ZEROHUNGER



The Sustainable Development Goals Extended Report 2022

Note: The Statistics Division of the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNSD) prepares the annual The Sustainable Development Goals Report, also known as the glossy report, based on storyline inputs submitted by UN international agencies in their capacity as mandated custodian agencies for the SDG indicators. However, due to space constraints, not all information received from custodian agencies is able to be included in the final glossy report. Therefore, in order to provide the general public with all information regarding the indicators, this 'Extended Report' has been prepared by UNSD. It includes all storyline contents for each indicator as provided by the custodian agencies and is unedited. For instances where the custodian agency has not submitted a storyline for an indicator, please see the custodian agency focal point information linked for further information.

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Target 2.1: By 2030, end hunger and ensure access by all people, in particular the poor and people in vulnerable situations, including infants, to safe, nutritious and sufficient food all year round

Indicator 2.1.1: Prevalence of undernourishment

Indicator 2.1.2: Prevalence of moderate or severe food insecurity in the population, based on the Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES)

Conflict, COVID-19, climate change and growing inequalities are converging to undermine food security worldwide

Climate variability and extremes, conflict, economic shocks and growing inequalities are keeping the world off track in achieving zero hunger by 2030. Since 2014, the number of people going hungry and suffering from food insecurity has been on the rise. The COVID-19 pandemic exacerbated an already deteriorating situation, with about 150 million more people facing hunger in 2021 than in 2019. In other words, an estimated 1 in 10 people worldwide are suffering from hunger. In addition, nearly 1 in 3 (a staggering 2.3 billion people) were moderately or severely food insecure in 2021, meaning they lacked regular access to adequate food. This represents an increase of almost 350 million people since the beginning of the pandemic. The most worrisome increases were seen in sub-Saharan Africa, followed by Central and Southern Asia, and Latin America and the Caribbean.

The unfolding crisis in Ukraine is yet another threat to food security. Ukraine and the Russian Federation are large producers and exporters of key food commodities, fertilizer, minerals and energy. Together they are considered the world's breadbasket, supplying 30 per cent and 20 per cent of global wheat and maize exports, respectively, as well as 80 per cent of global exports of sunflower seed products. At least 50 countries import 30 per cent or more of their wheat from these two countries, with many African and LDCs importing more than 50 per cent. Ukraine and the Russian Federation are also leading exporters of fertilizers.

The conflict has caused a steep and sudden reduction in exports of grain, sunflower seeds and fertilizers. As a result, import-dependent countries are vulnerable to rising food costs and supply chain disruptions. Joint, coordinated activities and policy solutions are urgently needed to avert food shortages for the world's poorest people and to reduce the impact of the conflict, as well as lingering consequences of the pandemic, on global food insecurity.

Additional resources, press releases, etc. with links:

• The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World 2022, https://www.fao.org/publications/sofi/2022/en/

Target 2.2: By 2030, end all forms of malnutrition, including achieving, by 2025, the internationally agreed targets on stunting and wasting in children under 5 years of age, and address the nutritional needs of adolescent girls, pregnant and lactating women and older persons

Indicator 2.2.1: Prevalence of stunting (height for age <-2 standard deviation from the median of the World Health Organization (WHO) Child Growth Standards) among children under 5 years of age

Stunting is declining but not equally across regions — and pandemic-related shocks are set to deepen existing inequalities across the globe

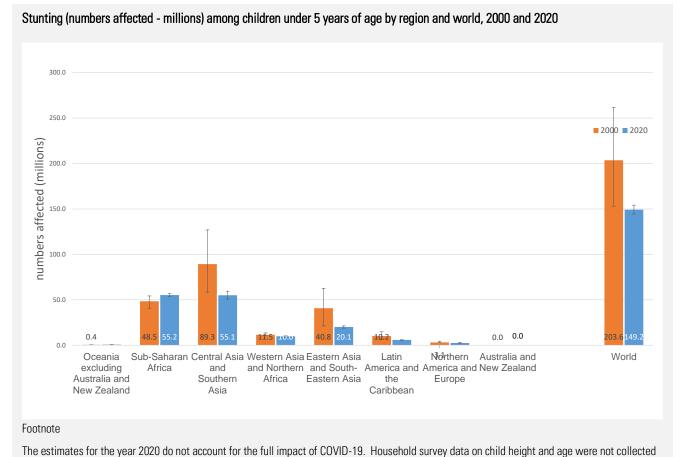
Globally, stunting has declined steadily since 2000, with 149.2 million or 22.0 per cent of children under age 5 suffering from stunting based on the latest estimates for 2020.1 This is a 27 per cent reduction compared to the 203.5 million stunted children under age 5 in 2000. The number of countries with a very high stunting prevalence (greater than or equal to 30 per cent) has halved from 67 countries in 2000 to 33 countries in 2020.

