based on the behaviour of a group of countries with similar geopolitical characteristics. The countries were first organized into six groups and missing data were replaced by the average of the group assigned to each country[11]. The mode was used for the categorical variables. Also, exceptionally, the missing values of some indicators were estimated based on their theoretical interpretation or specific research work, or by following the indications of the organization that developed them.

Calculating the indexes by component

Once these adjustments and calculations have been made, the intermediate indexes were calculated as the difference between the average of the indicators contributing to development and the average of the indicators that penalize it.

$$I\ component = \sum_{i=1}^{N^+} \frac{x_i}{N^+} - \sum_{j=1}^{N^-} \frac{y_j}{N^-}$$

Where x_i are the variables that contribute to development and y_j those that penalize it for each component.

Calculating the final index

The calculation of the final index is the arithmetic mean of the indexes of each component, once normalized and weighted.

Normalizing the indexes per component

The 2019 PCSDI uses a different normalization method from the one used in 2016 when the min-max method was applied. For this index, 0 was assigned to the value of the lowest-scoring country in each

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11. The country classification by group is available in the methodology document available at www.icpd.info/en/

component and 100 to the value of the highest-scoring country. The maximum and minimum values of the ranking of each component were thus determined by the countries which performed best and worst in the set.

In the 2019 PCSDI, the components were normalized by assigning a nought (0) to the value of the worst-performing country (as in the 2016 PCDI) and a one hundred (100) to value 100 of each component. The change in the normalization criterion for the maximum score means that the benchmark was no longer the best-performing country (as it was in 2016), but a hypothetical country that obtained the best possible score in all the component variables.

This affects the scores and interpretation of the total PCSDI, because the maximum possible value will be determined by that of the hypothetical country which obtains the best score of all the countries in all indicators in the five components. The maximum scores obtained by countries in the PCSDI are lower and better reflect their scope for PCSD improvement.

Weighting the indexes by component

Another methodological difference between the 2019 PCSDI and the 2016 index involves the weighting of components. In the 2016 PCDI, a different weighting was established for each component decided by the group of experts constructing the index[12].

For the 2019 PCSDI, the decision was taken to apply equal weighting to the five components for two main reasons. Firstly, it is the prevailing tendency in existing literature when there is no general consensus in the scientific community about the relative importance of each component or empirical evidence supporting an alternative. Secondly, it was a way of prioritizing the index's interpretational simplicity.

Aggregating the components

The final PCSDI is calculated as an arithmetic mean of the intermediate indexes after normalization.

$$PCSDI = \frac{EC^* + SC^* + GC^* + EnC^* + PC^*}{5}$$

These normalized intermediate indexes also operate as rankings of the different components.

12. For more information, see https://www.icpd.info/en/informe-2016/
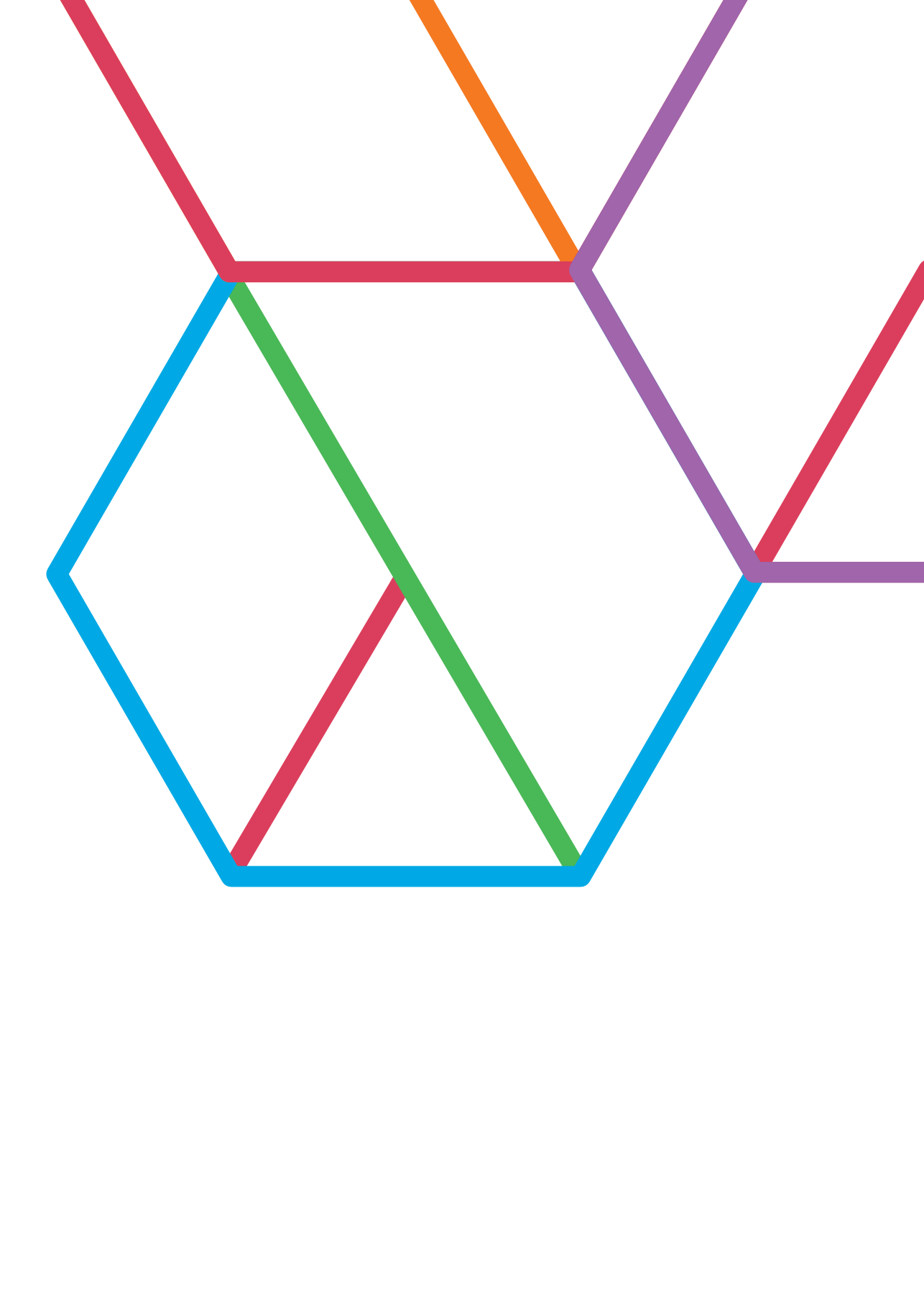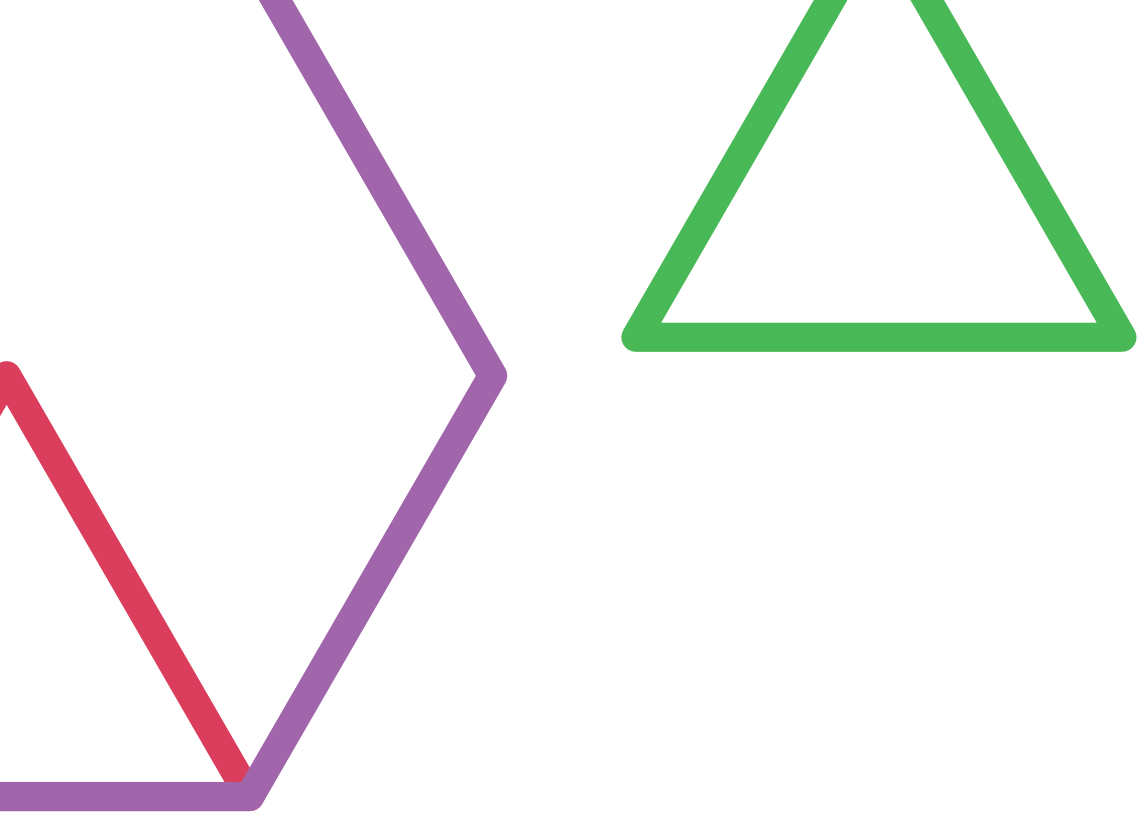
Part two

A new look at sustainable development from the policy coherence for development perspective
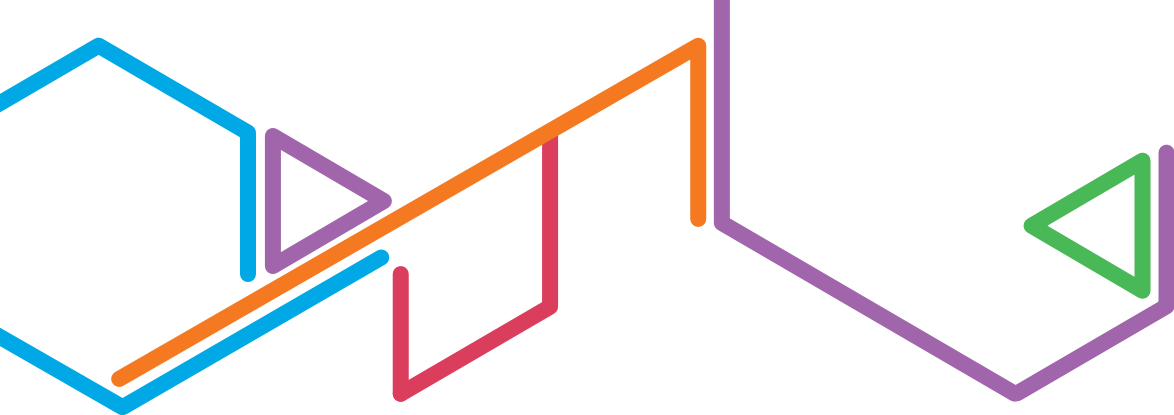
5.
The importance of measuring PCSD for the 2030 Agenda

5.1. A NEW PARADIGM SEEKING ITS MEASUREMENTS AND PRESCRIPTIONS

In the institutional and academic sphere, it is generally believed that economic growth as it is currently measured does not properly reflect the progress and setbacks of countries' development processes (OECD, 2013 y 2017a; Stiglitz et al., 2013; PNUD, 2016; Raworth, 2017), especially if viewed from the sustainability of life perspective (Pérez Orozco, 2012).

However, its use as the main prescriber of public policy remains practically uncontested since, as has been openly acknowledged, alternative measures that overcome the obvious limitations of GDP while offering similar ease of use as a prescriber have yet to be developed. We will begin by focusing on the limitations and the most widespread criticism of GDP, and conclude by addressing issues related to potential new prescribers.

The limitations of economic growth measured on the basis of the evolution of real GDP[13] as a measure of the progress, development or well-being of a country date back to the neo-classical concept of the economy. Conventional economic theory has led us to believe that economic phenomena always refer to a state of equilibrium in which rational individuals optimize their preferences. This requires (assuming) two types of abstraction that should not go unnoticed.

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13. For the time being, we are overlooking the difference between nominal and real GDP, and the fact that there are at least three different accepted ways of calculating a country's GDP. These differences have no significant bearing on the arguments we are about to present.

The first abstraction springs from our interest in mathematical models to analyse and compare economic phenomena such as productivity and growth in our countries. This type of abstraction is a common tool for the development of science. The problem here, however, is that no mathematical model takes account of those aspects of reality that cannot be quantified. The success of this sort of modelling depends on its ability to summarize and obtain results as similar as possible to the way reality truly behaves. The risk is that a historically consolidated indicator fails to take into account that this reality evolves and continues to function as the main interpreter which means that it is no longer functioning as a model but rather as a limitation or hindrance holding us back from a deeper understanding of our reality.

