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### FOOD SECURITY AND NUTRITION STATUS REPORT

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## I. INTRODUCTION

1. The purpose of this paper is mainly to review developments in and factors affecting the current household food security and nutrition situation in the developing countries, which supplements the information provided in The State of Food and Agriculture 1993 (SOFA 1993) on the overall food production and supply situation. It also reviews the follow-up action at the international level on the International Conference on Nutrition (ICN), which supplements information on the ICN in SOFA 1993. Finally, this document describes FAO's Special Action Programmes on food security and nutrition.
2. Despite adequate supplies of food at the global level, FAO estimates that 20 percent of the total population in the developing world was chronically undernourished<sup>1</sup> in 1988-90, consuming too little to meet even minimal energy needs.<sup>2</sup> However, for the developing countries as a whole, there has been a consistent decline during the last 20 years in both the proportion and absolute number of chronically undernourished people, from 36 percent of the total population in these countries in 1969-71 to 20 percent in 1988-90. Progress, however, has been uneven. In Africa the proportion of the population chronically undernourished has remained essentially unchanged since the 1970s, but because of the region's annual population growth rate (approximately 3 percent) the number of people affected has increased dramatically from 101 million people to 168 million between 1969-71 and 1988-90. In both Latin America and the Caribbean and in the Near East the rate of improvement slowed during the 1980s and the growth of the population resulted in an actual increase in the number of people chronically undernourished. In Asia and the Pacific, while the proportion of undernourished has been reduced by half, some 528 million people remain chronically undernourished.
3. The people primarily affected by malnutrition are the poor and disadvantaged, who cannot produce or procure adequate food, generally live in marginal or unsanitary environments without access to clean water and basic services and lack access to education and information to improve their nutritional status. Efforts to improve the nutritional well-being of all populations need to focus on these three broad areas. Ensuring household food security is a necessary condition for improving nutritional status, but, by itself, is not sufficient. The nutritional status of each member of the household depends in turn on the following conditions being met: the food available to the household must be shared according to individual needs; the food must be of sufficient variety, quality and safety; and each family member must have good health status in order to benefit nutritionally from the food consumed.
4. It will be recalled that the ultimate objective of world food security, adopted in 1983 by the FAO Committee on World Food Security, the Council and the Conference, is "to ensure that all people at all times have both physical and economic access to the basic food they need". While ensuring physical and economic access to adequate food on the part of all individuals is the ultimate objective, food security also has important household, national, and global dimensions. For instance, adequacy of food production at the global level, safe stock levels, and price stability are necessary in order to ensure that food deficit countries have secure supplies of food. Whether such countries have actual access to required amounts of food, however, depends, *inter alia*, on their ability to import food. Moreover, national-level adequacy does not ensure that all households within the country are food secure, as seen in many countries where in spite of adequate food supplies on the average,

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<sup>1</sup> Defined as those people whose estimated daily energy intake over a year falls below that required to maintain body weight and support light activity.

<sup>2</sup> World Food Supplies and the Prevalence of Chronic Undernutrition in Developing Regions as Assessed in 1992, FAO, Rome 1992.



a considerable portion of the population remains undernourished..What is important is that households should have physical access as well as adequate purchasing power or "entitlement" to food.

## II. ACCESS TO FOOD - CURRENT SITUATION AND OUTLOOK

5. The ability of households to acquire sufficient supplies of a variety of good quality and safe foods to ensure their food security and nutritional well-being depends on both the availability of food and the means to acquire it. In general, physical access to food on the part of households may be largely ensured in countries which have adequate total food supplies and where there are no disruptions to movement of food within the country. The food production situation at the country level is reviewed in Section III. This section focusses on economic access to food, based on a review of recent developments in some important factors that impact upon economic access to food. Also reviewed here are recent developments on related policies.

### 2.1 Trends in Income and Food Prices

6. The rate of growth of Gross National Product (GNP) in developing countries as a whole was 3.2 percent in 1991, giving per caput income growth of 1.1 percent. Estimates for 1992 show improvements in GNP growth to 4.8 percent and in per caput GNP to 2.7 percent. Per caput incomes are projected to increase to 3.2 percent in 1993.<sup>3</sup> This pattern of growth, however, is far from uniform, with some regions and many countries experiencing negative per caput growth. Thus, while the South and East Asia region is projected to experience growth in per caput incomes of 3.5 percent in 1993, the rate projected for sub-Saharan Africa is negative 0.6 percent, following a negative 1.9 percent in 1992. The decline in income in many countries in Africa is a continuation of the disturbing trends of the 1985-90 period, when the average annual rate of income decline was 1.1 percent. The projection for the Latin American and the Caribbean region is 0.6 percent in 1993, up from 0.2 percent in 1992.

7. Reports on trends in food prices at consumer level in 1992/93 and the overall outlook for 1993/94, as assessed in mid-1993, show mixed patterns. Of the 36 developing countries for which this information was available, prices in nominal terms (i.e. without allowing for inflation) were found to have increased in half of the countries while in the other half prices either remained stable or declined.

8. In Asia, consumer food prices were either stable or declined from the previous year in Bangladesh, India and Pakistan. In Bangladesh, as a result of record harvest of rice in 1992, and record stocks with the Government, rice prices in March 1993 were 17 percent below the prices one year previously. In India, wheat prices dropped below the previous year's level by end 1992, and, with a good harvest in 1993, wheat prices are expected to continue to be depressed during 1993/94. In Pakistan, with a second bumper harvest in 1992/93, wheat prices are expected to remain low and stable during 1993/94. Elsewhere in Asia, in April 1993 China virtually abolished, except for some outlying provinces, price controls on grains and edible oils. This is expected to lead to some price increases. In Myanmar, consumer prices of rice increased considerably during 1992/93, by as much as 75 percent in case of the popular Emata variety, due to increased producer prices and marketing costs. Prices were expected to rise further if the Government goes ahead with its stated plan of reducing consumer subsidies.

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<sup>3</sup> Project Link World Outlook, April 1993, University of Pennsylvania, United Nations and University of Toronto.

9. In Latin America and the Caribbean region, consumer food prices increased sharply in Haiti, Ecuador and Guyana. In Ecuador, wheat prices increased by 32 percent in the year to September 1992, while bread and pasta prices also rose, by 70 and 59 percent respectively, during the year. The Government did not intervene in the wheat market following its commitment to price liberalization policy. Rice prices in Guyana are reported to have tripled during 1992 following the privatization of rice mills. Elsewhere, food prices in 1992/93 were either stable or increased moderately in Brazil, Peru and Mexico. In Peru, prices remained stable as a result of overall recession in the economy.

