WITHIN REACH | GLOBAL DEVELOPMENT GOALS

2013 HUNGER REPORT

breadfortheworld
INSTITUTE

Bread for the World Institute provides policy analysis on hunger and strategies to end it. The Institute educates its network, opinion leaders, policy makers, and the public about hunger in the United States and abroad.

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www.bread.org/go/hunger2013

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Foreword: David Beckmann

The percentage of extremely poor people in the world has been cut in half since 1990. God has given our generation the possibility of ending hunger and extreme poverty—worldwide and certainly within our own richly blessed nation.

This report urges the President of the United States to provide leadership to get the nations of the world to set specific goals for continued progress against poverty and hunger—and announce a goal and plan to end hunger in America.

Since the U.N. Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were adopted in 2000, they have been remarkably successful in mobilizing effort to reduce poverty and disease. The MDGs will conclude in 2015, so governments and people around the world are now debating a new global development framework for coming decades. The United States was slow to embrace the MDGs, and it is important that our country provide leadership in shaping the next generation of global development goals.

Action to reduce world hunger is especially urgent. World hunger has increased substantially since 2008 because of high prices for the basic grains that are so important to poor people in developing countries—rice, wheat, and corn.

The United States has provided leadership for increased investment in agriculture and nutrition in low-income countries, and these efforts have moderated the surge in hunger. But the U.N. Secretary General, Ban Ki-moon, rightly issued a Zero-Hunger Challenge to the world this year. International efforts to reduce hunger should be intensified between now and 2015 and then folded into the post-2015 development framework.

The MDGs have taught us that a timeline matters. We need an end date to hold ourselves accountable for progress along the way, and it is feasible to end extreme poverty and hunger worldwide by 2040. There would still be instances of hunger—in situations of war, for example—but we can end the sort of mass hunger and poverty that humanity has long taken for granted.

It will take leadership from our newly elected president to mobilize governments and civil society behind a bull's-eye goal to eliminate hunger and poverty. The president must work with partners in the G-8, G-20 and other multilateral arenas, and he will have to convince Congress and the U.S. public that it makes sense for the United States to support global progress against poverty.

The newly elected president should also announce a goal and plan to end hunger in America. Economic recovery and strong national programs—combined with ongoing efforts at the state and community level—can reverse recent economic setbacks and make it possible for everybody in the United States to have enough to eat.

All sorts of countries—Bangladesh, Ghana, Brazil, and the United Kingdom—have been able to reduce hunger and poverty. We don't have to put up with widespread hunger in the U.S.A.

Again, leadership from the President—and support from Congress—is crucial. And in our great democracy, political leaders need encouragement and active support from concerned citizens and civil-society groups.

Bread for the World's wonderful network of active members and partner organizations are part of what the *New Testament* book of Hebrews calls "the great cloud of witnesses." Almost four decades of prayer, activism, and faithful support from tens of thousands of Bread for the World members and churches have resulted in help for hundreds of millions of needy people.

In former times, people of faith "administered justice, obtained promises, shut the mouth of lions, won strength out of weakness, and put armies to flight." In our time, God is calling us to end hunger.

Rev. David Beckmann
President,
Bread for the World and Bread for the World Institute

Religious Leaders' Statement

As 2015 approaches and the Millennium Development Goals wind down, we give thanks to God for the progress that has been achieved on many fronts. Behind the statistics, we see images of girls at school desks, people living productive lives with HIV and AIDS, and families sharing a meal where there is enough for everyone to eat.

As Christian leaders with close ties to sisters and brothers who battle hunger and poverty daily, we are deeply aware of both the human cost of these hardships and the blessings of new opportunity and hope that come with escape from poverty and hunger.

Just as the vision of the world as God intended guided biblical prophets, similarly we believe that a shared vision of a world without debilitating poverty can play a critical role in focusing our attention, strengthening political will, and mobilizing national resources against poverty and hunger. Concrete goals and published results serve to hold us all accountable to that vision and to each other.

Our Lord clearly identified with those without food or health or shelter, and made the response to their plight the measure of nations.

As world leaders debate what will follow the Millennium Development Goals, we urge the United States to be a leader in setting a bold goal to eradicate chronic hunger and poverty around the world. With concerted effort, a system to hold all nations accountable, and God's help, we believe this is an achievable goal.

The planning needed to achieve such a goal must truly be participatory. As well as civil society, faith groups, and governments, participants must include impoverished people themselves, especially women. Targets, benchmarks, and strategies must reflect a true partnership.

We pray that God will inspire us all with this courageous vision beyond 2015.

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Within Reach: Global Development Goals

The 2000s were a decade of extraordinary progress against global poverty. More people escaped poverty during the 2000s than any other decade in history. More importantly, progress occurred in every major region of the world.

It may not be possible to establish a direct causal link, but it is no coincidence that this progress coincided with global efforts to reach the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). When the MDGs were launched in the year 2000, leaders from every country in the world pledged their support. Few could have known at the time how influential these goals would become.

Since 2000, the MDGs have been the dominant global development framework, and they have galvanized public support around the world for ending hunger and extreme poverty. Scarcely a summit passes where heads of state don't renew their support for the MDGs. Civil society groups, particularly faith-based ones, have been loyal advocates of the MDGs, dedicated to holding government leaders accountable for following through on their pledges.

A Sprint to the Finish

MDG 1 calls for eradicating hunger and extreme poverty with a target of halving the proportion of people who live in hunger and poverty by 2015. Other goals include achieving universal primary school enrollment, reducing child and maternal mortality, promoting gender equality, reversing the spread of infectious diseases, and improving environmental sustainability.

"The MDGs are the global community's most holistic approach yet to human development."

The MDGs are the global community's most holistic approach yet to human development. Before the MDGs, the conventional "development" yardstick was a nation's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Clearly, growth in GDP is important for development. But progress against hunger and extreme poverty does not automatically accompany economic growth. Today, most people living below the international poverty line ($1.25 per day) reside in middle-income countries, illustrating how economic growth does not always reach people at the bottom.

In 2012, the World Bank announced that the percentage of people living below the international poverty line had already fallen by more than half, thus achieving the 2015 target.[1] The hunger target has not been achieved yet—but it is within reach if all countries are willing to step up and do their part.

In the current environment of an anemic global economy and rising food prices, it may seem difficult to imagine that much progress can be made towards the MDGs, but recent experience would suggest otherwise. Indeed, many countries in Africa and Asia have bounced back from the financial crisis in 2008 more quickly than anticipated. The experience of countries as different as Ghana, Brazil, Rwanda, Vietnam, and Bangladesh show that with good leadership and a comprehensive, country-owned and -driven strategy, progress is possible in a very short period of time.

Laura Elizabeth Pohl

Geta Rana plays with her daughter and other children at the in-patient Nutrition Rehabilitation Hospital for malnourished children in Dhanghadi, Nepal.

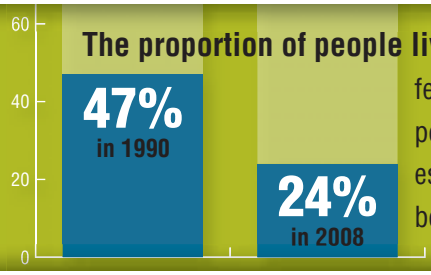
What does this mean for the United States? The U.S. government should renew and reinvigorate its commitment to the following:

- Achieving the MDGs by 2015.
- Maintaining and increasing funding for poverty-focused development programs.
- Improving the effectiveness of U.S. development assistance to get better results.

Achieving the goals mostly depends on the commitment of political leaders to scale up proven approaches and target the groups most difficult to reach. Leaders will have to address the structural inequalities that deny certain groups of people access to social and economic opportunities. These are predominantly racial, ethnic, and religious minority groups.

Accelerating progress against hunger and poverty requires special focus on women and girls. Women's status in society is possibly the most reliable marker of how a country is doing with respect to achieving the MDGs. Similarly, the proportion of children who are stunted may be the most reliable marker of how much progress a country can expect to make within a generation.

Stunting means that a child is too short for her age, but it also carries consequences that



The proportion of people living on less than $1.25 a day fell from 47 percent in 1990 to 24 percent in 2008—and preliminary estimates indicate in 2010 it fell below half the 1990 rate.[1]

From 2000 to 2011, poverty in the United States increased from **11.3 percent** to **15.0 percent**.[2]

can't be seen, including damage to brain development[2] and overall health. A child who is stunted has suffered chronic malnutrition. Presently, one in four of the world's children are stunted.[3] The hunger goal in the MDGs does not include an indicator for stunting, which was a serious oversight. Any new set of global development goals must include a target to eliminate stunting.

With just three years left before the December 2015 deadline of the MDGs, it is critical to build on the achievements of the last 12 years and redouble efforts to speed up progress, especially in countries where progress has been slow. The final push and a strong finish by 2015 will be critical to building momentum and creating an appetite for what comes next.

Beyond 2015

"Any new set of global development goals must include a target to eliminate stunting."

The international community has begun to debate a post-2015 framework for development, which is expected to include a new set of global development goals. Both outcome and process targets, including indicators that measure progress on strengthening development partnerships, must accompany the goals. Whatever agreement emerges should have a bull's-eye target of ending hunger and extreme poverty by 2040—roughly within a generation. Twenty-five years, from 2015 to 2040, is a reasonable stretch of time to accomplish this, given the rates of progress some countries have proven capable of achieving.

The best results will come from strengthening partnerships among all concerned. MDG 8 focuses on improving partnerships between developed and developing nations, and this should remain a priority in a post-MDG framework.

Since the MDGs were established in 2000, the concept of partnership has been evolving rapidly. Low-income countries are making their own plans for development and poverty reduction and are taking greater responsibility for the development assistance they receive. Traditional donors have made this shift because they've learned from experience how crucial local ownership is to success.

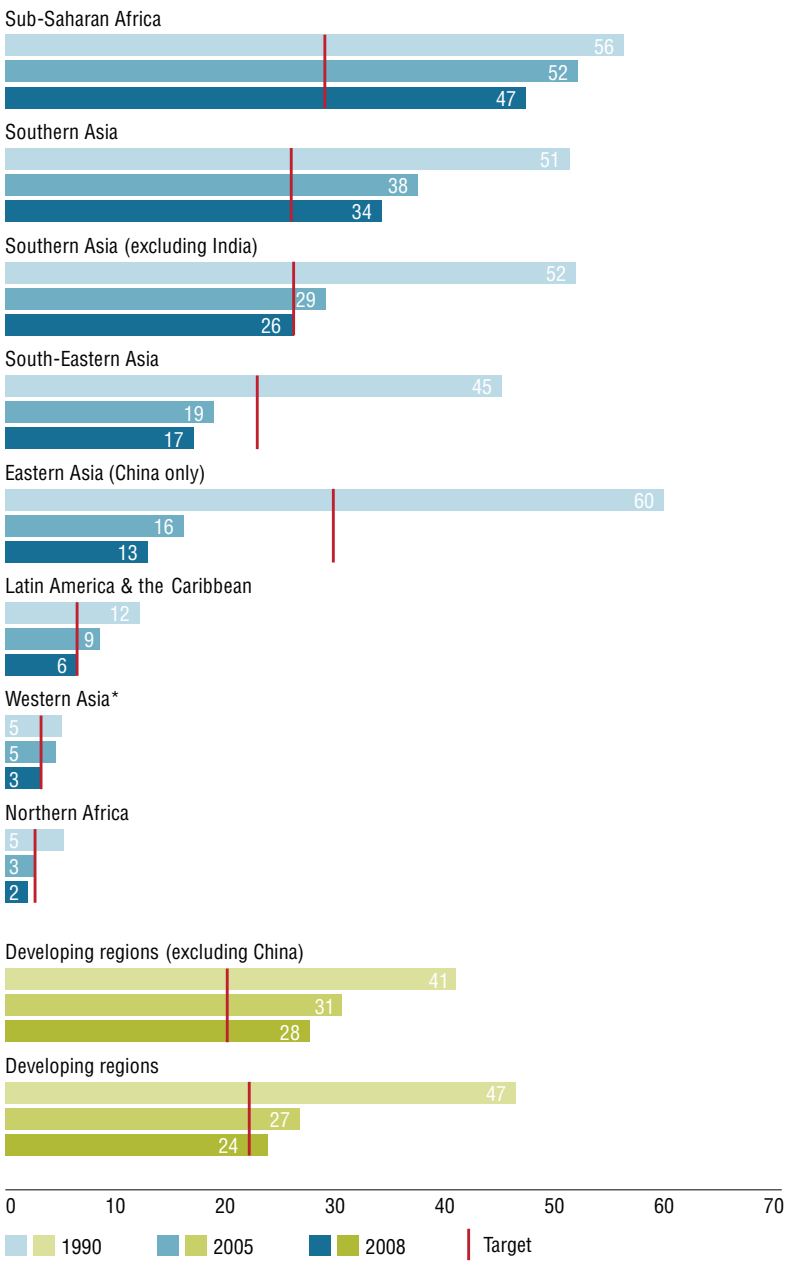
Several external factors that affect sustainable progress against hunger and poverty are themselves in flux. Food prices are one example. There are many actions beyond providing aid that developed countries could take to prevent and mitigate the effects of food-price volatility—and a true partnership for development means that donor countries need to be prepared to work on all fronts against problems that impede development. The next set of goals should include meaningful indicators of what it means to partner for development.

In addition, every country should set goals to eliminate hunger and poverty, including middle- and high-income countries. Hunger

Globally, an estimated **165 million** children under-five years of age, or 26 percent, were stunted (i.e., height-for-age) in 2011—a **35 percent** decrease from an estimated 253 million in 1990.[4]

Extreme Poverty Falls in Every Region of the Developing World

Proportion of people living on less than $1.25 a day, 1990, 2005 and 2008
(Percentage)



* The aggregate value is based on 5 of 13 countries in the region.

Note: No sufficient country data are available to calculate the aggregate values for Oceania.

Source: United Nations (UN), 2012

and poverty are intolerable everywhere. Each nation needs to engage in its own goal-setting process, which will foster broader civil society participation and result in national goals that focus on country-specific causes of hunger and poverty. In the United States, that means ending hunger and poverty at home.

Once a framework agreement is reached, national governments and their civil society partners should embark on a public education campaign to build widespread support for the new global goals. This will ensure long-term commitment and spur citizens to hold government leaders accountable. Despite new and old challenges, it is possible to eliminate global hunger and poverty by 2040. However, it is not possible to do so without committed leadership.

The Value of U.S. Leadership

It is fair to say that so far, the United States has not been actively engaged in setting the post-2015 development agenda. To ensure a strong U.S. commitment, U.S. civil society, particularly faith-based groups, should encourage the president and other government leaders to become more engaged in the process of developing a post-2015 framework and to take the lead in rallying all countries to support a goal of ending hunger and poverty. The final push for the MDGs and development of new goals will need the full support and backing of the

U.S. government. Civil society in the United States, especially the faith community, must work quickly to make this a priority for the president and Congress.

The United States should support an inclusive process for developing a post-2015 framework, one in which all voices are heard. The next set of development goals needs to reflect the hopes and aspirations of people who live in hunger and poverty and needs to be owned and embraced by developing countries. An open and transparent process of goal-setting will ensure that civil society is not shut out and that hungry people are heard. These principles have defined U.S. development programs in recent years and should continue to shape U.S. support for building a post-MDG development framework. It is important that the international community get the goals and the process right.

"Despite new and old challenges, it is possible to eliminate global hunger and poverty by 2040."

The reason the United States still has hungry people is simply that national, state, and local government leaders have not made hunger a top priority. With effective leadership and the right strategies, hunger and poverty could be ended in the United States much earlier than 2040. The public needs to demand stronger leadership on hunger and support those leaders' efforts. In our system of government, a problem becomes a national priority only when a critical mass of citizens is willing to commit to solving it and to holding policymakers accountable for making progress. Ending hunger and poverty in the United States will require strong nutrition and anti-poverty programs, investments in the nation's human capital, and improved job opportunities. Success demands ownership of the goal by everyone and close partnerships among actors at the national, state, and local levels. But it begins with the president setting a time-bound goal to end hunger in the United States.

MAIN RECOMMENDATIONS IN THE 2013 HUNGER REPORT

- A post-MDG global development framework should include a bull's-eye goal to end hunger and poverty in every country in the world by 2040.
- The post-MDG framework should be developed through a process that is inclusive and transparent.
- The United States should meet the commitments it made to work with other donor countries to improve aid effectiveness and how donors partner with one another to reduce hunger and poverty.
- All donors should support country-led strategies, meaning strategies worked out by governments in developing countries in consultation with civil society and other domestic partners. Donors should also focus on strengthening local capacity to achieve lasting results.
- Donors should focus on building resilience in developing countries so that poor people can weather food-price volatility and other shocks. Agricultural development assistance and support for social protection systems will help mitigate the impact of shocks on poverty, hunger, and malnutrition.
- The United States should support efforts in developing countries to provide productive employment to large and growing youth populations.
- U.S. partnerships with major immigrant-sending countries in Latin America should respond to poverty and hunger as primary causes of unauthorized immigration.
- A post-2015 global development framework should address climate change within the context of a clear overall focus on poverty.
- A global development framework should explicitly support good governance, effective leadership, and the institutions that make them possible.
- The president should propose a time-bound goal to end hunger and poverty in the United States and develop a plan to achieve it, and he should also establish an office within the administration to coordinate national, state, and local efforts.

UN Photo/Kibae Park

Why Global Development Goals Matter

Chapter Summary

Since 2000, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) have galvanized support around the world for ending hunger and extreme poverty. 2015, the agreed deadline, is nearly at hand. With just three years left, it is critical to build on the achievements of the last twelve years and redouble efforts to speed up progress, especially in countries where it has been slow. The international community has begun to debate a post-2015 framework that would include a new set of development goals. Whatever agreement emerges must include a bull's-eye target: ending hunger and extreme poverty by 2040. To ensure a strong U.S. commitment, U.S. civil society, particularly faith-based groups, should encourage the president and other government leaders to become more engaged in the process of developing a post-2015 framework and to take the lead in rallying all countries to support a goal of ending hunger and poverty. Every country should agree to set national development goals, including the United States and other high-income nations. A post-2015 framework should make it clear that poverty and hunger are morally unacceptable everywhere.

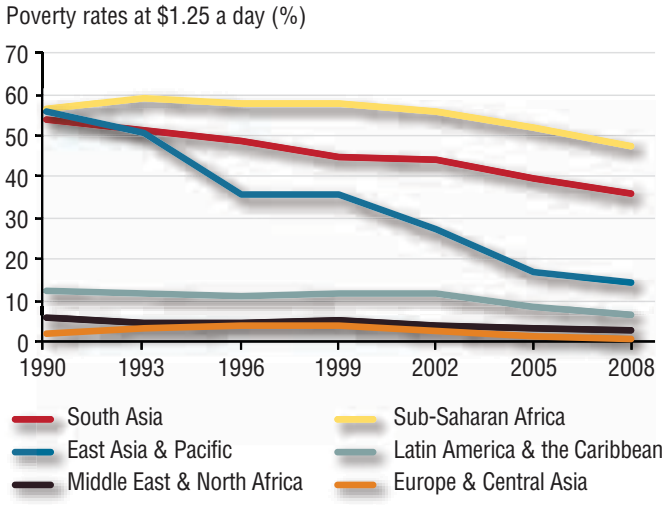
MAIN RECOMMENDATIONS IN THIS CHAPTER

- A post-2015 successor agreement to the MDGs should include a bull's-eye target to end hunger and poverty in every country in the world by 2040.
- A post-2015 agreement should establish a framework in which each country sets ambitious goals that properly reflect its level of social and economic development.
- The U.S. government should play a leading role in developing the next generation of global goals and ensuring the process is inclusive and transparent.
- The United States, like all other countries, should set a time-bound goal to end domestic hunger and poverty.

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) have been remarkably successful in focusing global attention on ending hunger and poverty. In 2000, when the goals were launched, all countries pledged to work together to cut global hunger and poverty in half by 2015. Unlike many global initiatives that came before it, the MDGs remain a prominent concern of national governments and the international development community. This is due in no small part to the fact that the goals have concrete targets to measure progress and hold government leaders accountable.

In 2015, national leaders are expected to decide on a new set of global development goals. A debate about what these goals should be is already under way. So far the U.S. government and its domestic civil society partners have remained on the fringes, saying very little about what a post-2015 development framework should look like. This report seeks to change that. It calls on U.S. policymakers and civil society to lead an effort to win global support for a new set of development goals, including a goal to end hunger and extreme poverty by 2040.

Figure i.1 **Poverty Rates Fell Sharply in the New Millennium**



Source: World Bank, *Global Monitoring Report*, 2012

By 2015, hunger and poverty are supposed to be cut in half, but the MDGs call for ultimately eliminating them. Global poverty is now falling with unprecedented speed, and indeed it is possible to imagine a world by 2040 where chronic hunger and poverty no longer exist. According to the World Bank, the percentage of people living below the international poverty line ($1.25 per person per day) has fallen by more than half since 1990; in other words, the MDG target of cutting income poverty in half by 2015 has been reached.[1] More people escaped poverty during the 2000s than in any decade in history. Even more importantly, progress was made in every major region of the world. Accelerating this progress and reaching those left behind should be the focus of the next three years and the post-2015 development framework.

At this point, it is not clear whether the hunger target of the MDGs—cutting hunger in half—will be met by the 2015 deadline. The lagging progress on hunger, compared to progress on poverty, illustrates a problem with how the MDGs are being pursued. Too little attention has been paid to the interrelationship between hunger and poverty, particularly in rural areas where most of the world's hungry and poor people live. In 2007-2008, a global hunger crisis resulting from spikes in food and fuel prices awakened the world to the cost of neglecting smallholder

66 percent **In sub Saharan Africa, of the working population earns a living from agriculture.**[1]

Food demand is projected to rise 50 percent by 2030.[2]

Figure i.2

Millennium Development Goals

to achieve by 2015

1 Eradicate Extreme Poverty & Hunger
To halve the proportion of people whose income is < $1.25 a day and halve the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.

2 Achieve Universal Primary Education
To ensure that children everywhere will be able to complete full primary education.

3 Promote Gender Equality & Empower Women
To eliminate gender disparity in all levels of primary and secondary education.

4 Reduce Child Mortality
To reduce by two-thirds the under-five mortality rate.

5 Improve Maternal Health
To reduce by three-quarters the maternal mortality ratio and to achieve universal access to reproductive health.

6 Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria & Other Diseases
To halt and reverse the spread of HIV/AIDs, to achieve universal access to HIV/AIDS treatment and to halt and reverse the incidence of malaria and other diseases.

7 Environmental Sustainability
To integrate sustainable development into country policies. To reverse loss of environmental resources. To reduce biodiversity loss. To halve the proportion of the population living without access to safe drinking water and sanitation. To improve lives of at least 100 million slum-dwellers.

8 Global Partnership
To develop a non-discriminatory trading and financial system. To address the needs of least developed land-locked and small island developing countries. To deal with developing countries' debt. To provide access to affordable drugs. To make technology more available.

Source: UN

farmers during previous decades. For example, investments in agriculture are 2.5 to 3 times more effective than nonagricultural investments in increasing the income of hungry and poor people.[2] This makes sense because most of the world's poor people live in rural areas and earn their living from agriculture.[3]

Since the MDGs were adopted, both developing country governments and aid donors have increased their investments in agriculture and rural development–but *not soon enough and not by enough* to accelerate reductions in hunger. In order to sync reductions in hunger with reductions in poverty, greater investments in agriculture are necessary and must be targeted at smallholder farmers. In 2009, the United States launched an ambitious new program, Feed the Future, making up for its own longstanding neglect of agricultural development assistance. All U.S. development assistance should make a priority of linking progress against poverty with reducing hunger and achieving the MDGs.

Agricultural investment reminds us of why development assistance must be seen in a more integrated way. The challenges ahead cannot be adequately met by efforts that are carried out in isolation (often referred to as "stovepiped" programs). Rather, development policy as the world moves toward 2040 must see the big picture. It's not simply a race to check off MDG indicators by 2015.

In South Asia, **94 percent** of women in the richest 20 percent of households receive prenatal care, while only **48 percent** of the poorest 20 percent have access to such care.[3]

In 2011, 16.1 million U.S. children, or **21.9 percent** of all U.S. children, lived in poverty.[4]

Driving Progress against Hunger and Poverty

The MDGs are the global community's most holistic approach yet to human development. Before the MDGs, the conventional "development" yardstick was a nation's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The MDG yardstick focuses on human dignity and well-being, and includes quantitative indicators for improvement. Clearly, growth in GDP is a part of development. But improvements in malnutrition and extreme poverty, for example, do not automatically accompany economic growth. Conversely, *lack* of robust economic growth does not necessarily mean that little or no progress is being made against hunger and poverty.

"All U.S. development assistance should make a priority of linking progress against poverty with reducing hunger and achieving the MDGs."

The limitations of using GDP as the sole indicator of a country's progress come into clearer focus when using an MDG "lens." India, for example, has experienced economic growth rates of 7 percent or higher every year since 1990—yet nearly half the children in the country (48 percent) are stunted because of malnutrition,[4] and India's child mortality rate is currently 40 percent too high for the country to achieve the MDG target.[5]

Compare India's performance to that of Bangladesh, a much poorer country, whose GDP grew by only 3 percent annually over the same period, but whose rates of child stunting declined from 68 percent to 43 percent. One reason for this progress is that, starting in the 1990s, the government of Bangladesh implemented national programs to promote breastfeeding and other ways of improving children's nutritional status, as well as educational campaigns on sanitation practices to prevent diarrhea—a common cause of death among children in poor countries. Nutrition has also been a component of agricultural programs in Bangladesh.[6] (See Box i.2 page 14.)

BOX i.1

GOALS DRIVE DEVELOPMENT IN VIETNAM

Vietnam is where the United States fought a difficult, decade-long war starting in the 1960s. This may be all that most Americans know about the country. But there is another story worth telling. Vietnam has gone from being one of the poorest countries in the world after the war, to reaching middle-income status in the 2000s. Vietnam's economy has grown at 7 percent or more for two solid decades—and reductions in poverty accompanied economic growth, which is not always the case. The poverty rate was 12.3 percent in 2009, down from 58.1 percent in 1993.[7]

The Vietnamese government established a set of development goals based on the MDGs, but Vietnam's Development Goals (VDGs) are more ambitious.[8] VDGs include additional goals to improve governance for poverty reduction, reduce ethnic inequality and build a pro-poor infrastructure. The gender equality goal includes additional targets to reduce vulnerability of women to domestic violence and enhance their access to land and credit.

Vietnam has proven that remarkable turnarounds are possible when national governments are committed to broad-based economic growth and poverty reduction.

Since they were set in 2000, the MDGs have become embedded in national development strategies; they also provide a framework for donors to align their support.[9] The U.K. government has aligned its aid programs with the MDGs, and the World Bank, the largest multilateral donor in the world, has restructured its lending and grant programs in accordance with the MDGs as well.

In a 2005 U.N. Development Program (UNDP) survey, 86 percent of the 118 countries that responded reported that they had integrated the MDGs into their national development plans.[10] Another survey of 104 civil society organizations in 36 developing countries found widespread agreement that reducing poverty has become a higher priority in their countries because of the MDGs.[11]

Laura Elizabeth Pohl

Jane Sebbi carries matoke peels to feed her pigs in Kamuli, Uganda.

What progress has the MDGs helped deliver? Since 1990, the baseline year for measuring progress towards the MDGs, at least 75 percent of all participating countries have made progress in reducing poverty, hunger, and maternal/child mortality and in providing clean drinking water. Nearly two-thirds of countries have made progress in gender equality by improving girls' enrollment in primary school.[12] Between 1999 and 2005, the number of children dying of measles fell by 75 percent—from more than 500,000 deaths each year to about 126,000.[13] Overall, there has been a two-thirds reduction in child mortality, due largely to the continued rollout of vaccines.[14] We can't establish definitively that the MDGs deserve the credit for all these achievements, but having clear targets with dates attached to them is certainly important to focusing attention and encouraging a response. Data tables, starting on page 190, include country-level and regional data on indicators for all eight MDGs.

Enormous challenges remain. In dozens of developing countries, children have less chance of living to age 5 than a child in the United States has of living to age 65.[15] In Afghanistan, Chad, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Mali, Niger, Sierra Leone, and Somalia, at least 1 of every 25 women will die from complications of pregnancy or childbirth.[16] Even if the MDG for improved sanitation is met—which is far from certain—1.7 billion people will still be left without access to basic sanitation.[17] No one would argue that the work of development is anywhere near done.

It may be tempting to focus simply on whether countries are meeting the numerical targets. But the MDGs tell us much more than we would learn simply by categorizing countries as either on or off target. In the 2000s, as more aid became available to help achieve

BOX i.2

IMPROVING NUTRITION OUTCOMES IN BANGLADESH

by Molly Marsh

The afternoon hours are Tohomina Akter's favorite time of day. That's when she can take a break from her household tasks, rest, and play with her young daughter, Adia. Like any toddler, Adia much prefers movement.

Adia runs through the rooms of their home, stopping suddenly at the front door to look out at the familiar faces of Char Baria, a village in the Barisal district of Bangladesh. In front of her lies Tohomina's garden, a 25-foot square of spinach, amaranth, chili, and pepper plants, an important source of nutrients for Adia and her family. Spinach and red amaranth are Adia's favorites.

Laura Elizabeth Pohl

Tohomina Akter, attempts to feed her daughter Adia, 17 months, in Char Baria village, Barisal, Bangladesh.

Tohomina planted the garden after receiving training in "Nobo Jibon," a nutrition program administered by Helen Keller International, a nongovernmental organization that works in several Bangladesh districts. The vegetables she harvests have increased the nutrients available to her family, especially her daughter.

Helen Keller International and its partners have helped thousands of women like Tohomina establish what they call Homestead Food Production (HFP) gardens throughout Bangladesh. Started in 1990, the program aims to improve food security and alleviate malnutrition by increasing the amount of nutrient-rich fruits and vegetables available to households and communities. About 900,000 households now have HFP gardens, which benefit more than 4.5 million people.

Over two months, Tohomina and others in Char Baria received training and materials to start their gardens, such as seeds and seedlings, but they also learned why nutrition is important. Project leaders discussed topics such as the importance of eating diverse, nutrient-rich foods, why washing vegetables is critical, and how to cook with the items in their gardens.

"I did not do many things [before taking the class]," 18-year-old Tohomina said through a translator. "But after learning, I am keeping things clean and hygienic to prevent diseases, and cooking nutritious foods to keep me and my family healthy."

According to *Millions Fed: Proven Successes in Agricultural Development*, a report on the Bangladesh HFP program from the International Food Policy Research Institute, HFP gardens increase the amount of vitamin A in people's diets, especially among women and children.

One study shows that the percentage of children aged 6-59 months and mothers eating dark-green leafy vegetables containing carotenoids increased from about one-third to three-quarters. In addition, children living in households with developed gardens eat 1.6 times more vegetables than children without gardens, according to the report.

The program also provides a strong avenue of empowerment for women, who organize 90 percent of the gardens. Tohomino's decision-making power within her family has increased significantly—not only does she decide what to plant, but her excess vegetables can be sold at the market. Tohomino's father-in-law does the selling, but she stipulates that the money go toward buying additional food for Adia.

"The program aims to improve food security and alleviate malnutrition by increasing the amount of nutrient-rich fruits and vegetables available to households and communities."

About 1,500 people in Char Baria—a community of 20,000—are involved in the program, most of them women. That translates into stronger economic roles within their families—and their communities.

According to Helen Keller International, the annual fruit and vegetable production of HFP programs in Bangladesh, Nepal, Cambodia, and the Philippines amounts to $46.3 million in economic value per year. The program also has created 190,000 jobs, primarily for women living in poorer households in rural areas.

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Tohomina bathes her daughter Adia.

Laura Elizabeth Pohl

the MDGs, the resources dedicated to tracking progress also increased, and this brought far-reaching improvements in accountability.[18] "Although it seems obvious today to track progress on intended targets," says Todd Moss of the Center for Global Development in Washington, DC, "common practice in the past was simply to calculate inputs: how much money was spent, how many books were bought, etc., rather than on the hoped-for changes in countries, such as healthier and more educated people. In fact, the approach of finding out how we are actually doing is obvious now in part because of the [MDGs]."[19]

UN Photo/Paulo Filgueiras

Young students at the United Nations International School (UNIS) in New York gather to be counted in support of "Stand Up Against Poverty," a global campaign to urge world leaders to meet the Millennium Development Goals.

"When food prices surged in 2007-2008, we were not as flat-footed as we would have been without the Millennium Development Goals," says Cheryl Morden of the International Fund for Agricultural Development.[20] In 2008, the number of hungry people in the world surged perhaps by more than 100 million as a result of doubling food prices.[21] It was the MDGs that prompted world leaders to ask questions like "Who is poor and hungry?" and "Where are they?" One answer became clear: 70 percent of people in extreme poverty who are hungry live in rural areas. "Because the Millennium Development Goals helped them to see the depth of rural poverty," says Morden, "world leaders responded swiftly with aid targeted to smallholder farmers, the largest group of rural poor."

Perhaps the greatest contribution of the MDGs is their role in encouraging the emergence of a new international social norm. The MDGs provided a lens to focus public attention on poverty. In the words of David Hulme and James Scott of the University of Manchester in the United Kingdom, they succeeded in "showing extreme poverty as morally unacceptable in an affluent world."[22] In fact, millions of people from around the world *literally* stand up to the challenge of ending poverty. Each year since 2007, the U.N. Millennium Campaign has organized an event called "Stand Up, Take Action, End Poverty Now!" during which participants rise to their feet to express support for the MDGs. In 2009, 173 million stood up.[23] This is a larger group of people than the seventh most populous nation—and if this were a nation, it would be the most diverse on Earth.[24]

"Before the MDGs, the conventional 'development' yardstick was a nation's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The MDG yardstick focuses on human dignity and well-being, and includes quantitative indicators for improvement."

Sustaining Progress in a Changing Environment

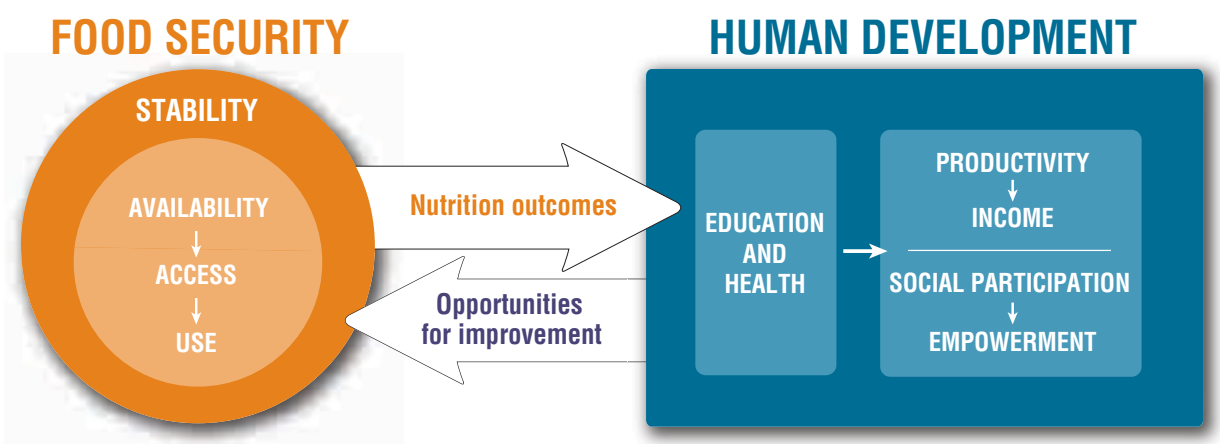
Global economic integration is occurring at least as rapidly as progress against poverty. In the 21st century, national self-interest has become inextricable from relationships with other countries and the global community in a wide range of ways. This international interdependency means that the coming decades will require more, rather than less, cooperation to solve problems that are now shared by many nations. This was illustrated vividly by the 2008 financial crisis that started in the United States. No country was insulated from the shockwaves.

"In the 1990s, when the MDGs were debated and put in place, climate change never entered the picture. Similarly, no one anticipated that sudden spikes in food prices would become a threat."

Before the financial crisis, sub-Saharan Africa, the region of the world that is both the poorest and the furthest behind on the MDGs, had been experiencing its strongest growth in decades. The impact of the crisis in sub-Saharan Africa was less severe than in many other regions because it is less integrated into the global economy—but African nations were nonetheless affected. Africa's exports to China had increased from 3 percent in 1998 to 15 percent by 2008. When the crisis hit, the Chinese economy suffered a setback as China itself exported less to the United States and Europe. Thus, a slowdown in exports from China to the United States and the European Union affected Africa through a drop in Chinese demand for African exports.[25] In 2009 and 2010, export revenues in Africa fell by $251 billion and $277 billion respectively. [26] Despite having no role in causing the crisis and no control over its outcomes, the region still suffered repercussions with profound implications for poverty reduction, food security, and health.[27]

As the financial crisis made clear, the rewards of globalization—which include millions

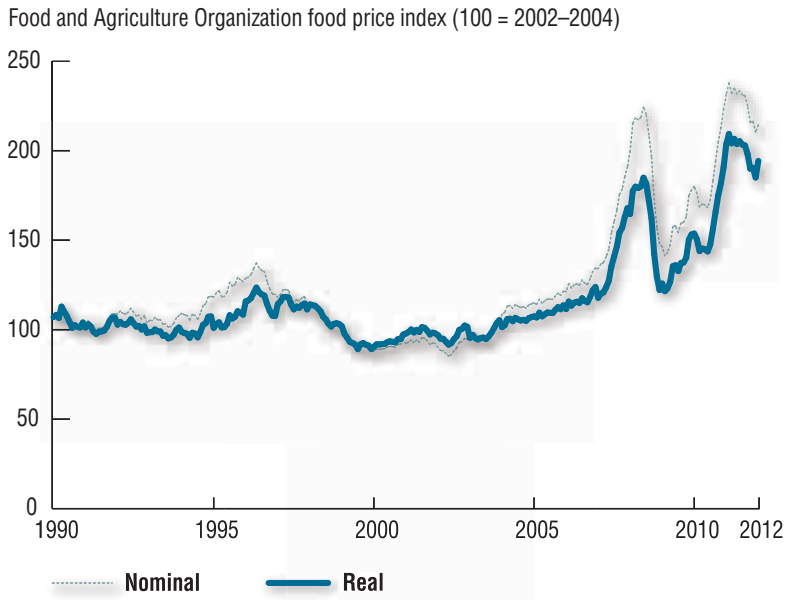
Figure i.3 **Nutrition Outcomes are at the Intersection of Food Security and Human Development**



Source: United Nations Development Program (UNDP), 2012

of people escaping poverty—are accompanied by very clear risks. These risks must be managed—and no country is in a position to do so on its own. Moreover, risks cannot always be gauged ahead of time. In the 1990s, when the MDGs were debated and put in place, climate change never entered the picture. Similarly, no one anticipated that sudden spikes in food prices would become a threat. In fact, climate change is considered to be a factor in the 2007-2008 food-price crisis.

Figure i.4 **Global Food Prices Spiked Twice in the 2000s**



Source: FAO, 2012

Global trade was another piece of the puzzle. During the initial surge in food prices in 2007-2008, more than a dozen countries, including major producers, banned the export of agricultural commodities. According to the International Food Policy Research Institute, the trade restrictions accounted for as much as 30 percent of the increase in prices, and they contributed to rising prices once again in 2010-2011.[28] As a result, people were rioting in dozens of food-importing nations.

It's all too obvious that the world hasn't entered a golden age of international cooperation. These two examples, climate change and global trade, are cases in point. Little progress—some would say none—has been made on negotiating an international climate change treaty. The state of negotiations on global trade is epitomized by the stalled Doha development round of the World Trade Organization. Launched one year after the MDGs, the round was supposed to pave the way for more countries to participate in the global economy and share in the rewards of international trade.

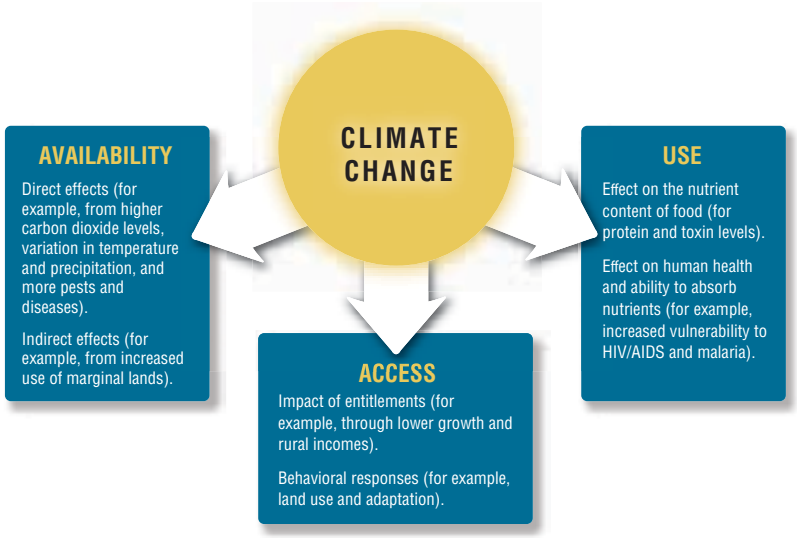
"As the financial crisis made clear, the rewards of globalization—which include millions of people escaping poverty—are accompanied by very clear risks."

What do these major failures of international cooperation mean for poor people, achieving the MDGs, and the post-2015 development framework? Poor people are expected to be harmed disproportionately for doing little to cause climate change, and as the food-price crisis demonstrated they suffered the most harm when trade in food grains was restricted by export bans. Indeed, climate change and global trade involve poor people's interests, along with everyone else's, but it is possible for nations to cooperate on these issues without giving adequate attention to how poor people will be affected.

The MDGs leave no room for doubt that poor people's needs are the focus. In this report, we argue that by remaining resolutely focused on the needs of poor people and by paying close attention to the means of achieving the goals, a post-2015 set of development goals can still be responsive to some of these intractable issues. Progress on the MDGs will actually help poor people to become more resilient to shocks caused by climate change and food-price volatility. As conditions change, of course, the world needs to adapt its strategies for achieving the hunger and poverty goal. The means of reaching the goal may change, but the ends—reducing hunger and poverty—shouldn't change at all.

The global economy is a rough and tumble environment even for those with resources. For a woman living on about 50 cents a day and nourishing herself with a single bowl of soupy porridge, the barriers to reaching the next market town can seem insurmountable: traveling long distances on rutted roads, with no means of transporting her goods to sell. The process in 2000 that brought 189 heads of state together to achieve the MDGs was a unique time: world leaders focused on giving such women a chance of joining the global economy and her children a chance of reaching beyond a small market town.

Figure i.5 **The Destabilizing Effects of Climate Change Will Cut Across the Components of Food Security**



Source: UNDP, 2012

The MDGs have a fair share of critics, and the goals are certainly not perfect. The point, though, is that nothing like them has been tried before. The MDGs are the longest-standing global agreement to fight poverty in human history. That's why it would be a major step backward for the whole world if the MDGs turned out to be a short-lived, one-off mobilization of the political will of virtually every national government.

How many of us have thought about what it would mean to allow the MDGs to expire without a successor agreement? After all, there's an entire graveyard of international development initiatives that have died a quiet death. As it turns out, the content and the process of establishing post-2015 development goals are being hotly debated, as they should be. The MDGs clearly resonate with world leaders and ordinary citizens in far-flung places in ways that can and should ensure that their ends will be carried out. The United States should join this debate and work to ensure that there is a successor to the MDGs. The U.S. contribution to the post-2015 development agenda is the focus of the article "U.S. Leadership and Global Development Goals" starting on page 80.

Reaching Agreement on a New Set of Goals

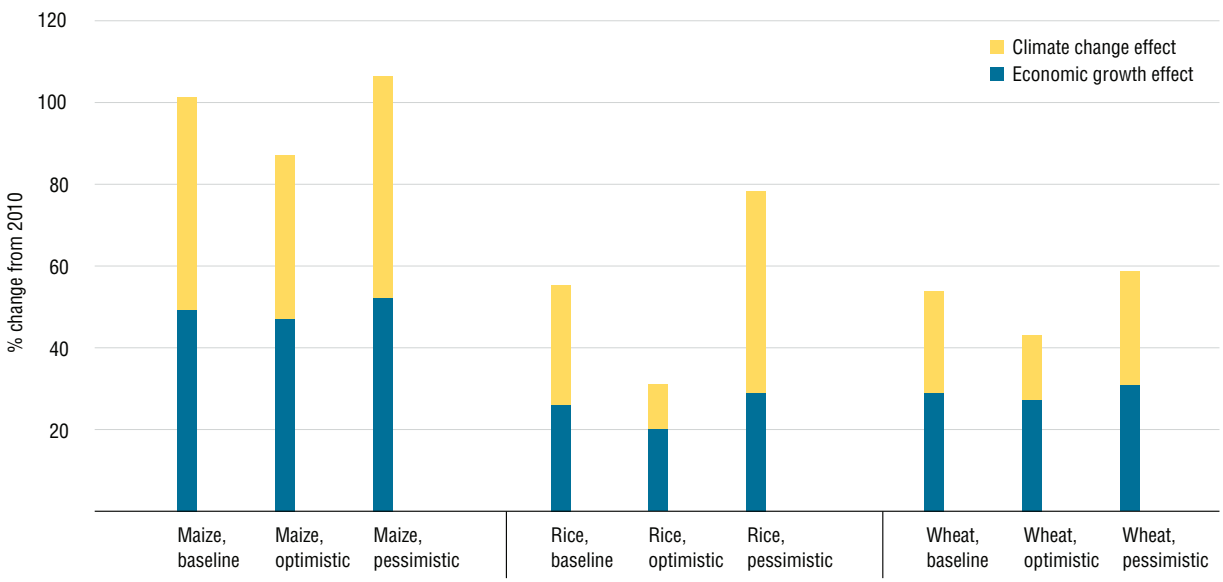
A key step in the transition to new goals will come in September 2013 at the next U.N. summit on the MDGs, when the U.N. Secretary General will propose a post-2015 framework for member nations to debate. There are many ideas now being put forward about what a new set of goals should include. If member nations can debate the proposal and reach agreement by 2015, a new set of goals could be folded seamlessly into the expiring MDGs.

"Global development goals that are truly global in scope would mean that everyone—including middle-income and high-income countries—sets targets to reduce poverty."

The Secretary General and his advisors would do well to keep in mind the "less is more" quality of the MDGs: a limited number of simple-to-understand, interlocking goals. Many would argue that the simplicity of the MDGs has been playing a major role in their results: they are easy for people outside the development field to understand and act on. Any new agreement is also likely to be measured by its effectiveness in galvanizing public opinion to end poverty.

A new agreement should help people at all levels of society to see poverty as morally unacceptable everywhere. Global development goals that are truly global in scope would mean that everyone–including middle-income and high-income countries–sets targets to reduce poverty. One reason this is important is that the demographics of global poverty have changed considerably since the MDGs were introduced. In 1990, more than 90 percent of all poor people lived in low-income countries. Presently, however, more than 70 percent live in middle-income countries (and mostly politically stable rather than fragile

Figure i.6 **World Food Price Increases Under Various Climate Change Scenarios, 2010-50**



Source: IFPRI, 2010

countries).[29] The MDGs have been criticized for their failure to take into account different starting conditions in countries, and a "one size fits all" set of global goals with the same targets for everyone would seem to make even less sense today. Under a scenario in which all countries set their own goals, each country's starting place would determine its targets. Development goals that are truly global in scope should also include measureable outcomes for high-income countries.

The next iteration of global development goals should be worked out by a broader set of stakeholders than those who developed the MDGs. To put it more bluntly, the MDGs were conceived by rich nations with far too little input from poor and middle-income nations. The views of poor people themselves on their main barriers to getting out of poverty should be strongly considered in any new agreement. This is likely to reshape development goals from their formulation in the MDGs and focus greater attention on the means of achieving the goals. For example, a target of MDG 1 was to "Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people"; and when poor people, particularly young poor people, are asked about the barriers they face to getting out of poverty, they nearly always name lack of jobs as their top concern. But the issue of jobs and job creation has not been given the attention it needs from policymakers and donor agencies.[30]

Todd Post

A child in the Kibera slum in Nairobi, Kenya, sells charcoal to earn income for her family.

Africa's youth population (ages 15-24) is increasing faster than anywhere else in the world; this means that the ability of African leaders to create jobs could well make the difference between political stability and unrest in the region.[31] Job creation in developing countries starts at the national level—but there is plenty that international partners can do to support governments and the private sector in low-income countries.

Governments of low-income countries have also criticized the MDGs for paying insufficient attention to infrastructure.[32] The share of overseas development assistance devoted to bilateral aid to Africa for infrastructure has been falling since the early 1970s.[33] The suffering caused by the food-price crisis revealed the stark consequences of decades of shrinking investments in agriculture. Donors cannot afford to repeat this mistake with infrastructure.

Global development goals with all countries setting their own may well prove necessary to win widespread political support for a new round of goals. The balance of power in the world has shifted since the MDGs were negotiated. A more diverse group of countries, whose new members are mostly middle-income, is exerting influence over agreements that affect

the global commons. Large middle-income countries such as China, India, and Brazil—home to many of the poor people who now live in middle-income countries—are unlikely to let high-income countries escape setting goals of their own.[34] At the same time, people living in high-income countries could reach the same conclusion: they might not support giving help to poor countries without attention to the needs at home.

Figure i.7 **Sub-Saharan Africa Loses More Human Development Gains to Inequality**

Source: UNDP, 2012

Rising income inequality is a problem, and yet another reason for the next round of goals to be truly global in scope. Between 1981 and 2005, increases in inequality meant that nearly 600 million people *did not escape poverty who would have* if inequality had remained static.[35] Studies show that income inequality slows down poverty reduction.[36] At a growth rate of 2 percent and a poverty rate of 40 percent, a country with a low level of inequality could halve poverty in 10 years, while a country with a high level of inequality would take nearly 60 years to achieve the same result, according to Martin Ravallion of the World Bank.[37] A stronger focus on reducing inequality will be needed to end hunger and poverty within a generation.

Inequality is also a problem in high-income countries. Income inequality in the United States has been on the rise since the 1980s and is now at its highest level since before the Great Depression.[38] A high level of inequality means that some communities are trapped in poverty across generations.[39] Statistics on U.S. poverty confirm this. A child born into poverty in the United States has a higher chance of being poor as an adult than in almost any other high-income country.[40]

"A stronger focus on reducing inequality will be needed to end hunger and poverty within a generation."

Equality is one of the core values of the *Millennium Declaration*, the statement of principles underlying the MDGs,[41] but the MDGs' use of aggregate measures hides inequalities. While average per capita incomes are rising around the world, not everyone is sharing in the gains, particularly people at the very bottom, a group sometimes referred to as the *ultra-poor*.[42] Without an equity focus, it is possible that countries could continue reducing poverty without doing much to help the hardest-to-reach people. In a post-2015 framework, there must be a focus on narrowing the gaps.

The Role of Civil Society

In July 2011, U.N. Secretary General Ban Ki-moon explained, "The post-2015 development framework is likely to have the best development impact if it emerges from an inclusive, open, and transparent process with multi-stakeholder participation."[43] But because government leaders will ultimately decide on a new set of goals, they could end up negotiating behind closed doors despite Ban's best efforts to create an open, transparent process. Civil society organizations will need to push to keep the process open. Civil society will also need to push to keep government policymakers focused on poverty and hunger.

Transparency could easily evaporate under pressure to seal a deal. The Catholic Agency for Overseas Development (CAFOD), located in London, has been one of the most diligent civil society groups in advocating for a clear and open process. CAFOD co-chairs Beyond 2015, a coalition of civil society groups from nearly 50 countries. CAFOD's Amy Pollard and Bernadette Fischler describe a variety of potential scenarios during the forging of a post-2015 agreement. Here is their description of the ideal:

> There is an open and inclusive process, with a focused outcome in time for the end of 2015. The consultations go well and there is a surge of policy input ahead of the September 2013 Review Summit. Global leaders make the issue a priority, and their representatives make tough decisions in a legitimate way. Interest groups see the big picture, and the negotiations produce an outcome which captures the imagination and secures widespread support. Post-MDGs have the clarity and focus to deliver real change and progress in the world.[44]

As the many steps in the description illustrate, there are any number of reasons besides lack of transparency that the process of reaching an agreement could stumble. One of the most serious problems would be if no consensus emerges on what should be included in a new framework, but most of the alternatives to the ideal scenario are much messier and much less likely to produce an agreement with wide acceptance—or even to produce an agreement at all.

Pollard and Fischler are particularly concerned about a situation in which policymakers—and some unwitting civil society groups—shift the framework away from poverty in favor of other issues. Climate change, for example, is an important issue, but potential solutions would not necessarily include progress against poverty. Pollard and Fischler urge civil society not to subordinate poverty reduction: "A post-MDG framework should

A consultation process has already begun to develop a successor agreement to the MDGs when they expire in 2015. The final agreement must reflect what women in developing countries have to say about the obstacles to escaping poverty.

Todd Post

champion the issues of most significance to people living in poverty, because they have less power than any other social group to defend their interests, and their issues are most vulnerable to the vagaries of political will when ongoing crises during the next fifteen or twenty years cause distractions."[45]

Here in the United States, civil society groups have recently begun to follow the lead of their peers elsewhere in the world in working on a successor to the MDGs. U.S. civil society, especially faith-based groups, threw its support behind the MDGs when they were launched. Bread for the World, for example, made the MDGs a rallying point for its legislative campaigns to win support for poverty-focused development assistance and the creation of the Millennium Challenge Account. (See Box i.3.) Many U.S. civil society organizations are now preoccupied with other problems, notably the sour economy and its many consequences. Members of Congress have been lukewarm at best about the MDGs. However, if U.S. civil society groups mobilize and begin advocating for the next set of development goals early on, Congress may have a different view this time around.

"Within civil society, faith-based groups, as a forceful and credible voice arguing for the moral imperative of ending hunger and poverty, could have more influence than anyone else in making the case for U.S. leadership."

Throughout this report, Bread for the World Institute urges civil society to recommit

Rick Reinhard

Bread for the World activists from New York meet with a staffer in the office of Sen. Charles Schumer (D-NY) during Lobby Day in Washington, D.C., on Tuesday, June 12, 2012.

BREAD FOR THE WORLD AND THE MDGS

by Todd Post

After the U.N. General Assembly approved the MDGs, Bread for the World and Bread for the World Institute adopted them as the framework for their international work. Several of Bread's annual legislative campaigns and the Institute's annual Hunger Reports use the MDGs as a touchstone for discussing their work against global hunger and poverty.

Bread helped to gain support for the goals from the faith community. Bread provided the initial staffing of Micah Challenge USA, the U.S. affiliate of a global coalition of evangelical Christians united behind holding their governments accountable for achieving the MDGs. Bread cosponsored a 2007 gathering of several hundred U.S. evangelical leaders which featured U.N. Secretary General Ban Ki-moon speaking on the importance of the goals. Bread also engaged the women's missionary societies of the three African American Methodist denominations in a joint initiative focusing on goals 1, 4, and 5. (See Figure i.2.)

"Bread for the World Institute has focused on the real possibility of ending hunger and poverty in a matter of decades."

David Beckmann, the president of Bread for the World, served on the U.N. Millennium Hunger Task Force, which helped to formulate recommendations to low-income countries that were integrating the goals into their own plans.

In the years after the MDGs were launched, the Institute through its Hunger Reports has helped to publicize the fact that the world is making progress against poverty and hunger and related ills. The Institute has focused on the real possibility of ending hunger and poverty in a matter of decades.

In 2003, Bread for the World's nationwide network of activists and churches campaigned to get Congressional approval and funding for the Millennium Challenge Account. President Bush proposed the Millennium Challenge Account promising to increase U.S. development assistance to low-income countries with governments that were accountable to their people, fighting corruption, and supportive of free markets. The program was a direct response by the administration to the challenge of achieving the MDGs.

In 2005, Bread for the World led a delegation of activists to Gleneagles, Scotland, for the G-8 Summit. They joined delegations of activists from the ONE campaign, Oxfam America and other organizations from around the world. The presence of anti-hunger and poverty activists at the Gleneagles G-8 Summit, which had a strong focus on Africa, helped build political support for the commitments to double aid to Africa and around the world to help achieve the MDGs.

The 2009 Hunger Report, *Global Development: Charting a New Course*, outlined reforms to make U.S. foreign assistance more effective in reducing poverty and achieving the MDGs. Bread for the World promoted these reforms in major legislative campaigns in 2009 and 2011. An important part of Bread's work for foreign assistance reform has been its leadership within the Modernizing Foreign Assistance Network (MFAN). MFAN has succeeded in building support for reform principles within the Obama administration and on both sides of the aisle in Congress. As a result of these efforts, bipartisan bills were introduced in the House and Senate to begin the process of reforming the Foreign Assistance Act.

The 2013 Hunger Report, *Global Development Goals—Within Reach*, returns to the touchstone of the MDGs, this time to invite partners in the faith community to stand with Bread for the World in calling on the U.S. government to double down now to achieve the MDGs by their 2015 deadline and to support a post-2015 successor agreement with new global development goals for all countries.

Todd Post is the editor of the 2013 Hunger Report.

to achieving the MDGs and to join the Institute in calling for stronger U.S. leadership in developing a set of goals to succeed the MDGs. Within civil society, faith-based groups, as a forceful and credible voice arguing for the moral imperative of ending hunger and poverty, could have more influence than anyone else in making the case for U.S. leadership. Faith-based groups are vocal advocates for the most effective use of government resources and many have decades of expertise in the development field. Moreover, faith-based groups play a key role in reducing poverty around the globe. Faith-based organizations are invaluable partners with the U.S. government in reducing poverty because they implement programs where government cannot provide services or chooses not to. They work with local NGOs, community groups, and other indigenous bodies to strengthen civil society and private enterprise in developing countries. Their reach into local communities often empowers marginalized groups. Finally, faith-based organizations co-invest private funding to leverage the investments of public donors.

"The suffering of individuals due to hunger and poverty is a tragedy, but there are consequences for nations as well."

A Set of Goals for the United States

The U.S. public widely supports its government's efforts to fight global poverty.[46] The severity of poverty in the developing world provokes outrage from many. But poverty in the United States deserves its own share of outrage. In 2011, 46.2 million people in the country were living in poverty, one in six, the same as 2010.[47] At 15 percent, the current poverty rate in the United States rose above this level only twice since the 1960s. And if this weren't sobering enough, the rate at which "deep poverty" has been rising seems especially alarming. In 2011, 1.46 million U.S. households were living on income of *less than $2 per person, per day.* (See Figure i.8.) There were 2.8 million children in these households.[48]

MOWAA / Lindsay Benson Garrett

A volunteer delivers a meal to a beneficiary of Meals On Wheels.

The U.S. government has a safety net of programs to help very low-income families avoid going hungry. In 2011, for example, the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP, formerly known as the Food Stamp Program), effectively reduced the number of people living on $2 per day by half through in-kind food assistance.[49] (See Figure i.9.)

Safety net programs can make severe hardship less intolerable, but they don't eliminate hardship altogether. Coping mechanisms

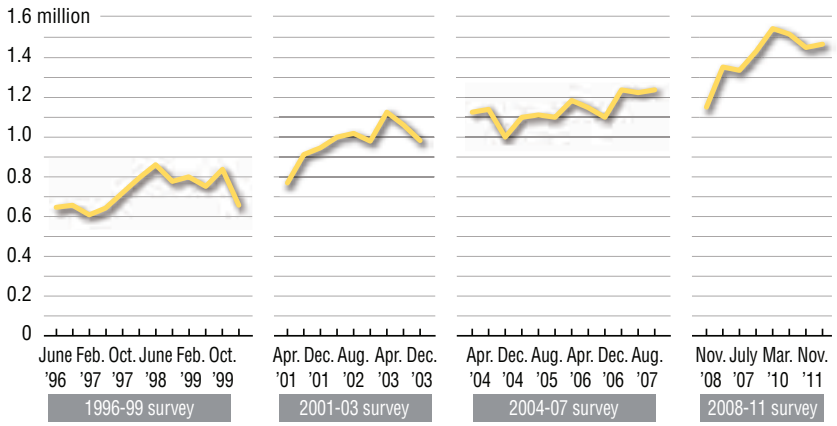
do not create opportunities that lift people out of poverty nor do they correct structural inequalities of opportunity that affect individuals from birth and cause intergenerational poverty. This is why a safety net must be matched with a human development agenda.

The suffering of individuals due to hunger and poverty is a tragedy, but there are consequences for nations as well. High levels of poverty stunt human-capital development, which in turn erodes the social fabric and the national economy. A country's most sustainable natural resource is its human capital, or its people's capabilities to contribute to their own and the nation's well-being through social development and economic output. Reducing poverty corrects human-capital deficits, setting in motion a "virtuous cycle" of development, additional capacity to invest in poverty reduction, and further improvements in human capital that will sustain progress.

This is not an abstract formula—a range of countries once mired in poverty have used the idea successfully to spur economic and human development. The United States has done this in earlier periods in its history and it has lent a helping hand to many countries. As we will discuss over the next few chapters, since the Marshall Plan the United States has given other governments the space to invest in building human capital through development assistance programs and policies such as those on debt relief, technology transfer, and granting duty-free, quota-free

Figure i.8 **Extreme Poverty ($2 per day) Doubled in Past 15 Years**

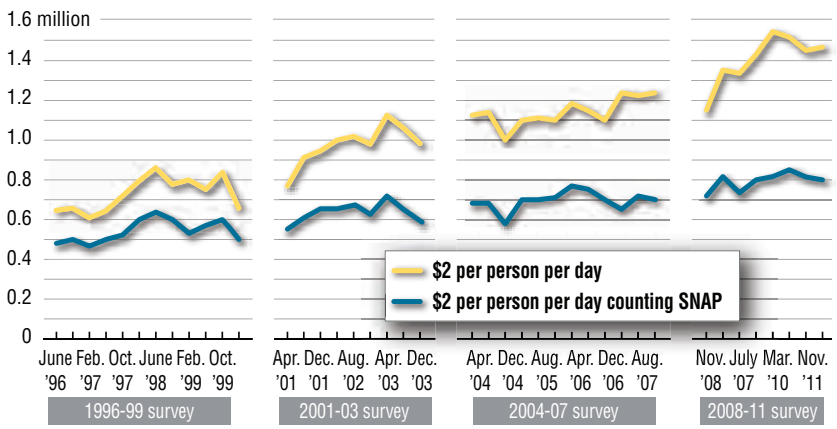
Number of non-elderly households with children with incomes below $2 per person per day according to U.S. Census Bureau's Survey of Income and Program Participation



Source: Center on Budget and Policy Priorities (CBPP), 2012

Figure i.9 **SNAP Cuts Extreme Poverty Significantly**

Number of non-elderly households with children with incomes below $2 per person per day according to U.S. Census Bureau's Survey of Income and Program Participation



Source: CBPP, 2012

access to domestic markets. The governments the United States has worked with have treated this assistance as a "hand up" rather than a "hand out." These countries have improved their health and education systems and developed agriculture and industry. In the United States, we should be proud of how our country has contributed to their development.

We turn our attention to reducing U.S. hunger and poverty in Chapter 4 of this report, and consider how well the United States has promoted its own human-capital development in recent decades. By our assessment, the United States is doing a poor job. For example, in 2012, the Council on Foreign Relations released a report on U.S. education and national security. Former Secretary of State Condoleezza Rice, co-chair of the task force that produced the report, had this to say about the link between national security and weaknesses in our educational system: "We know that we have difficulties recruiting into the military because of the failure to educate to the levels that the military needs... Think of the computer literacy that it takes to solve problems of cybersecurity and critical infrastructure... And that means that we have a collective national interest in the education of all of our children."[50]

Education and health are core components of human-capital development. In 2010, on the eve of the most recent reauthorization of child nutrition programs, dozens of retired generals and senior officials in the armed forces addressed a letter to Congress. The letter urged policymakers to support robust improvements in the nation's child nutrition programs.[51] "Obesity is now the leading medical reason why young Americans today are unable to qualify for the armed forces," they wrote. Failing schools and pervasive junk food establishments may be damaging middle-class communities, but they are devastating far too many poor neighborhoods.

The last time the U.S. government pledged to end poverty was almost 50 years ago, during the Johnson Administration. Presi-

Brandy Taylor

The United States has one of the highest child poverty rates in the developed world.

dent Ronald Reagan used to say, "In the sixties we waged war on poverty—and poverty won."[52] But from 1959 to 1973, the poverty rate in the United States was cut in half from 22 percent to 11 percent.[53] The country had the benefit of a strong economy, and with presidential leadership—during both the Johnson and Nixon administrations—made a strong effort to reduce poverty. Poverty increased again after 1973 as the U.S. economy sank into recession, incomes stagnated and the political commitment to reducing poverty waned.

During the presidential election of 2008, Barack Obama pledged to cut child hunger in half by 2015. His campaign released a sound plan: improvements in child nutrition programs, promotion of community coalitions against hunger, and reductions in poverty through an increase in the minimum wage and tax credits for low-income workers. President Obama has implemented much of this plan, and it has kept child hunger from increasing despite a severe recession and high unemployment. But since President Obama entered the White House, he has never restated his commitment to the child hunger goal he proposed as a candidate.

"Safety net programs can make severe hardship less intolerable, but they don't eliminate hardship altogether."

A president and Congress can set the national context, but achieving U.S. development goals will depend on cooperation with state and local officials and the public. The part of the president's plan that did not get implemented was the mobilization of state and community efforts. All stakeholders must see themselves as partners in achieving the goal. Presidential leadership can encourage states and communities to take action that complements federal efforts. State and local jurisdictions will go about achieving development goals in different ways, just as countries that are making progress on the MDGs are accomplishing this in different ways.

Poor people themselves are the real experts on poverty. They can tell us directly how poverty harms families and communities. They must inform the debate about ending poverty. Their insights may challenge status quo thinking. U.S. policymakers are frequently divided by ideological differences on how to reduce poverty. But none of the various versions of the status quo are getting the job done. Seeking advice and wisdom from poor people themselves could possibly depoliticize the issue of poverty. Then maybe real progress could get under way. In the end, what matters most is that the goals are met. A set of development goals owned by everyone would be a unifying endeavor for us all.

CHRISTIAN ADVOCACY AND THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

by Joel Edwards, International Director, Micah Challenge

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are based on the values of the *Millennium Declaration:* "We will spare no effort to free our fellow men, women and children from the abject and dehumanizing conditions of extreme poverty, to which more than a billion of them are currently subjected. We are committed to making the right to development a reality for everyone and to freeing the entire human race from want."[1]

Courtesy of Joel Edwards

Rev. Joel Edwards travels the globe inspiring Christians to advocate for a more forceful government response in reducing poverty and hunger.

UN Secretary General, Ban Ki-moon was right to call the MDGs "the greatest promise ever made—a declaration of collective responsibility for the world's poor and vulnerable."[2]

Christian faith is premised on promise. God's covenant with Noah[3] and Abraham was a promise.[4] The Messiah was a promise,[5] as was the Spirit,[6] His Return,[7] and our final peace and security in heaven.[8] God's promises are the pillars on which our faith rests, and God's commitment to promise is bound up with his overwhelming concern for the poor and vulnerable.

The inter-locking nature of the MDGs begins rightly with a concern for hunger. It is the most basic of all human rights and over 100 countries have some level of reference to this right in their constitution. "The fundamental right of everyone to be free from hunger" is established in Article 11 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

And yet over 900 million people live in perpetual hunger.

"Give us today the food we need" is the first material petition in the Lord's Prayer.[9] And the fact that it flows from the lofty statements about God's transcendence is a clear commitment of a God who is concerned about our most basic needs.

The MDG commitment to half extreme hunger by 2015 is not an outrageously radical response to poverty and hunger. What is outrageous is our inability thus far to achieve it. It is entirely within our grasp to eradicate hunger and extreme poverty, tackle injustice and reconstruct a more equitable world because together we have the ability to do so.

The idea of creating partnerships for change is at the heart of MDGs. The fact that we are in a global village means that hunger eradication and food security is inconceivable without effective partnerships.

Christians have a long tradition of responding to poverty, but the MDGs provide us a bridge to reach a wider civil society network. Huge and systemic issues to do with trade, aid and debt, structural issues of tax justice and corruption are only possible with effective global partnerships between rich and poor nations and among different communities.

The MDGs are by no means perfect. We recognize the absence of human rights and good governance are a problem. Nonetheless, it was a major achievement in getting 189 national leaders to agree on a set of time-bound and measureable goals to respond to poverty.

"Christians have a long tradition of responding to poverty, but the MDGs provide us a bridge to reach a wider civil society network."

Arguably the MDGs have played a role in the growing recognition that good governance remains essential to their fulfilment. This in turn has led to a growing focus on the need for good leadership and a very direct link between good leadership and achieving the MDGs.

Imperfect though they are, the MDGs call us as Christians to respond to the opportunities opened by these promises. For the Micah Challenge, this is expressed in the Micah Call:

"This is a moment in history of unique potential, when the stated intentions of world leaders echo something of the mind of the Biblical prophets and the teachings of Jesus concerning the poor, and when we have the means to dramatically reduce poverty."[10]

If we are to see an end to extreme poverty in our lifetime, the MDGs offer us a workable tool for an integrated response. It is the opportunity for an integrated response to poverty which positions the MDGs as critical tools for poverty alleviation and which positions the church to make an invaluable contribution.

'Ordinary prophets' now want to be involved and local organizations and faith-based movements are becoming recruits as never before. Grassroots movements mean that the fight against poverty and injustice is no longer seen as the sole province of policy specialists.

For the first time in human history, all nations have a common language to judge our response to promises made to the poor. When I spoke to Kevin Rudd, the former Australian Prime Minister, about the MDGs in 2008, it was precisely the same language as my discussion with nurses in a remote clinic in Zambia just a few days later.

Perhaps more than any other group of people, Christians should understand the imperative of promise as it relates to God's mission to the poor. And if we agree on this, then we should see that no invitation for a partnership response against injustice has been more clearly presented to us than the promises of the MDGs.

Joel Edwards has been involved in Micah Challenge since it started in 2000. He travels the globe inspiring the Church to get involved in advocacy with and for the poor as part of their core mission.

Laura Elizabeth Pohl

Meeting the Millennium Development Goals

Chapter Summary

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to end hunger and poverty are within reach. Achieving the goals mostly depends on the commitment of political leaders to scale up proven approaches and target the most difficult to reach groups. Leaders will have to address the structural inequalities that deny certain groups of people access to social and economic opportunities. These are predominantly racial, ethnic and religious minority groups. Women and girls face additional barriers—including in majority groups. Accelerating progress against hunger and poverty requires a more deliberate focus on women and girls. Effective policy responses depend on reliable information about how various groups are faring. Countries where hunger and poverty are stubbornly persistent have a limited capacity to collect and analyze data. Strengthening data systems needs to be a priority of leaders in countries affected by hunger and their development partners.

MAIN RECOMMENDATIONS IN THIS CHAPTER

The international community should make a concerted push to achieve the MDG targets before their agreed deadline of December 2015.

Focused efforts in these areas would accelerate progress on the MDGs:

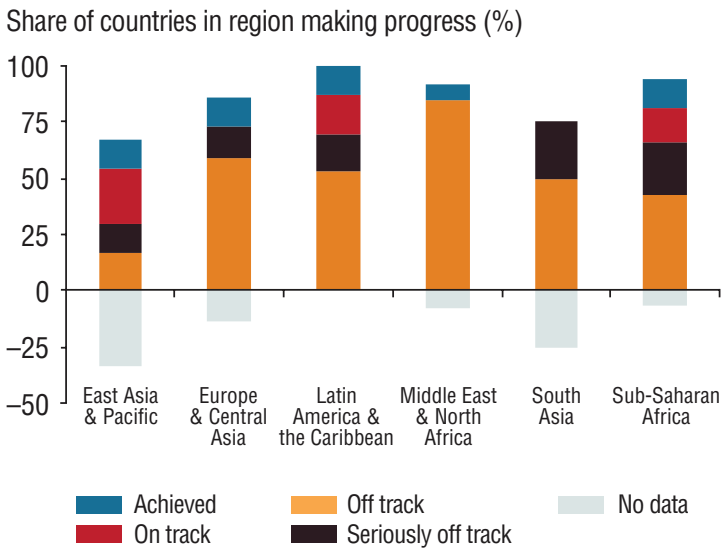
- Lifting up the importance of maternal and child nutrition.
- Strengthening social protection programs to reach the most marginalized people in society.
- Removing barriers faced by rural women and girls.
- Improving the capacity of developing countries to monitor and evaluate their progress on the MDGs.

2012 brought good reason to feel optimistic about ending global poverty. We learned that in 2010 the percentage of the world's population living on less than $1.25 a day (the global measure for extreme poverty) had been cut in half since 1990—meeting the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) target five years ahead of the 2015 deadline.[1] In addition, more than 2 billion people had gained access to safe drinking water by 2010, reaching another MDG target five years ahead of schedule.[2]

Does the credit for this belong to China's progress? Yes and no. The poverty rate in China fell from 65 percent in 1981 to 4 percent by 2007.[3] With 1.3 billion people, China is the most populous country on earth, so national progress has outsize ramifications on international outcomes. But setting aside China—and India, the other rapidly growing population giant—what is left also leaves plenty of reason for optimism.

Between 2005 and 2008, poverty rates fell in every region of the world—the first three-year period this has occurred since the World Bank started tracking poverty data. This shows that progress is widespread. In addition, developing countries were able to bounce back from the global financial crisis in 2008 and earlier shocks caused by volatile energy and food prices.

Figure 1.1 **Progress Toward Reducing Hunger***



Source: World Bank staff estimates, 2012

**The World Bank refers to hunger as undernourishment, measured by the availability of food to meet people's basic energy needs.*

In 2012, one piece of sobering news is the report from the respected British medical journal *The Lancet* that the MDG target on reducing child hunger—as measured by undernourishment—is unlikely to be met by 2015.[4] According to the research, there is less than a 5 percent chance that developing countries, considered as a group, will meet the target. It is troubling not to see progress on hunger that corresponds to the progress on poverty. Both are part of MDG 1, reflecting the thinking that they are indivisible. But human development is an equation with many factors. Progress in one area doesn't guarantee progress in others. A dollar a day

2 billion Between 1990 and 2010, over **2 billion** people gained access to improved drinking water sources.[1]

A food price spike in 2010/11 prevented **48.6 million** people from escaping poverty in the short-run.[2]

might be enough to keep a person from going hungry in one country but not enough in another.

