



The state and progress of human development

Human development is about people, about expanding their choices to lead lives they value. Economic growth, increased international trade and investment, technological advance—all are very important. But they are means, not ends. Whether they contribute to human development in the 21st century will depend on whether they expand people's choices, whether they help create an environment for people to develop their full potential and lead productive, creative lives.

Fundamental to enlarging human choices is building human capabilities: the range of things that people can do or be. The most basic capabilities for human development are leading a long and healthy life, being educated, having access to the resources needed for a decent standard of living and being able to participate in the life of one's community. As this Report emphasizes, assuring people's dignity also requires that they be free—and able—to participate in the formation and stewardship of the rules and institutions that govern them. A poor man who cannot afford to send his children to school, but must send them to work in the fields, is lacking in human development. So is a wealthy educated woman whose gender excludes her from voting in elections.

In today's new era of global integration, is human development moving forward? There has been clear progress in some areas. The share of the world's people living in extreme poverty is slowly but steadily declining, from 29% in 1990 to 23% in 1999.¹ Primary school enrolments have risen worldwide, from 80% in 1990 to 84% in 1998.² Since 1990, 800 million people have gained access to improved water supplies, and 750 million to improved sanitation.³ There have also been great improvements in political and civil rights: since 1980, 81 countries have taken significant steps in democratization,⁴ with 33 military regimes replaced by civilian governments.⁵

But in a globalizing world the increasing interconnectedness of nations and peoples has made the differences between them more glaring. A girl born in Japan today may have a 50% chance of seeing the 22nd century⁶—while a newborn in Afghanistan has a 1 in 4 chance of dying before age 5. And the richest 5% of the world's people have incomes 114 times those of the poorest 5%.⁷ Every day more than 30,000 children around the world die of preventable diseases,⁸ and nearly 14,000 people are infected with HIV/AIDS.⁹ In Botswana more than a third of adults have the disease; in Swaziland and Zimbabwe more than a quarter. If tuberculosis control does not improve, 1 billion people will contract it by 2020—and 35 million will die from it.¹⁰

In Sub-Saharan Africa human development has actually regressed in recent years, and the lives of its very poor people are getting worse. The share of people living on \$1 a day was about the same at the end of the 1990s—47%—as at the start.¹¹ Thus, because of population growth, the number of poor people in the region has increased. And while most of the world has increased the share of children who are immunized against the leading diseases, since 1990 immunization rates in Sub-Saharan Africa have fallen below 50%.¹²

Global progress on political freedoms has also been uneven. The spread of democratization appears to have stalled, with many countries failing to consolidate and deepen the first steps towards democracy and several slipping back into authoritarianism. Some 73 countries—with 42% of the world's people—still do not hold free and fair elections,¹³ and 106 governments still restrict many civil and political freedoms.¹⁴ In addition, conflict continues to blight the lives of millions: since 1990, 3.6 million peo-

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SPECIAL CONTRIBUTION

In the 21st century I believe that the mission of the United Nations will be defined by a new, more profound awareness of the sanctity and dignity of every human life, regardless of race or religion. This will require us to look beyond the framework of states and beneath the surface of nations and communities. We must focus, as never before, on improving the conditions of the individual men and women who give the state or nation its richness and character.

A genocide begins with the killing of one man—not for what he has done, but because of who he is. A campaign of “ethnic cleansing” begins with one neighbour turning on another. Poverty begins when even one child is denied his or her fundamental right to education. What begins as a failure to uphold the dignity of one life, all too often ends as a calamity for entire nations.

In this new century we must start from the understanding that peace belongs not just to states and peoples, but to every member of those communities. The sovereignty of states can no longer be used as a shield for gross violations of human rights. Peace must be made real and tangible in the daily

existence of every person in need. Peace must be sought, above all, because it is required so that every human being can live a life of dignity and security.

Indeed, one lesson of the 20th century is that where the dignity of the individual is trampled or threatened—where citizens do not enjoy the basic right to choose their government, or the right to change it regularly—conflict too often follows, with innocent civilians paying the price in lives cut short and communities destroyed.

Obstacles to democracy have little to do with culture or religion, and much more to do with the desire of those in power to maintain their position at any cost. This is neither a new phenomenon nor one confined to any particular part of the world. People of all cultures value their freedom of choice, and feel the need to have a say in decisions affecting their lives.



Kofi Annan

United Nations Secretary-General

ple have died in civil wars and ethnic violence, more than 16 times the number killed in wars between states.¹⁵

There is growing recognition that all countries pay a price for these global injustices. And there is greater acceptance of the need for action to narrow the gap between global potential and reality—and to advance global human development in its deepest sense (see the special contribution by UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan).

In surveying the progress of countries towards human development in its many dimensions, this chapter highlights the directions for change in the years ahead—and how far it will need to go. The chapter begins by looking at global trends in political participation and democracy, the subjects of this Report. It then considers the Millennium Development Goals, set by the global community to monitor development along a number of dimensions. It assesses progress towards the goals, showing that many countries are on track but that many others are lagging and unlikely to achieve the goals.

TRENDS IN POLITICAL PARTICIPATION AND DEMOCRACY AROUND THE WORLD

“We will spare no effort to promote democracy and strengthen the rule of law, as well as respect for all internationally recognized human rights and fundamental freedoms.”

—Millennium Declaration

Political participation and freedom are fundamental parts of human development. The world has more democratic countries and more political participation than ever, with 140 countries holding multiparty elections (table 1.1). Of 147 countries with data, 121—with 68% of the world’s people—had some or all of the elements of formal democracy in 2000 (figure 1.1).¹⁶ This compares with only 54 countries, with 46% of the world’s people, in 1980. Since then 81 countries have taken significant steps in democratization, while 6 have regressed.¹⁷ Scores of authoritarian regimes have been replaced by governments more accountable to the people—a real achievement for human development. But true democratization means more than elections. It requires the consolidation of democratic institutions and the strengthening of democratic practices, with democratic values and norms embedded in all parts of society (see chapters 2 and 3).

The last two decades of the 20th century have been dubbed the “third wave” of democratization, as dictatorial regimes fell in scores of countries.¹⁸ Like history’s other movements for liberation, these democratic revolutions were propelled by people. In the 1980s growing pressures against the excesses of military dictatorships in Latin America caused them to topple one after another, starting with Ecuador and Peru. In Central and Eastern Europe and what is now the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 was the turning point. In Africa rising opposition through the 1980s and 1990s tossed out many long-standing dictators, including Mali’s Moussa Traoré in 1991 and Malawi’s Kamuzu Banda in 1994. People’s power in the Philippines removed Ferdinand Marcos in 1986.

For some countries the transition has been less dramatic, as with the move to civilian rule in the Republic of Korea and Thailand and the

introduction of elections in Nepal. Perhaps most striking was the advent of full democracy in South Africa in 1994—the result of long negotiations. Democratic reforms have been relatively modest in the Arab States, with a few cases of democratic ferment. But monarchies such as Jordan and Morocco have increased space for people’s participation in the political life of the community, and Tunisia has taken steps to expand political participation. Still, the region has been slower to democratize than other parts of the world, and only 4 of 7 countries have multiparty electoral systems.¹⁹

The global shift from authoritarian to democratic regimes shows up in various indicators of governance (appendix 1.1). According to Polity IV’s democracy indicator, the number of authoritarian countries fell from almost 70 in 1980 to fewer than 30 in 2000.²⁰ Over the same period the number of democratic regimes doubled, from 41 to 82. The breakup of the Soviet Union contributed to the jump in country coverage. Overall, the former Soviet Union and the rest of Eastern Europe have become more democratic.

General indicators do not capture the complexity of political transitions. Most attempts at democratization are fragmented, involving small steps and large, forward and back. Take Peru. In 1980, after 12 years of military rule, it shifted to a democratic regime. But the situation slowly deteriorated, with President Alberto Fujimori’s regime becoming increasingly authoritarian. Despite irregularities that led international observers to withdraw, Fujimori was proclaimed the winner of the 2000 elections. But public outrage over political scandals ultimately forced him to flee the country. Alejandro Toledo was elected president after elections in 2001.

While the long-term and recent trends have been impressive, the slight drop in measured democracy in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia in the second half of the 1990s reflects the fact that the “third wave” of democratization seems to have stalled. Of the 81 countries that have taken steps in democratization, only 47 are considered full democracies.²¹ Many others do not seem to be in transition to anything or have lapsed back into authoritarianism—or conflict, as in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone and others. This has

FIGURE 1.1
The world is becoming more democratic

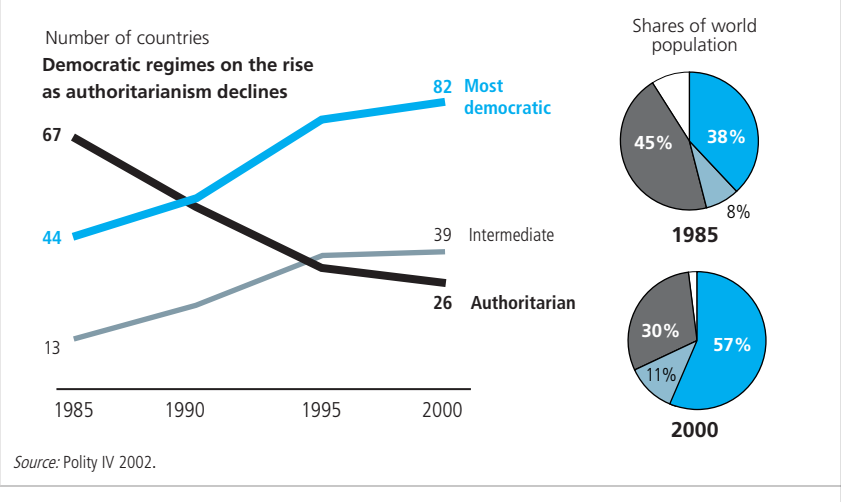


TABLE 1.1
Most people can now vote in multiparty elections, 1999

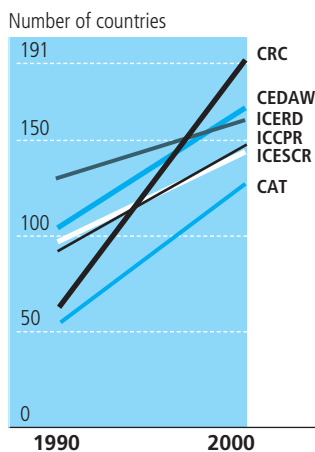
Region or country group	Number of countries with multiparty electoral systems (countries with data)	Population of countries with multiparty electoral systems (millions)	Share of regional population living in countries with multiparty electoral systems (percent)
Sub-Saharan Africa	29 (42)	464	77.2
Arab States	4 (7)	115	48.5
East Asia and the Pacific	9 (16)	401	22.0
South Asia	4 (8)	1,170	85.5
Latin America and the Caribbean	25 (26)	468	94.9
Central and Eastern Europe and CIS	21 (25)	350	88.0
OECD	30 (30)	1,120	100.0
Low human development	23 (36)	527	64.4
World	140 (189)	3,923	65.8

Note: Low human development countries are also included in their respective regional groups. Regional data do not sum to the world total because some countries included in the world total are not included in a regional group.
Source: Human Development Report Office calculations based on Alvarez and others 2002.

been especially common in Sub-Saharan Africa and Central Asia. In Belarus, Cameroon, Togo, Uzbekistan and elsewhere, one-party states have allowed elections but ended up permitting only limited opening for political competition. Most of these “limited” democracies suffer from shallow political participation, where citizens have little trust in their governments and are disaffected from politics, or the countries are dominated by a single powerful party or group despite formal elections.²²

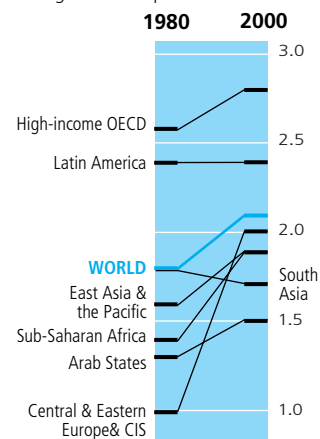
BROADER MEASURES OF PARTICIPATION AND POLITICAL FREEDOM

FIGURE 1.2
Ratification of human rights treaties



Note: See indicator table 28 for definitions.
Source: Human Development Report Office calculations based on UNOHCHR 2002.

FIGURE 1.3
The press becomes freer
Average scores in press freedom



Source: Human Development Report Office calculations based on Freedom House 2000.

Democratic political participation requires more than elections for governments—truly democratic politics requires civil and political rights to provide the space for effective participation. Illustrating the greater importance attached to human rights worldwide, the number of countries ratifying the six main human rights conventions and covenants has increased dramatically since 1990 (figure 1.2). Upholding human rights is crucial for guaranteeing people’s well-being and securing a humane and non-discriminatory society—and for enabling an active and engaged citizenry. Freedoms of association and assembly, of expression and conscience, as laid out in the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, are fundamental to political participation.

A free and active press is particularly important for the creation and consolidation of democracy. Freedom House’s Freedom of the Press Index indicates levels and trends worldwide, showing that press freedom has also been increasing (figure 1.3).

In addition to civil and political rights, equitable opportunities for participation are crucial to democratic politics. But around the world, women are seriously underrepresented in domestic politics, accounting for only 14% of national parliamentarians. There is little difference between industrial and developing countries. In most industrial countries—including France, Japan and the United States—women account for 10–20% of parliamentarians.²³ Positive exceptions worldwide include both developing and industrial countries (figure 1.4). Nordic countries do particularly well, but in Argentina, Mozambique and South Africa about 30% of parliamentarians are women. Meanwhile, a number of Arab states have no female representation.

THE PROLIFERATION OF CIVIL CONFLICT

The stalling of democratic transitions highlights the fragility of democracies. The proliferation of conflicts, particularly internal conflicts, highlights the fragility of states (figure 1.5). Internal conflicts today vastly outnumber wars between

states. Since 1990 an estimated 220,000 people have died in wars between states—compared with nearly 3.6 million in wars within states.²⁴

Particularly tragic is the fact that civilians, not soldiers, are increasingly the victims of conflicts. Civilians have accounted for more than 90% of the casualties—either injured or killed—in post-cold war conflicts.²⁵ Moreover, internal conflicts are usually fought with small weapons, and combatants use strategies that have the strongest impact on the vulnerable. Children account for half of all civilian casualties in wars,²⁶ and worldwide there are an estimated 300,000 child soldiers—in Sierra Leone, Sudan and elsewhere.²⁷

Civil wars also have grave effects on economic growth and food production, as revealed by such human development indicators as infant mortality rates and school enrolments.²⁸ Seven of the ten countries with the lowest human development indices have recently suffered major civil wars. During Mozambique’s 16-year civil war more than 40% of schools were destroyed or forced to close, and more than 40% of health centres were destroyed. Industries were so damaged that postwar production was only 20–40% of prewar capacity, with economic losses estimated at \$15 billion—several times Mozambique’s prewar GDP.²⁹

Fighting between and within states also causes massive refugee flows and displaced populations. At the end of 2000 more than 12 million people were refugees, 6 million were internally displaced and nearly 4 million were returning refugees, asylum-seekers or people otherwise of concern to the UN High Commissioner for Refugees³⁰—in all, 50% more than in 1990.³¹ The increase in refugees and displaced populations indicates that today’s armed conflicts are more intense.

THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS: COMMITMENTS AND PROSPECTS

At the UN General Assembly in 2000, heads of state and government took stock of the gross inequalities in human development worldwide and recognized “their collective responsibility to uphold the principles of human dignity, equality and equity at the global level.”³² In addition to declaring their support for freedom,

democracy and human rights, they set eight goals for development and poverty eradication, to be achieved by 2015:

- Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger.
- Achieve universal primary education.
- Achieve gender equality and empower women.
- Reduce child mortality.
- Improve maternal health.
- Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases.
- Ensure environmental sustainability.
- Develop a global partnership for development.³³

Most of the Millennium Development Goals have quantifiable, monitorable targets to measure progress against standards set by the international community. This Report assesses how likely countries are to achieve the goals by 2015 if recent trends continue, classifying them as achieved, on track, lagging, far behind or slipping back (appendix table A1.1 and technical note). The analysis assumes that trends over the next decade will be the same as over the past decade. Whether countries fall behind or surpass this expectation will depend on their actions and those of the global community between now and 2015.

Many countries have made progress (feature 1.1). But much of the world, generally the poorest countries, seems unlikely to achieve the goals. Although 55 countries, with 23% of the world's people, are on track to achieve at least three-quarters of the goals, 33 countries with 26% of the world's people are failing on more than half (figure 1.6). Especially extraordinary efforts will be needed in Sub-Saharan Africa, where 23 countries are failing and 11 others do not have enough data to be assessed—a possible indication that they are even further behind. That leaves just 10 Sub-Saharan countries on track to meet at least half of the goals.

Lack of data makes it difficult to assess progress on the goal of halving income poverty. But slow growth in average incomes indicates that many countries will have to struggle to achieve the goal. Optimistic estimates suggest that 3.7% annual growth in per capita GDP will be needed, yet in the 1990s only 24 countries achieved such growth (figure 1.7).³⁴ China and India, the most populous countries, are in

this group. But incomes in nearly 130 countries, with 40% of the world's people, are not growing fast enough—including 52 countries that actually had negative growth in the 1990s. Again, progress is most elusive in the poorest countries: 40 of 44 Sub-Saharan countries, with 93% of the region's people, grew too slowly. Half of those 40 countries, with more than half of the region's people, are poorer now than in 1990. These include 11 of the world's 20 poorest countries.

Countries have come closer to some goals than others. Many developing countries have already achieved or are on track to achieve universal primary education and gender equity in education. Given the importance of education to so many other areas of development, this bodes well for accelerating progress towards the other goals. Most developing countries have also achieved or are on track to achieve the targets for eradicating hunger and improving water supplies (part of the environmental goal). But more than 40 countries, with 28% of the world's people, are not on track to halve hunger by 2015. And 25 countries, with 32% of the world's people, may not halve the share of people lacking access to an improved water source. Most pressing, however, is child mortality: 85 countries with more than 60% of the world's people are not on track to achieve the goal (see feature 1.1).

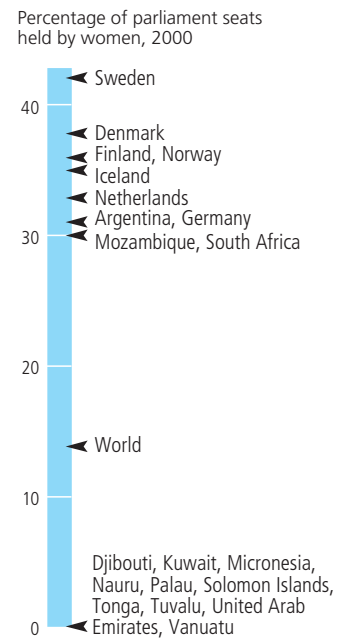
A goal that cannot be monitored cannot be met or missed—and one of the most startling conclusions is the lack of data. The targets for poverty, HIV/AIDS and maternal mortality cannot be monitored directly with current international data. Even targets that can be monitored have many gaps in the data. Complicating matters, countries lacking data may have the worst performance, giving an inflated impression of the proportion of countries that are progressing.

GOAL 1—ERADICATING EXTREME POVERTY AND HUNGER

Target 1a: Halve the proportion of people living on less than \$1 a day

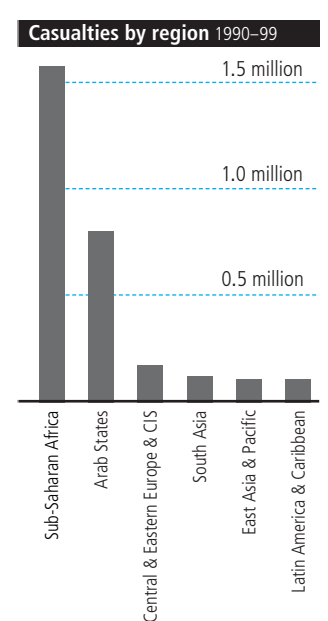
In 1999, 2.8 billion people lived on less than \$2 a day, with 1.2 billion of them barely surviving at the margins of subsistence on less than \$1 a

FIGURE 1.4
Women's participation lags everywhere



Source: IPU 2002c and indicator table 23.

