A world
free
from child
poverty

Milestone 2
Measuring child poverty

END CHILD
POVERTY
GLOBAL COALITION

unicef

Milestone 2
Measuring child poverty

KEY MESSAGES

- Routine child poverty measurement is a requirement of SDG reporting, and a foundation in ensuring child poverty is being reduced.

- Measuring child poverty does not need to be a technical, long and costly process.

- There is extensive existing guidance on how to approach child poverty measurement.

- National ownership and involving children can ensure measures are meaningful and used.

It is hard to imagine a scenario where a country is focused on reducing child poverty without quality, routine and nationally supported measurement.

Child poverty measures not only help build knowledge and understanding of the scale and scope of child poverty, but can be the foundation for understanding the policies and programmes that contribute to child poverty reduction. As many examples in this guide show, a robust and nationally-owned measurement, combined with advocacy, is often a catalyst in raising awareness and also influencing policies.

The section also challenges the idea that poverty measurement is a technical, long and costly process exclusively led by technical experts. In some countries, child poverty can be initially quickly measured by disaggregating the existing poverty rates for the general population. For other countries that choose to create their own child-specific multidimensional poverty measure, the process of constructing the measures are well established and laid out in existing guidance.

While measuring child poverty is an essential starting point, it is also crucial to understand child poverty. This includes building a national child poverty profile and understanding the underlying drivers of child poverty in a country. While this is touched on at the end of this Milestone, it is considered in more detail in Milestones 3 and 4.

With an aim to help countries in selecting the most appropriate child poverty measure and to make the best use of it, this section will briefly review why measuring child poverty is important, and then look in detail at the following key steps:

KEY STEPS TO ACHIEVING MILESTONE 2:

A UNDERSTANDING WHAT IS AVAILABLE (AND NOT) TO MEASURE CHILD POVERTY

B SELECTING THE MOST APPROPRIATE CHILD POVERTY MEASURE(S).

C PRODUCING CHILD POVERTY RATES AND KEY DATA BASED ON THE CHOSEN METHODOLOGY.

D COUNTRY EXAMPLES.

Why measure child poverty? The SDGs… and beyond

Most simply the SDGs have created a mandate agreed by all Member States to measure and address child poverty, with the explicit inclusion of children (Goal 1, Target 1.2, see Box 2.1)

For many, perhaps all countries, this mandate may be sufficient. However, it can also be important to understand why child poverty measurement is part of the SDGs. This can help ensure that child poverty measurement isn't an exercise in ticking a box, and that the measures are used towards advocacy and creating and sustaining the policies and programmes that can achieve the targets of the SDGs (Box 2.2).

Firstly, child poverty measurement provides critical information in understanding the nature of child poverty in the country and the challenge that is faced. The measures can tell us:

- How child poverty relates to, and can be integrated with, the overall

poverty situation in a country.

- The scale of child poverty in the country and (depending on available data) how it compares to other countries.

- How child poverty compares to adult poverty and the poverty of other groups (it is almost always higher).

- Where child poverty is highest geographically, and if there are particular groups of children who are more likely to be poor.

- Where measured over time, if child poverty is increasing or decreasing.

- What the drivers of child poverty are.

- Depending on the measure, it can highlight the dimensions of poverty that are most affecting children.

Secondly, child poverty measurement is the basis for answering more specific policy and programmatic questions needed to end extreme child poverty, and halve child poverty by national definitions:

- How effectively are existing poverty reduction efforts benefiting the poorest children? For example:

  ‣ Analysis to show if spending is benefiting children in poverty or those who are better off.

  ‣ Evaluations that highlight the impact of programmes and policies on child poverty.

- What impact would a new programme (say a new cash transfer or subsidy reform) have on child poverty and how could it be best designed? For example:

  ‣ How should a social protection programme be designed to target the most disadvantaged?

  ‣ Analysis of costs and benefits of new programmes.

  ‣ Simulations of impact on child poverty and other indicators of new programmes and policies.

Box 2.1

GOAL 1: END POVERTY IN ALL ITS FORMS EVERYWHERE

1.1 By 2030, eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere, currently measured as people living on less than $1.25 a day
Indicator: Proportion of the population below the international poverty line, disaggregated by sex, age group, employment status and geographical location (urban/rural)

1.2 By 2030, reduce at least by half the proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions
Indicator 1: Proportion of the population living below the national poverty line, disaggregated by sex and age group

Indicator 2: Proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions

Box 2.2

# Where we are globally – child poverty measurement

To understand where the world is on child poverty measurement, UNICEF conducted an internal survey, asking staff members to identify each country's status in terms of the milestones. The survey collected information from 160 countries (including 20 National Committees based in higher income countries) about the existence of government supported measurement, approaches and frequency.* Here are some of the global findings:

Not Measured 41%

Measured 59%
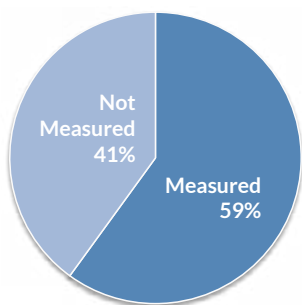
CHILD POVERTY MEASUREMENT: 41% of the countries reported not having child poverty measurement that is official or supported by the government. While many low-income countries lack official child poverty measurement, it is also true that many developed countries also lag on this front.

Multi-dimensional Child Deprivation 19%

Combination of both 46%

Monetary Child Poverty 35%
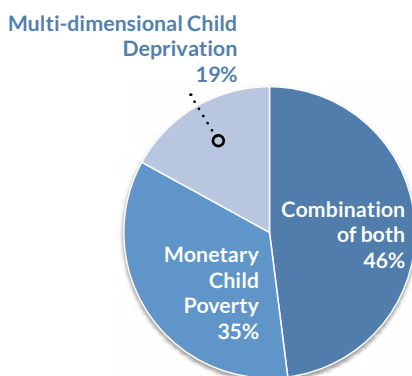
METHODOLOGY: Among countries that are measuring child poverty, almost half of the countries measure using both monetary and multidimensional measures. For countries that use either a monetary or multidimensional approach, monetary measures are twice as prevalent as multidimensional measures.

Not Sure 6%

2-5 Years 16%

Not Routine 48%

Annually 30%
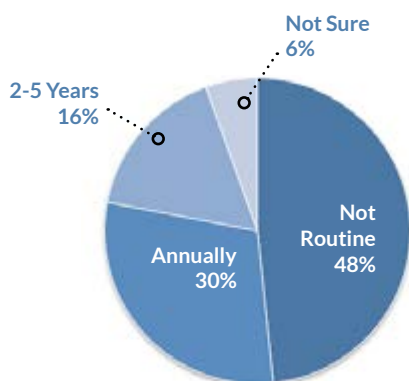
ROUTINE MEASUREMENT: Around half of the countries that measure child poverty were not measuring routinely. However, among the countries that have routine measurement –mostly middle and high income countries – the majority were measuring child poverty annually.

* All the responses reflect the best knowledge of UNICEF field officers on the measures, but of course, should be interpreted differently from any official data (for example verified by the government).

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A: Understanding what is available (and not) to measure child poverty

What is the status of poverty and child poverty measurement nationally?

In many countries, a good starting point is to review what national poverty measurement and data sources exist in the country. This analysis can provide important information in determining how to select the best child poverty measurement (see Exercise 2.1).

For example, if there is already an official, routine and robust measurement of poverty for the general population, it might be useful to begin by disaggregating that measure for children while working towards child-specific measures.

Or, you might find that the existing child poverty measure is not supported by the government. Understanding the reasons behind this will provide vital information in creating a more relevant and owned measure. You may also want to understand the key players in the field to identify who should be involved in the process later.

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Exercise

Exercise 2.1 provides some examples of questions that may help you in analysing the status quo.

Exercise 2.1. What is the current status of child poverty measurement?

Key Questions	Sub-questions	Implications
Is there any measurement of poverty for the general population?	If yes, how is it measured (monetary or multidimensional)? Is the measurement officially endorsed by the government?	If there is already a strong poverty measurement for the general population in the country, it makes more sense to make the child poverty measurement aligned to the general measurement.
	If not, why has there not been any measurement of poverty? Are there any advocates for poverty measurement?	If lack of data, political sensitivity or humanitarian crises are preventing a country from measuring poverty, a country has to decide if it is realistic to advocate for poverty measurement. Partnering with other development partners and CSOs for measurement might give stronger weight.
Is there any measurement of CHILD poverty?	Is the poverty rate for the general population disaggregated for children or is there a specific measurement methodology for children? Is the measurement officially endorsed by the government?	If child poverty measures exist and are gaining political support, that is a great starting point. Next steps may be to discuss ways to improve measurement accuracy in capturing the multidimensional nature of child deprivation or routinizing measurement (more details in the next section).
	If not, what are the possible reasons?	If child poverty measures do not exist or exist but are not supported the government, advocacy and policy engagement efforts to highlight the critical differences between adult and child poverty rates might be effective.
Who are the key actors involved in poverty measurement? (see also Box 2.3)	Which ministry considers poverty reduction as their mandate? Which partners have been actively involved in measurement?	Getting support from the key actors are critical, especially for the measurement to impact on policy responses. Before taking any action to create or improve child poverty measurement, it would be good to know how the engaged actors understand the achievements and challenges around existing poverty measurement.

Box 2.3

Major players in poverty measurement

Identifying the key actors in poverty measurement can help develop partnerships that can make an impact. While these actors will vary significantly by context, below is a short list of institutions that play a major role in many countries.

National Statistics Office (NSO) is usually a government agency responsible for collecting, analysing, publishing, and disseminating statistics relevant to the economy, population and society. They will likely play the lead role in collecting poverty data and lead on SDG reporting. For existing poverty measures they should be able to disaggregate child poverty relatively easily from existing poverty measures. They also often conduct the census, family expenditure/income survey and lead (or support) other household surveys, including MICS, LSMS or DHS.

Ministries of Finance and Planning. While actors across government and outside use poverty analysis, Ministries of Finance and Planning often play leading roles in the analysis and reporting of poverty. Their support in building and using child poverty measures is often a crucial foundation for child poverty analysis to be owned and used.

Independent and autonomous agencies. In some contexts independent bodies are chosen to lead poverty measurement and help ensure credibility of results. In Mexico, for example, the Congress endowed The National Council of Evaluation of Social Development Policy (CONEVAL) with a highly independent structure in order to minimize the potential for the government to misuse the power and report false information.[7] Economic Policy Research Center (EPRC) in Uganda is another example of an autonomous, independent think-tank that conducts research on socioeconomic issues.

The World Bank has been leading the work on monetary poverty analysis particularly in lower- and middle-income countries and provide rich resources on global monetary poverty measurement as well as country level reports on poverty analysis. More recently, in response to the report of the Global Commission on Poverty, World Bank has also outlined its immediate commitment to show global poverty profiles for children (aged 0–17), work on multidimensional poverty as an additional and complimentary approach using a dashboard of indicators as well as a multidimensional index using the Alkire-Foster methodology (as used in MPI).

UNICEF leads development and application of child poverty measures, including the Bristol methodology and more recently Multiple Overlapping Deprivation Analysis. Between 2011–2015, UNICEF has conducted activities on child poverty globally: 72 countries have conducted a child poverty study or report, such as the Global Study or MODA; 83 countries undertook advocacy or policy engagement without producing a child poverty study or report; and 46 countries had other types of research or analysis on specific policies (such as the impact of a child grant on child poverty), or specific aspects of child poverty (for example, in urban slums).[*]

UNDP developed a multidimensional poverty index (MPI) together with OPHI. In many countries, both organizations publish a country brief on poverty based on MPI. The global outlook is published in the Human Development Report annually.

Civil society and research institutes play an important role in advocating to keep the poorest children and families central to the agenda. Interviews, stories or qualitative studies of children living in poverty can shed light on the issue of child poverty and influence the government to establish a child poverty measure. For example, in countries where there is no official measurement of child poverty, estimates by civil society organizations or local research institutions can help raise public awareness, which in turn puts pressure to support child poverty measurement.

