



Multidimensional Poverty Index with a Focus on Women for Latin America and the Caribbean

Status of 10 countries in the region

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As part of the process of developing the proposal contained in this publication, in July 2019, UNDP LAC's Gender and Inclusive Growth Teams organized an Expert Meeting in Panama City. The purpose of this meeting- which was supported by the French Embassy in Panama- was to exchange ideas with decision-makers and poverty and gender specialists on a first proposal for measuring multidimensional poverty from a gender perspective. The valuable inputs gathered at that meeting have been incorporated into this document. We would like to thank the representatives of national institutions- especially the Unit of Analysis of Social and Economic Policies of Bolivia, the Ministry of Social Development of Chile, the National Institute for Women of Costa Rica, the Directorate-General for Statistics and the Census of El Salvador, the National Council for the Evaluation of Social Development Policy of Mexico, the Ministry of Social Development of Panama, the Ministry of Economy and Finance of Panama, the National Institute of Statistics and the Census of Panama, the National Institute of Statistics and Informatics of Peru, the Ministry of Development and Social Inclusion of Peru, the Single System of Beneficiaries of the Dominican Republic, and the Ministry of Social Development of Uruguay-, the staff of the UNDP offices in Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Mexico, Panama, and Uruguay, and the representative of the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OHPI) for their contributions.

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Foreword

Poverty is a multidimensional phenomenon that goes far beyond income. People living in poverty conditions experience simultaneous deprivations in crucial areas such as health, education, work, housing conditions and access to basic services. The combination and intensity of these deprivations are conditioned by factors such as ethnicity, age, gender, and territory, among others. Addressing these deprivations requires conceptual frameworks and multidimensional measurements that understand this complex reality and provide solid evidence for effective and inclusive public policy.

In this context, the capability approach proposed by Amartya Sen in 1985 marked a milestone in the multidimensional treatment of poverty. This perspective broadened the conceptualization of deprivation by considering constraints on people's opportunities and capabilities, transforming our perception of human development globally. In 2010, building on this foundation, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) together with the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) launched the Global Multidimensional Poverty Index (Global MPI) as part of the Human Development Report: "[The Real Wealth of Nations: Pathways to Human Development](#)." This international poverty metric, updated in 2018 and published annually, captures the severe deprivations people experience simultaneously in 110 countries in areas such as education, health and living standards. To complete this analysis, the UNDP Human Development Report includes two additional multidimensional measures: the Gender Inequality Index and the Inequality-Adjusted Human Development Index.

Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) stands out as the pioneer region in the national-level application of the Global MPI methodology to construct multidimensional poverty measurements. To date, 12 countries in the region have adopted national MPIs as official tools to guide their poverty reduction strategies and public policies. Likewise, they have continued to innovate through the development of multidimensional measurements with different approaches and foci, such as the MPI for Childhood and Adolescence in Panama, the MPI for Business in Costa Rica, or the Index of Vulnerabilities to Climate Shocks in the Dominican Republic, including novel indicators such as discrimination, participation and access to new technologies.

The launch of the MPI with a focus on women for LAC reflects UNDP's commitment to continue supporting the countries of the region in the search for effective tools and solutions to address structural barriers such as poverty and multidimensional inequalities. This proposal arises from an obvious need: women are often over-represented in households experiencing poverty and experience specific deprivations that are rarely reflected in overall poverty measures. These deprivations relate to limitations on their economic, physical, and decision-making autonomy, which have been disproportionately

exacerbated by the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic. Only through a more precise analysis of multidimensional poverty from a gender perspective will it be possible to make women's specific needs visible, identify the obstacles preventing them from escaping poverty, and formulate transformative gender policy recommendations.

I am sure this proposal will contribute to opening a necessary public dialogue on this issue, recognizing the insufficiency of available data as a first limitation. To this end, we present an analysis of a series of indicators that can be used to construct national indices and encourage the collection of new data to understand and address these realities of deprivation and inequality that women face based on local particularities.

Achieving the 2030 Agenda requires generating new public policies that stop the intergenerational transmission of poverty and improve people's quality of life. This will only be possible if we pay special attention to facets of poverty that affect women. This proposal is aligned with the UNDP Strategic Plan 2022-2025, the Regional Programme 2022-2025 and the Regional Gender Equality Strategy 2023-2025 and is addressed to government authorities, decision makers, international organizations, academia, students and civil society.

It is time to join forces and wills, and take bold and transformative steps to achieve just and inclusive societies that are committed to general equality as a prerequisite for sustainable development. To move toward higher levels of development and well-being for all, we need to address deprivation from a gender perspective. I hope the **MPI with a focus on women for LAC** will contribute decisively to promote spaces for dialogue, collaboration and consensus-building around transformative public policies that generate greater well-being for all, ensuring no one is left behind.



Michelle Muschett

Regional Director for Latin America and the Caribbean, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)

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Acronyms

- CONEVAL:** Consejo Nacional de Evaluación de la Política de Desarrollo Social (México)
ECLAC: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (CEPAL in Spanish)
HDI: Human Development Index
ICT: Information and Communication Technologies
LAC: Latin America and the Caribbean
MDGs: Millennium Development Goals
MPI: Multidimensional Poverty Index
MPPN: Multidimensional Poverty Peer Network
OPHI: Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative
SDGs: Sustainable Development Goals
UN: United Nations
UNDP: United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA: United Nations Population Fund



I. Introduction

The 2030 Agenda –which was adopted in 2015– established a roadmap for the 193 Member States of the United Nations (UN) to set priorities for inclusive sustainable development. Its 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) with 169 targets are built on the principle of “universality, integration and leaving no one behind,” with a vision of achieving sustainable development that overcomes mechanisms of poverty, exclusion and dependency. In this context, gender equality is not only enshrined in the SDGs as a stand-alone goal (SDG 5), but is also a cross-cutting element throughout all of the integrated SDGs to ensure the achievement of equality in all its dimensions.

Globally, women and girls are over-represented in poverty rates, suffer more economic vulnerabilities, and bear most of the burden of unpaid work associated with domestic and care work (UNDP 2016a) (ECLAC, 2019a).

In order to address these inequalities, evidence-based public policies are needed that consider the differentiated ways poverty affects women. To this end, it is necessary to understand the processes, dynamics and characteristics that explain how and why women are more exposed to suffering from poverty (United Nations, 2004).

In this sense, in order for States to assume the commitment of breaking down structural barriers and discriminatory practices that limit women’s full participation in social, political, and economic life, it is necessary to go beyond the analysis of women’s monetary poverty and make use of multidimensional poverty indices with a focus on women.

At a juncture such as the one generated by the pandemic, placing women and girls at the centre of public policies would achieve better development and sustainability results while expediting recovery and accelerating compliance with the Sustainable Development Goals (United Nations, 2021).

In order to prepare this document, an analysis of the region’s multidimensional poverty indices (MPIs) and the strategies adopted to integrate the gender approach was carried out. This document aims to draw attention to the need to create innovative measures that allow us to delve deeper into women’s poverty and its specificities. Only through an accurate analysis of women’s multidimensional poverty will it be possible to respond to their specific needs, identify the bottlenecks that prevent their escape from this situation and make policy recommendations with a gender perspective. This paper presents a proposal for a Multidimensional Poverty Index with a focus on women for Latin America and the Caribbean, which includes results from 10 countries: Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, and Uruguay.

The first chapter of this document is the introduction; in the second chapter, the background of this measurement is presented. The third chapter contains different strategies to integrate the gender approach in poverty measurements, alternative indicators and the availability of information. The fourth chapter describes the methodological aspects of the proposed MPI with a focus on women for the Latin American and Caribbean region; the fifth chapter analyses the results; and the sixth chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations.