FIGURE 1.5
The poorest have suffered the most from conflict



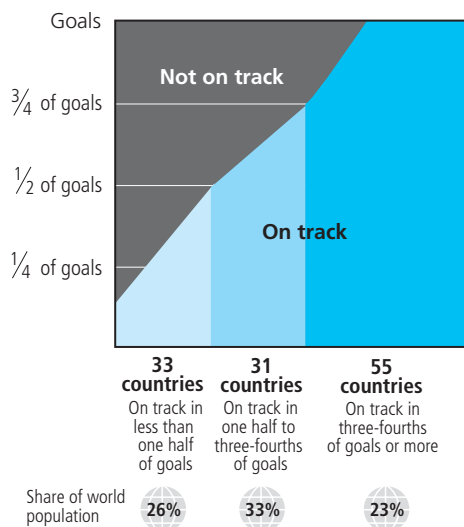
Source: Human Development Report Office calculations based on Marshall 2000.

FIGURE 1.6

Countries on track to meet the Millennium Development Goals

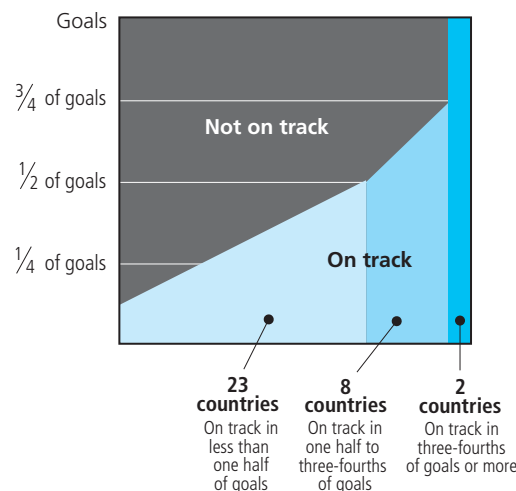
All UN member countries excluding high-income OECD

Many countries are on track to meet most goals...



Sub-Saharan Africa

...but progress for the poorest falls short

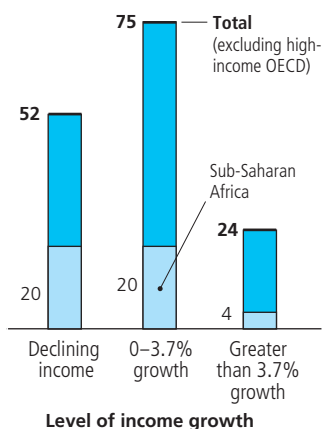


Source: Human Development Report Office calculations based on appendix table A1.3.

FIGURE 1.7

Failing to grow out of poverty

Number of countries by GDP per capita growth rate (Average annual percentage, 1990–2000)



Source: Human Development Report Office calculations based on indicator table 12.

TABLE 1.2

Worldwide, the number of people living on less than \$1 a day barely changed in the 1990s

Region	Share (percent)		Number (millions)	
	1990	1999	1990	1999
Sub-Saharan Africa	47.7	46.7	242	300
East Asia and the Pacific	27.6	14.2	452	260
Excluding China	18.5	7.9	92	46
South Asia	44.0	36.9	495	490
Latin America and the Caribbean	16.8	15.1	74	77
Eastern Europe and Central Asia	1.6	3.6	7	17
Middle East and North Africa	2.4	2.3	6	7
Total	29.0	22.7	1,276	1,151
Excluding China	28.1	24.5	916	936

Note: \$1 a day is \$1.08 in 1993 purchasing power parity (PPP) prices. Source: World Bank 2002c.

day (table 1.2). During the 1990s the number of extremely poor people dropped only slightly. But because of population growth, the share of the world's people living in extreme poverty fell from 29% in 1990 to 23% in 1999.

The declining share of people in extreme poverty is hopeful, but the level remains disturbingly high. And the failure to reduce poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa, the world's poorest region, is a grave concern.

Per capita income. A country's income poverty rate is determined by its per capita income and by the distribution of that income. Though there is no guarantee that poor people

will benefit from an increase in their country's average per capita income, aggregate growth typically does increase their incomes.³⁵

Since the mid-1970s growth in per capita income has varied dramatically across regions (box 1.1). East Asia and the Pacific's impressive poverty reduction is primarily due to a quadrupling in its per capita GDP between 1975 and 2000. But Sub-Saharan Africa ended the millennium 5% poorer than in 1990.

Central and Eastern Europe and the CIS was the only other region to suffer a decline in per capita income during the 1990s. Growth in the region is picking up, and a few countries have

Global inequality—grotesque levels, ambiguous trends

The level of inequality worldwide is grotesque. But trends over recent decades are ambiguous. The range of economic performance across countries and regions means that inequality has increased between some regions and decreased between others. Between 1975 and 2000 impressive growth in East Asia and the Pacific increased its per capita income—in purchasing power parity (PPP) terms—from about 1/14th of the average per capita income in OECD countries to better than 1/6th. Over the same period Sub-Saharan Africa suffered the reverse, with its per capita income dropping from 1/6th of that in OECD countries to only 1/14th, owing both to its own drop in income and to consistent growth in OECD countries. The worst-off Sub-Saharan countries now have incomes 1/40th or less of those in OECD countries. Latin America and the Caribbean suffered a slight deterioration relative to OECD countries, with its average per capita income dropping from a bit less than half to a bit less than a third, while Arab States dropped from a quarter to a fifth.

Rapid growth in the two largest countries—China since the 1970s and India since the late 1980s—has enabled them to catch up to some extent with rich countries. Since 1975 China has improved its per capita income relative to OECD countries from 1/21st to 1/6th, while India has improved from 1/14th in 1980 to 1/10th.

These aggregate comparisons give an incomplete picture. When considering human development, within-country inequality must be taken into account because simple comparisons of per capita GDP assume that everyone in a country has the same income. Data on within-country inequality, based on household surveys, are often not comparable across countries or over time, so conclusions must be tentative. Still, reasonable estimates can be made, and studies have found interesting results.

Long-term trends in interpersonal inequality, using PPP exchange rates, show that the world has become much more unequal. Between 1970 and the 1990s the world was more unequal than at any time before 1950 (according to any inequality measure in Bourguignon and Morrison 2001)—the legacy of the industrial revolutions that occurred in a few parts of the world. But the trend in inequality since 1970 is ambiguous, depending on the data and the inequality measure. The trend in the well-known Gini measure of inequality varies between studies, with one showing it

increasing to the 1980s and then leveling off and another showing it peaking around 1970. In the first the Theil inequality index increases steadily to the 1990s; in both the variance of the logarithm of incomes peaks around 1980. Other studies find slightly different trends. But in all studies and all measures, changes since 1970 are relatively small and not statistically significant. For instance, all estimates of the Gini coefficient from 1970 to the most recent lie within the range of 0.63 to 0.66, which are not statistically distinguishable. (Bourguignon and Morrison 2001 estimate the 90% confidence interval to be about 0.04.)

The most important factors increasing global inequality in the second half of the 20th century were:

- Rapid economic growth in already rich countries in Western Europe, North America and Oceania relative to most of the rest of the world.
- Slow growth on the Indian subcontinent until the late 20th century, and consistently slow growth in Africa.

Factors decreasing inequality were:

- Rapid growth in China since the 1970s and India since the late 1980s.
- Catching-up between European countries and the United States until the 1990s.

Rapid growth in South-East Asia, while impressive, had little effect on global inequality

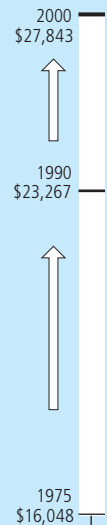
owing to the relatively small populations involved.

Although it may be difficult to distinguish clear trends in global inequality in recent decades, its level is extremely high—a cause for considerable concern. Milanovic (2001) finds some startling statistics, taking into account inequality within countries and using PPP exchange rates. The most recent available estimates are for 1993, but stagnation in the poorest countries and robust growth in many of the richest imply that these are unlikely to have improved.

- The world's richest 1% of people receive as much income as the poorest 57%.

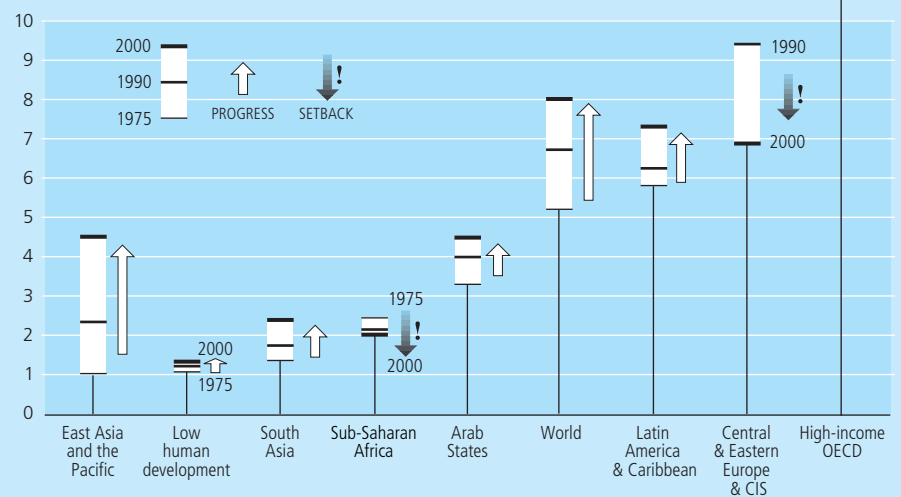
- The richest 10% of the U.S. population has an income equal to that of the poorest 43% of the world. Put differently, the income of the richest 25 million Americans is equal to that of almost 2 billion people.

- The income of the world's richest 5% is 114 times that of the poorest 5%.



Global disparities in income: are regions closing the gap?

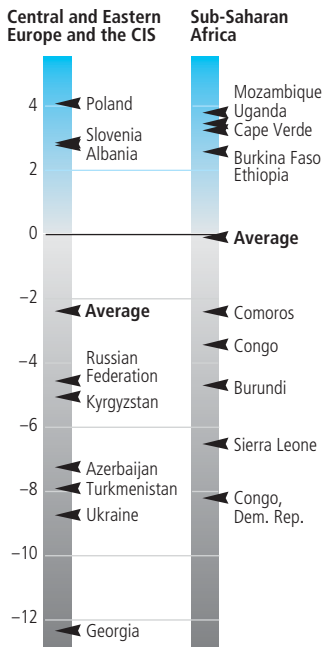
GDP per capita (2000 purchasing power parity U.S. dollars, thousands)



Source: Human Development Report Office calculations based on World Bank 2002e.

Source: Bourguignon and Morrison 2001; Schultz 1998; Milanovic 2001.

FIGURE 1.8
Varying performance within regions
 GDP per capita annual growth (percent) 1990–2000



Source: HDR indicator table 12.

BOX 1.2

Poverty's relative

Even the poorest people in rich countries generally have much higher incomes than poor people in developing countries—but they still suffer severe deprivation. The reason? As a country gets richer, its inhabitants require more expensive goods and services to take part in normal life. Children may be unable to join in classroom conversations if their parents do not own a television; a construction worker may be unable to get work without a car. Such goods, once luxuries, become necessities as they proliferate throughout society. So, even in a rich country with no absolute income poverty, relative income poverty may lead to absolute poverty in important dimensions of human development—such as education, self-respect or the ability to get decent work.

OECD countries have increased their incomes over the past two decades, but most have seen ris-

ing income inequality—most consistently and dramatically in the United Kingdom and the United States. Between 1979 and 1997 U.S. real GDP per capita grew 38%, but the income of a family with median earnings grew only 9%. So most of the gain was captured by the very richest people, with the incomes of the richest 1% of families growing 140%, three times the average. The income of the top 1% of families was 10 times that of the median family in 1979—and 23 times in 1997.

Canada and Denmark have bucked the OECD trend, registering stable or slightly reduced inequality. This was achieved primarily through fiscal policy and social transfers—indicating that with political will, nothing is inevitable about inequality increasing with rising incomes.

Source: Smeeding and Grodner 2000; Atkinson 1999; Human Development Report Office calculations based on World Bank 2001e; Krugman 2002.

done quite well. But in many countries incomes remain far lower than in the past (figure 1.8).

Income inequality within countries. The amount of growth required to reduce poverty depends on a country's level of inequality—the more unequal is the distribution of income, the fewer are the benefits of growth to poor people. Studies of inequality trends within countries suffer from a lack of reliable, comparable data (see box 1.1). The limited available evidence indicates that worldwide, within-country income inequality has been increasing for the past 30 years.³⁶ Among the 73 countries with data (and 80% of the world's people), 48 have seen inequality increase since the 1950s, 16 have experienced no change and only 9—with just 4% of the world's people—have seen inequality fall.³⁷ The increase in inequality has impeded poverty reduction. Given current inequality levels, most countries are not growing fast enough to meet the poverty target. Thus efforts must focus on making growth more pro-poor.³⁸

Inequalities beyond income. This Report's human development index (HDI), when calculated for regions and for groups within countries, can provide summary information on inequalities in several aspects of human development within countries (feature 1.2). This information can spotlight stark contrasts that in many coun-

tries have fuelled national debates and helped policy-makers assess differences in human development between regions, between rural and urban areas and between ethnic and income groups. In South Africa in 1996 the HDI for the Northern Province was just 0.531, compared with 0.712 for Gauteng.³⁹ In Guatemala in 1998 the rural HDI, at 0.536, was well below the urban HDI, at 0.672.⁴⁰ In 1996 the HDI for “untouchables” in Nepal, at 0.239, was almost half that for Brahmins, at 0.439.⁴¹

Another way to look at the distribution of human development achievements within countries is to estimate the human poverty index (HPI), a measure introduced in *Human Development Report 1997* to go beyond income and consider poverty in the same multiple dimensions as the HDI: health, education and a decent standard of living. The United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda, for example, have similar HDI rankings (151 and 150), but Uganda has higher human poverty (figure 1.9; indicator table 3).

Poverty is not just an issue for developing countries (box 1.2). The HPI-2, calculated for certain countries that belong to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), can be particularly revealing (see feature 1.2). Its focus on deprivations dif-

ferentiates industrial countries more clearly, using such indicators as poverty rates, functional literacy and long-term unemployment (see technical note). Estimated for 17 OECD countries—with nearly identical HDIs—the HPI-2s range from 6.8% in Sweden to 15.8% in the United States (figure 1.10; indicator table 4).

Target 1b: Halve the proportion of people suffering from hunger

Children suffer doubly from hunger: it affects their daily lives and has devastating consequences for their future mental and physical health. In 50 countries with almost 40% of the world's people, more than one-fifth of children under the age of five are underweight.⁴² That 17 of those countries are in the medium human development category underscores hunger's pervasiveness. Still, the problem is worst among the world's poorest countries. In Sub-Saharan Africa only South Africa has less than a 10% incidence of child malnourishment. In six Sub-Saharan countries that figure is more than 40%.

A rough indication of how countries are moving towards halving hunger by 2015 comes from changes in the number of malnourished people—a less precise indicator of hunger than child malnutrition rates, based on national food availability and estimated distribution. In 1997–99 an estimated 815 million people were undernourished: 777 million in developing

countries, 27 million in transition economies and 11 million in industrial countries.⁴³

There are some reasons for optimism. Fifty-seven countries, with half of the world's people, have halved hunger or are on track to do so by 2015 (see feature 1.1). But progress is far from universal. Twenty-four countries are far behind in achieving the target. And in 15 more—6 from Sub-Saharan Africa—the situation worsened in the 1990s.

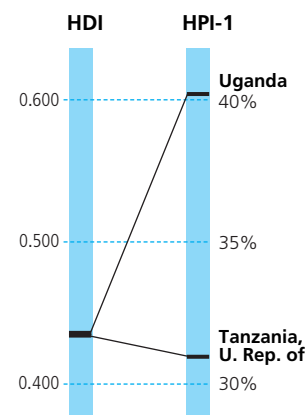
While the proportion of hungry people has been declining, the world's booming population means that the number of malnourished people has not been falling fast enough. During the 1990s it declined by just 6 million people a year.⁴⁴ At this rate it would take more than 130 years to rid the world of hunger.

GOAL 2—ACHIEVING UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION

Target 2a: Ensure that children everywhere—boys and girls alike—complete a full course of primary education

Education is important in its own right and has strong spillover benefits to mortality rates, income and even social cohesion. Worldwide, primary enrollments have been improving, rising from 80% in 1990 to 84% in 1998. But that still means that of the 680 million children of primary school age, 113 million are not in school—97% of them in developing countries.⁴⁵

FIGURE 1.9
No automatic link between HDI and HPI-1



Source: Indicator tables 1 and 3.

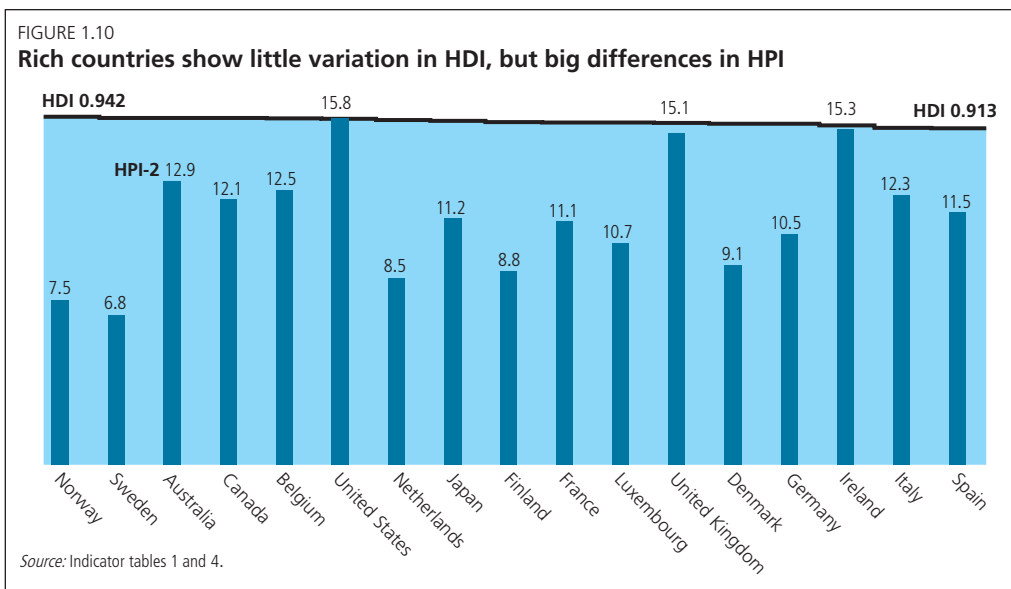
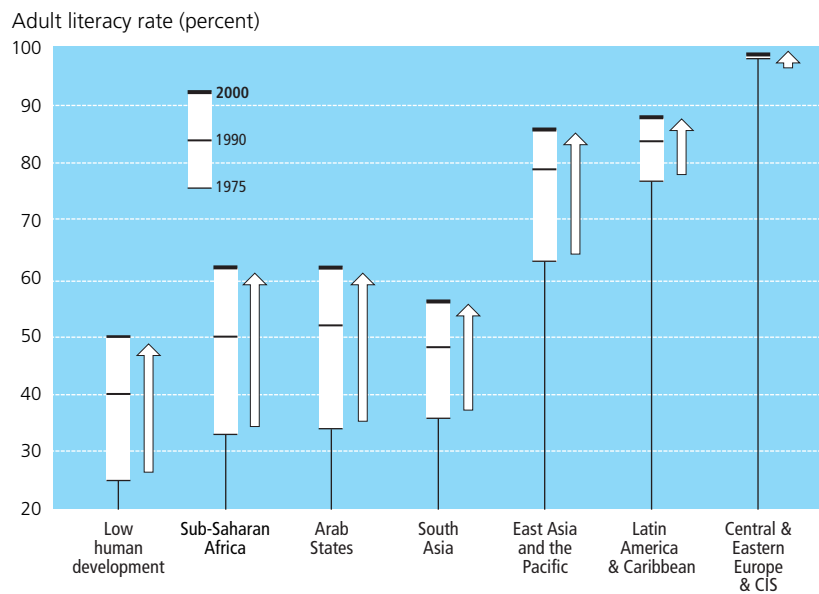


FIGURE 1.11
Global disparities in literacy



Source: Human Development Report Office calculations based on UNESCO 2002.

