

2000

A Better World for All



goals

Progress towards the international development goals



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goals



Progress towards the
international development goals

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A Better World for All



Poverty in all its forms is the greatest challenge to the international community. Of special concern are the 1.2 billion people living on less than \$1 a day and the additional 1.6 billion living on less than \$2 a day.

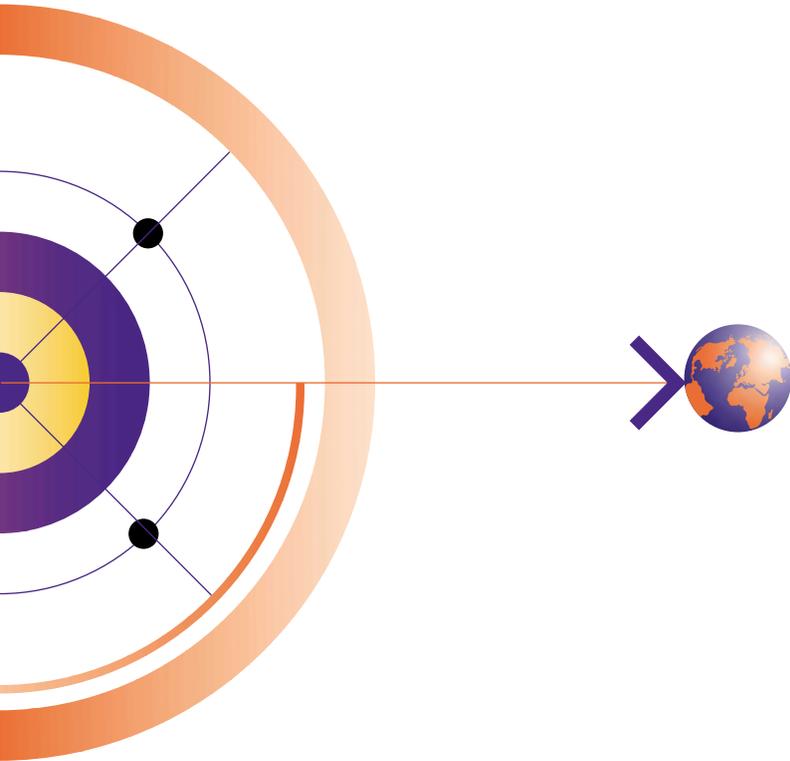
Setting goals to reduce poverty is an essential part of the way forward. Building on the global United Nations conferences and summits of the 1990s, the development goals described in this report are broad goals for the entire world. They address some of the many dimensions of poverty and its effects on people's lives. In accepting these goals, the international community makes a commitment to the world's poorest and most vulnerable—and to itself.

The goals are set in precise terms—measured in numbers to ensure accountability. The openness and transparency of such numbers can help us chart a course to achieve the goals and track progress. But people are not numbers—happiness is not a statistic. These goals are worthwhile because they will improve the quality of human life. The world will be better, and safer, for its 6 billion people and for the projected 7 billion people in 2015.

Goals cannot be imposed—they must be embraced. Each country must identify its own particular goals, its own path to development, and make its own commitment through dialogue with its citizens. In this, the support of the international community is vital. And the high-income countries, because of their greater resources, have much to contribute.

It is essential for all the partners in this development effort to pursue faster, sustainable growth strategies that favour the poor. To spend efficiently—avoiding waste and ensuring that the mechanisms for accountability are always in place. To spend effectively—on activities aimed at human, social and economic development, not on excessive military capacity or on environmentally disastrous projects. And to spend wisely—not committing public resources to activities that can be best undertaken by the private sector.

What are the obstacles? Weak governance. Bad policies. Human rights abuses. Conflicts, natural disasters and other external shocks. The spread of HIV/AIDS. The failure to



address inequities in income, education and access to health care, and the inequalities between men and women.

But there is more. Limits on developing countries' access to global markets, the burden of debt, the decline in development aid and, sometimes, inconsistencies in donor policies also hinder faster progress.

What will it take to overcome these obstacles? True partnership—and a continuing commitment to eliminate poverty in its many dimensions. Our institutions are actively using these development goals as a common framework to guide our policies and programmes and to assess our effectiveness. We cannot afford to lose the fight against poverty. And we must be unshakeable in our unified desire to win that fight—for everyone.

Kofi A. Annan
Secretary-General of the United Nations

Donald J. Johnston
Secretary-General of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

Horst Köhler
Managing Director of the International Monetary Fund

James D. Wolfensohn
President of the World Bank Group



Setting the goals

The goals for international development address that most compelling of human desires—a world free of poverty and free of the misery that poverty breeds. The goals have been set in quantitative terms, so part of the story is told in words and pictures, but most of it is in numbers and charts.

The goals come from the agreements and resolutions of the world conferences organised by the United Nations in the first half of the 1990s. These conferences provided an opportunity for the international community to agree on steps needed to reduce poverty and achieve sustainable development.

Each of the seven goals addresses an aspect of poverty. They should be viewed together because they are mutually reinforcing. Higher school enrolments, especially for girls, reduce poverty and mortality. Better basic health care increases enrolment and reduces poverty. Many poor people earn their living from the environment. So progress is needed on each of the seven goals.

The goals will not be easy to achieve, but progress in some countries and regions shows what can be done. China reduced its number in poverty from 360 million in 1990 to about 210 million in 1998. Mauritius cut its military budget and invested heavily in health and education. Today all Mauritians have access to sanitation, 98% to safe water, and 97% of births are attended by skilled health staff. And many Latin American countries moved much closer to gender equality in education.

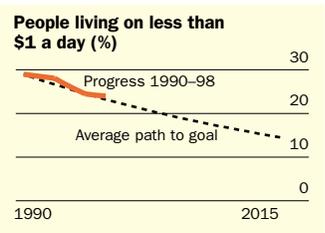
The message: if some countries can make great progress towards reducing poverty in its many forms, others can as well. But conflict is reversing gains in social development in many countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. The spread of HIV/AIDS is impoverishing individuals, families and communities on all continents. And sustained economic growth—that vital component for long-run reductions in poverty—still eludes half the world's countries. For more than 30 of them, real per capita incomes have fallen over the past 35 years. And where there is growth, it needs to be spread more equally.

So, the goals can be met. But it will take hard work. Success will require, above all, stronger voices for the poor, economic stability and growth that favours the poor, basic social services for all, open markets for trade and technology and enough resources for development, used well.



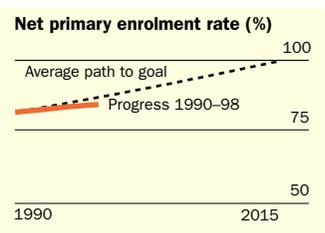
1 Reduce the proportion of people living in extreme poverty by half between 1990 and 2015

As growth increased globally in the mid-1990s, poverty rates fell—rapidly in Asia, but little or not at all in Africa. Income inequality is a barrier to progress in Latin America.



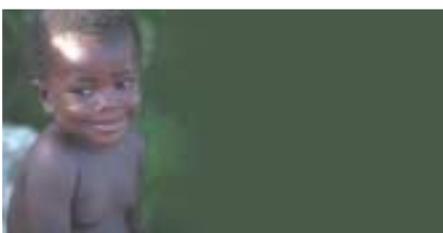
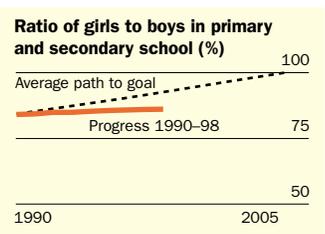
2 Enrol all children in primary school by 2015

Although enrolment rates continue to rise, they have not risen fast enough. On current trends, more than 100 million school-age children will not be in school in 2015.



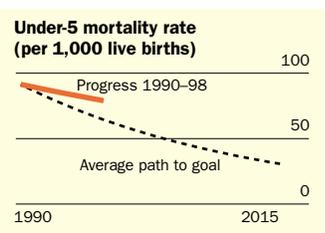
3 Make progress towards gender equality and empowering women, by eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005

Getting more girls through school is essential but not enough. The gender gap may be narrowing, but girls' enrolments remain persistently behind those of boys.



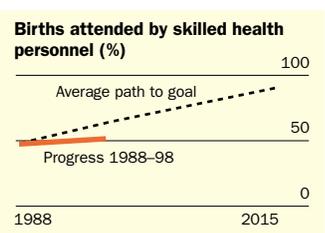
4 Reduce infant and child mortality rates by two-thirds between 1990 and 2015

For every country that cut infant and under-5 child mortality rates fast enough to reach the goal, 10 lagged behind—and another one moved backwards, often because of HIV/AIDS.



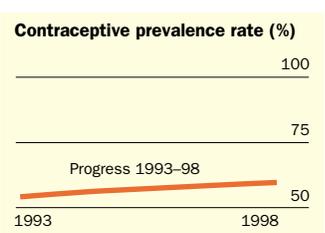
5 Reduce maternal mortality ratios by three-quarters between 1990 and 2015

Skilled care during pregnancy and delivery can do much to avoid many of the half million maternal deaths each year. But the proportion of births attended by skilled personnel rose slowly in the 1990s.



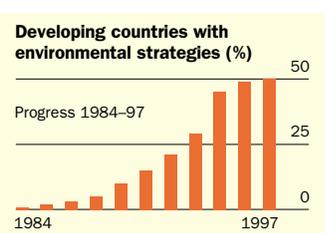
6 Provide access for all who need reproductive health services by 2015

Contraceptive use is one indicator of access to reproductive health. With progress in access to reproductive health services, the rate of contraceptive use is rising in all regions.



7 Implement national strategies for sustainable development by 2005 so as to reverse the loss of environmental resources by 2015

Despite their commitments at the Rio Earth Summit in 1992, fewer than half the world's countries have adopted strategies, and even fewer are implementing them.





Goal: Halve the proportion of people living in extreme poverty by 2015

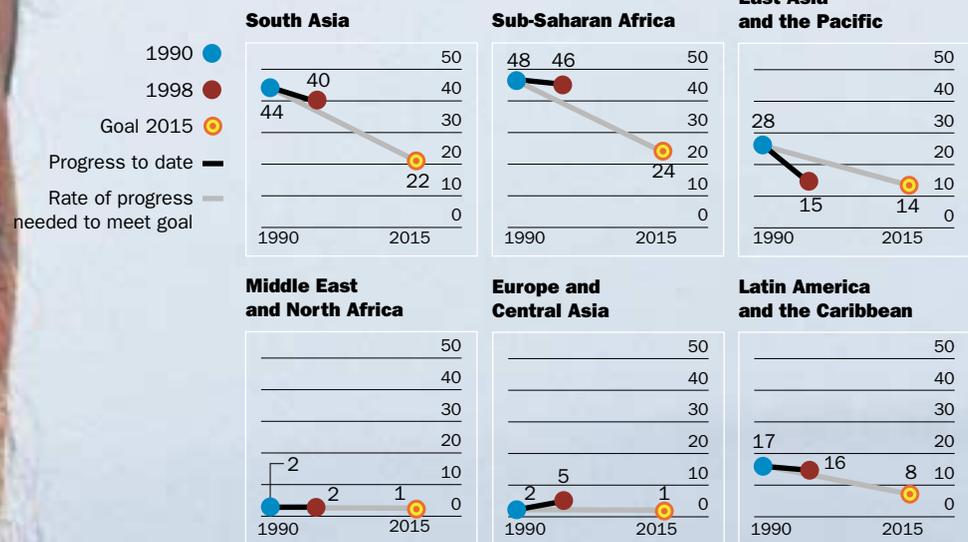
Across the globe 1 person in 5 lives on less than \$1 a day—and 1 in 7 suffers chronic hunger

Poverty

In many developing countries, the poor struggle at the margin of the formal economy. They lack political influence, education, health care, adequate shelter, personal safety, regular income and enough to eat.

