Dimensional Poverty Peer Network (MPPN)

www.mppn.org

November 2023 Number 15

BHUTAN'S GNH INDEX UNVEILING THE PATH TO HUMAN FLOURISHING

SRI LANKA LAUNCHES A CHILD MPI DIRECTLY LINKED TO ITS NATIONAL MPI

SHIFTING PERSPECTIVES: ASSESSING POVERTY BEYOND MONEY IN SAMOA WITH THE MPI

www.ophi.org.uk www.mppn.org

Editor: Carolina Moreno

Editorial Board:

Sabina Alkire Gonzalo Hernández-Licona Mónica Pinilla-Roncancio

Proofreader: Maya Evans

Collaborator: Eleonora Nun

Designer: Sandra Pérez

Cover Photo: Flickr Richard Mortel

The opinions and analysis expressed on this website and in *Dimensions* magazine are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the MPPN, its Steering Committee, or the participant countries and organisations.

Contents

Editorial	3
Beyond GDP: Bhutan's GNH Index Unveiling the Path to Human Flourishing By Sabina Alkire and Tshoki Zangmo	5
Revealing Sri Lanka's Multidimensional Poverty: An interview with D Dilshanie Deepawansa, Deputy Director of Department of Statistics	10
Sri Lanka Launches a Child MPI Directly Linked to Its National MPI By D Dilshanie Deepawansa and Juliana Yael Milovich	13
Shifting Perspectives: Assessing Poverty Beyond Money in Samoa with the MPI By Papaliitele Fasavalu Benjamin Sila	16
Multidimensional Poverty in Small Areas: Considerations on the measurement of poverty in the municipalities of Mexico and its official character By Alida Gutiérrez Landeros and Jesús Paredes Romero	19
Interlinked Hardships: MPI Deprivation Profiles By Ricardo Nogales	22
Global MPI 2023	25
Data of the Month	26
Day in the Life	29
News	31

Follow us:

facebook.com/ophi.oxford twitter.com/ophi_oxford youtube.com/OPHIOxford instagram.com/ophi_oxford







Editorial

In this new edition of *Dimensions* we will show how countries around the world are increasingly turning to multidimensional measures to assess people's well-being, shedding light on previously overlooked deprivations.

One of the pioneering countries in the application of these multidimensional approaches is Bhutan, where the pursuit of Gross National Happiness (GNH) occupies a central place. Sabina Alkire and Tshoki Zangmo delve into this unique concept in our first article of this edition.

Meanwhile, Sri Lanka has taken an important step in the fight against multidimensional poverty. In this issue's interview, D Dilshanie Deepawansa tells us about the country's efforts to uncover the extent of poverty beyond mere income levels. The launch of a child Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) directly linked to the national MPI reflects Sri Lanka's commitment to address poverty holistically and improve the lives of vulnerable sectors of society.

In the South Pacific, Papaliitele Fasavalu Benjamin Sila examines Samoa's approach to assessing poverty. Through the MPI, Samoa recognizes the interconnectedness of the various deprivations faced by its citizens.

In addition, Alida Marcela Gutiérrez Landeros and Jesús Emanuel Paredes Romero explore Mexico's efforts to measure multidimensional poverty at the local level. By considering poverty in small areas, such as municipalities, Mexico gains valuable insights into the unique challenges faced by its diverse communities.

At the global level, Ricardo Nogales presents MPI deprivation profiles. These profiles provide crucial data for designing specific policies.

The Global MPI 2023 Report: *Unstacking global poverty: Data for high impact action* was recently launched. Here is a summary of the update on the state of multidimensional poverty in 110 countries.

We invite you to read Dimensions.

Carolina Moreno

Authors

Alida Marcela Gutiérrez Landeros, Head of the General Coordination of Poverty Analysis at Consejo Nacional de Evaluación de la Política de Desarrollo Social (CONEVAL), Mexico

D Dilshanie Deepawansa, Deputy Director at Department of Census and Statistics in Sri Lanka

Jesús Emanuel Paredes Romero, Executive Director of Territorial Analysis and Statistics at CONEVAL

Juliana Yael Milovich, Research Officer at Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI)

Papaliitele Fasavalu Benjamin Sila, Assistant Chief Executive Officer, Samoa Bureau of Statistic

Ricardo Nogales, Research Associate at OPHI

Sabina Alkire, OPHI Director and cofounder

Tshoki Zangmo, Researcher at OPHI



Beyond GDP: Bhutan's GNH Index Unveiling the Path to Human Flourishing

By Sabina Alkire, and Tshoki Zangmo

I n an era where economic growth and GDP have traditionally been the primary measures of a nation's progress, a growing global conversation is challenging this conventional wisdom. Countries and international organizations are increasingly recognizing the limitations of GDP as a sole indicator of wellbeing and at the forefront of this paradigm shift stands the Bhutan's Gross National Happiness (GNH) Index, a daring concept that transcends material pursuits and has captured the imagination of leaders and thinkers worldwide.

Furthermore, the Covid-19 pandemic acted as a wake-up call for nations worldwide, prompting a reevaluation of the effects of focusing solely on economic growth. The pandemic exposed the vulnerability of societies and highlighted the interconnectedness between social, natural, and economic factors. It became evident that neglecting social and natural capital can have profound implications for mental health, livelihoods, and overall wellbeing. The GNH Index brings attention to these critical dimensions and encourages a holistic approach to assessing progress.

The 2022 GNH Index marks a significant milestone in the global pursuit of wellbeing beyond GDP. Bhutan's pioneering approach has not only captured the attention of global leaders and

organizations but has also inspired a shift in how we perceive progress. As the UNDP and OECD champion the need for multidimensional indicators and policy reforms, Bhutan's insights and experiences will play a vital role in shaping the global conversation on wellbeing. The GNH Index's influence has the potential to reshape the way nations prioritize their citizens' holistic wellbeing and safeguard the rights of future generations. Bhutan's journey towards Gross National Happiness serves as a guiding light for a future where the pursuit of prosperity aligns with the pursuit of happiness.

Bhutan's journey towards Gross National Happiness serves as a guiding light for a future where the pursuit of prosperity aligns with the pursuit of happiness.

Bhutan's GNH Index, developed by the Royal Government, delves into the intricate tapestry of human flourishing. Constructed using the Alkire-Foster Method, the GNH Index harmonizes 33 thoughtfully selected indicators across nine domains of psychological wellbeing, health, education, time use, cultural diversity and resilience, good governance, community vitality, ecological diversity and resilience, and living standards.

The GNH Index assesses each person's level of sufficiency in each of the 33 GNH conditions. A person is considered GNH happy if they are sufficient in at least 66% of the 33 weighted indicators or domains. The GNH Index combines the percentage of people who are happy with the level of happiness attained by those who are not yet happy. The scale goes from 0 to 1, with values closer to 0 indicating low GNH and 1 representing a perfect score.