However faster progress is needed to achieve the 2030 target of a 50 per cent reduction in the number of stunted children. To achieve this target, global efforts must double the current annual rate of decline from its current annual rate of reduction of 2.1 per cent per year to 3.9 per cent per year.

Although stunting is declining in almost every region, progress varies considerably among them. Since 2012, Central Asia and Southern Asia have shown the greatest progress in

reducing stunting with an annual rate of reduction of 3.4 per cent per year. Progress has been slower in sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America and the Caribbean, with an annual rate of reduction of 1.5 per cent per year. Oceania excluding Australia and New Zealand is the only region to exhibit an increase with an annual rate of reduction of 0.4 per cent per year. The constraints in accessing nutritious diets and essential nutrition services during COVID-19 may deepen existing inequalities between regions and withing countries in the years to come.

Of the estimated 149.2 million children under age 5 affected by stunting in 2020, nearly three quarters of these children lived in just two regions: Central and Southern Asia (37 per cent) and sub-Saharan Africa (37 per cent). More intensive efforts are required to achieve the global target of reducing the number of stunted children to 104 million by 2025 (40% reduction from the baseline of 2012) and to 87million by 2030 (50% reduction from the baseline of 2012). Particular attention should be paid to the regions and sub-regions with high prevalence or showing the slowest progress — the children in these regions are at higher risk of poor growth and development during the COVID-19 pandemic given the added constraints to access nutritious diets and essential nutrition services impacting the most vulnerable.



in 2020 due to physical distancing policies. One of the covariates used in the country model takes the impact of COVID-19 partially into account.

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Custodian agency(ies): UNICEF, WHO

Indicator 2.2.2: Prevalence of malnutrition (weight for height >+2 or <-2 standard deviation from the median of the WHO Child Growth Standards) among children under 5 years of age, by type (wasting and overweight)

Malnutrition rates remain alarming: wasting still impacts the lives of far too many young children and achieving the 2030 overweight target would require a reversal in trajectory

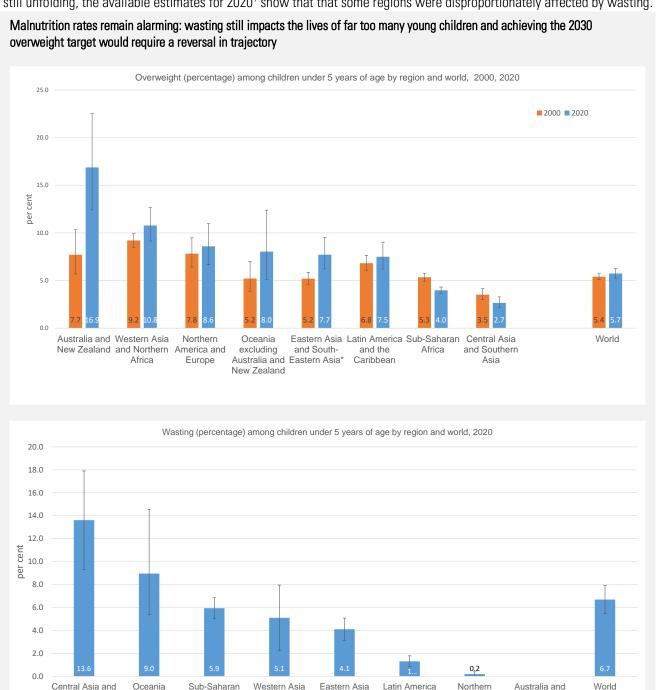
Childhood wasting and overweight may coexist at concerning levels. Wasting is the life-threatening result of poor nutrient intake and/or disease; affected children are dangerously thin, have weakened immunity, are susceptible to long term developmental delays, and face an increased risk of death in the immediate term. This makes children with wasting particularly vulnerable to shocks such as COVID-19. Childhood overweight, a condition that can increase the risk of diet-related noncommunicable diseases later in life, has been shaped by industry marketing and greater access to processed foods, along with inadequate levels of physical activity. In 20201, 6.7 per cent (or 45.4 million) children under 5 were affected by wasting, and 5.7 per cent (or 38.9 million) were overweight. The current global prevalence for both conditions represent a "medium" level of severity, signalling that urgent actions are needed. This is particularly true for wasting, as more children are likely to be affected by this life-threatening condition in the wake of pandemic-related shocks, such as lost livelihoods and increased food insecurity. Wasting and overweight can also coexist in a population at problematic levels; for example, in Oceania (excluding Australia and New Zealand), wasting prevalence was 9.0 per cent while overweight prevalence was 8.0 per cent in 2020¹.

