Who’s really fighting hunger?

Why the world is going backwards on the UN goal to halve hunger and what can be done

HungerFREE scorecard 2010
### Glossary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<td>AA</td>
<td>ActionAid</td>
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<tr>
<td>AU</td>
<td>African Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>BRIC</td>
<td>Brazil, Russia, India and China</td>
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<tr>
<td>CAADP</td>
<td>Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>COP15</td>
<td>United Nations Climate Change Conference Copenhagen 2009</td>
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<td>DAC</td>
<td>OECD’s Development Assistance Committee</td>
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<td>EC</td>
<td>European Commission</td>
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<td>European Union</td>
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<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
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<td>GNI</td>
<td>Gross National Income</td>
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<td>GSFP</td>
<td>Ghana School Feeding Programme</td>
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<td>GSI</td>
<td>Global Subsidies Initiative</td>
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<td>HEPR</td>
<td>Hunger Eradication and Poverty Reduction</td>
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<td>IAASTD</td>
<td>International Assessment of Agricultural Knowledge, Science and Technology for Development</td>
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<td>ICDS</td>
<td>India’s Integrated Child Development Services</td>
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<td>IDA</td>
<td>World Bank’s International Development Association</td>
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<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
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<td>International Fund for Agricultural Development</td>
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<td>IFPRI</td>
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<td>IPCC</td>
<td>Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change</td>
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<td>LDCF</td>
<td>Least Developed Countries Fund for Climate Change</td>
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<td>LOSAN</td>
<td>Brazil’s Federal Law on Food and Nutritional Security, 2006</td>
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<td>MDG</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goal(s)</td>
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<td>NAPAs</td>
<td>National Adaptation Programmes of Action</td>
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<td>NREGA</td>
<td>National Rural Employment Guarantee Act</td>
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<td>NREGS</td>
<td>National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme</td>
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<td>ODA</td>
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<td>OECD</td>
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<td>PANPP</td>
<td>Pan-African Non-Petroleum Producers Association</td>
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<td>SAHRC</td>
<td>South Africa’s Human Rights Commission</td>
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<tr>
<td>SISAN</td>
<td>Brazil’s System of Food and Nutrition Security</td>
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<td>SOFI</td>
<td>The State of Food Insecurity in the World</td>
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<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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<td>UNFCCC</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
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<td>USDA-ERS</td>
<td>United States Department of Agriculture Economic Research Service</td>
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<td>WB</td>
<td>World Bank</td>
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<td>WHO</td>
<td>World Health Organization</td>
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<td>WHOSIS</td>
<td>WHO Statistical Information System</td>
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In this report we use the term malnutrition in its popular sense to mean both insufficient dietary energy (undernourishment) and nutrient deficiency (malnutrition).
Who's Really Fighting Hunger 2010?

Executive Summary

Going Backwards: The billion hungry

This September, leaders are gathering in New York to assess progress on the UN's Millennium Development Goals for halving extreme poverty and hunger by 2015. On hunger, the MDGs commit leaders to reducing by half the proportion of people who are undernourished and the proportion of children who are underweight. These targets are, quite literally, a matter of life and death for the one billion people who struggle on a daily basis to avoid starvation.

With only five years to go, how is the world doing? The bitter truth is that the world is going backwards on hunger. If massive gains in China are excluded from the picture, then global hunger has risen back to exactly the same level in 2009 as it was in 1990. This means that 500 million more people are chronically malnourished than if the UN goal had been achieved.

The two regions which are home to the largest numbers of hungry people, South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, have lost the most ground in the wake of the food and financial crises. In South Asia, the prevalence of hunger surpassed the MDG 1990 baseline levels last year, gripping more than one in five of the region’s people. Nearly half of South Asian children remain malnourished, a situation little changed from 1990 – indefensible considering the region’s per capita income has tripled in the same period.

In Sub-Saharan Africa, alarmingly, just under a third of the total population was chronically hungry by 2009 – up by two percentage points, from 30 percent in 2006. Worst of all, food security is predicted to deteriorate further in Africa, to the point that nearly 50 percent of Africans could be going without enough food by 2020.

However, the news is not all bad. Governments are beginning to re-invest in agriculture, albeit from a very low base. Seven countries improved their score on budgetary allocations to agriculture between last year and this year. The food and financial crises have also spurred some improvements to social assistance programmes, which often make the difference between vulnerability and destitution when times get tough. Although such programmes are still tiny in most developing countries, twelve countries (Burundi, Ethiopia, The Gambia, Ghana, Kenya, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Uganda, China, Nepal, Pakistan, Guatemala and Haiti) improved their score this year for social safety net coverage, while only a handful went down.

Counting the cost

Even before the food and financial crises pushed hunger to unprecedented highs, malnutrition was the underlying cause of nearly 4.5 million child deaths every year. An extra 1.2 million children could die unnecessarily between now and 2015, partly as a result of setbacks on hunger.

Large as it is, the loss of life caused by hunger is dwarfed by the invisible and permanent loss of human potential. Childhood hunger causes irreversible damage to mental and physical capacity, cutting a person's lifetime earnings by as much as 20 percent and reducing overall economic output. ActionAid estimates that failure to meet the MDG goal of halving hunger is costing developing countries over $450 billion per year in lost GDP – more than 10 times the amount the UN estimates would be needed to achieve the MDG hunger targets.

The great hunger divide

The country-by-country analysis on MDG1 hunger targets presented in the HungerFree scoreboard shows a great divide between countries that are more or less on track and those that are very far from it.2

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1 Throughout this report, we use the term ‘malnutrition’ and ‘hunger’ in their popular senses to mean both insufficient calorie intake (undernutrition) as well as inadequate nutrient intake. The UN MDG hunger goal includes a target for reducing childhood hunger (measured by low weight for age, or underweight) as well as one for reducing hunger in the general population (measured by calorie availability).

2 Note: this country-by-country analysis is based on the latest available data from the UN FAO, which predates the food and financial crisis and is almost certainly an underestimate of the impacts, in some countries.
**Table 1:** Indicator: HungerFREE scorecard rankings: developing countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country and rank</th>
<th>Hunger outcomes and trend</th>
<th>Smallholder agriculture</th>
<th>Social protection</th>
<th>Legal framework</th>
<th>Gender equality</th>
<th>Overall rank</th>
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### Table 2: HungerFREE scorecard rankings - developed countries (aid)

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<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Rank for aid to agriculture</th>
<th>Rank for aid to social protection</th>
<th>Rank for gender</th>
<th>Overall rank for aid</th>
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### Table 3: HungerFREE scorecard rankings - developed countries (policy)

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Country</th>
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<th>Rank for climate change</th>
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*It was not possible to score Korea on climate due to the fact it is not an Annex 1 country under the Kyoto Protocol and therefore does not need to adopt emissions reductions targets. Korea’s score on the negative impacts on hunger is therefore based on its biofuels score only.*
Of the 28 developing countries measured, only 8 are on track to meet both the hunger targets, 20 countries are off track to meet one or both of the MDG targets. Of these, 12 are actually moving backwards not forward on one or both of the MDG targets: i.e. an increasing proportion of the population is hungry. The Democratic Republic of Congo is the worst performer, with a staggering 76 percent of their population hungry representing a fourfold increase since 1990 - the worst hunger record in the world. Pakistan, another country backslding, has seen the proportion of hungry rise from one in four to an estimated one in two during the same period.

And it isn’t just the poorest, the war-torn and disaster-struck countries of the world that are not doing well. Some of the world’s ‘wealthier’ countries are shockingly off track. In India, one the world’s emerging recent global economic ‘successes’, 1 in 5 of the population are hungry, and close to 50 percent of all children are malnourished.

20 countries have been moving forward far too slowly to meet the 2015 deadline; for instance, according to Action Aid’s projections, Kenya and Senegal won’t meet the hunger reduction target until 2124 and 2060, respectively.

On the other side of the divide, 13 of the 28 HungerFREE countries in this study have shown what is possible and are on track to meet one or both of the goals – demonstrating that the goals are more than achievable.

Brazil, China, Ghana, Malawi and Vietnam are among those that have slashed hunger rates – and are the top five performers on the HungerFREE scorecard. Brazil has more than halved the prevalence of underweight children in less than 10 years. China has made impressive progress and met their MDG1 obligations well ahead of time. Ghana cut hunger levels by 75 percent between 1990 and 2004. In Vietnam, the rate of underweight children has plummeted from close to 45 percent in the early 1990s to fewer than 20 percent today. Similarly Malawi has also put a decisive end to years of recurring famine, reducing the number of people requiring food aid from over 4.5 million in 2004 to less than 150,000 in 2009.

What needs to happen?

How have some governments, including some in very poor countries of the world, managed to tackle hunger and poverty so effectively, whereas others have failed? And why are some governments and the world not doing more?

The evidence we present in this report should be reason to spur greater action. The 2010 HungerFREE scorecard shows that there are some simple steps that would make it both possible and affordable to halve hunger by 2015.

The scorecard assesses developing countries on four areas of public action: legal commitment to food as a right, investment in agriculture and social protection, and gender equality.

What is striking in this analysis is the overlap between those countries which have made huge progress on hunger and the high scorers on their policy actions. On the flipside, there is a conspicuous correlation between countries that are low deliverers on policy actions and have high hunger numbers.

By investing more in local agriculture, governments can feed their people and also regenerate rural economies. Recent research has pointed to the vital role that agriculture played in China’s initial take-off. Agriculture was estimated to have contributed to poverty reduction four times more than growth in manufacturing or service sectors. As China’s story demonstrates, the biggest impact on reducing hunger and poverty is achieved when governments focus on supporting the small-scale farmers who grow the majority of staple foods consumed locally. There are particularly massive gains to be reaped from investing in women farmers, who currently receive hardly any credit or extension advice and seldom enjoy secure rights over land.

The HungerFREE scorecard also shows that well-designed social assistance programmes, such as public works employment, cash transfers, food rations, and free school meals, are an important hunger-fighting weapon.

Recent country level evidence analysed by ActionAid shows significant increases in the most serious form of child hunger (wasting, or short term weight loss) since the food crisis struck in 2007/8. This demonstrates exactly how vulnerable children are to reduced food intake in times of distress, and therefore how important it is to put basic safety nets in place.

Safety nets are also important to help small farmers keep planting and harvesting through tough times, avoiding the distress sales of livestock and land that so often push vulnerable families over the brink into chronic hunger and destitution.

Brazil, our overall chart topper for the second time in a row, has expanded welfare...
coverage dramatically in recent years. Increases in the minimum wage and a national cash transfer programme have been introduced alongside subsidised credit and procurement programmes that support smallholder farmers. Taken together, these measures are widely recognised as having a phenomenal impact on reducing Brazil’s once infamous inequalities - with child hunger rates slashed by over 50 per cent in little over 10 years.

Legal commitment to food as a basic human right can help to create political pressure on governments to make hunger a priority. Alongside this, strong rural institutions that give the poorest some influence over government actions are indispensable.

Rich countries also have a critical part to play. They need to change policies that aggravate hunger in the developing world, such as targets and subsidies that promote the use of biofuels made from food crops. European targets for biofuels expansion could push prices of grains and food oils 15 percent higher by 2017, according to the OECD.

The UN’s Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) predicts that global warming could put 50 million extra people at risk of hunger by 2020, rising to an additional 266 million by 2080. Rich countries need to cut their greenhouse gas emissions, and provide the minimum US $200 billion needed annually to enable poor countries to fight climate change.

Finally, rich countries need to live up to their many promises to increase financing for agriculture in the developing world. Almost all donors are starting from a very low base of severe underinvestment in agriculture. But the HungerFREE Scorecard gives credit to those countries that have pledged money to agriculture since the food crisis. The 2009 G8 pledge of US $22 billion, over 3 years, to support developing country farmers and fight hunger is a critical step forward, as is the recognition that the key to solving the food crisis lies in investing in smallholder farmers. However, according to ActionAid’s calculation, only around USUS$6 billion of this is new money rather than re-cycled pledges - and it is still not clear how or when the money will be spent.

Moving forward towards a HungerFREE world

As global populations grow, the fight is on over how to solve the global crisis in resources. The massive overconsumption of energy and other environmental resources in the North, combined with the looming impacts of climate change and decades of neglect of impoverished small farmers in the developing world, could lead to an explosion of food shortages and hunger in decades to come. We need bold plans to build vibrant and sustainable farming economies in poor countries: so that hunger becomes yesterday’s news, not tomorrow’s headline.

To meet the MDG1 goal of halving hunger, world leaders meeting in New York this September must:

1. Invest in farmers
   - Agree national plans that are sufficiently bold and ambitious to halve hunger by 2015, backed by costed, time-bound actions and firm financing commitments by both governments and donors.
   - The UN estimates that at least US$40 billion in additional funding will be required annually to halve hunger by 2015; donors should set out a timetable and mechanism to meet their part of the need and guarantee that no country with a good plan for achieving the hunger goal is thwarted for lack of resources.
   - National plans should focus on supporting poor farmers, particularly women, in order to maximize poverty and hunger reduction impacts.
   - National plans should expand social protection programmes to ensure that households don’t fall into hunger when prices rise or harvests fail.

2. Act on climate change
   - Commit to a reduction of at least 40 percent of developed country emissions by 2020 in order to keep temperatures below the danger zone of a 1.5 degrees Celsius increase in temperatures.
   - Increase their climate financing pledges to cover the minimum US$200 billion needed annually in developing countries, ensure their funding is new money (that is, doesn’t reduce other aid), and specify a source.

3. Change course on biofuels
   - The European Union and United States must eliminate targets and subsidies for biofuel production, which directly undermine food security and have little or no environmental benefit.
Section 1 - **Meeting MDG1: Will we make it?**
World leaders gather in New York this September to assess progress on the crucial United Nations goals to cut global poverty and hunger to halve their 1990 levels. The bitter truth, however, is that 20 percent more people – over one billion of us – are undernourished now than in 1990 and an additional 600,000 children under five, most of them girls, could die from the underlying cause of hunger by 2015.1

ActionAid’s research shows that the world is going backwards on the UN Millennium Development Goal (MDG) on hunger. While progress was always too slow to achieve the goal on time, since 2007 there has been a dramatic reversal: the prevalence of hunger has actually increased instead of dropping. The UN’s estimate of 1.02 billion hungry in 2009 represents 15 percent of the world’s population. However, if China is excluded, then the proportion of undernourished people in the world’s population now actually exceeds its 1990 level of 16 percent.3 That translates into nearly half a billion people who would not be hungry if leaders had fulfilled their MDG promises. The majority of them are women and girls.4

The two regions home to the largest numbers of hungry people, South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, have lost the most ground in recent years. In Sub-Saharan Africa, alarmingly, just under a third of the total population was chronically hungry by 2009 – up by two percentage points, from 30 percent in 2006.5 In South Asia, the prevalence of hunger surpassed 1990 levels last year, gripping more than one in five of the region’s people. A shocking 46 percent of South Asian children remain underweight, a situation little changed from the 51 percent it was two decades ago – even though the region’s per capita income has more than tripled in this period.6

The food and financial crises are to be blamed for the latest upward spiral of hunger – yet these crises did not come out of nowhere. Free market doctrines dictated that food was just a commodity like any other, and should be grown for export on the basis of ‘comparative advantage’. Smallholder farmers were left high and dry without government support or trade protection. Such policies progressively undermined food security in developing countries, and planted the seeds for the 2008/9 collapse. Already, before the crises hit, long-term child malnutrition was increasing,7 and African countries were importing almost a third of their food supply.8

The UN’s hunger goals will remain a distant dream unless leaders meeting in New York reverse the failed policies that led to such catastrophes. On the other hand, this report shows that investing in a vibrant smallholder farming sector could provide poor countries with a way out of crisis into durable prosperity.

In the meantime, however, the food crisis rages on in many countries around the world (see Table 4). Many developing countries continued to experience high and rising food prices in 2009-2010, at the same time as employment and incomes are being squeezed by the global recession.9 Reeling under a 60 percent increase in the cost of staple foods, Mozambique saw the prevalence of hunger increase almost 10 percent in 2009 alone, according to the World Bank.10 The real extent of hunger in Uganda may have been almost 33 percent of the population in 2009, say World Bank researchers – more than double the rate reported by the FAO for 2006.11 Even before the recent floods, hunger in Pakistan may have risen to twice its pre-crisis level.12

Although these estimates of increasing undernutrition are statistical projections based on income and food price trends, they seem to be borne out by actual physical measurements of children done since the food crisis started. Wasting, or low weight for height, is strongly associated with child death and is an early warning sign of nutritional distress (pounds fall off fast when calories are lacking, while it takes time for growth in feet and inches to slow down).13 And in almost all of countries where anthropometric data for 2007, 2008 or 2009 can be compared to pre-crisis data, wasting is on the increase.14

In Ghana, the proportion of children wasted rose by 17 percent between a survey conducted in 2003 and the latest one done in 2008. In Nigeria, the prevalence of wasting increased by a third over the same period, while in Bangladesh it was almost 20 percent higher in 2007 than in 2004.15 In a survey done in Kenya in 2008/9, all indicators of child malnutrition – wasting, stunting and underweight –
Who's Really Fighting Hunger 2010?

sharperamongthepooresthouseholds;forexampleinBangladesh,levelsofwastingincreased28percentamongthepoorestquintile,whileinNigeriathe
sameincomegroupsawastaggering57percentriseinratesofwasting.

Othersurvey-basedresultsringalarmsinothercountries.StuntingroseinSriLanka
from2007to2009,particularlyinaruralareaswherestuntingjumpedfrom16to20
percent,accordingtotheWHO.16SouthAfrica’sGeneralHouseholdSurveyrecorded
asharpincreaseinthenumberofchildrenexperiencinghunger,upfrom15percent
to18percentinonlyoneyear.17

ButsincetheUNisreportingoverallprogressonpovertyreduction,itiscanbeasked
whytheincreaseinhungerisa worrytoanyone. Aslongaspovertyisstillfalling,
won’thungereventuallybebeaten too? Indeed, the US government’s agricultural
research service (USDA-ERS) predicted in February 2010 that as economic recovery
takes hold, the recent dizzying increases in hunger would hal t this year.18

Thefirstpartoftheansweristhatthestoryonpovertyisnot sogoodafterall.
While China has lifted over 600 million people out of poverty in the past 30 years,
levels of extreme poverty prior to the financial crisis had hardly budged in the rest
ofthe world,fallingonly4percentagepoints(from32.5percentin1990to28
percent in 2005).19 What’s more, the financial crisis has erased some of that
progress: an additional 114 million people may be beneath the US$1.25-a-day
povertyline.20 IfthepovertylineissetatamorerealisticUS$2perday,thentherespects
ofachievingshathalfingpovertylevelsdissappear.Evenonarelativelyoptimisticscenarioforpost-crisiseconomicrecovery,2billionpeople
will remainbelowtheUS$2/daylinewithyperby2015,morethanhalfofthe1990level.21

Second, hunger is predicted to remain at extremely high levels. Even the optimistic
US scenario for a short-term easing of hunger pressures would do no more than
return global undernutrition to its pre-crisis level of close to 900 million. Moreover,
the US government researchers say that without major investments in agriculture
and rural infrastructure, hunger is likely to stagnate at this unacceptably high level
forthenextdecade,decliningonly1percentgloballyby2020.InAfrica,however,
fully50percentofthepopulationcouldbe-goingwithoutenoughfoodby2020.22
Withoutconcertedaction, the MDG target of halving hunger will still be far, far
away a full decade from now.

Globalwarmingandbiofuelsexpansionwilldarkenthepicturefurther.Harsher,
more frequent droughts and shorter growing seasons will reduce crop yields.
Althoughsomegionsmaybenefitfromwarmerweather,cropyieldsarelikelyto
fallby10to20percentindvelopingcountriesinthenexttwodecades,andby
upto50percentinsomeAfricancountries.23TheUN’sIntergovernmentalPanel
onClimateChange(IPCC)predictsthatclimatechangecouldput50millionextra
people at risk of hunger by 2020, rising to an additional 266 million by 2080.24 US
and European targets for biofuels expansion could push prices of grains and food
oils 15 percent higher by 2017, according to the OECD.25

Themostcompellingargumentfortakingurgentactiontoreducehunger,however,
is theveryhighcostofdoingnothing—whichActionAid esti mates at over US$450
billion per year, or more than ten times the UN’s estimate of the sums needed to
halvehungerby2015.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Additional hungry people (millions)</th>
<th>Increase over previous prevalence levels (2004-6 unless otherwise noted)</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan, 2008</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>132%</td>
<td>UNICEF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal, 2008</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>UNICEF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda, 2008</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>World Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru, 2008</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>National statistics agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan, 2008</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>20%3</td>
<td>UNICEF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh, 2008</td>
<td>7.5 to 12.5</td>
<td>19-31%</td>
<td>UNICEF (low estimate); Centre for Bangladesh Policy (high estimate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique, 2009</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>8%4</td>
<td>World Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India, 2007/8</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>World Food Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya, 2009</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>5%4</td>
<td>World Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania, 2009</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>World Bank</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Undernutrition does serious long term damage, undermining health, education, and productivity. One in three of the world’s children (and nearly one in two in least developed countries) is growing up chronically malnourished. As a result, many will die before the age of five. Those who survive are likely to suffer irreversible cognitive and physical damage. They will complete fewer years of school, and earn less as adults. Their immune systems permanently impaired, they are 12 times more likely to die from easily preventable and treatable diseases. Improving nutrition status is therefore an absolute requirement if the UN’s health and education Millennium Goals (MDGs) are to be met.

Malnutrition cripples societies as well as individuals. Children underweight in Central America, although at much lower levels than in Africa and Asia, still cost countries between 2 and 12 percent of GDP every year, according to UN and WFP research. Lost productivity accounts for over 90 percent of these costs; the other 10 percent is due to higher health system costs from additional cases of disease, and from extra grades of school repeated. Extrapolating from this estimate, the costs of hunger could be over US$450 billion annually in Sub-Saharan Africa and developing Asia alone – more than ten times the amount required to achieve the MDG hunger goals. Since a recent study by Harvard and Brandeis researchers puts the health and productivity costs of malnutrition at US$75bn per year for the United States alone, these estimates are likely to be conservative.

Another way to count the cost of hunger is to estimate the years of healthy, productive life it consumes. Globally, hunger is an underlying cause of roughly half of the 8.8 million child deaths that take place each year, but beyond this it is responsible for a total loss of 91 million years of healthy, productive life (disability-adjusted life years) annually.

Hunger not only holds back growth; it also makes societies more unequal. The damage done by malnutrition begins in the womb, condemning the children of undernourished mothers to a lifetime of ill health and low earnings even before they are born. Those from poor, rural households are disproportionately affected by hunger, and being hungry in the first years of life makes them even poorer when they grow up, resulting in the loss of up to 20 percent of lifetime earnings. IFPRI researchers found that children who had been properly fed earned 46 percent more as adults than a control group. In South Asia, home to the largest share of the world’s stunted and underweight children, malnutrition magnifies gender inequality, with girls far more likely to be poorly fed than boys.

Amidst the gloom of a world going backwards on hunger, there are some bright spots. Despite the intense fiscal pressures of the global recession, the top five best-scoring developing countries on the 2010 HungerFREE scorecard all maintained or increased their agriculture and social protection commitments in 2009-10, ensuring a continuation of the strong record of progress that they established before the food and financial crises began. While some donor countries have made new pledges to support developing country farmers in 2009; with some significant new pledges from the US government.
1.2 Which countries are doing well, which aren’t - and why?

As part of our 2010 HungerFREE Scorecard, ActionAid has taken an in-depth look at progress across the two MDG 1 hunger targets for the countries analysed.

Based on trend data, we have produced our projections for when countries will meet the two MDG hunger targets. In at least eight more countries (Guatemala, Tanzania, Pakistan, Zambia, Liberia, South Africa, Nepal and The Gambia) hunger is again on the increase against one of the targets. For instance, in Pakistan from 1990 to 2006 the proportion of people hungry rose from one in four to almost one in three, and jumped again to almost one in two in 2009, according to World Food Programme reports.

Kenya, India, Haiti and Senegal are so far off track that they are unlikely to halve undernourishment until after 2050. All four are simultaneously miserably off track to meet the child underweight target too. For instance, in India, from 1990 to 2006 the numbers of hungry grew by 40 million and UNICEF predicts that a further 20 million were added to this grim total by 2008. There are now more than 270 million chronically hungry people living in India, while close to 50 percent of all children are malnourished.

