Last updated: 14 April 2020  
  
Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere  
  
Target 1.b: Create sound policy frameworks at the national, regional and international levels, based on pro-poor and gender-sensitive development strategies, to support accelerated investment in poverty eradication action   
  
Indicator 1.b.1: Pro-poor public social spending  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
UNICEF, Save the Children  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
Proportion of government spending towards health and education and direct transfers which benefit directly the monetary poor. Government spending measures public expenditures on health and education services. Direct transfers refer to cash transfers and near-cash transfers. The definition of the monetary poor follows national standards, with poverty levels determined by national definition of income or consumption poverty (consistent with SDG 1.2.1).   
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
The indicator measures the extent to which public spending in three key areas which are critical for poverty eradication, including health, education, and other direct transfers is directly allocated to individuals or households in the monetary poor as per the national definition.  
  
The indicator measures if public spending is targeting the monetary poor. Pro-poor social spending is defined if the proportion of government expenditures on social services is higher than the proportion of the population, measured at the level determined by national definition of income/consumption poverty (consistent with SDG 1.2.1). For instance, if the proportion of public spending received by the poor exceeds (falls below) the proportion of poor as defined by national definitions, public expenditures can be interpreted as pro-poor (not pro-poor). This is a strong measurement of the financial commitment governments make to target their services and transfers on the poor groups of society, reinforcing pro-poor development strategies.   
  
Further developments of the methodology and improvements in data availability may allow to expand this indicator to other vulnerable groups, such as women and children.   
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
Proportion of public spending: Expenditures by governments on health, education and direct transfers (cash transfers and near-cash transfers).   
  
  
  
The poor: Monetary Poverty as determined by national definition of income/consumption poverty (consistent with SDG 1.2.1).   
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
Feasibility: The indicator can be estimated for any country for which (a) a micro-data set detailing incomes or expenditures and services utilization (i.e. education, health, and cash transfers receipts) at the individual or household level exists and (b) a set of fiscal, administrative, or budgetary records detailing public expenditures at the program level is available.  
  
  
  
Suitability/relevance: The indicator provides an estimate how well public resources are allocated to sectors which disproportionally benefit the poor. This reflects the financial consequences of policy frameworks, which are based on pro-poor development strategies, which allows to measure progress on the SDG target 1.b.  
  
  
  
Relationship with other SDGs: The indicator could be compared with the one under SDG 10 on equity of fiscal policy. Countries should be encouraged to collect and analyse the data within a single process to create synergy and avoid unnecessary duplication.  
  
  
  
Limitations: The indicator does not take into effect the consequences of revenue-related fiscal activities, such as taxes or contributions to public insurance systems, on the poor. The proposed methodology does not currently expand to other groups, such as women or children.   
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
Monetary Poverty can be derived directly from a nationally representative micro-data set (an Income and Expenditure Survey, for example). Procedures for estimations are detailed comprehensively in the 1.2.1 metadata. The estimates used for this indicator would be the same as the ones for Target 1.2.1.  
  
Public spending on social services can be directly derived from budget administrative data.  
  
A fiscal incidence analysis is required to estimate the benefit the poor individuals or households (depending on underlying survey data) are receiving from those services. The incidence analysis measures the monetised value of in-kind transfers in education and health services at average government costs. In addition, this indicator includes cash and near cash transfers in the definition of social services (conditional and unconditional cash transfers, school feeding programmes etc.). The procedures are described in detailed in the CEQ Handbook, Meerman, Jacob (1979), Selowsky, Marcelo (1979), and many other ones.  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
The indicator can be disaggregated by subnational level, if fiscal, budgetary, and administrative data on government expenditures on this level are available. Further developments of the methodology and improvements in data availability may allow to expand this indicator to other subgroups which are included in the micro-data set.  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
  
  
At country level  
  
The indicator cannot be calculated when no nationally representative micro-data set and/or country-level fiscal, budgetary, and administrative data are available. Budget and administrative data exists for every fiscal system but is not always public.   
  
  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
N/A  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
No regional or global aggregates exist for this indicator.  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
Not applicable.  
  
  
  
Methods and guidance available to countries for the compilation of the data at the national level:  
  
A detailed description of the methodology can be found in Lustig, Nora (ed). 2018. CEQ Handbook: Estimating the Impact of Fiscal Policy on Inequality and Poverty, CEQ Institute at Tulane University and Brookings Institution Press, Meerman, Jacob Public Expenditures in Malaysia: Who Benefits and Why? (New York: Oxford University Press, 1979), Selowsky, Marcelo (1979) Who Benefits from Government Expenditure? (New York: Oxford University Press), and many others.  
  
This indicator can be calculated based on the current state of household surveys micro-data and budget administrative data.  
  
  
  
Quality assurance  
  
UNICEF and Save the Children will seek collaboration with the UN Regional Economic Commissions, the UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, the International Monetary Fund, The World Bank, and Regional Development Banks to provide quality assurance and international comparability.  
  
  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
This indicator requires fiscal or budgetary or administrative data on social expenditures and subsidy expenditure as well as a nationally representative micro-data set (for instance income/expenditure survey or household budget survey).  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
Nationally representative micro-data sets are often collected and hosted by the national statistics agency. Fiscal or budgetary or administrative data is occasionally available in unabridged summaries with enough detail at the program or policy level for the estimation of the indicator. More often, however, budgetary and administrative data is kept by the agency executing the program. The validation process requires consultation with each of the ministries and agencies responsible for executing programmatic expenditures.  
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
The indicator is currently available in 66 countries (covering 52% of world population) across the following regions:   
  
East Asia and the Pacific: 6 (19% of population)  
  
Europe and Central Asia: 17 (46% of population)  
  
Latin America and the Caribbean: 18 (95% of population)  
  
Middle East and North Africa: 4 (45% of population)  
  
North America: 0  
  
South Asia: 4 (96% of population)  
  
Sub-Saharan Africa: 17 (45% of population)  
  
  
  
Time series:  
  
The indicator is for the most part available for single country/year pairs only, with multiple datapoints available for 15 out of 66 countries. The earliest estimations of the indicator are for 2006-era data. The most recent estimations of the indicator are for 2016-era data. The only limitation to producing more frequent time series is the availability of more frequent household surveys.   
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
 Source data collection follows the update cycle for country-specific micro-data sets as well as the audit cycle for fiscal year revenues and expenditures.   
  
Data release:  
  
 There is not yet a regularized new data release or update schedule for this indicator.   
  
Data providers  
  
Ultimately the data providers are national-level statistical agencies for the micro-data sets and national-level fiscal agencies and bodies for the budgetary and administrative data.  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
 UNICEF would be the custodian of the compilation and reporting procedures for this indicator across national participants and contributing organizations. UNICEF collaborates with Save the Children and the CEQ Institute at Tulane University, which will initially provide data on this indicator based on its work in this field.   
  
  
  
  
  
References  
  
Lustig, Nora (ed). 2018. CEQ Handbook: Estimating the Impact of Fiscal Policy on Inequality and Poverty, CEQ Institute at Tulane University and Brookings Institution Press. commitmentoequity.org/publications-ceq-handbook, Meerman, Jacob Public Expenditures in Malaysia: Who Benefits and Why? (New York: Oxford University Press, 1979), Selowsky, Marcelo (1979) Who Benefits from Government Expenditure? (New York: Oxford University Press), and many other ones.  
  
  
  
Related indicators  
  
The definition of poverty follows indicator 1.2.1 (Proportion of population living below the national poverty line, by sex and age).  
  
The methodology underlying the proposed indicator 1.b.1 and its data requirements are also closely related to that of the newly accepted indicator Redistributive Impact of Fiscal Policy measuring SDG target 10.4. However, the two indicators measures different aspects of public policies: while the Redistributive Impact of Fiscal Policy indicator is an exact measure of the distributional impact of fiscal policies aimed at achieving greater equality (SDG target 10.4), this indicator focuses solely on the spending side of governments’ fiscal policies and its effect on the poor. Fiscal policies that are found to reduce overall inequality may not benefit disproportionately more the poor, as their impact on the income distribution may occur in higher deciles of the distribution. In clear contrast to the indicator Redistributive Impact of Fiscal Policy, the clear focus of the proposed indicator Pro-poor public social spending is on the effect of spending for poor individuals or households, reflecting if social policies are designed with pro-poor development strategies in mind, and therefore directly measuring SDG target 1.b.

Last updated: 12 February 2018  
  
Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere  
  
Target 1.4: By 2030, aims to ensure that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including microfinance.  
  
Indicator 1.4.2: Proportion of total adult population with secure tenure rights to land, with legally recognized documentation, and who perceive their rights to land as secure, by sex and by type of tenure  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
UN-Habitat and World Bank  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
The concepts below are based on the “Voluntary Guidelines for the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Forests and Fisheries in the Context of National Food Security” (shorthand VGGT), which were endorsed by the United Nations World Committee on World Food Security in 2012 and therefore considered an internationally accepted standard. Other international frameworks using these concepts are the African Union Agenda on Land as laid out in the 2009 Framework and Guidelines on Land Policy in Africa and the 2014 Nairobi Action Plan on Large-Scale Land-Based Investments.  
  
  
  
Tenure: How people, communities and others gain access to land and natural resources (including fisheries and forests) is defined and regulated by societies through systems of tenure. These tenure systems determine who can use which resources, for how long, and under what conditions. Tenure systems may be based on written policies and laws, as well as on unwritten customs and practices. No tenure right, including private ownership, is absolute. All tenure rights are limited by the rights of others and by the measures taken by states for public purposes (VGGT, 2012).   
  
  
  
Tenure typology: A tenure typology is country specific and refers to categories of tenure rights, for example customary, leasehold, public and freehold. Rights can be held collectively, jointly or individually and may cover one or more elements of the bundle of rights (the right of possession, of control, of exclusion, of enjoyment and of disposition).   
  
  
  
Land governance: Rules, processes and structures through which decisions are made regarding access to and the use (and transfer) of land, how those decisions are implemented and the way that conflicting interests in land are managed. States provide legal recognition for tenure rights through policies, law and land administration services, and define the categories of rights that are considered official.  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
Indicator 1.4.2 measures the relevant part of Target 1.4 (ensure men and women have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to …, ownership of and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources). It measures the results of policies that aim to strengthen tenure security for all, including women and other vulnerable groups.  
  
  
  
Indicator 1.4.2 covers (a) all types of land use (such as residential, commercial, agricultural, forestry, grazing, wetlands based on standard land-use classification) in both rural and urban areas; and (b) all land tenure types as recognized at the country level, such as freehold, leasehold, public land, customary land. An individual can hold land in his/her own name, jointly with other individuals, as a member of a household, or collectively as member of group, cooperative or other type of association.   
  
  
  
Secure tenure rights: comprised of two sub-components: (i) legally recognized documentation and (ii) perception of the security of tenure, which are both necessary to provide a full measurement of tenure security.   
  
  
  
Legally recognized documentation: Legal documentation of rights refers to the recording and publication of information on the nature and location of land, rights and right holders in a form that is recognized by government, and is therefore official. For purposes of computing SDG Indicator 1.4.2, the country specific metadata will define what documentation on land rights will be counted as legally recognized (see next section for rationale).   
  
  
  
Perceived security of tenure: Perception of tenure security refers to an individual’s perception of the likelihood of involuntary loss of land, such as disagreement of the ownership rights over land or ability to use it, regardless of the formal status and can be more optimistic or pessimistic. Although those without land rights’ documentation may frequently be perceived to be under threat, and those with documentation perceived as protected, there may be situations where documented land rights alone are insufficient to guarantee tenure security. Conversely, even without legally recognized documentation, individuals may feel themselves to be protected against eviction or dispossession. Therefore, capturing and analysing these diverse ranges of situations will enable a more comprehensive understanding of land tenure security, based on a country specific context.   
  
  
  
For purposes of constructing the indicator (see next section 3.1 for rationale), we define perceptions of tenure to be secure if:   
  
The landholder does not report a fear of involuntary loss of the land within the next five years due to, for example, intra-family, community or external threats and   
  
The landholder reports having the right to bequeath the land.   
  
  
  
Total adult population: A country’s adult population is measured by census data or through surveys using an adequate sample frame.   
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
Tenure systems increasingly face stress as the world’s growing population requires food security, and as urbanization, environmental degradation and climate affect land use and productivity. Many tenure problems also arise because of weak land governance, disputes due to land acquisition or large-scale land-based investments, and attempts to address tenure problems associated with dualisms to tenure regimes. Responsible governance of tenure of land is inextricably linked with access to and management of other natural resources, such as forests, water, fisheries and mineral resources. The governance of tenure is a crucial element in determining if and how people, communities and others acquire rights, and their associated obligations, to use and control land and natural resources. Legal recognition to group tenure or adopting a ‘fit for purpose’ land administration and using these to recognize outer boundaries of land held under communal or customary arrangements have increasingly received government attention in the recent past.   
  
Increasing demand for pro-poor land reforms has created the need for a core set of land indicators that have national application and global comparability, and culminated in SDG 1.4.2. Regular reporting on indicator 1.4.2 will provide an impetus to improve the availability of data from surveys as well as regularity of reporting on land administration service delivery to people by registries and other line agencies. Indicator 1.4.2 thus measures gender disaggregated progress in tenure security.  
  
All forms of tenure should provide people with a degree of tenure security, with states protecting legitimate tenure rights, ensuring that people are not arbitrarily evicted and that their legitimate tenure rights are not otherwise extinguished or infringed. Perceptions of tenure security matter because they influence the way that land is used. Sources of perceived insecurity may include contestation from within households, families, communities or as a result of the actions of governments or private land claimants. Secure tenure rights for women require particular attention and could be affected by a number of factors, including intra-household power relations, community level inequalities, or different tenure regimes, and which can be cross tabulated against other factors of difference to ensure that women are no left behind. If measured at the individual level, the right to bequeath is another proxy of perception of tenure security. Women’s ability to influence intergenerational land transfers is an important aspect of female empowerment (and one way in which this indicator links with indicator 5.a.1).  
  
 “Legally recognized documentation” and “perception of tenure security” are two complementary parts of this indicator and which reflects several insights, namely (i) land is a key asset that is essential for poverty reduction, human rights and equality of opportunity including by gender; (ii) secure land tenure creates incentives for investment in land, allows land to be transferred, and creates the institutional precondition for use of land as collateral to access finance for economic activity; (iii) there is a need to complement formal measures of tenure security with perception-based measures.  
  
This indicator will inform policy and allow for the assessment of specific outcomes and practical priorities for further improvements of tenure security at the country level. Regular reporting on the two components of Indicator 1.4.2 will:  
  
provide incentives for governments to improve performance on progress with responsible land governance  
  
inform governments and non-state actors to what extent countries’ legal and institutional frameworks recognize and support different land-tenure categories  
  
provide information on implementation capacity to protect such rights in practice, as well as progress   
  
identify the scope for additional action required at the country level as well as at a subnational level or for certain categories, geographic entities or ecosystems, and  
  
provide for equity between men and women in land rights.   
  
  
  
Interpretation:  
  
One motivation that makes the indicator actionable is that, in many developing countries, the gap between data on the availability of documentation and on perception of tenure security can be large. For example, tenure may be perceived as secure, even though rights are not formally documented, as in the case of customary systems and trusted local land governance arrangements. Or, the opposite, tenure may be perceived as insecure even when there is a high level of formal documentation of rights. The latter situation can be caused by various factors, including limited trust in land administration services, possible duplicated documents, high cost of having state institutions protecting such rights.   
  
Reporting on perceived security will provide important information on people’s satisfaction with the institutional quality of service, transparency, appropriateness, accessibility and affordability of land administration services and justice systems.   
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
In 2016, a total of 116 countries reported having electronic land information systems in place. Countries with paper-based systems will have more difficulties with reporting on administrative data and household surveys will be the main source of data for this indicator in these countries. The expansion of digitization of records and land data management is one way to facilitate the ease of reporting administrative data for this indicator. Coverage may, however, be geographically skewed, for example towards urban or specific rural regions where cadastral coverage is concentrated, and therefore sub-national dimensions should be properly considered and conveyed in narrative reporting by specific countries to accompany the headline data.   
  
In federal countries with decentralized land registry systems and no centralized reporting yet, data reporting systems for aggregation will be put in place. For countries where the land administration system does not yet collect information on gender, and gender disaggregation cannot be computed using other core data (social security numbers, ID etc), land agencies are encouraged to start expanding this by recording also the gender of owners/users of newly registered land.   
  
Most of the national household surveys’ target samples are sufficiently large to provide the statistical power for disaggregation by sex and tenure type at rural /urban and sub-national levels. Inferring the extent to which the adult population is tenure secure based on the existing web of surveys, will require the use of a standardized set of questions so that surveys can be combined. However, even nationally representative surveys tend to cover certain segments of the population (those living in agricultural areas, families in which there are women of reproductive age, official urban areas etc.). Even when all the existing surveys are aggregated, there may be pockets of the population that are not captured by the surveys and for which there is thus no data on tenure security. This may include families living in areas that are too far or costly to reach, like forest areas.   
  
Household surveys generally collect household-level data from proxy respondents. Family members who are not the head or the most knowledgeable person in their households are not interviewed, as is also noted in the methodological note for the IAEG-SDG Secretariat for Indicator 5.a.1. This approach is problematic for measuring tenure rights and security due to the introduction of non-random measurement errors. For instance, proxy reporting by one member of the household tends to incorrectly assign rights and misjudge and underestimate both women’s and men’s rights and use of land. Indicator 1.4.2 should therefore be based on self-reported rather than proxy data. If not all household members are surveyed, only those surveyed should be reported, estimating the global adult population based on the smaller sample enumerated. This lack of information affects only the numerators of the indicator; it has no bearing on the denominator which should always be the total adult population. In other words, the indicator reports and tracks the proportion of the population for which there is self-reported data stating that they are tenure secure. People for whom there is no information cannot be assumed to be tenure secure and therefore are not counted in the numerator. NSOs should report the data collected from household surveys as individual level data that corresponds to the respondent and is not extrapolated to the rest of his/her household. Any limitations in the representativeness of this data should be clearly noted in the country specific metadata submitted with the reporting, including who was included in the enumeration.   
  
Data will still be used for countries that do not yet have survey instruments in place that survey individuals, while capacity for expanding sampling and individual self-reporting by NSOs is expanded progressively through DHS, MICS, LSMS and other type of surveys in coordination with FAO and UN-Women. Addressing this challenge will require combined efforts. Custodians of the land rights indicators1.4.2 and 5.a.1, and relevant stakeholders from the land sector, will work with custodians from other SDG indicators also require surveying of individuals, and in particular the NSOs, to identify effective approaches to start filling the void on self-reported data. NSOs need to be supported to collect data by interviewing individual adult household member. The custodians will leverage the work of the UN - Evidence and Data for Gender Equality EDGE project, in particular, which is the most advanced in using and testing gender sensitive methodologies and approaches. They have found the approach feasible and have developed training materials and data collection instruments suitable for this effort.   
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
Indicator 1.4.2 is composed of two parts: (A) measures the incidence of adults with legally recognized documentation over land among the total adult population; while (B) focuses on the incidence of adults who report having perceived secure rights to land among the adult population. Part (A) and part (B) provide two complementary data sets on security of tenure rights, needed for measuring the indicator.   
  
  
  
Part (A): X 100  
  
Part (B): x 100  
  
Part A will be computed using national census data or household survey data generated by the national statistical system and/or administrative data generated by land agency (depending on data availability).   
  
Part B will be computed using national census data or household survey data that feature the perception questions globally agreed through the EGMs and standardized in a module with essential questions discussed in section 5.1.1).   
  
The indicator gives equal weight to both components.  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
This indicator will be disaggregated by sex and type of tenure, using the standards developed by the working group on data disaggregation, which is a subgroup of the Inter-Agency Expert Group on SDGs.   
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
NA  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
NA  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
NA  
  
  
  
Methods and guidance available to countries for the compilation of the data at the national level:  
  
NA  
  
  
  
Quality assurance  
  
NA  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
The data sources used are census, multi-topic household surveys conducted by national statistical Organizations and, depending on availability, administrative data on land tenure reported by national land institutions (in most cases land registries and cadasters).   
  
  
  
Household surveys and census  
  
Household surveys and census that have been implemented by national statistical agencies, are a key source of information for computing the indicator.   
  
Censuses: These provide a complete enumeration of all the populations of the country at a specific time. In many recent censuses, questions on household characteristics, including short modules on security of tenure, are collected. So far, 41 countries have carried out a census in which questions on land tenure were included. Options for expanding land-related questions in the upcoming agricultural census are being discussed together with FAO (custodians of 5.a.1).  
  
Household-level consumption/expenditure surveys: To provide aggregate information on levels of consumption, prices and, often, estimates of GDP, many countries conduct this type of survey. As one of the key assets, this often includes questions on how residential land is accessed but rarely goes beyond this in terms of the type of documents held or the gender of rights holders. Elaborated housing modules are often included, and which already contain some questions on tenure status of the dwelling and documentation held. In consultation with the NSO, these modules will be fine-tuned to fully cover the essential land questions identified for 1.4.2.   
  
Multi-topic household surveys: Building on the need to generate reliable poverty estimates and understand the factors that lead households to fall into poverty or escape from it in developing countries, these surveys include a roster of household members and, where agriculture is a main source of livelihood, a detailed agricultural module that in many cases obtains information on tenure status, ownership, and production at plot level. The essential questions for 1.4.2 as well as 5.a.1 have been included in the Living Standard Measurement Surveys approach, which includes individual surveys and puts much emphasis on measuring intra household dynamics through direct reporting.  
  
Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS): Responding to a need for more frequent and reliable information on population and health, especially in developing countries, these types of surveys provide nationally representative data on a wide range of areas including fertility, family planning, maternal and child health, gender, HIV/AIDS, malaria, and nutrition. A standard questionnaire, regularly revised to incorporate newly emerging issues, is administrated at the household and individual level. It is a nationally representative survey. In a majority of DHS surveys, people eligible for individual interviews include women of reproductive age (15-49) and men age 15-49, 15-54, or 15-59. The individual questionnaires in the latest version (round 7) includes questions on whether respondents own land, if they have formal ownership documents, and if their name is included on these documents.   
  
Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS): surveys implemented by NSOs under the program developed by the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) to provide internationally comparable, statistically rigorous data on the situation of children and women. They cover topics such as health, education, child protection, and water and sanitation. The survey design follows closely that of DHS questions and modules. This facilitates cross-country comparisons of estimates obtained using DHS data with those obtained using MICS data. In addition to the household questionnaire, there are questionnaires for women of reproductive ages (15-49), men aged between 15 and 49 and children (aged 0-5 and aged 5-17). The household questionnaire includes questions on ownership of land that can be used for agriculture by any member of the household, and on the size of the agricultural land owned by the household members. Also, there are questions about ownership/rental of dwelling where the household lives.  
  
Discussions are ongoing with the teams in charge of DHS and MICS, specifically on expanding questions on land in their standardized and nationally representative surveys, in order to cover all data requirements for 1.4.2.   
  
Urban Inequity Surveys (UIS): These specialized surveys were designed by UN-Habitat as household surveys to monitor and assess water and sanitation service coverage and other topics on urban inequities, including tenure. More recently, these surveys have been expanded to cover both rural and urban areas. The upcoming UIS surveys will be reviewed to ensure that the data requirements for SDG 1.4.2 are covered.   
  
  
  
Administrative data  
  
Production of land records and maps is a core function of public land registries, with legally recognized documentation being the output. Reporting on the information contained in these land records ((i) names of people holding rights, (ii) type of rights and (iii) location) is not difficult in principle if records are kept in a computerized format. Using household surveys, this land information can be cross-checked against survey information with respect to quality and coverage. In the case of registered communal or group rights, identifying the group members who gain tenure security through its registration is equally possible.   
  
The country specific metadata will include a description of the structure of the land information data base, available information and approach for routine SDG reporting.   
  
  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
The custodians of 1.4.2 together with FAO and UN Women, custodians of 5.a.1, developed a standardized, consolidated and succinct survey instrument with essential questions as data collection requirements are partly similar. The standardization of indicator definitions improves data comparability across countries. The scope and capacity for standardized data collection, analysis and reporting across NSOs is expected to rise with progressive data collection and implementation of the methodology.   
  
The module will be made available to NSOs for integration in survey instruments already in place, and will be used by other international household survey programs working with NSOs, (such as LSMS and UIS). The module can be used by any other complementary survey instrument implemented by other actors, using a data collection protocol that meets SDG 1.4.2 requirements, while the data produced are approved and reported by NSO to the custodians. In addition, both the USAID and the Millennium Challenge Cooperation (MCC), have agreed to incorporate the essential questions from 5.a.1 and 1.4.2 into future land impact evaluations and has already done so for upcoming ones. The Property Rights Index initiative has integrated the SDG questions into its data collection tools on perceptions of tenure security. This range of efforts will further expand data availability and leverage efforts by NSOs to report on this indicator.  
  
Country-specific metadata will be elaborated that provides an inventory of the tenure types and type of documents in use, identifies which documents are legally recognized as evidence of land rights with images of each document, and elaborates on the correspondence between the two types of data sets (survey data and administrative data). This instrument will ensure consistency of definitions across countries. These country specific metadata will also be used for customizing surveys.  
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
This indicator is classified as tier III but a request for reclassification to tier II will be submitted to the sixth meeting of the IAEG-SDG.  
  
Administrative data are routinely produced by land administration institutions. The 116 countries reporting having electronic land information systems, can generate the required data at a low cost on a routine basis, and at high levels of disaggregation, once the queries for the SDG dashboard are put in place.   
  
Nationally representative multi-topic household surveys have collected land related data in many countries. These provide information, separately for residential and non-residential land, on (i) the share of individuals with legally documented rights; and (ii) the share of individuals who perceive their rights to be secure. Nationally representative household surveys will also provide data on two other key elements, namely (i) reported type of documentation and (ii) perception of tenure security by tenure type and other disaggregations discussed above.  
  
  
  
Data Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection will be the responsibility of national agencies. DHS, MICS and LSMS-type surveys are conducted in a cycle of about three years, while census data is available every 10 years. Administrative data can be reported on an annual basis where land information systems are fully electronic, with the accompanying population data made available from censuses or inter-censual projections.   
  
Via the EGMs conducted, the custodians have been able to put together a network of NSOs and land administration institutions to link to NSOs and their regional representations, and to provide administrative data. The World Bank, UN-Habitat, the GDWGL, GLTN/GLII and other partners will support capacity strengthening at regional and country level for data providers and reporting mechanisms, and promote understanding of this indicator at all levels. Concerted investments are ongoing to expand data availability by integrating the consolidated land data module with essential questions in upcoming surveys, as already indicated above.   
  
A capacity assessment on the preparedness and ability of NSOs to report on indicator 1.4.2 indicator was conducted by the custodians, with support of GLTN/GLII. The findings show NSOs agree to build on existing national survey systems and are ready to coordinate with land agencies to generate data and report on this indicator. Capacity needs were also identified and being used to develop a country capacity development strategy for NSOs, jointly with FAO and UN Women. The custodians of 1.4.2 and 5.a.1 have agreed to work closely with country and regional statistical agencies and global partners to support for country data collection, analysis and reporting. Similar capacity building support will be developed for land agencies to set up gender disaggregated electronic reporting systems.  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
National data providers:   
  
Statistical agencies – surveys  
  
Government administrative sources /registries, cadasters  
  
Compilation & reporting at the global level:   
  
UN-Habitat - United Nations Human Settlements Programme  
  
World Bank   
  
  
  
Development of methodology and data collection tools was done with support of NSOs (Colombia, India, Jamaica, Tanzania, Uganda, Cameroon, the United States, the Africa Centre for Statistics/UNECA) and land agencies (Belgium, Brazil, Colombia, Republic of Korea, Mexico, Netherlands, Romania, Spain, United Arab Emirates and Uganda) and regional organizations of land agencies (registries, cadastres, ministries responsible for land) through international Expert Group Meetings.   
  