Progress in some regions—delays and setbacks in others

Proportion of people living on less than \$1 a day (%)



“Poverty is pain; it feels like a disease. It attacks a person not only materially but also morally. It eats away one’s dignity and drives one into total despair.”

Worldwide the number and proportion of people living in extreme poverty declined slightly through the mid-1990s. Most of the decline was in East Asia, notably China. But progress slowed temporarily in some Asian countries in the late 1990s, and ground to a halt or reversed in others. In the rest of the world, while the proportion of people in poverty declined, population growth meant that the number of poor people increased. And in the countries of the former Soviet Union, undergoing economic and social transition, the proportion of poor more than tripled.

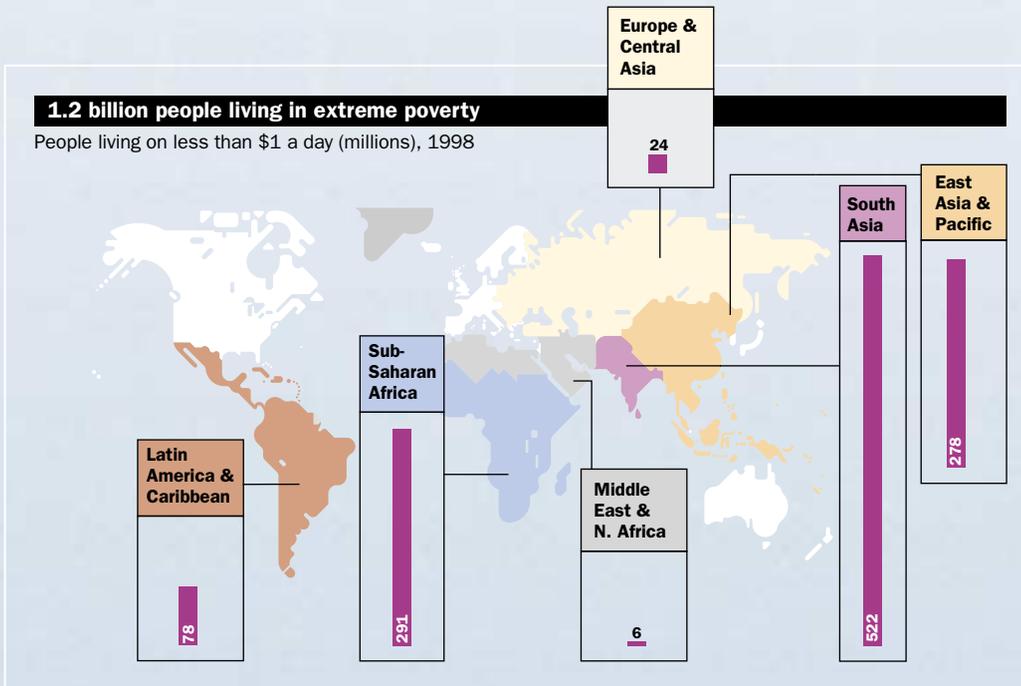
Thailand alters its development path

Between 1988 and 1996 Thailand's economy grew by 7% a year, and the share of the population in poverty dropped from 22% to 11%. But the country's financial crisis pushed that share back up to 13% in 1998. In response, Thailand is redirecting its development strategy to reduce inequality,

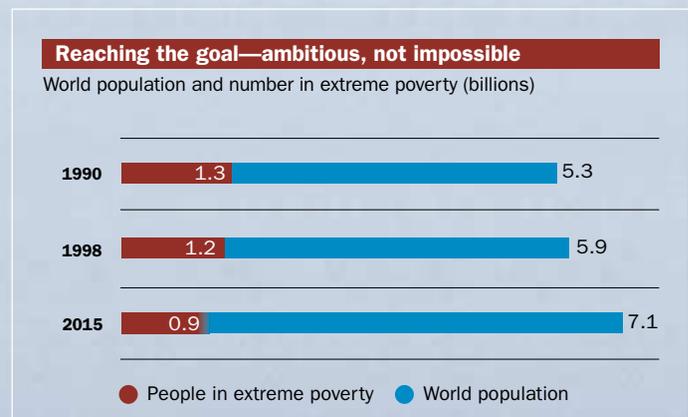
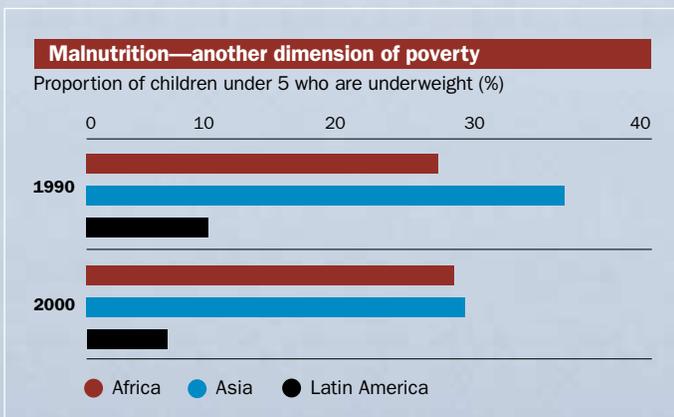
which remained high despite all the growth.

The country's development plan, now more people-centred, has increased resources to the poorer north and north-east. The objective: to reduce poverty to less than 10% by 2001. A new social investment fund helps create

jobs and supports social services for the poor. As part of the new strategy, governance reforms are geared to increasing accountability and giving authority to local district councils, which now elect their own officials and command greater resources.



The numbers of poor are greatest in South Asia, but the proportion of poor people is highest in Sub-Saharan Africa. Most of the poor live in rural areas, but urban poverty is growing faster. Women are more likely than men to lack rights to land and other assets. They also have difficulty getting access to credit. And they lack adequate employment and economic security in old age.



Malnutrition is a symptom of poverty. Today there are 150 million underweight children in the developing world. But the proportion is falling everywhere except Africa. Being underweight, even mildly, increases the risk of death and inhibits mental and physical development. The problem perpetuates itself from one generation to the next, because malnourished women are more likely to have low-birthweight babies.

Poverty rates can be cut in half by 2015 if countries follow policies that reduce social and gender inequalities and create income-earning opportunities for the poor. But meeting the goal is only a first step, because almost 900 million people will still be left in extreme poverty. That is why the effort to eliminate poverty needs to be intensified.

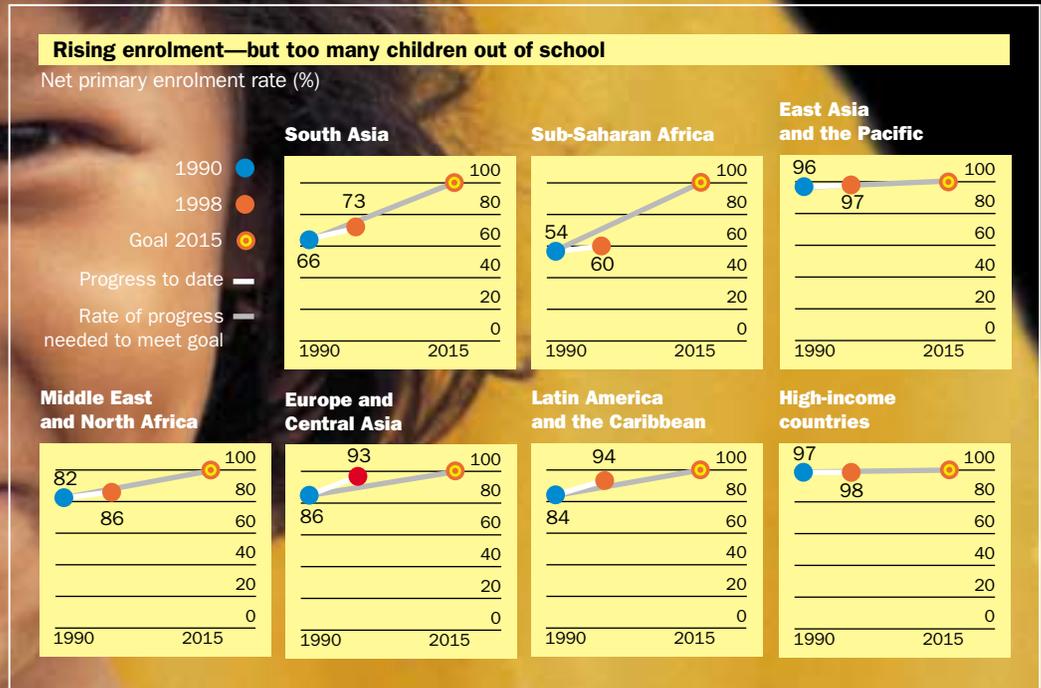


Goal: Enrol all children in primary school by 2015

In developing countries 1 child in 3 does not complete 5 years of schooling

Education

Providing universal primary education remains a great challenge—and a great opportunity. Success will give millions more the skills to rise out of poverty. But failure will fuel an educational—and social—crisis in the decade ahead.



Enrolment rates are up in most regions, but the quality of education has been suffering—and far too many children remain out of school. To increase enrolments and provide better education, school systems have to invest in training teachers and improving facilities. They also have to increase family and community participation—and eliminate gender bias that limits the demand for girls’ education.



I want to learn to read and write, get good work, so that I can send my children to a good school, so that they will be able to get good work.

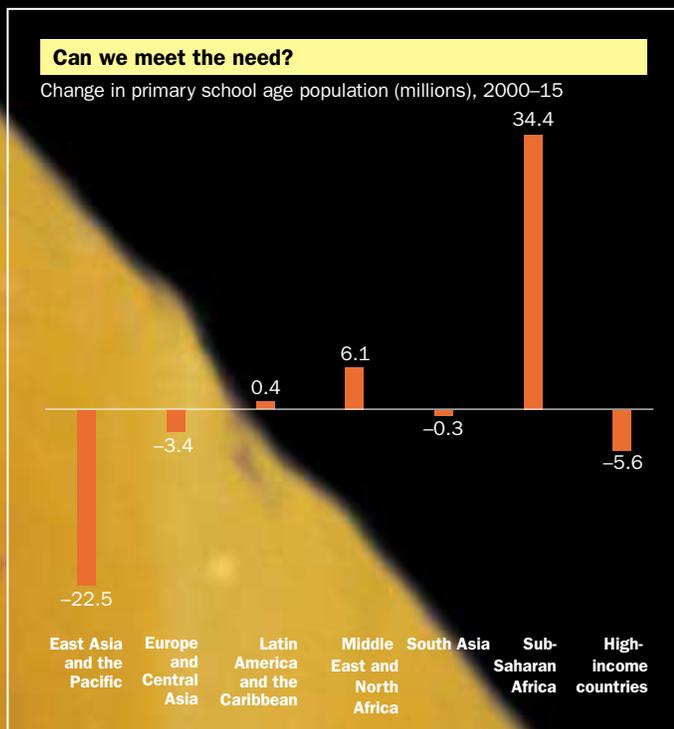
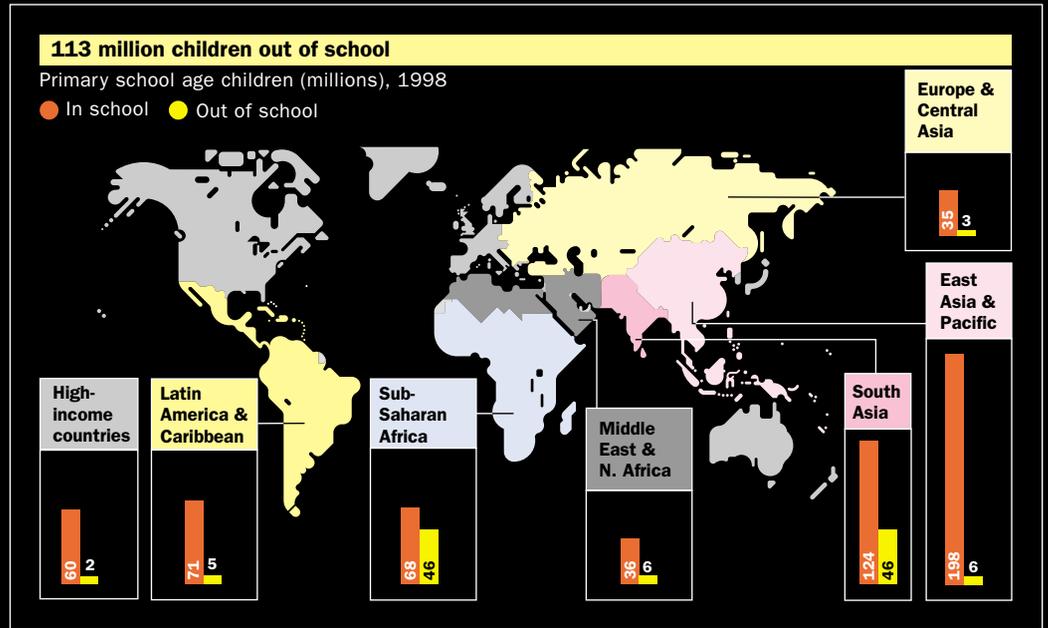
Education reform in Malawi