Many countries have good prospects for achieving universal primary education. But there is little middle ground: most of those not on track to achieve the goal are far behind or have worsening primary enrollments (see feature 1.1). Sub-Saharan Africa fares worst—of the 21 countries with data, 14 are far behind the target or have deteriorating enrollments. Furthermore, 93 countries with 39% of the world’s people do not have sufficient data to make a judgement.

Enrolling children in primary school is only half the battle, because it is meaningful only if they complete it—which requires that they and their families be able to resist the pressures of forgone income and work in the home. Of the few countries with data on primary school completion, most seem to be on track (appendix table A1.1). But again the news is worse for Sub-Saharan Africa, where 6 countries are on track and 5 are far behind or slipping back—and the 33 countries without data are likely to be among the poor performers.

Literacy. One of the most important outcomes of primary education is literacy. And literacy rates are slow to change, reflecting the education of previous generations of children and the history of school enrolment. Since 1975 literacy rates have increased substantially in all developing regions (figure 1.11). East Asia and

the Pacific and Latin America and the Caribbean seem to be converging, with close to 90% adult literacy. But Sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia and Arab States, despite significant progress, are much further behind, with adult literacy rates of about 60%. In the past 25 years literacy rates in low human development countries have doubled—though only to 50%.

Functional literacy. Among OECD countries, literacy rates are often assumed to be close to 100%. But the truth is very different. The concept of functional illiteracy describes the inability to understand and use common channels of communication and information in an everyday context, from newspapers and books to pamphlets and instructions on medicine bottles. Based on this measure, in most OECD countries an incredible 10–20% of people are functionally illiterate, with Sweden and Norway doing relatively well at 8% and 9% while Ireland, the United Kingdom and the United States have levels over 20% (indicator table 4).

GOAL 3—ACHIEVING GENDER EQUALITY AND EMPOWERING WOMEN

Target 3a: Eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education by 2015

The Millennium Development Goal for gender equality in education responds to dramatic gender disparities in many parts of the world, particularly South Asia and West, Central and North Africa. In India the enrolment ratio of boys aged 6–14 is 17 percentage points higher than that of girls the same age, in Benin 21 percentage points. Yet in many developing countries, mostly in Latin America, girls have no disadvantage or even a small advantage.⁴⁶ Still, of the world’s estimated 854 million illiterate adults, 544 million are women—and of the 113 million children not in primary school, 60% are girls.⁴⁶ The world is still a long way from achieving equal rights and opportunities between females and males.

The gaps are closing in primary and, to a lesser extent, secondary enrollments: 90 countries, with more than 60% of the world’s peo-

ple, have achieved or are on track to achieving gender equality in primary education by 2015—and more than 80 in secondary education (see feature 1.1; appendix table A1.1).

Perhaps most surprising is the performance of Arab States—countries generally associated with high gender inequality. All but one of those with data are on track to meet the target for primary enrollments. Again, Sub-Saharan Africa is making the least progress, but even there most countries have achieved or are on track to achieve gender equality in primary enrolment.

Education is just one aspect of human development in which there is discrimination between the sexes. Around the world, women still earn only around 75% as much as men. Domestic violence against women is common in many societies. And around the world there are an estimated 100 million “missing” women—50 million in India alone—who would be alive but for infanticide, neglect or sex-selective abortions. A recent survey in India found 10,000 cases of female infanticide a year, and a study of a clinic in Bombay found that 7,999 of 8,000 aborted fetuses were female.⁴⁸

The gender-related development index (GDI) adjusts the HDI for inequalities in the achievements of men and women (see feature 1.2 and indicator table 21). With gender equality in human development, the GDI and the HDI would be the same. But for all countries the GDI is lower than the HDI, indicating gender inequality everywhere. The extent of the inequality varies significantly. Although many countries have similar male and female literacy rates, 43 countries—including India, Mozambique and Yemen—have male rates at least 15 percentage points higher than female rates.

Worse outcomes for women in many aspects of human development result from the fact that their voices have less impact than men’s in the decisions that shape their lives. This inequality in empowerment is partly captured by the gender empowerment measure (GEM), introduced in *Human Development Report 1995* to help assess gender inequality in economic and political opportunities. This year the GEM has been estimated for 66 countries (indicator table 23). Some observations:

- GEM values range from less than 0.300 to more than 0.800—indicating enormous variation around the world in empowering women.
- Only 5 of the 66 countries—Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden—have a GEM above 0.800, while 22 have a GEM below 0.500.
- Some developing countries outperform much richer industrial countries. The Bahamas and Trinidad and Tobago are ahead of Italy and Japan. Barbados’s GEM is 25% higher than Greece’s. The message: high income is not a prerequisite to creating opportunities for women.

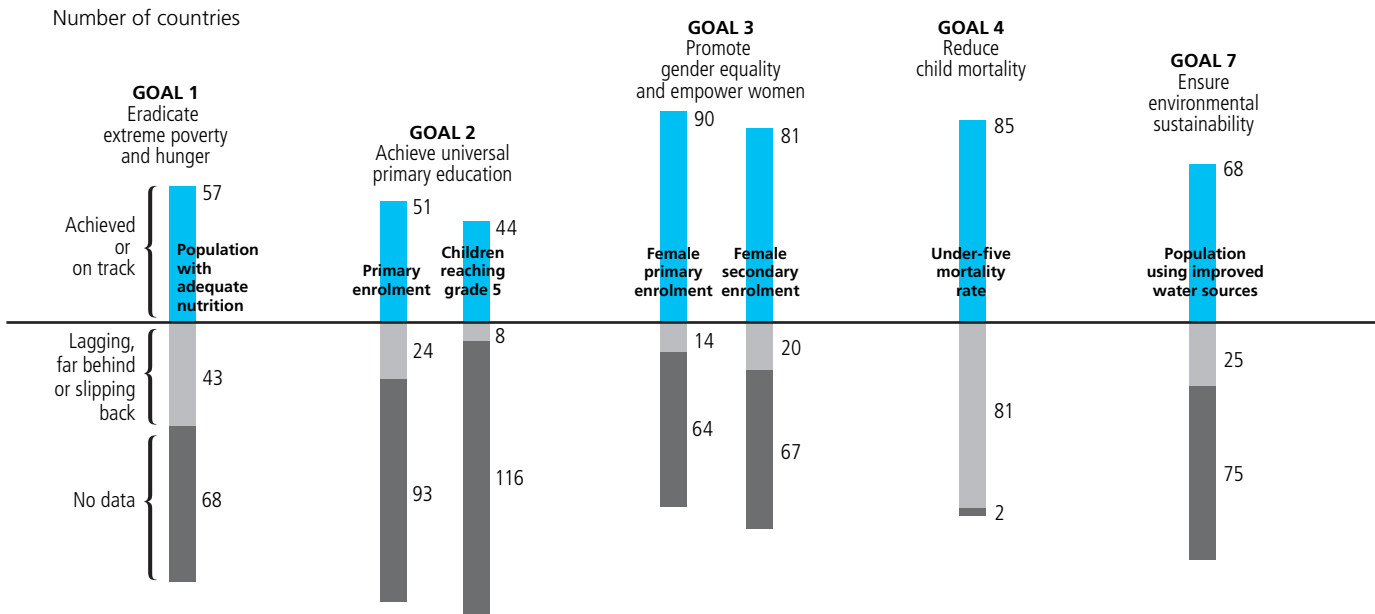
Inequalities beyond gender. The Millennium Development Goals consider gender inequality in education—but this is only one aspect of unfair access to schooling. While gender gaps in education are large in some countries and nonexistent in others, wealth gaps exist the world over. Extreme examples include Senegal, where the enrolment ratio for 6–14-year-olds from the poorest households is 52 percentage points lower than for those from the richest households, and Zambia, with a 36 point difference. Such wealth gaps perpetuate the cycle of poverty: those born poor are likely to die poor. Furthermore, in some countries (Egypt, India, Morocco, Niger, Pakistan) the gender gap in education is much larger for poor households. In India the gender gap in enrolment is only 3 percentage points in the richest households, but 34 points in the poorest.⁴⁹

One cause of such gaps is that in many countries, public spending on education is skewed towards the rich. In Ecuador the poorest 20% of households receive only 11% of public education spending, while the richest 20% receive 26%—more than twice as much.⁵⁰ Even when public spending is distributed more equitably, rich parents can buy a far better education for their children at private schools. In Chile, Peru, the Philippines and Thailand private spending accounts for more than 40% of education spending.⁵¹

Education inequality is also a serious problem in some industrial countries. In the United States race is a significant factor: minorities have lower schooling levels and less access to high-quality schooling. Controlling for parental education and immigrant status, young African

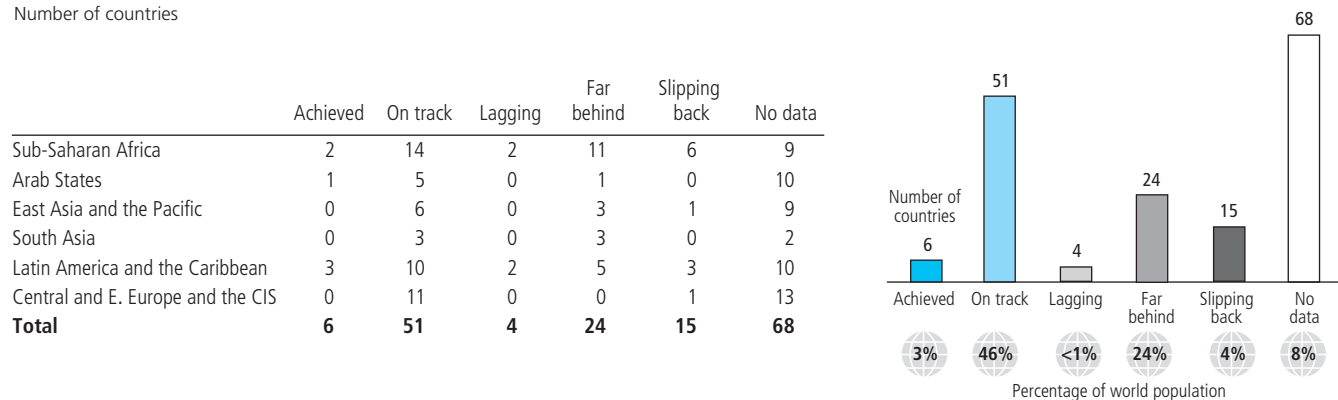
Worse outcomes for women in many aspects of human development result from the fact that their voices have less impact than men’s in the decisions that shape their lives

PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS—HOW MANY COUNTRIES ARE ON TRACK?



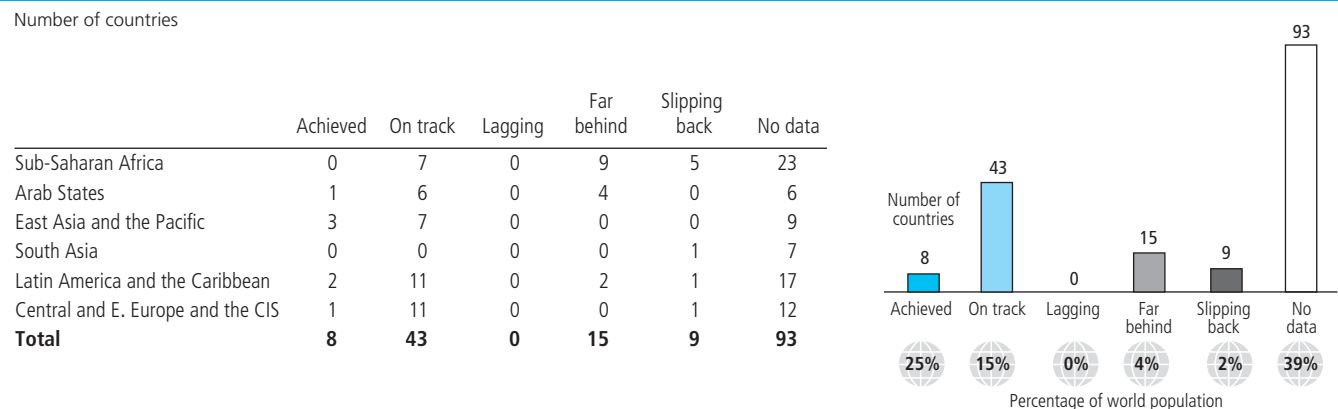
Millennium Development Goal 1—halving hunger

Number of countries



Millennium Development Goal 2—achieving universal primary education

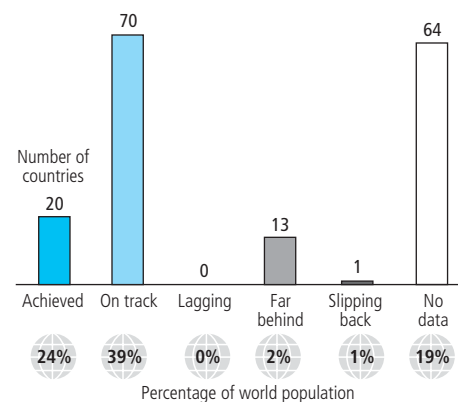
Number of countries



Millennium Development Goal 3—achieving gender equality in primary education

Number of countries

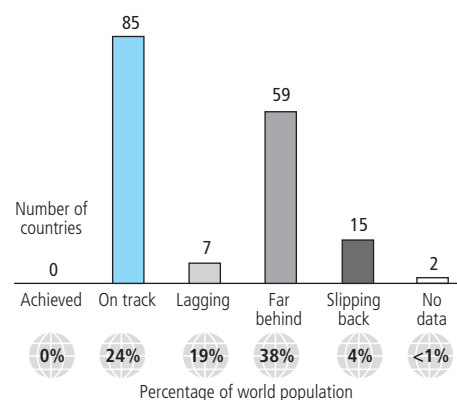
	Achieved	On track	Lagging	Far behind	Slipping back	No data
Sub-Saharan Africa	5	15	0	8	1	15
Arab States	1	12	0	1	0	3
East Asia and the Pacific	5	7	0	1	0	6
South Asia	0	5	0	0	0	3
Latin America and the Caribbean	3	13	0	1	0	16
Central and E. Europe and the CIS	4	16	0	0	0	5
Total	20	70	0	13	1	64



Millennium Development Goal 4—reducing under-five mortality by two-thirds

Number of countries

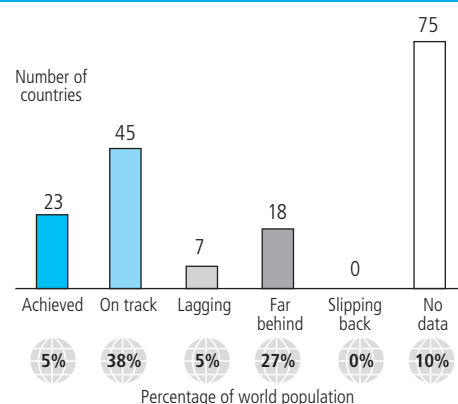
	Achieved	On track	Lagging	Far behind	Slipping back	No data
Sub-Saharan Africa	0	7	3	24	10	0
Arab States	0	11	1	4	1	0
East Asia and the Pacific	0	13	1	3	1	1
South Asia	0	6	1	1	0	0
Latin America and the Caribbean	0	25	0	8	0	0
Central and E. Europe and the CIS	0	10	0	13	2	0
Total	0	85	7	59	15	2



Millennium Development Goal 7—halving the proportion of people without sustainable, safe drinking water

Number of countries

	Achieved	On track	Lagging	Far behind	Slipping back	No data
Sub-Saharan Africa	2	8	4	9	0	21
Arab States	2	6	0	3	0	6
East Asia and the Pacific	1	5	1	4	0	8
South Asia	4	3	0	0	0	1
Latin America and the Caribbean	2	20	1	2	0	8
Central and E. Europe and the CIS	5	3	0	0	0	17
Total	23	45	7	18	0	75



Note: Regions include only HDI countries while the total includes all UN member countries excluding high-income OECD members.
Source: Human Development Report Office calculations based on appendix table A1.3.

Americans perform worse in functional literacy tests than do young white Americans—on average, by the equivalent of four to five years of schooling. The gap for Hispanic Americans is one and a half to two years.⁵²

GOAL 4—REDUCING CHILD MORTALITY

Target 4a: Reduce infant and under-five mortality rates by two-thirds

Every year about 11 million children die of preventable causes,⁵² often for want of simple and easily provided improvements in nutrition, sanitation and maternal health and education. Some developing regions have made rapid improvements in this area—especially Arab States, where 6% of children die before age five, down from 20% in 1970 (figure 1.12).

Although Latin America and the Caribbean is doing well as a whole, eight countries are far from achieving the infant mortality target. In East Asia and the Pacific 13 countries are on track but 3, including China, are far behind—and in Cambodia under-five mortality rates are increasing (see feature 1.1). Central and Eastern Europe and the CIS, doing badly as a whole, combines good performance from the European countries and worse performance from the more populous CIS coun-

tries. In Sub-Saharan Africa 34 of 44 countries are far behind or slipping back.

Immunizations against leading diseases are a vital element in improving child survival. After soaring in the 1980s, immunizations in developing countries levelled off at about 75% in the 1990s. And in recent years the proportion of children immunized in Sub-Saharan Africa has fallen below 50%.⁵⁴

Child mortality has a dramatic effect on a country's life expectancy, which is part of the HDI and is an excellent indicator of a country's overall health. Between 1975 and 2000 East Asia and the Pacific increased life expectancy by about 8 years, to almost 70 (figure 1.13). South Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean and Arab States also achieved consistent increases. But high-income OECD countries are still head and shoulders above the rest, with a life expectancy of 77 years—7 years more than the next-highest region.

Sub-Saharan Africa, ravaged by HIV/AIDS and conflict, saw life expectancy reverse in the 1990s from already tragically low levels. Eastern Europe and the CIS also suffered a decline, and is the only other region where life expectancy is lower now than in 1990.

GOAL 5—IMPROVING MATERNAL HEALTH

Target 5a: Reduce maternal mortality ratios by three-quarters

Every year more than 500,000 women die as a result of pregnancy and childbirth,⁵⁴ with huge regional disparities (table 1.3). The situation is worst in Sub-Saharan Africa, where a woman has a 1 in 13 chance of dying in pregnancy or childbirth.

Increasing the number of births attended by skilled health personnel is key to reducing maternal mortality ratios, and again there is wide variation—with as few as 29% of births attended by skilled personnel in South Asia and 37% in Sub-Saharan Africa.⁵⁵

There are not enough data on maternal mortality or births attended by skilled health personnel to assess how countries are progressing towards this important goal, indicating an urgent need for more complete, comparable data on this vital issue.