The data collection tool was developed in coordination with FAO and UN Women/EDGE to harmonize instruments for 1.4.2 and 5.a.1   
  
  
  
The development of this SDG indicator is supported by the Global Donor Working Group on Land (GDWGL). This is a network of 24 bi- and multilateral donors and international organizations committed to improving land governance worldwide and which collectively represents virtually all global donor assistance in the land sector: the Global Land Tool Network (GLTN) and the Global Land Indicator Initiative (GLII), a network of over 70 CSOs, NGOs, professional organizations, research and training organizations; the International Land Coalition (ILC), an alliance of more than 200 intergovernmental and civil society organizations working on land; and the African Union/UNECA/AfDB – Land Policy Initiative.  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
UN-Habitat - United Nations Human Settlements Programme  
  
World Bank   
  
  
  
References  
  
Kilic, T., and Moylan, H. (2016). “Methodological experiment on measuring asset ownership from a gender perspective (MEXA): technical report.” Washington, DC: World Bank   
  
Selected Land policy normative documents   
  
Africa Union, African Development bank and United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (1999). Land Policy in Africa: A Framework to Strengthen Land Rights, Enhance Productivity and Secure Livelihoods. Available at: https://www.uneca.org/publications/framework-and-guidelines-landpolicy-africa  
  
Africa Union, African Development bank and United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (2014). Guiding Principles on Large-Scale Land-Based Investment in Africa. Nairobi. Available at: https://www.uneca.org/sites/default/files/PublicationFiles/guiding\_principles\_eng\_rev\_era\_size.pdf   
  
Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (2012). Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests in the Context of National Food Security. Available at: http://www.fao.org/docrep/016/i2801e/i2801e.pdf  
  
  
  
Proceedings EGMs for SDG 1.4.2   
  
Expert Group Meetings on methodology development using survey data: https://gltn.net/home/download/international-expert-group-meeting-on-land-tenure-security-to-develop-a-set-of-household-survey-questions-for-monitoring-sdg-indicator-1-4-2/?wpdmdl=111  
  
  
  
Expert Group Meetings on methodology development using administrative data (http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/482991505367111149/pdf/119691-WP-P095390-PUBLIC-SDGEGMproceedingsuseofadministrativedatalandagencies.pdf)   
  
Consolidated essential questions land module for 1.4.2 and 5.a.1 (FAO, UN-Habitat, UN Women, World Bank). Module for individual interviewing under preparation; Version for household surveys with proxy respondents; available at: http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/812621505371556739/Land-tenure-module-essential-questions-for-data-collection-for-1-4-2-and-5-a-1).   
  
  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020  
  
This indicator is Goal 1, and is also particularly related to Goal 5, 5.a.1 (access to agricultural land) and 5.a.2 (legal framework for land governance). Tenure security also matters for Goal 2, Target 2.3 (2.3.1 and 2.3.2 addressing smallholder farmers; Target 2.4 (2.4.1 on agricultural area), to Goal 11, to target 11.1 (access to affordable housing/upgrading slums) and target 11.3 (sustainable urbanization/settlement planning). Land tenure also influences land use and is thus key to achieving Goal 14 (b) to provide access to small-scale fishers and marine resources, and to Goal 15 on the sustainable use of land and natural resources. Similarly, land is a significant source of conflict, and thus also matters for Goal 16 for promoting peace and inclusive societies and institutions.

Last update: March 2018  
  
Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere;  
  
Target 1.5: By 2030, build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations and reduce their exposure and vulnerability to climate-related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters;  
  
Indicator 1.5.1: Number of deaths, missing persons and directly affected persons attributed to disasters per 100,000 population  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
  
  
United Nations Office for Disaster Reduction (UNISDR)  
  
  
  
Definition and Rationale   
  
Definition:  
  
This indicator measures the number of people who died, went missing or were directly affected by disasters per 100,000 population.   
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
Death: The number of people who died during the disaster, or directly after, as a direct result of the hazardous event.  
  
Missing: The number of people whose whereabouts is unknown since the hazardous event. It includes people who are presumed dead, for whom there is no physical evidence such as a body, and for which an official/legal report has been filed with competent authorities.  
  
Directly affected: The number of people who have suffered injury, illness or other health effects; who were evacuated, displaced, relocated or have suffered direct damage to their livelihoods, economic, physical, social, cultural and environmental assets. Indirectly affected are people who have suffered consequences, other than or in addition to direct effects, over time, due to disruption or changes in economy, critical infrastructure, basic services, commerce or work, or social, health and psychological consequences.  
  
  
  
Rationale and Interpretation:  
  
The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 was adopted by UN Member States in March 2015 as a global policy of disaster risk reduction. Among the global targets, “Target A: Substantially reduce global disaster mortality by 2030, aiming to lower average per 100,000 global mortality between 2020-2030 compared with 2005-2015” and “Target B: Substantially reduce the number of affected people globally by 2030, aiming to lower the average global figure per 100,000 between 2020-2030 compared with 2005-2015” will contribute to sustainable development and strengthen economic, social, health and environmental resilience. The economic, environmental and social perspectives would include poverty eradication, urban resilience, and climate change adaptation.  
  
The open-ended intergovernmental expert working group on indicators and terminology relating to disaster risk reduction (OIEWG) established by the General Assembly (resolution 69/284) has developed a set of indicators to measure global progress in the implementation of the Sendai Framework, which was endorsed by the UNGA (OIEWG report A/71/644). The relevant global indicators for the Sendai Framework will be used to report for this indicator.   
  
Disaster loss data is greatly influenced by large-scale catastrophic events, which represent important outliers. UNISDR recommends countries report the data by event, so that complementary analysis can be undertaken to obtain trends and patterns in which such catastrophic events (that can represent outliers) can be included or excluded.  
  
  
  
  
  
Method of Computation and Other Methodological Considerations  
  
Computation Method:  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Where:  
  
A2 Number of deaths attributed to disasters;   
  
A3 Number of missing persons attributed to disasters; and   
  
B1 Number of directly affected people attributed to disasters.   
  
\* Detailed methodologies can be found in the Technical Guidance (see below the Reference section)  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
The Sendai Framework Monitoring System has been developed to measure the progress in the implementation of the Sendai Framework by UNGA endorsed indicators. Member States will be able to report through the System from March 2018. The data for SDG indicators will be compiled and reported by UNISDR.  
  
   
  
Proxy, alternative and additional indicators:  
  
In most cases international data sources only record events that surpass some threshold of impact and use secondary data sources which usually have non uniform or even inconsistent methodologies, producing heterogeneous datasets.  
  
  
  
Data Sources and Collection Method  
  
Data sources and collection method:  
  
Data provider at national level is appointed Sendai Framework Focal Points. In most countries disaster data are collected by line ministries and national disaster loss databases are established and managed by special purpose agencies including national disaster management agencies, civil protection agencies, and meteorological agencies. The Sendai Framework Focal Points in each country are responsible of data reporting through the Sendai Framework Monitoring System.  
  
  
  
  
  
Data Disaggregation  
  
Number of deaths attributed to disasters;   
  
Number of missing persons attributed to disasters; and   
  
Number of directly affected people attributed to disasters.   
  
  
  
 [Desirable Disaggregation]:  
  
Hazard  
  
Geography (Administrative Unit)  
  
Sex  
  
Age (3 categories)  
  
Disability  
  
Income  
  
  
  
References  
  
Official SDG Metadata URL: https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-01-05-01.pdf <to be updated with new docs>  
  
  
  
Internationally agreed methodology and guideline URL:   
  
Technical guidance for monitoring and reporting on progress in achieving the global targets of the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNISDR 2017)  
  
https://www.preventionweb.net/files/54970\_collectionoftechnicalguidancenoteso.pdf  
  
  
  
Other references:  
  
Report of the open-ended intergovernmental expert working group on indicators and terminology relating to disaster risk reduction (OEIWG). Endorsed by UNGA on 2nd February 2017. Available at: https://www.preventionweb.net/publications/view/51748  
  
  
  
  
  
Country examples:  
  
  
  
Contact International Organization for Global Monitoring  
  
United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNISDR)

Last updated: 19 July 2016  
  
  
  
  
  
Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere  
  
Target 1.3: Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage of the poor and the vulnerable  
  
Indicator 1.3.1: Proportion of population covered by social protection floors/systems, by sex, distinguishing children, unemployed persons, older persons, persons with disabilities, pregnant women, newborns, work-injury victims and the poor and the vulnerable  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
  
  
World Bank (WB)  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
  
  
Coverage of social protection and labor programs (SPL) is the percentage of population participating in social insurance, social safety net, and unemployment benefits and active labor market programs. Estimates include both direct and indirect beneficiaries.  
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
  
  
ASPIRE coverage indicators refer to the ‘effective’ coverage definition, measuring the direct and indirect beneficiaries who are actually receiving social protection benefits at the time nationally representative household survey data are collected, as within a target group (total population, for different income quintiles, total population in urban and rural areas). ‘Effective’ coverage is directly relevant to SDG 1 of ending poverty in all its forms.   
  
  
  
ASPIRE indicators do not include (in the current edition) those who are protected by law, or those who have benefits guaranteed but are not necessarily receiving them at the time the survey is administered – for example people who actively contribute to old age pensions and are entitled to the benefits on reaching retirement age.  
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
  
  
This indicator is estimated by program type, for the entire population and by quintiles of both the post-transfer and pre-transfer welfare distribution. Programs are aggregated into social assistance, social insurance and labor market according to ASPIRE (Atlas of Social Protection – Indicators of Resilience and Equity) classification. Indicators for all social protection and labor programs (SPL) provide the totals summing up the social assistance, social insurance and labor market figures.   
  
  
  
ASPIRE is the World Bank's premier compilation of Social Protection and Labor (SPL) indicators gathered from officially-recognized international household surveys in order to analyze the distributional and poverty impact of Social Protection and Labor programs. ASPIRE is an ongoing project that aims to improve SPL data quality, comparability and availability to better inform SPL policies and programs.  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
  
  
Household surveys have limitations. It is important to note that the extent to which information on specific transfers and programs is captured in the household surveys can vary a lot across countries. Often household surveys do not capture the universe of social protection and labor (SPL) programs in the country, in best practice cases just the largest programs. Many household surveys have limited information on SPL programs, some surveys collect information only on participation without including the transfer amounts; and others include program information mixed with private transfers, making it difficult to isolate individual SPL programs.  
  
  
  
Therefore information on country SPL programs included in ASPIRE is limited to what is captured in the respective national household survey and does not necessarily represent the universe of programs existing in the country. In addition, the availability of ASPIRE indicators depends on the type of questions included in the survey. If transfer amounts are available, for example, adequacy and impact on poverty indicators can be generated. If only program participation questions are included in the survey, only non-monetary indicators can be generated such as coverage or beneficiary incidence.  
  
  
  
As a consequence, ASPIRE performance indicators are not fully comparable across harmonized program categories and countries.  
  
  
  
However, household surveys have the unique advantages of allowing analysis of program impact on household welfare. With such caveats in mind, ASPIRE indicators based on household surveys provide an approximate measure of social protection systems performance.  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
  
  
Data are calculated from national representative household surveys using ASPIRE: The Atlas of Social Protection - Indicators of Resilience and Equity, The World Bank (see datatopics.worldbank.org/aspire/).   
  
  
  
Coverage = Number of beneficiaries in the total population (or group) / Total population (or group).   
  
  
  
Generally, ASPIRE indicators are based on a first level analysis of original household survey data (with no imputations) and on a unified methodology that does not necessarily reflect country-specific knowledge and in depth country analysis relying on different data sources (administrative program level data).  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
  
  
Disaggregation would be possible by sex, age group, income quintiles, etc.  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
  
  
At country level  
  
  
  
No imputation  
  
  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
  
  
The regional and global aggregates are calculated from the most recent values of country data since 2000. No imputation is performed.  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
  
  
Regional and global estimates are calculated as the average of all country data available, weighted by countries’ population.  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
  
  
While efforts are made to ensure consistency between ASPIRE indicators and World Bank's regional and country reports/national estimates, there may still be cases where ASPIRE performance indicators differ from official WB country reports/national estimates.  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
  
  
Data are based on national representative household surveys. Data source is ASPIRE: The Atlas of Social Protection - Indicators of Resilience and Equity, The World Bank (see datatopics.worldbank.org/aspire/)  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
  
  
Unit-record data of national household surveys are collected by national governments and given to the World Bank for analytical purposes. The ASPIRE team harmonizes these household surveys to make them reasonably comparable across country and over time.  
  
  
  
The ASPIRE harmonization methodology for household survey data rests on the following three steps:  
  
  
  
1. Identification and classification of Social Protection and Labor (SPL) benefits and services  
  
  
  
Household surveys are carefully reviewed to identify SPL program information. Once this information is located, two levels of analysis are implemented: first, variables are created for each of the country specific programs found in the survey. If the original program name is not provided in the survey instrument, the variable will report the corresponding ASPIRE’s program subcategories according to how the question is framed and country context.  
  
  
  
Additionally, program variables are aggregated and harmonized into 12 SPL program categories, and 2 private transfer categories. The country specific programs included into these main SPL categories are documented in detail below and are validated with WB country task teams in close coordination with national counterparts.  
  
  
  
In order to generate the indicators, the following variables are also harmonized: household identification number, location (urban/rural), household size, adult equivalent household size, welfare aggregate, household weight and poverty line, defined as the poorest 20% of the welfare distribution.  
  
  
  
2. Welfare aggregates  
  
  
  
Households are ranked in quintiles of the welfare distribution (either household total income or consumption). Special efforts are made to include the most recently updated welfare aggregates officially agreed with National Statistical Offices and /or harmonized by regional poverty teams (or the Socio-Economic Database for Latin America and the Caribbean - SEDLAC) in the case of Latin American countries and the ECAPOV database in the case of Eastern Europe and Central Asian countries. These welfare aggregates are also consistent with the ones used by World Bank PovcalNet poverty estimates.  
  
  
  
3. PPP conversions  
  
  
  
All monetary variables (transfer amounts) and the welfare aggregate are deflated to 2005 values and then converted to international US Dollars according to the following: [all transfers and welfare (t) / CPI (2005)] / [ICP (2005)] where ICP (2005) is the PPP conversion factor base 2005 of private consumption.  
  
  
  
Once the information is harmonized performance indicators are generated using ADePT SP software.  
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
  
  
Data Availability 2010 to present (measured in terms of how many countries have at least 1 data point after 2010 for this indicator:  
  
Asia and Pacific: 19; Africa: 37; Latin America and Caribbean: 18; Europe, North America, Australia, New Zealand and Japan: 15.  
  
  
  
Data Availability (2000-2009)  
  
Asia and Pacific: 33; Africa: 37; Latin America and Caribbean: 22; Europe, North America, Australia, New Zealand and Japan: 21  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
  
  
Ongoing process   
  
  
  
Data release:  
  
  
  
Ongoing process  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
  
  
  
  
World Bank  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
  
  
World Bank  
  
  
  
References  
  
  
  
URL:  
  
  
  
www.worldbank.org  
  
  
  
References:  
  
  
  
ASPIRE: The Atlas of Social Protection - Indicators of Resilience and Equity, The World Bank (datatopics.worldbank.org/aspire/).

Last updated: 26 February 2020  
  
  
  
Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere  
  
Target 1.a: Ensure significant mobilization of resources from a variety of sources, including through enhanced development cooperation, in order to provide adequate and predictable means for developing countries, in particular least developed countries, to implement programmes and policies to end poverty in all its dimensions  
  
Indicator 1.a.2: Proportion of total government spending on essential services (education, health and social protection)  
  
  
This document applies to the education component of indicator 1.a.2.  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
  
  
UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UNESCO-UIS)  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
  
  
Total general (local, regional and central) government expenditure on education (current, capital, and transfers), expressed as a percentage of total general government expenditure on all sectors (including health, education, social services, etc.). It includes expenditure funded by transfers from international sources to the government.  
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
  
  
The indicator is used to assess a government's emphasis on education relative to its investments in other sectors. The indicator shows how much of a priority education is for a given government, over time or in comparison with other countries.  
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
  
  
Government expenditure on education covers educational expenditure by all levels of government (local, regional, central) on the formal education system, from early childhood to tertiary education, in both public and private instructional and non-instructional institutions within the borders of a country.  
  
Expenditure on education includes expenditure on core educational goods and services, such as teaching staff, school buildings, or school books and teaching materials, and peripheral educational goods and services such as ancillary services, general administration and other activities.  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
  
  
A high proportion of government expenditure on education demonstrates a high government priority for education relative to other public investments. When interpreting this indicator one should keep in mind that some governments have more (or fewer) financial resources and therefore larger (or smaller) overall budgets, and that countries with younger populations may spend more on education relative to other sectors such as health or social security, and vice-versa. The Education 2030 Framework for Action has endorsed a benchmark for this indicator, which encourages countries to allocate at least 15% to 20% of their public expenditure to education.  
  
  
  
In some instances data on total public expenditure on education refer only to the Ministry of Education, excluding other ministries may also spend a part of their budget on educational activities. Although the IMF aims to publish data on total general government expenditure following common definitions based on the Government Finance Statistics Manual, in practice this concept (and what it includes) may differ between countries.  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
  
  
Total government expenditure for a given level of education (e.g. primary, secondary, or all levels combined) is expressed as a percentage of total general government expenditure (all sectors).  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
 = expenditure on education level n as a percentage of total government expenditure in financial year t  
  
 = total general government expenditure on education level n in financial year t  
  
 = total government expenditure in financial year t  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
  
  
By level of education.  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
  
  
At country level  
  
  
  
None by data compiler.  
  
  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
  
  
None by data compiler.  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
  
  
Regional and global aggregates are not currently available for this indicator.  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
  
  
None.  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
  
  
Annual financial reports by national Ministries of Finance or Ministries of Education, or national accounts reports by National Statistical Offices.  
  
  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
  
  
Data on education expenditure are submitted by country governments in response to the annual UIS survey on formal education or to the UNESCO-OECD-Eurostat (UOE) data collection.   
  
  
  
Data on total general government expenditure (all sectors) are obtained from the International Monetary Fund's World Economic Outlook database and are updated once a year.  
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
  
  
156 countries with at least one data point for the period 2010-2019.  
  
  
  
Time series:  
  
1980-2019 in UIS database; 2000-2019 in the SDG Global database.  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
  
  
Annual UIS survey (latest launched in October 2019) and UOE survey (latest launched in June 2019).  
  
  
  
Data release:  
  
  
  
Biannual UIS data release (February and September).  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
  
  
Ministries of Finance, Ministries of Education, National Statistical Offices.  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
  
  
UNESCO Institute for Statistics, OECD, Eurostat, International Monetary Fund  
  
  
  
References  
  
  
  
URL:  
  
  
  
http://uis.unesco.org  
  
  
  
References:  
  
  
  
UIS Instructional Manual: Survey of Formal Education   
  
http://uis.unesco.org/sites/default/files/documents/instruction-manual-survey-formal-education-2017-en.pdf  
  
  
  
UOE data collection on formal education: Manual on concepts, definitions and classifications  
  
http://uis.unesco.org/sites/default/files/documents/uoe-data-collection-manual-2019-en.pdf  
  
  
  
UIS Questionnaire on Educational Expenditure (ISCED 0-8)  
  
http://uis.unesco.org/en/uis-questionnaires  
  
  
  
IMF World Economic Outlook  
  
https://www.imf.org/en/Publications/WEO  
  
  
  
Related indicators  
  
  
  
4.5.3, 4.5.4, 4.5.5, 4.a.1, 4.b.1, 4.b.2

Last updated: 19 July 2016  
  
Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere  
  
Target 1.1: By 2030, eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere, currently measured as people living on less than $1.25 a day  
  
Indicator 1.1.1: Proportion of the population living below the international poverty line by sex, age, employment status and geographic location (urban/rural)  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
  
  
World Bank (WB)  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
  
  
The indicator “proportion of the population below the international poverty line” is defined as the percentage of the population living on less than $1.90 a day at 2011 international prices. The 'international poverty line' is currently set at $1.90 a day at 2011 international prices.   
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
  
  
Monitoring poverty is important on the global development agenda as well as on the national development agenda of many countries. The World Bank produced its first global poverty estimates for developing countries for World Development Report 1990: Poverty (World Bank 1990) using household survey data for 22 countries (Ravallion, Datt, and van de Walle 1991). Since then there has been considerable expansion in the number of countries that field household income and expenditure surveys. The World Bank's Development Research Group maintains a database that is updated annually as new survey data become available (and thus may contain more recent data or revisions) and conducts a major reassessment of progress against poverty every year. PovcalNet is an interactive computational tool that allows users to replicate these internationally comparable $1.90 and $3.10 a day global, regional and country-level poverty estimates and to compute poverty measures for custom country groupings and for different poverty lines.   
  
  
  
The Poverty and Equity Data portal provides access to the database and user-friendly dashboards with graphs and interactive maps that visualize trends in key poverty and inequality indicators for different regions and countries. The country dashboards display trends in poverty measures based on the national poverty lines alongside the internationally comparable estimates, produced from and consistent with PovcalNet.  
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
  
  
In assessing poverty in a given country, and how best to reduce poverty, one naturally focuses on a poverty line that is considered appropriate for that country. But how do we talk meaningfully about “global poverty?” Poverty lines across countries vary in terms of their purchasing power, and they have a strong economic gradient, such that richer countries tend to adopt higher standards of living in defining poverty. But to consistently measure global absolute poverty in terms of consumption we need to treat two people with the same purchasing power over commodities the same way—both are either poor or not poor—even if they live in different countries.  
  
  
  
Since World Development Report 1990, the World Bank has aimed to apply a common standard in measuring extreme poverty, anchored to what poverty means in the world's poorest countries. The welfare of people living in different countries can be measured on a common scale by adjusting for differences in the purchasing power of currencies. The commonly used $1 a day standard, measured in 1985 international prices and adjusted to local currency using PPPs, was chosen for World Development Report 1990 because it was typical of the poverty lines in low-income countries at the time. As differences in the cost of living across the world evolve, the international poverty line has to be periodically updated using new PPP price data to reflect these changes. The last change was in October 2015, when the World Bank adopted $1.90 as the international poverty line using the 2011 PPP. Prior to that, the 2008 update set the international poverty line at $1.25 using the 2005 PPP. Poverty measures based on international poverty lines attempt to hold the real value of the poverty line constant across countries, as is done when making comparisons over time. Early editions of the World Bank’s World Development Indicators (WDI) used PPPs from the Penn World Tables to convert values in local currency to equivalent purchasing power measured in U.S dollars. Later editions used 1993, 2005, and 2011 consumption PPP estimates produced by the World Bank’s International Comparison Program (ICP).  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
  
  
Five countries – Bangladesh, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Jordan, and Laos – use the 2005 PPP conversion factors and corresponding $1.25 a day and $2 a day poverty lines. This is due to the large deviations in the rate of change in PPP factors relative to the rate of change in domestic consumer price indexes. See Box 1.1 in the Global Monitoring Report 2015/2016 (http://www.worldbank.org/en/publication/global-monitoring-report) for a detailed explanation.  
  
  
  
Despite progress in the last decade, the challenges of measuring poverty remain. The timeliness, frequency, quality, and comparability of household surveys needs to increase substantially, particularly in the poorest countries. The availability and quality of poverty monitoring data remains low in small states, countries with fragile situations, and low-income countries and even some middle-income countries. The low frequency and lack of comparability of the data available in some countries create uncertainty over the magnitude of poverty reduction.   
  
  
  
Besides the frequency and timeliness of survey data, other data quality issues arise in measuring household living standards. The surveys ask detailed questions on sources of income and how it was spent, which must be carefully recorded by trained personnel. Income is generally more difficult to measure accurately, and consumption comes closer to the notion of living standards. And income can vary over time even if living standards do not. But consumption data are not always available: the latest estimates reported here use consumption data for about two-thirds of countries.  
  
  
  
However, even similar surveys may not be strictly comparable because of differences in timing or in the quality and training of enumerators. Comparisons of countries at different levels of development also pose a potential problem because of differences in the relative importance of the consumption of nonmarket goods. The local market value of all consumption in kind (including own production, particularly important in underdeveloped rural economies) should be included in total consumption expenditure but may not be. Most survey data now include valuations for consumption or income from own production, but valuation methods vary.  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
  
  
To measure poverty across countries consistently, the World Bank’s international measures apply a common standard, anchored to what “poverty” means in the world’s poorest countries. The original “$1-a-day” line was based on a compilation of national lines for only 22 developing countries, mostly from academic studies in the 1980s (Ravallion, et al., 1991). While this was the best that could be done at the time, the sample was hardly representative of developing countries even in the 1980s. Since then, national poverty lines have been developed for many other countries. Based on a new compilation of national lines for 75 developing countries, Ravallion, Chen and Sangraula (RCS) (2009) proposed a new international poverty line of $1.25 a day. This is the average poverty line for the poorest 15 countries in their data set.   
  
  
  
The current extreme poverty line is set at $1.90 a day in 2011 PPP terms, which represents the mean of the national poverty lines found in the same poorest 15 countries ranked by per capita consumption. The new poverty line maintains the same standard for extreme poverty - the poverty line typical of the poorest countries in the world - but updates it using the latest information on the cost of living in developing countries.   
  
  
  
When measuring international poverty of a country, the international poverty line at PPP is converted to local currencies in 2011 price and is then converted to the prices prevailing at the time of the relevant household survey using the best available Consumer Price Index (CPI). (Equivalently, the survey data on household consumption or income for the survey year are expressed in the prices of the ICP base year, and then converted to PPP $’s.) Then the poverty rate is calculated from that survey. All inter-temporal comparisons are real, as assessed using the country-specific CPI. Interpolation/extrapolation methods are used to line up the survey-based estimates with these reference years.  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
  
  
Work is underway at the World Bank for disaggregated poverty estimates.  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
  
  
At country level  
  
  
  
There is no “imputation” in the traditional sense for missing country data. However, to generate regional and global aggregates for reference years, country-level data are imputed for the years when surveys are not conducted. These imputed data are to be used for aggregation, but not for replacing the actual survey data. The subsequent section on the treatment of missing values at the regional and global levels provide more details on the imputation method.  
  
  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
  
  
To compare the poverty rates across countries and compute regional aggregates, country estimates must be “lined up” first to a common reference year, interpolating for countries in which survey data are not available in the reference year but are available either before, after, or both. The more survey data are available (that is, the more data for different years), the more accurate the interpolation.  
  
  
  
The process requires adjusting the mean income or expenditure observed in the survey year by a growth factor to infer the unobserved level in the reference year. Thus, two assumptions are required to implement this process: distribution-neutral growth and a real rate of growth between the survey and reference year.  
  
  
  
Distribution-neutral growth implies that income or expenditure levels are adjusted for growth assuming that the underlying relative distribution of income or expenditure observed in survey years remains unchanged. Under this assumption, it is straightforward to interpolate the poverty estimate in a given reference year implied by a given rate of growth in income or expenditure. Rates of change in real consumption per capita should be based on the change in real consumption measured by comparing country survey data across different years. In practice, however, survey data in most countries are not available on an annual basis. Therefore, the change in private consumption per capita as measured from the national accounts is used instead. While, there can be no guarantee that the survey-based measure of income or consumption change at exactly the same rate as private consumption in the national accounts, this appears to be the best available option.  
  
  
  
When the reference year falls between two survey years, an estimate of mean consumption at the reference year is constructed by extrapolating the means obtained from the surveys forward and backward to the reference year. The second step is to compute the headcount poverty rate at the reference year after normalizing the distributions observed in the two survey years by the reference year mean. This yields two estimates of the headcount poverty rates in the reference year. The final reported poverty headcount rate for the reference years is the linear interpolation of the two. When data from only one survey year are available, the reference year mean is based on the survey mean by applying the growth rate in private consumption per capita from the national accounts. The reference year poverty estimate is then based on this mean and on the distribution observed in the one survey year. The better data coverage is in terms of number and frequency of available surveys, the more accurate this lining-up process is and the more reliable the regional estimates will be.  
  
  
  
The aggregate headcount ratio for a region is the population-weighted mean of the headcount indices across the countries in that region. The number of poor in each region is the product of the region’s headcount index and total regional population. This assumes that the poverty rate for a country without a household survey is the regional average.  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
  
  
Because surveys are not conducted every year in most countries, poverty estimates have to be derived for line-up years by interpolation or extrapolation using national accounts data. These estimates for line-up years are then aggregated to regional and global numbers. Regional and global aggregates are population-weighted averages.  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
  
  
National poverty is a different concept than global poverty. National poverty rate is defined at country-specific poverty lines in local currencies, which are different in real terms across countries and different from the $1.90-a-day international poverty line. Thus, national poverty rates cannot be compared across countries or with the $1.90-a-day poverty rate.  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
  
  
The World Bank typically receives data from National Statistical Offices (NSOs) directly. In other cases it uses NSO data received indirectly. For example, it receives data from Eurostat and from LIS (Luxemburg Income Study), who provide the World Bank NSO data they have received / harmonized. The Universidad Nacional de La Plata, Argentina and the World Bank jointly maintain the SEDLAC (Socio-Economic Database for Latin American and Caribbean) database that includes harmonized statistics on poverty and other distributional and social variables from 24 Latin American and Caribbean countries, based on microdata from household surveys conducted by NSOs.   
  