10. In Africa, a number of countries including Burkina Faso, Guinea, Mali, Niger, Togo and Tanzania enjoyed stable or decreasing food prices largely as a result of good harvest. Other countries where food prices were moderately increasing were Benin, Chad, Senegal, rural areas of Zaire, and Uganda. On the other hand, food prices sharply increased in 1992 in Mauritania, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, and urban areas of Zaire. In Tanzania, although the overall outlook for food supply is satisfactory, and consumer prices have declined, special assistance may be needed to cover food needs of the vulnerable groups.

## 2.2 The Declining Level of Food Subsidies

11. The trend towards reducing this item of government expenditure has continued over the past year, largely reflecting a need to curb budget deficits and often in connection with Structural Adjustment Programmes. As a result, access to food by vulnerable households has become more difficult. On the other hand, several governments continue to intervene in one form or other to maintain stable food prices.

12. For example, bread prices in 1992 were raised by 300 percent in the Sudan as a consequence of subsidy removal, while in Tunisia the controlled prices of bread and couscous were also increased for similar reasons. In Angola, the price of bread was de-regulated and the prices of many other basic foods sharply raised, following currency devaluation. Similarly, price controls have been formally abolished in Ethiopia, although the Government has continued to distribute some basic commodities at controlled prices. In Zambia, the coupon system facilitating the purchase of maize-meal at reduced prices was abolished. Among Asian countries, the prices of rice and wheat flour purchased through ration coupons in China were increased by over 40 percent in 1992, while subsidies on cereal products have been removed altogether in some provinces. The Public Distribution System (PDS) of India is currently under review. At the same time, the State Government of Andhra Pradesh increased the price of subsidized rice by almost 50 percent and reduced the maximum quantity available per family by over one third in an effort to cut spending on rice subsidies. In Sri Lanka, the food coupon programme is being gradually phased out and replaced with an income transfer programme with a more limited coverage of beneficiaries.

13. In some other countries, governments have intervened in the past year to prevent consumer prices from rising, often after previous attempts at de-regulation had proved politically untenable or imposed great burdens on the poorest sections of urban populations. Some recent examples from Egypt, Kenya and Nigeria show how governments have continued to defend the prices of one or two key staples leaving other prices to the working of market forces. In Kenya, the Government removed price controls on wheat, flour and bread in February 1993 while retaining marketing and price controls on maize, the main staple food. In Egypt, the price of flour used for baladi bread was maintained at the 1992 level while other types of bread were no longer subsidized. The Government of Nigeria undertook domestic sales of subsidized grain in order to cushion price rises consequent upon currency devaluation. Thus while bread prices were relatively stable, prices of other food items greatly increased. Similarly, an 18 percent sales tax on basic foods was introduced in Peru, but this



was withdrawn following a sharp rise in food prices. In Venezuela, controls on official prices of wheat products and rice were reinstated in 1992 after prices rose substantially.

### 2.3 The Continuing Trend Towards More Liberal Marketing Policies

14. The trend towards reducing government participation in agricultural marketing is continuing. In the medium to long-term, privatization programmes, or the fostering of greater competition for food marketing parastatals, could benefit consumers through generating lower food prices and more efficient distribution. There is a danger, however, that in the short-term some interruption of supplies may occur, especially in remote areas, if the private sector is inadequately equipped to fulfil its expected role.

15. The shift towards private sector marketing has been most pronounced in 1992 in Africa. Thus, the system of determining both import and domestic prices was liberalized in Cameroon, following the dismantling of the marketing parastatal. In addition, restrictions on the private transportation and milling of rice have been lifted in Egypt, so that the Government no longer intervenes in rice marketing, while in Ethiopia a substantial liberalization of agricultural marketing is being introduced under the New Economic Policy. In Lesotho, there are plans to privatize the main grain marketing agency, and the food marketing parastatal in Malawi has closed down a substantial number of buying points, allowing private traders to sell straight to processors. In the Sudan, the current reform programme aims to end all marketing subsidies and privatize or reform the parastatals, while in Tanzania, most functions formerly carried out by the National Milling Corporation have been either abolished or transferred to the Ministry of Agriculture. In Uganda, private grain traders have increasingly been allowed to operate alongside the Produce Marketing Board and most controls and subsidies affecting maize marketing in Zambia have been removed. In Zimbabwe a partial de-control of maize sales and movements between production zones have been introduced. Elsewhere, the Government of Argentina, reflecting an on-going policy of reducing government intervention in cereal marketing, liquidated the Argentine National Grain Board along with other regulatory bodies. Also, a new agricultural and food policy is being introduced in El Salvador, involving the liberalization of both input and output marketing. Similarly in Guyana, institutions affiliated to the rice industry have been among those sold to the private sector.

### 2.4 Changes in National Trade Policies

16. In general, policy changes involving the development of more liberal trading systems can be expected, in the short-term at least, to improve the physical availability of food in the countries adopting such policies, since open competition tends to ensure a swifter response of supply to demand shifts or domestic shortages. At the same time, there is a danger in some cases that too rapid a process of liberalization can lead to a decrease in domestic production as local producers are unable to adapt to more open markets. Policy trends in the past year reflect these dual characteristics of trade policy: while the recent emphasis on more liberal policies has continued in many developing countries, others have introduced higher import barriers in order to protect domestic producers, in particular against low-priced, often subsidized imports.

17. Thus, in Africa, private traders in Algeria and Morocco may now import cereals. The Government of Nigeria lifted the import ban on wheat, while in Rwanda preferential tariffs were extended to cereal imports from other countries of the Preferential Trade Area. In Asia, the Government of Bangladesh has, for the first time, allowed millers to import wheat directly. The privatization of the Rice Export Corporation of Pakistan has gone into a second stage, and the ban on exports of wheat bran was also lifted. Similarly, steps have been taken to privatize the rice trade in Sri Lanka. In Latin America and the Caribbean, the Government of Colombia adopted a policy to stabilize the import prices of basic food commodities within a price band while in Costa Rica, a

similar system was introduced for imports of rice and sorghum (possibly to be extended to wheat and maize in the future) from outside Central America. This approach is considered a step towards liberalization compared to previous systems involving import permits, since in future traders will be permitted to import freely. Other developments include the liberalization of rice imports in the Dominican Republic, while in Jamaica the importing monopoly of the Jamaica Commodity Trading Company has been removed. In Peru, new import regulations for coarse grains have been implemented. These involve the eventual replacement of the import licensing system by a variable tariff.