Psychological Wellbeing Life satisfaction Positive emotion Positive emotions Negative emotions Living Standards • Assets • Housing • Household per capita income Health Spirituality Mental health Self reported health status Healthy days Disability Ecological Diversity and Resilience • Ecological issues • Responsibility towards environment • Widtlife damage Time Use Work Sleep GNH (Rural) Urbaniz issues nization Community Vitality • Donations Education Literacy Educational level Donations (time & money) Community relationship Family Safety Knowledge Cultural Diversity and Resilience Good Governance Gov't performance Fundamental Speak native language rights Cultural Services participatior Political Artistic skills participation Drialam Namz

Figure 1. Domains and indicators of GNH Index

Launch of GNH 2022



Keynote address by the Prime Minister of Bhutan at the 2022 GNH Index Launch, 2023

The results of the 2022 GNH Index, which was based on surveying over 11,000 Bhutanese, were launched through a book titled *2022 GNH* in May 2023 by the Prime Minister of Bhutan, Dr. Lotay Tshering (*pictured*).

The book highlights the distribution of GNH across districts, age cohorts, genders, occupations and so on, as well as its trends and policy implications.

According to the 2022 GNH Index, 48.1% of those aged 15 years and above were classified as happy.

The book also presents typologies of GNH happy people – who come from many occupations and walks of life. As one does not require sufficiency in all domains to have the causes and conditions of wellbeing, some of the happiest people also lack sufficiency in indicators ranging from negative emotions to literacy to income – but they have a critical mass of other achievements. The GNH Index thus makes visible many distinct patterns of human flourishing – which are dependent upon monetary inputs to various degrees. Elevating the 'Beyond GDP' Agenda, Achim Steiner, the Under-Secretary-General of the United Nations and UNDP Administrator, also acknowledged at the launch the significance of Bhutan's GNH approach in advancing the global conversation on measuring wellbeing. With the UN Secretary-General emphasizing 'Beyond GDP' as a central reform agenda item for the Summit of the Future in 2024, Bhutan's GNH serves as a key example of an alternative approach that focuses on holistic wellbeing rather than purely economic growth.



Achim Steiner, the Under-Secretary-General of the United Nations and UNDP Administrator at the 2022 GNH Index Launch, 2023

At the GNH Index launch, Mathias Cormann, the Secretary General of the OECD, emphasized the need to use multidimensional indicators to measure welfare accurately. The recent agreement among G7 Finance Ministers to integrate wellbeing indicators into the policymaking process reflects a growing consensus on the inadequacy of GDP as a standalone metric. Cormann indicated that the OECD wishes to include Bhutan's perspective and insight in a new knowledge exchange platform for a wellbeing matrix and the sharing of policy best practices.

James Foster, Oliver T. Carr Professor of International Affairs and Professor of Economics at the George Washington University, stated at the launch event that Bhutan's pioneering efforts in measuring GNH will lead to increased interest in its application to policymaking beyond Bhutan's borders. He commended its value-added in comparison with GDP – being disaggregated, policy relevant, easy to understand, and structured so as to recognize plural patterns of flourishing. As other countries begin to adopt variations of the GNH Index structure that fit the elements of wellbeing in their contexts, they will gain a deeper understanding of its practical use and its transformative effects.



Presentation by Sabina Alkire at the 2022 GNH Index Launch, 2023

Results

According to the 2022 GNH Index, 48.1% of those aged 15 years and above were classified as happy. The percentage of happy people increased over time, from 40.9% in 2010 to 48.1% in 2022 (Figure 2). The GNH Index value increased significantly from 0.743 in 2010 to 0.781 in 2022. This upward trend demonstrates Bhutan's commitment to creating an environment that fosters wellbeing and happiness, even in the face of economic downturns like the Covid-19 pandemic.

Figure 2. National GNH Index and share of happy people, 2010–22¹



¹ Size of the bubble represents the incidence of happy people.



In 2022, the remaining 51.9% of Bhutanese people who were not-yet-happy, as the index suggests, lack some causes and conditions of wellbeing such as sleep, mental health, cultural participation, political participation and native language indicators among others.

For policy and programmatic purposes, the book *GNH 2022* carefully presents the deprivations of those in the not-yet-happy group so future policies can accelerate GNH growth.

Results revealed that urban regions have higher GNH. They scored 0.796 in 2022, while rural areas scored 0.771 in the same year. This disparity highlights the need for increased efforts to promote GNH in rural areas, ensuring that the benefits of Bhutan's development reach all corners of the nation. Yet while the GNH Index did not change in urban areas from 2015 to 2022, it grew quickly in rural areas, increasing from 0.731 to 0.771 since 2015. Therefore, while rural areas continued to record lower index values, their happiness levels increased over time.

Since the measurement of GNH started, women have consistently reported significantly lower GNH than men. In 2010, for example, one-third (33.1%) of females were GNH happy, in contrast to almost half (48.5%) of males. In 2015, disparities widened (37.9% of GNH happy females vs. 51.1% of happy males). In 2022, although a large discrepancy remained (43.8% of females and 55.3% of males were GNH happy), there was an increase of almost 6 percentage points for women, reflecting that policies are increasing women's wellbeing and reducing this gender gap.

The GNH Index reveals the remarkable progress that has been made in improving the living standards of people in Bhutan. One key area has been housing: nearly one-third of Bhutanese (31%) witnessed an improvement in this indicator. The availability of suitable roofing materials, increased restroom quality, and improved room ratios contributed to this remarkable improvement. It also reflects an increase in income, as more people are able to meet the GNH income cut-off.

Women have consistently reported significantly lower GNH than men.

One significant factor that contributed to the improvement of living standards was His Majesty's Druk Gyalpo Relief Kidu (DGRK), an unconditional cash transfer programme implemented to assist individuals facing income losses during the Covid-19 pandemic. This initiative provided relief to many, enabling them to overcome rental expenditures and contributing to an increase in household per capita income.



Furthermore, Bhutan also observed a boost in local agriculture during the pandemic-induced import restrictions. As a result, rural farmers may have experienced an increase in their disposable incomes, which has had a positive ripple effect on their livelihoods.

The GNH 2022 also examines areas that have experienced deterioration, particularly a decrease in the proportion of people enjoying 27 or more healthy days in the past 30 days. This indicator reduced by 11.5% in 2022 compared to 2015. This decline might be attributed to the pandemic and the measures implemented to reduce the probability of infection during 2020 and part of 2021, such as lockdowns and restrictions on movement, which may have limited people's ability to access health services or even exercise.

There was a significant drop in cultural participation in 2022 compared to 2015. The censored sufficiency headcount ratio decreased from 25% in 2015 to around 19% in 2022 This decline, too, may be attributed to the far-reaching impacts of the pandemic.

It is disheartening to observe a significant reduction of 12.2% in the perception of the importance of *Driglam Namzha* and its observance. *Driglam Namzha* refers to a rich cultural heritage that promotes ways of living in complete harmony with others. Cultural heritage plays a vital role in shaping Bhutanese identity and fostering social cohesion. Therefore, it is crucial to address this decline and find ways to update and renew interest and appreciation for profound and pro-social cultural traditions.

A significant reduction of 11.4% in political participation was also observed. This reduction is reflected in people's willingness to vote and the frequency of attendance at local meetings, it also indicates a decrease in engagement with and trust in the political system. To revitalize political participation, political leaders must foster an environment that promotes trust, transparency, and inclusivity. Promoting a culture of active citizenship – and making voting easy – can empower people to participate and to see the impact they can have on Bhutanese society.