  
  
Data is obtained through country specific programs, including technical assistance programs and joint analytical and capacity building activities. The World Bank has relationships with NSOs on work programs involving statistical systems and data analysis. Poverty economists from the World Bank typically engage with NSOs broadly on poverty measurement and analysis as part of technical assistance activities.   
  
  
  
Within the World Bank, the Global Poverty Working Group (GPWG) is in charge of the collection, validation and estimation of poverty estimates. GPWG archives the datasets obtained from NSOs and then harmonizes them, applying common methodologies. The objective of the GPWG is to ensure that poverty and inequality data generated, curated, and disseminated by the World Bank are up to date, meet high-quality standards, and are well documented and consistent across dissemination channels. Members of GPWG generate and update the estimates for the proportion of population below the international poverty line using raw data typically provided by country governments. The raw data are obtained by poverty economists through their contacts in the NSOs, and checked for quality before being submitted for further analysis. The raw data can be unit-record survey data, or grouped data, depending on the agreements with the country governments. In most cases, the welfare aggregate, the essential element for poverty estimation, is generated by the country governments. Sometimes, the World Bank has to construct the welfare aggregate or adjust the aggregate provided by the country.  
  
  
  
List:  
  
  
  
Directly from National Statistical Offices (NSOs) or indirectly from others – see section on data sources.  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
  
  
The World Bank transparently shares and makes public the methodologies for all kinds of adjustments to original data (e.g., through its PovcalNet website and its various analytical documents). The poverty estimates are developed by economists, who work closely with national government counterparts concerning each poverty data update.   
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
  
  
Data Availability (measured in terms of number of countries that have at least 1 data point by region):  
  
  
  
2010 to present:   
  
Asia and Pacific: 23 (40 if modelled estimates are considered); Africa: 23 (48 if modelled estimates are considered); Latin America and Caribbean: 19 (21 if modelled estimates are considered)  
  
Europe, North America, Australia, New Zealand and Japan: 17 (25 if modelled estimates are considered)  
  
  
  
2000-2009:   
  
Asia and Pacific: 38 (40 if modelled estimates are considered); Africa: 47 (48 if modelled estimates are considered); Latin America and Caribbean: 21 (21 if modelled estimates are considered)  
  
Europe, North America, Australia, New Zealand and Japan: 20 (25 if modelled estimates are considered)  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
  
  
Source collection is ongoing by the Global Poverty Working Group of the World Bank. The calculation of new poverty numbers using updated source data normally takes place from May to September every year.   
  
  
  
Data release:  
  
  
  
The World Bank Group is committed to updating the poverty data every year. Updated estimates are released at the World Bank’s Annual Meetings in October every year.   
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
  
  
The World Bank typically receives data from National Statistical Offices (NSOs) directly. In other cases it uses NSO data received indirectly. Please see the section on data sources for further details.  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
  
  
World Bank  
  
  
  
References  
  
  
  
URL:  
  
  
  
www.worldbank.org  
  
  
  
References:  
  
  
  
For more information and methodology, please see PovcalNet (http://iresearch.worldbank.org/PovcalNet/index.htm).  
  
  
  
Also, consult: http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/2015/10/25114899/global-count-extreme-poor-2012-data-issues-methodology-initial-results   
  
  
  
For a short review see: http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/poverty/brief/global-poverty-line-faq   
  
  
  
For a comprehensive link to related background papers, working papers and journal articles see:   
  
http://iresearch.worldbank.org/PovcalNet/index.htm?0,4   
  
  
  
A Measured Approach to Ending Poverty and Boosting Shared Prosperity: Concepts, Data, and the Twin Goals. (http://www.worldbank.org/en/research/publication/a-measured-approach-to-ending-poverty-and-boosting-shared-prosperity)

Last update: March 2018  
  
Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere  
  
Target 1.5: By 2030, build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations and reduce their exposure and vulnerability to climate-related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters  
  
Indicator 1.5.2: Direct economic loss attributed to disasters in relation to global gross domestic product (GDP)  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
United Nations Office for Disaster Reduction (UNISDR)  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
This indicator measures the ratio of direct economic loss attributed to disasters in relation to GDP.  
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
Economic Loss: Total economic impact that consists of direct economic loss and indirect economic loss.  
  
Direct economic loss: the monetary value of total or partial destruction of physical assets existing in the affected area. Direct economic loss is nearly equivalent to physical damage.  
  
Indirect economic loss: a decline in economic value added as a consequence of direct economic loss and/or human and environmental impacts.  
  
Annotations:   
  
Examples of physical assets that are the basis for calculating direct economic loss include homes, schools, hospitals, commercial and governmental buildings, transport, energy, telecommunications infrastructures and other infrastructure; business assets and industrial plants; production such as crops, livestock and production infrastructure. They may also encompass environmental assets and cultural heritage. Direct economic losses usually happen during the event or within the first few hours after the event and are often assessed soon after the event to estimate recovery cost and claim insurance payments. These are tangible and relatively easy to measure.  
  
  
  
Rationale and Interpretation:  
  
The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 was adopted by UN Member States in March 2015 as a global policy of disaster risk reduction. Among the global targets, “Target C: Reduce direct disaster economic loss in relation to global gross domestic product (GDP) by 2030” will contribute to sustainable development and strengthen economic, social, health and environmental resilience. The economic, environmental and social perspectives would include poverty eradication, urban resilience, and climate change adaptation.  
  
The open-ended intergovernmental expert working group on indicators and terminology relating to disaster risk reduction (OIEWG) established by the General Assembly (resolution 69/284) has developed a set of indicators to measure global progress in the implementation of the Sendai Framework, which was endorsed by the UNGA (OIEWG report A/71/644). The relevant global indicators for the Sendai Framework will be used to report for this indicator.   
  
  
  
Disaster loss data is greatly influenced by large-scale catastrophic events, which represent important outliers. UNISDR recommends countries report the data by event, so that complementary analysis can be undertaken to obtain trends and patterns in which such catastrophic events (that can represent outliers in terms of damage) can be included or excluded.  
  
  
  
Method of Computation and Other Methodological Considerations  
  
Computation Method:  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020  
  
  
  
  
  
Where:  
  
C2 Direct agricultural loss attributed to disasters;  
  
C3 Direct economic loss to all other damaged or destroyed productive assets attributed to disasters;  
  
C4 Direct economic loss in the housing sector attributed to disasters;  
  
C5 Direct economic loss resulting from damaged or destroyed critical infrastructure attributed to disasters;  
  
C6 Direct economic loss to cultural heritage damaged or destroyed attributed to disasters.  
  
\* Detailed methodologies can be found in the Technical Guidance (see below the Reference section)  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
The Sendai Framework Monitoring System has been developed to measure the progress in the implementation of the Sendai Framework by UNGA endorsed indicators. Member States will be able to report through the System from March 2018. The data for SDG indicators will be compiled and reported by UNISDR.  
  
  
  
Proxy, alternative and additional indicators:  
  
In most cases international data sources only record events that surpass some threshold of impact and use secondary data sources which usually have non uniform or even inconsistent methodologies, producing heterogeneous datasets.  
  
  
  
Data Sources and Collection Method  
  
Data sources and collection method:  
  
Data provider at national level is appointed Sendai Framework Focal Points. In most countries disaster data are collected by line ministries and national disaster loss databases are established and managed by special purpose agencies including national disaster management agencies, civil protection agencies, and meteorological agencies. The Sendai Framework Focal Points in each country are responsible of data reporting through the Sendai Framework Monitoring System.  
  
  
  
Data Disaggregation  
  
Direct agricultural loss attributed to disasters  
  
Direct economic loss to all other damaged or destroyed productive assets attributed to disasters.  
  
Direct economic loss in the housing sector attributed to disasters.  
  
Direct economic loss resulting from damaged or destroyed critical infrastructure attributed to disasters.  
  
Direct economic loss to cultural heritage damaged or destroyed attributed to disasters  
  
  
  
[Desirable Disaggregation]:  
  
Hazard  
  
Geography (Administrative Unit)  
  
  
  
References  
  
Official SDG Metadata URL: https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-01-05-02.pdf <to be updated with new docs>  
  
  
  
Internationally agreed methodology and guideline URL:   
  
Technical guidance for monitoring and reporting on progress in achieving the global targets of the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNISDR 2017)  
  
https://www.preventionweb.net/files/54970\_collectionoftechnicalguidancenoteso.pdf  
  
  
  
Other references:  
  
Report of the open-ended intergovernmental expert working group on indicators and terminology relating to disaster risk reduction (OEIWG). Endorsed by UNGA on 2nd February 2017. Available at: https://www.preventionweb.net/publications/view/51748  
  
  
  
Country examples:  
  
  
  
Contact International Organization for Global Monitoring  
  
United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNISDR)

Last updated: 28 May 2020  
  
Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere  
  
Target 1.2: 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  
  
Indicator: 1.2.2: Proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
The World Bank, UNICEF, UNDP  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
The following four series are used to monitor the SDG 1.2.2.   
  
Official multidimensional poverty headcount, by sex, and age (% of population)  
  
The percentage of people who are multidimensionally poor  
  
Average number of deprivations (intensity)  
  
The average percentage of dimensions in which poor people are deprived  
  
Official multidimensional poverty headcount (% of total households)  
  
The percentage of households who are multidimensionally poor  
  
Multidimensional deprivation for children (% of population under 18)  
  
The percentage of children who are simultaneously deprived in multiple dimensions of well-being  
  
Rationale:  
  
Poverty has traditionally been defined as the lack of money. However, the poor themselves consider their experience of poverty much more broadly. A person who is poor can suffer multiple disadvantages at the same time – for example, they may have poor health or malnutrition, a lack of clean water or electricity, poor quality of work or little schooling. Focusing on one factor alone, such as income, is not enough to capture the true reality of poverty. Therefore, multidimensional poverty measures described above have been developed to create a more comprehensive picture by looking at multiple dimensions such as health, education, living standards. Official multidimensional poverty headcount (% population), official multidimensional poverty headcount (% of total households) and multidimensional deprivation for children (% of population under 18) are all about the headcount ratio trying to capture how many people, households, or children in the entire pool are regarded as multidimensionally poor. On the other hand, average number of deprivation tries to capture the depth of multidimensional poverty. For instance, if there are 18 indicators to capture different dimensions of poverty, a person or a household is considered to be deprived if they are shown to be deprived in at least 4 indicators. Therefore, the person who is deprived in 5 indicators, and the person who is deprived in 15 indicators are considered to be both multidimensionally poor. The 'intensity' of the poverty is different between these two people, which is captured by the average number of deprivation.   
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
Official multidimensional poverty headcount is calculated by each country using different methodologies. The most commonly used method is Alkire Foster (AF) methodology which identifies dimensions, typically health, education and living standards and several indicators in each dimension. The unit of analysis could be either individual or household. The individuals or households are considered as multidimensionally poor if they are deprived in multiple indicators exceeding certain thresholds.   
  
  
  
On the other hand, EU countries and North Macedonia use a completely different approach to measure the multidimensional poverty using the concept of "people at risk of poverty or social exclusion" (AROPE). AROPE consists of three indicators, and people will be considered as "at risk of poverty or social exclusion" if they are "at risk of poverty" or "severely materially deprived" or "living in a household with a very low work intensity".   
  
  
  
Multidimensional deprivation for children is calculated based on the methodology called as Multiple Overlapping Deprivation Analysis (MODA). A child is considered multidimensionally poor if s/he is simultaneously deprived in multiple dimensions. It also identifies dimensions and indicators under each dimension, and has a similar structure with the AF methodology. However, it is strikingly different in that it focuses on the life-cycle of children and creates different sets of dimensions and indicators for different age groups, for instance, 0-4, 5-11, 12-14, 15-17, and conducts analysis separately for each age group. In the global SDG database, the multidimensional poverty headcount (%) for overall 0-17 age range has been used.  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
It should be clearly noted that data in the above-mentioned series are not comparable across countries. For instance, AF methodology and AROPE are fundamentally very different, and although both produce some headcount ratio of people who are considered as "multidimensionally poor", their definition of multidimensionality of poverty is utterly different, and so should not be compared. Also, even when they use the same approach, such as, AF, AROPE or MODA, the numbers are not comparable across countries, as the important parameters to calculate the figures such as the number of indicators, the weight allocated to each indicator, how to divide the age group of children are tailored to the country specific context. Furthermore, even in the same country, if the methodology is different, the number should not be compared. For instance, some countries calculate child multidimensional poverty headcount by using both AF and MODA methodologies, but their numbers could be very different as the dimensions and indicators used in both approaches differ significantly. To overcome these comparability issues, UNDP produces global Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI), which is the product of multiplying multidimensional headcount and average number of deprivations using the same dimensions and indicators covering more than 100 countries. However, most of these numbers are not officially approved by each country, and sometimes the nationally calculated MPI is different from the global MPI due to some difference of the parameters, therefore, in this platform, the global MPI is not included in the Global SDG Database.   
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
Official multidimensional poverty headcount (% of population)  
  
First, we describe the AF methodology. Initially, the dimensions and indicators should be chosen. In the standard approach of the AF methodology, the dimension consists of health, education and living standards. Health consists of two indicators; nutrition and child mortality. Education consists of two indicators; years of schooling and school attendance. Living standards contain six indicators which are cooking fuel, drinking water, sanitation, electricity, housing and assets. Therefore, in this case, there are three dimensions and ten indicators.   
  
After dimensions and indicators are chosen, a deprivation cut-off is set for each indicator. In the above example, it would yield a set of 10 binary variables for every person - the value of 1 if the individual is deprived in that indicator and 0 otherwise. Once the set of binary variables is calculated, each person is assigned a deprivation score denoted as c, indicating the proportion of deprivations weighted by the relative importance of each indicator. The deprivation score c is defined to take values ranging between 0 (indicating that the person does not experience any weighted deprivations) and 1 (indicating that they experience weighted deprivations in all the 10 indicators). Then to identify people who suffer multidimensional poverty in the country, the deprivation score c is compared to a poverty cut-off point. All people suffering deprivations in a number of weighted deprivations equal to or greater than this cut-off are identified as multidimensionally poor. Further details on AF methodology can be found here. It should be noted that although the country adopts AF methodology to measure multidimensional poverty, the sets of dimensions and indicators could be different country by country, as they would be tailored to specific contexts of each country. For the detailed methodology used to calculate the country-specific multidimensional poverty indicators, please refer to the official documentation through the links listed at the end.  
  
  
  
Secondly, we describe the AROPE methodology. As mentioned above, the AROPE consists of three indicators, which are "at risk of poverty" or "severely materially deprived" or "living in a household with a very low work intensity". The "at risk of poverty rate" is the share of people with an equivalised disposable income below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60% of the national median equivalised disposable income after social transfers. The equivalised disposable income is the total income of a household, after tax and other deductions, that is available for spending or saving, divided by the number of household members converted into equalised adults; household members are equalised or made equivalent by weighting each according to their age, using the so-called modified OECD equivalence scale. For poverty indicators, the equivalised disposable income is calculated from the total disposable income of each household divided by the equivalised household size. The income reference period is a fixed 12-month period (such as the previous calendar or tax year) for all countries except the UK for which the income reference period is the current year and Ireland for which the survey is continuous and income is collected for the last twelve months.   
  
Material deprivation refers to a state of economic strain and durables, defined as the enforced inability (rather than the choice not to do so) to pay unexpected expenses, afford a one-week annual holiday away from home, a meal involving meat, chicken or fish every second day, the adequate heating of a dwelling, durable goods like a washing machine, colour television, telephone or car, being confronted with payment arrears (mortgage or rent, utility bills, hire purchase installments or other loan payments). The material deprivation rate is an indicator in EU-SILC that expresses the inability to afford some items considered by most people to be desirable or even necessary to lead an adequate life. The indicator distinguishes between individuals who cannot afford a certain good or service, and those who do not have this good or service for another reason, e.g., because they do not want or do not need it. The indicator adopted by the Social protection committee measures the percentage of the population that cannot afford at least three of the following nine items: 1) to pay their rent, mortgage or utility bills; 2) to keep their home adequately warm; 3) to face unexpected expenses; 4) to eat meat or proteins regularly; 5) to go on holiday; 6) a television set; 7) a washing machine; 8) a car; 9) a telephone. Severe material deprivation rate is defined as the enforced inability to pay for at least four of the above-mentioned items.  
  
The indicator "persons living in households with very low work intensity" is defined as the number of persons living in a household where the members of working age worked less than 20 % of their total potential during the previous 12 months. The work intensity of a household is the ratio of the total number of months that all working-age household members have worked during the income reference year and the total number of months the same household members theoretically could have worked in the same period. A working-age person is a person aged 18-59 years, with the exclusion of students in the age group between 18 and 24 years. Households composed only of children, of students aged less than 25 and/or people aged 60 or more are completely excluded from the indicator calculation. Further details on AROPE methodology can be found here.  
  
Average number of deprivations (intensity)  
  
The multidimensional headcount is a useful measure, but it does not increase if poor people become more deprived. Because of that, we need a different set of measures, which is the average number of deprivations, also known as intensity. Intensity is calculated by adding up the proportion of total deprivations each person suffers and dividing by the total number of poor persons. For example, if say person 1 suffers 4 out of 6 deprivations and person 2 suffers 6 out of 6, and then the intensity will be calculated as (4/6 + 6/6)/2=5/6.  
  
  
  
Official multidimensional poverty headcount (% of total households)  
  
The calculation methodology is the same as the AF methodology described above, except for that the unit of analysis is household instead of individuals.  
  
  
  
Multidimensional deprivation for children (% of population under 18)  
  
In order to measure multidimensional poverty based on the MODA methodology, dimensions of children's well-being that best reflect the situation of poverty in the country should be defined. Each dimension of well-being is measured by a set of indicators based on available data. The selection of indicators and dimensions should be guided by data availability and relevance to children's needs and rights in each country's context. Given the life cycle approach emphasizing that children have different needs throughout the different phases of their childhood development, the selection of dimensions as well as the findings and results are disaggregated by age groups. Then a deprivation threshold is set for each indicator so that a child can be classified as either deprived or non-deprived in each indicator. For the multidimensional deprivation analysis, the number of dimensions in which a child is deprived is counted and then the percentage of children suffering from zero, one, two, three, etc deprivations is presented to see the distribution of deprivation. A cut-off point, or "deprivation threshold" (k) is used to define whether the child is multidimensionally poor or not and based on that, the percentage of multidimensionally poor children is calculated. It is important to note that a country-specific analysis is carried out adjusting the choice of dataset, age groups, dimensions, indicators and thresholds to better reflect each country's context and so the results presented in one country are not comparable with the findings of other countries on multidimensional poverty. Further details on MODA methodology can be found here.   
  
Disaggregation:  
  
Official multidimensional poverty headcount (% population) is disaggregated by sex and age. The age band for official multidimensional poverty headcount for children is mostly 0-17, but some countries have different age definition for children, such as 0-15 in El Salvador.  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
At country level  
  
The treatment of missing values differs from survey to survey. For details, please refer to the official documentation through the links listed at the end.  
  
  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
No estimation by international agencies has been implemented for missing values in this data.  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
Since the data for indicator 1.2.2 are based on the national definitions of poverty – and the methodologies used to produce them are different, as described in the “comments and limitations” section, data are not comparable across countries. Thus regional and global aggregates are not produced.  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
In the process of producing the global MPI described above, the UNDP also produces the multidimensional poverty headcount. However, this number often differs from the nationally produced multidimensional poverty headcount as they use the different dimensions, indicators and cut-off points.   
  
  
  
Quality assurance  
  
Initially, the data has been input by poverty economists, which has been checked carefully together with the metadata information by the central team for monitoring SDGs 1.2.2 in the World Bank. Then data has been sent to the UNDP and UNICEF for further verification.  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
Data sources and methods used for data collection differ from survey to survey. For details, please refer to the official documentation through the links listed at the end.  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
The data has been validated by three-stage approach. First, the data has been input by the poverty economists in the World Bank for each country, and that data has been sent to UNICEF and UNDP officers who are in charge of each country for the validation of the data. After integrating modification suggested from these two agencies, the data has been sent to the SDGs focal point personnel in the counterpart in each country for their final approval. Regarding those countries where we do not have any country offices such as OECD and EU countries, the World Bank collected the information based on the data source available online, and sent it directly to the official counterparts of each country.  
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
47 countries' multidimensional poverty measurement are available. However, the data availability over time differs greatly from country to country. Please see the subsection, “Time series” below for further information.   
  
  
  
Time series:  
  
The following table shows how many of the 5 headcount data (population, household, male, female, children) is available in each country. The little rectangular mark indicates that the intensity data is available as well and the double circle shows that the data on multidimensional deprivation for children is also available.  
  
  
  
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Multidimensional deprivation for children  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
Data collection:  
  
Data release:  
  
 EU countries and some Latin American countries such as Costa Rica and Ecuador conduct the survey and produce multidimensional indicators every year, but most of the developing countries, especially African countries have published multidimensional measurement only once in the last 10 years, or spasmodically when the funding was available. Therefore, for these countries, it is difficult to state definitely when the next data is available.  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
Following is the list of national data providers responsible for producing the data at the national level.  
  
  
  
Country  
  
Source  
  
Afghanistan  
  
National Statistics and Information Authority (NSIA)  
  
Angola  
  
National Statistics Institute (INE) of Angola  
  
Armenia  
  
Statistical Committee of Republic of Armenia  
  
Austria  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Belgium  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Bhutan  
  
National Statistics Bureau  
  
Bulgaria  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Burundi  
  
Burundi Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies  
  
Chile  
  
Ministerio de Desarrollo Social  
  
Columbia  
  
National Administrative Department of Statistics (DANE)  
  
Costa Rica  
  
The National Institute of Statistics and Census of Costa Rica  
  
Croatia  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Cyprus  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Dominican Republic  
  
Ministry of Economy, Planning and Development  
  
Ecuador  
  
National Institute of Statistics and Census (INEC), Ministry of Social Development Coordination and National Secretary of Planning and Development  
  
Egypt  
  
The Ministry of Social Solidarity (MoSS), the Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics (CAPMAS)  
  
El Salvador  
  
Secretaría Técnica y de Planificación Presidencia  
  
Estonia  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Finland  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Germany  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Ghana  
  
Ghana Statistical Service, National Development Planning Commission  
  
Greece  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Guinea  
  
INSTITUT NATIONAL DE LA STATISTIQUE  
  
Guinea Bissau  
  
La Direction Generale du Plan, Instituto Nacional de Estatística (INE)  
  
Hungary  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Ireland  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Italy  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Lithuania  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Luxembourg  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Mali  
  
Institut National de la Statistique (INSTAT), La Cellule Technique de Coordination du Cadre Stratégique de Lutte contre la Pauvreté (CT-CSCLP)  
  
Malta  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Mexico  
  
Consejo Naciola de Evaluacion de la Politica de Desarrollo Social (CONEVAL)  
  
Morocco  
  
The high commission of planning  
  
Mozambique  
  
Ministry of Economics and Finance - Directorate of Economic and Financial Studies  
  
Nepal  
  
National Planning Commission  
  
Netherlands  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
North Macedonia  
  
State Statistical Office  
  
Pakistan  
  
Ministry of Planning Development & Reform  
  
Philippines  
  
Philippine Statistics Authority  
  
Poland  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Romania  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Rwanda  
  
National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda  
  
Seychelles  
  
National Bureau of Statistics  
  
Slovenia  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Sweden  
  
EUROSTAT  
  
Thailand  
  
National Economic and Social Development Council (NESDC)  
  
Zambia  
  
Ministry of National Development Planning  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
The World Bank, UNICEF, and UNDP  
  
  
  
References  
  
  
  
Country  
  
Reference  
  
Afghanistan  
  
Official publication: https://www.nsia.gov.af:8080/wp-content/uploads/2019/04/A-MPI-2019-full-report-English-1.pdf;   
  
Angola  
  
Official publication: Childhood in Angola - A Multidimensional Analysis of Child Poverty https://www.unicef.org/esaro/UNICEF-Angola-2018-A-Multidimensional-Analysis-of-Child-Poverty.pdf  
  
Armenia  
  
(2010-2017)  
Official publication: Social Snapshot and Poverty in Armenia: Statistical and analytical report, 2018 (https://www.armstat.am/en/?nid=82&id=2095);   
  
Methodological documentation: The Many Faces of Deprivation: A Multidimensional Approach to Poverty in Armenia (http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/111701504028830403/The-many-faces-of-deprivation-a-multidimensional-approach-to-poverty-in-Armenia)  
  
  
  
(2013-2017)  
  
Official publication: https://www.armstat.am/file/article/poverty\_2018\_english\_2.pdf  
  
(2018)  
Official publication: Social Snapshot and Poverty in Armenia, 2019   
https://armstat.am/am/?nid=82&id=2217;   
  
Methodological documentation: The Many Faces of Deprivation: A Multidimensional Approach to Poverty in Armenia (http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/111701504028830403/The-many-faces-of-deprivation-a-multidimensional-approach-to-poverty-in-Armenia)  
  
Austria  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Belgium  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Bhutan  
  
Official publication: Bhutan Multidimensional Poverty Index 2017 http://www.nsb.gov.bt/publication/files/pub0mu6061yd.pdf;   
  
Bulgaria  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Burundi  
  
Official publication: https://www.ilo.org/surveyLib/index.php/catalog/2153/download/18083, https://www.unicef.org/esa/sites/unicef.org.esa/files/2018-09/UNICEF-Burundi-2017-Child-Poverty.pdf  
  
Chile  
  
(2011 and 2013)  
Official publication: http://observatorio.ministeriodesarrollosocial.gob.cl/documentos/Casen2013\_Situacion\_Pobreza\_Chile.pdf;   
  
Methodological documentation: http://observatorio.ministeriodesarrollosocial.gob.cl/casen/casen\_informes.php  
  
(2015)  
Official publication: http://observatorio.ministeriodesarrollosocial.gob.cl/casen-multidimensional/casen/docs/CASEN\_2015\_Situacion\_Pobreza.pdf;   
  
Methodological documentation: http://observatorio.ministeriodesarrollosocial.gob.cl/casen-multidimensional/casen/metodologia.php  
  
(2017)  
Official publication: http://observatorio.ministeriodesarrollosocial.gob.cl/casen-multidimensional/casen/docs/Resultados\_pobreza\_Casen\_2017.pdf;   
  
Methodological documentation: http://observatorio.ministeriodesarrollosocial.gob.cl/casen-multidimensional/casen/metodologia.php  
  
Columbia  
  
Official publication: https://www.dane.gov.co/files/investigaciones/condiciones\_vida/pobreza/2018/bt\_pobreza\_multidimensional\_18.pdf;   
  
Methodological documentation: https://www.dane.gov.co/files/acerca/Normatividad/CONPES-150.pdf  
  
Costa Rica  
  
(2010, 2011, 2014, 2016 and 2017)  
Official publication: Multidimensional poverty indicators according to planning area and region, July 2017.  
https://www.inec.go.cr/system/files\_force/documetos-biblioteca-virtual/resultados\_generales\_sitio\_web\_enaho\_2017\_ipm\_9oct17.xlsx?download=1  
  
(2012, 2013)  
Official publication: Poor households with deprivation in the indicators of the Multidimensional Poverty Index by planning region  
https://www.inec.go.cr/system/files\_force/documentos/pobreza\_y\_presupuesto\_de\_hogares/pobreza/estadisticas/resultados/repobrezaenaho2012-01\_0.xls?download=1  
  
  
(2015)  
  
Official publication: Poor households with deprivation in the indicators of the Multidimensional Poverty Index by planning region  
https://www.inec.go.cr/system/files\_force/documentos/pobreza\_y\_presupuesto\_de\_hogares/pobreza/estadisticas/resultados/repobrezaenaho2012-01\_0.xls?download=1  
  
