



**ISLAMIC DEVELOPMENT BANK**



**Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI)**  
**University of Oxford**

# **Multidimensional Poverty Assessment in IDB Sub-Saharan African Member Countries**



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Group Chief Economist Complex  
Islamic Development Bank

and

Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI)  
University of Oxford

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# MULTIDIMENSIONAL POVERTY ASSESSMENT IN IDB SUB-SAHARAN AFRICAN MEMBER COUNTRIES

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

**1. This report provides an assessment of multidimensional poverty in IDB Member Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) using the 2015 Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) and associated estimations and analysis.** Launched in 2010 and published by the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) of Oxford University and in the United Nations Development Programme's *Human Development Reports* since that time, the MPI assesses people's deprivations according to 10 indicators that are organized into three equally weighted dimensions: education, health, and living standards. In the 2015 results, the Global MPI has national estimates for 101 countries, and of 5.2 billion people, which is 75% of the world's population. The countries analysed include 43 out of the 57 IDB member countries and all 22 member countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. The report also summarizes results on inequality among the poor, as this is highest in IDB SSA countries. Finally, it scrutinizes the situation in IDB African countries according to a new measure of destitution, which identifies a subset of poor people as destitute if they experience a number of extreme deprivations.

**2. The IDB member countries are home to nearly one-third of the world's multidimensionally poor people in 2015; a total of 504 million people are living in multidimensional poverty in the 43 IDB countries.** IDB member countries are also relatively poorer than the others: 38.9 per

cent of all people living in IDB countries are multidimensionally poor, whereas in non-IDB countries, 27% of people, on average, are MPI poor. Also if we look at MPI values we find that the 43 IDB countries are on average poorer than 58 non-IDB countries for which MPI data is available. Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia are the two poorest regions; together they are home to 87.1% of the MPI poor people living in IDB member countries. Fully over half (52.3%) of the IDB MPI poor live in SSA although the region represents only one-third (32.4%) of the IDB population covered. Of the 504 million people identified as MPI poor in IDB countries, 82.2 per cent live in rural areas—significantly higher than the income poverty estimates of 70 to 75 per cent.

**3. In 2015, a total of 264.3 million people living in the 22 IDB Sub-Saharan African member countries are multidimensionally poor; that is, 61.9 per cent of all people living in these countries.** This is much greater than the headcount ratio of 38.4% for the IDB region as a whole. Where do IDB African poor call home? Of these 264.3 million people, 65.3 per cent live in West Africa, 17.4 per cent in East Africa, 10.8 per cent in Central Africa and 6.5 per cent in Southern Africa. Nigeria alone is home to 87.4 million of MPI poor people; that is one-third of the total number of IDB MPI poor in Sub-Saharan Africa. The IDB member country with the highest incidence of MPI is Niger, where 2012 data showed it had a headcount ratio (H) of 89.3 per cent.

Although, no IDB country had a proportion of MPI poor people of 90 per cent or above, it should be noted that subnational headcount ratios exceeded 90 per cent for 39 out of the 222 IDB SSA subnational regions for which subnational MPI figures were available. The report presents destitution figures for 20 of the 22 IDB African countries, which are home to 150.1 million destitute people; over half—58.8 per cent—of MPI poor in African member countries or 36.2 per cent of the total population of IDB member countries in Sub-Saharan Africa are destitute.

**4. In terms of dynamics, 7 of the 8 African IDB countries for which we have time-series data had statistically significant reductions in multidimensional poverty.** Only Senegal showed no significant change. Nearly all countries that reduced multidimensional poverty also reduced inequality among the poor. However, when considering the increases in population along with the reduction of poverty headcount during the same period, only Gabon and Nigeria decreased the number of people in poverty over the same period.

**5. The report demonstrates the descriptive analyses that multi-dimensional poverty indices enable, such as subgroup decomposition and dynamic analysis of poverty, according to the MPI constituent indicators. This analysis shatters any depiction of African poverty as uniform; it also provides information that is relevant for comparable policy analysis.** Yet the region must be looked at not only regionally, but also country by country and also by sub-national regions inside each country, because the level, composition and trends of multidimensional

poverty can vary a great deal. For national policy purposes, it is important to use the rich national and subnational data on MPI that provides information for specific targeting of programs. Multidimensional poverty in the IDB SSA region is a predominantly rural phenomenon. This is also true when looking at income poverty, but the policy responses to redress MPI differ from those required to generate income. High quality public services in education and health, and adequate water, sanitation, and housing tend to be scarcer in rural areas where the population is more scattered. In setting policies for reducing multidimensional poverty, governments should focus on reducing the incidence of poverty – getting people out of poverty. But they are also expected to ‘leave no one behind’ and to reduce the intensity of deprivations that poor people experience. Given the common challenges across the region, there are implications for international organisations that work with their member countries, such as the Islamic Development Bank. It is clear that growth by itself does not necessarily lead to a reduction in multidimensional poverty. It is important to complement growth strategies with specific multi-sectoral poverty reduction programs that tackle different dimensions of poverty directly and in a synergistic way. It is important for international agencies to recognize that it is not sufficient to focus on one dimension of poverty but rather to understand that national strategies to coordinate poverty reduction inputs are crucial for success.

## Chapter 1

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### **Multidimensional Poverty Index**

#### **Introduction**

- ① Brief Introduction to the Alkire and Foster Methodology
- ① The Implementation of the MPI for IDB Member Countries



## 1. INTRODUCTION

Poverty reduction is one of the main challenges in many IDB member countries. 21 out of 48 Least Developed Countries (LDCs) of the world are in the IDB group of countries. Poverty throughout the region has traditionally been measured by income and yet there is a growing understanding that poverty has many dimensions, that poor people suffer multiple deprivations at the same time.

The new Sustainable Development Goals seek to reduce poverty in all its forms and dimensions. Furthermore, Target 1.2 focuses on multidimensional poverty and aims to:

*“By 2030, reduce at least by half the proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions.”*

National policymakers in many IDB member countries have challenges in formulating effective strategies to combat the many dimensions of poverty, as they do not have nationally-collected data on many of its indicators. What does exist is data collected by international agencies and analysed and published by the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) of Oxford University and in the United Nations Development Programme’s *Human Development Reports*.

This report provides an assessment of multidimensional poverty in IDB member countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) using the 2015 Multidimensional Poverty

Index (MPI) and associated estimations and analysis (Alkire and Robles 2015, Alkire et al. 2014a, 2014b). Launched in 2010 and reported in the United Nations Development Programme’s (UNDP) Human Development Reports since that time (Alkire and Santos 2010, 2014; UNDP 2010), the MPI assesses people’s deprivations according to 10 indicators that are organized into three equally weighted dimensions: education, health, and living standards.

### 1.1 Brief Introduction to the Alkire and Foster Methodology

Alkire and Foster (2011) propose an innovative method to measure poverty in multiple dimensions. The index considers people experiencing deprivations as they do not reach the minimum standards in indicators of basic functionings, which can be measured in the form of either cardinal or ordinal variables. It also considers people experiencing multiple deprivations simultaneously, as they do not reach the minimum standards in several aspects of their wellbeing.

The Alkire and Foster method bases its definition of poverty in two thresholds or cut-offs. The first one is set specifically in each indicator to define the sufficient level below which people are considered deprived in that indicator. This threshold identifies the existence of deprivations, but since we want to gauge the extent to which deprivations pile on top of each other for the same people, a deprivation score is constructed by adding up the weighted deprivations experience by each person. Some deprivations may be regarded more distressing than others, so they are assessed with a larger weight

in the deprivation score. This is the reason why we add up weighted deprivations in the deprivation score.

Once the individual deprivation score has been elicited, a second threshold should be defined: the *k* cut-off that simply defines the amount of simultaneous deprivations that a person should endure in order to be identified as poor. Specifically, *k* indicates the proportion of weighted deprivations that define poverty, so if *k* is equal or larger to 50%, this indicates that people experiencing deprivations in 50% or more of the weighted indicators are to be considered poor. Importantly, this second threshold, also known as poverty threshold, is closely related to the concept of intensity, as people below the threshold are thought to experience poverty more intensely than those above. Hence, the Alkire and Foster method then proceeds to censor the deprivation of those above the poverty threshold in order to focus only on those identified as poor.

Incidence and intensity are the key pieces of the index. The *incidence* is the proportion of people in a given society who experience multiple deprivations equal or larger than *k*, the poverty threshold, as a proportion of the weighted indicators. This first component is also known as the multidimensional headcount ratio (*H*), formally:

$$H = \frac{q}{n}$$

Where *q* is the number of people who are multidimensionally poor and *n* is the total population in the society.

The second component of the index is the *intensity* (or breadth) of poverty (*A*). The intensity of poverty for each individual

in the society is given by her deprivation score, which is the weighted sum of the deprivations she experiences simultaneously. For the whole society, then, *A* is the average deprivation score of the multidimensionally poor people. Put differently, it is the average proportion of (weighted) deprivations the multidimensional poor people experience, and can be expressed formally as:

$$A = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n c_i(k)}{q}$$

where *c<sub>i</sub>(k)* is the censored deprivation score of individual *i* and *q* is the number of people who are multidimensionally poor<sup>1</sup>.

The Alkire and Foster methodology aggregates these two pieces of information. Alkire and Foster (2011) termed this index the ‘Adjusted Headcount Ratio’ or *M<sub>0</sub>* because, somewhat like the poverty gap measure in unidimensional space, it reflects the average breadth of deprivations that poor people experience, thus providing policy incentives to reduce intensity of deprivations even for the poorest among the poor. The *M<sub>0</sub>* is the product of both incidence and intensity: *M<sub>0</sub>* = *H* × *A*

The Global Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) is a *M<sub>0</sub>* measure that applies this multidimensional measurement methodology. It has 10 indicators that identify a person as deprived if:

- No household member has completed 5 years of schooling.

<sup>1</sup> Note that the formula of *A* differs the one you can find in Alkire and Foster (2011) in that it does not contain *d* in its denominator. This is because *d* is already included in the deprivation score *c<sub>i</sub>(k)*, since it is a weighted sum of the deprivations of each poor person, where the indicators’ weights add up to 1.

- Any school-aged child in the household is not attending school, up to the age at which the child would complete class eight.
- Any child has died in the household within the last 5 years.
- Any adult or child, for whom there is nutritional information, is malnourished.
- The household has no electricity.
- The household’s sanitation facility is not improved (according to Millennium Development Goal [MDG] guidelines), or it is improved but shared with other households.
- The household does not have access to safe drinking water (according to MDG guidelines), or safe drinking water is a 30-minute walk or more, round-trip, from home.
- The household has a dirt, sand, or dung floor.

- The household cooks with dung, wood, or charcoal.
- The household does not own more than one radio, TV, telephone, bike, motorbike, or refrigerator and does not own a car or truck.

Then we construct a deprivation score  $c_i$  that sums the weighted indicators—with education and health indicators (1–4 above), weighted at 1/6 and living standards indicators weighted at 1/18 to preserve equal weights across dimensions. A person is identified as multidimensionally poor if deprived in at least one-third of the weighted indicators. The MPI, as an M0 measure, is the product of the percentage of people identified as poor and the average intensity—or average deprivation score among the poor. The following Table 1 illustrates how the MPI is constructed by providing a hypothetical example of people living in 4 households.

**Table 1**  
Example Using Hypothetical Data

Indicators	People in Households				Weights
	1	2	3	4	
Household size	4	7	5	4	
<i>Education</i>					
No one has completed five years of schooling	0	1	0	1	1/6=0.167
At least one school-age child not enrolled in school	0	1	0	0	1/6=0.167
<i>Health</i>					
At least one member is malnourished	0	0	1	0	1/6=0.167
One or more children have died	1	1	0	1	1/6=0.167
<i>Living Standards</i>					
No electricity	0	1	1	1	1/18=0.056
No access to clean drinking water	0	0	1	0	1/18=0.056
No access to adequate sanitation	0	1	1	0	1/18=0.056
House has dirt floor	0	0	0	0	1/18=0.056
Household uses “dirty” cooking fuel (dung, firewood or charcoal)	1	1	1	1	1/18=0.056
Household has no car and owns at most one bicycle, motorcycle, radio, refrigerator, telephone or television	0	1	0	1	1/18=0.056
Score $c_i$ (sum of each deprivation multiplied by its weight)	<b>0.222</b>	<b>0.722</b>	<b>0.389</b>	<b>0.500</b>	
<b>Is the household poor (<math>c \geq 1/3 = 0.333</math>)?</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>Yes</b>	
Censored score $c_i(k)$	<b>0</b>	<b>0.722</b>	<b>0.389</b>	<b>0.500</b>	

Note: 1 indicates deprivation in the indicator; 0 indicates non-deprivation.

### Box 1: Ground Reality Check: The Faces that the MPI Reflects



Sixty-seven-year-old Issa lives with his wife and seven children in the Far North Region of Cameroon. He was injured 12 years ago while working as a mason and did not have adequate health care, so can no longer do physical labour. Issa now earns a living for his family by teaching local children the Koran, for which he receives donations and support from the community.