* All information is based on UNICEF's internal mapping exercise, conducted in August-October, 2015

What data are available for child poverty measurement?

It is also important to be aware of the underlying data that are available to measure child poverty. Almost all child poverty measurement is based on existing surveys and data, and it is rare for countries to undertake a new survey to measure poverty given the complexity and cost.

The most common sources of data used for policy analysis are:

- **Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS):** A nationally representative household survey conducted with UNICEF's support in over 100 lower- and middle-income countries. MICS surveys capture many of the dimensions of poverty used in common methodologies such as MODA and Bristol. Data on expenditure is limited (and so monetary child poverty cannot be constructed using the survey), but wealth quintiles constructed by assets are possible. MICS surveys tend to be collected every 3–5 years and take a year or so to be finalized, meaning routine child poverty is available at these intervals. Optional modules exist for child discipline, maternal mortality, child disability and security of tenure and durability of housing. Information on countries with MICS and the data can be found at: http://mics.unicef.org.

- **Demographic and Health Survey (DHS):** Similar to MICS, a nationally representative household survey conducted with USAID's support in more than 90 lower- and middle-income countries. They are typically conducted every five years and the surveys include a wide range of indicators in the area of population, health, nutrition, education, household assets, and domestic violence. The survey does not have a module on income or expenditure (and so monetary child poverty cannot be constructed using the survey), but disaggregation by wealth quintiles constructed by assets is possible . Datasets are accessible upon request at: http://dhsprogram.com.

- **National Household Surveys:** While the name of national households surveys may vary, from socioeconomic survey to household panel survey, these surveys are periodic surveys owned and conducted by the government to provide routine monitoring of the poverty situation in the country. While the national ownership and periodic nature of the survey are advantages, one of the common challenges is the limited information about child indicators. Where access is open to the public, it may be available from the national statistical office or from global survey catalogues, such as the International Household Survey Network at: http://www.ihsn.org/home/survey-catalogs.

- **Living Standards Measurement Surveys (LSMS):** A global household survey, supported by World Bank, available in 39 countries as of 2015. LSMS has a detailed component on household income and expenditure, which can be the basis upon which to compute the monetary poverty

rate. Additionally, the survey also covers areas such as education, health, water and sanitation, which makes it an ideal source to analyse both multidimensional and monetary poverty. Data is available at: http://microdata.worldbank.org/index.php/catalog/lsms

- **Luxembourg Income Study Database (LIS Cross):** The database provides microdata for over 40 mostly middle or high income countries. LIS acquires datasets with income, wealth, employment, and demographic data from a large number of countries, harmonizes them to enable cross-national comparisons and makes them available for public use by providing registered users with remote access at: http://www.lisdatacenter.org.

- **EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC):** A cross-sectional and longitudinal survey sample survey, coordinated by EuroStat that covers member states of the EU. Components of the survey include social exclusion and housing-condition information (collected at household level) and income (at the individual level), as well as labour, education and health observations for persons aged 16 and over. For details, visit: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-livingconditions/overview.

- **The OECD Income Distribution database (IDD):** The database has been developed to benchmark and monitor countries' performance in the field of income inequality and poverty. It contains a number of standardised indicators based on the central concept of "equivalised household disposable income", (the total income received by the households less the current taxes and transfers they pay, adjusted for household size with an equivalence scale). Household income is comparable for all 35 OECD countries and data on income distribution and poverty go back to the 1980s in many OECD countries. For more information, see, http://www.oecd.org/els/soc/inequality-and-poverty.htm.

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Box 2.4

A weakness in household surveys: children living in greatest poverty can be missed

While the household surveys outlined in the milestone are usually the most reliable sources to compute poverty rates, they may miss or underrepresent the poorest and most vulnerable children. This may be either because the households where children live are not included in the sampling framework, or that children are not living in households at all. While it is challenging to figure out how many are missing (and how many of those missing are living in poverty), one study estimates that as many as 250 million people could be missing globally from sampling frameworks of household surveys. With the SDGs' strong focus on "leaving no one behind", the importance of increased efforts and innovation to count poverty for all children is being globally recognised.

Groups (including children) not covered by surveys include:
- Households in unregistered slum or squatter settlements.
- Undocumented citizens who fear official registration with local municipalities.
- People living in conflict zones where there is a high security risk to enumerators.
- Nomadic populations.

The second missing group consists of children who are not counted because they live outside of households. This includes:
- Children living on the street.
- Child-headed households.
- Children in institutional care.
- Children staying in correctional facilities.
- Trafficked children.

As each group of missing children and households varies significantly, it is no simple task to estimate the size of those excluded and understand their poverty situation. Challenges include high costs for complex surveys, sampling challenges and factors such as obtaining information from minors who cannot legally consent.

This lack of data is a pressing concern as the uncounted children are very likely to be among the most vulnerable in the country, and if efforts to address child poverty do not shed light on these children they could be ignored entirely in programme and policy responses. In order to address this challenge, over 175 organizations have submitted an open letter to improve and expand data collection to ensure all children are represented.

As a starting point, all child poverty efforts should begin by acknowledging these children and the limitations of available data to understand the scale and scope of their challenges. Further, while they may be missed in surveys, other sources of data can provide some information. For example, administrative data may cover parts of the population living in institutions or correctional facilities. While the data quality or accessibility may be problematic, it can provide a starting point to get a rough sense of how many children are living in such situations. Other existing national studies or global reports on specific groups of disadvantaged children may not give a sense of the size of the uncounted population, but can help in understanding and highlighting the specific challenges they face.

Another potential approach is to conduct a complementary survey to capture poverty in specific

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settings. For instance, slum populations are often undercounted due to the chaotic nature of living situations, but a separate survey that has a specific sampling frame to capture certain slums can address these challenges (see the Egypt case study in this milestone). Similarly, it may be possible to conduct a special survey targeted to children living in institutions. Qualitative surveys such as life history interviews can also help build and share an understanding of the lives of children living in these situations, which numbers alone can fail to do.

Where household surveys are not effectively capturing groups of families, participation of the local population in designing the surveys or mapping survey areas have also been proven to be effective when communities have a better knowledge of local areas than officials. In Madagascar, for example, no census has been carried out since 1973 and thus survey sampling relies on administrative data, leaving some informal settlements unrecognized. Working with local communities, ATD Fourth World found that a majority of households living on a garbage dump in the north of the capital were not registered with the local authority. With the help of household heads, ATD Fourth World undertook a participatory mapping exercise to identify the characteristics and deprivations of people living in the area. For example, as many as 70% of the residents were under the age of 20, and a majority lacked an official ID card or birth certificate. Involvement of vulnerable groups in the process had benefits beyond collecting information about habitats in informal settings and the participatory method brought the community together to identify, discuss and address some of the challenges in the community.

New technology is also offering approaches to build an understanding of those missed by surveys. Innovations such as satellite imagery with on the ground verification is increasingly used in developed countries to identify transient groups. In the US, mobile and GPS technology has been used to record the location, number and condition of homeless people by social workers and the data is shared with other agencies. While the application to developing countries is still limited, the model could expand to developing contexts, following the increasing penetration of mobile phones.

For any of these approaches, special ethical considerations are needed as data collection may also put certain populations at risk. Surveys of children in correctional facilities, undocumented immigrants or street children should not be conducted without an appropriate adult's consent. Thus, considerable time and efforts should be taken in explaining the purpose of a survey, the anonymous nature of the data and to guarantee the safety of respondents and ensure no additional risks are imposed on these already vulnerable populations.

Further Reference:

Carr-Hill (2013) Missing Millions and Measuring Development Progress, World Development.

Villegas and Samman (2015) Exclusion in household surveys: causes, impacts and ways forward. ODI Report.

Le défi urbain à Madagascar. Quant la misère chasse la pauvreté", 2012, page 47, téléchargeable à: https://www.atd-quartmonde.fr/produit/le-defi-urbain (in French).

Pullum et al. (2012) Systems and strategies for identifying and enumerating children outside of family care. Child Abuse and Neglect 36, pp. 701-710. This reviews eight methodologies to identify and enumerate children outside of family care.

Over 175 signatory organizations as of 30 March 2016: All Children Count but Not All Children are Counted, an open letter to the UN Statistical Commission and Inter-Agency Expert Group on SDG Indicators.

B. Selecting the most appropriate child poverty measures (for now and for the future)

One of the challenges in building national support for child poverty measurement can be the seeming plethora of complex options, and the challenges in balancing technical considerations with political realities on the ground. While there is no simple answer to these issues, this section tries to unpack some of the most common debates and encourage a practical sequenced approach of starting where progress can be readily made.

Monetary or multidimensional child poverty, or both?

Monetary poverty is an important dimension of poverty for children, but it is not the only one. Multidimensional measures can get closer to children's felt experiences of poverty: whether they go to school, whether they are nourished or have access to healthcare. While each individual indicator (such as school dropout rate) can be well used and known in a particular sector, a multidimensional child poverty tool can go beyond individual areas and address the holistic situation of children.

Monetary measures, on the other hand, can give important information about the financial barriers that children and families face in the fulfilment of child rights. It is often children living in monetary poverty who are denied the right to food and nutrition, safe shelter, medical services or protection from child labour (see Table. 2.1 for a discussion of the strengths and weaknesses of both approaches).

Most importantly, conceptually and in terms of measurement, it is not either/or. Both monetary and multidimensional measures can be calculated and analysed to give a fuller picture of the poverty children experience and is what is pointed to in the SDG targets and indicators (see Box 2.5).

Both monetary and multidimensional measures can be calculated and analysed to give a fuller picture of the poverty children experience and is reflected in the SDG targets and indicators.

This standard of measuring and analysing both monetary and multidimensional child poverty may be hard to reach quickly, particularly for countries starting from scratch, and the best way of moving in this direction will vary enormously. In countries with strong conceptions of multidimensional poverty, building child measures alongside monetary measures may be relatively straightforward.

In other countries, where policies are driven by monetary poverty, years could be spent trying to change conceptions of poverty to multidimensional approaches. While this can be time well spent, it may be combined with quickly getting child poverty influencing policy agendas through disaggregating national monetary poverty measures for children.

**Table 2.1 An overview of the strengths and limitations of monetary and multidimensional poverty measures**

	Monetary child poverty measures	Multidimensional child poverty measures	Measuring and analysing both measures
What it can show about child poverty	Monetary child poverty rate. Monetary situation of the household in which a child lives. Regional, age group and other disaggregation possible.	Multidimensional child poverty rate. Captures deprivations (often following CRC) that directly capture children's experience of poverty. Analysis can show key deprivations driving poverty. Regional, age group and other disaggregation possible.	In addition to individual strengths allows analysis of relationship between monetary poverty and other dimensions of child poverty, including where there are overlaps and where children may be missed by one or other measure.
Strengths	Important aspect of children's experience of poverty. Rich evidence and guidance from the World Bank, OECD, EU and others. Monetary poverty is correlated with many multidimensional indicators Can be applied in all countries where there is a survey on expenditure or income Allows direct comparison of child poverty to adult poverty. Links to national poverty measures for easy integration to national priorities in many countries.	More directly captures children's full experience of poverty. As measures use child-specific and household relevant measures, this avoids problems of intra-household allocations inherent in monetary measures. Surveys available in most countries (DHS, MICS, LSMS). For countries well versed in multidimensional poverty measurement, including child multidimensional poverty is relatively straightforward. Could be flexible to include country-specific dimensions, age groups or indicators.	Captures all (measurable) aspects of child poverty. In many countries may allow immediate impact of current monetary measures, while building understanding of multidimensional approaches.
Limitations	On its own does not capture children's experience of poverty but rather the monetary situation of the household the child is in. Usually only calculated at household level, so children could be living in a non-poor household but be deprived because of intra-household allocation (conversely children in income poor families may not experience other deprivations). Some aspects of child deprivation may not be captured especially where not correlated with household monetary situation. May divert attention from multidimensional child poverty measures.	Methodologies less clear in higher income countries where monetary poverty predominates. In these contexts, it can detract from the simplicity and accountability of monetary approaches. If multidimensional poverty not already understood and used by government, can lead to conceptual rather than policy discussion. It could also take time to agree on the dimensions, indicators and thresholds. Initially measurement can be more challenging where NSOs or similar are not familiar with it.	Can make communication burden more complex expressing two child poverty rates. Can make analysis more complex. In higher income countries multidimensional measures are less commonly used.

