Measurement of Poverty in OIC Member Countries

2015

"Enhancing National Statistical Capacities"

SESRIC

COMCEC

COMCEC

MEASUREMENT OF POVERTY IN OIC MEMBER COUNTRIES:

ENHANCING NATIONAL STATISTICAL CAPACITIES

This report is funded by COMCEC under Project # 2013-SESRIC-028 titled "Enhancing National Capacities of OIC Member Countries in Poverty Statistics".

STATISTICAL ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL RESEARCH AND TRAINING CENTRE FOR ISLAMIC COUNTRIES (SESRIC)

STANDING COMMITTEE FOR ECONOMIC AND COMMERCIAL COOPERATION OF THE ORGANIZATION OF ISLAMIC COOPERATION (COMCEC)

Kudüs Cad. No: 9, Diplomatik Site, 06450 Oran, Ankara –Turkey

Telephone +90–312–468 6172

Internet www.sesric.org

E-mail pubs@sesric.org

ISBN: 978-975-6427-36-1

Cover design by Publication Department, SESRIC.

SESRIC hereby expresses its profound appreciation to Republic of Turkey Ministry of Food, Agriculture and Livestock for providing printing facilities.

For additional information, contact Statistics and Information Department, SESRIC through: statistics@sesric.org

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACRONYMS **4**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT **5**

FOREWORD **6**

I. UNDERSTANDING POVERTY **8**

1.1. Basic Concepts, Definitions and Approaches 8

1.2. Poverty and Inequality Measures 11

1.3. Determinants of Poverty 16

II. STATE OF POVERTY IN OIC MEMBER COUNTRIES **20**

2.1. Poverty Profile 20

2.2. Determinants of Poverty in OIC Member Countries 25

III. IMPROVING CAPACITIES FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF POVERTY **38**

3.1. Present Situation on Data Collection, Collation and Dissemination 39

3.2. Poverty Assessment Approaches in OIC Member Countries 40

3.3. Current Capacity of National Statistical Offices 47

3.4. Requirements for Enhancing National Capacities in Poverty Statistics 49

IV. THE WAY FORWARD **52**

4.1. Concluding Remarks 53

4.2. Policy Recommendations 55

APPENDIX **58**

REFERENCES **82**

ACRONYMS

ADB	:	African Development Bank
ANCC	:	Antenatal Care Coverage
AROPE	:	At-Risk-of-Poverty or Social Exclusion Indicator
COMCEC	:	Standing Committee for Economic and Commercial Cooperation of the OIC
DRC	:	Danish Refugee Council
EAP	:	East Asia and Pacific
ECA	:	Europe and Central Asia
EGM	:	Expert Group Meeting
FAO	:	Food and Agricultural Organization
GDI	:	Gender-related Development Index
GDP	:	Gross Domestic Product
GHI	:	Global Hunger Index
GPI	:	Governance Performance Index
HDI	:	Human Development Index
HPI	:	Human Poverty Index
ICCIA	:	Islamic Chamber Of Commerce, Industry And Agriculture
IDB	:	Islamic Development Bank
IEO	:	Inequality of Economic Opportunity
IMF	:	International Monetary Fund
IMR	:	Infant Mortality Rate
ISESCO	:	Islamic Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
ISFD	:	Islamic Solidarity Fund for Development
LAC	:	Latin America and Caribbean
LEB	:	Life Expectancy at Birth
LIFDCs	:	Low Income Food Deficit Countries
MDG	:	Millennium Development Goals
MENA	:	Middle East and North Africa
MNCH	:	Maternal, New Born and Child Health
MPI	:	Multidimensional Poverty Index
MPPN	:	Multidimensional Poverty Peer Network
NER	:	Net Enrolment Rate
NGO	:	Non-Govermental Organisation
NSO	:	National Statistical Office
ODA	:	Official Development Assistance
OIC	:	Organization of Islamic Cooperation
OPHI	:	Oxford Human Development and Poverty Initiative
PRSP	:	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
SA	:	South Asia
SDG	:	Sustainable Development Goals
SSA	:	Sub-Saharan Africa
U5MR	:	Under Five Mortality Rate
UNDP	:	United Nations Development Programme
UNSD	:	United Nations Statistics Division
USD	:	US Dollars
WDI	:	World Development Indicators
WEO	:	World Economic Outlook
WHO	:	World Health Organization

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This report is the output of the Project No. SESRIC-028 titled "Enhancing National Capacities of Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC) Member Countries in Poverty Statistics" supported by Standing Committee for Economic and Commercial Cooperation of the Organization of Islamic Cooperation (COMCEC) Project Cycle Management (PCM) Programme. The project aims at providing an overview about the state, causes and consequences of poverty in OIC member countries, building national statistical capacity in the area of poverty and, thus, overall contributing to the National Statistical Systems (NSSs) of the OIC member countries. The report also provides effective recommendations in the area of poverty alleviation and monitoring the state of poverty in OIC member countries.

The project was carried out and coordinated by SESRIC. The report was prepared by Zehra Zumrut Selcuk and Mazhar Hussain, Senior Researchers and Dr. Nilufer Oba, Researcher at SESRIC. Technical assistance was also provided by the following researchers at SESRIC: Davron Ishnazarov, Abdulhamit Ozturk, Sumeyye Karatay and Syed Tahir Mahmud. Nabil M. Dabour, Director of Economic and Social Research Department and Hüseyin Hakan Eryetli, Director of Statistics and Information Department at SESRIC, were the project coordinators. Prof. Savaş Alpay supervised overall implementation of the project and was the principal editor of the report.

The research team at SESRIC extends its thanks and appreciation to the 40 National Statistical Offices (NSOs) of OIC member countries for their valuable cooperation on sharing the information on the methodologies they used in poverty measurement through the Questionnaire on the national statistical capacities of the member countries, which has been designed and circulated by SESRIC during the preparation of the report.

The research team also benefitted greatly from the invaluable contributions of the participants of the First Experts Group Meeting (EGM1) held on 7-8 August 2014 in Ankara, and the Second Experts Group Meeting (EGM2) held on 19-20 November 2014 in Ankara. The team would like to extend their thanks to all the participants[1] in these meetings for their enlightening comments and views on the report of the project as well as on their valuable recommendations for the way ahead: Yashar Pasha (*Azerbaijan*), Hamit Baghirov (*Azerbaijan*), Md. Mizanur Rahman Khondker (*Bangladesh*), Ahmad Malam (*Cameroon*), Ali Ousmane Khassim (*Chad*), Samassi Daouda (*Cote d'Ivoire*), Sekou Tidiani Konate (*Djibouti*), Sohair Metwally Ahmed (*Egypt*), Lamin L. Dibba (*Gambia*), Wynandin Imawan (*Indonesia*), Karim (*Indonesia*), Raoof Al-Khateeb (*Iraq*), Rafi Alqudah (*Jordan*), Gulmira Karaulova (*Kazakhstan*), Awatif M. Al Sleem (*Kuwait*), Amal Hamed Al-Rifaee (*Kuwait*), Azahari Mohd. Raslan (*Malaysia*), Didi El Yass (*Mauritania*), Ousmane Maimouna Ali Boulhassane (*Niger*), Rahman Busari (*Nigeria*), Rabia Awan (*Pakistan*), Qais Hasiba (*Palestine*), Abdulmohsen bin Saad Al-Nassar (*Saudi Arabia*), Diouf Macoumba (*Senegal*), Somaia Khalid Elkhair Omer (*Sudan*), Hilola Begova (*Tajikistan*), Dorra Dhraief (*Tunisia*), Mehmet Serdar Kabukçuoğlu (*Turkey*), Barış Uçar (*Turkey*), Mehmet Ali Karadağ (*Turkey*), Yakut Yılmaz (*Turkey*), Caner Esenyel (*Turkey*), James Muwonge (*Uganda*), Yasin Sadiq Mayanja (*Uganda*), Tareq Yahya Al-Kebsi (*Yemen*), Khaled Taha Al Madani (*Yemen*), Aykut Yılmaz (*COMCEC*), Hande Hacımahmutoğlu (*COMCEC*), Sırma Şeker (*COMCEC*), Tarfa Al Fadhli (*DRC*), Melek Çakmak (*FAO*), Musa Jega Ibrahim (*ISFD*), Suman Seth (*OPHI*) and Elena Danilova-Cross (*UNDP*).

It is hoped that this report will contribute significantly to the process of enhancing national, regional and international statistical capacity building programmes to strengthen the capacities of the NSOs in OIC member countries in collecting and analysing adequate and high quality poverty data, the fundamental component of effective poverty alleviation programmes.

[1] The detailed list of the participants is provided in the Table A.14 of Appendix.

FOREWORD

Poverty is a complicated and multi-dimensional phenomenon that goes beyond the monetary aspects. It is associated with poor economies, poor human resources, poor social services provision, and poor policies to tackle the challenges facing human and socio-economic development. Poverty also arises when people lack access to adequate civic amenities like education and health services. Therefore, the status, the determinants, and the policy measures required to eradicate poverty would, by definition, vary from one country to another.

The world has witnessed significant decrease in poverty over the last two decades, where the number of people living below the international poverty line of $1.25 per day decreased from 1829 million in 1990 to 964 million in 2011, corresponding to a decline of 47%. During the same period, the OIC member countries also made significant gains in their fight against poverty, where the number of people living at $1.25 per day decreased from 396 million in 1990 to 322 million in 2011. As a result, the share of poor in OIC total population was recorded at 22.3% in 2011 compared to 41.1% in 1990.

Notwithstanding this progress, currently, over 1.6 billion people in the world are living in multidimensional poverty, corresponding to 30% of world's total population. The incidence of multidimensional poverty remained comparatively high in OIC member countries with 35% of their total population living in multidimensional poverty in 2014. A total of 465 million people in OIC member countries are considered as multidimensional poor, accounting for 29% of the world total multidimensional poor in 2014.

Progress in eradicating poverty remained highly uneven across the OIC member countries. Incidence of poverty, both in monetary and multidimensional terms, remained very high especially in low and lower middle income OIC countries located in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia regions. Poverty eradication is a complex task because of the multifaceted nature of poverty. Like many of their developing counterparts, governments in OIC member countries are facing a myriad of issues and challenges in their fight against poverty including access to basic services, availability of financial resources, institutional capacity and political will.

This state of affairs necessitates more commitment and efforts by the governments to consider this important issue at a higher level on their national development agendas. There is also an urgent need for strengthening and enhancing cooperation and collaboration in various poverty related issues at both regional and international level. If OIC member countries are to reduce poverty or to assess the impact of their national socio-economic policies, they need to know a lot about their poor. It is important to know who the poor are; where they live; what assets they command; what their education, health and housing conditions are; and what economic opportunities are available to them. It is not possible to imagine sustainable socio-economic development in these countries without a significant rise in the standard of living of the neediest segments of the population in terms of consumption, health, housing, and education. Investing in people must, therefore, be the highest priority for these countries as long as human capital limitations restrain growth or keep people in absolute poverty.

A major concern is, therefore, the availability of good quality statistics. Without adequate information and data on poor people, policies and programmes with effective engagement strategies for the poor cannot be undertaken and monitored. In this context, recently there has been an increasing interest towards multidimensional measures of poverty, which requires substantial amount of data on various related fields and activities. This state of affairs necessitates the need for both an

in-depth analysis on the state, causes and consequences of poverty as well as an accurate assessment of the statistical capacities and needs for the proper measurement of poverty.

Against this background, the report provides in Part I a brief analysis of various efforts made so far to gauge the scale of poverty in the world especially by highlighting the strengths and weaknesses of these measures. In Part II, the report provides a detailed analysis of the incidence of poverty in OIC member countries both in monetary and multidimensional contexts. It highlights the major causes and socio-economic consequences of poverty in OIC member countries as well as the major challenges and obstacles faced by the OIC member countries in their fight against poverty.

Part III mainly focusses on the current statistical practices, needs and strengths of OIC member countries in assessing poverty. In this regard, the key issues in poverty measurement are delineated based on the answers given by the National Statistical Offices (NSOs) of OIC member countries to the Questionnaire prepared by SESRIC for this purpose. In Part IV, plans and strategies of the member countries are presented to sketch a roadmap for the future. The report concludes with policy recommendations aiming to strengthen National Statistical Systems (NSSs) of OIC member countries in the area poverty statistics, and thus to enhance the national programmes on poverty alleviation.

I sincerely congratulate the project team for the successful completion of this comprehensive report on poverty and would like to thank Prof. Savaş Alpay, former Director General of SESRIC, for his valuable comments on the report. I also would like to extend my appreciation to Dr. Metin Eker, Director General of COMCEC Coordination Office, for the financial support granted through COMCEC PCM Mechanism to implement this important project.

Ambassador Musa Kulaklıkaya

Director General

SESRIC

1 UNDERSTANDING POVERTY

Today, it is a widely held opinion that poverty cannot be measured only in monetary terms. In fact, poverty is a complex, multidimensional phenomenon that arises from the interaction of economic, political and social processes aggravating the destitution faced by poor people. In many instances, addressing the root causes of poverty requires long-term commitment in order to improve the living conditions of people suffering diverse deprivations. Over the years, poverty eradication has become an international concern especially since the initiation of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in 2000. Nevertheless, despite continuous efforts at every level, there is still a considerable part of the world population living in unsatisfactory conditions. Therefore, it is no wonder to observe that the problem of poverty is still at the heart of the global development agenda as discussions on the post-2015 development goals intensify and the World Bank has set a new target of eliminating extreme poverty around the world by 2030.

Though there is a world-wide agreement on poverty eradication for socio-economic development, yet there is no international consensus on the definition and measurement of poverty. In this vein, this section provides a brief description of definitions and measurement approaches related to poverty. It should be noted that much of the international efforts are concentrated on eliminating poverty measured in monetary terms, but a more comprehensive stance towards eliminating poverty should be adopted in order to address the multidimensional aspects of deprivation.

1.1. Basic Concepts, Definitions and Approaches

Experts and academics have developed many concepts and terminologies that are commonly used in the literature to explain the different aspects of human wellbeing. In order to better capture the variety of ideas and concepts, this subsection will review some of the most commonly used terminologies and provide a brief discussion on each of these terms. This will include poverty, standard of living and welfare, inequality and social exclusion. The next subsection will focus on the measures of poverty and inequality that are commonly used in the literature. It will provide discussions on both traditional measures of poverty as well as alternatively developed measures that aim at gauging different aspects of poverty beyond monetary measures.

1.1.1. Poverty

Poverty is not a self-defining concept. There is a wide spectrum of perceptions about the nature of poverty and depending on the point of view adopted, different analyses can be carried out and strategies can be devised to eradicate poverty. It would be fair to classify these different

perceptions on poverty under objective and subjective measures. Poverty studies in the first category use information collected through variables with a high degree of objectivity. The most frequently used variables are household income and expenditures. By applying an objective focus, a further classification can be made based on absolute and relative terms. The absolute poverty refers to a minimum income threshold below which individuals cannot meet their basic needs that are vital for survival. According to the World Bank, absolute poverty is defined as a state in which a family earns less than US $1.25 per day (in 2005 USD) per person (Ravallion et al. 2008). In relative terms, poverty is measured as the percentage of population with income less than some fixed proportion of median income. It compares the lowest segments of a population with upper segments. For instance, the Eurostat uses a relative poverty measure based on "economic distance" which corresponds to a level of income set at 60% of the median household income.

In the analysis on subjective poverty, primary source of information is the opinion of the individuals or households. More precisely, this approach makes use of the subjective views that households have of their financial situation as opposed to the objective focus that uses observable and measurable variables. There is another concept called severe poverty that is related to deprivation or the lack of access to certain goods and services considered essential for any person. In this context, poverty is measured with non-monetary variables and deprivation indicators. Moreover, over the past decades, the definitions of poverty have been broadened beyond economic indicators (income) to include social and cultural indicators such as education and health as a better reflection of the well-being of people (Cobbinah et al. 2013).

1.1.2. Standard of Living and Welfare

Standard of living and welfare are two important concepts that are being used frequently in the socio-economic literature to understand or explain the state of human wellbeing. The standard of living refers to the level of wealth, comfort, material goods and necessities available to a certain socio-economic class, in a certain geographic area. In this connection, the standard of living covers a wide range of factors including income, class disparity, poverty rate, GDP, inflation rate and life expectancy.

In the literature, the poverty line is determined in terms of the standard of living. More precisely, poverty lines represent the aggregate value of all the goods and services considered necessary to fulfil the household's basic needs. There are several approaches to construct the poverty lines. The Cost of Basic Needs (CBN) is one of these different approaches, where the total poverty line is constructed as the sum of a food and a non-food poverty line. It first estimates the cost of acquiring enough food for adequate nutrition and then adds the cost of other essentials such as clothing and shelter. Moreover, the Unmet Basic Needs (UBN) or Minimum Basic Needs (MBN) approach measures poverty in terms of peoples' access to basic needs. Housing, basic services, educational levels and health care represent four main criteria that are used in order to estimate the UBN of a household.

Welfare, on the other hand, is a narrower concept than the standard of living. More precisely, welfare economics refers to the level of prosperity of either an individual or a group of persons. In this context, welfare state is defined as a concept of government in which the state plays a key role in the protection of the economic and social well-being of its citizens in four areas such as cash benefits; health care; education; food, housing and other services (Barr, 2004). According

to this definition, the welfare state should support standard of living and prevent behaviour contributing to moral hazard and adverse selection. With regard to welfare economics, Amartya Sen formulated the capability approach in the 1980s. Sen's (1990) key contribution is that people's freedom is essential in order to choose between different ways of life that they can evaluate. In such a setting, Sen highlights that poverty should be seen as a deprivation of basic capabilities and that income poverty alone should not be the core value of development economics.

1.1.3. Inequality

Inequality is a broader concept than poverty because it is defined over the entire population and not just for a particular segment of the population living below a certain minimum income threshold. In this respect, inequality is the situation in which assets, wealth, or income are distributed unequally among individuals in a group, among groups in a population, or among countries. Economic inequality varies between societies, historical periods, economic structures and systems. There are different indices for measuring economic inequality. A widely used one is the Gini coefficient, cf. Section 1.2. A review of literature shows that opinions differ on the importance of the concept of inequality and its effects. For instance, the Kuznets (1955) hypothesis postulates that growth in per capita income initially comes at a cost of a higher level of inequality, but eventually inequality falls with growth.

1.1.4. Social Exclusion

Social exclusion is used in social development literature as a framework to conceptualise human deprivation. This concept captures the dynamic nature of deprivation with different interconnected dimensions. In this context, income exclusion creates other forms of exclusion such as limited access to services including health care and education. However, inadequate income is not the only factor that can influence access to services. Inequitable public policies may lead to exclusion from services. For instance, public pensions or health care in some countries cover only public sector employees excluding the majority of people employed in the informal sector.

Different measures are developed in the literature to reflect different dimensions of social exclusion. The "at risk of poverty or social exclusion" (AROPE) indicator defines the share of people who are at risk of poverty or severely materially deprived or living in households with very low work intensity. People at risk-of-poverty have an equalized disposable income below the risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set by the European Union at 60 % of the national median equalized disposable income after social transfers. An equalized disposable income is the total income of a household, after tax and other deductions, 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.

Besides, the UNDP Regional Human Development Report on social exclusion in 2011 proposed the Multidimensional Social Exclusion Index, which measures the status of people and their households along three dimensions: economic exclusion, exclusion from social services, and exclusion from civic participation. The social exclusion index uses 24 indicators -eight for each dimension- measuring the level of exclusion in labour markets, education and health systems, as well as to civic and social networks. An individual is defined socially excluded if he or she is

deprived in at least nine indicators. Since a dimension contains only eight indicators, to be considered socially excluded a person must be deprived in at least two dimensions.

1.2. Poverty and Inequality Measures

The reliable measurement of poverty and inequality is necessary for the political and economic agenda in all countries without exception. It should give a clear picture on the situation in order for decision-makers to be able to identify critical areas for intervention. It is crucial that these measurements are technically robust, amicable to practical issues and policy guidance at the same time. There is, however, no universally accepted measure of poverty and inequality. In this framework, this subsection reviews the most commonly used measures of poverty and inequality with a view to understanding their advantages and shortcomings.

1.2.1. Traditional Measures of Poverty and Inequality

Some measures of poverty and inequality are more frequently used in the literature compared to others. However, all measures have their own strengths and weaknesses which are largely derived from the quality of different variables that are used in constructing these measures. A general discussion of these measures is provided below.

i. Headcount Index

The headcount index is the most commonly used method of estimating the incidence of poverty. This index measures the proportion of the population that is considered as poor. The headcount index is simple to construct and easy to understand. However, this indicator is insensitive to differences in the depth of poverty. More precisely, it fails to capture the extent to which individual income (or expenditure) falls below the poverty line.

ii. Poverty Gap Index

The poverty gap index measures the depth of poverty that is how far, on average, households/individuals fall below the poverty line. This index shows how much money should be transferred to the poor in order to lift them out of poverty. More precisely, this indicator presents the minimum cost for eliminating poverty with monetary transfers. However, the poverty gap index does not take into account differences in the severity of poverty amongst the poor, and therefore tends to omit inequality among the poor. Poverty gap index might complement the headcount index, but might not be sufficient in order to fully reflect the incidence of poverty in a country.

iii. Squared Poverty Gap (Poverty Severity) Index

The squared poverty gap index is used to measure the severity of poverty that is the degree of inequality amongst the poor themselves. This index is a weighted sum of poverty gaps (as a proportion of the poverty line), where the weights are the proportionate poverty gaps themselves. The act of squaring the poverty gap gives greater weight to the poverty gap of the poorest households since their poverty gap will be larger. The need for this index arises because the poverty gap index may not adequately capture concerns over distribution changes within the poor. For example, if a policy resulted in money transfer from someone just below the poverty line to the poorest person, the squared poverty gap index will reflect this change, while the poverty gap index will not.

iv. Gini Coefficient

The most well-known and widely used single measure of inequality is the Gini coefficient. This coefficient is based on the Lorenz curve, which is a cumulative frequency curve comparing the distribution of a specific variable (for example, income) against the population with the aim of showing inequality. Gini coefficient is a good measure of inequality because of its strong properties, including: (1) if all incomes were doubled the index would not change; (2) if the population size were to change but the distribution remained constant, the index would remain unchanged; (3) if two individuals were to swap incomes the index would not change; (4) if a high-income individual makes a transfer to a lower income individual the index would reduce. Moreover, this coefficient is easy to use and understand.

Gini coefficient has some drawbacks like other measures. It is decomposable but not subgroup consistent. Subgroup consistency requires that if poverty falls in one subgroup and is unchanged in another and both have fixed population sizes, then the overall poverty level must likewise fall. The problem with the Gini coefficient appears when the income ranges of the subgroup distributions overlap. In that case, the effect of a given distributional change on subgroup inequality can be opposite to its effect on overall inequality (World Bank, 2013). The Gini coefficient can be broken into a within-group term, a between-group term, and an overlap term and it is the overlap term that can override the within-group effect to generate subgroup inconsistencies.

v. Growth Incidence Curve

The growth incidence curve (GIC) illustrates the decomposition of growth across different income groups by presenting the impact of growth on poverty. The GIC plots the growth rate at each quintile of per capita income. The GIC allows to compare the incidence of growth in poorer segments of the population with that of richer segments or with the rate of growth of mean income.

vi. Sen Index

Sen (1976) proposed an index that seeks to incorporate the effects of the number of poor, the depth of their poverty, and the distribution of poverty within the group. Contrary to other measures analysed above, Sen Index is sensitive to distribution among the poor. However, Sen Index is decomposable but not subgroup consistent because it depends on the Gini coefficient. Therefore, this index possesses the same disadvantages with Gini coefficient.

vii. The Sen-Shorrocks-Thon Index

The Sen-Shorrocks-Thon (SST) poverty index was originally formulated in terms of a basic poverty measure and an inequality measure. The poverty gap measure is the basic poverty measure used for constructing the SST, and the Gini coefficient is the inequality measure. The SST Index is one of the widely used indicators of poverty. This index can be decomposed into its constitutive elements such as poverty gap index as well as Gini coefficient. However, the link between the index and its constitutive elements is not straight-forward.

viii. The Watts Index

The Watts index was proposed by Watts (1968) and it is the average difference between the logarithm of the poverty line and the logarithm of incomes. The Watts index is a good measure

of poverty because it is more sensitive to a transfer at the lower end of the distribution than at the upper end of the income distribution of the poor. Besides, this index is additively decomposable in which case overall poverty is expressed as a population-weighted average of subgroup poverty levels.

There is no universally accepted measure of poverty and inequality. Therefore, a number of different approaches exist which help national practitioners specify poverty and inequality indicators that match their specific situation.

1.2.2. Alternative Tools for Poverty and Inequality Evaluation

In addition to the above-mentioned standard measures of poverty and inequality, efforts have been made to develop new tools that can take into account different aspects of human deprivation. This subsection aims to review these tools developed for poverty and inequality evaluation, including human poverty index, gender-related development index, multidimensional poverty index, inequality of economic opportunity, polarization, at-risk-of-poverty or social exclusion indicator, global hunger index as well as to examine their advantages and disadvantages.

i. Human Poverty Index (HPI)

In the 1997 Human Development Report, a poverty indice referred to as HPI-1 was introduced for developing countries. The HPI-1 consists of three dimensions: (i) a long and healthy life, (ii) knowledge, and (iii) a decent standard of living. Deprivation in the long and healthy life dimension was measured by the percentage of people not expected to survive to the age of forty. Deprivation in the knowledge dimension was assessed by the percentage of adults illiterate. Finally, deprivation in the standard of living dimension was average of deprivations in three indicators: the percentage of people without access to safe water, the percentage of people without access to health services and the percentage of moderately and severely underweight children under the age of five years. In 2010, HPI was replaced with the Multidimensional Poverty Index.

ii. Gender-related Development Index (GDI)

The Gender-related Development Index (GDI) is based on the equally distributed equivalent achievements which correspond to generalized means with particular restriction on the relevant parameter (Seth and Villar, 2014b). The GDI is constructed in two steps. First, an equally distributed equivalent achievement for each of the three dimensions (life expectancy, education, and estimated earned income) is calculated using the male and female achievements. Then, the GDI of a country is computed as a simple average of the three equally distributed equivalent achievements. The GDI captures inequality between males and females. However, it ignores inequality within groups. Even when human development levels are less unequal across genders, there may exist large inequality across the population.

iii. Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI)

The Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI), used for the first time in the 2010 UNDP Human Development Report and developed by Oxford Poverty & Human Development Initiative (OPHI), complements monetary measures of poverty by taking into account multiple deprivations and their overlap. The index examines deprivations across the same three indicators composing the Human Development Index (HDI): - education, health and standard of living, but

consisting of 10 indicators and shows the number of people who are multidimensionally poor i.e. suffering deprivations in 33% of weighted indicators (Table 1.1.). The MPI can also be constructed by region, ethnicity as well as other groupings. Therefore, the change from unidimensional to multidimensional poverty measurement is an important theoretical development and presents advantages for policymakers.

In terms of advantages, it is worth mentioning that though the HPI contributed to the evaluation of poverty, it does not illustrate destitution suffered by households. Therefore, the MPI aims at modifying this issue by identifying deprivations at the household level across the same three dimensions such as education, health and living standards. However, the MPI is an average of weighted deprivations that the poor experience and it is insensitive to inequality across the poor.

Table 1.1. Structure of the MPI

Dimension	Indicator	A Person in a Household is Deprived if…
HEALTH	**Nutrition**	*Any woman or child in the household with nutritional information is undernourished*
	Mortality	*Any child has died in the household*
EDUCATION	**Schooling**	*No household member has completed five years of schooling*
	Attendance	*Any school-aged child in the household is not attending school up to class 8*
STANDARD OF LIVING	**Electricity**	*The household has no electricity*
	Sanitation	*The household's sanitation facility is not improved or it is shared with other households*
	Water	*The household does not have access to safe drinking water or safe water is more than 30 minutes' walk round up*
	Flooring Material	*The household has a dirt, sand or dung floor*
	Cooking fuel	*The household cooks with dung, wood or charcoal*
	Assets	*The household does not own more than one of: radio, telephone, TV, bike, motorbike or refrigerator, and does not own a car or truck*

Source: Alkire, Roche, and Seth (2011)

iv. Inequality of Economic Opportunity (IEO) Index

The inequality of economic opportunity (IEO) index estimates the share of income inequality that can be attributed to differences in people's predetermined "circumstances" defined as an individual's characteristics that influence his/her outcome but over which he/she has no control such as race, gender and family background. It is argued that only the relative "efforts" for which the individual is held responsible in each group of "circumstances" are comparable (Roemer, 1998). The inequality between circumstances is then measured by comparing individuals with the same relative level of effort. The inequality of economic opportunity is measured at different points of the distribution of relative levels of effort and these measurements are then aggregated into a single index.

v. Polarization

Polarization describes a situation where a population spreads apart into well-defined extremes of high and low and loses observations in the middle. It is related to inequality in that a transfer from low incomes to high incomes (across the middle) increases both polarization and inequality. One approach to measure polarization was developed by Wolfson (1997) which

focused on the decline of the middle class, monitoring how income distribution that is the national income divided among groups of individuals, households, social classes, or factors of production spread out from its center. In this context, a bipolarized income distribution relates to the situation where there are fewer individuals or families with middle level incomes (Wolfson, 1997). Wang and Tsui (2000) followed the Wolfson approach by defining indices of polarization. These indices measure distances from a central point of the income distribution, called the median income. If the income has a large spread, these indices can be greater than one. If all individuals have the same income, these indices reach its minimum zero.

vi. At-Risk-of-Poverty or Social Exclusion Indicator (AROPE)

In June 2010, the European Council adopted a social inclusion target as part of the Europe 2020 Strategy to lift at least 20 million people in the European Union from the risk of poverty and exclusion by 2020. To monitor progress towards this target, the EU Council of Ministers responsible for Employment, Social Policy, Health and Consumer Affairs (EPSCO) agreed on an 'at risk of poverty or social exclusion' indicator. This indicator captures several dimensions which include people that are at least in one of the following three categories:

a) People at risk-of-poverty, who have an equivalised disposable income below the risk-of-poverty threshold, set by the European Union at 60 % of the national median equivalised disposable income (after social transfers).

b) People who suffer from severe material deprivation and have living conditions severely constrained by a lack of resources.

c) People living in households with very low work intensity. More precisely, people aged 0-59 living in households where adults worked less than 20% of their total work potential during the past year.

This indicator does not sufficiently take into account other factors that affect people's situations such as how far below the poverty threshold they are or the length of time they have been poor.

vii. Global Hunger Index (GHI)

The Global Hunger Index (GHI) is used to measure malnutrition across countries and was adopted and further developed by the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI). The GHI combines three equally weighted indicators: 1) the proportion of the undernourished as a percentage of the population as compiled by the FAO. Undernourishment indicates the calorie consumption of fewer than 1,800 a day, which is thought to represent the minimum calorie requirement that most people need to live a healthy and productive life (FAO, 2011); 2) the prevalence of underweight children under the age of five as estimated by the WHO; and 3) the mortality rate of children under the age of five as collected by the UNICEF.

Since GHI's calculation involves three equally-weighted indicators, it is a more comprehensive measure of undernutrition (Weismann, 2006). Besides, the GHI reflects the nutritional status of children under the age of five.

