Poverty in the Developing Countries 1985

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Mrs. King, I deeply appreciate your invitation to participate in this week's events in honor of your late husband. It is in keeping with the spirit of Dr. Martin Luther King that we honor him by grappling together with the problems of poverty and hunger as they confront us now, in 1985.

Until recently, the proportion of people in poverty has been declining in all the regions of the developing world except Sub-Saharan Africa. But during the last few years that proportion has gone up again—as a result of the deepest global recession in a good many decades.

The World Bank is just completing a country-by-country review of poverty throughout the developing world. In the first half of my remarks, I'd like to summarize what we have learned. In the second half of my remarks, I intend to outline a strategy for the reduction of poverty that combines measures to foster economic growth with special efforts to include poor people in the growth process.

In line with this symposium's concern about hunger, my attention today is focused on absolute poverty. By absolute poverty we mean that people are too poor to obtain a calorie-adequate diet. We use World Health Organization guidelines regarding the number of calories people need to lead a reasonably productive and energetic life. People whose diet is calorie-deficient do not have much energy to spend—energy to earn a living or to do anything else. When families fall substantially below this standard, children are more vulnerable to disease; they are more likely to die in the first years of life or, if they live, to be stunted physically and mentally.

Some people imagine that poverty in developing countries is a hopeless situation, that progress is impossible. This image of the
world is demonstrably false. But our survey of poverty in 1985 does not give us any cause for complacency either.

The situation is most bleak in Sub-Saharan Africa. In nearly all the nations of Africa, one-half to three-fourths of the population subsist in absolute poverty. Statistics about the number of people in absolute poverty can be only very approximate. But the poverty is no less deadly because we cannot measure it precisely:

• In Gambia, for example, over half of all rural children die by age five.

• In Guinea-Bissau, almost the entire population suffers from malaria and diarrhea. Sixty percent of the people in Guinea-Bissau suffer from respiratory infections.

• Even in Nigeria, with one of the highest per capita income levels of Sub-Saharan Africa, over a third of urban families and over half of rural families are unable to obtain a calorie-adequate diet.

For Sub-Saharan Africa as a whole, life expectancy at birth is 49 years, compared with 75 years in the world’s industrial countries. There is still only one nurse for every 3,000 Africans, one doctor for every 21,000 Africans; here in the United States, we have one nurse for every 140 persons, one doctor for every 520. Of the school-age children in Africa, one in five is not enrolled in school.

As low as these indicators of health and education in Africa are, they were much lower only two or three decades ago. The number of doctors and nurses in proportion to population has doubled since 1960. The proportion of children in school has also doubled since 1960.

But in the early 1970s, average income began falling in the poorest countries of Africa. Food production fell behind population growth. Today, even if all the food available in Africa, including imports, were divided equally, it would not be enough to meet even minimum per capita calorie requirements.
Population growth in Africa is higher than anywhere else in the world—and it is accelerating. The efficiency of investment in Africa is lower than anywhere else in the world—and it is declining.

Economic malaise has contributed to mounting political instability. Violence within and between nations has increased, and, mainly as a result, one in 200 Africans today is a refugee.

The global recession has accelerated the process of economic decay in Africa. Some African governments are not able to provide the most basic services such as road maintenance anymore or, for that matter, even pay their own employees regularly.

Then, in addition to all these other problems, drought struck much of Africa beginning in 1982. Officials from the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) and from some of the private relief agencies are here today. We all congratulate them for their emergency labors to get food to the victims of famine in Africa.

But these leaders of the relief effort will be the first to insist that emergency relief is not enough. We must act with equal vigor to tackle Africa's long-term development problems. Otherwise, we are bound to see deepening poverty—mass starvation again and again—in Sub-Saharan Africa.

By contrast, let me turn now to two developing regions of the world that have been making impressive progress against poverty: East Asia, including China, and the Mediterranean countries. Not so long ago, these regions were characterized by widespread, miserable poverty. But now the bulk of the people in these regions have enough to eat, substantial improvements have been made in infant mortality and life expectancy, and virtually all children go to school. Poverty is still pervasive only in remote areas, such as the two Yemens, or in countries scarred by war, such as those of Indochina.

