

2014 HUNGER REPORT

ENDING HUNGER IN AMERICA



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ENDING HUNGER ^{IN} AMERICA

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State of World Hunger

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Margaret Wallhagen and Bill Strawbridge




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

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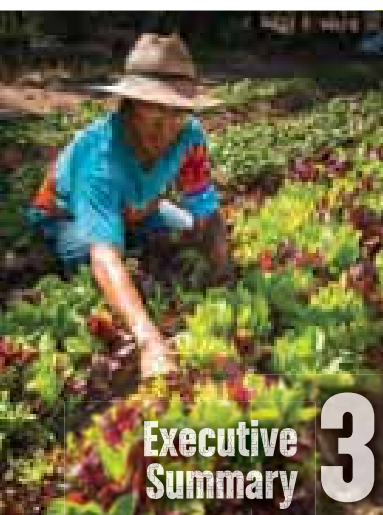
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Dominic Duren, assistant director of the
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Francis De Sales in Cincinnati, Ohio.

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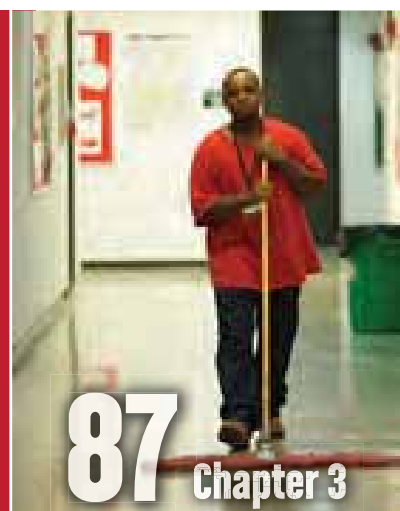
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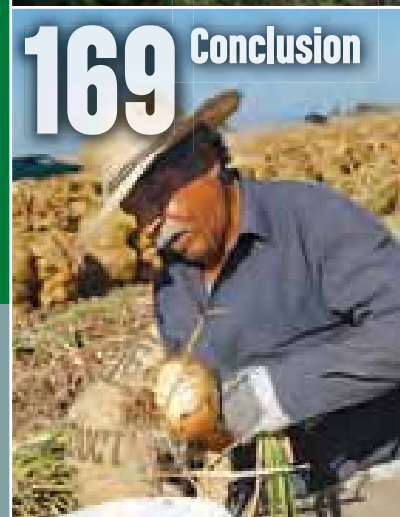
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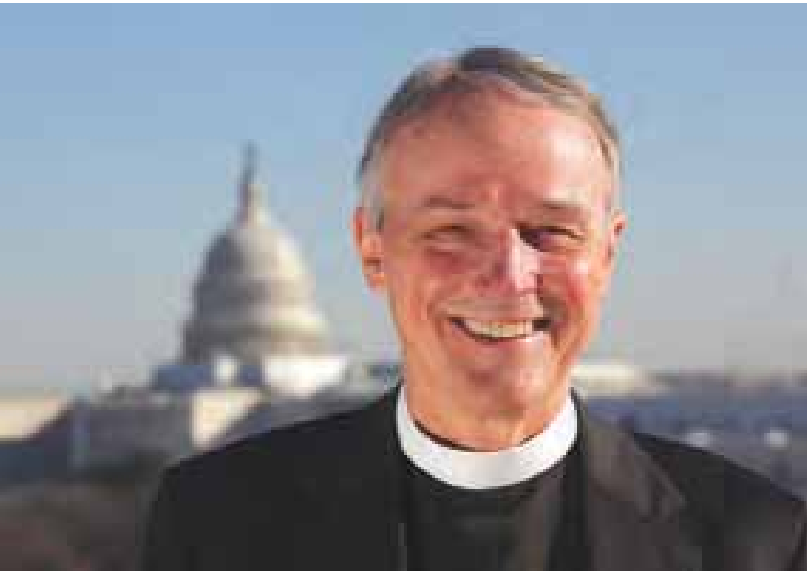
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Foreword: David Beckmann



The world as a whole has made dramatic progress against hunger and poverty in recent decades, so we know that hunger is a fixable problem—in very poor countries and certainly in our own richly blessed nation.

Bread for the World members and churches across the country are petitioning President Obama to set goals to end hunger in our country and worldwide—and then to work with members of Congress from both parties on plans to end hunger.

That working-together part would be a stretch. But President Obama and Republican leaders are both talking more about poverty and opportunity than they were a few years ago. And Bread for the World and our partners are gearing up to insist that they make hunger and poverty a national priority.

This report—written by Todd Post—helps us think about

what the elements of a plan to end hunger would be. The report focuses mainly on hunger in America, since our country has been making less progress against hunger and poverty than many other countries.

Most urgently, we are praying that Congress will decide to manage its work on the federal budget differently. Repeated brinksmanship in Washington and clumsy cutbacks in government spending have slowed recovery of the economy and the job market. The powerful graph on page 16 of this report makes it clear that nothing is more important to progress against poverty than reducing unemployment.

Todd also draws our attention to the impact of monetary policy on jobs and poverty. The Federal Reserve Board has helped to moderate unemployment, but is now considering a shift in policy. With unemployment at 7.3 percent and inflation below 2 percent, the Fed should continue to give priority to jobs.

Bread for the World and other faith groups have worked together, with remarkable success, to protect hungry and poor people in the federal budget negotiations of the last few years. That work continues to be intense. The faith community is now also working for immigration reform, which would be liberating for lots of people who now live in poverty. Bread for the World is also working with leaders from both parties to make foreign aid more effective.

This report looks beyond our current struggles and outlines a program to end hunger. It's achievable—and our loving God surely longs for the day.

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "David Beckmann". The signature is fluid and cursive, with a long, sweeping underline.

Rev. David Beckmann
President,

Bread for the World and Bread for the World Institute



Ending Hunger in America

Ending hunger in America is possible. It is not an impossible dream. If we decided we really wanted to do it, we could wake up one morning in 2030 and be living in a country where hunger is rare and temporary, not the shared experience of millions of Americans that it is in 2014.

The United States has accomplished more audacious feats than this in shorter periods of time. During the early years of the Great Depression, for instance, few expected that New Deal reforms would reverse what was at that time the worst period of income inequality in the nation's history and lead to decades of more broadly shared prosperity.

The New Deal was a bold response by the U.S. government to fissures in the economy exposed by the Great Depression. We are still waiting for a commensurate government response to the fissures exposed by the Great Recession, which officially ended in 2009. Of course the United States is a much different place in 2014 than it was in 1934, but arguably, the return of income inequality on the scale we have today—and the high poverty rates that go with it—mean that the government needs to make another correction just as bold as the New Deal.

2030 is not an arbitrary date to wake up to an America without hunger. Although most of this report is about ending hunger in the United States, it also calls on the U.S. government to work within the international community to forge a unified and universal set of global development goals to follow the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), whose deadline is December 2015. A post-MDG agreement should include a specific goal to end hunger and achieve food security and good nutrition in all countries by 2030. “MDG” may not be a household word in the United States, but the MDG experience is inspirational: setting goals led to concrete progress on global poverty.

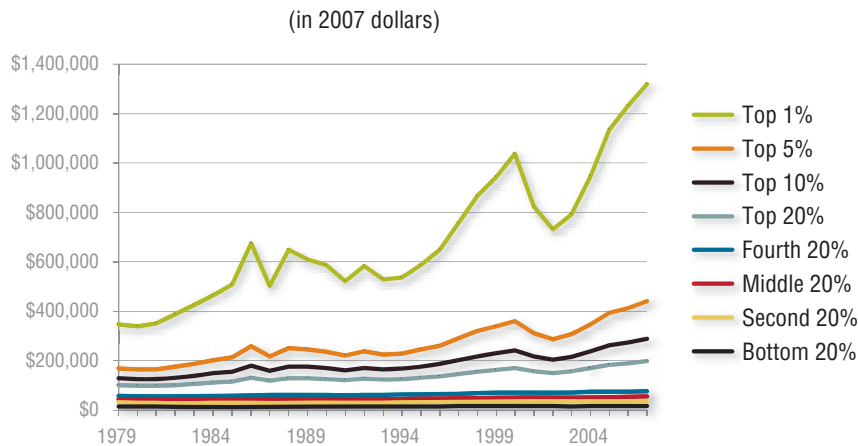
“We cannot succeed against hunger while ignoring poverty, because hunger is a physical manifestation of poverty.”

In 2000, every country agreed to support the MDGs, which included cutting global hunger and poverty rates in half. The poverty goal has already been met, and we could achieve the hunger goal given a strong push in the time remaining before the MDGs expire. The United States and other developed countries contributed to the success of the goals as donors, but the MDGs did not call for donor nations to reduce hunger and poverty at home as it did for developing countries.

The post-MDG goals should be universal, calling on every country to effectively end hunger and poverty. The momentum and sense of purpose created by global progress against hunger and poverty could help to inspire hope for progress in the United States. The improvements made under the MDGs are significant enough to give us confidence that ending hunger by 2030 is an attainable goal. And Americans rarely back down from a challenge.

The 2014 Hunger Report, *Ending Hunger in America*, urges President Obama and Congress to lead the

Figure ES.1 Average After-Tax Income by Income Group, 1979-2007



Source: Congressional Budget Office, Average Federal Taxes by Income Group. "Average After-Tax Household Income," June, 2010.

country in setting a goal to end hunger by 2030, and it offers a four-part plan to accomplish this: 1) a jobs agenda, 2) a stronger safety net, 3) human capital development, and 4) public-private partnerships to support innovative community-led initiatives against hunger. The report also calls on the U.S. government to support international efforts to end hunger and poverty worldwide.

A 25 Percent Reduction by 2017

The annual food security survey conducted by the U.S. Census Bureau is our measure of how much hunger the country is confronting. We will know we have ended hunger when all households are food secure. In 2012, the most recent year for which we have data, 14.5 percent of American households were considered *food insecure*. That's the federal government's term for being hungry or at risk of hunger.

We cannot succeed against hunger while ignoring poverty, because hunger is a physical manifestation of poverty. The food insecurity rate in the United States remains exceptionally

The average incomes of the **top 1 percent** of households rose by **19.6 percent** in 2012, while the incomes of the **other 99 percent** grew by just **1 percent**.¹

Nearly two-thirds of SNAP recipients are children, elderly, or disabled. Among SNAP households with children and at least one working-age, non-disabled adult: **62 percent work** while receiving SNAP and **87 percent work** in the prior or subsequent year.²

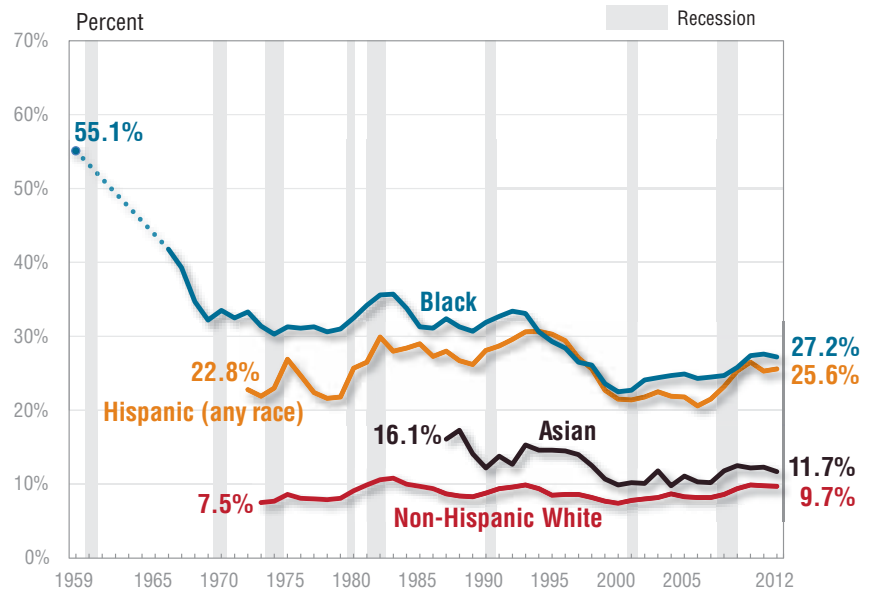
high because the economic recovery from the Great Recession has been sluggish. When a household's breadwinner is out of work or can't find full-time work, everyone living under the same roof is put at risk of hunger. Child hunger is directly related to the poverty that results from parents being unemployed or underemployed. Food insecurity is more common among children than any other age group—affecting more than one in five children in our country.

Food is a basic need, as are shelter, transportation to and from work, care for children and elderly family members, and medical expenses such as prescription drugs and doctor's visits. How much these cost are usually not negotiable. But food is one that can be negotiated on a daily basis, with oneself and/or one's family members—by purchasing cheaper, less nutritious items, by cutting back on portion sizes, or by skipping meals altogether. This is how families in poverty cope: some members, generally the adults, endure spells of hunger. Parents live with the constant stress of food running out, of exhausting their wages and whatever assistance they can secure before the end of the month.

A strong recovery capped by a return to full employment would improve U.S. food security levels by 25 percent. The last time the economy was at full employment was in 2000, at which time the household food insecurity rate was 10.5 percent. That's 28 percent lower than today's 14.5 percent rate of food insecurity.

Full employment by 2017 is possible if the president and Congress can overcome budget brinksmanship and agree on investments to spur faster job growth. The Federal Reserve manages the country's monetary policy; it has a dual mandate of controlling inflation and promoting full employment. Since the start of the Great Recession, the Fed has prioritized full employment. As a new chair of the Federal Reserve succeeds Ben Bernanke in January 2014, she will need to use her influence to maintain the Fed's focus on full employment.

Figure ES.2 **Poverty Rates by Race and Hispanic Origin: 1959 to 2012**



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, 1960 to 2013 Annual Social and Economic Supplements.

In 2012, the poverty rate for African American children was **37.5 percent**, for Hispanic children **33 percent**, and for non-Hispanic White children **12 percent**.³

While children make up roughly **24 percent** of our total population, they comprise **one third** of the nation's poor.⁴



A 50 Percent Reduction by 2023

We can cut hunger and poverty in half in the United States within a decade. We know it is possible. All we need to do is look at how other countries have done it. It's not only developed countries with living standards similar to those in the United States, such as those in Scandinavia or parts of Western Europe, which have reduced hunger within their borders. Countries in Africa, Asia, and Latin America have also done it.

Progress against poverty and hunger is more difficult in low-income countries because they

have fewer resources. The infrastructure needed to make progress sustainable is often lacking. The fact that many countries have made progress despite all the obstacles is a testament to what is possible when political leaders make a bold public commitment and are willing to be held accountable for fulfilling it.

By itself, returning to full employment might make it possible to cut hunger in half within a decade. But economic downturns are all but inevitable. We all know people who have fallen on hard times—lost a job, suffered an illness, or seen their retirement savings disappear in a recession. And there are



Stock photo

Waitresses and waiters are paid a subminimum wage of \$2.13 per hour. They have not had a wage increase since 1991.

people who are not able to work—elderly people, people with disabilities, children. Bias and discrimination still keep people unemployed or underemployed. This is the world's wealthiest country and most of us are compassionate, fair-minded people. We should support each other through life's ups and downs. Sustainable reductions in hunger on the order of 50 percent or more will depend on strengthening the safety net and investing in human capital.

The Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP, formerly food stamps) is the nation's flagship nutrition program and the main safety net preventing families from going hungry. Households that are food insecure spend 26 percent less on groceries, including with their SNAP benefits, than the typical food-secure household of the same size and composition.¹ The food safety net needs to become a *nutrition* safety net, one that offers not only assistance to prevent starvation, but the means to afford the nutritious foods people need to remain healthy.

The current minimum wage, \$7.25 an hour, is far from enough to ensure food security for a family of four. A family of four with a full-time minimum-wage worker who is eligible for both the Earned Income Tax Credit and Child Tax Credit still has 13 percent less than a poverty-level income.² In this report, we propose raising the minimum wage to \$12 an hour. Currently, about a third of all workers earn less than this.³ In 2014, \$12 an hour is what it takes for a single breadwinner in a family of four, working full-time, year-round, to pull her or his family just over the federal poverty line.

In addition to fair wages, people need to be able to balance their work and family responsibilities. Forty percent of low-income parents have no access to any paid time off (no sick days or medical leave, no parental leave, no vacation), making it difficult to care for newborn or sick children.⁴ The younger their children the greater chance that a family will live in poverty. In the United States, children younger than 3 have the highest poverty rate of all children.⁵ The hardships associated with living in poverty during one's earliest years have lasting consequences for health, education, and other "quality of life" determinants.

More than two-thirds of children living in poverty are in families that have at least one wage earner.⁶ Government has a role in setting workplace standards so that workers can fulfill their job and family commitments. One example of the support that is needed for work is child care. One of the main differences between U.S. society today and a half-century ago is the presence of large numbers of women in the paid workforce. But this major change is not reflected in our nation's policies. The United States lags behind every other developed country in the world in recognizing the need for government to assist families in affording quality child care. And child care that includes an educational component has three payoffs: it strengthens the safety net for low-income working families, adds to the children's human capital development, and builds a stronger future for America.

"Ending hunger in the United States will require leadership not only at the federal level but also at the state and local levels."

Ending Hunger by 2030

We can get closer to ending hunger than the United States has ever gotten by improving job quality, strengthening the safety net, and investing in human capital development. In order to make economic mobility a real possibility for children born to low-income families, human capital development needs to start with early education and go all the way through college. But to end hunger altogether, we must also confront knottier social issues, such as racism and other forms of discrimination that drive too many people to the margins of society.

Social exclusion is a problem in countries around the world as well as in the United States. Per capita incomes are on the rise in many nations, but not everyone is sharing the gains—particularly people at the very bottom, a group sometimes referred to as the ultra-poor. The United States has its own group of ultra-poor people, including more than a million households with children and with incomes below \$2 a person a day.

Ending hunger in the United States will require leadership not only at the federal level but also at the state and local levels. There are countless examples of locally-led initiatives that are achieving great success in their communities. At their core, these initiatives are formed around the belief that to end hunger in a community, a broad range of stakeholders must unite behind a common vision and strategy.

A sense of community ownership is critical to finding sustainable solutions to hunger. Partnerships at the local level, and between local initiatives and state and federal government, build that ownership. Local partners do more than feed people; they feed information to leaders in government, and they make informed suggestions as to how partners can work together to fight hunger more effectively. Setting a national goal to end hunger would place independent local efforts within a wider framework. Connecting the many community-led anti-hunger efforts will enable them to develop a broadly shared narrative—the story of ending hunger in America.

2014 HUNGER REPORT: ENDING HUNGER IN AMERICA

RECOMMENDATIONS



OVERARCHING RECOMMENDATIONS

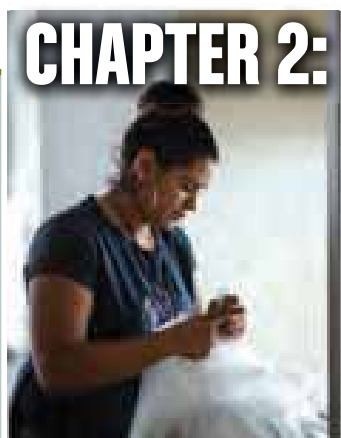
- The president should set a goal to end hunger in America and work with Congress to develop a plan to achieve the goal within 10-15 years.
- A plan to end hunger should include 1) a jobs agenda, 2) a stronger safety net, 3) human capital development, 4) public-private partnerships to support community initiatives, and 5) support for international efforts to end poverty and hunger worldwide.



CHAPTER 1:

GETTING TO FULL EMPLOYMENT

- The Federal Reserve Board should maintain its pro-jobs monetary policy as long as unemployment remains high and inflation low.
- Congress should manage its work on the national budget differently—economic stimulus rather than job-killing cuts.
- Congress and the president should invest in infrastructure and emerging industries.
- Congress and the president should support entrepreneurship in low-income communities.



CHAPTER 2:

A FAIR DEAL FOR WORKERS

- The federal government should improve the job opportunities and conditions for low-wage workers by actively enforcing the Fair Labor Standards Act and the Civil Rights Act.
- Congress should raise the minimum wage so that a full-time, year-round worker can support a family of four above the poverty line, and it should eliminate exemptions so that no worker is paid a subminimum wage.
- The president should direct government agencies to consider employee wages and working conditions as a factor in awarding federal contracts.
- Make quality child care accessible to every family in America and guarantee all workers family leave, paid sick leave, and the right to request flexible work schedules.

CHAPTER 3:



INCLUSION FOR THE EXCLUDED AND DENIED

- Abolish laws that prohibit ex-offenders/returning citizens from receiving public benefits that make it hard for them to get jobs and earn an honest living.
- Establish an employment program that targets individuals with significant barriers to work so that they are able to gain work experience, build skills, and improve their long-term prospects for employment.
- Guarantee every child a high-quality education from Pre-K through grade 12 and assure critical benchmarks are reached.
- Increase income assistance for people with disabilities who cannot work; provide better support to those who can and want to work.
- Improve SNAP outreach to low-income seniors; ensure that there is sufficient funding to deliver meals to all those who are homebound and in need.

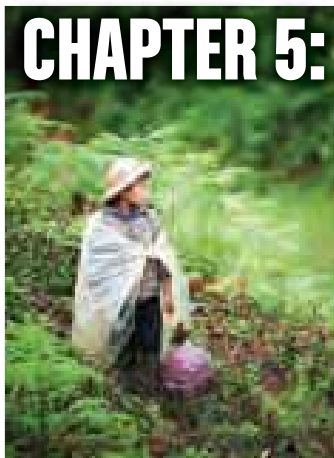
CHAPTER 4:



LOCAL LEADERS WORKING WITH NATIONAL PARTNERS TO END HUNGER

- Local leaders and their national partners should bring community groups together to work toward ending hunger.
- The president should convene a bipartisan White House Summit on Hunger, and Congress should reinstate the House and Senate select committees on hunger.

CHAPTER 5:



ENDING EXTREME POVERTY AND HUNGER WORLDWIDE

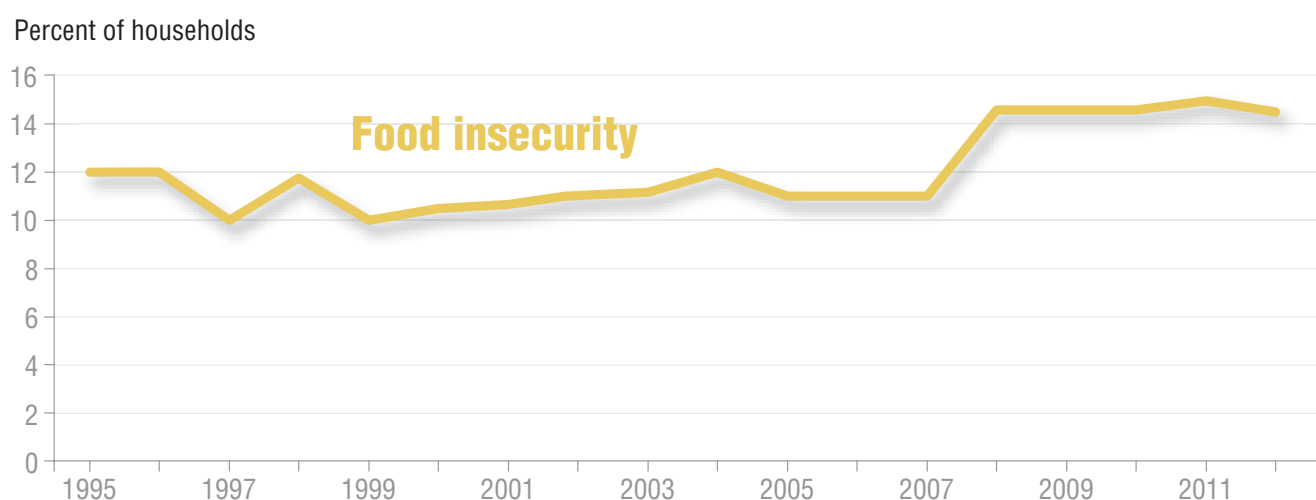
- The international community should make a concerted push to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by the 2015 deadline.
- The international community must reach agreement on a set of development goals to succeed the MDGs.
- The next development goals should be for all countries, including the United States.
- The post-2015 development goals should include a stand-alone goal to end hunger by 2030 and achieve global food security and good nutrition for all.
- The next round of development goals should underscore the need to strengthen local capacity and resilience in low-income countries.



Setting a Goal and Developing a Plan

In 2012, the last year that data are available, nearly 50 million people in the United States lived in households that struggled to put enough food on the table.¹ The number of people stalked by hunger in the United States has soared since the Great Recession, the country's worst economic downturn in three generations. Even before the recession, there were all too many people stalked by hunger in cities, suburbs, and rural areas. Every year since the turn of the millennium, at least 20 million Americans (one in 10 households) have been worried about running out of food.

Figure i.1 Trends in Food Insecurity in U.S. Households, 1995-2012



Source: Calculated by USDA, Economic Research Service based on Current Population Survey Food Security Supplement data.

Some people are more vulnerable to hunger than others. One in three families with an adult who is unable to work because of a disability worries about running out of food each month.² Stanley Glenn, for example, is a 53-year-old single father raising his 14-year-old daughter in Philadelphia. Stanley suffered a stroke and has not been able to work for 7 years. He and his daughter get by on Social Security disability benefits and SNAP/food stamps.



Joe Molieri/Bread for the World

Stanley Glenn, a single father raising a daughter in Philadelphia, has been using SNAP/food stamps since he became disabled in 2006 and could no longer work.

Before the stroke, he worked multiple jobs to make ends meet. It took a toll on his health; after the stroke, he also learned that he is diabetic and has a heart condition. “I just pushed myself too hard,” Stanley says. “It’s not like I don’t want to work, I would love to go back to work, but every time I try to go back my body says no.”

In the United States, one of the most significant risk factors for hunger is being a child; children experience the highest hunger rates of any age group.³ In our most recent Hunger Reports, Bread for the World Institute has drawn attention to the lifelong effects of hunger on young children, particularly during the 1,000-day window between pregnancy and age 2. New research provides incontrovertible evidence that this is the period in human development when hunger has the most damaging impact. The risks continue to be serious long after age 2, but making sure good nutrition is available to mother and child—and that neither goes hungry during this period—is imperative.

“I would love to go back to work, but every time I try to go back my body says no.”

— Stanley Glenn

African Americans and Hispanics experience higher rates of hunger than whites, but there are many more whites who are hungry.⁴ See Figure i.2. Women experience higher rates of hunger than men, especially among seniors, and people with disabilities experience hunger at two to three times the rate of people without disabilities.⁵

The suffering that hunger causes individuals is a tragedy. But there are consequences for the nation as well. In 2011, a team of economists from Brandeis University calculated the direct and indirect costs of hunger, taking into account its effects on health, education, and economic productivity. They estimated the total cost to the country that year to be \$167.5 billion.⁶ This means that we are all paying for hunger.

Americans are not indifferent to people suffering from hunger—people of all income levels give to charities that provide for the most disadvantaged in society. Yet the num-



About **50 percent** of all U.S. children will, at some point before they turn 18, live in a household that receives food stamps/SNAP.¹

51 percent of U.S. families headed by a person age 65 to 74 had no money in retirement savings accounts in 2010.²

bers of people who go hungry every year remain shockingly high. The fact is that we tolerate levels of hunger in the United States that would be unthinkable in other developed countries. The causes of hunger in this country are not unique, so solutions that have worked elsewhere could also work here.

In recent decades, we've somehow come to accept that the nation's prosperity does not need to be shared. The top earners make more than the top earners in any other developed country, while the lowest-paid workers are worse off than their counterparts in all but a few of these countries.⁷ Being a "developed" country surely means more than having an advanced economy. Moral and social development must be priorities as well.

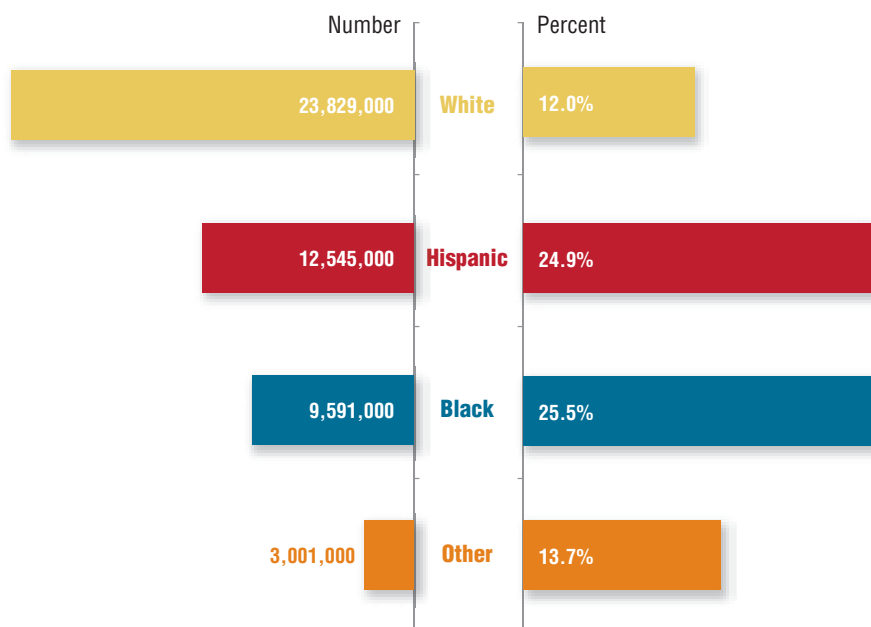
Setting a Goal

There is still hunger in the United States because national, state, and local leaders have not made eliminating it the priority it should be. But with effective leadership and the right strategies, we can eliminate hunger in the United States—and we can do it by 2030.

In the United States, a problem becomes a national priority only when a critical mass of citizens is willing to commit to solving it and to holding policymakers accountable for making progress. The public needs to demand stronger leadership on hunger, beginning with the president setting a goal to end it—a goal with a deadline.

Only the president can ask for everyone's support in achieving the goal and rally the whole country to get behind it. Then it will be up to leaders in their own communities to support the president and help ensure that ending hunger gets the public attention it needs.

Figure i.2 **Number and Percent of Food Insecure Individuals in the United States, by Race and Ethnicity**



Source: Alisha Coleman-Jensen, Mark Nord, and Anita Singh (September 2013), *Household Food Security in the United States in 2012, Statistical Supplement*, U.S. Department of Agriculture

28 percent of African American children live in high-poverty neighborhoods, compared with **4 percent** of white children.³

During the 2000s, the number of poor people living in the suburbs grew by **64 percent**—more than twice the growth rate in cities (**29 percent**).⁴

We don't have to look far to see that goals drive progress. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) have been remarkably successful in driving progress against global hunger and poverty. When the goals were launched in 2000, every country pledged to cut extreme poverty and hunger in the developing world in half by 2015. As the end date approaches, it turns out we are on track to achieve them. The MDGs have clearly resonated with world leaders and ordinary citizens in far-flung places.

While developing countries have been making progress, however, in the United States we've

been headed in the other direction. Development is a word that means many things to many people. In the United States, development tends to be used in the sense of economic development. It's about increasing the nation's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Before the MDGs, the conventional development yardstick in developing countries was also growth in GDP. But the MDG yardstick focused on human dignity and people's well-being. A goal to end hunger in the United States may well broaden our own views of development.

The United States has set national goals in the past, and just the idea that "we have a goal" has been successful in focusing the



UN Photo/Eskinder Debebe

At the UN General Assembly in September 2013, John Ashe of Antigua and Barbuda speaks about the success of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as part of a high-level panel forum convened by Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon.

attention of those whose help is needed to make it happen. Most of us know about the goal to land a man on the moon, but there are other examples that are more relevant to ending hunger. At the turn of the twentieth century, the United States set a goal to provide a free high school education to every child. Parents at the time demanded it. As any parent knows, lack of education is closely associated with poverty. By the middle of the twentieth century, the United States had the most educated workforce and military on the planet.⁸ The generation of Americans who fought in World War II and set the United States on the longest period of broad-based prosperity in the nation's history had years more education than their peers elsewhere in the world.

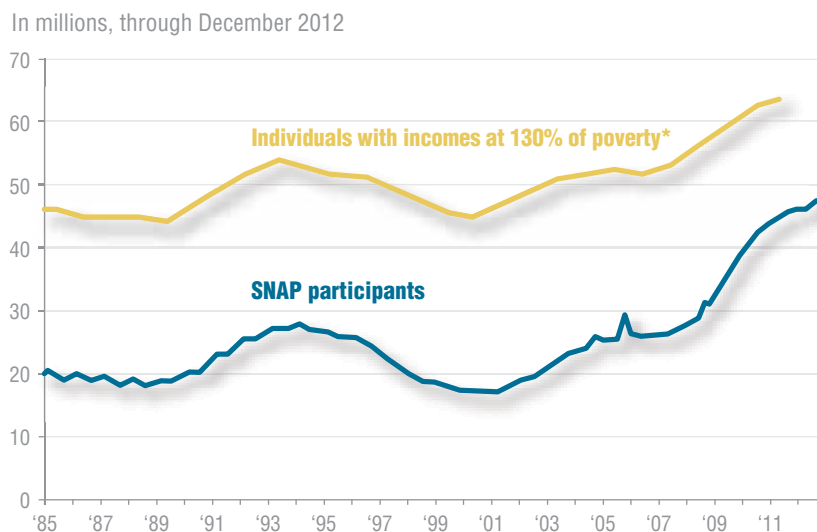
Another example of national goal-setting came in the 1960s, when President Lyndon Johnson set a goal to end poverty. And in fact, the so-called War on Poverty that he launched was a catalyst for dramatic reductions in poverty. Progress continued during the Nixon administration, which expanded the Food Stamp Program and the Special Supplemental Nutrition Program for Women, Infants and Children (WIC), leading to impressive reductions in hunger. When the economy stalled in the mid-1970s, however, the country's commitment to fighting poverty flagged.

Hunger and poverty are a package deal. They reinforce each other. See Figure i.3. Federal

nutrition programs such as WIC and food stamps (now the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program, or SNAP)—important as they are—are not enough without a corresponding effort to end poverty. The only way to defeat hunger permanently is to fight poverty at the same time, and that is what this report aims to show us how to do.

2014 is the 50th anniversary of the beginning of the War on Poverty. This was a “war” fought largely with new and improved social programs and with laws that dismantled structures of racial injustice that had persisted since the Civil War. The civil rights movement in the early 1960s was a driving force that spurred government to take action against poverty. At the time, half of all African Americans lived in poverty.⁹ But civil rights leaders were demanding more than racial justice. At the 1963 March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom, where Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. made his historic “I Have a Dream” speech, one of the demands of the marchers was to raise the minimum wage to \$2.00, which is equivalent to \$13.39 today.¹⁰ This demand fell on deaf ears in Congress and the White House. Economic justice must accompany racial justice. The War on Poverty’s most serious weakness was a failure to take effective action against economic inequalities in the labor market.

Figure i.3 SNAP Caseloads Closely Track Changes in Poverty



Source: Dorothy Rosenbaum (March 11, 2013), “SNAP Is Effective and Efficient,” Center on Budget and Policy Priorities. CBPP analysis of U.S. Department of Agriculture and U.S. Census Bureau data.

A Plan to End Hunger

Chapters 1-4 of this report lay out a four-part plan to end hunger. We can summarize these as 1) a jobs agenda, 2) a stronger safety net, 3) human capital development, or “investing in people,” and 4) public-private partnerships and community initiatives.

We will not achieve a lasting end to hunger without a commitment to all four parts of the plan. Because problems like hunger are multifaceted, their solutions must be as well. Policies tend to address social problems in isolation from each other. Instead we should be thinking holistically, which makes it possible to see the relationships between various causes of the problem.

It’s like links in a chain: Nutrition programs make it possible for children to do well in school. Children who do well in school can get more education and not have to settle for low-wage work. If the economy falters and these children, now adults, lose those good jobs, SNAP and local partners that support SNAP outreach make it easier to get help for themselves and their children while they are out of work.

Links in a chain also go the other direction. A child who is hungry does poorly in school...

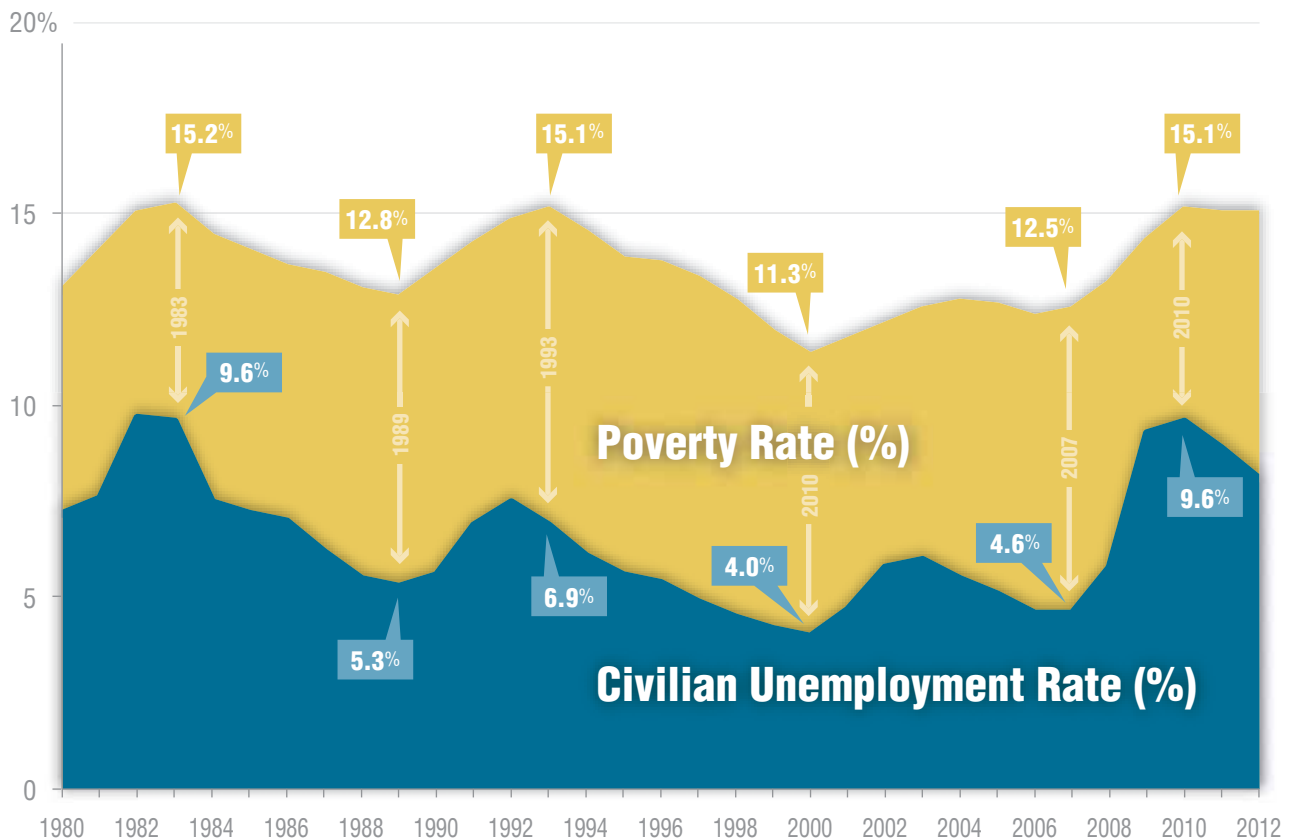
A Jobs Agenda

Nothing is more important to achieving immediate progress against hunger than a robust recovery from the Great Recession. As we all know by now, the recession that started in December 2007 and lasted until June 2009 was the worst in three generations, and the damage it caused lingers on.

More than four years since the official end of the recession, the economy staggers along. It's not working up to its potential: there is an output gap of nearly a trillion dollars, meaning that what the economy is capable of producing at full capacity, or full employment, is much more than it actually is producing.¹¹ Unemployment has fallen since the recession's highs of 10 percent, but the rate is still high, and it is also an unreliable reflection of how many people are still struggling to get back on their feet. National unemployment figures do not count people who have abandoned the labor market in frustration or those scraping by on part-time work who need and want to work full-time.

“Getting back to full employment takes us one big step toward ending hunger in America.”

Figure i.4 **U.S. Poverty and Civilian Unemployment Rates, 1980-2012**



Sources: U.S. Census Bureau and U.S. Department of Labor: Bureau of Labor Statistics 2013

When both these groups are included, the percentage of workers left out of the recovery was 14.3 percent¹² in July 2013—nearly twice the official unemployment rate of 7.4 percent.¹³

The most effective way to reduce poverty and hunger is to reduce unemployment. Over the decades, the percentage of Americans below the poverty line has closely tracked the unemployment rate. See Figure i.4. A much stronger economic recovery would be good news for everybody, but especially for all who are struggling to feed themselves and their families.

The federal government needs to take a much more aggressive approach to creating jobs. The 2009 American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (Recovery Act) gave a boost to the economy, and it may have prevented a full-blown depression, but the White House and Congress clearly underestimated the severity of the recession, so the Recovery Act did not do enough to stimulate the economy. We need a stronger commitment from both branches of government to achieving full employment.

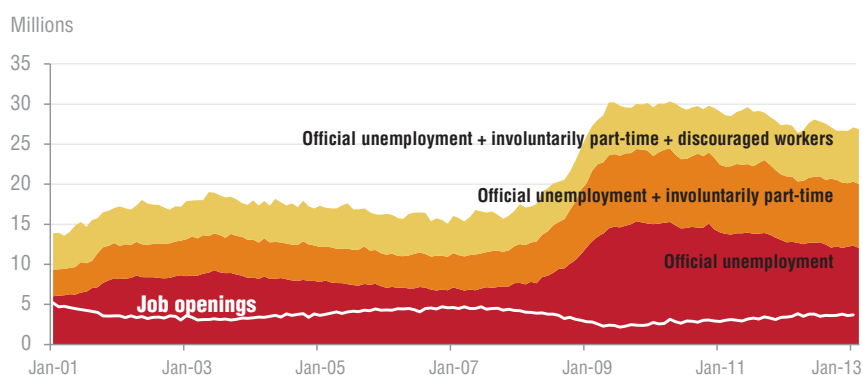
Since the Great Recession, the Federal Reserve has put more emphasis on reducing unemployment, managing monetary policy to keep interest rates low and try to stimulate private sector investments that will create jobs. But

with Congress and the president almost completely tied up in debates over the budget deficit, Federal Reserve policies have been only modestly successful in supporting job creation. Even though unemployment is still unacceptably high, the Fed is signaling that it will shift toward a less expansive monetary policy that will put less emphasis on jobs.

The Recovery Act provided funding to help fix weaknesses in the country's physical infrastructure. Renovating the nation's fragile and neglected infrastructure is still one of the best investments we can make to put people to work and help boost economic productivity for the long term. Investments in human infrastructure or human capital, as economists often call workers' knowledge and skills, also drive productivity growth. We know from decades of research that early education is one of the best investments countries can make to improve human capital. Early education has also proven to be one of the best ways to give children a chance to escape intergenerational poverty. More than a third of young families (those where the breadwinner is under 30 years old and there is at least one child) are living in poverty.¹⁴ Plus, parents in these families need the childcare component of early education just to be able to work.

The relationship between hunger and unemployment seems obvious. Getting back to full employment takes us one big step toward ending hunger in America. It's necessary but it's not enough, because millions of families experience hunger in spite of holding down jobs. All jobs should pay a wage that makes it possible for full-time, year-round workers to support

Figure i.5 **Alternative Measures of Unemployment**



Sources: Mike Evangelist and Anastasia Christman (April 2013), "Scarring Effects: Demographics of the Long-Term Unemployed and the Dangers of Ignoring the Jobs Deficit," National Employment Law Project.

their family above the poverty line. No one can do that on today's minimum wage of \$7.25 an hour. There's a widespread myth that most minimum wage workers are teenagers living with their parents. In fact, 80 percent of minimum wage earners are at least 20 years old.¹⁵ Some job categories are even exempt from minimum wage requirements, and workers are paid as little as \$2.13 an hour.

The minimum wage sets the floor and determines the pay rate of other low-wage jobs. In 2011, 28 percent of workers earned \$11.06 or less an hour, with the average hourly wage for this group just \$8.66.¹⁶

To put these numbers in perspective, consider the cost of housing. Nowhere in the United States could someone working full time at these wages afford a two-bedroom apartment.¹⁷ According to the National Low Income Housing Coalition, an average full-time worker would need to earn \$18.25 an hour just to afford a two-bedroom apartment at the fair market rate of 30 percent of their income.

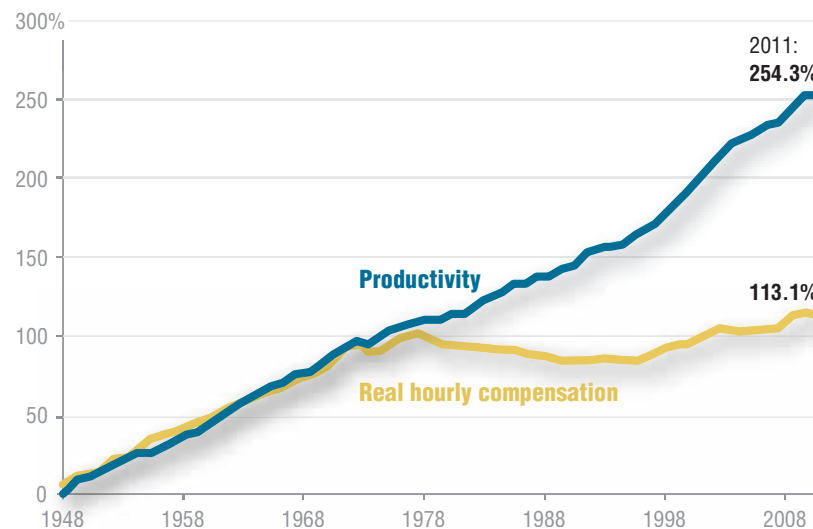
The minimum wage should be raised annually at a rate at least commensurate with inflation and ideally reflecting the productivity growth of the overall economy. Currently there is no schedule for raising the minimum wage; it is subject to the whims of the president and Congress. The real value of the minimum wage peaked in 1968 at almost \$10.60 in 2012 dollars.¹⁸ In other words,

if the minimum wage had kept pace with inflation since then, it would be \$10.60 instead of \$7.25. Had it kept pace with productivity growth, the minimum wage today would be \$18.67.¹⁹ That sounds incredibly high, but the reason it sounds so extravagant is simply that wages have not kept pace with productivity for all these years. The U.S. median wage—the wage that half of all workers earn less than—is \$16.30 an hour. If wages across the income distribution had been rising along with productivity growth, the median wage in the United States today would be \$28.42.²⁰

Since productivity growth has in fact remained strong, somebody must be benefiting from it. As it turns out, the higher one's income, the more gains from productivity growth one captures. Between 1979 and 2007, the top 5 percent of income earners captured 81 percent of all the growth, with most of it (60 percent of the total growth) going to the top

Figure i.6 Most Americans Are Not Benefiting From Increased Productivity

Cumulative change in total economic productivity and real hourly compensation of production/nonsupervisory workers, 1948-2011



Sources: Lawrence Mishel, Josh Bivens, Elise Gould and Heidi Shierholz (2012), *The State of Working America*, 12th edition, Economic Policy Institute. EPI analysis of Bureau of Labor Statistics and Bureau of Economic Analysis data.

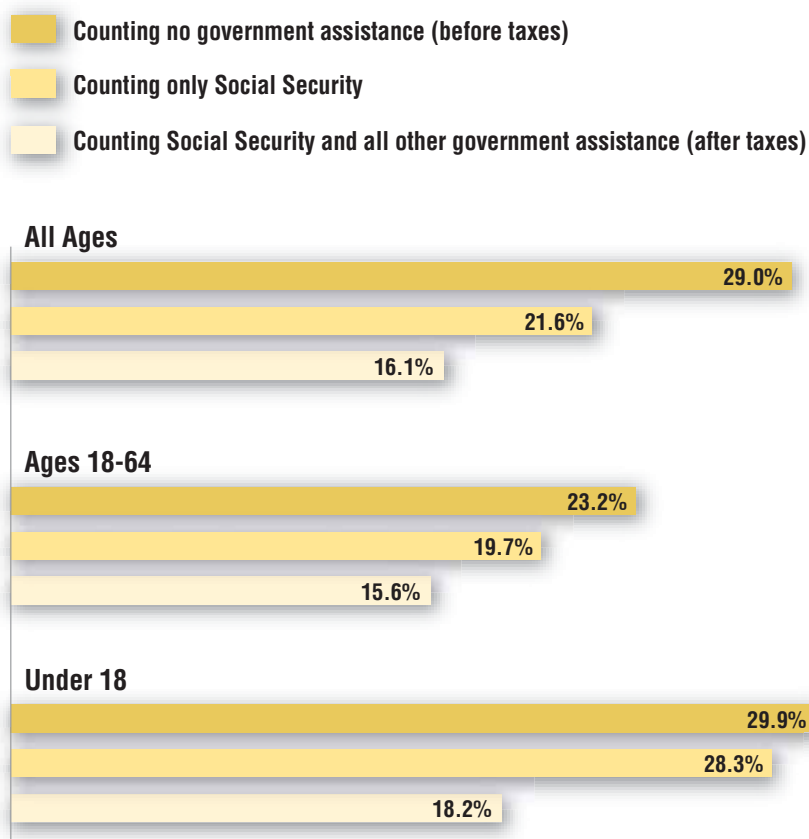
1 percent. It wasn't always this way, as we see in Figure i.6. From the end of World War II until about the middle of the 1970s, hourly compensation (wages and benefits) rose at the same rate as productivity growth. Income inequality—a subject we've been hearing so much about in recent years, and we will say more about later in the report—is basically a story about the divergence of wages from productivity growth.

A Stronger Safety Net

Safety net programs help protect people from the hardships associated with poverty, such as hunger, homelessness, and debilitating medical problems. Programs are means-tested, so participants are required to have little or no income, and are sometimes required to drain nearly all of their savings, before they can qualify. These are often people who cannot work or are limited in how much they can work because of old age, poor health, or a disability. Children and adults in families where the breadwinner is unemployed or doesn't earn enough to meet basic living expenses qualify for safety net programs. Full-time students in postsecondary education programs may rely on safety net programs to see them and their children through extended periods when they can't earn sufficient income.

In 2011, the combined federal safety net programs lifted a total of 40 million people above the poverty line, including almost 9 million children.²⁶ Social Security did most of the work, pulling 21.4 million people out of poverty—seniors, people with disabilities, and/or families caring for a member with a disability.²⁷ Social Security is not purely a safety net program, because retirees and disabled people who receive it paid into the program through payroll taxes during their working years. But it has the effect of a safety net—and the single largest one by far. Social Security expenditures for fiscal year 2012 were \$773 billion.²⁸

Figure i.7 Poverty Rate Would Have Been Nearly Twice as High in 2011 Without Safety Net



Source: Arloc Sherman, Danilo Trisi, and Sharon Parrott (July 30, 2013), "Various Supports for Low-Income Families Reduce Poverty and Have Long-Term Positive Effects on Families and Children," Center on Budget and Policy Priorities. CBPP analysis of U.S. Census Bureau data.

THE CHURN AND THE RESPONSE

The official poverty rate is based on household income for a full calendar year, so it doesn't reflect the extent to which people cycle in and out of poverty during the year. For example, a household of four is officially counted as poor if it had an income of \$24,000 or less during the calendar year. It is not counted as poor if it had five months of no income but enough income in the other seven months to bring the annual income over \$24,000—even if the five-month period came unexpectedly at the end of the year. Over a two-year period from 2008-2009, 13.8 percent of people were considered to be officially living in poverty; however, nearly a third of the population was below the poverty line for at least a month of these two years, and one-fifth were in poverty for at least six months.²¹ See Figure i.8. The upside of the information shown here is that protracted periods of poverty, that is, lasting two years or more, appear to be less common than the official poverty rate would indicate.

“It’s important to have a safety net that responds quickly, so that families that suffer a sharp drop in income and sink into poverty, even for a brief spell, are able to quickly get the help they need.”

Realizing that about a third of Americans experience poverty from time to time can change political attitudes. Many policymakers, and much of the public, imagine that poverty is a chronic problem among a particular group of people. And, in fact, there are people trapped in poverty for a very long time. But there is also a much larger group of Americans who struggle on the edge of poverty or slip into poverty when they lose a job or when someone in the family becomes seriously ill. The average SNAP participant leaves the program after 10 months.²²

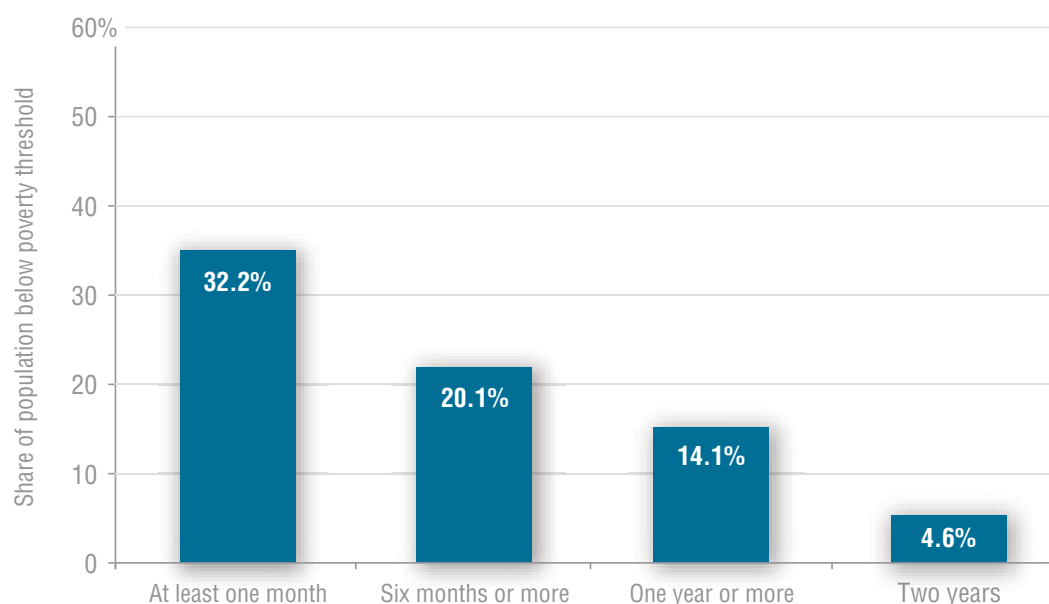
Thus, it's important to have a safety net that responds quickly, so that families that suffer a sharp drop in income and sink into poverty, even for a brief spell, are able to quickly get the help they need. They may not need the help for long, but it is critical for them to get it before hunger is a reality—particularly for young children. The U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) states that anyone who qualifies for SNAP will receive benefits within 30 days.²³ But not all government programs respond so quickly. It takes years to qualify for publicly-subsidized housing. Also, when families fall into desperate economic straits, it usually takes some time for them to accept the idea of seeking assistance and then to figure out whether there are programs that meet their particular needs. This shows the importance of public information services, such as the 211 call program operating in some cities, which effectively refer people in need to government and community programs that might be able to help them.

The ability of state and local governments to respond quickly has been compromised by the

loss of so many public sector jobs after the recession. By March 2013, 744,000 public sector jobs had been lost since the end of the recession in June 2009, according to a report in the *Wall Street Journal*.²⁴ March 2013 is when sequestration went into effect—the automatic budget cuts that are the result of the failure of Congress to negotiate a budget agreement by September 2011. It is important to note that sequestration was not designed as a strategy to reduce the deficit—it was intended as a threat that would force legislators to agree on a deficit reduction strategy. It was an ineffective threat, as it turned out.

In July 2013, the Congressional Budget Office estimated that if the sequester continued throughout 2014, it would result in combined public and private sector job losses of between 300,000 and 1.6 million.²⁵ A self-inflicted wound such as this is obviously not speeding recovery from the recession, nor is it improving the government's capacity to fight hunger. Read about how Bread for the World is working to counter the effects of sequestration on the nation's most vulnerable people on page 44.

Figure i.8 **Length of Time in Poverty Over a Two-Year Period, 2008-2009**



Source: Lawrence Mishel, Josh Bivens, Elise Gould and Heidi Shierholz (2012), *The State of Working America*, 12th edition, Economic Policy Institute. EPI analysis of U.S. Census Bureau data.

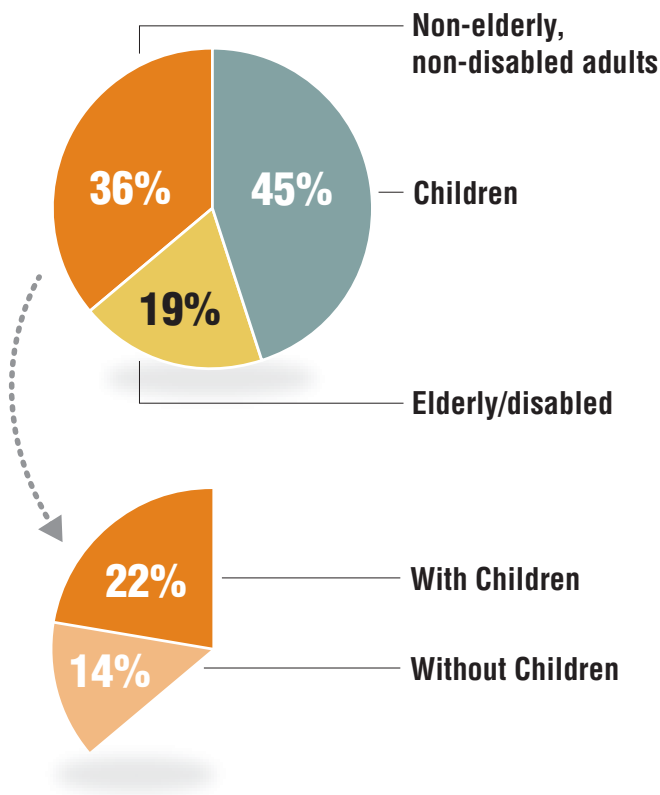
According to the Social Security Administration, Social Security is not careening toward bankruptcy as some of the program's critics allege.²⁹ With minor adjustments to its financing structure, the program will be able to meet its full obligations for the foreseeable future. In 2012, Social Security paid an average benefit of \$1,262 a month to 36.7 million retirees.³⁰ Some seniors receive less than \$800 per month, however, as a result of having paid less into the

Social Security system before retirement—either because they worked for a shorter period of time, or they earned less in their peak earning years. Seniors usually need to supplement Social Security income with personal savings, pensions, or income from other assets, but millions don't have these sources at all or get very little from them. People who are low-income at the time they retire generally remain low-income throughout retirement.

It is hard to overstate how important Social Security has been to reducing poverty in America. The program originated in the 1930s, but it was not until the 1960s and reforms during the War on Poverty that the program came to resemble what it is now. Before the 1960s, one in three seniors in the United States was living in poverty, the highest percentage of any major demographic group. By the 1970s, senior poverty had plummeted; in fact, seniors were the group with the lowest poverty rate. Today, poverty is rising among

Figure i.9

Close to Two-Thirds of SNAP Recipients are Children, Elderly, or Disabled



Source: Center on Budget and Policy Priorities (2013). CBPP analysis of U.S. Department of Agriculture SNAP Household Characteristics data.

seniors faster than for any other group. Two reasons for this are that the baby boom generation is retiring at the rate of 10,000 people per day,³¹ and that people are living longer and having to pay higher medical costs.

Since 2000, medical conditions have been the leading cause of personal bankruptcies.³² Medicare and Medicaid, established during the 1960s, have saved countless lives and reduced the hardships of poverty for more people than we can accurately estimate. Together, these two programs plus the Children's Health Insurance Program (CHIP), come close to matching the cost of Social Security. The three combined cost \$732 billion in 2012.³³ Medicaid is exclusively for very low-income people, while Medicare is a social insurance program, a supplement to Social Security for seniors and disabled people.

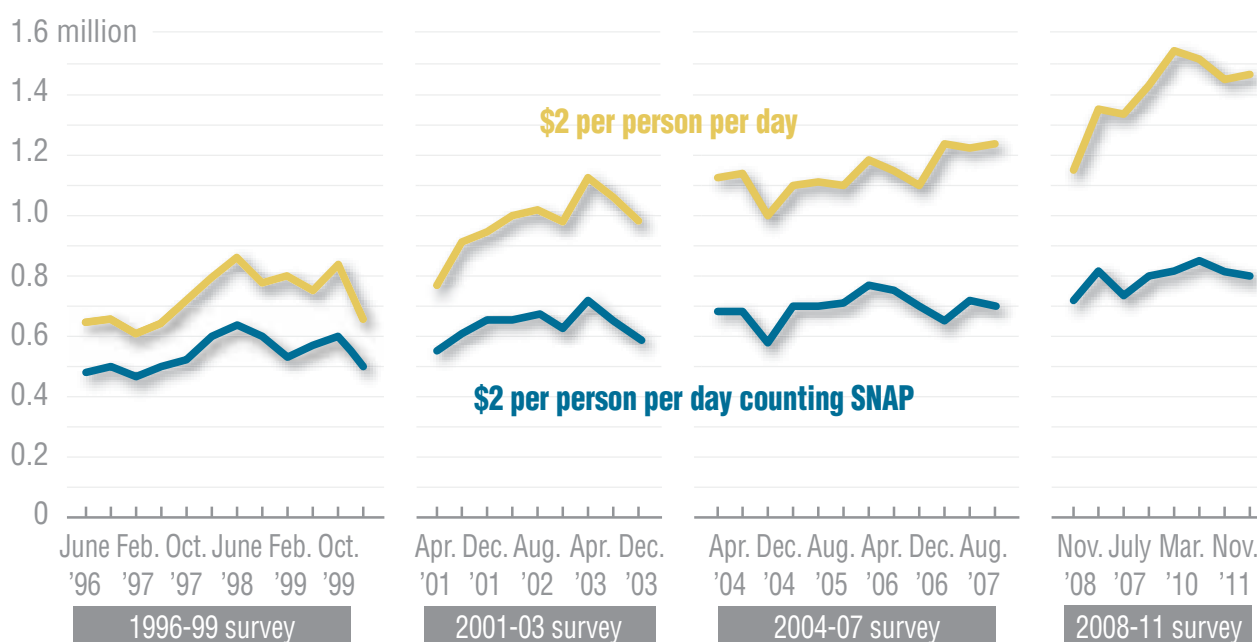
The Affordable Care Act (ACA), implementation of which has just begun, has the potential to make affordable health care available to millions of additional people who previously were excluded because their jobs did not provide insurance, their low incomes made it impossible to afford the premiums, or insurance providers simply would not insure them because they had pre-existing conditions. No doubt there will be hiccoughs in its implementation, but the ACA is a monumental improvement to the American social safety net, no less of an achievement than Social Security. The uninsured people who will now get coverage are largely people living just above the poverty line. Because medical problems and/or the bills that come with them now drive many people into hunger and poverty, the ACA should have the effect of reducing both of these.

The United States has many other safety-net programs that reduce the hardships associated with poverty. The biggest means-tested programs are the Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC), Medicaid, and SNAP. SNAP is the main program designed to protect people from hunger. The majority of households that participate in SNAP are working families with children. Each year, about half of all SNAP recipients are children. The poorest families count on SNAP more than any other program to see them through hard times. In 2011, for example, 1.46 million U.S. households lived on income of *less than \$2 per person, per day, including* 2.8 million children in these households.³⁴ See Figure i.10. The average family receiving SNAP benefits lives in “deep poverty,”

“The majority of households that participate in SNAP are working families with children.”

Figure i.10 **SNAP Cuts Exteme Poverty Significantly (2011)**

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



Source: National Poverty Center (2012).

meaning that its income is less than half the poverty level. For a family of four, this was \$11,500 a year or less in 2011, the year for which we have the most consistent data. In 2011, there were 7.2 million American children living in deep poverty.³⁵ Research shows that children whose families received SNAP benefits are less likely to experience developmental delays than children in families with similar incomes that did not receive SNAP.³⁶

The Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC), which gives a financial boost to low-income workers, lifts more people out of poverty each year than SNAP. The EITC comes as a tax refund in a lump sum payment and is best suited to paying down debt or making a larger purchase than households living paycheck-to-paycheck can afford. SNAP, on the other hand, provides the resources to keep food in the refrigerator day after day. It's not difficult to imagine improvements to SNAP, starting with benefits that last for the entire month and are enough to enable families to purchase healthy foods rather than cheaper, unhealthy alternatives. Most families who receive SNAP benefits cannot make them last the entire month. In fact, 80 percent of benefits are redeemed within the first two weeks of the month.³⁷ Less expensive, unhealthy foods are the inevitable tradeoff people make to minimize the time at the end of every month when food is running out.

“Children whose families received SNAP benefits are less likely to experience developmental delays than children in families with similar incomes that did not receive SNAP.”

Human Capital Development: “Investing in People”

As we have pointed out, nutrition programs—the safety net’s center of gravity—are crucial to protecting families from hunger and the poor health often associated with it. They help

BOX i.2

WE NEED A SAFETY NET THAT IS STRONG, RESILIENT, AND MORE COMPASSIONATE THAN THE ONE WE HAVE

The safety net should exclude no one. People returning to communities after finishing prison sentences are among the most marginalized people in society—and they have one of the highest rates of hunger. In some states, certain categories of ex-offenders face a lifetime ban on eligibility for SNAP and other safety net programs. This harms not only them, but their children and other family members, the communities they return to, and American society at large—because hunger can drive people to desperation, and these policies can lead to recidivism and re-incarceration that would not otherwise have occurred. Returning citizens have paid their debt to society, and they should not be further penalized by discriminatory laws that deny them nutrition assistance. They face significant barriers to getting and keeping jobs. They and others in situations where the odds are against their successful employment could benefit from subsidized jobs programs that enable them to gain work experience, build skills, and improve their long-term employability.

people cope with difficult circumstances. But families will remain on shaky ground without a clear path to real opportunity.

President Obama has spoken of “building ladders of opportunity” for people to reach the middle class—a concept that sends a message of hope, particularly to young people. As the president said in January 2013, when he took the oath of office for his second term, “We are true to our creed when a little girl born into the bleakest poverty knows that she has the same chance to succeed as anybody else.”³⁸

It is still possible for someone born into poverty in the United States to escape that fate as an adult. But the rungs on the ladder of economic mobility are getting farther apart, especially those at the bottom. Inequalities—not only of living standards, but of opportunity—start early for children in food-insecure households. Babies whose mothers suffer from hunger or poor nutrition during pregnancy are more likely to enter the world with a low birth weight. Children who are damaged physically and intellectually by hunger face higher risks of developing chronic health problems, doing poorly in school, dropping out, getting involved in crime, losing jobs and being unemployed, and finally passing the whole cycle on to the next generation.³⁹

Ensuring that all children have access to a high-quality education is one of the most important investments a nation can make. Education can still get people pretty far up the ladder. But U.S. schools do more to perpetuate social and economic inequalities than reduce them. High-quality schools in the United States are overwhelmingly located in wealthy and middle-class neighborhoods. Children who attend such schools perform well on achievement

BOX i.3

THE CIRCLE OF PROTECTION

Since early 2011, Bread for the World has worked with many people of faith to create a Circle of Protection around federal programs that reduce hunger and poverty. Many members of the House of Representatives have pushed for deep cuts to these programs, but the actual cuts have come to only about 1 percent of what had been proposed. While food insecurity rates surged in 2008, hunger did not continue to increase after that—even though unemployment did. The Circle of Protection campaign helped maintain the safety net programs and moderated the Great Recession’s impact on hunger.



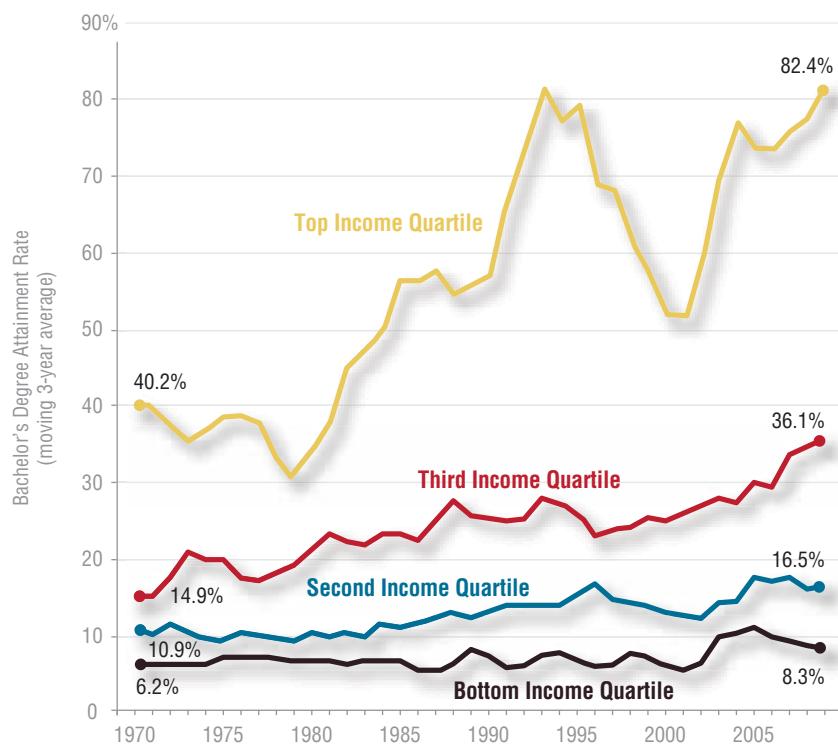
Laura Elizabeth Pohl for Bread for the World

Bread for the World members from Pennsylvania discuss the Circle of Protection in the office of Sen. Robert Casey during Lobby Day 2011.

tests compared to their peers in other countries.⁴⁰ In low-income school districts, where the majority of students qualify for free or reduced-price lunch and breakfast, lower test scores reflect the different socioeconomic realities of these children's lives.⁴¹

College can make a world of difference in equalizing inequalities that begin at birth. More than half of children born into the poorest 20 percent of the population (the bottom quintile) who complete a four-year college degree make it to the middle quintile or higher.⁴²

Figure i.11 Estimated Baccalaureate Degree Attainment by Age 24 by Family Income Quartile, 1970-2009



Source: Postsecondary Education Opportunity (2010), "Family Income and Educational Attainment 1970 to 2009."

But children from low-income families have to foot more of the bill for their postsecondary education than their counterparts a generation ago. While the cost of post-secondary education has soared, their parents' incomes have not kept pace with inflation. On average, low-income students spend the equivalent of 72 percent of their family's entire income on college costs.⁴³ Government grants to low-income students have not kept pace with inflation, nor has the number of grants awarded kept pace with the population of students applying.⁴⁴ These are some of the reasons that the college completion rates of low-income students have been stagnant for the last 40 years, in contrast to students from high-income families, whose completion rates have more than doubled over that same time period.⁴⁵ See Figure i.11. One in five American households is carrying student loan debt, with stu-

dents from low-income families much more likely to owe significant amounts of money for their educational costs. But this is also a problem that crosses class and income boundaries; the total dollar amount of student loan debt has quadrupled in just a decade.

The middle class has been hit hard by the Great Recession, especially by the collapse in housing values. It used to be that reaching the middle class meant arriving somewhere safe and secure. That was symbolized by home ownership, the American Dream. The housing bubble that burst in 2006 and sent the economy spiraling into the depths of the Great Recession made nightmares out of many American Dreams. For most people in the middle class, their largest source of personal wealth is their home equity. From 2007 to 2010, the median wealth of white households fell by 36 percent, the median wealth of African American households by 50 percent, and the median wealth of Latino households by 86 percent.⁴⁶

The accumulation of wealth provided a cushion to complement a couple's Social Security benefits in retirement, or it could be used to finance other investments that pay off in the long term, such as college educations for children, home improvements, or starting a small business. Most small businesses in America are capitalized with the owner's personal wealth. Only small businesses of a relatively "big" size find that mainstream financial institutions are willing to extend them low-interest credit.

Public-Private Partnerships and Community Initiatives

The federal government cannot end hunger by itself. It needs partners in state and local government and in civil society—such as the thousands of nonprofit organizations and volunteers who fight hunger every day in their communities. It needs business leaders who understand the scarring effects of hunger on human capital development and how food insecurity harms the economy. And, of course, people living in poverty will do most of what needs to be done to end hunger for themselves and their families. A goal to end hunger will not be met unless it is adopted and "owned" by all of these partners.

Setting a national goal to end hunger could mobilize our whole society. When a president sets a goal to end hunger, we expect states and localities to embrace it and deploy resources of their own. Some community groups and businesses, along with many poor people, will join in. The conversation rises in pitch and encourages others to participate, and the goal becomes a priority for the nation as a whole. As more people support it, new leaders emerge with new ideas of how to achieve the goal, and the engines of innovation begin to hum.

Partnership means recognizing the value that different partners bring to the common aspiration. Nothing at the state or local level can match the sheer volume of resources the federal government contributes. In 2012, Bread for the World produced a fact sheet showing that for every 24 bags of food assistance in the United States, government nutrition programs account for 23.⁴⁷ But what the fact sheet did not show is how many of those bags get to where they are needed because of the tireless efforts of partners in local communities. These include volunteers doing SNAP outreach, elected officials streamlining how nutrition programs are implemented so that more people can participate, food service directors figuring out creative ways to get healthier foods into school meal programs, church leaders hosting summer food sites, food banks distributing government commodities, government workers defeating their stereotyped image as impersonal bureaucrats, and more. These are all examples of how partners at the local level enhance what the federal government does to fight hunger.

Johnnie Jones of the U.S. Department of Agriculture fills bags with oatmeal purchased in bulk to be distributed by the Arlington Food Assistance Center in Arlington, Virginia.



USDA/Bob Nichols

The USDA administers 15 separate nutrition programs. Fighting hunger does not lend itself to a one-size-fits-all approach. That's also true at the local level. Portland, Oregon, may not go about it in exactly the same way as Portland, Maine. It takes local ears to listen to what those most affected by hunger are experiencing, and it takes local leaders to move members of the community to advocate for better policies. Communities have different assets, leaders have different styles, and the mix of local partners and the talents they bring to the enterprise

are different everywhere. As nutrition programs are implemented at the local level, the federal government has limited capacity to solve problems such as low participation rates or stigma associated with some programs. The federal government also has limited capacity to monitor progress towards achieving the goal at the local level. It relies on partners in the communities to handle these and other issues—and to share information so that the legislative and executive branches back in Washington, DC, can improve policies.

Capacity building takes place at the local level, but the federal government has ways to support it. For example, the Hunger Free Communities Network is a mechanism that helps groups working to end hunger in their local areas come

together to press for systemic changes that will reduce hunger on a larger scale. The Hunger Free Communities Network got a boost from a federal grant program. In 2005, Bread for the World's annual Offering of Letters campaign had members lobbying Congress to pass the Hunger Free Communities (HFC) Act that established the network. Eventually, Congress passed the HFC Act and provided one year of funding. Just that one round of grants strengthened anti-hunger coalitions in communities across the nation.

In Search of the Common Good

In 2013, McDonald's launched a website to show its workers, most of whom earn minimum wage, how to budget their salaries. According to McDonald's calculations, workers earning minimum wage would have to put in 74 hours a week just to afford basic living costs. Some wondered if the site was a joke. But it was no joke.⁴⁸ A typical McDonald's worker, reported Bloomberg News, would have to work a million hours each year to earn what the company's CEO was paid.⁴⁹

The average Wal-Mart employee would have to work 785 years to earn one year's salary of the company's CEO.⁵⁰ Wal-Mart is the country's largest private sector employer and one of its most profitable. Four members of the Walton family earned a combined \$20 billion in investments last year.⁵¹ The company claims that it pays full-time workers an average of



Sergio Baiz (right) and Ed Rivas (left) of the San Antonio Food Bank lift a tub of potatoes that will be cooked and mashed for meals served in a Kids Café program.

\$12.78 an hour, but IBISWorld, an independent industry research firm, reports that workers are paid \$8.81 hourly on average.⁵² A study by the Committee on Education and the Workforce in the House of Representatives found that in Wisconsin, a typical Wal-Mart store costs taxpayers \$5,815 per employee because workers qualify for, and participate in, public safety net programs.⁵³

In the early twentieth century, Henry Ford realized that to build a larger market for the cars he was producing, workers such as the ones he employed in his factories needed to earn enough money to afford one. Ford doubled his workers' wages, and as factory workers everywhere dreamed of coming to work at his plant, it led other employers to raise wages to keep their workers from bolting to Ford at the first opportunity.⁵⁴

The U.S. economy has changed a great deal since Ford's day. So has the thinking at its largest companies. When Henry Ford passed away in 1947, CEOs at top U.S. companies were earning on average about 20 times more than a rank-and-file worker.⁵⁵ By 2012, CEOs were earning 204 times the average wage.⁵⁶ The divergence between what companies pay their executives and what they pay average workers has been

the source of a wide-ranging national conversation about income inequality. Between 1978 and 2012, CEO compensation rose by 875 percent, while worker compensation rose by an average of 5.4 percent.⁵⁷

Exit polling during the 2012 election showed that most Americans believe that the economy is not working for them; 76 percent strongly believed that the rich are getting richer and the poor are getting poorer.⁵⁸ A 2011 study by the Pew Economic Mobility Project found that four out of five Americans believe that the government does an ineffective job of helping poor and middle-class people.⁵⁹ Americans are clearly frustrated.

By some measures, such as productivity growth or GDP, the U.S. economy has performed exceptionally well over the last few decades. Yet real wages have been stagnant.⁶⁰ Income inequality has widened to levels not seen since the financial crash that caused the Great Depression. The New Deal is a useful reference point for us today. During the New Deal, the government attacked income inequality and succeeded, putting the country on a path of broadly shared prosperity that lasted for decades.

In the United States, our concept of a social contract is rooted in the New Deal, the policies and institutions created by President Franklin D. Roosevelt's administration in the 1930s. A social contract is basically a right to economic security. At the beginning of the chapter, we explained that hunger and poverty are indivisible. Here at the end, let's turn that around.



Franklin D. Roosevelt Presidential Library

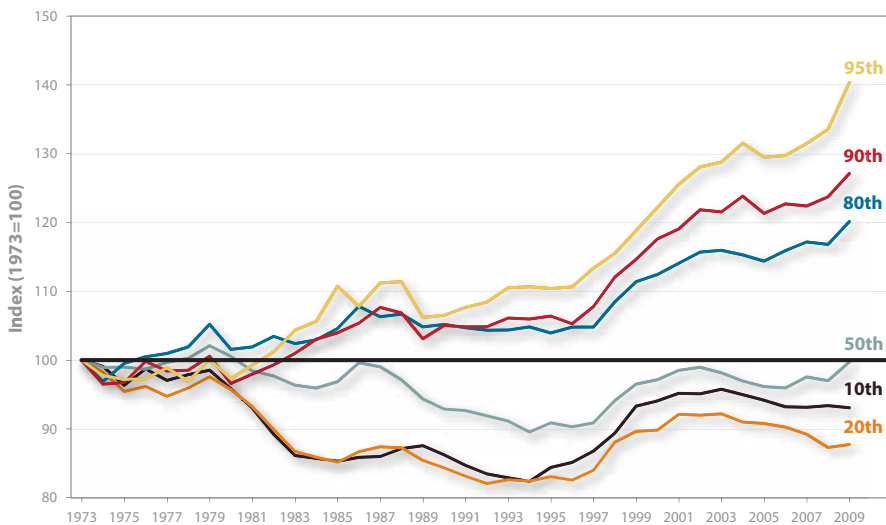
President Franklin D. Roosevelt signs into law the Social Security Act in 1935. Behind him is Frances Perkins, Secretary of Labor and first female cabinet member, who pushed the president to enact massive public works projects and create jobs for millions of unemployed workers.

Food security—freedom from hunger—is indivisible from economic security. What Americans are looking for today is a fair deal, a social contract that will cover everyone from childhood through adulthood and into retirement. The New Deal helped to restore public faith in government by making it clear that government was on the side of ordinary citizens, and that's what the public is looking for from government today.

Concern for the common good, the common “weal,” is an endemic feature of the American character. It was so important at the founding of our country that four of the newly unified states

kept the title “commonwealth” rather than calling themselves “states.” But a common weal seems to exist mainly in history books. Prosperity for a few, not for all, is the track we’re on now. Conditions for all members of society can be improved through proven investments. The Hunger Report highlights a number of these, such as the minimum wage, early education, improvements in human resources and physical infrastructure, nutrition programs such as SNAP, and other federal programs such as Social Security, the EITC, and assistance with college tuition. Just as corporations seek to maximize their return on investment, so should our country’s economic agenda build on

Figure i.12 Change in Real Hourly Wages for Men by Wage Percentile, 1973-2009



Source: Lawrence Mishel, Josh Bivens, Elise Gould and Heidi Shierholz (2012), *The State of Working America*, 12th edition, Economic Policy Institute. EPI analysis of U.S. Census Bureau data.

policies and programs that have been shown to have multiplier effects, producing the highest returns for the common good.

The Way Forward

There is no good reason for hunger in the United States—and yet hunger persists, ruining lives and crippling the nation. It is a political problem: the lack of political will to take hunger seriously, to make it a national priority, and to develop a comprehensive plan to end it once and for all. Every day people travel to the Capitol in Washington, DC, and to state capitols, and tell elected officials what they want them to do to make America a stronger nation. In a democracy, if enough people demand something, politicians will act, or else they are replaced. It is important that constituents become more vocal about making hunger and poverty here at home a priority, calling for a commitment and leadership from policymakers. Setting a goal to end hunger—a goal with a deadline—will help our elected leaders do the right thing. It is a means of holding them and ourselves accountable. We must do this together. That is the only way it will get done.

INCOME INEQUALITY AS IT RELATES TO FAMILY STABILITY

Fifty years ago socioeconomic status had little effect on people's decisions to marry.⁶¹ In 1960, 76 percent of college graduates were married, slightly higher than the 72 percent with a high school degree or less.⁶² By 2010, the gap had widened to 64 percent of college graduates versus 48 percent of people with a high school degree or less.⁶³

According to polling by the Pew Research Center, lack of economic security is a key reason people say they don't get married.⁶⁴ While the marriage gap was widening, so was income inequality. In 1979, the earnings gap between a college graduate and a high school graduate was 40 percent; by 2011, it had risen to 76 percent.

Studies show that children have a better chance of escaping poverty as adults if they grow up in households where their parents have a stable relationship.⁶⁵

Studies also show that stable parental relationships are linked to favorable household economic conditions.⁶⁶

Since 1979, men's wages have declined in real value all the way up through the 60th income percentile. The decline is steeper at lower income levels.⁶⁷ See Figure i.12. In the bottom 20 percent of income earners, seven in 10 women earn as much or more than their male partners.⁶⁸

"Since 1979, men's wages have declined in real value all the way up through the 60th income percentile."

The declining value of men's wages has had profound effects on family life. By people's own admission, economic security is important, particularly as it relates to how men see themselves as providers. "Breadwinning remains core to men's identity, and when men struggle to find work or have low earnings potential, they are much less likely to marry," says UCLA sociologist Suzanne Bianchi.⁶⁹

A startling 88 percent of African Americans, and 77 percent of Latinos, say that for a man to be ready for marriage, he must be able to support a family financially, compared to 62 percent of white respondents.⁷⁰ It's probably no coincidence that declining wage rates have affected a greater share of African American and Latino men than white men, and that the median wages of African American and Latino men are lower than for their white counterparts.

While men's wages at the lower end of the income distribution were declining in value, women's were on the rise—although most progress among women in this group occurred before the year 2000. The gender wage gap has been closing since women started to enter the workforce at an increasing rate. At least part of the reason was to cope with the declining value of the male's wages. But women are still earning only 77 cents for every dollar earned by men.⁷¹

There is little evidence that government programs to strengthen parental relationships in unstable families achieve the desired results.⁷² But government can take steps that would raise wages, and that would encourage stable marriages and families.

THE IMPORTANCE OF PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIPS IN COMBATTING DOMESTIC HUNGER

Rep. Frank R. Wolf, Virginia - 10th District

I have met with local food banks and pantries in my congressional district on a regular basis for the past several years and they all tell me that demand for the service they provide is at record highs. This is true across the country.

In the world's wealthiest nation, roughly 49 million Americans, or one in six, struggle to put enough food on the table at some point during the year. Twenty-five million depend on food banks and other charities. This is especially striking given that in America there's no scarcity of food.