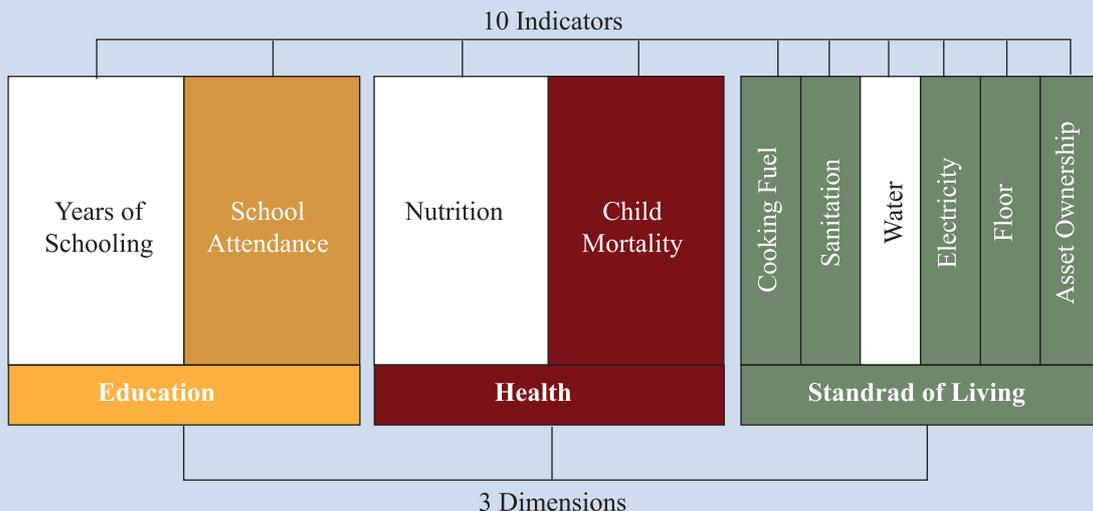
Although some of Issa’s children attend school, others remain at home in order to work – for example selling doughnuts. This means Issa’s household is deprived in the MPI’s school attendance indicator.

Although not malnourished, Issa’s family has suffered a terrible burden, in that they lost two children under the age of five, making them deprived in child mortality.

Cooking fuel – wood, dung, crop waste, and charcoal – is not always available and cooking is therefore irregular. But when they have fuel, this is what Issa’s family use to prepare their food.

Issa’s home has no flooring, no electricity, no toilet of any sort, and lacks any of the household assets listed in the MPI survey (radio, bicycle, mobile phone, etc). Thus, Issa and his household are also deprived in these indicators within the MPI standard of living dimension.

Overall, Issa and his family experience deprivation in 61% of the weighted indicators of the MPI as shown below:  $(1/6 + 1/6 + 5/18 = 11/18 = .61$ , which is 61%).



The MPI can be broken down into its partial indices, namely incidence and intensity, and also by each of the indicators. This makes the MPI a powerful tool to inform public policy against poverty.

Score of each person in household 1:  $c_i =$

$$\left(1 \times \frac{1}{6}\right) + \left(1 \times \frac{1}{18}\right) = 0.222$$

Multidimensional Headcount ratio ( $H$ ) =

$$\left(\frac{7+5+4}{4+7+5+4}\right) = 0.800$$

Intensity of poverty ( $A$ ) =

$$\frac{(0 \times 4) + (0.722 \times 7) + (0.389 \times 5) + (0.500 \times 4)}{(7+5+4)} = 0.5625$$

MPI =  $H \times A = 0.450$ .

## 1.2 The Implementation of the MPI for IDB Member Countries

In 2015, MPI estimations were reported for 101 countries that include 43 IDB member countries in total and all twenty-two IDB member countries in sub-Saharan Africa. This report mainly focuses on results for the IDB member countries in Sub-Saharan Africa<sup>2</sup>. Since 2014, the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI), which estimates the MPI, also releases a new measure of destitution, which identifies a subset of poor people as destitute if they experience a number of extreme deprivations like severe malnutrition, losing two children, having all primary school-aged school children not attending school, or practicing open defecation (Alkire and Robles 2015, Alkire, Conconi and Seth 2014a). This report also presents destitution figures for 20 of the

22 IDB member countries in Africa<sup>3</sup>, which are home to **150.1 million destitute people** or 36.2 per cent of the total population of IDB countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. Changes in MPI and destitution over time (Alkire et al. 2014b) are also presented for 8 IDB countries in Sub-Saharan Africa and 68 subnational regions, covering 286.3 million people<sup>4</sup>, which was about 67.1 per cent of the total population of IDB countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, based on per population estimates for 2011.

<sup>2</sup> This briefing draws upon related global MPI analyses, including research in progress (Alkire Conconi and Seth 2014a, Alkire et al. 2014b), working papers (Seth and Alkire 2014), and briefings (Alkire and Robles 2015; Alkire et al. 2015a, 2015b; Alkire and Vaz 2014).

<sup>3</sup> Djibouti and Somalia do not have estimates on destitution published in Africa.

<sup>4</sup> This is true using 2011 population data. The population covered is 297.9 million if we use the 'closing' year of the survey.



## Chapter 2

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### **Data Sources**

#### **Data Sources for the Global MPI**

- ① Household Survey Data
- ① Updates and Coverage



## **2. DATA SOURCES FOR THE GLOBAL MPI**

### **2.1 Household Survey Data**

The MPI relies on the most recent data available from three data sets that are publicly available and comparable. We use USAID's Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) for 14 IDB African countries, UNICEF's Multiple Indicators Cluster Survey (MICS) for 6 countries, and data jointly collected by DHS and MICS for 2 countries. The global MPI was computed for different numbers of countries and years of survey data collection. All of the 22 data sets used for IDB African countries contain information on all 10 MPI indicators. Table 2 provides data sources, dates of surveys, and population sizes for the different IDB countries in SSA analysed.

### **2.2 Updates and Coverage**

In the 2015 results, the Global MPI has national estimates for 101 countries, and of 5.2 billion people, which is 75% of the world's population. The countries analysed include 43 out of the 56 IDB member countries and all 22 IDB countries in Sub-Saharan Africa.

In 2015, OPHI released new estimations for 12 of these IDB Sub-Saharan African countries and 145 IDB subnational regions. This is a major update and provides new estimations for roughly 66% of the population of IDB countries in SSA. If we combine the 2014 and 2015 MPI updates alone, OPHI has released estimations based on new datasets for fully 18 of the 22 IDB Sub-Saharan African countries; only Burkina Faso, Djibouti, Somalia and Uganda have not been updated over the last two years. In particular, in 2015 OPHI added new MPI estimations for Comoros and Sudan, and updated estimations of the MPI for 10 countries: Benin, Chad, Guinea, Mali, Mauritania, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone,

and Togo. Every single updated country has disaggregated data by rural-urban areas and by subnational regions.

The 22 IDB SSA countries analysed include three Central Africa countries (Cameroon, Chad and Gabon), four East African countries (Djibouti, Somalia, Sudan and Uganda), two Southern African countries (Comoros and Mozambique), and 13 West African countries (Benin, Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Togo). The global MPI has been decomposed for 222 subnational regions across 20 IDB African countries - all IDB countries in SSA except Guinea-Bissau and Somalia.

**Table 2**  
**Global MPI 2015: Data Sources and population for IDB Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa**

Country	Region	MPI data source		Total population (in Thousands)	
		Survey	Year	Year of the survey <sup>a</sup>	Population 2011 <sup>a</sup>
Benin	West Africa	DHS	2011/12	10,051	9,780
Burkina Faso	West Africa	DHS	2010	15,540	15,995
Cameroon	Central Africa	DHS	2011	21,156	21,156
Chad	Central Africa	MICS	2010	11,721	12,080
Comoros	Southern Africa	DHS-MICS	2012	718	700
Cote d'Ivoire	West Africa	DHS	2011/12	19,840	19,390
Djibouti	East Africa	MICS	2006	787	847
Gabon	Central Africa	DHS	2012	1,633	1,594
Gambia	West Africa	DHS	2013	1,849	1,735
Guinea	West Africa	DHS-MICS	2012	11,451	11,162
Guinea-Bissau	West Africa	MICS	2006	1,453	1,624
Mali	West Africa	DHS	2012/13	15,302	14,417
Mauritania	West Africa	MICS	2011	3,703	3,703
Mozambique	Southern Africa	DHS	2011	24,581	24,581
Niger	West Africa	DHS	2012	17,157	16,511
Nigeria	West Africa	DHS	2013	173,615	164,193
Senegal	West Africa	DHS Cont.	2014	14,548	13,331
Sierra Leone	West Africa	DHS	2013	6,092	5,865
Somalia	East Africa	MICS	2006	8,688	9,908
Sudan	East Africa	MICS	2010	35,652	36,431
Togo	West Africa	DHS	2013/14	6,993	6,472
Uganda	East Africa	DHS	2011	35,148	35,148

**Source:** Adapted from Alkire and Robles (2015). (a) Population data are from UNDESA (2013).

## Chapter 3

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### **MULTIDIMENSIONAL POVERTY**

Multidimensional Poverty in the  
IDB Member Countries



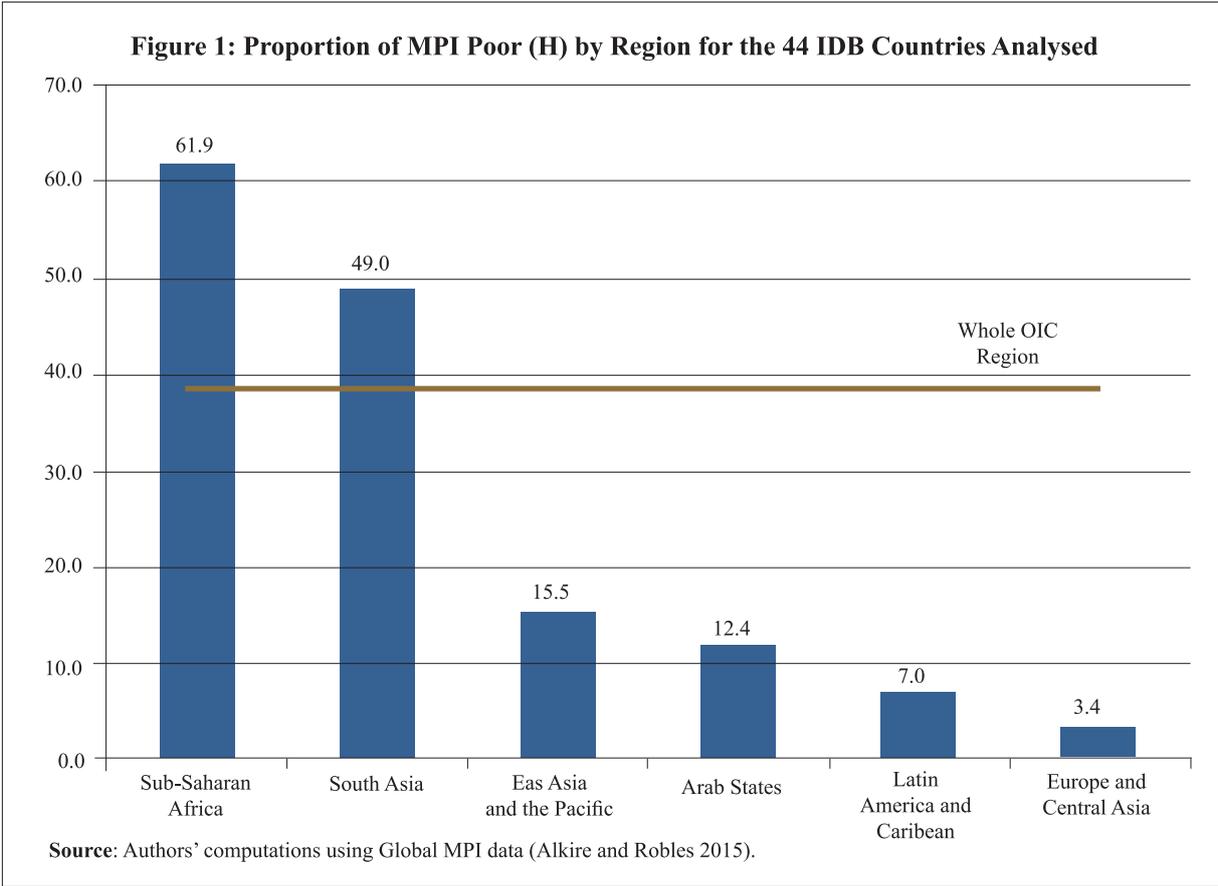


### 3. MULTIDIMENSIONAL POVERTY IN THE IDB MEMBER COUNTRIES

The IDB countries are home to nearly one-third of the world’s multidimensionally poor people in 2015. The global MPI 2015 covers 5.2 billion people in 101 countries, which represent 75 per cent of the world’s population, using 2011 population data (UNDESA 2013). This includes 43 IDB countries, for which data is available, that are home to 1.3 billion people. About one-quarter of the population covered live in IDB countries. In 2015, a total of 504 million people are living in multidimensional poverty in these 43 IDB countries – which is nearly one-third of the 1.56 billion MPI poor people. IDB countries are also relatively poorer than the others: 38.9 per cent of all people living in IDB countries are multidimensionally poor, whereas in non-

IDB countries, 27% of people, on average, are MPI poor. Also if we look at MPI values we find that the 43 IDB countries are on average poorer than 58 non-IDB countries for which MPI data is available.

Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia are the two poorest IDB regions; together they are home to 87.1% of the MPI poor people living in IDB countries. Over half (52.3%) of the IDB MPI poor live in SSA although the region represents only one-third (32.4%) of the IDB population covered (Table 3). Across the 427 million people living in IDB countries in SSA, 61.9% of people live in multidimensional poverty. This is much greater than the headcount ratio of 38.4% for the IDB region as a whole (Figure 1). Table 4 summarises the results for IDB countries in Sub-Saharan Africa and other world regions. Although the other regions are home to more than twice as many people as Sub-Saharan



**Table 3**  
Global MPI Results Across IDB and Non-IDB Countries

Membership (Number of Countries)	MPI	H (% of population who are MPI poor)	A (average intensity of poverty) (%)	Number of MPI poor people (millions)	Total population (millions, 2011 data)
Non IDB Countries (58)	0.140	26.8	52.2	1054.3	3928.4
IDB Countries (43):	0.208	38.9	53.4	504.0	1294.3
<b>Total (101)</b>	<b>0.157</b>	<b>29.8</b>	<b>52.6</b>	<b>1558.4</b>	<b>5222.7</b>

Source: Authors' computations using Global MPI data (Alkire and Robles 2015).

Africa, they are also home to slightly fewer MPI poor people. In aggregate the MPI, the incidence and intensity of poverty, and the number of poor persons are lower in IDB countries outside Sub-Saharan Africa.