In 1994 Malawi made primary education its top priority—addressing poor access and inequality, high repetition and dropout rates and poor infrastructure in its school

system. More government money for schools and the elimination of fees boosted enrolments by 50% and focused Malawi's education system on helping the poor. In 1994–95 the

poorest fifth of the population received 16% of all public education spending, up from 10% in 1990–91, while the share going to the richest fifth declined from 38% to 25%.

In most countries, disparities in enrolment rates continue between rich and poor. For some countries, primary education is practically universal—for others, attainment is dismal. Low retention rates reflect poor schools, poor access and the cost to the poor of keeping their children in school.



Because of declining birth rates, the world's school-age population will increase by only 9 million in the next 15 years. But there are large regional differences. As a result of reduced fertility rates in East Asia, the school-age population there will decline by 22 million. But in Sub-Saharan Africa it will rise by 34 million. Added to the 47 million not now in school, that means building schools, training teachers and providing textbooks for an extra 81 million children in the next 15 years. South Asia and the Middle East and North Africa also face significant challenges.



Goal: Empower women and eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005

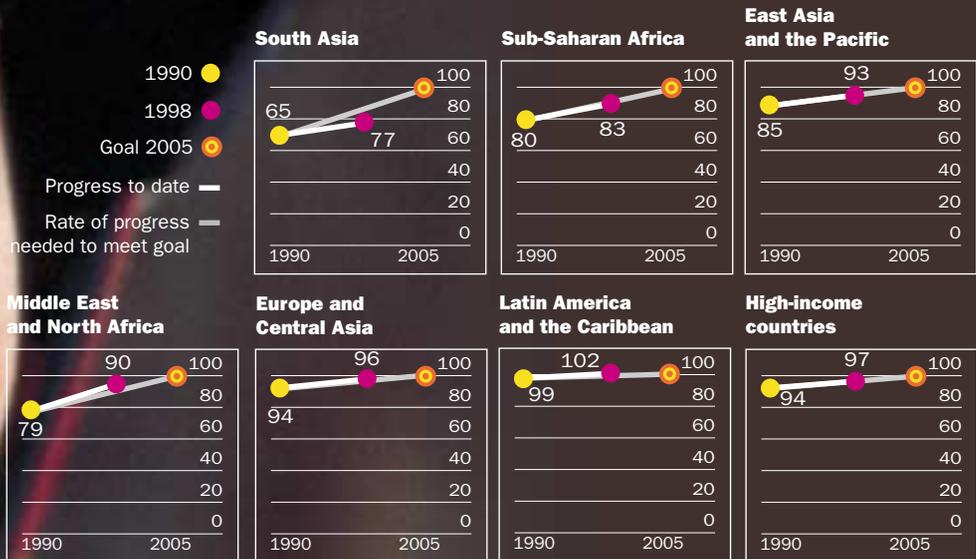
Closing the gender gap in education adds 0.5 percentage points to annual growth in GNP per capita

Gender equality

Educated girls have many more choices—in marriage, in childbearing, in work, in life. They can seize more economic opportunities. And they do more to shape their society’s political, social, economic and environmental progress.

Enrolment gap between girls and boys—narrowing in all regions

Ratio of girls to boys enrolled in primary and secondary school (%)



Girls’ enrolments have increased faster than boys’. In such countries as Armenia, Mongolia, South Africa, Sri Lanka and Venezuela, their school enrolment rates even exceed those of boys. At the global level, the gender gap in primary and secondary enrolment is narrowing. But the current rate of progress is not fast enough to close the gender gap in education by 2005.



When we came here, we could not write or read anything, we sat in circles like stones and hardly made any response. Now we know how to read and write letters, we are aware of our rights and needs.

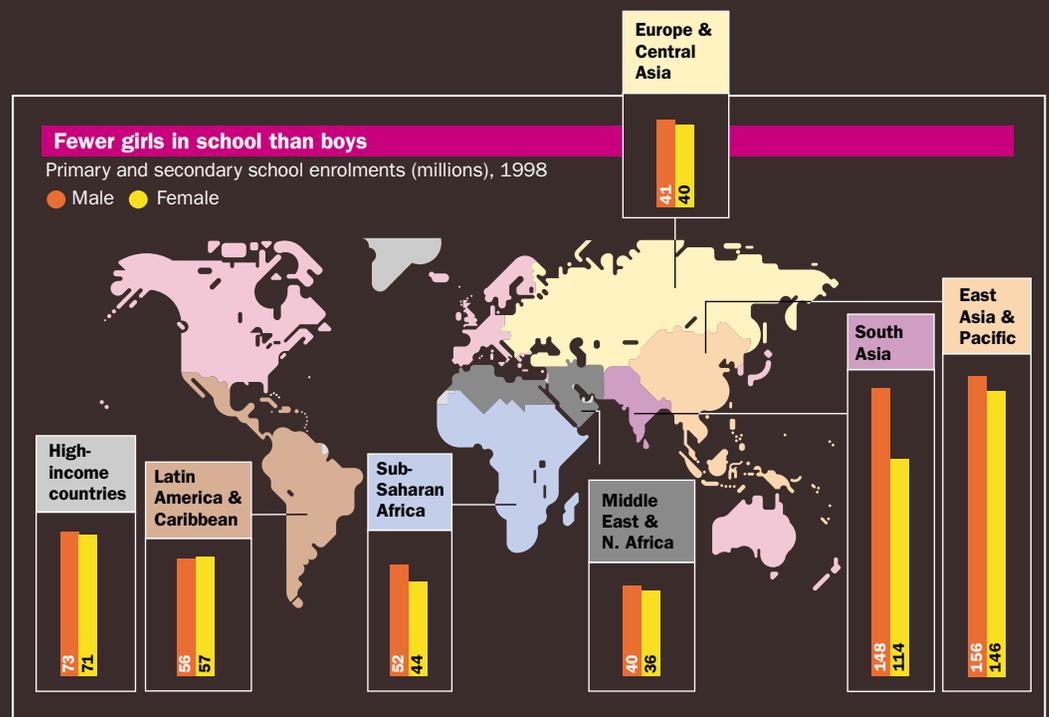
Girls' enrolments—increasing faster than boys' in Guinea

Between 1991 and 1998, girls' primary school enrolment in Guinea increased from fewer than 20% to almost 40%. That was the result of a series of

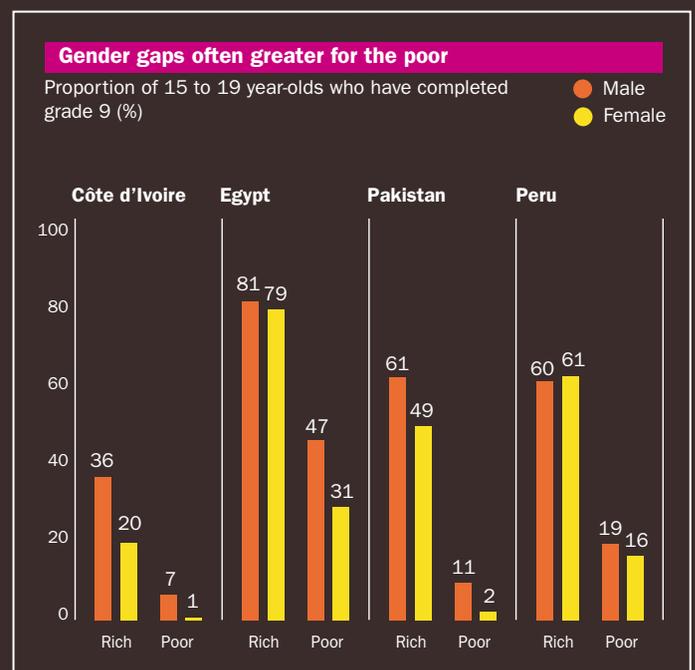
practical interventions by the government. It equipped schools with girls' latrines. It permitted pregnant girls to be readmitted after childbirth. It

distributed textbooks free of charge and updated textbooks to remove any gender bias. And it focused on hiring female teachers.

In recent years the gap between girls' and boys' secondary enrolments has narrowed, reflecting the higher enrolments of girls and the greater tendency for boys to leave school early. But even as the gender gaps in education decline, they persist in economic and political life.



In many places, children of the wealthiest families are as likely to finish their schooling as those in high-income countries. For those families the proportion of girls in school is roughly the same as that of boys. But for poor families fewer of their children go to school—and far fewer girls than boys. For many poor families the value of girls' labour exceeds the returns they expect from educating their daughters—so daughters don't go to school.





Goal: Reduce infant and child mortality rates by two-thirds by 2015

11 million children under the age of 5 died in 1998, most from preventable causes

Infant and child mortality

Infant and under-5 mortality rates fell by more than half between 1960 and 1990. In China, Sri Lanka and Vietnam infant mortality fell by three-quarters—good reason to hope that such success can be repeated in other poor countries. But progress slowed in the 1990s. And in most regions, a big effort will be needed to attain a two-thirds reduction by 2015.

The outlook for children—improving, but too slowly

Under-5 mortality rates (deaths per 1,000 live births)



What stands in the way? Unsafe water. Inadequate immunisation. War and civil conflict. High levels of poverty and malnutrition. Poor access to basic education, especially for girls. The spread of HIV/AIDS and the resurgence of malaria and tuberculosis.



The boy died of measles. We all know he could have been cured at the hospital. But the parents had no money, and so the boy died a slow and painful death.