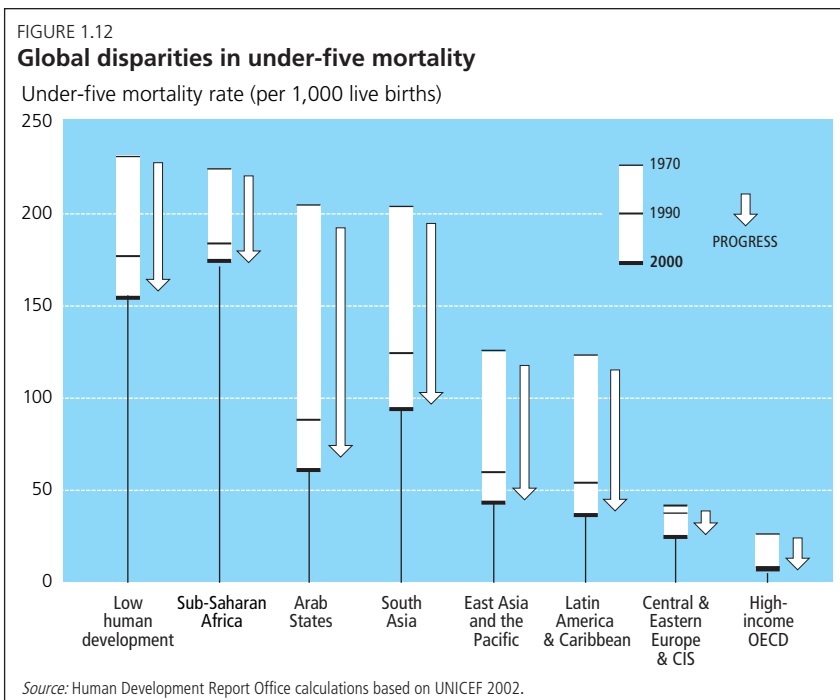


TABLE 1.3

Maternal mortality is much higher in some regions

Region	Lifetime chance of dying in pregnancy or childbirth
Sub-Saharan Africa	1 in 13
South Asia	1 in 54
Middle East and North Africa	1 in 55
Latin America and the Caribbean	1 in 157
East Asia and the Pacific	1 in 283
Central and Eastern Europe and CIS	1 in 797
OECD	1 in 4,085

Note: Data refer to most recent year available.

Source: UNICEF 2002.

GOAL 6—COMBATING HIV/AIDS, MALARIA AND OTHER DISEASES

Target 6a: Halt and begin to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS

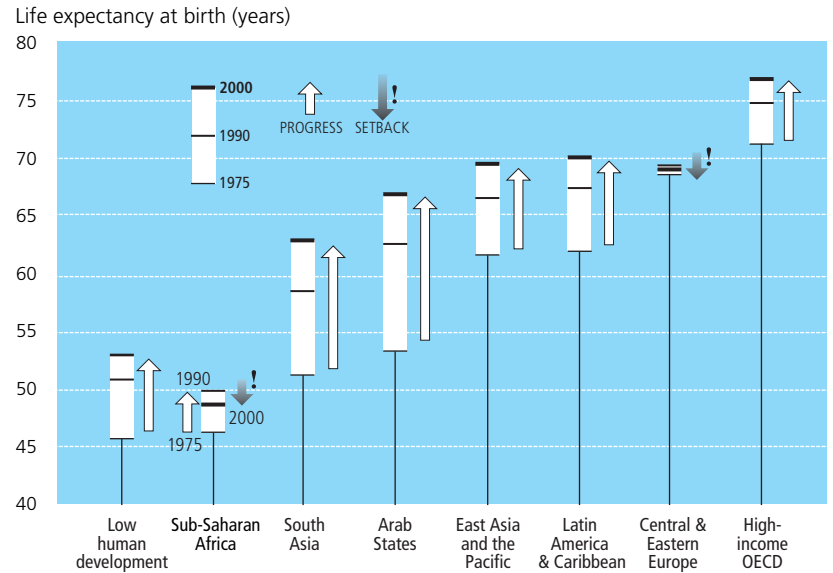
By the end of 2000 almost 22 million people had died from AIDS, 13 million children had lost their mother or both parents to the disease and more than 40 million people were living with the HIV virus—90% of them in developing countries, 75% in Sub-Saharan Africa.⁵⁶

In Botswana, the most affected country, more than a third of adults have HIV/AIDS and a child born today can expect to live only 36 years—about half as long as if the disease did not exist (figure 1.14). In Burkina Faso, the 20th most affected country, 330,000 adults are living with HIV/AIDS, and life expectancy has fallen by 8 years.⁵⁷

The toll on life expectancy is only the beginning. In Thailand one-third of AIDS-affected rural families saw their incomes fall by half because the time of farmers, and those caring for them, was taken from the fields.⁵⁸ At the same time, medical expenses shoot up. In Côte d'Ivoire caring for a male AIDS patient costs an average of \$300 a year, a quarter to half of the net annual income of most small farms.⁵⁹ The effect on poor households, with little or no savings to cope with such shocks, is devastating. In urban Côte d'Ivoire food consumption dropped 41% per capita, and school outlays halved.⁶⁰

HIV/AIDS is also a concern in the Caribbean, the region with the second highest

FIGURE 1.13

Global disparities in life expectancy

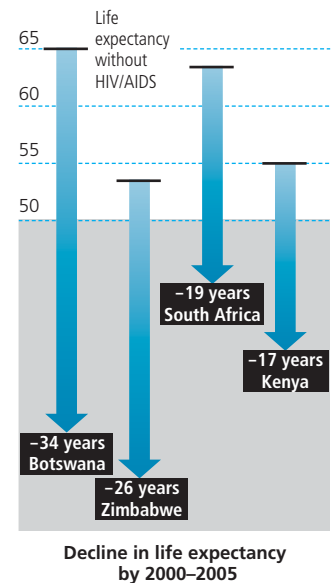
Source: Human Development Report Office calculations based on UN 2001d.

infection rate. In Latin America 1.3 million people have HIV/AIDS. Central and Eastern Europe and the CIS has fast-rising infection rates—240,000 people are now infected in Ukraine.⁶¹ And there are warnings that Asia is on the verge of an epidemic. In Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam, one sex worker in five is HIV positive, up from almost none in the mid-1990s. And nearly 4 million people are now infected in India, second only to South Africa.⁶² Without strong preventative measures, as in Thailand, the epidemic could rage out of control.

There are no comparable trend data for assessing how well countries are fighting the disease. But it is clear that policies can make a difference and that contraceptive prevalence and reproductive rights for women are vital. Through preventive measures, Uganda reduced HIV rates from 14% in the early 1990s to around 8% by the end of the 1990s.⁶³

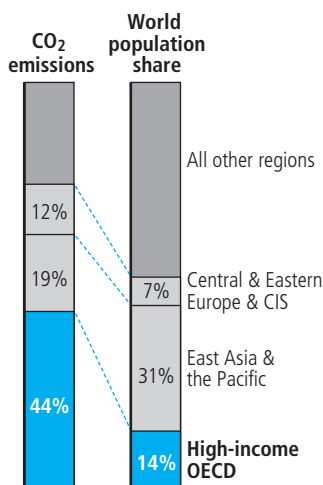
Also vital is providing treatment and care to those already affected. But at a cost of \$300 per year per patient—well over half the GDP per capita of Sub-Saharan Africa—antiretroviral drugs that can prolong life expectancy are out of reach for the average African HIV patient. As homes to the leading pharmaceutical companies, some industrial countries have pressured developing countries not to manufacture generic alternatives of these patented drugs. But in No-

FIGURE 1.14

Devastation from HIV/AIDS—life expectancy in Sub-Saharan Africa plummets

Source: UNDESA 2001.

FIGURE 1.15
Carbon dioxide emissions
originate disproportionately in
high-income countries



Source: Indicator table 19 and Human Development Report Office calculations based on indicator table 5.

September 2001 the World Trade Organization ministerial conference in Doha, Qatar, adopted the Declaration on Trade-Related Intellectual Property Rights and Public Health, affirming the sovereign right of governments to protect public health. The legal status of this declaration is not yet clear, but it indicates that rulings on disputes may now favour public health. One issue that remains uncertain is whether countries can override patents and produce generic drugs for export to other developing countries—a crucial question for all developing countries with no pharmaceutical industry of their own. Goal 8, developing a global partnership for development, includes the aspiration of resolving this problem with the help of pharmaceutical companies. Whether this proves to be possible, in the wake of the Doha declaration it is clear that international law must put global public health first.

Target 6b: Halt and begin to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases

Every year there are more than 300 million cases of malaria, 90% of them in Sub-Saharan Africa.⁶⁴ And every year 60 million people are infected with tuberculosis.⁶⁵ Current medical technologies can prevent these diseases from being fatal, but lack of access means that tuberculosis kills 2 million people a year⁶⁶ and malaria 1 million.⁶⁷ The poorest people typically suffer most.

Without much more effective control, by 2020 nearly 1 billion people will be infected and 35 million will die from tuberculosis.⁶⁸ In addition to its human costs, disease takes a heavy economic toll: for instance, high malaria prevalence can lower economic growth by 1% or more a year.⁶⁹ Work is under way to strengthen national health systems and increase international support, and there are some encouraging signs: the World Health Organization, for example, has struck a deal with the Swiss firm Novartis on the drug Coartem, an extremely effective malaria treatment. The price of this drug, which can reduce infection and fatality rates by 75%, has fallen to less than \$2.50 a treatment.⁷⁰ But this is still far more than many people can afford—and only the beginning of efforts to overcome these diseases.

GOAL 7—ENSURING ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY

The diversity of environmental issues across countries and regions makes it extremely difficult to set global targets, so this goal sets out general principles for achieving sustainability and reducing the human costs of environmental degradation.

Target 7a: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources

Global warming is a universal concern—and carbon dioxide emissions are one of its main causes. Such emissions have increased dramatically, to more than 6.6 billion tons in 1998, up from 5.3 billion in 1980.⁷¹ High-income countries generate a far higher proportion than their share of the world's population (figure 1.15).

Around the world, goods production has generally become more energy-efficient in the past few decades. But the increased volume of global production means that such improvements are far from sufficient to reduce world carbon dioxide emissions. So the Kyoto Protocol to the Framework Convention on Climate Change aims to reduce emissions, mainly through controls on industrial pollution. The protocol could be a big step towards controlling emissions. But 165 countries, responsible for 89% of global carbon dioxide emissions, have yet to ratify it (indicator table 19). The key missing player is the United States, responsible for almost one-quarter of the world's carbon dioxide emissions.

The ratification of international treaties can be a useful means of measuring a country's formal commitment to key environmental issues that are not globally monitorable. Deforestation, risks to endangered species and the state of the world's fisheries are broadly covered by the 1992 Convention on Biological Diversity, ratified by 168 countries (indicator table 19). But such treaties are no guarantee of action. What is needed is detailed understanding of the situation in each country, with plans to ensure that people's enjoyment of the Earth is not at the expense of others—today or in the future.

To that end Agenda 21, adopted in 1992 by governments at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in Rio de Janeiro, establishes principles for achieving sustainable development based on the need to manage the economy, the environment and social issues in a coherent, coordinated fashion. By March 2002, 73 countries had signed Agenda 21 and 33 countries had ratified it.⁷²

One major topic addressed by Agenda 21 is desertification. Dryland ecosystems—covering more than a third of the world’s land area—are extremely vulnerable to overexploitation and inappropriate land use. Poverty, political instability, deforestation, overgrazing and bad irrigation practices can all undermine the land’s productivity.

The human cost is enormous. More than 250 million people living off the land are directly affected by desertification. In addition, the livelihoods of 1 billion people in more than a hundred countries are at risk. These include many of the world’s poorest, most marginalized and politically powerless people.

The United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification—ratified by 115 countries—aims to combat desertification and mitigate the effects of drought, particularly in Africa. This requires long-term integrated strategies that focus on increasing the productivity of land and on rehabilitating, conserving and sustainably managing land and water resources.⁷³

Target 7b: Halve the proportion of people without sustainable safe drinking water

Target 7c: Achieve, by 2020, a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers

Environmental conditions particularly affect the health of poor people. Traditional hazards such as lack of safe drinking water, sanitation and waste disposal lead to major outbreaks of diarrhoea, malaria and cholera. Modern hazards such as urban and indoor air pollution can lead to respiratory infections, while exposure to agroindustrial chemicals and waste also causes harm.

The Millennium Declaration separates the goals for safe water and sanitation, using sani-

tation as an indicator of improving the lives of slum dwellers. In 2000, 1.1 billion people lacked access to safe water, and 2.4 billion did not have access to any form of improved sanitation services.⁷⁴

The health consequences are significant. About 4 billion cases of diarrhoea occur each year, leading to 2.2 million deaths, predominantly among children—representing 15% of child deaths in developing countries. Other concerns include intestinal worms, which infect about 10% of people in the developing world, and trachoma, which has left 6 million people blind and another 500 million at risk.⁷⁵

Human dignity is also at stake. A survey in the Philippines found that among the reasons given for wanting latrines, rural households cited the desire for privacy, cleaner surroundings, lack of flies and lack of embarrassment ahead of health benefits.⁷⁶

There was progress in the 1990s: 800 million more people now have access to improved water than in 1990, and 750 million more to improved sanitation.⁷⁷ Most countries with data are on track to halving the proportion of people without access to improved water sources (see feature 1.1). But the challenge remains enormous, with 27% of the world’s people living in countries that are far behind the target.

GOAL 8—DEVELOPING A GLOBAL PARTNERSHIP FOR DEVELOPMENT

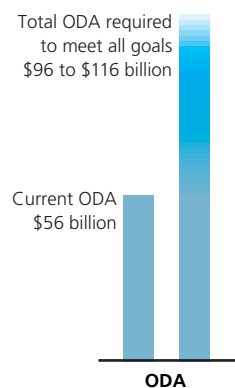
The implications of goal 8 are clear: global action must create an environment in which all people and countries have the chance to realize their potential.

International aid for the Millennium Development Goals

A key responsibility is finance. Aid from official and new sources is essential to kickstart the performance of countries failing to achieve the goals—as well as to keep on track those doing well. But how much aid is needed? Accurately estimating the costs of achieving the millennium goals is almost impossible—but it is important for understanding the size of the responsibility of richer nations. Detailed coun-

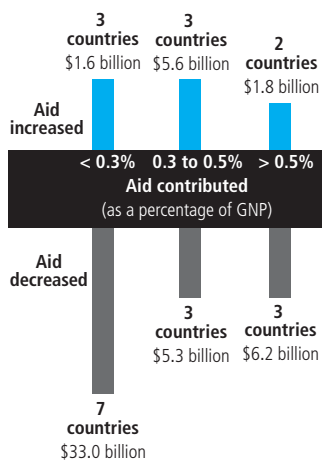
More than 250 million people living off the land are directly affected by desertification

FIGURE 1.16
Official development assistance must double to meet the Millennium Development Goals



Source: World Bank and IMF 2001.

FIGURE 1.17
Aid has decreased from most DAC member countries, 1990–2000



Source: Human Development Report Office calculations based on indicator table 15.

try assessments should be the basis of global estimates. These would allow thorough investigations of how countries are progressing towards the goals, better understanding of the areas for policies to focus on and a much more accurate estimate of the costs of these policies and possible sources of finance. Currently, there are too few country studies of this type to paint a global picture (boxes 1.3 and 1.4).

Calculating an overall estimate of the cost of achieving all the goals using less direct means is tricky because it must take into account the positive side effects of achieving success in different areas. Some consensus is being reached on a figure that takes these synergies into account—giving a rough total of \$40–60 billion a year in addition to the current \$56 billion (figure 1.16).

While approximate, these numbers give an idea of what is required. When compared with current official development assistance from industrial countries, around \$56 billion a year, it is clear that aid needs to double. That would amount to about 0.5% of GNP of the countries on the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development—substantially less than the 0.7% agreed at the UN General Assembly in 1970.

The Millennium Declaration set no specific targets for aid, but if it had most OECD countries would be performing badly. Of the 22 countries on the DAC, 17 give less than 0.5% of their GNP in foreign aid, and 11 give less than 0.3%—and most gave less in 2000 than in 1990 (figure 1.17).⁷⁸ Countries with big economies give the most in absolute terms but not as a percentage of GNP. At \$13.5 billion, Japan gives the most aid of all countries, though as a share of its GNP it is in the middle of the range. The United States gives the second highest amount but the lowest proportion (indicator table 15).

Aid has fallen substantially in recent years, but announcements in March 2002—at the UN’s International Conference on Financing for Development—suggest that this trend may be reversing. The Bush administration proposed increasing aid over the next three fiscal years so that from the third year onwards the United States would give an additional \$5 billion a year

over the current level—representing a 50% increase, to about 0.15% of GNP.⁷⁹ EU heads of state and government announced a new target of 0.39% of GNP, to be achieved by 2006, representing an additional \$7 billion a year.⁸⁰ Though short of doubling aid, and the 0.5% of GNP needed, the proposed increases are a step in the right direction.

Some countries, generally smaller, have bucked the recent trend of diminishing aid. During the 1990s Ireland doubled its aid from 0.16% of GNP to 0.30%, and Luxembourg tripled its from 0.21% to 0.71%.

Alternative forms of financing have become more important but fall far short of substituting for increased official aid. Though small relative to official development assistance, resources generated by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are substantial (table 1.4). The same is true of contributions by philanthropists. The George Soros Foundation Network gives about \$500 million a year, most of it in developing and transition countries, with a focus on human rights, culture and economic and social development.⁸¹ And the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation has given more than \$4 billion since the beginning of 2000, with half of it spent on global health initiatives.⁸²

Many developing countries still pay enormous sums in debt. Not all debt is bad: borrowing today to provide returns tomorrow is often prudent. But in many countries debt strangles the public purse—and is often for money spent unproductively long ago, by authoritarian regimes.

The most recent move to reduce debt is the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative, launched by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in 1996 to provide comprehensive debt relief to the world’s poorest, most heavily indebted countries.⁸³ For low human development countries, 28 of them part of the initiative, debt service fell from 5.1% of GDP in 1990 to 3.6% in 2000 (indicator table 16). But there have been calls, led by Jubilee 2000, that the relief is not enough—and that too many countries desperately in need are not included. Recent new commitments by the World Bank and the IMF to deepen and broaden debt relief are positive developments.⁸⁴

TABLE 1.4

Exports and debt service dominate resource flows to and from developing countries

Type of flows	Percentage of developing countries' GDP, 2000
Exports	26.0
Debt service	6.3
Net foreign direct investment	2.5
Aid	0.5
Net grants from NGOs	0.1

Source: Human Development Report Office calculations based on indicator tables 14, 15 and 16.

Better aid

More aid may be needed to achieve the goals, but there is no guarantee it will have the right impact in the right places. For transfers to hit the targets laid out in the Millennium Declaration, there needs to be not only more aid, but better aid.

Who should receive it? Donors are concentrating aid in countries with a demonstrated ability to monitor and use it effectively.⁸⁵ While understandable, this approach also bears great risks. It means that the countries falling behind in achieving the goals, and in greatest need of resources, are least likely to receive aid.

Not only does aid need to be directed to the countries that need it most, it must also go to the right sectors. Only \$2 billion of the annual aid from DAC countries is directed towards education.⁸⁶ To achieve the goals for education, this will have to increase by \$9–12 billion, from about 3.5% of aid to well over 10%. Similarly, a larger proportion of aid will need to go to other basic social services to achieve the goals. But that raises tough issues of setting priorities and reaching an understanding of how best to distribute aid among competing areas.

Trade and foreign direct investment

One-way financial transfers will not be enough to build a global partnership, nor should they be. Developing countries need to compete and prosper in the world economy to drive their own development. The financial flows that developing countries receive from exports dwarf

BOX 1.3

Achieving the Millennium Development Goals—country by country

Examining the Millennium Development Goals at the global level provides only so much understanding of how much progress is being made, how far there is to go and what needs to be done—to achieve the goals or to move on to further challenges. These questions need to be investigated at the country level, and national Millennium Development Goal reports are being produced to fill this gap. Reports have been published for Bolivia, Cambodia, Cameroon, Chad, Madagascar, Nepal, the United Republic of Tanzania and Viet Nam, and more are on the way. The reports provide a deeper, more detailed story than the global analysis—and sometimes contradict it.