Figure 1.1. Major Poverty and Inequality Measures

As shown in Figure 1.1, different indices discussed above can also be grouped under two separate categories, namely poverty measures and inequality measures. These indices have evolved over time to include various aspects of deprivations. A simplified index may not be sufficient for capturing the complexity of human lives, while more complex indices can make the analysis difficult. Therefore, more research may be needed to improve the existing indices and/or to develop new ones so that the complex realities of poverty and inequality are captured properly while keeping the indices as simple as possible. It should be borne in mind that another important problem with these indices is the requirement of data. Therefore, theoretical developments cannot be realized without clarifying the data constraints.

1.3. Determinants of Poverty

This section aims at examining the determinants of poverty by exploring socio-economic linkages of poverty as well as factors channelling these linkages. Poverty affects many aspects of socio-economic profile of people, through: 1) education; 2) health; 3) labour market; 4) agriculture, livestock and food security; 5) participation and inclusion 6) transfers and taxes; 7) institutional quality; and 8) social safety net programmes. The relationship between poverty and its determinants is multi-faceted and bidirectional. Besides, it is worth mentioning that these determinants are closely related to each other.

1.3.1. Education

The link between poverty and low academic achievements has been well established. Poverty affects the physical and mental health and wellbeing of children and hence limits their readiness to succeed both academically and socially in a school environment. Usually, poor children are at a greater risk of either not attending a school or attaining comparatively poor academic results which contributes to the cycle of the poverty by making it more difficult for these children to lift themselves out of poverty in future. Studies show that the effects of poverty on children education are also influenced

by the family behaviour. In this context, low-income families often have limited education, reducing their ability to provide a responsive stimulating environment for their children. Besides, families who are poorly educated with poor decision-making skills may have more difficulty protecting their children from the effects of poverty than families who are better educated with rational decision-making skills.

Moreover, poverty causes school dropouts. In this regard, child labour which refers to the employment of children in any work that deprives children of their childhood, interferes with their ability to attend regular school. The majority of child labour victims are children who are living in poverty because they lack basic needs. For this reason, they are forced to do any kind of work in order to gain financial wealth which affects school attendance.

1.3.2. Health

Studies on linkages between poverty and health can be divided into two groups: those with a micro or individual orientation which emphasizes the connection between personal experience of poverty and personal health status; and those with a macro or population orientation which underline the association between living in a society with a more unequal distribution of income and worse population health outcomes.

The key result of the micro or individual research is that there is a very robust relationship between individual income and individual health, where poverty leads to lower health status (Phipps, 2003). At the macro or population level, on the other hand, studies tested whether societies with high socio-economic inequality have worse health outcomes. In this context, three explanations are given in the literature to support this relationship. The absolute income hypothesis indicates that health status increases with the level of personal income but at a decreasing rate (Preston, 1975). The relative position hypothesis, associated with the pioneering study of Wilkinson et al. (2006), emphasizes that individual position within a social hierarchy is the key to understand the link between socio-economic inequality and health. The neo-materialist hypothesis argues that inequalities in health derive particularly from inequalities of the material environment such as medical, transportation, educational, housing, parks and recreational systems.

Most of the low-income people live in overcrowded and unsanitary slums and squatter settlements in urban areas, and therefore lack access to basic health services. These individuals are obliged to live in illegal and informal settlements because they cannot enter into the formal land and housing markets. Informal settlements are located on marginal land such as along river-banks and are prone to natural disasters. Individuals living in these settlements are subject to higher rates of diseases. As a result of these problems, low-income people have higher medical bills and report more lost working days which intensifies the effects of poverty.

1.3.3. Labour Market

Poverty and labour markets are strongly connected to each other because labour market earnings represent a fundamental source of income for workers. In this regard, in a system where an effective social protection does not exist, unemployment leads to poverty due to loss of labour income. In some situations, even having a job is not enough in order to push an individual out of poverty, if this person works in the informal sector with a low wage. In the literature, both unemployment and employment in informal sector are considered as two important factors while linking poverty and

labour market. For example, Agénor (2004) defined poverty as the ratio of the combined number of unemployed and those employed in the informal sector to the total labour force.

Moreover, shifts in the employment structure towards higher productivity sectors allow greater availability of technology that boosts productivity and the creation of assets for the poor.

1.3.4. Agriculture, Livestock and Food Security

Although poverty affects agriculture, livestock and food security, the inverse relationship also exists. In this connection, studies have confirmed that agricultural productivity growth has positive effects on poor in two areas: (1) lower food prices for consumers; (2) higher incomes for producers (Alston et al., 2000). Besides agriculture, development of livestock sector could also promote economic growth and hence could contribute towards the livelihoods of the poor especially in the rural areas (Pica, Pica-Ciamarra and Otte, 2008).

Moreover, while there are arguments for promoting livestock in developing countries to improve nutrition and health, it is worth mentioning that excessive consumption of foods and animal products may have negative health effects such as obesity, heart diseases and diabetes (FAO, 2004). Besides, it is worth mentioning the relationship between food security and education because food insecurity causes learning disabilities which will have negative impact on human capital development.

Since 2007, sharp increases in international food prices became known as the global food crisis. During these particular situations, continuous inflation of food prices is particularly harmful for low-income individuals and can also hamper the progress that has been achieved in reducing poverty. Rising food prices aggravate, on the other hand, inequality because low-income people spend a disproportionately large share of their income on food and food staples represent an important share of their total food expenditure. As a result of these challenges, households that currently live just above the poverty line may fall into poverty.

1.3.5. Participation and Inclusion

Similar to the four areas examined above, the relationship between poverty and participation as well as inclusion is bidirectional. Studies indicate that the community participation can lower the cost of antipoverty interventions because communities maintain informational advantages not available to the outsiders.

Moreover, while low-income people suffer the most from dysfunctions in cities, they are the least able, as individuals, to influence how cities are governed. In many cities, formal structures of government exclude the poor from decision-making. Therefore, low-income individuals have greater possibility to influence decision-making under conditions of good governance referring to a system of government which is participatory, inclusive, based on the rule of law, efficient, transparent and accountable.

1.3.6. Transfers and Taxes

Studies on “optimal income taxation” rest on the assumption that decisions about transfer and tax policy should be made in order to maximize the well-being of all members of society. In this context, some studies find discouraging evidence on the role of government in limiting the impact of economic downturns on low-income people. In addition, different measures of poverty and inequality such as Gini coefficient, headcount and poverty gap indices have been used in empirical tax studies to examine the distributional impact of a tax. Moreover, tax systems in developing

countries are especially influenced by indirect taxes which cannot be imposed directly on individuals, and therefore depend on the goods and services consumed. Taxation of intermediate inputs is also significant in developing countries. For example, Selden et al. (1992) argue that taxation of petroleum is important since fuel is sold as an intermediate as well as a final good. Fuel taxation can also affect other final goods such as transport consumed by low-income people.

1.3.7. Institutional Quality

In literature, cross-country empirical analysis find that income differences across countries are closely related to variations in institutional quality (Hall and Jones, 1999; Acemoglu, Johnson and Robinson,2001). Also, in line with new institutional economics, Rodrik, Subramanian and Trebbi (2002), assert that institutions compared to geography and trade, explain better the variation of income inequality between developed and developing countries in the world. Despite the fact that there is no consensus on the exact definition of institutions, the Nobel Prize-winning economist Douglas North's concept of institutions is frequently used in the economics literature. According to North (1990), institutions are "the rules of the game in a society or, more formally, are the humanly devised constraints that shape human interaction." In this definition, constraints cover formal (rules, laws, constitutions, regulations) and informal (norms of behaviour, conventions, codes of conduct) restrictions.

Moreover, it is essential to have a most accurate measurement of the institutional quality. An indicator used in several economic studies is the aggregate governance index developed by Kaufmann, Kraay and Zoido-Lobaton (1999a). Kaufmann et al. (1999a) first define governance as "the traditions and institutions by which authority in a country is exercised". This definition is then used to measure six broad categories of governance. These are: 1) voice and accountability; 2) political instability and absence of violence; 3) government effectiveness; 4) regulatory quality; 5) rule of law; and 6) control of corruption. Kaufmann et al. (1999b) show that countries having higher values on these measures tend to have lower infant mortality, higher literacy rates and higher per capita incomes.

1.3.8. Social Safety Net Programmes & Zakah and Waqf

Social safety net is one of the components of social protection system which includes social insurance, labour policy and targeted service delivery. Social safety net transfers are non-contributory transfers referring to need-based social assistance, social pensions or disability transfers, family benefits and food stamps that target the poor and those vulnerable to poverty and economic shocks. Social safety net programmes may be funded through charity in the form of Zakah and Waqf.

The institutions of Zakah and Waqf are among several instruments which can contribute to combating poverty and enhance welfare in the society. While Zakah helps accomplish a flow of funds, Waqf generates the material infrastructure and creates a source of revenue at family, community and state levels (Dogarawa, 2009). Moreover, the history of Zakah and Waqf is very rich with major achievements in serving the poor and enhancing the welfare of the Ummah in general. Zakah creates a mechanism in order to transfer income and wealth from rich to the poor. In this context, unconnected with the number of poor in a society or the causes of poverty, there is always a continuous flow of transfer in terms of welfare. Through Zakah and Waqf, every individual is assured of minimum income, which contribute to the social security system in an Islamic society.

STATE OF POVERTY IN OIC MEMBER COUNTRIES

2

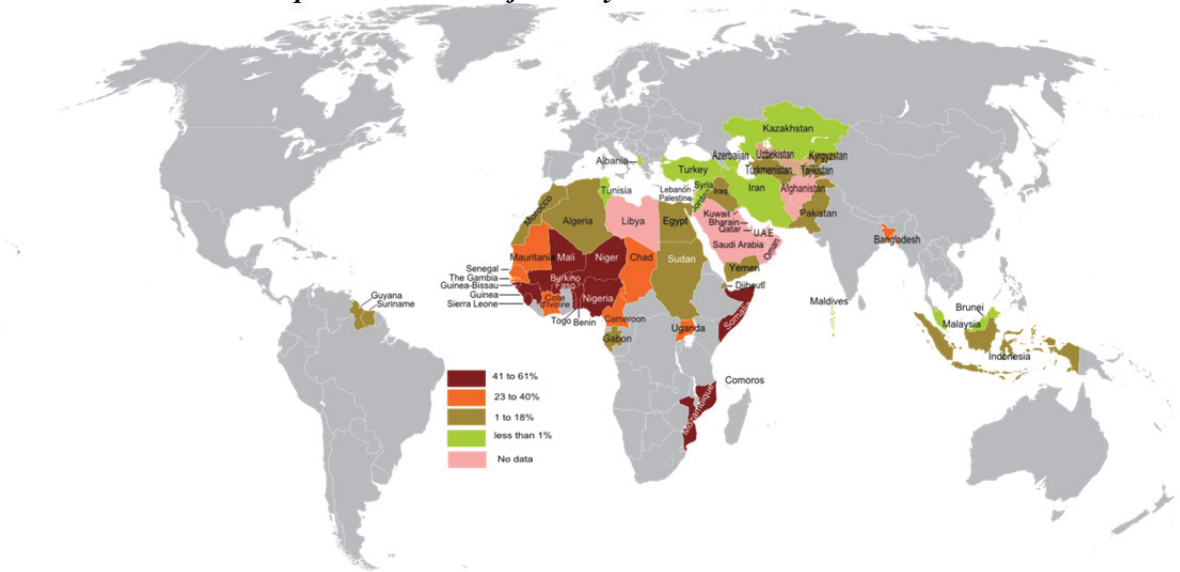
2.1. Poverty Profile

This part of the report analyses the state of poverty in the OIC countries based on available data. To do this, two of the alternative measures of poverty discussed in Part I are being used: income poverty and multidimensional poverty. Despite the serious data problems in assessing inter-temporal changes in poverty, attempts have been made in this part of the report to present both trend analysis and current state analysis of poverty in OIC countries.

2.1.1. Income Poverty

Income poverty measures the level of income or consumption expenditures which is designated as the minimum needed by an individual or household to avoid poverty in a country. At the national level, the governments set national poverty lines to measure the incidence of poverty among the population. However, based on the specific socio-economic conditions, poverty lines differ from one country to another and hence, are not usually comparable across the countries. To track the poverty at global level, World Bank developed an international poverty line in 1990 which is anchored to the national poverty lines used in the poorest countries. The current threshold of $1.25 (at 2005 PPP) assesses poverty in the world as a whole by the standards of what poverty means in the poorest countries (World Bank, 2014). The World Bank's PovcalNet database provides estimates on income poverty in the world. The analysis of income poverty trends in this section covers only 126 countries in the world (almost all of them developing countries) including 44 OIC countries (Appendix, Table A.1).

Map 2.1. Incidence of Poverty in OIC Member Countries



Source: World Bank, PovcalNet

Over the years, substantial progress has been made in reducing extreme poverty worldwide. According to the latest estimates from the World Bank (PovcalNet, 2014), number of people living below the international poverty threshold of $1.25 per day has halved, to around one billion people, or 17.4% of world total population, between 1990 and 2011. In line with the global trends, OIC member countries also witnessed significant improvement in poverty situation and the total number of poor people declined from 396 million in 1990 to 322 million in 2011, corresponding to a decrease of 18.9%. In 1990, OIC member countries have a population of 963 million, of which 41.1% were living below poverty line. From 1990 to 2011, the number of people in OIC countries has increased by over 471 million and the number of people living on less than 1.25$ per day fell. As a result, the share of poor in OIC total population was recorded at 22.3% in 2011. Nevertheless, despite these positive developments, poverty remained comparatively very high in OIC countries and their share in world total poor is also on rise. While 22% of world's total poor lived in OIC countries in 1990, they were home to over one third (33.1%) of world total poor in 2011.

Figure 2.1. Trends in Poverty (millions)

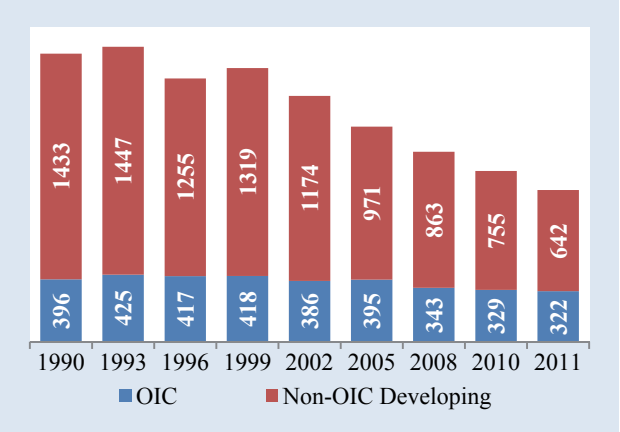
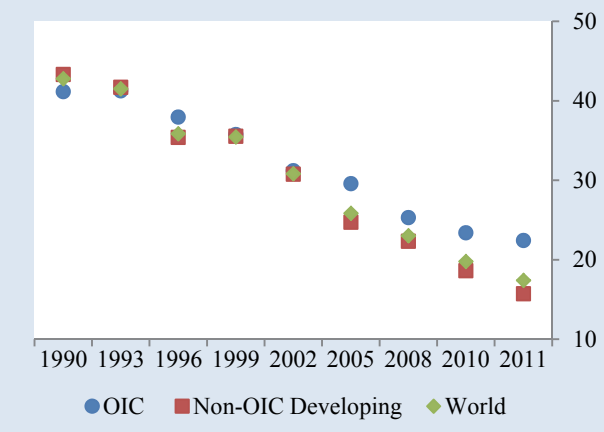


Figure 2.2. Incidence of Poverty (%)



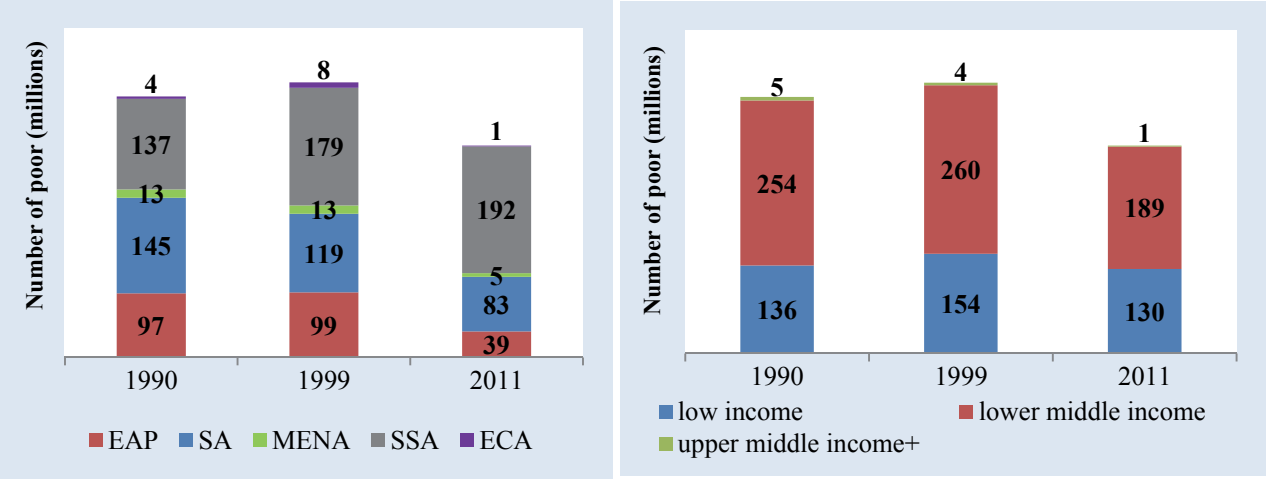
Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on World Bank, PovcalNet

Among the OIC regional groups, the distribution of poor has changed significantly during the last two decades. Compared with 1990, the number of poor has declined in all OIC regions except Sub-Saharan Africa. OIC member countries in South Asia have made great strides against poverty where the number of poor has declined from 145 million in 1990 to 83 million in 2011 and poverty rate diminished by 41 percentage points. While poverty was most prevalent in South Asia with a share of 37% of OIC total poor in 1990, it was home to only 26% of OIC total poor in 2011. On the opposite side of spectrum, Sub-Saharan Africa recorded the least progress against poverty where total number of people living below poverty line went up from 137 million in 1990 to 192 million in 2011, with 46% of total population in this region living below poverty line. Meanwhile, the relative share of this region in OIC total poor has also jumped from 35% in 1990 to 60% in 2011.

The poverty profile of OIC member countries classified according to their income levels reveals that around 99% of poor are living in lower middle (59%) and low income countries (41%). While poverty has fallen across the all income groups in the last two decades, the pace was considerably slower in low income countries (Figure 2.3). Between 1990 and 2011, total number of poor for upper middle and high income countries fell by 73% and for lower middle income by 26%. On the contrary, low income countries registered only 4% decrease in number of poor and their share in total OIC poor has remained constant at about 41% during the period. By 2011,

41% of low income countries population lived in poverty compared to only 1% for upper middle and high income countries. This ratio was recorded at 22% for lower middle income countries in 2011.

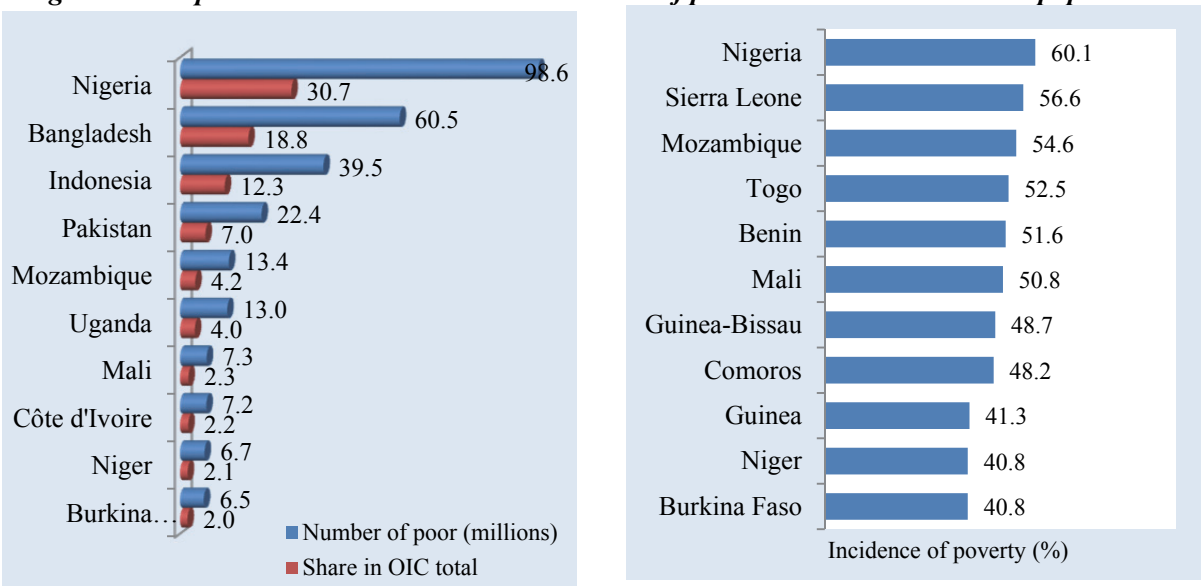
Figure 2.3. Distribution of Income Poverty across OIC Regions and Income Groups



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on World Bank, PovcalNet

The total number of people living below the international poverty line of 1.25$ per day remained highly concentrated among a handful of OIC member countries. In general, poverty remained very high especially in member countries from Sub-Saharan Africa and South and East Asia regions. According to the latest estimates, in 2011 around 86% of OIC total poor were living in only 10 member countries (Figure 2.4). Seven of these countries are from Sub-Saharan Africa region. Among these countries, Nigeria alone accounted for about one third (30.7%) of OIC total poor followed by Bangladesh (18.8%), Indonesia (12.3%) and Pakistan (7%). By 2011, out of 44 member countries for which the data are available, more than 40% of total population was living below the poverty line in 11 member countries. All of them were from Sub-Saharan Africa region. Among others, poverty rate was recorded at 20% to 40% in 8 countries whereas; less than 1% of total population was living below the poverty line in 10 member countries namely (in descending order): Malaysia, Maldives, Kazakhstan, Jordan, Palestine, Turkey, Azerbaijan, Albania, Tunisia and Iran.

Figure 2.4. Top-10 OIC countries with total number of poor and their share in total population

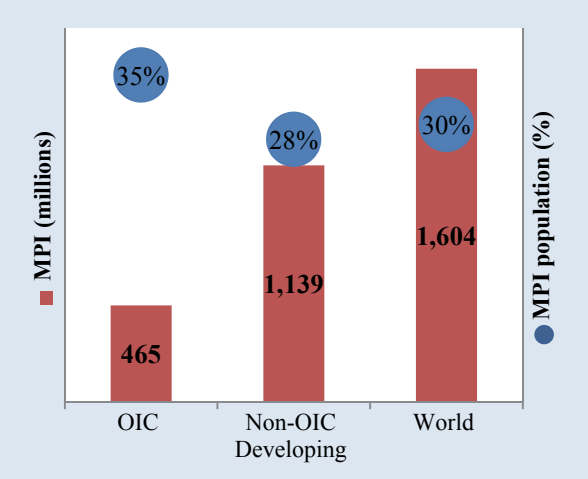


Source: World Bank, PovcalNet

2.1.2. Multidimensional Poverty

Poverty is a complicated phenomenon that goes beyond the monetary terms. It arises not only when people have inadequate income, but also when they lack key capabilities or education, have poor health or insecurity, or when they experience the absence of rights. Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) developed by Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) seeks to capture these wider deprivations.

Figure 2.5. Multidimensional Poverty



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on OPHI, 2014

The MPI uses 10 indicators to measure poverty in three dimensions: education, health and living standards. If someone is deprived in a third or more of ten (weighted) indicators (see section 1.2 for details), the global index identifies them as 'MPI poor', and the extent – or intensity – of their poverty is measured by the number of deprivations they are experiencing. (OPHI, 2014). Currently, MPI data is available for 108 developing countries in the world, including 42 OIC member countries (Appendix, Table A.2).

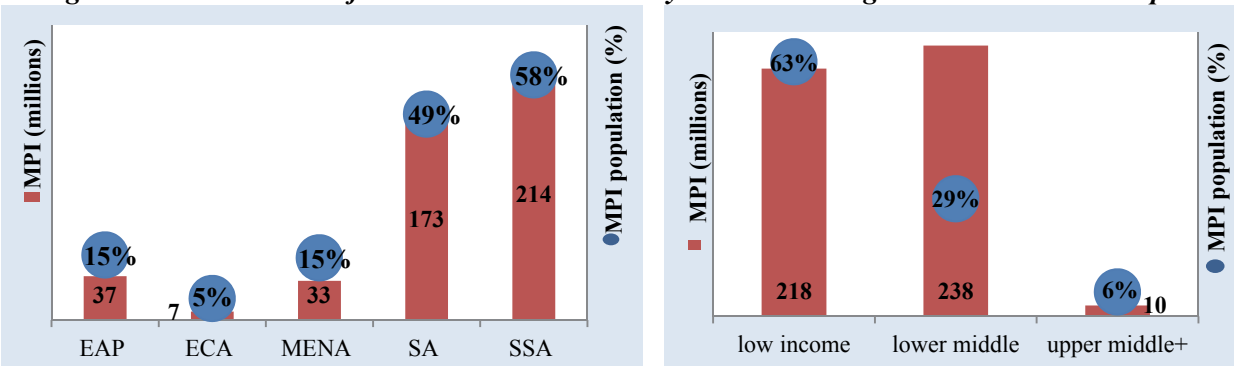
According to the MPI for 2014, over 1.6 billion people in the world are multidimensionally poor, corresponding to 30% of world's total population. Over 80% of these multidimensional poor are living in South Asia (52%) and Sub-Saharan Africa (29%). As shown in Figure 2.5, the incidence of multidimensional poverty remained comparatively high in OIC member countries with 35% of their total population living in multidimensional poverty in 2014. A total of 465 million people in OIC countries are considered as multidimensional poor, accounting for 29% of the world total multidimensional poor in 2014. Among these poor, 38% (177 million) are lacking access to improved living conditions, 34% (159 million) don not have access to basic health services and 28% (129 million) are deprived of basic education and schooling.

The majority of multidimensional poor in OIC countries are living in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia regions (Figure 2.6). With a total of 214 million multidimensional poor, member countries in Sub-Saharan Africa are home to 46% of OIC total multidimensional poor followed by South Asia where 173 million multidimensional poor accounted for 37% of OIC total. On the other hand, member countries in Europe and Central Asian region have the lowest number of multidimensional poor (7 million), accounting only for 2% of OIC total. The incidence of poverty also remained significantly higher in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia regions. Member countries in Sub-Saharan Africa registered the highest share of multidimensional poor in their total population (58%), followed by South Asia (49%), East Asia & Pacific (15%), and Middle East and North Africa (15%).

Multidimensional poverty is highly concentrated in lower middle and low income OIC member countries (Figure 2.6). With a total of 238 million poor, lower middle income countries accounted for more than half (51%) of the OIC total multidimensional poor followed by low income countries where 218 million poor accounted for 47% of the OIC total poor in 2014. The

share of poor in total population also remained significantly high in the low income countries where about two third of total population is described as multidimensional poor. On the contrary, upper middle income countries recorded lowest prevalence of multidimensional poverty and they were home for only 2% of OIC total poor in 2014. The relative share of deprivation in basic services varies across the income groups. While, inadequate access to improved living conditions remained the top contributor to the deprivation (with a share of 44%) among poor in low income member countries, lack of access to health services with a share of 29% is the top contributor to the overall deprivation among poor in lower middle income group. In upper middle income countries, deprivation among poor stems mainly from lack of access to education services (44%).

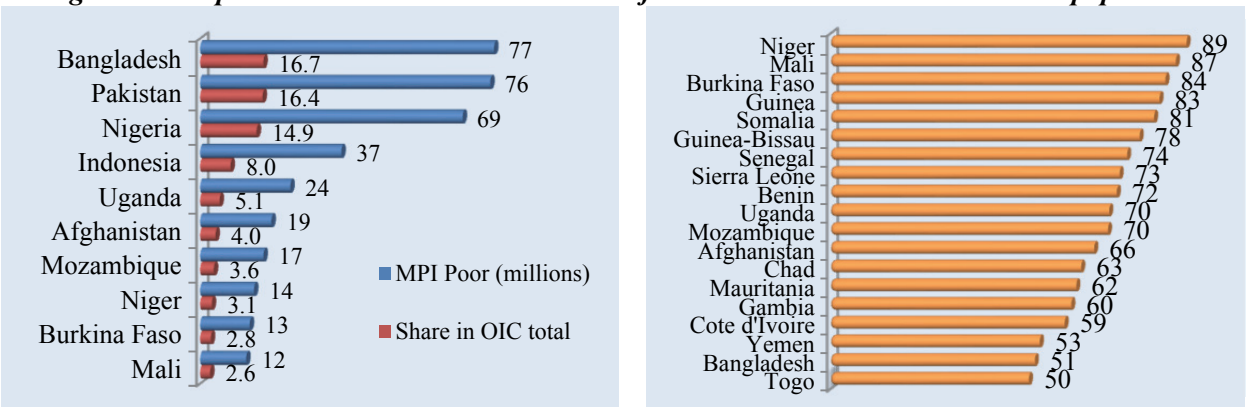
Figure 2.6. Distribution of Multidimensional Poverty across OIC Regions and Income Groups



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on OPHI, 2014

At the individual country level, more than three-fourths (77%) of OIC total multidimensional poor are living in 10 member countries. Among these, top-3 countries namely: Bangladesh, Pakistan and Nigeria are home to about half (48%) of the total OIC multidimensional poor. In 2014, half or more than half of the total population was living in multidimensional poverty in 19 member countries (Figure 2.7). Among these countries, 16 are from Sub-Saharan Africa and two from South Asian region. The highest prevalence of MPI poverty was recorded in Niger (89%) followed by Mali (87%) and Burkina Faso (84%). On the opposite side of the spectrum, the incidence of MPI poverty was recorded at less than 10% of total population in 15 member countries. Among these countries, this ratio was even less than 5% in 8 countries. The majority of member countries with lowest incidence of MPI poverty are from the Europe and Central Asia (6) and Middle East and North Africa (6) region.

Figure 2.7. Top-10 Countries with total number of MPI Poor and their share in total population



Source: OPHI, 2014

2.2. Determinants of Poverty in OIC Member Countries

As an unacceptable deprivation in human well-being, poverty can emerge as a result of uncontrolled or mismanaged demographic, economic, environmental, social as well as political factors. This section attempts to highlight some of these factors and how they can lead to poverty and deprivation, with particular focus on OIC member countries.

2.2.1. Low Economic Growth and Unemployment

Economic growth is one of the most influential determinants of poverty and quality of life in a country/region. Over the years, rapid and sustainable economic growth coupled with high employment rates led to significant improvement in welfare of masses across the globe. In fact, high economic growth on its own is insufficient to guarantee poverty eradication unless the benefits of the growth are more equally distributed. The creation of decent employment opportunities is a key link to the nexus between growth and poverty reduction.