As with so many other quantifiers, it is believed that annual GDP variation must be positive for there to be economic growth, otherwise the economy would be considered to be in recession. Therefore, under this abstraction it is concluded that in order to prosper a country's GDP must be higher than the previous year, and so on over the course of time. One might ask, what is the maximum GDP that a country can or should reach? The problem is that this question does not make sense from a mathematical standpoint, nor from the standpoint of economics as a formal science, reducible to its mathematical expression. This is the second abstraction.

It is precisely the second abstraction, imposed by the concept of economic growth, that involves considering economic phenomena as dynamic and formal relationships. In other words, isolated from the historical, social and environmental nature of these processes. Therefore, based on the system used to calculate GDP, the variables with which the economic growth of a country is calculated are limited to consumption expenditure, investment expenditure, value added from sales, total salary costs and gross operating surplus. These are all monetized variables that are comparable between countries regardless of their point in history, social needs or environmental challenges faced within their borders —and in the world as a whole— depending on each particular situation.

Therefore, when we use GDP to compare levels of development or countries' wealth, we are only comparing a very limited aspect of the realities of these countries. Because we are not considering all the non-monetized economic and social relationships, because relationships of commercial or financial dependence between countries are not included and, perhaps most importantly, because GDP does not take account of the environmental costs of economic production, or of unpaid or care work performed mostly by women. The result is that the limits to economic growth imposed by natural ecosystems and social power relationships that for decades have been identified in multiple studies conducted in different academic areas are likewise ignored (Meadows, 1972; Bruntland, 1986; Georgescu-Roegen, 1971; Martínez Alier, 1995; Jiménez Herrero, 1997).

It is necessary to establish devices to measure development processes that have been acknowledged as multidimensional and transnational

Already back in 2009, the critical review and GDP expansion project spearheaded by economists Amartya Sen, Jean Paul Fitoussi and Joseph Stiglitz, clearly affirmed that due to threats arising from all sorts of "financial, economic, social, and environmental disasters (…), we must change the way we live, consume and produce. We must change the criteria governing our social organizations and our public policies" (Stiglitz et al, 2013). To that end, they suggest modifying certain criteria used to calculate GDP, such introducing averages and analysing by quintiles to take distribution into account, not considering all in-kind transfers made by states as expense but rather considering their results (educational and health systems, for example), and including issues such as the use of time, leisure, travel and subjective perceptions of well-being.

In short, the aim is to replace an indicator focused on monetized production with another that takes account of well-being. If the former is related to the latter, it should be included based on certain conditions, i.e. computed as a contribution to well-being when this is the case. Similarly, however, from the perspective of sustainable development as a complex and interrelated process, we must assume that monetized production dynamics could negatively impact these processes depending on their circumstances and effects.

The basic driving force behind that and other efforts we are making through the construction of the PCSDI is the need to establish devices to measure development processes that have been acknowledged as multidimensional and transnational.

5.2. NEW MEASUREMENTS INTER-RELATING ECONOMIC, SOCIAL, POLITICAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL SPHERES

The fact that over the last few years many attempts have been made to establish new measurements taking a multidimensional approach to the phenomenon of development is the best proof that it is not only relevant but also crucial to better understanding our reality. Over the last decade, the number of national and international initiatives in this regard has grown exponentially and such initiatives are supported by the international community's most important and representative institutions[14].

For our purposes here, we will only analyse two of the most representative ones developed and supported by the United Nations and the OECD. This is not a comprehensive analysis but rather a look at those elements that characterize the shared concern about obtaining new indicators for processes that truly must be monitored from a multidimensional perspective. However, we were able to draw some conclusions from the analysis that are useful in heightening awareness and considering crucial aspects that must be incorporated into the new development measures properly incorporating multi-dimensionality.

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14. There are dozens of countries that have applied numerous methodologies and are working on multidimensional approaches to evaluate their development processes and influence public policy. For a summary of some of them, see cases in Latin America, UNDP (2016). Another summary with a wider range of countries is the Global Happiness Council (2018), pp. 200-245.

Based on the capabilities approach as a vector of human development developed by Amartya Sen, Professor Sabina Alkire developed the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI)[15] incorporating a battery of social indicators and establishing three tiers of indicators: poverty, vulnerability and sustainability. These three tiers relate functioning and achievements to the capabilities required to obtain them. This system of multidimensional indicators of poverty and human development[16] enables more precise focusing of public policies on the different geographical, demographic and collective realities found in any country.

This approach has been adopted by the UNDP in some of its latest regional reports, such as the Regional Report on Human Development for Latin America and the Caribbean (UNDP, 2016). In this report, the three levels of indicators suggested by the multidimensional approach constitute different scales that enable different ways of monitoring total shortcomings, situations of vulnerability and, in the most consolidated part of development processes, those situations that help ensure the sustainability of achievements. "In the poverty baskets, sustainability and resilience to vulnerability are reflected in the construction of a series of development steps with a multidimensional focus" (UNDP, 2016).

But, as the UNDP acknowledges, "In the design and implementation of such policies, another particular challenge arises in the form of finding the points at which these policies intersect. (…) Multidimensional problems require multidimensional solutions. A new policy architecture must be developed that goes beyond a sectoral focus, articulates territorial strategies between different levels of Governments, constructs policies for different stages of the life cycle, and fosters greater citizen participation" (UNDP, 2016).

The UNDP's 2016 report for Latin America clearly states that the main transformations observed in the last decade and a half in the region are the reduction of monetary poverty and a timid emergence of the middle class. Both phenomena result from changes in the income pyramids. However, in terms of health indicators, basic services and education, the region is ahead of where one might expect based solely on income.

This pattern, examples of which can be found around the world in one direction or the other, shows that "GDP is a measurement of national income and not of a population's well-being. This constitutes the starting point on the pathway towards a multidimensional approach to public policy" (UNDP, 2016). Underpinning the changes measured in terms of income in any given country, we find transitions beyond income that show multiple processes of social, economic and environmental change. Progress has been systematically underestimated because of the use of GDP per capita as a proxy for well-being (UNDP, 2016). Just the opposite is true when we look at the status of fundamental social and environmental indicators as the use of GDP overestimates development levels by not incorporating income distribution or its relation to access to services, nor does it incorporate environmental deterioration, depletion of natural resources or the devastating effects their consequences have on the sustainability of life.

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15. Research conducted as part of the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) and published globally by the UNDP in 2010.
16. Since 2010, the UNDP has been publishing the HDI and the HDI corrected by gender as a proposal for indicators and baskets for resilience to vulnerability and for sustainability of achievements.

The OECD also recognizes the limitations of economic change data measured in terms of income. The editorial in its fourth report on measuring well-being explicitly states that "there is concern that the economic shifts in the last 30-40 years have left too many people behind. With the crisis as its backdrop, the 'beyond GDP' movement has drawn attention to the limits of macroeconomic statistics in describing what matters most to the quality of people's lives. This has encouraged us to ask both who and what aspects of life are missing from the traditional indicators that policy-makers most often use to guide their decisions" (OECD, 2017a).

This report is part of another noteworthy example of new studies and analyses to better understand and measure the multidimensional development processes that the OECD has been leading since 2011. It is called the *Better Lives Initiative*[17]. It is based on different hypotheses that incorporate elements of the human development approach though not embracing it as the main element[18]. The OECD approach aims to define which dimensions other than income are relevant to understanding the processes of what it calls development or social progress. To that end, it prepares and puts forward for consideration 11 dimensions of life that would provide the best approximation to what it considers to be well-being, combining material conditions and quality of life[19]. To include an intergenerational perspective, the index also considers four capital stocks relevant to future well-being[20]. To measure all these dimensions and resources, the index consists of 50 selected indicators that apply to 42 countries (the 36 OECD members and 6 partner countries)[21].

The main conclusions of the OECD reports are that this type of multidimensional measurement highlights the importance of inequalities involved in promoting and understanding well-being, deemed to impact all indicators as data is disaggregated by gender and age group. Moreover, regarding

vertical inequalities, seven of the 11 dimensions are also analysed according to the breakdown of the socioeconomic status of the population in each country (OECD, 2017a).

Although it is not the purpose here to conduct an in-depth critique of the initiatives that we have mentioned in relation to multidimensional measurements, it is worth mentioning how the Better Life Initiative includes the environment as a dimension of development. As already mentioned, the index considers 11 dimensions and four resources. Of the 11 dimensions, only one refers to environmental issues, so-called environmental quality, expressed in two indicators: air quality and water quality. The methodological key to sustainability resides in including the likelihood of sustained well-being as defined by the index, without assessing whether or not the levels of well-being of OECD countries can be extended to the rest of the planet.

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17. How´s life? is part of the OECD's Better Life Initiative launched on the occasion of its 50th anniversary. The initiative undertakes to promote "Better policies for better lives", in line with the organization's mission. One of the pillars of the initiative is the Your better life index (www.oecdbetterlifeindex.org) , an interactive composite index of well-being that aims to engage citizens in the debate on social progress.
18. For a detailed explanation of the OECD's welfare approach, its inspiration from the concepts of functioning and capabilities of human development and its particular interpretation, see OECD (2013; 22).
19. The dimensions for material conditions are housing, income and wealth, and job and earnings; and for quality of life: community, education, environment, civic engagement, health, life satisfaction, safety, and work-life balance.
20. They are: natural capital, human capital, economic capital and social capital.
21. See the database at https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=BLI#

To that end, in its 2013 and 2015 editions, the OECD defines and details the conceptualization of economic, natural, human and social resources it introduces into the explanatory matrix of the index in the form of capital, but not in the calculation of the indicators that comprise it. Truth be told, however, while its definition of natural capital is based on the System of Environmental-Economic Accounting[22], it only collects information related to natural capital assets and ignores the other two main elements of the system which we view as fundamental for a proper multidimensional approach to development: environmental flows and economic activity impacting the environment. Hence, the definition of natural capital in the OECD index does not take stock of emissions or waste management, two issues among many that are extremely relevant for a full multidimensional understanding of today's sustainable development processes.

This may be related to the fact that the OECD's conceptualization of environmental sustainability focuses on the development of the green growth concept. In this vein and incomprehensibly separate from the Better Life Initiative, it publishes the Green Growth Index comprising 16 indicators, including some that measure emissions and waste (OECD, 2017b). The report features alarming data related to environmental degradation, biodiversity loss, resource depletion, water and air pollution, and so forth. However, as it only covers OECD countries, it simply concludes that most of these countries are still net importers of CO_2 emissions. The green growth approach is based on the desire to decouple economic growth and emissions and harmful impacts to the environment. The report does acknowledge that emissions have not yet begun to drop. In fact, emissions continue to rise but at a slower rate than GDP growth such that global CO_2 emissions in 2015 are 58% higher than in 1990 (OECD, 2017b).

Although the approach suggested in the report apparently aims to maintain the economic growth indicator as the main measurement of prosperity, when that growth is compared with the green indicators, it has no choice but to recognize the real challenge being faced in achieving a comprehensive and truly multidimensional vision of development processes: "Important challenges remain, to better safeguard our natural resources and further reduce the environmental footprint of our consumption and production. Beyond relative decoupling, economic growth must be completely untied from environmental pressures (absolute decoupling)" (OECD, 2017b).

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22. Developed by the United Nations statistical unit in collaboration with the European Commission, the OECD, the IMF, the FAO and the World Bank. It can be found at https://seea.un.org/content/seea-central-framework

It seems that we are facing a dilemma insofar as we can either continue trying to progress in this decoupling without harming economic growth or start thinking about ruling out economic growth as a measure of progress precisely because, owing to the way it is built as an indicator, it is decoupled from the natural underpinning that any development process has or will have. In short, we should stop trying to make reality resemble our conventions and start building conventions to more truly reflect reality.

We have observed that efforts are being made to understand and measure development, taking its multidimensional nature into account. All efforts in this regard, those mentioned here and others, are soon destined to configure a new framework of public policy priorities and recommendations, just as GDP and income calculations have over the last several decades.

In any event, we highlight the UNDP's suggestion that what is important is to identify and establish relationships and links between the different dimensions, that is, those intersecting areas that serve as evidence and constitute the basis for multidimensional measurement and whose mathematical abstraction best resembles countries' true performance. It seems that significant progress has been made by institutions and countries in recognizing development's social dimension, as seen in the issue of inequality's increasing importance in the public agenda.

Similarly, an increase in concern and information regarding the environmental dimension of development can be observed, although the measurement proposals have not managed to incorporate the criticality shown by the dramatic values for environmental indicators. The shortcomings of the proposed measurement proposals are probably related to a narrow interpretation of the multidimensional concept, i.e. one that recognizes the need to add dimensions to understand the processes, but that has not yet dared to explore the details of their interrelated nature. It is safe to say that we are at a time when it is more important to explore how the different dimensions relate to one another. This not only leads to criticising any perspective that implicitly or explicitly imposes hierarchies among them, but also to establishing the nature and extent to which economic, social, environmental and political factors relate to one another.

There is one more aspect, also difficult to measure, but which is virtually missing in the proposals observed: the inescapably transnational nature of sustainable development processes (Keating, 2001; Strange, 2001; Ugalde, 2006; Martínez Osés and Martínez, 2016; Millán, 2013).

