JURNAL TATA KELOLA DAN AKUNTABILITAS KEUANGAN NEGARA
Volume 10 Number 2, 2024: 123-142
p-ISSN 2460-3937
e-ISSN 2549-452X
https://jurnal.bpk.go.id/TAKEN

International evidence: Supreme Audit Institution oversight and government governance roles in achieving Sustainable Development Goal 1

Dzur Awalia[1*], Muhammad Ikbal Abdullah[1], Andi Chairil Furqan[1], Megawati[2]

Faculty of Economics and Business, Tadulako University, Central Sulawesi, Indonesia[1]

Central Sulawesi Province Regional Research Innovation Agency, Central Sulawesi, Indonesia[2]

ABSTRACT

Poverty reduction is both a key goal and a prerequisite for sustainable development, requiring improved oversight and governance for lasting impact. This study examines the role of Supreme Audit Institutions (SAI) oversight and effective government governance in achieving the United Nations (UN) Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 1, which focuses on poverty alleviation. This study integrates government governance, SAI oversight, and economic indicators to offer new insights into the factors influencing SDG 1 for poverty alleviation. Using multiple linear regression on data from 116 UN member countries in 2021, this study analyzes the impact of SAI oversight and government governance quality on SDG 1. Gross domestic product (GDP) and gross national income (GNI) serve as control variables to evaluate their role in poverty reduction. The findings indicate that stronger SAI oversight and improved governance significantly contribute to poverty reduction efforts aligning with SDG 1. Economic factors, including larger GDP and country classification (developed vs. developing), also show positive effects, highlighting the role of resources and governance capacity in poverty alleviation. Strengthening SAI oversight and government governance is essential to accelerate SDG 1 achievement, with theoretical and practical policy implications. Economic resources, such as GDP and GNI, are also critical in supporting sustainable poverty reduction.

KEYWORDS:
SDGs; no poverty; SAI; governance

HOW TO CITE:
Awalia, D., Abdullah, M. I., Furqan, A. C., & Megawati. (2024). International evidence: Supreme Audit Institution oversight and government governance roles in achieving Sustainable Development Goal 1. *Jurnal Tata Kelola dan Akuntabilitas Keuangan Negara*, *10*(2), 123-142. https://doi.org/10.28986/jtaken.v10i2.1779

*Corresponding author's
Email: dzurawalia00@gmail.com

ARTICLE HISTORY:

Received : 15 September 2024
Revised : 28 October 2024
Accepted : 6 November 2024
Published : 26 December 2024

INTRODUCTION

Poverty continues to be one of the most significant global issues, and eradicating poverty has formed the foundation of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). SDG 1 aims to "end poverty in all its forms everywhere," emphasizing that poverty reduction is a standalone goal and a prerequisite for achieving many other development targets (United Nations, 2015). An analysis at the end of 2022 showed that 8.4% of the world's population, or about 670 million people, still lived in extreme poverty. Furthermore, it is estimated that 7% of the global population—around 575 million people—will still be trapped in extreme poverty by 2030, with a significant concentration in Sub-Saharan Africa (United Nations, 2022). Poverty reduction and sustainable development are inseparable, and poverty reduction is a prerequisite for sustainable development (Liu et al., 2015). Uneven progress in poverty reduction has led to calls for stronger oversight mechanisms and governance improvements to ensure that efforts are sustainable and impactful (Winden, 2017).

The Supreme Audit Institution (SAI) is a government body that functions as an independent entity aiming to ensure public accountability by auditing government finances and performance. The SAI oversees the management of public funds and the credibility of financial data reported by the government and examines the implementation of policies (Dionisijev et al., 2023; Laupe et al., 2022; Smith et al., 2021). Additionally, the SAI is vital in supporting the implementation of the SDGs by conducting audits that focus on transparency and accountability in the management of public resources (Gorrissen, 2020). SAI involvement in performance audits can help identify areas needing improvement in the implementation of the SDGs (Montero & Blanc, 2019); however, the current state of SAI in some countries shows efforts to undermine their functions. Executives in some countries have found ways to weaken the SAI while staying within legal boundaries. For example, the Auditor General of Sierra Leone was praised for conducting real-time audits of Ebola funds and similar real-time audits of COVID relief funds; however, it was unfairly suspended just a few weeks before its office was supposed to deliver its annual audit (International Budget Partnership, 2022).

Good governance comprises fundamental principles, including transparency, accountability, public participation, effectiveness, and equity. The connection between governance and the SDGs is profound, as effective governance is vital in achieving these sustainability objectives (Breuer et al., 2022; Sadiq et al., 2023). The state of government governance worldwide today shows significant variation between countries. Some countries have made progress in implementing good governance principles, while others still face challenges in combating corruption and improving transparency.

In this context, the extant research examined the impact of SAI and the role of governance in advancing the SDGs (Montero & Blanc, 2019; Mombeuil & Diunugala, 2021; Sari et al., 2022; Cordery et al., 2023; Alsayegh et al., 2023). These studies have indicated that achieving the SDGs requires the implementation of performance audits, strengthening the role of SAI, improving sustainability reporting, and promoting good governance; however, these studies have generally failed to examine how SAIs more effectively influence government policies and strategies aimed explicitly at sustainable development and combating corruption. Montero and Blanc (2019) focused primarily on the role of external audits in increasing transparency and accountability. At the same time, Mombeuil and Diunugala (2021) emphasized the importance of efficiency and transparency without thoroughly exploring the strategic implementation of SAI globally. Furthermore, Sari et al. (2022) concentrated on performance audits in Indonesia but did not directly link those audits to poverty reduction strategies or government governance. Additionally, Cordery et al. (2023) discussed the significance of public sector audits. However, they did not provide detailed guidance on how these audits could be effectively conducted across different countries to achieve the SDGs.

Finally, Alsayegh et al. (2023) addressed sustainability reporting but did not specifically focus on the role of SAI.

In addition to governance and oversight, economic factors significantly influence poverty reduction. Countries with higher gross domestic product (GDP) and gross national income (GNI) have greater capacity to allocate financial resources to social programs, infrastructure development, and other projects that support sustainable poverty alleviation (Alkire et al., 2021). GDP reflects a nation's overall economic strength, while GNI accounts for the total income generated by its citizens, including those working abroad; thus, these indicators provide a comprehensive view of a country's economic ability to support poverty alleviation efforts.