18. At the same time, many other countries have imposed additional controls on trade in basic foods. For example in Africa, imports of rice were prohibited in Zambia as part of an effort to stimulate domestic production, and in Uganda the export of most basic foods was banned in response to the adverse effect of drought on food security. In Asia, the Government of Myanmar prohibited the cross-border export of both rice and maize by private traders, and a new import tax was imposed on maize in Syria, in order to encourage local maize production and assist the sale of domestic stocks. Among the countries of Latin America, compensatory import duties were imposed on subsidized agricultural imports in Brazil, including on wheat imported from the United States under the Export Enhancement Programme. Similarly, tariffs on all major cereals were increased in Guatemala, while in Mexico the Government established, as an anti-dumping measure, a surcharge on key food imports, which is additional to existing *ad valorem* duties and sales taxes. Finally, in Venezuela, a higher import tariff was imposed on imported feed wheat, as well as a special tax designed to protect the local sorghum crop and prevent feed wheat being blended into products for human consumption.

### III. FOOD PRODUCTION SITUATION AND OUTLOOK IN THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES<sup>4</sup>

19. As noted with satisfaction by the Committee on World Food Security at its eighteenth session this year, several of the food security indicators showed some improvements in the global food security situation in 1992. Improvements were also recorded for many developing countries, notably those in Southern Africa, several countries in South Asia, China, and the former USSR. However, with virtually no addition to their cereal stocks in 1992/93,<sup>5</sup> and given the financial difficulties facing many low income countries in importing food commercially,<sup>6</sup> food supplies in 1993/94 will depend crucially on this year's harvest. While the food situation in the developing countries on the whole improved, the overall picture which emerges from a review of recent estimates of per caput cereal production in low-income food-deficit (LIFD) countries<sup>7</sup> in 1992/93 is far from encouraging. Of the 68 LIFD countries for which information was available, over two thirds of them recorded a lower

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<sup>4</sup> The global food supply situation and other related developments and outlook, including global food security, are addressed in two sub-items of the agenda. They are The State of Food and Agriculture 1993 and Agriculture Toward 2010. Some selected statistics on global food production, domestic utilization, trade and changes in stocks are also summarized in Annex Table 1 of this document.

<sup>5</sup> See Annex Table 1.

<sup>6</sup> The economic prospects for two selected groups of countries - LIFD countries with lowest capacity to finance food imports and economies highly dependent on agricultural exports - are addressed in The State of Food and Agriculture 1993.

<sup>7</sup> These include all food deficit countries with per caput income below the level used by the World Bank to determine eligibility for IDA assistance (i.e. US\$1 235 per caput in 1991).



level of per caput cereal production in 1992/93 than the average for the second half of the eighties.<sup>8</sup> In Africa, it is estimated that per caput cereal production has fallen in 31 of the 41 LIFD countries, while in Asia and Latin America and the Caribbean, the proportions are six out of ten and six out of nine respectively. Compared with 1991/92, per caput production in 1992/93 has fallen in 70 percent of LIFD countries.

20. For a large number of developing countries, particularly the LIFD countries, access to food for a significant segment of the population in the rural areas depends largely upon domestic production, not only through direct access to land but also due to dependency on this sector for employment and incomes. In view of the importance of food production for overall food security, the next section focusses on the current food production situation, as well as outlook for 1993/94, in the developing countries.

### 3.1 Food Production Situation in Africa

21. The aggregate wheat production in **north Africa** was forecast for 1993/94 at 9.1 million tons, almost 0.6 million tons less than in 1992/93 and markedly below the average for recent years. Harvests were expected to be lower in all countries of the sub-region with the exception of Egypt. Production of coarse grains, mainly barley and maize, was forecast to decline by 0.7 million tons to some 9.2 million tons, mainly due to reduced barley crops in Algeria and Tunisia. The output of paddy in Egypt was expected to remain above average.

22. In **western Africa**, prospects for the 1993 coarse grain harvest in the south and central regions of the coastal countries were generally satisfactory following regular rains since March and a good outturn was expected. In the Sahelian countries, plantings of coarse grains were progressing northwards following the spread of the rains. Planting of the 1993 main rice crop was favoured by timely rain. The region's aggregate output in 1993 was expected to be below the 1992 record harvest but could be well above average. Farming operations continued to be affected by civil strife in some parts of the sub-region.

23. In **central Africa**, early prospects for the 1993 coarse grain crops were favourable following widespread rains in Zaire, Congo and Gabon and satisfactory weather conditions in the south and the centre of Cameroon and Central African Republic. In Zaire, output was expected to be close to the previous year's level.

24. In **eastern Africa**, prospects were mixed for the sub-region's main season coarse grain crops. Crop prospects were poor in many countries, and in some regions within countries, for a number of reasons including the mounting threat of locust invasion in Eritrea, Ethiopia and Sudan; erratic rains in some of the key growing areas in Ethiopia; and civil strife in key growing areas and localized dry spells in Rwanda. However, prospects remained good in several other countries, including Tanzania.

25. In **southern Africa**, estimates as of June 1993 pointed to an aggregate harvest of cereals at 20 million tons in 1993, compared to only 9 million tons in the drought-devastated year of 1992. Production was estimated to have recovered markedly in Zimbabwe and Zambia. However, harvests of coarse grains in several countries remained below normal due to unsatisfactory weather and/or civil strife and shortages of draught animals, notably in Angola, Botswana, Swaziland, Lesotho and Namibia.



### 3.2 Food Production Situation in Asia

26. Total cereal production in **Asia** in 1992/93 was estimated as of June 1993 at 889 million tons (with rice in paddy terms), 22 million tons more than in 1991/92, with a large number of countries achieving gains in production. Record wheat outputs were estimated for Bangladesh, India, the Islamic Republic of Iran and Pakistan. In China, wheat output was expected to be below the record 101 million tons harvest of 1992 due to poor weather conditions.

27. The overall outlook for Asian coarse grain production in 1993/94 was favourable. In India a good harvest was expected, assuming a normal monsoon. In Pakistan, a heatwave in June stressed the developing maize crop. In Indonesia, the maize crop was expected to be some 1 million tons below last year's harvest of 8 million tons, due to reduced planting. Above-average harvests were gathered in Syria, Turkey and Saudi Arabia. In Iraq, as a result of larger plantings and generally satisfactory weather, cereal production recovered although it remained below the 1990 level.