As a group, the OIC member countries are well-endowed with potential economic resources in different fields and sectors such as agriculture and arable land, energy and mining, human resources, and they form a large strategic trade region. Yet, this inherent potential does not manifest itself in the form of reasonable levels of economic and human development in many OIC member countries and in the OIC member countries as a group. Having accounted for 22.6 % of the world total population in 2013, the 57 OIC member countries produced only 11.2 % of the world total GDP. Currently, average GDP per capita (expressed in current US$ and based on PPP) in the OIC member countries is recorded at US$ 6,076 in 2013 which is US$ 1,234 and US$ 6,290 lesser than the other developing countries and world averages respectively. The average real GDP per capita growth rate in OIC member countries was recorded at 1.8 % in 2013 compared to 2.2 % in the world and 4.1 % in other developing countries. Among the OIC countries, economic activity remained highly concentrated in upper middle and high income countries which accounted for 57% of OIC total GDP in 2013. The share of low income countries was recorded at only 6%.

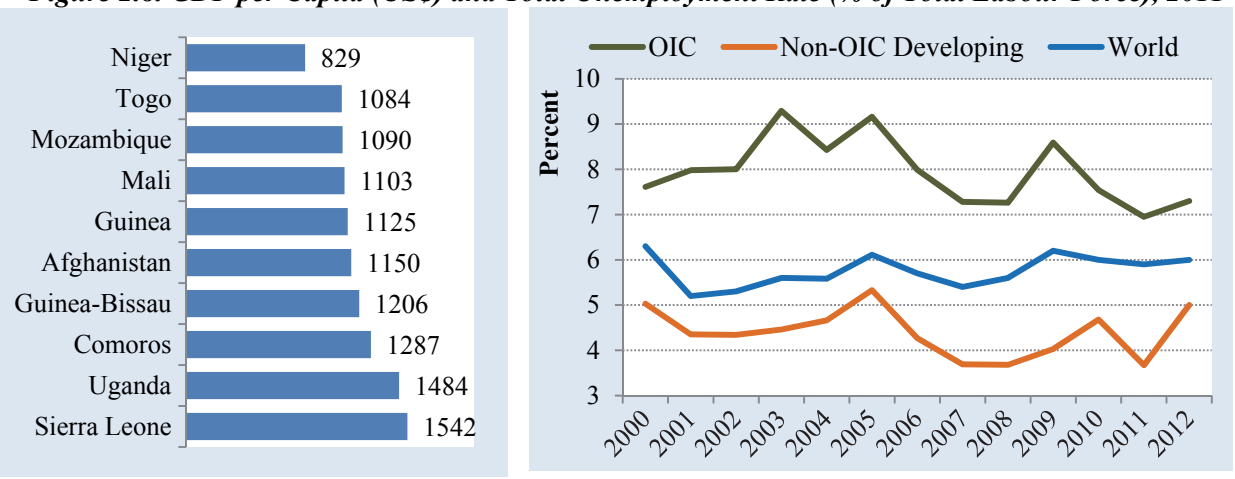
With respect to GDP per capita distribution, wide spread disparities exist among the OIC member countries. In 2013, GDP per capita in Niger was 119 times lower than the Qatar. In general, GDP per capita in low and lower middle income countries remained significantly lower than the others with a moderate growth rate over the years. As shown in Figure 2.8, some OIC member countries with highest incidence of poverty are ranked among the member countries with lowest GDP per capita in 2013. Among these countries Mali recorded an overall negative GDP per capita growth rate of 1.3%, Guinea +0.05%, Niger +0.4%, and Afghanistan +1.1%.

Many OIC countries with high incidence of poverty are characterised by low economic growth and high population growth rates. Although, there is no consensus about the relationship between high population growth and incidence of poverty (Sinding, 2009), population growth which is unproportional to the economic growth could be an important factor behind the high incidence of poverty in many of these countries.

According to the latest available data, total unemployment rate in OIC member countries were floating between 6.95 % and 9.29 % during 2000-2012 (Figure 2.8). In particular, female unemployment in OIC countries remains highest with 9.1 % in 2012, which is estimated at 5.2 % in other developing countries and 8.1 % in developed countries for the same year. In the same

year, Mauritania (31%) is the country with highest unemployment rate in the world. Unemployment is also a serious concern in Palestine (23 %), Guyana (21.7 %), Gabon (20.3 %) and Yemen (17.6 %). The figures in relation to youth unemployment in OIC countries are even less promising. It remained above 16 % and also well above the averages of other developing and developed countries until the global financial crisis in 2008 which then decreased to below 16 %. Similarly, in 2012, the highest youth unemployment rate was estimated in Mauritania (45.3 %), followed by Guyana (42 %), Gabon (36.8 %), Egypt (35.7 %) and Yemen (34.8 %). In 24 OIC countries, youth unemployment rate was above 20 % and in 33 countries above the world average of 12.9 % in 2012.

Figure 2.8. GDP per Capita (US$) and Total Unemployment Rate (% of Total Labour Force), 2011



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on IMF, WEO 2014; World Bank, WDI ; SESRIC, BASEIND

2.2.3. Environmental Degradation

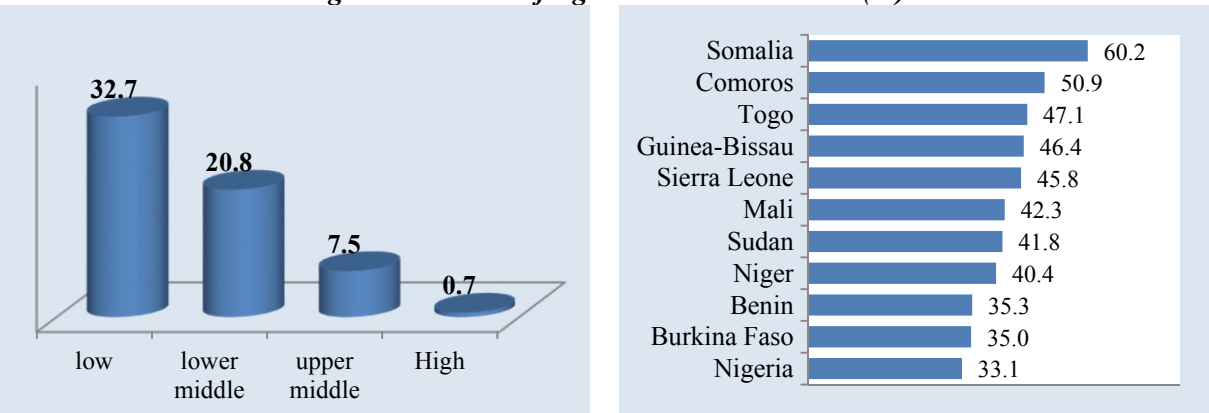
There is a strong relationship between environmental degradation and incidence of poverty. Over half of the world's poor live in rural areas where they depend on natural resources such as land, water, wood, and vegetation to earn their livings. Environmentalists believe that accelerated growth of economic activities and the increase in global population have resulted in environmental degradation in almost all countries. Ozone depletion, loss of biodiversity, depletion of natural resources and desertification have all played an important role in environmental unsustainability.

Due to their heavy reliance on agriculture sector and low capacities to mitigate the environmental degradation, low and lower middle income OIC member countries are highly vulnerable to environmental shocks and environmental degradation is a major determinant of high incidence of poverty in majority of these countries. According to the latest estimates, over 32% of total GDP in low income countries is coming from agriculture sector whereas; this ratio stands at 21% in lower middle income countries compared to OIC group average of 10%. At the individual country level, agriculture remained the main stay of economic activity in the majority of OIC member countries with high incidence of poverty (Figure 2.9). It is very much clear that unmitigated environmental degradation and climatic changes will not only push hundreds of millions of people into hunger and poverty but will also undermine the progress made so far to eradicate poverty in majority of low and lower middle income OIC member countries.

Desertification is another major contributor to environmental sustainability degradation and hence poverty in the OIC member countries. It is mainly related with land degradation in dry lands, resulting from various factors including climatic variations and human activities like over

use of land, unsustainable agricultural practices of over cropping, overgrazing, poor irrigation and deforestation and expanding human population and urban living area. Almost all of OIC member countries are located in Drylands systems which are highly vulnerable to the desertification. According to the latest findings, the desertification vulnerability is high and very high among the member countries located especially in Sub-Saharan Africa and Asia region which are currently home for bulk of poor in OIC member countries.

Figure 2.9. Share of Agriculture in total GDP (%)



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on UNSD, National Accounts Main Aggregates

2.2.3. Misleading Social Norms and Traditions

Social, cultural and religious norms and traditions play an important role in shaping the attitude of a society towards collective welfare and prosperity both at macro and micro level. Poor people in developing societies are also suffering from poverty of information and lack awareness about the vital interventions which could lift them out of poverty. Instead, they believe in many myths and taboos which lead to low usage of services that are critical for their socio-economic status. People in OIC member countries are also no exception. Over the years, immunization campaigns in some member countries have not been effective mainly due to the controversies related with the safety and religious permissibility of the vaccines. Authorities in member countries like Nigeria and Pakistan have often reported the opposition of religious and political groups to carry out national polio vaccination campaigns (SESRIC, 2014c).

Gender based discrimination is another major determinant of poverty in many OIC member countries. Females in OIC member countries experience discrimination both in education and labour markets. For adult population, the average gender gap in literacy rate is more than 14% in OIC member countries whereas in developed countries it is less than 2%. The probability of out of the school is higher among female child than the males in majority of OIC member countries with highest incidence of poverty (Figure 2.10). On the other hand, in OIC member countries the average labour force participation among female population is around 47%, whereas in developed countries it is 66%. The world average is around 57%.

Early marriages and adolescent pregnancies are recognized as cause and consequence of poverty. Girls married in early age usually do not receive the educational and economic opportunities that help lift them and their families out of poverty. This also results in early childbearing, which is identified as having higher health risk for both mother and child. The practice of marrying young girls is overwhelmingly prevalent in the poorest OIC countries. Figure 2.11 shows the top countries in the world with the highest percentage of ever married women in the 15-19 age groups in the period 2000-2008. According to the available country

data, Niger had the highest share of ever married females in the 15-19 age group in the world which constituted two thirds of the total of married women in the country. Following Niger, in Mali almost half of the married women were also in that age group as well. Except for Malawi the other countries with a high percentage of ever married women in the 15-19 age group were the OIC member countries.

Figure 2.10. Rate of out-of-school at primary level, 2011

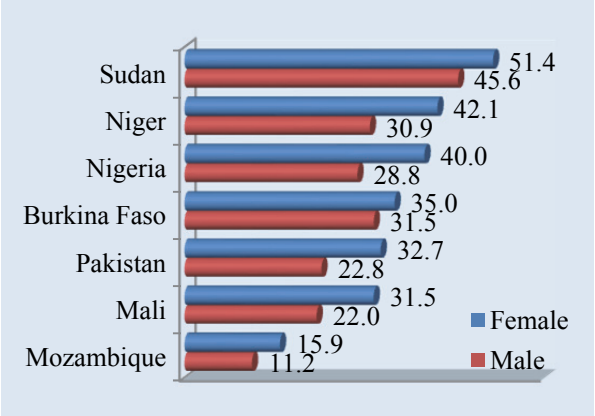
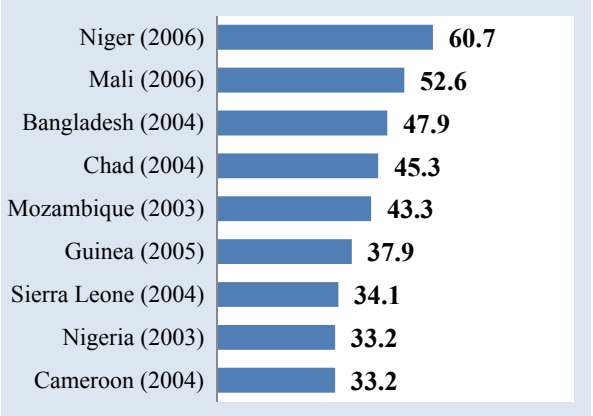


Figure 2.11. Married Women aged 15-19 (%)



Source: World Bank, WDI ; World Marriage Data

2.2.4. Ineffective Political System and Governance

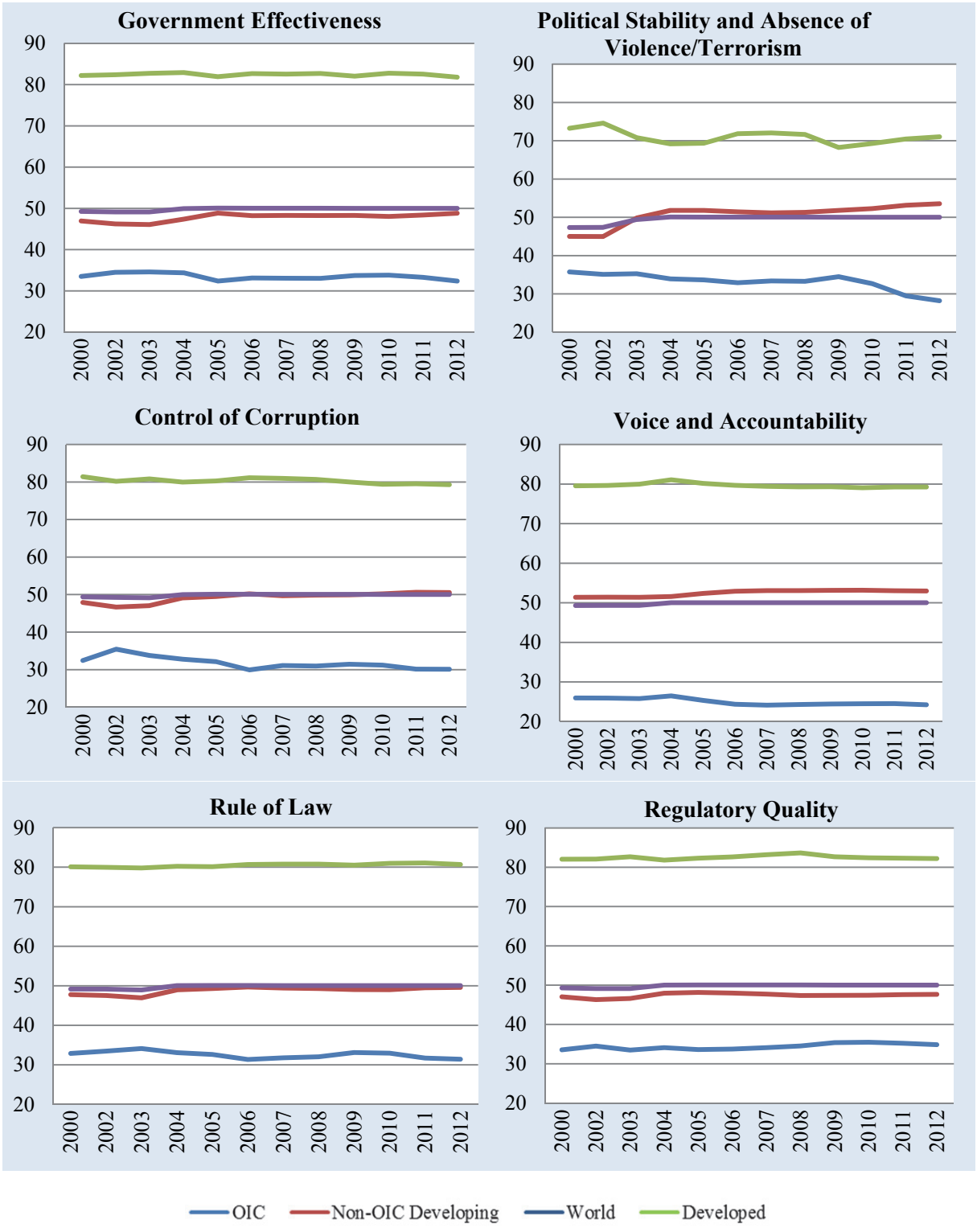
An effective and efficient political system plays important role in political stability, good governance, resolution of conflicts (both internal and external), and establishment of peace and security in a country. All of these indicators are the basic requirements for economic development and prosperity and, hence, decrease in poverty in a country/region. On the contrary, an ineffective political system and bad governance deteriorate the social and economic conditions of the people and increase the incidence and severity of poverty in a country/region.

There are many ways to gauge the effectiveness of political institutions in a country. Based on a long standing research project of the World Bank, Worldwide Governance Indicators (WGI) are used widely to measure the quality of governance in over 200 countries. The WGI covers six dimensions: voice and accountability, political stability and absence of violence, government effectiveness, regulatory quality, rule of law, and control of corruption. The percentile rank for each of these six indicators ranges from 0 (weakest) to 100 (strongest). According to the latest estimates, OIC countries scored fairly low in all six dimensions of good governance, as their average percentile rank remained below the world, non-OIC developing countries, and developed countries averages for all six indicators (Figure 2.12). At the individual country level, majority of OIC countries with low income and high incidence of poverty were ranked among the lowest performing countries in the world.

Civil conflicts and wars remained the major factors in the endurance of poverty in many OIC member countries. According to the Conflict Barometer 2012, the number of conflicts observed globally increased from 83 in 1945 to 396 in 2012, including more than 40 OIC countries with both low-intensity and high-intensity conflicts. According to the latest estimates, during the period 1946-2005, 53 OIC countries have spent a total of 621 years in conflicts, or 11.7 years per country. Almost 3 million people have died in OIC countries during these conflicts, or more than 4,600 per conflict. Moreover, millions of people are being forced to flee their homes because of conflict or violence, often with little or no possessions. Some crossed a national

border in search of refuge; others remained within their country and became internally displaced people (IDPs). The number of IDPs in OIC countries is estimated to be more than that in non-OIC countries since 2003. As of 2010, more than 14 million people in the OIC countries were internally displaced. Majority of the OIC countries are currently part of an ongoing conflict at varying intensity (SESRIC, 2014b).

Figure 2.12. Percentile Rank of Good Governance Indicators (2000-2012)



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on World Bank, WGI

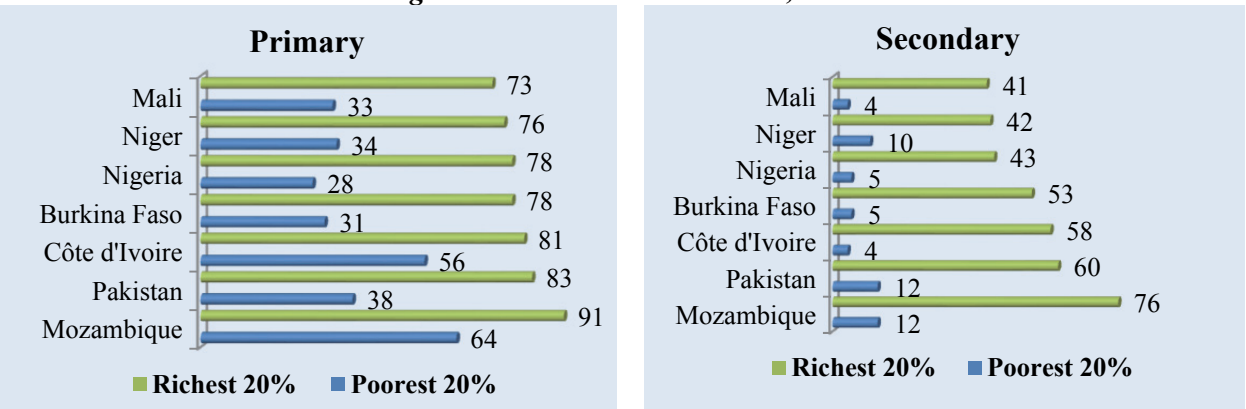
2.2.5. Illiteracy

Illiteracy is one of the major determinants of poverty across the developing world. Usually, people with less education or without any education can only find less-paid (or less-skilled) jobs. Also due to the lack of sufficient amount of vocational education institutions in the majority of developing countries people cannot develop their human capital, which leads to low levels of labour payoff that are not sufficient to lift people out of poverty. Worst of all, it is more likely for illiterate not to find a job to guarantee their income, leading them to sweep into poverty and making them dependent on aid from external resources. On the other hand, access to basic education is highly correlated with socioeconomic status and geographic location of a household in developing countries. In general, children in the poorest households are more likely to be out of school than peers from least poor households mainly due to the cost of schooling. In addition, they are also more likely to repeat grades and to have lower quality of education than those in higher income brackets. Likewise, children from rural areas have fairly less chances to be educated than those from urban areas.

Although, over the years, access to basic education has been improved across the OIC countries, the poor are still less likely to be educated than the non-poor. According to the latest estimates (SESRIC,2012), in 2011, net enrolment rates (NER) for primary and secondary schools in OIC countries were recorded at 74% and 50% respectively compared to 84% and 55%, respectively in the world. The OIC group's performance at primary school level remained well below the average of non-OIC developing countries where NER was recorded at 112%. Nevertheless, OIC countries achieved comparatively higher completion rate (75%) at primary school level than the world (72%) and non-OIC developing countries (69%). Originating from peculiar socio-economic circumstances, there are remarkable educational disparities among and within the OIC countries. In general, education performance of member countries from South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, where majority of OIC poor populations are living, remained significantly lower.

School enrolment rates are highly correlated with poverty profiles of households across the developing countries. Figure 2.13 shows the school attendance of children of primary age for richest and poorest households in selected OIC countries which are currently home for majority of OIC poor. The data show some consistent patterns. Among rich and poor quintiles, children from families in the richest quintile consistently participate in school at higher rates than children in the lowest quintiles. However, the intensity of inequality is not homogenous across the countries. For example, at primary school level, children from poorest quintile in Nigeria are 2.8 times more likely to be out of school compared to 1.4 times in case of Côte d'Ivoire. The intensity of inequality is significantly higher in case of secondary school. For example, children from poorest quintile in Mozambique are 15 times more likely to be out of school compared to their peer in richest quintile, while this likelihood is 11 times in Côte d'Ivoire and 10 times in Niger.

Figure 2.13 Net Enrolment Rates, 2011



Source: World Bank, WDI

2.2.6. Poor Health

It is widely recognized that efforts to improve the state of health are essential in order to win the fight against poverty across the world. Poor health usually traps people in poverty by deteriorating the economic and social conditions in which they are living. It depreciates the quality of human resources and, hence, reduces the economic growth and limits the availability of financial resources at both individual and governmental level for investment in health. On the other hand, poverty is an important social determinant of health as it restricts strongly the access to some basic human needs like food, clean water, improved sanitation, housing and health care services and hence increases the risk of illness and mortality. Generally, maternal, new born and child health (MNCH) situation correlates very strongly with the socio-economic conditions and coverage and effectiveness of a health care system in a country/region.

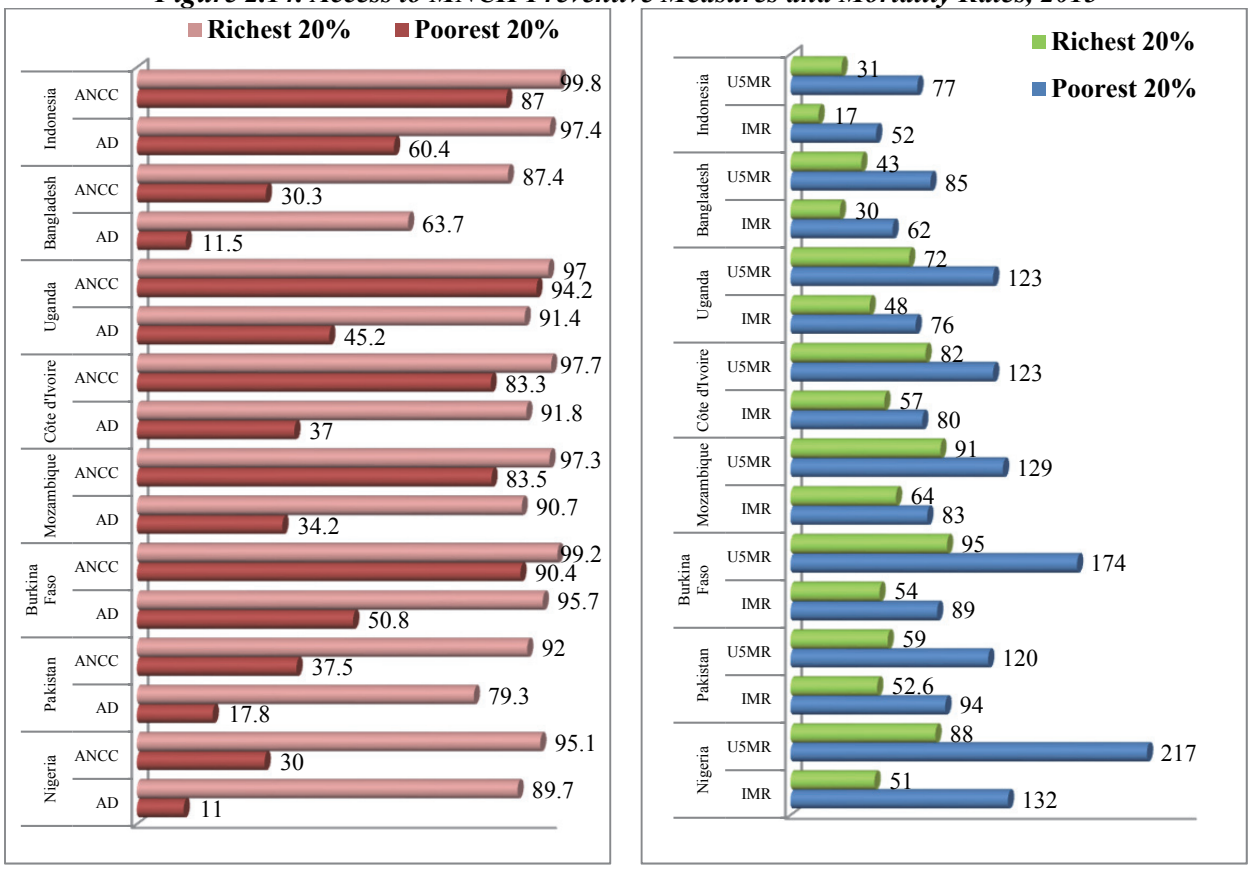
Over the years, OIC member countries recorded significant improvement in maternal, infant and child mortality rates. Between 1990 and 2013, the maternal mortality rate declined by 44% and infant and under five child mortality rates recorded a reduction of 44% and 47%, respectively. Despite this progress, mortality rates remained comparatively high in OIC countries where still one in every 15 children dies before their 5th birthday and one in every 21 children dies before their first birthday compared to one in 22 under five children and one in 30 less than a year old children in the world. On the other hand, significant regional disparities exist in the OIC group and mortality rates remained high especially in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa regions (SESRIC, 2013).

Inequalities in MNCH coverage also exists within countries with poor populations getting lesser access to key health interventions than the rich. As shown in Figure 2.14 there are significant disparities among the richest and poorest households with respect to antenatal care coverage (ANCC) and deliveries attended by skilled health personnel (DA) in OIC member countries. This stark difference in ANCC is more pronounced in Nigeria and Bangladesh where a pregnant woman from poorest quintile is 3 times less likely to get ANC compared to her peer in the richest quintile. In case of assisted deliveries, women in poorest households of Nigeria are 8.2 times more likely to be giving birth unassisted compared to the richest households and this difference stands at 5.5 times in Bangladesh.

Poorer households exhibit considerably higher childhood mortality rates than better-off across the OIC countries. Figure 2.14 shows the infant and under-five mortality rates (IMR & U5MR) for the poorest and richest population quintiles within 8 selected OIC member countries where

bulk of OIC poor are residing. The mortality rates among the poorest children exceed the richest group in all countries. However, for some countries the difference in the IMR and U5MR between the rich and poor is vast. For example, in Indonesia, children in the poorest 20% of the population are three times more likely to die before their first birthday than those in the richest 20% whereas; poor children are 2.5 times more likely to die before their fifth birthday.

Figure 2.14. Access to MNCH Preventive Measures and Mortality Rates, 2013



Source: World Bank, WDI

2.2.7 Food Insecurity

Hunger and food insecurity is one of the most common manifestations of poverty across the developing world. According to the latest estimates of FAO (SOFI, 2014), 842 million people across the globe are undernourished representing 12.0 % of the global population, or one in eight people. The majority of these undernourished people reside in developing regions of Asia & Pacific (552 million), Sub-Saharan Africa (223 million) and Latin America & Caribbean (47 million).

Being a substantial part of the developing world, OIC member countries were home for 161 million undernourished people in 2011-13, corresponding to 19% of the world total undernourished people. The share of undernourished people in total population has also declined to 14.5% but it remained higher than the world average (Figure 2.15). In the same period, the prevalence of under-nourishment was still very high in many OIC countries, particularly in the OIC-Low Income Food Deficit Countries (LIFDCs) in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia like Comoros, Mozambique, Sudan, Chad, Sierra Leone, Togo, and Yemen (SESRIC 2014a). In general, the majority of LIFDCs are characterised by low income level, high incidence of poverty, conflicts, political instability and high prevalence of undernourishment. They are unable to produce sufficient food to meet their domestic demands while due to lack of resources

they cannot import it as well. In this respect, food shortages continued to affect a significant number of the 27 OIC-LIFDCs, where 18 of them have been classified by the FAO as "Countries in Crisis Requiring External Assistance".

At the sub-national level, there is a strong relationship between poverty and undernourishment. As shown in Figure 2.16, undernourishment among children is higher in low income households than in high income households. In Bangladesh, under-five children in the poorest families are 2.4 times more likely to be underweight due to malnourishment than their peers in least poor families whereas; the likelihood of being underweight among poorest children in Sudan and Nigeria is 2 times more than the richest children.