China is a special case. It is much poorer than the rest of East Asia, but China, too, has eliminated the worst aspects of poverty.
Notwithstanding much progress, the government of China still considers about one-fifth of China’s population to be unacceptably poor. And we in the Bank concur with that judgment.

Redistribution of wealth has helped to reduce poverty in several countries—including China, of course, but also including a country as capitalistic as the Republic of Korea. Most of the developing countries of East Asia and the Mediterranean have also made special efforts to help the poor on an ongoing basis—through the expansion of public education, for example. But it is no coincidence that these regions have also been characterized by economic success generally. Rapid and sustained economic growth has been basic to the reduction of poverty in East Asia and the Mediterranean.

Most of the developing countries in East Asia and the Mediterranean have maintained special efforts to reduce poverty throughout the recent recession. Now that their economies are growing again, we can expect them to make further progress in reducing poverty.

The world can also take encouragement from the development saga of South Asia. Only twenty years ago, the prospects for South Asia looked as dismal as the prospects for Africa seem right now. Yet South Asia has made considerable progress against poverty.

In the 1960s, India and its neighbors were forced to import massive amounts of food, especially in years of bad weather. There was every reason to be concerned that population would continue to increase faster than food production. We had visions of endemic famine and violence in South Asia. But most of South Asia has now achieved food security through the Green Revolution. Economic growth has more than kept pace with population growth, and India and Pakistan have managed to establish large industrial sectors in the process of that economic growth.

Pakistan is the only country in the region that actually reduced the number of its citizens in poverty during the 1970s. India
reduced the proportion of its population in poverty, but, because of population growth, the number of poor people actually increased. Sri Lanka has long scored relatively high on indicators of social welfare, but at the other extreme is Bangladesh—where more than three-quarters of the population remain trapped in absolute poverty.

South Asia still includes at least half of the world’s poorest people. Yet the heroic efforts of the past twenty years have averted what could have been a nightmare, and significant parts of South Asia have demonstrated economic promise.

Average per capita income in Latin America is higher than in the developing countries of East Asia. Yet the incidence of absolute poverty in Latin America remains disproportionately high. There is little absolute poverty in countries such as Argentina or Costa Rica. But poverty is still a serious problem in most of Latin America, and the region includes countries such as Bolivia and Haiti where the extent of poverty is not much different from that found in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Latin America was dealt a body blow by the international debt crisis. In Mexico, for example, real wages fell 25 percent between 1981 and 1983. In Chile, urban unemployment reached 30 percent. The nations with the biggest debts have now all adopted economic adjustment programs and have arranged to reschedule significant portions of their debts, but some of the smaller countries seem to be floundering and are still looking for ways to deal with their economic and social problems. Poverty has become more severe and widespread throughout Latin America and the Caribbean, and the prospects are grim in those countries that cannot settle on reasonable programs of adjustment.

In sum, the historical record shows that progress against poverty is possible. But progress is probably more difficult as we enter 1985 than it has been for decades.
The World Bank has been in the business of development for nearly forty years, and its efforts have been particularly focused on the reduction of poverty for nearly fifteen years. So permit me now to highlight a few important lessons from the Bank's experience. They may contribute to today's fresh thinking about how best to proceed in the historic struggle to reduce poverty around the world.

In our experience, economic growth and poverty reduction are but different aspects of the same process. Poverty is too widespread in most developing countries to be solved by redistributing income or assets from the rich to the poor. In those countries that have redistributed assets but then failed to achieve economic growth, poor people have remained in misery. When the World Bank first started really to focus on poverty in the early 1970s, it urged continued efforts to accelerate economic growth in the developing countries.

But it also urged special efforts to include low-income countries and low-income people within countries in the process of growth. Together with other development agencies, the Bank directed more development assistance to the low-income developing countries. And the Bank also helped to develop methods of raising the incomes of poor people through improvements in productivity and efficiency.