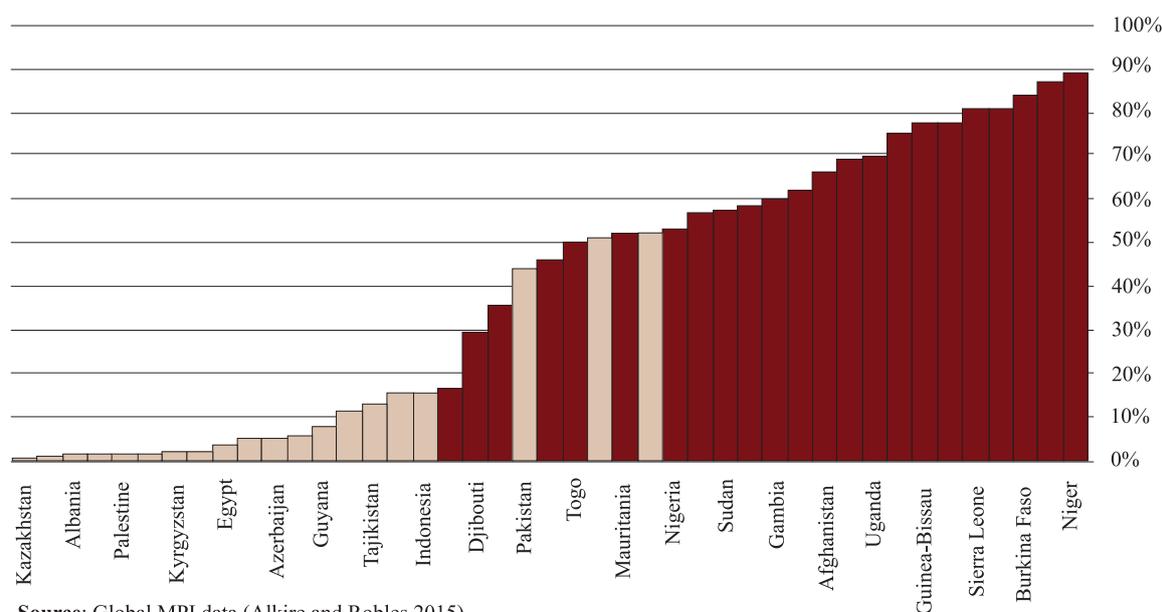
The 10 MPI poorest IDB countries are in sub-Saharan Africa. In these countries between 2/3 and 9/10 of the population live in multidimensional poverty (Figure 2). The poorest IDB country outside sub-Saharan Africa is Afghanistan, in which 66.2% of people are MPI poor.

Of the 504 million people identified as MPI poor in IDB countries, 82.2 per cent live in

rural areas—significantly higher than the income poverty estimates of 70 to 75 per cent.

The highest levels of inequality among the poor are also found in IDB African countries. Out of the 100 countries analysed, the greatest inequality among the poor was in Burkina Faso (Alkire and Robles 2015), followed by Nigeria, Niger and Guinea. In high inequality countries, some of the poor are barely poor, whereas some have very high deprivation scores.

**Figure 2: Proportion of MPI Poor (H) in 43 IDB Countries Covered**  
(Dark Bars Indicate Sub-Saharan African Countries)



Source: Global MPI data (Alkire and Robles 2015).

**Table 4**  
**Multidimensional Poverty in IDB Countries by Region**

<b>Region (Number of Countries)</b>	<b>MPI</b>	<b>H (% of population who are MPI poor)</b>	<b>A (average % intensity of poverty)</b>	<b>MPI poor people (millions)</b>	<b>Total population (millions)</b>
Europe and Central Asia (6) <sup>1</sup>	0.013	3.4	38.9	2.4	69.8
Latin America and Caribbean (2) <sup>2</sup>	0.028	7.0	39.7	0.1	1.3
East Asia and the Pacific (1) <sup>3</sup>	0.066	15.5	42.9	37.7	243.8
Arab States (8) <sup>4</sup>	0.059	12.4	47.3	24.1	194.3
South Asia (4) <sup>5</sup>	0.250	49.0	51.0	175.5	358.5
Sub-Saharan Africa (22)	0.355	61.9	57.3	264.3	426.6
Total: IDB region (43)	0.208	38.9	53.4	504.0	1294.3
IDB countries not in Sub-Saharan Africa (21)	0.136	27.6	49.3	239.7	867.7

<sup>1</sup> Albania, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, and Uzbekistan,

<sup>2</sup> Guyana and Suriname,

<sup>3</sup> Indonesia.

<sup>4</sup> Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Libya, Morocco, Palestine, Tunisia, and Yemen,

<sup>5</sup> Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Maldives, and Pakistan.

**Source:** Authors' computations using Global MPI data (Alkire and Robles 2015).



## Chapter 4

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### **INCIDENCE AND INTENSITY OF POVERTY**



#### **The Incidence and Intensity of Poverty**

- ① Key Findings for IDB Member Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa
- ① Rural-Urban Decomposition
- ① Dimensional Disaggregation: Diverse Experiences of Poverty in the IDB Region
- ① Inequality Among the MPI Poor Across 22 SSA IDB Member Countries



**4. THE INCIDENCE AND INTENSITY OF POVERTY**

**4.1 Key Findings for IDB Member Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa**

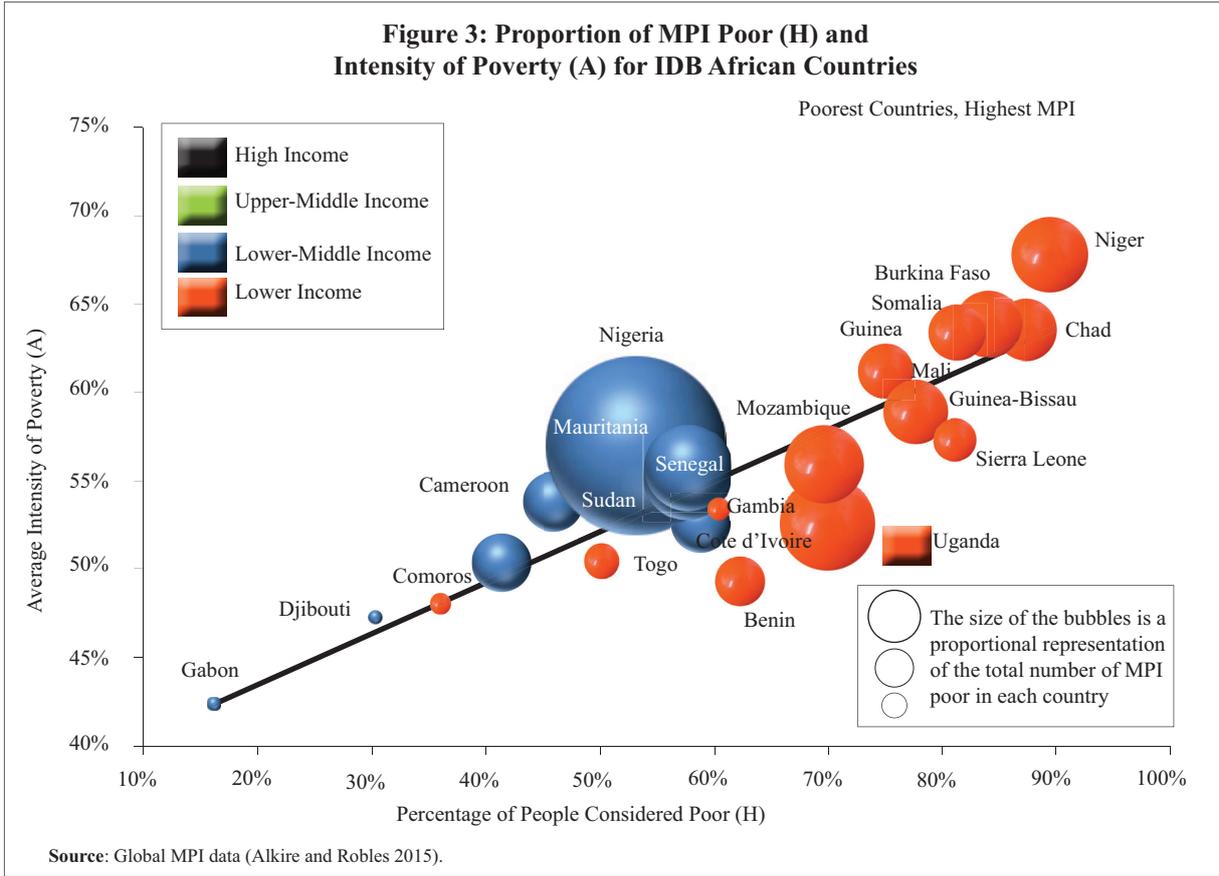
In 2015, a total of 264.3 million people living in the 22 IDB Sub-Saharan African countries are multidimensionally poor; that is, 61.9 per cent of all people living in these countries.

Where do IDB African poor call home? Of these 264.3 million people, 65.3 per cent live in West Africa, 17.4 per cent in East Africa, 10.8 per cent in Central Africa and 6.5 per cent in Southern Africa. Nigeria alone is home to 87.4 million of MPI poor people; that is one-third of the total number of IDB MPI poor in Sub-Saharan Africa. Of the 264.3 million people identified as MPI poor in IDB African countries, 81.8 per cent live in rural areas.

The IDB country with the highest incidence of MPI is Niger, where 2012 data showed it had a headcount ratio (H) of 89.3 per cent (Alkire and Robles 2015).

The second poorest IDB African country is Chad with a MPI headcount ratio (H) of 87.2 per cent in 2010. The poorest countries in terms of proportion of MPI poor are also those that face most intense poverty (as shown in Figure 3).

For most countries, the MPI, H and A are also reported at subnational level. Across these 23 countries, we have subnational details for 222 regions. The poorest region of all IDB countries but also of all 101 countries covered is Salamat, in in south-east Chad, a landlocked region just south of the Sahel, bordering the Central African Republic. Using Salamat’s 2010 MICS dataset we find that nearly 98% of its 354,000 inhabitants are poor. On average, each poor person



in Salamat is deprived in 73% of the MPI dimensions, which also makes it the region with the highest intensity of poverty. In fact, three of the five poorest regions are in Chad. The country with the next-poorest region (both in IDB countries and across the 101 countries) is East Burkina Faso, where 97% of people are MPI poor, and average intensity of 72%. So IDB countries do bear some terrible burdens in terms of pockets of poverty, and these are illuminated by the subnational decompositions of the global MPI. For example although no IDB country had a proportion of MPI poor people of 90 per cent or above, subnational headcount ratios exceeded 90 per cent for 39 out of the 222 IDB SSA subnational regions for which subnational MPI figures were available (Alkire and Robles 2015).

In terms of dynamics, 7 of the 8 African IDB countries for which we have time-series data had statistically significant reductions in multidimensional poverty. Only Senegal showed no significant change<sup>5</sup>. Nearly all countries that reduced multidimensional poverty also reduced inequality among the poor (Alkire et al. 2014b). However, when considering the increases in population along with the reduction of poverty headcount during the same period, only Gabon and Nigeria decreased the number of people in poverty over the same period (Alkire, et al, 2014). More detailed results are discussed below and provided in Tables A.1, A.2, A.3, A.4, and A.5 of the Appendix.

## 4.2 Rural-Urban Decomposition

The global MPI uses the same indicators to depict rural and urban poverty, allowing us to directly compare MPI poverty in rural and urban areas. This provides a new source of information on directly comparable rural–

urban poverty breakdowns for our 22 IDB African countries<sup>6</sup>.

Of the 264.3 million people identified as MPI poor in IDB African countries, 82.2 per cent live in rural areas—significantly higher than the income poverty estimate of 73.8 per cent reported for Sub-Saharan Africa as a whole (Table 4, Alkire, et al, 2014b). With the MPI, the pattern of higher incidence and intensity of poverty in rural areas as compared to urban ones is consistent across the different IDB countries in SSA. This, combined with the fact that in the whole 22 countries analysed (except Gabon and Djibouti) over half of their population lives in rural areas, indicates that those in acute poverty are mostly concentrated in rural areas.

The MPI suggests that the rural share of poverty is higher than income poverty estimates. UN agencies frequently cite 70 to 75 per cent as their headline figure—for example the Global Donor Platform for Rural Development (GDPRD 2005) argues that since ‘three-quarters of the poor live in rural areas of the developing world’, rural poverty needs to be targeted to achieve MDG 1. Similarly, according to the World Bank’s 2008 *World Development Report: Agriculture for Development* and an ILO report in the same year, 75 per cent of the world’s poor live in rural areas. A 2013 World Bank briefing, *The State of Poor*, also takes this as a starting point: ‘More than three quarters of those living in extreme poverty are in rural areas and nearly two thirds of the extremely poor earn a living from agriculture’ (Olinto et al. 2013, p. 1). Where do these income poverty estimates of urban–rural poverty come from? In short, they come from cross-country income poverty data carefully combined using a number of assumptions. Complementing these estimates, the global MPI uses a set

<sup>5</sup>. Due to data availability, time spells for the various countries differ. The spells are much longer in some countries than in others. Table A.4 of the Appendix provides the different time spells for the 8 IDB African countries included in the dynamic analysis

<sup>6</sup>. The definition of ‘rural’ and ‘urban’ are derived from the surveys used to construct the MPI; these definitions may vary slightly across countries.