The federal government presently provides roughly 96 percent of the money spent on food assistance whereas private charity provides a mere 4 percent. This is both unacceptable and *unsustainable* given our current fiscal woes as a nation.

We must take common sense steps to address this phenomenon. A couple of years ago, after meeting with my district food banks, I learned local schools were throwing out excess food because they had received misguided advice that they could be sued if their donated food made someone sick. So in 2011, I sponsored legislation, which passed into law, clarifying once and for all that schools are covered under the federal Good Samaritan Act and explicitly permitted to donate excess food without fear of liability. This relatively simple fix had no cost to taxpayers and made a positive impact on fighting hunger in communities.

The private sector must be empowered and encouraged to join in the battle against domestic hunger.

Yes, it is important for government to provide a safety net for those who fall on hard times. But in the face of exploding national debts and deficits and further cuts to domestic discretionary spending, including food stamps, all but inevitable, it is time for any American who is committed to combatting domestic hunger to consider complimentary public-private partnership initiatives to buttress federal government assistance.

What if every company, Rotary, Kiwanis Club, PTA, law firm and school were to twice a year—and not just at Thanksgiving and Christmas—hold a food drive to restock and replenish the empty shelves of our nation's food pantries and raise awareness about the hungry in our midst?

What if farmers were to set aside an acre of their land for the local Scout group to cultivate and then donate their bounty to the area food bank?



Office of Rep. Frank R. Wolf

Congressman Frank Wolf (in the red tie) helping Feds Feed Families, a national canned food drive conducted by federal employees.

What if government were to incentivize farmers to set aside land for the purpose of gleaning? What if this agricultural contribution to the public good qualified as a charitable gift?

What if every governor had someone on staff dedicated to tackling hunger in their state? What if this person was tasked with reaching out to every restaurant owner, public school, farmer and food bank in the state with the aim of connecting those with more than enough to those with not nearly enough?

The needs are seemingly insurmountable but so too are the possibilities. Surely we can all agree that domestic hunger is unacceptable and that in this land of plenty, even during a time of relative austerity, none should be left wanting.

Republican Congressman Frank R. Wolf represents the 10th District of Virginia. He has served in Congress since 1981.

THE IMPORTANCE OF A WHITE HOUSE SUMMIT TO END HUNGER

INTRODUCTION

Rep. Jim McGovern, Massachusetts - 2nd District

Close to 49 million struggle to put food on their tables. Many of these are hardworking people whose jobs just do not pay enough to feed their families. We need to use every opportunity we have to talk about it, to shine a light on the plight of the hungry, to take hunger out of the shadows and rededicate ourselves to the need to end hunger.

Just because 49 million people in this country struggle to put food on their tables doesn't mean that we have mass starvation in America. Thankfully, we have developed a safety net that helps to protect the vast majority of the hungry.

There are a myriad of initiatives being used to combat hunger in America. These are public, private and non-profit initiatives that are all very successful in their own ways. The problem is that these efforts—from federal to state to local governments; from non-profits like churches and food banks to for-profit businesses—are working independently of each other; they are not connected. And they can't end hunger on their own.

We need to work smarter and more efficiently if we're going to end hunger.

We need to bring everyone together and connect the dots.

We need a plan.

That's why I've called for a White House summit to end hunger.

Over the years, there have been citywide, countywide and statewide hunger summits. Food banks, hospitals, colleges and universities have all held these events. But there hasn't been one nationwide hunger summit, convened by the White House, since President Nixon did so in 1969—over 44 years ago!

We need a summit today more than ever. Our deficit and debt are forcing us to do more with less, and that means we need to be more efficient and streamlined with our resources. Our federal agencies should be talking to each other and addressing hunger in a more comprehensive way.

Why shouldn't the Departments of Labor, Health and Human Services, Housing and Urban Development, and, yes, the Department of Defense sit down and talk about the impact of hunger and malnutrition on their efforts and how best to address these problems?

As these agencies coordinate, we will need to involve our food banks, religious institutions, schools and hospitals. And we need to bring in the business community, including the food and beverage industry, financial institutions and manufacturers.



Congressman Jim McGovern receives advice on cutting vegetables from DC Central Kitchen staff with U.S. Secretary of Agriculture Tom Vilsack in the corner putting on gloves.

We need to bring our doctors, nurses, teachers, pastors, business leaders, politicians and, yes, the hungry too, in *one* room to develop *one* plan to end hunger. And then we need to agree to implement and execute that plan—a plan that is truly comprehensive and is designed to end hunger and not just cut the federal response to hunger.

Hunger is a political condition. We have the means and knowledge to end hunger; we just don't have the political will. And while hunger is a political condition, it shouldn't be a partisan issue. A White House summit is the forum that we need to galvanize political will to finally end hunger in America.

Ending hunger takes bold leadership. It takes presidential leadership. The president is the only one who can call everyone together, who can get everyone in the same room and on the same page in order to come up with one meaningful and achievable plan. We need the president to rise to the occasion and fully commit to end hunger in America.

Democratic Congressman Jim McGovern represents the 2nd District of Massachusetts. He has served in Congress since 1997.



Getting Back to Full Employment

Chapter Summary

When the breadwinner in a household is out of work, or can't find full-time work, it puts everyone living under the same roof at risk of hunger. Child hunger is directly related to the poverty that results from parents being unemployed or underemployed. Safety net programs do not fully compensate for the loss of income. Presently, hunger rates in the United States remain tremendously high in part because of a weak recovery since the end of the Great Recession. Without a deliberate attempt to reduce it, unemployment is likely to remain high for a long time. Getting back to full employment must become a higher priority for the White House, Congress and the Federal Reserve. They have tools to spur faster rates of job creation and put millions of more people back to work.

MAIN RECOMMENDATIONS IN THIS CHAPTER

- The Federal Reserve Board should maintain its pro-jobs monetary policy as long as unemployment remains high and inflation low.
- Congress should manage its work on the national budget differently—economic stimulus rather than job-killing cuts.
- Congress and the president should invest in infrastructure and emerging industries.
- Congress and the president should support entrepreneurship in low-income communities.

It may sound simple, but it's still true: the best defense against poverty and hunger is a steady, well-paying job. It is true not only at the household level, but for the nation as a whole. When jobs are plentiful, poverty and hunger rates plunge.

The late 1990s was a period of exceptionally low unemployment. Low-wage workers, whose unemployment rate is highest in good times and in bad, saw their best job prospects in decades. Between 1996 and 2000, the annual poverty rate fell to its lowest level in decades, and just 2

percent of the U.S. population lived in poverty for this entire period.¹

Poverty is a complex problem that is measured very simply—by household income. Consider a family with one wage earner. Every member of this family is more vulnerable to poverty and hunger than people in households with more than one worker. Poverty rates are highest in families headed by single mothers, mainly because women earn just 77 cents for every dollar earned by men.² Women make up 85 percent of households headed by a single parent. In 2011, 40.9 percent of families headed by a single mother were living in poverty.³ In families where a single mother

worked full-time, year-round, the poverty rate fell to 13.4 percent.⁴ While it's not great news that 13.4 percent of these full-time, year-round workers and their children were living in poverty, it's a much lower rate than 40.9 percent and illustrates the importance of a stable job.

Jeannette Wicks-Lim and Jeffrey Thompson, economists based at the University of Massachusetts, analyzed employment patterns in low-income families using U.S. Census data from 2005 to 2007. They define low-income as up to 200 percent of the poverty threshold, because their research and that of others shows that families with incomes as high as 200 percent of the poverty level—\$48,000 per year for a family of four—struggle to afford basic necessities such as food and shelter.⁵ The period covered in the study predates the worst stretch of the Great Recession. From 2005 to 2007, the unemployment rate averaged less than 5 percent. They write, “The average household head of a low-income working family worked about 1,420 hours annually from 2005-07—significantly less than full-time, year-round (2,080

In 2013, more than four years into recovery from the Great Recession, long-term unemployment (six months or more) remained at record high levels.



Richard Lord



The chance of being called for a job interview falls by **45 percent** as unemployment lengthens from one to eight months.¹

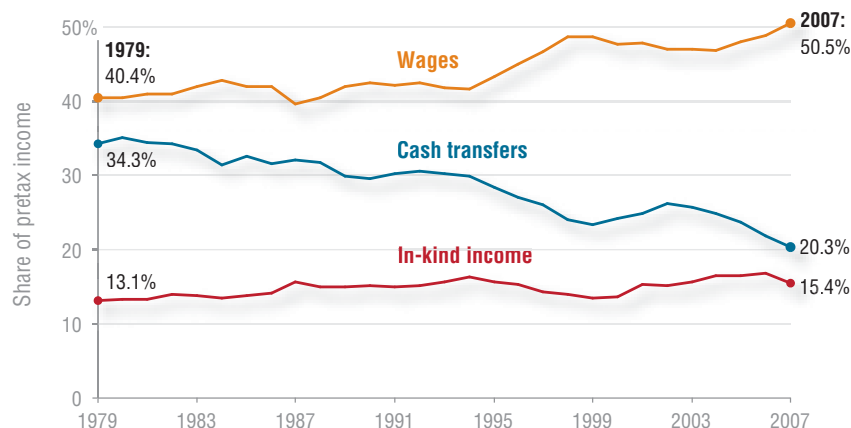
Workers who lost a job from 2007–2009, but who found new full-time work, faced an average wage cut of **10.5 percent**.²

hours). If all household heads and their spouses (if present) in low-income households worked full-time, year-round, the percent of low-income households would fall from 26 percent to 11 percent.”⁶ The bottom line: the number of low-income families could be cut by more than half if a full-time job were available for everyone who wanted one.

What does this mean for ending hunger in America? Well, it is simply not possible unless there are more full-time jobs. Nutrition programs and other anti-poverty programs can help compensate for a shortfall in income, but they cannot replace it. There’s a lot of overheated rhetoric about government assistance causing dependency, but the truth is that low-income households rely on work for most of their livelihood. From 1979 to 2007, government assistance to low-income families (cash transfers and in-kind income such as food stamps, free or reduced-price school meals, and housing and energy subsidies) actually *declined* as a share of their overall income.⁷ See Figure 1.1. Hourly wages when adjusted for inflation over this period increased by a mere 27 cents.⁸ Household income increased for most families by working more hours.

Jobs need to pay better (a subject we turn to in Chapter 2), but the first order of business must be to make sure that everyone who is able to work can find a job. Those who stand to gain the most from a full-employment economy are low-wage workers, but the benefits would extend to everyone. The lost productivity from high unemployment is like a tax on all of us, because high unemployment means the economy is operating at less than full capacity, both reducing tax revenues and necessitating additional government spending to make up for the lower private sector demand. The Congressional Budget Office (CBO) projects that the unemployment rate will remain above 6 percent through 2017.⁹ But a much better outcome is possible, and policymakers have the tools to improve the forecast.

Figure 1.1 Share of Bottom-Fifth Household Income Accounted for by Wages, Cash Transfers, and In-Kind Income, 1979-2007



Note: Wages, cash transfers, and in-kind income comprise, on average, 88 percent of all pretax income for the bottom fifth. The other 12 percent is made up of capital gains, proprietors' income, other business income, interest and dividends, pensions, imputed taxes, and other income.

Source: Economic Policy Institute (2012), *State of Working America*, 12th Edition.

Nearly
5 million college graduates
are in jobs now that require less
than a high-school education.³

Between 2010 and 2020, there will be nearly
3 new college graduates for every 1 job
created that requires a bachelor's degree.⁴

Reaching Full Employment

There is always churn in the economy as various employers eliminate jobs somewhere and create them somewhere else. An unemployment rate below 5 percent is generally considered full employment.¹⁰ Basically, this means that anyone who is able to work and wants to can find a job, and those who have had to settle for part-time work have better prospects of moving into

a full-time job. In April 2000, and again in September that same year, the unemployment rate fell to 3.9 percent, its lowest level since 1970.¹¹ Tight labor markets such as this have become a rarity in the United States—but that is not inevitable.

At full employment, the wages of the lowest-income workers rise fastest. From 1995 to 2000, the hourly wages of workers earning at the 10th percentile (in other words, 90 percent of workers earned more) increased 2.1 percent annually, after shrinking by 0.9 percent annually between 1979 and 1995.¹² Between 1979 and 1995, unemployment rates had fluctuated but never fell to the levels reached from 1995 to 2000, showing that the progress of low-income fami-



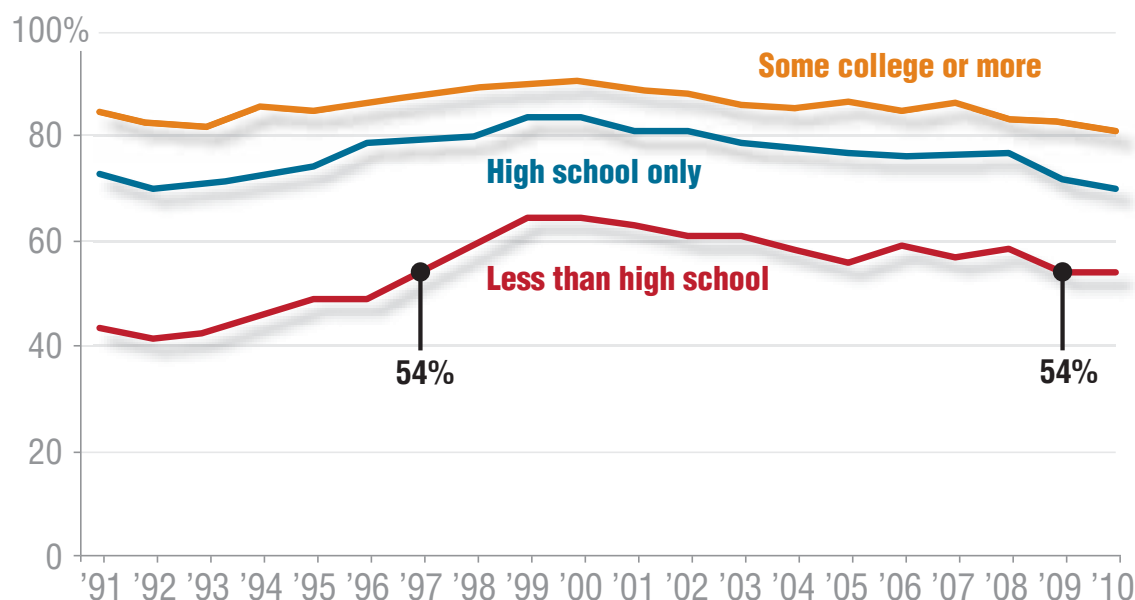
Todd Warnock

The majority of jobs added since the end of the Great Recession have been in low-wage occupations.

lies depends not only on having a job themselves but on everyone else having one as well. Normally, the unemployment rate is highest in low-wage sectors of the economy. With an ample supply of workers to choose from, employers see little reason to increase wages. But in a tight labor market, employers are more inclined to raise wages (and/or increase benefits) to retain the best workers.

After welfare reform in 1996, the unemployment rate of families headed by single mothers plummeted. The welfare reform legislation still receives an enormous amount of credit for this. But the sudden decline in poverty among households headed by single mothers had more to do with the strong economy and the expansion of work supports, such as the Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC) and child care subsidies, than the new work requirements for cash assistance. We know this because after 2000, the unemployment rate for single mothers began rising again. Welfare's work requirements had not changed, but the economy had. See Figure 1.2. By 2007, single-mother families (and single-father families) had lost most of the gains they'd achieved against poverty and hunger in the late 1990s. Poverty increased and so did hunger. Welfare reform legislation may well have contributed to some reductions in poverty in the strong labor market of the 1990s, but it did not prevent the shrinkage of those gains in the weak labor market of the 2000s.

Figure 1.2 **Employment Among Single Mothers Increased Substantially During the Early Years of Welfare Reform, But Many of Those Early Gains Have Been Lost**



Source: Center on Budget and Policy Priorities (2012).

Another reason low-income single mothers did well in the late 1990s is that full employment mitigates the effects of discrimination in the labor market. Anecdotal evidence indicates that employers who admitted they would be hesitant to hire welfare recipients in a labor market that was not as tight hired them anyway—and found them to be just as capable as other workers.¹³ Full employment, with its pressure not to discriminate, meant large gains for African Americans as well. During the late 1990s, the median income of African American families grew faster than at any other point, including during the Civil Rights era.¹⁴

The extraordinary progress that low-income families achieved during the late 1990s did not last when the economy slid into a recession from March 2001 until November of that same year. This recession was mild compared to the Great Recession that lasted from December 2007 through June 2009. However, the recovery following the 2001 recession did not produce another period of low unemployment. It was nearly two years into the recovery before the economy achieved drops in unemployment for two months in a row.¹⁵

The economy posted virtually identical rates of productivity growth from 1995-2000 and 2001-2006.¹⁶ During the earlier period, productivity gains were reflected in everyone's pay-check. The later period was marked by the erosion of wages for everyone except the top earners. *The late 1990s were a period of broadly shared prosperity because there was full employment.*

“Those who stand to gain the most from a full-employment economy are low-wage workers, but the benefits would extend to everyone.”

“THERE ARE A LOT OF PEOPLE OUT THERE LIKE ME.”

In 2010, Sary Dobhran was unemployed and struggling to get by in Portland, Oregon, on \$400 a month in public assistance. She and her three-year old son were living in a one-room apartment and things were looking desperate.

Sary's life had been plunged into turmoil when the father of her son died while she was still pregnant. Sary has a college degree in environmental studies and speaks four languages, but that wasn't enough to help land her a job in the worst economy since the Great Depression.

A turning point came when she enrolled in a pre-apprenticeship program at Oregon Tradeswomen, Inc., gaining marketable skills in the burgeoning fields of energy efficiency and sustain-

“Sary's triumph over adversity could be replicated thousands of times over around the nation.”

— Kelly Haines

able construction. She was eventually hired by a contractor, received on-the-job training, and then advanced training in air and duct sealing and building performance. Sary's particular path was funded by a series of grants tied to putting people back to work and providing savings to consumers on energy costs.

Today, Sary is earning a living wage by performing energy audits for homeowners who want to save money on their utility bills and reduce their energy consumption. “Sary's triumph over adversity could be replicated thousands of times over around the nation,” says Kelly Haines, a workforce specialist with Clean Energy Works Oregon, a nonprofit committed to building a clean energy economy in Oregon and one of the organizations that helped Sary pull herself and her son out of poverty. Sary's training program was funded in part by Clean Energy Works Oregon with a grant from the U.S. Department of Energy.

“My story is a testament to the demographics of the unemployed,” says Sary. “We're often educated. We're often hard-working. We simply need the tools to get into a market like this.”



Clean Energy Works Oregon

Sary Dobhran and her son at home in Portland, Oregon.

The Fed's Power to Reduce Unemployment and Poverty

In the late 1960s, U.S. economist Milton Friedman published an academic paper describing an interlocking relationship between inflation and low unemployment. At the time, the paper had limited influence on policymaking. The War on Poverty had been launched a few years earlier, and low unemployment was understood to be essential to achieving rapid reductions in poverty.

Between 1959 and 1973, the poverty rate was cut from 22 percent to 11 percent; if the economy had continued to grow at the same rate, poverty was projected to be a thing of the past by the early 1980s.¹⁷ But in the mid-1970s the economy stalled. A global increase in oil prices contributed to rising inflation. Rising unemployment combined with rising inflation was called “stagflation”—otherwise known as the Misery Index. Rising inflation hurts people on fixed incomes and people who have lent money at fixed interest rates. It also makes planning difficult and can slow economic growth.

The Federal Reserve Board is this nation's central bank and manages U.S. “monetary policy,” by increasing or decreasing the supply of money in the economy. In 1979, the annual inflation rate had soared to 13.3 percent, its highest rate in 33 years.¹⁸ Paul Volcker, then Chair of the Federal Reserve, suddenly and dramatically raised interest rates. Raising interest rates causes unemployment to rise. By 1981, unemployment had soared to nearly 11 percent, the highest level since the Great Depression. But inflation was under control.

“The Federal Reserve has kept interest rates low since the end of the Great Recession to try to stimulate the economy and encourage lower unemployment.”

many economists believe that inflation doesn't harm economic growth unless it is significantly higher than 2 percent.²⁰

The Full Employment and Balanced Growth Act of 1978—also known as the Humphrey-Hawkins Act—handed the Federal Reserve a dual mandate of promoting maximum employment and price stability, i.e., low inflation. Since Paul Volcker's tenure as Chair, the Fed



Federal Reserve

A Federal Reserve Board meeting held in December 2012. The Fed is the nation's central bank.

has given higher priority to low inflation rather than maximum employment. According to Daniel L. Thornton, current vice president of the Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis, despite its dual mandate, the Fed has been “cautious not to state its policy objectives in terms of either full employment or the unemployment rate, preferring instead to state its mandate in terms of price stability and *economic growth* [emphasis Thornton].”²¹ The problem is economic growth can take place without full employment or rising wages. And in fact, with the exception of the late 1990s, most workers in the United States have experienced “economic growth” that way, and as a result, have not shared in the benefits of that growth.

“The most important lesson from the 1990s,” wrote Jared Bernstein and Dean Baker in their book *The Benefits of Full Employment: When Markets*

“Elected officials—and the public—have to make clear that monetary policy should put more emphasis on full employment than it has in recent decades.”

Construction workers experienced the highest percentage point increase in long-term unemployment during the recession.

Work for People, “is that the economy can sustain a 4 percent unemployment rate without accelerating inflation.”²² As the unemployment rate fell, Federal Reserve Chairman Alan Greenspan decided not to raise interest rates as Fed watchers might have expected. Not everyone on the Federal Reserve’s Open Market Committee (FOMC), the body within the Fed responsible for setting interest rates, agreed with his decision. There were external pressures that Greenspan had to consider. For one thing, a wave of financial crises in Asia, Latin America, and Russia made it prudent to hold down U.S. interest rates to try to stabilize global capital markets.²³ In 2001, the U.S. boom ended when the stock market bubble that was fueling much of the growth of the late 1990s burst. A stock bubble is not a sustainable model for achieving full employment—so the late 1990s economic situation could not have lasted forever. But the point here is not how we got to low unemployment—it’s showing that low unemployment does not automatically lead to soaring inflation.

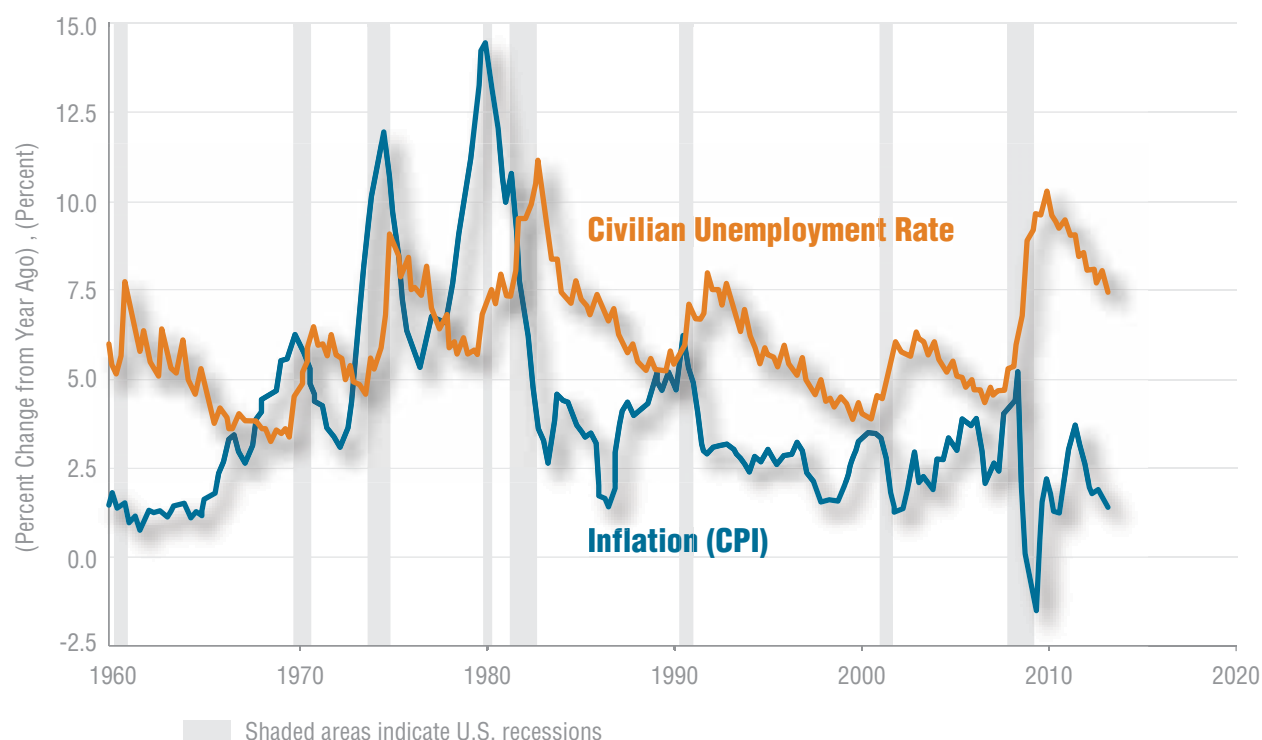
No one benefits when inflation is out of control. But some groups benefit much more than others from low inflation. The banking sector is a prime example—because when inflation rises, the loans held by banks are less valuable than they were before. The Federal Reserve is composed mainly of representatives of the banking sector, so it makes sense for them to view the economy through an anti-inflation lens.

The Fed is an independent government agency, so the president and Congress have limited influence over



Savannah River Site

Figure 1.3 As the Unemployment Rate Rises, the Inflation Rate Falls



Source: Federal Reserve Economic Data (2013).

it. Yet the chair and the board of governors are appointed by the president and approved by the Senate, so members of the Fed are not oblivious to what elected officials think about the economy. Elected officials—and the public—have to make clear that monetary policy should put more emphasis on full employment than it has in recent decades.

To its credit, the Federal Reserve has kept interest rates low since the end of the Great Recession to try to stimulate the economy and encourage lower unemployment. Low interest rates have had some effect on reducing unemployment, but not enough to turn the economy around and lead to a surge in hiring. At the time of this writing, the Fed has indicated a willingness to pull back on its use of expansionary monetary policy. But there is no reason to pull back as long as the unemployment rate remains high and the inflation rate is below 2 percent. Persistently high unemployment through the recovery shows that monetary policy alone has limited power to reduce unemployment. It must be matched by more aggressive fiscal policy.

The Deficit Debate and Job Creation

Hyper-partisanship and brinksmanship, especially among Tea Party Republicans, has turned negotiations about the federal budget into a series of political crises. The uncertainty in Washington has slowed economic recovery and contributed to the persistence of high unemployment. The negotiations have also resulted in decisions that depressed the recovery—for example, the reinstatement of the payroll tax in 2012 and the sequester in 2013. See Box 1.2.

The unemployment rate is not expected to fall as low as 5.5 percent until the fourth quarter of 2018.²⁴ The public sector could make up for the slow pace of job growth, but that means

BOX 1.2

SEQUESTRATION: WHAT IS IT AND WHAT IS BREAD FOR THE WORLD DOING ABOUT IT?

Amelia Kegan, Bread for the World

In August of 2011, Congress passed the Budget Control Act, a large deficit reduction bill. It included large, multi-year cuts to discretionary spending (yearly appropriated spending). It also included a provision designed to induce a deal on mandatory spending cuts and tax increases. The stick inserted in the Budget Control Act to achieve this budget deal was sequestration, a set of automatic spending cuts over nine years that affect most federal programs. On March 1, 2013, the sequestration's automatic cuts began to take effect.

In 2013 alone, an estimated 70,000 low-income children have been forced off of Head Start, the federal government's early education program. About 140,000 low-income individuals and families are expected to lose rental assistance, forcing many to become homeless. Low-income

“Bread for the World continues to press Congress to replace sequestration with a balanced and responsible plan that protects poor and vulnerable populations.”

seniors in need of food assistance will go without an estimated 4 million meals. One third of the federal government's discretionary spending (annual appropriated spending) goes to state and local governments. Cuts at the federal level translate into teacher layoffs at the local level. Around the world, over 570,000 children in developing countries will be put at greater risk of malnutrition and hunger, and 1.1 million small farmers will lose support they were receiving through U.S. agricultural assistance.

Over the past few years, \$2.5 trillion has been shaved off the deficit. Bread for the World has tirelessly fought to protect funding for programs that alleviate hunger and help people move out of poverty. Despite many efforts to defund these critical programs, most have been spared from major cuts. For example, the proposed House budget for the 2014 fiscal year cut non-defense spending by \$5 trillion, 66 percent of which were to programs for people of limited means. That budget also cut SNAP (formerly food stamps) by \$134 billion over ten years. Every congregation in the United States would have to raise \$40,000 per year over the next ten years to make up the difference. In another example, the House farm bill originally cut SNAP by over \$20 billion. That bill failed to pass the House in part because many members felt those cuts were not deep enough. But these proposals have also failed to become law because people of faith spoke out strongly against them.

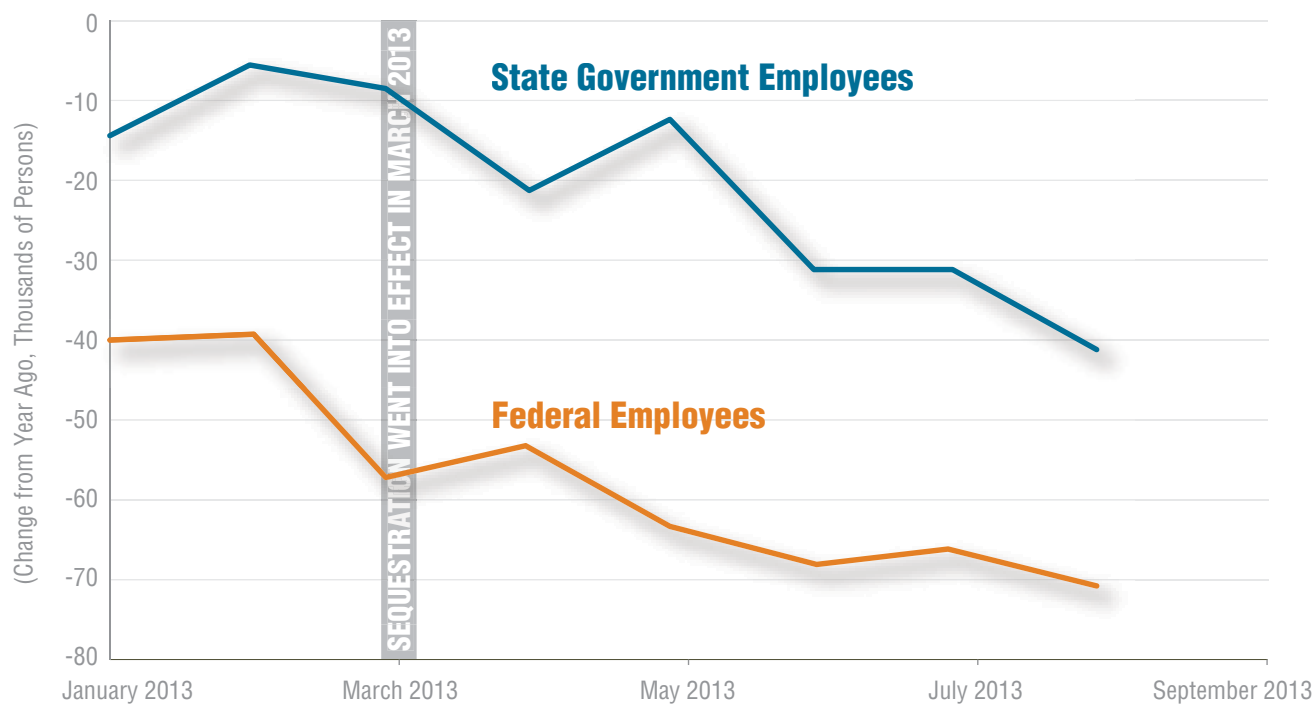
Bread for the World continues to press Congress to replace sequestration with a balanced and responsible plan that protects poor and vulnerable populations. Through repeated phone

calls, in-district visits, emails, and letters, Bread for the World members have voiced their frustration to their senators and representatives about the consequences of sequestration and the need for a budget deal that honors the values and commitments of our country.

At Bread for the World, we believe it is imperative that Congress fix sequestration with something more sensible: a combination of revenue increases and responsible spending cuts while protecting programs that effectively combat hunger and help people move out of poverty. If we can succeed in replacing sequestration with a responsible and balanced plan that protects vulnerable populations, perhaps then we will be able to convince our elected leaders to turn their attention finally to helping all people in America and around the world achieve economic security and freedom from hunger.

Amelia Kegan is a senior policy analyst in the government relations department at Bread for the World.

Figure 1.4 **Sequestration and Government Job Losses**



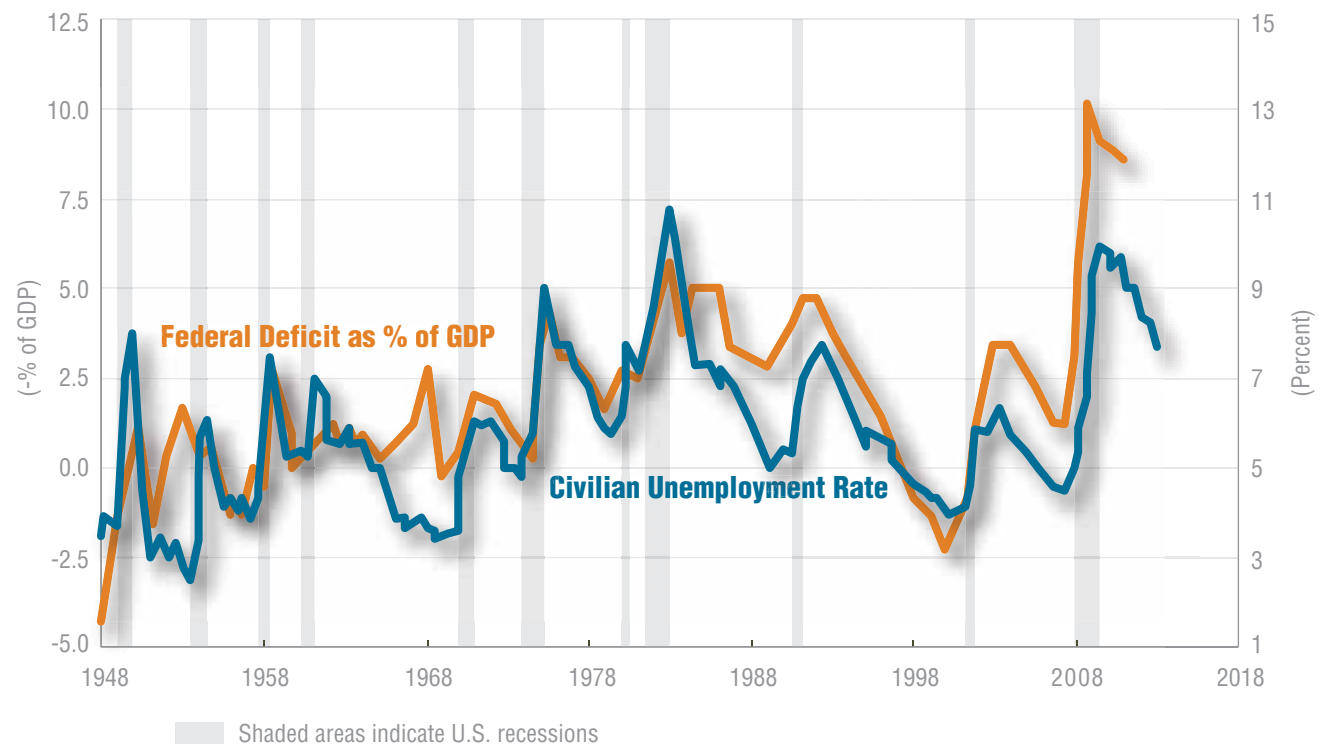
Source: Federal Reserve Economic Data (September 2013)

policymakers would have to agree on additional fiscal stimulus measures. In 2009, the federal government filled part of the vacuum in private sector demand with the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (Recovery Act), which added 3 million jobs between 2009 and 2010 and kept the unemployment rate from rising by an additional 1.5 percent.²⁵ But it was still not enough to compensate for the worst economic downturn since the Great Depression. In negotiating the terms of the Recovery Act, the White House and Congress clearly underestimated the severity of the recession.

Since the Recovery Act, Congress has been reluctant to pump more fiscal stimulus into the economy, raising concerns about the size of the federal deficit. Yet deficit reduction at the expense of stimulus policies is shortsighted. In a weak economy, when public spending does not crowd out private sector investment, job creation policies ultimately pay for themselves.²⁶ As the unemployment rate falls, so does the federal budget deficit as a percentage of Gross Domestic Product (GDP). As we see in Figure 1.5, unemployment rates and the federal deficit have been closely joined since World War II.²⁷

In 2011, President Obama proposed spending \$447 billion on a stimulus plan that, according to independent analysis, could create nearly 2 million jobs.²⁸ He and most Democrats argued that deficits should be reduced by changes that would affect taxes and spending for years to come, thus allowing for job-creating investments now. But Congress rejected the proposal.²⁹ Republicans argued that keeping taxes low gives incentives to employers to invest and expand businesses. They also argued that by borrowing to finance job creation, the government was

Figure 1.5 The Close Relationship Between Unemployment Rates and Federal Deficits



Source: Federal Reserve Economic Data (2013).

passing on debt to future generations of Americans who would pay for it in higher taxes.³⁰

In fact, both political parties are more preoccupied with the deficit than they need to be. From 1946 to 1976, the national debt actually doubled in size.³¹ But because the economy was growing faster than the debt, the debt shrank to 33 percent of GDP.³² In the meantime, an entire generation of Americans enjoyed rapidly improving living standards. Between 1947 and 1973, the economy's annual productivity growth averaged 2.9 percent,³³ and because low unemployment was the norm, it was a period of broadly shared growth. That changed beginning in 1980, when the gains from productivity growth started to go increasingly to the wealthiest Americans.

Productivity is still on the increase; it has grown an average of 2.3 percent annually since 1995.³⁴ If this well-established trend continues for the next 25 years, and if productivity gains are broadly shared again, the real value of wages (the value once adjusted for inflation) will be on average 75 percent higher. That's quite a jump in disposable income. There is little reason to doubt that this rate of productivity growth can continue. But even in an

unlikely, far less optimistic scenario, with productivity growth shrinking to 1.3 percent, wages would rise by 38 percent in real value.³⁵ Here again, the catch is that productivity gains must be fairly shared in order for these wage increases to actually happen. The last time workers received a fair share of the nation's productivity growth was in the late 1990s, when the economy was at full employment. If we are truly concerned about the next generation, *getting to full employment should be the government's preeminent concern.*

Senior analyst Mijin Cha of the public policy organization Demos began a December 2012 briefing paper with the question "Why Is Washington Reducing the Deficit Instead of Creating Jobs?" It's a question that confounds many observers. We've just made the analytical case for job creation as the top priority. The public supports it too. Exit polls after the 2012 election indicated voters wanted the White House and Congress to focus on job creation once they got back to work.³⁶ In 2011 and 2012, polls indicated consistently that the public favored job creation over deficit reduction by two to one margins.^{37, 38} See Table 1.1.

However, the same polls found that wealthy people were much more likely to favor deficit reduction over job creation.³⁹ "One reason that the affluent may be less concerned about job creation," Cha wrote, "is that they have generally been less affected by high unemployment rates and the economic downturn than other groups."⁴⁰ Because wealthy people make up the largest share of the political donor class, they have a disproportionate say in American politics.⁴¹ Cha's point is that in order to focus policymakers' attention on the issues that matter to non-wealthy Americans, there must be a way to compensate for or otherwise respond to the disproportionate influence of money on national policies.

Table 1.1 **Jobs and Income Policy Preferences of Affluent vs. General Public**

Policy	% Wealthy in Favor	% General public in Favor
The government in Washington ought to see to it that everyone who wants to work can find a job	19%	68%
The federal government should provide jobs for everyone able and willing to work who cannot find a job in private employment	8%	53%

Source: Demos. Table 2 in Mijin Cha (December 7, 2012), "Why is Washington Reducing the Deficit Instead of Creating Jobs?"

Invest in Infrastructure and Emerging Industries

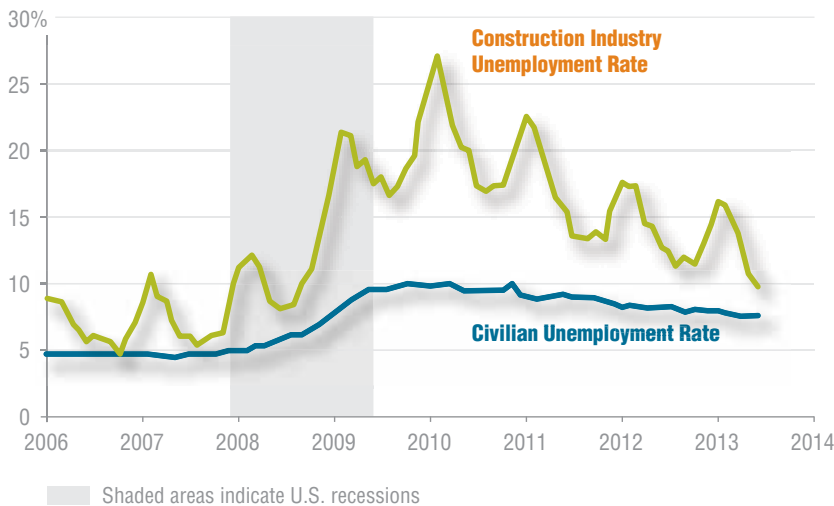
Public investments in infrastructure hold the key to rapid job creation. Economists agree that investments in infrastructure are one of the most effective fiscal tactics to stimulate a sluggish economy and reduce unemployment.⁴² Every dollar spent on infrastructure generates \$1.44 of economic activity. This makes it one of the largest multipliers per investment dollar, topped only by a temporary increase in food stamps/SNAP and an extension of unemployment insurance.⁴³

Infrastructure is a broad term. The kind of infrastructure investment with the potential to

create millions of jobs is public works—for example, building roads, repairing bridges and dams, and renovating schools and office buildings. According to the Federal Highway Administration, a \$1 billion expenditure on highway construction can support 30,000 jobs.⁴⁴ The construction sector stands to benefit more than other sectors from investments in infrastructure. Construction suffered the highest rate of job loss when the housing bubble burst⁴⁵ and continues to face one of the toughest job markets. By mid-2013, unemployment rates were still nearly 10 percent.⁴⁶ See Figure 1.6.

In 2009, the American Society of Civil Engineers estimated that the United States would need \$2.2 trillion in infrastructure

Figure 1.6 Unemployment in the Construction Industry is Falling But Continues to Exceed the Overall Unemployment Rate



Source: Federal Reserve Economic Data (2013).

investment to repair damage caused by longstanding neglect.⁴⁷ The consequences of decades of putting off upgrades to the country's physical infrastructure became glaringly obvious during Hurricane Katrina in 2005 and Super Storm Sandy in 2012. And they were just the biggest consequences: from 2011 to 2012, 25 extreme weather events—floods, storms, and wildfires—cost more than \$1 billion each, adding up to an estimated total of \$188 billion in damage.⁴⁸

The Recovery Act included \$93 billion of new investments in infrastructure, but this barely begins to meet the needs.⁴⁹ The United States is ranked 25th in the world in infrastructure quality. In inflation-adjusted terms, the country now spends less on transportation infrastructure than it did in 1968.⁵⁰ Investments in infrastructure not only produce more efficient transportation services, but also cleaner air and water, healthier food, cheaper electricity, and faster Internet service. Over the long term, improvements in the country's infrastructure will make the United States more competitive. Private sector productivity gains have been estimated at anywhere from 15 percent to 45 percent.⁵¹

Although the Recovery Act provided a much needed boost in funding for infrastructure, the country needs a different mechanism to finance infrastructure projects, one that goes beyond a

one-shot piece of legislation. A National Infrastructure Bank could provide a steady stream of capital to split the cost with private sector partners. It is crucial to partner with the private sector and build on its talent for innovation. Several states have established infrastructure banks of their own, but states can't independently address major national or regional challenges, such

“The kind of infrastructure investment with the potential to create millions of jobs is public works—for example, building roads, repairing bridges and dams, and renovating schools and office buildings.”

as modernizing the energy grid or repairing extensive areas of coastal erosion. A National Infrastructure Bank would also play a significant role in revitalizing the U.S. manufacturing sector and providing many more well-paying jobs.

Manufacturing can still offer good jobs to American workers with some postsecondary education but not necessarily a four-year degree. Workers with less than a college degree often end up in lower paid service-sector jobs. The average wage of a retail salesperson is \$10.10 per hour, while the average wage of a nonsupervisory manufacturing worker is \$19.23.⁵² As a share of the U.S. economy, the

The unemployment rate for African Americans follows the ups and downs of the overall rate, except that it is usually twice as high.

manufacturing sector is much smaller than it was a half-century ago, when one in four jobs was in manufacturing.⁵³ Today, retail workers outnumber manufacturing workers by almost two to one.⁵⁴ From 1979 to 2009, 41 percent of *all* U.S. manufacturing jobs (low-, middle-, and high-skill) disappeared.⁵⁵ The pace of job loss grew faster with each passing decade. By the end of 2009, manufacturing's share of total U.S. employment had fallen to less than 9 percent.⁵⁶

Any job loss is painful for the person and family who suffer it. But for the economy as a whole, the loss of manufacturing jobs is worse than other losses because manufacturing has one of the largest multiplier effects. For every job created in manufacturing, there are at least 2.5 jobs created in other sectors.⁵⁷ Policymakers may be willing to let low-skill manufacturing jobs disappear, but the loss of middle- and high-skill jobs should be of serious concern. Manufacturing is still a key driver of innovation.

Revitalizing the manufacturing sector is not only necessary to spur innovation and maintain productivity growth, but also to capitalize on the emerging market for clean energy technologies. Studies show that a major factor in determining which countries lead in emerging technologies is where the production is located.⁵⁸ In the early 2000s, for example, U.S. firms began to relocate high-tech battery production



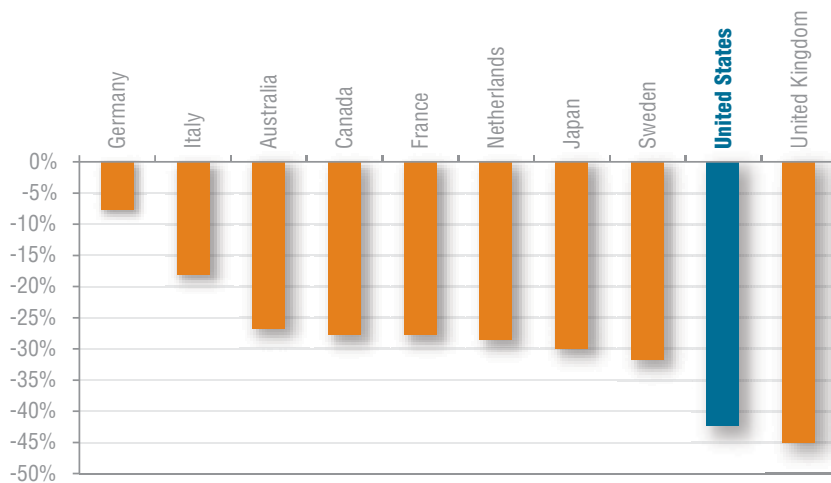
Brand X Pictures

overseas, mostly to East Asian countries. Subsequently, these countries surged ahead of the United States in the race to develop vehicles with rechargeable batteries.⁵⁹ Thin-film solar cells used in making solar panels rely on semiconductor production. U.S. firms moved much of their semiconductor production to Asia, and the United States has fallen behind in the rapidly developing solar industry.⁶⁰

The United States needs to scale up its investments in strengthening domestic manu-

facturing capacity or risk losing more jobs in the industries of the future. Other high-income countries, such as Germany and Japan, have lost low-skill manufacturing jobs (see Figure 1.7), but unlike the United States, they are aggressively trying to prevent the loss of high-skill manufacturing jobs.⁶¹ They do this through industrial policies designed to build the capacity of their manufacturing workers to compete in international markets. As a result, Germany and Japan have actually increased their number of high-skill manufacturing jobs.⁶² The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics collects data on manufacturing employment in 10 peer countries. Between

Figure 1.7 Percent Change in Manufacturing Jobs in Select Countries, Adjusted for Population Growth, 1997-2010



Source: Robert D. Atkinson, Luke A. Stewart, Scott M. Andes, and Stephen J. Ezell (March 2012), *Worse Than the Great Depression: What Experts Are Missing About American Manufacturing Decline*, The Information Technology & Innovation Foundation.

2000 and 2010, six of the 10 paid higher wages than the United States and yet still lost a smaller share of manufacturing jobs.⁶³

The Manufacturing Extension Partnership (MEP) is a successful, low-cost program designed to assist manufacturers in becoming more competitive in international markets. MEP funding levels are tiny: 0.0014 percent of U.S. GDP.⁶⁴ In comparison, Japan spends 23 times more on a similar program. “If U.S. spending on the MEP program were to rise to the Japanese level,” explains the Economic Policy Institute, “it would require a budget allocation of approximately \$5 billion per year, not large in the context of overall government spending, but a huge, roughly 40-fold increase of the program.”⁶⁵ To compete on an even playing field with Germany, total funding would have to rise to \$10 billion per year.⁶⁶

One way to raise the funds needed to help U.S. high-skill manufacturing compete is to stop rewarding companies that move production overseas. Through a variety of loop-

“The United States needs to scale up its investments in strengthening domestic manufacturing capacity or risk losing more jobs in the industries of the future.”

holes in the tax code, U.S. companies are able to defer taxes on foreign income. Closing all of these loopholes would raise \$168 billion,⁶⁷ according to the Joint Committee on Taxation, a nonpartisan group serving Congress.⁶⁸ The loopholes mean lost tax revenue that would otherwise help fund government programs. It seems reasonable to redirect \$5 billion to \$10 billion of the savings from closing these loopholes to strengthening MEP's capacity-building work.

Support Entrepreneurship in Low-income Communities

The rate of small business growth in the United States is falling. This is not a recent phenomenon, but a decades-long trend. Compared to other nations with advanced economies, the United States creates many fewer small businesses each year.⁷¹ See Figure 1.9.

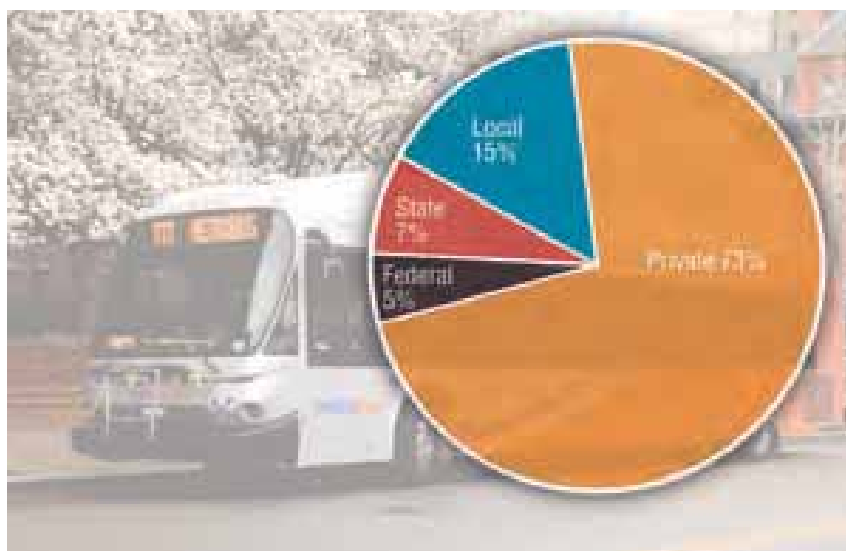
BOX 1.3

ON THE BUS TO A SUSTAINABLE FUTURE

"The revival of manufacturing in the U.S. will entail a wave of innovations that raise competitiveness, expand job opportunities, and advance the construction of a clean energy economy," says economist Robert Pollin, who has studied the effects of clean energy investments for the U.S. Department of Energy and the International Labor Organization.⁶⁹

In a 2010 article, "Industrial Policy and the Revival of U.S. Manufacturing," Pollin argues that technically it would be easy for the federal government to expand the market for clean public transportation and renewable energy systems. "For example, the federal government commits to doubling the number of buses now operating throughout the country, and requires that all the new buses operate at high energy efficiency levels.... Government orders for clean-energy buses would establish a guaranteed market for manufacturers."⁷⁰

Figure 1.8 **Private- and Public-Sector Share of Total Green Jobs, 2010**



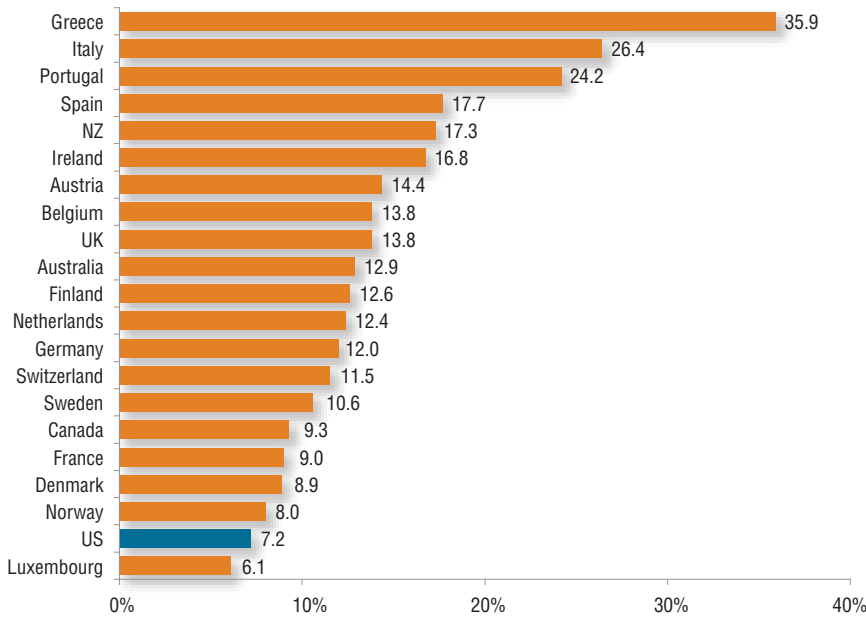
Source: Ethan Pollack (October 10, 2012), "Counting up to green: Assessing the green economy and its implications for growth and equity," Economic Policy Institute. Author's analysis of Bureau of Labor Statistics data.

Elected officials wax eloquent about small business owners. And if they rise from rags to riches, then the stories are all the more inspiring. Star athletes and glamorous entertainers are talented in ways the average person is not. But small business owners could be any of us; they are the quintessential every man (and woman). Whether they achieve fame and fortune in the global marketplace, or remain true to their roots and never get off Main Street, successful

small business owners are beating the odds. That's because most small businesses in America fail.⁷²

People who were not born in the United States are more likely than U.S.-born residents to start and own businesses. Immigrants are 13 percent of the national population, but 18 percent of small business owners.⁷³ Baltimore has one of the highest ratios of foreign-born to U.S.-born entrepreneurs of any major U.S. city. Foreign-born residents are 9 percent of Baltimore's population and make up 21 percent of its entrepreneurs.⁷⁴ The businesses tend to be small and are often started out of necessity. "This is how immigrants survive," says Betty Symington, executive director of Baltimore's Episcopal Refugee and Immigrant Coalition. "You can't survive on \$9 an hour

Figure 1.9 Self-Employment Rate, Total Civilian Employment, 2007



Source: John Schmitt and Nathan Lane, "An International Comparison of Small Business Employment," Center for Economic and Policy Analysis. Authors' analysis of Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) data.

as a cafeteria worker so a lot of them start businesses on the side."

As executive director of the Mission Asset Fund, which serves the Latino immigrant community in the Mission District of San Francisco, José Quiñonez works with Latino immigrants who start small businesses with very little money. You couldn't find better examples of the kinds of heroes elected officials love to talk about. But Quiñonez doesn't advise his clients who want to start a business to look to the Small Business Administration, a U.S. government agency, for support, mainly because he knows the agency has no programs to help them.

"This isn't about being an immigrant," he says. "It's about the threshold where a small business qualifies for recognition, and where support structures begin to become available to you." The government's perspective on what constitutes a small business owner doesn't include someone who is a sole proprietor or employs maybe one or two family members and generates revenue of less than \$100,000. In the Mission District, however, this description fits most of the small enterprises. "The reality is," says Quiñonez, "people in this situation can't look to the government for help."

The biggest problem facing any new small business is obtaining start-up capital. "Large banks control 60 percent of U.S. bank assets, but provide only 27 percent of small business

loans,” writes Stacy Mitchell with the Institute for Local Self-Reliance. Small and mid-sized banks provide more than half of all small business loans.⁷⁵ But for the past three years, lending to small businesses has been on the decline for any size bank. “If someone walks into a bank of any size and says they need a loan of \$10,000 or \$20,000 to start a business,” says Quiñonez, “they are going to be handed an application for a credit card rather than handed over to a loan officer.”

Most enterprises of this size are started using the owner’s personal wealth; borrowing against a home mortgage is a common strategy. The loss of wealth in communities of color after the housing bubble burst has made it more difficult for small businesses to get started or finance growth. Entire communities of color suffer as a result because these are where entrepreneurs of color tend to operate. Not only does it result in fewer businesses providing goods and services in the communities, but also it means fewer jobs will be created there.

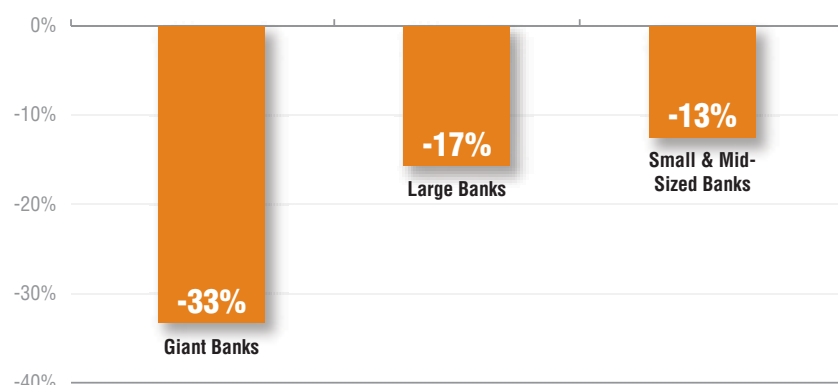
The Mission Asset Fund uses lending circles to help people get the loans they need to start businesses. Lending circles, or savings clubs, are a form of social loan. Participants in the circle all contribute to providing a loan for one member. By taking turns, they eventually are able to make a loan to every member. Lending circles are common in developing countries, where low-income entrepreneurs are also excluded from main-

“It doesn’t matter what political stripe you are, if you understand that \$1 of public money can be used to leverage \$10 to \$20 in private money, there’s a lot of bang for your buck.”

— Mark Pinsky

CDFI that provides support to small start-ups. For example, the Neighborhood Development Center helped the Payans, a Latino immigrant family, expand their small tortilla business, Tortilleria la Perla, into a \$3 million operation employing 50 full-time workers.⁷⁶ The Center has helped African American, Latino, Hmong, Native American, Oromo, and Somali businesses secure low-interest loans and technical assistance. The enterprises that are its clients

Figure 1.10 Small Businesses Struggle to Find Lenders Who Will Make a Deal, 2009-2012



Note: Small banks are defined as those with \$1 billion in assets or less; mid-sized banks as those between \$1 and \$10 billion in assets; large banks as those with \$10 to \$100 billion in assets; and giant banks as those with more than \$100 billion in assets. (All size categories in 2009 dollars.)

Source: Institute for Local Self-Reliance (2012). Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation data.

stream financial services. Lending circles help people get to the first rung of the ladder, explains Quiñonez, but when they are ready to start growing the business and hiring employees—that second or third rung—there’s not much support in a lending circle either.

Community development financial institutions (CDFIs) are another way for small businesses excluded from the mainstream financial system to get support. CDFIs work in communities that are traditionally underserved by larger lending agencies. The Neighborhood Development Center in St. Paul, Minnesota, is a

have created 2,200 jobs and returned \$64 million annually to their communities in payroll, taxes, and rent.⁷⁷

People who were not born in the United States are more likely than U.S.-born residents to start and own businesses.

Nationwide, there are more than 900 CDFIs managing more than \$50 billion in assets.⁷⁸ In 1994, Congress established the CDFI Fund to provide financial support to CDFIs. Federally approved CDFIs must make at least 60 percent of their loans in low- and moderate-income communities. CDFIs specialize in loans to borrowers who need a great deal of technical assistance. Mark Pinsky, head of the Opportunity Finance Network, the nation's largest network of CDFIs, describes them as "profitable but not profit-maximizing,"

and calls them "responsible high-risk lenders." They are the antithesis of sub-prime lenders that have done so much to undermine the stability of low- and moderate-income communities. CDFIs have been viewed positively by both Democrats and Republicans, according to Pinsky. "It doesn't matter what political stripe you are, if you understand that \$1 of public money can be used to leverage \$10 to \$20 in private money, there's a lot of bang for your buck."⁷⁹

A CDFI Bond Guarantee Program, established under the Small Business Jobs Act of 2010, authorized the CDFI Fund to issue up to \$1 billion annually in long-term bonds at low-interest rates. Application materials were released finally in June 2013. The program was supposed to operate from 2011 to 2014. It was held up in Congress for more than two years pending approval on how the program should be run as part of the CDFI Fund. The delays resulted in \$2 billion less in loans to support entrepreneurs in low-income communities.⁸⁰ Congress should have moved more quickly and the administration should have been a stronger advocate for the program to overcome the delays. The lack of urgency in both branches of government underscores how removed they are from the reality in low-income communities.



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A “Skills Gap” or a “Demand Gap”?

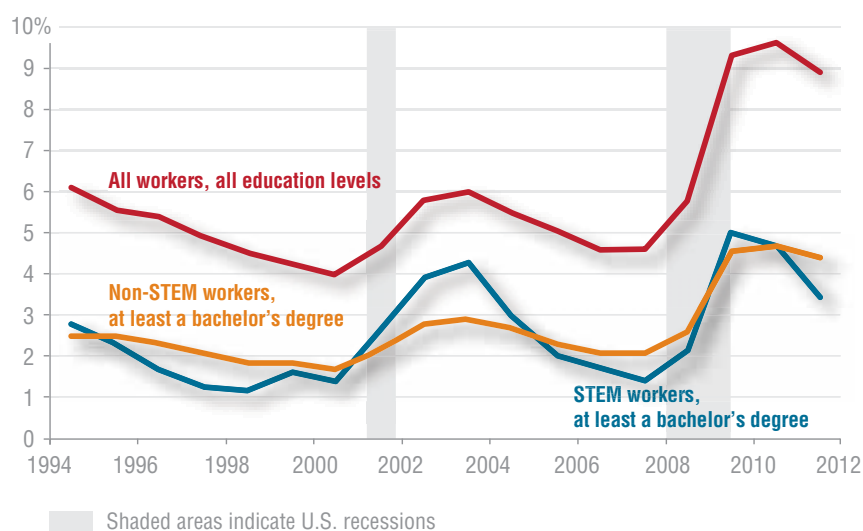
Not everyone is convinced the U.S. economy can achieve full employment. In fact, many appear convinced that it cannot. Newspaper stories quote employers who struggle to find skilled workers to fill jobs, as in this Associated Press story from July 2011: “...the president of Ultra Scientific Analytical Solutions (John Russo) has found himself in a vexing spot, struggling to fill openings that require specialized training in a state where the jobless rate is close to 11 percent, the third-highest in the nation. ‘It’s very difficult to find the right person. I honestly think there’s a large swath of unemployable,’ said Russo, whose firm manufactures and supplies analytical standards.”⁸¹

“They don’t have the skills,” goes the refrain. Frustrated employers such as Russo appear regularly in these articles to provide a touch of empirical evidence and lend an air of credibility to the skills-gap theory. Many top officials and industry executives add their voice to the skills gap theory. In 2011, according to a report by the National Association of Manufacturers, there were 600,000 manufacturing jobs that could not be filled because workers lacked the right set of advanced skills.⁸² President Obama, during the 2012 campaign, often invoked the skills gap to describe the challenges facing the U.S. economy in coming decades.⁸³

The skills gap theory is basically about supply and demand: there is an inadequate supply of workers available to meet employers’ demand for labor. And supply and demand is precisely why the skills gap theory shouldn’t be taken seriously.

Today, the United States has more college graduates than ever before—30 percent of the population, up from 26 percent a decade ago.⁸⁴ Yet unemployment rates for most college graduates in the STEM fields (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math)—the crème de la crème of the country’s skilled workers—are still higher than they were before the recession began in 2007.⁸⁵ See Figure 1.11. If employers were having trouble meeting customer demand, we’d expect to see them schedule more hours for their current workers. No evidence exists for longer workweeks, according to the Department of Labor’s Bureau of Labor Statistics.⁸⁶

Figure 1.11 Unemployment Rates of All Workers, and Workers in STEM and Non-STEM Occupations with at Least a Bachelor’s Degree, 1994-2012



Source: Economic Policy Institute (2012), “STEM Labor Shortages? Microsoft report distorts reality about computing occupations.” Analysis of Current Population Survey data.

Moreover, if there were a labor shortage, it's not being reflected in wage rates. Economics teaches us that if the supply of qualified workers were limited, those few workers who had the desired skills would be able to command higher wages. There is no evidence of rising wages in any sector of the economy.⁸⁷

Mark Price, a labor economist at the Keystone Research Center, dismisses manufacturers' complaints about the shortage of skilled workers. "If there's a skill shortage, there has to be rises in wages," he says. "It's basic economics."⁸⁸ Employers don't want to pay higher wages, or more likely they are not willing to fill jobs in a weak economy.

Let's recall what caused the Great Recession and the high unemployment that appears to be its legacy. A housing bubble in the 2000s was driving household consumption. When this \$8 trillion bubble burst, it created a demand gap estimated to be between \$1.2 and \$1.5 trillion.⁸⁹ The bursting of the bubble and the financial crisis that ensued pushed the country into the deepest recession in 75 years. It is the significant contraction in household spending that is the main reason the economy continues to struggle. In 2012, the gap between what the economy produced and what it could produce at full capacity or full employment was \$995 billion.⁹⁰ Given this yawning output gap, employers are not likely to rush into rehiring workers they let go during the recession, much less think about hiring workers to fill new positions.

The skills-gap hypothesis is troubling because policymakers can use it as a convenient excuse for government not to take the lead in job creation. After all, if high unemployment is due to significant skills deficits among U.S. workers, the solution must be education and training. Once workers get the skills they need, unemployment will basically solve itself. But although education and training are generally good things, this is not a workable solution. Policymakers need to help get people back to work *as soon as possible*. Unemployed and underemployed people can't wait until some other, vaguely defined group of workers upgrades its skills, and the country doesn't need to. In the late 1990s, the economy was at full employment—but

it was not because large numbers of workers suddenly became more educated and better trained.

The Congressional Budget Office estimates that the economy must add approximately 90,000 new jobs a month just to keep up with population growth.⁹¹ The last two cycles of growth beyond what's needed to keep up with the population have been fueled by asset bubbles—stocks in the late 1990s, housing in the mid-2000s. The economy now needs to move forward driven by something more sustainable than bubbles. Policymakers should be asking what that something is and starting to invest there.

There is little hard evidence to support claims of too few workers with the skills needed to meet employer demand for labor.



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AMERICA NEEDS REVENUE-RAISING, PROGRESSIVE TAX REFORM

CHAPTER 1

Steve Wamhoff, Citizens for Tax Justice

America needs tax reform that both raises revenue to support investments in our future and makes our tax system more progressive.

Tax reform should raise revenue to support public investments. Lawmakers often claim that tax cuts are the best way to help individuals or businesses, but the truth is that public investments are often the best way to move Americans ahead. Investments in education programs such as Head Start, research institutions such as the National Institutes of Health (NIH), and infrastructure projects such as roads, ports, and bridges are just a few examples of federal spending that makes our economy thrive in the long term.

Even in the short term, public investments do more to boost our economy than tax cuts. While many lawmakers claim that lower taxes for businesses will increase hiring and reduce unemployment, any business owner will tell you that hiring will commence only when there are customers to buy their goods and services. And the federal government can provide such customers—for example, by expanding infrastructure projects that employ many middle-income people, who consequently will have more money to spend.

Yet today, the budget deficit is used by lawmakers as a reason to allow automatic cuts (known as sequestration) in programs such as Head Start and the NIH and to refuse to make badly needed infrastructure investments.

There is no reasonable way to address this without significantly increasing tax revenue. If Congress makes no change to our tax laws, a decade from now, federal revenue will be 19.1 percent of the U.S. Gross Domestic Product (GDP), while federal spending is projected to reach 22.6 percent of GDP. Congress cannot reduce spending dramatically enough to match the projected revenue level without the type of deep cuts in vital investments that have only just begun. Even during the Reagan administration, federal spending ranged from 21.3 percent to 23.5 percent of GDP.

Tax reform should make our tax system more progressive. Many people mistakenly believe that our tax system is already extremely progressive. When you account for all the different types of taxes that Americans pay, it turns out that essentially everyone is paying taxes, and the share of *total taxes* paid by each income group is roughly equal to the share of *total income* received by that group.

My organization, Citizens for Tax Justice, estimates that the richest 1 percent of Americans will pay 24 percent of the total taxes (all federal, state, and local taxes) in 2013. This does not mean this group is overtaxed; the same group, the richest 1 percent, will receive about 22

“When you account for all the different types of taxes that Americans pay, it turns out that essentially everyone is paying taxes, and the share of total taxes paid by each income group is roughly equal to the share of total income received by that group.”

AMERICA NEEDS REVENUE-RAISING, PROGRESSIVE TAX REFORM

percent of the total income. On the other hand, the poorest fifth of Americans will pay about 2 percent of the total taxes this year and will receive only about 3 percent of the total income. In other words, our tax system is not extremely progressive, and there is plenty of room to make it more progressive.

Some proposals for “reform” would make the tax system *less* progressive. For example, an influential conservative organization, the Tax Foundation, has recently issued reports suggesting that the Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC) for low-wage workers should be eliminated while the special low tax rates for capital gains should be preserved.

This is exactly wrong. The EITC helps offset taxes that hit poor people hard, such as federal payroll taxes and state and local sales taxes, and has been shown to encourage holding a job. Meanwhile, the special low tax rates for capital gains primarily benefit the richest 1 percent. These low rates are the reason wealthy investors such as Mitt Romney and Warren Buffett can pay a lower effective tax rate than many middle-income Americans.

“Citizens for Tax Justice has documented how several Fortune 500 corporations earned profits over a three-year period, or even a five-year period, but had so many tax breaks that they completely avoided corporate income taxes during that time.”

Other proposals that would make our tax system *less* progressive involve expanding corporate tax breaks. While the corporate income tax is directly paid by corporations, in the long run it’s borne by the owners of corporate stocks and other business assets, which are concentrated in the hands of wealthy people. For this reason, corporate tax breaks help wealthy Americans, not low- and middle-income people. Citizens for Tax Justice has documented how several Fortune 500 corporations earned profits over a three-year period, or even a five-year period, but had so many tax breaks that they completely avoided corporate income taxes during that time.

Simplifying our tax system can be another goal, but it’s not nearly as important as raising revenue and making the system more progressive. Rep. Dave Camp (R-MI) and Senator Max Baucus (D-MT), who chair the tax-writing committees in the House and Senate respectively, believe that Congress needs to enact tax reform that has the main purpose of simplifying our tax code.

In fact, Camp says that tax reform should be “revenue-neutral.” This approach might repeal or reduce “tax expenditures” (special breaks and subsidies paid for through the tax code), but the revenue saved would all be used to offset the cost of steep reductions in tax rates. The tax code might be simpler in the end, but there would be no additional revenue raised.

Baucus says he believes tax reform should be “revenue-positive” to some degree, but he has been vague and noncommittal. Many Democratic leaders have joined President Obama

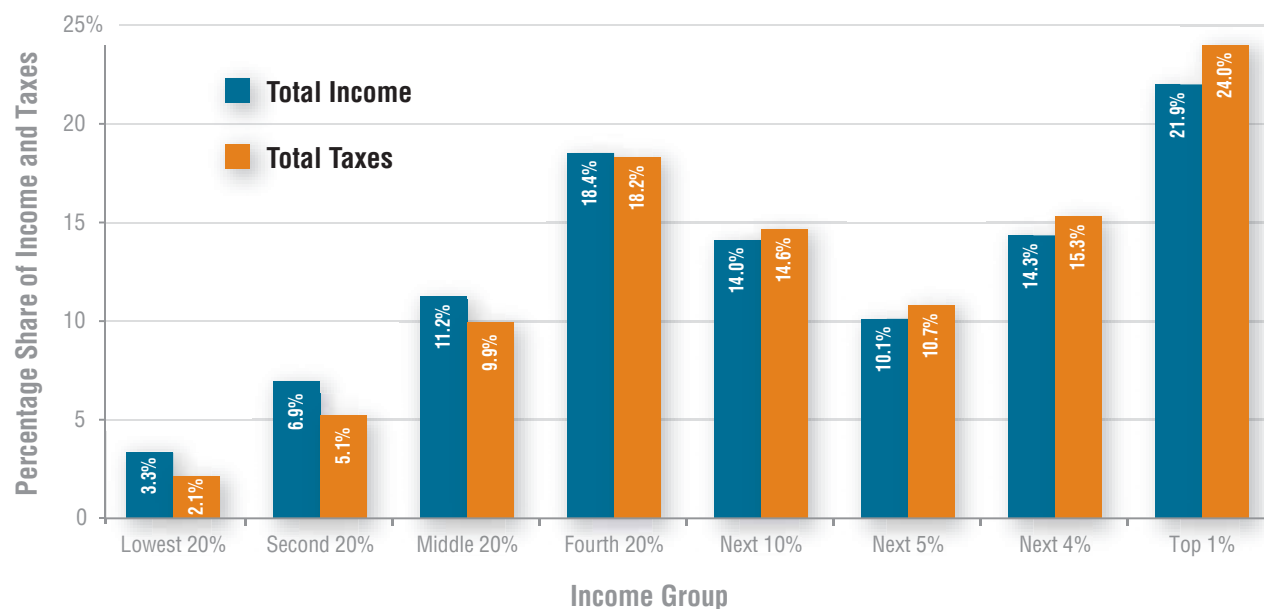
in saying that reform of the corporate income tax, if not the personal income tax, should be revenue-neutral.

But what would be so great about enacting a “simpler” tax code that raises no additional revenue to fix crumbling bridges and other shoddy infrastructure and no additional revenue to protect Medicare and nutrition assistance from the budget ax? What good is “simplification” if it means reducing the EITC for working poor families?

A tax reform that simplifies taxes and makes April 15 a little easier is certainly welcome. But if it does nothing to expand the public investments that our livelihoods and our futures depend on, then it will be a huge wasted opportunity.

Steve Wamhoff is the legislative director for Citizens for Tax Justice.

Figure 1.12 Shares of Total Taxes Paid by Each Income Group Will Be Similar to Their Shares of Income in 2013



Source: Institute on Taxation and Economic Policy (ITEP) Tax Model, April 2013. Citizens for Tax Justice, April 2013.



A Fair Deal for Workers

Chapter Summary

In families without substantial wealth, income from work is the primary buffer against hunger. Yet increasing numbers of American jobs pay only poverty-level wages. For most workers, wages are eroding in real value. When the economy grows, the top earners capture far more than their share of the gains. Wage rates are just one of the components of the economy that is out of balance. The changes in society over the past half-century—most prominently, the new norm that most women are in the paid workforce—have not been accompanied by government policies that adequately reflect these realities and ensure that workers have the support they need to meet their responsibilities. In the United States today, where the expectation is that parents work outside the home, government has a role in protecting the welfare of children, elderly people, and people with disabilities by setting standards to ensure that all workers can fulfill their job and family commitments.

MAIN RECOMMENDATIONS IN THIS CHAPTER

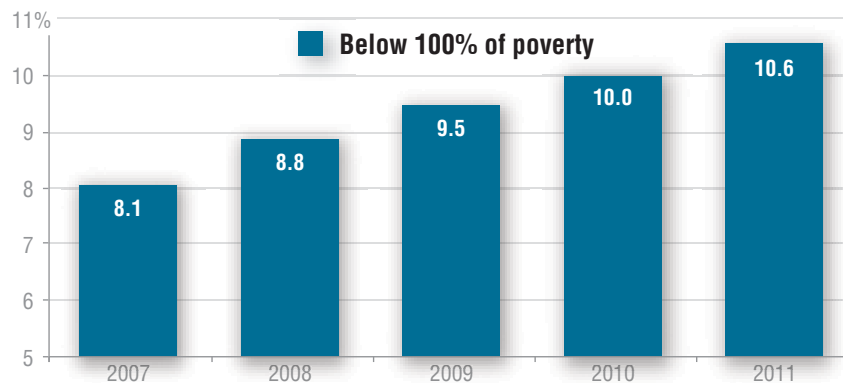
- The federal government should improve the job opportunities and conditions for low-wage workers by actively enforcing the Fair Labor Standards Act and the Civil Rights Act.
- Congress should raise the minimum wage so that a full-time, year-round worker can support a family of four above the poverty line, and it should eliminate exemptions so that no worker is paid a subminimum wage.
- The president should direct government agencies to consider employee wages and working conditions as a factor in awarding federal contracts.
- Make quality child care accessible to every family in America and guarantee all workers family leave, paid sick leave, and the right to request flexible work schedules.

According to the U.S. Department of Labor, today's fastest growing occupations require a high school degree or less and pay poverty-level wages,¹ meaning they are not enough to raise a family of four, two parents and two children, above the poverty line. This is about \$24,000 a year in 2014.² But it's easier to understand the economic reality of many families if we translate that into wages: a job must pay about \$12 an hour to enable a full-time, year-round worker and her family to escape poverty.

In 2002, 23 percent of U.S. workers earned poverty-level wages. By 2012, that proportion

had climbed to 28 percent³ and the average wage of workers in this group was \$8.66 an hour.⁴ Workers in these low-wage jobs usually have no employer-sponsored health insurance, no paid sick leave, and no paid vacation days. They are part of a group often called "the working poor." They embody an economic reality that today seems to be unique to the United States among high-income nations. People who live in poverty in other developed nations are almost always out of work or the family member of someone who is.⁵ But in the United States in 2011, more than 10 million families with at least one member in

Figure 2.1 Share of All Working Families Living in Poverty



Source: Brandon Roberts, Deborah Povich and Mark Mather (2012), "Low-Income Working Families: The Growing Economic Gap," The Working Poor Families Project. Analysis of U.S. Census Bureau, American Community Survey data.

the workforce were living in poverty.⁶ See Figure 2.1. Low-wage workers and their families are, by and large, the face of American poverty. If these 10 million workers had earned enough to put them over the poverty line, the country would have had 58 percent fewer families in poverty.⁷

"Simply put, U.S. work and family policies have not been updated to reflect the new reality of American family life," explain Jane Waldfogel and Sara McLanahan, writing in the journal *The Future of Children* published by Princeton University and the Brookings Institution.⁸ The new reality of American family life is that too many jobs do not pay enough, do not enable parents to balance work and family responsibilities, and do not provide workers with any bargaining power to negotiate higher pay or more flexible schedules. The government policies now in place do not go far enough in addressing these problems.

"In virtually every area of work-family policy, provisions in the United States tend to be less well developed and less equitably distributed than those in most peer countries," say

From 2009 to 2012, three years into the recovery from the Great Recession, the incomes of the bottom 99 percent of wage earners grew by an average of **0.4 percent.**¹



From 2009 to 2012, the incomes of the top 1 percent of earners grew by an average of **31.4 percent.**²

Waldfoegel and McLanahan. More than four in 10 private sector workers—and more than 80 percent of low-wage workers—do not have paid sick days.⁹ Every developed country in the world, except for the United States, provides new mothers—and often, fathers—with paid time off to bond with their baby.¹⁰ In the United States, about 40 percent of workers are not even guaranteed job-protected family leave that is *unpaid*.¹¹

In other high-income countries, the law specifically permits workers to request flexible scheduling, while in the United States, many workers are afraid of giving the impression that they have any sort of work-family conflict. “Motherhood may entail a wage penalty all on its own,” writes Heather Boushey in an article for *The Future of Children*. “A growing body of research suggests that mothers often experience explicit discrimination because of their roles as caregivers and their need for workplace flexibility.”¹²

The stark economic conditions facing many families today are aggravated by the inadequate response of policymakers to the predicament of millions of people either unemployed or underemployed by working only part-time when they want and need to work full-time. The country has entered its fourth year of recovery since the end of the Great Recession—yet the unemployment and underemployment rates remain stubbornly high.

According to the nonpartisan Congressional Budget Office, the economy is not expected to get close to full employment for years. Chapter 1 discussed how policymakers could spur job growth through macroeconomic adjustments and government investments. Chapter 2 will focus on improving the quality of low-wage jobs, proposing core labor standards for all so that the new economic reality of American life will begin to include a more supportive work environment.



Richard Lord

Formal care for young children is associated with better cognitive and school-readiness outcomes.

3

Congress has raised the minimum wage only three times in the last 30 years.

The highest wage earners are **four times** more likely than the lowest wage earners to receive paid sick days, nearly **twice as likely** to have paid vacation days, and **five times as likely** to have access to paid family leave.³

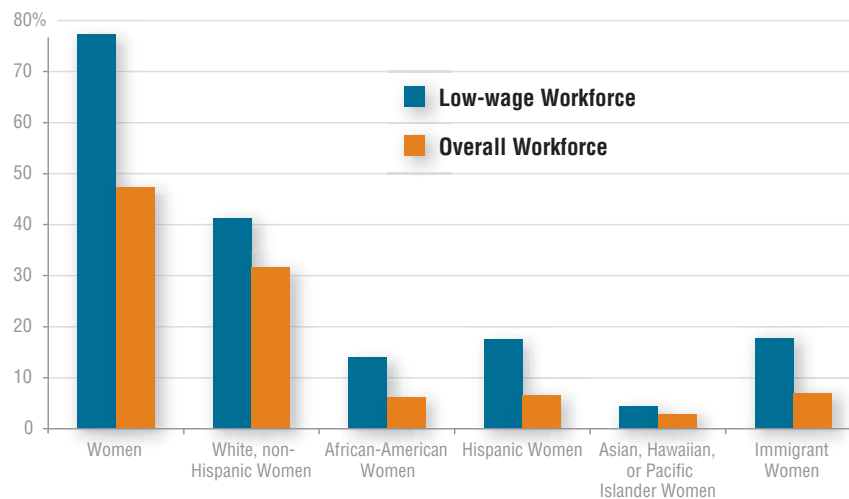
America's Poverty-Wage Workers

America's poverty-wage workforce is predominantly female.¹³ See Figure 2.2. While plenty of men also get stuck in poverty-wage jobs, they have more pathways for escape. The female workforce is concentrated in industries that historically pay less than those dominated by men—low-wage work in restaurants, retail sales, cleaning, and particularly care of children and elders,¹⁴ in contrast to sectors such as construction and manufacturing.¹⁵ Women are 94 percent of the country's childcare workforce and 88 percent of the home health care aides

who care for elderly and disabled people.¹⁶ Both occupations have a median wage of about \$20,000 a year.¹⁷

In 2011, U.S. women who worked full-time, year-round earned 77 cents for every dollar earned by men.¹⁸ While differences in education and training account for some of the wage gap, much more is due to gender discrimination. Race is a compounding factor—hunger is far more widespread among racial and ethnic minorities. African American and Hispanic women earn just 83 percent and 71 percent, respectively, of what white women earn.¹⁹ For an African American woman working full time, the gender wage gap costs her the equivalent of 118 weeks of food per year, and a

Figure 2.2 Women's Share of Low-Wage and Overall Workforces



Source: National Women's Law Center (2013). Analysis of 2012 Current Population Survey and Bureau of Labor Statistics data. The low-wage workforce is defined here as the 10 largest detailed low-wage occupations with median wages of less than \$10.10 per hour.

Latina loses the equivalent of 154 weeks.²⁰ Latinas who are legal immigrants and have been in the United States for less than five years are not able to receive SNAP benefits. No legal immigrants, male or female, are eligible for SNAP benefits before they have been in the country for five years, a policy that makes little sense in light of setting a goal to end hunger.