Providing access to safe water in Uganda

Over the past decade Uganda's water services have expanded considerably, with national data showing the proportion of people without access to safe water falling from 82% in 1991 to 46% in 2001—placing the country well within reach of the Millennium Development Goal target. Yet international data indicate that Uganda is far behind achieving the target (appendix table A1.3). To truly understand a country's progress, it is important to reach consensus on definitions, sources and standardization procedures. Uganda has also gone a step further and set a national target of universal access to safe water. This will require further

Source: UNDP 2002e.

protecting water sources to counter the receding water table—which will require community participation and ownership.

Combating HIV/AIDS in Malawi

Malawi's government recognizes that its HIV/AIDS problem has grown well beyond the realm of the traditional public health sector and that, if not contained, the pandemic will become the greatest danger to national development. Policy is now focused on raising awareness and improving information, aggressively promoting behaviour change and increasing condom use—particularly among high-risk groups. The government has established a network of decentralized public-private partnerships charged with implementing a multisectoral campaign against HIV/AIDS.

Primary education in the Philippines

For better-off countries, achieving the goals is not a sufficient target for development—further challenges remain, specific to each country, and should not be overlooked. The Philippines has already achieved the goal of universal primary enrolment. But to further improve education levels, policy is now focused on raising completion rates and schooling quality. National targets have been set to increase the number of teachers by 70% between now and 2015, the number of classrooms by 60% and the stock of textbooks by 130%.

those from other sources, indicating how integrated many of these countries already are (see table 1.4). And during the 1990s foreign direct investment grew faster than other financial flows to developing countries, from 0.9% of their GDP to 2.5% (indicator table 16). Developing countries—especially the poorest countries—still receive only a tiny fraction of total foreign direct investment, but that inflow is now greater than official development assistance.

In principle, participating in the global market offers the same benefits as a flourishing market economy within a country. But global trade is highly regulated, with the powerful holding sway and the playing field far from level. The average poor person in a developing

National human development reports—innovations in national policy

Published every year or two, national human development reports build on the analytical framework of the global *Human Development Report* by examining countries' most pressing development issues and exploring ways to place human development at the forefront of the national political agenda.

National human development reports are unique country-owned products, written by leading national experts and intellectuals and often containing data not published elsewhere. Through a country-led process of consultation, research and report writing, they bring together diverse voices, put difficult issues on the table and help mobilize action for human development policy-making. The reports are also a tool for policy analysis and planning that contribute to progress towards the Millennium Development Goals and provide a unique, valuable resource in analysing global issues.

Six fundamental principles underpin the creation of successful national human development reports and form the UNDP's corporate

policy on them:

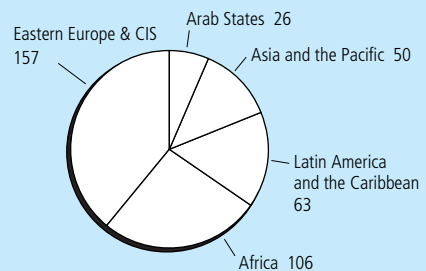
- National ownership.
- Independent analysis.
- High-quality analysis.
- Participatory, inclusive preparation.
- Flexible, creative presentation.
- Sustained follow-up.

Since 1992 more than 400 regional and national human development reports have been produced in more than 135 countries.

All national human development reports emphasize key human development concepts. In addition, each national team addresses specific themes tied to the country's most urgent development issues. Reports have addressed human development approaches to governance, poverty, economic growth, gender, peace and security, survival and health, the environment, education and information and communications technology. Although 299 national reports have been on general human development, most have addressed other pressing issues facing the nation at the time of publication—including 263 that have

analysed governance-related topics such as civil society, youth, human rights, the role of the state, decentralization, social cohesion and exclusion, participation, inequity and democracy (see tables). The reports offer concrete policy recommendations on how to tackle these thematic areas through the human development prism.

National human development reports published since 1992



National human development reports by theme

Theme	Africa	Arab States	Asia and the Pacific	Eastern Europe and the CIS	Latin America and the Caribbean	Total
General human development	86	18	32	100	63	299
Governance	41	14	20	145	43	263
Poverty, incomes and economic growth	54	15	35	123	39	266
Gender	12	8	11	27	5	63
Peace and security	7	1	3	28	9	48
Survival and health	11	5	13	34	6	69
Environment	18	4	12	39	8	81
Knowledge	11	10	11	45	8	85

National human development reports with analysis of governance related topics

	Africa	Arab States	Asia and the Pacific	Eastern Europe and the CIS	Latin America and the Caribbean	Total
Governance	19	1	4	30	11	65
Civil society	8	0	1	12	0	21
Youth	0	3	4	7	2	16
Human rights	3	0	1	11	2	17
Role of the state	3	2	3	21	15	44
Decentralization	2	1	2	11	5	21
Social cohesion and exclusion	0	0	3	25	2	30
Participation	4	5	1	18	1	29
Inequity	0	0	0	2	1	3
Democracy	2	2	1	8	4	17

Note: Reports can cover more than one theme.

Source: National Human Development Report Unit calculations based on UNDP 2002d.

country selling into global markets confronts barriers twice as high as the typical worker in industrial countries,⁸⁷ where agricultural subsidies alone are about \$1 billion a day—more than six times total aid. These barriers and subsidies cost developing countries more in lost export opportunities than the \$56 billion in aid they receive each year.⁸⁸

If there were a levelling of the global playing field, many of the gains would come in low-income, low-skill areas such as agriculture, textiles and clothing. So in many cases both the poorest countries and the poorest people would benefit.⁸⁹ Eliminating trade barriers and subsidies in industrial countries that inhibit imports from developing countries is therefore an urgent priority, and potentially a route to greatly accelerated development.

The Millennium Declaration's call for a non-discriminatory trading system places a clear responsibility on the world's richer countries, but it is a small step towards changing the system. And while liberalizing trade will bring substantial gains overall, it is not universally a win-win situation—some sectors in some countries will lose out, and they are likely to voice opposition.

But the losers must be seen as more than lobbying groups to overcome. They are individuals, families and communities whose lives change immediately and for the worse because of globalization and foreign competition. People across the globe share this despair, and as trade continues to liberalize, their numbers will grow.

Although the question remains a subject of vigorous debate, a number of recent studies have suggested that increased international trade was a factor in the sharp increase in inequality in industrial countries in the 1980s and 1990s.⁹¹ But holding trade back is most likely to hurt those who are even poorer in developing countries.

Since trade increases overall income, the answer to this moral dilemma—which appears to pit poor workers in industrial countries against even poorer workers in developing countries—is to redistribute some of the overall gain to those who directly lose out. That means providing greater social security and more help in finding alternative employment for people who lose their jobs. Canada and Denmark have successfully used fiscal transfers and social security to counter rising inequality in before-tax market wages (see box 1.2), showing that the inevitable sectoral losses from increased trade can be distributed fairly within each economy.

To ensure that the gains from globalization are more widely distributed, industrial countries need to eliminate trade barriers against developing countries. The 2001 World Trade Organization meeting in Doha produced a framework for lowering trade barriers worldwide, but there is concern that reductions in the most important areas—barriers against textiles and subsidies for agriculture—may stall when the formal rules are developed. Industrial countries must also ensure that domestic workers in sectors hit by global competition do not shoulder the full burden of the adjustments that global innovation and integration can bring.

The new era of global integration offers enormous potential benefits. But they will not be realized unless more of the world's people are included. This has important implications for national and international policies in industrial as well as developing countries. Perhaps the most important is the need to include more people in the decisions that shape their lives in the modern world—and to include more people in the economic and social gains. The challenge of achieving these goals and finally making democratic governance work for human development in its fullest sense is the focus of this Report.

The average poor person in a developing country selling into global markets confronts barriers twice as high as the typical worker in industrial countries

MEASURING HUMAN DEVELOPMENT: THE HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDICES

Human development index

The human development index (HDI) is a simple summary measure of three dimensions of the human development concept: living a long and healthy life, being educated and having a decent standard of living (see technical note). Thus it combines measures of life expectancy, school enrolment, literacy and income to allow a broader view of a country's development than using income alone—which is too often equated with well-being. Since the creation of the HDI in 1990 three supplementary indices have been developed to highlight particular aspects of human development: the human poverty index (HPI), gender-related development index (GDI) and gender empowerment measure (GEM).

The HDI can highlight the successes of some countries and the slower progress of others. Venezuela started with a higher HDI than Brazil in 1975, but Brazil has made much faster progress. Finland had a lower HDI than Switzerland in 1975 but today is slightly ahead. Rankings by HDI and by GDP per capita can also differ, showing that high levels of human development can be achieved without high incomes—and that high incomes do not guarantee high levels of human development (see indicator table 1). Pakistan and Viet Nam have similar incomes, but Viet Nam has done much more to translate that income into human development. Similarly, Jamaica has achieved a much better HDI than Morocco with about the same income.

Swaziland achieves the same HDI as Botswana with less than two-thirds of the income, and the same is true of the Philippines and Thailand. So with the right policies, countries can advance human development even with low incomes.

Most regions have seen steady progress in HDI over the past 20 years, with East Asia and the Pacific performing particularly well in the 1990s. Arab States have also seen substantial growth, exceeding the average in-

crease for developing countries. Sub-Saharan Africa, by contrast, has been almost stagnant—on par with South Asia in 1985, it has fallen far behind. Two groups of countries have suffered such setbacks: CIS countries going through what has become for many a long, painful transition to market economies, and poor African countries whose development has been hindered or reversed for a variety of reasons—including HIV/AIDS and internal and external conflicts.

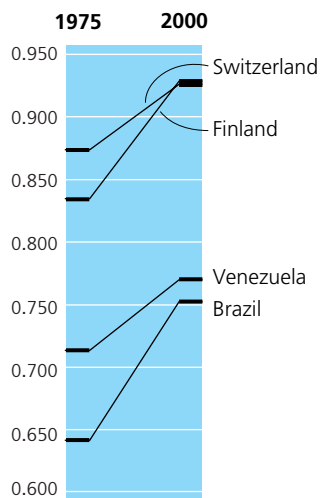
Although the HDI is a useful starting point, it omits vital aspects of human development, notably the ability to participate in the decisions that affect one's life. A person can be rich, healthy and well-educated, but without this ability human development is held back.

The omission of dimensions of freedoms from the HDI has been highlighted since the first *Human Development Reports*—and drove the creation of a human freedom index (HFI) in 1991 and a political freedom index (PFI) in 1992. Neither measure survived past its first year, testament to the difficulty of adequately capturing in a single index such complex aspects of human development. But that does not mean that indicators of political and civil freedoms can be ignored entirely in considering the state of a country's human development.

When indicators of democracy and participation are considered alongside the HDI, some different stories emerge. Greece and Singapore rank closely on the HDI, but when democratic participation is also considered Greece does considerably better. The same applies to Belarus and the Russian Federation, with the Russian Federation receiving better democracy scores—measuring its democratic achievements (see indicator table 1 and appendix table A1.1).

There is no simple relationship between the HDI and democracy, although the countries with the highest levels of democracy also have relatively high HDIs. Chapter 2 examines the relationship in detail and finds

Different paths in HDI



Source: Indicator table 2.

HDI, HPI-1, HPI-2, GDI—same components, different measurements

Index	Longevity	Knowledge	Decent standard of living	Participation or exclusion
HDI	Life expectancy at birth	1. Adult literacy rate 2. Combined enrolment ratio	GDP per capita (PPP US\$)	—
HPI-1	Probability at birth of not surviving to age 40	Adult illiteracy rate	Deprivation in economic provisioning, measured by: 1. Percentage of people not using improved water sources 2. Percentage of children under five who are underweight	—
HPI-2	Probability at birth of not surviving to age 60	Percentage of adults lacking functional literacy skills	Percentage of people living below the income poverty line (50% of median disposable household income)	Long-term unemployment rate (12 months or more)
GDI	Female and male life expectancy at birth	1. Female and male adult literacy rates 2. Female and male combined primary, secondary and tertiary enrolment ratios	Estimated female and male earned income, reflecting women's and men's command over resources	—

that there is no automatic link between democracy and development.

Human poverty index

While the HDI measures overall progress in a country in achieving human development, the human poverty index (HPI) reflects the distribution of progress and measures the backlog of deprivations that still exists. The HPI measures deprivation in the same dimensions of basic human development as the HDI.

HPI-1

The HPI-1 measures poverty in developing countries. It focuses on deprivations in three dimensions: longevity, as measured by the probability at birth of not surviving to age 40; knowledge, as measured by the adult illiteracy rate; and overall economic provisioning, public and private, as measured by the percentage of people not using improved water sources and the percentage of children under five who are underweight.

HPI-2

Because human deprivation varies with the social and economic conditions of a community, a separate index, the HPI-2, has been devised to measure human poverty in selected OECD countries, drawing on the greater availability of data. The HPI-2 focuses on deprivation in the same three dimensions as the HPI-1 and one additional one, social exclusion. The indicators are the probability at birth of not surviving to age 60, the adult functional illiteracy rate, the percentage of people living below the income poverty line (with disposable household income less than 50% of the median) and the long-term unemployment rate (12 months or more).

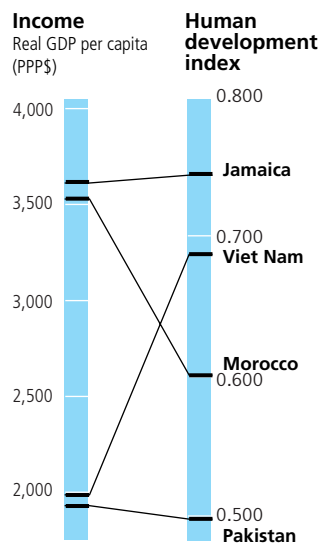
Gender-related development index

The gender-related development index (GDI) measures achievements in the same dimensions as the HDI, but captures inequalities in achievement between women and men. It is simply the HDI adjusted downward for gender inequality. The greater is the gender disparity in basic human development, the lower is a country's GDI compared with its HDI.

Gender empowerment measure

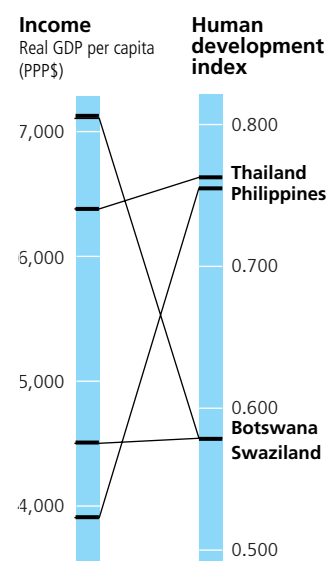
The gender empowerment measure (GEM) reveals whether women can take active part in economic and political life. It focuses on participation, measuring gender inequality in key areas of economic and political participation and decision-making. It tracks the percentages of women in parliament, among legislators, senior officials and managers and among professional and technical workers—and the gender disparity in earned income, reflecting economic independence. Differing from the GDI, it exposes inequality in opportunities in selected areas.

Same income, different HDI



Source: Indicator table 1.

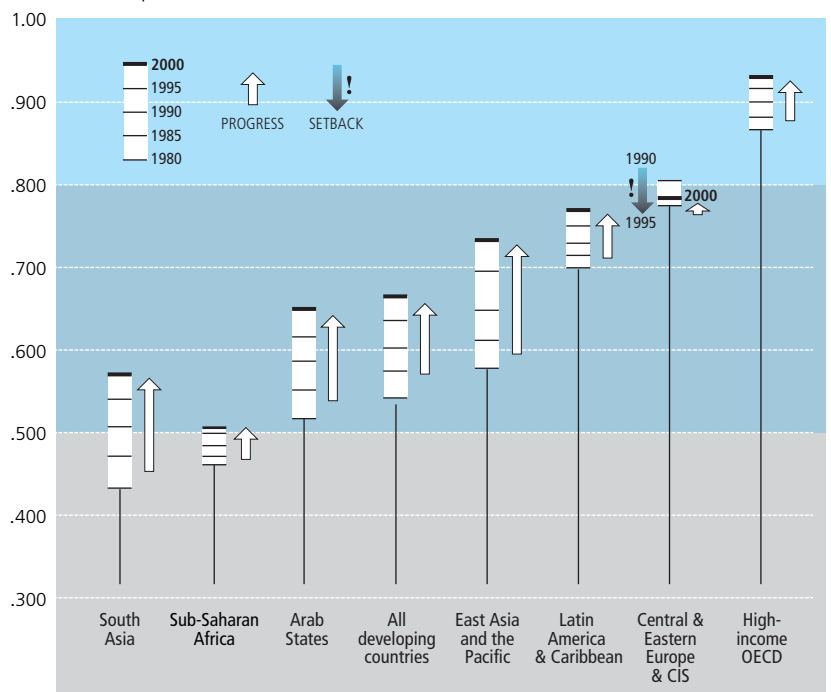
Same HDI, different income



Source: Indicator table 1.

Global disparities in HDI

Human development index



Source: Human Development Report Office calculations based on indicator table 2.

GAUGING GOVERNANCE: MEASURES OF DEMOCRACY AND POLITICAL AND CIVIL RIGHTS

Many indicators aim to show the extent of democracy or political and civil rights in countries. But—unlike for income, health and education—there is no unambiguous, uncontroversial measure. Researchers have two options, both with drawbacks. They can use objective measures, such as voter turnout or the existence of competitive elections, or subjective measures based on expert opinions about a country's degree of democracy (see tables below for summaries of some objective and subjective governance indicators, and appendix tables A1.1 and A1.2 for comprehensive country data).

Objective measures may not reflect all aspects of democracy. In some cases a country may hold elections without their ever resulting in a change in power. In others there are changes in power, but civil liberties such as press freedoms may be curtailed. Truly democratic governance requires widespread, substantive participation—and accountability of people holding power. Objective measures fail to capture such concepts. Subjective measures should, in principle, capture more of what is meant by the concept of democracy. But being subjective, they are open to disagreement and perception biases.

Several subjective indices cover a large portion of the world's countries; this Report mainly relies on three. Though useful for summarizing general trends, they are subjective and open to dispute.

They therefore should not be taken as authoritative but as giving a general indication of progress.

The Polity IV dataset, developed at the University of Maryland's Center for International Development and Conflict Management, compiles annual information on regime and authority characteristics for most of the world's independent states. Autocracy is defined as a political system where citizens' participation is sharply restricted, chief executives are selected from the political elite and there are few institutional constraints on the exercise of power. Democracy is defined as a system with institutionalized procedures for open and competitive political participation, competitively elected chief executives and substantial limits on the powers of the chief executive. Each country's polity score is based on a linear scale from autocracy to democracy. This indicator measures the institutional factors necessary for democracy—whether laws and institutions allow democratic participation—but not the actual extent of political participation. The database includes scores going back to 1975 and is therefore useful for mapping trends over time.

Freedom House surveys political rights and civil liberties around the world. It defines political rights as the freedoms that enable people to participate freely in the political process, and civil liberties as the freedom to develop views, institutions and personal autonomy apart from the

state. In 1997 Freedom House published an assessment of freedom of the press, taking into account freedoms in law and in practice, freedom from political and economic influences on media content and violations of freedoms such as arrests or murders of journalists. Its surveys rely on a wide range of sources—including foreign and domestic news reports, publications by non-governmental organizations, think tank and academic analyses and professional contacts. Wide country coverage and data for many countries going back to 1980 and earlier makes this the only database able to provide global trends on press freedom.