Methodological documentation: ENAHO 2015. Methodology: Multidimensional Poverty Index (IPM). Handbook. National Household Survey. https://www.inec.cr/sites/default/files/documentos/pobreza\_y\_presupuesto\_de\_hogares/pobreza/metodologias/mepobrezaenaho2015-01.pdf  
  
  
(2018)  
Official publication: Multidimensional poverty indicators according to planning area and region, July 2018.  
https://www.inec.go.cr/system/files\_force/documetos-biblioteca-virtual/reenaho2018-ipm.xlsx?download=1  
  
(2019)  
Official publication:   
Multidimensional poverty indicators according to planning area and region, July 2019  
https://www.inec.go.cr/system/files\_force/documetos-biblioteca-virtual/reenaho2019-ipm.xlsx?download=1  
  
Croatia  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Cyprus  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Dominican Republic  
  
Official publication: 1) The   
Multidimensional Poverty Index for Latin America (MPI-LA): an application for the Dominican Republic 2000-2016. http://economia.gob.do/wp-content/uploads/drive/UAAES/Publicaciones/El%20indice%20de%20Pobreza%20Multidimensional%20para%20America%20Latina.pdf   
  
  
2) National Voluntary Report on SDG (for gender disaggregation of the data). https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/19710INV\_RD\_2018\_V2.pdf; Methodological documentation: The Multidimensional Poverty Index for Latin America (MPI-LA): an application for the Dominican Republic 2000-2016. http://economia.gob.do/wp-content/uploads/drive/UAAES/Publicaciones/El%20indice%20de%20Pobreza%20Multidimensional%20para%20America%20Latina.pdf  
  
Ecuador  
  
Official publication: National Employment, Underemployment and Unemployment Survey (ENEMDU) 2019 https://www.ecuadorencifras.gob.ec/documentos/web-inec/POBREZA/2019/Diciembre-2019/Tabulados%20IPM-dic%2019.xlsx  
  
Egypt  
  
Official publication: Understanding Multidimensional Poverty in Egypt https://www.unicef.org/MODA-Report-Full-EN-websingle.pdf  
  
El Salvador  
  
(2014)  
  
Official publication: OBJETIVOS DE DESARROLLO SOSTENIBLE 2019. SAN SALVADOR EL SALVADOR.http://www.odselsalvador.gob.sv/wp-content/uploads/2019/05/Informe\_ODS-1.pdf Multidimensional Measurement of Poverty El Salvador: http://www.secretariatecnica.gob.sv/wp-content/uploads/2015/10/Medici%C3%B3n-Multidimensional-de-la-Pobreza-El-Salvador.pdf  
  
  
  
(2016, 2017)  
  
Official publication: OBJETIVOS DE DESARROLLO SOSTENIBLE 2019. SAN SALVADOR EL SALVADOR.http://www.odselsalvador.gob.sv/wp-content/uploads/2019/05/Informe\_ODS-1.pdf  
  
Estonia  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Finland  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Germany  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Ghana  
  
(2010)  
  
Official publication: Non-Monetary Poverty in Ghana   
https://www.undp.org/content/dam/ghana/docs/Doc/Inclgro/Non-Monetary%20Poverty%20in%20Ghana%20(24-10-13).pdf  
  
  
  
(2017)  
  
Multi-Dimensional Child Poverty in Ghana: https://www.unicef.org/ghana/media/2676/file/Multi-Dimensional%20Child%20Poverty%20Report.pdf  
  
Greece  
  
Methodological documentation: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Guinea  
  
Official publication : http://www.stat-guinee.org/images/Publications/INS/RGPH3/RGPH3\_rapport\_pauvrete.pdf  
  
Guinea Bissau  
  
Official publication: PAUVRETE MULTIDIMENSIONNELLE ET PRIVATIONS MULTIPLES DES ENFANTS EN GUINEE-BISSAU  
https://uprdoc.ohchr.org/uprweb/downloadfile.aspx?filename=7579&file=Annexe7;   
  
Hungary  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Ireland  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Italy  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Lithuania  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Luxembourg  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Mali  
  
(2010)  
  
Official publication: Pauvreté et privation des enfants au Mali Les premières estimations nationales https://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/pdf/20\_mali\_poverty\_dep\_fr.pdf  
  
  
  
(2015)  
  
Official publication : Privation multidimensionnelle et pauvreté des enfants au Mali, October 2018, UNICEF  
  
  
  
(2016)  
  
Official publication : La pauvreté à plusieurs dimensions au Mali  
  
http://www.instat-mali.org/contenu/eq/rap-ind16-17\_eq.pdf   
  
Malta  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Mexico  
  
(2010)  
Official publication: https://www.coneval.org.mx/Medicion/Paginas/PobrezaInicio.aspx; Methodological documentation: https://www.coneval.org.mx/Medicion/MP/Paginas/Metodologia.aspx  
  
(2012, 2014, 2018)  
Official publication: https://www.coneval.org.mx/Medicion/MP/Paginas/Pobreza-2018.aspx; Methodological documentation: https://www.coneval.org.mx/Medicion/MP/Paginas/Metodologia.aspx  
  
(2016)  
Official publication: https://www.coneval.org.mx/Medicion/MP/Paginas/Pobreza\_2016.aspx; Methodological documentation: https://www.coneval.org.mx/Medicion/MP/Paginas/Metodologia.aspx  
  
Morocco  
  
(2011)  
Official publication: https://www.hcp.ma/Les-Cahiers-du-Plan-N-43-Mars-Avril-2013\_a1248.html;   
  
(2014)  
Official publication: https://www.hcp.ma/Principaux-resultats-de-la-cartographie-de-la-pauvrete-multidimensionnelle-2004-2014-Paysage-territorial-et-dynamique\_a2126.html  
press release the rate of child multidimensional poverty: https://www.hcp.ma/Note-d-information-du-Haut-Commissariat-au-Plan-a-l-occasion-de-la-Journee-Nationale-de-l-Enfant-2017\_a1921.html  
  
Mozambique  
  
Official publication: Poverty and Well-being in Mozambique: Fourth National Poverty Assessment (IOF 2014/2015) p.52 (Portuguese) https://www.wider.unu.edu/sites/default/files/Final\_QUARTA%20AVALIA%C3%87AO%20NACIONAL%20DA%20POBREZA\_2016-10-26\_2.pdf  
  
Nepal  
  
Official publication: Nepal Multidimensional Poverty Index 2018   
https://www.npc.gov.np/images/category/Nepal\_MPI.pdf  
  
Netherlands  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
North Macedonia  
  
(2010)  
Methodological documentation: Survey on Income and Living Conditions (http://www.stat.gov.mk/Publikacii/2.4.15.01.pdf)  
  
(2011-2013)  
Methodological documentation: Survey on Income and Living Conditions (http://www.stat.gov.mk/Publikacii/2.4.15.13.pdf)  
  
(2014-2016)  
Methodological documentation: Survey on Income and Living Conditions (http://www.stat.gov.mk/Publikacii/2.4.17.13.pdf)  
  
(2017)  
Methodological documentation: Survey on Income and Living Conditions (http://www.stat.gov.mk/Publikacii/2.4.18.13.pdf)  
  
(2018)  
Methodological documentation: Laeken Poverty Indicators:   
(http://www.stat.gov.mk/MetodoloskiObjasSoop\_en.aspx?id=115&rbrObl=13)  
  
Pakistan  
  
Official publication: Multidimensional Poverty in Pakistan  
https://www.undp.org/content/dam/pakistan/docs/MPI/Multidimensional%20Poverty%20in%20Pakistan.pdf  
  
Philippines  
  
Official document: Philippine Statistics Authority press release https://psa.gov.ph/poverty-press-releases/nid/136930  
  
Methodological documentation: Technical notes on the estimation of the MPI based on the initial methodology https://psa.gov.ph/sites/default/files/mpi%20technical%20notes.pdf  
  
Poland  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Romania  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Rwanda  
  
Official publication : https://www.mppn.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/12/EICV5\_Thematic-Report\_Multidimensional-Poverty-Index\_MPI.pdf  
  
Seychelles  
  
Official publication : https://www.nbs.gov.sc/downloads/social-statistics/multidimensional-poverty-index/2018  
  
Slovenia  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Sweden  
  
Official publication: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database  
  
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/9940483/KS-02-19-165-EN-N.pdf; Methodological documentation: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE) , https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\_statistics\_on\_income\_and\_living\_conditions\_(EU-SILC)\_methodology\_-\_Europe\_2020\_target\_on\_poverty\_and\_social\_exclusion  
  
Thailand  
  
Official publication: http://social.nesdc.go.th/social/Portals/0/Documents/%e0%b8%a3%e0%b8%a7%e0%b8%a1%20NMPI%2007102019%20(1630)\_2305.pdf  
  
Zambia  
  
Official publication: Child Poverty in Zambia (https://www.unicef.org/zambia/reports/child-poverty-zambia-report-2018

Last updated: 24 January 2017  
  
  
  
  
  
Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere  
  
Target: 1.2 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  
  
Indicator 1.2.1: Proportion of population living below the national poverty line, by sex and age  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
World Bank  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
The national poverty rate is the percentage of the total population living below the national poverty line. The rural poverty rate is the percentage of the rural population living below the national poverty line (or in cases where a separate, rural poverty line is used, the rural poverty line). Urban poverty rate is the percentage of the urban population living below the national poverty line (or in cases where a separate, urban poverty line is used, the urban poverty line).   
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
Monitoring national poverty is important for country-specific development agendas. National poverty lines are used to make more accurate estimates of poverty consistent with the country’s specific economic and social circumstances, and are not intended for international comparisons of poverty rates.   
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
In assessing poverty in a given country, and how best to reduce poverty according to national definitions, one naturally focuses on a poverty line that is considered appropriate for that country. Poverty lines across countries vary in terms of their purchasing power, and they have a strong economic gradient, such that richer countries tend to adopt higher standards of living in defining poverty. Within a country, the cost of living is typically higher in urban areas than in rural areas. Some countries may have separate urban and rural poverty lines to represent different purchasing powers.   
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
National poverty estimates are derived from household survey data. Caveats and limitations inherent to survey data applying to the construction of indicator 1.1.1 apply here as well.   
  
  
  
To be useful for poverty estimates, surveys must be nationally representative. They must also include enough information to compute a comprehensive estimate of total household consumption or income (including consumption or income from own production) and to construct a correctly weighted distribution of consumption or income per person.  
  
Consumption is the preferred welfare indicator for a number of reasons. Income is generally more difficult to measure accurately. For example, the poor who work in the informal sector may not receive or report monetary wages; self-employed workers often experience irregular income flows; and many people in rural areas depend on idiosyncratic, agricultural incomes. Moreover, consumption accords better with the idea of the standard of living than income, which can vary over time even if the actual standard of living does not. Thus, whenever possible, consumption-based welfare indicators are used to estimate the poverty measures reported here. But consumption data are not always available. For instance in Latin America and the Caribbean, the vast majority of countries collect primarily income data. In those cases there is little choice but to use income data.  
  
Consumption is measured by using household survey questions on food and nonfood expenditures as well as food consumed from the household’s own production, which is particularly important in the poorest developing countries. This information is collected either through recall questions using lists of consumption items or through diaries in which respondents record all expenditures daily. But these methods do not always provide equivalent information, and depending on the approach used, consumption can be underestimated or overestimated. Different surveys use different recall or reference periods. Depending on the true flow of expenditures, the rate of spending reported is sensitive to the length of reporting period. The longer the reference period, the more likely respondents will fail to recall certain expenses—especially food items—thus resulting in underestimation of true expenditure.  
  
Best-practice surveys administer detailed lists of specific consumption items. These individual items collected through the questionnaires are aggregated afterwards. But many surveys use questionnaires in which respondents are asked to report expenditures for broad categories of goods. In other words, specific consumption items are implicitly aggregated by virtue of the questionnaire design. This shortens the interview, reducing the cost of the survey. A shorter questionnaire is also thought to reduce the likelihood of fatigue for both respondents and interviewers, which can lead to reporting errors. However, there is also evidence that less detailed coverage of specific items in the questionnaire can lead to underestimation of actual household consumption. The reuse of questionnaires may cause new consumption goods to be omitted, leading to further underreporting.  
  
Invariably some sampled households do not participate in surveys because they refuse to do so or because nobody is at home. This is often referred to as “unit nonresponse” and is distinct from “item nonresponse,” which occurs when some of the sampled respondents participate but refuse to answer certain questions, such as those pertaining to consumption or income. To the extent that survey nonresponse is random, there is no concern regarding biases in survey-based inferences; the sample will still be representative of the population. However, households with different incomes are not equally likely to respond. Relatively rich households may be less likely to participate because of the high opportunity cost of their time or because of concerns about intrusion in their affairs. It is conceivable that the poorest can likewise be underrepresented; some are homeless and hard to reach in standard household survey designs, and some may be physically or socially isolated and thus less easily interviewed. If nonresponse systematically increases with income, surveys will tend to overestimate poverty. But if compliance tends to be lower for both the very poor and the very rich, there will be potentially offsetting effects on the measured incidence of poverty.  
  
Even if survey data were entirely accurate and comprehensive, the measure of poverty obtained could still fail to capture important aspects of individual welfare. For example, using household consumption measures ignores potential inequalities within households. Thus, consumption- or income-based poverty measures are informative but should not be interpreted as a sufficient statistic for assessing the quality of people’s lives. The national poverty rate, a “headcount” measure, is one of the most commonly calculated measures of poverty. Yet it has the drawback that it does not capture income inequality among the poor or the depth of poverty. For instance, it fails to account for the fact that some people may be living just below the poverty line, while others experience far greater shortfalls. Policymakers seeking to make the largest possible impact on the headcount measure might be tempted to direct their poverty alleviation resources to those closest to the poverty line (and therefore least poor).  
  
Issues may also arise when comparing poverty measures within countries when urban and rural poverty lines represent different purchasing powers. For example, the cost of living is typically higher in urban than in rural areas. One reason is that food staples tend to be more expensive in urban areas. So the urban monetary poverty line should be higher than the rural poverty line. But it is not always clear that the difference between urban and rural poverty lines found in practice reflects only differences in the cost of living. In some countries the urban poverty line in common use has a higher real value—meaning that it allows the purchase of more commodities for consumption—than does the rural poverty line. Sometimes the difference has been so large as to imply that the incidence of poverty is greater in urban than in rural areas, even though the reverse is found when adjustments are made only for differences in the cost of living. As with international comparisons, when the real value of the poverty line varies it is not clear how meaningful such urban-rural comparisons are.  
  
Lastly, these income/consumption based poverty indicators do not fully reflect the other dimensions of poverty such as inequality, vulnerability, and lack of voice and power of the poor.  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
The formula for calculating the proportion of the total, urban and rural population living below the national poverty line, or headcount index, is as follows:  
  
  
  
Where is an indicator function that takes on a value of 1 if the bracketed expression is true, and 0 otherwise. If individual consumption or income is less than the national poverty line (for example, in absolute terms the line could be the price of a consumption bundle or in relative terms a percentage of the income distribution), then is equal to 1 and the individual is counted as poor. is the total, urban or rural number of poor. is the total, urban or rural population.   
  
Consumption or income data are gathered from nationally representative household surveys, which contain detailed responses to questions regarding spending habits and sources of income. Consumption, including consumption from own production, or income is calculated for the entire household. In some cases, an “effective” household size is calculated from the actual household size to reflect assumed efficiencies in consumption; adjustments may also be made to reflect the number of children in a household. The number of people in those households is aggregated to estimate the number of poor persons.   
  
National poverty rates use a country specific poverty line, reflecting the country’s economic and social circumstances. In some case, the national poverty line is adjusted for different areas (such as urban and rural) within the country, to account for differences in prices or the availability of goods and services. Typically the urban poverty line is set higher than the rural poverty line; reflecting the relatively higher costs of living in urban areas.  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
The only aggregation is by rural and urban areas.  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
  
  
At country level  
  
Missing values in consumption of particular items are counted as zero. This is a standard practice in processing survey data. If the consumption is not reported, it is taken as zero consumption, and thus the consumption expenditure is zero.   
  
  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
Because national poverty lines are country-specific. There is no aggregation at the regional or global level.   
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
N/A  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
National poverty estimates is a different concept from international poverty estimates. National poverty rate is defined at country-specific poverty lines in local currencies, which are different in real terms across countries and different from the $1.90-a-day international poverty line. Thus, national poverty rates cannot be compared across countries or with the $1.90-a-day poverty rate.  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
National poverty estimates are typically produced and owned by country governments (e.g., National Statistic Office), and sometimes with technical assistance from the World Bank and UNDP. Upon release of the national poverty estimates by the government, the Global Poverty Working Group of the World Bank assesses the methodology used by the government, validates the estimates with raw data whenever possible, and consults the country economists for publishing. Accepted estimates, along with metadata, will be published in the WDI database as well as the Poverty and Equity Database of the World Bank.   
  
Another source is World Bank’s Poverty Assessments. The World Bank periodically prepares poverty assessments of countries in which it has an active program, in close collaboration with national institutions, other development agencies, and civil society groups, including poor people’s organizations. Poverty assessments report the extent and causes of poverty and propose strategies to reduce it. The poverty assessments are the best available source of information on poverty estimates using national poverty lines. They often include separate assessments of urban and rural poverty.   
  
Collection process:  
  
Source collection is ongoing by the Global Poverty Working Group of the World Bank. The data in World Development Indicators (WDI) are updated quarterly following the WDI database updating schedule.   
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
Data availability depends on the availability of household surveys and analysis of survey data. Data for total, rural and urban poverty are currently available for 132, 101 and 103 countries, respectively.  
  
  
  
Time series:  
  
Data are available from 1985 to 2015. Because the effort and capacity of collecting and analysing survey data are different for each country, the length of the time series for each country varies greatly.   
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
 The schedule of source collection is determined by the country governments. Some are annual, and most others are less frequent.   
  
   
  
Data release:  
  
End of March 2017.   
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
National Statistic Offices.  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
World Bank – Global Poverty Working Group  
  
  
  
References  
  
URL:  
  
Poverty and Equity Data Portal  
  
http://povertydata.worldbank.org/poverty/home/  
  
  
  
References:  
  
Deaton, Angus. 2003. “Household Surveys, Consumption, and the Measurement of Poverty”. Economic Systems Research, Vol. 15, No. 2, June 2003  
  
Deaton, Angus; Zaidi, Salman. 2002. Guidelines for Constructing Consumption Aggregates for Welfare Analysis. LSMS Working Paper; No. 135. World Bank.   
  
World Bank 2008. Poverty data: A supplement to World Development Indicators 2008. Washington, DC.   
  
  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020  
  
Indicator 1.1.1: Proportion of population below the international poverty line, by sex, age, employment status and geographical location (urban/rural)

Last updated: 08 June 2018  
  
  
  
Goal 1. End poverty in all its forms everywhere  
  
Target 1.3: Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage of the poor and the vulnerable.  
  
Indicator 1.3.1: Percentage of the population covered by social protection floors/systems disaggregated by sex, and distinguishing children, unemployed, old age, people with disabilities, pregnant women/new-borns, work injury victims, poor and vulnerable  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):   
  
International Labour Organization (ILO)   
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions   
  
Definition:  
  
The indicator reflects the proportion of persons effectively covered by a social protection system, including social protection floors. It also reflects the main components of social protection: child and maternity benefits, support for persons without a job, persons with disabilities, victims of work injuries and older persons.   
  
  
  
Effective coverage of social protection is measured by the number of people who are either actively contributing to a social insurance scheme or receiving benefits (contributory or non-contributory).  
  
  
Concepts:   
  
Social protection systems include contributory and non-contributory schemes for children, pregnant women with newborns, people in active age, older persons, for victims of work injuries and persons with disabilities. Social protection floors provide at least a basic level in all main contingencies along the life cycle, as defined in the Social Protection Floors Recommendation 2012 (no. 202) referred to in SDG 1.3.   
  
  
  
When assessing coverage and gaps in coverage, distinctions need to be made between coverage by (1) contributory social insurance, (2) universal schemes covering all residents (or all residents in a given category), and (3) means-tested schemes potentially covering all those who pass the required test of income and/or assets.  
  
  
  
Rationale and interpretation:  
  
Access to at least a basic level of social protection throughout the life cycle is a human right. The principle of universality of social protection evidences the importance of social protection systems in guaranteeing decent living conditions to the whole population, throughout their lives. The proportion of the population covered by social protection systems/floors provides an indication of the extent to which universality is accomplished, and thus, how secure are the population's living conditions.  
  
  
  
Measurements of effective coverage should reflect how in reality legal provisions are implemented.   
  
It refers to the percentage of people actually receiving benefits of contributory and non-contributory social protection programmes, plus the number of persons actively contributing to social insurance schemes.  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
Data is collected through an administrative survey ongoing for decades, the ILO Social Security Inquiry. Whenever countries provide data, the indicator is disaggregated by sex. Indicators disaggregated by country and region are also available.  
  
  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
Calculations include separate indicators in order to distinguish effective coverage for children, unemployed persons, older persons and persons with disabilities, mothers with newborns, workers protected in case of work injury, and the poor and the vulnerable. For each case, coverage expressed as a share of the respective population.  
  
  
  
Indicators are obtained as follows:  
  
Proportion of children covered by social protection benefits: ratio of children/households receiving child or family cash benefits to the total number of children/households with children.  
  
Proportion of women giving birth covered by maternity benefits: ratio of women receiving cash maternity benefits to women giving birth in the same year (estimated based on age-specific fertility rates published in the UN’s World Population Prospects or on the number of live births corrected for the share of twin and triplet births).  
  
Proportion of persons with disabilities receiving benefits: ratio of persons receiving disability cash benefits to persons with severe disabilities. The latter is calculated as the product of prevalence of disability ratios (published for each country group by the World Health Organization) and each country’s population.  
  
Proportion of unemployed receiving benefits: ratio of recipients of unemployment cash benefits to the number of unemployed persons.  
  
Proportion of workers covered in case of employment injury: ratio of workers protected by injury insurance to total employment or the labour force.   
  
Proportion of older persons receiving a pension: ratio of persons above statutory retirement age receiving an old-age pension to persons above statutory retirement age (including contributory and non-contributory).  
  
Proportion of vulnerable persons receiving benefits: ratio of social assistance recipients to the total number of vulnerable persons. The latter are calculated by subtracting from total population all people of working age who are contributing to a social insurance scheme or receiving contributory benefits, and all persons above retirement age receiving contributory benefits.  
  
  
  
The aggregate indicator is calculated as the proportion of the total population receiving cash benefits under at least one of the contingencies (contributory or non-contributory benefit) or actively contributing to at least one social security scheme.  
  
  
  
Disaggregation  
  
Whenever data is available, the indicator is disaggregated by sex and age groups.  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values  
  
Indicators for countries with missing values are not part of the reporting.  
  
  
  
Sources of differences between global and national figures  
  
Estimations are based on administrative data produced by countries (SSI).  
  
  
  
Global and regional estimates  
  
Global and regional indicators are weighted averages of national indicators with weights equal to the denominators indicated in section 3.3, a-g. Global and regional estimates are based on econometric models designed to impute missing data in countries for which nationally-reported data are unavailable. The output of the models is a complete set of single-year estimates for seven social protection indicators for 169 countries. The country-level data (reported and imputed) are then aggregated to produce global and regional estimates of the social protection indicators.  
  
  
  
  
  
Obtaining internationally comparable data for global monitoring  
  
Data is collected using the SSI questionnaires, which are filled in direct collaboration with government agencies - Ministries of labour, ministries of finance and social protection institutions. The collected data collected is revised by the Social Protection Department in order to identify internal inconsistencies between data and indicators, and detect major differences regarding indicators calculated in previous years. When significant discrepancies are detected, the questionnaires are sent back to the countries, including detailed comments, for further revision and adjustments. In many cases direct contact with national counterparts are required, as SSI application lies on a strong coordination with our governmental counterparts.  
  
  
  
Data Sources   
  
Description:  
  
The main data source is the Social Security Inquiry, ILO’s periodic collection of administrative data from national ministries of labour, social security, welfare, finance, and others.  
  
  
  
Since 1950, the ILO’s Social Security Inquiry has been the main global source of administrative data on social protection. Secondary data sources include existing global databases of social protection statistics, including those of the World Bank, UNICEF, UNWOMEN, HELPAGE, OECD and the International Social Security Association.   
  
  
  
This forms the World Social Protection Database. It provides a unique source of information and serves as the basis for the ILO flagship World Social Protection Report, which periodically presents development trends of social protection systems, including floors, providing data for a wide range of countries (183 countries).   
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
The Social Security Inquiry/World Social Protection Database includes data on 183 countries. As of March 2017, ILO is processing the 2016 Social Security Inquiry, data for 101 countries have been updated and work is ongoing.   
  
An updated version of the questionnaire will be sent to 183 countries in April-May 2018.   
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
Data collection:  
  
 May 2018  
  
   
  
Data release:  
  
December 2018.  
  
  
  
Data providers   
  
National data is provided by national Ministries of Labour, Welfare, Finance and others, as well as by social security institutions.  
  
  
  
Data compilers   
  
International Labour Organization (ILO).  
  
  
  
References  
  
URLs:   
  
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http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/Wspr.action   
  
Social Security Inquiry. Manual 2016:  
  
http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/RessourcePDF.action?ressource.ressourceId=53711  
  
  
  
ILO Social Protection Floors Recommendation (n°202), 2012  
  
http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:12100:0::NO::P12100\_INSTRUMENT\_ID,P12100\_LANG\_CODE:3065524  
  
  
  
World Social Protection Report 2017/2019:  
  
http://www.ilo.org/global/publications/books/WCMS\_604882/lang--en/index.htm

Last updated: 07 July 2017  
  
  
  
Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere;  
  
Target 1.5: By 2030, build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations and reduce their exposure and vulnerability to climate-related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters;  
  
Indicator 1.5.3: Number of countries that adopt and implement national disaster risk reduction strategies in line with the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
  
  
United Nations Office for Disaster Reduction (UNISDR)  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
  
  
NA  
  
  
  
[a] An open-ended intergovernmental expert working group on indicators and terminology relating to disaster risk reduction established by the General Assembly (resolution 69/284) is developing a set of indicators to measure global progress in the implementation of the Sendai Framework. These indicators will eventually reflect the agreements on the Sendai Framework indicators.  
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
  
  
The indicator will build bridge between the SDGs and the Sendai Framework for DRR. Increasing number of national governments that adopt and implement national and local DRR strategies, which the Sendai Framework calls for, will contribute to sustainable development from economic, environmental and social perspectives.  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
  
  
The HFA Monitor started in 2007 and over time, the number of countries reporting to UNISDR increased from 60 in 2007 to 140+ countries now undertaking voluntary self-assessment of progress in implementing the HFA. During the four reporting cycles to 2015 the HFA Monitor has generated the world’s largest repository of information on national DRR policy inter alia. Its successor, provisionally named the Sendai Monitor, is under development and will be informed by the recommendations of the OEIWG. A baseline as of 2015 is expected to be created in 2016-2017 that will facilitate reporting on progress in achieving the relevant targets of both the Sendai Framework and the SDGs.  
  
  
  
Members of both the OEIWG and the IAEG-SDGs have addressed that indicators that simply count the number of countries are not recommended, instead that, indicators to measure progress over time have been promoted. Further to the deliberations of the OEIWG as well as the IAEG, UNISDR has proposed computation methodologies that allow the monitoring of improvement in national and local DRR strategies over time. These methodologies range from a simple quantitative assessment of the number of these strategies to a qualitative measure of alignment with the Sendai Framework, as well as population coverage for local strategies.  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
  
  
Note: Computation methodology for several indicators is very comprehensive, very long (about 180 pages) and probably out of the scope of this Metadata. UNISDR prefers to refer to the outcome of the Open Ended Intergovernmental Working Group, which provides a full detailed methodology for each indicator and sub-indicator.  
  
  
  
The latest version of these methodologies can be obtained at:  
  
  
  
http://www.preventionweb.net/documents/oiewg/Technical%20Collection%20of%20Concept%20Notes%20on%20Indicators.pdf  
  
  
  
A short summary:  
  
  
  
Summation of data from National Progress Reports of the Sendai Monitor  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
  
  
By country  
  
  
  
By city (applying sub-national administrative units)  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
  
  
At country level  
  
  
  
In the Sendai Monitor, which will be undertaken as a voluntary self-assessment like the HFA Monitor, missing values and 0 or null will be considered equivalent.  
  