While the full impact of COVID-19 on malnutrition is still unfolding, the available estimates for 20201 show that that some regions were disproportionately affected by wasting. In

2020¹ nearly one quarter of children with wasting lived in sub-Saharan Africa and more than half lived in Central and Southern Asia, the only region with a "high" prevalence above 10 per cent. Wasting prevalence can change rapidly over the course of the calendar year, making trends over time unreliable based on currently available data and methods. Despite the lack of data to assess progress to date, the current level of wasting remains well above the 5 per cent global target for 2025, and 3 per cent global target for 2030. Except for Latin America and the Caribbean – which is on track to achieve the target of a wasting prevalence below 3% in 2030 - all other regions with data have shown no progress towards achieving that goal.

Globally overweight prevalence has stagnated, at 5.4 per cent in 2000 and 5.7 per cent in 2020. A reversal in trajectory would be required to achieve the 3 per cent global target for 2030. At the regional and country-level, there are many settings where overweight prevalence could be on the rise. The number of countries with low and very low levels (less than 5 per cent) of overweight decreased from 64 countries in 2000 to 56 countries by 2020. Only one region, Central Asia and Southern Asia is on track to achieve the global target. All other regions - except for Eastern and South-eastern Asia and Australia and New Zealand where progress has worsened - have shown no progress.

Although malnutrition can manifest in multiple ways, the path to prevention is virtually identical: adequate maternal nutrition before and during pregnancy and lactation; optimal breastfeeding in the first two years of life; nutritious, diverse and safe foods in early childhood; and a healthy environment, including access to basic health, water, hygiene and sanitation services and opportunities for safe physical activity. As most of these key ingredients for good nutrition are under threat due to the COVID-19 pandemic, urgent actions are warranted - especially in regions most affected - to protect maternal and child nutrition.



* Excluding Japan

** Northern America does not have confidence intervals as regional estimates based on USA data only NA=Not available due to insufficient (<50%) population coverage for the sub-region

Africa

Footnote: The estimates for the year 2020 do not account for the full impact of COVID-19. Household survey data on child height and age were not collected in 2020 due to physical distancing policies. One of the covariates used in the country model takes the impact of COVID-19 partially into account.

and South-

Eastern Asia³

Caribbean

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excluding

Australia and

Custodian agency(ies): UNICEF, WHO

¹ The estimates for the year 2020 do not account for the full impact of COVID-19. Household survey data on child height and age were not collected in 2020 due to physical distancing policies. One of the covariates used in the country model takes the impact of COVID-19 partially into account.

Indicator 2.2.3: Prevalence of anaemia in women aged 15 to 49 years, by pregnancy status (percentage)

More context-specific multi-sectoral actions with effective implementation are needed to reach the global anaemia target by 2025 (to decrease anaemia prevalence by 50% in women 15-49 years)

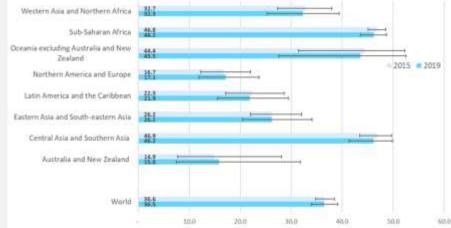
Anaemia is the most common blood disorder in the world, mostly affecting children under five and women of reproductive age. Anaemia can negatively impact child growth and development and leads to decreased work productivity and increased morbidity and mortality in women. Anaemia during pregnancy is a key contributor to maternal mortality and poor birth outcomes in both low- and high- income countries. Anaemia can also be an independent risk for severe illness of COVID-19.

In 2019, there were over half a billion women aged 15 to 49 years with anaemia, with a prevalence of 29.9% (95% uncertainty interval (UI) 27.0%, 32.8%). Global anaemia prevalence for non-pregnant women was 29.6% (95% UI 26.6%, 32.5%), and 36.5% (95% UI 34.0%, 39.1%) in pregnant women.

Since 2015, the prevalence of anaemia in women 15-49 years of age has not decreased in any region nor globally, when considering confidence intervals for any of the three population groups (non-pregnant women, pregnant women, both non-pregnant and pregnant women combined). In fact, when comparing punctual percentages, there was an increase in most of the regions between 2015 and 2019.

