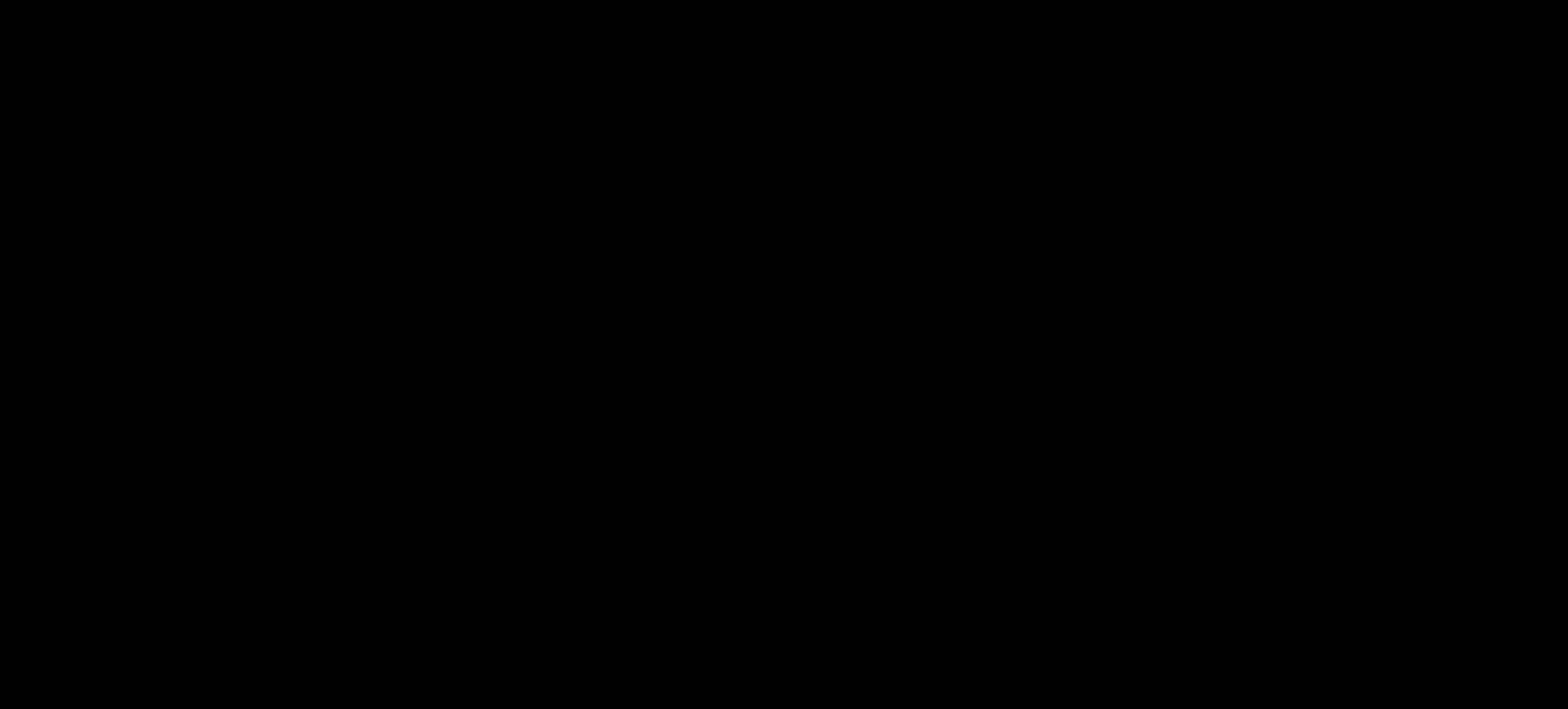


2024

GLOBAL HUNGER INDEX

HOW GENDER JUSTICE CAN ADVANCE CLIMATE RESILIENCE
AND ZERO HUNGER





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Gender-equitable access to resources, services, and information is essential for transforming food systems in an inclusive way. In Northern Bahr el Ghazal, South Sudan, where the economic crisis and floods have hit hard, women are building a feeder road to ensure access to crucial infrastructure.

FOREWORD

Within the past year, two important anniversaries in the world's efforts to advance human rights have taken place: the 75th anniversary of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the 20th anniversary of the Voluntary Guidelines on the Right to Food. These landmark accomplishments enshrined and pointed the way toward a universal right to adequate food—yet in 2024 adequate food is out of reach for billions of people, while both the human right to adequate food and international law are blatantly disregarded by those in power.

The Global Hunger Index (GHI) tracks the state of hunger worldwide and by region and country, spotlighting those places where action to address hunger is most urgently needed. As a tool for measuring long-term trends in hunger, the 2024 GHI shows that despite some bright spots in certain regions and countries, global hunger remains at a *moderate* level—little changed from its level in 2016. Achieving Zero Hunger by the target date of 2030 appears unreachable. Globally, 733 million people—significantly more than a decade ago—lack access to sufficient calories, and 2.8 billion cannot afford a healthy diet. Acute food insecurity and the risk of famine are on the rise, and starvation is proliferating as a weapon of war. Underlying these alarming statistics is a state of permacrisis arising from widespread conflicts, the increasing impacts of climate change, economic challenges, debt crises, and inequality. Nonetheless, some countries have shown that progress is possible. Notable reductions in GHI scores have been made for example in Bangladesh, Mozambique, Nepal, Somalia, and Togo, although hunger remains a serious concern in these countries.

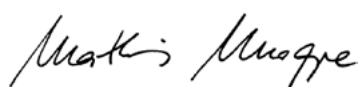
Besides assessing trends and rankings in hunger by country, this year's GHI report takes a deeper look at the importance of addressing gender inequality in achieving climate resilience and Zero Hunger, in a guest essay by Nitya Rao, Siera Vercillo, and Gertrude Dzifa Torvikey. Inequality on the basis of gender is one of the most pervasive threats to sustainable development and the realization of the right to food. Gender discrimination impedes equitable access to, use of, and control over resources, such as land and credit, and hampers coping capacity in the face of climate shocks and stressors.

The good news is that gender justice—equity between people in all spheres of life—holds the promise of transformative change. Women's access to and control over assets, as well as joint decision-making between spouses, can improve household food security, child nutrition, and overall well-being. When decision-making about sustainable land management, livelihood diversification, and education is inclusive and equitable, households and communities become more resilient to a changing climate and improve their food and nutrition security.

Community-centered program experience supports this approach. In South Sudan, initial results from a Welthungerhilfe (WHH) project suggest that activities to boost climate adaptation, like tree planting and agroforestry, picked up significantly when both women and men were equally involved in decision-making and ownership of resources. In Malawi, when couples come together to discuss gender norms, stereotypes, and challenges through Concern Worldwide's Umodzi program, they are better able to engage in joint decision-making, manage household chores, and reduce domestic violence.

Transformation of gender roles is not easy, of course, and there is a long way to go to achieve a gender-just world that supports food security and climate resilience. But the gap between current gender inequities and full gender justice points to where the opportunities for progress lie. It is time for us all to work toward gender justice to create a climate-resilient world in which all people are assured of the right to adequate food so they can lead healthy, productive lives.

This year, Concern Worldwide and Welthungerhilfe (WHH) are delighted to welcome a new academic partner who will calculate and develop the Index going forward—the Institute for International Law of Peace and Armed Conflict (IFHV), one of Europe's leading academic institutions conducting research into humanitarian crises. The IFHV brings a strong tradition of scholarship in international humanitarian law and human rights law as well as interdisciplinary expertise in social science, geosciences, and public health. As civil society actors, we will continue to collaborate with a range of partners and experts in a variety of fields to report on hunger and advocate for food and nutrition security for all.

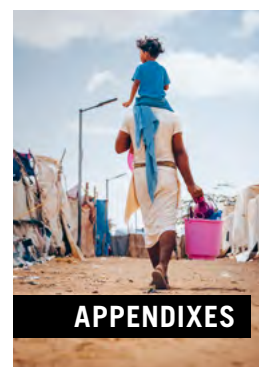


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SUMMARY

The Outlook Is Grim As Progress against Hunger Stagnates

Over the past decade, worldwide progress against hunger has slowed to a troubling degree. The 2024 Global Hunger Index (GHI) score for the world is 18.3, considered *moderate*, down only slightly from the 2016 score of 18.8. This global score obscures wide variations in hunger by region. The situation is most severe in Africa South of the Sahara and South Asia, where hunger remains *serious*. Africa South of the Sahara's high GHI score is driven by the highest undernourishment and child mortality rates of any region by far. In South Asia, *serious* hunger reflects rising undernourishment and persistently high child undernutrition, driven by poor diet quality, economic challenges, and the increasing impact of natural disasters. The goal of Zero Hunger by 2030 now appears unreachable, and if progress remains at the pace observed since the 2016 global GHI score, the world will not reach even *low* hunger until 2160—more than 130 years from now.

Hunger Is *Serious* or *Alarming* in 42 Countries

Dozens of countries still experience a level of hunger that is much too high. The 2024 GHI scores and provisional designations show that hunger is considered *alarming* in 6 countries: Burundi, Chad, Madagascar, Somalia, South Sudan, and Yemen. In another 36 countries, hunger is designated as *serious*. Furthermore, many countries are slipping backward: in 22 countries with *moderate*, *serious*, or *alarming* 2024 GHI scores, hunger has actually increased since 2016. In 20 countries with *moderate*, *serious*, or *alarming* 2024 GHI scores, progress has largely stalled—their 2024 GHI scores have declined by less than 5 percent from their 2016 GHI scores. However, examples of progress and hope do exist amid crises and worrying trends. A small number of countries—including Bangladesh, Mozambique, Nepal, Somalia, and Togo—have made significant improvements in their GHI scores, even if hunger in these countries remains too high.

Multiple Crises Are Complicating the Effort to Reduce Hunger

The 2024 GHI results reflect a barrage of successive and overlapping challenges that have the severest impacts on the world's poorest countries and people. These challenges include large-scale armed conflicts, climate change indicators that have climbed “off the charts,” high domestic food prices, market disruptions, economic downturns, and debt crises in many low- and middle-income countries. More than 115 million people globally are subject to internal displacement or

forced migration as a result of persecution, conflict, violence, human rights violations, or civil disorder, and many more have been displaced by weather-related disasters. The wars in Gaza and Sudan have led to exceptional food crises. Inequality between and within countries is on the rise. And while extreme poverty in middle-income countries has decreased, income inequality is persistently high, and poverty in the poorest countries and countries affected by some form of state fragility, conflict, or violence is still worse than before the pandemic.

Gender Justice Is a Cornerstone to Achieving Climate Resilience and Food and Nutrition Security

Gender inequality, food insecurity, and climate change converge to place households, communities, and countries under extreme stress. Women and girls are typically hardest hit by food insecurity and malnutrition. They also suffer disproportionately from the effects of weather extremes and climate emergencies. Addressing the challenges of food insecurity and climate change in an equitable way entails recognizing people's different needs, vulnerabilities, and opportunities; redistributing resources and labor equitably; and ensuring women's representation and participation in decision-making processes at all levels. Reforms are needed to incorporate gender justice at all scales and levels, ranging from individuals to entire systems and from formal mechanisms to informal social and cultural norms.

Past Success Shows Progress Is Possible

With the realization of the right to adequate food out of reach for billions of people, it is increasingly urgent for the world to reverse the alarming trends that are pushing hunger upward and to accelerate progress toward shaping equitable, nutritious, and resilient food systems, even within the context of a changing climate and turbulent geopolitics. Progress against hunger between 2000 and 2016 shows how much can be accomplished in just a decade and a half. Over that period, the global GHI score fell by about one-third, and hunger on the world scale moved from *serious* to *moderate*. The push for gender justice—with its benefits for agricultural production, food security, diets, and child nutrition—can be an important tool in reducing hunger. Protecting the gains already made, advancing progress against hunger, and ensuring the right to food for all will demand both innovative thinking and determined action to address the challenges of conflict and climate change, improve governance, and generate durable solutions to the crises before us.

01



Severe drought due to five failed rainy seasons is destroying people's pastoral livelihoods in the Borena Zone of Oromia Region, Ethiopia. A woman takes part in a cash-for-work program to excavate a community water storage pond that will collect rainwater for livestock and irrigation of forage crops.

GLOBAL, REGIONAL, AND NATIONAL TRENDS IN HUNGER

Note: The results in this 2024 Global Hunger Index report supersede all previous GHI results. The 2000, 2008, and 2016 scores and indicator data contained within this report are currently the only data that can be used for valid comparisons of the GHI over time.

Key Messages

- Little progress has been made on reducing hunger since 2016, and the prospects for achieving Zero Hunger by the target date of 2030 are grim. The 2024 Global Hunger Index score for the world is 18.3, considered *moderate*, down only slightly from the 2016 score of 18.8.
- The 2024 GHI results reflect a barrage of successive and overlapping challenges that have hit the world's poorest countries and people hardest, amplifying structural inequalities. These challenges include large-scale armed conflicts, increasingly severe climate change impacts, high domestic food prices, market disruptions, high debt burdens among low- and middle-income countries, income inequality, and economic downturns.
- Conflicts have raised the specter of famine. The wars in Gaza and Sudan have led to exceptional food crises. Conflict and civil strife are also generating food crises elsewhere, including the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Haiti, Mali, and Syria.
- The right to food is largely unrealized and unenforced. Despite the international community's repeated emphasis on the importance of the right to adequate food, there remains a troubling disparity between the standards established and the reality that in many parts of the world the right to food is being blatantly disregarded.
- Examples of progress and hope exist amid crises and worrying trends. Contrary to the global trend, a small number of countries have made significant improvements in their GHI scores, even if hunger in these countries remains too high.
- Discriminatory norms and gender-based violence often place women and sexual and gender minorities at a heightened risk of food and nutrition insecurity and climate change impacts. Efforts to improve gender equity hold promise for enhancing household and community food and nutrition security as well as for boosting resilience to climate change.

PROGRESS AGAINST HUNGER IS FALLING SHORT

Hunger is still considered **alarming** in 6 countries and **serious** in 36 countries.

22

In 22 countries with *moderate*, *serious*, or *alarming* 2024 GHI scores, hunger has increased since 2016.

20

In 20 countries with *moderate*, *serious*, or *alarming* 2024 GHI scores, progress has largely stalled—their 2024 GHI scores have declined by less than 5 percent from their 2016 GHI scores or have not changed at all.

5

In 5 countries with *moderate*, *serious*, or *alarming* 2024 GHI scores—Fiji, Jordan, Libya, Syria, and Venezuela—their 2024 GHI scores are even worse than their 2000 GHI scores.

At the current **64**

pace, at least 64 countries will not reach *low* hunger—much less Zero Hunger—by 2030. If progress remains at the pace observed since 2016, *low* hunger at global level



may not be reached until 2160.

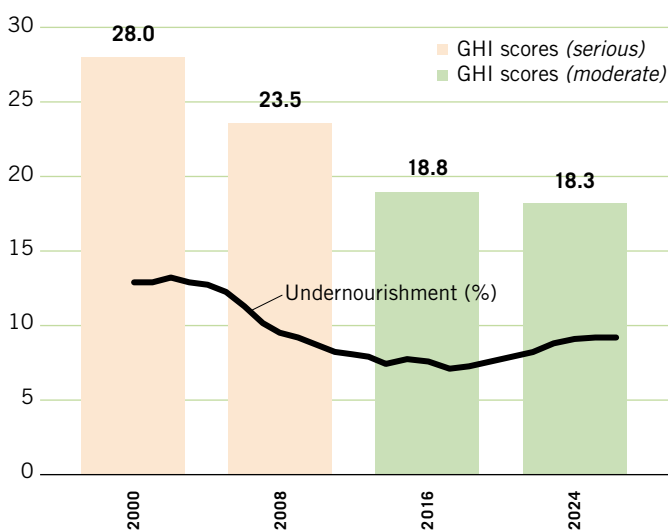
Progress has been notable for example in **Bangladesh, Mozambique, Nepal, Somalia, and Togo**, although challenges remain.

Prospects for Zero Hunger Are Increasingly Grim

With the 2030 target date for achieving Zero Hunger fast approaching, the 2024 Global Hunger Index makes it starkly clear that the world is far from meeting that critical goal. The 2024 GHI score for the world is 18.3, considered *moderate*, down only slightly from the 2016 score of 18.8 (Figure 1.1). This global score obscures wide variations in hunger by region. The situation is most severe in Africa South of the Sahara and South Asia, where hunger remains *serious*. Progress against hunger worldwide has slowed in the past decade. In fact, if progress remains at the pace observed since the 2016 global GHI score, the world will not even reach *low* hunger until 2160—more than 130 years from now.

Six countries have levels of hunger considered *alarming*, indicating widespread human misery, undernourishment, and malnutrition. Somalia, Yemen, Chad, and Madagascar are the countries with the highest 2024 GHI scores; Burundi and South Sudan are also provisionally designated as *alarming* (Table 1.1). Somalia and Chad both face the compounding effects of conflict, climate change, and economic downturns. Yemen is particularly affected by conflict and climate extremes, and Madagascar is facing extraordinary challenges posed by climate change (FAO et al. 2024b).

FIGURE 1.1 WORLD GHI SCORES AND PREVALENCE OF UNDERNOURISHMENT IN RECENT DECADES



Note: GHI scores for the year 2000 include data from 1998–2002; 2008 GHI scores include data from 2006–2010; 2016 GHI scores include data from 2014–2018; and 2024 GHI scores include data from 2019–2023. Data on undernourishment are from FAO (2024a). The undernourishment values are for the world as a whole, including countries both included in and excluded from the GHI. For a complete list of data sources for the calculation of GHI scores, see Appendix A. Colors correspond to the GHI Severity of Hunger Scale.

The realization of the right to adequate food is out of reach for billions of people (see Box 1.2). Across the globe, 733 million people are undernourished, and increases in food prices and the cost-of-living crisis have made a healthy diet unaffordable for 2.8 billion people (FAO et al. 2024a). Progress in reducing all four GHI indicators—undernourishment, child stunting, child wasting, and child mortality—is falling short of internationally agreed targets. Projections estimate that in 2030, 582 million people will still be chronically undernourished, more than half of them in Africa. This number is comparable to the undernourished population in 2015—the year the world pledged to eliminate hunger by 2030 (FAO et al. 2024a). In two-thirds of all countries, progress at reducing undernourishment has largely stalled or even been reversed. In Haiti, Jordan, Kenya, and Syria, undernourishment rose by more than 10 percentage points between 2015–2017 and 2021–2023. Worldwide, 148 million children are stunted, 45 million children are wasted, and almost 5 million children die before age five (FAO et al. 2024a; UN IGME 2023). In 27 countries, stunting levels are of very high public health significance, and the situation is most severe in Burundi, Yemen, and Niger (see Figure 1.4). Stunting prevalence has actually increased by 4 or more percentage points in recent years in Afghanistan, Argentina, Mongolia, Niger, and Yemen. Child wasting is particularly high in India, and the level is high and rising in Sudan and Yemen.

More broadly, many countries and territories are experiencing unprecedented levels of acute food insecurity, with potentially dire implications for long-term development. In 2023, 281.6 million people in 59 countries and territories with sufficient data faced crisis-level or worse acute food insecurity, a number that has been on the rise for five consecutive years. Acute food insecurity has been growing worse, with a surge in people at risk of starvation in a number of states and territories, including Gaza, Sudan, Haiti, Burkina Faso, Mali, and South Sudan (FSIN and GNAFC 2024; WFP and FAO 2024). By December 2024, 120–130 million people in FEWS NET-monitored countries are projected to need humanitarian food assistance (FEWS NET 2024c).

Examples of progress and hope exist amid crises and worrying trends. In contrast to the global trend, Bangladesh, Mozambique, Nepal, Somalia, and Togo have reduced their GHI scores by more than 5 points compared with their 2016 GHI scores. In Mozambique and Nepal, the 2024 GHI scores reflect an improvement of roughly 30 percent. Nonetheless, hunger levels remain worryingly high in most of these countries, particularly in Mozambique and Somalia.

BOX 1.1 ABOUT THE GLOBAL HUNGER INDEX SCORES

The Global Hunger Index (GHI) is a tool for comprehensively measuring and tracking hunger at global, regional, and national levels. GHI scores are based on the values of four component indicators:¹



Undernourishment: the share of the population with insufficient caloric intake.



Child wasting: the share of children under age five who have low weight for their height, reflecting *acute* undernutrition.

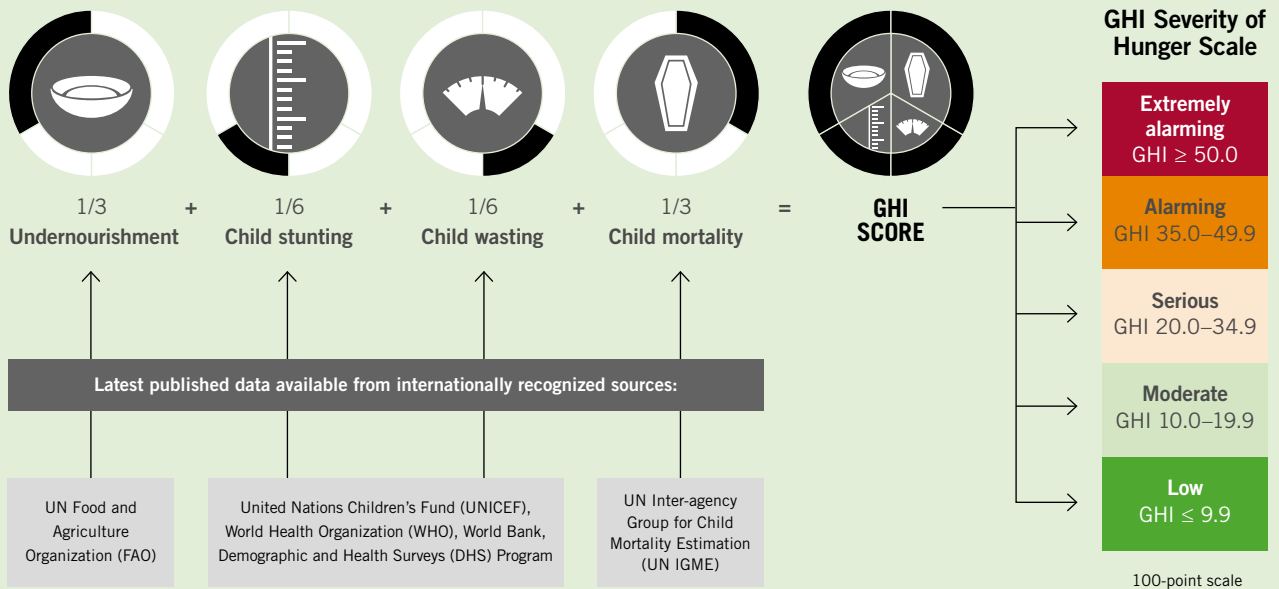


Child stunting: the share of children under age five who have low height for their age, reflecting *chronic* undernutrition.



Child mortality: the share of children who die before their fifth birthday, partly reflecting the fatal mix of inadequate nutrition and unhealthy environments.

These four indicators are aggregated as follows:



Based on the values of the four indicators, a GHI score is calculated on a 100-point scale reflecting the severity of hunger, where 0 is the best possible score (no hunger) and 100 is the worst.² Each country's GHI score is classified by severity, from *low* to *extremely alarming*.

¹ Each of the indicators is standardized; see Appendix A for details.

² GHI scores are comparable only within each year's report, not between different years' reports. To allow for tracking of a country's or region's GHI performance over time, this report provides GHI scores for 2000, 2008, and 2016, which can be compared with 2024 GHI scores. For a detailed explanation of the concept of the GHI, the date ranges and calculation of the scores, and the interpretation of results, see Appendix A.

BOX 1.2 SLOW PROGRESS ON THE REALIZATION OF THE RIGHT TO ADEQUATE FOOD

In 1948, the United Nations voted to recognize the right to food as a fundamental human right.³ To promote implementation of the right to food and help dispel widespread misconceptions, the United Nations Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights issued a comment in 1999 that stated: “The right to adequate food is realized when every man, woman and child, alone or in community with others, have physical and economic access at all times to adequate food or means for its procurement” (UNHCHR 1999). It considered adequate food as being sufficient, safe, culturally acceptable, and sustainably accessible, and identified three state obligations:

1. **The respect principle:** States must not interfere with the enjoyment of the right to food for those who can feed themselves or have access to food by one means or another.
2. **The protection principle:** Governments must ensure that the actions of third parties, such as private actors, do not violate the human right to food.
3. **The fulfillment principle:** States must facilitate the right to food by strengthening peoples’ access to and utilization of food resources. When individuals or groups cannot exercise their right to food for reasons beyond their control, states have the obligation to provide it by, for example, providing food assistance or ensuring social safety nets.

³ The 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) Article 25 enshrined the right to adequate food, along with other economic and social rights, while the 1966 International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights placed respective legal obligations on states.

To help lay out a pathway for countries to realize this right, an intergovernmental working group developed the Voluntary Guidelines to Support the Progressive Realization of the Right to Adequate Food in the Context of National Food Security. Adoption of the guidelines by 187 countries in November 2004 was a landmark moment (Elver 2023). Over the past 20 years, the guidelines have inspired guidance and declarations on various aspects of the right to food—such as the Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure, the UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous People, and the UN Declaration on the Rights of Peasants and Other People Working in Rural Areas—which social movements and civil society use to push governments on progress and accountability.

Other declarations have clarified countries’ obligations in times of conflict and across borders. The UN Security Council has resolved that starvation must not be used as a weapon of war. International human rights law and international humanitarian law require countries to protect civilians during conflicts and ensure they have access to adequate food (UN Security Council 2018). Countries likewise have an extraterritorial obligation to ensure that their domestic and international policies and actions, such as trade, investment, energy, agriculture, development, and climate change measures, do not harm human rights, including the right to food (United Nations 2022).

Results have been insufficient. As of June 2023, over 30 countries explicitly (and 54 countries implicitly) recognized the right to food in their constitution. Even there, a significant gap remains between these laws and their actual implementation through policies, programs, and accountability mechanisms (Elver 2023). Thus, despite the international community’s repeated emphasis on the importance of the right to adequate food, there remains a troubling disparity between the standards established and the reality that, in many parts of the world, the right to food is being blatantly disregarded.