The cost of staple grains—the bulk of what poor people eat around the world—has skyrocketed since the MDGs were launched. This is perhaps the biggest reason that progress against hunger is not occurring at the same rate as progress against poverty. Families may have higher incomes but they also have to spend more on food. Minimizing the effects of higher food prices has become a major focus of governments and international development agencies, an issue we discuss in more detail in Chapter 2. Another reason progress against hunger and poverty may have become disconnected could be inaccuracies in the way hunger data are reported. We cover this subject later in the chapter and the attempt to solve the problem.

Laura Elizabeth Pohl

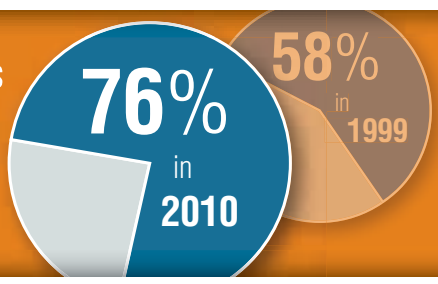
At the end of 2010, 6.5 million people were receiving antiretroviral therapy for HIV or AIDS in developing regions.

Every country is more complex than shown by data alone; each has a narrative to illuminate what is happening. Between 2002 and 2010, for example, India's gross domestic product (GDP) grew by an average of 8 percent annually. Over the same period, Brazil's GDP grew by 4 percent annually. But Brazil was able to reduce poverty by 4.2 percent per year, compared to 1.4 percent per year in India.[5] There is more to this story than growth in GDP. We will say more about Brazil and the extraordinary progress it has made against hunger and what other countries can learn from Brazil's experience later in this chapter.

Do We Dare to Be Optimistic?

"The success of development has been to reduce the cost and to spread the reach of the good life," says Charles Kenny, an economist with the Center for Global Development in Washington, DC. By the good life, Kenny mostly means health and education. "A national income of perhaps $2,000 per capita today, if well spent, is enough to provide many elements of the good life," he says. "Take Vietnam, for example, a country firmly in the low-income

Enrollment rates of children of primary school age in sub-Saharan Africa increased to **76 percent** in 2010 from **58 percent** in 1999.[3]



Close to **one-third** of children in Southern Asia were underweight in 2010.[4]

category and the bottom quarter of global country incomes. Life expectancy is nearly 70 and the country has a literacy rate of above 90 percent and close to universal primary-school completion."[6]

Vietnam spends about 0.4 percent of what the United States does on health for 91 percent of the life expectancy;[7] infant mortality is about 2 percent, compared to 0.7 percent in the United States.[8]

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In January 2012, Bread for the World Institute visited U.S. food assistance programs operating in Guatemala. Here children are being monitored for malnutrition.

Effective health-sector interventions do not always require hospitals or doctors. Through efforts to scale up malaria control, mostly by distributing bed nets to people in affected areas, nine African countries have reduced child malaria deaths by 50 percent or more since 2000.[9] Bed nets cost around $5. Treatment for diarrhea with oral rehydration salts (ORS) plus zinc is one of the best ways to reduce child mortality, because diarrhea is the second biggest killer of children worldwide.[10] ORS is a simple solution of salt and sugar added to clean water. ORS plus zinc is estimated to cost less than $0.50 for a full course of treatment. This seems incredibly cost-effective, yet less than 1 percent of children with diarrhea in high-burden countries receive ORS plus zinc.[11]

Research suggests that actions taken by parents to help sick children are the most significant factors determining child survival.[12] In India, child mortality rates differ widely across areas of the country. In West Bengal, more than 50 percent of parents believe the correct treatment for children with diarrhea is to reduce fluid intake, exactly the wrong thing to do; while in a different state, Kerala, fewer than 5 percent of parents think this is the correct treatment.[13] It's not a coincidence that child mortality is three times higher in West Bengal than in Kerala.[14] Poor understanding about the importance of proper feeding practices, combined with inadequate sanitation, is one of the main contributors to child mortality. Exclusive breastfeeding until the age of six months is a key factor in child survival. Breastfeeding takes time but otherwise is free.[15] For a variety of socio-economic reasons, little more than a third of the babies in developing countries are exclusively breastfed for this long.[16]

The health of children and mothers depends not only on the quality of health care but also on nutrition, as U.N. Secretary General Ban Ki-moon noted in his 2011 report *Accelerating Progress Towards the Millennium Development Goals*[17]: "Insufficient nutritional achievement by age two condemns a child to being shorter, enrolling later in school, being less academically capable, receiving lower incomes as an adult, and, in the case of girls, being at greater risk of difficult childbirth and maternal mortality."[18]

Chronic malnutrition poses one of the gravest threats to human development, including to progress on all of the MDGs.[19] The MDGs measure progress in reducing hunger by calorie intake and children's weight, but they include no indicator for height. Stunting means that a child is too short for her age; it also carries consequences that can't be seen, including damage to brain development[20] and overall health. A child who is stunted has suffered chronic malnutrition. One in four of the world's children are stunted.[21] Without a target for reducing stunting, MDG 1 on hunger is severely limited.

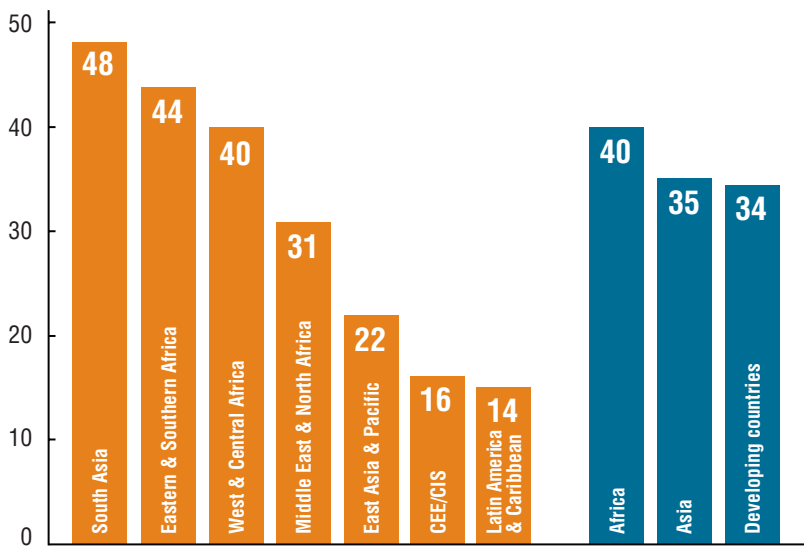
"The health of children and mothers depends not only on the quality of health care but also on nutrition."

National leaders are not expected to be experts on human development. They generally rely on the consensus of the international development community as to what the medical and scientific evidence means. A principal way to communicate this consensus is through the targets included in the MDGs. Thus, when a new set of global development goals is negotiated, stunting should be a target so that national leaders grasp its importance. In 2012, the World Health Organization (a UN body representing all nations) agreed on a target to reduce the number of stunted children by 40 percent by 2025.[22] This is recognition that stunting is a vital indicator to development.

Research leaves no room for doubt that the 1,000-days between pregnancy and age 2 are the center of the bull's-eye when taking aim against hunger. In 2008, *The Lancet* identified 13 interventions proven to have an impact on the nutrition and health of children and mothers. The World Bank estimated the cost of delivering these interventions in the 36 countries with 90 percent of the world's malnourished children at between $10.3 and $11.8 billion annually.[23] This cost, shared among developing countries and donors, should be affordable. In 2010, donors provided $400 million in aid towards basic nutrition, representing less than 0.5 percent of total ODA that year.[24]

"The reason these proven interventions have not been scaled up is due to public policy decisions and chronic under-investment in the health services needed to deliver them," says Save the Children. It is not just money that is needed. Many developing countries don't have the institutional capacity to plan and deliver nutrition interventions at scale.[25] Yet, overall, the

Figure 1.2 **Percentage of Children Under Five Years Old Suffering from Stunting (moderate and severe), 2003-2009**



Source: UNICEF global databases, from Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS), Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) and other national surveys, 2003-2009.

Table 1.1 **Benefit-Cost Ratios for Specific Nutrition Programs**

Intervention programs (in populations where deficiencies are prevalent)	*Benefit-Cost ratio*
Breastfeeding promotion in hospitals	5-7 to 1
Integrated child care programs	9-16 to 1
Iodine supplementation (per woman of child bearing age)	15-520 to 1
Vitamin A supplementation (children <6)	4-43 to 1
Iron fortification (per capita)	176-200 to 1
Iron supplementation (per pregnant woman)	6-14 to 1

Source: Behrman, Alderman, and Hoddinot, in *Global Crises, Global Solutions*, ed. Bjorn Lomborg, Cambridge, UK, 2004

returns on investment in maternal/child nutrition are eye-popping. See Table 1.

In 2012, the Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC) signed a compact with Indonesia that includes a $131 million project to reduce and prevent low birth weight and stunting in 7,000 villages.[26] The MCC is an independent U.S. foreign aid agency established in 2004 to promote economic growth by partnering with low- and middle-income countries based on the partner country's own priorities. The MCC compact with Indonesia was the first to make nutrition an explicit focus.

Indonesia proposed this part of the compact as a strategy to promote economic development. At first MCC balked at the idea. "MCC does not make investments designed to promote social development," says Patrick Fine, vice president for compact operations. "MCC's focus is on economic development in partner countries." But when Fine and colleagues at MCC analyzed the Indonesian government's proposal, they agreed that reducing stunting is an economic issue as much as it is an investment in social development. Malnutrition is estimated to reduce economic growth in developing countries by 2-3 percent per year.[27] Evidence shows that adults who were malnourished as children earn on average at least 20 percent less than those who weren't.[28] One third of Indonesian children under the age of 5 are stunted.[29] This is why Indonesia's nutrition program promotes economic development.

Putting Progress in Perspective

The MDGs are sometimes called a failure because quite a number of developing countries are projected to fall short of reaching them. This is a misunderstanding about what the MDG agreement of 2000 says. The MDGs were originally global targets, and that is what the nations of the world agreed on. Since then, they have been applied to individual countries. If all countries individually had to make a 50 percent reduction in income poverty by 2015, the actual outcome would be a reduction considerably higher than a cumulative 50 percent.[30] That's because some countries would end up meeting the target by 50 percent, but others would get to 54 percent, others to 60 percent, and so forth.

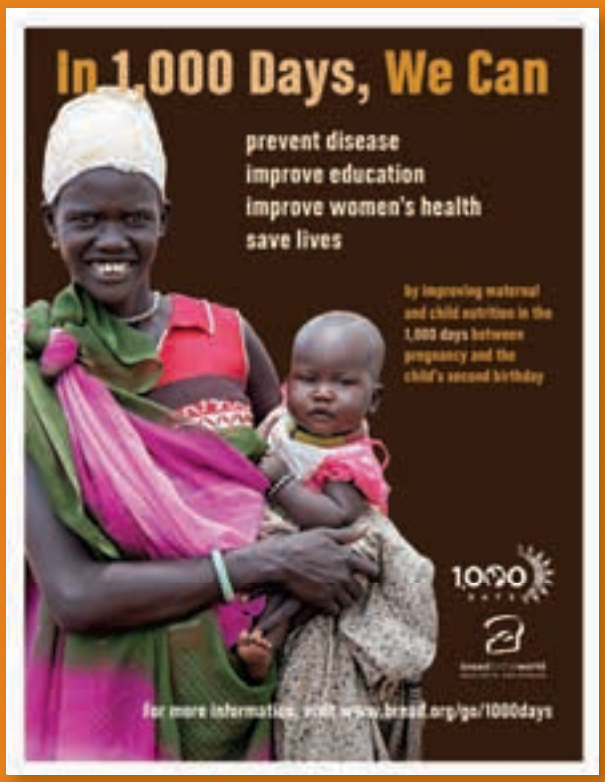
More important than the arithmetic is the fact that shifting the way success is measured from global to national outcomes cast countries that fall short of the targets as failures. But have they failed? Let's consider the MDG target to reduce child mortality by two-thirds. Say that country A, beginning with a child mortality rate of 250 per 1,000, reduces this rate to 200 per 1,000. Meanwhile, country B, beginning with a child mortality rate of 20 per 1,000, reduces the rate to 5 per 1,000. What this means is that for every 15 children's lives saved in country B, 50 lives are saved in country A—yet country A is called a failure for not

WOMEN OF FAITH ADVOCATE FOR MATERNAL AND CHILD NUTRITION

Nancy Neal

What do you get when you put women of faith in front of a movement? Answer: A movement with impact.

U.S. women of faith are part of what's called "the 1,000 Days movement." By engaging in "1,000 Conversations" with faith communities, organizations, and government leaders, these women are spreading the word about the importance of proper nutrition for mothers and young children during the 1,000 days between pregnancy and a child's second birthday.



"The call of the gospel is the call to be present with the disenfranchised," says Inez Torres Davis, of the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America. "I can't think of a more disenfranchised or disempowered person than the infant born to a malnourished woman."

The Women of Faith for the 1,000 Days Movement was born out of a meeting in Washington, DC, in June 2011, when representatives from denominational women's organizations joined Bread for the World activists and civil society representatives from around the world for a day of learning about nutrition. Since then, these women's organizations have partnered with Bread for the World to get the message out to the public about the 1,000 days.

Research shows that malnutrition during these 1,000-days can cause irreversible damage in the form of reduced intellectual development and immune function, shorter height, and impaired vision. By preventing hunger and malnutrition during the 1,000-day window, children's earning potential increases, they become healthier, and they improve their capacity to lift themselves out of poverty.

Simple, low-cost programs that encourage breast-feeding, therapeutic feeding products, and vitamin supplements can save millions of lives—and even increase a country's GDP by up to 3 percent.

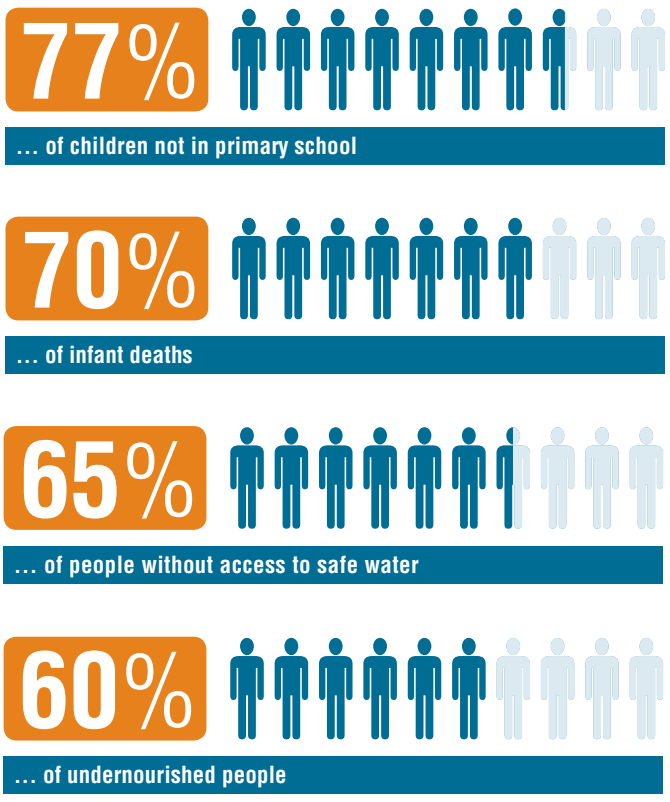
The U.S. government is considering difficult budget cuts, but reducing funding for programs that help poor women and children is not an effective means to reduce the federal deficit.

Nancy Neal is a member of the church relations department at Bread for the World.

cutting child mortality by two-thirds, while country B is considered a success because of its 75 percent reduction. If the target is evaluated globally, however, it's clear that country A made an important contribution to reducing the total number of deaths by two-thirds.

It's essential to consider a key reason there was such a gap between the two rates of child mortality to begin with: the health system in country A was much weaker than in country B. Context is critical to understanding rates of progress. Development, which is about building systems that can sustain progress, will simply take more time in country A.

Figure 1.3 **Most of the MDG Deficit is Found in Fragile States**



Source: Organization for Economic Coordination and Development (OECD), 2011

Sub-Saharan African countries are frequently cited as examples of the problems with how the MDGs are set up.[31] In fact, the region has made encouraging progress since the MDGs were launched. From 2000 to 2008, real GDP rose by 4.9 percent a year, more than twice the rate of the 1980s and 1990s.[32]

Former World Bank economist William Easterly has written that the MDGs are especially "unfair" when applied to Africa.[33] To meet the MDGs at a national level, many countries in the region would need to progress faster than any historical trajectory ever recorded. For example, it took the United States from 1800 to 1905 to move from 40 percent primary school enrollment to universal primary education.[34] Expecting countries starting at 40–50 percent enrollment to reach 100 percent completion rates in just 15 years is unrealistic.

Institutional structures lay the groundwork for broadly shared growth that is sustainable over time. Many African governments have reformed their institutions, for example, by holding free and fair elections, privatizing state-owned enterprises, removing trade barriers, strengthening regulatory and legal systems, and providing critical physical and social infrastructure.[35] If these actions haven't translated into instantaneous and unprecedented gains in human development, it seems reasonable to show a little more patience.

Africa is still the region with the most fragile or conflict-affected states.[36] Africa is far from being the only region affected, since 1.5 billion out of the world's 7 billion people live in fragile or conflict-affected states.[37] Conflict and fragility also afflict countries with more developed economies—Syria, for example. The low-income countries that are plagued

by chronic violence and tyranny are a special problem. Continued progress against global poverty will require increased attention to fragile states. (See Figure 1.3.) Compared to conditions elsewhere in the developing world, malnutrition is 54 percent higher and child mortality 20 percent higher in fragile or conflict-affected states.[38] A quarter of the people living in fragile or conflict-affected states are among the poorest people on earth. They are likely to be the last to escape poverty as well, because their governments lack the capacity to solve their problems.

"Institutional structures lay the groundwork for broadly shared growth that is sustainable over time."

Countries such as Mozambique and Liberia are going to miss almost all of the MDGs by a wide margin, but that should not minimize the work they've done or the progress they've been making. Liberia's two civil wars, from 1989-1997 and 1999-2003, decimated the country's institutions. For the past 10 years, Liberia has struggled to rebuild. Gyude Moore, former Bread for the World board member, was born in Liberia and escaped the country with his family during the first civil war. His young sister died while they were fleeing, a death brought on by malnutrition. Moore's family fled to Côte d'Ivoire. He eventually came to the United States, where he enrolled in college. In 2009, he completed his master's degree in Foreign Service from Georgetown University. The same year, he returned to Liberia to serve as a special aide to President Ellen Johnson Sirleaf.

It's apparent that countries like Liberia have a long way to go. Even Moore, with a government position, goes through periods without electricity in the capital city of Monrovia. In the countryside, conditions are far worse. But things are improving, as a Liberian aid worker explains: "I could tell things were getting better by the number of livestock I began to see in the villages. During the war, the animals were gone."[39] Rebel fighters or the military had killed them to eat or to punish villagers for lack of allegiance. The fact that animals were reappearing is not the kind of "development indicator" likely to appear in any monitoring report, but for people familiar with the country such as the aid worker, it was as useful a barometer of progress as any other information available.

Richard Lord

A peaceful day at the market in Saclepea, Liberia. During the country's civil war, Saclepea was known as a recruiting ground for child soldiers.

Meet the New Bottom Billion

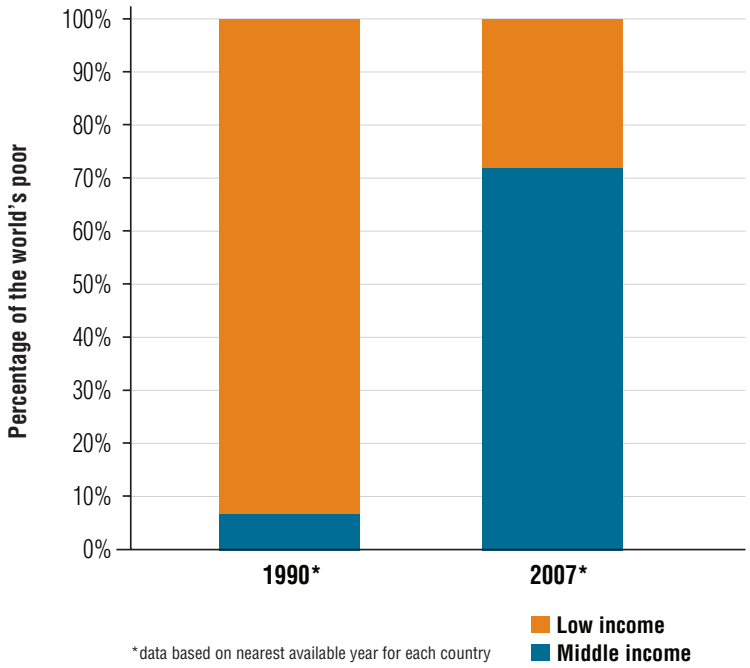
Occasionally, books by academic authors find a wider audience than just their academic peers. In 2007, Oxford professor and development economist Paul

Collier found himself on bestseller lists with his book *The Bottom Billion*, which refers to the approximate number of people living in extreme poverty.

The Bottom Billion has helped educate readers about the difficulties in meeting the MDGs. Collier frames the challenges clearly and succinctly. They include conflict, within and between nations; geography (for example, landlocked nations face many more barriers to trade, especially when they are in a conflict-prone neighborhood); environmental damage, natural and manmade; and corrupt officials diverting development resources away from productive uses to line their own pockets.

But *The Bottom Billion* inadvertently gives an outdated understanding of global poverty. Collier described the bottom billion as people living in low-income countries and fragile states. In 1990, the baseline of the MDGs, 93 percent of the world's poor people did in fact live in low-income countries and conflict-affected or fragile states. In 2010, Andrew Sumner of the Institute for Development Studies used more recent data (from 2007-2008) to show that most people living in poverty now reside in middle-income countries.[40] The latest estimate is that 72 percent of the world's poor people live in middle-income countries.[41] See Figure 1.4. In effect, the book describes a world that does not really exist anymore, partly because of the progress that has been made in low-income countries and partly because many countries that were low income in 1990 are now middle-income countries.

Figure 1.4 **The World's Poor Have "Moved" from Low-income Countries to Middle-income Countries**



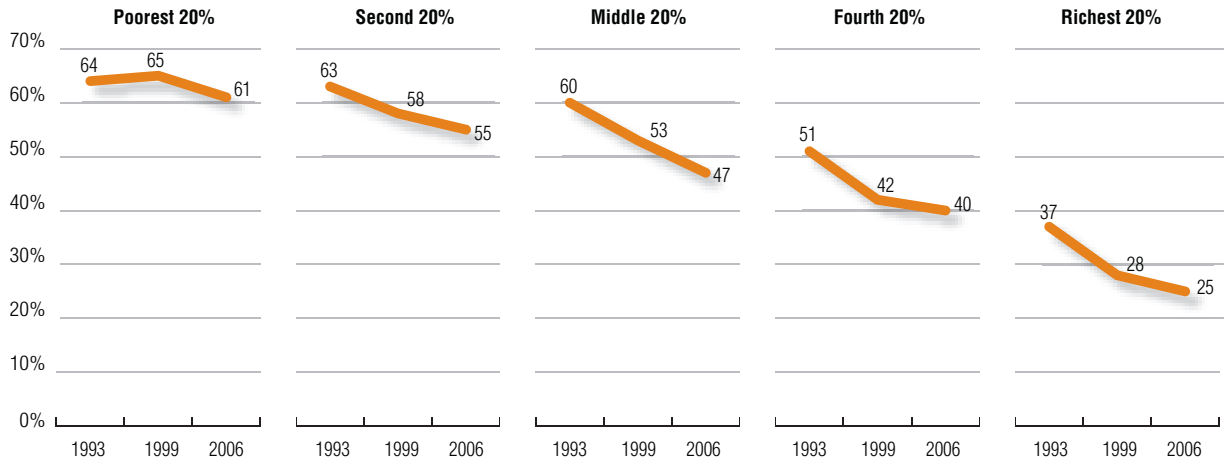
Source: Center for Global Development, 2011

Collier counts the entire population of low-income countries as part of the bottom billion. This assumes that growth within countries will be broadly shared and bring much of the population out of poverty, but the experience of the past 30 years shows that this is definitely not the case. All too often, national progress masks inequalities. In Peru, for example, a child from the poorest fifth of the population is nine times more likely to be stunted than a child from the richest fifth.[42] Although Peru has made more progress against malnutrition than most countries, the problem is that it has not reached the poorest people.

In many countries, human development outcomes among the poorest 20 percent of the population are generally lower than progress for the population as a whole.[43] (See Figure 1.5.) Niger, one of the poorest countries on earth, succeeded in improving child survival rates faster in the poorest quintile of the population than in the richest. Ghana, Mozambique,

Figure 1.5 **In India, a Greater Reduction in Underweight Prevalence Occurred in the Richest 20% of Households than in the Poorest 20%**

Trend in the percentage of children 0-59 months old who are underweight in India, by household wealth quintile



Source: UNICEF, *Progress for Children: Achieving the MDGs with Equity*, 2010

Zambia, and Bolivia have also accomplished this. The credit for this progress goes to these countries' respective national governments, which were committed to reaching those at the very bottom.[44]

Policymakers may not necessarily take much notice, but even among the global poor—people struggling to get by on $1.25 or less a day—there are significant inequalities. The poorest and most disadvantaged of the world's poor people have found it increasingly difficult to share in national progress. *The Lancet* argues that in their current form, the MDGs make it too easy to target interventions at the people who are better-off among all those living in poverty. This can worsen inequality and prolong injustice: "If action is directed only at those near the threshold, the effect might be to increase inequality, pulling those accessible populations above the poverty line, thereby widening the gap between them and those still below the threshold."[45]

"In many countries, human development outcomes among the poorest 20 percent of the population are generally lower than progress for the population as a whole."

To reach the poorest members of society, countries must put resources into strengthening social protection programs. "Social protection" is a term often used interchangeably with safety nets, but safety nets are actually a subset of the broader concept of social protection. Social protection is intended to mitigate risks that are out of an individual's control. For instance, civil rights laws and child labor laws function as a form of social protection. Social protection proved to be a vital cushion against shocks during the global food-price crisis of 2007-2008 and will continue to be important since food prices are expected to remain volatile for some time. This report argues that social protection makes sense at all times—because being poor is fundamentally about unrelenting exposure to risk.

Some of the best examples of social protection programs are in middle-income countries that have used them to great effect to reduce inequalities. Two of the most celebrated programs, Mexico's Oportunidades and Brazil's Bolsa Familia, have targeted the hardest-to-reach families. Bolsa Familia was launched in 2003 and Oportunidades (under its original name, Progresa) in 1997. Both programs rely mainly on conditional cash transfers. Beneficiaries receive a cash payment if they agree to meet certain requirements. For example, pregnant women must get regular health checkups, parents must make sure children attend school and receive immunizations, and so on. It's not that parents are opposed to these things in the absence of cash payments, but especially for poor people, every decision carries opportunity costs and consequences. A child could be earning badly-needed income washing clothes rather than going to school. The cash payment lowers the risk of forgoing this income to send her to school.

Celia Escudero-Espadas

The share of urban residents living in slums declined from 39 percent in 2000 to 33 percent in 2012.

Brazil's and Mexico's cash transfer programs are similar, but Bolsa Familia covers 50 million Brazilians compared to Oportunidades' 5 million Mexicans. Between 2004 and 2009, extreme poverty in Brazil dropped from 10 percent to 2 percent of the population.[46] Brazil still has one of the highest levels of income inequality in the world, so when the economy is doing well, it is mostly rich Brazilians reaping the benefits. In 2009, however, income inequality in Brazil fell to a 50-year low. Bolsa Familia contributed to this progress by boosting the income of poor families, which grew seven times as much as the income of the wealthiest since 2004.[47] In addition to Bolsa Familia, the Brazilian government launched a national school feeding program, which serves nutritious meals to more than 36 million children and sources its food from 80,000 small family farmers. The program has boosted farmer incomes and reduced rural poverty rates while improving child nutrition and school attendance.[48]

Bolsa Familia and the school feeding program are just two components of a larger effort known as Fome Zero (Zero Hunger). In 2003, Brazil's newly elected president, Luis Lula da Silva, stated that a goal of his administration was to make it possible for every Brazilian to afford three meals a day. Zero Hunger was the instrument through which he planned to achieve this goal. Since the establishment of Zero Hunger, Brazil has met the MDG 1 targets of cutting poverty and hunger in half, and in 2011, President Lula was awarded the World Food Prize for his commitment to ending hunger.

José Graziano da Silva, Lula's Minister of Food Security and the architect of Zero Hunger, now heads the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO). José Graziano da

Silva's article, "The Greener Revolution," appears on page 41. Few people would seem to be more qualified and in a better position to guide countries on how to reduce hunger, yet Graziano doesn't believe he or anyone else can do that. "There is no general formula," he says. "The starting point is to recognize that one size does not fit all. It's very important for each country to find the way out of poverty based on their own experience."[49]

With most of the world's poor people now living in stable middle-income countries, writes Andrew Sumner, "poverty is increasingly turning from an international to a national distribution problem... governance and domestic taxation and redistribution policies become of more importance than ODA (Official Development Assistance)."[50]

Todd Post

A Guatemalan woman feeds her child a packet of micronutrient-enriched food aid provided by USAID.

Middle-income countries such as Brazil and India are able to finance ambitious large-scale social protection programs. The U.S. role in helping to reduce poverty in Brazil or India is not about providing funding for assistance programs. Rather, the United States can provide leadership to encourage all countries to make efforts to overcome poverty and to learn from each other's experience. The United States itself can learn from successful approaches in countries such as Brazil. In low-income countries, on the other hand, social protection programs may exist but reach only a small share of the population in need of assistance. Scaling up is impossible without external assistance. Thus, donor nations such as the United States have a role to play in helping low-income countries expand their social protection programs.

Bottoming Out in the Bottom Billion

With the recognition that most poor people live in middle-income countries comes the question of why so many people are apparently not benefiting from national progress. It's true that progress against poverty seldom happens without economic growth, but economic growth alone does not ensure that the benefits of growth will be broadly shared. The inevitable conclusion would appear to be that reducing inequality is a necessity.

Disadvantaged groups are the farthest behind in meeting the MDGs.[51] In most countries, these are racial, ethnic, or religious minorities. Sometimes inequalities stem from centuries of discrimination. In Brazil, for example, 74 percent of the households in the bottom 10 percent in income are of African descent.[52] In Nepal, 23 percent of children surveyed from the majority Chinese-origin community were underweight, compared to 34 percent of those in ethnic minorities in the northern mountains and 45 percent of children in the central

highlands and coastal areas.[53] In Kenya, 21 percent of women in the Mijikenda ethnic group give birth with a skilled attendant present, compared to 73 percent of Kikuyu women.[54]

In any group, including minorities, women and girls experience more discrimination than their male counterparts. The MDGs were designed in part to address the gendered nature of poverty. Women make up 45 percent of the world's workforce, yet they are also 70 percent of the world's poor.[55] According to the United Nations Development Program, 75 percent of the world's women cannot get bank loans and are not allowed to own property.[56] Women often have limited access to education, health services, and employment, and limited control over their assets. In the state of Gujarat in India, 50 percent of women reported needing the permission of their husband or an in-law to take a sick child to a doctor.[57]

Figure 1.6 **Among the World's Population Who Lack Access to Improved Drinking Water Sources, 83 Percent Live in Rural Areas**

Source: WHO/UNICEF, 2012

It is hard to be poor anywhere, whether it's in the shantytowns of a sprawling metropolis or in a remote village hundreds of miles from the closest urban center. But despite a steady increase in people moving from rural to urban areas, poverty is still concentrated and harsher in rural areas. Rural girls are more likely to be out of school than rural boys, and they are twice as likely to be out of school as urban girls.[58] In Ethiopia, 95 percent of urban households have access to safe drinking water, while in rural areas just 42 percent do. Urban children in Ethiopia are twice as likely as rural children to receive an ORS packet for treatment of diarrhea.[59]

In South Asia, 70 percent of employed women work in agriculture, while in sub-Saharan Africa, it is 60 percent—yet women receive only 5 percent of agricultural extension services.[60] If women had the same access to productive resources as men, according to the FAO, they could increase yields on their farms by 20 to 30 percent, raising total agricultural output in developing countries by 2.5 to 4 percent and in turn reducing the number of hungry people in the world by 12 to 17 percent.[61]

The fate of children is directly tied to the status of their mothers. Programs that help female farmers increase their incomes benefit both the women themselves and their children. When women increase their access to household resources, they spend more of it on the

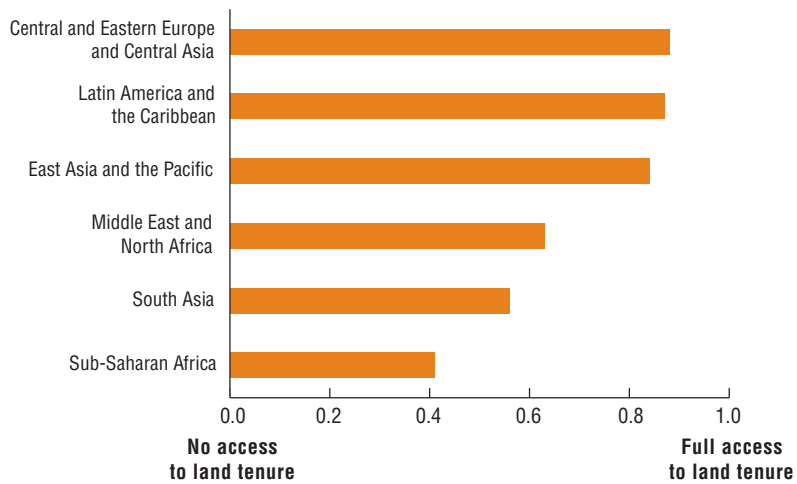
well-being of their children. Raising women's income has been shown to improve children's nutrition, health, and education.[62] A woman's level of education is a key factor in determining whether her children will even survive to the age of 5.[63] According to one study of data in 25 developing countries, one to three years of maternal schooling would reduce child mortality by about 15 percent.[64] A separate study of countries in sub-Saharan Africa found that children whose mothers had gone to primary school were 25 percent less likely to die than children of uneducated mothers.[65] One MDG indicator of progress on gender equity is reducing inequality in primary school enrollment. By that measure, the world looks to be making extraordinary progress, with 96 girls now attending school for every 100 boys.[66]

"It's very important for each country to find the way out of poverty based on their own experience."

— José Graziano da Silva, Director-General, FAO

In a country like Guatemala, where social norms change slowly, gender parity in education can't come soon enough. Guatemala is a middle-income country, but it has the highest rate of malnutrition in the Western Hemisphere and one of the highest in the world.[67] It also ranks near the top of an index measuring inequality in Latin America.[68] Gilma, a five-year-old girl, lives in a Guatemalan village precariously on the edge of food insecurity in the best of times. In more challenging times, children like her are at grave risk. In 2011, a severe drought struck her region of the country, leading the U.S. government to send food aid. Without the food aid, many children there might have died from malnutrition, and this is what almost happened to Gilma.

Figure 1.7 **Women Have Less Control of Land in Sub-Saharan Africa than Anywhere Else, 2009**



Source: UN Women, 2011

Gilma has four siblings, all of them boys, and that means she and her mother eat last and often there is nothing left for them. Her greatest disadvantage is not that she is a poor child in a region where food is often scarce, but that she is a poor *girl* there. By November 2011, Gilma was suffering from a condition known as severe acute malnutrition (SAM). Her legs were swollen and ulcerated, as happens when children suffer such severe malnutrition. In Guatemala, when a child falls below the SAM threshold, government health officials must be alerted and they will then assume responsibility for care. Gilma was fortunate in that her village was receiving food aid. Save the Children, the nongovernmental organization (NGO) administering the program, contacted health officials when Gilma slipped from moderate to SAM, but the officials didn't

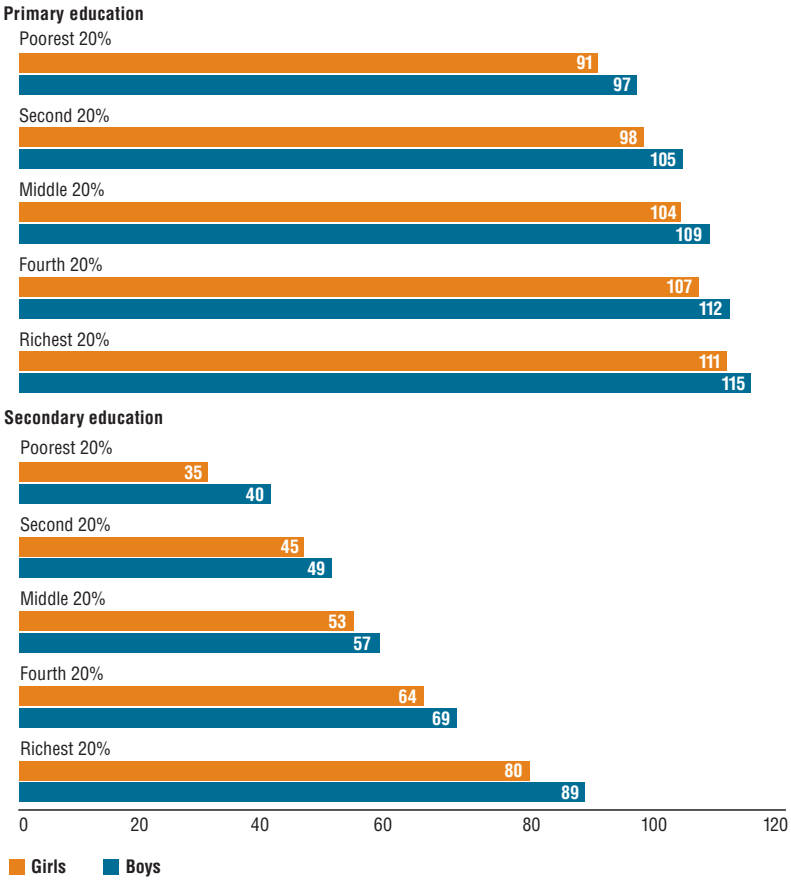
respond right away. She is alive today because of the persistence of Save the Children staff in getting the officials' attention. Before long, Gilma will be going to school; hopefully, her education will enable her to prevent what happened to her from happening to her daughters.

Measuring for Success

In 2009, FAO reported the number of hungry people may have reached one billion that year. It was an unprecedented jump of close to 100 million from the previous year—the result of dramatic spikes in food and fuel prices. FAO's annual report, *The State of Food Insecurity in the World*, doesn't usually receive widespread media attention. 2009 was different, because it was the first time since FAO began reporting annual hunger data that the number of hungry people could have crossed over a billion.

Figure 1.8 **Girls from the Poorest Households Face the Highest Barriers to Education**

Gross attendance ratio in primary and secondary school, by household wealth quintile, girls and boys, 55 countries, 2005/2010 (Percentage)



Source: UN, 2012

In 2010, the number reported by FAO fell to 925 million, reflecting the return of stability to global food prices. More than a year after crossing the "billion threshold" was reported, many researchers were still disputing its accuracy.[69] More doubts were raised when FAO shared the methodology used to calculate the number. At the urging of the Committee on World Food Security, a top-level U.N. forum, FAO agreed to overhaul its methodology.

There is no doubt that hunger increased temporarily because of the price spikes for basic grains—corn, wheat, and rice—and the rioting in dozens of countries because people were hungry was all the data many government leaders needed to see. Rich countries experienced higher food prices but were insulated from street protests because grain is a small fraction of the typical grocery bill. Also, poor people in rich countries spend a smaller percentage of their income on food and have access to safety net nutrition programs.

In 2011, FAO did not publish new numbers on hunger because it had decided to undertake a thorough revision of its methodology.

New data using the updated methodology, along with reconsideration of numbers published in previous years, were released in fall 2012. The new data indicate that hunger did not climb as originally reported. Rather than 925 million, as reported, the number of people who were hungry in 2010 was actually 868 million; and according to FAO, "The revised results imply that the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) target of halving the prevalence of undernourishment in the developing world by 2015 is within reach."[70] The targeting and impact of programs and the credibility of statements about progress or lack of progress depends on reliable data. The integrity of the MDGs themselves rests on accurate measurability. Measurable outcomes put weight behind the argument we are making for new global development goals beyond 2015.

Todd Post

At a market in Addis Abba, Ethiopia, a young woman is surrounded by bags of grain. The production and marketing of staple grains are the largest source of poor people's income in Ethiopia.

Where do hunger data come from? Information is collected using household survey. The standard survey models in use today—Household Expenditure and Living Standard Measurement Survey, Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) and the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS)—have been in use for more than 20 years and stand up to scrutiny. But problems can occur in their implementation. "Some developing countries, because of scarce resources, still face some challenges in ensuring that effective data collection programs are conducted regularly," says Francesca Perucci, head of the U.N.'s statistics planning and development section, speaking after the release of the most recent U.N. report card on the MDGs.[71]

When the MDGs were launched, it was clear that the capacity of developing countries to collect and analyze data had to improve.[72] FAO surveyors can't go to every country to collect data themselves; they must rely on partners, generally the statistical offices of national government agencies. Overall, the capacity to obtain accurate data has improved since 2000, but in some countries, especially among the least developed, yawning gaps remain.

The MDGs do not include an indicator for improving capacity to monitor and evaluate national data. Where it would appear, if anywhere, is in Goal 8—the global partnership goal (the subject of our next chapter). In the United States, the public perceives corruption by foreign governments as the biggest barrier to progress against poverty in developing countries.[73] Hence U.S. aid programs tend to avoid working with government institutions in developing countries. "There is a vicious cycle at work," reports the U.N. Statistical Commission for Africa, where country after country faces this issue: "Weak and under-funded statistical systems produce poor quality or largely irrelevant statistics, and as a result users do not value the statistical products produced and resource levels and statistical capacity remains low."[74]

International development agencies are helping to improve data collection systems. The World Bank, for example, has embraced crowdsourcing and has incorporated it into the way it conducts research. Crowdsourcing simply means outsourcing data collection tasks to distributed groups, reducing the time between when things happen on the ground and when they are reported.[75] This may not address our concern about reliability, but speeding up reporting about hunger would be a good thing. For the vast majority of people interested in hunger data, what matters most is the response to hunger. Recently in the Horn of Africa and the Sahel, for example, response time has meant everything.

UN Photo/Stuart Price

Women wait for food during the 2011 famine in Somalia. Early warning systems pointed to impending famine in Somalia as early as 2010. Nevertheless, the World Food Program had to cut back feeding programs in the country for lack of donor funding to address the crisis.

Technology has become a driving force in changing the way we monitor development outcomes. People have said this for years, but there is something exciting happening now because of new technology for crowdsourcing data. Crowdsourcing is made possible by the spread of mobile technology. We know that mobile technology has already changed the way poor people participate in commerce; their participation in monitoring and evaluating data is a new frontier. In Malawi, for example, UNICEF used mobile phones to monitor child nutrition. Health workers at growth monitoring clinics were trained to submit child nutrition data on their phones by SMS (text messaging). The health workers received instant feedback messages—and if their data indicated malnutrition, they were provided with additional instructions on how to respond.[76]

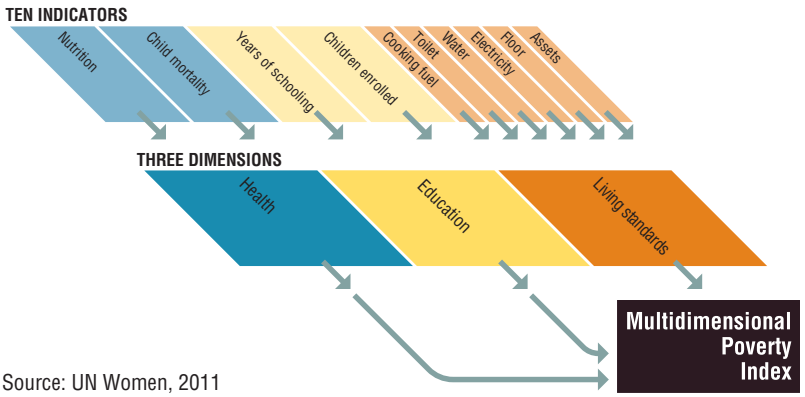
Ushahidi, a nonprofit technology company in Kenya, has developed crowdsourcing technology that allows anyone to contribute data via text message. It was first used to map post-election violence in Kenya in 2008.[77] Today, the technology has been adopted around the world to get real-time data during humanitarian emergencies. At a high-level meeting on Internet freedom, Secretary of State Hillary Rodham Clinton explained how crowdsourcing technology made it possible for "an American search-and-rescue team in Haiti after the 2010 earthquake to pull a seven-year-old girl and two women from the rubble of a collapsed supermarket after they sent a text message calling for help."[78]

New crowdsourcing technology doesn't make traditional reporting obsolete, but it is a faster way to hold policymakers accountable. Ultimately, ending hunger and poverty still depend on getting policymakers to act.

A Multidimensional View of Poverty

Reliable data is the bedrock of effective policy interventions. Without rock-solid data, policymakers can't know for sure whether their interventions actually address the fundamental reasons that people are poor. Conventional data tell us how many people are poor, or how many children die, or how many are in school—but they don't tell us whether the same people suffer multiple deprivations. And that matters, according to James Foster, an economist at George Washington University, "because once you find those people who are multiply deprived, then you can ask what's holding them back. Is it income or health or education?"[79]

Figure 1.9 **MPI—Three Dimensions and 10 Indicators**



Source: UN Women, 2011

To answer those questions, Foster and Sabina Alkire of Oxford University developed a tool known as the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI). Rather than just providing a headcount, the MPI is designed to convey the intensity of poverty that people experience. For example, two households in a village are led by single mothers with three children. Each woman earns $1.00 per day. One of them has no schooling while the other has completed primary school and is literate. The one with no schooling has HIV, while the other does not. Both are poor, but they are not poor in the same way—they have much different capabilities—and their MPI scores would reflect this.

A prototypical MPI uses a three-dimensional measure based on income, education, and health. A score is assigned based on the cumulative levels of hardship measured in each of these dimensions. The prototypical version adheres closely to the Human Development Index (HDI) used by the United Nations to rank the development status of countries; income, health, and education are also the core components of the HDI. The MPI scales down the HDI to the level of individual people. In an era of rising inequalities within countries, the MPI is an especially useful tool to keep the focus on the individuals who are being left behind. By providing a means of quantifying progress, the MPI overlaps with the MDGs.

"The whole point of the MPI is to help coordinate measures to address extreme poverty," says Foster. Feed the Future, the U.S. government's global hunger and food security initiative, is using the MPI to target beneficiaries of assistance more effectively. Alkire worked with the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) to adapt the MPI to measure women's empowerment in agriculture—important because rural women are the main focus of the Feed the Future initiative. The resulting Women's Empowerment in Agriculture (WEIA) measures women's decision-making power, control over the use of household income, leadership in the community, and time use. It measures these dimensions both for women independently and relative to men in the same household. A woman is assigned an empowerment score, and the

man also gets a score. "There really is nothing like this. We've developed a tool that can dramatically reshape our policy response," says Emily Hogue of USAID's Bureau for Food Security.[80]

WEIA was developed to track changes in women's empowerment levels as a direct or indirect result of interventions under Feed the Future. Having this information will enable USAID and its partners to tailor strategies to make the most difference in helping women overcome the barriers they face. So far, WEIA has been piloted in Bangladesh, Guatemala, and Uganda. In Guatemala, 85 percent of women who scored "empowered" in agriculture feel they can make decisions related to serious health problems, compared to 74 percent among women who did not score "empowered" in agriculture.[81] One could imagine how the insights gained from a tool like this could be used to reduce the risk of malnutrition for Gilma, the Guatemalan girl we met earlier in the chapter. Knowing how little say women in the village have over household decisions, USAID and its partners in the field would know to what extent they need to monitor how food rations are shared among family members.

Laura Elizabeth Pohl

Jane Sebbi, the farmer shown here in Kamuli, Uganda, grows corn, bananas, coffee, amaranth, potatoes, soy beans, common beans and sweet potatoes.

The value of the MPI becomes even clearer once the focus of policy interventions shifts to the ultra-poor. "Here's the problem with reaching the ultra-poor—it's really expensive," says Steve Radelet, chief economist for USAID.[82] Members of Congress responsible for appropriations want to be able to see that they're getting a return on the investments they make in development assistance. One clear sign of success is how many people have been lifted out of poverty. It's harder for someone living on $0.25 a day to move out of poverty than for someone closer to the $1.25 poverty line. If a person moves from $0.25 to $1.00 a day, that's a substantial improvement in her circumstances—quadrupling her income, in fact. But because technically she is still below the poverty line, USAID has a harder time counting her case as a victory.

This is first a problem of messaging. The MPI underscores the need for nuanced approaches to poverty reduction. Secondly, we all realize that development resources are limited. WEIA allows USAID to target its resources more effectively. This innovation, developed with the support of U.S. resources, is available for anyone in the world to use; it is open source in the same way that Ushahidi's crowdsourcing technology is available for anyone to use. The toolbox can expand so long as the research that produces these innovations is supported.

By 2015, we will meet the MDG target of halving the percentage of people living in extreme poverty. That's a wonderful achievement, one we celebrate unequivocally. But progress doesn't stop there. The ultimate goal is to eradicate hunger and extreme poverty, and over the next three years, much progress can be made if donors and national governments alike are focused with precision on the most difficult, hard-to-reach members of society.

THE GREENER REVOLUTION

CHAPTER 1

by José Graziano da Silva, Director-General, FAO

At the Rio+20 Earth Summit, countries set forth a vision of sustainable development that will only be realized if hunger and malnutrition are eradicated. Not only are these compatible goals, but they need to go hand in hand: we will not have sustainability while people are suffering from hunger; we will not end hunger if we do not shift towards more sustainable patterns of production and consumption.

Agriculture can be a force for environmental, social and economic good. But a global food system that leaves nearly 900 million people hungry, and exacts a heavy toll on natural resources, is by definition morally, economically and environmentally unsustainable.

Richard Lord

Productivity growth (especially on smallholder farms) generates farm employment, decent wages and other income on and off the farm.

Fixing the global food system will not be easy, but that does not mean impossible. The question is not *whether* we can feed a growing population expected to reach nine billion in 2050, but *how* we want to do it. Doing it sustainably is the only possible response.

Last century's Green Revolution in agriculture rescued an estimated billion people from starvation, and ushered in an era of cheap food, when it doubled world cereal production between 1960 and 2000 as the world's population surged from three to six billion.

But agriculture's transformation was less fortunate in other ways. Its benefits were unevenly distributed—with the majority of poor farmers missing out throughout the world—and it introduced a farming model which, with its intensive use of chemical inputs, its reliance on heavy machinery and its dependence on a few commercial crop varieties, took its toll on the environment and in the loss of biodiversity.

The creators of the Green Revolution were principally concerned with increasing food production and succeeded in this goal.

But now, we need a greener revolution because our way of farming has led to land degradation, the build-up of pest resistance and the erosion of biodiversity. Agriculture has also damaged the wider environment through deforestation, the emission of greenhouse gases and nitrate pollution of water bodies.

Fortunately, an alternative exists: to produce crops in a way that is more in tune with the ecosystem, which makes the most of ecological processes and minimizes the use of external inputs. At the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), we call these approaches "Save and Grow."[1] Many of these methods have been known for a long time; in some cases, it is a return to traditional practice.

Conservation agriculture, for instance, reduces tillage and uses cover crops to help restore soil quality. Crop-eating insects can be controlled by encouraging their natural enemies rather

than using chemical pesticides. And targeted, judicious use of fertilizer reduces collateral damage to water quality, while micro-irrigation delivers just the right amount of water when required—another way of producing more with less.

Save and Grow farming, with its emphasis on local crop varieties, is always adapted to local conditions. The latest science does not displace but informs traditional knowledge to assist rather than fight natural ecosystem processes.

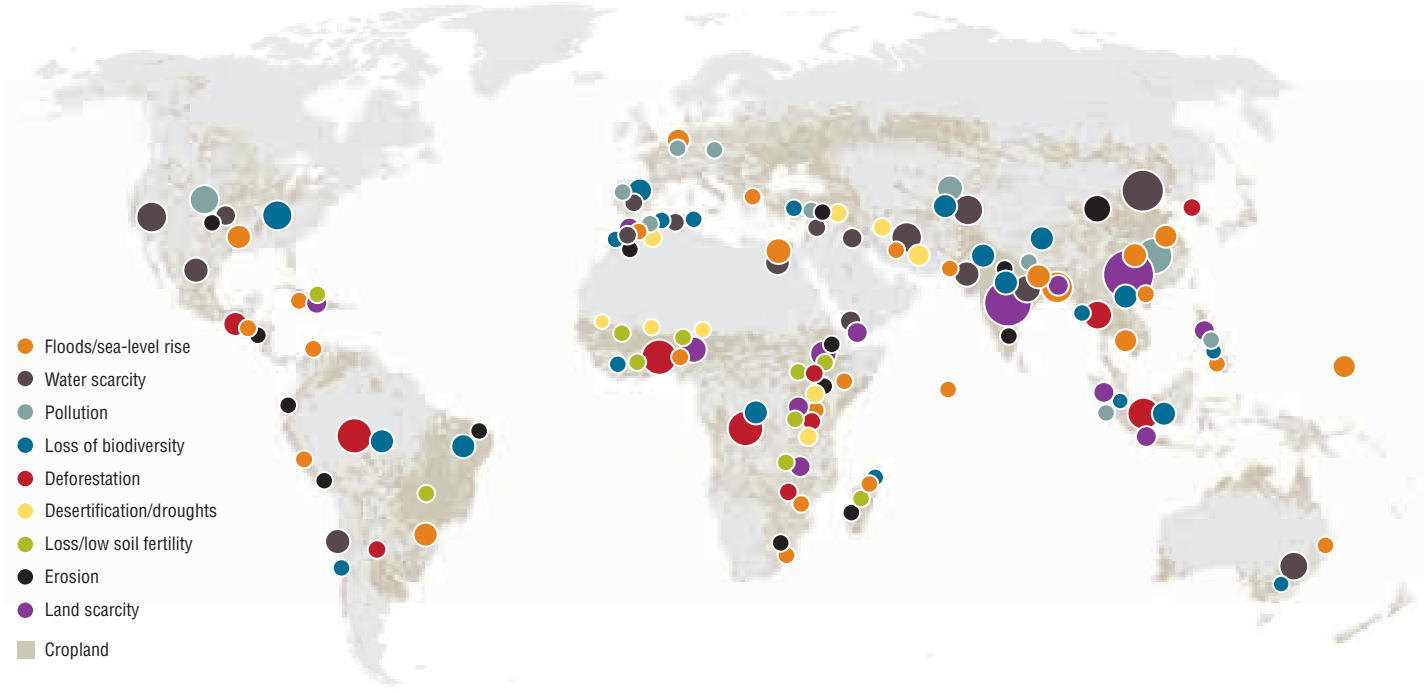
For such a holistic approach to be adopted, environmental virtue alone is not enough—farmers must see tangible benefits in terms of higher yields and reduced costs. With the right management those benefits can be delivered.

Increasingly, the world's farmers are adopting such farming methods. But for the Greener Revolution to succeed at scale, we also need to encourage intensive, industrial-scale farmers towards greater environmental awareness. This can be done by providing the right incentives for sustainable practices, and penalties for unsustainable ones.

Producing sustainably is not the only challenge we face. We need to look at the whole complex system that puts food on many of the world's tables, but leaves nearly one plate in seven bare. Many go hungry not because the world is short of food, but because they are too poor to buy or grow enough food for themselves. So we need to improve *access* to food.

This is achieved in many ways, including breathing new life into rural communities—home to over 70 percent of the world's poorest people. We do this through support to small-scale farmers so they can produce more, sustainably, and have better access to markets; rural employment creation; cash-for-work programs; and cash transfers and other targeted safety nets that put money in people's pockets and make sure their kids go to school and are well fed.

Figure 1.10 **Schematic Overview of Risks Associated with Main Agricultural Production Systems**



Source: FAO, 2012

In a number of countries, the combination of small-scale production and safety nets is being used with positive results. In Somalia, for instance, cash-for-work and food voucher programs are part of FAO, UNICEF and WFP's emergency response and played an important role in overcoming famine in the country.

Through such programs, the rural population helps rehabilitate local infrastructure for agriculture and herding and gives families resources to buy food locally. When consumers can buy food from local producers, this completes a virtuous local food security cycle, boosting local economies and creating necessary conditions for longer-term development.

In this sort of intervention, we are planting the seeds of long-term development as part of the crisis response and building resilience that rural families and communities need to overcome chronic food insecurity.

"We will not end hunger if we do not shift towards more sustainable patterns of production and consumption."

Another aspect to consider is food *consumption*. Almost one person in two on this planet is either not eating enough, eating badly or eating too much. On top of the nearly 900 million hungry, more than a billion people suffer from micronutrient deficiencies, while another billion are overweight or obese.

Moreover, around 1.3 billion tons of food—roughly one third of the food produced for human consumption every year—is lost or wasted, according to a study released last year by FAO and the Swedish Institute for Food and Biotechnology.[2]

Food loss has to do with the production, post-harvest and food-processing stages in the food chain. Food waste happens at the end of the chain, in retail and consumption. It has to do with throwing away food that is still perfectly edible.

In developing countries, 40 percent of losses occur during post-harvest, processing, transporting and storage, while in industrialized countries more than 40 percent of losses happen at retail and consumer levels.

We need to look at ways in which we can make better use of the food we produce, reducing loss and waste. We can make significant improvements if we involve the public and private sectors, producers and consumers. In general, if we improve and expand local food production and consumption circuits, we can reduce losses with transportation and storage.

In low-income countries, measures that target the production side should be given most attention: improving harvest techniques and infrastructure such as roads, storage facilities and cooling chains.

In industrialized countries, the focus should be on food and nutrition education to reduce waste. Per capita waste by consumers is between 95 and 115 kilograms a year in Europe and North America, while consumers in sub-Saharan Africa and South and Southeast Asia each throw away only 6 to 11 kilos a year.

If we could reduce food waste and loss by roughly 50 percent, we would have additional food for about one billion people a year without having to produce more, and with less impact on the environment.

So, the real issue before us is not how much we produce but how we produce, manage and consume our food.

We cannot separate agriculture from the management and preservation of our natural resources, from food security and from sustainable development itself—a message made clear at Rio+20.

The Greener Revolution has begun. It starts with rediscovery of what our ancestors knew well—that in agriculture, as soon as you pull on something, you find it is connected to everything else.

José Graziano da Silva is Director-General of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. He also was Brazil's Minister of Food Security in charge of the implementation of the "Zero Hunger" Program ("Fome Zero").

Laura Elizabeth Pohl

Partnering to End Hunger and Poverty

Chapter Summary

Goal 8 of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) focuses on improving partnerships between developed and developing nations—crucial to progress on all seven of the other goals. Since the MDGs were established in 2000, the concept of partnership has been evolving rapidly. Nowhere is this clearer than in the aid sector. Developing countries now have a stronger sense of ownership and responsibility for the development assistance they receive. Traditional donors have made the shift because they learned from experience how local ownership is crucial to success. The emergence of new donors—not bound by the rules and relationships of traditional donors—is rapidly altering the notion of partnership. Meanwhile, several wider factors that affect sustainable progress against hunger and poverty are themselves in flux. Volatile food prices stand out as an example. In addition to providing aid, there are many other actions that developed countries could take to help mitigate the effects of food-price volatility; in order to be a true partner, a donor country needs to be prepared to work on all fronts against problems that impede development. Development assistance has the potential to help millions of people escape hunger and poverty, but it is still a small share of the national budgets of most developing countries. The best results will come from strengthening partnerships among all concerned.

MAIN RECOMMENDATIONS IN THIS CHAPTER

- The United States should live up to commitments made with other donor countries to improve how they partner with one another to reduce hunger and poverty.
- All donors should support country-led strategies worked out by governments in developing countries in consultation with civil society and other domestic partners. Donors should also focus on strengthening local capacity and achieving lasting results.
- Donors should focus on building resilience in developing countries so that poor people can weather food-price volatility and other shocks. Agricultural development assistance and support for social protection systems will help mitigate the impact of shocks on poverty, hunger and malnutrition.

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) include a "partnership goal" designed to improve how rich and poor countries work together to reduce poverty and related hardships. Goal 8 reflects what it was thought rich countries should be doing circa year 2000 to support development in poor countries. Since the launch of the MDGs, a series of international meetings on aid effectiveness has reshaped thinking about partnerships. The meetings we describe here primarily involve these traditional donors; later in this chapter we'll discuss issues associated with nontraditional donors. At the top of the agenda has been the subject of country-led development, the idea that developing countries set the priorities and own the development programs that donors provide assistance for.

UN Photo/Kibae Park

The agricultural sector in Vietnam has propelled the country's rapid growth since 1990, and this has led to huge reductions in hunger and poverty.

When the MDGs were launched, development assistance to the poorest countries was at an all-time low. From 1990 to 2000—the decade before the MDGs were adopted—development assistance fell by 33 percent.[1] Most of the assistance was provided by member countries of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development/Development Assistance Committee (OECD), a group of traditional bilateral and multilateral donors[2] that includes 24 developed countries as well as international institutions such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Bank, and regional development banks.

From 2001-2010, the OECD donors increased development assistance by 275 percent.[3] Since 2001, aid has been allocated disproportionately to countries with the furthest to go to meet the MDGs. Aid to sub-Saharan Africa, for example, increased from $12 billion in 2000 to $42 billion by the end of the decade.[4] Over the past decade, 9 of the 10 countries with the largest gains in human development have been in sub-Saharan Africa (See Figure 2.1),[5] and they are predominantly large recipients of development assistance.[6]

In **2000**, net official development assistance stood at **$55.4 billion.**

By **2009**, when adjusted for inflation, it reached **$152.2 billion.**[1]

The share of agricultural development assistance declined from **17 percent** of all development assistance in the late 1980s to **6 percent** by the late 2000s.[2]

Critics of aid are plentiful. Dambisa Moyo, former Goldman Sachs economist and author of the book *Dead Aid*, levels her harshest criticism at aid to sub-Saharan Africa.[7] Basically, she argues that aid to countries in the region has stunted development. There is more to the story than Moyo portrays, particularly since the aid reforms of the past 10 years have begun to pay off. The human development gains just cited won't answer all of Moyo's charges, but they certainly suggest it may be premature to draw such harsh conclusions about the value of aid.

It used to be that when Africa made the headlines the news was invariably bad. The coup de grâce came in 2000 when *The Economist* magazine dubbed Africa the "Hopeless Continent."[8] In the 1980s and 1990s, economic growth stagnated across sub-Saharan Africa. That, combined with the HIV/AIDS pandemic, political turmoil, a number of armed conflicts that caused significant death and destruction, and it is not surprising that many consider this period to be Africa's lost decades.

Figure 2.1 **Sub-Saharan African Countries are Top Movers on the Human Development Index, 2000-2011**

GLOBAL RANK	HDI	GLOBAL RANK	NON-INCOME HDI
2	Rwanda	2	Rwanda
3	Sierra Leone	3	Niger
4	Ethiopia	4	Burundi
5	Mozambique	5	Mali
6	Mali	7	Tanzania
7	Burundi	8	Ethiopia
8	Niger	9	Sierra Leone
9	Tanzania	10	Mozambique
10	Congo, Dem. Rep. of the	11	Angola
12	Angola	12	Liberia

Note: The table reflects improvements as measured by average annual change in HDI and non-income HDI.

Source: UNDP, 2012

Today, the story is much different. Since the turn of the century, writes former U.N. Secretary General Kofi Annan, Africa has transformed itself from the "Hopeless Continent" to the "Continent of Hope." The continent's quick recovery from the global financial crisis and "numerous examples of social and political progress" are "feeding a remarkable 'can-do' spirit," says Annan.[9]

In developed countries, fiscal constraints have stalled the past decade's trend of increasing amounts of development aid. In the wake of the global financial crisis and recession, followed by an anemic recovery, rich countries are scouring their national budgets in search of places to reduce spending. In 2011, net official development assistance among OECD countries

On average, African countries receive **$41 per person** in aid annually.[3]

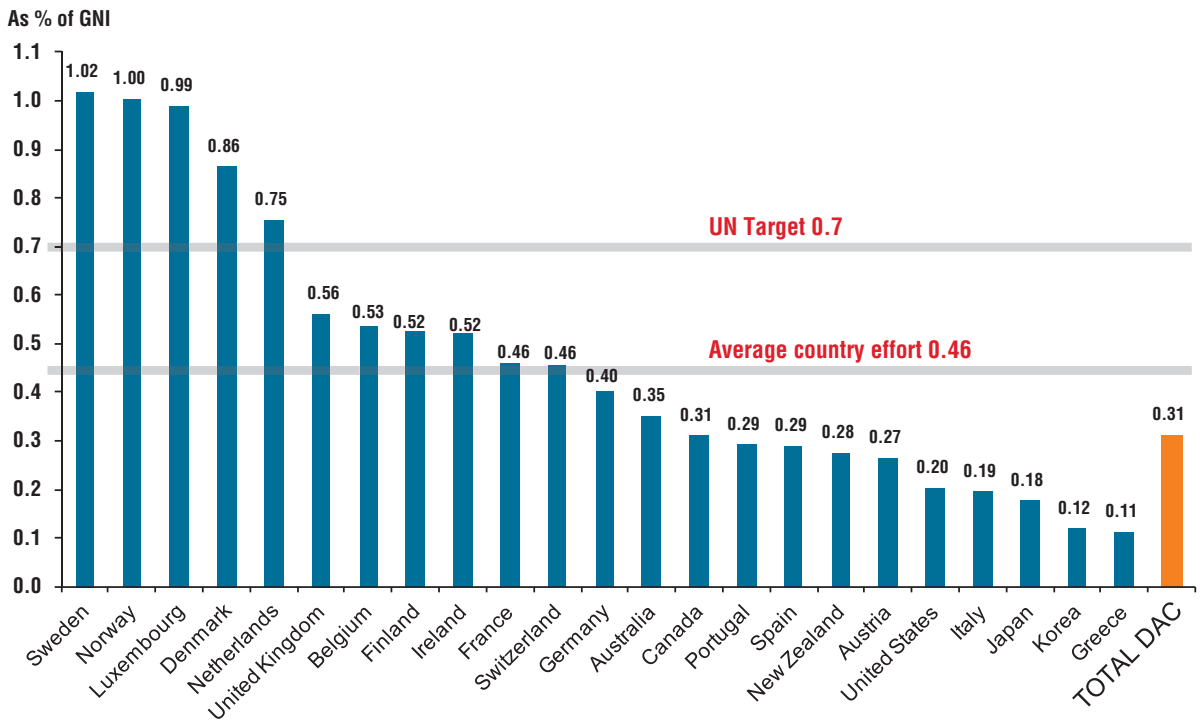
Chinese investment in African infrastructure increased from **$4.5 billion in 2007** to **$9 billion in 2010,** making it the fastest growing external source of infrastructure financing.[4]

represented 0.31 percent of their Gross National Income (GNI).[10] MDG 8 calls for raising this figure to 0.7 percent of GNI. In 2011, however, only five OECD countries reached this target. (See Figure 2.2.) A great deal of concern is being expressed about the number of poor countries that are not on track to meet MDGs 1-7—even though, as explained earlier, these are global goals, not national-level goals—but poor countries are not nearly as far off the mark on MDGs 1-7 as rich countries are on meeting the development assistance target of MDG 8.

"Over the past decade, 9 of the 10 countries with the largest gains in human development have been in sub-Saharan Africa."

Partnership in MDG 8 encompasses more than just increasing development assistance levels. (See Table 2.1.) For people stuck at the very bottom of their country's economy, aid is critical to creating the conditions in which they can benefit from the other components of partnership, such as market access and a "rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system."[11] Consider the difficulties facing a subsistence farmer living in a remote corner of a desperately poor country, surviving on $1.25 per day or less. The fact that MDG 8 leads to her country's gaining duty-free, quota-free access to markets in developed countries may only be relevant at all if she has access to good seeds, irrigation, and a road to get to the nearest market town, and/or if her children survive to age 5 and can attend an accessible school. For the poorest of the poor, development assistance programs support these essentials.

Figure 2.2 **Net ODA in 2011 - as a Percentage of GNI**



Source: OECD, 2012

Geography of Change: Monterrey, Rome, Paris, and Accra

The International Conference on Financing for Development, the first in the series of influential meetings took place in 2002 in Monterrey, Mexico. The governments of participating developing countries agreed to adopt "sound" economic policies, improve standards of governance, and invest more of their own resources to reduce poverty and meet the other MDGs. In return, donor countries agreed not only to provide more aid, but also to improve its quality. For example, they pledged to improve donor coordination. Studies show that government officials in many developing countries spend thousands of hours every year duplicating processes to meet varying donor requirements. A 2010 report by the OECD estimates that lack of donor coordination wastes, on average, $5 billion a year.[12]

Table 2.1 **Targets for MDG8**

1.	Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system.
2.	Address the special needs of least developed countries.
3.	Address the special needs of landlocked developing countries and small-island developing states.
4.	Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries.
5.	In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries.
6.	In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications.

Source: UNDP

It was at the Monterrey Summit that President George W. Bush announced his plan to launch the Millennium Challenge Account (MCA) that would give U.S. foreign assistance to low-income countries with a record of good governance. Accounts were administered by the Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC), a new U.S. agency established in 2004. The MCC has been successful in supporting good governments in low-income countries and funding the priorities that these countries set.

The 2002 meeting in Monterrey, followed by the 2003 High-Level Forum on Harmonization in Rome, set in motion a paradigm shift: aligning aid with a recipient country's own development agenda became the new norm. The "donor knows best" model was already under assault in some quarters by the time the MDGs were adopted. In the late 1990s, some donors experimented with country-led development in exchange for debt forgiveness. As debt relief expanded after the year 2000, it was based on poverty reduction strategy papers (PRSPs) that the recipient country developed, sometimes with input from civil society organizations in the country. The PRSPs became the basis for all World Bank and IMF operations in the recipient low-income countries. PRSPs were supposed to allow developing countries an opportunity to drive their own development agendas, even though the World Bank and other aid donors played a major role in writing them.[13] Nevertheless, the new "country-led" paradigm was slowly taking shape. It continued to evolve into the new century.

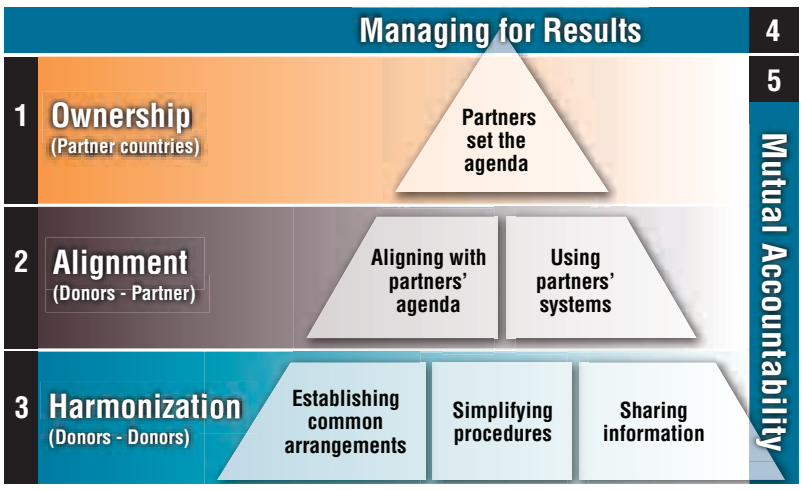
"For people stuck at the very bottom of their country's economy, aid is critical to creating the conditions in which they can benefit from the other components of partnership."

A 2005 meeting in Paris sought to advance the agenda set forth in Monterrey and Rome. *The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness* took bolder steps to build a more authentic model of country-led development. *The Paris Declaration* principles went further than those of any

previous agreement to outline what was needed for new, 21st-century partnerships: (1) aid-recipient countries own their development agenda, (2) donors align aid programs with country-led strategies, (3) donors harmonize their activities in an aid-recipient country, (4) all parties agree to a higher standard of accountability, and (5) development programs improve systems to measure and evaluate results.

More than 100 signatories—donor governments, developing country governments, multilateral institutions, and regional development banks—agreed to work toward these principles. Seven years later, the *Paris Declaration* remains more of a visionary document than an operational one. By their own accounting, OECD countries have met only one of its 13 targets, with moderate progress on seven others.[14]

Figure 2.3 **Paris Principles on Aid Effectiveness**



Source: OECD/DAC

In 2008, at a follow-up meeting in Accra, Ghana, another stakeholder group asserted itself and gained recognition for its role in achieving the MDGs. This was civil society, the name commonly given to the broad range of global, national, and local nongovernmental organizations (NGOs); it includes, for example, indigenous groups, charitable organizations, faith-based organizations, professional associations, and foundations.[15] In the *Accra Agenda for Action*, donors and developing country governments committed to working with civil society, recognizing that civil society increases aid effectiveness by "ensuring the poorest, those who are supposed to benefit from aid, get their voices heard in the development process."[16]

Civil society organizations that work directly with marginalized groups know the realities of whether development resources meant to help poor people are reaching them. Civil society often implements aid programs; in addition, it plays a role in holding government accountable and drawing public attention to government's performance. Of course, not all governments appreciate being held accountable. In some developing countries, civil society actors are frequently under duress or subject to various forms of intimidation because of their adversarial relationship with government.

Monterrey, Rome, Paris, and Accra are all milestones in an evolving partnership between rich and poor countries, between government and civil society. They are signs of the growing recognition that long-term sustainable development will require all stakeholders working together. This is important to keep in mind as a post-2015 framework on global development goals is negotiated. The MDGs first took shape as a plan developed by donor agencies.[17] They were later adopted by all nations of the world at the U.N. General Assembly. Developing countries were not involved at the outset. Neither was civil society. It would be difficult now to imagine a post-2015 framework being formulated in the same manner as the MDGs were.