Other countries have been making slow progress in reducing the prevalence of undernourishment and underweight, but not enough to meet the targets on time.

On the other side of the divide, 13 countries have shown what is possible and are on track to meet one or both of the goals – demonstrating that the goals are more than achievable.

Brazil, China, Ghana, Malawi and Vietnam are among those that have slashed hunger rates. For example, in Vietnam the rate of underweight children has plummeted from close to 45 percent in the early 1990s to fewer than 20 percent today. Meanwhile, Vietnam halved the number of undernourished in the general population between 1990 and 2004. Poverty reduction rates have been equally impressive: falling from around 60 percent in the early 1990s to a predicted 10 percent this year. This accounts for a 75 percent reduction in poverty in just over 15 years. Vietnam has also seen improvements in under-five mortality, primary school enrolment, maternal mortality, and access to clean water and sanitation, and has now achieved nearly all the MDGs – showing just what is possible, even in a very poor country.

Box 1: The Millennium Development Goal 1: Eradicate extreme hunger and poverty

**Target 1:** Reduce by half the proportion of people living on less than a dollar a day
- Proportion of population below US$1 (PPP) per day
- Poverty gap ratio
- Share of poorest quintile in national consumption

**Target 2:** Reduce by half the proportion of people who suffer from hunger
- 1.8 Prevalence of underweight children under-five years of age
- 1.9 Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption

Our analysis shows a great divide between countries that are more or less on track to meet the MDG 1 hunger targets, and those that are very far from it. Those going backwards are Burundi, Lesotho, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Sierra Leone which show increasing hunger and children underweight since 1990. This means we cannot predict when they will meet the targets. With over 76 percent of its population chronically hungry, the DRC has the worst hunger statistics in the world. What is tragic is that far from reducing hunger, the numbers of hungry quadrupled between 1990 and 2006.
Brazil has more than halved the prevalence of underweight amongst children in less than a decade. At the same time, it has made good progress in reducing inequality and extreme poverty. Between 2001 and 2006, the incomes of the poorest 70 percent grew faster than the rest of the population. This has helped to slash extreme poverty from 21 million people in 2003 to 9 million in 2008.

China has also made impressive progress. It has met both the MDG hunger targets well ahead of the 2015 deadline. This has been coupled with extraordinary levels of poverty reduction: a four-fold reduction between 1980 and 2005, from 835 million to 208 million, equal to a drop from 84 to 15 percent.

In Sub-Saharan Africa, a few top achievers are punching way above their weight – demonstrating just what is possible with strong and sustained political will and action, despite very limited resources. For instance, Ghana is the only African country which is set to meet all the MDG 1 targets on poverty and hunger. It had already halved the hungry proportion of its population 10 years ago. Ghana cut hunger levels by 75 percent between 1990 and 2004. Malawi has also put a decisive end to years of recurring famine, reducing the number of people requiring food aid from over 4.5 million in 2004 to less than 150,000 in 2009. As a result they met their MDG 1 target to halve hunger in 2009 and will meet the target to reduce children underweight within the next few years – and well ahead of the 2015 target.

How have some governments, including some in very poor countries, managed to tackle hunger and poverty so effectively, whereas others have failed? The next section of this report analyses this question. It does this with a strong focus on how to achieve equitable, pro-poor growth. Evidence from countries that have made great strides forward shows that the goals have been achieved when governments provide strong support to smallholder farmers, and protect the most vulnerable through public works employment, cash transfers or other welfare programmes. Food scarcity is as much about politics and power as overall supply. Political and legal commitment to food as a basic human right helps to ensure that governments address the needs of the poorest and support the vulnerable. Alongside this, strong rural institutions that give the poorest some influence over government actions are indispensable.

The evidence we present in the rest of this report is reason to spur greater action. It is possible and affordable to cut extreme poverty and hunger in half by 2015. Not to do so is costly, dangerous and morally unacceptable.
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**Box 2: How do we know the number of hungry people?**

As civil society attempts to hold governments accountable for taking action to reduce hunger, conflicting claims may arise about exactly how many people are hungry. It is therefore important to be clear about what exactly is meant by hunger, and to know how we can measure hunger.

There are different types of hunger. Long-term ‘chronic’ hunger can be visible in the ‘stunted’ growth of children, and is different from short-term ‘acute’ hunger, which may be visible in thin ‘wasted’ children. The MDG indicator for child hunger is low weight for age (underweight) which captures aspects of both stunting and wasting. Also important is having good quality food that is rich in essential proteins, vitamins and minerals. A diet of ‘cheap calories’ based on starchy foods like corn or cassava can lead to malnutrition.

There are four main ways of measuring hunger. One can ask a person if...
they feel hungry. One can ask a person how much they have eaten. One can take physical measurements and compare them to standards of healthy people. These three methods usually make use of surveys of representative samples of people. However, because surveys are expensive to carry out, most countries do them infrequently, making comparisons across time or across countries quite difficult. A fourth way to measure hunger is to calculate the total food available and what proportion of a population that amount can feed based on existing distribution patterns. However, sometimes these statistics are rough estimates (for example, Nigeria’s large imports of food are easier to count than Mozambique’s dispersed peasants, perhaps giving a false indication of greater food availability).

These different methods may lead to different estimates of the number of hungry. For example, FAO calculations show that 16 percent of Nepal’s population was undernourished in 2006, but actual on-the-ground surveys using Nepal’s minimum food-intake standards show the rate to be closer to 41 percent. In addition, countries may show different rates for different types of hunger, as illustrated by comparing the two above graphs. Guatemala’s trends show its halving child underweight rates by 2004, while overall under-nutrition rates of the population in general have increased since 1990.

The opposite of hunger - food security - is conventionally defined as having four components: food availability, food access, food utilization, and stability of all these.

The HungerFREE Scorecard has evaluated countries on the basis of the MDG 1 hunger targets. For the sources used in the HungerFREE Scorecard please refer to the indicators, methodology and sources section.

Sources: Millennium Development Indicators: The official United Nations Site for the MDG Indicators http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Metadata.aspx?IndicatorId=0&SeriesId=640
2 Farming: the path out of crisis

“I am happy now my family and I have enough to eat. Previously, we could not afford three meals a day. We have no problem in obtaining quality vegetable seeds as we get these from our respective farmers’ alliances and return our own seeds and vegetables later.”

- Uzzala Rani, 25, smallholder farmer, Kurigram district, Bangladesh

Global poverty is predominately rural. Three quarters of the world’s poor and 70 percent of hungry people live in rural communities. Children living in rural areas are nearly twice as likely to be underweight than children living in cities and towns. But if one takes a look at the rural landscape, the potential for change is astounding. Investment in smallholder agriculture is not only the way to beat hunger, but the best path to economic recovery and resilience for crisis-hit developing countries.

Agriculture still provides the main source of livelihood for 80 to 90 percent of the population in many countries. Increasing their incomes will bring rural economies back to life and generate more jobs for other poor people and increase demand for domestically produced goods and services. Greater numbers of rural jobs and increased incomes generally lead to improved nutrition, better health, and increased investment in education, while increased revenues allow local governments to respond to demands for better infrastructure, such as roads.

Agriculture has driven broad-based economic growth from countries as diverse as 18th century England, to 19th century Japan, to 20th century China. Pointing to the “special powers” of agriculture in reducing poverty, the World Bank has demonstrated that GDP growth originating in agriculture is at least twice as effective in reducing poverty as in other sectors. In China, growth in smallholder agriculture had four times the impact on poverty alleviation as growth in the manufacturing or service sectors. In Uganda, a 3 percent increase in public spending on agriculture can generate a 1 percent increase in agricultural output, and a 1 percent rise in agricultural output cuts the poverty rate by as much as 1.38 percent.

Box 3: Small farms help create more wealth, more equally spread.

Walter Goldschmidt’s classic study of agriculture in California’s San Joaquin Valley compared areas dominated by large corporate farms to areas still dominated by smallholder farmers. In towns surrounded by family farms the wealth generated in agriculture circulated among local businesses and there was higher overall employment and more vibrant community life. In communities near large, mechanised farms, small towns died off. In these corporate farm towns, agricultural wealth was siphoned off to larger cities.

The wealth extraction that Goldschmidt described can also work in reverse. Revitalising local food systems and smallholder farming recreates wealth in rural communities, forming the basis for sustainable livelihoods.

For instance, the Landless Workers Movement of Brazil (MST) is a grassroots organisation that helps landless labourers to occupy and settle idle land under a clause in the Brazilian constitution that states land must serve a social function. According to researcher Peter Rosset, “When the movement began in the mid-1980s, the mostly conservative mayors of rural towns were violently opposed to MST land occupations in surrounding areas. In recent times, their attitude has changed. Most of their towns are very depressed economically, and occupations can give local economies a much needed boost. Typical occupations consist of 1,000 to 3,000 families, who turn idle land into productive farms. They sell their produce in the marketplaces of the local towns and buy their supplies from local merchants. Not surprisingly those towns with nearby MST settlements are better off economically than other similar towns, and many mayors now actually petition the MST to carry out occupations near their towns.

But for too many years, the rural poor have not been adequately supported by governments. At the behest of the World Bank and IMF, from the late 1980s onwards the state was systematically extracted from agriculture, with the market left to ‘fill’ these roles. However, the private sector often didn’t step in when services were dismantled, leaving millions of poor small farmers to deal with the devastating impact this has on their livelihoods. As Joseph Stiglitz remarked, the “invisible hand” of the market was often invisible because it just wasn’t there.

India provides a striking example. From the 1990s onwards, the Indian government cut public investment, plummeting from a high of 13 percent to only 6 percent in 1999. Ironically, as investment in agriculture stagnated, government expenditure on food subsidies rocketed. Meanwhile, as public support dwindled, smallholders found it increasingly hard to cope without the support previously given by the state. For instance, smallholder farmers’ debt doubled in the first decade of the neoliberal economic reforms in agriculture. Unable to make ends meet, nearly 200,000 farmers committed suicide and 8 million quit farming between 1991 and 2001. A final ironic twist to the tail is that, while Indian farmers are committing suicide because they can no longer make their lands productive, the Indian government, concerned about future food insecurity, is seeking to purchase land for to grow food in countries such as Ethiopia and Sudan.

However, the tide may be beginning to turn, in India and in many other countries. India’s government is among many that have boosted agriculture budgets in the past few years. Albeit somewhat belatedly, the World Bank has acknowledged that greater investment in agriculture is needed to lift millions out of hunger: “...the international goal of halving extreme poverty and hunger by 2015 will not be reached unless neglect and underinvestment in the agricultural and rural sectors over the past 20 years is reversed.”
2.1 How the state can unleash farming’s poverty fighting powers

How the world invests in agriculture in the coming decades will have a major impact on global poverty, inequality and the environment. On the one hand, strong state support to sustainable smallholder farming could guarantee sustainable recovery from the global recession and re-ignite poverty reduction, while safeguarding the environment and empowering women. On the other, continuing neglect of this sector could exacerbate economic and gender inequality and environmental degradation.

There’s no one-size-fits-all model but there are discernable trends in countries that have effectively tackled hunger and poverty in recent years. The top scorers in the HungerFREE Scorecard demonstrate that there is a broad package of policies which have a profound impact on reducing hunger. But first and foremost, these governments who have made progress have shown a high degree of political commitment, or have encountered strong pressure from voters and organised interest groups to tackle rural poverty and hunger. This has translated into strong state actions for pro-poor policies.

Interestingly, our top-performing countries have, to a greater or lesser extent, tended to eschew the dominant development model during the free-market era and retained (or sometimes later reclaimed) a central role for the state in supporting agriculture and guaranteeing food security. One of our top performing countries – Malawi – was actually penalised for non-compliance with World Bank and IMF policy prescriptions in agriculture. Some analysts have claimed that Vietnam’s spectacular development success was because it prioritised food security before opening up to further market-based reforms – directly opposing the World Bank orthodoxy.

Box 4: China vs. Africa: The role of agriculture in poverty alleviation and growth

An analysis of the divergent growth patterns of China and the continent of Africa as a whole makes for interesting reading.

In 1980 the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of China was slightly lower than Sub-Saharan Africa’s. By 1993, Chinese GDP per capita had surpassed Africa’s, while China had decreased poverty from 84 percent of the population in 1981 to 16 percent in 2005. During the same period poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa had remained deeply entrenched – sitting at 50 percent of the population, while the actual number of poor people had almost doubled.

So what explains these hugely different records? Recent research has pointed to the vital role that agriculture played in China’s initial take-off. China’s strong initial emphasis on agricultural growth was essential in reducing poverty. Agriculture was estimated to have contributed to poverty reduction four times more than growth in manufacturing or service sectors, thus creating astonishingly egalitarian and poverty alleviating growth through a high proportion of public investment towards the rural areas, during the early periods.

According to a recent report by IFPRI, Chinese agricultural policy reform “was driven by strong political will and relied on a gradual but consistent trial-and-error process”. In contrast to Africa, where agricultural policy-making was based on foreign paradigms, in China it was based “on evidence much more than on theory or ideology”.

The authors concluded that to sustain high levels of agricultural growth in Africa, reforms need to be designed to increase productivity by providing smallholders with incentives, such as securing land rights and strengthening markets for inputs and outputs. In addition, investments in rural infrastructure, such as rural transport and irrigation, need to be scaled up, and investments in agricultural research need to be not only increased but also tailored to Africa’s specific conditions, such as predominant rain-fed agriculture.

Box 4: China vs. Africa: The role of agriculture in poverty alleviation and growth

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State support for small farmers can partly be gauged by the portion of the budget spent on agriculture. In the HungerFREED Scorecard we have measured how much budget governments allocate to agriculture, using a figure of 10 percent (endorsed by the African Union in 2003 as a continent-wide target) as a measure of an adequate allocation to agriculture. The scorecard also judges donor countries efforts to support developing countries’ agricultural efforts (see page 91 for results and more details).

There is a mix of good and bad news on agriculture budgets. Governments are beginning to re-invest in agriculture, albeit from a very low base. Seven countries (Tanzania, Uganda, Senegal, Nepal, Pakistan, Vietnam and Haiti) improved their score on budgetary allocations to agriculture between last year and this year.

Malawi already spends way over its 10 percent target and has seen impressive results. Between 2005 and 2007, Malawi went from a food deficit of 43 percent to a food surplus of 57 percent as productivity increased two-fold. Maize production nearly trebled and food prices for the urban poor dropped, while the incomes of small farmers also rose because of increased productivity. Malawi’s economy has expanded at an average rate of 6.6 percent a year since 2004, largely as a result of agriculture.68

Rwanda has also massively increased its budget in recent years, through strong government commitment to agriculture and new social protection schemes. As a result, they are turning around hunger and poverty in the country. For example, Rwanda is set to meet the MDG target to halve child malnutrition just one year after the 2015 deadline - way ahead of many ‘wealthier’ nations.69

Rwanda’s recent gains are largely as a result of strong investment in agriculture. This progress was made possible by a new government policy which supports smallholders, with key tools and seeds, while expanding irrigation,70 placing ceilings on land ownership, and supporting environmentally sustainable production to tackle the endemic problems of soil erosion in Rwanda. This has led to a 15 percent rise in agricultural production in 2008 and 2009,71 and a doubling of maize yields.72

Thanks in part to resilient rural economies and farmers well supported to respond to price increases by planting more, all of these countries weathered the food and financial crises with relative ease, as strong agricultural output helped to mitigate for big losses in manufacturing and mining. Vietnam, Rwanda, and Malawi actually achieved small overall increases in GDP from 2008 to 2009, while Ghana held steady.

Unfortunately, many of the worst performing countries are still spending far too little to tackle hunger. For instance, while Pakistan has in fact doubled its budget since 2008, this is still only to a paltry 1.6 percent – a disgrace, given that nearly two-thirds of the population, and 80 percent of the country’s poor people, live in rural parts of the country and most of these rely on agriculture for their livelihoods.

Half of the African countries analysed in this scorecard allocated less than 5 percent of their budgets to agriculture. This is despite African governments’ commitment to spend 10 percent of their budgets on agriculture.

The kinds of services which governments provide with this budget can also be an indicator of the role that government spending will play in supporting poverty and hunger eradication. For too long agricultural policies have tended to focus on large-scale, commercial and export agriculture that is resource intensive. The emerging consensus is that more support should be directed towards smallholders.
Nonetheless, in reality, state programmes have not yet shifted to reflect a focus on the kinds of services most needed by smallholder - and especially women – farmers.

These include 'extension services', which provide a vital lifeline for poor rural and often remote farmers by giving specialised advice and training from ‘extension workers’ in rural areas, to help support their farming and improve their productivity (see page 83 - 84 for our indicators). Our scorecard also looks at the access that farmers have to these extension services. While precise statistics on access to agricultural extension are difficult to come by, our analysis shows that DRC and Burundi have very low rates of access, with Pakistan, The Gambia, Zambia, India, Lesotho and Liberia offering only slightly better access. Chinese and Vietnamese farmers have high levels of access to extension services - in the case of Vietnam, a strong system having been set up from central to communal level.

Growth in smallholder agriculture seems to be particularly effective in tackling hunger in countries with relatively fair distributions of land. Most of the rural poor depend on farm income, yet usually control little farmland. Women in particular suffer massive inequalities in accessing, owning and controlling the land they work, and women need therefore to be amongst the primary beneficiaries of land reform or distribution process. Existing laws and policies must also be implemented to ensure that women have equal access to land. Once smallholder farmers have acquired land, strong state support is required to assist them in developing their farms.

For instance, much of Vietnam’s success can be traced back to the Doi Moi reform process started in 1986, and the huge strides made in agriculture. Through equitable land redistribution to smallholders and huge government support channelled towards the smallholders who were allocated land, it brought income and food to some three-quarters of the population. Similarly, China brought in relatively equitable redistribution of land, followed by heavy investment in supporting poor farmers. As a result, it reduced the number of hungry by 58 million between 1990 and 2001.73

Unequal land distribution can also be a major contributing factor to hunger. For instance, in Cambodia, three out of five rural families are either landless or do not own enough land to meet their food needs.74
Productive support, via extension services, credit, land reform, and research and development, is only one part of the story. The other critical element is a complementary investment in social protection measures - for instance, food ration systems, pensions, child support, free school meals, employment guarantees - that reach the rural poor. As was amply demonstrated during the 2008-9 food and financial crises (see box 7), social protection schemes help cushion rural incomes in times of distress, minimising the reductions in calorie intake that would otherwise be unavoidable. It is not surprising, therefore, that such schemes have consistently produced significant improvements in both adult and child nutrition.75

Some programmes, such as guaranteed state procurement of a certain amount of smallholders’ output, subsidised credit, or seed and fertiliser subsidies, marry the two objectives (stabilising rural incomes and boosting production) in a single programme; the Overseas Development Institute, for instance, considers Malawi’s input subsidy programme as a form of social protection.

Over the longer term, social protection has multiple benefits. It can enhance the capabilities of the rural poor by promoting better education outcomes, which in turn boosts farmers’ productivity and thereby increases the effectiveness of investment in areas such as agricultural research, extension and credit. Noting that in Zambia social transfers are mostly spent on locally produced goods, Samson argues that “the transfer of purchasing power to remote rural areas holds the potential to revitalise local economies”.76 When social protection becomes statutory and universal, it acts as a redistributive mechanism, a way of permanently reducing inequality and poverty. In South Africa, for example, social transfers reduce the poverty gap by 47 percent.77

We have measured developing and developed countries on the level of coverage achieved on key dimensions of social protection. Unfortunately, far too few countries are prioritising their spending on these programmes (for more information see page 85 and 93). And although programmes are still tiny in most developing countries, twelve countries (Burundi, Ethiopia, The Gambia, Ghana, Kenya, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Uganda, China, Nepal, Pakistan, Guatemala and Haiti) improved their score this year for social safety net coverage, while only a handful went down.

Brazil, our overall chart topper, has expanded welfare coverage dramatically in recent years. Increases in the minimum wage and a national cash transfer programme have been introduced alongside subsidised credit and procurement programmes that support smallholder farmers.78 Taken together, these measures are widely recognised as having a positive impact on reducing extreme hunger and reducing inequalities.

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**Box 6: Brazilian Food Procurement Programme: fighting hunger and strengthening smallholders farmers**

Anchored in the Zero Hunger Programme launched in 2003, the Food Procurement Programme (PAA) in Brazil aims to guarantee access to quality food for food insecure populations, while promoting social inclusion in rural areas through the acquisition of products from smallholder farmers.

The purchase of food is guaranteed at a baseline figure in order to mitigate losses from market fluctuations. Currently, the PAA is paying up to 30 percent more than the current market value for agroecological products - a form of sustainable agricultural methods - from smallholder farmers.

The programme is a joint action of six ministries and includes actions such as direct purchase from smallholder farmer’s food for distribution or building of food stocks and encouragement of production and consumption of milk and the food acquisition for school meals’ supply.

During the periods of 2003 and 2007 purchases from smallholder farmers have benefited over 15 million people in food or nutritional insecurity. Also between 2003 and 2007, the number of family farmers who benefited from the programme more than doubled from 40 million to over 100 million.

The PAA is considered to be a groundbreaking programme and has been strongly shaped by the experiences of social movements and CONSEA (National Council on Food and Nutritional Security). Concerns remain that the policy could be disbanded with a new federal government. Brazilian Civil Society Organisations, including ActionAid, are defending the PAA as a policy which must be retained.

Box 7: Weathering the storm: Why and how some countries have lessened the impact of the food and financial crises

The reasons why some countries were able to come through the global food and financial crises relatively unscathed – and others not – are complex and multifaceted. However, the countries which have made huge gains in reducing poverty and hunger are often also the ones that have best-managed the impact of these crises on their populations. This appears to be through a combination of introducing policies to limit the initial impact of either the food or economic crises, or the expansion of pre-existing policies to better protect the poor.

China was largely unaffected by the global food price increase. Domestic food self-sufficiency allowed China to insulate its population from the effects, while it simultaneously ensured public distribution of essential food items and limited domestic speculation in food prices. At the same time it increased financial support for agriculture, allowing it to improve domestic food supplies despite global market volatility. As the economic crisis hit, China introduced a financial rescue package of a whopping 12 to 13 percent of GDP over two years and channelled much of that into various pro-poor policies. Along with other initiatives, this seems to have succeeded in increasing both demand for domestic produce and more general economic activity in China.

Vietnam has also weathered the global financial crisis surprisingly well due to the introduction of a stimulus package which accounted for 8.3 percent of GDP, and which was channelled towards supporting the poor to survive the storm. But historically strong government support for agriculture has also provided an important bulwark against the crisis. The high level of national food self-sufficiency has boosted resilience to high global food prices. Some urban migrants who lost their jobs have also returned home: having land and being able to grow food has enabled them to find alternative sources of income to survive the economic crisis.

In Brazil, social protection policies such as Bolsa Familia provided an invaluable safety net for a quarter of Brazil’s population, providing basic income support at a cost equivalent to 0.4 percent of the country’s GDP. The Brazilian government – like other Latin American countries suffering from the global economic slowdown – expanded the programme to include an additional 1.3 million families. One very positive aspect of Bolsa Familia – and other cash transfer programmes like it – is that, while rescuing millions of people from extreme poverty, it also turns them into consumers and helps stimulate local and regional economies. Other measures that contributed to keeping food prices and poverty levels in check included the increase of the minimum wage; providing greater access to jobs; and introducing a public food-stock system where produce was bought from family farms.

Historically, Brazil has huge inequalities, which has led to poverty levels inconsistent with the size of the economy. In order to tackle extreme hunger and poverty, the government put in place their ‘Zero Hunger’ programme in 2003, which aims to wipe out hunger in Brazil. It entails a comprehensive strategy with a total of 53 initiatives – such as child support grants, school meals and subsidized food – to support the vulnerable in accessing food and enhancing their food security. The Bolsa Familia programme, which provides cash transfers conditional on families meeting certain requirements such as school attendance, is benefiting 12.4 million families in poverty.

Alongside this, the government has also increased support to smallholder farming in an attempt to tackle the huge inequalities which exist in agriculture. The Brazilian government’s policies to support the sector include the National Programme to Strengthen Family Agriculture (PRONAF), which has granted 1.9 million cheap loans to smallholders. They have also supported farmers by committing to purchase their products. For instance, at least 30 percent of school meals across the country must be sourced from smallholder farmers (see Box 6). Other incentives include insurance against climate-related damages and a Price Guarantee Programme for Family Agriculture, which compensates farmers when prices fall below the cost of production.