The full book *GNH2022* contains many additional nuances. For example, it offers typologies of happy people, be these illiterate farmers or civil servants – so we see the diversity of paths to GNH flourishing which people are taking. And although income is a GNH condition, money is not enough: among the richest 20% of Bhutanese, a startling 42% are notyet-happy according to the GNH index.

The *GNH 2022* classifies people by a happiness gradient with four groups: Deeply happy, Extensively happy, Narrowly happy and Unhappy.

Individuals who have 77% or more of the 33 weighted indicators, are categorized as deeply happy. Those who have scores from 66% to 77% are classified as 'extensively happy'. Both groups are GNH Happy. However, those who met just 50% to 65% of the GNH conditions, are termed 'narrowly happy' and those who have sufficiency in less than half are classified as 'unhappy'. Both groups are termed not-yet-happy.

Overall, 9.5% of Bhutanese people were deeply happy, 38.6% were extensively happy, 45.5% were narrowly happy, and 6.4% were unhappy. The purpose of GNH is to continue to address the problems of the not-yet-happy so that they may also flourish.

The detailed findings of the 2022 GNH Index are published in the book *GNH 2022* by Ura *et al.* The lead author, Dasho Karma Ura, has been the visionary leader of the GNH concept and measure since its inception. The book is available for download on www.bhutanstudies.org.bt/2022-gnh-report.





Revealing Sri Lanka's Multidimensional Poverty

An Interview with D Dilshanie Deepawansa, Deputy Director at Department of Census and Statistics in Sri Lanka

How would you describe poverty in Sri Lanka in historical terms? And what was the relevance of implementing a National MPI and a Child MPI in this context?

The Department of Census and Statistics (DCS) has been measuring poverty using a monetary approach of consumption expenditure based on the Cost of Basic Needs (CBN) since 2002, using the information collected from the Household Income and Expenditure Survey (HIES).

The incidence of monetary poverty in Sri Lanka has declined since 2002 moving from 46.7% in 2002 to 14.3% in 2019, based on the poverty line which was rebased in 2012/13.

Despite the sharp decline at the national level, poverty pockets still exist across regions of the country. Monetary poverty is important, but it is not accurate because it is unable to capture poor people's experiences in other dimensions such as education, health, sanitation, access to drinking water, housing condition, among others.

Multidimensional poverty measures capture poor people's deprivations experienced in different dimensions at the same time. They allow us to identify how many households and individuals are deprived and to analyse what the composition of their poverty is and how poverty differs between groups. This information can be used to inform an integrated policy framework to reduce poverty effectively and efficiently.

Poverty experienced by young children differs from poverty faced by adults. It can have different causes, and also different effects. Even short periods of deprivation faced by children, for instance in undernutrition and cognitive development, can permanently affect children's long-term growth.

A focus on early childhood poverty is key to informing child poverty policies that can have longlasting effects on the development of the country's human capital. Hence it is important to identify children's deprivations and a child Multidimensional Poverty Index (CMPI) enables that.

Child poverty measures allow the identification of how many deprivations poor children face (also known as intensity) and provide information on the composition of poverty by age group and between girls and boys. This information can be used to increase awareness of child deprivation as a national priority.



The main challenge was to decide which indicator to include that responded to the country's requirement to support policy.

In 2020 the Department of Census and Statistics produced the national Multidimensional Poverty Index (NMPI) and the linked child Multidimensional Poverty Index (CMPI) considering children aged 0–4 years old for the first time using data collected from the 2019 Household Income and Expenditure Survey, in collaboration with the Oxford Poverty & Human Development Initiative (OPHI), UNICEF country office in Sri Lanka and European Union (EU).

The Sri Lanka MPI is one of the first MPIs in the world to link the measure of child poverty directly and fully with national poverty. Why did you link the measure and what are its policy implications?

The child MPI for children aged 0–4 includes the same indicators as the national MPI and adds a fourth dimension to cover undernutrition and early childhood development.

The individual child MPI, therefore, shows additional child-specific deprivations for girls and boys under the age of 5. This information identifies multidimensionally poor children who are simultaneously experiencing their household's multidimensional deprivations and child-related deprivations.

This information is valuable for making anti-poverty policies that keep child poverty top of development agendas. In addition, the child MPI identifies poor children across different age cohorts and provides information on which indicators to prioritize for targeting policies.

How were both measurements created? How were dimensions, indicators and weights chosen for both measurements?

These two indices were created using the 2019 Household Income and Expenditure Survey data. To compile the child MPI, a new module was incorporated to the survey, with the main objective of collecting additional information specifically related to child poverty. The unit of identification for the national MPI was the household and the unit of analysis was individual.

The <u>national MPI in Sri Lanka</u> has 10 indicators grouped into three dimensions.

Figure 3. Structure of the national MPI of Sri Lanka



What challenges did you face in making both measurements?

The main challenge was to decide which indicator to include that responded to the country's requirement to support policy implications to target interventions for eradicating national and child poverty in Sri Lanka.

This challenge was addressed by arranging roundtable discussions and several stakeholders' meetings. Then there were several discussions with stakeholders and technical partners to decide each indicator's deprivation cut-off, the poverty cut-off and the weight of each of the indicator. A number of robustness analyses were conducted to decide the most appropriate deprivation and poverty cut-offs, as well as the weights.





Sri Lanka launches a child MPI directly linked to its national MPI

By D Dilshanie Deepawansa and Juliana Yael Milovich

The Department of Census and Statistics (DCS) of Sri Lanka, with the support of UNICEF, has launched its national Multidimensional Poverty Index (national MPI) as an official statistical and policy tool, to inform high-impact policy design and sectoral coordination towards the acceleration of poverty reduction in the country.

The <u>national MPI</u> captures ten indicators grouped into three dimensions of poverty: Education, Health, and Standard of Living. Any person deprived in 33% or more of the weighted sum of indicators is considered multidimensionally poor.

The national MPI is compiled using data from the Household Income and Expenditure Survey (HIES), conducted in 2019 by DCS. With the support of UNICEF, the HIES has been expanded to add questions related to the national MPI, and to include a specific module to collect child-related information among children 0–5 years old, which is used in the linked child MPI.

According to the national MPI of Sri Lanka, 16% of the population are multidimensionally poor.

When the national MPI is disaggregated by age group, 14% of children under 5 years of age are multidimensionally poor. Sri Lanka's national development plan, government policy strategies and international institutions recognize that reducing nutritional deprivations in children are a national priority, as is the care of cognitive development during the first years of their life.

Indeed, even short periods of deprivation, for instance on undernutrition and cognitive development, can permanently affect children's long-term growth. Therefore, a focus on early childhood poverty is key to inform child poverty policies that could have longlasting effects in the development of the country's human capital and its development path.

For these reasons, the DCS crafted and launched an individual child Multidimensional Poverty Index (child MPI) linked to its national MPI, specifically conceived for children 0-4 years old.

The child MPI is linked to the national MPI so that both measures together give consistent policy messages nationally, while the child MPI adds value by measuring the specific deprivations that poor children under the age of 5 experience.

A focus on early childhood poverty is key to inform child poverty policies that could have long-lasting effects in the development of the country's human capital and its development path.