Box 2.5

Complementary use of monetary and multidimensional measures for child poverty

An expanding empirical evidence base suggests that monetary and multidimensional measures of child poverty cannot serve as a proxy for one another. This holds across high, middle and low-income country contexts with monetary and multidimensional measures leading to different child poverty rates and identifying different groups of children as being poor. The Poverty and Social Exclusion study in the UK observes groups of deprived children living with non-poor adults and vice versa. Research in Ethiopia and Vietnam indicates that monetary and multidimensional measures identify different groups of children as being poor regardless of the indicators. The figure below shows that while significant groups of children experience both types of poverty, the proportions of children experiencing either only monetary poverty or multidimensional poverty are at least twice as large. A single measure will be unable to signal the full magnitude of the problem and identify all vulnerable children, inevitably excluding children in need of support from policies and programmes. The complementary use of measures is vital for obtaining a comprehensive picture of child poverty and ensuring that needs of all vulnerable children are identified and appropriately addressed.

In terms of the Venn:
A = multidimensionally poor; B = monetarily poor but not multidimensionally poor; AB = both
C= Neither monetary or multidimensionally poor
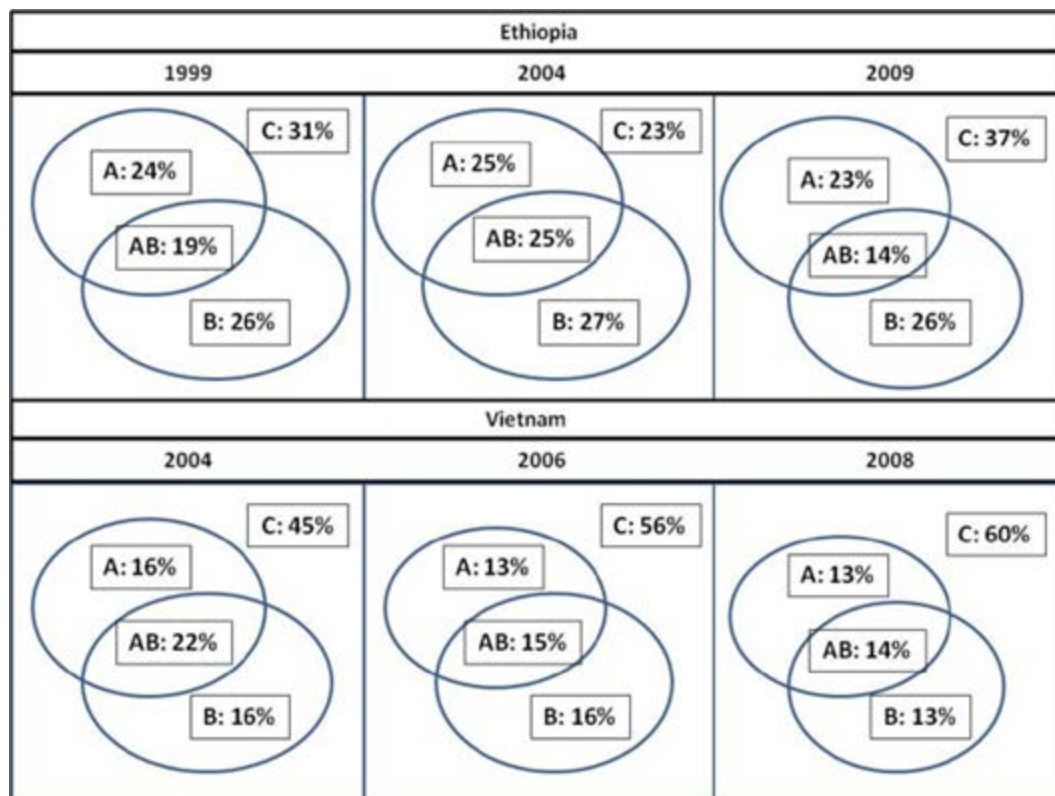
Sources:
Main and Bradshaw (2014) Child poverty and social exclusion: Final report of 2012 PSE study. Poverty and Social Exclusion in the UK. University of York.
Roelen (2015) Reducing all forms of child poverty: the importance of comprehensive measurement. *IDS Policy Briefing 98.*

Monetary child poverty measures

Generally monetary child poverty measurement is considered much simpler than multidimensional child poverty measurement. This is largely because in many countries monetary poverty measurement has a long history and is regularly calculated by National Statistical Offices. As such, disaggregating these numbers to calculate how many children live in households under the poverty line, as well as other relevant disaggregation, is relatively straightforward.

Beyond the fundamental challenge of missing data in many countries (See Box 2.4), two other considerations can also be of practical and policy importance. The first consideration is the make-up of the poverty lines which determine child poverty. The two basic approaches are:

- **National poverty lines** are either **absolute** poverty lines calculated as minimum income required to meet basic calorie intake and other non-food goods or **relative** poverty line, defined in reference to the overall distribution of a country's income or consumptions. Relative poverty lines are particularly common in higher income countries.

- **The international poverty line** ($1.90 per day per person) is set with reference to the national poverty lines in the poorest countries to measure the population living in extreme poverty. Since the first estimation in 1990 that formed the dollar-a-day poverty line, the value was updated in 2005 to $1.25 and then to the current value in 2015.

For both poverty lines, an important questions may be: are they sufficient for children above them to be truly free from poverty? For example, in countries where the national poverty line is based on a basket of basic goods, are these up-to-date and do they well reflect the goods that are needed in childhood? Similarly, is the international poverty line too low and should higher lines (such as $3 or $5) also be considered?

The second consideration is 'equivalence scales'. The key question here is whether children have lesser requirements than adults (children may eat less but have higher healthcare and education costs, for example), and whether larger households – proportionately more common for children – benefit from economies of scale. Where this is so, total poverty - and child poverty in particular - may be overestimated with a per capita approach. It is important to note, however, that recent research by UNICEF and the World Bank shows child poverty is higher than adult poverty across regions, regardless of changing assumptions on equivalence scales.

In some contexts engaging in these debates could be important for children, but they also underline that the 'complexity' of multidimensional poverty measurement may be a reflection that it is relatively new rather than fundamentally more complex than monetary child poverty measurement.

For more information on the make-up of poverty lines:
- World Bank (2015) FAQs: Global Poverty Line Update
- World Bank: Choosing and Estimating a Poverty Line

For more information on equivalence scales:
- Batana. et al. (2013) Global extreme poverty rates for children, adults and the elderly. Economic Letters.

The choice of multidimensional measures

With Target 1.2 of the SDGs specifically mentioning poverty "in all its dimensions", countries are expected to begin measuring the multidimensional poverty of children. The indicators, however, do not specify a particular methodology, leaving countries to move forward according to their own definitions.

While there are limited approaches to calculating monetary child poverty, approaches to multidimensional child poverty have increased significantly over the last decade since UNICEF's 2004 State of the World's Children report, and there are a number of tried and tested methodologies to measuring multidimensional poverty.

Choice, however, can bring challenges. It leaves a decision for many policy makers and child-focused institutions to choose from a varied and diverse set of options. Particularly in countries where concepts of multidimensional child poverty are new, there is a risk that this wealth of options may confuse rather than inspire.

So what are the options for measuring the multidimensional poverty of children, what are the similarities and differences, and what do we know (and not know) about what might work best for children?

The three key methodologies used most often outside of high-income countries are:

a)   **The Bristol Approach** (used in UNICEF's Global Study on Child Poverty). Developed by the University of Bristol, the approach builds a set of dimensions based on the Convention on the Rights of the Child.

b)   **MODA -** or Multiple Overlapping Deprivations Analysis. It was developed in 2012 by UNICEF, building on the Bristol Approach and MPI. The same approach could be applied for country-specific analysis (N-MODA) or cross-country analysis (CC-MODA). As the name indicates, analysis focuses on how different dimensions overlap with each other, providing important information for cross-sectoral interventions.

c)   **The MPI -** developed by OPHI and UNDP's Human Development report. It has captured multidimensional poverty in over 100 countries. As with national poverty lines, national MPIs can be readily disaggregated to highlight children living in multidimensionally poor households. Among the indicators are some that focus on the situation of children, namely school attendance and nutrition. Work is also underway to develop a child-specific MPI that focuses solely on children (rather than others in the household) and adds a child specific dimension for additional indicators (see Bhutan case in this milestone).
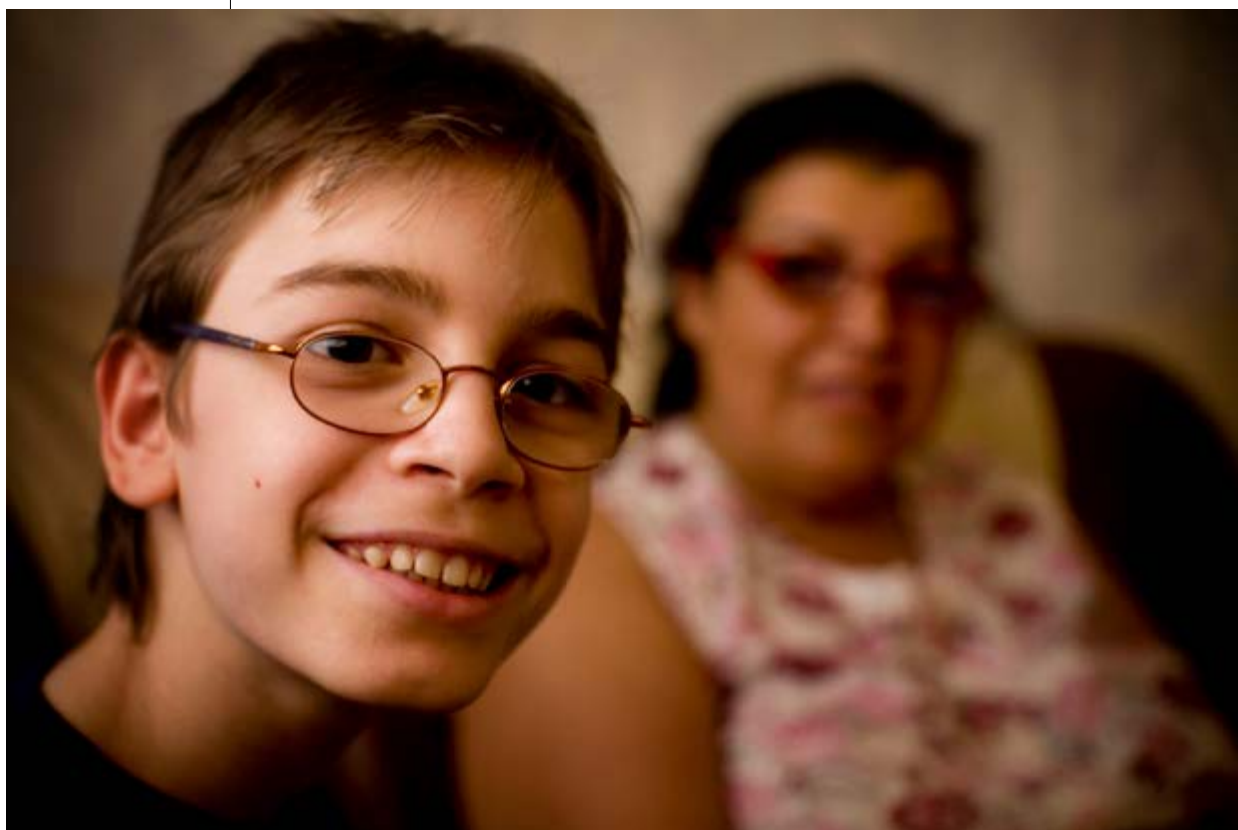
Each of these approaches have elements of complexity, ranging from conceptual foundations to the selection of indicators and 'cut-offs' (determining the level of deprivation at which a child or household is considered deprived). Table 2.2 tries to capture some of the basic similarities and differences.