  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
  
  
NA  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
  
  
See under Computation Method.  
  
  
  
It will be calculated, at the discretion of the OEIWG, as either a linear average of the index described in 3.3, or as a weighted average of the index times the population of the country, divided by global population.  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
  
  
There is no global database collecting DRR policy information besides the HFA Monitor and the succeeding Sendai Monitor  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
  
  
National Progress Report of the Sendai Monitor, reported to UNISDR  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
  
  
The official counterpart(s) at the country level will provide National Progress Report of the Sendai Monitor.  
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
  
  
Around 100 countries  
  
  
  
The HFA Monitor started in 2007 and over time, the number of countries reporting to UNISDR increased from 60 in 2007 to 140+ countries now undertaking voluntary self-assessment of progress in implementing the HFA. Given the requirements for disaster risk reduction strategies enshrined in reporting on the SDGs and the targets of the Sendai Framework, it is expected that by 2020, all member states will report their DRR strategies according to the recommendations and guidelines by the OEIWG.  
  
  
  
Time series:  
  
  
  
2013 and 2015: HFA monitor   
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
  
  
2017-2018   
  
  
  
Data release:  
  
  
  
Initial datasets in 2017, a first fairly complete dataset by 2019   
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
  
  
Name:  
  
  
  
The coordinating lead institution chairing the National DRR platform which is comprised of special purpose agencies including national disaster agencies, civil protection agencies, and meteorological agencies.  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
  
  
The coordinating lead institution chairing the National DRR platform which is comprised of special purpose agencies including national disaster agencies, civil protection agencies, and meteorological agencies.  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
  
  
UNISDR  
  
  
  
References  
  
  
  
URL:  
  
  
  
http://www.preventionweb.net/documents/oiewg/Technical%20Collection%20of%20Concept%20Notes%20on%20Indicators.pdf  
  
  
  
References:  
  
  
  
The Open-ended Intergovernmental Expert Working Group on Indicators and Terminology relating to Disaster Risk Reduction (OEIWG) was given the responsibility by the UNGA for the development of a set of indicators to measure global progress in the implementation of the Sendai Framework, against the seven global targets. The work of the OEIWG shall be completed by December 2016 and its report submitted to the General Assembly for consideration. The IAEG-SDGs and the UN Statistical Commission formally recognizes the role of the OEIWG, and has deferred the responsibility for the further refinement and development of the methodology for disaster-related SDGs indicators to this working group.  
  
  
  
http://www.preventionweb.net/drr-framework/open-ended-working-group/  
  
  
  
The latest version of documents are located at:  
  
  
  
http://www.preventionweb.net/drr-framework/open-ended-working-group/sessional-intersessional-documents  
  
  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020  
  
  
  
1.5; 11.5; 11.b; 13.1; 2.4; 3.6; 3.9; 3.d; 4.a; 6.6; 9.1; 9.a; 11.1; 11.3; 11.c; 13.2; 13.3; 13.a; 13.b; 14.2; 15.1; 15.2; 15.3; 15.9.

Last updated: 16 October 2018  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere  
  
Target 1.4: By 2030, ensure that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including microfinance  
  
Indicator 1.4.1: Proportion of population living in households with access to basic services  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat)  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
Poverty has many dimensions. It is not only a lack of material well-being but also a lack of opportunities to live a tolerable life. The international extreme poverty line was updated in 2015 to 1.90 USD per day using 2011 purchasing power parity (WB 2015). Living under the extreme poverty line often encompasses deprivations of safe drinking water, proper sanitation, access to modern energy, sustainable mobility to economic resources, information technology, healthcare, education, etc. Poverty is also a manifestation of hunger and malnutrition, limited access to education and other basic services, social discrimination and exclusion as well as the lack of participation in decision-making. In other words, poverty is multidimensional and covers many aspects of life ranging from access to opportunities, livelihoods and means of survival.   
  
  
  
Among the different aspects of poverty, this indicator focuses on ‘access to basic services’. Providing access to basic services such as safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, sustainable energy and mobility, housing, education, healthcare etc, helps to improve the quality of life of the poor. The lack of basic services provision and the lack of empowerment and involvement of local governments in basic service delivery undermine the economic growth and quality of life in any community. Adequate basic service delivery systems promote socio-economic improvements and help to achieve economic growth, social inclusion, poverty reduction and equality. More specifically, improved basic services can help to raise well-being and productivity of communities, create jobs, save time and human effort in transporting water, support food security, better use of energy, production of essential commodities, improve health (by making medical care, clean water or solid waste collection available) or enhance the level of education.   
  
  
  
In the Quito implementation plan for the New Urban Agenda adopted in Habitat III conference, member states commit to “promoting equitable and affordable access to sustainable basic physical and social infrastructure for all, without discrimination, including affordable serviced land, housing, modern and renewable energy, safe drinking water and sanitation, safe, nutritious and adequate food, waste disposal, sustainable mobility, health care and family planning, education, culture, and information and communications technologies” . They further commit to “ensuring that these services are responsive to the rights and needs of women, children and youth, older persons and persons with disabilities, migrants, indigenous peoples and local communities, as appropriate, and to those of others in vulnerable situations”.  
  
  
  
Basic service delivery must move towards a demand-driven approach, which is appropriate for the local needs – and hence able to respond to the concept of “Access for all” – as stated in the NUA. Basic services are fundamental to improving living standards. Governments have the responsibility for their provision. This indicator will measure levels of accessibility to basic services and guide the efforts of governments for provision of equitable basic services for all to eradicate poverty.  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions:  
  
The following key concepts were defined to support the indicator in the context of poverty eradication.   
  
Basic Services refer to public service provision systems that meet human basic needs including drinking water, sanitation and hygiene, energy, mobility, waste collection, health care, education and information technologies.  
  
  
  
Access to basic services implies that sufficient and affordable service is reliably available with adequate quality.  
  
  
  
Access to Basic Drinking Water Services refers to drinking water from an improved source is available with collection time not more than 30 minutes for a round trip, including queuing. Improved sources include; piped water, boreholes or tube wells, protected dug wells, protected springs, and packaged or delivered water. This definition is based on SDG indicator 6.1.  
  
  
  
Access to Basic Sanitation Services refers to the use of improved facilities that are not shared with other households. Improved facilities include flush/pour flush to piped sewer systems, septic tanks or pit latrines; ventilated improved pit latrines, composting toilets or pit latrines with slabs. This definition is based on SDG 6.2.  
  
  
  
Access to Basic Hygiene Facilities refers to availability of a handwashing facility on premises with soap and water. Handwashing facilities may be fixed or mobile and include a sink with tap water, buckets with taps, tippy-taps, and jugs or basins designated for handwashing. Soap includes bar soap, liquid soap, powder detergent, and soapy water but does not include ash, soil, sand or other handwashing agents. This definition is based on SDG 6.2.  
  
  
  
Access to Basic Mobility refers to having access to all-weather-roads in a rural context (SDG 9.1.1) or having access to public transport in an urban context (SDG 11.2.1). The computation of “Access to Basic Mobility” shall therefore be a combination of the above.   
  
  
  
Rural context:  
  
To synergize with SDG indicator 9.1.1 “Proportion of the rural population who live within 2 km of an all-season road”, it was suggested to use the Rural Access Index (RAI) that measures the percentage of the population <2km from an all-season road (equivalent to a walk of 20-25 mins).   
  
  
  
To eradicate poverty, communities need to be connected to socio-economic opportunities by roads that are passable all season and attract reliable and affordable public transport services. In many areas, safe footpaths, footbridges and waterways may be required in conjunction with, or as an alternative, to roads. For reasons of simplification, specific emphasis was given to roads in this definition (based on the Rural Access Index - RAI) since road transport reflects accessibility for the great majority of people in rural contexts. In those situations where another mode, such as water transport is dominant the definition will be modified and contextualized to reflect and capture those aspects.   
  
  
  
Access to mobility has shown some of the largest impacts on poverty reduction and has a strong correlation to educational, economic and health outcomes (“transport as an enabler”).   
  
  
  
The existing RAI methodology relies on household level survey data – however, is currently being revised into a GIS-based index that exploits advances in digital technology with the aim to create a more accurate and cost-effective tool.   
  
  
  
As a basic underlying assumption, it is understood that women and men equally benefit from access to all-weather roads.   
  
  
  
Urban Context:  
  
The urban context of access to transport is measured utilizing the methodology of SDG 11.2.1 –the proportion of the population that has convenient access to public transport by sex, age and persons with disabilities”.   
  
  
  
The metadata methodology is available (UN-Habitat being the custodian agency) and uses a combination of spatial and qualitative analysis. A 500 m buffer around each public transport stop is used and overlaid with socio-demographic data – in order to identify the population served. We know that measuring spatial access is not sufficient and does not address the temporal dimension associated with the availability of public transport. Complementary to the above, other parameters of tracking the transport target related to street density/ no. of intersections, affordability, or quality in terms of safety, travel time, universal access, are all tracked.   
  
  
  
Access to Basic Waste Collection Services refers to the access that the population have to a reliable waste collection service, including both formal municipal and informal sector services. A ‘collection service’ may be ‘door to door’ or by deposit into a community container. ‘Collection’ includes collection for recycling as well as for treatment and disposal (so includes e.g. collection of recyclables by itinerant waste buyers). ‘Reliable’ means regular - frequency will depend on local conditions and on any pre-separation of the waste. For example, both mixed waste and organic waste are often collected daily in tropical climates for public health reasons, and generally at least weekly; source-separated dry recyclables may be collected less frequently.  
  
Access to Basic Health Care Services refers to access to services that cover in and out-of-area emergency services, inpatient hospital and physician care, outpatient medical services, laboratory and radiology services, and preventive health services. Basic health care services also extend to access to limited treatment of mental illness and substance abuse in accordance with minimum standards prescribed by local and national ministries of health.  
  
  
  
Access to Basic Education refers to access to education services that provides all learners with capabilities they require to become economically productive, develop sustainable livelihoods, contribute to peaceful and democratic societies and enhance individual well-being. For this indicator we examine access to education services in the school going age of 5 – 21 years of pupils. The right to education is a multi-faceted right that has at least two dimensions that need to be fulfilled:   
  
(a) quantitative (for everyone),   
  
(b) qualitative (right to what education, for how long, provided by whom and for whom and also leading to full development of the human personality fundamental to the fulfilment of other rights, freedom and maintenance of peace. Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human rights (1948) note that: Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.  
  
  
  
Access to Basic Information Services refers to having a broadband internet access. Broadband is defined as technologies that deliver advertised download speeds of at least 256 kbit/s. The main types of broadband services are: 1) Fixed (wired) broadband network, such as DSL, cable modem, high speed leased lines, fibre to- the-home/building, powerline and other fixed (wired) broadband; 2) Terrestrial fixed (wireless) broadband network, such as WiMAX, fixed CDMA; 3) Satellite broadband network (via a satellite connection); 4) Mobile broadband network (at least 3G, e.g. UMTS) via a handset and 5) Mobile broadband network (at least 3G, e.g. UMTS) via a card (e.g. integrated SIM card in a computer) or USB modem.  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
Different local characteristics of what constitutes as basic service around the world by some concerned authorities and stakeholders compelled the team to work on modules and global guides for this indicator. This draws on definitions available for many other SDG indicators. For example, elements of basic services are measured under indicators 3.7.1 (health), 4.1.1 (education), 6.1.1 (water), 6.2.1 (sanitation), 7.1.1 (energy), 11.2.1 (public transport), etc.   
  
  
  
Finally, many countries still have limited capacities for data management, data collection and monitoring, and continue to struggle with limited data on large or densely populated geographical areas. This means that complementarity in data reporting in a few exceptions is needed to ensure that both national and global figures achieve consistencies in the final reported data for access to basic services.  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
There are two computation stages that we have applied depending on the level at which data is collected. Step 1 is getting proportion of population that have access to ALL the basic services mentioned above from primary data sources such as household surveys and census.   
  
  
  
Proportion of Population with access to basic services   
  
  
  
 Example:   
  
  
  
HH 1  
  
HH 2  
  
HH 3  
  
HH 4  
  
HH5  
  
HH size  
  
4  
  
7  
  
5  
  
6  
  
3  
  
Drinking water service  
  
Yes  
  
Yes  
  
Yes  
  
Yes  
  
Yes  
  
Sanitation service  
  
Yes  
  
No  
  
Yes  
  
Yes  
  
Yes  
  
Hygiene facilities  
  
Yes  
  
No  
  
Yes  
  
Yes  
  
Yes  
  
Electricity  
  
Yes  
  
No  
  
Yes  
  
No  
  
Yes  
  
Clean fuels  
  
Yes  
  
No  
  
Yes  
  
No  
  
Yes  
  
Mobility  
  
Yes  
  
No  
  
Yes  
  
Yes  
  
Yes  
  
Waste collection  
  
No  
  
No  
  
Yes  
  
No  
  
Yes  
  
Health care  
  
4  
  
3  
  
5  
  
No  
  
3  
  
Education  
  
2  
  
3  
  
2  
  
3  
  
3  
  
Broadband internet  
  
Yes  
  
No  
  
Yes  
  
Yes  
  
No  
  
Total population with access to ALL BS  
  
0  
  
0  
  
5  
  
0  
  
0  
  
  
  
Proportion of population with access to (all) basic services = 5/(4+7+5+6+3) x 100 = 20%  
  
  
  
This step is essential when countries have primary data at the household levels for all the types of basic services. This is then followed by computations of metrics for other components that are not measured at the household level such as access to health, education, transport, etc. For example, access to mobility for households is measured through GIS data rather than household survey. Individual components of access to basic services are computed first, followed by an aggregation of the components with no weights. From pilots, having an aggregated value showing access to ALL the basic services works as the best measure to inform policies of regions where the most deprivations are prevalent, but is not actionable. Instead, it’s the individual component measures that point rightly to areas of improvements or investments.   
  
  
  
Data presentation  
  
Data for this component-based indicator is now modelled and presented or visualized as a spider web of the achievement of access to different basic services in a country through plotting the various components of the indicator which also doubles as other SDG indicators. In this way policy makers can be informed of most needed intervention areas. This data presentation methodology does not necessarily have a single aggregated value against ‘proportion of population with access to basic services’. The figure below is an example of the outcomes.   
  
  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
Data for this indicator can be disaggregated at the city and town levels.   
  
Disaggregation by urban /rural   
  
Disaggregation by gender   
  
Disaggregation by age  
  
Disaggregation by formal/informal settlements  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
At country level  
  
Information is currently not available.  
  
  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
Information is currently not available.  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
Information is currently not available.  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
Information is currently not available.  
  
  
  
Methods and guidance available to countries for the compilation of the data at the national level:  
  
Information is currently not available.  
  
  
  
Quality assurance  
  
Information is currently not available.  
  
  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
The main source of data for this indicator remains household surveys including DHS, MICS, LSMS, World Bank, UNICEF and UNDP, the censuses and administrative data. These data sources are also described in the various metadata for the constituent SDG indicators. A lot of the pre-processed data is also derived from the SDG indicators that form this indicator. data sources can be other SDG indicators monitoring results as well as additional data from household survey.  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
Information is currently not available.  
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Data for a large set of sub-indicators such as water and sanitation, energy, information are readily available and already included in different international household survey framework. Refinement of definitions of different types of basic services and inclusion of the newly developed survey items in the existing household survey was completed. Data compilation has shown that already more than 100 countries have data at the national level.  
  
  
  
Time series:  
  
Information is currently not available.  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
 The monitoring and reporting of the indicator can be repeated at regular intervals of 3 to 5 years each. Measurement and reporting need to be feasible on a global basis, i.e. not so expensive that the costs are unreasonable particularly at country level.  
  
   
  
Data release:  
  
Information is currently not available.  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
UN-Habitat and United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD)  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
National statistical agencies and city management teams lead the compilation and reporting at a national level. Global and regional reporting is led by UN-Habitat. The collection of the data is supported by collaborative efforts of several international institutions (UN-Habitat, UNEP, The World Bank, AfDB, IDB, EBRD and ADB) and bilateral donors (JICA, GDZ, etc.).  
  
  
  
References  
  
  
  
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The World Bank Group, ESMAP, 2015 Beyond Connections Energy Access Redefined http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/energy/publication/energy-access-redefined   
  
  
  
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Wilson et al - Wasteaware ISWM indicators - doi10.1016j.wasman.2014.10.006 - January 2015, http://wasteaware.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/11/Wilson\_et\_al\_Supplementary\_information\_Wasteaware\_ISWM\_Benchmark\_Indicators\_User\_Manual\_Online.pdf   
  
  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020  
  
Access to  
  
Related SDG indicators  
  
Safely managed drinking water services  
  
6.1.1 Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services  
  
Safely managed sanitation services  
  
6.2.1 Proportion of population using safely managed sanitation services, including a hand-washing facility with soap and water  
  
Waste collection  
  
11.6.1 Proportion of urban solid waste regularly collected and with adequate final discharge out of total urban solid waste generated, by cities  
  
Mobility and transport  
  
9.1.1 Proportion of the rural population who live within 2 km of an all-season road   
  
11.2.1 Proportion of population that has convenient access to public transport, by sex, age and persons with disabilities  
  
Modern energy  
  
7.1.1 Percentage of population with access to electricity  
  
7.1.2 Percentage of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology  
  
ICT  
  
5.b.1 Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex  
  
9.c.1 Proportion of population covered by a mobile network, by technology  
  
Education  
  
4.1.1 Percentage of children/young people: (a) in grades 2/3; (b) at the end of primary; and (c) at the end of lower secondary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in (i) reading and (ii) mathematics.

Last updated: March 2020  
  
Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere  
  
Target 1.1: By 2030, eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere, currently measured as people living on less than $1.25 a day  
  
Indicator 1.1.1: Proportion of the population living below the international poverty line by sex, age, employment status and geographic location (urban/rural)  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
ILO  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
The proportion of the employed population below the international poverty line of US$1.90 per day, also referred to as the working poverty rate, is defined as the share of employed persons living in households with per-capita consumption or income that is below the international poverty line of US$1.90.  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
In order to eradicate poverty, we must understand the root causes of poverty.   
  
The working poverty rate reveals the proportion of the employed population living in poverty despite  
  
being employed, implying that their employment-related incomes are not sufficient to lift  
  
them and their families out of poverty and ensure decent living conditions. The adequacy of earnings is a fundamental aspect of job quality, and these deficits in job quality could be keeping workers and their families in poverty.  
  
  
  
The proportion of working poor in total employment (that is, the working poverty rate) combines data on household income or consumption with labour force framework variables measured at the individual level and sheds light on the relationship between employment and household poverty.  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
Employment: All persons of working age who, during a short reference period (one week), were engaged in any activity to produce goods or provide services for pay or profit.  
  
  
  
Poverty Line: Threshold below which individuals in the reference population are considered poor and above which they are considered non-poor. The threshold is generally defined as the per-capita monetary requirements an individual needs to afford the purchase of a basic bundle of goods and services. For the purpose of this indicator, an absolute international poverty line of US$1.90 per day is used.  
  
  
  
Household in poverty: Households are defined as poor if their income or consumption expenditure is below the poverty line taking into account the number of household members and composition (e.g., number of adults and children).  
  
  
  
Working poor: Employed persons living in households that are classified as poor, that is, that have income or consumption levels below the poverty line used for measurement.  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
At the country level, comparisons over time may be affected by such factors as changes in survey types or data collection methods. The use of PPPs rather than market exchange rates ensures that differences in price levels across countries are taken into account. However, it cannot be categorically asserted that two people in two different countries, living below US$1.90 a day at PPP, face the same degree of deprivation or have the same degree of need.  
  
  
  
Poverty in the context of this indicator is a concept that is applied to households, and not to individuals, based on the assumption that households pool their income. This assumption may not always be true.  
  
  
  
Moreover, the poverty status of a household is a function of the wage and other employment-related income secured by those household members in employment, income derived from asset ownership, plus any other available income such as transfer payments and the number of household members. Whether a worker is counted as working poor therefore depends on his or her own income, the income of other household members and the number of household members who need to be supported. It is thus often valuable to study household structure in relation to working poverty.   
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
The working poverty rate (proportion of employed persons living in poverty) is disaggregated by sex and age.  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
  
  
At country level  
  
  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
The ILO produces global and regional estimates of employment by economic class (and thus, of working poverty rates) using the ILO’s Employment by Class (EbyC) model. These estimates are part of the ILO Estimates and Projections series, analysed in the ILO's World Employment and Social Outlook reports. For more information, on the model used to derive these estimates, refer to the ILO paper “Employment and economic class in the developing world” (Kapsos and Bourmpoula, 2013), available at http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---inst/documents/publication/wcms\_216451.pdf.  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
  
  
Methods and guidance available to countries for the compilation of the data at the national level:  
  
  
  
Quality assurance:  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
The preferred data source is a household survey with variables that can reliably identify both the poverty status of households and the economic activity of the household’s members. Examples include household income and expenditure surveys (HIES), living standards measurement surveys (LSMS) with employment modules, or labour force surveys (LFS) that collect information on household income. Such surveys offer the benefit of allowing the employment status and income (or consumption expenditure) variables to be derived from the same sampled households ideally for the same observation period.  
  
  
  
Employment estimates derived from a household survey other than a labour force survey may, however, not be the most robust due to questionnaire design. Similarly, a labour force survey may not be the best instrument for collecting household income or consumption expenditure data, although an attached income module can be designed to achieve statistically reliable results, including ensuring an overlap in the observation period between household income (or consumption expenditure) and employment status.   
  
  
  
Another possibility is to combine data from a household income and expenditure survey and from a separate labour force survey when the respondent households can be matched and consistency in the long observation period between the surveys can be obtained.  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
  
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
  
  
Time series:  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
   
  
   
  
Data release:  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
  
  
Mainly National Statistical Offices.  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
  
  
ILO  
  
  
  
References  
  
Decent Work and the Sustainable Development Goals: A Guidebook on SDG Labour Market Indicators (ILO) https://www.ilo.org/stat/Publications/WCMS\_647109/lang--en/index.htm   
  
ILOSTAT (https://ilostat.ilo.org/).  
  
ILOSTAT’s topic page on working poverty (https://ilostat.ilo.org/topics/working-poor/)  
  
Employment and economic class in the developing world (Kapsos and Bourmpoula, 2013) http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---inst/documents/publication/wcms\_216451.pdf  
  
Decent Work Indicators Manual http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---integration/documents/publication/wcms\_229374.pdf (second version, page 70).  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020

Last updated: 14 April 2020  
  
Goal: Goal 1. End poverty in all its forms everywhere  
  
  
  
Target: Target 1.a. Ensure significant mobilization of resources from a variety of sources, including through enhanced development cooperation, in order to provide adequate and predictable means for developing countries, in particular least developed countries, to implement programmes and policies to end poverty in all its dimensions  
  
  
  
Indicator: Indicator 1.a.1: Total official development assistance (ODA) grants from all donors that focus on poverty reduction as a share of the recipient country’s gross national income  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
OECD  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
  
  
Total official development assistance (ODA) grants from all donors that focus on poverty reduction as a share of the recipient country’s gross national income.   
  
  
  
The OECD/Development Assistance Committee (DAC) defines ODA as “flows to countries and territories on the DAC List of ODA Recipients and to multilateral institutions which are i) provided by official agencies, including state and local governments, or by their executive agencies; and ii) each transaction is administered with the promotion of the economic development and welfare of developing countries as its main objective; and is concessional in character and conveys a grant element of at least 25 per cent (calculated at a rate of discount of 10 per cent). (See http://www.oecd.org/dac/stats/officialdevelopmentassistancedefinitionandcoverage.htm).  
  
  
  
Poverty reduction items can be defined as ODA to basic social services (basic health, basic education, basic water and sanitation, population programmes and reproductive health) and developmental food aid (see here: http://www.oecd.org/dac/stats/purposecodessectorclassification.htm).  
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
  
  
Total ODA flows to developing countries quantify the public effort (excluding non- concessional flows and export credits), that all donors provide for the economic development and welfare of developing countries. Within ODA, basic social services and development food aid focus on poverty alleviation in developing countries.  
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
  
  
The OECD/Development Assistance Committee (DAC) defines ODA as “flows to countries and territories on the DAC List of ODA Recipients and to multilateral institutions which are i) provided by official agencies, including state and local governments, or by their executive agencies; and ii) each transaction is administered with the promotion of the economic development and welfare of developing countries as its main objective; and is concessional in character and conveys a grant element of at least 25 per cent (calculated at a rate of discount of 10 per cent). (See http://www.oecd.org/dac/stats/officialdevelopmentassistancedefinitionandcoverage.htm).  
  
  
  
Basic social services and development food aid, which focus on poverty reduction, are defined using the following OECD Creditor Reporting System purpose codes, which identify the sector the activity is intended to target:   
  
  
  
Basic Education (CRS codes 112xx)  
  
Basic Health (CRS codes (122xx)  
  
Water Supply and Sanitation (CRS codes 140xx)  
  
Multisector aid for basic social services (CRS code 16050)  
  
Development Food Aid (CRS code 52010)  
  
  
  
The detailed list of CRS purpose codes and their definitions are available here: http://www.oecd.org/dac/stats/purposecodessectorclassification.htm  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
  
  
Data in the Creditor Reporting System (i.e. at an activity level), are available from 1973 onwards. However, the data coverage is considered complete since 1995 for commitments and 2002 for disbursements.  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
  
  
From a donor country’s perspective: The sum of bilateral ODA grants by donor that focus on poverty reduction as a share of the donor country’s gross national income.   
  
  
  
From a recipient country’s perspective: The sum of total ODA grants from all donors (i.e. DAC donors, multilateral organisations and other bilateral providers of development cooperation) that focus on poverty reduction as a share of the developing country’s gross national income.   
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
  
  
This indicator can be disaggregated by donor, by recipient country, by type of finance, by type of aid, by sub-sector, by policy marker (e.g. gender), etc.  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
  
  
Due to high quality of reporting, no estimates are produced for missing data.  
  
  
  
At country level  
  
  
  
Due to high quality of reporting, no estimates are produced for missing data.  
  
  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
  
  
Due to high quality of reporting, no estimates are produced for missing data.  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
  
  
Global, regional and country figures are based on the sum of ODA grant flows for poverty reduction.  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
  
  
DAC statistics are standardized on a calendar year basis for all donors and may differ from fiscal year data available in budget documents for some countries.  
  
  
  
Methods and guidance available to countries for the compilation of the data at the national level:  
  
  
  
The DAC statistical Reporting Directives govern the reporting of DAC statistics, and are reviewed and agreed by the DAC Working Party of Development Finance Statistics, see: https://one.oecd.org/document/DCD/DAC/STAT(2018)9/FINAL/en/pdf  
  
  
  
Quality assurance  
  
  
  
The OECD/DAC Secretariat is responsible for verifying and validating data submissions from providers of development cooperation, as well as publishing the data.  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
  
  
The OECD/DAC has been collecting data on official and private resource flows, from 1960 at an aggregate level, and 1973 at an activity level through the Creditor Reporting System (CRS data are considered complete from 1995 for commitments at an activity level and 2002 for disbursements).   
  
  
  
The data are reported by donors according to the same standards and methodologies (see here: http://www.oecd.org/dac/stats/methodology.htm).   
  
  
  
Data are reported on an annual calendar year basis by statistical reporters in national administrations (aid agencies, Ministries of Foreign Affairs or Finance, etc.)  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
  
  
A statistical reporter is responsible for the collection of DAC statistics in each providing country/agency. This reporter is usually located in the national aid agency, Ministry of Foreign Affairs or Finance etc.  
  
  
  
The OECD prepares and sends a questionnaire on aid flows (at an activity level and aggregate level) to the national statistical reporter every year.   
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
  
  
Data are published on an annual basis in December for flows in the previous year.  
  
  
  
Detailed 2019 flows will be published in December 2020.  
  
  
  
Provisional data classification: Tier I  
  
  
  
Time series:  
  
  
  
The OECD/DAC has been collecting data on official and private resource flows, from 1960 at an aggregate level, and 1973 at an activity level through the Creditor Reporting System (CRS data are considered complete from 1995 for commitments at an activity level and 2002 for disbursements).   
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
   
  
Data collection is annual. Detailed 2019 flows will be published in December 2020.  
  