Experience has demonstrated the fundamental soundness of this approach. It has proved possible, for example, to make high-growth investments in very poor countries. The Bank's poverty-focused projects have shown that it is possible to reduce poverty, not only by income transfers, but also by drawing the poor directly into the growth process.

Since most of the world's poor live in rural areas, the Bank raised the share of its lending for agriculture. We have seen that peasant farmers will indeed expand their production if they have the means and incentives to do so. The means include improved seeds, a good extension service, and public investments in rural
roads and irrigation. The incentives must include realistic prices for what they produce and efficient marketing systems for distribution.

We have had more project failures in agriculture than in any other sector, and the failures have been concentrated in Africa. But even with these failures, the Bank’s agriculture projects have averaged economic rates of return in excess of 20 percent a year. Projects where more than half the benefits went to families in absolute poverty have also averaged high rates of return.

Among the urban poor, our most successful approach has been to invest in low-cost housing, slum improvement, and the extension of water and sewerage systems. The World Bank has helped to develop technologies for shelter and sanitation that are affordable to poor people. We have found that one of the best things governments can do for the urban poor is, simply, to relax unrealistic building regulations. In country after country, when slum dwellers were finally convinced that build once would not demolish their settlements, they have made dramatic improvements in their homes.

Let me make an important point: commitment to the poor need not imply a bias against the private sector. The Bank’s rural and urban development projects have helped to reduce poverty partly by encouraging deregulation—higher agricultural prices and less restrictive building codes. There is no more powerful force for progress against poverty than the initiative and ingenuity of poor people themselves.

But selective government intervention is necessary, too. Public education, especially elementary education, yields very high economic returns in developing countries. Government action is also needed to improve and extend health and family planning services more widely. There are an estimated 65 million couples in developing countries who do not want more children but still do not use contraception, often for lack of access to effective contraceptives.
We have not found very effective ways to raise the productivity of the poorest 10 to 20 percent of the population—landless laborers, for example. Some of the very poorest people in any society are sick or handicapped and will always need help from relatives or from society as a whole. But by and large our experience has confirmed that the goals of economic growth and poverty reduction can be entirely complementary to each other.

But then came the worst recession in more than forty years. Most developing countries have been confronted with severe balance of payments problems. Average per capita income has stagnated, and in many countries it has actually declined.

For most developing countries, regaining financial stability and then reviving economic growth have become urgent priorities. For poor people too—perhaps especially for poor people—financial and economic recovery is vital. Poor people suffer terribly under conditions of general economic decline.

The nations of the world are all knit together through international trade, capital flows, and transfers of technology. So revival of economic growth in the developing countries depends partly on the economic policies of the world’s industrial countries. If the industrial countries manage to maintain their own economic expansion and resist the pressures for protectionism, the developing countries will be able to increase their export earnings. There is no one factor which is more important to Third World growth than export earnings. Lower interest rates are also of vital concern to the heavily indebted countries. In addition, the industrial countries can help by encouraging a revival of international investment—by commercial banks and private corporations, and also through official channels such as the World Bank.

And, of course—perhaps most important—economic growth in the developing countries depends very much on their own efforts too. On the whole, the developing countries have adjusted to recession and the debt crisis remarkably well. They were forced to cut back drastically on imports and incomes, but many coun-
tries have managed to cut back in an orderly way and, therefore, reduce the destructive impact of the crisis.

Some countries have, simultaneously, eliminated long-standing inefficiencies in their economies and shifted resources into export products. Such adjustments in economic structure may add to the short-term hurt, but they do help to rekindle growth in the long term. In many of the most hard-pressed developing countries, such structural adjustment is necessary to renewed economic growth—and renewed economic growth is absolutely essential for progress against poverty in the years ahead.

But also now, in 1985, we should make special, focused efforts to generate growth among low-income countries and low-income people within countries. To accelerate growth among the low-income countries, one essential ingredient is official development assistance.