Table 2.2 – Summary of similarities and differences in multidimensional poverty measures

	'Bristol-UNICEF'	**MODA-UNICEF**	**MPI-OPHI/UNDP**
Conceptual foundation	Child rights (CRC)	Child rights (CRC)	Capabilities/human development
Headline number	Headcount: % of children living in moderate poverty and severe poverty. Intensity of child poverty . Adjusted headcount (headcount x intensity of poverty).	Headcount: % of children living in poverty. Intensity of child poverty. Adjusted headcount (headcount x intensity of poverty).	Headcount: % of people living in poverty. Intensity of poverty. Adjusted headcount (head-count x intensity of poverty).
Main unit of analysis	Child	Child	Household
Dimensions (HH=household level indicator & ages covered	Education (6–17) Health (0–4) Nutrition (0–4) Water (HH – all ages) Sanitation (HH– all ages) Shelter (HH– all ages) Information (HH– all ages)	Education (5–17) Health (0–4) Nutrition (0–4) Water (HH– all ages) Sanitation (HH– all ages) Shelter (HH– all ages) Information (HH – all ages) Protection from violence (2–14)	Education (attendance of school-aged children and years of schooling of adults in HH) Health (child mortality and underweight among 0–4 and low BMI among adults) Living Standard (electricity, safe water, sanitation flooring, cooking fuel, assets ownership, HH)
Determining what is considered deprived in each dimension	Determined at country level for national analysis. Deprivation cut-offs for each indicator, where multiple indicators for a dimension aggregation methods vary, and can produce different results.		
	Determines moderate and severe deprivation in each dimension.	Determines deprivation in each dimension.	Determines standard deprivation and destitution measure (or more extreme deprivation cutoffs) in each dimension.
Ages covered	Generally 0–17 It can distinguish between the needs of children of different ages: early childhood, school age, and adolescence.	0–4 & 5–17 It distinguishes between the needs of children of different ages: early childhood, school age, and adolescence.	Household (can be disaggregated for children living in multidimensinally poor households. Child-specific modules being developed.
Defining poverty	Severe poverty: two or more severe deprivations. Moderate poverty: two or more deprivations.	Generally if a child is deprived in two or more dimensions they are considered poor. Depth of poverty considered through headcount adjusted by intensity of poverty. It focuses on the type and number of deprivations experienced simultaneously by each child.	The dimensions are weighted equally and the indicators within each dimension are also weighted equally. Considered poor if deprived in at least one third of the weighted indicators.
Group analysis	All categories in DHS/MICS (wealth, location, gender, HH size, education of HH head, orphanhood).		

With different approaches generally applied in different places, there has been limited work analysing the variations in results of the different approaches, and what this means for the groups of children who may or may not be considered poor. These are important questions where more research is needed.

There are many conclusions one can reach in comparing the approaches – and the guidance on each approach gives the full details - but here are some broad conclusions on some similarities and differences.

- **They all are built from nationally-led processes:** All the methodologies are designed to be tailored to national contexts to create national poverty rates, with final indicators, thresholds and composition methods determined by national stakeholders. As such, whichever method is chosen, it is the national process which will define multidimensional poverty and the end results. It is worth noting that both MODA and MPI have versions that can be used for regional or global comparability.

- **Similarity of indicators:** Many of the underlying indicators used are very similar (and particular so for the Bristol and MODA approaches). Given the need to rely on household surveys this is no surprise, but shows a similarity in the foundation of the indices and the aspects of multidimensional poverty being looked at. The MODA guidance suggests including an indicator on violence against children, but its application depends on data availability and context.

- **Children vs. households:** The Global Study and MODA conceptually focus squarely on children, using child-level indicators where possible, whereas the MPI looks at household-level poverty. However, there are some nuances: first, the MPI uses a number of child-level indicators to determine household deprivation and, due to data availability, a number of indicators in the Bristol Approach and MODA rely on household-level indicators (for example water and sanitation). Secondly, MPI can produce a headcount of children living in these poor households. And finally, there is work underway towards an MPI methodology that looks more directly at children.

- **Differences in aggregation and relationship to the rights based approach:** Bristol and MODA are relatively similar in determining deprivation within a dimension e.g. nutrition, health etc. and seeing how many dimensions a child is deprived in to determine whether a child is poor. This is closely attuned to a rights-based approach to poverty measurement, whereby each dimension or right is considered separately. In MPI, deprivation is determined by indicator, and then weighted to be aggregated into an overall poverty measure. There is a lot of complexity behind this, but the bottom line is they may potentially produce quite different results.

- **The depth or severity of poverty:** A simple poverty headcount (percentage of children in poverty) can mask the depth of poverty e.g. how far on average children or households are below the poverty line, that children experience. All three approaches offer ways to look at the depth of poverty and adjust the overall poverty by the depth. These combined numbers can be hard to communicate but they all allow overall poverty and depth of poverty to be presented separately.

- **Looking at overlaps rather than an index:** A critique of indices (and not just multidimensional ones) is that they 'mash-up' numbers in a way that makes interpretation difficult. While certainly true, this is also part of their utility in a world where single numbers can carry great influence. MODA in particular, in its implementation as much as its methods, encourages users to focus on the dimensions where children are deprived, and the specific overlaps between them, including where data allows looking at overlaps with monetary poverty. The Bristol Approach has also been applied to look at the overlap between deprivation and monetary poverty, particularly in Latin America. As outlined below, there is growing discussion of using 'dashboards' to present multidimensional poverty information without the use of a composite index.

INDICES OR DASHBOARDS?

With ongoing discussions on the value of composite indices and the SDGs leaving measuring open to national definitions, some countries may prefer to simply create a dashboard of key indicators without aggregating into an index.

A dashboard could allow policy makers and child poverty advocates to look at multidimensional poverty without agreeing on a single method to weight and aggregate them into an index. With the recent development in technologies, dashboards can also allow some simple analysis on an online platform, including: overlap with monetary poverty or wealth index, analysis of different degrees of deprivation, disaggregation or correlation between selected indicators.

There are, however, some downsides. One of the key aims of multidimensional child poverty measures is to capture the attention of policy makers and focus policy and programmes to respond. Dashboards require a higher level of attention and focus than a single indicator, and whether such an approach would work for an area like child poverty can of course only be fully thought through and understood at the national level.

Hybrid approaches are also possible, whereby there is a national mulitidimensional child poverty index (such as Bristol, MODA or the MPI) complimented by a dashboard that allows policy makers to see dimensions and indicators separately and assess progress and how policies and programmes can affect change.

Some guidance and examples of approaches that may spur thinking are:

- Households' economic well-being: the OECD dashboard: http://www.oecd.org/std/na/household-dashboard.htm
- World Bank: MDG Progress Status: http://data.worldbank.org/mdgs
- Alkire and Robles (2016) Measuring Multidimensional Poverty: Dashboards, Union Identification and the Multidimensional Poverty Index. OPHI Research in Progress 46a. University of Oxford.

Box 2.6

Child poverty or child well-being?

Well-being is a relatively new concept that has been used to complement or substitute traditional measures of poverty or deprivation. The approach comes from the perspective that purely monetary/material approaches to measuring human development are insufficient to capture many aspects of what makes people, and children, thrive.

While the SDGs (and so this guide) are focused squarely on poverty (both monetary and multidimensional), there may be both political and conceptual reasons to focus on well-being in some contexts. In some contexts there can be political reluctance to focus on poverty that may be hard to overcome. Even where this is not the case, there may be situations where a positive focus on well-being may be more effective.

Conceptually, well-being approaches may be preferred as they focus beyond material deprivations on indicators of non-material well-being (such as happiness, psychosocial health, parenting and familial patterns and ecological concerns) which are of real significance to the lives of children. For example, the OECD framework for measuring well-being and progress includes items such as 'social connections', 'environmental quality' or 'work-life balances' as pillars of the quality of life.

Considering the different nature and potential policy response to poverty/deprivation and well-being, one approach is to have separate indicators for the two areas. For example, in Mexico, there are a set of indicators for social cohesion that capture economic inequality, social polarisation, social networks and income ratio, reported separately from the multidimensional poverty index.

Resource:
OECD: (2013) Measuring Well-being and Progress: Well-being Research
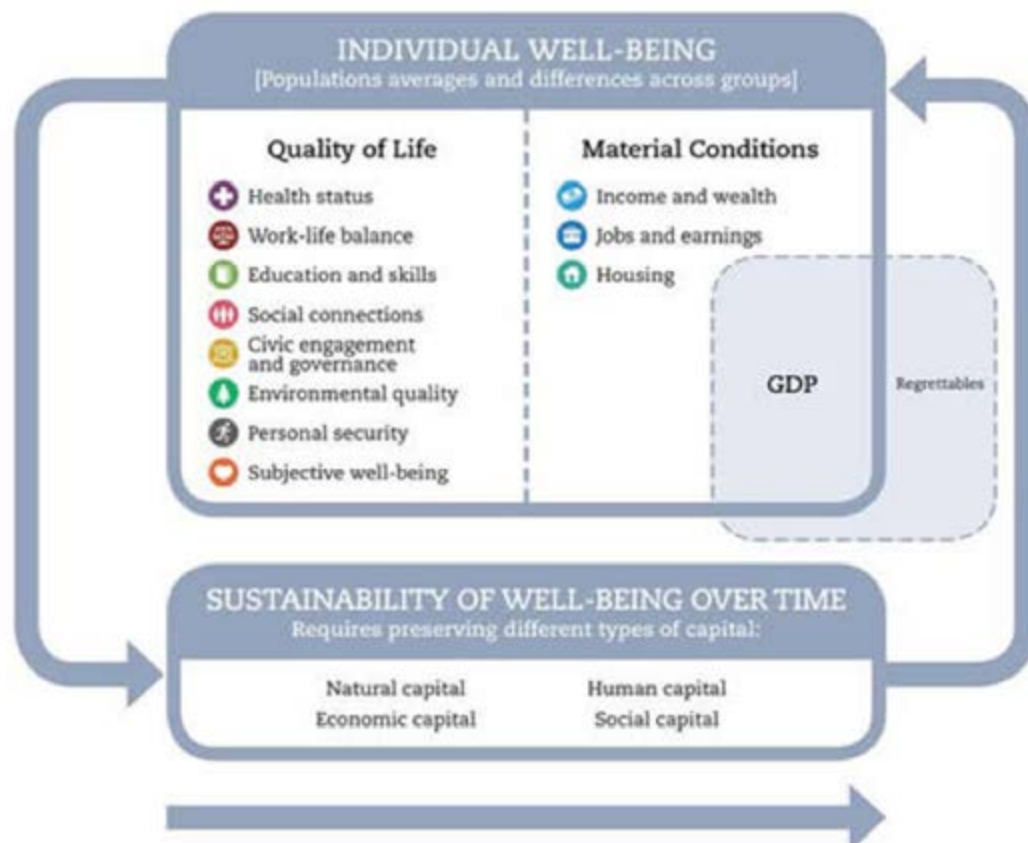
Source: OECD, 2013

Which poverty measure to choose: technical vs political considerations

There are many important technical considerations in a national discussion on which child poverty measurement to use, such as the statistical properties of a chosen measure, details on thresholds and cut-offs, or regional and international comparability.

However, often as important are the political considerations around measurement. If the measurement of child poverty fails to reflect what the policymakers or the population consider as poverty, the measurement is unlikely to stimulate discussions or trigger policy response (see Box 2.7).

As such, considerations of what may get traction for the poorest children should come to the fore. For example, where the conception of poverty is entirely monetary and monetary poverty drives policy and programmes, starting with children living in monetary poverty may make sense. Where there are strong foundations and responses to rights-based approaches, an approach such as MODA could have most traction. Where a government strongly supports the MPI, starting with a disaggregation for children and building a child-specific MPI might be most effective. It is important to stress that the SDGs now require reporting of monetary and multidimensional poverty, including for children, which will hopefully ease some of these constraints.