Figure 2.15. Undernourishment, 2013

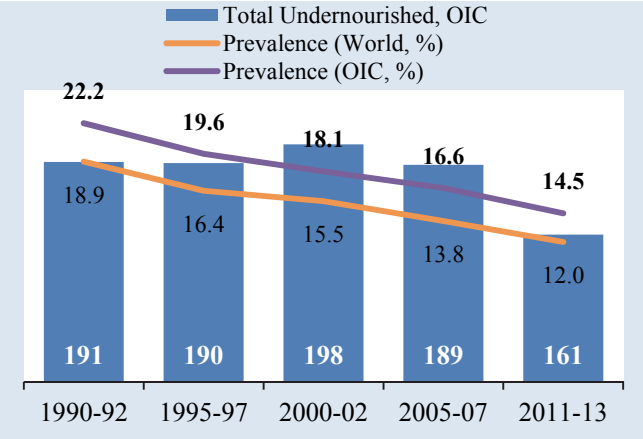
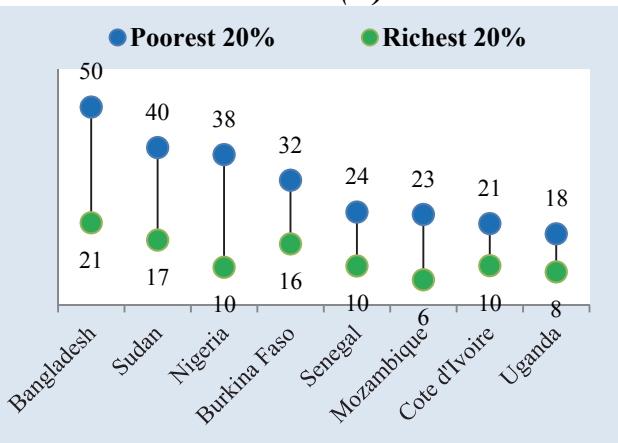


Figure 2.16. Undernutrition among Under 5 Children (%)

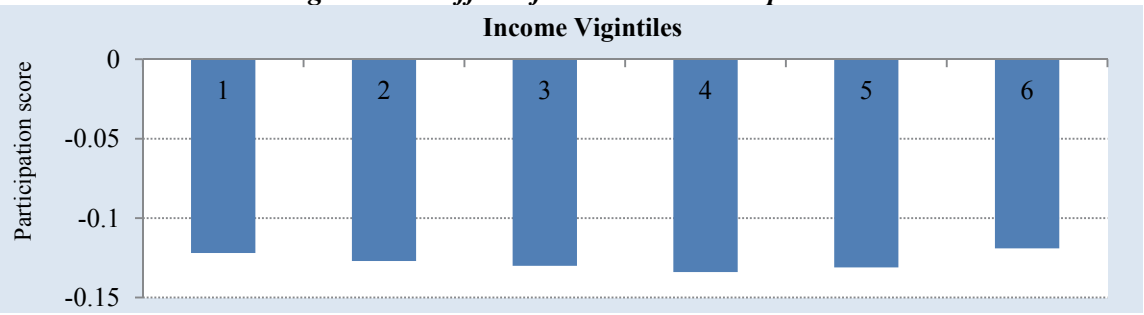


Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on FAO, FAOSTAT

2.2.8. Lack of Participation

Lack of participation is a major cause of poverty. In this context, poverty is determined by powerlessness, stigmatization, discrimination, exclusion and material deprivation, which all reinforce each other. More precisely, poverty is less about shortage of income and more about the inability of people with low incomes to participate actively in society. Emanuele et al. (2013) argued that participation was negatively affected by income (Figure 2.17). According to their study, the sample of respondents is divided into 20 equally sized groups, called vigintiles, on the basis of the level of their net household income adjusted for household size. Figure 2.17 explores the relationship between income and participation for the six lowest vigintiles. Participation in each income vigintile is compared with that in the top income vigintile, which has the highest participation level of all. As a consequence, all the participation scores shown in this figure are negative. The average income in the sixth vigintile is more than twice that in the first vigintile and two thirds greater than the average income in the second vigintile. Participation score declines steadily until the fourth vigintile reaching -0.134 points which corresponds to the minimum level of participation. After reaching this minimum level, participation score begins to rise slightly. Therefore, there is a minimum level of participation which is characteristic of people on low incomes.

*Figure 2.17. Effect of Income on Participation**



Source: Emanuele F./ M. Tomlinson, Robert Walker (2013): Poverty, Participation and Choice, Joseph Rowntree Foundation, UK.
**The effect of income on participation is plotted controlling for: employment status, education, family type, gender, ethnicity and region.*

2.2.9. Financial Resources

Majority of global poor are currently residing in low and lower middle income countries of South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa. In general, these countries are characterized by low public revenues due to inefficient tax systems, high debt servicing costs and staggering defence expenditures. Although, many development partners are pouring in financial resources (like Official Development Assistance (ODA)) to help these countries, domestic revenues which are recognized as the most important source for financing development and fight against poverty remained very low (UN, 2013). In addition, many governments are not spending substantial portion of the available public resources in areas like health, education and water and sanitation that lead to poverty eradication.

Widespread inaccessibility of basic services among poor in developing world including OIC members could also be understood vis-à-vis lower financial resource allocation for basic services at national level. Largely, governments in developing countries are spending much lesser share of their budgets on health and education services than their developed counterparts. As a result, it further exacerbates the already gloomy situation of poverty and intensifies deprivation among poor. To evaluate the OIC performance with respect to investment in basic services, we will look into share of GDP and government budget spent on health and education sectors in member countries.

Progress in achieving universal health care coverage remained highly uneven in OIC member countries. In many of them, health care system is seriously suffering from various problems and challenges including availability of adequate financial resources. According to the latest estimates, in 2011, total expenditures on health accounted for only 4.7 % of OIC GDP compared to 6.1 % in other developing countries and 7.6 % in the world. On average, OIC Member countries spent only US$ 387 per capita on health. Out of pocket spending remained the most widely used source of health financing with a share of over 36% of total health expenditures. For 20 member counties, out-of-pocket health spending accounted for more than 50 % of the total health expenditures in 2011 (SESRIC, 2013).

Allocation of financial resources for education sector is also not very promising in OIC countries. In 2011, government spending on education accounted for 3.8% of their GDP, compared to 4.8% in non-OIC developing countries, 5.0% in the world and 5.2% in developed countries. The share of government expenditures on education in total government budget in OIC member countries (15%) remained equal to the non-OIC developing countries (15%) and higher than the world average of 12.5% in 2011. Governments in OIC member countries spent around 928$ on per pupil

compared to 1860$ in non-OIC developing and 4884$ in the world. Significant disparities exist at national level in OIC member countries; while government expenditure per pupil was recorded at 27547$ in Qatar it was less than 100$ in Uganda and Guinea (SESRIC, 2012).

Low government spending on basic services and poverty go together. As shown in Figure 2.18 and Figure 2.19, member countries who spent the least on health and education services accounted for the highest share of poor in OIC member countries.

Figure 2.18. Per capita Health Expenditures (US$), 2011

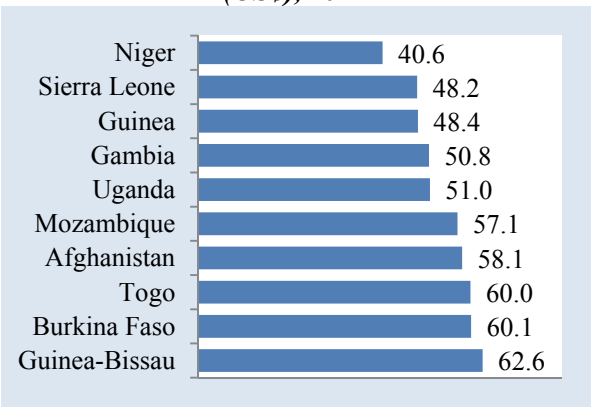
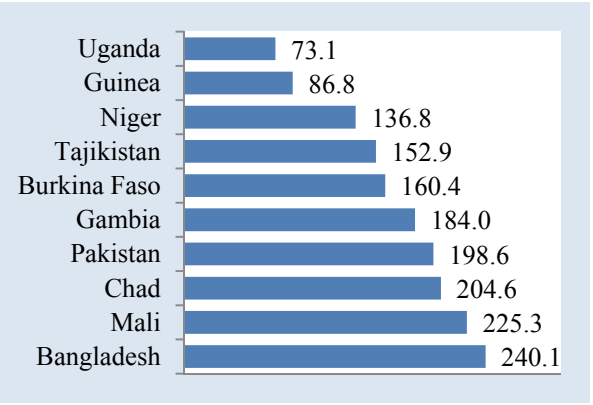


Figure 2.19. Per pupil Expenditures (US$), 2011



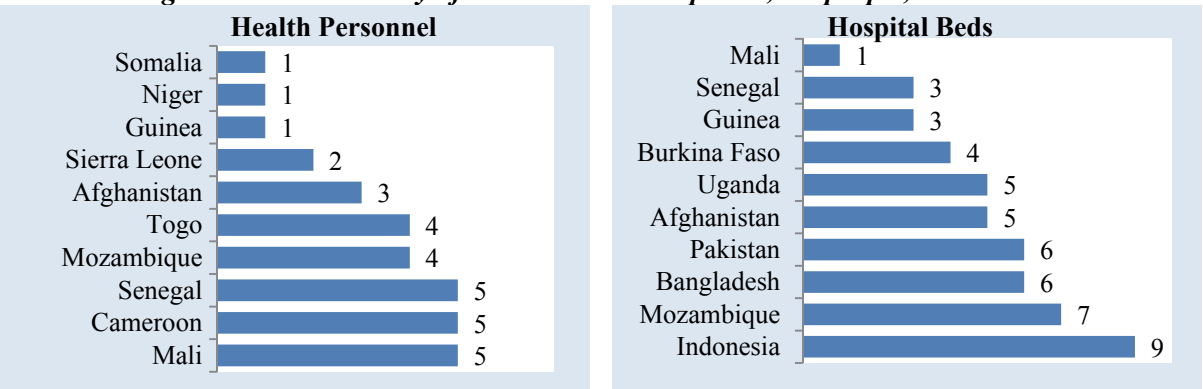
Source: WHO, Data Repository; World Bank, WDI

2.2.10. Lack of Institutional Capacity and Political Will

High incidence of poverty in many developing countries is largely associated with lack of institutional capacity for the delivery of basic services and sluggish policy and institutional reforms. As mentioned in the previous section, spending on basic services like health and education remained very low in OIC countries both at group and individual country levels. This signifies the low priority given to the provision of basic services at the national development agendas across the OIC region. The low spending on health and education sectors resulted in serious shortages in institutional capacities both in terms of adequate and qualified human resources and physical infrastructure in these sectors in many OIC member countries. The lack of basic infrastructure makes the provision of and access to health and education services limited. This is particularly catastrophic for the poor and deprived segments of the society where mortality and illiteracy are already widespread.

The deficit in qualified health worker is alarming both at OIC group and individual country level. Health workforce In OIC countries is just above the critical threshold of 23 health personnel per 10,000 people, generally considered necessary to deliver essential health services. According to the latest estimates, there were only 26 health personnel (physicians, nurses and midwives) per 10,000 people in OIC countries compared to 38 in non-OIC developing countries and 47 health personnel in the world. At the individual country level, among the 52 countries with data, only 28 recorded health workforce above the crisis level of 23 health personnel per 10,000 people. The highest health workforce deficit is recorded among the poorest member countries from low and lower middle income groups (Figure 2.20). On the other hand, the availability of hospital beds also remained comparatively very low in OIC member countries as there were only 12 beds for 10,000 people in 2008-2012 compared to 25 in non-OIC developing countries and 27 in the world. Once again, availability of beds was significantly low in member countries with high incidence of poverty (Figure 2.20).

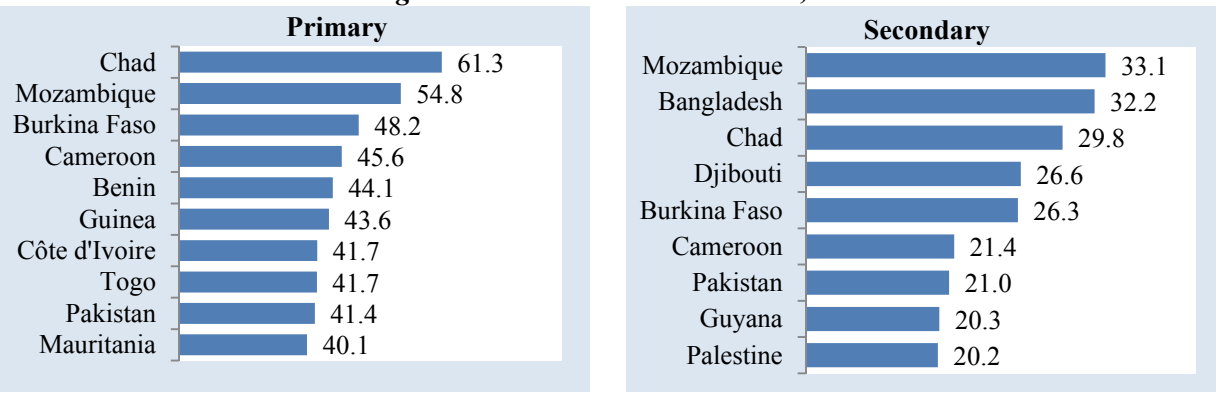
*Figure 2.20. Availability of Health Resources per 10,000 people, 2008-2012**



Source: WHO, Data Repository **Latest year available*

A similar situation could be observed in case of education sector as well. Student–teacher ratios give the number of students enrolled in a school per the number of teachers working at that institution. While low student – teacher ratio is indicative of quality education, high student-teacher ratio often gives some evidence about proportionately underfunded schools or school systems, or need for legislative change or more funding for education. The average student-teacher ratio in primary schools of OIC countries was recorded at 27.9 students in 2012. This was more than twice the average number of students per teacher in developed countries (13.4) and only slightly higher than that of developing countries (26.2) and the world (24.0) in the same year. In terms of student-teacher ratio in secondary schools, the rates remained stagnant over the last decade. The average number of secondary school students per teacher in OIC member countries was around 19.6 in 2012. This was again nearly twice the average student-teacher ratio experienced in developed countries (10.9) and comparable to average of non-OIC developing countries (20.2) and the world (17.6). At the country level, both at primary and secondary school level, deficit in number of teachers vis-à-vis number of students remained significantly high in many member countries with high incidence of poverty in OIC group (Figure 2.21)

Figure 2.21. Student-Teacher Ratio, 2012



Source: World Bank, WDI

2.2.11. Climate Change

Climate change is one of the most serious threats to the global environmental and economic sustainability. It poses serious negative implications especially for the poor and deprived segments of the society. Abnormal weather conditions and thus the unexpected natural disasters such as floods, droughts, or tsunamis, which cause the death or evacuation of many people especially the poor, are the main concern. Other major impacts of climate change are: (a) change

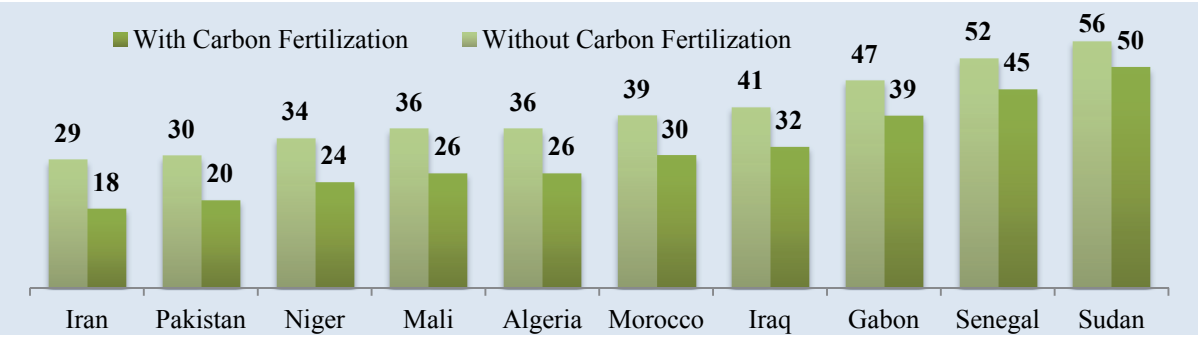
of agricultural habits causing decline of certain agro-products and food scarcity in some regions, (b) air pollution and spread of related diseases like respiratory and dermal diseases and cancer, (c) deterioration of water quality and hence outbreak of water-borne diseases and illness transmitted by insects, (d) reduction of fresh water due to high temperature and contamination, (e) melting of icebergs and increase of sea level causing the disappearance of many inhabitant land, (f) negative effects or mortality for vulnerable populations who have sensitivity toward certain climate conditions like heat or humidity, and finally (g) social and political problems arising from the increase of migrants, refugees, or displaced population escaping from negatively-effected environments to other appropriate locations or countries. These all impacts are particularly catastrophic for poor due to their existing socio-economic vulnerabilities.

Among the OIC member countries, climate change is a more serious threat for members in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa. The higher vulnerability of these two regions emanates from their geographic locations, high degree of reliance on agriculture and low adaptive capacities. Majority of poor people in these countries are living in rural areas and they rely heavily on agriculture sector for their livelihood. Climate change can affect agriculture sector through various channels among them are temperature rise, rainfall and precipitation distribution, carbon concentration, extreme weather events like floods, drought and storms, and intensification of pest growth. Therefore, the major challenge of unmitigated climate change is widespread food insecurity and hunger especially in the low income countries.

The level and extent of effects of these changes on agriculture production are highly uncertain and various climate models used for the estimation of these effects gave results with significant variations. However, these variations are mostly for the short to medium term periods (up to the period 2030-2050), but in long run most of the models predicted aggregate negative impact of climate change on agriculture sector at global level (UN IPCC, 2007). Based on estimates of six climate models and two crop models, Cline (2007) investigated the country level impacts of climate change on agriculture production up to the end of this century using two important variables i.e. temperature and precipitation.

According to the findings of Cline, expected agriculture productivity losses will be very high in many OIC member countries, both with and without carbon fertilisation. As shown in Figure 2.22, with carbon fertilization, several OIC member countries with high incidence of poverty like Senegal, Mali, Niger, and Pakistan are expected to suffer the highest agriculture productivity loss in OIC region. Given the fact that the countries with highest expected productivity losses are currently home to millions of OIC undernourished and poor populations, there is no doubt that without appropriate environmental policies and joint action to tackle the negative impacts of climate change, poverty situation will further exacerbate in OIC group.

Figure 2.22. Countries with Highest Expected Agriculture Productivity Losses by 2080



IMPROVING CAPACITIES FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF POVERTY

3

In 2000, 191 UN member states unanimously announced their commitment to reducing poverty through the signing of the Millennium Development Declaration. It is increasingly acknowledged that data availability plays a crucial role in the fight against poverty as evidence based decision making and target monitoring depends on the provision of benchmark data. However, being a multifaceted concept which is not easy to define or measure, measuring poverty is a complex task conceptually and empirically.

Data on poverty are severely limited both in terms of frequency and coverage. Although it has increased in both quantity and frequency over the past 30 years, it still lags behind the data availability on most other economic phenomena. This situation does not meet the demands of policy-makers as initiating and coordinating poverty alleviation programmes require timely, accurate, reliable and consistent data.

The provision of benchmark data needed for monitoring poverty targets rests on National Statistical Offices (NSOs). In this regard, strengthening the capacities within the NSOs in the OIC member countries will not only improve collection and dissemination of poverty statistics but also ease the decision-making process of all stakeholders in the area of poverty alleviation both at the public and private level.

Under the framework of the COMCEC PCM Project No. SESRIC-028 titled "2013-SESRIC-028 Enhancing National Capacities of OIC Member Countries in Poverty Statistics", SESRIC designed a questionnaire to identify current capacities, priorities and needs of the OIC countries in terms of poverty statistics and circulated it to the NSOs of the 57 OIC countries in 2014.

The questionnaire consists of three parts: In part A, the respondents are asked to provide general information regarding their institution and focal points responsible for collecting poverty related statistics. In Part B, the survey includes 25 questions to depict the overall capacities and needs of the NSOs in the area of poverty statistics. In Part C, the NSOs are expected to share available data related to poverty statistics. As of November 2014, 40 of the 57 OIC member countries responded to the Questionnaire (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1. Respondents by Region

EAST ASIA and PACIFIC (2)	EUROPE and CENTRAL ASIA (6)	LATIN AMERICA (1)	MIDDLE EAST and NORTH AFRICA (13)	SOUTH ASIA (4)	SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA (14)
INDONESIA	ALBANIA	SURINAME	ALGERIA	AFGHANISTAN	BENIN
MALAYSIA	AZERBAIJAN		BAHRAIN	BANGLADESH	BURKINA FASO
	KAZAKHSTAN		EGYPT	MALDIVES	CHAD
	TAJIKISTAN		IRAN	PAKISTAN	COTE D'IVOIRE
	TURKEY		IRAQ		DJIBOUTI
	UZBEKISTAN		KUWAIT		GABON
			MOROCCO		GAMBIA
			PALESTINE		MAURITANIA
			QATAR		NIGER
			SAUDI ARABIA		NIGERIA
			TUNISIA		SENEGAL
			UAE		SUDAN
			YEMEN		TOGO
					UGANDA

3.1. Present Situation on Data Collection, Collation and Dissemination

Except for Suriname and United Arab Emirates, all of the respondents stated that they collect/compile/disseminate data on poverty issues. In Kuwait, there is an ongoing preliminary study on poverty statistics. As shown in Table 3.2, in more than 30 countries, the main responsible authority for collecting/processing and disseminating poverty statistics is the NSO. Ministry of Planning is the responsible authority for collecting/processing/disseminating poverty statistics in Benin and Togo, for processing /disseminating data in Pakistan, Qatar, Senegal, Togo, and for disseminating data in Cote d'Ivoire.

Table 3.2. Responsible Authority for Poverty Statistics in OIC Countries

The responsible authority* for...	NSO[1]	Ministry of Finance	Ministry of Planning	Ministry of Welfare	Other	Not answered[2]
collecting the data through surveys, etc.	35	0	2	0	0	3
processing the data for poverty measurement	34	1	6	2	1	2
disseminating the data to end-users	31	1	7	1	4	2

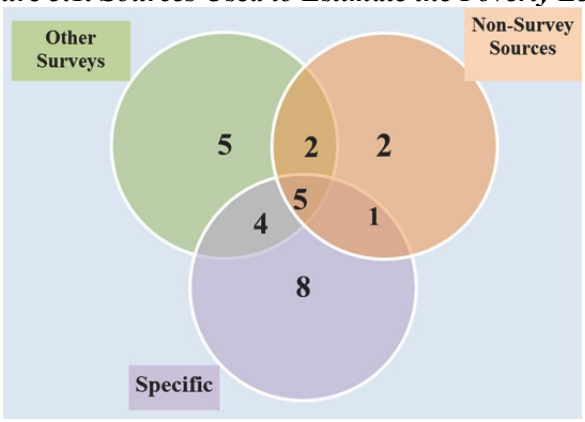
** The total may not add up to total number of countries responded to the survey as more than one institution may involve in collecting / disseminating or processing the data. 1 Central Bureau of Statistics is linked to the Ministry of Planning in Iraq.*
2 Suriname and UAE do not collect / disseminate / process data on poverty issues. The question related to collecting was not answered by Kuwait, either.

As a solid national statistical system requires the ability to carry out censuses and surveys, there is a need for consistent survey methods so that poverty comparisons uncover real changes in the population rather than statistical distortions caused by variations in survey design. Figure 3.1 reveals the sources of data used by OIC member countries for poverty statistics. Except for Nigeria and Suriname, all of the respondent countries conduct household surveys. Other surveys[2] (i.e. priority survey, employment survey, time use surveys, core indicators survey, etc.) are the second preferred sources to estimate the level of poverty while only 10 member countries use non-survey sources[3] (i.e. administrative records, national accounts, etc.). It is highly promising that 45% of responding countries including Algeria, Bangladesh, Benin, Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Egypt, Gabon, Iraq, Maldives, Mauritania, Morocco, Niger,

[2]Other Surveys (16): Afghanistan, Azerbaijan, Benin, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Gabon, Morocco, Niger, Qatar, Senegal, Sudan, Suriname, Togo, UAE, Uganda and Yemen.
[3]Non-Survey Sources (10): Afghanistan, Algeria, Bahrain, Benin, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Kuwait, Niger, Qatar and Senegal.

Nigeria, Pakistan, Senegal, Sudan and Togo conduct specific surveys for estimating poverty statistics based on the responses given to question 7 of the Survey (Appendix, Table A.15).

Figure 3.1. Sources Used to Estimate the Poverty Level



The periodicity of household surveys varies greatly among countries, from annually to once every 10 years. There exists difference regarding the implementation of other sources are also varied in terms of their periods, as well (Appendix, Table A.3 and Table A.4). Furthermore, most of the sources do not usually fit together in terms of their scope, timing, and coverage as they are launched by donors and external agencies possessing the necessary funds but lacking concern for a coordinated focus.

One consequence of this situation in practice is the difficulty of comparing poverty measures across countries and across time. The lack of uniformity also makes it difficult to confidently integrate country-level poverty data to gain an overall sense of regional and global poverty. Many surveys may have been implemented as a one-time exercise that will be considered unsustainable for either technical or financial reasons.

3.2. Poverty Assessment Approaches in OIC Member Countries

Measuring poverty is not a simple matter; actually it is a rather complex practice of compromise and approximation at each step of assessment. For this reason, changing any assumption or approach about data collection and measurement can dramatically alter the poverty rate. Governments around the world prefer to define and measure poverty in ways that reflect their own circumstances and aspirations. Even within a country, the metrics of poverty can vary significantly between urban and rural, between single and multi-person households.

Although considered to be narrow to capture all relevant aspects of poverty, money metrics are widely used. The main reason for this preference is the practicality of monetary based measures. Adding the strong correlation between financial inadequacy with other difficult-to-quantify dimensions, money metrics is also used as a proxy for the other type of deprivations. But even if this narrow definition is used, important questions remain about how to proceed. The different treatment of even basic parameters prevents to make fully reliable comparisons about poverty statistics at both national and international level.

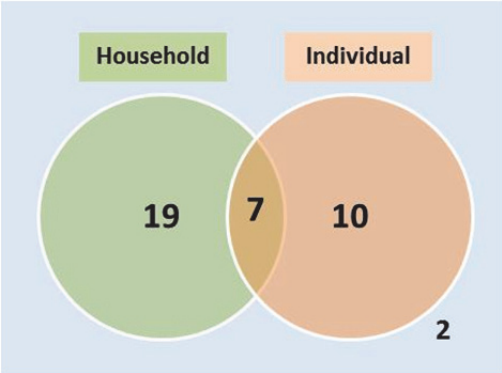
With these caveats in mind, monetary poverty can be measured either by a lack of income or by a shortfall in expenditures. While they are conceptually related, there can be differences quantitatively. The ability to spend is primarily determined by income. But spending and income are not identical since households also borrow, sell assets, or draw on savings when income is low. Conversely, households often save when times are especially favourable. Measuring

poverty as a decrease in expenditure takes into account these consumption-smoothing activities over time. Additionally, the ease and reliability of data collection is another advantage of basing poverty measures on expenditure data rather than income.

Accordingly, the Survey results revealed that 22 (55%) of 40 countries[4], that responded to the relevant question depend solely on expenditure data (Appendix, Table A.15). The calculations of Malaysia are based on income data only and 8 countries, namely, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Gabon, Gambia, Qatar, Senegal, Togo and Turkey use both income and expenditure in poverty measurement. Countries that apply or plan to apply multidimensional approach including Benin, Egypt, Mauritania, Morocco, Turkey and Yemen asserted that they use other variables, as well (Figure 3.2).

Figure 3.2. Variables / Dimensions Used for Measuring Poverty

Figure 3.3. Unit of Identification



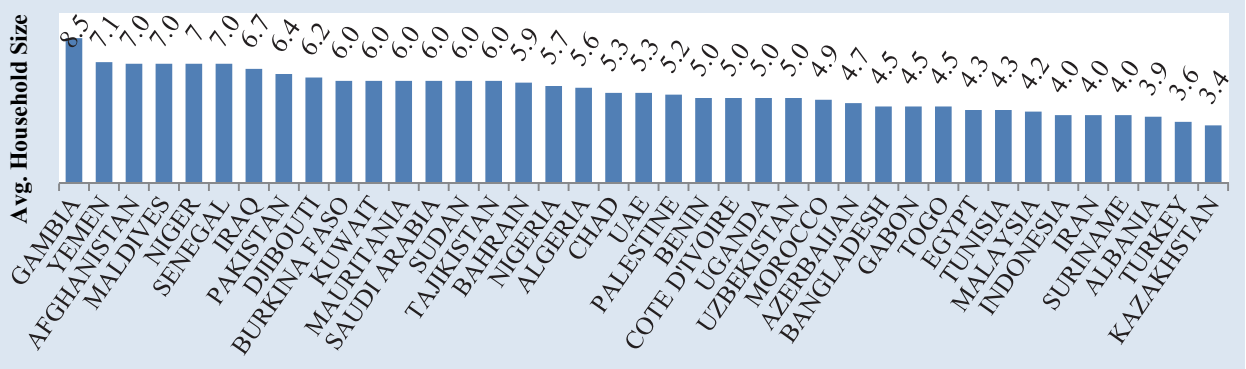
Although it is ideal to measure poverty at the individual level, it is hard to allocate expenditure / income flows within a typical family. It will also increase costs of survey. Weighing the pros and cons, data is generally collected on households as collective units. For OIC member countries, this trend is also observable. The unit of identification for measuring poverty is household in 26 OIC member countries[5] while 17 countries[6] assess poverty based on individual. In 7 of these countries, namely Algeria, Djibouti, Indonesia, Mauritania, Senegal, Sudan and Uzbekistan, both units are used (Figure 3.3).

It is generally argued that in developing countries the incidence of poverty is greater in larger families based on the questionable evidence that household size and household income (consumption) is negatively correlated in developing countries. (Lanjouw and Ravallion,1994). Though the cause and effect relationship of this correlation and the scope of size economies are debatable, it will be enlightening to have a grasp of the household size in OIC member countries: The average[7]. household size of 18 OIC member countries is above the OIC average of 5.4. Gambia is the leading country where 8.5 persons, on average, live in a household. Yemen has the second largest household with 7.1 persons while Afghanistan, Maldives, Niger and Senegal

[4] Afghanistan, Algeria, Azerbaijan, Burkina Faso, Chad, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Maldives, Niger, Nigeria, Pakistan, Palestine, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Tajikistan, Tunisia, Uganda and Uzbekistan.
[5]Household (26): Afghanistan, Algeria, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Benin, Chad, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Gabon, Gambia, Indonesia, Malaysia, Maldives, Mauritania, Morocco, Nigeria, Palestine, Qatar, Senegal, Sudan, Tajikistan, Togo, Tunisia, Turkey, Uganda and Uzbekistan
[6]Individual (17): Algeria, Azerbaijan, Burkina Faso, Djibouti, Egypt, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Mauritania, Niger, Pakistan, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Sudan, Uzbekistan and Yemen.
[7]Calculated by taking the simple average.

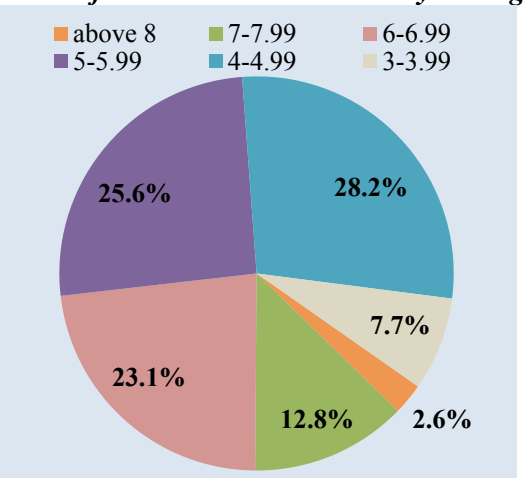
share the third position with 7 persons. On the other extreme, the average household sizes in Kazakhstan, Turkey and Albania are 3.4, 3.6 and 3.9, respectively (Figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4. Average Household Size in OIC Member Countries



Grouping the OIC member countries by household size in Figure 3.5 also reveals that a household inhabits 4-6 people in more than half of the countries (53.9%) as the range of 4-4.99 and 5-5.99 includes 11 and 10 countries, respectively. 9 countries within the range of 6-6.99 constitute the third largest share (23.1%) in terms of average household size.

