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Do Poverty Reduction Strategies Help Achieve The Millennium Development Goals?

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(DRAFT VERSION – COMMENTS WELCOME)

ABSTRACT

This paper examines the partnership in development policies between the World Bank/IMF and the United Nations. Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) are instruments used by the Washington institutions to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) initiated by the UN. We review and interpret the genesis and development of MDGs and PRSPs in this perspective, and examine their institutional connections. The analytical aim of the paper is to conduct the first investigation in the literature of the impact of PRSP features on progress in achieving the MDGs. We introduce a unique dataset of PRSP indicators and match these to MDG data on MDG indicators. We find robust effects of PRSP features on the youth literacy, women's employment and child mortality indicators. The quantitative evidence suggests that PRSPs appear to become more effective over time, and that more focused PRSPs, more participatory PRSP formulation, and better proposed policy actions may enhance their effectiveness in achieving MDGs. We discuss these findings in the context of other PRSP assessments in the literature and propose future research avenues.

I. Introduction

This paper is an empirical study in process and outcomes of global development policy and practice. It examines the connection between the principal instruments used by the international organizations currently shaping development policies. These instruments are the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), promoted by the United Nations – particularly its Development Programme - , and the Poverty Reduction Strategy Process (PRSP), initiated and overseen by the World Bank and the IMF. As such, the MDGs and PRSP represent the international consensus on means and ends of 'development' in our time. The MDGs are both

the cogent expression of current development priorities, and an instrument to shape development policies; progress against the MDGs is now a widely accepted criterion with which to judge policy interventions. The PRSP is an approach to formulating such policies, written up in a country's Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper.

Both instruments have as their core aim the reduction of poverty in its many forms, and are alternatively interpreted as visions or as a set of realistic aims. Both are attempts to structure and focus development practice along internationally agreed lines, while simultaneously aiming to increase 'ownership' by local and national stakeholders in the developing world. Both also aim at greater accountability through more measurable development progress. Both are the products of the new paradigm in development that emerged during the late 1990s. On the macroeconomic dimension, this paradigm emphasises poverty reduction and growth over structural change. In the interaction between donors and the developing world, it stresses consensus building over conditionality. In development practice, it presents a policy format that is uniform across countries in its recommended methods and its selection of observed outcomes.

The MDGs and the PRSP thus share important similarities in both spirit and content. They are also both supported and implemented by the same organisations. The World Bank and the IMF, the 'executive arm' of the international community in development, are jointly the principal drivers and administrators of the PRSP. They also both subscribe to and promote the MDGs. Given this, and the status of both instruments as Process and Goal, it is natural to assume that the PRSP is instrumental in MDG achievement. Indeed, this is the assumption implicit in most policy documents (including PRS Papers) and in comparative studies (e.g. Harrison et al, 2003). The present study addresses this assumption explicitly. Do countries that engage more with the PRSP actually show greater progress in achieving the MDGs?

One problem with this empirical question must be addressed at the outset. The MDGs were adopted only in 2000; the first PRS Paper dates from 1999. Can five or six years of experience yield the data for a valid assessment, or is this question really premature? We readily admit that this objection is legitimate, and indeed we will below discuss the methodological challenges connected to it. Yet the objection concerns the PRSP and (particularly) the MDGs themselves, not so much the research conducted on them. The MDG project allows only 15 years for achieving the Goals, and has already seen a mid-term review in summer 2005. The approach assumes there will be observable results within a few years of its start. PRS Papers likewise formulate their policy implementation in years rather than decades. We thus evaluate these development policy approaches on their own terms, quite

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regardless of the reader's (or researcher's) own judgement of the time scale needed for policies to bear fruit, and to achieve and observe development progress.

This paper proceeds as follows. The next section provides background information on the formulation and adoption of the MDG, and on the determination and implementation of PRSPs. It places both in the context of the shift in development aims during the 1990s, reflects on the role that both have in current development thinking, considers their relation in development practice, and reviews what evaluation of their performance there is to date. Section III introduces a methodology to measure a country's engagement with the PRSP and its progress in achieving MDGs, and discusses measurement and data issues. In section IV we conduct the analysis and discuss our findings. Section V concludes the paper with a critical reflection on our work and some suggestions for future research avenues.

II. MDGs, PRSPs and the New Development Consensus

Promotion of the MDGs by the UN was preceded by the three 'development decades' of the 1960s, 70s and 80s, during which the emphasis was on structural economic and social change as the principal means (or: as a definition) of 'development' (Fukuda-Parr, 2004). A reconsideration of these approaches during the 1990s led to the 1996 adoption of the 'International Development Targets' by OECD countries, comprising seven quantifiable goals in the areas of economic well-being, social development and environmental sustainability and regeneration (Black and White, 2004). During the UN conferences in the late 1990s the MDGs were promoted as their successors, and as such adopted by 189 countries at the UN Millennium Summit in September 2000 in the 'Millennium Declaration'. This committed its signatories to jointly eliminate poverty and to build a secure and peaceful world conducive to human development. The partnership between rich and poor countries was reaffirmed at the November 2001 launch of the Doha round on international trade and the March 2002 International Conference on Financing for Development in Monterrey, Mexico (UNDP, 2005; Clemens et al, 2004). In September 2005 the UN Member States gathered at the 2005 World Summit to review progress against the goals, and all members reaffirmed the Millennium Declaration. Appendix 1 presents the eight MDGs.

Proponents of the new MDGs paradigm include Fukuda-Parr (2004) who argues that, in comparison to earlier approaches, they put human development at the centre of the global development agenda, provide a framework for accountability, and address not only development outcomes but also inputs from rich countries, thus forming a compact that holds both rich and poor governments accountable. Likewise Devarajan et al. (2002) favour the MDGs for their results orientation, emphasis on quantitative analysis, and their role in donor coordination.

A critical assessment is by Clemens et al (2004), who use historical evidence to argue that many of the MDGs are unrealistic, foster an excessive focus on donor resources, and posit a risk of 'development disillusion' among the public once their realisation fails. White (2004) notes inconsistencies in the MDG time frame – with most goals for 2015 but some for 2005 - and observes that several envisaged MDG 'outputs' are not the products of 'investment', and not all outcomes are direct measures of welfare. This precludes valid performance monitoring and taking the steps necessary to achieve the outcomes. White also notes definitional defects: access to reproductive health is not measured; the proxy for contraceptive prevalence is problematic; the child survival terminology is flawed demographically. Agenor et al (2006) address this problem by proposing a macroeconomic monitoring framework that

explicitly connects MDG indicators to policies such as aid and debt relief, and apply it empirically to Sub Saharan Africa. James (2006) points to evidence showing only loose links between the goals and their ultimate impacts on human functionings such as gender equality or freedom from illness. Vandermoortele (2004) questions the feasibility of the MDGs project, including its monitoring. In a review of progress towards the MDGs during the 1990s he finds an uneven pattern across regions and countries, and between different socioeconomic groups within the same country. This highlights the possibility of global success masking widespread local failure. He also finds evidence that disadvantaged groups are often bypassed by 'average' progress that is the cheapest way to satisfy MDG standards; but this need not be not pro-poor.

Clemens et al (2004) consider the alternative interpretations of MDGs. One is to take the specific goals of the MDGs literally, and the costing study estimates as the amount of aid needed to reach those goals. This view implies that a big push of aid can accelerate progress beyond historical norms to meet the MDGs; Sachs (e.g., 2005) is its best-known proponent. A second understanding of the MDGs is that the goals are a symbol of the outcomes towards which the development community should strive, and where new aid flows are one of several necessary conditions for progress on development indicators. This second interpretation takes the MDGs as a vision, not a practical target. Either way, Roberts (2005) notes that the MDGs will be most helpful in achieving poverty reduction if they are well-chosen in the sense of being: familiar to the main actors and stakeholders, unambiguous and readily monitored.

Progress against the MDGs is lagging in most developing countries (Table 1), but there is some success in global per capita terms, mainly because of rapid economic growth in China and India, where two-thirds of the developing world population live.