This study uses GDP and GNI as control variables, as the primary focus is on the role of SAI oversight and governance quality in achieving SDG 1. The economic contribution to poverty alleviation is undeniable, and numerous studies have established strong links between GDP, GNI, and poverty reduction (Hickel, 2020). Stronger economic growth is directly associated with poverty reduction, but in many cases, economic growth without effective governance does not always significantly impact poverty alleviation. In countries with weak governance, even substantial economic resources are often not utilized effectively or equitably, leading to inequality and failure to achieve poverty reduction targets (Fukuda-Parr & McNeill, 2019).

Therefore, this study's contribution is twofold. First, it integrates governance, SAI oversight, and economic factors to provide a comprehensive understanding of their collective impact on poverty alleviation. By examining data from 116 countries, this study offers a global perspective on how these variables work together to achieve SDG 1. Second, the study addresses a gap in the existing literature by providing empirical evidence on combining institutional oversight with economic strength in achieving sustainable poverty reduction. The research questions guiding this study are as follows:

1. How does SAI oversight contribute to the achievement of SDG 1, specifically in poverty reduction?
2. What role does governance quality play in supporting effective poverty alleviation efforts?

By answering these questions, this study offers insights that can inform policymakers and practitioners. This study's findings can help ensure that future poverty reduction efforts are better targeted, more accountable, and ultimately more effective in achieving SDG 1.

Institutional Theory

Institutional theory is crucial in understanding how public institutions, such as SAI, influence organizational behavior and government policies (Dacin et al., 2002). Institutions like SAI are mandated to oversee public resource use; they reduce conflicts of interest and enhance public accountability through good governance. SAI performance audits ensure that government policies are implemented according to established goals and supported by the efficient use of resources (Hazaea et al., 2022).

SDG 1 focuses on poverty reduction; in this context, institutional theory explains how SAI oversight ensures that social policies are directed toward maximizing their impact on reducing poverty. Strong oversight reduces the potential for misuse of public funds and promotes effective and targeted policy implementation to support the achievement of the SDGs (Cao et al., 2022; E. Malelea et al., 2024; Sakinah et al., 2023), and effective SAI oversight contributes more to achieving SDGs (Lassou et al., 2021). Transparency and professional assistance, especially from institutions

like SAI, can encourage the provision of audit recommendations and improve governance at the local government level, which are critical factors in supporting poverty alleviation programs (Masdar et al., 2021). Thus, in this study, institutional theory emphasizes the vital role of SAI in supporting the achievement of the SDGs, ensuring that government policies are implemented with greater transparency, accountability, and efficiency.

Sustainable Development Theory

The sustainable development theory has become a foundational element in government development strategies worldwide. The SDGs serve as a comprehensive global blueprint for sustainable development; they comprise 17 goals, 169 targets, and over 300 suggested indicators (Barbier & Burgess, 2017). The sustainable development theory emphasizes that sustainable development must balance economic growth, environmental conservation, and social well-being. In the context of the SDGs (particularly SDG 1), this theory is crucial in understanding how various factors, including economic and environmental considerations, can influence poverty reduction. Research indicates that sustainable economic growth significantly impacts poverty alleviation (Alsayegh et al., 2023); however, the sustainable development theory argues that economic growth alone is insufficient. Good governance and equitable resource distribution are also required to ensure that the benefits of economic growth reach all segments of society (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2022).

The sustainable development theory helps explain the relationship between economic growth, governance, and poverty reduction in this study. The findings demonstrate that countries with stronger economies and better governance than other countries are more successful in reducing poverty, aligning with the principles of sustainable development (Scoones et al., 2020). To achieve higher governance effectiveness, which is crucial to achieving SDG 1, strong law enforcement and a tight control strategy are needed to prevent corruption. This situation aligns with the need for accountability overseen by the SAI to ensure that the budget for poverty alleviation is managed transparently (Saud & Furqan, 2024). Thus, this research underscores the importance of economic growth and sustainable and inclusive management practices to achieve SDG 1.

Hypothesis Development

SAI is crucial in ensuring transparency and accountability in managing public resources, essential for attaining the SDGs. SAI's involvement in performance audits helps identify inefficiencies and improvement opportunities in SDG implementation (Montero & Blanc, 2019). Additionally, Gorrissen (2020) suggests that the capacity and independence of SAI are pivotal for the success of sustainable development initiatives. Recent research further corroborates the role of SAIs, highlighting their contributions to reducing corruption and improving governance, which are directly linked to achieving the SDGs (Sari et al., 2022). Sułkowski and Dobrowolski (2021) argue that SAIs enhance public financial management, contributing to stronger governance and better SDG outcomes. At the same time, Hancu-Budui and Zorio-Grima (2023) emphasize that strengthening SAI oversight capacities can drive greater accountability in realizing SDG targets. The hypothesis can be articulated as follows:

H1: SAI oversight positively affects the achievement of SDG 1

Good governance plays a significant role in achieving the SDGs; the governance framework must be well-structured and adaptable to each country's conditions, aligning with the concept of "common but differentiated governance" proposed by Meuleman and Niestroy (2015). Furthermore,

Barbier and Burgess (2017) emphasize the flexible nature of SDG implementation, allowing countries to tailor their efforts based on national ambitions. Joshi et al. (2015) highlight that clear governance indicators are essential for tracking progress and ensuring effective policy implementation. Recent studies affirm these insights, with Abhayawansa et al. (2021) showing that policy capacity and governance are crucial to SDG success. Moreover, Lauwo et al. (2022) emphasize that governance transparency and accountability lead to better SDG outcomes. Integrating incentives into governance structures can directly impact the achievement of specific SDGs, particularly those related to poverty reduction and sustainable resource management (Furqan et al., 2023). Dossou et al. (2023) further argue that governance standards directly influence poverty reduction, reinforcing the connection between good governance and SDG achievement. The hypothesis can be formulated as follows:

H2: Government governance positively affects the achievement of SDG 1

Conceptual Framework

Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual framework that outlines this study's hypotheses. This framework was designed to explore and clarify the relationships between key variables that influence the achievement of SDG 1, which targeted poverty alleviation. SAI oversight and government governance quality are the primary independent variables in this framework. These factors are hypothesized to play a central role in shaping the success of poverty reduction initiatives by ensuring accountability, efficient resource allocation, and equitable policy implementation.