Figure 3.5. Distribution of OIC Member Countries by Average Household Size



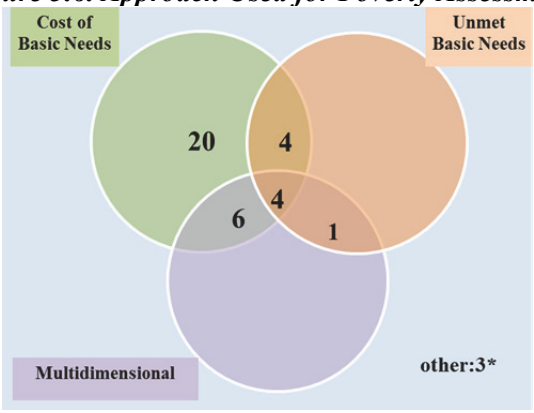
Among the approaches defined in section 1.1, Cost of Basic Needs (CBN) is the only approach used for poverty assessment in 20 out of the 38 OIC member countries[8] that collect poverty statistics. Four countries (Albania, Gambia, Senegal, and Qatar) also utilize Unmet Basic Needs in addition to CBN while 6 countries (Algeria, Egypt, Niger, Nigeria, Turkey[9] and Yemen) stated that multidimensional approach is the secondary approach after CBN. Adding Benin, Mauritania, Morocco and Togo responding affirmatively to the three approaches, CBN is employed by 34 member countries[10] in total. Cote d'Ivoire, Maldives and Palestine adopt different methodologies other than the three main methods mentioned (Figure 3.6).

[8]Only CBN (20): Afghanistan, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Burkina Faso, Chad, Djibouti, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Kuwait, Malaysia, Pakistan, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Tajikistan, Tunisia, Uganda and Uzbekistan.

[9]Multidimensional poverty measurement is not officially used by Turkey but is included as it is being studied and planned to be used in the near future.

[10]Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Benin, Burkina Faso, Chad, Djibouti, Egypt, Gambia, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Kuwait, Malaysia, Mauritania, Morocco, Niger, Nigeria, Pakistan, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Sudan, Tajikistan, Togo, Tunisia, Turkey, Uganda, Uzbekistan and Yemen.

Figure 3.6. Approach Used for Poverty Assessment



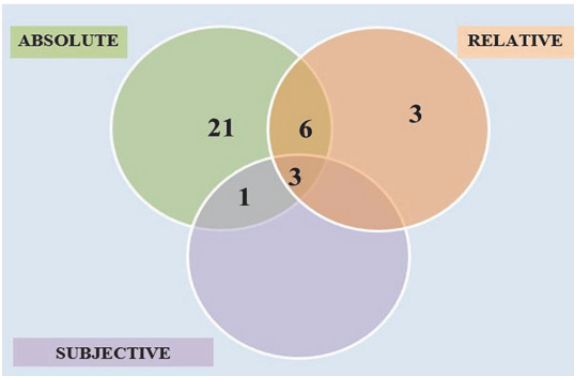
**Mauritania and Qatar also checked "other" approach. But they are not added as Mauritania is one of the countries where 3 approaches are used and Qatar is already included in the intersection sets of CBN and UBN.*

3.2.1. Cost of Basic Needs Approach (CBN)

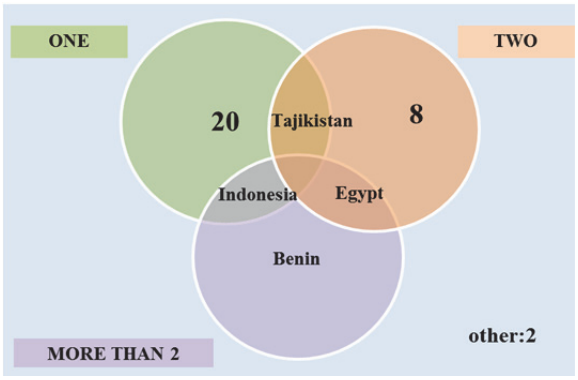
As mentioned in Section 1.1, Cost of Basic Needs (CBN) is one of the different approaches used in determining a poverty line which typically specifies the level of income / expenditure required to purchase a bundle of essential goods. Having a poverty line allows experts to count the poor, target resources, and monitor progress against a clear benchmark. It also helps to communicate the extent of poverty easier, explain the notion of deprivation simpler and achieve greater comparability across countries. In this regard, 35 OIC member countries[11] (87.5% of total respondents) estimated a poverty line. Among the member countries calculating absolute poverty lines, Morocco also estimates subjective poverty lines while Djibouti, Indonesia, Mauritania, Niger, Togo and Turkey use relative poverty lines, as well. On the other hand, poverty is assessed only through relative poverty line in Bahrain, Qatar and Uzbekistan. Meanwhile, Albania, Nigeria and Senegal are the three member countries measuring all types of poverty lines (i.e. absolute, relative and subjective). (Figure 3.7a)

Figure 3.7. Types and Number of Poverty Lines Estimated by OIC Member Countries

a) Types of Poverty Lines



b)Number of Poverty Lines



Regarding the number of poverty lines, one poverty line is calculated in 22 OIC member countries[12] while 10 countries (Algeria, Bangladesh, Burkina Faso, Egypt, Gambia, Mauritania, Morocco, Tajikistan, Tunisia, and Uzbekistan) affirmed that two poverty lines are estimated.

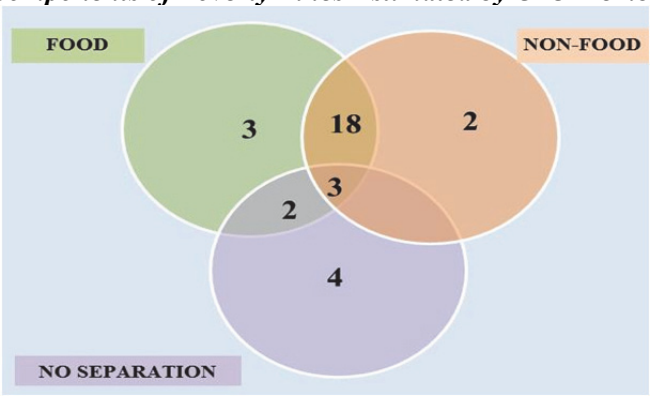
[11]Cote d'Ivoire, Gabon and Maldives did not estimate a poverty line as they are not using CBN approach. Palestine asserted that an absolute poverty line is estimated though they do not use CBN directly as grouped under "other" in Figure 3.6. The type of poverty line was not provided by Kuwait as it is under study.

[12] One poverty line (22): Afghanistan, Albania, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Chad, Djibouti, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Niger, Nigeria, Pakistan, Palestine, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Sudan, Tajikistan, Togo, Turkey, Uganda and Yemen.

Malaysia and Kazakhstan are the only two countries estimating a poverty line for each household type based on its characteristics. (Figure 3.7b)

The CBN begins with a nutritional threshold chosen to reflect minimal needs for a healthy life, and adjustments are then made for non-food expenses such as housing and clothing. 26 (72%) of the 35 countries (72%) estimate a poverty line using food[13] baskets. 18 of them also calculate a poverty line based on non-food items (Figure 3.8). Afghanistan, Albania, Azerbaijan, Djibouti, Gambia, Iran, Indonesia, Niger and Pakistan replied that they do not separate food and non-food items while calculating CBN based poverty line. Among these 9 countries, Djibouti, Indonesia and Iran checked all the three choices. According to the questionnaires submitted, Afghanistan and Albania estimate a food poverty line but they also stated that there is no separation between food and non-food poverty line. For those calculating food poverty line, only one food poverty line is measured excluding Algeria, Bangladesh, Malaysia, Senegal, Tunisia and Uzbekistan.

Figure 3.8. Components of Poverty Lines Estimated by OIC Member Countries



The average calories used for estimating food poverty line is around 2297 kilocalories (kcal) per day for OIC member countries with the levels of Nigeria, Egypt[14], Senegal, Saudi Arabia, Benin, Chad, Niger, Sudan, Togo, Tunisia and Uganda being above the OIC average. Noteworthy is the difference in the minimum calorie requirement for an individual which ranges from below 1984 kcal in Morocco to 3000 kcal in Nigeria (Figure 3.9a). Differences arise because the WHO/FAO standards are specified by age, gender, weight, and activity level, but only age and gender are collected in typical household surveys. There is then considerable scope for variation in choices since different assumptions about the activity levels and average weights of the population will lead to different calorie standards.

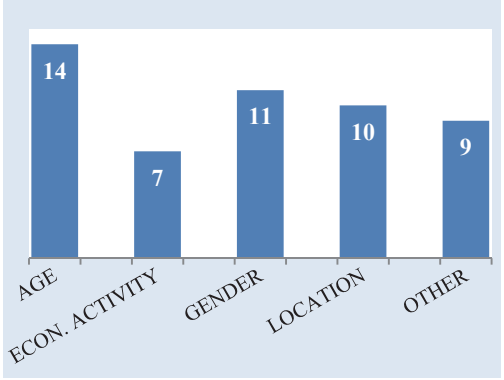
To determine the minimum calorie threshold, age is the most preferred criteria[15] among the 26 OIC countries calculating a food poverty line. Gender and location are taken into consideration by 11 and 10 member countries respectively, whereas only 7 countries use economic activity as a criteria. (Figure 3.9b)

[13]Food Poverty Line (26): Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Bangladesh, Benin, Burkina Faso, Chad, Djibouti (in progress), Egypt, Indonesia, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Malaysia, Morocco, Niger, Nigeria, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Sudan, Tajikistan, Togo, Tunisia, Turkey, Uganda, Uzbekistan and Yemen.
[14]In Egypt, calorie threshold depends on age and sex. To ease representation, the average of calories used for females and males within the age group 30-60 years is taken.
[15]Age (14): Algeria, Chad, Djibouti, Egypt, Indonesia, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Malaysia, Morocco, Niger, Senegal, Tunisia, Uganda and Yemen.
Gender (11): Algeria, Djibouti, Egypt, Indonesia, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Malaysia, Niger, Tunisia, Uganda and Uzbekistan.
Location(10): Algeria, Benin, Chad, Djibouti, Egypt, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Malaysia, Niger and Uzbekistan.
Economic Activity (7): Algeria, Chad, Egypt, Iraq, Niger, Tunisia and Uzbekistan
Bangladesh, Saudi Arabia, Tajikistan and Togo did not provide any criteria for calculating the minimum calorie threshold.

Figure 3.9. Calorie Thresholds in OIC Member Countries

a. ***Level of Calorie Thresholds***

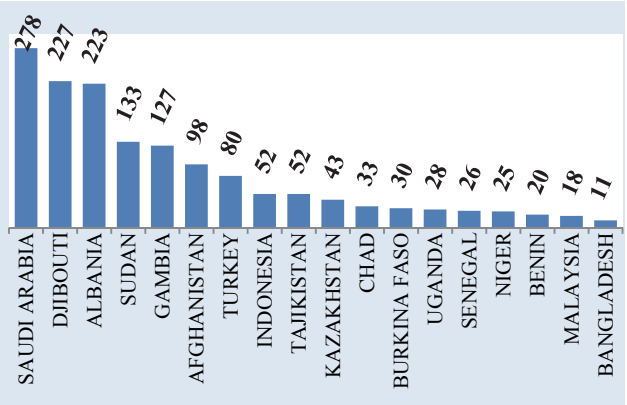
b. ***Criteria for Determining Required Minimum Calorie Threshold***



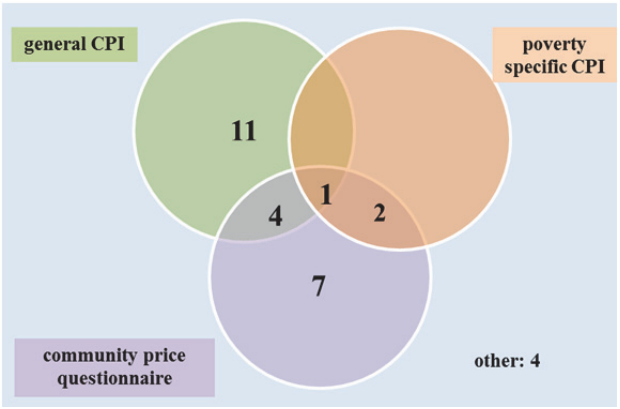
With the calorie thresholds in place, a basket of foods that will provide those minimum needs at least cost can be identified. On average, there are 84 items in the food basket of OIC member countries[16] ranging from 278 in Saudi Arabia to 11 in Bangladesh as shown in Figure 3.10a. Size and composition of the basket affect the accuracy of the overall poverty line. The trade-off in moving to a larger food basket is mostly given by the added cost of collecting price data. Collecting a moderate-sized food basket but obtaining high-quality price data will likely enhance accuracy.

Figure 3.10. Food Basket in the OIC Member Countries

a. Number of Items in the Food Basket



b. Cost of the Food Basket



The final step in constructing a food poverty line involves pricing the goods in the basket. There exists considerable variation in practices. The cost of food basket is estimated through general Consumer Price Index (CPI)[17] in 16 OIC member countries (Figure 3.10b). The use of general consumer price indexes considerably reduces costs for statisticians, but it undermines the reliability of the measures. Meanwhile, Community Price Questionnaire of household survey is the choice of 14 member countries[18]. Among them Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Senegal and Uganda assert that both general CPI and the price questionnaire are used for calculating the cost of food basket. Morocco is the only member country applying the three methods provided in the questionnaire.

[16]Algeria, Egypt, Iraq, Morocco, Nigeria, Togo, Tunisia, Uzbekistan and Yemen did not answer the question about number of items.

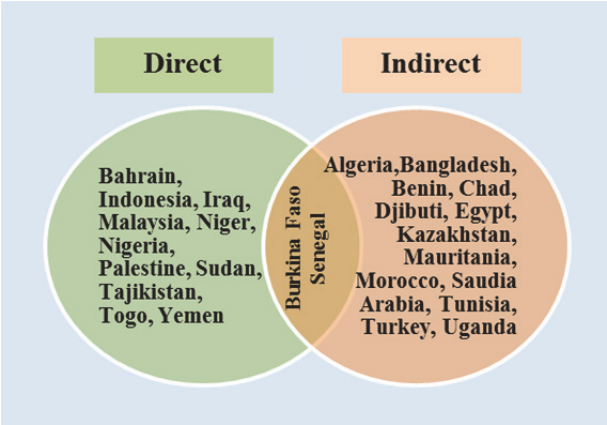
[17]CPI(16): Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Djibouti, Egypt, Gambia, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Malaysia, Morocco, Nigeria, Senegal, Tajikistan, Tunisia, UAE, Uganda and Yemen.

[18]Community Price Questionnaire (14): Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Bangladesh, Benin, Burkina Faso, Chad, Indonesia, Morocco, Senegal, Sudan, Togo, Uganda and Uzbekistan.

On the other hand, Azerbaijan, Niger, Saudi Arabia and Turkey prefer to use other methods rather than three approaches given in the questionnaire. The methodology of Azerbaijan, Saudi Arabia and Turkey involves unit prices driven from Household Budget Survey while an index deflator is used in Niger.

The food poverty line is just one part of the overall poverty threshold. There are two common approaches to making adjustments for non-food needs: Direct and Indirect. The direct method parallels the way in which the food poverty line is constructed. First, necessary items are selected. After the list is determined, the goods are priced and the non-food line is formed. On the other hand, the indirect procedure examines data on food consumption and total expenditures. With a food poverty line in hand, the method entails calculating the Engel coefficient (i.e. the ratio of food consumption to total expenditures) and finding the level of non-food expenditure that would be typical of a household whose food consumption is just at the food poverty line. As shown in Figure 3.11, nearly equal number of OIC member countries[19] chooses each method to estimate non-food poverty line. Burkina Faso and Senegal are the only two countries determining the poverty line by both approaches.

Figure 3.11. Method of Estimating Non-Food Poverty Line



3.2.2. Unmet Basic Needs Approach (UBN)

As discussed in Section 1.1.2, the complement of the income-based basic needs approach is the Unmet Basic Needs (UBN) or Minimum Basic Needs (MBN) approach where non-monetary indicators representing different dimensions of poverty are chosen, estimated and monitored. Access to safe water, access to sanitation, access to electricity, education, health, housing and infrastructure are considered to be the main categories of basic needs as asked in question #12 of the Survey (Table A.15 of Appendix).

Based on the responses given, only 9 OIC member countries[20] assess poverty through UBN approach (Figure 3.6). Among them, Albania does not consider health and infrastructure as components of basic needs while education and health are not included in the estimation of poverty in Benin. Gabon is the only member country where access to electricity is not one of the components of poverty measurement. This also proves that the uniformity of practice observed in income-based poverty measures is not common for UBN.

[19]Nigeria and Palestine did not answer the question about non-food poverty line as the component of the poverty line but they stated that direct method is used.
[20]UBN(9): Albania, Benin, Gabon, Gambia, Mauritania, Morocco, Qatar, Senegal and Togo.

Generally, an index of deprivation that combines the degrees of access to the various components is constructed[21]. The weights of the components are assigned equally in Albania, Gambia, Senegal whereas they are based on statistical models in Benin, Mauritania and Togo. Both methods are applied in Morocco and Senegal.

3.2.3. Multidimensional Approach

Poverty also incorporates multidimensional aspects including non-monetary conditions such as malnutrition, inadequate shelter, unsanitary living conditions, unsatisfactory and insufficient supplies of clean water, poor solid waste disposal, low educational achievement and the absence of quality schooling, chronic ill health, and widespread common crime.

According to the replies given to the question #2.c of the Survey (Appendix, Table A.15), 10 OIC member countries (namely, Algeria, Benin, Egypt, Gabon, Mauritania, Morocco, Niger, Nigeria, Togo and Yemen) use the multidimensional approach described in detail in previous sections 1.2.2.iii and 2.2.1. Multidimensional poverty measurement is not officially used by Turkey but it is being studied and planned to be used in the near future.

In terms of method applied for calculating multidimensional poverty, Benin, Gabon, Mauritania and Togo utilize Principal Components Analysis (PCA) while counting (Alkire-Foster) is preferred in Egypt, Morocco and Nigeria. According to the questionnaires submitted, Mauritania Morocco and Niger employ other methods such as Multiple Components Analysis. To construct a multidimensional measure, living standard is the main component considered by all the followers of multidimensional approach whereas Algeria, Egypt, Morocco, Niger and Nigeria also include education and health components.

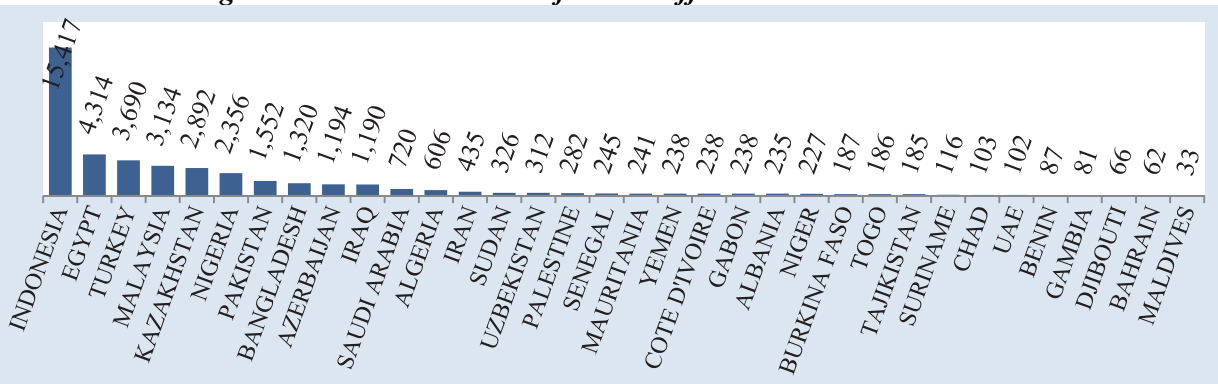
3.3. Current Capacity of National Statistical Offices

3.3.1. Personnel

Nothing is as important to an institution as its staff. In this regard, a statistical agency can only function well if strongly motivated and technically competent people are available to make it work. As provided in Table A.5 of Appendix, 42,628 staff are employed in 35 NSOs[22] of OIC that completed the questionnaire. The total number of staff is more than one thousand in 10 of them. With 15,417 people, BPS-Statistics Indonesia employs 36.2% of the total NSO staff in OIC. Adding the 4,314 staff of Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics (CAPMAS) of Egypt and 3,690 employees of Turkish Statistics Institute (TurkStat), these three countries, alone, constitute nearly 55% of the OIC total. Department of Statistics of Malaysia, Agency of Statistics of the Republic of Kazakhstan and National Bureau of Statistics of Nigeria are the other three NSOs where more than two thousand people work while Pakistan, Bangladesh, Azerbaijan and Iraq are the other countries employing over one thousand people in their NSOs. On the other extreme, the total number of staff is less than one hundred in Benin, Gambia, Djibouti, Bahrain and Maldives (Figure 3.12a).

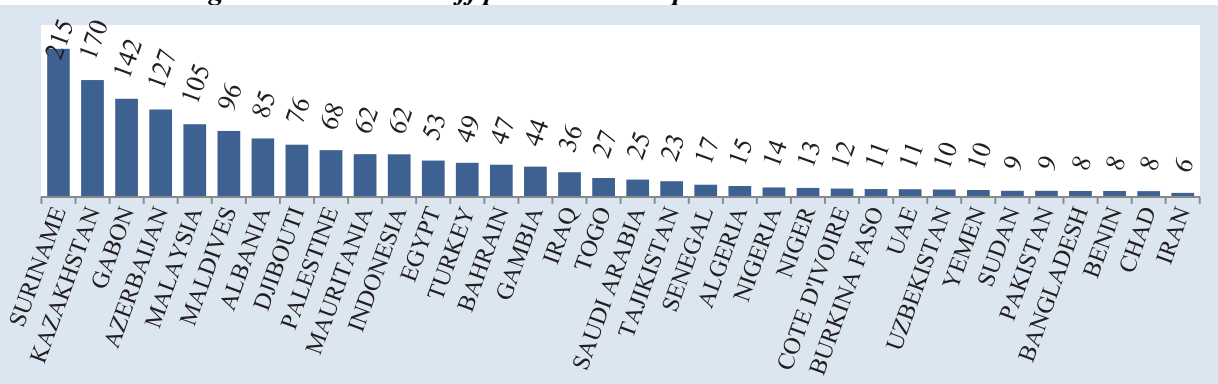
[21]Gabon and Qatar did not fill in the related question.
[22]Afghanistan, Kuwait, Tunisia, Uganda and Qatar did not complete the relevant part though they responded the questionnaire. Morocco is not shown in the figure as only the number of staff (18) employed at the department related to the poverty was provided.

Figure 3.12a. Total Number of NSO Staff in OIC Member Countries



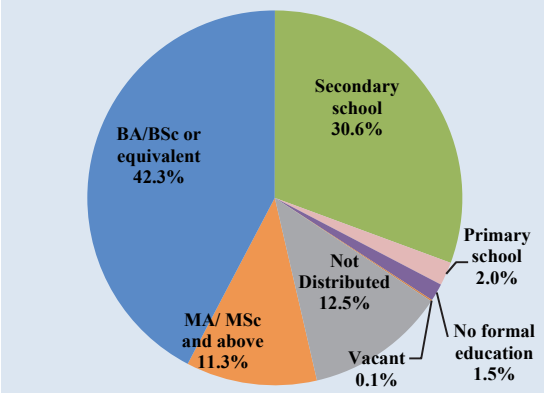
To understand the degree of adequacy of the NSO staff, the size of population should also be taken into consideration though it does not reflect the efficiency. Per million people, Suriname is the only member country employing more than 200 NSO staff. It was followed by Kazakhstan and Gabon with 170 and 142 employees working in the NSO. Azerbaijan and Malaysia are the other member countries where the number of NSO personnel per million inhabitants is over 100. On the other hand, the number of NSO staff per million people is lower than the OIC average of 31 in 18 OIC member countries.

Figure 3.12b. NSO Staff per Million People in OIC Member Countries



Decomposition of the human resources by the highest attained education level in Figure 3.13 reveals that 42.3% of the employees of the NSOs of OIC member countries are university graduates. Including the share of staff having a degree of MA/MSc or above, it can be deduced that 53.4% of personnel in the NSOs of OIC member countries at least have BA/BSc diploma. With a share of 30.6%, secondary school diploma holders are the second largest group in terms of educational attainment while primary school diploma holders constitute 2% of the total. On the other hand, only 1.5% of the employees have no formal education.

Figure 3.13. Decomposition of Human Resources by Education



**Cote d'Ivoire, Nigeria, Kazakhstan did not provide the decomposition of staff by educational attainment though they provided the total number.*

Additionally, only 148 NSO personnel had specific education on poverty issues or attended poverty related courses (Appendix, Table A.6).

3.3.2. Partnerships

Regional and international institutions play a crucial role in the broader development policies of countries. Taking advantage of establishing coordination mechanisms with these institutions is essential for NSOs as partnerships will result in better use of resources through experience sharing, avoiding duplication of efforts, strengthening the position of the NSOs in the global arena and establishing a more concerted and harmonized national statistical system in line with international standards. In this regard, bilateral and multilateral cooperation activities in statistics potentially help to improve all the possible components of the statistical infrastructure and the steps in the statistical process including supporting the implementation of national strategies for the development of statistics, and reinforcing the institutional framework of NSS.

As tabulated in Table A.7 of Appendix, 29 of the 40 OIC member countries have partnership and/or receive consultation from international organizations in the area of poverty statistics. World Bank is the partner of all the aforementioned countries except for Egypt and Gambia which receive technical consultation from UNICEF and UNDP, respectively. Benin, Cote d'Ivoire, Senegal and Uzbekistan are the other member countries technically and financially supported by UNDP in the area of poverty statistics. AfriStat also assisted Cote d'Ivore and Senegal in addition to Burkina Faso and Togo while Chad, Djibouti, Sudan and Tunisia have partnerships with African Development Bank.

The content of the partnership mainly includes technical and financial support as summarized in Table A.8 of Appendix. The technical support regarding poverty measurement covers training of the experts about methodological design, data analysis and report writing through study visits, short seminars and courses.

3.4. Requirements for Enhancing National Capacities in Poverty Statistics

To improve statistical capacity of OIC member countries in the area of poverty, the needs and priorities of NSOs should be assessed thoroughly in order to tailor effective and efficient programmes and strategies for developing the competencies and skills of the human resources.

Among the respondents of the Questionnaire, 37 member countries[23] indicated that they need training on poverty statistics though they did not specify the detailed content of the areas as shown in Table A.9 of Appendix. Excluding the broad topics such as poverty estimation and analysis, the most popular specific theme for training is multidimensional approach in poverty measurement which is demanded by 13 OIC member countries, namely Albania, Algeria, Azerbaijan, Burkina Faso, Chad, Cote d'Ivoire, Maldives, Niger, Pakistan, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Tunisia and Turkey. Training on statistical softwares such as SPSS, Stata, and CSPro is the second highly requested area. In this regard, 7 member countries including Indonesia, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, Saudi Arabia, Sudan and Tajikistan highlighted their specific needs. Poverty profiling/mapping is also another topic stated by Benin, Malaysia and Tunisia.

[23]Based on the filled-in questionnaires, Palestine and UAE do not need training on poverty statistics while Kuwait did not complete the relevant part.

On the other hand, only 12 member countries[24] volunteer to provide training on poverty statistics. (Table 3.3). The themes offered for training range from explaining the basic concepts of poverty to using multidimensional approach for poverty assessment.

Table 3.3. Themes Offered by OIC Member Countries for Trainings on Poverty Statistics

AZERBAIJAN	Calculation of absolute and relative poverty levels
BENIN	Concepts of poverty, poverty indices, profile and dynamics of poverty, pro-poor growth
BURKINA FASO	Design of data collection tools, data processing, calculation of poverty indicators
INDONESIA	Methodological knowledge
IRAQ	Indicators for measuring poverty
KAZAKHSTAN	Multidimensional approach of poverty evaluation
MOROCCO	Methodology for measuring poverty (absolute, relative and multidimensional approaches), development of indicators of poverty and inequality and their mapping locally in order to combine data from household surveys and general census of the population), index construction methodology of human inclusion and exclusion.
NIGERIA	Methodology
PAKISTAN	Computation of poverty statistics starting from construction of consumption aggregate to poverty line and computation of poverty statistics
PALESTINE	Concepts and terminology related to poverty, calculating poverty indicators, statistical analysis of poverty data
SENEGAL	Estimation of basic needs
TURKEY	Measurement of monetary poverty and Alkire-Foster methodology.

As learning from the good examples is one of the most effective tools for overcoming the common challenges, the Questionnaire also asked NSO to specify their inherent strengths to facilitate sharing of knowledge and practices especially in terms of poverty measurement. Among the 23 OIC member countries responded, Burkina Faso, Chad, Iraq, Mauritania, Pakistan Turkey denoted "experience" as their strongest aspect while Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Iran, Malaysia and Tunisia highlighted that they are good at "data collection". Four member countries, namely Algeria, Burkina Faso, Morocco and Uzbekistan stated that the methodology they applied in measuring poverty is their strength whereas use of software is the first choice of Bangladesh, Egypt and Mauritania regarding inherent capabilities of their NSOs (Appendix, Table A.10).

In terms of language preferred for a potential training, English is the first choice of NSOs of 16 countries while Arabic and French are chosen by 12 and 11 countries, respectively. Considering the fact that English is the dominant preference as a second option, trainings on poverty statistics can be conducted in English at the NSOs of 28 countries as shown in Table 3.7.

Table 3.4. Language Preference for Trainings on Poverty Statistics

Language	First	Second	Third	Total
Arabic	12	1	3	**16**
English	16	10	2	**28**
French	11	3	2	**16**
Russian	1	0	0	**1**

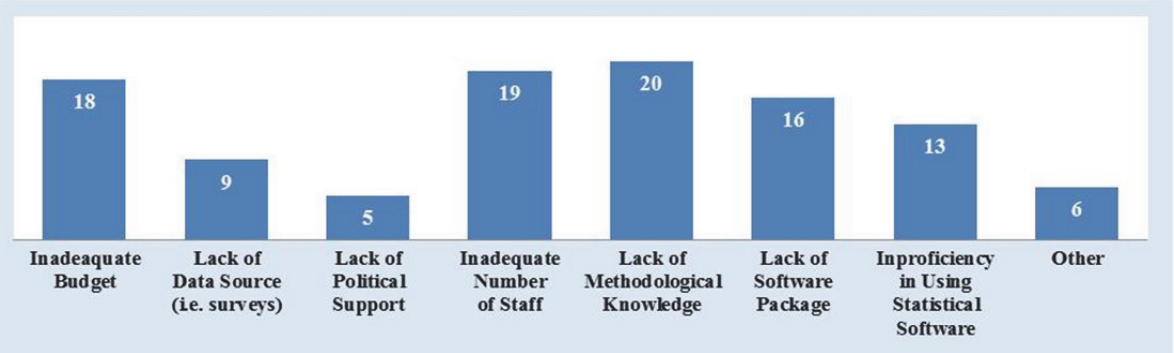
[24]Egypt and Tajikistan did not specify a theme though they provide training.

Enhancing national capacities in poverty statistics is not only needed for improving the technical assessment of poverty in the country but also for providing evidence in designing policies and evaluating the results of poverty reduction programs. Beyond MDGs, the post-2015 agenda identified the need for regularly updated poverty data to monitor the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

This increasing awareness of poverty as a policy objective in both national and international arena has substantively expanded the requirements of information. In this regard, the decision of a NSO to choose a particular approach of poverty measurement reflects not only a demand posed by the government, but also gives hints about certain socio-economic, demographic, geographical and political characteristics of the country. The stage of development of the statistical system (i.e. technical and operational resources) and the influence of regional and international organizations also play an important role in the approach preferred.