How are the national and child MPI linked? The child MPI includes the same indicators of the national MPI with the same relative weights. It adds a fourth dimension, Child Development, which has two key individual child indicators: nutrition and early childhood development. In the child MPI the poverty cut-off is one-quarter, so any child deprived in 25% or more of the weighted indicators is poor. All the children who are poor by the national MPI are also poor by the child MPI, which is very important for policy consistency. In the case of the child MPI, the intensity of their poverty can be even higher if they are also deprived in any indicators in the Child Development dimension.

In addition, some children living in non-poor households according to the national MPI – households that are deprived in some of the ten indicators of the national MPI, but not enough to reach the poverty cutoff of 33% – are considered poor according to the child MPI because they are additionally deprived in either nutrition or cognitive development, or both.

This approach used to construct the child MPI, which makes it directly and precisely linked to the national MPI, is called the 'drawer approach', and Sri Lanka is pioneering in being the first country in the Southeast Asian region to use it to build an official measure of child multidimensional poverty.



Child Multidimensional Poverty Index of Sri Lanka



The child MPI of Sri Lanka identifies:

i) The percentage of children 0–4 years old who are multidimensionally poor (the incidence of child multidimensional poverty)

ii) The share of simultaneous deprivations poor children face (the intensity of child MPI),

iii) The level of multidimensional poverty of children 0–4 years old (the MPI value of the child MPI, which is equal to the product of the incidence and the intensity of child multidimensional poverty),

iv) Their composition of poverty by each indicator, and

v) Whether there are statistically significant differences among children of different ages or between girls and boys.

The results show that more than four out of every ten children under the age of 5 are multidimensionally poor, that is 42.2% of children 0–4 years of age. The intensity of poverty indicates that each poor child experiences, on average, 35.1% of the weighted deprivations, which is equivalent to being deprived in almost one dimension and a half among the four dimensions of child poverty. The multiplication of these two numbers gives a value of 0.148 for the child MPI. If either the incidence or the intensity is reduced, overall child poverty – that is, the child MPI – will go down.

When analysing the composition of child poverty, results show that one-third (33.4%) of the children aged 0-4 years old are multidimensionally poor and themselves personally underweight or stunted; 16.4% are poor and deprived in early childhood development; 32.9% of the children are poor and lack access to a safe source of drinking water, and 17.3% are poor and live in a household where the

access to health facilities takes 30 minutes or more. Confronting these deprivations are top priorities for child poverty reduction in Sri Lanka. No significant differences are found between the poverty levels of girls and boys in Sri Lanka 0–4 years old, which reflects gender equity during the first years of life.

The incidence of both national multidimensional poverty and child multidimensional poverty in Sri Lanka, as well as their disaggregation by sex and age, are reported in the global database of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) as SDG indicator 1.2.2. that looks at the "proportion of men, women, and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions", enabling the tracking of national and child poverty reduction over time in the country.

By reporting their individual child MPI and their national MPI in the global SDG database, Sri Lanka joins other countries such as Nigeria that have built a linked child MPI measure to better understand the specific deprivations that children face over the course of their lives, which may be different to those experienced by adults.

A linked child MPI is a highly valuable tool for the different policy actors in Sri Lanka and worldwide who are committed to accelerating progress towards reducing poverty among children and in all its dimensions.

It facilitates the use of information for effective policy action by providing key messages that reduce competition between advocacy groups by guiding them towards the same direction and by offering additional child-specific insights to improve the identification of the most vulnerable individuals.

This contributes to building a framework of evidence-based policymaking for better planning and improved collective action to advance Sri Lanka's goal of 'leaving no one behind'.



Shifting Perspectives: Assessing Poverty Beyond Money in Samoa with the MPI

By Papaliitele Fasavalu Benjamin Sila

 ${f S}$ amoa has been measuring monetary poverty since 2002, using the Household Income and Expenditure Surveys (HIES). However, from 2002 to 2018 the reduction in monetary poverty has been less than 1 percentage point, passing from 22.9% to 21.9% in 16 years.

Samoa's attention should be directed to relative poverty rather than absolute poverty. This is largely due to the fact that in the Pacific, there is the existence of a large subsistence economy where people have access to land and sea resources. That said, to further understand the dynamics of poverty in Samoa, an initiative was implemented by the Samoa Bureau of Statistics to measure the non-monetary aspects of poverty. The MPI (Multidimensional Poverty Index) fulfilled this, as it allows poverty to be measured in non-monetary terms, because it includes indicators such as education, health, employment and living standards.

The process of designing and computing the national MPI for Samoa

The Samoa Bureau of Statistics with the technical assistance of OPHI designed and computed the national MPI for Samoa. The MPI aligns with existing national policies and frameworks in Samoa. For example, the Pathway for the Development of Samoa (PDS) FY2021/2022 to FY2025/2026 was used as the basis for selecting the dimensions and indicators.

Three dimensions were aligned with the PDS FY 2021/2022 – FY 2025/2026, with the dimension of health covering indicators of access to health care facilities, food security and main source of drinking water; the dimension of education covering indicators of school attendance, years of schooling, youth NEET and school lag; and, the dimension



of living standards covering indicators such as asset ownership, cooking fuel, housing, sanitation, and internet connection.

A working group was established comprising of five government ministries (Finance, Education, Women, Community and Social Development and Health) and a steering committee was also set up comprising of the members of the Statistics Advisory Board and the respective CEOs from these relevant ministries. The indicators and dimensions were discussed among the working group and then presented and proposed to the steering committee.

The dimensions and indicators were derived from the Household Income and Expenditures Survey implemented by the Bureau as this survey captures most of the economic and social issues that define poverty in Samoa. Deprivation cutoffs were also set for all the indicators to capture different poverty situations.

At the beginning, the notion of a non-monetary measure of poverty encountered some difficulties. The process of implementing the MPI was challenging as it was all about the adoption of this new concept originally discussed and proposed by UNDP. These challenges included what is an MPI? How is it computed? How should the data and results be analyzed and interpreted? How is it relevant in the context of Samoa? No one had any basic knowledge and understanding of MPI.

Additionally, the Bureau also had limited knowledge on the software used to compute the MPI. To overcome these challenges, from the beginning of the process virtual trainings and technical assistance were provided by OPHI. Further guidance was also provided via zoom sessions on the interpretation of the findings, resulting in the launching of the first MPI report for Samoa in February 2023.

What we learnt and what is ahead?

According to the results of this <u>MPI report</u>, a quarter (24.9%) of the population in Samoa are multidimensionally poor. Most of the poor are located in rural areas. The results revealed that from the 12 indicators covered in Samoa's MPI, the three indicators that contribute the most to the MPI are food security, source of drinking water and internet connection with 18.4%, 16.2% and 12.1% respectively. By dimension, living standards contributed the most to the MPI with 41.6%, followed by health with 37.9% and education with 20.5%.

Disaggregating the MPI by household characteristics reveals that the child dependent population (age 0–14 years) and the old age dependent population (age 65 years and above) have the highest MPIs with 0.138 and 0.115 respectively. The results further reveal larger households have a higher incidence of multidimensional poverty. Furthermore, the higher the education level completed by the head of the household, the lower the incidence of multidimensional poverty.

