

OPHI and UNDP Regional MPI Brief

Leaving no one behind:
Asia and the Pacific Region 2021

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Acknowledgements

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Introduction

Across pre-pandemic Asia and the Pacific Region (APR), there was an improvement in the poverty levels of those who are poor according to the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI), but there are many still left behind.

Key findings

LEVELS

- Across 21 countries and 3.9 billion people with global MPI data in the APR region, around 640 million were MPI poor according to the latest pre-pandemic datasets.
- Among the MPI poor, 530 million live in South Asia and just over 110 million in East Asia and the Pacific, the two subregions of the APR.
- About 29 percent of the population in the APR are children aged 0–17, but unfortunately 43 percent of poor people – 278 million – are children.
- Multidimensional poverty incidence varies greatly at the subnational level – from less than 1 percent in Bangkok (Thailand) to over 95 percent in Urozgan (Afghanistan).

TRENDS

- Data on trends for 14 countries with over 3.8 billion people are included in this analysis, and 13 of them have seen significant reductions in MPI.
- Timor-Leste and Lao PDR reduced MPI the fastest.
- In all countries, except Viet Nam, multidimensional poverty for children reduced as fast or faster than adults.
- Among indicators, cooking fuel and electricity often had the fastest reductions.
- India had the largest reduction in the number of poor persons – over 270 million in a decade.
- Severe poverty incidence reduced faster than MPI incidence in Afghanistan in absolute terms, while all 14 countries reduced the severe poverty headcount ratio faster than the MPI headcount ratio in relative terms.
- In six countries, the poorest subnational region reduced MPI the fastest.
- For 9 of the 14 countries, reductions in MPI were mostly pro-poor, in that the poorest subnational regions tended to reduce MPI the fastest.

Leaving no one behind

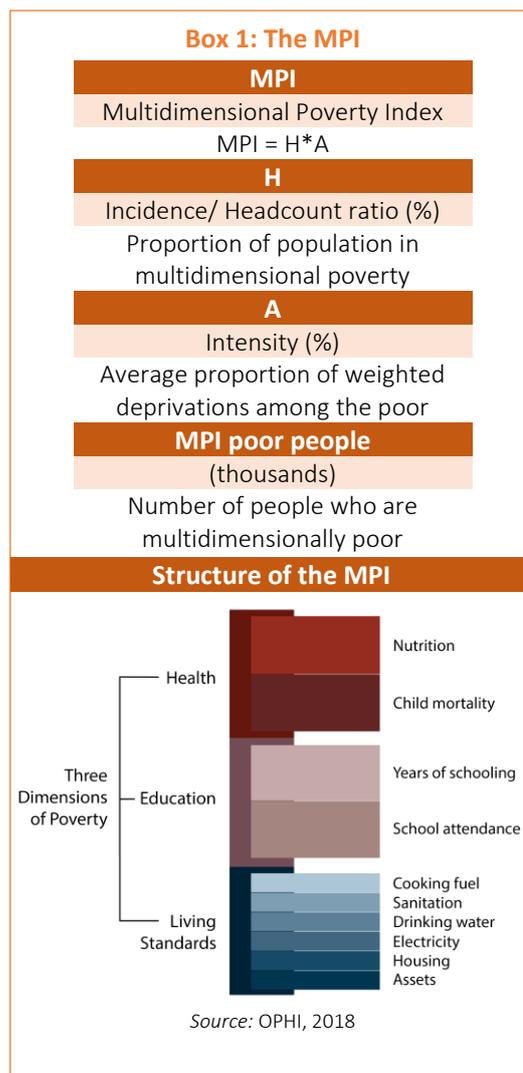
At the heart of the first Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) – ‘to end poverty in all its forms everywhere’ – is the pledge to *leave no one behind*. Those who are deprived and are considered multidimensionally poor are being left behind.¹ As stated in the preamble of Agenda 2030, the aim is ‘to reach the furthest left behind.’² Leaving no one behind means untangling the burden of interlinked deprivations that strike the same people at the same time, and reducing poverty fastest where it is highest.

The global MPI provides a tool to identify those who are left behind, to see how they are left behind and where they live. Its trends show where poverty reduced the fastest, and how those who had been left behind moved out of poverty. The MPI is a measure of poverty that reflects deprivations in 10 indicators across three dimensions: health, education and living standards (Box 1). A person is identified as multidimensionally poor if they are deprived in at least one third (33 percent) of the 10 weighted indicators.³ The MPI is the product of the incidence (percentage of poor people) and the intensity of poverty (average percentage of weighted deprivations poor people experience). Due to this structure, MPI trends provide a single headline that indicates how multidimensional poverty has decreased and whether the poorest countries and subnational groups have reduced poverty the fastest.

This document first provides a briefing on multidimensional poverty in the APR to highlight key information about those who are left behind in multiple and overlapping ways. The global MPI data 2021 used for this analysis includes 21 countries in the APR, eight of which are located in South Asia (SA), and 13 in East Asia and the Pacific (EAP).⁴

It then analyses how the MPI trends across 14 countries in the APR – five in SA and nine in EAP.⁵ At a national level, every country except Viet Nam reduced MPI statistically significantly. If and how people are left behind over time in the APR is identified in two ways. First, changes of multidimensional poverty provide a clear picture of who are left behind and how, *among the general population*. Secondly, the poorest persons and groups within the multidimensionally poor are tracked to see whether they are catching up, rather than still being left behind.