28. Meteorological reports indicated the likelihood of another normal to good season for rice in Asia in 1993/94. In Myanmar, with the arrival of timely rains, rice production was targeted at a significantly high 16.6 million tons. In Pakistan, output was anticipated to recover from the flood-damaged crop of 1992. In Thailand, abundant rains since the start of the monsoon season increased soil moisture for the main paddy crop. By contrast, in the Philippines, the arrival of the monsoon was somewhat delayed. In Indonesia, the output of the main paddy was forecast in June to be marginally lower than in the previous year mainly as a result of flood damage to a small proportion of the main crop. In Malaysia, harvesting of the main crop was complete, and a small increase in output was expected. In Sri Lanka, preliminary official data indicated a significant recovery in the country's production of rice in 1993.

### 3.3 Food Production Situation in Latin America and the Caribbean

29. Prospects for the 1993 main season coarse grains in **Central America and the Caribbean** were favourable reflecting abundant rains in recent months and a good level of plantings. Provisional forecasts put the region's aggregate output at 24 million tons, almost unchanged from the 1992 above-average crop. The June 1993 forecasts were for increased maize production in Mexico, Guatemala, Nicaragua and El Salvador, and average output in Honduras. The coarse grain crop was anticipated to decrease further in Costa Rica and Dominican Republic.

30. The overall outlook of paddy production was favourable in Costa Rica, Honduras and Mexico in view of adequate irrigation, as well as in Panama and El Salvador. On the other hand, rice harvests in Guatemala, Haiti and Cuba were forecast to be lower, in Cuba due largely to persistent shortages of agricultural inputs.

31. The overall outlook for wheat crops in **South America** deteriorated somewhat by June this year due to expected reductions in plantings in the larger producing countries. However, wheat harvests were forecast to be above-average for some low-income food-deficit countries, notably Bolivia and Peru, but below last year's level in Ecuador. In June, FAO revised its forecast for the 1993 aggregate South American coarse grain production downward, in view of crop damage caused by floods, to 52 million tons, 3 percent below the previous year's record but still an above-average harvest. Production was forecast to be lower in Brazil, Argentina and Chile, and higher in Peru, Colombia and Bolivia.

32. Paddy production was not expected to recover substantially in 1993/94 from the previous year. Production was forecast to be higher in Brazil, Uruguay, Bolivia, Colombia and Peru, and no change was anticipated in Argentina and Ecuador.

### 3.4 Severe Food Supply Problems in Many Parts of the World

33. As noted with deep concern by the Committee on World Food Security at its eighteenth session, despite the overall improvement in global cereal supplies in 1992/93, severe food supply problems persisted in many parts of the world. In Somalia, fresh violence threatened domestic production in some parts and has disrupted relief operations which had led to improved food supply over the past months. Elsewhere in eastern Africa, serious food supply difficulties continued to be reported from southern Sudan, and in northern Rwanda population displacement triggered by insecurity necessitated large-scale airlifting of food aid. Prospects were uncertain for main season crops in Kenya and large quantities of food aid may be needed in 1993/94. In southern Africa, famine was threatening thousands of Angola's population inaccessible to relief agencies. Intensified civil strife has affected production and paralysed marketing, and the extreme insecurity made relief operations difficult and dangerous. Concerted international support for relief food distribution is necessary to prevent widespread suffering. Despite a larger crop than last year, Mozambique remained heavily dependent on relief assistance because of internal population displacement, localized drought, and increasing numbers of returnees. Below-average crops in Lesotho and Swaziland pointed to continuing food supply difficulties in both countries. In the coastal countries of western Africa early crop prospects were generally satisfactory but both Liberia and Sierra Leone were expected to harvest poor crops again following disruption caused by civil strife. The food aid needs of both countries will remain substantial in 1993. In Asia, the food supply situation remained serious in Iraq and Afghanistan. In the north-east region of Brazil, the output of food crops in 1993 was forecast to be sharply reduced by the worst drought for 60 years. Food supply difficulties continued to affect Armenia, Georgia and Tajikistan. In the latter country, severe adverse weather conditions were exacerbating the effects of civil strife. In Europe, Bosnia-Herzegovina continued to face grave food shortages and the situation was expected to deteriorate unless urgently needed food aid supplies were pledged and distributed.

## IV. FOLLOW-UP TO THE INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON NUTRITION

### 4.1 The World Declaration and Plan of Action for Nutrition

34. At the FAO/WHO 1992 International Conference on Nutrition (ICN) delegations from 159 countries and the European Economic Community unanimously adopted the World Declaration and Plan of Action for Nutrition which calls for vigorous and concerted effort at all levels to reduce global hunger and malnutrition and to improve the nutritional status of all populations. Representatives from 144 Non-Governmental Organizations, 11 intergovernmental organizations and 16 UN Organizations also participated in the ICN and endorsed the Declaration and Plan of Action.

35. The ICN recognized that poverty, social inequality and the lack of education were the root causes of hunger and malnutrition and stressed that improvements in human welfare, including nutritional well-being, must be at the centre of social and economic development efforts. It called for concerted action to direct resources to those most in need in order to enable them to adequately care for themselves by raising their productive capacities and social opportunities. It also emphasized the need to protect the nutritional well-being of vulnerable groups through specific short-term actions, when needed, while working for longer-term solutions.

36. The World Declaration on Nutrition builds on the goals and commitments arising from previous fora addressing nutrition issues, including the UN Fourth Development Decade and the World Summit on Children. Governments and other concerned parties have pledged to eliminate before the end of this decade: famine and famine-related deaths; starvation and nutritional deficiency diseases in communities affected by natural and man-made disasters; and deficiencies of iodine and



vitamin A. They have also pledged to substantially reduce within this decade: starvation and widespread chronic hunger; undernutrition; micronutrient deficiencies; chronic diet-related diseases; impediments to optimal breastfeeding; and inadequate sanitation.

37. The ICN Plan of Action provides a technical framework for developing national plans of action and endorses major policy guidelines which should underlie national and international policies, strategies and activities to improve nutrition. Its major focus is on the strategies and actions necessary to reach the overall ICN objectives of ensuring adequate access by all to the food necessary for safe and adequate diets, promoting health and nutritional well-being for all through sustainable and environmentally-sound development interventions and eliminating famine and famine deaths. These strategies and action areas include: incorporating nutrition objectives into development programmes and policies; improving household food security; protecting consumers through improved food quality and safety; preventing and managing infectious diseases; caring for the socio-economically deprived and nutritionally vulnerable; promoting breast-feeding; preventing specific micronutrient deficiencies; promoting appropriate diets and healthy lifestyles; and assessing, analyzing and monitoring nutrition situations.