CAPACITY BUILDING IN FRAGILE AND CONFLICT-AFFECTED COUNTRIES

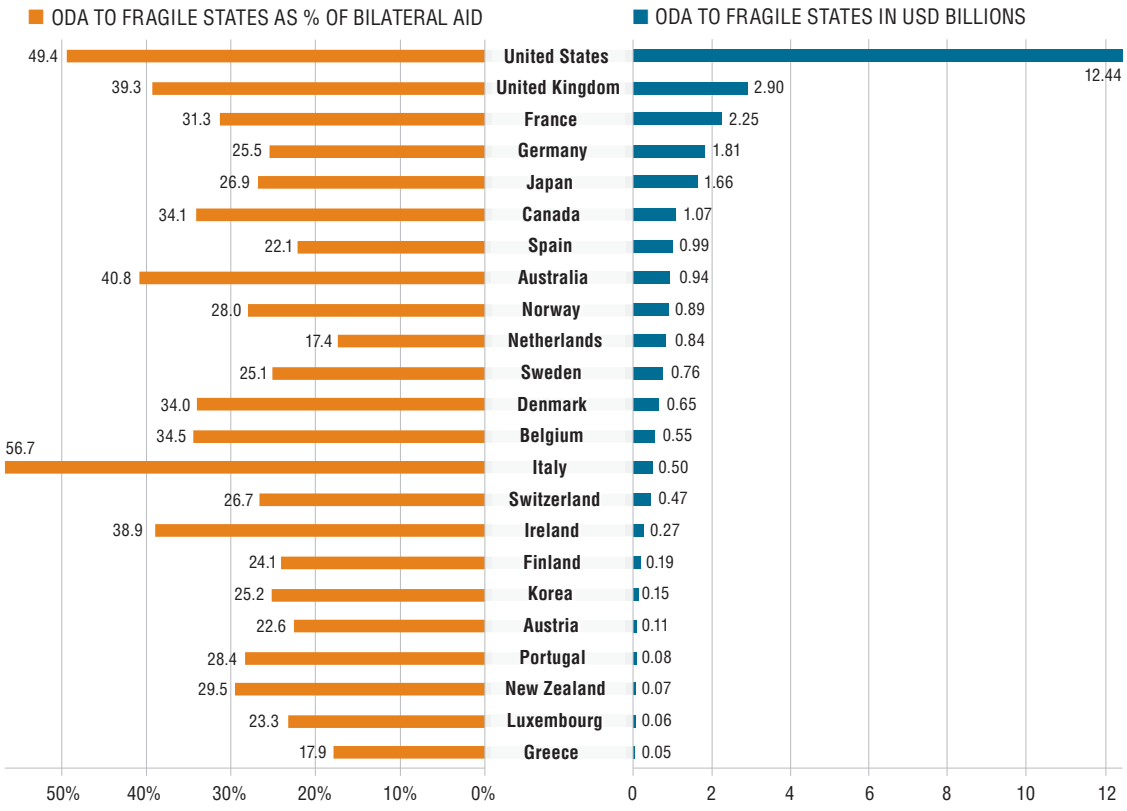
Fragile and conflict-affected states, where partnerships are a true test of how committed donors are to country-led development, receive more aid per capita than the average developing country.[18]

One of the targets in the *Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness* is to strengthen developing country systems that are necessary to manage donor resources, most importantly financial management capabilities. Donors may not have much confidence in systems that have been shattered and service delivery mechanisms made dysfunctional by protracted civil conflict. Under these conditions, a very cautious approach may be most appropriate. But whatever conditions exist, donors must not divert their attention from capacity building, even if it's literally starting from rubble.

If donors bypass or ignore systems in fragile or conflicted-affected states, they only perpetuate the image of a government incapable of running a country. This is dangerous because in such countries, achieving a durable peace is the primary objective: the odds are roughly 50-50 that a country will relapse into conflict within five years of ending hostilities.[19]

Capacity building isn't anathema to peace building; rather it goes hand in hand and helps to give peace a chance.

Figure 2.4 **Official Development Assistance (ODA) to Fragile States (2009)**



Source: OECD, 2011

South-South Cooperation: Enter the New Partners

Another big change since the MDGs were adopted is the growing number of new bilateral donors, the resources they provide, and their impact on development. Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa, the so-called BRICS, get most of the attention. It is not clear how much aid they are providing because they do not report it as OECD countries do, but it is estimated that before the global financial crisis, aid from all non-OECD countries combined reached more than $11billion a year.[20] In 2010, OECD countries provided $128.7 billion.[21] This seemingly wide gap in amounts of assistance can lead observers to underestimate the influence of non-OECD countries.

South-South cooperation is a term sometimes used to describe the relationship between these new donors and the countries where they operate. "South-South" is not simply about where countries lie on the world map. The new donors have had recent experience with some of the same social and economic challenges as the countries where they provide aid, which conveys a certain status that "northern" donors cannot match.

"The new donors have had recent experience with some of the same social and economic challenges as the countries where they provide aid, which conveys a certain status that "northern" donors cannot match."

New donors can be described as supporting the idea of country-led development, but in their own ways. In general, aid is provided to national governments directly, without conditions attached—a welcome change for officials in recipient countries used to frustrating conditions imposed by OECD donors. Equality and mutual benefit are tenets of South-South cooperation, enshrined in an agreement reached by 29 heads of African and Asian countries at the Bandung Conference in Indonesia in 1955.[22] Yes, 1955—which may seem like ancient history to those who see Paris and Accra as the benchmarks of a new aid-effectiveness agenda. However, it is not ancient history to many countries in the global South. The Bandung declaration is still quite relevant and helps explain why some new donors bristle at the traditional donor-recipient paradigm.

Derek Schwabe

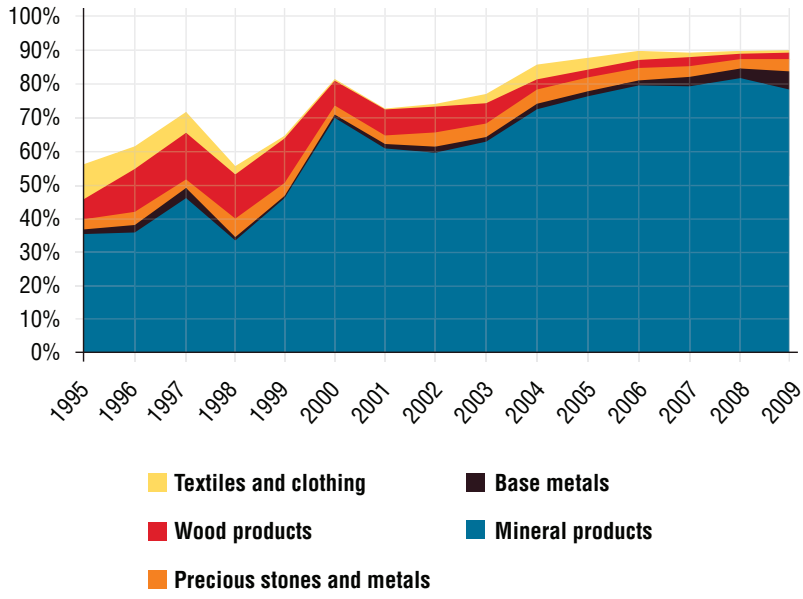
Travelers use a new, shorter road between the cities of Freetown and Makeni in Sierra Leone. The road is being built by a Chinese company with assistance from the Chinese government.

Most of the focus around this new class of donors has been trained on China, the largest donor and one of the least transparent in the group. The London-based NGO Publish What You Fund ranks China third from the bottom in aid transparency.[23] As early as 2008, China had aid projects operating in 86 countries.[24] OECD countries generally separate aid from their trade and

investment agendas. For China (and some other new donors), the partnership with developing countries is best understood in terms of a three-legged stool that includes aid, trade, and investment.[25] This is one reason why it would be a miscalculation to consider aid alone when gauging the impact and influence of South-South cooperation.

Chinese investments in Africa have risen by an average of 46 percent per year over the last decade,[26] and China has become Africa's fastest-growing external source of financing for infrastructure.[27] In recent decades, OECD countries have pulled back on investing in infrastructure development, giving China and other non-OECD countries more influence, particularly since African governments realize that poor infrastructure is one of their main barriers to development and trade. China may not be the ideal partner African leaders want, but it's a partner that is listening to what they are asking for.

Figure 2.5 **Composition of China's Imports from Africa, 1995-2009 (% of total imports)**



Source: Trade Law Center for Southern Africa (TRALAC) China-Africa Data, 2010

China is often criticized by western NGOs for using its role as an aid donor to gain access to the rich supply of minerals and other natural resources in Africa. China has developed the unflattering reputation of a "land grabber."[28] Land grabbing has expanded at an alarming rate, and it is not just China doing the grabbing or African countries where it is happening. It is estimated that since 2000, up to 500 million acres (a little more than three times the size of Texas) have been purchased or leased by outside investors in developing countries,[29] many on terms that are extraordinarily favorable to the investor. The people living on this land, mainly smallholder farmers, are routinely displaced without compensation, in clear violation of their rights.

China's stated policy of not interfering in other countries' internal affairs[30] may prove to be unworkable as its presence in Africa deepens. The countries that China is relying on for the natural resources vital to its own continued growth could become far more unstable places to do business if poverty, hunger, and inequality continue unchecked. This is already becoming an issue for China in Sudan and South Sudan because of the very tense relationship between the two countries. China has invested heavily in both countries, primarily to obtain rights to some of their large oil reserves, and would risk significant loss of capital if the two countries were to go to war, as they almost did in 2012. A war between Sudan and South Sudan could also escalate into a regional war, involving other countries where China is heavily invested.

Rendezvous in Busan

South Korea's transformation from one of the poorest countries in the world in the 1950s to a member of the OECD by the 2000s makes it a powerful symbol of the potential impact of effective aid. For decades, the United States, Japan, and other donors provided Korea with a steady stream of financial support and equally significant assistance in capacity building.[31] Between 1962 and 1971, for example, 7,000 Koreans received training abroad, and from this group have come many of the country's leaders in government, business, and academia.

"Aid as an institution of global development is evolving rapidly to reflect geopolitical realities—and so must the next set of global development goals."

The South Korean government and the United States did not always agree on the conditions attached to U.S. assistance. The Korean government wanted to focus on large-scale economic infrastructure, while the United States favored building up small and medium-size enterprises. It rejected the government's request for financing a road project to connect the main port at Busan with the country's major population centers, so the government spent a quarter of the entire national budget to build the road itself. Seven years after its completion, South Korea's national income had quadrupled.[32] Thus, it was particularly appropriate for the December 2011 Fourth High-Level Meeting on Aid Effectiveness to be held in Busan, Korea. Busan is now one of the busiest port cities in the world, and its success demonstrates why country-led development should be more than a slogan.

Oxfam

In Busan, South Korea, site of the Fourth High-Level Meeting on Aid Effectiveness in 2011, activists draw attention to the building blocks of aid and their instability as the meeting gets underway.

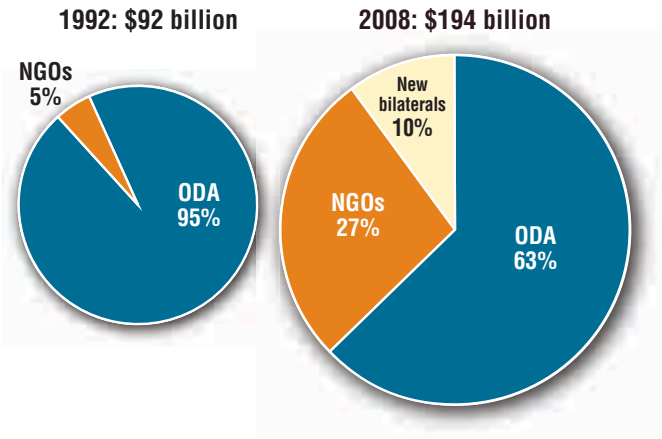
In the early 1990s, the traditional group of donor nations provided 95 percent of all development aid. Fifteen years later, their share had fallen to 63 percent and has continued to decline since then.[33] (See Figure 2.6.) Nontraditional donors have contributed to the overall volume of resources available for development, but they tend to operate independently. As with the OECD countries, their lack of coordination can be a problem. One of the objectives of the Busan forum was to engage with the BRICS and other non-OECD donor countries to find areas of common ground on the *Paris Declaration* and the *Accra Agenda*. Because they were not present for the negotiations and signing of the two agreements, non-OECD countries have shown little interest in embracing them.

To the list of nontraditional donors, we must add philanthropies, international and national NGOs, faith-based organizations, corporations, professional associations, academic institutions, and more.[34] "Thousands of actors are playing different ball games on the same field with no referee," write Jean-Michel Severino and Olivier Ray, researchers who study the development assistance landscape.[35]

Busan was the first in the series of high-level development forums to acknowledge the role of the private sector. Private sector investments in poor countries are on the rise. Some of the private-sector investment is specifically designed to make money and serve a social purpose. "Social-impact investments" could reach $500 billion per year by the next decade, according to a 2009 report from the Monitor Institute.[36] With one eye on development and the other on profitmaking, social-impact investments have the potential to fuel economic growth that creates jobs and lowers poverty rates.

Busan did not produce a "grand bargain" with all donors agreeing on one agenda for aid effectiveness. The *Busan Partnership for Effective Development* highlights "opportunities presented by diverse approaches to development cooperation."[37] OECD countries remain committed to the *Paris Principles* and *Accra Agenda*. The BRICS did not go that far, but they did agree to work with the OECD to improve international governance of the aid system.

Figure 2.6 **Total Development Assistance, 1992 and 2008**



Source: World Bank Institute's calculations based on OECD/DAC (2008) and Hudson Institute (2009).

Seasoned aid watchers still consider the Busan meeting a success: it brought together a diverse cast of stakeholders who agreed to continue to work together to make aid more effective in achieving the MDGs. As we head towards 2015 and the need to make decisions about what should come after the MDGs, it is possible that Busan may become a reference point to show that it is less important to agree on everything than to agree on the main thing: better development outcomes. Aid as an institution of global development is evolving rapidly to reflect geopolitical realities—and so must the next set of global development goals.

Partnership in a Rapidly Changing World

In the United Nations' MDG progress report for 2012, U.N. Secretary General Ban Ki-moon writes that continued progress in poverty reduction and other development outcomes depends on the global partnership for development.[38] To achieve lasting progress against hunger and poverty, partners have to be adaptable to changing circumstances. In the years ahead, we can count on many new challenges and the need to adapt. Because of climate change, for example, there is now understanding about how to build a sustainable agriculture system, ensure an adequate global food supply, and help the most vulnerable people (and that includes "climate refugees"). The global partnership for development must continue to evolve and rise to such challenges.

High and volatile food prices are a problem that has arisen in the past few years and demands a sustained response from rich and poor countries alike. Such price shocks were not anticipated when the MDGs were launched, since food prices had been depressed for

BOX 2.2

PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIPS: IS THIS THE NEW NORMAL?

by Faustine Wabwire

In May 2012 at the G-8 Summit in Camp David, Maryland, President Obama launched the New Alliance for Food Security and Nutrition, a commitment by G-8 nations, some African countries and private-sector partners to lift 50 million people out of poverty over the next 10 years through inclusive and sustained agricultural growth. This is one attempt to address development challenges with additional private sector investment. For the New Alliance to deliver on sustainable poverty reduction goals, its implementation should be guided by the following principles:

Fulfill and sustain public investment in agriculture and nutrition

Public investment in agriculture and nutrition security is critical and cannot be replaced by the private sector. Agricultural development requires public goods such as public agricultural research, extension services and infrastructure. Improvements in nutritional status require investments in health and social protection systems as well as ensuring that food systems deliver a diverse and nutritious diet. Finally, public financing is critical to establishing an enabling environment for small-scale producers by allowing private investment to flow to these actors directly. Such investments can include infrastructure to facilitate market functioning and improved regulatory environments.

"The goal of partnerships should be to identify common ground between different actors and to combine their skills, resources and expertise."

Aim investments and enabling policies at smallholder farmers and producers

In Africa, for example, small-scale farmers are the dominant private sector actors in agriculture, accounting for over 70 percent of agricultural production and over 75 percent of agricultural labor. Enabling policies and investments should therefore be directed at enhancing the effectiveness of small-scale and family farmers' on-farm investments, while taking care not to erode their assets, know-how, and autonomy. In particular, investments and policies should pay attention to the needs and role of women, promote sustainable farming methods, improve diet diversification and nutrition outcomes, support small-scale producer-led research, and increase resilience to climate change and other shocks.

Involve local civil society, especially smallholder farmers' organizations, as leaders

Experience shows that country ownership—a process through which countries decide and direct their own development paths—is the foundation of sustainable development. Participation of both citizens and government leads to better targeting of resources, strengthened accountability, and ultimately increased sustainability and success. In spite of this

reality, local civil society is still not sufficiently involved in agriculture decision-making. As the New Alliance takes shape, G-8 members and host countries must strengthen and formalize the participation and leadership of local civil society. Civil society must be represented on the New Alliance Leadership Council at the global level and in each consultation group and structure at the country level.

Follow clear standards of accountability for responsible investment

New Alliance private sector partners, like donors, must be transparent about current and committed levels of funding and be guided by country-led plans. Such commitments must include accountability mechanisms to ensure that private sector action contributes to sustainable, poverty-reduction goals. The New Alliance country frameworks commit G-8 members to alignment with country plans, yet similar commitments from the private sector are absent. G-8 members, including the U.S. Government, and host countries must push private sector actors to align with strong established standards and plans and be held accountable for it.

UN Photo/David Ohana

Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon (left) walks with Barack Obama, President of the United States, outside the 37th G-8 Summit in Deauville, France.

Address gender equity, nutritional, environmental sustainability, and climate change

Women are at the nexus of agriculture and nutrition. Women not only prepare food, but also are the main agricultural producers in many low-income countries. The G-8 and the New Alliance should prioritize improved nutritional outcomes and produce a clear overall target and timelines to achieving them. Similarly, the New Alliance plans should specifically break out environmental sustainability and climate response goals, to be measured along country-defined indicators of success.

The goal of partnerships should be to identify common ground between different actors and to combine their skills, resources and expertise. Partnerships for development should focus on the many areas where actors, including private and public institutions, companies and civil society organizations, can engage in win–win relationships around development objectives such as poverty reduction, health, education, access to opportunities and service delivery.

Faustine Wabwire is an international policy analyst in Bread for the World Institute. This article is adapted from the InterAction Food Security and Agriculture Working Group 2012 publication Delivering on the Promise of a New Alliance for Food Security and Nutrition: Recommendations for Effective Development.

most of the1990s. Back then, when rapid price increases occurred, they were caused by a localized drought or other natural disaster and were therefore isolated in one country or region.

But global food prices began to climb in the 2000s. They spiked in 2007-2008, and then fell somewhat in 2009. The cycle was repeated in 2010-2011, again creating an urgent need to help people most vulnerable to hunger. The severe drought across the grain belt of the United States during the summer of 2012 portends another price spike in subsequent months as stocks are depleted, meaning another rough ride for food-importing countries and for many poor people.[39] Experts predict food prices will remain volatile for at least the next decade.[40]

"Experts predict food prices will remain volatile for at least the next decade."

What can we learn from the first round of price shocks in 2007-2008? The worst-affected countries were net food importers, where hunger and malnutrition rates soared. In the majority of these countries, households with children younger than 2 were found to be consuming significantly fewer calories than before the rapid price increases began.[41] This is particularly important since, as mentioned in Chapter 1, proper nutrition between pregnancy and a child's second birthday is a necessary foundation for achieving all of the MDGs.

In the United States, the average family spends about 10 percent of its income on food.[42] In contrast, poor families in the developing world spend 50-80 percent of their incomes on food.[43]

BOX 2.3

COOPERATION WITHIN THE G-20

This chapter focuses on the challenges of aligning the aid agendas of traditional and nontraditional donors. Countries that make up the Group of 20 (G-20) consist of both traditional and nontraditional donors. G-8 countries are part of the G-20, as are the BRICS.

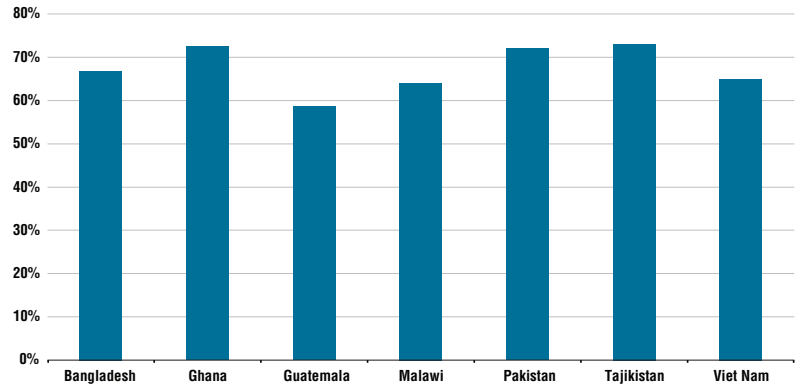
There is room within the G-20 space for cooperation against hunger and poverty. For example, high and volatile food prices are at the top of G-20 agenda. At a June 2011 meeting, agriculture ministers of the G-20 countries called for more transparency in commodity markets and committed their countries to collectively establish an early warning system that would collect information on food stocks, crop supply and demand levels. The ministers agreed also "to ensure that national food-based safety nets can work at times when food prices rise sharply and governments cannot access the food required for these safety nets at an affordable price."[44]

Infrastructure is another item on the G-20 development agenda.[45] Infrastructure is an important prerequisite for making more progress on all MDGs, yet infrastructure development has been largely absent from the partnership rubric in the MDG framework. As mentioned above, donor support for infrastructure development is a top priority of most developing country governments. There are specific infrastructure challenges related to agricultural development, such as storage facilities to eliminate crop losses, and challenges related to health systems, such as training more health workers. Cross-sector infrastructure challenges include collecting, analyzing, and disseminating data, while the many physical infrastructure challenges include building roads to reach areas without access to services.

(See Figure 2.7.) Any bump in prices forces them to make difficult choices. The diet of poor families is almost entirely corn, wheat or rice, and the prices of these basic grains have been especially volatile. The nutritional quality of their diet deteriorates as they forego nutrient-rich foods and consume mostly staples. Adults cope by cutting their portion sizes and number of meals per day. Usually, women in the household cut their consumption first, followed by other adults, before the rationing reaches the children. Children may be pulled out of school and sent to work to earn income. Urgent health care may nonetheless have to be postponed. To stave off worse hunger, the family may have to sell off assets such as livestock or tools—a desperate strategy since these may be their only safety net in an emergency.

During the crisis of 2007-2008, rioting broke out in dozens of countries. Prices eventually stabilized, but then surged again in 2010-11, leading to uprisings in Tunisia, Egypt, and Libya. The Arab Spring wasn't caused by high food prices alone, but hunger pushed people past the edge of their tolerance for a bitter status quo.[46]

Figure 2.7 **Poor People Spend Much of their Income on Food**



Note: Percentage of household budget spent on food by the lowest expenditure quintile of the population.
Source: FAO, 2011

"Given the complex web of factors influencing global food security," says Shenggen Fan, executive director of the International Food Policy Research Institute, "governments of developed and developing countries, as well as international organizations, must use a comprehensive approach to prevent a food crisis reoccurrence."[47] A comprehensive approach means working on short and long-term responses at once and addressing both supply- and demand-side issues.[48]

Supply-Side Response

The logical way of ensuring that food supplies are sufficient to avoid volatile prices is agricultural development. Although the world is currently producing enough food to feed everyone, the problem is that not enough of it is being produced by smallholder farmers in developing countries. Rural poor people earn most of their income from agriculture. They are food producers, but they actually consume more food than they produce. As food producers, they might be able to benefit from high prices, but not if the inputs are unavailable or if rising costs of the inputs makes it impossible for them to scale up production. In other words, to produce more they have to be able to spend more upfront on supplies, but they don't have the extra resources to spend on inputs because they are too poor. It's a vicious cycle.

Some countries, such as Malawi, used donor support and/or their own resources to subsidize input costs for poor farmers. Compared to its neighbors, Malawi came through the 2007-2008 food-price spikes with a smaller increase in hunger rates than its neighbors; the fertilizer subsidies provided to smallholders are acknowledged as a key reason for this. But

there is some debate as to whether this is sustainable because the subsidies consume such a large share of the government's budget.[49]

In 2009, one of the top issues on the agenda at the Group of 8 (G-8) meeting in L'Aquila, Italy, was global hunger and volatile food prices. The G-8 countries include the wealthiest of those in the OECD. Led by the United States, G-8 leaders pledged $22 billion in agricultural development assistance for low-income countries where smallholder farmers and their families dominate the ranks of hungry people. Assistance for agriculture had plummeted during previous decades, partly as a result of stagnating global food prices.

Table 2.2 **Growth in Agriculture Surpasses Growth in Other Sectors for Reducing Poverty**

AGRICULTURE	EFFECT	POVERTY INDICATOR	OTHER SECTORS
Agricultural GDP growth per agricultural worker	is 2.9 times more effective	in increasing the average income of the poorest 20%	than growth in nonagricultural GDP.
Agricultural GDP growth per capita	is 2.7 times more effective	in reducing the extreme poverty rate	than nonagricultural growth.
Agricultural GDP growth	is 2.9 times more effective	in reducing the extreme poverty rate	than growth in manufacturing.
Agricultural GDP growth	is 3 times more effective	in increasing household spending in the poorest households	than nonagricultural growth.
Agricultural GDP growth	is 4 times more effective	in reducing the extreme poverty rate	than nonagricultural growth.
	and 1.3 times more effective	in reducing the $2 a day poverty rate	than nonagricultural growth.

Source: UNDP, 2012

Agricultural development assistance delivers the biggest bang for the buck when it is focused on women. Gender inequality in the agricultural sector is a fact of life that remains largely unchanged. Donors definitely pay lip service to the critical importance of targeting women in agriculture, but a 2011 OECD report showed that only 5 percent of the aid directed to the agricultural sector specifically focused on programs to promote women's participation.[50] In the subset of official development assistance dedicated to agriculture, food, and nutrition, the nutrition component accounts for just 3 percent of the total.[51] This is very short-sighted given the conclusive evidence of the paramount importance of maternal and child nutrition on lifelong development outcomes.

Tailoring a combination of agricultural support and nutrition education for women would increase productivity and reduce malnutrition at the same time, because women are more likely than men to spend any new income on their family's nutritional needs.[52] Agricultural development puts more money in women's hands, and nutrition education teaches them how to spend that money more effectively on their family's well-being. Feed the Future, the U.S. government's global hunger and food security initiative, which was launched after L'Aquila, has embraced these ideas and is working to implement them.

Demand-Side Response

Social protection is the logical demand-side response to the problem of food-price volatility. (See "Meet the New Bottom Billion" starting on page 41 for additional discussion of social protection.) The best examples of progress in tackling malnutrition, according to Save the Children, are in countries that have invested in effective social protection policies.[53] An example would be a safety-net program designed to guarantee all pregnant and lactating

mothers access to nutritious food. The expansion of social protection has also become part of the World Bank's response to the surge in grain prices. All high-income countries—and most middle-income countries now—have created nutrition safety nets, and they are becoming more common in low-income countries, but the coverage is woefully inadequate to meet existing needs. Three out of five people do not participate in a safety-net program in developing countries as a whole; and in the poorest countries, four out of five are not covered.[54]

Today, the majority of poor people live in middle-income countries. Upper-middle-income countries (commonly defined as those with per-capita incomes between $4,000 and $12,000)[55] can expand safety-net programs without donor support. Brazil has demonstrated that not only can it be done, but it is also affordable. The government provides cash transfers to 46 million people at a cost of only 0.5 percent of GDP.[56] The idea is to put resources in people's hands so they can purchase enough food to maintain a nutritious diet. Cash transfer programs are popular across Latin America, and reviews of several in the region have shown that they lead to more diverse diets and reductions in malnutrition.[57] Moreover, these are generally conditional cash transfers, which require visits to a health care provider or regular school attendance, improving the likelihood of achieving nutrition goals.

"Agricultural development puts more money in women's hands, and nutrition education teaches them how to spend that money more effectively on their family's well-being."

The Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN) movement, a global multi-stakeholder effort, offers another model. SUN seeks to build partnerships among government, civil society, the private sector and academic institutions, and is driven by the participating countries themselves with support from donors. The SUN Movement is focused on implementing evidence-based

Table 2.3 **Focusing on the Household: Mother- and Child-Centered Interventions to Reduce Malnutrition and its Impacts**

INTERVENTION	MOTHER-CENTERED	CHILD-CENTERED
Prevention	Hand washing and other sanitary measures for improved hygiene	Breastfeeding for newborns at delivery
	Iodization of salt or iodized oil capsules for household use	Complementary feeding between the ages of 6 and 24 months, in addition to continued breastfeeding
	Fortification of staple foods, complementary foods and condiments	Zinc supplements for infants and children
	Micronutrient supplementation (for example, calcium and vitamin A)	Fortification and supplementation with vitamin A for children ages 6–59 months
	Individual and group counseling to promote exclusive breastfeeding for a child's first six months	Iodization of salt or iodized oil capsules for household use
	Supplements of iron and folic acid for pregnant women	Hand washing and other measures for improved hygiene
	Behavioral change campaigns, such as to reduce tobacco use and indoor air pollution or to promote use of insecticide-treated bednets	Insecticide-treated bednets
Treatment	Deworming during pregnancy	Management of diarrhea through zinc intake complemented with oral rehydration solution for infants and children
		Treatment of severe acute malnutrition with ready-to-use therapeutic foods for children under age five
		Treatment of moderate acute malnutrition with fortified foods for children under age five
		Deworming

Source: UNDP, 2012

BOX 2.4

A PARTNERSHIP TO SCALE UP NUTRITION

by Scott Bleggi

Thirty low-income and lower middle-income countries have joined a movement to Scale Up Nutrition (SUN), one that Secretary of State Hillary Rodham Clinton has described as "a model of how to implement successfully the principles that the international community affirmed at the High-Level Forums for Aid Effectiveness in Paris and Accra."[58] Of the 30 SUN countries, 20 are from sub-Saharan Africa.

The SUN movement should not be confused with an aid program. It is a collaborative effort with a common goal: supporting country-led efforts. SUN encourages participation by a range of domestic stakeholders in government, civil society, business, and research groups, as well as international partner organizations operating in-country. Stakeholders are advising national governments how to scale up nutritional interventions to support realization of the MDGs, and governments are committing both resources and high-level leadership to this end.

Laura Elizabeth Pohl

Rajiv Shah, USAID Administrator, gives a closing speech at the "Scaling up Nutrition: Calling All Champions" conference in the U.S. Senate Dirksen Office Building in Washington, D.C., on Thursday, May 17, 2012.

The focus of the SUN movement is the critical 1,000-day window between pregnancy and a child's second birthday. Approximately 3 million children younger than age 5 die every year as a direct result of malnutrition, and 200 million others live with nutritional deficiencies that threaten their health and future.

There's never been any doubt that child malnutrition is a tragedy for children and their families. What the global community has not recognized as clearly until recently is that malnutrition is a *cause* of poverty, not just a *result* of poverty. It drains billions of dollars in lost productivity and healthcare costs from developing countries.

The MDGs cannot be achieved without urgent attention to nutrition. The costs of inaction—as measured by child mortality, compromised life chances, and reduced economic productivity—are unacceptably high. The stakes are high and so are the returns. The Copenhagen Consensus, a panel of Nobel Prize laureates in economics, reported in 2012 that fighting malnutrition in young children is the best investment that policymakers can make to improve global health and development.[59]

Scott Bleggi is a senior international policy analyst in Bread for the World Institute.

nutrition interventions and integrating nutrition goals across sectors. Existing safety nets in low-income countries provide the foundation for scaling up, but blanket coverage is not possible without donor support. National governments in low-income countries can develop investment plans similar to those that a number of countries have prepared for the use of the agricultural development assistance pledged by G-8 countries in L'Aquila.

Ethiopia's Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP) is one of the best examples of a low-income country working with donors to expand its social protection. The PSNP combines food and cash transfers and it includes public works projects for local communities; participants are employed to help rehabilitate environmentally degraded areas to increase agricultural output. Supported by 10 donors, the PSNP is country-led in the best sense, with the donors agreeing to harmonize their policies and work jointly with the government on implementation. One important expression of the commitment to country ownership is that donors are channeling resources through the government's financial and procurement systems.[60] Many people are still not covered by the program, but this doesn't take away from what has been achieved.

Todd Post

Poverty and malnutrition are common in pastoralist communities of Ethiopia. Because of their nomadic lifestyle it has been difficult to include them in the Productive Safety Net Program.

Ethiopia is in the Horn of Africa, where hunger, food shortages, and malnutrition are chronic problems. In 2011, the worst drought in 60 years struck the Horn countries.[61] Famine was declared in Somalia, where millions of children experienced severe malnutrition and tens of thousands perished. Ethiopia certainly experienced its share of suffering, but lost far fewer children to the drought than it might have—especially given the country's long history of famine and other food emergencies. In earlier decades, under a previous government, Ethiopia might have experienced suffering and death on a scale similar to Somalia. The current government is committed to working with its partners in the donor community, and the donors are committed to working with this government, which has shown it can be held accountable for responsible use of development assistance.

Hope and Promise in Africa

Partnership is, of course, a two-way street. Low-income countries have to do their part. And they have, for the most part, despite harsh reminders of how fragile progress is, such as the setback experienced during the food-price crisis. None of the recent progress in human

development that has been made in Africa, mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, would have been possible without the leadership of top officials committed to reducing poverty. Donors can reward good governance, but they cannot mandate it.

In 2001, African leaders formalized their own vision of partnership in the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), in which leaders from across the continent pledged to reduce poverty and put Africa on a sustainable development path.[62] From 2001-2010, according to the IMF, six of the fastest growing economies in the world were in sub-Saharan Africa, and steady growth in the region is expected to continue over the current decade.[63] At some point in the next decade, Africa's growth rate, counting every country on the continent, could surpass Asia's[64]—a notion that would have seemed unthinkable a decade ago. Africa already has more middle-class households than India.[65] By 2014, the number of households on the continent earning $5,000 or more could exceed 100 million. The $5,000 threshold is significant because this is the point at which households can afford to begin spending more than half of their income on nonfood items.[66] "Africa's rising consumption will create more demand for local products," explain scholars at the McKinsey Global Institute, "sparking a cycle of increasing domestic growth."[67]

"Since the turn of the century, Africa has transformed itself from the 'Hopeless Continent' to the 'Continent of Hope.'"

— Kofi Annan, former U.N. Secretary General

By 2050, 1 in 3 children will be born in sub-Saharan Africa.

Laura Elizabeth Pohl

African countries rich in natural resources have benefited from soaring prices for oil, minerals, and other commodities, but countries without significant amounts of resources have also experienced strong economic growth. The key reasons for Africa's surge have been the end of hostilities in several countries, increases and improvements in development assistance, and economic reforms that created a more attractive environment for private investment. African governments reduced the average inflation rate from 22 percent in the 1990s to 8 percent after 2000; in addition, they privatized state-owned enterprises, strengthened regulatory and legal systems, and invested in physical and social infrastructure.[68]

African leaders have also invested in their people. At the turn of the century, many African countries were carrying unmanageable levels of external debt. OECD ledgers count debt relief as part of official development assistance, despite controversies surrounding why and by whom the debts were incurred and who bears responsibility for them. MDG 8 includes a target for debt relief, and debt relief under the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative and the Multilateral Debt Relief initiative has reduced debt burdens on the poorest countries, allowing governments to invest more of their own resources in poverty reduction strategies. This has clearly paid off in sub-Saharan Africa, where, by the late 1990s, some heavily indebted countries were spending more of their national budgets to service external debt than on education and health care combined.

Table 2.4 **Under-5 Mortality (per 1,000 live births) in Selected Sub-Saharan African Countries Surveyed Since 2005**

Country	Before	After	Annual % Decline
Senegal	121 (2005)	72 (2010)	9.9
Rwanda	103 (2007)	76 (2010)	9.6
Kenya	115 (2003)	74 (2008)	8.4
Uganda	128 (2006)	90 (2011)	6.8
Ghana	111 (2003)	80 (2008)	6.3
Zambia	168 (2001)	119 (2007)	5.6
Mozambique	152 (2003)	97 (2011)	5.5
Ethiopia	123 (2005)	88 (2011)	5.4
Tanzania	112 (2004)	81 (2010)	5.3
Madagascar	94 (2003)	72 (2008)	5.2
Nigeria	201 (2003)	157 (2008)	4.8
Benin	160 (2001)	125 (2006)	4.8
Niger	274 (1998)	198 (2006)	4.0
Mali	229 (2001)	191 (2006)	3.6
Malawi	133 (2004)	112 (2010)	2.8
Average annual % decline in under-5 mortality			**5.9**

Source: World Bank, 2012

Few examples of leadership on the MDGs are as stunning as the progress in reducing child mortality that has occurred in several sub-Saharan countries. Table 2.4 illustrates the massive improvement since the mid-2000s. Michael Clemens of the Center for Global Development calls this the biggest, best story in development, and it is hard to disagree with his assessment. "In other words," says Clemens, "[the countries in this chart] are collectively reducing child mortality at an annual rate much greater than the rate called for by the MDGs. They are doing this across hundreds of millions of people, across a vast landscape of hundreds of thousands of villages and cities."[69] The subtext of the story is that progress is being driven mostly by the countries' national governments.

In the early 2000s, well before the food-price crisis, African countries recognized the need for a pro-poor growth strategy. In addition to social policies aimed at improving human development, African countries pledged to invest their own resources in agricultural development. The Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Program (CAADP) was established in 2003 by leaders of African countries as a framework for coordinated, evidence-based investments in the agriculture sector. The goal of CAADP is to significantly reduce chronic hunger, malnutrition, and poverty by stimulating broad-based and inclusive economic growth. Participating governments made a commitment to increase public investments in agriculture to a minimum of 10 percent of their national budgets. Many governments prepared agricultural development plans, and CAADP helped organize teams of experts from other African countries to critique each country's plan. When the G-8 countries decided to ramp up their investments in African agriculture in 2009, they were able to use agricultural development plans that African leaders had already prepared. This is just one example of how African countries are now taking the lead in their own development planning.

"The roles and responsibilities of partners have to depend on what obstacles stand in the way of achieving the goals."

Aid has the potential to create the environment where trade and private investment can flourish. These are far more powerful forces that can fuel economic development. Developing countries that have achieved middle-income status have done so largely by leveraging aid to build capacity in trade and attract private investment. Asian countries stand out as some of the best examples. Nine of the 13 countries that have sustained 7 percent or higher annual economic growth rates over an astonishing 25 years or more are in Asia,[70] and all of these countries have benefited from a vibrant private sector.

Partnerships to 2015 and Beyond

Five years after the food-price crisis of 2007-2008, the roller coaster of food-price volatility and its punishing impact on poor people has not ended. Achieving sustainable progress against hunger and controlling food-price volatility are linked in ways that no one foresaw a decade ago. Negotiations are expected to begin in 2013 to develop a new set of global development goals to succeed the MDGs. The need to respond to the ongoing problem of food-price volatility must inform how global partnerships are envisioned and structured.

When the MDGs were established, it was assumed that progress against poverty would lead to corresponding rates of progress against hunger and malnutrition. This is illustrated most clearly by the bundling of poverty and hunger targets in MDG 1. As stated earlier, poverty and hunger are not moving in sync: progress against poverty is outpacing progress against hunger and malnutrition. Food-price volatility doesn't explain the entire gap, but it does highlight the disconnection between the two.

Under the rubric of "partnership," the next set of global development goals should include a target to establish universal social protection systems against malnutrition in every country. At a minimum, coverage should include all children at risk of stunting, particularly since stunting is heavily concentrated among the poorest children in developing countries. Gradual expansion of coverage by age would allow time to build the systems and capacity necessary to implement programs at scale.[71] Aid will be necessary to expand coverage, but it will not be sufficient. No donor or combination of donors can end hunger and malnutrition

without partners in developing countries who are committed to leading the way, because the responsibility lies primarily with national governments and their partners in civil society and the private sector.

MDG 8, the global partnership goal, focuses on the responsibilities of OECD countries. But this is no longer a useful way to think about partnership. In the next round of development goals, partnerships should help strengthen local capacity in developing countries. This will lead to more effective country-owned policies and institutions, such as social protection, that build resilience among poor communities and that are ready and able to respond during an economic downturn, natural disaster, or other emergency.

Chapter 1 emphasized that cost is by no means the biggest barrier. See "Do We Dare to Be Optimistic?" starting on page 35. We know which interventions work, and we know they are affordable. What we don't know is whether national governments are prepared to do what it takes to reach everyone. Universality is necessary to begin to overcome another key message of Chapter 1, high levels of inequality. A commitment to universality also makes it simpler for civil society and other stakeholders to hold partners accountable if they fail to follow through.

USAID/ Usman Ghani

A Pakistani woman stitches garments with a sewing machine provided by USAID. With the sewing machine she can earn up to 5,000 rupees a month ($75).

If the problem of food-price volatility were to vanish tomorrow, universal nutrition safety nets would still be the way to go in a new set of global development goals. Safety nets allow people to be more resilient during and after economic shocks, of which food-price volatility is just one example. Shocks resulting from climate change are another example of why vulnerable members of society need this protection. Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia, by virtue of their size, population, and poverty levels, are "ground zero" for the effects of climate change. Building resilience to climate change is essential to ensuring that progress against hunger and poverty is sustained.

Development goals can be defined with absolute certainty. The roles and responsibilities of partners have to depend on what obstacles stand in the way of achieving the goals. The recent food-prices crises and the risk of ongoing food-price volatility make clear that partnerships to end hunger and poverty go beyond aid. In addition to the impact of climate change on agricultural production and rural livelihoods, population pressures, changing dietary preferences, biofuels policy, trade restrictions and financial speculation have all contributed to a highly unpredictable and uncertain global food market. All of these factors underscore the need for a post 2015 development framework to take an expansive view of partnership. In Chapter 3, we look at global issues we expect will affect how partnerships evolve in the coming decades.

U.S. LEADERSHIP AND GLOBAL DEVELOPMENT GOALS

by Bread for the World Institute

In the remaining years before the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) expire in 2015, the U.S. government needs to step up support for achieving the goals and be a leader in promoting the next set of global development goals.

The U.S. government is a generous donor in absolute dollars, and its leadership efforts are often in proportion to these contributions. At the 2009 G-8 Summit in L'Aquila, Italy, the U.S. government persuaded other donors to join its initiative to raise significant additional resources for agricultural development and food security programming in the wake of the global food-price crisis of 2007-2008.

"Helping families escape poverty and build better lives for themselves is one of the highest expressions of U.S. goodwill towards developing countries."

Many U.S. development programs support the MDGs and their achievement. The McGovern-Dole Food for Education program, for example, supports increasing primary school attendance, reducing gender inequalities, and improving nutrition outcomes—encapsulating three MDGs in one effort. Its namesakes, former senators Robert Dole and George McGovern, were leaders in opposing political parties. While their politics differed in so many ways, they shared a zero tolerance for child hunger.

Presidential Leadership and the Millennium Development Goals

Under President George W. Bush's leadership, the U.S. government became the largest bilateral donor to the fight against HIV/AIDS. Although the President's Emergency Program for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR) drove progress on MDG 6—combating infectious diseases, including HIV/AIDS—the Bush administration was reluctant to talk about the MDGs. However, PEPFAR's success and the U.S. government's ongoing historic role in leading the world towards an HIV-free generation is, as Secretary of State Hillary Rodham Clinton pointed out, a role model and platform for other global health initiatives.[1]

Another of President Bush's signature aid programs is the Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC), an innovative U.S. foreign aid agency that has changed the conversation about how best to deliver U.S. assistance—primarily by its focus on good governance, country ownership, and results. The MCC was a direct response by the Bush administration to the MDGs. The MCC's mandate to reduce poverty through economic growth underpins progress on all of the MDGs.[2]

The MCC makes large-scale grants ("compacts") to developing countries that have established good governance and invest in their people. The compacts fund country-identified and country-led programs to reduce poverty through inclusive, sustainable economic growth. To date, MCC-funded programs have trained nearly 200,000 farmers and brought nearly 100,000 hectares of land under new, improved irrigation. In addition, more than 1,300 kilometers of roads have been constructed and approximately $80 million in agricultural loans has been disbursed.[3]

The longstanding bias against referring to the MDGs and its targets by name appears to be ending. In 2010, the Obama administration released a U.S. strategy to achieve the MDGs.[4] President Obama's two signature programs—Feed the Future and the Global Health Initiative—refer explicitly in their documentation to how they will contribute to achieving the MDGs. With its focus on women farmers and on reducing maternal and child malnutrition, Feed the Future is the centerpiece of U.S. global hunger and food security programs.

President Obama has taken a vigorous approach to rebuilding the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID), the government's lead development agency, and to making reforms in the development assistance bureaucracy. U.S. development assistance programs are spread across more than two dozen agencies and lack of coordination has been a longstanding problem. The President's Policy Directive on Global Development (PPD), the first such directive in U.S. history, was issued in 2010 and attempts to create more coherence.[5]

UN Photo/Mark Garten

Leaders of the 8 major industrialized countries (G-8), including the Secretary-General of the United Nations attend a working breakfast meeting on the Impact of the Global Financial Crisis on Africa.

The PPD frames development as one of the three pillars of the president's national security strategy, alongside diplomacy and defense. This was in accordance with the Bush administration's emphasis on development assistance as part of its national security strategy. Robert Gates, who served as Secretary of Defense under both presidents, called development assistance the best value for the dollar in promoting U.S. national security.[6]

It is always important to remind people that, in Secretary Gates' words, "Development is a lot cheaper than sending soldiers," but development should also be an end in itself. Helping families escape poverty and build better lives for themselves is one of the highest expressions of U.S. goodwill towards developing countries.

Allocations of resources to development assistance plummeted after the end of the Cold War; apparently, the collapse of the Soviet Union made the fight against global hunger and poverty a lower priority for the United States. This changed dramatically once again in the 2000s, partly because of the MDGs but also because of September 11, 2001. The phasing out of U.S. military operations in Afghanistan must not be accompanied by a cut in development assistance as occurred in many countries after the Cold War.

New Alliances to Defeat Hunger and Poverty

On the eve of the 2012 G-8 meeting at Camp David, President Obama gave a stirring speech in which he stated, "As the wealthiest nation on Earth, I believe the United States has a moral obligation to lead the fight against hunger and malnutrition, and to partner with others."[7] The president used the speech to announce the formation of the New Alliance for Global Food Security and Nutrition. President Obama convinced the G-8 governments to continue to increase agricultural development assistance as they committed to doing at his first G-8 Summit in 2009. The U.S. government also recruited new money from international corporations. Forty-five companies committed to invest $3 billion in African agriculture and nutrition.

"Sustainable development depends on the capacity of local stakeholders: governments, NGOs, and the private sector."

The New Alliance has an ambitious goal—to raise 50 million people out of poverty in 10 years. The initiative will start in three African countries, building on their potential for rapid agricultural growth.[8] Attending the president's speech were the heads of state from the three countries—Ethiopia, Tanzania, and Ghana. These countries were chosen on the basis of the investment plans they have developed, their governments' proven commitment to reducing poverty, and new agreements to facilitate the role of the private sector in agricultural development. The vision of the New Alliance includes expanded contributions from domestic as well as international businesses.

Public-private partnerships such as the New Alliance are bound to make some people nervous. Businesses are driven primarily by the profit motive. Will they necessarily help to achieve the MDGs? On the other hand, many of Africa's democratically elected leaders are eager for private sector development. They want their countries to achieve the sort of economic gains South Korea and Vietnam have achieved, and they believe that a vibrant private sector is crucial.

BREAD FOR THE WORLD AND THE MODERNIZING FOREIGN ASSISTANCE NETWORK

Bread for the World has pushed for improvements in U.S. foreign assistance. An important part of Bread's work on this has been within the Modernizing Foreign Assistance Network (MFAN). MFAN has succeeded in mobilizing support for reform on both sides of the aisle in Congress, and in building broad support for reform principles among the many U.S. nongovernmental groups that work to influence U.S. assistance (often in particular sectors).

The Obama administration has implemented some of the reforms which MFAN has advocated. These include an administration-wide strategy for development cooperation; State Department diplomatic support for development initiatives; increased authority and staffing for USAID; improved systems of transparency and evaluation; and processes to make USAID programs more responsive to local priorities.

We call for rigorous monitoring and evaluation of the partnerships because of such legitimate concerns. The article on page 68 in Chapter 2 suggests principles to guide public-private partnerships. For example, corporations that benefit from partnerships with governments should build the capacity of local businesses. Sustainable development depends on the capacity of local stakeholders: governments, NGOs, and the private sector.

Bono, the Irish rock star and activist, endorsed the New Alliance and said he hoped it would signal "the death of the traditional donor-recipient relationship."[9] Time will tell if this is indeed a death knell. The demise of the traditional donor-recipient relationship has been happening in slow motion for more than a decade, starting with the MDGs and the recognition by donors and recipients alike that the old way of doing development wasn't capable of achieving them.

Figure 2.9 **Zero Hunger Challenge**

Source: UN, 2012

U.S. Leadership Beyond 2015

At the U.N. Conference on Sustainable Development (Rio+20) in summer 2012, the United States agreed to start an intergovernmental process by the fall of 2012 to review how a new set of global development goals will be considered in the post-2015 framework. A new round of global development goals should include a bull's-eye goal: the end of extreme poverty and hunger.

During Rio+20, U.N. Secretary General Ban Ki-moon issued a Zero Hunger Challenge, inviting all countries to "work for a future where every individual has adequate nutrition and where all food systems are resilient."[10] (See Figure 2.9.) He called on all nations to work together to end global hunger. The Zero-Hunger Challenge (and a Zero-Poverty Challenge to go with it) should be folded into the post-2015 development framework.

"The MDGs will expire and a new set of goals will be decided on this administration's watch."

The U.S. government is poised to lead this effort. In 2013, a newly-elected president and Congress will take office. The MDGs will expire and a new set of goals will be decided on this administration's watch. As the 2013 Hunger Report goes to press, we do not know the winner of the 2012 presidential election, but leadership from the White House will be important regardless of the outcome.

At the start of any administration, expectations are high for U.S. leadership in the global arena. Historically, U.S. leadership in the fight against global hunger is unparalleled. Building on U.S. leadership in the fight against global hunger, the administration should seize this opportunity and embrace the Secretary General's Zero-Hunger Challenge.

Laura Elizabeth Pohl

The Future of U.S. Development Cooperation

Chapter Summary

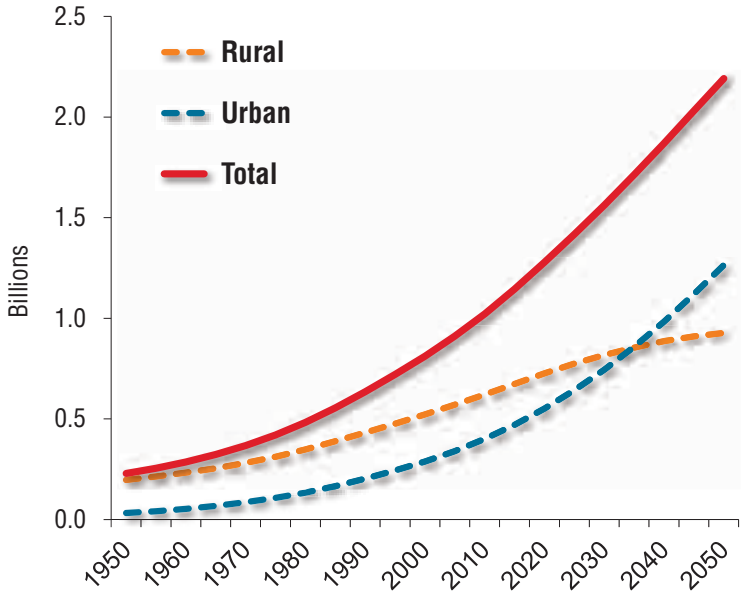
This chapter makes the case for U.S. engagement with other countries—developed, emerging, and developing—to promote a pro-poor development agenda beyond 2015, the deadline for the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The fact that most of the world's poor now live in middle-income countries raises complicated questions about how the United States forms bilateral and multilateral partnerships to reduce poverty and hunger. Sub-Saharan Africa, the poorest region in the world, is experiencing rapid population growth. The MDGs downplayed the important role of jobs in reducing poverty, but job creation is particularly important for countries with burgeoning youth populations. Hunger and poverty in Latin America is a key reason for unauthorized immigration to the United States, so it is a glaring blind spot that U.S. policy in the Western Hemisphere essentially ignores this relationship. Climate change is now aggravating economic and social problems in countries on the southern doorstep of the United States. The future of U.S. development cooperation everywhere will have to put greater emphasis on sustainability. Despite new and old challenges, it is possible to eliminate global hunger and poverty by 2040. It is not possible, however, without committed leadership and good governance at all levels. Leadership at the national level is particularly important, and the United States and the rest of the global community should champion strategies that support fledgling leadership wherever it appears.

MAIN RECOMMENDATIONS IN THIS CHAPTER

- The United States should support efforts in developing countries to provide productive employment to large and growing youth populations.
- U.S. partnerships with major immigrant-sending countries in Latin America should respond to poverty and hunger as primary causes of unauthorized immigration.
- A post-2015 global development framework must address climate change within the context of a clear overall focus on poverty.
- A global development framework should explicitly support good governance, effective leadership, and the institutions that make them possible.
- U.S. partnerships with middle-income countries should be pro-poor in emphasis.
- The United States should work cooperatively with middle-income countries to provide development assistance in low-income countries.

As the 2015 deadline for the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) rapidly approaches, a process is under way to draft and negotiate a successor framework and global development goals. It is critical that a post-2015 framework emerges that has widespread acceptance of shared goals. A consensus on global development goals will leave an indelible imprint on the development agenda for the next 10, 15, or perhaps 25 years, redefining priorities just as the MDGs have done. The world is dramatically different now than in 2000, when the MDGs were launched, and the challenges are different, or at least better understood. This should guide the next set of goals and the post 2015 development priorities.

Figure 3.1 **Africa's Total, Rural, and Urban Population**



Source: UN Population Division, 2011

The MDGs helped focus attention on the absolute necessity of reducing rural poverty. The fact that poor countries are rapidly urbanizing cannot divert attention from rural poverty. The rapid pace of urbanization is a sign of the unmet development needs in rural communities and to some extent how the development agenda of the MDGs is far from complete. One of the biggest challenges of the 21st century is to ensure that the world can produce enough food to feed everyone and that everyone has access to sufficiently nourishing food. To accomplish this, the world needs productive farmers. In turn, agriculture must be seen as a viable way to make a living and rural areas need to be places where young people in particular want to live, rather than places they feel the need to escape.

Large and still-growing youth populations in developing countries, particularly those in sub-Saharan Africa, need jobs. However, in many countries, a large majority of would-be workers can't find jobs either in rural or urban areas. Creating jobs is primarily the responsibility of national governments and the private sector in the developing world. But policies in the United States and other rich countries should recognize the realities confronting young adults—and the potential being wasted by widespread youth unemployment among people in their most productive years.

There are an estimated
942 million working people—
nearly 1 in 3 workers worldwide—
living below $2 a day.[1]

Internationally,
2 out of every 5 migrants are
aged 18 to 29.[2]

National borders and the laws governing them are likely to become more contentious in the coming years as the global population continues to rise and climate change puts additional pressure on natural resources. We look at this convergence from the perspective of U.S. policy in the Western Hemisphere. Thus far, policymakers have been slow to make the connection between the impact of climate change and increasing numbers of immigrants and would-be immigrants. In neighboring countries, climate change is aggravating hunger and poverty due to the region's vulnerability to natural disaster, causing people to look north to the United States as a place to find work. Mexico and three Central American nations top the list of home countries of undocumented immigrants in the United States.

Kali Nine LLC

Millions of Central Americans have migrated to the United States in search of work and to provide their children with opportunities scarcely available where they'd come from.

Central America, while not as poor as Africa, is still quite poor and with highly unequal distributions of wealth. The robust economic growth of the 2000s in other parts of Latin America largely bypassed Central America.[1] Given the large size of the U.S. footprint on climate change, the United States bears some responsibility for helping its neighbors to weather the changes. Added to this question of basic fairness is the reality that, given its proximity, any losing battle to adapt to climate change in Central America would almost certainly affect the United States.

Improving governance is essential to further progress on development; "big issues" surrounding governance, political will, capacity, and leadership need to be thoughtfully incorporated into the approach to a new set of global development goals. The topic was conspicuously absent from the MDGs, which said in effect that it doesn't matter how countries reach targets as long as they get there. This may be good enough to cut hunger and poverty in half, or maybe more—but actually *eliminating* hunger and extreme poverty will mean dealing with difficult issues that stall progress.

The corrosive effects of government corruption are just one example of how governance problems undermine progress. Good governance, on the other hand, is an enabling condi-

tion and a prerequisite to lasting change. Good governance includes many elements, but the most relevant for reducing poverty have to do with creating space for a strong civil society that can hold governments accountable for making progress; building effective institutions to manage and deliver public services; and respecting the rule of law—for example, by protecting the rights of minorities and ensuring that people have recourse to redress for injustices. Most of the work to put these elements in place must be done by national governments and by civil society in developing countries. What the United States and other countries can do as a partner is set high expectations for levels of accountability and transparency. Additionally, they can provide technical know-how, strengthen global institutions that foster good governance and support leaders who want to govern well. The United States itself must be an example of good governance and continue to work towards becoming more transparent and accountable.

Myra Valenzuela

India's rapid economic growth over the last two decades has made it a middle-income country, yet much of the country's population lives below the international poverty line of $1.25 per day.

Two-thirds of the world's poor people live in middle-income countries. That's a much different scenario than in 1990, the baseline for MDG quantitative targets. (See Chapter 1, "Meet the New Bottom Billion," starting on page 41.) It's not that millions of poor people packed up and moved to middle-income countries over the past 20 years; rather, some of the countries with large numbers of poor people had sustained periods of economic growth, which has elevated them to middle-income status. Unfortunately, corresponding progress against hunger and poverty does not always accompany economic growth. Inequality comes into sharper focus in middle-income countries.

Significant progress against global hunger and poverty is simply not possible without focusing on India, whose 1.2 billion people include the largest number of poor and malnourished children of any one country. The U.S. relationship with India typifies the intricacies of working with middle-income countries to reduce poverty and hunger. The U.S. government has stated publicly that it wants to strengthen ties with India. There may well be other motives besides poverty reduction, but that doesn't mean that reducing poverty can't be incorporated into the process of strengthening ties. India doesn't want aid from the United States, but there are other ways to encourage progress. Strengthening ties might also include coordinating with India on efforts to reduce poverty elsewhere as India's role as a donor grows. This chapter will explore these issues and their implications for the post-2015 development agenda in greater detail.

Helping Young People in Africa to Find Productive Work

In Kampala, the teeming capital city of Uganda, motorcycle taxis (boda-bodas) rule the roads, darting dangerously around slower vehicles. A 2007 census reported 43,000 boda-bodas in Kampala,[2] a number that has surely increased since then as young people fleeing rural poverty continue to arrive in Kampala.

Transporting passengers by boda-boda is a common way for a young man to earn a living in Kampala, although it doesn't pay much—sometimes not enough to put a driver above the poverty line. With so many boda-bodas on the road, the men spend hours each day seated on their quiet machines off to the side of the road. They seem bored and perhaps frustrated by their lack of prospects.

Lauren Parnell Marino

Young men in Kampala, the capital city of Uganda, earn a living driving motorcycle taxis. Many have left rural areas to escape poverty, but find the conditions little better in the city.

Ending hunger is fundamentally about lifting people out of poverty. A 2009 World Bank report put Uganda's unemployment rate for rural youth (ages 15-24) at 83 percent.[3] Half the country's population is even younger than 15.[4]

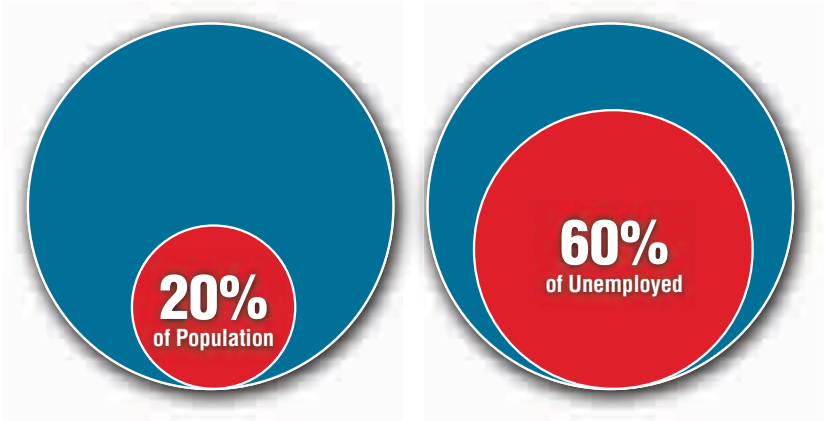
In parts of Asia, manufacturing drove rapid transformation of low-income economies, but the 1990s boom in manufacturing in developing countries bypassed much of Africa. Sub-Saharan countries are improving their primary school enrollment and completion rates, but they still lag well behind other regions of the developing world.[5]

If Uganda's young people can get the education and skills they need, and the country can create jobs for them, youthful energy and enthusiasm could mean a future with exciting possibilities. If this doesn't happen, however, the prospects for a country with ever increasing numbers of uneducated, unemployed young adults could be hampered by uncertainty and instability.

The death of Mohamed Bouazizi, a 26-year old Tunisian fruit vendor who set himself on fire in 2011, sparked outrage and protests in the country, fueled mostly by disgruntled youth like Bouazizi, jobless or underemployed, and frustrated by the Tunisian government's failure to address their grievances. [6] In a desperate move to save his regime, President Zine El Abidine visited Bouazizi at his hospital bed hours before he died. El Abidine pledged to establish a new youth employment program. It was too little, too late for this president, who had ruled the country since 1987.

The Arab Spring touched off a wave of hope and uncertainty, and the outcomes continue to play out. The Middle East and North Africa will have to create 20 million jobs in the next ten years to reduce the current unemployment rate of 25 percent down to 10 percent.[7] Many developing countries find themselves in a similarly delicate spot. Eighty-five percent of the world's youth live in developing countries.[8] Sub-Saharan countries face the greatest challenge. (See Figure 3.2.) The population of the region is projected to more than double, reaching close to 2 billion by 2050 and making it larger than China or India.[9]

Figure 3.2 **Sub-Saharan Youth Population, 18-24**



Source: Brookings Institution, 2012

Uganda has one of the world's highest population growth rates. At the current rate, the 35 million people presently in the country will grow to 70 million by 2031 and 100 million by 2040.[10] In all but the wealthiest quintile of the population, more than half of all girls are married before their 18th birthdays and begin to have children soon thereafter.[11] The average Ugandan woman gives birth to six or seven children, a statistic virtually unchanged since the 1970s.[12]

On the other side of the continent from Uganda is Ghana. Accra, the capital city, is also teeming with young people doing anything they can to earn a living. They walk across the highway by the toll plazas and at intersections, hawking anything they can get their hands on: freshly baked goods, fruit, electronics, maps, souvenirs, even underwear. As in Uganda, a large share of the capital's young people comes from the much poorer rural regions of the country. Ghana and Uganda have similarities but also some major differences.

Ray Martin, the Executive Director of Christian Connections for International Health, visited Ghana in 2011 and found people in Accra to be noticeably more upbeat than he remembered when he worked there in the 1970s as USAID's Chief Officer of Health, Population, and Nutrition. Ghana is the first sub-Saharan country to reach the MDG targets of cutting poverty and hunger in half by 2015, and recently, per-capita incomes have increased enough to classify Ghana as a lower-middle-income country.

"The rapid pace of urbanization is a sign of the unmet development needs in rural communities and to some extent how the development agenda of the MDGs is far from complete."

In the 1970s, Ghana's fertility rate was on par with Uganda's, but it has now fallen below four births per woman.[13] Generally, fertility rates in Africa's lower-middle-income countries are below the region's mean (now at five births per woman), while those of low-income countries are above the mean. In general, the poorer a country is, the higher its fertility rate.[14]

Reducing fertility rates was not part of the MDGs; Martin says that many of his public health colleagues who worked on family planning just couldn't fathom this omission.[15] One

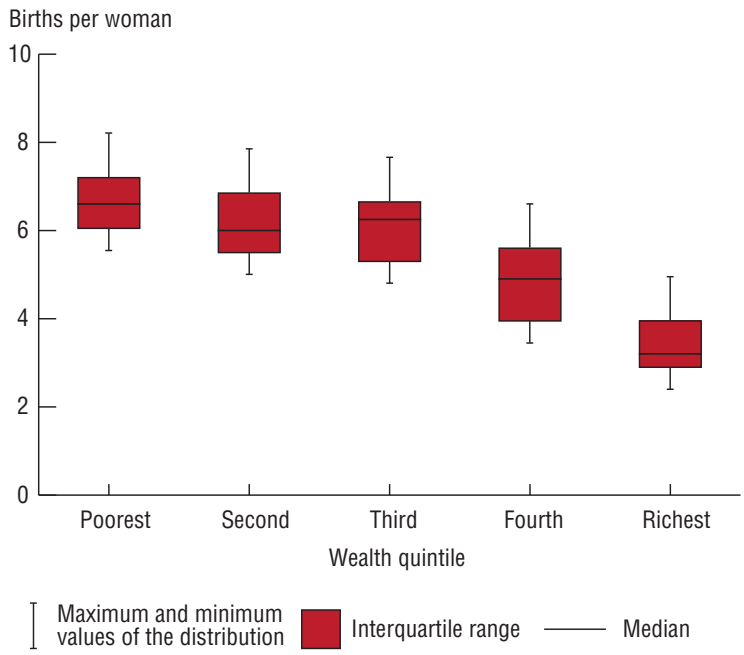
of the great triumphs of public health in the last half-century has been to increase life expectancies around the world. But without a corresponding focus on fertility rates, it was a pretty safe bet that the global population would increase more quickly as a result.

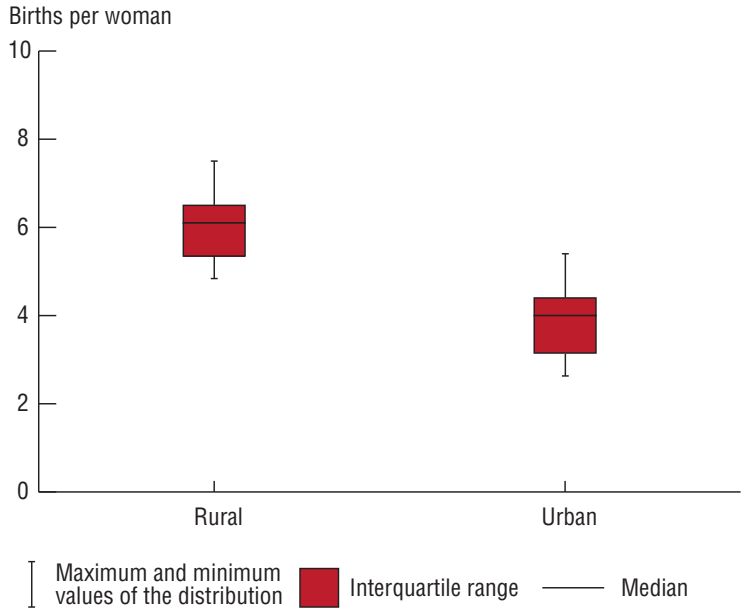
Martin says there is no definitive conclusion as to whether countries prosper because families have fewer children, or whether families have fewer children because they are prospering. But whichever direction the causality flows—or if it's a combination of both—the main point is that interventions that improve child survival rates work to reduce family size. Why? Because in poor families, parents count on children to support them in their old age. When parents don't have reason to feel confident that their children will survive to adulthood, or even to their fifth birthday, they tend to have more children as a form of insurance.[16]

Social protection programs, as discussed in the previous chapters, help by offering the insurance parents in poverty are looking for. Social protection programs should, at a minimum, focus on children under the age of 5 and pregnant and breastfeeding women.

The causes of hunger are complex, interrelated, and not always apparent at first glance. At the intersection of hunger and population growth is the topic of agricultural development. Sixty percent of the world's uncultivated land is in sub-Saharan Africa,[17] and the world needs that land to be as

Figure 3.3 **Fertility Rates in Sub-Saharan Africa are 90% Higher in the Poorest Quintile than in the Richest and 53% Higher in Rural Households than in Urban Households**





Note: Total fertility rate in 31 African countries, latest available data since 2000

Source: UNDP, 2012

productive as possible. Countries in the region could then meet more of their own food needs and export surplus to neighboring countries. The agricultural sector has the greatest potential to put young people to work, which would help to reduce the number of rural youth fleeing to the cities in hopes of finding jobs. But Africa's youth won't stay in rural areas to farm the land if they can't earn a living this way.

Investing in Africa's agricultural development—so that youth have good reason to see it as a viable way to earn a living—means working closely with local partners who not only understand but also credibly represent youth in rural communities. Victor Ochen, the executive director of the African Youth Initiative Network (AYINET), is an example of such a partner. AYINET operates in the war-ravaged communities of northern Uganda, where Ochen grew up and lived through the decades of internal conflict. These communities witnessed some of the worst atrocities of that brutal war. They were poor before the war and left in even worse shape when it ended. Households depend on subsistence farming and use little more than hand hoes as their only tools. This is a subsistence level existence made even more difficult by physical and psychological scarring from the war.

"If Uganda's young people can get the education and skills they need, and the country can create jobs for them, youthful energy and enthusiasm could mean a future with exciting possibilities."

In 2011, Ochen was awarded an Archbishop Desmond Tutu Fellowship, given to men and women representing a new generation of African leaders.[18] He isn't leaving rural Uganda, where the agricultural potential in the fertile north of the country is still largely undeveloped. If anyone can persuade others to stay, it will be Ochen and people like him. Ochen's achievements are particularly noteworthy considering how difficult it has been for AYINET to gain support from international partners, including the U.S. government.[19] It comes down to capacity—not to do the work of development—to meet the cumbersome requirements of donors. The obstacles he has encountered are not unique to AYINET.

Todd Post

Victor Ochen, the executive director of the African Youth Initiative Network, as a child narrowly escaped being kidnapped by the Lord's Resistance Army. One of his brothers was kidnapped and made a child soldier.

So far in this report, we have discussed how the U.S. government can help meet the MDGs by channeling more of its development assistance through the governments of partner countries. Less has been said about working with local civil society organizations such as AYINET in Uganda. Members of civil society are vital partners in making lasting progress against hunger and poverty. "Bypassing local organizations and governments defeats the purpose of aid—to help countries help themselves," says Oxfam America.[20] Through its "Implementation and Procurement Reform (IPR)" initiative, the U.S. government has committed to increasing its direct work with local organizations and reducing the share of aid tied to U.S. contractors. This is one of the most impressive steps the U.S. government has taken to support the concept of country ownership. Reducing the proportion of "tied" aid is one key way that the United States is following through on pledges it made in the *Paris Principles on Aid Effectiveness* and the *Accra Agenda for Action* to support achievement of the MDGs.[21] U.S.-based nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) have long-term relationships with local civil society groups, and these U.S. NGOs can help with capacity building. (See "Transitioning to Local Ownership" on page 110.)

TRAINING WOMEN FARMERS IN GHANA

The Development Action Association (DAA) provides training to women farmers in Ghana, working in some of the poorest communities in the country. Lydia Sasu is the executive director of DAA, which she co-founded in 1997. Before DAA, Ms. Sasu worked in Ghana's Ministry of Agriculture and served as the country's first female agriculture extension agent. Working with women farmers has been her life's work, shaped by her experiences as a child watching her mother struggle against obstacles that have hardly changed for the women she works with today.

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Lydia Sasu (on the right) presents Bread for the World Institute's Faustine Wabwire (on the left) with a banner of the Development Action Association (DAA), a token of appreciation for coming to Ghana and talking with women farmers that DAA has trained.

In spite of the success Ghana has had in reducing hunger—meeting the 2015 MDG target before any other country in sub-Saharan Africa—progress has not been shared equally by all. Rural women and girls are the most disadvantaged members of society. This remains true of Ghana, even though its record of progress on gender equality is stronger than that of many other African countries.[22] Progress on the MDGs is bound to stall until it is a top priority to confront and correct the structural inequalities that hold marginalized groups in society back.

In recent years, Sasu, now 65, has been invited to speak at international events on women in agriculture, most recently at the United Nations on International Women's Day 2012. U.N. Secretary General Ban Ki-moon has pledged to incorporate consultations with multiple stakeholders into efforts to develop post-2015 global development goals. Consultations are planned in 50 countries and are supposed to include civil society organizations such as DAA. The participation of civil society is critical in developing a post-2015 development consensus that reflects the views of poor and hungry people themselves.

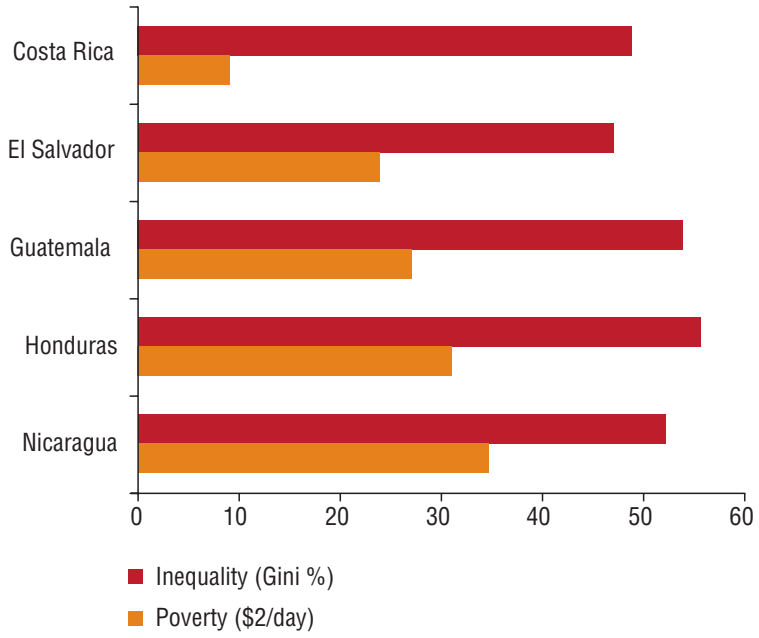
"It is crucial that grassroots civil society organizations like DAA play a central and meaningful role in framing the U.N. MDG post-2015 goals," says Ritu Sharma, president of Women Thrive Worldwide, one of the leading U.S. advocacy organizations on development issues. "It's important to emphasize that the participation we're talking about is from grassroots organizations, which is different than capital-based elite organizations in the [global] South which have some level of access to international processes."[23]

Building Resilience to Climate Change South of the U.S. Border

Prior to his election victory in November 2011, former military general President Otto Pérez Molina of Guatemala would not have seemed like the right person to lead his country's fight against malnutrition. His campaign slogan was "Mano Dura"—"firm hand."