It is a sad fact that the data used in this analysis were all collected prior to the COVID-19 pandemic which has changed the course of poverty and its reduction. Indeed, seven countries have data fielded in part in 2018 or 2019, 10 have data fielded 2015–2017, and four use 2010–2014 data. Our hope is that the analysis here nonetheless presents relevant patterns using these data, and templates for analysis that can be updated when post-pandemic data are available.



¹ United Nations, *Global Sustainable Development Report 2019*, 48.

² United Nations, ‘Transforming Our World: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development’.

³ Alkire and Kanagaratnam, ‘Global Multidimensional Poverty Index 2018: The Most Detailed Picture to Date of the World’s Poorest People’.

⁴ The analysis uses the global MPI 2021 data published by Alkire, Kanagaratnam and Suppa (2021). Countries included are: In SA: Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka; In EAP: Cambodia, China, Indonesia, Kiribati, Lao PDR, Mongolia, Myanmar, Papua New Guinea, Philippines, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Tonga, Viet Nam.

⁵ Table 6 and the trends analysis 2021 published by Alkire, Kanagaratnam and Suppa (2021). In SA: Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Pakistan; In EAP: Cambodia, China, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Mongolia, Philippines, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Viet Nam.

Thanks to the MPI method, there is a wealth of information and data available. We differentiate pro-poor trends according to countries, subnational regions and age groups, and also examine indicator patterns of reduction and trends among the subset of poor people who experience ‘severe’ poverty.⁶

A core component of this analysis are the graphics showing the initial level of MPI and its rate of reduction across subnational regions of a country. A pro-poor trend can be identified if the poorest regions tend to have experienced the fastest reductions. Here the fastest reductions are evaluated using the absolute annualized change (please see Box 2).

Multidimensional poverty levels in the APR region

The APR covers roughly two thirds of the population covered by the global MPI (3.9 billion out of 5.9 billion), and houses roughly half of MPI poor people in the world (640 million out of 1.3 billion).⁷ The great majority of these people, 530 million, live in South Asia, whilst around 110 million are in East Asia and the Pacific. The 640 million multidimensionally poor people in the APR experience an intensity of 44.7 percent, so are deprived in two health or education indicators and two living standard indicators (or one health/education indicator and five living standard indicators) on average. Multidimensional poverty levels vary widely across the APR countries.

Table 1 presents multidimensional poverty levels of MPI, incidence and intensity by country, as well as severe poverty and number of poor. In nine countries, the incidence of poverty is below 10 percent, including the Maldives and China. Despite a low incidence of poverty (3.9 percent), and an older dataset (2014), China at that time was home to 56 million multidimensionally poor people. The highest number of poor people (over 380 million) live in India (2015/16 – again an older dataset), while in Tonga (2019) approximately 1,000 people are MPI poor.

Table 1: Overview of multidimensional poverty

Country	Region	Survey year	MPI	H (%)	A (%)	Severe poverty (%)	MPI poor (thousands)
	APR		0.074	16.5	44.7	5.3	642,947
	EAP		0.023	5.4	42.5	1.0	111,232
	SA		0.131	29.0	45.2	18.3	531,715
Afghanistan	SA	2015/16	0.272	55.9	48.6	24.9	21,269
Papua New Guinea	EAP	2016/18	0.263	56.6	46.5	25.8	4,970
Timor-Leste	EAP	2016	0.222	48.3	45.9	17.4	624
Pakistan	SA	2017/18	0.198	38.3	51.7	21.5	83,014
Myanmar	EAP	2015/16	0.176	38.3	45.9	13.8	20,708
Bhutan	SA	2010	0.175	37.3	46.8	14.7	285
Cambodia	EAP	2014	0.170	37.2	45.8	13.2	6,131
India	SA	2015/16	0.123	27.9	43.9	8.8	381,336
Lao PDR	EAP	2017	0.108	23.1	47.0	9.6	1,654
Bangladesh	SA	2019	0.104	24.6	42.2	6.5	40,176
Kiribati	EAP	2018/19	0.080	19.8	40.5	3.5	23
Nepal	SA	2019	0.074	17.5	42.5	4.9	5,008
Mongolia	EAP	2018	0.028	7.3	38.8	0.8	234
Philippines	EAP	2017	0.024	5.8	41.8	1.3	6,266
Viet Nam	EAP	2013/14	0.019	4.9	39.5	0.7	4,722
China	EAP	2014	0.016	3.9	41.4	0.3	55,703

⁶ The incidence of severe poverty measures the percentage of the population with a deprivation score of 50 percent or more.

⁷ Population figures from 2019 were used to compute this and all population figures in this briefing.

Box 2

MEASURES OF CHANGE

Absolute change

(Annualized)

The difference in a poverty measure between two years, divided by the number of years between surveys.

Population change

(Total number)

The total reduction in number of MPI poor people between the two survey years.

Indonesia	EAP	2017	0.014	3.6	38.7	0.4	9,794
Sri Lanka	SA	2016	0.011	2.9	38.3	0.3	623
Tonga	EAP	2019	0.003	0.9	38.1	0.0	1
Maldives	SA	2016/17	0.003	0.8	34.4	0.0	4
Thailand	EAP	2019	0.002	0.6	36.7	0.0	402

Source: Alkire, Kanagaratnam and Suppa (2021) with additional computations by the authors.

To illuminate how and where people are being left behind, the MPI is broken down by indicator and disaggregated by subnational region or age group. In some circumstances, this provides useful information for designing the appropriate focus, direction and content of policy and programmes for those left behind.