A World Bank team has constructed six aggregate indices based on numerous indicators from more than a dozen sources. The indicators are combined in different groupings to create aggregate indices for democracy (titled "voice and accountability"), political instability and violence, rule of law, graft (corruption), government effectiveness and regulatory burden. The voice and accountability index, used in chapter 2, combines several indicators of the political process, including the selection of governments, with indicators of civil liberties and political rights, and press freedom and independence. This index does not include long time trends but it is better at distinguishing between developing countries than are other measures.

Objective indicators of governance

Indicator	Source
Date of most recent election	Inter-Parliamentary Union
Voter turnout	Inter-Parliamentary Union
Year women received right to vote	Inter-Parliamentary Union
Seats in parliament held by women	Inter-Parliamentary Union
Trade union membership	Inter-Parliamentary Union
Non-governmental organizations	Yearbook of International Organizations
Ratification of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights	UN Treaty Section
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Recognizing that, in accordance with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the ideal of free human beings enjoying civil and political freedom and freedom from fear and want can be achieved only if conditions allow all people to enjoy their civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights 	
Ratification of Freedom of Association and Collective Bargaining Convention 87	UN Treaty Section
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The International Labour Organization declares "recognition of the principle of freedom of association" to be a means of improving conditions for workers and establishing peace 	

Subjective indicators of governance

Indicator	Source	Concept measured	Methodology	Range
Polity score	Polity IV dataset University Of Maryland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Competitiveness of chief executive recruitment Openness of chief executive recruitment Constraints on chief executive Regulation of participation Regulation of executive recruitment Competitiveness of participation 	In-house expert opinion	-10 (less democratic) to 10 (most democratic)
Civil liberties	Freedom House	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Freedom of expression and belief Freedom of association and organizational rights Rule of law and human rights Personal autonomy and economic rights 	In-house expert opinion	1.0–2.5 free 3.0–5.0 partly free 6.0–7.0 not free
Political rights	Freedom House	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Free and fair elections for offices with real power Freedom of political organization Significant opposition Freedom from domination by powerful groups Autonomy or political inclusion of minority groups 	In-house expert opinion	1.0–2.5 free 3.0–5.0 partly free 6.0–7.0 not free
Press freedom	Freedom House	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Media objectivity Freedom of expression 	In-house expert opinion	0–30 free 31–60 partly free 61–100 not free
Voice and accountability	World Bank Governance Indicators Dataset	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Free and fair elections Freedom of the press Civil liberties Political rights Military in politics Change in government Transparency Business is kept informed of developments in laws and policies Business can express its concerns over changes in laws and policies 	Aggregate of a variety of sources including Freedom House and International Country Risk Guide	-2.5 to 2.5; higher is better
Political stability and lack of violence	World Bank Governance Indicators Dataset	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Perceptions of the likelihood of destabilization (ethnic tensions, armed conflict, social unrest, terrorist threat, internal conflict, fractionalization of the political spectrum, constitutional changes, military coups) 	Aggregate of a variety of sources including the Economist Intelligence Unit, PRS Group and Business Environment Risk Intelligence	-2.5 to 2.5; higher is better
Law and order	International Country Risk Guide	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Legal impartiality Popular observance of the law 	In-house expert opinion	0–6; higher is better
Rule of law	World Bank Governance Indicators Dataset	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Black markets Enforceability of private and government contracts Corruption in banking Crime and theft as obstacles to businesses Losses from and costs of crime Unpredictability of the judiciary 	Aggregate of a variety of sources including PRS Group and Economist Intelligence Unit	-2.5 to 2.5; higher is better
Government effectiveness	World Bank Governance Indicators Dataset	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Bureaucratic quality Transactions costs Quality of public health care Government stability 	Aggregate of a variety of sources including PRS Group, Freedom House, and Business Environment Risk Intelligence	-2.5 to 2.5; higher is better
Corruption Perceptions Index	Transparency International	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Official corruption as perceived by businesspeople, academics and risk analysts 	In-country surveys of experts	0–10; higher is better
Graft (corruption)	World Bank Governance Indicators Dataset	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Corruption among public officials Corruption as an obstacle to business Frequency of “irregular payments” to officials and judiciary Perceptions of corruption in civil service. Business interest payment 	Aggregate of a variety of sources including Freedom House, Economist Intelligence Unit and Business Environment Risk Intelligence	-2.5 to 2.5; higher is better

Source: Marshall and Jagers 2000; Freedom House 2000, 2002; Kaufmann, Kraay and Zoido-Lobaton 2002; PRS Group 2001; Transparency International 2001; IPU 1995, 2002; ILO 1997; UIA 2000; UN 2002a.

A1.1 Subjective indicators of governance

HDI rank	Rule of law and government effectiveness											
	Democracy				Voice and accountability ^{d, e} 2000–01 (–2.50 to 2.50)	Political stability and lack of violence ^d 2000–01 (–2.50 to 2.50)	Law and order ^f 2001 (0 to 6)	Rule of law ^d 2000–01 (–2.50 to 2.50)	Government effectiveness ^d 2000–01 (–2.50 to 2.50)	Corruption		
	Polity score ^a 2000 (–10 to 10)	Civil liberties ^b 2000 (7 to 1)	Political rights ^b 2000 (7 to 1)	Press freedom ^c 2000 (100 to 0)						Corruption Perceptions Index ^g 2001 (0 to 10)	Graft (corruption) ^d 2000–01 (–2.50 to 2.50)	
High human development												
1	Norway	10	1	1	5	1.58	1.32	6.0	1.70	1.35	8.6	1.76
2	Sweden	10	1	1	10	1.65	1.38	6.0	1.70	1.51	9.0	2.21
3	Canada	10	1	1	15	1.33	1.24	6.0	1.70	1.71	8.9	2.05
4	Belgium	10	2	1	9	1.24	0.87	5.0	1.34	1.29	6.6	1.05
5	Australia	10	1	1	10	1.70	1.26	6.0	1.69	1.58	8.5	1.75
6	United States	10	1	1	15	1.24	1.18	6.0	1.58	1.58	7.6	1.45
7	Iceland	10	1	1	12	1.53	1.57	6.0	1.77	1.93	9.2	2.16
8	Netherlands	10	1	1	15	1.61	1.48	6.0	1.67	1.84	8.8	2.09
9	Japan	10	2	1	23	1.03	1.20	5.0	1.59	0.93	7.1	1.20
10	Finland	10	1	1	14	1.69	1.61	6.0	1.83	1.67	9.9	2.25
11	Switzerland	10	1	1	8	1.73	1.61	5.0	1.91	1.93	8.4	1.91
12	France	9	2	1	21	1.11	1.04	5.0	1.22	1.24	6.7	1.15
13	United Kingdom	10	2	1	17	1.46	1.10	6.0	1.61	1.77	8.3	1.86
14	Denmark	10	1	1	9	1.60	1.34	6.0	1.71	1.62	9.5	2.09
15	Austria	10	1	1	14	1.34	1.27	6.0	1.86	1.51	7.8	1.56
16	Luxembourg	10	1	1	10	1.41	1.48	6.0	1.86	1.86	8.7	1.78
17	Germany	10	2	1	13	1.42	1.21	5.0	1.57	1.67	7.4	1.38
18	Ireland	10	1	1	18	1.57	1.24	6.0	1.54	1.79	7.5	1.16
19	New Zealand	10	1	1	8	1.59	1.21	6.0	1.71	1.27	9.4	2.09
20	Italy	10	2	1	27	1.10	0.82	6.0	0.72	0.68	5.5	0.63
21	Spain	10	2	1	20	1.15	1.01	4.0	1.12	1.57	7.0	1.45
22	Israel	10	3	1	30	0.98	–0.54	5.0	0.94	0.87	7.6	1.12
23	Hong Kong, China (SAR)	..	3	5	..	–0.33	1.13	4.0	1.37	1.10	7.9	1.16
24	Greece	10	3	1	30	1.12	0.79	3.0	0.62	0.65	4.2	0.73
25	Singapore	–2	5	5	68	0.11	1.44	6.0	1.85	2.16	9.2	2.13
26	Cyprus	10	1	1	18	1.28	0.48	5.0	0.96	0.91	..	1.24
27	Korea, Rep. of	8	2	2	27	0.98	0.50	4.0	0.55	0.44	4.2	0.37
28	Portugal	10	1	1	17	1.42	1.41	5.0	0.94	0.91	6.3	1.21
29	Slovenia	10	2	1	21	1.07	0.87	5.0	0.89	0.70	5.2	1.09
30	Malta	..	1	1	14	1.43	1.05	5.0	0.68	0.73	..	0.13
31	Barbados	..	1	1	16	1.27	1.16
32	Brunei Darussalam	..	5	7	74	–0.93	0.86	6.0	1.29	0.88	..	–0.17
33	Czech Republic	10	2	1	24	1.04	0.74	5.0	0.64	0.58	3.9	0.31
34	Argentina	8	2	1	33	0.57	0.55	4.0	0.22	0.18	3.5	–0.36
35	Hungary	10	2	1	28	1.19	0.75	4.0	0.76	0.60	5.3	0.65
36	Slovakia	9	2	1	26	0.99	0.62	4.0	0.36	0.23	3.7	0.23
37	Poland	9	2	1	19	1.21	0.69	4.0	0.55	0.27	4.1	0.43
38	Chile	9	2	2	27	0.63	0.87	5.0	1.19	1.13	7.5	1.40
39	Bahrain	–9	6	7	75	–0.96	–0.04	5.0	0.42	0.62	..	0.04
40	Uruguay	10	1	1	30	1.08	1.05	2.5	0.63	0.61	5.1	0.71
41	Bahamas	..	1	1	7	1.15	0.68	4.0	0.85	1.04	..	0.74
42	Estonia	6	2	1	20	0.94	0.73	4.0	0.78	0.86	5.6	0.73
43	Costa Rica	10	2	1	16	1.37	1.08	4.0	0.61	0.74	4.5	0.87
44	Saint Kitts and Nevis	..	2	1	18
45	Kuwait	–7	5	4	48	0.08	0.64	5.0	1.10	0.13	..	0.59
46	United Arab Emirates	–8	5	6	76	–0.51	1.09	4.0	1.12	0.60	..	0.13
47	Seychelles	..	3	3	51
48	Croatia	7	3	2	50	0.48	0.18	5.0	0.29	0.10	3.9	0.02
49	Lithuania	10	2	1	20	1.00	0.29	4.0	0.29	0.26	4.8	0.20
50	Trinidad and Tobago	10	2	2	28	0.61	0.27	4.0	0.41	0.62	5.3	0.49

A1.1 Subjective indicators of governance

HDI rank	Rule of law and government effectiveness											
	Democracy					Rule of law and government effectiveness						
	Polity score ^a	Civil liberties ^b	Political rights ^b	Press freedom ^c	Voice and accountability ^{d, e}	Political stability and lack of violence ^d	Law and order ^f	Rule of law ^d	Government effectiveness ^d	Corruption Perceptions Index ^g	Graft (corruption) ^d	
	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000–01	2000–01	2001	2000–01	2000–01	2001	2000–01	
	(–10 to 10)	(7 to 1)	(7 to 1)	(100 to 0)	(–2.50 to 2.50)	(–2.50 to 2.50)	(0 to 6)	(–2.50 to 2.50)	(–2.50 to 2.50)	(0 to 10)	(–2.50 to 2.50)	
51	Qatar	–10	6	6	62	–0.54	1.40	6.0	1.00	0.82	..	0.57
52	Antigua and Barbuda	..	2	4	46
53	Latvia	8	2	1	24	0.81	0.50	5.0	0.36	0.22	3.4	–0.03
Medium human development												
54	Mexico	8	3	2	46	0.12	0.06	2.0	–0.41	0.28	3.7	–0.28
55	Cuba	–7	7	7	94	–1.49	0.07	4.0	–0.32	–0.22	..	–0.12
56	Belarus	–7	6	6	80	–1.04	0.04	4.0	–0.81	–0.99	..	–0.06
57	Panama	9	2	1	30	0.77	0.57	3.0	–0.12	–0.14	3.7	–0.45
58	Belize	..	1	1	25	1.01	0.32	..	0.74	0.55	..	0.48
59	Malaysia	3	5	5	70	–0.13	0.31	3.0	0.34	0.53	5.0	0.13
60	Russian Federation	7	5	5	60	–0.35	–0.41	3.0	–0.87	–0.57	2.3	–1.01
61	Dominica	..	1	1	16
62	Bulgaria	8	3	2	26	0.59	0.37	4.0	0.02	–0.26	3.9	–0.16
63	Romania	8	2	2	44	0.50	–0.08	4.0	–0.02	–0.54	2.8	–0.51
64	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	–7	7	7	90	–1.35	–0.38	4.0	–0.89	–1.12	..	–0.90
65	Macedonia, TFYR	6	3	4	44	0.03	–1.45	..	–0.33	–0.63	..	–0.51
66	Saint Lucia	..	2	1	13
67	Mauritius	10	2	1	17	1.27	1.12	..	1.00	0.76	4.5	0.49
68	Colombia	7	4	4	60	–0.41	–1.36	1.0	–0.77	–0.38	3.8	–0.39
69	Venezuela	7	5	3	34	–0.34	–0.33	2.0	–0.81	–0.81	2.8	–0.59
70	Thailand	9	3	2	29	0.37	0.21	5.0	0.44	0.10	3.2	–0.46
71	Saudi Arabia	–10	7	7	92	–1.07	0.51	5.0	0.19	0.00	..	–0.35
72	Fiji	.. ^h	3	6	44	0.05	0.39	..	–0.52	0.38	..	1.01
73	Brazil	8	3	3	31	0.53	0.47	2.0	–0.26	–0.27	4.0	–0.02
74	Suriname	..	2	1	28	0.63	0.12	3.0	–0.59	0.10	..	0.13
75	Lebanon	.. ⁱ	5	6	61	–0.32	–0.55	4.0	–0.05	–0.02	..	–0.63
76	Armenia	5	4	4	59	–0.22	–0.84	3.0	–0.35	–1.03	..	–0.80
77	Philippines	8	3	2	30	0.53	–0.21	2.0	–0.49	0.03	2.9	–0.49
78	Oman	–9	5	6	71	–0.50	1.00	5.0	1.06	0.85	..	0.44
79	Kazakhstan	–4	5	6	70	–0.80	0.29	4.0	–0.60	–0.61	2.7	–0.83
80	Ukraine	7	4	4	60	–0.31	–0.59	4.0	–0.63	–0.75	2.1	–0.90
81	Georgia	5	4	4	53	–0.07	–1.00	..	–0.43	–0.72	..	–0.69
82	Peru	.. ^h	3	3	54	0.15	–0.23	3.0	–0.53	–0.35	4.1	–0.04
83	Grenada	..	2	1	20
84	Maldives	..	5	6	65	–0.81
85	Turkey	7	5	4	58	–0.55	–0.75	4.0	–0.16	–0.15	3.6	–0.48
86	Jamaica	9	2	2	11	0.78	0.35	2.0	–0.38	–0.30	..	–0.06
87	Turkmenistan	–9	7	7	89	–1.42	0.11	..	–1.02	–1.23	..	–1.12
88	Azerbaijan	–7	5	6	76	–0.70	–0.70	4.0	–0.78	–0.95	2.0	–1.05
89	Sri Lanka	5	4	3	74	–0.23	–1.63	3.0	–0.31	–0.44	..	0.00
90	Paraguay	7	3	4	51	–0.70	–0.87	3.0	–0.83	–1.20	..	–0.97
91	St. Vincent & the Grenadines	..	1	2	16
92	Albania	5	5	4	56	0.01	–0.60	2.0	–0.71	–0.89	..	–0.60
93	Ecuador	6	3	3	40	–0.14	–0.80	3.0	–0.76	–0.94	2.3	–0.98
94	Dominican Republic	8	2	2	30	0.42	0.46	2.0	0.01	–0.24	3.1	–0.20
95	Uzbekistan	–9	6	7	84	–1.18	–1.17	..	–0.71	–0.86	2.7	–0.66
96	China	–7	6	7	80	–1.11	0.39	4.0	–0.19	0.14	3.5	–0.30
97	Tunisia	–3	5	6	74	–0.61	0.82	5.0	0.81	1.30	5.3	0.86
98	Iran, Islamic Rep. of	3	6	6	72	–0.36	0.02	4.0	–0.39	–0.21	..	–0.64
99	Jordan	–2	4	4	60	0.10	0.13	4.0	0.66	0.42	4.9	0.09
100	Cape Verde	..	2	1	32	0.92	0.15

A1.1 Subjective indicators of governance

HDI rank	Rule of law and government effectiveness										
	Democracy					Rule of law and government effectiveness					
	Polity score ^a 2000 (-10 to 10)	Civil liberties ^b 2000 (7 to 1)	Political rights ^b 2000 (7 to 1)	Press freedom ^c 2000 (100 to 0)	Voice and accountability ^{d, e} 2000-01 (-2.50 to 2.50)	Political stability and lack of violence ^d 2000-01 (-2.50 to 2.50)	Law and order ^f 2001 (0 to 6)	Rule of law ^d 2000-01 (-2.50 to 2.50)	Government effectiveness ^d 2000-01 (-2.50 to 2.50)	Corruption Perceptions Index ^g 2001 (0 to 10)	Graft (corruption) ^d 2000-01 (-2.50 to 2.50)
101	Samoa (Western)	..	2	2	21	0.49
102	Kyrgyzstan	-3	5	6	61	-0.57	-0.32	-0.72	-0.61	..	-0.85
103	Guyana	6	2	2	22	0.94	-0.70	4.0	0.13	0.02	-0.45
104	El Salvador	7	3	2	37	0.21	0.62	3.0	-0.65	-0.25	3.6
105	Moldova, Rep. of	7	4	2	59	0.12	-0.29	5.0	-0.42	-1.10	3.1
106	Algeria	-3	5	6	74	-1.19	-1.27	2.0	-0.97	-0.81	..
107	South Africa	9	2	1	23	1.17	0.07	2.0	-0.05	0.25	4.8
108	Syrian Arab Republic	-7	7	7	71	-1.40	-0.28	5.0	-0.52	-0.81	..
109	Viet Nam	-7	6	7	80	-1.29	0.44	4.0	-0.57	-0.30	2.6
110	Indonesia	7	4	3	47	-0.40	-1.56	2.0	-0.87	-0.50	1.9
111	Equatorial Guinea	-5	7	7	79	-1.30	-1.20
112	Tajikistan	-1	6	6	79	-0.69	-1.77	..	-1.25	-1.31	..
113	Mongolia	10	3	2	28	0.73	0.72	4.0	0.42	0.39	..
114	Bolivia	9	3	1	22	0.27	-0.61	3.0	-0.41	-0.47	2.0
115	Egypt	-6	5	6	69	-0.65	0.21	4.0	0.21	0.27	3.6
116	Honduras	7	3	3	45	-0.04	0.25	1.0	-1.06	-0.58	2.7
117	Gabon	-4	4	5	55	-0.40	-0.44	3.0	-0.44	-0.45	..
118	Nicaragua	8	3	3	40	-0.06	0.31	4.0	-0.79	-0.73	2.4
119	São Tomé and Príncipe	..	2	1	25	1.00
120	Guatemala	8	4	3	49	-0.33	-0.77	2.0	-1.00	-0.63	2.9
121	Solomon Islands	..	4	4	22	0.16
122	Namibia	6	3	2	34	0.32	-0.52	6.0	1.24	0.60	5.4
123	Morocco	-6	4	5	53	-0.23	0.16	6.0	0.46	0.10	..
124	India	9	3	2	42	0.66	-0.05	4.0	0.23	-0.17	2.7
125	Swaziland	-9	5	6	77	-0.93	0.15
126	Botswana	9	2	2	27	0.80	0.71	3.5	0.68	0.83	6.0
127	Myanmar	-7	7	7	100	-1.93	-1.20	3.0	-1.02	-1.25	..
128	Zimbabwe	-5	5	6	69	-0.90	-1.25	0.5	-0.94	-1.03	2.9
129	Ghana	2	3	2	55	0.02	-0.11	2.0	-0.08	-0.06	3.4
130	Cambodia	2	6	6	61	-0.77	-0.13	..	-0.38	0.34	..
131	Vanuatu	..	3	1	37
132	Lesotho	.. ^h	4	4	52	-0.15	-0.19
133	Papua New Guinea	10	3	2	29	-0.03	-0.48	2.0	-0.28	-0.67	..
134	Kenya	-2	5	6	70	-0.68	-0.83	2.0	-1.21	-0.76	2.0
135	Cameroon	-4	6	7	71	-0.82	-0.13	2.0	-1.02	-0.40	2.0
136	Congo	-6	4	6	71	-1.38	-1.36	2.0	-1.11	-1.58	..
137	Comoros	-1	4	6	38	-0.35
Low human development											
138	Pakistan	-6	5	6	57	-1.43	-0.39	3.0	-0.74	-0.48	2.3
139	Sudan	-7	7	7	85	-1.53	-2.01	2.0	-1.04	-1.34	..
140	Bhutan	-8	6	7	76	-1.27
141	Togo	-2	5	5	72	-1.06	-0.62	3.0	-0.82	-1.32	..
142	Nepal	6	4	3	57	-0.06	-0.26	..	-0.65	-1.04	..
143	Lao People's Dem. Rep.	-7	6	7	69	-1.05	0.00	..	-0.72	-0.39	..
144	Yemen	-2	6	5	69	-0.63	-1.07	2.0	-1.12	-0.77	..
145	Bangladesh	6	4	3	60	-0.20	-0.57	2.0	-0.76	-0.54	0.4
146	Haiti	-2	5	6	59	-0.80	-0.38	2.0	-1.45	-1.32	..
147	Madagascar	7	4	2	32	0.28	-0.34	3.0	-0.68	-0.35	..
148	Nigeria	4	4	4	55	-0.44	-1.36	2.0	-1.13	-1.00	1.0
149	Djibouti	2	5	4	63	-0.44	-0.19
150	Uganda	-4	5	6	40	-0.79	-1.31	4.0	-0.65	-0.32	1.9