II. Background

The United Nations Development Programme’s (UNDP) Strategic Plan 2022-2025 establishes UNDP’s commitment and mission to work on sustainable development based on six signature solutions for: poverty and inequality, governance, resilience, environment, energy and gender equality. In turn, these solutions are reinforced by three catalysts (digitalisation, strategic innovation and development financing). This will enable UNDP to achieve integrated development solutions in line with national priorities to promote three key directions of change –building resilience, leaving no one behind, and structural transformation– and thus contribute to the achievement of the 2030 Agenda goals (UNDP, 2021a).

Figure 1: UNDP’s Development Offer, from the UNDP Strategic Plan 2022-2025



Source: UNDP Strategic Plan, 2022-2025 (UNDP, 2021a)

The proposed Multidimensional Poverty Index with a focus on women is directly related to the agenda set out by UNDP in its Strategic Plan and allows the emergence of alternative integrated development solutions for the countries and the region.

Traditionally, poverty measures have focused on income or consumption. However, numerous studies show that income is only a part of the characterization of poverty. Food insecurity, unemployment, inadequate housing, poor sanitation, lack of healthcare and limited access to education are important dimensions of poverty.

Currently, there is global recognition of the importance of having a comprehensive multidimensional poverty measure that captures the multiple deprivations faced by people living in poverty and provides information about the intensity and composition of poverty.

As a result of the above, poverty measurement methodologies have evolved over time and incorporate both the income variable and multidimensional aspects. The predominant view of poverty measurement until the 1990s was based on insufficient income to purchase a basic basket of goods. From the 1970s and 1980s onward, debates on development models began, in which alternative approaches to income in the measurement of poverty were proposed. Since then, other issues began to be highlighted, such as, for example, employment, redistributive growth, health, education, and, in general, fulfilment of people’s basic needs (see Annex 1). The most significant change in the conceptualization of poverty came with Amartya Sen’s (1998) “capability approach:” the ability of people to achieve a fulfilled and meaningful life with freedoms and choices.

According to the capability approach Sen developed, a person may have sufficient resources, but may not have the capacity to achieve the life they want, despite having a right to do so. The capability approach focuses on improving the tools and generating the capacities a person needs to live a full life. In this sense, Sen notes examples of deprivation, such as premature mortality, significant undernutrition, or illiteracy (Sen, 2000a); (Mercado and Adarme, 2016).

Regarding the development of new multidimensional poverty measures, the United Nations Development Programme and the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) have been systematically calculating a global Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) since 2010 based on the methodology of Alkire and Foster (Alkire and Foster, 2007); (Alkire and Jahan, 2018). This is an international measure that collects information on multidimensional poverty in more than 100 developing countries. It complements traditional monetary poverty measures by capturing deprivations in the dimensions of health, education, and livelihoods that a person faces simultaneously (see Annex 1). Along with the global MPI, there are several examples of national MPIs in different countries. In the Latin American and Caribbean (LAC) region, 12 countries have created their own MPIs.

The overrepresentation of women in poor households is well-documented in the LAC region. The estimated population of Latin America in 2019 –the year for which survey data are available for the majority of the countries in this study– was around 648 million inhabitants, of which 50.8% were women (ECLAC, 2021a). According to ECLAC data from 2019, for every 100 men living in poor households in the LAC region, there were 113 women in a similar situation¹. This acts as a barrier to achieving the 2030 Agenda, as it limits women’s economic, bodily, and decision-making autonomy. However, it should be noted that integration of the gender perspective in poverty analysis is still limited, as measures have mostly taken the traditional monetary approaches to poverty into account.

1 See: oig.cepal.org/es/indicadores/indice-feminidad-hogares-pobres.

Due to historical patterns in the sexual division of labour, women continue to bear the greatest burden of unpaid domestic and care work, which reduces their opportunities to participate in the labour market and penalises them when they do (Folbre, 2018); (Jee, Joya and Murray-Close, 2019). On average, women earn less than men and face more constraints in accessing financial and digital assets, even if they have a similar income to men (UNDP, 2019). Moreover, limitations on their physical autonomy –such as sexual and reproductive rights and gender-based violence– have an impact on economic autonomy, as these phenomena limit their ability to further develop their human capital and generate their own income. All of this translates into lower levels of productivity, out-of-pocket expenses and work absenteeism, as well as barriers to ownership and control over assets (UN Women, UNITE and Australian Aid, 2013). Finally, the ways in which women participate in decision-making processes, both within their households and in their communities, are key factors in understanding women’s poverty. Resources, as will be shown below, are not equally distributed within households or across communities. Additionally, the voice and representation women have during decision-making processes are important factors to be analysed, as women may not have an equal say in the management and control of the income and assets of their families, communities or even their own property. Therefore, unfair and discriminatory treatment of women based on their gender limits their autonomy in several spheres (ECLAC, 2016).

As İlkkaracan and Memiş (2021) argue, the phenomenon of the feminisation of poverty has sparked significant debates, and feminist critiques of current poverty measures are multifaceted. As a starting point, the analysis of poverty data disaggregated according to the sex of the household head is an imprecise approach: such analysis is not only affected by the assumption that poverty is shared equally within the household, but also depends on the definition of head of household, which may vary from country to country (see, for example, [Folbre, 1986] and [Kabeer, 1994]). In some countries, the percentage of female-headed households is extremely low, in which case the gender breakdown is not relevant for the analysis. Furthermore, studies have shown not only that intra-family allocation of consumption expenditure is unequal (Haddad and Kanbur, 1990) and tied to income-earning capacity, but also that conventional poverty measures substantially underestimate the risk of poverty for women (Lundberg, Pollak and Wales, 1997); (Corsi, Botti and D’Ippoliti, 2016).

The Global MPI 2021 report (OPHI-UNDP, 2021) provides elements that could be included in traditional household-based measures for a more gender-sensitive analysis. This analysis looks at multidimensional poverty according to the sex of the household head and the gender gaps observed in each of the household indicators. However, this initial analysis has limitations. First, the majority of the data collected in the calculation of poverty indices are considered aggregated at the household level and, as mentioned above, these approaches generally underestimate women's poverty. Moreover, the very design of the Multidimensional Poverty Index does not consider some of the structural causes that push women into poverty and prevent them from escaping it. For this reason, the proposal for a multidimensional poverty index with a focus on women –which will be explained more below– consists of several dimensions that have been selected to better understand women's poverty and its root causes.

Just as an exclusive focus on monetary resources overlooks crucial aspects of women's impoverishment, the global multidimensional poverty index, as currently conceived, also fails to consider many of these aspects. According to Sen's capability approach, having good health, being well nourished, having housing and education are the main dimensions considered in the measurement of poverty, as they are considered fundamental to being able to participate in society and lead a dignified life. However, these dimensions do not cover other structural barriers that limit women's autonomy and are intrinsically intertwined with the poverty they experience.

From a gender perspective, eradicating poverty involves not only improving living standards, educational attainment and health indicators, but also addressing the structural barriers women face by redistributing, reducing and recognizing unpaid care work. Likewise, equal access to decent work and fair wages, land and property, financial services, digital and productive assets, social protection and freedom from violence, access to sexual and reproductive health services, strengthening women's voice and agency, promoting women's participation in different levels of decision-making processes, and transforming discriminatory and biased social norms must be ensured.

Only by conducting a more precise analysis of women's multidimensional poverty will it be possible to address women's specific needs, identify the obstacles that prevent escape from poverty and formulate gender-sensitive policy recommendations. In the following chapter, three recommended options for achieving these objectives are presented.