Unfortunately, most of the NSOs of OIC member countries indicated that they have difficulties in measuring poverty in a solid and accurate way (Appendix, Table A.11). Half of the respondents state that lack of the methodological knowledge is their primary challenge in poverty assessment. Inadequate number of staff is regarded as the main obstacle for 19 OIC countries while 18 NSOs stated that it is related to financial limitations. Lack of software package and inproficiency in using statistical software are among the other problems faced by more than one third of the respondents. On the other hand, the survey results reveal that lack of political support is not among the main hurdles for OIC member countries as reflected in Figure 3.14.

Figure 3.14. Problems of OIC Member Countries in Poverty Measurement[25]



For the design, implementation and evaluation of poverty reduction policies, the requirement for information becomes more complex. In this context, the NSOs should provide detailed information on small geographical areas, special population groups, different productive strata of the labour market, relative prices, external transactions, in order to characterize the actions of different public and private stakeholders including line ministries, NGOs, national and international companies, NGOs working towards poverty alleviation. As the magnitude, distribution and quality of free or subsidized goods and services provided by government also have an obvious redistributive effect on household welfare and, thus, on the incidence of poverty, the NSOs should also distribute the aggregate social public expenditure among households to better reflect the impact of poverty alleviation programmes on poverty statistics. However, incorporating the distribution of social public expenditure among households into poverty statistics still constitutes an important challenge for statistical institutions.

[25]The country list experiencing the stated problems in poverty measurement is provided in Table A.8 of Appendix.

THE WAY FORWARD

4

In knowledge-based economies, statistics have gained importance as one of the instruments capable of capturing the world. As more data become available and their use becomes more widespread, the demand for official statistics has been increasing as they guide the operational and organizational decisions of policy makers in both public and private sector while identifying needs, formulating objectives and orienting policies. Being an indispensable element in the information system of a country, official statistics also enable to monitor and measure the national progress towards goals including MDGs and proposed SDGs.

Statistical development is also considered an integral part of the national strategy for poverty reduction. In this context, statistics on poverty also need to be collected, processed and disseminated accurately, impartially and timely by official statistical authorities to honour the entitlement of all citizens to public information. Additionally, to improve consistency, efficiency and comparability of the national statistical systems, coordination among statistical authorities at the national, bilateral and multilateral level is essential. Despite the improvements observed in the statistical capacity of OIC member countries, NSOs still encounter overwhelming difficulties in the area of poverty statistics. In this regard, while sketching a general roadmap for OIC member countries, the future plans of the countries in terms of estimating poverty statistics should also be considered in order to understand the national priorities and to overcome the specific nature of the challenges faced.

The question related to the future strategies of the NSOs was answered by 30 OIC member countries (Appendix, Table A.12). Among them, the plans of 13 countries, namely Albania, Bangladesh, Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Gambia, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Malaysia, Maldives, Mauritania, Nigeria, Tunisia and Yemen include either the implementation of a survey or further improvement in the conduct of surveys such as frequency and sample size. Algeria, Chad, Morocco, Pakistan, Turkey and Uganda are interested in building capacities about multidimensional approach and developing multidimensional poverty measures while Bahrain, Benin, Djibouti, Indonesia, Iran, Senegal and Uzbekistan aim to focus primarily on methodological issues. Chad and Egypt declared their intention to give priority to training activities in order to strengthen the capacities of their staff. Better coordination with national or international authorities will be one of main goals of Egypt and Saudi Arabia.

The Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)[26] approach has been initiated by the IMF and the World Bank in 1999 to underline the need for a greater focus on poverty reduction. A PRSP

[26] https://www.imf.org/external/np/exr/facts/prsp.htm

contains an assessment of poverty and describes the macroeconomic, structural, and social policies and programmes that a country will pursue over several years to promote growth and reduce poverty, as well as assess external financing needs and the associated sources of financing. PRSPs aim to provide the crucial link between national public actions, donor support, and the development outcomes needed to meet the MDGs, which are centred on halving poverty between 1990 and 2015. Five core principles underlie the PRSP approach. Accordingly, poverty reduction strategies should be

(i) **Country-driven**, promoting national ownership of strategies through broad-based participation of civil society;

(ii) **Result-oriented** and focused on outcomes that will benefit the poor;

(iii) **Comprehensive** in recognizing the multidimensional nature of poverty;

(iv) **Partnership-oriented**, involving coordinated participation of development partners (government, domestic stakeholders, and external donors); and

(v) Based on a **long-term perspective** for poverty reduction.

35 OIC member countries[27] indicated that they have poverty reduction programmes/strategies specified under the national development plan. The detailed answers of 31 member countries are provided in Table A.13 of Appendix.

4.1. Concluding Remarks

Traditionally, poverty was understood primarily as material deprivation, as living with low income. However, poverty at its most general level is associated with the absence of choices across a broad range of basic rights including education, health. In this sense, analysing poverty from a multidimensional point of view will lead to understand the impact of its determinants more and to develop a more comprehensive policy measures required to alleviate poverty.

In the socioeconomic literature, there are different theories of measuring poverty, standard of living, inequality as well as social exclusion. The headcount index, poverty gap index, squared poverty gap index, Gini coefficient, growth incidence curve, Sen index, the Sen-Shorrocks-Thon index, the Watts index represent traditional measures of poverty and inequality. Measuring these indicators is not a simple task but progress has been made in the past several decades to evaluate poverty and inequality in a profound manner. In this context, human poverty index, gender-related development index, multidimensional poverty index, inequality of economic opportunity, polarization, at-risk-of-poverty or social exclusion indicator as well as global hunger index constitute new and complementary tools for poverty and inequality measurement. In addition to the monetary poverty indicators, the non-monetary poverty indicators provide significant information concerning poverty. These indicators weigh different degrees of deprivation. Therefore, it is essential that these measurements are technically robust for policy use. The literature on the determinants of poverty complements the conceptual introduction as well as poverty measurement. This literature reviews socio-economic linkages of poverty and factors channelling these linkages in the areas such as education, health, labour market, agriculture, livestock and food security- to name a few.

[27] Afghanistan, Kuwait and Tunisia did not answer the relevant question.

In terms of poverty alleviation, many OIC member countries have made significant progress over the years. As a result, the number of people living at $1.25 per day has decreased from 396 million in 1990 to 322 million in 2011 and the share of poor in OIC total population was recorded at 22.3% in 2011 compared to 41.1% in 1990. Despite these positive trends, OIC member countries are still lagging behind the world and developing countries averages. Poverty is a complicated multi-dimensional phenomenon that goes beyond the monetary aspects. In fact, it is associated with poor economies, poor human resources, poor social services provision, and poor policies to tackle the challenges facing human and socio-economic development. Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) seeks to capture these wider deprivations. The incidence of multidimensional poverty remained comparatively high in OIC member countries with 35% of their total population living in multidimensional poverty in 2014 and a total of 465 million people in OIC member countries are considered as multidimensional poor. The state of poverty, both in terms of income poverty and multidimensional poverty remained alarmingly high especially in OIC member countries located in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa region. Majority of these countries are characterized by a complex mix of uncontrolled or mismanaged demographic, economic, environmental, social as well as political issues. The nature and magnitude of these key issues faced by the many OIC member countries require a greater commitment from the governments to put poverty alleviation higher on the national development agendas and invest in required infrastructure, institutions and workforce to address the multidimensional nature of poverty.

To design effective policies for reducing poverty, policy makers need accurate, timely and comprehensive data. However, being a multifaceted concept, measuring poverty is not a simple task conceptually and empirically. The task of collecting/processing and disseminating poverty statistics is undertaken by the National Statistical Offices (NSOs) in more than 30 out of 40 OIC member countries included in the study. In producing income or expenditure based poverty statistics, it is found that the Cost of Basic Needs (CBN) approach is followed by 34 OIC member countries, 26 of which estimate the poverty line using food baskets. Meanwhile, multidimensional approach is applied or planned to be used by 11 member countries.

Accurate measurement of statistics depends on advancing on technical knowledge and following prospective trends in methodology and standards. However, one of the primary obstacles in assessing poverty is observed to be the lack of methodological knowledge by half of the responding countries. Equivalently, 19 NSOs indicated that the inadequate number of human resources to be the main challenge in improving quality and quantity of poverty statistics in their countries as the up-to-date information could not be used if it is not implemented by strongly motivated and technically competent people. Inadequate budget is seen as an important problem by 18 countries while lack of software package and inproficiency in using statistical software are among the other difficulties faced by more than one third of the respondents.

Overcoming these challenges will definitely help to enhance national capacities of OIC member countries in measuring poverty statistics in a more solid way, which is not only needed for improving the technical assessment of poverty in the country but also for providing evidence in designing policies and evaluating the impacts of poverty reduction programmes. Hence, dynamic solutions of best practice need to be found to compensate for the fact that OIC member countries lack optimal technical, financial and human resources to assess poverty.

Being well aware of the fact that partnerships with international organizations will result in establishing a more concerted and harmonized national statistical system in line with international standards, 29 of the 40 OIC member countries also have partnership and/or receive consultation from international organizations to strengthen their statistical capacities. In practice, cooperation may take several forms, such as study visits, consultancy supports, peer reviews, training courses and workshops. Developing international cooperation in statistics also enhances the shared accountability among the beneficiary and provider institutions through mutual transfer of know-how.

4.2. Policy Recommendations

On the basis of the analysis made in this study and the discussions held during the two expert group meetings, following general recommendations have been suggested for the consideration of the relevant national authorities of national statistical system (NSOs, Ministries of Development and other line ministries) to enhance the national capacities for the better measurement of poverty and to spearhead the national development programmes to alleviate poverty in collaboration with the relevant OIC institutions (SESRIC, IDB, ISFD, ISESCO, ICCIA) and international development partners (UNDP, FAO, OPHI, WHO).

Poverty Measurement

- **Research facilities** could be established to revolutionize the process of data collection, dissemination, and analysis to understand and evaluate the causes and effects of poverty and formulating the appropriate poverty eradication programmes at both national and intra-OIC level.
- The **statistical tools**, specifically for **poverty profiles, mapping** and **targeting** need to be used more extensively in order to design effective poverty reduction programmes, strengthen their impact and monitor spending on poverty alleviation.
- An **integrated survey system** should be developed and implemented to rationalize the use of resources, to capture the multiple dimensions of poverty, to provide enough inputs for assessing the effects of a wide variety of policies and to further improve the quality of each survey.
- Comprehensive efforts must be undertaken to improve the accuracy and frequency of **household survey** data (i.e. increasing supervision of field work and conducting validation studies) in order to generate more reliable poverty estimates.
- There is a dire need to promote the use of **common administrative terminology** to facilitate **data linkages** among all agencies of the NSSs at national and intra-OIC level.
- Following a step by step approach, the initial focus of the responsible authorities should be directed towards producing the most **commonly used poverty** measures (i.e., the headcount index, poverty gap, and squared poverty gap) to achieve more consistent and reliable interpretation of raw data and to ensure more comparability across OIC member countries.

- OIC member countries need to be encouraged to take part in Multidimensional Poverty Peer Network (MPPN)[28] and to use **multidimensional poverty** approach developed by OPHI in poverty measurement.
- A strong **coordination mechanism** has to be established among all the national institutions (including data producers and users) involved in poverty issues to make further progress in the production of adequate information for monitoring poverty and to design better aligned poverty alleviation policies.
- **Partnership and consultation** from international and regional organizations should be sought to develop appropriate standards and tools for measuring poverty in order to advance the process of **harmonization** at both data and metadata level.
- It is required to distinguish between specific anti-poverty programmes and broader social public expenditures in order to construct specific surveys measuring the impact of **public expenditure**.
- The **best practices** in the world need to be tailored according to the national needs and capabilities by identifying the advantages and limitations of the poverty measurement approaches used.
- Comprehensive **capacity building programmes** like the flagship statistical capacity building (StatCab) programme of SESRIC should be designed in order to enhance the national capacities of OIC member countries in the area of poverty statistics.

Poverty Alleviation

- **National poverty eradication strategies and programmes** should be directed to promote the productive use of the poor's most abundant asset (i.e. labour) and provide basic social services to the poor such as primary education and health care, family planning, and nutrition.
- **Social safety net programmes** could be expanded to ensure their effectiveness in targeting not only the poverty but also inequality. In addition, there is a need to promote community-based solutions that empowers the poor rather than simply satisfying their momentary needs in order to foster sustainable programmes.
- The role of **Waqf, Zakah,** and other mechanisms for fighting poverty should be promoted and enhanced.
- **Health and education financing systems** need to be reformed to enable wider access by increasing investment and public spending, reducing out-of-pocket spending and increasing pre-payment and risk-pooling mechanisms like social security schemes offering health insurance and free schooling.
- **Collaboration** with **NGOs and international bodies** should be strengthened to train and deploy health and education workers at community level to provide especially basic health and education services to poor living in remote areas.

[28] http://www.mppn.org/

- **Cooperation** at intra-OIC level need to be enhanced to increase investment in basic infrastructure related with health, education, water and energy sectors.
- **Emergency response mechanisms** should be developed and implemented and intra-OIC cooperation should be enhanced to minimize the impacts of climate change-related natural disasters like floods, droughts and cyclones which are causing severe damage to infrastructure and posing severe threats to the very survival of millions of people especially the poor across the member countries.
- **Agriculture** sector development should be promoted as a key factor in fighting poverty by ensuring farmer's access to finance, new agricultural technologies and farming techniques that also help in climate change risk management and adaptation.
- **Special programmes** should be initiated and strengthened for supporting **self-employment** through establishment and expansion of small enterprise sectors by increasing the availability of credit, including microcredit, minimising interest rates, improving infrastructure and the equity of access to productive inputs such as land and sites for enterprises, and increasing the accessibility of information and advisory services.
- **Collaboration** with relevant OIC and international institutions need to be enhanced to benefit from their **technical know-how and financial resources** to devise and implement effective poverty eradication strategies and programmes.

APPENDIX

Table A.1. Incidence of Poverty (%)

Country	1990	1993	1996	1999	2002	2005	2008	2010	2011
Afghanistan	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Albania	0.84	0.78	0.20	0.54	0.73	0.44	0.20	0.33	0.32
Algeria	5.78	7.02	7.38	7.86	4.97	3.32	2.54	1.27	1.20
Azerbaijan	20.09	11.83	22.45	11.07	0.02	0.00	0.31	0.56	0.31
Bahrain	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Bangladesh	68.70	62.91	60.91	60.35	54.65	50.47	46.35	43.25	39.57
Benin	57.61	56.51	55.25	51.43	47.63	49.02	49.83	48.92	51.61
Brunei	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Burkina Faso	72.27	70.61	70.60	63.87	55.06	46.39	43.97	41.55	40.80
Cameroon	35.11	45.87	47.43	31.95	25.03	26.42	27.12	25.71	24.94
Chad	67.68	72.95	71.39	70.81	61.94	37.60	40.01	35.28	36.52
Comoros	40.29	40.95	45.19	45.36	44.92	45.48	47.56	48.07	48.18
Cote d'Ivoire	18.26	26.47	23.39	28.96	29.66	99.06	35.04	34.03	37.31
Djibouti	24.86	24.37	23.76	22.43	18.83	15.33	12.06	10.52	10.20
Egypt	4.46	3.84	2.46	2.18	2.00	2.26	1.68	1.66	1.66
Gabon	3.85	4.05	3.43	4.65	6.03	6.09	6.02	6.29	5.39
Gambia	64.59	64.64	66.60	58.37	41.12	33.83	33.45	30.73	34.02
Guinea	93.28	73.59	63.01	59.91	56.18	47.26	38.52	41.59	41.28
Guinea-Bissau	42.23	65.33	50.20	60.20	48.90	53.90	49.09	50.19	48.65
Guyana	8.53	6.91	8.20	8.75	8.52	7.52	6.04	5.73	5.33
Indonesia	54.27	54.40	43.38	47.70	29.39	21.56	22.71	18.04	16.20
Iran	3.85	1.70	1.48	1.60	1.64	1.45	0.98	0.75	0.77
Iraq	13.44	13.01	12.43	11.13	7.71	5.02	3.53	3.48	3.68
Jordan	1.37	3.15	2.05	1.51	1.13	0.38	0.07	0.08	0.07
Kazakhstan	0.60	4.21	4.98	6.27	3.76	0.02	0.01	0.06	0.03
Kuwait	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Kyrgyzstan	4.78	18.61	31.10	32.56	29.74	19.91	5.50	6.02	5.11
Lebanon	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Libya	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Malaysia	1.74	1.22	0.82	2.01	1.22	0.37	0.00	0.00	0.00
Maldives	29.87	29.11	26.63	21.21	9.50	0.82	0.13	0.04	0.02
Mali	85.65	85.53	82.71	71.89	60.39	55.65	51.48	50.61	50.83
Mauritania	43.14	42.79	23.40	20.72	25.39	24.42	23.43	24.13	23.54
Morocco	5.00	5.83	4.88	6.73	5.60	3.50	2.10	1.75	1.81
Mozambique	82.32	82.82	80.59	77.08	75.24	69.34	60.71	58.32	54.62
Niger	66.33	75.75	74.27	65.59	58.65	51.25	42.06	40.34	40.81
Nigeria	57.58	63.15	68.65	69.98	64.05	62.11	62.24	62.03	60.08
Oman	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Pakistan	64.17	61.42	48.14	29.05	35.87	22.58	17.15	12.74	12.74
Palestine	0.59	0.59	0.59	0.57	0.28	0.47	0.38	0.08	0.08
Qatar	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Saudi Arabia	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Senegal	64.99	58.02	51.97	45.99	43.64	33.50	33.13	33.31	34.06
Sierra Leone	62.36	64.96	66.05	69.02	62.33	58.78	57.71	57.01	56.63
Somalia	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Sudan	50.78	45.01	42.66	37.17	31.46	26.73	19.97	19.51	17.21
Suriname	19.10	16.96	16.23	15.54	15.21	13.78	11.60	11.13	10.52
Tajikistan	1.05	21.94	72.05	50.08	36.74	18.34	9.17	6.33	6.04
Togo	48.10	62.93	51.28	48.12	54.03	53.87	53.89	53.22	52.46
Tunisia	5.86	6.22	5.64	3.13	2.02	1.38	0.86	0.74	0.71
Turkey	1.34	1.47	1.65	1.42	1.15	1.45	0.10	0.59	0.08
Turkmenistan	33.00	63.53	41.82	24.33	20.32	11.23	6.65	7.18	5.73
Uganda	70.74	70.06	63.01	59.43	56.57	52.95	41.44	37.20	36.95
UAE	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Uzbekistan	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Yemen	11.94	11.56	11.10	11.31	11.19	9.78	6.44	5.08	4.81

Source: World Bank, PovCalNet

Table A.2. Total Number of Poor People (Income and Multidimensional Poverty, in millions)

Country	1990	1993	1996	1999	2002	2005	2008	2010	2011	MPI Poor*
Afghanistan	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	18.79
Albania	0.03	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.04
Algeria	1.52	1.98	2.20	2.46	1.62	1.13	0.91	0.47	0.45	n.a
Azerbaijan	1.44	0.89	1.74	0.88	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.05	0.03	0.48
Bahrain	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a
Bangladesh	73.78	72.28	74.55	78.44	74.88	72.24	68.58	65.36	60.49	77.49
Benin	2.88	3.15	3.41	3.47	3.53	4.01	4.47	4.65	5.05	6.83
Brunei	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a
Burkina Faso	6.37	6.74	7.32	7.20	6.77	6.23	6.45	6.46	6.53	13.05
Cameroon	4.24	6.04	6.79	4.96	4.20	4.79	5.32	5.30	5.28	9.49
Chad	4.03	4.77	5.15	5.66	5.55	3.76	4.41	4.13	4.41	7.37
Comoros	0.17	0.18	0.22	0.24	0.25	0.27	0.31	0.33	0.34	n.a
Cote d'Ivoire	2.21	3.54	3.42	4.58	4.94	51.68	6.40	6.46	7.23	11.15
Djibouti	0.15	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.14	0.12	0.10	0.09	0.09	0.24
Egypt	2.51	2.28	1.53	1.42	1.37	1.62	1.27	1.30	1.32	4.65
Gabon	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.06	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.10	0.09	0.26
Gambia	0.59	0.65	0.73	0.69	0.54	0.49	0.53	0.52	0.59	1.02
Guinea	5.62	5.25	5.10	5.15	5.08	4.53	3.97	4.52	4.61	8.97
Guinea-Bissau	0.43	0.71	0.59	0.75	0.65	0.77	0.75	0.80	0.79	1.23
Guyana	0.06	0.05	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.06
Indonesia	96.94	102.28	85.50	98.24	63.20	48.40	53.20	43.42	39.50	37.22
Iran	2.17	1.00	0.91	1.04	1.11	1.02	0.71	0.56	0.58	n.a
Iraq	2.35	2.49	2.61	2.57	1.95	1.37	1.04	1.08	1.17	3.60
Jordan	0.04	0.12	0.09	0.07	0.06	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.16
Kazakhstan	0.10	0.69	0.78	0.94	0.56	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.03
Kuwait	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a
Kyrgyzstan	0.21	0.84	1.44	1.58	1.48	1.03	0.29	0.33	0.28	0.26
Lebanon	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a
Libya	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a
Malaysia	0.32	0.24	0.17	0.46	0.30	0.10	0.00	0.00	0.00	n.a
Maldives	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.06	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02
Mali	6.82	7.30	7.63	7.17	6.57	6.64	6.76	7.08	7.33	12.11
Mauritania	0.87	0.94	0.56	0.54	0.73	0.77	0.80	0.87	0.87	2.23
Morocco	1.23	1.52	1.33	1.91	1.64	1.05	0.65	0.55	0.58	3.37
Mozambique	11.17	12.33	13.27	13.72	14.54	14.57	13.82	13.98	13.43	16.68
Niger	5.14	6.48	7.06	6.95	6.93	6.75	6.20	6.41	6.74	14.19
Nigeria	55.06	65.13	76.32	83.86	82.77	86.70	94.11	99.07	98.65	69.21
Oman	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a
Pakistan	71.29	73.91	62.62	40.84	53.69	35.67	28.64	22.06	22.44	76.49
Palestine	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.06
Qatar	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a
Saudi Arabia	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a
Senegal	4.88	4.78	4.65	4.42	4.53	3.78	4.06	4.31	4.54	9.64
Sierra Leone	2.52	2.59	2.59	2.78	2.80	3.01	3.19	3.28	3.32	4.17
Somalia	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	7.82
Sudan	10.16	10.24	10.78	10.07	9.18	8.44	6.80	6.96	6.27	n.a
Suriname	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.03
Tajikistan	0.06	1.23	4.22	3.05	2.35	1.25	0.67	0.48	0.47	1.01
Togo	1.82	2.57	2.25	2.28	2.77	2.98	3.23	3.36	3.39	3.14
Tunisia	0.48	0.54	0.51	0.30	0.20	0.14	0.09	0.08	0.08	0.12
Turkey	0.72	0.83	0.98	0.88	0.75	0.98	0.07	0.43	0.06	4.73
Turkmenistan	1.21	2.53	1.79	1.08	0.93	0.53	0.33	0.36	0.29	n.a
Uganda	12.40	13.61	13.49	13.97	14.67	15.21	13.17	12.64	12.99	23.76
UAE	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.05
Uzbekistan	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.65
Yemen	1.41	1.59	1.73	1.93	2.08	1.97	1.40	1.16	1.12	11.95

Source: World Bank, PovCalNet; *OPHI

Table A.3. Periodicity of the Household Surveys in OIC Member Countries

COUNTRY	SOURCE	TITLE	PERIODICITY	DATE
AFGHANISTAN	**Household**	Afghanistan Living Condition Survey (ALCS)	..	..
ALBANIA	**Household**	Living Standard Measurement Survey (LSMS)	every 3 years: 2002, 2005, 2008, 2012	September-October 2012 (Field work)
ALGERIA	**Household**	Survey on Consumer Spending and the Level of Household Living	10 years	2011
AZERBAIJAN	**Household**	Household Budget Survey	quarterly	2013 annual
BAHRAIN[8]	**Household**	Expenditure and Household Income Survey	5 years	2005/2006
BANGLADESH	**Household**	Household Income & Expenditure Survey	5 years	01-02-2010 31/01/2011
BENIN	**Household**	Modular Survey of Household Living Conditions (EMICoV)	2 years	November-January 2011
BURKINA FASO[1]	**Household**	Survey on Living Conditions of Households	5 years	01-07-2010 2009-2010
CHAD	**Household**	Consumption Survey and the Informal Sector in Chad (ECOSIT)	5 years	01/06/2011
COTE D'IVOIRE	**Household**	Standard of Living of Household Survey	4 years	Nov-08
DJIBOUTI	**Household**	Djibouti Household Survey for Social Indicators (EDAM-IS)	5 years	01/04/2012
EGYPT	**Household**	Income, Expenditure and Consumption Survey	2 years	2011/2012
GABON	**Household**	EGEP	10 years	2005
GAMBIA	**Household**	Demography and Health Survey	5 years	2013
INDONESIA	**Household**	Socio-Economic Survey	quarterly	Mar-14
IRAN	**Household**	Household Income and Expenditure Survey	annual	2013
IRAQ	**Household**	Social and Economic Survey of Households	A large sample (4-5) years sub-sample of large (annually)	1/1/2012 and lasted for an entire year
KAZAKHSTAN	**Household**	Household Survey on Living Standard Assessment	quarterly	regular
KUWAIT[4]	**Household**	Income and Expenditure Survey of Household 2013	no periodicity	from 1-1 2013 to 31-12-2013
MALAYSIA	**Household**	Household Income Survey (HIS)	twice within 5 years	2012
MALDIVES	**Household**	Household Income and Expenditure Survey	5 years	2009/10
MAURITANIA	**Household**	Permanent Survey of Household Living Conditions (VTEC)	4 years	07/04/2014
MOROCCO	**Household**	National Survey on Expenditure and Consumption of Households	10 years	2013/2014

NIGER	**Household**	Survey of Household Living Conditions and Agriculture (ECVMA)	2 years	03/07/2011
NIGERIA	**Household**	..	**..**	**..**
PAKISTAN	**Household**	Household Integrated Economic Survey (HIES) conducted under the Umbrella of Pakistan Social &Living Standards Measurement Survey (PSLM)	every alternate year	Jun-14
PALESTINE	**Household**	Survey on Expenditure and Household Consumption	5 years	15/1/2011-14/1/2012
QATAR	**Household**	Household Income and Expenditure Survey	5 years	2014
SAUDI ARABIA	**Household**	Expenditure and Income of Household	5 years	2012/2013
SENEGAL	**Household**	Poverty Monitoring Survey in Senegal (ESPS)	4 years	Dec-11
SUDAN	**Household**	Income and Expenditure Survey	no periodicity	17/5م2009
SURINAME	**Household**	..	**..**	**..**
TAJIKISTAN	**Household**	Household Budget Survey (HBS)	quarterly	**..**
TOGO	**Household**	QUIBB Core Welfare Indicators Questionnaire	5 years	August 2011
TUNISIA	**Household**	National Survey on Budget, Consumption and Living Standards of Households	quinquennial (every 5 years)	2010-2011
TURKEY	**Household**	Household Budget Survey Income and Living Conditions Survey	annual	2013
UAE	**Household**	Income and Expenditure Household Survey	no periodicity	2007/2008
UGANDA	**Household**	Uganda National Household Survey	3 years	15/06/2012 to 30/06/2013
UZBEKISTAN	**Household**	Household Sample Survey	annual	2013
YEMEN[3]	**Household**	Household Budget Survey (HBS)	5 years	2005/06

Table A.4. Periodicity of the Other Sources Used in Estimating Poverty in OIC Member Countries

COUNTRY	SOURCE	TITLE	PERIODICITY	DATE
AFGHANISTAN	**Non-Survey**	Administrative data from ministries and departments	monthly /quarterly / annually	..
ALGERIA	**Non-Survey**	Social Budget of State - Ministry of Finance	quarterly	
BAHRAIN	**Non-Survey**	Ministry of Social Development / Ministry of Housing	annual	2015
BENIN	**Non-Survey**	National Accounts	2 years	2013
COTE D'IVOIRE	**Non-Survey**	Census General of Population and Housing (GPHS)	10 years	Apr-14
DJIBOUTI	**Non-Survey**	Census of Population and Housing	10 years	01/04/2009
KUWAIT	**Non-Survey**	Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour	irregular	2001
NIGER	**Non-Survey**	General Census of Population and Housing (GCP/H)	10 years	12/12/2012
QATAR	**Non-Survey**	Administrative Records (Beneficiaries of Services Rendered by Social Development Centre)	annual	2013
SENEGAL	**Non-Survey**	General Census of Population, Housing, Agriculture and Livestock (RGPHAE)	10 years	Dec-13
AFGHANISTAN[6]	**Other**	Socio-Demography and Economic Survey	..	every year
AZERBAIJAN	**Other**	Time Use Survey	3 years	2012 annual
BENIN	**Other**	Modular Survey of Household Living Conditions (EMICoV)	2 years	November-January 2011
COTE D'IVOIRE	**Other**	Socio-demographic Survey (EDS)	4 years	May-12
DJIBOUTI	**Other**	Consumer Budget Survey	10 years	01/03/2013
GABON	**Other**	ENEC, EDSG	..	2010, 2012
MOROCCO	**Other**	National Survey on Living Level of Households	5 years	2007
NIGER	**Other**	Survey of Core Indicators of Welfare (QUIBB)	no periodicity	2005
QATAR	**Other**	Labour Force Survey	quarterly	2013
SENEGAL	**Other**	Continuous Demographic and Health Survey	annual	2012
SUDAN	**Other**	Labour Market Survey	no periodicity	2011 November
SURINAME[5]	**Other**	CPI	monthly	last quarter of 2009
TOGO	**Other**	EBC (Consumption Budget Survey)	10 years	1987
UAE	**Other**	Manpower Survey	2008 ،2009	May 2008, May 2009
UGANDA	**Other**	National Panel Survey	annual	31/08/2014
YEMEN	**Other**	Social Protection	not specified	2012/2013

ALGERIA	**Specific**	Survey on Living Standards and Consumer Spending	10 years	2011
BANGLADESH	**Specific**	Household Income & Expenditure Survey	5 years	01-02-2010 31/01/2011
BENIN	**Specific**	Modular Survey of Household Living Conditions (EMICoV)	2 years	November-January 2011
BURKINA FASO[2]	**Specific**	Survey on Living Conditions of Households	every 5 years	2009-2010
COTE D'IVOIRE	**Specific**	Standard of Living of Household Survey	4 years	Nov-08
DJIBOUTI	**Specific**	Household Survey for Social Indicators (EDAM-IS)	5 years	01/04/2012
EGYPT	**Specific**	Income, Expenditure and Consumption Survey		
GABON	**Specific**	EGEP / RGPL		2005, 2013
IRAQ[7]	**Specific**	Social and Economic Survey of Households	2 years	01/11/2014
MALDIVES	**Specific**	Household Income and Expenditure Survey	5 years	2009/10
MAURITANIA	**Specific**	Permanent Survey of Household Living Conditions (VTEC)	4 years	07/04/2014
MOROCCO	**Specific**	National Survey on Expenditure and Consumption of Household	10 years	2013/2014
NIGER	**Specific**	Survey of Household Living Conditions and Agriculture (ECVMA)	2 years	03/07/2011
NIGERIA	**Specific**	Nigeria Living Standard Survey	5 years	Sep-10
PAKISTAN	**Specific**	Household Integrated Economic Survey (HIES) conducted under Umbrella of Pakistan Social &Living Standards Measurement Survey (PSLM)	every alternate year	Jun-14
SENEGAL	**Specific**	Poverty Monitoring Survey in Senegal (ESPS)	4 years	Dec-11
SUDAN	**Specific**	Income and Expenditure survey	no periodicity	17/05/2009
TOGO	**Specific**	QUIBB Core Welfare Indicators Questionnaire	5 years	August 2011

1 Burkina Faso: Changing of periodicity is under study.
2 Burkina Faso: A study is currently underway, scheduled for late December 2014.
3 currently implementing 2014 survey
4 Kuwait: Irregular and in the future the periodicity will be every 3 years
5 Suriname: Last time the institution calculated poverty lines was 2009.
6 Afghanistan: province by province
7 Iraq: still ongoing
8 Bahrain: Last survey in 2005/2006 and the current will be in 2014/2015

Table A.5. Human Resources in the NSOs of OIC Countries by the Highest Education Level Attained

COUNTRY[1]	MA/ MSc and above	BA/BSc or equivalent*	Secondary school	Primary school	No formal education	Vacant	Total
AFGHANISTAN	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
ALBANIA	162	14	36	0	0	23	**235**
ALGERIA	109	132	154	211	0	..	**606**
AZERBAIJAN	437	367	390	0	0	..	**1,194**
BAHRAIN	14	37	11	0	0	..	**62**
BANGLADESH	22	54	1,240	4	0	..	**1,320**
BENIN	46	24	17	0	0	..	**87**
BURKINA FASO	74	87	11	15	0	..	**187**
CHAD	43	42	10	7	1	..	**103**
COTE D'IVOIRE	..	..	..	..	..	..	**238**
DJIBOUTI	10	15	20	13	8	..	**66**
EGYPT	83	2,063	1,673	62	433	..	**4,314**
GABON	100	48	38	20	32	..	**238**
GAMBIA	5	21	29	0	26	..	**81**
INDONESIA	1,507	8,440	5,381	89	0	..	**15,417**
IRAN	171	171	67	26	0	..	**435**
IRAQ	35	768	273	114	0	..	**1,190**
KAZAKHSTAN[2]	331	0	1	0	0	..	**2,892**
KUWAIT	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
MALAYSIA	32	1,182	1,916	4	0	..	**3,134**
MALDIVES	5	19	9	0	0	..	**33**
MAURITANIA	52	37	43	54	55	..	**241**
MOROCCO	*12*	*5*	..	..	*1*	..	**18**
NIGER	*170*	*0*	*52*	*5*	*0*	..	**227**
NIGERIA	..	..	..	..	..	..	**2,356**
PAKISTAN	592	661	271	28	0	..	**1,552**
PALESTINE	57	190	29	6	0	..	**282**
QATAR	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
SAUDI ARABIA	2	254	383	66	15	..	**720**
SENEGAL	92	101	14	38	0	..	**245**
SUDAN	15	164	147	0	0	..	**326**
SURINAME	1	11	71	13	20	..	**116**
TAJIKISTAN	146	15	24	0	0	..	**185**
TOGO	17	42	64	23	40	..	**186**
TUNISIA	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
TURKEY	333	2,752	562	43	0	..	**3,690**
UAE	11	78	11	1	1	..	**102**
UGANDA	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
UZBEKISTAN[3]	129	98	54	0	0	31	**312**
YEMEN	10	150	48	18	12	..	**238**
OIC (40)	**4,825**	**18,042**	**13,049**	**860**	**644**	**54**	**42,628**

** Staff who completed 2-year technical and/or vocational training schools were also included.*

1) Afghanistan, Kuwait, Tunisia, Uganda and Qatar did not complete the relevant part though they responded the questionnaire

2)For Kazakhstan, the distribution is provided only for the staff of the Central Office (332). The total number of staff in the regional offices is 2560.