If we intend to better understand how public policies can contribute to devising and advancing these processes, we can no longer limit ourselves to a strictly domestic or national scope. The next heading addresses this question.

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5.3. OVERCOMING NORTH-SOUTH THINKING AS AN IMPERATIVE GIVEN THE TRANSNATIONALISATION OF DEVELOPMENT

It is very difficult to isolate oneself from six decades of development theory and practice when reflecting on development. Since the mid-twentieth century when these theories emerged, they have been closely tied to a vision of the world divided between developed countries and those aspiring to development. Discourse and practice focused on analysing development as an eminently national process in which national public policies would be primarily responsible for achieving that status. It therefore makes sense that analyses and proposals are generally national or domestic and even to this day a national methodological view prevails when it comes to development issues (Beck, 2005).

However, international studies have emerged addressing these issues in tandem with progress made in development studies and practices. The fields of international cooperation, international trade, international finance, geopolitics and international political economy, among others, have analysed international relations which have gradually gained traction in providing possibilities (and thwarting) national development processes. The very concept of cooperation in international relations arises from the need to coordinate, complement and integrate national political action when tackling international challenges.

However, in recent decades increasing amounts of evidence point to the transnational nature of development issues. And this is not only owing to evidence stemming from increased awareness of ecological factors which obviously transcend political boundaries established by states, but also because of the impact that national policies have on other territories and on the various dimensions of development. These impacts have shown that development is determined by a host of interdependencies and interrelations over and above national concerns. Recognition of the global and interdependent nature of development processes is possibly one of the greatest contributions made by the 2030 Agenda.

Unlike its predecessor, the millennium agenda, this new international agenda asserts its universal nature and challenges all countries to transform their development models so as to make them compatible with those of other countries and future generations. Hence, it is no longer a matter of appealing to countries to continue progressing their own development processes to climb a hypothetical pyramid with privileged countries at the top, but rather something more complex: transforming national development and basing it on a new universal rationale that thus encompasses a global view of transnational interrelationships and interdependencies. This means establishing the shared responsibilities of all countries

and defining the different roles that each country plays in that shared responsibility. Embracing this new way of understanding development challenges requires a radically different view on national public policy and the responsibilities of states vis-á-vis those challenges.

The change that is needed calls into question the widely held principle that the responsibility of our governing class is circumscribed within national borders, even when foreign policy, based on the interests of that same group of citizens, is implemented in the field of international relations. Assuming that countries have a global responsibility means more than assuming that they have another responsibility in addition to the real one. It invites them to rethink that responsibility from a transnational perspective. This poses limitations but also opens up a new range of possibilities. The point is that limitations and possibilities no longer refer to situations measured solely based on national interests. They require a new global frame of reference. Building that global frame of reference constitutes a challenge in any attempt to measure sustainable development processes such as the one at hand.

Less progress has been made in this regard than in exploring the multidimensionality of development. The OECD itself recently recognized that "measuring OECD countries´ transboundary effects is a complex undertaking" (OECD, 2019) and is only an estimate which it acknowledges is very basic, although it announces the forthcoming publication of a study to move forward on this issue. While there is no denying the limitations in terms of focus and availability of data with which to measure the transnational effects of public policy, the OECD essentially recognises the need to broaden the approach, as "transboundary effects could be considered in all situations when any country is affecting any other country, in any way, and at any time".

Development's interdependent nature indicates that these transnational effects of political action will always exist and can be more easily observed from a multidimensional perspective. Therefore, regardless of whether they are designed to address domestic or international issues we will somehow have to start including the global responsibility of national public policy in our measurements. In other words, when analysing public policy, the aim should be to replace a national methodological approach with a cosmopolitan one.

5.4. TAKING THE PCSD APPROACH TO UNDERSTAND INTERSECTORAL AND TRANSNATIONAL LINKAGES

The PCSD approach has enormous potential for the new public policy framework required. Shortly after the 2030 Agenda was approved, Amina Mohamed[23] stated that policy coherence constitutes an imperative since understanding and addressing agreed goals requires the coherent organisation of a wide range of policies that shape sustainable development (OECD, 2015).

The main contribution of the OECD in relation to the potential of the approach was developed by its policy coherence unit, introducing the concept of Policy Coherence for Sustainable Development which moves away from a narrow vision of coherence to incorporate a global perspective on how the policies of all countries affect sustainable development.

The 2015 policy coherence report sustains that we need to move beyond monitoring frameworks focused on institutional mechanisms and incorporate at least three other interrelated elements: interactions between policies, contextual factors and the effects that policies have on the well-being of people (OECD, 2015).

The PCSD's expanded approach falls in line with a comprehensive, multidimensional and cosmopolitan vision of development, thus moving away from those sectoral North-South policy approaches based on methodological nationalism.

The PCSD approach can be especially useful in systematically analysing and understanding the responsibilities that countries have in promoting global sustainable development given that it considers development to involve processes entailing a complex logic that requires examining the cross-sectoral, multidimensional and transnational implications that public policy has for development. Hence it is instrumental in analysing development processes by observing their interactions —often contradictions— rather than by a supposed constant approximation to an ideally preconfigured result (Martínez Osés and Gil Payno, 2016).

The PCSD approach basically means promoting openness to change policies based on sustainability of life, equity and justice and global responsibility criteria. Using the PCSD approach to measure multidimensional and transnational development processes means that we are working with ongoing processes that cannot be analysed through a narrow, technocratic lens in a debate divorced from political reality (Van Seters et al., 2015). The PCSD approach prioritises analysing the structures and dynamics of development produced by certain power relations underlying policy (Siitonen, 2016).

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23. As from 2012, Amina Mohamed was a special advisor to the Secretary General of the United Nations, Ban Ki Moon, in charge of coordinating the 2030 Agenda development process. She is a specialist in development and the environment and has worked with philanthropic institutions such as the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation. In 2016 she was appointed as Deputy Secretary General of the United Nations by the current Secretary General, António Guterres.

The PCSD approach basically means promoting openness to change policies based on sustainability of life, equity and justice and global responsibility criteria

As we discussed in a preparatory analysis of the first edition of the PCDI in 2016, "The PCD approach presupposes a conception whereby development is the result of a political process that is resolved in the constant integration and interaction that occurs in the social, economic and environmental dimensions of configured reality. It is not conceived as an aggregate of dimensions but rather as a structure involving interactions and interconnections of cross-cutting dynamics that are part of and parcel of a complex system. The universality and environmental sustainability of development impose explicit limitations on the development process. Based on this, criteria can be established to assess whether or not the policy results or impacts are consistent with such a conception of development. Thus, for example, economic growth as the direct result of certain policies, as if it were infinite and disconnected from its material underpinning and social effects, can only be conceived through a single-dimension rationale, making it fictional. In short, if what we intend to measure is policy coherence with multi-dimensionally conceived development, as established under the concept of human and sustainable development, it would appear to be indispensable to do so based on criteria that determine the extent to which policies contribute to personal capacity-building and to which they guarantee the capacities of other people in other latitudes and that of all future generations" (Martínez Osés and Gil Payno, 2016).

The PCSD's four analytical dimensions (Millán, 2012) enable us to delve into the multidimensionality of development, i.e. intersection between policies, the intermestic and transnational nature of all policies while analysing the behaviour of all government action, i.e. the whole of government approach, with the necessary long-term view that development transformations require, i.e. they must take an intergenerational approach, and at the same time analyse each policy's contribution to development, that is, internal coherence.

The combined analysis suggested by the PCSD approach allows us to measure policy coherence while devising a multidimensional, transnational measurement tool to examine the political processes that shape sustainable development.

5.5. MOVING BEYOND THE HEGEMONY OF GDP TO MEASURE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN THE FRAMEWORK OF THE 2030 AGENDA

As we have seen, the approval of the 2030 Agenda explicitly poses new challenges for systems that measure and evaluate progress in development. The appeals that the 2030 Agenda makes to universality and sustainability point to the need to profoundly transform the current models of development, production and consumption, and to redistribute and share out resources and policy results. These transformations invite us to come up with a much more comprehensive and interrelated way of understanding and assessing public policy in relation to its effects on development. It is an ambitious agenda that, despite its profound contradictions, responds to a world view marked by interdependencies — blurring the borders and profiles of the various actors– and the transnational nature of development challenges (Martínez Osés and Gil Payno, 2016).

The 2030 Agenda explicitly poses new challenges for systems that measure and evaluate progress in development

Each of the SDGs and their targets are important, but in order to determine whether the 2030 Agenda will ultimately be successful, we must use a different approach to evaluate its performance. To fulfil this agenda, we need to pay attention to the essence of its holistic and interrelated framework. As suggested by the group of experts selected by the United Nations Secretary General who were entrusted with coordinating the preparation of the *Global Sustainable Development Report*[24] to be published in the coming months, we need to ask ourselves whether there will be greater systemic transformation by addressing the interrelationships between various SDGs, and whether we are going to implement a new form of governance where international flows of resources, people and money will be fair. If the answers to these questions were affirmative, it would be fair to say that the implementation of the 2030 Agenda will have been a success and that we will have taken a step forward on the path towards true sustainable development[25].

Indeed, the new public policy architecture will be tested with the implementation of the 2030 Agenda provided that the three fundamental principles on which it is built are upheld: a) universality, which does not imply uniformity but rather differentiation; b) integration, which involves harmonizing economic, social, environmental and political dimensions and, c) the full inclusion of all people. As the UNDP warns, two sources of tension make it difficult to implement the 2030 Agenda: "Firstly, the act of privileging one objective over another and developing a partial agenda, within which the holistic nature of the objectives and targets is curtailed; and secondly, the task of designing sectoral policies for each objective or set of targets. Both will fragment the agenda into a series of bureaucratic challenges that will increase the scattering of efforts" (UNDP, 2016).

One way of reducing this tension is to fully integrate the 2030 Agenda principles into national development plans and budgets,

thereby generating a holistic dialogue between the dimensions at the heart of public development policies. This mainstreaming of the 2030 Agenda principles into the set of overall public policies falls in line with the PCSD approach as it allows for the analysis, assessment and, where appropriate, rectification of each public policy outcome based on a multidimensional, transnational view of development. This gives rise to a universal, integrated and inclusive public agenda.

Thus, the challenge begins by effectively replacing one-dimensional progress or development measuring devices, particularly those based on income. The transformations and changes advocated by the 2030 Agenda require, first of all, a profound transformation of the measurements used to assess the performance of countries and societies, without losing sight of global performance. The urgent transformation pursued by the 2030 Agenda "requires a more complex and multidimensional approach, given that both

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24. The *Global Sustainable Development Report* (GSDR) is an initiative stemming from paragraph 83 of the 2030 Agenda which asserts the need to monitor the Agenda from a holistic and global perspective. The report should incorporate scientific evidence taking a multidisciplinary approach in line with the multiple sustainable development dimensions to reflect the 2030 Agenda's indivisible and integrated nature. These reports will be delivered to the High Level Forum to monitor the SDGs. In 2014 a prototype report was drawn up and in 2015 and 2016 two further reports were published. But that year the decision was made to henceforth publish a four-year report for which a panel of experts was appointed. This panel of experts is trying in a certain way to reproduce the link between science and politics based on the Intergovernmental Panel for Climate Change (IPCC) model so that scientific evidence can more directly impact sustainable development policies. The publication of the next report focused on the analysis of transformations is announced for 2019. See https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/globalsdreport/2019
25. See the GSDR blog post signed by one of the responsible experts, Eeva Furman, of the Finnish Environment Institute (SYKE), Finland. See https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/globalsdreport/2019

material opportunities and mechanisms must be created, along with a questioning of socially accepted standards and values that validate certain hierarchies that should not necessarily exist." (UNDP, 2016).

For its part, we have seen that the OECD tool designed to measure well-being recognizes that it fails to contemplate two issues that are found in the 2030 Agenda. On the one hand, the multidimensional proposal of the OECD does not incorporate any of the means of implementation, since it is built on outcomes and not on the public policies needed to obtain them. On the other hand, the OECD recognises that it does not incorporate any indicator to consider the principle of all countries' shared responsibility in managing resources and public goods, thereby preventing them from being negatively impacted (OECD, 2017b). It is not by chance that the OECD index avoids considerations related to the political dimension of development. This is consistent with its basic hypothesis on economic development where it does not normally examine power relations.

In short and as a conclusive summary, these new measurement tools to obtain new valuations must respond to three interrelated criteria: first, they must incorporate a multidimensional approach exploring the links and relationships between the different dimensions of the development processes. Here, it is vitally important to avoid incorporating the environmental dimension superficially, merely paining a few green brush strokes on the current processes and development models. Its very nature as a natural dimension on which all other processes and dynamics are based forces us to urgently and radically consider currently observed trends towards depletion and fragility.

Second, the North-South dichotomy must be replaced and upgraded by a transnational vision that incorporates the general principle of shared but differentiated responsibilities,

which necessarily requires an assessment framework proportional to the intensity of public policy impacts and their environmental consequences.

Third, the human rights approach needs to be adopted as way of ensuring no one is left behind such that its progressive nature serves as an important indicator when assessing public policy results.