A closer look at multidimensional poverty by age group reveals a rather distressing picture. The highest incidence of poverty is experienced by the youngest: children aged 0 to 9 years. In SA, 42.0 percent of all children or 152 million children aged 0 to 9 years, are multidimensionally poor; in EAP, it is 9.6 percent, i.e., 24 million children. For the APR, while 29.1 percent of the population are children (aged 0 to 17 years), 43.2 percent of the poor persons are children. In terms of numbers, there are 365 million poor adults and 278 million multidimensionally poor children. Between regions, the incidence of poverty among children aged 0 to 17 is higher than adults in both regions, although rates are considerably higher in SA than EAP (36.1 percent vs. 25.0 percent for children vs. adults in SA, and 8.2 percent vs. 4.5 percent, in EAP).

At the subnational level,⁸ as is visible in Figure 1, the disparity across the APR is great, ranging from Bangkok (Thailand) where less than 1 percent of people are poor, to Urozgan (Afghanistan) where more than 95 percent of people are poor. Pockets of poverty within countries are evident. For example, Indonesia's national poverty incidence is 3.6 percent, and almost all subnational regions have an incidence of poverty below 10 percent, but in two regions, East Nusa Tenggara and Papua, 16.1 percent and 17.9 percent of the population are multidimensionally poor. In Lao PDR's subnational region of Saravane, almost half of the population is multidimensionally poor (48.8 percent) in contrast to the national incidence of 23.1 percent.

Table 2 shows the distribution of regions across incidence bands. In 69 subnational regions in the APR, more than half (50 percent) of the population is multidimensionally poor. They are home to 148 million poor people – nearly one-quarter of all multidimensionally poor people in the APR – and are located in 8 of the 20 countries having subnational data.⁹ The incidence in these 69 high poverty subnational regions reaches a high of 95.1 percent in Urozgan, Afghanistan. Almost another quarter of the multidimensionally poor people (24 percent), 156 million people, live in 31 subnational regions within 8 countries, having an incidence of 40–49 percent.¹⁰ Yet the sheer mass of multidimensionally poor living in regions with lower poverty incidence cannot be ignored. A total of 159 million poor people – a quarter of the multidimensionally poor – live in 122 subnational regions where MPI incidence levels are less than 20 percent. In these subnational regions, there could be some pockets where the poverty incidence is higher, and they may be overlooked and left behind.

Table 2: Categorization of subnational regions according to levels of MPI Incidence

MPI incidence	50%+	40–49.9%	30–39.9%	20–9.9%	Less than 20%
# of regions	69	31	28	36	122
# of people	148 million	156 million	83 million	97 million	159 million
% of all MPI poor	23%	24%	13%	15%	25%

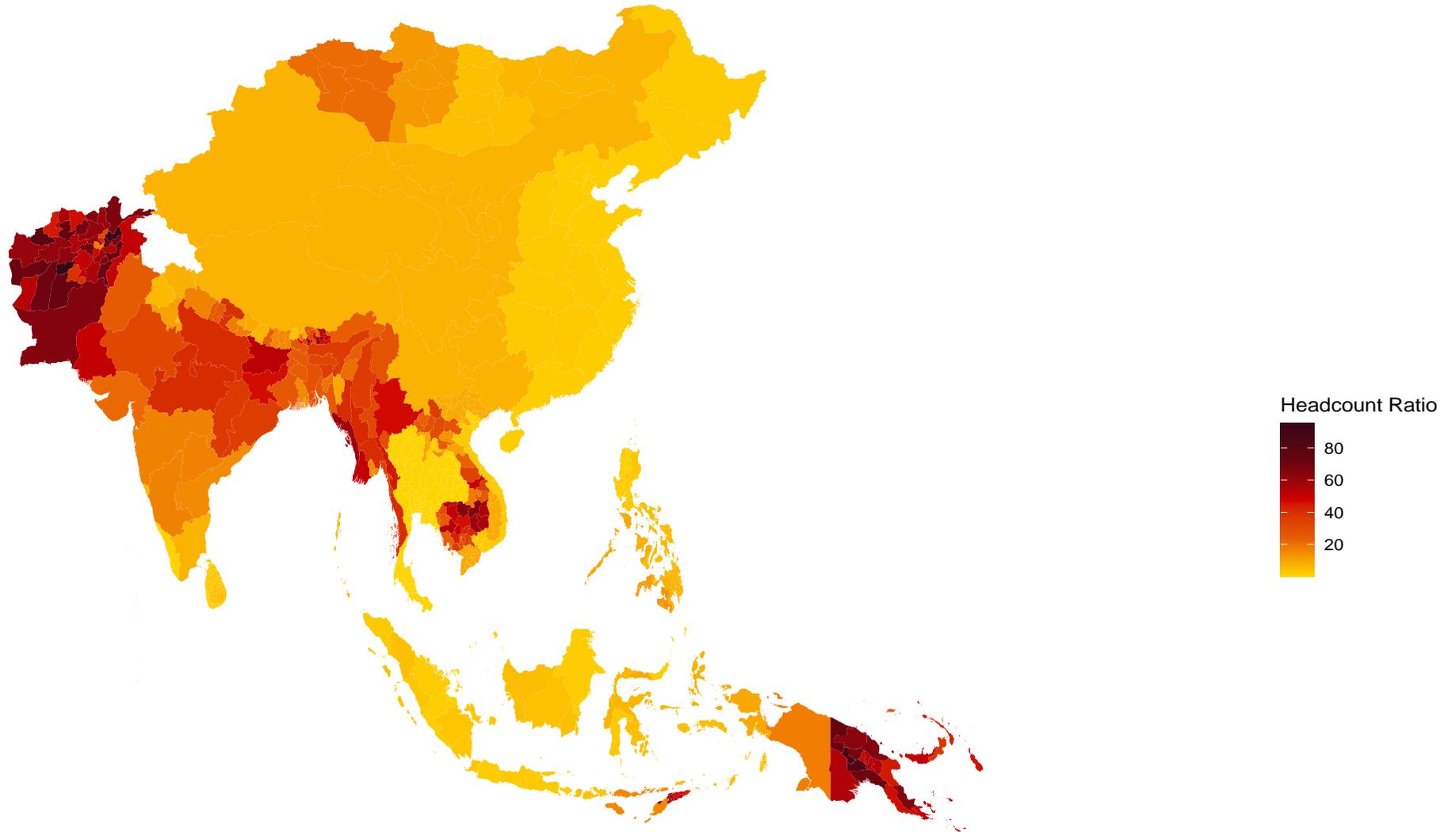
Source: Authors' computations based on Alkire, Kanagaratnam and Suppa (2021).