The shocking levels of violence in Mexico draw more media attention in the United States, but Guatemala's murder rate is actually twice as high as Mexico's[24] —a likely reason for voters to be seeking a firm hand.[25] Guatemalans may have heard Pérez express concern about malnutrition, but they elected him because they believe he can clamp down on the rampant violence associated with narco-traffickers and other organized criminals.

Figure 3.4 **Poverty (Percentage of Total Population) and Inequality (Gini %) Ratios in Central America**



Source: Center for Global Development, 2012

While he was running for office, Pérez promised to reduce the country's malnutrition rate, the highest in the Western Hemisphere. Despite being a middle-income country, Guatemala has a persistently high chronic malnutrition rate—comparable to those of the poorest countries in Africa and Asia.[26] Estimates are that chronic malnutrition costs this small country $8.4 million *per day* in reduced productivity, extra hospitalizations, and poorer school performance.[27] In recent years, Guatemala's malnutrition crisis has received much more attention from within the country, largely because of the global momentum to reduce malnutrition amid strong evidence that it is a drag on the economies of entire countries. Guatemalan policymakers now view malnutrition as a problem that must be confronted aggressively.

Not coincidentally, Guatemala also has one of the highest levels of income inequality in the world.[28] One doesn't have to travel too far from the capital to see what this means for ordinary people. The country's middle-income status may be visible in the capital, but it quickly dissolves into rural landscapes of extreme poverty. Women carry goods atop their heads. They nurse young children as they continue to hoe or weed. Barefoot older children are at home cooking or out working instead of at school. Guatemala's large Native American population suffers a disproportionate share of poverty. Cultural differences aside, poor people, whether Latin American, African, or Asian, have coped in much the same way: subsistence agriculture.

Many Americans have seen Guatemala's poverty for themselves—the country receives nearly 2 million foreign visitors every year, most of them from the United States.[29] Easy transportation routes and affordability make it a popular tourist destination. While tourists may be sheltered from the country's poverty as they vacation in picturesque places like Antigua, many other Americans come as volunteers or missionaries to serve in poor communities. Tourism is Guatemala's second largest source of international currency, after remittances.[30]

"Guatemalan policymakers now view malnutrition as a problem that must be confronted aggressively."

In fact, many Americans who have never visited Guatemala are at least a little bit familiar with the country because they may have met a few of the many undocumented Guatemalan immigrants who are sending money home. There are more undocumented immigrants from Guatemala in the United States than from any other country except Mexico and El Salvador—an estimated 520,000 people in 2010.[31] In 2011, Guatemalans in the United States sent $4.37 billion back home in remittances.[32] That is ten times as much money as Guatemala receives in development assistance from the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID).[33]

This means that deporting undocumented immigrants en masse, as some favor, would be a significant blow to Guatemala's economy and particularly to its rural population. It would carry consequences on the U.S. side of the border as well. One alternative to immigration for young people without hope of a job, for example, is working for a drug cartel. Partners who support Guatemala's campaign against malnutrition worry that Pérez Molina's battle against narco-traffickers could consume his presidency, draining resources that are needed to reduce malnutrition.[34]

Immigration from Latin America is at the center of the debate on immigration policy in the United States—yet very little attention has been paid to the conditions that drive people in Latin America to enter the United States illegally. Migration as a coping strategy is not unique to Latin American immigrants in the United States. Around the world, people have escaped poverty by migrating to places where there is a better chance of earning a living. This includes the rural youth in Uganda mentioned earlier in this chapter, migrating to cities in search of opportunity, and it includes young people from village after village in Guatemala who head to the United States or sometimes to jobs on sugar and coffee plantations in Guatemala or Mexico. The

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With training she received as part of a USAID funded project, this Guatemalan woman can provide her son with foods rich in vitamins and minerals.

United States is a more popular destination—despite the risk of crossing the desert—because the plantations pay little more than they would be able to earn at home.

In Guatemala's Dry Corridor, near the Honduran border, Bread for the World Institute staff met a young man in his mid-20s who recently returned to his village after six years in the United States. He made his way from Arizona to Massachusetts, where he spent most of his stay working as a dishwasher in restaurants. He lived in an apartment with six other men who were also in the United States illegally. He speaks almost no English. Back in Guatemala, he stands alongside a new truck he purchased with the money he saved. With the truck, he can make a better living than he could have had he stayed at home. When we talk with him, he is waiting for family members who are receiving a new cook stove and instructions on how to assemble it. These stoves are being donated as part of a USAID food aid program. It's not just a matter of convenience: more children die of pneumonia every year than any other cause, and half of these deaths are due to trapped cooking smoke in poorly ventilated homes.[35]

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Villagers in Guatemala's Dry Corridor region receive cook stoves and training to assemble them. The stoves and training were provided through USAID.

The Dry Corridor is the site of this food aid program because, as its name implies, the region has been plagued by drought in recent years. Food production has faltered in several areas of the country that were already suffering from deep poverty. Remittances have helped many families purchase food, but ultimately, they are not enough. Central America's agricultural production is suffering from the effects of climate change. In some areas, it shows up as drought, while in others climate change brings severe storms. Weather-related disasters draw no distinction between knowledgeable, hard-working farmers and "other" farmers. In this situation, the best that food aid programs can do is to prevent the damage done to poor people from getting worse.

Guatemala joins a growing list of developing countries affected by climate change. It would certainly not be surprising if a post-2015 development agenda viewed through a climate change lens rose to the top of the agenda. And in fact, Guatemala, Colombia, and Peru proposed Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) for all countries at the 2012 Rio+20 meeting in Brazil (the "+20" honors the 20th anniversary of a historic meeting on sustainable development that also took place in Rio de Janeiro). See Box 3.2 to read more about the SDGs.

U.N. Secretary General Ban Ki-moon, who is leading the process of developing a post-2015 development agenda, has pledged to take up the SDG proposal when negotiations begin on

CAN SUSTAINABILITY AND POVERTY REDUCTION WORK IN ONE FRAMEWORK?

by Anna Wiersma

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) were proposed at the Rio+20 Summit in 2012 as one way to extend the work of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) beyond 2015. The SDGs are intended to compensate for the lack of focus on climate change, biodiversity loss, and other environmental problems missing from the MDG framework. Table 3.1 shows the proposed SDG focus areas alongside the existing MDGs.

The proposed SDG framework includes both opportunities and challenges for anti-poverty efforts. With any expansion of goals comes the risk of losing clarity and focus. Each of the MDGs has a direct link to the goal of ending poverty. The proposed SDG focus areas do not include important ways of fighting poverty—ways that go beyond simply providing food—such as education, empowering women, improving child and maternal health and nutrition, and fighting HIV/AIDS.

In spite of these concerns, elements of the SDG agenda could well enhance future anti-poverty efforts. Climate change affects poor people disproportionately, and feeding a rapidly rising global population will require more sustainable forms of agriculture.

Expanding the post-2015 development agenda to address the urgent problems posed by climate change and the need for sustainable food production should not come at the cost of losing the focus on key health, education, and equality issues or the overall clear anti-poverty message. Finding a balance that includes both these essential elements of the MDGs and the essentials of the SDG agenda is the challenge, particularly with numerous stakeholders already vying to shape the SDG agenda and the relationship between the SDGs and MDGs. But just as the MDGs brought global attention to the fight against poverty, the SDGs could serve as a platform for the need to act on climate change.

Anna Wiersma is a senior at Valparaiso University in Indiana pursuing a degree in international economics and cultural affairs. She was a summer 2012 intern in Bread for the World's government relations department.

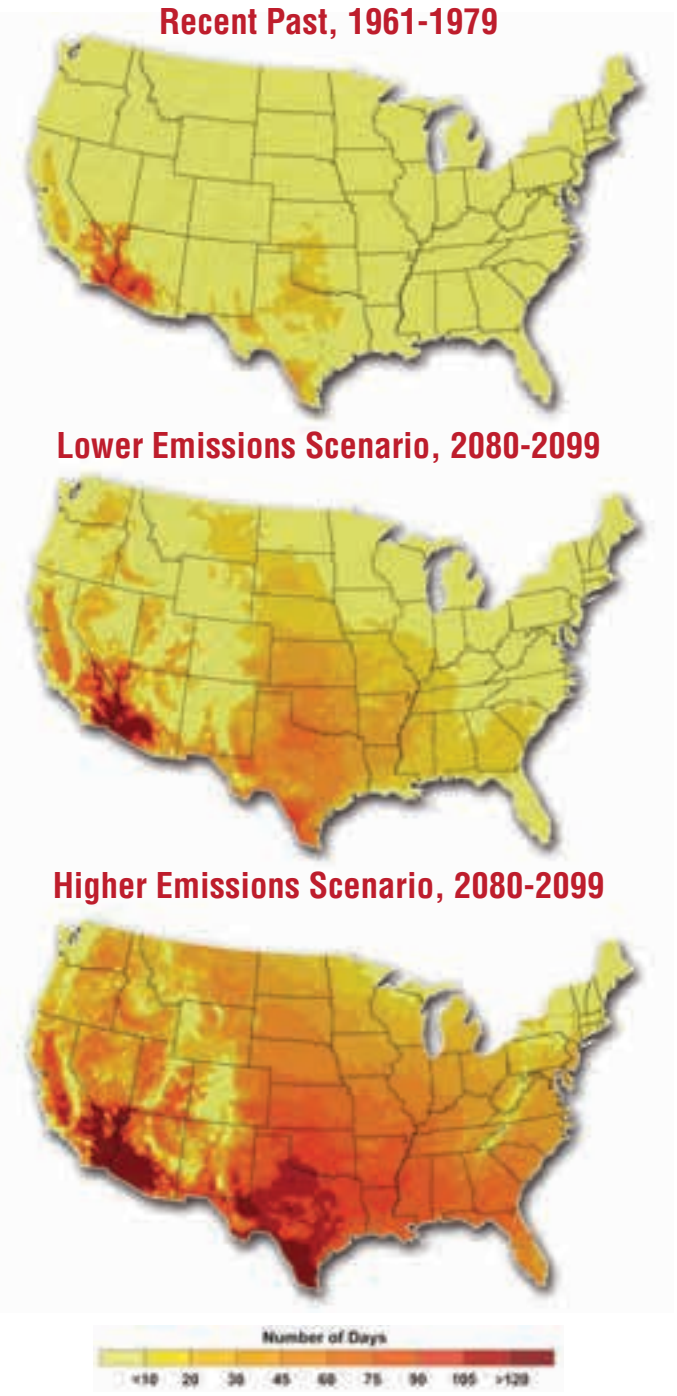
Table 3.1 **Proposed SDG Focus Areas vs. MDGs**

*Proposed SDG Focus Areas**	*Millennium Development Goals*
1. Green jobs, youth employment, and social inclusion	**1.** End poverty and hunger
2. Energy access, efficiency, sustainability	**2.** Achieve universal primary education
3. Food security and sustainable agriculture	**3.** Promote gender equality and empower women
4. Water	**4.** Reduce child mortality
5. Sustainable cities	**5.** Improve maternal health
6. Management of the oceans, fisheries, and other marine resources	**6.** Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases
7. Improved resilience and disaster preparedness	**7.** Ensure environmental sustainability
	8. Develop a global partnership for development

*As articulated by UN member states and major groups at Rio+20 summit.

Source: UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2012

Figure 3.5 **Number of Days Likely to Exceed 100°F by the End of this Century in Low and High Emissions Scenarios.**



Source: U.S. Global Change Research Program, 2009

the new set of goals.[36] For the United States, the SDGs could involve accepting greater responsibility for its role in climate change. As an initial step, the United States accepted the Rio+20 outcome consensus document, part of which sets up an intergovernmental process, beginning in fall 2012, to negotiate how the SDGs would be included in a new framework of development goals. The proposed SDGs include more than climate change—for example, sustainable food and water sources.

Frankly, the SDGs would be of far less value to the world without U.S. cooperation. As the country with the highest per-capita production of greenhouse gases, the United States arguably has an obligation to help nations that are now suffering the effects of its unsustainable emissions. Moreover, U.S. self-interest is now part of the climate change issue: if climate change continues at its current rate, the southern half of the United States could face significant reductions in agricultural output in the coming decades. (See Figure 3.5.)

Climate change is far from the only reason that so many Guatemalan children are chronically malnourished. If the droughts and storms suddenly became manageable again, and food aid was no longer needed, it would still be just the beginning of a difficult process of tackling the causes of malnutrition and developing sustainable solutions. Guatemala needs more than the SDGs to resolve its child malnutrition crisis. The United States is helping by supporting the Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN) movement. Guatemala is one of 30 developing countries[37] with a SUN Task Force that brings together government officials, civil society, the private sector, and bilateral and multilateral donors to expand proven strategies to improve nutrition among young children. In each country, the onus is on the government and the office of the president to ensure that the task force leverages contributions from all the stakeholders so that together, they are more effective than any one of them

THE NORTHERN TRIANGLE— AND JUST SOUTH OF THE BORDER

by Andrew Wainer

Immigrants from the Northern Triangle nations—Guatemala, El Salvador, and Honduras—sent home more than $10 billion in remittances in 2010—almost all of it from the United States.[38]

The Northern Triangle is one of the poorest regions in the Western Hemisphere. El Salvador, Guatemala, and Honduras are also, respectively, the second, third, and fourth largest countries of origin of unauthorized immigrants in the United States.[39]

Remittances dwarf foreign direct investment and overseas development aid.[40] In 2011, U.S. development agencies invested less than $250 million in foreign assistance in the three Northern Triangle countries.[41]

In El Salvador, one study found that 81 percent of remittances were spent on food and utilities.[42] The International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) states, "Families receiving remittances are—by virtue of the remittances—no longer among the poorest of the poor."[43]

"U.S. development assistance could help build capacity and a policy environment that emphasizes productive channels for remittances."

The U.S. Agency for International Development's (USAID's) engagement with the migration/development connection and the creation of alternative uses for remittances in Central America is limited. USAID does, however, state the importance of diaspora groups in development on its website: "Although diaspora community engagement with home countries is substantial, the developmental potential for this group remains largely untapped. USAID recognizes that by not engaging with this community, we are missing out on an opportunity to increase our development impact significantly."[44]

Most of USAID's diaspora-focused economic development initiatives are part of its African Diaspora Marketplace program. This initiative links U.S.-based African diaspora entrepreneurs with businesses in Africa, with the goal of generating economic growth and employment.[45] USAID has not taken this approach in Central America, even though the Central American diaspora in the United States is almost twice as large as the African diaspora.[46]

U.S. development assistance could help build capacity and a policy environment that emphasizes productive channels for remittances. Recipients who want to invest in businesses and agricultural production often don't know how to do so.

The Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC), which finished a $205 million four-year compact in Honduras in 2010 and is finishing its compact in El Salvador in 2012, recognizes the link between migration and development, but it has yet to integrate migration into compacts in the region. The discussions surrounding potential renewal of the MCC compacts in El Salvador and Honduras come at an opportune time to consider the possible inclusion of remittances in development plans.

Since USAID is already working with multilateral organizations, such as IFAD, that have deep experience with remittances, there is a strong foundation for incorporating the use of remittances in USAID's rural development strategy in the Northern Triangle. The Feed the Future programs in Guatemala and Honduras could also formally include alternative uses of remittances in their rural development plans.

Andrew Wainer is the senior immigration analyst in Bread for the World Institute. This article is excerpted from a briefing paper he published in June 2012, [Exchanging People for Money: Remittances and Repatriation in Central America.]

could be operating alone. Read more about the SUN movement in Chapter 2, page 74.

Guatemala's success in achieving the MDGs depends mainly on what Guatemalans do. But the United States can provide much-needed support through development and emergency relief programs, improved immigration policies, and by reducing its greenhouse gas emissions. These actions are based on the realization that the wellbeing of other countries in the Western Hemisphere has a lot to do with the wellbeing of the United States. They would help to create stability in the region, strengthen markets for U.S. goods and services, reduce immigration, and prevent desperate people from risking their lives to cross the U.S. border or resorting to narco-trafficking as the only means of supporting their families.

Promoting Good Governance and Leadership Development

The MDGs did not include specific reference to the issue of governance. Had it been included, this would almost certainly have jeopardized the universal support the goals enjoyed when they were adopted in 2000. It was important for the MDGs not to be a threat to government leaders. We mentioned this earlier in the report, but it bears repeating. The MDGs were developed by rich countries within the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). Developing countries had limited involvement in their creation, so they had little ownership of the goals initially.

UN Photo/Staton Winter

Liberian polling staff prepare ballots before inviting citizens into a polling station to vote in their country's constitutional referendum.

By 2015, the time may be right to propose a more ambitious framework for the post-MDG period, one that draws attention to the role of good governance in supporting development. Members of civil society, a sector intimately involved in working to achieve the MDGs, know all too well how poor governance undermines development and hurts poor people the most.

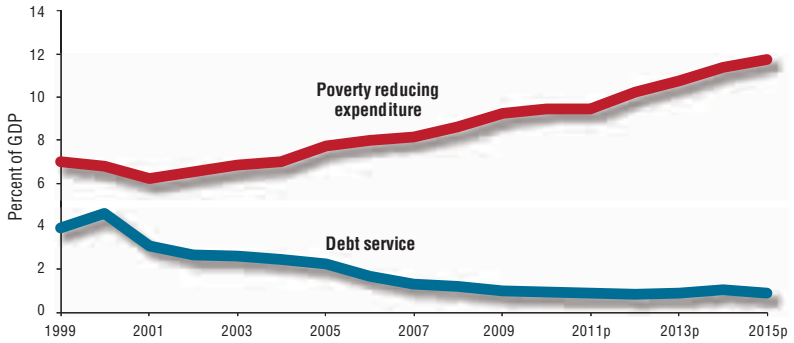
This report recommends that a new set of global development goals includes a bull's-eye target: to eliminate hunger and poverty in all countries by 2040. This historic achievement is possible if countries are prepared to tackle the most difficult problems that stand in the way. One of these is government corruption—the epitome of poor governance. Corruption siphons off resources needed to provide services to poor people and equip them to improve their lives. Each time poor people are forced to pay bribes, they are stripped of the little income they have. Corruption also leads to the misuse of government resources that should serve the public good. Corrupt officials, wherever in the

system they may be, undermine confidence in government institutions and the very idea of government itself.

Some people presume that corruption is an insurmountable problem, and may even dismiss it as part of "human nature." Change is possible. It requires strong leadership and the cultivation of leaders at the highest levels of government.

In sub-Saharan Africa, a new generation of leaders appears committed to reshaping the region's image from a nadir of corruption into an environment where the rule of law will ultimately win out. Fueling this effort is democratization. Authoritarian rule still flourishes in Africa, but the number of democratically elected governments has risen dramatically—from only three in 1989 to 23 in 2008.[47] Leaders across the region are expanding political and civil rights, respecting freedom of the press, and strengthening the institutions that are necessary to fight corruption.[48] The African countries with democratic governments are, in general, also achieving high rates of economic growth and undisputed improvements in health and education.

Figure 3.6 **Average Poverty Reducing Expenditure and Debt Service in Highly Indebted Poor Countries (HIPCS)**



Source: World Bank, 2011

Partnerships forged through the MDGs have supported these changes. Debt relief, for example, allowed leaders to invest more of their own resources in reducing poverty. In countries that received debt relief, spending aimed at poverty reduction increased by an average of more than 3 percent per year between 2001 and 2010.[49] (See Figure 3.6.) Thanks to the Jubilee debt-relief campaign, the World Bank encouraged public consultations with civil society about how the resources freed up by debt relief would be used. These consultations encouraged the trend toward democracy in Africa, and they led to new anti-corruption measures in some countries.

"Corruption siphons off resources needed to provide services to poor people and equip them to improve their lives."

With citizens at home paying closer attention, and their neighbors also watching, several leaders are intent on meeting higher standards of accountability. John Kufuor, president of Ghana from 2000 to 2008, was the 2011 co-laureate of the World Food Prize. He earned the prize for his leadership in making Ghana the first sub-Saharan country to achieve both MDG 1 targets: reducing hunger and poverty by half. Ghana's reputation among its neighbors, Kufuor explained, influenced his government's actions at home: "Along the way we became aware that most of the neighbor countries looked up to Ghana. We felt self-conscious to get it right. We talked about legality and constitutionality. Preaching this elsewhere, we couldn't practice differently at home. Feeling accountable to those around us contributed to the practice of good governance over the last decade."[50]

In Africa, regional integration is essential to continued progress against poverty,[51] and, of course, such integration requires a high level of trust among countries. A basic phenomenon such as peer pressure could go a long way towards promoting good governance. As discussed in Chapter 2, the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) and the Comprehensive African Agricultural Development Program (CAADP) are African-led multinational initiatives that include efforts to promote better governance. Through CAADP, African leaders pledged to work together to enhance overall food security on the continent. NEPAD covers a much broader agenda of issues, through which countries can work together to reduce poverty and promote sustainable development—for example, finding solutions to the problem of formal and informal trade barriers between countries. This is particularly important because Africa's ticket to poverty reduction and economic growth through trade needs to include increased trade with neighboring countries as well as markets farther away.[52]

UN Photo/Albert Gonzalez Farran

In March 2011, women in the city of El Fasher, North Darfur, gathered to celebrate International Women's Day.

It remains to be seen whether governments are prepared to address difficult "cultural" questions standing in the way of progress against poverty—for example, discrimination against women or disadvantaged ethnic groups. Every country, regardless of income, has such problems woven into its social fabric. The development framework itself can offer legitimacy for taking action. The MDGs emerged out of the *Millennium Declaration*, which called attention to six fundamental values intrinsic to development: freedom, equality, solidarity, tolerance, respect for nature, and shared responsibility.[53] Every country agreed to support these. But somewhere along the way from the *Millennium Declaration* to the MDGs, these values began to disappear from the discussion. Like governance, they were largely left out of the final language and targets—likely for the same reason, to avoid jeopardizing consensus on the MDGs as a whole. Many civil society groups favor a *Millennium Declaration*-like set of guiding principles for post-MDG global development goals—and this time not just for show.[54]

Global institutions such as the new Open Government Partnership create a platform for governments to build better partnerships by demonstrating their commitment to good governance. To participate, national governments must agree to meet a set of minimum eligibility criteria on fiscal transparency, access to information, public disclosure about public officials, and engagement with citizens. The founding members were the United States and seven other countries: Brazil, Indonesia, Mexico, Norway, the Philippines, South Africa, and

the United Kingdom.[55] Signatories now include the governments of more than 50 countries, which together include more than a quarter of the global population.

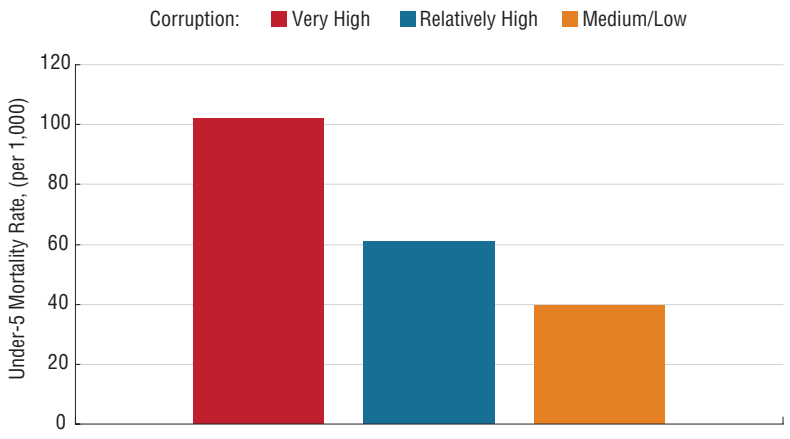
At the opening session of the 2012 meeting of the Open Government Partnership, U.S. Secretary of State Hillary Rodham Clinton said that the greatest difference between countries in the 21st century is "those that are open and those that are closed."[56] Recognizing the aspirational quality of openness and the fact that countries are starting now from vastly different positions, countries are almost certain to move at different speeds and need different levels of support—just as they have when it comes to the MDGs.

The Open Government Partnership is a young initiative and it is too soon to offer an opinion as to how it will affect global governance standards. Suffice to say that it could potentially make a big contribution to helping countries achieve the MDGs. "Open government is not just about allowing individual access to budget execution data," says Jorge Hage, who represents the Brazilian government, which along with the United States co-chairs the Open Government Partnership. "It is about establishing a permanent two-way channel for communication between governments and society."[57]

In the end, there are limits to what donors can do to promote, much less insist on, good governance. They can give developing countries more control over how to use their assistance as a carrot in exchange for improvements in governance.

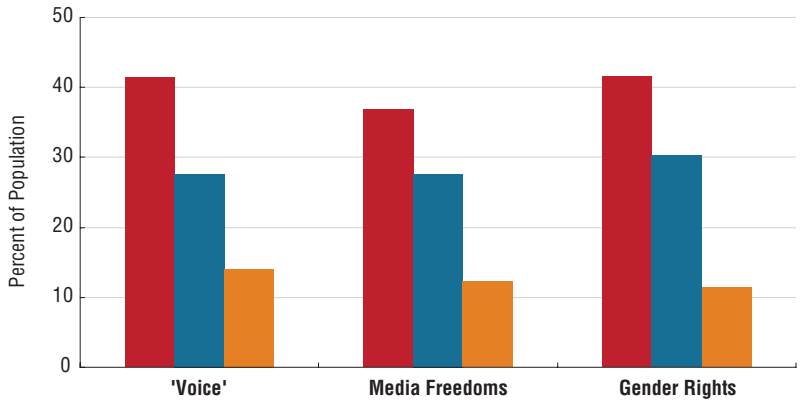
The Millennium Challenge Corporation, a U.S. government assistance program established during the Bush administration, provides grants to fund country-led poverty reduction plans for low- and middle-income countries whose governments demonstrate a commitment to good governance. If a government reneges

Figure 3.7 **Control of Corruption & Infant Mortality Rate, 2001-2008**
(Developing Country Sample, Excluding Oil Rich Countries)



Source: Brookings Institution, 2010

Figure 3.8 **Governance and $1.25 a day Poverty**
(Developing Country Sample, Excluding Oil Rich Countries)



Source: Brookings Institution, 2010

on this commitment, as some have, the aid is suspended. This happened recently in Mali, following a 2012 coup that toppled a democratically elected government. Earlier, it happened in Honduras.

Another option is for donors to help build the capacity of citizens and civil society groups in developing countries to hold their governments accountable for development outcomes and assistance. In Bangladesh, for example, CARE International was administering an agricultural project in a remote village funded by U.S. development assistance. Local people were aware that services available elsewhere were not reaching them. CARE International helped them develop strategies to better advocate on their own behalf. Previously, they had not demanded attention from local officials. When the phone numbers of more than a dozen officials were posted on a board in the center of the village so that every household had access to them, people did not hesitate to begin calling officials with their complaints. And they continued to call until they received a satisfactory response and services started to improve.[58]

"Donor governments generally have few qualms about criticizing governance in developing countries, but they are more circumspect about their own performance."

The new president of the World Bank, Jim Yong Kim, is promoting an innovative bank program to strengthen accountability. The Global Partnership for Social Accountability was developed in the wake of the Arab Spring under Kim's predecessor, Robert Zoellick.[59] The Bank will fund capacity building among civil society groups that push for effective government programs. Each country's government needs to agree to participate in the program, but cannot veto specific grants.

Table 3.2 **Policy Options for Empowering the Food Insecure**

	STABILITY OF FOOD SYSTEMS		
POLICY OPTION	**AVAILABILITY OF FOOD**	**ACCESS TO FOOD**	**USE OF FOOD**
Access to information and knowledge	• Information and communication technology • Innovations in farm technologies	• New technology, especially to reduce the time burden on women and increase equality of access to information • Basic education	
Voice and participation	• Producer organizations • Gender-sensitive participatory methods for varietal selection and breeding	• Targeted cash transfer programs • Civil society organizations	
Social justice and accountability	• Social audits • Accountable institutions • Rights and guarantees, especially for women • Access and control over land, with a focus on women • Media freedoms		

Source: UNDP, 2012

Donor governments generally have few qualms about criticizing governance in developing countries, but they are more circumspect about their own performance.[60] Their own reviews often conclude that they have fallen short of honoring commitments that they made at international meetings to improve their aid programs.[61] Chapter 2 devotes considerable attention to the question of how the foreign aid system itself is governed, and the obligations of donors to improve it.

All countries should be held to high standards of governance. Indeed, corruption is not limited to poor countries. All countries can improve government transparency, accountability and efficiency. High-income countries themselves should strive to improve governance.

UN Photo/Rick Bajornas

Jim Yong Kim, President of the World Bank, addresses the high-level meeting on the Sahel being held on the margins of the U.N. General Assembly's general debate in 2012.

Pro-Poor Partnerships with Middle-Income Countries

In January 2012, President Obama announced that U.S. security priorities "will of necessity rebalance towards the Asia-Pacific region."[62] In the same speech, the president said that the United States "is investing in a long-term strategic partnership with India"[63] and referred to India as "an economic and security anchor" in the region.

The president's remarks make sense in light of the U.S. government's strategic foreign policy objectives. As the war in Afghanistan winds down, the visible U.S. presence in the geopolitically important South Asia region will diminish, but American interests remain. Not only is Afghanistan in the Indian subcontinent, but between India and Afghanistan is Pakistan. Ongoing border disputes make India's relationship with Pakistan a tense one, with India's military on high alert. These two nations possess nuclear weapons and have a history of conflict, making the Indo-Pakistani border one of the most dangerous spots in the world.

"India is an aid donor itself; it partners with some countries that are also supported by the United States."

The United States also has economic reasons to build a strong partnership with India. India is an emerging economic power, a G-20 nation, and one of the so-called BRICS. Together the BRICS—Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa—generated 50 percent of global economic growth in the last decade.[64] With more than 1 billion consumers, India is a vast market for U.S. exports; because of the country's rapid growth over the past two decades, there is already a large and well-established middle class. In 2011, 80 percent of all foreign direct investment in South Asia went to India.[65]

If India were making progress on the MDGs at a rate commensurate with its rapid economic growth, the whole world would be significantly closer to achieving the 2015 targets.

Sadly, this is not the case. India leads all other countries in the number of women and children dying each year of preventable causes. It has the highest number of malnourished children and the highest number of people living in poverty. India lags far behind China and Brazil—also emerging economic powers—in reducing hunger. China and Brazil have already met the MDG target of halving hunger by 2015, but at its current rate of progress, India will not halve hunger until 2042.[66]

"If India were making progress on the MDGs at a rate commensurate with its rapid economic growth, the whole world would be significantly closer to achieving the 2015 targets."

Corruption is widely acknowledged as a problem in India.[67] India scores poorly compared to the other BRICS, with the exception of Russia, on Transparency International's latest Corruption Perception Index (CPI).[68] According to their CPI scores, a number of African countries are perceived as less corrupt than India. India initially signed onto the Open Government Partnership, but withdrew on the eve of its launch in 2011.[69] The United States has little leverage to change the Indian government's policies. But the United States can ill afford *not* to engage with India, regardless of its score on the CPI.

The United States/China relationship is often described as the single most important bilateral relationship in the world, the "G-2," but when it comes to development goals, there is far more scope for a U.S. partnership with India. China is well on its way to eliminating extreme poverty and hunger. While some Indian states have met MDG targets, much more progress is needed in others if the nation as a whole is to reach the targets by 2015.[70] Within

Figure 3.9 **Most Populous Countries, 2012 and 2050**

2012

COUNTRY	POPULATION (MILLIONS)
China	1,350
India	1,260
United States	314
Indonesia	241
Brazil	194
Pakistan	180
Nigeria	170
Bangladesh	153
Russia	143
Japan	128

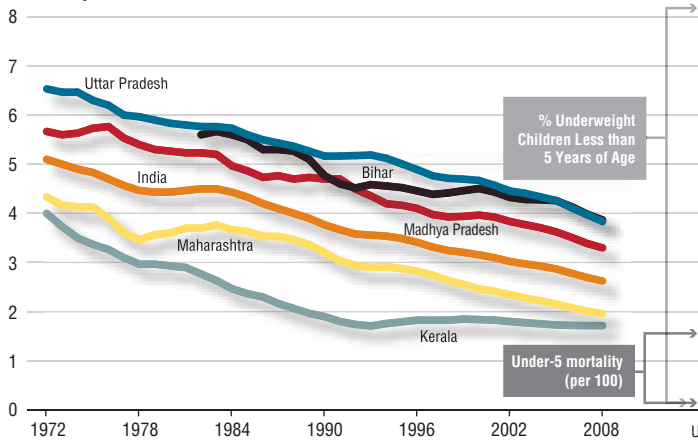
2050

COUNTRY	POPULATION (MILLIONS)
India	1,691
China	1,311
United States	423
Nigeria	402
Pakistan	314
Indonesia	309
Bangladesh	226
Brazil	213
Congo, Dem. Rep.	194
Ethiopia	166

Source: Population Reference Bureau, 2012

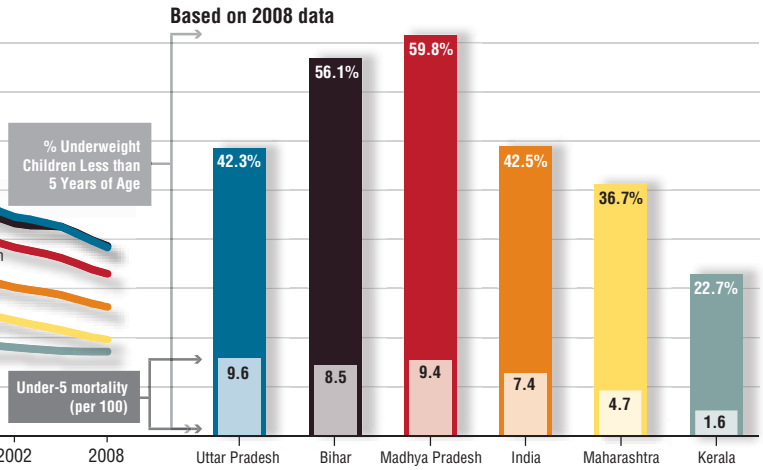
Figure 3.10

Total Fertility Rates, India and Selected States, 1972-2008



Source: Population Reference Bureau, 2011

% Underweight Children Less than 5 Years of Age, Under-5 mortality rate (per 100)



Source: *India State Hunger Index Comparison of Hunger Across States*, 2008

20 years, India is expected to overtake China as the most populous country (See Figure 3.9), with populations in the poorest states growing the fastest. Until these states share more equally in the progress made by the rest of the country, India's prospects for achieving the MDGs at a national level are a long way off.[71]

We are looking at the U.S. bilateral relationship with India as an important example of the issue of middle-income countries where a large share of the population is not sharing in the benefits of economic growth. One could look at a country like India, with its enormous development challenges, and assume that its partnership with the United States could only be a traditional aid-recipient/donor relationship—yet this paradigm is outdated. Civil society groups doing work in India can and do receive support from the United States. The United States is also able to support pro-poor development in India through multilateral institutions like the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank. The United States is a member of, and a donor to, each of these.[72] The multilateral banks can also engage with the Indian government in policy dialogue and urge policy improvements. The Indian government would not be as open to listening to policy advice from the U.S. government.

"India has made little progress in reducing malnutrition in the last ten years, and in 2008, Prime Minister Manmohan Singh called the country's 40 percent child malnutrition rate a national 'curse.'"

India can and is financing its own poverty reduction programs. In 2010, for example, the Indian government invested $9 billion in a national rural employment program. The program guarantees 100 days of wage employment in a year and requires that 33 percent of the participants be women. India is using the program to build infrastructure such as roads and water conservation structures.[73] India also appears to be on the verge of passing

a National Food Security Act, which would establish the world's largest social protection system. Under the new law, 180 of India's 240 million households would gain the right to subsidized rations.[74] Indian civil society organizations are lobbying the legislature to use the new law to create stronger linkages between food security and nutrition security. India has made little progress in reducing malnutrition in the last ten years, and in 2008, Prime Minister Manmohan Singh called the country's 40 percent child malnutrition rate a national 'curse.'[75]

Myra Valenzuela

India's own development challenges show up clearly in primary education, where standards vary dramatically and in some parts of the country are as low as Afghanistan and Yemen, war-town countries near the bottom of the Human Development Index.

India is an aid donor itself; it partners with some countries that are also supported by the United States. India is one of Afghanistan's largest donors and it works with many countries in sub-Saharan Africa.[76] In March 2012, the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) and India signed a partnership agreement designed to accelerate progress towards MDG targets through "South-South cooperation." At the signing ceremony, the UNDP Administrator, Helen Clark, praised India's "vast and rich experience in designing and implementing development solutions, engaging citizens, and strengthening local capacities, which are valuable to other developing countries."[77]

South-South partnerships are likely to gain increasing influence in the post-MDG era. India was invited to participate in the Fourth High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness, held in Busan, South Korea in 2011, along with other countries, such as China and Brazil, which make up a burgeoning class of nontraditional bilateral donors. None had been invited to the first, second, or third Forums. As discussed in more detail in Chapter 2, these donors relate to their developing country partners much differently than traditional donors. At Busan, it was past time for traditional donors to recognize the contributions of new donors.

The United States and other traditional donors are still exploring how to work with new donors. At Busan, traditional and nontraditional donors agreed to essentially maintain their divergent approaches to assistance for the time being. Donors with different approaches, such as the United States and India, can find common ground in efforts to help low-income countries reach MDG targets. Partnering with India to help other countries achieve the MDGs could be an attractive aspect of the growing partnership between India and the United States. The goals are an outcome that all donors accept in principle. The United States is by far the largest donor, but for all the resources it deploys to fight hunger and poverty, it lacks an ingredient that countries such as India possess: recent experience with poverty and hunger on the order of the levels in very poor countries. This is about more than empathy; as Helen Clark described, it is about an expertise in solving problems that comes from having confronted the same problems oneself.

"Donors with different approaches, such as the United States and India, can find common ground in efforts to help low-income countries reach MDG targets."

Partnerships to address the most difficult development challenges are changing in other ways—for example, by incorporating private sector efforts. A group calling itself the Business Leaders Council has formed in India to help the country reach the MDGs.[78] In May 2012, business leaders from the United States and India launched the MDG Health Alliance. More than 40 companies plan to link their business networks with governments, nongovernmental organizations, academia, and financial institutions to spur progress on the health-related MDGs. They intend to focus first on the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, Nigeria, Uganda, and India—the countries with the highest rates of child and maternal mortality.[79] In Chapter 2, we mentioned the New Alliance for Food Security and Nutrition, a public-private partnership starting in three countries in sub-Saharan Africa, aiming to lift 50 million people out of poverty in 10 years. Alliances such as these, which engage private sector partners, are another way for traditional and nontraditional donors to work together.

India has a national development plan to achieve the MDGs. Its progress is tracked and policymakers pay close attention to it.[80] The United States has no such plan. Here the United States could learn something from India. Both countries have striking levels of inequality—in income, education, health, and more. The United States is responding to poverty and hunger at home, but this is not the same as making a commitment to eliminate them. The United States, other rich countries, and emerging economies alike should all set development goals for the post-MDG era.

TRANSITIONING TO LOCAL OWNERSHIP

by Rebecca Bennett, for Catholic Relief Services

The U.S. President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR) was launched in 2004 as a $15-billion response to the global HIV epidemic. PEPFAR provided funding and technical expertise through agencies such as Catholic Relief Services (CRS) to make antiretroviral therapy available throughout the world, with emphasis on 15 focus countries including Zambia.

The AIDSRelief Zambia consortium—comprised of CRS, Futures Group, the University of Maryland School of Medicine Institute of Human Virology, and Children's AIDS Fund (CAF)—provided technical assistance and capacity strengthening to 19 local partner treatment facilities linking 111 satellite health facilities across all 72 districts in Zambia to ensure high-quality clinical HIV services.

"Without a shared understanding of success, no partnership—however simple or complex—can achieve its goals."

Each AIDSRelief country program was designed with the intent to transition to a local partner, but the early project years were necessarily focused on initiating patients on treatment. Early in the project, each AIDSRelief country program identified local partners for future transition. These partners were existing organizations with a track record demonstrating their viability and potential to sustain the program. In addition, they were either the owners of supported health facilities, or organizations that represented facility owners and were committed to providing facilities with long-term support.

Most facilities that were supported by AIDSRelief in Zambia are faith-based and belong to the Churches Health Association of Zambia (CHAZ) network. With the shared mission of bringing HIV services to Zambia's most disadvantaged people, CHAZ and AIDSRelief were natural partners and each brought complementary assets to the partnership. AIDSRelief's staff offered cutting-edge technical expertise, particularly with regard to HIV treatment, strategic information, site management, and U.S. government funding compliance. CHAZ offered a countrywide network of facilities, creative and culturally appropriate responses to HIV, a deep knowledge of Zambian communities, strong supply chain management skills and systems, and a decades-long relationship with the Zambian government.

Jake Lyell for CRS

Volunteers like Pauline Mwamba and Jane Nanyangwe make sure that patients adhere to their ARV regimens and make house calls for those who miss their check-up appointments.

As treatment systems were put into place, transition moved to the forefront and different understandings of transition and a local partner's role in that transition emerged among donor representatives, local partners, and within the consortium. Bringing these different perspectives into a unified vision—and beginning to make that vision a reality—was an enormous challenge. Without a shared understanding of success, no partnership—however simple or complex—can achieve its goals. Everyone must know where they're going in order to get there. In order to muster internal support and commitment, stakeholders must agree what success "looks like" and how that success benefits them or their goals.

With the U.S. Congress's reauthorization of PEPFAR in 2008, programming shifted from externally led emergency relief to strengthening health systems and building a sustainable response wholly owned by each host country. In support of country ownership of development

programs across the world, PEPFAR mandated that all grants eventually transition program efforts to a local partner.

Initially, transition was not budgeted under AIDSRelief because it was perceived as cross-cutting and a part of everyday work. Upon examination and through transition planning and implementation, everyone came to understand that transition is closely related to but distinct from implementation and even capacity strengthening. The efforts must be closely linked, but transition requires discrete planning, monitoring, and implementation. It's an ambitious task and warrants up-front attention and investments to ensure longer-term success. Further, transition is successful when both partners work in close, trusting partnerships marked by mutual respect and open communication. Many AIDSRelief programs found that successful transition also needs dedicated staff.

In an effort to achieve truly sustainable change, health and development donors worldwide have worked hard to prioritize host-country engagement in programming. Any project seeking to strengthen local ownership should consider cultivating equitable partnerships and strengthening capacity as a means to reach their wholly attainable goal. Committed partnership and capacity strengthening between CHAZ and AIDSRelief were key to the program's excellent outcomes and its substantial progress toward a wholly Zambian-owned HIV response.

The AIDSRelief Zambia experience also demonstrated the importance of taking a health systems strengthening approach. In low-resource settings, HIV care and treatment programs require building not only clinical skills but also technical expertise in areas such as strategic information, grants management, community outreach, and supply chain. Strengthening organizations and institutions at all levels ensures that quality programming exists within a sustainable health system.

Jake Lyell for CRS

At St. Theresa Mission Hospital, Regina Mwapa looks on while Dr. Kasong Tshijing examines her grandson, Josphat, who recently tested positive for HIV.

CRS regards capacity strengthening as essential to any organization's health. It includes capacity building, which focuses on individuals or teams, enhancing or developing new knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order for people or teams to function better; institutional strengthening, focusing on an organization, enhancing or developing its systems and structures to function more effectively, work towards sustainability, and achieve goals; and accompaniment, consistent coaching and mentoring that allows new skills to be mastered or new organizational systems to become standard operating procedures.

Rebecca Bennett is a consultant for Catholic Relief Services. Her article is excerpted from a longer version published by Catholic Relief Services and available at http://www.crsprogramquality.org/storage/pubs/partnership/The_AIDS_Relief_Zambia_Partnership_web.pdf.

Richard Lord

A Goal to End Hunger in the United States

Chapter Summary

Persistent hunger in the United States is unnecessary. With effective leadership and the right strategies, hunger could be ended within 10 to 15 years. The United States still has hungry people simply because national, state, and local leaders in government have not made the problem a top priority. The public needs to demand stronger leadership on hunger and support those leaders' efforts, beginning with the president setting a time-bound goal to end hunger in the United States. In our system of government, a problem becomes a national priority only when a critical mass of citizens is willing to commit to solving it and to holding policymakers accountable for making progress. Ending hunger will require strong nutrition and anti-poverty programs, investments in the nation's human capital, and improved job opportunities. Success demands ownership of the goal by everyone and close partnerships between government and civil society at the national, state, and local levels.

MAIN RECOMMENDATIONS IN THIS CHAPTER

- The president should propose a time-bound goal and develop a plan to end hunger in the United States. He should also establish an office within the administration to coordinate national, state, and local efforts.
- The president's plan should:
  - Ensure all jobs pay enough to raise a worker's family above the poverty line.
  - Strengthen nutrition and other anti-poverty programs so that if a family suffers a sharp drop in income due to a job loss, health condition or other emergency none of the family members are put at risk of hunger.
  - Launch a bold jobs program and invest in human development through education and skills training to fill jobs the country needs to boost economic growth.

In 2011, a team of economists from Brandeis University calculated the direct and indirect costs of hunger in the United States, taking into account its effects on health, education, and economic productivity. Using 2010 data, they estimated the total cost to the country that year to be $167.5 billion.[1] The United States has hungry people only because it has not made a priority of tackling the root causes of hunger. If ethical and moral reasons aren't enough to spur effective action, policymakers and citizens must also consider whether the country can financially *afford* to let hunger continue.

In the past, the country has set national goals that were successful in helping people escape poverty. One of the earliest anti-poverty goals came at the turn of the 20th century. The goal was to provide a free secondary school education to every child in America. As any parent knows, lack of education is closely associated with poverty. That's why it was the parents of the time who demanded access to a high school education for all children. As a result of their efforts, the United States produced the most educated workforce in the world. During World War II, the entire country—and arguably the Allied cause—benefited from the edge that secondary education gave the U.S. military. After the war, the stronger educational background of the American workforce helped create the longest period of broadly shared prosperity in the nation's history.

"Most people would be surprised to know that the United States has one of the highest poverty rates in the industrialized world."

Another example of national goal setting came in the 1960s, when President Lyndon Johnson set a goal to end poverty. The so-called War on Poverty launched as a result was a catalyst for dramatic reductions in poverty. Progress continued during the Nixon administration, which expanded the Food Stamp Program and the Special Supplemental Nutrition Program for Women, Infants and Children (WIC). But when the economy stalled in the mid-1970s, the country's commitment to fighting hunger and poverty flagged. Since then, the country has not focused on fighting poverty as it did during the Johnson and Nixon administrations. Most people would be surprised to know that the United States has one of the highest poverty rates in the industrialized world. At this point, it will take a president to remind the country that we can and must do better and ask for everyone's support in achieving a goal to defeat hunger and poverty.

A prosperous economy and a strong social safety net are important. Human-capital development—investing in people and their capabilities—is fundamental to sustained progress against hunger and poverty. It means ensuring that people have access to quality education, affordable health care, and jobs that pay enough to support a family and enable them to save for the future. They are then equipped to help themselves get ahead.

A quality education is available in the United States, but rarely to children from the poorest households.[2] Healthcare

15 percent
of people in the United States (46.2 million) were living in poverty in 2011.[1]

An estimated **22 million U.S. children use SNAP** to purchase a nutritionally adequate diet. This represents close to 1 in 3 children (29 percent) in the United States.[2]

Harris & Ewing

First printing of food stamps. Washington, D.C., April 20, 1939. Imogene Stanhope, printer's assistant at the Bureau, is pictured pulling the first batch off the press.

costs are increasing faster than the rate of inflation;[3] this squeezes everyone, but particularly low-income families without insurance, forcing them to put off needed care.[4] The real value of wages for workers on the bottom rungs of the economic ladder has eroded significantly over the last four decades.[5] Even if a national agenda to develop human capital were executed brilliantly, families dependent on low-wage work would remain at risk of hunger unless profound changes occur to turn low-wage jobs into jobs that families can live on.

A strong economy helps reduce poverty, but business cycles fluctuate between periods of expansion and contraction. Nutrition programs—the safety net's center of gravity—are crucial to protect families from suffering hunger and the poor health often associated with it when they can't afford a nutritious diet using their own resources. In recent years, with unemployment rates stuck between 8 percent and 10 percent, nutrition programs have worked as they should, soaring to record-high levels because more people than ever have had to rely on them.[6] Nutrition programs do their job of allowing families to cope under difficult circumstances, but without a clear path from the safety net to a ladder of opportunity, families are always on shaky ground and at risk again of running out of money for food.

Nearly **one-third of women,** compared to nearly a **quarter of men**, earned poverty-level wages in 2011.[3]

If U.S. high schools and colleges were to raise the graduation rates of Hispanic, African American, and Native American students to the levels of white students by 2020, the potential increase in personal income would add more than **$310 billion** to the U.S. economy.[4]

Younger people may never have heard that during the 1960s, the U.S. government established an office that focused only on coordinating efforts to end poverty and hunger. The Office of Economic Opportunity functioned as the administration's command center during the War on Poverty. The United States needs a similar coordinating body now to support efforts at the national, state, and local levels; and to keep the country focused on making progress. Setting a goal to end hunger will draw attention to the problem, which is essential, but achieving the goal rather than simply making a rhetorical gesture means this must be followed by actually dedicating personnel and resources to solving the problem. A coordinating office needs to be staffed by experts across multiple disciplines and managed by a proven leader in the fight against hunger. Creating this office and naming a dynamic person to lead it should occur at the same time that the president announces a goal to end hunger.

When Goals Drove a Nation: Part 1

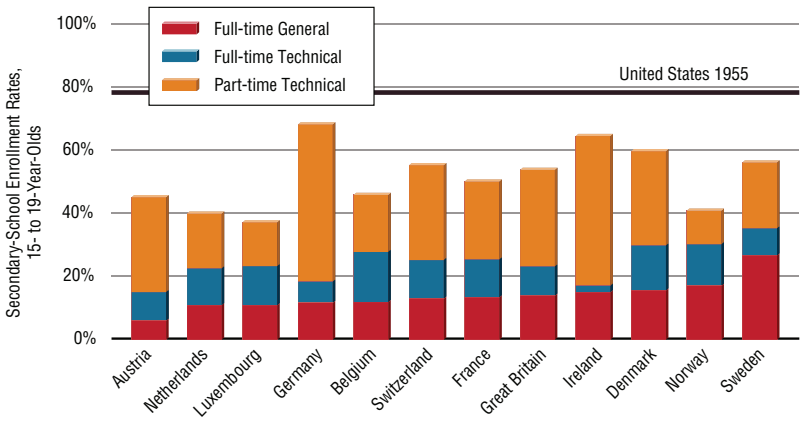
The generation of Americans that were instrumental in winning World War II and setting the United States on the longest period of broad-based prosperity in the country's history had far more education than their peers elsewhere in the world. By the middle of the 20th century, the United States had the most educated workforce and military on the planet.[7] This didn't mean advanced degrees or bachelor's degrees in traditionally "hard" subjects such as STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math). What set U.S. workers and soldiers apart was a high school education; the United States led the world in the percentage of children attending secondary school.

Secondary schooling took off in the United States from 1910-1940, once U.S. political leaders pledged to guarantee all children a free secondary school education. Known as the "high school movement,"[8] universal free secondary education enjoyed overwhelming public support because parents understood that their children needed education to get ahead. The belief that every child should have access to secondary education was driven by a national ethos of equality of opportunity for all. The idea that everyone could and should benefit from secondary education could not necessarily be taken for granted. The "high school movement" was at its height when the United States was opening its borders to a wave of poor people from Europe.[9] Teenagers from poor immigrant families went to high school just like everyone else.

Other nations supported free primary school enrollment, but the United States stood alone in its

Figure 4.1 **Secondary-School Enrollment Rates in 1955**

The rate of enrollment in full-time general secondary school in the United States reached nearly 80 percent by 1955. Meanwhile, much of Europe was still below 20 percent. Even if we include full-time and part-time technical education, few European nations had enrollment rates above 60 percent.

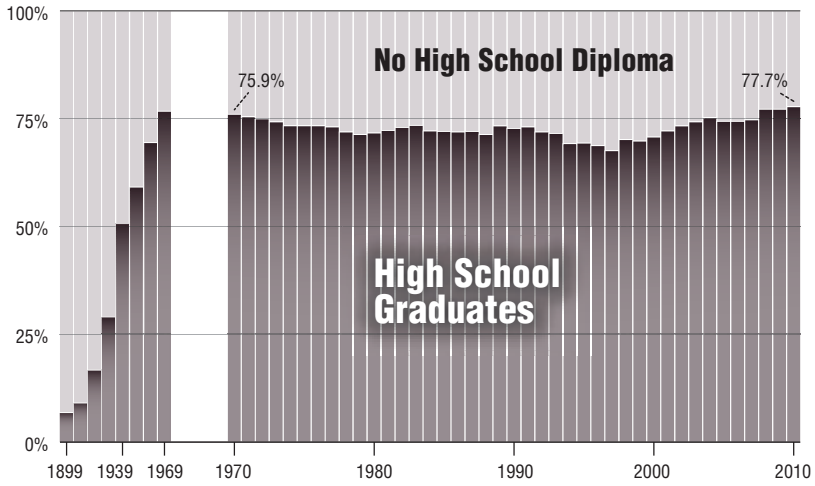


Source: Goldin, 2001

support for free secondary education. Educational achievement not only made the United States the most prosperous nation in the world, it also led to lower levels of income inequality by the middle of the 20th century. No one would argue that the U.S. education system was perfect—"separate but equal" was the most blatant of many problems—but the outcomes demonstrate vividly what an entire generation of Americans was able to achieve through collective effort.

Today, the United States has lost the edge that it once enjoyed in education. Almost every industrialized country has a comparable or better secondary school completion rate, and several have higher post-secondary completion rates. Other countries were bound to catch up at some point, but the long plateau in U.S. achievement levels (See Figure 4.2) was *not* inevitable.

Figure 4.2 **High School Graduates as a Proportion of the Age-17 Population**



Source: Familyfacts.org, based on U.S. Department of Education, Digest of Education Statistics.

High dropout rates are a serious problem, particularly for high schools in poor school districts. Harry Holzer, an economist at Georgetown University and the Urban Institute, has studied the impact of high school dropout rates on the national economy. He estimates the cost to be about $125 billion per year. Moreover, every percentage point increase in the dropout rate reduces federal revenues by $5 billion. "A 1 percentage-point increase that lasts for five years," says Holzer, "would reduce total federal revenues by a total of $25 billion over time, and a 2 percentage-point increase lasting that amount of time would reduce revenues by a total of $50 billion."[10]

Life on the Edge

Today, approximately *one-fourth* of all U.S. children fail to graduate from high school, a figure that remains virtually unchanged since the early 1960s. Dropping out is a decision that carries lifelong economic consequences, since most people without high school diplomas are consigned to jobs at poverty-level wages. It's a decision that will also affect their children and, in turn, those children's own chances of graduating from high school.

The U.S. government, and the United States as a society, should be doing more to prevent "at-risk" adolescents from leaping off economic cliffs. The young people who make this choice generally do not have the knowledge and experience to gauge how much damage it can do to their lives. Dropping out of school is symptomatic of deeper issues in a teenager's life: anything from the need to avoid a school in a dangerous neighborhood to learning disabilities to the desire to get a job and have spending money. The list of issues could go on.

Almost all are outside the scope of this report—but hunger is almost certainly among the causes of a choice to drop out of school.

It can start in the womb. Babies whose mothers are food insecure during pregnancy are more likely to enter the world with a low birth weight, which is associated with lower than average IQ scores.[11] By elementary school, children who are hungry are four times more likely than non-hungry children to need mental health counseling, seven times more likely to get into fights frequently, and twelve times more likely to be involved in crime.[12] By the time they are teenagers, food insecure children are twice as likely as their peers to have seen a psychologist, twice as likely to have been suspended from school, and more likely to be described as having difficulty getting along with other children.[13]

Richard Lord

An inability to concentrate on schoolwork is one of the most direct effects of child hunger.

As a group, adults who experience hunger as children have lower levels of education and/or technical skills and hold lower-paying jobs. Adults who were malnourished as children are also more likely to have health problems than peers who were well nourished. Because low-wage workers are less likely to hold jobs with benefits such as health insurance, they fall even further behind financially when they become ill. "Society, in turn, bears the costs of increased health problems, lost worker productivity, and lost tax revenue as individuals achieve and earn less," write John Cook and Karen Jeng in their report *Child Food Insecurity: The Economic Impact on our Nation*.[14]

Cook, an associate professor of pediatrics at the Boston University School of Medicine, is also a research scientist and principal investigator with Children's HealthWatch, a pediatric clinical research program. The 2012 Hunger Report, *Rebalancing Act: Updating U.S. Food and Farm Policies*, featured the work of Mariana Chilton, an associate professor at Drexel University in Philadelphia and also a research scientist with Children's HealthWatch. Philadelphia is one of the cities where Children's HealthWatch studies the effects of hunger on child development.

Chilton's work starts in hospital emergency rooms when children arrive with health conditions associated with hunger. The adult caregivers are interviewed about the children's health and hospitalization history, the mother's health, the family's participation in federal assistance programs, and other topics. Generally, the caregiver (most often the child's mother) doesn't connect the reason for the trip to the emergency room with "failure to thrive," a condition associated with too little food. Children with failure to thrive are chronically underweight.[15]

The emergency room is the first stop in a process of delineating the dynamics of hunger

in the family's life. Chilton started the project *Witnesses to Hunger* in collaboration with some of the children's mothers. She gave the women cameras to document how they experience hunger. One of the most striking things about the photographs taken by the *Witnesses* is how often hunger is associated with factors besides food, such as domestic violence, unstable housing and homelessness, or shattered glass and dried blood on the street. These images may seem at first to have an oblique or tangential connection to hunger—but try to imagine how nerve-racking every trip to the grocery store must be when you live in a neighborhood where you hear frequent random gunshots.

"Healthcare costs are increasing faster than the rate of inflation; this squeezes everyone, but particularly low-income families without insurance, forcing them to put off needed care."

There is not enough outrage about what the experience of hunger is like for its victims. Compassion and empathy can be in short supply, even when it comes to young children. Failing to thrive, trouble learning, getting into fistfights, dropping out of school, and more—the United States could prevent child hunger and all the damage it causes if our leaders and electorate make it a priority. Those of us without direct experience of what hunger is like—not knowing where our next meal and our children's next meal will come from—may fail to see some of the complexities of the problem and the hardships associated with it. In communities where many people are hungry or food insecure, more than a few minor changes in federal nutrition programs, vital as these programs are, will be needed to end hunger for good.

Todd Post

An intake worker with Children's HealthWatch collects data on a child who was brought by her mother to the emergency room at St. Christopher's Hospital in Philadelphia.

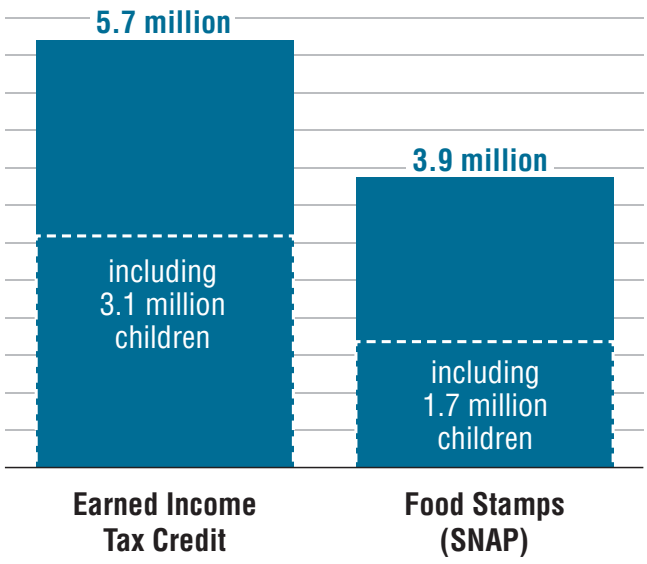
BOX 4.1

A NUTRITION SAFETY NET

The Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP), the country's flagship nutrition program, is the main way for low-income families to avoid impending hunger. The data indicate that about 50 percent of *all* U.S. children will, at some point before they turn 18, live in a household that participates in SNAP.[16]

The average family receiving SNAP benefits lives in "deep poverty," meaning that they earn less than half the poverty level for a family of its size. For a family of four, for example, this is $11,500 per year or less. There are now 7.2 million American children whose families earn below 50 percent of the poverty line.[17]

Figure 4.3 **Safety Net Programs Not Included in Official Poverty Measure Kept Millions Above Poverty in 2011**



Source: Center on Budget and Policy Priorities, 2012

Children's HealthWatch research—based on more than 17,000 children seen in emergency rooms at multiple locations around the country between 2004 and 2010—showed that children whose families received SNAP benefits were less likely to be underweight or experience developmental delays than children whose families did not receive SNAP.[18]

Nutrition programs are the center of gravity in the U.S. safety net for low-income families, preventing hunger for as many days as they can stretch the monthly benefit. Most of the nutrition program resources go to SNAP. Technically, the Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC), which gives a boost to low-income people who have jobs, lifts more people above the poverty line than SNAP, but the two are complementary (See Figure 4.3); the EITC comes as a lump sum and is better suited for paying down debts or making larger purchases that cannot fit into the monthly budget, while SNAP provides the day-to-day resources needed to keep food in the refrigerator throughout the year.

As important as these programs are, it's not hard to imagine what a better safety net would look like: SNAP benefits that are enough to enable families to purchase healthy foods rather than cheaper unhealthy choices; paid sick leave; and affordable health care and child care—yet it is a difficult task to protect the safety net programs that are already in place. Every few years, for example, there are members of Congress who propose changing SNAP from an entitlement program to a block grant. As an entitlement program, the federal government sets the rules and the program automatically expands and contracts to respond to spikes in need. A block grant provides a lump sum to the state, which prevents the program from growing automatically when a recession occurs or a natural disaster hits.

In 1996, "welfare reform" changed the program Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) from an entitlement to a block grant, renamed it Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) and added work requirements for participants. TANF benefits are categorized as conditional cash assistance, meaning that the head of a participating household must get a job, or acquire job skills and then get a job. Funds were shifted to job training and child care, and TANF succeeded in moving many welfare recipients into jobs. But the U.S. economy was booming in the late 1990s. What happens when jobs are hard to come by? Critics of welfare reform argued that a prolonged economic downturn would expose the problems with moving from an entitlement program to a block grant. This is exactly what has happened during the period of severe recession and slow, partial recovery that began in 2007 and continues today.

USDA Photo/Lance Cheung

With a wireless connection and electronic card reader, farmers' markets are able to process SNAP benefits.

As times got tougher, states raided their TANF funds to cover budget shortfalls, while at the same time, the number of families in need of assistance soared. There was less available funding for more participants, and people who qualified were no longer entitled to receive benefits. In Georgia, in 1996, more than 90 percent of poor families received cash aid. In 2011, 8 percent of them did. Illinois slashed its TANF caseload by 86 percent between 1997 and 2011.[19] In more than half the states, TANF now covers less than 20 percent of *eligible* families.[20]

"In recent years, with unemployment rates stuck between 8 percent and 10 percent, nutrition programs have worked as they should, soaring to record-high levels because more people than ever have had to rely on them."

The poorest families have been hardest hit. TANF and some other safety net programs shifted resources to families who are closer to the poverty line. From 1984-2004, overall assistance to families in deep poverty fell by an average of 38 percent. But for families closer to (but still below) the poverty line, spending increased by 86 percent.[21]

Cash assistance has been so deeply stigmatized in the United States that poor people themselves regard it as a last resort. Many choose to use credit cards or payday loans despite the long-term financial burden of high interest rates. It is striking how differently the rest of the world sees cash assistance. Former Brazilian president Luis Lula da Silva received the 2011 World Food Prize for the dramatic reduction in hunger and poverty that he achieved in Brazil—progress that was made in large part by expanding conditional cash assistance programs.

When Goals Drove a Nation: Part 2

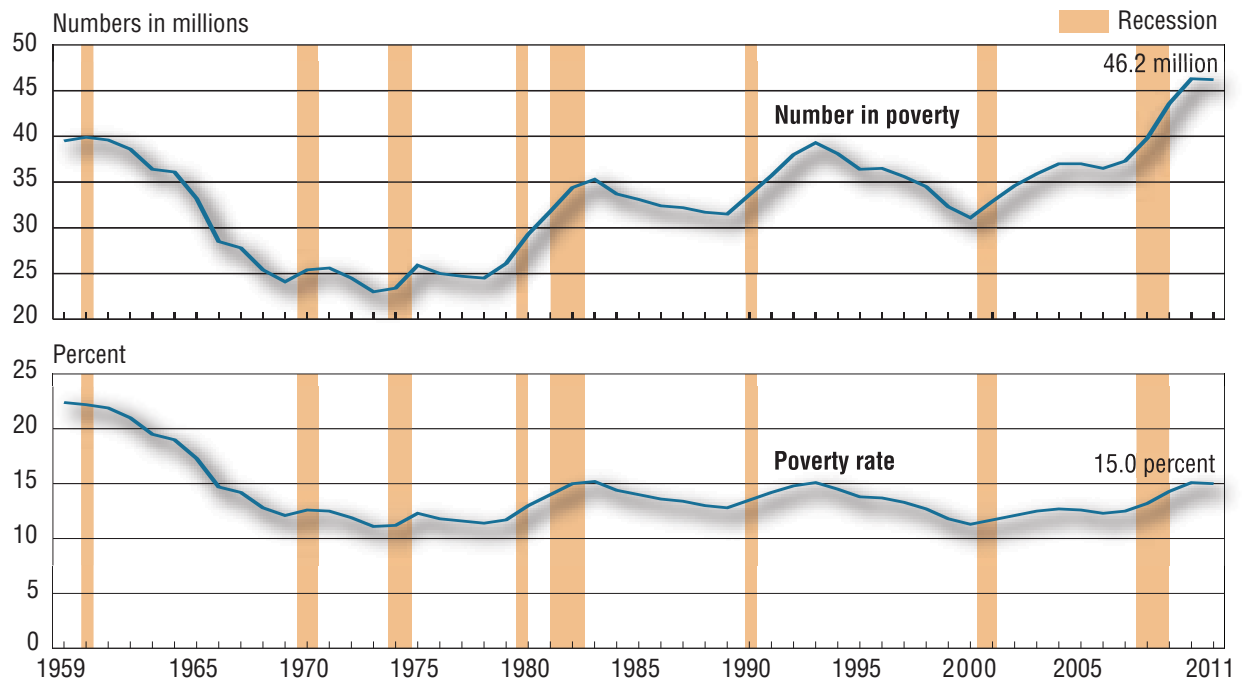
The War on Poverty, launched in 1964 by President Johnson, was the last time the United States set a goal of eliminating poverty. When President Johnson announced the goal, poverty rates were already falling. The Civil Rights movement, led by Rev. Martin Luther King, Jr., demanded a more robust response from government to the social and economic injustices of racism. To speed up progress, President Johnson established a broad group of anti-poverty programs, including Head Start, Upward Bound, and VISTA (the domestic counterpart of the Peace Corps). The War on Poverty also included the founding of Medicaid and Medicare and improvements to Social Security that lowered poverty rates among seniors.

"When the economy stalled in the mid-1970s, the country's commitment to fighting hunger and poverty flagged."

The "War" had the additional advantage of being launched against the backdrop of a strong economy operating near full employment. Between 1959 and 1973, the poverty rate in the United States was cut in half.[22] Seniors have experienced the most lasting progress. Before the War on Poverty, poverty rates among senior citizens exceeded those of other major demographic groups. Fifty years later, seniors have the lowest poverty rate of all major demographic groups.

The War on Poverty also brought progress against hunger, through improvements in the Food Stamp Program (now SNAP) and child nutrition programs. There is a famous account

Figure 4.4 **Number in Poverty and Poverty Rate: 1959 to 2011**



Source: U.S. Census, Current Population Survey, 2012

of Senator Robert Kennedy visiting the Mississippi Delta, where he held a hungry, listless child whose skin was covered in sores. Anyone with experience in developing countries would recognize this all too easily as severe acute malnutrition.[23] The less formal term is "starvation."

It would take several years and significant scaling up of national nutrition programs to end this kind of hunger in the United States. There are people in the United States today living on $2 a day or less, including 2.8 million children—but because of the legacy of the War on Poverty, none of them has to starve. The nutrition safety net created by President Johnson, and improved under President Nixon and subsequent presidents, has guaranteed that anyone who needs assistance can get it.[24]

LBJ Library photo by Cecil Stoughton

President Lyndon B. Johnson signs the Poverty Bill (also known as the Economic Opportunity Act) while press and supporters of the bill look on.

Critics argue that the War on Poverty was a failure because poverty rates did not continue to fall after the mid-1970s, but instead stagnated. What is missing from this version of events are the major changes in the U.S. economy that started at the same time, the mid-1970s. "The relationship between GDP and poverty changed after 1973," explains Sheldon Danziger of the University of Michigan Poverty Center at the Gerald R. Ford School of Public Policy. "The era of steadily rising wages for workers across the distribution had ended. If the earnings of full-time year-round workers had grown along predicted paths, income poverty would likely have been eliminated in the 1980s." [25]

"There are people in the United States today living on $2 a day or less, including 2.8 million children—but because of the legacy of the War on Poverty, none of them has to starve."

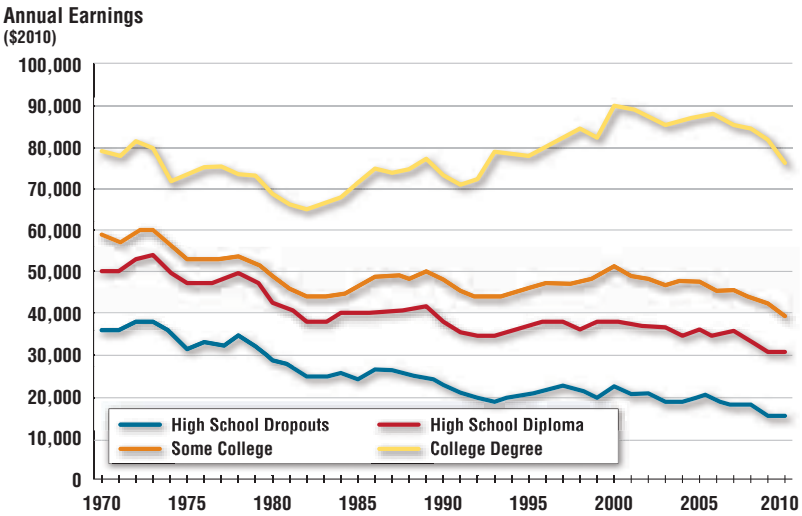
Assuming that government alone "lost" the War on Poverty means overlooking the critical role of the private sector and jobs. Until the late 1970s, wage growth held steady across income groups. Since then, the incomes of all but the highest earners have failed to keep pace with economic growth; and it has been workers at the bottom of the income ladder whose earnings in real terms, or "purchasing power," have fallen furthest (see Figure 4.5 and 4.6).

"Poverty is deeply rooted and its causes are many," said President Johnson when announcing the War on Poverty. "But this program will show the way to new opportunities for millions of our fellow citizens. It will provide a lever with which we can begin to open the door to our prosperity for those who have been kept outside."[26]

What the period since the1970s has illustrated all too clearly is that on the other side of the door Johnson referred to there must be jobs that pay enough to live on. Today, a

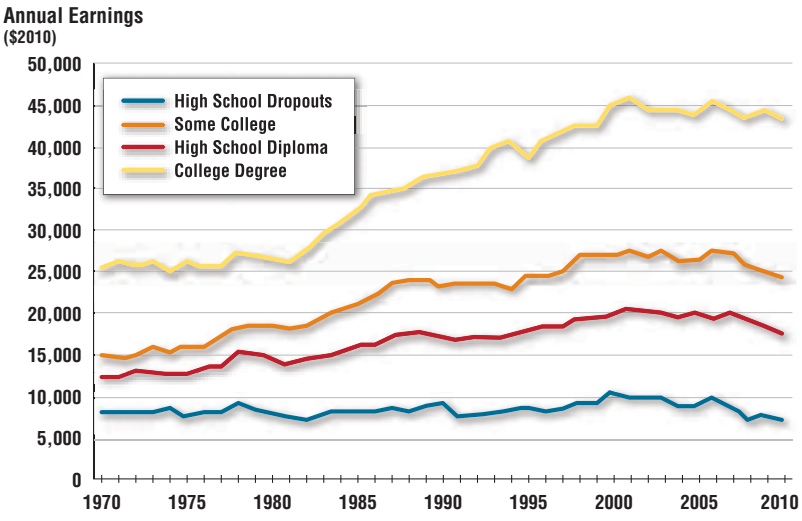
quarter of all jobs in the United States pay less for full-time, year-round work than what is needed to raise a family of four above the poverty line, $23,050.[27] Put another way: one in four people headed to work this morning will work 40 hours a week, 52 weeks a year but not earn enough to keep herself, her spouse, and her two children—or himself and his three children; or herself, her elderly parents, and her teenage son—from living in poverty. Poverty and hunger persist not only because people are out of work, but also because so many people who have work still can't get out of poverty.

Figure 4.5 **Mean Earnings of Men**



Source: U.S. Census, Current Population Survey, 1970-2010

Figure 4.6 **Mean Earnings of Women**



Source: U.S. Census, Current Population Survey, 1970-2010

The political will that made poverty a top domestic issue in the 1960s had vanished by the end of the 1970s, and it has not reappeared since then at the national level with the necessary leadership. The national nutrition programs have been improved and expanded, but they cannot root out hunger for good because they do not get at the many other hardships associated with poverty.