Table 1 Regional Progress in Achieving Selected Millennium Development Goals

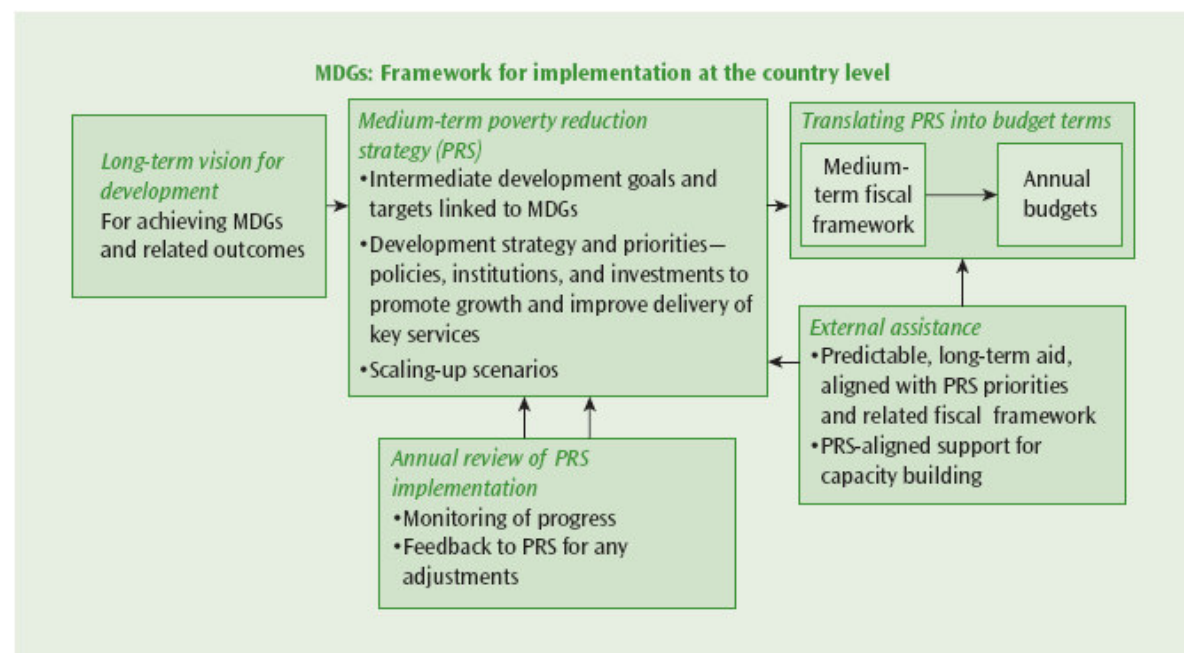
<i>Region</i>	<i>Poverty</i>	<i>Hunger</i>	<i>Primary Education</i>	<i>Child Mortality</i>	<i>Access to water</i>	<i>Access to sanitation</i>	<i>to</i>
Arab States	Achieved	Reversal	On track	Lagging	N.A.	N.A.	
Central/ Eastern Europe and CIS	Reversal	N.A.	Achieved	Lagging	Achieved	N.A.	
East Asia/ Pacific	Achieved	On track	Achieved	Lagging	Lagging	Lagging	
Latin America/ Caribbean	Lagging	On track	Achieved	On track	On track	Lagging	
South Asia	On track	Lagging	Lagging	Lagging	On track	Lagging	
Sub-Saharan Africa	Reversal	Reversal	Lagging	Lagging	Lagging	Reversal	
WORLD	On track	Lagging	Lagging	Lagging	On track	Lagging	

Source: The Worldwatch Institute.

In order to progress towards the Goals, developing-country governments formulate national poverty reduction strategies, in which MDGs are translated into national medium term goals, development strategies and matching policies. For over seventy of the world's poorest countries, these strategies now take the form of a Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (Brown, 2004).

Institutionally, the PRSP was inspired by national poverty reduction strategy documents produced in Uganda and Tanzania in the late 1990s, and by the World Bank's Comprehensive Development Framework approach originally applied only to countries in the Highly Indebted Poor Country (HIPC) programme. PRS Papers have now become among the most important documents for national planning and communicating priorities to development partners (Roberts, 2005; Swallow, 2005). McGee and Brock (2001) argue that the adoption of the PRSP framework was partly a response to critiques on the structural adjustment model, partly a concession to organisations campaigning for debt forgiveness, and also provided the Washington institutions with a means to increase and diversify the conditions attached to new lending. The UN also strongly supported the PRSP from the start as a vehicle through which country policies, programs, and resources requirements are linked to the MDGs. The PRSP is viewed as fostering ownership of poverty reduction strategies so that they are rooted in national processes of policy dialogue and accountability (World Bank and IMF, 2004; Booth and Lucas, 2004). Figure 1 illustrates the linkages between PRSPs and MDGs.

Figure 1 MDGs and PRSPs



Source: Global Monitoring Report 2005, World Bank

A PRSP describes the macroeconomic, structural and social policies and programmes that a country will pursue over several years to promote broad-based growth and reduce poverty, as well as external financing needs and the associated sources of financing (IMF, 2005). The conceptual framework provided by a PRSP aims to integrate poverty analysis, public policy, macroeconomic policies, budgetary processes and monitoring systems and attempts to do so in a participatory way. PRSPs are expected to be based on country-owned development plans and to reflect a consensus of views on national priorities (Caillods and Hallak, 2004; Harrison et al., 2003).

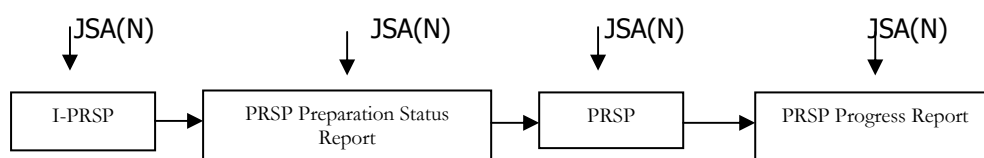
Unlike the MDGs format, there is no required set of indicators or goals that must be included in a PRSP as these are country-specific; nor is there a PRSP blueprint. But the IMF (2006) formulates as five core principles that PRSPs approach should be country-driven (promoting national ownership of strategies through broad-based participation of civil society); result-oriented and particularly focused on outcomes that will benefit the poor; comprehensive in recognizing the multidimensional nature of poverty; partnership-oriented, involving coordinated participation of development partners (government, domestic stakeholders, and external donors); and based on a long-term perspective for poverty reduction. It is unclear how important these principles are for poverty reduction. Canagarajah and Van Diesen (2006) discuss how Uganda has combined excellent progress in poverty reduction with relative neglect of PRSP principles.

According to Caillods and Hallak (2004), the dimensions of the PRSPs shared by most countries, both HIPC and non-HIPC are that they are sustained macroeconomic growth frameworks based on increasing the strength of public sectors, improving fiscal revenues boosting the private sector, expanding sectors of comparative advantage for the country, promoting rural development and developing infrastructure. The framework also emphasises the development of economic activities that benefit the labour productivity of the poor, and which are concentrated in poor regions. Other key PRSP ingredients are specifics on human development (mostly with explicit reference to health and education) and institutional development and good governance (including capacity-building of the public and private sectors).

There are several steps in the PRS Process. The majority of countries start the PRSP process with an Interim PRS Paper (I-PRSP), which, once approved, gives access to debt relief under the HIPC Initiative (IMF, 2006). An I-PRSP outlines a country's existing poverty reduction strategy and a 'road map' to a full PRS Paper. A full PRS Paper is expected to be completed within about 12 months of an I-PRSP. If a country requires more than a year between its I-PRSP and the full PRS Paper, 'PRSP Preparation Status Reports' need to be submitted in order

to qualify for continued assistance (World Bank, 2005)². Final approval of a PRS Paper is by the boards of the World Bank and IMF which, jointly with national ministries of finance, have the greatest say in the outcome of the process by which PRS Papers are developed (Calloids and Hallak, 2004). Finally, once the full PRS Paper has come into effect, it is followed up by 'PRSP Progress Reports' which describe the progress in poverty reduction. After three or four years, countries produce an updated and new PRS Paper. Each of the above documents is screened by World Bank and IMF staff, and assessed in Joint Staff Advisory Notes (JSA; the name was changed from Joint Staff Assessments in 2005), which identify priority areas for strengthening the poverty reduction strategy. These also explicitly link IMF and World Bank lending to PRSP strategy and priorities. Figure 2 depicts the PRS Process.