A1.1 Subjective indicators of governance

HDI rank	Rule of law and government effectiveness											
	Democracy				Voice and accountability ^{d, e}	Political stability and lack of violence ^d	Law and order ^f	Government		Corruption		
	Polity score ^a	Civil liberties ^b	Political rights ^b	Press freedom ^c				Rule of law ^d	effectiveness ^d	Corruption Perceptions Index ^g	Graft (corruption) ^d	
	2000 (-10 to 10)	2000 (7 to 1)	2000 (7 to 1)	2000 (100 to 0)	2000–01 (-2.50 to 2.50)	2000–01 (-2.50 to 2.50)	2001 (0 to 6)	2000–01 (-2.50 to 2.50)	2000–01 (-2.50 to 2.50)	2001 (0 to 10)	2000–01 (-2.50 to 2.50)	
151	Tanzania, U. Rep. of	2	4	4	49	-0.07	-0.34	5.0	0.16	-0.43	2.2	-0.92
152	Mauritania	-6	5	6	67	-0.59	-0.87	..	-0.57	-0.66	..	-0.97
153	Zambia	1	4	5	62	-0.17	-0.42	4.0	-0.39	-0.75	2.6	-0.87
154	Senegal	8	4	3	34	0.12	-0.68	3.0	-0.13	0.16	2.9	-0.39
155	Congo, Dem. Rep. of the	.. ^j	6	7	83	-1.70	-2.59 ^k	1.0	-2.09	-1.38	..	-1.24
156	Côte d'Ivoire	4	5	6	77	-1.19	-0.95	2.5	-0.54	-0.81	2.4	-0.71
157	Eritrea	-6	5	7	68	-1.04	-0.38	..	-0.43	-0.97
158	Benin	6	2	2	30	0.47	-0.72	..	-0.57	0.12
159	Guinea	-1	5	6	71	-0.98	-0.99	3.0	-0.59	0.41	..	0.13
160	Gambia	-5	5	7	70	-0.73	0.49	5.0	0.00	0.41	..	0.13
161	Angola	-3	6	6	80	-1.26	-1.98	3.0	-1.49	-1.31	..	-1.14
162	Rwanda	-4	6	7	72	-1.42	-1.16	..	-1.17	0.35
163	Malawi	7	3	3	52	-0.14	0.03	3.5	-0.36	-0.77	3.2	0.10
164	Mali	6	3	2	22	0.32	-0.13	3.0	-0.66	-1.44	..	-0.41
165	Central African Republic	6	4	3	61	-0.59
166	Chad	-2	5	6	72	-0.88	-0.86
167	Guinea-Bissau	6	5	4	56	-0.87	-1.21	1.0	-1.50	-1.48	..	0.10
168	Ethiopia	1	5	5	64	-0.85	-0.55	5.0	-0.24	-1.01	..	-0.40
169	Burkina Faso	-3	4	4	39	-0.26	-0.54	4.0	-0.79	-0.02	..	-0.93
170	Mozambique	6	4	3	48	-0.22	0.20	3.0	-0.32	-0.49	..	0.10
171	Burundi	-1	6	6	80	-1.35	-1.54	..	-1.07	-1.14	..	-1.40
172	Niger	4	4	4	62	0.11	-0.61	2.0	-1.17	-1.16	..	-1.09
173	Sierra Leone	.. ^j	5	4	75	-1.35	-1.26	3.0	-0.38	-1.60	..	-0.45

Note: The data in this table are subjective measures of governance and thus are open to dispute and should not be taken as authoritative. The measures are from a variety of institutions and are based on different methodologies and scoring systems. Thus higher numbers may reflect better or worse scores, depending on the measure. The range of scores for each measure is shown in the column heading, with the first number representing the worst score. The indicators in no way reflect the official position of UNDP. For more details on definitions and methodologies see appendix A1.1. Data for a range of years were collected in both years shown.

a. Developed by the University of Maryland's Polity IV project, this measure reflects the presence of institutional factors necessary for democracy—whether laws and institutions allow democratic participation—but not the extent of political participation. Scores range from -10 (authoritarian) to 10 (democratic).

b. Freedom House designates countries with an average score for civil liberties and political rights between 1 and 2.5 as free, those with a score between 3 and 5 as partly free and those with a score between 6 and 7 as not free. Countries with an average score of 5.5 could be classified as either partly free or not free, depending on the underlying data used to determine their civil liberties and political rights scores.

c. Freedom House designates countries with a score between 0 and 30 as having a free press, those with a score between 31 and 60 as having a press that is partly free and and those with a score between 61 and 100 as having a press that is not free.

d. This indicator, developed in World Bank research, is based on a statistical compilation of perceptions of the quality of governance. The data are from a survey covering a large number of respondents in industrial and developing countries as well as non-governmental organizations, commercial risk rating agencies and think tanks. The measures in no way reflect the official position of the World Bank, the supplier of these data. Estimates are subject to a large margin of error. For further details on methodology see appendix A1.1 and Kaufmann, Kraay and Zoido-Lobaton (2002). The index ranges from around -2.50 to around 2.50 (higher is better).

e. The voice and accountability index combines several indicators of the political process (including the selection of governments) with indicators of civil liberties, political rights and press freedom and independence.

f. The law and order measure, from the *International Country Risk Guide*, ranges from 0 to 6 (higher is better).

g. Transparency International's Corruption Perceptions Index ranges from 0 to 10 (higher is better).

h. Country is in a transitional period in which new institutions are being planned, legally constituted and put into effect.

i. Country is occupied by a foreign power.

j. Country has had a complete collapse of its central political authority.

k. Score falls outside the approximate range specified in the column heading.

Source: Column 1: Polity IV 2002; columns 2 and 3: Freedom House 2001; column 4: Freedom House 2000; columns 5, 6, 8, 9 and 11: World Bank 2001c; column 7: PRS Group 2001; column 10: Transparency International 2001.

A1.2 Objective indicators of governance

HDI rank	Participation				Civil society		Ratification of rights instruments ^e		
	Latest election for lower or single house ^a		Year women received right to vote ^b	Seats in parliament held by women (as % of total) ^c	Trade union membership (as % of non-agricultural labour force) ^d		International Convention on Civil and Political Rights	Freedom of association and collective bargaining convention 87	
	Year	Voter turnout (%)			1995	Non-governmental organizations 2000			
High human development									
1	Norway	2001	74	1907, 1913	36.4	52	2,571	●	●
2	Sweden	1998	81	1861, 1921	42.7	77 ^f	2,975	●	●
3	Canada	2000	61	1917, 1950	23.6	31 ^f	2,329	●	●
4	Belgium	1999	91	1919, 1948	24.9	38	3,162	●	●
5	Australia	2001	95	1902, 1962	26.5	29	2,171	●	●
6	United States	2000	51	1920, 1960	13.8	13	2,685	●	
7	Iceland	1999	84	1915	34.9	71 ^f	1,072	●	●
8	Netherlands	1998	73	1919	32.9	22	3,203	●	●
9	Japan	2000	62	1945, 1947	10.0	19	2,122	●	●
10	Finland	1999	65	1906	36.5	60	2,647	●	●
11	Switzerland	1999	43	1971	22.4	20 ^f	2,966	●	●
12	France	1997	71	1944	10.9	6	3,551	●	●
13	United Kingdom	2001	59	1918, 1928	17.1	26	3,388	●	●
14	Denmark	2001	87	1915	38.0	68 ^f	2,806	●	●
15	Austria	1999	80	1918	25.1	37	2,684	●	●
16	Luxembourg	1999	86	1919	16.7	40	1,175	●	●
17	Germany	1998	82	1918	31.0	30	3,505	●	●
18	Ireland	1997	66	1918, 1928	13.7	36 ^f	1,996	●	●
19	New Zealand	1999	90	1893	30.8	23	1,478	●	
20	Italy	2001	81	1945	9.1	31 ^f	3,257	●	●
21	Spain	2000	71	1931	26.6	11 ^f	3,116	●	●
22	Israel	1999	79	1948	13.3	23	1,800	●	●
23	Hong Kong, China (SAR)	18 ^f	1,130	–	–
24	Greece	2000	76	1927, 1952	8.7	15	2,137	●	●
25	Singapore	2001	95	1947	11.8	14	1,039		
26	Cyprus	2001	91	1960	10.7	54	783	●	●
27	Korea, Rep. of	2000	57	1948	5.9	9	1,315	●	
28	Portugal	1999	62	1931, 1976	18.7	19	2,289	●	●
29	Slovenia	2000	70	1945	12.2	..	1,197	●	●
30	Malta	1998	95	1947	9.2	58 ^f	636	●	●
31	Barbados	1999	63	1950	20.4	..	346	●	●
32	Brunei Darussalam	– ^g	– ^g	– ^{g,h}	– ^g	..	184		
33	Czech Republic	1998	74	1920	14.2	36	1,891	●	●
34	Argentina	2001	75	1947	31.3	25	1,666	●	●
35	Hungary	1998	56	1918	8.3	52	2,050	●	●
36	Slovakia	1998	84	1920	14.0	52	1,259	●	●
37	Poland	2001	46	1918	20.7	27	2,084	●	●
38	Chile	2001	87	1931, 1949	10.1	16 ^f	1,262	●	●
39	Bahrain	1973 ⁱ	..	1973 ^{i,j}	– ⁱ	..	288		
40	Uruguay	1999	92	1932	11.5	12 ^f	923	●	●
41	Bahamas	1997	68 ^k	1961, 1964	19.6	..	269		●
42	Estonia	1999	57	1918	17.8	26	897	●	●
43	Costa Rica	2002	70	1949	19.3 ^l	13	772	●	●
44	Saint Kitts and Nevis	2000	64	1951	13.3	..	130		●
45	Kuwait	1999	80	– ^h	0.0	..	499	●	●
46	United Arab Emirates	1997	..	– ^h	0.0	..	452		
47	Seychelles	1998	87	1948	23.5	..	195	●	●
48	Croatia	2000	69	1945	16.2	..	1,148	●	●
49	Lithuania	2000	59	1921	10.6	..	848	●	●
50	Trinidad and Tobago	2001	62	1946	20.9 ^l	..	468	●	●

A1.2 Objective indicators of governance

HDI rank	Participation				Civil society		Ratification of rights instruments ^e		
	Latest election for lower or single house ^a		Seats in parliament held by women (as % of total) ^c		Trade union membership (as % of non-agricultural labour force) ^d	Non-governmental organizations	International Convention on Civil and Political Rights	Freedom of association and collective bargaining convention 87	
	Year	Voter turnout (%)	Year women received right to vote ^b		1995	2000			
51	Qatar	– ^g	– ^g	– ^{g,h}	– ^g	..	220		
52	Antigua and Barbuda	1999	64	1951	8.3	..	171		●
53	Latvia	1998	72	1918	17.0	..	774	●	●
Medium human development									
54	Mexico	2000	64	1947	15.9	31 ^f	1,566	●	●
55	Cuba	1998	98	1934	27.6	..	647		●
56	Belarus	2000	61	1919	18.4	96	474	●	●
57	Panama	1999	76	1941, 1946	9.9	14 ^f	591	●	●
58	Belize	1998	90	1954	13.5	..	212	●	●
59	Malaysia	1999	..	1957	14.5	12	1,065		
60	Russian Federation	1999	62	1918	6.4	75 ^f	1,752	●	●
61	Dominica	2000	60	1951	18.8	..	167	●	●
62	Bulgaria	2001	67	1944	26.2	51 ^f	1,277	●	●
63	Romania	2000	65	1929, 1946	9.3	41 ^f	1,390	●	●
64	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	1997	..	1964	306	●	●
65	Macedonia, TFYR	1998	73	1946	6.7	..	383	●	●
66	Saint Lucia	2001	53	1924	13.8	..	186		●
67	Mauritius	2000	81	1956	5.7	26	444	●	
68	Colombia	1998	45	1954	12.2	7	1,122	●	●
69	Venezuela	2000	56	1946	9.7	15	1,115	●	●
70	Thailand	2001	70	1932	9.6	3	1,028	●	
71	Saudi Arabia	– ^g	– ^g	– ^{g,h}	– ^g	..	688		
72	Fiji	2001	78	1963	343		
73	Brazil	1934	6.7	32 ^f	1,830	●	
74	Suriname	2000	70	1948	17.6	..	203	●	●
75	Lebanon	2000	51	1952	2.3	..	577	●	
76	Armenia	1999	52	1921	3.1	..	287	●	
77	Philippines	2001	79	1937	17.2	23	1,071	●	●
78	Oman	– ^g	– ^g	– ^{g,h}	– ^g	..	232		
79	Kazakhstan	1999	63	1924, 1993	11.2	..	274		●
80	Ukraine	1998	70	1919	7.8	..	890	●	●
81	Georgia	1999	68	1918, 1921	7.2	..	397	●	●
82	Peru	2001	63	1955	18.3	8 ^f	996	●	●
83	Grenada	1999	57	1951	17.9	..	150	●	●
84	Maldives	1999	74	1932	6.0	..	82		
85	Turkey	1999	87	1930	4.2	22	1,420	○	●
86	Jamaica	1997	65	1944	16.0	..	499	●	●
87	Turkmenistan	1999	99	1927	26.0	..	101	●	●
88	Azerbaijan	2000	68	1921	10.5	75	223	●	●
89	Sri Lanka	2001	80	1931	4.4	..	707	●	●
90	Paraguay	1998	80	1961	8.0	9	563	●	●
91	St. Vincent & the Grenadines	2001	69	1951	22.7	..	153	●	●
92	Albania	2001	60	1920	5.7	..	389	●	●
93	Ecuador	1998	..	1929, 1967	14.6	10	728	●	●
94	Dominican Republic	1998	66	1942	14.5	17	519	●	●
95	Uzbekistan	1999	93	1938	7.2	..	216	●	
96	China	1998	..	1949	21.8	55	1,275	○	
97	Tunisia	1999	92	1957, 1959	11.5	10 ^f	748	●	●
98	Iran, Islamic Rep. of	2000	83	1963	3.4	..	1	●	
99	Jordan	1997	47	1974	3.3	..	537	●	
100	Cape Verde	2001	54	1975	11.1	17	120	●	●

A1.2 Objective indicators of governance

HDI rank	Participation				Civil society		Ratification of rights instruments ^e		
	Latest election for lower or single house ^a		Seats in parliament held by women (as % of total) ^c		Trade union membership (as % of non-agricultural labour force) ^d	Non-governmental organizations	International Convention on Civil and Political Rights	Freedom of association and collective bargaining convention 87	
	Year	Voter turnout (%)	Year women received right to vote ^b		1995	2000			
101	Samoa (Western)	2001	86	1990	6.1	..	165		
102	Kyrgyzstan	2000	64	1918	6.7	..	130	●	●
103	Guyana	2001	89	1953	20.0	25 ^m	284	●	●
104	El Salvador	2000	38	1939	9.5	7	460	●	
105	Moldova, Rep. of	2001	70	1978, 1993	12.9	..	276	●	●
106	Algeria	1997	66	1962	4.0	..	663	●	●
107	South Africa	1999	89	1930, 1994	29.8 ⁿ	22	1,590	●	●
108	Syrian Arab Republic	1998	82	1949, 1953	10.4	..	361	●	●
109	Viet Nam	1997	100	1946	26.0	..	437	●	
110	Indonesia	1999	93	1945	8.0	3	1,033		●
111	Equatorial Guinea	1999	95	1963	5.0	..	80	●	●
112	Tajikistan	2000	94	1924	12.4	..	90	●	●
113	Mongolia	2000	82	1924	10.5	..	232	●	●
114	Bolivia	1997	70	1938, 1952	10.2	16 ^f	658	●	●
115	Egypt	2000	48 ^l	1956	2.4	30	1,148	●	●
116	Honduras	2001	73 ^k	1955	5.5	4 ^f	438	●	●
117	Gabon	2001	44	1956	11.0	2	287	●	●
118	Nicaragua	2001	75	1955	20.7	23	408	●	●
119	São Tomé and Príncipe	1998	65	1975	9.1	..	64	○	●
120	Guatemala	1999	54	1946	8.8	4 ^f	587	●	●
121	Solomon Islands	2001	62	1974	0.0		
122	Namibia	1999	63	1989	20.4	22	356	●	●
123	Morocco	1997	58	1963	0.5	5 ^f	817	●	
124	India	1999	60	1950	8.9	5 ^f	1,718	●	
125	Swaziland	1998	..	1968	6.3	19	264		●
126	Botswana	1999	77	1965	17.0	12	356	●	●
127	Myanmar	1990 ^o	..	1935	- ^o	..	207		●
128	Zimbabwe	2000	49	1957	10.0	14	714	●	
129	Ghana	2000	62	1954	9.0	26 ^f	625	●	●
130	Cambodia	1998	..	1955	9.3	..	136	●	●
131	Vanuatu	1998	75	1975, 1980	0.0		
132	Lesotho	1998	74	1965	10.7	..	268	●	●
133	Papua New Guinea	1997	81 ^k	1964	1.8	..	397		●
134	Kenya	1997	65	1919, 1963	3.6	17	822	●	
135	Cameroon	1997	76	1946	5.6	15	567	●	●
136	Congo	1998 ^p	-	1963	12.0	..	303	●	●
137	Comoros	1996 ^q	20 ^q	1956	- ^q	..	84		●
Low human development									
138	Pakistan	1997 ^q	35 ^q	1947	- ^q	6 ^f	873		●
139	Sudan	2000	55 ^l	1964	9.7	..	414	●	
140	Bhutan	- ^r	..	1953	9.3	..	64		
141	Togo	1999	..	1945	4.9	..	364	●	●
142	Nepal	1999	66	1951	7.9 ^l	..	398	●	
143	Lao People's Dem. Rep.	2002	99 ^l	1958	21.2 ^l	..	107	○	
144	Yemen	1997	61	1967 ^s	0.7	..	205	●	●
145	Bangladesh	2001	75	1972	2.0	4	593	●	●
146	Haiti	2000	60	1950	9.1	..	308	●	●
147	Madagascar	1998	..	1959	8.0 ^l	..	369	●	●
148	Nigeria	1999	41	1958	3.3	17 ^f	894	●	●
149	Djibouti	1997	57	1946	0.0	..	130		●
150	Uganda	2001	70	1962	24.7	4	487	●	

A1.2 Objective indicators of governance

HDI rank	Participation				Civil society		Ratification of rights instruments ^e		
	Latest election for lower or single house ^a		Year women received right to vote ^b	Seats in parliament held by women (as % of total) ^c	Trade union membership (as % of non-agricultural labour force) ^d	Non-governmental organizations	International Convention on Civil and Political Rights	Freedom of association and collective bargaining convention 87	
	Year	Voter turnout (%)							
151	Tanzania, U. Rep. of	2000	84	1959	22.3	17	554	●	●
152	Mauritania	2001	54	1961	3.0 ^l	3	225	●	●
153	Zambia	2001	68	1962	12.0	12	489	●	●
154	Senegal	2001	67	1945	19.2	22	565	●	●
155	Congo, Dem. Rep. of the	1993 ^q	..	1967	– ^q	..	480	●	●
156	Côte d'Ivoire	2000	32	1952	8.5	13	556	●	●
157	Eritrea	1994	..	1955	14.7	7	78	●	●
158	Benin	1999	70	1956	6.0	..	371	●	●
159	Guinea	1995	62	1958	8.8	2	249	●	●
160	Gambia	2002	69 ^l	1960	2.0 ^l	..	237	●	●
161	Angola	1992	91	1975	15.5	..	235	●	●
162	Rwanda	1994 ^p	–	1961	25.7	..	241	●	●
163	Malawi	1999	92	1961	9.3	..	318	●	●
164	Mali	1997	22	1956	12.2	14	298	●	●
165	Central African Republic	1998	..	1986	7.3	..	207	●	●
166	Chad	1997	49	1958	2.4	..	190	●	●
167	Guinea-Bissau	1999	80	1977	7.8	..	118	○	●
168	Ethiopia	2000	90	1955	7.8	4	380	●	●
169	Burkina Faso	1997	45	1958	11.0	..	340	●	●
170	Mozambique	1999	80	1975	30.0	..	311	●	●
171	Burundi	1993	91	1961	14.4 ^l	..	226	●	●
172	Niger	1999	..	1948	1.2	..	253	●	●
173	Sierra Leone	1996	50	1961	8.8	..	328	●	●

● Ratification, accession or succession.