In terms of the sex of the household head, the results indicated that female - headed households are less likely to being multidimensionally poor when compared with households whose head is male, but the difference is marginal, with only 0.009 index points.

This first MPI report for Samoa provides information at the national and regional levels. This initiative has also enabled Samoa to measure SDG 1.2.2 (proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions).

It is envisaged that future work on Samoa's MPI will be to disaggregate the results at the district level to ensure that it is aligned with the existing 51 political districts in Samoa. Since the MPI is constructed using the HIES survey, which is conducted every five years, it is further foreseen that Samoa's MPI will be updated and monitored every five years.

Finally, it should be acknowledged that the Bureau has managed to produce disaggregated indicators and figures from this MPI initiative in measuring non-monetary poverty. The Bureau envisions that policymakers and planners will take a proactive inclusive approach to formulate and implement the necessary policies to ensure that no one is left behind.

Samoa MPI





Multidimensional poverty in small areas: Considerations on the measurement of poverty in the municipalities of Mexico and its official character

By Alida Marcela Gutiérrez Landeros, and Jesús Emanuel Paredes Romero

Official Statistics

The General Law of Social Development (LGDS in Spanish) establishes the creation of the National Council for the Evaluation of Social Development Policy (CONEVAL) in Mexico, which, among its functions, is responsible for establishing guidelines and criteria for the definition, identification, and measurement of poverty. Likewise, this law establishes the obligation for public entities and agencies participating in the execution of social development programmes, to use the information generated by CONEVAL.

This regulatory framework determines the official character of poverty measurement results in Mexico, which are computed at geographical scales associated with the three levels of government: federal, state, and municipal. Furthermore, according to the LGDS, poverty measurement should be based on information generated by the National Institute of Statistics and Geography (INEGI in Spanish) through censuses, counts, or surveys every five years at the municipal level.

Challenges in its construction

The multidimensional measurement of poverty at the municipal level is based on three analytical dimensions (economic wellbeing, social rights, and territorial context) and uses the same definition to identify if a person is in a situation of multidimensional poverty as at the national and state levels: *a person is in a situation of multidimensional poverty when they lack the guarantee of exercising at least one of their social development rights (education, health, social security, housing, food), and their income is insufficient to acquire the goods and services they require to meet their needs.*



Its construction has brought significant challenges due to various factors. The first corresponds to the availability of input information at this level of disaggregation: there is no single statistical data source that allows for the estimating of all poverty indicators directly at the municipal level.

Consequently, a second challenge was to identify the statistical and operational techniques required to obtain the indicators for poverty measurement in Mexico.

The third challenge was to integrate the conceptual and technical reviews to have a rigorous, specific, computationally feasible, transparent, and replicable process that would produce reliable poverty estimates for more than two thousand municipalities in the Mexican territory.

For the measurement of municipal poverty, it was decided to apply statistical techniques of estimation in small areas at the unit level together with frequentist prediction intervals that allow the combining of different data sources.

Two sources provided by INEGI (2020) were used: first, the Statistical Model for the Continuity of the Module of Socioeconomic Conditions of the National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (MEC of MCS-ENIGH), which is representative at the national and subnational level. This data source provides information to measure the six social deprivations and income, these indicators enable the identification of whether a person is in a situation of poverty or vulnerability. Second, a sample of the Census of Population and Housing, which is representative at the municipal level, but does not include the necessary information to identify people's income, or if they are in a situation of deprivation regarding access to food or social security.

The measurement of poverty at the municipal level has helped identifying regions in Mexico that require more urgent action to improve the living conditions for the population.

The statistical models used to obtain the indicators of access to food and social security are logistic regression models at the regional level (grouping of federal entities) using information from MEC of MCS-ENIGH, which can estimate the probability that a person in the survey is deprived and even predict all observations with the available predictor variables (auxiliary information coming from the Census at the municipal level).

These models, as of 2020, have a sensitivity and specificity of around 95% at the national level, in addition to having all their predictors statistically significant. Simultaneously, income estimation is based on a linear mixed-effects model with heteroscedasticity in the errors (EBPH), which obtains estimates at the regional level and predicts observations with available information. Additionally, a fixed number of income simulations (Monte Carlo theoretical bases) are generated to estimate any function of it and the associated mean square error to assess the statistical accuracy of multidimensional poverty indicators for municipalities.

The fourth and final global challenge was the assessment of result consistency, not only for the most recent period with available municipal poverty information (2020), but also for the comparable series that includes the 2010 and 2015 cuts.

Sixteen indicators were generated for each municipality in the country with available information, covering territories with heterogeneous economic, sociodemographic, and geographical characteristics, where significant changes may have occurred over a decade.

Use in public policies and overview of results

With the latest update of poverty measurement at the municipal level, Mexico has, for the first time, a comparable series of a decade of information at this level of disaggregation, which enables identifying changes that occurred from 2010 to 2020. These results provide a valuable instrument for the Mexican state because they provide evidence-based elements for the design and implementation of public policies that consider specific characteristics of municipalities, thereby strengthening social development policy planning and evaluation.

The measurement of poverty at the municipal level has helped identifying regions in Mexico that require more urgent action to improve the living conditions for the population.

There is a higher concentration of poverty in some specific areas that transcends administrative boundaries, for example, regions historically characterized by socioeconomic disadvantages such as Nayar, Tarahumara, Altos de Chiapas, and the Mixteca, as well as the clustering of poverty in urban spaces. Another example is that of municipalities with a higher percentage of population in poverty, with a prevalence of indigenous populations engaged in primary sector activities, which are in highland and mountainous areas in the southern part of the country.

Additionally, municipalities with the highest prevalence of poor populations are found in metropolitan areas with high population density: in 2020, half of the poor population was concentrated in 173 municipalities, in 2015 this figure was 185, and in 2010, 199.

In this way, there is an extensive inventory of information that accounts for the social, economic, and geographical diversity of the territory, allowing for a better understanding of the dynamics of poverty within states to prioritize policy efforts focused on overcoming poverty.

General reflection

There is an undeniable need for up-to-date information on poverty at levels of disaggregation that go beyond the design of the most developed instruments and/or the most systematically structured data collection or registration processes, including censuses, counts, surveys, or even administrative records.

This requirement for information presents challenges that can be addressed from the conceptualization of the problem that needs quantification to the implementation of statistical techniques and the interpretation of results, as is the case of poverty measurement in the municipalities of Mexico.

These elements – necessary to improve the quality and precision of data for generating indicators that even more accurately reflect the country's reality – highlight the need for more robust and transparent processes that, among other characteristics, allow for the consistency and comparability of information, especially when it comes to generating official statistics that will serve for the development of state or federal development plans aimed at the efficient use of public resources.



Interlinked Hardships: MPI Deprivation Profiles

By Ricardo Nogales

S ince its initial publication in 2010, the global Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) has provided valuable insights into complex poverty conditions, examining their variations across countries, demographics, geographic locations, and regions.

Today, the MPI is widely recognized as a vital resource for international policymakers, aiding in the creation of targeted interventions to address the unique needs of individuals and families living in poverty. However, meeting the high standards set for a policy tool of this nature requires the acknowledgment that addressing the hardships faced by those experiencing poverty necessitates multiple coordinated actions.