These programmes have succeeded in making a big dent in rural poverty and improving the lives of smallholders. From 2002 to 2008 there has been a 37 percent reduction in poverty among smallholder farmers and an average income growth of 30 percent. Meanwhile, the farming middle class grew by 29 percent. And in spite of only owning small amounts of agricultural land - around 25 percent –smallholders are playing a vital role in producing food for the nation, producing around 70 percent of all the country’s food and accounting for around 10 percent of total GDP.

But despite these successes, more radical reforms will be necessary to further and deepen progress towards a more equal society. For instance, while the land reform process has also helped large numbers of poor people to access land, to date this has done little to substantially address a stubborn concentration of land in the hands of a few, with 1 percent of rural communities still owning 43 percent of the land.
A lack of state support to agriculture in many countries can be attributed not only to donor austerity measures and lack of government funding, but also to the weak political power of smallholder farmers to negotiate support needs. Organised citizens are vital for demanding a redistribution of power. Nowhere is this truer than in farming, where smallholder farmers tend to face numerous challenges to organisation, such as conflict, lack of funds, and age and gender discrimination. Many of the poorest farmers are unable to ‘demand’ services adequately, and are not organised in farmer groups. The cooperatives and producer organisations that used to give small farmers some organised voice in policy-making either no longer exist or have been much weakened in most countries, while the more organised and powerful voices representing commercial farming interests have tended to dominate discourse and policy-making.

A 2008 report by the Global Donor Platform for Rural Development on agricultural sector experiences in implementing the Paris Declaration, notes bluntly that “farmers and rural communities have been largely excluded from agricultural policy processes”, such as PRSPs, sector-wide approaches and donor joint assistance strategies.84

The decline of producer organisations for poor farmers coupled with the privatisation or abolition of key public institutions (such as marketing boards, agricultural banks, and extension services) has left them with little bargaining power to negotiate the market. As the state withdrew, global seed and fertiliser giants began to provide small-scale farmers with inputs, finance and extension services. The result? A vast concentration of seed and fertiliser companies made record profits, while poor farmers became increasingly dependent on expensive services, leading to heavy indebtedness and further marginalisation. At the same time, poor farmers’ insufficient organisation has left them squeezed on both ends. Unable to grow without expensive private sector ‘support’, they are also unable to negotiate a fair deal in the market for their produce.

Yet civil society organisations are not always the only representatives of pro-poor change. In some cases, the ideologies, priorities and sympathies of political elites drive pro-poor change, as seen in Malawi’s or Rwanda’s focus on smallholder farmers. Brazil is an interesting case of where both strong political will and civil society pressure have played a role in pro-poor change. The recent inclusion of the right to food into the Brazilian Federal Constitution – ensuring the legal guarantee, at the highest level, that no Brazilian should go hungry85 – was the result of a combination of strong commitment from President Lula, and many years of ardent campaigning and activism from within Brazilian civil society.

A basic prerequisite for citizens’ capacity to hold their governments to account is accurate information: knowing the obligations and promises for which the government is liable, what it is doing – or not doing – to meet its commitments, and how effective these actions are. This is why, in this year’s scorecard, we have included the status of right to information as an indicator.

At global level, an important step towards greater accountability for hunger was taken last year when the reformed UN Committee on Food Security was launched, with the aim of “coordinating global efforts to end hunger” and ensuring that “all relevant voices are heard in the policy debate on food and agriculture”. The CFS could become a key element in a genuinely representative global food governance system, but at the moment it is too much of a talking shop. It lacks sufficient powers to hold individual UN member states (or groups of states) accountable for actions undermining the right to food, and although its mandate includes “coordinating global efforts,” it has no means to coordinate global financing. For the CFS to succeed, it needs to be connected to a genuinely multilateral mechanism for reviewing national and regional anti-hunger plans and ensuring that the international community provides them with sufficient funds.
2.4 Failure to unlock the potential of women farmers

“I desperately needed to grow more food and raise extra money as my children were sent home from school because we couldn’t pay the school fees. It’s better working with others as we encourage each other and have more of an impact.”
-Liccy Nhkoma, 46, smallholder farmer, Rumphi district, Malawi

Across most areas highlighted in this HungerFREE Scorecard, governments and donors are failing to meet the specific needs of women. Women farmers must be helped to increase their productivity so that they can boost their families’ food security and produce a surplus to sell in local food markets. But gender inequities in the agriculture and land sectors are shockingly stark.

Women own only 1 percent of the land for which title exists. In the DRC, Zambia, South Africa, Rwanda and Sierra Leone, women’s ability to gain access and control over land is particularly limited. For example, even in South Africa where the constitution guarantees equal rights to men and women, ‘customary law’ is often invoked in rural South Africa to restrict land-ownership rights. Women may access land through their husbands, while single women are excluded because land is reserved for couples.

In most of the countries listed in the scorecard, even if women are able to secure land, they are often excluded from – or last in the line for - the assistance that would help them develop it, such as extension services, credit and subsidised inputs. Women farmers in Sub-Saharan Africa only benefit from 7 percent of farm extension services, and less than 10 percent of credit provided to farmers.86

Given that women farmers make up the vast majority of poor farmers, it is imperative that they be empowered and enabled to articulate their specific needs and that governments and donors begin to respond. Millions of poor women farmers would then be able to begin to raise themselves out of poverty, as well as challenging deeply entrenched gender inequities.

We have included in this year’s report a new measure of social institutions and gender, which enables some analysis of the institutional root causes of the exclusion of women from development (see page 88). Brazil, Cambodia, and Vietnam come score best in this area, while Sierra Leone, India, and Pakistan score the worst.

Box 8: One size certainly doesn’t fit all

The HungerFREE Scorecard includes a new sub-indicator measuring governments’ performance on collecting sex-disaggregated data, in this case in relation to key agriculture resources and services. We examined whether governments collect sex-disaggregated data on ownership of land; on the recipients of extension services; and on access to credit. The results were disappointing - even if not surprising - with only Guatemala, Brazil, Ethiopia and Nigeria collecting disaggregated data in all three of the areas.

Statistics on women’s yields, women’s technology adoption rates and women’s use of inputs are rarely reported, and there is invariably a lack of sex-disaggregated data. This increases the invisibility of women in the agriculture sector, despite the fact they constitute the majority of farmers in most countries. Lack of data perpetuates the prejudice - entirely unfounded in empirical fact - that women farmers are less efficient than men. Focusing agricultural policies on women means overcoming discrimination in access to existing resources, but also introducing new services and technologies that respond to the specific needs of women farmers. Whilst some of the constraints facing women are gender-specific and require separate interventions, much of what women farmers need is the same as what men need, and the policy challenge is simply designing and targeting these goods and services in ways that enable women to benefit equally. Through tools such as gender budgeting and collection, and monitoring of sex-disaggregated data, governments can make a big difference to the gender impact of their policies.

Sources: ActionAid International, 2010, “Fertile Ground: How Governments and Donors can halve hunger by supporting small farmers”.
“Everyone in this community perceives that the climate is changing – it is a critical issue for us as our lives are rain dependent. I am producing 50 per cent less than 5 years ago, mostly due to the erratic weather and lack of soil fertility.”
- Tesfa Garadew, 57, Amhara Regional State, Ethiopia

3 A world in crisis: A challenge to halving hunger

3.1 The food fuel and financial crisis: Impacts on poor people and responses by governments

The international food and fuel price crises, followed by the global financial crisis, have had profound effects on the poor in developing countries. This era of worldwide turmoil has also served as a rude wake-up call to leaders – with both negative and positive consequences.

A significant number of developing-country governments were prompted to review their food policies and to acknowledge that the dismantling of public support to agriculture through market reforms was a mistake. After a decades-long decline, both governments and donors are starting to reinvest in agriculture. Even before the food crisis, investments were on the up, with spending on agriculture by African governments actually doubling between 2000 and 2005. The food crisis also highlighted exactly how unreliable and costly imports can be, prompting countries such as Nigeria, Senegal, Tanzania, Bangladesh and India to develop new plans to become more food-secure, rather than relying on imports to feed the nation. Sadly, it took a food crisis, which had a devastating impact on poor people, to spur this action.

A far more negative result of the food crisis is that interest grew amongst both international governments and private investors in acquiring land in developing countries. In the case of governments, the intention has been use the land to grow staple food for their own populations; while investors use the land to grow agricultural commodities – such as biofuels - for export. This has lead to a spate of UN reports outlining fears of a new ‘land grab’ and of poor rural people being displaced from their lands. So far, however, the only international response is a relatively anodyne set of ‘guidelines’ drafted by the World Bank, which have been roundly condemned by the UN Special Rapporteur on the Right to Food, Olivier de Schutter for failing to offer any real protection to the poor.

In addition, the crisis led many to pose a new set of questions about the future: what is the appropriate role of governments in economic management? How and by whom should food prices be regulated? What steps have to be taken to ensure global food security in the medium term? Particular attention focused on the role of rampant speculation in food commodities, following on from the deregulation of much of the financial sector, including commodity trading, in the 1990s. Consensus has grown that speculation helped to bid up prices during the 2008 food crisis. The US legislature recently enacted widely applauded measures to re-introduce basic limits on commodity trading, but the European Union has so far done nothing. Talk of establishing virtual or real grain reserves at regional or global level to help buffer prices has proved similarly inconclusive.

The food crisis also helped to highlight the severe shortcomings of the current global food trading system. However, despite many earnest pledges by world leaders to get trade negotiations back on track, the OECD reports that subsidies for agriculture in industrialized countries grew in 2009, benefiting the largest companies and land owners. The dumping of these artificially cheap ‘food mountains’ in developing country markets continued apace during and after the crisis; when an oversupply of milk in the EU pushed prices down last year, dairy companies got subsidies from the EU instead of cutting production, and sold the resulting excess milk in African countries at prices that substantially undercut local producers. Meanwhile, through vehicles such as the EU’s Economic Partnership Agreements, rich countries continued to put pressure on their poor neighbours to cut their own tariffs and subsidies even further, leaving poor farmers completely vulnerable to the artificially cheap imports.
If little was done on the systemic causes of growing hunger, more notable were the funding responses. In 2009 G8 and G20 nations pledged a total of US$22 billion, over 3 years, to support developing country farmers and fight hunger. Very welcome in this step was the recognition that the key to solving the food crisis lies in investing in smallholder farmers. However, according to ActionAid’s calculation, only around US$6 billion of this is new money rather than re-cycled pledges – and it is still not clear how or when the money will be spent. In the midst of continued economic uncertainty – and with some donor countries slashing or at least freezing their budgets – there are serious concerns that the promised sums won’t be forthcoming at all.

Most worryingly, ActionAid has been unable to find proof of any overall increase in donor funds to the agricultural sector as a result of the L’Aquila G8 food security initiative, where commitments worth US$22 billion were announced. Even the overall, small absolute increase of US$6 billion (that is, not recycled pledges) is mainly made up of a plethora of other food-related spending – not funds earmarked exclusively for the agricultural sector. In addition, new money committed to agriculture by some countries is being offset by reductions in spending from other countries. For example, the US has made significant new pledges in aid to agriculture, but decreases by others - such as Japan and the EU - are pulling down the overall G8 record.

The US has made significant new pledges through the 2009 L’Aquila Food Security Initiative. Under the leadership of Barack Obama, the US commitment could see its aid to agriculture rising by an impressive 74 percent, along with a simultaneous tripling of support to nutritional programmes in the developing world. Obama has also sent good signals in terms of how the US intends to spend this money, with the US putting money behind country-led plans for agriculture.

Italy, at the other end of the spectrum, made a tiny pledge in line with its overall performance as one of the EU’s worst performers in terms of ODA levels - contributing just 0.16 percent of its GNI in 2009. And ActionAid’s calculations show that there is little evidence of additional funds from Italy at all, but rather a cut of funds to the tune of US$14.4m.

Hot on the heels of the food crisis, the world financial crisis struck. Although developing countries didn’t make this crisis happen, it has become all too clear that they are suffering its worst effects. Whilst banks in rich countries are back recording record-level profits again in 2010, the World Bank and IMF estimate that 114 million people in poor countries have been thrown into absolute poverty by the economic slowdown.
Moreover, the effects of the crisis are likely to persist in the developing world for years to come: poverty rates will be higher in 2015, and even beyond - to 2020 - than they would have been had the world economy grown steadily at its pre-crisis pace.90

Against this backdrop, many key donor countries, including Italy, Japan, UK and Ireland are either cutting overall aid budgets or dropping important pledges to the poor. In fact, in their 2010 Summit, G8 countries actually took a step backwards by failing to recommit to their 2005 aid commitments to increase aid.

Box 10: Country plans need external funding: The example of Rwanda

The endorsement of the CAADP process (see Box 5) by the G8 L'Aquila Summit has marked a shift in donor approach towards greater support for country-led plans. The launch of the Global Agriculture and Food Security Programme (GAFSP) in 2009 by Spain, Canada and the US also holds the potential to be a catalyst for a more effective approach based on country plans.

In 2010, GAFSP allocated new money for country-devised and - led agricultural development plans in five countries - one of which was Rwanda. Despite making strong commitments towards their agricultural sector and being one of the first countries to sign a CAADP compact, Rwanda has been struggling to fill the ‘financing gap’ in their plans and are desperately in need of donor support.

With 82 percent of households relying on agriculture for the majority of their income being poor, this will help Rwanda to continue economic growth and poverty reduction. Rwanda has made leaps forward in just a few short years, through strong government commitment to agriculture. As a result, they are turning around hunger and poverty in the country. This led to a 15 percent rise in agricultural production in 2008 and 2009, and a doubling of maize yields. This, in turn, has led to a sharp decrease in food insecurity and strong economic growth.

Not only is this new money significant as representing increased funding, but also for how this funding is being spent. Fortunately for Rwanda, some of these funds will be supporting its pre-existing plans. For instance, the US is due to give more support to Rwanda’s plans to tackle soil erosion and irrigation, among other things, and will be massively increasing funding to back up Rwanda’s existing plans.

3.2 Hunger for resources is competing with food for the poor

“I don’t have a farm and I don’t have a garden because the only land that I have has been destroyed by a bio fuels company. We are suffering from hunger but I am giving up because even if I managed to find some other land to farm, I am certain that they would just destroy it.”
- Elisa Alimone Mongue, 42, Mozambique

As discussed above, the massive overconsumption of energy and other environmental resources in the North is becoming a major cause of hunger in the developing world. It is for this reason that ActionAid chose to rank developed countries on their records on climate change and biofuels, as well as through their support to agriculture and social protection measures in the developing world. We are thus judging which countries are ‘giving with one hand, while taking away with another’.

As our scorecard indicators on climate change (see page 97) and biofuels (see page 95) illustrate, developed countries are failing spectacularly to curb their excess appetites for resources.

Box 11: Tackling hunger in a globalising world: The emergence of the BRICs

China’s food security is under threat: it has an ever-growing population; will have to manage the effects of climate change; and has only 7 percent of the world’s arable land, over a million hectares of which is lost annually to pollution and desertification. Whilst China’s response to look overseas for its food production is one obvious solution, this move is causing much unease about the negative impact it could have on host countries. China has begun to put down substantial agricultural roots in Africa. It has pledged US$800 million to modernise agriculture in Mozambique’s agricultural infrastructure, and it is estimated there are over 1 million Chinese farm labourers across the continent. It has an agricultural policy on outsourcing food production and is said to have signed some 30 land deals in different parts of the world. Whilst some argue that China has not secured land leases as aggressively as it could, the policy of land-leasing is attracting fear from those worried either that this is a form of ‘neo-colonialism’, or that the food security of host nationals will be jeopardised through deals that are vague and lacking in clear guarantees of benefits. There is also concern that China’s heavy investment in biotechnology over the last 2 decades will lead to the spread of a technology that is not the most appropriate for its millions of smallholders.

Brazil’s influence is also expanding but in a different way, as evidenced by President Lula da Silva’s July tour of six African nations in which he expressly declared Brazil’s commitment to help Africa build a future of stability and development. Brazilian aid is focused not only in infrastructure, but also on social programmes and agriculture.

The Brazilian Co-operation Agency (ABC) has a small budget of 52m reais (US$30 million) but it is estimated that Brazilian development aid broadly defined could reach US$4 billion a year - less than China, but similar to generous donors such as Sweden and Canada.

One clear objective of Brazil’s involvement in foreign countries is to develop the global biodiesel industry and market. Given the problems associated with biofuels production (see pg 95), African countries should consider adopting Brazil’s biofuels’ blueprint with caution. On the more positive side, it is exciting to see Brazil exporting its successful hunger reduction conditional cash transfer systems, such as Bolsa Familia, such as has happened in Mozambique.

Climate change is set to have a devastating impact on agricultural productivity – meaning that the livelihoods of rural populations will become increasingly challenging. Climate-driven water scarcity and increases in the severity of droughts and floods are already affecting food production, especially in subsistence sectors. In the last few months alone, floods have hit Pakistan leading to severe national food shortages; while droughts across Russia have led to a global spike in food prices. These events are in line with climate change predictions – a clear warning of the tragic impacts it could have on hunger.

Smallholders, pastoralists and artisanal fisher folk will suffer complex and localised effects of climate change. In the developing world the impacts could be colossal: yields from rain-fed farming in some African countries could fall by up to 50 percent by 2020, and by up to 30 percent in some central and South Asian countries by 2050, according to the IPPC. Agriculture therefore has the potential to be part of the solution or part of the problem. So, what can be done and what are rich countries doing about it?

Preventing the most dangerous climate impacts will require rich countries to reduce their emissions of greenhouse gasses by at least 40 percent below 1990 levels by 2020. Our scorecard (see page 96) shows that only the UK, with a pledged 34 percent cut, and Norway (30 percent) come close to this. The countries at the bottom have targets so low they’re almost farcical, with the US, Australia and Canada setting targets which range from 3 to 4 percent, while Japan doesn’t have any targets.

We have also considered developed countries’ actual emissions since 1990. Only Finland has reduced emissions sufficiently, although Norway, the UK, Portugal, France and Germany are close. Going backwards – fast – is Ireland.

Rich countries have also amassed an enormous ‘climate debt’ through their historical greenhouse gas emissions, which will now prevent poor countries using cheap, fossil-fuel intensive pathways out of poverty if the climate crisis is to be contained. Developing countries, which are often on the front-line in the battle against global warming, will require large amounts of external public finance to adapt to climate change, combat deforestation and move to low-carbon pathways out of poverty.

**Box 12: IAASTD and sustainable agriculture**

Numerous studies show that sustainable and smallholder agriculture can increase yields significantly. It uses relatively low levels of agro-chemical inputs, which cost farmers less, and protects and enhances the environment. For both poor farmers and the environment, this is a win-win situation. Many farmers’ organisations have been championing this approach for some time: often their voice is drowned out by those with market interests. But better-organised smallholders, more able to negotiate in the market and to demand supportive services, could be key to building much-needed, more sustainable alternatives.

The IAASTD – the result of four years of research and consultations involving 400 experts and civil society – has now been endorsed by 58 countries. The report calls on policy-makers to acknowledge the negative environmental externalities of conventional agriculture, to learn from existing agro-ecological initiatives and to look at integrated solutions for agriculture that include social rather than expensive and heavily-patented technologies. It argues for a massive push to develop and scale up low-input and organic farming methods - with a particular focus on working with women and building on local and traditional knowledge. It recognizes that achieving food security and sustainable livelihoods for people now in chronic poverty requires ensuring access to and control of resources by small-scale farmers. And, it emphasizes that fair trading regimes are imperative to changing the status quo.

Agriculture, as practiced today, accounts for nearly 14 percent of greenhouse gas emissions annually and land use change (including deforestation to develop agricultural land) contributes another 19 percent of global emissions. In this scorecard we have given countries recognition for signing up to the IAASTD. However, signing is not enough: governments must outline how and by when they will implement the IAASTD’s recommendations.

No global estimate can ever be 100 percent precise. However, calculations by the UNDP on adaptation and by researchers at the European Commission on mitigation conservatively suggest that developing countries will need at least US$182 billion a year of public finance by 2020 in addition to existing aid commitments.93

Rich countries that have largely caused the climate crisis are so far doing little to pay for the true costs of their pollution. Our scorecard shows that so far not a single country has managed to fund more than 5 percent of their fair share of the US $200 billion needed. The US, Greece, Japan, South Korea, Austria and Belgium are the worst offenders. Given climate change’s serious impact on food security, countries such as the US, which are emerging as champions in the fight against global hunger, need to match the level of ambition shown in the L’Aquila pledges to passing legislation with a binding emissions target and committing extra funds to meeting the adaptation and mitigation needs of developing countries.

Agriculture is now also recognised as contributing to climate change. Farming accounts for as much as 32 percent of greenhouse gas emissions.94 Previous strategies to intensify production have relied on fossil fuels, irrigation, chemical fertilisers and pesticides. The cost is counted in exhausted and eroded topsoils, scarce water, irrigation-induced salinisation, water systems polluted by pesticide and fertiliser run-off, and reduced biodiversity. In this new era of climate change and resource scarcity, efforts to increase agricultural production must go hand in hand with environmental sustainability. In particular, there is a need to massively scale up research, development and farmer support programmes promoting low-input, climate resilient farming methods such as agro-ecology and organic farming. To date, sustainable agriculture has received relatively little backing from governments. The HungerFREE Scorecard also judges developed countries on their support to IAAASTD (the International Assessment for Agricultural Knowledge, Science and Technology for Development), the result of four years of research and consultations involving 400 experts and civil society which has now been endorsed by 58 countries (see Box 12) and its emphasis on shifting towards more sustainable agriculture.

To make matters even worse, in their quest to reduce oil dependence without having to cut energy consumption, the rich world is supporting ambitious plans to scale up biofuel consumption. The US and EU have established ambitious targets for increased biofuel consumption, and are supporting biofuel producers with generous subsidies and tax breaks. This puts pressure on food prices as well as land use.

Industrial biofuels are currently made from maize, wheat, sugar cane and oil seeds such as palm oil, soy and grapeseed. Rapidly rising demand for biofuels during 2007-8 was a major factor driving food prices higher, and affecting what and how much people ate in developing countries. As oil prices start rising again, biofuel demand could again place significant pressure on food prices – accounting for as much as a 15 percent increase in the price of staples by 2020, according to the OECD.

The biofuels boom also contributed to ‘land grabbing’ (see Box 8) through a mushrooming of dubious biofuel projects across the developing world. In just five African countries, 1.1 million hectares have been given over to industrial biofuels – an area the size of Belgium.95 All of the biofuel produced on this land is for export. EU companies have already acquired or requested at least 5 million hectares of land for industrial biofuels in developing countries – an area greater than the size of Denmark.96

ActionAid estimates that, to meet the transport element of recently agreed EU Renewable Energy Directive (much of which will be filled by biofuels), some 30 to 40 million hectares of crop land would be required by 2020 to meet this demand - half of which would be in developing countries.97

In the scorecard we have measured the biofuels blending targets that developed countries have set themselves, which are policies to achieve an increase in ethanol and biodiesel consumption in transport fuels. These targets are invariably set against a timetable; for example the UK currently has a blending target of 5 percent biofuel by 2013/2014.

Portugal has the highest blending target of 10 percent, followed by the US (8.25 percent), Germany (6.25 percent) and France (7 percent). Australia and Denmark perform particularly well with low targets of 0.4 percent and 0.75 percent respectively.

The evidence now shows that industrial biofuels are having negative impacts on people, farmers and workers, as well as on hunger. In addition, although sometimes promoted as ‘green’ alternatives, many biofuels cause more greenhouse gas emissions than the fossil fuels they are designed to replace, thus adding to the problem of climate change.98 Clearly, as the main plank of a policy to substitute transport fuel, biofuels are failing in the fight against climate change, and will compound hunger and poverty for the poor in the future.

To stop this trend, rich countries must place a moratorium on the further expansion of industrial biofuel production and end targets and financial incentives for industrial biofuels.
Conclusions and recommendations

With the hunger MDG threatening progress in other areas of poverty reduction, now more than ever we need bold and ambitious plans to tackle hunger. Small farms must be absolutely central to this battle against hunger and poverty, while also putting in place social protection measures to meet the needs of the most vulnerable.