  
  
   
  
Data release:  
  
  
  
Detailed 2019 flows will be published in December 2020.  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
  
  
A statistical reporter is responsible for the collection of DAC statistics in each providing country/agency. This reporter is usually located in the national aid agency, Ministry of Foreign Affairs or Finance etc.  
  
Data compilers  
  
  
  
OECD, Development Cooperation Directorate.  
  
  
  
References  
  
  
  
URL:   
  
  
  
See all links here: http://www.oecd.org/dac/stats/methodology.htm  
  
  
  
References:   
  
  
  
See all links here: http://www.oecd.org/dac/stats/methodology.htm  
  
  
  
Related indicators

Last updated: February 2018  
  
Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere  
  
Target 1.5: By 2030, build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations and reduce their exposure and vulnerability to climate-related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters  
  
Indicator 1.5.4: Proportion of local governments that adopt and implement local disaster risk reduction strategies in line with national disaster risk reduction strategies  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
United Nations Office for Disaster Reduction (UNISDR)  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 was adopted by UN Member States in March 2015 as a global policy of disaster risk reduction. One of the targets is: “Substantially increase the number of countries with national and local disaster risk reduction strategies by 2020”.  
  
In line with the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030, disaster risk reduction strategies and policies should mainstream and integrate disaster risk reduction within and across all sectors, across different timescales and with targets, indicators and time frames. These strategies should be aimed at preventing the creation of disaster risk, the reduction of existing risk and the strengthening of economic, social, health and environmental resilience.  
  
  
  
The open-ended intergovernmental expert working group on indicators and terminology relating to disaster risk reduction (OIEWG) established by the General Assembly (resolution 69/284) has developed a set of indicators to measure global progress in the implementation of the Sendai Framework, which was endorsed by the UNGA (OIEWG report A/71/644). The relevant SDG indicators reflect the Sendai Framework indicators.  
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
Increasing the proportion of local governments that adopt and implement local disaster risk reduction strategies, which the Sendai Framework calls for, will contribute to sustainable development and strengthen economic, social, health and environmental resilience. Their economic, environmental and social perspectives would include poverty eradication, urban resilience, and climate change adaptation.  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
  
  
The Hyogo Framework for Action Monitor (HFA Monitor) started in 2007 and over time, the number of countries reporting to UNISDR increased from 60 in 2007 to approximately 100 countries in 2015 undertaking voluntary self-assessment of progress in implementing the HFA. During the four reporting cycles the HFA Monitor has generated the world’s largest repository of information on national disaster risk reduction policy inter alia. In 2018 the Sendai Framework Monitor system will launch and all Member States are expected to report data of the previous year(s).   
  
  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
Member States count the number of local governments that adopt and implement local DRR strategies in line with the national strategy and express it as a percentage of the total number of local governments in the country.  
  
  
  
Local governments are determined by the reporting country for this indicator, considering sub-national public administrations with responsibility to develop local disaster risk reduction strategies. It is recommended that countries report on progress made by the lowest level of government accorded the mandate for disaster risk reduction, as the Sendai Framework promotes the adoption and implementation of local disaster risk reduction strategies in every local authority.  
  
  
  
Each Member State will calculate the ratio of the number of local governments with local DRR strategies in line with national strategies and the total number of local governments.  
  
  
  
Global Average will then be calculated as below through arithmetic average of the data from each Member State.  
  
  
  
 Further information of the methodology can be obtained in the Technical Guidance (see reference).  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
By country  
  
By local government (applying sub-national administrative unit)  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
At country level  
  
If a country does not report (missing Value), it will be considered to be 0 or null as same as the HFA Monitor.  
  
  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
NA  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
It could be calculated as an arithmetic average of reports by Member States.  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
  
  
N/A (There is no global database collecting DRR policy information besides the HFA Monitor and the succeeding Sendai Framework Monitor.)  
  
  
  
Methods and guidance available to countries for the compilation of the data at the national level:  
  
Technical guidance for monitoring and reporting on progress in achieving the global targets of the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction   
  
http://www.preventionweb.net/events/view/55594   
  
(The latest version will be uploaded on this site in early November)  
  
  
  
Quality assurance  
  
Description of practices and guidelines for quality assurance followed at your agency.   
  
  
  
UNISDR Regional Office will have a regular contact with National Sendai Framework Focal Points (data providers).   
  
  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
Sendai Framework Monitor, reported to UNISDR  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
The national Sendai Framework Focal Points will compile all inputs from their line ministries, NSO, and other entities, if appropriate, and report through the Sendai Framework Monitoring System.  
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
UNISDR conducted the Sendai Framework Data Readiness Review which 87 Member States responded between February and April in 2017.   
  
  
  
In Q1 2018 all Member States will be invited to start reporting. Since in the previous monitoring approximately 100 countries reported their National HFA Monitor in each cycle, we expect the similar number of reporting.  
  
   
  
Time series:  
  
from 2015  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
2015 -   
  
  
  
Data release:   
  
Every year from Q2 2018   
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
  
  
National Sendai Framework Focal Points usually represent the coordinating lead institution chairing the National DRR platform which is comprised of special purpose agencies including national disaster agencies, civil protection agencies, and meteorological agencies.  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
UNISDR  
  
  
  
References  
  
  
  
URL:  
  
  
  
http://www.preventionweb.net/files/50683\_oiewgreportenglish.pdf  
  
http://www.preventionweb.net/english/hyogo/progress/  
  
http://www.preventionweb.net/events/view/55594 <uploaded soon>  
  
  
  
References:  
  
  
  
Report of the open-ended intergovernmental expert working group on indicators and terminology relating to disaster risk reduction [A/71/644]  
  
The IAEG-SDGs and the UN Statistical Commission deferred the responsibility for the further refinement and development of the methodology for disaster-related SDGs indicators to the OIEWG and formally adopted the OIEWG Report.  
  
  
  
Hyogo Framework for Action Progress Reports  
  
During the four reporting cycles the HFA Monitor has generated the world’s largest repository of information on national DRR policy inter alia.  
  
  
  
Technical guidance for monitoring and reporting on progress in achieving the global targets of the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction (Draft)  
  
The latest version will be available on-line in early November  
  
  
  
  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020  
  
  
  
1.5; 11.5; 11.b; 13.1; 2.4; 3.6; 3.9; 3.d; 4.a; 6.6; 9.1; 9.a; 11.1; 11.3; 11.c; 13.2; 13.3; 13.a; 13.b; 14.2; 15.1; 15.2; 15.3; 15.9.

**Poverty**



From top-left to bottom-right or top to bottom (mobile): a mother with her [malnourished](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Malnutrition) child in a clinic near [Dadaab,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dadaab) [Kenya;](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kenya) a homeless man in [Toronto,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Toronto) Ontario, Canada; a [disabled](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Disability) man begging in the streets of [Beijing,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Beijing) [China;](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/China) [waste pickers,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Waste_pickers) dated 30 April 2008, [Lucknow,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lucknow) [India](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/India)[[1]](#page24)

**Poverty** is not having enough material possessions or [income](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Income) for a person's needs. Poverty may include [social,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social) [economic,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic) and [political](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political) elements.



[*Absolute poverty*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Absolute_poverty) isthe complete lack of the means necessary to meet basic personal needs, such as [food,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Food) [clothing](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Clothing) and [shelter.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Shelter_(building))[[2]](#page24) The threshold at which *absolute poverty* is defined is always about the same, independent of the person's permanent location or era.



On the other hand, [*relative poverty*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Relative_poverty) occurs when a person cannot meet a minimum level of [living standards,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Living_standards) compared to others in the same time and place. Therefore, the threshold at which *relative poverty* is defined varies from one country to another, or from one [society](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Society) to another.[[3]](#page24) For example, a person who cannot afford housing better than a small tent in an open field would be said to live in relative poverty if almost everyone else in that area lives in modern brick homes, but not if everyone else also lives in small tents in open fields (for example, in a [nomadic tribe)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nomadic_tribe).



Governments and non-governmental organizations try to reduce poverty. Providing basic needs to people who are unable to earn a sufficient income can be hampered by constraints on government's ability to deliver services, such as [corruption,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Corruption) [tax avoidance,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tax_avoidance) [debt](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Developing_countries'_debt) and [loan conditionalities](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Conditionality) and by the [brain drain](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Brain_drain) of health care and educational professionals. Strategies of increasing income



to make basic needs more affordable typically include [welfare,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Welfare) [economic freedoms](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic_freedom) and providing financial services.[[4]](#page24)



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**Global prevalence**



In 2012 it was estimated that, using a poverty line of $1.25 a day, 1.2 billion people lived in poverty.[[5]](#page24) Given the current economic model, built on [GDP,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gross_domestic_product) it would take 100 years to



bring the world's poorest up to the poverty line of $1.25 a day.[[6]](#page24) [UNICEF](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/UNICEF) estimates half the world's children (or 1.1 billion) live in poverty.[[7]](#page24)



The World Bank forecasted in 2015 that [702.1 million people](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Global_Monitoring_Report_(World_Bank)) were living in extreme poverty, down from 1.75 billion in 1990.[[8]](#page24) Extreme poverty is observed in all parts of the world, including developed economies.[[9][10]](#page24) Of the 2015 population, about 347.1 million [people (35.2%) lived in Sub-Saharan Africa and 231.3 million (13.5%) lived in South](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Global_Monitoring_Report_(World_Bank)) [Asia. According to the World Bank, between 1990 and 2015, the percentage of the world's](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Global_Monitoring_Report_(World_Bank))



A woman [begging](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Beggar) in Carrer del Bisbe, Barcelona, Spain.



[population living in extreme poverty fell from 37.1% to 9.6%, falling below 10% for the first time.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/People's_Republic_of_China)[[11]](#page24) [The People's Republic of](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/People's_Republic_of_China) [China accounts for over three quarters of global poverty reduction from 1990 to 2005. Though, as noted, China accounted for](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/People's_Republic_of_China)



nearly half of all [extreme poverty](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Extreme_poverty) in 1990.[[12]](#page24) In [public opinion](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Public_opinion) around the world people surveyed tend to incorrectly think extreme poverty hasn't decreased.[[13][14]](#page24)



During the 2013 to 2015 period [The World Bank](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_World_Bank) reported that extreme poverty fell from 11% to 10%, however they also noted that the rate of decline had slowed by nearly half from the 25 year average with parts of sub-saharan Africa returning to early 2000 levels.[[15][16]](#page24) The World Bank attributed this to increasing violence following the [Arab Spring,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Arab_Spring) [population increases](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Population_growth) in Sub-Saharan Africa, and general African inflationary pressures and economic malaise were the primary drivers for this slow



[down.[17][18]](#page24)

There is disagreement among experts as to what would be considered a realistic poverty rate with one considering it "an inaccurately measured and arbitrary cut off".[[19]](#page25) Some contend that a higher poverty line is needed, such as a minimum of $7.40 or even $10 to $15 a day. They argue that these levels would better reflect the cost of basic needs and normal life expectancy.[[20]](#page25) One estimate places the true scale of poverty much higher than the World Bank, with an estimated 4.3 billion people (59% of the world's population) living with less than $5 a day and unable to meet basic needs adequately.[[21]](#page25) It has been argued by some academics that the [neoliberal](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neoliberal) policies promoted by global financial institutions such as the [IMF](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/International_Monetary_Fund) and the World Bank are actually



exacerbating both inequality and poverty.[[22][23]](#page25)

An [data based](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Empirical_evidence) scientific [empirical research,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Empirical_research) which studied the impact of [dynastic politics](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_family) on the level of poverty of the provinces, found a [positive correlation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Correlation_and_dependence) between dynastic politics and poverty i.e. the higher proportion of dynastic politicians in power in a



province leads to higher poverty rate.[[24]](#page25) There is significant evidence that these political dynasties use their political dominance over their respective regions to enrich themselves, using methods such as graft or outright bribery of legislators.[[25]](#page25)

**Definitions and etymology**



Poverty is the scarcity or the lack of a certain (variant) amount of material possessions or money.[[26]](#page25) The word *poverty* comes from the old (Norman) French word *poverté* (Modern French: *pauvreté),* from Latin *paupertās* from *pauper* (poor).[[27]](#page25)

There are several definitions of poverty depending on the context of the situation it is placed in, and the views of the person giving the definition.

Income Poverty: a family's income fails to meet a federally established threshold that differs across countries.[[28]](#page25)

[United Nations:](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Nations) Fundamentally, poverty is the inability of having choices and opportunities, a violation of human dignity. It means lack of basic capacity to participate effectively in society. It means not having enough to feed and clothe a family, not having a school or clinic to go to, not having the land on which to grow one's food or a job to earn one's living, not having access to credit. It means insecurity, powerlessness and exclusion of individuals, households and communities. It means susceptibility to violence, and it often implies living in marginal or fragile environments, without access to clean water or sanitation.[[29]](#page25)



[World Bank:](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Bank) Poverty is pronounced deprivation in well-being, and comprises many [dimensions.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dimension) It includes low incomes and the inability to acquire the basic goods and services necessary for [survival](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Survival_skills) with dignity. Poverty also encompasses low levels of health and education, poor access to clean water and sanitation, inadequate physical security, lack of voice, and insufficient capacity and opportunity to better one's life.[[30]](#page25)



Poverty is usually measured as either [absolute](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Extreme_poverty) or [relative](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Relative_deprivation) (the latter being actually an index of [income inequality)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic_inequality).



In the [United Kingdom,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Kingdom) the [second Cameron ministry](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Second_Cameron_ministry) came under attack for their redefinition of poverty; poverty is no longer classified by a family's income, but as to whether a family is in work or not.[[31]](#page25) Considering that two-thirds of people who found work were accepting wages that are below the living wage (according to the [Joseph Rowntree Foundation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Joseph_Rowntree_Foundation)[[32]](#page25)) this has been criticised by anti-poverty campaigners as an unrealistic view of poverty in the United Kingdom.[[31]](#page25)



**Measuring poverty**



**Absolute poverty**

Absolute poverty refers to a set standard which is consistent over time and between countries. First introduced in 1990, the dollar a day poverty line measured absolute poverty by the standards of the world's poorest countries. The [World Bank](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Bank) defined the new



international poverty line as $1.25 a day in 2008 for 2005 (equivalent to $1.00 a day in 1996 US prices).[[33][34]](#page25) In October 2015, they reset it to $1.90 a day.[[35]](#page25)

Absolute poverty, extreme poverty, or abject poverty is "a condition characterized by severe deprivation of basic human needs, including food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information. It depends not only on income but also on access to services."[[36]](#page25) The term 'absolute poverty', when used in this fashion, is usually synonymous with 'extreme poverty': [Robert McNamara,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Robert_McNamara) the former president of the World Bank, described absolute or extreme poverty as, "a condition so limited by [malnutrition,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Malnutrition) [illiteracy,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Illiteracy) disease, squalid surroundings, high [infant mortality,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Infant_mortality) and low [life expectancy](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Life_expectancy) as to be beneath



any reasonable definition of human decency."[[37][notes 1][38]](#page26) Australia is one of the world's wealthier nations. In his article published in Australian Policy Online, Robert Tanton notes that, "While this amount is appropriate for third world countries, in Australia, the amount required to meet these basic needs will naturally be much higher because prices of these basic necessities are higher."

However, as the amount of wealth required for survival is not the same in all places and time periods, particularly in highly developed countries where few people would fall below the World Bank Group's poverty lines, countries often develop their own national poverty lines.

An absolute poverty line was calculated in Australia for the Henderson poverty inquiry in 1973. It was $62.70 a week, which was the disposable income required to support the basic needs of a family of two adults and two dependent children at the time. This poverty line has been updated regularly by the Melbourne Institute according to increases in average incomes; for a single employed person it was $391.85 per week (including housing costs) in March 2009.[[39]](#page26) In Australia the OECD poverty would equate to a "disposable income of less than $358 per week for a single adult (higher for larger households to take account of their greater costs).[[40]](#page26) in 2015 Australia implemented the [Individual Deprivation Measure](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Individual_Deprivation_Measure) which address gender disparities in poverty.[[41]](#page26)



For a few years starting 1990, the World Bank anchored absolute poverty line as $1 per day. This was revised in 1993, and through 2005, absolute poverty was $1.08 a day for all countries on a [purchasing power parity](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Purchasing_power_parity) basis, after adjusting for inflation to the 1993 U.S. dollar. In 2005, after extensive studies of cost of living across the world, The World Bank raised the measure for global poverty line to reflect the observed higher cost of living.[[42]](#page26) In 2015, the [World Bank](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Bank_Group) defines [extreme poverty](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Extreme_poverty) as living on less than US$1.90 [(PPP)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Purchasing_power_parity) per day, and *moderate poverty* as less than $2 or $5 a day (but note that a person or family with access to subsistence resources, e.g., [subsistence farmers,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Subsistence_farmers) may have a low cash income without a correspondingly low standard of living – they are not living "on" their cash income but using it as a top up). It estimated that "in 2001, 1.1 billion people had consumption levels below $1 a day and 2.7 billion lived on less than $2 a day."[[43]](#page26) A 'dollar a day', in nations that do not use the U.S. dollar as currency, does not translate to living a day on the equivalent amount of local currency as determined by the [exchange rate.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Exchange_rate)[[44]](#page26) Rather, it is determined by the [purchasing power parity](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Purchasing_power_parity) rate, which would look at how much local currency is needed to buy the



same things that a dollar could buy in the United States.[[44]](#page26) Usually, this would translate to less local currency than the exchange rate in poorer countries as the United States is a relatively more expensive country.[[44]](#page26)

The poverty line threshold of $1.90 per day, as set by the World Bank, is controversial. Each nation has its own threshold for absolute poverty line; in the United States, for example, the absolute poverty line was US$15.15 per day in 2010 (US$22,000 per year for a family of four),[[45]](#page26) while in India it was US$1.0 per day[[46]](#page26) and in China the absolute poverty line was US$0.55 per day, each on PPP basis in 2010.[[47]](#page26) These different poverty lines make data comparison between each nation's official reports qualitatively difficult. Some scholars argue that the World Bank method sets the bar too high, others argue it is low. Still others suggest that poverty line misleads as it measures everyone below the poverty line the same, when in reality someone living on

$1.20 per day is in a different state of poverty than someone living on $0.20 per day. In other words, the depth and intensity of poverty varies across the world and in any regional populations, and $1.25 per day poverty line and head counts are inadequate measures.[[46][48][49]](#page26)



Children of the [Depression](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Great_Depression)-era migrant workers, Arizona, United States, 1937

The share of the world's population living in absolute poverty fell from 43% in 1981 to 14% in 2011.[[43]](#page26) The absolute number of people in poverty fell from 1.95 billion in 1981 to 1.01 billion in 2011.[[50]](#page26) The economist [Max Roser](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Max_Roser) estimates that the number of people in poverty is therefore roughly the same as 200 years ago.[[50]](#page26) This is the case since the world population was just little more than 1 billion in 1820 and the majority (84% to 94%[[51]](#page26)) of the world population was living poverty. The proportion of the [developing world's](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Developing_world) population living in extreme economic poverty fell from 28 percent in 1990 to 21 percent in



2001.[[43]](#page26) Most of this improvement has occurred in [East](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/East_Asia) and South Asia.[[52]](#page26) In East Asia the World Bank reported that "The poverty headcount rate at the $2-a-day level is estimated to have fallen to about 27 percent [in 2007], down from 29.5 percent in 2006 and 69 percent in 1990."[[53]](#page27) In [Sub-Saharan Africa](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sub-Saharan_Africa) extreme poverty went up from 41 percent in 1981 to 46 percent in 2001,[[54]](#page27) which combined with growing population increased the number of people living in extreme poverty from 231 million to



318 million.[[55]](#page27)

In the early 1990s some of the transition economies of Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia experienced a sharp drop in income.[[56]](#page27) The [collapse of the Soviet Union](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Collapse_of_the_Soviet_Union) resulted in large declines in GDP per capita, of about 30 to 35% between 1990 and



the through year of 1998 (when it was at its minimum). As a result, poverty rates tripled,[[57]](#page27) excess mortality increased,[[58]](#page27) and life expectancy declined.[[59]](#page27) In subsequent years as per capita incomes recovered the poverty rate dropped from 31.4% of the population to 19.6%.[[60][61]](#page27) The average post-communist country had returned to 1989 levels of per-capita GDP by 2005,[[62]](#page27) although as of 2015 some are still far behind that.[[63]](#page27) According to an article in *Foreign Affairs*, there were generally three paths to economic reform taken post Soviet collapse. Those nations that took a "radical" or "gradual" reform rate have GDP per capita similar to other nations in their stage of economic development at generally 150% of their transition year (1991) GDP. Nations that took a "slow" approach (an approach that limited free market reforms generally) had much slower, and lower economic growth, higher Gini coefficients, and poorer health outcomes. Currently, those nations sit at 125% of their transition year GDP per capita.[[64]](#page27) A 2009 study published in [*The Lancet*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_Lancet) suggested that radical economic changes and the resulting short term unemployment led to temporary increases in the mortality rate of adult males.[[65]](#page27)



World Bank data shows that the percentage of the population living in households with consumption or income per person below the poverty line has decreased in each region of the world since 1990:[[66][67]](#page27)

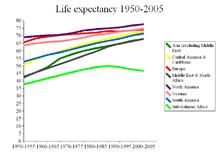
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Region** |  | **$1 per day** |  |  | **$1.25 per day**[[68]](#page27) |  | | | |
| **1990** |  | **2002** |  | **2004** |  | **1981** | **2008** |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| East Asia and Pacific | 15.4% |  | 12.3% |  | 9.1% |  | 77.2% | 14.3% |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Europe and Central Asia | 3.6% |  | 1.3% |  | 1.0% |  | 1.9% | 0.5% |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Latin America and the Caribbean | 9.6% |  | 9.1% |  | 8.6% |  | 11.9% | 6.5% |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Middle East and North Africa | 2.1% |  | 1.7% |  | 1.5% |  | 9.6% | 2.7% |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| South Asia | 35.0% |  | 33.4% |  | 30.8% |  | 61.1% | 36% |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Sub-Saharan Africa | 46.1% |  | 42.6% |  | 41.1% |  | 51.5% | 47.5% |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| **World** |  |  |  |  |  |  | **52.2%** | **22.4%** |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

According to Chen and Ravallion, about 1.76 billion people in developing world lived *above* $1.25 per day and 1.9 billion people lived *below* $1.25 per day in 1981. The world's population increased over the next 25 years. In 2005, about 4.09 billion people in developing world lived above $1.25 per day and 1.4 billion people lived below $1.25 per day (both 1981 and 2005 data are on inflation adjusted basis).[[69][70]](#page28) Some scholars caution that these trends are subject to various assumptions and not certain. Additionally, they note that the poverty reduction is not uniform across the world; economically prospering countries such as China, India and Brazil have made more progress in absolute poverty reduction than countries in other regions of the world.[[71]](#page28)

The absolute poverty measure trends noted above are supported by human development indicators, which have also been improving. [Life expectancy](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Life_expectancy) has greatly increased in the developing world since World War II and is starting to close the gap to the developed world. [Child mortality](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Child_mortality) has decreased in every



Life expectancy has been increasing and converging for most of the world. Sub-Saharan Africa has recently seen a decline, partly related to the [AIDS epidemic.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/AIDS_epidemic) Graph shows the years 1950–2005.



developing region of the world.[[72]](#page28) The proportion of the world's population living in countries where per-capita food supplies are less than 2,200 calories (9,200 [kilojoules)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kilojoule) per day decreased from 56% in the mid-1960s to below 10% by the 1990s. Similar



trends can be observed for literacy, access to clean water and electricity and basic consumer items.[[73]](#page28)

**Relative poverty**

[Relative poverty views poverty as socially defined and dependent on social](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_context) [context, hence relative poverty is a measure of income inequality. Usually,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_context) relative poverty is measured as the percentage of the population with income less than some fixed proportion of median income. There are several other different [income inequality metrics,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Income_inequality_metrics) for example, the [Gini coefficient](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gini_coefficient) or the [Theil Index.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Theil_Index)



Relative poverty is the "most useful measure for ascertaining poverty rates in wealthy developed nations".[[74][75][76][77][78]](#page28) Relative poverty measure is used [by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), the United Nations](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/UNICEF) [Children's Fund (UNICEF), the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Organisation_for_Economic_Co-operation_and_Development)

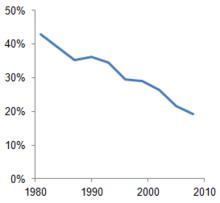


[Development (OECD) and Canadian poverty researchers.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Organisation_for_Economic_Co-operation_and_Development)[[74][75][76][77][78]](#page28) [In](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Organisation_for_Economic_Co-operation_and_Development) the European Union, the "relative poverty measure is the most prominent and most-quoted of the EU social inclusion indicators".[[79]](#page28)



"Relative poverty reflects better the cost of social inclusion and equality of opportunity in a specific time and space."[[80]](#page28)

This graph shows the proportion of world population in [extreme poverty](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Extreme_poverty) [1981–2008 according to the World](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Bank) [Bank.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Bank)



"Once economic development has progressed beyond a certain minimum level, the rub of the poverty problem – from the point of view of both the poor individual and of the societies in which they live – is not so much the effects of poverty in any absolute form but the effects of the contrast, daily perceived, between the lives of the poor and the lives of those around them. For practical purposes, the problem of poverty in the industrialized nations today is a problem of relative poverty (page 9)."[[80][81]](#page28)

In 1776 Adam Smith in the Wealth of Nations argued that poverty is the inability to afford, "not only the commodities which are indispensably necessary for the support of life but whatever the custom of the country renders it indecent for creditable people, even of the lowest order, to be without".[[82][83]](#page28)

In 1958 [J. K. Galbraith](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/John_Kenneth_Galbraith) argued that "People are poverty stricken when their income, even if adequate for survival, falls markedly behind that of their community."[[83][84]](#page28)



In 1964 in a joint committee economic President's report in the United States, Republicans endorsed the concept of relative poverty. "No objective definition of poverty exists... The definition varies from place to place and time to time. In America as our standard of living rises, so does our idea of what is substandard."[[83][85]](#page28)

In 1965 [Rose Friedman](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rose_Friedman) argued for the use of relative poverty claiming that the definition of poverty changes with general living



standards. Those labeled as poor in 1995 would have had "a higher standard of living than many labeled not poor" in 1965.[[83][86]](#page28)

In 1979, British sociologist, [Peter Townsend](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Peter_Townsend_(sociologist)) published his famous definition, "individuals ... can be said to be in poverty when they lack the resources to obtain the types of diet, participate in the activities and have the living conditions and amenities which are customary, or are at least widely encouraged or approved, in the societies to which they belong (page 31)".[[87]](#page28) This definition and measurement of poverty was profoundly linked to the idea that poverty and societal participation are deeply associated.[[88]](#page29)



[Peter Townsend](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Peter_Townsend_(sociologist)) transformed the conception of poverty, viewing it not simply as lack of income but as the configuration of the



economic conditions that prevent people from being full members of the society.[[87][88]](#page29) Poverty reduces the ability of people to participate in society, effectively denying them full citizenship (as suggested by [T.H. Marshall)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/T.H._Marshall). Given that there are no universal principles by which to determine the minimum threshold of participation equating to full membership of society, Townsend argued that the appropriate measure would necessarily be relative to any particular cultural context. He suggested that in each society there should be an empirically determinable 'breakpoint' within the income distribution below which participation of individuals collapses, providing a scientific basis for fixing a poverty line and determining the extent of poverty.[[88]](#page29)



Brian Nolan and Christopher T. Whelan of the Economic and Social Research Institute (ESRI) in Ireland explained that "Poverty has to be seen in terms of the standard of living of the society in question."[[89]](#page29)

Relative poverty measures are used as official poverty rates by the European Union, UNICEF, and the OEDC. The main poverty line used in the [OECD](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/OECD) and the [European Union](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/European_Union) is based on "economic distance", a level of income set at 60% of the median



household income.[[90]](#page29)

Many wealthy nations have seen an increase in relative poverty rates ever since the [Great Recession,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Great_Recession) in particular among children from impoverished families who often reside in substandard housing and find educational opportunities out of reach.[[91]](#page29)



**Secondary poverty**

Secondary poverty refers to those that earn enough income to not be impoverished, but who spend their income on unnecessary pleasures, such as [alcoholic beverages,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alcoholic_beverage) thus placing them below it in practice.[[92]](#page29)



In 18th- and 19th-century [Great Britain,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Great_Britain) the practice of [temperance](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Temperance_movement) among [Methodists,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Methodist) as well as their rejection of [gambling,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gambling" \l "Religious) allowed them to eliminate secondary poverty and accumulate capital.[[93]](#page29)



**Other aspects**

Economic aspects of poverty focus on material needs, typically including the necessities of daily living, such as food, clothing, shelter, or safe drinking water. Poverty in this sense may be understood as a condition in which a person or community is lacking in the basic needs for a minimum standard of well-being and life, particularly as a result of a persistent lack of income. The increase in poverty runs parallel sides with unemployment, hunger, and higher crime rate.