Figure 2. The PRS Process



By August 2005 (our time of data collection), 49 full PRSPs had been sent for approval to the IMF Executive Board, and an additional 10 countries had completed I- PRSPs (Burundi, Central African Republic, Congo DR, Republic of Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Dominica, Guinea-Bissau, Indonesia, Macedonia and Uzbekistan). These countries have been implementing their strategies, on average, for just over two and a half years. Several countries are in process of revising their original strategies and Burkina Faso, Nicaragua, Uganda and Vietnam have already submitted their second PRSP. Eleven more countries have produced interim strategies and ten have initiated processes that could result in a PRSP (World Bank and IMF, 2005). There are some countries which immediately submitted a PRSP (Burkina Faso, Mauritania, Nigeria, Timor-Leste, Bhutan, Nepal and Sri Lanka). Table 2 presents PRSP progress by country.

² <http://www.worldbank.org/poverty/strategies/overview.htm>

Table 2 Countries with Full PRSPs, medio August 2005

Early PRSPs May 2000-June 2002 2005	Later PRSPs July 2002-December 2003	Recent PRSPs January 2004-December
Albania*	Armenia	Bangladesh
Bolivia	Azerbaijan*	Bhutan
Bolivia	Benin	Bosnia and Herzegovina
Burkina Faso***	Cambodia	Cape Verde
Gambia	Cameroon	Djibouti
Guinea*	Chad	Kenya
Guyana*	Ethiopia	PDR Lao
Honduras*	Georgia	Lesotho
Malawi*	Ghana*	Moldova
Mali*	Kyrgyz Republic*	Nigeria
Mauritania**	Madagascar	Pakistan
Mozambique**	Nepal*	Sierra Leone
Nicaragua**	Pakistan	
Niger*	Sao Tome and Principe	
Rwanda*	Serbia and Montenegro	
Senegal*	Sri Lanka	
Tajikistan*		
Tanzania***		
Timor-Leste		
Uganda***		
Vietnam*		
Yemen		
Zambia*		

*, ** and *** indicate one, two or three Annual Progress Reports (APRs)

Based on the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (2004) Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers – Progress in Implementation.

Many observers argue in general terms for the benefits that PRSPs bring; but little specific evidence has been marshalled to date. Booth (2003) finds evidence that in some countries, PRSPs have increased awareness and commitment within public administrations and among policy makers of poverty reduction policies and objectives, improved the quality of poverty reduction strategies, and invited a substantial transformation of the aid relationship. Swallow (2005) documents that analysts generally agree that PRSPs have placed poverty reduction at the centre of national planning processes, and that PRS processes have generally been more transparent and participatory than other national planning processes.

Two general concerns regarding the PRSP are that the interim and finalised PRS documents give relatively low priority to sectors that many development specialists regard as important for reducing poverty — agriculture, human health, environmental conservation and water supply – and that PRSPs are implemented in a top-down, technocratic manner at a time when most governments are decentralising administration and devolving authority to lower levels of administration (Vandermoortele, 2004). Roberts (2005) finds PRSPs are at their most powerful where there are reforms in budget management which reinforce the primacy in policy and resource allocation of the Ministry of Finance, which emphasise performance and results, and which crystallise these in Medium Term Expenditure Frameworks. Dijkstra (2005) examines the experiences of Bolivia, Honduras and Nicaragua, and finds no clear evidence

that the PRS Process has improved aid effectiveness in these HIPCs. Oxfam (2004) argues that, while PRSPs have been a step forward, the promise of the PRSPs' contribution to poverty reduction remains largely unfulfilled (although experiences vary greatly from country to country). In an analysis of the progress in implementation of the PRSPs, World Bank and IMF (2004) likewise find much variation across countries as well as within individual countries' strategies. They also find that countries have made good progress in addressing the more straightforward challenges inherent in the approach. Poverty analysis is generally good, strategies recognize the importance of growth and macroeconomic stability, indicators lists are being rationalised, and sectoral coverage is broadening. But the challenges that remain are technically difficult and institutionally complex. For example, the analysis of the sources of growth and its distributional impact remains relatively weak and countries have also experienced difficulties in marrying their aspirations for the future with the resource and capacity constraint of the present. Barbone and Sharkey (2005) discuss for 50 countries how the PRS process has had its main impact in the area of policy processes, and not on participatory governance in those processes.

The PRS process has brought the UN organizations and the Washington institutions together in a partnership that did not exist before. In this sense, the late-1990s UN-led criticism on the 'Washington Consensus' paradigm in development (e.g., Stiglitz, 1999) has been superseded by the MDG/PRSP approach to development, though without adapting its core assumptions. Rodrik (2003) therefore terms this augmented paradigm the 'Washington Consensus Mark II'. Its key feature is the increased emphasis on short-term poverty reduction in addition to economic rationalization goals. The MDG/PRSP approach to development is very much micro-economic, focusing almost entirely on factors that directly and immediately affect the lives of poor people (health, education, sanitation, discrimination, and so on). Unlike the original (Mark I) Washington Consensus, it does not argue for a consensus view on economic policies but instead focuses on social outcomes, and is silent on the challenges to the Washington Consensus, allowing its policy practice to continue under the new flag of the MDG/PRSP project or, as Barbone and Sharkey (2005) note, as 'old wine in new bottles'. Joint Washington Consensus (mark I) style policies and pursuance of MDG objectives are indeed promoted by Sachs (2005) and others. Thus the MDG/PRSP project in development practice is an augmentation rather than a replacement of the original Washington Consensus.

Two concerns about the MDG/PRSP approach are its short-term focus and its fragmentation. The MDG/PRSP project is focused on short-term (pre-2015) improvements in a large number of well-being indicators, ranging from poverty headcounts to infant mortality to education enrolment rates. This may preclude the full benefits in terms of poverty reduction via, for instance, agricultural investments and its linkages to the wider economy, which materialize

over the course of decades, not years. Such agricultural sector programs have historically been the most effective poverty reduction avenues for developing countries, as numerous studies show (Ravallion, 1996; Gallup et al., 1997; Timmer, 2002; Bravo-Ortega and Lederman, 2005). But they do not provide guarantees of delivering improvements in most of the 48 indicators monitored in the MDG project within the nine years until 2015. Yet this is the avowed aim of the project, and thus there is an incompatibility in time frames between the historically surest way of poverty reduction and the MDG/PRSP development paradigm. Since improvement in MDG indicators is predicated on poverty reduction, this throws some doubt on the efficacy of a PRSP approach in achieving MDGs. We will now proceed to empirically examine this efficacy.

III. Methodology, Variables and Data

Our methodology is a cross-country regression estimation of country-level changes in MDG indicators on a country's PRSP attributes, of the form

$$\Delta Y_{G,I,i} = C + \beta_j \text{PRSP}_{ij} + \beta_i T_n + \varepsilon$$

Where $\Delta Y_{G,I,i}$ is the growth rate in indicator "I", for MDG "G" observed in country i, PRSP_{ij} are the j PRSP attributes observed for country i, T_n are n control variables appropriate to indicator I, C is a constant and ε is an *iid* error term.

Clearly the largest challenges to this analysis is that of the definition and measurement of appropriate variables, and of data availability and quality. While the launch of the PRSP approach and the renewed international focus on the MDGs have helped to improve data availability and quality — especially in poverty outcomes and impacts — through better, more regular, and more timely surveys (Harrison et al., 2004), data on the development aims are still sparse and defective (Lievesley, 2003).