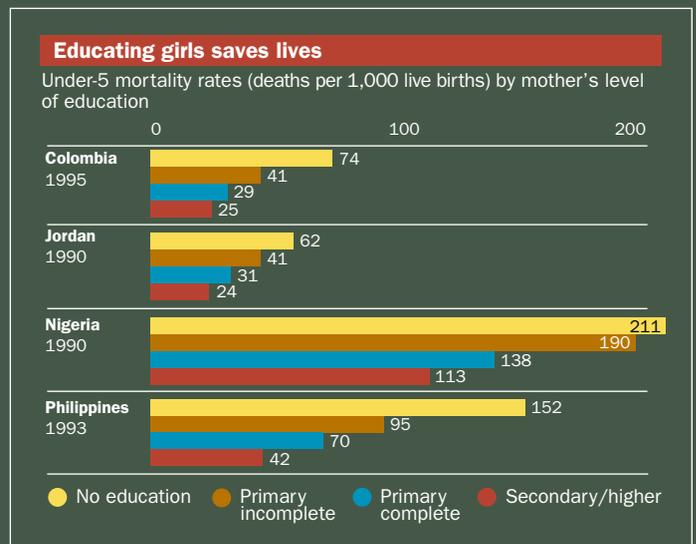
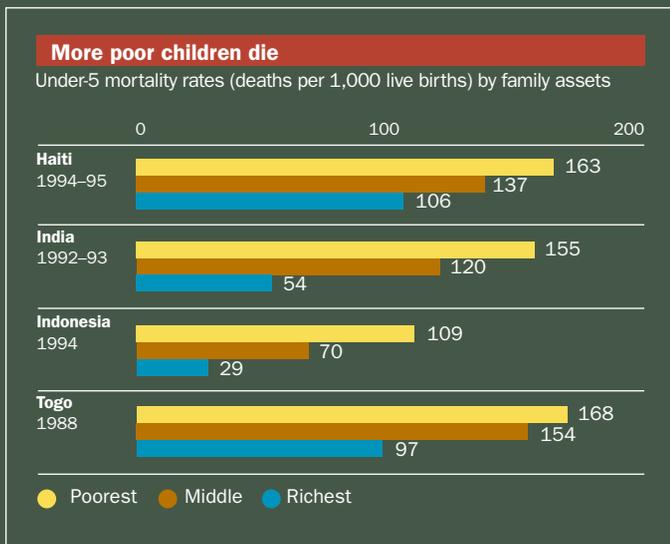
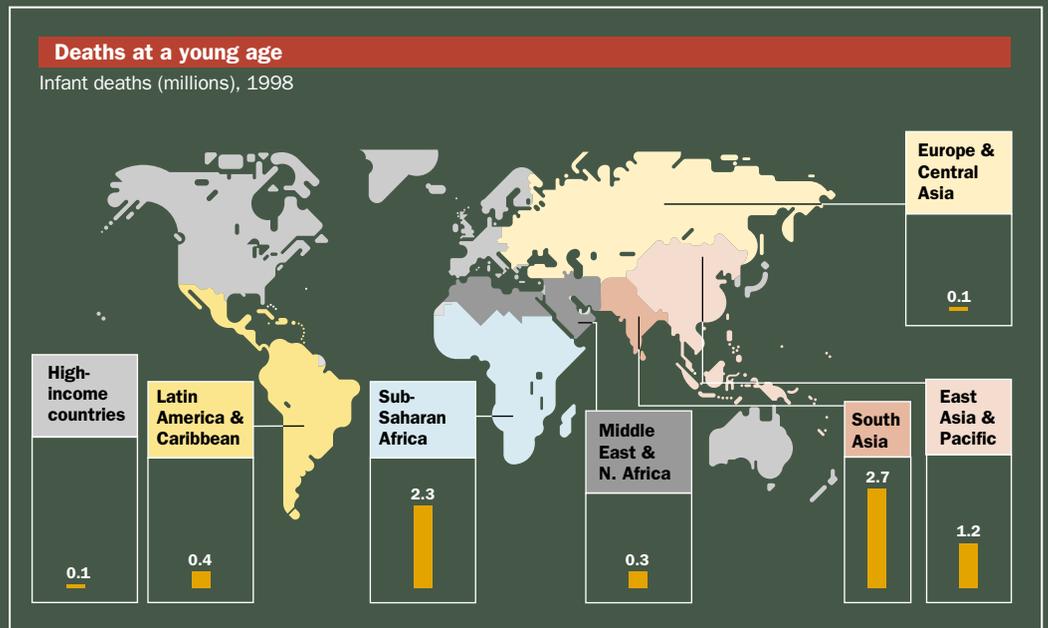
Bangladesh improves child survival

Bangladesh reduced infant and under-5 mortality rates by about 25% between 1990 and 1998. A remarkable achievement, although not quite fast enough to reach the goal by 2015. What did it

take? A focus on immunisation. National awareness campaigns on the treatment of diarrhoea. Special programmes to reduce pneumonia-related deaths. Better sanitation and better

access to safe water. Also important were strong community participation in the delivery of basic social services, special scholarships for girls and the expansion of microcredit for women.

Infant deaths are most often the result of unhealthy conditions around the time of birth. Pneumonia, diarrhoea, malaria or measles frequently kill young children, especially those suffering from chronic malnutrition.



Under-5 mortality rates are highest among the poorest, but they are high even for the relatively wealthy. Reducing infant and child deaths depends on greater investments in basic social services and on educating parents and improving nutrition, especially for the poor.

Education empowers women to have smaller families, to provide better care for their children and to pass on knowledge that will improve their children's lives.



More than 500,000 women died during pregnancy and childbirth in 1995—and many millions more suffered without treatment

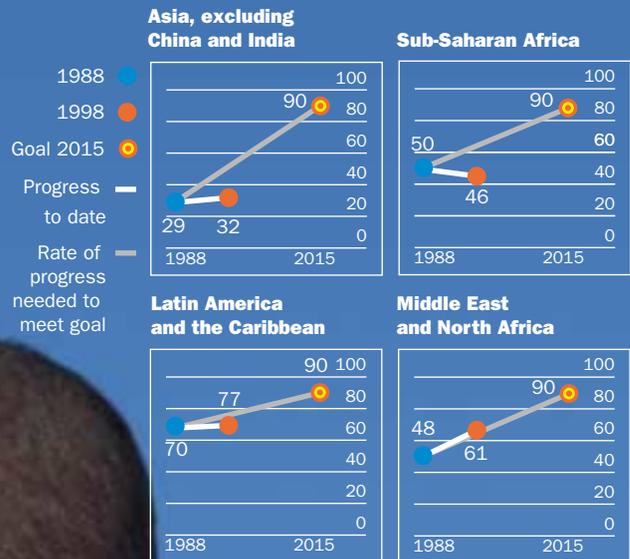
Goal: Reduce maternal mortality ratios by three-quarters by 2015

Maternal mortality

Ninety-nine percent of maternal deaths occur in developing countries, most of them preventable. Infections, blood loss and unsafe abortion account for the majority of deaths. To reduce maternal mortality, more investment in health systems is needed to improve the quality and coverage of delivery services and to provide prenatal and postnatal care for the poor.

Skilled care at birth still not available in some places

Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel (%)



Maternal deaths are hard to measure. The proportion of births attended by skilled personnel helps to track progress in reducing maternal mortality. In regions where skilled attendants are not routinely available, the goal is to have skilled attendants at 90% of births by 2015.

“ I am going to the sea to fetch a new baby, but the journey is long and dangerous, and I may not return. ”

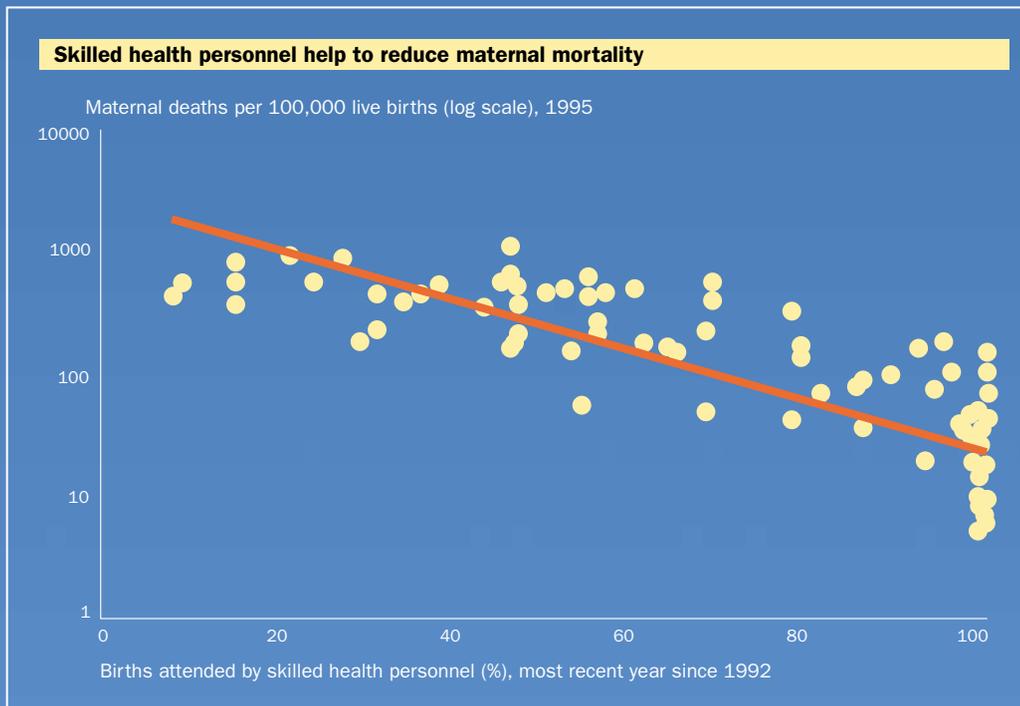
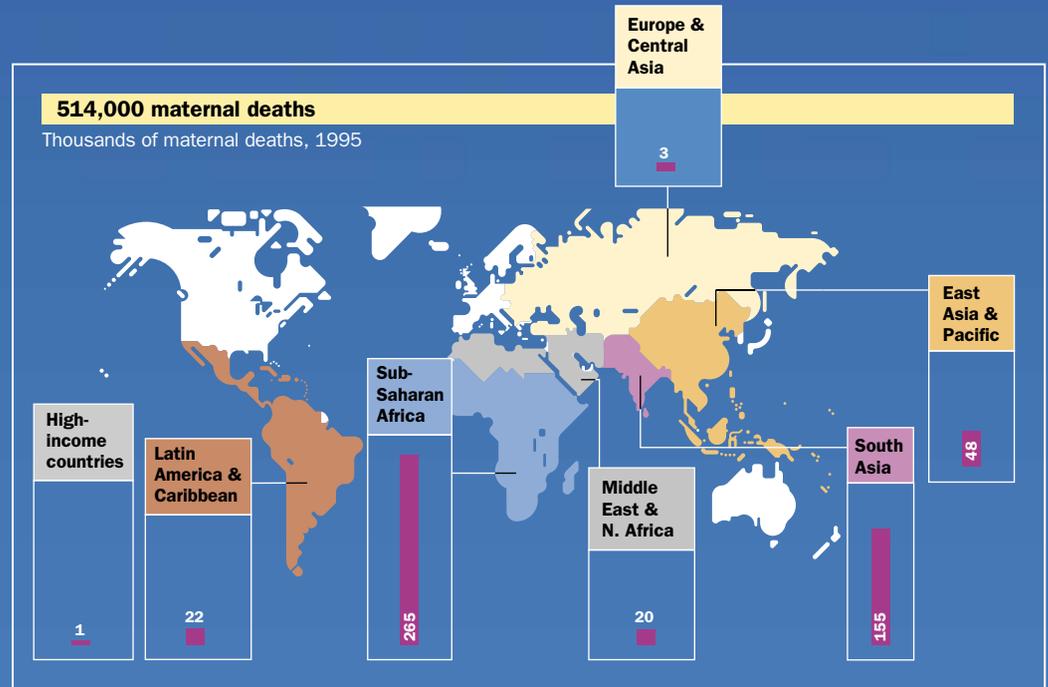
Commitment counts

We know what to do to reduce maternal mortality. The necessary services include family planning, basic maternal care, skilled birth attendants, neonatal care and preventing and treating

unsafe abortions and the complications of pregnancy and delivery. And we know the cost—about \$3 a person a year in low-income countries. Despite their low incomes, China, Cuba and Sri

Lanka have all reduced maternal deaths through efforts to improve access to primary health care, strengthen health systems and improve the quality of health care.