⁸ All except the Maldives.

⁹ Afghanistan 2015/2016 (27 subnational regions), Papua New Guinea 2016/2018 (14), Bhutan 2010 (7), Cambodia 2014 (6), Timor-Leste 2016 (8), Pakistan 2017/2018 (4), Myanmar 2015/2016 (2), India 2015/2016 (1).

¹⁰ Myanmar 2015/2016 (6 subnational regions), Papua New Guinea 2016/2018 (5), Timor-Leste 2016 (4), Afghanistan 2015/2016 (4), Bhutan 2010 (4), Cambodia 2014 (4), India 2015/2016 (3), Lao PDR (1).

Figure 1: Map of MPI incidence (%) by subnational region in the APR



Source: Fortacz using data published by Alkire, S., Kanagaratnam, U. and Suppa, N. (2021). ‘The Global Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) 2021’, OPHI MPI Methodological Notes 51, Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative, University of Oxford. For the underlying shp-file, data from GADM was used, <https://gadm.org/index.html>, accessed 7 March 2022.

Note: The map does not include Kiribati as it was not possible to display it due to its size and distance from the rest of the APR. Due to some GADM restrictions, it was not possible to present the subnational region Mymensingh in Bangladesh separately. Instead, the geographical region of Dhaka and Mymensingh are displayed jointly and reflect the average headcount ratio for these two subnational regions. Furthermore, the current version does not reflect the exact outline of Nepal’s seven provinces and based on the the GADM administrative map available, some borders are slightly distorted. For the Maldives, no GADM subnational data was available which is why the country’s headcount ratio was used.

Multidimensional poverty trends in the APR region

The aim of leaving no one behind is to see the fastest reduction in poverty for those worst off in order to ensure that their poverty levels are alleviated. For 14 countries, and 3.6 billion people¹¹ we are able to ascertain how poverty has been reduced over a period of 3.5 to 10 years depending on the country data. For this, two survey rounds for each country are used to calculate the absolute annualized change in multidimensional poverty.

Overall, considerable progress has been made: All APR countries experienced multidimensional poverty reduction. In 13 countries, the poverty reduction was statistically significant at a 95 percent confidence level.¹² In SA, where there are the greatest number of people, around 270 million exited poverty over a decade in India. In the EAP, more than 70 million people moved out of poverty in China in a mere four years, and in no country did the number of poor people rise due to population growth. China, India and Indonesia halved or came close to halving their MPI in 4, 10 and 5 years respectively. Nine out of 14 countries had significant reductions in intensity.¹³ Among children, usually the poorest, poverty reduced as fast or faster than adults. This means that multidimensional poverty overall was reduced.

MPI: As Figure 2 shows, across the APR, poorer countries tended to reduce poverty faster, a common finding when looking at absolute changes in multidimensional poverty. Taking a closer look, the countries with the highest MPI in the first round were Afghanistan with an MPI of 0.439 in 2010/11 and Timor-Leste with an MPI of 0.362 in 2009/10. Each reduced multidimensional poverty the fastest within their subregion in annualized terms. In EAP, Timor-Leste (-0.023) was followed by Lao PDR (-0.018), while in SA, Afghanistan (-0.017) and India (-0.016), led the way in reducing multidimensional poverty the fastest. Thus, while further progress in some countries is urgently needed, there is an overall pro-poor trend across APR on a national level. Figure 2 also shows the indicator composition of MPI in the second period to show how the poverty experienced differs from country to country.¹⁴

Incidence (H): In terms of intensity, Timor-Leste was able to achieve the fastest absolute annualized reduction in APR of -3.5, followed by Lao PDR with -3.1 and Bangladesh, India and Nepal with -2.7 each.

Intensity (A): Bangladesh, Lao PDR and Timor-Leste reduced their intensity levels the fastest with an annualized reduction of -0.9.