III. Strategies for integrating a gender approach in multidimensional poverty measurement

There are various alternatives for presenting or integrating the gender approach in the measurement of multidimensional poverty. Three possible strategies for its incorporation are considered below:

- 1. Integration of gender indicators into existing multidimensional poverty indices:** Through the incorporation of new questions in household surveys or by using existing survey information to develop indicators sensitive to the situation of women, which can be included in existing MPIs. These indicators allow us to observe and measure changes in the relative status and roles of men and women and, in general, how gender inequality issues evolve over time.
- 2. Analysis of multidimensional poverty indices from a gender perspective:** Through the breakdown of indicators by sex, which allows results to be analysed according to the sex of the head of household or according to gender indicators.
- 3. Development of an MPI specific to women:** An MPI that captures the different areas and dimensions of poverty specific to girls and women, whether it requires the inclusion of new questions in household surveys or it can be calculated from existing information with gender indicators that enable measurement.

The three strategies, which have advantages and disadvantages (see Annex 2), can be applied in the global and regional contexts, as well as in national or local contexts.

3.1 Integration of gender indicators into existing MPIs

In recent years, several countries in Latin America and the Caribbean have sought to complement monetary poverty measurement with multidimensional poverty measurement. Eleven countries in the region have a national MPI. Mexico (in 2009) and Colombia (in 2011) were the two countries in the region that pioneered the use of the multidimensional poverty measure. Chile, El Salvador, and Costa Rica followed in their footsteps in 2015; Ecuador and Honduras in 2016; the Dominican Republic and Panama in 2017, Guatemala in 2018, Paraguay in 2021, and Belize in 2023 (MPPN, 2021).

As shown in Annex 4, in the region², the integration of a gender perspective in national MPIs is still very limited or non-existent. Most of the countries analysed that have a national MPI did not include gender indicators; however, some countries, such as Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic, have made some progress in this regard.

Costa Rica adopted an indicator that seeks to serve as a proxy indicator to capture the impact of time spent on unpaid domestic and care activities on labour market integration. This indicator –which is called “out of the labour force due to familial obligations”– has the greatest impact on the dimension of social protection, 55.2% of poor people suffer from this deprivation, and 98% of these are women. Panama included in its national MPI two indicators that allow for analysis of aspects related to women’s well-being. The first one, “domestic worker without social security,” seeks to incorporate aspects of unpaid work and lack of social protection coverage for women. The second, “pregnancy control,” asks about women’s specific health issues. The Dominican Republic’s MPI includes a gender-based “discrimination” indicator and a “participation” indicator, which evaluates the autonomy of the female head of household and her spouse.

At the time of publication, no country in the region had modified or adjusted its national MPI to incorporate other gender indicators based on new questions included in household surveys.

3.2 Analysis of MPIs from a gender perspective

Among the countries under study, El Salvador and Honduras have analysed the results of the national MPI according to head of household. In Honduras, MPI data were further disaggregated by sex to differentiate multidimensional poverty between men and women.

In Mexico, since 2008 the National Council for the Evaluation of Social Development Policy (CONEVAL, acronym from the Spanish, Consejo Nacional de Evaluación de la Política de Desarrollo Social) has established a system of indicators on poverty and gender³. The purpose of this system is to provide a general overview of the situation of gender-based disadvantages. Additionally, it makes it possible to highlight the gaps or differences between men and women in the exercise of their social rights, as well as their access to resources, and incorporates relevant aspects for gender analysis. The system is made up of thirty indicators that analyse gender gaps in nine dimensions: household, education, health, nutrition, paid work, income, social security, housing, domestic work (see Annex 3).

² The table in Annex 4 discusses only the 10 countries studied in this paper.

³ See: www.coneval.org.mx/Medicion/MP/Paginas/Pobreza-y-genero-en-Mexico-2010-2016.aspx.

Finally, the *Global Multidimensional Poverty Index 2021* report reveals gender disparities. The estimates in this report are for 109 developing countries, home to 5.9 billion people (representing 92% of the population in developing countries), more than 20% of whom live in multidimensional poverty (OPHI-UNDP, 2021). As mentioned above, this edition of the global MPI provides elements to analyse gender based on the analysis of multidimensional poverty according to the sex of the head of household and the gender gaps observed in each of the household indicators. This is very relevant to identify the diversity in the intensity of deprivations according to the sex of the reference person in a household. In the case of Latin America and the Caribbean, for example, approximately 45% of households have at least one male member (but no female members) who has completed six or more years of schooling (OPHI-UNDP, 2021).

3.3 Development of an MPI with a focus on women

Although all of the options proposed in this paper are relevant, it is important to note that a woman-focused MPI is not intended to replace deliberation on the dimensions, indicators and cut-offs that should be defined according to each country's economic, social, and cultural contexts. Each country, according to its national context, will be able to select the dimensions and indicators it considers relevant to include in the measurement of multidimensional poverty and adapt the questions for its household surveys or other data collection systems, based on the proposal presented.

These choices could be complemented by a participatory process involving all stakeholders, such as civil society, women's organizations, academia and the government, as this will give it greater validity and contribute to its future sustainability.

The aim of this paper is to draw attention to the need to create an innovative measure that allows us to delve deeper into women's poverty and its specificities. Therefore, a Multidimensional Poverty Index with a focus on women for Latin America and the Caribbean is proposed, comparable for 10 countries in the region. In the following chapter, the proposal for this MPI is presented in detail.



IV. Construction of the Multidimensional Poverty Index with a focus on women for Latin America and the Caribbean

The Multidimensional Poverty Index with a focus on women is based on the Alkire-Foster method (OPHI, 2015), which uses a counting system to identify people living in poverty and simultaneously evaluate the deprivations they may face. In other words, based on a set of indicators to measure the different dimensions of poverty, the MPI counts the number of deprivations a single person faces and classifies this person as living in poverty if the proportion of deprivations is higher than a cut-off point defined for this purpose. This methodology is flexible in the sense that the choice of dimensions and indicators that compose them, as well as the weights assigned to them and the poverty deprivation cut-offs themselves, are defined by the index designer and are adaptable to each context.

In the same way, poverty and deprivation cut-offs can be selected. The deprivation cut-off determines the point at which the population is classified as being in multidimensional poverty (Alkire et al., 2015a). A household or individual is considered to be in multidimensional poverty if the weighted sum of their deprivations equals or exceeds the established poverty line⁴. Deprivation cut-offs are assigned to each of the indicators that make up the MPI to determine when a household or individual faces a deprivation or deficiency.

In the first stage of constructing the index, a literature review and analysis of the underlying causes of female poverty in Latin America and the Caribbean was carried out to identify the main dimensions to be considered. Based on the key findings, an “ideal version” or complete MPI with a focus on women was developed until a “feasible version” was reached, after a process of reviewing the household surveys available until 2020 in the different countries of the region that were selected for the study. The following section presents the key results of this review about the characteristics of women that act as determinants of female poverty in LAC and that help define the MPI proposed here.

⁴ In general, in the national MPIs, as well as in the global MPI, the same weighting has been assigned to each dimension and each indicator within each dimension. This method is known as “nested weights.”

4.1 Multidimensionality of women's poverty in Latin America and the Caribbean⁵

Although the different characteristics and social determinants that define the condition of poverty for women are interrelated and therefore require a comprehensive approach, this section presents the key findings of the literature review in relation to eight dimensions.

Violence and Health

Violence, which can be physical, emotional/psychological, sexual or economic, not only threatens the life, personal integrity and health of women, but also affects their autonomy in decision-making, their participation in education and in formal work activities and can lead to the loss of income and assets, among other consequences. It has been shown that women's physical autonomy –which refers to their ability to make decisions about their health (SDG 3), especially their sexual and reproductive health⁶– has been shown to be inversely correlated with poverty.