Maternal mortality varies widely in the world's regions—low in Latin America, but very high in Africa. In many poor African countries, one mother dies from complications of pregnancy and delivery for every 100 live births.



Health workers with midwifery skills are the key to reducing maternal mortality. As well as attending births, they provide mothers with basic information about prenatal and postnatal care for themselves and their children. Improving women's social status and ensuring gender equity in health care are important in achieving this goal.



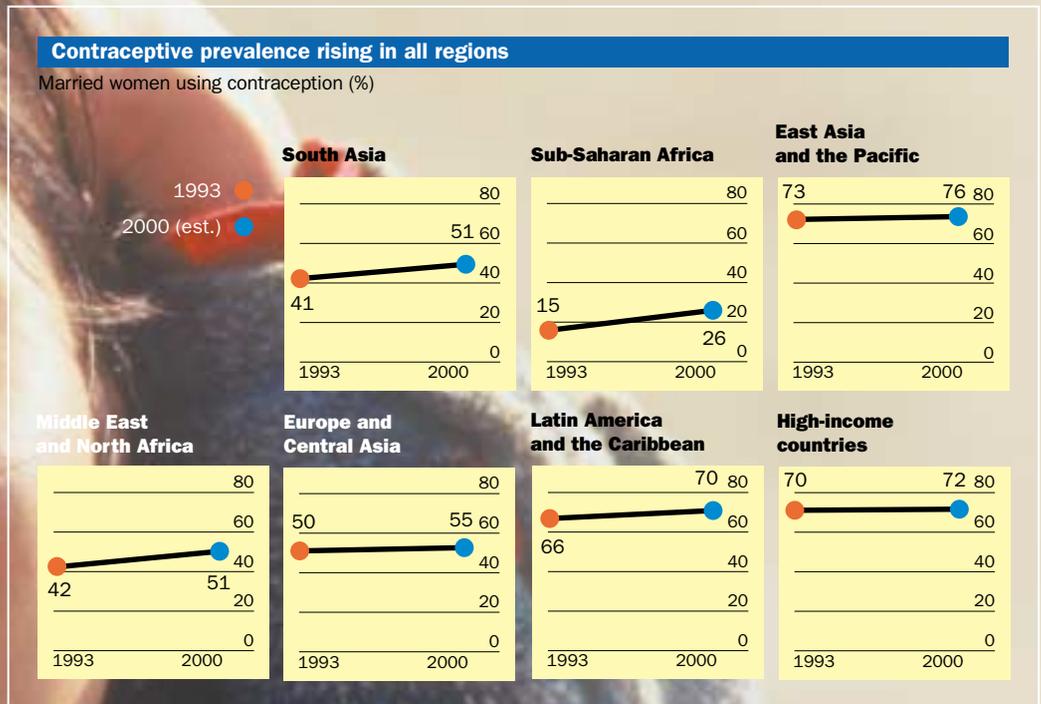
Goal: Provide access for all who need reproductive health services by 2015

120 million couples who want to space the births of their children or stop having children are not using contraception

Reproductive health

Reproductive health services provide men and women with the knowledge they need to protect their health and the health of their families. This includes methods for planning their families, preventing and treating sexually transmitted diseases, including HIV/AIDS, and discouraging harmful practices against women.

The use of contraception is influenced by many factors, especially access to and knowledge of affordable and quality reproductive health services. And because gender relations affect reproductive health, men need to take greater responsibility for their own sexual behaviour as well as respect and support their partners' rights and health.



During the 1990s the use of contraception increased in all regions, but Africa lagged far behind. With rising numbers of people in poor countries in their reproductive age, the challenge is to sustain the gains in the decade ahead. Doing so would reduce poverty faster.

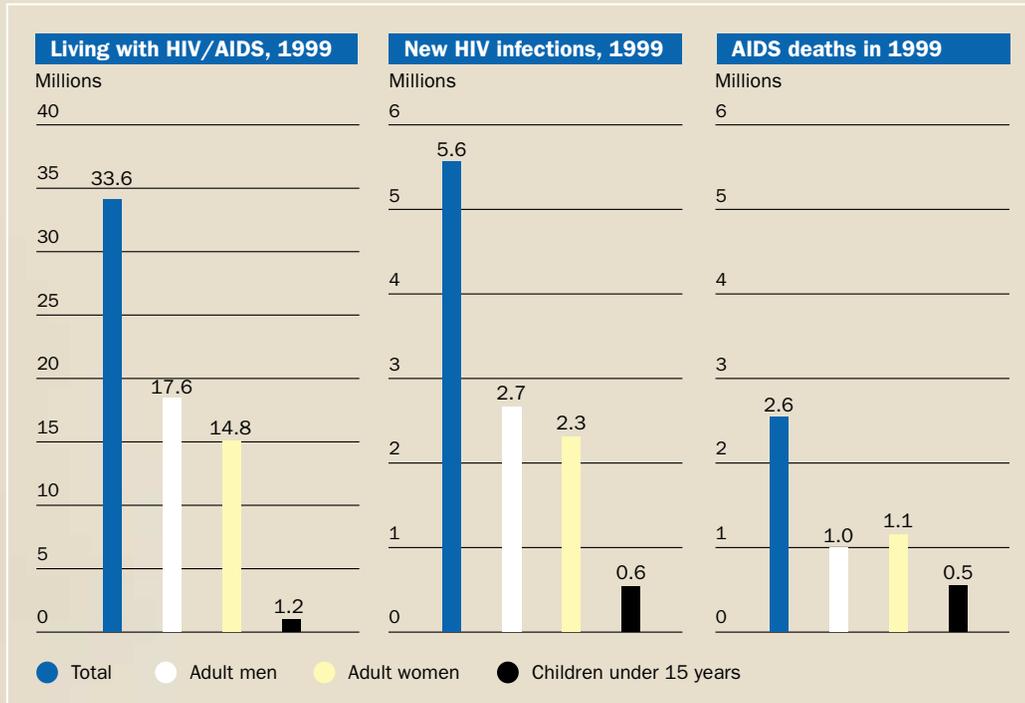
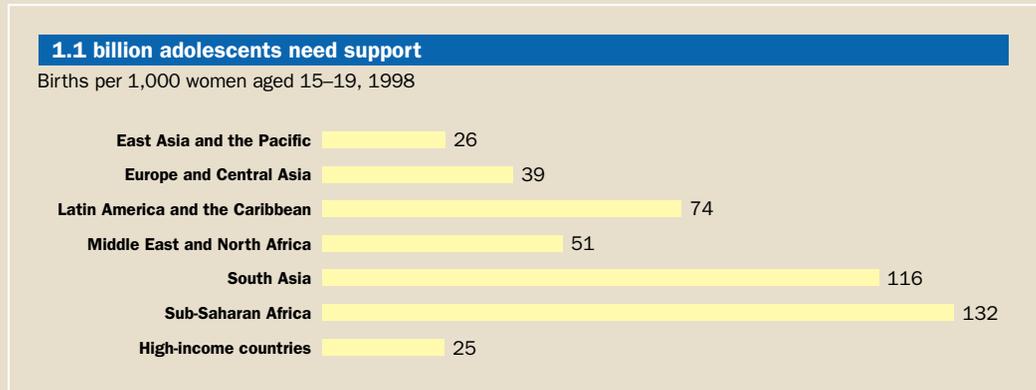
Improving reproductive health services in the Islamic Republic of Iran

In the late 1980s, the Iranian government became more concerned with meeting the social and welfare needs of its rapidly growing population. In 1989 a national family planning programme was integrated into

the country's extensive primary health care system. The programme has increased access and promoted choice of contraceptive use. And in response to the 1994 Cairo International Conference on

Population and Development, the programme widened its scope to include other components of reproductive health. Between 1989 and 1997 the contraceptive prevalence rate rose from 49% to 73%.

More than 14 million adolescent girls give birth each year. A large proportion of those pregnancies are unwanted, and an estimated 4.4 million abortions are sought by adolescent girls each year. Many adolescents also face serious risks of contracting sexually transmitted diseases, including HIV/AIDS.



At the end of 1999, 33.6 million men, women and children were living with HIV/AIDS, 95 percent of them in developing countries. More than 16 million have died in the pandemic—more than 13 million in Africa—leaving behind shattered families and crippling the prospects for development. Without effective national programmes and massive international support, the pandemic will continue to spread throughout developing countries, widening the gaps between rich and poor nations.

“ I do not want to make this world more crowded, and I do not want my life to get poorer. ”



In the early 1990s about 17 million hectares of tropical forests—four Switzerlands—were cleared annually. If this continues, 5–10% of tropical forest species will face extinction in the next 30 years

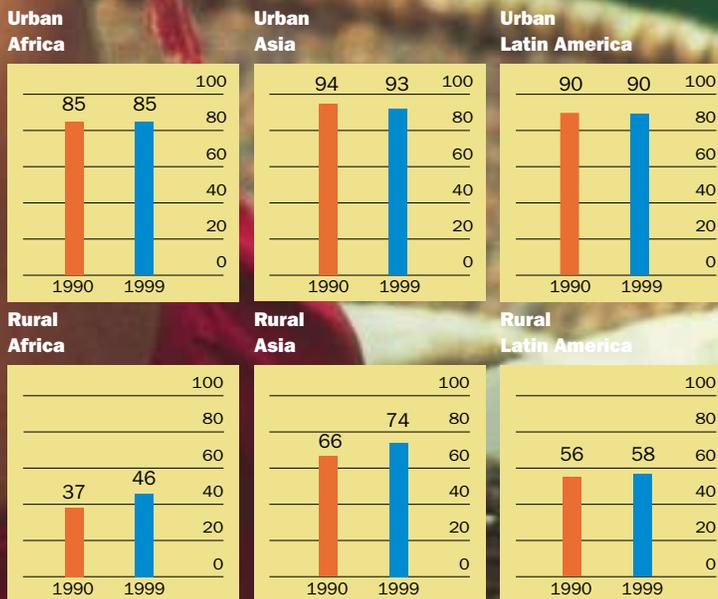
Goal: Implement national strategies for sustainable development by 2005 so as to reverse the loss of environmental resources by 2015

Environment

Many of the world's poor depend directly on the environment—agriculture, forestry and fisheries—for their livelihoods. The poor are also most likely to be hurt by air and water pollution and unsustainable practices for food production. Better environmental management can improve their lives, increase their productivity and build momentum towards sustainable development.

Little progress in improving water supplies

Population with access to an improved water source (%)



Almost 20 percent of the world's people depend on unimproved water supplies to meet their daily needs. Urban populations are better served than rural, but even piped water from municipal supplies may be contaminated by disease-bearing organisms and industrial pollutants. Those without access to safe water supplies must struggle daily to meet their needs and face the constant danger of water-borne disease.



We should live here on Earth as though we were intending to stay for good.