Building owned and routine measurement, and involving children

While there is no 'correct' way to increase ownership in developing child poverty measurements, in almost all cases it is important for appropriate parts of government to lead the process and key actors to be involved in the process of construction, calculation and dissemination. One activity for this step is to hold a national consultation process or workshop, where the rationale of having child poverty measurement is shared, existing approaches are introduced, and choice of approach, as well as aspects of the measures, are discussed among a wide range of stakeholders. Ideally this would be led by the government and include the NSO, civil society, research organization or donors.

Political support and ownership is closely related to the important step of routinizing child poverty measurement. As shown in UNICEF's global child poverty mapping, in many middle- and high-income countries, routine measurement has become a standard process. While the frequency may depend on data availability and may be subject to political changes, where child poverty measurement is institutionalized, it is calculated, reported and used alongside general poverty measures.

Box 2.7

Reasons why some child poverty measures may not get traction

Not all child poverty measures receive widespread use. As a global mapping on child poverty by UNICEF found, in around 20 countries with child poverty measures, child poverty data is not being explicitly discussed or acted upon. Choosing the right measure and process is crucial in getting traction. Problems can occur when:

1. **The indicators do not match the country's understanding of poverty and deprivation:** each society has a different understanding of the concept of poverty and within the society perceptions vary. Where approaches are not in line with national thinking poverty measures are likely to get less traction. Read the experience of OPHI here.

2. **Key players are not involved from the onset:** how much engagement occurs in the process will determine how much it will be used afterwards. Measurement is not only a technical process but a political one of engaging various actors.

3. **There is too much political sensitivity to discuss and measure poverty:** some governments may not acknowledge that poverty is a problem in the country. In such situations, other indicators, for example child well-being, could work as a measurement without politicizing the issue. It is important to note of course the SDGs do now require poverty and child poverty reporting.

4. **The child poverty measure is isolated from general poverty measurement:** in countries where there is already a mainstream poverty indicator for the general population, creating something entirely different for children could lessen its effectiveness. One can instead think of how to disaggregate the general measure for children or how to add child-specific indicators to the existing approaches.

5. **The child poverty measure is too complicated and technical:** particularly for multidimensional measures, the weights, indicators and aggregation could look complex and thus may not be accepted. Countries have recently used infographics (such as the infographic of *Índice de pobreza multidimensional* from Ecuador), for example, to communicate what and how poverty is measured with the general public.

6. **The process of creating a child poverty measure is too long:** another challenge in creating new measurement is the time it can take. One way to handle this is to start from disaggregating existing measures for children ('a quick win'), while building more sophisticated measure for children.

7. **The survey is too old:** at the end of the day, without data from a household survey, it remains difficult to construct a measurement. So the best measurement will be heavily influenced by the available survey and a quick stock take can be usefule before deciding which measurement to use.

INVOLVING CHILDREN IN THE PROCESS

Involving children in the process of measuring child poverty not only respects the right of children to participate in processes relevant to their well-being, but is also an effective way to reflect their experience and views about different dimensions of deprivation. There are ongoing research efforts to develop methodologies to reflect the opinions of children into child poverty measurement.

One approach to understand the needs and priorities of children is to ask them what matters most to them. In a study in South Africa that aimed to understand the similarities and differences in the perception of basic social needs among adults and children, children were asked to list items they considered necessary for an acceptable standard of living and then rank them from the items that are most needed to the items they viewed as luxuries. The comparison with adults' views (Figure 2.1) points to the differences in the views of adults and children and thus highlights the importance of taking into account children's views.

Figure 2.1 A comparison of the adult and child views
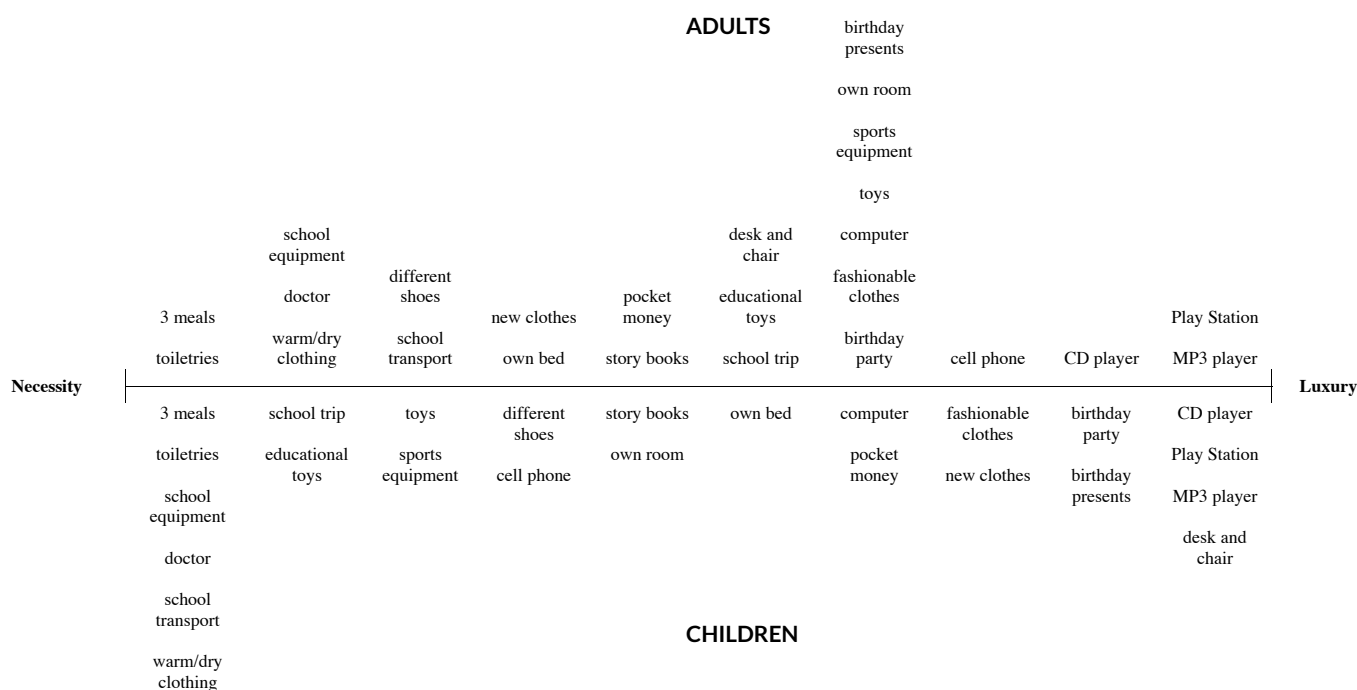
SOURCE: BARNES AND WRIGHTG (2015)

Another approach uses information from children about their subjective well-being to adjust the weighting of different dimensions. For example, a study by Young Lives in Vietnam looked at the correlation between children's subjective well-being and their outcomes/achievements in five dimensions of the poverty index: education, health, shelter, water and sanitation and child work. It showed that children who were more satisfied with their lives overall had better outcomes in dimensions that had the most immediate impacts on their lives such as shelter, water and sanitation, rather than education and health. Such judgements were taken into account in constructing a multidimensional index and more weights were assigned to the dimensions that were highly associated with child subjective well-being.

While the value of involving children in the process is widely understood in principle, there are challenges to incorporating their perspectives in practice. There are risks of only using children's views in developing a multidimensional poverty index as there could be important aspects that they may not prioritise (it may be challenging for young children, for example, to understand the long-term benefits of nutrition). Their views will also change along cognitive and behavioural development, and depending on their development stages. Accordingly, methodologies and questionnaires must be appropriate to age level and cultural context, and consent from caregivers and children about the purposes and scope of the study must also be sought.

Children's experiences and voices can also be reported separately from quantitative measurement. Where focus group interviews have been conducted with children and youth (or in some countries with child parliaments), their voices have successfully added the reality of child poverty in their own words, improving the effectiveness of child poverty reports for advocacy. See milestone 3 for more on using children's voices helping put child poverty on the map.

Resources:
Dat et al. (2015) Weighting Deprivations using Subjective Well-being: An application to the Multidimensional Child Poverty Index in Vietnam, Young Lives Working Paper 142.
Barnes and Wright (2015): Defining child poverty in South Africa using the socially perceived necessities approach.
Graham et al. (2013). Ethical Research Involving Children. UNICEF Office of Research - Innocenti.

Measuring poverty in higher-income settings

The SDGs are global goals and thus bind not only developing countries but also middle- and high-income countries to end extreme poverty, and halve child poverty according to the national poverty lines, and in all its dimensions, by 2030.

Much of the proceeding sections are equally relevant across all income settings, however measures for this target may be different in middle- or higher-income countries in several ways. Here, are some common shifts in poverty measurements as countries move through development.

MONETARY MEASURES

First, while poverty is captured by household consumption in most developing countries, income is more frequently used in higher-income countries. Many advanced economies have been using income-based measures since the 1960s. At the same time, it has also been argued that consumption is considered more closely related to well-being, as it captures the outcome, as opposed to available resources, captured by income (for more details, see references below). Thus, which measure to use is an on-going debate among experts, and more importantly, the choice will depend on context, such as data availability, history of measurement or credibility of reporting. When income measures are used, the net disposable amount (i.e. the amount of regular periodic inflow of resources, after taxes and transfers) is widely used, as it considers the effect of taxes and transfers which can be very important in poverty status for middle- and high-income countries.

Secondly, many higher-income countries adopt a relative poverty line in replacement of, or in addition to, absolute poverty lines. Absolute poverty lines are often based on estimates of the basic costs of food needs and non-food needs. On the other hand, relative poverty lines are drawn from a country's overall income or consumption distribution. For instance, OECD defines the poverty line as 50 per cent of the median income (i.e. the income level where exactly half of the households earn more and the other half earn less), while the EU define it as 60 per cent of the median income. Relative poverty lines build on the idea that nobody should live with "resources that are so seriously below those commanded by the average individual or family that they are, in effect, excluded from ordinary living patterns, customs and activities" (as articulated by a leading authority on this issue, Peter Townsend). Still, there is a risk in using relative measures. For example, when the relative poverty line does not guarantee access to basic needs it will underestimate the number of those living in poverty. To complement each measure, the UK, for example, uses combination of both absolute and relative poverty measures in monitoring child poverty.

Finally, equivalence scales are often different in higher-income countries. To rank households of different sizes, the household level consumption is often divided by the number of members of the household size to compute

per capita consumption in developing countries. The scaling is different in many OECD and EU countries, where they assign different weight for additional adult members and children. There are different methodologies, for example EUROSTAT adopts an OECD modified scale, which assign a value of 1 to the household head, 0.5 to each additional adult member and of 0.3 to each child. An additional adult member has lower weight, since some of the household goods and services can be shared without adding the same cost for the first adult (for example, housing or electricity). Children are given a lower rate and given a lower cost for their consumption, such as food. However, in contexts where the needs for children are as high as adults due to the cost of healthcare or education, a per capita scale may be more appropriate.

Further resources:
General resources on monetary measurements:
The Poverty Site – relative poverty, absolute poverty and social exclusion.
World Bank: Defining welfare measures

Income or consumption:
Maxwell (1999) The Meaning and Measurement of Poverty. ODI policy briefing.

Absolute or relative:
Townsend Centre for International Poverty Research – Relative Deprivation Concept.

Per capita or different equivalence scales:
OECD: What are equivalence scales?
Bellu and Liberati (2005) Equivalence Scales: General Aspects.

MULTIDIMENSIONAL MEASURES

In higher-income countries it is also common to combine income with other dimensions of poverty, but practices on multidimensional poverty measurement vary considerably among different countries and institutions. This reflects the changes in social norms and perceptions regarding minimum living standards, as well as increased data availability that can capture more aspects of child well-being.

Ireland was the first EU country to adopt a poverty target in 1997, based on a combination of both a relative poverty line, as well as multidimensional deprivations. The EU has adopted a similar approach, using both a relative monetary poverty line and multidimensional deprivation, to monitor progress on poverty and social exclusion. Technical working groups are set up to construct child material deprivations to be used in the region. In addition to official government poverty statistics, there are regional or global institutions that produce multidimensional measures of child poverty, using different indicators to highlight diverse aspects of child well-being. Results from regional comparisons have been particularly effective in advocacy, as the ranking of countries often stimulates policy debates and attracts media attention.