3) 33 of the 54 staff with secondary school education have secondary specialized vocational education in Uzbekistan.

Table A.6. NSO Personnel with Technical Knowledge on Poverty Issues

COUNTRY	Does the NSO have a department / team related to poverty assessment?	Number of Staff working in poverty issues	Does the NSO employ staff having specific education on poverty issues / attend poverty related courses?	Number of Staff having specific education on poverty issues
AFGHANISTAN	..	..	..	..
ALBANIA	**YES**	4	**YES**	3
ALGERIA	**YES**	..	**YES**	6
AZERBAIJAN	**YES**	5	**YES**	3
BAHRAIN	**YES**	5	**YES**	4
BANGLADESH	**YES**	1,310	**YES**	10
BENIN	**YES**	5	**YES**	3
BURKINA FASO	**YES**	10	**YES**	8
CHAD	**YES**	9	**YES**	1
COTE D'IVOIRE	**YES**	5	**YES**	2
DJIBOUTI	NO	..	NO	..
EGYPT	**YES**	100	**YES**	50
GABON	NO	23	NO	2
GAMBIA	NO	0	NO	..
INDONESIA	**YES**	12	**YES**	2
IRAN	NO	1	**YES**	1
IRAQ	**YES**	10	**YES**	5
KAZAKHSTAN	**YES**	5	**YES**	1
KUWAIT	NO	..	**YES**	2
MALAYSIA	NO	68	NO	..
MALDIVES	**YES**	3	NO	..
MAURITANIA	**YES**	8	**YES**	3
MOROCCO	**YES**	10	**YES**	5
NIGER	**YES**	20	NO	..
NIGERIA	**YES**	..	**YES**	..
PAKISTAN	**YES**	15	**YES**	3
PALESTINE	**YES**	4	**YES**	4
QATAR	**YES**	3	**YES**	3
SAUDI ARABIA	NO	5	**YES**	2
SENEGAL	**YES**	12	**YES**	7
SUDAN	**YES**	10	**YES**	6
SURINAME	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a
TAJIKISTAN	**YES**	6	**YES**	6
TOGO	NO	..	NO	..
TUNISIA	**YES**	2	NO	..
TURKEY	**YES**	8	**YES**	2
UAE	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a
UGANDA	**YES**	2	**YES**	2
UZBEKISTAN	**YES**	10	NO	..
YEMEN	NO	6	**YES**	2
OIC (40)	**28**	**1,696**	**28**	**148**

Table A.7. OIC Member Countries Having Partnership / Receiving Consultation from International Organizations in the Area of Poverty Statistics

COUNTRY	Reply	World Bank	UNDP	AfDB	AfriStat	Other*
AFGHANISTAN	World Bank	x				
ALBANIA	World Bank	x				
ALGERIA	World Bank	x				
AZERBAIJAN	World Bank	x				
BAHRAIN	World Bank	x				
BANGLADESH	World Bank	x				
BENIN	World Bank, UNDP	x	x			
BURKINA FASO	World Bank, AfriStat, Central Munich (CDG), PARIS 21	x			x	x
CHAD	World Bank, African Development Bank, UNICEF	x		x		x
COTE D'IVOIRE	World Bank, UNDP, AfriStat	x	x		x	
DJIBOUTI	World Bank, African Development Bank	x		x		
EGYPT	UNICEF - social contract centre - Faculty of Economics and Political Science - Ministry of Planning					x
GAMBIA	UNDP		x			
INDONESIA	World Bank	x				
IRAQ	World Bank	x				
MALDIVES	World Bank	x				
MOROCCO	World Bank, UNICEF, CEA, OMS, FAO	x				x
NIGER	World Bank, UNICEF, World Food Programme	x				x
NIGERIA	World Bank, OPHI	x				x
PALESTINE	World Bank, ESCWA	x				x
SAUDI ARABIA	League of Arab States, the Institute of Training and Statistical Research, World Bank and UN specialized agencies	x				x
SENEGAL	World Bank, UNDP, UNECA, AfriStat	x	x		x	x
SUDAN	World Bank, African Development Bank, FAO	x		x		x
TAJIKISTAN	World Bank, UNFPA	x				x
TOGO	World Bank, AfriStat	x			x	
TUNISIA	World Bank, African Development Bank	x		x		
TURKEY	EuroStat					x
UGANDA	World Bank, Economic Policy Research Centre	x				x
UZBEKISTAN	World Bank, UNDP, UNECE	x	x			x
YEMEN	World Bank	x				
OIC	**29**	**27**	**5**	**4**	**4**	**13**

Table A.8. The Content of Partnership of OIC Member Countries with International Organizations

AFGHANISTAN	Training course on poverty analysis
ALBANIA	World Bank has been supporting INSTAT in poverty analyses beginning from 2002
ALGERIA	Preparation of a report on poverty
AZERBAIJAN	Cooperation with World Bank involving consultancy support
BAHRAIN	Evaluation and analysis of data
BANGLADESH	Consultancy support
BENIN	Joint implementation of research work on poverty
BURKINA FASO	Methodological design, data analysis, training
CHAD	Financial assistance for the realization of ECOSIT3
COTE D'IVOIRE	Technical and financial support
DJIBOUTI	Determining the poverty line, data analysis
EGYPT	*Technical support for the training and rehabilitation of team work in the poverty statistics *Training and qualification courses in the field of poverty indicators and poverty maps
GAMBIA	UNDP provides financial support and also hires a consultant to do the analysis.
INDONESIA	Assistance for poverty measurement
IRAQ	Consultation in the implementation of the survey and the poverty line is calculated by the World Bank experts
MOROCCO	*Cooperation protocol for the realization of study and exchange of expertise. *Participation in trainings, workshops, seminars.
NIGER	Contribution for funding the training of investigators, funding field operations
NIGERIA	Funding support and training from World Bank; training from OPHI
PALESTINE	The content of the partnership is centred on sending technical missions for training in the field of poverty statistics
SAUDI ARABIA	*Review the developed plans, evaluate the work *Review the methods used in the estimation of the poverty line and its indicators *Provide the appropriate technical support.
SENEGAL	Partnership based primarily on financial and technical support
SUDAN	Financial and technical support
TAJIKISTAN	They often conduct seminars to improve the knowledge of the NZO in the field of poverty
TOGO	Technical and financial support
TUNISIA	NSO-World Bank-African Development Bank tripartite project entitled: Strengthening capacity of the NSO in terms of poverty statistics was undertaken.
TURKEY	EU-SILC is conducted in line with the EU and some poverty measures are measured from this survey.
UGANDA	World Bank provides training in data analysis and funding for survey. Validation of poverty number (EPRC)
UZBEKISTAN	Assisting employees from Goskomstat to participate in international seminars in order to learn the experience of countries on poverty measurement
YEMEN	Provide financial and technical support in the implementation of household budget surveys

Table A.9. Subject Areas Needed by OIC Member Countries in terms of Poverty Statistics Trainings

AFGHANISTAN	Poverty estimation
ALBANIA	Multidimensional approach, measuring poverty through household surveys different from LSMS in the future.
ALGERIA	1) Methodology for developing multidimensional poverty indicators and subjective poverty 2) Analysis of poverty
AZERBAIJAN	Multidimensional approach
BAHRAIN	Estimation of the poverty line
BANGLADESH	Short term training needed on data processing
BENIN	Estimation of poverty line, unmet basic needs approach, poverty mapping
BURKINA FASO	Multidimensional poverty analysis
CHAD	Multidimensional poverty analysis
COTE D'IVOIRE	Multidimensional analysis of poverty, econometric analysis of the determinants of poverty
DJIBOUTI	Determining the poverty line, data analysis
EGYPT	Chronic poverty, lack of equal opportunities, Watts index, polarization, childhood poverty
GABON	Poverty estimation, sampling and survey
GAMBIA	From the basics of poverty statistics to most complex poverty measurement methodologies
INDONESIA	Related to methodological knowledge and relevant statistical software
IRAN	Other approaches of measuring poverty
IRAQ	Calculating the number of calories consumed by individuals, the selection of appropriate food basket , training on the method of calculating the non-food poverty line and poverty analysis features
MALAYSIA	1) Poverty Analysis 2) Poverty Mapping
MALDIVES	Construction of poverty index based on absolute poverty and multi-dimensional approach, calculation of Gini Coefficient, sectoral poverty analysis based on education, employment, household
MAURITANIA	Training on the concepts used in measuring poverty, processing and analysis of data and data processing software
NIGER	Multidimensional poverty training, training on appropriate software for statistics on poverty
NIGERIA	STATA software training , methodology training for new staff
PAKISTAN	Analysis of data for poverty using different method like Multidimensional Poverty & Unidimensional Poverty
QATAR	How to measure the poverty lines using the suitable methodologies to Qatar
SAUDI ARABIA	1) Use of statistical packages (STATA and SPSS) in the estimation of the poverty line and its indices 2) Different concepts of poverty (multidimensional poverty- material poverty) 3) Identifying the poverty line (food poverty line, non-food poverty line) 4) Measuring poverty indicators and the application program DASP Measuring indicators of inequality, growth curve and application program DASP. 5) Analysis of the change in the indicators according to its components. 6) Training on ADePT program. 7) Concept of multidimensional poverty, composition of the poverty index, the indicators used in its measurement, and poverty from the perspective of human development. 8) Identifying different ways to combat poverty, targeting and errors that get in the targeting and quality standards.
SENEGAL	Estimation of multidimensional poverty based on the calculation of index and scoring
SUDAN	Measuring poverty indicators, use software, methodologies for poverty
SURINAME	Metadata, poverty definition, poverty calculations
TAJIKISTAN	Need to learn some programme like CSPro for poverty estimates
TUNISIA	Choosing a consumption basket, poverty analysis, profile of the poor, poverty mapping, multidimensional poverty
TURKEY	Advanced level training such as small area estimation, poverty mapping, advanced statistical methods for multi-dimensional poverty measurement, etc.
UGANDA	Construction of consumption aggregate, determination of consumption basket, revision of the poverty line
UZBEKISTAN	Study of best practices in poverty measurement, modern recommended approach to measure poverty
YEMEN	Capacity and efficiency on the methodology to extract indicators of poverty

Table A.10. Strong Aspects of the NSOs of OIC Member Countries in Poverty Measurement

ALGERIA	1) Utilisation of the approach by the energy requirements on the basis 2) Utilisation of the method developed by Martin Ravallion of the World Bank 3) Rich questionnaire of the survey on consumer spending (nomenclature 900 products, observation of the quantities consumed, unit prices and values by product and for each household, survey was present in each household for a months and the duration of the investigation was a year, several aspects related to living standards and living conditions of households have been incorporated in the questionnaire)
AZERBAIJAN	Absolute poverty
BANGLADESH	Use of laptop in collecting primary data
BENIN	Profile and dynamics of poverty, inter-relationship between growth and poverty, microfinance and poverty, employment and poverty, governance and poverty, vulnerability analysis
BURKINA FASO	Methodological rigour, using a methodological framework designed by Afristat
CHAD	The existence of competent and experienced managers in the processing and analysis of survey data analysis.
COTE D'IVOIRE	Sampling plan, collecting, processing and analyzing data
DJIBOUTI	Data collection
EGYPT	Use of analytical software in the field of poverty, including the program (STATA - ADEPT - Poverty map - DASP)
IRAN	Direct access to data sources
IRAQ	The accumulated experience in conducting surveys of income and expenditure and high accuracy in data conforming the large sample size, in addition to government support for determining the poverty rate in Iraq.
MALAYSIA	A good data set which obtained during data collection with close monitoring from management
MALDIVES	Technical assistance received through donor agencies
MAURITANIA	1) Specific software is used to measure poverty and inequality called "DAD" 2) There is among the team one element has extensive training on the issue of poverty 3) Long experience in managing surveys (1992, 1996, 2000, 2004, 2008, 2014)
MOROCCO	Analysis and evaluation of poverty at national and regional levels, the conception of poverty mapping at level - the determinants of poverty : size identifications and involvement in policy terms.
PAKISTAN	PBS is the custodian of Household Integrated Economic Survey (HIES) and collecting data on Income and Consumption from all over Pakistan with the network of 34 regional/field offices since 1963. PBS survey design section is providing the sampling frame and a consistent methodology and questionnaire is used to make it comparable and compatible with International standards. PBS has a well-qualified and trained staff to carry out the whole activity (i.e. preparation of questionnaire, training of staff, data collection, monitoring, data analysis and report writing). PBS staff have the best insight of HIES data sets used for poverty analysis and also expert in handling big and complex data sets.
PALESTINE	Preparation of statistical reports on standards of living and poverty in Palestine
SAUDI ARABIA	Use of experts in this topic.*Submit recommendations directly to the distinguished Council of Ministers and study these proposals: Often it is approved; adopted, transmitted and implemented. *response of government agencies with the recommendations of the national strategy for social development. *In close cooperation with the competent authority of planning in the state, namely the Ministry of Economy, the Ministry of Planning and the Ministry of Social Affairs represented by the National Strategy for Social Development and the inclusion of these proposals within the programs and the five-year plans of the State.
SENEGAL	FGT methods
SUDAN	Comprehensiveness and accuracy
TUNISIA	The National Survey on Budget, consumption and household level is a mine of information. It is very rich.
TURKEY	Our staff working on poverty possesses considerable knowledge and experience in both monetary and non-monetary poverty methodology.
UZBEKISTAN	Application of methodology for measuring poverty on consumer expenditures, since in practice sometimes households conceal their incomes

Table A.11. Problems Faced by OIC Member Countries in Poverty Measurement

Inadeaquate budget 18	Lack of data source (i.e. surveys) 9	Lack of political support 5	Inadequate number of staff 19	Lack of methodological knowledge 20	Lack of software package 16	Inproficiency in using statistical software 13	Other 6
ALBANIA	AFGHANISTAN	AFGHANISTAN	AFGHANISTAN	AFGHANISTAN	AFGHANISTAN	AFGHANISTAN	AFGHANISTAN
AZERBAIJAN	ALGERIA	COTE D'IVOIRE	AZERBAIJAN	ALGERIA	ALGERIA	ALGERIA	CHAD
BENIN	BENIN	IRAN	BAHRAIN	AZERBAIJAN	AZERBAIJAN	AZERBAIJAN	MAURITANIA
BURKINA FASO	CHAD	NIGER	BENIN	BANGLADESH	BANGLADESH	CHAD	SAUDI ARABIA
COTE D'IVOIRE	MAURITANIA	SURINAME	CHAD	DJIBOUTI	BURKINA FASO	GABON	SENEGAL
DJIBOUTI	MOROCCO		DJIBOUTI	GABON	CHAD	GAMBIA	UGANDA
GABON	NIGERIA		GABON	GAMBIA	GABON	IRAN	
GAMBIA	SUDAN		GAMBIA	INDONESIA	IRAN	KUWAIT	
IRAN	YEMEN		INDONESIA	IRAN	KUWAIT	MALDIVES	
MAURITANIA			IRAN	IRAQ	MALDIVES	QATAR	
MOROCCO			KAZAKHSTAN	KAZAKHSTAN	NIGER	SAUDI ARABIA	
NIGER			MALDIVES	KUWAIT	SAUDI ARABIA	SUDAN	
NIGERIA			MAURITANIA	MALDIVES	SUDAN	YEMEN	
PALESTINE			MOROCCO	PAKISTAN	TAJIKISTAN		
SUDAN			NIGER	QATAR	TOGO		
TAJIKISTAN			SAUDI ARABIA	SAUDI ARABIA	YEMEN		
TOGO			SUDAN	SUDAN			
YEMEN			TOGO	TAJIKISTAN			
			YEMEN	TUNISIA			
				YEMEN			

Table A.12. Future Plans/Strategies of OIC Member Countries in terms of Poverty Assessment

ALBANIA	To conduct the EU-SILC in mid-term
ALGERIA	Production of multidimensional poverty indicators, subjective poverty and map of poverty
AZERBAIJAN	To learn methodology and conduct survey on multidimensional poverty
BAHRAIN	*Development of administrative records *Direct government support to the owed families
BANGLADESH	To enhance the frequency of the many surveys preferably to 3 year instead of 5 year used currently
BENIN	Development of a map of poverty, inequality and vulnerability; analysis of several topics related to poverty (employment, governance, land, etc.)
BURKINA FASO	Implementation of multisectoral continuous survey on the living conditions of households. It is a modular survey with core questionnaire of an annual periodicity
CHAD	A survey of multidimensional deprivation was conducted in 2012, data from this survey allows an estimation of multidimensional poverty if the human and financial conditions are met. Training on poverty analysis was also planned to strengthen the capacities of the staff of the department responsible for the poverty.
COTE D'IVOIRE	Survey in 2014
DJIBOUTI	Change in methodology for determining poverty line: separation between food and non-food
EGYPT	*Configuring a database on poverty indicators and preparing studies and reports on poverty *Evaluating national policies and strategies in the field of poverty alleviation through annual comparisons between poverty indicators *Transition from quantitative training to qualitative by focusing on the training of trainers to train the other cadres, and provide a database to the trained to take advantage of them in training *Coordinating with the World Bank, some international organizations and the international expert Dr. Heba Laithi in the field of technical support for the training and rehabilitation of team work in the poverty statistics *Participating in workshops, seminars, conferences and training courses relevant to poverty statistics, analysis and evaluation of data *Extracting the most important indicators of poverty and connecting with the results of the census of income, spending and consumption survey to extract the poverty maps
GAMBIA	Another I H S is being planned to be conducted in about a year or so

INDONESIA	Improvement in methodology of poverty measurement related to basket of commodities, calorie requirement etc.
IRAN	Moving towards other approaches and developing poverty estimates
IRAQ	Implementation of a continuous survey (every two years) to the family expenditure and income and to estimate the national poverty line and to follow up on the successful implementation of the Poverty Reduction Strategy, updated poverty line and indicators, the preparation of a new strategy for the period 2015-2019
KAZAKHSTAN	In 2012 Project «KAZSTAT: Project for Strengthening the National Statistical System of the Republic of Kazakhstan» was signed by the Republic of Kazakhstan and International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. The main goal of the Project KAZSTAT is to provide users with qualitative statistical information and to promote efficiency of statistical system of Kazakhstan in accordance with international methodology and best practice. The Project is implemented in partnership with consortium of foreign statistical offices of Germany, Finland, Czech Republic, Slovakia, South Korea and Russia at the head of Federal Statistical Office of Germany. Under the sub-component "Improvement of living standard statistics" Committee plans to improve and expand the set of living standard indicators, and implement the CAPI system in Household Survey on Living Standard Assessment.
MALAYSIA	Previously, the level of analysis for the HIES survey is only at state and stratum level. For HIS 2014 survey, the Department extended its sample size to make the generating of statistics reliable at states, strata and administrative districts. Malaysia will also focus on quintile analysis especially on bottom 40% group.
MALDIVES	Through surveys and administrative records
MAURITANIA	There is a reflection of programing light surveys to meet the needs on information in the level of poverty in a shorter time limit and with a cheaper cost and even in specific areas. However, the problem survives until the availability of funding in appropriate delays.
MOROCCO	Update poverty, inequality and vulnerability indices on the database of survey on household consumption, Elaboration of new absolute and multidimensional poverty cards (Oxford Approach) and human exclusion (United Nations CEA approach).
NIGERIA	To conduct the next NLSS in 2016
PAKISTAN	To institutionalize multidimensional poverty
QATAR	MDPS is going to follow up to monitoring the implementation of the mentioned project until the end of 2016.
SAUDI ARABIA	Future plans and strategies are in the process of preparation and coordination with the relevant authorities
SENEGAL	In collaboration with the World Bank, Senegal via the National Agency of Statistics and Demography has set up a collection system based on mobile phone technology to monitor living conditions of households. The Senegal also interested in developing an index of social development project following the example of the African index of social development project initiated by the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA)
TUNISIA	To carry out in the next National Survey on Budget, consumption and household level 2015-2016 and to improve the analysis of poverty and produce new indicators such as the MPI
TURKEY	To develop multidimensional poverty measures for Turkey
UGANDA	Multidimensional Poverty
UZBEKISTAN	Improvement of methodological approach of measuring poverty to ensure comparability at the global level
YEMEN	To estimate the levels of poverty, but it is on standby until the implementation of income and expenditure surveys

Table A.13. Existing Poverty Reduction Programmes / Strategies in OIC Member Countries

ALBANIA	**National Strategy for Development and Integration**
AZERBAIJAN	**State Programme on Poverty Reduction and Economic Development in Azerbaijan Republic** for 2008-2015 years agreed by the President
BANGLADESH	**National Five-Year Plan** addresses the poverty issue
BENIN	**Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (CPRS)**
BURKINA FASO	**Strategy for Growth and Sustainable Development**
CHAD	The strategy in the axis 2 of the NDP is to fight against the poverty by addressing inequality and social exclusion, strengthening education and health, and access to basic social services including habitat. A system of social protection of the population, women, youth and the poorest people who represent a large segment of the population is also being considered.
COTE D'IVOIRE	Achieving the MDGs and reduction of half of the poverty by the year 2015
DJIBOUTI	Development of social safety nets
EGYPT	Egypt seeks to reduce poverty through a follow-up, evaluation and improvement of the conditions of the poor through monetary and material support - the development of the poorest villages (Strategy Education - Health)
GABON	Recognizing the challenges of economic diversification and the need to reduce social inequalities and increasing poverty in the country, the President of Gabon announced the completion of the **Strategic Plan (Strategic Plan Emerging Gabon - PSGE)** emerging Gabon. The PSGE has three pillars: (i) make the country an industrial point of reference (Gabon Industrial), sustainable forest management (ii) engage the Gabon as a world leader in the production of certified tropical timber, the development of agriculture and livestock and fisheries to improve food security and sustainable development (Green Gabon) (iii) transform the Gabon into a centre of excellence in business and in the provision of value added services such as higher education and research, health, media and information technologies (Gabon Services).
GAMBIA	The **Program for Accelerated and Employment (PAGE)** as well as the previous development blueprints (PRSP I&II) were all detailed about poverty reduction.
INDONESIA	Poverty reduction programs in Indonesia are scattered in various ministries/agencies coordinated by Bappenas (Ministry of National Development Planning) and TNP2K (National Team for Accelerating Poverty Reduction). BPS does not have a specific poverty reduction programs, BPS only produce poverty statistics. Poverty reduction programs in Indonesia such as the Program Keluarga Harapan (Social Ministry), a poor rice program (The Coordinating Ministry for People Welfare), improving the welfare of fishermen (Ministry of Maritime and Fisheries Affairs) and so on.
IRAN	**Five - Year Development Plans**
IRAQ	The strategy included 6 outcomes which includes 27 exits and 89 active way to alleviate poverty during the period 2010-2014 to 30% of any of the 23% to 16%, was allocated amounts of the annual budget for the implementation of the activities contained in the strategy
KAZAKHSTAN	**Two poverty reduction programs** have been implemented: **the first program (2000-2002)** aimed merely to reduce poverty and unemployment through realization of a vigorous employment policy, job creation and the targeting of social assistance toward needy citizens; **the second program (2003-2005)** considered multilateral factors behind poverty and looked at the need for not only for economic growth, employment, and targeted social assistance, but also the availability of basic education, primary healthcare, housing, transport infrastructure and public utilities. Due to the implementation of the poverty reduction programs and other state and local programs connected directly and indirectly to the improvement of situation of the poor, the poverty rate decreased from 46,7% in 2001 to 2,9% in 2013. Moreover, since Kazakhstan already achieved some of the original targets of the MDGs such as poverty reduction, access to primary education and promotion of women`s rights, the government has adopted an MDG+ agenda, i.e. additional, more ambitious goals adapted for Kazakhstan (halving the number of poor in rural areas, achieving

	universal secondary education, etc.). In this regard, currently there is no state program aimed directly at poverty reduction. But there are several programs connected indirectly with poverty alleviation. For example, "Strategy-2050" adopted in 2014 is aimed at improving the welfare of the population, disparities reducing, enhancing social stability and comprehensive modernization of all spheres of economy. Besides this strategic program, Employment Road Map-2020, Business Road Map-2020, Region Development Program-2020 include targets for the improvement of people`s welfare.
MALAYSIA	In Malaysia, all the program/strategies for poverty reduction program developed and monitored by Economic Planning Unit of Prime Minister's Department
MALDIVES	Strengthen institution capacity through implementing **Poverty Targeting Mechanism** (using Proxy Mean Testing)
MAURITANIA	Since 2001, there is a **Strategic Framework for the Fight against Poverty (PRSP)** which directs all governmental actions. Underwent an update on the occasion of the release of data for each version of the VTEC. It is the foundation of economic and social policies of the state.
MOROCCO	Sectoral programs of education, health, housing, commodities and energy subsidies. Plans for medical assistance to poor populations. National initiative for human development, employment and inclusion of young people and women.
NIGER	Despite the still high incidence of poverty, it is important to note that significant progress has been made in reducing the phenomenon in Niger. These results were achieved through the concerted actions of various public services of the State, the Technical and Financial Partners (TFP) as well as the private sector. Specifically, it is the raft of structural economic reforms undertaken by the authorities since the 2000s in order to establish a stable macroeconomic framework, likely to promote strong and sustainable economic growth. With the support of development partners, a **Strategy Paper on Poverty Reduction (PRSP**) was documented in 2002**.** The main aim of the Strategy is the "Development of the productive sector" which is primarily oriented towards the development of agriculture and livestock, management of natural resources and the fight against desertification, development of related production agriculture, the development of income generating activities, promotion of the private sector, transport and mining. Thereafter, Niger has a second **Strategy Paper Accelerated Development and Poverty Reduction (D / PRRS) in 2007.** The first target of the Second Strategy Paper is to achieve by 2012 "an economic growth rate of at least 7% " required for a significant reduction of poverty. Finally, the **Plan of Economic and Social Development (PDES)** and its application to agricultural development and food self-sufficiency (3N Initiative), adopted in 2012, is a tangible proof of the willingness of the current authorities to promote the emergence of a middle class in Niger and sustainable socio-economic development. The next profile of poverty will be developed ideally in 2015, due date of PDES and the MDGs, will assess the impact of PDES in reducing the incidence of poverty in Niger.
PAKISTAN	The Government of Pakistan is obligated under the Fiscal Responsibility and Debt Limitation Act (2005) to keep the poverty and social sector expenditures at not less than 4.5% of the GDP in any fiscal year. Accordingly, the PRSP Secretariat is mandated to monitor the progress made in the different pro-poor sectors under the PRSPs. The **Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers** were initiated as an evolving process in the year 2000. This analytical exercise has resulted in enhancing the effectiveness of strategies designed to alleviate poverty. The PRSP-II is the third Strategy paper. The PRSP-II adopts an effective approach towards formulation a long term national economic strategy that aims at reducing poverty mainly through the 9 pillars on which it is based: 1) Macroeconomic Stability and Real Sector Growth 2) Protecting the Poor and the Vulnerable 3) Increasing Productivity and Value Addition in Agriculture 4) Integrated Energy Development Program 5) Making Industry Internationally Competitive 6) Human Development for the 21st Century 7) Removing Infrastructure Bottlenecks through Public Private Partnerships 8) Capital and Finance for Development and 9) Governance for a Just and Fair System
QATAR	A project under **National Development Strategy,** which is implementing by