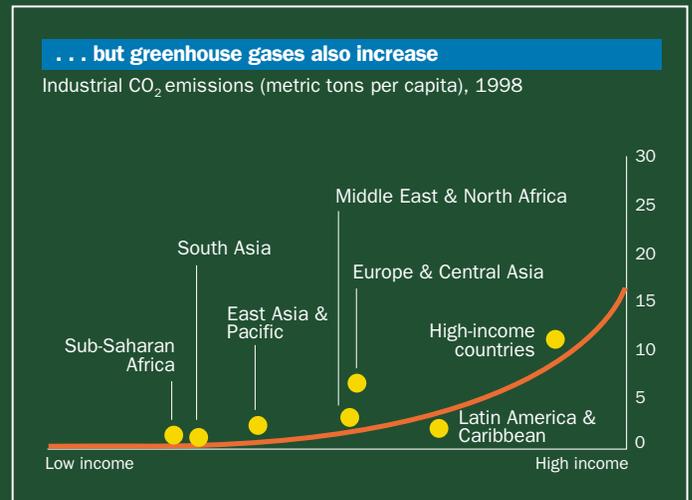
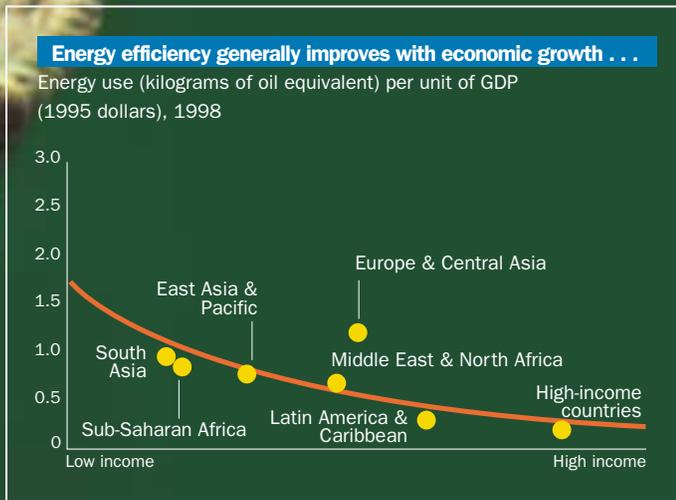
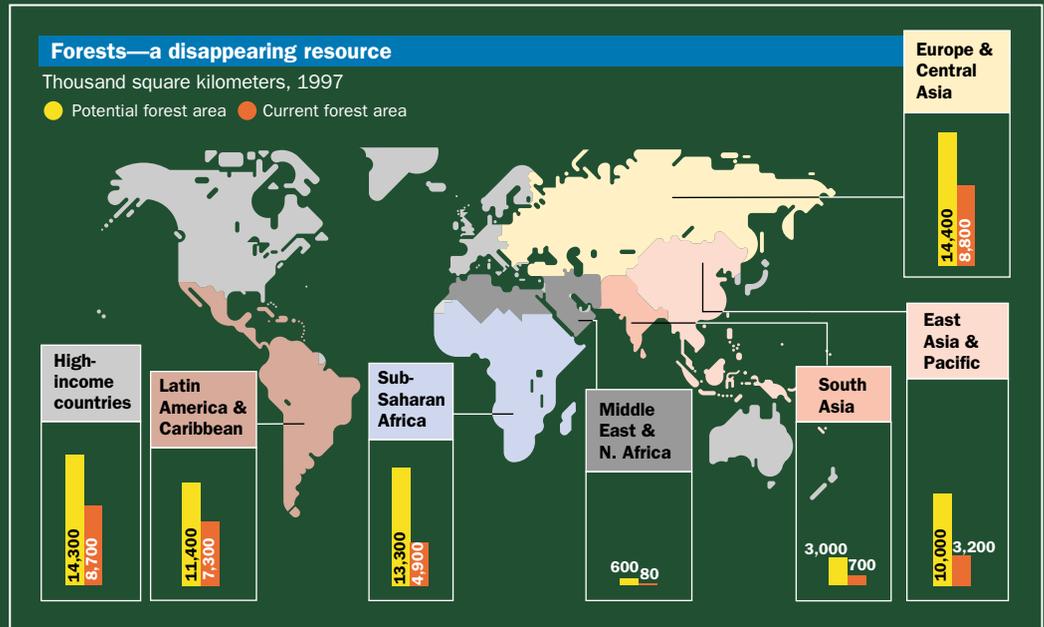
Active partnerships for sustainable development in the Philippines

After the 1992 Rio Earth Summit, the Philippines was the first country to establish a council for sustainable development, with partners from government, civil society and private business. The

phase-out of leaded gasoline in April 2000 provided a rallying point. The Philippine Agenda 21 is the country's blueprint for sustainable development. Key businesses have implemented sustainable

production initiatives—reusing by-products, controlling pollution and including environmental provisions in collective bargaining agreements with labour unions.

Without human interference, large parts of the world would be covered with forests. Through unsustainable harvesting and degradation, the world has lost millions of acres of forests and with them the economically important wood and non-wood products they supply. Lost forests can no longer conserve soil and water resources, preserve biodiversity, mitigate climate change or protect natural and cultural heritage.



Higher income countries make more efficient use of energy but produce larger total emissions. And as poor countries develop, they become more energy-efficient—using the same quantity of energy, they can produce more goods and services. But total energy savings from efficiency gains are more than offset by growth in total consumption. So, if they follow the model of the

high-income countries today, their total energy use will continue to grow—and with it their emissions of greenhouse gases. Fortunately, the policies to reduce global greenhouse gases overlap with those to reduce local pollution and increase energy efficiency. This applies both to rich countries—the biggest emitters of carbon dioxide—and to developing countries.



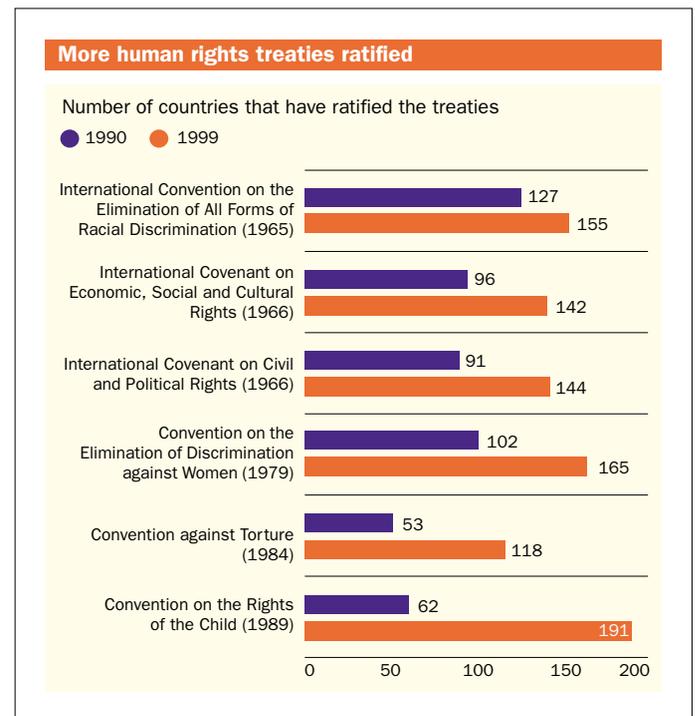
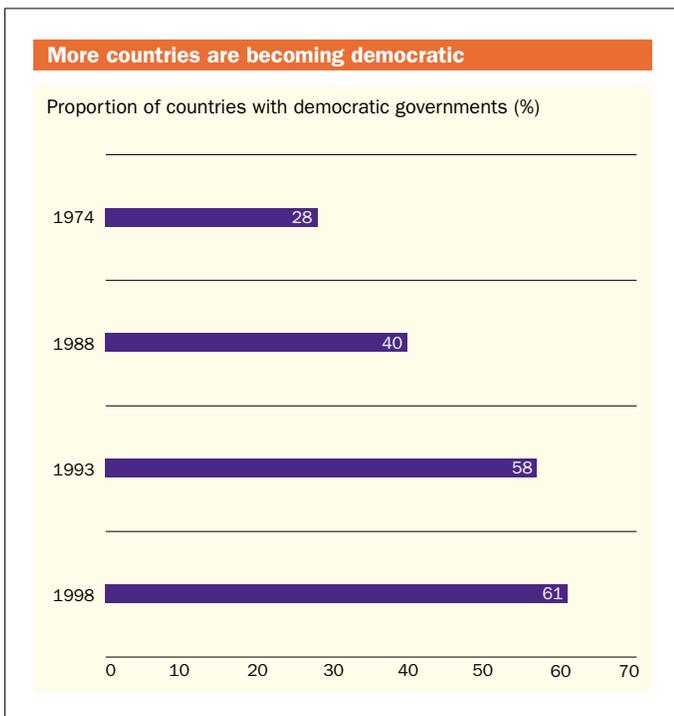
Stronger voices for the poor, economic stability and growth that favours the poor, basic social services for all, open markets for trade and technology, and enough development resources, used well

What it will take to achieve the goals

The Republic of Korea, Malaysia and Morocco belong to a select group of countries that halved the proportion of their people living in poverty in less than a generation. So did the Indian states of Haryana, Kerala and Punjab. Another dozen countries—including Botswana and Mauritius—reduced poverty by a quarter or more in a generation. Other countries can learn much from the well-documented lessons of this experience, for if it has been done, it can be done again.

Voices and choices for the poor

Empowering poor people is the starting point—providing opportunities for women, opening political space for poor people to organise. Democratisation has to go beyond simple



Good, honest government fosters—indeed embodies—sound legal and economic institutions. Corrupt judges, weak banking regulations, haphazard public services, limited community participation—each wastes the resources for development. If administrative capacity is adequate, more local participation in the management of social services can greatly increase their effectiveness. And simplifying the rules of business can reduce the opportunities for corruption and promote faster growth and poverty reduction.

A commitment to respect fundamental human rights and the rule of law is a critical prerequisite for sustainable development. Half the world's countries have ratified all six human rights conventions—up from a tenth of countries just 10 years ago. This is significant because, by ratifying treaties, countries open themselves to being held accountable for their actions.

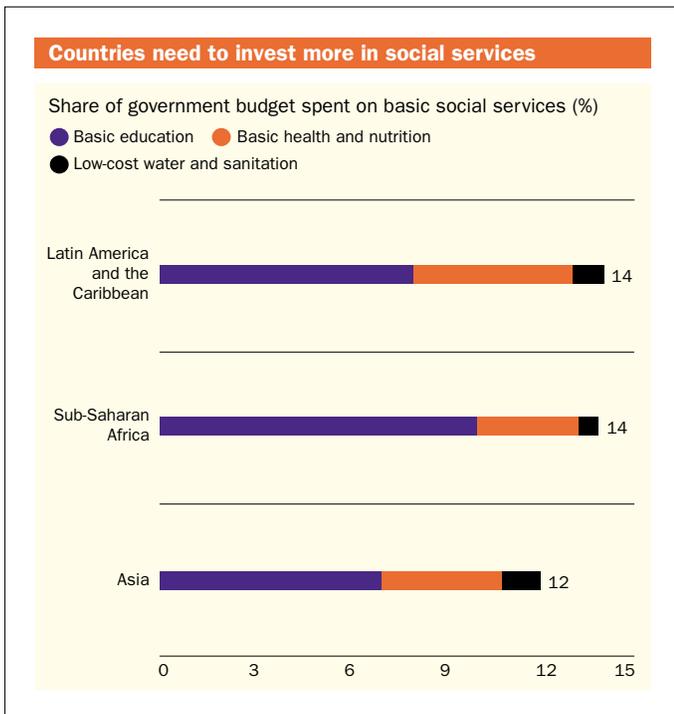
rule by the majority to include minorities in all aspects of political participation—in cabinets, legislatures, civil services and local governments. Such inclusive democracy promotes an independent judiciary, an open civil society and a free media—all of which can ensure respect for human rights and make governments accountable for their promises and actions.