Lastly, we have observed that numerous efforts are being made to devise new indexes and instruments to more accurately measure development processes without stunting their multidimensionality and transnationality. But we also observe that the old income and revenue based yardsticks, while reflecting a neoclassical view of the economy for which no reality check has actually been performed, continue to inordinately influence political decision-makers. This owes both to their simplifying power —making them highly useable— and the power relationship between the economic, political and social actors shaping our era. Therefore, their gradual replacement with new indicators and public policy prescribers that are more firmly rooted in reality will depend on our ability to technically and statistically develop them and to transform the current power relations upholding GDP as an uncontested idol.

If power relationships and the common worldview underpinning them remain as they are, changes in the patterns of production, distribution and consumption of goods that are so important in determining our current development models will not be achieved

Overcoming the hegemony of income represented by GDP symbolizes in itself the great transformation of our time. Again, this transformation will not depend solely on how much data we are able to collect and how we can combine them to better recreate the reality of multidimensional and transnational sustainable development. As experts warn "At a deeper level, the very notions of progress, well-being and development need to be redefined. Rather than being one-dimensional paths of progress, they entail changes in power relations and the collective worldview of the rights and aspirations of citizens" (UNDP, 2016).

As we have seen, despite more and better approaches to sustainable development processes, there are still important technical and statistical shortcomings that need to be addressed. But the OECD also states that, in addition to needs for research and investment to achieve better approaches, "there is an urgent need to bridge the gap between better data and better lives. This means greater commitment from decision-makers to use the data that we already have. This is not simply a question of statistics: it means linking numbers to real-world impact and experience and developing policies that can bridge well-being divides. Indeed, the question now is not just: how big are the gaps? – but rather, how can we design policies that will close the gaps that matter most and deliver well-being for all" (OECD; 2017a). To which we would add: Why not try to identify those power relationships that, if not modified, could stand in the way of establishing the policies that can close the gaps?

Stated otherwise, when we talk about a shared transformation agenda for sustainable development, we cannot ignore the eminently political nature of this transformation. If power relationships and the common worldview underpinning them remain as they are, changes in the patterns of production, distribution and consumption of goods that are so important in determining our current development models will not be achieved.

Recently, New Zealand's head of government announced that her country rejected GDP as the main indicator by which to establish its political objectives and announced the country's first national budget guided by the concept of well-being. This is undoubtedly a step in the right direction which should be followed by other countries and furthered by generating alternatives to build a new framework of progress for humanity as a whole.

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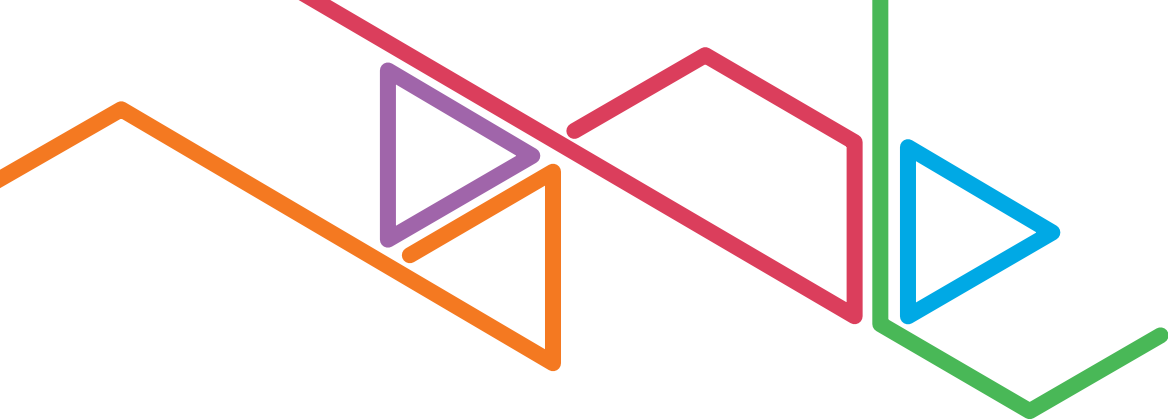
6.

Policy coherence for sustainable development as a means of analysing development

As we saw in the previous chapter, a number of diverse institutions are explicitly highlighting the need to search for sustainable development indicators that cover more areas and are based on new perspectives on social reality. Underpinning this need is the insufficiency of GDP which, however, in its different formats, is still the measurement most commonly used by governments and political decision makers. It was in this context that the PCSDI emerged as a possible way to remedy this situation. But we must first specify what exactly we mean conceptually by policy coherence for development and how it contributes to building the PCSDI.

As we have mentioned, there are several ways of understanding what policy coherence for development is, ranging from simply technical approaches conceiving coherence as a means

to improve public policies by reducing as much as possible the negative impact that some specific policies (trade, migrations, environment…) have on aid recipient countries, to more advanced approaches which, from a whole of government perspective, attempt to analyse the extent to which the development perspective has been included in the package of government actions, with the aim of proposing changes to increase that inclusion[26].

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26. For an in-depth analysis of the concept and application of Policy Coherence for Development, we refer to Millán (2012).

Not only do they differ in its application or scope, but a fundamental element underpinning all PCSD conceptualisations is the assumption that various policies contradict each other. While some "favour" development (regardless of how it is understood) others "hinder" it. However, this finding merely confirms something fundamental to all development processes. Development, viewed as a social process, takes place in a concrete society, with differentiated social groups that have divergent interests, contradictory opinions about what a desirable life is, different social movements, be they reactionary or emancipatory ... and all this is framed within forms of power relationships that, while not fixed, do stake out what is possible and the way we understand development itself.

The PCSDI integrates this essentially conflictual vision of development in order to try to analyse it. It does so, and it is important to explicitly highlight this, from a critical perspective[27]. For us, the PCSD is an instrument of political change that, based on this analysis, proposes the consolidation of a given type of policy and action, the transformation of others, or even eliminating still others as they are currently being implemented.

Within this approach, the PCSDI uses an indicator to try to synthesize the different variables that must be taken into account when assessing the extent to which a given country, its public policies and, in general, its development process, is more or less consistent with a particular view of sustainable development. It goes without saying that this second element, which is not usually mentioned when talking about policy coherence for sustainable development, is one of the key PCSDI elements worth examining more closely. Before we start discussing policy coherence for development, a definition should be established of what we need to be coherent with.

A fundamental element underpinning all PCSD conceptualisations is the assumption that various policies contradict each other. While some "favour" development (regardless of how it is understood) others "hinder" it

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27. In other words, we aim to draw attention to how the negative or contradictory elements of a given process conflict with a predetermined scale (which could be the objectives set by policy or purely ethical or more general approaches).

CAN DEVELOPMENT BE REDUCED TO A NUMBER?

The PCSDI, like any index or ranking, has its limitations. The variables impacting development cannot be captured in all their breadth, much less converted into a number. It is not the intention of the PCSDI to contribute to the quantitative obsession that some SDG interpreters and their catalogue of goals and indicators are bringing to the world of development.

The essence of the PCSDI therefore does not lie in a merely superficially taking note of a ranking, but rather in delving into how the variables relate to each other, analysing each country's performance in each dimension, and determining why those ranked as highly developed in other indices are so incoherent.

Indeed, the PCSDI analyses development and builds its index based on a specific normative framework. A normative framework is understood to be a specifically sought form of development, having discriminated and considered that a certain type of policy and variables contribute to this concept of development, while others thwart it. Therefore, the indicator has been devised to integrate the positive and negative contributions that different policies have in the development process into a single (contradictory) piece of data reflecting it. The idea is to stop what has a negative impact on sustainable development and increase (and improve) what has a positive impact.

6.1. THE PCSDI NORMATIVE FRAMEWORK

The term itself is a good example of the significance that the choice of normative framework has in understanding the development process. The term "development" is used by different groups and people to mean totally different things. For many, development is basically synonymous with economic growth, while for others it means human capacity-building. Economic growth is a means to that end in the best-case scenario in certain approaches while in others it is a hindrance[28]. The key in each case is not in the words, but in the "way of looking at" the facts that they describe. This is constructed based on the political project that we are carrying out[29]; in other words, based on the normative framework that, again, each of us either explicitly or implicitly has in our head.

Moreover, these normative frameworks are not merely subjective, i.e. major theoretical constructs that each individual builds a priori out of the social reality they aim to evaluate. On the contrary, they are the result of ongoing, never-ending disputes taking place in different social spaces. And they change simultaneously in tune with public policy. The human development framework, usually

attributed almost exclusively to Amartya Sen, is not subjective intellectual production of his. It is the response coming from the heart of the United Nations system to the shortcomings of the post-war normative framework, usually attributed to Walt Whitman Rostow who focused his recommendations on modernizing policies that can be implemented in any country to ensure growth. And Rostow's normative framework is the defence of the Western bloc against the communist project in the context of the Cold War[30].

As they take place in society, all social actors participate in these ongoing disputes. Consciously or unconsciously; with or without hegemonic potential capacity; with a predefined framework or partially based on specific demands; through formal channels, international

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28. A concise and very clear analysis of the problem can be found in Unceta, Koldo (2016).
29. And there is always a project: either the mere reproduction of the order of things, with better or worse intentions, or to increase the capacities of a happy life in harmony with the environment, sometimes referred to as emancipation.
30. Indeed, the subtitle of this author's main work, "The stages of economic growth", originally published in 1960, is "A non-communist manifesto".

public institutions, national governments or academia, or informally, through private institutions, mobilization, political advocacy or non-academic discourse, these disputes always take place in a context in which there is a dominant view of development that social actors attempt to reinforce, criticize or produce an alternative to.

Growth as a component of development stands as a very clear example. The notion that development is basically economic growth is currently under fire from many different fronts ranging from the human development viewpoint to criticism from the ecological movement regarding the environmental consequences of that growth, to the theoretical input from the ecological economy that has questioned the way in which Western societies produce and consume since energy and physical variables have been included in economic analyses. All of this has generated an approach that has permeated a large part of civil society, academia and even international spheres of policy decision.

However, in the public debate or when producing development policies, the inescapable need for economic growth remains virtually indisputable. This is neither theoretical nor does it involve the best arguments, as this debate never takes place. There is resistance to change and difficulties in overcoming structural issues making it less likely for alternatives to emerge. But the underlying reason is fundamentally political and has a lot to do with the fact that the groups that benefit from economic growth (large companies, the financial sector, etc.) are much better at imposing their ideas, regulations or indicators than those referred to above.

Based on this premise, the PCSDI has not been built as a neutral indicator, but rather seeks to analyse the development process in each country. It takes a critical view of the most common ways of interpreting development, and, moreover, it does so with the intention of participating in this ongoing dispute over the concept of development. It is critical of dominant views and aims to draw a broader picture of reality by highlighting aspects that other indicators ignore.

The PCSDI has not been built as a neutral indicator, but rather seeks to analyse the development process in each country from a critical view of the most common ways of interpreting it

From this point of view, there are three factors that in our opinion are fundamental to sustainable development and which therefore must be addressed by any coherence indicator: development's ecological sustainability; a feminist approach; and democratization of society.

Development's ecological sustainability

Few words are more overused in the field of development (except perhaps development itself) than the word sustainability and all its derivatives. Its origin dates back to the Bruntland Report and it is usually related to the idea of making development compatible with the environment, although it is also used to mean lasting or less unstable.

With the approval of the 2030 Agenda and the Sustainable Development Goals, the development agenda converged with the United Nations sustainability agenda. In part, this occurred because of the increasingly obvious ecological crisis facing our planet. This crisis is being addressed by more and more actors, both public and private, both governmental and social. Each of these actors intends to approach this ecological crisis differently, either thanks to changes in the growth model to make this "less harmful to the environment", mainly through technological solutions to be found by the market, or through massive public intervention to ensure a "Green New Deal" that structurally changes capitalism, or by questioning the development process itself (and the very idea of sustainability), challenging the notion of growth and development and advocating degrowth.

In our view, any PCSD approach must include ecological sustainability as central to development. Ecological sustainability is to be understood simply as current development not impeding the development of future generations. Questioning of economic growth as an indicator of progress is key, and the questions would be: Is economic growth (understood as increase in

per capita GDP) a substantial element of development? Are coherent development policies those that contribute to a rise in per capita GDP every year?

Based on the sustainability criterion, our answer would have to be no. GDP as an indicator or variable to measure development is not only insufficient but is also misleading and contributes to maintaining the dominant view of development that has "tiptoed" around this issue since the Bruntland Report first appeared.

A feminist approach

Since the publication of the 2016 PCDI report where a feminist approach to any possible evaluation of development was already adopted, feminism has taken centre stage in public debate. Today it is hard not to consider oneself feminist and the only ones who do not are those who have directly declared war on feminism. In 2019, the PCSDI has confirmed its commitment to feminism and tried to gain further traction in the consolidation of this feminist approach[31].

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31. However, further consolidation of the feminist approach is needed, in part because of the difficulties in identifying indicators whereby to evaluate political processes in this regard and that can supply data for the large set of countries that this index evaluates.