III.1 MDG and controls data and variables

About 60 countries are involved in the PRSP Process since 1999; a year later, in September 2000, the MDGs were acknowledged by the UN Member states. Appendix II provides an overview of their PRSP related published documents, by country and in sequence of the date of publication. For these countries (listed in Appendix II) we performed an exhaustive search for data on the 48 indicators for the 18 targets connected to the 8 MDGs. Unfortunately limitations on useful data turned out to be such that we are able to research only three MDGs. These are: goal 2 - to achieve universal primary education, goal 3 – to promote gender equality and empower women and goal 4 – to reduce child mortality. After reviewing many data collection options, for reasons of consistency and data availability we settled for this study on World Development Indicators 2005 and the UN Millennium Development Goal Indicator Database. In our estimations, we take the change in the official indicators of each MDGs as the dependent variable:

$$\Delta Y_{G,I} = [(I_{j,t_n} - I_{j,t_0}) / I_{j,t_0}] \times 100$$

Where $\Delta Y_{G,I}$ is the growth rate in indicator "I" for MDG "G" and Z_{j,t_n} is the observation of a variable "Z", for an individual country "j", in a year "t_n". Z_{j,t_0} is the observation of the same

variable "Z", for the same country "j", in a period before "t₀". Ideally, t₀ is 1999, but often only a later year was available. For t_n the latest available year was taken – mostly 2003, sometimes 2002.

For our MDG indicators and controls, we use data on school enrolment and completion rates, literacy, gender parity, health, income, and urbanization. They are collected from by UNESCO, UNICEF and WHO sources. Appendix III presents the dependents (three indicators for each of MDGs 2,3 and 4) and the controls. In the Appendix we also provide a motivation for our choice of control variables, based on the literature.

III.2 PRSP data and variables

In this subsection we suggest feasible measures for the quality of a country's PRSP, and seek to relate these measures to a country's progress towards the MDGs. The task is daunting, as any reader who ever read through an entire PRSP will agree. But as a first stab, we suggest four measures:

- 1) Speed in the PRS process. Given the lack of participation in policy making noted in the literature review (e.g. Barbone and Sharkey,2005), a danger to PRSP effectiveness is a fast rubber-stamp PRS process. Thus, while a lack of domestic support and 'ownership' is difficult to observe, we assume that speedy progression from I-PRSP full PRSP and beyond is a proxy. Appendix IV provides full details on data and measurement of the 'speed' variable.
- 2) the start date of the PRS process. Since the PRS process is still young, there are plausibly important learning effects. The further back therefore the start of the PRS process is from August 2005 (our time of measurement), the less opportunity there has been for learning. Thus later start dates would make for more effective PRSPs, in the sense of observed effects. Appendix IV provides also details on data and measurement of the 'start date' variable.
- 3) The quality of policy recommendations made in the Report, and
- 4) the presence of specific targets and indicators in the Report.

We elaborate on 3) and 4). To bring some focus to an examination of policy recommendations, targets and indicators as proxies for the quality of PRSP as policy guidelines, we examined its recorded policy intentions with regard to agriculture (the largest sector of most developing economies) and more broadly to rural development policies. This restriction to one sector precludes some potentially confounding problems in the comparability of policies across different sectors of the economy, while maintaining a broad relevance – the agricultural sector accounts for much of recorded employment and value-

added, on average in developing economies. It is also typically the largest provider of informal employment and main source of unrecorded output. This choice is particularly suited to a study of the effectiveness of poverty reduction policies; globally about 70 % of the poor live in rural areas and depend largely or completely on agricultural production for their livelihoods.

We study rural development aspects of 44 Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers³, and consider two indicators of policy making quality, for each of nine issues in the rural economy. The policy quality indicators are: (i) the formulation of targets or indicators and (ii) the formulation of policy actions. The nine rural issues are: farm income, non-farm income, gender, human development, economic infrastructure, natural capital & productivity, financial assets, social capital and finally macro-micro linkages. An assessment of each issue was captured in a brief summary, based on a reading of the complete PRSP. This assessment was then reflected in a score on a 0-3 scale, where score 0 indicates that the issue is not mentioned in the PRSP, score 1 indicates that the issue is mentioned in the PRSP but not elaborated, score 2 indicates that the issue is also elaborated, and a 3 score indicates that the issue is discussed in line with internationally accepted standards ('good practice'). Some issues were subdivided into several topics, each of which was scored (e.g. human capital received scores on education, labour market and gender equality). Dividing actual scores by maximum scores (three times the number topics) produces 'relative scores' fractions comparable over the nine issues. Finally, we calculated the average score over all nine issues. This results in two variables per PRSP indicating the quality of targets & indicators, and of proposed policy actions, varying in value between 0 and 1.

These scores also allow us to explore another frequently noted problem with the MDG project, and with PRSPs: their fragmentation. Accounts of development as e.g. in Rodrik (2003) suggest that graduations to middle-income countries have been preceded and accompanied by a focus on (often agricultural) investments that absorbed a substantial part of a country's resources and was consistently sustained over a number of years (most often, decades). Some argue that such focus and stamina, and thereby realistic development prospects, is excluded by a simultaneous focus on 18 short-term development indicators inducing a thin spreading of limited development resources (e.g. Easterley, 2005).

³ The PRSPs we consider are on Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Burkina Faso, Cambodia, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Djibouti, Ethiopia, The Gambia, Georgia, Ghana, Guinea, Guyana, Honduras, Kenya, Kyrgyz Republic, Lao PDR, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Moldova, Mongolia, Mozambique, Nepal, Nicaragua, Niger, Pakistan, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Sri Lanka, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Uganda, Vietnam, Yemen and Zambia. We thank World Bank staff for making these data available. A full description of the analysis and an overview of findings is in World Bank (2006)

In order to explore the fragmentation problem, we calculated the score on each subject as a percentage of the total score for that PRSP. We then computed, per PRSP, a Herfindahl-like index by summing the squared percentages. Thus this 'concentration index' varies between one for PRSPs that are completely focused on only one topic, and 0.11 for reports that have equal score on all nine topics. It increases in the number of topics discussed and in equality of scores over topics.

We have thus constructed two indicators of PRS process quality (named START and SPEED), for 60 countries, and four indicators for PRS Paper quality (average score and a concentration index, both for the areas of target & indicators and policy actions; named TI, PA, HTI and HPA), for 44 countries. Based on the literature, we additionally selected control variables which are likely to affect the outcomes of goals 2, 3 and 4. We motivate our choice of controls in Appendix IV. Table 3 provides descriptive statistics of MDG outcomes, PRSP quality measures, and control variables.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
<i>MDG indicators</i>					
SE	35	-7,3147	43,7184	10,6504353	14,5048550
YL	31	,0000	9,3484	3,349919	2,5570988
PCR	38	-17,3077	68,7500	14,607013	21,7247864
GTB_EDU	41	-5,6498	20,1195	3,348701	4,9415907
GTB_LIT	38	,0000	12,9461	3,085264	2,7469231
WEMPL	23	-6,1538	16,3142	3,238690	5,0637454
U5MR	60	-25,0000	4,7619	-6,040108	6,6468401
IMR	59	-18,7500	5,3333	-5,254933	5,5555013
MEASLES	57	-23,2877	47,0588	6,819008	14,6104010
<i>PRSP indicators</i>					
PA	44	0.06	0.59	0.32	0.12
TI	44	0.00	0.39	0.14	0.09
HPI	44	0.14	8.44	1.23	1.90
HTI	43	0.14	2.56	0.53	0.51
START	60	0	10	7.60	2.69
SPEED	60	0	8	4.30	2.81
<i>Controls</i>					
LITFADU	40	8,1170	98,7366	57,670263	26,8354056
GDP	60	95,8678	3761,6158	527,345991	534,5203651
URBPOP	59	6,0542	83,7480	36,373322	17,5959401
SLENROL	38	27,1364	99,6573	71,454426	20,0569379
LIFEXP	58	37,2683	75,9512	56,253997	10,9063378
PUPTEACH	54	16,8427	68,6207	39,648639	13,9250298
IMPWATER	59	22	98	68,64	17,787
HEXPTOT	60	2,2	10,8	5,210	1,9536
BIRTHRAT	59	10,6	52,4	33,902	11,3393
POPFEM	57	48,4202	53,4456	50,405672	,9860386
FERTIL	58	1,2900	7,4000	4,595638	1,6941149

MDG indicators:

