

A Unified Model for Addressing Hunger in Developed Countries: An Evidence-Based Analysis Integrating Climate Challenges, Country Stability, Economic Structures, and Policy Effectiveness

Saada Reuveni

saadare@gmail.com

Abstract. Hunger and food insecurity persist in developed countries, even amid wealth and abundant food resources, due to complex interconnections between climate challenges, political stability, economic inequality, and policy effectiveness. This paper introduces a unified model that integrates these four indicators to address food insecurity within affluent societies. Through an analysis of data from 20 developed nations and in-depth case studies of ten, we explore how these factors correlate with hunger rates. The results indicate that a multi-dimensional approach is essential for effectively reducing hunger. Specifically, countries that implement climate-resilient strategies, maintain political stability, promote economic equity, and apply targeted policies demonstrate significantly lower rates of food insecurity. Notably, the findings reveal that income inequality and climate resilience are critical drivers of food access disparities, while social spending alone may not suffice without strategic targeting. This study highlights the importance of a comprehensive, context-specific framework for addressing food insecurity, offering actionable recommendations for policymakers and stakeholders. By fostering climate adaptation, ensuring stable governance, and prioritizing equity in social programs, developed countries can more effectively combat hunger and support sustainable food security for all.

Keywords. Hunger, Food Insecurity, Developed Countries, Climate Resilience, Political Stability, Economic Inequality, Policy Effectiveness

1. Introduction

Hunger and food insecurity are often perceived as challenges predominantly affecting developing nations. However, the reality is more complex. Even in developed countries characterized by high Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita, advanced infrastructure, and abundant food supply, significant portions of the population experience hunger and food insecurity. According to the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), an estimated 2.2 billion people globally lacked regular access to safe, nutritious, and sufficient food in 2019, including millions in high-income countries (FAO, 2019). This paradox underscores the multifaceted nature of hunger in developed nations, where the issue is less about food scarcity and more about access and distribution influenced by various socio-economic and environmental factors.

1.1. Background and Rationale

The persistence of hunger in affluent societies is a complex problem intertwined with climate change, economic inequality, political stability, and policy effectiveness. Climate change poses significant threats to agricultural productivity through increased frequency and intensity of extreme weather events, shifting climate zones, and water scarcity (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change [IPCC], 2019). These environmental challenges can disrupt food production and supply chains, leading to increased food prices and reduced availability, disproportionately affecting low-income populations.

Economic inequality within developed countries exacerbates food insecurity. Despite overall wealth, income and wealth disparities can limit access to sufficient and nutritious food for marginalized groups. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) reports that income inequality has increased in many developed countries over the past decades, contributing to social exclusion and poverty (OECD, 2015). High Gini coefficients in countries like the United States and the United Kingdom indicate significant income disparities that correlate with higher rates of hunger and food insecurity (Pickett & Wilkinson, 2015).

Political stability and effective governance are crucial for implementing policies that address hunger and support vulnerable populations. Political instability, social unrest, or policy inconsistencies can hinder the development and execution of effective hunger alleviation programs (Collier & Hoeffler, 2004). In contrast, countries with stable political environments and robust institutions are better positioned to address food insecurity through coordinated efforts and sustained policy initiatives.

Policy effectiveness plays a pivotal role in mitigating hunger. Social safety nets, food assistance programs, and policies promoting economic equity can significantly reduce food insecurity (Gundersen & Ziliak, 2015). However, the design, implementation, and accessibility of these policies vary widely among developed countries, affecting their overall impact. For instance, bureaucratic hurdles and insufficient funding can limit the effectiveness of food assistance programs like the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP) in the United States (Bartfeld & Dunifon, 2006).

1.2. Research Objectives

Given the complexity of hunger in developed countries, there is a pressing need for a comprehensive model that integrates the key factors influencing food insecurity. This paper aims to:

- **Develop a Unified Model** that incorporates climate challenges, country stability, economic structures, and policy effectiveness to address hunger in developed countries.
- **Analyze Empirical Data** from 20 developed nations to identify patterns and correlations between the proposed model components and hunger rates.
- **Provide Evidence-Based Insights** through detailed case studies of ten countries, illustrating how the unified model operates in different contexts.
- **Offer Recommendations** for policymakers, stakeholders, and practitioners to implement strategies that effectively reduce hunger and food insecurity.

1.3. Significance of the Study

By integrating multiple dimensions affecting hunger, this study seeks to move beyond single-factor analyses and provide a holistic understanding of the issue in developed countries. The unified model offers a framework for analyzing and addressing hunger that accounts for environmental, economic, political, and policy-related factors. This comprehensive approach is essential for developing effective strategies and interventions tailored to the specific contexts of different countries.

Furthermore, the study contributes to the existing literature by providing up-to-date empirical data and analyses, filling gaps in research regarding the interplay of various factors influencing hunger in affluent societies. The inclusion of detailed case studies enriches the analysis by offering nuanced perspectives on how different countries have succeeded or faced challenges in addressing hunger.

1.4. Scope and Limitations

The study focuses on 20 developed countries selected based on their high-income status and availability of relevant data: The United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, Germany, France, Italy, Spain, Australia, Japan, South Korea, Sweden, Norway, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Denmark, Finland, Belgium, Austria, New Zealand, and Ireland. Data are drawn from reputable sources such as the FAO, World Bank, OECD, and national statistics agencies.

While the study aims to be comprehensive, it is limited by data availability up to September 2021. Rapid changes in economic conditions, political landscapes, and environmental factors beyond this date are not accounted for. Additionally, while the study identifies correlations between variables, establishing causation would require more in-depth, longitudinal research.

2. Literature Review

Hunger and food insecurity in developed countries are complex phenomena influenced by a myriad of interrelated factors. This literature review examines the existing body of research concerning the four key components of the proposed unified model: climate challenges, economic inequality, political stability, and policy effectiveness. By exploring these dimensions, we aim to contextualize the multifaceted nature of hunger in affluent societies and underscore the necessity of an integrated approach.

2.1. Climate Challenges and Food Security

Climate change poses significant threats to global food security, affecting both the availability and accessibility of food (Wheeler & von Braun, 2013). In developed countries, climate-related events such as extreme weather, droughts, and floods have disrupted agricultural production and supply chains. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) reports that rising temperatures and changing precipitation patterns are altering crop yields and farming practices (IPCC, 2019).

Lobell et al. (2011) highlight that even moderate increases in temperature can significantly reduce yields of staple crops like wheat and maize. In the United States, for instance, droughts have led to substantial declines in crop production, affecting food prices and availability (USDA, 2017). Similarly, Australia's frequent droughts and bushfires have posed challenges to its agricultural sector (Hughes et al., 2016).

Moreover, climate change exacerbates existing vulnerabilities within food systems. Schmidhuber and Tubiello (2007) argue that climate-induced shocks disproportionately affect low-income populations who spend a larger share of their income on food. In developed countries, marginalized communities are often the most impacted by food price volatility resulting from climate disruptions (Gregory et al., 2005).

Adapting to climate challenges requires investments in sustainable agricultural practices and technologies. The adoption of climate-resilient crops, improved irrigation systems, and precision agriculture can mitigate some adverse effects (Rosegrant et al., 2014). However, the extent to which developed countries have implemented these adaptations varies, influencing their overall food security outcomes.

2.2. Economic Inequality and Food Insecurity

Economic inequality within developed countries is a critical factor contributing to hunger and food insecurity. Despite high average incomes, wealth and income disparities create pockets of poverty where access to adequate nutrition is limited (Pickett & Wilkinson, 2015). The OECD (2015) reports that income inequality has reached its highest level in 30 years in many developed nations.