Additionally, it is crucial to recognize that individuals living in poverty are not uniform in their experiences. The experience of poverty varies between different groups, regions, countries, and even within different areas of the same country. For instance, a person living in a rural area may be considered multidimensionally poor due to a lack of access to education, proper sanitation, and clean cooking fuel, while someone in an urban area may face poverty as a result of inadequate nutrition, housing, and assets. In essence, poverty takes on different forms for different people. The MPI enables the identification of specific deprivation profiles among the poor. This analysis surpasses traditional approaches that rely solely on decomposition and dimensional breakdown, as it recognizes that different profiles and experiences of poverty are shaped by the interconnections between various deprivations. Understanding these interlinkages aids in the development of integrated multisectoral policies that strategically address multiple deprivations simultaneously, alleviating the burden on impoverished individuals.

The 2022 global MPI report delves into the deprivation profiles of poor individuals in 111 developing countries. The most common profile affects 3.9% of the poor population, involving simultaneous deprivations in nutrition, cooking fuel, sanitation, and housing. This evidence suggests that over 45 million poor individuals could greatly benefit from a comprehensive policy programme that simultaneously addresses these deprivations, with most of them residing in South Asia.

The second most common deprivation profile encompasses simultaneous deprivations in six standards of living indicators, including cooking fuel, sanitation, drinking water, electricity, housing, and assets. Around 41 million people are poor due to this profile, and it is most prevalent in Sub-Saharan Africa, accounting for 5.9% of the poor population (34.2 million).

While identifying the most prevalent deprivation profiles has significant policy implications, another relevant approach involves focusing on predetermined pairs and triplets of deprivations experienced by the poor, allowing for a coordinated response. For instance, many programmes worldwide combine water, sanitation, and hygiene (WASH) initiatives.

Analyses presented in the global MPI report 2022 demonstrate that over 1 billion poor individuals are deprived of either sanitation or drinking water, and 437.1 million are deprived of both. The vast majority of those experiencing both deprivations reside in Sub-Saharan Africa (330.4 million), followed by South Asia (47.5 million).

Even countries with nearly identical MPI values can exhibit different deprivation profiles, underscoring the importance of analyzing deprivation interlinkages.

A similar analysis reveals that approximately 470 million poor individuals are deprived of both nutrition and sanitation, potentially making them more susceptible to infectious diseases.

Furthermore, over 593 million poor people lack both cooking fuel and electricity, highlighting the potential impact of clean energy interventions in poverty alleviation.

Similarly, more than 259 million poor individuals are deprived of both nutrition and school attendance, emphasizing the integrated response of school feeding programmes to address nutritional deprivations and incentivize school attendance among children.

It is worth emphasizing that even countries with nearly identical MPI values can exhibit different deprivation profiles, underscoring the importance of analyzing deprivation interlinkages. For example, in 2019, Liberia and Senegal had similar MPI values (0.259 and 0.263, respectively), but the percentage of poor individuals deprived of both sanitation and drinking water was 39.0% in Liberia and 21.9% in Senegal.

This information is vital for designing countryspecific water and sanitation joint programmes, as these initiatives require distinct configurations and reach, even in countries with similar overall levels of multidimensional poverty.

To further emphasize the significance of deprivation interlinkages in effective policymaking, the global MPI report presents three case studies: Ethiopia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, and Nepal.

In Ethiopia, for instance, significant poverty reduction has been achieved through various strategies, including GDP growth, infrastructure investment, and agricultural development. Notable initiatives like the Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) have provided support to millions of impoverished individuals, addressing multiple deprivations. However, recent challenges such as the Covid-19 pandemic and conflicts have posed obstacles to sustaining poverty reduction efforts.

In the context of Ethiopia, understanding that the most common deprivation profile in 2019 was the standard of living profile (deprivation in all six standard of living indicators: cooking fuel, sanitation, drinking water, electricity, housing, and assets) is crucial.

The second most common profile is the standard of living profile combined with deprivations in years of schooling. Approximately one in five poor individuals in Ethiopia experience one of these two profiles. Moving forward, the country could benefit from including a housing package in pro-poor programmes, focusing on energy, water, sanitation facilities, and home improvements.

Thus, the 2022 global MPI report presents the first comprehensive analysis of in-depth deprivation profiles derived from data on millions of households across 111 countries.

This analysis complements more traditional approaches to multidimensional poverty, showcasing that impactful policies against poverty must transcend institutional silos and address interconnected dimensions of poverty together. While this is an ambitious task for policymakers, it is also an achievable one.

Out of the 81 countries with trend data analyzed in the report, 72 significantly reduced their MPI values during at least one of the study's time periods.

Among these 72 countries, 68 achieved significant reductions in deprivations across five or more

indicators, with 46 countries reducing deprivations in eight or more indicators.

Moreover, 63 countries reduced deprivations among rural poor individuals in five or more indicators, while 22 countries reduced deprivations across all 10 MPI indicators.

These findings demonstrate that reducing multiple deprivations is possible, even for the most impoverished populations. The key to reinforcing these reductions lies in carefully designed multisectoral policies and evidence-based interventions that target interlinkages.

The 20 most common deprivation profiles among poor people across 111 developing countries



Hole The Hi deprivation profess with a rest doi in multifice instant is deprivations in the send common bundle (whitien, conting, send and non-ing), and the 8 deprivation profess outlined in rest installe the deprivations in the second mean and provide bundle (whitien and hole) and the second mean approximation bundle (installed in this installed in the second mean approximation bundle (installed in this is a second mean approximation bundle (installed in the second mean approximation bundle (installed installed installed in the second mean approximation bundle (installed installed installed installed installed installed installed installed in the second mean of the report.

Source: 2022 Global MPI report.

Global MPI 2023

This year's report Unstacking global poverty: Data for high-impact action produced by OPHI in partnership with the United Nations Development Programme Human Development Report Office (UNDP HDRO), presents a compact update on the state of the world's multidimensional poverty. It compiles data across 110 developing countries covering 6.1 billion people and accounting for 92% of the population in developing countries.

It tells us an important and persistent story about how prevalent poverty is in the world, and provides insights into the lives of the poor, their deprivations and how intense their poverty is – to inform and accelerate efforts to end poverty in all its forms.

As only a few countries, still, have post-pandemic data, the report also calls insistently for updated multidimensional poverty data. While the report provides a sobering annual stock take of global poverty, it also highlights examples of success in every region.

Download the <u>Global MPI 2023 report</u>: Unstacking global poverty – Data for high-impact action.



Data of the Month Global MPI 2023

Where do poor people live?

Across 110 countries 1.1 billion out of 6.1 billion people are poor – just over 18% are estimated to live in acute multidimensional poverty.

Who are the poorest?

The higher the incidence of poverty, the higher the intensity of poverty that poor people experience.

485 million poor people live in severe poverty across 110 countries, experiencing 50–100% of weighted deprivations.

99 million poor people experience deprivations in all three dimensions (70–100% of weighted deprivations).

10 million of the 12 million poor people with the highest deprivation scores (90–100%) live in Sub-Saharan Africa.