A Barrage of Crises Is Driving Hunger

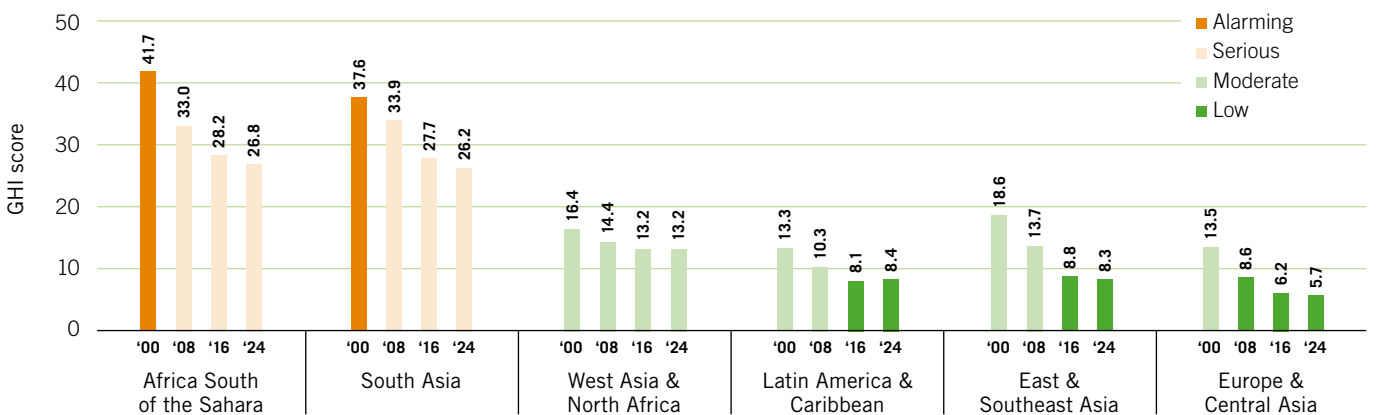
The 2024 GHI results reflect a barrage of successive and overlapping challenges that have hit the world’s poorest countries and people hardest, amplifying structural inequalities. In the past two years, large-scale armed conflicts have broken out (Davies et al. 2023; WEF 2024b), climate change indicators have climbed “off the charts,” with 2023 the hottest year on record (WMO 2024), and low- and middle-income countries have found themselves facing dire economic outlooks, with debt constraining their capacity to invest in crucial public services (IPES-Food 2023; World Bank 2024a). More than 115 million people are subject to internal displacement or forced migration as a result of persecution, conflict, violence, human rights violations, or civil disorder, and many others have been displaced by weather-related disasters (IDMC 2024; UNHCR 2024b). Inequality between and within countries is on the rise (UNDP 2024), and while extreme poverty in middle-income countries has decreased, income inequality is persistently high. Poverty in the poorest countries and countries affected by some form of state fragility, conflict, or violence is still worse than before the pandemic (FAO et al. 2024a; Mahler et al. 2022; World Bank 2024b).

High food prices and market disruptions are jeopardizing food security and nutrition for vulnerable countries and people. In low- and middle-income countries, a 5 percent increase in the real price of food increases the risk of child wasting by 9 percent, and food

inflation during pregnancy and the first year after birth increases the risk that children aged 2–5 years will be stunted (Headey and Ruel 2023). After record highs in the wake of the Russo-Ukrainian War, global food prices remain above pre-pandemic levels and the war is continuing to disrupt agricultural production, trade, and global food security. Recent disruptions to Red Sea shipping pose further risks (Glauber 2024; Glauber and Mamun 2024a). Global rice markets—in particular, rice-importing countries in Africa South of the Sahara—continue to feel the impact of India’s export restrictions on rice, introduced after production was reduced by the effects of El Niño (Glauber and Mamun 2024b).

Over the past decade, external debt has been steadily increasing across all regions, and many of the world’s poorest countries are now struggling with surging debt service payments. Low- and middle-income countries spent a record US\$443.5 billion to service their external public and publicly guaranteed debt in 2022 (World Bank 2023a), and they paid US\$49 billion more to their external creditors than they received in fresh disbursements, resulting in a net resource outflow (UNCTAD 2024). This increase in debt repayments is shifting scarce resources away from critical public services, including nutrition services, and investments in climate resilience and food systems transformation (World Bank 2023a). Many countries struggling with debt are also highly vulnerable to climate change, creating a vicious cycle that hampers an effective response (FAO et al. 2024a). Indeed, if they were to invest the amounts necessary

FIGURE 1.2 REGIONAL 2000, 2008, 2016, AND 2024 GLOBAL HUNGER INDEX SCORES



Source: Authors.

Note: See Appendix A for data sources. The regional and global GHI scores are calculated using regional and global aggregates for each indicator and the formula described in Appendix A. The regional and global aggregates for each indicator are calculated as population-weighted averages, using the indicator values reported in Appendix B. For countries lacking undernourishment data, provisional estimates provided by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) were used to calculate aggregates only but are not reported in Appendix B. Appendix D shows which countries are included in each region.

“It is difficult to provide for my family because the productivity of my piece of land is very low due to the effects of climate change. I use half of my land to harvest, and it is not enough for feeding my family, and that is why I prepare the tella [local drink] and perform daily work to fill the existing food gaps in my family.”

—Dinbulo Dessie (age 32), single mother of four, Ethiopia

“I rent the land, and we cultivate cassava, beans, and maize. I divide the harvest in two parts—one is for feeding my family, and the other is what I usually sell. My future project is that I want to buy my own land to enable me to continue with my farming business.”

—Jacqueline Bacamugwanko (age 40), mother of four, Burundi

to meet the 2030 Agenda and Paris Agreement goals, 47 low- and middle-income countries would hit external debt insolvency thresholds within the next five years; an additional 19 countries lack liquidity and fiscal space for climate and development investments (Zucker-Marques et al. 2024).

Conflicts have again raised the specter of famine (de Waal 2024). Conflict undermines the right to food by causing destruction, displacement, and the use of starvation as a weapon, in blatant violation of the right to food (Kemmerling et al. 2021). It also worsens gender-based food insecurity and increases inequalities (HLPE 2023). The fighting in Gaza and Sudan has led to exceptional food crises (FSIN and GNAFC 2024; WFP and FAO 2024). In Mali, catastrophic levels of food insecurity were projected in Ménaka, where armed groups were conducting a siege (FAO 2024b). In the eastern part of the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), rising conflict is driving record levels of gender-based violence, displacement, and hunger.

Currently, more than 25 million people, a quarter of the population, face crisis or emergency levels of food insecurity (FSIN and GNAFC 2024; IASC 2024).

Climate change, extreme weather events, and environmental degradation further jeopardize the economic outlook and the full realization of the right to food (UNHCHR 2023; see Box 1.3). Hundreds of the world’s foremost climate scientists now predict global temperatures will rise to at least 2.5°C (4.5°F) above preindustrial levels this century, exceeding internationally agreed targets and causing catastrophic consequences (Carrington 2024). From 2008 to 2018, disasters caused an estimated US\$108.5 billion loss in crop and livestock production in low- and middle-income countries (UNHCHR 2024). Projections show that over the next 26 years the world economy will suffer a 19 percent reduction in income, disproportionately affecting regions with lower historical emissions and lower current incomes (Kotz et al. 2024). By the middle of this century, climate change could put an additional 80 million people at risk of hunger, primarily in Africa South of the Sahara, South Asia, and Central America (IPCC 2022).

Investments and actions do not match the size of the problem or commitments made. The impacts of malnutrition cost the global economy US\$3.0–3.5 trillion a year, yet since the first Nutrition for Growth Summit (N4G) in 2012, international assistance for basic nutrition has remained low and erratic (Generation Nutrition 2024). In 2023, OECD’s official development assistance (ODA) amounted to just 0.37 percent of gross national income—far below the 0.7 percent target (OECD 2024). Africa has not met the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) and Malabo Declaration target of allocating at least 10 percent of national budget spending to agriculture (Ulimwengu et al. 2023). Price hikes and spiraling humanitarian needs have widened the humanitarian funding gap, forcing aid organizations to cut life-saving assistance (UN OCHA 2024a, 2024b; VOICE 2024). Only 4.3 percent of climate finance is dedicated to the agrifood system (Sutton et al. 2024), and just 1.7 percent reaches small-scale producers in low- and middle-income countries, who often bear the brunt of climate change (Chiriack and Naran 2020). Funding to support climate strategies that avert loss and damage is insufficient—climate adaptation alone requires 10–18 times more—and is often provided in the form of loans, adding to debt burdens and involving complex conditions (Kowalzig et al. 2024; Schalatek and Richards 2024; UNHCHR 2024).

TABLE 1.1 GLOBAL HUNGER INDEX SCORES BY 2024 GHI RANK

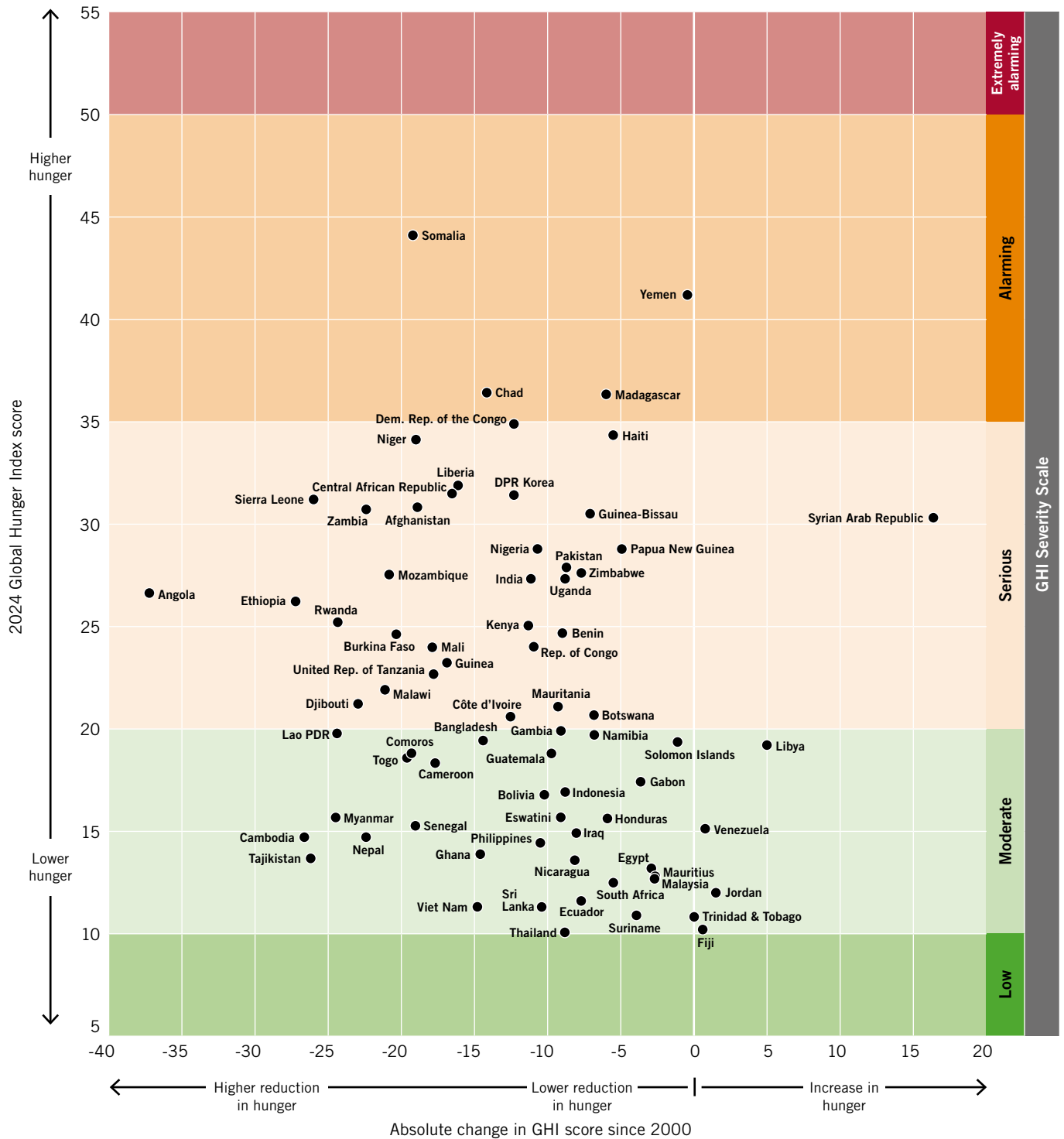
Note: As always, rankings and index scores from this table cannot be accurately compared to rankings and index scores from previous reports (see Appendix A).

Rank ¹	Country	2000	2008	2016	2024	Rank ¹	Country	2000	2008	2016	2024
2024 GHI scores less than 5, collectively ranked 1–22. ²	Belarus	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	71	Venezuela (Boliv. Rep. of)	14.3	8.7	14.4	15.1
	Bosnia & Herzegovina	9.4	6.4	< 5	< 5	72	Senegal	34.3	22.1	16.1	15.3
	Chile	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	73	Honduras	21.5	18.7	13.9	15.6
	China	13.4	7.2	< 5	< 5	74	Eswatini	24.8	24.9	19.6	15.7
	Costa Rica	6.6	< 5	< 5	< 5	74	Myanmar	40.2	29.9	17.1	15.7
	Croatia	5.5	< 5	< 5	< 5	76	Bolivia (Plurinat. State of)	27.0	21.2	14.3	16.8
	Estonia	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	77	Indonesia	25.7	28.2	18.3	16.9
	Georgia	12.0	6.6	5.4	< 5	78	Gabon	21.0	19.2	16.7	17.4
	Hungary	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	79	Cameroon	36.0	29.0	20.8	18.3
	Kuwait	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	80	Togo	38.2	28.2	24.4	18.6
	Latvia	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	81	Comoros	38.1	28.9	21.3	18.8
	Lithuania	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	81	Guatemala	28.5	24.0	20.1	18.8
	Montenegro	—	5.7	< 5	< 5	83	Libya	14.2	12.9	19.3	19.2
	North Macedonia	7.6	5.3	5.1	< 5	84	Bangladesh	33.8	30.6	24.7	19.4
	Romania	7.9	5.7	5.0	< 5	84	Solomon Islands	20.4	18.2	21.7	19.4
	Russian Federation	10.4	5.9	5.4	< 5	86	Namibia	26.5	27.5	20.6	19.7
	Serbia	—	5.9	< 5	< 5	87	Lao PDR	44.2	30.3	21.2	19.8
	Slovakia	6.0	< 5	< 5	< 5	88	Gambia	29.0	23.1	17.8	19.9
	Türkiye	11.4	6.5	5.4	< 5	89	Côte d'Ivoire	33.1	35.2	21.5	20.6
	United Arab Emirates	5.1	6.3	< 5	< 5	90	Botswana	27.5	26.3	21.4	20.7
Uruguay	7.6	5.3	< 5	< 5	91	Mauritania	30.4	18.8	22.3	21.1	
Uzbekistan	24.3	13.2	5.9	< 5	92	Djibouti	44.2	33.9	24.0	21.2	
23	Armenia	19.2	11.7	6.4	5.1	93	Malawi	43.0	28.1	22.8	21.9
23	Bulgaria	8.9	7.8	7.5	5.1	94	Tanzania (United Rep. of)	40.5	29.7	25.0	22.7
25	Kazakhstan	11.2	11.1	5.6	5.3	95	Guinea	40.1	31.5	28.2	23.2
26	Moldova (Rep. of)	17.6	14.7	6.1	5.6	96	Congo (Republic of)	34.9	32.2	26.8	24.0
26	Mongolia	29.7	16.7	7.5	5.6	96	Mali	41.9	31.8	24.7	24.0
28	Colombia	10.8	10.1	7.2	5.7	98	Burkina Faso	44.9	33.7	25.6	24.6
29	Tunisia	10.1	7.4	6.1	5.9	99	Benin	33.7	26.9	23.6	24.7
30	Paraguay	11.5	7.5	5.0	6.0	100	Kenya	36.3	29.0	24.0	25.0
31	Mexico	10.1	9.7	6.6	6.1	101	Rwanda	49.6	36.4	28.6	25.2
32	Azerbaijan	25.0	15.0	8.1	6.2	102	Ethiopia	53.4	37.8	26.2	26.2
33	Argentina	6.6	5.4	5.2	6.6	103	Angola	63.8	42.7	25.9	26.6
33	Brazil	11.7	6.7	5.5	6.6	104	Timor-Leste	—	44.8	29.4	27.0
35	Algeria	14.5	11.0	8.5	6.7	105	India	38.4	35.2	29.3	27.3
36	Kyrgyzstan	17.2	12.9	8.6	6.8	105	Uganda	36.1	28.5	30.3	27.3
37	Saudi Arabia	12.7	10.8	9.4	6.9	107	Mozambique	48.3	35.6	38.5	27.5
38	Iran (Islamic Republic of)	13.7	9.1	8.0	7.4	108	Zimbabwe	35.3	29.9	28.5	27.6
38	Peru	21.1	13.7	7.6	7.4	109	Pakistan	36.6	31.4	24.6	27.9
40	Jamaica	8.4	8.5	9.0	7.7	110	Nigeria	39.5	30.7	30.6	28.8
41	Dominican Republic	15.0	13.8	8.3	7.8	110	Papua New Guinea	33.7	32.8	30.0	28.8
42	Albania	16.0	15.5	6.2	7.9	110	Sudan	—	—	28.3	28.8
43	El Salvador	14.5	11.7	9.4	8.0	113	Syrian Arab Republic	13.9	16.9	25.9	30.3
43	Panama	18.7	12.7	8.1	8.0	114	Guinea-Bissau	37.6	29.6	30.2	30.5
45	Lebanon	10.2	9.1	7.5	8.1	115	Zambia	53.1	41.3	32.6	30.7
46	Ukraine	13.0	6.9	7.2	8.6	116	Afghanistan	49.6	35.7	27.1	30.8
47	Guyana	17.0	14.9	10.7	9.1	117	Sierra Leone	57.2	45.2	32.8	31.2
48	Cabo Verde	14.7	11.7	11.3	9.2	118	Korea (DPR)	43.7	30.5	26.2	31.4
48	Morocco	15.5	11.7	8.7	9.2	119	Central African Republic	48.0	43.5	32.6	31.5
50	Turkmenistan	20.2	14.4	10.5	9.5	120	Liberia	48.0	36.6	32.3	31.9
51	Oman	15.2	11.5	11.9	9.9	121	Niger	53.1	39.6	32.8	34.1
52	Thailand	18.9	12.2	9.5	10.1	122	Haiti	39.8	39.8	30.0	34.3
53	Fiji	9.6	8.8	10.6	10.2	123	Dem. Rep. of the Congo	47.2	41.2	36.2	34.9
54	Trinidad & Tobago	10.8	10.6	8.6	10.8	*	Lesotho	—	—	—	20–34.9*
55	Suriname	14.8	10.6	11.0	10.9	124	Madagascar	42.3	36.6	33.2	36.3
56	Sri Lanka	21.7	17.6	15.0	11.3	125	Chad	50.5	44.8	38.8	36.4
56	Viet Nam	26.1	20.1	14.4	11.3	126	Yemen	41.6	36.8	39.6	41.2
58	Ecuador	19.3	17.8	11.8	11.6	127	Somalia	63.3	59.0	49.8	44.1
59	Jordan	10.5	7.5	7.8	12.0	*	Burundi and South Sudan	—	—	—	35–49.9*
60	South Africa	18.0	16.9	14.0	12.5						
61	Malaysia	15.4	13.7	13.4	12.7						
62	Mauritius	15.4	13.9	13.4	12.8						
63	Egypt	16.1	16.8	15.4	13.2						
64	Nicaragua	21.7	17.1	14.0	13.6						
65	Tajikistan	39.9	28.1	16.0	13.7						
65	Ghana	28.5	22.2	16.7	13.9						
67	Philippines	24.9	18.9	17.9	14.4						
68	Cambodia	41.3	24.9	18.9	14.7						
68	Nepal	37.1	29.2	21.2	14.7						
70	Iraq	22.9	19.8	14.3	14.9						

■ = low ■ = moderate ■ = serious ■ = alarming ■ = extremely alarming
 Note: For the 2024 GHI report, data were assessed for 136 countries. Out of these, there were sufficient data to calculate 2024 GHI scores for and rank 127 countries (by way of comparison, 125 countries were ranked in the 2023 report).
¹ Ranked according to 2024 GHI scores. Countries that have identical 2024 scores are given the same ranking (for example, Armenia and Bulgaria are both ranked 23rd).
² The 22 countries with 2024 GHI scores of less than 5 are not assigned individual ranks, but rather are collectively ranked 1–22. Differences between their scores are minimal.
 — = Data are not available or not presented. Some countries did not exist in their present borders in the given year or reference period.
 * For 9 countries, individual scores could not be calculated and ranks could not be determined owing to lack of data. Where possible, these countries were provisionally designated by severity: 1 as *serious* and 2 as *alarming*. For 6 countries, provisional designations could not be established (see Table A.3 in Appendix A).

Low: GHI \leq 9.9 Moderate: GHI 10.0–19.9 Serious: GHI 20.0–34.9 Alarming: GHI 35.0–49.9 Extremely alarming: GHI \geq 50.0

FIGURE 1.3 2024 GHI SCORES AND PROGRESS SINCE 2000



Source: Authors.

Note: This figure illustrates the change in GHI scores since 2000 in absolute values. It features countries where data are available to calculate 2000 and 2024 GHI scores and where 2024 GHI scores show moderate, serious, alarming, or extremely alarming hunger levels. Some likely poor performers may not appear due to missing data.

Drivers Affect All Regions, but Converge Differently across Contexts

Africa South of the Sahara

Africa South of the Sahara is the world region with the highest and most concerning hunger levels. While the region's GHI scores have significantly improved over the past two decades, hunger remains *serious* and progress has virtually stalled since 2016 (Figure 1.2). The high GHI score is driven by the highest undernourishment and child mortality rates of any region by far. Undernourishment rose sharply between 2015 and 2023, particularly in West and Central Africa, owing to recurring conflicts; economic challenges such as currency devaluations, soaring inflation, stagnating production, and trade barriers; and heavy reliance on food imports (WFP 2024). In 2022, 72 percent of the population in Africa South of the Sahara were unable to afford a healthy diet—the highest rate of any world region (FAO et al. 2024a). In five countries—all in Africa South of the Sahara—more than 1 in 10 children dies before their fifth birthday. The region also has the highest neonatal mortality rate in the world, accounting for more than 40 percent of global newborn deaths (Zerfu 2024). A recent study of 45 countries in Africa South of the Sahara suggests that while economic growth benefits child survival, environmental degradation undermines these gains (Fotio et al. 2024).

Climate change is also wreaking havoc across much of Africa South of the Sahara. Since 1961 climate change has reduced agricultural productivity growth in Africa by 34 percent (IPCC 2022). Southern Africa is currently experiencing a severe drought—reported to be the worst on record in parts of Zambia and Zimbabwe—with devastating impacts for the population, which depends largely on rainfed subsistence crop production and drought-sensitive water sources (Kimutai et al. 2024). In Malawi, the worst dry spell in a century may reduce the maize harvest by 22.5 percent. The government has declared a state of disaster, as maize is the country's most important staple crop and is produced by 9 out of 10 farming households (De Weerd et al. 2024; Duchoslav et al. 2024). Since October 2020, large parts of Eastern Africa have faced their worst drought in 40 years, resulting in harvest failures, livestock losses, decreased surface water availability, and increased conflict (Kimutai et al. 2023). In Ethiopia, the situation is particularly severe for pastoralists, who have few livestock holdings and income-generating activities in the wake of the 2020–2023 drought and the 2020–2022 conflict (FEWS NET 2024b; FSIN and GNAFC 2024; United Nations–Ethiopia 2024).

Somalia is facing a protracted hunger crisis driven by ongoing conflict, economic challenges, and climate shocks, all in the context of a state that has limited capacity to carry out basic government functions. Over half the population, 51.3 percent, lacks sufficient calories—the second-highest value of all countries (Figure 1.4). Child wasting and mortality rates are also among the world's highest. Despite significant progress since 2000, hunger remains protracted. In 2017, 2022, and 2023, some regions and populations faced famine risks. While rains, humanitarian aid, and improved capacities to respond to crises slightly mitigated the devastating effects of six consecutive poor rainy seasons, erratic rainfall also caused flooding, displacement, and crop destruction (FSIN and GNAFC 2024; Humanitarian Outcomes 2023).

Sudan is facing a hunger crisis on a scale not experienced since the Darfur crisis of the early 2000s. Even before fighting broke out in 2023, Sudan faced very high child undernutrition and high levels of acute food insecurity. The escalating conflict, the deliberate destruction of Sudan's food system, the disruption of people's coping mechanisms, and the active denial of humanitarian access have driven the country to the brink of famine (Hoffman 2024; IFPRI and WFP 2024), and in July 2024 famine was confirmed in parts

“Women now bring food to the table. Men in the family and in the community respect them more. With less stress for food and money, there is also less fighting and physical violence at home.”

—Angelina Nyawway Gai, leader of mixed-gender farmers group, South Sudan

“I will do everything to achieve my goal. Even if I am a woman and do not inherit anything, I can buy property on my own. I will not give up farming and livestock farming because you can develop from these activities.”

—Florence (age 28), single mother, Madagascar

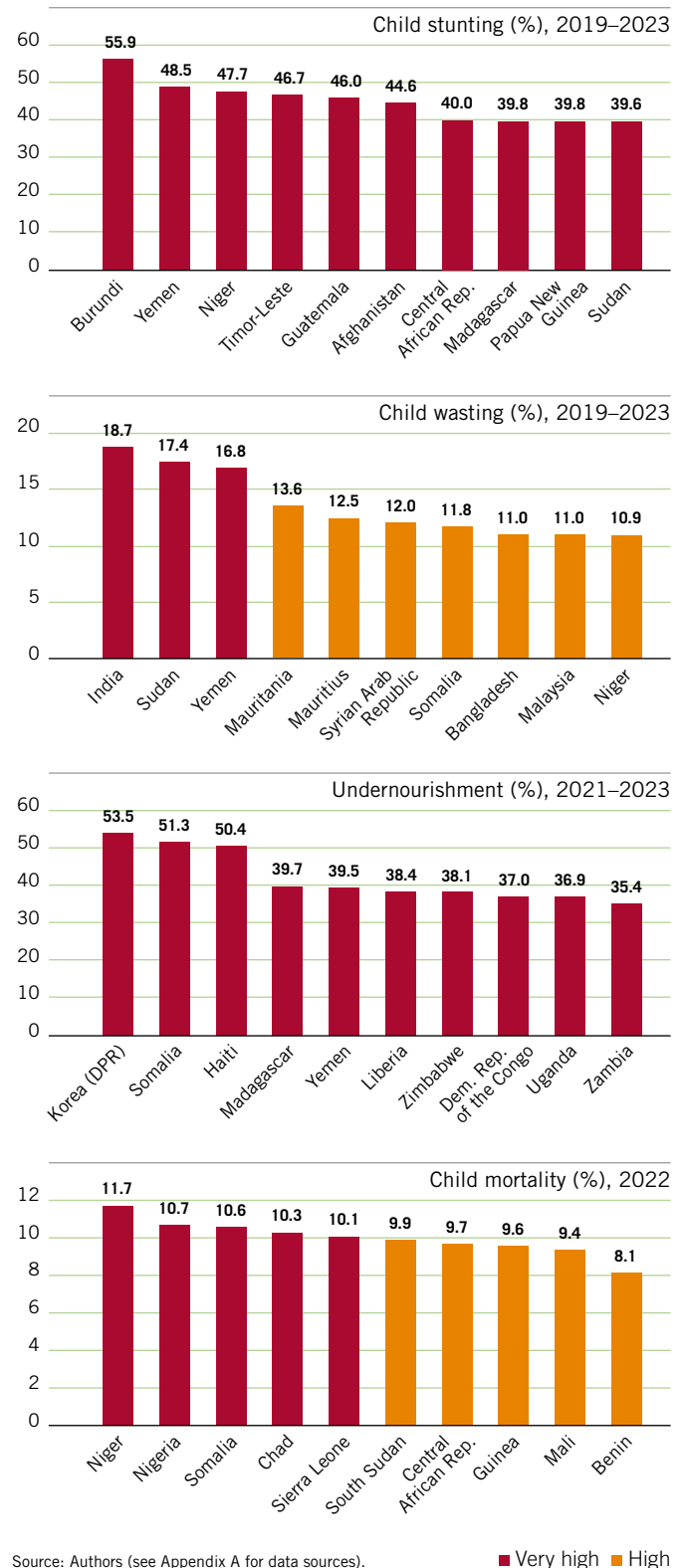
of North Darfur (IPC 2024b). The country is also experiencing the largest and fastest-growing displacement crisis globally, resulting in escalating needs and instability in resource-strained host communities in neighboring countries, particularly Chad and South Sudan (WFP and FAO 2024). In South Sudan, more than 60 percent of the population faced an acute food crisis in 2023, with famine looming for more than 40,000 people (FSIN and GNAFC 2024).