According to Carcedo and Kennedy (2017), violence against women and poverty are very complex problems that occur in societies with high levels of inequality between men and women. The most extreme expression of violence is reflected in the high rates of femicide in the region (UNDP, 2021b). Although not systematically recorded, it is also worth mentioning the violence and harassment of women at work, which not only has negative impacts on their health, well-being, and opportunities for access to the labour market, but also generates high levels of stress, loss of motivation, and increased occupational risks (such as accidents).

In Latin America and the Caribbean, one in four girls gets married before the age of 18. The consequences of child marriage include but are not limited to health problems, adolescent pregnancies⁷, sexually transmitted infections, higher maternal and infant mortality⁸, abandonment of education, lower literacy levels, higher levels of economic dependence, and, in general, less social, economic and political participation (UNICEF, 2019; Vaeza, Aasen and Robinson, 2020).

Violations of rights related to physical autonomy have an impact on economic autonomy

⁵ Information/data from the Caribbean is presented where available.

⁶ As the UNDP study (2017a) on pregnancy indicates, the opportunity cost of having a pregnancy in adolescence –in settings of poverty– is high, as households with women who become pregnant after adolescence have better socioeconomic conditions than households with women who became mothers in adolescence. Women who delay childbearing enter the labour market more easily, have higher levels of education, and reside in households with more income earners.

⁷ The Latin American and Caribbean region has the second highest estimated adolescent fertility rate in the world, which was 66.5 annual births per 1,000 adolescents aged 15-19 years in the period from 2010-2015, compared to a global rate of 46 births per 1,000 adolescents in the same age group (PAHO, UNFPA, UNICEF 2018).

⁸ Pregnancy in adolescence entails a series of consequences for health and life of adolescents, and maternal mortality is one of the main causes of death in adolescents and young people between 15 and 24 years of age in the region. In developing countries, women from the bottom 20% of households receive the least antenatal care and, in the case of Latin America, are more likely to give birth without assistance (UNFPA, 2017).

and reinforce women's impoverishment in a way that alienates them from education, formal employment and the labour market, and relegates them to spaces of maximal marginality, such as precarious, informal jobs and unpaid care work.

Rurality

In Latin America and the Caribbean, almost half of the rural population is made up of women, 20% of whom belong to indigenous groups⁹. There is an interrelationship between women's poverty, gender inequalities, and the roles assigned to women in rural territories (ECLAC, 2019b). Many women are forced to migrate from their localities due to situations of poverty and violence. Those who remain in rural areas experience low participation in formal labour markets, little access to goods and services and an overload of unpaid domestic work, such as care work, to which they devote more than half of their total working time (Nobre et al., 2017); (ECLAC 2019b). Women work, on average, fewer hours than men in formal productive systems (FAO, 2023), which amounts to less access to paid work.

The poverty of rural women is highly linked to their lack of access to the means of production, such as access to water, seeds and land, which is still very limited compared to their male counterparts. In terms of land ownership, more than 80% of men own land, while less than 20% of women hold land titles (UN Women et al., 2016). Furthermore, the average size of farms (rural landholdings) owned by female-headed households is between 64% smaller than those owned by men, as is the case in Ecuador, and 20% smaller, as is the case in Haiti or Chile. These relationships are intended to reinforce the idea and importance of asset ownership for the development of economic autonomy of women living in rural areas. Additionally, rural women in the region also face financial barriers, as well as poor access to credit and financial resources (FAO, 2023).

Labour Market

In the last twenty years, the region has seen an increase in the integration of women in the labour market, due to changes in cultural and demographic factors, such as increased access to education and higher levels of education for girls and adolescents and the postponement of motherhood or marriage. However, the situation of women in the labour market is far from being equal to that of men; moreover, women's participation in the informal sector is higher, with more precarious working conditions and little access to social security (SDG 8).

According to the 2018 International Labour Organization (ILO) report on female employment trends, in 2018, the participation rate of women in the labour market

⁹ According to the global MPI report, indigenous populations live in higher levels of poverty in relative terms in the majority of the Latin American countries studied (OPHI-UNDP, 2021).

in LAC was 51.5%, 25.6 percentage points lower than that of men. Additionally, the unemployment rate for women was 9.5% and exceeded the rate for men by 2.7 percentage points (ILO, 2018).

The labour market is characterized by occupational segregation by gender, which manifests itself in two ways. According to horizontal segregation, women are mainly concentrated in certain occupations and sectors where there tends to be less recognition, greater instability, and lower wages. According to ECLAC in 2019, 56.7% of women in Latin America and the Caribbean were in informal employment, characterized by instability, low wages and no or very low social protection¹⁰ (ECLAC, 2021a). This is due both to gender discrimination and, in many cases, the need for women to have flexible jobs that allow them to fulfil reproductive roles (ILO, 2009). Women's precarious participation in the labour market is also related to the educational dimension, which can be seen in the gender segregation in university courses and career tracks. Without technical education or specific training in science, technology, engineering or mathematics, for example, women remain excluded from some employment sectors that could provide greater economic benefits.

On the other hand, due to vertical segregation of the labour market by gender, women are under-represented at the top of the hierarchy. The situation is often referred to as the "glass ceiling," which is to say invisible barriers exist that prevent women from occupying positions with high responsibility or with decision-making powers. Another key factor is the gender pay gap, whereby women earn lower average hourly wages than their male counterparts; according to the Global Wage Report 2018/2019, the gender pay gap in Latin America and the Caribbean was 20% (ILO, 2019).

Labour market inequalities in terms of access, hiring, horizontal and vertical segregation, overrepresentation in the informal economy and low wages, among other discriminatory factors, in addition to women's limited ability to generate their own income during their working years, are transferred into the pension system. These elements are determining factors in their exclusion (ECLAC, 2019c) and have an impact on the poverty levels of older women¹¹.

¹⁰ In Latin America and the Caribbean, gender gaps in terms of coverage by pension systems mostly affect people in the two poorest quintiles of the population (ECLAC, 2019a, pp 171-172)

¹¹ The gap is around twice as large for most countries, with values of four times as high for Ecuador, Guatemala and Honduras.

Education

In Latin America and the Caribbean, there have been important advances in terms of women's access to education (SDG 4), and, in 2018, gender parity was achieved in the gross enrolment rate at primary, secondary, and tertiary levels (UNESCO, 2019) (ECLAC 2019b). Likewise, there is a greater integration of women in technical-professional education at the secondary and tertiary level (Muñoz Rojas, 2019). However, the progress of women in the educational arena (ECLAC, 2016) has not significantly impacted their employment situation, income levels or improved their economic autonomy (Muñoz Rojas, 2019).

In most countries in the region, it is observed that many women, even if they have completed secondary education, drop out of school or do not have a professional career because they are in charge of caregiving tasks (UNDP, 2017b). Hence the importance of monitoring and building on the progress made, for example, by eradicating illiteracy and improving the quality of education to reduce grade repetition and deficiencies (UNESCO, 2019).