Analysis or implementation of a feminist approach must basically incorporate two elements: 1) analysis of how development affects women based on the premise of the structural inequality they endure in any patriarchal system; and 2) examining the entire development process through a "feminist lens". This feminist perspective aims to shed light on what the dominant perspective in a patriarchy fails to reveal: the significance of reproduction (also referred to as care-giving) in order to make production possible. GDP is unable to measure this significance (because it does not go beyond the traditional / patriarchal perspective that only monetizes what has value for it), i.e. the work done outside the economic transaction; the work in the domestic sphere carried out mostly by women making the very existence of a market labour force possible.

Democratizing society

The third factor understood as fundamental to development in this report is its contribution to democratizing society, i.e. constituting real political equality that can become effective. Although democracy is usually associated with the presence of democratic institutions, we aim to work towards equality in power and, therefore, our normative framework also refers to democratising the economy, building global democratic governance, and establishing a minimum set of social rights and a fair production model oriented towards materially sustaining a country's society.

6.2. THE PCSDI PERSPECTIVE

Based on this normative approach, figure 38 offers a possible classification of each of the 2019 PCSDI variables according to its major contribution to each of these three elements. Note that in some cases a variable contributes to more than one element. In table 11 it is important to point out that this approach is analytical and that in terms of the development process, sustainability, feminism and democratization are frameworks of analysis that allow us to study each of the variables or aspects of the development process individually.

Figure 38. PCSDI variables according to their contribution to sustainability, feminism and democracy
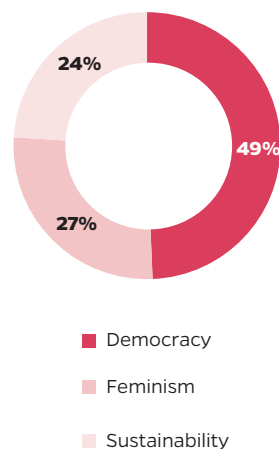
- 49% Democracy
- 27% Feminism
- 24% Sustainability

Table 11. PCSDI variables' contribution to normative frameworks

Code	Name of the variable	Component	Normative framework
FIS1	General government revenue (% GDP)	Economic	Democracy and sustainability.
FIS3	Variation rate of the Gini index before and after taxes and transfers	Economic	Democracy
FIS6	Financial Secrecy Index	Economic	Democracy
F2	Oversized banking sector	Economic	Democracy
F4	Account at a financial institution: difference between men and women (%)	Economic	Feminism
EDU5	Survival rate to the last grade of secondary education, both sexes (%)	Social	Democracy
EDU8	Pupil-teacher ratio in pre-primary education	Social	Democracy
EDU9	Pupil-teacher ratio in primary education	Social	Democracy
EDU14	Repetition rate in primary education (all grades), both sexes (%)	Social	Democracy
PS1	Public social protection expenditure (% of GDP)	Social	Democracy and feminism
PS5	Old age pension beneficiaries (%)	Social	Democracy and feminism
IG1	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%)	Social	Democracy and feminism
IG2	Vulnerable employment, female (% of female employment)	Social	Feminism
IG5_6_7	Legislation against gender violence, sexual harassment and marital rape	Social	Feminism
IG11_12	Maternity an paternity leaves	Social	Feminism
IG14	Position at the UN in favour of the LGTBI community	Social	Democracy and feminism
S2	Healthy life expectancy at birth (years)	Social	Democracy
S3	Medical doctors (per 10 000 population)	Social	Democracy
S9	Universal Health Coverage Index	Social	Democracy
S11	Improved sanitation facilities (% population with access)	Social	Democracy, sustainability and feminism
CIT1	Internet access in schools	Social	Democracy and sustainability
CIT6	Percentage of students in tertiary education who are female	Social	Feminism
CIT13	Graduates from tertiary education who are female (%)	Social	Feminism
EM1	Unemployment rate	Social	Democracy
EM4	Share of unemployed receiving regular periodic social security unemployment benefits (%)	Social	Democracy
EM6	Vulnerable employment, total (% of total employment)	Social	Democracy and feminism
J3	Abolition of the death penalty	Global	Democracy
J4_5	Legality of homosexuality and equal marriage	Global	Democracy and feminism
J6	Ratification of UN Human Rights treaties	Global	Democracy
J8	Universal Jurisdiction	Global	Democracy
J9	Ratification of Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court	Global	Democracy
J10	Legislation on abortion	Global	Feminism
J13_14_15	Women's rights in the sphere of justice	Global	Feminism

Table 11. PCSDI variables' contribution to normative frameworks

Code	Name of the variable	Component	Normative framework
PYS1	Military expenditure (% of GDP)	Global	Democracy and sustainability
PYS3	Armed forces personnel (per 100,000 inhabitants)	Global	Democracy
PYS4	Ease of access to small arms and light weapons	Global	Democracy
PYS6	Participation in international arms treaties and conventions	Global	Democracy
PYS9	Nuclear and heavy weapons capabilities	Global	Democracy
PYS12	Plan of action to implement UN Security Council Resolution 1325	Global	Feminism
C5	Contributions to UNWOMEN (GDP per capita)	Global	Democracy and feminism
C6	Contributions to UNEP (GDP per cápita)	Global	Democracy and sustainability
M4_5	Convention and Protocole relating to the Status of Refugees and International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families	Global	Democracy
P4	Clean water	Environmental	Sustainability
DR9	Fertilizers use	Environmental	Sustainability
B2	Ecological footprint of production (gha per person)	Environmental	Sustainability
B10	Participation in international environmental agreements	Environmental	Democracy and sustainability
B13	Biocapacity reserves/deficit (ha. per person)	Environmental	Sustainability
EN1	Electricity production from renewable sources, excluding hydroelectric (% of total)	Environmental	Sustainability
EN2	Ecological footprint of imports (gha per person)	Environmental	Sustainability
EN4	Carbon Dioxide Emissions (Metric Tons per Person)	Environmental	Sustainability
U2	Improved sanitation facilities, urban sector (% of population with access)	Productive	Sustainability and feminism
U4	PM2.5 air pollution, mean annual exposure (micrograms per cubic meter)	Productive	Sustainability
IT3	Improved water sources, rural sector (% of the population with access)	Productive	Sustainability and feminism
IT4	Access to electricity (% population)	Productive	Democracy, sustainability and feminism
IT5	Internet users (per 100 people)	Productive	Democracy
IN5	Annual freshwater withdrawals, industry (% of total freshwater withdrawal)	Productive	Sustainability
IN7	Ratifications of the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention	Productive	Democracy

Capturing the complexity of the political process

Development has usually been understood as a result. Greater or lesser health coverage, life expectancy, school enrolment or GDP per capita were what defined a country's development. We believe that the PCSD enables a more complex analysis for a more accurate view of the development process that lends attention not only to its results but also to political will expressed through action and the functioning of the political process. The PCSDI establishes variables showing us different aspects of the process (table 12).

This differentiation among variables based on different aspects of the political process is directly related to the critical vision stated at the beginning of this chapter. Attaching too much weight to outcome variables as has been done for decades in measurements made by international institutions and governments, partly limiting the availability of official data, is counter-productive in showing the complexities of the political process determining different development situations.

We will now delve into each of the types of variables and provide some examples taken from the 2019 PCSDI.

Input and product variables

In this first case we refer to variables that show how an element is introduced into the political system (input) and what kind of elements that political system produces (product). These types of variables are intended to show the strength and institutional capability of a particular political system.

Table 12. Policy process dimensions indicated by PCSDI variables according to their typology

Type of variable	What it indicates
Input	Indicates the premises of the political process, i.e. the starting point for public policy design. For example, the % of expenditure in a specific area
Product	Indicates performance, in the form of public policy products, stemming from the political process. For example, the existence of regulations, of greater or lesser scope, is a variable attributable mainly to the political process
Outcome	Indicates development results, not directly attributable to a political measure but to the political process, at least in part. These are the traditional development indicator variables
Stance	Indicates political will in terms of the signing or ratification of treaties or the approval of specific legislation on development related matters. They are pertinent to understanding political will

One key input variable, for instance, is a country's revenue collection capability which will be one of the main factors determining the extent to which public policies contribute to sustainable development. In the PCSDI, government revenue as a percentage of GDP is the variable that reflects this.

Product variables will show the extent to which society has changed following the application of a particular product. For example, continuing in the fiscal sphere, the variation rate of the Gini Index before and after taxes and transfers (%).
Let us compare these two variables. These are the 25 countries with the best performance for each variable (table 13).

As the table shows, although many of the countries are listed twice since there is an obvious link between the ability to collect revenues and the impact of expenditure on society, some of the countries in the first column do not appear in the second. For example, Kuwait, a country that has a percentage of government revenue over GDP similar to that of Finland, ranks 101st in the second table. In other words, from the point of view of policy coherence for sustainable development (and democratization of society in line with the transformation mentioned above), Kuwait's fiscal system produces highly dysfunctional products, although it does have inputs that could help the country to improve significantly. Spain, for example, despite only marginal performance in the first area, is ranked higher in the second column indicating that the fiscal system is succeeding in terms of redistribution, although it stands much room for improvement in terms of collection. Weak input coupled with strong products may indicate that focus should be placed primarily on the margin of improvement observed in inputs in order to enhance the latter.

Table 13. The top 25 countries in Government revenue and Gini index variation rate before and after taxes and transfers.

Ranking	Government revenue (% GDP)	Variation rate of the Gini Index before and after taxes and transfers (%)
1	Finland	Finland
2	Iceland	Denmark
3	Kuwait	Hungary
4	Norway	Sweden
5	France	Germany
6	Denmark	Czechia
7	Belgium	Cyprus
8	Greece	Malta
9	Austria	Norway
10	Sweden	Ireland
11	Croatia	Slovenia
12	Italy	Austria
13	Qatar	Slovakia
14	Hungary	Poland
15	Germany	Netherlands
16	Netherlands	France
17	Bosnia and Herz.	UK
18	Montenegro	Luxembourg
19	Portugal	Greece
20	Lesotho	Portugal
21	Belarus	Switzerland
22	Luxembourg	Serbia
23	Serbia	Canada
24	Iraq	Spain
25	Estonia	Iceland

Outcome variables

Here, these variables show the coherence of the set of given situations in a particular society or geography, without focusing on the influence that each public policy has on each specific result. They are usually the result of an entire set of public policies or, in most cases, are caused by reasons beyond the control of the state itself.

A good example is the ecological footprint, the variable that measures the environmental impact that a given development model has on the planet as a whole. The PCSDI includes several variables that measure ecological footprints such as the ecological footprint of production (ha. per person), ecological footprint of imports (ha. per person), and carbon dioxide emissions (metric tonnes per person).

Here we have the ecological footprint of imports indicating the impact that the consumption of products from abroad in each of these countries has on the global ecological system.

Here, table 14 shows the countries that are the least coherent with sustainable development based on their ecological footprint of imports. This is an outcome indicator in the sense that it does not show the behaviour of the political process, but rather the behaviour of society as a whole. The reasons for the amount of imports will depend on the demand and the type of goods demanded, the productive capacity of the country, and so forth.

Table 14. The bottom 25 countries in Ecological footprint of imports (ha. per person)

Ranking	Countries
1	Luxembourg
2	Belgium
3	Netherlands
4	Singapore
5	Denmark
6	Austria
7	Slovenia
8	Norway
9	Sweden
10	Finland
11	Estonia
12	Lithuania
13	Slovakia
14	Qatar
15	Czechia
16	Bahrain
17	Germany
18	Switzerland
19	Latvia
20	Ireland
21	Israel
22	Malta
23	Portugal
24	Oman
25	Canada

Stance variables

Lastly, the PCSDI includes stance variables which show a given country's commitment to democratic global governance. These types of variables are included because democratic governance and building collective security are fundamental to enabling sustainable development and, therefore, each country's political contribution to them must be assessed when determining its coherence. Also, as indicated above, these variables are indicators of the political will of the governments of each country, a substantial factor contributing to effective coherence.

To conclude this exercise, these variables show us what appears to be counterintuitive at first sight. In principle, the widespread belief is that Western or more developed countries are the ones that contribute most to global democracy, for example through international human rights legislation. However, ranking for the Ratification of UN Human Rights treaties indicator is as follows (table 15).

Although definitive conclusions would require more thorough research (for example into why the Balkan countries rank so high on this list and whether this has to do with the resolution of the conflict of the 1990s), this ranking does illustrate some important aspects. Of the 25 countries that contribute most to international human rights legislation only 9 are EU members; 10 of those 25 are Latin American countries. The list does not include any Asian country. As addressed in the global component, this may break with certain assumptions about Regions' international behaviour.

Table 15. The top 25 countries owing to the ratification of UN Human Rights treaties

Ranking	Countries
1	Uruguay
2	Argentina
3	Ecuador
4	Spain
5	Austria
6	France
7	Montenegro
8	Chile
9	Serbia
10	Belgium
11	Bosnia and Herzegovina
12	Mexico
13	Bolivia
14	Germany
15	Portugal
16	Costa Rica
17	Albania
18	Peru
19	Paraguay
20	Mali
21	Brazil
22	Azerbaijan
23	Luxembourg
24	Slovenia
25	Sweden

6.3. CONCLUSION: CAN POLICY COHERENCE FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT BE MEASURED?

As we have seen, studying policy coherence for sustainable development is complicated. First, it requires a normative framework enabling us to analyse the concrete facts emanating from political reality. It is important to signify this as it is often "taken for granted" that a given view of development is the only one possible. In the first part of this chapter we attempted to this by drawing attention to the elements needed to progress in transforming each country's development model.