SE: school enrolment primary (% net), Δ 1999-2004
YL: literacy rate, youth total (% of people ages 15-24), Δ 1999-2002
PCR: primary completion rate, total (% of relevant age group), Δ 1999-2003
GTB_EDU: ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education (%), % Δ 1998-2002
GTB_LIT: ratio of young literate females to males (% ages 15-24), % Δ 1998-2002
WEMPL: women wage employment in non-agricultural sector (% of total non-agricultural), % Δ 1999 & 2003
U5MR: under-5 mortality rate (per 1,000), Δ 2000 & 2003
IMR: infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births), Δ 2000 & 2003
MEASLES: measles immunisation (% of children ages 12-23 months), Δ 2000 & 2003

PRSP quality variables:

START, SPEED: PRSP start date, PRSP process speed
TI, PA: average of nine PRSP scores on quality of rural policy targets & indicators; idem, on proposed Policy Actions
HTI, HPA: Herfindahl index of scores on quality of rural policy targets & indicators, idem, on proposed Policy Actions

Control variables:

LITFADU: adult female literacy rate (% of females ages 15 and above), 1999
GDP: GDP per capita (constant 2000 US\$), 1999
URBPOP: urban population (% of total), 1999
SLENROL: primary school enrolment (% net), 1999
LIFEXP: life expectancy at birth, total (years), 1997
PUPTEACH: primary pupil-teacher ratio, 1998-2000
IMPWATER: improved water source (% of population with access), 2002
HEXPTOT: total health expenditure (% of GDP), 1999
BIRTHRATE: crude birth rate (per 1,000 people), 1997
POPFEM: population, female (% of total), 1999
FERTIL: fertility rate, total (births per woman), 1997:

IV Model Selection and Analysis

The set of potential independents includes the six PRSP variables and controls. Selection of the models to be estimated was guided by three considerations: (1) to solve multicollinearity problems between independents; (2) to reduce the number of independents such that an estimable model resulted, given the limited number of country observations; and (3) to be able to assess the explanatory power of PRSP-related in comparison to control variables. No single specification answers best to each of these three aims, and ideally for each relation that we estimate a series of models should be specified in order to explore the trade-offs between model fit, orthogonality between the independents, and explanatory contributions of PRSP-related variables versus control variables. While these explorations were part of our research, in the interest of brevity we present below only two models for each of the nine relations that we estimate: one model with only PRSP related variables, and one 'best fit' model including controls.

The 'best fit' model was constructed in two steps. We first estimated the model with all independents, compute Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) for each, and if there were VIF values in excess of 5 (which corresponds to an adjusted R² for the auxiliary regression of over 0.80), we removed the variable with the largest VIF. We repeated the process until all Variance Inflation Factor values were below 5. This addressed the multicollinearity problem. Second, because generally the number of independents is still too large given the number of observations, we estimate this model using Hendry's general-to-specific stepwise reduction method, with $p < 0.20$. We chose this probability cut-off value of 0.20 because many variables exhibit low statistical significance, plausibly due to statistical not substantial reasons: variability in many dependents is quite low (table 3). To preserve comparability, we also estimate the model with only PRSP related variables excluding variables with VIF over 5 and in stepwise fashion. Thus we do not impose that PRSP-related variables be part of the 'best fit' model. We report full model results including coefficients with $p > 0.10$ so that we avoid missing substantial significance by selection based on strict statistical significance only (McCloskey 2000). For all models, Jarque-Bera test statistics indicated that errors were approximately normally distributed. We experimented with transforming the independent variables into logarithms but this did not produce qualitatively different outcomes. Tables 4a, 4b and 4c report estimation result for each of the three MDGs we considered. Table 5 provides a summary of findings.

Table 4a: MDG 2 and PRSPs: Estimation Results

Dependent	Δ Primary school enrolment		Δ Primary completion rate		Δ Youth literacy rate	
	Best fit	PRSP only	Best fit	PRSP only	Best fit	PRSP only
<i>PRSP variables</i>						
START		10.02**				
SPEED		7.00***				
PA		29.9***			16.46*	15.37*
TI	-71.86*					
HPA		7.72**			-0.80	-0.94**
HTI						
<i>controls</i>						
LIFE	-1.33***					
URBAN			-0.27			
TEACHERS			0.35**			
(CONSTANT)	101.48***	-85.56 **	-2.99	15.75***	2.44	-0.21
N	20	27	23	31	22	24
F-Statistic	7.73***	4.72***	6.77***	0	2.55*	3.17*
Adjusted R ²	0.47	0.36	0.34	0	0.18	0.16

Note: p < 0.01, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.1. Reported coefficients without asterisks have p < 0.2. The full model is reported. Sources: World Bank and UN data and authors' calculations.

Table 4b – MDG 3 and PRSPs: Estimation Results

Dependent	Δ Ratio of girls to boys in education		Δ Ratio of young literate females to males		Δ Women in wage employment in non-agricultural sector	
	Best fit	PRSP only	Best fit	PRSP only	Best fit	PRSP only
<i>PRSP variables</i>						
START						
SPEED		1.01**		0.47*		
PA					15.97*	
TI	-1.66*					19.85*
HPA					-2.49**	
HTI					8.35***	4.17*
<i>controls</i>						
LIT	-0.08***		-0.10***		0.11**	
GDP			0.002		-0.009***	
URBAN	-0.06*					
(CONSTANT)	10.47***	-1.53	7.88***	0.58	-8.24**	-1.61
N	24	33	24	28	13	18
F-Statistic	11.49***	6.37**	16.02***	3.92*	8.75***	3.85**
Adjusted R ²	0.58	0.14	0.57	0.10	0.76	0.25

Note: p < 0.01, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.1. Reported coefficients without asterisks have p < 0.2. The full model is reported. Sources: World Bank and UN data and authors' calculations.

Table 4c – MDG 4 and PRSPs: Estimation Results

Dependent	Δ Under 5 mortality rate		Δ Infant mortality rate		Δ Measles immunization	
	Best fit	PRSP only	Best fit	PRSP only	Best fit	PRSP only
<i>PRSP variables</i>						
START	1.13*	0.88**				
SPEED	- 2.29***	-0.83**	-1.27**			
PA		-19.15***		-12.12*		
TI					-58.80	
HPA	-1.54*		0.95	-1.02		
HTI				3.72		
<i>controls</i>						
BIRTHRATE	0.29***		0.30**			
LIFE						
LIT			0.08		-0.32**	
GDP	-0.005		0.006*		-0.02*	
URBAN						
TEACHERS						
(CONSTANT)	11.94*	-3.30	-11.33	-2.12	47.51***	10.25***
N	13	43	30	43	30	43
F-Statistic	13.67***	8.08***	4.14***	2.84*	5.58***	0
Adjusted R ²	0.69	0.34	0.35	0.12	0.32	0

Note: p < 0.01, ** p < 0.05, *** p<0.1. Reported coefficients without asterisks have p< 0.2. The full model is reported. Sources: World Bank and UN data and authors' calculations.

Table 5: Summary of Estimation Results

	education		Gender parity		Child mortality	
	Number of times PRSP variables included, total of three indicator models (p<0.10)					
	In PRSP models only	Also in best fit models	In PRSP models only	Also in best fit models	In PRSP models only	Also in best fit models
START	1				1	1
SPEED	1		2		1	1
PA	2	1			2	
TI			1			
HPA	2				1	
HTI			1	1		
All	6	1	4	1	5	2
	Variation explained in indicators 1, 2, 3 in PRSP and best fit models (adjusted R2s)					
	PRSP: 36, 0, 16 % Best fit: 37, 34, 18 %		PRSP: 14, 10, 25 % Best fit: 58, 57, 76 %		PRSP: 34, 12, 0 % Best fit: 69, 35, 32 %	

The bottom row of table 5 indicates that we find great differences in PRSP model performances as judged by the variation in indicator values it can explain. Bad model performance is indicated by low R2 as well as small and less significant F statistics, and insignificant intercepts (reported in tables 4a, 4b, and 4c). The best results are that two of the PRSP-only models for MDG2 perform about equally well as the best fit model; but the third one has no explanatory power at all. Of the other six (MDG3 and MDG 4) models, four have R2s of only about a third of those achieved by the best fit models. The other two are very weak indeed. Overall, we conclude that PRSP variables provide a good explanation of variation in MDG outcomes for two of the nine MDG indicators we examined. An additional four models have reasonable explanatory power, and three are useless.