South Asia

In South Asia, hunger remains *serious*, reflecting rising undernourishment and persistently high child undernutrition, driven by poor diet quality, economic challenges, and the increasing impacts of natural disasters. With 281 million undernourished people, South Asia accounts for nearly 40 percent of the global total (FAO et al. 2024a) and has the highest child wasting rate of all regions in the GHI. Poor diet quality in South Asia results in persistent undernutrition and micronutrient deficiencies, alongside rising overweight, obesity, and related noncommunicable diseases. While South Asian countries have large food-based safety net programs, these often prioritize staple grains over diverse diets, hindering long-term health improvements (IFPRI 2024). Despite some economic growth in many South Asian countries, the benefits provided are uneven, leaving many with low wages and high unemployment. Rapid urbanization, climate change, and natural disasters further strain public and natural resources (ESCAP 2020).

The GHI scores of Afghanistan, India, and Pakistan all indicate a serious level of hunger. In Afghanistan, the food security situation has worsened as a result of conflict, economic instability, and disasters that disrupt agriculture and aid (IPC 2024d). Since 2016, the country’s GHI score has risen, driven primarily by mounting undernourishment rates, as it has seen the starkest increase in child stunting of all countries (alongside Niger). Households experiencing conflict and other shocks are being forced to resort to extreme coping strategies to deal with food shortages (Ahmadzai and Morrisey 2024). In India, although the country’s GHI score has fallen since 2000, child wasting and stunting remain very high (see Appendix B). Child undernutrition in India goes hand in hand with the poor nutritional status of mothers (IIPS and ICF 2021), suggesting an intergenerational pattern of undernutrition and underscoring the need for attention to maternal health and nutrition and infant feeding. In Pakistan, high inflation, fiscal deficits, and frequent natural disasters exacerbate food shortages (World Bank 2024c). In 2022, extreme rainfall led to unprecedented flooding and a severe food crisis that has been attributed to climate change (Otto et al. 2023a).

FIGURE 1.4 WHERE THE INDICATORS OF HUNGER ARE HIGHEST



Over the past two decades, Nepal has achieved one of the world's fastest reductions in the prevalence of child stunting, though stunting remains a major public health concern. Despite facing economic and political instability, Nepal made these improvements in nutrition largely by increasing its coverage of health and nutrition services, as well as by enhancing household wealth, parental education, and sanitation. It embraced a multisectoral and multistakeholder approach through its Multi-Sectoral Nutrition Plans, which played a crucial role in these achievements (Chitekwe et al. 2022; Hanley-Cook et al. 2022). In 2015 Nepal enshrined the right to food in its constitution, and to advance implementation of the constitutional provision it adopted the Right to Food and Food Sovereignty Act in 2018 along with a supporting regulation in 2024.

Latin America and the Caribbean

Although hunger in Latin America and the Caribbean is categorized as low, this is the only region where hunger has worsened since 2016, driven by rising food inflation and fertilizer prices, soaring debt, and worsening credit conditions, which amplify structural inequalities and extreme poverty (ECLAC 2022). The region faces increases in undernourishment and child stunting, a stagnating child wasting rate, and below-average reductions in child mortality. While most people in the region consume sufficient calories, diet quality is poor, and more than half of the countries exhibit medium to very high levels of stunting. Latin America and the Caribbean is the only region where stunting has increased since 2016, with the largest increases in Argentina, Panama, Guatemala, and Mexico; in Guatemala stunting has reached a staggering 46 percent. Additionally, the region faces a triple burden of malnutrition—undernutrition, overweight and obesity, and micronutrient deficiencies—leading to severe diet-related health issues (Morris et al. 2020). The cost of a healthy diet is highest in Latin America and the Caribbean (FAO et al. 2024a). Many countries are vulnerable to price hikes due to their dependence on agricultural and fertilizer imports, further exacerbating inequalities. Rising inflation, especially food inflation, disproportionately impacts low-income households, which spend a high proportion of their income on food (ECLAC 2022). The exceptional drought in the Amazon basin since mid-2023 has been driven largely by climate change and compounded by widespread deforestation and ecological destruction, including for cattle production (Clarke et al. 2024; Watts 2023).

Haiti's hunger levels are climbing dramatically as the country experiences a series of compounding shocks, including erratic rainfall, rampant inflation, and political turmoil that has fueled gang violence and internal displacement (FSIN and GNAFC 2024). Haiti is

among the countries with the highest increases in their GHI scores since 2016, driven mainly by spiraling undernourishment. Acute food insecurity was projected to affect about 5 million people—nearly half the country's population—between March and June 2024 (FSIN and GNAFC 2024). Gang violence in Port-au-Prince, and increasingly beyond the capital, severely disrupts livelihoods and markets, pushing up prices, particularly in Cité Soleil. Gang violence and insecurity have hindered access to essential health, nutrition, water, sanitation, and hygiene services. Gangs commit serious abuses against the population, including large-scale sexual violence, forcing entire communities to move to safer areas (UN OCHA 2023).

West Asia and North Africa

The GHI score of West Asia and North Africa, categorized as moderate, has stagnated, reflecting the overlapping effects of conflict, climate change, and trade shocks. The region's heavy reliance on food imports has made it especially vulnerable to recent global and regional trade shocks, which have caused rampant inflation, disrupted domestic food systems, and made nutritious diets less accessible and affordable. Political instability, fragility, natural disasters, and persistent conflicts contribute to large refugee populations and broader food insecurity; by the end of 2024, the region is projected to have 15.8 million forcibly displaced and stateless people (UNHCR 2024a). Additionally, high vulnerability to climate change and water scarcity poses a long-term threat to the region's food security (IFPRI 2024). The severe three-year drought that afflicted West Asia from 2020 was driven by climate change and compounded by socioeconomic stressors, severely impacting agriculture and access to potable water (Otto et al. 2023b).

Yemen's hunger levels have stagnated for two decades, and Syria has seen the starkest increase in GHI scores since 2000 (Figure 1.3), reflecting the devastating impact of conflict. In Yemen, conflict-induced economic isolation and severe shortages of food, fuel, and medical supplies have had disastrous effects on undernourishment and child undernutrition. Undernourishment increased by more than 15 percentage points between 2000–2002 and 2021–2023. Almost half of Yemeni children—48.5 percent—are stunted, and 16.8 percent of children are wasted. In 2023, 18 million people, more than half of the population, faced an acute food crisis (FSIN and GNAFC 2024). In Syria, prolonged conflict, coupled with increased impacts of natural hazards, has led nearly 13 million people to experience high levels of acute food insecurity (FSIN and GNAFC 2024). Undernourishment, now at 34.0 percent, increased by more than 20 percentage points between 2015–2017 and 2021–2023. The

“I farm for my kids. It is a legacy which I want to pass down to my children—Fawaz, my three-year-old, and Ella, my seven-month-old. Besides their education, I want my kids to have a healthy life, to be able to provide for themselves, and to have organic produce. I care for their health and capabilities.”

—Evin Juno Badal (age 23), mother of two, Iraq

“It became impossible to earn a living after the rains. There was no cultivable land as it was all inundated, and we could not grow any crops for the season. Laborers had nowhere to work.”

—Maula Dino (age 42), father of six, Pakistan

conflict, which has lasted for more than a decade, has severely disrupted agriculture and food value chains. Many farmers are unable to cultivate their total land due to limited access, unavailable or high-priced inputs, and lack of financial means, and many households are forced to seek low-wage, off-farm employment that barely meets their needs (Ibrahim et al. 2024).

Gaza is experiencing the most severe food crisis recorded in the past 20 years, as almost the entire population of Gaza is facing crisis levels of acute food insecurity, and famine might already be occurring (FEWS NET 2024d; FSIN and GNAFC 2024). Despite slight improvements in the northern governorate due to increased food deliveries and nutrition services in March and April, recent assessments show that 96 percent of the population is experiencing crisis levels of food insecurity, and the risk of famine remains high throughout Gaza, driven by ongoing hostilities and many months of poor nutrition and health, as well as inadequate water, sanitation, and hygiene (IPC 2024a, c). The conflict has caused unprecedented deaths, widespread destruction, and large-scale displacement, exacerbated by severe restrictions on commercial goods and humanitarian

assistance (WFP and FAO 2024). The food system and agricultural value chains have almost completely collapsed, with over half of farmland and many processing facilities destroyed. Since October 7, 2023, about 70 percent of livestock has been lost, and fishing has largely ceased due to damaged boats, fuel shortages, and security issues (IPC 2024a; FAO 2024c). The environmental impacts and damage to agricultural land are likely to have enduring effects on Gazans' health and livelihoods (Vos and Kim 2024; UNEP 2024). According to the United Nations Mine Action Service, it could take up to 14 years to clear all explosive threats in Gaza (FAO 2024c).

East and Southeast Asia

East and Southeast Asia exhibit an overall *low* level of hunger, although progress has stagnated and there are massive disparities between countries. In Southeast Asia, affordability of a healthy diet lags behind the world average despite economic growth in the region (FAO et al. 2024a). East Asia generally has stable food security, although some of its highest-income countries rely on food imports and international supply chains (Agroberichten Buitenland 2022; Hong 2023). DPR Korea, Papua New Guinea, and Timor-Leste face *serious* levels of hunger. In Indonesia, Lao PDR, Mongolia, Myanmar, and Timor-Leste, GHI scores fell significantly until 2016, but since then progress has nearly halted. Hunger has worsened a great deal in DPR Korea, where over half the population is now undernourished. Some countries in the region—particularly the Philippines, Indonesia, Myanmar, and China—face high exposure to natural hazards coupled with low adaptive capacity. Vietnam and Papua New Guinea are among the countries with the highest exposure (Bündnis Entwicklung Hilft and IFHV 2023).

Mongolia has reduced its GHI score by more than 80 percent since 2000—moving from *serious* to *low* hunger—in a shift correlated with a decline in poverty, a steady rise in GDP, and greater use of sanitation services (World Bank 2024d). However, dietary and nutritional deficiencies persist, underlined by a recent increase in child stunting; less than half of children aged 6–23 months receive a minimum acceptable diet (Bromage et al. 2020; Janmohamed et al. 2020). Mongolia's reliance on pastoral livestock and rainfed agriculture, combined with fragile ecosystems, also makes the country vulnerable to climate change impacts (Dagys et al. 2023).

Europe and Central Asia

Despite recent challenges, the region of Europe and Central Asia is mostly on track to achieve *low* hunger by 2030. The regional GHI score exhibited notable progress between 2000 and 2016, though this progress has largely come to a standstill since 2016, albeit at a *low* level. Reductions are linked to improvements in agricultural production and productivity, driven by economic and income growth, and an overall increase in food availability, stability, and access (Dupouy and Gurinovic 2020; FAO 2019). Turkmenistan and Tajikistan have the highest GHI scores, although Tajikistan has made remarkable progress thanks to rapid economic growth driven by remittances and agriculture. However, climate change poses a significant obstacle to Tajikistan's food and nutrition security goals (Khakimov et al. 2024). Conversely, Ukraine and Albania have seen slight increases in their GHI scores. Prevalence of undernourishment has been on the rise in Ukraine, while Albania's score is influenced by an apparent deterioration in child nutrition. Worryingly, moderate and severe food insecurity has been increasing in recent years (FAO et al. 2024a). The region has faced significant challenges linked to COVID-19, adverse weather events, and the Russo-Ukrainian War, which has fueled displacement; raised food, energy, and agricultural costs; and reduced purchasing power. Despite agriculture's economic significance, almost all countries in the region are underinvesting in the sector (FAO 2023a).

Conclusion: Accelerated Action Is Needed to Progress toward Zero Hunger

The significant progress made against hunger between 2000 and 2016 shows how much can be accomplished in just a decade and a half. Over that period, the global GHI score fell by about one-third, and hunger on the world scale moved from *serious* to *moderate*. Since then, for the world as a whole and for many countries, progress against hunger has stagnated, and in some countries it has even reversed—despite the looming 2030 deadline to achieve Zero Hunger.

It is increasingly urgent for the world to reverse the alarming trends that are pushing hunger upward and to accelerate progress toward shaping equitable, nutritious, and resilient food systems, even within the context of a changing climate and turbulent geopolitics. The push for gender justice—with its benefits for agricultural production, food security, diets, and child nutrition—can be an important tool in reducing hunger. Protecting the gains already made, advancing progress against hunger, and ensuring the right to food for all will demand both innovative thinking and determined action to address the challenges of conflict and climate change, improve governance, and generate durable solutions to the crises before us.

BOX 1.3 UNDERSTANDING THE LINKS BETWEEN GENDER INEQUALITY, CLIMATE CHANGE, AND HUNGER

Discriminatory norms and gender-based violence often place women and sexual and gender minorities at heightened risk of food and nutrition insecurity and climate change impacts while hampering their ability to cope with these challenges (see Chapter 2, “Gender Justice, Climate Resilience, and Food and Nutrition Security”). The patterns of national and regional food and nutrition insecurity shown in this year’s Global Hunger Index partially reflect this confluence of factors, which together have impacts that go well beyond women alone.

Adolescent girls and women face a crisis of food and nutrition insecurity, especially in poorer regions (UNICEF 2023). Different biological needs due to menstruation, pregnancy, and lactation, as well as harmful social norms and unequal access to resources, put them at risk of food and nutrition insecurity (Briones Alonso et al. 2018; Njuki et al. 2022). Women are 1.3 percentage points more likely than men to be moderately or severely food insecure—a gender gap that widened to 3.6 percentage points during the pandemic (FAO et al. 2024a). Over 1 billion adolescent girls and women worldwide suffer from undernutrition, with lifelong and intergenerational impacts (UNICEF 2023). Malnourished mothers give birth to vulnerable newborns: for example, anemic mothers are at a higher risk of giving birth to premature, low-birthweight, and anemic infants (Allen 2000; da Silva Lopes et al. 2018). Marginalized and poorer regions bear the brunt: in 12 countries hit by hunger between 2020 and 2022, the number of acutely malnourished pregnant and breastfeeding women increased by 25 percent. About three-quarters of low-birthweight infants reside in South Asia and Africa South of the Sahara (UNICEF 2023).

At the same time, climate change has unleashed a host of impacts that are impeding progress in reducing malnutrition, especially for women and children. These impacts include reduced crop and livestock yields, disruptions to food production and transportation, reduced nutrient content of staple crops, environmental degradation, and biodiversity loss (Fanzo et al. 2018; IFPRI 2024; Medek et al. 2017; Myers et al. 2014, 2015). Also, disaster impacts are often more pronounced for sexual and gender minorities (Bündnis Entwicklung Hilft and IFHV 2023). Disaster-induced disruptions to health services, especially antenatal, postnatal, and obstetric care, pose risks to women and their pregnancies and children (UNFPA 2024). Heat exposure during pregnancy is associated with a greater risk of preterm birth, low-birth-weight deliveries, and stunting (Bekkar et al. 2020; Blom et al. 2022). A study in Ethiopia revealed that both short-term and prolonged drought exposure beyond the 1,000-day window from conception to age two increased the likelihood of child stunting, with girls more susceptible to growth impairments than boys (Bahru et al. 2019).

A country’s food sector vulnerability and readiness to respond to climate change is correlated with hunger and gender inequality, suggesting that efforts to improve gender equity may have spillover benefits for resilience to climate change. Figure 1.5 below shows that countries with *serious* or *alarming* GHI scores, like Yemen and Chad, face both high climate risk and high levels of gender inequality, while countries with *low* GHI values, like Estonia and Latvia, exhibit low values of gender inequality and climate risk.

While women are not inherently more at risk from climate change and shocks, resource constraints and other factors can make them more vulnerable. Agrifood systems—which are particularly affected by climate impacts—are often more vital for women’s livelihoods than for men’s. At the same time, women face constraints that reduce their coping capacity, like unpaid care work; limited access to opportunities, services, technology, finance, and resources; and weak tenure rights (FAO 2023b). During climate shocks like heat stress, available adaptation strategies tend to create higher labor loads for women. Discriminatory gender norms restricting women’s mobility and access to climate information further hinder their ability to adapt (Jost et al. 2015; UN Women 2023). Women’s limited representation in climate policy decision-making on all levels exacerbates their vulnerability. Crises such as disasters and pandemics have also been shown to worsen gender-based violence, which in turn tends to harm agricultural productivity and food and nutrition security by impacting survivors’ health and resilience (UNFPA 2023). Food and agriculture interventions can exacerbate gender-based violence risks by, for example, overburdening women or exposing individuals to violence when accessing project sites and distribution points, especially if social dynamics and power relations are not well understood (FAO 2022).

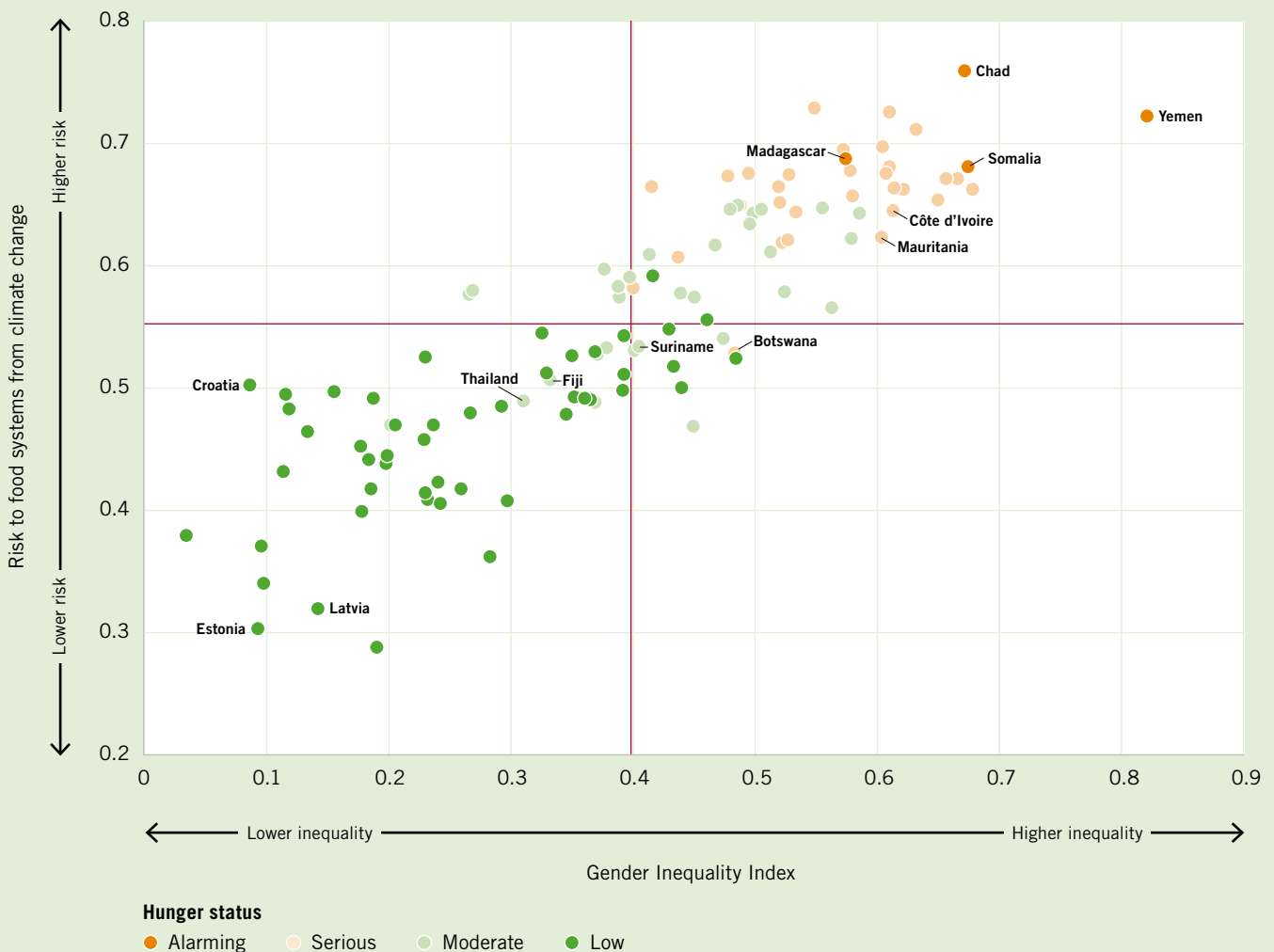
Major data gaps remain, impeding effective responses. There is a lack of sex-disaggregated data on people’s access to productive assets, climate change adaptation, resilience, and nutrition. Research is also lacking on individuals who face compounded inequalities due to factors such as age, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, Indigenous identity, and remoteness (HLPE 2023). Furthermore, data on food and nutrition security among sexual and gender minorities is particularly sparse and sensitive to collect. Hostile environments for sexual and gender minorities often reinforce binary gender norms and pose risks to those expressing nonbinary identities. Studies from Northern America suggest that transgender and gender-nonconforming individuals experience higher levels of food and nutrition insecurity (Russomanno and Jabson Tree 2020; Ferrero et al. 2023). Impact evaluations and systematic reviews related to the SDGs largely ignore gender

and equity, resulting in limited evidence and understanding of the impact of development interventions on equity (Engelbert et al. 2023).

A number of steps can be taken to make the links between gender, climate change, and food and nutrition security work in productive ways. Despite discrimination and constraints, women are crucial to food systems, making up nearly 40 percent of agrifood workers. Increasing women’s agency, access to and control over assets, and gender equality in agrifood systems has the potential to boost household food security, child nutrition, economic growth, income, productivity, and resilience (Bapolisi et al. 2021; FAO

2023b). Bridging labor and productivity gaps between women and men could increase global GDP by 1 percent and lift 45 million people out of food insecurity (FAO 2023b). Better integration of maternal health across sectors and improved ties between the climate and nutrition communities are necessary. Currently, only 23 out of 119 Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs)—key national climate policy documents—mention maternal and newborn health (UNFPA 2023). Finally, filling evidence gaps is crucial to the development of targeted interventions that effectively address disparities based on gender identity, sexual orientation, and intersecting inequalities.

FIGURE 1.5 GENDER INEQUALITY GOES HAND IN HAND WITH HUNGER AND RISKS TO FOOD SYSTEMS FROM CLIMATE CHANGE IN MANY COUNTRIES



Source: Authors, based on the Gender Inequality Index (UNDP 2024) and data on climate change vulnerability and readiness from ND-GAIN (2023).

Note: The Gender Inequality Index (GII) of the United Nations Development Programme is a composite measure using three dimensions: reproductive health, empowerment, and the labor market. GII values range from 0 (low inequality) to 1 (high inequality). The Notre Dame Global Adaptation Initiative (ND-GAIN) evaluates countries based on their vulnerability to and readiness for climate change. Food systems’ risk from climate change consists of their vulnerability adjusted by their readiness. Risk values range from 0 (low risk) to 1 (high risk). The red lines represent the median along each axis.

FIGURE 1.6

2024 GLOBAL HUNGER INDEX BY SEVERITY



- Extremely alarming ≥ 50.0
 - Alarming 35.0–49.9
 - Serious 20.0–34.9
 - Moderate 10.0–19.9
 - Low ≤ 9.9
 - Not included or not designated (see Appendix A for details)
- * Provisional severity designation (see Table A.3 for details)



Source: Authors.

Note: For the 2024 GHI, data on the proportion of undernourished are for 2021–2023; data on child stunting and wasting are for the latest year in the period 2019–2023 for which data are available; and data on child mortality are for 2022. GHI scores were not calculated for countries for which data were not available and for countries that did not meet the GHI inclusion criteria; see Appendix A for details.

The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by Welthungerhilfe (WHH), Concern Worldwide, or the Institute for International Law of Peace and Armed Conflict (IFHV).

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02



Efforts to promote gender justice can lead to self-sufficiency and resilience for both women and men. In Uganda, men and women take cooking classes together in preparation to start their own businesses.

GENDER JUSTICE, CLIMATE RESILIENCE, AND FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY

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Key Messages

- **Gender inequality, food insecurity, and climate change converge to place households, communities, and countries under extreme stress.** Women and girls are typically hardest hit by food insecurity and malnutrition. They also suffer disproportionately from the effects of weather extremes and climate emergencies.
- **Gender justice—that is, equity between people in all spheres of life—is critical to a just world and to achieving climate and food justice.** It consists of three interconnected dimensions: recognition, redistribution, and representation.
- **Recognitional justice entails transforming gender discriminatory norms in order to change how households, communities, and the wider culture view gender roles and capacities.** It means acknowledging that different groups of people have different needs, vulnerabilities, and opportunities and that their physical location and social position can intersect to intensify injustices.
- **Redistributive justice involves directing resources and opportunities to redress gender inequalities.** By ensuring women's access to and control over critical productive resources, it can challenge inequitable power dynamics and create an enabling environment for food and nutrition security.
- **Representation refers to closing the gender gap in women's participation in politics and decision-making at multiple levels.** Legal changes and women's political participation and leadership may help push policies toward gender equity, though such outcomes are not assured and can take time.
- **Reforms are needed to incorporate gender justice at all scales and levels, ranging from individuals to entire systems and from formal mechanisms to informal social and cultural norms.** While enabling access to resources for women is essential, structural inequalities—including class dynamics, rising income inequality,

corporate control over production systems, and lack of high-quality basic services—must be addressed for real systemic and social change to happen. Redistribution of power and resources at the household and community levels must be underpinned by universal social protection and macroeconomic measures, such as tax and trade policies, that support the most vulnerable.