38. The Plan of Action for Nutrition also calls for renewed collaboration among all parties concerned with improving nutrition. Governments have stressed the need to work intersectorally to address the problems of hunger and malnutrition. International agencies are urged to refocus and strengthen their nutrition-related activities and programmes, and all concerned agencies and organs of the UN system are urged to strengthen their collaborative and cooperative mechanisms in order to fully participate at international, regional, national and local levels in the achievement of the objectives of the Plan of Action for Nutrition. As leading specialized agencies of the UN system in the fields of food, nutrition and health, FAO and WHO have been requested to prepare in collaboration with other UN entities a consolidated report on implementation of the World Declaration and Plan of Action for Nutrition for review by their Governing Bodies by 1995.

#### **4.2 Developing National Plans of Action for Nutrition**

39. Governments have pledged to revise or prepare, before the end of 1994, National Plans of Action for Nutrition, including attainable goals and measurable targets, based on the principles and relevant strategies in the global plan.

40. Most countries have already made good progress in identifying priority problems, reviewing or preparing national plans and establishing intersectoral mechanisms for action. In the light of the outcome of the ICN, however, this basic work should be revised or initiated with a view to reformulating national plans of action to improve nutrition in accord with the goals and objectives of the World Declaration and Plan of Action for Nutrition.

41. Many countries have requested assistance in revising or preparing national plans of action, and FAO is assisting to the extent that resources allow. Guidelines for developing national plans have been prepared and distributed to Member Governments. This activity will continue to be a priority in the next biennium.

#### **4.3 Areas of FAO Support and Activities**

42. One of the key strategies to emerge from the ICN is to explicitly promote better nutrition through a range of agricultural and developmental policies and programmes by incorporating nutrition objectives and considerations into their planning and implementation. To accomplish this, appropriate sectors of government must have the capacity to analyse the nutritional impact of various policies and programmes and to act upon that analysis. FAO, through its various policy and planning support

efforts, will assist Member Governments to develop or strengthen their capacity for incorporating nutrition objectives into development activities.

43. In addition to support for policy analysis and programme planning and development, and in line with its comparative advantage, FAO will assist member countries to implement the Plan of Action by focusing on the following areas:

- improving nutrition through community development and household food security;
- assuring food quality and safety;
- combating micronutrient deficiency diseases;
- promoting nutrition education;
- monitoring nutritional status and making better use of nutrition-related information for planning and monitoring.

44. **Improving nutritional well-being through community development and enhanced household food security** is of prime importance in efforts to reduce poverty and ensure access to food. Most countries with extensive undernutrition and accompanying micronutrient deficiency problems rely on the agriculture sector not only as their source of food, but also as the prime source of employment and income for the majority of the people. Increased investments in agriculture and community development are needed to improve the poor's access to food and to improve their capacity to care for themselves. FAO will provide assistance to requesting member countries to formulate and implement such programmes as food preservation and storage techniques, increased production and consumption of under-utilized traditional food crops, promotion of agricultural-based industry in rural areas and improved marketing facilities.

45. **Improving food quality and safety** is imperative for better health and nutrition, national development and improved food trade. Poor quality or unsafe foods can have serious adverse effects on consumers. FAO will continue to actively assist member countries in implementing standards and codes prepared by the FAO/WHO Codex Alimentarius Commission to maintain and improve food quality and safety to protect consumers and promote better food trade in domestic and international markets. In order to meet the needs of FAO Member Nations, and especially to facilitate international food trade through the harmonization of food control, FAO is exploring the need for and the feasibility of establishing a Training and Reference Centre for Food Quality and Pesticides. In addition, FAO is taking steps to establish, within existing resources, a new Food Quality Liaison Group to assist Member Governments in establishing effective working relationships with the food industry to ensure compliance with food legislation and regulations; promote food import/export certification and inspection systems; assist, jointly with WHO, in the scientific evaluation of food additives, contaminants and residues of veterinary chemicals in food; and liaise with GATT and other Organizations on sanitary measures and technical barriers to trade and related areas.

46. Over one billion people are estimated to suffer from problems related to inadequate intakes of essential vitamins and minerals. While **solving micronutrient deficiency problems** requires intersectoral and interagency collaboration, such problems are often linked to less than adequate food intake. FAO will expand its support for sustainable food-based approaches, through the promotion of increased production, processing, marketing and consumption of micronutrient-rich foods. Food fortification, such as the iodization of salt which has proved to be effective in eliminating problems linked to iodine deficiency, will be supported. Where a strong cash economy and an effective food marketing system reaches most of the population, other types of fortification such as adding Vitamin A to fats, oils, sugar or salt and the addition of iron to wheat, rice or salt in combatting micronutrient deficiencies can be effective.



47. FAO will continue to provide assistance for the development of appropriate **nutrition education programmes** for children, adolescents, pregnant and nursing mothers and other adults, which are essential to promote and attain improved nutritional well-being. As nutrition education efforts are usually most effective when coupled with other efforts to improve nutrition, nutrition education campaigns need to be integrated into broad nutrition improvement programmes. Nutrition education can effectively address basic information on food groups; improved dietary habits; budgeting and best food buys; safe food handling; care and feeding of infants, children and the elderly; specific messages on special nutrition problems. It should also cover the quality and safety of food supplies, and provide accurate information on food standards, food labelling, food additives and chemical and microbiological contamination of foods. FAO is expanding its work in nutrition education and is taking steps to establish the Nutrition Education and Communications Group which would assist governments in developing all phases of their nutrition education efforts, including the development of strategies, messages, materials, training programmes, dietary guidance, and links with industries and special interest groups.

48. At national and international levels the implementation of simple, inexpensive but **effective systems to monitor nutritional status** is urgently needed in order to better plan and monitor development and activities as well as responses to emergencies. FAO will provide assistance for building such systems into agricultural, health, education and nutrition improvement programmes. These measures will assist in identifying and estimating the numbers of malnourished and will facilitate the adoption of nutrition monitoring and surveillance as integral measurements of the positive or negative effects of ongoing development policies and programmes. FAO, in continuing to improve the Global Information and Early Warning System (GIEWS), is already working to better incorporate nutrition and socio-economic indicators into its assessments. FAO will continue its periodic World Food Surveys and will also reinstitute its work on developing food composition databases.