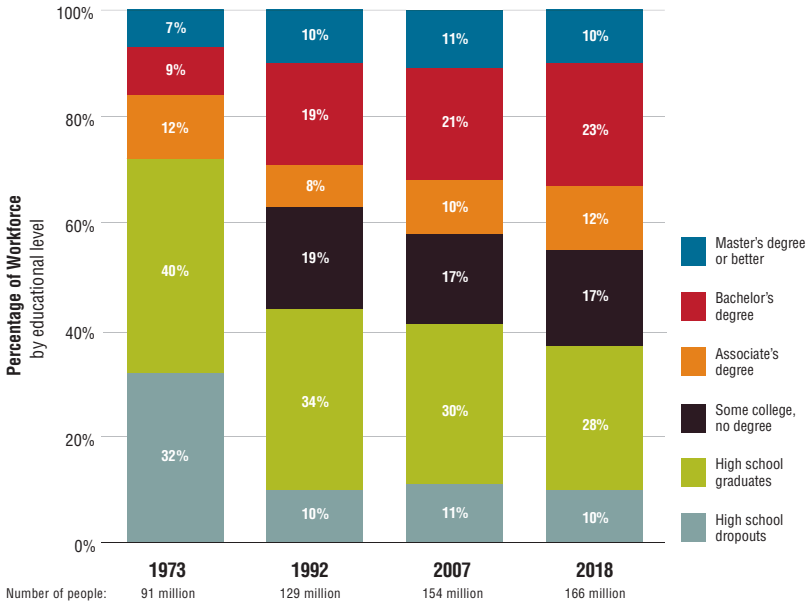
By the 1970s, the Office of Economic Opportunity had lost its influence on policy, and later, its mandate to lead the fight against poverty. In addition to improvements to welfare programs, it urged President Johnson to invest in a massive public works program. Johnson did not heed the advice, which had unfortunate consequences. Offering welfare payments without work requirements is a recipe for social resentment. Welfare reform, as described in Box 4.1, has been in place since 1996, yet false stereotypes of "welfare recipients" collecting government paychecks without having to work remain common.

A general lack of commitment to helping low-wage workers adjust to a changing economy has contributed to the income inequalities we see today. Between 1973 and 2008, the share of jobs that require

post-secondary education increased from 28 percent to 59 percent.[28] But at a time when the United States should have been investing in helping workers adapt, government investments in training and workforce development plummeted; funding for workforce development programs, when adjusted for inflation, fell by 29 percent between 1985 and 2003.[29]

President Johnson may have been justified in rejecting a public works program. During his administration, the economy was strong and jobs were plentiful. But the days of an economy roaring along at full employment seem to be long gone. Inflation got out of hand in the 1970s, so during the Reagan administration U.S monetary and fiscal policies shifted to make low inflation a higher priority than full employment. This proved to be a long-term shift in U.S. economic management, supported ever since by U.S. presidents of both parties and the Federal Reserve, the nation's central bank.

Figure 4.7 **By 2018, About Two-Thirds of All Employment Will Require Some College Education or Better**



Source: Alliance for Excellence in Education, 2011

The best anti-poverty program is still a strong economy operating at full employment. At full employment, poverty is reduced for the simple reason that people without jobs are earning a paycheck, and more people who are working part-time involuntarily can move into full-time jobs. Moreover, full employment prompts employers to pay higher wages and improve working conditions in order to retain workers. The last time the U.S. economy had full employment was the late 1990s—and that was fueled by an unsustainable stock bubble, which burst in 2000.[30] The private sector has not provided enough jobs to match the number of jobseekers for more than a decade, starting well before the 2007 recession began and including the peak years of the housing bubble.

"Today, a quarter of all jobs in the United States pay less for full-time, year-round work than what is needed to raise a family of four above the poverty line, $23,050."

Fluctuations in private sector employment have a bigger impact on poverty than government programs. Nothing is more important to progress against poverty than economic recovery. The eventual renewal of consumer and business confidence will foster a new expansion of private sector employment. As the economy slowly climbs out of the Great Recession, the rate of job growth is anemic at best and high unemployment is projected to persist for years. At no time since the Great Depression has there been such a need for a public works program.

BOX 4.2

PUBLIC INVESTMENTS TO CREATE

RETROFITTING OLD INFRASTRUCTURE

Stepping up efforts to renovate buildings to be energy efficient could lead to the creation of millions of new jobs, particularly for workers in entry-level and mid-level positions. Buildings consume more than 40 percent of the energy used in the United States. A McKinsey Global Institute reports that construction and renovation of buildings has one of the largest packages of potential environmental and economic benefits.[31]

Simple improvements, such as adding insulation, switching to more efficient lighting, caulking leaks to prevent the loss of heating and cooling, and installing more energy-efficient windows and doors could cut 70 percent of building emissions.[32] So many homes and office buildings could be more energy efficient. The question is, where to begin?

"At no time since the Great Depression has there been such a need for a public works program."

One starting point is government buildings, including nearly 100,000 public school buildings around the country and 6.6 billion square feet of space.[33] This is a good place to start for several reasons. Once a renovation is complete, energy savings could be promptly spent on books, teachers and equipment.

Another place to focus efforts is public housing. Public housing accounts for 14 percent of all rental-housing stock in the United States. There are 4.75 million units of federally subsidized, affordable rental housing, most of which were built before 1970.[34] According to a study by the Government Accountability Office, renovations costing as little as $2,500 to $5,000 per unit could improve energy efficiency by 25-40 percent.[35] The savings would begin accruing instantly. In 2007, the Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) spent more than $4 billion on energy costs. Renovations would mean at least $1 billion in savings per year, possibly more.[36]

Under the Housing and Urban Development Act of 1968, private owners of HUD-assisted housing must "to the greatest extent possible, provide job training, employment, and contract opportunities for low- or very-low-income residents in connection with projects and activities in their neighborhoods." Jobs are scarce in poor urban neighborhoods with high percentages of public housing. The renovation work could provide residents with income and a set of skills to apply far outside their own neighborhoods

Because public housing makes up a large share of all rental housing, a government investment like this could be the catalyst of much greater private investments. "HUD affects a sufficiently large number of units to produce demand for workers and products on a scale to stimulate development of a green renovation industry," says housing policy expert David Abromowitz. Workers with these green skills would be in demand because of their experience with renovating public housing, and construction jobs, green or not, tend to pay higher wages than people with the same amount of education can find in other industries.

This article is excerpted from Bread for the World Institute's 2010 Hunger Report: A Just and Sustainable Recovery.

MILLIONS OF JOBS AND REDUCE POVERTY

VALUING CARE WORK

Catherine Yeulet

The aging of the Baby Boom generation means there will be a need for millions of additional nursing assistants and home health-care aides.

With people living longer and Baby Boomers retiring or approaching retirement, the number of people over 65 is expected to double between 2000 and 2030.[37] To meet the needs of this many elderly people, plus chronically ill people and people living with disabilities, direct-care jobs will have to improve.

Direct care jobs include nursing assistants who work in community-based settings or nursing homes, and home health aides and personal aides who care for sick, elderly, and disabled people in their own homes.

In 2008, there were more than 3 million direct-care workers, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. But there are 6 million people over the age of 65 who require assistance—or two for every one direct-care worker in the country.[38]

By 2018, this field is expected to add a million new jobs. Job growth on this scale should sound like good news, but workers receive very poor pay and benefits. Without improvements in job quality, it is hard to see how it will be possible to meet the demand for new workers.

According to the National Clearinghouse on the Direct-Care Workforce, median annual earnings for direct care workers in 2009 were $16,800, and 46 percent were enrolled in public benefits programs like SNAP and Medicaid.[39]

Laws on the books since the 1970s have allowed employers to classify direct-care workers as companions, meaning employers are exempt from meeting federal standards on overtime and minimum wages.[40] Low pay and meager benefits lead to high annual turnover rates—between 44 and 65 percent[41]—inevitably causing disruptions in patient care and inefficiencies in the use of Medicaid and Medicare funds.

The Affordable Care Act could be just what the doctor ordered for direct-care work, transforming it from an underpaid, underappreciated occupation to one that receives the respect it deserves. Presently, more than 900,000 direct-care workers (or close to 1 in 3) live in households with incomes low enough to qualify for the Medicaid expansion in the law,[42] and all direct-care workers stand to benefit from the provisions in the law that support workforce development and other improvements to job quality.[43]

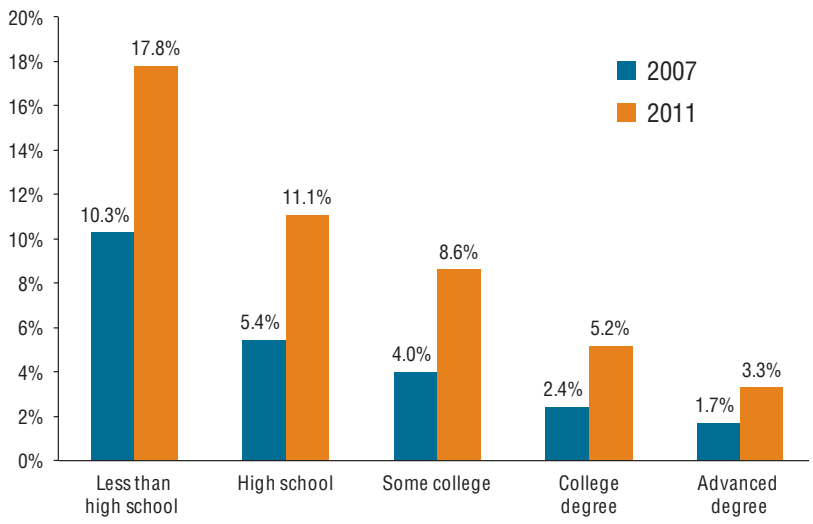
"Transforming all human-service work into good jobs would not merely replenish the supply of decent work," writes Robert Kuttner, economist and author. "It would vastly improve the quality of care delivered to the elderly at home or in institutions…and to sick people whether in hospitals, hospices, outpatient settings, or their homes."[44]

This article has been adapted from its original version in Bread for the World Institute's 2010 Hunger Report: A Just and Sustainable Recovery.

Learning Curve

The interrelationships among poverty, education, and earnings are at the root of the human-capital challenge. It was the challenge a century ago and it is still the challenge today. It follows that the United States needs to reinvest in human-capital development now just as it did a century ago. The high school movement's goal was to ensure that children would be able to get good jobs. Even a generation ago, people could get middle-income jobs with just a high school diploma. But today, the educational credentials needed to be competitive for such jobs are much higher.

Figure 4.8 **Unemployment Rate, by Education, 2007 and 2011**



Source: Economic Policy Institute analysis of U.S. Census, Current Population Survey data, 2012

Manufacturing once served as a reliable pathway for someone with a high school degree (or less) to gain a foothold in the middle class. Between 1979 and 2009, however, the United States lost 41 percent of its manufacturing jobs.[45] The expansion of global supply chains means that many jobs once found only in the United States can be done elsewhere. U.S. workers are not competing just with people in other industrialized countries. Low- and middle-income countries are investing in human capital, and wage rates are much lower in these countries. This was a major reason that employers moved there in the first place, but companies would have had to remain in or return to the United States if foreign workers hadn't been developing the needed skills.

Foreign competition is only part of the reason for the loss of manufacturing jobs—after all, more than 85 percent of what Americans consume still consists of products made in the United States.[46] Of the manufacturing jobs that once employed lower-skilled workers in the United States many no longer exist anywhere. Automation and other labor-saving breakthroughs have made a variety of jobs in manufacturing and services obsolete.

It's tempting to blame the U.S. education system for failing to educate and train enough workers with the right skills. It's possible that secondary and post-secondary education has become disconnected from the economy that most people encounter when they finish school. On the other hand, it's not as though the American education system graduated waves of people who lack the skills to compete for the available jobs and collapsed as a result. American students in wealthy and middle-class school districts perform well on achievement tests compared to their international peers.[47]

Most of the changes needed to reduce the poverty that now exists in the United States, as opposed to preventing poverty for the next generation, must take place in the labor market.

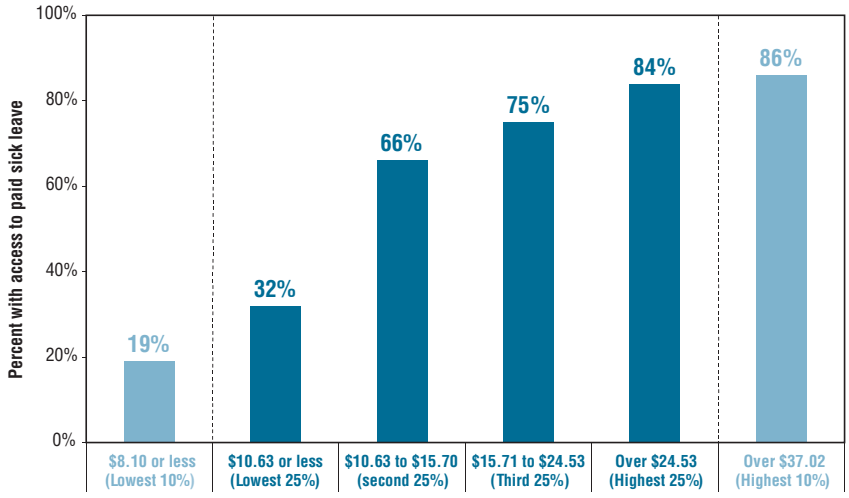
Clearly, there's a lot of scope for government to make mistakes while trying to correct problems in the labor market, and in the end, government power in this sphere is limited. However, there are also improvements that could be made now but are not on the table. These include raising the minimum wage, indexing the minimum wage to inflation, and ensuring labor rights such as the right to organize and join a union. Government has failed workers—both low-wage workers and those who were once relatively insulated from eroding purchasing power. The GDP of the country continues to rise, yet real wages are now stagnant even for people with bachelor's degrees.[48]

"Even a generation ago, people could get middle-income jobs with just a high school diploma. But today, the educational credentials needed to be competitive for such jobs are much higher."

The most severe effects of the increasingly skewed labor market fall on low-wage workers. The work low-wage workers do is needed, and always will be: janitors, food-service workers, landscapers, farm workers, and others. And the people who have these jobs will, of course, always need to earn a living. Thus, one essential response is to ensure that all jobs pay enough to keep employees above the poverty line. Government must do more to counter the downward pressure on wages. Secondly, human-capital development must be strengthened so that even if some jobs are dead-end jobs, no one is trapped in them for lack of alternatives.

As noted earlier, the private sector has a critical role to play in reducing poverty. The social compact that links business, families, government, and civil society is the bedrock of our society. But over time the social compact has been eroded. Policy must restore a solid foundation. For example, the United States is the only industrialized country that doesn't guarantee paid sick days. While most middle-income and high-income jobs offer paid sick leave, this is hardly the norm in low-wage jobs.[49] (See Figure 4.9.) Yet employers have little to lose and a lot to gain—especially financially—by providing paid sick days. Studies show that the majority of workers do not abuse the benefit.[50] Employees who come to work sick cost employers $160 billion per year in productivity losses,[51] so paid sick leave can be good for business.

Figure 4.9 **Access to Paid Sick Leave by Hourly Wage in the Private Sector, 2010**



Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010

Another vital party to the social compact—the public education system—must improve outcomes in poor communities. Since poverty is already substantially higher among people

of color than whites, and education offers a path out of poverty, it is *more* important—not less important—for children of color to get a quality education. The United States certainly cannot afford for nearly half of all African-American and Hispanic teenagers to quit high school, as is currently the case.[52] This is both a human tragedy and a national crisis. In 2011, the majority of children born in the United States were not white, a trend that is only expected to accelerate.[53] Given the changing demographics, everybody with a stake in the country's future should be concerned about the loss of so much human potential. Of course, white students also drop out of school. What dropouts of all races have in common is poverty.

"Almost every industrialized country has a comparable or better secondary school completion rate, and several have higher post-secondary completion rates."

Measuring Up Against Our Peers

The United States is one of 34 industrialized countries that make up the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). When the OECD was formed in 1961, the only members were the United States and countries in Western Europe, but it now includes countries in Latin America, Central and Eastern Europe, and Eastern Hemisphere nations such as Japan and South Korea. For the most part, OECD countries are those that score highest on the U.N. Human Development Index (HDI), indicating that its people have higher income levels, more education, and better health than residents of nonmember countries.

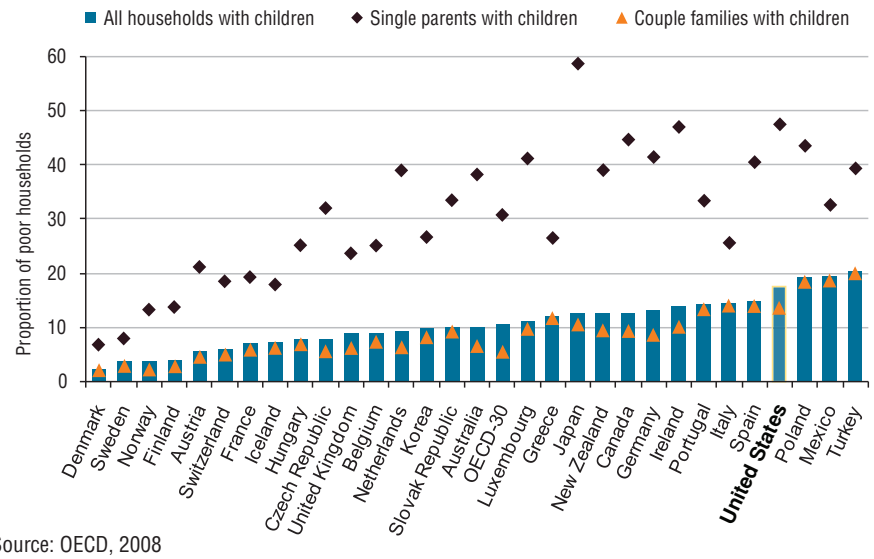
Richard Lord

A mother and her children in front of their home in Clairfied, Tennessee, where the poverty rate is 37 percent.

There's no question that poverty in the United States and other OECD countries is of a different dimension from poverty in developing countries. But that does not mean we should minimize it: the suffering that poverty causes individuals, and its consequences for society, are all too real. In most OECD countries, poverty rates are measured in relative terms rather than by absolute income levels—how able are people to afford a typical standard of living for their country? Most often, the poverty line is set at half of the national median income. The United States does not measure poverty this way, which raises other questions that we won't address here. The upshot is that OECD comparisons on poverty rates, while not as precise for the United States as for countries that use a relative definition of poverty, are still a valid indication of how the country compares to its closest peers.

The United States has one of the highest poverty rates among OECD countries. Figure 4.10 compares poverty rates in households with children. It reveals some interesting data about how family structure affects poverty rates. The placement of the brown diamonds shows that the United States has one of the highest rates of poverty in housholds with children led by a single parent. But the rate is also high in households where couples are raising children, indicated by the orange triangles. Ron Haskins and Isabel Sawhill, both of the Brookings Institution, have made an important contribution to the discourse on poverty and its causes in the United States by drawing attention to effects of family composition on poverty rates. In their 2009 book *Creating an Opportunity Society*, they argued that if the marriage rate was equivalent to the level of 1970, the poverty rate would be reduced 25 percent.[54] This is observable in Figure 4.10, but the chart also tells us that even in households with two-parent families, the United States tolerates much higher poverty rates than almost all other OECD countries.

Figure 4.10 **Poverty Rates by Household Type, Mid-2000s, Among Industrialized Countries**



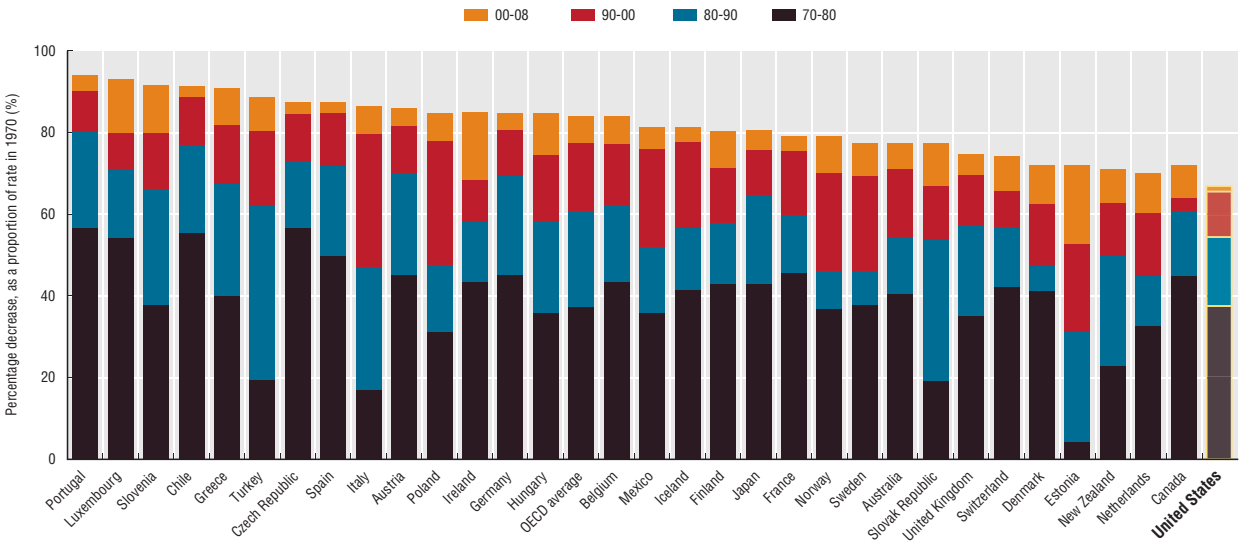
Source: OECD, 2008

Not shown in the chart is the rate of poverty in households led by couples where *both adults are working*. The United States has the fourth-highest percentage (6.5 percent) of households in poverty with two people or more in the houshold working, behind only Turkey (16.1), Mexico (11.2), and Japan (9.5).[55] This helps make the case for providing more assistance to families with children, such as support with housing, childcare, and transportation back and forth to work.

"Even in households with two-parent families, the United States tolerates much higher poverty rates than almost all other OECD countries."

Comparisons of health and education status are more precise than those for income levels, because the indicators are more standardized. One standard measure of progress on health is life expectancy. The United States ranks near the bottom in the OECD, with an average life expectancy at birth of 78.2 years in 2009 compared to the OECD average of 79.5.[56] The U.S. life expectancy is 15 months below average, which may not sound so important over a lifetime, but it's the data on the other end of the life cycle—infant mortality—that give us a more incisive snapshot of how poverty is affecting the health of the U.S. population. Infant mortality rates in the United States are among the highest in the OECD. At 6.7 deaths per 1,000 live births, the United States has the fourth-highest

Figure 4.11 **Decline in Infant Mortality Rates, 1970 to 2008, Among Industrialized Countries**



Source: OECD, 2011

rate after Turkey (17.0), Mexico (15.2), and Chile (7.0). Since 1970, the United States has made the least progress of any OECD country in reducing infant mortality.[57] (See Figure 4.11.)

Until the middle of the 20th century, as we mentioned earlier, the United States maintained an educational advantage because of its higher secondary school completion rates. What about tertiary, or post-secondary, education? The generation of U.S. adults ages 55-64 have one of the highest tertiary completion rates among their cohort in OECD countries. But as with high school, our college graduation rates have stagnated over the past generation. Among people ages 25-34, many countries have caught up; in this cohort, the United States ranks 16th in completion rates.[58]

Figure 4.12 **Hours of Work at the Minimum Wage Required to Pay Annual Tuition Costs, by Type of Institution**

Source: Center for Economic Policy Research analysis of National Center for Education Statistics, 2012

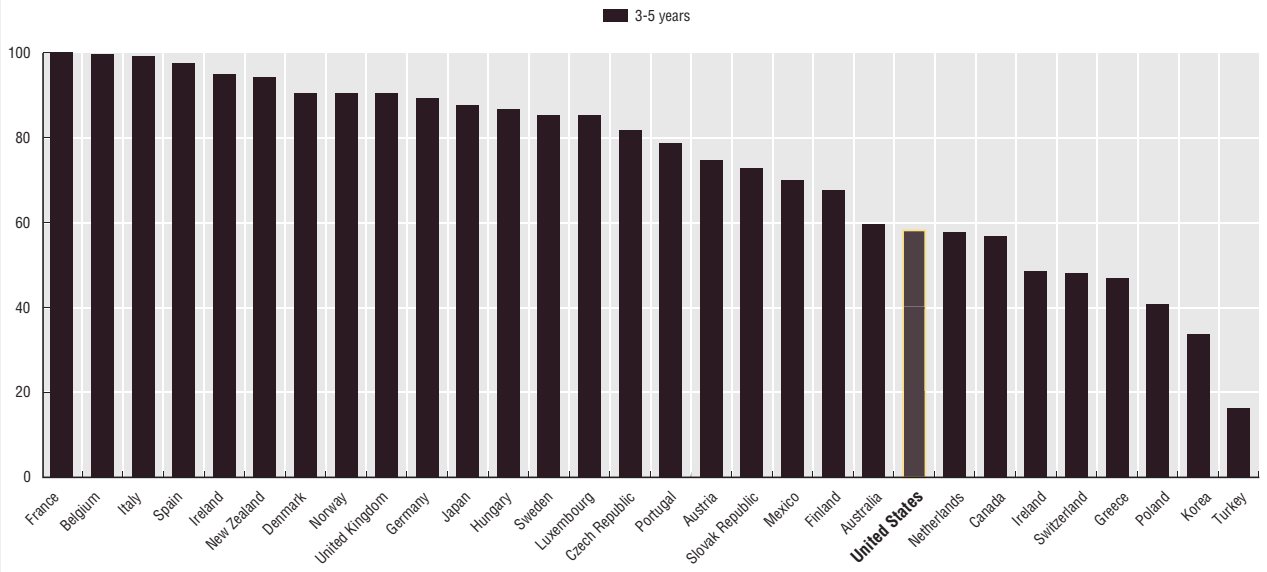
One major reason that post-secondary completion rates have stagnated is that students drop out for financial reasons.[59] Children from poor families who finish high school have a much more difficult time paying for college than their

parents' generation; wages have not kept pace with inflation, while the cost of post-secondary education has soared. (See Figure 4.12.)

Next, moving backward from high school rather than forward, we consider early childhood/preschool education. There is little disagreement that this is the time when educational efforts have the most impact on a child's development. By the time children from poor families enter kindergarten, they are often already behind; for example, they have on average one-third the vocabulary of their peers from middle- and high-income families.[60] At the turn of the 20th century, information on the importance of early childhood education and its significant return on investment were not available. We do have that information now, yet the United States isn't doing enough to give low-income children the best chance to succeed in life. The United States spends less as a share of GDP on early education than most other industrialized countries.[61] A long-term strategy to invest in the country's future means human-capital development, which, as we've discussed, requires ensuring that everyone has access to a good education, health care, job training, and workforce development. Infrastructure investments take time. It's analogous to the country's interstate transportation system. All the highways weren't built in just a few years; commitments were sustained over many years, through changes in the White House and Congress. The country is still benefiting today. Improving the human infrastructure that our economy is based on can work the same way. The United States should concentrate efforts particularly in the early years of life, when hunger and poverty have lifelong consequences for human-capital development.

"By the time children from poor families enter kindergarten, they are often already behind; for example, they have on average one-third the vocabulary of their peers from middle- and high-income families."

Figure 4.13 **Enrollment Rates of Children Under Six in Childcare and Early Education Services,2006**



Source: OECD, 2006

Hunger-Free Communities: United Behind a Common Vision

To be most effective, leadership at the federal level has to be matched by commitments to end hunger at the state and local levels. The three can operate independently and still make progress, but when they are unified behind a common vision of a hunger-free country, they are a force to be reckoned with.

The following examples from Maryland and Texas illustrate a model for fighting hunger at state and local levels known as Hunger-Free Communities. The Hunger-Free Communities Network is a nationwide platform for coalitions, campaigns, and collaborations committed to ending hunger in their localities and learning from each other. Efforts in Maryland and Texas take very different approaches and operate in very different political contexts; together, they point the way to how the federal government can work with state and local partners.

Ambassador Tony P. Hall (center), Executive Director of the Alliance to End Hunger, is joined by Alliance staff at the 2012 National Hunger-Free Communities Summit in Washington, DC.

In 2005, Bread for the World members wrote letters to Congress advocating the passage of the Hunger-Free Communities (HFC) Act, which Congress eventually passed as part of the 2008 farm bill. The legislation authorizes grants to nonprofit, religious, private sector, and public sector leaders working in their communities to end hunger. Hunger-free initiatives across the country range in scale, from small towns and counties to major metropolitan areas and states. Some are led by governors, mayors, or members of Congress, while others are entirely volunteer driven. At their core, these initiatives are formed around the belief that to end hunger at the community level, a broad range of stakeholders must unite behind a common vision and strategy.[62]

Currently, the status of the Hunger-Free Communities Act remains up in the air, as the Senate version of the 2012 farm bill voted to maintain funding for the program while the House version voted to eliminate the program altogether. The fate of the program hangs in the balance until House and Senate leaders negotiate a final bill and the president signs it.

Maryland's governor sets a goal to end child hunger

When Martin O'Malley took office as governor of Maryland in 2007, he made goal setting a fundamental part of his administration. O'Malley's commitment to setting and achieving goals was something he took from his experience as mayor of Baltimore from 1999-2007, an office that he won largely by pledging to reduce the city's crime rate.

Determined to hit the ground running upon becoming mayor, he requested a meeting

with an officer in the New York City Police Department who had played a key role in developing the city's strategy to reduce crime. On a car ride around a crime-plagued area of Baltimore, the officer told O'Malley how much the results in New York depended on data collection and statistical analysis.

As Tina Rosenberg of *The New York Times* describes it, "O'Malley remarked, 'Certain things can't be measured.' 'Name them,' [the officer] said. O'Malley mentioned at-risk kids. The officer started to list potential indicators: 'Look at this playground—these basketball hoops have no nets. What other parks have no nets? What hours is this rec center open? Are they the same hours as peak time for juvenile violence?'"[63]

Karen Kasmauski

Hunger-Free Communities initiatives around the country may sometimes appear to be quite different in their approaches to ending hunger but they all share the goal of improving access to healthy foods.

O'Malley was quickly converted. As mayor of Baltimore, and subsequently as Maryland's governor, he pursued data-driven solutions to problems.

Soon after taking office as governor, he directed members of his cabinet to come up with a set of goals that were ambitious but achievable for the state. One of Maryland's 15 goals is ending child hunger by 2015.

With the exception of restoring the Chesapeake Bay, any of Maryland's goals could be adopted by any state. O'Malley's strategy for achieving all 15 is to build partnerships across various agencies of government and by involving private industry and the nonprofit sector. "Collaboration is the new competition," he told Mark Funkhouser, head of the nonpartisan Government Institute.[64]

By setting and standing behind the goals, the governor holds himself and his cabinet accountable. Because most of the goals set targets fairly far in the future, O'Malley will not be in office or able to run for governor again. Whether he succeeds or fails in achieving the goals, his legacy will most likely be one of leadership.

Under O'Malley's leadership, Maryland has dramatically increased the participation of eligible children in federal nutrition programs. The governor's campaign to end childhood hunger in Maryland is an example of the types of tasks that are entailed in an effort to lead a group in achieving a goal:

- Bluntly naming the issue.
- Setting a challenging goal.
- Accepting accountability for achieving the goal.
- Convening the players who can impact some part of the issue.
- Engaging in dialogue about the costs and consequences of the issue and a path forward.
- Creating transparency by continually collecting and publishing data on the issue.
- Consistently following through.

O'Malley's main job is to get Marylanders to see these goals as belonging to everyone, as theirs. If he does that, the goals will outlive his term in office. "Leadership from the government executive is essential," says Funkhouser, a former mayor of Kansas City. "No one else can do the things that have to happen to move the needle on major social issues."[65]

"At their core, these initiatives are formed around the belief that to end hunger at the community level, a broad range of stakeholders must unite behind a common vision and strategy."

The foundation for achieving all of Maryland's goals is StateStat, a performance-measurement and management tool implemented by Governor O'Malley to make Maryland state government more accountable and more efficient. StateStat is modeled after the CitiStat program that he developed as mayor of Baltimore.

StateStat starts with collecting and analyzing data across a wide range of indicators. Beth Blauer, former director of StateStat, points to school breakfast participation as an example of how data is used in Maryland. To boost participation in breakfast, Blauer started by collecting and mapping data that was available from the school systems. "We've mapped out every single school in the state. Anybody can track our progress via our website. You can look by school to see how we're doing with breakfast and lunch enrollment. You can see where we are on SNAP enrollment. If you go into our reports tab, you can get more detailed data from the individual agencies that are contributing data."[66]

"The traditional way of being successful in a large bureaucracy is to not screw up," says Robert Behn of Harvard's Kennedy School of Government. A program like StateStat changes that, he says, "from not screwing up and staying out of the newspapers to a list of things they are supposed to accomplish. People are aware there are things they're responsible for accomplishing, and they eventually drive that down into the organization."[67]

Table 4.1 **From 2008-2010, participation rates of eligible persons in the SNAP/Food Stamp Program surged in Maryland**

	2008	2009	2010
Participation Rate of Eligible Persons	59.0%	61.0%	70.0%
Participation Rate of Eligible Working Poor	44.0%	46.0%	55.0%

Source: USDA, Food and Nutrition Service

O'Malley is a Democrat, but goal setting has served Republicans leaders well, too. For example, in 2008 Oklahoma City Mayor Mick Cornett set a goal for the city to lose 1 million pounds. Oklahoma is ranked one of the least healthy states in the country; one reason is its high obesity rate. In 2012, the city accomplished the goal. Once again, executive leadership was a key factor: Cornett himself contributed 38 pounds to the cause.

A bottom-up approach to ending hunger in Texas

Leadership to end hunger is not solely the domain of elected officials. Leaders may come from the private sector or the community; for example, the manager of a supermarket who knows that increasing the SNAP participation rate would benefit everyone in a depressed local economy, members of the clergy who run a network of food pantries, or the head of a local PTA on a mission to get schools to serve healthier food.

If Maryland and Oklahoma City epitomize a top-down approach to leadership against hunger, the Texas Hunger Initiative is a superb case of bottom-up strategies. The initiative is part of the Baylor University School of Social Work, but the bulk of its work is in 15 communities across the state. Jeremy Everett, director of the Texas Hunger Initiative, describes its work as capacity building to support local and state leaders.

"We are trying to create a model that can be replicated in other states and strengthen their infrastructure on related poverty and social issues."

— Jeremy Everett

"In very few Texas communities are policymakers actually leading," says Everett. "They're involved, but oftentimes they're just not very knowledgeable about hunger in their communities. It's important to have them at the table because when political issues arise, these elected officials are able to streamline policy change."[68]

The Texas Hunger Initiative organizes local communities by creating Food Planning Associations (FPA) in cities and counties throughout Texas. FPAs bring together government and civic leaders; representatives of faith communities, corporate leaders, and nonprofit organizations; and people who have been hungry themselves.

Residents of Midland County in West Texas reached out to the Texas Hunger Initiative to help them establish an FPA. Data released by Feeding America shows that 24.8 percent of children in Midland County are at risk of hunger. And while that's much lower than the 34.9 percent of children for the whole West Texas region, it puts Midland above the national average of 23.2 percent.[69]

The challenge for low-income families in Midland is the high cost of living. The overall Midland economy rides the boom and bust cycles of the oil industry—but for those without connections to the industry, inflation takes a bite out of their paychecks and eats into what's left for food.

FPAs function as strategic planning teams to assess local food systems, identify resources and gaps, and create and then implement plans to fill the gaps. The FPAs rely on the Texas Hunger Initiative to furnish them with data so they can develop smarter strategies to fight hunger. For instance, the initiative tracks down information on how much federal nutrition funding a community is losing each year because not all eligible local residents participate. "In Midland, 18,000 people are food insecure," says Everett. "Half of them are eligible for all federal nutrition programs, but they only

Alliance to End Hunger

Jeremy Everett of the Texas Hunger Initiative speaking at the 2011 Hunger-Free Communities Summit in Washington, DC.

utilized 60 percent of those resources, so in the SNAP program alone, they left $15 million of federal funds on the table."

One major problem is that most communities have little or no infrastructure to ensure that resources are being used to the fullest. FPAs provide the infrastructure to ensure that community members are aware of these federal resources. Everett created the Texas Hunger Initiative based on a disaster-relief model developed in Texas after Hurricane Katrina. Most people who watched as Katrina caused devastation remember the government response as chaotic at best. Federal, state, and local governments learned from that experience and built coordinated public and private support teams, using all resources from the federal level down to local communities. Every county in Texas now has a person or organization that is accountable for leading the response when a disaster occurs.

Aerial views of damage caused by Hurricane Katrina the day after the hurricane struck on August 30, 2005.

"We're kind of in a perpetual state of disaster with hunger," says Everett, in all sincerity. "What I've found doing community development work all my adult life is that trying to address poverty or any aspect of poverty on the local level alone is like trying to address internal bleeding with a topical cream. You have to use federal, state, and local resources at the same time. Since we're a conservative state, when it gets to the federal level people start to get a little touchy. However, most Texans are fine with dealing with hunger issues on a local level, and many are eager to tap into any extra development money that could help create jobs in their community."

"So far, every one of our communities that has a food planning association has moved the needle on the food security index," says Everett. In Midland County, SNAP participation increased from 12 percent of the population in 2009 to 15 percent by 2011;[70] and between April 2011 and May 2012, SNAP benefits gave a boost of $19.1 million to the Midland County economy.[71]

The success of the Texas Hunger Initiative depends upon relationships and trust. Since 2009, it has worked diligently to build trust with federal and state agencies and has worked closely with the USDA Southwest Regional Administrator. More recently, it has built a good rapport with state agencies such as the Texas Department of Agriculture and the Texas Health and Human Services Commission.

"We are trying to create a model that can be replicated in other states and strengthen their infrastructure on related poverty and social issues," says Everett. As part of the Hunger-Free Communities Network, he and his colleagues at the Texas Hunger Initiative can share what they have learned in trying to end hunger in Texas and learn what other hunger-free organizers are doing to end hunger in their own states and communities.

IN ILLINOIS, A GOAL TO REDUCE POVERTY IS THE LAW

by Amelia Kegan

Achieving an ambitious goal such as ending child hunger or cutting poverty in half takes time. It requires a lasting political commitment, and one way to ensure that commitment is to enshrine the goal in law.

In 2008, the Illinois legislature unanimously passed the act that established the Commission on the Elimination of Poverty. The law requires that Illinois cut its "deep poverty" rate in half by 2015. Deep poverty is defined as having a household income of 50 percent or less of the poverty line. For example, a family of four would be living in poverty with an income of $23,050 or less. At $11,075 or less, this family would be in deep poverty.

Raul Rodriguez

Visitors cooling off and enjoying the popular 50 foot Crown Fountain towers that project video images of Chicago citizens in Millennium Park on a hot summer day in downtown Chicago.

The commission was charged with producing a Poverty Elimination Strategic Plan. This plan, released in 2010, outlined 42 specific policy proposals. Examples include establishing a statewide transitional jobs program, tripling the state EITC amount, and improving access to benefits such as TANF.

The law tasked the commission with producing an annual report that reviews progress on each of the policy prescriptions. Similar commissions in other states often are tasked with producing a report. Once the report is released, their work is usually finished. The Illinois Commission is different; it has no end date.

The commission is made up of members of the Illinois General Assembly, the Office of the Governor, and representatives of key public constituencies such as advocates and service providers. Members of relevant state agencies and other commissions serve and advise the commission as well.

The recession and weak recovery from it has clearly slowed progress toward the goal, but the commission's annual report and ongoing work continue to bring an influential poverty focus to policy debates. Public hearings engage key constituents and draw attention to the goal, reminding officials and key stakeholders of the pledge to cut deep poverty in half in Illinois—and the fact that it is not only a pledge but a state law.

Amelia Kegan is a policy analyst in the government relations department of Bread for the World.

A Goal to End Hunger is Within Reach

In Maryland, the governor owns the goal of ending child hunger, and we applaud his leadership. If more Marylanders knew their state goal was in keeping with a national goal, it would add impetus to both: people in Maryland would realize that they are contributing to solving a national problem, while people in other states could get a better look at the scale of the problem and how ordinary people are part of a lasting solution. Communities such as Midland, TX, are committed to helping their neighbors in times of hardship; the view of "community" would expand with the knowledge that they are part of a nationwide effort that serves the United States as a whole.

Laura Elizabeth Pohl

Bread for the World activists conduct an Offering of Letters at their church in Las Lunas, New Mexico in 2011. Bread members send tens of thousands of letters every year to members of Congress urging them to support policies to end hunger and poverty.

In this chapter, we highlighted how goals related to poverty shaped the national agenda a century ago and a half-century ago, during the high school movement in the early part of the 20th century and the War on Poverty in the 1960s. Of course, these are not the only times the United States has set goals as a nation. Another example was the Sputnik challenge of the 1950s, which led to the goal and achievement of landing an astronaut on the moon by the end of the 1960s.

It has been a long time since social goals were a driver of public policy, and since policymakers could expect to be held accountable for improving the country's performance on hunger and poverty. These problems tend to be low-profile despite their magnitude and impact. The American public needs to know a lot more about how many people are affected by hunger and poverty and the costs the country incurs by allowing these conditions to continue.

Only the president can initiate a national dialogue on such a critical issue, but the president alone cannot sustain the momentum needed to make progress, and it is unlikely that a president will spend political capital on hunger unless there are clear signs that the public is receptive. Thus, it will be up to leaders in their own communities to support the president and help ensure that sufficient public attention is focused on ending hunger.

Setting and striving to achieve goals has roused the country out of complacency before. Once again, this could be a way to build consensus around a shared vision of the future—and the need for action to realize this vision.

SETTING GOALS MADE A DIFFERENCE IN FIGHTING HIV/AIDS

by Galen Carey

World Relief launched the Mobilizing for Life campaign in 1997, the year I moved my family to Mozambique to lead the organization's work in the world's poorest country. AIDS was already a significant problem throughout Africa, but many of the continent's political and religious leaders were reluctant to acknowledge the crisis. Over time this changed, and many of our U.S. supporters partnered with African churches to address the pandemic and to care for the sick, the orphans and widows.

Still, advocates waged a lonely and often discouraging campaign to get more funding for an HIV/AIDS response on the scale needed. Few anticipated President George W. Bush's dramatic announcement in his 2003 State of the Union speech of a bold new initiative, which came to be known as the President's Emergency Program For AIDS Relief (PEPFAR).

"PEPFAR is an important example of the power of goal setting to unleash new resources and creative energies to tackle profound social problems."

Key to PEPFAR's success was clear goals: Prevent 7 million infections, provide anti-retroviral treatment for 2 million patients, and care for 10 million patients and orphans. President Bush pledged $15 billion over five years, more than doubling the amount spent fighting the disease, and leveraging additional contributions from other donor countries.

The legislative process required to authorize and fund PEPFAR led to vigorous advocacy and delicate negotiations. While there was broad agreement on the goals, legislators and advocates differed sharply on the strategies, particularly on how best to prevent further HIV infections.

Since HIV in Africa was spread mainly through sexual contact, some wanted to promote condoms and "safe sex" while others urged efforts to reduce sexual activity outside of marriage. Debate raged over a proposal to earmark one third of prevention funds for abstinence programming.

On one day I participated in strategy calls with two very different groups: one group threatened to kill the bill if the earmark stayed, while the other promised to block the bill if it didn't contain the abstinence funding. In the end, cooler heads prevailed, and PEPFAR was born.

Setting bold numerical goals was key to PEPFAR's success. But like most things, the process itself is not foolproof. In some cases the push for numbers was achieved at the expense of effectiveness. Broadcasting prevention messages to large crowds in one-off events did not lead to behavior change. However, PEPRAR's resources enabled organizations like World Relief to develop a successful model that integrates a 12-week course called Choose Life into the regular programming of local churches.

Active engagement by churches has led to marked reduction in the stigmatization of those living with HIV and AIDS. This, in turn, makes prevention and care initiatives more effective.

PEPFAR is an important example of the power of goal setting to unleash new resources and creative energies to tackle profound social problems. A goal to end domestic hunger, developed with broad participation, would inspire the necessary public and private investments. With strong leadership, we can achieve the goal of ending chronic hunger in the United States.

Galen Carey is vice president for government relations with the National Association of Evangelicals (NAE). Previously he served for more than 25 years with World Relief, the humanitarian arm of the NAE.

SETTING THE TABLE

Lori Silverbush and Kristi Jacobson, Documentary filmmakers and co-directors of A Place at the Table

Over the three years it took to make *A Place at the Table*, we met people who forever changed our understanding of what hunger in the United States looks like, why it exists, and how it can be fixed. Chief among them was Dr. Mariana Chilton, a Philadelphia physician and anti-hunger activist. Dr. Chilton handed out digital cameras to 40 mothers in North Philadelphia and asked them to document their struggle to feed their families, then sent their pictures—stark and stunning—out into the world. This simple act had profound implications, giving the women a political identity as the *Witnesses to Hunger*, and a voice that has since become part of the national dialogue about hunger.

Laura Elizabeth Pohl

Dr. Mariana Chilton, associate professor at the Drexel University School of Public Health, speaks during the launch of Bread for the World Institute's 2012 Hunger Report at the National Press Club in Washington, DC, on Monday, November 21, 2011.

It was through Dr. Chilton that we met Barbie Izquierdo, a spirited single mother who relied on food stamps (SNAP) while searching for work. Her efforts, as well as her activism with the Witnesses to Hunger, led to a job at the Greater Philadelphia Coalition Against Hunger. What should have been a happy ending, however, was anything but—Barbie's new income was too high to qualify her for SNAP, but too low to provide adequate healthy food for her own children.

We had expected to find hunger in the inner cities, but were surprised to also find it in idyllic rural towns like Collbran, Colorado, a proud ranching community nestled in a valley of the Rocky Mountains. In the summer of 2010, virtually everyone in town was feeling the impact of food insecurity in some way. The local pastor explained that lately even two-income families were relying on his church's weekly communal meal and after-school feeding program for kids. Even the town's sole police officer frequented the church's food pantry to make it through the month. A local teacher, Leslie Nichols, described how the shame of being a hungry kid still haunted her today; she channeled those difficult feelings into action by distributing bags of food to the families of her hungry students.

In Jonestown, Mississippi, a sultry Delta town of 2,000, we encountered a food desert; despite industrial agriculture all around them, the town's residents were forced to travel great distances to buy fresh food—a true obstacle for those without access to transportation or sufficient income for gas. Fast food and packaged processed food, the building blocks of an unhealthy diet, were readily available. We couldn't help but ask ourselves: why does a cheeseburger—whose multiple ingredients must be processed, cooked, packaged, marketed, and advertised—cost less than a fresh peach? The answer is so tightly wrapped up in government farm policy, political horse-trading in Congress, commercial interests, and misguided social planning that unraveling it is more than the media is generally willing to take on, and certainly

more than the average voter is able to comprehend without help.

Americans are told we can't afford to make school meals nutritious or expand the nutrition safety net enough so that everyone can eat. We're told that charities need to fill the gap. Millions of ordinary Americans are being encouraged to donate cans of food and volunteer their time at food pantries, believing that these efforts will make a significant difference, but a food bank employee quietly confided to us that canned food drives and employee-volunteer days were more valuable for public relations than ending hunger.

Charity is important, but it's not solving the underlying problem. In fact, it could be making it worse by allowing us to avoid asking the really hard question: Why, in a nation that has the means to feed everyone well and plentifully, are 49 million people not getting enough to eat?

Over the next two years we dared to imagine a system in which food banks become obsolete. If federal agricultural subsidies went toward fruits and vegetables rather than overproduced commodities, would that peach be cheaper than the cheeseburger? Could the substantial expertise of food bankers and community food activists be marshaled to help set up local and regional systems of delivery to food deserts? Could we explore community-based growing solutions through public funding rather than relying on the quixotic arm of charity? If we were to modernize the safety net and base it on the reality of need, would parents like Barbie be able to focus their energies on parenting, studying, and their family's upward mobility rather than the draining and demoralizing daily quest for food?

Why can't school meals be highly nutritious and free for all students, like textbooks, thereby erasing the stigma for the millions of kids who need government-subsidized meals? Maybe then young people like Rosie, a struggling 10 year old we met in Collbran, Colorado, would have the energy they need to learn. And why not let teachers like Leslie Nichols teach children about healthy food choices and preparation? If we can teach algebra, why not food smarts?

"We made *A Place at the Table* because we truly believe that when Americans are made aware of injustice in their own backyard, they will demand change from their leaders."

All these changes would cost money up front, but it seems clear that in the long term we'd recoup our investment in the form of decreased healthcare costs and greater productivity. Doesn't society prosper when people are healthier and have the money to make real, healthful food choices, thus increasing demand for those items? With increased demand comes greater production, leading to lower prices. Lower prices for fresh food would benefit the very people who need it most.

The true cost of hunger is measured not in dollars but in human suffering and loss of human potential. We made *A Place at the Table* because we truly believe that when Americans are made aware of injustice in their own backyard, they will demand change from their leaders. When Americans equate ending hunger with patriotism, we know we will solve the problem of hunger in America once and for all.

Lori Silverbush and Kristi Jacobson are co-directors of the documentary film A Place at the Table, about the shocking paradox of hunger in the wealthiest nation on earth, through the stories of three Americans who face food insecurity daily.

Laura Elizabeth Pohl

Sharing Posts and Progress: Youth Push the Boundaries of Partnership

Derek Schwabe
Bread for the World Institute

I've got this friend. He's from Pakistan—a least developed country according to the U.N. Human Development Index (HDI).[1] When we first met, I was sure he was American. His English was perfect and he seemed to know all the ins and outs of U.S. popular culture—even holding his own in a discussion of obscure characters from Walt Disney movies. He could name more U.S. government officials than most Americans that I knew, and spoke knowledgably about U.S. foreign affairs as if they were his own. In one of our first conversations, he drew on a thorough knowledge of my country, his country, and global economics to articulate a compelling argument that challenged my assumptions about the role of the United States in developing countries. Soon after this discussion, I found out that it was the first week of his first-ever trip outside Pakistan.

He came from a rural region where arranged marriages were not uncommon and grew up in a devout Muslim home that was guarded against Western culture. Upon learning all this, I was anxious to ask how he could know so much about the United States and relate so easily to Americans with only a few days in the country.

"It's globalization, dude," he said.

Over the past decade, technological advances have given me, my friend, and other members of the Millennial generation (loosely defined as people born after 1982) unprecedented access to communication tools, and with them, information of all sorts. It's everything from news and educational resources to popular culture and social networks. We are the face of an emerging global community—one that sees beyond artificial national boundaries, personal background, language, and development indicators like the HDI. The word community is chosen intentionally, because that is what we are. We share a common knowledge, culture, and language. Though our individual realities may differ immensely, they can now overlap in once impossible ways—ways that build a trust and familiarity. To be part of this community, you only need one thing: Internet access.

Since 2002, the number of global Internet users has nearly quadrupled. The number of public websites has grown even faster in the same amount of time—from 3 million to 555 million.[2] We can talk to each other virtually any time on Skype and follow each other's bite- sized updates on Facebook and Twitter. The most recent chapter in this technological tale—featuring smart phones, tablets, and other mobile devices—has only fortified the lines of instant communication. It's a "24/7" global conversation, with more people joining all the time.

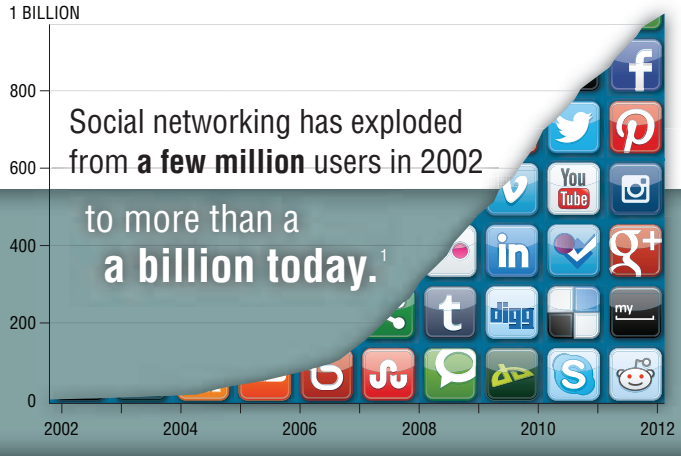
Two Generations Ago

When my grandfather was a 20-something American soldier in the late 1950s, he was sent to what was then known as West Germany to help in what's often called the earliest phase of modern U.S. foreign assistance—the reconstruction of Europe. At the time, most young Americans understood going "over there" to be a chore and a duty. The United States had a lofty obligation to rebuild a war-shattered society, and the roles were clear: we were the rescuers and they were the beneficiaries.

Grandpa lived on a U.S. base just outside Frankfurt. Like other U.S. bases at the time, it functioned as an American military town that had simply been transplanted in Europe. Most military residents did little to expand their interactions beyond its comfortable confines into neighboring local communities. The shadow of Nazi Germany lingered heavily into the 1950s—reminding us that the American tendency toward physical and ideological self-containment was neither unreasonable nor unjustified.

During this same period, warning signs of the Cold War only greater strained an already weak international trust. In this time, the unfamiliar easily gave way to the suspicious. The behavior of a nuclear-armed Soviet Union was alarming, especially when a formidable barrier between East and West—the Berlin Wall—was constructed in 1961. Given this context, it's not surprising that Grandpa has never mentioned making any close European friends during his time overseas.

Jump ahead more than 50 years—I am now a 20-something American. Last year, I travelled to Europe for the first time for a semester of foreign language study. I visited the site of the base where my grandfather had lived, now converted to office buildings. While in Europe, I was encouraged to leave my American "bubble" and build friendships with local people. I made the choice to live with a native family, speak their language, eat what my hosts ate, and intentionally seek out cultural differences. It changed my life. I now have friends from across Europe with whom I communicate regularly. The time I spent in Germany, learning from Germans, has unquestionably changed how I view my home and how I relate to a diverse world.



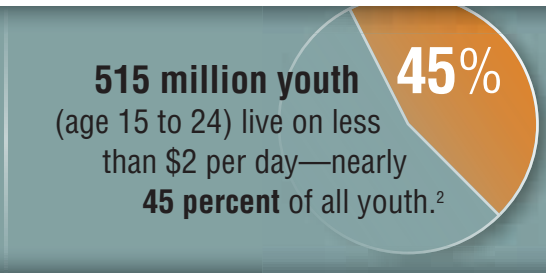
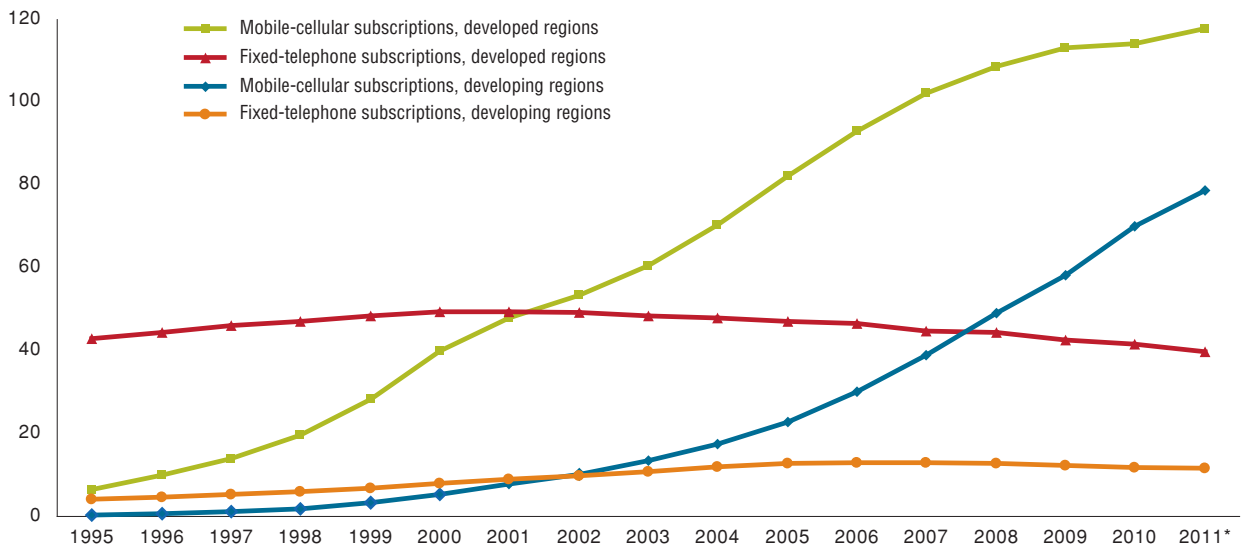


Figure c.1 **The Extraordinary Rise in Mobile Cellular Subscriptions Continues in the Developing World**

Number of fixed-telephone and mobile-cellular subscriptions per 100 inhabitants, 1995-2011



* Data for 2011 are preliminary estimates.

Source: United Nations, 2012

Pushing Boundaries

My grandfather's story and my story represent a generational shift in concepts of global engagement. Today, more U.S. students than ever before are going out there, not to perform a duty, but to find opportunities to learn. The U.S. State Department reports that study abroad by college and university students has more than tripled in the past two decades.[3] Some students are going to Europe, but many others are pushing the boundaries even further, heading to Asia, South America, and Africa. These continents were once viewed cautiously as destinations left to thrill-seekers and do-gooders. Today, more of my peers than ever before are choosing developing countries as their new classrooms. And you can be sure that when their time in these places comes to an end, the friendships, the communication, and the conversations will not.

To a quickly growing number of Americans—particularly Millennials—the developing world is no longer a site for charity work. Its people are not helpless. They are friends and partners—fellow learners who have their own views and experiences to contribute to

Developing countries are home to **87 percent** of the world's youth.[3]

In 2010, **two-thirds** of students in low-income countries completed primary school.[4]

ongoing dialogues on how to solve our persistent shared problems like poverty and hunger. The two-dimensional concept of "the West and the rest" is no longer adequate; people in my generation from every continent are finding new ways to forge partnerships across national borders and through once dense cultural underbrush. Americans are venturing out in greater numbers, but the world is coming to us too. According to the Institute for International Education, the number of international students coming to the United States each year has grown by 32 percent over the past decade—and developing countries top the list of sending nations.[4]

"I was not born without a cause.
I was not born without faith.
My heart beats strong to yell at those who do not feel,
And so pursue happiness.
It is a right of birth."

— Excerpt from
Un Derecho de Nacimiento

With all the exciting changes, the fact remains that the ability to get on a plane is still a privilege of rich people. But as my Pakistani friend has taught me, a plane ticket is no longer a requirement. If you have even a basic education and strong will to learn, access can take you far. The price of international connectivity is falling all the time. According to the U.N., more than half of the people in the developing world are now cell phone subscribers.[5] Internet users, though still a minority, are poised to multiply quickly as the cost of broadband access falls. And once people are online, they are thoroughly connected in ways that go beyond Skype and Facebook. Open learning initiatives such as Harvard University's Extension School are providing world-class educational opportunities to anyone with a LAN line and a laptop. Computer science, comparative literature, world history, abstract algebra—it's all there and it's all free. Other exciting idea-sharing platforms, such as the innovative TED.com, are bringing the world's brightest minds around the same table for unparalleled international collaboration.

BOX c.1

AGRICULTURAL EXCHANGE: FUTURE FARMERS OF AMERICA PARTNER WITH YOUNG GHANAIANS

The Future Farmers of America (FFA) has launched an 18-month project with a peer group of young Ghanaian farmers through the Hunger Alliance of Ghana. The project aims to provide an experiential medium for both groups to share technical knowledge about farming practices. Ghanaian youth will share their specialized local knowledge of farming their home landscape, while a team of U.S. graduate students from FFA will train their Ghanaian peers on how to advocate for agriculture with their own national government. FFA has 85 years of experience in agricultural research, education and advocacy, and understands the importance of healthy relationships between the agricultural community and the government. Young people's organizations like FFA are still relatively new to Ghana so this partnership features the added value of international peer exchange that may germinate online, but can quickly grow to take on a tangible form.

2015+

Ready or not, the U.N. Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) will expire in 2015. Some goals will be met, while others will not. Regardless of global progress on MDGs 1 through 7, MDG 8—creating a global partnership for development—is being tackled in ways scarcely imaginable 10 years ago. Partnership is the new name of the global game. The experience of the MDGs has taught us that ownership of it cannot rest with national governments alone. The potential for sharing is enormous, and most importantly, the global mindset, particularly among youth, is shifting to accommodate an immensely more inclusive conversation.

Like my friend, each new person brought to the table is a valuable and original human resource with incalculable potential. And the more minds that we have working on hunger and poverty, the better. These are two chronic plagues that will not be eradicated until not only governments, but people—youth, students, researchers, entrepreneurs, people of faith, and others, of all income levels, and from all corners of the globe—can seize these bold new tools of communication and collaborate as peers for creative and coordinated development beyond 2015.

Derek Schwabe is the Hunger Report project fellow at Bread for the World Institute.

Musicians in central plaza of Mexico City perform song "Un Derecho de Nacimiento/Right of Birth." See lyrics on opposite page.

BOX c.2

A RIGHT OF BIRTH: ARTISTIC VOICES EMPOWER YOUTH IN LATIN AMERICA

Earlier this year, a group of young Mexican musicians wrote a song titled "Un Derecho de Nacimiento" (A Right of Birth) to artfully raise their concerns and hopes for development and human rights issues in their native country. The song was recorded in June as a music video in the central plaza of Mexico City and was posted on YouTube. It soon grew widely popular with young Mexicans, and was rapidly circulated online through social and news media. By September, the video had received over one million views across the web. It has become a rallying cry for Spanish-speaking youth the world over who want to make a statement about national and global injustices like poverty, corruption, discrimination, and environmental exploitation. This is just one example of the potential of social media tools like YouTube to empower and unify people across many countries, particularly young people who know these tools as a way of life and want to make their voices heard loud and clear.

View "Un Derecho de Nacimiento" now at: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JCWGOUlqq4k.

LEADER'S RESOURCE

Study Guide Contents and General Process Suggestions

1. The 2013 Christian Study Guide includes six small-group sessions rooted in the content of the 2013 Hunger Report, *Within Reach–Global Development Goals*. Session 1 sets the context, while the following five sessions develop particular themes emphasized in the Hunger Report. If your group cannot do all the sessions, we recommend that you do Session 1 before any others.
2. We anticipate that each session will have a facilitator, but the leader needs no specific expertise on the report's content to facilitate the session.
3. The study guide is designed for Christians of many theological and political viewpoints. You should feel free to adapt the guide to enhance the experience for your group. The section below, Preparation Notes for Group Leaders, steers your group to websites relating social policies to different Christian traditions.
4. The guide will direct participants to read relevant sections of the Hunger Report during the sessions. *Within Reach–Global Development Goals* and www.bread.org/go/hunger2013 are filled with detailed analysis, statistics, and stories, so additional reading will enrich your conversation, but it is not required. Additionally, www.evangelicaladvocacy.org contains a plethora of resources.
5. Each session includes:
   - The Word: Biblical reflection materials and questions.
   - The Issues: A summary of the theme as presented in the Hunger Report, along with reflection questions.
   - The Application: Activities to engage group members in analyzing current realities, using content from the Hunger Report and their life experiences.
6. The sessions as written may take an hour to 90 minutes each, but should be adapted to meet the scheduling needs of the group. We invite you to open and close each session with prayer, especially remembering those most affected by the topics that you discuss.

Preparation Notes for Group Leaders

1. At least one Bible is required for each session. Participants could be encouraged to bring additional translations.
2. It will be helpful to have a copy of the session materials for each participant.
3. After you familiarize yourself with the outline of the session, you may adapt the activities to best serve the needs of your group.
4. To learn more about social policy in your own Christian tradition, visit the website of your denomination or national group. Sometimes these include a discussion of social policies. You might also visit:

National Association of Evangelicals
www.nae.net/government-relations

National Council of Conferences of Churches
www.ncccusa.org/NCCpolicies

U.S. Conference of Catholic Bishops
www.povertyusa.org

5. Most sessions include activities using newsprint, a flip-chart, or a whiteboard.

Ideas for Further Action

We hope the Study Guide stimulates further interest in the issues discussed in the Hunger Report. Here are suggestions for activities to engage your group beyond this Study Guide.

1. **Learn from firsthand experience**

   Find a way for your group to spend time with someone whose life experience has given him or her personal knowledge of hunger, farming, and/or U.S. development assistance.

2. **Engage with Bread for the World**

   a. ***Bread for the World's Offering of Letters.*** Each year, Bread for the World invites churches and campus groups across the country to take up Offerings of Letters to Congress on issues that are important to hungry and poor people. The Offering of Letters enables individuals to see their concerns translated into policies that help hungry and poor people improve their lives. To learn more about Bread for the World's Offering of Letters this year, visit www.bread.org/OL

   b. ***Contact your Bread for the World Regional Organizer.***

   c. ***Visit us at www.bread.org to read the Bread Blog and Institute Notes blog. Find us on Facebook and follow us on twitter@bread4theworld.***

3. **Write to your state or local representative**

   Write to your representative in the city council, state assembly, or Congress to share your thoughts and concerns about food and farm policy.

4. **Learn what your denomination or national association is doing related to hunger and poverty**

Group Leaders: for notes about specific sessions, see **www.bread.org/go/hunger2013**

SESSION 1: THE CHURCH AS A VOICE FOR COMPREHENSIVE DEVELOPMENT

1

The Word

Read Acts 2:42-47 and Proverbs 29:18

As the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) draw closer to their 2015 deadline, all nations will once again be drawn into a discussion of how they can work together to help more than a billion people escape extreme poverty and hunger. As Christians, we do not have to wonder what true community looks like; we only have to read the book of Acts. To end hunger and poverty, it is going to take a similarly radical dedication to the "other."

The Gospel message is not only one of eternal salvation, but a distinct way of life ushering in the Kingdom of God "on earth as it is in heaven." In fact, early Christians simply referred to the fledgling system of belief as "the Way." As followers of Christ and accepters of the love of God, we have a responsibility and a mission to be leaders to extend the grace of the Gospel to all. Tackling an issue such as global poverty will take a clear vision as shown by the MDGs. Christians should be able to identify policies that will promote the transformation of impoverished communities and to become vocal leaders in the execution of those ideas.

1. What does it mean to you for Christianity to be called "The Way"?
2. Consider the example of the early church from Acts 2, how might this be applied globally?

The Issues

Fighting poverty and hunger on a global scale will take tremendous planning and vision. The MDGs, though not perfect, represent a comprehensive vision. Before the MDGs were established in the year 2000, "development" was commonly viewed in terms of a nation's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). This failed to properly take into account the multi-faceted dimensions of poverty and hunger. The MDGs formed the first global agreement that sought to fight poverty and hunger on several different fronts, including poor health, lack of education, gender discrimination, and squalid living conditions. In addition, the MDGs marked the first time that the international community came together to focus on fighting poverty and hunger in terms of a partnership. While much work remains to be done, the MDGs ushered in a more disciplined approach to quantifying progress. Progress on the goals themselves is uneven, but several countries are reporting significant improvements in reducing poverty—a catalyst for progress against other related hardships.

SESSION 1: THE CHURCH AS A VOICE FOR COMPREHENSIVE DEVELOPMENT

Questions

1. How do you use goals in your own life? What type of plans have you made to overcome challenges in your life and how did God help you through those situations?
2. Think of a time you participated in a group project. What worked well in the planning? What role did unity and a cohesive vision play in the success or failure of the project?

UN Photo/Kibae Park

The Application

1. Gather your group together and tell them you are going to have a discussion to decide what snacks to bring to the next meeting, but first they will be drawing slips of paper that describe their role in the discussion (See notes about this session online at www.bread.org/go/hunger2013.) Have each person blindly draw for a role without revealing it. Then attempt to come to a decision about which snacks to bring to the next meeting. After a few minutes, reveal their roles to each other and discuss the difficulties of making a decision without unity or a clear vision.
2. Introduce the religious leaders' statement on page 1, noting the broad group of leaders that have signed it. Using the statement and the list of MDGs on page 11, create a mock-press release relating the MDGs to your own community. Suggestion: you could hold a mock-press conference in order to inform the rest of your community about what you are learning.

SESSION 2: THE FACE OF POVERTY HAS CHANGED

2

The Word

Read Luke 10:25-37

The parable of the "good" Samaritan is Jesus' response to the question "who is my neighbor?" The Jewish people who followed Jesus despised Samaritans and considered them second class citizens. Thus, they would not have been prepared to hear Jesus say that a Samaritan modeled faithfulness. Jesus said the Samaritan was a neighbor because he showed mercy by caring for someone in need. Jesus told his listeners "go and do likewise."

1. Who do you picture when you think of people in need?
2. Where are the people closest to you who are struggling with hunger and poverty?
3. How is Jesus calling you to be a good neighbor? What does "go and do likewise" mean for us in the context of global poverty?"

The Issues

The face of poverty has changed since the MDGs were launched. In 1990, the baseline year for the MDGs, 93 percent of the world's poor people lived in low-income, conflict-affected or fragile states. But now it is estimated that 72 percent of the world's poor live in middle-income countries. We have seen growing inequalities between the highest and lowest income brackets in developing countries; economic growth in developing countries tends to reach the poorest 20 percent slower than higher income groups. Therefore, poverty could be viewed as a national distribution problem. The 2013 Hunger Report also explores a number of interrelated issues, such as the relationship between climate change and poverty reduction, the importance of poverty in poorer countries as a "push factor" for immigration, and the connections between international trade and hunger. Despite the complexities of ending hunger and poverty, the next set of global development goals must help those who are neediest, wherever they are.

Questions

1. Read pages 51-52 in Chapter 1, which describe the Multidimensional Poverty Index. Why does this index tell us more about the challenges facing our poorest neighbors than a simple report on their income?
2. Read the Conclusion, starting on page 145. Is your worldview more like the author's or his grandfather's? How does technology influence whom you consider to be your neighbors?

SESSION 2: THE FACE OF POVERTY HAS CHANGED

The Application

1. Visit the Interactive Data section of the 2013 Hunger Report website and learn about hunger (food insecurity) in your county and state. Then use the interactive map to compare your county to others in the state. What would it take for your community to achieve MDG 1: halving poverty and hunger by 2015? Find a way to teach members of your congregation what you learned about your neighbors.

UN Photo/Eskinder Debebe

2. "The Northern Triangle—And Just South of the Border" on page 99 of the Hunger Report discusses remittances sent to home countries by immigrants. Divide a flipchart page or a whiteboard in half and label one half "remittances" and the other half "foreign assistance." For each category, write down who benefits from it (some of the same people/groups might be listed on both sides) and then put a check mark next to each group that will benefit in the short term and circle each group that will benefit in the long term. What do you notice? (For more information on remittances, you can read the following article in the *National Journal* online by Andrew Wainer, author of "The Northern Triangle—And Just South of the Border:" http://www.nationaljournal.com/thenextamerica/economy/opinion-remittances-and-the-international-american-dream-20120828.)

SESSION 3: THE LAST SHALL BE FIRST: A MODEL OF INVESTMENT

3

The Word

Read Mark 10: 28-31 and Matthew 25:14-30

The passage from Matthew has had many interpretations over the centuries. Here we offer its focus on "investment" as an interesting frame for our discussion of development. One could follow this line of thought and see that some investments have been more successful than others in achieving the MDGs. Coupled with the passage from Mark instructing us that the last shall be first and the first shall be last, it makes sense that the values inherent in our vision of investing in development would be different from those not informed by Christian teaching. Investing in the poorest of the poor, while more challenging in terms of achieving the current MDGs, is a value put forth by Jesus as he is speaking to his disciples. However, the lesson of the servant with one talent also teaches us that the poorest of the poor are themselves responsible for investing well. Effective development will take cooperation, training, and a strong effort from all involved. While countries should seek to invest in the poorest individuals, donors must remove barriers that inhibit recipients from using their investment successfully.

1. What are "talents" possessed by high-income countries? By middle-income countries? By low-income countries?
2. As you reflect on global development, what might it look like for the last to become first?

The Issues

Investing in development leads to less poverty and hunger, better health outcomes, lower infant mortality rates, and stronger economies. It is particularly important to invest in marginalized populations and to address their priorities when developing poverty-reduction strategies.

One such priority is nutrition, especially during the 1,000 day-window between pregnancy and a child's second birthday. Investing in nutrition during this critical time can improve maternal health and child development. With stronger immune systems, children are less susceptible to disease, which leads to healthcare savings. With more intellectual capacity, children do better in school and earn more income across their lifetime. Investing in nutrition can lead to increases of 2-3 percent in a developing country's GDP. A recent report notes that every $1 invested in nutrition can yield returns as high as $138.

Questions

1. Read "Improving Nutrition Outcomes in Bangladesh" on pages 14-15 and watch the Hunger Report video at www.bread.org/go/hunger2013. Discuss the story in light of the Hunger Report theme of investing in the least of these.

SESSION 3: THE LAST SHALL BE FIRST: A MODEL OF INVESTMENT

2. Women are an example of groups that are marginalized due to inequalities. Look at Figure i.7 on page 22 called "Sub-Saharan Africa Loses More Human Development Gains to Inequality." The HDI is the Human Development Index and it measures development through a series of factors such as life expectancy, literacy, education and standards of living and well-being, especially child welfare. Notice the gains in development that were missed due to inequality. What inequalities (economic, educational, gender-related, or racial/ethnic) are you aware of in the United States? How do they impact poverty?

Laura Elizabeth Pohl

The Application

1. Take a look at Table 2.3 on page 73 called "Focusing on the Household: Mother and Child-Centered Interventions to Reduce Malnutrition and its Impact." The interventions listed are identified as child-centered and mother-centered. They are also broken out into treatment and prevention strategies. Now make a list of the interventions which involve behavior modification and another list of the interventions which involve removing access barriers. What surprises you? What did you learn? Are any of the interventions familiar to you? How are these interventions investments?
2. Go to Figure i.3 on page 17 called "Nutrition Outcomes Are at the Intersection of Food Security and Human Development." Use this figure as a frame for telling the story of your life. What were your nutritional issues? How were they addressed through your life? Talk about your access to nutrition and the impact on you of access or lack thereof. There are several key ideas in Figure i.3. Discuss how the components of this figure impact one another. What do each of these look like in real life?

SESSION 4: DEVELOPMENT SHOULD INCLUDE ALL VOICES

4

The Word

Read Matthew 20: 29-34; Mark 10:46-52; and Luke 18:35-43

You will notice that these are three versions of the same story. In each, Jesus is called as he walks by a blind man (or men as the Matthew text reads). And when the people try to quiet him, Jesus turns and calls to the blind person/s. He then asks what they want before presuming that they want to see. In Jesus' healing works and miracles, he responds to people's particular needs. It is tempting to assume that we know what is best for someone else, but even when Jesus is healing a blind person, he hears directly from the individual/s about what they want.

It is important that the strategies for achieving the MDGs and developing new goals beyond 2015 include the important voices of those who seek assistance. Those with great resources (and talents) often think that they have all the answers, but it is in partnering with and listening to people in poverty that we can learn how to develop creative and targeted strategies that will have the greatest impact.

1. Think of a time when you assumed you knew best what someone needed, but learned later that you were off base. How could you have changed your approach to the situation to have a better outcome?
2. Imagine this on a broader scale. How can we lose sight of the goal by imposing our own strategies and requirements when trying to assist other people?