Some of the world's poorest countries are now on the front lines of the climate crisis. Madagascar, for example, is facing a prolonged drought, attributed to climate change, that is afflicting the entire southern region (Rigden et al. 2024). The country is also hard hit by hunger and malnutrition as a result of weather extremes and economic shocks. In 2023, 2.2 million people suffered from acute food insecurity (FSIN and GNAFC 2024). Compounding these challenges is widespread gender inequality: in Madagascar girls have limited access to education, women face scarce economic opportunities, and rates of sexual and gender-based violence are high (World Bank 2023b). Malagasy women are more likely than men to face food insecurity, and they appear to be disproportionately vulnerable to the impacts of climate change on their labor burden and health (FAO 2024d; World Bank 2023b).

The situation in Madagascar is just one illustration of how gender inequality, food insecurity, and climate change converge to place households, communities, and countries under extreme stress. Gender is intertwined with climate and food security challenges in ways that respective policies and interventions often ignore. Women and girls are typically hardest hit by food insecurity and malnutrition. They also suffer disproportionately from the effects of weather extremes and climate emergencies (Harris-Fry and Grijalva-Eternod 2016; Hlahla 2022; Jain et al. 2023; Rao 2020). Various forms of discrimination—formal and informal, systemic and individual—block them from the resources and opportunities they need to take effective action for the well-being of themselves and others, and to contribute to transformative change across food systems and for climate resilience.

In this essay, we unravel the nexus of gender justice, climate resilience, and food and nutrition security to identify the strategies, both immediate and structural, that can contribute to a gender-just, climate-resilient, and food-secure world.

Note: The views expressed in this chapter are those of the authors. They do not necessarily reflect the views of Welthungerhilfe (WHH), Concern Worldwide, or the Institute for International Law of Peace and Armed Conflict (IFHV).

Gender Inequality in Food Systems and Nutrition Is Severe—and Climate Change Is Making It Worse

Despite decades of galvanizing rhetoric about the need to ensure equal rights and opportunities for men and women, severe gender inequality persists. The Global Gender Gap Index,¹ at 68.5 percent, reveals stubborn disparities in men's and women's economic and political participation and empowerment at a global level, and in many countries the gap is much wider (WEF 2024a). The effects of the gender gap cascade throughout women's lives and have stark implications for the world's food security, nutrition, and resilience to a changing climate.

Among the undernourished, women consistently remain the most food insecure. The gap in food security between men and women is as high as 19 percentage points in some countries (Broussard 2019), and the situation for women is especially severe in countries affected by conflict (FSIN and GNAFC 2024). Women who are poor, rural, migrants, refugees, or engaged in informal employment are even more vulnerable (see Box 2.1). Even in peacetime, women and girls around the world sometimes eat last and least, given the inequalities prevalent in cultures, communities, and households.

As a result, women suffer from widespread nutritional deficiencies. The specific nutritional needs of pregnant and lactating women are rarely sufficiently addressed in households or in state interventions. Anemia, for example, affects 30 percent of all women globally

¹ The Global Gender Gap Index measures scores on a percentage scale of 0–100. Scores represent the distance covered toward parity (that is, the percentage of the gender gap that has been closed), so a higher score signifies a smaller gender gap.

between the ages of 15 and 49 (WHO 2023) and almost half of all women in West Africa and South Asia.

Food systems more broadly also discriminate against women. Agri-food policy approaches and finance policies often fail to respond to the underlying power relations between men and women, such as discriminatory norms, labor burdens, and land inheritance regimes, yet they rely on women's unpaid farm labor and caregiving to sustain an unjust food system (Njuki et al. 2021). Even in countries where women's land rights are enshrined in law, sociocultural norms and practices constrain their land access and ownership.

At the same time, climate change has disproportionate impacts on women. In its report *The Unjust Climate*, the Food and Agriculture Organization notes that heat waves and floods widen the gap not only between the poor and nonpoor but also between male- and female-headed households. A study of 24 low- and middle-income countries finds that if global temperatures rise by another one degree Celsius, female-headed households are projected to lose 34 percent more of their income than male-headed households (FAO 2024d). As climate change and poverty push many men to migrate away from farms in South Asia, for example, women are taking on an increasing share of agricultural labor and are experiencing a rise in their work burdens, without commensurate control over the output and incomes from these farms. These women farmers lack timely agricultural extension information and adequate capital to recover from shocks (FAO 2024d; Leder 2022; Maharjan et al. 2020; Pandey 2019).

To cope with the impacts of climate change, women often face increasing work burdens, including the need to travel farther to fetch water. They are forced to take on multiple livelihoods, worsening

BOX 2.1 HOW GENDER INTERSECTS WITH OTHER IDENTITIES AND EXPERIENCES

Gender refers to the socially determined characteristics of women and men, which are learned, are changeable over time, and vary both within cultures and from culture to culture. While gender relations signify the social relations of power and the roles, responsibilities, opportunities, and expectations facing women and men, these categories are not homogeneous. Rather, the experience of gender is rooted in intersectionality, reflecting the multiple overlapping sources of identity and oppression, whether race, ethnicity, caste, or sexual identity.

Food security is not just about vitamins, minerals, and dietary diversity but is part of a wider system that can affect

women in varied ways depending on their stage of life and social position. As conditions intersect and overlap, they can combine to create cumulative burdens. The women worst affected by food insecurity and nutritional deficiencies are likely to be poor, rural women with little education (HLPE 2023), Indigenous women (Lemke and Delormier 2017), the urban poor (Roy et al. 2023), and the elderly (Assoumou et al. 2023). These intersecting drivers, however, are not systematically documented or considered in policy (Lemke and Delormier 2017; Rao 2020).

their time poverty,² with implications for food and nutrition security (Chaudhuri et al. 2021). Women’s time poverty is now recognized as a major reason for poor child nutrition outcomes, alongside adverse effects on women’s own health (Johnston et al. 2018; Rao and Raju 2019). The resulting deepening poverty and food insecurity also expose women to different forms of gender-based violence, including trafficking (Forsythe 2023; Rao 2020; van Daalen et al. 2022).

Gender Justice Is a Cornerstone to Achieving Climate Resilience and Food and Nutrition Security

Gender justice—that is, equity between people in all spheres of life—is critical to a just world and to achieving climate and food justice. It consists of three interconnected dimensions: recognition, redistribution, and representation (Fraser 2009). Recognition entails transforming gender discriminatory norms by acknowledging that different groups of people have different needs, vulnerabilities, and opportunities and that their physical location and social position can intersect to intensify injustices. This calls for a nuanced understanding and appropriate responses. Redistribution involves directing resources and opportunities to redress gender inequalities. Representation refers to closing the gender gap in women’s participation in politics and decision-making at multiple levels. Together, these three dimensions represent a transformational approach to gender equity (Figure 2.1).

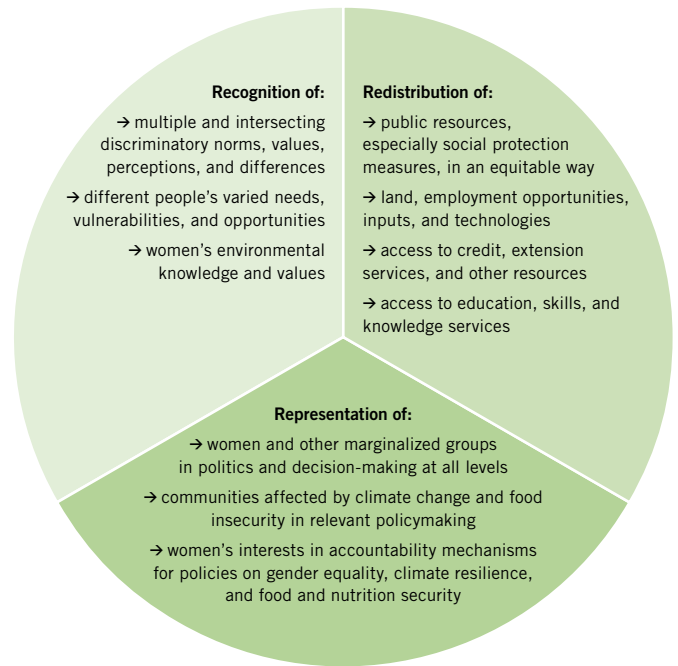
Several examples illustrate the potential for change across the gender-food-climate nexus as well as the challenges to achieving such synergies.

Recognitional Justice: Transforming Gender-Discriminatory Norms

Exercising recognitional justice means changing how households, communities, and the wider culture view gender roles and capacities. Such initiatives can trigger transformative changes at the micro level, contributing to both food and nutrition security and climate resilience.

In Madagascar’s Atsimo-Atsinanana region, as elsewhere in the country, men, often polygamous, have greater entitlement to and control over resources and decision-making than women. In addition to supporting their husbands on farms, women are expected to rear children and manage domestic chores and care work. Women are not allowed to use or inherit land or conduct their own income-generating activities, as this could be perceived as lack of respect for their husbands (ProSAR 2024a, b). The disruptions caused by extreme weather make women’s household responsibilities, such as

FIGURE 2.1 DIMENSIONS OF GENDER JUSTICE



Source: Authors, based on framework from Fraser (2009).

providing drinking water, collecting firewood, and producing nutritious food for the family, more difficult to fulfill (Tahirindray 2022).

In this context, a program of gender-equity training has shown the potential for changing household and community norms concerning gender roles. A Welthungerhilfe (WHH) project in the region³ has carried out a number of activities related to food and nutrition security, with a focus on women’s care groups and the promotion of positive masculinity. Farmer field schools and demonstration plots not only provide women with new information and nutrition-sensitive agricultural techniques that make their soils and seeds more resilient to a changing climate but also position them as visible and capable contributors in the public domain of production, thus challenging traditional perceptions of gender roles. Neighborhood care groups provide both education on nutrition and health and much-needed social recognition and support for care work. Workshops on progressive gender roles demonstrate the complementarity and interdependence between men and women.

³ This WHH project in the Atsimo-Atsinanana region is part of the German Development Agency’s Food Security, Nutrition, and Enhanced Resilience Project (ProSAR). It aims to improve knowledge of nutrition, hygiene, and health to influence the use of food. Additionally, it facilitates access to food through training in financial resource management and support for income-generating activities.

² Time poverty occurs when people, particularly women, have no time to fulfill personal schedules, rest, or hobbies owing to the double burden of productive and reproductive work, which occupies all of their time (Hyde et al. 2020).

This multi-pronged intervention has set in motion processes of gender transformation. Many participating couples now work together in the fields, jointly invest loan funds, start small businesses, or purchase additional rice fields, helping them meet the family's basic needs, diversify their livelihoods, and invest in their children's education. As implied by a study in Uganda, joint decision-making about sustainable land management, livelihood diversification, and education can make households more resilient to a changing climate and improve household food security (Waiswa and Akullo 2021).

"During training on progressive masculinity and femininity, I promised myself to stop drinking alcohol, to no longer hide money from my wife, and to no longer see other women," said Frédéric, the husband of a care group volunteer. "Now I try to keep my promise, and together me and my wife work hard to have a better life" (ProSAR 2024b).

Redistributional Justice: Access to Resources and Opportunities

Women are typically held responsible for household food security, yet they often have access to few household, community, and wider resources. Redistributional justice, ensuring women's access to and control over critical productive resources, can challenge inequitable power dynamics and, in turn, create an enabling environment for food and nutrition security.

Access to credit is one example of the power of resource distribution. In South Sudan, as part of an integrated, intersectoral approach,⁴ village savings and loan associations have increased women's access to credit and information. Preliminary observations suggest that these resources have led women to invest in vegetable gardening and agroforestry, enabling them to earn incomes; giving them more voice about what to grow, how to use their income, and what to cook; and, in turn, improving the households' food and nutrition security. It is suggested that activities to boost climate adaptation, like tree planting and agroforestry, picked up significantly when both women and men were equally involved in decision-making and ownership of resources. Progress, though, is slow. Despite gradual shifts in gender relations, the patriarchal nature of South Sudanese society has not fully changed, and community resources are still controlled largely by men (interview, WHH South Sudan, May 2024; UNDP 2022).

Elsewhere, efforts have sought to improve women's access to technology. In Nepal, cultivation of finger millet—a climate-resilient

⁴ The WHH project, funded by the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ), aims to improve food and nutrition security and stabilize the livelihoods of internally displaced persons and small farming families from conflict-affected (host) communities in Rubkona County, Unity State, South Sudan. Activities include training on nutrition, small business management, and climate-sensitive farming techniques, as well as sessions on gender equality, gender stereotypes, and women's participation in decision-making at the household and community levels.

CASE STUDY

Empowering Women for Nutrition and Climate Resilience in Nepal

In the conservative Terai region of Nepal, strict patriarchal norms dictate family decisions. Women in the region—especially those from ethnic minorities and with low social status—experience high levels of poverty, social exclusion, and marginalization and are unable to freely exercise their economic, reproductive health, and political rights.

These challenges are evident in the life of Nita Patel, a young mother whose three-year-old daughter was diagnosed with severe acute malnutrition one year ago. Today Nita remains unsure whether her daughter is out of danger, as she could not attend either her child's second screening or the regular nutrition meetings she once eagerly enrolled in. Smita Pal, who works with FORWARD Nepal under the Nutrition Smart CommUNITY program,⁵ says health workers often struggle to retain rural women like Nita in such programs. "They cannot go out without permission or without a man's company. They lack the space and opportunity to make their own decisions," Pal explains. Any form of change often meets resistance from in-laws or families, making it essential to advocate for behavior change among both men and women.

The Nutrition Smart CommUNITY approach combines systemic interventions at various levels to address the root causes of chronic hunger and malnutrition through four key strategies: fostering behavior change at the household level, strengthening and supporting community-based institutions, activating and improving nutrition-relevant services, and advocating for a multisectoral, community-based approach to realizing the right to food.

The program aims to build the skills of caregivers to prevent malnutrition in both the family and the wider community. This

⁵ This case study was prepared by Welthungerhilfe (WHH). Nutrition Smart CommUNITY is a multisectoral approach designed to help village communities tackle the complex causes of hunger holistically through self-help and sustainable practices. In Nutrition Smart CommUNITYs, people, local organizations, and authorities collaborate to improve nutrition by advancing agriculture, health, natural resource management, and water, sanitation, and hygiene (WASH), integrating best practices from nutrition projects all over the world. Initially starting with two villages, the program has since expanded to 670 model villages in Bangladesh, India, and Nepal. Over a four-year period, the villages have become centers of knowledge and learning, including for neighboring communities. WHH is now extending the concept to Burundi, Ethiopia, Malawi, Sierra Leone, and Tajikistan. The initiative is funded mainly by the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) and Irish Aid.



WHH's health volunteers Nita and Reshmi in conversation with Smita from the Nutrition Smart CommUNITY program in the Terai region of Nepal.

includes training to prepare Super Cereals—a highly nutritious prepared food containing a selection of locally available, climate-resilient food items such as maize, millets, pulses, peas, wheat, soybeans, brown rice, and various seasonal fruits. Nita learned this recipe and has incorporated it into her daughter's daily diet. "I don't have to beg or ask for extra money from my husband or in-laws. These ingredients are readily available at our farm or at home," says Nita. Men migrate for work, often leaving financial control of the family to their own fathers. Women thus frequently lack financial freedom or purchasing power. Promoting low-cost recipes and improving women's access to knowledge on the linkages between agriculture, natural resource management, and water, sanitation, and hygiene is vital to increase women's agency and address malnutrition. To create lasting change, the program also trains men on the importance of nutritious food.

Through farmer field schools, both men and women in the community learn about diversified crops and healthy diets as well as sustainable farming practices that enhance nutrition and climate resilience. These practices include the use of traditional, local,

and climate-resilient crop varieties like millet as well as homemade bio-fertilizers and bio-pesticides known as *jholmal*. Nita and her father-in-law practice these techniques together on her farm, contributing to climate resilience. Training is also provided to government entities to institutionalize change sustainably and enhance service delivery in line with community needs. To improve the status of women in the communities and beyond, the program also strengthens women's leadership skills and agency as they take on decision-making roles in local governance, such as micro-planning processes, savings groups, or water committees.

Challenging patriarchy and fostering behavior change takes time, especially in regions like the Terai, where it faces resistance. Yet seeing women like Nita become more conscious of their children's and their own health shows that education, training, listening, timing, and empowerment of families to pick up new behaviors in order to overcome resistance do indeed pay off.

and nutritious crop—is widespread, but it intensifies the labor burden on women. The promotion of small machinery, such as the finger millet pedal thresher and fork weeder, has helped reduce the drudgery of women's work and reduce time poverty (Devkota et al. 2016), with potential positive impacts on community nutrition.⁶ In the Indian state of Odisha, research and development on millets has shifted in response to Indigenous women's needs for production and postharvest support. The government has now started testing millet-related tools and technologies for their gender sensitivity when considering state subsidies. Recognition that millets are cultivated mainly by women farmers has led to a reallocation of R&D budgets to build technologies that can improve yields, incomes, and overall well-being (Rao et al. 2022). While microfinance redistributes resources to individual women, the scenario in Odisha is an example of a systemic shift in state priorities.

In some cases, collective action has created demand for resource redistribution. In India, women farmers' groups in the state of Kerala have gained access to government extension services and bank credit through their collectives, not solely to enhance their production but also to help them diversify into climate-resilient, nutrition-rich crops. Incomes have increased, as has diet quality, as these women now grow diverse crops for both consumption and sale (Agarwal 2019). While male farmers are mainly engaged in the production of export-oriented, commercial plantation crops like pepper and rubber, the state here recognizes the contribution of the women's groups to food production and food security and prioritizes this in its planning processes. The success of women farmers' groups in Kerala is now being replicated across the country through the National Rural Livelihood Mission.

Representational Justice: Gender-Equitable Laws and Policies

In the 1970s, research on women and politics suggested that ensuring a minimum threshold of women in decision-making bodies could contribute to gender-sensitive policies and investments (Dahlerup 1988; Kanter 1977). This work helped to introduce quotas for women's representation in a number of parliaments across the world, increasing from 118 countries in 2013 to 132 in 2021 (International IDEA 2024). Only 6 countries, however, have more than 50 percent women in their parliaments (UN Women 2024). Experiences in some countries suggest that women's leadership and political participation can push policies toward gender equity, and one study shows women's

representation in national parliaments leads to more stringent climate change policies across countries (Mavisakalyan and Tarverdi 2019).

Bangladesh has had women leaders at the helm for the past three decades. It has made major strides in women's status and empowerment, currently ranking first among all South Asian countries in the Global Gender Gap Index (WEF 2024a). In the country's National Adaptation Plan (2023–2050), one of the guiding principles for coping with climate change is gender responsiveness. The plan was formulated through a participatory process involving more than 100 group discussions across the country, including with women and third-gender persons at the local subdistrict (*upazila*) level (MoEFCC 2022).

Women's representation can also make a difference in local governance, enabling demands from local communities to be channeled upward. In 1993, India instituted a 33 percent quota for women in the local government bodies known as Panchayati Raj Institutions. Women elected leaders were found to invest more than men in infrastructure responsive to issues raised by rural women (such as drinking water projects), which reduces women's work and boosts the nutritional status of rural communities (Chattopadhyay and Duflo 2004).

Legal changes and women's high-level political leadership, however, do not necessarily lead to advances in gender equity (Childs and Crook 2008). In recent years the government of Pakistan has significantly improved the status of women's rights, centering them within the Constitution and adopting several legislative and policy frameworks focused on women's empowerment and participation. Yet despite legal and policy changes, as well as some redistribution of resources, Pakistan ranks 145th out of 146 countries in the Global Gender Gap Index (WEF 2024a). Training and livelihood opportunities aimed at empowering women entrepreneurs are often unsuccessful at getting women to enroll and participate because they feel unentitled to such resources, are constrained by labor burdens, and face physical restrictions on their movements. During climate-related disasters like the 2022 floods, which affected 33 million people, women lost more of their assets and savings than men. Displaced women, far from their families and male counterparts meant to keep them safe, were housed in shelters, where they faced an increased risk of sexual violence and unsafe living conditions (Soomar et al. 2023).

This contradiction—progressive legal change alongside poor gender equity outcomes—reflects the structural and sociocultural barriers, gender stereotypes, and discrimination women face throughout their lives (Weldon and Htun 2013). Pakistan, though perhaps an extreme example, is not unusual in experiencing persistent unjust gender norms that do not quickly respond to formal changes. Nonetheless, there are some positive signs: Observers of the situation in Pakistan suggest that women are increasingly taking part in

⁶ This project is implemented by Aasaman Nepal and Local Initiatives for Biodiversity, Research and Development (LI-BIRD) through the WHH global program LANN+ (Linking Agriculture and Natural Resource Management towards Nutrition Security), funded by the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ). The project includes gender, climate change resilience, and nutrition advocacy components.

CASE STUDY

Using Livestock Management to Improve Climate Resilience, Nutrition, and Gender Equity in Somalia



Madiino Sheeq Ahmadeey has a bustling husbandry business that allows her to sell fresh milk in Beledweyne District, Somalia.

In Somalia, climate change impacts the entire food system, from production to consumption. The increasing frequency of natural disasters and economic crises exacerbates food insecurity, particularly affecting vulnerable populations. Gender inequalities complicate these challenges, limiting women's access to resources and decision-making power. Addressing these intertwined issues is crucial for ushering in sustainable development.

Madiino Sheeq Ahmadeey, a 40-year-old mother of eight in Beledsalaam Village, Beledweyne District, received her main

income from her small husbandry business, which enabled her to sell milk and meat at the local market. However, prolonged droughts caused the death of four goats, and rising food prices left her struggling to feed her children and provide for their education. Just after she had had to sell her last two goats to meet her family's basic needs, a project to advance climate resilience, nutrition, and gender equity provided relief:⁷

"I was very happy when I heard that I was selected to receive five goats, as I had just recently lost my livestock. It took me almost a day to believe that I had been given goats at a time when I was stressed," Madiino recalls.

Since receiving the goats, along with training on sustainable livestock management, Madiino's situation has drastically improved. The goats have reproduced, bringing her herd size to eight. She sold one goat and used the proceeds to buy chickens and expand her husbandry. Now, with seven goats and four chickens, she sells fresh milk and eggs daily, giving her a steady income and boosting her family's food and nutrition security. Her role as a primary income earner in her household also empowers her within her household and community.

⁷ This case study was prepared by Welthungerhilfe (WHH). The WHH project, implemented by the Centre for Peace and Democracy (CPD) and Sustainable Development and Peacebuilding Initiatives (SYPD), with funding from the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD), aims to promote gender equity and increase food security and resilience among small-scale farmers, pastoralists, and agro-pastoralists affected by high food prices and the current drought, as well as vulnerable households at risk of malnutrition. Interventions include, for example, the provision of community assets for climate-resilient agricultural food production, gender equity and inclusion training, and social safety net measures.

development and cultural activities, some women-led civil society organizations are forming and gaining prominence, and it is claimed that women-led businesses have more opportunities (interview with WHH and Concern Pakistan).

Without critical feminist, gender-justice approaches to climate resilience and food security that address intersecting social factors, there is a risk that even those policies and interventions that include or target women with resources to help develop their livelihoods or ways to feed their families can deepen their work burdens or result in a backlash—sometimes violent—to any profits generated (Vercillo 2020, 2022; Vercillo et al. 2023). Where individual women have

been able to make greater profits, this has often resulted in men taking over their livelihoods. Striving for policies that focus narrowly on individual women, such as permitting land ownership, for example, is inadequate for transformation in most contexts where few men own or control land (O'Laughlin 2007). Interventions can offer new opportunities for women, yet if they support women's ability to produce and provide for the household without considering the gendered divisions of labor, relations, and intersecting power dynamics, including class, such interventions can put women at risk of losing control over their harvests and assets, while potentially adding to their work burdens and food responsibilities.

Implications for Policy and Programming

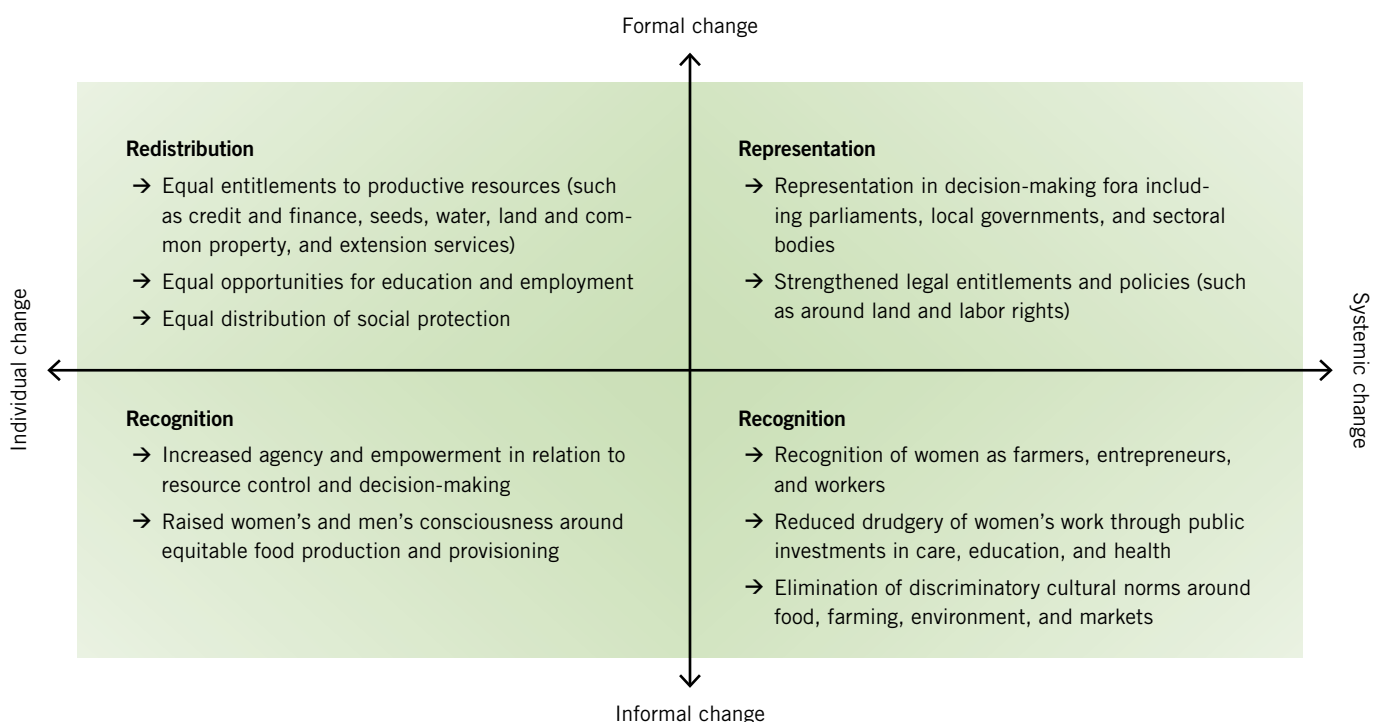
The need for climate action and food systems transformation is evident. Gender equity and equality—a human right in and of itself—is central to such a transformation. Yet achieving gender justice requires change at the various scales and levels at which gender relations operate (Figure 2.2). These range from individuals to entire systems, and from formal conditions like legal rights and material resource claims to more informal social and cultural norms that often conflict with relationships of respect and dignity.