This framework also integrates control variables, such as GDP and GNI, for variations in countries' economic backgrounds. These variables provide context by reflecting the broader economic conditions that may influence poverty levels independently of governance and SAI oversight. Including these economic indicators ensures that the analysis can isolate the specific effects of governance and oversight on poverty reduction without bias from differences in national income levels. By controlling for these variables, the framework allows for a more accurate assessment of the direct impact of SAI oversight and governance quality on poverty alleviation across high- and low-income countries.

This comprehensive framework provides a structured approach to examining the interconnectedness of institutional oversight, governance quality, and economic factors in achieving SDG 1. It highlights the multifaceted nature of poverty alleviation, suggesting that while economic resources are essential, institutional factors—like governance and oversight—play crucial roles in ensuring those resources are used effectively to address poverty. Consequently, this framework examines the direct impact of SAI oversight and governance quality on poverty reduction and underscores the importance of a holistic, balanced approach in development policies to eradicate poverty.

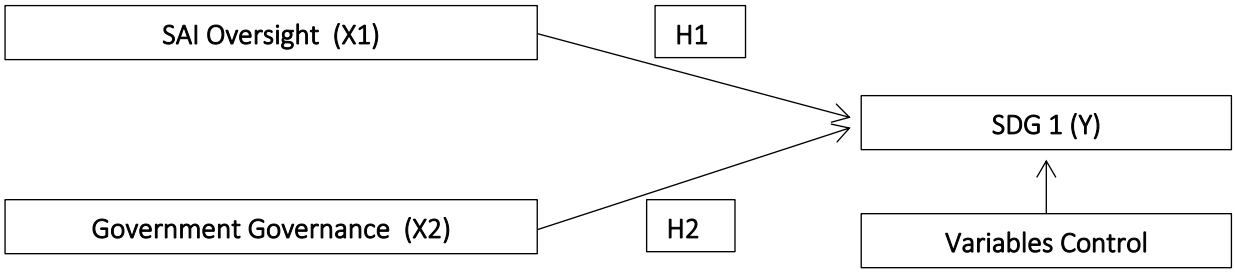

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework

RESEARCH METHOD

This study's data encompass various sources, including SDG 1 data, SAI oversight goals, government governance metrics, GDP figures, and economic criteria pertinent to developed and developing countries. This extensive dataset involves a total of 193 United Nations (UN) member countries as of the year 2021. The data sampling process was meticulously executed using purposive sampling techniques, given that 75 countries lacked Index Oversight SAI data and four countries did not have available SDG 1 scores. Consequently, the final sample size was refined to 116 countries, constituting approximately 60.10% of the total UN member states. This sample comprises 31 countries from Asia, 21 from Europe, 20 from the Americas, two from Australia, 41 from Africa, and one from Oceania.

Multiple linear regression was employed to offer a comprehensive analysis of SDG 1. The secondary data for this study were sourced from various reputable platforms. SDG 1 achievement scores were retrieved from the SDG Index Dashboard, SAI oversight scores were obtained from the International Budget Survey, and GDP data and economic criteria were accessed through the World Bank. To comprehensively address the research questions and rigorously evaluate the proposed hypotheses, the empirical model for this study is formulated as follows:

$$\mathbf{SDGSA_t = \beta 0_t + \beta_1 OVGSAI_t + \beta_2 GSCOR_t + \beta_3 LNGDP_t + \beta_4 CGROUP_t\ e_t \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (1)}$$

The primary variables were SDGSA, OVGSAI, and GSCOR. The dependent variable, SDGSA, assesses each nation's progress toward achieving SDG 1, focused on eradicating poverty. This assessment is based on a scale from 0 to 100; higher scores represent greater success in reaching the goal. The independent variables include OVGSAI and GSCOR, which assess the effectiveness of SAI oversight on the same scale. Higher scores indicate more effective oversight. Meanwhile, GSCOR evaluates the country's governance quality, with higher scores reflecting better governance. Meanwhile, the control variable, LNGDP, denotes the natural logarithm of a nation's GDP and indicates the country's economic size. Additionally, CGROUP is employed as a dummy variable to differentiate countries based on their GNI per capita. Countries with a high GNI per capita are labeled as developed and assigned a value of "1." Countries with a low GNI per capita are considered developing and assigned a value of "0." Table 1 provides a concise overview of the operationalization of this study's variables and data sources.

Table 1. Variable Operationalization and Data Source

Name	Variable Operationalization	Data Source
$SDGSA_t$	The index score represents a country's progress in achieving the first Sustainable Development Goal (SDG), "No Poverty." This score is evaluated on a scale from 0 to 100, where higher scores denote greater success in attaining the SDG 1 target.	Sustainable Development Report
$OVGSAI_t$	The oversight score reflects the effectiveness of a country's SAI. It is measured on a scale from 0 to 100, with higher scores indicating more effective and thorough oversight by the SAI.	International Budget Survey
$GSCOR_t$	A score representing a country's governance quality is assessed on a scale of 0–100, where higher scores denote superior governance quality within that country.	Global Sustainable Competitiveness Report
$LNGDP_t$	The natural logarithm of a country's gross domestic product (GDP) value.	World Bank
$CGROUP_t$	The classification of countries as either developed or developing based on their Gross National Income (GNI) per capita is represented as a dummy variable, where "1" signifies a developed country and "0" denotes a developing country.	World Bank

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Table 2 provides a comprehensive descriptive statistical overview of each variable. The mean value of the SDGSA variable was calculated to be 66.18. This result indicates that, on average, the countries included in this sample achieved a moderate level of meeting the Sustainable Development Goal of eradicating poverty; however, this average may encompass a range of outcomes across different nations. The standard deviation of 10.54 for this variable suggests that the level of SDG achievement exhibits a moderate degree of variation among the countries analyzed, indicating that while some countries may have made significant progress, others may still lag. Regarding the OVGSAI variable, the mean value of 62.63 indicates a moderately high level of SAI oversight effectiveness across the sample of countries. Nonetheless, the relatively high standard deviation of 22.84 highlights that the level of oversight effectiveness varies considerably among countries, ranging from very low to exceptionally high. The GSCOR variable, which assesses the quality of governance within these countries, has a mean value of 48.18, reflecting a diverse spectrum of governance quality among the countries in this study. The standard deviation of 13.37 for this governance variable further underscores the significant differences in governance quality among countries. This outcome suggests that some countries exhibit very effective governance practices while others may struggle with less effective systems.