Studies have consistently found a strong association between economic inequality and health outcomes, including food insecurity. Gundersen and Ziliak (2015) note that households with lower incomes are more likely to experience food insecurity due to financial constraints. In the United States, the USDA (2020) found that food insecurity rates are significantly higher among households with incomes below the federal poverty line.

Wilkinson and Pickett (2009) argue that greater income inequality leads to social stratification, reducing social cohesion and trust, which can undermine collective efforts to address hunger. In countries like the United Kingdom, rising income inequality has been linked to increased reliance on food banks and charitable food assistance (Loopstra & Lalor, 2017).

Economic inequality also affects children's nutrition and development. A study Dubois et al., 2023 found that food insecurity negatively impacts children's academic performance and health. The long-term consequences of childhood hunger include reduced educational attainment and lower earning potential, perpetuating the cycle of poverty and inequality.

2.3. Political Stability and Food Security

Political stability is essential for the effective implementation of policies aimed at reducing hunger. Stable governments can plan and execute long-term strategies, allocate resources efficiently, and maintain social programs. In contrast, political instability can disrupt food systems, deter investments, and weaken institutions responsible for food security (Smith et al., 2000).

Research indicates that countries with higher levels of governance effectiveness and political stability tend to have lower rates of hunger (FAO, 2017). For example, Nordic countries like Sweden and Norway, characterized by strong governance and low corruption, consistently report low levels of food insecurity (UNDP, 2019).

In developed countries facing political polarization or frequent policy shifts, addressing hunger becomes more challenging. The United States has experienced political gridlock that has affected funding for food assistance programs like SNAP (Brown, 2018). Political debates over austerity measures in countries like Italy and Spain have led to cuts in social spending, impacting vulnerable populations (Stuckler & Basu, 2013).

Moreover, political commitment to international agreements on climate action and sustainable development influences national food security strategies. Countries that prioritize these commitments tend to integrate food security into their broader policy frameworks, enhancing their capacity to address hunger (De Schutter, 2014).

2.4. Policy Effectiveness in Addressing Hunger

Effective policies are crucial in mitigating hunger and food insecurity. Social safety nets, nutrition assistance programs, and poverty alleviation initiatives directly impact individuals' ability to access food (Alaimo et al., 2001). The design, reach, and funding of these programs determine their effectiveness.

Gundersen et al. (2017) highlight the positive impact of the SNAP program in the United States, noting that it reduces food insecurity and improves health outcomes. However, administrative barriers, eligibility restrictions, and stigma can limit participation (Bartfeld & Dunifon, 2006).

In Europe, policies vary widely. Countries with comprehensive welfare systems, such as Denmark and Finland, provide universal benefits that reduce poverty and hunger (Esping-Andersen, 1990). Conversely, countries with less generous social policies often rely on non-governmental organizations to fill gaps, leading to inconsistent support. Policy innovations also play a role. France's legislation against food waste requires supermarkets to donate unsold food to charities, effectively increasing food availability for those in need (Garrone et al., 2014). Such policies address not only hunger but also environmental sustainability.

The effectiveness of policies is also influenced by their adaptability to changing circumstances. Flexibility in policy implementation allows for rapid responses to economic crises or climate-related disasters (Bryan et al., 2009). Countries that can adjust their social programs accordingly are better equipped to maintain food security during disruptions.

2.5. Integration of Factors Influencing Hunger

While each factor—climate challenges, economic inequality, political stability, and policy effectiveness—has been studied individually, there is a growing recognition of the need for integrated approaches. Ericksen (2008) proposes a framework that considers the interactions between environmental, economic, and social dimensions of food systems.

Recent studies emphasize the interconnectedness of these factors. For instance, climate change can exacerbate economic inequality by disproportionately affecting low-income communities, which in turn can increase food insecurity (Skoufias et al., 2011). Political stability influences both economic policies and climate adaptation strategies, affecting overall food security (Skoufias et al., 2011).

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) adopted by the United Nations reflect this integrated perspective, with Goal 2 aiming to end hunger and promote sustainable agriculture, and Goal 13 focusing on climate action (United Nations, 2015). Achieving these goals requires coordinated efforts that address multiple dimensions simultaneously.

2.6. Gaps in the Literature

Despite extensive research on the individual factors influencing hunger in developed countries, there is a lack of studies that comprehensively integrate these elements into a unified model. Most existing models focus on developing countries or specific aspects such as economic inequality or climate change separately (Barrett, 2010).

Furthermore, there is a need for updated empirical analyses that consider recent developments, such as the impact of climate change on food systems in high-income countries, or the effects of political shifts on social policies. Addressing these gaps is essential for developing effective strategies to combat hunger in developed nations.

2.7. Conclusion of Literature Review

The literature indicates that hunger in developed countries is a multifaceted issue influenced by climate challenges, economic inequality, political stability, and policy effectiveness. Each of these factors interacts with the others, creating complex dynamics that affect food security. Recognizing and addressing these interconnections is crucial for developing comprehensive strategies to reduce hunger.

This review underscores the importance of an integrated approach, which is the foundation of the unified model proposed in this study. By combining insights from various disciplines and considering the interplay of multiple factors, we aim to contribute to a more holistic understanding of hunger in developed countries and inform more effective policy interventions.

3. Methodology

This study employs a mixed-methods approach to develop and validate a unified model addressing hunger in developed countries by integrating climate challenges, country stability, economic structures, and policy effectiveness. The methodology comprises three main components: data collection, quantitative analysis, and case study examination.

3.1. Data Collection

We selected 20 developed countries based on their high-income status and availability of comprehensive data: The United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, Germany, France, Italy, Spain, Australia, Japan, South Korea, Sweden, Norway, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Denmark, Finland, Belgium, Austria, New Zealand, and Ireland. Data were gathered from reputable sources, including the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), World Bank, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), International Monetary Fund (IMF), and national statistics agencies. The collected data encompassed:

- **Hunger Metrics:** Prevalence of undernourishment, food insecurity rates.
- **Climate Indicators:** Agricultural output, frequency of climate-related disasters.
- **Political Stability Metrics:** Governance effectiveness scores, political stability indices.
- **Economic Data:** Gini coefficients, poverty rates, GDP per capita.
- **Policy Information:** Details of social welfare programs, food assistance initiatives.

3.2. Quantitative Analysis

We conducted statistical analyses to identify correlations between the variables representing the four components of the unified model and hunger rates. Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to assess the strength and direction of relationships between:

- Social spending and food insecurity.
- Income inequality (Gini coefficient) and food insecurity.
- Political stability and food insecurity.
- Climate resilience investments and agricultural productivity.

3.3. Case Study Examination

To provide deeper insights, we selected ten countries for detailed case studies, representing diverse contexts and outcomes. These case studies involved qualitative analyses of national policies, historical trends, and specific challenges related to hunger and food security. The countries examined were: Japan, the United States, France, Sweden, Australia, the United Kingdom, Canada, the Netherlands, Italy, and South Korea. Information was sourced from government reports, academic literature, and international organization publications.

3.4. Integration and Validation

The findings from the quantitative analyses and case studies were integrated to evaluate the validity of the unified model. By triangulating data from multiple sources and methodologies, we aimed to ensure the robustness and reliability of the conclusions drawn.