Women are overrepresented in minimum wage jobs.²¹ One of the myths about the minimum wage is that most of the earners are teenagers²²—but in reality, 80 percent are age 20 or older.²³ Two-thirds of restaurant workers who earn the “tipped minimum wage” (an exemption to minimum wage laws on the grounds that workers can make up the difference in tips) of only \$2.13 an hour are women.²⁴ See Box 2.1 on page 66. They are women like Claudia Muñoz, an immigrant from Mexico who supported herself for years by working in restaurants while she attended college in Texas. She survived mostly from the \$30 to \$40 a day she collected in tips. Muñoz works for the Restaurant Opportunities Center, an advocacy organization whose focus is raising wages and improving working conditions for all U.S. restaurant workers. “There were times when I wouldn’t eat all day,” she recalls. Employees at one restaurant where she worked were provided with a meal worth up to \$6.50—if they worked a full shift. But when the restaurant wasn’t busy, they were generally sent home before the end of the shift, so they weren’t allowed to eat.²⁵

Workers with the least predictable schedules are those with jobs in restaurants and retail. A typical worker in retail sales makes \$21,000 a year, with cashiers earning just \$18,500.²⁶ In addition to being sent home early on slow sales days, as Muñoz described, workers also may not know from one day to the next what their schedule is. They may be scheduled for a couple of days but put on call for the rest of the week, which makes it almost impossible to take other jobs to make up the income or to schedule college classes. Retail giant Wal-mart uses “just-in-time” schedules, meaning that workers cannot plan ahead because their work schedules change depending on how busy the store is. Most people know of Wal-mart’s reputation for low prices—and its reputation for paying low wages. As the largest private employer in the United States, Wal-mart’s influence on wage rates and working conditions stretches across the entire economy. This is because other retailers must reduce their labor costs in order to be competitive with Wal-mart’s. One way to do this is to schedule workers for part-time rather than full-time work.²⁷

Young workers with children are twice as likely to be living in poverty as the rest of the adult working-age population.²⁸ In fact, having a baby is one of the leading causes of a “poverty spell.”²⁹ The Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA) grants some parents the right to 12 weeks of unpaid leave after the birth or adoption of a child. Low-wage workers are less likely than others to meet the requirements for the FMLA, which include working for a company with at least 50 employees and having worked for at least 1,250 hours during the preceding 12 months.³⁰ Less than 60 percent of private sector workers are eligible for FMLA.³¹ Many who don’t qualify are single parents, primarily mothers, whose responsibilities at home make it difficult to put in long hours at work. More than 75 percent of single mothers are in the labor force,³² but many receive little or no financial support or help looking after their children from the children’s father. One reason single-parent families have higher rates of poverty is that the primary responsibility for supporting children falls on only one adult. The share of families headed by single mothers surged during the 1970s and rose less rapidly in the 1980s. Since 1990, the rate has leveled off.

The public discourse about poverty often focuses on single mothers, but the eroding value of wages affects all low- and middle-income families. Families that have not fallen behind have managed this mainly by working longer hours. From 1979–2007, married women in middle-income families increased the number of hours they worked annually by 58.5 percent, or 522 hours—the equivalent of three months of full-time work.³³ These families maintained their foothold on the middle class mainly because they had two incomes.



Seven of the 10 lowest paying jobs in the United States are in the restaurant industry.

RESTAURANT WORK

Seven of the nation's 10 worst-paying jobs, according to the Department of Labor, are in the restaurant industry.³⁴ From five-star establishments to fast food, low wages are the norm. In fact, we can tell to what extent the economy is still struggling from the effects of the Great Recession by the rate of job growth in the food service sector. In a strong economy, many jobs in restaurants go unfilled because higher-paying jobs are available elsewhere. Presently, job growth in the restaurant sector remains strong—an ominous sign for the nation's economic recovery.

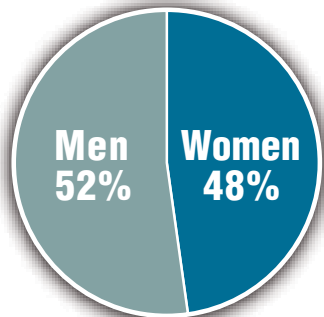
The server in a restaurant where you recently ate could be earning as little as \$2.13 per hour, the federal “subminimum wage” for this job. Many Americans do not realize that the federal minimum wage of \$7.25 an hour does not apply to all jobs—the law allows exemptions for specific job categories, including restaurant servers who can receive tips. In white tablecloth restaurants, tips can be a significant source

of income, but for most restaurant workers they are not. One result is that servers are three times as likely to live in poverty as the workforce as a whole.³⁵ On the other hand, the National Restaurant Association (NRA) projected that restaurant sales would top \$660 billion in 2013.³⁶

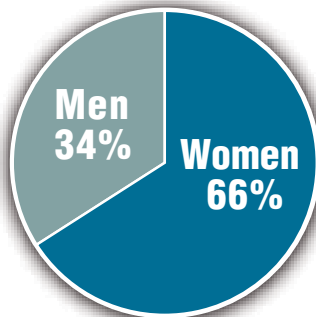
In the past, the tipped minimum wage was tied to the overall minimum wage, but since 1991, the tipped wage has been frozen at \$2.13, while the minimum wage has received raises. The tipped wage was officially severed from the minimum wage as part of welfare reform legislation of 1996. The NRA, which represents 380,000

Figure 2.3 **Gender Composition of Low Paid Workers in the Restaurant Industry**

Gender composition of non-tipped restaurant workers with \$7.25 Federal minimum wage



Gender composition for tipped restaurant workers with \$2.13 Federal subminimum wage



The large majority of workers in tipped occupations impacted by the subminimum wage of \$2.13 are women.

Source: Restaurant Opportunities Center United (2012), *Tipped Over the Edge: Gender Inequity in the Restaurant Industry*.

restaurant companies in the United States,³⁷ lobbied hard for this provision. During the 1994 and 1996 election cycles, the NRA contributed more than \$90,000 [\$142,000 in 2013 when adjusted for inflation]³⁸ to the reelection campaigns of members of the congressional committees with jurisdiction over the tipped wage.³⁹ Waiters and waitresses, with median earnings of \$8.93 an hour including tips, cannot hope to have the influence enjoyed by the NRA.⁴⁰

RETAIL WORK

The nation's 15 million retail workers earn a median wage of \$10.09 an hour.⁴¹ One in five retail workers is providing their family's only paycheck.⁴² Catherine Ruetschlin, with the nonpartisan public policy organization Demos, estimates that a wage standard of \$25,000 for

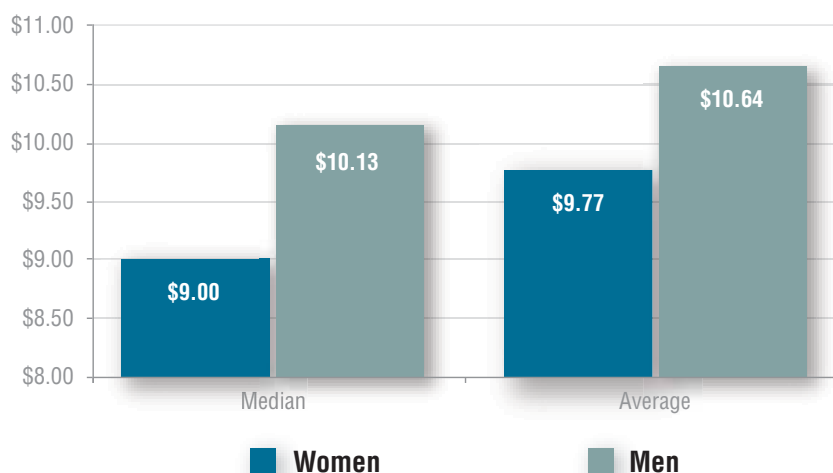
“There is absolutely no tradeoff between low prices and good jobs.”

— Zeynep Ton, MIT

a full-time, year-round worker at the nation's largest retailers—those employing 1,000 workers or more—would improve the living standards of 5 million workers and their families.⁴³ Would this damage the businesses? Ruetschlin determined that it would cost the largest retailers less than 1 percent of their annual sales. If half the costs were passed onto consumers, the average household would spend just 15 cents more per shopping trip.⁴⁴

“There is absolutely no tradeoff between low prices and good jobs,” says Zeynep Ton, an expert on the retail sector at the Sloan School of Management at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.⁴⁵ And, in fact, higher wages are good for business: a study by the Wharton School of Business at the University of Pennsylvania found that each \$1 increase in worker pay leads to an additional \$4 to \$28 in sales each month.⁴⁶ Well-paid, experienced employees provide better customer service, and improvements in worker morale lead to lower turnover, so companies save the costs associated with replacing workers. These are significant: Ton and her colleague Robert Huckman found that the cost of replacing a worker earning \$8 an hour at a retail chain store is at least \$3,500 and sometimes as much as \$25,000.⁴⁷

Figure 2.4 Gender and Wages in the Retail Sector



Median wage is calculated by dividing all surveyed wage earners into two equal groups.

Average wage is calculated by dividing aggregate wages of the group by the number of wage earners included in the survey.

Source: Retail Action Project (2011). Based on a survey of 2,000 professionals across the United States in a variety of retail and fashion-related fields.

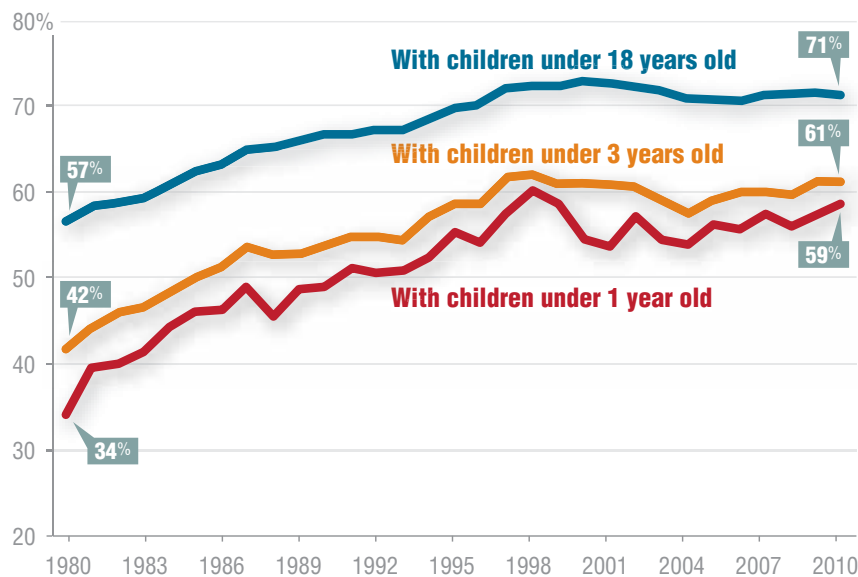
Balancing Work and Family

The Great Depression of the 1930s led to the New Deal, a set of economic initiatives that embodied a new social contract between the government and the public. As part of the New Deal, President Franklin D. Roosevelt and the Secretary of Labor, Francis Perkins, drafted the seminal Fair Labor Standards Act, which Congress passed in 1938. The law benefits families in many ways—particularly those in the lowest-paying jobs. The Fair Labor Stan-

dards Act set a federal minimum wage, established the 40-hour workweek, and required employers to pay employees overtime for any hours over 40 per week. In 1938, 40 hours was considered a short workweek and the country was still reeling from the effects of the Great Depression. Reducing unemployment was the president's top priority, and the new law made it possible to put more people back to work.⁴⁸

The Fair Labor Standards Act sets the “floor” for the fair treatment of workers and it remains a vital piece of legislation, but it does not address the dual role of workers who are also caregivers. In the 1930s, most women with children at home were not part of the paid workforce. President

Figure 2.5 Mothers' Labor Force Participation Rate, 1980-2010



Source: Demos (2011), *The State of Young America*. Demos analysis of Current Population Survey data.

Roosevelt and Secretary Perkins, the first female Cabinet secretary, could not foresee the transformation of the American workplace as women entered the workforce in large numbers and more mothers added “breadwinner” to their responsibilities.⁴⁹ This made the care of children and elders a much more complicated undertaking. This transformation is still under way: between 1980 and 2010, mothers in the workforce with children under age 18 increased by 14 percent; mothers with children under age 6 by 19 percent; and mothers with infants by 25 percent.⁵⁰ See Figure 2.5. In survey after survey,⁵¹ parents, regardless of their income level, report that they are exhausted and under stress from managing work and family commitments.

The Fair Labor Standards Act is silent on whether workers have a right to adapt their schedules to meet family needs. In the United States, workers who are allowed flexible scheduling and family leave tend to be those earning the most, while low-wage workers, arguably those most in need of these benefits, are the least likely to receive them.⁵² In the late 1990s, the U.K. government enacted a law that gives parents the right to request flexible schedules. Employers must provide this flexibility unless they can prove it will have an adverse

economic impact. Although they objected initially, employers soon accepted the new law as they saw the benefits of increased employee productivity, satisfaction, and retention.⁵³ The British law has now been expanded to cover family caregiving needs beyond child care—for example, caring for a disabled spouse.

Children in low-income families are more likely to have chronic health problems. One reason families become poor is that when a parent is forced to choose between keeping a job and caring for a sick child, she or he generally opts to take care of the child. Federal standards that require paid sick leave and paid family and medical leave would go a long way toward helping parents—and all workers—manage their work and family responsibilities.

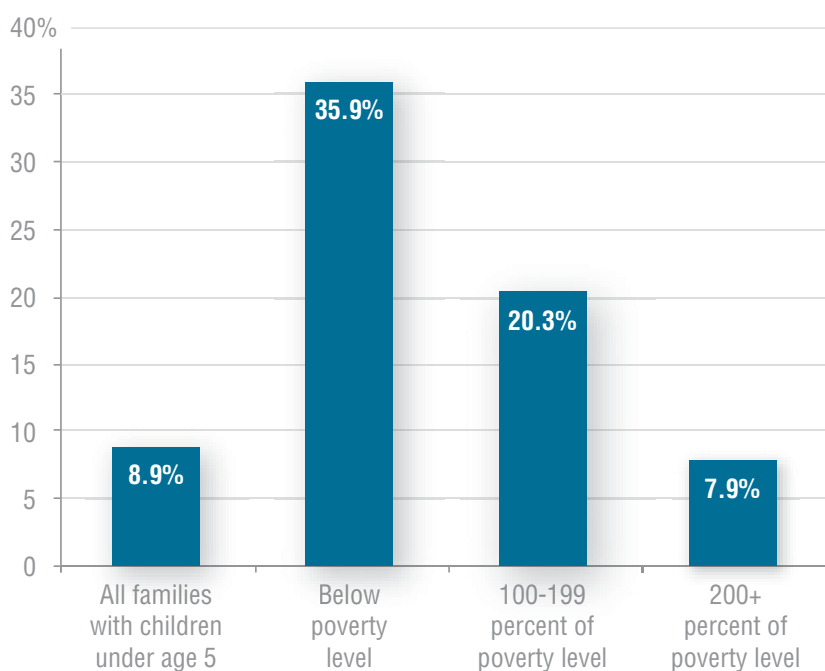
Child Care

More and more parents—57 percent in 2010, up from 49 percent just four years earlier—describe child care as an economic necessity.⁵⁴ In theory, families with lower incomes can get federal childcare subsidies, but currently, only one in six families that qualify actually receive this support.⁵⁵ A number of studies show that subsidized childcare enables more mothers to work, especially full-time, and that subsidies reduce poverty.⁵⁶ The Child and Dependent Care Tax Credit, a nonrefundable credit, allows eligible families to deduct up to 35 percent of the cost of care

from their taxes, but most low-income families are ineligible because they don't earn enough to owe income tax. If the credit were refundable, like the Earned Income Tax Credit, anyone with earned income who pays for child care would be eligible for it.

The annual cost of full-time care for an infant in a childcare center ranges from \$4,600 in Mississippi to \$15,000 in Massachusetts, according to the National Association of Child Care Resource & Referral Agencies.⁵⁷ The high cost of care puts it out of reach for many families, especially those who earn too much to qualify for a subsidy but not enough to pay for high-quality care themselves. After paying for child care and other expenses associated with working, they may find they have little if anything left over. When both parents are working in low-wage jobs, they may be able to eke out a living without cutting back on their food consumption or resorting to emergency services such as a food pantry or soup kitchen. On one income, however, that is extremely difficult. There is not a single U.S. state where a couple

Figure 2.6 Poor Families Spend a Larger Share of Their Income on Child Care



Source: Heather Boushey and Jane Farrell (2013), "A Woman's Agenda for the 21st Century: A Dozen Policies to Promote Economic Security for Women and Their Families," Center for American Progress. Authors' analysis of U.S. Census Bureau data.

relying on the income of one person in a poverty-wage job could afford a two-bedroom apartment at fair market rates.⁵⁸ In addition, child care is hard to find—particularly high-quality child care, and particularly care during the nontraditional days and hours required of many low-wage workers.

These families have good reason to feel frustrated. Having the second parent enter the paid workforce may make their household income look good on paper, but paying for child care and other work-related expenses makes their actual financial situation far less

rosy. Suzanne Bianchi, professor of sociology at UCLA, explains: “They may feel that they have done everything right—completed high school or some college, married before having children, worked hard at their jobs—and yet they still struggle to carve out a reasonable family life and hold onto jobs that are critical to their family’s economic well-being.”⁵⁹

Adult Care

While child care is a major concern for many workers, many others need to care for adult family members, especially elders, who are sick or disabled. Some workers face both challenges at once. About 25 percent of workers report that

they have elder-care responsibilities; by 2020, this figure is expected to rise to 40 percent.⁶⁰ With the baby boom generation now starting to retire and advances in health care making it possible for people to live longer, adults in the coming decades may start to spend more years caring for their parents than for their children.

The typical caregiver is between the ages of 35 and 64, female, and employed.⁶¹ Women—most often wives or adult daughters—provide more than 75 percent of the care given to adult family members.⁶² While relatives may well be caring for elders out of love, it is likely to be a financial necessity as well, since the cost of paid care for elderly people is outpacing the ability of families to pay for it.⁶³ In 2009, the American Association of Retired Persons (AARP) put the value of unpaid care at \$450 billion a year, more than twice what the country spends on paid long-term care services from all sources.⁶⁴

The Family and Medical Leave Act is the only law that deals specifically with the challenges of working while providing elder care.⁶⁵ For those who qualify, the offer of up to 12 weeks of unpaid leave is better than nothing, but it is not feasible for most low- and moderate-income families, nor will it meet the needs of those whose relatives have chronic health problems rather than an acute crisis once a year. “Two-thirds [of caregivers] say they reduce hours at work [when they start caring for elders],” says Howard Gleckman, author of *Caring*



Richard Lord

People 85 and older are the fastest growing share of the U.S. population, with about two-thirds reporting functional limitations performing routine daily tasks.

for Our Parents. “Not only does that reduce their current standard of living, it also jeopardizes their own retirement. It means they have less to put away in savings and fewer Social Security benefits. Over their lifetime, caregivers give up hundreds of thousands of dollars in potential income.”⁶⁶ Gleckman, who publishes an influential blog with the same name as his book, says, “Even as Congress talks about the importance of caregiver support, it does little. The 40 to 50 million family caregivers need real help but the system they rely on for support is failing them.”⁶⁷

Child and Adult Care Workers: The Other Side of the Equation

The Department of Labor reports that caregiving is one of the nation’s fastest growing occupations,⁶⁸ with demand fed by the increasing demands on workers and the rise in the share of the population that is elderly.

A person’s quality of life from birth to death is shaped by the quality of care available to him or her. As important as professional caregiving is to the functioning of the U.S. economy today, it ought to pay better than poverty-level wages. Improving the quality of care starts with improving the quality of caregiving jobs.

Raising the Floor on Child Care

The choice is ours as a society: the person caring for young children can have minimal qualifications and earn less than a worker in a fast food restaurant, or be a well-trained professional in child development and earn enough to meet a family’s needs. How childcare workers are seen and treated speaks volumes about our priorities.

Child care must first provide a safe and nurturing environment—criteria that not all childcare situations meet, particularly those that low-wage workers can afford. Second, child care must provide educational enrichment; this is not an optional luxury, since high-quality child care can have a lasting impact on child development and is linked to school readiness. The science of brain development tells us to start children’s education before kindergarten. Not only do children and their parents benefit, so does society. Nobel Prize-winning economist James Heckman of the University of Chicago has shown that a dollar invested in the education of children under age 3 leads to \$8 to \$9 in later productivity gains.⁶⁹ Parents don’t think about productivity gains when they drop off their child with a care provider. They do think about giving their child the best chance of success in life.

The United States is unique among peer nations in not providing universal public access to preschool.



Richard Lord

Before they enter kindergarten, children who grow up in poverty are already falling behind. For example, on average, their vocabulary includes only *one-third* as many words as children the same age from middle- and high-income families.⁷⁰ Head Start, the federal early education and care program, serves only about two out of five eligible preschool-age children (three- and four-year-olds) and Early Head Start serves just 4 percent of eligible infants and toddlers.⁷¹ Nationwide, about one-tenth of all children under the age of 5 are enrolled in Head Start or a state-based prekindergarten program (which, like Head Start, may also be means-tested).⁷²

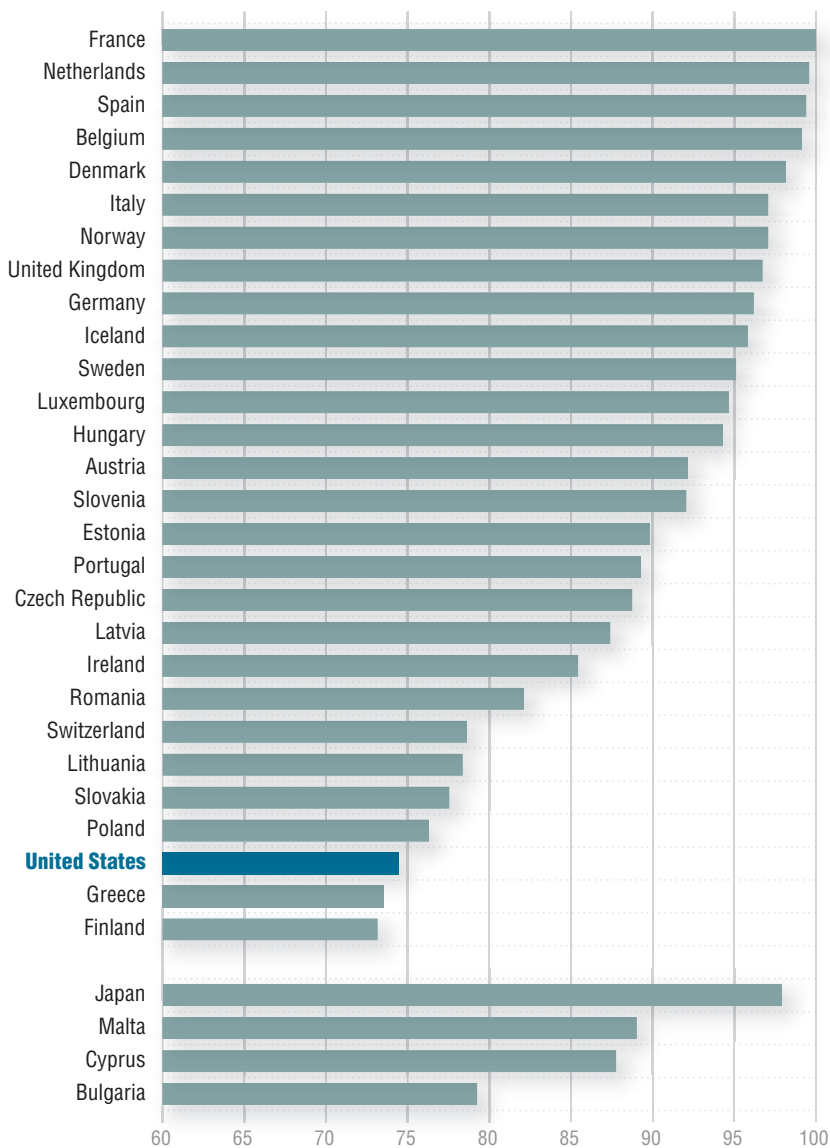
Experts consider the typical quality of early education in the United States to be low

by developed-country standards.⁷³

The United States is unique among peer nations in not providing universal public access to preschool in the year or two before school entry.⁷⁴ The fact that childcare workers generally earn poverty-level wages virtually guarantees that the standards for their training as educators will be low. “In France, pre-kindergarten teachers are required to be more highly trained than public school teachers,” says author and economist Robert Kuttner. “They must get additional course credits in public health and early child development, and they are compensated accordingly.”⁷⁵ In Nordic countries, early childhood education teachers are trained and paid the same as elementary school teachers. Correlation may not be causation, but in these countries, which provide some of the highest quality early education in the world, people who grow up in low-income homes are less likely to remain poor as adults than their American counterparts.⁷⁶

The share of early childhood education teachers and administrators with a four-year college degree averaged 43 percent in the early 1980s, but fell to 30 percent

Figure 2.7 Preschool Enrollment Rates



Source: UNICEF (2013), *Child Well-being in Rich Countries*.

in the early 2000s.⁷⁷ The declining share of college-educated workers reflects changes in the economy and new opportunities that have opened up to educated women. Women are still overrepresented in the early education field as they always have been, but it is not surprising that college-educated women would leave traditional but lower-paying fields as a greater variety of better-paying career choices opened up.

In 1971, the United States came close to enacting comprehensive childcare legislation at the federal level, when Congress passed the Comprehensive Child Development Act with bipartisan support. The legislation guaranteed every family access to child care and set federal standards for quality control and staff training. But President Richard Nixon vetoed the bill, saying that “federally-supported, institutional child care would undermine the family by encouraging mothers with young children to go out to work.”⁷⁸ Of course, he couldn’t stop the mass entry of mothers into the workforce, which was fueled by a powerful combination of individual aspirations and economic necessity.



Richard Lord

Raising the Floor on Adult Care

In 2008, the Institute of Medicine (IOM) stated that the education and training of adult care workers is insufficient to prepare them to provide high-quality care. IOM called for raising worker standards, including “fundamental reform in the way the workforce is trained.”⁷⁹ A bachelor’s degree is more common among childcare workers than adult care workers. A college degree is not a requirement in either field; in fact, a high school degree is not required either.⁸⁰

In 2013, nearly half of adult care workers were enrolled in public safety net programs such as SNAP and Medicaid.⁸¹ Low pay and meager benefits lead to high annual turnover rates—between 44 percent and 65 percent.⁸² This inevitably causes disruptions in patient care and inefficiencies in the use of Medicaid and Medicare funds, under which many of the services adult care workers provide are financed. Because the federal government is thus a “paying customer” of adult care services, it can directly influence compensation policies. See the section below titled “A Higher Road to Better Paying Jobs.”

Raising workers’ skill levels and wages would lead to costs savings in Medicaid and Medicare. It would also mean savings to taxpayers since workers would need fewer publicly financed safety net programs for themselves and their families.⁸³ The Affordable Care Act contains provisions that support workforce development and other improvements in job quality.⁸⁴ But as things stand, the workers are so poorly compensated that it is unrealistic to

The high annual turnover rate (30 percent) of child care staff in the United States is directly related to poverty-level wages.

expect them to invest in their own training without some guarantee of improvements in pay and working conditions.

In 2002, Evelyn Coke, an adult care worker from New York, took her employer to court. She had worked for years without days off or overtime pay and 70-hour weeks for less than the minimum wage.⁸⁵ Like restaurant servers, adult care workers were not covered by the minimum wage and overtime protections in the Fair Labor Standards Act, because the law still had a “companionship exemption” for those who care for elderly and disabled people. This is a relic of the past that shows how adult care work was traditionally viewed—as though things had not changed since the days when it meant that a woman from the neighborhood

would come to read to an elderly person whose sight was failing.

In 2007, the case reached the Supreme Court, which ruled that it was up to the White House to change the compensation policies for adult care workers.⁸⁶ In 2011, the Obama administration proposed a rule change to remove the minimum wage exemption. During the review phase, the Department of Labor received close to 26,000 comments, overwhelmingly in support of the change.⁸⁷ Lobbying against the rule change was the extremely profitable home care industry.⁸⁸ Approximately 70 per-



Home health care services for the elderly is one of the fastest growing fields of employment, while it remains one of the lowest paid.

cent of adult care workers are employed by home care agencies.⁸⁹ The Department of Labor estimated that the additional costs of covering adult care workers under federal minimum wage standards would be less than 0.1 percent of the industry’s \$84 billion in revenues.⁹⁰

In September 2013, the Obama administration announced it was extending minimum wage and overtime protections to the adult care workers, although the change will not go into effect until January 2015. “These new rules are a major victory for the 2.5 million home care workers in America, and the millions more who will be needed to meet America’s growing need over the next decades,” said Sarita Gupta, executive director of Jobs with Justice and American Rights at Work. “By extending basic labor protections to in-home care workers, the Department of Labor has helped pave the way for strong, sustainable growth of the care workforce.”⁹¹

One person who did not see this day arrive was Evelyn Coke. She died in 2009 at the age of 74.

An Honest Day’s Pay

For some time now, policymakers have understood that low-wage work does not pay enough to support a family. As early as the 1970s, the Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC) was used to supplement low wages. The EITC offsets federal payroll and income taxes. It has enjoyed bipartisan support because it rewards work. Its explicit objective is to reward

low-income families with children where a parent does the right thing by holding a job.

Every year the EITC lifts millions of families with children out of poverty. It moved an average of 6 million people above the poverty line in each of the years 2009, 2010, and 2011, and it reduced the effects of poverty for an additional 21 million people whose incomes remained below the poverty line.⁹² The program has been around long enough that researchers have data to show that children whose families claimed the EITC credit are earning higher incomes as adults and relying less on government safety nets than their peers whose families did not receive the EITC.⁹³ EITC participation is also associated with improvements in children's school performance,⁹⁴ improvements in maternal health, and reductions in premature and low birth weight babies.⁹⁵

The EITC has been the policy instrument of choice because it is less of a burden to employers than raising wages. But an increase in the federal minimum wage that accurately reflects living costs is long overdue. In his 2013 State of the Union address, President Obama called for raising the minimum wage to \$9 an hour by 2015

and indexing it to inflation. "The president believes no one who works full time should have to raise their family in poverty," read a statement from the White House press secretary after the State of the Union.⁹⁶ In 2012, 3.5 million workers were paid minimum wage or less—that's 4.7 percent of all workers paid by the hour.⁹⁷

At \$9 an hour, a full-time worker would have an annual income of \$18,018. In 2015, a family of four dependent on that worker's income would still be \$6,600 below the poverty line.⁹⁸ While the president's proposal falls far short of his objective as stated by his press secretary, we don't want to minimize the value of any increase in the minimum wage. The current federal minimum wage is \$7.25 an hour, so a full-time worker earning the minimum wage has an annual income of less than \$15,000. According to the Economic Policy Institute, a \$9 minimum wage would directly boost the wages of more than 13 million workers and lead to increases for another 4.7 million.⁹⁹

No less important than the dollar amount of the minimum wage is the president's proposal to index it to inflation, which would mean adjusting it regularly. Currently the minimum wage is not indexed to inflation, so its real value begins to depreciate immediately and workers don't catch up until the president and Congress decide to raise it again. The timing of increases that require a congressional vote is unpredictable at best. Adjusted for inflation, the real value of the minimum wage peaked in the late 1960s. By 2012, it



The majority of low-wage workers earning \$10 per hour or less are employed at large businesses with at least 100 employees.

had decreased in value by nearly one-third,¹⁰⁰ and with it so did the purchasing power of minimum wage workers.

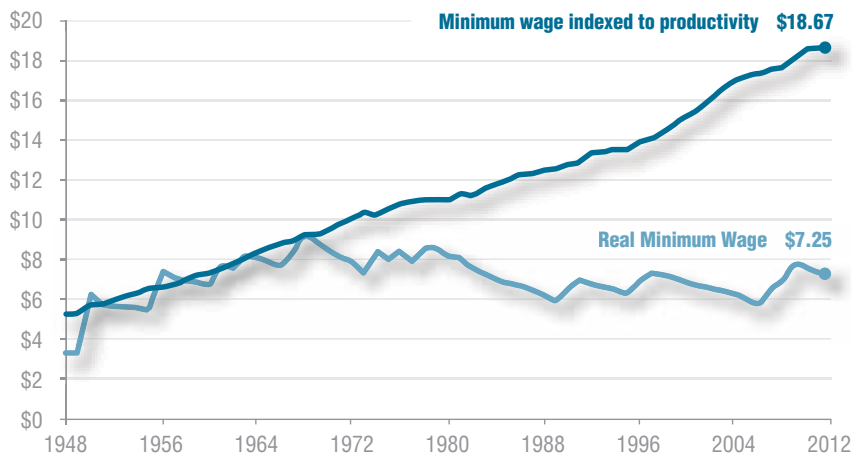
The rise of income inequality in the United States is fundamentally about the divergence between productivity growth and wage growth. The U.S. economy has grown much larger since the late 1960s. So has income inequality. This was not an inevitable outcome. See Figure 2.8. In the first few decades after World War II, living standards improved for everyone because

productivity and wages grew at the same rate. But in recent decades, the gains from productivity growth have gone almost exclusively to the top earners. Nowhere does income inequality come into sharper focus than at the bottom of the income distribution, where the minimum wage sets the floor. If the minimum wage had kept pace with productivity growth, *it would now be \$18.67 an hour in 2012 dollars.*¹⁰¹ Had wages and productivity risen at the same rate for everyone, as in the past, the poverty rate in 2007 would have been 44 percent lower than it was.¹⁰²

This divergence between productivity growth and wage growth is frequently attributed to differences in educational attainment. This is true to some extent—better-educated workers have always commanded higher wages—but the relationship between differences

Figure 2.8 Too Many Americans are More Productive But Not Higher-Paid

Real federal minimum wage compared to what the minimum wage would be if it had been indexed to productivity since 1968



Source: Heidi Shierholz (2013), "Lagging minimum wage is one reason why most Americans' wages have fallen behind productivity," Economic Policy Institute. Author's analysis of Total Economy Productivity data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics Labor Productivity and Costs program. Minimum wages are from the U.S. Department of Labor Wage and Hour Division and deflated using the CPI-U-RS.

in educational attainment and the rise of income inequality has been greatly exaggerated. There is more inequality *within* the group of workers with college degrees, for example, than there is between college-educated workers and everyone else. In the middle fifth of the income distribution, where there are plenty of workers with bachelor's degrees, master's degrees, and PhDs, the average annual earnings in 2007 would have been \$18,897 higher if productivity and wage rates had continued to rise in tandem.¹⁰³

Low-wage workers are on the whole better educated today than when they were receiving their fair share of productivity growth. See Figure 2.9. One way to do the right thing for all workers across the income distribution would be to start distributing the gains from productivity growth more fairly. There has been sufficient economic growth for everyone to benefit. From 2002-2011, for example, productivity increased by 16.1 percent—yet the inflation-adjusted compensation (wages and benefits) of both high school graduates and college graduates fell.¹⁰⁴

The argument most often used against raising the minimum wage is that it would lead employers to lay off workers or cut back on their hours. The effect on employment outcomes of raising the minimum wage has been widely studied; in fact, it is one of the most studied subjects in economics. There is little evidence that moderate raises lead to higher unemployment or reduced work schedules. Jared Bernstein of the Center on Budget and Policy Priorities explains that raising the minimum wage “won’t transform the labor market or rebuild the middle class, but it is a vital if small part of the connective tissue that used to bind even our lowest wage workers to the more broadly shared prosperity that has eluded them for decades.”¹⁰⁵

The minimum wage and the EITC are tools policymakers can use to fix some of the broken places in the economy for low-wage workers. “What combination of these two policies should we use to achieve the goal of guaranteeing workers and their families a decent living standard?” ask Jeannette Wicks-Lim and Jeffrey Thompson, economists at the University of Massachusetts, in a study appropriately titled *Combining Minimum Wage and Earned Income Tax Credit Policies to Guarantee a Decent Living Standard to All U.S. Workers*.¹⁰⁶ The key variable they identify is the minimum wage tipping point—that

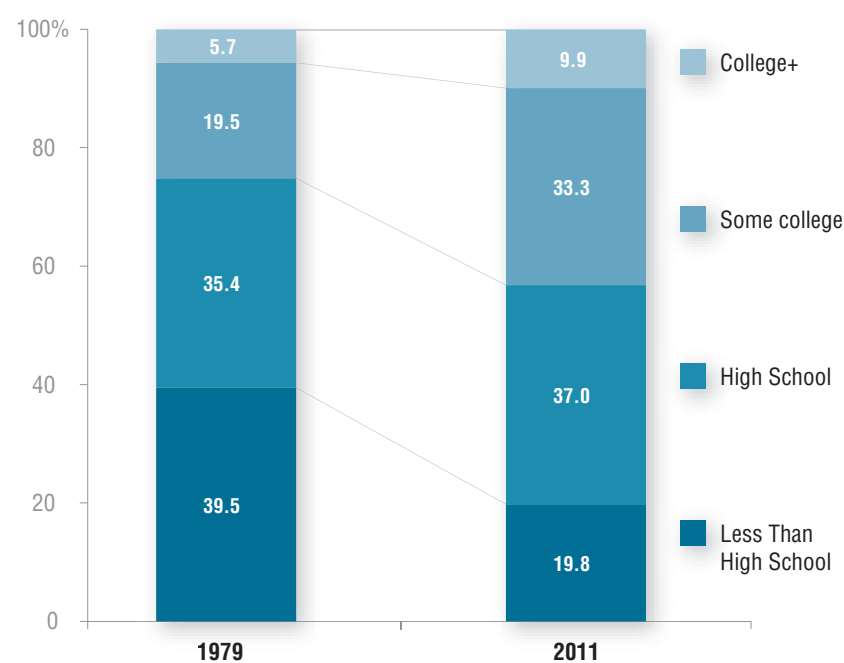
is, the largest minimum wage hike that the U.S. economy would be able to absorb without producing significant layoffs or reductions in workers’ hours.¹⁰⁷ They conclude, “A 70 percent minimum wage hike falls below the tipping point.”¹⁰⁸

A Higher Road to Better-Paying Jobs

The U.S. government permits private sector firms to pay workers poverty-level wages in the federal contracting process. This can be changed rather simply by requiring companies that compete for government contracts to adopt a “high-road” approach to compensating their lowest-paid workers.

In 2012, the federal government paid private sector firms \$517 billion to provide it with goods and services.¹⁰⁹ Just a few examples of the workers paid poverty-level wages under government contracts: janitors and food service workers in government buildings, truckers who haul food served in school cafeterias around the nation, and sewing machine operators who produce uniforms worn by members of the armed forces.

Figure 2.9 Low-Wage Workers, by Education, 1979 and 2011



Source: John Schmitt and Janelle Jones (2012), “Low-wage Workers Are Older and Better Educated than Ever,” Center for Economic and Policy Research.

Fidelina Santana, a 40-year-old mother of three, is the sole breadwinner for her children. She works in the food court at a federal office building in Washington, DC. “Even after [nine] years of hard work, I only earn \$9.50 an hour and I don’t have any benefits,” says Santana. “To make ends meet, I need to work 73 hours a week. I don’t even get overtime. I work so much because I am a single mother of three children. I need to feed them and put a roof

over their heads, even if it’s only a bedroom that I rent in my sister’s house.”¹¹⁰

The Department of Defense (DoD) is by far the largest contractor for government goods and services.¹¹¹ An estimated 20,000 workers make military uniforms.¹¹² Since the law requires that all U.S. military uniforms be made domestically, DoD is the world’s largest purchaser of U.S.-made textiles. Sewing machine operators in the uniform manufacturing plants earn an average of \$10.22 per hour. Lucy Johnson (a pseudonym) works on a federal contract to provide uniforms to DoD. She’s been a sewing machine operator for 25

years at a plant in Knoxville, Tennessee, and earns \$7.25 an hour. The company she works for earned \$13 million from federal contracts in 2012 alone and a total of more than \$200 million since 2002.¹¹¹ Johnson is now 65, but retirement is out of the question. She receives Social Security benefits and Medicare (which covers 80 percent of her medical expenses). But with a heart condition that costs her \$100 per month in out-of-pocket medical expenses, she can barely afford to eat even with the help of food stamp/SNAP benefits.¹¹⁴

A 2013 study by Demos, a nonpartisan public policy organization, found that nearly 2 million private sector employees working on behalf of American taxpayers earn \$12 per hour or less.¹¹⁵ See Table 2.1. As mentioned earlier, a family of four with one worker earning \$12 an hour is right at the poverty line. These 2 million low-wage government contract workers outnumber all the low-wage workers at Wal-mart and McDonald’s combined.¹¹⁶

Amy Traub, who co-authored the Demos report, “Underwriting Bad Jobs: How Our Tax Dollars Are Funding Low-Wage Work and Fueling Inequality,” testified before Congress in May 2013 about the effects of low wages paid by federal contractors. She put the burden on taxpayers in context: “When federally funded workers are paid low wages, taxpayers are, in effect, subsidizing their jobs twice. First we pay for the work itself. But we pay again when

“Low-wage government contract workers outnumber all the low-wage workers at Wal-mart and McDonald’s combined.”

Table 2.1 Low-Wage Private Sector Workers Funded by Public Dollars

Jobs funded through direct federal contracts	560,000
Jobs funded through SBA loans	204,000
Jobs funded through Medicare spending	759,000
Jobs funded through federal Medicaid spending	425,000
Jobs funded through federal Child Health Insurance Program spending	2,000
Jobs supported by Public Buildings Service property leases	9,000
Jobs funded through federal infrastructure funds	33,000
total	1,992,000

Source: Amy Traub and Robert Hiltonsmith (2013), “Underwriting Bad Jobs: How Our Tax Dollars are Funding Low-Wage Work and Fueling Inequality,” Demos.

workers earn so little that they require public benefits, such as Medicaid, food stamps, and housing assistance, to support their families.”¹¹⁷

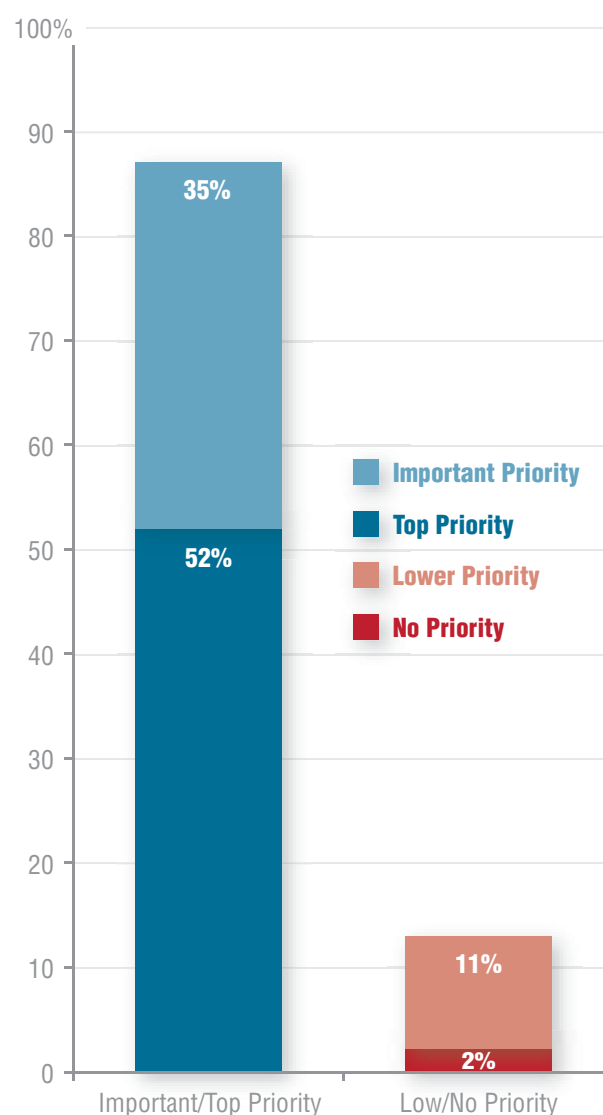
President Obama has the authority to improve workplace standards at firms that do business with the federal government. The administration has pushed hard to eliminate waste and abuse in federal contracts, and better treatment of workers could save money for the government. He can issue an executive order requiring federal agencies to take all possible steps to raise workplace standards, including paying better wages. Past presidents have used their authority to redress discrimination in the contractor workforce. In March 2009, Obama did in fact announce plans to reform federal contracting policies in ways that reward high-road firms.¹¹⁸ But in March of 2011, an official in the Office of Management and Budget announced that these plans had to be put on hold.¹¹⁹ Time is running out for the president to follow through on his pledge.

The government has a limited ability to influence the behavior of private sector companies, but the government is the customer in the public sector—or, to put it differently, the taxpayer is the customer. Polls consistently show that the U.S. public wants the government to do more to help ensure that working families can afford a decent standard of living. See Figure 2.10. So then, most Americans are likely to agree that the federal government should be doing business with high-road companies that pay their workers a living wage, not with low-road companies that pay poverty wages. Demos suggests a point system to reward contractors that pay their workers living wages. The government already uses a performance-based system to evaluate contractors on the quality of their work, so a component on how they compensate their employees would be a simple addition to the existing evaluation system.¹²⁰

Bargaining Power

In an economy with full employment, workers have some bargaining power when it comes to wages and benefits. High unemployment has the opposite effect—people who are out of work and desperately need jobs can’t afford to make many demands about the pay and benefits. The less bargaining power a worker has with her employer, the less pay she will accept to do the job. If an employer breaks the law—discriminates on the basis of race or gender, fails to pay overtime,

Figure 2.10 What Priority Should the Federal Government Give to Addressing Problems of the Working Poor?



Source: American Values Network (2012), “Poll: Voters Prefer Candidates Who Talk About Working Poor.”

or simply steals wages—people who struggle to gain any job are often afraid to stand up for their rights.

Traditionally, low-wage workers have gained bargaining power by forming unions and bargaining collectively. Blue-collar workers covered by collective bargaining agreements earn more than 23 percent more than their peers in similar jobs not covered by such agree-

ments.¹¹⁹ Unions also have the effect of increasing wages for non-union workers in the same industry and geographic area.¹²⁰ This is important because it means that unions are not just narrow interest groups benefitting their members but can also advance the interests of a wider proportion of working people.

In 2011, 17.8 percent of blue-collar men were covered by collective bargaining agreements, down from 43.1 percent in 1978.¹²³ The decline in union membership mirrors the decline in wage rates since the late 1970s; it is a major cause of the increase in wage inequality in the United States over the same period. The main reason that



The United States lags behind other industrialized nations in collective bargaining coverage of workers.

union membership is falling, argue labor leaders, is that the federal government has permitted management to block workers from organizing. If management fires workers who attempt to organize, the workers have the right to petition the National Labor Relations Board for redress. But some of these cases have dragged on for years, so long that the workers who tried to form a union have moved on to new jobs. The Employee Free Choice Act, a bill that would make it easier for workers to form a union and harder for management to prevent this, passed with bipartisan support in the House of Representatives in 2007 but was killed by a threatened filibuster in the Senate. Overall, only 11.8 percent of workers are now represented by a union, yet 58 percent say they would like to be.¹²⁴ Hence it would be premature to write unions off as an artifact of a bygone era. Between 1933 and 1954, union density rose from 7 percent to 28 percent,¹²⁵ and there is little reason to believe that unions could not rise again.

For the moment, however, declines in union membership also mean fewer of the advantages that union members once enjoyed. Unions serve as watchdogs, ensuring that employers comply with workplace regulations. Thus, workers now find themselves more dependent on the enforcement of regulations in the Fair Labor Standards Act at a time when there is

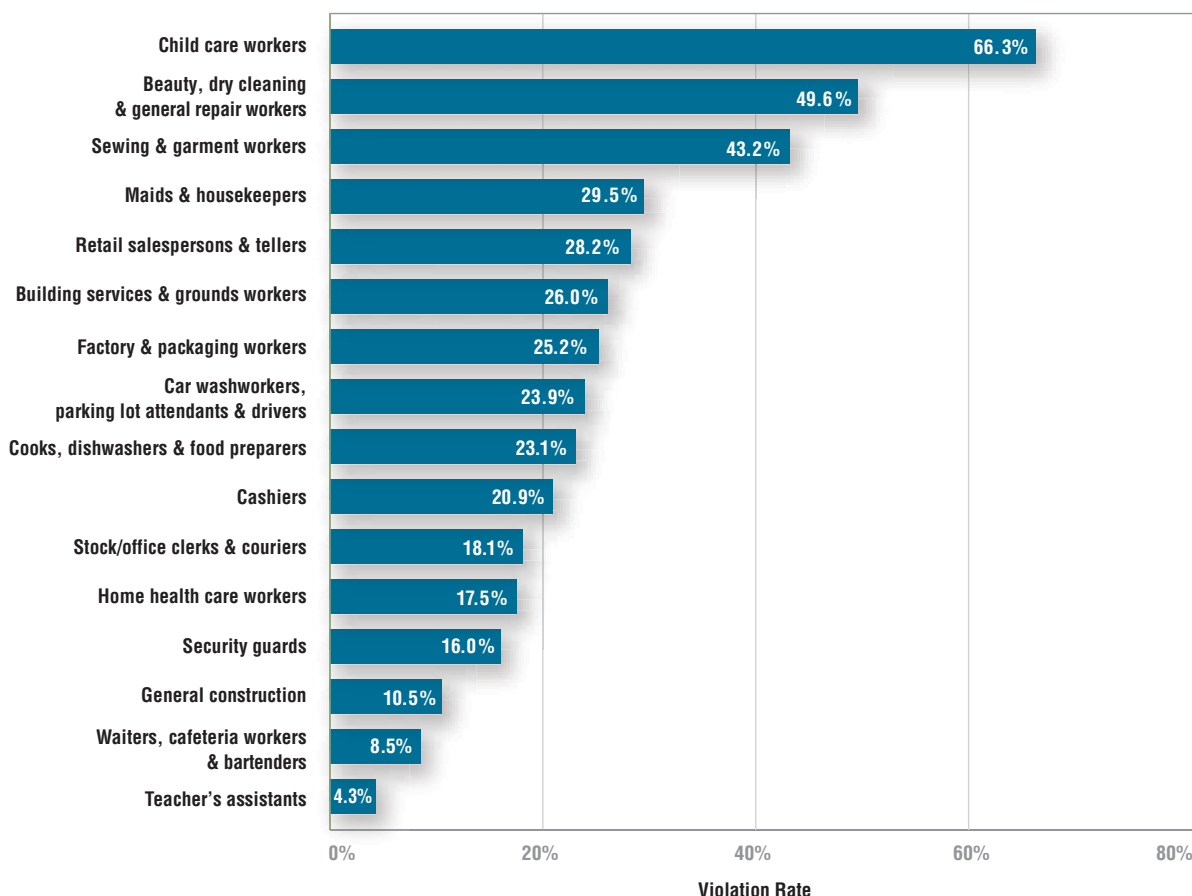
“Blue-collar workers covered by collective bargaining agreements earn more than 23 percent more than their peers in similar jobs not covered by such agreements.”

great hostility to government regulation. It is a precarious position. Between 1980 and 2007, the number of inspectors enforcing federal minimum wage and overtime laws declined by a third—while the labor force grew by half.¹²⁶

In 2011, more than 7,000 collective actions were filed in federal court alleging wage and hour violations under the Fair Labor Standards Act.¹²⁷ A 2008 survey of low-wage workers in Chicago, Los Angeles, and New York—the three largest U.S. cities, with a combined labor force of more than 11 million workers—found that 26 percent were paid less than the minimum wage, 76 percent were underpaid or not paid at all for overtime hours, and 70 percent worked off the clock before or after their paid shift. On average, the 4,387 workers in the survey were not paid for 15 percent of their time—an average of \$2,634 was stolen from their annual earnings.¹²⁸ The vast majority of these workers were supporting at least one child. The wage theft meant that every month, families had \$219.50 less to buy food and meet other expenses.

Wage theft takes a variety of forms. It happens in big firms and small. Workers at a Nash-

Figure 2.11 Minimum Wage Violation Rates by Occupation: Survey of Workers in Chicago, Los Angeles, and New York City



Source: Annette Bernhardt, Ruth Milkman, et al. (2009) *Broken Laws, Unprotected Workers: Violations of Employment and Labor Laws in America's Cities*, National Employment Law Center.

ville car wash were told they were off the clock anytime there were no customers onsite. In Madison, Wisconsin, a cook was working 40 hours a week at two restaurants owned by the same employer who counted each of the 40 hours separately.¹²⁹ Workers may be ordered to stay late or come in early and not be paid for the additional hours. They may be forced to

work through breaks. Day laborers aren't paid at the end of the day. A job ends, and the last paycheck—which may be for weeks of work—never gets signed. Tips are withheld. Workers are classified as independent contractors rather than employees. Workers in retail sales (cell phones, for example) regularly work on commission. Some employers delay payments for months and establish payment systems that are confusing and easy to manipulate.

In 2008, Wal-mart settled a class action suit for nearly half a billion dollars, the largest lawsuit settlement ever for wage and hour violations.¹³⁰ Over the course of a decade, 14 7-Eleven franchises

stole millions of dollars in wages from dozens of workers.¹³¹ The victims were undocumented immigrants and thus easy prey for the employers, who knew that the workers had no recourse since they could not go to authorities for fear of deportation.

Kim Bobo, executive director of the Interfaith Worker Justice Network and author of *Wage Theft in America*, says there is no comprehensive study of wage theft across all 50 states. But based on regional or city studies such as the one mentioned above in Chicago, Los Angeles, and New York, she estimates that the total value of wages stolen from workers could easily reach \$100 billion a year.¹³² Think about it—\$100 billion could buy a lot of nutritious food and safe housing for families living in poverty in this country.

Not only is wage theft a crime against individuals and groups of workers, but it harms all workers and society by weakening workplace standards intended for the protection of everyone. “When unscrupulous employers violate the law, responsible employers are forced into unfair competition,” writes the National Employment Law Project, which conducted the survey in Chicago, New York and Los Angeles, “setting off a race to the bottom that threatens to bring down standards throughout the labor market.”¹³³ Better enforcement by government inspectors is a must. A revitalized labor movement would make a big difference. A commitment to reaching full employment is a key solution for the long term.

Wage theft is common among undocumented day laborers. Construction is the most common occupation for day laborers.



“Between 1980 and 2007, the number of inspectors enforcing federal minimum wage and overtime laws declined by a third—while the labor force grew by half.”

Andrew Wainer, Bread for the World Institute

More than 70 percent of all hired U.S. farm workers are foreign-born, mostly from Mexico, and about half are undocumented.¹ Many arrive in the United States to escape poverty and hunger in their homelands. They can earn more money in the United States, but they still live on poverty-level wages and suffer from food insecurity.

Maria, an immigrant from Mexico who works harvesting vegetables, is an example of the sacrifices that immigrant agricultural workers make to feed their families. Maria came to Florida *para salir adelante*—to get ahead. She arrived as a teenager in the mid-1990s, escaping a life of poverty on her family's Oaxacan corn patch.

In south Florida, she worked seven days a week filling bins with squash, tomatoes, beans, and cucumbers. She and her husband envisioned a future for their family that was out of reach in Oaxaca, one of the poorest states in Mexico. Neither of them enjoyed working in the Florida fields, but without papers, it's all they could do. "That's why we came here—to work," said Maria, now 34 years old. "In the factories or restaurants they ask for papers, but in the fields no."

In 2008, when the country plunged into a deep recession, agricultural work in Florida grew scarce. To supplement their income, the couple would travel north to plant tomatoes during the Florida off-season. In 2010, Maria couldn't go because she was pregnant, so her husband went to Ohio alone. The family has not been together since.

Traveling by bus on his way back to Florida, Maria's husband was stopped by immigration officials and deported to Mexico. "He wants to return, but it's very difficult," she said. "They charge \$4,000 to \$5,000 to cross the border. This is money I don't have."

Maria thought about going back to Mexico. For her U.S.-born children, Mexico is an unknown and unappealing destination; they're American in every sense of the word. Despite Maria's full-time job, the loss of her husband's income means that Maria's daughters, who are citizens, depend on federal nutrition programs. Maria herself relies on support from civil society organizations like the Farm Worker Association of Florida. She continues to work in the fields. For the sake of her children, she's going to stay in the United States and hope for the best.

Some version of Maria's story is true for thousands of immigrant farm workers in the United States. The poverty rate for farm worker families has decreased over the past 15 years, but it is still more than twice that of all wage and salary employees combined, and it's higher than that of any other general occupation. Hired farm work is among the lowest-paid work in the country.

"Immigrants play an important role in the food system from fields to restaurants—as dairy workers, meat processing workers, cooks, busboys, and more. More than half of food sector workers—both immigrant and native-born—earn poverty wages."

IMMIGRANTS IN THE U.S. FOOD SYSTEM

In 2006, the median earnings of these workers—\$350 per week—were lower than those of security guards, janitors, maids, and construction workers. Only dishwashers were found to have lower weekly earnings.

The agriculture sector is not alone in its dependence on newcomers. Immigrants play an important role in the food system from fields to restaurants—as dairy workers, meat processing workers, cooks, busboys, and more. More than half of food sector workers—both immigrant and native-born—earn poverty wages.²

“Only 20 percent of restaurant jobs pay a living wage, and women, people of color, and immigrants are often excluded from these living-wage positions.”

A 2009 study³ by the National Milk Producers Federation (NMPF) found that half of all dairy farms surveyed used immigrant labor, and 62 percent of the nation’s milk supply comes from farms using immigrant labor. Research on the impact of immigration on the industry found that a 50 percent reduction in foreign-born labor would result in the loss of 2,266 dairy farms.⁴ As with other jobs in the food system, the outdoor work and irregular hours deter many

citizens who have other labor options. One article quotes a California dairy farmer as saying, “I haven’t had a non-Hispanic want to do this work in 10 years.”⁵

The animal slaughtering industry employed 486,000 workers in 2010. Census data indicate that one-third of meatpacking jobs are done by immigrants, although the percentage may be much higher due to underreporting.⁶ According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), “Meatpacking is one of the most dangerous manufacturing jobs in the U.S., with injuries that include muscular trauma, repetitive motion disease, cuts, and strains.”

The importance of immigrants to food production doesn’t end on the farm or in the dairy or slaughterhouse. Out of about 12.7 million workers in the restaurant industry, an estimated 1.4 million or 10 percent are foreign born, according to the BLS. Some are legal immigrants, while many are not. Hundreds of thousands of undocumented immigrants work as chefs, dishwashers, and busboys.⁷ Another study found that nearly 20 percent of restaurant cooks and 30 percent of dishwashers are undocumented immigrants.⁸ As with other industries, the proportion of unauthorized workers is likely larger than these studies indicate because of underreporting.

Only 20 percent of restaurant jobs pay a living wage, and women, people of color, and immigrants are often excluded from these living-wage positions.⁹ And like food processing jobs, restaurant work is much more dangerous than other sectors. In 2011, the Centers for Disease Control reported restaurants as the third most frequent setting for outbreaks of food-borne illness (after cruise ships and long-term care facilities).¹⁰ Life for immigrant workers in the food system is tough for many reasons—low wages, irregular working hours, dangerous

working conditions, and increasingly, immigration enforcement measures that push unauthorized workers out of their jobs. Given the challenges facing laborers, many immigrants choose to start their own restaurants or open their own markets catering to the immigrant community.

Entrepreneurship allows them more control of their working conditions and contributes food resources to communities that often lack them, turning food deserts into oases. For example, much of Detroit is a food desert, but the southwest part of the city—known as Mexicantown—is traditionally home to immigrants and has become a food oasis thanks to immigrant food entrepreneurs. “In southwest Detroit you have...really large grocery stores that cater to the ethnic community,” said Hector Hernandez, executive director of Southwest Housing Solutions, a community development organization in Detroit. “They have fresh products. You don’t find these sorts of grocers in any part of the city.”

Unauthorized immigrants come disproportionately from rural environments in their home countries, where they grew their own food and raised animals to feed their families. Once in the United States, they gravitate to the food industry since they have this background and that’s where the jobs available to them are. Legalizing unauthorized immigrants will help them earn more money for their families and make larger contributions to the U.S. economy. The 1986 legalization measures led to an increase of 15 percent in legalized immigrants’ incomes over five years.¹¹ This means not only that legalization reduced poverty, but also it contributed to the U.S. economy, since the legalized immigrants paid more taxes and had more money to spend on community goods and services. A 2010 RAND study on the effects of legalization found that it could, by removing barriers, make the labor market more efficient, helping both workers and employers. “Illegal status generates barriers that constrain the choices of both workers and employers,” the study concluded. “In this sense, legalization could be interpreted as a removal of such barriers, which could potentially improve... the overall efficiency of the labor market.”

Andrew Wainer is the senior immigration analyst in Bread for the World Institute.



Migrant workers process green peppers on Uesugi Farms in Gilroy, California.



Inclusion for the Excluded and Denied

Chapter Summary

We can get close to ending hunger in America by making improvements in economic policies as discussed in Chapters 1 and 2. But we cannot end hunger altogether without confronting knottier social issues. Often, hunger is a by-product of social exclusion, which can appear in many forms of discrimination. Ending hunger requires ending discrimination and having a safety net wide enough to protect those who are at the margins of society. This chapter addresses issues of social exclusion, focusing on people with criminal records, at-risk youth on their way to dropping out of school, adults and children with disabilities, and low-income seniors. Clearly, these are not all the excluded groups, nor do they represent all forms of discrimination. They are examples of why ending hunger requires more than just getting to full employment and making sure every job is a good job.

MAIN RECOMMENDATIONS IN THIS CHAPTER

- Abolish laws that prohibit people with criminal records from receiving public benefits and that make it hard for them to get jobs and earn an honest living.
- Establish an employment program that targets individuals with significant barriers to work so that they are able to gain work experience, build skills, and improve their long-term prospects for employment.
- Guarantee every child a high-quality education from Pre-K through grade 12 and assure critical benchmarks are reached.
- Increase income assistance for people with disabilities who cannot work; provide better support to those who can and want to work.
- Improve SNAP outreach to low-income seniors; ensure that there is sufficient funding to deliver meals to all those who are homebound and in need.

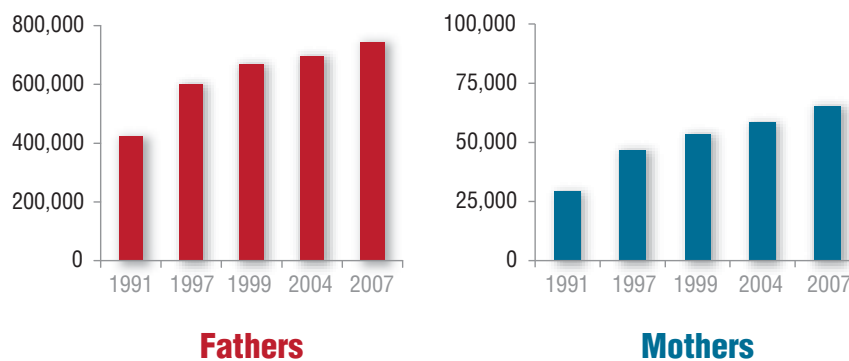
Ex-Offenders/Returning Citizens

After paying their debt to society, ex-offenders returning to their communities face many barriers to putting their lives back together. Poor people of color, particularly men, are victims of a discriminatory criminal justice system that seems intent on keeping them in poverty. The stigma of having a criminal record means that ex-offenders—returning citizens is the term preferred by advocacy groups—are already one of the groups most vulnerable to hunger. Policies that make millions of returning citizens ineligible for nutrition assistance only exacerbate the problem—while studies show that access to public services that improve economic security, especially soon after people are released, reduces recidivism rates.¹ The policies are counterproductive, go on punishing people long after they've completed their sentences, and turn their children, other family members, and communities into collateral damage.

TJ and Marquez

As his release date approached, Terry Jones (TJ), 41, decided to apply for SNAP benefits (which used to be called food stamps). It was the first time he had applied, although he'd been eligible based

Figure 3.1 Number of Parents in Prison, 1991-2007



Source: The Sentencing Project (2012), "Parents in Prison."

on income for most of his life. "I was too proud for food stamps," he explained. When he was a kid, his father told him there were three things poverty should never do to a man: pawn belongings, sell blood, or use food stamps. TJ changed his mind about food stamps because of his own kids. Once he got out of prison, he would need to feed them. That was his job, as their father. The SNAP benefit won't be enough by itself, but it will help. In Ohio, where he lives, a returning citizen is eligible for up to \$200 of food stamps a month.

Most parents in prison are fathers (744,200 fathers compared to 65,600 mothers in 2012).² For T.J., the worst thing about prison was the separation from his children. This was his third time in prison. His teenage daughter told him she thinks about suicide. She is 6 feet tall and kids make fun of her for her height. It tears him up to think how much it hurts her. He wants to be able to tell her every day that she is a beautiful young woman, but he can't when he is behind bars. "The number of fathers in prison increased 76 percent and the number of mothers in prison increased 122 percent between 1991 and 2007," reports the Sentencing

From 2000 to 2010, the rate of incarceration decreased **35 percent** for black women and increased **28 percent** for Hispanic women, and **38 percent** for white women.¹

If the dropouts from the nation's class of 2011 had graduated, the U.S. economy would benefit by about

\$154 billion over their lifetimes.²



Project, a research and advocacy group that promotes reforms in sentencing policy. See Figure 3.1. “In 2007, 1.7 million children had a parent in prison on any given day.”³

In several states, the law prohibits people convicted of certain categories of crimes from receiving public benefits. People convicted of drug-related crimes are hit with restrictions that affect their employment, housing, education, military service, driver’s licenses, child custody, voting rights, nutrition assistance, and more.⁴ In its zeal to “get tough” on drugs, and without regard to the inequities of the criminal justice system, Congress in 1996 enacted a lifetime ban on food stamp eligibility for ex-drug offenders. There is a similar lifetime ban on eligibility for Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), a program that mainly serves families headed by single mothers. Little research exists on the relationship between recidivism rates and the stress experienced by parents trying to feed their children. But TJ and other men in the HELP Program for returning citizens in Cincinnati admit to doing whatever necessary to make sure their children don’t go hungry.

Most states have either eliminated the ban on SNAP eligibility or changed it to a partial ban—for example, in some states it applies to people convicted of distributing or manufacturing drugs but not to those convicted of possession only.⁵ Ten states continue to ban all drug-related ex-offenders from SNAP. See Figure 3.2. Underscoring the harm done by the ban, a report released in 2013 in the journal *AIDS Education and Prevention* studied its implications in Texas, California, and Connecticut. Texas has a full ban, California a partial ban, and Connecticut no ban. The results indicated that returning citizens “who did not eat for an entire day were more likely to live in a state with a SNAP food benefit ban compared to a state without a SNAP food benefit ban.”⁶ Moreover, the study provided evidence that those who’d gone longer without food were more likely to engage in risky behaviors such as exchanging sex for money, thus increasing their risk of exposure to HIV.



Dominic Duren, assistant director of the HELP Program, pauses for a photo with his son Dominic Jr. in the basement of St. Francis De Sales in Cincinnati, Ohio.

Nearly two-thirds of working-age adults who experience consistent poverty—more than 36 months of poverty during a 48-month period—have **one or more** disabilities.³

The poverty rate of **women over the age of 65** is approximately **twice the rate** for men over 65.⁴



In an effort to reduce recidivism, the state of Ohio has repealed some of the sanctions against returning citizens. The Second Chance Act of 2007, a federal law, was originally sponsored by two members of Congress from Ohio, Senator Rob Portman and the late Rep. Stephanie Tubbs Jones, who represented the Cleveland area.⁷ The federal law provides funds for job training and other re-entry programs but leaves the imposition or repeal of sanctions up to the states. The repeal of sanctions in Ohio means that returning citizens have access to somewhat more help than their counterparts in some other states. But they still face daunting challenges.

Public perceptions often change far more slowly than laws.

Marquez McCoy's experience is a perfect illustration of this. In February 2013, less than a month before we met him for the first time, Marquez was turned down for a job working in the storeroom at a casino. Of course, nearly everyone has interviewed for a job and not gotten it, but Marquez's interview process shows the ongoing challenges confronting people coming out of prison. He had made a good impression on the storeroom manager. A small, muscular guy in his early 30s, he came across as quite capable of doing the work. He was honest about his past and the manager was willing to give



Joe Molieri/Bread for the World

Nate Gordon, a leader with the HELP Program, and his daughter at his ex-girlfriend's mother's house. Though Nate works at night, he always makes an effort to visit his children each week.

him a try nonetheless. In turn, he told Marquez up front that the Human Resources department might not be as open-minded about hiring someone with a criminal record. A criminal record is not something easily hidden. "Have you ever been convicted of a felony?" is among the first questions on most job applications. To boost Marquez's chances with the HR department, the manager asked him to provide five letters of recommendation instead of the usual three. Marquez did him two better and provided seven letters, including one from a judge. Late on a Friday, Marquez got a call from the manager of the storeroom, not to offer him a job but to tell him he was sorry that HR would not approve his hire because he had a felony conviction.

It was the closest Marquez had come to getting a job in more than a year, and when it fell through he plunged into a severe depression, convinced he was never going to be able to earn money in a legitimate job and would have to return to what he did before going to prison: sell drugs. But the other men in the HELP Program worked with him, helping him get past the depression and supporting him until the temptation to go back to working the street had eased.

The HELP Program

The HELP Program is a ministry of the St. Francis de Sales Parish community in Cincinnati. The men served by the program have all spent time in prison and are struggling with

their re-entry into everyday life. Participants come predominantly from the Over the Rhine (OTR) community of Cincinnati, a depressed area of the city known for concentrated poverty and violent crime associated with the drug trade. The program's goal was to help the men get jobs. It was founded in 2007 by Brother Mike Murphy after his return to Cincinnati from India, where he had spent 12 years with the Missionaries of Charity led by Mother Teresa.

2007 was a discouraging time to be launching a program to help a group of men with criminal records find jobs—a difficult task even in a strong economy. The end of 2007 was the beginning of the Great Recession.

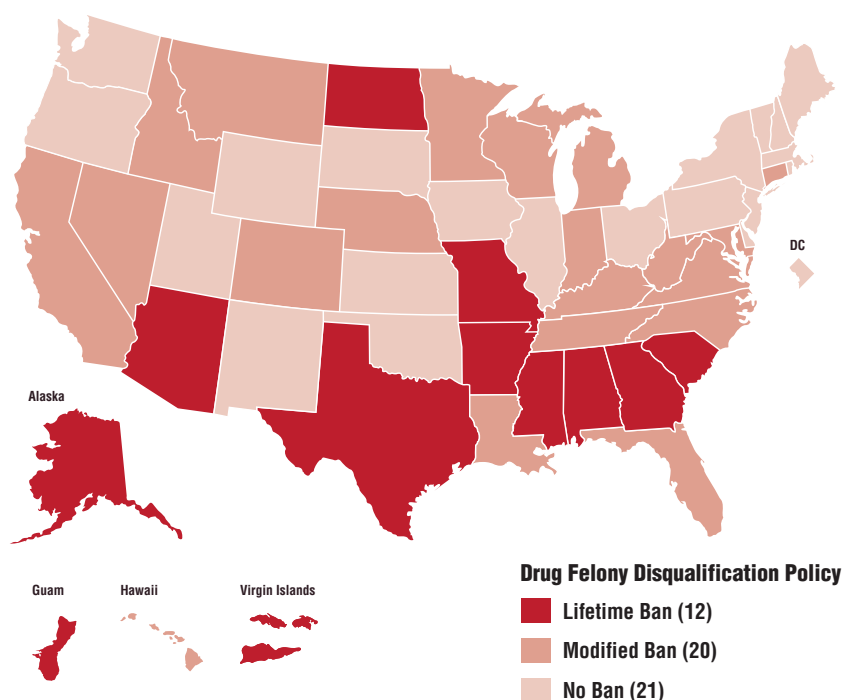
Many of the prospects Mike had worked to cultivate fell through. The owner of a construction company had agreed to provide jobs to 20 men if Mike would work with them to obtain driver's licenses and General Equivalency Degrees (GEDs). Mike held up his end of the bargain, but as the recession worsened, the company no longer had the jobs to offer.

At first sight, Mike does not look like the natural leader of such a program. He is white and the men are without exception African American. At 73, he is older than the participants by decades—by 50 years in some cases. When he returned from India, he had little experience with ex-offenders and had not expected to be working with them. But his parish community challenged him to reach out to the men standing on street corners all day, unable to find work.

Initially, he thought the men were jobless because they lacked the skills that employers needed. He soon realized, though, that legal obstacles kept them from getting and holding onto jobs. The biggest difference between Mike and the men in the program was how they were viewed and treated by government. Changing the laws had to be at the top of the HELP Program's agenda, he realized.

In 2012, Ohio Governor John Kasich signed Senate Bill (SB) 337, an extensive reform of the employment restrictions on returning citizens. Through their lobbying efforts, the men in the HELP Program were instrumental in its passage. They met with legislators and shared their experiences of wanting to work but not being able to get jobs, in large part because of state sanctions. At the time the governor signed the bill, TJ was in prison for a parole violation but was following the bill's progress in the newspaper. He wept when

Figure 3.2 State Policies Regarding Disqualification of SNAP Benefits for Ex-offenders who Committed A Drug Felony



Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Food and Nutrition Service (2012).

he learned that the bill had passed. He and his brothers in the HELP Program had won their battle for change. It didn't occur to him until later that the legislation that had prevented him from getting a job as a barber had been repealed. TJ had learned to cut hair while in prison, but under the old law he could not obtain a barber's license. The thinking behind the law was based on the belief that the cash transactions between barbers and their customers provide an opportunity to launder money.

Ohio's SB 337 would not have been possible without the federal Second Chance Act. The fact that two Ohio legislators were lead sponsors of the federal law and that Governor Kasich had been a colleague of theirs in Congress made a big difference to its chances of passage. The bill was presented to the public as a measure to reduce recidivism—and save money. According to a 2011 report by the Pew Center on the States, Ohio could see more than \$24 million in cost savings by reducing recidivism by 10 percent.⁸ Nationwide, more than four in 10 ex-offenders return to state prison within three years of their release, according to the report.⁹

The advocacy work done by the

men in the HELP Program includes talking to members of the St. Francis de Sales Parish community. They share the journey they are on, a journey that casts them in a light emanating from St. Dismas, the penitent thief who was crucified alongside Jesus. When he asked Jesus to "remember me when you come into your kingdom," the Savior replied, "I say to you, today you will be with me in Paradise."¹⁰ Face-to-face meetings between parishioners and the men in the program help raise the funds needed to sustain the HELP Program. Many people of faith who might otherwise be quick to condemn them for their criminal records have been moved by their testimony, and some of the men have been offered jobs right on the spot.

Subsidizing Work Can Work

As the economy recovers from the Great Recession, some groups with significant barriers to employment, such as returning citizens, will continue to need help getting jobs. The structural barriers they face predate the recession and are rooted in discrimination. The longer they are unemployed, the harder it is for them to find jobs. Subsidized employment programs can allow people in these situations to gain work experience, build skills, and improve their long-term prospects for employment.

The best-known example of a subsidized employment program is the Works Progress Administration (WPA), a New Deal program that provided jobs to 8.5 million people during



Joe Molieri/Bread for the World

Br. Mike Murphy,
founder of the HELP
Program, meets with
a HELP participant.
Through mentorship and
personal investment, Br.
Mike works to re-build
the lives of ex-offenders/
returning citizens.

the Great Depression and through the first years of World War II. A more recent example is the Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) Emergency Fund, established under the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (Recovery Act) of 2009. The program achieved impressive results in its short life. Running for less than two years, at a cost of \$1.3 billion, the TANF Emergency Fund provided jobs for more than a quarter-million hard-to-employ people.¹¹

A total of 33 states operated programs targeted to adults; 24 states and the District of Columbia operated programs targeted to youth; and 19 states operated programs for both adults and youth. Participants were placed in a variety of jobs, mostly in the private sector, and the program worked with employers to provide jobs to individuals they might not otherwise be willing to hire.¹² States had a great deal of flexibility in how they administered the program, the one condition being that the families who benefited had to include children.

The TANF Emergency Fund proved that the federal government could support a large-scale cost-effective employment program quickly and efficiently. The program's accomplishments make a good case for establishing a permanent program to offer jobs to enable parents with significant barriers to employment to support their children.



Joe Moleri/Bread for the World

Dominic Duren snaps a picture of his children. Both he and his wife work and share the tasks of raising their children.

At-Risk Youth

Dropping out of high school is a decision that carries lifelong consequences. Most people without high school diplomas will be consigned to jobs at poverty-level wages. Hunger rates are higher for high school dropouts than for those who graduate and far higher than for those who earn a postsecondary credential. Sixty percent of inmates in the nation's prisons and jails do not have a high school degree or GED.¹³ The closest thing we know to a sustainable solution to hunger is a high-quality education starting right out of the cradle. We must end the practice of providing low-income children with fewer educational resources rather than more.

A Human-Capital Challenge

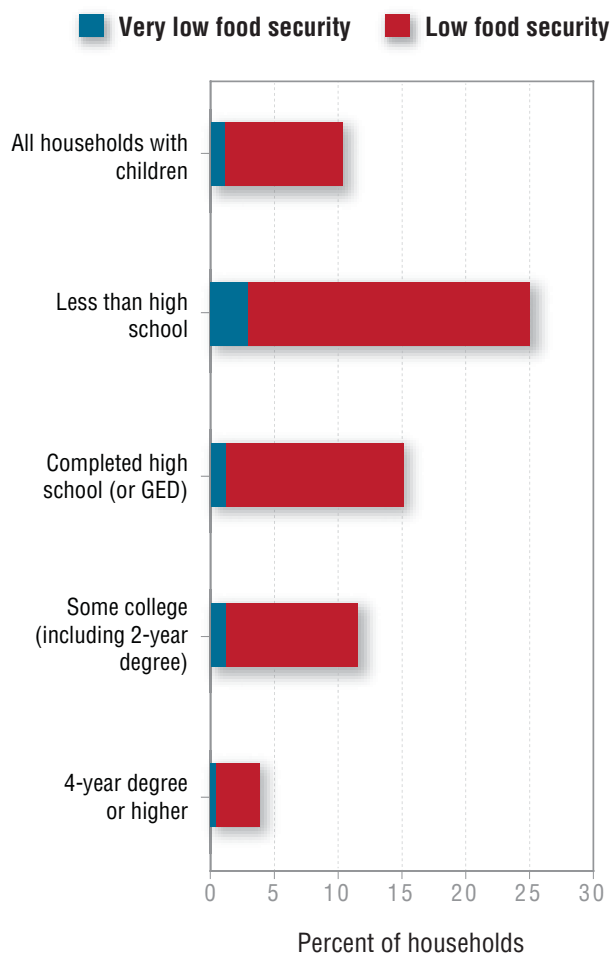
Any way you look at it, dropping out of high school is a very bad decision. Over the course of their working lifetimes, a high school dropout earns an average of \$400,000 less than a high school graduate and \$1 million less than a college graduate.¹⁴ A person's human capital—the

total of his skills and capabilities—determines his employability. Education is still the best way to build human capital. A worker with a higher level of education earns higher wages, and in turn, higher wages make it possible for her to continue building her human capital by obtaining additional education or training. It's a "virtuous cycle"—as opposed to a "vicious cycle"—that pays off for the rest of a person's life.

But the costs of teenagers dropping out are also borne by society. In 2007, the Center for Labor Market Studies at

"Hunger rates are higher for high school dropouts than for those who graduate and far higher than for those who earn a postsecondary credential."

Figure 3.3 Prevalence and Severity of Food Insecurity Among Children, by Educational Attainment of Most Educated Adult in Household, 2010-2011 Average.



Source: USDA, Economic Research Service (2013). Calculations based on Current Population Survey Food Security Supplement data.

Northeastern University estimated that there were 6 million high school dropouts in the United States between the ages of 16 and 24.¹⁵ Economists say that the people in this cohort alone will cost society at least \$1.75 trillion over their lifetimes through public assistance, lost tax revenues from their reduced earnings, and incarceration.¹⁶ Harry Holzer, an economist at Georgetown University and the Urban Institute, has studied the impact of high school dropout rates on the national economy. He estimates that every percentage point increase in the dropout rate reduces federal revenues by \$5 billion per year. "A 1 percentage-point increase that lasts for five years would reduce total federal revenues by a total of \$25 billion," Holzer says. "A 2 percentage-point increase lasting that amount of time would reduce revenue by a total of \$50 billion."¹⁷

In 2010, the latest year of data available, 78.2 percent of students graduated who started as freshman four years earlier.¹⁸ That was up from 73.2 percent in 2006. A 5-percentage point rise in five years is very good news. The news was especially positive for students of color. From 2006 to 2010, Hispanic graduation rates improved from 61 percent to 71.4 percent and African American graduation rates from 59.2 percent to 66.1 percent.¹⁹ Whites saw gains as well, though they were not as dramatic—from 80.3 percent in 2006 to 83 percent in 2010.²⁰

During the first half of the twentieth century, the United States had the highest secondary school completion rates in the world. U.S. dominance peaked in the early 1960s, when graduation rates reached a plateau that lasted for decades.

Other countries caught up, and many eventually surpassed us. Now, the U.S. secondary school completion rate is ranked 22 out of 27 high-income countries.²¹ While it may have been inevitable that other countries would catch up with the United States, the long plateau of no improvements in U.S. graduation rates was not inevitable.

Despite the overall improvement in graduation rates, there are still too many schools where the odds are stacked against students. These are schools where a 40 percent dropout rate, or worse, is considered the norm.²² When a school has a large share of students at risk of dropping out, it undermines the quality of education for all students in the school. Based on patterns of inequity in education, it is not surprising that dropout rates are highest in low-income communities. Students of color are the most affected since at-risk white students are more likely to be integrated into schools in middle-class communities.²³

More than half a century after Brown vs. Board of Education ended “separate but equal,” we find that segregation in U.S. schools is increasing. The share of black students attending schools that are more than 90 percent minority grew from 34 percent in 1989 to 39 percent in 2007. Low-income immigrant Hispanic children are also concentrated in schools with higher percentages of minorities. Segregation by income level is also increasing: In 1989, black students attended schools in which an average of 43 percent of their classmates was low-income; by 2007, this figure had risen to 59 percent.²⁴ The absolute number of white students who drop out is larger, but the percentages of black and Hispanic students who drop out are higher. See Figure 3.4 and 3.5.

Figure 3.4 Dropouts as a Percent of 16-24 Year Olds (2007)

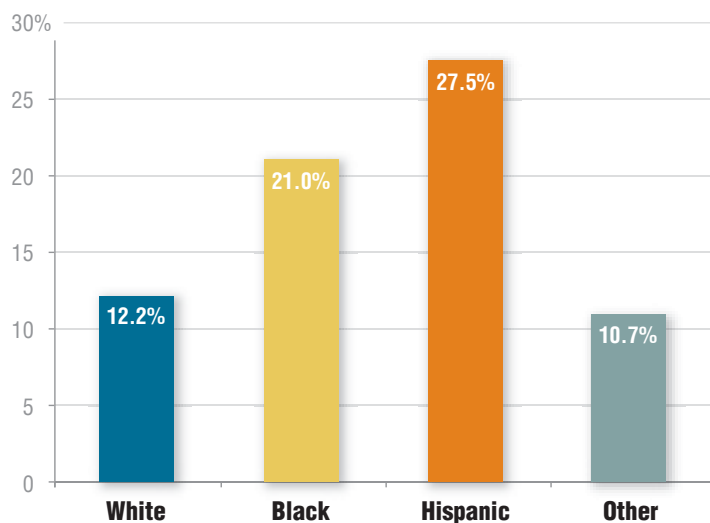
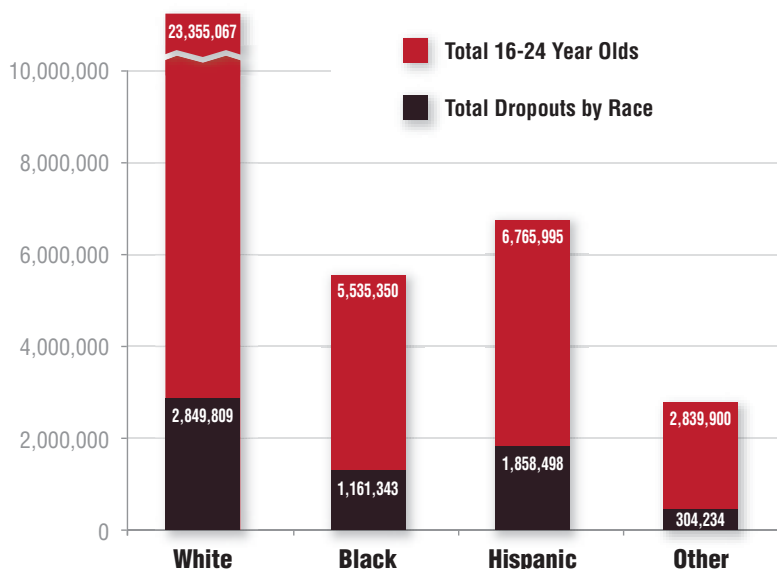


Figure 3.5 Number of Dropouts 16-24 Years Old by Race (2007)



Source: Northeastern University - Center for Labor Market Studies and Alternative Schools Network in Chicago (2009), “Left behind in America : the nation’s dropout crisis.”