At the level of government action, various international and inter-governmental bodies have developed guidelines to help point the way toward gender equality in both food systems transformation and climate action. In 2023, the Committee on World Food Security adopted Voluntary Guidelines on Gender Equality and Women’s and Girls’ Empowerment, which call for strengthening nondiscriminatory laws and access to legal services alongside targeted health, labor, and social protection measures. The guidelines recommend that governments use affirmative action to draw women into leadership and managerial positions, support women’s rights organizations and

networks, empower women through education, and support their land tenure and use rights (Caroli et al. 2022). In fact, educational interventions, including the introduction of relevant gender equality concepts in the content of school curricula and pedagogical practices, have been recognized as an important strategy for changing discriminatory gender norms (UNESCO 2013). These actions are especially important for Indigenous women and those who are nutritionally vulnerable, like pregnant and lactating women, widows, divorced women, and single mothers. Yet civil society activists have noted that the guidelines do not go far enough in recognizing intersectional disadvantages or addressing the prevalence of violence against women, girls, and diverse genders (CSIPM 2024).

Nonetheless, these guidelines can inform a number of processes that are already underway to address climate change and food systems transformation, such as the national food systems transformation pathways, which were initiated following the 2021 United Nations Food Systems Summit. Over the past three years, 127 countries have developed national food systems transformation pathways and 108 have submitted voluntary country reports. Many of these reports present bold measures to address the complex inequalities faced by

FIGURE 2.2 SCALES AND LEVELS OF CHANGE TO ACHIEVE GENDER JUSTICE FOR CLIMATE RESILIENCE AND FOOD SECURITY



Source: Authors.

CASE STUDY

Exploring New Gender Norms in Malawi

Margaret Kamwendo and her husband, Jackson Adam, live in a small rural village in Mangochi District, Malawi, where they are enrolled in Concern Worldwide's Graduation Programme, an anti-poverty program that includes a gender transformation element.

One of the poorest countries in the world, Malawi consistently ranks low on the Human Development Index—it was 172nd out of 193 countries in 2022 (UNDP 2024). Eighty percent of the population relies on agriculture for income, so they are particularly vulnerable to damaging climate shocks. To support a pathway out of poverty and increase resilience to climate change, the Graduation Programme in Malawi offers a package of interventions, such as cash transfers, business training, and climate-smart agriculture training, depending on the needs of the individual.

Part of this program, known as Umodzi (meaning “united”), engages couples to reflect on and discuss issues such as gender norms, power, decision-making, budgeting, violence, positive parenting, and healthy relationships.⁸ In individual and joint dialogue sessions, the couples examine stereotypes and challenges. As a result of the sessions, wives report that their husbands now consult them on decisions and have started to

⁸ This case study was prepared by Concern Worldwide. Umodzi was a gender-transformative approach in the Graduation Programme that ran in Malawi from 2017 to 2023, with funding from the European Union. It was delivered in partnership with Sonke Gender Justice. The program was the basis for research conducted by Trinity College Dublin, which looked at barriers faced by women pursuing a pathway out of poverty.



Jackson Adam and his wife, Margaret Kamwendo, of Mangochi District, Malawi, have participated in all 12 sessions of Umodzi, a program designed to shift gender norms.

share in household duties and childcare and that conflict and violence in the home have declined.

Jackson and Margaret completed all 12 sessions of the Umodzi program. Together, they have seen many benefits, such as shared decision-making. When they receive income, they sit down, discuss it, and agree on how to spend it. Jackson is doing more household chores and childcare than before. They have also shared these lessons with their six children, teaching them about respect and mutual support in relationships. Margaret wishes the whole village could take part in such training: “If the whole village was involved, there would be a great impact.”

women, youth, and other marginalized groups. Since 2021, as part of its own transformation pathway, the government of Fiji, for example, reported that it has designed, developed, and implemented a Gender in Agriculture Policy alongside a Gender Responsive Budget targeted at advancing equitable livelihoods, decent work, and empowered communities in the context of a changing climate (pers. comm. from UNFSS coordination hub, June 7, 2024).

Similarly, the Enhanced Lima Work Programme on Gender seeks to integrate gender considerations into countries' nationally determined contributions and national action plans for climate change (UNFCCC 2024). Still, many climate action plans fail to directly mention the people most directly affected by climate crises, including women (FAO 2024d; Singh et al. 2021). Climate-smart agriculture

interventions and the practices they entail, while contributing to food and nutrition security, often do not address the nexus of gender, climate, and food. Women may continue to lack access to land and other productive assets, while interventions increase demands on their labor and time (World Bank et al. 2015). Like assets and resources, labor needs to be redistributed more equitably within households and communities, alongside the transformation of unequal institutions and social structures.

What is needed is a new model of farming that includes climatic, market, and gender justice factors. Agroecology encourages deliberative dialogue and community-led education on social inequality. Farmers share knowledge among themselves, which encourages experimentation and reduces dependence on global agricultural markets,



Mahadia applies climate-smart agriculture techniques, like crop diversification and conservation agriculture, in Sila region, Chad.

CASE STUDY

Training on Farming and Nutrition to Boost Climate Resilience in Chad

Mahadia, age 24, is a married mother of three in one of 2,400 households that are part of the Concern Worldwide's Green Graduation Programme in Sila region, Chad.⁹ The program offers a number of supporting elements designed to enable individuals and families to meet their basic needs, strengthen their livelihoods, and improve their coping strategies on a sustainable basis.

In Chad, about 80 percent of the population depends on rainfed subsistence farming and livestock for their livelihoods—a way of living that is becoming more challenging as inconsistent rainfall leads to droughts and floods (Bahal'okwibale and Woldegiorgis 2023). For Mahadia and her family, who depend on rainfed crop production, their source of food and income became unreliable. Without an income, Mahadia could not access healthcare or afford to send her children to school.

"Our lives were very difficult," she says. "We would just work on our farms, and we did not have much else to do. We were always dependent on the rains. When there was rainfall,

we would go and plant, and if someone planted well, they would harvest and make some money from selling in the market. When there was no rainfall, we would stay like that. We did not have anything else to do to get money."

Through the Green Graduation Programme, Mahadia received cash transfers, which she used for school fees for her two older children. When a Village Savings and Loans Association was established in the community and members received business training, Mahadia was able to save money and thus afford healthcare.

Mahadia also received training in climate-smart agriculture, learning about techniques such as conservation agriculture, which prevents soil degradation and increases soil fertility, and crop diversification. She now produces food in a way that adapts to the effects of climate change. "[Concern] has also given us a lot of training about hygiene and sanitation, about gardening. In my garden, I have planted watermelons, beans, tomatoes, cucumbers, and peas. I usually sell these crops in the market, and the money I get helps my family," says Mahadia. Finally, nutritional training has shown Mahadia how to provide healthier and more nutritious meals for her family by incorporating fresh vegetables and fruits harvested from their garden.

⁹ This case study was prepared by Concern Worldwide. The Green Graduation approach is implemented in programs across Bangladesh, Burundi, Chad, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, Rwanda, and Somalia. It is estimated that more than 320,000 people will benefit from the programs between 2023 and 2027. The Green Graduation Programme in Chad is funded by Irish Aid, with co-funding from the Whole Planet Foundation.

while still increasing soil quality and food production. According to studies conducted in Malawi, agroecology offers particularly empowering spaces for women. Women experience greater autonomy and authority in household decision-making and labor distribution, and improvements occur in childhood nutrition, dietary diversity, and households' overall reported health status (Bezner Kerr et al. 2021; Nyantakyi-Frimpong et al. 2017).

This situation illustrates the need for reforms to gender relations at a structural scale. While enabling access to resources for women is important, without addressing structural inequalities—including class dynamics, rising income inequality, corporate control over production systems, and lack of high-quality basic services—hunger will persist. Furthermore, redistribution at the household and community levels needs to go hand in hand with macroeconomic measures, such as tax and trade policies and universal social protection, that support the most vulnerable, including women. Indeed, there is a growing recognition that universal social protection measures can play an important part in leveling the playing field, providing much-needed support to the most vulnerable in order to meet the triple challenges of climate change, hunger, and gender inequality. As part of its effort to achieve Zero Hunger, Brazil created the world's largest conditional cash transfer program, the Bolsa Família, targeting poor women. The program has empowered women by reducing poverty and enhancing their incomes and employment, while boosting the health and education of their children (Gerard et al. 2021). Variations of this program have emerged, such as the Bolsa Verde in the Amazonia region, which provides social assistance to households to conserve the natural environment.

Conclusion

The problem of gender inequity has been recognized for decades, and a road map toward gender justice has been set out in various fora, policies, and programs. The experiences of many countries in confronting the challenges of the gender-food security-climate change nexus show that it is time for governments, development agencies, and civil society to follow this road map and accelerate progress. Some ongoing global policy frameworks and fora, such as the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) or the UN Food Systems Summit (UNFSS), should work to integrate gender justice concerns into all their actions.

There is still a long way to go. Despite progressive interventions, it remains true that deep-seated gender norms and the unequal power relations they signify are not easy to change. The scarcity of gender-disaggregated data often becomes an excuse to not address gender concerns. A lack of understanding of the linkages between

gender relations, food systems transformation, and climate policies as well as a scarcity of gender-disaggregated data can mean that policymakers operate in a context of uncertainty, with interventions having unintended, often negative, consequences. Overlapping and intersectional sources of vulnerability add complexity to the design and implementation of interventions and policies, and hence are often included only in general vision statements rather than in specific strategies.

Nonetheless, gender justice holds the promise of transformative change. We can take hope from and build on the many interventions and examples from across the globe that seek to achieve sustainable and equitable outcomes by simultaneously addressing the challenges to gender, food, and climate justice. By recognizing people's diverse needs, contributions, and vulnerabilities; redistributing resources to enable more equitable production and consumption; and, importantly, giving representation in decision-making platforms to those who have been denied, especially women, gender justice will enable all people to bring their voices, knowledge, and skills to the table, with the aim of finding innovative solutions and pathways toward a just, food-secure, and resilient world.

03



Ritu Ray is a cow farmer in rural southwest Bangladesh, a region prone to flooding, where people are increasingly employing climate-resilient solutions. Ritu uses an innovative technique to produce eco-friendly fuel from cow dung, providing a sustainable energy source for her remote community.

POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

These recommendations highlight that climate, nutrition, and food systems policies should be guided by human rights obligations and international law, emphasizing the principles of equity and justice. They stress the need for greater urgency and coherence across policies to address hunger.

1 Strengthen accountability to international law and the enforceability of the right to adequate food.

- States need to **uphold and expand their legal obligations** to eliminate gender discrimination, ensure the right to food, and alleviate hunger, including during disasters and conflicts, based on the Voluntary Guidelines to Support the Progressive Realization of the Right to Food and related guidance.
- States must **formalize the right to food** in concrete laws and regulations, accompanied by transparent monitoring and robust accountability mechanisms. Food and nutrition security analysis should include the perspectives and experiences of affected communities, and hunger early warning systems should be directly linked to prompt political action and automatic funding for relief. Citizens, civil society, and national human rights institutions must be supported so they can advocate for the right to food.
- Governments, multilateral organizations, and civil society organizations must strengthen capacities and systems to document, investigate, and report the use of starvation as a weapon of war. Stakeholders with an influence on parties to conflicts need to **promote compliance with human rights, humanitarian, and criminal law**, and support judicial efforts against perpetrators. UN Resolution 2417 on the protection of civilians in armed conflict must be fully operationalized and rigorously implemented.

2 Promote gender-transformative approaches to food systems and climate policies and programs.

- To formulate effective, context-sensitive policies and programs that avoid adverse effects, policymakers and practitioners must **recognize** how food systems and climate resilience are influenced by **diverse needs and vulnerabilities and complex socioeconomic factors** such as gendered power dynamics and divisions of labor.
- All climate and food systems policy processes and initiatives must ensure the **representation and leadership of women and marginalized groups** and draw on their expertise in managing natural resources. Governments need to establish inclusive, participatory governance structures with adequate decision-making power and budgets at all levels, from local citizens' councils to the global Committee on World Food Security.
- Policymakers must **integrate gender considerations into legal frameworks and policy design, implementation, monitoring, and**

evaluation. For example, they should update their Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs), National Adaptation Plans (NAPs), and national food systems pathways to focus on equity, inclusivity, and rights-based approaches. Recommended measures include gender budgeting and social and gender audits.

3 Make investments that integrate and promote gender, climate, and food justice.

- Governments must **redistribute public resources to redress structural inequalities** and enable gender-equitable access. For example, public investments in care, education, health, and rural development should be used to address discriminatory norms and promote equitable distribution of labor within households and communities. Commitments to maternal, infant, and child health must be strengthened through, for example, the extension of the World Health Assembly targets and the upcoming Nutrition for Growth Summit.
- Development partners and governments should **harmonize policies across sectors** and coordinate relevant ministries. For example, governments need to invest in and promote food systems that produce affordable, nutritious, climate-resilient foods, reduce women's time poverty, improve their socioeconomic status, and increase their agency. Agricultural support should focus on climate mitigation and gender-transformative, locally led adaptation.
- International financial institutions, governments, and creditors urgently need to **address the worsening debt crisis and lack of fiscal space** in low- and middle-income countries. Debt restructuring, debt relief, and credit enhancements must be linked to investments in realizing the right to food, achieving the Sustainable Development Goals, and fulfilling the Paris Agreement.
- Essential **responses to shocks and crises should not come at the expense of impactful long-term investments.** Donor countries should make good on their commitments to increase development funding to at least 0.7 percent of GDP. The donor community should also provide climate support in the form of grants to empower affected communities, especially women, youth, and Indigenous peoples, to implement local climate actions. Within the recently created Loss and Damage Fund, a small-grant window with simplified procedures should be established for these groups.

APPENDIXES



After years of conflict, Yemen is facing one of the worst development and humanitarian crises in the world, which is leaving millions of people in need of humanitarian assistance and protection services. In an internally displaced persons camp in Aden, a father and child return to their home after receiving a cholera and hygiene kit.

METHODOLOGY

Note: The results within this 2024 Global Hunger Index report supersede all previous GHI results. The 2000, 2008, and 2016 scores and indicator data contained within this report are currently the only data that can be used for valid comparisons of the GHI over time.

The Global Hunger Index (GHI) is a tool designed to comprehensively measure and track hunger at global, regional, and national levels, reflecting multiple dimensions of hunger over time.¹ The GHI is intended to raise awareness and understanding of the struggle against hunger, provide a way to compare levels of hunger between countries and regions, and call attention to those areas of the world where hunger levels are highest and where the need for additional efforts to eliminate hunger is greatest.

How the GHI Is Calculated

Each country's GHI score is calculated based on a formula that combines four indicators that together capture the multidimensional nature of hunger:



Undernourishment: the share of the population whose caloric intake is insufficient;



Child stunting: the share of children under the age of five who have low height for their age, reflecting chronic undernutrition;



Child wasting: the share of children under the age of five who have low weight for their height, reflecting acute undernutrition; and



Child mortality: the share of children who die before their fifth birthday, reflecting in part the fatal mix of inadequate nutrition and unhealthy environments.²

Using this combination of indicators to measure hunger offers several advantages (see Table A.1). The indicators included in the GHI formula reflect caloric deficiencies as well as poor nutrition. The undernourishment indicator captures the food access situation of the population as a whole, while the indicators specific to children reflect the nutrition status within a particularly vulnerable subset of the population for whom a lack of dietary energy, protein, and/or micronutrients (essential vitamins and minerals) leads to a high risk of illness, poor physical and cognitive development, and death. The inclusion of both child wasting and child stunting allows the GHI to document both acute and chronic undernutrition.

¹ For further background on the GHI concept, see Wiesmann, von Braun, and Feldbrügge (2000), Wiesmann (2006), and Wiesmann et al. (2015).

² According to Black et al. (2013), undernutrition is responsible for 45 percent of deaths among children under the age of five.

BOX A.1 WHAT IS MEANT BY “HUNGER”?

The problem of hunger is complex, and different terms are used to describe its various forms.

Hunger is usually understood to refer to the distress associated with a lack of sufficient calories. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) defines food deprivation, or undernourishment, as the habitual consumption of too few calories to provide the minimum dietary energy an individual requires to live a healthy and productive life, given that person's sex, age, stature, and physical activity level.³

Undernutrition goes beyond calories and signifies deficiencies in any or all of the following: energy, protein, and/or essential vitamins and minerals. Undernutrition is the result of inadequate intake of food in terms of either quantity or quality, poor utilization of nutrients in the body due to infections or other illnesses, or a combination of these immediate causes. These, in turn, result from a range of underlying factors, including household food insecurity; inadequate maternal health or childcare practices; or inadequate access to health services, safe water, and sanitation.

Malnutrition refers more broadly to both undernutrition (problems caused by deficiencies) and overnutrition (problems caused by unbalanced diets that involve consuming too many calories in relation to requirements, with or without low intake of micronutrient-rich foods). Overnutrition—resulting in overweight, obesity, and noncommunicable diseases—is increasingly common throughout the world, with implications for human health, government expenditures, and food systems development. While overnutrition is an important concern, the GHI focuses specifically on issues relating to undernutrition.

In this report, “hunger” refers to the index based on the four component indicators (undernourishment, child stunting, child wasting, and child mortality). Taken together, the component indicators reflect deficiencies in calories as well as in micronutrients.

³ The average minimum dietary energy requirement varies by country—from about 1,655 to 2,111 kilocalories (commonly, albeit incorrectly, referred to as calories) per person per day for all countries with available data for 2023 (FAO 2024a).

TABLE A.1 HOW THE FOUR INDICATORS UNDERLYING THE GHI CAPTURE THE MULTIDIMENSIONAL NATURE OF HUNGER

Undernourishment	Child stunting	Child wasting	Child mortality
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Measures inadequate food access, an important indicator of hunger Refers to the entire population, both children and adults Is used as a lead indicator for international hunger reduction targets, including Sustainable Development Goal 2 (Zero Hunger) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Go beyond calorie availability, consider aspects of diet quality and utilization Reflect children's particular vulnerability to nutritional deficiencies Are sensitive to uneven distribution of food within the household Are used as nutrition indicators for SDG 2 (Zero Hunger) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reflects that death is the most serious consequence of hunger, and children are the most vulnerable Improves the GHI's ability to reflect deficiencies of essential vitamins and minerals Complements stunting and wasting, which only partially capture the mortality risk of under-nutrition 	

By combining multiple indicators, the index minimizes the effects of random measurement errors. These four indicators are all part of the indicator set used to measure progress toward the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

GHI scores are calculated using a three-step process:

Step 1: Values are determined for the four component indicators for each country, drawing on the latest published data available from internationally recognized sources.

Step 2: Each of the four component indicators is given a standardized score based on thresholds set slightly above the highest country-level values observed worldwide for that indicator since 1988.⁴ For example, the highest value for undernourishment estimated in this

⁴ The thresholds for standardization are set slightly above the highest observed values to allow for the possibility that these values could be exceeded in the future.

period is 76.5 percent, so the threshold for standardization is set slightly higher, at 80 percent.⁵ In a given year, if a country has an undernourishment prevalence of 40 percent, its standardized undernourishment score for that year is 50. In other words, that country is approximately halfway between having no undernourishment and reaching the maximum observed level. Here are the formulas used to standardize each indicator:

$$\frac{\text{Prevalence of undernourishment}}{80} \times 100 = \text{standardized undernourishment value}$$

$$\frac{\text{Child stunting rate}}{70} \times 100 = \text{standardized child stunting value}$$

$$\frac{\text{Child wasting rate}}{30} \times 100 = \text{standardized child wasting value}$$

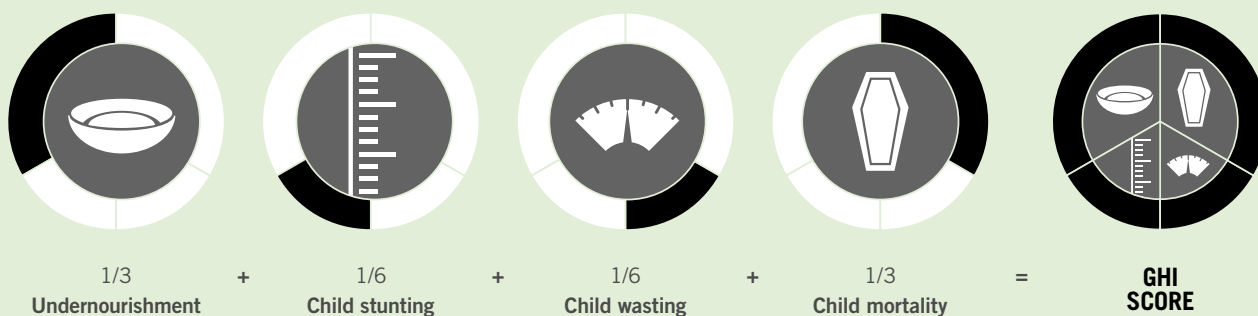
$$\frac{\text{Child mortality rate}}{35} \times 100 = \text{standardized child mortality value}$$

Step 3: The standardized scores are aggregated to calculate the GHI score for each country. Undernourishment and child mortality each contribute one-third of the GHI score, while child stunting and child wasting each contribute one-sixth of the score, as shown in the formula (Figure A.1).

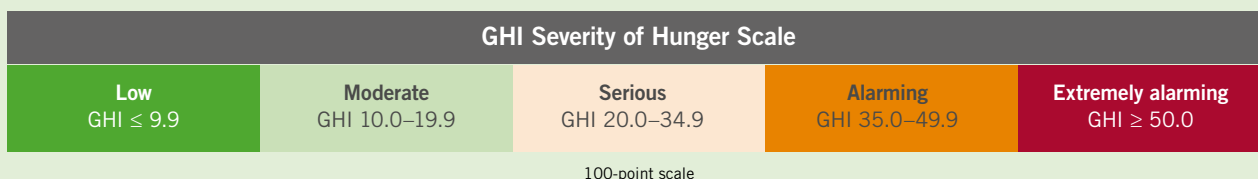
This calculation results in GHI scores on a 100-point scale, where 0 is the best score (no hunger) and 100 is the worst. In practice, neither of these extremes is reached. A value of 100 would signify that a country's undernourishment, child wasting, child stunting, and child mortality levels each exactly meets the thresholds set slightly above the highest levels observed worldwide in recent decades. A value of 0 would mean that a country had no undernourished people in the population, no children younger than five who were wasted or stunted, and no children who died before their fifth birthday.

⁵ The threshold for undernourishment is 80, based on the observed maximum of 76.5 percent; the threshold for child wasting is 30, based on the observed maximum of 26.0 percent; the threshold for child stunting is 70, based on the observed maximum of 68.2 percent; and the threshold for child mortality is 35, based on the observed maximum of 32.6 percent. While the thresholds were originally established based on the maximum values observed between 1988 and 2013, covering 25 years' worth of available data prior to the methodological review process, these values have not been exceeded since then.

FIGURE A.1 COMPOSITION OF GHI SCORES AND SEVERITY DESIGNATIONS



Note: All indicator values are standardized.



Where the Indicator Data Come From

Data used in the calculation of GHI scores come from various UN and other multilateral agencies, as shown in Table A.2. The GHI scores reflect the latest revised data available for the four indicators.⁶ Where original source data were unavailable, estimates for the GHI component indicators were made based on the most recent available data.

How Hunger Severity Is Determined for Countries with Incomplete Data

In this year's GHI report 136 countries met the criteria for inclusion in the GHI, but 9 had insufficient data to allow for calculation of a 2024 GHI score. To address this gap and give a preliminary picture of hunger in the countries with missing data, provisional designations of the severity of hunger were determined based on several known factors (Table A.3):

- those GHI indicator values that are available,
- the country's last known GHI severity designation,
- the country's last known prevalence of undernourishment,⁷
- the prevalence of undernourishment for the subregion in which the country is located, and/or
- assessment of the relevant findings of the 2022, 2023, and 2024 editions of the *Global Report on Food Crises* (FSIN and GNAFC 2022, 2023, 2024).⁸

⁶ For previous GHI calculations, see von Grebmer et al. (2023, 2022, 2021, 2020, 2019, 2018, 2017, 2016, 2015, 2014, 2013, 2012, 2011, 2010, 2009, 2008); IFPRI, WHH, and Concern Worldwide (2007); and Wiesmann, Weingärtner, and Schöninger (2006).

⁷ Previously published undernourishment values, GHI scores, and GHI severity classifications are not considered valid once superseding reports have been issued, but are used as benchmarks to consider the plausibility of a country falling into a broad range of undernourishment values and GHI scores.

⁸ The *Global Reports on Food Crises* report on acute food insecurity, which is different from chronic hunger as measured by the prevalence of undernourishment. However, the 2022, 2023, and 2024 *GRFCs* were used to confirm whether a country experienced extreme hunger crises such as famine, threat of famine, and/or repeated hunger crises in 2021, 2022, and 2023.

For some countries, data are missing because of violent conflict or political unrest (FAO et al. 2017; Martin-Shields and Stojetz 2019), which are strong predictors of hunger and undernutrition. The countries with missing data may often be those facing the greatest hunger burdens. Of the two countries provisionally designated as *alarming*—Burundi and South Sudan—it is possible that with complete data, one or both of them would fall into the *extremely alarming* category. Similarly, Lesotho might fall from *serious* to *alarming*. However, without sufficient information to confirm that this is the case, we have conservatively categorized these countries as *alarming* or *serious*.

In some cases even a provisional severity designation could not be determined, such as if the country had never previously had a prevalence of undernourishment value, GHI score, or GHI designation since the first GHI report was published in 2006. In the case of South Sudan, data were unavailable for two out of four GHI indicators. However, a review of the relevant information in the 2022, 2023, and 2024 editions of the *Global Report on Food Crises* as well as consultations with experts on food and nutrition insecurity in this country made clear that the designation of *alarming* was justified.

TABLE A.2 DATA SOURCES AND REFERENCE YEARS FOR THE GLOBAL HUNGER INDEX COMPONENT INDICATORS, 2000, 2008, 2016, AND 2024

Indicator	Data sources	Reference years for indicator data			
		2000 GHI scores (123 countries)	2008 GHI scores (126 countries)	2016 GHI scores (127 countries)	2024 GHI scores (127 countries)
Prevalence of Undernourishment ^a	FAO 2024a	2000–2002 ^a	2007–2009 ^a	2015–2017 ^a	2021–2023 ^a
Child stunting and wasting ^b	WHO 2024; UNICEF et al. 2023; UNICEF 2024, 2013, and 2009; MEASURE DHS 2024	1998–2002 ^b	2006–2010 ^c	2014–2018 ^d	2019–2023 ^e
Child mortality ^c	UN IGME 2024a	2000	2008	2016	2022

Note: The number of countries for which sufficient data were available to calculate GHI scores for each year or time span is shown in parentheses.