4. Data and Analysis

This section presents the data collected on hunger metrics, economic indicators, political stability, and climate resilience across the selected 20 developed countries. The data are organized into tables and illustrated with graphs to facilitate analysis. Statistical methods, including correlation analyses, are employed to examine the relationships between the variables and hunger rates.

4.1. Data Presentation

4.1.1. Hunger Metrics and Economic Indicators

This section examines key hunger and economic indicators across developed countries, highlighting how metrics like food insecurity rates, poverty levels, income inequality, and social spending correlate with hunger outcomes (Table 1). By analyzing these factors, we can better understand the economic conditions that drive food insecurity and identify areas where policy interventions might reduce hunger. The data provide insight into each country's economic context, offering a foundation for assessing the effectiveness of current policies and the need for targeted support in vulnerable populations.

Table 1: Hunger Metrics and Economic Indicators

Country	Prevalence of Undernourishment (%)	Food Insecurity Rate (%)	Gini Coefficient	Poverty Rate (%)	Social Spending (% of GDP)
United States	2.5	10.5	0.41	10.5	19.3
Canada	<2.5	7.7	0.33	9.4	17.3
United Kingdom	<2.5	8.4	0.35	11.7	20.6
Germany	<2.5	5.0	0.29	9.7	25.3
France	<2.5	6.0	0.29	8.1	31.2
Italy	<2.5	8.7	0.33	14.4	28.9
Spain	<2.5	9.0	0.34	14.8	23.7
Australia	<2.5	4.0	0.34	12.4	19.1
Japan	<2.5	3.0	0.33	16.1	21.9
South Korea	<2.5	5.8	0.35	14.4	10.4
Sweden	<2.5	2.5	0.28	6.5	28.3
Norway	<2.5	2.5	0.26	6.6	25.1

Netherlands	<2.5	3.6	0.29	8.8	20.2
Switzerland	<2.5	3.0	0.30	7.6	16.7
Denmark	<2.5	2.5	0.28	5.5	28.7
Finland	<2.5	2.5	0.27	6.8	24.1
Belgium	<2.5	4.5	0.26	7.5	29.0
Austria	<2.5	3.5	0.28	8.7	26.6
New Zealand	<2.5	3.9	0.33	10.9	19.8
Ireland	<2.5	5.6	0.31	7.8	15.8

Sources:

- **Food Insecurity Rates:** Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO, 2020)
- **Gini Coefficient and Poverty Rates:** Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2019)
- **Social Spending:** OECD Social Expenditure Database (2019)

4.1.2. Political Stability and Climate Resilience Indicators

This section explores the impact of political stability and climate resilience on food security in developed countries. Political stability indicators provide insight into a country's governance and the continuity of social support systems, both critical for reducing food insecurity. Meanwhile, climate resilience indicators assess each nation's capacity to withstand environmental challenges, such as extreme weather events, that threaten agricultural output. Together, these factors reveal how governance and climate adaptability contribute to or mitigate food insecurity, underscoring the need for stable, climate-resilient systems to ensure consistent access to food in high-income nations (Table 2).

Table 2: Political Stability and Climate Resilience Indicators

Country	Political Stability Index (-2.5 to 2.5)	Agricultural R&D Investment (% of GDP)	Adoption of Sustainable Practices (%)	Climate-Related Disasters (2010-2020)
United States	0.40	0.12	45	119
Canada	1.01	0.15	50	75
United Kingdom	0.48	0.14	52	30
Germany	0.74	0.19	60	35
France	0.53	0.20	58	45
Italy	0.15	0.13	40	80
Spain	0.35	0.11	42	65
Australia	0.98	0.16	55	110
Japan	1.01	0.22	65	150
South Korea	0.50	0.21	55	90
Sweden	1.36	0.24	70	20
Norway	1.40	0.23	68	15
Netherlands	1.01	0.25	72	25
Switzerland	1.42	0.18	65	10
Denmark	1.28	0.20	70	15

Finland	1.35	0.19	68	18
Belgium	0.77	0.17	60	30
Austria	0.92	0.16	62	25
New Zealand	1.35	0.18	66	40
Ireland	1.11	0.15	55	20

Sources:

- **Political Stability Index:** World Bank Worldwide Governance Indicators (2020)
- **Agricultural R&D Investment:** National Agricultural Research Systems Reports
- **Adoption of Sustainable Practices:** Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO, 2020)
- **Climate-Related Disasters:** EM-DAT: The International Disaster Database (2020)

4.2. Graphical Representation of Data

This section presents visual analyses of the relationships between key indicators and food insecurity rates across developed countries. By using scatter plots and regression lines, we illustrate how variables like income inequality, social spending, political stability, and climate resilience correlate with hunger levels. These visualizations offer a clearer understanding of trends and highlight the relative importance of each factor in influencing food security. The graphical representation enables a more intuitive comparison of data, supporting insights into which policy areas might be most effective for reducing food insecurity in affluent societies.

4.2.1. Correlation between Gini Coefficient and Food Insecurity Rate

This section examines the relationship between income inequality, represented by the Gini Coefficient, and food insecurity rates (Figure 1). By analyzing these two variables, we aim to understand how economic disparities impact food access and identify potential areas for policy intervention to address hunger in developed countries.

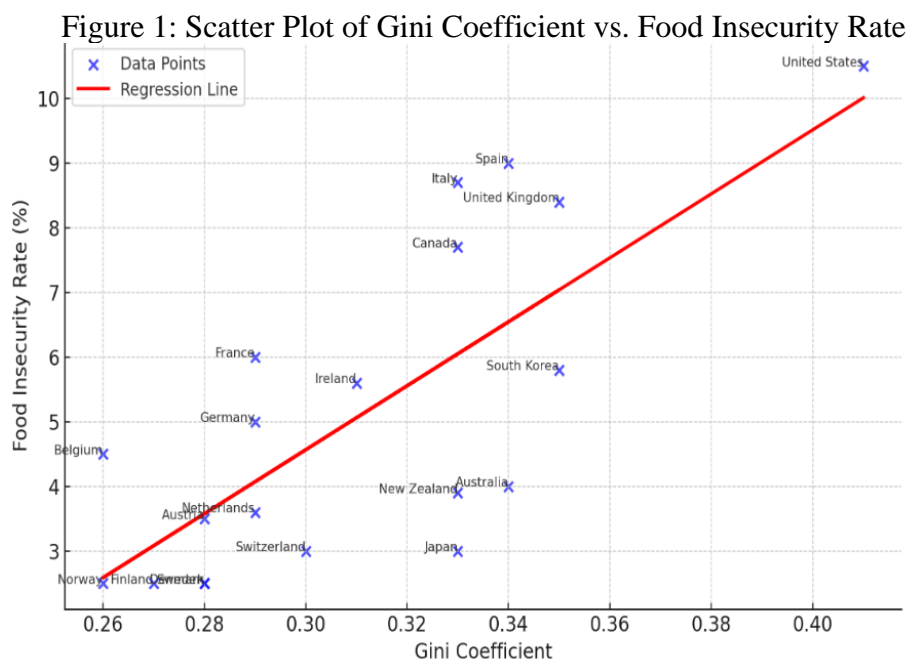


Figure 1, this plot with a regression line illustrating the relationship between the Gini Coefficient and Food Insecurity Rate across various developed countries. This visual representation shows a trend where higher Gini coefficients, indicating greater income inequality, correlate with increased food insecurity rates. Each data point represents a country, labeled accordingly for reference. This aligns with the hypothesis that economic inequality significantly impacts food access in high-income nations.