NEITHER SEEN NOR HEARD: LGBT YOUTH AND HUNGER

Michele Learner, Bread for the World Institute

Most of this year's Hunger Report discusses hunger and poverty in the context of the many stresses on U.S. families in a difficult economy. But hunger also affects teenagers who are out on their own. For at least 320,000 to 400,000 teens each year, hunger and homelessness are most often tied to family rejection. Stigma based on sexual orientation and gender identity affects lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) people across the life course—bringing rejection, victimization, and a higher proportion of health and mental health problems. But teenagers are the most vulnerable.

In the past, few adolescents came out publicly as LGBT. Today's growing legal and social acceptance of the LGBT community, while welcome and overdue, carries an "unintended consequence"—young people are coming out earlier, and many families, schools and communities are not as accepting as media coverage suggests.

"There is little hard data available on homelessness among LGBT youth, but estimates suggest that as many as 40 percent of all homeless youth identify as LGBT."

It's a recipe for large numbers of young people who have either been kicked out of their homes by parents or have run away in the face of family rejection and abuse. There is little hard data available on homelessness among LGBT youth, but estimates suggest that as many as 40 percent of all homeless youth identify as LGBT. In one study in New York, the average age that homeless lesbian and gay teenagers had become homeless was just under 14 years old. For transgender youth, it was even younger—13 years old.

What can be done? Hunger and homelessness for LGBT youth has causes and solutions that are tied to the social environment. Solutions—meaning social change—must come from greater awareness, government protection and services, and family support.

Preventing suicide, homelessness, and other serious health risks, and promoting the well-being of LGBT youth in the context of the family, is the mission of the Family Acceptance Project (FAP). FAP is a research-based intervention and policy project, based at San Francisco State University, which helps diverse families better understand and support their LGBT children. FAP is developing a new evidence-based family intervention model to prevent and ameliorate systems-level health problems, such as homelessness, to be disseminated across the country.

When Michael's parents heard he was gay, they told him he had to leave and couldn't come back until he repented. After two weeks on the street, Michael heard about a program that provides support for homeless LGBT youth. Staff gave Michael's parents FAP's family education materials, which explain to families that how they react to their LGBT children affects the teens' risk of serious health problems such as suicide and HIV. And they show ways for families to support their LGBT children—even if they believe that being gay is wrong. Michael's parents learned about sexual orientation. They learned how to help their son and keep their family together. With counseling and support, they asked Michael to come home.

Michele Learner is an associate editor with Bread for the World Institute.

Jackson, Mississippi

Albert Sykes grew up in the same neighborhood as the slain civil rights leader Medgar Evers. Albert's grandmother told him that she was home that day in 1963 and heard the shots fired that killed Evers. Albert was born in 1983. The civil rights movement has a daily physical presence in Albert's life: the house where the Evers family lived.

Albert has three sons: Aiden is 7, Ethan 5, and Christian 2. He named the youngest after a close friend, Chris Adagbonyin, who was murdered in 2007. "For every black male born after 2002," Albert says, "there is supposedly a one in three chance of going to prison. I can't accept that one of my sons is going to end up in prison. Not in my family."²⁵

Albert carries on the work of the civil rights movement through his leadership of the Young People's Project (YPP) in Jackson. YPP uses math literacy as a tool to develop young leaders who want to radically improve the quality of education—and the quality of life—in their communities.²⁶ High school students teach kids in middle school and by working together, the young people develop confidence in themselves to analyze and solve problems that go beyond algebra. They boost each other's self-esteem and counter the low-expectations of their school, community, and families. They gain a stronger sense of being responsible for each other's welfare, and they begin to come together to demand more from the education system, seeing improvements as mandated by their right to a quality education. Even though Jackson has one of the lowest high school graduation rates of any city in the country,²⁷ 95 percent of YPP students graduate and 75 percent go on to college.²⁸

YPP's genesis was in the work of Robert Moses, a civil rights leader who came to Jackson in the early 1960s with the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) to help ensure that black people could register to vote. In 1982, Moses founded the Algebra Project in Cambridge, Massachusetts. The idea was not only to teach at-risk children how to solve algebra problems, but also to apply principles he learned as an organizer in the 1960s. "Algebra is the gatekeeper," Moses explained to an interviewer in 2010.²⁹ Success in algebra is directly related to educational and economic empowerment. Mastering algebra in high school more than doubles a student's chances of earning a four-year college degree.³⁰ A child born into a family in the lowest 20 percent of the U.S. income distribution who goes on to earn a four-year college degree is 80 percent less likely to wind up in that same lowest quintile as an adult than a peer who does not earn a college diploma.³¹ Thus, algebra is directly related to economic mobility.

Mastering algebra in high school more than doubles a student's chances of earning a four-year college degree.



Moses gained national recognition for the Algebra Project when he received a MacArthur Foundation “Genius Grant,” which enabled him to expand the project to other parts of the country. In 1994, he brought the Algebra Project to Jackson, where Albert Sykes, then 11 years old, was among the first group of students. At Brinkley Middle School, where Albert was a student, 96 percent of the children qualify for free and reduced price lunch.³² Only 10 percent of the students in a recent study who were eligible for the National School Lunch Program showed proficiency in math.³³

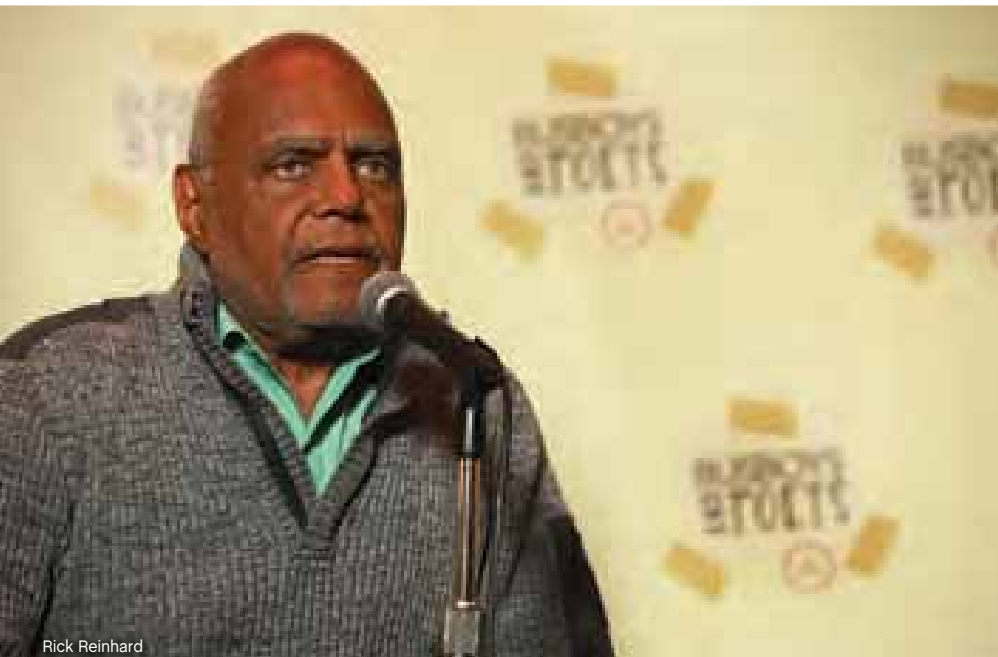
The Algebra Project initially got Albert’s attention—and that of most of the other participants—because food was offered at every session. “When we started showing up after school, it was mostly because we knew there wasn’t going to be dinner at home that night,” he says. “Sure there was hunger for knowledge, but there was also real physical hunger.”³⁴

YPP was founded in 1996, and Albert was involved in it from the beginning. At just 14, he helped write the organization’s first grant proposal, which won YPP a \$150,000 grant from the Kellogg Foundation. YPP has grown from one school in Jackson to 16 cities around the country. Every year, the program reaches 5,000 students from disenfranchised communi-

ties³⁵ with math and leadership training. Albert now spends most of his time organizing both children and adults, encouraging them to demand more from public officials. Because of YPP’s stellar reputation in the community, Albert can walk into almost any church and begin a conversation with the pastor about issues in the community. With the pastor’s support, he is able to organize a meeting with members of the church. At the end of the meeting, they agree to do a project together—for example, dedicating part of a weekend to cleaning up their neighborhood. Afterwards, they take another step by petitioning the city government to take action on the abandoned properties blighting their neighborhoods, and then another step by pressuring the officials to follow through until the community receives an acceptable response.

YPP works primarily at the local level, but it is also participating in a national conversation on education reform. In 2010, YPP launched the “We the People Tour” to engage students and educators around the country in a national dialogue about making high-quality education a fundamental right. In 2011, the U.S. Department of Education offered YPP a lead role in hosting Voices in Action: National Youth Summit. The event brought together students from around the country, which focused on sharing best practices in advocating for and winning change in their communities. While education reformers are usually acting on behalf of students, YPP believes that students themselves must be change agents.³⁶

Dr. Robert Moses, a civil rights pioneer and education reformer, founded the Algebra Project in the early 1980s to improve the math literacy of children in disadvantaged schools.



Rick Reinhard

Dr. Robert Moses, a civil rights pioneer and education reformer, founded the Algebra Project in the early 1980s to improve the math literacy of children in disadvantaged schools.

Quality Education as a Constitutional Right (QECR), a YPP-led effort to establish a federal guarantee of high-quality public education for all, is supported by groups such as the Children’s Defense Fund, the Frameworks Institute, and the SNCC Legacy Project.³⁷ QECR envisions a day when every young person in the country—regardless of ethnicity, gender, or class—has access to a high-quality education. This may seem to be a grandiose vision, but at one time, voting rights were the same kind of vision. In a typical school year, 500,000 students in grades 9-12 drop out of school.³⁸ YPP estimates that it serves 5,000 students per year.³⁹ So clearly, it can’t be left as the only program to take responsibility and action.

Early Education

Early childhood education is a topic that has attracted widespread attention and fanfare in the media and state legislatures. By now, most Americans are aware that high-quality early childhood education can improve a person’s lifelong educational achievements. In his 2013 State of the Union speech, President Obama called for universal Pre-K education in the United States. As we said in Chapter 2, the United States is the only high-income country that does not offer universal Pre-K.

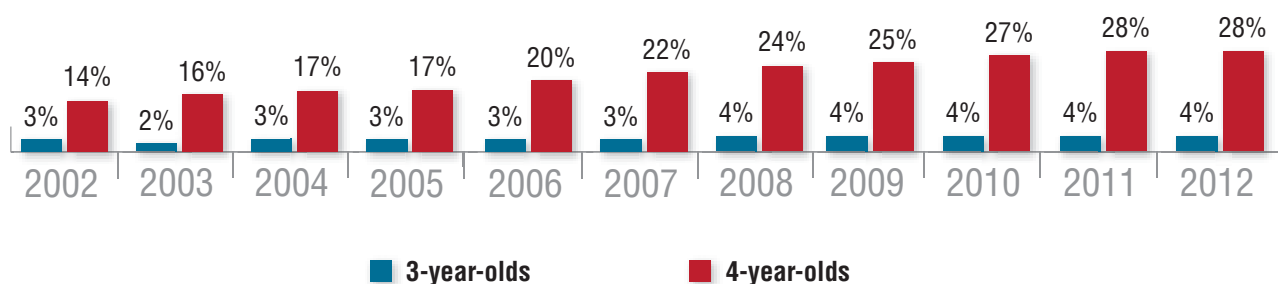
Longitudinal research—the study we’re about to discuss has followed the same people since the 1970s—suggests that low-income children can make dramatic and lasting educational gains with quality education in early childhood. Between 1972 and 1977, 111 low-income children in North Carolina participated in a study starting when they were infants, the now-legendary Carolina Abecedarian Project. Of the children in the study, 57 received high quality child care and early education, and the rest formed a control group.⁴⁰ The Abecedarian group received care and instruction year-round until age 5. The educational program featured low student-to-teacher ratios and emphasized cognitive, language, social, and emotional development.

By the time the children in the Abecedarian group turned 21, they had more advanced reading and math skills, had finished more years of schooling, were attending college at higher rates, and had jobs that were higher-paid and required more skills than the children

“Sure there was hunger for knowledge, but there was also real physical hunger.”

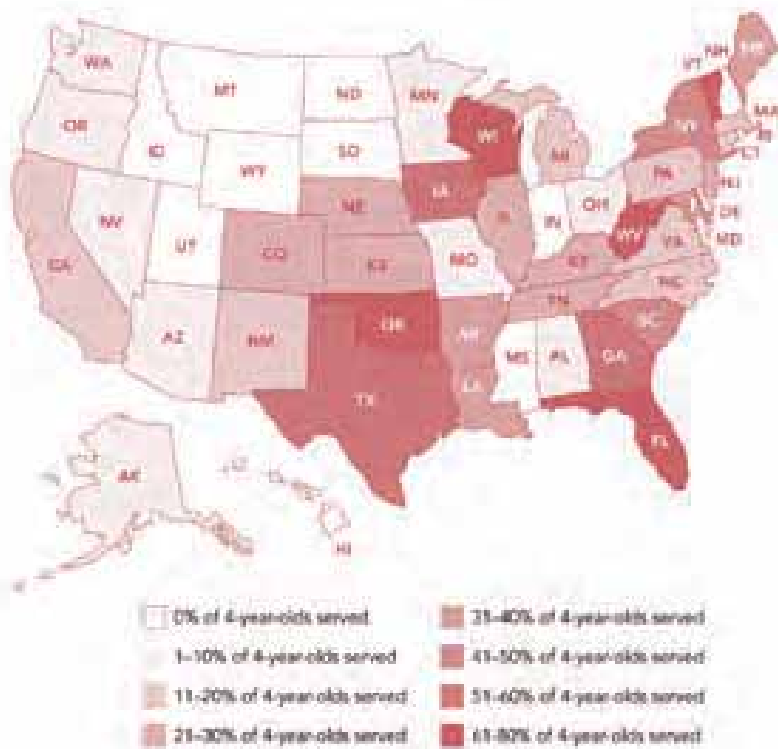
— Albert Sykes

Figure 3.6 **Percent of U.S. Population Enrolled in Preschool**



Source: W. Steven Barnett et al (2012), *The State of Preschool 2012*, National Institute for Early Education Research.

Figure 3.7 **Percent of 4-Year Olds Served in State Pre-K**



Source: W. Steven Barnett et al (2012), *The State of Preschool 2012*, National Institute for Early Education Research.

in the control group. By the time participants were 30, they were four times as likely to have earned a college degree. Professor Craig Ramey, co-author of a recent study on the Abecedarian Project, said, “I believe that the pattern of results over the first 30 years of life provides a clearer than ever scientific understanding of how early childhood education can be an important contributor to academic achievement and social competence in adulthood. The next major challenge is to provide high quality early childhood education to all children who need it and who can benefit from it.”⁴¹

It is important to note that the Abecedarian Project is just one of numerous studies, both small- and large-scale, that demonstrate the short- and long-term benefits of high-quality early education.⁴² The most essential term in this statement is “high-quality.” While

Pre-K has shown promise in giving children a strong start, that potential will only be fully realized if children’s Pre-K experiences are high-quality and are followed by high-quality schooling as they grow up.

Adults and Children with Disabilities

New laws in recent decades have redefined the rights of people with disabilities and made it possible for many to participate more fully in society. But Americans with disabilities continue to be more marginalized than others; having a disability makes a person two to three times as likely to experience poverty as someone who is not disabled.

The federal safety net is not really designed with the needs of disabled people in mind. It is assumed that adults will be using safety net programs only briefly, until their work situations improve—yet disabled people may not be able to work at all, or only able to work a few hours from time to time. Similar difficulties confront the parents of children with disabilities, whose responsibility to care for their children often limits their ability to work.

“Households that choose to apply for food stamps/SNAP are in the greatest need of food assistance and most likely to be food insecure.”

— USDA

Sympathy Is Not Enough

Several studies show that a household that includes a disabled person is more likely to be food insecure than a household with the same income where no one is disabled.⁴³ This is mainly because of additional expenses associated with the disability—usually extra healthcare costs, possibly home care costs, and almost certainly prescription drug costs. One study published in 2007 estimated that an income of \$10,160 for an able-bodied person was equivalent to \$26,668 for a person with a persistent work-limiting disability.⁴⁴

As mentioned above, the disabled population of the United States experiences poverty and hunger at more than double the rate of the population at large. In 2013, the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) published the agency's first comprehensive study about the relationship between food security and disability. (USDA uses the term "low food security" to mean that a person does not know where her next meals are coming from or is at risk of hunger. "Very low food security," meaning that a person goes without food, is what everyone else calls hunger.)

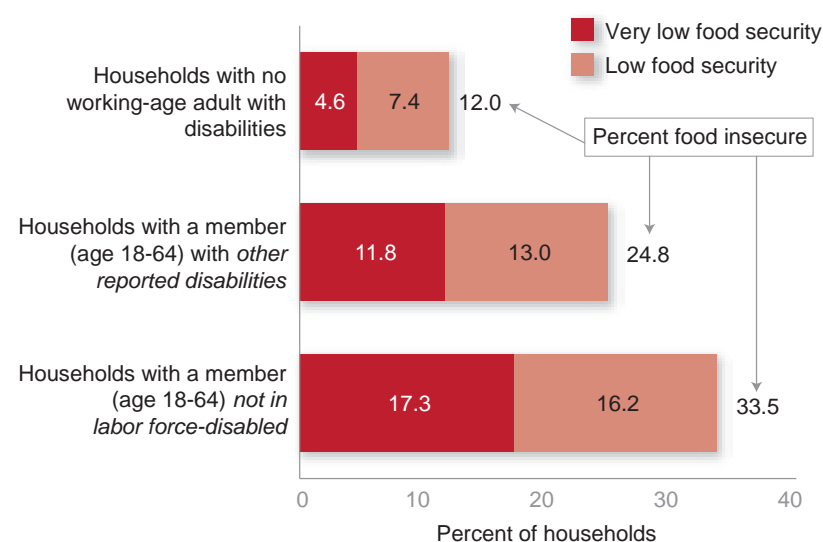
Using data collected in recent years by the Census Bureau, the USDA study found low food security in 25 percent of households where there was a disabled adult of working age (18-64), and in 33 percent of households where there was a disabled adult of working

age who was not employed. "Very low food security," as we just mentioned, is hunger. Among households with a disabled adult who was not employed, 17.3 percent experienced very low food security—a rate nearly four times higher than that of households where no working-age adult had a disability.⁴⁵ See Figure 3.8.

Some of the households with very low food security were receiving SNAP benefits—in fact, households with a disabled person participate in SNAP and other safety-net programs at very high rates. So why did these households still experience hunger?

The USDA study doesn't address this question, but the answer is not hard to find: monthly SNAP benefits, on average, last most participants somewhere between two and three weeks. Charitable food sources are needed to help supplement SNAP and the household's own resources. SNAP does, however, reduce the number of days each month that recipients experience hunger. As the USDA study notes, "Households that choose to apply for SNAP are in the greatest need of food assistance and most likely to be food insecure."

Figure 3.8 Prevalence of Food Insecurity by Disability Status



Source: Alisha Coleman-Jensen and Mark Nord (January 2013), "Food Insecurity among Households with Working Age Adults with Disabilities," U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service. Calculations based on 2009 and 2010 Current Population Survey Food Security Supplement data.

Supplemental Security Insurance (SSI) is a federal program that provides modest assistance to 8.3 million people who are severely disabled with little or no income and assets.⁴⁶ Roughly half of all SSI recipients live in households that are below the poverty line after taking into account all safety-net benefits.⁴⁷ The maximum monthly SSI benefit for an individual in 2013 is \$710,⁴⁸ which adds up to an income of about three-quarters of the poverty level for a single-

person household (\$8,520 annually). By definition, anyone who receives the full SSI benefit has very little other income, because once a person earns \$85 in a month, SSI benefits are reduced by \$1 for every \$2 of earnings above that amount.⁴⁹

Can people in this situation use savings to help make ends meet? The answer is essentially “no,” because SSI, SNAP, and other programs have “asset tests.” To qualify for SSI, an individual must not have assets worth more than \$2,000; a couple’s asset limit is \$3,000.⁵⁰ These limits have not been raised since 1989. This prevents people from saving for emergencies. It can leave people with disabilities destitute in the event of a health crisis.



Todd Post/Bread for the World

Supplemental Security Income (SSI) provides cash assistance to people with disabilities up to about three-fourths of the poverty line for a single person and slightly over 80 percent of poverty for a couple.

SSI is a different program than Social Security Disability Insurance (DI). SSI eligibility is based on income and financed from general federal revenue; DI is social insurance paid for by payroll taxes that accumulate in a trust fund. This is similar to how Social Security for retirees is financed. People who receive DI worked at one time and paid into the system. But disability caused them to lose their ability to earn enough from their work.

Most people who apply for DI are denied. One reason is that applicants must prove they are unable to do any job. Disability payments are calculated based on workers’ earnings before the disability. The average monthly DI payment in 2013 was \$1,130 a month⁵¹ or \$13,560 a year—less than the salary of a full-time minimum wage worker.

Reducing hunger among people with disabilities should begin by increasing their incomes. The maximum monthly benefit in the SSI program should be raised at least to 100 percent of the poverty threshold, which in 2013 was \$958 a month for a single-person household.⁵² The current maximum SSI benefit of \$710 leaves a recipient at 26 percent below the poverty level. Whether or not all of the additional \$248 is spent on food, higher incomes would go a long way to reducing hunger.

Policymakers can also develop and support employment opportunities that pay a living wage for people with disabilities. Neither SSI nor DI recipients are barred from working, and, of course, employment has the same effect of reducing hunger for disabled people as it does for anyone else. SSI and DI recipients have low earnings because most can work only a few

hours, or even less. If they were to earn enough to put them above the poverty line, they would lose some of their benefits. Workers with disabilities are often described as the “last hired, first fired.”⁵³ The Great Recession and subsequent weak recovery bore this out: workers with disabilities experienced higher rates of job loss and gained jobs back at a slower pace than nondisabled workers.⁵⁴ In 2007, before the start of the Great Recession, 19.5 percent of DI recipients and 12.6 percent of SSI recipients held jobs of some kind. But altogether, just 2.9 percent earned more than \$10,000.⁵⁵ People with disabilities should have better options than benefits that aren’t enough to live on or a job that doesn’t pay enough to live on either.

Able to Work

In 2012, the National Council on Disability issued a report documenting the scope of the practice of paying subminimum wages to disabled workers in “sheltered workshops.” Currently about 425,000 workers, mainly people with intellectual and developmental disabilities, are working in sheltered workshops.⁵⁶ Labor law exempts employers from having to pay them the minimum wage—workers may be paid a dollar an hour or even less.⁵⁷ The work takes place in segregated settings (thus the term “sheltered”) and consists of repetitive tasks, such as filling bubble gum machines or packing boxes. The tasks are performed day after day, year after year.

In 2009 and 2010, 60 men with disabilities in Iowa were being paid 41 cents an hour⁵⁸ to work for Henry’s Turkey Farm. Their employer was also their “care-taker,” deducting rent from their pay to house them in a bunkhouse leased from the city of Atalissa, Iowa. This sheltered workshop made national news when the *Des Moines Register* uncovered evidence that workers were forced to live in roach-infested housing and subjected to other abuses.

The Social Security Administration defines a sheltered workshop as “a private non-profit, state, or local government institution that provides employment opportunities for individuals who are developmentally, physically, or mentally impaired, to prepare for gainful work in the general economy.”⁵⁹ In most cases, however, workers are never prepared for employment in the general economy or transitioned out of the sheltered setting. According to the National Disability Rights Network, “Rarely, if ever, does a person with a disability request to work in a sheltered workshop, but they end up working in a sheltered or segregated environment simply because it was presented as the only option.”⁶⁰

About 8 in 10 people with a disability were not in the labor force in 2012, compared with about 3 in 10 persons with no disability.



Richard Lord

Sheltered workshops have been portrayed as providing an altruistic service, but this is not the way many people with disabilities, and the organizations that represent them, view sheltered workshops. In 2012, for example, the National Federation of the Blind and 50 other organizations of people with disabilities led protests against Goodwill Industries for paying employees in sheltered workshops as little as 22 cents per hour.⁶¹ When asked what they

prefer, disabled people say they do not want to work in jobs isolated from the rest of society.⁶²

In the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1990, Congress and the White House declared that “The Nation’s proper goals regarding individuals with disabilities are to ensure equality of opportunity, full participation, independent living, and economic self-sufficiency for such individuals.”⁶³ Unfortunately, these inspiring words often slam into a crueler reality. For every disabled worker in the general economy working at a job paying at least minimum wage, there are three others employed in sheltered workshops and earning a subminimum wage.⁶⁴



People are twice as likely to be disabled at age 50 as at age 40, and twice as likely to be disabled at age 60 as at age 50.

An antiquated provision of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 is what allows employers to pay subminimum wage. Workers who have grown up in the era of ADA and experienced inclusive K-12 environments should not have to step back in time when they enter the workplace—particularly because people who are placed in sheltered workshops are often coming right from high school. A movement led by disabilities rights organizations is under way to change the law that allows employers to pay subminimum wages. The organizations are calling on government agencies to force employers to pay fair wages or stop doing business with those that do not. See “A Higher Road to Better Paying Jobs” in Chapter 2, starting on page 77. Government contract regulations require that specific quantities of goods and services be procured from sheltered workshops. These are lucrative arrangements for the mostly nonprofit organizations that are awarded the contracts, so they can afford to pay workers a fair wage. And, of course, being paid fairly is among the most important rights of all workers, including people with disabilities.

Children with Disabilities

Families raising children with disabilities experience higher rates of material hardship than families with children without disabilities.⁶⁵ See Figure 3.9. The annual additional costs associated with a severely disabled child range from \$3,210 on the low end to as much as \$25,460 a year.⁶⁶ Child care for children with disabilities is also particularly difficult to find,

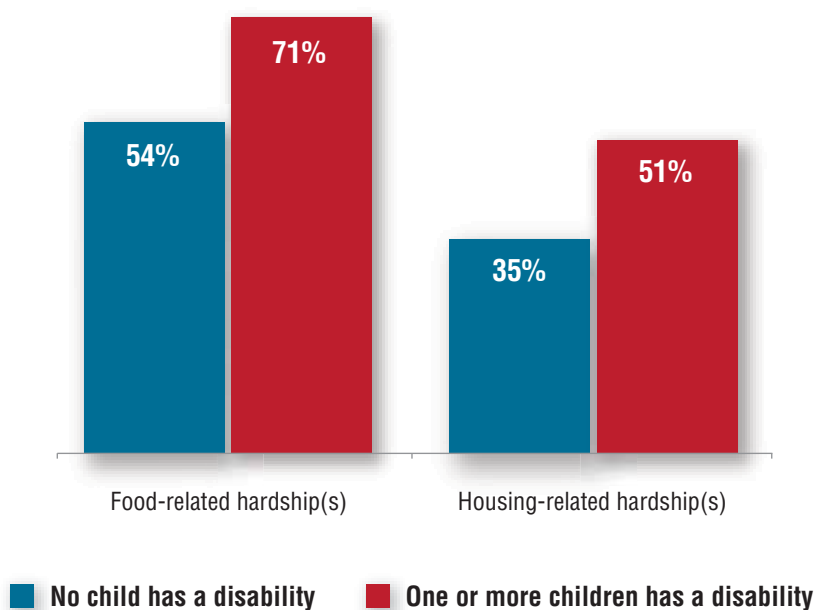
making it harder for parents to work and earn a living. One-third of children with disabilities live in single-parent homes, although it doesn't always start out that way.⁶⁷ Married parents are more likely to separate or divorce within three years after the birth of a child with a disability than are the parents of a child not born with a disability.⁶⁸

Poverty itself increases the risk that children will develop a disability. Low birth weight, which closely tracks poverty rates, is associated with long-term disabilities.⁶⁹ Stress, especially the so-called “toxic stress” caused by sustained economic hardship and family adversity, can cause biological changes in children that make them more susceptible to chronic illness.⁷⁰ Toxic stress is also associated with cognitive difficulties. A 2012 study by the American Psychological Association found, “The children with a history of poverty and neglect are more likely to be diagnosed with developmental delay (60 percent compared to 10 to 20 percent), Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (80 percent compared to 3 to 7 percent), and Learning Disability (28 percent compared to 5 percent). Additionally, 100 percent of our sample had emotional/behavioral disorders, compared to 46 percent of the general population.”⁷¹

There have been media reports alleging that parents are asking doctors to prescribe psychotropic drugs to their children for emotional/behavioral disorders simply so that they can qualify for SSI. (Children with disabilities in low-income families may be eligible for SSI if the disability imposes additional costs on their families.) The allegations were taken seriously in some quarters, prompting a 2011 request from members of Congress to the U.S. Government Accountability Office (GAO) to investigate “trends in the rate of children receiving SSI benefits due to mental impairments such as ADHD, depression and others to identify the causes of the trends.”⁷² In June 2012, GAO reported that in fact, children taking psychotropic drugs were more likely to be denied SSI benefits than approved.⁷³ The evidence shows that the children who are approved do in fact qualify based on their medical conditions; children are approved for SSI only with solid evidence supplied by qualified medical professionals.

Figure 3.9 Low-Income Families That Include a Child with a Disability are More Likely to Experience Material Hardships

Percent of low-income (below 200% of poverty) families with children experiencing material hardships, by children's disability



Source: Susan Parish et al (March 2009), “Material Hardships in US Families Raising Children with Disabilities: Research Summary and Policy Implications,” UNC School of Social Work, University of North Carolina.

The SSI program for children currently provides income assistance to 1.3 million children with serious disabilities. This is about 20 percent of all U.S. children with serious disabilities, and about 1.7 percent of all children in the country.⁷⁴ At a congressional hearing on the program in 2011, Katie Bentley, the mother of a ten-year-old disabled child from Covington, Kentucky, explained the value of the SSI program to her family.⁷⁵ Ms. Bentley's son Will has a wide range of disabilities as a result of lesions on his brain: the inability to use his hands due to delayed motor skills; difficulty interpreting things he touches, smells, or hears; and speech delay because of impairments in the muscles needed to form words. The income assistance the family receives

through SSI [a total of \$710 in 2013] has helped improve the quality of Will's life. For example, it allowed Ms. Bentley to reduce her work hours so that she can provide more of the care that Will needs. "At one time, Will was unable to do anything for himself," Ms. Bentley said. Now he can write his name and has begun learning to read. "For a parent of a child with a disability," Ms. Bentley told the members of Congress, "the wealth of support that comes from SSI and Medicaid is a dream come true... Before he was granted SSI in 2010, we could barely even afford the gas to drive him to his therapies and appointments with his specialists."⁷⁶ For many families like the Bentleys, the Medicaid eligibility



Richard Lord

Nearly 30 percent of families raising a child with a disability live in poverty.

that comes with SSI approval is no less important than the cash assistance. The prescription drugs that Will requires cost more than \$1,000 a month. Medicaid pays for these.

Jonathan Stein, president of Community Legal Services in Philadelphia, spoke at the same hearing. He reminded members of Congress, "For many families with a disabled child, SSI means the difference between being able to provide for their disabled child, and having to go without basic necessities."⁷⁷ Prior to the establishment of the SSI program in 1972, a low-income family with a child with developmental disabilities such as Will's would have had few options other than sending him to a state-run institution. A report by the House Ways and Means Committee that predates the authorizing legislation expressed what the public had already come to understand: "Disabled children living in low-income households are among the most disadvantaged of all Americans and are deserving of special assistance."⁷⁸

Low-Income Seniors

The strongest section of the U.S. safety net is reserved for seniors. Social Security and Medicare, the fiber of which the senior safety net is woven, prevent the majority of seniors from falling into hunger and poverty. But this section of the safety net is fraying, mostly

because of increases in out-of-pocket medical expenses. When out-of-pocket healthcare costs are taken into account, producing a more accurate picture of household resources and levels of hardship, senior poverty rates increase in every state and double in 12 of them: California, Colorado, Connecticut, Hawaii, Massachusetts, Maryland, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Nevada, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.⁷⁹

Ms. Jeffers

Lucy Jeffers is not one to complain about her ailments, though at 87, she has her share.

Her knees ache when she is on her feet too long, and a year ago she had them drained of fluid. But she doesn't let the pain prevent her from attending church on Sundays or buying food at the supermarket. She takes advantage of a van service that picks her and other tenants up in front of their apartment building and drives them to the store. However, Ms. Jeffers does not join the shopping trips after the second week of the month—because that's when her monthly SNAP benefits run out.

Ms. Jeffers is aggravated that her benefits don't last through the month. Bad knees and all, she set off for the social services office—a trip that required three bus changes—and when she got there, she did not hesitate to speak her mind about the difficulty of feeding herself for a whole month on \$35 in food stamp benefits. Ms. Jeffers brought receipts to show what she was spending her SNAP benefits on. She has high cholesterol and was told by her doctor to purchase low-fat milk and cheese and other items that cost more. This makes it more difficult to stretch her SNAP resources. The caseworker told her there was nothing she could do. Ms. Jeffers didn't really expect that much would happen as a result of her trip, but at the end of the month she is always hungry—and that made it worth a try.

Ms. Jeffers lives alone in a government-subsidized apartment building for seniors in Takoma Park, Maryland, just over the border from Washington, DC. In March 2013, her rent increased from \$192 to \$203 per month because of across-the-board government spending cuts that were mandated by sequestration. (See Amelia Kegan's article about the impact of sequestration and Bread for the World's response on pages 44-45.) The \$11 hike in her rent may not sound like much to many people, but to Ms. Jeffers, who lives on \$710 a month in Social Security benefits, it means deeper cuts to her food budget that make the second half of the month more uncomfortable. She braces for the day her SNAP benefits run out by cutting back on portions. By the last week of the month she is eating one meal per day, usually rice with a little butter to



Todd Post/Bread for the World

Seniors over 85—like Ms. Lucy Jeffers above—are the fastest growing members of the senior population living in poverty.

add some flavor. The chicken and fish she looks forward to at the beginning of each month are gone, and so are the collard greens and other fresh vegetables that she loves.

“Bad things happen when older people don’t get enough good food,” says Mary Jane Koren, Vice President of the Long-Term Care Quality-Improvement Program at the Commonwealth Fund.⁸⁰ They experience more complications from chronic illnesses, leading to longer hospital stays—20 percent of people over the age of 75 have five or more chronic illnesses.⁸¹ Malnutrition also increases the risk of falls—one in three seniors experiences a

fall every year, and 30 percent suffer moderate to severe injury.⁸²

“Ensuring that old people have a balanced, nutritionally complete diet, can reverse many of the consequences of malnutrition or outright prevent them,” says Koren.

Seniors need more health care than other age groups, and while Medicare covers much of their health care costs, it doesn’t cover all of them. In fact, Medicare pays only about 60 percent of seniors’ total health costs.⁸³ A 2013 report by the Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation found that half of all seniors spend at least 16 percent of their income on out-of-pocket health care costs, and the dollar amount rises sharply over time.⁸⁴



Richard Lord

A food distribution site
in rural Buckingham
County, Virginia.

Out-of-pocket expenses for people 85 and older are 75 percent to 100 percent higher than for someone between ages 65 and 74.⁸⁵ Seniors older than 85 are the fastest growing segment of the senior population.⁸⁶ They are also the fastest-growing share of seniors who are newly impoverished.⁸⁷ Two-thirds of people age 85 and older are women.⁸⁸

Seniors who receive SNAP are eligible for a medical expense deduction when their SNAP benefits are calculated; they are required to have at least \$35 in out-of-pocket medical expenses.⁸⁹ In Georgia, a senior couple contacted a benefits hotline run by the Georgia Legal Services Program to complain that it was impossible for them to feed themselves on \$16 in monthly SNAP benefits. The husband was fighting cancer and the couple was paying thousands of dollars in out-of-pocket medical costs for his care. Georgia Legal Services contacted the couple’s caseworker at the Georgia Department of Human Services and forwarded documentation of the couple’s medical expenses. This qualified them for a sharp increase in SNAP benefits, to \$355 a month.⁹⁰ In 2010, the U.S. Department of Agriculture estimated that 55 percent of SNAP-eligible seniors were eligible for the medical expense reduction, yet only 14 percent took advantage of it.⁹¹

Seniors have low SNAP participation rates compared to other groups: only about a third of seniors who are eligible participate.⁹² “As highly as Americans prize independence,

older Americans fear dependence even more,” says Nancy Wellman, writing in the *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*.⁹³ Pride is a factor if they’ve never sought help from the government before. Seniors tend to be proud and also magnanimous—they would rather go without themselves than take away from a child or another senior in greater need. But this stance is based on a common misunderstanding about how the program operates⁹⁴—that giving benefits to one person takes them away from someone else. Instead, because SNAP is an entitlement along with Social Security and Medicare, anyone who qualifies is eligible to receive benefits.

Unlike many people her age, Ms. Jeffers has no qualms about using SNAP. She has no pension or retirement savings even though she worked until she was 75. She was a domestic worker—one of the lowest-paid jobs in the United States.

Between 2001 and 2010, the risk of hunger for seniors increased by 78 percent, according to a report by the Meals on Wheels Research Association, putting the total number of seniors at risk at 8.3 million.⁹⁵ The Meals on Wheels Association is the largest provider of home-delivered and congregate meals. The seniors it reaches in these programs have an average of anywhere from six to 15 serious health conditions, need between six and 26 different medications, and are either homebound or need help going outside.⁹⁶ For every dollar invested in Meals on Wheels programs, the government saves \$50 in healthcare costs.⁹⁷

The Older Americans Act (OAA) is the largest funding source of home-delivered and congregate meals. At a congressional hearing on the reauthorization of the OAA, Meals on Wheels CEO and President Ellie Hollander reminded committee members, “OAA Nutri-

Figure 3.10 Poverty Rates for Men and Women Ages 65 or Above, 2001-2009

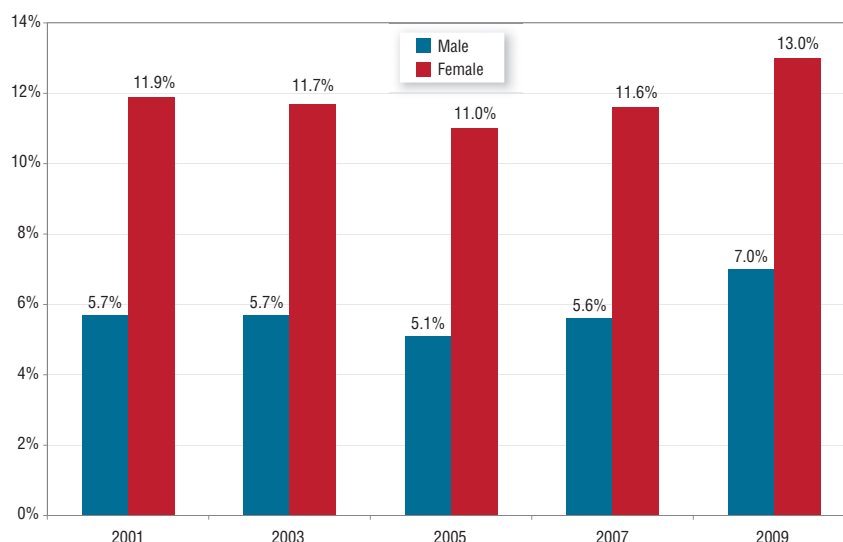
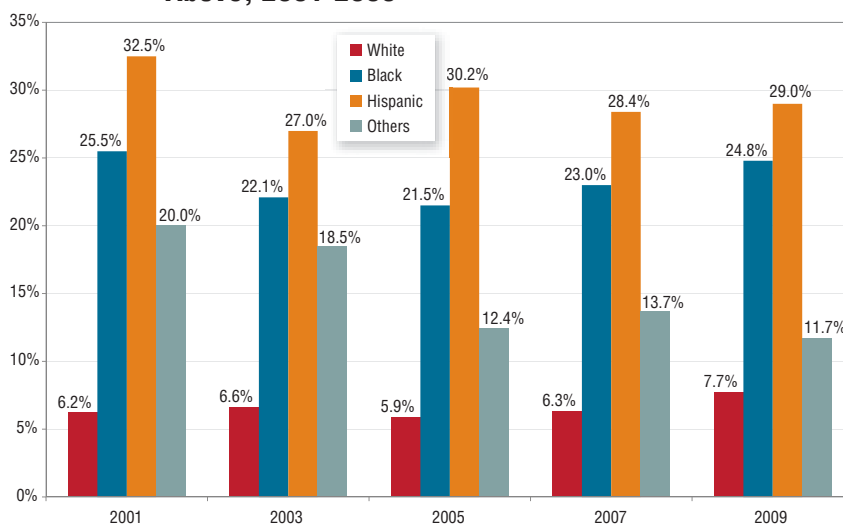


Figure 3.11 Poverty Rates Across Different Races for Ages 65 or Above, 2001-2009



Source: Employee Benefit Research Institute estimates from the Health and Retirement Study (2002–2010).

tion Programs have decreased 18 percent from 1992 to 2012. At the same time, [the eligible population] has increased 34 percent.”⁹⁸

Seniors and the Safety Net

In 2011, Social Security lifted close to 15 million seniors out of poverty, the majority of them women. Without Social Security, 43.6 percent of all seniors would have been in poverty.

With Social Security, however, only 8.7 percent fell below the poverty line in 2011.⁹⁹

“Between 2001 and 2010, the risk of hunger for seniors increased by 78 percent, putting the total number of seniors at risk at 8.3 million.”

— Meals on Wheels
Research Association

When Social Security was first launched, during the Great Depression, it was much less effective in reducing poverty. At the beginning of the 1960s, one in three seniors was living in poverty. When the War on Poverty was launched in 1964, benefit levels were increased, and in 1972 they were indexed to rise with inflation.¹⁰⁰ Within two decades, the senior poverty rate was cut to one in 10. In a 2004 report for the National Bureau of Economic Research, Gary Engelhardt and Jonathan Gruber concluded, “Social Security can explain the

entire decline in poverty among the elderly.”¹⁰¹

The War on Poverty also established the Medicare program, which guarantees health insurance to all seniors. Before Medicare was enacted, half of all seniors were uninsured. Rising

healthcare costs threaten Medicare’s sustainability. But this is a problem with the U.S. health care system, not a problem with the Medicare program. The United States spends at least twice as much on health care as other high-income countries—yet with far worse health outcomes. Fortunately, there has been some good news lately on bringing health care spending under control. According to a May 2013 Congressional Budget Office report, health care costs are projected to grow more slowly than previously expected,¹⁰² in part because of efficiencies expected from the implementation of the Affordable Care Act.

Compared to Medicare, Social

Security faces a far less murky financial future. There is much less reason to be concerned that there will not be enough working-age people paying taxes to support the increasing numbers of beneficiaries. In 1950, the ratio of workers to retirees was 16.5 to 1; in 2012 it was 2.8 to 1; in 2038, it is projected to be 2.2 to 1.¹⁰³ But the demographic shift that is the cause of so much concern has already occurred. With no changes to its financing structure, the program



Richard Lord

Without Social Security benefits, the senior poverty rate in 2011 would have risen from 8.7 percent to 43.6 percent.

could pay out the full benefit for the next 20 years and 75 percent after that.¹⁰⁴ Maintaining Social Security benefits at their current level indefinitely would require minor changes to the financing structure. Social Security is financed through a payroll tax on earned income. The amount of earnings subject to the tax is \$113,700, so the simplest thing to do would be to raise the income threshold that determines how much of one's income is subject to the tax. Raising it above the current \$113,700 would have no effect on the 95 percent of American workers who earn less than that.¹⁰⁵

“Maintaining Social Security benefits at their current level indefinitely would require minor changes to the financing structure.”

The alternative often discussed is means-testing the program, which means cutting benefits to affluent seniors to ensure that benefit levels can be maintained for low-income seniors. The problem here is that there are so few seniors who could accurately be described as affluent. Seniors with incomes of more than \$130,000 per year are just 1.2 percent of all Social Security beneficiaries. Means-testing that started with seniors whose annual income exceeds \$100,000 would yield just 2.3 percent of savings to the program.¹⁰⁶ Under this plan, benefit reductions would have to be phased in starting with incomes much lower than \$100,000. A sharp cut in benefits that simply kicked in at income of \$100,000 would no doubt create some incentive to use accounting gimmicks to reduce the amount of a person's income that is subject to Social Security taxes. At what point, then, should means-testing start? \$80,000? \$60,000? \$50,000? Many people would not consider \$50,000 to be affluent. Means-testing the program would also increase its administrative costs. The beauty of the program currently is that it costs almost nothing to administer.¹⁰⁷ Based on the administrative costs incurred in the disability program, where there is means-testing, one would expect to see expenses increase by 1.7 percent of the program's costs.¹⁰⁸

Rather than cutting Social Security, we should be talking about increasing the benefits. In 2012, the average annual Social Security benefit was less than \$15,000.¹⁰⁹ When the program was created, the Social Security Administration described it as one leg of a three-legged stool.¹¹⁰ The other two legs were defined-benefit pension plans and household savings. Today, the majority of retired people rely on Social Security as their main source of income, and for two in every five seniors, Social Security is the source of more than 80 percent of their retirement income.¹¹¹ See Figure 3.12.

Seniors who receive SNAP benefits are eligible for a medical expense deduction but most are not aware of it when they apply for SNAP.



Richard Lord

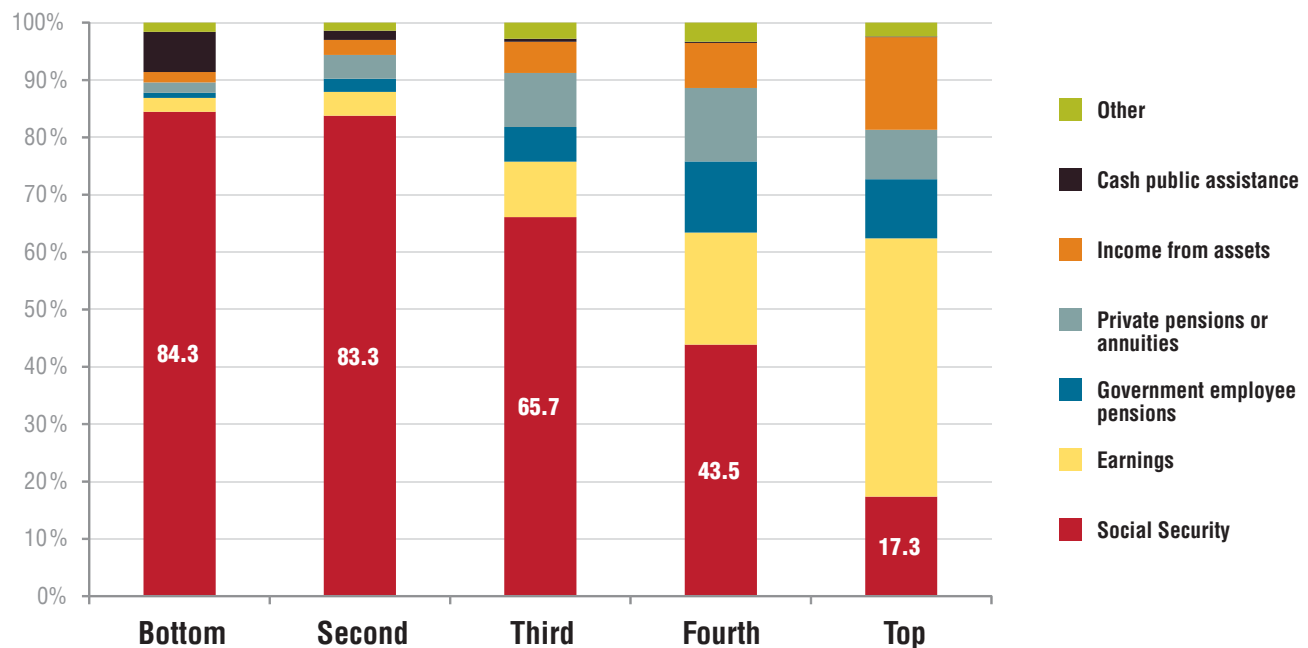
The Kids Will Be All Right

One of the major lines of argument of people who believe we should shrink the federal safety net is generational unfairness.¹¹² According to this line of thinking, seniors use up so much of the safety net that there's nothing left for children. However, the fact is that the reason the United States has such high rates of child poverty is not because it is overly generous with benefits for seniors. In fact, compared to other high-income countries, the United States is much less generous in its spending per capita on safety net programs for seniors.¹¹³ On the other hand, countries with low senior poverty rates also tend to have low child poverty rates.

Political and media frenzy aside, there is no reason for younger workers to feel cheated when they pay Social Security taxes so that retirees have a modicum of economic security. As long as productivity growth continues, young workers will be able to enjoy higher living standards while also resting assured that when they retire, Social Security will be able to provide benefits to them as it did for earlier generations of retired Americans.

Productivity growth, as mentioned in earlier chapters, is the key to achieving high living standards for everyone. When productivity increases, it means that workers are producing more value over time.¹¹⁴ If workers get their share of the gains from productivity growth—a big “if”—they will be doing better economically as time goes on. Since 1947, productivity growth has averaged 2.2 percent annually. Between 1973 and 1995, growth slowed to 1.3 percent on average, but after 1995 productivity picked up again, averaging 2.3 percent through the present.¹¹⁵

Figure 3.12 Sources of Income for Americans Aged 65+, by Income Quintile



Source: U.S. Social Security Administration, *Income of the Population 55 or Older*, 2010

If productivity grew at a 2.3 percent annual rate over the next 25 years, and workers got their fair share of the growth, wages (after being adjusted for inflation) would be on average more than 75 percent higher than they are today. In 2038, a typical worker would be able to buy 75 percent more goods and services than a typical worker today.¹¹⁶ If productivity growth was, instead, just 1.3 percent annually for the next 25 years, a typical worker would still have a wage that is 38 percent higher than the average wage today. “In short,” says Dean Baker of the Center for Economic and Policy Research, “even in a worst-case scenario, where productivity falls back to the slowest pace we have seen in the last 70 years, workers will on average be much wealthier than workers are today.”¹¹⁷

Trying to predict how productive the U.S. economy will be over the next 25 or 50 years is, at best, guessing. But unless we believe technological advancement has reached a limit, then productivity growth over the long run is virtually guaranteed. Suffice it to say: whether productivity growth is closer to 2.3 percent or 1.3 percent, wage growth will be more than enough to compensate for the effect on workers’ living standards of a growing burden of retirees.

This discussion about productivity growth at the end of a section about ending senior hunger is not a digression. It is, in fact, central to understanding why we can end senior hunger and how we can do it at a reasonable cost. Productivity growth makes it possible to easily finance higher living standards for retired people.

The only problem with this optimistic image of the future is that for the last three decades, workers have not been sharing equitably in the gains from productivity growth. As we discussed in Chapters 1 and 2, the vast majority of the gains from growth have gone to those at the top of the income distribution, while the wages of most workers have eroded or barely kept pace with inflation. Whether or not we restore the link between productivity growth and wage growth will determine the living standards of our children and grandchildren.

The living standards of our children and grandchildren will depend mostly on restoring the link between productivity growth and wage growth.



Richard Lord

FEDERAL POLICY IDEAS TO END CHILDHOOD HUNGER

Duke Storen, Share Our Strength

Child Nutrition Reauthorization offers a rare opportunity for bi-partisan reform to make it easier for communities to end childhood hunger. The programs that provide healthy food to hungry children already operate through public-private partnerships across the country. By building on successful state practices, eliminating red tape and increasing program efficiency, more churches, schools, and other community organizations will be able to connect additional children to healthy meals. The U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) has worked to streamline programs like summer meals and afterschool meals, but reauthorization is an opportunity to take a step back and make sure the infrastructure that provides healthy foods for low-income children meets today's demand as efficiently and effectively as possible.

For example, a church that feeds children meals afterschool and during the summer must negotiate two different programs—the Summer Food Service Program (SFSP) and the Child and Adult Care Food Program (CACFP). These programs have different requirements, meal patterns, reimbursement rates, and are often housed under different state agencies. These complications make it difficult for many churches to operate these programs despite the desire to offer them and the need in the community.

“No child should grow up hungry in America, but one in five children struggles with hunger.”

Besides eliminating red tape, nutrition programs also need greater flexibility to respond to local circumstances and demands. For example, the current programs feeding children afterschool and in the summer require kids to come to a site instead of bringing food to them. Eighty percent of children spend their time during summer at

home and 86 percent spend their time after school at home. In order to expand existing summer and afterschool programs, we need to meet children where they are during out-of-school times.

Recently, USDA undertook a demonstration project that both eliminated red tape and increased flexibility related to summertime meals for kids. Many kids who rely on school meals go hungry in the summer months when they lose access to those meals. Low-income families also say their grocery bills are, on average, about \$300 higher every month when kids are out of school. Instead of trying to meet unmet demand by creating new programs—i.e. summer meals sites—families with children who received a free school lunch during the school year had an additional monetary benefit placed on their SNAP or WIC card. This allowed the family to have enough resources to feed their children at home during summer months. The project resulted in more children receiving the food they need during summer months, illustrating the power of increased flexibility and paperwork reduction.

As we approach Child Nutrition Reauthorization, we have an opportunity to ask the following questions and develop policy proposals based on discussions with participants, practitioners, and policymakers.

How can we eliminate red tape in the child nutrition programs? Can we reduce the number of child nutrition programs to one or two (in-school and out-of-school) operated by a single agency in each state? How do we ensure that children only have to qualify once and sponsors only have one set of administrative, meal, and reporting requirements?

Should the requirement for children to eat meals together on site (the congregate feeding requirement) be waived?

The ideal location to serve summer meals to low-income children may be in a safe, supervised enrichment program, but the current infrastructure and barriers limit our ability to reach kids this way. States should have the option to implement alternative program models such as the summer EBT demonstration, home-delivered meals, and backpack programs. A USDA pilot testing meal delivery showed that adding non-congregate options in rural areas added to the number of children receiving meals without reducing participation at nearby congregate programs.



USDA

How do we build on state efforts to

expand school breakfast? States including Maryland, New Mexico, and Colorado have enacted policies to institutionalize innovative breakfast models. These policies require schools with a large percentage of students who qualify for free or reduced-price meals to serve breakfast “after the bell.” National policy could build on these efforts by requiring breakfast after the bell in low-income or possibly all schools and/or by providing financial incentives for universal feeding.

School lunch staff and students enjoy the new school lunch menu created to meet the new standards at the Yorkshire Elementary School in Manassas, VA.

Each child deserves the opportunity to live in dignity and thrive. Let’s work together to make sensible policy changes that invest in our children and our nation’s future. We can make No Kid Hungry a reality in America. To learn more, visit NoKidHungry.org.

Duke Storen is the senior director for partner impact & advocacy with Share Our Strength, whose No Kid Hungry campaign is working with churches, private citizens, public officials, nonprofits, business leaders and others to end childhood hunger by connecting kids to the national nutrition programs.



Local Leaders Working with National Partners to End Hunger

Chapter Summary

Ending hunger in the United States requires leadership not only at the federal level but also at the state and local levels. There are countless examples of locally led initiatives that are achieving great success in their communities. At their core, these initiatives are formed around the belief that to end hunger at the community level, a broad range of stakeholders must unite behind a common vision and strategy. Community ownership is critical to achieving sustainable

solutions to hunger. Partnerships at the local level and between local initiatives and state and federal government build that ownership. Local partners do more than feed people; they feed information to leaders in government and show them how together they can fight hunger more effectively. A national goal to end hunger would place their independent local efforts within a wider framework, connecting them with the many other community led anti-hunger efforts, so that together they develop a shared narrative about the critical need to end hunger in America.

MAIN RECOMMENDATIONS IN THIS CHAPTER

- The president should convene a bipartisan White House summit on Hunger, and Congress should reinstate the House and Senate select committees on hunger and nutrition.
- Local leaders and their national partners should bring community groups together to work toward ending hunger.

Independent initiatives to end hunger range in scale, from small towns and counties to major metropolitan areas and states. This chapter highlights a handful of initiatives that are representative of different approaches. Some are led by governors, mayors, or state or local elected representatives, while others are entirely volunteer-run. The aim of the chapter goes beyond showcasing these efforts to showing the numerous contributions that local efforts make when they partner with the federal government. First, let's put the federal role in this

partnership in perspective and consider the political environment in which local efforts must operate.

In 2013, the nutrition safety net comes under attack

For more than half a century, federally funded nutrition programs have been the mainstay of the nation's fight against hunger here at home. It is worth a quick reminder of how these programs came to be. During World War II, a surprising number of young men were rejected for military service because when they arrived for their physicals, they turned out to be malnourished.¹ Congress and the

White House saw the need for a permanent federal nutrition program. In 1946, the National School Lunch Program was established to ensure that U.S. national security would never again be jeopardized by malnutrition.

Since then, Congress has established other nutrition programs to reach targeted populations at appropriate access points.² They are administered by the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA). The biggest federal program is food stamps, now known as the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program, or SNAP, which is accessed with a debit card at most food retailers. School lunch, breakfast, and afterschool programs serve tens of millions of school-age children with meals that must meet strict nutrition guidelines. The Special Supplemental Nutrition Program for Women, Infants and Children, or WIC, targets pregnant and nursing women and their young children, both those in the critical 1,000-day "window of



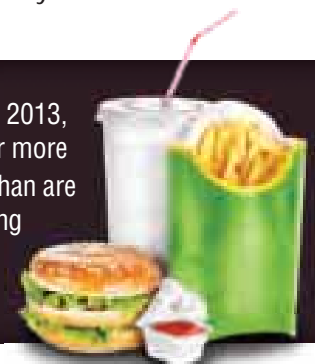
USDA /Lance Cheung

International School Meals Day at Harmony Hills Elementary School in Silver Spring, MD.



of food stamp/SNAP recipients live in households with children.¹

According to a Gallup poll in August 2013, Americans earning \$75,000 a year or more are **more likely to eat fast food** than are lower-income groups. Those earning less than \$20,000 a year are the **least likely** to eat fast food.²



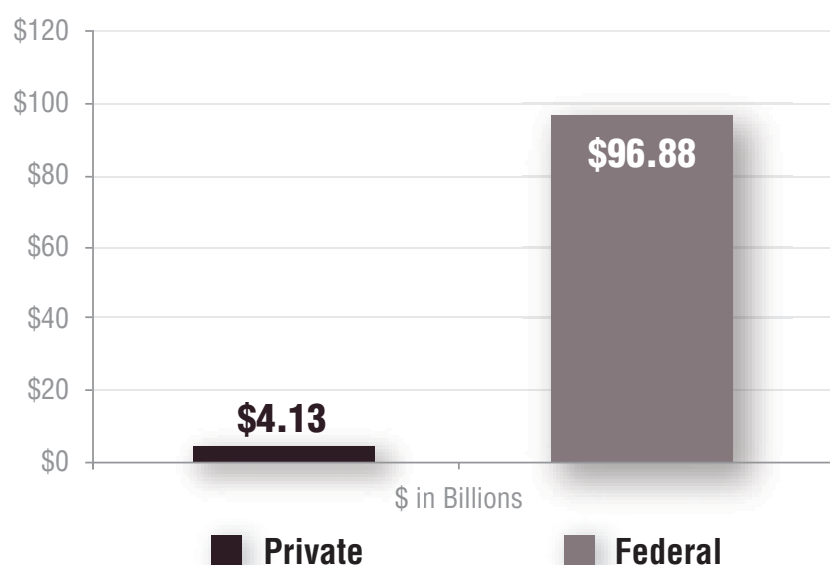
opportunity” between pregnancy and age 2 and those ages 2 through 5. Food distribution programs send packages of bulk commodities to local providers who serve meals in congregate settings, such as in long-term care facilities for low-income seniors.

Nearly three-fourths of USDA’s entire operating budget now goes to nutrition programs.³ In 2012, Bread for the World released a fact sheet that showed how much the federal nutrition programs contribute to fighting hunger compared to all the food contributed by private charities. For every 24 bags of food assistance in the United States, government nutrition programs provide 23.⁴ See Figure 4.1. The fact sheet was not intended to downplay the role of charities in fighting hunger or to minimize the value of their efforts. Rather, it was to highlight that private charity couldn’t possibly expand by enough to compensate for proposed cuts to the federal nutrition programs.

SNAP is often called the nation’s first line of defense against hunger. In 2013, more than 47 million Americans per month participated in the program—that is nearly one in six of us. The size of the program fluctuates as the needs rise and fall, because SNAP eligibility depends on income. Since the Great Recession ended in 2009, demand has remained at an all-time high. This makes SNAP a very clear indicator that the post-recession economy is still quite weak. SNAP participation will shrink once the economy improves and more good jobs that pay a living wage are created.

In 2013, some members of Congress used reauthorization of the farm bill to propose massive cuts to the SNAP program. The farm bill is the authorizing legislation for SNAP. Nobody arguing for these cuts could show that the program was not effective—the issue was its cost, nearly \$81 billion in 2012.⁵ The cuts that the House proposed for a 10-year appropriation cycle would result in less than 1 percent (0.086) savings in federal spending over this period.⁶ Meanwhile, anywhere from 4 million to 6 million people would lose their SNAP benefits.⁷

Figure 4.1 Private vs. Federal Food Assistance (2011)



Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Feeding America.

In July 1998, **22.1 children** received meals through the summer nutrition program for every 100 who received free or reduced-price school lunch in the 1997-1998 school year.³



In July 2012, only **14.3 children** received meals through the summer nutrition program for every 100 who received free or reduced-price school lunch in the 2011-2012 school year.⁴

Bills that Congress is considering at the time of this writing would make accessing the nutrition programs more difficult. A House bill would limit SNAP benefits to three months over a three-year period to any unemployed person between the ages of 18 and 50 who was not raising children. An amendment approved in the Senate-passed farm bill would bar people convicted of certain crimes from receiving SNAP benefits for life—regardless of whether they had finished serving time decades ago. The amendment would also impact children and

other members of the household by reducing the family's total food budget.

A decade ago the SNAP program seemed to finally be getting some respect on Capitol Hill. Although it was called the Food Stamp Program until 2008, its image had vastly improved since administrators replaced the old paper coupons (the “food stamps”) with an electronic debit card. The debit card has reduced payment errors (both overpayments and underpayments) to the point that it is not an exaggeration to describe SNAP as a model of efficiency. Participation rates climbed because there was less stigma, thanks both to the use of the debit card and to the general acceptance by policy-makers at the national and state levels that SNAP serves an essen-



Courtesy Minneapolis Health Department

SNAP recipients can use their EBT-debit cards to shop for food at farmers markets, thanks to wireless technology provided to farmers markets by the U.S. Department of Agriculture.

tial countercyclical role in an increasingly low-wage economy.

Now, however, SNAP is under attack more than it has been in decades. Ironically, this is not because of program deficiencies, but because it is performing too well. Groups such as the ones featured in this chapter have helped to increase SNAP participation in their communities. Neighbors have reached out to neighbors to say there is no shame in seeking help through this program if you are unemployed, or you don't earn enough to buy nutritious foods for your children, or you've become ill and your medical bills make it difficult to pay for the food you need to get well. Local anti-hunger advocates are not acting as Republicans or Democrats. They are simply members of a community who want to help their neighbors who've fallen on hard times. As they've learned more about how to help them effectively, they have realized that the federal nutrition programs are the best tools they have.

“Groups such as the ones featured in this chapter have helped to increase SNAP participation in their communities.”

Indianapolis, Indiana: Hoosier Pie



The Indianapolis story illustrates how local leaders are working to build a broader coalition of stakeholders fighting hunger in their communities by raising public awareness—not only of the problem, but also the solutions.

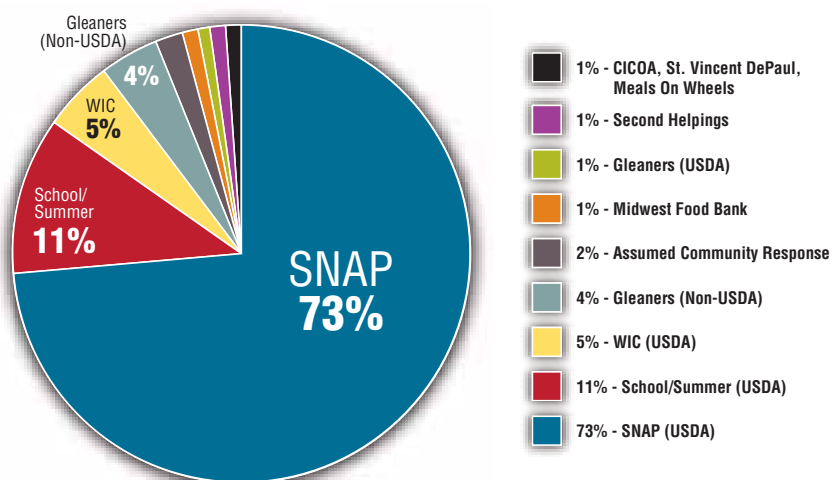
People who fight hunger at the local level have a gut feeling that the United States would be a hungry country indeed without SNAP and other nutrition programs. In Indianapolis, Dave Miner, chair of the Indy Hunger Network (IHN) and former board chair of Bread for the World, wanted something more than a gut feeling when he talked with people in the community. His wife Robin collected information on all the major sources of food assistance in Indianapolis. Data were readily accessible. Federal nutrition program data were available from the state agencies that administer them. Figuring out the rest required some phone calls and emails to private charities, but this didn't prove difficult either.

By crunching the numbers, the Miners discovered that federal nutrition programs accounted for more than 90 percent of the food assistance in Indianapolis in 2012. SNAP's contribution alone was 73 percent. The largest contributor on the private sector side was Gleaners, the Indianapolis area food bank that is the face of hunger relief for many Indy residents. Gleaners represented 4 percent. See Figure 4.2.

Robin developed a simple pie chart so that anyone can visualize where Indianapolis' food assistance comes from. When they show it to the people they hope will support IHN's work, most of them are taken aback by the size of the federal government's contribution. A typical reaction is, "Does it look like this everywhere?" In fact, it does. Indianapolis is not an anomaly when it comes to the amount of work the federal nutrition programs are doing to end hunger.

When people think about food assistance in their community, the pictures that come to mind are neighbors providing food to neighbors, children collecting canned goods for a food drive at their school, the food pantry in a church basement, a soup kitchen for homeless people. A government program does not seem the same as a neighbor, and media visibility for SNAP is mostly congressional rhetoric. Another reason SNAP is not recognized as the vital program

Figure 4.2 Sources of Food Assistance, Indianapolis (2012)



Source: Indy Hunger Network (2013).

that it is: those who need SNAP have been made to feel ashamed of “taking government assistance.” The anonymity of using a SNAP debit card helps them feel less embarrassed, but it also makes the program’s contributions to the community much less visible.

Indianapolis has set a goal of ensuring that by 2015, anyone who is hungry will be able to get the nutritious food they need.⁸ The role of IHN is to provide a space for all the parts of the anti-hunger infrastructure in the city to come together and solve problems. In a city the size of Indianapolis, any social infrastructure will be fragmented—not by intent, but by sheer numbers and logistics. Churches may be talking to other churches, but they may not be coordinating with groups outside their neighborhood. The heads of key government offices like the Departments of Education and Health and Human Services may not know anybody on the volunteer side. People who know programs for seniors may not know those for children and vice versa.

The pie chart has galvanized support for the contributions that SNAP, WIC, school meals, and other federal nutrition programs will make to achieving the “hunger-free” goal. Being able to look at the pie chart also makes it easier for people who might not be inclined to pick up the phone to call their member of Congress or visit the member’s local office to advocate for the program—and to persuade their friends and family to do so as well.

“Research shows that 42 percent of the food-insecure people in the Indianapolis region have incomes too high to be eligible for federal nutrition programs.”

BOX 4.1

HOOSIER HEROES

Dave Miner, executive director of the Indy Hunger Network, and his wife Robin have been anti-hunger activists for more than 30 years. From 2007 to 2012, Dave chaired Bread for the World’s board of directors. In 2008, he retired after a career with the pharmaceutical giant Eli Lilly, first in science, then in management. Now, he is using the skills he learned over a career in leadership positions at Lilly and its affiliate company Elanco, plus his 30 years of advocacy training through involvement with Bread for the World, to help Indianapolis become a hunger-free community. Robin is a board member at Indy Hunger Network, applying a career’s worth of experience in computer science and engineering to the cause of ending hunger. Dave and Robin continue to lead their local Bread for the World chapter in Indianapolis.



Dave and Robin Miner of Indianapolis, IN.

IHN estimated it needed about 27 million additional meals per year to achieve its goal of feeding everyone in the Indianapolis region who is hungry. To realize this goal, contributions are needed from both public and private programs. SNAP can fill some of the meal gap, but it cannot do it all. Feeding America's research shows that 42 percent of the food-insecure people in the Indianapolis region have incomes too high to be eligible for federal nutrition programs,⁹ which means their only sources of food assistance are private charities.

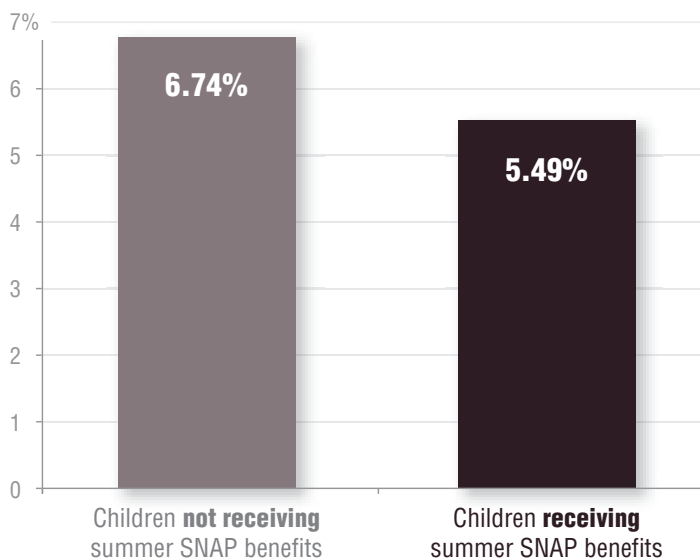
Food drives and pancake breakfasts to raise charitable contributions are fun group activities and opportunities to educate the community about hunger, but they are not going to fill a 27-million-meal gap. That's where the business community comes in. Dave Miner shows the pie chart to business leaders in the community, and they can see how much their contribution matters. Indianapolis may not have any more than its share of big-hearted business leaders who want to help end hunger, but many business leaders in Indy are inspired by the fact that someone is using data and analysis to solicit their support. "So many have told me how grateful they are we're quantifying," says Dave. "They find the goal of ending hunger inspiring but the fact that we are quantifying it has inspired their confidence." That confidence translates into financial and human resources and greater levels of commitment to working with IHN.

In Indianapolis as everywhere else in the nation, the summer meals program is the weakest link in the child nutrition programs. The program is intended to reduce the risk of child hunger during the months when school is out of session, but participation rates are one-sixth those of the school lunch and breakfast programs. The barriers to increasing participation in the summer meals programs are well understood. The main barrier in Indianapolis is that parents don't know the program exists. Lack of transportation is also a barrier.

In 2011, IHN set out to rebrand the summer meals programs in Indianapolis, giving it a new name, Summer Servings, a website, and a high-profile launch via the mayor's office. There isn't much that Indy's mayor, Greg Ballard, can do to improve the program on the policy side since federal officials make most of the policy decisions that affect program

Figure 4.3 Summer Boost in Children's SNAP Benefits Reduces Hunger

Share of children in study with very low food security*



*Very low food security = hunger. Results shown here cover the three states where benefits were delivered through SNAP.

Source: Center on Budget and Policy Priorities (2013). Based on U.S. Department of Agriculture Summer Survey, 2011.

operations. But the mayor can improve participation through his office's support for and promotion of the program. Mayor Ballard was happy to help. By launching Summer Servings with Mayor Ballard and Congressman André Carson, IHN knew it would attract local media attention and that would help build awareness among parents that a program exists.

IHN also needed a strategy to inform parents about summer meal sites near their homes. Sponsors of summer feeding sites, usually churches or

small community groups, haven't got the budget to pay for advertising, so IHN is doing it on behalf of all 200+ sites. Resources from its partners in the business community provided the needed support. They also worked with 211, a service that connects people to local human service providers through their phone. IHN contracted with a marketing firm to conduct a survey and found very few people with knowledge of 211. Now they are promoting awareness of 211 as well.

IHN's work is showing that innovation at the

BOX 4.2

WHY A PUBLIC/PRIVATE SYSTEM IS OUR NATION'S BEST CHOICE FOR FEEDING THE HUNGRY

Dave Miner, Indy Hunger Network

Some say that all food assistance should be handled by private charities, while others say it should all be done by government. Our experience in Indianapolis suggests both public and private resources are vital to ending hunger.

We meet the needs of the hungry in our community with federal programs administered through state government (SNAP, WIC, school meals, senior nutrition) and with food provided by private charities (food banks, pantries, soup kitchens, food recovery efforts). Together these solutions meet much but not all of the need for food assistance.

Let's look at why we need government to help fight hunger.

1. Size of the problem—Sadly, the need for assistance is so great it requires comprehensive approaches that are only possible with the federal programs. Figure 4.2 illustrates this.
2. Efficiency—Overhead in SNAP is low because benefits are transferred automatically onto debit cards that people use at food retailers.
3. Uniformity and fairness—Rigorous review of income and assets means that those qualifying for federal programs are truly the neediest.
4. Rapid scalability—Private charities are still trying to ramp up after the Great Recession, whereas the federal programs can promptly meet people's needs regardless of the strength of local charities.

“Our experience in Indianapolis suggests both public and private resources are vital to ending hunger.”

local level makes a difference. A 2013 study by the Washington, DC-based Food Research and Action Center (FRAC) found that from 2011 to 2012, Indiana had the country's largest increase in participation in the summer meals program, moving from 34th in the nation to 20th.¹⁰ Indianapolis can't take credit for improvements across the entire state, but it accounts for over half of the improvement in this metric.

Based on the difficulties communities face in reaching kids through summer feeding sites,

USDA is now trying something different: a pilot program that would increase SNAP benefits during the summer months by \$60 to families with children who received free or reduced price meals during the school year.¹¹ Evaluations of the first year of the pilot found that it cut child hunger by 20 percent.¹² See Figure 4.3. This is one among several pilot programs around the country launched because local leaders feed information back to federal policymakers about what's working, what isn't, and what kind of solutions they could try.

Because there are federal programs, private charities can focus on what they do best.

1. Filling the gaps—Private charities can serve people at risk of hunger whose income is too high to take advantage of federal programs.
2. Rescuing food—We waste a lot of perfectly good food. Volunteers reclaim what would have been wasted and distribute it through the appropriate channels.
3. Saying that it's okay to ask for help—Neighbor-to-neighbor contact and concern for each other helps to overcome the stigma associated with poverty.
4. Community engagement—Hands-on activities are critical as they allow the more fortunate to interact with less fortunate members of the community and learn first-hand about their circumstances.
5. Rehabilitation and development—Churches and others use food assistance as a step in the process of helping individuals and families in need deal with broader poverty-related issues.

The public/private system works well, but there are still too many hungry people in our communities, especially children and seniors. Let me offer some suggestions that would make the system more effective everywhere.

1. We need to measure unmet need, not just food insecurity, and that requires a measurement system that will allow us to see where the various federal programs and volunteer efforts are falling short.
2. We need a nationally supported 211 system to help people at risk of hunger find the services that are right for them.
3. We need to make healthier food more available: On the public side, for example, more funding to improve the quality of school meals; and on the private side, classes that teach families how to eat healthier on a budget.
4. We need an expansion of the Hunger Free Communities network, a nation-wide platform for sharing best practices (www.hungerfreecommunities.org).

Looking at the problem systemically, I believe there is a strong case to be made that a public/private partnership is essential if we are going to end hunger in the United States once and for all.

Dave Miner is the executive director of the Indy Hunger Network and a former chair of the Bread for the World board. Find out more about the Indy Hunger Network at www.indyhunger.org.

Dayton, Ohio: Bringing Hunger Home



This example is less recent than the previous one or the ones that follow, but it is important because it shows how an elected leader, a member of Congress, was able to draw attention to hunger in his community and mobilize people to join in a community-wide effort to end it.

FRAC is one of America's leading national anti-hunger organizations, and FRAC president Jim Weill is one of the most thoughtful people in the country on the subject of hunger. In 2013, at the annual Hunger Free Communities Summit in Washington, DC, sponsored by the Alliance to End Hunger, Weill was asked how to end hunger in America. He said we should think of it in terms of golf. The economy is the drive, where we will make up the most ground. The federal nutrition programs are the chip shot, getting us closer to the hole, but not all the way. Finally, there are the local efforts, which he compared to the putt.¹³

The audience was made up mostly of the putters in his analogy, people representing organizations from around the country trying to end hunger in their communities.

Some may have been surprised to hear themselves described as coming into the picture so late in the game. Many would say that, for most if not all of their time as anti-hunger advocates, it seems as though they've been lining up for their shot hundreds of yards from the hole. Tony Hall, executive director of the Alliance to End Hunger, who had invited them to the conference, said the analogy needed some additional explanation. He doesn't disagree with it, but he says we should remember that the putt is the most difficult stroke in golf, and it is not possible to get the ball in the hole without an accurate putt, just as it is not possible to end hunger without a strong effort at the local level.¹⁴



Courtesy of Tony Hall

From 2002-2006, Tony Hall served as the U.S. ambassador to the United Nations Agencies for Food and Agriculture. Here he is shown testifying on Capitol Hill.

When Hall was a member of Congress, representing Ohio's 3rd district in Dayton from 1978-2002, hunger was his signature issue as a legislator. From 1989 to 1993, he was the chair of the Select Committee on Hunger in the House of Representatives. In 1994, the House leadership decided to eliminate the committee on the pretext of saving taxpayers money. Hall disagreed and protested by fasting for 21 days.¹⁵ In a sense, it was to no avail since the committee no longer exists, but bringing attention to the issue and forging stronger ties with

his constituents in Dayton made a big difference. In 2002, Hall was appointed by President George W. Bush to serve as U.S. Ambassador to the United Nations Food and Agriculture Programs in Rome. Presently, as the executive director of the Alliance to End Hunger, he engages a diverse group of organizations in building the political will to end hunger. The Alliance is a secular affiliate of Bread for the World.

As a member of Congress, Hall visited some of the most poverty-stricken and war-ravaged countries in the world. He saw people die of hunger right before his eyes. That literally changed his life, he says. He was committed to helping Dayton residents understand why ending hunger was so important to him and why it should be important to them. Leadership is a subject that comes up again and again in this chapter, and one couldn't ask for more leadership from an elected official than Dayton got from Tony Hall. Early in his congressional career, Hall's office surveyed voters in the district; the surveys showed that voters did not consider hunger one of their main concerns. Hall realized it was up to him to change that. He went about that by leading a community-wide effort to end hunger in Dayton.

One of the first things he did was start a gleaning program. Hall had long been a fan of gleaning, the salvaging of unharvested fruits and vegetables from farmers' fields, a practice that he knew about from reading the Bible. "You shall not strip your vineyard bare, or gather the fallen grapes of your vineyard; you shall leave them for the poor and the alien." (Leviticus 19:10, NRSV)

"When you gather the grapes of your vineyard, do not glean what is left; it shall be for the alien, the orphan, and the widow." (Deuteronomy 24:21, NRSV) The gleaning program he started brought people from vastly different backgrounds literally together in the fields. It was the first time some wealthy people had ever talked with people living in poverty. "Those were remarkable conversations," Hall says. "People who never worried about missing a bill payment in their lives learned how people who struggled to pay their bills managed to get by on a pay-nothing job and not much help from government."¹⁶

He had little problem getting people to follow his lead. "People will follow if they sense you're sincere and want to do good," he says. "When you lead by example, others will take up the cause, and some of them will become leaders too."¹⁷ A utility company sponsored 25 employees each year to participate in projects on behalf of the company. In subsequent years, says Hall, the people who had held those positions wanted them back. "As we carried out projects and received publicity for them, we inspired more people to get involved. As people in Dayton learned about our anti-hunger efforts and saw that they worked, the volunteers' efforts begat more volunteers. Some of them invented new projects that I never would have



Amanda Lucidon for Bread for the World

Adlai Amor, director of communications at Bread for the World, and Barbie Izquierdo, featured in *A Place at the Table*, watch clips from the film in the breakout session, "Voices of Poor and Hungry People" during the National Hunger Free Communities Summit.

BOX 4.3

ENDING HUNGER, ONE STEP AT A TIME.

Matthew Hackworth and Maurice A. Bloem

“When you participate in a CROP Hunger Walk, you provide food to our community and people around the world,” says Karen Ellers, director of Clemson Community Care in Clemson, South Carolina.

The food assistance agency is one of more than 2,500 local feeding programs that benefit from CROP Hunger Walks across the United States each year. These events—where participants get friends and family to sponsor their participation in order to raise funds—have grown in popularity. Sponsored by Church World Service (CWS), CROP Hunger Walks have been

raising money to fight hunger for more than 40 years. Walks often serve as an intersection—the “putt”—where people of different faiths, no faith, businesses and community groups coalesce to fight hunger.

Communities that hold CROP Hunger Walks determine which local hunger agency (or agencies) will receive 25 percent of the event’s proceeds, with the remainder funding the life-sustaining work of CWS around the world. Long-time CWS staff member Kevin McCoy says in his region of the Carolinas people know about world hunger but want to do something about local needs as well. “I’ll hold up the work of the local agencies that are supported by the Walk and give their statistics about how many

clients they serve or how much need they are seeing,” McCoy says. There are 80 local agencies supported by CROP Hunger Walk in the Carolinas alone.

Volunteers in more than 1,600 communities participate in a Walk to fight hunger each year, strengthening ties between communities and the local agencies they support. In a recent CWS survey of local hunger agencies supported by Walks, every agency that responded—from Berkeley, California to Exeter, New Hampshire and spots in between—reported increased demand, with some estimates as high as 20 percent. All indicated a client base that relied heavily on SNAP and school lunch programs.

In the case of Clemson Community Care, the CROP Hunger Walk helps to fund food assistance programs for the 3,563 families it serves each year. Clemson Community Care estimates three out of every four of its clients depend heavily on SNAP and other safety net programs that have become political targets. That makes the assistance Clemson Community Care provides all the more critical. “The CROP Hunger Walk is the single largest fundraising event we rely on,” Ellers says.

Matthew Hackworth is the director of marketing and communications and Maurice A. Bloem is executive vice president for Church World Service.



Courtesy of Church World Service

A CROP Walk in Durham, North Carolina, in 2012.

dreamed of. All of these projects produced the twin benefits of helping the poor and the hungry and teaching the people of Dayton about problems and ways that individuals can help. We were building a constituency for the hungry. In addition they also served as models for other communities to emulate.”¹⁸

By the time Hall left office, there were still people in Dayton who were hungry. The stubbornness of hunger and poverty in the city and surrounding areas is inseparable from the economic fortunes of the region. Deindustrialization has pummeled Dayton’s manufacturing base, the foundation of the local economy since World War II, as it has other areas of the Rust Belt. It’s what Jim Weill was saying about the economy being akin to the long game in golf.