The Issues

Traditional approaches to development assistance have been mostly top-down with donor countries deciding how development assistance should be used in recipient countries. This trend is beginning to shift towards supporting the goals and priorities of the recipient countries. Donor countries are now more willing to treat recipient countries as partners. As this shift occurs, it is important for donors to ensure that women and civil society groups are involved in defining their country's development priorities. Additionally, donors and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) that implement development assistance must coordinate their efforts with these country-led strategies. The aid landscape has gotten more complicated as middle-income countries become donors themselves. Middle-income countries face many development challenges within their own borders related to inequality. High-income countries, including the United States, also need to address inequality.

SESSION 4: DEVELOPMENT SHOULD INCLUDE ALL VOICES

Questions

1. Read on page 61 about the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank loan requirements for debt relief. Also, read pages 66 about South Korea's plan to use U.S. development assistance for an infrastructure project. The U.S. government rejected the plan, so the Korean government went ahead and paid for the project itself and it yielded a spectacular return on investment. What can we learn from these examples? How should partners work together in such situations?
2. Recall the activity you did in Session 1 when the group came together to make a decision. How would the process have been different if one or more persons didn't have a voice? For example, if the decision was to bring peanut butter and jelly sandwiches for snacks the next week, what would happen if the person allergic to peanuts couldn't participate in the discussion?

Todd Post

The Application

1. Read the article on pages 110-111, "Transitioning to Local Ownership." Make a chart with three columns. In the first column list examples of what made the transition successful. In the second column, list qualities that describe the role of the U.S. Government? And in the third column, list qualities that describe the role of the NGOs involved.
2. Think of a situation when one person needed to borrow money from another person. This could be a child borrowing money from a parent for college, a friend borrowing money from another friend for a down payment on something, or an individual borrowing money from a bank to buy a car or house. What might be spoken or unspoken expectations around the use of the money? Do those requirements change if the situation changes, or are the requirements fixed?

SESSION 5: JUST GOVERNMENTS HAVE A ROLE IN CREATING POSITIVE CHANGE

5

The Word

Read Romans 13: 3-4 and Isaiah 55:3-5

The verses from Romans are about leaders who are just. One way to feel the power of these verses is to read them with the opposite meaning, that is replacing the word 'good' with 'evil' and vice versa. For example, "For he is God's minister to you for *evil*...if you do *good*, be afraid; for he does not bear the sword in vain; for he is God's minister, an avenger to execute wrath on him who practices *good*." Sound wrong? Of course it does. These verses have been used to justify following even the most deplorable of leaders. However, in the scriptures, God clearly calls people and their leaders to seek justice.

Old Testament law reflects divine concern for poor people and the systems that keep or make people poor. The Isaiah passage establishes Israel as an Earthly example of God's rule. God is promising that as Israel is established under the way of God, other nations will seek to be like Israel and follow God. This is not to suggest that any government is now God's chosen nation for others to follow. However, there is definitely a concept here that should be noted. If a nation's government shows independent initiatives in solving issues, such as poverty and hunger, then other nations are sure to follow that example.

Just leadership is absolutely crucial to being able to produce the wide-scale transformation that the MDGs seek. Not only should the MDGs focus on just leadership, but Christians should understand that government has a role in creating real transformation.

1. Considering the above verses, what role does the leader of a nation have in the establishment of a just society?
2. Romans 13 begs the question: "What do we do if there is an unjust leader?" Discuss.

The Issues

Chapter 3 of the Hunger Report notes that John Kufuor, former president of Ghana, was the co-laureate of the 2011 World Food Prize for his leadership in making Ghana the first sub-Saharan African country to reduce hunger and poverty by half. Kufuor realized that Ghana's success gave it a good reputation among neighboring countries. In this manner, he felt that Ghana needed to continue to model good governance as a nation

SESSION 5: JUST GOVERNMENTS HAVE A ROLE IN CREATING POSITIVE CHANGE

so that its neighbors in the region would do the same. As the report states, "The corrosive effects of government corruption are just one example of how governance problems undermine progress. Good governance, on the other hand, is an enabling condition and a prerequisite to lasting change." Just governments play a crucial role in creating avenues to security and a hunger-free environment. They also have a responsibility to serve as a positive example, showing other nations how to be just.

Questions

1. In what specific ways can well governed nations serve as an example for the rest of the world?
2. Look at Figures 3.7 and 3.8 on page 103 describing the effects of corruption on infant mortality and poverty rates. What differences do you see? How does a good government affect outcomes?

UN Photo/Eskinder Debebe

The Application

1. Imagine what it would be like to live in a country where governance was a serious problem. What situations did you imagine? Make a list of your observations and save them. You will use them again after the next step.
2. Look at Table 3.2, "Policy Options for Empowering the Food Insecure" on page 104. Compare and contrast the items on this chart with the list from your first activity. What is different? How do the items on the chart help secure a good life for individuals in a country?

SESSION 6: THE UNITED STATES SHOULD EXERCISE LEADERSHIP

6

The Word

Read Exodus 3:7-12, Isaiah 25:6 and Revelation 7:6

In the Exodus passage, God offered Moses and the Israelites a vision of a new possibility, a promised land. But this is not the only liberation story in Holy Scripture. The Bible is filled with images and stories of God's love and God's desire that all people might find healing, freedom, and wholeness. Prophets hold up images like the one in Isaiah 25:6 of new possibilities for suffering people; and Jesus held up the ultimate vision of a new possibility when he spoke of the kingdom (or the reign) of God. Whenever he sent forth his disciples, Jesus instructed them to speak of the reign of God and to do something about it. He also said that his followers should pray for God's kingdom to come "on earth, as it is in heaven."

1. God is working in our time. As people of God's story, what visions guide you as you imagine a world in which people "hunger no more"?
2. Using Jesus' Good Samaritan vision of being a neighbor (see Session 2: The Face of Poverty has Changed), how should the United States be a good neighbor?
3. What power can the United States and its leaders exercise to end hunger and poverty? What power can individual Christians exercise?

The Issues

The United States has one of the highest poverty rates and infant mortality rates in the industrialized world. However, with effective leadership, hunger could be eliminated in the United States within 10 to 15 years, according to the Hunger Report. Chapter 4 describes the societal and economic costs of hunger in America and how changes to our labor market and our education system must be a part of a national effort to overcome poverty and hunger. In the past, the United States has shown the will to address problems at home and abroad; the Hunger Report argues for a similar determination now.

Questions

1. Read the article starting on page 80, "U.S. Leadership and Global Development Goals." Where do you see examples of the sort of leadership being called for in the Hunger Report?

SESSION 6: THE UNITED STATES SHOULD EXERCISE LEADERSHIP

2. Remember the conversation you had in Session 5 about well governed nations being a model for the world. Review the charts "Poverty rates by household types with children" on page 131 and "Decline in Infant Mortality Rates" on page 132. Discuss how well you think the United States is serving as a model for other nations.

The Application

1. Read the section starting on page 134, "Maryland's governor sets a goal to end childhood hunger." Review the list of tasks that help a group reach a goal. Identify a poverty-related challenge facing your community. How would you know if the problem was solved? Make a list of all the data that could measure whether the situation was improving.

File Photo

2. Read the article starting on page 142, "Setting the Table." Have different people in your group imagine that they are Barbie, Leslie, and Rosie; also have someone in the group imagine being a member of Congress who wants to get the deficit under control. Stage a scene in which Barbie, Leslie and Rosie visit the member of Congress. What would they want the member of Congress to know? Now watch the trailer for "A Place at the Table" at www.bread.org/OL. What do you want your member of Congress to know about how you feel about hunger in America?

Endnotes

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(pages 2-7)

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Acronyms

AFDC	Aid to Families with Dependent Children
AYINET	African Youth Initiative Network
CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme
CAF	Children's AIDS Fund
CAFOD	Catholic Agency for Overseas Development
CGD	Center for Global Development
CHAZ	Churches Health Association of Zambia
CPI	Corruption Perceptions Index
CRS	Catholic Relief Services
DAA	Development Action Association
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
EITC	Earned Income Tax Credit
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FDI	Foreign direct investment
G-8	Group of 8
G-20	Group of 20
GAO	Government Accountability Office
GDP	Gross domestic product
GNI	Gross National Income
HDI	Human Development Index
HFC	Hunger Free Communities Act
HFP	Homestead Food Production
HIPC	Heavily Indebted Poor Countries
HUD	U.S. Department Housing and Urban Development
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IPR	Implementation and Procurement Reform
MCA	Millennium Challenge Account
MCC	Millennium Challenge Corporation
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MDGHA	MDG Health Alliance
MFAN	Modernizing Foreign Assistance Network
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys
MPI	Multidimensional Poverty Index
NAE	National Association of Evangelicals
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGO	Nongovernmental organization
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
ORS	Oral rehydration salts
PEPFAR	President's Emergency Program for AIDs Relief
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
PSNP	Productive Safety Net Program
SAM	Severe acute malnutrition
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SNAP	Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering and Math
SUN	Scaling Up Nutrition
TANF	Temporary Assistance for Needy Familiies
U.N.	United Nations
UNDP	U. N. Development Program
UNICEF	U.N. Children's Fund
USAID	U.S. Agency for International Development
USDA	U.S. Department of Agriculture
VDGs	Vietnam's Development Goals
WIC	Special Supplemental Nutrition, Program for Women, Infants, and Children
WEIA	Women's Empowerment in Agriculture
WHO	World Health Organization

Glossary

1,000 Days: A public-private partnership promoting targeted action and investment to improve nutrition for mothers and children in the 1,000-day period from pregnancy to age two when better nutrition can have a life-changing impact on a child's future.

Accra Agenda for Action: A statement endorsed in 2008 by ministers of developing countries and heads of multilateral and bilateral development institutions to deepen implementation of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness. (See more about Paris Declaration below.)

Affordable Care Act: The U.S. health care law signed by President Obama in 2010 that aims to improve access to health coverage for low-income Americans, to be fully implemented by 2014.

Bilateral aid: Aid from a single donor country to a single recipient country.

Biodiversity: A measure of ecological health which indicates the diversity of species within an ecosystem and has direct effects on human wellbeing.

Busan Partnership for Effective Development: The agreement signed at the Fourth High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness in Busan, Republic of Korea, in 2011, which included a larger and more diverse cast of participants than previous forums. Nontraditional donors, residing primarily in the Global South, were invited to participate for the first time.

Capacity building: Development assistance specifically designed to build skills and/or technical and management capacity among its beneficiaries.

Civil society: The sphere of civic action outside of the government comprised of citizens' groups, such as nongovernmental organizations, religious congregations, academic institutions, labor unions and foundations.

Climate change: Climate change refers to a change in the state of the climate that can be identified (e.g., by using statistical tests) by changes over an extended period, typically decades or longer.

Comprehensive African Agriculture Development Program (CAADP): A framework agreed on by African countries that represents their collective vision of the agricultural sector's central importance to poverty reduction and economic development.

Conditional cash assistance programs: A government transfer of cash based on conditions that promote poverty reduction and long-term self-sufficiency, such as enrolling children in schools, regular medical check-ups, vaccinations, or more nutritious eating.

Country-led development: When developing country governments take stronger leadership of their own development policies and engage with their parliaments and citizens in shaping those policies. Donors support them by making greater use of their systems to deliver aid and by increasing the predictability of aid flows.

Crowdsourcing: The concept of using the collective intelligence of the public at large to complete business-related tasks that a company would normally either perform itself or outsource to a third-party provider.

Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI): The annual report published by Transparency International that ranks countries and territories based on surveys of how wide-scale corruption is perceived within the public sector.

Debt relief: The Millennium Development Goals expected high-income countries to forgive official non-concessional debt owed them by heavily indebted poor countries (HIPCs), mostly located in Africa.

Deep poverty: A level of poverty in the United States defined as

household income at or below 50 percent of the poverty threshold.

Development assistance: Grants and loans to developing countries by donors to spur economic development and poverty reduction.

Developed countries: Highly industrialized nations such as the United States, Great Britain, France, Germany and Japan; also referred to as high-income.

Developing countries: These include low- and middle-income countries, where extreme poverty and hardship are common.

Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC): A federal government program that provides a cash benefit to many low-income working people by refunding a portion of their income taxes.

Emergency food aid: Food aid provided to victims of natural or man-made disasters, usually on a grant basis.

Emerging economies: Rapidly growing low- and middle-income nations, most notably those of the BRIC countries (Brazil, Russia, India and China).

Extreme poverty: The international poverty line of $1.25 USD per person per day.

Food-price volatility: Short-term sharp spikes in food prices commonly resulting from disruptions in supply and demand of staple grains like corn, wheat and rice.

Food security: Assured access to enough nutritious food to sustain an active and healthy life with dignity.

Foreign direct investment (FDI): Investments made in a nation other than the investor's one of origin.

Fragile state: A low- or middle-income country where the government is at considerable risk of being deposed and/or the potential exists for internal conflict.

Governance: The norms by which a government operates, measured in terms such as transparency, accountability, rule of law and strength of institutions.

Gross domestic product (GDP): The value of all goods and services produced within a nation during a specified period, usually a year.

Gross national income (GNI): Basically the same as Gross Domestic Product (above), except it adds national earnings from overseas investments and excludes remittances.

Group of 8 (G-8): The wealthiest industrial countries: Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Russia, United Kingdom and United States (formerly the Group of 7, excluding Russia).

Group of 20 (G-20): A group of 19 countries (Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, France, Germany, India, Indonesia, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Russia, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, South Korea, Turkey, the U.K., and the U.S.) as well as the European Union (represented by the rotating European Council presidency and the European Central Bank).

Human capital: The education, knowledge, skills, and capabilities people possess that can affect their economic potential and contribute to the economic potential of society.

Human development: An expansion of opportunities resulting from improvements in one's economic, health, and educational wellbeing.

Human Development Index (HDI): A composite measure of achievements in three basic dimensions of human development—a long and healthy life, access to education and a decent standard of living.

Hunger: A condition in which people do not have enough food to provide the nutrients (carbohydrate, fat, protein, vitamins, minerals and water) for fully productive, active and healthy lives.

Income inequality: The unequal distribution of income across major social groups or classes in a given society.

International Monetary Fund (IMF): An international organization that makes loans to countries with short-term foreign exchange and monetary problems.

Least developed countries (LDCs): Low-income countries that suffer from long-term hardships to economic growth, in particular low levels of human resource

development and/or severe structural weakness.

Land grab: A large-scale land acquisition in a developing country, usually on very favorable terms to the purchaser and sometimes involving the displacement of the resident population.

Low-income country: Determined by the World Bank as any country that earns an annual income per capita of $1,025 USD or less.

Malnutrition: Occurs when a person's consumption does not provide adequate nutrients for growth and maintenance or when a person is unable to fully utilize the food he or she eats due to illness.

Middle-income country: Determined by the World Bank as any country that earns an annual income per capita of $1, 026-$12,475 USD. It is further divided between lower middle income countries, ($1,026 - $4,035) and upper middle income countries, ($4,036 - $12,475).

Millennium Declaration: A resolution passed by the U.N. general assembly on December 14, 2000 which established a set of shared development values, declared the human rights to dignity, freedom, equality, a basic standard of living (including freedom from hunger and violence) and encouraged tolerance and solidarity. It officially established the Millennium Development Goals.

Multilateral aid: Financial or material assistance channeled to developing countries via international organizations such as the World Bank, the European Union or UN agencies (as distinguished from bilateral aid).

New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD): A program of the African Union (AU), adopted in 2001 by African leaders, with the primary objectives of poverty eradication, promotion of sustainable growth and development, and the empowerment of women through building genuine partnerships at country, regional and global levels.

Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs): Groups and institutions that are entirely or largely independent of government and that have primarily humanitarian or cooperative rather than commercial objectives.

Nontraditional donors: Donors that are not members of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), many of them middle-income countries, and whom did not sign the Accra Agenda for Action or Paris Principles on Aid Effectiveness.

Official Development Assistance (ODA): The term used by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development for grants and loans to developing countries undertaken by governments to pursue economic development at concessional financial terms.

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD): A group of 34 industrialized countries that pursue economic development while fostering good governance in the public sector and in corporate activity. OECD countries make up the traditional class of donors.

Paris Principles on Aid Effectiveness: An international agreement signed in 2005 by more than a hundred senior government officials of donor countries and aid-recipient countries that committed their respective governments to better coordinate their efforts to achieve the Millennium Development Goals.

Poverty: The lack of sufficient money or resources to provide the basic needs of survival for oneself and one's family.

Pro-poor: Describes development policies that prioritize the interests of people living and poverty and the goal of poverty eradication.

Remittances: Money and goods sent from foreign-born individuals in a country to others abroad.

Rio+20: The moniker for the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development which took place in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil in June 2012, twenty years after the landmark 1992 Earth Summit in Rio. It aimed to shape global policy on how to reduce poverty, advance social equity and ensure environmental protection.

Social safety nets: Government policies and charitable programs designed to ensure basic needs are met among low-income, disabled and other vulnerable social groups. Safety nets may also provide protection against risks, such as lost income, limited access to credit or devastation from natural disaster.

Severe acute malnutrition (SAM): A condition in children that is fatal unless treated with therapeutic foods that are high in fats, proteins and micronutrients.

Smallholder farmer: A farmer who works a small plot of land, generally less than five acres. The greatest number of people living in extreme poverty consists of smallholder farmers and their families.

Social network: An online medium for forming and maintaining relationships between people who share interests, activities, backgrounds, or pursue political and social agendas. Facebook and Twitter are prominent examples.

Special Supplemental Nutrition Program for Women, Infants and Children (WIC): Safeguards the health of low-income women, infants and children up to age 5 who are at nutritional risk. The WIC program provides monthly packages of nutritious foods, information on healthy eating, and referral to health care.

Stunting: Occurs as a result of chronic malnutrition during the formative years of childhood. The most visible sign is when a child fails to grow to normal height. It may also result in long-term health problems and decreased mental capacity for the rest of the person's life.

Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP): Previously called the Food Stamp Program, SNAP supplements the food budgets of low-income households with monthly benefits in the form of an electronic benefits (EBT) card that they can use like cash at authorized retail stores.

Sustainable development: The reduction of hunger and poverty in environmentally sound ways.

Tied aid: Aid that must be spent on goods and services from the donor country. For example, most U.S. food aid is tied so that the food provided must be grown in the United States and shipped on U.S.-flagged vessels.

The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF): A U.N. body responsible for research and programs about the health of children and mothers in developing countries.

United Nations Development Program (UNDP): A U.N. body that publishes the annual Human Development Report and accompanying Human Development Index (HDI).

U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID): A federal agency that supports long-term and equitable economic growth and poverty reduction in developing countries and advances U.S. foreign policy objectives.

U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA): A federal agency responsible for developing and executing U.S. government policy on farming, agriculture, and food and nutrition.

World Bank: An intergovernmental development bank that makes long-term loans to governments of developing nations and conducts research and analysis on issues of global economic importance, particularly related to economic development and poverty reduction.

World Food Program (WFP): A U.N. body providing logistical support necessary to get food to the right people at the right time in response to emergency food shortages and in development work.

World Health Organization (WHO): A U.N. agency responsible for providing leadership on global health matters, shaping the health research agenda, setting norms and standards, articulating evidence-based policy options, providing technical support to countries and monitoring and assessing health trends.

World Trade Organization (WTO): An international organization established to oversee international trade agreements and settle disputes between member countries.

Millennium Development Goals: Progress Chart to Date

This chart provides an overview of progress on the eight Millennium Development Goals. Progress or lack of progress differs in every state, so regional overviews provide a snapshot at an aggregated level. In some instances, trends are driven by high performance or lack of performance by one or a small group of countries.

Goals and Targets	Africa		Asia				Oceania	Latin America & Caribbean	Caucasus & Central Asia
	Northern	Sub-Saharan	Eastern	South-Eastern	Southern	Western			
GOAL 1 | Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger									
Reduce extreme poverty by half	low poverty	very high poverty	moderate poverty	high poverty	very high poverty	low poverty	very high poverty	moderate poverty	low poverty
Productive and decent employment	large deficit in decent work	very large deficit in decent work	large deficit in decent work	large deficit in decent work	very large deficit in decent work	large deficit in decent work	very large deficit in decent work	moderate deficit in decent work	moderate deficit in decent work
Reduce hunger by half	low hunger	very high hunger	moderate hunger	moderate hunger	high hunger	moderate hunger	moderate hunger	moderate hunger	moderate hunger
GOAL 2 | Achieve universal primary education									
Universal primary schooling	high enrollment	moderate enrollment	high enrollment	high enrollment	high enrollment	high enrollment	–	high enrollment	high enrollment
GOAL 3 | Promote gender equality and empower women									
Equal girls' enrollment in primary school	close to parity	close to parity	parity	parity	parity	close to parity	close to parity	parity	parity
Women's share of paid employment	low share	medium share	high share	medium share	low share	low share	medium share	high share	high share
Women's equal representation in national parliaments	low representation	moderate representation	moderate representation	low representation	low representation	low representation	very low representation	moderate representation	low representation
GOAL 4 | Reduce child mortality									
Reduce mortality of under-five-year-olds by two thirds	low mortality	high mortality	low mortality	low mortality	moderate mortality	low mortality	moderate mortality	low mortality	moderate mortality
GOAL 5 | Improve maternal health									
Reduce maternal mortality by three quarters	low mortality	very high mortality	low mortality	moderate mortality	high mortality	low mortality	high mortality	low mortality	low mortality
Access to reproductive health	moderate access	low access	high access	moderate access	moderate access	moderate access	low access	high access	moderate access
GOAL 6 | Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases									
Halt and begin to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS	low incidence	high incidence	low incidence	low incidence	low incidence	low incidence	low incidence	low incidence	low incidence
Halt and reverse the spread of tuberculosis	low mortality	high mortality	low mortality	moderate mortality	moderate mortality	low mortality	high mortality	low mortality	moderate mortality
GOAL 7 | Ensure environmental sustainability									
Halve proportion of population without improved drinking water	high coverage	low coverage	high coverage	moderate coverage	high coverage	moderate coverage	low coverage	high coverage	moderate coverage
Halve proportion of population without sanitation	high coverage	very low coverage	low coverage	low coverage	very low coverage	moderate coverage	low coverage	moderate coverage	high coverage
Improve the lives of slum-dwellers	moderate proportion of slum-dwellers	very high proportion of slum-dwellers	moderate proportion of slum-dwellers	high proportion of slum-dwellers	high proportion of slum-dwellers	moderate proportion of slum-dwellers	moderate proportion of slum-dwellers	moderate proportion of slum-dwellers	–
GOAL 8 | Develop a global partnership for development									
Internet users	high usage	moderate usage	high usage	moderate usage	low usage	high usage	low usage	high usage	high usage

The progress chart operates on two levels. The words in each box indicate the present degree of compliance with the target. The colours show progress towards the target according to the legend below:

Target already met or expected to be met by 2015. **Progress insufficient to reach the target if prevailing trends persist.** **No progress or deterioration.** **Missing or insufficient data.**

For the regional groupings and country data, see mdgs.un.org. Country experiences in each region may differ significantly from the regional average. Due to new data and revised methodologies, this Progress Chart is not comparable with previous versions.

Sources: United Nations, based on data and estimates provided by: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations; Inter-Parliamentary Union; International Labour Organization; International Telecommunication Union; UNAIDS; UNESCO; UN-Habitat; UNICEF; UN Population Division; World Bank; World Health Organization—based on statistics available as of June 2012.

Table 1

Demographics and Economic Indicators

	Population 2010						Life expectancy 2010	Human development ranking 2011	Employment 2010	Remittances 2010	Migration 2010		
	total	ages 0-14 (%)	growth (%)	density (per sq. km)	rural (%)	urban (%)	life exp. at birth (years)	human development index (1-187, 1 is most developed)	employment to pop. ratio (% of total pop. above age 15)	workers' remittances & compensation received (current US$)	net migration (number of people)	refugee pop. by country or territory of origin	refugee pop. by country or territory of asylum
World	**6,894,594,844**	**26.8**	**1.2**	**53.2**	**49.3**	**50.7**	**69.6**	**..**	**60.3**	**449,197,001,626**	**..**	**15,369,915**	**15,369,915**
High-income countries	**1,127,437,399**	**17.3**	**0.6**	**33.2**	**22.4**	**77.6**	**79.8**	**..**	**55.4**	**123,918,544,607**	**22,906,410**	**79,411**	**1,960,691**
Low- & middle-income countries	**5,767,157,445**	**28.7**	**1.3**	**60.3**	**54.5**	**45.5**	**67.6**	**..**	**61.4**	**325,278,457,019**	**-23,160,453**	**10,169,135**	**13,409,222**
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	**854,134,000**	**42.4**	**2.5**	**36.2**	**62.6**	**37.4**	**54.2**	**..**	**63.7**	**21,101,467,159**	**-2,005,850**	**2,809,771**	**2,195,568**
Angola	19,082,000	46.6	2.8	15.3	41.5	58.5	50.7	148	64.4	82,084,000[c]	82,005	134,858	15,155
Benin	8,850,000	43.7	2.8	80.0	58.0	42.0	55.6	167	72.1	248,059,921	50,000	442	7,139
Botswana	2,007,000	32.6	1.3	3.5	38.9	61.1	53.1	118	63.4	99,511,459	18,730	53	2,986
Burkina Faso	16,468,000	45.3	3.0	60.2	79.6	20.4	54.9	181	81.1	95,000,000	-125,000	1,145	531
Burundi	8,382,000	37.9	2.6	326.4	89.0	11.0	49.9	185	76.5	28,203,821	370,000	84,064	29,365
Cameroon	19,599,000	40.6	2.2	41.5	41.6	58.4	51.1	150	67.5	195,428,192	-19,000	14,963	104,275
Cape Verde	496,000	31.8	0.9	123.1	38.9	61.1	73.8	133	61.2	138,636,505	-17,279	25	..
Central African Rep.	4,401,000	40.4	1.9	7.1	61.1	38.9	47.6	179	72.7	..	5,000	164,905	21,574
Chad	11,227,000	45.4	2.6	8.9	72.4	27.6	49.2	183	66.7	..	-75,000	53,733	347,939
Comoros	735,000	42.6	2.6	395.2	71.8	28.2	60.6	163	53.4	..	-10,000	368	..
Congo, Dem. Rep.	65,965,000	46.3	2.7	29.1	64.8	35.2	48.1	187	66.1	..	-23,975	476,693	166,336
Congo, Rep.	4,043,000	40.6	2.5	11.8	37.9	62.1	57.0	137	65.5	14,761,472	49,872	20,679	133,112
Cote d'Ivoire	19,738,000	40.9	2.0	62.1	49.9	50.1	54.7	..	64.2	178,980,331	-360,000	41,758	26,218
Equatorial Guinea	700,000	39.2	2.8	25.0	60.3	39.7	50.8	136	80.1	..	20,000	305	..
Eritrea	5,254,000	41.6	3.0	52.0	78.4	21.6	61.0	177	77.9	..	55,000	222,460	4,809
Ethiopia	82,950,000	41.5	2.1	83.0	82.4	17.6	58.7	174	79.5	224,528,915	-300,000	68,848	154,295
Gabon	1,505,000	35.5	1.9	5.8	14.0	86.0	62.3	106	50.3	..	5,000	165	9,015
Gambia, The	1,729,000	44.0	2.7	172.9	41.9	58.1	58.2	168	71.5	115,699,059	-13,742	2,242	8,378
Ghana	24,392,000	38.6	2.4	107.2	48.5	51.5	63.8	135	66.8	135,852,158	-51,258	20,203	13,828
Guinea	9,982,000	42.9	2.2	40.6	64.6	35.4	53.6	178	69.5	60,389,999	-300,000	11,985	14,113
Guinea-Bissau	1,515,000	41.3	2.1	53.9	70.0	30.0	47.7	176	67.5	48,129,616	-10,000	1,127	7,679
Kenya	40,513,000	42.5	2.6	71.2	77.8	22.2	56.5	143	60.1	1,776,986,938	-189,330	8,602	402,905
Lesotho	2,171,000	37.4	1.0	71.5	73.1	26.9	47.4	160	47.2	745,902,954	-19,998	11	..
Liberia	3,994,000	43.5	4.0	41.5	38.5	61.5	56.1	182	58.6	26,746,201	300,000	70,129	24,743
Madagascar	20,714,000	43.1	2.9	35.6	69.8	30.2	66.5	151	83.9	..	-5,000	270	..
Malawi	14,901,000	45.8	3.1	158.1	80.2	19.8	53.5	171	76.8	..	-20,000	171	5,740
Mali	15,370,000	47.2	3.0	12.6	66.7	33.3	51.0	175	48.3	436,209,869	-100,823	3,663	13,558
Mauritania	3,460,000	39.9	2.4	3.4	58.6	41.4	58.2	159	36.0	..	9,900	37,733	26,717
Mauritius	1,281,000	21.9	0.5	631.0	57.4	42.6	73.0	77	54.9	226,409,699	0	28	..
Mozambique	23,390,000	44.1	2.3	29.7	61.6	38.4	49.7	184	78.3	131,863,754	-20,000	131	4,077
Namibia	2,283,000	36.4	1.8	2.8	62.0	38.0	62.1	120	40.0	14,765,759	-1,494	1,017	7,254
Niger	15,512,000	49.0	3.5	12.2	83.3	16.7	54.3	186	61.3	88,021,957	-28,497	803	314
Nigeria	158,423,000	42.8	2.5	173.9	50.2	49.8	51.4	156	51.4	10,045,019,530	-300,000	15,642	8,747
Rwanda	10,624,000	42.6	3.0	430.6	81.1	18.9	55.1	166	85.3	91,817,970	15,109	114,836	55,398
São Tomé & Principe	165,000	40.3	1.8	171.9	37.8	62.2	64.3	144	..	1,987,907	-6,496	33	..
Senegal	12,434,000	43.7	2.7	64.6	57.1	42.9	59.0	155	69.2	1,346,047,363	-132,842	16,267	20,672
Sierra Leone	5,867,000	43.0	2.2	81.9	61.6	38.4	47.4	180	65.3	57,520,515	60,000	11,275	8,363
Somalia	9,331,000	44.9	2.3	14.9	62.6	37.4	50.9	..	52.6	..	-300,000	770,154	1,937
South Africa	49,991,000	30.1	1.4	41.2	38.3	61.7	52.1	123	39.1	1,119,265,625	700,001	380	57,899
Sudan	43,552,000	40.1	2.5	18.3	54.8	45.2	61.1	169	48.6	1,973,795,898	135,000	387,288	178,308
Swaziland	1,056,000	38.4	1.1	61.4	74.5	25.5	48.3	140	43.7	109,000,267	-6,000	36	759
Tanzania	44,841,000	44.7	3.0	50.6	73.6	26.4	57.4	152	78.9	24,789,099	-300,000	1,144	109,286
Togo	6,028,000	39.6	2.1	110.8	56.6	43.4	56.6	162	74.6	333,095,306	-5,430	18,330	14,051
Uganda	33,424,000	48.4	3.2	167.3	86.7	13.3	53.6	161	74.6	914,502,380	-135,000	6,441	135,801
Zambia	12,927,000	46.4	1.6	17.4	64.3	35.7	48.5	164	66.9	43,700,001	-85,000	228	47,857
Zimbabwe	12,571,000	38.9	0.8	32.5	61.7	38.3	49.9	173	82.6	..	-900,000	24,089	4,435

Table 1

Demographics and Economic Indicators

	Gross domestic product (GDP) 2009-2010				Military spending 2007-2010	Debt & inflation 2010		Exports & imports of goods and services 2007-2010		Exports & imports of food 2007-2010		Income inequality 2007-2010
	GDP (current million US$)	growth (%)	per capita (current US$)	per capita PPP (current int'l $)	% of gov't spending	value of external debt (current million US$)	inflation, consumer prices (%)	exports (current million US$)	imports (current million US$)	exports (% of merchandise)	imports (% of merchandise)	GINI index (0 is perfect equality & 100 is perfect inequality)
World	**63,256,970**	**4.2**	**9,175**	**11,125**	**2.6**	**..**	**..**	**18,822,217**	**18,383,131**	**8.2**	**7.4**	**..**
High-income countries	**43,239,947**	**3.1**	**38,352**	**37,292**	**2.9**	**..**	**..**	**13,041,358**	**12,936,685**	**7.5**	**7.4**	**..**
Low- & middle-income countries	**20,085,491**	**7.6**	**3,483**	**6,024**	**2.0**	**3,689,003**	**..**	**5,824,448**	**5,488,130**	**10.6**	**7.7**	**..**
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	**1,123,626**	**5.1**	**1,316**	**2,285**	**1.6**	**178,864**	**..**	**370,486**	**379,668**	**15.2**	**10.5**	**..**
Angola	84,937	5.9	4,451	6,186	4.4	15,787	14.5	48,275	36,814	..	..	..
Benin	6,633	3.0	749	1,587	1.0	852	2.3	937	1,839	..	..	..
Botswana	14,859	7.2	7,403	13,893	2.7	1,141	6.9	4,850	5,904	5.1	12.4	..
Burkina Faso	8,820	9.2	536	1,256	1.5	1,538	-0.8	..	..	33.3	15.1	39.8
Burundi	1,611	3.9	192	409	3.8	194	6.4	..	..	81.4	13.7	..
Cameroon	22,480	3.2	1,147	2,294	1.6	1,194	1.3	6,502	7,200	24.4	17.7	38.9
Cape Verde	1,648	5.4	3,323	3,875	0.5	455	2.1	647	1,109	81.6	27.7	..
Central African Rep.	2,013	3.3	457	789	2.6	246	1.5	290	449	3.6	39.3	56.3
Chad	7,588	4.3	676	1,370	3.0	1,845	10.0	3,331	5,213	..	..	..
Comoros	541	2.1	736	1,096	..	163	-0.1	79	258	13.8	19.5	..
Congo, Dem. Rep.	13,145	7.2	199	347	1.4	2,972	17.3	3,412	5,096	..	..	..
Congo, Rep.	12,008	8.8	2,970	4,245	1.1	1,577	5.0	10,221	6,568	..	..	..
Cote d'Ivoire	22,780	3.0	1,154	1,899	1.6	10,597	1.7	9,316	8,270	49.5	19.2	41.5
Equatorial Guinea	14,006	0.9	20,009	34,753	..	..	6.6	8,549	7,063	..	..	..
Eritrea	2,117	2.2	403	546	..	597	..	84	379	..	..	..
Ethiopia	29,717	10.1	358	1,041	1.1	3,924	8.1	3,392	9,653	78.5	11.0	..
Gabon	13,137	5.7	8,729	15,054	1.0	2,126	1.5	8,094	4,754	0.8	17.1	..
Gambia, The	807	5.0	466	1,410	0.7	217	5.0	236	393	77.9	36.1	..
Ghana	32,309	7.7	1,325	1,644	0.4	4,956	10.7	9,461	13,265	60.7	15.3	..
Guinea	4,511	1.9	452	1,091	..	2,007	15.5	1,577	1,778	2.5	13.2	39.4
Guinea-Bissau	879	3.5	580	1,186	..	124	2.5	..	..	..	..	..
Kenya	32,198	5.6	795	1,651	1.9	5,912	4.0	8,861	12,192	47.9	12.0	..
Lesotho	2,179	5.6	1,004	1,601	2.7	396	3.6	955	2,482	13.5	20.2	..
Liberia	986	5.5	247	419	0.8	86	7.4	262	1,454	..	..	38.2
Madagascar	8,721	1.6	421	969	0.7	1,832	9.2	2,447	4,484	26.7	13.6	44.1
Malawi	5,054	7.1	339	882	1.2	717	7.4	1,547	2,387	76.4	13.6	..
Mali	9,251	4.5	602	1,065	1.9	1,425	1.1	1,871	2,542	29.8	11.6	33.0
Mauritania	3,614	5.2	1,044	2,456	3.8	2,364	6.3	2,241	2,661	57.8	19.4	40.5
Mauritius	9,724	4.2	7,591	13,697	0.2	803	2.9	5,098	6,202	37.2	21.1	..
Mozambique	9,586	7.2	410	942	0.9	1,980	12.7	2,421	4,144	15.7	11.6	45.7
Namibia	12,170	4.8	5,331	6,475	3.3	..	4.5	4,738	4,603	22.5	13.9	..
Niger	5,549	8.8	358	728	0.9	561	0.8	..	..	21.1	15.1	34.6
Nigeria	202,523	8.7	1,278	2,399	1.0	5,582	13.7	74,610	61,486	3.3	10.2	48.8
Rwanda	5,628	7.5	530	1,163	1.4	595	2.3	610	1,524	52.4	13.2	50.8
São Tomé & Principe	197	4.5	1,193	1,899	..	49	12.9	..	..	94.6	29.8	..
Senegal	12,855	4.1	1,034	1,935	1.6	2,591	1.3	3,186	5,530	28.6	22.4	..
Sierra Leone	1,905	4.9	325	827	2.3	432	16.6	326	563	..	..	..
Somalia	..	..	..	..	..	3,656	..	..	..	..	..	..
South Africa	363,910	2.8	7,280	10,565	1.2	44,196	4.3	99,399	100,119	8.7	5.8	63.1
Sudan	62,046	4.5	1,425	2,256	..	37,205	13.0	12,264	11,729	5.6	14.9	35.3
Swaziland	3,698	2.0	3,502	5,952	3.4	592	4.5	2,027	2,522	21.1	20.5	51.5
Tanzania	22,915	7.0	524	1,434	1.0	4,947	6.2	5,975	8,653	31.9	10.0	37.6
Togo	3,153	3.4	523	998	1.8	392	1.8	1,048	1,561	15.0	15.7	..
Uganda	17,011	5.2	509	1,272	1.7	1,100	4.0	4,087	5,833	66.8	12.4	44.3
Zambia	16,193	7.6	1,253	1,562	1.7	1,561	8.5	7,142	5,672	5.9	4.7	..
Zimbabwe	7,476	9.0	595	..	1.3	6,001	24,411.0	3,608	5,831	20.1	18.8	..

Table 1

Demographics and Economic Indicators

	Population 2010						Life expectancy 2010	Human development ranking 2011	Employment 2010	Remittances 2010	Migration 2010		
	total	ages 0-14 (%)	growth (%)	density (per sq. km)	rural (%)	urban (%)	life exp. at birth (years)	human development index (1-187, 1 is most developed)	employment to pop. ratio (% of total pop. above age 15)	workers' remittances & compensation received (current US$)	net migration (number of people)	refugee pop. by country or territory of origin	refugee pop. by country or territory of asylum
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	**382,803,000**	**30.5**	**2.0**	**34.1**	**38.4**	**61.6**	**72.5**	**..**	**43.1**	**36,434,090,437**	**-1,628,351**	**1,908,927**	**7,829,105**
Algeria	35,468,000	27.0	1.5	14.9	33.5	66.5	72.9	96	38.6	2,044,433,960	-140,000	6,689	94,144
Bahrain	1,262,000	20.0	7.6	1,660.5	11.4	88.6	75.0	42	64.9	..	447,856	87	165
Djibouti	889,000	35.8	1.9	38.4	11.9	88.1	57.5	165	..	32,693,661	0	566	15,104
Egypt, Arab Rep.	81,121,000	31.5	1.7	81.5	57.2	42.8	73.0	113	44.2	7,725,175,781	-346,922	6,913	95,056
Iran, Islamic Rep.	73,973,000	22.9	1.1	45.4	30.5	69.5	72.8	88	39.8	1,181,087,280	-185,650	68,791	1,073,366
Iraq	32,031,000	43.2	3.0	73.7	33.6	66.4	68.5	132	33.5	71,000,000	-150,021	1,683,579	34,655
Israel	7,624,000	27.2	1.8	352.3	8.3	91.7	81.5	17	53.5	1,411,300,049	273,635	1,301	25,471
Jordan	6,047,000	37.5	2.2	68.1	21.5	78.5	73.3	95	36.0	3,640,563,477	202,919	2,254	2,455,710
Kuwait	2,736,000	26.7	3.4	153.5	1.6	98.4	74.6	63	66.2	..	277,629	988	184
Lebanon	4,227,000	24.8	0.7	413.2	12.8	87.2	72.4	71	41.7	7,558,138,672	-12,500	15,869	435,120
Libya	6,355,000	30.4	1.5	3.6	22.1	77.9	74.8	64	49.2	17,336,779	-20,300	2,309	7,923
Morocco	31,951,000	28.0	1.0	71.6	43.3	56.7	71.9	130	45.0	6,422,542,480	-675,000	2,284	792
Oman	2,783,000	27.2	2.6	9.0	28.3	71.7	73.1	89	54.9	39,011,703	153,003	63	78
Qatar	1,759,000	13.5	9.6	151.8	4.2	95.8	78.1	37	85.8	..	857,090	112	51
Saudi Arabia	27,448,000	30.3	2.4	12.8	16.4	83.6	73.9	56	47.3	236,479,996	1,055,517	667	582
Syrian Arab Republic	20,447,000	36.9	2.0	111.3	45.1	54.9	75.7	119	38.8	1,645,645,874	-55,877	18,452	1,483,172
Tunisia	10,549,000	23.5	1.0	67.9	32.7	67.3	74.6	94	40.7	1,970,210,693	-20,000	2,174	89
United Arab Emirates	7,512,000	17.0	7.9	89.9	22.0	78.0	76.6	30	75.9	..	3,076,634	424	538
West Bank & Gaza	4,152,000	42.5	2.7	689.7	27.9	72.1	72.6	..	30.7	1,151,141,602	-90,000	93,323	1,910,677
Yemen, Rep.	24,053,000	44.2	3.1	45.6	68.2	31.8	65.0	154	41.5	1,239,756,958	-135,000	2,076	190,092
SOUTH ASIA	**1,633,146,000**	**31.5**	**1.4**	**342.3**	**69.9**	**30.1**	**65.3**	**..**	**54.9**	**82,209,207,709**	**-8,622,263**	**3,344,561**	**2,411,160**
Afghanistan	34,385,000	46.4	2.8	52.7	75.2	24.8	48.3	172	45.1	..	-381,030	3,054,709	6,434
Bangladesh	148,692,000	31.3	1.1	1,142.3	71.9	28.1	68.6	146	67.9	10,851,938,480	-2,908,015	10,049	229,253
Bhutan	726,000	29.4	1.7	18.9	63.2	36.8	66.9	141	68.4	4,800,000	16,829	75,070	..
India	1,224,615,000	30.6	1.4	411.9	69.9	30.1	65.1	134	53.6	54,034,710,940	-2,999,998	17,769	184,821
Maldives	316,000	26.6	1.3	1,053.3	59.5	40.5	76.6	109	57.2	4,086,170	-53	19	..
Nepal	29,959,000	36.2	1.8	209.0	81.8	18.2	68.4	157	82.2	3,468,471,924	-100,000	5,889	89,808
Pakistan	173,593,000	35.4	1.8	225.2	63.0	37.0	65.2	145	50.5	9,690,000,000	-1,999,998	39,982	1,900,621
Sri Lanka	20,860,000	24.9	0.9	332.6	84.9	15.1	74.7	97	52.2	4,155,200,195	-249,998	141,074	223
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	**2,201,536,674**	**21.3**	**0.7**	**90.5**	**51.2**	**48.8**	**73.3**	**..**	**68.6**	**112,839,259,861**	**-5,221,061**	**1,003,148**	**519,221**
Australia	22,299,000	19.0	1.6	2.9	10.9	89.1	81.7	2	62.1	4,840,000,000	1,124,639	37	21,805
Brunei Darussalam	399,000	26.2	1.8	75.7	24.3	75.7	77.9	33	63.3	..	3,500	1	..
Cambodia	14,139,000	31.9	1.1	80.1	77.2	22.8	62.5	139	81.4	369,458,008	-254,942	16,314	129
China	1,338,300,000	19.5	0.5	143.5	55.1	44.9	73.3	101	71.1	53,038,459,056	-1,884,102	199,684	300,986
Fiji	860,000	29.0	1.0	47.1	46.6	53.4	69.2	100	57.0	183,337,280	-28,754	1,851	1
Hong Kong SAR, China	7,068,000	11.5	0.9	6,783.1	..	100.0	82.9	13	56.5	347,013,001	176,125	17	154
Indonesia	239,870,000	27.0	1.0	132.4	46.3	53.7	68.9	124	62.6	6,916,051,270	-1,293,089	16,892	811
Japan	127,451,000	13.4	-0.1	349.7	33.2	66.8	82.9	12	57.3	1,802,311,523	270,000	152	2,586
Kiribati	100,000	..	1.5	123.5	56.0	44.0	..	122	..	..	..	33	..
Korea, Dem. Rep.	24,346,000	22.9	0.4	202.2	36.6	63.4	68.5	..	74.0	..	0	917	..
Korea, Rep.	48,875,000	16.4	0.3	503.3	18.1	81.9	80.8	15	58.0	8,707,900,391	-30,000	585	358
Lao PDR	6,201,000	34.5	1.4	26.9	66.8	33.2	67.1	138	77.0	40,854,836	-74,998	8,414	..
Macao SAR, China	544,000	13.1	2.3	19,428.6	..	100.0	80.8	..	69.4	835,145,813	50,625	10	6[d]
Malaysia	28,401,000	30.3	1.6	86.4	27.8	72.2	74.0	61	58.5	1,300,503,174	84,494	552	81,516
Mongolia	2,756,000	27.6	1.6	1.8	42.5	57.5	68.2	110	56.9	276,518,585	-15,001	1,724	12
Myanmar	47,963,000	25.6	0.8	73.4	66.1	33.9	64.7	149	75.7	132,994,507	-500,000	415,670	..
New Zealand	4,368,000	20.5	1.2	16.6	13.2	86.8	80.7	5	63.2	842,555,725	65,004	15	2,307

Table 1

Demographics and Economic Indicators

	Gross domestic product (GDP) 2009-2010				Military spending 2007-2010	Debt & inflation 2010		Exports & imports of goods and services 2007-2010		Exports & imports of food 2007-2010		Income inequality 2007-2010
	GDP (current million US$)	growth (%)	per capita (current US$)	per capita PPP (current int'l $)	% of gov't spending	value of external debt (current million US$)	inflation, consumer prices (%)	exports (current million US$)	imports (current million US$)	exports (% of merchandise)	imports (% of merchandise)	GINI index (0 is perfect equality & 100 is perfect inequality)
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	**2,476,140**	**3.8**	**6,468**	**10,562**	**5.9**	**123,417**	**..**	**1,167,428**	**921,446**	**2.6**	**12.9**	**..**
Algeria	161,979	3.3	4,567	8,433	3.5	4,687	3.9	49,939	34,820	0.6	16.3	..
Bahrain	20,595	6.3[c]	17,609	25,799[c]	3.7	..	2.0	21,213	16,277	7.2	11.9	..
Djibouti	1,049	5.0	1,203	2,308	3.7	500	4.0	484	654	0.4	29.3	..
Egypt, Arab Rep.	218,894	5.1	2,698	6,180	2.0	28,793	11.3	46,732	57,200	17.2	19.1	30.8
Iran, Islamic Rep.	331,015	1.8	4,526	11,570	1.9	10,954	10.1	92,050	61,612	6.2	15.4	..
Iraq	82,150	0.8	2,565	3,562	6.0	..	2.9	..	..	0.0	..	30.9
Israel	217,333	4.7	28,506	28,573	6.5	..	2.7	80,334	75,897	3.0	7.3	..
Jordan	27,574	3.1	4,560	5,749	5.2	6,672	5.0	12,279	18,175	16.6	16.2	35.4
Kuwait	109,463	4.4[b]	41,365	52,657[b]	4.0	..	4.0	61,699	30,681	0.3	14.7	..
Lebanon	39,006	7.0	9,228	14,069	4.2	23,420	4.0	8,170	17,079	14.9	16.3	..
Libya	62,360	2.1	9,957	16,987	1.2	..	2.5	62,780	25,589	..	..	..
Morocco	90,805	3.7	2,796	4,712	3.5	20,820	1.0	29,966	38,970	19.0	11.4	40.9
Oman	46,866	1.1	17,280	26,791	9.6	..	3.2	24,671	19,443	3.0	12.3	..
Qatar	98,313	8.6	61,532	80,944	2.3	..	-2.4	45,958	30,692	0.0	8.2	41.1
Saudi Arabia	434,666	3.8	15,836	22,713	10.4	..	5.3	246,867	154,027	1.2	15.7	..
Syrian Arab Republic	59,147	3.2	2,893	5,285	3.9	4,294	4.4	20,895	21,148	22.0	14.0	..
Tunisia	44,291	3.7	4,199	9,550	1.2	19,307	4.4	21,575	23,928	7.7	9.3	..
United Arab Emirates	297,648	1.4	39,623	47,213	5.4	..	..	231,978	204,663	0.8	6.6	..
West Bank & Gaza	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.8	..	..	..	..	35.5
Yemen, Rep.	31,270	8.0	1,300	2,653	4.4	3,971	11.2	9,462	10,737	5.7	27.8	..
SOUTH ASIA	**2,090,279**	**8.1**	**1,280**	**3,123**	**2.4**	**331,209**	**..**	**426,927**	**509,973**	**11.7**	**6.9**	**..**
Afghanistan	17,243	8.2	501	1,207	1.8	721	0.9	2,670	9,236	40.0	13.7	27.8
Bangladesh	100,357	6.1	675	1,659	1.2	15,886	8.1	18,472	25,106	6.5	22.5	32.1
Bhutan	1,516	7.4	2,088	5,328	..	714	2.0	819	910	7.2	11.5	38.1
India	1,727,111	8.8	1,410	3,425	2.4	252,804	12.0	371,979	427,997	8.3	4.0	..
Maldives	1,908	9.9	6,039	8,519	..	1,020	4.7	949	1,284	96.2	22.4	..
Nepal	15,722	4.6	525	1,199	1.5	2,752	10.0	1,533	5,825	19.1	13.6	32.8
Pakistan	176,870	4.1	1,019	2,688	3.2	41,425	13.9	23,971	33,189	16.8	13.1	30.0
Sri Lanka	49,552	8.0	2,375	5,078	2.8	15,887	5.9	10,747	15,273	26.9	15.4	40.3
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	**16,253,227**	**6.6**	**7,383**	**9,674**	**1.7**	**932,277**	**..**	**5,498,536**	**5,001,758**	**4.8**	**6.2**	**..**
Australia	1,131,623	2.3	50,748	38,160	2.0	..	2.8	223,838	227,341	11.3	5.4	..
Brunei Darussalam	10,732	-1.8	27,390	49,935	3.1	..	0.4	11,270	3,975	..	..	..
Cambodia	11,242	6.0	795	2,194	1.8	3,652	4.0	6,080	6,692	1.4	7.3	37.9
China	5,926,612	10.4	4,428	7,599	2.0	522,861	3.3	1,752,600	1,520,500	2.8	4.6	..
Fiji	3,189	0.3	3,708	4,658	1.7	403	5.5	1,676	2,055	63.0	18.4	42.8
Hong Kong SAR, China	224,458	7.0	31,757	46,502	..	..	2.3	500,452	487,857	6.8	4.2	..
Indonesia	706,558	6.1	2,946	4,325	1.0	159,754	5.1	173,899	162,350	16.4	8.5	..
Japan	5,458,837	4.0	42,831	33,733	1.0	..	-0.7	830,620	768,048	0.6	9.2	..
Kiribati	151	1.8	1,512	2,457	..	..	..	..	..	..	42.3	..
Korea, Dem. Rep.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Korea, Rep.	1,014,483	6.2	20,757	29,101	2.7	..	2.9	531,504	503,206	1.1	4.5	..
Lao PDR	7,296	8.5	1,177	2,551	0.3	3,959	6.0	2,651	2,984	..	..	36.7
Macao SAR, China	27,960	26.4	51,397	63,681	..	..	2.8	29,895	13,928	0.2	17.1	..
Malaysia	237,797	7.2	8,373	14,731	1.5	75,406	1.7	231,385	189,031	11.9	7.9	46.2
Mongolia	6,200	6.4	2,250	4,036	0.9	1,697	10.1	3,392	3,866	1.7	11.8	36.5
Myanmar	..	10.4	..	1,950	..	4,206	7.7	..	..	..	..	..
New Zealand	126,679	-0.5	29,352	29,535	1.1	..	2.9	35,362	33,518	55.7	10.6	..

Table 1

Demographics and Economic Indicators

	Population 2010						Life expectancy 2010	Human development ranking 2011	Employment 2010	Remittances 2010	Migration 2010		
	total	ages 0-14 (%)	growth (%)	density (per sq. km)	rural (%)	urban (%)	life exp. at birth (years)	human development index (1-187, 1 is most developed)	employment to pop. ratio (% of total pop. above age 15)	workers' remittances & compensation received (current US$)	net migration (number of people)	refugee pop. by country or territory of origin	refugee pop. by country or territory of asylum
CONTINUED: **EAST ASIA & PACIFIC**													
Papua New Guinea	6,858,000	39.1	2.3	15.1	87.5	12.5	62.4	153	70.5	14,952,318	0	89	9,698
Philippines	93,261,000	35.4	1.7	312.8	33.6	66.4	68.5	112	59.6	21,423,000,000	-1,233,365	970	243
Samoa	184,000	37.8	0.4	65.0	76.6	23.4	72.3	99	..	143,446,518	-15,738	1	..
Singapore	5,077,000	17.4	1.8	7,252.9	..	100.0	81.6	26	63.1	..	721,738	76	7
Solomon Islands	538,000	39.7	2.6	19.2	81.4	18.6	67.5	142	64.4	2,906,775	0	75	..
Thailand	69,122,000	20.5	0.6	135.3	66.0	34.0	73.9	103	71.0	1,763,508,789	492,252	356	96,675
Timor-Leste	1,124,000	46.2	2.2	75.6	71.9	28.1	62.0	147	54.4	..	-49,930	8	1
Tuvalu	9,827	..	0.2	327.6	49.6	50.4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Vanuatu	240,000	38.2	2.5	19.7	74.4	25.6	70.8	125	..	6,427,849	0	1	4
Vietnam	86,928,000	23.6	1.0	280.3	71.2	28.8	74.8	128	75.2	8,260,000,000	-430,692	338,698	1,928
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	**890,424,544**	**17.4**	**0.4**	**32.5**	**30.0**	**70.0**	**75.7**	**..**	**52.9**	**132,457,502,167**	**-595,318**	**708,333**	**1,610,871**
Albania	3,205,000	22.7	0.4	117.0	52.0	48.0	76.9	70	51.8	1,156,021,729	-47,889	14,772	76
Armenia	3,092,000	20.2	0.2	108.6	36.3	63.7	73.8	86	41.2	995,770,020	-75,000	17,547	3,296
Austria	8,390,000	14.7	0.3	101.8	32.4	67.6	80.4	19	57.9	3,219,852,295	160,000	10	42,630
Azerbaijan	9,054,000	20.9	1.2	109.6	47.8	52.2	70.5	91	60.3	1,432,385,986	53,264	16,753	1,891
Belarus	9,490,000	15.0	-0.2	46.8	25.7	74.3	70.4	65	50.1	376,100,006	-50,010	5,743	589
Belgium	10,896,000	16.9	0.9	359.8	2.6	97.4	79.9	18	49.5	10,178,155,270	200,000	83	17,892
Bosnia & Herzegovina	3,760,000	15.0	-0.2	73.7	51.4	48.6	75.4	74	35.1	1,905,236,450	-10,000	63,004	7,016
Bulgaria	7,534,000	13.7	-0.7	69.4	28.3	71.7	73.5	55	48.5	1,387,347,412	-50,000	2,559	5,530
Croatia	4,418,000	15.0	-0.3	78.9	42.2	57.8	76.5	46	46.3	1,314,627,808	10,000	65,861	936
Cyprus	1,103,000	17.8	1.2	119.4	29.7	70.3	79.4	31	60.4	145,741,470	44,166	13	3,394
Czech Republic	10,520,000	14.0	0.3	136.2	26.5	73.5	77.4	27	54.2	1,122,078,491	240,466	817	2,449
Denmark	5,547,000	18.0	0.4	130.7	12.8	87.2	79.1	16	59.8	633,061,462	90,316	9	17,922
Estonia	1,340,000	15.3	0.0	31.6	30.5	69.5	75.4	34	51.1	322,176,605	0	240	39
Finland	5,364,000	16.5	0.5	17.7	36.1	63.9	79.9	22	55.2	825,921,448	72,634	6	8,724
France	64,895,000	18.4	0.5	118.5	22.2	77.8	81.4	20	51.2	15,629,349,610	500,001	92	200,687
Georgia	4,452,000	16.6	0.9	77.9	47.1	52.9	73.3	75	53.5	806,076,233	-150,000	10,640	639
Germany	81,777,000	13.5	-0.2	234.6	26.2	73.8	80.0	9	55.4	11,337,656,250	550,001	164	594,269
Greece	11,316,000	14.6	0.3	87.8	38.6	61.4	80.4	29	47.7	1,499,203,125	154,004	51	1,444
Hungary	10,000,000	14.7	-0.2	110.5	31.7	68.3	74.2	38	45.0	2,265,384,766	75,000	1,438	5,414
Iceland	318,000	20.8	-0.1	3.2	7.7	92.3	81.5	14	68.8	24,871,115	10,417	4	83
Ireland	4,475,000	21.2	0.3	65.0	38.1	61.9	80.3	7	52.2	600,524,719	100,000	8	9,107
Italy	60,483,000	14.1	0.5	205.6	31.6	68.4	81.7	24	44.3	6,803,214,844	1,998,926	50	56,397
Kazakhstan	16,323,000	24.5	1.4	6.0	41.5	58.5	68.3	68	67.2	290,637,909	6,990	3,632	4,406
Kosovo	1,815,000	..	0.6	166.7	..	..	69.9	..	..	931,575,989	..	..	..
Kyrgyz Republic	5,448,000	30.0	1.2	28.4	63.4	36.6	69.4	126	60.5	1,275,425,171	-131,593	2,744	2,458
Latvia	2,239,000	13.8	-0.7	36.0	31.8	68.2	73.5	43	48.7	613,500,000	-10,000	713	68
Lithuania	3,287,000	14.9	-1.6	52.4	32.8	67.2	73.3	40	47.9	1,574,935,669	-35,495	515	803
Luxembourg	507,000	17.7	1.8	195.8	17.8	82.2	80.1	25	54.6	1,586,062,500	42,469	2[b]	3,254
Macedonia, FYR	2,060,000	17.6	0.2	81.7	32.1	67.9	74.6	78	37.9	387,898,712	2,000	7,889	1,398
Malta	416,000	15.0	0.5	1,300.0	5.3	94.7	80.9	36	47.7	47,571,472	5,000	6	6,136
Moldova	3,562,000	16.7	-0.1	124.0	58.8	41.2	68.9	111	38.0	1,369,910,034	-171,748	6,200	148
Montenegro	632,000	19.2	0.2	47.0	40.5	59.5	74.3	54	..	300,786,011	-2,508	3,246	16,364
Netherlands	16,616,000	17.7	0.5	492.6	17.1	82.9	80.7	3	61.9	3,834,185,547	50,006	53	74,961
Norway	4,889,000	18.7	1.2	16.0	22.4	77.6	81.0	1	63.5	679,971,558	171,232	7	40,260
Poland	38,184,000	14.8	0.1	125.5	38.8	61.2	76.2	39	50.5	7,614,000,000	55,644	1,764	15,555
Portugal	10,638,000	15.1	0.0	116.3	39.3	60.7	79.0	41	55.3	3,539,504,395	150,002	30	384
Romania	21,438,000	15.2	-0.2	93.2	45.4	54.6	73.5	50	51.9	3,883,000,000	-100,000	3,934	1,021
Russian Federation	141,750,000	15.0	-0.1	8.7	27.2	72.8	68.8	66	58.0	5,263,660,156	1,135,737	111,948	4,922

Table 1

Demographics and Economic Indicators

	Gross domestic product (GDP) 2009-2010				Military spending 2007-2010	Debt & inflation 2010		Exports & imports of goods and services 2007-2010		Exports & imports of food 2007-2010		Income inequality 2007-2010
	GDP (current million US$)	growth (%)	per capita (current US$)	per capita PPP (current int'l $)	% of gov't spending	value of external debt (current million US$)	inflation, consumer prices (%)	exports (current million US$)	imports (current million US$)	exports (% of merchandise)	imports (% of merchandise)	GINI index (0 is perfect equality & 100 is perfect inequality)
CONTINUED: **EAST ASIA & PACIFIC**												
Papua New Guinea	9,480	8.0	1,382	2,472	0.5	4,580	6.0	5,295	5,032	..	..	..
Philippines	199,589	7.6	2,140	3,969	0.8	62,514	3.8	69,464	73,082	7.4	11.1	43.0
Samoa	574	1.7	3,117	4,374	..	174	0.8	183	337	21.0	24.5	..
Singapore	208,765	14.5	41,120	57,932	3.8	..	2.8	440,628	382,051	2.0	3.2	..
Solomon Islands	679	7.0	1,261	2,710	..	148	1.1	211	418	..	..	..
Thailand	318,522	7.8	4,608	8,554	1.5	66,153	3.3	226,949	203,499	13.2	5.0	40.0
Timor-Leste	701	7.4	624	928	2.8	..	6.8	..	..	..	..	31.9
Tuvalu	31	-1.9	3,190	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	21.5	..
Vanuatu	699	3.0	2,911	4,443	..	113	2.8	331	375	61.5	21.3	..
Vietnam	106,427	6.8	1,224	3,205	2.2	26,565	8.9	82,513	93,449	21.0	7.9	35.6
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	**20,076,254**	**2.4**	**22,547**	**24,437**	**1.9**	**1,135,629**	**..**	**7,926,140**	**7,591,370**	**8.4**	**8.8**	**..**
Albania	11,786	3.5	3,677	8,592	1.6	3,616	3.6	3,509	6,100	4.5	17.9	34.5
Armenia	9,371	2.1	3,031	5,463	4.5	4,687	8.2	1,929	4,197	16.7	18.0	30.9
Austria	379,069	2.3	45,181	40,006	0.9	..	1.8	204,589	188,257	6.9	7.3	..
Azerbaijan	51,774	5.0	5,718	9,936	2.9	3,894	5.7	28,541	10,543	2.8	18.5	33.7
Belarus	54,713	7.6	5,765	13,929	1.3	23,088	7.7	29,886	37,385	12.6	7.9	27.2
Belgium	469,374	2.3	43,078	37,631	1.1	..	2.2	375,540	362,862	8.8	8.5	..
Bosnia & Herzegovina	16,578	0.8	4,409	8,690	1.4	6,716	2.2	5,955	9,407	7.3	18.1	36.2
Bulgaria	47,714	0.2	6,333	13,931	1.4	44,915	2.4	27,578	28,486	16.1	9.6	28.2
Croatia	60,852	-1.2	13,774	19,330	1.7	..	1.0	23,320	23,630	11.3	10.4	33.7
Cyprus	23,132	1.0	28,779	31,706	2.2	..	2.4	9,279	10,770	34.3	14.8	..
Czech Republic	192,032	2.3	18,254	24,518	1.3	..	1.4	152,308	143,151	3.9	5.4	..
Denmark	311,989	1.3	56,245	40,163	1.4	..	2.3	157,011	140,584	18.4	13.5	..
Estonia	19,217	3.1	14,341	20,663	1.7	..	3.0	15,040	13,756	9.8	11.3	..
Finland	238,041	3.7	44,378	36,473	1.5	..	1.2	96,216	93,110	2.6	7.1	..
France	2,560,002	1.5	39,448	34,123	2.3	..	1.5	651,858	711,918	12.0	8.5	..
Georgia	11,667	6.4	2,621	5,074	3.9	7,536	7.1	4,060	6,101	21.9	18.2	41.3
Germany	3,280,530	3.7	40,116	37,402	1.4	..	1.1	1,536,159	1,356,755	5.2	7.1	..
Greece	301,083	-3.5	26,607	28,408	3.1	..	4.7	64,742	91,469	24.3	12.4	..
Hungary	128,632	1.3	12,863	20,545	1.0	..	4.9	111,324	102,962	7.5	4.8	31.2
Iceland	12,574	-4.0	39,542	35,642	0.1	..	5.4	7,046	5,784	41.4	10.9	..
Ireland	206,612	-0.4	46,170	40,464	0.6	..	-0.9	208,838	169,405	9.2	12.3	..
Italy	2,060,965	1.5	34,075	31,954	1.8	..	1.5	549,396	588,751	7.9	9.2	..
Kazakhstan	149,059	7.3	9,132	12,169	0.9	101,695	7.1	65,519	43,547	3.8	8.5	29.0
Kosovo	5,552	4.0	3,059	..	..	241	3.5	1,074	3,450	..	..	..
Kyrgyz Republic	4,616	-1.4	847	2,239	3.6	1,750	8.0	2,666	4,116	30.0	16.9	36.2
Latvia	24,010	-0.3	10,723	16,276	1.1	36,684	-1.1	12,814	13,014	16.8	14.7	36.6
Lithuania	36,306	1.3	11,045	18,148	1.3	27,225	1.3	24,768	25,273	17.3	12.4	37.6
Luxembourg	53,334	2.7	105,195	86,124	0.6	..	2.3	87,994	71,360	8.3	11.2	..
Macedonia, FYR	9,189	1.8	4,461	11,311	1.5	5,289	1.6	4,348	6,060	18.2	13.2	43.2
Malta	8,256	3.1	19,845	26,618	0.7	..	1.5	7,030	6,886	8.3	13.3	..
Moldova	5,809	6.9	1,631	3,110	0.3	4,076	7.4	2,300	4,544	72.0	14.9	33.0
Montenegro	4,111	2.5	6,505	12,861	1.3	1,331	0.7	1,462	2,615	..	..	30.0
Netherlands	779,356	1.7	46,904	42,165	1.4	..	1.3	608,273	550,087	13.5	10.0	..
Norway	417,465	0.7	85,389	57,231	1.6	..	2.4	171,764	120,046	7.2	7.9	..
Poland	469,440	3.9	12,294	19,885	1.9	..	2.7	198,463	204,134	10.8	7.6	34.1
Portugal	228,571	1.4	21,486	25,416	2.2	..	1.4	70,934	87,329	11.4	13.4	..
Romania	161,624	0.9	7,539	14,524	1.4	101,112	6.1	37,960	48,095	8.1	7.7	30.0
Russian Federation	1,479,819	4.0	10,440	19,891	4.0	347,210	6.9	444,609	321,183	2.0	13.1	40.1

Table 1

Demographics and Economic Indicators

	Population 2010						Life expectancy 2010	Human development ranking 2011	Employment 2010	Remittances 2010	Migration 2010		
	total	ages 0-14 (%)	growth (%)	density (per sq. km)	rural (%)	urban (%)	life exp. at birth (years)	human development index (1-187, 1 is most developed)	employment to pop. ratio (% of total pop. above age 15)	workers' remittances & compensation received (current US$)	net migration (number of people)	refugee pop. by country or territory of origin	refugee pop. by country or territory of asylum
CONTINUED: **EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA**													
Serbia	7,291,000	17.6	-0.4	83.4	47.6	52.4	73.9	59	37.9	3,350,849,121	0	183,289	73,608
Slovak Republic	5,430,000	15.1	0.2	112.9	43.2	56.8	75.1	35	50.6	1,591,283,813	36,684	158	461
Slovenia	2,049,000	13.9	0.4	101.7	52.0	48.0	79.4	21	54.7	308,659,241	22,000	38	314
Spain	46,071,000	15.0	0.4	92.4	22.6	77.4	81.6	23	47.4	10,506,896,480	2,250,005	42	3,820
Sweden	9,378,000	16.5	0.9	22.9	15.3	84.7	81.5	10	58.4	687,751,282	265,649	25	82,629
Switzerland	7,826,000	15.2	1.1	195.7	26.4	73.6	82.2	11	64.9	2,619,164,307	182,803	19	48,813
Tajikistan	6,879,000	37.0	1.4	49.1	73.5	26.5	67.3	127	58.1	2,254,454,346	-296,075	577	3,131
Turkey	72,752,000	26.4	1.3	94.5	30.4	69.6	73.7	92	43.6	874,000,000	-50,000	146,794	10,032
Turkmenistan	5,042,000	29.2	1.2	10.7	50.5	49.5	64.9	102	54.0	..	-54,499	738	62
Ukraine	45,871,000	14.2	-0.4	79.2	31.9	68.1	70.3	76	54.1	5,607,000,000	-40,006	25,111	3,022
United Kingdom	62,232,000	17.4	0.7	257.2	9.9	90.1	80.4	28	57.1	7,531,632,813	1,020,211	153	238,150
Uzbekistan	28,228,000	29.4	1.6	66.4	63.1	36.9	68.0	115	54.0	..	-518,486	8,840	311
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN	**589,011,026**	**27.9**	**1.1**	**29.2**	**20.7**	**79.3**	**74.1**	**..**	**61.5**	**57,533,017,261**	**-5,087,610**	**470,690**	**373,865**
Argentina	40,412,000	24.9	0.9	14.8	7.6	92.4	75.6	45	56.1	641,068,909	-199,997	557	3,276
Bahamas, The	343,000	22.5	1.3	34.3	15.9	84.1	75.2	53	64.2	..	6,440	17	28
Belize	345,000	35.0	3.4	15.1	47.3	52.7	75.8	93	59.3	79,530,121	-972	23	134
Bolivia	9,929,000	36.1	1.6	9.2	33.5	66.5	66.3	108	68.5	1,087,993,286	-165,177	590	695
Brazil	194,946,000	25.5	0.9	23.0	13.5	86.5	73.1	84	64.8	3,999,748,291	-499,999	994	4,357
Chile	17,113,688	22.1	0.9	23.0	11.0	89.0	78.9	44	55.4	3,200,000	30,000	1,170	1,621
Colombia	46,295,000	28.7	1.4	41.7	24.9	75.1	73.4	87	59.2	4,057,982,666	-120,000	395,577	212
Costa Rica	4,659,000	24.9	1.5	91.2	35.7	64.3	79.2	69	59.7	551,821,838	75,600	352	19,505
Cuba	11,258,000	17.3	0.0	105.8	24.3	75.7	79.0	51	55.7	..	-190,123	7,477	411
Dominican Republic	9,927,000	31.0	1.3	205.4	29.5	70.5	73.2	98	55.5	3,368,619,629	-140,000	246	599
Ecuador	14,465,000	30.3	1.4	58.2	33.1	66.9	75.5	83	63.8	2,568,698,486	-120,000	852	121,249
El Salvador	6,193,000	32.0	0.5	298.9	38.7	61.3	71.7	105	57.4	3,449,360,107	-291,710	4,976	38
Guatemala	14,389,000	41.5	2.5	134.3	50.5	49.5	70.8	131	65.3	4,229,200,195	-200,000	5,679	138
Guyana	755,000	33.6	0.2	3.8	71.5	28.5	69.5	117	53.4	308,397,217	-40,000	749	7
Haiti	9,993,000	35.9	1.3	362.6	50.4	49.6	61.8	158	59.7	1,498,662,964	-239,997	25,892	3[d]
Honduras	7,600,000	36.8	2.0	67.9	51.2	48.8	72.8	121	60.3	2,649,150,146	-100,000	1,302	14
Jamaica	2,702,000	29.1	0.2	249.5	46.3	53.7	72.8	79	55.9	2,011,033,691	-100,000	1,057	21
Mexico	113,423,000	29.1	1.2	58.3	22.2	77.8	76.7	57	58.4	22,047,560,550	-1,805,238	6,816	1,395
Nicaragua	5,789,000	34.5	1.4	48.1	42.7	57.3	73.7	129	59.7	822,799,988	-200,000	1,431	64
Panama	3,517,000	29.0	1.6	47.3	25.2	74.8	76.0	58	61.7	231,199,997	11,000	100	17,073
Paraguay	6,454,000	33.5	1.8	16.2	38.5	61.5	72.3	107	68.5	672,984,985	-40,000	86	107
Peru	29,076,000	30.0	1.1	22.7	28.4	71.6	73.8	80	71.1	2,533,910,889	-724,999	5,834	1,146
Suriname	525,000	28.6	0.9	3.4	24.4	75.6	70.3	104	47.2	4,300,000	-4,998	25	1
Trinidad & Tobago	1,341,000	20.6	0.4	261.4	86.1	13.9	69.8	62	62.8	119,937,508	-19,806	255	29
Uruguay	3,357,000	22.5	0.3	19.2	7.5	92.5	76.2	48	61.1	102,876,999	-50,000	186	189
Venezuela, RB	28,834,000	29.5	1.6	32.7	6.0	94.0	74.1	73	61.0	143,000,000	40,000	6,701	201,547
NORTH AMERICA	**343,539,600**	**19.7**	**0.9**	**18.8**	**17.9**	**82.1**	**78.5**	**..**	**57.9**	**6,622,457,031**	**6,053,368**	**3,116**	**430,123**
Canada	34,126,000	16.4	1.2	3.8	19.4	80.6	80.8	6	61.3	..	1,098,444	90	165,549
United States	309,349,000	20.1	0.8	33.8	17.7	82.3	78.2	4	57.5	5,277,000,000	4,954,924	3,026	264,574

.. Data not availble.
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Note: South Sudan is not included due to insufficient information.
Sources for tables on page 215.