The top part of the table probes the robustness of PRSP effects to including control variables. One reading of the findings is to conclude that there is no general link between any of the six PRSP attributes that we constructed to broad MDG progress: overall, no single PRSP variable appears robustly in more than one of the nine models, and in two models none of the six PRSP variables was included. A more sanguine interpretation (also supported by the findings) is to note that in seven of the nine best-fit models, one or several PRSP variables are included as explaining MDG progress. Based on this one could argue that in most relations that we analyzed, PRSP features are instrumental in MDG progress alongside control variables. A balanced overall conclusion would be that evidence of linkages between PRSP features and MDG indicators exists, but is highly dependent on context and not generalizable to 'the' MDGs or to 'PRSPs' as such.

Let us look at the specific effects. While SPEED is most often significantly included in the PRSP-only models, its effect is not constant over MDG indicators: in three PRSP-only models it appears with a positive coefficient, in one (on under-five mortality) with negative sign. This negative effect is robust to inclusion of control variables in the 'best fit' model while the positive effects are not. The same is true for START, which enters positively and robustly in the same model (though less significantly). Likewise, better quality of policy actions proposed in PRSPs has a robust effect on youth literacy; and more focus in formulating targets and indicators is robustly associated with progress in creating female employment. This suggests that a more careful and involved PRS process, greater focus in targets and indicators, a later start date allowing for learning processes, and better policy recommendations, can all make for more effective PRSPs. We note that these findings would be highly tentative conclusions, as each of the effects is not robustly observable in the other eight models.

Finally, the best fit models indicate, unsurprisingly, that the PRSP variables seem to offer generally less explanatory power than the controls. In most (six of nine) best fit models,

more control than PRSP variables are included. The youth literacy model selects PRSP only, and female employment is explained by three PRSP variables and two controls. An interesting finding is that the quality of Targets & Indicators appears significantly in three best fit models, but not in the matching PRSP-only models. This suggests that its effect is conditional on the circumstances captured by the controls.

V Summary, Discussion and Conclusion (*to be completed*)

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Appendix I – Overview MDGs, Targets and Indicators

Goal 1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

Target 1

Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day

Indicators

1. Proportion of population below \$1 (1993 PPP) per day
2. Poverty gap ratio [incidence x depth of poverty]
3. Share of poorest quintile in national consumption

Target 2

Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger

Indicators

4. Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age
5. Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption

Goal 2. Achieve universal primary education

Target 3

Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling

Indicators

6. Net enrolment ratio in primary education
7. Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach grade 5
8. Literacy rate of 15-24 year-olds

Goal 3. Promote gender equality and empower women

Target 4

Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015

Indicators

9. Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education
10. Ratio of literate women to men, 15-24 years old
11. Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector
12. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament

Goal 4. Reduce child mortality

Target 5

Reduce by two thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate

Indicators

13. Under-five mortality rate
14. Infant mortality rate
15. Proportion of 1 year-old children immunized against measles

Goal 5. Improve maternal health

Target 6

Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio

Indicators

16. Maternal mortality rate
17. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel

Goal 6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases

Target 7

Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS

Indicators

18. HIV prevalence among pregnant women ages 15-24 years
19. Condom use rate of the contraceptive prevalence rate
 - a. Condom use at last high-risk sex
 - b. Percentage of population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS
 - c. Contraceptive prevalence rate
20. Ratio of school attendance of orphans to school attendance of non-orphans aged 10-14 years

Target 8

Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases

Indicators

21. Prevalence and death rates associated with malaria
22. Proportion of population in malaria-risk areas using effective malaria prevention and treatment measures
23. Prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis
24. Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under DOTS (Internationally recommended TB control strategy)

Appendix II – Marks on PRSP approach

Mark on PRSP Start:

January 2000 – June 2000	11
July 2000 – December 2000	10
January 2001 – June 2001	9
July 2001 – December 2001	8
January 2002 - June 20027	
July 2002 – December 2002	6
January 2003 – June 2003	5
July 2003 – December 2003	4
January 2004 – June 2004	3
July 2004 – December 2004	2
2005	1

Mark on PRSP Speed:

Directly PRSP	9
1-15 months	8
16-20 months	7
21-25 months	6
26-30 months	5
31-35 months	4
36-40 months	3
≥ 40 months	2
No PRSP	1

Country	Mark PRSP start	Mark PRSP speed	Country	Mark PRSP start	Mark PRSP speed
Albania	11	7	Kyrgyz Republic	9	7
Armenia	9	4	Lao PDR	9	3
Azerbaijan	9	6	Lesotho	10	3
Bangladesh	5	4	Macedonia, FYR	10	1
Benin	11	5	Madagascar	10	4
Bhutan	2	9	Malawi	10	7
Bolivia	11	8	Mali	10	6
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3	9	Mauritania	10	9
Burkina Faso	11	9	Moldova	10	2
Burundi	4	1	Mongolia	9	6
Cambodia	10	5	Mozambique	11	8
Cameroon	10	4	Nepal	5	9
Cape Verde	7	4	Nicaragua	10	8
Central African Republic	10	1	Niger	10	7
Chad	10	3	Nigeria	3	9
Congo, Dem. Rep.	7	1	Pakistan	8	5
Congo, Rep.	2	1	Rwanda	10	7
Cote d'Ivoire	7	1	Sao Tome and Principe	11	4
Djibouti	9	4	Senegal	11	6
Dominica	4	1	Serbia and Montenegro	6	9
Ethiopia	10	7	Sierra Leone	9	2
Gambia, The	10	7	Sri Lanka	6	9
Georgia	10	4	Tajikistan	11	5
Ghana	11	4	Tanzania	11	8
Guinea	10	8	Timor-Leste	7	9
Guinea-Bissau	10	1	Uganda	11	9
Guyana	10	7	Uzbekistan	1	1
Honduras	11	7	Vietnam	9	8
Indonesia	5	1	Yemen, Rep.	10	7
Kenya	10	2	Zambia	10	6

Appendix III – Overview PRSP process per country

Source: World Bank, January 2006

Albania

Jun 18, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Apr 30, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
Jun 13, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
May 8, 2003	PRSP Progress Report
May 28, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
May 20, 2002	Supplement to PRSP
Nov 30, 2001	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
May 3, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)

Armenia

April 8, 2005	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) of the PRSP Progress Report
Dec 2004	PRSP Progress Report
Dec 2, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Nov 20, 2003	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Sep 18, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Sep 2, 2002	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Apr 27, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Mar 1, 2001	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)

Azerbaijan

Aug 12, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
May 26, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
Apr 15, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Apr 1, 2003	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Jun 5, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
May 30, 2001	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)

Bangladesh

Oct 16, 2005	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Jun 5, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Mar 31, 2003	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)

Benin

June 3, 2005	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) of PRSP Progress Report
Dec, 2004	PRSP Annual Progress Report
Feb 21, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Dec 30, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Oct 16, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Oct 12, 2001	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Jun 26, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP), with Annex

Bhutan

Dec 2, 2004	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) for PRSP
Aug 11, 2004	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)

Bolivia

May 10, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP (also available in Spanish)
Mar 31, 2001	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Jan 13, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP), with Annex

Bosnia and Herzegovina

May 21, 2004	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) of PRSP
Mar 31, 2004	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)

Burkina Faso

Apr 11, 2005	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) of PRSP
Dec, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
July 2004	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Feb 6, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Dec 31, 2003	PRSP Progress Report
Oct 8, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Sep 30, 2002	PRSP Progress Report
Oct 31, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Sep 30, 2001	PRSP Progress Report
Jun 7, 2000	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
May 25, 2000	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) (also available in French)

Burundi

Jan 6, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Nov 30, 2003	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)

Cambodia

Aug 25, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Aug 19, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
Jan 23, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP

Dec 20, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Jan 22, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Dec 24, 2001	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Dec 26, 2000	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Oct 20, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Cameroon	
Apr 30, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
Jul 8, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Apr 30, 2003	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Jan 10, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Dec 28, 2001	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Aug 23, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Cape Verde	
Dec 7, 2004	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) for PRSP
Sep 2004	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Jul 21, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Jun 15, 2004	PRSP Preparation Status Report
May 30, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Apr 30, 2003	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Mar 21, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Jan 31, 2002	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Central African Republic	
Dec 13, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Chad	
Oct 6, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Jun 30, 2003	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Dec 21, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Nov 30, 2001	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Jul 16, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Congo, Democratic Republic of the	
Jun 28, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP Preparation Status Report
Jun 28, 2004	I-PRSP Preparation Status Report
Jul 8, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP Preparation Status Report
Jun 30, 2003	I-PRSP Preparation Status Report
May 24, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Mar 31, 2002	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP) (also available in French)
Congo, Republic of the	
Nov 17, 2004	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) for I-PRSP
Sep 27, 2004	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Cote d'Ivoire	
Mar 13, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Jan 31, 2002	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP) (also available in French)
Djibouti	
May 12, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Mar 31, 2004	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Dec 12, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Dec 12, 2002	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Nov 6, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Jun 30, 2001	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Dominica	
Dec 11, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Nov 30, 2003	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Ethiopia	
Jan 16, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Dec 31, 2003	PRSP Progress Report
Aug 27, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Jul 31, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Jan 25, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Nov 30, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
The Gambia	
Oct, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
Jun 20, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Apr 30, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Nov 16, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Nov 16, 2001	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Oct 5, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Georgia	
June 1, 2005	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) of PRSP

Jan 31, 2005	PRSP Progress Report
Aug 20, 2005	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Jun 30, 2003	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Jun 27, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
May 30, 2002	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Dec 4, 2000	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Nov 30, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Ghana	
Jun 8, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Mar 31, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
Mar 4, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Feb 19, 2003	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Feb 4, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Feb 4, 2002	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Jun 30, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Guinea	
Nov 23, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Apr 30, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
Jul 1, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Jan 31, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Oct 30, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP) (also available in French)
Guinea-Bissau	
Sep 30, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Guyana	
Dec 10, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
Aug 30, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
May 23, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Oct 30, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Honduras	
Mar 8, 2005	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) of PRSP Second Annual Progress Report
Jan 31, 2005	PRSP Progress Report
Feb 2, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Dec 30, 2003	PRSP Progress Report
Sep 17, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Aug 31, 2001	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
	Link to popular version
Apr 13, 2000	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Apr 13, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Indonesia	
Mar 31, 2003	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Kenya	
Apr 9, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Mar 12, 2004	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Nov 7, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Sep 12, 2003	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Jul 12, 2000	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Jul 12, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Kyrgyz Republic	
Jun 4, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Apr 30, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
Jan 24, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Dec 9, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Nov 14, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Nov 1, 2001	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Jun 13, 2001	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Lao P.D.R.	
Dec 2, 2004	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) for PRSP
Jun 30, 2004	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Aug 15, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Jul 31, 2003	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Jul 12, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
May 31, 2002	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Apr 6, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Mar 20, 2001	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP), with Policy Matrix and Table 1
Lesotho	
July, 2005	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Aug 23, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Jul 31, 2004	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Apr 23, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Jan 31, 2002	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Feb 5, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Dec 31, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Macedonia, FYR	

Nov 10, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Madagascar	
Sep 15, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Jul 31, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
Oct 22, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Jul 31, 2003	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) (also available in French)
Dec 6, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Nov 18, 2002	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Nov 20, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Malawi	
July 22, 2005	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) of PRSP Progress Report
Feb 2005	PRSP Annual Progress Report
Oct 10, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Oct 10, 2003	PRSP Progress Report
Aug 23, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Apr 23, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Aug 31, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Mali	
Aug 24, 2005	PRSP Progress Report
May 26, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Apr 30, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
Feb 13, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
May 29, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) (also available in French)
Nov 29, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Nov 29, 2001	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Jul 19, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP) (also available in French)
Mauritania	
Jun 27, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Jun 27, 2002	PRSP Progress Report
Apr 29, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Mar 31, 2002	PRSP Progress Report
Jan 12, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Dec 13, 2000	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) (also available in French)
Moldova	
Nov 2, 2004	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) for PRSP
May 31, 2004	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Jun 19, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Apr 24, 2002	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Apr 21, 2002	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Nov 15, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Mongolia	
Nov, 2005	PRSP Progress Report
Sep 19, 2005	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) of PRSP
Aug 14, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Jul 3, 2003	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Sep 10, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Jun 30, 2001	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Mozambique	
Jun 10, 2005	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) of PRSP Progress Report
Jun 7, 2005	PRSP Annual Progress Report
May 2004	PRSP Progress Report
Jun 5, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Feb 28, 2003	PRSP Progress Report
Aug 28, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Apr 30, 2001	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Mar 27, 2000	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Feb 16, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)
Nepal	
June, 2005	PRSP Progress Report
Oct 24, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
May 30, 2003	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Nicaragua	
Nov, 2005	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Dec 18, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Nov 30, 2003	PRSP Progress Report
Nov 19, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Nov 30, 2002	PRSP Progress Report
Aug 27, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Jul 31, 2001	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Sep 21, 2000	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Aug 15, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP), with Annex
Niger	

Jan 27, 2005	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) for PRSP Progress Report
Jul 31, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
Oct 20, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Jul 31, 2003	PRSP Progress Report
Jan 16, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Jan 16, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Oct 6, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)

Nigeria

Dec, 2005	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Oct 06, 2005	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) of PRSP

Pakistan

Feb 12, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Dec 31, 2003	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Jan 31, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Jan 30, 2003	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Nov 15, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Nov 1, 2001	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)

Rwanda

Mar 22, 2005	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) of PRSP
Oct 31, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
May 6, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Jun 30, 2003	PRSP Progress Report
Jul 18, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Jun 30, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Nov 30, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)

Sao Tome and Principe

Mar 14, 2005	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) of PRSP
Jan, 2005	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) Update
Dec 31, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Apr 6, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)

Senegal

Dec 6, 2004	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) of PRSP Progress Report
Mar 31, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
Dec 2, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
May 31, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) (also available in French)
Mar 20, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Dec 10, 2001	PRSP Preparation Status Report
May 8, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)

Serbia and Montenegro

Feb 18, 2004	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) and Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of the PRSP
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Sierra Leone

Apr 13, 2005	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) of PRSP
Mar, 2005	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Sep 15, 2004	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Apr 8, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Feb 12, 2003	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Jul 16, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Jun 30, 2001	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)

Sri Lanka

Mar 18, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Dec 5, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)

Tajikistan

Nov 10, 2005	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) of PRSP Progress Report
Jun, 2005	PRSP Progress Report
Jun 2, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Mar 31, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
Nov 13, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Jun 30, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Mar 24, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)

Tanzania

Jul 21, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Apr 30, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
May 5, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Mar 31, 2003	PRSP Progress Report
Nov 1, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Aug 14, 2001	PRSP Progress Report
Nov 2, 2000	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Oct 1, 2000	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Mar 14, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP), with map

Timor-Leste

Apr 29, 2005	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) of PRSP
May 20, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)

Uganda

Jun 23, 2005	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) of PRSP
Apr, 2005	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Aug 13, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Aug 13, 2003	PRSP Progress Report
Aug 26, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Mar 31, 2002	PRSP Progress Report
Mar 9, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Mar 2, 2001	PRSP Progress Report
Mar 24, 2000	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)

Uzbekistan

April 19, 2005	Joint Staff Advisory Note of (JSAN) I-PRSP
Mar, 2005	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP) (English)
Mar, 2005	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP) (Russian)

Vietnam

Nov 30, 2003	PRSP Progress Report
Nov 30, 2003	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Nov 30, 2003	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Jun 6, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
May 31, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Mar 14, 2001	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)

Yemen

Jul 15, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
May 31, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Dec 31, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)