“What’s important,” says Hall, “is that many people in Dayton are committed to helping the less fortunate.” By the end of his career in Congress, when his office surveyed people in the district about the issues they cared most about, hunger had risen to the top of their concerns. “In my later years in Congress,” he says, “we asked people what they would want to talk about if they had a chance to talk with me. Almost 80 percent said they’d like to talk about hunger.”¹⁹

A Leadership Challenge

Every community has people who are leaders against hunger. Tony Hall thinks the odds of defeating hunger increase many times over when elected officials provide the leadership. We shouldn’t expect the intense hands-on leadership as he provided in Dayton from every elected official; however, there are other ways for individuals to be leaders in this fight.

The loss of the Select Committee on Hunger in the U.S. House of Representatives was a blow to leadership at the policy level. As Hall described in his 2006 book, *Changing the Face of Hunger*, “It had been the vehicle that empowered me to call public attention to the problems of hunger, poverty and oppression at home and overseas. It enabled me to summon witnesses to hearings that caused Washington-based media to report about tragedies—such as famine in Africa, oppression in Haiti, and hunger on U.S. Indian reservations—they otherwise might have ignored...It helped me convince other committees to consider legislation that the hunger committee devised but did not have the authority to bring before the full House for passage.”²⁰ Reinstating the Select Committee on Hunger in the House would be a sign that Congress is serious about ending hunger in America. In the Senate, the Select



Courtesy Alliance to End Hunger

As executive director of the Alliance to End Hunger, Tony Hall traveled to the world’s largest refugee camp, Dadaab, on the Kenya-Somalia border.

Committee on Nutrition and Human Needs, led by Senators George McGovern and Robert Dole, was eliminated in 1977. It should also be reinstated. Setting a goal to end hunger will draw attention to the problem, which is essential, but achieving the goal will require oversight in Congress.

One of the most visible ways for elected officials to draw attention to hunger in their communities is to take the SNAP/Food Stamp challenge. Members of Congress, governors, state legislators, and mayors have taken the challenge, and so have hundreds—if not thousands—of others who are not elected to public office: religious and community leaders, students, and people from all walks of life.

Here's how the challenge works: for a week or more, participants spend no more on food than the average SNAP benefit. This comes to about \$4.50 per day.²¹ In November 2013, SNAP benefits will decrease unless Congress preserves the increases approved in the 2009 American Recovery and Reinvest Act (Recovery Act). See Figure 4.4. The challenge will be more difficult, but far more important, the lives of families who struggle to buy groceries will be more difficult.

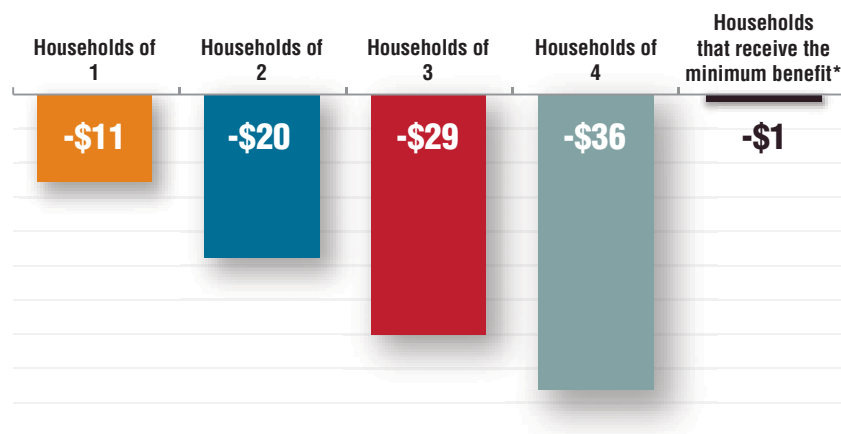
In March 2013, Dr. Lewis First, a pediatrician in Vermont, took the SNAP/food stamp challenge with other doctors, nurses, and staff at Vermont Children's Hospital. On his blog, Dr. First reported:

"Although the challenge ended for me after seven days, I don't think I can ever forget the feelings it generated in me—and as a result, I will now advocate even more for our patients and families who experience food insecurity and hunger, and whose "challenge" is not just living on food stamps for seven days—but every day."²² It's especially encouraging to hear from doctors and others in the medical profession. Hunger is a public health problem, and the more we talk about it this way, the sooner we may be able to reduce the stigma that makes it a much harder problem to solve than it should be.

The consequences of child hunger, particularly hunger experienced by very young children, are so serious in terms of stunting their physical and intellectual development that people with a wide range of political views have generally been able to agree on support for child nutrition programs. The WIC program targets pregnant women and children in their earliest years. The 1,000-day window between pregnancy and age 2 is the most critical period in human development. Babies whose mothers are food insecure during pregnancy are more

Figure 4.4 All SNAP Households Will See a Cut in November 2013

Monthly cut in SNAP benefits by household size



*Households of size 1 or 2 that qualify for less than \$16 have their benefits rounded up to the minimum benefit. That amount will drop to \$15 in FY2014.

Source: Stacey Dean and Dorothy Rosenbaum (August 2, 2013), "SNAP Benefits Will Be Cut for All Participants In November 2013," Center on Budget and Policy Priorities. Based on U.S. Department of Agriculture, "SNAP—Fiscal Year 2014 Cost of Living Adjustments and ARRA Sunset Impact on Allotments," August 1, 2013.

likely to enter the world with a low birth weight, a condition associated with higher health care costs and worse health outcomes for the rest of the person's life.²³

Children's brains—and the rest of their bodies—don't stop developing once they enter school. In elementary school, children who are hungry are four times more likely than non-hungry children to need mental health counseling.²⁴ By the time they are teenagers, children are twice as likely as their peers to have seen a psychologist.²⁵

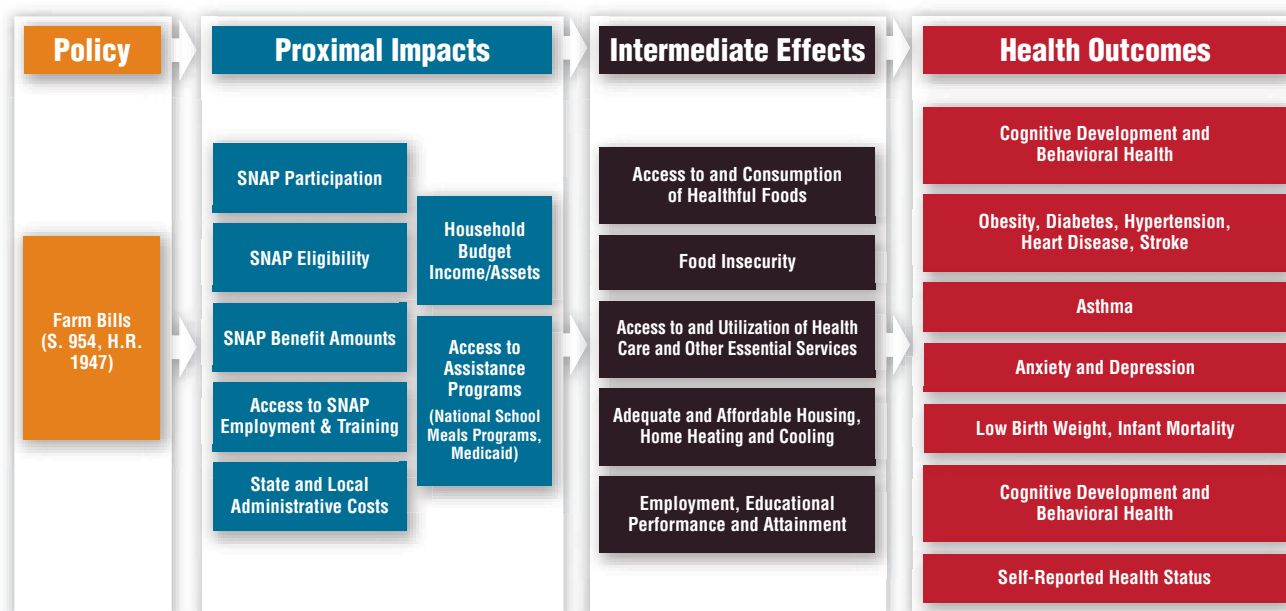
Adults who were malnourished as children are also more likely to have mental health problems than peers who were well nourished. "Society, in turn, bears the costs of increased health problems, lost worker productivity, and lost tax revenue as individuals achieve and earn less," write John Cook and Karen Jeng in their report *Child Food Insecurity: The Economic Impact on our Nation*.²⁶

Cook, an associate professor of pediatrics at the Boston University School of Medicine, is also a research scientist with Children's HealthWatch, a pediatric clinical research program. Children's HealthWatch argues that the federal nutrition programs are one of the most cost-effective investments in public health. In a 2004 report, Children's HealthWatch found that a single hospitalization for a pediatric illness cost an average of \$11,300, equivalent in value to "almost five years of food stamps for a family receiving the average household benefit."²⁷

"I have never been so hungry or food conscious in my life as I was during the week of the SNAP/food stamp challenge."

— Dr. Lewis First

Figure 4.5 The Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP) Eligibility, Benefits, and Health Pathway



A pathway diagram is a tool used to display the hypothetical links between a proposed policy and health that is often used in HIA practice to guide research and analysis. This pathway diagram maps out the possible health outcomes that could result from the proposed policy changes.

Source: The Health Impact Project (July 2013), *Health Impact Assessment on Proposed Changes to Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program*, Robert Wood Johnson Foundation and the Pew Charitable Trusts.

Decades of studies document the public health benefits of SNAP/food stamps. In 2013, a health impact assessment of the changes proposed to SNAP in the Senate and House versions of the farm bill found that both would lead to adverse public health outcomes. The House version would cause more serious damage since it proposed larger cuts. The assessment, conducted by the Robert Wood Johnson Foundation and the Pew Charitable Trusts, concluded that the cuts in the House version could lead to an additional \$15 billion in costs over 10 years for diabetes alone.²⁸

“At a stronger dose,” SNAP could do a much better job of protecting public health. That was the finding of a 2013 report by the Institute of Medicine and National Research Council.²⁹ The report called for updating the formula used

“Decades of studies document the public health benefits of SNAP/food stamps.”

to calculate benefits. The formula is fundamentally the same as when the program was established in the early 1960s, while the cost of living for families with children, including such expenses as child care, housing, health care, and transportation, has increased. In addition, the real value of the minimum wage has decreased significantly, so

people must work longer hours to meet their basic needs. This, in turn, translates into less time available for parents to cook meals from scratch. All of these factors demonstrate how much modern life has changed since the formula for calculating food stamp benefits was created a half-century ago.

The SNAP/food stamp challenge brought Dr. First to a realization. “While I cannot begin to experience or understand what families on food stamps experience on an ongoing basis, I do know how important it is to advocate on their behalf at the federal, state, and local level to insure that we do all we can to eradicate hunger and food-insecurity.”³⁰ Completing the SNAP/food stamp challenge should do more than give us a chance to feel what it’s like to walk in the shoes of someone in poverty. We need to move beyond feeling what it is like to talking about it and then changing it. And that is why we need a sentinel group in Congress, such as the Select Committees on Hunger that used to be active in both the House and Senate, to make sure there is a platform for changes to be introduced and enacted.

BOX 4.4

EYEWITNESS TO HUNGER, AN ACCOUNT BY PEDIATRICIAN DR. LEWIS FIRST

“I have never been so hungry or food conscious in my life as I was during the week of the [SNAP/food stamp] challenge. Instead of looking at people’s faces in the halls or the cafeteria (which I would pass by since I could not afford to buy food there), I looked at the food people were carrying or eating, thinking what that food might taste like if I could afford it. By two days in, I had lost two pounds, and found myself constantly thinking how many hours until I could afford to eat my next meal. It only took a few days until I began to worry whether I would have enough food to make it through the week and I realized that I too was becoming food insecure.”

Arkansas: No Kid Hungry



Here in a state-level initiative, a national nonprofit lends its expertise to support local partners, building their capacity to ensure that progress is sustainable. The national partner is a conduit to best practices that have worked for other local initiatives, saving time and resources.

Candidate Barack Obama, while campaigning in 2008, pledged to end child hunger by 2015. Candidate Obama's pledge naturally fell on receptive ears in the anti-hunger community. What one hopes will happen when a president or presidential candidate tells the nation that an issue matters to him or her is that the nation will respond in kind. States and localities will embrace the commitment to end child hunger, deploy their own resources, and communicate to national leaders that they need to keep talking about the goal. The conversation rises in pitch, more people are drawn in, and the goal becomes a national priority.

Since entering the White House, President Obama has spoken ever so softly about ending child hunger. In fact, the 2008 pledge would be a footnote to his presidency by now were it not for national organizations, such as Bread for the World, the Alliance to End Hunger, FRAC, and Feeding America, that continue to remind the White House that the president's pledge is still on their agenda.

Perhaps no national anti-hunger organization has done more to promote the goal of ending child hunger and to keep the pledge alive than Share Our Strength. Through its No Kid Hungry Campaign—a national effort to achieve candidate Obama's pledge to end childhood hunger in America by 2015—Share Our Strength is working with governors and mayors, faith and business leaders, and nonprofit organizations to connect families at risk of hunger with the programs that can help them.³¹

No Kid Hungry Campaigns have been started in all 50 states. Maryland, Colorado and Arkansas are Share Our Strength's "proof of concept" states, where it is investing the greatest effort. Governor Martin O'Malley of Maryland was the first governor in the country to embrace a goal to end child hunger by 2015. O'Malley helped persuade Governor Mike Beebe of Arkansas to do the same. Conditions in the two states are quite different. Maryland



Courtesy of Arkansas Hunger Relief Alliance

Breakfast in the Classroom at Franklin Elementary School, Little Rock.

is one of the richest states in the country, Arkansas one of the poorest. In fact, in 2010, when Governor Beebe agreed to focus attention on ending child hunger, Arkansas had the highest child hunger rate in the nation.

Share Our Strength will eventually reduce its footprint in Arkansas because it sees its role as supporting the state through the startup phase of the Arkansas No Kid Hungry Campaign. The start-up phase is important, but what matters more is sustainability, and the sustainability of a campaign depends on state and local capacity. Share Our Strength is building capacity in Arkansas by working with the governor's chief nonprofit partner in the state, the Arkansas Hunger Relief Alliance, a coalition of more than 200 member organizations including the state's six Feeding America food bank members, local hunger relief agencies, and other hunger advocates from around the state.³²

In Arkansas, a difficult fiscal situation has hamstrung the governor's ability to commit many new resources. Share Our Strength, through the Arkansas Hunger Relief Alliance, is working with the governor's office to show that progress is still possible. The school breakfast program is a good example. Arkansas has a participation rate of 56 percent. If it can reach 70 percent, federal reimbursements will cover the costs of administering the program, saving the state money while making it possible to provide meals to all children. The governor's office and other Arkansas No Kid Hungry campaign stakeholders supported the push for legislation that would authorize schools to receive financial assistance

BOX 4.5

THE ARKANSAS NO KID HUNGRY CAMPAIGN

Arkansas Hunger Relief Alliance

The Arkansas No Kid Hungry campaign is all about partnerships. The partnerships we've built will make this a sustainable campaign long after Share Our Strength has stepped back—and regardless of changes in the political landscape. Add to this the commitment of the Arkansas Legislative Hunger Caucus, of which 98 percent of state legislators are members, and you have a solid, statewide commitment to ending hunger in Arkansas.

Arkansas No Kid Hungry Partners:

*Lead partner: Arkansas Hunger Relief Alliance

1. Gov. Mike and First Lady Ginger Beebe and staff
2. State agencies:
 - a. Department of Human Services
 - b. Department of Education
 - c. Department of Health
 - d. Department of Agriculture
3. Community partners:
 - a. University of Arkansas Medical Sciences
 - b. Arkansas Children's Hospital
 - c. Arkansas Regional Food Banks
4. Corporate support:
 - a. Wal-Mart
 - b. Tyson Foods
 - c. Mid-West Dairy

to start an alternate breakfast delivery program. As a result, the Arkansas Department of Education has authorized the Arkansas Hunger Relief Alliance to administer the Arkansas Meals for Achievement pilot grant program, which will provide funding to schools serving a free breakfast to all students through an alternative breakfast delivery model such as Breakfast in the Classroom.

Another example of Share Our Strength's work with the Arkansas Hunger Relief Alliance is its training of local staff to implement a program that Share Our Strength has developed to help low-income families prepare healthy meals on a budget. The Cooking Matters program is more than a cooking class; it includes trips to the grocery store to show parents how to shop strategically and how to decipher nutrition information to make healthier food choices. Eighty percent of low-income families prepare dinner at home at least five times a week. The overwhelming number of parents in Share Our Strength's Cooking Matters program say they want to serve their children healthier meals but view the cost of healthy foods as the main barrier.³³

If the No Kid Hungry Campaign succeeds in Arkansas, or any of the other states, it will be because Share Our Strength has helped put in place an infrastructure to carry on the innovations it has shared and the partnerships it has helped to nurture among government, nonprofits, and the private sector. See a list of partners in Box 4.5. The success of the program in Arkansas is due to the support of the governor and his staff and the unprecedented cooperation between the Department of Human Services and the Arkansas Hunger Relief Alliance. This cooperation includes direct data sharing as well as strategic planning, open communication, and commitment to a shared goal of ending childhood hunger in Arkansas.

Hunger must be solved at the local level, but it takes national partners to bring resources to bear to support partners at the local level. There are things that a national organization like Share Our Strength—or Bread for the World—can do that support the efforts of local affiliates. For example, June 21 is National Summer Learning Day, a day of advocacy sponsored by the National Summer Learning Association. Children lose the equivalent of two months of mathematics instruction over the summer.³⁴ An organization such as Share Our Strength can forge a partnership with the National Summer Learning Association to draw attention to how hunger during the summer months contributes to lack of retention among low-income students.

A Cooking Matters class at First United Methodist Church of Little Rock.



Courtesy of Arkansas Hunger Relief Alliance

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: Witnesses to Hunger



So far, the protagonists in this chapter have been leaders in government, nonprofits, and the private sector, working on behalf of people in their communities at risk of hunger. In this example, we learn about how one initiative developed leaders among the most affected—those who know what it feels like to be hungry.

It is hard to think of a movement for social change that was not led by the people whose well-being was most affected by the outcome. In the 1960s, victims of racial oppression led the Civil Rights Movement. Today, gay and transgender people lead the LGBT rights movement, immigrants the immigration-reform movement.

Seldom, however, are people with the most knowledge about hunger asked to do more than tell their stories and then vanish before the discussions of policy take place.

Dr. Mariana Chilton, a researcher in Drexel University's School of Public Health, was thinking about this as she was testifying before Congress in 2007 on the importance of the Food Stamp Program for the health and well-being of young children. It was at a hearing on the reauthorization of the upcoming farm bill, and she was there to talk about the research she and her colleagues at Children's HealthWatch sites around the country had done. "I literally watched the Congress people's eyes glaze over, and I thought, 'Well this isn't doing it,'" she said.³⁵

When she returned home to Philadelphia, she decided to steer her research in a different direction. It started by giving cameras to low-income mothers in Philadelphia, asking them to document their personal experiences of hunger. The project was called Witnesses to Hunger, and the pictures were posted on a website of the same name.



Courtesy of BillMoyers.com

Kristi Jacobson (center) and Dr. Mariana Chilton (right) explain to Bill Moyers how hunger and food insecurity hit people from every walk of life.

It grew to include 40 women. When the photographs began to appear on the website, they drew immediate attention in Philadelphia and then across the country. In 2009, an exhibition of the Witnesses photos was held in the rotunda of the Capitol in Washington, DC. The women who took the pictures were on hand to talk about them. Since then, policymakers, anti-hunger groups, and the national media have turned to these women regularly, including when members of Congress threaten to cut funding for nutrition programs, to ask them to comment on what cuts to these programs would mean in the communities where they live.

In 2013, the focus of the Witnesses to Hunger project was changing. The women aren't just sharing stories—they are advocating and informing the debate about policy in their home state and in Washington, DC. "The true experts on maternal and child health and poverty are the mothers of young children," says Dr. Chilton. "They are teachers with valuable lessons to impart."³⁶

One of the most valuable lessons their photographs have taught us is how often hunger is associated with more than just food: bus stops, medicine bottles, domestic violence, blood stained streets, unstable housing, homelessness, the tattoo of a murdered father, a child lying in a hospital bed. To be sure, there are plenty of images of children with loving mothers smiling over them, the same as in any family. Those are momentary breaks from the near-constant hardships. These images ought to be on display anytime debates about food policy appear to be veering off into the predictable or eyes begin glazing over.

"It is hard to think of a movement for social change that was not led by the people whose well-being was most affected by the outcome."

Barbie Izquierdo was the first mom in Witnesses to Hunger to accept a camera. The first picture she presented to Chilton was called "My Neighbor's Kitchen." Chilton was shocked. A disaster had struck this kitchen. It was a room in a state of such disrepair that the only thing to do was gut it. She couldn't believe that anybody was living in such slum-like conditions. Barbie did not anticipate such a strong reaction. She saw the room as it appeared to Chilton's eyes, but it was not an uncommon sight in the neighborhood where she lived. Today, she understands how the image could provoke the reaction it did from Chilton. She is outraged at slumlords—and at the city government for allowing them to get away with this degree of neglect. "That picture was the beginning of the rest of my life," she says.³⁷ "Witnesses has given me the blessing to open my eyes and see things in a different light."



Rev. Gary Cook, director of Church Relations at Bread for the World, holds up "A Place at the Table," the 2013 Offering of Letters handbook during a session with Barbie Izquierdo, at Ecumenical Advocacy Days, held April 5-8 in Washington, D.C. Izquierdo is featured in the documentary film of the same name.

To understand the difference between her reactions then and now, we have to realize what it was like to be in her situation then. A 20-year-old woman raising two children by herself puts up with conditions like that out of fear. What she feared most then was losing custody of her children. She'd seen other women lose custody of their children. When their

children were taken from them, it seemed that the women were being punished for the crime of being poor.

Barbie has come far, probably the farthest of any of the Witnesses. She is going to college, studying criminal justice, and she hopes someday to start her own nonprofit for victims of domestic violence. It's a long way from the days when she used to look at pizza menus, trying to stave off hunger by imagining that a delivery was on the way. Today, there is scarcely a more poised, articulate person with firsthand knowledge of hunger, real stomach-aching hunger, than she. She has spoken in front of Congress and at the White House. As much as anyone, with the exception of Chilton, she has become the person most iden-



Laura Elizabeth Pohl for Bread for the World

Barbie Izquierdo walks her son and daughter to school in 2013.

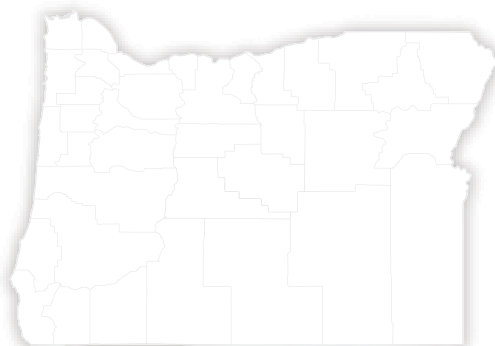
tified with Witnesses to Hunger. Her involvement in Witnesses has catapulted her into the spotlight of the national anti-hunger movement. In 2013, she and her children were featured in the documentary *A Place at the Table*. The film chronicles a year in her life after she loses a job and struggles to put food on the table for the family. At one point in the film, Barbie is shown landing a job with the Greater Philadelphia Coalition Against Hunger. It should have been a happy ending to a year of struggle—but the new job's salary put her over the income threshold for SNAP. The family was no longer eligible.

At the 2013 Hunger-Free Communities Summit in Washington, DC, held by the Alliance to End Hunger days before the release of *A Place at the Table*, Barbie talked about her journey to advocacy. "Being able to go through all of that and still be able to stand as a person, whether I'm ashamed at times or not, whether I'm embarrassed at times or not, I can still say that I got through it. That's why I do what I do, why I chose to share my story."³⁸

"The true experts on maternal and child health and poverty are the mothers of young children."

— Dr. Mariana Chilton

Oregon: FEASTING in Rural Food Deserts

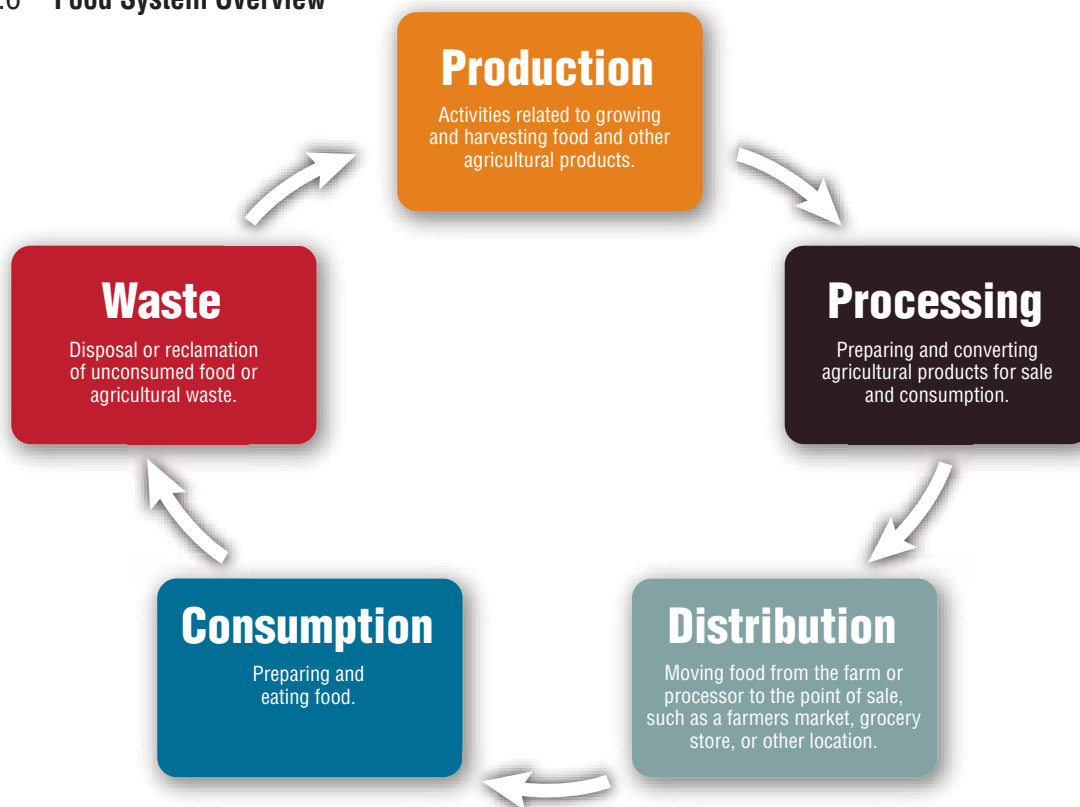


When food choices are limited, everyone in a community is vulnerable to food insecurity. In this example, rural communities that are entirely “off the grid” confront the barriers to accessing the healthy foods they are missing. Because the food system isn’t working for anyone, the solutions they come up with have to work for everyone, including people who are hungry.

Oregon is the 9th largest state in the country, more than 96,000 square miles.³⁹ Rural areas account for 99 percent of the landmass, while Portland and a handful of smaller urban enclaves are home to 80 percent of the population.⁴⁰ The 20 percent who live in rural Oregon are scattered far and wide, and it is not uncommon for people living in the more sparsely populated areas to have to drive more than 50 miles each way to visit a full-service grocery store. The cost of fuel to get back and forth a couple of times a month bite hard into the value of a family’s SNAP benefits.

It seems strange that people should have to drive so far to purchase food with so much arable land all around them. Oregon is one of the most agriculturally diverse states, yet there are food deserts all over the state—sometimes right where food is being produced. Thousands of

Figure 4.6 Food System Overview



head of cattle are shipped out of state and overseas from ranching communities, while people living in those communities never see so much as a pound of ground beef. In some towns, the emergency food pantry is the best place to look for healthy food, including fresh produce.

Oregon has long had a reputation for promoting a culture of sustainability, and more recently has been associated with America's growing population of "locavores," people who try to eat foods grown locally as much as possible. The trend is much easier to see flourishing in Portland and other population centers along the I-5 corridor. The rest of the state has a food system that looks like the one in the rest of the country. As the U.S. food system has become concentrated in the hands of fewer producers, the distances from farm to intermediary stops to table have widened. A food system is the sum of all the processes related to feeding people, from growing, harvesting, processing (transforming or changing), packaging, marketing, distributing, consuming, and even reclaiming food that would otherwise be wasted.⁴¹

In rural communities in Oregon, residents are trying to gain back some control of their local food systems, and they realize they need help. There's more to it than saving money on gas, or a craving for something grown by one of their neighbors. People in these communities are worried about their health and their children's health. According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 60 percent of the adult population is overweight and 26 percent are obese.⁴² Among children between the ages of 2 and 5, 15 percent are already obese.⁴³ Obesity, diabetes,



Courtesy Sharon Thornberry

Sharon Thornberry of the Oregon Food Bank is shown here working with a steering group that has sought her help to improve their local food system.

and other diet-related illnesses are food system-related.

Sharon Thornberry, the Community Food Systems Manager with the Oregon Food Bank, works with a team to organize communities that are looking for help in filling the gaps in their food systems. In 2009, Thornberry was honored with the Billi Odegaard Public Health Genius Award from the Community Health Systems of Oregon in recognition of her dedication in expanding access to healthy foods in underserved rural communities of the state.⁴⁴ In 2013, the Oregon Food Bank was presented with Feeding America's annual Innovation Award in food banking, singling out Thornberry's work as "empowering community members to build healthier, more equitable, and more resilient food systems through a community organizing model."⁴⁵

When Thornberry begins to work with a new community, she first engages with a local steering committee of five to 10 people to discuss how they want to address the gaps in their food system. The steering committee is not passively waiting to be told what to do; its members have already formed ideas about how they want to improve the food system. Over time, others in the community join as their interests are piqued. Leaders emerge. People are

passionate about food in ways you would never see if they were being organized to take action on some other problem.

Thornberry approaches food systems work as a community building exercise. She doesn't give outsized attention to ending hunger, because it would jeopardize some people's participation. Instead, everyone has to see the benefits for themselves. "A food system is something the whole community experiences," says Thornberry. "Hunger is not." How does she ensure that hunger gets the attention it deserves? "—by making sure to get the right people at the table," she says.

Food security is the goal of all food systems. We know that households are food secure when they are able to stop worrying about getting the food they need. Community food security is a little more complicated. USDA expresses it in terms of "the underlying social, economic, and institutional factors within a community that affect the quantity and quality of available food and its affordability or price relative to the sufficiency of financial resources available to acquire it."⁴⁶ If that sounds a bit too much like academic jargon, it will be a relief to learn that USDA, to its credit, has also developed a Community Food Security Assessment Toolkit that practitioners can use to get at the issue in much more concrete ways. The toolkit has been used by groups all over the country. It is a good example of a public-private partnership since government can support community anti-hunger leaders while leaving a light footprint itself.

In Oregon, an AmeriCorps volunteer conducts the food security assessment under Thornberry's guidance. The University of Oregon sponsors the AmeriCorps participant through RARE—Resource Assistance for Rural Environments. There are at least three RARE participants dedicated to supporting Oregon Food Bank's work on food systems. AmeriCorps volunteers, the domestic counterparts of Peace Corps volunteers, are largely underutilized in supporting anti-hunger initiatives around the nation. RARE is indeed a rare example of how to use volunteers to provide technical assistance in food system and anti-hunger projects.

Once the Community Food Security assessment is completed, the AmeriCorps volunteer produces a report with an analysis of the area's food system, noting food-related assets as well as deficiencies. Assets may be farms, commercial or otherwise, and the crops they produce; individuals who do value-added processing, such as canning or baking, and are interested in marketing their products to consumers; infrastructure such as commercial refrigerators and freezers; community gardens; fish and game. Churches that keep a stocked pantry are assets. Assets are anything with the potential to improve community food access, and there are more kinds of food-related assets than we could possibly list here.



Oregon Food Bank's two Portland-area locations hosted 616 volunteers for a day of service in honor of Martin Luther King Jr.

The most important step runs parallel to the assessment and analysis: Thornberry leads members of the community in what's called a FEAST, a facilitated discussion about **Food, Education and Agriculture** in their community, and they begin to work toward **Solutions Together**.⁴⁷ Groups who participate in the FEAST range in size from as little as a dozen to several dozen. Thornberry is strictly a facilitator. She offers feedback but doesn't tell participants what their solutions in their communities should be. Nothing that is decided will be sustainable unless it is locally driven and owned by members of the community. The ultimate goal is to build a healthier, more equitable, and more resilient local food system.⁴⁸ At the end of the FEAST, they define what their specific goals are and discuss how they plan to implement them. Thornberry's work is basically done. Now it's up to members of the community to follow through.

FEASTs have produced many and varied results. Some examples are: the establishment of gleaning programs, farmers markets, and/or community gardens; farm-to-school partnerships between local farmers and rural school districts; new partnerships between food donors and emergency food providers; and the formation of coalitions to carry forward community-based food system projects.⁴⁹ Here is what some participants have said about the FEAST they participated in: Jan Neilson, a farmer in Sweet Home, says, "We developed a larger community base with resources to actually get things done." Emily Ritchie, the farm to school coordinator in Tillamook, says, "We're moving forward on issues that will hugely impact our community." Dawn Jensen Nobile, a nutrition therapist from Albany, says, "I was inspired to find more ways to participate in schools, community, and neighborhood. The network being built via this effort is a source of strength and comfort."⁵⁰ Rural food deserts aren't turning into oases overnight, but the FEASTs are making it possible for people to find more of the foods they want without having to drive long distances.



Courtesy Sharon Thornberry

Sharon Thornberry and colleague Megan Newell-Ching lead the Oregon Food Bank's work on community food systems.

BUILDING WELCOMING COMMUNITIES IN THE FIGHT AGAINST HUNGER

Church World Service

For newly arrived refugees, accessing an adequate supply of nutritious food in the United States is not always easy. Like many immigrants, refugees often live in neighborhoods with limited access to retail grocery stores, and have limited purchasing power and information on healthy food choices. These factors, along with the influence of U.S. food practices, often lead to increased fat and sugar consumption, increased utilization of processed foods, and decreased consumption of fresh vegetables and fruits among refugee families.

Limited access to nutritious food in the United States can exacerbate health problems, particularly among refugees who have suffered inadequate nutrition while living in camps for extended periods of time. For example, 63 percent of Bhutanese refugees arriving from camps in rural Nepal—one of the largest refugee groups that have resettled to the United States in the past five years—are vitamin B12 deficient.

As a faith-based humanitarian agency, Church World Service (CWS) is addressing these nutrition and food security needs through the involvement of local congregational supporters and civic groups. In Greensboro, North Carolina, CWS has launched two community gardens, one with the support of a local Presbyterian church and the other in partnership with a local agricultural extension cooperative.

These gardens provide newly arrived refugees an opportunity to grow fresh produce, including both crops from their home countries and crops that are local to their new communities. “Through community gardens,” notes Sarah Ivory, Director of the CWS Immigration and Refugee Program in Greensboro, “our clients have the opportunity not just to nourish their families with fresh foods, but also to nourish their spirits through the land and the community of the gardens. This project reminds us that when we work together in the fight against hunger, we often succeed in impacting our communities in ways that are more far reaching than we know.”

Andrew Fuys, Sarah Ivory, Jennifer Smyers, Sarah Krause, Matthew Hackworth, and Erol Kekic of Church World Service contributed to this article.



Courtesy Church World Service

The community gardens in Greensboro, North Carolina, not only improve refugees' access to nutritious food, they also create a space where newcomers to the community can meet one another.

Toledo, Ohio: Prescribing a Cure for Hunger

Hunger persists in part because of how we talk about it as a problem. New partners with a different perspective on hunger can get us to see beyond the same old strategies and solutions. In this example, a leading health care provider tries to recast hunger as a health care crisis that could possibly be dealt with more effectively if we treat it as we do other chronic illnesses.

Silicon Valley is a cutting edge place for technology development, New York City for the arts. Toledo, Ohio—not a place we usually think of as cutting edge—certainly qualifies as an avant-garde leader in the anti-hunger movement.

ProMedica and other community partners have joined forces to ensure a growing number of youngsters have meals after school.

Toledo is the headquarters of ProMedica, the largest health care provider in northwest Ohio and southeast Michigan. The company wants to change the way policymakers in the region look at the problem of hunger in their communities. The idea is to recast hunger as a health care priority, on

par with fighting illnesses such as diabetes, heart disease, and cancer. If ProMedica succeeds in doing this in the region, it could inspire other healthcare institutions around the country to do the same. Before long, this concept could change the way many more policymakers view the importance of eliminating hunger in their communities.

ProMedica has considerable influence on policy development in northwest Ohio and southeast Michigan, not only by virtue of being the largest healthcare provider but also because it is the region's largest employer. It operates 11 hospitals and more than 300 other healthcare facilities, employing 1,700 physicians, 14,000 other staff, and an additional 1,600 volunteers.⁵¹ When its government relations office talks to the governors of Ohio and Michigan, or to the mayors of cities where it provides services, and says that hunger and nutrition deserve their attention, the elected leaders may be inclined to listen in a different way than they do to traditional anti-hunger lobbyists.

Barb Petee, ProMedica's chief advocacy officer and head of its government relations department, is in charge of developing ProMedica's anti-hunger strategy. As a not-for-profit healthcare organization, its goals are to provide high quality, affordable care to everyone in the community, including underserved populations.



Courtesy ProMedica

Underserved populations include, by definition, the low-income households most at risk of hunger. “Think about how many pill bottles say “Take with Food,”” says Petee. “If there is no food in the home, that could slow a patient’s recovery or lead to readmission to the hospital.”

In analyzing readmissions, ProMedica discovered that food security issues affected many of its patients.⁵² Under the Affordable Care Act, hospitals will be penalized for readmissions. Healthcare reform has given doctors and healthcare organizations more reason to focus attention on hunger. It means doctors putting far more emphasis on prevention and wellness. That is a good thing, but will it change the way policymakers look at the tools at their disposal to promote prevention and wellness? As they take another look at the options, their eyes should land on the incredible return on investment offered by the federal nutrition programs.

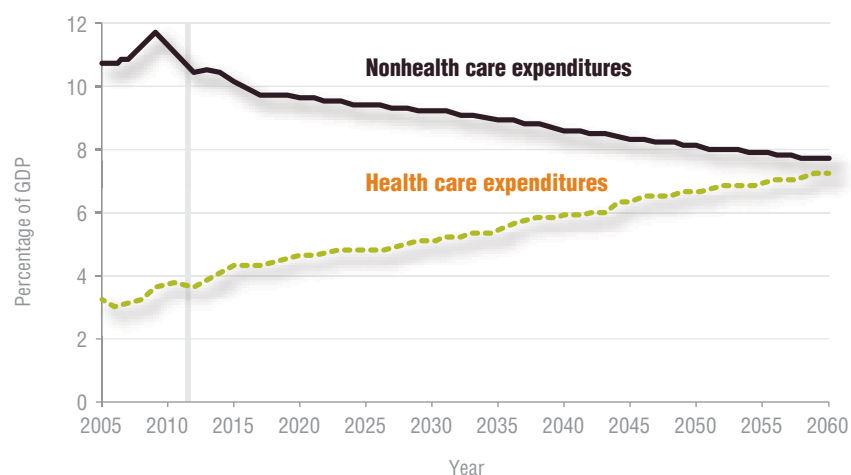
Health care is the fastest growing cost in government budgets at any level—federal, state, or local—and officials are well aware of the challenges they face in trying to control its costs. According to a 2013 report by the U.S. Government Accountability Office (GAO), “The primary driver of

fiscal challenges for the state and local government sector in the long term continues to be the projected growth in health-related costs.”⁵³ See Figure 4.7. Anything that can slow the rise of healthcare costs should be welcome news.

ProMedica’s internal campaign to raise awareness about hunger began by sharing information on the effects of hunger with employees, doctors, and board members. It meant going into healthcare facilities and talking to staff about what they could do at the different touch points in the delivery of care—at admission, in the doctor’s office, over the phone, on a home visit, or during routine procedures like a blood draw.⁵⁴ “If I’m a nurse,” says Barb Petee, “It’s probably not on my radar to ask the patient if she’s hungry.” Now it is. ProMedica also trains hospital staff to provide information and encouragement for eligible families to apply for SNAP benefits.

Petee realized that ProMedica needed to develop an external strategy to match its internal one. She has strengthened relations with partners in local and national anti-hunger infrastructure. She works with national partners like Share our Strength and the Alliance to End Hunger. In Toledo, she is working closely with local partners in the schools and groups involved in emergency feeding programs. These partners recognized the value of what ProMedica could bring to their efforts, and they have welcomed the new partner as more like a gentle giant than the 800-pound gorilla it could be perceived as. The sheer gravity of the

Figure 4.7 Health and Nonhealth Expenditures of State and Local Governments, as a Percentage of Gross Domestic Product



Source: U.S. Government Accountability Office (April 2013), *State and Local Government's Fiscal Outlook, April 2013 Update*.

situation led to an “all hands on deck” attitude. In the aftermath of the Great Recession in 2011, Toledo’s child poverty rate was 44 percent.⁵⁵

The impact that an institution the size of ProMedica could have on hunger in Toledo became clear at once when it joined its efforts with the other partners to increase the number of summer meals served. In 2010, Toledo served only 1,500 summer meals. A year later, the number rose to 45,000. The next year, it climbed to 100,000. A major reason for the

program’s fast growth was a public information campaign. Most anti-hunger organizations don’t have a lot of spare money for marketing. Nor do they usually have people in the organization with those skills. Marketing is a core component of what ProMedica does, so it was able to draw on resources from within the organization to build a successful campaign around summer meals.

Rebranding hunger as a health-care issue doesn’t change the fact that it is a problem rooted in poverty. Rebranding could, however, move local residents who would be predisposed to make quick judgments about poverty and poor people to consider solutions to hunger in terms of health care rather than “welfare.” If we talk about hunger only as an extension



Courtesy ProMedica

The Afterschool Meal Program focuses on serving meals in neighborhoods where more than half of the children qualify for subsidized school meals.

of poverty, it’s much easier to think of it as solely a personal problem that people need to solve themselves. It’s not society’s problem. The results can be seen in ordinary conversations: while many people consider it perfectly acceptable to excoriate “welfare recipients,” it’s almost never okay to make similar derogatory remarks about patients with chronic health problems.

One reason there is so little stigma attached to WIC compared to SNAP is because WIC includes health care checkups, leading the mothers who participate to see it as something completely different from welfare. Nutrition is so clearly associated with young children’s health and growth that it is natural for pediatricians to promote WIC. Doctors can write a prescription for WIC. What if they could write a prescription for SNAP? New York City has recently started allowing doctors to write a prescription for low-income patients with certain health conditions to purchase fresh fruit and vegetables at local farmers markets. The program is being financed privately. Similar privately financed efforts have been piloted in California, Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Mexico, Rhode Island, Texas, and Washington, D.C.⁵⁶

Healthcare professionals have been increasingly aware that they must do a better job of addressing the social determinants of disease, which include diet-related chronic health problems. For every dollar spent on health care, 75 cents goes to the treatment of chronic disease.⁵⁷ Between 1995 and 2010, the rates of diabetes increased by more than 50 percent in 42 states, according to the Centers for Disease Control.⁵⁸ At this rate, by 2050 one in three Americans will have diabetes, and most of it will be Type 2 diabetes, a diet-related condition.⁵⁹ Diabetes is associated with obesity, and obesity is not just the result of a preference for unhealthy foods. Often, it's about not being able to afford healthy foods.

ProMedica is not a lone voice in the healthcare sector attempting to change the way we think and talk about hunger. The American Pediatric Association (APA) and the American Association of Pediatrics

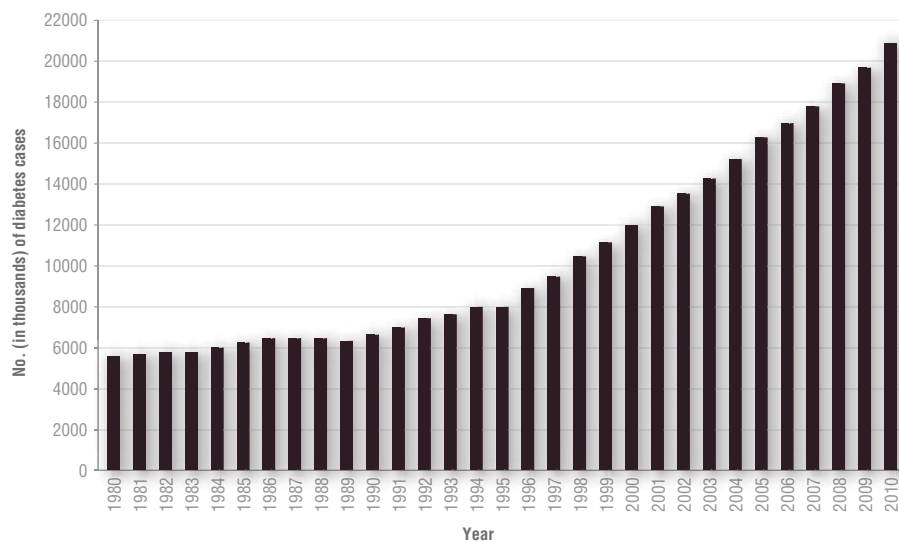
(AAP) “have both made reducing childhood poverty in the U.S. and alleviating the effects of poverty on child health and wellbeing a strategic priority.”⁶⁰ In a 2013 report by the APA taskforce on child poverty, written jointly with the AAP, the two groups call for a White House Conference on Children and Youth, reminding readers that between

“Rebranding hunger as a healthcare issue doesn’t change the fact that it is a problem rooted in poverty.”

1909 and 1970, seven such conferences were held in Washington, DC—roughly one every decade. The conferences involved the White House, branches of the administration, Congress, state-level leaders, and leaders in the medical field. The meetings contributed to major reforms in social policy that benefit all children in America, such as laws against child labor, enactment of maternal and child health programs, and the deinstitutionalization of children with disabilities.⁶¹

In October 2013, ProMedica and the Alliance to End Hunger, led by Tony Hall, convened the first-ever summit on hunger and health on Capitol Hill, *Come to the Table*. The main goal was to persuade more members of Congress to become anti-hunger champions by illustrating the relationships among reducing hunger, improving health outcomes, and holding down healthcare costs.

Figure 4.8 Annual Number of U.S. Adults Aged 18-79 Years with Diagnosed Diabetes, 1980-2010



Source: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2012), Diabetes Report Card, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

DATA DO-GOODERS: A NEW FORCE IN THE FIGHT AGAINST HUNGER

Derek Schwabe, Bread for the World Institute

In Washington, DC, a local non-profit, DC Action for Children, had years' worth of city-wide data on poverty, food access, SNAP participation, education, and health. What they needed was a way to make all that data accessible to community and city leaders who can change policy.

Enter DataKind—an energetic new organization that convenes pro-bono data scientists, developers, and designers to help non-profits unlock the power of their data. Through a weekend event called a DataDive, DataKind pooled the skills of local volunteers to create an interactive map that put all of DC Action's data in one place. The map disaggregated the data to the neighborhood level for the first time, enabling anyone to pinpoint statistics on poverty, education, and health in their community and see how they overlap. The DataDive signaled a transition for DC Action—away from lengthy static PDF documents and toward a cleaner way of communicating that makes information attractive and fits more in less space.

“Civic-minded techies are coming together in cities around the country and the world, giving concerned people with advanced computer skills a chance to address community problems like never before.”

DC Action was overwhelmed by the community's response to their new mapping tool. It drew unprecedented attention to the organization's work, driving up webpage views by 620 percent in one day. The innovative work has garnered recognition and innovation awards from respected organizations like the Annie E. Casey Foundation, the Rockefeller Foundation and the Global Editors Network. Most important, it has helped influence real changes in the allocation of city funding, targeting money to where the need is greatest. Since the map's debut, the city has increased funding for early intervention services, child care subsidies, and school-based mental health centers. Local policy

makers are now asking how the tool can be regularly updated to track the impact of policy decisions and publically funded programs and bring stronger accountability. DC Action has even gotten calls from city agencies looking to verify their own data.

Another data-minded group called Code for America matches talented web developers, designers, and entrepreneurs with forward-thinking city governments to help them harness technology to improve public services and government transparency. Through a fellowship program, these civic-hackers spend one year working in a sector of city government on a specific challenge. One team of fellows in New Orleans was asked to take on a growing problem of neighborhood blight. There were over 35,000 vacant properties scattered across the city that threatened neighborhood safety and economic vitality. Tracking down information on these properties was time-consuming, involving numerous calls to city agencies and trips to city offices.

In six weeks, the team of fellows and city officials pulled the data together into a one-stop online application called BlightStatus that made it easy for communities to map exactly where blighted properties were located, find out who owns them, and what their history was. The app was so successful that it spun out into a full-fledged startup called Civic Insight that now helps people track and solve blight in a number of cities.

Civic-minded techies are coming together in cities around the country and the world, giving concerned people with advanced computer skills a chance to address community problems like never before. They are building apps, maps, visualizations, and networks, and bringing this entirely new set of tools to the fight against hunger and poverty in their communities.

Derek Schwabe is the Hunger Report Fellow in Bread for the World Institute.

Volunteers collaborate on DC Action for Children's interactive map at a DataKind DataDive in Washington, DC.



DC Action for Children



Ending Extreme Poverty and Hunger Worldwide

Chapter Summary

The Millennium Development Goal (MDG) target of cutting hunger in half by 2015 is clearly within reach. Recent data show that the world has made more progress against hunger than previously thought. But progress against malnutrition has been too slow. Globally, 1 in 4 children are stunted. Chronic malnutrition poses one of the gravest threats to human development and achieving sustainable progress on other MDGs. Reducing malnutrition remains part of the unfinished agenda of the MDGs. As international debate around a post-2015 agenda intensifies, the United States should provide leadership and work with the global community to forge a unified and universal set of global development goals that includes a specific goal to end hunger and achieve food security and good nutrition by 2030. It should also include indicators that advance women's economic empowerment, community resilience, and good governance and effective institutions.

MAIN RECOMMENDATIONS IN THIS CHAPTER

- The international community should make a concerted push to achieve the MDG targets by the December 2015 deadline.
- The international community must reach agreement on a set of development goals to succeed the MDGs.
- The next development goals should be for all countries, including the United States.
- The post-2015 development goals should include a stand-alone goal to end hunger by 2030 and achieve global food security and good nutrition for all.
- The next round of development goals should underscore the need to strengthen local capacity and resilience in low-income countries.

Why the Millennium Development Goals Matter

Global poverty is now falling with unprecedented speed. More people escaped poverty during the 2000s than in any other decade in history. Even more importantly, progress was made in every major region of the world. According to the World Bank, the percentage

of people living below the international poverty line (\$1.25 per person per day) has fallen already by more than half since 1990; the MDG target of cutting poverty in half by 2015 has been reached.¹ Accelerating this progress and reaching those left behind should be the focus of a post-2015 development framework.

The MDGs are the global community's most holistic approach yet to human development. Since they were set in 2000, the MDGs have become embedded in national development strategies; they also provide a framework for international donor agencies to align their support.² In the 2000s, as more aid became available to help achieve



UN Photo/David Ohana

U.N. Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon (center) walks with President Barack Obama outside the 37th G8 Summit in Deauville, France, in May 2011.

the MDGs, the resources dedicated to tracking progress also increased—with far-reaching improvements in accountability.³ “Although it seems obvious today to track progress on intended targets,” says Todd Moss of the Center for Global Development in Washington, DC, “common practice in the past was simply to calculate inputs: how much money was spent, how many books were bought, etc., rather than on the hoped-for changes in countries, such as healthier and more educated people. In fact, the approach of finding out how we are actually doing is obvious now in part because of the [MDGs].”⁴

Perhaps the greatest contribution of the MDGs is their role in encouraging the emergence of a new international social norm. The MDGs provided a lens to focus public attention. In the words of David Hulme and James Scott of the University of Manchester in the United Kingdom, they succeeded in “showing extreme poverty as morally unacceptable in an affluent world.”⁵ The MDGs have a fair share of critics, and they are certainly not perfect. But the

\$3.5 trillion:

the economic cost of malnutrition, equal to **5 percent** of global Gross Domestic Product.¹

34 countries are home to **90 percent** of the world's children stunted by malnutrition.²

point is that nothing like them has been tried before. The MDGs are the longest-standing global agreement to fight poverty in human history. That's why it would be a major step backward for the whole world if the MDGs turned out to be a short-lived, one-off experiment.

The next round of goals must be universal, requiring all countries to end hunger and poverty at home and work together to support leadership in low-income countries where the effort will require support from outside. Unlike in 2000, when the MDGs were established, 72 percent of the world's poor people now live in middle-income countries.⁶ To end hunger and poverty, a future set of goals will have to apply to middle-income and high-income countries as well.

Global development goals that apply to every country may well be necessary to win widespread political support for a new round of goals. The balance of power in the world has shifted since the MDGs were negotiated. Large middle-income countries such as China, India, and Brazil—home to many of the poor people who now live in middle-

income countries—are unlikely to let high-income countries escape setting goals of their own.⁸

In 2012, nearly 49 million people in the United States lived in households that experienced hunger or struggle to keep food on the table.⁷ This report starts by arguing for a goal to end hunger and poverty in the United States. We need these goals to drive progress just as they have in Ethiopia and Bangladesh.

The United States has not made significant progress against poverty since the mid-1970s. Many Americans have come to think the current levels of poverty are inevitable, the new normal. When Americans hear that the world as a whole has made great progress against poverty, they sometimes become more open to the possibility of dramatically reducing hunger and poverty in our own country. At the same time, if we can achieve progress against poverty and inequality in the United States, American voters may become more inclined to favor increasing U.S. support for poverty reduction worldwide.



UN Photo/Kibae Park

A child in Dhaka's Kariakhan slum, Bangladesh.

38.5 percent:
the world land
area dedicated to
agriculture.³

By 2050 food production needs to increase by **70 percent**, but the total arable area in developing countries may increase by no more than **12 percent**, mostly in sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America.⁴

The Final Stretch: The Global Hunger Target Within Reach

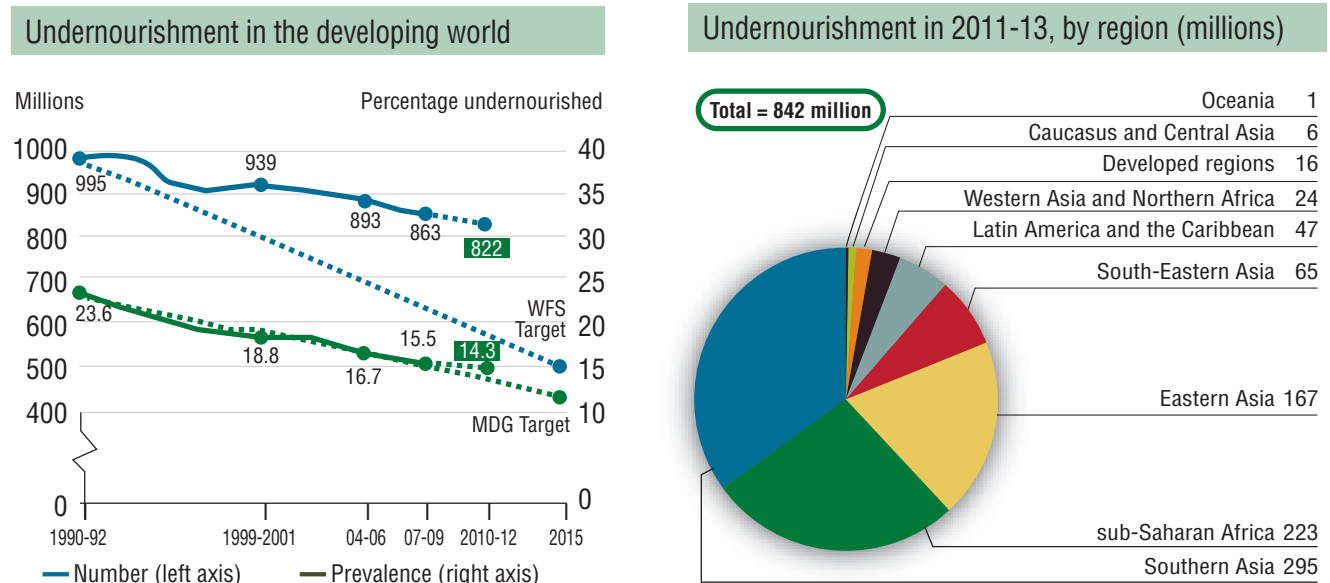
With just over two years left to the MDG deadline of December 2015, now is the time for an intensive effort to reach the MDG hunger target of cutting in half the proportion of people around the world who are undernourished, meaning “hungry.” In the developing world, the hunger rate decreased from 23.2 percent in 1990–1992 to 14.3 percent in 2011–2013. This puts the MDG hunger target within reach. The United States has led a global effort to invest more in agriculture and nutrition in low-income countries. If these efforts are maintained and intensified, we can achieve the MDG hunger goal of cutting hunger in half between 1990 and 2015.

Reducing all forms of malnutrition will help achieve many of the MDGs by ending preventable child deaths and building smart, strong, and resilient individuals, communities, and economies. Hunger is a form of malnutrition, resulting from an insufficient food intake and too little calories. There is also another type of malnutrition, known as hidden hunger, resulting from insufficient intake of vitamins and other micro-nutrients. Every dollar invested in nutrition generates as much as \$138 in better health outcomes and increased productivity,⁹ and of the “10 best buys in development” identified by a group of top economists, five are nutrition interventions.¹⁰

Chronic malnutrition is an enormous drain on a country’s financial and human resources, translating into deficits of several billion dollars a year. In sub-Saharan Africa, an estimated 41 percent of all children younger than 5 is malnourished.¹¹ It is the only region in the world

“Chronic malnutrition is an enormous drain on a country’s financial and human resources, translating into deficits of several billion dollars a year.”

Figure 5.1 Global Progress on Hunger to Date



Source: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nation, *The State of Food Insecurity in the World* (2013)

where the number of child deaths is increasing, and the only one projected to suffer further increases in food insecurity and absolute poverty.¹²

Improving nutrition among pregnant women, lactating mothers and young children, in particular, is crucial to ending preventable child deaths and to unlocking the potential of the millions of children who face early childhood malnutrition. Malnutrition during the critical period between pregnancy and the second birthday, often called the “1,000-day” window, causes irreversible physical and cognitive damage. In 2008, the leading British medical journal *The Lancet* declared that malnutrition among children younger than 2 is a global development challenge of the greatest urgency. Nutrition interventions during this window have a profound impact on the long-term economic development and stability of entire nations.



UN Photo/Martine Perret

The United States works through its global food security initiative, Feed the Future, to emphasize the urgent need to improve maternal and child nutrition.¹³ Bread for the World and other anti-hunger organizations have urged U.S. policymakers to use investments in Feed the Future to promote maternal and child nutrition in the 1,000-day window.

In South Sudan, Murle women, children, and the elderly began to assemble at the World Food Program (WFP) facility in Gumuruk, Jonglei State, in search of food assistance.

Moving Forward: A Post-2015 Agenda

With increased political support, it is indeed feasible to imagine a world free from hunger by 2030. The global community must build on the achievements of the MDGs so far and redouble its efforts. This is the time. The final push and a strong finish by 2015 are critical to building momentum and creating an appetite for a universal post-2015 development framework.

In May 2013, the High Level Panel on the post-2015 development agenda—a group tasked with advising the United Nations Secretary General—released its report *A New Global Partnership: Eradicate Poverty and Transform Economies through Sustainable Development*. The report advocates five “global shifts”:

- Leave no one behind;
- Put sustainable development at the core;
- Transform economies for jobs and inclusive growth;
- Build peace and effective, open, and accountable institutions for all;
- Forge a new global partnership.

The panel also recommended that the post-2015 agenda adopt a goal to achieve food security and good nutrition for all, emphasize the economic empowerment of women and girls, improve governance and institutions, and integrate equality and shared prosperity into all of the development goals so that no one is left behind.

In July 2013, U.N. Secretary General Ban Ki-moon released a report outlining his vision for

the post-2015 agenda—*A life of dignity for all: accelerating progress toward the Millennium Development Goals and advancing the United Nations development agenda beyond 2015*. The report calls for a universal development agenda that promotes inclusivity. This is very important. In order to be considered “met,” a target must be reached by all relevant income and social groups—thus ensuring a measure of inclusiveness that would be overlooked by basing progress on averages alone.

The post-2015 development agenda provides an opportunity to promote equitable growth in all countries. It is also an opportunity to recognize linkages across key areas: food security and good nutri-



UN Photo/Logan Abassi

A mother and young daughter at the general hospital in Port au Prince, Haiti.

tion; agricultural development; women’s economic empowerment; and good governance, effective institutions and strengthening local capacity. Goals should be formulated in ways that capture the great potential of coordinated approaches, which have proven to be highly effective in responding to multiple development challenges.

Nutrition

In a new set of global development goals, reducing stunting rates should be explicit and prominent. Stunting is the leading cause of death and disability among children under 5. Today, there are 165 million stunted children around the world. Being far too short for their age is only the most visible sign. Their cognitive and physical development have been compromised by chronic malnutrition, and for their entire lives, they will be more likely to suffer from health problems—all of which will make them less productive than they could be.¹⁴ In the end, stunting is a tragedy for individuals and families that also impedes a nation’s ability to develop economically.¹⁵

In 2012, the World Health Assembly called for reducing the number of malnourished children by at least 40 percent by 2025.¹⁶ This will require a nearly 4 percent reduction in stunting each year. This rate of progress has been achieved in countries that are making significant nutrition-specific investments, as well as nutrition-sensitive investments. Nutrition-specific investments are directly related to food intake—for example, school-feeding

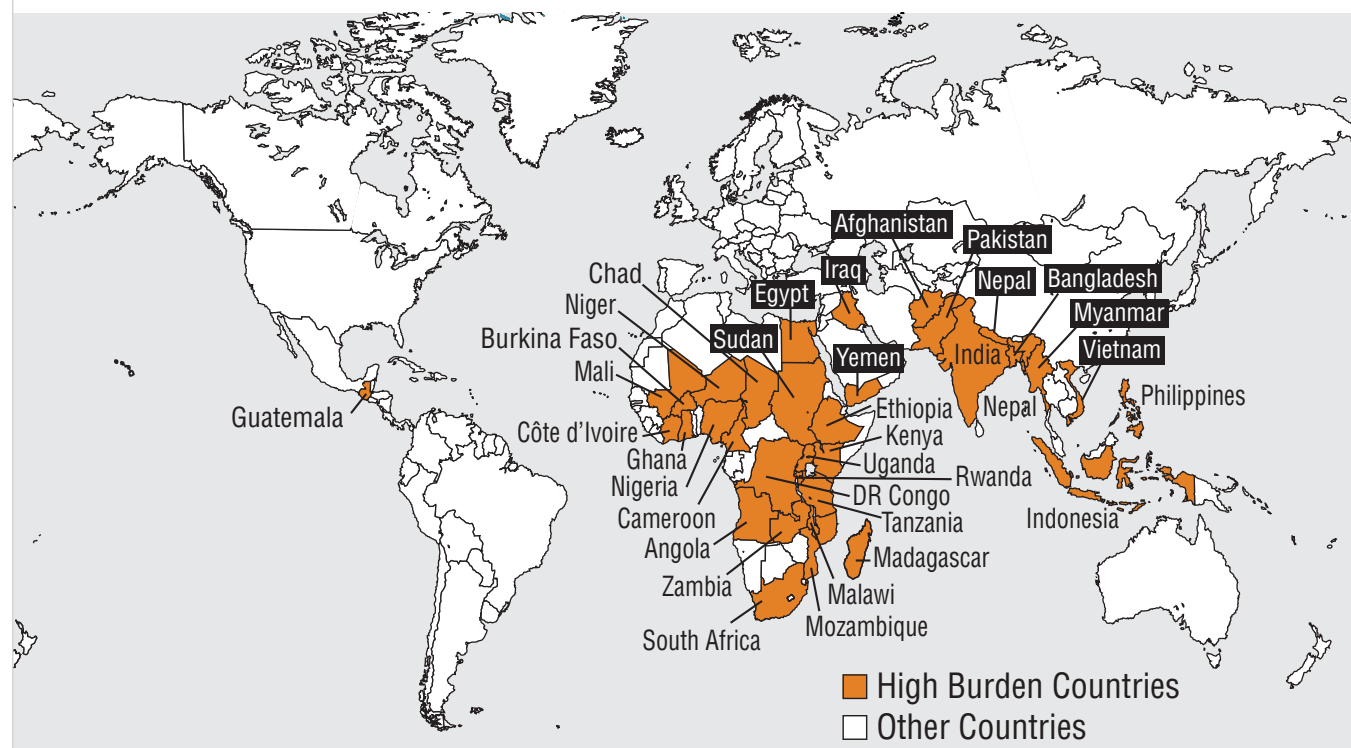
programs. Nutrition-sensitive relates to underlying determinants of good nutrition, such as investments in agriculture, health, or education. Homestead gardening programs are an agriculture investment that is nutrition sensitive. In Bangladesh, Helen Keller International (HKI) provided seeds and technical assistance to village families to grow nutrient-rich vegetables. In Bangladesh, a poor family's diet consists of rice and little else. Vitamin A deficiency causes 30,000 children in Bangladesh to go blind every year. HKI reported the children participating in the program consumed significantly more nutrient-rich food. The surplus of vegetables also contributed to raising family incomes.

The Lancet identified 10 evidence-based interventions proven to have an impact on the nutrition and health of children. The cost of scaling up these interventions in the 34 countries with 90 percent of the world's malnourished children would be \$9.6 billion annually.¹⁷ It would result in a million lives saved and avert a fifth of all stunting.¹⁸ Shared among developing countries and donors, this should be easily affordable. It is not just money that is needed. Many developing countries don't have the institutional capacity to plan and deliver nutrition interventions at scale.¹⁹

The good news on nutrition is that the governments of many of the most affected countries are committing leadership and resources, donor funding is rising, and civil society

“Stunting is the leading cause of death and disability among children under 5.”

Figure 5.2 Countries with the Highest Burden of Malnutrition



These 34 countries account for 90% of the global burden of malnutrition.

Source: *The Lancet*, 2013.

and the private sector are increasingly engaged. Recent commitments made at the June 2013 Nutrition for Growth High-Level Meeting²⁰ hosted by the governments of the United Kingdom, Brazil and the Children's Investment Fund Foundation will be critical in filling the funding gap. In preparation for the June 2013 meeting, the U.S. government identified \$10 billion a year in nutrition-specific and nutrition-sensitive investments, including food aid, agricultural development, and health. The U.S. government committed itself to developing a whole-of-government nutrition strategy and will improve the impact of its programming by adopting the evidence-based approaches that are being promoted by the Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN) movement.

The SUN movement brings together countries—41 at last count—that are committed to expanding effective, evidence-based nutrition actions so that they reach all young children and pregnant women at risk of malnutrition. The SUN movement is supporting SUN countries in developing and implementing country-specific strategies. Each SUN country identifies priorities and promotes both specific nutrition interventions that focus on the 1,000-day window and nutrition-sensitive policies. SUN has great promise, and its efforts must be supported because malnutrition remains one of the biggest challenges to development in high-burden countries.

Agricultural Development

The evidence is clear that agriculture-led growth is far more effective in reducing hunger and poverty than growth driven by other sectors.²¹ From 1993 to 2002, for example, poverty declined rapidly in East and Southeast Asia. More than 80 percent of the decline was attributable to better conditions in rural areas, where agriculture was a source of livelihood for 86 percent of the population.²²

Economic growth that does not include agriculture as a leading sector often fails to help hungry and poor people. For example, Tanzania's economy has been growing steadily over the past 10 years—by an average of 6.9 percent a year. Five sectors were the source of almost 60

BOX 5.1

NUTRITION-SENSITIVE APPROACHES TO DEVELOPMENT

- **Agriculture:** Making nutritious food more accessible to everyone, and supporting small farms as a source of income for women and families;
- **Clean Water and Sanitation:** Improving access to reduce infection and disease;
- **Education and Employment:** Making sure children have the energy that they need to learn and earn sufficient income as adults;
- **Health Care:** Improving access to services to ensure that women and children stay healthy;
- **Support for Resilience:** Establishing a stronger, healthier population and sustained prosperity to better endure emergencies and conflicts; and
- **Women's Empowerment:** At the core of all efforts, women are empowered to be leaders in their families and communities, leading the way to a healthier and stronger world.

Source: <http://scalingupnutrition.org/about>

percent of Tanzania's economic growth between 2008 and 2012: communications, banking and financial services, retail trade, construction, and manufacturing. The five leading growth sectors are concentrated in urban areas, but about 80 percent of Tanzania's poor people live in rural areas.²³ This urban focus explains why years of steady economic growth has not significantly lowered Tanzania's poverty rate.²⁴

Today, more than half of the world's 848 million hungry and malnourished people live in rural areas and depend on agriculture for their livelihoods.²⁵ In 2008, the number of hungry people in the world surged perhaps by more than 100 million as a result of doubling food prices.²⁶ The food-price crisis was a wake-up call for the international community about the need for a much greater focus on agricultural development in developing countries.

In July 2009, Group of 8 (G-8) leaders representing eight developed economies gathered in L'Aquila, Italy, where a U.S. proposal to invest significantly more resources in agriculture won support from other donors. In what became known as the L'Aquila Food Security Initiative, G-8 members committed to providing \$22 billion in financing for agriculture and food security over three years. More than four years into the L'Aquila initiative, the United States has fulfilled its pledge of \$3.5 billion, but other donors are falling short. The primary U.S. contribution is the Feed the Future initiative.

A projected surge in world population to 9 billion by 2050,²⁷ accompanied by only slight increases in available farmland, means that additional production will need to come from strategies that increase productivity. The coming years are also likely to create additional stress on agricultural production. Climate change—the long-term shifts in temperatures now taking place and expected to continue, and the results of those shifts—is expected to increase the frequency of shocks such as flooding and drought. Around the world, climate change is already damaging food and water security in significant and highly unpredictable ways. Increased investments in agricultural research and extension and rural infrastructure will help prepare for these challenges. Extension services can help farmers adopt new technolo-

BOX 5.2

MDGS AND FOOD PRICES

“When food prices surged in 2007-2008, we were not as flatfooted as we would have been without the Millennium Development Goals,” says Cheryl Morden of the International Fund for Agricultural Development.³⁰ It was the MDGs that prompted world leaders to ask questions like “Who is poor and hungry?” and “Where are they?” One answer became clear: 70 percent of people in extreme poverty who are hungry live in rural areas. “Because the Millennium Development Goals helped them to see the depth of rural poverty,” says Morden, “world leaders responded swiftly with aid targeted to smallholder farmers, the largest group of rural poor.”

gies and improved seeds and livestock varieties, build farmers' knowledge and skills, and encourage them to form networks for sharing information. Donors should support effective local, national, and regional agriculture efforts. For example, the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Program (CAADP) is working to create the right technical and regulatory environment for agriculture and to strengthen agricultural innovation systems.

In developing countries, significant volumes of grain are lost after harvest. The annual cost of grain losses to African countries is estimated at \$4 billion, an amount that could provide food every day of the year for at least 48 million people.²⁸ This is far more than the continent receives in food aid—in fact, \$4 billion is equal to two-thirds of all the food aid provided to sub-Saharan Africa from 1998 to 2008 (an estimated \$6.1 billion). Building infrastructure to support the food supply chain will help reduce grain losses as well as improve food quality and safety, generate more income, and contribute to food and nutritional security.²⁹ International finance institutions and the private sector should join donor countries in assisting recipient countries in strengthening their capacity to prevent post-harvest losses.

Women's Economic Empowerment

More than 50 percent of the reduction in hunger from 1970 to 1995 is attributed to improvements in women's status in society. It is true that the lives of girls and women have

changed dramatically over the past 50 years. While the pace of change has been astonishing in some areas, progress toward gender equality has been limited in others. Hunger and poverty remain stubbornly "feminized"—globally, 70 percent of people living in absolute poverty are female.³¹ In too many households and communities, women and girls are often the last to eat.

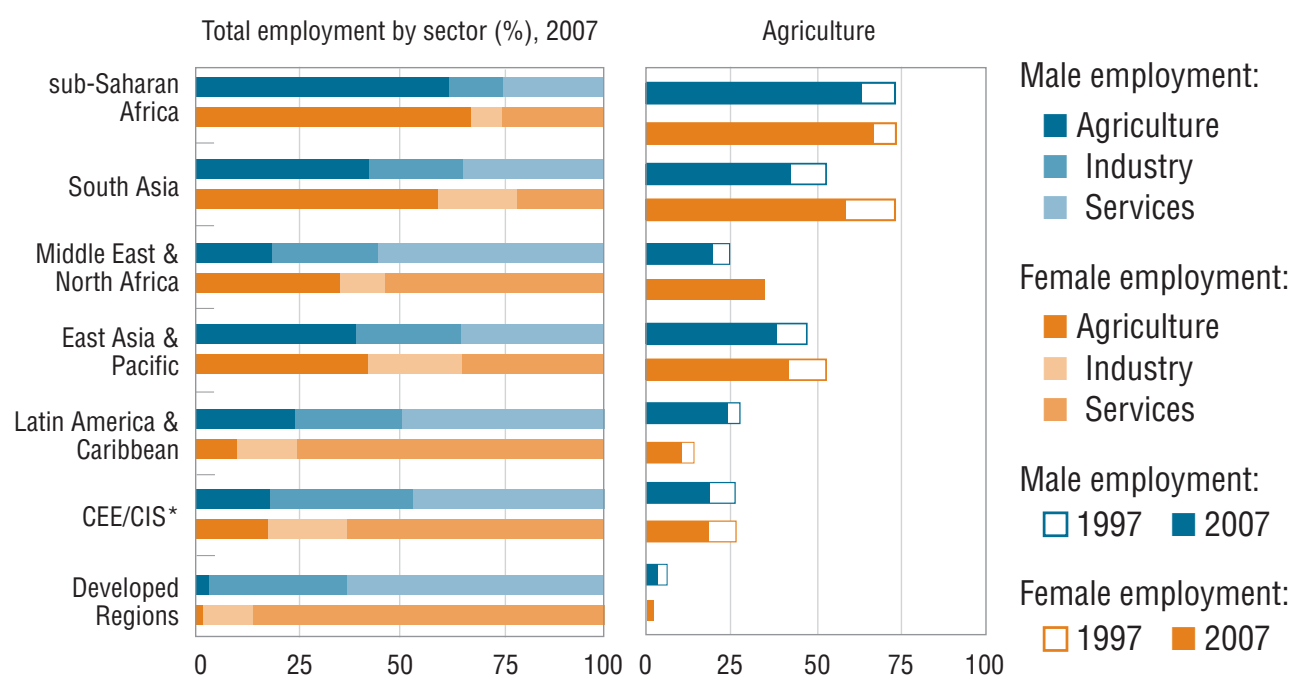
In 2011, a severe drought struck the Eastern region of Guatemala, leading the U.S. government to send food aid. Without the food aid, many children there might have died from malnutrition, and this is what almost happened anyway to a five-year-old girl



Laura Elizabeth Pohl for Bread for the World

Tohomina Akter, 18,
washes herself at the
neighborhood well
in Char Baria village,
Barisal, Bangladesh.

named Gilma. Gilma has four siblings, all of them boys, and that means she and her mother eat last and often there is nothing left for them. Her greatest disadvantage is not that she is a poor child in a region where food is often scarce, but that she is a poor girl there. By November 2011, Gilma was suffering from a condition known as severe acute malnutrition. Her legs were swollen and ulcerated, as happens when children suffer such severe malnutrition. Gilma was fortunate in that her village was receiving food aid. Save the Children, the NGO administering the food aid program, contacted health officials when Gilma slipped

Figure 5.3 **Employment by Sector (as a share of total employment) by Gender**

* Central and Eastern Europe/Commonwealth of Independent States.

Source: United Nation's Development Fund for Women, 2008.

from moderate to severe acute malnutrition. She is alive today because of the persistence of Save the Children staff in getting the officials' attention.

Gender equality and the economic empowerment of women are preconditions for overcoming poverty, hunger, and malnutrition. Therefore, they must be given priority in the post-2015 development agenda. Evidence shows that reducing gender inequality increases agricultural productivity. Removing discriminatory land and labor laws, improving their access to tools, fertilizers, and credit could be a game-changer in the fight against hunger and malnutrition. Raising women's income has been shown to improve children's nutrition, health, and education.³² The fate of children is directly tied to the status of their mothers. A woman's level of education is a key factor in determining whether her children will even survive to the age of 5.³³

“Gender equality and the economic empowerment of women are preconditions for overcoming poverty, hunger, and malnutrition.”

The U.S. government has intentionally focused on women smallholder farmers in its approach to reducing hunger and malnutrition. In 2012, the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID), partnering with the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) and the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative, launched the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI).³⁴ WEAI was developed to track changes in women's empowerment levels as a direct or indirect result of interventions under Feed the Future. WEAI measures women's roles in the agriculture sector

and the extent of their engagement in five domains, each with indicators that are assessed individually. These are production (e.g., the degree of autonomy a woman has in agricultural production); resources (e.g., access to credit and equipment); income (e.g., control over expenditures); leadership (e.g., comfort speaking in public); and time (e.g., satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the amount of leisure time available). It measures these dimensions both for women independently and relative to men in the same household. A woman is assigned an empowerment score, and the man also gets a score. “We’ve developed a tool that can dramatically reshape our policy response,” says Emily Hogue of USAID’s Bureau for Food Security.³⁵ “There really is nothing like this.” Having this information will enable USAID and its partners to tailor strategies to make the most difference in helping women overcome the barriers they face.

Good Governance, Effective Institutions and Local Capacity Strengthening

Governance and accountability, though not formally mentioned in the MDGs, are recognized as crucial dimensions of development and should be incorporated throughout the

post-2015 development agenda. Cross-country evidence has shown how poor governance and corruption harm a country’s population. Corruption siphon off resources needed to provide services to poor people and equip them to improve their lives. Each time poor people are forced to pay bribes, they are stripped of what little income they have. Corruption also leads to the misuse of government resources that could serve the public good. Corrupt officials, wherever in the system they may be, undermine confidence in government institutions and the very idea of government itself.

Improving governance is essential to further progress on develop-

ment; “big issues” surrounding governance, political will, capacity, and leadership need to be thoughtfully incorporated into the approach to a new set of global development goals. The topic was conspicuously absent from the MDGs, which said in effect that it doesn’t matter how countries reach targets as long as they get there. This may be good enough to cut hunger and poverty in half, or maybe more—but actually eliminating hunger and extreme poverty will mean dealing with difficult issues that stall progress. The corrosive effects of government corruption are just one example of how governance problems under-



File photo

The U.N. Secretary General has endorsed a post-2015 development agenda that includes a goal on peace and effective governance.

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

The United States and other development partners should explicitly support a goal on good governance, effective leadership and the institutions that make them work. This should include a focus on citizen participation and strengthening capacity for institutional and policy change. An example in Ghana shows how the U.S. government could support this kind of capacity strengthening through its development partners in the NGO community. The Development Action Association (DAA) is a Ghanaian NGO that provides technical assistance to women farmers in villages across the country. DAA's leaders received advocacy training from the U.S. NGO Women Thrive Worldwide. The training came in handy in 2012 when DAA members participated in a nationwide lobbying effort to change the laws that affected their livelihoods. In Ghana, the traditional way agricultural products are measured is with cups and bowls, a practice that makes it easy for buyers to cheat producers, especially those who are poorly educated, which describes many of the women farmers in DAA. Before they received the advocacy training, few of the women from DAA who participated in the lobbying campaign would have dared to speak up in public, but the training gave them the confidence. In 2012, the government banned the use of the traditional measuring instruments in place of scales.

Leveling the playing field so that women and men have equal chances to actively engage socially and politically—to make decisions and shape policies—is likely to lead over time to more representative and more inclusive institutions and policies. Evidence suggests a direct correlation between a country's policy and institutional framework and progress towards the MDGs.³⁶ This also will help local stakeholders “own” national development goals. Both the High Level Panel on the Post-2015 Development Agenda and the U.N Secretary General



Todd Post/Bread for the World

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

Ban Ki-moon have endorsed a goal on peace and effective governance based on the rule of law and sound institutions.

Strengthening local capacities and institutions remains a major challenge for the effective design and implementation of development programs and policies. Some past efforts to strengthen local capacity have been hindered by a lack of focus on indicators of success

and whether there are, in fact, any concrete results to show improved capacity. Capacity development has traditionally been associated with knowledge transfer and training of individuals, yet it is a complex, non-linear and long-term change process in which no single factor (e.g., information, education and training, technical assistance, policy advice) is by itself an explanation for the development of capacity. Development results should be measured not only by short-term outputs, or even by longer-term outcomes, but also by how well actors such as donors, civil society, the private sector, and national governments engage local, national, and



Todd Post/Bread for the World

Agnes Kirabo of the Ugandan civil society organization VEDCO addresses members of a community who have been forcibly displaced from lands held by their families for generations. Poverty reduction in Africa is directly related to improving land governance.

regional leaders in strengthening country systems. Ultimately, developing capacity is about addressing the specific needs of partner countries and communities through three inter-linked dimensions: individual, organizational, and enabling environment.

The United States through its USAID Forward reform agenda should continue to emphasize a results-driven and systemic framework—based on rigorous needs assessment, innovative change process logic, and participatory implementation—that is driven by genuine local ownership, adaptive management, and measurable results. Within the USAID Forward reform agenda, Feed the Future is a good place to start. Its implementation should be used to illustrate the value of the U.S. government's renewed commitment to strengthening local capacity in countries.

At the global level, good governance of the food system is an indispensable element for achieving food security and nutrition, and it calls for greater transparency and food policy coherence. This means that improving the likelihood of reaching the hunger target depends not just on increased productivity, but also and quite critically on an enabling policy environment for responsible investments. Realizing this goal will require expanded, less restricted regional and global trade to make food production more efficient and ensure that agricultural crops and livestock are produced in countries with the most abundant or inexpensive inputs. The Group of 20 (G-20) and others should also make more effort to liberalize trade in agriculture and agree to avoid export restrictions on food.

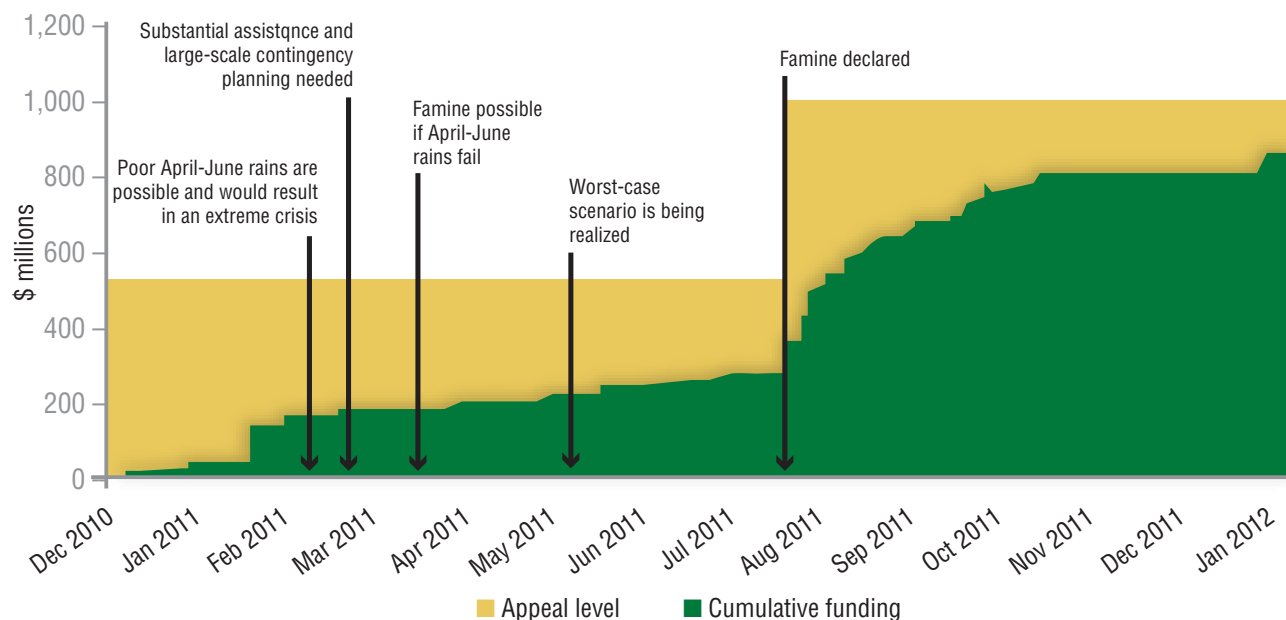
Resilience and Sustainability

Food emergencies can occur suddenly or slowly. What makes them unmanageable is the political response, or lack thereof. This was starkly apparent in Somalia during the 2010-2011 food emergency, which later crossed the threshold into famine. For months, the Famine Early Warning Systems Network (FEWSNET) pointed to an impending famine. Crops dried up, livestock died, and desperation spread. But the humanitarian system did not mobilize until the window of opportunity to prevent the worst had closed. Women carrying skeletal babies for hundreds of miles to find food in refugee camps were a telling sign that the early warning system had failed for lack of swift response. There is still no accurate count of how many died but they include tens of thousands of young children.