Use of time and care

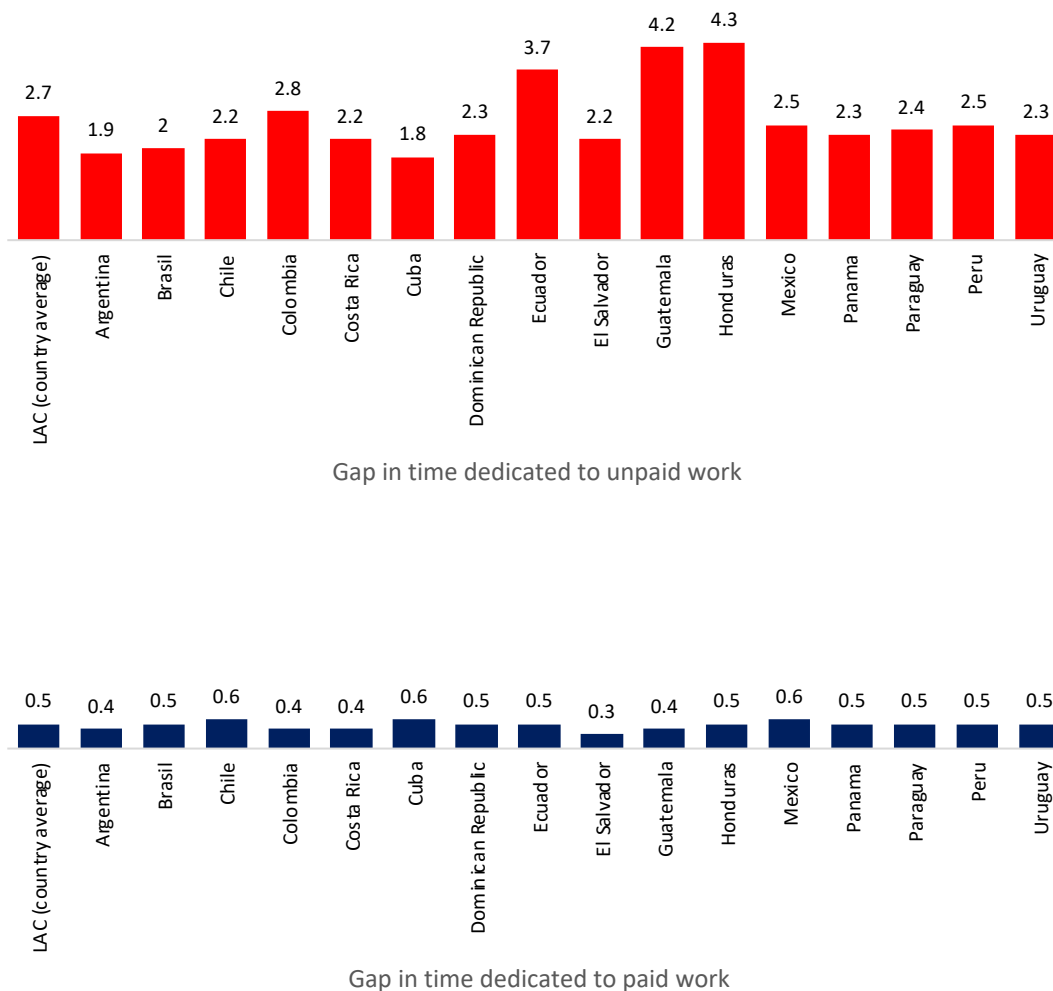
At the Fourth World Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995), the difference between women and men in terms of unequal distribution of paid and unpaid work was recognized for the first time, and it emphasized how women contribute to development through paid and unpaid work.

In all Latin American and Caribbean countries for which data are available, the time women spent on unpaid work is much greater than that spent by men. On average, women in the region spend three times as much time on unpaid work as men, and in some cases, such as Guatemala, up to seven times as much. This overload of hours of unpaid work that women perform acts as a barrier to participation in the labour market on equal terms with men, as well as impeding access to economic resources that would allow them to achieve greater degrees of autonomy (ECLAC, 2020a).

Figure 1 shows the difference in hours of paid and unpaid work between women and men in the countries of the region, as well as the average for these countries. Despite some variations¹², the trends are confirmed in all countries: women in the region spend at least half as much time as men on paid work and, at a minimum, at least twice as much time on unpaid work, which undermines women's possibilities for economic autonomy.

¹² The gap is around twice as large or two and a half times as large for most countries, with values of four times as high for Ecuador, Guatemala and Honduras.

Graph 1: Gap in time spent on unpaid and paid work in countries in the region



Source: Own elaboration with data from CEPALSTAT (ECLAC), module on total working time according to type of work and sex

Addressing women’s poverty requires attending to the unequal distribution of unpaid work, increasing co-responsibility between men and women, and among households, society, and the state (ECLAC 2020a). In order to promote women’s emergence from poverty, the state must provide care services and recognize the right to care for all dependent people and the right of women to choose whether or not they wish to dedicate themselves to care services (Salvador, 2018), as well as the right to self-care.

In this framework, the importance of considering the issue of care work and co-responsibility as key to women’s inclusion in the labour market, without penalties, is highlighted.

Access to Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs)

Gender disparities are also observed in access to information and communication technologies (ICTs). Currently, access and use of ICT are necessary for the full development of people. Technological advances have modified the ways of working, learning, and interacting, which is why it is relevant to include ICT in the analysis of poverty with a focus on gender and under the slogan of “Leaving no one behind.” Of the total adult population, only between 5-15% of people have the computer skills and abilities to solve medium or high-level problems in technological environments (compared to 29.7% in the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD] countries) (World Bank Blogs, 2021).

In Latin America, the gaps in Internet access and mobile phone ownership also favour men. There is evidence that there are gaps of between 11 and 7 points again in favour of men in terms of Internet use for work-related activities and administrative or public activities. These factors are exacerbated by the lack of digital skills and the use of digital tools that impacts women more (IDB, 2020). In the era of the digital revolution, it is essential to move towards gender equality by enabling access to ICTs to promote the economic empowerment of all people.

Housing and services

The quality of housing construction, the levels of safety in housing, and the environment in which it is located (SDG 11) have a direct impact on well-being. Precarious housing conditions are related to the amount of unpaid domestic work, which generally falls on women (CONEVAL, 2012). An example of this is households that have no connection to potable drinking water (SDG 6) for domestic use, which forces, for the most part, women and children to fetch water from another source (United Nations, 2019) or incur costs if water is purchased for delivery. Carrying water or water from alternative sources may have contaminants or other adverse health consequences for people in the household, who are then often cared for by female caregivers.

Other factors, such as overcrowding, floor conditions and access to electricity, cooking fuel, and environmentally friendly heating in cold countries (SDG 7) are issues that impact health. In some ways, this also has an impact on the extent to which families experience minor or major poverty, especially for women who spend more time at home because of traditionally-assumed gender roles.

Given that Latin America and the Caribbean are especially prone to recurring disasters related to climate change, such as droughts, floods, landslides and earthquakes (SDG 13 and SDG 15), it is also important to consider the disproportionate socioeconomic effect of these disasters on women, girls, boys and other vulnerable groups (ECLAC, 2019b) (United Nations, 2015a). It is worth noting the negative effects of these phenomena on women’s economic autonomy, which not only translate into an increased burden of unpaid

care work, affecting sources of employment and, especially in the case of rural women, livelihoods (ECLAC, 2019b). Having disaster preparedness plans in place and strengthening the resilience of housing, services and communities can mitigate economic damages and people's fall or relapse into poverty.

Participation

Women's participation and representation at the different levels of state power, both at a local and national level, and in other decision-making spaces, is essential so that, in the definition of public policies, including those relating to women living in poverty, the practical needs¹³ and strategic interests¹⁴ of women are taken into account.

Despite a slight increase in women's participation in recent years in many countries of the region in ministries, presidential cabinets, courts of justice and supreme courts, as well as in councils and courts of justice (ECLAC, 2020b), women remain underrepresented in global, regional, and national governance institutions and, as a result, lack the power to shape these institutions, which in turn contributes to perpetuating gender bias and gender gaps (United Nations, 2019).

Unfair and discriminatory treatment of women based on sex, sexual orientation or gender identity are factors that undermine women's decision-making power. Their participation and representation at different levels of state power and in different decision-making spaces are essential for their opinions to be heard and considered in the definition of public policies that address women's poverty. All of these, as well as other important differences and gaps between men and women, contribute to the greater and more complex multidimensional impoverishment of women.