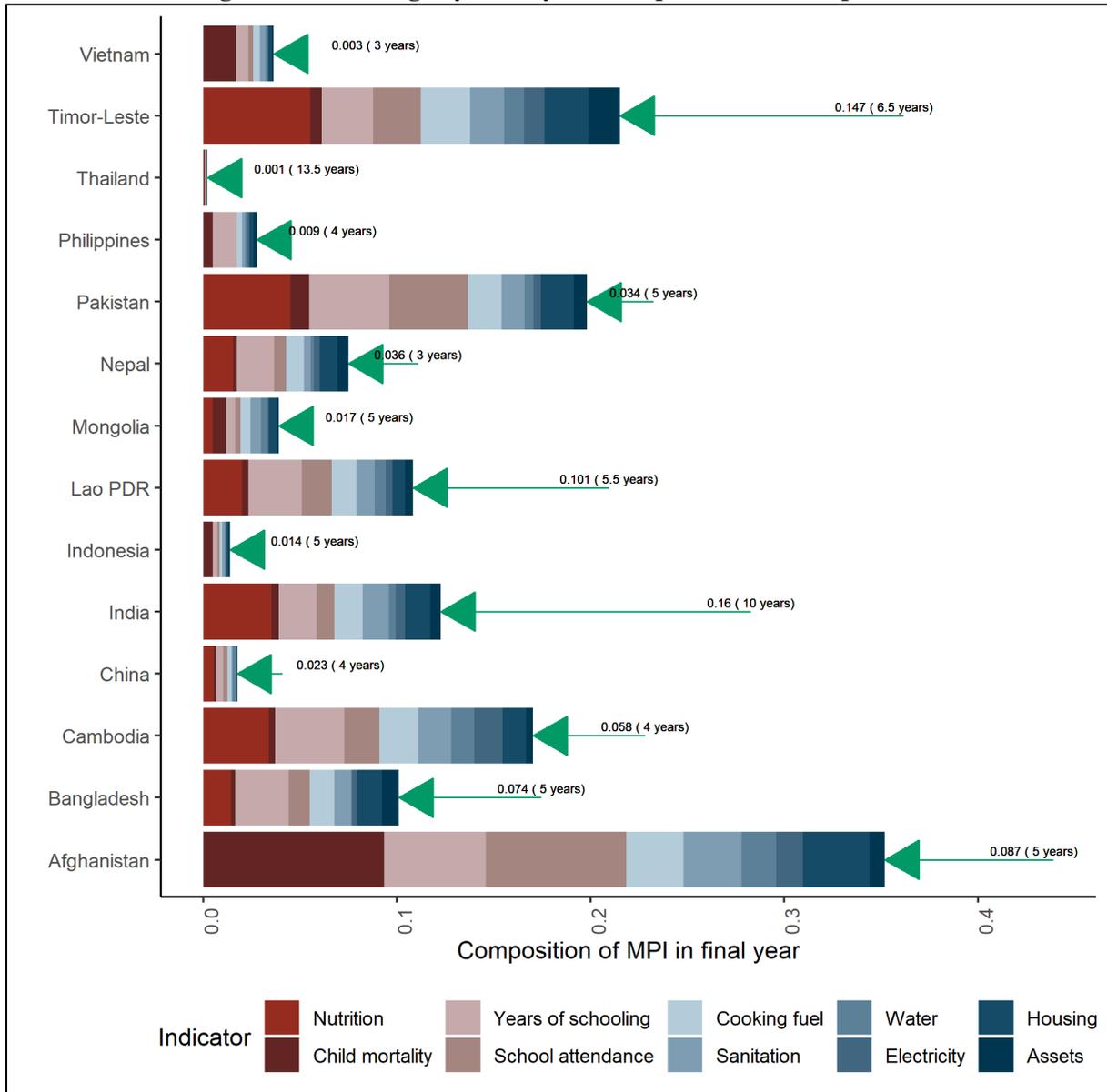
¹¹ This is based on each country's population figures of the second survey round.

¹² Please note that unless otherwise indicated, statistical significance refers to a significance at 95% and above.

¹³ China, Nepal, Pakistan and Viet Nam did not have a statistically significant reduction. Thailand has a significant reduction at 90%.

¹⁴ Note that the definition of child mortality that could be created in some datasets including Afghanistan lacks information on whether the death of the child occurred in the last five years or more, and this accounts for the visibly higher contribution of child mortality in some countries.

Figure 2: MPI change by country and composition in latest period



Source: Authors' computations based on Alkire, Kanagaratnam and Suppa (2021).

Severity

The headcount ratio of severe poverty is a measure that reflects the proportion of the population who are deprived in at least 50 percent of all MPI indicators. It thus reflects those worst off among the poor. Trends can show if poverty reduction patterns favoured the poor with lower deprivations scores or reached the severely poor. Anyone who is deprived in at least one third of the weighted indicators is identified as MPI poor.

Across the APR, the countries with the highest proportion of people in severe poverty, Afghanistan (50.6 percent) in SA and Timor-Leste (39.0 percent) in EAP, were also the two countries that had the fastest annualized reduction in SA and EAP respectively. While other trends tended to be fastest for poorer countries, an outlier is Pakistan, which had the smallest reduction among the South Asian countries despite having higher severe poverty levels (25.5 percent) than, for example, Nepal (19.4 percent) or Bangladesh (13.5 percent).

Box 3

Severe poverty

Headcount ratio (%)

Proportion of population who have a deprivation score of 50% or more

Another way of examining trends is to compare the reduction of those who are deprived in one third or more of the dimensions (MPI poor), and those who are in severe poverty – deprived in one half or more. In absolute terms, only Afghanistan had a faster reduction in the incidence of severity than in the incidence of MPI. What that means in practice is that a higher proportion of people who were deprived in 50 percent or more of the (weighted) indicators ‘graduated’ compared to those who were deprived in one third or more of the (weighted) indicators.