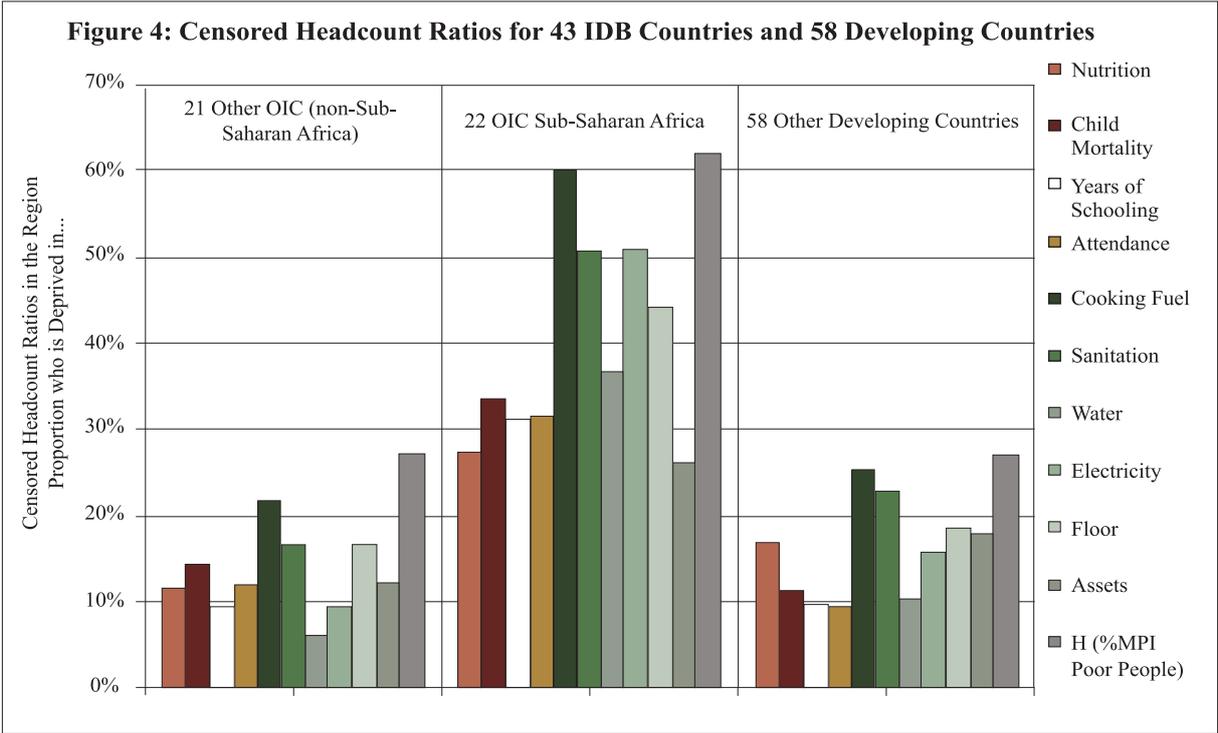
of 10 indicators that are applied consistently in both rural and urban areas and can be decomposed very easily into comparable measures.

**4.3 Dimensional Disaggregation: Diverse Experiences of Poverty in the IDB Region**

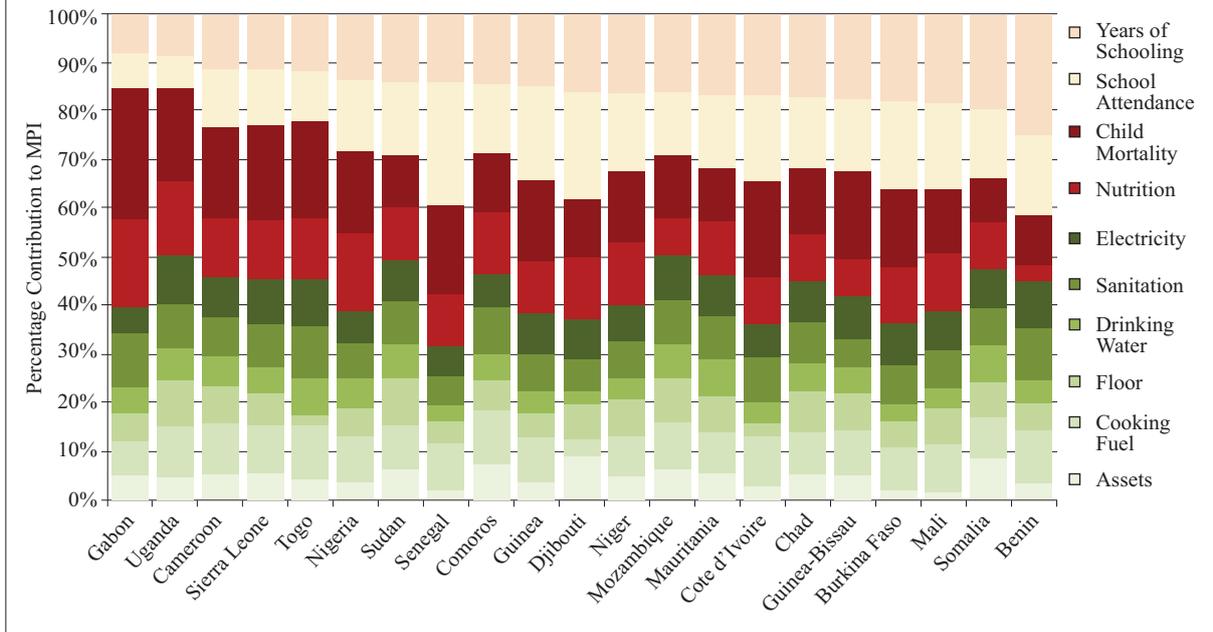
The Alkire and Foster method allow us to understand how poverty is experienced in different ways across the IDB countries. The following graph 4 reports the censored headcount ratios, which are the proportion of the population who experience deprivations in each of the 10 indicators and are classified as multidimensionally poor. The Figure 4 is divided into three panes, each of which depicts results for the 22 IDB Sub-Saharan African countries, the 21 IDB non-Sub-Saharan African countries and the remaining 58 countries for which MPI is available. In each pane, countries are considered based on the size of their populations, and the disaggregated information by country is provided in table A1 of the appendix at the end of this document. The gray bar at the right

end of each pane depicts the Headcount ratio for each group of countries. They confirm the results in tables 3 and 4. In the three groups, the largest deprivation is cooking fuel, which is closely followed by deprivation in sanitation. Yet, deprivations in electricity are very prominent in IDB Sub-Saharan Africa, whereas deprivations in flooring are the third most frequent deprivation among the 22 non-Sub-Saharan African countries. In the 58 non-IDB countries, deprivations in both indicators of education are the less frequent, whereas in IDB countries education remains to be a challenge. Deprivations in education are more frequent among the poor in Sub-Saharan Africa than deprivations in nutrition. Child mortality remains a challenge among the 43 IDB countries.

The Global MPI also analyses the contribution of each dimensions to the overall poverty. The following Figure 5 displays this information for each of the 22 IDB Sub-Saharan African countries. We see that the composition of poverty for each country in the group may be different, which also speaks about the



**Figure 5. Percentage Contribution of Each Indicator to Overall MPI for 22 IDB in Sub-Saharan Africa**

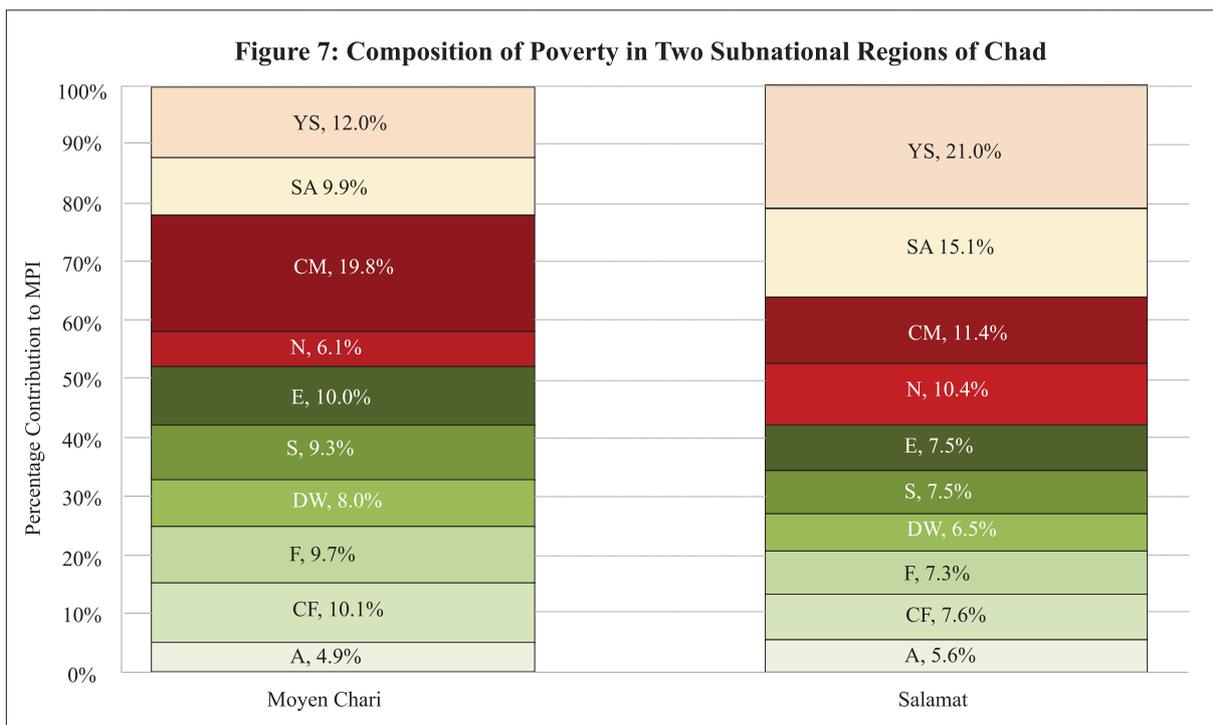
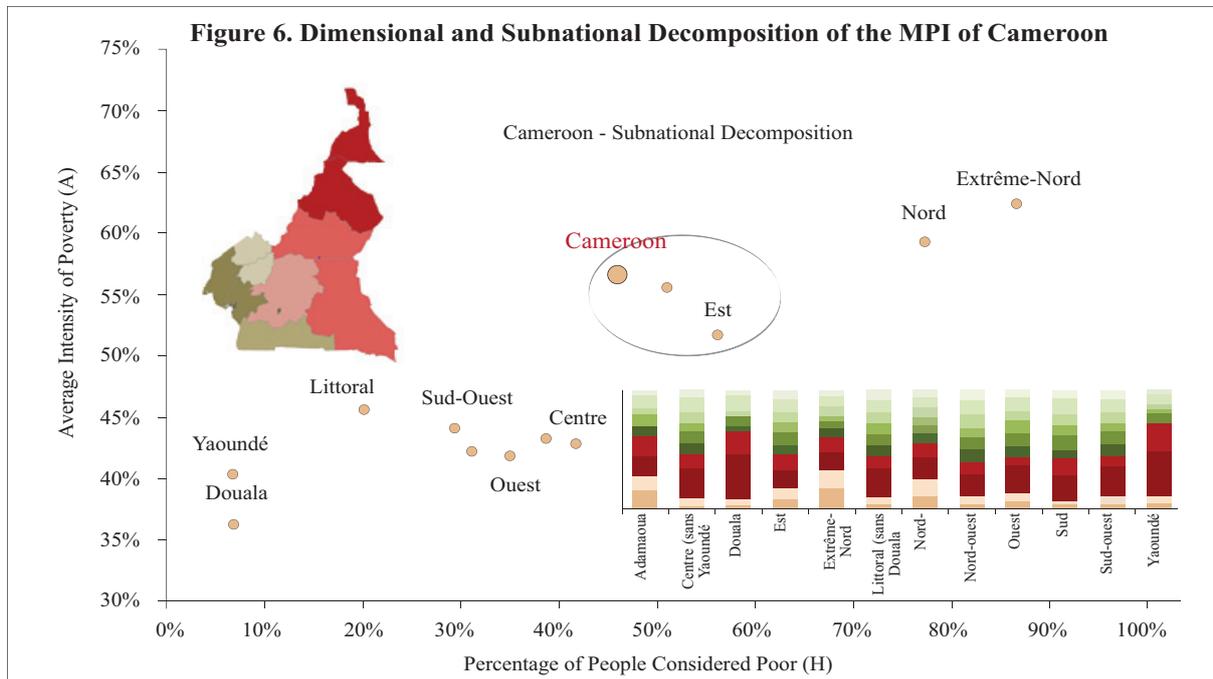


challenges that each country face relative to their own poverty levels. In countries such as Gambia, Cote d'Ivoire, Burkina Faso the contribution of dimensions tend to be relatively equal. In countries such as Gabon, deprivations in health dominate the MPI, and the deprivations in education contribute the most to poverty in Benin and Senegal. Deprivations in living standards contribute to 45% or more to the MPI in 10 countries, and they are the highest in Uganda, Sudan and Mozambique. Each country could use this analysis to understand the nuances of the challenges posed by multidimensional poverty nationally, and supplement this with subnational data showing the composition of MPI.

The national composition of poverty can be disaggregated by subnational regions to provide rich information on the regional variations of the experience of poverty. The following diagram depicts an example of the kind of analysis that is possible to carry out for each country. Cameroon's

MPI is broken down in 12 sub-regions and depicted on a map on the top right corner of Figure 6. Additionally, the graph that compares incidence and intensity depicts the national figures for Cameroon and also the regional figures so we can gauge the spread of incidence and intensity in the country. Furthermore, the stripy diagram in the bottom right corner depicts the contribution of each indicator to the regional MPI. We observe that while the poor living in many provinces experience most deprivations in living standard indicators, in line with the national trend, but health related deprivations are predominant in Yaoundé and Douala.

How is this information on the composition of poverty useful for policy? Consider Figure 7, which shows the composition of poverty in Salamat alongside that of a neighbouring region in Chad, Moyen Chari. The overall contribution of educational deprivations - the top light boxes - is much larger in Salamat than Moyen Chari. So in Salamat, vigorous investments in education and schooling are even more vital than they are in in Moyen



Chari. A national average would hide this information.