Analysis of social aspects of poverty links conditions of scarcity to aspects of the distribution of resources and power in a society and recognizes that poverty may be a function of the diminished "capability" of people to live the kinds of lives they value. The [social aspects of poverty may include lack of access to information, education, health care, social capital or political](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_power)



[power.[88][94][95]](#page29)

Poverty levels are snapshot pictures in time that omits the transitional dynamics between levels. Mobility statistics supply additional information about the fraction who leave the poverty level. For example, one study finds that in a sixteen-year period (1975 to 1991 in the U.S.) only 5% of those in the lower fifth of the income level were still at that level, while 95% transitioned to a higher income category.[[96]](#page29) Poverty levels can remain the same while those who rise out of poverty are replaced by others. The transient poor and chronic poor differ in each society. In a nine-year period ending in 2005 for the U.S., 50% of the poorest quintile transitioned to a higher quintile.[[97]](#page29)

Poverty may also be understood as an aspect of unequal [social status](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_status) and inequitable social relationships, experienced as social exclusion, dependency, and diminished capacity to participate, or to develop meaningful connections with other people in society.[[98][99][87]](#page28) Such social exclusion can be minimized through strengthened connections with the mainstream, such as through the provision of [relational care](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Relational_care) to those who are experiencing poverty.



The World Bank's "Voices of the Poor," based on research with over 20,000 poor people in 23 countries, identifies a range of factors which poor people identify as part of poverty. These include:

Abuse by those in power



Dis-empowering institutions



Excluded locations



Gender relationships



Lack of security



Limited capabilities



Physical limitations



Precarious livelihoods



Problems in social relationships



Weak community organizations



Discrimination



An early morning outside the Opera Tavern in Stockholm, with a gang of beggars waiting for delivery of the scraps from the previous day. [Sweden,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sweden) 1868.



David Moore, in his book *The World Bank*, argues that some analysis of poverty reflect pejorative, sometimes racial, stereotypes of impoverished people as powerless victims and passive recipients of aid programs.[[100]](#page29)

Ultra-poverty, a term apparently coined by Michael Lipton,[[101]](#page29) connotes being amongst poorest of the poor in low-income countries. Lipton defined ultra-poverty as receiving less than 80 percent of minimum caloric intake whilst spending more than 80% of income on food. Alternatively a 2007 report issued by International Food Policy Research Institute defined ultra-poverty as living on less than 54 cents per day.[[102]](#page29)

[Asset poverty](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Asset_poverty) is an economic and social condition that is more persistent and prevalent than income poverty.[[103]](#page29) It can be defined as a household's inability to access wealth resources that are enough to provide for basic needs for a period of three months. Basic needs refer to the minimum standards for consumption and acceptable needs.Wealth resources consist of home ownership, other real estate (second home, rented properties, etc.), net value of farm and business assets, stocks, checking and savings accounts, and other savings (money in savings bonds, life insurance policy cash values, etc.).Wealth is measured in three forms: net worth, net worth minus home equity, and liquid assets. Net worth consists of all the aspects mentioned above. Net worth minus home equity is the same except it does not include home ownership in asset calculations. Liquid assets are resources that are readily available such as cash, checking and savings accounts, stocks, and other sources of savings. There are two types of assets: tangible and intangible. Tangible assets most closely resemble liquid assets in that they include stocks, bonds, property, natural resources, and hard assets not in the form of real estate. Intangible assets are simply the access to credit, [social capital,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_capital) [cultural capital,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cultural_capital) [political capital,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_capital) and [human capital.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Human_capital)



**Characteristics**



The effects of poverty may also be causes as listed above, thus creating a "poverty cycle" operating across multiple levels, individual, local, national and global.

**Impact on health and mortality**

One third of deaths around the world – some 18 million people a year or 50,000 per day – are due to poverty-related causes. People living in developing nations, among them women and children, are over represented among the global poor and these effects of severe poverty.[[104][105][106]](#page29) Those living in poverty suffer disproportionately from hunger or even [starvation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Starvation) and disease, as well as lower



[life expectancy.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Life_expectancy)[[107][108]](#page29) According to the [World Health Organization,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Health_Organization) [hunger](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hunger) and [malnutrition](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Malnutrition) are the single gravest threats to the world's public health and malnutrition is by far the biggest contributor to [child mortality,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Child_mortality) present in half of all cases.[[109]](#page29)



Almost 90% of [maternal deaths](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Maternal_death) during childbirth occur in Asia and sub-Saharan



A [Somali](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Diplomatic_and_humanitarian_efforts_in_the_Somali_Civil_War) boy receiving treatment for malnourishment at a health facility.



Africa, compared to less than 1% in the developed world.[[110]](#page30) Those who live in poverty have also been shown to have a far greater likelihood of having or incurring a [disability](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Disability_and_Poverty) within their lifetime.[[111]](#page30) [Infectious diseases](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Infectious_diseases) such as [malaria](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Malaria) and [tuberculosis](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tuberculosis) can perpetuate poverty by diverting health and economic resources from investment and productivity; malaria decreases GDP growth by up to 1.3% in some [developing nations](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Developing_country) and AIDS decreases African growth by 0.3–1.5% annually.[[112][113][114]](#page30)



Poverty has been shown to impede cognitive function. One way in which this may happen is that financial worries put a severe burden on one's mental resources so that they are no longer fully available for solving complicated problems. The reduced capability for problem solving can lead to suboptimal decisions and further perpetuate poverty.[[115]](#page30) Many other pathways from poverty to compromised cognitive capacities have been noted, from poor nutrition and environmental toxins to the effects of stress on parenting behavior, all of which lead to suboptimal psychological development.[[116][117]](#page30) Neuroscientists have documented the impact of poverty on brain structure and function throughout the lifespan.[[118]](#page30)

Infectious diseases continue to blight the lives of the poor across the world. An estimated 40 million people are living with HIV/AIDS, with 3 million deaths in 2004. Every year there are 350–500 million cases of malaria, with 1 million fatalities: Africa accounts for 90 percent of malarial deaths and African children account for over 80 percent of malaria victims worldwide.[[119]](#page30)

**Hunger**

Rises in the costs of living make poor people less able to afford items. Poor people spend a [greater portion of their budgets](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Engel's_law) on food than wealthy people. As a result, poor households and those near the poverty threshold can be particularly vulnerable to increases in [food prices.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Food" \l "Prices) For example, in late 2007 increases in the price of grains[[120]](#page30) led to [food riots](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2007–2008_world_food_price_crisis) in some countries.[[121][122][123]](#page30) The [World Bank](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Bank) warned that 100 million people were at risk of sinking deeper into poverty.[[124]](#page30) Threats



to the supply of food may also be caused by drought and the [water crisis.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Water_crisis)[[125]](#page30) [Intensive farming](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Intensive_farming) often leads to a vicious cycle of



exhaustion of [soil fertility](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Erosion) and decline of [agricultural yields.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Agricultural_yields)[[126]](#page31) Approximately 40% of the world's [agricultural land](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Agricultural_land) is seriously



degraded.[[127][128]](#page31) In [Africa,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Poverty_in_Africa) if current trends of [soil degradation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Soil_degradation) continue, the continent might be able to feed just 25% of its



population by 2025, according to [United Nations University's](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Nations_University) Ghana-based Institute for Natural Resources in Africa.[[129]](#page31) Every year nearly 11 million children living in poverty die before their fifth birthday. 1.02 billion people go to bed hungry every night.[[130]](#page31)



According to the [Global Hunger Index,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Global_Hunger_Index) Sub-Saharan Africa had the highest child malnutrition rate of the world's regions over the 2001–2006 period.[[131]](#page31)



The Associated Press reports that people gather every evening in downtown Caracas in search of food thrown out on sidewalks

due to 90% of Venezuela's population living in poverty. [[132]](#page31)

**Efforts to end hunger and undernutrition**

As part of the [Sustainable Development Goals](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sustainable_Development_Goals) the global community has made the elimination of hunger and undernutrition a priority for the coming years. While the Goal 2 of the SDGs aims to reach this goal by 2030[[133]](#page31) a number of initiatives aim to achieve the goal 5 years earlier, by 2025:



The partnership [Compact2025 (http://www.compact2025.org),](http://www.compact2025.org/) led by [IFPRI](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/International_Food_Policy_Research_Institute) with the involvement of UN organisations, NGOs



and private foundations[[134]](#page31) develops and disseminates evidence-based advice to politicians and other decision-makers aimed at ending hunger and undernutrition in the coming 10 years, by 2025.[[135]](#page31) It bases its claim that hunger can be ended by 2025 on a report by [Shenggen Fan](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Shenggen_Fan) and [Paul Polman](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Paul_Polman) that



A Venezuelan eating from garbage during the [crisis in Bolivarian Venezuela](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Crisis_in_Bolivarian_Venezuela)



analyzed the experiences from China, Vietnam, Brazil and Thailand.[[136]](#page31)



The [European Union](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/European_Union) and the [Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bill_%26_Melinda_Gates_Foundation) have launched a partnership to combat Undernutrition in June 2015. The program will initiatilly be implemented in Bangladesh, Burundi, Ethiopia, Kenya, Laos and Niger and will help these countries to improve information and analysis about nutrition so they can



develop effective national nutrition policies.[[137]](#page31)

[The Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN has created a partnership that will act through the African](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/African_Union) [Union's CAADP framework aiming to end hunger in Africa by 2025. It includes different interventions including](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/African_Union) support for improved food production, a strengthening of social protection and integration of the right to food into



national legislation.[[138]](#page31)

**Education**

Research has found that there is a high risk of educational underachievement for children who are from low-income housing circumstances. This is often a process that begins in primary school for some less fortunate children. Instruction in the US educational system, as well as in most other countries, tends to be geared towards those students who come from more advantaged backgrounds. As a result, children in poverty are at a higher risk than advantaged children for retention in their grade, special deleterious placements during the school's hours and even not completing their high school education.[[139]](#page31) Advantage breeds advantage.[[140]](#page31) There are indeed many explanations for why students tend to drop out of school. One is the conditions of which they attend school. Schools in poverty-stricken areas have conditions that hinder children from learning in a safe environment. Researchers have developed a name for areas like this: an urban war zone is a poor, crime-laden district in which deteriorated, violent, even war-like conditions and underfunded, largely ineffective schools promote inferior academic performance, including irregular attendance and disruptive or non-compliant classroom behavior.[[141]](#page31) Because of poverty, "Students from low-income families are 2.4 times more likely to drop out than middle-income kids, and over 10 times more likely than high-income peers to drop out"[[142]](#page31)

[For children with low resources, the risk factors are similar to others such as juvenile delinquency rates, higher levels of teenage](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Teenage_pregnancy)



[pregnancy, and the economic dependency upon their low-income parent or parents.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Teenage_pregnancy)[[139]](#page31) [Families and society who submit low](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Teenage_pregnancy) levels of investment in the education and development of less fortunate children end up with less favorable results for the children who see a life of parental employment reduction and low wages. Higher rates of early [childbearing](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pregnancy) with all the connected risks to



family, health and well-being are major important issues to address since education from preschool to high school are both identifiably meaningful in a life.[[139]](#page31)

Poverty often drastically affects children's success in school. A child's "home activities, preferences, mannerisms" must align with the world and in the cases that they do not do these, students are at a disadvantage in the school and, most importantly, the classroom.[[143]](#page31) Therefore, it is safe to state that children who live at or below the poverty level will have far less success educationally than children who live above the poverty line. Poor children have a great deal less healthcare and this ultimately results in many absences from the academic year. Additionally, poor children are much more likely to suffer from hunger, fatigue, irritability, headaches, ear infections, flu, and colds.[[143]](#page31) These illnesses could potentially restrict a child or student's focus and concentration.[[144]](#page31)

For a child to grow up emotionally healthy, the children under three need "A strong, reliable primary caregiver who provides consistent and unconditional love, guidance, and support. Safe, predictable, stable environments. Ten to 20 hours each week of harmonious, reciprocal interactions. This process, known as attunement, is most crucial during the first 6–24 months of infants' lives and helps them develop a wider range of healthy emotions, including gratitude, forgiveness, and empathy. Enrichment through personalized, increasingly complex activities".

Harmful spending habits mean that the poor typically spend about 2 percent of their income educating their children but larger percentages of alcohol and tobacco (For example, 6 percent in Indonesia and 8 percent in Mexico).[[145]](#page31)

**Participation**

Poverty has been also considered a real social phenomenon reflecting more the consequences of a lack of income than the lack of income per *se* (Ferragina et al. 2016[[88]](#page29)). According to Townsend: humans are social animals entangled in a web of relationships, which exert complex and changing pressures, as much in their consumption of goods and services as in any other aspect of their behaviour (Townsend 1979[[87]](#page28)). This idea has received theoretical support from scholars and extensive testimony from people experiencing poverty across the globe (Walker 2014[[146]](#page31)). Participation and consumption have become ever more crucial mechanisms through which people establish and communicate their identity and position in society, increasing the premium attached to resources needed to participate (Giddens 1991[[147]](#page31)). In addition, the concept of social exclusion has been added to the lexicon of poverty related terms, describing the process by which people, especially those on low incomes, can become socially and politically detached from mainstream society and its associated resources and opportunities (Cantillon 1997[[148]](#page31)). Equally western society have become more complex with ethnic diversity, multi-culturalism and life-style choices raising the possibility that a single concept of poverty as conceived in the past might no longer apply (Ferragina et al. 2016[[88]](#page29)).

**Shelter**

Street child in [Bangladesh.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bangladesh) Aiding relatives financially unable to but willing to take in orphans is found to be more effective by cost and welfare than orphanages.[[149]](#page31)



orphans.[[149]](#page31)

Poverty increases the risk of [homelessness.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Homelessness)[[150]](#page32) Slum-dwellers, who make up a third of the world's urban population, live in a poverty no better, if not worse, [than rural people, who are the traditional focus of the poverty in the developing](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Developing_world) [world, according to a report by the United Nations.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Developing_world)[[151]](#page32)



There are over 100 million [street children](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Street_children) worldwide.[[152]](#page32) Most of the children living in institutions around the world have a surviving parent or close relative, and they most commonly entered orphanages because of poverty.[[149]](#page31) It is speculated that, flush with money, orphanages are increasing and push for children to join even though demographic data show that even the poorest extended families usually take in children whose parents have died.[[149]](#page31) Experts and child advocates maintain that orphanages are expensive and often harm children's [development](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Child_development) by separating them from their families and that it would be more effective and cheaper to aid close relatives who want to take in the



**Utilities**



Affordable household [toilets near Jaipur,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jaipur,_Rajasthan) [Rajasthan](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jaipur,_Rajasthan)

**Water and sanitation**

[As of 2012, 2.5 billion people lack access to sanitation services and 15% practice open](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open_defecation)



[defecation.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open_defecation)[[153]](#page32) [The most noteworthy example is Bangladesh, which has half the GDP per](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open_defecation) capita of India but has a lower mortality from diarrhea than India or the world average, with diarrhea deaths declining by 90% since the 1990s. Even while providing latrines is a challenge, people still do not use them even when available. By strategically providing pit latrines to the poorest, charities in Bangladesh sparked a cultural change as those better off perceived it as an issue of status to not use one. The vast majority of the latrines built were then not from charities but by villagers themselves.[[154]](#page32)



Water utility subsidies tend to subsidize water consumption by those connected to the supply grid, which is typically skewed towards the richer and urban segment of the population and those outside informal housing. As a result of heavy consumption subsidies, the price of water decreases to the extent that only 30%, on average, of the supplying costs in developing countries is covered.[[155][156]](#page32) This results in a lack of incentive to maintain delivery systems, leading to losses from leaks annually that are enough for 200 million people.[[155][157]](#page32) This also leads to a lack of incentive to invest in expanding the network, resulting in much of the poor population being unconnected to the network. Instead, the poor buy water from water vendors for, on average, about five to 16 times the metered price.[[155][158]](#page32) However, subsidies for laying new connections to the network rather than for consumption have shown more promise for the poor.[[156]](#page32)

**Electricity**

Similarly, the poorest fifth receive 0.1% of the world's lighting but pay a fifth of total spending on light, accounting for 25 to 30 percent of their income.[[159]](#page32) Indoor air pollution from burning fuels kills 2 million, with almost half the deaths from pneumonia in children under 5.[[160]](#page32) Fuel from Bamboo burns more cleanly and also matures much faster than wood, thus also reducing deforestation.[[160]](#page32) Additionally, using solar panels is promoted as being cheaper over the products' lifetime even if upfront costs are higher.[[159]](#page32) Thus, payment schemes such as lend-to-own programs are promoted and up to 14% of [Kenyan](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kenya) households use solar as their primary energy source.[[161]](#page32)



**Violence**

According to experts, many women become victims of trafficking, the most common form of which is [prostitution,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Survival_sex) as a means of survival and economic desperation.[[162]](#page32) Deterioration of living conditions can often compel children to abandon school to contribute to the family income, putting them at risk of being exploited.[[163]](#page32) For example, in [Zimbabwe,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Zimbabwe) a number of



girls are turning to sex in return for food to survive because of the increasing poverty.[[164]](#page32) According to studies, as poverty decreases there will be fewer and fewer instances of violence.[[165]](#page32)

The urban poor buy water from water vendors for, on average, about 5 to 16 times the metered price.[[155]](#page32)



In one survey, 67% of children from disadvantaged [inner cities](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Inner_city) said they had witnessed a serious assault, and 33% reported



witnessing a homicide.[[166]](#page32) 51% of fifth graders from [New Orleans](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/New_Orleans) (median income for a household: $27,133) have been found



to be victims of violence, compared to 32% in Washington, DC (mean income for a household: $40,127).[[167]](#page33)

**Personality**

[Max Weber](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Max_Weber) and some schools of [modernization theory](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Modernization_theory) suggest that cultural [values](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Value_(personal_and_cultural)) could affect economic success.[[168][169]](#page33) However, researchers have gathered evidence that suggest that values are not as deeply ingrained and that changing economic opportunities explain most of the movement into and out of poverty, as opposed to shifts in values.[[170]](#page33) Studies have shown that poverty changes the personalities of children who live in it. The [Great Smoky Mountains Study](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Great_Smoky_Mountains_Study) was a ten-year study that was able to demonstrate this. During the study, about one-quarter of the families saw a dramatic and unexpected increase in income. The study showed that among these children, instances of behavioral and emotional disorders decreased, and conscientiousness and agreeableness increased.[[171]](#page33)



One 2012 paper, based on a sampling of 9,646 U.S, adults, claimed that poverty tends to correlate with laziness and other such traits.[[172]](#page33) A 2018 report on poverty in the United States by UN special rapporteur [Philip Alston](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Philip_Alston) asserts that caricatured narratives about the rich and the poor, that "the rich are industrious, entrepreneurial, patriotic and the drivers of economic success. The poor are wasters, losers and scammers" are largely inaccurate, as "the poor are overwhelmingly those born into poverty, or those thrust there by circumstances largely beyond their control, such as physical or mental disabilities, divorce, family breakdown, illness, old age, unliveable wages or discrimination in the job market."[[173]](#page33)



**Discrimination**

Cultural factors, such as discrimination of various kinds, can negatively affect productivity such as [age discrimination,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ageism) [stereotyping,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stereotype)[[174]](#page33) discrimination against people with physical disability,[[175]](#page33) [gender discrimination,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sexism) [racial discrimination,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Racism) and [caste discrimination. Women are the group suffering from the highest rate of poverty after children; 14.5% of women and 22% of](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Poverty_in_the_United_States" \l "Poverty_and_age) [children are poor in the United States. In addition, the fact that women are more likely to be caregivers, regardless of income](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Poverty_in_the_United_States" \l "Poverty_and_age)



level, to either the generations before or after them, exacerbates the burdens of their poverty.[[176]](#page33) Marking the International Day for the Eradication of Poverty, the [United Nations Special Rapporteur on extreme poverty](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Nations_special_rapporteur) [Philip Alston](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Philip_Alston) warned in a statement that, “The world’s poor are at disproportionate risk of torture, arrest, early death and domestic violence, but their civil and political rights are being airbrushed out of the picture.” ... people in lower socio-economic classes are much more likely to get killed, tortured or experience an invasion of their privacy, and are far less likely to realize their right to vote, or otherwise participate in the political process.”[[177]](#page33)



**Poverty reduction**



Various poverty reduction strategies are broadly categorized based on whether they make more of the basic human needs available or whether they increase the [disposable income](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Disposable_income) needed to purchase those needs. Some strategies such as building roads can both bring access to various basic needs, such as fertilizer or healthcare from urban areas, as well as increase incomes, by bringing better access to urban markets. Statistics of 2018 shows population living in extreme conditions has declined by more than 1 billion in the last 25 years. As per the report published by the world bank on September 19, 2018 world poverty falls below 750 million.[[178]](#page33)



**Increasing the supply of basic needs**

**Food and other goods**

Agricultural technologies such as [nitrogen fertilizers,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nitrogen_fertilizer) pesticides, new seed varieties and new irrigation methods have dramatically



reduced food shortages in modern times by boosting yields past previous constraints.[[179]](#page33)

Before the [Industrial Revolution,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Industrial_Revolution) poverty had been mostly accepted as inevitable as economies produced little, making wealth



scarce.[[180]](#page33) Geoffrey Parker wrote that "In [Antwerp](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Antwerp) and [Lyon,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lyon) two of the largest cities in [western Europe,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Western_Europe) by 1600 three-quarters



of the total population were too poor to pay taxes, and therefore likely to need relief in times of crisis."[[181]](#page33) The initial industrial revolution led to high economic growth and eliminated mass absolute poverty in what is now considered the developed

world.[[182]](#page33) [Mass production](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mass_production) of goods in places such as rapidly industrializing China has made what were once considered luxuries, such as vehicles and computers, inexpensive and thus accessible to many who were otherwise too poor to afford them.[[183][184]](#page33)



Even with new products, such as better seeds, or greater volumes of them, such as industrial production, the poor still require access to these products. Improving [road](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Road) and transportation infrastructure helps solve this major bottleneck. In Africa, it costs more to move fertilizer from an African seaport 60 miles inland than to ship it from the United States to Africa because of sparse, low-quality roads, leading to fertilizer costs two to six times the world average.[[185]](#page33) [Microfranchising](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Microfranchising) models such as door to door distributors who earn commission-based income or [Coca-Cola's](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Coca-Cola) successful distribution



Spreading [fertilizer](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fertilizer) on a field of [Rapeseed near Barton-upon-Humber,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Barton-upon-Humber) [England](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/England)



system[[186][187]](#page33) are used to disseminate basic needs to remote areas for below market prices.[[188][189]](#page34)

**Health care and education**

[Nations do not necessarily need wealth to gain health.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sri_Lanka)[[190]](#page34) [For example, Sri](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sri_Lanka) [Lanka had a](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sri_Lanka) [maternal mortality rate](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Maternal_mortality_rate) [of 2% in the 1930s, higher than any nation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sri_Lanka)



today.[[191]](#page34) It reduced it to 0.5–0.6% in the 1950s and to 0.6% today while spending less each year on [maternal health](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Maternal_health) because it learned what worked and



what did not.[[191]](#page34) Knowledge on the cost effectiveness of healthcare interventions can be elusive and educational measures have been made to [disseminate what works, such as the Copenhagen Consensus.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Water_filter)[[192]](#page34) [Cheap water](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Water_filter) [filters and promoting hand washing are some of the most cost effective health](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Water_filter)



interventions and can cut [deaths](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Child_mortality) from [diarrhea](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Diarrhea) and [pneumonia.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pneumonia)[[193][194]](#page34)



Strategies to provide education cost effectively include [deworming](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Deworming) children, which costs about 50 cents per child per year and reduces non-attendance from [anemia,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Anemia) illness and malnutrition, while being only a twenty-fifth as expensive as



Hardwood surgical tables are commonplace in rural [Nigerian](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nigeria) clinics.



increasing school attendance by constructing schools.[[195]](#page34) Schoolgirl absenteeism could be cut in half by simply providing free [sanitary towels.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sanitary_towel)[[196]](#page34) [Fortification](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Food_fortification) with [micronutrients](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Micronutrient) was ranked the most cost effective aid strategy by the Copenhagen Consensus.[[197]](#page34) For example, [iodised salt](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Iodised_salt) costs 2 to 3 cents per person a year while even moderate [iodine deficiency](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Iodine_deficiency) in pregnancy



shaves off 10 to 15 [IQ](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Intelligence_quotient) points.[[198]](#page34) Paying for school meals is argued to be an efficient strategy in increasing school enrollment,



reducing absenteeism and increasing student attention.[[199]](#page34)

Desirable actions such as enrolling children in school or receiving vaccinations can be encouraged by a form of aid known as [conditional cash transfers.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Conditional_cash_transfer)[[200]](#page34) In Mexico, for example, dropout rates of 16- to 19-year-olds in rural area dropped by 20% and



children gained half an inch in height.[[201]](#page34) Initial fears that the program would encourage families to stay at home rather than work to collect benefits have proven to be unfounded. Instead, there is less excuse for neglectful behavior as, for example, children stopped begging on the streets instead of going to school because it could result in suspension from the program.[[201]](#page34)

**Removing constraints on government services**

Government revenue can be diverted away from basic services by corruption.[[202][203]](#page34) Funds from aid and natural resources are often sent by government individuals for [money laundering](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Money_laundering) to overseas banks which insist on [bank secrecy,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bank_secrecy) instead of spending



on the poor.[[204]](#page34) A [Global Witness](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Global_Witness) report asked for more action from Western banks as they have proved capable of stanching the flow of funds linked to terrorism.[[204]](#page34)



A [family planning](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Family_planning) placard in [Ethiopia.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ethiopia) It shows some negative effects of having too many children.

Local citizens from the Jana bi Village wait their turn to gather goods from the [Sons of Iraq](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sons_of_Iraq) (Abna al-Iraq) in a military operation conducted in Yusufiyah, Iraq.