#### 4.4 Intersectoral and Interagency Cooperation

49. There is a fundamental need to give adequate attention at the country level to determining appropriate and realistic national nutrition goals that can be pursued through national and sectoral socio-economic development activities at all levels. For these purposes mechanisms for promoting community-based action, multidisciplinary approaches and intersectoral action should be strengthened or created. FAO is prepared to assist requesting member countries in reviewing their coordinating mechanisms for the formulation and implementation of national plans of action for nutrition.

50. The unique roles that the UN and the specialized and financing agencies have in working with member countries place them in a good position to foster this process of cooperation and coordination. In particular, the assistance provided to member countries by FAO, WHO, other organizations of the UN system, and bilateral donors in preparing for the ICN, should be continued and, where appropriate, strengthened to ensure intersectoral cohesion and coordination at the sectoral and subnational levels.

51. Moreover, FAO, in consultation with other concerned organisations, will promote the establishment of regional or subregional networks to facilitate the sharing of national experience and the provision of technical cooperation among the countries concerned. Some regions have already established task forces or interagency groups focusing on food and nutrition; these groups should be taken into account in promoting better nutritional status and should be encouraged in ICN follow-up activities.

52. The important role that NGOs can play in achieving the goals of the World Declaration and Plan of Action for Nutrition are well recognized. In order to encourage their participation in ICN follow-up activities, FAO is actively promoting the establishment of international and regional

networks aimed at improving food supplies and nutritional status, as well as supporting and working directly with several independent international NGOs. In particular, work is continuing with the Rome and Geneva-based Working Groups formed to promote NGO participation in the ICN.

53. In order to meet the high expectations raised by the ICN, it is imperative that the UN and its specialized Agencies work together. The FAO and WHO endorse the need for continued and expanded collaboration, including wide-ranging participation of multilateral and bilateral organizations. With the Plan of Action for Nutrition, each agency has been asked to review how, within its mandate, it can best serve to assist Member States address their nutrition problems. FAO as the lead technical agency in the field of food and agriculture is committed to a vigorous follow-up to the ICN through strengthened collaboration throughout the UN System.

## V. FAO SPECIAL ACTION PROGRAMMES CONCERNING FOOD SECURITY AND NUTRITION

54. Food security, nutritional well-being, rural development and sustainability are broad objectives requiring inputs from a number of different technical disciplines, which could be addressed by a single planning process. In the past, responsibility for sector and subsector policy and programming has been dispersed among a large number of technical units within the Organization. This permitted each technical unit to bring the full weight of its expertise to bear on each specific policy or programming issue that was raised. However, with the widespread introduction of structural adjustment programmes, it was increasingly realized that specific policy issues should not be examined in isolation but within the context of a comprehensive macro-economic policy framework. Further, there has been a general move by UNDP and Trust Fund donors to fund projects only if presented as the elements of a country programme consistent with the overall policy framework. Thus, FAO has decided to introduce a more integrated approach to the provision of policy advice and programming assistance consistent with these new field realities.

55. Two of FAO's 12 Special Action Programmes (SAPs) directly address, *inter alia*, food security and nutrition problems. Country Policy and Programming Assistance for Food Security and Sustainable Agricultural and Rural Development (PFS/SARD) is a programme of policy advisory services and programming assistance to promote agricultural and rural development in an efficient, equitable and sustainable manner. It integrates under a single management structure FAO's country policy and programming assistance, including services previously provided separately for sector and structural adjustment policy analysis, food security programming, nutrition policy and planning, WCARRD follow-up missions, information systems development, and, more recently, incorporation of nutrition, environment and sustainability concerns into the agricultural development planning process. The second SAP, Nutrition and Food Quality, will seek to strengthen the capacity of governments (primarily ministries of food, agriculture, planning, economic development, commerce and industry) to develop, implement and monitor the range of activities necessary to improve nutrition and food supplies. It will support activities at the national, community and household levels, and where appropriate, involve the private sector and the NGO community in efforts to improve nutritional well-being.

### 5.1 Special Action Programme on PFS/SARD

56. The main objective of the SAP for PFS/SARD is to assist member countries in establishing policies, plans and programmes for food security, rural poverty reduction, and sustainable agricultural and rural development at the sector and cross-subsector level within the framework of sound macro-economic policies. Over the next 5 years the SAP will provide policy and programming services and related information systems development services to a large number of FAO's member countries. The



SAP will be reviewed in 1998, at which time the requirements for further assistance of this kind will be evaluated.

57. The SAP will provide a number of services as outlined below.

(a) Sector and Cross-subsector Policy and Programming Services

- policy review and analysis for sector development and structural adjustment programmes;
- WCARRD policy missions, including the design of rural poverty alleviation strategies and programmes;
- programme planning for food security, nutrition and sustainable agricultural and rural development.

In order to deliver the services mentioned above, information relating *inter alia* to the following topics will need to be provided, drawing on the work of all technical divisions concerned and/or other relevant SAPs as required:

- preparation of household food security and nutrition assessments;
- identification of food-insecure groups and evaluation of their food insecurity problems and options for addressing these problems;
- identification of different socio-economic groups of the rural poor and their characteristics, analysis of the causes of their poverty and the factors determining socio-economic differentiation and inequality, with a view to improving targeting of beneficiaries and identifying options for poverty reduction and eradication;
- identification of likely aggregate supply/demand imbalances in the short and medium-term and ameliorative price, stock, trade, land tenure and food aid policies and actions;
- assessments of natural resource base and sustainable agricultural production potentials;
- assessments of existing price and trade policy environment and marketing system behaviour.

(b) Information System Development Services

- dissemination of PFS/SARD information system design concepts;
- technical support for development and maintenance of management information systems (MIS) for policy analysis, programme formulation and monitoring;
- technical support to field projects to establish or strengthen MIS subsystems.
- development of diagnostic techniques for rural poverty analysis, including MIS subsystems;

- technical support for monitoring the nutritional impact of development policies and programmes on the poor.

Modules for the following subsystems will be covered: macro-economic performance; agricultural performance; land access and tenure; poverty indicators; rural employment; crop forecasting and early warning; market information; household-level data; programme monitoring and evaluation.

58. Countries may request policy and programming assistance under this SAP for a number of purposes such as:

- preparation of food and agriculture sector reviews;
- analysis of impact of structural adjustment on rural poverty and agricultural development;
- development of national nutrition action plans;
- development of national food security strategies and action programmes;
- policy and programming missions for agrarian reform and rural development including the design of poverty alleviation strategies and programmes;
- development of strategies for sustainable agricultural and rural development;
- establishment of institutional mechanisms for programme implementation, monitoring and evaluation;
- development of information systems for policy analysis and monitoring.