#### 4.4 Inequality Among the MPI Poor Across 22 SSA IDB Member Countries

This section draws on Seth and Alkire (2014), which explore the distributional

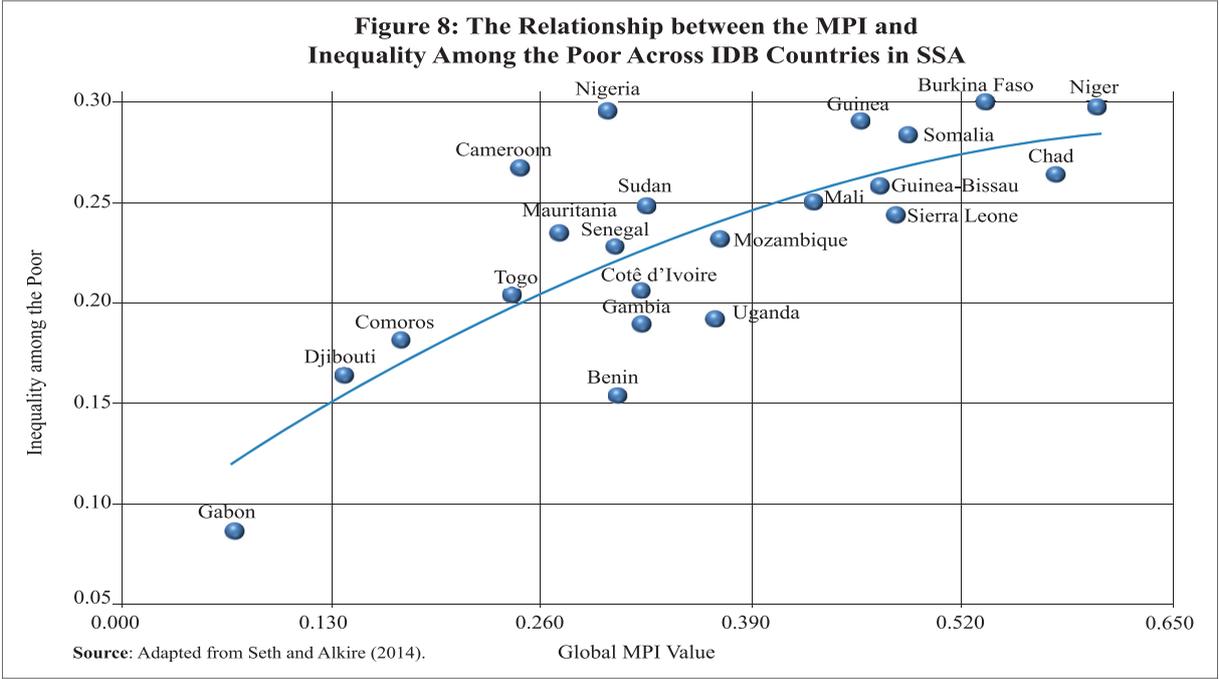
concerns by focusing only among the poor. The authors apply a new measure to assess inequality in multiple deprivations or intensities that exists within a country and within subnational regions. The measure that is used to assess inequality across the poor is the variance (V) of the deprivation scores, which is normalized in such a way

that it lies between zero and one<sup>7</sup>. When all poor people have the same deprivation score, then there is no inequality, and the measure is equal to zero; the inequality measure takes the maximum value of one when one-half of the poor people has the maximum possible deprivation score of 100% and the rest have the minimum possible deprivation score equal to the poverty cut-off, i.e., 33.33%.

We recall that the MPI measures both incidence and average intensity of deprivations among the poor. But similar levels of poverty may correspond to strikingly different deprivation scores among the poor. It is then

relation between the MPI, its intensity, and the inequality among the poor.

In the 22 IDB countries in SSA analysed the inequality measure ranges from 0.087 in Gabon to 0.300 in Burkina Faso (Alkire and Robles 2015). Considering that in a total of 101 countries inequality varies from 0.003 to 0.300, we see that the 22 SSA-IDB have a wide range of inequality. If we consider the 5 countries with the highest inequality among the poor, their MPIs range from 0.303 in Nigeria to 0.605 in Niger. Figure 8 presents the relationship between the MPI and inequality among the poor across the 22



important to describe the inequality among the poor population, to better understand the conditions of the people living in poverty. As we can see, inequality among the poor people also draws upon the deprivation score that we have used to define poverty, its incidence and intensity. Crucially, poor people would experience different deprivation scores and both average intensity among the poor (A) and the (V) measures are built upon these differences. This is why there is a close

relation between the MPI, its intensity, and the inequality among the poor. Overall, there is a positive relationship between the MPI and inequality among the poor, however, there are differences: for example, Nigeria and Benin have very similar MPIs, but Nigeria has much higher inequality. So, too, Cameroon has much higher inequality than Togo.

<sup>7</sup> For further discussions, see Seth and Alkire (2014).

## Chapter 5

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### **DESTITUTION**

#### **Destitution in IDB Member Countries in Africa**

- ① What is 'Destitution'?
- ① Who are the Destitute in IDB African Member Countries?
- ① Where are the Destitute in IDB African Member Countries?



## 5. DESTITUTION IN IDB MEMBER COUNTRIES IN AFRICA

The global MPI 2014 and 2015 results also apply more extreme MPI indicators to highlight hundreds of millions of people who face grinding hardships and thus must be singled out as populations of concern: the destitute, or the poorest of the poor. The destitution measure is designed such that the destitute are a strict subset of the MPI poor, which facilitates some interesting analysis because different proportions of MPI poor people experience the troubling condition of destitution across countries and subnational regions. This section describes destitution for IDB countries in sub-Saharan Africa.

### 5.1 What is ‘Destitution’?

With the debate raging about the accuracy of the \$1.25/day and \$1.90/day measures to monitor extreme poverty and its reduction, it can be useful to introduce into this discussion a different measure of extreme poverty. The global MPI identifies more people as poor than do the \$1.25/day and \$1.90/day measures, both across all developing countries and in Africa.

One way to focus in on the poorest of the poor is to change the poverty cut-off—for example, to identify a person as ‘severely poor’ if he or she is deprived in one-half or more of the weighted deprivations at the same time. Indeed, this measure of severe MPI poverty has been reported by OPHI and the UNDP *Human Development Reports* since 2010 (see, for example, UNDP 2013).

A second way to focus on the poorest of the poor—and the one used in the new measure of destitution—is to adjust the indicator definitions so that each indicator (or in this case, eight of the 10 indicators) reflects more critical deprivation levels. From 2014, we have been using this second method to find the poorest of the poor—the destitute. Those identified as ‘destitute’ are deprived in at least one-third of the destitution indicators, which are more extreme than those used to identify the MPI poor (see Table 5).

### 5.2 Who are the Destitute in IDB African Member Countries?

Data on destitution are currently available for 20 IDB African countries that were analysed in the global MPI 2015, as no

**Table 5**  
The Deprivation Thresholds of those who are Destitute

Dimension	Indicator	Deprived if...	Relative Weight
Education	Years of schooling	No household member has completed <i>at least one</i> year of schooling ( $\geq 1$ ).	1/6
	Child School Attendance	<i>No child</i> is attending school up to the age at which they should finish <i>class 6</i> .	1/6
Health	Child Mortality	<i>2 or more children</i> have died in the household	1/6
	Nutrition	<i>Severe undernourishment</i> of any adult ( $BMI < 17 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ) or any child ( $-3$ standard deviations from the median).	1/6
Living Standard	Electricity	The household has no electricity ( <i>no change</i> ).	1/18
	Improved Sanitation	There is no facility ( <i>open defecation</i> ).	1/18
	Safe Drinking Water	The household does not have access to safe drinking water, or safe water is more than a <i>45-minute walk</i> (round trip).	1/18
	Flooring	The household has a dirt, sand, or dung floor ( <i>no change</i> ).	1/18
	Cooking Fuel	The household cooks with dung or wood ( <i>coal/lignite/charcoal are now non-deprived</i> ).	1/18
	Assets	The household has <i>no assets</i> ( <i>radio, mobile phone, etc.</i> ) and no car.	1/18

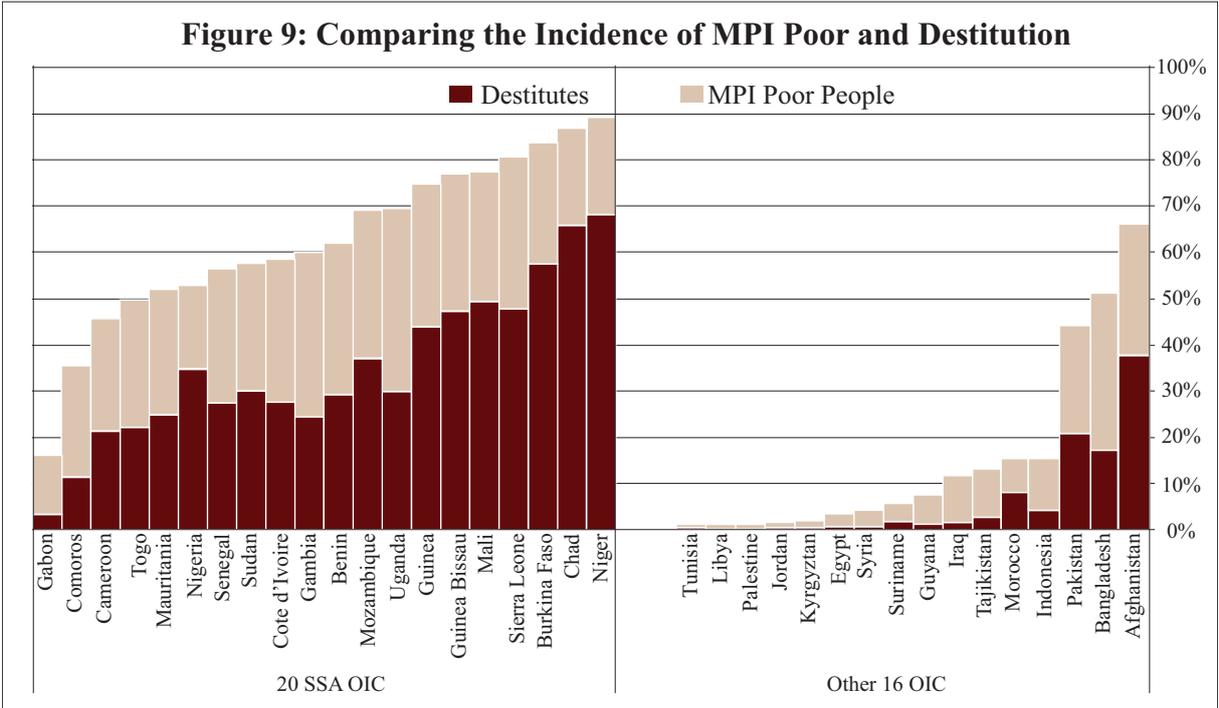
Source: Alkire and Robles (2015).

estimations for Somalia and Djibouti have been published. Across them fully 150.6 million people are destitute. Indeed over half—58.8 per cent—of MPI poor in IDB Africa people are identified as destitute, because they are experiencing the critical disadvantages described earlier in at least one-third of the weighted indicators. Each of the destitution indicators does, unfortunately, play a part in mapping out their conditions. Of the people who have been identified as destitute in these 20 countries, 46.6 per cent have experienced the loss of two or more children. Twenty nine per cent of them have at least one household member who is severely malnourished. Forty-five per cent of the destitute do not have any household member who has completed even one year of schooling, and in 41.5 per cent of the households, all primary school-aged children are not attending school. Also, most of them (89.5 per cent) have no access to electricity, and 22.4 per cent do not possess even the most basic assets—no bicycle, no radio, no telephone, no refrigerator, no television, no motorbike and, certainly, no car or truck. Fully 48.9 per cent practise open defecation,

with the feelings of shame, fear, insecurity, and humiliation that accompany it. In addition, 60.6 per cent of them do not have access to safe drinking water, or the source of water is more than 45 minutes away, round-trip; 80.3 per cent of all destitute people in these 20 countries have inadequate flooring and also, almost all of them (96.1 per cent) use solid fuels for cooking. The sad truth is that none of the destitution indicators has, thus far, been shown to be irrelevant.

**5.3 Where are the Destitute in IDB African Member Countries?**

The MPI poorest country, Niger, also has the highest incidence of destitution among IDB African countries, with 68.8 per cent of the population living in destitution; Chad and Burkina Faso also have very high incidences—65.8 per cent and 57.5 per cent, respectively. In stark contrast, the incidence of destitution is 3.2 per cent in Gabon. The following Figure 9 depicts the incidence of multidimensional poverty and destitution in 43 IDB countries. Please note that, as stated above, Somalia and Djibouti



do not have destitution figures published among the 22 SSA IDB, and neither do Yemen, Azerbaijan, Maldives, Uzbekistan and Albania among the 21 remaining IDB member countries for which MPI data is available. We see that both multidimensional poverty and destitution are more prevalent in SSA IDB. Yet, importantly, the incidence of multidimensional poverty does not always translate into a larger incidence of destitution. For instance, Mozambique and Uganda among the SSA IDB show smaller incidence of destitution if compared to Afghanistan, which has roughly similar multidimensional poverty than the aforementioned.

Incidence may not inform us on the number of destitute living in each country. Of the 20 IDB African countries analysed, by far the largest number of people living in destitution are found in Nigeria, which is expected due to the large population of this country. Roughly a third of the Nigerian population (34.6 per cent) and the Mozambique population (36.7 per cent) are destitute. However, given the large population of Nigeria, this translates into almost 60 million people living in destitution in its territory, whereas only 9 million people live in destitution in Mozambique. Nigeria is followed by Niger, Sudan and Uganda, which are home to 11.8 million, 10.9 million and 10.5 million destitute persons, respectively. Comoros and Gabon each have less than 100,000 destitute people.