These considerations led to the decision to choose women as the unit of identification for this MPI proposal. This makes it possible to analyse individual characteristics and to identify differences in poverty profiles among women, for example, according to age or place of residence.

13 Practical gender needs refer to what women need in their socially predetermined roles and take into account the gendered division of labour and resources between the sexes.

14 Strategic interests focus on building a society without gender inequalities in terms of power, control and sexual division of labor; they derive from the analysis of women's subordination to men and the realization that the disadvantages in the daily lives of women living in poverty are not limited to the scarcity of resources, but extend to the difficulty women have in participating fully in social interaction on an equal footing with men.

4.2 Proposed dimensions and indicators for an MPI with a focus on women

Based on the main findings, a “full version” option was developed around five dimensions: health and violence; education and access to ICT; work; housing and access to basic services; and economic rights and participation. This first “full version” of the MPI consists of 21 indicators, and it is assumed that all the information needed to measure the different aspects of female poverty through the proposed indicators is available from the same data sources. Table 1 presents this proposal, as well as the availability of information in household surveys in most countries in the Latin American and Caribbean region.

Table 1: Structure of the MPI with a focus on women that is proposed for Latin America and the Caribbean

Dimension	Indicator	Deprivation cut-off point	Available in the majority of household surveys
1. Health and violence	1.1 No access to female reproductive healthcare	A woman without health insurance or a woman who has had a pregnancy in the last 5 years and has had fewer than 4 prenatal checkups, or who has not been instructed to take vitamin supplements during pregnancy.	Partially
	1.2 No access to childcare services	Women who belong to households in which children between 0 and 5 years old do not receive care services or do not attend school or preschool.	Yes
	1.3 Child marriage and adolescent pregnancy	Woman who entered into marriage or civil union before the age of 18 or who had at least one pregnancy before turning 20 years old.	No
	1.4 Violence	Woman who suffered some type of violence (physical, sexual, psychological, childhood, as well as workplace harassment or discrimination based on sex or gender) in the last 12 months	No
2. Education and access to information	2.1 Insufficient educational level	Women who did not reach a minimum education level, according to age range: - Women between 19 -30 years who do not have complete secondary education (9 years), - Women between 31 - 59 years who do not have complete primary education (6 years) - Women 60 years or older who do not know how to read or write.	Yes
	2.2 Non-attendance informal education	Woman between 5-18 years of age who is not in school and has not completed secondary education	Yes
	2.3 Educational lags	A woman between 7- 18 years old who attends school but is behind in school by two or more years.	Yes
	2.4 Access to Internet and communication technology (ICT)	An older woman who does not have access to the Internet or if her home does not have at least one computer, mobile phone or tablet.	Yes
3. Labour	3.1 Excess time dedicated to unpaid care or domestic work	Woman, girl or adolescent who spends more than 5 hours a day caring for another person or doing unpaid domestic work.	No
	3.2 Non-compliance with working conditions or under-employment due to insufficient hours	Wage-earning woman aged 18 and over who do not earn the minimum wage or are self-employed without social security (informal) or underemployed by insufficient hours.	Yes
	3.3 Long-term unemployment	Woman 18 years or older who has been unemployed for 12 months or more.	Yes
	3.4 Uninsured labour	Working woman without social security.	Yes
4. Housing and services	4.1 Inadequate housing conditions or damage due to national disasters	Woman who lives in a household where there is overcrowding (more than two people per bedroom) or where there are no walls or ceiling, or walls or ceiling made of waste material or the floor is dirt, or the dwelling has suffered damage from natural disasters in the last 12 months.	Yes
	4.2 No access to electricity or the use of unhealthy fuels for cooking	Woman who lives in a household without access to electricity or solar panels or whose home uses unhealthy fuel for cooking (kerosene, firewood or charcoal).	Yes
	4.3 Lack of access to drinking water	A woman whose household drinking water comes from an unprotected well, a shallow well, a river, a stream, a lake, a pond, a cistern, rainwater, or another source, or who lives in a household without an indoor plumbing system.	Yes
	4.4 Lack of proper sewerage or solid waste disposal	Woman whose home does not have a bathroom for exclusive/ private use, or does not have an adequate sewerage system (septic tank, sewerage network) or does not have an adequate garbage disposal system (garbage collection system/ service or burying garbage).	Yes
5. Economic rights and participation	5.1 Ownership, control and access to assets	Woman who owns land or housing informally, or who is socially prevented from accessing land housing or means of production because of her sex; or older woman without a pension.	No
	5.2 Unbanked	Woman aged 18 years or older without a bank account, or an underage female member of a household where no woman has a bank account.	No
	5.3 Participation and decision-making at home	Woman who does not have decision-making power over: household expenses and the management of her own or household income, her own health and the health of her dependants, or her own education and that of her dependants	No
	5.4 Equal treatment	Woman who in the last 12 months has been treated unfairly or discriminated against outside her home because she is a woman or due to sexual orientation or gender.	No
	5.5 Safety in the environment	Woman without access to comfortable, safe, and efficient private or public transportation; or whose work/education centre is more than two hours away; or if she lives on a street without public lighting or who has been subject to street harassment or suffers from mobility restrictions due to insecurity.	No

Source: Own elaboration

In a second phase, a process of reviewing the availability of information to calculate these indicators was carried out in the household surveys, which turned out to be the sources with the greatest abundance of data for the purposes of this index. In pursuit of the objective of having a measure that would make it possible to compare data from a set of countries in the region, the process of selecting the indicators considered the availability of information in all household surveys in the selected countries. Ten countries from different LAC sub-regions were considered to create the comparable version of the MPI with a focus on women: Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, and Uruguay (for more information on the selection of countries and their sources of information, see Annex 5)

Of the 21 indicators proposed at the beginning, only 13 appeared in full or in part in all household surveys¹⁵ (see the last column of Table 1). Of these 13 indicators, three were specifically related to children and youth. Given that there are already specific MPIs for children and that more specific sources of information are required for minors, it was considered more appropriate to discard these indicators and focus only on adult women (aged 18 and over).

4.3 Technical and normative considerations for the “feasible version” of the MPI with a focus on women for LAC

Choice of unit of analysis and identification

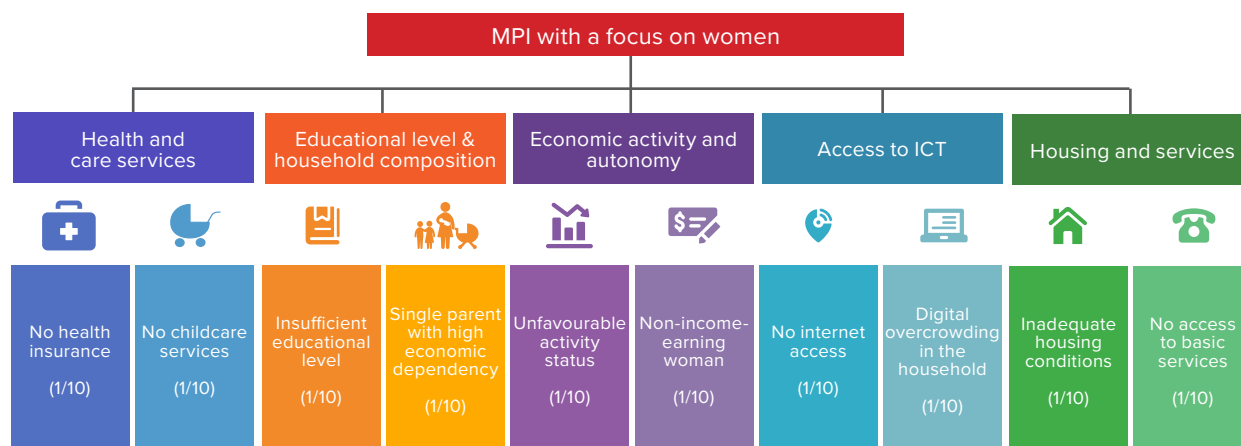
As previously mentioned, the “feasible version” of the MPI focused on women for LAC considers women aged 18 years and older as the unit of identification and analysis.