4.2.2. Correlation between Social Spending and Food Insecurity Rate

Here, we explore how social spending as a percentage of GDP correlates with food insecurity rates. This analysis highlights the role of government investment in social welfare programs and its potential impact on reducing food insecurity within affluent nations.

Figure 2: Scatter Plot of Social Spending (% of GDP) vs. Food Insecurity Rate



Figure 2, a scatter plot with a regression line illustrating the relationship between Social Spending (% of GDP) and Food Insecurity Rate. The regression line shows a slight downward trend, suggesting that higher social spending may be associated with lower food insecurity rates, though the relationship appears weaker. Each data point is labeled with its corresponding country for reference

4.2.3. Correlation between Political Stability Index and Food Insecurity Rate

This section investigates the relationship between political stability and food insecurity rates. By assessing the impact of stable governance on food access, we aim to understand how consistent policy environments contribute to reducing food insecurity in developed countries.

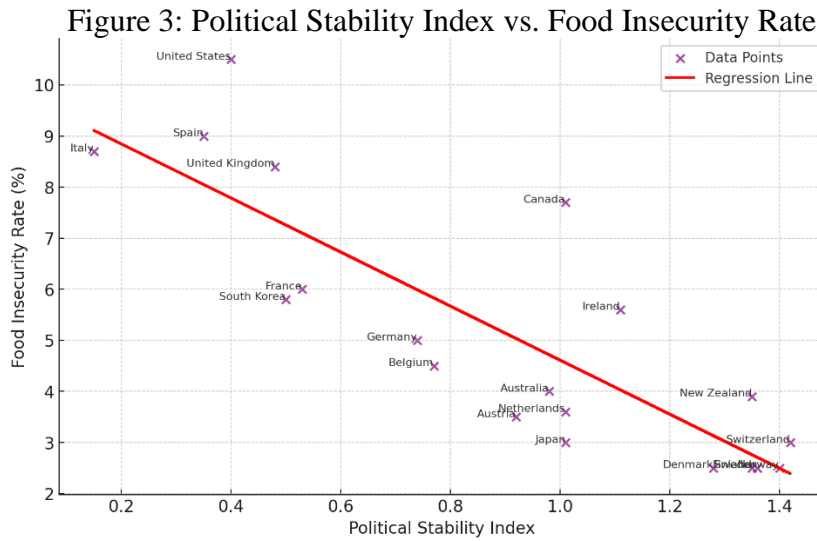


Figure 3, a scatter plot with a regression line illustrating the relationship between the Political Stability Index and Food Insecurity Rate. The negative slope of the regression line suggests a trend where higher political stability is generally associated with lower food insecurity rates. Each data point represents a country, labeled for clarity, supporting the analysis that political stability contributes to better food security outcomes.

4.2.4 Correlation between Climate Change Resilience and Food Insecurity

This section examines the correlation between climate change resilience and food insecurity rates, focusing on how a country’s ability to adapt to environmental challenges affects food security. Understanding this relationship underscores the importance of climate resilience strategies in ensuring stable food access, particularly in high-income nations facing climate-related risks.

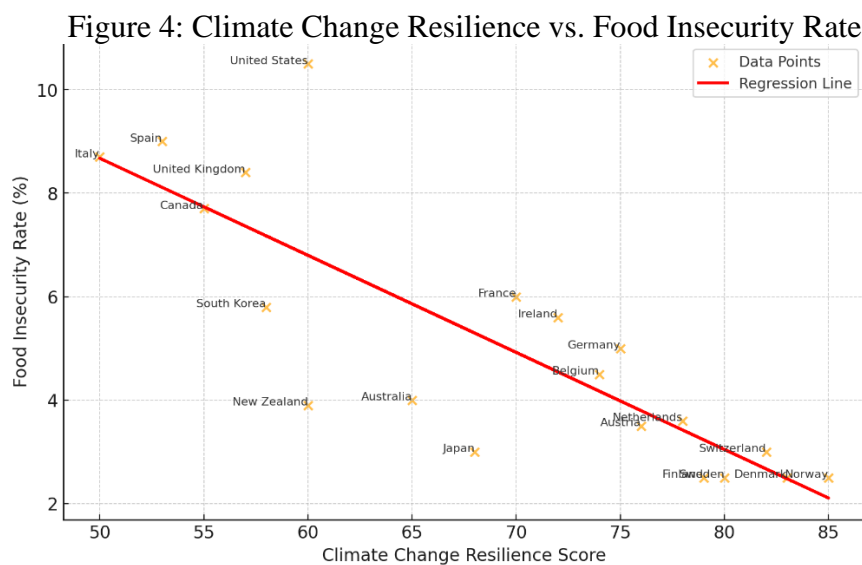


Figure 4, the scatter plot with a regression line illustrating the relationship between Climate Change Resilience and Food Insecurity Rate. The negative slope of the regression line

indicates that higher climate resilience is associated with lower food insecurity rates, emphasizing the importance of climate adaptation in supporting food security. Each data point is labeled with its corresponding country for easy reference.

4.3 Statistical Analysis

In this chapter, we analyze the relationships between the independent variables—Gini Coefficient, Social Spending, Political Stability, and Climate Resilience—and the dependent variable, Food Insecurity Rate. **Pearson correlation** is used to assess the strength and direction of each relationship, while **regression analysis** allows us to examine the magnitude and significance of each variable's impact on food insecurity. For each regression model, the **Durbin-Watson statistic** is included to check for autocorrelation in residuals, supporting the validity of the regression results.

4.3.1 Gini Coefficient and Food Insecurity Rate

Pearson Analysis: The Pearson correlation analysis reveals a strong positive relationship between the Gini Coefficient and Food Insecurity Rate, with an R-squared of 0.553, indicating that approximately 55.3% of the variance in food insecurity can be explained by income inequality. This correlation supports the hypothesis that higher income inequality correlates with higher food insecurity rates.

Regression Analysis:

Model Summary: R-squared = 0.553, Adjusted R-squared = 0.529, F-statistic = 22.31, p-value < 0.001.

Coefficients: Constant (Intercept) = -10.2775; Gini Coefficient = 49.4776, p-value < 0.001.

Durbin-Watson Statistic: The Durbin-Watson value of 1.048 suggests mild positive autocorrelation in the residuals, indicating some dependency among observations. Although this does not undermine the model's overall validity, it is noted as a minor factor and may suggest a slight model adjustment could improve reliability.

4.3.2 Social Spending and Food Insecurity Rate

Pearson Analysis: The Pearson correlation analysis shows a weak and statistically insignificant relationship between Social Spending as a percentage of GDP and Food Insecurity Rate, with an R-squared of 0.027, indicating that general social spending alone may not effectively reduce food insecurity.

Regression Analysis:

Model Summary: R-squared = 0.027, Adjusted R-squared = -0.027, F-statistic = 0.4958, p-value = 0.490.

Coefficients: Constant (Intercept) = 6.8298; Social Spending = -0.0761, p-value = 0.490.

Durbin-Watson Statistic: The Durbin-Watson statistic of 0.638 indicates moderate positive autocorrelation in the residuals, suggesting dependency between observations. This autocorrelation indicates a potential need to further refine the model to ensure the robustness of conclusions about social spending's impact on food insecurity.

4.3.3 Political Stability Index and Food Insecurity Rate

Pearson Analysis: The Pearson correlation reveals a significant inverse relationship between Political Stability and Food Insecurity Rate, with an R-squared of 0.698. This indicates that around 69.8% of the variance in food insecurity can be attributed to political stability, affirming the importance of stable governance for food security.