To meet the MDG1 goal of halving hunger, developing countries and developed countries must:

1. **Massively scale-up spending on sustainable agriculture and social protection to halve hunger by 2015**

   As part of the MDG review process developing countries and their donor partners need to agree national MDG 1 ‘rescue plans’, backed by costed, time-bound actions and firm financing commitments by both governments and donors. Rescue plans should be based on pre-existing national agriculture and food security plans, but must expand and scale up these plans to the level of ambition and financing needed to achieve the UN hunger goals. Globally, at least US$40 billion per year in additional resources is needed to achieve the necessary scaling up of national action, of which at least US$20 billion (or about three times the amounts pledged for food security at the 2009 G8 summit) must come from donors.

   It is particularly important that governments and donors scale up national action to:

   - Support poor people to farm their way out of poverty. New research by ActionAid and our experience through field work has pointed to specific areas which governments and donors should focus on:
     - Meeting the unmet needs of women farmers, and improving women’s control over land and other agricultural resources.
     - Reversing the decline in extension services, which are vital for providing information and support to smallholders.
     - Providing affordable credit to small farmers. Public credit is almost non-existent in many countries yet is central to enable small farms to flourish.
     - Expanding programmes that encourage and support climate-resilient, low-cost farming such as community seed banks, water harvesting, soil conservation, land reform, organic fertilizer, and research and development focused on low-input methods.
   - Expand social protection programmes to regenerate rural economies and ensure that households don’t fall into hunger when prices rise or harvests fail.

   In addition, the international community must provide a firm guarantee that no good national plan for achieving the MDG hunger targets will fail for lack of financing. Donors must urgently announce a timetable for the disbursement of the full US$7bn per year pledged for food security at the 2009 G8. More importantly, those currently falling short of their fair share must announce plans for increasing their contributions, in order to bring total donor funding for agriculture and food security to the minimum US$20bn per year required. A global partnership between developed and developing countries should be established to ensure that all sound national plans receive the full amount of external funding required, in a timely and coordinated manner.

2. **The international community must tackle the above-national causes of hunger**

   - Developed countries must commit to a reduction of at least 40 percent of emissions by 2020 in order to keep temperatures below the danger zone of a 1.5 degree increase in temperatures.
   - Rich countries need to increase their climate financing pledges to cover the minimum US$200 billion needed annually in developing countries, ensure their funding is new money (that is, doesn’t reduce other aid), and specify a source.
   - The European Union and United States must eliminate targets and subsidies for biofuel production, which directly undermine food security.
   - All signatories to the IAASTD report should develop timebound plans for implementation of its recommendations, particularly through the re-orientation
of national and international research and development spending.

- All UN member states should enact binding regulations on cross-border land deals that threaten food security. (please look up exact language used in AAI position)

- The international community should further strengthen and empower the FAO’s Committee on Food Security, enabling it to hold individual countries or groups of countries accountable for actions that undermine food security, and linking it to a bigger global partnership that reviews and assesses national anti-hunger efforts and matches them to adequate international funding.

- The European Union should follow the United States by introducing measures to regulate trading in food commodities in order to curb excess speculation.

- Rich countries must end the dumping of over-subsidised agricultural commodities on developing country markets, and must review and revise trade agreements to allow developing countries to protect staple crops.
Section 2 - HungerFREE scorecards: Developing countries
Country: **Bangladesh**

Leader: **Prime Minister Sheikh Hasina Wazed**

Overall Score: **44/100**

Overall Grade: **C**

Overall Rank: **6/28**

**Remarks:**

Bangladesh is on track to meet the MDG1 hunger targets and ranks sixth in this year’s HungerFREE Scorecard. Bangladesh’s high ranking reflects the progress it has made in reducing hunger amongst its population from 36 percent to 26 percent since 1990. However, the impact of the food and financial crises (not factored into the projections) may mean that Bangladesh could be knocked off track to meet the MDG1 hunger targets.

Bangladesh’s impressive reduction in hunger levels is however relative – the country started from very high rates of hunger and malnutrition. Today around 65.3 million Bangladeshis still do not have sufficient food to eat. This is around half of all Bangladeshis. In addition to this, the child underweight rate is highest in South Asia and one of the highest in the world.

Although Bangladesh has reached near self-sufficiency in food production, rice production in Bangladesh will fall by about 3.9 percent each year due to climatic change.

Land is a critical issue in Bangladesh: about 60 percent of farmers are functionally landless and farm sizes are too small to support a family. One percent of arable land is being lost each year due to climate change and urbanization. Women’s rights to land are particularly constrained. Wide scale introduction of sustainable agriculture and land reform is therefore urgently needed.

The government responded to the food crisis with a large stimulus package for agriculture, and a large scaling up of its social safety net programmes, accounting for 12.58 percent of the national budget in 2009/10. Employment generation programmes will now need to be significantly expanded as part of the government’s forthcoming Food Security Investment Plan.
**HungerFREE Scorecard**

**Country: Brazil**

Leader: **President Luiz Inácio Lula da Silva**  
Overall Score: **58/100**  
Overall Grade: **C**  
Overall Rank: **1/28**

**Remarks:**

Brazil tops the HungerFREE scorecard for the second year running for the remarkable progress made in tackling hunger. Brazil has more than halved the number of underweight children in less than 10 years\(^\text{110}\) and is on track to halve hunger levels before the 2015 deadline.

Brazil, under the leadership of the Lula Government and through concerted pressure by civil society organisations, has enacted a number of progressive pro-poor policies in recent years. The cornerstone of this is the ‘Zero Hunger’ programme,\(^\text{111}\) designed to wipe out hunger in Brazil through a comprehensive strategy - involving 53 initiatives - to enhance food security.

One of these is the Bolsa Familia programme, which benefits 12 million families in extreme poverty through an income transfer, helping them to access education, healthcare and social protection.

In early 2010 the Brazilian Congress inserted the right to food into the Federal Constitution as a fundamental right, ensuring the legal guarantee that no Brazilian should go hungry.\(^\text{112}\) This is a victory for those who campaigned hard for its inclusion.

The government has also begun investing much more in smallholder agriculture.\(^\text{113}\) However, there is still a long way to go to end hunger and to address huge historical inequalities between smallholders and large scale farming. For example, Brazil has tended to focus on investment in agribusiness, which has contributed to a concentration of land in a small number of hands. Only 1 percent of all rural establishments own 43 percent of the land.\(^\text{114}\)

However, the current policies are beginning to reduce inequality overall.\(^\text{115}\) Brazil has reduced the number of people living in extreme poverty from 21 million in 2003 to 8.9 million in 2008.\(^\text{116}\)

The Brazilian government however must avoid promoting biofuels at the expense of food security, with biofuels expansion pushing up land prices and converting crops to fuel.
**HungerFREE Scorecard**

**Country: Burundi**

Leader: **President Pierre Nkurunziza**  
Overall Score: **16/100**  
Overall Grade: **E**  
Overall Rank: **27/28**

**Remarks:**

A shocking 63 percent of Burundians are hungry.\(^{117}\) Despite some recently reported improvements, over the long-term proportions of hungry people and the number of children underweight have steadily increased.\(^{118}\) There is currently no sign of Burundi reaching its MDG 1 targets. As a result, Burundi languishes near the bottom of the scorecard report, with only the Democratic Republic of Congo scoring lower.

Many of the causes of hunger reported in 2009 persist: fragile political stability, poor governance and the legacies of 13 years of civil war, which destroyed communications and social infrastructure, health facilities and homes – and damaged livelihoods. Burundi has the second-highest population density in Africa, with a high rate of population growth and stagnant agricultural production.\(^{119}\) This continual state of crisis is being compounded by the return en masse of refugees to the country.

In addition, 2009 increases in the prices of potatoes and beans have made things worse still: 75 percent of families report consuming smaller meal portions and reduced meal frequency than in the previous year.\(^{120}\)

Promisingly, in 2009 the government signed the Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Programme (CAADP) agreement to invest 10 percent of its budget in agriculture. However, this budget has remained static at 4.9 percent, with no apparent improvements in extension services, access to credit or irrigation schemes.

State social protection measures are largely absent. There is currently no state minimum employment or living standards guarantees, little maternal nutritional entitlement, and nothing in the way of food rations or cash transfer schemes. The patchy school feeding programme covers about 15 percent of enrolled primary students. Scaling up social protection measures is vital for tackling malnutrition, as is investment to achieve agriculture-led development.
Country: **Cambodia**

Leader: **Prime Minister Hun Sen**

Overall Score: **38/100**

Overall Grade: **D**

Overall Rank: **12/28**

**Remarks:**

Cambodia rises to 12th place in this year’s HungerFREE Scorecard due to its progress towards the MDG1 goal of halving hunger. Emerging from decades of civil conflict and economic stagnation, Cambodia has over the past 10 years managed to reduce both the proportion of underweight children and undernourished people in its population.

However, uneven wealth creation in recent years has left as many as 2.6 million (mostly rural) people living in extreme poverty, a situation worsened by climate shocks and consequent poor harvests, as well as food price rises and the global economic downturn. Consequently, hunger remains high, with recent estimates categorizing 40 percent of its children as chronically malnourished, among the highest rates in Asia.

The government is failing to support the worst hit rural communities. To ensure that Cambodia builds on its progress on hunger reduction so far, it must give increased support to poor rural communities and address inequalities. Farmers urgently need extension, credit and input supports to grow their way out of poverty. The rising phenomena of rural debt must be addressed before it becomes a crisis.

Smallholder farmers also urgently require secure property rights. Three out of five families in rural Cambodia are either landless or do not own enough land to meet their food needs; land-grabbing and forced evictions are worsening the situation. Around 3 million hectares are claimed to have been allocated as Economic Land Concessions by the government, some at very low concession rates and without adequate compensation.

Between 2007 and 2008 the price of rice rose a 100 percent. The financial crisis hit Cambodia’s tourism, garment and construction industries hard – and women have been worst affected. The limited government response saw no intensification of formal social safety net provisions: under 1 percent of Cambodia’s GDP is estimated to go towards funding a social safety net. A comprehensive social safety net system is urgently required to replace the current fragmented and uncoordinated interventions.
Country: **China**

Leader: **President Hu Jintao**

Overall Score: **57/100**

Overall Grade: **C**

Overall Rank: **2/28**

**Remarks:**

China comes in 2nd place on our HungerFREE scorecard, with an impressive poverty and hunger-tackling record. It has managed to meet both the MDG hunger targets, halving its hunger and child malnutrition rates ahead of the 2015 deadline.

This has been coupled with extraordinary successes in reducing poverty with a four-fold reduction between 1980 and 2005, from 835 million to 208 million people,\(^\text{131}\). Poverty levels among the Chinese have thus been slashed from 84 percent to 15 percent.\(^\text{132}\)

The agricultural sector has played a central role in these achievements. Research suggests that investment in smallholder agriculture has had four times more impact on poverty alleviation in China than the growth in manufacturing or service sectors. From the 1980s, the government invested heavily to support smallholders and poor farmers, as well as undertaking a relatively equitable redistribution of land. As a result, the number of hungry fell by 58 million between 1990 and 2001.\(^\text{134}\)

China has weathered the world food and financial crises remarkably well. Domestic food self-sufficiency, along with increased financial support for agriculture, has left it largely unaffected by the global food price increases.\(^\text{135}\) In addition, the government has introduced various pro-poor policies, providing support to urban migrants and increasing the existing pension and unemployment benefits.\(^\text{136}\)

However, there are potential threats to China's current successes. Some predict that China will no longer be self-sufficient in food production as early as 2030 because of climate change.\(^\text{137}\) The Chinese government has responded to such predictions with a number of new measures, some of which are themselves potential causes for future concern – such as its research into the viability of introducing GMOs,\(^\text{138}\) and China’s policy of buying arable land in hunger-vulnerable countries.

**Indicator** | **Grade** | **Comment**
--- | --- | ---
Hunger | B | Low hunger levels
Legal framework | E | No right to food legislation
Smallholder agriculture | B | Medium budget to agriculture
Social protection | E | Low social protection
Gender equality | B | Medium gender equality
HungerFREE Scorecard

**Country:** Democratic Republic of Congo

**Leader:** President Joseph Kabila

Overall Score: **11/100**

Overall Grade: **E**

Overall Rank: **28/28**

**Remarks:**

The Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) scores woefully low in almost all categories on the HungerFREE Scorecard and is rated as the worst-performing country. With over 76 percent of its population chronically hungry, the DRC has the worst hunger statistics in the world and is nowhere near meeting its hunger MDGs.\(^{139}\) In fact, its hunger levels are increasing rather than diminishing, having more than doubled since 1990. Acute malnutrition is endemic in some parts of the country.\(^{140}\)

While conflict in the DRC has officially ceased, violence - especially against women - continues to plague the east of the country,\(^{141}\) where living conditions are exceptionally poor. Agriculture and food security cannot thrive in such precarious conditions. Despite abundant arable land suitable for farming, it is estimated that only 1-2 percent has so far been cultivated.\(^{142}\) If this desperate situation is going to be turned around, the government must make agriculture a priority, allocating it an adequate share of the budget. Further, it must ensure that women have secure access to resources such as land, credit, water, transport and markets.

More direct government intervention to protect its people from hunger is needed. Food prices remain high and volatile in many areas, particularly as up to 95 percent of food is imported,\(^{143}\) whilst Congo’s resource-based currency has slumped. Government must invest more of its revenue gained from the mining sector to support small farmers, and help to diversify the economy. While there is much land available to cultivate, the DRC also has vast rainforests that must be sustained and protected from threats, such as foreign investors who lease the land from the government, using it to grow biofuels or disruptive export crops.
HungerFREE Scorecard

Country: Ethiopia

Leader: President Meles Zenawi
Overall Score: 40/100
Overall Grade: D
Overall Rank: 10/28

Remarks:

Ethiopia has already met the target of halving the proportion of hungry people in the country from a massive 71 percent in 1990 to 44 percent in 2005, putting it at 10th place in the scorecard this year.

However, undernourishment (around 40 percent), stunting (46.9 percent) and child-underweight levels remain stubbornly high, resulting in Ethiopia being unlikely to meet both of the 2015 MDG1 hunger goals.

About 85 percent of Ethiopia’s population of approximately 80 million works in agriculture and its economy is largely dependent on agricultural product exports and foreign aid (25 percent of the budget). The government allocates a significant portion of its budget to agriculture, especially if the amount allocated locally is included. The increased expenditure in this sector over the past few years is beginning to pay off in increased production.

The government responded to the food crisis and a drought with safety nets (its Productive Safety Nets Program), subsidized food imports, and fertilizer imports. Launched in 2005, the PSNP provides subsidies for food and fertilizer imports, and provides 7 million Ethiopians with food or cash. Yet 5.2 million Ethiopians still require relief food assistance in 2010, despite these recent efforts to inject investment in agriculture and collaborate with donors to provide social protection. Food price inflation also remains too high. While the PSNP has staved off further hunger and impoverishment, improvements in living standards have been too slow, and further support is needed.

The government must continue to boost its spending on agriculture.

Gender equity remains a problem in the agricultural sector, with five times more men than women owning land. Further, men’s plots are on average 56 percent larger than women’s. The country’s legal framework protecting food rights also continues to be inadequate.
Country: **The Gambia**

Leader: **President Yahya Jammeh**
Overall Score: **28/100**
Overall Grade: **D**
Overall Rank: **24/28**

**Remarks:**

The Gambia is way off track for meeting the MDG1 hunger goal; in fact it is going backwards at a worrying rate. Hunger in The Gambia has risen by almost 50 percent from 1990 – 2005, with 29 percent of the population now undernourished according to the FAO.\(^{164}\)

With good weather conditions replacing the droughts of the last few years, 2009/10 cereal production was 51 percent higher than the previous five years.\(^{165}\) However, the country’s high import dependency (approximately 50 percent\(^{166}\)) continues to hamper The Gambia’s food security, especially at times when the Dalasi is low.\(^{167}\) The reduction of budget allocation to agriculture to 3.4 percent in 2010 is disappointing, particularly given the signing of The Gambia’s CAADP compact in late 2009 and The Gambia’s commitment to raise agricultural spending to ten percent.\(^{168}\)

It is hoped that the launch of The Gambia National Agricultural Investment Plan will give a boost to agriculture.\(^{169}\) Whilst The Gambia is keen to invite foreign investment to its agriculture sector\(^{170}\) it must not forget to support its own small farmers who make up 70-80 percent of the workforce in The Gambia, especially its women farmers.\(^{171}\) The investment plan also cannot substitute for an overarching and operational agriculture strategy and policy, which is desperately needed to get the agriculture sector on its feet.

The Gambian government also needs to strengthen constitutional rights to food, and given its high rates of hunger, develop a much needed social protection policy for the country.
Country: Ghana

Leader: President John Atta Mills
Overall Score: 46/100
Overall Grade: C
Overall Rank: 5/28

Remarks:

Ghana has shown the possibilities for dramatic progress in tackling hunger and poverty. As far back as 1999, Ghana met the target for halving hunger; it is also the only country in Africa to halve poverty levels, meaning they have met all their MDG1 commitments way ahead of the 2015 deadline.\(^{172}\) Hunger levels have dramatically reduced from over 30 percent of the population in 1990 to only around 9 percent of the population.\(^{173}\)

Consistent agricultural growth and long term investment in agriculture, with a focus on smallholder agriculture, have played an important role in the fight against hunger in Ghana. So too have initiatives such as the school feeding programme.\(^{174}\) The country is now committed to expanding the school feeding programme to cover over one million pupils by the end of 2010, while ensuring that local procurement for school meals supports local farming communities.\(^{175}\) However, there are concerns that they will miss the 2010 target.

In spite of this enviable progress, Ghana must not become complacent. There is the need to support smallholder farmers in areas such as adaptation to climate change, while increasing overall spending on smallholder agriculture.\(^{176}\) And pockets of hunger still exist, especially in the poorer northern regions.

Meanwhile, biofuel companies are grabbing up land in Ghana and threatening food security, mainly in the poorer northern areas, where the greatest hunger already exists. The government must tackle the issue of land to protect the rights of small holder farmers.\(^{177}\)

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<th>Indicator</th>
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<td>Gender equality</td>
<td>B</td>
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</table>
Country: **Guatemala**

Leader: **President Álvaro Colom Caballeros**
Overall Score: **42/100**
Overall Grade: **C**
Overall Rank: **9/28**

**Remarks:**

Guatemala’s recent establishment of social protection schemes, along with its early introduction of right to food laws, has resulted in a relatively high scorecard ranking in 2009; ninth place. Their achievement of part of MDG 1 goal in halving the number of underweight children by 2004 further boosts their score this year.

However, in recent years the hunger situation in Guatemala has got worse. Sixteen percent of the population were hungry in 2006, up on the 1990 figure of 14 percent. According to a recent survey the percentage of children under 5 years of age with chronic malnutrition is 43.4 percent of whom 16.1 percent had acute malnutrition. The years 2009 and 2010 have been particularly painful with drought causing famine in the country’s ‘dry corridor’ and leaving 350,000 families on the brink; whilst Hurricane Agatha, in May 2010, caused further widespread crop devastation. Guatemala still has the fourth highest rate of chronic malnutrition in the world and the highest in Latin America and the Caribbean.

Hunger in Guatemala tends to be chronic, young, rural and indigenous with women often bearing the brunt. Progressive social protection schemes like ‘Mi Familia Progresa’, a cash transfer scheme for poor families, and the national school feeding programme, currently reaching about 70 percent of schools, are going some of the way to addressing historical inequalities. However, these need to be seriously scaled-up to reach the most vulnerable indigenous communities. The possibility of scaling-up social protection will require the implementation of redistributive tax policies.

Guatemala needs a comprehensive rural development strategy, land reform and investment in small-scale agriculture. Historical inequalities of land ownership remain, leaving the rural, indigenous poor to struggle for access to productive resources whilst labouring on low wages. Biofuel expansion and land-grabs further threaten availability of arable land for those who most need it.
HungerFREE Scorecard

Country: Haiti

Leader: President René Préval
Overall Score: 30/100
Overall Grade: D
Overall Rank: 20/28

Remarks:

In addition to the massive loss of life, the devastating earthquake that hit Haiti in January 2010 further compounded the food insecurity crisis in the country. Approximately 69 percent of families living in large camps set up after the natural disaster suffer from food insecurity, along with around 58 percent of the rest of the population. It is little wonder that Haiti languishes in 20th place on the HungerFREE Scorecard and is not expected to meet the MDG deadlines. At current rates, Haiti won’t halve hunger levels until 2064.

The worst of the high food prices crisis seems to have passed. However, rice, wheat and beans are still predominantly imported, leaving Haiti’s food security vulnerable to international price fluctuations and exchange rates.

The displacement of over 600,000 people from earthquake-affected areas has increased the strain on rural households, and affected the sustainability of agricultural practices already compromised by decades of neglect. Urgent steps must be taken to get agriculture working again - such as land redistribution, and improved irrigation and seed security - to support the 75 percent of the population who rely on agriculture for their living. Sadly, the agriculture section of the Humanitarian Appeal is currently only 40 percent funded, but the government’s increased budget allocation to agriculture should represent some relief.

The provision of food to nutritionally vulnerable people needs to be rapidly scaled up through nutrition programmes, the expansion of food and cash-for-work activities, and school feeding programmes.
HungerFREE Scorecard

Country: **India**

Leader: Prime Minister Manmohan Singh  
Overall Score: **30/100**  
Overall Grade: **D**  
Overall Rank: **21/28**

**Remarks:**

Around one quarter of the world's population who are deprived of food live in India. With the number of hungry people having increased between 1990 and 2005 by about 53 million, it is predicted that India will not have halved hunger until 2083 - nearly 70 years after the MDG target date. The government estimates that 43 percent of children under the age of five are malnourished. It is not surprising, therefore, that India remains in 21st place on the HungerFREE Scorecard.

The resurrection of the National Advisory Council (NAC) to design and implement the proposed National Food Security Act (NFSA) has provided fresh impetus in the battle to combat this agrarian and malnutrition crisis. However, urgent reform of the Public Distribution System is needed to ensure food grains are equitably distributed throughout the country. The National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, plagued by payment delays and penalties, also needs to be improved to ensure that those supposed to benefit from it have better access to food.

Food prices have remained high in India and continue to rise due to constrained supplies after last year’s poor rains, the lowest in almost four decades. The agricultural sector’s growth is expected to continue to be negative in 2009-10. Massive long-term public investment is needed, particularly in agricultural research, extension services and irrigation. Land reform would likewise help to reduce hunger, since small and marginal farmers operating on less than 2 hectares each constitute 84 percent of all farmers in the country. The government must also stop promoting corporate ‘land grabs’, which are dispossessing traditional resource-dependent communities from their livelihoods.
Country: **Kenya**

Leader: President Mwai Kibaki  
Overall Score: **37/100**  
Overall Grade: **D**  
Overall Rank: **16/28**

**Remarks:**

In recent years Kenya has suffered a series of severe food crises caused by a combination of drought, food price hikes and conflict. Despite recent minor reductions in overall hunger figures - due to rains returning late in 2009 - the country remains miserably off track to meet its MDG 1 targets. For example, on current trends it will not halve hunger until after 2124. In addition, nearly 4 million Kenyans were still in need of food assistance in early 2010.

To sustain the recent drop in hunger, the government of Kenya urgently needs to implement effective hunger policies and to address underlying problems, including a lack of investment in agriculture, and a fragmented and contradictory legislative and policy framework. The draft National Food and Nutrition Policy must urgently be finalised and approved by the cabinet.

More promisingly, a National Land Policy has been passed guaranteeing women stronger land ownership rights and protecting community land interests. The new constitution has also been successfully amended to strengthen women’s rights, including land rights and the right to food.

Kenya is now signed up to the Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Programme (CAADP) agreement and aims to achieve 7 percent growth in the agricultural sector over the next five years. But while the government claims to have doubled its investment in agriculture in 2008 (to 8 percent of the national budget), there remain big questions as to whether the budget is focusing on sustainable agriculture, and concerning the divergent ministerial agendas which were included in the 8 percent figure. The actual budget allocation to agriculture is estimated to be nearer to 3.6 percent. Increased funding to the ministry of water and irrigation will also not solely be directed at agriculture, as it includes spending on urban and rural household water supply systems.
Country: Lesotho

Leader: Prime Minister Pakalitha Mosisili
Overall Score: 28/100
Overall Grade: D
Overall Rank: 23/28

Remarks:

Ranking at a low 23rd in the scorecard, Lesotho’s food security situation has worsened over the past years. The number of undernourished children under the age of five is on the rise (17 percent) and between 400,000 and 450,000 people were estimated to require food aid at the beginning of 2010 – around a quarter of the country’s population. Lesotho is not on track to meet its MDG commitments on hunger.