Dimensions and indicators of the MPI with a focus on women for LAC

In the last stage, in order to have a balanced measure, that is, with the same or similar numbers of indicators in each dimension, and considering the information available, the selected indicators were adjusted and reordered. Thus, the MPI with a focus on women is composed of 10 indicators and 5 dimensions, namely: i) health and care services; ii) educational level and household structure; iii) economic autonomy; iv) access to information and communication technologies (ICTs); and v) housing and access to basic services (Figure 2).

¹⁵ In order to include an indicator, information could not be lacking in more than two countries.

Figure 2: “Feasible version” of the MPI with a focus on women for LAC



Source: Own elaboration

Annex 7 presents the adjustments made to each of the indicators to compensate, when necessary, for the absence of strictly comparable information among the different household surveys in the countries studied. In particular, it is important to bear in mind that, due to lack of information, the MPI with a focus on women for the Dominican Republic does not have the indicator relating to health insurance and, therefore, the health dimension for this country is only composed of one indicator (without access to care services). This aspect should be considered when analysing the results.

Deprivation cut-off points and assignment of poverty line (k)

In the Alkire-Foster method, two cut-off points are established to measure multi-dimensional poverty: a deprivation cut-off point and a poverty cut-off point (k) to determine when a person is in the situation of multidimensional poverty. The deprivation cut-off point refers to the criteria used to determine whether or not a woman is deprived in each of the indicators. Table 2 presents the deprivation cut-off points, which were defined considering empirical and normative parameters.

Table 2: Deprivation cut-off points and weights assigned to each indicator

Dimension	Indicator	Deprivation cut-off point	Weight
1. Health & care services	1.1 No health insurance	Woman without health insurance**	10 %
	1.2 No access to care services	Woman belonging to a household where children aged 0-5 years do not receive care services or do not attend pre-school.* <i>*If there are no children aged 0-5 years in a woman's household, she does not have deprivation in this indicator</i>	10 %
2. Education & household composition	2.1 Insufficient educational level	Woman who has not reached a minimum level of education for her age: - Women from 19-30 years who have not completed secondary education (9 years). - Women from 31-59 years who have not completed primary education (6 years) - Woman 60 years or older who are illiterate or do not have at least one year of formal education	10 %
	2.2 Single-parent with high dependency	Single parent responsible for three or more dependants (non-income earners) per each income-earning member in the family	10 %
3. Economic autonomy	3.1 Unfavourable Activity status	Woman outside of the labour market due to the need to perform domestic work or unpaid care work; or a salaried woman who earns below the minimum wage or self-employed woman without social security (informal); or a woman who is unemployed or underemployed due a lack of hours.	10 %
	3.2 Non-income Earning woman	Woman without any kind of income.	10 %
4. Access to ICTs	4.1 No access to Internet	Woman without Internet access in the household.	10 %
	4.2 Digital overcrowding in the household	Woman living in a household where there are 3 or more people per computer, tablet or mobile phone.	10 %
5. Household & access to services	5.1 Inadequate housing conditions	Woman living in a household where there is overcrowding (3 or more people per bedroom) or living in a household without walls or a roof, or where the walls or roof are made of waste material or the floor is made of earth.	10 %
	5.2 No access to basic services	Woman who lives in a household without access to electricity or solar panels or whose household uses unhealthy fuel for cooking (kerosene, paraffin, firewood or charcoal); or where the drinking water is not safe to drink (from unprotected well, shallow well, river, stream, lake, ponds, creek, rainwater, cistern, or other non-potable source), or who lives in a house that does not have indoor plumbing or whose house does not have a dedicated bathroom, or does not have an excreta disposal system (septic tank, sewerage system or network) or does not have an adequate rubbish / waste disposal system (rubbish collection service or burials).	10 %

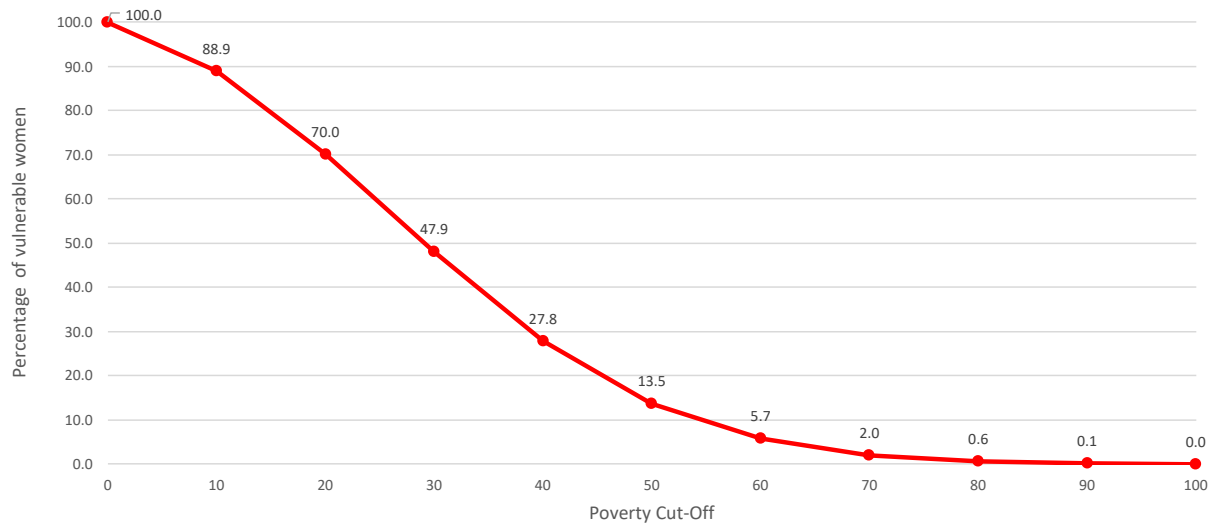
**The Dominican Republic does not have information on health insurance, therefore, the health dimension for this country is composed of a single indicator, "without access to care services," which receives a weight of 10%.

Source: Own elaboration

The cut-off point (k) selected to identify women in situations of multidimensional poverty has a value of 40%. To assign this value, several statistical criteria¹⁶ were considered. First, the results of multidimensional poverty incidence aggregated for the region are analysed for each feasible cut-off point; graph 2 shows that the change in concavity occurs when the 40% threshold is reached, i.e. when there are more than four deprivations simultaneously. Therefore, a woman must be deprived in two or more dimensions to be considered living in the situation of multidimensional poverty.

¹⁶ To select this k cut-off point, two statistical criteria were used. First, the incidence results were estimated and analysed for each k cut-off, and a change in concavity was determined at the cut-off k=40%. Second, a first- and second-order stochastic dominance analysis was conducted for the countries under study, using national, urban, and rural estimates. First-order stochastic dominance corresponds to the analysis of incidence estimates (H) and second-order stochastic dominance to the analysis of adjusted incidence (M0). See Annex 7.

Graph 2: Women living in multidimensional poverty in LAC countries by poverty line (%)



Source: Own elaboration, with data from household surveys in the region.

Assigning weights to each dimension and indicator

Under the assumption that all dimensions are of equal importance in the context of women's well-being, following the human rights approach, equal weight –20%– was assigned to each dimension and a nested weights approach was used for the indicators, i.e. equal weight was assigned to each indicator within each dimension. In this way, a weight equivalent to 10% is assigned to all indicators (see last column of table 2)



V. Analysis of Results

This section analyses the main results of the MPI with a focus on women prepared for 10 countries in Latin America and the Caribbean. Then a brief contrast analysis is presented comparing the results of this MPI for the 10 countries of study.