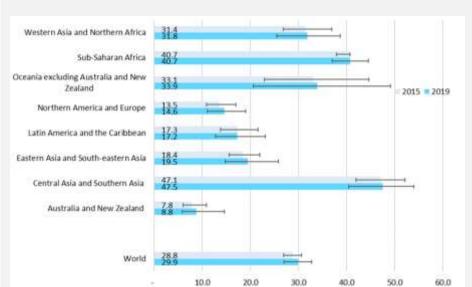
Nutrition, infectious disease and genetic haemoglobin disorders are the three main contributors to anaemia, which are mostly related to poverty. To effectively address anaemia at the country or regional level, an assessment of determinants of anaemia is needed. Interventions should address these context-specific determinants and consider a multi-sectoral approach (e.g. nutrition, health, water sanitation and hygiene, poverty alleviation, agriculture, industry and education) involving comprehensive programmes that include evidence-based interventions that are delivered with quality care and coverage.

Prevalence of anaemia in pregnant women aged 15 to 49 years, 2015 and 2019 (percentage) Western Asia and Northern Africa



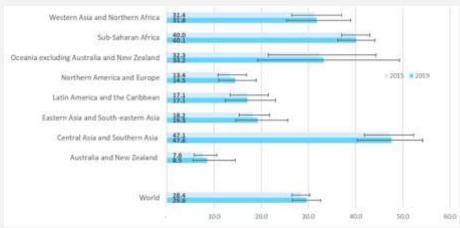
Defined as the prevalence of haemoglobin concentrations below 110 g/L for pregnant women

Prevalence of anaemia in women of reproductive age 15 to 49 years, 2015 and 2019 (percentage)



Defined as the prevalence of haemoglobin concentrations below 110 g/L for pregnant women and 120 g/L for non-preg nant women

Prevalence of anaemia in non pregnant women aged 15 to 49 years, 2015 and 2019 (percentage)



Defined as the prevalence of haemoglobin concentrations below 120 g/L

Additional resources, press releases, etc. with links:

- WHO Global Anaemia estimates, 2021 Edition. Global anaemia estimates in women of reproductive age, by pregnancy status, and in children aged 6-59 months. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2021. Available at https://www.who.int/data/gho/data/themes/topics/anaemia_in_women_and_children
- WHO Micronutrients database. Vitamin and Mineral Nutrition Information System (VMNIS). Geneva: World Health Organization; 2021. Available at https://www.who.int/teams/nutrition-and-food-safety/databases/vitamin-and-mineral-nutrition-information-system
- WHO. Haemoglobin concentrations for the diagnosis of anaemia and assessment of severity. Vitamin and Mineral Nutrition Information System. Geneva, World Health Organization, 2011 (WHO/NMH/NHD/MNM/11.1) (Available at https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/85839/WHO NMH NHD MNM 11.1 eng.pdf)
- Stevens GA, Finucane MM, De-Regil LM, Paciorek CJ, Flaxman SR, Branca F, Peña-Rosas JP, Bhutta ZA, Ezzati M, Nutrition Impact Model Study Group (Anaemia). Global, regional, and national trends in haemoglobin concentration and prevalence of total and severe anaemia in children and pregnant and non-pregnant women for 1995-2011: a systematic analysis of population-representative data. Lancet Glob Health. 2013 Jul;1(1):e16-25. doi: 10.1016/S2214-109X(13)70001-9. Epub 2013 Jun 25.
- WHO. Comprehensive Implementation Plan on Maternal, Infant and Young Child Nutrition. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2014. (Available at https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/113048/WHO_NMH_NHD_14.1_eng.pdf)
- WHO. Global nutrition targets 2025: anaemia policy brief (WHO/NMH/NHD/14.4). Geneva: World Health (Available at https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/WHO-NMH-NHD-14.4) Organization; 2014.
- Global anaemia reduction efforts among women of reproductive age: impact, achievement of targets and the way forward for optimizing efforts. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2020. Licence: CC BY-NCSA 3.0 IGO. (Available at https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789240012202)
- Nutritional anaemias: tools for effective prevention and control. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2017. Licence: CC BY-NC-SA 3.0 IGO (Available at http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/259425/9789241513067-eng.pdf)
- Every Woman Every Child. Global strategy for women's, children's and adolescents' health. New York: United Nations; 2020. (Available at https://www.who.int/data/maternal-newborn-child-adolescent-ageing/global-strategy-data)

Storyline author(s)/contributor(s): Monica Flores Urrutia, WHO; Lisa Rogers, WHO; Elaine Borghi, WHO

Target 2.3: By 2030, double the agricultural productivity and incomes of small-scale food producers, in particular women, indigenous peoples, family farmers, pastoralists and fishers, including through secure and equal access to land, other productive resources and inputs, knowledge, financial services, markets and opportunities for value addition and non-farm employment

Indicator 2.3.1: Volume of production per labour unit by classes of farming/pastoral/forestry enterprise size