○ Signature not yet followed by ratification.

a. Data are as of 8 March 2002.

b. Data refer to the year in which the right to vote on a universal and equal basis was recognized. Where two years are shown, the first refers to the first partial recognition of the right to vote.

c. Data are as of 18 March 2002. Where there are lower and upper houses, data refer to the weighted average of women's shares of seats in both houses.

d. Data are derived from various national sources using different methodologies for data collection. For further information see ILO (1997).

e. The International Convention on Civil and Political Rights was adopted in 1966, and the Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize Convention in 1948.

f. Data refer to a year other than that specified.

g. The country has never had a parliament.

h. Women's right to vote has not been recognized.

i. The first legislature of Bahrain was dissolved by decree of the emir on 26 August 1975.

j. According to the constitution in force (1973), all citizens are equal before the law; however, women were not able to exercise electoral rights in the only legislative elections held in Bahrain, in 1973. Women were allowed to vote in the referendum of 14–15 February 2001, however, which approved the National Action Charter.

k. Data refer to average turnout in the 1990s. No official data are available. The figures are from International IDEA (1997).

l. Information for the most recent elections was not available in time for publication; data refer to previous elections.

m. Data refer to union membership as a percentage of the economically active population.

n. Calculated on the basis of the 54 permanent seats (that is, excluding the 36 special rotating delegates appointed on an ad hoc basis).

o. The parliament elected in 1990 has never been convened nor authorized to sit, and many of its members were detained or forced into exile.

p. Transitional appointed unicameral parliament created by decree.

q. Parliament has been dissolved or suspended for an indefinite period.

r. The elected members of the Tshogdu (chamber of parliament) come from single-member constituencies. The timing of their election varies depending on the expiration of members' terms.

s. Refers to the former People's Democratic Republic of Yemen.

Source: Columns 1 and 2: IPU 2002a; column 3: IPU 1995; column 4: Human Development Report Office calculations based on data on parliamentary seats from IPU 2002b; column 5: ILO 1997; column 6: UIA 2000; columns 7 and 8: UN 2002a.

A1.3 Progress towards Millennium Development Goals

Goal 1
Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

Goal 2
Achieve universal primary education

Goal 3
Promote gender equality and empower women

Goal 4
Reduce child mortality

Goal 7
Ensure environmental sustainability

HDI rank	Target Halve the proportion of people suffering from hunger Undernourished people (as % of total population) ^b	Target Ensure that all children can complete primary education		Target Eliminate gender disparity in all levels of education ^a		Target Reduce under-five and infant mortality rates by two-thirds Under-five mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	Target Halve the proportion of people without access to improved water sources Population using improved water sources (%)
		Net primary enrolment ratio (%)	Children reaching grade 5 (%)	Female gross primary enrolment ratio as % of male ratio	Female gross secondary enrolment ratio as % of male ratio		
High human development							
22	Israel	On track	On track	..
23	Hong Kong, China (SAR)	Achieved	Achieved
25	Singapore	..	On track	..	On track	..	Achieved
26	Cyprus	..	Slipping back	Achieved	Achieved	On track	Achieved
27	Korea, Rep. of	..	On track	On track	Achieved	Achieved	On track
29	Slovenia	..	On track	Achieved	Achieved	On track	Achieved
30	Malta	..	Achieved	Achieved	On track	On track	Achieved
31	Barbados	On track	Achieved
32	Brunei Darussalam	..	On track	..	On track	Achieved	On track
33	Czech Republic	On track	Achieved	On track
34	Argentina	..	Achieved	..	On track	Achieved	On track
35	Hungary	..	Slipping back	..	On track	Achieved	On track
36	Slovakia	Achieved	Achieved	Achieved	On track
37	Poland	..	On track	..	On track	On track	On track
38	Chile	Achieved	On track	Achieved	On track	Achieved	On track
39	Bahrain	..	On track	On track	Achieved	Achieved	On track
40	Uruguay	Achieved	On track	On track	On track	Achieved	On track
41	Bahamas	On track	On track
42	Estonia	On track	On track	..	On track	Achieved	Far behind
43	Costa Rica	On track	On track	On track	On track	Achieved	On track
44	Saint Kitts and Nevis	On track	On track
45	Kuwait	Achieved	On track	Achieved	On track	Achieved	On track
46	United Arab Emirates	On track	Achieved	On track
47	Seychelles	On track	On track
48	Croatia	..	On track	Achieved	On track	Achieved	On track
49	Lithuania	On track	On track	Achieved	On track	Achieved	Far behind
50	Trinidad and Tobago	Far behind	Far behind	On track	On track	Achieved	On track
51	Qatar	..	Far behind	..	On track	On track	On track
52	Antigua and Barbuda	On track	On track
53	Latvia	On track	On track	Achieved	On track	Achieved	Far behind
Medium human development							
54	Mexico	On track	Achieved	On track	On track	Achieved	On track
55	Cuba	Slipping back	On track	..	On track	Achieved	On track
56	Belarus	Achieved	On track	Achieved	Far behind
57	Panama	On track	On track
58	Belize	Far behind
59	Malaysia	..	Achieved	..	Achieved	Achieved	On track
60	Russian Federation	On track	On track	Far behind
61	Dominica	On track
62	Bulgaria	Slipping back	On track	..	On track	On track	Far behind
63	Romania	..	On track	Achieved	On track	On track	On track
64	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	On track
65	Macedonia, TFYR	On track	On track	On track	On track	On track	Far behind
66	Saint Lucia	On track
67	Mauritius	On track	On track	On track	Achieved	Achieved	On track
68	Colombia	On track	On track	On track	On track	Achieved	Far behind

A1.3 Progress towards Millennium Development Goals

Goal 1
Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

Goal 2
Achieve universal primary education

Goal 3
Promote gender equality and empower women

Goal 4
Reduce child mortality

Goal 7
Ensure environmental sustainability

HDI rank	Target Halve the proportion of people suffering from hunger Undernourished people (as % of total population) ^b	Target Ensure that all children can complete primary education		Target Eliminate gender disparity in all levels of education ^a		Target Reduce under-five and infant mortality rates by two-thirds	Target Halve the proportion of people without access to improved water sources	
		Net primary enrolment ratio (%)	Children reaching grade 5 (%)	Female gross primary enrolment ratio as % of male ratio	Female gross secondary enrolment ratio as % of male ratio	Under-five mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	Population using improved water sources (%)	
69	Venezuela	Slipping back	Far behind	On track	Achieved	Achieved	Far behind	..
70	Thailand	On track	On track	On track
71	Saudi Arabia	..	Far behind	On track	On track	On track	On track	On track
72	Fiji	On track	..
73	Brazil	On track	On track	On track
74	Suriname	On track	On track	On track
75	Lebanon	On track	Achieved	Far behind	Achieved
76	Armenia	Achieved	Far behind	..
77	Philippines	Far behind	Achieved	..	On track	Achieved	On track	Far behind
78	Oman	..	Far behind	On track	On track	On track	On track	Far behind
79	Kazakhstan	Achieved	Achieved	Achieved	Slipping back	On track
80	Ukraine	On track	Far behind	..
81	Georgia	Achieved	On track	On track	Far behind	..
82	Peru	Achieved	On track	..	On track	On track	On track	Lagging
83	Grenada	On track	On track
84	Maldives	On track	Achieved	On track	Achieved
85	Turkey	..	On track	..	On track	Far behind	On track	Lagging
86	Jamaica	On track	On track	..	Far behind	..
87	Turkmenistan	On track	Far behind	..
88	Azerbaijan	Achieved	On track	On track	Far behind	..
89	Sri Lanka	On track	On track	Achieved	On track	Achieved
90	Paraguay	On track	On track	On track	On track	Achieved	Far behind	On track
91	St. Vincent & the Grenadines	Far behind	On track
92	Albania	On track	Achieved	..	Achieved	Achieved	On track	..
93	Ecuador	On track	On track	On track	..
94	Dominican Republic	Far behind	Achieved	Achieved	On track	Far behind
95	Uzbekistan	On track	Slipping back	..
96	China	On track	Achieved	On track	Achieved	On track	Far behind	Far behind
97	Tunisia	..	Achieved	On track	On track	On track	On track	..
98	Iran, Islamic Rep. of	On track	Slipping back	..	On track	On track	On track	Achieved
99	Jordan	On track	Lagging	On track
100	Cape Verde	On track	Achieved	On track	..
101	Samoa (Western)	..	On track	..	On track	Achieved	On track	On track
102	Kyrgyzstan	On track	On track	..	On track	Achieved	On track	..
103	Guyana	On track	Slipping back	On track	On track	Achieved	Far behind	On track
104	El Salvador	Far behind	On track	..	On track	Achieved	On track	..
105	Moldova, Rep. of	On track	..	Achieved	On track	Achieved	Far behind	Achieved
106	Algeria	On track	On track	On track	On track	On track	Slipping back	On track
107	South Africa	..	On track	..	On track	Achieved	Slipping back	..
108	Syrian Arab Republic	..	On track	On track	On track	On track	On track	..
109	Viet Nam	On track	On track	On track	Lagging	Lagging
110	Indonesia	On track	On track	On track	On track	On track	On track	On track
111	Equatorial Guinea	On track	..
112	Tajikistan	On track	..	Far behind	..
113	Mongolia	Slipping back	..	Achieved	Achieved	Achieved	On track	..

A1.3 Progress towards Millennium Development Goals

Goal 1
Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

Goal 2
Achieve universal primary education

Goal 3
Promote gender equality and empower women

Goal 4
Reduce child mortality

Goal 7
Ensure environmental sustainability

HDI rank		Target	Target		Target		Target	Target
		Halve the proportion of people suffering from hunger Undernourished people (as % of total population) ^b	Ensure that all children can complete primary education		Eliminate gender disparity in all levels of education ^a		Reduce under-five and infant mortality rates by two-thirds Under-five mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	Halve the proportion of people without access to improved water sources Population using improved water sources (%)
			Net primary enrolment ratio (%)	Children reaching grade 5 (%)	Female gross primary enrolment ratio as % of male ratio	Female gross secondary enrolment ratio as % of male ratio		
114	Bolivia	Lagging	On track	On track
115	Egypt	On track	On track	..	On track	On track	On track	On track
116	Honduras	Far behind	On track	On track
117	Gabon	On track	Far behind	..
118	Nicaragua	Far behind	On track	Far behind	Achieved	Achieved	On track	On track
119	São Tomé and Príncipe	Far behind	..
120	Guatemala	Slipping back	Far behind	On track	On track	Achieved
121	Solomon Islands	On track	..
122	Namibia	Far behind	On track	..	Achieved	Achieved	Far behind	Lagging
123	Morocco	On track	On track	Far behind	On track	On track	On track	On track
124	India	Far behind	On track	Far behind	Lagging	On track
125	Swaziland	Far behind	On track	Far behind	On track	On track	Slipping back	..
126	Botswana	Slipping back	Slipping back	On track	Achieved	Achieved	Slipping back	..
127	Myanmar	On track	Far behind	Far behind
128	Zimbabwe	Far behind	On track	Far behind	Slipping back	On track
129	Ghana	Achieved	Lagging	On track
130	Cambodia	On track	On track	Lagging	Slipping back	..
131	Vanuatu	On track	..
132	Lesotho	Lagging	Slipping back	..	Achieved	Achieved	Far behind	On track
133	Papua New Guinea	Far behind	Far behind	Far behind	Far behind	Far behind
134	Kenya	Far behind	Achieved	On track	Slipping back	Lagging
135	Cameroon	On track	Slipping back	On track
136	Congo	Far behind	On track	Far behind	Far behind	..
137	Comoros	On track	On track	Achieved
Low human development								
138	Pakistan	On track	Far behind	On track
139	Sudan	On track	On track	On track	Far behind	On track
140	Bhutan	On track	..
141	Togo	On track	On track	..	Far behind	Far behind	Far behind	Far behind
142	Nepal	Far behind	On track	On track	On track	On track
143	Lao People's Dem. Rep.	Far behind	On track	..	On track	Far behind	On track	On track
144	Yemen	Far behind	Far behind	Far behind
145	Bangladesh	Far behind	On track	Achieved
146	Haiti	Lagging	On track	Far behind	Far behind
147	Madagascar	Slipping back	Slipping back	..	On track	Achieved	Far behind	Far behind
148	Nigeria	Achieved	Far behind	Lagging
149	Djibouti	..	Far behind	Slipping back	Far behind	On track	Far behind	Achieved
150	Uganda	Far behind	On track	Far behind	Lagging	Far behind
151	Tanzania, U. Rep. of	Slipping back	Far behind	Far behind	On track	On track	Far behind	Far behind
152	Mauritania	On track	..	Slipping back	On track	Far behind	Far behind	Far behind
153	Zambia	Far behind	Slipping back	..	On track	..	Slipping back	On track
154	Senegal	Far behind	On track	On track	On track	Far behind	Far behind	On track
155	Congo, Dem. Rep. of the	Slipping back	Far behind	..
156	Côte d'Ivoire	On track	Far behind	Far behind	Far behind	Far behind	Slipping back	On track
157	Eritrea	..	Far behind	On track	..

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HDI rank		Target	Target		Target		Target	Target
		Halve the proportion of people suffering from hunger	Ensure that all children can complete primary education		Eliminate gender disparity in all levels of education ^a		Reduce under-five and infant mortality rates by two-thirds	Halve the proportion of people without access to improved water sources
		Undernourished people (as % of total population) ^b	Net primary enrolment ratio (%)	Children reaching grade 5 (%)	Female gross primary enrolment ratio as % of male ratio	Female gross secondary enrolment ratio as % of male ratio	Under-five mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	Population using improved water sources (%)
158	Benin	On track	On track	..	Far behind	Far behind	Far behind	..
159	Guinea	On track	Far behind	..	On track	Far behind	On track	Far behind
160	Gambia	On track	On track	On track	Far behind	..
161	Angola	On track	Slipping back	..
162	Rwanda	Slipping back	Slipping back	..
163	Malawi	On track	On track	On track	Lagging	Lagging
164	Mali	Far behind	Far behind	On track	On track	Slipping back	Far behind	On track
165	Central African Republic	Far behind	Far behind	Far behind
166	Chad	On track	Far behind	Far behind	Far behind	Far behind	Far behind	..
167	Guinea-Bissau	Far behind	..
168	Ethiopia	..	Far behind	..	Slipping back	Slipping back	Far behind	Far behind
169	Burkina Faso	On track	Far behind	..	Far behind	..	Far behind	..
170	Mozambique	On track	Slipping back	..	Far behind	Far behind	Far behind	..
171	Burundi	Slipping back	Far behind	..	Far behind	..
172	Niger	Far behind	Far behind	On track	Far behind	On track	Far behind	Far behind
173	Sierra Leone	Lagging	Far behind	..
Others								
	Afghanistan	Far behind	Far behind	Slipping back	Far behind	..
	Andorra	On track	Achieved
	Bosnia and Herzegovina	On track	On track	..
	Iraq	Slipping back	Far behind	Far behind	Slipping back	..
	Kiribati	On track	Lagging	..
	Korea, Dem. Rep. of	Slipping back	Far behind	Achieved
	Liberia	Slipping back	Far behind	..
	Liechtenstein	On track	..
	Marshall Islands	On track	..
	Micronesia, Fed. Sts.	On track	..
	Monaco	On track	Achieved
	Nauru
	Palau	Far behind	..
	San Marino	Achieved	On track	..
	Somalia	Slipping back	Far behind	..
	Tonga	On track	Achieved
	Tuvalu	Far behind	Achieved
	Yugoslavia	On track	..	Achieved	Achieved	Achieved	On track	..
Number of countries in category (% of world population) ^c								
	Achieved or on track	57 (49.2)	51 (40.6)	44 (32.2)	90 (63.3)	81 (44.4)	85 (24.4)	68 (43.4)
	Lagging, far behind or slipping back	43 (28.0)	24 (5.7)	8 (1.6)	14 (3.4)	20 (22.0)	81 (61.2)	25 (32.1)
	No data	68 (8.5)	93 (39.4)	116 (51.9)	64 (19.0)	67 (19.4)	2 (0.1)	75 (10.3)

Note: The table shows the results of analysis assessing progress towards goals for 2015 based on linear interpolation of trends in the 1990s. Each of the Millennium Development Goals is accompanied by multiple targets. The selection of goals and targets in the table is based principally on data availability. The trend assessment uses two data points at least five years apart. For further details see technical note 2. The table includes all UN member countries except high-income OECD countries; it also includes Hong Kong, China (SAR).

a. The goals for gender equality in primary and secondary education are preferably to be achieved by 2005, and by the latest by 2015. Progress towards the goals is assessed here based on a 2015 target.

b. A complementary indicator for monitoring hunger is the prevalence of underweight children, but very limited trend data are available for that indicator.

c. Population shares do not sum to 100% because the analysis excludes high-income OECD countries.

Source: Column 1: FAO 2001; column 2: UNESCO 2001; column 3: UNESCO 1999b; columns 4 and 5: UNESCO 1999a; column 6: UNICEF 2002; column 7: WHO, UNICEF and WSSCC 2000.