59. Services offered by the SAP may be provided in response to specific country requests or as part of an overall package of services leading to the formulation and implementation of an action programme. In each case the SAP management will develop appropriate country-specific work programmes to respond to these requests, including realistic funding mechanisms and time-frames for implementing each of them.

## **5.2 Special Action Programme on Nutrition and Food Quality**

60. The Programme on Nutrition and Food Quality is designed to assist countries to protect and promote nutritional well-being through assuring improved access by all to adequate supplies of good quality and safe foods at affordable prices and through broadly-based nutrition education. The programme will support activities that enhance the adequacy of food supplies, maintain the quality of food from the farm gate or family food plot through the entire food chain to the consumer preserving both its nutritional and economic value, protect food from losses or contamination, and encourage its wise and rational use as a source of nutrients and as an item of commercial value in domestic and export markets.

61. The programme will contribute to the achievement of the broad goals and objectives of the ICN World Declaration and Plan of Action for Nutrition, which establishes policy guidelines for addressing food and nutrition problems and specifies a number of strategies and actions to achieve these goals. Given the wide range of activities within the domain of agriculture, fisheries and forestry which affect food supplies and the nutritional status of different socio-economic groups, priorities for



action must be established and technical assistance provided in a coherent and coordinated manner. The Programme on Nutrition and Food Quality has been developed for just this purpose; it will serve as the primary FAO vehicle for providing and coordinating technical assistance for ICN follow-up by assisting member countries to identify, formulate, implement and monitor programmes and projects to:

- assure the adequacy, quality and safety of the food supply;
- improve household food security, especially among poor and nutritionally vulnerable population groups;
- promote better care and dietary practices within households..

62. Depending on a given country's needs, the programme will support activities in a number of related areas as follows:

(a) Assuring the adequacy, quality and safety of the food supply

protecting consumers through improved food quality and safety; in particular strengthening food control systems by updating food laws and regulations, developing food inspecting and analysis capabilities, and establishing export certification;

promoting good production and manufacturing practices;

training producers, processors and food handlers, street food sellers, and consumers;

improving sanitation;

addressing environmental concerns;

providing advice on improved domestic and international food marketing;

prevention of both quantitative and qualitative post-harvest food losses through improved on-farm and community storage, home preservation techniques, village-level and small-scale commercial processing, and improved distribution and marketing systems for food-insecure households;

preventing and controlling specific micronutrient deficiencies through increased production, preservation and availability of vitamin- and mineral-rich foods.

(b) Improving household food security, especially among poor and nutritionally vulnerable population groups

developing national food and nutrition information systems in order to identify and monitor the nutritional and food security status of at-risk population groups;

targeting inputs to food insecure households;

increasing real incomes of food-insecure households by promoting income-generating opportunities, especially small-scale food/agro-based industries and by providing targeted consumer subsidies and entitlements;

improving food marketing for the benefit of nutritionally vulnerable population groups;

fostering community development and cooperative action;

promoting kitchen gardens and home preservation techniques.

(c) Promoting better care and feeding practices within households

providing nutrition education and promoting consumer awareness;

improving access to fuel and water sources;

promoting appropriate diets;

establish mother's support groups;

introducing time and labour-saving technologies.

63. To support these activities, the Programme will:

- establish and apply technical guidelines for developing and implementing appropriate programmes and projects in nutrition, food protection and food quality assurance;
- assist in the development and implementation of comprehensive programmes and projects for improving nutrition and assuring food quality in member countries, giving priority to the least developed countries.

64. The SAP will establish a panel of external experts upon which it can draw for technical advice as required. The programme will make a concerted effort to build on the collaboration with other UN Organizations, bilateral agencies and the NGO community established in preparing for the ICN. It will enable FAO to better serve as a catalyst for developing comprehensive and coherent national approaches for improving food supplies and nutrition.



ANNEX TABLE 1 : WORLD PRODUCTION, DOMESTIC UTILIZATION AND STOCKS CHANGES OF STAPLE FOODS

	PRODUCTION			DOMESTIC UTILIZATION						TRADE			CHANGE IN ENDING CEREAL STOCKS 1/		
	1990	1991	1992	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93
	(- - - - - MILLION TONS - - - - -)														
<b>BY COMMODITY</b>															
Total staples' 2/ (rice paddy)	2154.0	2074.3	2152.3												
Total staples' (rice milled)	1980.9	1901.8	1977.3	1936.0	1914.2	1951.2	962.3	972.1	1000.7	200.6	229.5	216.1			
Total Cereals (rice milled)	1779.1	1702.0	1779.3	1734.2	1714.4	1753.2	851.9	860.4	889.0	185.3	214.9	201.0	+39.2	-17.3	+23.6
Wheat	593.0	545.8	563.9	567.3	548.4	557.6	373.3	379.0	388.0	90.4	107.2	98.1	+22.6	-7.5	+2.2
Rice (milled)	349.1	347.6	352.8	341.5	349.5	355.8	305.6	312.4	319.9	10.9	13.8	12.7	+6.5	-1.9	-2.6
Rice (paddy)	522.2	520.1	527.8	"											
Coarse Grains	837.0	808.6	862.6	825.4	816.5	839.8	173.0	169.0	181.1	84.0	93.9	90.2	+10.1	-7.9	+24.0
Roots and Tubers 3/	143.2	141.7	142.9	143.2	141.7	142.9	77.3	77.2	78.4	8.7	8.4	8.6			
Pulses	58.6	58.1	55.1	58.6	58.1	55.1	33.1	34.5	33.3	6.6	6.2	6.5			
<b>BY COUNTRY GROUPS</b>															
Developed countries	974.3	885.5	940.4	857.5	820.5	825.3	187.3	186.7	190.0	78.1	91.5	82.8	+27.5	-22.9	+22.8
Developing countries	1006.7	1016.3	1037.0	1078.5	1093.7	1125.9	775.0	785.4	810.7	122.5	138.0	133.4	+11.8	+5.6	+0.8
Low Income Food Deficit Countries	779.5	779.8	790.5	807.6	820.1	843.1	625.3	633.4	655.9	60.3	67.2	65.4	+15.4	+6.8	-3.8
Others	227.2	236.5	246.5	270.9	273.6	282.8	149.7	152.0	154.8	62.2	70.8	68.0	-3.6	-1.2	+4.6

Source: FAO (as of 22.07.1993)

1/ Pulses, Roots and Tubers are excluded.

2/ Includes Cereals, Pulses and Roots and Tubers in grain equivalent.

3/ In grain equivalent.