One can also compare the trends in multidimensional poverty and severe poverty by looking at the relative changes in poverty levels. If the reduction of severe poverty, relative to its starting level (relative annualized reduction) is faster than the corresponding reduction of MPI, it means that a greater proportion of severely poor persons exited that condition. In all 14 APR countries, the relative reduction of severe poverty was faster than that of MPI – again, a positive development.

Furthermore, at the subnational level, eight countries¹⁵ have at least one subnational region with an intensity of at least 50 percent. In fact, a third of all subnational regions in these eight countries (57 out of 174) have an intensity of 50 percent or more. All subnational regions with an intensity of over 50 percent in the initial period experienced a reduction of intensity, except for Zamboanga Peninsula in the Philippines. In two countries, Bangladesh and Timor-Leste, the subnational regions with the highest levels of intensity also had the highest absolute annualized reduction rate in their respective countries. In Lao PDR and Pakistan, these regions had the second highest reduction rate, and in Cambodia and India the third highest intensity reduction. In a majority of countries, reduction rates tended to be higher for subnational regions with higher intensity levels.

Deprivations

The only way to reduce MPI is to reduce any deprivation of a poor person in any indicator. How poverty went down is tracked using the censored headcount ratio of each indicator.¹⁶ As Table 4 shows, reductions in deprivation were commonly the fastest in cooking fuel and electricity. Sanitation, assets, nutrition, drinking water and housing also had the fastest reductions in a few countries, while in Thailand it was years of schooling and school attendance. Table 4 also shows that six countries had a statistically significant reduction in all indicators.¹⁷ Nepal, Pakistan, Thailand and Viet Nam reduced the levels of deprivation in the fewest number of indicators.

Table 3: Intensity 50%+ Subnational Pro-Poor Trends

Country		# of regions where intensity $\geq 50\%$ /total regions	Poorest region reduced intensity the fastest (x) or 2 nd or 3 rd fastest	General Trend ^b
Afghanistan	SA	8/8	-	-
Timor-Leste	EAP	8/13	x	x
Pakistan	EAP	3/5	2 nd	-
Lao PDR	EAP	10/17	2 nd	x*
Philippines	EAP	10/17	-	-
India	SA	12/29	3 rd	x
Cambodia	SA	5/19	3 rd	-
Bangladesh	SA	1/7	x	x

Note: ^a A pro-poor trend is indicated if the more deprived subnational regions reduced faster. ^(*) indicates that there is not a clear trend, but subnational regions are very scattered. (-) indicates that there was no pro-poor trend.

Box 4

Censored Headcount Ratio of an MPI Indicator (%)

Proportion of the population who are MPI poor and experience deprivations in that indicator

¹⁵ Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Lao PDR, Pakistan, the Philippines and Timor-Leste.

¹⁶ Please note that some countries have missing indicators: Information on nutrition is missing in Afghanistan, Indonesia, the Philippines and Viet Nam; housing in China and school attendance in the Philippines.

¹⁷ Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Philippines and Timor-Leste.

Table 4: Reduction of indicators by country (censored headcount ratios)

Country	Missing indicator	# of indicators with significant reductions	Fastest reduction*	Second fastest*
Afghanistan	Nutrition	8/9	Electricity	Cooking fuel
Bangladesh		10/10	Electricity	Cooking fuel
Cambodia		9/10	Electricity	Sanitation
China	Housing	7/9	Cooking fuel	Drinking water
India		10/10	Assets	Cooking fuel
Indonesia	Nutrition	9/9	Cooking fuel	Sanitation
Lao PDR		10/10	Cooking fuel	Electricity
Mongolia		9/10	Electricity	Sanitation
Nepal		6/10	Sanitation	Cooking fuel
Pakistan		6/10	Sanitation	Cooking fuel
Philippines	Nutrition & school attendance	8/8	Cooking fuel	Electricity
Thailand		5/10	Years of schooling	School attendance
Timor-Leste		10/10	Electricity	Assets
Viet Nam	Nutrition	1/9	Assets	

Note. *The colours represent the indicator as presented in Box 1 and Table 5.

As shown in Table 5, not every country was able to reduce the proportion of people deprived in any of the 10 indicators. However, something to be celebrated is that all but one country reduced deprivations in nutrition, sanitation and housing.

Table 5: Number of countries with significant reduction in each indicator

(Out of total number of countries with data on that indicator)

Health		Education		Living Standards					
Nutrition	Child mortality	Years of schooling	School attendance	Cooking fuel	Sanitation	Drinking water	Electricity	Housing	Assets
9/10	12/14	12/14	6/13	12/14	13/14	10/14	10/14	12/13	12/14

Subnational regions

Data on trends are available for 174 subnational regions across 14 countries in the APR. In 114 of these subnational regions, a statistically significant reduction in multidimensional poverty has been achieved.

However, the question remains whether these changes were pro-poor. In a narrow sense, it can first be observed if the very poorest region of each country achieved the fastest reduction. On the subnational level, pro-poor trends occur if the MPI poorer subnational regions in the first period generally tended to achieve greater absolute reductions than less poor regions.