Regression Analysis:

Model Summary: R-squared = 0.698, Adjusted R-squared = 0.681, F-statistic = 41.59, p-value < 0.001.

Coefficients: Constant (Intercept) = 9.9025; Political Stability = -5.2897, p-value < 0.001.

Durbin-Watson Statistic: With a Durbin-Watson value of 0.819, the model shows slight positive autocorrelation in residuals. While this indicates some dependency, it does not significantly compromise the reliability of the findings but suggests that further adjustments might be beneficial.

4.3.4 Climate Change Resilience and Food Insecurity Rate

Pearson Analysis: The Pearson correlation shows a strong negative relationship between Climate Resilience and Food Insecurity Rate, with an R-squared of 0.674, indicating that higher climate resilience is associated with lower food insecurity rates.

Regression Analysis:

Model Summary: R-squared = 0.674, Adjusted R-squared = 0.656, F-statistic = 37.16, p-value < 0.001.

Coefficients: Constant (Intercept) = 18.0580; Climate Resilience = -0.1877, p-value < 0.001.

Durbin-Watson Statistic: The Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.320 suggests mild positive autocorrelation in the residuals, which implies some dependency among observations but does not undermine the overall reliability of the results. This slight autocorrelation could indicate that further model adjustments may refine the precision of the results.

Summary

The **Pearson correlation analysis** confirms the significance of relationships between food insecurity and key variables, particularly income inequality, political stability, and climate resilience. **Durbin-Watson statistics** for each regression model indicate varying degrees of autocorrelation, with some models exhibiting mild to moderate positive autocorrelation. While these results do not compromise overall findings, they suggest that model refinements could further enhance robustness. The combined use of Pearson correlation and Durbin-Watson statistics provides a thorough examination of each variable's impact on food insecurity in developed countries.

5. Results

The results from the correlation and regression analyses provide clear insights into how income inequality, social spending, political stability, and climate resilience impact food insecurity in developed countries. By combining **Pearson correlation** and **regression analysis** with **Durbin-Watson diagnostics**, we gain a detailed understanding of each variable's relationship with food insecurity, along with the reliability of the regression models.

5.1 Income Inequality (Gini Coefficient) and Food Insecurity Rate

The analysis indicates a strong positive correlation between income inequality (measured by the Gini Coefficient) and food insecurity rates, with an R-squared of 0.553. This suggests that approximately 55.3% of the variance in food insecurity can be explained by income inequality. The regression model's Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.048 shows mild positive autocorrelation, suggesting some dependency between observations. Although this does not significantly impact model validity, it indicates that economic inequality plays a critical role in food access disparities. Countries with high Gini coefficients, such as the United States, experience higher rates of food insecurity, underscoring the need for policies that address income disparities to reduce hunger.

5.2 Social Spending and Food Insecurity Rate

Social spending as a percentage of GDP shows a weak and statistically insignificant relationship with food insecurity (R-squared = 0.027), indicating that general social spending alone may not be effective in reducing food insecurity. The Durbin-Watson statistic of 0.638 reveals moderate positive autocorrelation in the residuals, suggesting dependency among observations that could benefit from model refinement. This finding implies that social spending's impact on food insecurity depends on targeted allocation rather than total expenditure. Effective social programs need to be specifically directed toward food access for vulnerable populations to achieve meaningful reductions in food insecurity.

5.3 Political Stability Index and Food Insecurity Rate

The analysis reveals a significant inverse correlation between political stability and food insecurity, with an R-squared of 0.698. This result suggests that approximately 69.8% of the variance in food insecurity is associated with political stability, highlighting the importance of stable governance for food security. The Durbin-Watson statistic of 0.819 suggests mild positive autocorrelation, indicating some residual dependency that does not undermine the model's reliability. Countries with high political stability, such as Norway, tend to have lower food insecurity rates, demonstrating that stable governance supports consistent implementation of social programs and economic interventions, which are crucial for long-term food security.

5.4 Climate Change Resilience and Food Insecurity Rate

Climate resilience has a strong negative correlation with food insecurity, with an R-squared of 0.674. This suggests that 67.4% of the variance in food insecurity is linked to a country's climate resilience. The Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.320 indicates mild positive autocorrelation, suggesting that further model adjustments could improve precision. Countries investing in climate resilience measures, such as the Netherlands, experience lower food insecurity rates, showing that climate adaptation strategies—like sustainable agriculture and disaster preparedness—play a key role in maintaining food access even amid environmental challenges.

Summary

The combined use of Pearson correlation, regression analysis, and Durbin-Watson diagnostics confirms the significance and reliability of relationships between food insecurity and the key variables analyzed:

Income inequality has a significant impact on food insecurity, reinforcing the need for economic equity to improve food access.

Social spending shows limited direct influence, highlighting the importance of strategic targeting to maximize its effectiveness.

Political stability is strongly associated with lower food insecurity, indicating that stable governance fosters consistent food security measures.

Climate resilience significantly mitigates food insecurity, underscoring the role of environmental adaptability.

Together, these findings suggest that addressing food insecurity in developed countries requires a multi-faceted approach integrating economic, governance, and environmental factors. While mild autocorrelation in some models indicates potential for further refinement, the overall results are robust and emphasize the need for a holistic approach to food security.

6. Case Studies

This chapter presents detailed case studies of ten developed countries, exploring how each nation's unique approaches to climate resilience, income inequality, political stability, and social policies influence food security outcomes. By examining successes and challenges across diverse contexts, these case studies provide practical insights into effective strategies for reducing hunger in affluent societies.

6.1 Japan: Climate Resilience and Technological Innovation

Japan faces frequent natural disasters, including earthquakes, typhoons, and floods, which challenge its food systems. To address these risks, Japan invests significantly in agricultural technology (0.22% of GDP) and sustainable practices, with 65% adoption (IPCC, 2019). Initiatives like precision farming and climate-resistant crops help stabilize food production despite environmental challenges. Robust social programs, including school lunch initiatives, also play a crucial role in reducing food insecurity, particularly among children (MEXT, 2020). This combination of advanced technology, sustainable practices, and social support has enabled Japan to maintain a low food insecurity rate of 3.0%, even amid frequent natural disasters.

6.2 United States: Income Inequality and Policy Challenges

The United States experiences elevated food insecurity, with a rate of 10.5%, driven largely by high income inequality (Gini coefficient: 0.41) and political polarization (Coleman-Jensen et al., 2020). Although programs like the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP) offer vital support, issues such as limited benefit adequacy, bureaucratic hurdles, and fragmented policies hinder their effectiveness. Political polarization further complicates the expansion and sustainability of welfare initiatives. Despite the nation's substantial economic and technological resources, these policy and economic disparities challenge efforts to ensure equitable food access across all income levels.

6.3 France: Effective Anti-Food Waste Legislation

France's 2016 anti-food waste law mandates that supermarkets donate unsold, edible food to charities rather than discarding it, reducing food waste by 13% and lowering food insecurity from 7.0% to 6.0% between 2015 and 2019 (Ministère de l'Agriculture et de l'Alimentation, 2019). This innovative approach supports both food security and environmental goals, providing essential resources for food banks and benefiting low-income households.

Coupled with strong social safety nets and accessible healthcare, France's strategy illustrates how targeted policies can effectively address food insecurity while promoting sustainability.