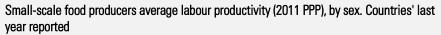
All low and middle-low income countries had a volume of production per labour day of small-scale food producers of less than 15 Constant PPP USD 2011

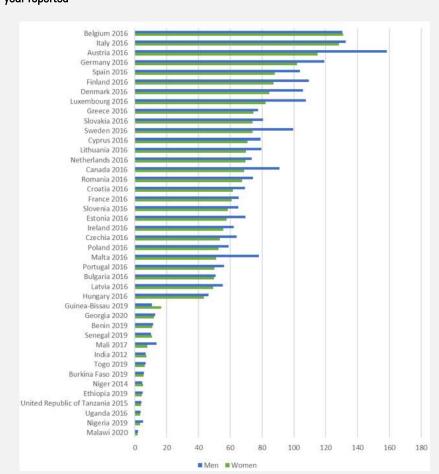
Small-scale food producers provide key contributions to the resilience of agricultural and food production system, which is important to combat hunger. While they account for significant shares of food production in several countries, they are often among the most vulnerable groups in rural areas and within the agri-food system.

According to the latest available country figures, small-scale food producers' labour productivity is less than 15 USD (Constant PPP 2011) per day worked in all low and middle income countries (Figure 1). In addition, the labour productivity of small-scale food producers continue to lag behind those of larger-scale producers, with more pronounced differences in higher income countries. In three quarters of the countries for which data is available, small scale food producers show an average income of less than half that of large-scale food producers (Figure 2).

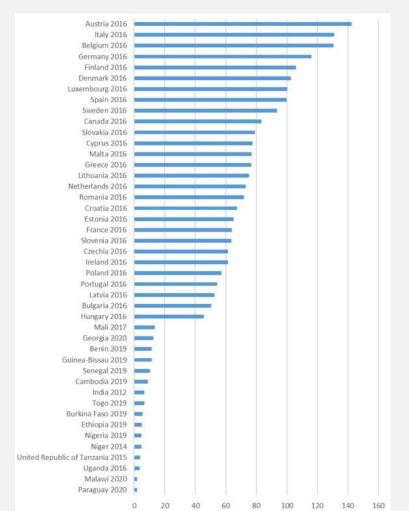
Among small-scale food producers, the labour productivity of production units headed by men and women are similar, with units headed by women achieving 90 percent or more of the labour productivity of those headed by men in most countries (Figure 3).

The limited amount of data on the productivity and incomes of food producers makes it difficult to discern any noticeable trend over time. In Ethiopia, Tanzania and Canada, the productivity of small-scale food producers has gradually increased over time, whereas in Malawi and Paraguay, the productivity initially increased and peaked in 2013 and 2018, respectively, and decreased thereafter. The gap between the productivity small-scale and large-scale food producers has gradually increased in Tanzania and Canada, whereas, it has decreased in Malawi and Uganda.

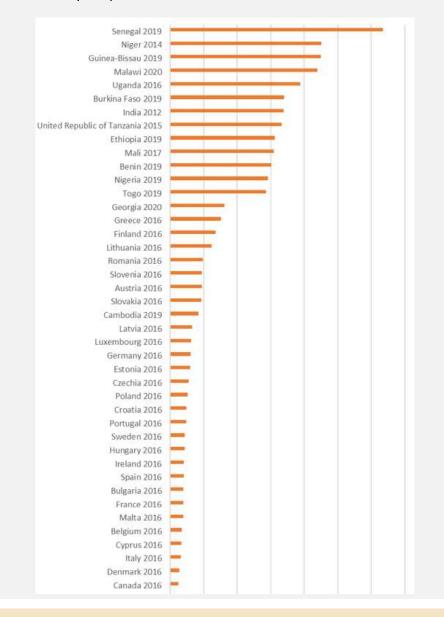




Small-scale food producers' average labour productivity (2011 PPP). Countries' last year reported.



Ratio of small-scale over non-small-scale food producers of average labour productivity. Countries' last year reported



Indicator 2.3.2: Average income of small-scale food producers, by sex and indigenous status

In all countries reported, the average annual income from agriculture of small-scale food producers was less than 4500 constant PPP 2011 USD

Small-scale food producers provide key contributions to the resilience of agricultural and food production system, which is important to combat hunger. While they account for significant shares of food production in several countries, they are often among the most vulnerable groups in rural areas and within the agri-food system.