**Table 2.3: Approaches to measuring child poverty in higher-income settings**

Country/ Organization	Measurement	Resources
EU (EUROSTAT)	The EU monitors progress towards The Europe 2020 strategy based on the AROPE ('at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion') indicator, which consists of three sub-indicators: - **Monetary poverty:** 60% of the national median equivalized disposable income. - **Material deprivation:** People deprived in at least 4 out of 9 deprivations (such as inability to pay rent or utility bills, take a week holiday away from home, or lack of TV, telephone, washing machine or a car). - **Exclusion from the labour market:** People living in households with very low work intensity calculated as those aged 0-59 living in households where adults worked less than 20% of their total work potential during the past year. The data is collected through EU-SILC; as of 2015, the indicators specific to children are currently under development.	EU-SILC Recent data Source: Guio. et al. (2012) Measuring Material Deprivation in the EU: Indicators for the Whole Population and Child-Specific Indicators
OECD	The **Child Well-being Module** (CWBM) is a new dataset for age-specific child well-being information including data on policies, family and community contexts, and outcomes. However, there is no aggregated index produced for each country.	
UNICEF – Office of Research (Innocenti)	Innocenti's report card series include a league table ranking the OECD countries using different measurements. Report Card 10 ranked 29 countries based on the child deprivation rate, calculated as the percentage of children (age 1 to 16) who lack two or more of 14 items. The items included, for example: - Three meals a day. - Internet connection. - Money to participate in school trips.	UNICEF (2014) Measuring child poverty Innocenti Website
Ireland	Ireland was the first EU country to adopt a poverty target in 1997. The official child poverty measure defines a child as poor if either: - Living below 60 % of the median income; or - Lacking two or more items from a list of 11 items (including shoes, coat, new clothes and heating).	Government of Ireland, Department of Social Protection
USA	The Census Bureau has been responsible for officially measuring poverty since the 1960s when President Johnson declared a war on poverty. The measure uses pre-tax cash income and a threshold that is set at three times the cost of a minimum food diet in 1963, updated annually for inflation using the Consumer Price Index and adjusted for family size, composition, and age of householder. The poverty rate is disaggregated by age group, ethnicity and other demographic groups. Since 2010, a second measure called the Supplementary Poverty Measure has also been used, taking into account government benefits and necessary expenses such as taxes.	Infographics by the Census Bureau (2014) Kids Count Data Center by the Annie E. Casey Foundation

Measuring child poverty in fragile and humanitarian contexts: challenges and innovations

Conflicts, political instability and humanitarian crises have been one of the largest challenges in the world's efforts to eradicate extreme poverty. Rough estimates suggest that the overall size of the problem is huge, with about a third of people in poverty living in fragile states, with that proportion expected to rise to more than a half by 2030. The consequences for children, both immediate and on their long term development, can be catastrophic.

Given the lack of security and governance to conduct surveys, building more precise and usable national data on poverty and child poverty is a significant challenge in such environments. Not surprisingly, fragile and conflict-prone countries were a key group among the 29 countries that collected no monetary poverty data, or the 28 countries that only collected poverty data once, between 2002–2011.

Figure 2.2 Number of people in poverty: fragile states versus stable countries, official estimates and baseline scenario, 1990–2030
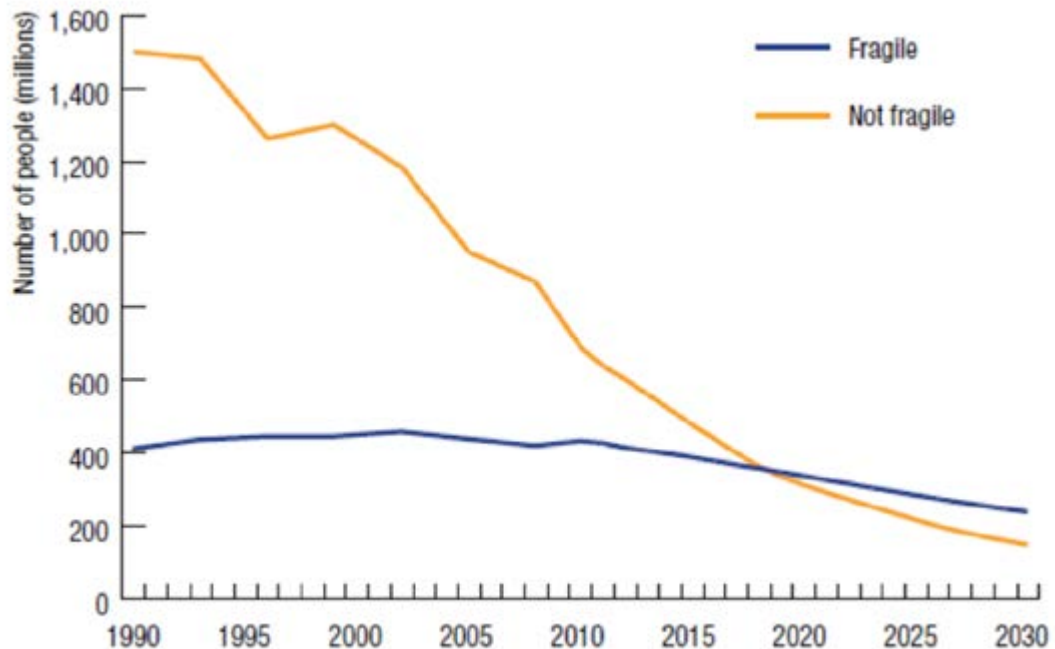
Source: CHANY. ET AL (2013)

While there is no easy solution to these challenges of measurement, some countries are experimenting with new approaches and using new technologies to fill the data gap.

- In Somalia, a high-frequency survey using a questionnaire on a smartphone has significantly reduced the time and cost of conducting a survey, compared to the traditional approaches.

- During the Ebola crises in Liberia, where in-person interviews were difficult to conduct, the World Bank, with the Liberian Institute of Statistics Geo-Information Services and Gallup, conducted five rounds of mobile-phone surveys to identify the socioeconomic impact of the crises.

- The World Food Programme (WFP) has piloted the use of the airtime credit (or top-ups) as a proxy for food security and poverty indicators and found a high correlation between the airtime credit and the data on food consumption, collected through a traditional survey for comparison.

- UNICEF Jordan used the Inter-Agency Vulnerability Assessment Framework (VAF) to identify the most vulnerable families eligible for the child cash grant targeted to Syrian refugees in the country. VAF uses beneficiary profiles, built from a simple survey, to predict the expenditure level of the households, assisting prioritization of the refugees in most need of help.

This a crucial but emerging area of work. Some useful references include:

On the situation of poverty in fragile and humanitarian contexts:
Chandy et al. (2015) From a Billion to Zero: Three Key Ingredients to End Extreme Poverty

On countries without poverty data:
Serajuddin et al. (2015) Data Deprivation: Another Deprivation to End

On innovative approaches:
World Bank (2015) Measuring Poverty in 60 minutes to Help Somalia Address Data Deprivation

World Bank (2015) The Socio-Economic Impacts of Ebola in Liberia

Nielsen (2016) WFP harnesses the power of modern mobile data collection with Nielsen pro bono support

On VAF:
UNHCR (2015) Introducing the Vulnerability Assessment Framework

C. Producing child poverty rates

A concern that can arise in child poverty measurement is that it is technically complex and time-consuming. However, once a preferred measure has been chosen, there are established methodologies and approaches to moving forward. This section gives an overview of these approaches and points to available guidance.

CASE 1: DISAGGREGATING THE NATIONAL MONETARY POVERTY RATE FOR CHILDREN

If the poverty rate is already calculated for the general population, then the monetary poverty rate for children can be simply obtained by disaggregating the national poverty rate (see Box 2.7 for an indicative example). It is important to receive support from all actors involved in the general poverty calculation, to make sure that child poverty information is used whenever the general poverty rate is discussed.

Results produced:

- Monetary poverty rate for children, in comparison with the national poverty rate.

- The child poverty rate will vary depending on the poverty threshold (international poverty rate $1.90 per day or national poverty line).

- Disaggregation available by age range (0-4, 5-9, 10-14 and 15-17); geographical region; urban-rural; gender and ethnic/linguistic; disabilty and other sub-groups as appropriate.

Actors often involved:

- National government. Often led by the National Statistical Office and Ministry of Finance/Planning.

- The World Bank has rich experience and expertise in measuring and analysing monetary child poverty globally.

- In many countries, independent researchers/institutes support the government to compute and analyse the monetary poverty rate.

Process, considerations and timeline:

The table below is a sample process and timeline to produce a monetary poverty rate disaggregated for children. It is assumed that the country already has some estimate of the national monetary poverty rate for the general population without age disaggregation to estimate the child poverty rate. The process will differ if a country needs to start from building a monetary poverty rate for the general population (more guidance on this is available in the resources from the World Bank listed below).

	Process	**Considerations**	**Rough timeline**
1	Identify if there is recent measurement, availability of age disaggregation and the main actors involved in the process.	Additional useful questions may include: - How was the poverty rate disseminated and received from policymakers or public? - Are there any plans to update the calculation?	Up to 1 month.
2	Build political support from the concerned actors to disaggregate poverty rate for children.	See Milestone 1. The most simple and universal reason to do this is the SDGs target that requires poverty reduction for all men, women and children. Building a partnership of agencies with similar interest could give more strength in advocacy.	Depends on context.
3	Data analysis to compute the child poverty rate.	Some items to be discussed in this step are: poverty thresholds (for example, international poverty line, national poverty line), equivalence scales, options for disaggregation and dissemination. Technically, the only additional information required for disaggregation for children is the number of children living in households under the poverty line.	1 month.
4	Produce briefing/reports with dissemination activities.	One of the advantages of calculating the monetary child poverty rate is it's comparability with the adult poverty rate. Thus, in disseminating the results, it will be most effective and influential if the child poverty rate and analysis is integrated into the country's overall poverty report or assessment.	1-2 months.

Guides and materials:

- The World Bank, Measuring Poverty: http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/measuringpoverty

- The World Bank's Poverty Databank: http://povertydata.worldbank.org/poverty/home/

- PEP training material on poverty assessment and poverty analysis (https://www.pep-net.org/training-material-2) and recommended readings (https://www.pep-net.org/recommended-readings-2). DAD is a software that can be used to analyse poverty and inequity and DASP is a STATA package to help analyse the distribution of living standards (http://www.pep-net.org/dad-dasp).

Box 2.8

HOUSEHOLD POVERTY RATE VS. CHILD POVERTY RATE: AN INDICATIVE EXAMPLE

HH ID	# of Children	Poverty status
HH1	2	Poor
HH2	0	Non-Poor
HH3	1	Non-Poor
HH4	3	Poor
HH5	2	Non-Poor
Total	**8 children**	

Household Poverty Rate = 2/5 = 40%

Child Poverty Rate = 5/8 = 62.5%

CASE 2: DEVELOPING A MULTIDIMENSIONAL CHILD POVERTY MEASURE (BRISTOL, MODA OR MPI)

As there are many similarities in the process for creating a multidimensional poverty measure for children regardless of the methodology (for example Bristol, MODA or MPI), this case covers all three approaches, noting key differences.

Results produced:

- Multidimensional child deprivation rate.

- Child deprivation rate by dimension (such as health, education) or by indicator (for example, primary school enrolment rate) and how they overlap with each other (MODA).

- How much the deprivation overlaps with monetary poverty or subjective well-being (only when the same dataset covers different areas).

- The intensity of deprivation among the deprived, and the adjusted multidimensional deprivation rate.

- Disaggregation including for: different age ranges (0-4, 5-9, 10-14 and 15-17); by geographical region; urban-rural; gender and ethnic/linguistic; disability and other sub-groups as appropriate and available.

Actors often involved:

- National government, including the National Statistical Office, Ministry of Finance.