^a Three-year average.

^b Data collected from the years closest to 2000; where data from 1998 and 2002 or 1999 and 2001 were available, an average was used.

^c Data collected from the years closest to 2008; where data from 2006 and 2010 or 2007 and 2009 were available, an average was used.

^d Data collected from the years closest to 2016; where data from 2014 and 2018 or 2015 and 2017 were available, an average was used.

^e The latest data gathered in this period.

TABLE A.3 EXISTING DATA AND PROVISIONAL SEVERITY DESIGNATIONS OF COUNTRIES WITH INCOMPLETE DATA

Country	2024 GHI provisional severity designation	Child stunting, 2019–2023 (%)	Child wasting, 2019–2023 (%)	Child mortality, 2022 (%)	Last GHI categorization	Last prevalence of undernourishment value (%)	Subregional prevalence of undernourishment (%)	Range of prevalence of undernourishment values for provisional designation (%)
Lesotho	Serious	31.6*	2.2*	7.2	Alarming (2023)	46.0 (2023)	9.4	10.4–46.4
Burundi	Alarming	55.9	6.0	5.0	Extremely alarming (2014)	67.3 (2014)	29.0	32.5–68.5
South Sudan	Alarming	—	—	9.9	—	19.6 (2024)	29.0	**
Bahrain	Not designated	1.8*	0.7*	0.7	—	—	12.0	N/A
Bhutan	Not designated	18.8*	2.5*	2.4	—	—	14.2	N/A
Equatorial Guinea	Not designated	19.2*	2.3*	7.3	—	—	28.9	N/A
Eritrea	Not designated	—	—	3.7	Extremely alarming (2014)	61.3 (2014)	29.0	N/A
Maldives	Not designated	13.7*	9.0*	0.6	—	—	14.2	N/A
Qatar	Not designated	6.2*	1.5*	0.5	—	—	12.0	N/A

Source: Authors, based on sources listed in Appendix A and previous GHI publications included in the bibliography.

Note: Years in parentheses show when the relevant information was published in the GHI report.

*Authors' estimate. **Designation based on FSIN and GNAFC (2022, 2023, 2024) and expert consultation.

N/A = not applicable; — = not available.

Understanding and Using the Global Hunger Index: FAQs

Which countries are included in the GHI?

Inclusion in the GHI is determined based on prevalence of undernourishment and child mortality data dating back to 2000. Countries with values above the “very low” threshold for one or both of these indicators since 2000 are included in the GHI. Specifically, countries are included if the prevalence of undernourishment was at or above 5.0 percent and/or if the child mortality rate was at or above 1.0 percent for any year since 2000. Data on child stunting and child wasting, the other indicators used in the calculation of GHI scores, are not included in the inclusion criteria because their availability varies widely from country to country, with data especially limited for higher-income countries.⁹ Non-independent territories are not included in the GHI, nor are countries with very small populations (under 500,000 inhabitants), owing to limited data availability.

Because data for all four indicators in the GHI formula are not available for every country, GHI scores could not be calculated for some. However, where possible, countries with incomplete data are provisionally categorized according to the GHI Severity of Hunger Scale based on existing data and complementary reports (see Table A.3). Several of these countries are experiencing unrest or violent conflict, which affects the availability of data as well as the food security and nutrition situation in the country. It is possible that

⁹ Even though food insecurity is a serious concern for segments of the population in certain high-income countries, nationally representative data for child stunting and child wasting are not regularly collected in most high-income countries. In addition, although data on child mortality are usually available for these countries, child mortality does not reflect undernutrition in high-income countries to the same extent it does in low- and middle-income countries.

one or more of these countries would have a higher GHI score than Somalia—the country with the highest 2024 GHI score—if sufficient data were available.

Why is a certain country's GHI score so high (or so low)?

The key to understanding a country's GHI score lies in that country's indicator values, especially when compared with the indicator values for other countries in the report (see Appendix B for these values).

For some countries, high scores are driven by high rates of undernourishment, reflecting a lack of calories for large swathes of the population. For others, high scores result from high levels of child wasting, reflecting acute undernutrition; child stunting, reflecting chronic undernutrition; and/or child mortality, reflecting children's hunger and nutrition levels, in addition to other extreme challenges facing the population. Broadly speaking, then, a high GHI score can be evidence of a lack of food, a poor-quality diet, inadequate child caregiving practices, an unhealthy environment, or a combination of these factors.

While it is beyond the scope of this report to provide a detailed explanation of the circumstances facing each country with a GHI score, Chapter 1 describes the situation in select countries. Furthermore, this report offers other avenues for examining a country's hunger and nutrition situation: country rankings based on 2024 GHI scores appear in Table 1.1, GHI scores for selected years for each country appear in Appendix C, and regional comparisons appear in Appendix D. (Case studies of the hunger situation in specific countries appear on the GHI website: www.globalhungerindex.org.)

Does the 2024 GHI reflect the situation in 2024?

The GHI uses the most up-to-date data available for each of the GHI indicators, meaning the scores are only as current as the data. For the calculation of the 2024 GHI scores, undernourishment data are from 2021–2023; child stunting and child wasting data are from 2019–2023, with the most current data from that range used for each country; and child mortality data are from 2022. Any changes that occur in 2024 are not yet reflected in the data and scores in this year’s report.

How can I compare GHI results over time?

Each report includes GHI scores and indicator data for three reference years in addition to the focus year. In this report, the 2024 GHI scores can be directly compared with the GHI scores given for three reference years—2000, 2008, and 2016 (Appendix C). The reference years are selected to provide an assessment of progress over time while also ensuring there is no overlap in the range of years from which the data are drawn.

Can I compare the GHI scores and indicator values in this report with results from previous reports?

No—GHI scores are comparable within each year’s report, but not between different years’ reports. The current and historical data on which the GHI scores are based are continually being revised and improved by the United Nations agencies that compile them, and each year’s GHI report reflects these changes. Comparing scores between reports may create the impression that hunger has changed positively or negatively in a specific country from year to year, whereas in some cases the change may partly or fully reflect a data revision.

Moreover, the methodology for calculating GHI scores has been revised in the past and may be revised again in the future. In 2015, for example, the GHI methodology was changed to include data on child stunting and wasting and to standardize the values (see Wiesmann et al. 2015). This change caused a major shift in the GHI scores, and the GHI Severity of Hunger Scale was modified to reflect this shift. In the GHI reports published since 2015, almost all countries have had much higher GHI scores compared with their scores in reports published in 2014 and earlier. This does not necessarily mean their hunger levels rose in 2015—the higher scores merely reflect the revision of the methodology. The 2000, 2008, 2016, and 2024 GHI scores shown in this year’s report are all comparable because they all reflect the revised methodology and the latest revisions of data.

Can I compare the GHI rankings in this report to those in previous reports to understand how the situation in a country has changed over time relative to other countries?

No—like the GHI scores and indicator values, GHI rankings cannot be compared between GHI reports, for two main reasons. First, the data and methodology used to calculate GHI scores have been revised over time, as described above. Second, the ranking in each year’s report often includes different countries because the set of countries for which sufficient data are available to calculate GHI scores varies from year to year. Thus, if a country’s ranking changes from one report to the next, this may be in part because it is being compared with a different group of countries.

DATA UNDERLYING THE CALCULATION OF THE 2000, 2008, 2016, AND 2024 GLOBAL HUNGER INDEX SCORES

Guide to the colors shown in Appendix B

The colors shown in the table represent the following categories:

Very low = Low = Medium = High = Very high

They are based on thresholds for the different indicator values, as follows:

Category	Undernourishment	Child wasting	Child stunting	Child mortality
Very low	< 5%	< 2.5%	< 2.5%	< 1%
Low	5–< 15%	2.5–< 5%	2.5–< 10%	1–< 4%
Medium	15–< 25%	5–< 10%	10–< 20%	4–< 7%
High	25–< 35%	10–< 15%	20–< 30%	7–< 10%
Very high	≥ 35%	≥ 15%	≥ 30%	≥ 10%

Threshold values for the prevalence of undernourishment are adapted from FAO (2015). Threshold values for stunting and wasting are from de Onis et al. (2019). Threshold values for under-five mortality are adapted from those shown in UN IGME (2024b) but condensed to the five categories shown.

DATA UNDERLYING THE CALCULATION OF THE 2000, 2008, 2016, AND 2024 GLOBAL HUNGER INDEX SCORES

Country	Undernourishment (% of population)				Child wasting (% of children under five years old)				Child stunting (% of children under five years old)				Child mortality (% of children under five years old)			
	'00-'02	'07-'09	'15-'17	'21-'23	'98-'02	'06-'10	'14-'18	'19-'23	'98-'02	'06-'10	'14-'18	'19-'23	2000	2008	2016	2022
	Afghanistan	46.0	25.1	20.5	30.4	8.9 *	7.2 *	5.1	3.6	54.4 *	50.8 *	38.2	44.6	13.2	9.6	7.0
Albania	4.9	7.4	4.3	4.5	6.5 *	9.6	1.6	3.9 *	32.8 *	23.2	11.3	12.5 *	2.7	1.6	0.9	0.9
Algeria	7.5	5.2	2.6	< 2.5	3.1	4.1	4.0 *	2.7	23.6	15.4	12.0 *	9.8	4.2	3.0	2.5	2.2
Angola	67.4	43.3	14.9	23.2	8.2 *	8.3	4.9	5.3 *	49.9 *	29.2	37.6	32.1 *	20.3	13.7	8.4	6.7
Argentina	2.9	3.2	3.0	3.2	2.1 *	1.2	1.8 *	2.7	10.2 *	8.2	8.0 *	12.3	1.9	1.5	1.1	0.9
Armenia	25.9	5.9	< 2.5	< 2.5	2.5	4.1	4.4	3.1 *	17.3	20.9	9.4	9.5 *	3.1	2.1	1.4	1.0
Azerbaijan	16.9	< 2.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	9.0	6.8	3.8 *	3.3 *	24.2	26.5	12.4 *	10.2 *	7.5	4.3	2.5	1.8
Bahrain	—	—	—	—	0.9 *	0.8 *	0.7 *	0.7 *	2.4 *	1.9 *	1.8 *	1.8 *	1.2	0.9	0.7	0.7
Bangladesh	15.5	12.9	14.4	11.9	12.5	17.5	12.8	11.0	51.1	43.2	33.8	23.6	8.6	5.5	3.7	2.9
Belarus	< 2.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	2.5 *	2.1 *	2.0 *	2.0 *	6.1 *	3.8 *	3.3 *	3.1 *	1.3	0.7	0.4	0.3
Benin	17.2	10.4	9.7	10.3	9.0	5.2	4.8	8.3	36.2	37.4	33.1	34.1	13.6	11.3	9.5	8.1
Bhutan	—	—	—	—	2.6	4.5	3.0 *	2.5 *	47.7	34.9	24.1 *	18.8 *	7.9	4.6	2.9	2.4
Bolivia (Plurinat. State of)	26.4	22.9	15.6	23.0	1.6	1.4	2.0	1.5 *	33.2	27.1	16.1	17.2 *	7.6	4.7	3.0	2.4
Bosnia & Herzegovina	3.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	7.4	4.0	3.5 *	3.2 *	12.1	11.8	8.0 *	6.6 *	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.6
Botswana	23.7	22.3	20.9	24.3	5.9	7.3	7.3 *	6.3 *	29.1	28.9	17.4 *	13.9 *	7.8	6.4	4.7	3.9
Brazil	10.4	4.9	< 2.5	3.9	2.9 *	1.8	2.3 *	3.4	10.1 *	7.0	6.9 *	7.2	3.5	2.1	1.7	1.4
Bulgaria	4.2	4.6	4.1	< 2.5	5.1 *	4.7	6.0	4.2 *	11.0 *	9.2	7.0	5.9 *	1.8	1.1	0.8	0.6
Burkina Faso	22.7	15.7	13.9	15.4	15.5	11.3	7.5	9.8	41.4	35.1	26.8	21.9	17.8	13.2	9.7	7.9
Burundi	—	—	—	—	8.1	5.9 *	5.1	6.0	64.0	56.7 *	55.9	55.9	15.4	10.3	6.4	5.0
Cabo Verde	14.9	13.3	16.7	12.6	3.5 *	2.8 *	2.4	2.5 *	14.1 *	8.5 *	6.0	5.8 *	3.4	2.7	1.7	1.2
Cambodia	24.1	13.5	7.0	4.6	17.1	9.1	9.7	9.6	49.0	39.5	32.4	21.9	10.6	5.1	3.0	2.4
Cameroon	22.6	11.1	5.3	5.7	7.4	7.6	5.2	4.3	36.6	37.6	31.7	28.9	14.5	11.8	8.6	7.0
Central African Republic	38.2	32.3	22.6	23.5	10.4	12.1	6.4	5.3	44.4	43.6	37.7	40.0	16.5	13.6	11.2	9.7
Chad	38.4	28.1	26.1	35.1	13.9	16.3	13.4	7.8	38.9	38.7	36.0	31.9	18.4	15.6	12.5	10.3
Chile	3.2	3.3	3.2	< 2.5	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.4 *	3.0	2.0	1.8	1.8 *	1.1	0.9	0.8	0.6
China	10.1	4.0	< 2.5	< 2.5	2.5	2.6	1.9	1.6 *	17.8	9.8	4.8	4.2 *	3.7	1.8	1.0	0.7
Colombia	8.6	11.1	4.6	4.2	1.0	0.9	1.6	1.0 *	18.2	12.6	12.7	9.6 *	2.5	2.0	1.5	1.2
Comoros	24.9	19.9	13.5	16.9	13.3	8.5 *	7.6 *	5.1	46.9	36.1 *	24.5 *	18.2	9.6	7.7	5.9	4.8
Congo (Republic of)	26.9	35.6	29.5	26.8	9.8 *	8.0 *	8.2	6.7 *	31.7 *	26.8 *	21.2	21.6 *	11.3	6.9	5.1	4.2
Costa Rica	4.3	2.7	< 2.5	< 2.5	1.8 *	0.8	1.8	1.1 *	10.9 *	5.6	9.0	4.2 *	1.3	1.1	0.9	0.8
Côte d'Ivoire	20.2	18.1	11.9	9.6	6.9	14.3	6.1	8.1	31.2	39.0	21.6	23.4	14.1	11.0	8.4	6.9
Croatia	7.0	< 2.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	2.2 *	1.6 *	1.6 *	1.4 *	2.5 *	1.4 *	1.5 *	1.1 *	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.5
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	30.4	30.9	32.1	37.0	15.9	10.4	7.3	6.6 *	44.4	45.8	42.3	36.0 *	15.9	12.2	9.2	7.6
Djibouti	41.9	21.2	12.8	12.9	19.4	17.0	12.5 *	10.6	27.1	33.0	23.8 *	20.9	10.0	8.1	6.3	5.2
Dominican Republic	20.5	16.2	6.7	4.6	1.5	2.3	1.4 *	2.2	7.7	10.1	5.6 *	6.7	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.2
Ecuador	20.1	20.3	9.1	13.9	2.7	2.1	1.6	0.9	27.9	25.9	23.9	17.5	2.9	2.1	1.5	1.2
Egypt	4.8	5.1	6.5	8.5	6.9	7.9	9.5	5.3 *	24.4	30.7	22.3	21.1 *	4.7	3.1	2.2	1.8
El Salvador	6.7	9.4	8.5	6.8	1.5	1.6	2.1	2.9	32.3	20.8	13.6	10.0	3.3	2.1	1.5	1.2
Equatorial Guinea	—	—	—	—	9.2	2.1 *	1.9 *	2.3 *	42.7	22.6 *	19.1 *	19.2 *	15.5	12.0	9.0	7.3
Eritrea	—	—	—	—	15.0	14.6	—	—	43.0	52.5	—	—	8.6	6.0	4.5	3.7
Estonia	3.6	< 2.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	1.6 *	1.5 *	1.5	1.6 *	1.8 *	1.2 *	1.2	1.1 *	1.1	0.5	0.3	0.2
Eswatini	10.4	11.5	15.9	12.4	1.7	1.1	2.0	1.8	36.5	40.4	25.5	20.0	11.4	10.4	6.1	5.0
Ethiopia	46.6	26.8	14.0	22.2	12.4	11.4 *	10.0	6.8	57.4	48.4 *	38.3	36.8	14.1	9.2	6.0	4.6
Fiji	4.0	3.7	7.5	7.8	7.3 *	6.6 *	7.0	4.6	7.0 *	5.9 *	6.2	7.2	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.8
Gabon	10.8	14.7	15.3	20.1	4.2	3.5 *	3.6 *	3.4	25.9	19.9 *	15.5 *	14.4	8.4	6.7	4.9	3.9
Gambia	17.9	11.3	12.1	20.5	9.1	8.5	6.1	5.1	24.1	25.5	16.3	17.5	11.3	8.0	5.7	4.6
Georgia	7.3	3.6	6.7	4.0	3.1	1.3	0.6	0.6 *	16.1	11.8	5.8	5.1 *	3.6	1.7	1.0	0.9
Ghana	14.9	8.1	9.8	6.2	9.9	8.7	5.8	5.8	30.6	28.4	18.2	17.4	10.0	7.6	5.3	4.2
Guatemala	22.5	18.1	14.8	12.6	3.7	1.0	1.9	0.8	51.0	51.5	43.5	46.0	5.2	3.8	2.7	2.2
Guinea	17.9	17.7	13.2	10.3	10.3	7.2	8.1	6.4	46.9	34.0	32.4	26.1	16.6	12.7	11.0	9.6
Guinea-Bissau	15.7	16.1	28.3	32.2	11.8	5.9	6.0	6.4	33.8	32.0	27.6	27.9	17.3	12.6	8.9	7.2
Guyana	6.0	7.0	3.5	< 2.5	12.1	6.9	6.4	6.5	13.9	18.6	11.3	9.1	4.7	3.9	3.2	2.7
Haiti	48.1	46.1	39.1	50.4	5.5	10.2	3.7	5.0	28.8	29.6	21.9	22.0	10.3	8.3	6.8	5.6
Honduras	21.2	20.0	14.4	20.4	1.3	1.4	1.3 *	1.9	35.5	29.8	22.2 *	18.7	3.7	2.6	2.0	1.6
Hungary	< 2.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	1.0 *	0.9 *	0.9 *	0.8 *	6.0 *	4.8 *	4.2 *	3.8 *	1.0	0.7	0.5	0.4
India	18.3	15.6	11.5	13.7	17.7	20.0	20.8	18.7	51.0	47.8	37.9	35.5	9.2	6.5	4.1	2.9
Indonesia	18.2	16.5	6.7	7.2	5.5	14.8	10.2	10.0 *	42.3	40.1	30.8	26.8 *	5.2	3.7	2.6	2.1
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	4.9	5.8	7.2	6.5	6.1	4.6 *	4.3	4.1 *	20.4	8.7 *	4.8	5.3 *	3.6	2.2	1.5	1.2
Iraq	20.1	15.6	16.6	16.1	6.6	5.8	3.0	4.0 *	28.1	27.5	12.6	15.5 *	4.4	3.7	2.9	2.4
Jamaica	7.2	9.0	7.6	7.3	3.0	2.6	3.3	3.2	7.2	6.2	9.3	4.6	2.1	1.9	1.9	1.9
Jordan	8.9	6.4	7.8	17.9	2.5	1.6	1.8 *	2.3	11.7	8.2	8.0 *	8.3	2.7	2.1	1.7	1.4
Kazakhstan	6.5	4.3	< 2.5	< 2.5	2.5	4.9	3.1	3.2 *	13.2	17.5	8.0	8.8 *	4.2	2.5	1.1	1.0
Kenya	31.9	26.9	21.8	34.5	7.4	6.9	6.7	4.5	40.8	35.5	28.6	17.6	9.6	5.8	4.6	4.1
Korea (DPR)	36.0	40.5	44.2	53.5	12.2	5.2	2.5	6.4 *	51.0	32.4	19.1	16.8	10.3	3.2	2.0	1.7
Kuwait	2.6	< 2.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	2.1	2.3	2.3	3.4	3.9	5.1	6.3	6.3	1.3	1.1	0.9	0.9
Kyrgyzstan	14.6	8.5	5.7	6.1	2.6 *	1.4	2.4	1.0	21.0 *	22.6	12.3	8.6	4.9	3.4	2.1	1.7
Lao PDR	31.1	18.5	7.1	5.4	17.5	7.4	9.4	10.7	47.5	47.7	34.3	32.8	10.7	7.5	5.1	4.0
Latvia	4.7	< 2.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	1.8 *	1.6 *	1.6 *	1.6	0.9 *	0.6 *	0.6 *	0.5	1.4	0.9	0.5	0.3
Lebanon	7.6	8.7	5.8	9.6	3.5 *	3.0 *	2.7 *	1.4	13.5 *	10.7 *	9.7 *	7.0	2.0	1.3	1.3	1.7