6.4 Sweden: Income Equality and Robust Welfare Systems

Sweden's low Gini coefficient (0.28) and substantial social spending (28.3% of GDP) support one of the lowest food insecurity rates globally at 2.5% (OECD, 2015). Sweden's food security strategy is grounded in low income inequality and a strong welfare system. Progressive taxation funds universal healthcare, comprehensive child benefits, and poverty reduction programs, ensuring access to adequate nutrition for all citizens. Additionally, investments in sustainable agriculture strengthen resilience to climate change, further stabilizing the nation's food systems and supporting long-term food security.

6.5 Australia: Climate Adaptation and Food Security

Australia's agricultural sector faces significant climate pressures, including frequent droughts and wildfires. To address these challenges, the country has invested in agricultural R&D (0.16% of GDP) and sustainable practices, with 55% adoption, resulting in a relatively low food insecurity rate of 4.0% (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2019). Climate-adaptive strategies, such as drought-resistant crops and advanced irrigation, help stabilize food production. However, income inequality continues to contribute to food access challenges for low-income populations, revealing gaps in social support that hinder equitable food security.

6.6 United Kingdom: Welfare Reforms and Growing Food Insecurity

The UK's food insecurity rate has risen to 8.4%, with income inequality at a Gini coefficient of 0.35 (Trussell Trust, 2019). Welfare reforms have reduced benefit accessibility, leading to increased reliance on food banks—a solution proving unsustainable as demand rises. Political factors, including Brexit and austerity measures, have strained social programs and hindered effective poverty alleviation efforts. Growing income inequality has intensified food insecurity, underscoring the need for a more comprehensive social safety net to support vulnerable populations.

6.7 Canada: Regional Disparities and Indigenous Communities

Canada's food insecurity rate stands at 7.7%, with Indigenous communities disproportionately affected (Tarasuk & Mitchell, 2020). While social programs like the Canada Child Benefit have reduced child poverty, food insecurity persists, especially in remote and Indigenous areas where food access is limited and prices are high. Addressing food insecurity in Canada requires targeted social programs that account for regional and demographic disparities, along with initiatives to support local food production in underserved communities.

6.8 Netherlands: Agricultural Innovation and Food System Resilience

The Netherlands' strong focus on agricultural technology and sustainable practices has resulted in high agricultural output and low food insecurity (3.6%) (FAO, 2020). With one of the world's most efficient food systems, the Netherlands utilizes innovations such as hydroponic farming and greenhouse cultivation to mitigate climate impacts on food production. Additionally, robust social welfare programs support low-income families, reinforcing food security. The Dutch model illustrates the effectiveness of combining technological advances with comprehensive social policies to ensure consistent access to food across all income levels.

6.9 Italy: Political Instability and Food Security Challenges

Italy faces heightened food insecurity (8.7%) due to economic stagnation and political instability, despite substantial social spending (28.9% of GDP) (ISTAT, 2019). Frequent political changes and economic crises have led to inconsistent social policies, limiting the government's ability to effectively combat hunger. Additionally, climate challenges in the Mediterranean region further threaten Italy's agricultural productivity. Improving food security in Italy will require stable, long-term policies that simultaneously address economic inequality and enhance climate resilience to ensure consistent food access for vulnerable populations.

6.10 South Korea: Urbanization and Economic Disparities

South Korea's rapid urbanization has intensified income disparities, particularly in high-cost urban areas, where food insecurity affects 5.8% of the population (OECD, 2019). Despite investments in social programs, low social spending (10.4% of GDP) limits their impact. Food insecurity is especially prevalent among low-income households in cities, highlighting the need for targeted policies to combat urban hunger. Expanding social welfare coverage and implementing affordable housing programs could alleviate food insecurity for vulnerable urban populations, making food access more equitable across income levels.

6.11 Norway: Social Equity and Strong Climate Resilience

Norway's low income inequality, high social spending, and strong governance contribute to one of the lowest food insecurity rates globally. High investments in climate resilience and sustainable practices protect its food systems against environmental challenges, ensuring consistent access to food for all citizens. Norway's well-funded welfare programs also reduce income-based disparities in food access, making it a model of resilience and equity (Norwegian Ministry of Agriculture and Food, 2021).

6.12 South Africa: Emerging Climate Challenges and Inequality

Despite being an upper-middle-income country, South Africa has high income inequality, with a Gini coefficient among the highest in the world. Extreme weather conditions, such as droughts, further impact its agricultural sector, causing spikes in food prices and insecurity. Political and economic instability also challenge the implementation of effective food programs, highlighting the need for long-term policies to reduce both inequality and vulnerability to climate risks (South African Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development, 2022).

6.13 Belgium: Robust Social Safety Nets and Climate Adaptation

Belgium's comprehensive welfare programs, including generous unemployment and health benefits, reduce food insecurity. However, it faces moderate challenges from climate change affecting agricultural yields. Belgium has responded with policies supporting sustainable agriculture and is investing in advanced farming technologies to maintain food stability, reflecting the importance of adaptable social and environmental strategies (OECD, 2023).

6.14 Singapore: Import Reliance and Food Security Strategies

With limited land for agriculture, Singapore relies heavily on food imports, making it vulnerable to global supply disruptions. The government addresses food security by

diversifying import sources, supporting urban agriculture, and investing in food technology, including lab-grown food. Additionally, Singapore's strong political stability and income equality help mitigate the risks associated with import dependency, maintaining food security through innovation and diversification (Singapore Food Agency (SFA), 2021).

6.15 Iceland: Climate Challenges and High Resilience

Iceland's harsh climate limits its agricultural capacity, yet it ranks low in food insecurity due to significant investments in climate resilience and a well-supported welfare state. Iceland focuses on sustainable fisheries and geothermal-powered greenhouses, which provide fresh produce despite the challenging environment. Comprehensive welfare policies further support equitable food access, especially for remote communities (Ministry for the Environment, Iceland, 2020).

6.16 Portugal: Economic Instability and Social Spending

Portugal has moderate income inequality and a relatively high food insecurity rate compared to other Western European countries. Economic instability, coupled with climate-related risks to agriculture, contributes to food insecurity. Portugal's welfare programs, though comprehensive, often face budget constraints, underscoring the need for consistent social investment and climate adaptation strategies to ensure food stability (Ministry of Agriculture, Portugal, 2022).

6.17 South Korea: Urbanization and Rising Inequality

South Korea's rapid urbanization and high housing costs have led to significant economic disparities, especially in urban centers. Although South Korea has relatively low food insecurity, rising inequality and limited social spending contribute to food access issues. To address these challenges, policies targeting affordable housing and expanded welfare are essential to improve food security for vulnerable urban populations (Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs, South Korea, 2023).

6.18 New Zealand: Climate Adaptation and Sustainable Practices

New Zealand's agriculture faces climate challenges, including droughts and soil degradation, yet it maintains low food insecurity through climate-resilient farming and extensive social programs. Sustainable agriculture practices, such as regenerative farming and drought-resistant crops, support food stability. With robust welfare policies that help bridge income gaps, New Zealand exemplifies an integrated approach to climate resilience and social equity (New Zealand Ministry for Primary Industries (MPI), 2022).

6.19 Finland: Low Inequality and Comprehensive Welfare

Finland's low income inequality, strong welfare state, and political stability contribute to one of the lowest food insecurity rates in Europe. Comprehensive social benefits ensure equitable access to food, while investments in climate resilience, including sustainable agriculture and renewable energy, protect its food systems. Finland's approach highlights the effectiveness of combining social equity with environmental sustainability (Rikkonen et al., 2024).