- Country-level process will establish indicators and cut-offs (in effect the multidimensional poverty line) and so needs to be appropriately broad often including sector Ministries. National and/or international technical experts may be involved.

- Globally, Bristol University leads the methodological development of the Bristol Approach and is often supported in country by UNICEF.

- UNICEF has developed guidelines to MODA, and has also conducted cross-country analysis (CC-MODA).

- OPHI and UNDP globally lead the advocacy and technical discussion on MPI. Multidimensional Poverty Peer Network (MPPN) supports policymakers to develop multidimensional poverty measures.

A world free from child poverty

Process, considerations and timeline:

	Process	Considerations	Timeline
1	Identify existing monetary and multidimensional poverty measures and any data gaps, and how they are used in policy discussions.	For the next step, it will also be useful to understand if there is general support in constructing multidimensional measures for child poverty.	Up to 1 month.
2	Build political support to measure child poverty multidimensionally.	If necessary, conduct short training or workshop on existing multidimensional measures with government officials and partners. If this process is prolonged, one option will be to start from disaggregation of general poverty measures (eg national poverty rate or MPI) while building support for longer and more comprehensive measurement.	Depends on context.
3	Based on identified data source, agree on the construction of child poverty measure, such as: • *Age group definitions.* • *Dimensions of child poverty by age groups.* • *Indicators for each dimensions by age groups.* • *Cut-off for each indicator.* • *Method of aggregation into single indicator, including the weights.* • *Multidimensional poverty cut-off (extreme and moderate in the case of the Bristol methodology).*	A national consultation could be an effective activity to increase ownership of the results. It could serve two objectives: (1) Introducing the methodology; and (2) Receiving feedback on how to make it fit to national context. Given how poverty is often understood differently by different actors, it is important that the consultation process is inclusive of a wide range of actors.	1 month.
4	Calculating the national child poverty rate, deprivation rates by different age groups and dimensions and overlaps across different dimensions.	There is a slight difference in the way each methodology analyses the headcount or overlaps. See the comparison in Table 2.2 above.	1-2 months.
5	Additional analysis, such as intensity of deprivation among deprived children or combination with monetary dimensions or subjective well-being.	While this can add information regarding different aspects of child poverty, there is a risk of the report being too long or technically complicated.	2-3 months.
6	Produce country reports and dissemination of results.	In many cases, a national child poverty report or brief is published as an outcome (see Milestone 3). Stronger advocacy if combined with workshops or dialogue with the politicians.	2-3 months.

Guides and materials:

Bristol Approach:

- UNICEF (2007) *Global Study Guide* - a detailed and comprehensive guide to conduct Global Study, including statistical tables and template Terms of Reference.

- Gordon and Nandy (2012), *Measuring Child Poverty and Deprivation* – technical guide, more focused on the Bristol Approach to measure child poverty and deprivation.

- UNICEF and ECLAC (2014) *Guide to Estimating Child Poverty* details how the Bristol method was adapted to Latin American countries.

MODA:

- The UNICEF Office of Research (Innocenti) *MODA website* is a great place to find country examples, as well as cross-country analysis.

- De Neubourg et al. (2012) *Step-by-step Guidelines to MODA* provides detailed instructions on how to calculate child poverty rates based on MODA.

MPI:

- *OPHI website:* recent updates on measurement, policy applications and research.

- Alkire and Robles (2015) *Multidimensional Poverty Index – Winter 2015/16: Brief Methodological Note and Results* provides the latest updates of estimations in various countries, as well as brief notes on the methodology.

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D. Country examples

CAMBODIA

Advocacy to disaggregate monetary poverty rate for children as an indicator of a national development plan

TIME

2013–2016: from advocacy for equity-focused monitoring to an official adoption of child poverty as part of key indicators for national development strategy, and further mainstreaming of child poverty measurement in the national poverty assessment process.

DATA NEEDS AND EXPERTISE
- *Cambodia Socio-Economic Surveys (CSES).*
- *Cambodia Demographic Health Surveys (CDHS).*
- *Ability to analyse household datasets.*
- *Positioning to influence national development planning.*

STAKEHOLDERS
- *Ministry of Planning, including National Institute of Statistics*
- *Ministry of Economy and Finance*
- *Supreme National Economic Council*
- *Social ministries*
- *UNICEF*
- *UNDP*
- *UNFPA*
- *WB*
- *ADB*

As part of the discussion to develop indicators for the new National Strategic Development Plan (NSDP), UNICEF as a member of the inter-sectoral working group, advocated successfully for the monetary poverty rate to be disaggregated for children and also to include the child poverty rate as one of the key target indicators of NSDP. Collaborative work with the government is ongoing to add a multidimensional approach to measuring child poverty.

THE APPROACH

1. In 2012, the Ministry of Planning (MoP) set up an inter-sectoral National Working Group on Monitoring and Evaluation of National Strategic Plan (NSDP) to address the recommendations from the Mid-Term Review of the NSDP 2009–2013. The main function of the National Working Group was to develop key indicators for the new NSDP covering the period of 2014–2018. UNICEF, as a member of the working group, has advocated for the inclusion of indicators and targets that captures widening inequality across many dimensions of well-being of the population, particularly children.

2. In the above context, UNICEF also advocated for measuring monetary poverty not only for total population but specifically for children and setting concrete target for child poverty reduction in the new NSDP. As a result, the NSDP 2014-2018 includes child poverty as one of the key indicators with concrete annual targets, along with age-disaggregated indicators regarding health, nutrition, water and sanitation, and education with focus on the bottom quintile.

3. In 2014, UNICEF provided technical support on monetary child poverty analysis to MoP, involving two key departments - The General Department of Planning (GDP) and National Institute of Statistics (NIS) - in order to produce the monetary child poverty rate based on the 2012 household survey. The analysis revealed that child poverty was 29 per cent, significantly higher than the national poverty rate of 18.9 per cent.

4. In 2015 UNICEF and the MoP jointly reflected on the needs to further strengthen the national capacity to measure and report child poverty on an annual basis, particularly using a multi-dimensional approach. It was also agreed to integrate child poverty analysis into the national poverty assessment process to strengthen linkages with recommendations and follow-up actions by different government institutions. In this regard, future capacity development will target broader stakeholders composing the National Poverty Assessment Working Group which includes the MOP, Ministry of Economy and Finance (MEF), Supreme National Economic Council (SNEC), and key social ministries such as the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Health and Ministry of Social Affairs.

THAILAND

Conducting the global study with strong national ownership

National ownership was a key principle guiding UNICEF's Global Study on Child Poverty and Disparities Initiative and a key element in influencing national policy-making processes. Thailand followed an approach that allowed for ownership among national stakeholders, including leadership of the process by the National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB), the main planning agency under the Prime Minister's Office.

TIMELINE
- *2007: launch of the Global Study on Child Poverty and Disparities.*
- *2010: launch of Thailand's Child Poverty Report.*
- *2013: social protection national assessment.*
- *2015: child support grant was introduced.*

DATA NEEDS AND EXPERTISE
- *Ability to compute multidimensional child poverty rate from MICS and SES data.*
- *Understanding of local policies.*
- *Ability and experience to work with multiple stakeholders.*

STAKEHOLDERS
- *NESDB*
- *Ministry of Social Development and Human Security*
- *National Statistics Office*
- *Other government agencies*
- *Academia*
- *NGOs*

THE APPROACH

1. Thailand conducted its child poverty report focusing on three components: a review of development policies, child poverty and disparities measurement (using the Bristol methodology), and policy recommendations.

2. From the onset, NESDB senior officials encouraged staff members to actively participate in the study as an opportunity to build their research capabilities and enhance knowledge on the impact of poverty on children.

3. The child poverty rates were calculated together with the leading national economic think tank (Thailand Development and Research Institute), academia and other experts. The calculations showed that despite the government's success in the almost universal provision of services, approximately one in ten children were malnourished and out of school.

4. Focus group meetings were held with a wide range of stakeholders at senior level, providing inputs to the policy recommendations.

5. Given that deprivations were particularly severe in the Northeast region and among vulnerable children such as children with disabilities and minority populations, the study recommended expansion of service provision with emphasis on the most marginalized. The full report was published in Thai with an executive summary in English.

6. Following the launch of the report, advocacy focused on strengthening the national social protection system, including the introduction of a child support grant for all children under 6 years. Continuing to implement the principle of 'national ownership', a strategic partnership was initiated between the Law Reform Commission, academia, civil society, and other key stakeholders, which led to the introduction of a child support grant in 2015.

For more information:
For Thailand's Child Poverty Study, please go to: https://sites.google.com/site/thailandchildpovertystudy/

The brief is available at: http://www.devinfolive.info/childdisparities/ChildDisparitiesWebService/stock/ReferenceDocuments/ASITHA.pdf

Source:
Fajth et al. (2012) A multidimensional response to tackling child poverty and disparities: reflections from the Global Study on Child Poverty and Disparities in Global Child Poverty and Well-being, edited by Alberto Minujin and Shailen Nandy, p. 531.

MALI
Conducting MODA with key national stakeholders

Mali's first national estimates of child deprivation rates were produced using the MODA methodology through a national process involving a wide range of key stakeholders. The study puts overlapping analysis at the core and closely examines the relationships between multidimensional deprivations and monetary poverty.

DATA NEEDS AND EXPERTISE
- *MICS (included both monetary and multidimensional indicators).*
- *Ability to organize and analyse household datasets.*
- *Ability to engage the government and CSOs in the process.*
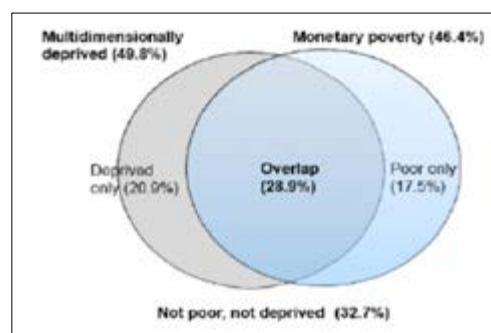
STAKEHOLDERS
- *Ministries of Planning and Finance and UNICEF conveyed a national participatory process.*
- *National Statistical Institute and other development partners participated in the technical group to decide on details of the methodology.*

For more information:
de Milliano and Handa. (2014) Child Poverty and Deprivation in Mali. UNICEF

THE APPROACH

1. **The rich dataset that existed in Mali,** especially the integrated survey allowing analysis of both monetary and multidimensional poverty, led the country to use national MODA as their child poverty measurement.

2. **At the initial phase of the process, a national workshop was held to define the age groups, dimensions and indicators.** This workshop was inclusive and participatory, involving key ministries, development actors and the National Statistical Office.

3. **Based on the consultation process, the national child deprivation rate was computed.** The calculation was made by UNICEF Innocenti, with inputs from local policymakers during two missions. The computed child poverty rate (50%) was slightly higher than the national monetary child poverty rate of 46%.

4. **The study then looked at the overlap across different dimensions.** For instance, the overlap analysis between nutrition, health and information for children aged 0–23 below shows that only 2.2% of children are deprived of information only and the rest (51%) of children who are deprived of information are also simultaneously deprived of nutrition, health, or both.

Multidimensionally deprived (49.8%) — Monetary poverty (46.4%) — Deprived only (20.9%) — Overlap (28.9%) — Poor only (17.5%) — Not poor, not deprived (32.7%)

5. **Finally, the study analysed the overlap between multidimensional deprivations and monetary poverty.** This revealed that only 58% of deprived children live in poor households. Thus, it was recommended that targeting policies should not solely rely on monetary measures as this could miss a large portion of multidimensionally deprived children.

6. **A national training programme** is planned to equip local policy makers with technical aspects of the analysis and use of data, and to develop national strategies to address child poverty, especially among the most deprived children.

BHUTAN
Creating a child multidimensional poverty index

After being one of the pioneers in constructing a national official multidimensional poverty index (MPI), Bhutan became the first country in the world to develop an official national child-specific MPI (C-MPI). This measure focuses exclusively on children and reflects the overlapping deprivations experienced by poor children.