According to the latest available country figures, the income of small-scale food producers continue to lag behind those of larger-scale producers. In the majority of countries

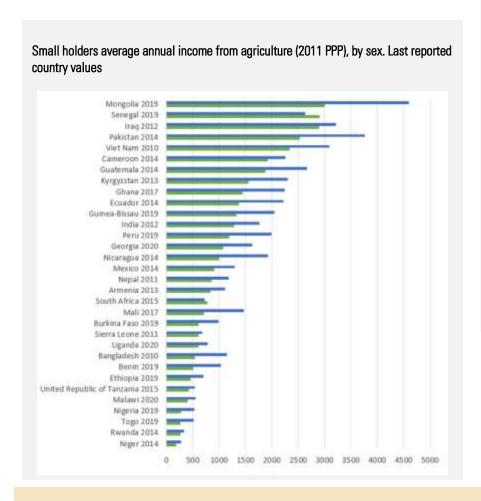
reported, the small-scale food producer annual income from agriculture is less than 2000 USD (constant PPP 2011) while in all of them, it is less than 4500 USD (constant PPP 2011) (Figure 1). In addition, in three quarters of the countries for which data is available, small scale food producers show an average income of less than half that of large-scale food producers (Figure 2).

Among small-scale food producers, the income of men-headed production units is systematically larger than the income of those headed by women. In half of the countries with available data, women-headed small-scale food production units gained an income of between 50 and 70 percent of the income of those headed by men (Figure 3).

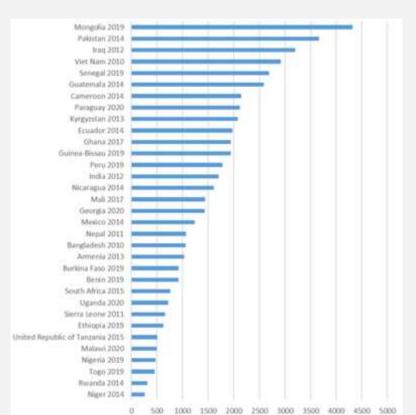
The limited amount of data on the productivity and incomes of food producers makes it difficult to discern any noticeable trend over time. Tanzania is the only country showing a continuous gradual increase in the income of small-scale food producers, whereas, Nigeria is the only country which shows a continuous gradual decrease. In Ethiopia, Georgia and Paraguay, the income from agriculture of small-scale food producers increases up to a peak in 2016, 2016 and 2018 respectively; to decrease thereafter. On the other hand, Mongolia and Uganda show an opposite trend where the income for small-scale food producers gradually decreases and reaches its lowermost point in 2018 and 2016, respectively; to increase thereafter. In Malawi and Peru, although the trend has been erratic over the years, the income for small-scale food producers has been increasing for the last 3-4 years.

Over the last four to five years, the gap between the small-scale and non-small-scale food producers has gradually decreased Ethiopia, Malawi, and Uganda, whereas, it has increased in Georgia, Mongolia, and Nigeria. In the United Republic of Tanzania, and Peru, the gap has remained consistent over the past four to five years.

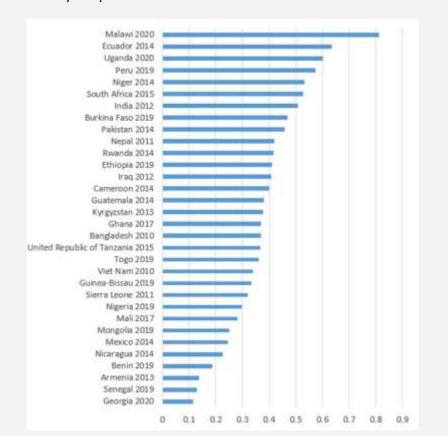
The average annual income from agriculture among female headed households/holdings follows the same trend as among male headed households in all countries except Uganda. Moreover, the gap between the two categories has remained consistent in all the countries except Georgia and Uganda. In Georgia, the gap abruptly increased in 2016, and decreased thereafter. On the other hand, in Uganda, the gap between the two categories almost closed in 2016, and increased thereafter.



Average annual income from agriculture of small-scale food producers in constant PPP 2011 USD



Ratio of small-scale over non-small-scale food producers of annual income from agriculture. Countries' last year reported



Target 2.4: By 2030, ensure sustainable food production systems and implement resilient agricultural practices that increase productivity and production, that help maintain ecosystems, that strengthen capacity for adaptation to climate change, extreme weather, drought, flooding and other disasters and that progressively improve land and soil quality

Indicator 2.4.1: Proportion of agricultural area under productive and sustainable agriculture

Target 2.5: By 2020, maintain the genetic diversity of seeds, cultivated plants and farmed and domesticated animals and their related wild species, including through soundly managed and diversified seed and plant banks at the national, regional and international levels, and promote access to and fair and equitable sharing of benefits arising from the utilization of genetic resources and associated traditional knowledge, as internationally agreed