Regarding the LNGDP variable, the mean value is exceptionally high at 752.99. This result indicates that certain countries in the sample have considerable economies; however, the significant standard deviation of 2,779.05 suggests vast disparities, with some economies being very small and others being substantial. Finally, the CGROUP variable, a dummy variable categorizing countries as either developed or developing, has a mean value of 0.17. This outcome signifies that most countries in this sample are classified as developing nations; the standard deviation of 0.37 for this variable reflects a distribution predominantly skewed toward the lower value, indicating a higher representation of developing countries.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of Variables

Description	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
$SDGSA_t$	116	66.18	10.54	37.04	86.06
$OVGSAI_t$	116	62.63	22.84	6	100
$GSCOR_t$	116	48.18	13.37	0	64.98
$LNGDP_t$*)	116	752.99	2.779.05	0.52	23.315.08
CGROUP	116	0.17	0.37	0	1

Number of Observations = 166
Table 1 explains the variable operationalization.
*) Values are in billions of dollars

Table 3 presents the comprehensive correlation analysis among this study's main variables. The correlation between SDG 1 achievement (SDGSAt) and SAI oversight (OVGSAIt) was 0.593, with a p-value of 0.000, indicating a strong positive and statistically significant relationship. This result suggests increased SAI oversight is linked to improved SDG 1 outcomes. The quality of governance (GSCORt) also has a significant correlation of 0.528 with SDG 1 achievement (p = 0.000). This result indicates that better governance practices are positively associated with poverty reduction.

Economic variables also demonstrated significant positive correlations with achieving SDG 1. For example, GDP (LNGDPt) has a correlation of 0.527 with SDG 1, which is significant at the 1%

level (p = 0.000), suggesting that larger economies make more progress in poverty alleviation. Similarly, country classification (CGROUPt) shows a correlation of 0.530 with SDG 1, with a p-value of 0.000; this outcome suggests that developed countries achieve SDG 1 more effectively than developing ones. These findings highlight the importance of SAI oversight, governance quality, and economic resources in supporting sustainable development. Significance levels reinforce the reliability of these correlations.

Table 3. Correlation Analysis of Variables

Variable	$SDGSA_{it}$	$OVGSAI_t$	$GSCOR_t$	$LNGDP_t$	$CGROUP_t$
$SDGSA_t$	1.000				
$OVGSAI_t$	0.593***	1.000			
	(0.000)				
$GSCOR_t$	0.528***	0.355***	1.000		
	(0.000)	(0.001)			
$LNGDP_t$	0.527***	0.400***	0.354***	1.000	
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.001)		
$CGROUP_t$	0.530***	0.390***	0.277**	0.545	1.000
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.025)	(0.000)	

Number of Observations = 166
Table 1 explains the variable operationalization.

*** and ** = P-value significance at 1% and 5%, respectively.

The hypothesis testing conducted in this research employs multiple linear regression analysis utilizing the STATA-17 software. Table 4 presents the detailed results of the hypothesis testing, which examines the impact of various explanatory variables on the achievement of SDG 1, specifically related to poverty eradication. The results indicate that the OVGSAI variable, representing the effectiveness of oversight by SAI, has a coefficient of 0.153, with a very high significance level of 1%. In other words, the p-value for this variable is less than 0.01 ($p < 0.01$); thus, Hypothesis 1 (H1) is accepted. H1 posits that an increase in the effectiveness of oversight by SAIs significantly contributes to the positive achievement of SDG 1 targets concerning poverty reduction. In this case, the hypothesis is accepted because the significance level is below 0.05, the threshold to test whether a variable has a significant influence. The positive coefficient of 0.153 indicates that each improvement in SAI's oversight effectiveness is associated with an increase in the achievement of SDG 1 targets.

Meanwhile, the GSCOR variable, designed to measure a country's governance quality, displays a positive coefficient of 0.226, with a significance level of 1%. Hypothesis 2 (H2) is accepted based on this significance level ($p < 0.01$), asserting that effective governance significantly supports the achievement of SDG 1. Like the OVGSAI variable, the positive coefficient of GSCOR shows that an increase in governance quality directly contributes to achieving the SDG 1 targets. H2 is accepted because the significance level is well below the 5% threshold, demonstrating a strong relationship between governance quality and the success of SDGs.

Table 4. Hypothesis Testing Results

Variable	Expected sign	$SDGSA_t$
_Cons		23.279
		0.009
$OVGSAI_t$	(+)	0.153***
		0.000
$GSCOR_t$	(+)	0.226***
		0.008
$LNGDP_t$	(+)	0.844**
		0.031
$CGROUP_t$	(+)	6.365***
		0.000
Prob > F		0.000
Adj R-Squared		0.558
Mean VIF		1.410

Number of Observations = 166
Table 1 explains the variable operationalization.
*** and ** = P-value significance at 1% and 5%, respectively.

This research framework's control variables provide a more comprehensive understanding of factors that significantly influence the achievement of SDGs. Among these variables, LNGDP (representing a country's economic size) demonstrates a positive effect with a coefficient of 0.844, which is significant at the 5% level. With a p-value less than 0.05, the hypothesis regarding the positive effect of economic size on SDG 1 achievement is accepted. This result implies that countries with larger economies possess greater capacity and resources to achieve SDGs. A solid economic foundation likely facilitates better funding and implementation of SDG initiatives.

Furthermore, the CGROUP variable (a dummy variable that classifies countries as either advanced or developing) shows a coefficient of 6.365 with a highly significant impact at the 1% level. The very low p-value ($p < 0.01$) confirms the hypothesis that advanced countries are more likely to achieve their SDG targets. This outcome is likely due to higher levels of development, better infrastructure, and more established institutions in advanced countries, which support the successful implementation of sustainable development policies. Therefore, these control variables provide essential context, highlighting that economic size and development level are critical factors in achieving SDG objectives.

Based on the hypothesis testing results, SAI oversight significantly impacts achieving SDG 1, which focuses on poverty eradication. This aligns with institutional theory, which emphasizes the critical role of public institutions like SAI in shaping organizational behavior and government policies (Crawford & Dacin, 2020). SAI oversight ensures that public resources are managed with high transparency and accountability, contributing to poverty reduction by minimizing corruption and inefficiency (Gorrissen, 2020; Lassou et al., 2021; Rahman et al., 2023; Sari et al., 2022). The findings of this study support those of C. Cordery et al. (2023), stating that SAI performance audits are crucial in ensuring that government policies are implemented according to predetermined objectives and supported by efficient resource use. In the context of SDG 1, strong SAI oversight prevents the misuse of public funds and ensures that social policies are directed toward maximizing the impact on poverty alleviation (Hancu-Budui & Zorio-Grima, 2023).