TIMELINE
- *2010: Launch of National MPI*
- *2012: Update of National MPI*
- *2016: Launch of National C-MPI*

DATA NEEDS AND EXPERTISE
- *Household survey which covers key household and children-specific deprivations.*
- *Expertise in managing large household datasets.*
- *Technical capacity to develop and compute a multidimensional poverty index.*
- *Ability to engage different stakeholders in the process.*

STAKEHOLDERS
- *Bhutan's National Statistics Bureau*
- *UNICEF Bhutan*
- *National Commission of Women and Children*
- *Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative*

THE APPROACH

1. **Bhutan developed a child-specific MPI to illustrate how such a measure can inform public policy targeting children and to catalyse more regular collection of the data required to assess child poverty in all its dimensions.** The study used the Bhutan Multiple Indicators Survey (BMIS 2010), a customized version of UNICEF's Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey. There are more recent datasets, but these include very little information on the particular deprivations of children. This study highlights the need to include in future household surveys a set of indicators that are more appropriate for a measure of poverty covering children at every stage throughout childhood (0–17 years).

2. Taking the individual child as its unit of identification, the C-MPI retains the three dimensions used in Bhutan's national MPI (health, education, and living standards), and adds a fourth dimension, childhood conditions, focused on children's specific needs. **This measure permits meaningful decompositions by age cohort and gender, and also permits an analysis of intra-household patterns of deprivations.**

3. One of the main challenges of creating an individual child poverty measure is to develop indicators with age-specific specifications, to capture relatively comparable deprivations across different age cohorts within childhood. In the case of Bhutan's C-MPI, the two indicators focused exclusively on how the child's own achievements, namely cognitive skills and childhood conditions, have different specifications for children in different age groups. For instance, the childhood conditions of children aged 0–4 are assessed based on malnutrition, while the childhood conditions of children 5–14 are based on child labour. In early childhood, intellectual stimulation, evidence of play, and adequate care are considered as investments in cognitive skills, akin to schooling in the later cohorts.

4. **Bhutan's National Statistics Bureau used this multidimensional framework** to investigate the inequality in the incidence of the different types of child deprivations across age, gender, as well as urban and rural areas, districts, household types, and wealth quintiles.

5. **The development of the C-MPI was accompanied by a rich portfolio of qualitative interviews with children living in poverty.** Interviews uncovered children's own views. The findings of this study will be published together with the quantitative analysis of the C-MPI, to provide a groundbreaking study that will also inform the development of the next C-MPI in Bhutan.

For more information:
Alire, S., et al. (2016) Child Poverty in Bhutan: Insights from Multidimensional Child Poverty Index and Qualitative Interviews with Poor Children. National Statistics Bureau.

MEXICO

Creating a national index to measure multidimensional poverty

Mexico became the first country in the world to officially adopt a multidimensional poverty methodology which is directly linked to the policy process. This methodology is the result of a thorough research process where national and international experts provided important contributions. It created a unique opportunity to link the programme's design and implementation with their social policy objectives. Mexico's example also demonstrates how engaging with a national poverty index, and not one focused exclusively on children, can have significant impacts in reducing child poverty.

TIMELINE
- *Eight years from first conception to poverty measure being the official measure.*
- *One year to develop the multidimensional index.*

DATA NEEDS AND EXPERTISE
- *Household survey which covers key deprivations and consumption (spending).*
- *Expertise in managing large household datasets.*
- *Knowledge of global approaches to multidimensional poverty.*

STAKEHOLDERS
- *High level government stakeholders (Presidency, Ministry of Social Development, Ministry of Finance, other ministries).*
- *Independent statistical body.*
- *6 out of 10 members of the CONEVAL Board are independent academic researchers.*
- *International and national experts.*

THE APPROACH

1. **Multidimensional poverty measurement is mandated by law.** Mexico's Congress approved the General Law for Social Development which established an independent Council for the Evaluation of Social Development Policy (CONEVAL) in 2004. CONEVAL was given technical and administrative autonomy to undertake two major tasks: firstly, to design the multidimensional poverty methodology that combines economic well-being and social rights, and secondly, to regulate and undertake the evaluation of social policies.

2. **In 2009, the government adopted a multidimensional poverty measure that incorporates indicators of income (current per capita income), social deprivations and the degree of social cohesion.** The social deprivation index measures six social rights guaranteed by the National Constitution, namely: educational attainment, access to healthcare, access to social security, housing, quality of living spaces, and food security. A person is multidimensionally poor if he/she is deprived in one or more social rights and their income is lower than the estimated cost to cover their basic needs (Economic Wellbeing Line). A person is extremely poor if they are deprived in three or more social rights and also living under a total income that affords a basic food basket (Minimum Wellbeing Line). The indicators for social cohesion (reported separately) are economic inequality, social polarization, social networks and income ratio.

CONEVAL | Poverty identification
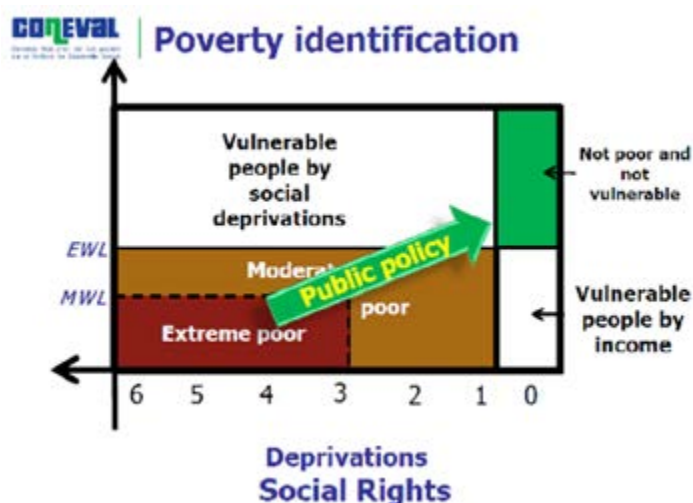
While the index is not exclusively focused on child poverty, it covers critical dimensions of child deprivation. These include child specific components such as educational attainment, and as well as deprivations that are shared with other family members such as housing and food security. This highlights that effective general approaches to poverty reduction, not just child specific ones, can have significant impacts on child poverty.

3. **Routine measurement of multidimensional poverty at state and municipal level.** The same law also makes it mandatory to measure poverty routinely every two years at the national and state level and every five years at the municipal level. The results have been presented in a colour-coded map on CONEVAL's website, making it accessible to the public in an intuitive manner.

4. **Mexico's multidimensional poverty measurement has played a critical role in developing social protection strategies to address dimensions that were lagging behind.** The national conditional cash transfer programme Prospera (previously Oportunidades) lowered the age requirement to include children under nine years of age in their social transfer scheme. During 2010–2012, increases in the share of population lacking access to food led to the launch of the National Crusade Against Hunger. Likewise, the increased deprivation in access to social security motivated the Federal Government to provide a social safety net through pensions for the elderly not covered by existing, employment-related schemes.

5. **CONEVAL and UNICEF have jointly produced estimates of child poverty to bring attention to the situation of children and child-focused policy responses.** During 2010–2014, the child poverty rate (53.9%) was significantly higher than the national poverty rate (46.2%). The full reports have had a wide impact in national media, civil society, and government publication on social programmes. They have also opened an ongoing discussion about how child poverty can be included in the new social development targeting framework. The child poverty rates are planned to be updated every two years.

For more information:

The CONEVAL website gives full details on the methodology and results.

CONEVAL and UNICEF (2013) Pobreza y derechos sociales de niñas, niños y adolescentes en México, 2010-2012, www.unicef.org/
mexico/spanish/UN_BriefPobreza_web.pdf

CONEVAL and UNICEF (2014) Niñez y adolescencia, especialmente la indígena, las más afectadas por la pobreza en México', www.unicef.
org/mexico/spanish/PR_UNICEFCONEVAL_abril2014final.pdf

CONEVAL and UNICEF (2015) Pobreza y derechos sociales de niñas, niños y adolescentes en México, 2014. http://www.unicef.org/
mexico/spanish/MX_Pobreza_derechos.pdf

Sources:
OPHI Measuring Multidimensional Poverty: Insights from Around the World

EYGPT

Capturing child poverty in urban slums

In Egypt, a specific survey focusing on households living in urban slums was conducted to complement the national household survey and shed light on the poor living conditions in the cities affecting over 10 million children.

TIMELINE
Two years from initiating the project to the release of publication.

DATA NEEDS AND EXPERTISE
- *Household survey targeting urban slums.*
- *Familiarity with the urban slum setting.*
- *Ability to compute child deprivation rate from household surveys.*

STAKEHOLDERS
- *Central Agency for Public Mobilisation and Statistics (CAPMAS*
- *Ministry of Urban Renewal and Informal Settlements*
- *Informal Settlements Development Facility (ISDF)*
- *National Council for Childhood and Motherhood*
- *Ministry of Social Solidarity*
- *Ministry of Finance*

THE APPROACH

1. Around 13 million children were estimated to be living in urban areas in Egypt in 2012. While, on average, poverty among families with children living in urban areas is lower than in rural areas, widening disparities within urban settings pointed to the existence of substantial pockets of poverty that were hidden in existing national surveys.

2. To fill the knowledge gap on child poverty in urban slums and unplanned areas, UNICEF and the Informal Settlements Development Facility (ISDF) of the Egyptian Government conducted a household survey, which included a community questionnaire in selected urban slums and unplanned areas in four major Egyptian cities. The survey design drew from previous research undertaken through the multidimensional child poverty reports conducted as part of the Global Study on child poverty and disparities but also incorporated measures of income poverty.

3. The study found that child poverty in urban slum areas were high, in some cases reaching or exceeding that of rural areas. For example, the monetary poverty rate in selected slums (42 per cent) was almost 10 percentage points higher than the rural average of 33 per cent and 16 percentage points higher than the national average of 26 per cent. In addition, more than half of children living in slums were multidimensionally poor, experienced severe deprivation in more than one key dimension of well-being, especially those related to housing and access to water and sanitation, as well as nutrition and education.

4. Based on the findings, the report also developed concrete integrated policy recommendations to address child poverty in urban slums and unplanned areas, with a focus on interventions such as ensuring access to social protection interventions to address deprivations identified, integrating them with housing and infrastructure interventions, education, health, child protection and recreation for children.

5. The launch of the report, with the Ministry of Urban Renewal and Informal Settlements generated policy dialogue with ministries, governorates and local NGOs, and stimulated the discussion for a national strategy to address child poverty in urban areas.

Source:
UNICEF (2013) Multidimensional child poverty in slums and unplanned areas in Egypt.

1. Building a national pathway to end child poverty

2. Measuring child poverty

3. Putting child poverty on the map: child poverty advocacy

4. Reducing child poverty through policy and programme change

5. Ending extreme child poverty and halving it by national definitions

Conclusion

Routinely measuring child poverty is the foundation to understanding, communicating and ending child poverty. Subsequent milestones look at how child poverty data can be analysed and brought to life. It's important to note that in many contexts this analysis is done at the same time as measurement is undertaken. These steps include:

Advocating around child poverty data and building a child poverty profile (Milestone 3). Child poverty data is at the heart of advocacy on child poverty, and Milestone 3 looks at key ways child poverty data can be used to highlight the situation of children in poverty and the aspects of their lives that are most affected.

Understanding the causes of child poverty as a basis of influencing policies and programmes (Milestone 4). To know how to address child poverty, it is important to know not only the child poverty profile of a country but also the causes of child poverty. These may range, for example, from discrimination to insufficient funding of services.

Monitoring child poverty targets through appropriate national and international mechanisms (Milestone 5). Ultimately child poverty data should be used to track and respond to progress (or the lack of it) through national mechanisms, which may vary from national poverty commissions to child poverty action plans, as well as international reporting for the SDGs.

MILESTONE 2 CHECKLIST: INDICATORS OF SUCCESS

- √ Agreement on national approach to measuring child poverty, including for SDG reporting.
- √ Child poverty rate and key disaggregations calculated.
- √ Key actors engaged, and national ownership and publication of data.
- √ Agreement to routinize measurement as relevant surveys are produced.