The other interesting comparison is between acute poverty and destitution, because countries' experiences in controlling destitution—even when their MPI levels are similar—also vary dramatically. For example, the MPI of Nigeria is 0.303, of Mauritania, 0.285, and of Uganda, 0.367—in other words, Uganda has a higher MPI than the others. However, while 69.9 per cent of the population are MPI poor in

Uganda (H), only 29.8 per cent of the people are destitute. In comparison, Nigeria with a lower headcount ratio in multidimensional poverty (53.2 per cent) faces a greater challenge in terms of destitution as destitution affects 34.6 per cent of its population. In fact, more than half (65 per cent) of those in multidimensional poverty are also destitute in Nigeria, whereas less than half of multidimensionally poor people face this condition in Mauritania (47.6 per cent) and Uganda (42.6 per cent). The range of this proportion is large: in Gabon, only 19.5 per cent of the people who are MPI poor are also destitute, whereas in Niger it is 77.1 per cent. On average across the 20 IDB African countries analysed, 58.8 per cent of MPI poor people are also destitute. This is larger than the average of nearly half across the 82 countries for which destitution has been computed.



## Chapter 6

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### **MULTIDIMENSIONAL POVERTY REDUCTION**

#### **Multidimensional Poverty Reduction in 8 IDB African Countries**

- Performance of Countries - Absolute reductions
- Performance of Countries - Relative reductions
- Reductions in Headcount Ratio and Reductions in Intensity
- Disaggregating by Groups
- Tracking Changes Across Subnational Regions
- Poverty Reduction in Rural and Urban areas
- Population Growth and the Number of Poor
- Reductions in MPI and Income Poverty
- Growth in GNI per capita and Poverty Reduction
- Reducing Destitution



## 6. MULTIDIMENSIONAL POVERTY REDUCTION IN 8 IDB AFRICAN COUNTRIES

Moving to an intertemporal perspective and drawing on Alkire et al. (2014b), we now examine how multidimensional poverty changed in 8 IDB African countries and 68 subnational regions, covering 286.3 million people, which was about 67.1 per cent of the total population of IDB countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, based on per population estimates for 2011. We report changes over time in global MPI and its components—the headcount ratio (H), which is the percentage of people identified as multidimensionally poor, and intensity (A), which is the average percentage of deprivations the poor people experience together—as well as for the 10 poverty indicators that are used to construct the index. We zoom in to see which of the 10 MPI indicators drove progress, and we look at where population growth competes with or erases this progress. We also compare reductions in multidimensional poverty with trends in income poverty and economic growth. Finally, we investigate changes in destitution and inequality among the poor and analyse disparities in trends across subnational regions.

Intertemporal analyses are undertaken for the following 8 IDB African countries: Benin, Cameroon, Gabon, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, and Uganda<sup>8</sup>. The changes reported draw upon rigorously harmonised, hence comparable, MPI values, which are denoted MPIT because some differ slightly from published MPI values<sup>9</sup>. For details of the methodology used to construct rigorously

comparable estimations, as well as the data in full, see Alkire et al. (2014b).

### 6.1 Performance of Countries-Absolute Reductions

Seven of these 8 SSA countries, covering 95.5 per cent of poor people in those 8 countries, had statistically significant reductions in multidimensional poverty<sup>10</sup>. Uganda and Mozambique led the 8 countries with their outstanding absolute decrease in MPI, followed by Niger and Benin.

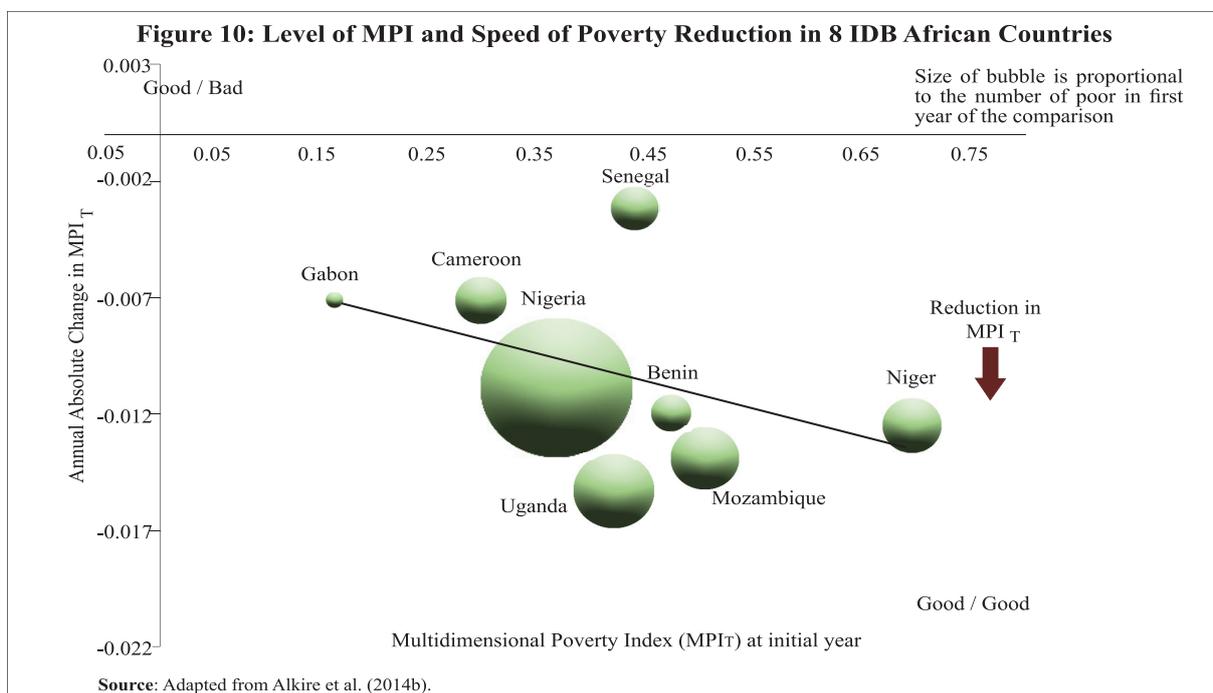
The best performers Uganda and Mozambique has reduced their levels of MPI by respectively 0.015 and 0.014 per year. Niger and Benin showed the next fastest reduction of MPI, reducing headcount ratios (H) between 0.6 and 1.4 percentage points and MPIT by 0.012 per year. A range of countries including Nigeria, Gabon and Cameroon had *slower but still significant reductions* in poverty. Senegal had no statistically significant reduction in poverty.

Figure 5 plots the starting level of MPI poverty on the horizontal axis, with the poorest country Niger furthest to the right. The vertical access is the pace of reduction of MPI, with the lower bubbles showing fastest poverty reduction. With the exception of Senegal, this shows a salutary pro-poorest pattern across the IDB African countries in that the poorest countries had the fastest absolute rates of MPI reduction. Considering the 68 subnational regions included in this 8 countries, 46 of them experienced statistically significant reduction in their MPI. Among these 46 regions we find all 5 regions of Gabon, 8 regions of Niger and 11 regions of Mozambique, indicating that these countries reduced poverty at subnational level. (Alkire, et al, 2014).

<sup>8</sup> These are the countries for which there was a recent MPI estimation and comparable DHS data sets for analysis across time; the 8 countries have all 10 indicators.

<sup>9</sup> To construct definitive comparisons of MPI over time, we restrict comparisons to information that was exactly the same in both periods. Thus the MPIT always differs slightly from MPI published values, except in Benin 2001, Cameroon 2011, and Nigeria 2003. For details of each adjustment see Alkire et al. (2014b).

<sup>10</sup> All statistical significance is evaluated at the level of  $\alpha=0.01$ . Again, time spells for the various countries differ (more details in Table A.4).



## 6.2 Performance of Countries-Relative Reductions

Absolute changes are easy to compare across countries and are the key comparisons to make. However, while a country with a high poverty rate like Niger could reduce H by 10 percentage points, Gabon, with initially low rates of poverty, could barely do so (see Figure 10). So we also look at compound annualized relative reductions, especially to understand the changes in poverty for countries with low absolute poverty levels.

Of our 8 IDB African countries analysed, we found the biggest relative reductions in Gabon, Uganda, and Nigeria; Gabon cut poverty by 6.1 per cent per year relative to its starting level. Each of the top-performing countries—Gabon, Uganda, and Nigeria—reduced their original MPIT by 3.2 per cent to 6.1 per cent per year, making them successes in relative terms.

## 6.3 Reductions in Headcount Ratio and Reductions in Intensity

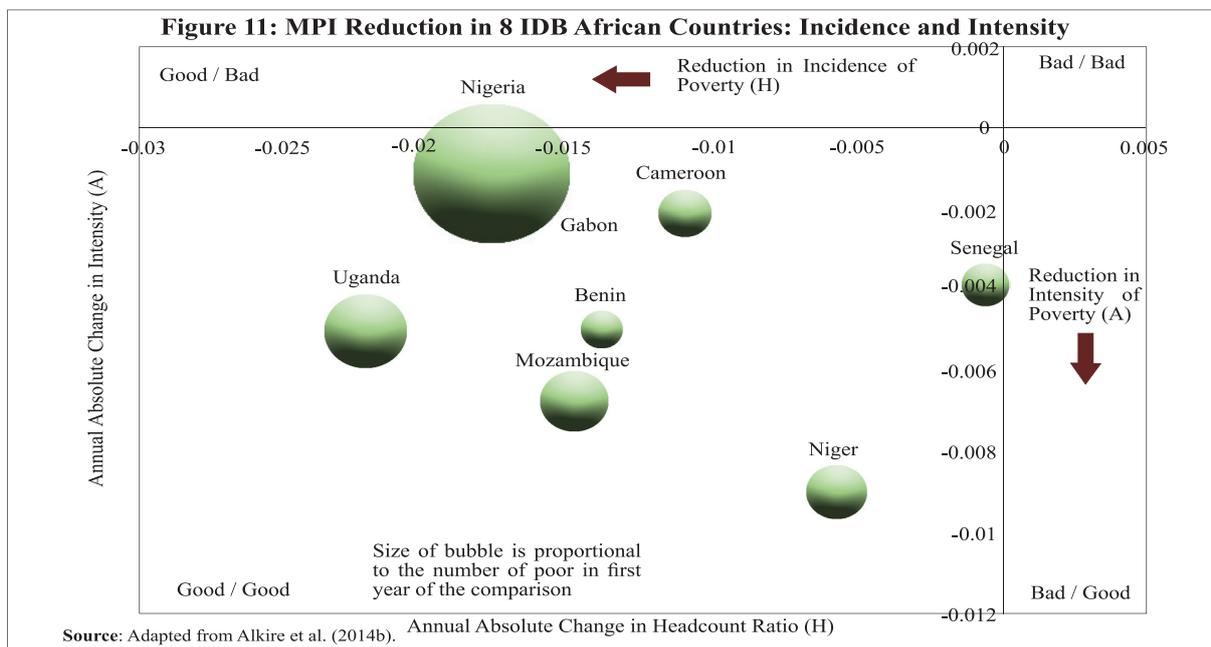
Of the 8 IDB countries in SSA countries for which we have data on MPI poverty over

time, 7 countries reduced MPI poverty and the incidence of MPI (H) significantly, and 6 reduced intensity (A) significantly. Nearly all countries reduced incidence more than intensity. The exception was Niger, where incidence dropped 0.6 percentage points and intensity dropped 0.9. (More details can be found in Tables A.4 and A.5 of the Appendix).

The ‘top performing’ countries reduced both the incidence and the intensity of MPI poverty (see Figure 11). Absolute reductions in intensity were strongest in Niger and Mozambique, showing the important progress made in the poorest countries to reduce the share of hardships experienced by those who are poor.

It is worth noting that despite the reduction in the incidence observed in Benin and Uganda, these countries faced an increase annualized relative change in the proportion of people *vulnerable* to fall in MPI poverty<sup>11</sup> of 4.4% and 6.5% respectively during the same period, which means that some

<sup>11</sup> These are the people who experience deprivation in between 20% and 33.32% of the weighted indicators.



people moved just out of poverty but remain vulnerable.

#### 6.4 Disaggregating by Groups

It is vital to look beyond national averages, as the disaggregated analyses of poverty reduction by regions and socioeconomic groups add very important information. Why? Consider, for example, Nigeria, Benin, and Niger. Each country reduced MPI significantly, and the average absolute rate of reduction was about the same—at 0.011 or 0.012 per year. However, in Nigeria, significant reductions occurred in only one region, where 13 per cent of the country’s poor people live; there were no significant changes in the other regions. In contrast, in Benin, there were changes in regions where 81 per cent of poor people reside, and Niger had statistically significant changes in 100 per cent of its subnational regions, which is a positive result.

#### 6.5 Tracking Changes Across Subnational Regions

We track MPI changes over time for 68 subnational regions of IDB African countries, reporting their MPI, H, and A, as well as the

composition of their poverty and how it has changed over time. In total, 46 of the 68 subnational regions, in which 43.5 per cent of the poor lived, had statistically significant reductions in MPI in absolute terms. Three countries—Gabon, Mozambique, and Niger—showed statistically significant reductions in each and every one of their subnational regions, which is truly stellar progress.

Happily, in two countries, the poorest subnational area made the biggest strides in reducing multidimensional poverty. In Mozambique and Niger, the poorest region reduced poverty the most, enhancing equity across the land.

#### 6.6 Poverty Reduction in Rural and Urban Areas

For each of the 8 IDB African countries studied, we present the levels and changes in MPI and its consistent indices by rural and urban areas<sup>12</sup>. Poverty was higher in rural than urban areas in all of the countries in both of the periods. Seven out of the 8 IDB SSA

<sup>12</sup> The DHS surveys use the national census definitions to identify rural and urban clusters, and then update the household listings to reflect major population shifts.

countries had significant reductions in urban poverty, and all 8 countries had significant reductions in rural areas.

At the global level, rural areas, as a whole, reduced multidimensional poverty faster than urban areas. In IDB African countries, however, urban areas seem to have performed better than rural areas in terms of poverty reduction. On average, rural areas reduced the headcount ratio by 1.8 percentage points per year as compared to 4.9 percentage points per year for urban areas. The annualized average rural MPI reduction was 0.011, whereas the urban MPI reduction was 0.010. Naturally, rural–urban migration also affected these rates.