Moreover, these findings confirm the importance of good governance in achieving SDG 1. Consistent with the Sustainable Development Theory, good governance encompasses economic growth, the fair distribution of resources, and effective environmental management to ensure sustainable social welfare (Barbier & Burgess, 2017). This aligns with Alsayegh et al. (2023), Breuer et al. (2022), and Su et al. (2023), who argue that flexible but structured governance allows countries

to tailor their development efforts according to national conditions. Research by Abhayawansa et al. (2021) also affirms that transparency and accountability in public governance improve SDG outcomes, including poverty reduction. This study found that good governance significantly impacts achieving SDG 1. This is also consistent with the findings of Dossou et al. (2023), who affirmed that high governance standards are directly linked to poverty reduction, reinforcing the relationship between good governance and SDG achievement.

In contrast, some research presents contrasting perspectives on the relationship between SAI oversight and poverty alleviation. For example, in countries with weak institutional frameworks, SAI oversight does not always correlate with effective poverty reduction outcomes (Ramprasad, 2021; Sulaiman & Mat Yasin, 2022). In these instances, SAI may lack the necessary enforcement power or political independence to impact public resource allocation meaningfully in such contexts. This highlights a limitation in the reliance on SAI oversight as a universal solution for achieving SDG 1, particularly in politically unstable or institutionally weak environments. Similarly, other studies, such as Cordery and Hay (2022), indicate that oversight bodies can sometimes be constrained by limited resources and bureaucratic inefficiencies, which may reduce their impact on poverty-related policies. These findings underscore the importance of strengthening SAI's institutional capacity and independence to ensure that their oversight can meaningfully influence policy outcomes in line with the SDG goals.

Although economic growth is essential for poverty reduction, the sustainable development theory highlights that economic growth without good governance will lead to unsustainable outcomes (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2022). Therefore, this study's findings emphasize the need for a balanced approach that includes robust economic growth, transparent governance, and attention to environmental sustainability to achieve the comprehensive aims of the SDGs, particularly in the context of poverty eradication. Policy-makers can create a holistic framework that facilitates sustainable development by focusing on these interlinked factors.

This study is not without limitations. The first major limitation is the reliance on secondary data, which may vary in quality and consistency across countries. These variations can potentially affect the robustness of the findings. Additionally, while governance quality and SAI oversight significantly impact SDG achievement, the study does not account for other contextual factors, such as political stability and cultural differences, which may also influence outcomes. These factors could limit the generalizability of the study's conclusions to different regional or political contexts. Regarding theoretical implications, the findings suggest that strengthening institutional oversight and governance quality could play an essential role in enhancing SDG outcomes. This study's findings indicate that policymakers should focus on building resilient and independent oversight frameworks that can adapt to national contexts while aligning with international SDG targets. The importance of these mechanisms extends beyond poverty reduction; they will likely contribute to broader sustainable development efforts by promoting transparency, accountability, and efficient resource allocation.

This study carried out supplementary analyses that differentiated between developing and developed countries to examine the influence of SAI oversight and the quality of governance on attaining SDGs. The result of the additional testing is presented in Table 5. The test results for developing countries indicate that OVGSAIt, GSCORt, and LNGDPt significantly and positively impact the achievement of SDGs. The variable OVGSAIt has a coefficient of 0.159, indicating that enhancing the effectiveness of SAI oversight has a beneficial effect on poverty alleviation efforts in developing nations (significance level of 1%). Similarly, GSCORt demonstrates positive outcomes

with a coefficient of 0.263, suggesting that advancements in governance quality facilitate progress toward the SDGs, with a significance level of 5%.

Table 5. Additional Testing Results (Developing Countries)

Variable	Expected sign	$SDGSA_t$
_Cons		20.153
		0.040
$OVGSAI_t$	(+)	0.159***
		0.000
$GSCOR_t$	(+)	0.263**
		0.013
$LNGDP_t$	(+)	0.888**
		0.046
Prob > F		0.000
Adj R-Squared		0.402
Mean VIF		1.120

Number of Observations = 96
Table 1 explains the variable operationalization.
*** and ** = P-value significance at 1% and 5%, respectively.

In contrast to the results for developing countries, the testing outcomes for developed countries provide insights into the unique dynamics involved (presented in Table 6). The variable OVGSAI continues to show a positive effect on the achievement of SDGs, indicated by a coefficient of 0.148 and a high significance level of 1%. In contrast, the governance quality variable GSCOR exhibits only a modest influence, reflected by a coefficient of 0.063 and significance at the 5% level. This outcome suggests that although SAI oversight remains a significant factor in developed nations, the impact of governance quality is comparatively weaker. Additionally, the LNGDP variable, which denotes the size of a country's economy, presents a negative coefficient of –0.253 and lacks statistical significance. This outcome suggests that economic size does not significantly affect the attainment of SDGs in developed countries as it does in developing ones. This result may indicate that developed nations with established economic frameworks do not depend as much on economic size to progress toward SDG targets, unlike their developing counterparts, where economic growth is more critical.

Table 6. Additional Testing Results (Developed Countries)

Variable	Expected sign	$SDGSA_t$
_Cons		69.621
		0.000
$OVGSAI_t$	(+)	0.148***
		0.001
$GSCOR_t$	(+)	0.063**
		0.069
$LNGDP_t$	(+)	–0.253
		0.581
Prob > F		0.000
Adj R-Squared		0.476
Mean VIF		1.330

Number of Observations = 20
Table 1 explains the variable operationalization.
*** and ** = P-value significance at 1% and 5%, respectively.

Overall, these results suggest that critical factors, such as the effectiveness of SAI oversight and governance quality, exert varying degrees of influence depending on the economic context of a country when it comes to achieving SDGs. The implications of these findings underscore the importance of adopting tailored approaches that are precisely aligned with each country's unique economic and institutional conditions to maximize their impact on achieving the SDGs. This

situation is especially pertinent to global poverty reduction initiatives, where a uniform approach may prove ineffective. Instead, strategies should be customized to reflect each country's distinct challenges and capacities, ensuring that interventions are relevant and effective in driving progress toward SDGs.