Pro-poor growth

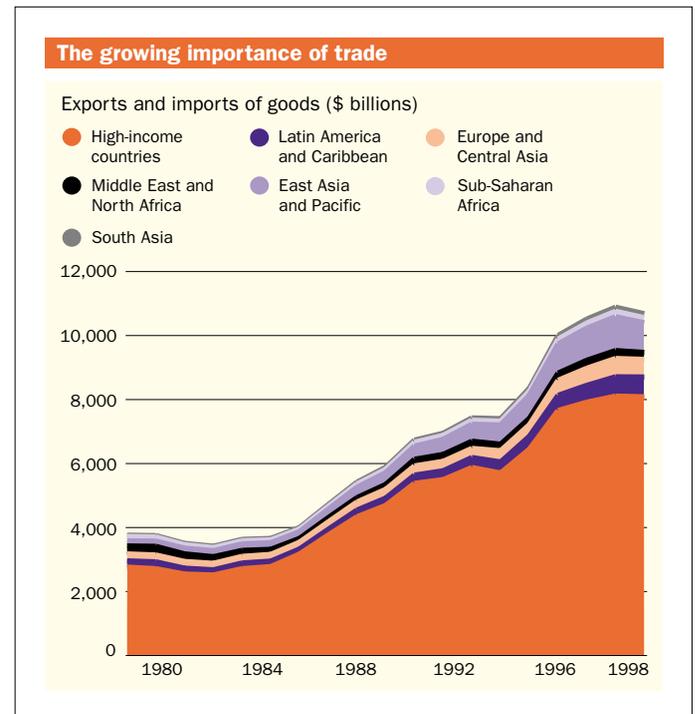
Economic growth is not a guarantee of poverty reduction—but it is absolutely essential for sustaining poverty reduction over the longer run. And it needs to be pro-poor. How? It has to generate more income-earning opportunities so that poor people

can engage in productive and well-paid work. It has to give poor people more access to assets to help unleash their productive potential and allow them to feed themselves. And it has to be fair in creating better opportunities for poor women. This will require measures to strengthen women’s land rights, increase their bargaining power and broaden their access to credit, training and new technology.

Many countries today need substantially faster pro-poor growth, among them the 30 developing countries whose real per capita incomes are lower today than they were 35 years ago. That growth will be built on increased production among the poor themselves: by productivity increases among small farmers; by small enterprises, both rural and urban; by informal producers



What a country invests in basic health and education signals its commitment to long-term development. At the Copenhagen Social Summit in 1995 the world’s leaders suggested as a rough guideline that 20% of budgetary expenditure and 20% of aid flows should be allocated to basic social services. The objective was for countries to have a healthy, well-educated workforce, able to compete in the global economy. Although the budget allocations to basic social services have recently increased in many countries, such as the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Malawi and Namibia, few developing countries or donors meet the guideline.



Over the past 40 years, trade has grown faster than global output. But heavily protected economies and those dependent on commodity exports have lagged behind or suffered from price fluctuations. More countries now recognise the advantage of open trade, which boosts their exports and increases their capacity to import.

and by the many women and men providing a host of small-scale services.

Economic policies must also be sound, well balanced and sustainable. This requires strengthening national institutions to build the capacity to implement the right economic and social policies.

In all this is a concern for equity, so that all groups in society progress. But the concern for equity also extends to future generations. This means that economic growth must be sustainable—so that what we do to the environment today leaves the natural resources to support life on our planet for future generations.

Basic social services for all

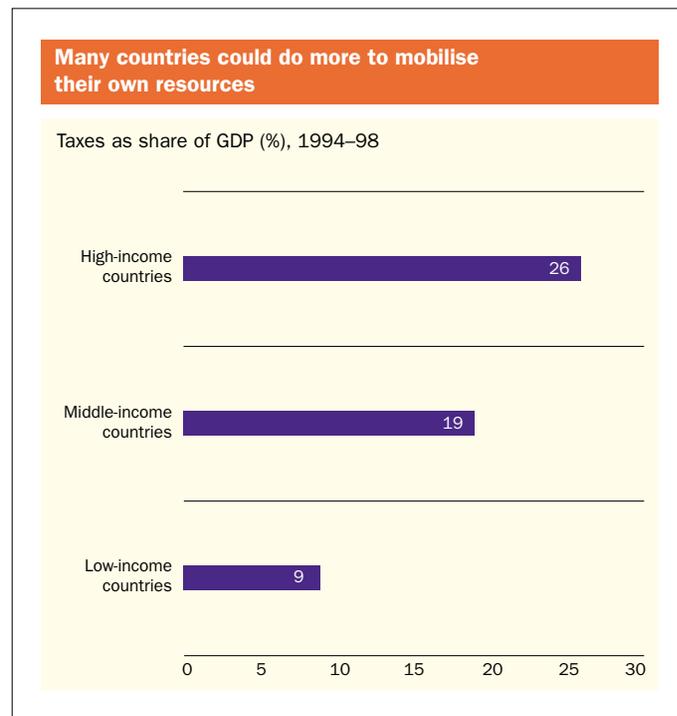
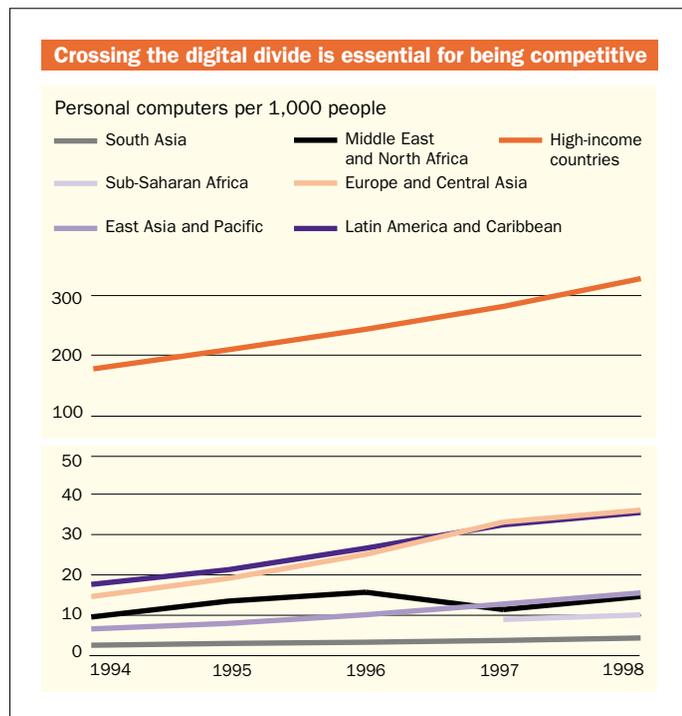
Policies have to go beyond the purely economic to focus on the needs of the poor—to ensure minimum social standards and universal access to basic social services. Countries have to invest in education—especially girls’ education, which produces one of the highest payoffs in development. They also have to deliver high-quality and cost-effective services to the poor—health care, water, sanitation and other basic services. Part of this is ensuring action to reduce malnutrition, with a special focus on women of child-bearing age and young children. Countries also

have to provide safety nets for the vulnerable—in times of crisis, whether global, national or local.

Open markets for trade, technology and ideas

Globalisation offers enormous opportunities to the developing countries—better ways of tapping the world’s knowledge, better technology for delivering products and services, better access to the world’s markets. But taking advantage of the opportunities requires action. Countries have to lower their tariffs and other trade barriers and streamline their systems for the flow of imports, exports and finance. They also have to manage their inflation, interest and exchange rates—to be seen as good places for doing business. And they have to maintain consistent policies—to be credible to investors, both domestic and foreign. The high-income countries have their part to play too—reducing tariffs and other trade barriers to imports from developing countries and providing assistance to build the capacity to trade effectively.

Not all countries are enjoying the possible benefits, however. With a legacy of poor policies and poor performance, too many of them are being left behind in trade, in finance, in technology, in ideas—in precisely the things that could help them grow and reduce poverty.



The cost of telecommunications plummeted in the past two decades, opening the opportunity for the use of cellular telephones by, say, cocoa traders in Ghana who need to know world prices. And now the Internet offers email, online training and an infinity of resources on the Web. These resources have become a reality for some, but clearly not for most. So a major challenge is to plug all of civil society, all of developing country business, into the networks that offer so much. To grasp this opportunity will require major investments in telecommunications.

One thing countries can do to raise more money for development is to build their capacity to collect taxes, not from the easy sources of tariffs and licenses, which make the allocation of resources less efficient, but from a broad base of equitable taxation. The tax system should also be set up in ways that do not invite corruption.

Effective and equitable use of resources for development

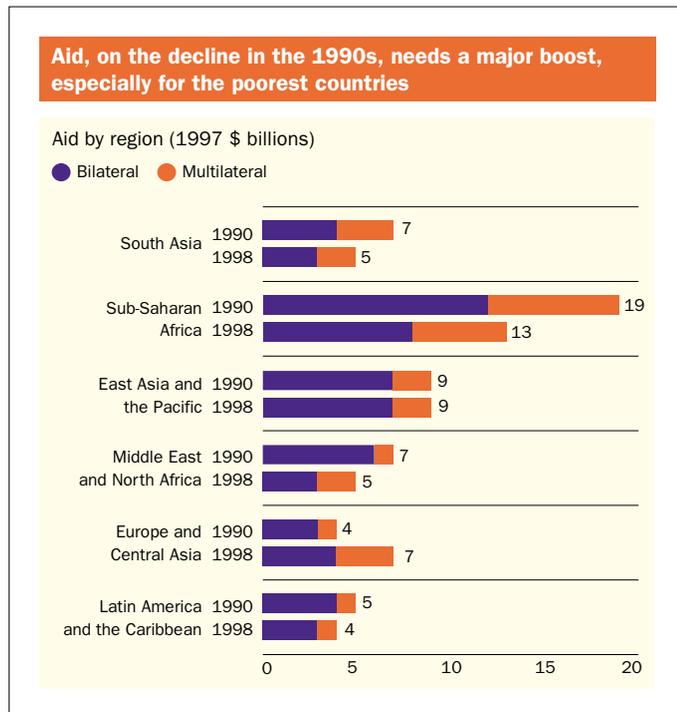
Development costs money. Much comes from the investments by people—and much, from the investments by government. What has spurred the growth of many East Asian countries is their high savings rates, often more than 30% of gross national product. That's allowed them to invest in infrastructure and social services. Many African countries, by contrast, have had savings rates of only 10–15% of national income, too low to sustain growth fast enough to lift more people from poverty.

It's important for countries to spend wisely—on basic services for the poor, not on subsidised services for the rich, and on sound investments for future development. How governments spend their money matters as much as what they spend it on. Instability and unpredictability in government expenditures make progress in poverty reduction more difficult. The quality of people that governments recruit also makes a difference. Governments that hire and promote based on merit perform better than those that give the best jobs to friends and political allies.

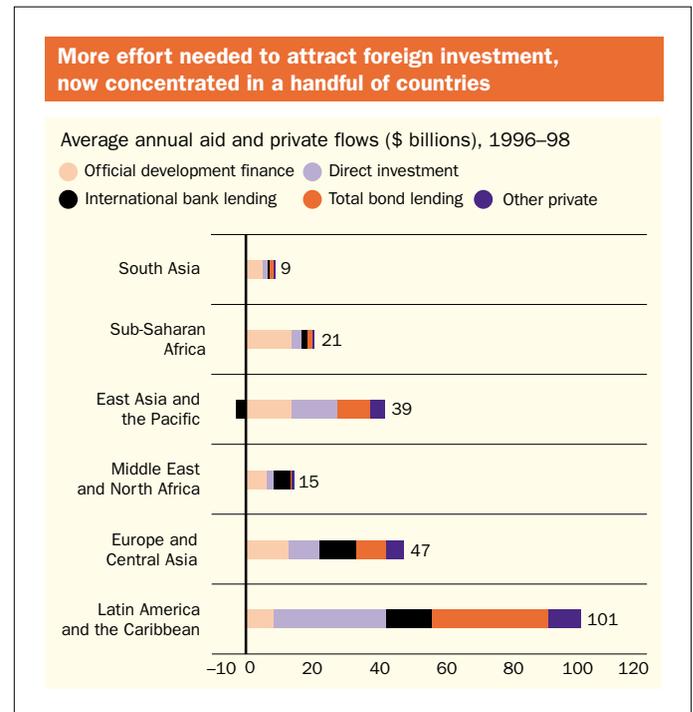
External aid plays an important part in supporting development, especially in poor countries. There is a growing consensus that country ownership of development policies and country leadership in development programmes are essential for success—and that

donor procedures and reporting need to be co-ordinated and harmonised to reduce administrative burdens. Donors and international financial institutions are now working more closely with developing countries on strategies for poverty reduction, formulated through a participatory process and driven by countries. They are also being more selective in the kind of aid that goes to a country, better ensuring that it is tailored to country priorities and local needs.