In order for policy coherence for sustainable development to make sense, to be useful for something, it must actively participate in the debate resulting from the various development imaginaries. It will make sense if it helps us to measure the impact that financial or industrial policies have on rich countries, or the impact that the size of the ecological footprint has on the sustainability of our way of life. In short, it will help to guide us along the best path to putting an end to business as usual by coherently steering specific transformation.

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7.
The PCSDI and other ways of measuring development

7.1. COMPARISONS TO UNDERSTAND COUNTRIES' GLOBAL DEVELOPMENT RESPONSIBILITIES

In this section we compare the results of the PCSDI with the Human Development Index (HDI), a ranking of countries dating back to 1990 and a consolidated global benchmark on how countries compare to one another in terms of human development. We will then analyse the comparison with the results of the recent SDG Index published by the Sustainable Development Solutions Network (SDSN) that provides a ranking of countries based on their performance and status regarding the 2030 Agenda goals.

We do not compare the different methodologies and inputs used to build each of the three composite indices but limit our scope to comparing some of the results offered by the various country rankings. The aim here is to gain a deeper understanding of what the PCSD approach allows us to see and

to establish relationships between policy coherence, the concept of human development, and analysis of the implementation of the 2030 Agenda.

The PCSD approach's focus on interdependencies and the multidimensional and transnational nature of development processes does not bar important convergent considerations resulting from a comparison with these two indices. But the PCSDI's variations and deviations from the others show its potential to incorporate a more complete vision of countries' performance and a sharper definition of some of the challenges they face.

Very concisely, we will see how PCSDI results shed light on what is generally described as the human development of countries. Yet the PCSDI is more demanding and spotlights countries' transnational and multidimensional responsibilities. Likewise, we will observe the PCSDI's potential to guide policies towards a transformative achievement of the 2030 Agenda.

7.2. MOST COUNTRIES IN THE WORLD ARE MORE COHERENT THAN THEIR HUMAN DEVELOPMENT LEVELS INDICATE

In order to compare the results of the PCSDI and HDI, we had to delete 41 countries included in the latter[32]. The PCSDI includes 148 countries while the HDI evaluates 189[33]. The PCSDI does not have enough data on the countries it did not include.

Those countries missing from the PCSDI cannot be considered representative of any geographical group or relative level of development and therefore do not seriously compromise the value of the PCSDI. Some of the countries left out of the PCSDI, such as Syria, Afghanistan, Haiti, Palestine and South Sudan, are of interest for certain development issues due to their geopolitical situation and relative development. However, not enough data were available. On the other hand, most of the countries not included in the PCSDI are small island states, many of which are especially vulnerable to climate change and biodiversity loss, placing them among the geographies most at risk from insufficient policy coherence for sustainable development.

After eliminating the 41 countries mentioned, the ranking of the remaining 148 was adjusted in accordance with the HDI scores published in 2018.

A comparison of the country scores in the PCSDI and the HDI showed a positive correlation of 0.7091. This means that some of the characteristics measured by the two indices are linked. However, this degree of correlation also indicates that there are notable differences between them which are explained by the conceptualisation and approach chosen in their construction.

If we examine the mean values of the two country rankings, we see a very significant difference inasmuch as they offer quantitative assessments of coherence and human development for the set of countries included

in both cases. For the PCSDI, the mean value of the 148 countries is 49.51 on a scale of 0-100. This means that the aggregate of the countries studied barely manages to pass the PCSD test and therefore stands much room for improvement. The mean value of the HDI for the same countries is 0.73 on a scale of 0 to 1. This appears to indicate that, in aggregate terms, countries are doing quite well in terms of human development.

The same difference can be observed in the maximum and minimum values of each index. Norway ranks first on the HDI with a score of 0.953 out of 1 and Niger is last with 0.354. The PCSDI ranks Denmark number one with a score of 79.02 and India comes in last with 26.76. These significant differences in country rankings may be related to the standardization method chosen to construct each index. According to the HDI, Norway has very little room to improve its level of human development as it is a mere 47 thousandths from the maximum possible score. In the PCSDI, number one Denmark still has an improvement margin of nearly 21%.

The strongly exemplifying function of numerical indexes could indicate that countries should aspire to resemble Norway in order to achieve the desired level of human development. As was brought to light

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32. Among the 41 countries for which there is insufficient data to incorporate into the PCSDI, five are very high-ranking HDI countries (Hong Kong, China (SAR), Liechtenstein, Andorra, Brunei and Bahamas); 15 are high-ranking HDI countries (Palau, Seychelles, Antigua and Barbuda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Grenada, Saint Lucia, Tonga, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Suriname, Dominica, Samoa, Marshall Islands, Libya, Turkmenistan and Gabon); 9 are middle HDI countries (Palestine, Micronesia, East Timor, Kiribati, Vanuatu, Laos, Equatorial Guinea, Sao Tome and Principe and Swaziland); and 12 are low ranking HDI countries (Solomon Islands, Papua New Guinea, Syria, Comoros, Afghanistan, Haiti, Djibouti , Guinea-Bissau, Eritrea, Chad, South Sudan and the Central African Republic).
33. We used the 2018 HDI for the analysis.

previously in the ranking analysis section, the PCSDI shows that human development levels in Norway cannot be universally applied to all countries under the current circumstances given the transnational impacts and interdependencies that its level of human development has on other geographies. If we assume that development processes are multidimensional and transnational, then we must incorporate shared but differentiated responsibilities in computing each level of national development as the PCSDI attempts to do. The PCSDI scale helps us to better understand the sustainability of development. This is key if it is to become universal for future generations.

In aggregate terms, country scores are lower for PCSD than for human development. However, most countries have a better relative ranking in the PCSDI than in the HDI. A comparative examination of rankings shows that of the 148 countries, 88 rank better on the PCSDI than on the HDI, while 58 countries rank lower on the PCSDI than on the HDI. Only two countries have the same ranking on the two indices: Botswana and Ethiopia coming in at 87 and 137 respectively. Nearly half (70 countries) show differences of 20 or more positions between one index and the other (28 do worse on the PCSDI and 42 do better), and only 45 countries have a variation of fewer than 10 positions (19 worse and 26 better). Judging by the number and magnitude of the differences, at first glance, these data indicate that countries' performance is assessed very differently by the two indices.

In general terms, a comparison of the two rankings shows that most countries rank higher in terms of coherence with the principles of sustainable development than in terms of human development. However, a more in-depth analysis of the differences is required since as they bring to light numerous elements of interest to better understand countries' performance on coherence and their relative position to other countries in terms of development.

7.3. THE 'ODD' CASE OF (SOME OF) THE RICHEST COUNTRIES

Figure 39 showing the ranking dispersion in the two indices will help us to analyse these differences. That figure shows some countries with a very high HDI score (the first 40 positions on the X axis) that, however, are ranked very low on the PCSDI (Y axis). Special mention should be made of Singapore (8, 112), the United States (12, 91) and South Korea (20, 78) among the 20 ranking the highest on the HDI. Also, Israel (20, 75), Qatar (34, 114), United Arab Emirates (32, 139), Bahrain (39, 145) and Saudi Arabia (36, 147) are especially striking since they are among the ten lowest-ranking countries on the PCSDI.

Figure 39. Country dispersion for PCSDI and HDI positions
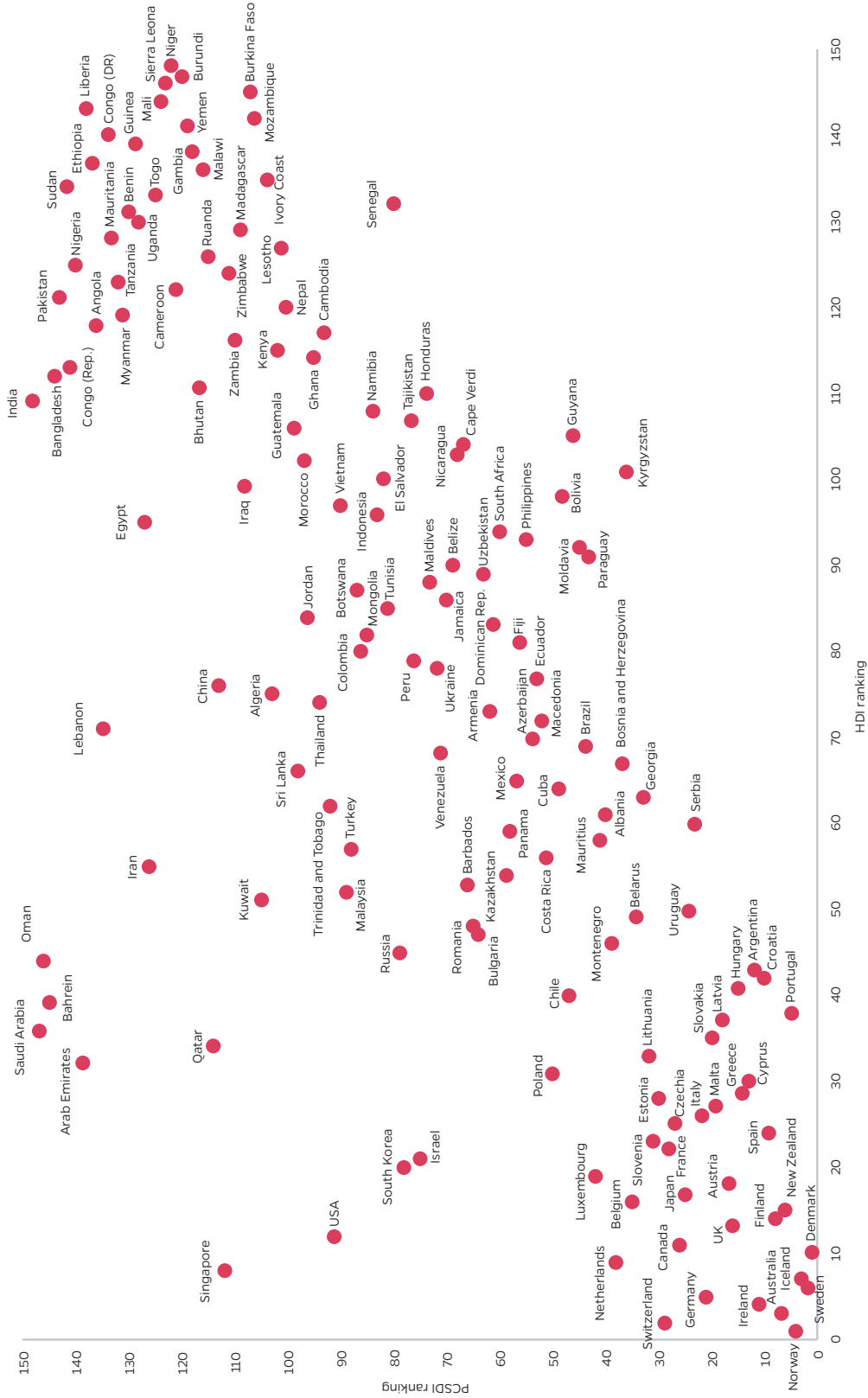
The list of the 15 countries whose variation worsened the most between in the PCSDI when comparted to the HDI indicates that some of the countries with the highest human development perform poorly when it comes to coherence. Of the 15, only Lebanon, India and China have a moderate or low ranking on the HDI, 70, 109 and 76 respectively.

This set of countries with the lowest policy coherence compared to their HDI ranking can be characterized by scant responsibility in transnational issues and interdependencies vis-à-vis that which would be required based on their models and levels of development.

Let's take a closer look at ranking on the PCSDI and the HDI for countries with a very high HDI. Here we have a group of 54 countries, 33 of which rank lower on the PCSDI than on the HDI, and 21 of which higher rank higher on the HDI than on the PCSDI. The breadth of the difference in ranking in one direction or the other is also important. As table 17 shows, the countries with a very high HDI score are not only those with the largest gap between the two indices, but the sum of their differences is -1,178 positions, that is, an average decline in the ranking of -35.69 positions on the PCSDI as compared to the HDI for each of the 33 countries. For the 21 countries ranking higher on the PCSDI than on the HDI, the total difference is 296 positions, an average of 14.09.

Two clearly differentiated patterns can be identified among the group of countries with a very high HDI score. Some countries have a very high gaps in the ranking (over 50 positions), all ranking lower on the PCSDI. Arab countries with a productive system based on oil exports and poor performance on gender issues clearly predominate in this pattern. Then there are countries with very low gaps in the ranking (fewer than 5 positions), either in one direction or the other, which are mostly Nordic and European.