CONCLUSION

This study addresses the research questions regarding the role of SAI and governance quality in achieving SDG 1, focusing on poverty alleviation. First, regarding how SAI oversight contributes to the achievement of SDG 1, the findings confirm that SAI oversight is crucial in advancing poverty reduction by promoting transparency, accountability, and efficient resource allocation. Robust SAI oversight mechanisms help ensure that government policies are effectively implemented and aligned with the goal of poverty alleviation, thereby contributing directly to SDG 1. Second, regarding the role of governance quality in supporting effective poverty alleviation, this study finds that good governance is indispensable for sustainable poverty reduction. High-quality governance provides a stable framework that supports the equitable distribution of resources and enhances the efficiency of poverty-related policies. This outcome confirms that governance quality strengthens institutional trust and is vital in creating an environment conducive to successfully implementing poverty alleviation strategies.

Theoretically, this study contributes to institutional and sustainable development theories. Institutional theory highlights the importance of independent oversight mechanisms, like SAI, in ensuring that government actions are directed toward social objectives like poverty alleviation. Sustainable development theory emphasizes that poverty reduction is best achieved when economic growth, governance, and environmental factors are balanced, fostering long-term, sustainable progress. The findings emphasize the need for policymakers to strengthen SAI capacities and government structures to create an environment for achieving SDG 1. Local governments, especially in developing countries, should prioritize policies that promote good governance, accountability, and practical resource allocation to make sustainable progress in poverty reduction.

This study acknowledges several limitations. First, this research focuses solely on SDG 1. However, there are 17 SDGs in total, limiting the research to the goal of poverty alleviation. Additionally, the analysis uses data from 2021, which may not fully capture the long-term impacts of governance quality and SAI oversight on SDGs. Furthermore, this study primarily examines the roles of SAI oversight and governance quality without incorporating other significant factors, such as political stability and social policies, which may also influence poverty reduction.

Future research could expand on this study by examining the impact of governance quality and SAI effectiveness on SDGs beyond poverty reduction. Longitudinal studies could be beneficial for assessing the long-term impacts of SAI oversight on sustainable development. Additionally, exploring other influential factors, such as political stability, public participation, and social policies, could provide deeper insights into the complex mechanisms behind SDG achievement. Future studies can also investigate variations in governance and institutional structures across different regions, exploring the unique challenges in sustainable development and poverty alleviation specific to diverse contexts.

REFERENCES

Abhayawansa, S., Adams, C. A., & Neesham, C. (2021). Accountability and governance in pursuit of sustainable development goals: Conceptualizing how governments create value. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal, 34*(4), 923–945. https://doi.org/10.1108/AAAJ-07-2020-4667

Alkire, S., Nogales, R., Quinn, N. N., & Suppa, N. (2021). Global multidimensional poverty and COVID-19: A decade of progress at risk? *Social Science & Medicine*, 291, 114457. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2021.114457

Alsayegh, M. F., Ditta, A., Mahmood, Z., & Kouser, R. (2023). The role of Sustainability reporting and governance in achieving sustainable development goals: An international investigation. *Sustainability, 15*(4), 3531. https://doi.org/10.3390/su15043531

Barbier, E. B., & Burgess, J. C. (2017). The sustainable development goals and the systems approach sustainability. *Economics, 11*(1), 20170028. https://doi.org/10.5018/economics-ejournal.ja.2017-28

Breuer, A., Malerba, D., Balasubramanian, P., & Srigiri, S. (2022). *Governing the interlinkages between the SDGs: Approaches, opportunities and challenges* (1st ed.). Routledge.

Cao, H., Zhang, L., Qi, Y., Yang, Z., & Li, X. (2022). Government auditing and environmental governance: Evidence from China's auditing system reform. *Environmental Impact Assessment Review, 93*, 106705. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eiar.2021.106705

Cordery, C., Arora, B., & Manochin, M. (2023). Public sector audit and the state's responsibility to "leave no-one behind": The role of integrated democratic accountability. *Financial Accountability & Management, 39*(2), 304-326. https://doi.org/10.1111/faam.12354

Crawford, B., & Dacin, M. T. (2020). Punishment and institutions: A macro foundations perspective. In C. W. J. Steele, T. R. Hannigan, V. L. Glaser, M. Toubiana, and J. Gehman (Eds.*), Research in the sociology of organizations* (pp. 97-119). Emerald Publishing Limited.

Dacin, M. T., Goodstein, J., & Scott, W. R. (2002). Institutional theory and institutional change: Introduction to the special research forum. *The Academy of Management Journal, 45*(1), 43. https://doi.org/10.2307/3069284

Dionisijev, I., Bozhinovska Lazarevska, Z., Trpeska, M., & Atanasovski, A. (2023). The supreme audit institution in the Republic of North Macedonia—two decades of building public trust. *Journal of Public Budgeting, Accounting & Financial Management, 35*(4), 515-535. https://doi.org/10.1108/JPBAFM-08-2021-0129

Dossou, T. A. M., Ndomandji Kambaye, E., Bekun, F. V., & Eoulam, A. O. (2023). Exploring the link between tourism, governance quality, and poverty reduction in Latin America. *Tourism Economics, 29*(1), 210-234. https://doi.org/10.1177/13548166211043974

Malelea, F. E., & Furqan, A. C. (2024). The role of government internal supervisory apparatus (APIP) and government internal control system (SPIP) in achieving sustainable development goals (SDGs) in Indonesia. *KnE Social Sciences*, 379-398. https://doi.org/10.18502/kss.v9i20.16541

Fukuda-Parr, S., & McNeill, D. (2019). Knowledge and politics in setting and measuring the SDGs: Introduction to a special issue. *Global Policy, 10*(S1), 5-15. https://doi.org/10.1111/1758-5899.12604

Furqan, A. C., Kahar, A., Masdar, R., Andriana, C., Rahmaniyah, F., & Risma, R. (2023). Mechanism of incentives and accountability in rural institutions: Regional context in global dimensions of SDGS. *Cogent Economics & Finance, 11*(2), 2259274. https://doi.org/10.1080/23322039.2023.2259274

Gorrissen, E. (2020). The role of the INTOSAI Development Initiative (IDI) in strengthening the capacity and performance of supreme audit institutions in developing countries. *Journal of Public Budgeting, Accounting & Financial Management, 32*(4), 729-733. https://doi.org/10.1108/JPBAFM-08-2020-0146

Hancu-Budui, A., & Zorio-Grima, A. (2023). Supreme audit institutions in Europe: Synergies, institutional transparency, gender equality and sustainability engagement. *Journal of Public Budgeting, Accounting & Financial Management, 35*(4), 451-473. https://doi.org/10.1108/JPBAFM-07-2021-0116