534 million

out of 1.1 billion poor people – half of all poor people – live in Sub-Saharan Africa.

389 million

Over a third of all poor people live in South Asia.

730 million – nearly

two-thirds of all poor people – live in middle-income countries. Low-income countries are home to over one-third of all poor people – 387 million.

Which groups are the poorest?

Half of the 1.1 billion

poor people (566 million) are children under 18 years of age.

84% of all poor people live in rural areas. Rural areas are poorer than urban areas in every world region.

What deprivations do poor people face?

824-991 million out

people do not have

adequate sanitation,

housing or cooking fuel.

of the 1.1 billion poor



Gaps in years of schooling

are a cross regional issue: In all regions except Europe and Central Asia, around half of poor people do not have a single member of their household who has completed six years of schooling.

How do monetary and multidimensional poverty compare?

600 million poor people

live with a person who

is undernourished in

their household.

In 42 of 61 countries more people live in multidimensional poverty, based on the global MPI, than in extreme monetary poverty according to the World Bank's \$2.15 a day measure.

How has poverty changed?

25 countries halved their global

MPI value well within 15 years, showing that progress at scale is attainable.

In **15 countries**, the rate of poverty reduction was outpaced by population growth: The number of poor people increased despite poverty rates declining.



72 of 81 countries, covering well over 5 billion people, experienced a significant absolute reduction in MPI value during at least one period. But nearly all data are from before the Covid-19 pandemic.

Cambodia halved its MPI in 7.5 years (2014–2021/2022), including during the Covid-19 pandemic years despite increases in deprivations in school attendance.

In **42 countries** –over half of those covered– children are being left behind.





Day in the Life

Fanja* is 59 years old and lives in a town of 5,000 people in eastern Madagascar. The town is situated on the outskirts of a forest and national park. The park is globally renowned for its lemur population.

Fanja's household comprises two sons (ages 39 and 16) and a grandson (age 12). Fanja and her family live in a house with a metallic roof with mud and wattle walls and a beaten earth floor. Due to the dense rainforest surrounding the town, it rains a lot, and the roof leaks. It also gets very cold; for warmth the family huddles around their wood cooking stove in the evenings.

They do not have a toilet and instead use the bushes close to the house. They draw water from one of the abundant natural streams that flow from the forested hills near their home. For lighting they use kerosene lanterns and candles. The house is not connected to electricity, even though the village is connected to the main grid. Fanja became the head of the family in 2001 after her husband died. She moved in with her sister's family in 2017 after her own house was destroyed by Tropical Cyclone Ava. She tried to reconstruct the house shortly afterward, but the unfinished structure was destroyed in 2020 during Tropical Storm Chalane.

For work Fanja crushes large rocks into gravel by hand using a mallet—a job she has done daily since she was 25. Crushing gravel starts with carrying rocks from the top of a steep hill near the house. On each trip Fanja carries rocks weighing up to 20 kilograms. This takes about an hour round trip.

Fanja used to make five trips a day, but at her current age she manages up to three. Each trip generates roughly one bag of gravel that usually sells for 2,000 ariary (50 cents). However, sometimes Fanja will accept less than 2,000 ariary just to get money to buy food. Fanja would willingly accept less strenuous work but admits her prospects are very low because she never went beyond reading and writing classes in school. Her older son started school but dropped out in the third year of primary education and now works as a night guard in town, where he earns 100,000 ariary (\$25) a month plus supper on most nights. He also spends part of his day helping his mother crush rocks.

During their holidays Fanja's grandson and younger son join her in crushing rocks to raise money for their school fees. Her younger son is currently in the sixth year of primary education at the local public school. Her grandson is in the third year of primary education, but the family has been unable to raise enough money for him to start school again in September. Given her advancing age, Fanja worries that she may not be able to manage the physicality of gravel making for much longer. Her work does not guarantee secure access to food, and the family plot of land is too small to support their food needs. They often have to share a single ration among them.

Fanja and her family are considered multidimensionally poor because they are deprived in nine indicators, which translates into a deprivation score of 83.3%. Furthermore, they are living in severe multidimensional poverty because their deprivation score is higher than 50%.

Fanya's deprivation chart. The coloured boxes show the deprivations that her household faces across the MPI.



Ten Indicators

Source: UNDP and OPHI (2022). <u>Global Multidimensional Poverty Index 2022</u>: Unpacking deprivation bundles to reduce multidimensional poverty. United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), and Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI), University of Oxford.

New National MPIs



<u>Samoa</u>

In February 2023 the Samoa Multidimensional Poverty Index 2022 was launched. This report presents Samoa's national Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) which is based on the Alkire-Foster method and uses the latest survey data from the Household Income and Expenditure Survey (HIES) 2018.

The Samoa MPI estimates that 24.9% or a quarter of Samoa's population is multidimensionally poor

according to 2018 data. The average intensity of deprivation, which reflects the share of deprivations each poor person experiences on average, is 43.9%. In other words, each multidimensionally poor person is on average deprived in 43.9% of the 12 weighted indicators.

Samoa's MPI comprises 12 indicators within three dimensions: health, education and employment and living standards.

The health dimension covers three indicators (access to health care and facilities, food security and main source of drinking water), the education and employment dimension covers four indicators (school attendance, years of schooling, youth NEET and school lag) and the living standards dimension covers five indicators (asset ownership, cooking fuel, housing, sanitation and internet connection).

For more information, see this issue's feature by Papaliitele Fasavalu Benjamin Sila.



<u>Mauritania</u>

In March 2023, Mauritania presented its Multidimensional Poverty Index offering a more comprehensive understanding of poverty beyond income by examining the range of deprivations that people face in health, education, employment and living standards.

According to the Mauritania MPI, 2.3 million people, or 56.9% of the population live in multidimensional poverty. These people are deprived on average in 56.3% of the weighted indicators in education, health, living standards and employment.

Children aged 0 to 17, who represent more than half (50.7%) of the Mauritanian population, constitute the poorest age group: 61.9% of children (1.3 million) live in multidimensional poverty and the value of their MPI is 0.352, the highest among all age groups.



<u>Belize</u>

Belize launched its Multidimensional Poverty Index in March. This study was carried out with technical and financial support from the United Nations Children's Fund, United Nations Development Programme, the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative, and the Caribbean Development Bank.

According to the Belize MPI which is based on data from the September 2021 Labour Force Survey,

35.7% of the population live in households that were multidimensionally poor. On average, these households were found to be deprived in 39% of the 17 indicators measured.

Across the districts, the highest levels of multidimensional poverty were seen in the Toledo district, while the Belize district had the lowest. People living in rural communities were more likely to be multidimensionally poor than those in urban areas, with the incidence of multidimensional poverty in rural communities being double that of urban ones.



<u>Sri Lanka</u>

In April, the Department of Census and Statistics (DCS) in Sri Lanka launched the national Multidimensional Poverty Index and child Multidimensional Poverty Index as official statistics to guide poverty reduction in Sri Lanka.

The report which examines poverty across rural, urban and estate areas and covers Sri Lanka's 25 districts is based on data from Household Income and Expenditure Survey 2019 (HIES 2019). The findings are also disaggregated by age group and household headship.