Sudden, dramatic spikes in staple food prices affect poor families worst of all because they spend up to 70 percent of their incomes on food. Prices spiked in 2007-2008, and then fell somewhat in 2009. The cycle was repeated in 2010-2011, again creating an urgent need to help people most vulnerable to hunger. The worst-affected countries were net food importers, where hunger and malnutrition rates soared. In the majority of these countries, households with children younger than 2 were found to be consuming significantly fewer calories than before the rapid price increases began.³⁷

“Preparing to feed 9 billion people in a sustainable way requires our urgent attention now, not when all 9 billion of us are already here.”

Figure 5.4 **2011 Somalia Consolidated Appeal and Selected Early Warnings**



Source: OCHA Financial Tracking Services (FTS), FEWSNET, Chatham House analysis.

In 2012, Guatemala launched the Zero Hunger Pact, with one of its goals to reduce rural poverty, especially among indigenous women.

The G-20 is not specifically a venue to discuss development assistance, but food prices have risen to the top of its agenda. At a June 2011 meeting, agriculture ministers of the G-20 countries called for more transparency in commodity markets and committed their countries to collectively establish an early warning system that would collect information on food stocks, crop supply and demand levels. The ministers agreed also “to ensure that national food-based safety nets can work at times when food prices rise sharply and governments cannot access the food required for these safety nets at an affordable price.”³⁸ It is far more cost-effective—and obviously more effective in preventing human suffering and death—to build social protection programs than to fly in emergency rations.

Responding effectively to climate change means building resilience in communities

where people have always struggled to produce enough food. It demands strong and organized political leadership, infrastructure, and resources at all levels—local, regional, national, and international. Strengthening local capacity to create and implement informed, effective adaptation measures is vital to building resilience.

Guatemala joins a growing list of developing countries affected by climate change. Agricultural production has fallen as a result of effects from climate change. In some areas of the country, it shows up as drought, while in others climate change brings severe storms. Guatemala has a persistently high chronic malnutrition rate—comparable to those of the poorest countries in Africa and Asia.³⁹ Climate change is far from the only reason that so many Guatemalan children are chronically malnourished. Given the large size of the U.S. footprint on climate change, the United States bears some responsibility for helping its neighbors to weather the changes. Added to this question of basic fairness is the reality that, given its proximity, any losing battle to adapt to climate change in Central America would almost certainly affect the United States.

Immigration from Latin America is at the center of the debate on immigration policy in the United States—yet very little attention has been paid to the conditions that drive people



Scott Bleggi/Bread for the World

in Latin America to enter the United States illegally. There are more undocumented immigrants from Guatemala in the United States than from any other country except Mexico and El Salvador—an estimated 520,000 people in 2010.⁴⁰ Guatemala's success in adapting to climate change depends mainly on what Guatemalans do. But the United States can provide much-needed support through development and emergency relief programs and by reducing its greenhouse gas emissions.

In June 2013, President Obama announced a plan to cut carbon emissions in the United States. The president is right to make climate change a priority for his second term. The plan needs to go beyond cutting carbon emissions to include commitments to scale up the adaptive capacity of poor communities at the country and regional levels. Climate change demands a multifaceted approach that includes promoting resilient communities, fostering low-carbon growth, and reducing emissions from deforestation and land degradation. It should be integrated into all relevant foreign assistance programs. Preparing to feed 9 billion people in a sustainable way requires our urgent attention now, not when all 9 billion of us are already here.

Partnership in a Rapidly Changing World

In the United Nations' MDG progress report for 2012, U.N. Secretary General Ban Ki-moon writes that continued progress in poverty reduction and other development outcomes depends on the global partnership for development.⁴¹ To achieve lasting progress against hunger and poverty, partners have to be adaptable to changing circumstances. In the years ahead, we can count on many new challenges and the need to adapt. Because of climate change, for example, there is now understanding about how to build a sustainable agriculture system, ensure an adequate global food supply, and help the most vulnerable people (and that includes “climate refugees”). The global partnership for development must continue to evolve and rise to such challenges.



UN Photo/Tobin Jones

A group of Somali men sit waiting for food aid at a distribution center in Afgoye, Somalia.



Re-Engaging Americans in the Search for Lasting Solutions

Sarah Burd-Sharps and Kristen Lewis, Social Science Research Council

Fresno County, California, leads the nation in agricultural productivity, with an annual agricultural output valued at \$6.8 billion. Fresno farms yield a cornucopia of fresh food, producing more grapes, chicken, turkey, milk, tomatoes, peaches, plums, and almonds—among others—than any other U.S. county. Paradoxically, Fresno also has a higher rate of food insecurity than any other California county. One in five residents—more than 190,000 people—experience times when they don’t have enough food for an active, healthy life.¹ There’s no better illustration that hunger in the United States is not due to a lack of food than Fresno, a county whose workers literally feed America, yet often cannot feed themselves.

The presence of hunger amid plenty is profoundly troubling, its persistence even more so. If we’re being honest with ourselves, while the composition of the hungry population has certainly shifted over time, we have failed to move the needle on this issue in any fundamental way for more than a decade. U.S. Department of Agriculture statistics show household food insecurity hovering just under 12 percent from 1998 to 2007, after which it rose above 14 percent in the aftermath of the Great Recession. The household food insecurity rate in 2012 was 14.5 percent, which translates to nearly 49 million Americans.²

The puzzling part is that this problem endures despite excellent research about the root causes of food insecurity, years of advocacy, important policy reforms, innovative programs on the ground to feed people, the dedication

“Measure of America’s aim is to rethink the ways in which we as a society understand and measure disadvantage, with a view to reframing the debate and re-engaging Americans in the search for lasting solutions.”

of myriad volunteers, and significant financial resources. Collectively, the government and private organizations spent about \$115 billion fighting hunger in 2011. That's \$315 million—about \$17.50 for each hungry family—every single day.

There's so much first-rate work being done to understand and address hunger in America,

and the richest country in the world certainly lacks neither money nor food. We need to figure out how to pull this work together such that it equals more than the sum of its parts.

Measure of America's aim is to rethink the ways in which we as a society understand and measure disadvantage, with a view to reframing the debate and re-engaging Americans in the search for lasting solutions. One way we do this is by using numbers to tell the story of what's going on with everyday Americans. *Measure of America's* American Human Development Index is the cornerstone of this work. Another is to highlight what's working, not just in the



UN Photo/Eskinder Debebe

The Millennium Summit at the United Nations in 2000, when and where the Millennium Development Goals were launched. Tarja Halonen, president of Finland and co-chair of the Millennium Summit, addresses the assembly.

United States but also around the world, to improve well-being and expand opportunity.

In September 2000, leaders from 189 countries met at the United Nations and agreed to work jointly toward eight measurable, time-bound goals to reduce global poverty—goals such as halving the percentage of people who are undernourished, reaching 100 percent elementary school enrollment, and providing access to HIV/AIDS treatment for everyone who needs it. They were called the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

The MDG rallying cry did not, of course, solve all of the world's problems, but it spurred tremendous action and results. The global target to cut the proportion of people living in extreme poverty by half was reached ahead of the 2015 deadline, as were goals on access to safe water, fewer malaria deaths, and better living conditions for slum dwellers. In addition, the world is on track to meet the hunger and tuberculosis targets.

The MDGs were remarkably powerful and successful for many reasons. They helped focus governments and NGOs on achieving a limited set of clear objectives in areas that were central to human well-being, and they made it hard for those who preferred to look the other way to continue denying the existence of severe human deprivation. They galvanized collaboration and brought home the realization that duplication and competition among similar organizations would not get the world across the finish line. They created a more predictable environment in which recipient governments and NGOs weren't pulled this way and that by constantly shifting donor priorities, making longer-term planning and programming possible. And most importantly, the MDG process put in place a system of

accountability in which progress toward the goals was tracked annually and communicated widely. This regular, accessible reporting put persistent divides, such as those between rural and urban areas and between the very poorest and everyone else, into bold relief. The shift from measuring *inputs* (we lent \$2 million, we installed fifty wells, we trained one hundred teachers) to measuring *outputs* (50 percent fewer people dying of malaria, twice as many girls enrolled in secondary school, half as many people drinking unsafe water) meant that *investments had to yield tangible results to count as progress*.

The eighth goal involved raising the money to pay for this progress. The flow of foreign aid had dwindled during the 1990s, and the international consensus around the ambitious MDG targets provided a shot in the arm for development assistance. Total development aid went from \$79 billion in 2004 to almost \$129 billion in 2010 (in constant 2009 dollars).³ Though that sum fell short of what some had hoped for, and funds slowed after the global recession, such an increase had been unthinkable in the business-as-usual scenario.

The MDGs encouraged a wide range of actors to pull in the same direction and provided a clear measure of success. Could those in the United States working to reduce hunger and food insecurity commit to a small set of widely-agreed outcomes—within a set time period—that would focus efforts, increase collaboration, and maybe even stimulate some healthy competition in an area where today too many Americans are paying too little attention? We think it's worth a try.

Sarah Burd-Sharps and Kristen Lewis are co-directors of Measure of America, a project of the Social Science Research Council, and authors of the book series of the same name. The most recent edition of Measure of America was released in June 2013.

Figure c.1 **Progress Depends on How You Look at Things**



Source: Social Science Research Council

CHRISTIAN STUDY GUIDE – 2014 HUNGER REPORT

LEADER'S RESOURCE

Notes and Suggestions

1. The 2014 Christian Study Guide includes six small-group sessions rooted in the content of the 2014 Hunger Report, *Ending Hunger in America*. Session 1 introduces the Report's overall theme; the following five sessions develop specific topics emphasized in the Hunger Report. If your group cannot do all six sessions, we recommend that you do Session 1 and then as many others as you can.
2. We anticipate that each session will have a facilitator, but the leader needs no specific expertise on the report's content to facilitate the session.
3. The study guide is designed for Christians of many theological and political viewpoints. You should feel free to adapt the guide to enhance the experience for your group. The section below, Preparation Suggestions for Group Leaders, identifies websites for social policies of different Christian traditions.
4. The guide directs participants to read short relevant sections of the Hunger Report during the sessions. *Ending Hunger in America* and www.hungerreport.org are filled with detailed analysis, statistics, and stories; additional reading will enrich your conversation, but it is not required.
5. Each session includes:
 - The Word: Biblical reflection materials and reflection questions.
 - The Issue: A summary of the theme as presented in the Hunger Report and reflection questions.
 - The Application: Activities to engage group members in analyzing current realities, using content from the Hunger Report and their life experiences.
 - The e-connect: A way to use social media to engage others in the session's topic.

6. The sessions as written may take an hour to 90 minutes each, but should be adapted to meet the scheduling needs of the group. We invite you to open and close each session with prayer, especially remembering those most affected by the topics that you discuss.

Preparation Suggestions for Group Facilitators

1. A Bible is required for each session. Participants could be encouraged to bring additional translations to enrich the biblical reflection.
2. It will be helpful to have a copy of the session materials for each participant and most sessions include activities using newsprint, a flip-chart, or a whiteboard.
3. Most sessions also include an activity that will require access to the Internet. If your group will not have Internet access when they meet, have someone print out relevant pages or data.
4. After you familiarize yourself with the outline of the session, adapt the activities to best serve the needs of your group.
5. To learn more about social policy in your own Christian tradition, visit the website of your denomination or national group to see if it includes a discussion of social policies. You might also visit the social policy websites of:

National Association of Evangelicals

www.nae.net/government-relations

National Council of Conferences of Churches

www.nccusa.org/NCCpolicies

U.S. Conference of Catholic Bishops

www.povertyusa.org

CHRISTIAN STUDY GUIDE – 2014 HUNGER REPORT

LEADER'S RESOURCE

6. Throughout the year, www.hungerreport.org is updated with new stories and statistics. Two other resources which may be of interest are Bread for the World's recently published *Biblical Basis for Advocacy to End Hunger*, which can be downloaded or ordered at www.bread.org/biblical-basis, and the website www.evangelicaladvocacy.org.

Ideas for Further Action

We hope the Study Guide stimulates further interest in the issues discussed in the Hunger Report. Here are suggestions for activities to engage your group beyond this Study Guide.

1. Learn from firsthand experience

Find a way for your group to spend time with someone whose life experience has given him or her personal knowledge of hunger, poverty, and/or U.S. development assistance. Also, watch the movies *Inequality for All* (www.inequalityforall.com) and *A Place at the Table* (www.magpictures.com/aplaceatthetable/).

2. Engage with Bread for the World

a. Bread for the World's Offering of Letters.

Each year, Bread for the World invites churches and campus groups across the country to take up Offerings of Letters to Congress on issues that are important to hungry and poor people. The Offering of Letters enables individuals to see their concerns translated into policies that help hungry and poor people improve their lives. To learn more about Bread for the World's Offering of Letters this year, visit www.bread.org/OL.

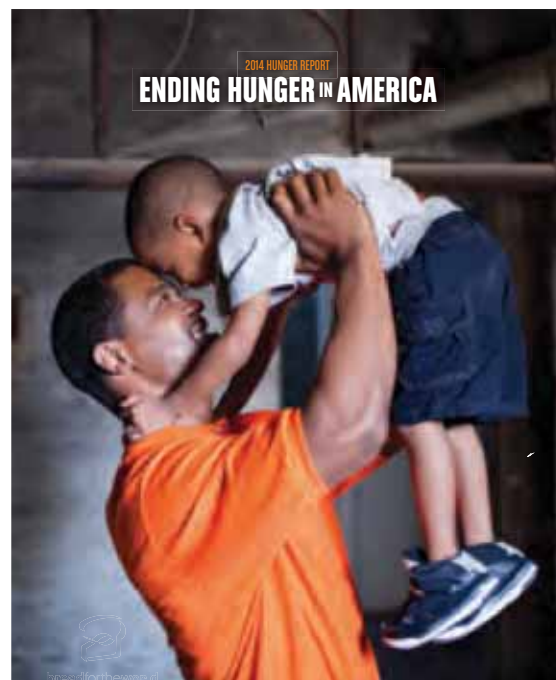
b. Contact your Bread for the World Regional Organizer.

c. Visit us at www.bread.org to read the Bread Blog and Institute Notes blog. Find us on Facebook and follow us on [twitter@bread4theworld](https://twitter.com/bread4theworld).

3. Write to your state or local representative

Write to your representative in the city council, state assembly, or Congress to share your thoughts and concerns about hunger and poverty.

4. Learn what your denomination or national association is doing related to hunger and poverty



For more information, interactive stories, data, or to download full chapters of the Hunger Report, see www.hungerreport.org

SESSION 1: ECONOMIC PROSPERITY TO BENEFIT EVERYONE

1

The Word

Read Exodus 16:15-20 and Luke 12:13-20

In scripture, when God's will is being done, resources are shared and everyone benefits. We see this perhaps most notably through iconic feeding stories such as manna in the wilderness, the miracle of the loaves, and the Last Supper. God provides for the good of the community and all are fed. This doesn't necessarily mean that everyone gets the same amount, but each person gets what he or she needs, and often abundance remains afterward. Likewise, greediness is said to be counter to faithfulness. In the Exodus story, wormy rotting manna represents taking and attempting to store up more of God's provision than one needs or can use. And in Luke's Gospel, Jesus uses the example of a greedy farmer to describe someone with the wrong priorities.

1. What does it mean to you as a Christian for everyone to have "as much as they need"?
2. What might have happened if the greedy farmer in Luke had thought about the needs of his community rather than just about how he could store more and more?
3. How do you identify and share your abundance? How do your family and your church do the same?

The Issue

Concern for the common good, the common "weal," was so important during the founding of our country that four of the newly unified states kept the title "commonwealth" rather than calling themselves "states." However, economic prosperity has not benefitted everyone. For example, between 1979 and 2007, the top 5 percent of U.S. income earners received 81 percent of the gains from economic growth.

The current median wage is \$16.30 an hour. Half of American workers earn more than this, and half earn less. But if wages for all workers had risen at the same rate as productivity growth, then today's median wage would instead be \$28.42. At the same time, inequalities in wealth (the value of accumulated assets, such as savings or equity in a home) have grown at a staggering rate. Wealth has proven to be at least as important as income, if not more important, to one's prospects of getting out of poverty for good.

1. What are some of the costs of not sharing economic prosperity more broadly? Are there potential benefits?

SESSION 1: ECONOMIC PROSPERITY TO BENEFIT EVERYONE

2. What are some possible reasons for the inequalities in income and wealth that we see today? Have you seen examples of how prosperity can be fairly shared?
3. How do you think our federal budget should share the gains from growth in the economy?

The Application

1. Review the Figure ES.1 on page 4 and Figure i.4 on page 16. Make a list of all the trends that you see in the graphics and all the connections you see between different measurements in those graphics. Put an X next to all the items on your list that hurt hungry and poor people. Put a check mark next to the things on your list that you think should concern people of faith. Who has the power to do something about the things on your list and what can they do? Now look at the “Ending Hunger in America” info-graphic at www.hungerreport.org. Discuss how the strategies in the infographic could affect the trends and relationships on your list.
2. Look at figure i.1 on page 11 and read the Conclusion, starting on page 169. Make a list of the challenges to ending hunger that you find in those sections. Develop a strategy to answer the question in the conclusion, “How are people doing?” by making a list of what needs to be measured in order to get an accurate answer.



The e-connect

Find the unemployment and poverty infographic on the Issues page at www.hungerreport.org/issues. Use the Facebook or Twitter tab to start an online conversation about why poverty and unemployment track so closely.

SESSION 2: FAMILIES AND HOUSEHOLDS AS ECONOMIC UNITS

2

The Word

Read Isaiah 65:20-23

In the reign of God, we are all brothers and sisters—the family of God. The passage from Isaiah shares God’s promise for this family. The primary biblical unit of community was the household: Noah boarded the ark with his household, the Passover lamb was eaten by households, and, as he sent them forth, Jesus instructed his disciples to bless or release households. When asked about his family, Jesus said, referring to his disciples, “These are my brothers and sisters.” People were baptized along with their households, and in the Acts of the Apostles, households served as nuclei for the early church. In his letters, St. Paul consistently refers to fellow believers as “brothers and sisters.” In Jesus’ time and in ours, expectations of shared economic resources (food, housing, and money) are integral to the language of family and household.

1. Who is in your household?
2. As a Christian, who do you consider to be your brothers and sisters?
3. With whom do you share resources (money, housing, food)? Are there other economic implications of your first two answers?

The Issue

Amidst concern about the disintegration of the American family, our nation’s families and households that people share continue to serve as essential safety nets. They must be supported if we are to end hunger and poverty. The Hunger Report describes the uneasy relationship of employment in America with care for children, seniors, and people with disabilities and points out that ample research shows that marital stability is linked to favorable household economic conditions. It also shows the high frequency of temporary poverty. Since the official poverty rate is based on household income for a full calendar year, it doesn’t reflect the extent to which people cycle in and out of poverty during that year.

1. What are the effects on a household of moving in and out of poverty?
2. Many Americans are paid too little to work their way out of poverty. As a result, the majority of households that qualify for SNAP (formerly called food stamps) are working families with children. The Hunger Report calls for jobs that pay a living wage and enable people to feed their families without SNAP benefits. What are some of the many other ways that a household would benefit from a living wage for its workers?

SESSION 2: FAMILIES AND HOUSEHOLDS AS ECONOMIC UNITS

The Application

1. Read Box i.4 on page 31 (or in the Featured Stories at www.hungerreport.org). Note the many causal relationships that affect families. On a flip chart page, make three columns. In the first column, list the “causes” (e.g., lack of economic stability) in the article, and in the second, list the potential “results” (e.g., people remaining unmarried) that are mentioned. Then in the third column, list “suggestions” for changing some of these cause and effect relationships.
2. Visit <http://www.epi.org/resources/budget/> and enter your location and the sizes of the households that your group members live in. Review the estimates of what it costs to live in your area. Then compare those numbers with the U.S. weighted poverty thresholds as shown here for households of these sizes. How do these numbers compare with your group’s actual experiences of the cost of living? Based on Figure 1.1 on page 37 make a list of policies that might help families move themselves out of the bottom fifth of household incomes.

The e-connect

Share the cost of living and poverty threshold numbers from this session with your online community on Facebook, Twitter, or other social media network. Start a conversation about what it means to live in poverty in your community.

2013 Federal Poverty Guidelines

48 contiguous states and DC

Household Size	100 percent
1	\$11,490
2	\$15,510
3	\$19,530
4	\$23,550
5	\$27,570
6	\$31,590
7	\$35,610
8	\$39,630
For each additional person, add	\$4,020

SESSION 3: EXPECTATIONS FOR THE COMMON GOOD

3

The Word

Read Deuteronomy 4:5-8 and Leviticus 19:9-10

Biblical instructions, whether they are the Ten Commandments, the Deuteronomic Code, or Jesus' great commandment, often focus on relationships—both relationships between people and the relationship between people and God. Strong values underlie these rules and expectations. The passage from the beginning of the fourth chapter of Deuteronomy is attributed to Moses and takes place just as the Israelites are about to enter the Promised Land after 40 years in the wilderness. Moses articulates the importance of the divinely revealed Torah—the rule of life for the Israelites. The Leviticus passage offers guidance on how to live in community. The instruction on gleaning connects holiness with neighborliness—demonstrated by being in relationship with poorer neighbors in ways that enable them to provide for their households.

1. What values do you see represented in today's laws and programs that affect hungry and poor people, and how are these values represented?
2. As a Christian, what values do you think should be reflected in our laws and programs as they relate to hungry and poor people?

The Issue

Over the years, a number of system-wide investments have been shown to improve living conditions for everyone. The Hunger Report argues for policies and programs that “lift all boats.” An adequate minimum wage, investments in infrastructure that also create jobs, and Social Security are discussed as specific examples of such system-wide efforts. The current minimum wage is not enough to support a family to live, and there is no consensus in Congress on how to proceed with investments in Social Security or infrastructure. Today, across-the-board cuts get more attention on Capitol Hill than strategic policies and programs to solve problems.

1. Read the section entitled “Invest in Infrastructure and Emerging Industries” in Chapter 1. What public works infrastructure improvements are needed in your community? Who would benefit, directly and indirectly?
2. What is your understanding of the costs and benefits of raising the minimum wage?

SESSION 3: EXPECTATIONS FOR THE COMMON GOOD

The Application

1. Read Box 1.2 on pages 44-45 and Figure 1.4 on page 45 (or in the Featured Stories section at www.hungerreport.org). On a flipchart page, make two lists. On one side, list the costs of sequestration mentioned in the sidebar, as well as any others you can think of. On the other side, list the benefits of sequestration and of making federal policy in this way. What do you think of your lists?
2. Review the household budget amounts you identified in Session 2, using the EPI Household Budget Calculator at www.epi.org/resources/budget/. Working 40 hours a week for 52 weeks a year adds up to 2,080 work hours a year. What hourly wage would be required for your households to reach their suggested income levels? Now look at Figure 2.8 on page 76. What would be the effect on your household if the minimum wage had grown in proportion with productivity?



The e-connect

Find the minimum wage infographic on the Issues page at www.hungerreport.org/issues. Use Facebook and Twitter to share it. Ask your network if someone working full time should have to choose between paying rent and buying good food for their children. What could help change this situation?

SESSION 4: MULTIPLIERS TO MAXIMIZE RESULTS

4

The Word

Read Matthew 13:31-33 and 1 Cor. 1:26-36

In God's economy, an investment in something small can make a big difference. Jesus likens the kingdom of God to a tiny mustard seed that grows into a bush or a bit of yeast that can leaven a whole loaf. Investing in a mustard seed can lead to a place large enough for birds to make nests, lay eggs, and hatch new life. In his ministry, Jesus focused his attention on seemingly unimportant people with significant results. For example, his "investment" in an outcast Samaritan woman alone at a well in the middle of the day resulted in one of the most prolific evangelists in the gospels. When Paul was writing to the Corinthians, a few people were wealthy and powerful, but most were poor and lacked social status. The apostle noted how God's grace uses that which is small and lowly to make a difference.

1. In your life, have there been times when a small investment has led to a surprising payoff?
2. How does your church decide what ministries to support (i.e., what to invest in)? How do you yourself decide?

The Issue

Just as corporations seek to maximize their return on investment, our country's economic policies should build on previous policies and programs that have proven multiplier effects (as the name suggests, "multiplier" means that they extend and maximize the value they produce). The Hunger Report offers examples such as investing in Pre-K education; investing in manufacturing; reducing the "output gap" (the difference between what the economy is producing and what it is capable of producing at full capacity); and reducing the high odds that having a disability will lead to hunger. Such investments produce a high rate of return for the common good.

1. Why might elected officials resist investing in programs that have been shown to be effective?
2. The Hunger Report points out that investments in clean energy technologies (see Box 1.3 on page 51) have a significant multiplier effect. What are some of the ways individuals and society at large would benefit from such investments?

SESSION 4: MULTIPLIERS TO MAXIMIZE RESULTS

The Application

1. Imagine that your group has just been charged with spending \$250,000 for the public good. Divide your members into three smaller groups. Ask group 1 to read *Support Entrepreneurs in Low-Income Communities* in Chapter 1, pages 51-54. Group 1 should prepare to advocate for the \$250,000 to be invested in a Community Development Financial Institution (CDFI). Meanwhile, ask group 2 to read “Human Capital Development” in the Introduction, pages 24-27, paying special attention to the paragraph that begins, “College can make a world of difference...” and Figure i.11, “Estimated Baccalaureate Degree Attainment.” Group 2 should prepare to advocate that the \$250,000 be invested in college tuition for very low-income students. After Groups 1 and 2 offer their arguments, ask the members of Group 3 to decide how the money should be spent and explain the basis for their decision.
2. Read the section entitled “Early Education” in Chapter 3 on pages 99-100 and look at the map in Figure 3.7 to find the percentage of 4-year-olds provided with early education in your state. How do you feel about the data for your state? Next, visit the website for the National Center for Children in Poverty’s “50 States Demographics Wizard” at <http://www.nccp.org/tools/demographics/>. Enter your state. Choose “child’s age” as your area of interest; choose “characteristics as denominator.” Then click the “create table” button. How do your state’s statistics compare to the national figures? Should your state be making different investments? Discuss how to share this information with your congregation.



The e-connect

Find the infographic on investment in early childhood education on the Issues page at www.hungerreport.org/issues. Share the image on Facebook, Twitter, or other social networks and ask your friends and followers to name ways that getting a head start is good for children, families, and for the country.

SESSION 5: REDUCING SOCIAL EXCLUSION

5

The Word

Read Lev 13:45-46 and Matthew 8:1-4

The dream of God is for all to be included. But in Jesus' time as in ours, people who were considered to pose a threat to the community, to carry an infectious disease, or to simply be troublemakers were kept apart from the community. The 13th Chapter of Leviticus describes in detail the process by which priests should decide whether people with leprous sores should be included in the community or excluded—in the words of Leviticus 13:46, sent to live “outside the camp.” Priests could also restore people to community if their sores disappeared. So, when Jesus healed a leper as described in Matthew 8, he not only solved a physical or spiritual problem, he also made it possible for disenfranchised members of society to return to their communities. Jesus healed, made whole, and reintegrated into society lepers, a hemorrhaging woman, and many people with “unclean spirits.”

1. Who in your community is set apart (in group homes, hospitals, prisons, or other facilities, or out on the street)?
2. What would it take for them to be more fully included in the community?
3. How does your church minister with and to people who are “outside the camp”?

The Issue

People on the margins of society need more than a full employment economy in order to overcome hunger and poverty. Without attempting to make a complete survey of all those who are marginalized, the Hunger Report describes how social exclusion compounds the problem of hunger for people with disabilities, ex-offenders/returning citizens, at-risk youth, and our most vulnerable seniors. The report also shows how programs meant to help special populations can sometimes disconnect them further from the community. It argues for both safety nets and programs that minimize social exclusion.

1. Who in your community would need extra support, even if jobs that pay a living wage were plentiful?
2. What is a community's responsibility to care for all its members? How can communities be encouraged to live up to and even expand these responsibilities?

CHRISTIAN STUDY GUIDE - 2014 HUNGER REPORT

SESSION 5: REDUCING SOCIAL EXCLUSION

The Application

1. On newsprint, make three columns. In the first column, list the things that a household can do to reduce the social exclusion of others. In the second column, list the ways that local communities can do so. In the third column, list things that only the government can do to reduce social exclusion. What do the lists have in common? What power do members of your group have to influence your own families, your community, and your government?
2. Read Box 1.1 on page 40, and watch Nadine's story at www.hungerreport.org. How are Sary's (Box 1.1) and Nadine's situations similar? How are they different? Where do you find hope in their stories?

The e-connect

Find Nadine's video in the Featured Stories page at www.hungerreport.org/profiles and share it on Facebook, Twitter, or other social networks. Urge your friends and followers to think about how people have been pushed to the margins of your community. How can you be an advocate for them?



SESSION 6: LEADERSHIP FOR HUNGER FREE COMMUNITIES

6

The Word

Read Exodus 4:28-5:1 and Nehemiah 2:1-8

One of the many ways people exercise leadership in the scriptures is by using their voices. Moses and Nehemiah each speak with a political leader on behalf of their people. Moses seeks freedom for the Israelites who have been enslaved in Egypt, while Nehemiah seeks permission and support from the king he serves to return to Jerusalem and rebuild the city wall. Although the situations are different, in both cases a leader who is in touch with people's needs on the ground seeks support from a national leader.

1. What are some examples you've seen of Christian leaders using their voices to bring attention to a concern facing their community?
2. Do any of the leaders in your church, whether lay or ordained, advocate with government for people in need?
3. What power do you have to influence leaders in your church or community?

The Issue

Ending hunger and poverty requires leadership and collaboration. Chapter 4 of the Hunger Report highlights the importance of leadership in efforts to make communities hunger free—whether those efforts are local, regional, or national, and public or private.

It stresses that leadership requires effective communication, particularly in sharing local and regional information with national leaders and systems.

1. What are some examples you've seen of effective collaboration between leaders?
2. Do you have a sense that national leaders understand the issues facing your state and region?

The Application

1. Divide your group in three. Have one group read *The Importance of Public-Private Partnerships in Combating Domestic Hunger* by Rep. Frank Wolf on page 32, another *Why*

SESSION 6: LEADERSHIP FOR HUNGER FREE COMMUNITIES

a Public/Private System Is Our Nation's Best Choice for Feeding the Hungry by Dave Miner on pages 124-125, and the third *The Importance of a White House Summit to End Hunger* by Rep. Jim McGovern on page 33. Have each group evaluate the specific suggestions offered in the piece they read. Then, on newsprint, make a list of the suggestions the groups find most helpful, leaving space between the suggestions. Under each suggestion, identify what leader(s) could help make it a reality. Put a check mark next to the suggestions that your group could help put in place.

2. Discuss as a group the most pressing need(s) for hungry people who live in or near your community. Now read *Data Do-Gooders: A New Force in the Fight Against Hunger* on pages 148-149. Make a list of the kinds of information or statistics that would help you persuade others that the need(s) you identified are important. Put a check mark next to the data that you believe are currently available and note where it can be found. Look at the items that remain. Who might be able to collect or access that information?

The e-connect

Find the data table that lists U.S. poverty and hunger statistics by state in the Data page of www.hungerreport.org/data. What percent of people are food insecure in your state? Share the link to this table through your social networks (Facebook, Twitter, and/or others). Ask your friends and followers to explain whether and how hunger is tracked in their communities.



Courtesy of Arkansas Hunger Relief Alliance

Endnotes

Executive Summary

(pages 3-9)

- ¹ Alisha Coleman-Jensen, Mark Nord, and Anita Singh (September 2013), *Household Food Security in the United States in 2012*, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service.
- ² Arloc Sherman, Danilo Trisi, and Sharon Parrott (July 30, 2013), "Various Supports for Low-Income Families Reduce Poverty and Have Long-Term Positive Effects on Families and Children," Center on Budget and Policy Priorities.
- ³ Amy Traub and Robert Hiltonsmith (June 2013), *Underwriting Bad Jobs: How Our Tax Dollars are Funding Low-Wage Work and Fueling Inequality*, Demos.
- ⁴ CLASP (September 18, 2013), "Child Poverty in the U.S.: What New Census Data Tell Us About Our Youngest Children."
- ⁵ Ibid.
- ⁶ Ibid.

Introduction

(pages 11-31)

- ¹ Alisha Coleman-Jensen, Mark Nord, and Anita Singh (September 2013), *Household Food Security in the United States in 2012*, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service.
- ² Alisha Coleman-Jensen and Mark Nord (January 2013), *Food Insecurity among Households with Working Age Adults with Disabilities*, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service.
- ³ See note 1.
- ⁴ Ibid.
- ⁵ See note 2.

- ⁶ Donald S. Shepard, Elizabeth Setran, and Donna Cooper (October 2011), *Hunger in America: Suffering We all Pay For*, Center for American Progress.
- ⁷ Lawrence Mishel, Josh Bivens, Elise Gould and Heidi Shierholz (2012), *The State of Working America*, 12th edition, Economic Policy Institute.
- ⁸ Claudia Goldin and Lawrence F. Katz (2008), *The Race between Education and Technology*, Belknap Press.
- ⁹ Sylvia A. Allegretto and Steven C. Pitts (August 26, 2013), "To Work With Dignity: The Unfinished March Toward a Decent Minimum Wage," Economic Policy Institute.
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Acronyms

AAP	American Association of Pediatrics	IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
AARP	American Association of Retired Persons	IHN	Indy Hunger Network
ACA	Affordable Care Act	LGBT	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender
ADA	Americans with Disabilities Act	MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
ADHD	Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder	MEP	Manufacturing Extension Partnership
APA	American Pediatric Association	MIT	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Program	NGO	Nongovernmental organization
CACFP	Child and Adult Care Food Program	NMPF	National Milk Producers Federation
CBBP	Center on Budget and Policy Priorities	NRA	National Restaurant Association
CBO	Congressional Budget Office	OAA	Older Americans Act
CDFI	Community Development Financial Institutions	OTR	Over the Rhine
CHIP	Children's Health Insurance Program	QECR	Quality Education as a Constitutional Right
CWS	Church World Service	RARE	Resource Assistance for Rural Environments
DAA	Development Action Association	ROC	Restaurant Opportunities Center
DI	Social Security Disability Insurance	SFSP	Summer Food Service Program
DoD	Department of Defense	SNAP	Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program
EBT	Electronic Benefit Transfer	SNCC	Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee
EITC	Earned Income Tax Credit	SSI	Supplemental Security Insurance
FAP	Family Acceptance Project	STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math
FEWSNET	Famine Early Warning Systems Network	SUN	Scaling Up Nutrition
FLSA	Fair Labor Standards Act	TANF	Temporary Assistance for Needy Families
FMLA	Family and Medical Leave Act	U.K.	United Kingdom
FOMC	Federal Reserve's Open Market Committee	U.N.	United Nations
FRAC	Food Research and Action Center	USAID	U.S. Agency for International Development
G-8	Group of 8	USDA	U.S. Department of Agriculture
G-20	Group of 20	WEAI	Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index
GAO	Government Accountability Office	WIC	Special Supplemental Nutrition Program for Women, Infants and Children
GDP	Gross Domestic Product	WPA	Works Progress Administration
GED	General Equivalency Degree	YPP	Young People's Project
HKI	Helen Keller International		

Glossary

211: The 211 dialing code that provides individuals and families with referral information to nonemergency health and human services in their geographic area.

1,000-day window: The 1,000 days from pregnancy through a child's second birthday that is the most crucial in human development. Without adequate nutrition during this period, children can suffer permanent setbacks to their cognitive and physical development.

Affordable Care Act: The U.S. health care law (a.k.a. Obamacare) signed by President Obama in 2010 that aims to improve access to health coverage for low-income Americans.

Alliance to End Hunger: A diverse coalition of 85 member organizations—corporations, non-profit groups, universities, associations, individuals, health care providers, foundations, and faith-based organizations—all working together to build the public and political will to end hunger domestically and internationally.

American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (Recovery Act): The \$787 billion economic recovery plan enacted in February 2009 with provisions for federal tax cuts and incentives, investments in infrastructure repair, expansion of unemployment benefits and other social entitlement programs, as well as support to states so that they could continue to fund services.

Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA): The federal law signed by President George H.W. Bush in 1990 prohibiting discrimination and ensuring equal opportunity for persons with disabilities in employment, state and local government services, public accommodations, commercial facilities, and transportation.

Baby Boom Generation: A generation of Americans born after World War II until the mid-1960s.

Breakfast in the Classroom: All students eat breakfast at no charge in their classroom, either at the beginning of the school day or early during the day.

Budget Control Act of 2011 (sequestration): Imposed caps on discretionary programs that reduce their funding by more than \$1 trillion from 2012 through 2021. It also established a Joint Select Committee on Deficit Reduction to propose legislation reducing deficits by another \$1.2 trillion over the same period.

Capacity building: Development assistance specifically designed to build skills and/or technical and management capacity among the beneficiaries.

Cash transfer: Public assistance that is provided as cash. The Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) is a U.S. program that provides cash transfers to families with dependent children.

Child and Dependent Care Tax Credit: A nonrefundable credit that allows taxpayers to claim a credit for paying someone to care for their children or other dependents who are unable to care for themselves. The credit ranges from 20-35 percent of the taxpayer's expenses.

Child Tax Credit: A non-refundable tax credit provided to parents. The credit may be as much as \$1,000 per qualifying child depending upon the parents' incomes.

Circle of Protection: An initiative launched in 2011 by a broad coalition of Christian groups to oppose budget cuts to programs that would slash or eliminate programs that provide essential services for poor and vulnerable populations in the United States and abroad.

Civil society: The sphere of civic action outside of the government comprised of citizens' groups, such as nongovernmental organizations, religious congregations, academic institutions, labor unions and foundations.

Clean energy: Energy that does not produce carbon dioxide when generated. It includes hydropower, nuclear, geothermal, and solar power, among others.

Climate change: Climate change refers to a change in the state of the climate that can be identified over an extended period, typically decades or longer.

Comprehensive African Agriculture Development Program (CAADP):

A framework agreed on by African countries that represents their collective vision of agriculture's central importance to poverty reduction and economic development.

Congressional Budget Office (CBO):

A nonpartisan agency that produces independent analyses of budgetary and economic issues to support the Congressional budget process.

Developed countries: Highly industrialized nations such as the United States, Great Britain, France, Germany and Japan; also referred to as high-income.

Developing countries: These include low- and middle-income countries, where extreme poverty and hardship are common.

Development assistance: Grants and loans to developing countries by donors to spur economic development and poverty reduction.

Domestic work: Usually entails child care or care for the elderly or disabled, and may include other household tasks, and/or upkeep of a home on a regular basis in return for wages or other benefits.

Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC):

A federal government program that provides a cash benefit to many low-income working people by refunding a portion of their income taxes.

Economic mobility: The ability to alter one's economic outcome positively or negatively during one's lifetime or across generations.

Employee Free Choice Act:

Proposed federal legislation

that would amend the National Labor Relations Act to establish an efficient system to enable employees to form a union.

Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA):

The 1938 law establishing minimum wage, overtime pay, recordkeeping, and child labor standards affecting full-time and part-time workers in the private sector and in federal, state, and local governments.

Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA):

Eligible employees are permitted to take up to 12 weeks of unpaid, job-protected leave for specified family and medical reasons, such as for the birth of a child and to care for a newborn.

Famine Early Warning System Network (FEWSNET):

A U.S. government funded activity in collaboration with international, regional and national partners to provide timely and rigorous early warning on emerging food security issues.

Farm bill: A multi-year, omnibus law that contains federal commodity and farm support policies, as well as other farm-related provisions, such as rural development, conservation, agricultural research, food aid and nutrition programs.

Federal nutrition programs:

Programs run by the Food and Nutrition Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture to provide children and low-income people access to food, a healthful diet, and nutrition education.

Federal Reserve: The central bank of the United States and the government institution charged with

managing the nation's monetary policy. Its main responsibilities are to ensure maximum employment and hold down inflation.

Feed the Future:

The U.S. government's global hunger and food security initiative, through which the United States works with host governments, development partners, and other stakeholders to sustainably tackle the root causes of global poverty and hunger.

Feeding America: The largest hunger-relief charity in the United States, serving as an umbrella organization for a national network of food banks.

Fiscal policy: Refers to government policy that involves changing levels of taxation and public spending in order to influence the level of economic activity.

Food bank: A charitable organization that solicits, receives, inventories, stores and distributes food and grocery products from various sources to charitable organizations.

Food desert: An urban neighborhood or rural town lacking good access to fresh, healthy, and affordable food.

Food insecurity: Uncertain availability or inability to acquire safe, nutritious food in socially acceptable ways.

Food security: Assured access to enough nutritious food to sustain an active and healthy life with dignity.

Full employment: When everyone willing and able to work can find a job. Full employment does not mean everyone of working age is employed. Some people voluntarily take them-

selves out of the labor force—for example, to care for a child or to pursue postsecondary education.

G-20: A group of 19 countries (Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, France, Germany, India, Indonesia, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Russia, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, South Korea, Turkey, the United Kingdom, and the United States) as well as the European Union (represented by the rotating European Council presidency and the European Central Bank).

Governance: The norms by which a government operates, measured in terms such as transparency, accountability, rule of law and strength of institutions.

Great Depression: A severe worldwide economic depression that lasted through the 1930s. It started in the United States and was precipitated by the stock market crash on October 29, 1929. The Great Depression finally ended in the United States with the massive increase in government spending for World War II.

Great Recession: The worst economic downturn in the United States since the Great Depression. It started in December 2007 with the bursting of a housing bubble that led to a financial crisis and a steep rise in unemployment. The severity of the downturn in the United States spread to other countries leading to a global recession.

Greenhouse gas emissions: Gases that trap heat in the atmosphere and are linked to global climate change.

Gross domestic product (GDP):

The value of all goods and services produced within a nation during a specified period, usually a year.

Group of 8 (G-8): The wealthiest industrial countries: Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Russia, United Kingdom and United States.

Head Start: A national program that promotes school readiness by enhancing the social and cognitive development of enrolled children through educational, health, nutritional, social and other services.

Hidden hunger: A deficiency in the vitamins, major minerals and trace elements needed for a healthy, balanced diet.

Housing bubble: An unsustainable rise in home prices fueled by cheap credit and speculation in the real estate market.

Human capital: The education, knowledge, skills, and capabilities people possess that can affect their economic potential and contribute to the economic potential of society.

Human development: An expansion of opportunities resulting from improvements in one's economic, health, and educational wellbeing.

Hunger: A condition in which people do not get enough food to provide the nutrients (carbohydrate, fat, protein, vitamins, minerals and water) for fully productive, active and healthy lives.

Hunger Free Communities: Hunger Free Community (HFC) initiatives are broad-based, multi-sector coalitions that are committed to ending hunger in communities

across the United States. Hunger free initiatives range in scale from small towns and counties to major metropolitan areas and states. Some are led by governors, mayors, or members of Congress, while others are entirely volunteer driven.

Income inequality: The unequal distribution of income across major social groups or classes in a given society.

L'Aquila Food Security Initiative: At the 2009 G-8 Summit in L'Aquila, Italy, leaders of G-8 countries agreed to reverse a decades-long decline in investment in agriculture and begin taking a comprehensive approach to ensuring food security, supporting country-owned processes and plans, engaging multilateral institutions in advancing efforts to promote food security worldwide, and delivering on sustained and accountable commitments.

Low birth-weight: Children who are born weighing 2,500 grams (5 pounds, 8 ounces) or less, being especially vulnerable to illness and death during the first months of life.

Low food security: Households that report food access problems and reduced diet quality, but typically have reported few, if any, indications of reduced food intake. Prior to 2006, households with low food security were described as “food insecure without hunger.”

Macroeconomics: A focus on the economy as a whole as opposed to individual sectors or markets.

Malnutrition: An abnormal physiological condition caused by inadequate, unbalanced or excessive

consumption of macronutrients and/or micronutrients. Malnutrition includes undernutrition and overnutrition as well as micronutrient deficiencies.

Measure of America: A project of the Social Science Research Council, similar to the human development index used by the United Nations Development Program, measuring well-being and opportunity in the United States. A score is given based on an aggregate measure of health, education, and standard of living.

Millennium Development Goals (MDGs): A global agreement officially adopted at the United Nations in the year 2000. The goals serve as a road map for development outcomes to be achieved by 2015.

Monetary policy: Actions undertaken by a central bank, such as the Federal Reserve, to influence the availability and cost of money and credit to help promote national economic goals.

National debt: The total outstanding debt obligations of the federal government. The value of the debt is measured in terms of the amount of securities issued by the Treasury and other federal agencies.

New Deal: A set of economic assistance and safety net programs implemented by President Franklin D. Roosevelt in response to the Great Depression.

No Kid Hungry®: A campaign led by anti-hunger organization Share Our Strength to end child hunger in the United States by 2015.

Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs): Groups and institutions that are entirely or largely independent of

government and that have primarily humanitarian or cooperative rather than commercial objectives.

Nutrition-sensitive interventions: Interventions designed to address the underlying determinants of good nutrition (which include household food security, care for mothers and children and primary health care services and sanitation) but not necessarily having nutrition as the predominant goal.

Poverty: The lack of sufficient money or resources to provide the basic needs of survival for oneself and one's family. The international poverty line is an income equivalent to \$1.25 per day. In the United States, poverty thresholds vary according to family size. In 2014, a family of four is in poverty with annual income below \$24,000.

Productivity growth: The ability to produce more with the same or less input. The U.S. economy has been able to produce more goods and services over time, not by requiring a proportional increase of labor time, but by making production more efficient.

Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN) movement: An international movement uniting people—from governments, civil society, the United Nations, donors, businesses and researchers—in a collective effort to improve nutrition. The partners collaborate to implement programs with shared nutrition goals and mobilize resources to effectively scale up nutrition, with a core focus on empowering women.

Second Chance Act: Federal legislation that provides grants to states and local governments to

promote the safe and successful reintegration into the community of individuals who have been incarcerated.

Social safety nets: Government policies and charitable programs designed to ensure basic needs are met among low-income, disabled and other vulnerable social groups.

Stunting: A result of chronic malnutrition during the formative years of childhood. The most visible sign is when a child fails to grow to normal height, but may also result in decreased mental capacity and long-term health problems for the rest of a person's life.

Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP): Previously called the Food Stamp Program, SNAP supplements the food budgets of low-income households with monthly benefits in the form of an electronic benefits (EBT) card that they can use like cash at authorized retail stores.

Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF): Monthly cash assistance program for poor families with children under age 18, sometimes referred to as welfare, and formerly known as Aid to Families with Dependent Children before 1996.

Very low food security: A reduction in food intake and disruption in normal eating patterns because a household lacks money and other resources for food. Prior to 2006, households with very low food security were described as “food insecure with hunger.”

Millennium Development Goals: Progress Chart to Date

This chart provides an overview of progress on the eight Millennium Development Goals. Progress or lack of progress differs in every state, so regional overviews provide a snapshot at an aggregated level. In some instances, trends are driven by high performance or lack of performance by one or a small group of countries.

Goals and Targets	Africa		Asia				Oceania	Latin America & Caribbean	Caucasus & Central Asia
	Northern	Sub-Saharan	Eastern	South-Eastern	Southern	Western			

GOAL 1 | Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

Reduce extreme poverty by half	low poverty	very high poverty	moderate poverty*	moderate poverty	very high poverty	low poverty	very high poverty	low poverty	low poverty
Productive and decent employment	large deficit in decent work	very large deficit in decent work	large deficit in decent work	large deficit in decent work	very large deficit in decent work	large deficit in decent work	very large deficit in decent work	moderate deficit in decent work	moderate deficit in decent work
Reduce hunger by half	low hunger	very high hunger	moderate hunger	moderate hunger	high hunger	moderate hunger	moderate hunger	moderate hunger	moderate hunger

GOAL 2 | Achieve universal primary education

Universal primary schooling	high enrolment	moderate enrolment	high enrolment	high enrolment	high enrolment	high enrolment	—	high enrolment	high enrolment
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GOAL 3 | Promote gender equality and empower women

Equal girls' enrollment in primary school	close to parity	close to parity	close to parity	parity	parity	close to parity	close to parity	parity	parity
Women's share of paid employment	low share	medium share	high share	medium share	low share	low share	medium share	high share	high share
Women's equal representation in national parliaments	low representation	moderate representation	moderate representation	low representation	low representation	low representation	very low representation	moderate representation	low representation

GOAL 4 | Reduce child mortality

Reduce mortality of under-five-year-olds by two thirds	low mortality	high mortality	low mortality	low mortality	moderate mortality	low mortality	moderate mortality	low mortality	moderate mortality
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GOAL 5 | Improve maternal health

Reduce maternal mortality by three quarters	low mortality	very high mortality	low mortality	moderate mortality	high mortality	low mortality	high mortality	low mortality	low mortality
Access to reproductive health	moderate access	low access	high access	moderate access	moderate access	moderate access	low access	high access	moderate access

GOAL 6 | Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases

Halt and begin to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS	low incidence	high incidence	low incidence	low incidence	low incidence	low incidence	low incidence	low incidence	intermediate incidence
Halt and reverse the spread of tuberculosis	low mortality	moderate mortality	low mortality	moderate mortality	moderate mortality	low mortality	high mortality	low mortality	moderate mortality

GOAL 7 | Ensure environmental sustainability

Halve proportion of population without improved drinking water	high coverage	low coverage	high coverage	moderate coverage	high coverage	high coverage	low coverage	high coverage	moderate coverage
Halve proportion of population without sanitation	high coverage	very low coverage	low coverage	low coverage	very low coverage	moderate coverage	very low coverage	moderate coverage	high coverage
Improve the lives of slum-dwellers	moderate proportion of slum-dwellers	very high proportion of slum-dwellers	moderate proportion of slum-dwellers	high proportion of slum-dwellers	high proportion of slum-dwellers	moderate proportion of slum-dwellers	moderate proportion of slum-dwellers	moderate proportion of slum-dwellers	—

GOAL 8 | Develop a global partnership for development

Internet users	high usage	moderate usage	high usage	high usage	moderate usage	high usage	low usage	high usage	high usage
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The progress chart operates on two levels. The words in each box indicate the present degree of compliance with the target. The colours show progress towards the target according to the legend below:

■ Target already met or expected to be met by 2015. ■ Progress insufficient to reach the target if prevailing trends persist. ■ No progress or deterioration. ■ Missing or insufficient data.

For the regional groupings and country data, see mdgs.un.org. Country experiences in each region may differ significantly from the regional average. Due to new data and revised methodologies, this Progress Chart is not comparable with previous versions.

Sources: United Nations, based on data and estimates provided by: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations; Inter-Parliamentary Union; International Labour Organization; International Telecommunication Union; UNAIDS; UNESCO; UN-Habitat; UNICEF; UN Population Division; World Bank; World Health Organization—based on statistics available as of June 2013.

Table 1
Demographics and Economic Indicators

	Population						Life expectancy	Human development index (HDI)	Employment	Remittances	Migration		
	total 2011	ages 0-14 (%) 2011	annual growth (%) 2011	density (per sq. km) 2011	rural (%) 2011	urban (%) 2011	life exp. at birth (years) 2011	scale (0-1, 0 is least developed) 2011	employment to pop. ratio (% of total pop. above age 15) 2011	workers' remittances & compensation received (current US\$) 2011	net migration (number of people) 2010	pop. of out-going refugees originating from the country 2011	pop. of incoming foreign refugees granted asylum in the country 2011
World	6,974,242,787	26.6	1.2	53.8	48.0	52.0	69.9	0.69	60.3	479,246,455,280	..	15,202,525	15,202,525
High-income countries	1,135,021,870	17.3	0.6	33.4	19.5	80.5	80.1	..	55.5	120,852,834,949	22,906,410	77,461	1,932,240
Low- & middle-income countries	5,839,220,917	28.4	1.3	61.0	53.4	46.6	67.9	..	61.4	358,393,620,331	-23,160,150	10,032,632	13,270,285
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	874,841,049	42.3	2.5	37.1	63.5	36.5	54.6	..	64.3	31,087,952,063	-2,005,547	3,371,662	2,699,553
Angola	19,618,432	46.3	2.8	15.7	40.9	59.1	51.1	0.51	65.4	204,751	82,005	128,664	16,223
Benin	9,099,922	43.5	2.8	80.7	55.1	44.9	56.0	0.44	72.1	184,595,683	50,000	461	7,217
Botswana	2,030,738	32.2	1.2	3.6	38.4	61.6	53.0	0.63	63.3	62,635,388	18,730	85	3,312
Burkina Faso	16,967,845	45.2	3.0	62.0	73.5	26.5	55.4	0.34	81.1	110,587,709	-125,000	1,271	546
Burundi	8,575,172	37.5	2.3	333.9	89.1	10.9	50.3	0.36	77.7	45,463,177	370,000	101,288	35,659
Cameroon	20,030,362	40.4	2.2	42.4	47.9	52.1	51.6	0.50	67.5	114,858,953	-19,000	15,163	100,373
Cape Verde	500,585	30.9	0.9	124.2	37.4	62.6	73.9	0.59	62.4	176,513,438	-17,279	27	..
Central African Republic	4,486,837	40.1	1.9	7.2	60.9	39.1	48.3	0.35	73.7	..	5,000	162,862	16,730
Chad	11,525,496	45.3	2.6	9.2	78.2	21.8	49.5	0.34	67.5	..	-75,000	42,640	366,494
Comoros	753,943	42.6	2.6	405.1	71.9	28.1	61.0	0.43	54.1	..	-10,000	422	..
Congo, Dem. Rep.	67,757,577	46.0	2.7	29.9	65.7	34.3	48.4	0.30	67.0	114,600,000	-23,975	491,481	152,749
Congo, Rep.	4,139,748	40.5	2.4	12.1	36.4	63.6	57.4	0.53	66.3	14,814,296 ^a	49,872	12,839	141,232
Cote d'Ivoire	20,152,894	40.7	2.1	63.4	48.7	51.3	55.4	0.43	64.2	373,477,566	-360,000	154,824	24,221
Equatorial Guinea	720,213	39.1	2.8	25.7	60.5	39.5	51.1	0.55	80.3	..	20,000	258	..
Eritrea	5,415,280	41.6	3.0	53.6	78.6	21.4	61.4	0.35	79.0	..	55,000	251,954	4,719
Ethiopia	84,734,262	40.8	2.1	84.7	83.0	17.0	59.2	0.40	79.2	513,238,171	-300,000	70,610	288,844
Gabon	1,534,262	35.0	1.9	6.0	13.9	86.1	62.7	0.68	50.9	..	5,000	173	1,773
Gambia, The	1,776,103	43.7	2.7	175.5	42.8	57.2	58.5	0.44	72.5	90,666,721	-13,742	2,583	9,528
Ghana	24,965,816	38.4	2.3	109.7	48.1	51.9	64.2	0.56	66.7	151,601,280	-51,258	20,361	13,588
Guinea	10,221,808	42.7	2.4	41.6	64.5	35.5	54.1	0.36	69.7	64,500,000	-300,000	13,161	16,609
Guinea-Bissau	1,547,061	41.1	2.1	55.0	56.1	43.9	48.1	0.36	68.5	45,891,489	-10,000	1,123	7,800
Kenya	41,609,728	42.4	2.7	73.1	76.0	24.0	57.1	0.52	60.4	934,149,203	-189,330	8,745	566,487
Lesotho	2,193,843	37.0	1.0	72.3	72.4	27.6	48.0	0.46	48.4	649,334,951	-19,998	11	34
Liberia	4,128,572	43.5	3.3	42.9	51.8	48.2	56.7	0.39	58.8	359,993,843	300,000	66,780	128,293
Madagascar	21,315,135	42.7	2.9	36.7	67.4	32.6	66.7	0.48	83.5	..	-5,000	289	9
Malawi	15,380,888	45.8	3.2	163.1	84.3	15.7	54.1	0.42	76.8	17,412,162	-20,000	222	6,308
Mali	15,839,538	47.1	3.0	13.0	65.1	34.9	51.4	0.34	48.4	472,741,496	-100,823	4,295	15,624
Mauritania	3,541,540	39.7	2.3	3.4	58.5	41.5	58.5	0.47	36.1	..	9,900	39,929	26,535
Mauritius	1,286,051	21.4	0.4	633.5	58.2	41.8	73.3	0.74	54.7	535,974	..	42	..
Mozambique	23,929,708	43.9	2.3	30.4	68.8	31.2	50.2	0.33	79.2	156,830,890	-20,000	155	4,079
Namibia	2,324,004	35.9	1.8	2.8	61.6	38.4	62.3	0.61	42.9	15,492,519	-1,494	1,073	6,049
Niger	16,068,994	48.9	3.5	12.7	82.1	17.9	54.7	0.30	61.4	101,716,210	-28,497	819	302
Nigeria	162,470,737	42.8	2.5	178.4	50.4	49.6	51.9	0.47	52.2	20,618,849,636	-300,000	17,141	8,806
Rwanda	10,942,950	42.8	3.0	443.6	80.9	19.1	55.4	0.43	85.4	103,146,379	15,109	106,833	55,325
São Tomé & Príncipe	168,526	39.9	1.9	175.5	37.4	62.7	64.6	0.53	..	6,881,334	-6,496	33	..
Senegal	12,767,556	43.5	2.6	66.3	57.4	42.6	59.3	0.47	69.3	1,477,678,083	-132,842	17,722	20,644
Sierra Leone	5,997,486	42.9	2.2	83.7	60.7	39.3	47.8	0.36	65.4	58,811,610	60,000	8,002	8,092
Somalia	9,556,873	44.9	2.4	15.2	62.2	37.8	51.2	..	53.3	..	-300,000	1,077,048	2,099
South Africa	50,586,757	29.9	1.2	41.7	38.0	62.0	52.6	0.63	39.3	1,158,421,806	700,001	429	57,899
South Sudan	10,314,021	..	3.6	..	81.9	18.1	61.5 ^b	1	105,023
Sudan	34,318,385	39.8	2.1	18.8	66.8	33.2	61.4	0.41	48.8	1,419,612,517	135,000	500,014	139,415
Swaziland	1,067,773	37.9	1.2	62.1	78.7	21.3	48.7	0.54	43.8	54,690,324	-6,000	43	759
Tanzania	46,218,486	44.8	3.0	52.2	73.3	26.7	58.2	0.48	78.8	75,765,218	-300,000	1,163	131,243
Togo	6,154,813	39.3	2.1	113.2	62.0	38.0	57.0	0.46	75.7	336,597,485	-5,430	17,871	19,270
Uganda	34,509,205	48.3	3.2	172.7	84.4	15.6	54.1	0.46	74.7	948,642,996	-135,000	5,680	139,448
Zambia	13,474,959	46.5	4.2	18.1	60.8	39.2	49.0	0.45	67.2	46,300,000	-85,000	240	45,632
Zimbabwe	12,754,378	38.4	1.4	33.0	61.4	38.6	51.2	0.40	82.5	..	-900,000	25,048	4,561
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13

Table 1
Demographics and Economic Indicators

	Gross domestic product				Military spending	Debt & inflation		Exports & imports of goods & services		Exports & imports of food		Income inequality
	GDP (current million US\$) 2011	growth (%) 2011	per capita (current US\$) 2011	per capita PPP ¹ (current int'l \$) 2011	% of gov't spending 2008-2011	value of external debt (current million US\$) 2011	annual inflation, consumer prices (%) 2011	exports (% of GDP) 2010-2011	imports (% of GDP) 2010-2011	exports (% of merchandise) 2009-2011	imports (% of merchandise) 2009-2011	GINI index, scale (0-100, 100 is maximal inequality) 2007-2011
World	70,020,432	2.7	10,040	11,616	9.3	..	5.0	29.3	29.8	8.4	7.6	..
High-income countries	46,606,101	1.5	41,062	38,295	9.2	..	3.3	29.2	29.6	7.8	7.5	..
Low- & middle-income countries	23,543,295	6.3	4,032	6,488	12.2	4,168,977	6.2	30.2	30.6	10.7	8.0	..
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	1,266,024	4.7	1,447	2,334	..	200,101	5.7	33.4	37.2	13.1	13.7	..
Angola	104,332	3.9	5,318	5,920	..	17,705	13.5	65.0	43.3	42.7
Benin	7,295	3.5	802	1,619	6.8	960	2.7	15.0	27.0	60.8	31.9	..
Botswana	17,328	5.7	8,533	14,746	7.9	1,553	8.9	39.1	44.3	2.2	10.5	..
Burkina Faso	10,396	4.2	613	1,302	10.5	1,736	2.8	21.1	28.6	38.5	16.6	39.8
Burundi	2,326	4.2	271	604	..	306	9.7	5.5	33.8	81.4	13.7	..
Cameroon	25,236	4.2	1,260	2,359	..	1,638	2.9	30.7	35.0	40.1	25.1	38.9
Cape Verde	1,901	5.0	3,798	4,095	1.9	555	4.5	42.2	72.6	83.7	25.4	..
Central African Republic	2,195	3.3	489	810	..	221	1.3	11.9	23.3	1.2	31.2	56.3
Chad	10,581	1.6	918	1,498	..	2,219	-4.9	40.7	25.5
Comoros	610	2.2	810	1,110	..	189	0.9	15.3	51.8	13.8 ^a	19.5 ^a	..
Congo, Dem. Rep.	15,654	6.9	231	373	10.2	4,530	17.3 ^b	68.3	78.0
Congo, Rep.	14,426	3.4	3,485	4,360	..	1,830	1.3	87.3	34.8	0.5	7.0	..
Cote d'Ivoire	24,074	-4.7	1,195	1,789	..	12,374	4.9	43.7	40.6	50.7	25.1	41.5
Equatorial Guinea	19,790	7.8	27,478	36,202	6.9	71.4	47.4
Eritrea	2,609	8.7	482	585	..	600	..	4.5 ^c	20.4 ^c
Ethiopia	30,247	7.3	357	1,109	10.2	4,445	33.2	16.8	31.8	78.4	14.8	33.6
Gabon	17,052	4.8	11,114	15,852	..	2,398	1.3	64.6	35.8	0.8	17.1	..
Gambia, The	898	-4.3	506	1,809	..	242	4.8	28.9	47.2	81.7	32.2	..
Ghana	39,200	14.4	1,570	1,871	1.2	8,050	8.7	38.0	51.1	27.0	14.3	..
Guinea	5,089	3.9	498	1,124	..	1,932	21.4	30.3	48.2	2.5 ^b	13.2 ^b	39.4
Guinea-Bissau	968	5.7	626	1,270	..	132	5.0
Kenya	33,621	4.4	808	1,710	6.7	7,052	14.0	29.1	46.0	47.9	12.0	..
Lesotho	2,426	4.2	1,106	1,691	3.3	452	5.0	46.4	112.6	8.9	28.1	..
Liberia	1,545	9.4	374	585	222.8	122	8.5	27.5	93.3	38.2
Madagascar	9,912	1.0	465	966	9.3	1,771	9.5	26.1	37.1	34.7	17.9	44.1
Malawi	5,621	4.3	365	893	..	751	7.6	29.6	39.5	75.7	13.2	43.9
Mali	10,827	2.7	684	1,091	13.0	1,793	2.9	25.1	35.7	29.8	11.6	33.0
Mauritania	4,213	4.0	1,190	2,532	..	2,479	5.7	65.6	59.2	20.4	14.5	40.5
Mauritius	11,260	4.1	8,755	14,420	0.4	961	6.5	54.1	66.4	33.2	21.3	..
Mozambique	12,762	7.1	533	975	..	2,240	10.4	29.0	45.5	20.5	12.3	45.7
Namibia	12,511	4.8	5,383	6,801	10.8 ^c	..	5.0	44.7	52.4	24.7	14.1	..
Niger	6,017	2.3	374	727	..	1,630	2.9	13.6	15.8	34.6
Nigeria	243,986	7.4	1,502	2,533	10.8	7,767	10.8	39.6	35.6	1.8	30.6	39.7
Rwanda	6,375	8.3	583	1,282	..	790	5.7	13.4	32.5	41.8	17.1	50.8
São Tomé & Príncipe	248	4.9	1,473	2,077	..	80	11.9	11.5	57.4	94.6	29.8	..
Senegal	14,291	2.6	1,119	1,967	..	3,344	3.4	24.5	44.2	33.8	23.0	40.3
Sierra Leone	2,973	6.0	496	1,131	4.1	369	16.2	16.6	54.5	35.4
Somalia	3,469
South Africa	408,237	3.1	8,070	10,960	3.8	60,121	5.0	28.8	29.4	8.0	6.1	63.1
South Sudan	19,172	1.9	1,859	47.3	64.9	27.2	45.5
Sudan	64,053	4.7	1,435	2,325	..	23,857	13.0 ^d	18.5	16.3	5.6	14.9	35.3
Swaziland	4,090	1.3	3,831	6,053	..	510	6.1	64.6	72.5	21.1 ^a	20.5 ^a	51.5
Tanzania	23,874	6.4	532	1,512	..	6,062	12.7	31.1	50.2	32.2	9.9	37.6
Togo	3,620	4.9	588	1,049	10.1	507	3.6	40.9	58.4	11.4	16.9	39.3
Uganda	16,810	6.7	487	1,345	8.6	1,930	18.7	23.7	34.5	54.0	13.5	44.3
Zambia	19,206	6.5	1,425	1,621	10.0	1,637	6.4	46.0	37.0	6.9	5.1	57.5
Zimbabwe	9,656	9.4	757	5,158	24,411.0 ^b	49.4	87.8	26.3	15.0	..
column number	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25

Table 1
Demographics and Economic Indicators

	Population						Life expectancy	Human development index (HDI)	Employment	Remittances	Migration		
	total	ages 0-14 (%)	annual growth (%)	density (per sq. km)	rural (%)	urban (%)	life exp. at birth (years)	scale (0-1, 0 is least developed)	employment to pop. ratio (% of total pop. above age 15)	workers' remittances & compensation received (current US\$)	net migration (number of people)	pop. of out-going refugees originating from the country	pop. of incoming foreign refugees granted asylum in the country
	2011	2011	2011	2011	2011	2011	2011	2011	2011	2011	2010	2011	2011
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	336,540,278	30.8	1.7	38.9	41.1	58.9	72.3	..	40.5	41,338,544,388	-1,628,351	1,657,643	7,374,102
Algeria	35,980,193	26.8	1.4	15.1	27.1	72.9	73.1	0.71	37.8	202,869,766	-140,000	6,121	94,148
Bahrain	1,323,535	19.8	4.8	1,741.5	11.3	88.7	75.2	0.80	65.0	..	447,856	215	199
Djibouti	905,564	35.4	1.9	39.1	22.9	77.1	57.9	0.45	..	32,359,710	..	602	20,340
Egypt, Arab Rep.	82,536,770	31.3	1.7	82.9	56.5	43.5	73.2	0.66	43.0	14,324,300,000	-346,922	7,936	95,087
Iran, Islamic Rep.	74,798,599	22.7	1.1	45.9	30.9	69.1	73.0	0.74	40.2	1,329,781,000	-185,650	72,361	886,468
Iraq	32,961,959	42.9	2.9	75.9	33.5	66.5	69.0	0.59	33.3	386,200,000	-150,021	1,428,308	35,189
Israel	7,765,900	27.2	1.8	358.9	8.1	91.9	81.8	0.90	54.1	594,600,000	273,635	1,335	41,235
Jordan	6,181,000	37.0	2.2	69.6	17.3	82.7	73.4	0.70	36.2	3,452,816,901	202,919	2,250	2,430,589
Kuwait	2,818,042	26.8	2.9	158.1	1.7	98.3	74.7	0.79	66.4	..	277,629	1,120	335
Lebanon	4,259,405	24.2	0.7	416.4	12.8	87.2	72.6	0.75	41.6	7,321,666,647	-12,500	15,013	445,144
Libya	6,422,772	30.6	1.1	3.7	22.3	77.7	75.0	0.77	46.4	..	-20,300	4,384	10,130
Morocco	32,272,974	27.6	1.0	72.3	43.0	57.0	72.1	0.59	45.2	7,256,318,198	-675,000	2,312	736
Oman	2,846,145	27.0	2.3	9.2	26.6	73.4	73.3	0.73	56.5	39,011,704	153,003	60	83
Qatar	1,870,041	13.4	6.1	161.1	1.2	98.8	78.2	0.83	86.0	573,626,374	857,090	95	80
Saudi Arabia	28,082,541	30.0	2.3	13.1	17.7	82.3	74.1	0.78	47.5	243,733,333	1,055,517	745	599
Syrian Arab Republic	20,820,311	36.2	1.8	113.4	43.9	56.1	75.8	0.65	38.9	2,078,538,750	-55,877	19,931	1,242,391
Tunisia	10,673,800	23.2	1.2	68.7	33.7	66.3	74.8	0.71	40.5	2,004,498,798	-20,000	1,952	4,097
United Arab Emirates	7,890,924	16.8	4.9	94.4	15.7	84.3	76.7	0.82	75.9	..	3,076,634	486	677
West Bank & Gaza	3,927,051	41.9	3.0	652.3	25.6	74.4	72.8	..	32.4	1,545,274,617	-90,000	94,150	1,895,043
Yemen, Rep.	24,799,880	44.0	3.1	47.0	67.7	32.3	65.5	0.46	40.9	1,403,920,000	-135,000	2,323	214,740
SOUTH ASIA	1,656,464,573	31.1	1.4	347.2	69.1	30.9	65.6	..	54.9	97,532,194,856	-8,622,263	2,928,157	2,193,338
Afghanistan	35,320,445	46.1	2.7	54.2	76.5	23.5	48.7	0.37	45.1	..	-381,030	2,664,436	3,009
Bangladesh	150,493,658	30.7	1.2	1,156.1	71.6	28.4	68.9	0.52	67.6	12,067,827,766	-2,908,015	10,056	229,669
Bhutan	738,267	28.8	1.7	19.2	64.4	35.6	67.3	0.54	69.1	10,442,903	16,829	57,989	..
India	1,241,491,960	30.2	1.4	417.6	68.7	31.3	65.5	0.55	53.6	63,818,000,000	-2,999,998	16,232	185,118
Maldives	320,081	25.8	1.3	1,066.9	58.9	41.1	76.9	0.69	57.7	2,997,539	-53	21	..
Nepal	30,485,798	35.5	1.7	212.7	83.0	17.0	68.7	0.46	82.1	4,216,916,649	-100,000	6,854	72,654
Pakistan	176,745,364	34.8	1.8	229.3	63.8	36.2	65.4	0.52	50.7	12,263,000,000	-1,999,998	35,952	1,702,700
Sri Lanka	20,869,000	24.9	1.0	332.8	84.9	15.1	74.9	0.72	52.7	5,153,010,000	-249,998	136,617	188
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	1,974,218,593	21.6	0.7	124.5	51.4	48.6	72.4	..	69.8	85,943,060,669	-5,221,061	988,923	488,524
Australia	22,323,900	18.9	1.2	2.9	10.8	89.2	81.8	0.94	62.2	1,871,242,125	1,124,639	39	23,434
Brunei Darussalam	405,938	25.9	1.7	77.0	24.0	76.0	78.1	0.86	62.9	..	3,500	1	..
Cambodia	14,305,183	31.2	1.2	81.0	80.0	20.0	63.0	0.54	81.2	160,444,113	-254,942	15,205	64
China	1,344,130,000	19.1	0.5	144.1	49.5	50.5	73.5	0.70	70.9	40,483,340,782	-1,884,102	190,369	301,018
Fiji	868,406	28.9	0.9	47.5	47.8	52.2	69.3	0.70	56.7	157,955,025	-28,754	1,579	7
Hong Kong SAR, China	7,071,600	11.2	0.1	6,786.6	..	100.0	83.4	0.91	57.0	356,905,453	176,125	15	152
Indonesia	242,325,638	26.7	1.0	133.8	49.3	50.7	69.3	0.63	62.7	6,923,970,511	-1,293,089	16,079	1,006
Japan	127,817,277	13.3	0.3	350.7	8.9	91.1	82.6	0.91	57.4	2,131,729,225	270,000	176	2,649
Kiribati	101,093	..	1.5	124.8	56.1	43.9	..	0.63	33	..
Korea, Dem. Rep.	24,451,285	22.4	0.4	203.1	39.7	60.3	68.7	..	74.0	1,052	..
Korea, Rep.	49,779,000	15.9	0.7	512.7	16.8	83.2	80.9	0.91	58.1	8,494,300,000	-30,000	514	401
Lao PDR	6,288,037	33.7	1.4	27.2	65.8	34.2	67.4	0.54	76.9	110,297,813	-74,998	8,088	..
Macao SAR, China	555,731	12.8	2.2	19,847.5	..	100.0	81.0	..	69.8	48,292,584	50,625	10	1
Malaysia	28,859,154	29.9	1.6	87.8	27.3	72.7	74.3	0.77	58.6	1,197,788,774	84,494	537	86,680
Mongolia	2,800,114	27.6	1.6	1.8	31.5	68.5	68.5	0.68	57.6	279,425,057	-15,001	1,985	1
Myanmar	48,336,763	25.2	0.8	74.0	67.3	32.7	65.2	0.50	75.8	127,075,981	-500,000	414,626	..
New Zealand	4,405,200	20.4	0.9	16.7	13.8	86.2	80.9	0.92	63.3	874,842,321	65,004	18	1,934
Papua New Guinea	7,013,829	38.7	2.2	15.5	87.5	12.5	62.8	0.47	70.7	10,848,403	..	128	9,377
Philippines	94,852,030	35.1	1.7	318.1	51.1	48.9	68.8	0.65	59.9	22,973,000,000	-1,233,365	952	125
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13

Table 1
Demographics and Economic Indicators

	Gross domestic product				Military spending	Debt & inflation		Exports & imports of goods & services		Exports & imports of food		Income inequality
	GDP (current million US\$) 2011	growth (%) 2011	per capita (current US\$) 2011	per capita PPP ⁱ (current int'l \$) 2011	% of gov't spending 2008-2011	value of external debt (current million US\$) 2011	annual inflation, consumer prices (%) 2011	exports (% of GDP) 2010-2011	imports (% of GDP) 2010-2011	exports (% of merchandise) 2009-2011	imports (% of merchandise) 2009-2011	GINI index, scale (0-100, 100 is maximal inequality) 2007-2011
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	1,201,884^d	4.2^d	3,632^d	7,135^c	11.9^c	137,430	4.5	38.1^a	33.3^a	6.7	15.6	..
Algeria	188,681	2.5	5,244	8,655	14.6	3,737	4.5	30.8	21.5	0.5	22.8	..
Bahrain	22,945 ^d	4.5 ^d	18,184 ^d	23,645 ^d	17.0 ^c	..	-0.4	81.3 ^c	58.8 ^c	5.9	14.3	..
Djibouti	1,049 ^c	5.0 ^c	1,203 ^c	2,296 ^c	..	491	4.4	57.1 ^a	77.1 ^a	0.4	29.3	..
Egypt, Arab Rep.	229,531	1.8	2,781	6,281	6.4	27,719	10.1	23.3	30.2	15.0	23.7	30.8
Iran, Islamic Rep.	331,015 ^c	1.8 ^c	4,526 ^c	11,508 ^c	8.6	15,522	20.6	32.2 ^a	21.5 ^a	3.7	14.1	..
Iraq	115,388	9.9	3,501	3,864	2.9 ^d	0.0	..	30.9
Israel	242,929	4.7	31,281	28,809	16.4	..	3.5	36.9	37.8	2.9	7.2	..
Jordan	28,840	2.6	4,666	5,966	16.1	16,195	4.4	45.6	73.9	17.1	16.1	35.4
Kuwait	176,590	8.2	62,664	54,283	9.8	..	4.7	65.9	21.1	0.3	14.7 ^b	..
Lebanon	40,094	3.0	9,413	14,609	16.0	23,272	4.0 ^d	23.7	50.4	18.4	16.8	..
Libya	62,360 ^c	2.1 ^c	9,957 ^c	16,897 ^c	2.5 ^d	67.4 ^b	27.5 ^b	0.0	12.1	..
Morocco	100,221	4.5	3,054	4,952	10.2	23,443	0.9	34.6	48.0	19.0	11.4	40.9
Oman	71,782	5.5	25,221	28,684	21.2	..	4.1	52.6 ^c	41.5 ^c	2.2	11.0	..
Qatar	172,982	18.8	92,501	88,314	15.4	..	1.9	47.1 ^c	31.5 ^c	0.0	8.2	41.1
Saudi Arabia	576,824	6.8	20,540	24,268	5.0	61.6	30.6	0.9	15.2	..
Syrian Arab Republic	59,147 ^d	3.2 ^d	2,893 ^d	5,252 ^d	..	4,147	4.8	35.3	35.8	21.0	21.0	..
Tunisia	46,435	-2.0	4,350	9,317	4.0	19,215	3.6	48.9	55.8	10.1	11.3	36.1
United Arab Emirates	360,245	4.9	45,653	47,893	0.9	77.9	68.8	0.8 ^b	6.6 ^b	..
West Bank & Gaza	2.8 ^c	35.5
Yemen, Rep.	33,758	-10.5	1,361	2,333	..	3,691	16.4	30.5	34.6	7.3	31.5	..
SOUTH ASIA	2,295,951	6.1	1,386	3,312	16.2	367,732	9.2	22.7	29.8	12.5	6.4	..
Afghanistan	19,177	5.7	543	1,139	8.1	737	5.7	18.1	63.4	39.1	14.0	27.8
Bangladesh	111,879	6.7	743	1,777	11.8	17,349	10.7	22.9	31.6	6.5 ^a	22.5 ^a	32.1
Bhutan	1,732	5.6	2,346	5,846	..	811	8.8	36.6	55.8	8.5	10.9	38.1
India	1,872,840	6.3	1,509	3,650	16.6	283,499	8.9	23.9	30.3	9.0	3.7	33.9
Maldives	2,050	7.5	6,405	8,871	..	802	12.8	113.5	110.5	96.8	21.0	..
Nepal	18,884	3.9	619	1,252	8.9	2,462	9.5	8.9	32.8	18.6	14.9	32.8
Pakistan	210,216	3.0	1,189	2,745	16.9	43,560	11.9	14.2	19.2	19.5	12.0	30.0
Sri Lanka	59,172	8.3	2,835	5,582	14.7	18,512	6.7	23.1	37.6	25.7	13.3	36.4
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	9,313,033	8.3	4,717	7,315	14.5	1,114,716	5.5	39.1	35.3	8.6	6.4	..
Australia	1,379,382	1.9	61,789	41,974	7.1	..	3.4	21.3	19.8	11.4	5.3	..
Brunei Darussalam	16,360	2.2	40,301	51,760	2.0	81.3	29.1
Cambodia	12,830	7.1	897	2,358	13.9	2,894	5.5	54.1	59.5	2.6	6.7	36.0
China	7,318,499	9.3	5,445	8,400	16.1	650,933	5.4	31.4	27.3	2.9	4.6	42.1
Fiji	3,818	2.0	4,397	4,757	..	691	8.7	47.5	58.1	70.2	20.6	42.8
Hong Kong SAR, China	248,612	4.9	35,156	50,551	5.3	225.5	221.5	8.3	4.4	..
Indonesia	846,832	6.5	3,495	4,636	4.2	180,033	5.4	26.3	24.9	16.3	9.4	35.6
Japan	5,867,154	-0.7	45,903	33,668	5.2	..	-0.3	15.2	16.1	0.6	9.2	..
Kiribati	167	1.8	1,649	2,337	80.6	45.1	..
Korea, Dem. Rep.
Korea, Rep.	1,116,247	3.6	22,424	29,834	13.5	..	4.0	56.2	54.1	1.1	4.8	..
Lao PDR	8,298	8.0	1,320	2,790	2.1	4,393	7.6	37.7	43.9	36.7
Macao SAR, China	36,428	20.7	65,550	77,079	5.8	112.4	53.6	0.2	17.1	..
Malaysia	287,937	5.1	9,977	16,051	7.8	84,722	3.2	91.6	75.7	14.0	8.9	46.2
Mongolia	8,761	17.5	3,129	4,742	3.3	1,852	9.5	62.3	86.8	1.7 ^a	11.8 ^a	36.5
Myanmar	3,307	5.0	19.6	8.3	..
New Zealand	159,706	1.0	36,254	31,082	2.6	..	4.4	30.0	28.7	56.0	10.8	..
Papua New Guinea	12,937	9.0	1,845	2,676	..	9,802	8.4	51.0	48.1
Philippines	224,771	3.9	2,370	4,119	6.8	64,619	4.6	31.0	36.0	10.3	10.3	43.0
column number	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25