Hazaea, S. A., Tabash, M. I., Zhu, J., Khatib, Saleh. F. A., & Betami, H. A. (2022). Corruption and supreme audit institutions in the Yemeni public sector: An empirical investigation. *Public Administration Issues*, (5), 87-109. https://doi.org/10.17323/1999-5431-2022-0-5-87-109

Hickel, J. (2020). The sustainable development index: Measuring the ecological efficiency of human development in the anthropocene. *Ecological Economics, 167*, 106331. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2019.05.011

Joshi, D. K., Hughes, B. B., & Sisk, T. D. (2015). Improving governance for the post-2015 sustainable development goals: Scenario forecasting the next 50 years. *World Development, 70*, 286-302. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2015.01.013

Lassou, P. J. C., Hopper, T., & Ntim, C. (2021). How the colonial legacy frames the state audit institutions in Benin that fail to curb corruption. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 78*, 102168. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpa.2020.102168

Laupe, S., Abdullah, M. I., Kahar, A., Saleh, F. Moh., Zahra, F., & Syamsuddin, N. A. (2022). Auditor's skepticism, forensic accounting, investigation audit, and fraud disclosure of corruption cases. *Journal of Governance and Regulation, 11*(3), 189-196. https://doi.org/10.22495/jgrv11i3art16

Lauwo, S. G., Azure, J. D.-C., & Hopper, T. (2022). Accountability and governance in implementing the sustainable development goals in a developing country context: Evidence from Tanzania. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal, 35*(6), 1431-1461. https://doi.org/10.1108/AAAJ-10-2019-4220

Liu, Q.-Q., Yu, M., & Wang, X.-L. (2015). Poverty reduction within the framework of the SDGs and post-2015 development agenda. *Advances in Climate Change Research, 6*(1), 67-73. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.accre.2015.09.004

Masdar, R., Furqan, A. C., Masruddin, M., & Meldawaty, L. (2021). The role of transparency and professional assistance in regional financial management in the Indonesian regional governments. *Journal of Public Affairs, 21*(3), e2666. https://doi.org/10.1002/pa.2666

Meuleman, L., & Niestroy, I. (2015). Common but differentiated governance: A Metagovernance approach to make the SDGs work. *Sustainability, 7*(9), 12295-12321. https://doi.org/10.3390/su70912295

Mombeuil, C., & Diunugala, H. P. (2021). UN sustainable development goals, good governance, and corruption: The paradox of the world's poorest economies. *Business and Society Review, 126*(3), 311-338. https://doi.org/10.1111/basr.12241

Montero, A. G., & Blanc, D. L. (2019, January). *The Role of External Audits in Enhancing Transparency and Accountability for the Sustainable Development Goals* (Working Paper DESA No.157). https://www.un.org/esa/desa/papers/2019/wp157_2019.pdf

International Budget Partnership. (2022). *Open budget survey 2021*. www.internationalbudget.org/open-budget-survey

Rahman, A., Elfajri, W., Kartika, R., & Yuskar, Y. (2023). Analysis of the Indonesian supreme audit institution's strategic response to the SDGs program. *Economic Education Analysis Journal, 1*(1), 39-51. https://doi.org/10.15294/eeaj.v1i1.77227

Ramprasad, V. (2021). Institutional benefit pathways in development. *World Development, 142,* 105453. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2021.105453

Rasoolimanesh, S. M., Badarulzaman, N., Abdullah, A., & Behrang, M. (2022). Integrated sustainable urban planning: A new agenda for future urban planning in Malaysia. *Journal of Place Management and Development, 15*(3), 284-297. https://doi.org/10.1108/JPMD-02-2020-0014

Sadiq, M., Ngo, T. Q., Pantamee, A. A., Khudoykulov, K., Thi Ngan, T., & Tan, L. P. (2023). The role of environmental social and governance in achieving sustainable development goals: Evidence from ASEAN countries. *Economic Research-Ekonomska Istraživanja, 36*(1), 170-190. https://doi.org/10.1080/1331677X.2022.2072357

Sakinah, H., Furqan, A. C., & Meldawati, L. (2024). Achieving the SDGs through strengthening the capabilities of APIP and corruption control in Indonesia. In *Riau international conference on economics, business and accounting*, *1*(1, Januari) (pp. 185-195). https://riceba.prosiding.unri.ac.id/index.php/riceba-prosiding/article/view/127

Sari, D. A., Margules, C., Lim, H. S., Sayer, J. A., Boedhihartono, A. K., Macgregor, C. J., Dale, A. P., & Poon, E. (2022). Performance auditing to assess the implementation of the sustainable development goals (SDGs) in Indonesia. *Sustainability, 14*(19), 12772. https://doi.org/10.3390/su141912772

Saud, S. F. S., & Furqan, A. C. (2024). The effort to realize government effectiveness through implementation fully accrual accounting and control against corruption. *AKRUAL: Jurnal Akuntansi, 15*(2), 128-136. https://doi.org/10.26740/jaj.v15n2.p128-136

Scoones, I., Stirling, A., Abrol, D., Atela, J., Charli-Joseph, L., Eakin, H., Ely, A., Olsson, P., Pereira, L., Priya, R., Van Zwanenberg, P., & Yang, L. (2020). Transformations to sustainability: Combining structural, systemic and enabling approaches. *Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability, 42*, 65-75. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cosust.2019.12.004

Smith, F. H., Retief, F. P., Roos, C., & Alberts, R. C. (2021). The evolving role of supreme auditing institutions (SAIs) toward enhancing environmental governance. *Impact Assessment and Project Appraisal, 39*(1), 67-79. https://doi.org/10.1080/14615517.2020.1834835

Su, H., Lu, Y., Lyulyov, O., & Pimonenko, T. (2023). Good governance within public participation and national audit for reducing corruption. *Sustainability, 15*(9), 7030. https://doi.org/10.3390/su15097030

Sulaiman, N. A., & Mat Yasin, F. (2022). Audit committee oversight of external audit: An examination of structural power and behavioral tactics. *Meditari Accountancy Research, 30*(6), 1571-1593. https://doi.org/10.1108/MEDAR-12-2019-0630

Sułkowski, Ł., & Dobrowolski, Z. (2021). The role of supreme audit institutions in energy accountability in EU countries. *Energy Policy, 156*, 112413. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enpol.2021.112413