Zambia

Mar 2, 2005	Joint Staff Advisory Note (JSAN) of PRSP Annual Progress Report
Feb 28, 2005	Supplement to PRSP Progress Report
Dec 31, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
May 20, 2004	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Progress Report
Mar 31, 2004	PRSP Progress Report
May 31, 2002	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP
Mar 31, 2002	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
Oct 22, 2001	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of PRSP Preparation Status Report
Sep 28, 2001	PRSP Preparation Status Report
Jul 12, 2000	Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) of I-PRSP
Jul 7, 2000	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP)

Appendix IV – Motivation of Control Variables

Table 4: MDG indicators and Controls

indicators	Controls (add abbreviations)
MDG 2	
$\Delta Y_{2.1}$ = SE = primary school enrolment (% net), Δ 1999-2000 $\Delta Y_{2.2}$ = YL = total youth literacy rate, (% of people ages 15-24), Δ 1999-2002 $\Delta Y_{2.3}$ = PCR = total primary completion rate (% of relevant age group), Δ 1999-2003	
MDG 3	
$\Delta Y_{3.1}$ = gtb_edu = Ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education (%), % Δ 1998-2002 $\Delta Y_{3.2}$ = gtb_lit = Ratio of young literate females to males (% ages 15-24), % Δ 1998-2002 $\Delta Y_{3.3}$ = wempl = Women wage employment in non-agricultural sector (% of total non-agricultural), % Δ 1999 & 2003	Literacy rate, adult female (% of females ages 15 and above), 1999 GDP per capita (constant 2000 US\$), 1999 Urban population (% of total), 1999 Population, female (% of total), 1999 Fertility rate, total (births per woman), 1997
MDG 4	
$\Delta Y_{4.1}$ = U5MR = under-5 mortality rate (per 1,000), Δ 2000 & 2003 $\Delta Y_{4.2}$ = IMR = infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births), Δ 2000 & 2003 $\Delta Y_{4.3}$ = MEASLES = measles immunisation (% of children ages 12-23 months), Δ 2000 & 2003	Literacy rate, adult female (% of females ages 15 and above), 1999 GDP per capita (constant 2000 US\$), 1999 Urban population (% of total), 1999 Improved water source (% of population with access), 2002 Birth rate, crude (per 1,000 people), 1997 Health expenditure, total (% of GDP), 1999

Control variables for Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education

On *primary school enrolment*, the UN Millennium Project (2005) demonstrates that differences in household income and in wealth and the rural/urban gap influences educational outcomes. Colclough (2004) finds effects of the average cost per student (negative) and the size of the school-age population and to GNP per capita (both positive). Dostie and Jayaraman (2006) show that parental education affects the probability of school enrolment; particularly the mother's education matters to girls' schooling. The effect of total expenditure on enrolment is found insignificant. Mutangadura and Lamb (2003) find that primary school enrolment rates for sub-Saharan Africa are importantly influenced by government expenditure on education urbanization. On *youth literacy rates*, Verner (2005) showed that the main determinants of worldwide literacy are enrolment rates, average years of schooling of adults, life expectancy at birth, and income (non-linearly). Chhetri and Baker (2005) find that access

to television and primary school enrolment are helpful, but not radio ownership or book production. Griffin⁴, finds positive effects of freedom of trade, increased property rights and GDP per capita. Similar variables were found to be relevant to *primary completion rate* (income; parental education); in addition the pupil-teacher ratio is especially important.

Control variables for Goal 3: gender equality

The report on 'Education for All' of the UNESCO (2002) highlights some determinants on gender equality in education. In general when parents, in particular mothers are educated, their children — both boys and girls — will be healthier, better nourished and have a greater chance of going to school and doing well there. Furthermore, the decision to send a child to school is taken in the family. Recent research shows that resources, work and opportunities are not allocated equally among household members, as traditional theory once upheld. It appears that when different household members secure additional income, women spend more on education, health and household services than do men. How power is shared within the household reflects society-wide norms. Other values, such as patrilineal principles of inheritance and descent, further limit women's life chances. Countries and regions where there is strong cultural preference for sons also tend to have the greatest levels of gender inequalities. Moreover, there appears to be correlation between the number of women teachers at the primary level and gender disparities.

Next, Subrahmanian (2002) identifies four types of determinants of household decisions on girls' education; (i) the macroeconomic context that shapes employment opportunity, (ii) household livelihoods and aspirations and the extent to which households are willing to commit resources, (iii) assessments of the prospects and capacities of individual children and (iv) the proximity, quality and inclusiveness of the schooling that is available. Shortly stated, the sociocultural and economic context determine the value of girls.

Alderman and King (1998) identify two explanations for gender differentials. First, the rates of return to education may be gender-specific. This may encompass different underlying costs of education by gender — for example, the potentially higher opportunity cost to send girls to school, if they must therefore abandon household chores and care of younger siblings — as well as different streams of benefits, often in the form of future earnings. Second, parental empathy and the future transfer from children to their parents may be gender-specific. For cultural reasons, parents may prefer sons to excel in the public sphere through education; and/or have higher expectations that an income-earning son will care for parents in old-age, relative to a daughter.

⁴ <http://www.uga.edu/juro/2005/Giffin%20edited.pdf>

Furthermore, many women gain from the demographic transition, with fertility decline being the key demographic change associated with their increasing freedom to participate in education and employment. Moreover, the benefits of fertility decline are enjoyed disproportionately by women, so that gender inequality in non-domestic activities frequently lessens as the demographic transition is completed. Girls may also do well as a result of fertility decline; the smaller number of siblings between whom parental investment must be shared means that there is less competition for such resources. Of course, some women may not share in these advantages because a range of factors can drive a wedge between the demographic transition and its benefits. But in general we may view the demographic transition as being a positive process for women (McNay, 2005)

Finally, the percentage of females the population per country is also included as a control variable. This give a picture of the ratio of females to males in a population. The more women there are compared to men, it is expected that this is positive for the ratios in education. Moreover, if there are relatively a lot of females in the population, there will be a fiercer competition on the labour market.

Control variables on goal 4: reduce child mortality

Mortality rates

Fayissa (2001) examines among other things, the determinants of the variations in the mortality rates for the less than one year old infants and for the less than five-year old children. One of the determinants of these mortality rates is the size of the crude birth rate. High birth rates strains budgets of poor families, reducing the families' resources available to feed, educate, and provide health care to children. Besides, various aspects of health care services which affect the mortality rates are: the nutritional status of pregnant women and other pre-natal conditions, professional attention at birth, birth weight, post-natal care, encouragement of breast-feeding, food supplements for mother and child, safe water, and sanitation, and vaccinations (Hojmann 1996). In this paper the effects of such variables are tested by using the percent children under five who are malnourished, the percent of those who have access to safe water and the percent of public expenditures on health. Furthermore, the total debt/GNP ratio, the year of schooling of women and the rural orientation of the population are included into the regression equations. For the infant mortality equation, public expenditure on health, years of education of women, the debt/GDP ratio, crude birth rate and rural population are significant. For the child mortality equation, public expenditure on health, years of education of women, the debt/GDP ratio and the rural orientation of the population are significant. Crude birth rate and the percent of malnourished

children were not statistically significant. In the paper of Hanmer et al. (2003) a table is given of several cross country multivariate regression analyses on under-five and infant mortality rates. Often returning additional explaining variables encountered are: income per capita, female literacy, female education, ratio female to male education, access to health, access to safe water, immunisation rate, health expenditure and more. White (2004), states that the main determinants of infant or child mortality are income per capita, maternal education and education and health expenditure.

Measles Immunisation

Most studies use find correlation between the child immunisation and maternal education and household socioeconomic characteristic. Pebley et al. (1996) find that both mother's and father's education are significantly and positively related to childhood immunization status, as is living in urban areas, but that unobserved family and community characteristics are even more influential. The paper of Guari and Khaleghian (2002) tries to identify the political and organizational factors associated with strong immunisation programs. They find that the factors that most affect immunization coverage involve the global policy environment and contact with international agencies. The quality of a country's institutions and its level of development are also strongly related to immunisation coverage and vaccine adoption. The regression analysis on measles coverage show that the determinants illiteracy rate, GDP per capita, membership of UNICEF vaccine fund, democracy score and institutional quality score show a significant relationship. Immunisation infrastructure and health system are crucial Hence, total health expenditure is taken as a proxy for these two determinants.