Donors realise the need to build strategic partnerships that capitalise on each partner's intrinsic strengths, reflect shared goals and objectives and build on existing achievements. Working in partnership with developing countries, the high-income countries need to supply more aid. They also need to provide more and faster debt relief. They need to offer easier access to their markets, including duty-free and quota-free access for poor countries. And they need to finance programmes of benefit to many countries, such as research on vaccines for tropical diseases. These are the essential ingredients for promoting growth and reducing poverty in the poorest and least developed countries. These are also essential for reducing human suffering and the number of violent conflicts, sustaining the environment and stemming the spread of such global threats as HIV/AIDS.



Most OECD countries have adopted a target to provide 0.7% of their GNP as aid, but only Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden have met this. Worse, the inclination to help developing countries declined in the 1990s. In just five years, from 1992 to 1997, OECD aid fell from 0.33% to 0.22% of GNP, a decline that halted in 1998 and 1999. Donors need to provide more aid to poor countries, especially to those that use it effectively. Accelerated debt relief to the most heavily indebted poor countries will help to support national strategies for poverty reduction.



Some regions rely almost entirely on aid for their external finance. Private capital flows can add much to what countries put into their development efforts. But these flows are concentrated in fewer than 20 developing countries, and some types of these flows, such as bonds and bank lending, can be volatile. Countries need to create the conditions that attract longer term investments from overseas as well as locally. Mozambique and Uganda are beginning to do just that.

The world by region

East Asia and the Pacific	Brazil	Burkina Faso	<i>Germany</i>
American Samoa	Chile	Burundi	<i>Greece</i>
Cambodia	Colombia	Cameroon	Greenland
China	Costa Rica	Cape Verde	Guam
Fiji	Cuba	Central African Republic	Hong Kong, China
Indonesia	Dominica	Chad	Iceland
Kiribati	Dominican Republic	Comoros	<i>Ireland</i>
Korea, Dem. Rep.	Ecuador	Congo, Dem. Rep.	Israel
Korea, Rep.	El Salvador	Congo, Rep.	<i>Italy</i>
Lao PDR	Guatemala	Côte d'Ivoire	<i>Japan</i>
Malaysia	Guyana	Equatorial Guinea	Kuwait
Marshall Islands	Haiti	Eritrea	Liechtenstein
Micronesia, Fed. Sts.	Honduras	Ethiopia	<i>Luxembourg</i>
Mongolia	Jamaica	Gabon	Macao, China
Myanmar	Mexico	Gambia, The	Malta
Palau	Nicaragua	Ghana	Monaco
Papua New Guinea	Panama	Guinea	<i>Netherlands</i>
Philippines	Paraguay	Guinea-Bissau	Netherlands Antilles
Samoa	Peru	Kenya	New Caledonia
Solomon Islands	Puerto Rico	Lesotho	<i>New Zealand</i>
Thailand	St. Kitts and Nevis	Liberia	Northern Mariana Islands
Tonga	St. Lucia	Madagascar	<i>Norway</i>
Vanuatu	St. Vincent and the Grenadines	Malawi	<i>Portugal</i>
Vietnam	Suriname	Mali	Qatar
Europe and Central Asia	Trinidad and Tobago	Mauritania	Singapore
Albania	Uruguay	Mauritius	Slovenia
Armenia	Venezuela, RB	Mayotte	<i>Spain</i>
Azerbaijan	Middle East and North Africa	Mozambique	<i>Sweden</i>
Belarus	Algeria	Namibia	<i>Switzerland</i>
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Bahrain	Niger	United Arab Emirates
Bulgaria	Djibouti	Nigeria	<i>United Kingdom</i>
Croatia	Egypt, Arab Rep.	Rwanda	<i>United States</i>
Czech Republic	Iran, Islamic Rep.	São Tomé and Príncipe	Virgin Islands (U.S.)
Estonia	Iraq	Senegal	
Georgia	Jordan	Seychelles	
Hungary	Lebanon	Sierra Leone	Members of the Development Assistance Committee of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) are shown in italics.
Isle of Man	Libya	Somalia	
Kazakhstan	Morocco	South Africa	
Kyrgyz Republic	Oman	Sudan	
Latvia	Saudi Arabia	Swaziland	
Lithuania	Syrian Arab Republic	Tanzania	
Macedonia, FYR	Tunisia	Togo	
Moldova	West Bank and Gaza	Uganda	
Poland	Yemen, Rep.	Zambia	
Romania	South Asia	Zimbabwe	
Russian Federation	Afghanistan	High income	
Slovak Republic	Bangladesh	Andorra	
Tajikistan	Bhutan	Aruba	
Turkey	Brunei	<i>Australia</i>	
Turkmenistan	India	<i>Austria</i>	
Ukraine	Maldives	Bahamas, The	
Uzbekistan	Nepal	<i>Belgium</i>	
Yugoslavia, FR (Serbia/Montenegro)	Pakistan	Bermuda	
Latin America and the Caribbean	Sri Lanka	Brunei	
Antigua and Barbuda	Sub-Saharan Africa	<i>Canada</i>	
Argentina	Angola	Cayman Islands	
Barbados	Benin	Channel Islands	
Belize	Botswana	Cyprus	
Bolivia		<i>Denmark</i>	
		Faeroe Islands	
		<i>Finland</i>	
		<i>France</i>	
		French Polynesia	

Notes and sources

Sources

Regional definitions

The regional groupings in this report are based on geographic and cultural affinities and the average income of residents. Developing countries and territories are divided into six regions. In some instances, broader aggregates, roughly corresponding to continental areas, are used. Countries or territories with gross national product per capita of more than \$9,360 in 1998 are considered to be high income and are treated as a single group. The term *country* does not imply political independence or official recognition but refers to any territory for which authorities report separate social or economic statistics.

Data sources

The statistics in this report were provided by various international agencies, which compiled or estimated them on the basis of reports from national authorities. They are the best available today. But the picture they portray is flawed because for some countries the data are incomplete, unreliable or unavailable. Recognising this, PARIS21—a consortium of partner countries, international organisations and donors brought together under the banner Partnership In Statistics for development in the 21st Century—is working to improve the capacity of countries to produce good statistics. For more information on the PARIS21 programme, see www.paris21.org.

The notes below identify the principal sources for *A Better World for All*. For definitions, bibliographic information and additional sources of data, please go to the Better World Website: www.paris21.org/betterworld.

Poverty Estimates of the number of people living in extreme poverty are from the World Bank. Data on malnutrition among children under-5 are from the Sub-Committee on Nutrition of the UN Administrative Committee on Co-ordination.

Education Primary school enrolments and projections of school-age children are from the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) Institute of Statistics.

Gender Data on primary and secondary school enrolments by gender are from the UNESCO Institute of Statistics. The estimates of gender gaps by family assets are based on work by the World Bank.

Infant and child mortality Mortality rates come from the United Nations Population Division and United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). The distribution of under-5 mortality rates by family assets is based on an analysis of Demographic and Health Surveys by the World Bank and Macro International. The analysis of under-5 mortality rates by mother's level of education is from a study by Macro International.

Maternal mortality Data on births attended by skilled health personnel and maternal mortality

ratios are preliminary estimates from the World Health Organisation (WHO) and UNICEF.

Reproductive health Estimates of contraceptive prevalence rates and fertility rates for women aged 15–19 are from the United Nations Population Division. Data on HIV infections and deaths from AIDS come from the WHO and the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS).

Environment Estimates of the population with access to an improved water source are from the report of the Secretary General to the United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development (May 2000). Estimates of current and potential forest areas are from the World Wide Fund for Nature. Energy use per unit of GDP was estimated by the World Bank using data from the International Energy Agency. Data on carbon dioxide emissions come from the Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center.

What it will take to achieve the goals Estimates of the number of countries with democratic governments are from the World Bank's *World Development Report 1999/2000*. Data on the number of countries ratifying human rights treaties were compiled by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). Shares of government budgets spent on basic social services were estimated by UNICEF and UNDP. The value of merchandise trade is from the World Trade Organisation. The number of personal computers per capita was estimated from data provided by the International Telecommunication Union. Data on tax revenues are from the International Monetary Fund's *Government Finance Statistics*. Data on aid and private capital flows are from the OECD.

Other sources

Quotations throughout the report were taken from *Voices of the Poor*, volumes 1 and 2, published by the World Bank, and from reports by development workers around the world.

The accounts of successful programmes to reduce poverty and meet the international development goals are from reports by participants at the Forum on Development Progress held in Paris in March 2000. Additional information comes from reports by the World Bank and United Nations agencies.

goals

Indicators for the international development goals

Goals	Indicators
Economic well-being Reducing extreme poverty The proportion of people living in extreme poverty in developing countries should be reduced by at least one-half between 1990 and 2015.	Incidence of extreme poverty: people living on less than \$1 a day Poverty gap ratio: incidence times depth of poverty Inequality: poorest fifth's share of national consumption Child malnutrition: proportion of children under 5 who are underweight
Social development Universal primary education There should be universal primary education in all countries by 2015.	Net enrolment in primary education Completion of 4th grade of primary education Literacy rate of 15 to 24 year-olds
Gender equality Progress towards gender equality and the empowerment of women should be demonstrated by eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005.	Ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education Ratio of literate females to males (15 to 24 year-olds)
Reducing infant and child mortality The death rates for infants and children under the age of five years should be reduced in each developing country by two-thirds between 1990 and 2015.	Infant mortality rate Under-5 mortality rate
Reducing maternal mortality The rate of maternal mortality should be reduced by three-quarters between 1990 and 2015.	Maternal mortality ratio Births attended by skilled health personnel
Reproductive health Access should be available through the primary healthcare system to reproductive health services for all individuals of appropriate ages, no later than 2015.	Contraceptive prevalence rate HIV prevalence in 15 to 24 year-old pregnant women
Environmental sustainability and regeneration Environment There should be a current national strategy for sustainable development, in the process of implementation, in every country by 2005, so as to ensure that current trends in the loss of environmental resources are effectively reversed at both global and national levels by 2015.	Countries with effective processes for sustainable development Population with access to an improved water source Forest area as a percentage of national surface area Biodiversity: protected land area Energy efficiency: GDP per unit of energy use Carbon dioxide emissions per capita

More information about these goals and indicators can be found at www.oecd.org/dac/indicators. For a broader set of goals and indicators used by the United Nations in its common country assessments, see www.cca-undaf.org. Data for the international development goals and related indicators are available from the World Bank at www.worldbank.org/data. The International Monetary Fund provides links to national data sources and information on data quality and standards through its Dissemination Standards Bulletin Board: dsbb.imf.org.

The goals for international development address that most compelling of human desires—a world free of poverty and free of the misery that poverty breeds. This report focuses on seven goals, which, if achieved in the next 15 years, will improve the lives of millions of people. In words and pictures, with numbers and charts, it describes progress towards the goals, what has been achieved and the effort required to reach them.



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