Food production in Lesotho has been shrinking for years due to erratic weather causing prolonged dry spells, soil erosion and the expense of inputs for farmers; while HIV has weakened farming communities in a country with one of the highest rates of infection in the world (estimated at 22 percent). Falling maize production has resulted in arable land remaining fallow: the FAO estimates half of the country’s arable farmland is lying idle. Reduced maize growing is exacerbating hunger as poor families are forced to purchase even more of their food needs – at a time when food prices are also high and household income is falling. The country imports around 70 percent of its food, making it particularly vulnerable to food and fuel price hikes.

With the majority of its 1.8 million people depending on farming, the country needs a serious shake-up of food and agricultural policy. This year’s establishment of a cross-departmental government taskforce to develop an investment programme for the agriculture sector, in collaboration with the World Bank, IFAD and FAO, promises to mobilise resources to ensure long-term hunger eradication. However budget allocation to agriculture remains exceptionally low at 2.2 percent.

In 2010 the government reiterated its commitment to social protection for older people and orphaned and vulnerable children, but overall social protection still remains very modest in a country increasingly affected by hunger.
Country: **Liberia**

Leader: **President Ellen Johnson-Sirleaf**
Overall Score: **30/100**
Overall Grade: **D**
Overall Rank: **18/28**

**Remarks:**

Liberia’s government is making serious efforts to combat long-term hunger and poverty, reflected in its slightly higher ranking, 18th place, this year.

With 70 percent of Liberians relying upon agriculture for their livelihoods, it is positive that agricultural development is at the heart of the country’s Poverty Reduction Strategy. Government pledges to raise agricultural production have already increased rice production from 85,000 metric tons in 2006 to over 200,000 in 2009, leading to the World Food Programme for the first time purchasing local rice for its school feeding program.208 However given the country’s fertile lands more is possible and the government must increase budget allocations to agriculture, currently at just 2.2 percent, to achieve further impact.

A zero-tolerance policy on corruption, restarting of industry and increased inward investment are also greatly welcomed, as are land reforms which give Liberians greater confidence to plant and invest in previously disputed lands. But although legislation grants equal ownership rights to men and women, implementation has been slow and discrimination persists.209

Liberia remains one of the world’s poorest countries.210 The protracted civil war destroyed agricultural systems and livelihoods. Today high unemployment prevails and although the proportion of people facing hunger has dipped slightly to 38 percent, at current rates it will be 2028 before Liberia can halve the number of underweight children under the age of five.211 The government must ensure that exploitation of natural resources and agricultural development benefits all Liberians, not only investors.

ActionAid especially hopes to see increased support to smallholder farmers to improve their access to resources, reliable markets, processing facilities and marketing structures. Social protection programmes to prevent malnutrition and further emergency safety net distributions are also needed.
Country: **Malawi**

Leader: **President Bingu wa Mutharika**

Overall Score: **47/100**

Overall Grade: **C**

Overall Rank: **4/28**

**Remarks:**

Malawi has been repeatedly heralded as a success story for its remarkable progress in tackling hunger. It met the MDG target of halving hunger in 2009 and is on track to halve child malnutrition by 2013. For a country working its way out of crippling hunger and poverty, this is a remarkable record and sees Malawi ranked at number four in this year’s HungerFREE Scorecard.

The number of people requiring food aid has been reduced from over 4.5 million in 2004 to less than 150,000 in 2009. This progress has been made possible through strong political will and effective strategies for tackling hunger.

The government allocated 11 percent of its 2010-2011 budget to agriculture, bettering the 10 percent target set by the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP). It has developed further plans to build sustainable farming practices in the 2010 budget, with provision made to irrigate up to one million hectares along Malawi’s rivers and lakes.

Malawi has also been developing a Right to Food Bill, which is now ready to go to cabinet for adoption. However, the Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security needs to champion this critical bill more forcefully to ensure that it is swiftly approved by cabinet, so that the right to food is guaranteed for future generations.

Sadly, amidst all these successes, localised food shortages have been experienced this year. While the government has well-stocked grain reserves thanks to surplus production, it still faces challenges in distribution.
**HungerFREE Scorecard**

**Country: Mozambique**

Leader: **President Armando Guebuza**  
Overall Score: **42/100**  
Overall Grade: **C**  
Overall Rank: **7/28**

**Remarks:**

Mozambique has been doing consistently well for years in tackling hunger and poverty. According to FAO estimates, it met the MDG target to halve hunger in 2009. However, reducing child malnutrition is proving more difficult: it is not expected to reach the MDG target until 2029.\(^{222}\)

In response to rapidly rising prices during the food crisis, the government introduced a plan to increase agricultural production between 2008 and 2011 to reduce Mozambique’s future vulnerability. It has increased investment to fund this vision, this year committing 10 percent of the budget to agriculture (in line with the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme’s (CAADP) target).\(^{223}\)

Food production grew by about 11 percent in 2009\(^{224}\) and 2010\(^{225}\). Given the importance of the agricultural sector in Mozambique, this has been a major driver for overall economic growth.\(^{226}\)

Investment in irrigation still needs to be improved, however: only one percent of the country’s arable land is irrigated.\(^{227}\)

Meanwhile, the social protection strategy is being expanded to reach more than the current 150,000 people – a vital step, with over half of its 22 million people living below the poverty line.\(^{228}\)

A draft bill on the Right to Adequate Food is due to be submitted to the government for approval by the end of 2010. The right to food has also been placed at the centre of the National Food and Nutrition Security Strategy for 2008-2015.
Country: **Nepal**

Leader: **Prime Minister Madhav Kumar Nepal**
Overall Score: **38/100**
Overall Grade: **D**
Overall Rank: **14/28**

**Remarks:**

Although it is one of the poorest countries in the world, Nepal has made some progress since 1990 in reducing the proportion of its population who are undernourished - resulting in its promotion to 14th place in this year’s HungerFREE Scorecard. However, it is still not on track to meet all the MDGs: it is not expected to halve the number of underweight children until 2051.

In 2006, Nepal emerged from a decade of armed conflict. Ongoing political insecurity affects every sector of Nepali society, including agriculture. Moreover, changing weather patterns - expected to cause more frequent droughts - are leaving farmers with reduced yields, increased debt and an inability to properly feed themselves.

Hunger is concentrated in the Far and Mid-Western Hill and Mountain Regions.

Investment in agriculture must be boosted and small-scale farmers need to be supported with subsidized inputs and extension services, for example. The constitution - once it is finalized - is likely to affirm the human right to food and livelihoods.

Inequalities of caste and gender need to be reversed. Women’s ownership of land, necessary for family food security, currently stands at a dismal 10.8 percent. The announcement of an ‘Employment Guarantee Programme’ to address the needs of the poor is a progressive step – but legislation has been stalled. The old-age allowance programme, although universal in principle, needs to expand its reach in practice.
Country: **Nigeria**

Leader: **President Goodluck Jonathan**
Overall Score: **38/100**
Overall Grade: **D**
Overall Rank: **13/28**

**Remarks:**

Nigeria ranks 13th on HungerFREE’s developing country scorecard - but for a country endowed with such rich and fertile soils and Africa’s largest oil reserves, it should be doing much better. It continues to struggle to feed its 140 million people, while 26 percent of its children are malnourished. Shockingly, Nigeria is not expected to meet the MDG target to halve child malnutrition until 2025.

Nigeria’s investment in agriculture has been low for decades. But the food crisis acted as an impetus for the government to commit to reinvesting in agriculture and meeting the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme’s (CAADP) target of 10 percent of national budgets going to the agricultural sector. However, after raising the agriculture budget last year, the government slashed spending on agriculture in the 2010 budget, reducing it to a paltry 3.6 percent of the total.

What little money is going to agriculture remains poorly targeted, with only 13 percent of all land irrigated and very few extension services available. Nigeria has boundless agricultural potential, with more than half the country’s arable land lying fallow. The irony is that Nigeria imports large amounts of its basic food needs, while it could potentially grow enough to be self-sufficient.

Nigeria must also take steps towards tackling child malnutrition levels by introducing more social protection schemes. At present it has a small cash transfer scheme which could go much further to cushion the worst impacts of the global economic crisis.
Country: **Pakistan**

Leader: **Prime Minister Yousaf Raza Gillani**

Overall Score: **26/100**

Overall Grade: **D**

Overall Rank: **25/28**

**Remarks:**

Widespread food deficits and sharply rising prices have seen an estimated 17 million more people join the ranks of the 60 million Pakistanis who are already food insecure – adding up to almost half of the country’s population. With national food prices still significantly higher than the pre-2008 food-crisis levels, and with the recent catastrophic floods destroying millions of hectares of crops, Pakistan’s food situation continues to look desperate. It sits in 25th place on the HungerFREE Scorecard.

Unequal land distribution is a major contributing factor to hunger in Pakistan, with only 50 percent of farmers owning their farms. Initiatives such as the Sindh Province’s commitment to distribute land to 80,000 poor and landless peasants, especially women, represent a major step in the right direction. However, such programmes must be scaled up and replicated in other provinces. Civil society has had to fight the government’s corporate agriculture farming policy, which could have seen 9.14 million hectares of land going to corporations instead of the landless who need it most.

The government allocates a miniscule 1.6 percent of its budget to agriculture, despite most of the rural population relying on it for their livelihoods. Farmers can only hope that the Task Force on Agricultural Reforms, set up in June 2010, will take the country closer to an agricultural policy that will enhance future food security for Pakistan’s hungry.

The country is desperately in need of a comprehensive system of social protection. With the exception of the Benazir Income Support Programme - whose budget was doubled for 2009-2010 with the aim of reaching 5.5 million families - Pakistan’s social security system is piecemeal and comprises of small pilot initiatives.

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HungerFREE Scorecard

Country: **Rwanda**

Leader: **President Paul Kagame**
Overall Score: **39/100**
Overall Grade: **D**
Overall Rank: **11/28**

Remarks:

Through strong government commitment to agriculture and new social protection schemes, Rwanda has made impressive progress in a short space of time in reducing levels of hunger and poverty. For example, it is set to meet the MDG target to halve child malnutrition just one year after the 2015 deadline - way ahead of many 'wealthier' nations.

The green shoots of agricultural recovery are thanks to increased investment in agriculture, which rose by 30 percent between 2007 and 2009. Consequently, the country has seen a 15 percent rise in agricultural production in 2008 and 2009, with yields doubling in maize. This has led to sharp decreases in food insecurity and strong economic growth – even amidst the economic crisis hitting other sectors, such as mining.

This progress was made possible by a new government policy which supports smallholders with crucial farming tools and seeds, while expanding irrigation and supporting environmentally sustainable production methods to tackle the endemic problems of soil erosion in the country.

As one of the world’s most densely populated landlocked countries, and with the vast majority of agriculture taking place on eroding hillside soil, these steps have been vital to Rwandan progress. It is this progress which has seen Rwanda climb-up HungerFREE’s scorecard rankings this year to 11th place. However, there’s still a long way to go for this country emerging from civil war and desperate poverty levels, and even greater levels of investment will be necessary to build on these gains.

Meanwhile, a new pension scheme and public works programme are set to reduce poverty even further. The public works programme will offer those living in poverty guaranteed employment of 100 days annually.

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HungerFREE Scorecard

Country: Senegal

Leader: President Abdoulaye Wade
Overall Score: 36/100
Overall Grade: D
Overall Rank: 17/28

Remarks:

The reduction in the proportion of hungry people in Senegal is nowhere near what is needed to meet the 2015 halving hunger target, with current projections indicating Senegal won’t meet the goal until 2060.

Senegal was one of the countries hardest hit by the food prices crisis in 2008 (experiencing a 112 percent price surge), due to the fact that it imported nearly 80 percent of its rice. President Wade responded by announcing price controls on grains and subsidies for staple food. He also launched an ambitious agricultural plan: the Great Offensive for Food and Abundance (GOANA). It aims to make Senegal self-sufficient in rice and other staples by 2015 through irrigating and cultivating unused land near the Senegal River, and by heavily subsidising the cost of fertiliser, seeds and pesticides.

This, along with favourable weather conditions, has contributed to an increase in production for two consecutive years. Although this is a move in the right direction, only 5 percent of budget is allocated to agriculture; much more could be done if this was increased. The GOANA project has also been criticised for primarily benefiting companies.

Access to land is also a major concern for smaller farmers, with some 350,000 hectares having been assigned for the production of biofuels and the prospect of overseas investment companies buying huge swathes of land, in order to produce crops for their domestic markets.

A lack of social protection measures and legal protection for the right to food are areas which Senegal must also now tackle if it is to turn around its desperate hunger situation and lift itself above eighteenth place in the HungerFREE Scorecard.
HungerFREE Scorecard

Country: Sierra Leone

Leader: President Ernest Bai Koroma
Overall Score: 25/100
Overall Grade: D
Overall Rank: 26/28

Remarks:

Still recovering from its 10-year civil war, about 29 percent of the population in Sierra Leone remains hungry.258 The rate of underweight children (under 5 years old) is 31 percent and rising.259 With overall hunger rising too, it is slipping further and further away from the MDG1 Hunger target. Sierra Leone this year moves even further down the HungerFREE Scorecard to 26th place.

Sierra Leone is still a net rice importer,260 with imports accounting for around 40 percent of food needs.261 However, prospects for farmers are looking up. Sierra Leone has signed its Comprehensive African Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) compact and launched the National Sustainable Agriculture Development Plan (NSADP), which aims to eradicate poverty and increase economic growth through agriculture-based development.262 A Presidential Task Force has also been formed to supervise the implementation of CAADP in Sierra Leone.263

The government has allocated 9.9 percent of its budget to agriculture for 2010. However, as not all of this was spent on agricultural programmes, others suggest that around 7.1 percent was spent on ‘core’ agricultural activities.264 Additional contributions from international donors and the Global Agriculture and Food Security Programme should help to transform rural communities and to support small-scale farmers.265

The government’s review of its land policy is a welcome step.266 With around 1.5 million hectares of land currently being negotiated in various parts of the country for lease to foreign investors,267 it is critical that the review process is not delayed.

Ongoing weaknesses include the lack of extension services for small farmers.268 Sierra Leone also has little in the way of welfare schemes to assist those going hungry. Social protection is limited to small or pilot programmes (such as the Social Safety Net Programme), and it must urgently complete its draft policy for social protection.269
**HungerFREE Scorecard**

**Country: South Africa**

Leader: **President Jacob Zuma**  
Overall Score: **29/100**  
Overall Grade: **D**  
Overall Rank: **22/28**

**Remarks:**

Far from meeting MDG targets to halve hunger by 2015, hunger levels are increasing in South Africa. National surveys show that up to 18 percent of South African children live in households where hunger is reported.²⁷⁰ This is simply unacceptable in a country of such relative wealth. The country ranks 22nd in the HungerFREE Scorecard.

South Africa’s package of social welfare policies – including pensions and child support grants – needs to be complemented with greater support for agriculture. Some tentative steps have recently been taken.²⁷¹ In the last two years, the government has begun to increase spending in rural economies and has shifted the agricultural policy’s focus to the needs of poor smallholders.

Additional funding has been committed to some of the areas with the highest concentration of poverty - mostly in the former apartheid ‘homelands’, where 60 percent of today’s rural population live. This is a significant step towards tackling poverty and hunger in rural areas.²⁷²

However, there is still a long way to go before budget support to smallholder farmers can be described as adequate. Also extremes of land distribution inequality continue to perpetuate extreme levels of poverty. This issue needs to be addressed.

With the country still feeling the pinch from the global financial crisis and with food prices rising sharply in 2010,²⁷³ South Africa must urgently take stock of its agricultural policies and place the sector as a central pillar in the fight against poverty and hunger.
Country: Tanzania
Leader: President Jakaya Kikwete
Overall Score: 37/100
Overall Grade: D
Overall Rank: 15/28

Remarks:

With 44 percent of its population undernourished Tanzania is wildly off track to meet the MDG goal of halving hunger, putting the country in 15th place in the HungerFREE Scorecard. Nearly one in four children under five is underweight.

In August 2009 the government introduced the Kilimo Kwanza (Agriculture First) policy that outlines strategies for the transformation of the country’s agricultural production into a modern and commercial sector by 2015. Its ambition is to enhance agricultural production in order to increase household incomes and food security for the 80 percent of the population which depend on agriculture for their livelihood. The government needs to ensure that the policy and legal environment remain supportive of Kilimo Kwanza regardless of the outcome of the elections in October 2010.

It is critical that strategies which are being introduced to enhance agricultural production and commercialize the sector do not undermine the effective implementation of other policies such as the Village Land Act of 1999, aimed at ensuring that poor rural communities have secure ownership to land.

The promotion of biofuel production has attracted a large number of investors who have acquired large tracts of land suitable for production of food crops. The Tanzania investment centre has identified about 2.5 million hectares of land as ‘suitable’ for investment projects and by 2009 almost 640,000 hectares had been allocated for biofuel production. But these investments must be judged on their food security and human rights merits. Tanzania needs to put in place a policy and legal framework to regulate these investments to protect the interests of the people who currently depend on earmarked lands for their livelihoods.
HungerFREE Scorecard

Country: Uganda

Leader: President Yoweri Museveni
Overall Score: 42/100
Overall Grade: C
Overall Rank: 8/28

Remarks:

Uganda ranks eighth in the HungerFREE Scorecard, in recognition of the fact that Uganda has come some way to reducing hunger since the MDGs baseline year of 1990. However, progress has not been enough and despite rapid economic growth many Ugandans are yet to see the benefits. In 2009 37 percent of households surveyed were not able to provide enough food for themselves at some point in the year, with government figures estimating that 17.7 million were food insecure in 2007, up from 12 million in 2002. Women are especially affected – a massive 69 percent of female-headed households are hungry. Child stunting has declined, but still affects over a quarter of all children under five. Climate change, conflict and a lack of agricultural support have left areas in the North and North-East of the country severely food insecure. Uganda’s developing but still very weak social protection programmes need to be scaled-up to address these emergencies.

Whilst agriculture employs 73 percent (83 percent women) agricultural budgets have remained low for decades and growth in agricultural output has declined from 7.9 percent in 2000/01 to 0.7 percent in 2007/08. Despite the government’s commitment to allocating 10 percent of the national budget to agriculture, and its growing recognition of agriculture’s role in poverty reduction recently agreed five-year expenditure plans allocate only between 4.6 - 6.6 percent to the sector. Yet if Uganda was to achieve the 6 percent growth in target set by CAADP, an additional 2.9 million people would be lifted above the poverty line by 2015. But to do so, Uganda needs to nearly triple its present agricultural growth rate.

Agricultural programmes must also reach smallholder and subsistence farmers and avoid perpetuating the discrimination of these groups, especially given the ongoing climate change challenges facing these farmers. Uganda must also ensure that revenues from its emerging oil production are invested in food and agriculture programs, and that regional mineral trade and conflict does not destabilize the region.

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Who’s Really Fighting Hunger 2010?
Country: **Vietnam**

Leader: **Prime Minister Nguyễn Tấn Dũng**

Overall Score: **51/100**
Overall Grade: **C**
Overall Rank: **3/28**

**Remarks:**

Vietnam claims a well-earned 3rd place on the HungerFREE Scorecard, having progressed in leaps and bounds in tackling hunger and poverty. It met the MDG target of halving hunger in 2004 and halved the number of underweight children in 2007 – years ahead of the global 2015 target. Progress on tackling underweight in children has been particularly remarkable, with rates plummeting from close to 45 percent in the early 1990s to fewer than 20 percent today.286

Poverty reduction rates have been equally impressive, falling from around 60 percent in the early 1990s287 to a predicted 10 percent this year.288 This represents more than a three-quarter drop in poverty levels in just over 15 years.

Much of Vietnam’s economic success has been driven by a flourishing smallholder rural sector, whose origins can be traced back to the ‘Doi Moi’ reform process started in 1986. Through equitable land redistribution and huge government support for smallholder farmers, it has made a significant impact on overall poverty reduction levels.289 The government has rolled out a number of schemes that focus on extreme poverty in poor households, while introducing favourable credit schemes for farmers and establishing a strong system of extension services.290

Vietnam has weathered the global financial crisis surprisingly well, through a mix of pre-existing policies and a ‘pro-poor’ stimulus package. New measures introduced include cash transfers to low income households, increased unemployment coverage and the protection of migrant workers who have lost their jobs, as well as ongoing support to agriculture.
Country: **Zambia**

Leader: **President Rupiah Banda**  
Overall Score: **30/100**  
Overall Grade: **D**  
Overall Rank: **19/28**

**Remarks:**

The number of hungry people in Zambia is on the increase, and it is impossible to say when the country will reach the MDG 1 target of halving extreme hunger. Nor is Zambia scheduled to meet the target to halve the number of underweight children until 2027. Zambia therefore takes a disappointing 19th place in the HungerFREE Scorecard.

The Zambian government needs to put in place a number of new policies in order to tackle this growing hunger. First and foremost, they must detail a long term plan to increase budgets to meet their CAADP commitment, which they signed this year, and focus investment on smallholders. Zambia has very low extension coverage to support smallholder farmers and needs to move beyond subsidies towards a package of support to enable them to grow more. With 70 percent of population involved in smallholder farming, this investment could boost the economy as well as reverse hunger trends.

The Zambian government also needs to put in place more social protection measures. Coverage of social protection is very low, especially for a country with such high levels of hunger.

A comprehensive, national hunger eradication strategy is also needed to create coherent initiatives across all ministries responsible for nutritional support, social protection and agriculture. Meanwhile, the rejection of the inclusion of the right to food in its new constitution needs to be re-thought – a move which would have guaranteed greater political will and policies to deliver on hunger eradication. Zambia could do well to look to their neighbours in Malawi, who mustered the political will – even with a low-resource base – to drastically reduce hunger.

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Section 2 - HungerFREE scorecards: Developed countries
Country: **Australia**

Leader: **Prime Minister Julia Gillard**

Overall Score (Aid): **46/100**  
Overall Grade (Aid): **C**  
Overall Rank (Aid): **8 / 23**

Overall Score (policy): **42/100**  
Overall Grade (policy): **C**  
Overall Rank (policy): **7/23**

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<td>Climate change</td>
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**Remarks:**

**Australia continues to lag behind in the fight to end global poverty and hunger. Despite a commitment to raise aid levels to 0.5 percent of Gross National Income by 2015-16, the government has failed to set a clear timeline to reach the internationally agreed 0.7 percent target.**

Australia is also struggling to develop a credible climate policy and remains one of the world’s worst carbon polluters per head of population. The government’s commitment to a binding target of 4 percent reduction of carbon emissions by 2020 against 1990 levels falls far short of the targets of comparable developed countries and will do little to halt dangerous climate change that will severely undermine food security in the world’s poorest communities. Australia must commit to cutting carbon emissions by 40 percent by 2020 against 1990 levels. The country must also pay its fair share of climate adaptation in developing countries, estimated at $5.7 billion by 2020 - over and above existing aid commitments.

To its credit, Australia was one of a small number of countries to commit additional funds to agriculture to help address the global food crisis as part of the L'Aquila food security initiative. It is hoped that this is a sign of Australia committing to raise its agricultural aid from its currently low fair share levels.

Australia’s resistance to the so-called Robin Hood Tax is highly regrettable. The tiny tax on global financial market transactions could provide billions towards additional overseas aid and climate change adaptation programs. Australia’s delegation at the most recent G8/G20 meeting in Toronto played a key role in removing the tax from the meeting’s agenda.
HungerFREE Scorecard

Country: **Denmark**

Leader: **Lars Løkke Rasmussen**
Overall Score (Aid): **37/100**
Overall Grade (Aid): **D**
Overall Rank (Aid): **14/23**
Overall Score (policy): **55/100**
Overall Grade (policy): **C**
Overall Rank (policy): **2/23**

### Remarks:

For years Denmark has helped set international standards on aid giving by contributing more than 0.7 percent of its GNI in aid. Disappointingly, this year the Danish government froze aid levels leading to a projected drop from 0.88 percent in 2009 to 0.76 percent in 2013, undermining the previous political consensus to maintain aid levels above 0.8 percent.

Denmark is at a crossroads in terms of its efforts to fight hunger. The country is not a signatory to the 2009 L’Aquila initiative to fund agriculture and does not have a specific strategy on the role of food security in development. There is an opportunity for the government to make agriculture a key focus for its emerging strategies on private sector growth and employment in poor countries, but it remains to be seen whether the result will favour big agri-business and export-oriented initiatives rather than smallholder farmers, local food security initiatives and sustainable agriculture practices.