The national and child MPI complement monetary poverty measures for evidence-based policy decisions and will be reported as Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) indicator 1.2.2 as cross-tabulations showing the value-added of having both measures.

For more information, see this issue's features by D Dilshanie Deepawansa and Juliana Yael Milovich.

News



India tracks progress in poverty reduction with second edition of their National MPI

On 17 July, India published the first update of the National Multidimensional Poverty Index in a report entitled 'National Multidimensional Poverty Index: A Progress Review 2023'.

In November 2021, <u>NITI Aayog</u>, India's nodal agency tasked with measuring multidimensional poverty, launched an official National MPI for India with a report based on the National Family Heath Survey for 2015-16 (NFHS-4). The report that was published in July updates that analysis of multidimensional poverty across India with data from NFHS-5 (2019–21).

This report finds the proportion of people living in multidimensional poverty in India declined by 9.89 percentage points from 24.85% in 2015–2016 to 14.96% in 2019–2021. Rural areas reduced poverty fastest from 32.59% to 19.28%, whereas poverty in urban areas reduced from 8.65% to 5.27%.



OPHI Summer School 2023

This year the <u>Centre for the Sustainable</u> <u>Development Goals for Latin America (CODS)</u>, at the Universidad de los Andes in Bogotá, kindly hosted an in-person <u>OPHI Summer School</u> – OPHI's annual course to train the next generation of statistical champions in multidimensional poverty measurement and analysis. Sixty-eight participants from twenty-six countries attended in person in Colombia to learn the skills required to construct, compute and analyse a Multidimensional Poverty Index and describe its policy relevance.



Halfway to 2030 Agenda: Statisticians share progress on poverty reduction at MPPN Side Event to UNSC 54

The <u>Multidimensional Poverty Peer Network</u> (MPPN) was delighted to hold a side event today at the <u>54th session of the United</u> <u>Nations Statistical Commission</u> (UNSC) in February. The event 'Multidimensional Poverty Data: Post-Pandemic Insights and Policy Applications' convened leading government statisticians from ten countries to share their insights and experiences on the use of Multidimensional Poverty Indices (MPIs) to guide policymaking in poverty reduction, and track and report progress on SDG indicators.

The United Nations Statistical Commission is the highest

decision-making body of the global statistical system, drawing together Chief Statisticians from across the world. It is responsible for the setting of statistical standards and methodologies and sharing best practice on implementation at national and international levels.



<u>'People are never an abstraction': Leaders at UNGA discuss how</u> to leverage MPI to advance the 2030 Agenda

The Multidimensional Poverty Peer Network (MPPN), the Republic of Panama, and the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) co-hosted a highlevel in person side-event at the 78th United Nations General Assembly on Wednesday 20 September convening world leaders and policymakers to discuss the topic 'Leveraging the Multidimensional Poverty Index to Advance Interlinked SDGs'.

At the half-way point to the SDGs, the event profiled the experiences of leaders in using MPIs as an integral part of a rescue plan for people and planet.

MPPN

The Multidimensional Poverty Peer Network (MPPN) is a South-South initiative that supports policymakers in developing multidimensional poverty measures.

It promotes the use of such measures for more effective poverty eradication efforts at the global, national, and local levels.



- Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency Sida
- Southern Africa Development Community (SADC)
- Statistical, Economic and Social Research and Training Centre for Islamic Countries (SESRIC)
- United Nations Development Programme

• <u>United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia</u> (ESCWA)

- Unicef
- <u>World Bank</u>
- World Food Programme

Participants in the network are Ministers and senior officials from:

- <u>Afghanistan</u>
- <u>Angola</u>
- <u>Antigua and</u>
- <u>Barbuda</u>
- <u>Argentina</u>
- <u>Bangladesh</u>
- <u>Bhutan</u>
- <u>Bolivia</u>
- <u>Botswana</u>
- <u>Brazil</u>
- <u>Burkina Faso</u>
- <u>Cambodia</u>
- <u>Chad</u>
- <u>Chile</u>
- <u>China</u>
- <u>Colombia</u>
- <u>Costa Rica</u>
- <u>Cuba</u>
- <u>Djibouti</u>
- Dominican Republic •
- <u>Ecuador</u>
- Egypt
- <u>El Salvador</u>
- <u>eSwatini</u>
- <u>Gambia</u>
- <u>Grenada</u>
- <u>Guatemala</u>
- <u>Honduras</u>
- <u>India</u>
- <u>Indonesia</u>
- Iraq
- <u>Jamaica</u>

- <u>Malaysia</u><u>Maldives</u>
- Mexico
- MEXICO
- <u>Mongolia</u>
- <u>Morocco</u>
- <u>Mozambique</u>
- <u>Namibia</u>
- <u>Nepal</u>
- <u>Nigeria</u>
- <u>Pakistan</u>
- <u>Panama</u>
- Paraguay
- <u>Peru</u>
- Philippines
- <u>Rwanda</u>
- Saint Lucia
- Saint Vincent and
- the Grenadines
- <u>Senegal</u>
- <u>Seychelles</u>
- <u>Sierra Leone</u>
- South Africa
- <u>Spain</u>
- <u>Sudan</u>
- <u>Tajikistan</u>
- <u>Tanzania</u>
- <u>Thailand</u>
- <u>Tunisia</u>
- <u>Turkey</u>Uganda
- Uruguay
- Viet Nam

35 | DIMENSIONS NOVEMBER 2023

www.mppn.org



Cover Photo Flickr/Richard Mortel Attribution 2.0 Generic (CC BY 2.0)



Page 16 <u>PXHERE</u> CCO Public Domain



Page 3 <u>Flickr/Julien Harneis</u> Attribution-ShareAlike 2.0 Generic (CC BY-SA 2.0)



Page 18 <u>Flickr/Marques</u> <u>Stewart</u> Attribution-NonCommercial 2.0 Generic (CC BY-NC 2.0)



Page 5 <u>Pixabay</u> CCO Public Domain

Page 8

<u>Morales</u>

Page 9 Flickr/Nina R

Flickr/Antonio

Attribution-ShareAlike 2.0 Generic (CC BY-SA 2.0)



Flickr/ BrittanyDanisch Attribution 2.0 Generic (CC BY 2.0)

Page 25

Page 32 Flickr/Anmede Attribution-ShareAlike 2.0 Generic (CC BY-SA 2.0)

Page 24 Flickr/mikigroup Attribution 2.0 Generic (CC BY 2.0)

Page 25 Flickr/Mangrove Mike Attribution 2.0 Generic (CC

BY 2.0)

Back cover Flickr/Dan King Attribution-NonCommercial 2.0 Generic (CC BY-NC 2.0)





Page 10 <u>Pixabay</u> CCO Public Domain

Attribution 2.0 Generic (CC BY 2.0)



Page 11 <u>Pixabay</u> (cco)



Page 12 Flickr/A.Davey Attribution 2.0 Generic (CC BY 2.0)



Page 13 <u>Flickr/Oxfam Italia</u> Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs 2.0 Generic (CC BY-NC-ND 2.0)



Page 15 Flickr/Garret Clarke Attribution-NoDerivs 2.0 Generic (CC BY-ND 2.0)



Dimensions

fanade Katero