Table 1
Demographics and Economic Indicators

	Population						Life expectancy	Human development index (HDI)	Employment	Remittances	Migration		
	total 2011	ages 0-14 (%) 2011	annual growth (%) 2011	density (per sq. km) 2011	rural (%) 2011	urban (%) 2011	life exp. at birth (years) 2011	scale (0-1, 0 is least developed) 2011	employment to pop. ratio (% of total pop. above age 15) 2011	workers' remittances & compensation received (current US\$) 2011	net migration (number of people) 2010	pop. of out-going refugees originating from the country 2011	pop. of incoming foreign refugees granted asylum in the country 2011
CONTINUED: EAST ASIA & PACIFIC													
Samoa	183,874	37.4	0.4	65.0	80.1	19.9	72.5	0.70	..	139,147,085	-15,738	1	..
Singapore	5,183,700	16.8	2.1	7,405.3	..	100.0	81.9	0.90	63.6	..	721,738	67	3
Solomon Islands	552,267	39.5	2.6	19.7	79.5	20.5	67.9	0.53	64.5	1,667,214	..	72	..
Thailand	69,518,555	20.2	0.6	136.1	65.9	34.1	74.1	0.69	71.2	4,554,062,826	492,252	368	89,253
Timor-Leste	1,175,880	45.7	2.9	79.1	71.7	28.3	62.5	0.58	54.3	130,765,490	-49,930	8	1 ^d
Tuvalu	9,847	..	0.2	328.2	49.4	50.6	1	..
Vanuatu	245,619	37.9	2.5	20.1	75.1	24.9	71.1	0.63	..	21,765,886	..	1	4 ^d
Vietnam	87,840,000	23.2	1.0	283.3	69.0	31.0	75.1	0.62	75.3	8,600,000,000	-430,692	337,829	990
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	408,141,146	19.5	0.5	17.9	35.3	64.7	70.8	..	54.3	42,959,662,602	-595,318	602,731	137,048
Albania	3,215,988	22.1	0.4	117.4	46.6	53.4	77.0	0.75	52.3	1,161,783,865	-47,889	13,551	82
Armenia	3,100,236	20.2	0.3	108.9	35.9	64.1	73.9	0.73	40.9	1,993,605,174	-75,000	16,487	2,918
Austria	8,423,635	14.5	0.4	102.2	32.3	67.7	81.0	0.90	58.0	2,673,891,897	160,000	11	47,073
Azerbaijan	9,173,082	21.0	1.3	111.0	46.4	53.6	70.7	0.73	60.7	1,893,080,000	53,264	16,162	1,730
Belarus	9,473,000	15.1	-0.2	46.7	25.0	75.0	70.7	0.79	50.6	814,000,000	-50,010	5,925	595
Belgium	11,020,952	16.9	1.1	364.0	2.5	97.5	80.5	0.90	50.1	10,912,229,980	200,000	90	22,402
Bosnia & Herzegovina	3,752,228	14.7	-0.2	73.6	51.7	48.3	75.6	0.74	33.5	1,958,230,200	-10,000	58,578	6,933
Bulgaria	7,348,328	13.9	-2.5	67.7	26.9	73.1	74.2	0.78	48.2	1,483,178,487	-50,000	2,327	5,688
Croatia	4,403,000	14.8	-0.3	78.7	42.2	57.8	76.9	0.81	45.5	1,378,442,293	10,000	62,649	824
Cyprus	1,116,564	17.4	1.2	120.8	29.5	70.5	79.6	0.85	59.5	126,830,613	44,166	11	3,503
Czech Republic	10,496,088	14.1	-0.2	135.9	26.6	73.4	77.9	0.87	54.7	1,814,561,876	240,466	763	2,449
Denmark	5,570,572	17.8	0.4	131.3	13.1	86.9	79.8	0.90	59.5	1,273,304,825	90,316	9	13,399
Estonia	1,339,928	15.6	0.0	31.6	30.5	69.5	76.1	0.85	54.2	406,584,265	..	224	50
Finland	5,388,272	16.5	0.5	17.7	16.3	83.7	80.5	0.89	55.3	751,398,504	72,634	7	9,175
France	65,433,714	18.4	0.5	119.5	14.3	85.7	81.7	0.89	50.8	19,307,322,287	500,001	99	210,207
Georgia	4,486,000	16.5	0.7	78.5	47.1	52.9	73.3 ^d	0.75	55.0	1,536,703,764	-150,000	10,112	462
Germany	81,797,673	13.4	0.0	234.7	26.1	73.9	80.7	0.92	56.0	13,159,497,491	550,001	174	571,684
Greece	11,300,410	14.6	-0.1	87.7	38.5	61.5	80.7	0.86	45.3	1,186,193,538	154,004	56	1,573
Hungary	9,971,727	14.7	-0.3	110.1	30.6	69.4	74.9	0.83	45.1	2,440,790,053	75,000	1,238	5,106
Iceland	319,014	20.7	0.3	3.2	6.3	93.7	82.4	0.91	69.4	21,140,731	10,417	3	58
Ireland	4,576,317	21.3	2.3	66.4	37.8	62.2	80.5	0.92	51.8	755,493,768	100,000	8	8,248
Italy	60,723,603	14.1	0.4	206.4	31.6	68.4	82.1	0.88	44.4	7,025,344,142	1,998,926	58	58,060
Kazakhstan	16,558,676	24.8	1.4	6.1	46.4	53.6	68.9	0.75	67.7	179,708,291	6,990	3,500	616
Kosovo	1,802,765	27.5 ^d	1.5	165.6	70.1	1,121,647,885
Kyrgyz Republic	5,514,600	29.9	1.2	28.8	64.6	35.4	69.6	0.62	60.9	1,708,694,028	-131,593	3,162	6,095
Latvia	2,058,184	14.0	-8.4	33.1	32.3	67.7	73.6	0.81	51.2	695,200,000	-10,000	709	95
Lithuania	3,030,173	14.7	-8.1	48.3	32.9	67.1	73.6	0.82	49.6	1,956,390,868	-35,495	528	821
Luxembourg	518,252	17.5	2.2	200.1	14.6	85.4	81.0	0.88	54.4	1,740,376,029	42,469	2 ^a	2,855
Macedonia, FYR	2,063,893	17.3	0.2	81.8	40.7	59.3	74.8	0.74	38.4	433,726,453	2,000	7,684	1,130
Malta	415,654	14.6	-0.1	1,298.9	5.2	94.8	82.0	0.85	47.8	36,707,272	5,000	6	6,952
Moldova	3,559,000	16.6	-0.1	123.9	52.3	47.7	69.2	0.66	38.7	1,600,400,000	-171,748	6,264	146
Montenegro	632,261	19.1	0.1	47.0	36.7	63.3	74.5	0.79	..	343,132,207	-2,508	3,698	12,874
Netherlands	16,693,074	17.5	0.5	494.9	16.9	83.1	81.2	0.92	61.8	1,759,498,010	50,006	64	74,598
Norway	4,953,088	18.6	1.3	16.3	20.6	79.4	81.3	0.96	63.7	764,994,190	171,232	7	40,691
Poland	38,534,157	14.7	0.9	126.7	39.1	60.9	76.7	0.82	50.5	7,641,000,000	55,644	1,815	15,847
Portugal	10,556,999	15.0	-0.8	115.4	39.0	61.0	80.7	0.82	54.0	3,777,859,611	150,002	28	408
Romania	21,384,832	15.2	-0.2	92.9	47.2	52.8	74.5	0.79	52.3	3,889,000,000	-100,000	3,428	1,005
Russian Federation	142,960,000	15.3	0.4	8.7	26.2	73.8	69.0	0.79	58.8	4,951,000,000	1,135,737	109,785	3,914
Serbia	7,258,745	17.5	-0.4	83.0	43.6	56.4	74.6	0.77	..	3,271,309,711	..	161,671	70,707
Slovak Republic	5,398,384	15.0	-0.6	112.3	45.2	54.8	76.0	0.84	51.4	1,752,743,846	36,684	269	546
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13

Table 1
Demographics and Economic Indicators

	Gross domestic product				Military spending	Debt & inflation		Exports & imports of goods & services		Exports & imports of food		Income inequality
	GDP (current million US\$) 2011	growth (%) 2011	per capita (current US\$) 2011	per capita PPP [†] (current int'l \$) 2011	% of gov't spending 2008-2011	value of external debt (current million US\$) 2011	annual inflation, consumer prices (%) 2011	exports (% of GDP) 2010-2011	imports (% of GDP) 2010-2011	exports (% of merchandise) 2009-2011	imports (% of merchandise) 2009-2011	GINI index, scale (0-100, 100 is maximal inequality) 2007-2011
CONTINUED: EAST ASIA & PACIFIC												
Samoa	641	2.0	3,485	4,475	..	207	5.2	31.4	58.2	31.6	26.1	..
Singapore	239,700	4.9	46,241	60,688	26.6	..	5.3	209.0	182.3	2.2	3.4	..
Solomon Islands	838	9.0	1,517	2,923	..	181	7.3	25.8	49.6	19.7	17.8	..
Thailand	345,672	0.1	4,972	8,646	7.7	74,934	3.8	76.9	72.4	14.1	5.1	39.4
Timor-Leste	1,054	10.6	896	1,578	13.5
Tuvalu	36	1.2	3,636	21.5 ^b	..
Vanuatu	760	1.4	3,094	4,379	..	67	0.9	48.7	52.1	85.3	25.0	..
Vietnam	123,600	5.9	1,407	3,412	..	35,961	18.7	87.0	91.2	19.3	8.7	35.6
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	3,634,863	5.9	8,906	15,045	12.1	1,327,007	7.7	34.8	34.7	6.4	8.7	..
Albania	12,960	3.0	4,030	8,866	..	4,598	3.5	33.8	56.0	4.1	16.6	34.5
Armenia	10,248	4.6	3,305	5,789	18.1	5,767	7.7	23.5	48.1	19.2	19.8	31.3
Austria	417,656	2.7	49,581	42,172	2.2	..	3.3	57.3	54.0	7.0	7.1	..
Azerbaijan	63,404	1.0	6,912	10,062	31.3	10,995	7.9	62.8	24.2	2.7	14.1	33.7
Belarus	55,132	5.3	5,820	14,938	3.8	26,902	53.2	87.9	90.0	9.2	6.8	26.5
Belgium	513,661	1.8	46,608	38,723	2.4	..	3.5	84.3	83.1	8.8	8.5	..
Bosnia & Herzegovina	18,088	1.7	4,821	9,076	3.5	8,607	3.7	42.3	64.8	6.8	17.6	36.2
Bulgaria	53,514	1.7	7,283	15,083	4.7	36,476	4.2	66.5	65.8	15.5	9.3	28.2
Croatia	62,493	0.0	14,193	19,487	4.8	..	2.3	41.8	41.9	11.5	10.9	33.7
Cyprus	24,690	0.5	30,670	32,254	5.0	..	3.3	40.1	46.6	37.7	15.7	..
Czech Republic	217,027	1.9	20,677	26,332	3.2	..	1.9	72.5	68.5	4.1	5.6	..
Denmark	333,616	1.1	59,889	40,933	3.4	..	2.8	53.4	48.2	17.7	13.5	..
Estonia	22,155	8.3	16,534	21,997	5.2	..	5.0	91.5	87.6	9.0	9.8	..
Finland	263,011	2.7	48,812	37,455	3.8	..	3.4	40.7	41.4	2.8	6.8	..
France	2,773,032	1.7	42,379	35,247	4.7	..	2.1	27.0	29.8	12.7	8.3	..
Georgia	14,367	7.0	3,203	5,465	12.1	9,652	8.5	36.5	55.1	21.9	18.2	42.1
Germany	3,600,833	3.0	44,021	39,456	4.4	..	2.1	50.2	45.1	5.4	7.4	..
Greece	289,627	-7.1	25,630	25,858	5.4	..	3.3	25.1	33.1	18.3	13.9	..
Hungary	140,029	1.7	14,043	21,661	2.2	..	4.0	92.3	84.9	8.0	5.1	31.2
Iceland	14,026	2.6	43,967	36,483	0.2	..	4.0	59.3	50.8	42.6	10.5	..
Ireland	217,275	0.7	47,478	40,868	1.3	..	2.6	106.6	84.3	9.2	12.3	..
Italy	2,193,971	0.4	36,130	32,672	3.8	..	2.7	28.8	30.3	7.7	9.3	..
Kazakhstan	188,050	7.5	11,357	13,099	6.3	104,551	8.3	49.5	27.7	2.1	10.4	29.0
Kosovo	6,453	5.0	3,579	703	7.3	20.1	61.1
Kyrgyz Republic	6,198	6.0	1,124	2,402	19.9	4,020	16.5	54.5	81.6	25.8	16.6	33.4
Latvia	28,252	5.5	13,727	18,951	3.4	35,601	4.4	59.3	63.2	15.2	13.4	34.8
Lithuania	42,725	5.9	14,100	21,480	3.0	27,691	4.1	77.8	79.3	15.8	11.5	37.6
Luxembourg	59,201	1.7	114,232	88,797	1.7 ^c	..	3.4	176.5	145.3	8.1	10.0	..
Macedonia, FYR	10,439	2.8	5,058	11,561	5.8	5,667	3.9	54.5	74.1	14.1	11.8	43.6
Malta	8,887	2.1	21,380	27,504	1.7	..	2.7	98.0	93.1	3.7	9.4	..
Moldova	7,001	6.4	1,967	3,369	0.9	4,644	7.7	45.0	86.2	70.1	12.8	33.0
Montenegro	4,496	3.2	7,111	13,432	..	2,053	3.2	40.2	66.2	28.6
Netherlands	836,074	1.0	50,085	42,779	3.2	..	2.4	83.0	74.1	15.8	12.1	..
Norway	485,803	1.4	98,081	60,392	4.6	..	1.3	42.1	28.3	6.4	8.3	..
Poland	514,496	4.3	13,352	21,085	5.5	..	4.2	42.2	43.5	10.8	7.8	32.7
Portugal	237,374	-1.7	22,485	25,564	4.4	..	3.7	35.5	39.3	11.1	14.7	..
Romania	189,776	2.5	8,874	15,983	3.3	109,985	5.8	38.3	43.5	8.5	7.4	27.4
Russian Federation	1,857,770	4.3	12,995	21,921	15.0	490,820	8.4	31.1	22.3	2.2	12.3	40.1
Serbia	45,820	2.0	6,312	11,887	5.4	27,316	11.1	36.1	51.2	18.6 ^a	5.8 ^a	29.6
Slovak Republic	95,994	3.3	17,782	24,095	3.1	..	3.9	89.1	86.4	4.8	6.4	26.0
column number	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25

Table 1
Demographics and Economic Indicators

	Population					Life expectancy	Human development index (HDI)	Employment	Remittances	Migration		
	ages 0-14	annual growth	density (per sq. km)	rural (%)	urban (%)	life exp. at birth (years)	scale (0-1, 0 is least developed)	employment to pop. ratio (% of total pop. above age 15)	workers' remittances & compensation received (current US\$)	net migration (number of people)	pop. of out-going refugees originating from the country	pop. of incoming foreign refugees granted asylum in the country
	total 2011	(%) 2011	(%) 2011	(%) 2011	(%) 2011	(years) 2011	2011	2011	2011	2010	2011	2011

CONTINUED: EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA

Slovenia	2,052,843	13.9	0.2	101.9	50.1	49.9	80.0	0.89	54.2	433,055,831	22,000	32	142
Spain	46,174,601	15.1	0.2	92.6	22.6	77.4	82.3	0.89	46.4	9,907,220,262	2,250,005	43	4,228
Sweden	9,449,213	16.6	0.8	23.0	14.8	85.2	81.8	0.92	58.9	776,073,285	265,649	24	86,615
Switzerland	7,912,398	15.1	1.1	197.8	26.3	73.7	82.7	0.91	65.0	3,306,690,995	182,803	20	50,416
Tajikistan	6,976,958	36.5	1.4	49.8	73.4	26.6	67.5	0.62	58.6	3,059,871,670	-296,075	612	3,323
Turkey	73,639,596	26.0	1.2	95.7	28.6	71.4	73.9	0.72	45.1	1,087,000,000	-50,000	139,779	14,465
Turkmenistan	5,105,301	28.9	1.2	10.9	51.3	48.7	65.0	0.70	54.5	..	-54,499	726	59
Ukraine	45,706,100	14.3	-0.4	78.9	31.1	68.9	70.8	0.74	54.5	7,822,000,000	-40,006	25,379	3,176
United Kingdom	62,744,081	17.3	0.8	259.3	20.4	79.6	80.8	0.88	56.8	1,795,716,938	1,020,211	150	193,510
Uzbekistan	29,341,200	28.8	2.7	69.0	63.8	36.2	68.3	0.65	54.4	..	-518,486	12,664	214

LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN

CARIBBEAN	589,015,278	27.6	1.1	29.3	20.9	79.1	74.4	..	61.8	59,532,205,754	-5,087,610	483,516	377,720
Argentina	40,764,561	24.6	0.9	14.9	7.5	92.5	75.8	0.81	56.3	685,948,493	-199,997	518	3,361
Bahamas, The	347,176	22.0	1.2	34.7	15.7	84.3	75.5	0.79	65.0	..	6,440	185	28
Belize	356,600	34.4	3.4	15.6	55.2	44.8	76.1	0.70	59.0	75,654,116	-972	32	78
Bolivia	10,088,108	35.7	1.6	9.3	33.2	66.8	66.6	0.68	68.7	1,042,996,647	-165,177	611	716
Brazil	196,655,014	25.0	0.9	23.2	15.4	84.6	73.4	0.73	64.8	2,798,456,999	-499,999	1,045	4,477
Chile	17,269,525	21.7	0.9	23.2	10.9	89.1	79.0	0.82	56.1	4,100,000	30,000	1,189	1,674
Colombia	46,927,125	28.4	1.4	42.3	24.7	75.3	73.6	0.72	60.1	4,204,909,078	-120,000	395,949	219
Costa Rica	4,726,575	24.4	1.4	92.6	35.4	64.6	79.3	0.77	59.8	520,219,673	75,600	331	20,057
Cuba	11,253,665	16.9	0.0	105.7	24.8	75.2	79.1	0.78	55.5	..	-190,123	7,856	384
Dominican Republic	10,056,181	30.7	1.3	208.1	30.4	69.6	73.4	0.70	55.6	3,650,300,000	-140,000	250	595
Ecuador	14,666,055	29.9	1.4	59.1	32.6	67.4	75.6	0.72	64.2	2,680,665,269	-120,000	909	123,436
El Salvador	6,227,491	31.2	0.6	300.6	35.2	64.8	71.9	0.68	57.4	3,665,423,186	-291,710	6,720	38
Guatemala	14,757,316	41.1	2.5	137.7	50.2	49.8	71.1	0.58	65.6	4,508,126,000	-200,000	6,088	147
Guyana	756,040	32.5	0.2	3.8	71.6	28.4	69.9	0.64	53.7	373,096,197	-40,000	771	7
Haiti	10,123,787	35.5	1.3	367.3	46.7	53.3	62.1	0.46	59.8	1,551,367,000	-239,997	33,661	3 ^c
Honduras	7,754,687	36.2	2.0	69.3	47.8	52.2	73.1	0.63	60.3	2,810,592,536	-100,000	1,966	17
Jamaica	2,706,500	28.5	0.3	249.9	47.9	52.1	73.1	0.73	55.6	2,105,606,761	-100,000	1,250	20
Mexico	114,793,341	28.7	1.2	59.1	21.9	78.1	76.9	0.78	58.6	23,588,480,056	-1,805,238	7,472	1,677
Nicaragua	5,869,859	33.9	1.4	48.8	42.4	57.6	74.0	0.60	59.8	913,600,000	-200,000	1,468	86
Panama	3,571,185	28.6	1.5	48.0	24.8	75.2	76.1	0.78	62.0	388,100,000	11,000	100	17,262
Paraguay	6,568,290	33.1	1.7	16.5	38.1	61.9	72.5	0.67	68.4	892,610,000	-40,000	91	124
Peru	29,399,817	29.6	1.1	23.0	22.8	77.2	74.0	0.74	71.3	2,696,961,723	-724,999	5,491	1,144
Suriname	529,419	28.2	0.9	3.4	30.3	69.7	70.6	0.68	47.7	3,893,785	-4,998	20	1 ^d
Trinidad & Tobago	1,346,350	20.5	0.4	262.4	86.3	13.7	70.0	0.76	62.3	90,900,000	-19,806	297	22
Uruguay	3,368,595	22.3	0.4	19.2	7.5	92.5	76.4	0.79	61.6	101,523,000	-50,000	184	174
Venezuela, RB	29,278,000	29.1	1.5	33.2	6.5	93.5	74.3	0.75	60.5	138,000,000	40,000	7,577	202,022

NORTH AMERICA	346,140,592	19.7	0.8	19.0	17.8	82.2	78.9	..	58.3	7,063,422,248	6,053,368	3,887	429,646
Canada	34,483,975	16.3	1.0	3.8	19.3	80.7	80.9	0.91	61.6	..	1,098,444	109	164,883
United States	311,591,917	20.1	0.7	34.1	17.6	82.4	78.6	0.94	57.9	5,810,000,000	4,954,924	3,778	264,763
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13

.. Data not available.

0 Zero, or rounds to zero at displayed number of decimal.

a Data refers to 2007.

b Data refers to 2008.

c Data refers to 2009.

d Data refers to 2010.

e Data refers to 2011.

f Data refers to 2012.

* Data refers to Sudan before South Sudanese independence.

† Purchasing Power Parity: a method of currency conversion that equalizes the purchasing power of different currencies.

Sources for tables on page 241.

Table 1
Demographics and Economic Indicators

	Gross domestic product				Military spending	Debt & inflation		Exports & imports of goods & services		Exports & imports of food		Income inequality
	GDP (current million US\$) 2011	growth (%) 2011	per capita (current US\$) 2011	per capita PPP† (current int'l \$) 2011	% of gov't spending 2008-2011	value of external debt (current million US\$) 2011	annual inflation, consumer prices (%) 2011	exports (% of GDP) 2010-2011	imports (% of GDP) 2010-2011	exports (% of merchandise) 2009-2011	imports (% of merchandise) 2009-2011	GINI index, scale (0-100, 100 is maximal inequality) 2007-2011
CONTINUED: EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA												
Slovenia	49,539	-0.2	24,132	26,943	3.3	..	1.8	72.3	71.3	4.1	8.2	..
Spain	1,476,882	0.4	31,985	32,087	3.6	..	3.2	30.3	31.1	14.4	10.5	..
Sweden	539,682	3.9	57,114	41,484	4.0	..	3.0	49.9	43.7	4.5	8.6	..
Switzerland	659,308	1.9	83,326	51,227	4.8	..	0.2	51.2	40.4	3.7	5.8	..
Tajikistan	6,522	7.4	935	2,324	..	2,393	12.4	15.3	58.3	30.8
Turkey	774,983	8.5	10,524	17,110	9.9	281,762	6.5	23.7	32.6	10.6	4.5	40.0
Turkmenistan	28,062	14.7	5,497	9,420	..	300	..	77.8	45.3
Ukraine	165,245	5.2	3,615	7,208	6.5	120,461	8.0	53.8	59.2	18.6	7.4	25.6
United Kingdom	2,445,408	0.8	38,974	35,598	5.8	..	4.5	32.5	34.1	6.4	9.6	..
Uzbekistan	45,359	8.3	1,546	3,287	..	6,043	..	31.7	27.5
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN												
	5,645,541	4.7	9,585	11,936	..	1,021,991	5.5	23.4	23.7	16.4	7.3	..
Argentina	446,044	..	10,942	104,191	8.8 ^a	21.8	19.5	54.2	2.4	44.5
Bahamas, The	7,788	1.6	22,431	31,978	3.2	43.4	56.5	23.5	15.9	..
Belize	1,448	1.9	4,059	6,672	5.0	977	-2.5	65.6	65.3	53.5	12.5	..
Bolivia	23,949	5.2	2,374	5,099	7.7 ^c	3,567	9.8	44.1	38.4	12.8	8.3	56.3
Brazil	2,476,652	2.7	12,594	11,640	5.4	360,891	6.6	11.9	12.6	30.5	4.5	54.7
Chile	248,585	6.0	14,394	17,270	16.0	86,534	3.3	38.1	34.7	17.9	7.4	52.1
Colombia	333,372	5.9	7,104	10,033	19.5	66,967	3.4	19.0	20.1	10.7	9.5	55.9
Costa Rica	40,870	4.2	8,647	12,157	..	9,128	4.9	37.4	41.6	35.2	8.8	50.7
Cuba	60,806 ^b	2.1 ^d	5,397 ^b	19.6	19.0
Dominican Republic	55,611	4.5	5,530	9,796	4.7	12,490	8.5	24.9	35.3	24.6	14.4	47.2
Ecuador	65,945	7.8	4,496	8,669	..	13,553	4.5	32.9	38.6	30.0	8.6	49.3
El Salvador	23,054	1.5	3,702	6,831	4.4	10,272	5.1	28.1	47.3	21.4	15.8	48.3
Guatemala	46,900	3.9	3,178	4,928	3.3	12,806	6.2	27.1	37.9	40.6	13.2	..
Guyana	2,577	4.4 ^d	3,408	3,438 ^d	..	871	5.0	60.3	14.5	..
Haiti	7,346	5.6	726	1,171	..	479	8.4	13.7	55.1
Honduras	17,427	3.6	2,247	4,047	4.6	2,150	6.8	47.6	68.8	54.2	18.8	57.0
Jamaica	14,439	..	5,335	..	2.2	13,363	7.5	30.9	53.8	24.6	17.7	..
Mexico	1,153,343	3.9	10,047	16,588	..	203,924	3.4	31.7	33.0	6.3	7.0	47.2
Nicaragua	9,317	5.1	1,587	3,812	3.7	2,334	8.1	41.1	60.5	89.6	17.2	..
Panama	26,778	10.6	7,498	15,589	..	10,883	5.9	80.8	84.1	5.5	7.4	51.9
Paraguay	23,837	6.9	3,629	5,501	6.7	5,254	8.3	48.5	56.9	85.3	7.4	52.4
Peru	176,925	6.8	6,018	10,234	7.1	39,774	3.4	28.7	24.8	20.9	10.2	48.1
Suriname	4,304	4.7	8,131	8,355	17.7	1.8	14.3	..
Trinidad & Tobago	22,483	-4.1	16,699	25,074	5.1	57.8	32.9	2.5	11.2	..
Uruguay	46,710	5.7	13,866	15,078	6.5	10,687	8.1	27.1	27.3	64.3	10.1	45.3
Venezuela, RB	316,482	4.2	10,810	12,749	..	49,532	26.1	29.9	19.7	0.1	14.7	..
NORTH AMERICA												
	16,733,378	1.8	48,343	47,347	16.9	..	3.0	15.1	18.7	10.2	5.4	..
Canada	1,736,051	2.5	50,344	40,420	7.7	..	2.9	31.2	32.4	10.6	7.3	..
United States	14,991,300	1.7	48,112	48,112	18.2	..	3.2	14.0	17.8	10.0	5.1	..
column number	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25

.. Data not available.

0 Zero, or rounds to zero at displayed number of decimal.

^a Data refers to 2007.

^b Data refers to 2008.

^c Data refers to 2009.

^d Data refers to 2010.

^e Data refers to 2011.

^f Data refers to 2012.

^{*} Data refers to Sudan before South Sudanese independence.

[†] Purchasing Power Parity: a method of currency conversion that equalizes the purchasing power of different currencies.

Sources for tables on page 241.

Table 2

MDG 1: Eradicate Extreme Poverty

	People living in poverty					Distribution of income by population quintiles					
	below national poverty line (% of total population) 2007-2011	below national rural poverty line (% of rural population) 2007-2011	below national urban poverty line (% of urban population) 2007-2011	below \$2 PPP† per day (%) 2007-2011	below \$1.25 PPP† per day (%) 2007-2011	share held by lowest 20% (%) 2007-2011	share held by second 20% (%) 2007-2011	share held by third 20% (%) 2007-2011	share held by fourth 20% (%) 2007-2011	share held by highest 20% (%) 2007-2011	share of lowest pop. quintile in national consumption (%) 2007-2010
World
High-income countries
Low- & middle-income countries	40.7	20.6
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	69.9	48.5
Angola	67.4	43.4	5.4	9.6	14.5	21.8	48.6	..
Benin	33.3	36.1	28.3
Botswana
Burkina Faso	46.7	52.6	27.9	72.6	44.6	6.7	10.6	14.8	20.9	47.0	6.7
Burundi
Cameroon	39.9	55.0	12.2	30.4	9.6	6.7	10.5	14.9	21.7	46.2	6.7
Cape Verde	26.6	44.3	13.2
Central African Republic	62.0	69.4	49.6	80.1	62.8	3.4	6.9	11.1	18.0	60.6	3.4
Chad
Comoros
Congo, Dem. Rep.
Congo, Rep.	46.5	74.8
Cote d'Ivoire	42.7	54.2	29.4	46.3	23.8	5.6	10.1	14.9	21.8	47.6	5.6
Eritrea
Ethiopia	29.6	30.4	25.7	66.0	30.7	8.0	12.4	16.3	21.6	41.9	..
Gabon
Gambia, The	48.4	73.9	32.7
Ghana
Guinea	55.2 ^f	64.7 ^f	35.4 ^f	69.6	43.3	6.4	10.5	15.1	21.9	46.2	6.4
Guinea-Bissau	69.3	75.6	51.0
Kenya
Lesotho
Liberia	63.8	67.7	55.1	94.9	83.8	6.4	11.4	15.7	21.6	45.0	6.4
Madagascar	92.6	81.3	5.4	9.5	14.1	20.9	50.1	5.4
Malawi	50.7	56.6	17.3	82.3	61.6	5.6	9.5	14.0	20.7	50.2	..
Mali	43.6	50.6	18.9	78.7	50.4	8.0	12.0	16.3	22.4	41.3	8.0
Mauritania	42.0	59.4	20.8	47.7	23.4	6.0	10.4	15.1	21.5	47.0	6.0
Mauritius
Mozambique	54.7	56.9	49.6	81.8	59.6	5.2	9.5	13.7	20.1	51.5	5.2
Namibia	28.7	37.4	14.6
Niger	59.5	63.9	36.7	75.2	43.6	8.1	11.8	15.8	21.3	43.1	8.1
Nigeria	62.6	69.0	51.2	78.5	54.4	5.9	10.5	15.3	22.2	46.1	4.4
Rwanda	44.9	48.7	22.1	82.4	63.2	5.2	8.3	11.9	17.8	56.8	5.2 ^e
São Tomé & Príncipe	66.2
Senegal	46.7	57.1	33.1	55.2	29.6	6.1	10.3	15.0	21.8	46.9	..
Sierra Leone	79.6	51.7	7.8	11.6	15.6	21.4	43.6	..
Somalia
South Africa	50.6	55.4	24.4
South Sudan	31.3	13.8	2.7	4.6	8.2	16.3	68.2	2.7
Sudan	46.5	57.6	26.5	44.1	19.8	6.8	11.7	16.4	22.7	42.4	6.8 [*]
Swaziland	63.0	73.1	31.1	60.4	40.6	4.1	7.4	12.0	20.0	56.6	4.1
Tanzania	33.4	37.4	21.8	87.9	67.9	6.8	11.1	15.6	21.7	44.8	6.8
Togo	58.7	73.4	34.6	52.7	28.2	6.0	10.4	15.4	22.5	45.7	..
Uganda	24.5	27.2	9.1	64.7	38.0	5.8	9.6	13.8	20.0	50.7	5.8
Zambia	60.5	77.9	27.5	86.6	74.5	3.6	6.4	10.4	17.5	62.2	..
Zimbabwe
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11

Table 2

MDG 1: Eradicate Extreme Poverty

	People living in poverty					Distribution of income by population quintiles					
	below national poverty line (% of total population) 2007-2011	below national rural poverty line (% of rural population) 2007-2011	below national urban poverty line (% of urban population) 2007-2011	below \$2 PPP† per day (%) 2007-2011	below \$1.25 PPP† per day (%) 2007-2011	share held by lowest 20% (%) 2007-2011	share held by second 20% (%) 2007-2011	share held by third 20% (%) 2007-2011	share held by fourth 20% (%) 2007-2011	share held by highest 20% (%) 2007-2011	share of lowest pop. quintile in national consumption (%) 2007-2010
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	12.0	2.4
Algeria
Djibouti
Egypt, Arab Rep.	22.0	30.0	10.6	15.4	1.7	9.2	13.0	16.4	21.0	40.3	9.2
Iran, Islamic Rep.
Iraq	22.9	39.3	16.1	21.4	2.8	8.7	12.8	16.7	22.0	39.9	8.7
Jordan	13.3	1.6	0.1	7.7	11.6	15.7	21.5	43.6	7.7
Lebanon
Libya
Morocco	9.0	14.5	4.8	14.0	2.5	6.5	10.5	14.5	20.6	47.9	6.5
Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia	15.5	4.3	1.1	6.7	11.5	16.2	22.6	42.9	..
West Bank & Gaza	21.9	0.3	0.0	7.4	11.5	15.8	21.8	43.4	..
Yemen, Rep.
SOUTH ASIA	66.7	31.0
Afghanistan	36.0	37.5	29.0	9.4	13.6	17.4	22.1	37.5	9.4
Bangladesh	31.5	35.2	21.3	76.5	43.3	8.9	12.4	16.1	21.3	41.4	8.9
Bhutan	23.2	30.9	1.7	29.8	10.2	6.6	10.8	15.4	22.0	45.2	6.6
India	29.8	33.8	20.9	68.8	32.7	8.5	12.1	15.7	20.8	42.8	..
Maldives
Nepal	25.2	27.4	15.5	57.3	24.8	8.3	12.2	16.2	21.9	41.5	8.3
Pakistan	60.2	21.0	9.6	12.9	16.4	21.1	40.0	9.6
Sri Lanka	8.9	9.4	5.3	23.9	4.1	7.7	11.4	15.3	21.0	44.6	6.9
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	29.7	12.5
Cambodia	30.1	34.5	11.8	49.5	18.6	7.9	11.4	15.3	21.0	44.5	7.5
China	27.2	11.8	4.7	9.7	15.3	23.2	47.1	..
Fiji	31.0	43.3	18.6	22.9	5.9	6.2	9.9	14.1	20.3	49.6	6.2
Indonesia	12.0 ^f	15.1 ^f	8.8 ^f	46.1	18.1	7.6	11.3	15.6	21.8	43.7	..
Kiribati
Korea, Dem. Rep.
Lao PDR	27.6	31.7	17.4	66.0	33.9	7.6	11.3	15.3	20.9	44.8	7.6
Malaysia	3.8	8.4	1.7	2.3	..	4.5	8.7	13.7	21.6	51.5	4.5
Mongolia	39.2	47.8	32.2	7.1	11.2	15.6	22.1	44.0	7.1
Myanmar
Papua New Guinea
Philippines	26.5	41.5	18.4	6.0	9.4	13.9	21.0	49.7	6.0
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Thailand	13.2	16.7	9.0	4.1	0.4	6.8	10.5	14.6	21.5	46.7	6.7
Timor-Leste	49.9	51.5	45.2	9.0
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Vietnam	20.7	27.0	6.0	43.4	16.9	7.4	11.5	15.8	21.8	43.4	7.4
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	2.4	0.7
Albania	12.4	14.6	10.1	4.3	0.6	8.1	12.1	15.9	20.9	43.0	8.1
Armenia	35.8	36.0	36.0	19.9	2.5	8.8	12.8	16.5	21.4	40.5	8.8
Azerbaijan	15.8	18.5	14.8	2.8	0.4	8.0	12.1	16.2	21.7	42.1	8.0
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11

Table 2

MDG 1: Eradicate Extreme Poverty

	People living in poverty					Distribution of income by population quintiles					
	below national poverty line (% of total population) 2007-2011	below national rural poverty line (% of rural population) 2007-2011	below national urban poverty line (% of urban population) 2007-2011	below \$2 PPP† per day (%) 2007-2011	below \$1.25 PPP† per day (%) 2007-2011	share held by lowest 20% (%) 2007-2011	share held by second 20% (%) 2007-2011	share held by third 20% (%) 2007-2011	share held by fourth 20% (%) 2007-2011	share held by highest 20% (%) 2007-2011	share of lowest pop. quintile in national consumption (%) 2007-2010
CONTINUED: EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA											
Albania	5.4	0.1	0.1	9.4	14.0	17.9	22.9	35.8	9.2
Armenia	14.0	17.8	8.2	0.2	0.0	6.7	11.3	16.1	22.7	43.2	6.7
Azerbaijan	10.6	0.4	..	8.5	13.7	17.9	23.1	36.7	8.5
Georgia	24.7	30.7	18.4	35.6	18.0	5.0	9.9	15.1	22.3	47.6	5.3
Kazakhstan	5.3	1.1	0.1	9.1	13.2	17.1	22.3	38.4	9.1
Kosovo	34.5	35.3	33.1
Kyrgyz Republic	33.7	39.5	23.6	21.6	5.0	7.7	12.2	16.5	22.2	41.4	6.8
Latvia	0.6	0.2	7.0	11.9	16.5	22.6	42.1	6.6
Lithuania	0.4	0.2	6.6	11.1	15.7	22.1	44.4	6.6
Macedonia, FYR	9.1	0.6	4.9	9.2	14.5	22.4	49.0	5.1
Moldova	21.9	30.3	10.4	4.4	0.4	7.8	12.2	16.5	22.3	41.2	7.8
Montenegro	9.3	18.4	4.4	0.3	0.1	8.8	13.4	17.6	23.0	37.3	8.5
Romania	1.8	0.4	8.8	13.7	18.0	23.3	36.1	8.3
Russian Federation	0.1	0.0	6.5	10.4	14.8	21.3	47.1	6.5
Serbia	9.2	13.6	5.7	0.6	0.2	8.4	13.2	17.5	22.8	38.2	8.9
Tajikistan	46.7	55.0	49.4	27.7	6.6	8.3	12.8	17.0	22.6	39.4	8.3
Turkey	18.1	38.7	8.9	4.7	1.3	5.5	10.6	15.6	22.4	46.0	5.7
Turkmenistan
Ukraine	2.9	4.7	2.0	0.1	0.0	9.9	14.1	17.8	22.4	35.7	9.7
Uzbekistan
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN											
Argentina	6.5	10.4	5.5
Belize
Bolivia	51.3	66.4	43.5	24.9	15.6	2.1	6.8	11.9	19.9	59.3	2.1
Brazil	21.4	10.8	6.1	2.9	7.1	12.4	19.0	58.6	2.9
Chile	15.1	12.9	15.5	2.7	1.4	4.3	7.9	11.7	18.4	57.7	4.3
Colombia	34.1	46.1	30.3	15.8	8.2	3.0	6.8	11.2	18.8	60.2	3.0
Costa Rica	24.8	29.3	22.0	6.0	3.1	3.9	8.0	12.4	19.9	55.9	3.9
Cuba
Dominican Republic	40.4	48.4	36.5	9.9	2.2	4.7	8.6	13.2	20.8	52.8	4.7
Ecuador	28.6	50.9	17.4	10.6	4.6	4.3	8.2	13.0	20.7	53.8	4.3
El Salvador	42.5	46.5	33.3	16.9	9.0	3.7	8.8	13.7	20.7	53.1	3.7
Guatemala	53.7	71.4	35.0
Guyana
Haiti
Honduras	66.2	71.6	59.8	29.8	17.9	2.0	6.1	11.4	20.5	59.9	2.0
Jamaica	17.6
Mexico	51.3	60.8	45.5	4.5	0.7	4.9	8.8	13.3	20.2	52.8	4.7
Nicaragua	42.5	63.3	26.8
Panama	32.7	59.8	17.7	13.8	6.6	3.3	7.8	12.5	20.1	56.4	3.3
Paraguay	32.4	44.8	23.9	13.2	7.2	3.3	7.8	12.8	19.8	56.4	3.3
Peru	27.8	56.5	18.0	12.7	4.9	3.9	8.3	13.6	21.5	52.6	3.9
Suriname
Uruguay	13.7	6.0	14.3	1.2	0.2	4.9	9.0	13.7	21.5	50.9	4.9
Venezuela, RB	31.9
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11

.. Data not available.

0 Zero, or rounds to zero at displayed number of decimal.

a Data refers to 2007.

b Data refers to 2008.

c Data refers to 2009.

d Data refers to 2010.

e Data refers to 2011.

f Data refers to 2012.

* Data refers to Sudan before South Sudanese independence.

† Purchasing Power Parity: a method of currency conversion that equalizes the purchasing power of different currencies.

Sources for tables on page 241.

Table 3

MDG 1: Eradicate Extreme Hunger

	Population hungry			Children (under 5) hungry			Nutritional supplements		Exclusive breastfeeding
	million(s) 2012	% of total population 2012	low birth weight newborns (%) 2007-2011	underweight (%) 2007-2011	wasting (%) 2007-2011	stunting (%) 2007-2011	vitamin A coverage rate (% of children under 5) 2010-2011	consumption of iodized salt (%) of households 2007-2011	received by infants under 6 months (%) 2007-2011
World	842.3	12.0	..	15.7	8.0	25.7
High-income countries	17.0	<5.0	..	1.7	0.8	3.5
Low- & middle-income countries	260.0	17.4	8.8	27.9	..	76.2	..
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	222.7	24.8	..	21.4	9.4	39.6	78.0	..	36.7
Angola	4.9	24.4	..	15.6	8.2	29.2	55.0	44.7	..
Benin	0.6	6.1	98.0	86.0	43.0
Botswana	0.5	25.7	13.1	11.2	7.2	31.4	75.0	65.2	20.3
Burkina Faso	4.4	25.0	..	26.0	11.3	35.1	87.0	..	24.8
Burundi	5.9	67.3	83.0	..	69.3
Cameroon	2.7	13.3	89.3	..	20.0
Cape Verde	0.0	9.6	74.8	..
Central African Republic	1.3	28.2	14.0	87.0 ^e	64.5	34.0
Chad	3.5	29.4	19.9	68.0	53.8	3.4
Comoros	0.5	65.3	18.0
Congo, Dem. Rep.	9.5	28.2	14.0	45.8	98.0	58.6	37.0
Congo, Rep.	1.4	33.0	83.5
Cote d'Ivoire	4.2	20.5	..	29.4	14.0	39.0	100.0
Eritrea	3.4	61.3	46.0
Ethiopia	32.1	37.1	..	29.2	10.1	44.2	71.0	15.4	52.0
Gabon	0.1	5.6	90.0 ^a
Gambia, The	0.3	16.0	10.2	93.0	21.1	33.5
Ghana	..	<5.0	13.4	14.3	8.7	28.6	93.0	..	62.8
Guinea	1.6	15.2	..	20.8	8.3	40.0	88.0	41.1	48.1
Guinea-Bissau	0.2	10.1	11.0	17.2	5.6	28.1	100.0	11.7	38.3
Kenya	11.0	25.8	7.7	16.4	7.0	35.2	62.0	97.6	31.9
Lesotho	0.3	15.7	10.7	13.5	3.9	39.0	85.0 ^a	84.4	53.5
Liberia	1.2	28.6	13.7	20.4	7.8	39.4	96.0	..	34.0
Madagascar	6.0	27.2	15.6	49.2	91.0	52.6	50.7
Malawi	3.2	20.0	..	13.8	4.1	47.8	96.0	..	71.9
Mali	1.2	7.3	96.0
Mauritania	0.3	7.8	33.7	15.9	8.1	23.0	100.0	22.6	45.9
Mauritius	0.1	5.4
Mozambique	9.0	36.8	16.0	18.3	4.2	43.7	100.0	25.1	41.1
Namibia	0.7	29.3	15.7	17.5	7.5	29.6	13.0
Niger	2.3	13.9	95.0	32.0	26.9
Nigeria	12.1	7.3	11.7	26.7	14.4	41.0	73.0	..	13.1
Rwanda	3.4	29.7	7.1	11.7	3.0	44.3	76.0	99.3	84.9
São Tomé & Príncipe	0.0	7.2	..	14.4	11.2	31.6	44.0	85.6	51.4
Senegal	2.8	21.6	18.6	19.2	9.8	28.7	97.0 ^e	47.0	39.0
Sierra Leone	1.8	29.4	10.5	21.3	10.5	37.4	99.0	62.6	31.6
Somalia	12.0
South Africa	54.0	45.1
South Sudan	..	<5.0	..	8.7	4.7	23.9	44.0
Sudan	..	38.9	82.2	9.5	41.0
Swaziland	0.4	35.8	8.7	7.3	1.1	40.4	41.0	51.6	44.1
Tanzania	15.7	33.0	8.4	16.2	4.9	42.5	97.0	58.5	49.8
Togo	1.0	15.5	11.1	20.5	6.0	26.9	22.0	31.6	62.4
Uganda	10.7	30.1	60.0	..	62.0
Zambia	6.0	43.1	11.0	14.9	5.6	45.8	72.0	..	60.9
Zimbabwe	4.0	30.5	11.0	10.1	3.1	32.3	56.0	94.0	31.4
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Table 3

MDG 1: Eradicate Extreme Hunger

	Population hungry			Children (under 5) hungry			Nutritional supplements		Exclusive breastfeeding
	million(s) 2012	% of total population 2012	low birth weight newborns (%) 2007-2011	underweight (%) 2007-2011	wasting (%) 2007-2011	stunting (%) 2007-2011	vitamin A coverage rate (% of children under 5) 2010-2011	consumption of iodized salt (%) of households) 2007-2011	received by infants under 6 months (%) 2007-2011
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	6.3	7.9	18.1
Algeria	..	<5.0
Djibouti	0.2	20.5	95.0
Egypt, Arab Rep.	..	<5.0	12.9	6.8	7.9	30.7	68.0 ^b	78.7	53.2
Iran, Islamic Rep.	..	<5.0
Iraq	8.8	26.2
Jordan	..	<5.0	12.6	1.9	1.6	8.3	21.8
Lebanon	..	<5.0	11.5	70.7	14.8
Libya	..	<5.0	..	5.6	6.5	21.0
Morocco	..	5.0	..	3.1	2.3	14.9
Syrian Arab Republic	1.3	6.0	10.3	10.1	11.5	27.5	33.0	..	42.6
Tunisia	..	<5.0
West Bank & Gaza	2.2	1.8	11.8
Yemen, Rep.	7.4	28.8	9.0
SOUTH ASIA	294.7	16.8	..	33.2	16.0	39.0	73.0	71.4	..
Afghanistan	100.0
Bangladesh	24.8	16.3	..	41.3	17.5	43.2	94.0	..	63.5
Bhutan	9.9	12.7	5.9	33.5	48.0 ^a	..	48.7
India	213.8	17.0	66.0	71.1	..
Maldives	0.0	5.4	..	17.8	10.2	20.3	52.0 ^c	..	47.8
Nepal	5.0	16.0	17.8	29.1	11.2	40.5	91.0	80.0	69.6
Pakistan	31.0	17.2	31.6	30.9	14.8	43.0	90.0	69.2	37.1
Sri Lanka	4.8	22.8	16.6	21.6	11.8	19.2	84.8	92.4	75.8
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	166.6	11.4	6.2	5.5	3.6	12.2	..	86.6	25.8
Cambodia	2.2	15.4	11.3	29.0	10.8	40.9	92.0	82.7	73.5
China	158.0	11.4	2.3	3.4	2.3	9.4	..	96.8	27.6
Fiji	..	<5.0
Indonesia	22.3	9.1	11.1	18.6	12.3	39.2	76.0	62.3	15.3
Kiribati	0.0	7.6	69.0
Korea, Dem. Rep.	7.6	31.0	5.7	18.8	5.2	32.4	100.0	24.5	..
Lao PDR	1.7	26.7	92.0
Malaysia	..	<5.0	10.5	17.6	..
Mongolia	0.6	21.2	4.7	85.0	69.9	59.3
Myanmar	8.6	22.6	7.9	35.1	96.0	92.9	23.6
Papua New Guinea	12.0
Philippines	15.6	16.2	15.9	20.7	6.9	32.3	91.0	80.1	27.0
Samoa	..	<5.0	10.2	51.3
Solomon Islands	0.1	13.4	12.5	11.5	4.3	32.8	73.7
Thailand	4.0	5.8	6.6	15.1
Timor-Leste	..	38.3	..	45.3	18.9	57.7	59.0	59.9	51.5
Tuvalu	6.1	1.6	3.3	10.0	34.7
Vanuatu	0.0	8.1	10.2	11.7	5.9	25.9	..	22.9	40.1
Vietnam	7.4	8.3	5.1	20.2	9.7	30.5	99.0	45.1	17.0
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	7.5	1.5	1.3	7.9
Albania	6.3	9.4	23.1	..	75.6	38.6
Armenia	..	<5.0	7.4	5.3	4.2	20.8	34.6
Azerbaijan	..	<5.0	88.5
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

MDG 1: Eradicate Extreme Hunger

	Population hungry			Children (under 5) hungry			Nutritional supplements		Exclusive breastfeeding
	million(s) 2012	% of total population 2012	low birth weight newborns (%) 2007-2011	underweight (%) 2007-2011	wasting (%) 2007-2011	stunting (%) 2007-2011	vitamin A coverage rate (% of children under 5) 2010-2011	consumption of iodized salt (% of households) 2007-2011	received by infants under 6 months (%) 2007-2011
CONTINUED: EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA									
Belarus	94.0	..
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Bulgaria	8.8
Georgia	4.9	1.1	1.6	11.3	..	99.9	54.8
Kazakhstan	..	<5.0
Kosovo
Kyrgyz Republic	..	5.9	97.4
Latvia
Lithuania
Macedonia, FYR
Moldova
Montenegro
Romania
Russian Federation	6.0
Serbia	4.8	32.2	13.7
Tajikistan	2.1	30.2	..	15.0	6.7	39.2	99.0	61.9	..
Turkey	..	<5.0	11.0	68.9	41.6
Turkmenistan	..	<5.0
Ukraine	4.2	18.0
Uzbekistan	1.6	5.7	95.0
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN	47.0	7.9	7.8	3.1	1.6	11.8	36.9
Argentina	..	<5.0	7.1
Belize	0.0	6.4	13.5
Bolivia	2.2	21.3	6.3	4.5	1.4	27.2	21.0	88.8	60.4
Brazil	13.6	6.9	8.4	2.2	1.6	7.1	41.0
Chile	..	<5.0	5.9	0.5	0.3	2.0
Colombia	5.1	10.6	..	3.4	0.9	12.7	42.8
Costa Rica	0.4	8.2	7.2	1.1	1.0	5.6
Cuba	..	<5.0	5.3	48.6
Dominican Republic	1.6	15.6	11.0	3.4	2.3	10.1	7.8
Ecuador	2.4	16.3	8.0
El Salvador	0.7	11.9	8.7	6.6	1.6	20.6	20.0 ^a	..	31.4
Guatemala	4.6	30.5	11.4	13.0	1.1	48.0	28.0	76.0	49.6
Guyana	0.0	5.0	14.3	11.1	5.3	19.5	..	10.5	33.2
Haiti	5.1	49.8	36.0
Honduras	0.7	8.7
Jamaica	0.2	8.6	..	1.9	2.7	5.7
Mexico	..	<5.0	7.3	18.6
Nicaragua	1.3	21.7	8.9	2.0	..	30.6
Panama	0.3	8.7	..	3.9	1.2	19.1
Paraguay	1.5	22.3	6.3	93.4	24.4
Peru	3.5	11.8	8.4	4.5	0.8	28.2	..	90.5	70.6
Suriname	0.1	10.2
Uruguay	0.2	6.2	8.7	65.2
Venezuela, RB	..	<5.0	8.2	3.7	5.0	15.6
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

.. Data not available.

0 Zero, or rounds to zero at displayed number of decimal.

a Data refers to 2007.

b Data refers to 2008.

c Data refers to 2009.

d Data refers to 2010.

e Data refers to 2011.

f Data refers to 2012.

* Data refers to Sudan before South Sudanese independence.

Sources for tables on page 241.

Table 4

MDG 2: Achieve Universal Primary Education

	School enrollment			Persistence	Literacy rate	
	primary (% net) 2009- 2011	secondary (% net) 2007- 2010	tertiary (% gross) 2009- 2011	to grade 5 (% of students) 2008- 2010	ages 15-24 (%) 2007- 2010	above age 15 (%) 2007- 2010
World	88.8	62.3	29.1	..	89.6	84.1
High-income countries	96.4	91.1	71.9	..	99.5	98.3
Low- & middle-income countries	87.9	59.0	23.5	..	88.3	80.8
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	75.5	26.2	6.8	67.1	71.7	62.6
Angola	85.7	13.5	3.7	44.8	73.1	70.1
Benin	92.1 ^b	..	10.6	63.0	55.0	42.4
Botswana	87.1	61.1	..	96.6	95.3	84.5
Burkina Faso	63.2	17.5	3.9	75.1	39.3	28.7
Burundi	89.7 ^a	18.1	3.2	59.0	77.6	67.2
Cameroon	91.9	41.5	12.4	68.4	83.1	70.7
Cape Verde	93.5	66.4	20.4	92.1	98.3	84.3
Central African Republic	68.5	14.1	3.0	55.0	65.2	56.0
Chad	2.3	56.7	47.0	34.5
Comoros	77.8 ^a	..	9.7	..	85.6	74.9
Congo, Dem. Rep.	6.2	60.0	65.0	66.8
Congo, Rep.	92.6	..	9.0	76.9 ^a
Cote d'Ivoire	61.5	..	8.3	66.1	67.0	56.2
Eritrea	35.6	28.6	2.4	69.0	89.3	67.8
Ethiopia	86.5	..	7.6	48.6	55.0	39.0
Gabon	97.7	88.4
Gambia, The	67.5	..	4.1 ^b	67.4	66.7	50.0
Ghana	82.1 ^f	46.3	12.1	78.4	80.8	67.3
Guinea	81.4	33.3	11.3	68.6	63.4	41.0
Guinea-Bissau	73.9	72.1	54.2
Kenya	82.8	50.0	4.0	..	92.8	87.4
Lesotho	74.0	31.8	..	78.2	91.9	89.6
Liberia	40.8	81.7	76.5	60.8
Madagascar	..	23.6	4.1	39.5	64.9	64.5
Malawi	96.9	29.3	0.8	59.3	87.1	74.8
Mali	62.9	30.6	6.1	87.6	44.3	31.1
Mauritania	74.5	15.9	4.7	81.9	68.3	58.0
Mauritius	32.4	98.5	96.7	88.5
Mozambique	89.6	17.3	4.9	44.0	71.8	56.1
Namibia	85.1	50.7	9.0 ^b	92.8	93.1	88.8
Niger	62.5	..	1.5	71.5
Nigeria	57.6	86.3	72.1	61.3
Rwanda	98.7	..	6.6	47.2	77.5	71.1
São Tomé & Príncipe	98.4	32.3	4.5	88.4	95.3	89.2
Senegal	75.7	..	7.9	71.8	65.0	49.7
Sierra Leone	59.4	42.1
Somalia
South Africa
South Sudan	85.1	97.6	88.7
Sudan	93.7 ^a	86.7	71.1
Swaziland	82.6	34.9	5.9	96.2	93.6	87.4
Tanzania	98.0 ^b	..	3.9 ^f	89.8	77.3	73.2
Togo	91.8 ^b	..	10.5	60.8	81.7	57.1
Uganda	93.8	..	9.1	48.2	87.4	73.2
Zambia	95.5	79.7	74.4	71.2
Zimbabwe	6.0	..	99.0	92.2
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6

Table 5

MDG 3: Promote Gender Equality & Empower Women

	School enrollment ratio (female to male)			Literacy rate ratio (female to male)		Participation of women	
	primary 2009- 2012	secondary 2009- 2012	tertiary 2009- 2011	ages 15-24 2007- 2010	above age 15 2007- 2010	in non-agri- cultural sector (% of employ- ment) 2007-2010	in national parlia- ments (% of seats held) 2012
World	0.98	0.97	1.08	94.66	0.90	..	20.8
High-income countries	0.99	1.00	1.24	99.97	0.99	47.1	24.0
Low- & middle-income countries	0.97	0.96	1.02	93.89	0.87	..	19.7
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	0.93	0.82	0.63	88.96	0.76	..	21.5
Angola	0.81	0.69	0.82	81.76	0.70	..	34.1
Benin	0.87	0.60	0.38	68.03	0.55	..	8.4
Botswana	0.96	1.06	..	103.58	1.01	41.4	7.9
Burkina Faso	0.93	0.78	0.50	70.88	0.59	26.5	15.7
Burundi	1.00	0.74	0.54	100.04	0.85	..	30.5
Cameroon	0.87	0.84	0.74	86.65	0.80	26.4	13.9
Cape Verde	0.92	1.17	1.37	101.70	0.89	..	20.8
Central African Republic	0.73	0.55	0.32	80.48	0.62	..	12.5
Chad	0.75	0.44	0.24	75.82	0.54	..	14.9
Comoros	0.85	..	0.85	99.23	0.87	..	3.0
Congo, Dem. Rep.	0.87	0.59	0.31	90.48	0.74	..	8.9
Congo, Rep.	0.95	..	0.59	7.4
Cote d'Ivoire	0.83	..	0.52	85.68	0.72	..	10.4
Eritrea	0.83	0.78	0.37	94.20	0.73	..	22.0
Ethiopia	0.91	0.87	0.43	74.70	0.59	41.6	27.8
Gabon	0.97	98.10	0.92	34.5	15.8
Gambia, The	1.03	0.95	..	85.83	0.67	..	7.5
Ghana	0.95	0.90	0.62	97.80	0.84	..	8.3 ^e
Guinea	0.87	0.64	0.36	81.80	0.58	28.5	19.3 ^a
Guinea-Bissau	0.94	82.80	0.60	..	14.0
Kenya	0.98	0.90	0.70	102.39	0.93	..	9.8
Lesotho	0.97	1.40	..	114.34	1.15	..	26.7
Liberia	0.91	0.81	..	115.58	0.88	..	11.0
Madagascar	0.98	0.94	0.93	97.05	0.91	..	17.5
Malawi	1.04	0.91	0.65	99.72	0.84	..	22.3
Mali	0.88	0.71	0.46	60.22	0.47	..	10.2
Mauritania	1.06	0.84	0.42	91.54	0.79	..	22.1
Mauritius	..	0.99	1.31	102.13	0.95	37.6	18.8
Mozambique	0.91	0.87	0.63	82.85	0.61	..	39.2
Namibia	0.99	1.18 ^a	1.32 ^b	104.33	0.99	..	24.4
Niger	0.84	0.65	0.38	36.1	13.3
Nigeria	0.91	0.88	..	84.75	0.70	..	6.7
Rwanda	1.03	1.05	0.75	100.89	0.90	..	56.3
São Tomé & Príncipe	0.97	1.13	0.98	101.29	0.90	..	18.2
Senegal	1.07	0.92	0.60	75.73	0.63	..	42.7
Sierra Leone	0.93	72.53	0.59	..	12.4
Somalia	0.55 ^a	0.46 ^a	13.8
South Africa	26.5
South Sudan	0.96	1.05	..	101.08	0.96	44.5	42.3
Sudan	0.90	0.88	..	93.35	0.77	..	24.6
Swaziland	0.90	0.97	1.04	103.32	0.99	..	13.6
Tanzania	1.03	0.87	0.55 ^f	97.84	0.85	..	36.0
Togo	0.91	0.53 ^a	..	85.08	0.61	..	11.1
Uganda	1.02	0.85	0.26	95.35	0.78	..	35.0
Zambia	0.99	82.11	0.77	..	11.5
Zimbabwe	0.76	101.10	0.95	..	15.0
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Table 4

MDG 2: Achieve Universal Primary Education

	School enrollment			Persistence	Literacy rate	
	primary (% net) 2009- 2011	secondary (% net) 2007- 2010	tertiary (% gross) 2009- 2011	to grade 5 (% of students) 2008- 2010	ages 15-24 (%) 2007- 2010	above age 15 (%) 2007- 2010
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	92.6	67.4	30.0	..	90.8	75.7
Algeria	96.2	..	32.1	94.6
Djibouti	53.8 ^f	24.2	4.9	64.3
Egypt, Arab Rep.	96.7	68.2	32.4	97.2	87.5	72.0
Iran, Islamic Rep.	99.8	..	48.6	98.1	98.7	85.0
Iraq	89.2 ^a	44.3	82.6	78.2
Jordan	90.7	85.6	37.8	..	98.8	92.6
Lebanon	94.9	76.2	57.7	93.6	98.7	89.6
Libya	99.9	89.2
Morocco	13.2	91.6 ^a	79.5	56.1
Syrian Arab Republic	93.4	67.8	94.9	83.4
Tunisia	99.4	..	37.1	96.1	96.8	77.6
West Bank & Gaza	86.7	81.3	51.4	..	99.2	94.9
Yemen, Rep.	76.0	39.6	10.2 ^a	81.0	85.2	63.9
SOUTH ASIA	88.1	50.1	15.1	..	79.5	61.6
Afghanistan	..	24.1	3.3
Bangladesh	..	47.1	10.6	66.2	77.0	56.8
Bhutan	89.0 ^f	57.8 ^f	8.8	97.4 ^a
India	92.1 ^b	..	17.9
Maldives	94.6	..	13.0 ^b	90.4
Nepal	61.7 ^a	83.1	60.3
Pakistan	72.1	34.6	8.3	52.2	70.7	54.9
Sri Lanka	94.0	..	15.5	..	98.2	91.2
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	94.8	71.8	25.9	..	98.7	93.8
Cambodia	98.2	..	14.5	68.7	87.1	73.9
China	26.8	..	99.4	94.3
Fiji	96.5	84.2	61.8	94.3
Indonesia	96.5	67.3	23.1	91.8	99.5	92.6
Kiribati
Korea, Dem. Rep.	100.0	100.0
Lao PDR	97.4	40.7	17.7	68.0
Malaysia	..	68.6	42.3	99.5	98.4	93.1
Mongolia	98.6	76.4	57.2	92.8	95.8	97.4
Myanmar	..	50.8	14.8	74.8	95.8	92.3
Papua New Guinea	68.4	60.6
Philippines	88.3	61.6	28.2	78.7	97.8	95.4
Samoa	92.2	76.3	..	79.5	99.5	98.8
Solomon Islands	86.8	42.7
Thailand	89.7	74.1	47.7
Timor-Leste	90.4	38.7	16.7	84.2	79.5	58.3
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	..	47.4	..	76.1	94.3	82.6
Vietnam	99.3	..	24.4	93.8	96.9	93.2
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	93.1	82.5	55.6	..	99.2	97.9
Albania	43.9	97.9	98.8	95.9
Armenia	81.6	84.8	48.9	..	99.8	99.6
Azerbaijan	86.6	86.1	19.6	..	100.0	99.8
Belarus	91.3	92.7	85.2	..	99.8	99.6
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6

Table 5

MDG 3: Promote Gender Equality & Empower Women

Table 4 & 5

	School enrollment ratio (female to male)			Literacy rate ratio (female to male)		Participation of women	
	primary 2009- 2012	secondary 2009- 2012	tertiary 2009- 2011	ages 15-24 2007- 2010	above age 15 2007- 2010	in non-agri- cultural sector (% of employ- ment) 2007-2010	in national parlia- ments (% of seats held) 2012
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	0.93	0.92	0.99	93.90	0.81	..	14.2
Algeria	0.94	1.02	1.46	15.1	31.6
Djibouti	0.89	0.76	0.67	13.8
Egypt, Arab Rep.	0.96	0.96	0.91	93.10	0.79	18.1	2.0
Iran, Islamic Rep.	0.99	0.96	1.01	99.72	0.90	15.2	3.1
Iraq	0.84 ^a	0.75 ^a	..	95.27	0.82	12.1	25.2
Jordan	1.00	1.06	1.19	100.01	0.93	15.7	10.8
Lebanon	0.97	1.11	1.15	100.70	0.92	..	3.1
Libya	99.89	0.86	..	16.5
Morocco	0.95	0.85	0.87	83.19	0.64	20.8	17.0
Syrian Arab Republic	0.99	1.00	..	97.40	0.86	15.3	12.0
Tunisia	0.96	1.03	1.52	97.61	0.82	..	26.7
West Bank & Gaza	0.99	1.10	1.38	100.06	0.94	17.2	..
Yemen, Rep.	0.82	0.63	0.42 ^a	77.17	0.58	6.2	0.3
SOUTH ASIA	0.98	0.91	0.72	85.38	0.69	..	20.3
Afghanistan	0.71	0.55	0.24	18.4	27.7
Bangladesh	..	1.14	0.61	104.02	0.85	..	19.7
Bhutan	1.01	1.05	0.68	26.8	8.5
India	1.00 ^b	0.92	0.73	11.0
Maldives	0.98	..	1.13 ^b	6.5
Nepal	89.45	0.66	..	33.2
Pakistan	0.82	0.73	0.91	77.66	0.59	12.6	22.5
Sri Lanka	1.00	1.03	1.92	100.92	0.97	31.0	5.8
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	1.02	1.04	1.09	99.80	0.94	..	18.2
Cambodia	0.95	0.93	0.62	97.18	0.80	..	20.3
China	1.04	1.05	1.13	99.83	0.94	..	21.3
Fiji	1.00	1.08
Indonesia	1.02	1.00	0.89	99.85	0.94	32.4	18.6
Kiribati	1.04	1.11 ^b	8.7
Korea, Dem. Rep.	100.00	1.00	..	15.6
Lao PDR	0.94	0.85	0.74	..	0.85 ^a	..	25.0
Malaysia	..	1.07	1.34	100.08	0.95	39.2	10.4
Mongolia	0.98	1.06	1.49	103.17	1.01	52.7	14.9
Myanmar	1.00	1.06	1.37	99.34	0.95	..	6.0
Papua New Guinea	0.89 ^b	110.56	0.90	..	2.7
Philippines	0.98	1.08	1.24	101.52	1.01	41.9	22.9
Samoa	1.04	1.15	..	100.17	1.00	..	4.1
Solomon Islands	0.99	0.88	2.0
Thailand	0.99	1.08	1.31	45.5	15.8
Timor-Leste	0.96	1.03	0.70	97.61	0.83	..	38.5
Tuvalu	6.7
Vanuatu	0.95	1.02	..	100.32	0.96	38.9	1.9 ^e
Vietnam	0.94	1.09	1.01	99.11	0.96	..	24.4
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	0.99	0.96	1.21	99.60	0.98	46.9	17.7
Albania	1.32	100.59	0.97	..	15.7
Armenia	1.03	1.03	1.30	100.13	1.00	43.1	10.7
Azerbaijan	0.98	0.98	1.02	99.99	1.00	43.9	16.0
Belarus	1.00	0.97	1.42	100.05	1.00	55.8	26.6
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Table 4

MDG 2: Achieve Universal Primary Education

	School enrollment			Persistence	Literacy rate	
	primary	secondary	tertiary	to grade	ages	above
	(% net)	(% net)	(% gross)	5 (% of students)	15-24 (%)	age 15 (%)
	2009-2011	2007-2010	2009-2011	2008-2010	2007-2010	2007-2010
CONTINUED: EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA						
Bosnia & Herzegovina	88.4	..	38.1	80.6	99.7	97.9
Bulgaria	98.0	82.7	56.9	..	97.9 ^e	98.4 ^e
Georgia	98.1	79.4	30.0	96.4	99.8	99.7
Kazakhstan	86.5 ^f	90.0 ^f	43.2 ^f	..	99.8	99.7
Kosovo
Kyrgyz Republic	88.4	80.4	41.3	..	99.8	99.2
Latvia	95.1	82.9	57.4	94.9	99.7	99.8
Lithuania	91.1	90.7	69.5	..	99.8	99.7
Macedonia, FYR	88.0	..	38.6	..	98.7	97.3
Moldova	87.8	77.7	39.4	..	99.5	98.5
Montenegro	94.5 ^f	..	47.6	80.5 ^e	99.3	98.4
Romania	87.6	82.3	58.8	..	97.3	97.7
Russian Federation	93.4	..	75.9	..	99.7	99.6
Serbia	93.2	90.3	50.4	..	99.3	97.9
Tajikistan	96.9	86.0	23.4	..	99.9	99.7
Turkey	98.9	78.9	55.4	99.2	97.8	90.8
Turkmenistan	99.8	99.6
Ukraine	91.7	84.6	81.7	..	99.8	99.7
Uzbekistan	89.8	..	8.9	..	99.9	99.4
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN						
	94.0	73.6	40.4	..	97.2	91.4
Argentina	..	83.5	74.8	96.6	99.2	97.8
Belize	94.9	65.8	21.4	92.0
Bolivia	88.0	70.0	38.6 ^a	87.6	99.4	91.2
Brazil	98.1	90.3
Chile	94.4	84.2	66.1	92.9	98.9	98.6
Colombia	87.1	76.0	42.9	87.4	98.1	93.4
Costa Rica	43.0	92.9	98.2	96.2
Cuba	98.2	86.6	80.4	95.9	100.0	99.8
Dominican Republic	89.4	62.1	96.8	89.5
Ecuador	98.6	74.3	39.8 ^b	92.1	98.7	91.9
El Salvador	94.3	60.0	24.6	87.3	96.0	84.5
Guatemala	95.8	46.1	17.8 ^a	72.7	87.0	75.2
Guyana	82.7	80.5	12.0	86.7
Haiti
Honduras	97.3	..	20.6	79.9	95.2	84.8
Jamaica	82.0	83.6	26.0	96.1	95.4	86.6
Mexico	97.8	72.7	28.0	96.5	98.4	93.1
Nicaragua	92.5	45.8	..	51.4 ^a
Panama	96.9	68.1	45.7	94.9	97.6	94.1
Paraguay	83.6	61.1	34.6	85.5	98.6	93.9
Peru	94.5	77.6	43.0	85.1	97.4	89.6
Suriname	92.8	57.1	..	94.1	98.4	94.7
Uruguay	99.5	72.1	63.2	94.8	98.8	98.1
Venezuela, RB	92.7	72.8	78.1	96.0	98.5	95.5
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6

.. Data not available.

0 Zero, or rounds to zero at displayed number of decimal.

a Data refers to 2007.

b Data refers to 2008.

c Data refers to 2009.

d Data refers to 2010.

e Data refers to 2011.

f Data refers to 2012.

* Data refers to Sudan before South Sudanese independence.

Sources for tables on page 241.

Table 5

MDG 3: Promote Gender Equality & Empower Women

	School enrollment ratio (female to male)			Literacy rate ratio (female to male)		Participation of women	
	primary	secondary	tertiary	ages	above	in non-agri-cultural sector (% of employment)	in national parliaments (% of seats held)
	2009-2012	2009-2012	2009-2011	15-24 2007-2010	age 15 2007-2010	2007-2010	2012
CONTINUED: EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA							
Bosnia & Herzegovina	1.01	1.03	1.29	100.03	0.97	41.0	21.4
Bulgaria	1.00	0.95	1.31	99.58 ^e	0.99 ^e	49.2	22.9
Georgia	1.03	0.95 ^b	1.20	100.10	1.00	48.5	12.0
Kazakhstan	1.00	0.97	1.45 ^f	100.08	1.00	50.0	24.3
Kosovo
Kyrgyz Republic	0.99	1.00	1.24	100.10	0.99	50.6	23.3
Latvia	0.99	0.96	1.62	100.09	1.00	54.2	23.0
Lithuania	0.98	0.97	1.49	100.01	1.00	54.4	24.5
Macedonia, FYR	1.01	0.99	1.18	99.66	0.97	42.2	32.5
Moldova	0.99	1.02	1.35	100.34	0.99	55.0	19.8
Montenegro	1.00	1.01	1.24	99.96	0.98	46.3	17.3
Romania	0.99	0.99	1.35	100.29	0.99	45.8	13.3
Russian Federation	1.00	0.98	1.35	100.13	1.00	50.7	13.6
Serbia	1.00	1.02	1.32	99.95	0.97	43.7	33.2
Tajikistan	0.96	0.87	0.52	100.02	1.00	..	19.0
Turkey	0.99	0.92	0.82	97.53	0.89	23.0	14.2
Turkmenistan	100.11	1.00	..	16.8
Ukraine	1.01	0.97	1.18	100.08	1.00	54.6	9.4
Uzbekistan	0.97	0.98	0.65	100.10	1.00	39.4	22.0
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN							
	0.97	1.08	1.27	100.43	0.98	41.2	24.7
Argentina	0.98	1.11	1.51	100.38	1.00	..	37.4
Belize	0.92	0.97	1.59	37.7	3.1
Bolivia	0.99	0.98 ^b	0.84 ^a	99.39	0.91	36.5	25.4
Brazil	101.28	1.00	41.6	8.6
Chile	0.97	1.03	1.07	100.03	1.00	37.6	14.2
Colombia	0.96	1.09	1.10	100.85	1.00	46.4	12.1
Costa Rica	0.99	1.05	1.29	100.86	1.00	43.3	38.6
Cuba	0.98	0.99	1.64	100.00	1.00	44.8	45.2
Dominican Republic	0.91	1.13	..	102.20	1.00	41.8	20.8
Ecuador	1.00	1.02	1.15 ^b	100.39	0.97	..	32.3
El Salvador	0.95	1.00	1.14	100.75	0.94	48.0	26.2
Guatemala	0.96	0.92	1.00 ^a	95.41	0.87	30.0	13.3
Guyana	1.04	1.10	2.39	31.3
Haiti	4.2
Honduras	1.00	1.22	1.15	101.51	1.00	41.9	19.5
Jamaica	0.95	1.03	2.29	106.32	1.12	48.2	12.7
Mexico	0.99	1.07	0.97	100.12	0.97	39.4	36.8
Nicaragua	0.98	1.10	38.1	40.2
Panama	0.97	1.08	1.54	99.39	0.99	42.9	8.5
Paraguay	0.96	1.05	1.40	100.23	0.98	39.5	12.5
Peru	0.99	0.99	1.09	98.67	0.89	37.5	21.5
Suriname	0.96	1.31	..	100.85	0.99	36.3	11.8
Uruguay	0.97	1.14	1.73	100.88	1.01	45.5	12.1
Venezuela, RB	0.97	1.09	1.69 ^b	100.54	1.00	41.6	17.0
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Table 6

MDG 4: Reduce Child Mortality

	Child mortality rate		Immunizations	
	under age 1 (deaths per 1,000 live births) 2011	under age 5 (deaths per 1,000 live births) 2011	measles (% of children 12-23 months) 2011	DPT+ (% of children 12-23 months) 2011
World	37	51	84.7	82.9
High-income countries	5	6	93.0	96.0
Low- & middle-income countries	40	56	83.7	81.4

SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	69	109	74.3	70.8
Angola	96	158	88.0	86.0
Benin	68	106	72.0	85.0
Botswana	20	26	94.0	96.0
Burkina Faso	82	146	63.0	91.0
Burundi	86	139	92.0	96.0
Cameroon	79	127	76.0	66.0
Cape Verde	18	21	96.0	90.0
Central African Republic	108	164	62.0	54.0
Chad	97	169	28.0	22.0
Comoros	59	79	72.0	83.0
Congo, Dem. Rep.	111	168	71.0	70.0
Congo, Rep.	64	99	90.0	90.0
Cote d'Ivoire	81	115	49.0	62.0
Eritrea	46	68	99.0	99.0
Ethiopia	52	77	57.0	51.0
Gabon	49	66	55.0	45.0
Gambia, The	58	101	91.0	96.0
Ghana	52	78	91.0	91.0
Guinea	79	126	58.0	59.0
Guinea-Bissau	98	161	61.0	76.0
Kenya	48	73	87.0	88.0
Lesotho	63	86	85.0	83.0
Liberia	58	78	40.0	49.0
Madagascar	43	62	70.0	89.0
Malawi	53	83	96.0	97.0
Mali	98	176	56.0	72.0
Mauritania	76	112	67.0	75.0
Mauritius	13	15	99.0	98.0
Mozambique	72	103	82.0	76.0
Namibia	30	42	74.0	82.0
Niger	66	125	76.0	75.0
Nigeria	78	124	71.0	47.0
Rwanda	38	54	95.0	97.0
São Tomé & Príncipe	58	89	91.0	96.0
Senegal	47	65	82.0	83.0
Sierra Leone	119	185	80.0	84.0
Somalia	108	180	46.0	41.0
South Africa	76	121	64.0	46.0
South Sudan	35	47	78.0	72.0
Sudan	57	86	87.0	93.0
Swaziland	69	104	98.0	91.0
Tanzania	45	68	93.0	90.0
Togo	73	110	67.0	81.0
Uganda	58	90	75.0	82.0
Zambia	53	83	83.0	81.0
Zimbabwe	43	67	92.0	99.0

column number | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Table 7

MDG 5: Improve Maternal Health

Table 6 & 7

	Maternal mortality		Maternal health care			Fertility		
	mortality ratio (per 100,000 live births) 2010	lifetime risk of maternal death (%) 2010	pregnant women receiving prenatal care (%) 2007-2011	births attended by skilled health staff (%) 2007-2011	nurses & midwives (per 1,000 people) 2009-2011	births (per woman) 2011	births (per 1,000 women ages 15-19) 2011	contraceptive prevalence (% of women ages 15-49) 2007-2011
World	210	0.55	80.6	65.6	2.9	2.4	52.7	..
High-income countries	14	0.02	7.3	1.7	17.3	..
Low- & middle-income countries	230	0.64	80.3	65.2	1.9	2.5	57.2	..

SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	500	2.54	76.3	47.6	..	4.9	105.6	24.5
Angola	450	2.59	79.8	47.3	1.7	5.3	152.7	..
Benin	350	1.89	0.8	5.2	99.9	..
Botswana	160	0.46	94.1	94.6	2.8	2.7	45.5	52.8
Burkina Faso	300	1.82	94.3	65.9	0.6	5.8	118.9	16.2
Burundi	800	3.18	98.9	60.3	..	4.2	20.5	21.9
Cameroon	690	3.18	84.7	63.6	0.4	4.4	117.7	23.4
Cape Verde	79	0.21	0.5	2.3	71.7	..
Central African Republic	890	3.89	68.3	53.8	0.3	4.5	100.2	15.2
Chad	1,100	6.45	53.1	22.7	..	5.9	143.4	4.8
Comoros	280	1.49	4.9	52.5	..
Congo, Dem. Rep.	540	3.30	88.8	80.4	..	5.7	176.8	17.3
Congo, Rep.	560	2.59	0.8	4.5	113.8	..
Cote d'Ivoire	400	1.87	0.5	4.3	110.4	..
Eritrea	240	1.16	4.4	56.3	..
Ethiopia	350	1.49	42.5	10.0	0.2	4.0	53.1	28.6
Gabon	230	0.79	3.2	82.8	..
Gambia, The	360	1.79	98.1	56.6	0.6	4.8	68.8	13.3
Ghana	350	1.48	96.4	68.4	1.0	4.1	64.1	34.3
Guinea	610	3.36	88.4	46.1	0.0	5.2	138.4	..
Guinea-Bissau	790	3.96	92.6	44.0	0.6	5.0	99.2	14.2
Kenya	360	1.81	91.5	43.8	0.8	4.7	98.5	45.5
Lesotho	620	1.89	91.8	61.5	..	3.1	63.3	47.0
Liberia	770	4.11	79.3	46.3	0.3	5.2	126.9	11.4
Madagascar	240	1.24	86.3	43.9	..	4.6	125.0	39.9
Malawi	460	2.81	94.7	71.4	0.3	6.0	108.3	46.1
Mali	540	3.56	0.4	6.2	172.4	..
Mauritania	510	2.26	75.4	60.9	0.7	4.5	72.9	9.3
Mauritius	60	0.10	1.5	32.6	..
Mozambique	490	2.32	92.3	55.3	0.3	4.8	129.4	11.6
Namibia	200	0.64	94.6	81.4	2.8	3.2	58.4	55.1
Niger	590	4.33	0.1	7.0	196.3	18.0
Nigeria	630	3.43	57.7	38.9	1.6	5.5	112.7	14.6
Rwanda	340	1.86	98.0	69.0	0.7	5.3	36.1	51.6
São Tomé & Príncipe	70	0.30	97.9	81.7	..	3.6	57.5	38.4
Senegal	370	1.87	93.3	65.1	0.4	4.7	93.0	13.1
Sierra Leone	890	4.35	93.0	62.5	0.2	4.9	112.1	11.0
Somalia	1,000	6.20	0.1	6.3	68.4	..
South Africa	40.3	19.4	..	3.9 ^b	..	4.0
South Sudan	300	0.72	97.1	2.4	52.2	..
Sudan	730	3.25	55.9	23.1	0.8	4.3	54.8	9.0
Swaziland	320	1.05	96.8	82.0	1.6	3.3	71.1	65.2
Tanzania	460	2.61	87.8	48.9	0.2	5.5	129.0	34.4
Togo	300	1.25	71.6	59.4	0.3	4.0	56.5	15.2
Uganda	310	2.04	93.3	57.4	1.3	6.1	131.1	30.0
Zambia	440	2.74	93.7	46.5	0.8	6.3	140.1	40.8
Zimbabwe	570	1.92	89.8	66.2	1.3	3.2	55.6	58.5

column number | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |

Table 6

MDG 4: Reduce Child Mortality

	Child mortality rate		Immunizations	
	under age 1 (deaths per 1,000 live births) 2011	under age 5 (deaths per 1,000 live births) 2011	measles (% of children 12-23 months) 2011	DPT ¹ (% of children 12-23 months) 2011
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	26	32	89.4	90.6
Algeria	26	30	95.0	95.0
Djibouti	72	90	84.0	87.0
Egypt, Arab Rep.	18	21	96.0	96.0
Iran, Islamic Rep.	21	25	99.0	99.0
Iraq	31	38	76.0	77.0
Jordan	18	21	98.0	98.0
Lebanon	8	9	79.0	81.0
Libya	13	16	98.0	98.0
Morocco	28	33	95.0	99.0
Syrian Arab Republic	13	15	80.0	72.0
Tunisia	14	16	96.0	98.0
West Bank & Gaza	20	22
Yemen, Rep.	57	77	71.0	81.0
SOUTH ASIA	48	62	76.6	75.4
Afghanistan	73	101	62.0	66.0
Bangladesh	37	46	96.0	96.0
Bhutan	42	54	95.0	95.0
India	47	61	74.0	72.0
Maldives	9	11	96.0	96.0
Nepal	39	48	88.0	92.0
Pakistan	59	72	80.0	80.0
Sri Lanka	11	12	99.0	99.0
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	17	21	95.1	91.4
Cambodia	36	43	93.0	94.0
China	13	15	99.0	99.0
Fiji	14	16	94.0	99.0
Indonesia	25	32	89.0	63.0
Kiribati	38	47	90.0	99.0
Korea, Dem. Rep.	26	33	99.0	94.0
Lao PDR	34	42	69.0	78.0
Malaysia	6	7	95.0	99.0
Mongolia	26	31	98.0	99.0
Myanmar	48	62	99.0	99.0
Papua New Guinea	45	58	60.0	61.0
Philippines	20	25	79.0	80.0
Samoa	16	19	67.0	91.0
Solomon Islands	18	22	73.0	88.0
Thailand	11	12	98.0	99.0
Timor-Leste	46	54	62.0	67.0
Tuvalu	25	30	98.0	96.0
Vanuatu	11	13	52.0	68.0
Vietnam	17	22	96.0	95.0
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	18	21	93.8	91.8
Albania	13	14	99.0	99.0
Armenia	16	18	97.0	95.0
Azerbaijan	39	45	67.0	74.0
Belarus	4	6	99.0	98.0
Bosnia & Herzegovina	7	8	89.0	88.0
Bulgaria	11	12	95.0	95.0
Georgia	18	21	94.0	94.0

Table 7

MDG 5: Improve Maternal Health

	Maternal mortality		Maternal health care			Fertility		
	mortality ratio (per 100,000 live births) 2010	lifetime risk of maternal death (%) 2010	pregnant women receiving prenatal care (%) 2007-2011	births attended by skilled health staff (%) 2007-2011	nurses & midwives (per 1,000 people) 2009-2011	births (per woman) 2011	births (per 1,000 women ages 15-19) 2011	contraceptive prevalence (% of women ages 15-49) 2007-2011
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	81	0.24	2.2	2.7	36.6	..
Algeria	97	0.23	1.9	2.2	6.3	..
Djibouti	200	0.72	0.8	3.7	20.2	22.5
Egypt, Arab Rep.	66	0.20	73.6	78.9	3.5	2.7	41.8	60.3
Iran, Islamic Rep.	21	0.04	1.4	1.6	25.9	..
Iraq	63	0.32	..	79.7	1.4	4.6	88.3	..
Jordan	63	0.21	98.8	99.1	4.0	3.7	24.2	59.3
Lebanon	25	0.05	2.2	1.8	15.6	53.7
Libya	58	0.16	93.0	99.8	6.8	2.5	2.7	..
Morocco	100	0.25	77.1	73.6	0.9	2.2	11.7	67.4
Syrian Arab Republic	70	0.22	87.7	96.2	1.9	2.9	37.8	53.9
Tunisia	56	0.12	3.3	2.1	4.6	..
West Bank & Gaza	4.4	49.4	..
Yemen, Rep.	200	1.11	0.7	5.1	68.6	..
SOUTH ASIA	220	0.67	70.1	47.9	0.9	2.7	70.8	51.2
Afghanistan	460	3.08	47.9	38.6	0.1	6.2	103.4	21.2
Bangladesh	240	0.59	54.6	31.7	0.2	2.2	70.4	61.2
Bhutan	180	0.48	97.3	64.5	0.2	2.3	45.9	65.6
India	200	0.60	75.2	52.3	1.0	2.6	77.0	54.8
Maldives	60	0.12	99.1	94.8	4.4	1.7	10.6	34.7
Nepal	170	0.53	58.3	36.0	..	2.7	89.6	49.7
Pakistan	260	0.94	60.9	43.0	0.6	3.3	28.8	27.0
Sri Lanka	35	0.08	99.4	98.6	1.9	2.3	22.4	68.4
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	83	0.15	92.4	91.4	1.4	1.8	18.7	..
Cambodia	250	0.68	89.1	71.0	0.9	2.5	34.7	50.5
China	37	0.06	93.7	99.6	1.7	1.6	9.0	..
Fiji	26	0.07	100.0	99.7	2.2	2.6	43.3	31.8
Indonesia	220	0.48	92.7	82.2	1.4 ^f	2.1	42.9	60.9
Kiribati	88.4	79.8	3.7	22.3
Korea, Dem. Rep.	81	0.15	100.0	100.0	..	2.0	0.6	..
Lao PDR	470	1.34	71.0	37.0	1.0	2.7	31.8	..
Malaysia	29	0.08	90.7	98.6	3.3	2.6	10.7	..
Mongolia	63	0.17	99.0	98.8	3.5	2.5	19.1	54.9
Myanmar	200	0.40	83.1	70.6	0.9	2.0	12.8	46.0
Papua New Guinea	230	0.95	0.5	3.9	63.0	..
Philippines	99	0.33	78.0	72.2	..	3.1	48.0	48.9
Samoa	100	0.38	93.0	80.8	1.9	3.8	26.1	28.7
Solomon Islands	93	0.42	73.9	85.5	2.1	4.2	65.7	34.6
Thailand	48	0.07	99.1	99.5	..	1.6	38.2	79.6
Timor-Leste	300	1.83	84.4	29.3	..	5.5	55.0	22.3
Tuvalu	97.4	97.9	5.8	30.5
Vanuatu	110	0.43	84.3	74.0	1.7	3.8	51.3	38.4
Vietnam	59	0.11	93.7	92.9	1.0	1.8	23.5	77.8
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	32	0.06	..	97.6	6.7	1.8	25.8	73.6
Albania	27	0.04	97.3	99.3	3.9	1.5	15.5	69.3
Armenia	30	0.06	99.1	99.5	4.9	1.7	33.7	54.9
Azerbaijan	43	0.10	6.8	1.9	31.9	..
Belarus	4	0.01	..	99.9	10.5	1.5	20.9	..
Bosnia & Herzegovina	8	0.01	5.2	1.1	14.0	..
Bulgaria	11	0.02	..	99.6	4.7	1.5	37.5	..
Georgia	67	0.10	97.6	99.9	0.2	1.6 ^d	40.5	53.4

Table 6

MDG 4: Reduce Child Mortality

Child mortality rate		Immunizations	
under age 1 (deaths per 1,000 live births)	under age 5 (deaths per 1,000 live births)	measles (% of children 12-23 months)	DPT [†] (% of children 12-23 months)
2011	2011	2011	2011

CONTINUED: EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA

Kazakhstan	25	28	99.0	99.0
Kosovo
Kyrgyz Republic	27	31	97.0	96.0
Latvia	7	8	99.0	94.0
Lithuania	5	6	94.0	92.0
Macedonia, FYR	9	10	98.0	95.0
Moldova	14	16	91.0	93.0
Montenegro	7	7	91.0	95.0
Romania	11	13	93.0	89.0
Russian Federation	10	12	98.0	97.0
Serbia	6	7	95.0	91.0
Tajikistan	53	63	98.0	96.0
Turkey	12	15	97.0	97.0
Turkmenistan	45	53	99.0	97.0
Ukraine	9	10	67.0	50.0
Uzbekistan	42	49	99.0	99.0

LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN

	16	19	93.1	91.6
Argentina	13	14	93.0	93.0
Belize	15	17	98.0	95.0
Bolivia	39	51	84.0	82.0
Brazil	14	16	97.0	96.0
Chile	8	9	91.0	94.0
Colombia	15	18	88.0	85.0
Costa Rica	9	10	83.0	85.0
Cuba	5	6	99.0	96.0
Dominican Republic	21	25	79.0	84.0
Ecuador	20	23	98.0	99.0
El Salvador	13	15	89.0	89.0
Guatemala	24	30	87.0	85.0
Guyana	29	36	98.0	93.0
Haiti	53	70	59.0	59.0
Honduras	18	21	99.0	98.0
Jamaica	16	18	88.0	99.0
Mexico	13	16	98.0	97.0
Nicaragua	22	26	99.0	98.0
Panama	17	20	97.0	87.0
Paraguay	19	22	93.0	90.0
Peru	14	18	96.0	91.0
Suriname	26	30	85.0	86.0
Uruguay	9	10	95.0	95.0
Venezuela, RB	13	15	86.0	78.0

column number | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4

Table 7

MDG 5: Improve Maternal Health

Maternal mortality		Maternal health care			Fertility		
mortality ratio (per 100,000 live births)	lifetime risk of maternal death (%)	pregnant women receiving prenatal care (%)	births attended by skilled health staff (%)	nurses & midwives (per 1,000 people)	births (per woman)	births (per 1,000 women ages 15-19)	contraceptive prevalence (% of women ages 15-49)
2010	2010	2007-2011	2007-2011	2009-2011	2011	2011	2007-2011

CONTINUED: EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA

Kazakhstan	51	0.13	..	99.8	8.3	2.6	26.4	..
Kosovo	2.2
Kyrgyz Republic	71	0.21	..	98.5	5.8	3.1	33.2	..
Latvia	34	0.05	4.9	1.3	13.8	..
Lithuania	8	0.01	7.1	1.8	16.9	..
Macedonia, FYR	10	0.02	..	99.8	0.6	1.4	18.6	..
Moldova	41	0.07	..	99.7	6.5	1.5	30.1	..
Montenegro	8	0.01	..	100.0	5.5	1.6	15.5	..
Romania	27	0.04	..	98.5	5.5	1.3	29.4	..
Russian Federation	34	0.05	..	99.7	8.5	1.5	24.6	79.5
Serbia	12	0.02	99.0	99.7	4.5	1.4	19.8	60.8
Tajikistan	65	0.23	79.8	87.7	4.5	3.2	26.3	37.1
Turkey	20	0.05	95.0	95.0	2.4	2.1	32.2	73.0
Turkmenistan	67	0.17	4.4	2.4	17.4	..
Ukraine	32	0.05	98.5	98.7	6.4	1.5	27.0	66.7
Uzbekistan	28	0.07	10.7	2.5	13.0	..

LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN

	81	0.19	96.2	2.2	71.3	..
Argentina	77	0.18	..	94.9	..	2.2	54.7	..
Belize	53	0.16	99.2	94.3	2.0	2.7	72.4	..
Bolivia	190	0.70	85.8	71.1	..	3.3	75.4	60.6
Brazil	56	0.11	98.2	..	6.4	1.8	75.9	..
Chile	25	0.05	..	99.8	0.1	1.8	56.4	..
Colombia	92	0.23	97.0	99.3	0.6	2.1	69.4	79.1
Costa Rica	40	0.08	89.9	99.3	..	1.8	62.7	82.1
Cuba	73	0.10	100.0	99.9	9.1	1.5	44.2	74.3
Dominican Republic	150	0.42	98.9	97.8	..	2.5	104.6	72.9
Ecuador	110	0.29	2.0	2.4	81.0	..
El Salvador	81	0.20	94.0	95.5	0.4	2.2	77.5	72.5
Guatemala	120	0.52	93.2	51.5	..	3.9	103.3	54.1
Guyana	280	0.65	92.1	91.9	0.5	2.2	56.8	42.5
Haiti	350	1.21	3.3	42.3	..
Honduras	100	0.37	3.1	87.3	..
Jamaica	110	0.27	99.0	98.3	1.1 ^b	2.3	71.2	72.3
Mexico	50	0.13	95.8	95.3	..	2.3	66.5	72.5
Nicaragua	95	0.29	90.2	73.7	..	2.6	106.4	72.4
Panama	92	0.24	95.8	88.5	..	2.5	77.2	52.2
Paraguay	99	0.32	96.3	81.9	..	2.9	67.8	79.4
Peru	67	0.18	95.4	85.0	1.3	2.5	49.9	75.4
Suriname	130	0.31	2.3	35.8	..
Uruguay	29	0.06	96.2	99.7	5.5	2.0	59.5	..
Venezuela, RB	92	0.25	2.5	87.8	..

column number | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8

- .. Data not available.
 0 Zero, or rounds to zero at displayed number of decimal.
 a Data refers to 2007.
 b Data refers to 2008.
 c Data refers to 2009.

- d Data refers to 2010.
 e Data refers to 2011.
 f Data refers to 2012.
 * Data refers to Sudan before South Sudanese independence.
 † Diphtheria, pertussis, & tetanus (vaccine).

Sources for tables on page 241.

Table 8

MDG 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Other Diseases

	HIV/AIDS				Correct & comprehensive HIV/AIDS knowledge		Malaria		Child malaria (under age 5)		Tuberculosis	
	ages 15-49 with HIV (%) 2011	ages 15-49 with new HIV cases (%) 2011	number of AIDS deaths 2011	people on ARV treatment (%) 2011	women ages 15-24 (%) 2007-2011	men ages 15-24 (%) 2007-2011	notified malaria cases (per 100,000 people) 2008	malaria deaths (per 100,000 people) 2008-2010	children sleeping under insecticide treated bed nets (%) 2009-2011	children with fever receiving anti-malarial drugs (%) 2007-2011	new TB cases (per 100,000 people) 2011	TB treatment success (% of cases) 2010
World	0.8	4,554	125	87.0
High-income countries	0.4	14	68.0
Low- & middle-income countries	0.9	4,617	146	87.0
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	4.9	56.9	26,267	..	38.2	36.9	257	80.0
Angola	2.1	0.21	..	36.0	25.3	32.1	21,593	64	25.9	28.3	310	48.0
Benin	1.2	0.09	2,800	61.0	35,555	104	70	91.0
Botswana	23.4	1.00	4,200	95.0	587	2	455	81.0
Burkina Faso	1.1	0.06	6,800	57.0	31.1	35.7	45,322	191	47.4	35.1	57	77.0
Burundi	1.3	0.04	5,800	54.0	44.5	46.5	48,475	23	45.3	17.2	139	92.0
Cameroon	4.6	0.36	..	41.0	28.7	33.5	27,818	92	21.1	21.3	243	78.0
Cape Verde	1.0	0.08	200	46.0	23	1	145	74.0 ^b
Central African Republic	4.6	0.29	..	22.0	17.4	25.0	35,786	169	36.4	31.8	400	68.0
Chad	3.1	0.28	..	34.0	10.1	..	39,508	192	9.8	35.7	151	68.0
Comoros	0.1	0.01	100	19.0	24,619	37	34	91.0
Congo, Dem. Rep.	15.2	..	37,400	121	38.1	39.1	327	90.0
Congo, Rep.	3.3	0.31	4,600	44.0	8.3	21.9	34,298	93	387	77.0
Cote d'Ivoire	3.0	0.15	..	41.0	36,482	116	191	77.0
Eritrea	0.6	0.03	1,400	49.0	762	6	48.9 ^b	13.1	97	84.0
Ethiopia	1.4	0.03	..	56.0	23.9	34.2	11,509	12	33.1 ^a	9.5	258	83.0
Gabon	5.0	0.35	2,500	53.0	29,451	39	55.1 ^b	..	450	63.0
Gambia, The	1.5	0.14	1,000	54.0	31,925	83	33.3	30.2	279	88.0
Ghana	1.5	0.08	..	47.0	31,179	52	39.0 ^b	33.0	79	86.0
Guinea	1.4	0.09	4,000	58.0	40,585	144	4.5 ^b	73.9	183	80.0
Guinea-Bissau	2.5	0.31	1,000	56.0	14.9	..	34,043	108	35.5	51.2	238	73.0
Kenya	6.2	0.45	..	72.0	46.6	54.9	30,307	9	46.7	23.2	288	87.0
Lesotho	23.3	2.47	..	58.0	38.6	28.7	..	0	632	69.0
Liberia	1.0	0.02	2,300	38.0	20.5	27.2	29,994	86	37.1	57.1	299	83.0 ^c
Madagascar	0.3	0.04	2,600	3.0	22.5	26.0	3,735	25	45.8	19.7	238	82.0
Malawi	10.0	0.49	..	67.0	41.8	44.7	33,773	51	39.4	43.4	191	87.0
Mali	1.1	0.10	6,600	53.0	14.6	..	25,366	145	70.2	35.0	62	76.0
Mauritania	1.1	0.20	1,500	21.0	4.8	14.0	17,325	29	..	20.7	344	69.0
Mauritius	1.0	0.06	1,000	37.0	17	21	90.0
Mozambique	11.3	1.13	..	46.0	35.7	33.7	32,555	125	17.5	29.9	548	85.0
Namibia	13.4	0.77	5,200	95.0	64.9	61.9	4,589	1	34.0	20.3	723	85.0
Niger	0.8	0.08	4,000	34.0	37,958	118	63.7	..	108	82.0
Nigeria	3.7	0.36	..	30.0	22.5	..	38,259	131	29.1	49.1	118	84.0
Rwanda	2.9	0.15	6,400	82.0	52.0	46.1	11,429	4	69.6	10.8	94	88.0
São Tomé & Príncipe	1.0	0.06	100	52.0	42.6	43.4	1,961	29	56.2	8.4	94	78.0
Senegal	0.7	0.08	1,600	56.0	29.4	30.7	7,077	45	34.5	8.2	136	85.0
Sierra Leone	1.6	0.12	2,600	41.0	23.1	..	36,141	177	30.3	62.1	723	86.0
Somalia	0.7	0.07	3,100	7.0	8,711	30	286	89.0
South Africa	3.1	0.33	..	6.0	9.8	0	25.3	35.8	146	..
South Sudan	17.3	1.43	..	66.0	80	2	993	79.0
Sudan	0.4	9.0	12,805	30 ⁺	25.3	65.0	117	80.0
Swaziland	26.0	2.60	6,800	83.0	58.2	53.6	57	1	1.5	1.7	1317	73.0
Tanzania	5.8	0.59	..	40.0	40.1 ^f	46.7 ^f	24,088	39	63.6	59.1	169	90.0
Togo	3.4	0.23	8,900	42.0	33.0	42.2	30,388	63	57.1	33.8	73	84.0
Uganda	7.2	0.84	..	54.0	38.1	39.5	36,233	55	42.8	64.5	193	71.0
Zambia	12.5	0.80	..	82.0	37.8	40.7	13,456	67	49.9	34.0	444	86.0
Zimbabwe	14.9	1.05	..	77.0	51.9	47.0	7,480	123	9.7	2.3	603	81.0
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

MDG 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Other Diseases

	HIV/AIDS				Correct & comprehensive HIV/AIDS knowledge		Malaria		Child malaria (under age 5)		Tuberculosis	
	ages 15-49 with HIV (%)	ages 15-49 with new HIV cases (%)	number of AIDS deaths	people on ARV treatment (%)	women ages 15-24 (%)	men ages 15-24 (%)	notified malaria cases (per 100,000 people)	malaria deaths (per 100,000 people)	children sleeping under insecticide treated bed nets (%)	children with fever receiving anti-malarial drugs (%)	new TB cases (per 100,000 people)	TB treatment success (% of cases)
	2011	2011	2011	2011	2007-2011	2007-2011	2008	2008-2010	2009-2011	2007-2011	2011	2010
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	41	86.0
Algeria	39.0	0	90	89.0
Djibouti	1.4	0.11	1,000	27.0	467	18	19.9	0.9	620	80.0
Egypt, Arab Rep.	0.1	0.01	1,000	21.0	0	17	86.0
Iran, Islamic Rep.	0.2	0.02	8,300	7.0	18	0	21	83.0
Iraq	0	45	89.0
Jordan	12.9	0	6	87.0
Lebanon	0.1	0.01	200	36.0	75	15	80.0
Libya	176	40	64.0
Morocco	0.2	0.02	1,600	37.0	0	103	85.0
Syrian Arab Republic	0	19	89.0
Tunisia	0.1	0.01	100	67.0	30	85.0
West Bank & Gaza	3	83.0
Yemen, Rep.	0.2	0.02	1,600	8.0	1,106	13	44	87.0
SOUTH ASIA	0.3	1,127	188	89.0
Afghanistan	0.1	0.01	500	6.0	2,428	1	189	90.0
Bangladesh	0.1	0.01	500	31.0	11.9	14.4	1,510	14	225	92.0
Bhutan	0.3	0.06	100	24.0	21.0	..	100	0	192	90.0
India	1,124	4	181	88.0
Maldives	0.1	0.01	100	22.0	35.0	34	82.0
Nepal	0.3	0.01	4,600	24.0	25.8	33.9	103	0	..	0.6	163	90.0
Pakistan	0.1	0.03	4,800	10.0	3.4	..	881	2	..	3.3	231	91.0
Sri Lanka	0.1	0.01	500	21.0	21	0	2.9 ^a	0.3	66	86.0
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	0.2	525	120	93.0
Cambodia	0.6	0.01	1,400	95.0	44.4	43.7	1,798	6	424	94.0
China	0.1	3	0	75	96.0
Fiji	0.1	0.01	100	87.0	83	26	67.0
Indonesia	0.3	0.04	9,400 ^c	24.0	9.5	14.7	1,645	9	3.0 ^a	0.8	187	90.0
Kiribati	44.4	48.6	356	93.0
Korea, Dem. Rep.	7.9	..	284	0	345	90.0
Lao PDR	0.3	0.03	500	53.0	327	7	213	91.0
Malaysia	0.4	0.04	5,900	37.0	75	2	81	80.0
Mongolia	0.1	0.01	100	27.0	31.6	29.3	223	86.0
Myanmar	0.6	0.03	..	32.0	31.8	..	7,943	14	11.1	..	381	86.0
Papua New Guinea	0.7	0.04	1,100	68.0	18,012	46	346	58.0
Philippines	0.1	0.01	500	51.0	96	0	270	91.0 ^e
Samoa	3.0	5.8	..	19	9.6	100.0
Solomon Islands	29.3	35.1	13,718	24	40.4 ^a	19.0	103	87.0
Thailand	1.2	0.03	..	71.0	322	1	124	85.0
Timor-Leste	12.2	19.7	46,380	25	42.0	6.0	498	88.0
Tuvalu	39.4	60.7	..	0	228	100.0
Vanuatu	15.4	..	6,036	14	55.7 ^a	53.1	67	80.0
Vietnam	0.5	0.04	..	58.0	51.1	44.1	55	0	9.4	1.2	199	92.0
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	0.6	80	64.0
Albania	35.9	22.0	13	91.0
Armenia	0.2	0.02	500	22.0	15.8	8.9	..	0	55	72.0
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

Table 8

MDG 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Other Diseases

	HIV/AIDS				Correct & comprehensive HIV/AIDS knowledge		Malaria		Child malaria (under age 5)		Tuberculosis	
	ages 15-49 with HIV (%) 2011	ages 15-49 with new HIV cases (%) 2011	number of AIDS deaths 2011	people on ARV treatment (%) 2011	women ages 15-24 (%) 2007-2011	men ages 15-24 (%) 2007-2011	notified malaria cases (per 100,000 people) 2008	malaria deaths (per 100,000 people) 2008-2010	children sleeping under insecticide treated bed nets (%) 2009-2011	children with fever receiving anti-malarial drugs (%) 2007-2011	new TB cases (per 100,000 people) 2011	TB treatment success (% of cases) 2010
CONTINUED: EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA												
Azerbaijan	0.1	0.02	500	28.0	1	0	113	77.0
Belarus	0.4	0.04	1,100	40.0	70	66.0
Bosnia & Herzegovina	47.6 ^f	47.4 ^f	..	3	49	99.0 ^c
Bulgaria	0.1	0.01	500	25.0	163	35	86.0
Georgia	0.2	0.04	200	76.0	0	125	76.0
Kazakhstan	0.2	0.03	1,200	27.0	36.2	34.1	..	1	129	61.0
Kosovo
Kyrgyz Republic	0.4	0.10	500	23.0	0	128	82.0 ^c
Latvia	0.7	0.06	1,000	18.0	17	42	76.0
Lithuania	0.1	0.01	100	25.0	59	68.0
Macedonia, FYR	20	90.0
Moldova	0.5	0.07	1,000	29.0	0	161	57.0
Montenegro	17	87.0
Romania	0.1	0.01	500	74.0	101	84.0
Russian Federation	0	97	53.0
Serbia	0.1	0.01	200	65.0	54.1	47.6	16	86.0
Tajikistan	0.3	0.04	1,000	22.0	13.9	12.8	9	0	193	80.0
Turkey	0.1	0.01	100	50.0	0	24	91.0
Turkmenistan	0	74	84.0 ^c
Ukraine	0.8	0.01	..	22.0	44.8	42.8	..	3	89	60.0
Uzbekistan	0	101	81.0
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN												
	0.4	67.8	206	43	76.0
Argentina	0.4	0.03	..	79.0	0	26	48.0
Belize	2.3	0.15	500	62.0	42.9	..	210	0	40	83.0 ^b
Bolivia	0.3	0.02	1,600	15.0	365	0	131	88.0
Brazil	0.3	0.02	..	71.0	210	1	42	74.0
Chile	0.5	0.03	..	66.0	18	71.0
Colombia	0.5	0.04	9,700	46.0	24.1	..	394	2	34	79.0
Costa Rica	0.3	0.02	500	73.0	51	0	12	87.0
Cuba	0.2	0.02	200	95.0	53.5	9.3	89.0
Dominican Republic	0.7	0.03	1,700	80.0	40.8	33.7	46	0	..	0.6	65	80.0
Ecuador	0.4	0.03	2,000	68.0	63	0	62	79.0
El Salvador	0.6	0.07	500	72.0	1	0	27	91.0
Guatemala	0.8	0.13	2,500	56.0	21.8	24.4	184	0	61	83.0
Guyana	1.1	0.02	500	82.0	54.1	46.6	2,194	18	24.4	6.4	110	71.0
Haiti	1.8	0.10	5,800	58.0	1,891	7	222	82.0
Honduras	..	0.04	2,800	41.0	335	0	43	85.0
Jamaica	1.8	0.13	1,600	60.0	0	6.6	47.0
Mexico	0.3	0.02	4,900	84.0	3	0	23	87.0
Nicaragua	0.2	0.03	500	65.0	26	0	40	85.0
Panama	0.8	0.04	1,200	49.0	35	0	48	80.0
Paraguay	0.3	0.05	..	69.0	16	0	45	78.0
Peru	0.4	0.03	3,000	60.0	18.7	..	478	1	101	68.0
Suriname	1.0	0.02	500	53.0	41.9	..	681	1	44	60.0
Uruguay	0.6	0.06	1,000	41.0	21	85.0
Venezuela, RB	0.6	0.05	2,900	79.0	263	1	33	83.0
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

.. Data not available.

0 Zero, or rounds to zero at displayed number of decimal.

a Data refers to 2007.

b Data refers to 2008.

c Data refers to 2009.

d Data refers to 2010.

e Data refers to 2011.

f Data refers to 2012.

* Data refers to Sudan before South Sudanese independence.

Sources for tables on page 241.

Table 9

MDG 7: Ensure Environmental Sustainability

	Land use			Agriculture			Energy use		Water, sanitation & shelter			
	nationally protected land area (% of land area) 2010	forest area (% of land area) 2011	agricultural land area (% of land area) 2011	cereal yield (kg per hectare) 2011	fertilizer consumption (kg per hectare of arable land) 2009	number of tractors in use 2008-2008	CO ₂ emissions (metric tons per capita) 2009	GDP per unit of energy use (constant 2005 PPP) \$ per kg of oil equivalent) 2007-2010	pop. with access to improved sanitation facilities (%) 2010	rural pop. with access to improved water source (%) 2010	urban pop. with access to improved water source (%) 2010	slum pop. (% of urban pop.) 2009
World	12.3	31.0	37.5	3,708	122	..	4.7	5.5	62.5	80.5	96.3	..
High-income countries	12.9	28.4	36.7	5,349	107	..	11.4	7.1^a	99.9	97.6	99.9	..
Low- & middle-income countries	12.0	32.0	37.7	3,291	128	..	3.1	4.5	56.2	79.4	95.2	..
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	11.7	27.8	43.6	1,361	11	..	0.9	3.4	30.7	48.4	83.0	..
Angola	12.4	46.8	46.8	694	1	..	1.4	7.2	58.0	38.0	60.0	65.8
Benin	23.8	40.0	30.4	1,430	6	..	0.6	3.4	13.0	68.0	84.0	69.8
Botswana	30.9	19.8	45.6	393	..	3,371	2.2	11.1	62.0	92.0	99.0	..
Burkina Faso	14.2	20.4	43.0	995	9	..	0.1	..	17.0	73.0	95.0	59.5
Burundi	4.8	6.6	86.4	1,326	2	..	0.0	..	46.0	71.0	83.0	..
Cameroon	9.2	41.7	20.3	1,768	7	..	0.3	5.6	49.0	52.0	95.0	46.1
Cape Verde	2.5	21.0	18.6	178	0.6	14.4	61.0	85.0	90.0	..
Central African Republic	17.7	36.2	8.2	1,522	0.1	..	34.0	51.0	92.0	95.9
Chad	9.4	9.1	39.7	888	0.0	..	13.0	44.0	70.0	89.3
Comoros	..	1.4	83.3	1,411	0.2	16.8	36.0	97.0	91.0	68.9
Congo, Dem. Rep.	10.0	67.9	11.4	766	1	..	0.0	0.9	24.0	27.0	79.0	..
Congo, Rep.	9.4	65.6	30.9	814	5	..	0.5	10.5	18.0	32.0	95.0	..
Cote d'Ivoire	22.6	32.7	64.5	1,682	16	..	0.3	3.5	24.0	68.0	91.0	57.0
Eritrea	5.0	15.1	75.2	592	3	..	0.1	3.5	14.0 ^b	57.0 ^b	74.0 ^b	..
Ethiopia	18.4	12.2	35.7	1,761	18	..	0.1	2.3	21.0	34.0	97.0	76.4
Gabon	15.1	85.4	20.0	1,698	12	..	1.1	9.6	33.0	41.0	95.0	..
Gambia, The	1.5	47.6	60.8	869	7	..	0.3	18.6	68.0	85.0	92.0	..
Ghana	14.7	21.2	69.9	1,594	20	..	0.3	3.9	14.0	80.0	91.0	40.1
Guinea	6.8	26.5	58.0	1,379	1	..	0.1	..	18.0	65.0	90.0	45.7
Guinea-Bissau	16.1	71.6	58.0	1,340	0.2	15.2	20.0	53.0	91.0	..
Kenya	11.8	6.1	48.2	1,514	32	..	0.3	3.1	32.0	52.0	82.0	54.7
Lesotho	0.5	1.5	76.2	664	143.4	26.0	73.0	91.0	53.7
Liberia	1.8	44.6	27.3	1,200	0.1	..	18.0	60.0	88.0	68.3
Madagascar	3.1	21.5	71.2	2,503	3	..	0.1	..	15.0	34.0	74.0	76.2
Malawi	15.0	34.0	59.2	2,094	29	..	0.1	..	51.0	80.0	95.0	68.9
Mali	2.4	10.2	34.1	996	8	1,300	0.0	..	22.0	51.0	87.0	65.9
Mauritania	0.5	0.2	38.5	1,395	0.6	..	26.0	48.0	52.0	..
Mauritius	4.5	17.3	43.8	7,442	209	..	3.0	11.6	89.0	99.0	100.0	..
Mozambique	15.8	49.4	62.8	1,110	4	..	0.1	1.9	18.0	29.0	77.0	80.5
Namibia	14.9	8.8	47.1	354	2	..	1.6	8.3	32.0	90.0	99.0	33.5
Niger	7.1	0.9	34.6	378	0	..	0.1	..	9.0	39.0	100.0	81.7
Nigeria	12.8	9.5	83.7	1,331	2	24,800	0.5	3.0	31.0	43.0	74.0	62.7
Rwanda	10.0	18.0	77.8	1,950	1	..	0.1	..	55.0	63.0	76.0	65.1
São Tomé & Príncipe	..	28.1	50.7	3,000	0.8	5.6	26.0	88.0	89.0	..
Senegal	24.1	43.8	49.4	966	5	..	0.4	6.4	52.0	56.0	93.0	38.8
Sierra Leone	4.9	37.8	48.0	1,669	0.2	..	13.0	35.0	87.0	..
Somalia	0.6	10.6	70.3	466	0.1	..	23.0	7.0	66.0	73.6
South Africa
South Sudan	6.9	7.6	79.4	4,024	49	..	10.1	3.5	79.0	79.0	99.0	23.0
Sudan	4.2	29.4 ^d	57.3 ^d	452 ^d	8	25,564	0.3	5.4	26.0	52.0	67.0	..
Swaziland	3.0	33.0	71.0	1,148	..	1,550	1.0	12.6	57.0	65.0	91.0	..
Tanzania	27.5	37.3	42.1	1,361	9	..	0.2	2.8	10.0	44.0	79.0	..
Togo	11.3	4.9	68.4	1,226	1	129	0.3	2.0	13.0	40.0	89.0	..
Uganda	10.3	14.5	70.4	2,099	2	..	0.1	..	34.0	68.0	95.0	60.1
Zambia	36.0	66.3	31.5	2,359	27	..	0.2	2.2	48.0	46.0	87.0	57.3
Zimbabwe	28.0	39.5	42.2	820	28	..	0.7	..	40.0	69.0	98.0	24.1
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

Table 9

MDG 7: Ensure Environmental Sustainability

	Land use			Agriculture			Energy use		Water, sanitation & shelter			
	nationally protected land area (% of land area) 2010	forest area (% of land area) 2011	agricultural land area (% of land area) 2011	cereal yield (kg per hectare) 2011	fertilizer consumption (kg per hectare of arable land) 2009	number of tractors in use 2008-2008	CO ₂ emissions (metric tons per capita) 2009	GDP per unit of energy use (constant 2005 PPP \$ per kg of oil equivalent) 2007-2010	pop. with access to improved sanitation facilities (%) 2010	rural pop. with access to improved water source (%) 2010	urban pop. with access to improved water source (%) 2010	slum pop. (% of urban pop.) 2009
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	3.9	2.4	23.0	2,475	77	..	4.1	5.8	88.2	81.1	94.1	..
Algeria	6.3	0.6	17.4	1,515	8	104,529	3.5	6.6	95.0	79.0	85.0	..
Djibouti	0.0	0.2	73.4	2,000	0.6	11.5	50.0	54.0	99.0	..
Egypt, Arab Rep.	5.9	0.1	3.7	7,247	503	103,188	2.7	6.1	95.0	99.0	100.0	..
Iran, Islamic Rep.	7.1	6.8	30.1	2,469	70	..	8.2	3.6	100.0	92.0	97.0	..
Iraq	0.1	1.9	18.9	1,799	59	..	3.5	2.7	73.0	56.0	91.0	52.8
Jordan	1.9	1.1	11.3	812	359	..	3.8	4.4	98.0	92.0	98.0	19.6
Lebanon	0.5	13.4	62.4	2,802	169	..	5.0	8.3	..	100.0	100.0	..
Libya	0.1	0.1	8.9	614	40	..	10.0	4.1	97.0
Morocco	1.5	11.5	67.5	1,407	41	..	1.5	8.3	70.0	61.0	98.0	13.1
Syrian Arab Republic	0.6	2.7	75.5	1,680	65	..	3.3	4.5	95.0	86.0	93.0	22.5
Tunisia	1.3	6.6	64.8	1,712	44	40,438	2.4	9.3	85.0 ^c	84.0 ^c	99.0	..
West Bank & Gaza	0.6	1.5	43.3	1,536	0.6	..	92.0	81.0	86.0	..
Yemen, Rep.	0.5	1.0	44.4	1,127	12	..	1.0	8.0	53.0	47.0	72.0	..
SOUTH ASIA	5.9	17.1	54.7	2,959	169	..	1.4	5.5	38.2	87.8	95.5	..
Afghanistan	0.4	2.1	58.1	1,660	5	..	0.2	..	37.0	42.0	78.0	..
Bangladesh	1.8	11.1	70.1	4,191	282	..	0.3	7.1	56.0	80.0	85.0	61.6
Bhutan	28.3	84.9	13.5	2,705	32	..	0.6	11.8	44.0	94.0	100.0	..
India	5.0	23.1	60.5	2,883	167	..	1.6	5.4	34.0	90.0	97.0	29.4
Maldives	..	3.0	23.3	2,508	6	..	3.3	6.9	97.0	97.0	100.0	..
Nepal	17.0	25.4	29.7	2,481	18	..	0.1	3.2	31.0	88.0	93.0	58.1
Pakistan	10.1	2.1	34.4	2,718	217	..	0.9	4.9	48.0	89.0	96.0	46.6
Sri Lanka	21.5	29.4	41.8	3,503	258	..	0.6	9.6	92.0	90.0	99.0	..
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	15.0	29.7	48.2	5,050	371	..	4.6	4.0	65.5	84.2	96.9	..
Cambodia	25.8	56.5	32.0	2,925	10	..	0.3	5.5	31.0	58.0	87.0	..
China	16.6	22.5	55.7	5,706	504	..	5.8	3.8	64.0	85.0	98.0	29.1
Fiji	1.3	55.7	23.4	3,075	23	5,983	1.0	6.9	83.0	95.0	100.0	..
Indonesia	14.1	51.7	30.1	4,886	181	..	1.9	4.5	54.0	74.0	92.0	23.0
Kiribati	23.2	15.0	42.0	0.5	19.3
Korea, Dem. Rep.	5.9	46.0	21.2	3,749	3.1	..	80.0	97.0	99.0	..
Lao PDR	16.6	67.9	10.3	4,045	0.3	..	63.0	62.0	77.0	..
Malaysia	18.1	62.0	24.0	3,920	770	..	7.1	5.4	96.0	99.0	100.0	..
Mongolia	13.4	7.0	73.1	1,485	8	..	5.3	3.0	51.0	53.0	100.0	57.9
Myanmar	6.3	48.2	19.2	3,880	5	..	0.2	..	76.0	78.0	93.0	..
Papua New Guinea	3.1	63.1	2.6	4,457	120	..	0.5	..	45.0	33.0	87.0	..
Philippines	10.9	25.9	40.6	3,341	126	..	0.7	8.2	74.0	92.0	93.0	40.9
Samoa	3.4	60.4	12.4	..	1	..	0.9	12.4	98.0	96.0	96.0	..
Solomon Islands	0.1	78.9	3.3	4,211	0.4	18.0
Thailand	20.1	37.2	41.2	3,065	119	..	4.0	4.5	96.0	95.0	97.0	27.0
Timor-Leste	6.1	49.1	24.2	2,252	0.2	17.2	47.0	60.0	91.0	..
Tuvalu	0.4	33.3	60.0	1	85.0	97.0	98.0	..
Vanuatu	4.3	36.1	15.3	559	0.5	24.1	57.0	87.0	98.0	..
Vietnam	6.2	45.0	35.0	5,383	404	..	1.7	4.2	76.0	93.0	99.0	..
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	7.5	38.7	27.8	2,740	39	..	7.1	3.5	84.4	90.5	98.8	..
Albania	9.8	28.3	43.8	4,459	89	7,438	0.9	11.8	94.0	94.0	96.0	..
Armenia	8.0	9.1	60.1	2,742	29	..	1.5	6.2	90.0	97.0	99.0	..
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

MDG 7: Ensure Environmental Sustainability

	Land use			Agriculture			Energy use		Water, sanitation & shelter			
	nationally protected land area (% of land area) 2010	forest area (% of land area) 2011	agricultural land area (% of land area) 2011	cereal yield (kg per hectare) 2011	fertilizer consumption (kg per hectare of arable land) 2009	number of tractors in use 2008-2008	CO ₂ emissions (metric tons per capita) 2009	GDP per unit of energy use (constant 2005 PPP) \$ per kg of oil equivalent) 2007-2010	pop. with access to improved sanitation facilities (%) 2010	rural pop. with access to improved water source (%) 2010	urban pop. with access to improved water source (%) 2010	slum pop. (% of urban pop.) 2009
CONTINUED: EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA												
Azerbaijan	7.1	11.3	57.7	2,484	13	..	5.5	6.8	82.0	71.0	88.0	..
Belarus	7.2	42.7	43.7	3,250	281	48,100 ^c	6.3	4.3	93.0	99.0	100.0	..
Bosnia & Herzegovina	0.6	42.8	42.2	3,725	32	..	8.0	4.4	95.0	98.0	100.0	..
Bulgaria	9.2	36.7	46.9	3,910	170	53,100	5.6	4.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	..
Georgia	3.7	39.4	35.5	2,201	43	..	1.3	6.5	95.0	96.0	100.0	..
Kazakhstan	2.5	1.2	77.5	1,687	2	..	14.0	2.4	97.0	90.0	99.0	..
Kosovo	52.4 ^a
Kyrgyz Republic	6.9	5.1	55.3	2,603	21	..	1.2	3.8	93.0	85.0	99.0	..
Latvia	18.0	54.1	29.2	2,748	65	59,562	3.0	6.6	78.0 ^c	96.0	100.0	..
Lithuania	14.5	34.6	44.8	3,030	52	117,580	3.8	7.4	86.0 ^c	81.0 ^c	98.0	..
Macedonia, FYR	4.9	39.8	44.3	3,502	57	53,606	5.5	6.6	88.0	99.0	100.0	..
Moldova	1.4	11.9	74.8	2,866	9	35,984	1.3	3.8	85.0	93.0	99.0	..
Montenegro	13.3	40.4	38.1	3,666	11	..	4.8	7.8	90.0	96.0	99.0	..
Romania	7.1	28.7	60.7	3,993	48	176,841 ^c	3.7	6.6	73.0 ^b	76.0 ^b	99.0	..
Russian Federation	9.1	49.4	13.1	2,262	16	329,980 ^c	11.1	2.9	70.0	92.0	99.0	..
Serbia	6.0	31.6	57.9	4,753	141	5,844	6.3	4.5	92.0	98.0	99.0	..
Tajikistan	4.1	2.9	34.7	2,519	65	..	0.4	5.8	94.0	54.0	92.0	..
Turkey	1.9	14.9	49.7	2,958	96	..	3.9	8.7 ^e	90.0	99.0	100.0	13.0
Turkmenistan	3.0	8.8	69.5	3,564	9.7	1.7	98.0	..	97.0	..
Ukraine	3.5	16.8	71.3	3,754	30	333,529 ^c	5.9	2.1	94.0	98.0	98.0	..
Uzbekistan	2.3	7.7	62.7	4,771	193	..	4.2	1.8	100.0	81.0	98.0	..

LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN

	20.2	46.8	36.8	3,838	91	..	2.7	7.6	78.7	81.4	97.8	..
Argentina	5.5	10.7	53.9	4,672	25	..	4.4	..	90.0 ^a	80.0 ^a	98.0	20.8
Belize	27.9	60.6	6.9	2,817	127	..	1.2	10.9	90.0	99.0	98.0	18.7
Bolivia	18.5	52.5	34.2	2,365	6	..	1.5	5.9	27.0	71.0	96.0	47.3
Brazil	26.3	61.2	32.5	4,038	125	..	1.9	7.4	79.0	85.0	100.0	26.9
Chile	16.6	21.9	21.2	6,934	452	53,915	3.9	8.1 ^e	96.0	75.0	99.0	..
Colombia	20.9	54.4	39.5	4,033	499	..	1.6	12.2	77.0	72.0	99.0	14.3
Costa Rica	20.9	51.5	36.8	3,376	827	..	1.8	10.5	95.0	91.0	100.0	..
Cuba	6.4	27.3	61.7	2,619	14	72,602	2.8	..	91.0	89.0	96.0	..
Dominican Republic	22.2	40.8	50.6	2,972	65	..	2.1	10.0	83.0	84.0	87.0	14.8
Ecuador	25.1	38.9	29.6	2,604	187	..	2.1	8.6	92.0	89.0	96.0	..
El Salvador	0.8	13.6	73.9	2,492	107	..	1.0	8.8	87.0	76.0	94.0	..
Guatemala	30.6	33.6	41.0	1,987	107	..	1.1	6.0	78.0	87.0	98.0	38.7
Guyana	5.0	77.2	8.5	4,741	20	..	2.1	4.3	84.0	93.0	98.0	33.2
Haiti	0.3	3.6	64.2	949	0.2	4.3	17.0	51.0	85.0	70.1
Honduras	18.2	45.3	28.8	1,233	62	..	1.0	5.9	77.0	79.0	95.0	..
Jamaica	18.9	31.1	41.5	1,270	59	..	3.2	..	80.0	88.0	98.0	..
Mexico	11.1	33.3	53.1	3,241	55	238,830	4.0	7.9 ^e	85.0	91.0	97.0	14.4
Nicaragua	36.7	25.3	42.8	2,143	30	..	0.8	6.0	52.0	68.0	98.0	45.5
Panama	18.7	43.6	30.5	2,569	47	..	2.3	11.8	69.0 ^c	83.0 ^c	97.0	..
Paraguay	5.4	43.8	52.8	3,480	66	25,823	0.7	6.2	71.0	66.0	99.0	..
Peru	13.6	53.0	16.8	3,899	106	..	1.6	12.8	71.0	65.0	91.0	36.1
Suriname	11.6	94.6	0.5	4,133	158	1,013	4.8	4.7	83.0	81.0	97.0	..
Uruguay	0.3	10.2	82.2	4,587	110	36,465	2.4	10.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	..
Venezuela, RB	53.8	52.1	24.1	3,601	157	..	6.5	4.1	91.0 ^a	75.0 ^a	94.0 ^a	..
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

.. Data not available.

0 Zero, or rounds to zero at displayed number of decimal.

a Data refers to 2007.

b Data refers to 2008.

c Data refers to 2009.

d Data refers to 2010.

e Data refers to 2011.

f Data refers to 2012.

* Data refers to Sudan before South Sudanese independence.

† Purchasing Power Parity: a method of currency conversion that equalizes the purchasing power of different currencies.

Sources for tables on page 241.

Table 10

MDG 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development, Low & Middle Income Countries

	Net official development assistance (ODA) received			Management of capital flows		Investment in infrastructure		Technology transfer		Public spending (% of GDP)		Corruption perceptions index (CPI)	
	total (current million US\$) 2011	per capita (current US\$) 2011	as % of central gov't expense 2011	total debt service (% of exports of goods, services, & income) 2010-2011	foreign direct investment, net inflows (% of GDP) 2011	paved roads (% of all roads) 2007-2010	electricity produced from renewable sources, excl. hydro-electric (%) 2010	specialized hospitals (per 100,000 people) 2010	internet users (per 100 people) 2011	mobile cellular subscriptions (per 100 people) 2011	for education 2007-2011	for public health 2011	degree of corruption perceived to exist in government, score (0-100, 0 is most corrupt) 2012
World	135,350	19.4	2.4	55.2	3.4	..	32.7	85.5	15.6	59.7	..
High income	41	0.0	2.1	84.6	5.0	..	75.8	114.1	11.9	61.5	..
Low & middle income	135,309	23.2	..	8.8	2.8	38.4	1.6	..	24.3	80.0	17.1	52.2	..
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	46,329	53.0	..	3.4	3.2	16.3	0.5	..	12.7	53.3	16.2	44.9	..
Angola	200	10.2	..	4.2	-2.9	0.0	14.8	48.4	8.5	61.5	22
Benin	677	74.4	64.4	2.5	1.6	..	0.7	0.1	3.5	85.3	27.8	53.3	36
Botswana	126	62.2	2.7	1.4	3.4	0.2	7.0	142.8	16.2	60.8	65
Burkina Faso	990	58.3	74.4	2.5	0.1	0.0	3.0	45.3	20.8	50.3	38
Burundi	579	67.5	..	3.4	0.1	0.0	1.1	22.3	24.1	32.6	19
Cameroon	623	31.1	..	3.5	1.4	17.0	1.0	0.1	5.0	52.4	16.3	31.1	26
Cape Verde	246	490.7	44.8 ^c	5.0	5.5	0.4	32.0	79.2	14.4	75.1	60
Central African Republic	272	60.6	5.0	6.8	..	0.1	2.2	40.6	12.0	51.9	26
Chad	471	40.9	17.5	0.0	1.9	31.8	10.1	27.1	19
Comoros	52	68.4	..	14.9 ^c	1.1	0.1	5.5	28.7	..	57.8	28
Congo, Dem. Rep.	5,522	81.5	196.3 ^d	2.4	10.2	1.2	23.1	8.9	33.7	21
Congo, Rep.	254	61.3	..	1.8 ^a	20.3	5.6	93.8	..	67.2	26
Cote d'Ivoire	1,437	71.3	..	4.7	1.4	7.9	1.8	0.1	2.2	86.1	24.6	26.6	29
Eritrea	163	30.1	0.7	..	0.6	0.0	6.2	4.5	..	48.8	25
Ethiopia	3,563	42.1	110.5	6.1	2.1	13.7	0.4	0.0	1.1	16.7	25.4	57.7	33
Gabon	76	49.3	4.3	12.0	0.4	0.4	8.0	117.3	..	53.4	35
Gambia, The	135	76.1	..	7.5	4.0	0.1	10.9	78.9	19.7	54.0	34
Ghana	1,815	72.7	21.7	2.4	8.2	12.6	..	0.0	14.1	84.8	24.4	56.1	45
Guinea	208	20.3	..	11.2	17.6	0.0	1.3	44.0	19.0	27.3	24
Guinea-Bissau	119	76.8	..	6.4 ^c	2.0	34.7	2.7	56.2	..	26.8	25
Kenya	2,474	59.5	32.2	4.2	1.0	14.3	23.8	0.0	28.0	67.5	17.2	39.6	27
Lesotho	265	120.6	17.3 ^b	1.9	5.4	4.2	56.2	23.7	74.1	45
Liberia	765	185.4	17,148.7	1.4	84.9	0.0	3.0	49.2	12.1	31.6	41
Madagascar	409	19.2	76.1 ^b	2.1	9.2	16.3	..	0.0	1.9	40.7	20.1	63.1	32
Malawi	798	51.9	..	1.3	1.6	0.0	3.3	25.7	14.7	73.4	37
Mali	1,271	80.2	79.8 ^d	2.5	1.6	24.6	..	0.0	2.0	68.3	18.2	45.4	34
Mauritania	370	104.5	..	3.6	1.1	29.7	..	0.2	4.5	93.6	14.7	60.6	31
Mauritius	192	148.9	8.2	1.4	2.4	98.0	..	0.4	35.0	99.0	13.7	40.3	57
Mozambique	2,047	85.5	..	1.6	16.3	20.8	4.3	32.8	..	41.7	31
Namibia	285	122.5	10.3 ^a	..	7.7	14.5	..	0.4	12.0	96.4	22.4	57.1	48
Niger	649	40.4	108.9 ^a	3.8 ^c	16.8	20.6	..	0.1	1.3	29.5	21.7	55.1	33
Nigeria	1,813	11.2	8.6 ^b	0.4	3.6	28.4	58.6	..	36.7	27
Rwanda	1,278	116.8	..	2.4	1.7	7.0	40.6	17.2	56.7	53
Sao Tome and Principe	75	445.5	..	5.4	14.1	20.2	68.3	..	33.2	42
Senegal	1,052	82.4	..	6.1 ^c	2.0	35.5	1.8	..	17.5	73.3	24.0	58.3	36
Sierra Leone	429	71.5	65.9	3.8	24.0	0.3 ^c	35.6	13.7	18.0	31
Somalia	1,096	114.6	1.3	6.9	8
South Sudan	41.4	..
South Africa	1,274	25.2	1.0	5.3	1.4	..	0.1	0.0	21.0	126.8	19.2	47.7	43
Sudan	1,138	47.7 ^d	..	4.2	3.0	0.0	19.0	56.1	..	28.4	13
Swaziland	130	121.5	..	1.9	2.3	0.2	18.1	63.7	21.0	69.4	37
Tanzania	2,445	52.9	..	2.0	4.6	14.9	12.0	55.5	18.3	39.5	35
Togo	557	90.5	95.2	4.4 ^c	1.5	21.0	1.5	0.1	3.5	50.4	14.3	52.2	30
Uganda	1,580	45.8	49.5	1.7	4.7	0.0	13.0	48.4	15.1 ^e	26.3	29
Zambia	1,073	79.6	32.9 ^d	2.1	10.3	0.0	11.5	60.6	..	59.8	37
Zimbabwe	718	56.3	4.0	0.1	15.7	72.1	8.3	..	20
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13

MDG 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development, Low & Middle Income Countries

	Net official development assistance (ODA) received			Management of capital flows		Investment in infrastructure			Technology transfer		Public spending (% of GDP)		Corruption perceptions index (CPI)
	total (current million US\$) 2011	per capita (current US\$) 2011	as % of central gov't expense 2011	total debt service (% of exports of goods, services, & income) 2010-2011	foreign direct investment, net inflows (% of GDP) 2011	paved roads (% of all roads) 2007-2010	electricity produced from renewable sources, excl. hydro-electric (%) 2010	specialized hospitals (per 100,000 people) 2010	internet users (per 100 people) 2011	mobile cellular subscriptions (per 100 people) 2011	for education 2007-2011	for public health 2011	degree of corruption perceived to exist in government, score (0-100, 0 is most corrupt) 2012
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA	15,052	44.7	..	5.1	1.4	85.5	0.4	..	26.9	88.9	19.4	50.7	..
Algeria	208	5.8	0.4	0.8	1.4	77.1	14.0	99.0	20.3	80.8	34
Djibouti	142	156.4	..	8.1	9.2 ^c	7.0	21.3	22.8	68.1	36
Egypt, Arab Rep.	410	5.0	0.6	7.4	-0.2	92.2	1.0	0.1	38.7	101.1	11.9	40.5	32
Iran, Islamic Rep.	102	1.4	0.1 ^c	..	0.9 ^c	80.6	0.1	..	21.0	74.9	18.7	39.7	28
Iraq	1,904	57.8	1.2	0.2	5.0	78.1	..	80.7	18
Jordan	959	155.2	11.3	6.7	5.1	100.0	0.1	0.1	34.9	118.2	..	67.7	48
Lebanon	432	101.5	4.0	19.9	8.7	0.8	52.0	78.6	7.1	25.5	30
Libya	642	100.0	2.2 ^c	0.5	17.0	155.7	..	68.8	21
Morocco	1,237	38.3	3.8	9.9	2.5	70.4	3.0	..	51.0	113.3	25.7	34.3	37
Syrian Arab Republic	340	16.3	..	3.1	2.5 ^d	90.3	22.5	63.2	18.9	49.0	26
Tunisia	657	61.6	4.3	10.7	0.9	76.0	0.9	0.3	39.1	116.9	21.5	55.1	41
West Bank and Gaza	2,444	622.3	315.2 ^a	100.0	41.1	45.8 ^c
Yemen, Rep.	476	19.2	..	2.8	-2.1	0.0	14.9	47.0	16.0	20.9	23
SOUTH ASIA	16,726	10.1	..	6.7	1.6	40.4	2.0	..	9.4	68.8	11.0	31.2	..
Afghanistan	6,711	190.0	60.3	..	0.4	0.1	5.0	54.3	..	15.6	8
Bangladesh	1,498	10.0	11.8	5.5	0.7	9.5	..	0.1	5.0	56.1	14.1	36.6	26
Bhutan	144	194.8	42.6 ^c	11.1	0.9	40.4	..	0.1	21.0	65.6	11.5	83.9	63
India	3,220	2.6	1.1	6.5	1.7	49.5	2.3	..	10.1	72.0	10.5	31.0	36
Maldives	46	143.7	16.8 ^d	8.9	13.7	34.0	165.7	16.6	44.4	..
Nepal	892	29.3	29.8	9.5	0.5	53.9	..	0.0	9.0	43.8	20.2	39.3	27
Pakistan	3,509	19.9	9.3	9.2	0.6	72.2	..	0.1	9.0	61.6	9.9	27.0	27
Sri Lanka	611	29.3	5.8	9.3	1.6	..	0.2	..	15.0	87.0	11.6	44.6	40
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	7,611	3.9	..	4.7	3.0	50.6	1.5	..	33.5	80.9	16.9	54.3	..
Cambodia	792	55.4	57.4	1.0	7.0	..	2.3	0.1	3.1	96.2	12.4	22.4	22
China	-796	-0.6	..	3.6	3.0	53.5	1.1	0.0	38.3	73.2	..	55.9	39
Fiji	75	86.6	..	1.3	5.4	0.0	28.0	83.7	14.4	68.1	..
Indonesia	415	1.7	0.3	14.5	2.1	56.9	5.6	..	18.0	103.1	17.1	34.1	32
Kiribati	64	632.7	2.3	0.0	10.0	13.6	..	80.0	..
Korea, Dem. Rep.	118	4.8	4.1	8
Lao PDR	397	63.1	42.5	13.2	3.6	13.7	..	0.1	9.0	87.2	11.0	49.3	21
Malaysia	31	1.1	0.1	3.9	4.2	80.4	1.0	0.1	61.0	127.0	21.3	45.7	49
Mongolia	340	121.4	13.6	2.1	53.8	20.0	105.1	11.9	57.3	36
Myanmar	376	7.8	..	7.1	0.1	1.0	2.6	..	13.0	15
Papua New Guinea	612	87.3	..	15.8	-2.4	0.1	2.0	34.2	..	79.0	25
Philippines	-192	-2.0	-0.5	17.6	0.8	..	14.8	0.1	29.0	99.3	15.0	33.3	34
Samoa	101	549.9	..	5.8	2.3	0.6	7.0 ^d	91.4 ^d	13.4	89.0	..
Solomon Islands	334	604.3	..	2.0	17.5	6.0	49.8	34.0	94.8	..
Thailand	-153	-2.2	-0.2	3.8	2.3	..	2.1	0.1	23.7	111.6	22.3	75.5	37
Timor-Leste	284	241.3	4.5	0.9	53.2	8.1	71.5	33
Tuvalu	43	4,332.3	5.0	30.0	21.6	..	99.9	..
Vanuatu	92	374.8	..	1.6	7.6	0.4	8.0 ^d	55.8	23.7	87.9	..
Vietnam	3,514	40.0	..	3.2	6.0	47.6	0.1	..	35.1	143.4	19.8	40.4	31
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA	7,149	17.5	..	17.8	3.3	69.1	0.3	..	42.1	132.5	12.0	62.9	..
Albania	307	95.5	..	9.3	10.6	0.3	49.0	96.4	11.1	44.8	33
Armenia	374	120.7	16.4	25.4	6.5	93.6	0.1	0.6	32.0	103.6	11.8	35.8	34
Azerbaijan	293	31.9	3.0	4.9	7.1	..	0.0	0.5	50.0	108.7	10.0	21.5	27
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13

Table 10

MDG 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development, Low & Middle Income Countries

	Net official development assistance (ODA) received			Management of capital flows		Investment in infrastructure		Technology transfer		Public spending (% of GDP)		Corruption perceptions index (CPI)	
	total (current million US\$)	per capita (current US\$)	as % of central gov't expense	total debt service (% of exports of goods, services, & income)	foreign direct investment, net inflows (% of GDP)	paved roads (% of all roads)	electricity produced from renewable sources, excl. hydro-electric (%)	specialized hospitals (per 100,000 people)	internet users (per 100 people)	mobile cellular subscriptions (per 100 people)	for education	for public health	degree of corruption perceived to exist in government, score (0-100, 0 is most corrupt)
	2011	2011	2011	2010-2011	2011	2007-2010	2010	2010	2011	2011	2007-2011	2011	2012
CONTINUED: EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA													
Belarus	128	13.5	0.8	4.5	7.3	86.4	0.2	0.5	39.6	111.9	18.1	70.7	31
Bosnia and Herzegovina	425	113.2	6.0	10.9	2.1	92.1	..	0.1	60.0	84.5	..	68.0	42
Bulgaria	12.2	4.8	98.6	1.6	..	51.0	140.7	11.3	55.3	41
Georgia	550	122.5	15.6	26.9	8.0	94.1	..	2.2	36.6	102.3	7.7	22.1	52
Kazakhstan	214	12.9	0.8	34.6	7.0	89.5	..	0.2	45.0	155.7	..	57.9	28
Kosovo	657	364.5	..	8.9	8.5	26.0	0.0	34
Kyrgyz Republic	523	94.9	38.8	11.8	11.2	0.7	20.0	116.4	18.6	59.7	24
Latvia	47.0	5.3	20.9	1.7	0.7	71.7	102.9	11.3	58.5	49
Lithuania	20.1	3.4	29.3	7.4	1.3	65.1	151.3	12.9	71.3	54
Macedonia, FYR	165	79.8	6.9 ^b	18.9	4.7	57.6	56.7	107.2	..	61.4	43
Moldova	451	126.7	19.6	12.8	4.2	86.2	..	0.5	38.0	104.8	22.0	45.6	36
Montenegro	74	116.5	..	10.2	12.4	69.1	..	0.2	40.0	185.3 ^d	..	67.0	41
Romania	27.5	1.3	56.5	0.7	0.8	44.0	109.2	10.3	80.2	44
Russian Federation	10.5	2.8	..	0.1	..	49.0	179.3	11.9	59.7	28
Serbia	596	82.1	3.4	31.5	5.9	63.3	..	0.2	42.2	125.4	9.5	62.2	39
Tajikistan	355	50.8	..	44.9	0.2	0.0	13.0	90.6	13.8	29.6	22
Turkey	839	11.4	0.5	30.2	2.1	89.4	2.5 ^e	0.3	42.1	88.7	..	74.9	49
Turkmenistan	38	7.5	11.4	5.0	68.8	..	60.8	17
Ukraine	750	16.4	1.2	30.8	4.4	97.9	0.2	..	30.6	123.0	20.2	51.7	26
United Kingdom	1.5	100.0	8.0 ^e	..	82.0	130.8	11.3	82.7	74
Uzbekistan	216	7.4	3.1	30.2	91.6	..	51.4	17

LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN

	11,649	19.8	..	13.4	2.9	23.3	4.4	..	39.2	107.2	..	50.3	..
Belize	30	83.5	8.1 ^c	13.9	6.6	0.6	14.0 ^d	70.0	18.7	66.5	..
Bolivia	759	75.3	16.6 ^a	4.9	3.6	8.5	2.3	0.3	30.0	82.8	..	70.8	34
Brazil	870	4.4	0.1	19.4	2.9	13.5	6.5	..	45.0	124.3	16.8	45.7	43
Chile	82	4.8	0.2	15.2	7.0	23.3	5.7 ^e	0.4	53.9	129.7	17.8	47.0	72
Colombia	1,130	24.1	2.0	15.6	4.1	..	0.9	..	40.4	98.5	14.9	74.8	36
Costa Rica	38	8.1	0.4	13.5	5.3	26.0	17.5	0.3	42.1	92.2	23.1	70.1	54
Cuba	84	7.4	0.0 ^b	..	2.7	0.4	23.2	11.7	18.3	94.7	48
Dominican Republic	234	23.3	2.3 ^d	10.4	4.1	..	0.2	..	35.5	87.2	11.0	49.3	32
Ecuador	171	11.7	..	9.7	0.9	14.8	2.7	0.1	31.4	104.5	13.6	41.0	32
El Salvador	281	45.1	5.6	21.7	1.1	46.9	30.2	0.1	17.7	133.5	13.1	63.3	38
Guatemala	392	26.6	6.6	15.6	2.3	59.1	29.6	0.0	11.7	140.4	18.5	35.5	33
Guyana	159	210.9	..	2.7	6.4	0.1	32.0	69.9	13.5	79.1	28
Haiti	1,712	169.1	..	0.5	2.5	0.0	8.4 ^d	41.5	..	43.7	19
Honduras	624	80.5	15.7	16.0	6.0	..	2.1	0.1	15.9	104.0	..	48.1	28
Jamaica	54	19.8	1.1	36.5	1.2	..	2.8	0.1	31.5	108.1	11.5	54.1	38
Mexico	882	7.7	..	11.2	1.8	36.4	3.3 ^e	0.1	36.2	82.4	21.6	49.4	34
Nicaragua	695	118.4	47.5	14.8	10.4	12.9	23.2	0.1	10.6	82.2	26.4	54.3	29
Panama	98	27.4	..	3.6	12.0	42.0	1.0	0.2	42.7	188.6	14.8	67.5	38
Paraguay	94	14.3	2.5	3.6	1.7	15.2	..	0.3	23.9	99.4	10.6	38.6	25
Peru	624	21.2	2.1	6.5	4.7	..	2.0	..	36.5	110.4	18.1	56.1	38
Suriname	95	178.6	3.4	0.2	32.0	178.9	..	53.2	37
Uruguay	16	4.8	0.1	11.1	4.7	..	8.8	0.4	51.4	140.8	..	67.6	72
Venezuela, RB	45	1.5	..	6.4	1.7	40.2	97.8	..	36.7	19

column number

.. Data not available.
0 Zero, or rounds to zero at displayed number of decimal

a Data refers to 2007.
b Data refers to 2008.
c Data refers to 2009.

d Data refers to 2010.
e Data refers to 2011.
f Data refers to 2012.

* Data refers to Sudan before South Sudanese independence.

Sources for tables on page 241.

MDG 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development, High Income Countries

	Net official development assistance (ODA)									Capacity building	Climate resilience		Policy coherence
	total (current million US\$) 2012	as % of OECD/DAC donors' GNI 2012	given to LDCs† (% of OECD/DAC donors' GNI) 2011	committed multilaterally (%) 2011	committed for economic infrastructure (%) 2011	committed for agriculture (%) 2011	given to build trade capacity (%) 2011	given that is untied (%) 2011	given for health (%) 2011	commitment to fostering institutions, rank (1-23, 1 is country with highest commitment) 2011	aid activities for climate change mitigation (current million US\$) 2011	aid activities for climate change adaptation (current million US\$) 2011	trade-distorting ag. subsidies (% of ag. production value) 2011
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA													
Equatorial Guinea
MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA													
Bahrain
Israel	12.0
Kuwait
Oman
Qatar
Saudi Arabia	17.0
United Arab Emirates
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC													
Australia	5,440	0.36	0.09	37.0	6.6	6.0	16.9	100.0	7.8	12	67	97	3.3
Brunei Darussalam
Hong Kong
Japan	10,494	0.17	0.07	26.0	41.5	4.2	60.1	94.1	2.1	4	3,190	664	6.0
Korea, Republic of	1,551	0.14	0.04	26.0	36.7	7.9	50.1	51.1	9.8	10	4	0	4.9
Macao SAR, China
New Zealand	455	0.28	0.08	30.0	11.6	6.3	48.6	97.2	5.4	18	9	2	0.2
Singapore
EUROPE & CENTRAL ASIA													
Austria	1,112	0.28	0.08	66.0	10.0	2.5	17.7	60.3	13.5	19	17	6	9.3
Belgium	2,303	0.47	0.21	48.0	12.8	10.2	36.4	95.9	10.2	17	21	6	17.0
Croatia
Cyprus	41.0
Czech Republic	65.0
Denmark	2,718	0.84	0.31	35.0	6.2	3.8	22.1	97.2	4.8	1	73	36	26.9
Estonia	74.0
Finland	1,320	0.53	0.18	56.0	7.3	17.0	37.5	88.9	0.8	6	20	33	6.5
France	12,106	0.46	0.14	42.0	11.4	3.3	22.1	95.3	1.1	16	483	1	14.1
Germany	13,108	0.38	0.11	38.0	24.3	4.2	34.1	92.9	1.8	9	1,501	260	15.6
Greece	324	0.13	0.03	59.0	13.5	0.2	18.5	93.2	1.8	23	18.6
Hungary	75.0
Iceland	26	0.22	0.10	28.0
Ireland	809	0.48	0.27	..	1.2	9.6	17.3	97.1	11.9	2	51	32	45.2
Italy	2,639	0.13	0.08	79.0	1.4	1.9	19.3	81.7	4.0	14	8	6	9.3
Luxembourg	432	1.00	0.37	59.0	8.0	5.1	23.0	98.9	13.0	22	0	1	..
Malta	39.0
Netherlands	5,524	0.71	0.18	37.0	21.3	2.7	40.7	96.5	1.6	7	90	4	5.8
Norway	4,754	0.93	0.30	45.0	12.9	13.3	42.0	100.0	3.7	11	402	123	45.6
Poland	73.0
Portugal	567	0.27	0.16	45.0	10.5	0.4	15.8	11.9	3.2	13	6	0	10.0
Slovak Republic	73.0
Slovenia	62.0
Spain	1,948	0.15	0.08	56.0	1.3	5.4	33.3	93.5	6.8	15	7	13	11.3
Sweden	5,242	0.99	0.36	52.0	5.6	2.8	20.6	96.2	2.9	3	45	73	7.6
Switzerland	3,022	0.45	0.12	38.0	7.4	4.9	29.0	98.0	2.1	21	49	58	32.4
United Kingdom	13,659	0.56	0.21	60.0	9.0	2.6	26.5	100.0	10.1	5	251	65	15.7
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN													
Bahamas, The
Trinidad & Tobago
NORTH AMERICA													
Canada	5,678	0.32	0.11	51.0	8.2	6.5	24.7	99.2	22.6	8	351	39	7.4
United States	30,460	0.19	0.07	26.0	6.3	5.1	16.8	67.4	5.8	20	323	73	6.1
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13

.. Data not available.

† World Bank classification.

Sources for tables on page 241.

Table 12

United States: National Hunger and Poverty Trends

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
TOTAL POPULATION (MILLIONS)	287.8^a	290.3^a	293.0^a	295.8^a	298.6^a	301.6^a	304.4^a	307.0^a	309.3^a	311.6^a	313.9^a
FOOD INSECURITY PREVALENCE (%)											
All U.S. households	11.1	11.2	11.9	11.0	10.9	11.1	14.6	14.7	14.5	14.9	14.5
with hunger ^b	3.5	3.5	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.1	5.7	5.7	5.4	5.7	5.7
Adults	10.5	10.8	11.3	10.4	10.4	10.6	14.4	14.5	14.2	14.5	14.1
with hunger ^b	3.0	3.1	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.7	5.4	5.4	4.9	5.2	5.3
Children	18.1	18.2	19.0	16.9	17.2	16.9	22.5	23.2	21.6	22.4	21.6
with hunger ^b	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.9	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.3
PERCENT OF FEDERAL BUDGET SPENT ON FOOD ASSISTANCE^c	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.2	2.7	2.9	3.0
TOTAL INFANT MORTALITY RATE (PER 1,000 LIVE BIRTHS)	7.0	6.8	6.8	6.9	6.7	6.8	6.6	6.4	6.2
White	5.8	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.6	5.6	5.5	5.3	5.2
White, non-Hispanic	5.8	5.7	5.7	5.8	5.6	5.6	5.5
Hispanic	5.6	5.7	5.6	5.6	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.3
African American	14.4	14.0	13.8	13.7	12.9	13.3	12.7	12.4	11.6
Asian/Pacific Islander	4.8	4.8	4.7	4.9	4.6	4.8	4.5	4.4
American Indian/Alaska Native	8.6	8.7	8.5	8.1	8.3	9.2	8.4	8.5
TOTAL POVERTY RATE (%)	12.1	12.5	12.7	12.6	12.3	12.5	13.2	14.3	15.1	15.0	15.0
Northeast	10.9	11.3	11.6	11.3	11.5	11.4	11.6	12.2	12.8	13.1	13.6
Midwest	10.3	10.7	11.6	11.4	11.2	11.1	12.4	13.3	13.9	14.0	13.3
South	13.8	14.1	14.1	14.0	13.8	14.2	14.3	15.7	16.9	16.0	16.5
West	12.4	12.6	12.6	12.6	11.6	12.0	13.5	14.8	15.3	15.8	15.1
White	10.2	10.6	10.8	10.6	10.3	10.5	11.2	12.3	13.0	12.8	12.7
White, non-Hispanic	8.0	8.2	8.6	8.3	8.2	8.2	8.6	9.4	9.9	9.8	9.7
Hispanic	21.8	22.5	21.9	21.8	20.6	21.5	23.2	25.3	26.6	25.3	25.6
African American	24.1	24.3	24.7	24.9	24.3	24.5	24.7	25.8	27.4	27.6	27.2
Asian ^d	10.2	11.8	9.8	11.1	10.1	10.2	11.6	12.5	12.1	12.3	11.7
American Indian/Alaska Native	..	20.0 ^f	24.2	23.9 ^f	..
Elderly (65 years and older)	10.4	10.2	9.8	10.1	9.4	9.7	9.7	8.9	9.0	8.7	9.1
Female-headed households	26.5	28.0	28.4	28.7	28.3	28.3	28.7	29.9	31.6	31.2	30.9
Children under age 6 in households	18.5	19.8	20.0	20.0	20.0	20.8	21.3	23.8	25.3	24.5	24.4
TOTAL CHILD POVERTY RATE (18 YEARS AND UNDER) (%)	16.7	17.6	17.8	17.6	17.4	18.0	19.0	20.7	22.0	21.9	21.8
White	13.6	14.3	14.8	14.4	14.1	14.9	15.8	17.7	18.5	18.6	18.5
White, non-Hispanic	9.4	9.8	10.5	10.0	10.0	10.1	10.6	11.9	12.3	12.5	12.3
Hispanic	28.6	29.7	28.9	28.3	26.9	28.6	30.6	33.1	34.9	34.1	33.8
African American	32.3	34.1	33.6	34.5	33.4	34.5	33.9	35.4	37.8	37.4	36.7
Asian ^d	11.7	12.5	10.0	11.1	11.4	11.9	13.3	13.3	13.6	13.3	13.3
TOTAL UNEMPLOYMENT RATE (%)	5.8	6.0	5.5	5.1	4.6	4.6	5.8	9.3	9.6	8.9	8.1
White	5.1	5.2	4.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	5.2	8.5	8.7	7.9	7.2
Hispanic	7.5	7.7	7.0	6.0	5.2	5.6	7.6	12.1	12.5	11.5	10.2
African American	10.2	10.8	10.4	10.0	8.9	8.3	10.1	14.8	16.0	15.8	14.0
Asian ^d	5.9	6.0	4.4	4.0	3.0	3.2	4.0	7.3	7.5	7.0	5.9
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11

Table 12

United States: National Hunger and Poverty Trends

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
HOUSEHOLD INCOME DISTRIBUTION (%)											
Total population											
Lowest 20 percent	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.3	3.2	3.2
Second quintile	8.8	8.7	8.7	8.6	8.6	8.7	8.6	8.6	8.5	8.4	8.3
Third quintile	14.8	14.8	14.7	14.6	14.5	14.8	14.7	14.6	14.6	14.3	14.4
Fourth quintile	23.3	23.4	23.2	23.0	22.9	23.4	23.3	23.2	23.4	23.0	23.0
Highest 20 percent	49.7	49.8	50.1	50.4	50.5	49.7	50.0	50.3	50.2	51.1	51.0
Ratio of highest 20 percent to lowest 20 percent	14.2	14.6	14.7	14.8	14.8	14.6	14.7	14.8	15.2	16.0	15.8
White											
Lowest 20 percent	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.7	3.5	3.5	3.5
Second quintile	9.0	8.9	8.8	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.8	8.9	8.7	8.6	8.6
Third quintile	15.0	14.8	14.8	14.7	14.6	14.9	14.8	14.8	14.7	14.5	14.5
Fourth quintile	23.2	23.2	23.1	22.9	22.9	23.3	23.3	23.2	23.3	22.9	23.0
Highest 20 percent	49.2	49.4	49.6	49.9	49.9	49.2	49.4	49.5	49.7	50.5	50.5
Ratio of highest 20 percent to lowest 20 percent	13.2	21.4	13.8	13.9	13.4	13.3	13.7	13.4	14.2	14.3	14.4
Hispanic											
Lowest 20 percent	3.9	3.9	3.8	3.9	3.8	3.9	3.7	3.7	3.5	3.5	3.4
Second quintile	9.4	9.4	9.3	9.5	9.3	9.5	9.2	9.0	9.0	9.1	8.9
Third quintile	14.8	15.0	14.9	15.2	15.0	15.2	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.6
Fourth quintile	22.9	23.1	22.9	23.3	22.9	23.5	23.2	23.1	23.4	22.9	23.1
Highest 20 percent	49.0	48.6	49.1	48.1	48.9	47.9	49.2	49.5	49.4	49.7	50.0
Ratio of highest 20 percent to lowest 20 percent	12.6	12.5	12.9	12.3	12.8	12.3	13.3	13.4	14.1	14.2	14.7
African American											
Lowest 20 percent	2.9	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	3.0	2.9	2.6	2.6	2.8
Second quintile	8.2	8.2	8.3	8.0	8.1	8.1	8.4	8.2	7.8	7.5	7.8
Third quintile	14.5	14.7	14.6	14.5	14.3	14.5	14.6	14.3	14.2	13.7	14.1
Fourth quintile	23.3	24.0	23.8	23.7	23.2	23.7	23.5	23.5	23.6	23.3	23.5
Highest 20 percent	51.1	50.2	50.5	50.9	51.6	50.8	50.6	51.1	51.7	52.9	51.9
Ratio of highest 20 percent to lowest 20 percent	17.6	17.3	18.0	18.2	18.4	18.1	16.9	17.6	19.9	20.3	18.5
Asian^d											
Lowest 20 percent	3.3	2.7	3.2	2.9	3.2	3.1	2.9	2.7	3.0	3.0	3.0
Second quintile	9.1	9.1	9.2	9.2	8.8	9.2	8.6	8.2	8.9	8.7	8.9
Third quintile	15.2	15.9	15.1	15.3	14.7	15.6	15.1	14.4	15.3	15.1	14.9
Fourth quintile	23.8	24.6	23.3	23.7	23.0	24.0	24.1	23.0	24.5	23.5	23.6
Highest 20 percent	48.6	47.8	49.2	48.9	50.3	48.0	49.3	51.6	48.3	49.7	49.6
Ratio of highest 20 percent to lowest 20 percent	14.7	17.7	15.4	16.9	15.7	15.5	17.0	19.0	16.2	16.6	16.5

column number

- a U.S. Census estimate.
b Data from 2005 onward is referred to by the USDA as "very low food security" instead of "food insecure with hunger."
c Data refer to fiscal year.
d Reclassified from "Asian and Pacific Islander" in 2002.
e 3-year average: 1998, 1999, and 2000.
f 3-year average: 2001-2003 for 2003, and 2007-2011 for 2011

Sources for tables on page 241.

Table 13

United States: Hunger and Poverty by State

	Food insecurity, 2010-2012		Poverty, 2012				Participation in federal food assistance programs, fiscal year, 2012				
	people food insecure (avg. %)		poverty rate below 100% of the poverty level (%)		poverty rate below 50% of the poverty level (%)		SNAP (avg. monthly participants)	WIC (total participants)	school breakfast program (total participants)	national school lunch program (total participants)	summer food service program (avg. daily attendance)
	total	with hunger	all	under 18	all	under 18					
UNITED STATES	14.7	5.6	15.0	21.8	7.2	10.4	46,609,072	8,907,840	12,858,136	31,629,591	2,347,242
Alabama	17.9	6.8	16.2	27.1	8.5	13.7	910,244	141,900	224,496	562,959	26,423
Alaska	12.1	4.4	10.0	14.5	4.4	5.3	91,298	24,969	20,759	53,920	4,661
Arizona	14.9	6.4	19.0	27.4	8.9	12.5	1,123,974	193,214	274,857	662,564	27,554
Arkansas	19.7	8.1	20.1	29.9	8.2	12.6	502,125	94,293	162,018	348,918	26,217
California	15.6	5.7	15.9	22.5	7.4	10.2	3,964,221	1,472,468	1,396,436	3,333,408	104,428
Colorado	14.1	5.8	11.9	15.6	6.1	8.2	491,630	103,769	142,956	389,955	16,646
Connecticut	13.4	4.9	10.3	12.6	4.9	6.9	403,466	56,584	86,881	297,228	10,185
Delaware	11.6	4.9	13.5	20.9	5.8	7.9	148,257	22,214	38,624	96,040	14,366
District of Columbia	12.0	4.5	18.4	28.8	10.4	15.8	141,147	16,474	33,281	47,735	36,158
Florida	14.8	5.7	15.3	22.3	7.5	11.1	3,353,064	495,405	711,083	1,653,935	137,796
Georgia	16.9	6.5	18.1	27.2	8.8	12.8	1,912,839	303,875	620,655	1,287,033	84,202
Hawaii	14.0	5.6	13.8	19.3	5.8	8.2	176,823	37,169	38,943	113,618	5,134
Idaho	14.3	5.3	14.4	19.4	6.1	7.6	233,034	43,751	77,706	170,127	21,114
Illinois	13.0	4.5	12.6	19.3	6.5	8.8	1,869,713	288,939	395,045	1,142,443	55,586
Indiana	13.5	6.3	15.2	25.1	7.2	10.5	908,705	164,281	256,202	801,376	54,466
Iowa	12.6	4.8	10.3	14.5	5.4	6.3	408,050	69,159	93,108	395,600	11,109
Kansas	14.4	5.5	14.0	24.2	5.6	6.9	304,719	74,761	107,459	361,686	20,026
Kentucky	15.6	6.2	17.9	27.7	8.1	12.2	849,248	132,698	269,771	549,534	33,091
Louisiana	15.7	4.8	21.1	31.2	8.6	13.2	948,758	145,346	267,443	588,506	32,216
Maine	14.9	7.1	12.8	17.4	5.4	7.7	252,860	25,690	44,366	107,216	9,169
Maryland	13.0	5.1	9.9	13.6	4.9	6.8	716,379	146,272	191,407	434,022	57,444
Massachusetts	11.4	4.2	11.3	16.6	5.4	7.3	861,568	122,568	149,885	534,456	48,764
Michigan	13.4	5.3	13.7	20.0	8.0	11.7	1,828,384	255,954	379,452	907,684	73,133
Minnesota	10.6	4.8	10.0	14.0	4.9	6.2	538,869	128,436	179,640	627,280	45,834
Mississippi	20.9	6.9	22.0	29.8	10.2	16.2	659,872	94,773	207,859	398,654	28,027
Missouri	16.7	7.6	15.2	23.1	7.1	10.6	947,889	145,900	257,271	638,943	27,147
Montana	14.1	5.6	13.4	18.7	6.2	7.6	125,874	20,457	28,134	86,705	6,663
Nebraska	13.4	5.0	12.2	20.0	5.3	7.0	176,073	42,727	66,641	251,186	9,836
Nevada	16.6	6.7	15.8	23.6	7.1	10.0	354,900	76,108	87,213	218,552	6,865
New Hampshire	9.9	4.3	8.1	11.6	4.2	6.2	116,895	16,299	24,251	104,546	4,948
New Jersey	12.1	4.6	9.3	12.5	5.0	7.6	826,134	172,333	218,062	729,099	52,652
New Mexico	15.2	5.9	20.4	31.4	9.2	14.0	438,252	63,844	150,554	227,863	38,463
New York	13.2	5.0	17.2	25.4	7.1	10.5	3,076,911	524,148	644,136	1,796,235	369,027
North Carolina	17.0	5.5	17.2	24.7	7.9	11.9	1,668,588	269,335	405,295	942,745	92,476
North Dakota	8.7	3.4	11.4	16.2	5.2	6.2	58,796	13,661	23,292	85,078	2,184
Ohio	16.1	7.1	15.4	21.4	7.6	11.8	1,807,903	275,627	418,371	1,114,371	64,450
Oklahoma	15.3	6.6	18.0	27.6	7.4	10.4	614,947	123,070	227,417	446,144	11,390
Oregon	13.6	5.8	13.5	19.0	7.9	10.1	815,221	111,648	142,435	307,117	40,815
Pennsylvania	12.3	4.8	13.9	20.4	6.0	9.0	1,799,209	253,011	343,414	1,127,562	103,651
Rhode Island	15.4	5.5	13.6	21.6	6.1	9.5	172,846	24,261	32,981	79,747	8,221
South Carolina	15.4	5.2	16.7	22.9	8.2	12.8	869,801	130,525	272,470	493,488	56,178
South Dakota	12.9	4.9	12.8	15.1	6.3	9.0	103,846	22,153	27,503	107,367	5,518
Tennessee	16.2	6.9	18.6	27.9	7.7	11.6	1,316,810	162,775	333,403	687,452	32,709
Texas	18.4	6.2	17.0	24.9	7.4	10.9	4,038,440	969,893	1,786,414	3,374,154	176,587
Utah	14.8	4.8	11.0	14.0	5.5	6.3	276,890	69,641	74,580	348,886	13,670
Vermont	12.7	5.6	11.2	17.2	5.3	7.0	96,579	15,471	23,523	54,209	6,556
Virginia	9.2	3.2	10.6	14.0	5.2	6.8	913,878	159,137	271,107	749,115	54,339
Washington	14.6	6.1	11.6	15.5	6.3	8.5	1,108,090	194,706	185,961	539,859	41,012
West Virginia	14.2	4.9	16.7	20.2	8.4	13.3	346,843	47,891	113,415	199,197	13,251
Wisconsin	11.2	4.7	11.4	16.0	5.7	7.9	835,312	118,585	172,884	596,228	87,538
Wyoming	13.8	5.1	9.6	11.1	5.2	7.9	34,347	12,602	15,703	56,578	2,699
Puerto Rico	24.8	35.5	..	193,314	127,937	339,557	26,228
column number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11

Sources for tables on page 241.

Sources for Data Tables

TABLE 1

Country Demographics and Economic Indicators

Columns 1-7 and 9-25: World Bank (2013), World Development Indicators.

Column 8: United Nations Development Program (2013), Human Development Report, 2013.

TABLE 2

MDG 1: Eradicate Extreme Poverty

Columns 1-10: World Bank (2013), World Development Indicators.

Column 11: United Nations (2013), Millennium Development Goals Indicators.

TABLE 3

MDG 1: Eradicate Extreme Hunger

Columns 1-2: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (2013), State of Food Insecurity in the World, 2013.

Columns 3-9: World Bank (2013), World Development Indicators.

TABLE 4

MDG 2: Achieve Universal Primary Education

Columns 1-6: World Bank (2013), World Development Indicators.

TABLE 5

MDG 3: Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women

Columns 1-4: World Bank (2013), World Development Indicators.

TABLE 6

MDG 4: Reduce Child Mortality

Columns 1-4: World Bank (2013), World Development Indicators.

TABLE 7

MDG 5: Improve Maternal Health

Columns 1-8: World Bank (2013), World Development Indicators.

TABLE 8

MDG 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Other Diseases

Columns 2, 3, 5, 6 and 8: United Nations (2013), Millennium Development Goals Indicators.

Columns 1, 4, 7 and 9-12: World Bank (2013), World Development Indicators.

TABLE 9

MDG 7: Ensure Environmental Sustainability

Columns 1-11: World Bank (2013), World Development Indicators.

Column 12: United Nations (2013), Millennium Development Goals Indicators.

TABLE 10

MDG 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development, Low and Middle Income Countries

Columns 1-7 and 9-12: World Bank (2013), World Development Indicators.

Column 8: World Health Organization (2013), World Health Statistics, 2012.

Column 13: Transparency International (2013), Corruption Perceptions Index 2012.

TABLE 11

MDG 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development, High Income Countries

Columns 1-3, 7-8 and 13: United Nations (2013), Millennium Development Goals Indicators.

Columns 4-6, 9, and 11: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2013), 2011 DAC Report on Multilateral Aid and OECD.StatExtracts.

Columns 10 and 12: The Center for Global Development (2012), QuODA Second Edition Report.

Sources for Data Tables

TABLE 12

United States: State Hunger and Poverty in 2011

Columns 1 and 2: U.S. Department of Agriculture (2012), 2011 Current Population Survey: Food Security Supplement Data.

Columns 3-6: U.S. Census Bureau (2012), 2011 Current Population Survey, 2009-2012 Annual Social and Economic Supplements.

Columns 7-11: U.S. Department of Agriculture (2012), Program Data (usda.gov/pd).

TABLE 13

United States: National Hunger and Poverty Trends

Food Insecurity Prevalence: U.S. Census Bureau (2012), 2001-2011 Census Data.

Percent of Budget spent on food assistance: Bread for the World Institute Estimate (2012), Data from U.S. Department of Agriculture Food and Nutrition Service spending reports.

Total Infant Mortality rate: T.J. Matthews and Marian F. MacDorman (2011), Infant Mortality Statistics from the 2007 Period: Linked Birth/Income Data Set, National Vital Statistics Reports, Vol. 59, No. 6, Center for Disease Control and Prevention, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

Total Poverty Rate: U.S. Census Bureau (2012), 2001-2011 Census Data.

Total Unemployment Rate: Bureau of Labor Statistics (2012), U.S. Department of Labor “Labor Force Statistics from the Current Population Survey.”

Household Income Distribution: U.S. Census Bureau (2012), 2001-2011 Census Data.

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Presbyterian Hunger Program provides a channel for congregations to respond to hunger in the United States and around the world. With

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Christian Reformed Church

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Church of the Brethren, Global Food Crisis Fund

www.brethren.org

Congressional Hunger Center

www.hungercenter.org

International Orthodox Christian Charities

<http://iocc.org/>

Nazarene Compassionate Ministries

www.ncm.org

Reformed Church in America

www.rca.org

Salvation Army National Corporation

www.salvationarmyusa.org

Sisters of Bon Secours of Paris

www.bonsecours.org/generalate

Sisters of Bon Secours USA

<http://bonsecours.org/us>

Texas Baptist Christian Life Commission

<http://texasbaptists.org>

The Christian Methodist Episcopal Church

<http://www.thecmechurch.org/>

The Province of St. Joseph of the Capuchin Order, Inc.

<http://www.thecapuchins.org>

Wesleyan Church

<http://www.wesleyan.org>

Women's Missionary Society of the African Methodist Episcopal Church

<http://www.wms-amec.org/ame-church.htm>

World Renew

www.crwrc.org

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