Demographics and Economic Indicators

	Gross domestic product (GDP) 2009-2010				Military spending 2007-2010	Debt & inflation 2010		Exports & imports of goods and services 2007-2010		Exports & imports of food 2007-2010		Income inequality 2007-2010
	GDP (current million US$)	growth (%)	per capita (current US$)	per capita PPP (current int'l $)	% of gov't spending	value of external debt (current million US$)	inflation, consumer prices (%)	exports (current million US$)	imports (current million US$)	exports (% of merchandise)	imports (% of merchandise)	GINI index (0 is perfect equality & 100 is perfect inequality)
CONTINUED: **EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA**												
Serbia	38,423	1.0	5,270	11,349	2.2	28,351	6.1	13,407	19,747	18.6	5.8	27.8
Slovak Republic	87,268	4.2	16,071	23,303	1.1	..	1.0	70,748	71,885	4.3	6.3	26.0
Slovenia	46,908	1.4	22,893	26,925	1.6	..	1.8	30,690	30,425	4.1	8.0	..
Spain	1,407,405	-0.1	30,549	32,230	1.1	..	1.8	369,538	399,993	15.1	10.4	..
Sweden	458,552	5.6	48,897	39,024	1.2	..	1.2	229,301	201,579	4.7	8.7	..
Switzerland	527,920	2.7	67,457	46,384	0.9	..	0.7	282,724	222,841	3.8	5.8	..
Tajikistan	5,640	3.8	820	2,163	..	2,202	6.4	858	3,444	..	..	30.8
Turkey	734,364	9.0	10,094	15,687	2.4	270,204	8.6	155,074	195,630	10.6	4.0	39.0
Turkmenistan	20,001	9.2	3,967	8,274	..	380	..	10,347	10,921	..	..	..
Ukraine	137,929	4.2	3,007	6,721	2.7	107,452	9.4	69,224	73,069	19.2	9.2	26.4
United Kingdom	2,261,713	2.1	36,343	35,686	2.6	..	3.3	681,233	737,999	6.3	9.7	..
Uzbekistan	38,982	8.5	1,381	3,106	..	5,972	..	12,269	12,056	..	..	..
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN	**5,123,243**	**6.0**	**8,698**	**11,431**	**1.4**	**987,607**	**..**	**1,141,140**	**1,147,249**	**16.2**	**7.5**	**..**
Argentina	368,736	9.2	9,124	16,012	0.9	121,281	10.8	80,040	67,848	51.2	2.6	44.5
Bahamas, The	7,702	0.9	22,454	31,746	..	..	1.3	3,236	3,946	25.1	17.5	..
Belize	1,401	2.9	4,061	6,670	1.1	784	0.9	844	952	60.9	16.5	..
Bolivia	19,650	4.1	1,979	4,849	1.6	2,999	2.5	8,093	6,745	15.0	7.9	56.3
Brazil	2,087,890	7.5	10,710	11,210	1.6	326,721	5.0	232,862	253,610	31.1	4.7	54.7
Chile	212,741	5.2	12,431	15,779	3.2	78,746	1.4	82,373	67,752	16.9	7.5	52.1
Colombia	288,886	4.0	6,240	9,453	3.7	92,182	2.3	45,400	51,791	11.9	9.7	55.9
Costa Rica	35,831	4.2	7,691	11,569	..	8,090	5.7	13,641	14,750	34.7	9.0	50.7
Cuba	60,806[c]	2.1	5,397[c]	..	3.3	..	..	12,506	14,806	..	..	..
Dominican Republic	51,766	7.8	5,215	9,350	0.6	10,906	6.3	11,524	17,605	27.2	13.6	47.2
Ecuador	57,978	3.6	4,008	8,028	3.8	12,770	3.6	19,103	22,390	30.0	8.3	49.3
El Salvador	21,215	1.4	3,426	6,668	0.6	9,732	1.2	5,553	9,259	21.5	16.6	48.3
Guatemala	41,186	2.8	2,862	4,785	0.4	12,115	3.9	10,336	14,820	42.1	13.3	..
Guyana	2,226	3.6	2,948	3,432	..	762	2.1	..	..	59.3	14.8	..
Haiti	6,710	-5.1	671	1,111	..	282	5.7	813	3,846	..	..	..
Honduras	15,400	2.8	2,026	3,923	1.6	1,971	4.7	6,756	9,950	54.2	18.8	57.0
Jamaica	14,252	-0.6	5,275	7,673	0.8	13,246	12.6	3,642	6,166	24.6	17.7	..
Mexico	1,035,871	5.5	9,133	14,564	0.5	178,631	4.2	313,742	328,741	6.1	6.5	48.3
Nicaragua	6,551	7.6	1,132	2,913	0.7	2,249	5.5	2,708	4,562	88.2	16.3	..
Panama	26,689	4.8	7,589	13,608	..	10,049	3.5	17,409	18,458	72.6	8.0	51.9
Paraguay	18,331	15.0	2,840	5,181	0.9	4,298	4.7	10,467	10,074	85.5	7.5	52.4
Peru	157,053	8.8	5,401	9,538	1.4	32,384	1.5	39,433	34,941	20.3	10.3	48.1
Suriname	3,251	3.1	6,254	7,664	..	..	6.9	..	..	2.4	15.2	..
Trinidad & Tobago	20,604	0.1	15,365	25,739	..	..	10.5	17,728	10,210	2.5	11.2	..
Uruguay	39,051	8.5	11,633	14,108	1.5	10,234	6.7	10,493	10,200	64.3	10.1	45.3
Venezuela, RB	391,847	-1.5	13,590	12,233	0.9	55,591	29.1	112,424	67,300	0.2	15.5	..
NORTH AMERICA	**16,169,541**	**3.0**	**47,067**	**46,349**	**4.5**	**..**	**..**	**2,303,992**	**2,851,722**	**10.0**	**5.4**	**..**
Canada	1,577,040	3.2	46,212	39,050	1.4	..	1.8	464,132	493,760	10.5	7.4	..
United States	14,586,736	3.0	47,153	47,153	4.8	..	1.6	1,839,800	2,356,700	9.8	5.0	..

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Sources for tables on page 215.

Table 2

MDG 1: Eradicate Extreme Poverty

	People living in poverty 2007-2010					Income distribution by quintiles (% of total income) 2007-2010					
	below national poverty line (% of total population)	below national rural poverty line (% of rural population)	below national urban poverty line (% of urban population)	below $2 PPP per day (%)	below $1.25 PPP per day (%)	lowest 20%	second 20%	third 20%	fourth 20%	highest 20%	share of lowest 20% in national consumption (%)
World	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
High-income countries	..	..	..	..	.. [f]	..	..	..	..	..	..
Low- & middle-income countries	..	..	..	**43.0**	**22.4**	..	..	..	..	..	..
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	..	..	..	**69.2**	**47.5**	..	..	..	..	..	..
Angola	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Benin	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Botswana	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Burkina Faso	46.7	52.6	27.9	72.6	44.6	6.7	10.6	14.8	20.9	47.0	6.7
Burundi	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cameroon	39.9	55.0	12.2	30.4	9.6	6.7	10.5	14.9	21.7	46.2	6.7
Cape Verde	26.6	44.3	13.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Central African Republic	62.0	69.4	49.6	80.1	62.8	3.4	6.9	11.1	18.0	60.6	3.4
Chad	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Comoros	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Congo, Dem. Rep.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Congo, Rep.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cote d'Ivoire	42.7	54.2	29.4	46.3	23.8	5.6	10.1	14.9	21.8	47.6	5.6
Eritrea	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ethiopia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Gabon	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Gambia, The	48.4	73.9	32.7	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ghana	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Guinea	53.0	63.0	30.5	69.6	43.3	6.4	10.5	15.1	21.9	46.2	6.4
Guinea-Bissau	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Kenya	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Lesotho	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Liberia	63.8	67.7	55.1	94.9	83.8	6.4	11.4	15.7	21.6	45.0	6.4
Madagascar	..	..	..	92.6	81.3	5.4	9.5	14.1	20.9	50.1	5.4
Malawi	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Mali	..	50.6	..	78.7	50.4	8.0	12.0	16.3	22.4	41.3	8
Mauritania	42.0	59.4	20.8	47.7	23.4	6.0	10.4	15.1	21.5	47.0	6
Mauritius	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Mozambique	54.7	56.9	49.6	81.8	59.6	5.2	9.5	13.7	20.1	51.5	5.2
Namibia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Niger	59.5	63.9	36.7	75.2	43.6	8.1	11.8	15.8	21.3	43.1	8.1
Nigeria	..	..	..	84.5	68.0	4.4	8.3	13.0	20.3	54.0	4.4
Rwanda	44.9 [f]	48.7 [f]	22.1 [f]	82.4 [f]	63.2 [f]	5.2 [f]	8.3 [f]	11.9 [f]	17.8 [f]	56.8 [f]	5.2 [f]
São Tomé & Principe	66.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Senegal	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Sierra Leone	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Somalia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
South Africa	..	..	..	31.3	13.8	2.7	4.6	8.2	16.3	68.2	2.7
Sudan	46.5	57.6	26.5	44.1	19.8	6.8	11.7	16.4	22.7	42.4	6.8
Swaziland	..	..	..	60.4	40.6	4.1	7.4	12.0	20.0	56.6	4.1
Tanzania	33.4	37.4	21.8	87.9	67.9	6.8	11.1	15.6	21.7	44.8	6.8
Togo	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Uganda	24.5	27.2	9.1	64.7	38.0	5.8	9.6	13.8	20.0	50.7	5.8
Zambia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Zimbabwe	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	..	..	..	**13.9**	**2.7**	..	..	..	..	..	..
Algeria	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Djibouti	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

MDG 1: Eradicate Extreme Poverty

	People living in poverty 2007-2010					Income distribution by quintiles (% of total income) 2007-2010					
	below national poverty line (% of total population)	below national rural poverty line (% of rural population)	below national urban poverty line (% of urban population)	below $2 PPP per day (%)	below $1.25 PPP per day (%)	lowest 20%	second 20%	third 20%	fourth 20%	highest 20%	share of lowest 20% in national consumption (%)
CONTINUED: **MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA**											
Egypt, Arab Rep.	22.0	30.0	10.6	15.4	1.7	9.2	13.0	16.4	21.0	40.3	9.2
Iran, Islamic Rep.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Iraq	22.9	39.3	16.1	21.4	2.8	8.7	12.8	16.7	22.0	39.9	8.7
Jordan	13.3	..	..	1.6	0.1	7.7	11.6	15.7	21.5	43.6	7.7
Lebanon	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Libya	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Morocco	9.0	14.5	4.8	14.0	2.5	6.5	10.5	14.5	20.6	47.9	6.5
Syrian Arab Republic	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tunisia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
West Bank & Gaza	21.9	..	..	0.3	0.0	7.4	11.5	15.8	21.8	43.4	..
Yemen, Rep.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
SOUTH ASIA	**..**	**..**	**..**	**70.9**	**36.0**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**
Afghanistan	36.0	37.5	29.0	..	..	9.4	13.6	17.4	22.1	37.5	9.4
Bangladesh	31.5	35.2	21.3	76.5	43.3	8.9	12.4	16.1	21.3	41.4	8.9
Bhutan	23.2	30.9	1.7	29.8	10.2	6.6	10.8	15.4	22.0	45.2	6.6
India	29.8	33.8	20.9	68.7	32.7	..	..	..	..	..	..
Maldives	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Nepal	25.2 [f]	27.4 [f]	15.5 [f]	57.3	24.8	8.3	12.2	16.2	21.9	41.5	8.3
Pakistan	..	..	..	60.2	21.0	9.6	12.9	16.4	21.1	40.0	9.6
Sri Lanka	8.9	9.4	5.3	29.1	7.0	6.9	10.4	14.4	20.5	47.8	6.9
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	**..**	**..**	**..**	**33.2**	**14.3**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**
Cambodia	30.1	34.5	11.8	53.3	22.8	7.5	11.0	14.9	20.6	45.9	7.5
China	..	..	..	29.8	13.1	..	..	..	..	..	..
Fiji	31.0	43.3	18.6	22.9	5.9	6.2	9.9	14.1	20.3	49.6	6.2
Indonesia	12.5 [f]	15.7 [f]	9.2 [f]	46.1	18.1	..	..	..	..	..	..
Kiribati	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Korea, Dem. Rep.	.. [f]	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Lao PDR	27.6	31.7	17.4	66.0	33.9	7.6	11.3	15.3	20.9	44.8	7.6
Malaysia	3.8	8.4	1.7	2.3	..	4.5	8.7	13.7	21.6	51.5	4.5
Mongolia	35.2	46.6	26.9	..	..	7.1	11.2	15.6	22.1	44.0	7.1
Myanmar	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Papua New Guinea	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Philippines	26.5	..	..	41.5	18.4	6.0	9.4	13.9	21.0	49.7	6
Samoa	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Solomon Islands	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Thailand	8.1	10.4	3.0	4.6	0.4	6.7	10.3	14.5	21.4	47.2	6.7
Timor-Leste	49.9	..	..	72.8	37.4	9.0	12.5	16.1	21.2	41.3	9
Tuvalu	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Vanuatu	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Vietnam	14.5	18.7	3.3	43.4	16.9	7.4	11.5	15.8	21.8	43.4	7.4
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	**..**	**..**	**..**	**2.2**	**0.5**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**
Albania	12.4	14.6	10.1	4.3	0.6	8.1	12.1	15.9	20.9	43.0	8.1
Armenia	35.8	36.0	36.0	12.4	1.3	8.8	12.8	16.7	21.9	39.8	8.8
Azerbaijan	15.8	18.5	14.8	2.8	0.4	8.0	12.1	16.2	21.7	42.1	8
Belarus	5.4	..	..	0.2	0.1	9.2	13.8	17.8	22.9	36.4	9.2
Bosnia & Herzegovina	14.0	17.8	8.2	0.2	0.0	6.7	11.3	16.1	22.7	43.2	..
Bulgaria	10.6	..	..	0.4	..	8.5	13.7	17.9	23.1	36.7	8.5
Georgia	24.7	30.7	18.4	32.2	15.3	5.3	10.3	15.2	22.1	47.2	5.3
Kazakhstan	8.2	..	..	1.1	0.1	9.1	13.2	17.1	22.3	38.4	9.1
Kosovo	34.5	35.3	33.1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Table 2

MDG 1: Eradicate Extreme Poverty

	People living in poverty 2007-2010					Income distribution by quintiles (% of total income) 2007-2010					
	below national poverty line (% of total population)	below national rural poverty line (% of rural population)	below national urban poverty line (% of urban population)	below $2 PPP per day (%)	below $1.25 PPP per day (%)	lowest 20%	second 20%	third 20%	fourth 20%	highest 20%	share of lowest 20% in national consumption (%)
CONTINUED: **EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA**											
Kyrgyz Republic	33.7	..	..	21.7	6.2	6.8	11.4	16.0	22.4	43.4	6.8
Latvia	..	..	..	0.4	0.1	6.6	11.4	16.1	22.3	43.6	6.6
Lithuania	..	..	..	0.4	0.2	6.6	11.1	15.7	22.1	44.4	6.6
Macedonia, FYR	..	..	..	5.9	0.3	5.1	9.5	14.5	22.0	48.9	5.1
Moldova	21.9	30.3	10.4	4.4	0.4	7.8	12.2	16.5	22.3	41.2	7.8
Montenegro	6.6	11.3	4.0	0.3	0.1	8.5	13.1	17.2	22.4	38.8	8.5
Romania	..	..	..	1.7	0.4	8.3	13.1	17.4	22.9	38.3	8.3
Russian Federation	..	..	..	0.1	0.0	6.5	10.4	14.8	21.3	47.1	6.5
Serbia	9.2	13.6	5.7	0.7	0.3	8.9	13.7	17.8	22.8	36.9	8.9
Tajikistan	46.7	55.0	49.4	27.7	6.6	8.3	12.8	17.0	22.6	39.4	8.3
Turkey	18.1	38.7	8.9	4.2	1.1	5.7	10.9	15.9	22.4	45.1	5.7
Turkmenistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ukraine	2.9	4.7	2.0	0.2	0.1	9.7	14.0	17.7	22.4	36.3	9.7
Uzbekistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN	**..**	**..**	**..**	**12.4**	**6.5**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**
Argentina	..	..	9.9	1.9	0.9	4.4	9.3	14.8	22.2	49.4	4.4
Belize	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bolivia	60.1	77.3	50.9	24.9	15.6	2.1	6.8	11.9	19.9	59.3	2.1
Brazil	21.4	..	..	10.8	6.1	2.9	7.1	12.4	19.0	58.6	2.9
Chile	15.1	12.9	15.5	2.7	1.4	4.3	7.9	11.7	18.4	57.7	4.3
Colombia	37.2	50.3	33.0	15.8	8.2	3.0	6.8	11.2	18.8	60.2	3
Costa Rica	24.2	23.0	20.7	6.0	3.1	3.9	8.0	12.4	19.9	55.9	3.9
Cuba	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Dominican Republic	34.4	47.0	28.6	9.9	2.2	4.7	8.6	13.2	20.8	52.8	4.7
Ecuador	32.8	53.0	22.5	10.6	4.6	4.3	8.2	13.0	20.7	53.8	4.3
El Salvador	37.8	46.5	33.3	16.9	9.0	3.7	8.8	13.7	20.7	53.1	3.7
Guatemala	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Guyana	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Haiti	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Honduras	60.0	65.4	54.3	29.8	17.9	2.0	6.1	11.4	20.5	59.9	2
Jamaica	9.9	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Mexico	51.3	60.8	45.5	5.2	1.2	4.7	8.7	13.1	19.9	53.7	4.7
Nicaragua	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Panama	32.7	59.8	17.7	13.8	6.6	3.3	7.8	12.5	20.1	56.4	3.3
Paraguay	34.7	48.9	24.7	13.2	7.2	3.3	7.8	12.8	19.8	56.4	3.3
Peru	31.3	54.2	19.1	12.7	4.9	3.9	8.3	13.6	21.5	52.6	3.9
Suriname	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Uruguay	18.6	6.2	18.7	1.2	0.2	4.9	9.0	13.7	21.5	50.9	4.9
Venezuela, RB	28.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

.. Data not availble.
0 Zero, or rounds to zero at the displayed number of decimal places.
a Data refers to 2006
b Data refers to 2007
c Data refers to 2008
d Data refers to 2009
e Data refers to 2010
f Data refers to 2011

Note: South Sudan is not included due to insufficient information.
Sources for tables on page 215.

Table 3

MDG 1: Eradicate Extreme Hunger

	Population hungry 2011			Children (under 5) hungry 2007-2010			Nutritional supplements 2007-2010		Exclusive breast-feeding 2007-2010
	million(s)	% of total population	low birth weight newborns (%)	underweight (%)	wasting (%)	stunting (%)	vitamin A coverage rate (% of children under 5)	consumption of iodized salt (% of households)	received by infants under 6 months (%)
World	**868**	**12.5**	**15.1**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**70.1**	**36.8**
High-income countries	**16**	**< 5**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**
Low- & middle-income countries	**852**	**15.6**	**15.1**	**17.9**	**9.6**	**29.2**	**..**	**70.1**	**36.8**
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	**234**	**26.8**	**13.3**	**22.0**	**..**	**..**	**85.8**	**49.8**	**35.0**
Angola	5	27.4	..	15.6	8.2	29.2	28.0	44.7	..
Benin	1	8.1	..	..	..	..	100.0	67.2	..
Botswana	1	27.9	13.1	11.2	7.2	31.4	91.1	..	20.3
Burkina Faso	4	25.9	..	26.0	11.3	35.1	100.0	..	16.0
Burundi	6	73.4	..	..	..	..	72.7	..	69.3
Cameroon	3	15.7	..	..	..	..	89.3	..	..
Cape Verde	..	8.9	..	..	..	..	..	74.8	..
Central African Republic	1	30.0	..	..	..	..	87.0	..	..
Chad	4	33.4	..	..	..	..	68.0	..	3.0
Comoros	..	70.0	..	..	..	..	18.0	..	..
Congo, Dem. Rep.	..	50.4	9.5	28.2	14.0	45.8	83.1	58.6	37.0
Congo, Rep.	2	37.4	..	..	..	..	83.5	..	..
Cote d'Ivoire	..	21.4	..	29.4	14.0	39.0	99.6	..	..
Eritrea	4	65.4	..	..	..	..	44.1	..	..
Ethiopia	34	40.2	..	..	..	..	84.0	..	..
Gabon	..	6.5	..	..	..	..	90.0	..	..
Gambia, The	..	14.4	10.7	..	..	..	100.0	21.1	35.8
Ghana	1	< 5	13.4	14.3	8.7	28.6	93.0	..	62.8
Guinea	2	17.3	..	20.8	8.3	40.0	96.7	41.1	48.1
Guinea-Bissau	..	8.7	11.0	17.2	5.6	28.1	100.0	11.7	38.3
Kenya	13	30.4	7.7	16.4	7.0	35.2	62.0	97.6	31.9
Lesotho	..	16.6	..	13.5	3.9	39.0	85.0	84.4	53.8
Liberia	1	31.4	13.7	20.4	7.8	39.4	96.7	..	34.0
Madagascar	7	33.4	15.6	..	..	49.2	95.0	52.6	50.7
Malawi	4	23.1	..	13.8	4.1	47.8	95.8	..	71.9
Mali	1	7.9	..	..	..	..	99.3	..	..
Mauritania	..	9.3	33.7	15.9	8.1	23.0	97.2	22.6	45.9
Mauritius	..	5.7	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Mozambique	9	39.2	16.0	18.3	4.2	43.7	100.0	25.1	36.8
Namibia	1	33.9	..	17.5	7.5	29.6	13.0	..	..
Niger	2	12.6	..	..	..	..	98.2	32.0	26.9
Nigeria	14	8.5	11.7	26.7	14.4	41.0	91.5	..	13.1
Rwanda	3	28.9	..	..	..	..	92.0	..	84.9
São Tomé & Principe	..	7.7	..	14.4	11.2	31.6	41.2	85.6	51.4
Senegal	3	20.5	..	..	..	..	97.0	..	..
Sierra Leone	2	28.8	13.6	21.3	10.5	37.4	100.0	58.2	11.2
Somalia	..	66.3	..	..	..	..	62.0	..	..
South Africa	..	< 5	..	8.7	4.7	23.9	39.0	..	..
Sudan	18	39.4	..	..	..	..	82.2	..	..
Swaziland	..	27.0	9.2	7.3	1.1	40.4	38.0	51.6	44.1
Tanzania	18	38.8	..	16.2	4.9	42.5	98.5	58.5	49.8
Togo	1	16.5	11.1	20.5	6.0	26.9	100.0	31.6	62.5
Uganda	12	34.6	..	..	..	..	64.0	..	..
Zambia	6	47.4	11.0	14.9	5.6	45.8	92.0	..	60.9
Zimbabwe	4	32.8	..	..	..	..	49.3	90.9	31.5[†]
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	**4**	**< 5**	**10.6**	**7.9**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**69.3**	**34.2**
Algeria	..	< 5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Djibouti	..	19.8	..	..	..	..	95.0	..	..

Table 3

MDG 1: Eradicate Extreme Hunger

	Population hungry 2011			Children (under 5) hungry 2007-2010			Nutritional supplements 2007-2010		Exclusive breast-feeding 2007-2010
	million(s)	% of total population	low birth weight newborns (%)	underweight (%)	wasting (%)	stunting (%)	vitamin A coverage rate (% of children under 5)	consumption of iodized salt (% of households)	received by infants under 6 months (%)
CONTINUED: **MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA**									
Egypt, Arab Rep.	..	< 5	12.9	6.8	7.9	30.7	68.0	78.7	53.2
Iran, Islamic Rep.	4	< 5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Iraq	9	26.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Jordan	..	< 5	12.6	1.9	1.6	8.3	..	..	21.8
Lebanon	..	< 5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Libya	..	< 5	..	5.6	6.5	21.0	..	..	..
Morocco	2	5.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Syrian Arab Republic	..	< 5	10.3	10.1	11.5	27.5	33.0	..	42.6
Tunisia	..	< 5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
West Bank & Gaza	..	..	..	2.2	1.8	11.8	..	..	..
Yemen, Rep.	8	32.4	..	..	..	..	47.0	..	..
SOUTH ASIA	**304**	**17.6**	**27.4**	**32.9**	**..**	**..**	**49.8**	**55.3**	**46.7**
Afghanistan	..	36.9	..	..	..	..	96.4	..	..
Bangladesh	25	16.8	..	41.3	17.5	43.2	99.7	..	42.9
Bhutan	..	0.0	9.9	12.7	5.9	33.5	48.0	..	48.7
India	217	17.5	..	..	..	..	34.0	..	..
Maldives	..	5.6	..	17.8	10.2	20.3	52.0	..	47.8
Nepal	5	18.0	..	..	..	..	91.3	..	..
Pakistan	35	19.9	31.6	..	..	..	87.0	..	37.1
Sri Lanka	5	24.0	16.6	21.6	11.8	19.2	84.8	92.4	75.8
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	**167**	**11.5**	**6.4**	**5.8**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**85.7**	**26.0**
Cambodia	2	17.1	8.0	29.0 [f]	10.8 [f]	40.9 [f]	95.0	82.7	73.5
China	158	11.5	2.7	3.4	2.3	9.4	..	96.6	27.6
Fiji	..	< 5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Indonesia	21	8.6	11.1	17.5	14.8	35.6	80.1	62.3	15.3
Kiribati	..	8.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Korea, Dem. Rep.	8	32.0	5.7	18.8	5.2	32.4	99.4	24.5	..
Lao PDR	2	27.8	..	..	..	..	83.1	..	..
Malaysia	..	< 5	10.5	..	..	..	..	17.6	..
Mongolia	1	24.2	5.2	..	..	..	61.0	..	..
Myanmar	..	19.7	8.6	..	..	..	94.5	92.9	23.6
Papua New Guinea	..	14.0	..	..	..	..	14.0	..	..
Philippines	16	17.0	21.2	20.7	6.9	32.3	91.0	81.0	34.0
Samoa	..	< 5	10.2	..	..	..	..	..	51.3
Solomon Islands	..	12.7	12.5	11.5	4.3	32.8	..	..	73.7
Thailand	5	7.3	6.6	..	..	..	..	..	15.1
Timor-Leste	..	38.2	..	45.3	18.9	57.7	47.9	59.9	51.5
Tuvalu	..	0.0	..	1.6	3.3	10.0	..	..	34.7
Vanuatu	..	8.5	10.2	11.7	5.9	25.9	..	22.9	40.1
Vietnam	8	9.0	5.3	20.2	9.7	30.5	95.4	..	..
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	**6**	**7.4**	**7.0**	**1.9**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**
Albania	..	< 5	..	6.3	9.4	23.1	..	75.6	38.6
Armenia	..	< 5	7.4	..	..	..	..	..	34.6
Azerbaijan	..	< 5	..	..	..	..	88.5	..	..
Belarus	..	< 5	..	..	..	..	..	94.0	..
Bosnia & Herzegovina	..	< 5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bulgaria	..	< 5	8.7	..	..	..	..	..	..
Georgia	1	24.7	4.9	1.1	1.6	11.3	..	99.9	..
Kazakhstan	..	< 5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Kosovo	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

	Population hungry 2011			Children (under 5) hungry 2007-2010			Nutritional supplements 2007-2010		Exclusive breast-feeding 2007-2010
	million(s)	% of total population	low birth weight newborns (%)	underweight (%)	wasting (%)	stunting (%)	vitamin A coverage rate (% of children under 5)	consumption of iodized salt (% of households)	received by infants under 6 months (%)
CONTINUED: **EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA**									
Kyrgyz Republic	< 0.5	6.4	..	..	..	..	97.4	..	..
Latvia	..	< 5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Lithuania	..	< 5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Macedonia, FYR	..	< 5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Moldova	..	< 5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Montenegro	..	< 5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Romania	..	< 5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Russian Federation	..	< 5	6.0	..	..	..	..	..	..
Serbia	..	< 5	5.6	..	..	..	..	32.2	..
Tajikistan	2	31.7	..	15.0	6.7	39.2	94.9	61.9	..
Turkey	..	< 5	11.0	..	..	..	..	68.9	41.6
Turkmenistan	..	< 5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ukraine	..	< 5	4.2	..	..	..	..	..	18.0
Uzbekistan	2	6.1	..	..	..	..	94.3	..	..
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN	**42**	**8.3**	**8.2**	**3.0**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**
Argentina	..	< 5	7.1	..	..	..	..	..	..
Belize	..	6.8	13.5	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bolivia	..	24.1	6.3	4.5	1.4	27.2	24.0	88.8	60.4
Brazil	13	6.9	7.8	2.2	1.6	7.1	..	..	..
Chile	..	< 5	5.9	0.5	0.3	2.0	..	..	..
Colombia	6	12.6	..	3.4	0.9	12.7	..	..	42.8
Costa Rica	< 0.5	6.5	6.7	1.1	1.0	5.6	..	..	..
Cuba	..	< 5	5.1	..	..	..	..	..	..
Dominican Republic	2	15.4	11.0	3.4	2.3	10.1	..	..	9.4
Ecuador	3	18.3	8.3	..	..	..	..	..	..
El Salvador	1	12.3	..	6.6	1.6	20.6	20.0	..	31.4
Guatemala	4	30.4	11.4	13.0	1.1	48.0	36.0	76.0	49.6
Guyana	..	5.1	..	10.8	8.3	18.2	..	10.5	33.2
Haiti	5	44.5	..	..	..	..	21.0	..	..
Honduras	1	9.6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Jamaica	..	8.7	..	1.9	2.7	5.7	..	..	..
Mexico	..	< 5	7.3	..	..	..	..	..	..
Nicaragua	1	20.1	8.9	5.7	1.5	23.0	6.9	..	30.6
Panama	< 0.5	10.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Paraguay	2	25.5	6.3	..	..	..	..	..	24.4
Peru	3	11.2	8.4	4.5	0.8	28.2	..	..	68.3
Suriname	..	11.4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Uruguay	..	< 5	8.7	..	..	..	..	..	57.1
Venezuela, RB	..	< 5	8.2	3.7	5.0	15.6	..	..	..

.. Data not availble.
0 Zero, or rounds to zero at the displayed number of decimal places.
a Data refers to 2006
b Data refers to 2007
c Data refers to 2008
d Data refers to 2009
e Data refers to 2010
f Data refers to 2011

Note: South Sudan is not included due to insufficient information.
Sources for tables on page 215.

Table 4

MDG 2: Achieve Universal Primary Education

	School enrollment 2007-2011			Persistence 2007-2009	Literacy rate 2007-2009	
	primary (% net)	secondary (% net)	tertiary (% gross)	to grade 5 (% of students)	ages 15-24	above age 15
World	**87.8**	**59.8**	**27.1**	**..**	**89.3**	**83.7**
High-income countries	**94.9**	**90.2**	**69.7**	**..**	**99.5**	**98.4**
Low- & middle-income countries	**86.9**	**55.7**	**21.4**	**..**	**88.0**	**80.3**
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	**75.1**	**27.0**	**6.3**	**67.6**	**71.9**	**62.3**
Angola	85.7	11.5	3.7	44.8	73.1	70.0
Benin	93.8	..	..	60.4	54.3	41.7
Botswana	85.6	58.8	..	..	95.2	84.1
Burkina Faso	63.2	17.5	3.3	75.1	39.3	28.7
Burundi	89.7	16.2	3.2	62.3	76.6	66.6
Cameroon	92.4	..	11.5	76.3	83.1	70.7
Cape Verde	93.2	65.9	17.8	89.7	98.2	84.8
Central African Republic	70.5	10.7	2.6	56.3	64.7	55.2
Chad	..	..	2.2	32.0	46.3	33.6
Comoros	77.8	..	7.9	..	85.3	74.2
Congo, Dem. Rep.	..	..	6.2	60.0	67.7	67.0
Congo, Rep.	90.8	..	5.5	76.9	..	..
Cote d'Ivoire	61.5	..	8.9	66.1	66.6	55.3
Eritrea	33.5	28.6	2.0	69.0	88.7	66.6
Ethiopia	81.3	..	5.5	50.5	44.6	29.8
Gabon	..	..	..	..	97.6	87.7
Gambia, The	65.5	..	4.1	65.1	65.5	46.5
Ghana	84.0	48.7	8.8	78.4	80.1	66.6
Guinea	77.0	29.5	9.5	68.6	61.1	39.5
Guinea-Bissau	73.9	..	..	..	70.9	52.2
Kenya	82.8	50.0	4.0	..	92.7	87.0
Lesotho	73.4	29.8	..	80.4	92.0	89.7
Liberia	..	..	..	59.8	75.6	59.1
Madagascar	..	23.6	3.7	34.6	64.9	64.5
Malawi	96.9	27.5	0.7	60.9	86.5	73.7
Mali	62.9	31.0	5.8	87.6[e]	..	..
Mauritania	74.0	15.9	4.4	74.3	67.7	57.5
Mauritius	93.4	..	24.9	98.0	96.5	87.9
Mozambique	91.9	16.1	..	53.7	70.9	55.1
Namibia	85.4	50.7	9.0	91.5	93.0	88.5
Niger	62.5	10.2	1.5	71.5[e]	..	..
Nigeria	62.1	25.8	..	86.3	71.8	60.8
Rwanda	98.7	..	5.5	47.2	77.2	70.7
São Tomé & Principe	98.4	48.0	4.5	77.3	95.3	88.8
Senegal	75.5	..	7.9	73.7	65.0	49.7
Sierra Leone	..	..	..	..	57.6	40.9
Somalia	..	..	..	..	..	..
South Africa	85.1	..	..	..	97.6	88.7
Sudan	..	..	..	93.7	..	..
Swaziland	85.5	32.8	..	96.2	93.4	86.9
Tanzania	98.0	..	2.1	89.8	77.4	72.9
Togo	91.8	..	5.9	77.7	..	..
Uganda	90.9	..	4.2	57.1	87.4[e]	73.2[e]
Zambia	91.4	..	..	71.0	74.6	70.9
Zimbabwe	..	..	6.2	..	98.9	91.9

MDG 3: Promote Gender Equality & Empower Women

	School enrollment ratio (female to male) 2007-2011			Literacy ratio (female to male) 2007-2009		Participation of women 2007-2011	
	primary	secondary	tertiary	ages 15-24	above age 15	in non-agri-cultural sector (% of non-ag. employment)	in national parliaments (% of seats held)
World	**0.96**	**0.97**	**1.08**	**0.94**	**0.90**	**..**	**19.5**
High-income countries	**1.00**	**0.99**	**1.23**	**1.00**	**0.99**	**47.0**	**23.1**
Low- & middle-income countries	**0.96**	**0.96**	**1.02**	**0.94**	**0.87**	**..**	**18.2**
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	**0.92**	**0.79**	**0.63**	**0.88**	**0.76**	**..**	**19.9**
Angola	0.81	0.69	0.82	0.81	0.70	..	38.6
Benin	0.87	..	..	0.67	0.54	..	8.4
Botswana	0.97	1.05	..	1.03	1.01	45.2	7.9
Burkina Faso	0.93	0.78[f]	0.48	0.71	0.59	26.5	15.3
Burundi	0.99	0.72	0.54	0.99	0.84	..	32.1
Cameroon	0.86	0.83	0.81	0.87	0.80	..	13.9
Cape Verde	0.92	1.20	1.29	1.02	0.89	..	20.8
Central African Republic	0.71	0.58	0.32	0.79	0.61	..	13.0
Chad	0.73	0.41	0.17	0.73	0.52	..	12.8
Comoros	0.92	..	0.74	0.99	0.86	..	3.0
Congo, Dem. Rep.	0.87	0.58	0.31	0.85	0.69	..	10.4
Congo, Rep.	0.95	..	0.21	..	..	..	7.3
Cote d'Ivoire	0.83	..	0.50	0.85	0.70	..	8.9
Eritrea	0.84	0.76	0.33	0.94	0.72	..	22.0
Ethiopia	0.91	0.82	0.36	0.60	0.43	..	27.8
Gabon	0.97	..	..	0.98	0.92	..	14.7
Gambia, The	1.02	0.95	..	0.85	0.62	..	7.5
Ghana	1.00	0.91[f]	0.62	0.97	0.83	..	8.3
Guinea	0.84	0.59	0.33	0.79	0.55	28.5	19.3[c]
Guinea-Bissau	0.94	..	..	0.81	0.57	..	10.0
Kenya	0.98	0.90	0.70	1.02	0.92	..	9.8
Lesotho	0.98	1.38	..	1.14	1.15	..	24.2
Liberia	0.91	..	..	1.15	0.86	..	12.5
Madagascar	0.98	0.94	0.91	0.97	0.91	..	12.5
Malawi	1.04	0.91	0.62	0.99	0.83	..	20.8
Mali	0.88	0.71[f]	0.42	..	..	..	10.2
Mauritania	1.05	0.85	0.41	0.91	0.78	..	22.1
Mauritius	1.01	1.00	1.24	1.02	0.94	36.7	18.8
Mozambique	0.90	0.82	..	0.82	0.59	..	39.2
Namibia	0.99	1.18	1.32	1.04	0.99	..	24.4
Niger	0.84	0.66	0.37	..	..	36.1	13.1
Nigeria	0.91	0.88	..	0.84	0.69	..	3.7
Rwanda	1.02	1.02	0.77	1.01	0.89	..	56.3
São Tomé & Principe	0.97	1.15[f]	0.98	1.01	0.90	..	18.2
Senegal	1.06	0.88	0.60	0.76	0.63	..	22.7
Sierra Leone	0.93	..	..	0.71	0.57	..	13.2
Somalia	0.55	0.46	..	..	..	..	6.8
South Africa	0.96	1.05	..	1.01	0.96	45.1	44.5
Sudan	0.90	0.88	..	..	..	..	25.6
Swaziland	0.92	1.00	..	1.03	0.98	..	13.6
Tanzania	1.02	0.78	0.82	0.97	0.85	..	36.0
Togo	0.90	0.53	..	..	..	..	11.1
Uganda	1.01	0.85	0.79	0.95	0.78	..	34.9
Zambia	1.01	..	..	0.82	0.76	..	14.0
Zimbabwe	..	..	0.80	1.01	0.94	..	15.0

MDG 2: Achieve Universal Primary Education

	School enrollment 2007-2011			Persistence 2007-2009	Literacy rate 2007-2009	
	primary (% net)	secondary (% net)	tertiary (% gross)	to grade 5 (% of students)	ages 15-24	above age 15
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	**90.4**	**63.9**	**27.4**	**..**	**90.1**	**74.4**
Algeria	95.6	..	30.8	95.0	..	..
Djibouti	44.5	24.2	4.9	64.3	..	..
Egypt, Arab Rep.	95.8	..	30.4	..	..	..
Iran, Islamic Rep.	99.5	..	42.8	94.3	98.7	85.0
Iraq	89.2	44.3	..	..	82.7	78.1
Jordan	89.7	84.2	41.8	..	98.9	92.2
Lebanon	91.7	74.7	54.0	90.3	98.7	89.6
Libya	..	..	..	..	99.9	88.9
Morocco	95.7	..	13.2	93.9	79.5	56.1
Syrian Arab Republic	93.5	67.0	..	..	94.4	84.2
Tunisia	98.5	..	34.4	96.1	96.8	77.6
West Bank & Gaza	86.5	83.5	50.2	..	99.2	94.6
Yemen, Rep.	77.6	..	10.2	..	84.1	62.4
South Asia	86.4	..	11.4	..	78.7	61.1
Afghanistan	..	24.1	3.3	..	..	..
Bangladesh	92.2	45.7	10.6	66.2	75.5	55.9
Bhutan	88.3	53.8	8.8	95.5 [e]	..	..
India	92.1	..	16.2	..	..	..
Maldives	96.2	..	..	..	..	..
Nepal	..	..	..	61.7	82.0	59.1
Pakistan	74.1	33.8	5.4	61.5	71.1	55.5
Sri Lanka	94.0	..	15.5	..	98.0	90.6
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	**93.3**	**66.8**	**24.7**	**..**	**98.7**	**93.5**
Cambodia	95.9	35.1	7.8	62.1	87.5	77.6
China	..	..	25.9	..	99.4	94.0
Fiji	96.7	83.5	..	94.3	..	..
Indonesia	96.0	67.3	23.1	86.1	99.5	92.2
Kiribati	..	..	..	..	..	..
Korea, Rep.	..	..	..	..	100.0	100.0
Lao PDR	89.0	37.0	13.4	67.0	..	..
Malaysia	..	67.9	40.2	98.2	98.5	92.5
Mongolia	95.3	82.9	53.3	94.1	96.0	97.5
Myanmar	..	50.8	11.0	74.8	95.7	92.0
Papua New Guinea	..	..	..	..	67.5	60.1
Philippines	89.0	61.0	28.9	78.7	97.8	95.4
Samoa	96.5	77.8	..	96.4	99.5	98.8
Solomon Islands	82.0	30.9	..	..	..	..
Thailand	89.7	74.1	47.7	..	..	..
Timor-Leste	85.3	36.5	16.7	70.5	..	50.6
Tuvalu	..	..	..	..	..	..
Vanuatu	..	47.4	..	76.1	94.0	82.0
Vietnam	98.0	..	22.3	..	96.9	92.8
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	**91.7**	**81.3**	**55.1**	**..**	**99.2**	**97.9**
Albania	79.9	..	..	95.2	98.8	95.9
Armenia	87.1	86.3	51.5	..	99.8	99.5
Azerbaijan	84.4	..	19.3	..	100.0	99.5
Belarus	91.7	86.5	83.0	..	99.8	99.7

MDG 3: Promote Gender Equality & Empower Women

	School enrollment ratio (female to male) 2007-2011			Literacy ratio (female to male) 2007-2009		Participation of women 2007-2011	
	primary	secondary	tertiary	ages 15-24	above age 15	in non-agri-cultural sector (% of non-ag. employment)	in national parliaments (% of seats held)
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	**0.93**	**0.93**	**0.97**	**0.94**	**0.80**	**..**	**9.3**
Algeria	0.94	1.02	1.46	..	..	15.0	7.7
Djibouti	0.90	0.80 [f]	0.67 [f]	..	..	..	13.8
Egypt, Arab Rep.	0.96	..	..	..	..	18.1	1.8
Iran, Islamic Rep.	0.99	0.94	1.01	1.00	0.90	..	2.8
Iraq	0.84	0.75	..	0.95	0.81	12.1	25.2
Jordan	1.01	1.04	1.12	1.00	0.93	15.7	10.8
Lebanon	0.97	1.12	1.19	1.01	0.92	..	3.1
Libya	..	..	..	1.00	0.86	..	7.7
Morocco	0.94	0.86	0.87	0.83	0.64	20.8	10.5
Syrian Arab Republic	0.98	1.00	..	0.97	0.86	15.3	12.4
Tunisia	0.96	1.06	1.51	0.98	0.82	..	27.6
West Bank & Gaza	0.98	1.08	1.34	1.00	0.94	17.9	..
Yemen, Rep.	0.82	0.62	0.42	0.75	0.56	6.2	0.3
South Asia	0.95	0.88	0.69	0.85	0.68	..	20.1
Afghanistan	0.69	0.51	0.24	..	..	18.4	27.7
Bangladesh	1.06	1.09	0.61	1.04	0.84	..	18.6
Bhutan	1.01	1.04 [f]	0.68 [f]	..	..	26.8	8.5
India	0.97	0.88	0.68	..	..	..	10.8
Maldives	0.96	..	..	..	..	..	6.5
Nepal	..	..	..	0.88	0.65	..	33.2
Pakistan	0.82	0.76	0.83	0.77	0.58	12.6	22.2
Sri Lanka	1.00	..	1.92	1.01	0.97	31.0	5.8
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	**1.01**	**1.05**	**1.08**	**1.00**	**0.94**	**..**	**17.7**
Cambodia	0.95	0.90	0.53	0.96	0.83	..	21.1
China	1.03	1.04	1.10	1.00	0.94	..	21.3
Fiji	0.98	1.09	..	..	..	..	..
Indonesia	1.02	1.00	0.89	1.00	0.93	32.4	18.0
Kiribati	1.04	1.11	..	..	..	..	4.3
Korea, Rep.	..	..	..	1.00	1.00	..	14.7
Lao PDR	0.90	0.81	0.78		..	..	25.0
Malaysia	..	1.07	1.29	1.00	0.95	39.2	9.9
Mongolia	0.98	1.08	1.53	1.03	1.01	51.1	3.9
Myanmar	1.00	1.06	1.38	0.99	0.94	..	4.3
Papua New Guinea	0.89	..	..	1.09	0.89	..	0.9
Philippines	0.98	1.08	1.25	1.02	1.01	41.9	22.1
Samoa	1.02	1.14	..	1.00	1.00	..	4.1
Solomon Islands	0.97	0.84	..	..	..	..	..
Thailand	0.99	1.08 [f]	1.31 [f]	..	..	45.5	13.3
Timor-Leste	0.96	1.01	0.70	..	0.73	..	29.2
Tuvalu	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Vanuatu	0.95	1.02	..	1.00	0.96	38.9	3.8
Vietnam	0.94	1.09	1.00	0.99	0.95	..	24.4
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	**0.99**	**0.96**	**1.22**	**1.00**	**0.98**	**48.3**	**16.0**
Albania	0.99	0.98	..	1.01	0.97	..	16.4
Armenia	1.02	1.02	1.28	1.00	1.00	40.4	9.2
Azerbaijan	0.99	..	0.99	1.00	0.99	42.9	16.0
Belarus	1.00	1.02	1.43	1.00	1.00	55.8	31.8

Table 4

MDG 2: Achieve Universal Primary Education

MDG 3: Promote Gender Equality & Empower Women

	School enrollment 2007-2011			Persistence 2007-2009	Literacy rate 2007-2009		School enrollment ratio (female to male) 2007-2011			Literacy ratio (female to male) 2007-2009		Participation of women 2007-2011	
	primary (% net)	secondary (% net)	tertiary (% gross)	to grade 5 (% of students)	ages 15-24	above age 15	primary	secondary	tertiary	ages 15-24	above age 15	in non-agri-cultural sector (% of non-ag. employment)	in national parliaments (% of seats held)
CONTINUED: **EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA**													
Bosnia & Herzegovina	85.2	..	35.9	73.2	99.7	97.8	1.02	1.03	1.30	1.00	0.97	35.7	16.7
Bulgaria	97.7	82.8	53.0	..	97.5	98.3	1.00	0.96	1.31	1.00	0.99	51.1	20.8
Georgia	99.6	79.4	28.2	96.4	99.8	99.7	1.03	0.95	1.25	1.00	1.00	47.6	6.5
Kazakhstan	88.2	89.6	40.8	..	99.8	99.7	1.00	0.97 [f]	1.44 [f]	1.00	1.00	50.0	17.8
Kosovo	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Kyrgyz Republic	87.5	78.9	48.8	..	99.8	99.2	0.99	0.99	1.30	1.00	0.99	50.6	23.3
Latvia	95.1	83.7	60.1	95.7	99.7	99.8	0.99	0.98	1.75	1.00	1.00	55.3	20.0
Lithuania	93.3	91.0	77.4	..	99.8	99.7	0.98	1.00	1.51	1.00	1.00	53.0	19.1
Macedonia, FYR	86.9	..	40.4	..	98.7	97.1	1.01	0.98	1.19	1.00	0.97	42.2	30.9
Moldova	87.6	78.6	38.1	..	99.5	98.5	1.00	1.02	1.34	1.00	0.99	54.3	18.8
Montenegro	83.2	..	47.6	..	..	..	0.98	1.01	1.24	..	..	46.3	11.1
Romania	87.2	82.3	63.8	..	97.4	97.7	0.99	0.99	1.34	1.00	0.99	46.3	11.4
Russian Federation	93.4	..	75.9	..	99.7	99.6	1.00	0.98	1.35	1.00	1.00	52.8	14.0
Serbia	92.7	90.2	49.1	..	..	..	0.99	1.02	1.30	..	..	43.7	21.6
Tajikistan	97.3	85.0	19.7	..	99.9	99.7	0.96	0.87	0.41	1.00	1.00	..	19.0
Turkey	97.5	74.1	45.8	91.8	97.8	90.8	0.98	0.91	0.79	0.98	0.89	23.5	14.2
Turkmenistan	..	..	..	..	99.8	99.6	..	..	..	1.00	1.00	..	16.8
Ukraine	90.7	86.0	79.5	..	99.8	99.7	1.01	0.98	1.25	1.00	1.00	54.6	8.0
Uzbekistan	89.8	92.0	8.9	..	99.9	99.3	0.97	0.98 [f]	0.65 [f]	1.00	0.99	39.4	22.0
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN	**94.0**	**73.0**	**37.0**	**..**	**97.0**	**91.1**	**0.97**	**1.08**	**1.26**	**1.00**	**0.98**	**41.2**	**22.9**
Argentina	..	82.2	71.2	95.4	99.2	97.7	0.99	1.12	1.51	1.00	1.00	..	38.5 [b]
Belize	94.7	63.2	21.5	91.1	..	..	0.91	..	1.57	..	..	37.7	6.7
Bolivia	94.2	68.1	38.6	85.1	99.1	90.7	0.99	0.99	0.84	0.99	0.91	38.1	25.4
Brazil	94.1	82.0	36.1	..	97.8	90.0	0.93	1.11	1.35	1.01	1.00	41.6	8.6
Chile	93.6	82.6	59.2	..	99.2	98.6	0.95	1.03	1.06	1.00	1.00	36.9	14.2
Colombia	88.1	74.4	39.1	84.5	97.9	93.2	0.98	1.10	1.09	1.01	1.00	47.5	12.7
Costa Rica	..	..	..	91.2	98.2	96.1	0.99	1.06	..	1.01	1.00	41.3	38.6
Cuba	99.2	85.5	95.2	96.6	100.0	99.8	0.98	0.99	1.65	1.00	1.00	43.4	43.2
Dominican Republic	90.2	62.3	..	..	95.8	88.2	0.88	1.12	..	1.02	1.00	38.8	20.8
Ecuador	97.0	58.7	39.8	..	96.8	84.2	1.01	1.05	1.15	1.00	0.93	..	32.3
El Salvador	93.7	57.6	23.4	89.4	95.0	84.1	0.95	1.01	1.16	1.01	0.94	48.0	19.0
Guatemala	96.9	50.1	17.8	70.6	86.5	74.5	0.96	0.93	1.00	0.95	0.87	..	12.0
Guyana	80.6	..	11.9	86.7	..	..	1.04	1.11	2.52	..	..	..	30.0
Haiti	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11.1
Honduras	96.1	..	18.8	77.8	93.9	83.6	1.00	1.23	1.51	1.03	1.00	41.9	18.0
Jamaica	82.0	83.6	29.0	96.1	95.2	86.4	0.95	1.03	2.28	1.07	1.12	48.2	13.3
Mexico	98.0	70.5	27.0	96.0	98.5	93.4	0.99	1.08	0.98	1.00	0.97	39.4	26.2
Nicaragua	92.5	45.8	..	51.4	..	..	0.98	1.10	..	..	..	38.1	20.7
Panama	98.0	68.7	44.6	94.6	96.4	93.6	0.97	1.07	1.53	1.00	0.99	42.1	8.5
Paraguay	85.1	60.0	36.6	82.3	98.8	94.6	0.97	1.05	1.43	1.00	0.98	39.5	12.5
Peru	94.5	78.4	..	..	97.4	89.6	1.00	0.98	..	0.99	0.89	37.5	21.5
Suriname	90.9	50.5	..	94.1	99.4	94.6	0.95	1.23	..	1.00	0.98	..	9.8
Uruguay	99.1	69.6	63.3	95.4	99.0	98.3	0.97	1.13	1.74	1.01	1.01	45.5	15.2
Venezuela, RB	92.5	71.8	78.1	93.8	98.4	95.2	0.97	1.10	1.69	1.01	1.00	41.6	17.0

.. Data not availble.
0 Zero, or rounds to zero at the displayed number of decimal places.
a Data refers to 2006
b Data refers to 2007
c Data refers to 2008
d Data refers to 2009
e Data refers to 2010
f Data refers to 2011

Note: South Sudan is not included due to insufficient information.
Sources for tables on page 215.

MDG 4: Reduce Child Mortality

MDG 5: Improve Maternal Health

	Child mortality rate 2010		Immunizations 2010	
	under age 1, (deaths per 1,000 live births)	under age 5, (deaths per 1,000 live births)	measles (% of children under 12-23 months)	DPT* (% of children 12-23 months)
World	**41**	**58**	**85.3**	**85.1**
High-income countries	**5**	**6**	**93.4**	**95.4**
Low- & middle-income countries	**45**	**63**	**84.3**	**83.9**
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	**76**	**121**	**75.5**	**76.6**
Angola	98	161	93.0	91.0
Benin	73	115	69.0	83.0
Botswana	36	48	94.0	96.0
Burkina Faso	93	176	94.0	95.0
Burundi	88	142	92.0	96.0
Cameroon	84	136	79.0	84.0
Cape Verde	29	36	96.0	99.0
Central African Republic	106	159	62.0	54.0
Chad	99	173	46.0	59.0
Comoros	63	86	72.0	74.0
Congo, Dem. Rep.	112	170	68.0	63.0
Congo, Rep.	61	93	76.0	90.0
Cote d'Ivoire	86	123	70.0	85.0
Eritrea	42	61	99.0	99.0
Ethiopia	68	106	81.0	86.0
Gabon	54	74	55.0	45.0
Gambia, The	57	98	97.0	98.0
Ghana	50	74	93.0	94.0
Guinea	81	130	51.0	57.0
Guinea-Bissau	92	150	61.0	76.0
Kenya	55	85	86.0	83.0
Lesotho	65	85	85.0	83.0
Liberia	74	103	64.0	64.0
Madagascar	43	62	67.0	74.0
Malawi	58	92	93.0	93.0
Mali	99	178	63.0	76.0
Mauritania	75	111	67.0	64.0
Mauritius	13	15	99.0	99.0
Mozambique	92	135	70.0	74.0
Namibia	29	40	75.0	83.0
Niger	73	143	71.0	70.0
Nigeria	88	143	71.0	69.0
Rwanda	59	91	82.0	80.0
São Tomé & Principe	53	80	92.0	98.0
Senegal	50	75	60.0	70.0
Sierra Leone	114	174	82.0	90.0
Somalia	108	180	46.0	45.0
South Africa	41	57	65.0	63.0
Sudan	66	103	90.0	90.0
Swaziland	55	78	94.0	89.0
Tanzania	60	92	92.0	91.0
Togo	66	103	84.0	92.0
Uganda	63	99	55.0	60.0
Zambia	69	111	91.0	82.0
Zimbabwe	51	80	84.0	83.0

	Maternal mortality rate 2010		Maternal health care 2007-2010			Fertiilty 2010		
	mortality ratio (per 100,000 live births)	lifetime risk of maternal death (%)	pregnant women receiving prenatal care (%)	births attended by skilled health staff (%)	nurses and midwives (per 1,000 people)	births (per woman0	births (per 1,000 women ages 15-19)	contraceptive prevalence (% of women ages 15-49)
World	**210**	**0.55**	**83.7**	**66.1**	**2.8**	**2.5**	**53.2**	**62.1**
High-income countries	**14**	**0.02**	**..**	**..**	**7.1**	**1.8**	**18.3**	**..**
Low- & middle-income countries	**230**	**0.64**	**83.4**	**65.3**	**1.9**	**2.6**	**57.7**	**61.0**
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	**500**	**2.55**	**73.5**	**46.2**	**0.8**	**4.9**	**107.6**	**21.7**
Angola	450	2.59	79.8	47.3		5.4	157.3	..
Benin	350	1.89	..	..	0.8	5.3	102.9	..
Botswana	160	0.46	94.1	94.6		2.8	47.1	52.8
Burkina Faso	300	1.82	..	..	0.7	5.9	120.4	..
Burundi	800	3.18	98.9	60.3		4.3	20.0	21.9
Cameroon	690	3.18	..	..		4.5	120.2	..
Cape Verde	79	0.21	..	..	1.3	2.4	74.1	..
Central African Republic	890	3.89	..	43.7		4.6	101.8	..
Chad	1,100	6.45	53.1	22.7		6.0	148.7	4.8
Comoros	280	1.49	..	..		4.9	53.9	..
Congo, Dem. Rep.	540	3.30	87.7	79.3		5.8	182.9	17.3
Congo, Rep.	560	2.59	..	..	0.8	4.5	115.0	..
Cote d'Ivoire	400	1.87	..	..	0.5	4.4	115.2	..
Eritrea	240	1.16	..	..		4.5	58.8	..
Ethiopia	350	1.49	..	..	0.2	4.2	57.9	..
Gabon	230	0.79	..	..		3.3	84.6	..
Gambia, The	360	1.79	98.1	56.7	0.6	4.9	70.8	..
Ghana	350	1.48	90.1	57.1	1.0	4.2	65.9	23.5
Guinea	610	3.36	88.4	46.1		5.2	143.2	..
Guinea-Bissau	790	3.96	93.0	44.0	0.6	5.1	102.1	14.2
Kenya	360	1.81	91.5	43.8		4.7	98.9	45.5
Lesotho	620	1.89	91.8	61.5		3.2	65.9	47.0
Liberia	770	4.11	79.3	46.3	0.3	5.2	130.8	11.4
Madagascar	240	1.24	86.3	43.9		4.7	127.3	39.9
Malawi	460	2.81	..	..	0.3	6.0	111.0	..
Mali	540	3.56	..	..	0.3	6.3	175.9	..
Mauritania	510	2.26	75.4	60.9	0.7	4.5	74.5	9.3
Mauritius	60	0.10	..	..		1.5	33.3	..
Mozambique	490	2.32	92.3	55.3	0.3	4.9	134.3	16.2
Namibia	200	0.64	94.6	81.4	2.8	3.2	62.4	55.1
Niger	590	4.33	..	..	0.1	7.1	199.0	18.0
Nigeria	630	3.43	57.7	38.9	1.6	5.5	114.1	14.6
Rwanda	340	1.86	98.0	69.0		5.4	36.8	51.6
São Tomé & Principe	70	0.30	97.9	81.7		3.7	59.7	38.4
Senegal	370	1.87	..	..	0.4	4.8	96.2	..
Sierra Leone	890	4.35	86.9	42.4	0.2	5.0	120.0	8.2
Somalia	1,000	6.20	..	..		6.3	68.8	..
South Africa	300	0.72	97.1	..		2.5	53.9	..
Sudan	730	3.25	56.0	..	0.8	4.4	56.5	..
Swaziland	320	1.05	96.8	82.0		3.4	74.3	49.3
Tanzania	460	2.61	87.8	48.9		5.5	129.4	34.4
Togo	300	1.25	86.7	60.1	0.3	4.1	58.7	15.2
Uganda	310	2.04	..	..		6.1	135.8	..
Zambia	440	2.74	93.7	46.5		6.3	141.8	40.8
Zimbabwe	570	1.92	93.4	60.2		3.3	57.9	58.5[f]

Table 5

MDG 4: Reduce Child Mortality

MDG 5: Improve Maternal Health

	Child mortality rate 2010		Immunizations 2010	
	under age 1, (deaths per 1,000 live births)	under age 5, (deaths per 1,000 live births)	measles (% of children under 12-23 months)	DPT* (% of children 12-23 months)
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	**27**	**34**	**87.5**	**88.5**
Algeria	31	36	95.0	95.0
Djibouti	73	91	85.0	88.0
Egypt, Arab Rep.	19	22	96.0	97.0
Iran, Islamic Rep.	22	26	99.0	99.0
Iraq	31	39	73.0	65.0
Jordan	18	22	98.0	98.0
Lebanon	19	22	53.0	74.0
Libya	13	17	98.0	98.0
Morocco	30	36	98.0	99.0
Syrian Arab Republic	14	16	82.0	80.0
Tunisia	14	16	97.0	98.0
West Bank & Gaza	20	22	..	..
Yemen, Rep.	57	77	73.0	87.0
SOUTH ASIA	**52**	**67**	**77.3**	**76.3**
Afghanistan	103	149	62.0	66.0
Bangladesh	38	48	94.0	95.0
Bhutan	44	56	95.0	91.0
India	48	63	74.0	72.0
Maldives	14	15	97.0	96.0
Nepal	41	50	86.0	82.0
Pakistan	70	87	86.0	88.0
Sri Lanka	14	17	99.0	99.0
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	**20**	**24**	**95.5**	**94.2**
Cambodia	43	51	93.0	92.0
China	16	18	99.0	99.0
Fiji	15	17	94.0	99.0
Indonesia	27	35	89.0	83.0
Kiribati	39	49	89.0	91.0
Korea, Rep.	26	33	99.0	93.0
Lao PDR	42	54	64.0	74.0
Malaysia	5	6	96.0	94.0
Mongolia	26	32	97.0	96.0
Myanmar	50	66	88.0	90.0
Papua New Guinea	47	61	55.0	56.0
Philippines	23	29	88.0	87.0
Samoa	17	20	61.0	87.0
Solomon Islands	23	27	68.0	79.0
Thailand	11	13	98.0	99.0
Timor-Leste	56	81	66.0	72.0
Tuvalu	27	33	85.0	89.0
Vanuatu	12	14	52.0	68.0
Vietnam	19	23	98.0	93.0
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	**19**	**23**	**96.2**	**95.3**
Albania	16	18	99.0	99.0
Armenia	18	20	97.0	94.0
Azerbaijan	39	46	67.0	72.0
Belarus	4	6	99.0	98.0
Bosnia & Herzegovina	8	8	93.0	90.0
Bulgaria	11	13	97.0	94.0
Georgia	20	22	94.0	91.0

	Maternal mortality rate 2010		Maternal health care 2007-2010			Fertiilty 2010		
	mortality ratio (per 100,000 live births)	lifetime risk of maternal death (%)	pregnant women receiving prenatal care (%)	births attended by skilled health staff (%)	nurses and midwives (per 1,000 people)	births (per woman0	births (per 1,000 women ages 15-19)	contraceptive prevalence (% of women ages 15-49)
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	**81**	**0.24**	**84.7**	**81.2**	**2.3**	**2.7**	**37.3**	**61.8**
Algeria	97	0.23	..	..	1.9	2.3	6.6	..
Djibouti	200	0.72	..	..	0.8	3.8	20.9	22.5
Egypt, Arab Rep.	66	0.20	73.6	78.9	3.5	2.7	43.0	60.3
Iran, Islamic Rep.	21	0.04	..	..		1.7	26.8	..
Iraq	63	0.32	..	79.7	1.4	4.7	90.7	..
Jordan	63	0.21	98.8	99.1	4.0	3.8	24.8	59.3
Lebanon	25	0.05	..	..	2.2	1.8	15.7	..
Libya	58	0.16	93.0	99.8	6.8	2.6	2.8	..
Morocco	100	0.25	..	..	0.9	2.3	12.5	..
Syrian Arab Republic	70	0.22	87.7	96.2	1.9	2.9	39.0	53.9
Tunisia	56	0.12	..	..	3.3	2.0	4.9	..
West Bank & Gaza	..	..	..	..		4.5	50.4	..
Yemen, Rep.	200	1.11	..	..		5.2	71.2	..
SOUTH ASIA	**220**	**0.67**	**70.6**	**47.5**	**0.9**	**2.7**	**72.8**	**50.5**
Afghanistan	460	3.08	36.0	24.0	0.5	6.3	107.2	22.8
Bangladesh	240	0.59	52.8	26.5	0.3	2.2	72.5	52.6
Bhutan	180	0.48	97.3	64.5	0.2	2.4	47.0	65.6
India	200	0.60	75.2	52.7	1.0	2.6	79.3	54.0
Maldives	60	0.12	99.1	94.8	4.4	1.8	11.0	34.7
Nepal	170	0.53	..	..		2.7	93.1	..
Pakistan	260	0.94	60.9	38.8	0.6	3.4	29.5	27.0
Sri Lanka	35	0.08	99.4	98.6	1.9	2.3	22.7	68.4
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	**83**	**0.15**	**92.2**	**90.7**	**1.5**	**1.8**	**18.8**	**77.7**
Cambodia	250	0.68	89.1	71.0	0.9	2.6	36.4	50.5
China	37	0.06	92.2	99.3	1.4	1.6	8.8	..
Fiji	26	0.07	100.0	99.0	2.2	2.7	43.8	43.1
Indonesia	220	0.48	95.3	82.2	2.0	2.1	43.5	55.9
Kiribati	..	..	100.0	65.0	3.7	..	..	..
Korea, Rep.	81	0.15	100.0	100.0	5.3	2.0	0.6	..
Lao PDR	470	1.34	71.0	37.0		2.7	33.6	..
Malaysia	29	0.08	..	98.6	2.7	2.6	11.6	..
Mongolia	63	0.17	99.5	99.8	3.5	2.5	19.6	55.2
Myanmar	200	0.40	79.8	63.9	0.8	2.0	13.7	41.0
Papua New Guinea	230	0.95	..	..	0.5	4.0	63.9	..
Philippines	99	0.33	91.1	62.2		3.1	49.5	50.7
Samoa	..	..	93.0	80.8	1.9	3.9	26.6	28.7
Solomon Islands	93	0.42	73.9	70.1	2.1	4.2	66.9	34.6
Thailand	48	0.07	99.1	99.4		1.6	39.5	79.6
Timor-Leste	300	1.83	84.4	29.3		5.6	57.7	22.3
Tuvalu	..	..	97.4	97.9	5.8	..	..	30.5
Vanuatu	110	0.43	84.3	74.0	1.7	3.9	52.0	38.4
Vietnam	59	0.11	..	..	1.0	1.8	24.3	79.5
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	**32**	**0.06**	**..**	**97.7**	**6.7**	**1.8**	**26.9**	**69.2**
Albania	27	0.04	97.3	99.3	3.9	1.5	16.1	69.3
Armenia	30	0.06	99.1	99.5	4.8	1.7	34.2	54.9
Azerbaijan	43	0.10	..	..	8.3	2.3	32.4	..
Belarus	4	0.01	..	99.9	13.1	1.4	21.2	..
Bosnia & Herzegovina	8	0.01	..	..	5.0	1.1	14.6	..
Bulgaria	11	0.02	..	99.6	4.7	1.5	38.9	..
Georgia	67	0.10	97.6	99.9	3.2	1.6	41.6	53.4

MDG 4: Reduce Child Mortality

MDG 5: Improve Maternal Health

	Child mortality rate 2010		Immunizations 2010		Maternal mortality rate 2010		Maternal health care 2007-2010			Fertiilty 2010		
	under age 1, (deaths per 1,000 live births)	under age 5, (deaths per 1,000 live births)	measles (% of children under 12-23 months)	DPT* (% of children 12-23 months)	mortality ratio (per 100,000 live births)	lifetime risk of maternal death (%)	pregnant women receiving prenatal care (%)	births attended by skilled health staff (%)	nurses and midwives (per 1,000 people)	births (per woman0	births (per 1,000 women ages 15-19)	contraceptive prevalence (% of women ages 15-49)
CONTINUED: **EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA**												
Kazakhstan	29	33	99.0	99.0	51	0.13	..	99.8	8.3	2.6	27.3	..
Kosovo	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..		2.3	..	..
Kyrgyz Republic	33	38	99.0	96.0	71	0.21	..	98.5	5.7	2.9	33.4	..
Latvia	8	10	93.0	89.0	34	0.05	..	..	4.8	1.2	14.9	..
Lithuania	5	7	96.0	95.0	8	0.01	..	..	7.2	1.6	17.6	..
Macedonia, FYR	10	12	98.0	95.0	10	0.02	..	99.8	0.6	1.4	19.5	..
Moldova	16	19	97.0	90.0	41	0.07	..	99.7	6.6	1.5	31.0	..
Montenegro	7	8	90.0	94.0	8	0.01	..	100.0	5.6	1.7	16.2	..
Romania	11	14	95.0	97.0	27	0.04	..	98.5	5.9	1.4	30.1	..
Russian Federation	9	12	98.0	97.0	34	0.05	..	99.7		1.5	25.9	79.5
Serbia	6	7	95.0	91.0	12	0.02	..	99.2	4.5	1.4	20.4	..
Tajikistan	52	63	94.0	93.0	65	0.23	79.8	83.0	5.3	3.3	26.8	37.1
Turkey	14	18	97.0	96.0	20	0.05	95.0	95.0	0.6	2.1	33.9	73.0
Turkmenistan	47	56	99.0	96.0	67	0.17	..	..	4.4	2.4	17.9	..
Ukraine	11	13	94.0	90.0	32	0.05	98.5	98.7	8.6	1.4	28.0	66.7
Uzbekistan	44	52	98.0	99.0	28	0.07	..	..	11.1	2.5	13.2	..
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN	**18**	**23**	**93.2**	**92.7**	**81**	**0.19**	**96.5**	**90.1**		**2.2**	**71.9**	**74.7**
Argentina	12	14	99.0	94.0	77	0.18	..	97.9		2.2	55.3	..
Belize	14	17	98.0	96.0	53	0.16	99.2	94.9	2.0	2.8	74.0	..
Bolivia	42	54	79.0	80.0	190	0.70	85.8	71.1		3.3	76.1	60.6
Brazil	17	19	99.0	98.0	56	0.11	98.2	..	6.4	1.8	75.8	..
Chile	8	9	93.0	92.0	25	0.05	..	99.9	0.1	1.9	56.9	..
Colombia	18	22	88.0	88.0	92	0.23	97.0	97.7	0.6	2.1	70.6	79.1
Costa Rica	9	10	83.0	88.0	40	0.08	89.9	99.3		1.8	63.4	80.0
Cuba	5	6	99.0	96.0	73	0.10	100.0	99.9	9.1	1.5	44.4	77.8
Dominican Republic	22	27	79.0	88.0	150	0.42	98.9	97.8		2.6	105.7	72.9
Ecuador	18	20	98.0	99.0	110	0.29	..	..	2.0	2.5	81.5	..
El Salvador	14	16	92.0	92.0	81	0.20	94.0	95.5	0.4	2.3	78.8	72.5
Guatemala	25	32	93.0	94.0	120	0.52	93.2	51.4		4.0	104.3	54.1
Guyana	25	30	95.0	95.0	280	0.65	92.1	91.9		2.3	59.7	42.5
Haiti	70	165	59.0	59.0	350	1.21	..	..		3.3	43.3	..
Honduras	20	24	99.0	98.0	100	0.37	..	..		3.1	88.8	..
Jamaica	20	24	88.0	99.0	110	0.27	99.0	98.0		2.3	72.8	72.3
Mexico	14	17	95.0	95.0	50	0.13	95.8	95.3		2.3	67.5	72.5
Nicaragua	23	27	99.0	98.0	95	0.29	90.2	73.7		2.6	108.0	72.4
Panama	17	20	95.0	94.0	92	0.24	95.8	88.5		2.5	78.6	52.2
Paraguay	21	25	94.0	90.0	99	0.32	96.3	81.9		3.0	68.9	79.4
Peru	15	19	94.0	93.0	67	0.18	94.7	83.8	1.3	2.5	51.1	74.4
Suriname	27	31	89.0	88.0	130	0.31	..	..		2.3	36.7	..
Uruguay	9	11	95.0	95.0	29	0.06	96.2	99.7	5.5	2.0	59.9	..
Venezuela, RB	16	18	79.0	78.0	92	0.25	..	..		2.5	88.4	..

* Abbr: diphtheria, pertussis, & tetanus (vaccine).
.. Data not availble.
0 Zero, or rounds to zero at the displayed number of decimal places.
a Data refers to 2006
b Data refers to 2007
c Data refers to 2008
d Data refers to 2009
e Data refers to 2010
f Data refers to 2011

Note: South Sudan is not included due to insufficient information.
Sources for tables on page 215.