Initially it appeared that Denmark might lead the way on finding other renewable energy sources other than biofuels, as a source of clean energy. However it now seems that Denmark may be going for high biofuel targets in the transport sector.

Failure to reach a binding agreement at COP15 has caused Denmark to lay low on climate change policies in 2010. However, in late September the Danish climate commission will provide input to a new climate change strategy. Denmark continues to count climate adaptation funds within Overseas Development Aid - ignoring the necessity for new and additional funds to tackle the climate challenge.

Denmark could also use its leadership in fighting for gender equality (including their high profile global campaign running up to the MDG summit) to bring attention to the need for investment to overcome persistent economic discrimination against women farmers.
**HungerFREE Scorecard**

**Country: France**

Leader: **Prime Minister Bruno Le Maire**

Overall Score (Aid): **50/100**

Overall Grade (Aid): **C**

Overall Rank (Aid): **2/23**

Overall Score (policy): **37/100**

Overall Grade (policy): **D**

Overall Rank (policy): **12/23**

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**Remarks:**

The French government scores relatively well on the HungerFREE Scorecard, reflecting the attention that it has given to food and agriculture during, and in the wake of, the food crisis. Having championed a new global governance for food and agriculture, and promoted ambitious reform of the FAO Committee for Food Security, President Sarkozy has since been calling for the regulation of investment in agriculture to prevent land grabbing. The French presidency of the G20 and G8 will be an occasion for France to push for global regulation of food commodity markets, but it is still to be seen how much President Sarkozy will show leadership on food and hunger - and in particular if it will use the opportunity to push for the delivery of the L’Aquila $20 billion.

France scores highly on the ODA ranking. It is giving 44 percent of its fair share of ODA to agriculture – but still needs to double this to be giving what the UN estimates is needed. France has also given new money to agriculture through L’Aquila, a welcome commitment to tackling agriculture and food security in poor countries, however France’s contribution could be much more substantial. France must do a lot more to target its aid at women.

France’s record in terms of policies that exacerbate hunger is not so great. France scores well on climate because it is making some progress towards reducing emissions in comparison to others. However, all donors in reality score poorly on climate change – and more action and finance is needed across the board. France’s policy on land grabs also shows contradictions. Whilst Agriculture Minister Bruno Mayordenounces the ‘predatory’ actions of land grabbers in the South, the French government is aggressively supporting high biofuels consumption in Europe, which is leading to vast tracts of land being bought up in the South.

President Sarkozy is also defending in particular the EU’s Common Agricultural Policy which destabilizes agricultural production in developing countries. Hungry women and men farmers in the South can’t eat on France’s fine words: they require real and concrete changes in its agricultural and food policies.
**HungerFREE Scorecard**

**Country: Greece**

Leader: **Prime Minister George Papandreou**
Overall Score (Aid): **15/100**
Overall Grade (Aid): **E**
Overall Rank (Aid): **21/23**
Overall Score (policy): **37/100**
Overall Grade (policy): **D**
Overall Rank (policy): **13/23**

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**Remarks:**

Greece is currently immersed in a deep economic and financial crisis and the unfortunate consequence of the political discourse being highly focused on domestic fiscal and social issues is that global hunger and poverty are being even further de-prioritised. Aid figures have been severely cut and Greece is going backwards in terms of its ODA targets. Aid in constant terms in 2009 decreased by 12 percent compared to 2008 due to the contraction of the national economy and now sits at a very low 0.19 percent of GDP in 2009.

Despite the government’s commitments to make aid more efficient and effective, there haven’t been any changes yet to Greek development practices. Greece only gives 13 percent of its fair share of aid to agriculture and food security and is not coordinating with other donors in this area, hence its very poor score in this area.

In 2010, a committee was established to consider how Greece will meet its EU 2020 renewable energy targets. Unfortunately, Greece has set higher biofuels targets than hoped: the use of biofuels in transport is expected to rise from 1.4 percent in 2007 to 5.75 percent in 2010. With slow emissions reductions- and a zero fair share contribution to the finance needed for developing countries to adapt to climate change – Greece has a long way to go to become a serious stakeholder in the global efforts to resolve climate change and its devastating impacts.

Greece urgently needs to revise its development policies and establish transparent mechanisms to ensure that even its reduced contribution supports the poorest people in the poorest countries. It is more urgent than ever to re-evaluate the allocation of funds so as to keep its commitment in the fight against hunger.
Country: **Ireland**

Leader: **Taoiseach Brian Cowen**

**HungerFREE Scorecard**

**Overall Score (Aid): 41/100**

**Overall Grade (Aid): C**

**Overall Rank (Aid): 10/23**

**Overall Score (policy): 36/100**

**Overall Grade (policy): D**

**Overall Rank (policy): 15/23**

**Remarks:**

Ireland remains a vocal champion of hunger eradication driven by its prioritization of the issue nationally. Ireland’s political commitment to the issue of food and hunger has helped steer the global response in the wake of the food price crisis.

In the wake of the financial crisis which hit Ireland badly, the country has decreased its aid in 2009 to €718, down from €921 in 2008. This means that Ireland now gives 0.54% of its gross national income (GNI) as overseas development assistance (ODA). Ireland has also pushed back its deadline for meeting its 0.7% ODA commitment from 2012 to 2015.

Ireland gives around half of its fair share contribution to the global amount needed to fund agriculture and food security in poor countries, but has not given new money to agriculture via the L’Aquila Initiative launched in 2009. Ireland is the second highest donor to social protection – an area that is seriously underfunded by other donors – but this is still a low amount of around 25 percent of its fair share. Ireland is committed to using the OECD DAC gender marker for its ODA allocations, however this reveals that only a very small proportion of aid is targeted towards women and gender priorities.

Ireland scores less well on the areas that are having negative impacts on hunger. It has now set a target to increase biofuel consumption in transport to 4% despite warnings of its effects on global hunger.

In 2009, Ireland’s carbon emissions were down by around 15%, however this was mainly due to the financial and economic crises and emissions will go up again once economic activity picks up. Indeed, Ireland is performing very poorly on reducing emissions against the 40 percent emissions reductions needed to tackle climate change. Ireland likewise needs to take a more proactive role globally and contribute more financially towards climate mitigation. A report published by the Irish Department of Energy and Climate Change in 2010 also called on the European Union to recognise carbon dioxide absorbed by forests as part of the climate change emission reduction directive. This would lessen the pressure of EU member states to seriously tackle their carbon emissions.
Country: **Italy**

**Leader:** Prime Minister Silvio Berlusconi  
**Overall Score (Aid):** 19/100  
**Overall Grade (Aid):** E  
**Overall Rank (Aid):** 18/23  
**Overall Score (policy):** 29/100  
**Overall Grade (policy):** D  
**Overall Rank (policy):** 10/23

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**Remarks:**

The problem of Italy’s persistently low aid levels is well known. In 2009 Italy occupies the penultimate position among donors, falling to 0.16 percent of GNI given as ODA, while in 2008 it was at 0.22 percent. Hence, although the Government reports that in 2009 the best funded MDG was MDG 1 with 25 percent of its total aid, this is almost irrelevant in terms of absolute value.

In April 2010 the Government produced draft guidelines for the implementation of MDG 1, focusing mainly on the fight against poverty in general rather than specifically on hunger. It was very colloquial on the definition of poverty, parameters, etc. and failed to fix clear objectives and targets in terms of reducing hunger and malnutrition.

Last year Italy hosted the G8 summit at L’Aquila where a major commitment in terms of fighting hunger was made: with the Aquila Food Initiative donors pledged US$22 billion in the next 3 years for food security. Nevertheless despite the strong declaration of intents of its Prime Minister, Italy responded with only US$428 million for the next three years out of which only US$180 million was new money. This is actually less than what is usually budgeted for food security initiatives.

Italy is also hosting the UN food agencies; it therefore should play an important role in addressing the issue of hunger and in defining the new global architecture around food, including with financial contributions.

Italy has established its National Plan in accordance with the European Renewable Energy Directive (RED). The targets set by the plan will slightly increase the minimum use of biofuels in the transport sector to 3.5 percent by 2010, and 4 percent 2011 and 4.5 percent by 2012. The National Plan does not include sustainability criteria nor any reference to the inclusion of Indirect Land Use Change in impact assessments.
HungerFREE Scorecard

Country: **Netherlands**

Leader: **Prime Minister Jan Peter Balkenende**

Overall Score (Aid): **40/100**

Overall Grade (Aid): **D**

Overall Rank (Aid): **12/23**

Overall Score (policy): **42/100**

Overall Grade (policy): **C**

Overall Rank (policy): **6/23**

**Remarks:**

The Netherlands, a generous donor which gives 0.8 percent of Dutch GNI in aid, sits in the top half of the HungerFREE Scorecard on ODA. The Netherlands invests an average of 7.7 percent of its ODA budget to agriculture - more than the average in the EU – but this can be further increased to bring The Netherlands up to its fair share of the global need for aid to agriculture.

Currently much of Dutch assistance to agriculture goes towards supporting national frameworks and market development. However, poor farmers will only benefit from this if access to institutions and markets is also improved and farmer organisations are strengthened. Small-scale farmers, especially women farmers, therefore deserve more attention.

Whilst The Netherlands is to be congratulated on leading the way in gender coding its ODA, in fact only a small percentage of its ODA is focused on women.

Policy coherence is a priority for the Dutch government, at a national level and between national and EU policies. The Netherlands scores well in this area but there is still much room for improvement. In the EU it has been one of the more progressive countries on the issue of climate change and adaptation funding to developing countries; but finance levels amongst all donors, The Netherlands included, are still shamefully low.

The Dutch government invests in projects promoting sustainability in biofuels production chains, and would like land rights and food security to be included in the sustainability criteria of the EU. This is an important role for the government to continue to push, especially given that the Dutch target for biofuels used in the transport sector is planned to increase by 2014.
HungerFREE Scorecard

Country: **Spain**

Leader: **Prime Minister José Luis Rodríguez Zapatero**

Overall Score (Aid): **50/100**

Overall Grade (Aid): **C**

Overall Rank (Aid): **3/23**

Overall Score (policy): **35/100**

Overall Grade (policy): **D**

Overall Rank (policy): **20/23**

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Remarks:

Budget cuts announced in May this year mean that Spain will not achieve its own stated aid targets, neither the target to reach 0.51 percent of GNI by 2010, nor 0.7 percent by 2012. This is hugely disappointing given recent efforts to raise ODA levels and given Spain’s pivotal role as European Union president in the run up to the MDG Summit. Spain’s fiscal crisis must not be fought at the expense of those in most need, and a binding timetable for reaching the 0.7 percent target is needed.

The HungerFREE Scorecard gives Spain credit for prioritising the fight against hunger in its ODA programme and for the new aid to agriculture given through L’Aquila. Spain is also meeting its own target that 10 percent of ODA should go to agriculture, rural development and fighting hunger. However, low overall ODA levels mean it has some way further to go before it is giving its fair share to this underfunded sector.

Spain’s relatively good record on social protection is achieved against a background of very poor overall performance by all donors in this area.

Commendably, during its EU Presidency in 2010 Spain put effort into launching the EU’s Gender Action Plan and the EC Communication on gender equity. However, Spain needs to ensure it works with the OECD Development Assistance Committee to improve on its gender reporting and gender targeted ODA.

Spain falls behind other donors in terms of reducing its greenhouse gas emissions and its 2020 climate emissions reduction targets are very low. This follows a general pattern of incoherence between Spain’s international commitments, and its highly under-ambitious national positions on sustainability and climate change.
Country: **Sweden**

Leader: **Prime Minister Fredrik Reinfeldt**

Overall Score (Aid): **50/100**

Overall Grade (Aid): **C**

Overall Rank (Aid): **4/23**

Overall Score (policy): **35/100**

Overall Grade (policy): **D**

Overall Rank (policy): **17/23**

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**Remarks:**

Sweden has a long-standing reputation as a generous donor, with the country spending 1.12 percent of GNI on ODA in 2009. Its ODA to agriculture is also the second highest of the donors. Sweden also has a good track record of focusing its aid on women.

In 2009 the Swedish government announced a €400m allocation for climate financing over the period 2009-2012. However, all of this money is due to come from the aid budget rather than being additional money. Climate finance is desperately needed to help developing countries adapt to the disastrous consequences of climate change; taking it from aid budgets not only goes against international climate agreements but also ends up penalizing the poor.

The Swedish Minister of Development Cooperation, Gunilla Carlsson, aims to strengthen the role of the private sector in development cooperation with the hope of increasing tax revenues in poor countries. However, the fact that developing countries lose an estimated $160 billion to tax evasion by multinational companies every year has been given very little attention. This amounts to more than all aid combined and enough extra money to make the Millennium Development Goals a reality. The Swedish government needs to develop a coherent approach to capital flight and tax matters from a development perspective.

Sweden has been at the forefront of the percentage of green cars sold, and in consumption of biofuels in the transport sector, in large part due to green cars being heavily subsidized. Most of the biofuel used in Sweden is imported ethanol from Brazil. According to a forecast from the Swedish Energy Agency, most of Sweden’s EU target for 10 percent renewable energy in transport will be filled with imported biofuels. The government has to take greater responsibility for ensuring that Swedish policies and subsidies do not have a negative effect on food security and land rights in developing countries.
HungerFREE Scorecard

Country: United Kingdom

Leader: Prime Minister David Cameron
Overall Score (Aid): **48/100**
Overall Grade (Aid): C
Overall Rank (Aid): **7/23**
Overall Score (policy): **49/100**
Overall Grade (policy): C
Overall Rank (policy): **3/23**

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Remarks:

The UK is getting two important things right in the fight against global hunger: it is committed to giving 0.7 percent of its GDP in overseas aid and it has pledged to cut its greenhouse gas emissions by 34 percent of its 1990 emissions by 2020 as part of the Europe burden sharing agreement to cut emissions by 20 percent. Unfortunately, these impressive achievements have not come because the UK has prioritised ending hunger. Instead they are by-products of other important policy goals. When it comes to taking deliberate action to tackle hunger, the UK’s response is much less impressive.

Despite its strong commitment to aid, the UK is failing to invest in agriculture. It is only paying just over a third of its fair share of farming aid needed to halve hunger. Similarly, the UK is giving only a fraction of what is needed to social protection in developing countries. Women farmers are particularly neglected and are basically invisible in DFID’s policy towards agriculture. In 2009, only 1 project out of 45 DFID agriculture projects had gender equality as its principle objective.

At present, the UK gets a good score for its comparatively low use of biofuels. However, this policy is currently under review and the UK government may well decide to set new targets tripling its use of biofuels in the transport sector by 2020. Increasing biofuel use will not only make hunger worse but will also make it harder for the UK to meet its emission reduction targets.

In order to not fall further behind in the fight against global hunger, the UK must recognise hunger as priority issue and take steps to demonstrate that it is serious about ending hunger by improving its performance on aid to agriculture, ensuring that biofuel targets do not increase, and taking effective action to meet its commitments to reduce greenhouse gas emissions.
Who's Really Fighting Hunger 2010?

HungerFREE Scorecard

Country: United States of America

Leader: President Barack Obama
Overall Score (Aid): 40/100
Overall Grade (Aid): B
Overall Rank (Aid): 11/23
Overall Score (policy): 16/100
Overall Grade (policy): E
Overall Rank (policy): 23/23

Remarks:
The US has risen significantly in the 2010 HungerFREE Scorecard rankings on ODA, due to the Obama administration’s strong leadership on issues of global hunger and food security. In May, the administration unveiled a detailed new strategy on global food security, the Feed the Future program. This initiative provides the strategic guidance and implementation plan for the US’ 2009 L’Aquila promise of US $3.5bn over 3 years for food security.

The Feed the Future program represents a dramatic shift in US policy towards agricultural development. It aims to support country plans and includes a strong focus on policies to reach smallholder farmers, stressing the importance of supporting women farmers. The US has also made a significant pledge to the Global Agriculture and Food Security Program (GAFSP), housed at the World Bank.

Overall, the US’ Official Development Assistance was US$28.665 billion in 2009, still below the 0.7 percent target but moving in the right direction, rising US$1.8 billion from the year before.

Better coherence is, however, needed in US policies that affect hunger and food security. While the US has become a global leader on ODA for agriculture, changes in US policy are needed on biofuels and climate change.

The Renewable Fuel Standard (RFS) in the US requires that 9 billion gallons of biofuels be blended into transportation fuels – the second highest target amongst the countries ranked. It is predicted that between 2006 and 2012 the US will have paid out some US$76-93 billion to biofuels producers. Recent analysis by ActionAid and official development agencies including the World Bank has found a direct link between increased production of biofuels in Africa and Latin America and rises in food prices.

Given the serious impact of climate change food security, the US government’s policies on this issue have not matched the level of ambition of agriculture policies. The US Congress has yet to pass legislation with a binding emissions target and has yet to make a significant enough financial commitment to meet the adaptation and mitigation needs of developing countries.
Section 3 - HungerFREE indicators
HungerFREE is a global ActionAid campaign pressuring governments of the North and South to fulfil their MDG 1 pledge to halve hunger by 2015. This HungerFREE report analyses the degree to which both rich and poor nations are acting on that pledge. While other international rankings focus on the scale and magnitude of hunger, this report is unique in that it also assesses the concrete steps that governments are taking towards its elimination.

This HungerFREE Scorecard aims to evaluate two sets of countries on progress in fulfilling their commitments to end global hunger:

A. The 28 developing countries which participate in the ActionAid HungerFREE campaign.

B. The 23 rich nations which are members of the OECD’s Development Assistance Committee.

Our indicators for developing countries are based on the actions that the UN has identified as most critical to reverse growing global hunger, most recently in its 2008 Comprehensive Framework for Action on the Global Food Crisis, but also in other UN agreements and guidelines.

Not all countries started from an equal footing in 2000 when the world first adopted the UN goal for halving hunger. Some were emerging from civil wars, while others were dealing with a rampant AIDS pandemic. Some, with historically severe levels of poverty and food insecurity, simply had further to travel, and fewer resources to fund the journey. Hence, we have designed our scorecard to give credit for effort and progress, not just outcomes.

Developing countries have been graded on five indicators: their legal commitment to the right to food; their investment in agriculture and social protection; their commitment to gender equality and women’s rights; and their performance on hunger and child nutrition.

This second HungerFREE Scorecard has added a new gender equality indicator due to the importance of supporting women farmers in the fight against hunger. This indicator is based on the Social Institutions and Gender Index; women’s rights to land; and the availability of sex-disaggregated data.

As well as actions, developing countries are judged on the outcomes of their actions in terms of tackling hunger. By measuring outcomes, we are able to assess similarities and differences in the policies and actions adopted by countries making strong progress on hunger. We set a tougher outcomes standard for wealthier developing countries, such as South Africa, Brazil, China and India, than for low-income countries.

The HungerFREE scorecard also ranks developed countries’ policies and whether they are supporting or undermining efforts to tackle global hunger. Developed countries have been ranked on two sets of indicators:

1) On their aid to agriculture and aid to social protection measures (their ‘aid indicators’). This is to assess the level of the support they are giving to the areas that they themselves, in the Comprehensive Framework for Action and the L’Aquila Food Security Initiative, have singled out as crucial to reduce hunger. As with developing countries, the 2010 HungerFREE Scorecard has a new donor indicator on gender equality, looking at how much ODA is targeted on relevant projects.

2) Donors have also been assessed on the extent to which their domestic policies (their ‘policy coherence’ indicators) contribute to current and future hunger in developing countries, especially through incentives for biofuels use (which are contributing to food price volatility) and carbon emissions (which will cause dramatic reductions in crop yields in many developing countries).

Below is more information on each indicator and the sources and methodology employed to calculate scores.
**A: Monitoring developing countries**

The 28 developing countries chosen for the scorecard are those which participate in the ActionAid HungerFREE campaign because ActionAid staff in these countries and our partners on the ground are able to supply us with first-hand information about the policies and programmes of their governments towards ending hunger. Another important consideration in the choice of countries was the availability of relatively reliable comparative data across various indicators.

Due to paucity of data in some instances, we had to make a number of assumptions in the methodology for the calculations, grading and ranking used in this report. This section describes the data gaps, assumptions and calculations in detail to provide full transparency.

The grading scale for all the indicators is the same:

- A: 81% – 100%
- B: 61% - 80%
- C: 41% - 60%
- D: 21% - 40%
- E: 0 % - 20%

**Technical and methodological explanation of the indicators**

**Indicator: Hunger**

We measure countries according to the two MDG 1 hunger targets: the prevalence of underweight in children under 5 years, and the proportion of the population that are chronically undernourished, the former being a measure of more short-term distress. Both are taken against a 1990 year baseline. In order to demonstrate where countries are progressing – or not – the 2010 scorecard includes projections for when these goals are likely to be met according to data trends. The intensity of hunger (the food deficit) is also included as this is a key indicator of severity of the hunger situation. We have set a tougher standard for wealthier developing countries, such as South Africa, Brazil, China and India, than for low-income countries.

**General assumptions:**

- This scorecard evaluates countries not only on the initiatives that governments undertake towards the elimination of hunger, but also on the trend, scale and intensity of undernourishment.
- To estimate the scale of hunger among national populations as a whole, there were two alternative data source options available. The first is FAO’s most recent country-by-country estimates of undernourishment as a percentage of the population (reflecting the share of the population with insufficient dietary energy intake covering a three-year period from 2004–06 - they predate the food price crisis).
- The second option was the USDA’s more recent Food Security Assessment 2008–9 projections, which are derived from the FAO database and World Bank data, but on slightly different models (see http://www.ers.usda.gov/briefing/globalfoodsecurity/questions.htm#fao). However, since the USDA’s projections suffered from a number of data gaps when estimating the proportion of the hungry in key countries such as China and Brazil, we did not use them.
- According to the FAO, undernourishment refers to the condition of people whose dietary energy consumption is continuously below a minimum dietary energy requirement for maintaining a healthy life and carrying out light physical activity with an acceptable minimum body-weight for attained-height.
- At the national level, governments, academic organisations and civil society bodies also set their own minimum dietary thresholds (often differentially for urban and rural areas), but these are not comparable across countries.
- The second set of estimates used to evaluate the extent of hunger is the prevalence in countries of underweight children under the age of five according to the WHO’s Child Growth Standards. These indicate the proportion of children suffering from weight loss (wasting) and/or reduced growth (stunting).
- We have chosen not to use the mortality rate of children under the age of five as it offers only a partial reflection of the fatal synergy between inadequate dietary intake and unhealthy environments.
- While this might imply an element of double-counting, we have chosen to find an average of the two sets of data for a number of reasons:
  1. The FAO data is an average over the period 2004-2006; while the WHO data on children is not an average, but for the latest available year in the period 2001-2008;
  2. The FAO data is based on macro estimates of population projections, food availability and inequality in food distribution benchmarked against varying hunger thresholds which are unique for each year and country in the world, while the WHO data is based on extensive national primary surveys; and
  3. Since children are the most vulnerable to undernourishment with potentially...
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Various</th>
<th>2004-6</th>
<th>2004-6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weight</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>2029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesotho</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Rate increasing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambia</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>2028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>2027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>Rate increasing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Rate flat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic Republic of Congo</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>Rate increasing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
irreversible life-long impacts, the measure of child undernourishment, in conjunction with that of the entire population, ensures their vulnerability is not subsumed in population averages.

• To ensure that countries with a higher income are benchmarked based on the greater efforts expected from them to eradicate hunger, we have classified the selected countries into three different sets, based on the latest data available from the World Bank country classification for July 2009 of GNI per capita, and individually determined scores for each set of countries. These are low-income, lower-middle income and upper-middle income. World Bank country classification methodology analytically divides economies according to 2009 GNI per capita, calculated using the World Bank Atlas method. The groups are: low income, US $995 or less; lower middle income, $996 - $3,945; upper middle income, $3,946 - $12,195; and high income, $12,196 or more.

• The sub-indicator scale of hunger has a weight of 75 percent on the scorecard, while the intensity of hunger has a weight of 25 percent. The former describes the entire population (with an added emphasis on children who are the most vulnerable), while the later analyses the intensity of hunger amongst those who are already undernourished or food-deprived.

Sub-indicator: Scale of hunger
• First, to score countries based on the scale of hunger, we have chosen to take a simple average of two sources of data: most recent estimate of undernourishment as a percentage of the population (FAO) and the most recent prevalence of underweight children under the age of five (WHO).