Across all countries, the composition of poverty differed in urban and rural areas, with deprivations in electricity, water, and flooring contributing more to MPI in rural areas and deprivations in child mortality, malnutrition, and school attendance contributing relatively more to urban poverty.

### **6.7 Population Growth and the Number of Poor**

In order to eradicate poverty, the speed of reduction in the multidimensional headcount ratio (H) must outpace population growth. Of the 7 IDB African countries that reduced MPI significantly, when population growth is taken into account, unfortunately only two countries (Gabon and Nigeria) reduced the *number* of poor people across the periods. In five countries, population growth wiped out poverty reduction; in Benin, Cameroon, Mozambique, Niger, and Uganda, the absolute number of poor people increased.

### **6.8 Reductions in MPI and Income Poverty**

Two IDB African countries (Nigeria and Cameroon) out of the five for which we have income data for a similar period, reduced

multidimensional poverty faster than income poverty; in the remaining countries (Uganda, Mozambique and Niger), income poverty was reduced faster.

Cameroon cut MPI poverty more than twice as fast as income poverty. . In Nigeria, while MPI incidence fell, income poverty increased. Niger, and Uganda had stronger absolute and relative reductions in income poverty than in multidimensional poverty. If progress were only measured by reducing income poverty, Niger, Uganda, and Mozambique would be considered the leaders in poverty reduction. The gains of Nigeria and Cameroon, among others, would have been invisible (See Alkire Roche and Vaz 2014b for more details). The trends in both income and MPI poverty together tell a fuller story.

### **6.9 Growth in GNI Per Capita and Poverty Reduction**

The level of success in translating the gains of growth into poverty reduction varies across countries and also sometimes across periods (see Table 6). For instance, in the periods under analysis, Niger and Senegal registered similar rates of growth in GNI per capita, but Niger reduced MPI more than twice as fast as Senegal. On the other hand, although Mozambique has grown six times faster than Benin, the latter reduced MPI approximately as quickly as Mozambique.

### **6.10 Reducing Destitution**

In addition to studying trends in multidimensional poverty, we study trends in destitution for the same countries and periods. Recall that the destitution indicators are more extreme: for example, severe malnutrition instead of malnutrition, losing two children, having all primary school-aged children out of school, not having anyone with at least a year of schooling in the household, practicing open defecation,

**Table 6**  
**Relative Change in MPI<sub>T</sub> and GNI Per Capita Growth for Some SSA Countries**

Countries	Multidimensional Poverty		GNI per capita	
	MPI <sub>T</sub> Year 1	Annualized relative change in M0	GNI per capita in Year 1, Atlas method (current US\$)	Average GNI per capita growth (annual %)
Benin 2001–2006	0.474	-2.7%	360	0.7%
Cameroon 2004–2011	0.298	-2.6%	800	0.8%
Gabon 2000–2012	0.161	-6.1%	3,100	-0.1%
Mozambique 2003–2011	0.505	-3.1%	230	4.7%
Niger 2006–2012	0.696	-1.9%	270	0.9%
Senegal 2005–2010/11	0.440	-0.7%	770	1.1%
Uganda 2006–2011	0.420	-3.95%	330	4.5%

Source: Adapted from Alkire et al. (2014b).

and so on. Only for electricity and flooring are the indicators unchanged. A person is destitute if he or she is deprived in at least a third of the weighted destitution indicators (Alkire and Robles 2015). The good news is that all eight IDB African countries reduced destitution significantly, and, in nearly all of them, destitution rates fell (in relative terms) faster than multidimensional poverty rates.

The largest absolute reduction in the destitution MPI was seen in Niger. Between 2006 and 2012, Niger reduced the percentage of the population who were destitute by 9 percentage points and reduced intensity among the destitute by fully 6 percentage points.

Destitution, like MPI poverty, is more prevalent in rural areas. Fortunately, it is also in those areas that most countries have made more important progress in absolute terms. Rural reductions in destitution were statistically significant in 7 IDB countries in SSA, whereas urban reductions were significant in only 5 countries. In terms of indicators, the majority of the countries registered significant improvements in

sanitation and child mortality, suggesting that health and sanitation policies are playing an important role in improving the lives of the poorest of the poor.



## MOVING FORWARD

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### **MOVING FORWARD**

- ① Concluding Remarks
- ① Policy Implications



## 7. MOVING FORWARD

### 7.1 Concluding Remarks

This report has provided an overview of multidimensional poverty levels and trends in IDB Sub-Saharan African countries, using the most recent estimations and analyses of the global Multidimensional Poverty Index. The global MPI is broadly comparable across countries and strictly harmonized to assure comparable assessments of changes over time in the studies we draw upon. Its methodology stands on the shoulders of a body of previous work in basic needs and counting-based traditions, as well as in axiomatic poverty measurement. In IDB SSA countries, we find a vast range of levels and compositions and trends of multidimensional poverty. This analysis shatters any depiction of African poverty as uniform; it also provides information that is relevant for comparable policy analysis.

Using the global MPI analyses for IDB countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, the report shows the kinds of descriptive analyses that multidimensional poverty indices permit—analyses such as decomposition and intertemporal analysis of poverty by subnational groups, as well as the breakdown and intertemporal analysis of the composition of MPI according to its constituent indicators. With regard to the robustness of the results, Alkire and Santos (2014) propose and implemented a range of sensitivity and robustness tests on the 2010 MPI results with respect to the various associated normative choices and confirmed the reliability of the MPI framework as a poverty measure. This robustness analysis was also carried out using 2015 data for 101 countries. We find that 85% of the pairwise comparisons were robust to changes in the weights of the dimensions (from 25% to 50% per dimension) and 91% of the pairwise

comparisons were robust to changes in the poverty k cut-off (from 20% to 40%).

### 7.2 Policy Implications

The IDB SSA region is home to almost a third of the people identified as multidimensionally poor among 101 countries covered by the Global MPI. This is also the region that shows a larger incidence and intensity of poverty than the average of other studied regions. And yet the region must be looked at not only regionally, but also country by country and also by sub-regions inside each country, because the level, composition and trends of multidimensional poverty can vary a great deal. For national policy purposes, it is important to use the rich national and subnational data on MPI that provides information for specific targeting of programs.

However, it is clear that the region's poverty is mostly rural, not only because most of the population in the 20 of the 22 SSA IDB members live in rural areas, but also because 4 out of 5 people in multidimensional poverty live in rural areas. This is also true when looking at income poverty, but the policy responses to redress MPI differ from those required to generate income. High quality public services in health and education, and adequate water, sanitation, and housing tends to be scarcer in rural areas where the population is more scattered. However, this does not mean that a focus on rural areas cannot change this pattern. Significantly, the results of our studies of changes over time in multidimensional poverty and in destitution show that investments in sanitation and health had made visible changes in the lives of the poor in a number of countries (but not in others).

In setting policies for reducing multidimensional poverty, governments are urged to focus on reducing the incidence of

poverty – getting people out of poverty. But they are also urged to ‘leave no one behind’ and to reduce the intensity of deprivations that poor people experience. It is clear that investment in public health, schools and rural public services-- sanitation, electricity and water supply-- should be fortified. Policies that target the needs of the poor in rural areas may have the largest impact in both the incidence and intensity of poverty.

Policy makers also need to remain attentive to the inequality among the poor. Given that inequality among the poor varies considerably, but is highest in the poorest of the 22 SSA IDB members, it is important to address it. The good news is that nearly all the countries that have succeeded in reducing poverty over time in the region have also reduced inequality among the poor. This implies that some benefits reached the poorest among the poor and reduced their intensity. The analysis of inequality provides an added incentive to policy makers to address deprivations among the poorest of the poor.

Across the 22 SSA IDB member countries, deprivations in living standards affect the highest numbers of people. These are highest in cooking fuel, sanitation, electricity, floor and water (in this order). Addressing these deprivations will impact MPI but also may contribute to reducing related aspects of poverty such as undernutrition and child mortality. The other prominent challenge is education, particularly for the 22 SSA IDB members. Deprivations in education among the poor affect the highest percentage of people following those in living standards. But given that education indicators have a higher weight, the contribution of deprivations in education to poverty is high, especially in Senegal, Djibouti, Mali and Burkina Faso.

It is clear from the analysis of the data for the 22 IDB SSA countries that its poverty has many facets—from sanitation to electricity, from education to living standards and health. Empirical studies on the most cost-effective strategies to redress these deprivations in other countries show that at the policy level it is best to tackle multidimensional poverty in a coordinated way—with a strategy that encompasses all these dimensions, and that also unites the various ministries of government behind an integrated plan of action. Experience shows that a coordinating committee at the highest level—a Social Cabinet or a Poverty Commission made up of all the relevant ministers with the firm and vocal support of the President or Prime Minister—provides for good governance in the area of poverty reduction. With clear targets established for each ministry, the MPI can be a powerful tool for targeting, accountability, and evaluation of programs.

While the integrated plan should be nationally led and monitored, the particular emphases and allocations should be regional, and should be designed to confront the particular composition of MPI in that region. At times, an MPI based on census data can be used to drill down and provide policy-relevant information on local deprivation structures that inform and engage the local government. Thus, the governance response to multidimensional poverty needs to be multi-level, involving lower levels of government as well as national leadership.

Given the common challenges across the region, there are implications for international organisations that work with their member countries, such as the Islamic Development Bank. It is clear that growth by itself does not necessarily lead to a reduction in multidimensional poverty. It is important to complement growth strategies with specific multi-sectoral poverty reduction

programs that tackle different dimensions of poverty directly and in a synergistic way. It is important for international agencies to recognize that it is not sufficient to focus on one dimension of poverty but rather to understand that national strategies to coordinate poverty reduction inputs are crucial for success.

Naturally, a ‘global’ MPI such as the one presented here can be powerfully supplemented by national MPIs, whose indicators and cut-offs reflect the policy priorities that are relevant for national (and subnational) policies as well as by analyses of monetary poverty. Furthermore, analyses based on household surveys can be expanded by using relevant census variables to generate local MPIs. Yet in the absence of

national MPIs, the global MPI findings can be useful even at the national and subnational level, since they provide rigorous and easy-to-understand data useful to policy makers. The analyses such as the one presented also have a value-added of comparability: by implementing the same MPI across countries and subnational regions, the dataset permits an exploration of comparative levels, trends, and routes out of multidimensional poverty. The next wave of analysis will be to analyse MPI levels and trends using macro- and micro-econometric techniques, combined with qualitative data on policy trajectories. We hope that such further studies, as well as analysis of the current policies used by some IDB member countries in Sub-Saharan Africa to lower their MPI, are stimulated by this report.



## APPENDICES

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- Table A1: MPI and percentage of people who are poor and deprived by indicators
- Table A.2: MPI and other Monetary Poverty Indicators
- Table A.3: Multidimensional Poverty and Destitution
- Table A.4: Levels, Changes in Incidence
- Table A.5: Levels, Changes in Intensity
- Table A.6: Percentage Contribution of Each indicator to the MPI
- Table A.7: Income Poverty Figures



**Table A.1: MPI and percentage of people who are poor and deprived by indicators for IDB countries in Sub-Saharan Africa**

Country	Year	MPI	Education		Health		Living Standards					
			YS	SA	CM	N	E	IS	DW	F	CF	AO
Benin	2011/12	0.307	46.2	30.4	19.1	5.5	53.5	59.5	23.6	32.6	61.4	17.5
Burkina Faso	2010	0.535	57.7	58.5	51.2	38.3	81.3	76.2	32.1	55.2	83.7	17.5
Cameroon	2011	0.248	16.7	18.4	27.4	18.3	37.3	34.7	28.9	34.5	45.5	23.0
Chad	2010	0.554	57.1	49.0	44.3	32.6	85.2	81.3	57.4	84.6	86.4	52.4
Comoros	2012	0.173	15.0	14.8	12.3	13.6	21.0	30.4	16.7	19.2	34.7	22.0
Cote d'Ivoire	2011/12	0.310	30.9	33.3	36.7	18.5	36.8	52.6	22.8	16.6	56.4	15.0
Djibouti	2006	0.139	13.5	18.3	9.8	10.6	20.4	16.3	6.7	17.8	8.8	22.6
Gabon	2012	0.070	3.4	3.1	11.2	7.7	6.6	14.2	6.6	7.7	8.9	6.1
Gambia	2013	0.323	17.8	38.2	34.4	38.0	49.9	42.1	16.9	18.2	60.1	8.4
Guinea	2012	0.459	41.2	52.5	46.9	29.9	66.4	64.8	34.5	44.0	75.0	29.8
Guinea-Bissau	2006	0.462	48.3	41.5	50.7	21.1	73.4	49.2	42.3	62.8	77.5	42.3
Mali	2012/13	0.457	51.2	47.9	36.1	32.3	66.9	65.0	34.8	63.8	77.4	12.5
Mauritania	2011	0.285	28.3	26.5	17.7	18.9	44.5	45.6	38.0	39.3	44.4	26.8
Mozambique	2011	0.389	38.1	29.8	30.1	18.1	65.3	61.8	50.6	61.9	69.5	42.4
Niger	2012	0.605	59.1	57.5	54.0	46.6	81.5	83.1	51.4	79.8	89.2	51.7
Nigeria	2013	0.303	24.4	26.7	30.9	29.2	37.6	37.7	32.9	32.9	51.5	18.4
Senegal	2014	0.309	26.1	46.9	33.9	19.8	34.4	34.0	19.4	24.7	52.2	10.9
Sierra Leone	2013	0.464	31.7	32.6	53.7	34.0	77.0	75.6	44.9	55.3	80.8	46.3
Somalia	2006	0.514	61.8	43.5	27.4	30.0	75.8	69.1	70.0	64.4	81.0	76.2
Sudan	2010	0.321	27.1	29.4	20.2	21.0	48.6	51.8	41.1	57.1	50.8	35.7
Togo	2013/14	0.252	17.7	15.6	30.7	18.8	43.4	48.7	34.2	11.3	49.9	18.0
Uganda	2011	0.367	18.9	15.4	41.7	33.3	68.0	59.5	44.5	60.6	69.8	30.2

Source: Global MPI data (Alkire and Robles 2015).