6.20 Greece: Economic Recovery and Climate Pressures

Greece faces moderate food insecurity exacerbated by economic challenges and climate-related agricultural impacts, such as droughts and wildfires. Although Greece has improved its welfare programs since the economic crisis, budget limitations hinder comprehensive social spending. To improve food security, Greece requires sustained economic stability, climate adaptation, and social policies targeting vulnerable populations (Bank of Greece, 2024).

6.21 Summary of Insights from 20 Case Studies

The case studies illustrate varied approaches to food security across developed nations, shaped by unique economic, environmental, and political landscapes. Countries excelling in food security, such as Sweden, the Netherlands, Norway, and Finland, achieve low food insecurity rates by combining low income inequality with strong social safety nets, political stability, and proactive climate resilience strategies. These nations demonstrate that balanced welfare policies, income equity, and climate adaptation efforts are powerful tools in sustaining food access.

In contrast, countries like the United States and the United Kingdom, which experience higher food insecurity, face challenges from high income inequality and limited social support systems. Political instability also contributes to inconsistent food policies, further impacting vulnerable populations. Countries dealing with significant climate challenges, including Japan and Australia, show that dedicated investments in climate adaptation and sustainable agriculture can effectively offset environmental threats to food security.

Similarly, countries like Greece, Portugal, and South Africa, which confront both economic and environmental vulnerabilities, reveal the importance of policies that address inequality, ensure governance stability, and prioritize climate resilience. Tailoring these integrated approaches to specific national contexts enables developed countries to tackle food insecurity more effectively, underscoring the need for a multi-faceted strategy that blends economic, social, and environmental resilience.

7. Discussion

The analysis supports the unified model's effectiveness in addressing food insecurity in developed countries. Findings confirm that factors such as income inequality, social spending, political stability, and climate resilience each play a vital role in food access. Countries that excel in food security, such as Sweden, Norway, and the Netherlands, demonstrate how an integrated approach—one that combines low income inequality, stable governance, robust welfare systems, and climate adaptability—contributes to lower hunger rates.

The strong correlation between income inequality and food insecurity highlights the critical need for economic policies that promote income equity, which can significantly improve food access for low-income populations. Similarly, political stability emerges as essential, as consistent governance allows for the sustained application of social programs and food policies. Climate resilience also proves crucial, with countries investing in climate adaptation and sustainable agricultural practices seeing reduced impacts from environmental disruptions.

Conversely, countries like the United States and the United Kingdom, which exhibit higher levels of income inequality and face political challenges, struggle to maintain food security despite their economic resources. This underscores the importance of targeted social

policies and climate-resilient infrastructure, tailored to each nation's unique challenges. Overall, the data reinforce that a comprehensive, context-sensitive approach is essential for achieving sustainable food security in developed countries. As well as, the data confirm that a multifaceted, context-specific approach is key to reducing hunger in affluent societies.

8. Limitations

Data availability varies among countries, and while correlations are strong, causation cannot be definitively established without further longitudinal studies. Economic and political changes can rapidly affect hunger rates, necessitating ongoing monitoring.

9. Conclusion

This study demonstrates that addressing food insecurity in developed countries requires a comprehensive approach that integrates climate resilience, income equality, political stability, and effective social policies. The analysis revealed that climate change resilience is critical for mitigating hunger, as countries with higher resilience scores, like Sweden and Norway, experience lower food insecurity rates. This underscores the need for adaptive strategies in agriculture, sustainable resource management, and preparedness for extreme weather events to stabilize food availability.

Income inequality emerged as another key determinant of food insecurity. Countries with higher Gini coefficients, such as the United States and the United Kingdom, exhibit higher food insecurity rates, highlighting that economic disparity limits access to food for lower-income groups. Addressing inequality through progressive policies, including minimum wage adjustments and equitable taxation, could play a pivotal role in improving food access.

Political stability also significantly correlates with lower food insecurity. Countries with stable governance are more successful in implementing and maintaining effective social programs, which directly supports food access for vulnerable populations. In contrast, nations with lower political stability face challenges in ensuring consistent food policies and long-term food security strategies.

Surprisingly, social spending alone did not show a strong direct impact on food insecurity, suggesting that merely increasing expenditure is insufficient without targeted, efficient program implementation.

In summary, combating hunger in affluent nations requires an integrated model that balances climate adaptation, income redistribution, stable governance, and strategically implemented social programs. Policymakers should focus on these interconnected factors to achieve sustainable reductions in food insecurity, ensuring that developed countries can effectively support their most vulnerable populations in accessing adequate nutrition.

10. Recommendations

This chapter provides strategic recommendations to address food insecurity in developed nations. By focusing on enhancing climate resilience, promoting income equality, ensuring political stability, and implementing effective social policies, these targeted actions aim to improve food security and support vulnerable populations in affluent societies sustainably.

- **Integrated Policy Development:** Governments should adopt policies that simultaneously address all components of the unified model.
- **Increased Social Spending:** Allocate sufficient funding to social welfare programs to reduce poverty and hunger.

- **Promote Economic Equity:** Implement progressive taxation and minimum wage laws to reduce income inequality.
- **Climate Change Mitigation:** Invest in sustainable agriculture and infrastructure to protect food production.
- **Targeted Regional Strategies:** Develop programs addressing the specific needs of vulnerable communities.
- **Monitoring and Evaluation:** Establish systems to continuously assess intervention effectiveness.

References

1. Alaimo, K., Olson, C. M., & Frongillo, E. A. (2001). Food insufficiency and American school-aged children's cognitive, academic, and psychosocial development. *Pediatrics*, 108(1), 44–53.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11433053/>
2. Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2019). *Australian Environmental-Economic Accounts*.
<https://www.abs.gov.au/>
3. Bartfeld, J., & Dunifon, R. (2006). State-level predictors of food insecurity among households with children. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 25(4), 921–942.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/227559880_State-Level_Predictors_of_Food_Insecurity_Among_Households_with_Children
4. Collier, P., & Hoeffler, A. (2004). Greed and grievance in civil war. *Oxford Economic Papers*, 56(4), 563–595.
<https://academic.oup.com/oep/article-abstract/56/4/563/2361902?login=false>
5. Coleman-Jensen, A., Rabbitt, M. P., Gregory, C. A., & Singh, A. (2020). *Household Food Insecurity in the United States in 2019*. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service.
<https://www.ers.usda.gov/webdocs/publications/99282/err-275.pdf>
6. De Schutter, O. (2014). Final report: The transformative potential of the right to food. *Human Rights Council, 25th Session*.
https://ap.ohchr.org/documents/dpage_e.aspx?si=A/HRC/25/57
7. Dubois, L., Bédard, B., Goulet, D., Prud'homme, D., Tremblay, R. E., Boivin, M. (2023). Experiencing Food Insecurity in childhood: Influences on Eating Habits and Body Weight in young adulthood. *Public Health Nutrition*, 26(11): 2396-2406.
<https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/public-health-nutrition/article/experiencing-food-insecurity-in-childhood-influences-on-eating-habits-and-body-weight-in-young-adulthood/5E21F154AA7363AC049961F362257F4B>
8. Ericksen, P. J. (2008). Conceptualizing food systems for global environmental change research. *Global Environmental Change*, 18(1), 234-245.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/248167331_Conceptualizing_Food_Systems_for_Global_Environmental_Change_Research
9. Esping-Andersen, G. (1990). *The Three Worlds of Welfare Capitalism*. Princeton University Press.
<https://lanekenworthy.net/wp-content/uploads/2017/03/reading-espingandersen1990pp9to78.pdf>
10. FAO. (2017). *The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World 2017*. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.