• Then we divided the selected countries into three categories – low income, lower-middle income and upper middle income - based on the World Bank classification, and calculated the average, minimum and maximum for each sets of countries.

• Then, a two-pronged formula has been used to determine scores based on the standard bell curve methodology of normal distribution to evaluate each set of countries based on their deviation from their respective average. If the scale of hunger is more than the respective average (the more the hunger the lower the score) of each set of countries, then the formula used to assign a percentage score between 0 – 50 is:

\[
50 - (\text{Country} - \text{Average} \times 50) \\
\text{Maximum} - \text{Average}
\]

If the scale of hunger is less than the respective average of each set of countries, then the formula used to assign a percentage score between 50-100 is:

\[
100 - [(\text{Country} - \text{Minimum}) \times 50] \\
\text{Average} - \text{Minimum}
\]

However, in all cases, it is assumed that a country which has achieved zero hunger will be awarded 100 marks. Therefore, since the minimum in all cases is assumed to be zero, the formula can also be written as:

\[
100 - [(\text{Country} - 0) \times 50] \\
\text{Average} - 0
\]

• Hence, although South Africa has similar hunger levels as China, South Africa, as a middle income country, will receive a substantially lower percentage scores than China, which is a lower-middle income country. Also, Vietnam, as a low-income country, receives a higher percentage score than Guatemala, a lower middle income country with similar levels of achievement.

Sub-indicator: Trend of hunger
• To analyze the trend of hunger, calculations were based on a projected year at which each country would achieve the MDG 1 of halving 1990 rates of hunger. These calculations are based on a linear regression to estimate 1990 levels, and to estimate the year at which one half of the 1990 levels would be achieved.


• Estimates of trends of child underweight rates used WHO data, which are based on revisions by the WHO on 27 April 2006 to its child growth standards (see http://www.who.int/childgrowth/en/). Not all other sources of child underweight rates have been adjusted to these new standards, so there may be some slight discrepancies (usually plus or minus 2-3 percentage points). Estimates for regression lines were based on all years from 1990-2009, and, where data before 1995 was not available, also on years 1986-1989. Where the WHO’s figures were not available for more than two separate years, or where pre-1997 WHO data was unavailable, then data from the UN’s MDG Database were used exclusively (for the DRC, Ethiopia, The Gambia, Lesotho, Mozambique,
Senegal, South Africa and Vietnam). Not all of the UN MDG database data has been revised according to the new WHO child growth standards. For Liberia, WHO data was used as only 2 data points were also available from the UN MDG database.

- Using a 100-point scale, with a maximum year of 2050 considered, scores for projected MDG 1 achievement years for undernourishment prevalence and child underweight prevalence were calculated based on the following formula (with the one exception of Ghana’s 1999 year rounded to a 100 score):

\[ 2 \times [2050 – \text{projected MDG1 achievement year}] \]

- The trend score has not been adjusted relative to income group as with the first sub-indicator above. The trend score aims to capture progress against a set benchmark (1990 levels), and the first sub-indicator already appreciated differences in this benchmark between country income groups.

**Sub-indicator: Intensity of hunger**

- The intensity of food deprivation measured by the FAO indicates how much food-deprived people fall short of minimum food needs in terms of dietary energy. It is measured as the difference between the minimum dietary energy and the average dietary energy intake of the undernourished population (food-deprived). The intensity of food deprivation is low when it is less than 200 kilocalories per person per day and high when it is higher than 300 kilocalories per person per day. The greater the food deficit, the greater the susceptibility for health risks related to undernourishment.

- To classify countries based on the extent of the deprivation, the following assumption have been used based on the extent of the food deficit of the undernourished population (kcal/person/day)

  Food deficit >400 = "Acute", >300 = "Intense", >200 = "High", <200 = "Moderate"

- Assuming that the maximum food deficit is 450 kcal/person/day, to compute scores for this indicator, the following formula has been used

\[ 100 – \frac{[\text{Food deficit of the undernourished population (kcal/person/day)} \times 100]}{450} \]

**Total scores for hunger**

To compute total scores for this indicator, the following weights were used: 37.5 percent for the average of rates of 2004-6 proportion undernourished and most recent child underweight rates; 18.75 percent each for the score for the trend of proportion undernourished and for the trend of underweight children under five years of age; and 25 percent for the intensity of hunger.

**Data Sources:**

- Scale of Hunger: Average data for the proportion of undernourished in total population has been obtained from the FAO: http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/templates/ess/documents/food_security_statistics/PrevalenceUndernourishment_en.xls

- The estimates of the prevalence of underweight children under the age of five have been obtained from WHO Statistical Information System (WHOSIS) http://www.who.int/whosis/en/

- Supplementary estimates of the child underweight prevalence have been taken from the studies reported in the UN's MDG statistics site: http://unstats.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx

- The latest World Bank income classifications have been used (July 2010 according to 2009 GNI per capita). See: http://siteresources.worldbank.org/DATASTATISTICS/Resources/CLASS.XLS

- Intensity of hunger: Data for the year 2004-6 have been obtained from website of the FAO statistics division: fao.org/fileadmin/templates/ess/documents/food_security_statistics/Depth_Hunger_en.xls

**Indicator: Legal framework**

The HungerFREE Scorecard evaluates each country’s right to food legal framework, placing most value on legislation guaranteeing the right to food. The 2010 scorecard also looks at legal protection of the right to information – a critical tool in holding governments to account on the right to food. Given that the measure only considers whether legislation is in place – rather than the quality of the legislation – it only carries a small weight in the overall indicator.

**Data analysis:**

- In case of constitutional provisions, we have identified constitutions which contain explicit provisions on right to food as a separate and stand-alone right (regardless of whether or not these are justiciable).
Legal guarantees refer to national laws. We have not examined which countries provide legal protection through the direct applicability of international human rights treaties.

**Sub-indicator: Constitutional guarantees**

- The methodology for the classification of countries is a modified version based on the original created by Vidar, 2006, ‘State Recognition of the Right to Food, at the National Level’, Research Paper No. 2006/61, UNU-WIDER.

High: Constitutions containing explicit provisions as a separate and stand-alone right.

Medium-high: Constitutions which make an explicit mention of the right to food, but not as a separate and stand-alone right.

Medium-low: These constitutions protect the right to food implicitly, through broader provisions dealing with the right to an adequate standard of living, as well as through provisions on either social security or worker's rights, or both cumulatively, providing a high degree of protection of the right to food. The protection thus afforded may be in one or several sections of the constitutions.

Low: These constitutions either protect the right to adequate standard of living, or social security and worker's rights. It also includes those which provide for direct applicability of the UN's International Covenant on Economic and Social Rights.

Very low: These constitutions protect only the right to social security or the right to minimum wage or other, less important provisions, such as protection of the rights of the child, promotion of agriculture, food safety, etc.

- To compute the scores for this indicator (in percentage) the formula used is

  "High" = 100, "Medium-high" = 67, "Medium-low" = 50, "Low" = 33, "Very low" = 17, "No data" = 0

**Sub-indicator: Legislative guarantees**

- The classification of countries and their scores based on

### Table 6: Indicator: Legal framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Constitutional guarantee of right to food</th>
<th>Legislative guarantee of right to food</th>
<th>Formalization of right to information</th>
<th>Grade for legal framework</th>
<th>Overall country rank for legal framework</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Regulatory</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>Medium-high</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Legal</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>Medium-high</td>
<td>In progress</td>
<td>Legal</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>Medium-high</td>
<td>In progress</td>
<td>Pending</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>Medium-low</td>
<td>In progress</td>
<td>Legal</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Legal</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Legal</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>In progress</td>
<td>Pending</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>In progress</td>
<td>Pending</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Legal</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
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<td>No</td>
<td>Legal</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>11</td>
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<td>Nepal</td>
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<td>No</td>
<td>Legal</td>
<td>D</td>
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</tr>
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<td>No</td>
<td>Regulatory</td>
<td>D</td>
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<td>Medium-high</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Pending</td>
<td>D</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
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<td>No</td>
<td>Pending</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>Medium-high</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Pending</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
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<td>No</td>
<td>Pending</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>Medium-low</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Pending</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
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<td>Tanzania</td>
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<td>No</td>
<td>Pending</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
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<td>None</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>20</td>
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<td>Cambodia</td>
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<td>Pending</td>
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<td>21</td>
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<td>Burundi</td>
<td>Low</td>
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<td>None</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>22</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gambia</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Regulatory</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesotho</td>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Pending</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Pending</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the existence of legal framework to the right to food is simplistic i.e. either "Yes" = 100, "No" = 0 or "In Progress" = 33.

Sub-indicator: Right to information
• To compute the scores for this indicator (in percentage), the formula use is "legal" = 100, "regulatory" = 67, “pending” = 33, and “none” = 0. The indicator describes the formalisation of the right to information, but says nothing about content of legislation, regulations or implementation.

Total scores for legal framework
• To compute total scores for this indicator, constitutional guarantee is given a weight of 30 percent, legislative guarantee 60 percent, and formalisation of right to information 10 percent. Data on the constitutional guarantee is not available for all countries and we believe that legislative guarantees provide a more credible framework for defining and monitoring entitlements. Secondly, international experience suggests that the effort of adopting a special law to protect the right to food security is greater than for including the right in a constitution.

Data sources:
• Grading of constitutional guarantees was derived from the survey and evaluation of 57 countries conducted by Vidar, 2006, ‘State Recognition of the Right to Food, at the National Level’, Research Paper No. 2006/61, UNU-WIDER, along with updated data provided (personal communication with Margret Vidar 14 September 2009). This data was vetted and updated by ActionAid country programmes where possible.
• In the case of Nepal, the evaluation is based on the provisions in the country’s interim constitution. Kenya’s recently approved constitutional provisions are included.
• The information on the status of legislative guarantees was largely derived from the FAO’s 2006 report, The Right to Food in Practice: Implementation at the National Level(Rome: Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations), along with updates available from ActionAid country programmes, newspaper articles, research papers and government websites available in the public domain.
• Data on formalisation of the right to information is based on the map by David Banisar, available at: www.privacyinternational.org/foi/foi-laws.jpg, as well as various reports and news reports for several countries.

Indicator: Smallholder agriculture
As this report argues, investment in agriculture has the massive potential to unlock poverty, especially in rural areas. It can also be a significant driver for economic growth. It is for this reason that we give the ‘sustainable smallholder agriculture’ indicator a significant weighting in the overall rankings.

The scorecard measures the percentage of the government budget that is spent on agriculture as an indicator of the political commitment to reducing rural hunger. The scorecard also looks at the access that farmers have to extension services, a service that is critical to smallholder farmers to help them improve their productivity. Extension services provide advice and training to farmers and enable farmers to share information on problems and opportunities.

Ideally, we would have liked to track the amount spent on agricultural research and development, as well as access to irrigation and to credit. However reliable comparative information was not available on any of these topics.

Data analysis:
Sub-indicator: Budget to agriculture
• In 2001, African Union member states committed themselves to a new programme to revitalise agriculture and reduce hunger – the Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Programme (CAADP). This included a commitment to spend 10 percent of their national budgets on agriculture by 2008. Although there are technical arguments to favour the ratio of agriculture spending to GDP as a more appropriate benchmark, we have chosen to stick with the budgetary yardstick because it is backed by a political commitment. We have extended this to evaluate countries in Asia and Latin America too.
• To rescale budget shares to agriculture (which range from 1.1 percent to 11.0 percent) to a 100-point scale (with an maximum target of 15 percent), scores were computed by the following formula:

\[ 6.7 \times \frac{\text{percent of budget to agriculture}}{100} \times 100 \]

Sub-indicator: Access to extension
• Figures were sought on the percent of farmers with access to extension.
• Where only farmer-to-extension agent ratios were available, access was estimated on the following generous assumptions: one extension agent can
reach two meetings per day, an effective meeting has about 30 people, and each agent holds meetings four days a week and 50 weeks per year. Thus one extension agent gives access to 12,000 people.

- The number of extension agents was divided by the number of economically active people engaged in agriculture.
- Scores are based on the classification: Very low = 16.7 (0-10 percent coverage); Low = 33.3 (11-20 percent); Medium-low = 50 (21-30 percent); Medium = 66.7 (31-60 percent); Medium-high = 83.4 (61-75 percent); High = 100 (>75 percent).

**Total scores for smallholder agriculture**

- To compute total scores for this indicator, this weighting was used: budget to agriculture 75 percent; and access to extension 25 percent.

**Data sources:**

- Budget to agriculture: Where possible, budget figures have been based on official budget documents or declarations. In some cases, secondary sources on budget figures have been used. We have also received updated information from ActionAid country offices for the 2010-11 budget cycle where available.
- Where disaggregated spending figures were available, agriculture was considered to include forestry, livestock, wildlife and environment, and fisheries - but not rural development, water or roads. For federal systems (such as Brazil, Ethiopia, India and Nigeria), only national level expenditure was used.
- Access to extension is based on review of available documents and literature (including World Bank reports, budgets and budget speeches).
- The number of economically active people engaged in agriculture was taken from the FAO database POPSTAT: http://faostat.fao.org/site/452/default.aspx

### Indicator: Social protection

Social protection, guaranteed in Article 22 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, is the right of every man, woman and child. Social protection measures are critical for ensuring that people can realise their right to food and, where good social protection policies and schemes have been set up with wide coverage, they have had a huge impact on hunger reduction - Brazil and China being evidence of this. Social protection can take the form of a range of specific entitlements - for instance, pensions, child support, free school meals, employment guarantees.
### Table 8: Indicator: Social protection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Weight</th>
<th>Young child feeding / nutrition</th>
<th>Free school meals</th>
<th>Minimum employment / living standards guarantee</th>
<th>Maternity nutrition / entitlements</th>
<th>Subsidised food rations / vouchers / community kitchens</th>
<th>Old age social pensions</th>
<th>Grade for social protection</th>
<th>Overall rank for social protection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>5</td>
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</table>
Data analysis:

General assumptions:

- While ideally we would have preferred to analyse budget contributions to social protection in developing countries, due to the lack of comparative cross-country database, and the cross-cutting nature of these investments across ministries and departments, it proved to be too difficult to aggregate the budgets and simultaneously ensure cross-country comparability. In future years, hopefully, this information gap will be filled with the availability of international datasets.

- Bearing in mind that 80 percent of countries lack comprehensive social protection, we selected for this HungerFREE Scorecard the most universally relevant and easily measurable categories of social protection which would have a direct or indirect bearing on food security. However, it is important to note that we do not see these as stand-alone inputs or an exhaustive list; to combat the inter-generational cycle of malnutrition, a wider package of social assistance programmes may be needed.

- The six sub-indicators which comprise loose sub-categories of social protection are: Young Child Feeding and Nutrition; Free School Meals; Minimum Employment/Living Standards Guarantee; Maternity Nutrition/Entitlements; Subsidised Food Rations/Vouchers/Community Kitchens; and Old Age Social Pensions. For more details on the attributes of each of these sub-indicators, refer to Chapter 4 on Social Protection in the 2009 Scorecard. In all cases we have counted only programmes whose benefits are “non-contributory”: this does not include employer-employee contributory pension schemes.

- To evaluate the performance on each of these sub-indicators based on extensive research of resources in the public domain and cross-checks and inputs from ActionAid country programmes, we have used a non-proportionate four-point grading scale:
  
  High = coverage of 75 percent and more of the eligible population  
  Medium = coverage of 50 – 74 percent  
  Low = coverage of 15 – 49 percent  
  No/Negligible = coverage of 0 – 14 percent  

  However, the classification of individual countries is often subjective due to an acute paucity of data on the scale, reach and efficacy of these social protection initiatives.

- Coverage rates for young children, school children, and elderly were calculated based on UN statistics on age-group numbers and primary enrolment data. Coverage rates for employment guarantees were estimated partly based on population figures for ages 15-59 multiplied by the average of the national poverty line rate and the portion of the population living on less than US $1.25 in Purchasing Power Parity terms (except for Liberia and Haiti, for which statistics on national poverty line were unavailable).

Total scores for Social protection

- To compute total scores for this indicator as a percentage, each of the six sub-indicators have been given an equal weighting of 16.7 percent.

- To compute the scores for individual sub-indicators, we have assumed that High = 90; Medium = 60; Low = 30; and No/Negligible = 0. High has been pegged at 90 points as no country can realistically have entirely flawless social protection interventions.

Data source:

- The data for most of the indicators has been researched from individual data sources available in the public domain and then cross-verified with staff on the ground in ActionAid country programmes. The data for school meals has been largely sourced from William Lambers, 2009, Ending World Hunger: School Lunches for Kids Around the World, World Food Programme; while for social pensions we relied on the HelpAge International(2009) database helpage.org/Researchandpolicy/Socialprotection/PensionWatch/Coverage/main_content/PWTable.2.pdf. Data on employment and living standards guarantees and food subsidies and rations was also taken from a search of Google, World Bank, and a Factiva search with terms “food for work, cash for work, cash transfer, food voucher, food rations” and country name, for June 8 2009 – June 9 2010.

- Data on school enrolment was obtained from UNESCO databases: http://stats.uis.unesco.org/unesco/TableViewer/document.aspx?ReportId=143&IF_Language=eng  

- Data on age-group populations was obtained from the UN Population division: http://esa.un.org/unpp/index.asp?panel=2  

- Data on poverty rates were obtained from the UN MDG statistical database: http://unstats.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx

Indicator: Gender equality

Women and girls make up a disproportionate share of the worlds hungry and take the most responsibility for feeding their families. The gender dimension of hunger therefore cannot be ignored, and the HungerFREE Scorecard has set out to start...
comparing how countries are delivering on guaranteeing women’s rights and eliminating gender discrimination. Currently, despite women constituting the majority of farmers in most countries, nearly all agricultural policies ignore the needs of women. Few governments have agriculture budget lines that support women farmers specifically, and women are largely invisible in both government and donor agriculture policies designed to improve productivity.

The 2010 scorecard compares the institutions, relations and practices that perpetuate gender discrimination, with a heavy weighting on the Social Institutions and Gender Index. These unfair social institutions are reflected in outcomes such as the restricted ability of women to own land, a denial of women’s equal rights, and a major factor constricting women farmers’ ability to farm and increase the supply of food.

One part of the difficulty of measuring and addressing gender equality is the lack of detailed data on gender inequities in the areas of food and agriculture. Based on in-country information, the Gender Equality indicator illustrates how in many countries sex-disaggregated data is not available on important agricultural issues, such as who owns land, who receives credit and who receives extension services. Only Brazil, Ethiopia, Guatemala, and Nigeria collect disaggregated data in all three sample areas.

Data analysis:
General assumptions:
- Quantifying gender equality is a difficult and precarious task. The lack of data on gender equality – which impedes policies and actions to promote gender equality – is in itself a major problem, so we have given governments credit for collecting sex-disaggregated data on agriculture.

Sub-indicator: Social institutions and gender
- This sub-indicator is based on the scores from the recently created Social Institutions and Gender Index. In contrast to other indexes of female development outcomes, the SIGI index focuses on institutional root causes of these outcomes. The index includes 12 indicators in five broad categories (family code; physical integrity; son preference; civil liberties; and ownership rights), which were scored based upon individual country reviews.
- Scores were based on the following formula:

\[ 100 - [100 \times \text{SIGI score}] \]

Sub-indicator: Women’s access to land
- The SIGI also contains a specific sub-indicator on women’s ability to own land, and this has been cross-checked with other research. Countries are classified as low, medium or high, with respective scores of 0, 50 or 100. This simplified classification has been used because ability to own land is a complex issue, and is only one part of women’s access to land.

Sub-indicator: Sex-disaggregated agricultural data
- Based on country programme information, a score of 100 for Yes and 0 for No has been given, based on whether the government collects sex-disaggregated data on agricultural credit, extension and land. An average of the three was then taken.

Total scores for gender equality
The following weights have been used: SIGI (50 percent); access to land (25 percent); and sex-disaggregated data (25 percent)

Data sources:
- SIGI data was obtained from http://genderindex.org/ranking
- Women’s access to land ownership is based partly on a scale derived from Lang, J., Enquête sur la Situation des Femmes dans le Monde, Paris: Assemblée Nationale (1998). For updated data and cross-references we have consulted Action Aid country programmes and accessed the individual country databases available at http://www.wikigender.org/.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Social Institutions and gender index score</th>
<th>Women's land ownership ability</th>
<th>Sex-disaggregated land data</th>
<th>Sex-disaggregated extension data</th>
<th>Sex-disaggregated credit data</th>
<th>Grade for gender equality</th>
<th>Overall country rank for gender equality</th>
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<td>no</td>
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</table>
Total scores across indicators for developing countries

To compute total scores across the indicators, we have assigned a 40 percent weighting to hunger; 30 percent for sustainable agriculture; 15 percent for social protection; 10 percent for legal framework; and 5 percent for gender. The logic is that the reduction in the scale and intensity of hunger represents the most crucial outcome indicator. The remaining process indicators represent policy interventions that necessarily take some years to make an impact on hunger levels, and the scale of impact will depend on the quality, coverage and effectiveness of these initiatives. Nevertheless, the combined weighting for policy interventions is greater than that for hunger outcomes because the former represent actions and decisions that are within the power of states to implement, whereas hunger trends can be driven by many factors partially or entirely outside of governments’ control (such as conflicts, natural disasters, or the recent food and financial crises). A low weighting is given to gender equality purely because of the difficulty of quantifying it, but we hope to address these problems in future work.
B: Monitoring developed countries

The choice of developed countries for this HungerFREE scorecard was based on the constraint of data availability and therefore has been restricted to those 23 countries that belong to the DAC of the OECD. Countries have been ranked according to two overarching areas: aid and policy (see tables 2 and 3 on page 7).

The grading scale for all the indicators remains the same:

A: 81% – 100%
B: 61% - 80%
C: 41% - 60%
D: 21% - 40%
E: 0 % - 20%

**Aid indicator 1: Agriculture**

There are various channels, direct and indirect, through which donors fund agricultural development. The agriculture indicator evaluates whether donors are providing their fair shares (relative to their GDP) of the estimated total financing that the UN estimates is needed to halve hunger.

The indicator also assesses commitment to a bigger and better coordinated assault on hunger post-food crisis. We give extra credit for those countries that have given new money specifically to agriculture via the L’Aquila Initiative, as a proxy signal given that the latest OECD DAC figures on aid to agriculture used in our fair share calculations reflect only 2006 levels. However, one year on, the details of the US$22 billion L’Aquila initiatives remain hard to analyse in full due to lack of data.

**Technical and methodological explanation of the aid to agriculture indicator**

Data analysis:

General assumptions:

- The first sub-indicator analyses the actual share of ODA for agriculture as a percent of fair share required in 2012. The UN FAO has called for an additional US $30 billion per year investment in agriculture and rural infrastructure, as well as top-ups to emergency food aid. The ActionAid 2009 briefing paper ‘Let Them Eat Promises: How the G8 are failing the billion hungry’ released before the G8 Summit in Italy in 2009 ambitiously assumes that developing countries will be able to fund about a third of the increase needed. If developing countries invest US$10 billion more over the next three years, that requires donors to provide the shortfall of US$20 billion. Bilateral and multilateral donor spending in these areas has been about US$8.4 billion per year, so the total donor funding needed by 2012 is about US$28.4 billion per year. This HungerFREE Scorecard calculation reiterates the same assumptions.

- It is assumed also that funding promised as part of the L’Aquila Food Security initiative should be additional to existing funding and pledges (see ActionAid International, 2010. “The 20 Billion Dollar Question”).

- Increased funding must be properly channelled. Aid coordination, learning and policy harmonization are key (see ActionAid International, 2009, “Fertile Ground: How governments and donors can halve hunger by supporting small farmers”). We have thus also considered whether countries are endorsers or supporters of the L’Aquila Initiative and its comprehensive, coordinated approach, and if they are members of the GDPRD. The GDPRD was formed in 2003 to promote sharing of information, as well as to promote reference to the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness and the Accra Agenda for Action in the sector.

- As a further indication of support for country and regional initiatives, the scorecard includes whether donors support the African Union’s Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Programme (CAADP).