	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (Social Affairs section) named "Strengthening capacity in monitoring, policy formulation, and evaluation (for the poverty line)".
SAUDI ARABIA	The main **strategy** document is divided into several chapters: First it addressed the concepts of poverty, the interpretation of this phenomenon, its factors and the need to confront it and address it; the second reviewed the plans of economic and social development in the Kingdom, especially the policies and efforts in the field of social development; the third dealt with the reality of the problem of poverty in the Kingdom, as well as the indicators of employment, unemployment and wages , in addition to the other development indicators in the areas of health, education, housing, public services and so on; the fourth to ensure the proposed strategy bases and its objectives and target groups, and then selecting the proposed policies and programs to address the problem in the Kingdom – the strategy document included a variety of programs and projects that have been divided in two areas, the area of direct targeting, which includes projects and programs concerning low-income groups or the nearby middle-income, and the area of targeting public, which includes programs and projects for the citizens such as education, health, housing, public services, etc. The programs and the projects that have been approved are the most important programs and projects of the strategy and poured often in the category of direct programs, and some of each category of programs targeting the public, and the remaining programs are still under consideration by the relevant authorities.
SENEGAL	**National Strategy for Economic and Social Development** covering the period 2013-2017 and **Emergent Senegal Programme** (2014-2018)
SUDAN	The Government of Sudan is committed to the PRSP process as the means to developing and implementing a shared growth and poverty reduction strategy (PRS) through a process of broad participation and consensus-building. In departure from the top-down culture of decision-making of the past, the PSRP process will be designed to open up considerable space for participation by all major stakeholders, including civil society organizations (even those which may be out of favour with the government), private sector representatives, trade unions, women's groups, direct representatives of the poor, and donors. Special efforts will be paid to reach traditionally marginalized groups. Furthermore, the PRSP process in Sudan will be backed up by analytical work, to help to put the consultations on a firm foundation**. (Interim Poverty Reduction Paper)**
TAJIKISTAN	The **National Strategy for Improving the well-being** of the People of Tajikistan (2013-2015)
TOGO	**Strategy for Accelerated Growth and Employment Promotion (SCAPE)**
TURKEY	It's stated in the **Tenth Development Plan** covering the period 2014-2018 in paragraph 121 that "It's aimed Turkey has solved the problem of absolute poverty ..."
UGANDA	**National Development Plan** and **Vision 2040**
UZBEKISTAN	**Welfare Improvement Strategy,** Package of additional measures to implement the UN MDGs in Uzbekistan for 2011-2015 approved by the Resolution of the Cabinet of Ministers of the Republic of Uzbekistan from 26.01.2011, №21
YEMEN	The government recently approved the Third Five-Year Plan (TFYP) which incorporates the previously separate Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), providing an opportunity to adopt a more systematic approach to monitoring and evaluating the impact of Yemen's fight against poverty. The government is also giving high priority to the elaboration of a poverty monitoring system and emphasized that the system would have to cover the broad range of generation, analysis, storage and dissemination of information required to track trends in poverty. This approach will help to ensure that the targets set in the strategy are met and that progress is made towards the ambitious goals of PRSP. Poverty Monitoring is envisaged to be part and parcel of the TFYP-PRSP. The overall purpose of poverty monitoring is to ensure that the implementation of the PRSP is on course and the desired results are achieved. **(Yemen Poverty Assessment by the Government of Yemen, the World Bank and UNDP)**[29]

[29] http://www.mpic-yemen.org/mpic_ar/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=78&Itemid=16

Table A.14. List of Participants of the First and Second Expert Group Meetings on Enhancing National Capacities of OIC Member Countries in Poverty Statistics

No	Meeting	Country	Institution	Name	Title
1	EGM1	AZERBAIJAN	State Statistical Committee	Yashar Pasha	Head of Population Living Standards and Household Budget Survey Statistics Dept.
2	EGM1	COTE d'IVOIRE	Institut National de la Statistique	Samassi Daouda	Head of Department
3	EGM1	DJIBOUTI	Direction Nationale de la Statistique (DISED)	Sekou Tidiani Konate	Senior Technical Advisor
4	EGM1	EGYPT	Central Agency for Public Mobilization And Statistics	Sohair Metwally Ahmed	Senior Specialist in Population Statistics Sector
5	EGM1	GAMBIA	Gambia Bureau of Statistics	Lamin L. Dibba	Statistician, Directorate of Dissemination, Coordination and Quality
6	EGM1	KAZAKHSTAN	Agency of the Republic of Kazakhstan on Statistics	Gulmira Karaulova	Head of Household Budget Survey Division
7	EGM1	KUWAIT	Kuwait Central Statistical Bureau	Awatif M. Al-Sleem	Director of census and Population Statistics Department
8	EGM1	KUWAIT	Kuwait Central Statistical Bureau	Amal Hamed Al-Rifaee	Head of Migration Statistics and Population Studies
9	EGM1	NIGER	Institut National de la Statistique	Ousmane Maïmouna Ali Boulhassane	Statistician
10	EGM1	PAKISTAN	Pakistan Bureau of Statistics	Rabia Awan	Director
11	EGM1	SENEGAL	National Agency of Statistics and Demography of Senegal	Diouf Macoumba	Chief Office of Poverty and Household Living Conditions
12	EGM1	SUDAN	Central Bureau of Statistics	Somaia Khalid Elkhair Omer	Director/Statistical Cooperation and Field Work
13	EGM1	TAJIKISTAN	Agency on Statistics under the President of the Republic of Tajikistan	Hilola Begova	Chief Specialist
14	EGM1	TUNISIA	National Statistics Institute	Dorra Dhraief	Head of Department
15	EGM1	TURKEY	Turkish Statistical Institute	Barış Uçar	Expert
16	EGM1	TURKEY	Turkish Statistical Institute	Mehmet Ali Karadağ	Expert
17	EGM1	TURKEY	Ministry of Family and Social Policy	Caner Esenyel	Expert
18	EGM1	YEMEN	Central Statistical Organization	Tareq Yahya Al-Kebsi	Deputy Chairman Assistant for Economic Statistics
19	EGM1	COMCEC	OIC Standing Committee for Economic and Commercial Cooperation	Aykut Yılmaz	Expert
20	EGM1	DRC	Danish Refugee Council (Yemen)	Tarfa Al Fadhli	Community Safety Assistant
21	EGM1	ISFD	Islamic Solidarity Fund for Development (IDB Group)	Musa Jega Ibrahim	Senior Expert

No	Meeting	Country	Institution	Name	Title
1	EGM2	AZERBAIJAN	The State Statistical Committee	Hamit Baghirov	First Deputy Chairman
2	EGM2	AZERBAIJAN	The State Statistical Committee	Yashar Pasha	Head of Population Living Standards and Household Budget Survey Statistics Department
3	EGM2	BANGLADESH	Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics	Md. Mizanur Rahman Khondker	Deputy Director, National Accounting Wing
4	EGM2	CAMEROON	Ministry of Economy Planning and Regional Development	Ahmad Malam	Research Officer Division of Cooperation with Islamic World
5	EGM2	CHAD	Ministry of Planning, Economy and International Cooperation	Ali Ousmane Khassim	Deputy Director of International Cooperation
6	EGM2	GAMBIA	Gambia Bureau of Statistics	Lamin L. Dibba	Statistician, Directorate of Dissemination, Coordination and Quality
7	EGM2	INDONESIA	BPS Indonesia	Wynandin Imawan	Deputy of Chief Statistician for Social Statistics
8	EGM2	INDONESIA	Ministry of National Development Planning (BAPPENAS)	Karim	Staff
9	EGM2	IRAQ	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs	Raoof Al-Khateeb	Manager
10	EGM2	JORDAN	Department of Statistic	Rafi Alqudah	Head of Social Statistics Division
11	EGM2	MALAYSIA	Department of Statistics Malaysia	Azahari Mohd. Raslan	Senior Director, Division of Price, Income and Expenditure Statistics
12	EGM2	MAURITANIA	National Statistical Office	Didi El Yass	Director, Social and Demography Statistics
13	EGM2	NIGERIA	National Bureau of Statistics	Rahman Busari	Head of Systems, Programming & Operations
14	EGM2	PAKISTAN	Pakistan Bureau of Statistics	Rabia Awan	Director
15	EGM2	PALESTINE	Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics	Qais Hasiba	Head of Household Budget Statistics Division
16	EGM2	SAUDI ARABIA	Central Department of Statistics and Information	Abdulmohsen bin Saad Al-Nassar	Director General of Social Statistics
17	EGM2	SUDAN	Central Bureau of Statistics	Somaia Khalid Elkhair Omer	Director/Statistical Cooperation and Field Work
18	EGM2	TURKEY	Turkish Statistical Institute	Barış Uçar	Expert
19	EGM2	TURKEY	Turkish Statistical Institute	Yakut Yılmaz	Expert
20	EGM2	TURKEY	Development Bank of Turkey	Mehmet Serdar Kabukçuoğlu	Head of Department
21	EGM2	UGANDA	Uganda Bureau of Statistics	James Muwonge	Director, Socio Economic Surveys
22	EGM2	UGANDA	Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development	Yasin Sadiq Mayanja	Ag. Senior Economist

23	**EGM2**	**YEMEN**		Khaled Taha Al – Madani	Director, Poverty and Labour Statistics
24	**EGM2**	**COMCEC**	OIC Standing Committee for Economic and Commercial Cooperation	Aykut Yılmaz	Expert
25	**EGM2**	**FAO**	Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN	Melek Çakmak	Field Programme Officer
26	**EGM2**	**ISFD**	Islamic Solidarity Fund for Development (IDB Group)	Musa Jega Ibrahim	Senior Economist
27	**EGM2**	**OPHI**	Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative	Suman Seth	Senior Research Officer
28	**EGM2**	**UNDP**	United Nations Development Programme Regional Centre in Istanbul	Elena Danilova-Cross	Programme Specialist on Poverty and Inequality

Table A.15. Questionnaire on Enhancing National Capacities of OIC Member Countries in Poverty Statistics

ENHANCING NATIONAL CAPACITIES OF OIC MEMBER COUNTRIES IN POVERTY STATISTICS 2013-SESRIC-028

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ENHANCING POVERTY STATISTICS

Adopted in 2012, the Strategy Document of the Standing Committee for Economic and Commercial Cooperation (COMCEC) is the first vision document for the COMCEC for six main cooperation areas including **poverty alleviation**. To achieve strategic objectives defined in the COMCEC Strategy, COMCEC Coordination Office launched the COMCEC Project Cycle Management (PCM) Programme in 2013. Carried out under the support of COMCEC PCM Programme and coordinated by SESRIC, the project titled "**2013-SESRIC-028 Enhancing National Capacities of OIC Member Countries in Poverty Statistics** " aims at building statistical capacity in poverty statistics and overall contributing to the National Statistical Systems (NSS) of the member countries of the Organisation of Islamic Cooperation (OIC). This questionnaire has the objective to identify capacities and needs of the OIC countries in poverty statistics.

Please fill the Form electronically and send it back to statistics@sesric.org no later than 8 September 2014.

The questionnaire has 3 seperate parts: PART A, PART B and PART C.

For "Close-Ended" questions, please check or put (X) for the relevant box.
For "Open-Ended" questions, please write or type only in the space provided under each question. If needed, please add a separate page.

If you have any questions regarding the content of the questionnaire, please send your questions to statistics@sesric.org

DISCLAIMER:

SESRIC will gather the responses and summarize the results of the survey which can be used by SESRIC and COMCEC in related research. SESRIC and COMCEC may also share and discuss them with its partner organizations on regional and international level to reach a more refined and internationally applicable analysis.

PART A: INSTITUTIONAL INFORMATION

1. Please provide contact details of your institution:

Name of the Institution:						
Name of the Institution's Head:						
Title of the Institution's Head:						
Phone Number:	**Country Code**		**City Code**		**Number**	
Fax Number:	**Country Code**		**City Code**		**Number**	
Web Address:						
E-mail(s):						
Twitter Account (if exists):						
Postal Address:						
	City				**Country**	

2. Please provide contact details of the department head responsible from collecting poverty related statistics:

Name:						
Title:						
Department:						
Phone Number:	**Country Code**		**City Code**		**Number**	
Fax Number:	**Country Code**		**City Code**		**Number**	
E-mail(s):						

3. Please provide contact details of the focal point responding to the questionnaire:

Name:						
Title:						
Department:						
Phone Number:	**Country Code**		**City Code**		**Number**	
Fax Number:	**Country Code**		**City Code**		**Number**	
E-mail(s):						

PART B: CAPACITIES, PRIORITIES AND NEEDS IN POVERTY STATISTICS

No	Question	Answer					
1	**Does your country collect / compile / disseminate data on poverty issues?**	YES			NO		
1.a	If your answer for question 1 is YES, which instution is the main responsible agent for	NSO	Ministry of Finance	Ministry of Planning	Ministry of Welfare	Other (Please specify)	
1.a.i	*COLLECTING the data through surveys, etc.*						
1.a.ii	*PROCESSING the data for poverty meausrement*						
1.a.iii	*DISSEMINATING the data to end-users*						
1.b	If your answer for question 1 is YES, please list the official website(s) that disseminate official data on poverty statisics?						
2	**Which approach is used for poverty assessment?**						
2.a	Cost of Basic Needs Approach (monetary terms)	YES			NO		
2.b	Unmet Basic Needs Approach	YES			NO		
2.c	Multidimensional Poverty	YES			NO		
2.d	Other	*(please specify)*					
3.	**Which variables/dimensions are used for measuring poverty?**						
3.a	Income	YES			NO		
3.b	Expenditure	YES			NO		
3.c	Other variables	YES			NO		
4	**What is the unit of identification for measuring poverty?**						
4.a	Household						
4.b	Individual						
4.c	Other						
5	**What is the average household size in your country?**						
6	**Please indicate the sources used to estimate the level of poverty:**						
6.a	**Household Surveys** (i.e. living standard measurement survey (LSMS), demographic and health survey (DHS), income and expenditure survey, etc.)	YES			NO		
6.a.i	If your answer for question 6.a is YES, please write - the TYPE of the SURVEY (i.e. what is the title of the survey?) - the PERIODICITY (i.e. how often do yo conduct this type of survey? annually? every 2 years? every 5 years? nonperiodically? etc) and - the DATE of the LATEST SURVEY (i.e. when did you conduct the latest survey?)	TITLE		PERIODICITY		DATE	
6.b	**Other Surveys** (i.e. priority survey, employment survey, time use surveys, core indicators survey, etc.)	YES			NO		
6.b.i	If your answer for question 6.b is YES, please write - the TYPE of the SURVEY (i.e. what is the title of the survey?) - the PERIODICITY (i.e. how often do yo conduct this type of survey? annually? every 2 years? every 5 years? nonperiodically? etc) and - the DATE of the LATEST SURVEY (i.e. when did you conduct the latest survey?)	TITLE		PERIODICITY		DATE	
6.c	**Non-Survey Sources** (i.e. administrative records, national accounts, etc.)	YES			NO		
6.c.i	If your answer for question 6.c is YES, please write - the TYPE of the SOURCE - the PERIODICITY (i.e. how often do yo conduct this type of source annually? every 2 years? every 5 years? nonperiodically? etc) and - the DATE of the LATEST SOURCE (i.e. when did you conduct the latest source?)	TITLE		PERIODICITY		DATE	
7	**Do you conduct specific surveys for estimating poverty?**	YES			NO		
7.a	If your answer for question 7 is YES, please write - the PERIODICITY (i.e. how often do yo conduct this type of survey? annually? every 2 years? every 5 years? nonperiodically? etc) and - the DATE of the LATEST SURVEY (i.e. when did you conduct the latest survey?)	TITLE		PERIODICITY		DATE	

COST OF BASIC NEEDS APPROACH (If your answer to question 2.a is YES, please answer questions 8,9,10,11)								
8	**Does your country estimate a poverty line?**	**YES**		**NO**				
8.a	If your answer for question 8 is YES, which types of poverty line have been estimated?							
8.a.i	**ABSOLUTE**	**YES**		**NO**				
8.a.ii	**RELATIVE**	**YES**		**NO**				
8.a.iii	**SUBJECTIVE**	**YES**		**NO**				
8.a.iv	**OTHER**	*(please specify)*						
8.b	If your answer for question 8 is YES, please indicate the number and type of poverty lines that have been constructed:							
8.b.i	*Only 1 poverty line*	**national**		**urban**		**rural**		
8.b.ii	*2 poverty lines*	**national**		**urban**		**rural**		
8.b.iii	*more than 2 poverty lines*	*(please specify the number)*						
8.b.iv	*poverty line for each household type based on its characteristics (e.g. size, composition)*	*(please specify the number)*						
9	**If your answer for question 8 is YES, what are the components of the poverty line?**							
9.a	FOOD POVERTY LINE	**YES**		**NO**				
9.b	NON-FOOD POVERTY LINE	**YES**		**NO**				
9.c	NO SEPERATION BETWEEN FOOD AND NON-FOOD	**YES**		**NO**				
10	**If your answer for question 9.a is YES (i.e. a FOOD POVERTY LINE has been estimated),**							
10.a	Please indicate the NUMBER of FOOD POVERTY LINES estimated	*(please specify the number)*						
10.b	Please indicate the LEVEL of CALORIE THRESHOLDS used (i.e. 2300, 2500, etc)	*(please specify the level)*						
10.c	Please check the relevant criteria taken into consideration while determining required minimum calorie threshold in your country (Please check all that apply. You can also specify additional criteria under the part `other`)	**AGE**						
		GENDER						
		LOCATION						
		ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
		OTHER	*(please specify)*					
10.d	Please indicate the NUMBER of items in the FOOD BASKET.							
10.e	How is the COST of the FOOD BASKET estimated?							
10.e.i	*general CPI*	**YES**		**NO**				
10.e.ii	*poverty specific CPI*	**YES**		**NO**				
10.e.iii	*Community Price Questionnaire of Household Survey*	**YES**		**NO**				
10.e.iv	*other methods*							
11	**If your answer for question 9.b is YES (i.e. a NON-FOOD POVERTY LINE has been estimated), please indicate the method of estimation:**							
11.a	DIRECT **(i.e by constructing non-food basket)**	**YES**		**NO**				
11.b	INDIRECT **(i.e. by using food share)**	**YES**		**NO**				
UNMET BASIC NEEDS APPROACH **(If your answer to question 2.b is YES, please answer questions 12 & 13)**								
12	**If UNMET BASIC NEEDS APPROACH is used to assess poverty, please check the relevant component of basic needs** (Please check YES for all that apply. You can also specify additional components under the part `other`)							
12.a	ACCESS TO SAFE WATER	**YES**		**NO**				
12.b	ACCESS TO SANITATION	**YES**		**NO**				
12.c	ACCESS TO ELECTRICITY	**YES**		**NO**				
12.d	EDUCATION	**YES**		**NO**				
12.e	HEALTH	**YES**		**NO**				
12.f	HOUSING	**YES**		**NO**				
12.g	INFRASTRUCTURE	**YES**		**NO**				
12.h	OTHER	*(please specify)*						
13	**Is an index constructed to combine the components of basic needs?**	**YES**		**NO**				
13.a	If your answer for question 13 is YES, please indicate how weights assigned to the components are estimated:							
13.a.i	*equal weights*	**YES**		**NO**				
13.a.ii	*based on statistical model*	**YES**		**NO**				
13.a.iii	*other*	*(please specify)*						
MULTIDIMENSIONAL APPROACH **(If your answer to question 2.c is YES, please answer questions 14 & 15)**								
14	**If multidimensional approach is used, which method has been used to calculate**							
14.a	Principal Components Analysis (PCA)	**YES**		**NO**				
14.b	Counting (i.e. Alkire-Foster)	**YES**		**NO**				
14.c	Fuzzy Set	**YES**		**NO**				
14.d	Other	*(please specify)*						
15	**Which dimensions have been used to construct poverty measure** **(Please check YES for all that apply. You can also specify additional components under the part `other`)**							
15.a	LIVING STANDARD	**YES**		**NO**				
15.b	EDUCATION	**YES**		**NO**				
15.c	HEALTH	**YES**		**NO**				
15.d	OTHER	*(please specify)*						

CAPACITY BUILDING IN POVERTY STATISTICS							
16	**Human Resources**						
16.a	What is the total number of staff in your institution?						
16.b	Please indicate the number of staff with the highest education level attained. ***(the total should match the number provided for question 16.a)***	**MA/ MSc and above**	**BA/BSc or equivalent**	**Secondary school**	**Primary school**	**No formal education**	**Total**
16.c	Does your institution have a department or team related to poverty assessment and measurement?	**YES**			**NO**		
16.d	What is the total number of staff working in poverty issues?						
16.e	Does your staff have specific education on poverty issues or attend poverty related courses?	**YES**			**NO**		
16.e.i	If your answer for question 16.e is YES, then please specify the number of stafff that have specific education on poverty issues or attend poverty related courses?						
17	**Does your institution have partnership and/or receive consultation from international organizations in the area of poverty statistics?**	**YES**			**NO**		
17.a	If your answer for question 17 is YES, please indicate the name(s) of partner organization(s) (i.e. IDB, World Bank, UN, IMF, etc.)	*(please specify)*					
17.b	If your answer for question 17 is YES, please provide some details about the content of the partnership and/or consultations received	*(please specify)*					
18	**What are the problems your institution encounter while estimating poverty statistics? Or hardships that prevent your institution from collecting poverty statistics? (Please check YES for all that apply. You can also specify additional hardships under the part `other`)**						
18.a	Inadeaquate budget	**YES**			**NO**		
18.b	Lack of data source (i.e. surveys)	**YES**			**NO**		
18.c	Lack of political support	**YES**			**NO**		
18.d	Inadequate number of staff	**YES**			**NO**		
18.e	Lack of methodological knowledge	**YES**			**NO**		
18.f	Lack of software package	**YES**			**NO**		
18.g	Inproficiency in using the relevant statistical software	**YES**			**NO**		
18.h	Other	*(please specify)*					
19	**Does your institution need short-term training on poverty statistics?**	**YES**			**NO**		
19.a	If your answer for question 19 is YES, please indicate the themes that your institution need training under poverty statistics?	*(please specify)*					
20	**What are the strong aspects/best cases of your institution while estimating poverty statistics?**	*(please specify)*					
21	**Can your institution provide short-term training on poverty statistics?**	**YES**			**NO**		
21.a	If your answer YES for question 21, please indicate the themes that your institution can provide training under poverty statistics?	*(please specify)*					
22	**Please specify language preference for STATCAB trainings on poverty statistics (use 1: the first preference, 2: second preference, 3: third preference)**	**Arabic**		**English**		**French**	
FUTURE PLANS AND FEEDBACK							
23	**Does your country have a poverty reduction programme/strategy specified under its national development plan?**	**YES**			**NO**		
23.a	If your answer for question 23 is YES, please provide the details of the programme / strategy?	*(please specify)*					
24	**What are the future plans/ strategies of your institutions in terms of estimating poverty statistics?**	*(please specify)*					
25	**Please state all your comments and feedback regarding the content of the questionnaire.**	*(please specify)*					

REFERENCES

Acemoglu, D., S. Johnson, and J.A. Robinson (2001), "The Colonial Origins of Comparative Development: An Empirical Investigation", *American Economic Review*, Vol.91.

Agénor, P.-R (2004), "Macroeconomic Adjustment and the Poor, Analytical Issues and Cross-Country Evidence", *Journal of Economic Surveys*, Vol.18.

Alkire, S., J.M. Roche, M.E. Santos, and S. Seth (2011), "Multidimensional Poverty Index 2011: Brief Methodological Note," Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative, Oxford University.

Alston, J., C. Chan-Kang, M. Marra, P. Pardey, and T. Wyatt (2000), A Meta-Analysis of Rates of Returns to Agricultural R&D, Ex Pede Herculem IFPRI Research Report (113), International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington, D.C.

Barr, N. (2004), The Economics of the Welfare State, 4th ed, Oxford University Press, Oxford.

Celine (2007), Global Warming and Agriculture, Peterson Institute for International Economics, Washington D.C.

Cervantes-Godoy, D. and J. Dewbre (2010), "Economic Importance of Agriculture for Poverty Reduction", *OECD Food, Agriculture and Fisheries Working Papers,* Vol. 23.

Cobbinah, P. B., R. Black, and R. Thwaites (2013), "Dynamics of Poverty in Developing Countries: Review of Poverty Reduction Approaches", *Journal of Sustainable Development,* Vol.6.

COMCEC (2014), COMCEC Poverty Outlook, COMCEC Coordination Office, Ankara.

Dabour, N. Md. (2000), "Eradication of Poverty in the Least Developed and Low-Income OIC Member Countries", *Journal of Economic Cooperation and Development*, Vol. 21(1).

Dogarawa, A. B. (2009), "Poverty Alleviation through Zakah and Waqf Institutions: A Case for the Muslim Ummah in Ghana", *MPRA Paper,* No. 23191.

Elder, G. and A. Caspi (1988), "Economic Stress in Lives, Developmental Perspectives", *Journal of Social Issues,* Vol.44.

Emanuele, F., M. Tomlinson, and R. Walker (2013), Poverty, Participation and Choice, Joseph Rowntree Foundation, Cambridge.

FAO (2004), The State of Food Insecurity in the World, FAO, Rome.

FAO (2011), State of Food and Agriculture 2010–2011: Women in Agriculture, Closing the Gender Gap for Development, FAO, Rome.

FAO, IFAD and WFP (2014), The State of Food Insecurity in the World 2014: Strengthening the Enabling Environment for Food Security and Nutrition, FAO, Rome.

Hall, R. and C. I. Jones (1999), "Why Do Some Countries Produce So Much More Output per Worker than Others?" *Quarterly Journal of Economics,* Vol. 114.

Hulme, D. and A. Shepherd (2003), "Conceptualizing Chronic Poverty", *World Development*, Vol. 31.

Kaufmann, D., A. Kraay and P. Zoido-Lobaton (1999a), "Aggregating Governance Indicators", *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper*, No. 2195.

Kaufmann, D., A. Kraayand P. Zoido-Lobaton, P. (1999b), "Governance Matters", *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper*, No. 2196.

Kuznets, S. (1955), "Economic Growth and Income Inequality", *American Economic Review*, Vol. 45.

Lanjouw, P and, M Ravallion (1994), "Poverty and Household Size", *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper*, No: 1332.

North, D. (1990), Institutions, Institutional Change and Economic Performance, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Phipps S. (2003), The Impact of Poverty on Health, Canadian Population Health Initiative (CPHI), Ottawa.

Pica, G., U. Pica-Ciamarra and J. Otte (2008), "The Livestock Sector in the World Development Report 2008: Re-assessing the Policy Priorities", *Pro-Poor Livestock Policy Initiative Research Report*.

Piketty, T. (2014),The Capital in the Twenty-First Century, Harvard University Press, Cambridge.

Preston, S. (1975), "The Changing Relation between Mortality and Level of Economic Development", *Population Studies*, Vol. 29.

Pryer, J., S. Rogers and A. Rahman (2003), "Work Disabling Illness and Coping Strategies in Dhaka Slums", *CPRC Conference Paper*.

Ravallion, M. and S. Chen (2001), "Measuring Pro-poor Growth", *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper Series*, Vol. 2665.

Ravallion, M., S. Chen and P. Sangraula (2008), "Dollar a Day Revisited", *World Bank Economic Review,* Vol. 23(2).

Rio Group: Expert Group on Poverty Statistics (2006), Compendium of Best Practices in Poverty Measurement, UN Economic Commission for Latin America and Caribbean (ECLAC) and Brazilian Institute for Geography and Statistics (IBGE), Rio de Janeiro.

Rodrik, D., A. Subramanian and F. Trebbi (2002), "Institutions Rule: The Primacy of Institutions over Geography and Integration in Economic Development", *Journal of Economic Growth*, Vol. 9.

Roemer, J. (1998), Equality of Opportunity, Harvard University Press, Cambridge.

Selden, T. and J. Wasylenko (1992), "Benefit Incidence Analysis in Developing Countries", *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper*, Vol.1015.

Sen, A. (1976), "Poverty, An Ordinal Approach to Measurement", *Econometrica*, Vol.44 (2).

Sen, A. (1990), Development as Capability Expansion, in Keith Griffin and John Knight (eds), Human Development and the International Development Strategy for the 1990s, Macmillan, London.

SESRIC (2012), Education and Scientific Development in the OIC Member Countries 2012/2013, SESRIC Publications, Ankara.

SESRIC (2013), OIC Health Report, SESRIC Publications, Ankara.

SESRIC (2014a), Agriculture and Food Security in OIC Member Countries, ed: Savas Alpay, SESRIC Publications, Ankara.

SESRIC (2014b), Managing Disaster and Conflicts in OIC Member Countries, ed: Savas Alpay, SESRIC Publications, Ankara.

SESRIC (2014c), OIC Strategic Health Programme of Action 2014-2023 (OIC-SHPA), SESRIC Publications, Ankara.

Seth S. and A. Villar (2014a), "The Measurement of Human Development and Poverty", *Pablo de Olavida University Economics Working Paper,* Vol.14.10.

Seth S. and A. Villar (2014b), "Human Development, Inequality and Poverty: Empirical Findings", *Pablo de Olavida University Economics Working Paper*, Vol. 14.11.

Shah, A. and J. Whalley (1991), "Tax Incidence Analysis of Developing Countries, An Alternative View", *World Bank Economic Review*, Vol.3.

Stiglitz, J. E., A. K. Sen, and J-P. Fitoussi (2009), Report by the Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress, *OFCE Working Paper,* Vol. 33.

UN IPCC (2007), Fourth Assessment Report: Climate Change, IPCC, Geneva.

UNDP (1990, 1993, 1995, 1997, 2003, 2010), Human Development Report, UNDP, New York.

UNDP (2011), Beyond Transition: Towards Inclusive Societies, Regional Human Development Report, UNDP, Regional Bureau for Europe and CIS, Bratislava.

UNSD (2005), Handbook on Poverty Statistics: Concepts, Methods and Policy Uses, UNSD, New York.

UN (2011), Family-Oriented Policies for Poverty Reduction, Work-Family Balance and Intergenerational Solidarity, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Division for Social Policy and Development, New York.

Wang, Y.-Q. and K.-Y Tsui (2000), "Polarisation Orderings and New Classes of Polarization Indices", *Journal of Public Economic Theory*, Vol. 2.

Weismann, D. (2006), A Global Hunger Index: Measurement Concept, Ranking of Countries, and Trends, International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington, D.C.

Wilkinson, R. and K. Pickett (2006), "Income Inequality and Population Health: A Review and Explanation of the Evidence", *Social Science and Medicine*, Vol. 62.

Wolfson, M. C. (1997), "Divergent Inequalities: Theory and Empirical Results", *Review of Income and Wealth*, Vol.43.

World Bank (2007), Managing Agricultural Production Risks: Innovations in Developing Countries. World Bank Agriculture and Rural Development Department, World Bank, Agricultural &Rural Development Department, Washington, D.C.

World Bank (2013), A Unified Approach to Measuring Poverty and Inequality- Theory and Practice, World Bank, Washington, D.C.

World Bank (2014), Knowledge in Development Note: Measuring Global Poverty. Available at: http://bit.ly/1vUPbSJ

Data Sources

OPHI, Global Multidimensional Poverty Index. Available at: http://www.ophi.org.uk/multidimensional-poverty-index/

World Bank, World Development Indicators Database. Available at: http://bit.ly/1dRZxcO

World Bank, Worldwide Governance Indicators Database. Available at: http://bit.ly/1DncpV4