Table 16. The 15 countries whose position worsen the most as compared to the HDI

Country	PCSDI (ranking)	HDI (ranking)	HDI-PCSDI difference
Saudi Arabia	147	36	-111
Arab Emirates	139	32	-107
Bahrain	145	39	-106
Singapore	112	8	-104
Oman	146	44	-102
Qatar	114	34	-80
United States	91	12	-79
Iran	126	55	-71
Lebanon	135	70	-65
South Korea	78	20	-58
Israel	75	20	-55
Kuwait	105	51	-54
India	148	109	-39
Malaysia	89	52	-37
China	113	76	-37

Table 18, providing the same analysis for the group of 26 countries scoring low on both, the HDI and the PCSDI, indicates that here the relationship is inverted, i.e. 4 countries rank lower on the PCSDI and 21 rank higher. Moreover, those whose ranking drops only do so by a few positions, an average of -9.5. And those ranking higher on the PCSDI than on the HDI do not exhibit the spectacular differences observed among countries with very high HDI scores amounting to a total of 417 positions, averaging out at 19.85.

Table 17. Differences between PCSDI and HDI positions: countries with a very high HDI

Country	Difference in ranking HDI-PCSDI (worsen)	Country	Difference in ranking HDI-PCSDI (improve)
Saudi Arabia	-111	Austria	1
United Arab Emirates	-107	Lithuania	1
Bahrain	-106	Iceland	4
Singapore	-104	Sweden	4
Oman	-102	Italy	4
Qatar	-80	Finland	6
United States	-79	Montenegro	7
South Korea	-58	Malta	8
Israel	-55	Denmark	9
Kuwait	-54	New Zealand	9
Malaysia	-37	Spain	15
Russia	-34	Greece	15
Netherlands	-29	Slovakia	15
Switzerland	-27	Belarus	15
Luxembourg	-23	Cyprus	17
Belgium	-19	Latvia	19
Poland	-19	Hungary	26
Bulgaria	-17	Uruguay	26
Romania	-17	Argentina	31
Germany	-16	Portugal	32
Canada	-15	Croatia	32
Barbados	-13		
Japan	-8		
Slovenia	-8		
Ireland	-7		
Chile	-7		
France	-6		
Kazakhstan	-6		
Australia	-4		
Norway	-3		
United Kingdom	-3		
Czechia	-2		
Estonia	-2		

7.4. SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT COUNTS, A LOT

If we go back and look at the lower right quadrant in figure 39, it is worth noting that none of the countries with the lowest HDI ranking are among the countries with the highest PCSDI ranking.

This shows that the social indicators incorporated into the HDI are in some way reflected in the PCSDI and superficially reflect the general situation of the countries in this regard. In no case can countries that do not offer adequate social policies to their citizens be considered coherent with sustainable development.

Table 19 lists the 15 countries whose ranking improves the most in the 2019 PCSDI ranking when compared to their 2018 HDI ranking. In general terms, the differences are smaller than the ones observed in the list of the 15 countries that worsened the most in the ranking. The maximum deviation was 65 positions for Kyrgyzstan. The most obvious pattern in this group is the predominance of impoverished countries, but no geographical group clearly stands out.

Table 18. Differences between the PCSDI and the
HDI positions: countries with a low HDI

Country	Difference in ranking HDI-PCSDI (worsen)	Country	Difference in ranking HDI-PCSDI (improve)
Nigeria	-15	Ethiopia	0
Tanzania	-9	Benin	1
Sudan	-8	Uganda	2
Mauritania	-6	Liberia	5
		DR Congo	6
		Togo	8
		Guinea	10
		Rwanda	11
		Zimbabwe	13
		Madagascar	20
		Malawi	20
		Gambia	20
		Mali	20
		Yemen	22
		Sierra Leone	23
		Lesotho	26
		Niger	26
		Burundi	27
		Ivory Coast	31
		Mozambique	36
		Burkina Faso	38
		Senegal	52

Table 19. The 15 countries whose ranking improves the most in the PCSDI compared to the HDI

Country	PCSDI (ranking)	HDI (ranking)	HDI-PCSDI difference
Kyrgyzstan	36	101	65
Guyana	46	104	58
Senegal	80	132	52
Bolivia	48	98	50
Paraguay	43	91	48
Moldavia	45	92	47
Philippines	55	93	38
Burkina Faso	107	145	38
Serbia	23	60	37
Cape Verde	67	104	37
Honduras	74	110	36
Mozambique	106	142	36
Nicaragua	68	103	35
South Africa	60	93	33
Portugal	5	37	32

7.5. THE PCSDI'S MULTI-DIMENSIONAL VIEW SHOWS COUNTRIES' GLOBAL RESPONSIBILITIES AS UPHELD BY THEIR POLICIES

In addition to comparing rankings on these indices, it is worth delving further into the analysis to understand those general deviations that, as we saw, most significantly affect the group of countries scoring very high on the HDI score but low or very low on the PCSDI.

For this it is useful to examine the various PCSDI components and how they relate to the HDI. First, as noted earlier, countries' relative social situation as measured by the HDI is contained in the PCSDI. This close relationship is confirmed by the correlation coefficient between the HDI and the social component of the PCSDI, (0.9419), higher than the overall correlation between the HDI and the PCSDI (0.7091). The correlation between the productive component and the HDI is also higher than the correlation between the overall HDI and the PCSDI (0.7236). This is because these two components, social and productive, encompass aspects that highly impact the HDI variables. The social components mostly involve issues related to the right to education and health and the productive component involves access to basic infrastructure such as water or sanitation, key to ensuring a long healthy life.

However, the picture changes when analysing the coefficients indicating HDI correlation with the rest of the components. The economic correlation coefficient is 0.5459 and global correlation coefficient is 0.2767. Both are lower than for the social component's correlation coefficient. This owes to the additional elements that the PCSDI includes in these areas as comparted to the HDI, for instance taxation, financial opacity, degree of militarization and countries' commitment to international human rights at the international level, to name just a few.

Table 20. Correlations between the PCSDI components with the HDI (values)

PCSDI-HDI	Economic component-HDI	Social component-HDI	Global component-HDI	Environmental component-HDI	Productive component-HDI
0,7091	0,5459	0,9419	0,2767	-0,6572	0,7236

A negative correlation between the HDI and the environmental component (-0.6572) can also be observed. This apparently indicates an inverse relationship between human development and the PCSDI environmental component. In other words, it cannot be concluded that the higher the level of human development, the better key environmental issues are handled. Actually, it is just the opposite.

This negative correlation between the HDI and the environmental component of the PCSDI is particularly illustrative of the fact that the development model that advanced or developed countries have adopted in recent decades is not environmentally sustainable. In fact, all current environmental indicators show how irreparable damage continues to occur and is exacerbating the depletion and fragility of ecosystems. It should come as no surprise that the 2030 Agenda underscores the urgent need to change patterns of commercialization and consumption of goods as current models are unsustainable. The fact that this correlation is negative points to the need to overhaul production and commercialization systems and make them more environmentally sustainable.

Many decades have passed without ever incorporating environmental impact into calculations of wealth, progress or development. A multidimensional view requires us to change the way these calculations are made and to understand that in their economic statistics, countries are still not adequately taking account of the sustainable use and stewardship of the ecosystems supporting our very existence.

7.6. HOW THE PCSD RELATES TO THE SDGS

The *Sustainable Development Report: Transformations to achieve the SDGs*, was just recently published by the Bertelsmann Foundation and the SDSN. It includes a ranking of 162 countries with scores and positions indicating how far countries are from reaching the 2030 Agenda goals. It illustrates the significant effort being made to incorporate multidimensionality and interdependencies underpinning this sustainable development agenda. It starts with the set of indicators established by the international working group on statistics for the SDGs coordinated by the United Nations and deemed most appropriate for monitoring the 169 goals. However, 40% of the 241 indicators proposed were not agreed upon or properly defined and most countries do not publish data on them[34].

The comparison aims to illustrate the potential contribution the PCSD approach can make to obtain a numerical representation of countries' performance in relation to the global challenges expressed in the new international development agendas.

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34. See Martínez Osés (2017).

To establish comparisons, we have eliminated 15 countries from the SDG Index that are not included in the PCSDI[35] and 1 PCSDI country for which no data was available in the SDG Index (Barbados). Hence, the analysis is conducted on the rankings adjusted to 147 countries.

The two rankings have a higher correlation coefficient (0.7967) than the one previously observed with the HDI. This points to a smaller gap between the two indices than between either of them and the HDI.

In figure 40 which compares the ranking of the 147 countries in the two indices, there are only minor differences as there are no countries in the extreme upper left or lower right quadrants of the graph representing the countries that rank the lowest in one and the highest in the other.

However, we once again observe a pattern where some countries score higher on the SDG Index, as they did on the HDI, than on the PCSDI. This holds particularly for some oil producing and exporting countries such as Iran, United Arab Emirates, Oman, Bahrain and Saudi Arabia. South Korea and the United States also rank much lower on the PCSDI than in the SDG Index, as was the case when compared to the HDI.

As in the previous analysis, we did not find any country with a higher PCSDI ranking than the SDG Index ranking.

The scores that the SDG Index awarded to the 147 countries analysed (on a scale of 0 to 100) ranged from 85.2 (Denmark) to 44.9 (Democratic Republic of the Congo), indicating that even the highest ranking country still had quite a bit of room for improvement on that scale (nearly 15%). The report can thus conclude by asserting that no country in the world is on the right path to achieve the targets of all the sustainable development goals. Even the best ranking countries have serious gaps, particularly in terms of sustainable production and

consumption. The analysis highlights worrying trends in all the goals related to the sustainability of ecosystems, such as climate change, land and water use, biodiversity loss and sustainable agriculture. These worrying trends are perfectly reflected in the environmental component of the PCSDI which, as we saw earlier, has a moderately negative correlation with the HDI (-0.65). A negative correlation was also observed between the SDG Index values and those of the PCSDI's environmental component PCSDI, albeit less negative (-0.51).

The average score for these 147 countries on the SDG Index is 67.1, indicating fairly acceptable performance on the part of countries as a whole. Quite a bit more acceptable than their average score on the PCSDI which, again, was 49.5. An examination of the ranking differences between one index and the other shows that 64 countries rank lower on the PCSDI than on the SDG Index, an average of 25 positions lower, 4 countries have the same ranking (Denmark ranks number one on both indices, Lithuania 32, Nepal 100 and Cameroon 131), and 80 countries do better on the PCSDI than on the SDG Index averaging 20 positions higher.

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35. Afghanistan, Comoros, Chad, Gabon, Haiti, Laos, Papua New Guinea, Central African Republic, Sao Tome and Principe, Syria, Swaziland, Suriname, Turkmenistan, Vanuatu, Djibouti.

Figure 40. Country dispersion for PCSDI and SDG Index positions

PCSDI ranking
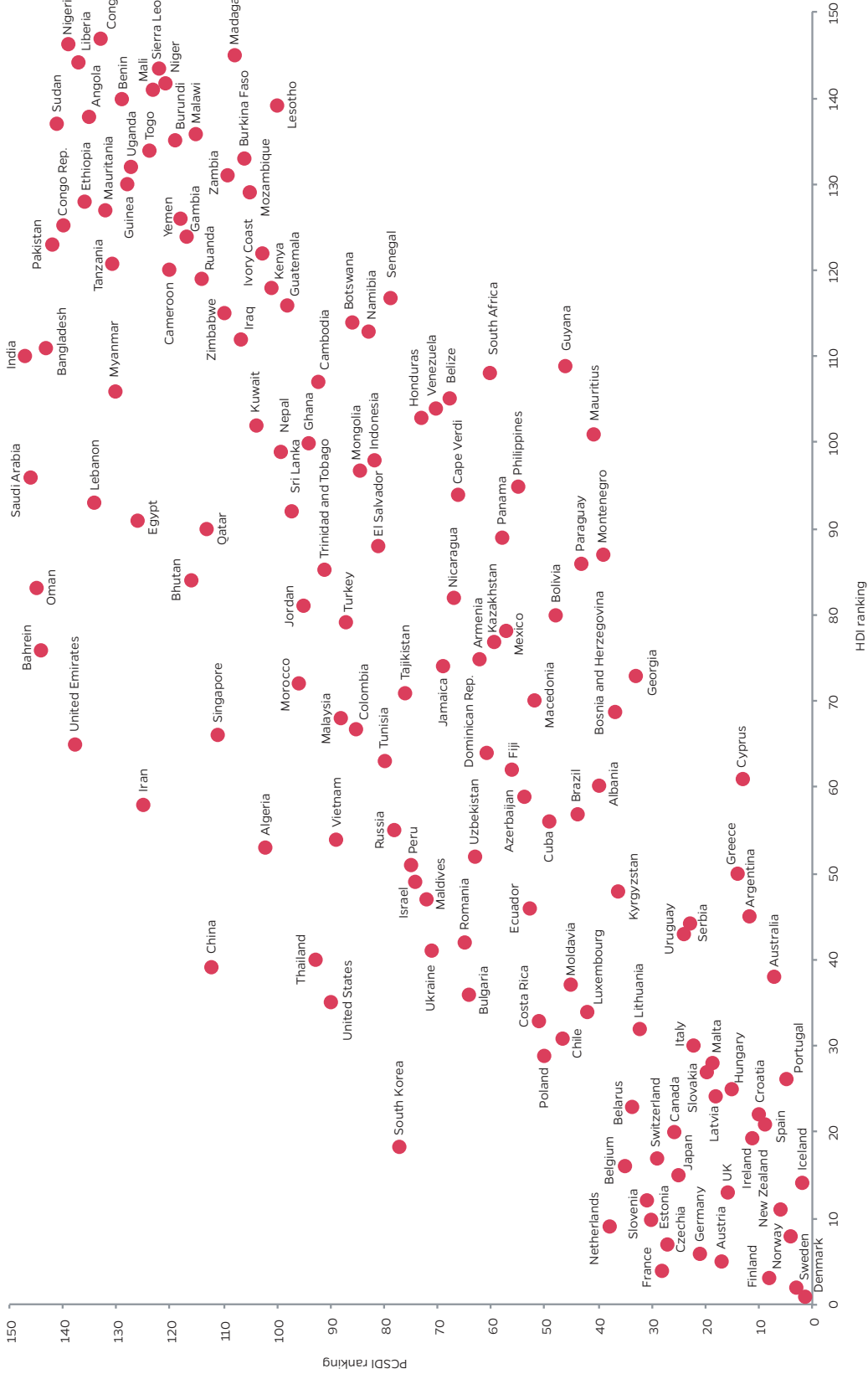
HDI ranking

If we look at the set of 15 countries that moved down the furthest in the PCSDI ranking when compared to the SDG Index (table 21), we find many of the same countries, just as when we compare the PCSDI with the HDI. It should be noted however that the difference in the number of positions is smaller, especially for the Arab countries and the United States. We could therefore conclude that the SDG Index includes some elements related to the multidimensionality of development that concur in explaining countries' high ranking when their relative development is measured in terms of social welfare.