Sub-indicator: Agricultural ODA fair share

- The fair shares are calculated based on the standard methodology of proportionate distribution of the total required amount based on the size of the country’s GDP, relative to other OECD countries. The actual ODA contribution to agriculture is computed based on the latest available three-year averages (2006-8) using the following CRC codes:
  
  310: III.1. Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing
  41030: Bio-diversity
  43040: Rural development
  72040: Emergency food aid

- In addition, the amount of budget support ‘credited’ is based on a rough (and probably overgenerous) estimate that 5.5 percent of developing country government budgets is spent on the relevant sectors. Also gross disbursements channelled through multilateral agencies – in this case the World Bank’s
Table 10: Aid indicator 1: Agriculture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>ODA to agriculture and food security as percentage of the fair share required in 2012</th>
<th>Direct financial supporter of CAADP</th>
<th>Member of donor global platform on rural development</th>
<th>Supporter of L’Aquila food security initiative</th>
<th>Donors giving new money to agriculture via L’Aquila</th>
<th>Grade for aid to agriculture</th>
<th>Overall country rank for aid to agriculture</th>
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<td>no</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
International Development Association, European Commission and the International Fund for Agricultural Development - has been imputed based on their contributions respectively to agriculture. Because disbursement data from IFAD was unavailable, figures for commitments have been used instead.

- The score for agricultural ODA fair share is the same as the percentage value of the actual share of ODA as a percentage of fair share of the maximum estimate of annual US$28.4 billion required for food security from donors. In the exceptional case of Luxembourg, where its ODA contribution to agriculture is even greater than its required fair share, 100 is assigned as the maximum score.

Sub-indicators: Support for international agricultural initiatives
- A score of 100 for Yes and 0 for No has been given if donors are financial supporters of the CAADP; endorsers or supporters of the L'Aquila Food Security Initiative; members of the GDPRD; or if donors are giving new additional funds to the L'Aquila Food Security Initiative.

Total scores for agriculture
- Weights for the sub-indicators are 50 percent for ODA agriculture fair share; 25 percent for new L'Aquila funds; and 8.3 percent each for financial support to CAADP, endorser/supporter of L'Aquila, and member of the GDPRD.

Data sources:
- The value of the Current ODA (average of 2006-8) to Agriculture and Food Security has been calculated as described above from the OECD Query Wizard for International Development Statistics http://stats.oecd.org/qwids/ (last checked by the author 26 July 2010).
- New contributions to agriculture through the L'Aquila initiative are reported in: ActionAid International, 2010, “The 20 billion dollar question: Have the G8 delivered on their hunger pledge?”.
- CAADP support is based on information from CAADP, ‘Outcomes from the 1st CAADP MDTF Partnership Committee (PC) Meeting,’ April 2010 (http://www.caadp.net/pdf/Agenda%209%20%20Outcomes%20from%20the%201st%20CAADP%20MDTF%20Partnership%20Committee%20(PC)%20Meeting.pdf) and Donor Platform members’ support to CAADP (http://www.donorplatform.org/content/view/312/221/).
- Data on membership in the Donor Platform were obtained from http://www.donorplatform.org/content/view/429/2678/, which was last updated 28 April 2010.
- L'Aquila country endorsements are available from the Joint Statement on Global Food Security (http://www.g8italia2009.it/static/G8_Allegato/LAquila_Joint_Statement_on_Global_Food_Security%5B1%5D.pdf) and supplemental country supporters at ‘Partnering on Food Security’: http://www.pittsburghsummit.gov/resources/129662.htm

Aid indicator 2: Social Protection

In most developed countries, social protection lies at the heart of the social contract of the state towards its citizens and are vital for ensuring food security. However, most OECD countries give meagre sums to help developing countries extend the most basic protections in developing countries. We have therefore also measured donor country support to developing countries social protection policies.

Technical and methodological explanation of the aid to social protection indicator

Data analysis:
General assumptions
- The indicator analyses the actual share of ODA for social protection as a percentage of fair share.
- Devereux et al (2008) estimate that a ‘minimum essential package’, which consists of community-based management of acute malnutrition; employment guarantee programmes; social pensions; and child growth promotion, would collectively cost a maximum of £48.52 billion (US$78.64 billion) annually.
- Again, we assume that rich countries need to bear two-thirds of the financial burden. This calculation reiterates the same assumption and expects developed countries to collectively invest US$52.4 billion each year for social protection in developing countries.
- The fair shares are calculated based on the standard methodology of proportionate distribution of the total required amount based on the size of the country’s GDP, relative to other OECD countries. The actual ODA contribution to social protection is computed based on the latest available three-year averages (2006-8), using the following CRC codes: 11230: Basic life skills for youth & adults 12240: Basic nutrition 16010: Social/welfare services 16020: Employment policy and administration management
### Table 11: Aid indicator 2: Social protection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Actual share of ODA as percentage of the fair share required for social protection</th>
<th>Grade for aid to social protection</th>
<th>Overall country rank for aid to social protection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>C</td>
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<td>24.4</td>
<td>D</td>
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<td>E</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

16050: Multi-sector aid for basic social services
16064: Social mitigation of HIV/AIDS
52010: Food security programmes/Food aid
- As with agriculture, the gross disbursements channelled through multilateral agencies – in this case the World Bank's International Development Association, the European Commission, the United Nations Development Programme and UNICEF - has been imputed based on their contribution respectively to social protection. In addition, the amount of budget support ‘credited’ is based on a rough estimate that 5.5 percent of developing country government budgets are spent on social protection.

**Total scores for Social Protection**
- This is the same as the percentage value of the actual share of ODA as a percentage of fair share of the maximum estimate of annual US $52.4 billion required for social protection from donors. Again, in the exceptional case of Luxembourg, where its ODA contribution to social protection is even greater than its required fair share, 100 is assigned as the maximum score.

**Data sources:**

### Aid indicator 3: Gender-targeted Aid

It is critical that donors – as well as developing countries – look at the gender dimension of hunger, food and agriculture, and that they promote gender equality and women’s rights in their policies and ODA spending. The HungerFREE Scorecard uses OECD figures on the extent to which donors code their ODA for gender and how much of their coded aid is targeted at gender equality. If donors provide significant funds for a program, such as budget support, that is not easily classifiable as gender-related, this may skew results slightly, though the indicator only assumes that donors spend a maximum of 60 percent of their aid on gender-related projects.

**Technical and methodological explanation of the gender-targeted aid indicator**
Data analysis:

Sub-indicator: Amount of aid coded for gender
• Holding donors accountable for supporting gender equality requires information on how much aid they are providing on this issue.
• This sub-indicator is based on both primary and secondary gender scores in the OECD’s CRS database. Disbursements are used to measure actual donor action, rather than commitment. A benchmark of 100 percent of aid coded is used. An average was taken of the percentages each the years 2006, 2007, and 2008. Scores are therefore calculated as follows:

$$100 \times \text{three-year average percent of aid coded.}$$

Sub-indicator: Amount of coded aid targeted for gender equality
• This sub-indicator is based on both primary and secondary gender scores in the OECD’s CRS database. Disbursements are used to measure actual donor action, rather than commitments. An average was taken of the percentages each the years 2006, 2007, and 2008. A benchmark of providing 60 percent of aid as gender-targeted is used. Scores are calculated as follows:

$$100 \times \frac{\text{three-year average % aid gender-targeted}}{60\%}.$$

Total score for gender-targeted aid
• The percentage of aid that each country had tracked was weighted 20 percent, and the actual proportion of disbursements coded as gender-targeted was weighted 80 percent.

Data sources:
• The CRS database is available at:

Aid total:
Weightings are: agriculture aid 60 percent; social protection aid 30 percent; and gender-related aid 10 percent. The higher weight to agriculture ODA reflects the priority of enabling farmers to produce enough to support themselves and their families and provide plentiful, nutritious food for others. Social protection is still essential, however. Gender-related aid is key to both of the above; the weight of
10 percent reflects an acknowledgement of the difficulties in measuring aid, particularly where some countries provide large amounts to non-classifiable activities (such as budget support).

**Sustainability - Biofuels & IAASTD**

Donor countries still influence developing country food and agriculture policies in a way that undermines the developing country’s ability to follow the most appropriate agriculture framework for achieving food security, in particular, their policies on biofuels and climate are hunger aggravating, while they are failing to support sustainable agricultural methods. Therefore, we have measured developed countries on a climate and a ‘sustainability’ indicator which measures biofuels and support for IAASTD indicator.

**Policy indicator 1: Sustainable agriculture**

The aggressive promotion and subsidising of biofuels in donor countries was a major cause of the 2008 food price crisis. The indicator looks, therefore, at biofuels blending targets.

The UN’s International Assessment of Agricultural Science, Knowledge and Technology for Development (IAASTD) calls on policy-makers to acknowledge the negative environmental externalities of conventional agriculture, and to scale up low-input and organic farming methods, with a particular focus on working with women and building on local and traditional knowledge.

**Technical and methodological explanation of the sustainable agriculture indicator**

**Data analysis:**

**Sub-indicator: Blending targets for biofuels**

- Donor countries have begun to set targets for national biofuel usage as a percentage of fuel use. These targets and accompanying policy measures and finances encourage use of agricultural or environmentally sensitive land for further energy production (as opposed to conservation or efficiency measures).
- The score for biofuels is based on the formula:

\[ 100 - (\text{blending target} \% \times 10) \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Biofuel blending targets</th>
<th>Signatory of IAASTD</th>
<th>Grade for sustainable agriculture</th>
<th>Overall country rank for sustainable agriculture</th>
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<td>D</td>
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<td>D</td>
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<td><strong>Portugal</strong></td>
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</table>
Sub-indicator: Signatory of IAASTD

- The UN’s International Assessment of Agricultural Science, Technology and Knowledge for Development (IAASTD) - a three-year evaluation process involving more than 400 scientists and experts from around the world - calls on policy-makers to acknowledge the negative environmental externalities of conventional agriculture, and to look at integrated solutions to agriculture that include social, rather than expensive and heavily patented, technologies. Extensive efforts were made for countries to become signatories of this assessment.
- To compute scores out of 100 for signatories of IAASTD, the simple formula used is Yes = 100 and No/No data = 0

Total score for sustainable agriculture

- Blending targets for biofuels have been given a weight of 75 percent, while scores for signatories of IIASTD are weighted 25 percent.

Data sources:

- The list of IAASTD signatories is available at: www.agassessment-watch.org/

**Policy indicator 2: Climate Change**

Tackling hunger necessitates tackling climate change, which is disrupting farming and playing havoc with weather patterns and require rich countries to finance mitigation and adaptation in developing countries. To prevent dangerous climate impacts in the future, average temperatures must be kept below 1.5 degrees Celsius above pre-industrial levels. In order to do this, rich countries must reduce their greenhouse gas emissions by at least 40 percent below 1990 levels by 2020. We have therefore measured countries on their commitments to mitigation and climate financing.

**Technical and methodological explanation of the climate change indicator**

Sub-indicator: Unconditional (unilateral) targets to reduce emissions by 40 percent of 1990 levels by 2020

- ActionAid, based on the demands of developing countries, calls for 40 percent reduction binding targets of 1990 levels by 2020 to reduce emissions.
- This indicator is a proxy of the commitment of developed countries to climate change mitigation. We have assumed commitments based on public pronouncements of governments which are available in the public domain through the media, government websites, etc.
- EU countries agreed on burden sharing of the overall agreed 20 percent reduction, therefore all EU countries have a 20 percent target for the purposes of this scorecard. South Korea announced a 4 percent reduction on 2005 emissions (also a 30 percent reduction against ‘business-as-usual emissions by 2020’ - http://unfccc.int/home/items/5265.php), which has been calculated as equivalent to a 115 percent increase on its 1990 emission levels. However, as a developing country under the Kyoto Protocol, Korea is not obliged to adopt emissions targets so we have not scored Korea on this indicator.
- Any country which has announced a 40 percent target has been accorded the full score, while the rest receive proportionate percentage scores based on the following formula:

\[
100 \times \text{Country Target}
\]

40
Table 14: Policy indicator 2: Climate change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Unconditional targets to reduce emissions by 40 percent of 1990 levels by 2020</th>
<th>Actual 2008 emissions relative to 40 percent reductions of 1990 levels</th>
<th>Contribution to fair share for adaptation and mitigation</th>
<th>Grade for climate change</th>
<th>Overall country rank for climate change</th>
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<td>Weight</td>
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<td>33%</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>199%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>232%</td>
<td>0.50%</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>237%</td>
<td>0.10%</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>317%</td>
<td>1.20%</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>168%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>191%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>227%</td>
<td>0.10%</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>185%</td>
<td>0.60%</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>223%</td>
<td>0.20%</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sub-indicator: Greenhouse gas emissions
- This sub-indicator considers countries’ emissions in 2008 relative to what is needed for a 40 percent reduction of 1990 emissions. All calculations are done including emissions from Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry (LULUCF).
- Because the EU burden-sharing levels were specified against 2005 emissions, emission targets for EU countries have been recalculated based on 1990 levels, and compared with actual emissions 2008. Specifically, using the same relative proportional reduction rates on 2005 levels specified by burden-sharing agreement, emission targets necessary for a total 40 percent reduction on 1990 levels were calculated (assuming that the effective EU-15 cuts on 1990 levels totalling 16 percent should be doubled to 32 percent under a total EU target cut of 40 percent on 1990 levels). This was then compared with actual 2008 rates. The calculation can be expressed as:

\[
100 \times \frac{2008 \text{ emissions}}{(1990 \text{ emissions} - \left( \left( \frac{\text{country burden sharing rate} \times 2005 \text{ country emissions}}{\text{total EU-15 reduction on 2005 emissions}} \right) \times 0.68 \times \text{total EU-15 1990 emissions} \right))}
\]

- Emissions scores are based on an equivalent normal curve formula to that used for hunger rates (see above).

Sub-indicator: Actual finances as a percentage of fair share of United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
- The benchmark for fair share is based on calculations by the UNDP on adaptation, and by researchers at the European Commission on mitigation, who conservatively suggest that developing countries will need at least US$200 billion a year by 2020 in addition to existing aid commitments. (See ActionAid International, 2009, “Who should pay to tackle climate change in developing countries?”), http://www.actionaid.org/assets/pdf/Climate%20finance%20briefing%20in%20template%20May%202009%20FINAL.pdf
- ActionAid unequivocally endorses the need for an enhanced
financial mechanism under the authority of, and accountable to, UNFCCC’s Conference of Parties. Therefore, ActionAid’s core recommendation is that the Conference of Parties must establish an enhanced financial mechanism under the authority of the UNFCCC’s Conference of Parties, with an adaptation window.

- To determine actual contributions to UNFCCC, we used the database at the http://www.climatefundsupdate.org/. We also generously assumed that the figures available were annual contributions, rather than historical totals.

- Since ActionAid does not recognise the credibility of climate change funds that are not managed by the UNFCCC (such as the World Bank Climate Investment Fund), we have not included them in our calculations and focus only on the UNFCCC.

- The fair shares benchmarks expected of each country have been calculated based on the Oxfam responsibility-capability index (RCI) (Raworth K, 2007, Adapting to climate change, Oxfam Briefing Paper, May 2007) based on the historical responsibility for CO2 emissions (emissions since 1992) and capability (Human Development Index). We have assumed that RCI principle applies for who should pay for both mitigation and adaptation in developing countries. The RCI percentages have been translated into actual expected monies based on the US$200 billion required annually by 2020.

- These expected fair shares are then compared with actual contributions based on the simple formula to determine the percentage scores

\[
\text{Finances made available to UNFCCC} \times 100 \times \text{Annual Fair share of the estimated US $200bn by 2020 required}
\]

Data Sources:

- Emissions targets for 2020 are available at http://unfccc.int/home/items/5264.php


- Data on emission levels (including LULUCF) 1990-2008 are available from UNFCCC: http://unfccc.int/files/ghg_emissions_data/application/x-zip-compressed/ai_total_wlulucf.zip


Total Scores for climate change

- To compute total percentage scores for this indicator, each sub-indicator of emissions target, emissions, and funding has been given an equal weight of 33.3 percent.

Policy coherence total

Total scores for policy coherence

- To compute total scores for the two policy coherence indicators, the weightings have been distributed as 60 percent for climate and 40 percent for sustainability (biofuels and IAASTD). The climate change indicator incorporates slightly more substantial data and is consequently weighted correspondingly more.
Who’s Really Fighting Hunger 2010?

Endnotes

1 Based on IMF and World Bank projections of an additional 1.2 million under-five deaths by 2015, compared to pre-crisis trends; and World Health Organisation and UNICEF estimates that hunger is the cause of approximately half of all under-five deaths. International Monetary Fund and World Bank, 2010, Global Monitoring Report 2010: The MDGs After the Crisis, April, http://web.worldbank.org/WEBSITE/EXTERNAL/EXTDEC/EXTGLOBAL/MONITOR/EXTGLMONREP2010/0...contentMDK:22519784--pagePK:64188427-piPK:4168435-theSitePK:6911228,00.html


3 The United Nations’ Millennium Development Goals Progress Report 2010 uses as a benchmark the developing country prevalence of hunger, which was 20 percent in 1990. On this basis it would still be possible to claim that some progress has been made in recent years. However, ActionAid rejects this calculation; we believe it is more accurate to take as the reference point for MDG1 the global prevalence of hunger, which was 16 percent in 1990. According to recent FAO and World Bank estimates, hunger rose back to 15 percent in 2009 and exceeded 16 percent in the world minus China – bringing it back to 1990 levels of hunger in the world excluding China. In order to estimate the prevalence of global hunger without China, we simply attributed to China a share of the FAO’s 1.02 billion global figure for 2009, based on its share of world hunger in the previous reporting period (2004-6). We also checked that this attributed share was consistent with the regional breakdowns given by the FAO for its 2009 global estimate. This methodology is likely to slightly underestimate the prevalence of hunger in the rest of the world, since it is probable that China accounted for a lesser share of global undernutrition in 2009 than it did in 2004-6.

4 Women make up a little over half of the world’s population, but they account for over 60 percent of the world’s most hungry. United Nations Secretariat-General, 1 June 2007, “Strengthening efforts to eradicate poverty and hunger, including through the global partnership for development”, United Nations, Report E/2007/71, ECOSOC Annual Ministerial Review: Geneva.

5 FAO, 2009, op cit.


9 According to the World Bank’s Food Price Watch briefing for May 2010, wheat prices were up 24% over their 2009 levels in Lahore Pakistan and 14% in Mumbai, India by early 2010. “Rice prices rose by 27% in Bangladesh between October 2009 and February 2010. In Burundi, the price of beans increased by 58 percent in the four months leading up to February 2010. Sharp increases in the price of staples have also occurred in Zimbabwe, Sudan, Chad, Haiti and Somalia over the past quarter and in Tanzania, Chad, Mali and Kenya over the past year.” World Bank, 2010, “Food Price Watch May 2010”, Poverty Reduction and Equity Group, Poverty Reduction and Economic Management Network.


13 Wasting, or low weight for height, is the result of acute food shortages leading to severe weight loss, and is strongly associated with child death, while stunting (low height for age) is a cumulative indicator of long-term food deprivation. See UNICEF, 2007, Stunting, Wasting and Overweight, Progress for Children, http://www.unicef.org/progressforchildren/2007nr/index_41505.htm. Deaton and Dreze explain: “Stunting is a cumulative indicator of nutritional deprivation from birth (or rather, conception) onwards. It is relatively independent of immediate circumstances, since height does not change much in the short term. Wasting, by contrast, is usually taken to be an indicator of short-term nutritional status. From the measurement point of view, one advantage of wasting is that it does not require information on the age of the child, which is often hard to ascertain precisely. ‘Weight-for-age’ can be seen as a more comprehensive indicator, which captures stunting as well as wasting: both stunted and wasted children are likely to fall in the “underweight” category” Deaton, A and Dreze, J, 2008, “Nutrition in India: Facts and Interpretations”, unpublished paper at http://weblamp.princeton.edu/chw/papers/deaton_dreze_india_nutrition.pdf

14 Based on Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) data at http://www.measuredhs.com

15 DHS data for Nigeria show that wasting increased from 9.3% in 2003 to 12.5% in 2005, while in Bangladesh it was 18% in 2007 as compared to 14.6% in 2004. www.measuredhs.com


20 US Department of Agriculture Economic Research Service (USDA-ERS), 2010, Food Security Assessment 2010-2020, http://www.ers.usda.gov/Publications/GFA21/GFA21.pdf. USDA estimates need to be used with caution as they are not strictly comparable to FAO’s, and are based on slightly different benchmarks for minimum dietary energy needs. Nevertheless, they are more up to date than the latest available information from FAO and offer a
fairly strong indication of trends.


28 Martinez, R., and Fernando, A., 2008, Thecostofhunger:SocialandeconomicimpactofchildundernutritioninGuatemala,withachildunderweightrateveryclosetotheglobalaverage, the economic costs were much higher, estimated at 11 percent of GDP. This means an estimate of 6 percent of GDP is conservative.

29 The average child underweight rate in the countries studied was less than half the global average of 23 percent. In Guatemala, with a child underweight rate very close to the global average, the economic costs were much higher, estimated at 11 percent of GDP. This means an estimate of 6 percent of GDP is conservative.

30 The authors’ total estimate was US$90bn per year, including charitable donationstofighthunger, which we have excluded from the total because this is not included in the Lancet, World Bank or FAO estimates of global costs. J. Brown et al., 2007, The Economic Cost of Domestic Hunger: Estimated Annual Burden to the United States, report commissioned by the Sodexho Foundation, http://www.sodexofoundation.org/hunger_us/Images/Cost%20%20Domestic%20hunger%20report%20_tcm150-155150.pdf


32 The authors’ total estimate was US$90bn per year, including charitable donations to fight hunger, which we have excluded from the total because this is not included in the Lancet, World Bank or FAO estimates of global costs. J. Brown et al., 2007, The Economic Cost of Domestic Hunger: Estimated Annual Burden to the United States, report commissioned by the Sodexho Foundation, http://www.sodexofoundation.org/hunger_us/Images/Cost%20%20Domestic%20hunger%20report%20_tcm150-155150.pdf

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37 In Africa the pattern is reversed, with more boys stunted than girls. See Wamani, H. et al., 2007, Boys are more stunted than girls in Sub-Saharan Africa: a meta-analysis of 16 demographic and health surveys, BMC Pediatrics 2007, 7:17, http://www.biomedcentral.com/1471-2431/7/17

38 The projections for meeting the child underweight target is based on a combination of National survey data, as reported at WHO, supplemented by the Master database where more comprehensive data was available, and individual studies: projections based on linear regressions based on available national surveys from 1986-present. For halving the proportion of hungry in the population this is based on FAO statistics. For more details on both see methodology section of the report.


40 Based on WFP data, UNICEF claims that the number of people with inadequate food consumption rose to 84 million by 2008, or half the population. This represents an increase of 12.2 million (or 17%) over WFP calculations for 2005-6, but an increase of 132% over FAO estimates of 36.5 million undernourished in 2004-6.

41 World Food Programme, 2010, Overview India, http://www.wfp.org/countries/India/Overview


45 Figure 2009 figures this put the government expects this to be re-calculated at 10 per cent in 2010 see: http://www.gtz.de/en/weltweit/asien-pazifik/vietnam/18211.htm and


48 Beghin, N. 2008, “Notes on Inequality and Poverty in Brazil: Current Situation and Challenges”, Oxfam International

49 Government of Brazil, op cit.


56 Altieri, M., 2009, Small farms as a planetary ecological asset: five key reasons why we should support the revitalisation of small farms in the Global South, Penang: Third World Network


129 Ibid.


139 FAO/WFP, 28 August 2008, Ibid.


142 Based on World Health Organization (WHO), UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and Global Hunger Index, such as the food acquirement program and ‘people’s restaurants’ (which provide cheap subsidised food).


144 Ibid.


Note that the budget for agriculture figure cited for Ethiopia in this report includes rural development spending, which is not included in most other countries. It must be noted, however, that significant amounts not reflected here are also spent on agriculture through decentralized budgeting.


Perry, A., op cit.


Ibid.


As recommended by the UN Special Rapporteur on the Right to Food and as agreed in the 1992 Peace Accords.


Economist Intelligence Unit, op cit.


Ibid.

UNDP, July 2010, Haiti: 6 months on, loc cit.

Ibid.

FAO, July 2010, Haiti, loc cit.

UNDP, July 2010, Haiti: 6 months on, loc cit.

Ibid.

Ibid.


Ibid.

Ibid.


Gangopadhyay, A., 22 July 2010, India Food Prices on Boil Again, Ibid.

288 2009 figures put this at 12 percent but the government expects it to be re-calculated at 10 per cent in 2010. See: http://www.gtz.de/en/weltweit/asien-pazifik/vietnam/18211.htm
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