Figure 3 includes charts for each country separately, with the poorest regions placed on the right, and those with fastest progress towards the bottom of the chart. Across the APR, the MPI poorer subnational regions often achieved higher annualized reduction rates (see Table 6 last column). Figure 3 plots all subnational regions from all countries, and one can observe that the fastest reductions in Timor-Leste, for example, were on par with absolute reductions in the poorest Indian states, which shows that less poor regions can also make very fast progress.

The poorest subnational regions in six countries were able to achieve the fastest absolute annualized reduction. This includes, for example, Sylhet in Bangladesh where the subnational MPI amounted to almost double those of other regions and which was almost halved within five years. In China, multidimensional

poverty in the Western Region was almost three times higher than in other regions but the region also halved its MPI from 0.079 to 0.036 in four years.

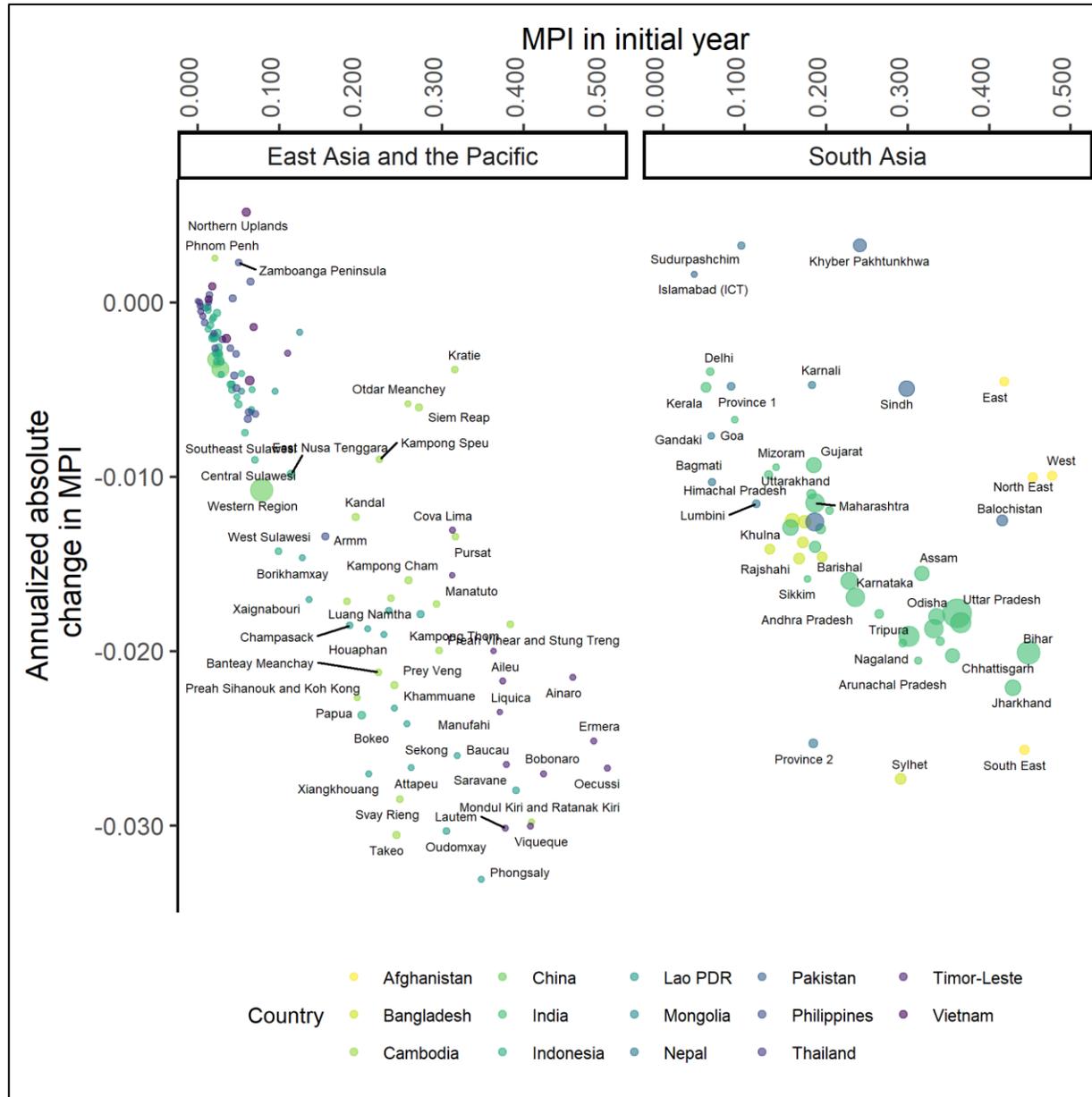
A pro-poor trend across subnational regions can be found in 9 of 14 countries (see Table 6 for an overview and Figure 4 for detail on each country), in that the poorest regions generally tended to achieve the fastest reductions. In EAP, this includes the country with some of the poorest subnational regions, namely Timor-Leste, as well as China, Indonesia and Lao PDR. In SA, for example, Bangladesh, India and Nepal show a strongly pro-poor trend on a subnational level. It is key to note that strong poverty reduction nationally does not necessarily have pro-poor regional trends. In Afghanistan, which did not have such a trend, MPI reduction still occurred in every single one of the subnational regions.