An analysis of the group of 15 countries that moved up the most in the ranking on the PCSDI compared to the SDG Index shows that 5 of them were also among the 15 that improved the most on the PCSDI-HDI comparison. These countries are Guyana, Paraguay, the Philippines and South Africa. This pattern occurs just as often because the SDG Index ranking for some countries is quite a bit more similar than their HDI ranking. Not surprisingly, the two rankings correlate more positively. Their correlation coefficient is (0.7872)[36]. However, this correlation also indicates that there are significant differences between the two indices that can be accounted for by their divergent approaches which, in turn, impact the variables they include. The PCSDI includes issues including countries' commitment to global democratic governance, the defence of LGBTI rights, the legalisation of abortion and the degree of militarization. None of these variables are present in the SDG Index. Furthermore, the SDG index factors in economic growth as positive while the PCSDI omits it in the belief that economic growth does not necessary entail more sustainable development[37].

Summing up, the comparisons allow us to observe how the PCSDI provides a more comprehensive assessment than the HDI as it distinguishes itself by accounting for both environmental sustainability,

Table 21. The 15 countries whose ranking worsens the most compared to the SDG Index

Country	Difference SDG Index-PCSDI	Difference HDI-PCSDI
China	-73	-37
Arab Emirates	-73	-107
Bahrain	-68	-106
Iran	-67	-71
Oman	-62	-102
South Korea	-59	-58
United States	-55	-79
Thailand	-53	-21
Saudi Arabia	-50	-111
Algeria	-49	-28
Singapore	-45	-104
Lebanon	-41	-65
India	-37	-39
Egypt	-35	-32
Vietnam	-35	6

Table 22. The 15 countries whose ranking improves the most compared to the SDG Index

Country	Difference SDG Index-PCSDI	Difference HDI-PCSDI
Guyana	63	58
Mauritius	60	17
Cyprus	48	17
Montenegro	48	7
South Africa	48	33
Paraguay	43	48
Georgia	40	30
Philippines	40	38
Lesotho	39	26
Senegal	38	52
Belize	37	21
Madagascar	37	20
Greece	36	15
Venezuela	34	-3
Argentina	33	31

36. Calculated from the values of the two indices for the same 147 countries.
37. For more information on the SDG Index, see www.sdgindex.org

interdependencies and the transnational nature of development processes. The SDG Index makes noteworthy strides in this direction, though it takes a different approach given that, unlike the PCSDI, it does not cover additional facets but instead choses certain others such as economic growth.

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• Martínez Osés, P. J. (2017). "Hacer realidad la Agenda: Medios de implementación, revisión y seguimiento". En A. Uría, A. Villalba, y N. Viota (Eds.), *Transformar Nuestro Mundo, ¿realidad o ficción?* (pp. 105-119). Bilbao: Unesco Etxea. Available at http://www.unescoetxea.org/dokumentuak/transformar_nuestro_mundo.pdf

APPENDIX. Sources

Table 23. Sources of 2019 PCSDI variables

Code	Name of the variables
F2	Oversized banking sector[d]
F4	Account at a financial institution: difference between men and women (%)
FIS1	General government revenue (% GDP)
FIS3	Variation rate of the Gini index before and after taxes and transfers[c]
FIS6	Financial Secrecy Index
EDU5	Survival rate to the last grade of secondary education, both sexes (%)
EDU8	Pupil-teacher ratio in pre-primary education
EDU9	Pupil-teacher ratio in primary education
EDU14	Repetition rate in primary education (all grades), both sexes (%)
S2	Healthy life expectancy at birth (years)
S3	Medical doctors (per 10 000 population)
S9	Universal Health Coverage Index
S11	Improved sanitation facilities (%population with access)
IG1	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%)
IG2	Vulnerable employment, female (% of female employment)
IG5_6_7	Legislation against gender violence, sexual harassment and marital rape[d]
IG11_12	Maternity an paternity leaves[d]
IG14	Position at the UN in favour of the LGTBI community[d]
EM1	Unemployment rate
EM4	Share of unemployed receiving regular periodic social security unemployment benefits (%)
EM6	Vulnerable employment, total (% of total employment)
PS1	Public social protection expenditure (% of GDP)
PS5	Old age pension beneficiaries (%)
CIT1	Internet access in schools
CIT6	Percentage of students in tertiary education who are female
CIT13	Percentage of graduates from tertiary education who are female (%)
J3	Abolition of the death penalty[d]
J4_5	Legality of homosexuality and equal marriage[d]
J6	Ratification of UN Human Rights treaties[d]
J8	Universal Jurisdiction[d]
J9	Ratification of Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court[d]
J10	Legislation on abortion[d]
J13_14_15	Women's rights in the sphere of justice[d]
PYS1	Military expenditure (% of GDP)
PYS3	Armed forces personnel (per 100,000 inhabitants)[a]
PYS4	Ease of access to small arms and light weapons
PYS6	Participation in international arms treaties and conventions[d]
PYS9	Nuclear and heavy weapons capabilities
PYS12	Plan of action to implement UN Security Council Resolution 1325[d]
M4_5	Convention and Protocole relating to the Status of Refugees and International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families[d]
C5	Contributions to UNWOMEN (GDP per capita)[b]
C6	Contributions to UNEP (GDP per cápita)[b]

Report / Database	Agency / Institution
Helgi Analytics	HelgiLibrary
World Development Indicators	World Bank
World Economic Outlook Database	International Monetary Fund
The Standardized World Income Inequality Database	Harvard Dataverse
Financial Secrecy Index	Tax Justice Network
UNESCO Institute for Statistics	UNESCO
UNESCO Institute for Statistics	UNESCO
UNESCO Institute for Statistics	UNESCO
UNESCO Institute for Statistics	UNESCO
Global Health Observatory data repository	World Health Organization
World Health Statistics	World Health Organization
Tracking Universal Health Coverage: 2017 Global Monitoring Report	World Health Organization; World Bank
World Development Indicators	World Bank
World Development Indicators	World Bank
World Development Indicators	World Bank
World Development Indicators, Gender_Indicators_Report	World Bank
Progress of the World's Women 2015-2016	United Nations
United Nations	United Nations
World Employment and Social Outlook – Trends 2018	International Labour Organization (ILO)
ILO Social Security Inquiry Database	International Labour Organization (ILO)
World Development Indicators	World Bank
ILO Social Security Inquiry Database	International Labour Organization (ILO)
ILO Social Security Inquiry Database	International Labour Organization (ILO)
The Global Competitiveness Report 2017-2018	World Economic Forum
UNESCO Institute for Statistics	UNESCO
UNESCO Institute for Statistics	UNESCO
Death Penalty Information Center	Amnesty International
Sexual Orientation Laws in the World - Overview	Int. Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Trans and Intersex Association
United Nations Human Rights. Office of the High Commissioner	United Nations
Universal Jurisdiction. A preliminary survey of legislation around the world – 2012 update	Amnesty International
United Nations Treaty Collection	United Nations
The World's Abortion Laws 2018	Center for Reproductive Rights
Women, Business and the Law	World Bank
World Development Indicators	World Bank
World Development Indicators	World Bank
Global Peace Index	Institute for Economics & Peace
United Nations Treaty Collection	United Nations
Global Peace Index	Institute for Economics & Peace
List of National Action Plans for the implementation of UNSCR 1325	Int. Knowledge Network of Women in Politics
United Nations Treaty Collection	United Nations
United Nations Women	United Nations
United Nations Environment Programme	United Nations

Table 23 (cont). Sources of 2019 PCSDI variables

Code	Name of the variables
P4	Clean water
DR9	Fertilizers use[d]
B2	Ecological footprint of production (gha per person)
B10	Participation in international environmental agreements[d]
B13	Biocapacity reserves/deficit (ha. per person)
EN1	Electricity production from renewable sources, excluding hydroelectric (% of total)
EN2	Ecological footprint of imports (gha per person)
EN4	Carbon Dioxide Emissions (Metric Tons per Person)
U2	Improved sanitation facilities, urban sector (% of population with access)
U4	PM2.5 air pollution, mean annual exposure (micrograms per cubic meter)
IT3	Improved water sources, rural sector (% of the population with access)
IT4	Access to electricity (% population)
IT5	Internet users (per 100 people)
IN5	Annual freshwater withdrawals, industry (% of total freshwater withdrawal)
IN7	Ratifications of the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention

Notes:

a. Variables corrected for population were devised using the Population variable of the World Development Indicators (World Bank).

b. Variables corrected for GDP per capita were devised using the GDP per capita variable of the World Development Indicators (World Bank).

c. Created in-house from corresponding data.

d. Explanatory notes about how variables were devised:

F2. Created in-house using the financial assets variable (percentage of GDP) as the benchmark. Values less than 100 were replaced by 0, the maximum value by 1, and the rest were standardised accordingly.

IG5_6_7. The three laws were added. Each of them adds up to 1.

IG11_12. Average maternity leave days (IG11), paternity leave days (IG12) and the ratio between paternity and maternity leave days (IG12/IG11), after standardisation

IG14. The different UN Assembly resolutions and declarations on LGTBI rights were considered. Sponsoring countries, in favour and abstentions = 1, against = 0. Ranking of the latest resolution was considered.

J3. Positive value = 1 / Negative value = 1 / Sufficient value = 0.5

J4_5. The two laws were added. Each of them adds up to 1.

J6. All ratified Treaties (22 possible) were added. Each of them adds up to 1.

J8. All crimes (9 possible) were added. Each of them adds up to 1.

J9. Positive value = 1 / Negative value = 0

J10. Number of aspects assessed = 8. Legal = 1 / Non-legal = 0 / Nuanced = 0.5

J13_14_15. The three dimensions were added. Each of them adds up to 1.

PYS6. All ratified treaties (8 possible) were added. Each of them adds up to 1.

PYS 12. Positive value = 1 / Negative value = 0

M4_5. Added. Positive value = 1 / Negative value = 0

DR9. The average of the 3 highest values in the last 6 years was taken as the value.

B10. All treaties (14 possible) were added. Each of them adds up to 1.

EN5. Positive value = 1 / Negative value = 0

IN7. Positive value = 1 / Negative value = 0

Report / Database	Agency / Institution
Oceans Health Index	Collaborative initiative led by National Centre for Ecological Analysis and Synthesis, Sea Around Us, Conservation International, National Geographic, and the New England Aquarium
FAO Statistics	Food and Agriculture Org. of the United Nations
National Footprint Accounts, 2017 Edition	Global Footprint Network
UNEP Global Environment Outlook Data Portal (GEO Data).	United Nations
National Footprint Accounts	Global Footprint Network
World Development Indicators	World Bank
National Footprint Accounts, 2017 Edition	Global Footprint Network
IEA World Energy Balances 2017	International Energy Agency
World Development Indicators	World Bank
World Development Indicators	World Bank
World Development Indicators	World Bank
World Development Indicators	World Bank
World Development Indicators	World Bank
World Development Indicators	World Bank
NORMLEX Information System on International Labour Standards	International Labour Organization (ILO)

The **Policy Coherence for Sustainable Development Index (PCSDI)** is a tool designed to measure, evaluate and compare the behaviour of countries in terms of their sustainable, fair and equitable human development. We propose an alternative to the hegemonic and limited view of the indicators typically used to measure progress and development, especially gross domestic product (GDP).

In this report, **2019 PCSDI: The unpostponable way forward,** we offer a complete analysis of the revised and updated second edition of the PCSDI where we evaluate the performance of 148 countries and their commitment to a transformative development model.

An index with which to view and guide the world down the path towards sustainable human development.

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