Eighty percent of the resources the World Bank provides to developing countries—virtually all of our loans in the middle-income developing countries—are on nonconcessional terms. We raise the bulk of this money by borrowing on the international capital markets, and the developing countries pay it back to us with interest. But the poorest of the world's poor countries depend on official development assistance. The World Bank has a concessional affiliate, called the International Development Association (IDA), which provides credits to these poorest countries at zero percent interest for fifty years. IDA's funds are contributed by thirty-three donor nations.

But IDA is now severely underfunded. More generally, donor governments are redirecting their foreign aid money away from development purposes toward their own national security purposes, and away from the poorest of the poor countries to those developing countries in which they have greater commercial or political interests—the middle-income countries. The net flow of official development assistance to Sub-Saharan Africa from all
sources is declining dramatically. This is hardly an appropriate response to the crisis in Africa.

The Bank has outlined an Action Program for Africa. It stresses that policy reforms by the governments of Africa themselves are fundamental to progress. Our Action Program also calls on the donor countries to use their aid more effectively and in a more coordinated way. Finally, it urges donor nations at least to keep the level of development assistance to Africa from falling in real terms.

Representatives of some of the donor governments will be meeting at the end of this month to consider a special Sub-Saharan Africa Facility within the World Bank. For people who are concerned about poverty in the world, the quality and quantity of development assistance for Africa should be an issue of high priority. Progress against poverty in the years ahead will also depend on economic adjustment policies within the developing countries—policies designed to distribute the costs and benefits of adjustment fairly.

Some governments have taken steps to protect the poor in the process of adjustment. In Brazil, for example, while wage increases have generally been held down below the rate of inflation, wages at the lower end of the scale have been allowed to keep pace with inflation. In Indonesia, the government has needed to reduce its public investment program dramatically, but it has given high priority to public investments that are important to the poor—in agriculture, for example.

Programs to improve education, health, agricultural productivity, and municipal services among the absolute poor are difficult to get under way. If a government dismantles them in a budget-cutting exercise today, it will take years to build them up again.

It is possible, in designing adjustment programs, to identify policy reforms that will accelerate growth and, at the same time, concentrate the increase in incomes among the poor. Liberalizing
trade encourages efficiency and growth, but it especially encourages labor-intensive industry in the developing countries and, therefore, more jobs for the poor. Raising agricultural prices stimulates increased production and, at the same time, benefits smallholder farmers. When government subsidies go mainly to relatively well-off people in the cities, cutting back will make the economy more efficient and, at the same time, reduce the tax burden on poor farmers.

The government of Zambia is pursuing a package of reforms that includes price decontrol, a more realistic exchange rate, wage restraint, and the reduction of subsidies. While these reforms have lowered the real incomes of some Zambians, especially in the urban areas and the formal sector, the majority of Zambians, who live and work in the rural areas, are benefiting from higher agricultural prices. As part of the adjustment package, the government has also managed to increase spending on health and education and on public investment in agriculture.

The government of China has also let agricultural prices rise, and China’s peasants now have more scope for private production. These reforms have led to a bonanza of increased agricultural production, and they have raised the incomes of most of China’s poorest people by at least 50 percent over the past five years.

Progress against poverty in the world has suffered a setback in the 1980s. But we now know from experience that progress is possible and that focused efforts to foster growth among the poor are workable.

As your husband so clearly showed us, Mrs. King, there is almost nothing so powerful as a dream. And we have seen that in developing countries, too.

It is hard to believe now, but only a generation ago the prospects of Korea were regarded as dismal. The Koreans have proven the experts to be dead wrong.
Twenty years ago, recurrent famine and increasing violence in South Asia seemed all too likely. But India and Pakistan have achieved food security for hundreds of millions of the world’s poorest people.

So now is the time to dream of an Ethiopia where people are well fed from their own production. Now is the time to dream of a Gambia in which children will live to realize their full genetic potential.

I am not, by nature, a dreamer. I am a banker.

But the developing countries have already shown that mass, abject poverty can be eliminated. With redoubled efforts on their part, with continued assistance from us in the industrial countries, the elimination of absolute poverty in this world of ours is a feasible project.

Now, 1985, is the time to dream together—to work together—for a world without poverty and without hunger.

Thank you.
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