ANNEX TABLE 2 : PER CAPUT CONSUMPTION AND PRODUCTION OF CEREALS

	Estimated Per Caput Food Use			Per Caput Production		
	1985/86 - 1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1985/86 - 1990/91	1991/92	1992/93
	(----- (1980/81 - 1985/86 = 100) -----)					
TOTAL LIFDC	103.4	103.1	105.1	104.1	105.8	105.6
of which:						
AFRICA						
Angola	82.8	104.0	91.8	82.0	87.2	85.0
Benin	112.0	114.8	113.8	111.8	115.8	103.4
Botswana	101.6	116.8	118.5	156.4	130.2	42.1
Burkina Faso	128.2	138.2	142.5	127.2	160.4	157.5
Burundi	61.9	66.9	65.5	62.5	68.7	67.6
Cameroon	87.0	93.9	91.4	82.6	96.0	74.9
Cape Verde	111.6	109.7	119.8	284.8	77.9	120.1
Centr. African Rep.	111.4	101.9	100.6	110.1	71.6	62.6
Chad	107.3	114.2	119.7	125.2	154.5	159.4
Comoros	95.2	100.7	109.6	91.6	91.2	87.9
Congo	115.1	125.0	119.9	191.3	190.8	185.7
Cote d'Ivoire	97.9	93.4	93.9	95.8	94.0	81.5
Djibouti	115.4	149.8	142.8	-	-	-
Egypt	105.1	108.7	111.3	108.0	137.3	142.0
Equatorial Guinea	167.6	167.6	165.1	-	-	-
Ethiopia	103.4	97.1	99.8	97.9	91.8	97.2
Gambia	108.0	116.7	106.8	98.6	103.2	86.6
Ghana	113.7	117.4	115.3	123.2	153.7	103.1
Guinea	116.5	122.5	125.8	115.3	117.2	133.1
Guinea Bissau	111.9	118.5	118.3	106.1	107.0	96.3
Kenya	101.8	108.7	108.2	108.2	87.3	91.3
Lesotho	120.7	102.5	117.2	111.2	57.5	41.7
Liberia	96.7	58.1	58.4	79.0	35.9	36.5
Madagascar	95.0	93.2	95.8	92.3	86.4	87.4
Malawi	99.2	87.6	102.7	86.5	90.4	36.4
Mali	124.6	133.2	134.1	135.5	157.5	140.7
Mauritania	107.2	104.2	101.1	166.3	105.5	84.7
Morocco	105.5	105.1	105.4	141.9	173.1	57.2
Mozambique	89.5	84.7	112.2	86.0	72.6	30.7
Namibia	122.8	107.8	138.3	120.4	126.2	34.5
Niger	89.0	93.9	90.9	84.0	103.6	92.9
Nigeria	111.4	101.3	96.1	127.1	108.1	99.9
Rwanda	65.4	80.9	72.8	84.7	83.6	73.8
Sao Tome and Principe	82.5	83.7	87.0	18.7	-	-
Senegal	99.1	92.2	90.8	108.4	91.9	79.0
Sierra Leone	95.2	99.1	89.5	86.3	73.2	72.0
Somalia	96.0	75.4	76.6	122.9	50.5	47.9
Sudan	99.5	105.4	103.8	93.7	127.5	127.3
Swaziland	106.5	102.8	109.1	113.7	132.5	38.9
Tanzania	98.8	89.9	83.9	109.6	91.5	84.2
Togo	107.7	112.7	114.0	112.0	102.8	108.5
Uganda	130.2	134.4	133.1	98.0	97.9	93.4
Zaire	104.1	108.2	108.5	109.6	120.0	118.0
Zambia	102.6	94.7	102.8	125.1	92.8	44.6

... continued



ANNEX TABLE 2 : PER CAPUT CONSUMPTION AND PRODUCTION OF CEREALS  
(Continued)

	Estimated Per Caput Food Use			Per Caput Production		
	1985/86 – 1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1985/86 – 1990/91	1991/92	1992/93
	(----- (1980/81 – 1985/86 = 100) -----)					
<b>ASIA</b>						
Afghanistan	81.4	74.5	70.1	74.4	54.2	51.0
Bangladesh	100.2	105.0	102.2	99.5	105.7	106.3
Bhutan	69.2	62.6	61.9	68.1	51.8	50.7
Cambodia	107.2	107.2	105.7	117.6	122.6	92.4
China 1/	104.8	104.5	104.5	105.6	109.3	109.7
India	103.6	102.8	111.8	103.3	104.3	108.2
Indonesia	105.0	108.6	110.7	110.5	110.7	120.0
Jordan	94.8	92.7	94.1	74.3	61.4	129.8
Lao	102.3	102.6	101.4	98.6	84.1	97.6
Maldives	120.9	127.1	132.6	—	—	—
Mongolia	94.8	69.1	20.1	122.6	83.9	66.2
Nepal	105.5	108.0	111.4	109.4	111.8	98.4
Pakistan	102.7	107.8	108.2	93.4	91.6	93.3
Philippines	105.0	110.3	107.2	104.2	98.9	97.5
Sri Lanka	103.6	102.4	100.3	95.4	90.5	87.2
Syria	94.7	94.3	94.6	88.3	87.8	112.4
Yemen	93.6	93.5	94.3	84.6	46.2	80.2
<b>LATIN AMERICA</b>						
Bolivia	86.1	84.3	82.1	98.8	106.7	78.0
Dominican Rep.	105.1	96.0	93.6	92.2	78.9	84.4
Ecuador	91.2	92.9	96.1	139.5	149.5	150.5
El Salvador	99.3	97.5	99.6	105.3	95.4	119.1
Guatemala	105.0	105.4	101.9	101.6	84.5	88.7
Haiti	100.4	101.6	96.3	93.8	75.0	64.3
Honduras	90.0	92.5	91.7	92.3	108.0	99.9
Nicaragua	114.6	118.4	111.2	107.0	75.6	78.9
Peru	101.6	95.8	85.4	115.4	91.4	71.1
<b>OCEANIA</b>						
Kiribati	101.9	113.0	95.2	—	—	—
Papua New Guinea	128.6	160.8	140.7	84.5	83.0	81.1
Samoa	116.0	124.7	126.9	—	—	—
Solomon Islands	95.6	91.7	88.5	30.5	—	—
Tonga	118.5	122.1	122.1	—	—	—
Tuvalu	—	—	—	—	—	—
Vanuatu	105.2	127.6	102.4	102.3	107.6	105.5

Source: FAO (as of 15. 7.1993)  
1/ Including Taiwan Province.