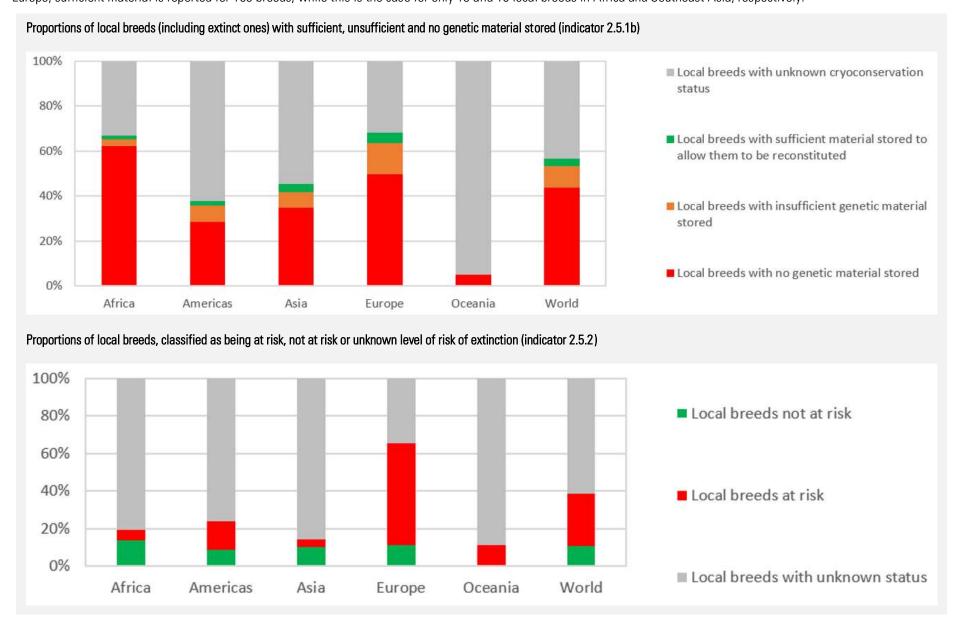
Indicator 2.5.1: Number of (a) plant and (b) animal genetic resources for food and agriculture secured in either medium- or long-term conservation facilities

Indicator 2.5.2: Proportion of local breeds classified as being at risk of extinction

Increased efforts are needed to preserve the genetic diversity of farmed and domestic animals for future generations

The diversity of farmed and domesticated animals is mainly maintained in vivo in-situ, which refers to living animals kept and used in the respective livestock production system. If the number of living animals in a population falls below certain thresholds they are considered to be at risk of extinction. Farmers and countries have to take conservation actions, such as improving management, to maintain or increase the population sizes to avoid extinction. Another way to maintain their diversity for future use is to store cryoconserved genetic material in gene banks. This is called in vitro ex situ conservation. These options of maintaining diversity are complementary to each other and SDG indicators 2.5.2 and 2.5.1b, referring to those two main ways of maintenance, must be interpreted simultaneously. For both indicators, the number of countries with updated data preclude the meaningful assessment of global results.

Stable or decreasing proportions of breeds at risk (2.5.2) in combination with an increasing number of local breeds with sufficient material stored can be interpreted as a positive trend regarding the achievement of the target. Unfortunately we are still far from maintaining the genetic diversity of farmed and domesticated animals. For in vitro ex situ conservation, sufficient material is stored for only 277 out of 7704 local breeds. In situ, the risk-status of 62% of local breeds remains unknown and 72% of local breeds are being at risk of extinction among local breeds with known status. Where the reporting status allows us to show regional results the proportions of local breeds at risk are alarmingly high, with 83 percent in Europe, 69 percent in Southern Africa, and 40 and 26 percent in South America and Northern Africa, respectively. While the number of endangered local breeds is unlikely to decrease significantly, major efforts are needed to (i) collect or estimate relevant data to infer the risk of extinction, and at the same time (ii) strengthen efforts to store genetic material in sufficient quantities. While data reporting is quite good for SDG indicator 2.5.1b, the number of local breeds that have sufficient material is alarmingly low. In Europe, sufficient material is reported for 166 breeds, while this is the case for only 18 and 15 local breeds in Africa and Southeast Asia, respectively.