[Illicit capital flight](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Illicit_financial_flows) from the developing world is estimated at ten times the size of aid it receives and twice the debt service it pays,[[205]](#page34) with one estimate that most of Africa would be developed if the taxes owed were paid.[[206]](#page34) About 60 per cent of illicit capital flight from Africa is from [transfer mispricing,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transfer_mispricing) where a [subsidiary](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Subsidiary) in a developing nation sells to another subsidiary or [shell company](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Shell_company) in



a [tax haven](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tax_haven) at an artificially low price to pay less tax.[[207]](#page34) An [African Union](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/African_Union) report estimates that about 30% of sub-Saharan Africa's GDP has been moved to [tax havens.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tax_haven)[[208]](#page34) Solutions include corporate "country-by-country reporting" where corporations disclose activities in each country and thereby prohibit the use of tax havens where no effective economic activity occurs.[[207]](#page34)



[Developing countries' debt service](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Developing_countries'_debt) to banks and governments from richer



countries can constrain government spending on the poor.[[209]](#page34) For example, [Zambia](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Zambia) spent 40% of its total budget to repay foreign debt, and only 7% for



basic state services in 1997.[[210]](#page34) One of the proposed ways to help poor countries has been [debt relief.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Debt_relief) Zambia began offering services, such as free health care even while overwhelming the health care infrastructure, because of savings that resulted from a 2005 round of [debt relief.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Debt_relief)[[211]](#page35)



[The World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, as primary holders of developing countries' debt, attach structural](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Structural_adjustment) [adjustment](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Structural_adjustment) [conditionalities](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Conditionality) [in return for loans which are generally geared toward loan repayment with](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Structural_adjustment) [austerity](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Austerity) [measures such as](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Structural_adjustment) the elimination of state subsidies and the privatization of state services. For example, the [World Bank](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Bank) presses poor nations to



eliminate subsidies for fertilizer even while many farmers cannot afford them at market prices.[[212]](#page35) In [Malawi,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Malawi) almost five million of its 13 million people used to need emergency food aid but after the government changed policy and subsidies for fertilizer and seed were introduced, farmers produced record-breaking corn harvests in 2006 and 2007 as Malawi became a major food exporter.[[212]](#page35) A major proportion of aid from donor nations is [tied,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tied_aid) mandating that a receiving nation spend on products and



expertise originating only from the donor country.[[213]](#page35) US law requires [food aid](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Food_aid) be spent on buying food at home, instead of where the hungry live, and, as a result, half of what is spent is used on transport.[[214]](#page35)



[Distressed securities funds,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Distressed_securities_fund) also known as *vulture funds*, buy up the debt of poor nations cheaply and then sue countries for the full value of the debt plus interest which can be ten or 100 times what they paid.[[215]](#page35) They may pursue any companies which do business with their target country to force them to pay to the fund instead.[[215]](#page35) Considerable resources are diverted on costly court cases. For example, a court in [Jersey](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jersey) ordered the [Democratic Republic of the Congo](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Democratic_Republic_of_the_Congo) to pay an American speculator $100



million in 2010.[[215]](#page35) Now, the UK, [Isle of Man](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Isle_of_Man) and Jersey have banned such payments.[[215]](#page35)



**Reversing brain drain**

The loss of basic needs providers emigrating from impoverished countries has a damaging effect.[[216]](#page35) As of 2004, there were more Ethiopia-trained doctors living in Chicago than in Ethiopia.[[217]](#page35) Proposals to mitigate the problem include compulsory government service for graduates of public medical and nursing schools[[216]](#page35) and promoting [medical tourism](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Medical_tourism) so that health care personal have more incentive to practice in their home countries.[[218]](#page35)



**Controlling overpopulation**

Some argue that [overpopulation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Human_overpopulation) and lack of access to birth control can lead to population increase to exceed food production and other resources.[[219][55][220][221]](#page35) Better education for both men and women, and more



control of their lives, reduces population growth due to [family planning.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Family_planning)[[222]](#page35) According to United Nations Population Fund



for routine activities, which is, in effect, a tax on business.[[247]](#page36) Noted reductions in poverty in recent decades has occurred in China and India mostly as a result of the abandonment of [collective farming](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Collective_farming) in China and the ending of the [central planning](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Central_planning) model known as the [License Raj](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/License_Raj) in India.[[248][249][250]](#page37)



**productivity of small farmers is, on average, at least twice as effective**

**Corruption often leads to many** [**civil services**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Civil_service) **being treated by governments as employment agencies to loyal supporters**[**[244]**](#page36)**and so it could mean going through 20 procedures, paying $2,696 in fees, and waiting 82 business days to start a business in** [**Bolivia,**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bolivia) **while in** [**Canada**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Canada) **it takes two days, two registration procedures, and $280 to do the same.**[**[245]**](#page36)**Such costly barriers favor big firms at the expense of small enterprises, where most jobs are created.**[**[246]**](#page36)**Often, businesses have to bribe government officials even**

**Economic freedoms**

**Income grants are argued to be vastly more efficient in extending basic needs to the poor than** [**subsidizing**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Subsidies) **supplies whose effectiveness in poverty alleviation is diluted by the non-poor who enjoy the same subsidized prices.**[**[236]**](#page36)**With cars and other appliances, the wealthiest 20% of Egypt uses about 93% of the country's fuel subsidies.**[**[237]**](#page36)**In some countries, fuel subsidies are a larger part of the budget than health and education.[237][238] A 2008 study concluded that the money spent on in-kind transfers in India in a year could lift all India's poor out of poverty for that year if transferred directly.**[**[239]**](#page36)**The primary obstacle argued against direct cash transfers is the impractically for poor countries of such large and direct transfers. In practice, payments determined by complex iris scanning are used by war-torn** [**Democratic Republic of Congo**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Democratic_Republic_of_Congo) **and Afghanistan,**[**[240]**](#page36)**while India is phasing out its fuel subsidies in favor of direct transfers.**[**[241]**](#page36)**Additionally, in aid models, the** [**famine relief**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Famine_relief) **model increasingly used by aid groups calls for giving cash or cash vouchers to the hungry to pay local farmers instead of buying food from donor countries, often required by law, as it wastes money on transport costs.[242][243]**

[**Tobin[233][234][235] and**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/James_Tobin) [**James**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/James_Meade) **Meade.**[**[230]**](#page36)

[**employers, causing losses in efficiency. In 1968, Paul Samuelson, John Kenneth**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/John_Kenneth_Galbraith)[**Galbraith and another 1,200 economists signed a document calling for the US Congress to introduce a system of income**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/John_Kenneth_Galbraith) **guarantees.**[**[229]**](#page35)**Winners of the** [**Nobel Prize in Economics,**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nobel_Prize_in_Economics) **with often diverse political convictions, who support a basic income** [**include Herbert A. Simon,**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/James_Tobin)[**[230]**](#page36)[**Friedrich Hayek,**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/James_Tobin)[**[231]**](#page36)[**Robert Solow,**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/James_Tobin)[**[230]**](#page36)[**Milton Friedman,**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/James_Tobin)[**[232]**](#page36)[**Jan Tinbergen,**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/James_Tobin)[**[230]**](#page36)[**James**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/James_Tobin)

[**income is more economically efficient than a minimum wage and unemployment**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Unemployment_benefit)[**benefits, as the minimum wage effectively imposes a high marginal tax on**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Unemployment_benefit)

[**Afghan**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Unemployment_benefit) **girl begging in** [**Kabul.**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kabul)

**Income grants**

**in benefiting the poorest half of a country's population as growth generated in nonagricultural sectors.**[**[225]**](#page35)

**of the antipoverty effort as three-quarters of the poor today are as of 2018 farmers.**[**[224]**](#page35)**Estimates show that growth in the agricultural**

**Map of countries and territories by** [**fertility rate**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Total_fertility_rate)

**incomes among the poor. Raising farm incomes is described as the core**

**The following are strategies used or proposed to increase personal**

**Increasing personal income**

(UNFPA), by giving better education to men and women, they can earn money for their lives and can help them to strengthen economic security.[[223]](#page35)

**A** [**guaranteed minimum income**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Guaranteed_minimum_income) **ensures that every citizen will be able to purchase a desired level of basic needs. A** [**basic income**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Basic_income) **(or** [**negative income tax)**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Negative_income_tax) **is a system of** [**social security,**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_security) **that periodically provides each citizen, rich or poor, with a sum of money that is sufficient to live on. Studies of large cash-transfer programs in Ethiopia, Kenya, and Malawi show that the programs can be effective in increasing consumption, schooling, and nutrition, whether they are tied to such conditions or not.[226][227][228] Proponents argue that a basic**

Worlds regions by total wealth (in trillions USD), 2018

The [World Bank](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Bank) concludes that governments and feudal elites extending to the poor the right to the land that they live and use are 'the key to reducing poverty' citing that land rights greatly increase poor people's wealth, in some cases doubling it.[[251]](#page37) Although approaches varied, the [World Bank](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Bank) said the key issues were security of tenure and ensuring land transactions costs were low.[[251]](#page37)



Greater access to markets brings more income to the poor. Road infrastructure has a direct impact on poverty.[[252][253]](#page37) Additionally, migration from poorer countries resulted in $328 billion sent from richer to poorer countries in 2010, more than double the $120 billion in official aid flows from [OECD](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/OECD) members. In 2011, India got $52 billion from its [diaspora,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Diaspora) more than it took in [foreign direct investment.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Foreign_direct_investment)[[254]](#page37)



**Financial services**

Microloans, made famous by the [Grameen Bank,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grameen_Bank) is where small amounts of money are loaned to farmers or villages, mostly women, who can then obtain physical capital to increase their economic rewards. However, microlending has been criticized for making hyperprofits off the poor even from its founder, [Muhammad Yunus,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Muhammad_Yunus)[[255]](#page37) and in India, [Arundhati Roy](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Arundhati_Roy) asserts that some 250,000 debt-ridden farmers have been driven to suicide.[[256][257][258]](#page37)



Those in poverty place overwhelming importance on having a safe place to save money, much more so than receiving loans.[[259]](#page37) Additionally, a large part of [microfinance](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Microfinance) loans are spent not on investments but on products that would



usually be paid by a [checking](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Checking_account) or [savings account.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Savings_account)[[259]](#page37) Microsavings are designs to make savings products available for the poor, who make small deposits. [Mobile banking](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mobile_banking) utilizes the wide availability of mobile phones to address the



[Information and communication](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Information_and_communication_technologies_for_development) [technologies for development](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Information_and_communication_technologies_for_development) help to fight poverty.



problem of the heavy regulation and costly maintenance of saving accounts.[[259]](#page37) This usually involves a network of agents of mostly shopkeepers, instead of

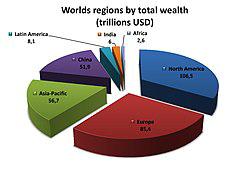
bank branches, would take deposits in cash and translate these onto a virtual account on customers' phones. Cash transfers can be done between phones and issued back in cash with a small commission, making [remittances](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Remittance) safer.[[260]](#page37)



**Wealth concentration**



Poverty can also be reduced as an improved economic policy is developed by the governing authorities to facilitate a more equitable distribution of the nation's wealth. [Oxfam](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Oxfam) has called for an international movement to end extreme wealth concentration as a significant step towards ameliorating global poverty. The group stated that the $240 billion added to the fortunes of the world's richest billionaires in 2012 was enough to end extreme poverty four times over. Oxfam argues that the "concentration of resources in the hands of the top 1% depresses economic activity and makes life harder for everyone else – particularly those at the bottom of the economic ladder."[[261][262]](#page37) It has been reported that only 1% of the world population controls 50% of the wealth today, and the other 99% is having access to the remaining 50% only, and the gap has sharply increased in the recent past.[[263]](#page37) In 2018, Oxfam reported that the gains of the world's billionaires



in 2017, which amounted to $762 billion, was enough to end extreme global poverty seven times over.[[264]](#page37)

[José Antonio Ocampo,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/José_Antonio_Ocampo) professor at Columbia University and former finance minister of Colombia, and Magdalena Sepúlveda Carmona, former UN Special Rapporteur on Extreme Poverty and Human Rights, argue that global tax reform is integral to human development and fighting poverty, as corporate tax avoidance has disproportionately impacted those mired in poverty, noting that "the human impact is devastatingly real. When profits are shifted out, the tax revenues from those profits that could be available to fund healthcare, schools, water sanitation and other public goods vanish from the ledger, leaving women and men, boys and girls without pathways to a better future."[[265]](#page37)



Global share of wealth by wealth group, Credit Suisse, 2017



[Raghuram G. Rajan,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Raghuram_Rajan) former governor of the [Reserve Bank of India,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Reserve_Bank_of_India) former chief economist at the [International Monetary Fund](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/International_Monetary_Fund) and professor of finance at the [University of Chicago Booth School of Business](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Booth_School_of_Business) has blamed the ever-widening gulf between the rich and the poor especially in the US to be one of the main *Fault Lines* which caused the financial institutions to pump money [into subprime mortgages – on political behest, as a palliative and not a remedy, for poverty – causing the financial crisis of 2007–](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Subprime_mortgage_crisis) [2009. In Rajan's view the main cause of increasing gap between the high income and low income earners, was lack of equal](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Subprime_mortgage_crisis)

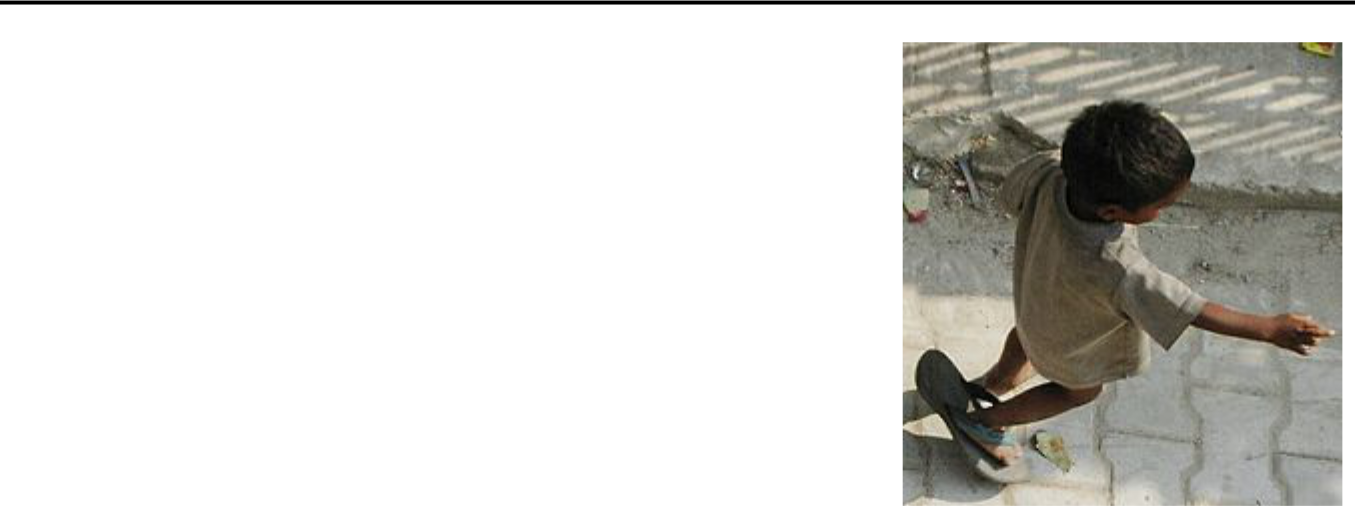


access to high class education for the latter.[[266]](#page37)

[The existence of inequality is in part due to a set of self-reinforcing behaviors that all together constitute one aspect of the cycle](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cycle_of_poverty) [of poverty. These behaviors, in addition to unfavorable, external circumstances, also explain the existence of the](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cycle_of_poverty) [Matthew effect,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Matthew_effect) which not only exacerbates existing inequality, but is more likely to make it multigenerational. Widespread, multigenerational poverty is an important contributor to civil unrest and political instability.[[267]](#page37)



**Business solutions to poverty**



**Serving the poor market**

The concept of business serving the world's poorest four billion or so people has been popular since CK Prahalad introduced the idea through his book *Fortune at* *the Bottom of the Pyramid: Eradicating Poverty Through Profits* in 2004, amongmany business corporations and business schools.[[268][269]](#page38) Kash Rangan, John [Quelch, and other faculty members at the Global Poverty Project at Harvard](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Harvard_Business_School) [Business School "believe that in pursuing its own self-interest in opening and](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Harvard_Business_School) expanding the BoP market, business can make a profit while serving the poorest of consumers and contributing to development."[[270]](#page38) According to Rangan "For business, the bulk of emerging markets worldwide is at the bottom of the pyramid so it makes good business sense – not a sense of do-gooding – to go after it.".[[270]](#page38)



A poor child walks with one sandal.

In their 2013 book, "The Business Solution to Poverty," Paul Polak and Mal Warwick directly addressed the criticism leveled against Prahalad's concept.[[271]](#page38) They noted that big business often failed to create products that actually met the needs and desires of the customers who lived at the bottom-of-the-pyramid. Their answer was that a business that wanted to succeed in that market had to spend time talking to and understanding those customers. Polak had previously promoted this approach in his previous book, "Out of Poverty," that described the work of [International Development Enterprises](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/International_Development_Enterprises) (iDE), which he had formed



in 1982.[[272]](#page38) Polak and Warwick provided practical advice: a product needed to affect at least a billion people (i.e., have universal appeal), it had to be able to be delivered to customers living where there wasn't a FedEx office or even a road, and it had to be "radically affordable" to attract someone who earned less than $2 a day.

**Creating entrepreneurs**

Rather than encouraging multinational businesses to meet the needs of [the poor, some organizations such as iDE, the World Resources](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Resources_Institute) [Institute, and the](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Resources_Institute) [United Nations Development Programme](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Nations_Development_Programme) [began to](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Resources_Institute) focus on working directly with helping bottom-of-the-pyramid populations become local, small-scale entrepreneurs.[[274]](#page38) Since so much of this population is engaged in agriculture, these NGOs have addressed market gaps that enable small-scale (i.e., plots less than 2 hectares) farmers to increase their production and find markets for their harvests. This is done by increasing the availability of farming equipment (e.g., pumps, tillers, seeders) and better quality seed and

[Countries by 2018 GDP (nominal) per](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_countries_by_GDP_(nominal)_per_capita) [capita.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_countries_by_GDP_(nominal)_per_capita)[[273]](#page38)



fertilizer, as well as expanding access for training in farming best practices (e.g., crop rotation).

Creating entrepreneurs through microfinance can produce unintended outcomes: Some entrepreneurial borrowers become informal intermediaries between microfinance initiatives and poorer micro-entrepreneurs. Those who more easily qualify for microfinance split loans into smaller credit to even poorer borrowers. Informal intermediation ranges from casual intermediaries at the good or benign end of the spectrum to 'loan sharks' at the professional and sometimes criminal end of the spectrum.[[275]](#page38)

**Criticisms of this approach**

Milton Friedman argues that *the social responsibility of business is to increase its profits* only,[[276]](#page38) thus, it needs to be examined whether business in BoP markets is capable of achieving the dual objective of *making a profit while serving the poorest of* *consumers and contributing to development*? Erik Simanis has reported that the model has a fatal flaw. According to Erik"Despite achieving healthy penetration rates of 5% to 10% in four test markets, for instance, Procter & Gamble couldn't generate a competitive return on its Pur water-purification powder after launching the product on a large scale in 2001...DuPont ran into similar problems with a venture piloted from 2006 to 2008 in Andhra Pradesh, India, by its subsidiary Solae, a global manufacturer of soy protein ... Because the high costs of doing business among the very poor demand a high contribution per transaction, companies must embrace the reality that high margins and price points aren't just a top-of-the-pyramid phenomenon; they're also a necessity for ensuring sustainable businesses at the bottom of the pyramid."[[277]](#page38) Marc Gunther states that "The bottom-of-the-pyramid (BOP) market leader, arguably, is Unilever ... Its signature BOP product is Pureit, a countertop water-purification system sold in India, Africa and Latin America. It's saving lives, but it's not making money for shareholders."[[278]](#page38) This leaves the ideal of *eradicating poverty through profits* or with a *good business sense – not a sense of do-gooding* rather questionable.

Others have noted that relying on BoP consumers to choose to purchase items that increase their incomes is naive. Poor consumers may spend their income disproportionately on events or goods and services that offer short-term benefits rather than invest in things that could change their lives in the long-term.[[279]](#page38)

**Environmental issues**



A report published in 2013 by the [World Bank,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Bank) with support from the [Climate & Development Knowledge Network,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Climate_%26_Development_Knowledge_Network) found that climate change was likely to hinder future attempts to reduce poverty. The report presented the likely impacts of present day, 2 °C and 4 °C warming on agricultural production, water resources, coastal ecosystems and cities across Sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia and South East Asia. The impacts of a temperature rise of 2 °C included: regular food shortages in Sub-Saharan Africa; shifting rain patterns in South Asia leaving some parts under water and others without enough water for power generation, irrigation or drinking; degradation and loss of reefs in South East Asia, resulting in reduced fish stocks; and coastal communities and cities more vulnerable to increasingly violent storms.[[280]](#page38) In 2016, a UN report claimed that by 2030, an additional 122 million more people could be driven to extreme poverty because of climate change.[[281]](#page38)



Many think that poverty is the cause of environmental degradation, while there are others who claim that rather the poor are the worst sufferers of [environmental degradation caused by reckless exploitation of natural](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Exploitation_of_natural_resources)



[resources by the rich.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Exploitation_of_natural_resources)[[282]](#page38) [A Delhi-based environment organisation, the](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Exploitation_of_natural_resources) Centre for Science and Environment, points out that if the poor world were to develop and consume in the same manner as the West to achieve the same living standards, "we would need two additional planet Earths to produce resources and absorb wastes.", reports Anup Shah (2003). in his article *Poverty and the Environment* on Global Issues.[[283]](#page38)



**Voluntary poverty**



Among some individuals, poverty is considered a necessary or desirable condition, which must be embraced to reach certain spiritual, moral, or intellectual states. Poverty is often understood to be an essential element of [renunciation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nekkhamma) in religions such as [Buddhism,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Buddhism) [Hinduism](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hinduism) (only for monks, not for lay persons) and [Jainism,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jainism) whilst in Roman Catholicism it is one of the [evangelical counsels.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Evangelical_counsels) The main aim of giving up things of the materialistic world is to withdraw oneself from sensual pleasures (as they are considered illusionary and only temporary in some religions – such as the concept of [dunya](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dunya) in [Islam)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Islam). This self-invited poverty (or giving up pleasures) is different from the one caused by economic imbalance.



Some Christian communities, such as the [Simple Way,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_Simple_Way) the [Bruderhof,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bruderhof_Communities) and the [Amish](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Amish) value voluntary poverty; some even take a vow of poverty, similar to that of the traditional Catholic orders, in order to live a more complete life of discipleship.[[284]](#page38)



[Benedict XVI](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Benedict_XVI) distinguished "poverty *chosen*" (the poverty of spirit proposed by Jesus), and "poverty *to be fought*" (unjust and imposed poverty). He considered that the moderation implied in the former favors solidarity, and is a necessary condition so as to fight effectively to eradicate the abuse of the latter.[[285]](#page38)



[A sewage treatment plant that uses solar](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Solar_energy) [energy, located at](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Solar_energy) [Santuari de Lluc](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Santuari_de_Lluc) monastery, Majorca.



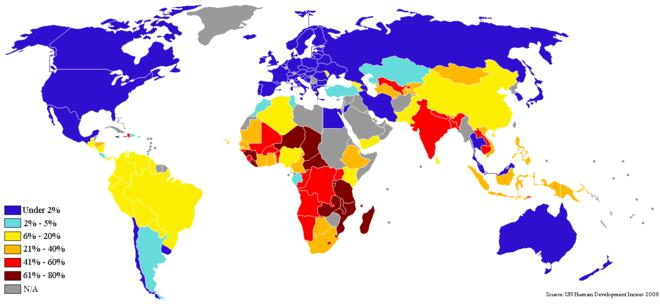
St. [Francis of Assisi](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Francis_of_Assisi) renounces his worldly goods in a painting attributed to [Giotto di Bondone.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Giotto_di_Bondone)

As it was indicated above the reduction of poverty results from [religion,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Religion) but also can result from [solidarity.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Solidarity)[[286]](#page38)

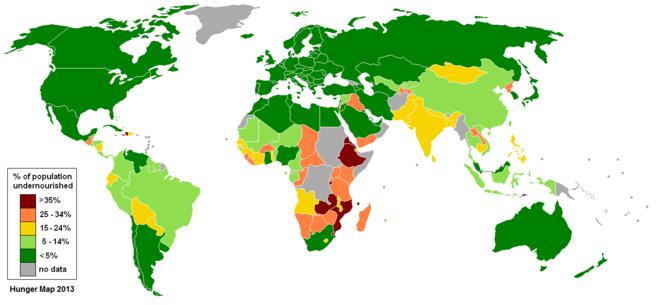


**Charts and tables**

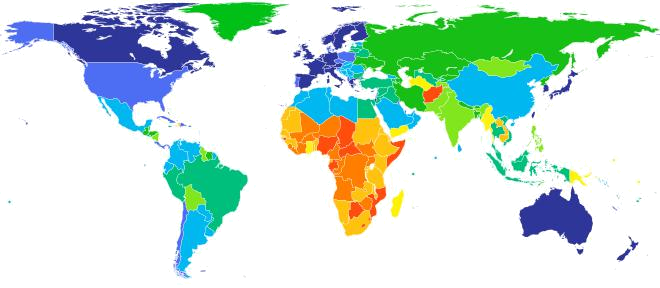




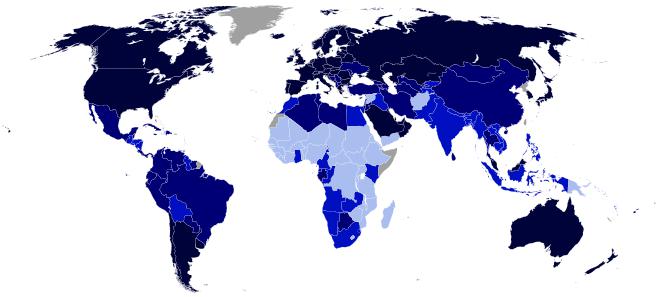
Percentage of population living on less than $1.25 per day, per UN data from 2000–2006.



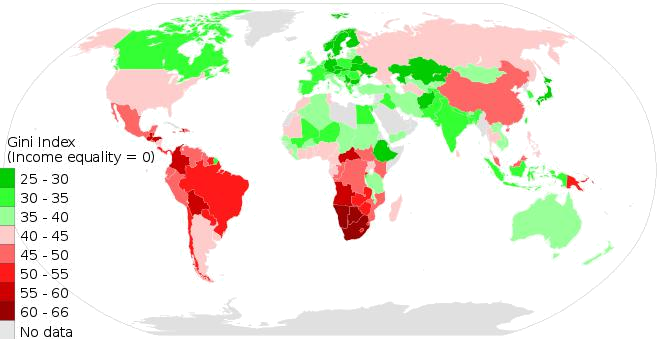
Percentage of population suffering from hunger, [World Food Programme,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Food_Programme) 2013.



[Life expectancy,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Life_expectancy) 2016.



The [Human Development Index,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Human_Development_Index) 2018.



The [Gini coefficient,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gini_coefficient) a measure of [income inequality,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic_inequality) 2014.

**See also**



[Accumulation by dispossession](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Accumulation_by_dispossession)



[Aporophobia](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Aporophobia)



[Asset poverty](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Asset_poverty)



[Basic income](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Basic_income)



[Bottom of the pyramid](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bottom_of_the_pyramid)



[Causes of poverty](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Causes_of_poverty)



[Climate change and poverty](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Climate_change_and_poverty)



[Cycle of poverty](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cycle_of_poverty)



[Environmental racism](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Environmental_racism)



[Extreme poverty](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Extreme_poverty)



[Food Bank](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Food_Bank)



[Homelessness](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Homelessness)



[Human rights](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Human_rights)



[Hunger](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hunger)



[Hunger in the United Kingdom](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hunger_in_the_United_Kingdom)



[Hunger in the United States](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hunger_in_the_United_States)



[Income disparity](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Income_disparity)



[International development](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/International_development)



[International inequality](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/International_inequality)



[Involuntary unemployment](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Involuntary_unemployment)



[Job guarantee](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Job_guarantee)



[Juvenilization of poverty](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Juvenilization_of_poverty)



[Les Misérables](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Les_Misérables)



[List of countries by percentage of population living in](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_countries_by_percentage_of_population_living_in_poverty) [poverty](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_countries_by_percentage_of_population_living_in_poverty)



[Living wage](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Living_wage)



[Measuring poverty](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Measuring_poverty)



[Millennium Development Goals](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Millennium_Development_Goals)



[Poverty threshold](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Poverty_threshold)



[Poverty trap](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Poverty_trap)



[Poverty reduction](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Poverty_reduction)



[Poverty in the United Kingdom](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Poverty_in_the_United_Kingdom)



[Poverty in the United States](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Poverty_in_the_United_States)



[Redistribution of income and wealth](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Redistribution_of_income_and_wealth)



[Relative deprivation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Relative_deprivation)



[Social programs](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_programs)



[Social safety net](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_safety_net)



[United Nations Millennium Declaration](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Nations_Millennium_Declaration)



[World Poverty Clock](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Poverty_Clock)



**Notes**



* In his book [*The End of Poverty*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_End_of_Poverty) [Jeffrey Sachs](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jeffrey_Sachs) argued that extreme global poverty could be eliminated by 2025 if the wealthy countries of the world were to increase their combined foreign aid budgets to between $135 billion and $195 billion from 2005 to 2015. In 2004, 1.1 billion people lived in extreme poverty on less than a dollar a day.