Table 6: Subnational MPI trend analysis by country

Country	Year 1	Year 2	The poorest subnational region reduced the fastest	Overall Trend ^b
Afghanistan	2010/11	2015/16	No	-
Bangladesh	2014	2019	Yes	x
Cambodia	2010	2014	No	-
China	2010	2014	Yes	x
India	2005/06	2015/16	No	x
Indonesia	2012	2017	Yes	x
Lao PDR	2011/12	2017	No	x*
Mongolia	2013	2018	No	-
Nepal	2016	2019	Yes	x*
Pakistan	2012/13	2017/18	No	-
Philippines	2013	2017	Yes	x
Thailand	2015/16	2019	Yes	x*
Timor-Leste	2009/10	2016	No	x*
Viet Nam	2010/11	2013/14	No	-

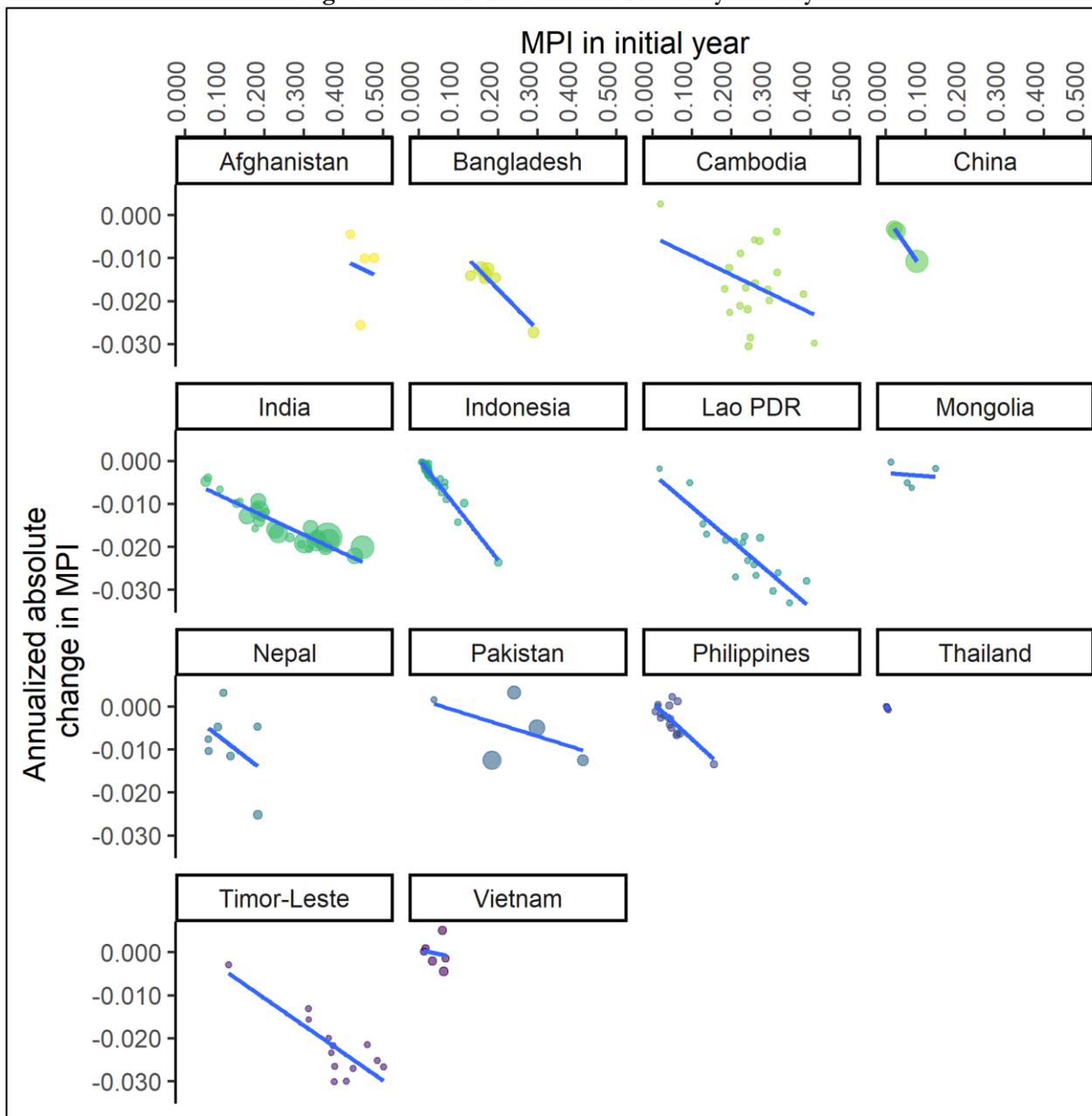
Note: (x) indicates a pro-poor trend with the fast reduction in the poorest subnational regions. (*) indicates that there is not a clear trend, but subnational regions are very scattered. (-) indicates that there was no pro-poor trend.

Figure 3: MPI trends in SA and EAP by subnational region



Source: Alkire, Kanagaratnam and Suppa (2021).

Figure 4 Subnational Pro-Poor Trends by Country



Source: Alkire, Kanagaratnam and Suppa (2021).

Conclusion

The work in the APR on multidimensional poverty is by no means new. As the many analyses in this document have shown, countries in the APR have largely been successful in reducing multidimensional poverty. Yet, significant numbers of people remain living in poverty across the region. In the context of leaving no one behind, the analyses have highlighted those who are in danger of being left behind. From children in SA to the 69 subnational regions across the APR where more than half of the population is multidimensionally poor, particular groups emerge as potential targets for poverty reduction efforts. Building on its successes, the APR could become a shining example of tackling multidimensional poverty in all its forms and dimensions.

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