DATA UNDERLYING THE CALCULATION OF THE 2000, 2008, 2016, AND 2024 GLOBAL HUNGER INDEX SCORES

Country	Undernourishment (% of population)				Child wasting (% of children under five years old)				Child stunting (% of children under five years old)				Child mortality (% of children under five years old)			
	'00-'02	'07-'09	'15-'17	'21-'23	'98-'02	'06-'10	'14-'18	'19-'23	'98-'02	'06-'10	'14-'18	'19-'23	2000	2008	2016	2022
Lesotho	—	—	—	—	6.1 *	3.8	2.5	2.2 *	43.6 *	42.0	34.0	31.6 *	11.1	11.0	7.8	7.2
Liberia	36.2	30.1	34.9	38.4	7.4	7.9	4.3	3.4	45.3	39.6	30.1	29.8	18.9	10.8	8.6	7.3
Libya	3.5	5.9	8.0	11.4	6.4 *	6.5	10.2	9.3 *	27.2 *	21.0	38.1	35.1 *	2.8	1.9	1.3	1.0
Lithuania	< 2.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	5.1 *	4.6 *	4.4 *	4.4	1.5 *	1.0 *	0.9 *	0.9	1.1	0.7	0.5	0.4
Madagascar	33.9	30.5	32.3	39.7	9.4 *	8.9 *	6.4	7.2	54.3 *	49.4	41.6	39.8	10.5	7.5	6.6	6.6
Malawi	23.3	15.7	15.8	19.9	6.8	1.9	3.6	2.8	54.7	48.8	38.6	34.8	17.3	9.3	5.3	4.0
Malaysia	2.5	3.6	3.0	< 2.5	15.3	13.2	11.6	11.0	20.7	17.5	20.8	21.2	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.8
Maldives	—	—	—	—	13.4	10.6	9.1	9.0 *	31.9	19.0	15.3	13.7 *	3.9	1.6	0.9	0.6
Mali	16.6	8.7	4.4	9.6	12.6	12.2	10.6	10.6	42.5	32.7	26.4	21.8	18.8	14.3	11.2	9.4
Mauritania	8.1	6.9	6.9	9.3	15.3	8.1	14.8	13.6	38.6	23.6	27.9	25.1	9.8	6.1	4.8	3.9
Mauritius	5.8	5.1	6.9	5.9	14.7 *	13.8 *	12.4 *	12.5 *	12.5 *	11.1 *	9.3 *	8.4 *	1.9	1.5	1.5	1.5
Mexico	3.0	4.1	3.7	3.1	2.0	3.5	2.0	1.0	21.4	17.4	10.0	12.5	2.8	2.0	1.6	1.3
Moldova (Republic of)	24.6	22.1	2.7	< 2.5	3.3 *	3.2 *	3.4 *	3.3 *	10.9 *	8.5 *	7.2 *	6.6 *	3.1	1.8	1.5	1.4
Mongolia	30.4	21.9	8.2	< 2.5	7.1	1.7	1.2	1.3 *	29.8	15.4	7.3	11.5 *	6.3	3.1	1.8	1.3
Montenegro	—	< 2.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	—	4.2	2.9 *	2.2	—	7.9	7.7 *	7.2	—	0.8	0.4	0.3
Morocco	5.8	4.8	3.7	6.9	4.0 *	3.4 *	2.6	2.3	25.0 *	18.8 *	15.1	14.2	5.2	3.5	2.2	1.7
Mozambique	36.8	29.0	44.4	24.8	8.1	4.2	4.4	3.8	50.7	43.5	42.3	36.7	17.2	11.4	7.9	6.6
Myanmar	38.6	18.2	4.2	5.3	10.7	7.9	6.6	6.6 *	40.8	35.1	29.4	25.2 *	8.9	10.1	4.9	4.0
Namibia	15.6	26.5	20.7	22.2	10.0	7.6	6.1 *	6.2 *	29.3	29.2	18.0 *	14.5 *	7.8	5.5	4.5	3.8
Nepal	23.9	13.0	5.7	5.7	11.3	12.7	11.7	7.0	56.1	49.1	37.2	24.8	7.9	5.3	3.6	2.7
Nicaragua	25.9	19.9	18.3	19.6	2.3	1.5	1.3 *	1.1 *	25.1	23.1	16.2 *	14.1 *	3.8	2.6	1.9	1.5
Niger	23.2	17.7	12.6	13.3	16.2	13.4	10.4	10.9	53.5	45.4	41.3	47.7	22.8	14.7	12.5	11.7
Nigeria	8.8	6.7	10.7	18.0	12.5 *	9.2 *	9.1	6.5	48.2 *	39.5 *	38.3	31.5	18.3	14.1	12.5	10.7
North Macedonia	7.5	2.9	3.5	< 2.5	1.9	2.5 *	2.3 *	3.4	8.0	6.6 *	5.6 *	4.3	1.6	1.2	1.1	0.5
Oman	13.3	9.7	7.2	5.7	7.8	7.1	9.3	7.0 *	15.8	9.8	11.4	10.6 *	1.6	1.2	1.1	1.1
Pakistan	20.7	15.2	11.2	20.7	14.1	11.9 *	7.1	10.1 *	41.4	41.1 *	37.6	33.2 *	10.8	9.1	7.4	6.1
Panama	23.6	13.4	6.6	5.6	1.5 *	1.2	1.0 *	1.1	23.2 *	19.0	13.1 *	15.9	2.6	2.0	1.7	1.3
Papua New Guinea	26.6	27.5	27.2	27.7	8.1 *	7.9 *	7.2 *	6.9 *	47.3 *	46.7 *	41.6 *	39.8 *	7.2	6.1	5.0	4.1
Paraguay	9.9	3.4	2.6	4.5	1.6	1.5 *	1.0	1.2 *	13.5 *	11.2 *	5.6	7.6 *	3.4	2.7	2.1	1.7
Peru	20.3	10.8	6.4	7.0	1.4	0.8	0.8	0.5	34.5	28.0	12.2	11.7	3.8	2.2	1.7	1.5
Philippines	18.8	11.3	8.6	5.9	8.0	6.6	6.8	5.4	38.3	32.0	33.1	26.7	3.7	3.1	2.8	2.7
Qatar	—	—	—	—	1.9 *	1.4 *	1.4 *	1.5 *	9.1 *	6.2 *	5.6 *	6.2 *	1.2	1.0	0.7	0.5
Romania	< 2.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	4.3	3.3 *	3.3 *	3.1 *	12.8	10.2 *	9.4 *	8.1 *	2.1	1.4	0.8	0.7
Russian Federation	4.1	< 2.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	4.9	2.9 *	2.9 *	2.8 *	17.4 *	11.3 *	11.0 *	10.3 *	1.9	1.1	0.8	0.5
Rwanda	37.7	36.6	33.6	31.4	8.7	5.1	2.2	1.1	47.9	46.6	37.6	33.1	18.5	7.6	4.6	3.8
Saudi Arabia	5.0	5.3	4.1	3.0	7.0 *	6.1 *	4.9	4.5	19.4 *	16.3 *	17.1	10.8	2.2	1.4	0.9	0.6
Senegal	24.4	11.8	8.5	4.6	10.0	8.9 *	7.1	10.2	26.0	21.7 *	17.1	17.5	13.0	7.4	4.8	3.7
Serbia	—	2.8	< 2.5	< 2.5	—	4.0	3.9	2.6	—	7.3	6.0	5.4	—	0.8	0.6	0.5
Sierra Leone	50.1	39.9	24.9	28.4	11.6	7.5	5.9	6.3	35.5	32.7	30.2	26.3	22.5	17.5	12.6	10.1
Slovakia	6.2	5.1	5.3	3.6	1.1 *	1.0 *	1.0 *	1.0 *	7.6 *	5.8 *	5.5 *	5.3 *	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.6
Solomon Islands	12.6	12.7	17.7	19.4	6.7 *	4.3	8.5	5.5 *	35.4 *	32.8	31.7	27.4 *	3.1	2.8	2.2	1.8
Somalia	70.2	70.1	59.5	51.3	19.3	14.3	11.9 *	11.8 *	29.2	25.3	25.8 *	25.6 *	17.2	16.6	12.9	10.6
South Africa	3.7	3.6	6.3	8.1	4.5	5.4	2.5	2.9 *	30.1	25.0	27.4	17.5 *	7.1	6.8	3.7	3.5
South Sudan	—	—	—	19.6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	9.9	9.9
Sri Lanka	16.6	11.0	4.3	4.1	15.9	13.5	15.1	10.8 *	18.3	18.6	17.3	12.6 *	1.7	1.2	0.8	0.6
Sudan	—	—	10.0	11.4	—	—	16.3	17.4 *	—	—	38.2	39.6 *	—	—	6.3	5.2
Suriname	11.1	7.9	9.8	10.1	7.0	5.0	5.5	5.2 *	14.1	9.7	8.3	9.1 *	3.1	2.4	2.0	1.7
Syrian Arab Republic	7.7	5.5	13.4	34.0	4.9	10.9	14.5 *	12.0 *	24.3	28.3	37.6 *	31.3 *	2.3	1.9	3.5	2.1
Tajikistan	40.1	29.9	14.2	8.7	9.4	5.6	3.5	5.1 *	42.1	34.0	19.6	18.4 *	8.3	4.6	3.7	3.0
Tanzania (United Rep. of)	32.6	25.0	22.5	23.8	5.6	2.9	4.5	3.1	48.3	43.2	34.5	30.0	12.9	7.7	5.2	4.1
Thailand	17.4	10.8	7.3	5.6	7.8 *	4.7	5.4	7.2	22.1 *	15.7	10.5	12.4	2.1	1.4	1.0	0.8
Timor-Leste	42.4	28.8	12.4	15.9	13.7	21.3	12.2	8.3	55.7	57.2	49.2	46.7	—	7.7	6.0	4.9
Togo	31.5	22.8	20.7	12.8	12.2	6.0	5.7	4.4 *	28.8	26.9	23.8	21.3 *	12.0	9.4	7.3	6.0
Trinidad & Tobago	9.6	9.4	6.8	12.6	5.2	5.4 *	4.9 *	5.0 *	5.3	5.9 *	5.3 *	5.7 *	2.8	2.4	1.9	1.5
Tunisia	4.1	3.6	3.1	3.2	2.9	3.4	2.1	2.8 *	16.8	9.0	8.4	8.1 *	2.9	2.0	1.7	1.1
Türkiye	3.9	< 2.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	3.0	1.0	1.9	1.7	18.8	12.5	10.0	6.0	3.8	2.1	1.3	1.0
Turkmenistan	6.4	4.0	3.3	4.1	8.0	7.2	4.2	4.1	27.2	18.9	11.5	7.2	6.9	4.5	4.3	4.0
Uganda	21.0	19.7	37.5	36.9	5.0	5.3	4.7	3.6	44.9	38.3	29.7	25.4	14.6	8.7	5.3	4.1
Ukraine	3.0	< 2.5	< 2.5	5.8	8.2	2.4 *	2.5 *	2.5 *	22.9	16.3 *	16.8 *	16.5 *	1.8	1.3	0.9	0.9
United Arab Emirates	3.3	7.5	4.4	2.7	3.5 *	3.0 *	3.1 *	2.9 *	3.0 *	2.5 *	2.8 *	2.4 *	1.1	0.9	0.7	0.5
Uruguay	3.2	< 2.5	< 2.5	< 2.5	1.8	1.5	0.9	1.3 *	15.3	11.8	10.8	9.1 *	1.7	1.2	0.8	0.7
Uzbekistan	18.0	6.4	< 2.5	< 2.5	9.0	4.4	1.8	2.4 *	24.9	19.6	10.8	6.5	6.2	3.6	1.9	1.3
Venezuela (Boliv. Rep. of)	14.1	2.6	17.2	17.6	3.9	4.5	3.6 *	3.7 *	17.4	14.6	12.2 *	14.4 *	2.2	1.7	2.4	2.4
Viet Nam	19.5	12.7	7.5	5.2	9.0	9.4	6.1	4.7	42.5	30.8	24.3	19.5	3.0	2.4	2.2	2.0
Yemen	24.4	23.7	41.3	39.5	16.2 *	13.8	13.0 *	16.8	57.0 *	57.0	44.5 *	48.5	9.3	6.0	4.8	4.1
Zambia	50.1	45.4	32.3	35.4	5.9	5.6	6.2	4.2	59.2	45.8	40.0	34.6	15.6	8.8	6.5	5.6
Zimbabwe	32.8	27.2	35.5	38.1	8.3	2.4	3.3	2.9	33.8	35.1	27.1	23.5	9.4	9.3	5.7	4.8

Note: The colors shown in the table represent the following categories: ■ = very low ■ = low ■ = medium ■ = high ■ = very high. For more information, see page 43.
 — = Data not available or not presented. Some countries did not exist in their present borders in the given year or reference period. *GHI estimates.

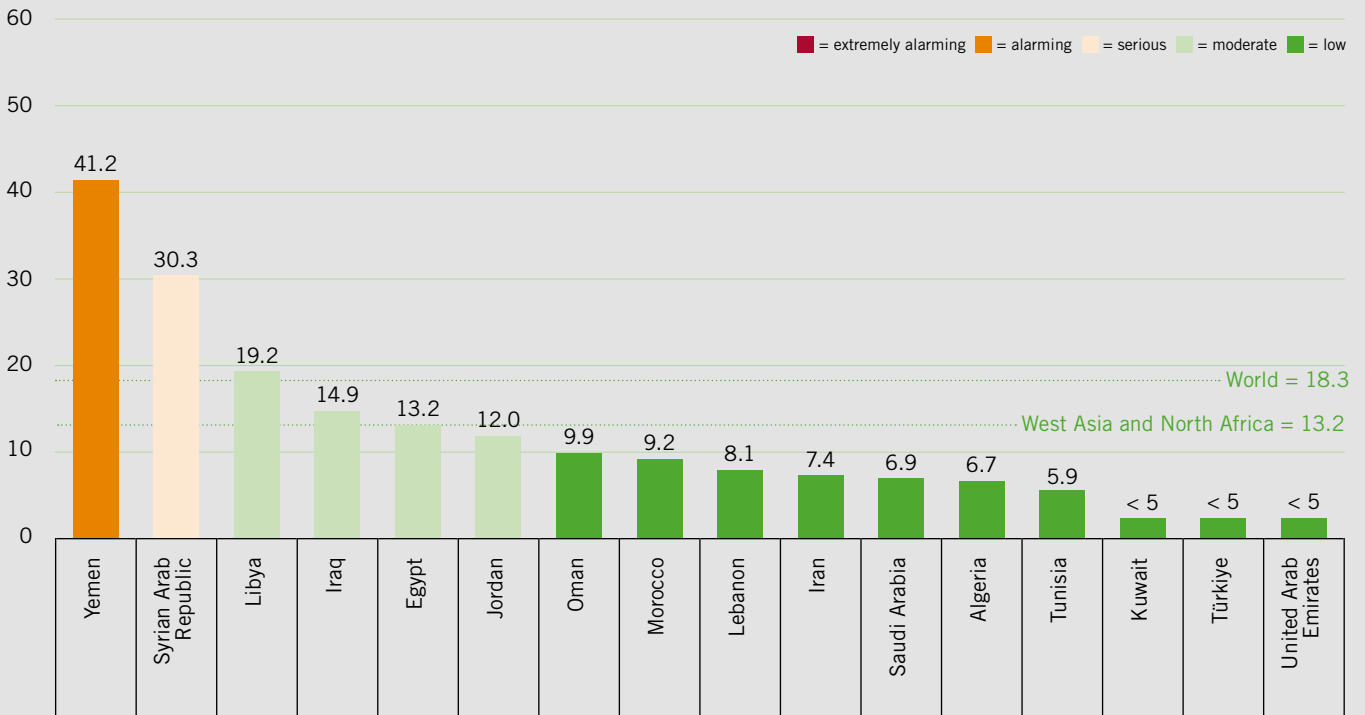
2000, 2008, 2016, AND 2024 GLOBAL HUNGER INDEX SCORES, AND CHANGE SINCE 2016

Country	2000	2008	2016	2024	Absolute change since 2016	% change since 2016	Country	2000	2008	2016	2024	Absolute change since 2016	% change since 2016
with data from	'98-'02	'06-'10	'14-'18	'19-'23	2016	2016	with data from	'98-'02	'06-'10	'14-'18	'19-'23	2016	2016
Afghanistan	49.6	35.7	27.1	30.8	3.7	13.7	Lebanon	10.2	9.1	7.5	8.1	0.6	8.0
Albania	16.0	15.5	6.2	7.9	1.7	27.4	Lesotho	—	—	—	—	—	—
Algeria	14.5	11.0	8.5	6.7	-1.8	-21.2	Liberia	48.0	36.6	32.3	31.9	-0.4	-1.2
Angola	63.8	42.7	25.9	26.6	0.7	2.7	Libya	14.2	12.9	19.3	19.2	-0.1	-0.5
Argentina	6.6	5.4	5.2	6.6	1.4	26.9	Lithuania	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	—	—
Armenia	19.2	11.7	6.4	5.1	-1.3	-20.3	Madagascar	42.3	36.6	33.2	36.3	3.1	9.3
Azerbaijan	25.0	15.0	8.1	6.2	-1.9	-23.5	Malawi	43.0	28.1	22.8	21.9	-0.9	-3.9
Bahrain	—	—	—	—	—	—	Malaysia	15.4	13.7	13.4	12.7	-0.7	-5.2
Bangladesh	33.8	30.6	24.7	19.4	-5.3	-21.5	Maldives	—	—	—	—	—	—
Belarus	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	—	—	Mali	41.9	31.8	24.7	24.0	-0.7	-2.8
Benin	33.7	26.9	23.6	24.7	1.1	4.7	Mauritania	30.4	18.8	22.3	21.1	-1.2	-5.4
Bhutan	—	—	—	—	—	—	Mauritius	15.4	13.9	13.4	12.8	-0.6	-4.5
Bolivia (Plurinat. State of)	27.0	21.2	14.3	16.8	2.5	17.5	Mexico	10.1	9.7	6.6	6.1	-0.5	-7.6
Bosnia & Herzegovina	9.4	6.4	< 5	< 5	—	—	Moldova (Rep. of)	17.6	14.7	6.1	5.6	-0.5	-8.2
Botswana	27.5	26.3	21.4	20.7	-0.7	-3.3	Mongolia	29.7	16.7	7.5	5.6	-1.9	-25.3
Brazil	11.7	6.7	5.5	6.6	1.1	20.0	Montenegro	—	5.7	< 5	< 5	—	—
Bulgaria	8.9	7.8	7.5	5.1	-2.4	-32.0	Morocco	15.5	11.7	8.7	9.2	0.5	5.7
Burkina Faso	44.9	33.7	25.6	24.6	-1.0	-3.9	Mozambique	48.3	35.6	38.5	27.5	-11.0	-28.6
Burundi	—	—	—	—	—	—	Myanmar	40.2	29.9	17.1	15.7	-1.4	-8.2
Cabo Verde	14.7	11.7	11.3	9.2	-2.1	-18.6	Namibia	26.5	27.5	20.6	19.7	-0.9	-4.4
Cambodia	41.3	24.9	18.9	14.7	-4.2	-22.2	Nepal	37.1	29.2	21.2	14.7	-6.5	-30.7
Cameroon	36.0	29.0	20.8	18.3	-2.5	-12.0	Nicaragua	21.7	17.1	14.0	13.6	-0.4	-2.9
Central African Republic	48.0	43.5	32.6	31.5	-1.1	-3.4	Niger	53.1	39.6	32.8	34.1	1.3	4.0
Chad	50.5	44.8	38.8	36.4	-2.4	-6.2	Nigeria	39.5	30.7	30.6	28.8	-1.8	-5.9
Chile	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	—	—	North Macedonia	7.6	5.3	5.1	< 5	—	—
China	13.4	7.2	< 5	< 5	—	—	Oman	15.2	11.5	11.9	9.9	-2.0	-16.8
Colombia	10.8	10.1	7.2	5.7	-1.5	-20.8	Pakistan	36.6	31.4	24.6	27.9	3.3	13.4
Comoros	38.1	28.9	21.3	18.8	-2.5	-11.7	Panama	18.7	12.7	8.1	8.0	-0.1	-1.2
Congo (Republic of)	34.9	32.2	26.8	24.0	-2.8	-10.4	Papua New Guinea	33.7	32.8	30.0	28.8	-1.2	-4.0
Costa Rica	6.6	< 5	< 5	< 5	—	—	Paraguay	11.5	7.5	5.0	6.0	1.0	20.0
Côte d'Ivoire	33.1	35.2	21.5	20.6	-0.9	-4.2	Peru	21.1	13.7	7.6	7.4	-0.2	-2.6
Croatia	5.5	< 5	< 5	< 5	—	—	Philippines	24.9	18.9	17.9	14.4	-3.5	-19.6
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	47.2	41.2	36.2	34.9	-1.3	-3.6	Qatar	—	—	—	—	—	—
Djibouti	44.2	33.9	24.0	21.2	-2.8	-11.7	Romania	7.9	5.7	5.0	< 5	—	—
Dominican Republic	15.0	13.8	8.3	7.8	-0.5	-6.0	Russian Federation	10.4	5.9	5.4	< 5	—	—
Ecuador	19.3	17.8	11.8	11.6	-0.2	-1.7	Rwanda	49.6	36.4	28.6	25.2	-3.4	-11.9
Egypt	16.1	16.8	15.4	13.2	-2.2	-14.3	Saudi Arabia	12.7	10.8	9.4	6.9	-2.5	-26.6
El Salvador	14.5	11.7	9.4	8.0	-1.4	-14.9	Senegal	34.3	22.1	16.1	15.3	-0.8	-5.0
Equatorial Guinea	—	—	—	—	—	—	Serbia	—	5.9	< 5	< 5	—	—
Eritrea	—	—	—	—	—	—	Sierra Leone	57.2	45.2	32.8	31.2	-1.6	-4.9
Estonia	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	—	—	Slovakia	6.0	< 5	< 5	< 5	—	—
Eswatini	24.8	24.9	19.6	15.7	-3.9	-19.9	Solomon Islands	20.4	18.2	21.7	19.4	-2.3	-10.6
Ethiopia	53.4	37.8	26.2	26.2	0.0	0.0	Somalia	63.3	59.0	49.8	44.1	-5.7	-11.4
Fiji	9.6	8.8	10.6	10.2	-0.4	-3.8	South Africa	18.0	16.9	14.0	12.5	-1.5	-10.7
Gabon	21.0	19.2	16.7	17.4	0.7	4.2	South Sudan	—	—	—	—	—	—
Gambia	29.0	23.1	17.8	19.9	2.1	11.8	Sri Lanka	21.7	17.6	15.0	11.3	-3.7	-24.7
Georgia	12.0	6.6	5.4	< 5	—	—	Sudan	—	—	28.3	28.8	0.5	1.8
Ghana	28.5	22.2	16.7	13.9	-2.8	-16.8	Suriname	14.8	10.6	11.0	10.9	-0.1	-0.9
Guatemala	28.5	24.0	20.1	18.8	-1.3	-6.5	Syrian Arab Republic	13.9	16.9	25.9	30.3	4.4	17.0
Guinea	40.1	31.5	28.2	23.2	-5.0	-17.7	Tajikistan	39.9	28.1	16.0	13.7	-2.3	-14.4
Guinea-Bissau	37.6	29.6	30.2	30.5	0.3	1.0	Tanzania (United Rep. of)	40.5	29.7	25.0	22.7	-2.3	-9.2
Guyana	17.0	14.9	10.7	9.1	-1.6	-15.0	Thailand	18.9	12.2	9.5	10.1	0.6	6.3
Haiti	39.8	39.8	30.0	34.3	4.3	14.3	Timor-Leste	—	44.8	29.4	27.0	-2.4	-8.2
Honduras	21.5	18.7	13.9	15.6	1.7	12.2	Togo	38.2	28.2	24.4	18.6	-5.8	-23.8
Hungary	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	—	—	Trinidad & Tobago	10.8	10.6	8.6	10.8	2.2	25.6
India	38.4	35.2	29.3	27.3	-2.0	-6.8	Tunisia	10.1	7.4	6.1	5.9	-0.2	-3.3
Indonesia	25.7	28.2	18.3	16.9	-1.4	-7.7	Türkiye	11.4	6.5	5.4	< 5	—	—
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	13.7	9.1	8.0	7.4	-0.6	-7.5	Turkmenistan	20.2	14.4	10.5	9.5	-1.0	-9.5
Iraq	22.9	19.8	14.3	14.9	0.6	4.2	Uganda	36.1	28.5	30.3	27.3	-3.0	-9.9
Jamaica	8.4	8.5	9.0	7.7	-1.3	-14.4	Ukraine	13.0	6.9	7.2	8.6	1.4	19.4
Jordan	10.5	7.5	7.8	12.0	4.2	53.8	United Arab Emirates	5.1	6.3	< 5	< 5	—	—
Kazakhstan	11.2	11.1	5.6	5.3	-0.3	-5.4	Uruguay	7.6	5.3	< 5	< 5	—	—
Kenya	36.3	29.0	24.0	25.0	1.0	4.2	Uzbekistan	24.3	13.2	5.9	< 5	—	—
Korea (DPR)	43.7	30.5	26.2	31.4	5.2	19.8	Venezuela (Boliv. Rep. of)	14.3	8.7	14.4	15.1	0.7	4.9
Kuwait	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	—	—	Viet Nam	26.1	20.1	14.4	11.3	-3.1	-21.5
Kyrgyzstan	17.2	12.9	8.6	6.8	-1.8	-20.9	Yemen	41.6	36.8	39.6	41.2	1.6	4.0
Lao PDR	44.2	30.3	21.2	19.8	-1.4	-6.6	Zambia	53.1	41.3	32.6	30.7	-1.9	-5.8
Latvia	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	—	—	Zimbabwe	35.3	29.9	28.5	27.6	-0.9	-3.2

Note: — = Data are not available or not presented. See Table A.3 for provisional designations of the severity of hunger for some countries with incomplete data. Some countries did not exist in their present borders in the given year or reference period. ■ = low ■ = moderate ■ = serious ■ = alarming ■ = extremely alarming

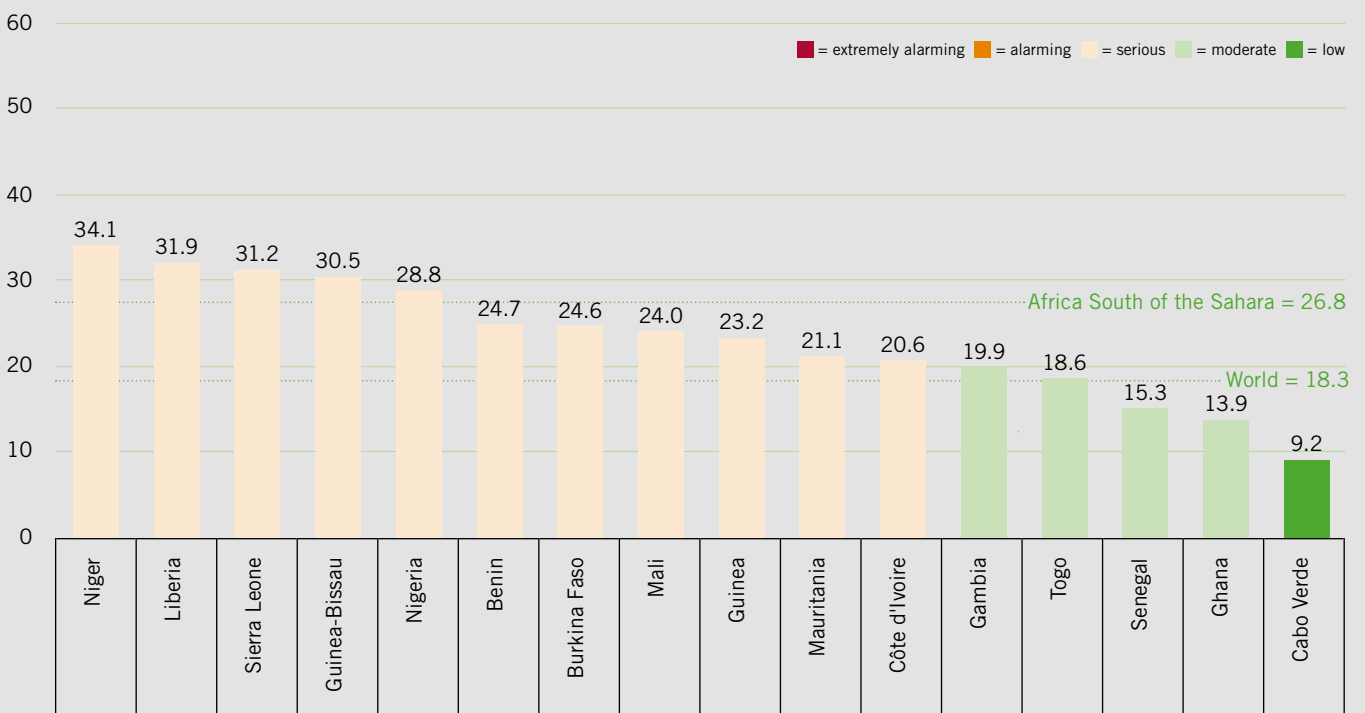
COUNTRIES' 2024 GHI SCORES BY REGION

WEST ASIA AND NORTH AFRICA

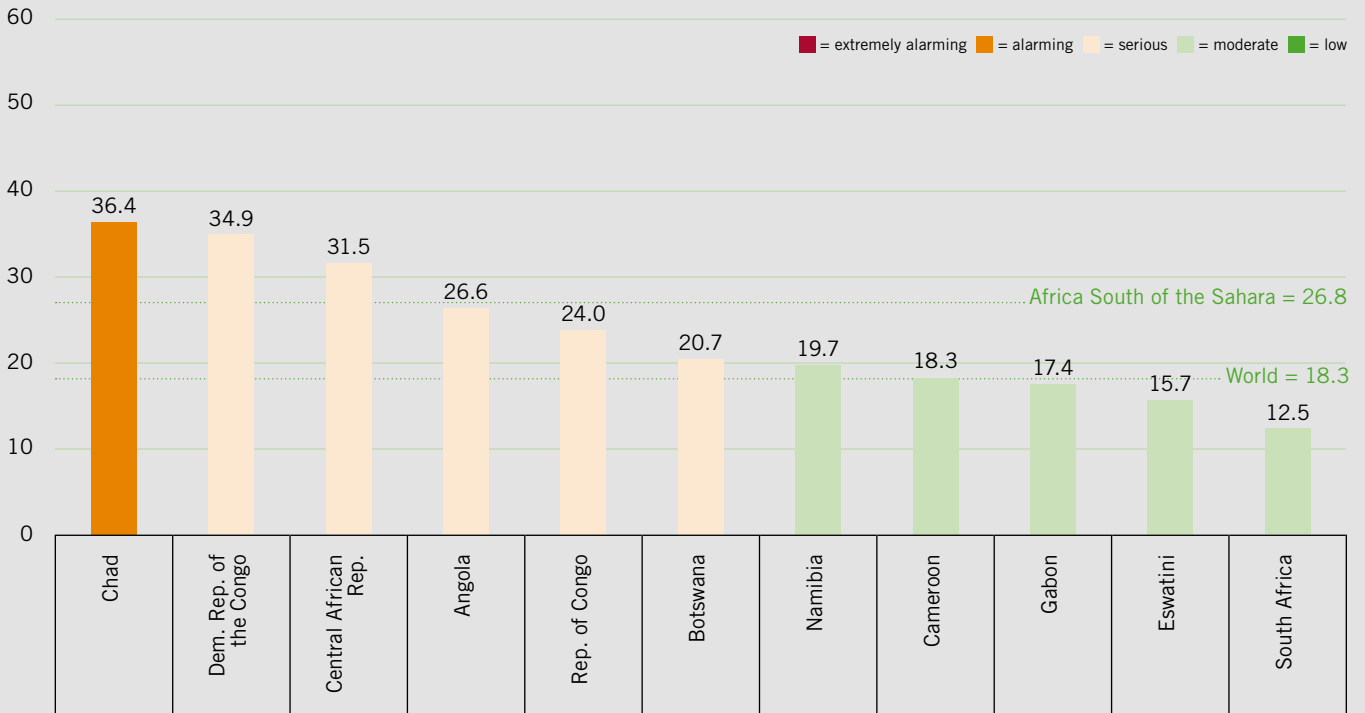


Note: Bahrain and Qatar are in the West Asia and North Africa region but are not shown, owing to insufficient data for the calculation of GHI scores. Existing data and provisional indicator values for these countries were included in the calculation of regional and global GHI scores. See Table A.3 regarding provisional designations of hunger severity for countries with incomplete data. Countries with GHI scores less than 5 are presented in alphabetical order.