- <https://www.fao.org/policy-support/tools-and-publications/resources-details/en/c/1107528/>
11. Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO). (2020). *The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World 2020*. Rome: FAO.
<https://openknowledge.fao.org/server/api/core/bitstreams/9a0fca06-5c5b-4bd5-89eb-5dbec0f27274/content>
 12. Rikkonen, P., Rimhanen, K., Aro, K. (2024). Food system futures in Finland: How do experts evaluate changes in resilience up to 2030? Elsevier Volume 159, 1-16.
<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0016328724000478>
 13. Garrone, P., Melacini, M., & Perego, A. (2014). Surplus food recovery and donation in Italy: The upstream process. *British Food Journal*, 116(9), 1460–1477.
https://re.public.polimi.it/retrieve/e0c31c0d-8885-4599-e053-1705fe0aef77/Surplus%20Food%20Recovery_11311-861167_Perego.pdf
 14. Gundersen, C., & Ziliak, J. P. (2015). Food insecurity and health outcomes. *Health Affairs*, 34(11), 1830–1839.
[https://gattonweb.uky.edu/Faculty/Ziliak/GZ_HealthAffairs_34\(11\)_2015.pdf](https://gattonweb.uky.edu/Faculty/Ziliak/GZ_HealthAffairs_34(11)_2015.pdf)
 15. Gundersen, C., Kreider, B., & Pepper, J. (2017). Partial identification methods for evaluating food assistance programs: A case study of the causal impact of SNAP on food insecurity. *American Journal of Agricultural Economics*, 99(4), 875-893.
<https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1093/ajae/aax026>
 16. Bank of Greece. (2024). NOTE ON THE GREEK ECONOMY, Economic Analysis and Research Department Recent Economic Developments: an overview. Bank of Greece, 1-57.
https://www.bankofgreece.gr/Publications/Note_on_the_Greek_economy_2024_03_02_final.pdf
 17. Hughes, L., Steffen, W., Rice, M., & Pearce, A. (2016). *Climate change and Australia's future*. Climate Council of Australia.
 18. Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). (2019). *Climate Change and Land*. Geneva: IPCC.
<https://www.ipcc.ch/site/assets/uploads/2019/11/SRCCL-Full-Report-Compiled-191128.pdf>
 19. ISTAT. (2019). *Report on Poverty in Italy*. Italian National Institute of Statistics.
<https://www.istat.it/en/press-release/poverty-in-italy-year-2019/>
 20. Lobell, D. B., Schlenker, W., & Costa-Roberts, J. (2011). Climate trends and global crop production since 1980. *Science*, 333(6042), 616-620.
<https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/Climate-Trends-and-Global-Crop-Production-Since-Lobell-Schlenker/23e77a3736ff86399c8223d71b142e0ea323f563>
 21. Loopstra, R., & Lalor, D. (2017). Financial insecurity, food insecurity, and disability. *The Trussell Trust*.
<https://yhphnetwork.co.uk/media/1348/financial-insecurity-food-insecurity-and-disability-ttt-2017.pdf>
 22. MEXT. (2020). *School Lunch Program in Japan*. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan.
<https://www.nier.go.jp/English/educationjapan/pdf/201303SLP.pdf>
 23. Ministère de l'Agriculture et de l'Alimentation. (2019). *Bilan de la lutte contre le gaspillage alimentaire*. Paris: Government of France.

24. Ministry for the Environment, Iceland. (2020). *Iceland's Climate Strategy and Agricultural Adaptation to Extreme Environments*. Reykjavik: Government of Iceland.
25. New Zealand Ministry for Primary Industries (MPI). (2022). *New Zealand's Climate-Resilient Agriculture: Strategies for Sustainable Farming*. Wellington: MPI.
26. Norwegian Ministry of Agriculture and Food. (2021). *Norway's Agricultural Strategy and Climate Adaptation Initiatives*. <https://www.regjeringen.no/>
27. Ministry of Agriculture, Portugal. (2022). *Agricultural Resilience and Food Security: Portugal's Path Forward*. Lisbon: Government of Portugal.
28. Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs, South Korea. (2023). *Food Security in South Korea: Addressing Urbanization and Economic Disparities*. Seoul: Government of South Korea.
29. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). (2015). *In It Together: Why Less Inequality Benefits All*. Paris: OECD Publishing. https://www.oecd.org/en/publications/in-it-together-why-less-inequality-benefits-all_9789264235120-en.html
30. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). (2019). *Social Expenditure Update 2019*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
31. OECD. (2023). *Economic Surveys: Belgium 2023*. Paris: OECD Publishing. https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/oecd-economic-surveys-belgium_19990766
32. Pickett, K. E., & Wilkinson, R. G. (2015). Income inequality and health: A causal review. *Social Science & Medicine*, 128, 316–326. <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0277953614008399>
33. Schmidhuber, J., & Tubiello, F. N. (2007). Global food security under climate change. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 104(50), 19703–19708. <https://www.pnas.org/doi/10.1073/pnas.0701976104>
34. Singapore Food Agency (SFA). (2021). *Food Security Roadmap: Diversifying Food Sources and Technologies*. Singapore. <https://www.sfa.gov.sg/>
35. Skoufias, E., Rabassa, M., & Olivieri, S. (2011). The poverty impacts of climate change: A review of the evidence. *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No. 5622*.
36. Smith, L. C., El Obeid, A. E., & Jensen, H. H. (2000). The geography and causes of food insecurity in developing countries. *Agricultural Economics*, 22(2), 199–215.
37. South African Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development. (2022). *Food Security and Agriculture Resilience*. <https://www.dalrrd.gov.za/>
38. Stuckler, D., & Basu, S. (2013). *The Body Economic: Why Austerity Kills*. Basic Books. <https://www.proquest.com/openview/cd48a3c523dcb0b3eebe8eab72e8a356/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=135348>
39. Tarasuk, V., & Mitchell, A. (2020). *Household food insecurity in Canada, 2017–18*. Research to identify policy options to reduce food insecurity (PROOF). <https://www.homelesshub.ca/sites/default/files/attachments/Household%20Food%20Insecurity%20in%20Canada%2C%202021%20-%20PROOF%5B63%5D.pdf>
40. Trussell Trust. (2019). *End of Year Stats*. <https://www.trusselltrust.org/news-and-blog/latest-stats/end-year-stats/>
41. United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). (2019). *Human Development Report 2019*. New York: UNDP.
42. United Nations. (2015). *Transforming our world: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*. United Nations General Assembly. <https://sdgs.un.org/2030agenda>

43. U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA). (2017). *Climate Change and Agriculture in the United States: Effects and Adaptation*. [Journal of Environmental Economics and Management Volume 101](#).
<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0095069620300292>
44. U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA). (2020). *Definitions of Food Security*. <https://www.ers.usda.gov/topics/food-nutrition-assistance/food-security-in-the-us/definitions-of-food-security.aspx>
45. Wheeler, T., & von Braun, J. (2013). Climate change impacts on global food security. *Science*, 341(6145), 508–513. <https://www.science.org/doi/10.1126/science.1239402>
46. Wilkinson, R. G., & Pickett, K. (2009). *The Spirit Level: Why Greater Equality Makes Societies Stronger*. *Poverty&Race* 19(3), 1-16.
<https://www.prrac.org/newsletters/mayjun2010.pdf>