\* YS: Years of Schooling, SA: School Attendance, CM: Child Mortality, N: Nutrition, E: Electricity, IS: Improved Sanitation, DW: Drinking Water, F: Flooring, CF: Cooking Fuel, AO: Assets Ownership.

**Table A.2: MPI and other Monetary Poverty Indicators for IDB Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa**

Country	Year	Multidimensional poverty <sup>a</sup>			Income poverty <sup>b</sup>						Other income indicators	
		MPI	H	A	\$1.25 a day (% of pop)		\$2 a day (% of pop)		National poverty line (% of pop)		HDI 2014 <sup>c</sup>	GNI per capita <sup>e</sup>
					Value	Year	Value	Year	Value	Year		
		Range 0 to 1	% Pop	Avg % of depriv.	% Pop		% Population		% Population		Range 0 to 1	(PPP 2008 \$)
Benin	2011/12	0.307	62.2	49.3	51.6	2011	74.3	2011	36.2	2011	0.476	790
Burkina Faso	2010	0.535	84.0	63.7	44.5	2009	72.4	2009	46.7	2009	0.388	750
Cameroon	2011	0.248	46.0	53.8	27.6	2007	53.2	2007	39.9	2007	0.504	1,290
Chad	2010	0.554	87.2	63.5	36.5	2011	60.5	2011	46.7	2011	0.372	1,030
Comoros	2012	0.173	36.0	47.9	46.1	2004	65.0	2004	44.8	2004	0.488	840
Cote d'Ivoire	2011/12	0.310	58.7	52.8	35.0	2008	59.1	2008	42.7	2008	0.452	1,450
Djibouti	2006	0.139	29.3	47.3	18.8	2002	41.2	2002	Not available		0.467	1030
Gabon	2012	0.070	16.5	42.5	6.1	2005	20.9	2005	32.7	2005	0.674	10,650
Gambia	2013	0.323	60.4	53.4	33.6	2003	55.9	2003	48.4	2010	0.441	500
Guinea	2012	0.459	75.1	61.1	40.9	2012	72.7	2012	55.2	2012	0.392	460
Guinea-Bissau	2006	0.462	77.5	59.6	48.9	2002	78.0	2002	69.3	2010	0.396	590
Mali	2012/13	0.457	77.7	58.9	50.6	2010	78.8	2010	43.6	2010	0.407	670
Mauritania	2011	0.285	52.2	54.6	23.4	2008	47.7	2008	42.0	2008	0.487	1,060
Mozambique	2011	0.389	69.6	55.9	60.7	2009	82.5	2009	54.7	2009	0.393	610
Niger	2012	0.605	89.3	67.7	40.8	2011	76.1	2011	48.9	2011	0.337	400
Nigeria	2013	0.303	53.2	56.8	62.0	2010	82.2	2010	46.0	2010	0.504	2,710
Senegal	2014	0.309	56.9	54.3	34.1	2011	60.3	2011	46.7	2011	0.485	1,050
Sierra Leone	2013	0.464	81.0	57.3	56.6	2011	82.5	2011	52.9	2011	0.374	660
Somalia	2006	0.514	81.2	63.3	Not available							
Sudan	2010	0.321	57.8	55.6	19.8	2009	44.1	2009	46.5	2009	0.473	1550
Togo	2013/14	0.252	50.1	50.4	52.5	2011	72.8	2011	58.7	2011	0.473	530
Uganda	2011	0.367	69.9	52.5	37.8	2012	62.9	2012	19.5	2012	0.484	600

Source: Global MPI data (Alkire and Robles 2015).

(a) OPHI calculations.

(b) Figures correspond to the most recent estimates available by 28 April 2015 from: World Bank (2015). 'World Development Indicators'. Washington DC: World Bank.

(c) Figures correspond to UNDP (2014), 'Human Development Report 2014. Sustaining Human Progress: Reducing Vulnerabilities and Building Resilience. Statistical Tables', New York: UNDP [available at: [http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/hdr14\\_statisticaltables.xls](http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/hdr14_statisticaltables.xls), accessed on 9 Dec 2014]

(d) The World Bank income categories are based on the July 2014 Gross National Income estimated using the Atlas Method. For the methodology please see World Development Indicators (2015) of the World Bank.

(e) Figures correspond to the most recent estimates available by 28 April 2015 from World Bank (2015). 'World Development Indicators'. Washington DC: World Bank.

**Table A.3: Multidimensional Poverty and Destitution in 22 IDB African Countries**

Country	Year	Multidimensional poverty			Destitution		Inequality among the poor
		MPI	H	A	Destitutes	Proportion of MPI poor who are destitutes	
		Range 0 to 1	% Population	Average % of weighted deprivations	% Population	(%)	Range 0 to 1
Benin	2011/12	0.307	62.2	49.3	29.4	47.2	0.154
Burkina Faso	2010	0.535	84.0	63.7	57.5	68.5	0.300
Cameroon	2011	0.248	46.0	53.8	21.3	46.2	0.268
Chad	2010	0.554	87.2	63.5	65.8	75.4	0.273
Comoros	2012	0.173	36.0	47.9	11.2	31.1	0.182
Cote d'Ivoire	2011/12	0.310	58.7	52.8	27.6	47.0	0.202
Djibouti	2006	0.139	29.3	47.3	Not available		0.164
Gabon	2012	0.070	16.5	42.5	3.2	19.5	0.087
Gambia	2013	0.323	60.4	53.4	24.5	40.6	0.190
Guinea	2012	0.459	75.1	61.1	43.8	58.3	0.291
Guinea-Bissau	2006	0.462	77.5	59.6	47.0	60.7	0.256
Mali	2012/13	0.457	77.7	58.9	49.4	63.7	0.247
Mauritania	2011	0.285	52.2	54.6	24.8	47.6	0.232
Mozambique	2011	0.389	69.6	55.9	36.8	52.8	0.225
Niger	2012	0.605	89.3	67.7	68.8	77.1	0.293
Nigeria	2013	0.303	53.2	56.8	34.6	65.0	0.297
Senegal	2014	0.309	56.9	54.3	27.3	48.0	0.226
Sierra Leone	2013	0.464	81.0	57.3	47.8	59.1	0.245
Somalia	2006	0.514	81.2	63.3	Not available		0.273
Sudan	2010	0.321	57.8	55.6	30.0	51.9	0.244
Togo	2013/14	0.252	50.1	50.4	22.2	44.3	0.202
Uganda	2011	0.367	69.9	52.5	29.8	42.6	0.192

Source: Global MPI data (Alkire and Robles 2015).

**Table A.4: Levels, Changes and Statistical Significance of Changes in Incidence (Hr) for Selected IDB African Countries**

	Multidimensional Headcount ratio (Hr)				Annualized change		t-statistics for difference	
	Year 1		Year 2		Absolute	Relative		
Benin 2001-2006	79.082	(.9)	72.116	(.8)	-1.393	-1.8%	5.63	***
Cameroon 2004-2011	53.765	(1.3)	46.019	(1.1)	-1.107	-2.2%	4.77	***
Gabon 2000-2012	35.388	(1.2)	17.425	(1.0)	-1.497	-5.7%	10.83	***
Mozambique 2003-2011	82.285	(.7)	70.332	(1.0)	-1.494	-1.9%	9.90	***
Niger 2006-2012	93.496	(.5)	89.993	(.6)	-.584	-0.6%	4.62	***
Nigeria 2003-2008	63.540	(1.6)	54.662	(.9)	-1.776	-3.0%	4.56	***
Senegal 2005-2010/11	71.206	(2.4)	70.848	(1.5)	-.065	-0.1%	0.15	
Uganda 2006-2011	77.859	(1.1)	66.774	(1.5)	-2.217	-3.0%	5.25	***

Source: Global MPI 2014 results (Alkire et al. 2014b).

**Table A.5: Levels, Changes and Statistical Significance of Changes in Intensity (A<sub>T</sub>) for selected IDB African countries**

	Intensity of Poverty (A <sub>T</sub> )				Annualized Change		t-statistics for difference	
	Year 1		Year 2		Absolute	Relative		
Benin 2001-2006	59.917	(.6)	57.396	(.4)	-.504	-0.9%	3.61	***
Cameroon 2004-2011	55.339	(.7)	53.848	(.7)	-.213	-0.4%	1.48	
Gabon 2000-2012	45.465	(.4)	43.257	(.4)	-.184	-0.4%	3.46	***
Mozambique 2003-2011	61.347	(.4)	55.912	(.4)	-.679	-1.2%	9.93	***
Niger 2006-2012	74.404	(.6)	68.974	(.5)	-.905	-1.3%	7.45	***
Nigeria 2003-2008	57.881	(.7)	57.322	(.4)	-.112	-0.2%	0.57	
Senegal 2005-2010/11	61.839	(1.0)	59.704	(.7)	-.388	-0.6%	1.94	*
Uganda 2006-2011	53.937	(.4)	51.425	(.5)	-.502	-0.9%	3.66	***

Source: Global MPI 2014 results (Alkire et al. 2014b).

**Table A.6: Percentage Contribution of Each indicator to the MPI for 22 SSA IDB Members**

Country	Year	MPI	Education		Health			Living Standards				AO
			YS	SA	CM	N	E	IS	DW	F	CF	
								<i>Percentage contribution to MPI</i>				
Benin	2011/12	0.307	25.1	16.5	10.4	3.0	9.7	10.8	4.3	5.9	11.1	3.2
Burkina Faso	2010	0.535	18.0	18.2	16.0	11.9	8.4	7.9	3.3	5.7	8.7	1.8
Cameroon	2011	0.248	11.2	12.3	18.4	12.3	8.4	7.8	6.5	7.7	10.2	5.2
Chad	2010	0.554	17.2	14.8	13.3	9.8	8.5	8.2	5.8	8.5	8.7	5.3
Comoros	2012	0.173	14.4	14.3	11.9	13.1	6.7	9.8	5.4	6.2	11.1	7.1
Cote d'Ivoire	2011/12	0.310	16.6	17.9	19.7	9.9	6.6	9.4	4.1	3.0	10.1	2.7
Djibouti	2006	0.139	16.2	22.1	11.8	12.8	8.2	6.5	2.7	7.2	3.5	9.0
Gabon	2012	0.070	8.1	7.2	26.7	18.3	5.2	11.2	5.2	6.1	7.0	4.8
Gambia	2013	0.323	9.2	19.7	17.8	19.6	8.6	7.2	2.9	3.1	10.3	1.5
Guinea	2012	0.459	14.9	19.1	17.0	10.9	8.0	7.8	4.2	5.3	9.1	3.6
Guinea-Bissau	2006	0.462	17.4	15.0	18.3	7.6	8.8	5.9	5.1	7.5	9.3	5.1
Mali	2012/13	0.457	18.7	17.5	13.2	11.8	8.1	7.9	4.2	7.8	9.4	1.5
Mauritania	2011	0.285	16.6	15.5	10.4	11.0	8.7	8.9	7.4	7.7	8.7	5.2
Mozambique	2011	0.389	16.3	12.8	12.9	7.8	9.3	8.8	7.2	8.8	9.9	6.1
Niger	2012	0.605	16.3	15.9	14.9	12.9	7.5	7.6	4.7	7.3	8.2	4.7
Nigeria	2013	0.303	13.5	14.7	17.0	16.1	6.9	6.9	6.0	6.0	9.5	3.4
Senegal	2014	0.309	14.1	25.3	18.3	10.7	6.2	6.1	3.5	4.4	9.4	2.0
Sierra Leone	2013	0.464	11.4	11.7	19.3	12.2	9.2	9.0	5.4	6.6	9.7	5.5
Somalia	2006	0.514	20.0	14.1	8.9	9.7	8.2	7.5	7.6	7.0	8.8	8.2
Sudan	2010	0.321	14.1	15.2	10.5	10.9	8.4	8.9	7.1	9.9	8.8	6.2
Togo	2013/14	0.252	11.7	10.3	20.3	12.4	9.6	10.7	7.5	2.5	11.0	4.0
Uganda	2011	0.367	8.6	7.0	18.9	15.1	10.3	9.0	6.7	9.2	10.6	4.6

Source: Global MPI data (Alkire and Robles 2015).

\* YS: Years of Schooling, SA: School Attendance, CM: Child Mortality, N: Nutrition, E: Electricity, IS: Improved Sanitation, DW: Drinking Water, F: Flooring, CF: Cooking Fuel, AO: Assets Ownership.

**Table A.7: Two Latest Income Poverty Figures for 22 SSA IDB Members**

Country	Income Poverty			Year of Latest Figure
	Second to Latest Figure	Year of Second to Latest Figure	Latest Figure	
	<i>Percentage of population living below 1.90 USD a day</i>			
Benin	48.9	2003	53.1	2011
Burkina Faso	57.3	2003	55.3	2009
Cameroon	23.1	2001	29.3	2007
Chad	62.9	2003	38.4	2011
Comoros			13.5	2004
Cote d'Ivoire	23.0	2002	29.0	2008
Djibouti	20.6	2002	18.3	2012
Gabon			8.0	2005
Gambia			45.3	2003
Guinea	59.7	2007	35.3	2012
Guinea-Bissau	53.9	2002	67.1	2010
Mali	50.6	2006	49.3	2009
Mauritania	14.4	2004	10.9	2008
Mozambique	80.4	2002	68.7	2008
Niger	72.0	2007	50.3	2011
Nigeria	53.5	2003	53.5	2009
Senegal	37.6	2005	38.0	2011
Sierra Leone	58.6	2003	52.3	2011
Somalia				
Sudan			14.9	2009
Togo	55.6	2006	54.2	2011
Uganda	41.5	2009	33.2	2012

**Source:** World Bank (2015).  
Blank cells indicate data is not available.



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