Table 6

MDG 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Other Diseases

	HIV/AIDS 2009				Correct & comprehensive HIV/AIDS knowledge 2006-2011		Malaria 2008		Child malaria (under age 5) 2007-2010		Tuberculosis 2009	
	ages 15-49 with HIV (%)	ages 15-49 with new HIV cases (%)	number of AIDS deaths	people on ARV treatment (%)	women ages 15-24 (%)	men ages 15-24 (%)	notified malaria cases (per 100,000 people)	malaria deaths (per 100,000 people)	children sleeping under insecticide treated bed nets (%)	children with fever treated with anti-malarial drugs (%)	new TB cases (per 100,000 people)	TB treatment success (% of cases)
World	**0.8**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**4,601**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**128**	**86.0**
High-income countries	**0.3**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**14**	**68.0**
Low- & middle-income countries	**0.9**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**4,665**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**150**	**87.0**
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	**5.5**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**26,113**	**..**	**34.0**	**37.8**	**271**	**79.0**
Angola	2.0	0.21	11,000	24.0	..	..	21,593	97	17.7	29.3	304	72.0
Benin	1.2	0.10	2,700	53.0	15.9	34.8	35,555	113	..	..	94	90.0
Botswana	24.8	1.56	5,800	83.0	..	..	587	3	..	..	503	79.0
Burkina Faso	1.2	0.07	7,100	46.0	..	..	45,322	163	..	..	55	76.0
Burundi	3.3	..	15,000	19.0	..	..	48,475	73	45.2	17.2	129	90.0
Cameroon	5.3	0.53	37,000	28.0	..	..	27,818	103	..	..	177	78.0
Cape Verde	..	..	..	..	..	..	23	..	..	..	147	74.0
Central African Republic	4.7	0.17	11,000	19.0	..	..	35,786	98	..	..	319	53.0
Chad	3.4	..	11,000	36.0	..	..	39,508	181	9.8	35.7	276	76.0
Comoros	0.1	..	99	18.0	..	..	24,619	98	..	..	37	90.0
Congo, Dem. Rep.	..	..	..	..	..	..	37,400	156	35.7	39.1	327	88.0
Congo, Rep.	3.4	0.28	5,100	23.0	8.3	21.9	34,298	120	..	..	372	78.0
Cote d'Ivoire	3.4	0.11	36,000	28.0	..	..	36,482	88	..	..	139	79.0
Eritrea	0.8	0.03	1,700	37.0	..	..	762	1	48.9	13.1	100	85.0
Ethiopia	..	..	..	..	23.9	34.2	11,509	44	33.1	9.5	261	84.0
Gabon	5.2	0.43	2,400	47.0	..	..	29,451	83	55.1	..	553	55.0
Gambia, The	2.0	..	999	18.0	..	..	31,925	97	..	..	273	89.0
Ghana	1.8	0.15	18,000	24.0	28.3	34.2	31,179	74	28.2	43.0	86	87.0
Guinea	1.3	0.10	4,700	40.0	..	..	40,585	140	4.5	73.9	334	79.0
Guinea-Bissau	2.5	0.21	1,200	30.0	..	..	34,043	142	35.5	51.2	233	67.0
Kenya	6.3	0.53	80,000	48.0	46.6	55.3	30,307	81	46.7	23.2	298	86.0
Lesotho	23.6	2.58	14,000	48.0	38.6	28.7	..	..	..	..	633	70.0
Liberia	1.5	..	3,600	14.0	20.5	27.2	29,994	87	26.4	67.2	293	83.0
Madagascar	0.2	..	1,700	2.0	22.5	26.0	3,735	17	45.8	19.7	266	82.0
Malawi	11.0	0.95	51,000	46.0	41.8	44.7	33,773	75	56.5	30.9	219	88.0
Mali	1.0	0.06	4,400	50.0	17.9	22.2	25,366	176	70.2	..	68	78.0
Mauritania	0.7	..	999	25.0	..	..	17,325	80	..	20.7	337	63.0
Mauritius	1.0	..	499	22.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	22	88.0
Mozambique	11.5	1.19	74,000	30.0	36.7	35.1	32,555	80	22.8	36.7	544	85.0
Namibia	13.1	0.43	6,700	76.0	59.4	52.9	4,589	19	34.0	20.3	603	85.0
Niger	0.8	0.08	4,300	22.0	13.4	15.9	37,958	154	63.7	..	185	79.0
Nigeria	3.6	0.38	220,000	21.0	22.2	32.6	38,259	151	29.1	49.1	133	83.0
Rwanda	2.9	0.18	4,100	88.0	52.0	46.1	11,429	40	69.8	10.8	106	85.0
São Tomé & Principe	..	..	..	..	42.6	43.4	1,961	8	56.2	8.4	96	98.0
Senegal	0.9	0.08	2,600	51.0	..	..	7,077	83	29.2	9.1	288	85.0
Sierra Leone	1.6	0.14	2,800	18.0	17.2	27.6	36,141	103	25.8	30.1	682	79.0
Somalia	0.7	..	1,600	6.0	..	..	8,711	65	..	..	286	85.0
South Africa	17.8	1.49	310,000	37.0	..	..	80	..	..	..	981	73.0
Sudan	1.1	..	12,000	5.0	..	..	12,805	106	25.3	35.8	119	80.0
Swaziland	25.9	2.66	7,000	59.0	52.1	52.3	57	..	0.6	0.6	1287	69.0
Tanzania	5.6	0.45	86,000	30.0	48.2	42.7	24,088	84	63.6	59.1	177	88.0
Togo	3.2	0.27	7,700	29.0	..	..	30,388	88	56.9	33.8	455	81.0
Uganda	6.5	0.74	64,000	39.0	31.9	38.2	36,233	149	32.8	59.6	209	67.0
Zambia	13.5	1.17	45,000	64.0	34.0	36.9	13,456	107	49.9	34.0	462	90.0
Zimbabwe	14.3	0.84	83,000	34.0	43.7	45.6	7,480	33	17.3	23.6	633	78.0
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	**0.1**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**42**	**87.0**
Algeria	0.1	..	999	25.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	90	91.0
Djibouti	2.5	0.25	1,000	14.0	..	..	467	1	19.9	0.9	620	79.0

MDG 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Other Diseases

	HIV/AIDS 2009				Correct & comprehensive HIV/AIDS knowledge 2006-2011		Malaria 2008		Child malaria (under age 5) 2007-2010		Tuberculosis 2009	
	ages 15-49 with HIV (%)	ages 15-49 with new HIV cases (%)	number of AIDS deaths	people on ARV treatment (%)	women ages 15-24 (%)	men ages 15-24 (%)	notified malaria cases (per 100,000 people)	malaria deaths (per 100,000 people)	children sleeping under insecticide treated bed nets (%)	children with fever treated with anti-malarial drugs (%)	new TB cases (per 100,000 people)	TB treatment success (% of cases)
CONTINUED: **MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA**												
Egypt, Arab Rep.	0.1	..	499	11.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	18	88.0
Iran, Islamic Rep.	0.2	..	6,400	4.0	..	..	18	..	..	..	17	83.0
Iraq	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	64	90.0
Jordan	..	..	..	..	12.5	..	..	..	..	..	5.4	75.0
Lebanon	0.1	..	499	18.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	17	82.0
Libya	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	40	69.0
Morocco	0.1	..	1,200	27.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	91	84.0
Syrian Arab Republic	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	20	88.0
Tunisia	0.1	..	99	53.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	25	83.0
West Bank & Gaza	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4.9	82.0
Yemen, Rep.	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,106	3	..	..	49	88.0
SOUTH ASIA	**0.3**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**1,127**	**..**	**..**	**7.2**	**192**	**88.0**
Afghanistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,428	..	..	..	189	86.0
Bangladesh	0.1	..	199	23.0	..	..	1,510	3	..	..	225	92.0
Bhutan	0.2	..	99	14.0	..	..	100	..	..	..	151	92.0
India	0.3	0.02	170,000	..	19.9	36.1	1,124	2	..	..	185	88.0
Maldives	0.1	..	99	17.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	36	47.0
Nepal	0.4	0.03	4,700	11.0	25.8	33.9	103	..	..	..	163	90.0
Pakistan	0.1	..	5,800	4.0	..	..	881	1	..	3.3	231	91.0
Sri Lanka	0.1	..	199	20.0	..	..	21	..	2.9	0.3	66	86.0
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	**0.2**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**525**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**123**	**92.0**
Cambodia	0.5	0.01	3,100	94.0	44.4	43.7	1,798	4	..	..	437	95.0
China	0.1	..	26,000	..	..	..	3	..	..	..	78	95.0 [e]
Fiji	0.1	..	99	30.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	27	94.0
Indonesia	0.2	..	8,300	21.0	..	..	1,645	2	3.3	0.8	189	91.0
Kiribati	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	370	97.0
Korea, Dem. Rep.	..	..	..	..	..	..	284	..	..	..	345	89.0
Lao PDR	0.2	..	199	67.0	..	..	327	1	..	..	90	93.0
Malaysia	0.5	0.06	5,800	23.0	..	..	75	..	..	..	82	78.0
Mongolia	0.1	..	99	8.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	224	88.0
Myanmar	0.6	0.05	18,000	18.0	..	..	7,943	17	..	..	384	85.0
Papua New Guinea	0.9	0.07	1,300	52.0	..	..	18,012	36	..	..	303	72.0
Philippines	0.1	..	199	37.0	20.7	..	96	..	..	..	275	89.0
Samoa	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11	90.0
Solomon Islands	..	..	..	..	..	..	13,718	19	40.4	19.0	108	88.0
Thailand	1.3	0.03	28,000	61.0	..	..	322	..	..	..	137	86.0
Timor-Leste	..	..	..	..	12.2	19.7	46,380	108	41.0	6.0	498	85.0
Tuvalu	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	237	88.0
Vanuatu	..	..	..	..	..	..	6,036	7	55.7	35.8	69	96.0
Vietnam	0.4	..	14,000	34.0	..	..	55	..	..	..	199	92.0
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	**0.6**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**90**	**65.0**
Albania	..	..	..	..	35.9	22.0	..	..	..	..	14	89.0
Armenia	0.1	0.01	99	24.0	15.8	8.9	..	..	..	..	73	73.0
Azerbaijan	0.1	..	199	21.0	4.8	5.3	1	..	..	..	110	62.0
Belarus	0.3	0.03	999	29.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	70	64.0
Bosnia & Herzegovina	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	50	99.0
Bulgaria	0.1	..	199	23.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	40	85.0
Georgia	0.1	0.02	99	65.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	107	75.0
Kazakhstan	0.1	0.02	499	27.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	151	62.0
Kosovo	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Table 6

MDG 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Other Diseases

	HIV/AIDS 2009				Correct & comprehensive HIV/AIDS knowledge 2006-2011		Malaria 2008		Child malaria (under age 5) 2007-2010		Tuberculosis 2009	
	ages 15-49 with HIV (%)	ages 15-49 with new HIV cases (%)	number of AIDS deaths	people on ARV treatment (%)	women ages 15-24 (%)	men ages 15-24 (%)	notified malaria cases (per 100,000 people)	malaria deaths (per 100,000 people)	children sleeping under insecticide treated bed nets (%)	children with fever treated with anti-malarial drugs (%)	new TB cases (per 100,000 people)	TB treatment success (% of cases)
CONTINUED: **EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA**												
Kyrgyz Republic	0.3	0.08	499	12.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	159	82.0
Latvia	0.7	0.06	999	12.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	39	75.0
Lithuania	0.1	..	99	27.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	69	73.0
Macedonia, FYR	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	21	90.0
Moldova	0.4	0.04	999	17.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	182	54.0
Montenegro	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	19	86.0
Romania	0.1	..	999	81.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	116	85.0
Russian Federation	1.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	106	55.0
Serbia	0.1	..	199	38.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	18	86.0
Tajikistan	0.2	0.03	499	11.0	..	..	9	..	..	..	206	81.0
Turkey	0.1	..	199	62.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	28	91.0
Turkmenistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	66	84.0
Ukraine	1.1	..	24,000	10.0	44.8	42.8	..	..	..	..	101	60.0
Uzbekistan	0.1	..	499	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	128	81.0
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN	**0.5**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**206**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**43**	**77.0**
Argentina	0.5	0.04	2,900	70.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	27	46.0
Belize	2.3	0.20	499	40.0	..	..	210	..	..	..	40	83.0
Bolivia	0.2	..	999	19.0	22.4	27.7	365	..	..	..	135	86.0
Brazil	..	..	..	60.0	..	..	210	..	..	..	43	72.0
Chile	0.4	..	..	63.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	19	72.0
Colombia	0.5	..	14,000	17.0	24.1	..	394	..	..	..	34	77.0
Costa Rica	0.3	..	499	68.0	..	..	51	..	..	..	13	54.0
Cuba	0.1	..	99	95.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	9.3	90.0
Dominican Republic	0.9	0.06	2,300	47.0	40.8	33.7	46	..	..	0.6	67	85.0
Ecuador	0.4	..	2,200	30.0	..	..	63	..	..	..	65	75.0
El Salvador	0.8	..	1,400	53.0	..	..	1	..	..	..	28	89.0
Guatemala	0.8	..	2,600	44.0	..	..	184	..	..	..	62	83.0
Guyana	1.2	..	499	95.0	54.1	46.6	2,194	3	..	..	111	70.0
Haiti	1.9	0.15	7,100	43.0	33.9	40.1	1,891	5	..	..	230	79.0
Honduras	0.8	..	2,500	33.0	29.7	..	335	..	..	..	51	86.0
Jamaica	1.7	0.13	1,200	46.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	6.6	70.0
Mexico	0.3	..	..	54.0	..	..	3	..	..	..	16	86.0
Nicaragua	0.2	..	499	40.0	..	..	26	..	..	..	42	85.0
Panama	0.9	0.06	1,500	37.0	..	..	35	..	..	..	48	80.0
Paraguay	0.3	..	..	37.0	..	..	16	..	..	..	46	80.0
Peru	0.4	..	5,000	37.0	..	..	478	..	..	..	106	81.0
Suriname	1.0	0.06	199	53.0	..	..	681	1	..	..	145	59.0
Uruguay	0.5	..		49.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	21	80.0
Venezuela, RB	..	..	..	..	..	..	263	..	..	..	33	84.0

.. Data not availble.
0 Zero, or rounds to zero at the displayed number of decimal places.
a Data refers to 2006
b Data refers to 2007
c Data refers to 2008
d Data refers to 2009
e Data refers to 2010
f Data refers to 2011

Note: South Sudan is not included due to insufficient information.
Sources for tables on page 215.

Table 7

MDG 7: Ensure Environmental Sustainability

	Land use 2009-2010			Agriculture 2007-2010			Energy use 2007-2010		Water, sanitation and shelter 2007-2010			
	nationally protected land area (% of land area)	forest area (% of land area)	agricultural land area (% of land area)	cereal yield (kg per hectare of harvested land)	fertilizer consumption (kg per hectare of arable land)	number of tractors in use	Co2 emissions (metric ton(s) per capita)	GDP per unit of energy use (constant 2005 PPP $ per kg of oil equivalent)	pop. with access to improved sanitation facilities (%)	rural pop. with access to improved water source (%)	urban pop. with access to improved water source (%)	slum pop. (% of urban pop.)
World	**12.3**	**31.1**	**37.7**	**3,568**	**122**	**..**	**4.8**	**6.9**	**62.5**	**80.8**	**96.2**	**..**
High-income countries	**12.9**	**28.7**	**36.7**	**5,319**	**104**	**..**	**11.9**	**6.8**	**99.9**	**97.9**	**99.9**	**..**
Low- & middle-income countries	**12.0**	**31.9**	**38.0**	**3,103**	**129**	**..**	**3.0**	**8.4**	**56.1**	**79.5**	**94.9**	**..**
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	**11.7**	**28.0**	**44.7**	**1,335**	**10**	**..**	**0.8**	**3.2**	**30.6**	**48.6**	**82.5**	**..**
Angola	12.4	46.9	46.8	617	1	..	1.4	8.4	58.0	38.0	60.0	65.8
Benin	23.8	41.2	29.8	1,402	..	..	0.5	3.5	13.0	68.0	84.0	69.8
Botswana	30.9	20.0	45.6	544	..	3,371	2.5	11.4	62.0	92.0	99.0	..
Burkina Faso	14.2	20.6	43.7	1,054	9	..	0.1	..	17.0	73.0	95.0	59.5
Burundi	4.8	6.7	83.7	1,346	1	..	0.0	..	46.0	71.0	83.0	..
Cameroon	9.2	42.1	19.8	1,711	7	..	0.3	5.6	49.0	52.0	95.0	46.1
Cape Verde	2.5	21.1	21.8	222	..	..	0.6	14.4	61.0	85.0	90.0	..
Central African Republic	17.7	36.3	8.4	1,465	..	..	0.1	..	34.0	51.0	92.0	95.9
Chad	9.4	9.2	39.2	775	..	..	0.0	..	13.0	44.0	70.0	89.3
Comoros	..	1.6	83.3	1,157	..	..	0.2	16.8	36.0	97.0	91.0	68.9
Congo, Dem. Rep.	10.0	68.0	9.9	771	1	..	0.0	0.8	24.0	27.0	79.0	61.7
Congo, Rep.	9.4	65.6	30.9	785	1	..	0.5	10.1	18.0	32.0	95.0	49.9
Cote d'Ivoire	22.6	32.7	63.8	1,717	16	..	0.4	3.2	24.0	68.0	91.0	57.0
Eritrea	5.0	15.2	75.2	536	3	..	0.1	3.5	..	..	..	..
Ethiopia	18.4	12.3	35.0	1,674	8	..	0.1	2.2	21.0	34.0	97.0	76.4
Gabon	15.1	85.4	19.9	1,782	6	..	1.7	10.7	33.0	41.0	95.0	..
Gambia, The	1.5	48.0	66.5	1,127	7	..	0.3	14.0	68.0	85.0	92.0	34.8
Ghana	14.7	21.7	68.1	1,814	12	..	0.4	3.6	14.0	80.0	91.0	40.1
Guinea	6.8	26.6	58.0	1,409	1	..	0.1	..	18.0	65.0	90.0	45.7
Guinea-Bissau	16.1	71.9	58.0	1,555	..	..	0.2	15.4	20.0	53.0	91.0	..
Kenya	11.8	6.1	48.1	1,613	32	..	0.3	3.0	32.0	52.0	82.0	54.7
Lesotho	0.5	1.4	77.0	909	..	..	..	143.4	26.0	73.0	91.0	53.7
Liberia	1.8	44.9	27.1	1,179	..	..	0.2	..	18.0	60.0	88.0	68.3
Madagascar	3.1	21.6	70.2	2,987	3	..	0.1	..	15.0	34.0	74.0	76.2
Malawi	15.0	34.3	59.1	2,206	27	..	0.1	..	51.0	80.0	95.0	68.9
Mali	2.4	10.2	33.7	1,615	3	1,300	0.0	..	22.0	51.0	87.0	65.9
Mauritania	0.5	0.2	38.5	946	..	..	0.6	..	26.0	48.0	52.0	..
Mauritius	4.5	17.2	48.3	10,000	209	..	3.1	11.6	89.0	99.0	100.0	..
Mozambique	15.8	49.6	62.7	1,006	3	..	0.1	1.9	18.0	29.0	77.0	80.5
Namibia	14.9	8.9	47.1	373	2	..	1.8	7.4	32.0	90.0	99.0	33.5
Niger	7.1	1.0	34.6	479	0	..	0.1	..	9.0	39.0	100.0	81.7
Nigeria	12.8	9.9	81.8	1,413	2	24,800	0.6	2.9	31.0	43.0	74.0	62.7
Rwanda	10.0	17.6	81.1	1,930	1	..	0.1	..	55.0	63.0	76.0	65.1
São Tomé & Principe	..	28.1	58.3	3,000	..	..	0.8	5.6	26.0	88.0	89.0	..
Senegal	24.1	44.0	49.4	1,196	5	..	0.4	7.1	52.0	56.0	93.0	38.8
Sierra Leone	4.9	38.1	47.7	1,554	..	..	0.2	..	13.0	35.0	87.0	..
Somalia	0.6	10.8	70.2	432	..	..	0.1	..	23.0	7.0	66.0	73.6
South Africa	6.9	4.7	81.7	4,162	49	..	8.9	3.2	79.0	79.0	99.0	23.0
Sudan	4.2	29.4	57.5	452	8	25,564	0.3	5.3	26.0	52.0	67.0	..
Swaziland	3.0	32.7	71.0	1,226	..	1,550	1.1	12.6	57.0	65.0	91.0	..
Tanzania	27.5	37.7	40.1	1,332	9	..	0.2	2.7	10.0	44.0	79.0	63.5
Togo	11.3	5.3	62.1	1,187	3	129	0.2	2.0	13.0	40.0	89.0	..
Uganda	10.3	15.0	69.9	1,608	2	..	0.1	..	34.0	68.0	95.0	60.1
Zambia	36.0	66.5	31.5	2,547	27	..	0.2	2.1	48.0	46.0	87.0	57.3
Zimbabwe	28.0	40.4	42.4	752	28	..	0.7	..	40.0	69.0	98.0	24.1
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	**3.9**	**2.4**	**23.0**	**2,379**	**80**	**..**	**3.8**	**4.7**	**88.2**	**81.2**	**94.2**	**..**
Algeria	6.3	0.6	17.4	1,568	8	104,529	3.2	6.5	95.0	79.0	85.0	..
Djibouti	0.0	0.3	73.4	1,111	..	..	0.6	11.5	50.0	54.0	99.0	..

Table 7

MDG 7: Ensure Environmental Sustainability

	Land use 2009-2010			Agriculture 2007-2010			Energy use 2007-2010		Water, sanitation and shelter 2007-2010			
	nationally protected land area (% of land area)	forest area (% of land area)	agricultural land area (% of land area)	cereal yield (kg per hectare of harvested land)	fertilizer consumption (kg per hectare of arable land)	number of tractors in use	Co2 emissions (metric ton(s) per capita)	GDP per unit of energy use (constant 2005 PPP $ per kg of oil equivalent)	pop. with access to improved sanitation facilities (%)	rural pop. with access to improved water source (%)	urban pop. with access to improved water source (%)	slum pop. (% of urban pop.)
CONTINUED: **MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA**												
Egypt, Arab Rep.	5.9	0.1	3.7	6,541	503	103,188	2.7	5.9	95.0	99.0	100.0	13.1
Iran, Islamic Rep.	7.1	6.8	29.8	2,359	70	..	7.4	3.5	100.0	92.0	97.0	..
Iraq	0.1	1.9	20.1	1,687	37	..	3.4	3.2	73.0	56.0	91.0	52.8
Jordan	1.9	1.1	11.5	1,963	2,444	..	3.7	4.1	98.0	92.0	98.0	19.6
Lebanon	0.5	13.4	67.3	2,740	20	..	4.1	7.5	..	100.0	100.0	..
Libya	0.1	0.1	8.8	662	40	..	9.5	4.7	97.0	..	..	..
Morocco	1.5	11.5	67.3	1,548	21	..	1.5	8.8	70.0	61.0	98.0	13.1
Syrian Arab Republic	0.6	2.7	75.7	1,789	65	..	3.6	4.2	95.0	86.0	93.0	22.5
Tunisia	1.3	6.5	63.0	1,702	42	40,438	2.4	9.5	..	..	99.0	..
West Bank & Gaza	0.6	1.5	61.0	1,163	..	..	0.5	..	92.0	81.0	86.0	..
Yemen, Rep.	0.5	1.0	44.4	1,092	12	..	1.0	7.0	53.0	47.0	72.0	76.8
SOUTH ASIA	**5.9**	**17.1**	**54.6**	**2,691**	**176**	**..**	**1.2**	**5.2**	**38.3**	**87.8**	**95.5**	**..**
Afghanistan	0.4	2.1	58.1	1,908	3	..	0.0	..	37.0	42.0	78.0	..
Bangladesh	1.8	11.1	70.3	4,144	282	..	0.3	7.0	56.0	80.0	85.0	61.6
Bhutan	28.3	84.6	13.2	2,177	32	..	1.0	11.8	44.0	94.0	100.0	..
India	5.0	23.0	60.5	2,537	168	..	1.5	5.1	34.0	90.0	97.0	29.4
Maldives	..	3.3	26.7	2,000	98	..	3.0	7.0	97.0	97.0	100.0	..
Nepal	17.0	25.4	29.6	2,295	1	..	0.1	3.1	31.0	88.0	93.0	58.1
Pakistan	10.1	2.2	34.1	2,592	217	..	1.0	4.7	48.0	89.0	96.0	46.6
Sri Lanka	21.5	29.7	41.6	3,974	258	..	0.6	9.5	92.0	90.0	99.0	..
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	**15.0**	**29.6**	**48.5**	**4,925**	**..**	**..**	**4.3**	**3.9**	**65.5**	**84.2**	**96.7**	**..**
Cambodia	25.8	57.2	31.5	3,108	7	..	0.3	5.1	31.0	58.0	87.0	..
China	16.6	22.2	56.2	5,521	488	..	5.3	3.7	64.0	85.0	98.0	29.1
Fiji	1.3	55.5	22.9	2,598	23	5,983	1.5	6.9	83.0	95.0	100.0	..
Indonesia	14.1	52.1	29.6	4,876	181	..	1.7	4.3	54.0	74.0	92.0	23.0
Kiribati	23.2	14.8	42.0	..	..	..	0.3	20.0	..	..	..	..
Korea, Dem. Rep.	5.9	47.1	24.1	3,582	..	..	3.2	..	80.0	97.0	99.0	..
Lao PDR	16.6	68.2	10.2	3,751	..	..	0.3	..	63.0	62.0	77.0	..
Malaysia	18.1	62.3	24.0	3,800	770	..	7.6	5.2	96.0	99.0	100.0	..
Mongolia	13.4	7.0	74.5	1,370	8	..	4.1	2.9	51.0	53.0	100.0	57.9
Myanmar	6.3	48.6	19.0	3,989	5	..	0.3	5.0	76.0	78.0	93.0	..
Papua New Guinea	3.1	63.4	2.5	3,839	120	..	0.3	..	45.0	33.0	87.0	..
Philippines	10.9	25.7	40.1	3,232	140	..	0.9	7.9	74.0	92.0	93.0	40.9
Samoa	3.4	60.4	23.7	..	1	..	0.9	12.9	98.0	96.0	96.0	..
Solomon Islands	0.1	79.1	3.0	3,500	..	..	0.4	18.0	..	..	..	..
Thailand	20.1	37.1	38.7	2,938	125	..	4.2	4.8	96.0	95.0	97.0	27.0
Timor-Leste	6.1	49.9	25.2	2,451	..	..	0.2	11.8	47.0	60.0	91.0	..
Tuvalu	0.4	33.3	33.3	..	..	1	..	..	85.0	97.0	98.0	..
Vanuatu	4.3	36.1	15.3	554	..	..	0.4	24.1	57.0	87.0	98.0	..
Vietnam	6.2	44.5	33.1	5,161	402	..	1.5	3.7	76.0	93.0	99.0	35.2
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	**7.5**	**38.6**	**27.8**	**2,239**	**39**	**..**	**7.8**	**8.7**	**84.4**	**90.6**	**98.8**	**..**
Albania	9.8	28.3	43.9	4,762	46	7,438	1.3	13.8	94.0	94.0	96.0	..
Armenia	8.0	9.2	61.6	2,074	29	..	1.8	5.7	90.0	97.0	99.0	..
Azerbaijan	7.1	11.3	57.6	2,019	14	..	5.4	6.4	82.0	71.0	88.0	..
Belarus	7.2	42.6	44.0	2,827	281	48,100	6.5	4.1	93.0	99.0	100.0	..
Bosnia & Herzegovina	0.6	42.8	41.7	3,858	25	..	8.3	4.6	95.0	98.0	100.0	..
Bulgaria	9.2	36.2	46.3	3,665	167	53,100	6.6	4.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	..
Georgia	3.7	39.5	36.1	1,271	43	..	1.2	6.0	95.0	96.0	100.0	..
Kazakhstan	2.5	1.2	77.2	804	2	..	15.1	2.5	97.0	90.0	99.0	..
Kosovo	..	..	52.4[b]	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

MDG 7: Ensure Environmental Sustainability

	Land use 2009-2010			Agriculture 2007-2010			Energy use 2007-2010		Water, sanitation and shelter 2007-2010			
	nationally protected land area (% of land area)	forest area (% of land area)	agricultural land area (% of land area)	cereal yield (kg per hectare of harvested land)	fertilizer consumption (kg per hectare of arable land)	number of tractors in use	Co2 emissions (metric ton(s) per capita)	GDP per unit of energy use (constant 2005 PPP $ per kg of oil equivalent)	pop. with access to improved sanitation facilities (%)	rural pop. with access to improved water source (%)	urban pop. with access to improved water source (%)	slum pop. (% of urban pop.)
CONTINUED: **EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA**												
Kyrgyz Republic	6.9	5.0	55.4	2,604	21	..	1.2	3.7	93.0	85.0	99.0	..
Latvia	18.0	53.9	29.5	2,667	65	59,562	3.3	6.9	..	96.0	100.0	..
Lithuania	14.5	34.5	42.9	2,667	45	117,580	4.5	6.0	..	..	98.0	..
Macedonia, FYR	4.9	39.6	40.2	3,329	57	53,606	5.8	6.7	88.0	99.0	100.0	..
Moldova	1.4	11.7	75.2	2,696	9	35,984	1.3	3.8	85.0	93.0	99.0	..
Montenegro	13.3	40.4	38.2	3,494	..	..	3.1	7.1	90.0	96.0	99.0	..
Romania	7.1	28.6	58.8	3,331	48	176,841	4.4	6.7	..	..	99.0	..
Russian Federation	9.1	49.4	13.2	1,844	16	329,980	12.0	3.0	70.0	92.0	99.0	..
Serbia	6.0	31.0	57.8	4,959	134	5,844	6.8	4.8	92.0	98.0	99.0	..
Tajikistan	4.1	2.9	33.9	2,721	47	..	0.5	5.5	94.0	54.0	92.0	..
Turkey	1.9	14.7	50.6	2,727	96	..	4.0	8.7	90.0	99.0	100.0	13.0
Turkmenistan	3.0	8.8	69.4	3,289	..	..	9.7	1.7	98.0	..	97.0	..
Ukraine	3.5	16.8	71.2	2,727	30	333,529	7.0	2.3	94.0	98.0	98.0	..
Uzbekistan	2.3	7.7	62.6	4,516	193	..	4.6	1.5	100.0	81.0	98.0	..
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN	**20.2**	**47.0**	**35.8**	**3,919**	**92**	**..**	**2.8**	**8.2**	**78.7**	**80.9**	**97.9**	**..**
Argentina	5.5	10.7	51.3	4,937	25	..	4.8	7.2	..	..	98.0	20.8
Belize	27.9	61.1	6.7	3,252	130	..	1.3	10.9	90.0	99.0	98.0	18.7
Bolivia	18.5	52.8	34.1	2,333	6	..	1.3	6.7	27.0	71.0	96.0	47.3
Brazil	26.3	61.4	31.3	4,055	125	..	2.1	7.6	79.0	85.0	100.0	26.9
Chile	16.6	21.8	21.2	6,822	596	53,915	4.4	7.4	96.0	75.0	99.0	..
Colombia	20.9	54.5	38.3	3,895	497	..	1.5	11.9	77.0	72.0	99.0	14.3
Costa Rica	20.9	51.0	35.3	3,730	827	..	1.8	9.5	95.0	91.0	100.0	..
Cuba	6.4	27.0	62.5	1,940	14	72,602	2.8	..	91.0	89.0	96.0	..
Dominican Republic	22.2	40.8	51.1	4,234	27	..	2.2	9.5	83.0	84.0	87.0	14.8
Ecuador	25.1	39.7	30.3	3,117	187	..	1.9	8.9	92.0	89.0	96.0	..
El Salvador	0.8	13.9	74.5	2,806	107	..	1.0	7.2	87.0	76.0	94.0	..
Guatemala	30.6	34.1	41.0	2,299	107	..	0.9	6.1	78.0	87.0	98.0	38.7
Guyana	5.0	77.2	8.5	2,471	20	..	2.0	4.3	84.0	93.0	98.0	33.2
Haiti	0.3	3.7	66.8	980	..	..	0.3	4.0	17.0	51.0	85.0	70.1
Honduras	18.2	46.4	28.5	1,094	62	..	1.2	5.9	77.0	79.0	95.0	..
Jamaica	18.9	31.1	41.5	1,172	58	..	4.5	5.7	80.0	88.0	98.0	..
Mexico	11.1	33.3	52.9	3,499	52	238,830	4.3	8.3	85.0	91.0	97.0	14.4
Nicaragua	36.7	25.9	42.8	2,086	22	..	0.8	4.6	52.0	68.0	98.0	45.5
Panama	18.7	43.7	30.0	2,131	47	..	2.0	13.2	..	..	97.0	..
Paraguay	5.4	44.3	52.6	3,457	66	25,823	0.7	5.5	71.0	66.0	99.0	..
Peru	13.6	53.1	16.8	3,899	105	..	1.4	14.4	71.0	65.0	91.0	36.1
Suriname	11.6	94.6	0.5	4,232	65	1,013	4.7	4.7	83.0	81.0	97.0	..
Uruguay	0.3	10.0	84.6	4,251	131	36,465	2.5	9.6	100.0	100.0	100.0	..
Venezuela, RB	53.8	52.5	24.3	4,038	200	..	6.1	4.8	..	..	..	..

.. Data not availble.
0 Zero, or rounds to zero at the displayed number of decimal places.
a Data refers to 2006
b Data refers to 2007
c Data refers to 2008
d Data refers to 2009
e Data refers to 2010
f Data refers to 2011

Note: South Sudan is not included due to insufficient information.
Sources for tables on page 215.

Table 8

MDG 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development, Low & Middle Income Countries

	Net official development assistance (ODA) received			Management of captial flows		Investment in infrastructure			Technology transfer		Public spending (% of GDP)		Corruption perceptions Index (CPI)
	total (current million US$) 2010	per capita (current US$) 2010	as % of central gov't expense 2007-2010	total debt service (% of exports of goods, services & income) 2008-2010	foreign direct investment, net inflows (% of GDP) 2009-2010	internet users (per 100 people) 2008-2009	electricity produced from renewable sources, excl. hydroelectric (%) 2008-2009	total health posts (per 100,000 people) 2010	paved roads (% of all roads) 2007-2009	mobile cellular subscrip-tions (per 100 people) 2010	for education 2007-2010	for public health 2010	international ranking (1- 182, includes all countries) 2011
World	**131,087**	**19.0**	**..**	**..**	**2.3**	**30.2**	**3.0**	**..**	**64.9**	**78.2**	**4.6**	**10.4**	**..**
High-income countries	**223**	**0.2**	**..**	**..**	**2.1**	**73.4**	**4.5**	**..**	**81.1**	**110.5**	**5.1**	**12.7**	**..**
Low- & middle-income countries	**130,864**	**22.7**	**..**	**9.8**	**2.6**	**21.5**	**1.4**	**..**	**44.8**	**71.8**	**4.1**	**5.7**	**..**
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	**45,055**	**52.8**	**..**	**3.3**	**2.3**	**11.3**	**0.5**	**..**	**18.8**	**44.9**	**5.0**	**6.5**	**..**
Angola	239	12.5	..	4.5	-3.8	10.0	0.0		..	46.7	..	2.9	168
Benin	691	78.1	69.7	2.5	1.7	3.1	..		..	79.9	4.5	4.1	100
Botswana	157	78.3	..	1.5	1.8	6.0	..		..	117.8	7.8	8.3	32
Burkina Faso	1,065	64.7	99.6	3.7	0.4	1.4	..		..	34.7	4.6	6.7	100
Burundi	632	75.4	..	16.6	0.0	2.1	..	0.0	..	13.7	9.2	11.6	172
Cameroon	538	27.5	..	3.6	0.0	4.0	0.2	8.4	17.0	44.1	3.5	5.1	134
Cape Verde	329	663.5	44.8	5.3	6.8	30.0	..	33.7	..	75.0	5.6	4.1	41
Central African Republic	264	59.9	..	..	3.6	2.3	..	12.8	..	22.3	1.2	4.0	154
Chad	490	43.7	..	..	10.3	1.7	..	6.7	..	23.8	2.8	4.5	168
Comoros	68	92.5	..	14.8	1.7	5.1	..	7.1	..	22.5	7.6	4.5	143
Congo, Dem. Rep.	3,413	51.7	189.1	3.8	22.4	0.7	..		..	17.9	..	7.9	168
Congo, Rep.	1,314	324.9	..	1.7[b]	23.5	5.0	..	..	..	94.0	6.2	2.5	154
Cote d'Ivoire	848	43.0	58.5	9.5	1.8	2.6	2.1	..	7.9	76.1	4.6	5.3	154
Eritrea	161	30.7	..	..	2.6	5.4	0.7	3.5	..	3.5	..	2.7	134
Ethiopia	3,529	42.5	..	3.0	1.0	0.7	0.4	17.2	13.7	8.3	4.7	4.9	120
Gabon	104	69.4	..	..	1.3	7.2	0.4	32.7	12.0	107.0	..	3.5	100
Gambia, The	121	69.8	..	7.2	4.6	9.2	..	28.5	..	85.5	5.0	5.7	77
Ghana	1,694	69.4	33.8	3.4	7.8	9.5	..	1.2	12.6	71.5	5.5	5.2	69
Guinea	214	21.4	..	5.6	2.2	1.0	..	7.3	..	40.1	2.4	4.9	164
Guinea-Bissau	141	92.9	..	5.6	1.0	2.5	..	6.3	..	39.2	..	8.5	154
Kenya	1,631	40.3	22.6	4.4	0.6	25.9	24.4	8.3	14.3	61.6	6.7	4.8	154
Lesotho	257	118.5	17.3	1.9	5.4	3.9	..	..	..	45.5	13.1	11.1	77
Liberia	1,423	356.2	43,938.1	1.3	45.9	7.0	..	10.0	..	39.3	2.8	11.8	91
Madagascar	473	22.9	76.1	2.6	9.9	1.7	..	14.4	..	37.2	3.2	3.8	100
Malawi	1,027	68.9	..	..	2.8	2.3	..	0.5	..	20.4	5.7[f]	6.6	100
Mali	1,093	71.1	74.9	2.5	1.6	2.7	..		24.6	48.4	4.5	5.0	118
Mauritania	373	107.8	..	4.8	0.4	3.0	..	13.1	26.8	79.3	4.3	4.4	143
Mauritius	125	97.8	5.7	2.4	4.4	28.7	..	8.5	98.0	93.0	3.1	6.0	46
Mozambique	1,959	83.8	..	2.9	8.2	4.2	..	..	20.8	30.9	..	5.2	120
Namibia	259	113.3	10.3	..	6.5	6.5	..	12.9	14.7	67.2	8.1	6.8	57
Niger	749	48.3	109.0	2.6	17.1	0.8	..	16.1	20.7	24.5	3.8	5.2	134
Nigeria	2,069	13.1	8.6	0.4	3.0	28.4	..	..	..	55.1	..	5.1	143
Rwanda	1,034	97.4	..	2.3	0.8	13.0	..	..	..	33.4	4.7[f]	10.5	49
São Tomé & Principe	50	300.2	..	6.5	12.5	18.8	..	16.9	..	62.1	..	7.2	100
Senegal	931	74.8	..	4.8	1.8	16.0	1.9	7.8	32.0	67.1	5.6	5.7	112
Sierra Leone	475	80.9	105.3	2.6	4.5	0.3	..		..	34.1	4.3	13.1	134
Somalia	499	53.5	..	..	..	1.2	..	..	..	6.9	..	..	182
South Africa	1,032	20.6	1.1	4.9	0.3	12.3	0.1	6.2	..	100.8	6.0	8.9	64
Sudan	2,055	47.2	..	4.2	3.3	10.2[b]	..	9.4	..	40.5	..	6.3	177
Swaziland	92	87.1	..	2.1	3.7	9.0	..	13.7	..	69.4	7.4	6.6	95
Tanzania	2,961	66.0	..	3.0	1.9	11.0	..	..	6.7	46.8	6.2	6.0	100
Togo	421	69.9	92.1	4.4	1.3	5.4	1.6		21.0	40.7	4.5	7.7	143
Uganda	1,730	51.7	81.4	1.8	4.8	12.5	..	9.0	..	38.4	3.2	9.0	143
Zambia	913	70.6	32.9	1.9	6.4	10.1	..	1.3	..	42.1	1.3	5.9	91
Zimbabwe	738	58.7	..	..	1.4	11.5	..	0.0	..	61.3	2.5	..	154
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	**12,274**	**37.1**	**..**	**5.1**	**2.7**	**20.9**	**0.3**	**..**	**78.7**	**97.0**	**4.6**	**5.1**	**..**
Algeria	199	5.6	0.9	1.0	1.4	12.5	..	..	74.0	92.4	4.3	4.2	112
Djibouti	133	149.5	..	7.5	9.2	6.5	..	..	..	18.6	8.4	7.2	100

MDG 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development, Low & Middle Income Countries

	Net official development assistance (ODA) received			Management of captial flows		Investment in infrastructure			Technology transfer		Public spending (% of GDP)		Corruption perceptions Index (CPI)
	total (current million US$) 2010	per capita (current US$) 2010	as % of central gov't expense 2007-2010	total debt service (% of exports of goods, services & income) 2008-2010	foreign direct investment, net inflows (% of GDP) 2009-2010	internet users (per 100 people) 2008-2009	electricity produced from renewable sources, excl. hydroelectric (%) 2008-2009	total health posts (per 100,000 people) 2010	paved roads (% of all roads) 2007-2009	mobile cellular subscrip-tions (per 100 people) 2010	for education 2007-2010	for public health 2010	international ranking (1- 182, includes all countries) 2011
CONTINUED: **MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA**													
Egypt, Arab Rep.	594	7.3	0.9	6.0	2.9	26.7	0.8	0.4	89.4	87.1	3.8	4.7	112
Iran, Islamic Rep.	122	1.6	0.1	..	0.9	13.0	0.1	..	..	91.2	4.7	5.6	120
Iraq	2,192	68.4	..	..	1.7	2.5	..	7.4	..	74.9	..	8.4	175
Jordan	955	158.0	13.4	4.9	6.2	38.9	0.1	22.6	100.0	109.5	..	8.0	56
Lebanon	449	106.3	5.7	19.1	11.0	31.0	..	2.8	..	68.0	1.8	7.0	134
Libya	9	1.3	..	..	2.2	14.0	..	28.5	..	171.5	..	3.9	168
Morocco	994	31.1	3.6	10.7	1.4	49.0	1.8	..	70.3	100.1	5.4	5.2	80
Saudi Arabia	137	6.7	..	3.9	2.5	20.7	..	..	..	187.9	5.6	4.3	129
Tunisia	551	52.2	4.6	10.4	3.2	36.6	0.6	19.6	75.2	105.4	6.3	6.2	73
West Bank & Gaza	2,519	606.8	315.2	..	..	36.4	..	..	91.7	44.5 [d]	..	..	..
Yemen, Rep.	666	27.7	..	2.8	0.2	12.3	..	11.5	..	46.1	5.2	5.2	164
SOUTH ASIA	**15,363**	**9.4**	**..**	**6.4**	**1.3**	**8.1**	**1.9**	**..**	**53.9**	**58.8**	**2.5**	**3.9**	**..**
Afghanistan	6,374	185.4	80.2	..	0.4	3.7	..	2.9	..	37.8	..	7.6	180
Bangladesh	1,417	9.5	12.1	4.7	0.9	3.7	..	6.5	..	46.2	2.2	3.5	120
Bhutan	131	180.9	42.6	14.1	1.3	13.6	..	26.5	..	54.3	4.0	5.2	38
India	2,807	2.3	1.1	5.6	1.4	7.5	2.2	..	49.5	61.4	..	4.1	95
Maldives	111	351.2	5.4	21.3	8.6	28.3	..	12.0	..	156.4	8.7	6.3	134
Nepal	821	27.4	..	10.5	0.6	7.9	..	2.3	53.9	30.7	4.7	5.5	154
Pakistan	3,021	17.4	9.7	15.2	1.1	16.8	..	3.1	..	57.1	2.4	2.2	134
Sri Lanka	581	27.9	9.3	13.0	1.0	12.0	0.2	278.0	..	83.2	2.1	2.9	86
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	**9,894**	**5.0**	**..**	**4.8**	**3.1**	**29.8**	**1.3**	**..**	**61.6**	**76.7**	**3.8**	**6.9**	**..**
Cambodia	737	52.1	58.1	0.8	7.0	1.3	0.5	0.8	..	57.6	2.6	5.6	164
China	648	0.5	..	3.3	3.1	34.4	0.8		53.5	64.2	..	5.1	75
Fiji	76	88.8	..	1.8	6.2	14.8	..		..	81.2	4.5	4.9	..
Indonesia	1,393	5.8	1.4	16.6	1.9	9.9	6.0	9.7	56.9	91.7	4.6	2.6	100
Kiribati	23	228.2	..	..	2.4	9.0	..	85.4	..	10.0	..	11.2	95
Korea, Dem. Rep.	79	3.3	..	..	..	..	..	25.7	..	1.8	..	..	182
Lao PDR	416	67.1	52.8	14.8	3.8	7.0	..		13.7	64.6	3.3	4.5	154
Malaysia	2	0.1	0.0	5.2	3.9	56.3	..		..	119.2	5.8	4.4	60
Mongolia	304	110.1	18.4	5.0	23.5	12.9	..	42.3	..	91.1	5.4	5.4	120
Myanmar	358	7.5	..	..	..	0.2	..	4.2	..	1.2	..	2.0	180
Papua New Guinea	513	74.7	..	12.9	0.3	1.3	..	37.9	..	27.8	..	3.6	154
Philippines	535	5.7	1.6	18.4	0.9	25.0	16.8		..	85.7	2.7	3.6	129
Samoa	147	801.5	..	5.2	0.1	7.0	..	0.0	..	91.0	5.3	6.5	69
Solomon Islands	340	632.9	..	5.9	35.1	5.0	..	..	..	5.6	..	8.6	120
Thailand	-11	-0.2	0.0	4.8	3.0	21.2	4.0	41.0	..	103.6	3.8	3.9	80
Timor-Leste	292	260.1	..	..	39.9	0.2	..	..	..	53.4	14.0	9.1	143
Tuvalu	13	1,356.5	..	..	4.8	25.0	..	..	..	25.4	..	16.4	..
Vanuatu	108	451.3	..	1.7	5.6	8.0	..	125.2	..	118.9	5.2	5.2	77
Vietnam	2,945	33.9	..	1.7	7.5	27.9	..	..	47.6	177.2	5.3	6.8	112
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	**7,244**	**17.9**	**..**	**24.2**	**2.8**	**39.3**	**0.2**	**..**	**86.4**	**124.0**	**5.1**	**9.8**	**..**
Albania	338	105.4	..	11.1	9.4	45.0	..	13.0	..	141.9	..	6.5	95
Armenia	340	109.9	15.9	33.4	6.1	44.0	0.1	7.7	93.6	125.0	3.2	4.4	129
Azerbaijan	156	17.3	3.3	1.4	1.1	46.7	0.0		..	100.5	3.2	5.9	143
Belarus	137	14.4	0.8	4.6	2.6	32.1	0.2	15.0	..	108.9	4.5	5.6	143
Bosnia & Herzegovina	492	130.9	7.3	19.9	1.4	52.0	..	42.8	..	82.7	..	11.1	91
Bulgaria	..	..	..	14.2	4.9	46.0	0.6	..	..	135.4	4.4	6.9	86
Georgia	626	140.7	20.4	18.1	7.0	26.3	..	13.8	94.1	89.4	3.2	10.1	64
Kazakhstan	222	13.6	0.9	71.4	7.2	33.4	..	23.0	88.5	118.9	3.1	4.3	120
Kosovo	591	325.7	..	1.6	8.7	..	..	..	..	..	4.3	..	112

Table 8

MDG 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development, Low & Middle Income Countries

	Net official development assistance (ODA) received			Management of captial flows		Investment in infrastructure			Technology transfer		Public spending (% of GDP)		Corruption perceptions Index (CPI)
	total (current million US$) 2010	per capita (current US$) 2010	as % of central gov't expense 2007-2010	total debt service (% of exports of goods, services & income) 2008-2010	foreign direct investment, net inflows (% of GDP) 2009-2010	internet users (per 100 people) 2008-2009	electricity produced from renewable sources, excl. hydroelectric (%) 2008-2009	total health posts (per 100,000 people) 2010	paved roads (% of all roads) 2007-2009	mobile cellular subscrip-tions (per 100 people) 2010	for education 2007-2010	for public health 2010	international ranking (1- 182, includes all countries) 2011
CONTINUED: **EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA**													
Kyrgyz Republic	373	68.4	36.8	21.9	9.5	19.6	..	17.8	..	96.8	6.0	6.2	164
Latvia	..	..	..	76.4	1.5	71.5	1.8		20.9	103.0	5.6	6.7	61
Lithuania	..	..	..	34.3	2.1	62.8	1.8	26.4	29.4	148.8	4.9	7.0	50
Macedonia, FYR	178	86.3	6.9	15.2	2.3	51.9	..	..	57.6	104.5	..	7.1	69
Moldova	468	131.4	23.0	12.8	3.3	40.1	..	31.3	85.8	88.9	9.1	11.7	112
Montenegro	77	122.5	..	5.9	18.5	52.0	..	2.9	..	185.1	..	9.1	66
Romania	..	..	..	31.2	1.8	40.0	0.0	0.0	..	114.9	4.3	5.6	75
Russian Federation	..	..	..	12.8	2.9	43.4	0.1		80.1	167.7	4.1	5.1	143
Serbia	651	89.3	4.3	30.9	3.5	43.1	..	1.6	63.2	136.0	5.0	10.4	86
Tajikistan	430	62.5	..	44.8	0.3	11.5	..	24.7	..	86.4	4.0	6.0	152
Turkey	1,049	14.4	0.6	36.7	1.2	39.8	1.9	10.3	88.7	84.9	..	6.7	61
Turkmenistan	43	8.6	..	..	10.4	2.2	..	..	..	63.4	..	2.5	177
Ukraine	624	13.6	1.4	40.7	4.7	44.6	0.0	..	97.8	117.5	5.3	7.7	152
Uzbekistan	229	8.1	..	..	2.1	19.4	..	..	..	74.2	..	5.8	177
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN	**10,837**	**18.6**	**..**	**13.8**	**2.4**	**34.0**	**3.9**	**..**	**22.5**	**98.4**	**4.4**	**7.7**	**..**
Argentina	155	3.8	..	16.7	1.9	36.0	1.4	..	..	141.8	6.0	8.1	100
Belize	25	71.8	..	12.1	6.9	12.6	..	12.8	..	56.3	6.1	5.2	..
Bolivia	676	68.1	16.7	9.3	3.2	20.0	1.1	14.8	7.9	72.3	..	4.8	118
Brazil	664	3.4	0.1	19.0	2.3	40.7	5.2	..	..	104.1	5.4	9.0	73
Chile	198	11.6	0.4	15.2	7.1	45.0	7.4	11.0	22.5	116.0	4.5	8.0	22
Colombia	910	19.6	1.7	21.0	2.4	36.5	1.2	..	..	96.1	4.8	7.6	80
Costa Rica	96	20.6	1.4	7.7	4.1	36.5	17.4	2.2	26.0	65.1	6.3	10.9	50
Cuba	129	11.5	..	..	0.0	15.9	2.9	7.5	..	8.9	13.4	10.6	61
Dominican Republic	177	17.8	1.6	11.0	3.1	39.5	0.2	..	..	89.6	2.2	6.2	129
Ecuador	153	10.6	..	9.4	0.3	29.0	2.1	3.2	14.8	102.2	..	8.1	120
El Salvador	284	45.9	6.4	19.0	0.0	15.9	30.3	9.5	..	124.3	3.2	6.9	80
Guatemala	398	27.7	8.0	14.3	2.1	10.5	34.0	3.8	..	125.6	3.2	6.9	120
Guyana	153	202.9	..	2.6	12.1	29.9	..	27.2	..	73.6	3.7	6.1	134
Haiti	3,076	307.8	..	15.7	2.2	8.4	..		..	40.0	..	6.9	175
Honduras	576	75.8	16.0	7.6	5.2	11.1	2.6	18.7	..	125.1	..	6.8	129
Jamaica	141	52.3	3.0	27.9	1.6	26.5	1.6		..	117.8	6.1	4.8	86
Mexico	473	4.2	..	9.8	1.9	31.1	3.6	110.1	35.3	80.6	4.9	6.3	100
Nicaragua	628	108.5	47.8	14.3	7.8	10.0	22.3	15.4	11.6	65.1	..	9.1	134
Panama	129	36.8	..	5.7	8.8	42.7	0.2	13.7	42.0	184.7	3.8	8.1	86
Paraguay	105	16.3	3.8	4.6	1.9	19.8	..	10.2	..	91.7	4.0	5.9	154
Peru	-254	-8.7		16.7	4.7	34.3	1.4	..	..	100.1	2.6	5.1	80
Suriname	104	197.4	..	..	-2.9	31.6	..	46.5	..	169.5	..	7.0	100
Uruguay	49	14.6	0.4	12.4	4.2	47.9	9.3	17.8	..	132.2	..	8.4	25
Venezuela, RB	53	1.8	..	8.8	0.3	35.9	..	..	..	96.7	3.7	4.9	172

.. Data not availble.
0 Zero, or rounds to zero at the displayed number of decimal places.
a Data refers to 2006
b Data refers to 2007
c Data refers to 2008
d Data refers to 2009
e Data refers to 2010
f Data refers to 2011

Note: South Sudan is not included due to insufficient information.
Sources for tables on page 215.

MDG 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development, High Income Countries

	Net official development assistance (ODA) provided									Capacity Building		Policy Coherence	
	total (current million US$) 2011	as % of OECD/DAC donors' GNI 2011	given to LDCs (% of OECD/DAC donors' GNI) 2010	given multilaterally (%) 2009	given for economic infrastructure (%) 2010	given for agriculture (%) 2010	given to build trade capacity (%) 2010	untied (%) 2010	given for public health (%) 2010	commitment to fostering institutions, rank (1-23, where 1 is highest commitment) 2011	students from low-income countries (% of total foreign students) 2009	trade-distorting ag. subsidies (% of ag. production value) 2011	avg. tariffs on ag. products from low-income countries (%) 2008
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA													
Equatorial Guinea	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA													
Bahrain	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Israel	..	..	..	14	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Kuwait	..	..	..	0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Oman	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Qatar	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Saudi Arabia	..	..	..	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
United Arab Emirtes	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC													
Australia	4,799	0.35	0.10	36	6.2	7.0	14.0	0.0	7.4	12	64.4	3.3	1.0
Brunei Darussalam	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Hong Kong	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Japan	10,604	0.18	0.08	25	48.0	4.4	63.1	93.7	2.2	4	..	6.0	10.6
Korea, Republic of	1,321	0.12	0.04	33	33.7	5.1	40.9	35.7	7.3	10	..	4.9	..
Macao SAR, China	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
New Zealand	429	0.28	0.08	34	6.6	2.7	..	89.4	7.9	18	30.6	0.2	..
Singapore	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA													
Austria	1,107	0.27	0.12	65	9.9	2.4	23.5	67.7	8.1	19	..	9.3	9.5
Belgium	2,800	0.53	0.31	48	10.8	8.1	37.2	93.2	8.5	17	7.5	17.0	9.5
Croatia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cyprus	..	..	..	44	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9.5
Czech Republic	..	..	..	55	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9.5
Denmark	2,981	0.86	0.36	36	11.4	4.7	30.6	93.5	1.3	1	14.4	26.9	9.5
Estonia	..	..	..	79	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9.5
Finland	1,409	0.52	0.20	56	8.0	13.3	33.7	84.3	3.8	6	..	6.5	9.5
France	12,994	0.46	0.14	46	8.8	3.9	24.2	96.6	1.9	16	..	14.1	9.5
Germany	14,533	0.40	0.11	41	34.1	4.2	44.4	96.0	2.1	9	41.0	15.6	9.5
Greece	331	0.11	0.04	53	8.6	0.6	13.2	62.2	2.9	23	..	18.6	9.5
Hungary	..	..	..	76	..	..	..	..	..	..	30.7	..	9.5
Iceland	..	..	..	25	..	..	..	..	..	..	17.1	..	..
Ireland	904	0.52	0.29	45	1.2	9.1	16.0	100.0	12.0	2	31.7	45.2	9.5
Italy	4,241	0.19	0.06	78	6.5	4.0	28.9	58.5	7.5	14	..	9.3	9.5
Luxembourg	413	0.99	0.40	47	6.2	4.0	17.1	99.0	13.0	22	..	..	9.5
Malta	..	..	..	45	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9.5
Netherlands	6,324	0.75	0.24	40	3.2	0.9	10.9	92.9	2.8	7	11.5	5.8	9.5
Norway	4,936	1.00	0.34	47	6.9	14.3	32.0	100.0	3.4	11	..	45.6	24.5
Poland	..	..	..	69	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9.5
Portugal	669	0.29	0.13	52	19.7	0.4	23.4	32.9	2.7	13	39.9	10.0	9.5
Slovakia	..	..	..	62	..	..	..	..	..	..	57.6	..	9.5
Slovenia	..	..	..	61	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9.5
Spain	4,264	0.29	0.12	51	11.1	13.8	37.3	76.2	4.0	15	40.3	11.3	9.5
Sweden	5,606	1.02	0.30	52	5.0	2.8	19.3	100.0	4.0	3	31.9	7.6	9.5
Switzerland	3,086	0.46	0.11	37	7.1	4.5	32.1	74.0	2.9	21	18.2	32.4	13.8
United Kingdom	13,739	0.56	0.21	56	8.1	1.8	24.4	100.0	8.4	5	35.5	15.7	9.5
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN													
Bahamas, The	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Trinidad & Tobago	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
NORTH AMERICA													
Canada	5,291	0.31	0.15	46	3.0	12.9	26.9	99.3	15.1	8	28.6	7.4	5.3
United States	30,745	0.20	0.07	27	10.3	6.2	24.2	69.5	4.4	20	62.1	6.1	3.7

.. Data not availble. Sources for tables on page 215.

Table 10

United States: Hunger and Poverty by State

	Food insecurity: 2009-2011		Poverty, 2011				Participation in federal food assistance programs, FY 2011				
	People food insecure (%)		Poverty rate below 100% of the poverty level (%)		Poverty rate below 50% of the poverty level (%)		SNAP (avg. monthly participants)	WIC (total participants)	School breakfast program (total participants)	National school lunch program (total participants)	Summer food service program (avg. daily attendance)
	total	with hunger	all	under 18	all	under 18					
UNITED STATES	**14.7**	**5.6**	**15.9**	**22.5**	**7.1**	**10.1**	**44,708,726**	**8,960,593**	**12,174,599**	**31,818,509**	**2,277,926**
Alabama	18.2	7.1	19.0	27.6	7.8	12.1	920,365	143,768	216,714	571,291	24,726
Alaska	13.9	4.8	10.5	14.5	4.7	6.9	86,044	26,295	19,974	54,410	6,564
Arizona	15.8	6.2	19.0	27.2	8.7	12.3	1,067,617	199,343	261,170	661,437	23,732
Arkansas	19.2	7.6	19.5	28.1	7.9	12.6	486,451	93,461	158,053	352,786	21,841
California	16.2	5.8	16.6	22.8	7.2	9.5	3,672,980	1,466,564	1,288,269	3,281,716	115,688
Colorado	13.4	5.4	13.5	17.9	6.1	8.1	453,103	104,131	126,776	399,378	15,569
Connecticut	11.9	4.7	10.9	14.9	5.0	6.8	378,677	56,081	81,660	301,596	10,834
Delaware	10.9	4.3	11.9	17.5	5.8	8.7	134,927	22,553	36,699	94,722	9,129
District of Columbia	12.6	4.4	18.7	30.3	10.3	16.5	134,845	16,537	29,830	46,699	36,690
Florida	15.4	6.3	17.0	24.9	7.5	10.8	3,074,671	492,071	684,487	1,648,756	129,450
Georgia	17.4	6.4	19.1	26.3	8.6	11.6	1,780,039	469,456	600,642	1,301,069	75,953
Hawaii	13.8	5.6	12.0	17.0	6.1	8.6	159,644	36,753	35,847	115,694	3,169
Idaho	13.7	5.0	16.5	20.4	7.1	8.8	228,629	44,020	74,902	170,852	21,744
Illinois	13.3	4.5	15.0	21.6	6.9	9.8	1,793,886	295,409	357,551	1,162,998	52,556
Indiana	13.2	5.4	16.0	23.0	7.9	11.6	877,560	167,875	240,077	785,874	55,785
Iowa	12.0	4.7	12.8	17.3	5.9	8.1	373,856	70,931	88,514	396,894	11,122
Kansas	14.5	5.2	13.8	18.8	5.7	7.4	298,642	75,212	102,502	362,152	20,262
Kentucky	16.4	6.6	19.1	27.4	8.4	13.2	823,472	141,647	252,116	553,826	39,769
Louisiana	14.1	4.4	20.4	28.8	9.4	14.4	884,519	150,051	261,009	595,046	32,134
Maine	14.7	6.5	14.1	18.8	5.2	6.9	247,943	26,267	41,319	109,305	8,651
Maryland	12.5	5.6	10.1	13.5	5.0	7.1	667,738	147,421	169,116	435,111	54,981
Massachusetts	11.9	4.5	11.6	15.2	5.3	7.3	813,631	119,099	143,363	542,347	53,239
Michigan	14.2	5.6	17.5	24.8	8.1	11.7	1,928,478	252,705	351,518	910,424	61,539
Minnesota	10.2	4.3	11.9	15.4	5.2	6.4	505,919	131,255	169,939	631,230	39,269
Mississippi	19.2	7.1	22.6	31.8	9.8	15.2	622,596	97,277	203,825	400,490	27,456
Missouri	16.0	6.7	15.8	22.1	7.0	10.4	943,088	145,767	242,187	646,158	33,520
Montana	14.5	5.4	14.8	19.7	5.8	8.5	124,243	20,164	27,569	87,622	7,034
Nebraska	13.3	4.9	13.1	18.1	5.6	8.4	174,204	43,563	63,594	250,190	10,565
Nevada	15.3	6.0	15.9	22.1	7.2	9.6	332,959	75,669	63,732	212,555	7,094
New Hampshire	9.6	4.0	8.8	12.0	4.4	6.3	113,407	17,048	24,511	107,790	5,321
New Jersey	12.3	4.5	10.4	14.7	4.8	7.0	759,136	168,467	189,688	727,528	51,279
New Mexico	16.5	6.3	21.5	30.7	9.4	14.2	414,275	64,304	138,835	230,861	35,014
New York	13.3	5.1	16.0	22.6	7.1	10.3	2,999,991	512,603	614,752	1,823,476	378,655
North Carolina	17.1	5.8	17.9	25.6	7.8	11.5	1,590,069	266,478	382,085	948,641	74,553
North Dakota	7.8	3.1	12.2	14.6	5.8	7.2	60,902	14,068	21,954	83,484	2,659
Ohio	15.5	6.4	16.4	24.2	7.6	11.6	1,779,237	281,306	396,715	1,133,772	61,001
Oklahoma	14.7	7.0	17.2	23.4	7.4	10.6	614,704	126,944	224,449	452,437	10,628
Oregon	13.6	5.9	17.5	23.6	7.7	9.9	772,756	111,534	139,962	312,828	42,278
Pennsylvania	12.5	5.0	13.8	19.6	6.2	9.2	1,718,211	257,908	329,582	1,153,682	97,422
Rhode Island	15.5	6.0	14.7	21.9	6.8	10.6	160,201	24,515	27,664	79,006	6,820
South Carolina	14.8	4.4	18.9	27.8	8.5	13.1	844,405	130,647	261,877	497,669	45,229
South Dakota	12.7	5.3	13.9	18.2	5.9	7.7	101,817	22,583	27,253	108,289	4,550
Tennessee	15.2	6.4	18.3	26.3	7.9	12.0	1,275,790	161,578	310,063	697,665	28,574
Texas	18.5	6.5	18.5	26.6	7.6	11.1	3,977,273	993,498	1,744,602	3,401,753	173,243
Utah	14.6	5.2	13.5	15.9	5.6	6.1	283,971	73,049	73,494	350,494	14,777
Vermont	12.8	5.4	11.5	14.9	4.9	5.4	92,038	15,913	22,633	54,919	4,131
Virginia	9.1	3.2	11.5	15.3	5.3	7.1	858,782	156,085	253,448	755,600	57,905
Washington	15.4	6.2	13.9	18.3	6.2	8.0	1,054,693	192,565	179,931	545,983	39,587
West Virginia	14.1	5.1	18.6	25.8	7.8	11.7	345,955	49,117	95,882	205,809	16,917
Wisconsin	11.3	4.7	13.1	18.2	5.8	7.9	801,073	121,516	166,472	606,089	82,488
Wyoming	12.7	4.8	11.3	15.6	4.7	6.2	36,031	12,997	15,747	57,420	4,196
Puerto Rico	..	..	45.6	57.5	25.3	37.4	..	194,615	127,205	340,469	22,302

.. Data not availble. Sources for tables on page 215.

Table 11

United States: National Hunger and Poverty Trends, 2001-2011

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
TOTAL POPULATION (MILLIONS)	**285.0[a]**	**287.8[a]**	**290.3[a]**	**293.0[a]**	**295.8[a]**	**298.6[a]**	**301.6[a]**	**304.4[a]**	**307.0[a]**	**309.3[a]**	**311.6[a]**
FOOD INSECURITY PREVALENCE (%)											
All U.S. households	10.7	11.1	11.2	11.9	11.0	10.9	11.1	14.6	14.7	14.5	14.9
with hunger[b]	3.3	3.5	3.5	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.1	5.7	5.7	5.4	5.7
Adults	10.2	10.5	10.8	11.3	10.4	10.4	10.6	14.4	14.5	14.2	14.5
with hunger[b]	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.7	5.4	5.4	4.9	5.2
Children	17.6	18.1	18.2	19.0	16.9	17.2	16.9	22.5	23.2	21.6	22.4
with hunger[b]	0.6	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.9	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.1
PERCENT OF FEDERAL BUDGET SPENT ON FOOD ASSISTANCE[c]	**1.8**	**1.9**	**2.0**	**2.0**	**2.1**	**2.0**	**2.0**	**2.0**	**2.2**	**2.7**	**2.9**
TOTAL INFANT MORTALITY RATE (PER 1,000 LIVE BIRTHS)	**6.8**	**7.0**	**6.8**	**6.8**	**6.9**	**6.7**	**6.8**	**6.6**	**..**	**..**	**..**
White	5.7	5.8	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.6	5.6	5.5	..	..	..
White, non-Hispanic	5.7	5.8	5.7	5.7	5.8	5.6	5.6	5.5	..	..	..
Hispanic	5.4	5.6	5.7	5.6	5.6	5.4	5.5	5.6	..	..	..
African American	13.3	14.4	14.0	13.8	13.7	12.9	13.3	12.7	..	..	..
Asian/Pacific Islander	4.7	4.8	4.8	4.7	4.9	4.6	4.8	4.5	..	..	..
American Indian/Alaska Native	9.7	8.6	8.7	8.5	8.1	8.3	9.2	8.4	..	..	..
TOTAL POVERTY RATE (%)	**11.7**	**12.1**	**12.5**	**12.7**	**12.6**	**12.3**	**12.5**	**13.2**	**14.3**	**15.1**	**15.0**
Northeast	10.7	10.9	11.3	11.6	11.3	11.5	11.4	11.6	12.2	12.8	13.1
Midwest	9.4	10.3	10.7	11.6	11.4	11.2	11.1	12.4	13.3	13.9	14.0
South	13.5	13.8	14.1	14.1	14.0	13.8	14.2	14.3	15.7	16.9	16.0
West	12.1	12.4	12.6	12.6	12.6	11.6	12.0	13.5	14.8	15.3	15.8
White	9.9	10.2	10.6	10.8	10.6	10.3	10.5	11.2	12.3	13.0	12.8
White, non-Hispanic	7.8	8.0	8.2	8.6	8.3	8.2	8.2	8.6	9.4	9.9	9.8
Hispanic	21.4	21.8	22.5	21.9	21.8	20.6	21.5	23.2	25.3	26.6	27.6
African American	22.7	24.1	24.3	24.7	24.9	24.3	24.5	24.7	25.8	27.4	12.3
Asian[d]	10.2	10.2	11.8	9.8	11.1	10.1	10.2	11.6	12.5	12.1	25.3
American Indian/Alaska Native	..	..	20.0[e]	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Elderly (65 years and older)	10.1	10.4	10.2	9.8	10.1	9.4	9.7	9.7	8.9	9.0	8.7
Female-headed households	26.4	26.5	28.0	28.4	28.7	28.3	28.3	28.7	29.9	31.6	31.2
Children under age 6 in households	18.2	18.5	19.8	20.0	20.0	20.0	20.8	21.3	23.8	25.3	24.5
TOTAL CHILD POVERTY RATE (18 YEARS AND UNDER) (%)	**16.3**	**16.7**	**17.6**	**17.8**	**17.6**	**17.4**	**18.0**	**19.0**	**20.7**	**22.0**	**21.9**
White	13.4	13.6	14.3	14.8	14.4	14.1	14.9	15.8	17.7	18.5	18.6
White, non-Hispanic	9.5	9.4	9.8	10.5	10.0	10.0	10.1	10.6	11.9	12.3	12.5
Hispanic	28.0	28.6	29.7	28.9	28.3	26.9	28.6	30.6	33.1	34.9	34.1
African American	30.2	32.3	34.1	33.6	34.5	33.4	34.5	33.9	35.4	37.8	37.4
Asian[d]	11.5	11.7	12.5	10.0	11.1	11.4	11.9	13.3	13.3	13.6	13.3
TOTAL UNEMPLOYMENT RATE (%)	**4.7**	**5.8**	**6.0**	**5.5**	**5.1**	**4.6**	**4.6**	**5.8**	**9.3**	**9.6**	**8.9**
White	4.2	5.1	5.2	4.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	5.2	8.5	8.7	7.9
Hispanic	6.6	7.5	7.7	7.0	6.0	5.2	5.6	7.6	12.1	12.5	11.5
African American	8.6	10.2	10.8	10.4	10.0	8.9	8.3	10.1	14.8	16.0	15.8
Asian[d]	4.5	5.9	6.0	4.4	4.0	3.0	3.2	4.0	7.3	7.5	7.0

Table 11

United States: National Hunger and Poverty Trends, 2001-2011

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
HOUSEHOLD INCOME DISTRIBUTION (%)											
Total population											
Lowest 20 percent	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.3	3.2
Second quintile	8.7	8.8	8.7	8.7	8.6	8.6	8.7	8.6	8.6	8.5	8.4
Third quintile	14.6	14.8	14.8	14.7	14.6	14.5	14.8	14.7	14.6	14.6	14.3
Fourth quintile	23.0	23.3	23.4	23.2	23.0	22.9	23.4	23.3	23.2	23.4	23.0
Highest 20 percent	50.1	49.7	49.8	50.1	50.4	50.5	49.7	50.0	50.3	50.2	51.1
Ratio of highest 20 percent to lowest 20 percent	14.3	14.2	14.6	14.7	14.8	14.8	14.6	14.7	14.8	15.2	16.0
White											
Lowest 20 percent	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.7	3.5	3.5
Second quintile	8.9	9.0	8.9	8.8	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.8	8.9	8.7	8.6
Third quintile	14.7	15.0	14.8	14.8	14.7	14.6	14.9	14.8	14.8	14.7	14.5
Fourth quintile	22.9	23.2	23.2	23.1	22.9	22.9	23.3	23.3	23.2	23.3	22.9
Highest 20 percent	49.8	49.2	49.4	49.6	49.9	49.9	49.2	49.4	49.5	49.7	50.5
Ratio of highest 20 percent to lowest 20 percent	13.5	13.2	21.4	13.8	13.9	13.4	13.3	13.7	13.4	14.2	14.3
Hispanic											
Lowest 20 percent	4.0	3.9	3.9	3.8	3.9	3.8	3.9	3.7	3.7	3.5	3.5
Second quintile	9.4	9.4	9.4	9.3	9.5	9.3	9.5	9.2	9.0	9.0	9.1
Third quintile	15.2	14.8	15.0	14.9	15.2	15.0	15.2	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7
Fourth quintile	23.2	22.9	23.1	22.9	23.3	22.9	23.5	23.2	23.1	23.4	22.9
Highest 20 percent	48.3	49.0	48.6	49.1	48.1	48.9	47.9	49.2	49.5	49.4	49.7
Ratio of highest 20 percent to lowest 20 percent	12.1	12.6	12.5	12.9	12.3	12.8	12.3	13.3	13.4	14.1	14.2
African American											
Lowest 20 percent	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	3.0	2.9	2.6	2.6
Second quintile	8.6	8.2	8.2	8.3	8.0	8.1	8.1	8.4	8.2	7.8	7.5
Third quintile	15.0	14.5	14.7	14.6	14.5	14.3	14.5	14.6	14.3	14.2	13.7
Fourth quintile	24.2	23.3	24.0	23.8	23.7	23.2	23.7	23.5	23.5	23.6	23.3
Highest 20 percent	49.2	51.1	50.2	50.5	50.9	51.6	50.8	50.6	51.1	51.7	52.9
Ratio of highest 20 percent to lowest 20 percent	16.4	17.6	17.3	18.0	18.2	18.4	18.1	16.9	17.6	19.9	20.3
Asian[d]											
Lowest 20 percent	..	3.3	2.7	3.2	2.9	3.2	3.1	2.9	2.7	3.0	3.0
Second quintile	..	9.1	9.1	9.2	9.2	8.8	9.2	8.6	8.2	8.9	8.7
Third quintile	..	15.2	15.9	15.1	15.3	14.7	15.6	15.1	14.4	15.3	15.1
Fourth quintile	..	23.8	24.6	23.3	23.7	23.0	24.0	24.1	23.0	24.5	23.5
Highest 20 percent	..	48.6	47.8	49.2	48.9	50.3	48.0	49.3	51.6	48.3	49.7
Ratio of highest 20 percent to lowest 20 percent	..	14.7	17.7	15.4	16.9	15.7	15.5	17.0	19.0	16.2	16.6

.. Data not availble.
0 Zero, or rounds to zero at the displayed number of decimal places.
a U.S. Census estimate.
b Data from 2005 onward is referred to by the USDA as "very low food security" instead of "food insecure with hunger."
c Data refer to fiscal year.
d Reclassified from "Asian and Pacific Islander" in 2002.
e 3-year average: 1998, 1999, and 2000.

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Sources for Data Tables

TABLE 1

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Columns 1-7 and 9-25: World Bank (2012), World Development Indicators.

Column 8: United Nations Development Program (2012), *Human Development Report, 2011.*

TABLE 2

MDG 1: Eradicate Extreme Poverty

Columns 1-10: World Bank (2012), World Development Indicators.

Column 11: United Nations (2012), Millennium Development Goals indicators.

TABLE 3

MDG 1: Eradicate Extreme Hunger

Columns 1-2: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (2012), *State of Food Insecurity in the World, 2012.*

Columns 3-9: World Bank (2012), World Development Indicators.

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MDG 3: Achieve Universal Primary Education; MDG 4: Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women

Columns 1-13: World Bank (2012), World Development Indicators.

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MDG 4: Reduce Child Mortality; MDG 5: Improve Maternal Health

Columns 1-13: World Bank (2012), World Development Indicators.

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MDG 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Other Diseases

Columns 1-3 and 8: United Nations (2012), Millennium Development Goals Indicators.

Columns 4, 7, and 9-12: World Bank (2012), World Development Indicators.

Columns 5-6: Demographic and health Surveys (2012), STATcompiler.

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Column 13: Transparency International (2012), *Corruption Perceptions Index 2011.*

TABLE 9

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Columns 4-6, 9, and 11: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2012), *2011 DAC Report on Multilateral* Aid and OECD.StatExtracts.

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TABLE 10

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Columns 1 and 2: U.S. Department of Agriculture (2012), *2011 Current Population Survey:* Food Security Supplement Data.

Columns 3-6: U.S. Census Bureau (2012), 2011 *Current Population Survey,* 2009-2012 Annual Social and Economic Supplements.

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TABLE 11

United States: National Hunger and Poverty Trends

Food Insecurity Prevalence: U.S. Census Bureau (2012), 2001-2011 Census Data.

Percent of Budget spent on food assistance: Bread for the World Institute Estimate (2012), Data from U.S. Department of Agriculture Food and Nutrition Service spending reports.

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Total Poverty Rate: U.S. Census Bureau (2012), 2001-2011 Census Data.

Total Unemployment Rate: Bureau of Labor Statistics (2012), U.S. Department of Labor "Labor Force Statistics from the Current Population Survey."

Household Income Distribution: U.S. Census Bureau (2012), 2001-2011 Census Data.

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Canadian Foodgrains Bank is a partnership of all major Canadian church-based agencies working to end hunger in developing countries. In addition to cash donations, substantial amounts of food grain are donated directly from Canadian farmers and from more than 200 community groups that collectively grow crops for donation to the Canadian Foodgrains Bank. Hunger-related programming is supported by the Foodgrains Bank through its 15 member agencies and includes food aid, food security, nutrition programming, and food justice.

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Evangelical Covenant Church
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Phone: (773) 784-3000
www.covchurch.org/cwr
Blog: http://blogs.covchurch.org/cwr
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Evangelical Lutheran Church in America (ELCA) World Hunger is the anti-hunger program of the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America, responding to hunger and poverty in the United States and around the world by addressing root causes. Through a comprehensive program of relief, development, education, and advocacy, people are connected to the resources they need to lift themselves out of poverty. The international work of ELCA World Hunger is carried out through ELCA companion relationships as well as through trusted partners like Lutheran World Relief (LWR) and The Lutheran World Federation (LWF). Because of these long-held connections to partners around the world, ELCA World Hunger efforts are efficient and effective. The domestic work of ELCA World Hunger is carried out primarily through the Domestic Hunger Grants Program (relief, development, and community organizing projects).

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Lutheran World Relief (LWR) acts on behalf of U.S. Lutherans in response to natural disasters, humanitarian crises and chronic poverty in some 50 countries in Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Middle East. In partnership with local organizations, LWR supports more than 150 community projects to improve food production, health care, environment and employment, with special emphasis on training and gender equality. LWR monitors legislation on foreign aid and development, and advocates for public policies that address the root causes of hunger and poverty. LWR values the God-given gifts that each person can bring to the task of promoting peace, justice and human dignity. LWR began its work in 1945.

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or (800) LWR-LWR-2
Fax: (202) 783-5328
E-mail: lwr@lwr.org
www.lwr.org

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www.pnbc.org

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Willow Creek Community Church
www.willowcreek.org/compassion

World Hope International
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