Additional resources, press releases, etc. with links:

• Additional documents referring to the diversity and maintenance of domesticated animals can be found at http://www.fao.org/animal-genetics/event

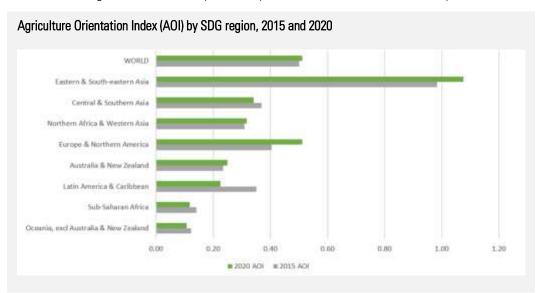
Target 2.a: Increase investment, including through enhanced international cooperation, in rural infrastructure, agricultural research and extension services, technology development and plant and livestock gene banks in order to enhance agricultural productive capacity in developing countries, in particular least developed countries

Indicator 2.a.1: The agriculture orientation index for government expenditures

The agriculture orientation index registered an increasing trend at the global level between 2015 and 2019 but receded in 2020 as higher expenditures went to non-agricultural activities

The agriculture orientation index (AOI), which compares government expenditure for agriculture to the agriculture sector's contribution to GDP, registered an increasing trend at the global level between 2015 and 2019 but receded in 2020 as higher expenditures went to non-agriculture activities, particularly those related to the COVID-19 response.

Between 2015 and 2020, increasing public spending on agriculture was evident in Asia, particularly in Eastern Asia. The increasing share of agriculture expenditures in Asia over time led to an improvement in AOI from 0.76 in 2015 to 0.82 in 2020. An increase in AOI was also registered in some developed regions such as Europe and Northern America (from 0.40 to 0.51), and Australia and New Zealand (from 0.23 to 0.25). With the exemption of Eastern and Southern Asia, the rest of the developing world registered a declining AOI during the same period. This does not bode well for efforts to reduce poverty and hunger, considering the potential of public spending on agriculture to drive inclusive economic growth, as reflected also in certain regional commitments such as the Malabo Declaration, which commits African countries to invest 10 percent of their public expenditures in agriculture. At the same time, while the AOI in high-income countries appears to be more oriented towards agriculture, governments in developing countries devote a much higher share of total expenditure on agriculture in comparison to governments in high-income countries.



Custodian agency(ies): FAO

Indicator 2.a.2: Total official flows (official development assistance plus other official flows) to the agriculture sector

Total aid to the agriculture sector increases in 2020 to respond to food security concerns during the pandemic

Total aid to agriculture in developing countries represented USD 15.3 billion in 2020, or 5.7% of total flows. Between 2016 and 2019, the volume of aid for agriculture was steady, but it grew by nearly 18% in 2020 over 2019.

Part of the increase responds to increased food security concerns during the pandemic and to a renewed interest in agricultural technology for the poor.

Storyline author(s)/contributor(s): Yasmin AHMAD, OECD

Target 2.b: Correct and prevent trade restrictions and distortions in world agricultural markets, including through the parallel elimination of all forms of agricultural export subsidies and all export measures with equivalent effect, in accordance with the mandate of the Doha Development Round

Indicator 2.b.1: Agricultural export subsidies

Target 2.c: Adopt measures to ensure the proper functioning of food commodity markets and their derivatives and facilitate timely access to market information, including on food reserves, in order to help limit extreme food price volatility

Indicator 2.c.1: Indicator of food price anomalies

Globally the proportion of countries afflicted by high food prices increased sharply in 2020

At the global level, the share of countries afflicted by high food prices, which had been relatively stable since 2016, rose sharply from 16 percent in 2019 to 47 in 2020, mainly attributed to trends in international markets. International prices of food items soared in the second half of 2020, following declines in the first five months of the year amid COVID-19-related stagnation in the food and non-food sectors. The price rises were supported by the increase in international demand for cereals, vegetable oils, sugar and dairy products with the easing of the COVID-19 related restrictive measures in some countries. The strong demand more than offset abundant supplies from the 2020/21 record outputs of wheat, maize, rice and oilseed.

Domestic market factors also prompted price increases. In some countries, prices of key food items soared due to massive-buying and hoarding amid the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic, when restrictive measures related to the pandemic were introduced. An upsurge in the costs of freight and agricultural inputs as well as some logistical bottlenecks exerted additional upward pressure on food prices in domestic markets. Increases in domestic food prices were in part limited by policy measures such as fiscal support to producers and consumers.

In 2020, the proportion of countries experiencing abnormally and moderately high food prices was highest in Central and Southern Asia (67 percent) and lowest in Eastern and Southeastern Asia (33 percent). In Latin America and the Caribbean, the share of countries afflicted by high prices rose year on year by 31 percentage points in 2020, reversing the declines in previous years. In Central, Southern and Western Asia and in North Africa, the market disruptions amid the COVID-19 pandemic further compounded pre-existing conditions, including reduced domestic availabilities of staple food and currency depreciations in some countries. In Oceania, price indices are only available for a handful of countries, making it difficult to draw conclusions about food price volatility at the regional level.