United Nation. (2015). *Transforming our world: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development: Resolution/adopted by the General Assembly*. https://digitallibrary.un.org/record/3923923?v=pdf

United Nation. (2022). *Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere*. https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/poverty/

Winden, E. V. (2017). *Auditors of sustainability: Exploring the role of supreme audit institutions in the implementation of the sustainable development goals* [Master thesis, Utrecht University]. UU Thesis Repository. https://studenttheses.uu.nl/handle/20.500.12932/26921

APPENDICES

Appendix 1. List of 116 Countries in the Sample

No	Country	Code	Country Category
1	Afghanistan	AFG	Developing Country
2	Albania	ALB	Developing Country
3	Algeria	DZA	Developing Country
4	Angola	AGO	Developing Country
5	Argentina	ARG	Developing Country
6	Armenia	ARM	Developing Country
7	Australia	AUS	Developed Country
8	Azerbaijan	AZE	Developing Country
9	Bangladesh	BGD	Developing Country
10	Benin	BEN	Developing Country
11	Bolivia	BOL	Developing Country
12	Botswana	BWA	Developing Country
13	Brazil	BRA	Developing Country
14	Bulgaria	BGR	Developing Country
15	Burkina Faso	BFA	Developing Country
16	Burundi	BDI	Developing Country
17	Cambodia	KHM	Developing Country
18	Cameroon	CMR	Developing Country
19	Canada	CAN	Developed Country
20	Chad	TCD	Developing Country
21	Chile	CHL	Developing Country
22	China	CHN	Developing Country
23	Colombia	COL	Developing Country
24	Comoros	COM	Developing Country
25	Congo, Dem. Rep.	COD	Developing Country
26	Costa Rica	CRI	Developing Country
27	Cote d'Ivoire	CIV	Developing Country
28	Croatia	HRV	Developing Country
29	Dominican Republic	DOM	Developing Country
30	Ecuador	ECU	Developing Country
31	Egypt, Arab Rep.	EGY	Developed Country
32	El Salvador	SLV	Developing Country
33	Eswatini	SWZ	Developing Country
34	Ethiopia	ETH	Developing Country
35	Fiji	FJI	Developing Country
36	France	FRA	Developed Country
37	The Gambia	GMB	Developing Country
38	Georgia	GEO	Developing Country
39	Germany	DEU	Developed Country
40	Ghana	GHA	Developing Country

No	Country	Code	Country Category
41	Guatemala	GTM	Developing Country
42	Honduras	HND	Developing Country
43	Hungary	HUN	Developing Country
44	India	IND	Developing Country
45	Indonesia	IDN	Developing Country
46	Iraq	IRQ	Developing Country
47	Italy	ITA	Developed Country
48	Jamaica	JAM	Developing Country
49	Japan	JPN	Developed Country
50	Jordan	JOR	Developing Country
51	Kazakhstan	KAZ	Developing Country
52	Kenya	KEN	Developing Country
53	Kyrgyz Republic	KGZ	Developing Country
54	Lebanon	LBN	Developing Country
55	Lesotho	LSO	Developing Country
56	Liberia	LBR	Developing Country
57	Madagascar	MDG	Developing Country
58	Malawi	MWI	Developing Country
59	Malaysia	MYS	Developing Country
60	Mali	MLI	Developing Country
61	Mexico	MEX	Developing Country
62	Moldova	MDA	Developing Country
63	Mongolia	MNG	Developing Country
64	Morocco	MAR	Developing Country
65	Mozambique	MOZ	Developing Country
66	Myanmar	MMR	Developing Country
67	Namibia	NAM	Developing Country
68	Nepal	NPL	Developing Country
69	New Zealand	NZL	Developed Country
70	Nicaragua	NIC	Developing Country
71	Niger	NER	Developing Country
72	Nigeria	NGA	Developing Country
73	North Macedonia	MKD	Developing Country
74	Norway	NOR	Developed Country
75	Pakistan	PAK	Developing Country
76	Papua New Guinea	PNG	Developing Country
77	Paraguay	PRY	Developing Country
78	Peru	PER	Developing Country
79	Philippines	PHL	Developing Country
80	Poland	POL	Developed Country
81	Portugal	PRT	Developed Country
82	Qatar	QAT	Developing Country
83	Romania	ROU	Developing Country

No	Country	Code	Country Category
84	Russian Federation	RUS	Developed Country
85	Rwanda	RWA	Developing Country
86	Sao Tome and Principe	STP	Developing Country
87	Saudi Arabia	SAU	Developing Country
88	Senegal	SEN	Developing Country
89	Serbia	SRB	Developing Country
90	Sierra Leone	SLE	Developing Country
91	Slovak Republic	SVK	Developed Country
92	Slovenia	SVN	Developed Country
93	Somalia	SOM	Developing Country
94	South Africa	ZAF	Developing Country
95	South Sudan	SSD	Developing Country
96	Spain	ESP	Developed Country
97	Sri Lanka	LKA	Developing Country
98	Sudan	SDN	Developing Country
99	Sweden	SWE	Developed Country
100	Tajikistan	TJK	Developing Country
101	Tanzania	TZA	Developing Country
102	Thailand	THA	Developing Country
103	Togo	TGO	Developing Country
104	Trinidad and Tobago	TTO	Developing Country
105	Tunisia	TUN	Developing Country
106	Türkiye	TUR	Developed Country
107	Uganda	UGA	Developing Country
108	Ukraine	UKR	Developing Country
109	United Arab Emirates	ARE	Developed Country
110	United Kingdom	GBR	Developed Country
111	United States	USA	Developed Country
112	Venezuela, RB	VEN	Developing Country
113	Vietnam	VNM	Developing Country
114	Yemen, Rep.	YEM	Developing Country
115	Zambia	ZMB	Developing Country
116	Zimbabwe	ZWE	Developing Country

Appendix 2. Data Source

Variable	Data Source	Link
Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) "No Poverty"	Sustainable Development Report	https://dashboards.sdgindex.org/downloads
Supreme Audit Institution (SAI) oversight	International Budget Survey	https://internationalbudget.org/wp-content/uploads/Open-budget-survey-2021-1.pdf
The quality of governance in a country	Global Sustainable Competitiveness Report	https://solability.com/the-global-sustainable-competitiveness-index/the-index/downloads
country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) value	World Bank	https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.CD
Classification of countries as either developed or developing based on their Gross National Income (GNI) per capita	World Bank	https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GNP.MKTP.CD