WEST AFRICA

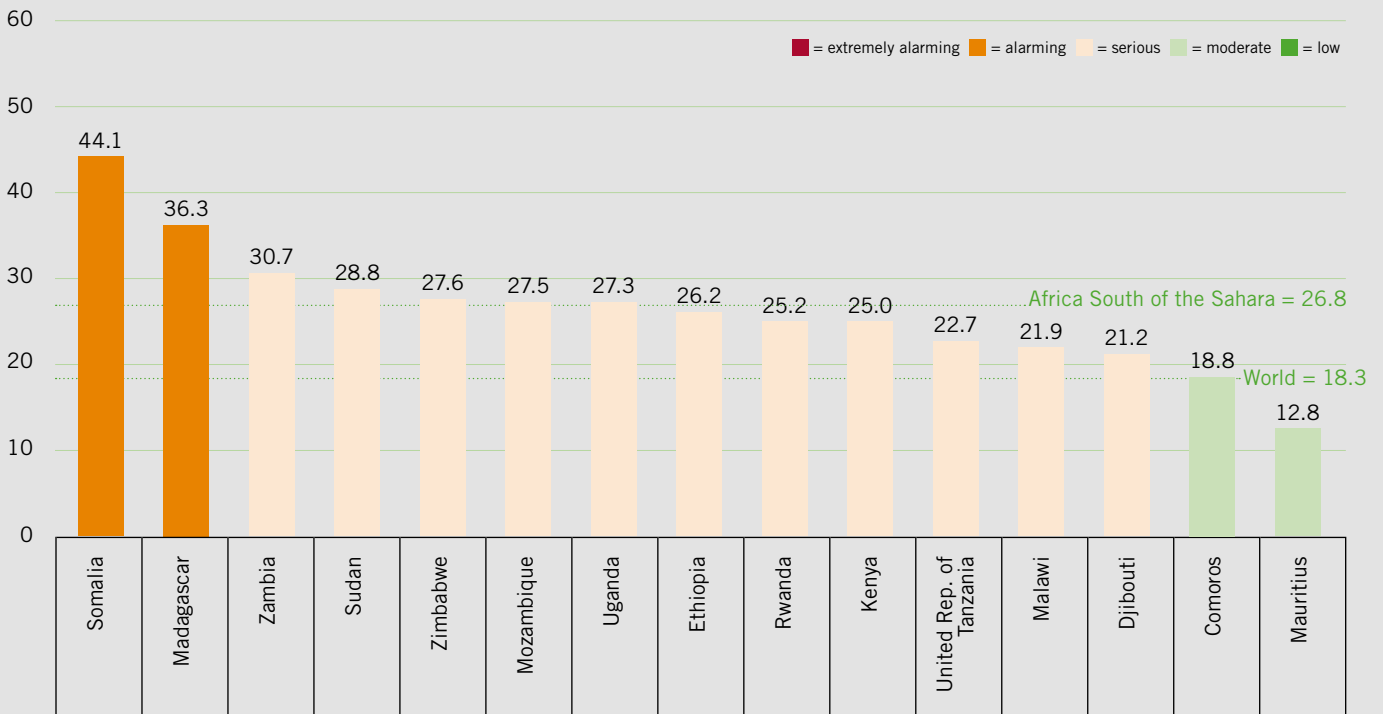


CENTRAL AND SOUTHERN AFRICA



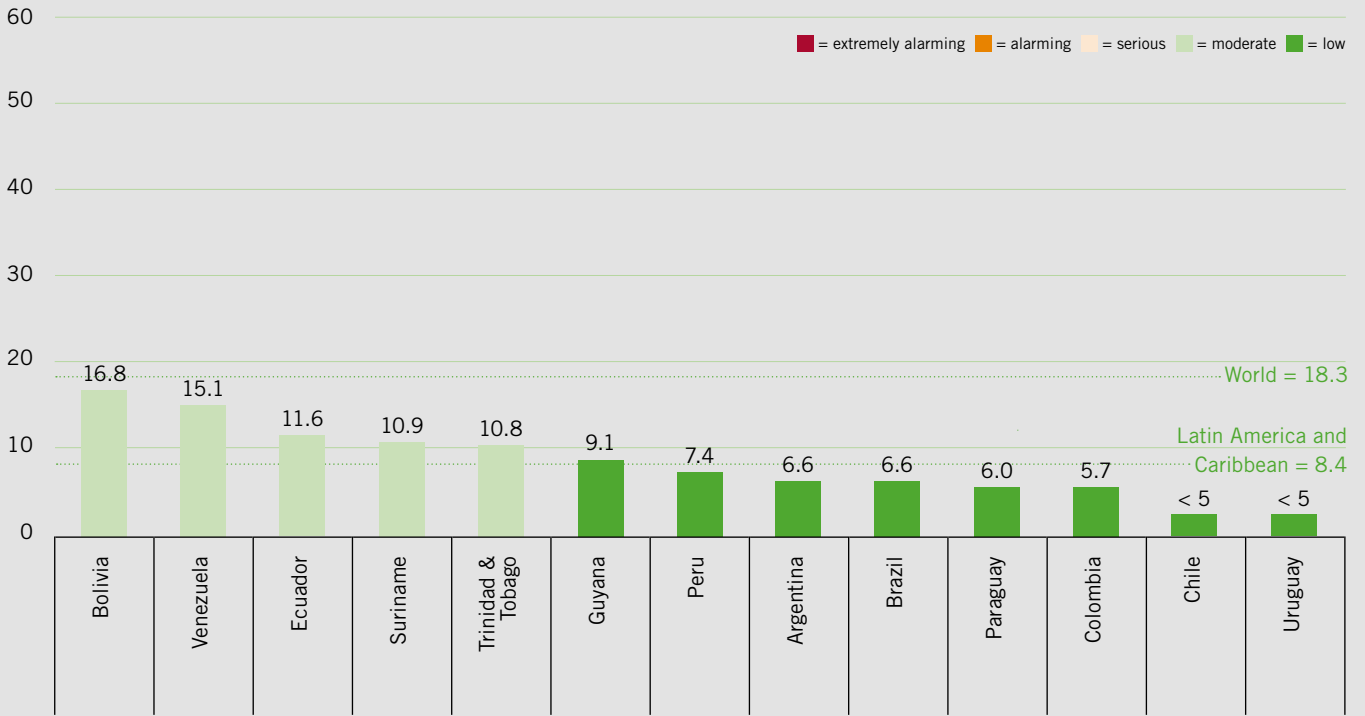
Note: Equatorial Guinea and Lesotho are in the Central and Southern Africa subregions but are not shown, owing to insufficient data for the calculation of GHI scores. Existing data and provisional indicator values for these countries were included in the calculation of regional and global GHI scores. See Table A.3 regarding provisional designations of hunger severity for countries with incomplete data.

EAST AFRICA



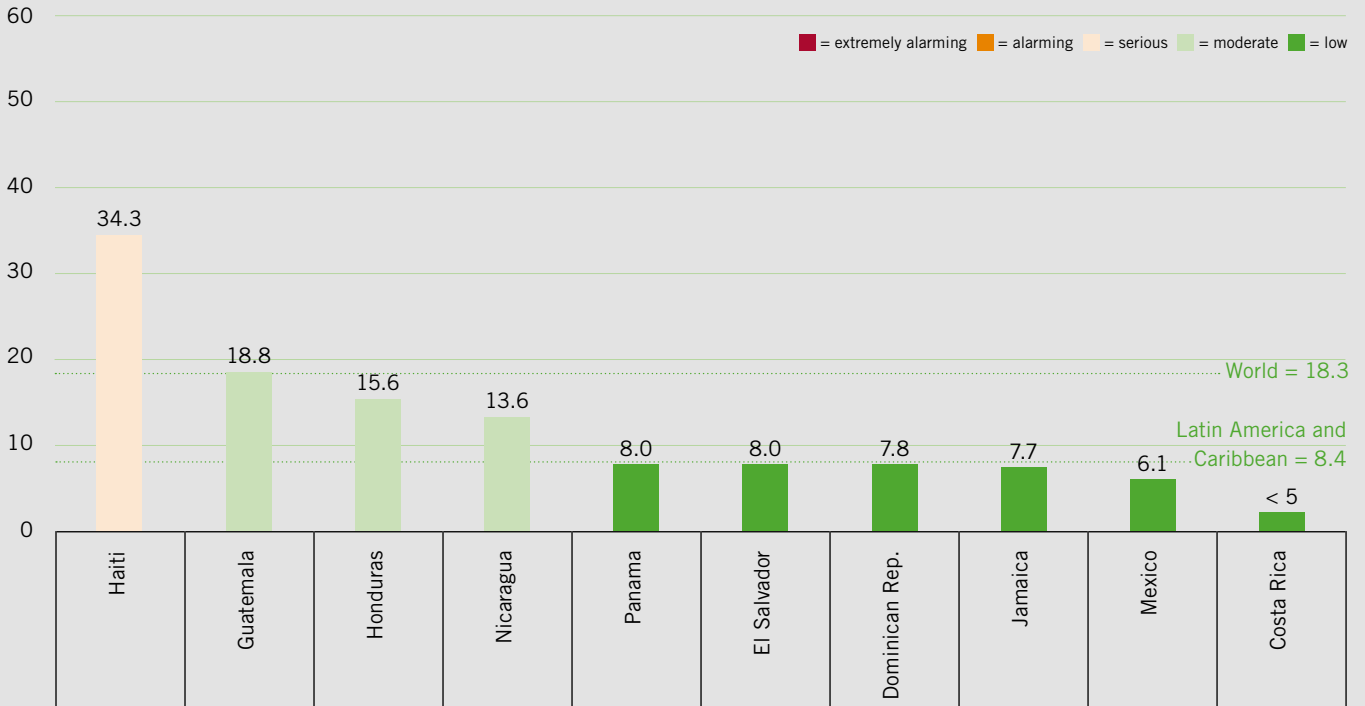
Note: Burundi, Eritrea, and South Sudan are in the East Africa subregion but are not shown, owing to insufficient data for the calculation of GHI scores. Existing data and provisional indicator values for these countries were included in the calculation of regional and global GHI scores. See Table A.3 regarding provisional designations of hunger severity for countries with incomplete data.

SOUTH AMERICA

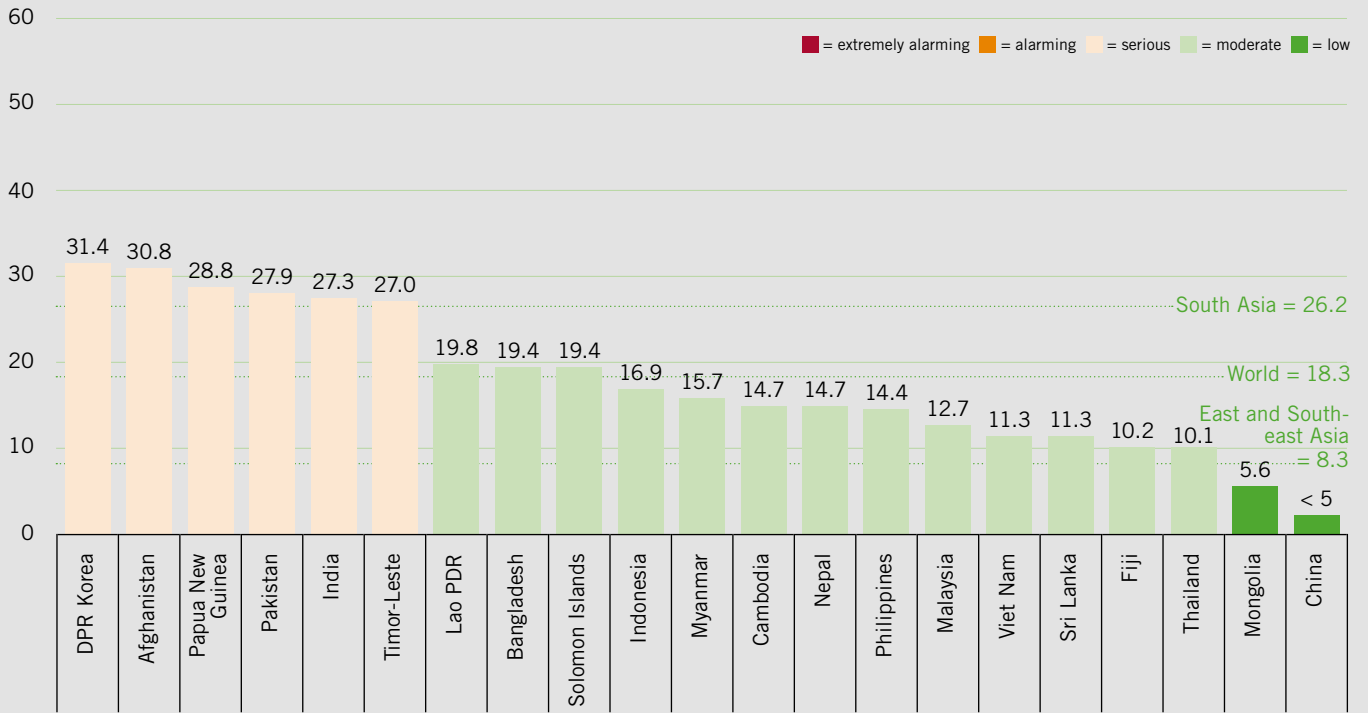


Note: Countries with GHI scores less than 5 are presented in alphabetical order.

CENTRAL AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

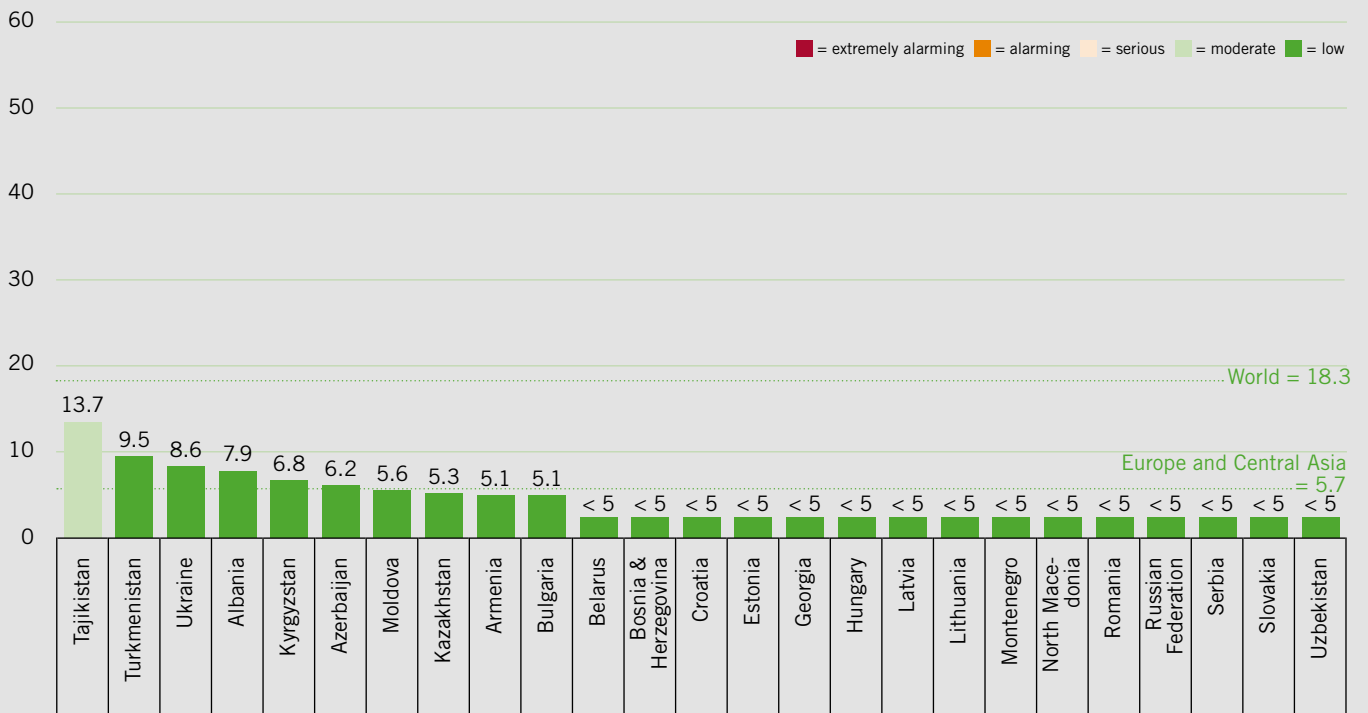


SOUTH, EAST, AND SOUTHEAST ASIA



Note: Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka are in South Asia for the purposes of Figure 1.2, whereas the remaining countries are in East and South-east Asia. Bhutan and Maldives are not shown, owing to insufficient data for the calculation of GHI scores. Existing data and provisional indicator values for these countries were included in the calculation of regional and global GHI scores. See Table A.3 regarding provisional designations of hunger severity for countries with incomplete data.

EUROPE AND CENTRAL ASIA



Note: Countries with GHI scores less than 5 are presented in alphabetical order.

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RESOURCES FOR UNDERSTANDING HUNGER AND MALNUTRITION



The Global Hunger Index (GHI) is a tool for assessing hunger at global, regional, and national levels. Among its strengths are the following:

- **Measuring and tracking long-term trends.** Because of the nature and availability of its underlying data, the GHI is best suited for measuring hunger and tracking progress over recent years and decades. The 2024 GHI scores are based on the most up-to-date data available for the underlying indicators for each country. This GHI report also includes GHI scores for 2000, 2008, and 2016 to show trends in hunger over time.
- **Reflecting both the quantity and quality of food and diets.** The four indicators underlying GHI scores—undernourishment, child stunting, child wasting, and child mortality—reflect deficiencies in calories (quantity) as well as in important micronutrients (quality).
- **Complementing other reports and resources.** The countries where GHI scores are high—indicating that calories are chronically insufficient and/or children’s growth and well-being have been hampered by undernutrition—are particularly vulnerable to food crises and stresses, which are reported by other sources.

Other resources offer additional important perspectives on hunger and malnutrition. The following is a selection and brief description of those resources.



Resources on Food Crises and Early Warning Systems

→ Famine Early Warning Systems Network (FEWS NET)

FEWS NET, the Famine Early Warning Systems Network, provides real-time assessments and short-term projections of acute food insecurity around the world. It issues monthly reports and maps detailing current and projected food insecurity as well as alerts on emerging or likely crises. FEWS NET is funded and managed by the Bureau for Humanitarian Assistance of the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID).

<https://fewsn.net/>

→ Global Information and Early Warning System (GIEWS)

The Global Information and Early Warning System on Food and Agriculture (GIEWS) continuously monitors food supply and demand and other key indicators for assessing the overall food security situation in all countries of the world. An initiative of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), it issues regular reports on prevailing conditions and provides early warnings of impending food crises at the country or regional level.

<https://www.fao.org/giews/en/>

→ Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC)

The Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC) is an initiative led by 15 international development agencies to improve analysis and decision-making on food security and nutrition. It provides a common scale for classifying the severity and magnitude of food insecurity and acute malnutrition. The IPC acute food insecurity scale has five classifications: minimal/none, stressed, crisis, emergency, and catastrophe/famine. There are also IPC scales for acute malnutrition and chronic food insecurity.

<https://www.ipcinfo.org/>

→ Global Report on Food Crises (GRFC)

This annual report produced by the Global Network against Food Crises—an international alliance working to address the root causes of extreme hunger—gives an overview and country-by-country update on acute, crisis-level food insecurity. Based on the Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC) assessments, it triangulates recent available food security assessments, even if they are partial and from different sources.

<https://www.fsinplatform.org/report/global-report-food-crises-2024>



Resources on Food and Nutrition Security

→ The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World (SOFI)

This flagship annual report is jointly prepared by FAO, the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the World Food Programme (WFP), and the World Health Organization (WHO). It is designed to chart progress toward ending hunger, achieving food security, and improving nutrition and to provide an in-depth analysis of key challenges for achieving this goal in the context of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

<https://www.fao.org/publications/sofi>

→ Global Nutrition Report (GNR)

The *Global Nutrition Report*—published by a multistakeholder initiative—reports on countries' progress toward meeting global nutrition targets, evaluates the impact of poor diets on human health and the planet, assesses the nutrition financing landscape, and provides a comprehensive overview of reporting on past Nutrition for Growth (N4G) commitments.

<https://globalnutritionreport.org>

→ Voices of the Hungry Project

This project of FAO uses the Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES), an experience-based measure of household or individual food security. The FIES relies on eight survey questions included in the Gallup World Poll, which covers 90% of the world's population. The project provides up-to-date, internationally comparable information about food insecurity that is policy-relevant and actionable. A suite of resources and research based on the FIES is available.

<https://www.fao.org/in-action/voices-of-the-hungry/resources/research/en/>

→ Global Food Security Index (GFSI)

The annual Global Food Security Index (GFSI) is based on a model constructed from 58 indicators that measure drivers of food security across 113 low-, middle-, and high-income countries. The indicators fall into four categories: food affordability, food availability, food quality and safety, and natural resources and resilience. The index was designed and constructed by Economist Impact, part of the Economist Group.

<https://impact.economist.com/sustainability/project/food-security-index/>



Resources on the Right to Food

→ State of the Right to Food and Nutrition Report

This annual report—produced by the Global Network for the Right to Food and Nutrition—provides a yearly snapshot of developments concerning the right to food and nutrition at the country and international levels. It is designed to complement FAO's *State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World* (SOFI) report by taking a human rights perspective and shedding light on the structural causes of hunger and malnutrition.

<https://www.righttofoodandnutrition.org>



Resources on Food Policy

→ Global Food Policy Report

This flagship report from the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) reviews major food policy issues and developments and examines emerging challenges and opportunities for reducing hunger and poverty. It is published annually.

<https://gfpr.ifpri.info>

PARTNERS



Who we are

Welthungerhilfe (WHH) is one of the largest nongovernmental development and humanitarian aid organizations in Germany and is politically and denominationally independent. It was founded in 1962 as the German section of the Freedom from Hunger Campaign, one of the first global initiatives to fight hunger, initiated by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO).

What we do

We implement measures ranging from rapid emergency relief to rehabilitation to long-term development cooperation projects with national and international partner organizations. As part of an active civil society, we advocate for the political change needed to achieve Zero Hunger. We address inequalities and foster sustainable development.

How we work

Because our goal is to sustainably improve livelihoods in the long run, our work focuses on capacity building. We aim to strengthen structures from the bottom up and work together with local partner organizations to ensure the long-term success of our work. In addition, we raise public awareness and advocate with national and international policy-makers. We thereby strive to address the root causes of hunger and poverty. In a shared mission with many other organizations, our goal is to make ourselves redundant.

Our vision

A world in which all people can exercise their right to lead a self-determined life in dignity and justice, free from hunger and poverty.



Who we are

Concern Worldwide is a nongovernmental, international, humanitarian organization that strives for a world free from poverty, fear and oppression. We deliver life-saving and life-changing interventions to the world's poorest and most vulnerable people. From rapid emergency response to innovative development programming, we go to the hardest-to-reach places to make sure that no one is left behind.

What we do

Our mission is to help people living in extreme poverty achieve major improvements in their lives which last and spread without ongoing support from Concern.

How we work

To achieve our mission, we engage in long-term development work, build resilience, respond to emergency situations, and seek to address the root causes of poverty through our development education and advocacy work.

Our vision

We believe in a world where no one lives in poverty, fear, or oppression; where all have access to a decent standard of living and the opportunities and choices essential to a long, healthy, and creative life; and where everyone is treated with dignity and respect.



Who we are

The Institute for International Law of Peace and Armed Conflict (IFHV) is one of Europe's leading academic institutions to conduct research on humanitarian crises. Coming from a strong tradition of international humanitarian law and human rights law, the institute today combines high-level interdisciplinary research from the disciplines of public law, social science, geosciences and public health.

What we do

We examine the origins of humanitarian crises; the legal parameters before, during and in the aftermath of crises; the effects crises have on people, societies and institutions; and the responses states, international organizations and non-governmental organizations give to crises. We see it as part of our mandate to promote international humanitarian law and humanitarian principles.

How we work

At the IFHV, we are committed to sharing our research findings regularly through a variety of channels. Our dedicated team of researchers, including both doctoral and postdoctoral scholars, engages in extensive (inter-)national research projects. Additionally, they frequently provide expert commentary on current crises in the public media.

Our vision

The IFHV contributes to the professionalization of the education of humanitarian aid workers. We need a new generation of committed and professionally trained 'humanitarians', if we want to master the challenges that humanitarian crises pose to us today. Over 30 years ago, we launched the NOHA Master in Humanitarian Action. This leading two-year program prepares students for careers in humanitarian aid. Additionally, our newly established academy for humanitarian action (aha) supports lifelong learning.

19 YEARS OF TRACKING WORLD HUNGER

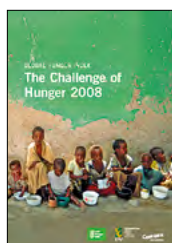
Since 2006, the Global Hunger Index has been reporting on the state of hunger globally, by region, and by country.



Case Studies in the Post-Conflict Countries of Afghanistan and Sierra Leone



Measures Being Taken to Reduce Acute Undernourishment and Chronic Hunger



The Vicious Circle of Hunger and Poverty



Financial Crisis and Gender Inequality



The Crisis of Child Undernutrition



Taming Price Spikes and Excessive Food Price Volatility



Ensuring Sustainable Food Security Under Land, Water, and Energy Stresses



Building Resilience to Achieve Food and Nutrition Security



The Challenge of Hidden Hunger



Armed Conflict and the Challenge of Hunger



Getting to Zero Hunger



The Inequalities of Hunger



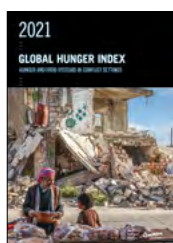
Forced Migration and Hunger



The Challenge of Hunger and Climate Change



One Decade to Zero Hunger: Linking Health and Sustainable Food Systems



Hunger and Food Systems in Conflict Settings



Food Systems Transformation and Local Governance



The Power of Youth in Shaping Food Systems



How Gender Justice Can Advance Climate Resilience and Zero Hunger

Visit www.globalhungerindex.org to find:

- more information about the 2024 Global Hunger Index
- interactive map
- synopsis

- country profiles
- translations of the full report
- past editions of the GHI

IMPRINT

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Fane Dayitoni and other female lead farmers use climate-resilient permaculture techniques to cultivate their land in the Mangochi District, Malawi. Their efforts hold promise for improving food and nutrition security and advancing gender justice in a context of increasing droughts and floods. Thoko Chikondi/Welthungerhilfe, Malawi, 2024

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