Incidence (H):

Refers to the proportion of people living in multidimensional poverty, meaning they simultaneously face a proportion of deprivations that is greater than an established cut-off point or poverty line (k).

Intensity of poverty (A):

Is the average proportion of the deprivations that are faced simultaneously by the poor population.

MPI or adjusted incidence (MO):

Incidence * intensity.

This is the result of multiplying (adjusting) the multidimensional poverty incidence (H) by the intensity of the poverty (A).

The intensity and incidence values of the MPI can be found in Annex 9. Results show that 27.4% of women in the countries selected for analysis live in multidimensional poverty. The intensity of poverty, understood as the average deprivation rate among poor women, is 48%. This means, on average, poor women experience deprivation in almost five of the ten indicators that make up the MPI. The results are presented exclusively for women, as the selected indicators respond to a conceptual analysis of the structural causes of women's poverty.

5.1 Incidence and intensity of multidimensional poverty among women

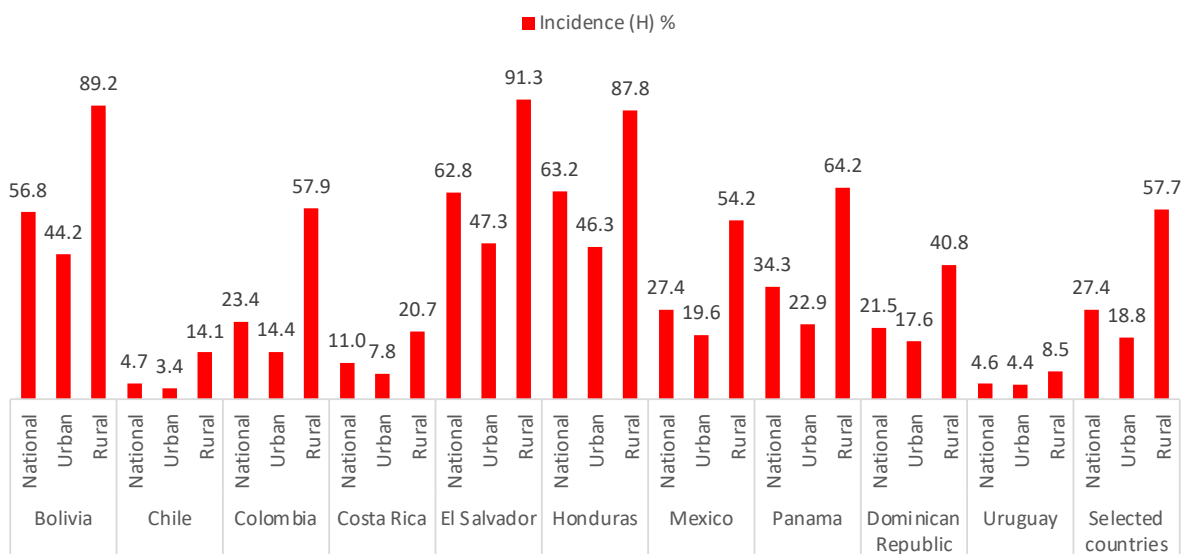
The results obtained show that, of the ten countries participating in the study, Uruguay, Chile, and Costa Rica have the lowest estimates of both incidence and intensity of poverty. 4.6% of adult Uruguayan women, 4.7% of Chilean women, and 11% of Costa Rican women are multidimensional poor (see Graph 3). In terms of intensity, the three groups show similar values, ranging from 42.8% to 46.6%; in other words, on average, in these countries, women living in poverty face deprivation in 44% of the indicators. These results indicate that these three countries have the lowest national MPI values among the 10 countries studied (see Annex 9).

The countries with higher values –both in incidence and intensity– are Honduras and El Salvador, which are home to the largest number of women in situations of multidimensional poverty, amounting to 63.2% and 62.8%, respectively. Moreover, the intensity of poverty is greater, with poor women facing an average of 55% deprivation (see Graph 3).

In the middle, countries such as the Dominican Republic, Colombia, and Mexico have incidence values around 24% and intensity of 46%. A higher level is observed in Panama, where multidimensional poverty affects 33.4% of adult women, who face on average over 50% of deprivations. In Bolivia, although the intensity of poverty suffered by women is the same as that of women in Panama, the incidence is 22.5 percentage points higher (at 56.8% total incidence).

The adjusted incidence (M0) or MPI that captures not only how many adult women are multidimensionally poor, but also the intensity of poverty they experience, is presented in Annex 9. When considering this adjusted indicator, the ranking of the countries remains the same: Honduras has the highest adjusted incidence (MPI of 0.35) and Uruguay has the lowest (0.02). Although Honduras has an incidence almost 14 times higher than Uruguay, the adjusted incidence is even higher (17 times higher), because it also takes into account the fact that poor women in Honduras simultaneously suffer a higher proportion of deprivations.

Graph 3: Proportion of adult women living in situations of multidimensional poverty in the 10 countries studied in Latin America and the Caribbean



Source: Own elaboration with data from national surveys of the countries in the study

Graph 3 shows how the differences widen even further when the results are broken down by urban and rural areas. In the LAC countries selected for analysis, while multidimensional poverty affects 18.8% of urban women, this percentage is almost three times higher for rural women (57.7%). Although in all countries, rural women are more exposed to multidimensional poverty, the gap between rural and urban areas varies across the region. In Uruguay, the Dominican Republic, Bolivia, El Salvador, and Honduras the rural incidence is almost twice as high as the urban incidence, and in Costa Rica, Mexico and Panama it is three times as high. Chile and Colombia have the widest gaps (the proportion of rural women in multidimensional poverty is 4 times higher than that of urban women). It is worth noting that almost 90% of rural women face multidimensional poverty in Bolivia, Honduras, and El Salvador. Likewise, the intensity of poverty among rural women in Honduras and El Salvador is the highest (58%).

At the other extreme, Uruguay has a rural poverty incidence of 8.5%, followed by Chile with 14.1% and Costa Rica with 20.7%. In respect to urban areas, El Salvador is also the country with the highest incidence of multidimensional poverty among women with 47.3%, followed by Honduras with 46.3% and Bolivia with 44.2%. At the lower end, Chile, Uruguay and Costa Rica have values of 3.4%, 4.4% and 7.8%, respectively.

5.2 Deprivation rate by indicator

In this section, the deprivation rates faced by women in each of the indicators composing the MPI will be analysed. The uncensored deprivation rate refers to the proportion of women aged 18 and over who face deprivation or deficiency in each indicator. The censored deprivation rate refers to the proportion of multidimensional poor women facing deprivation in each indicator.

5.2.1 Uncensored deprivation rate

In the 10 countries analysed in the region (Graph 4), the indicators with the highest incidence among women are “unfavourable economic activity status” and “no Internet access,” which constitute deprivations in 66.3% and 50.6% of adult women, respectively. The highest uncensored incidence, that is to say, for the whole population, is evident in Mexico where 76.8% of women face an “unfavourable (economic) activity status”. Following Mexico is Bolivia with a deprivation rate of 73.8%. Dominican Republic has the lowest deprivation rate in this indicator, with a level of 26.9%.

In El Salvador, 74.0% of women lack health insurance, which is a level well above the 14% average level in the 10 countries analysed. In this indicator, Panama also has a high incidence of 41.4%, while Uruguay and Chile have the lowest levels with 0.9% and 2.4%, respectively.

The indicator assessing “no Internet access” has an incidence of 73.9% in Bolivia and 72.6% in El Salvador. Chile and Costa Rica have the lowest deprivation rates in this indicator, at 20.7% and 11.2%, respectively.

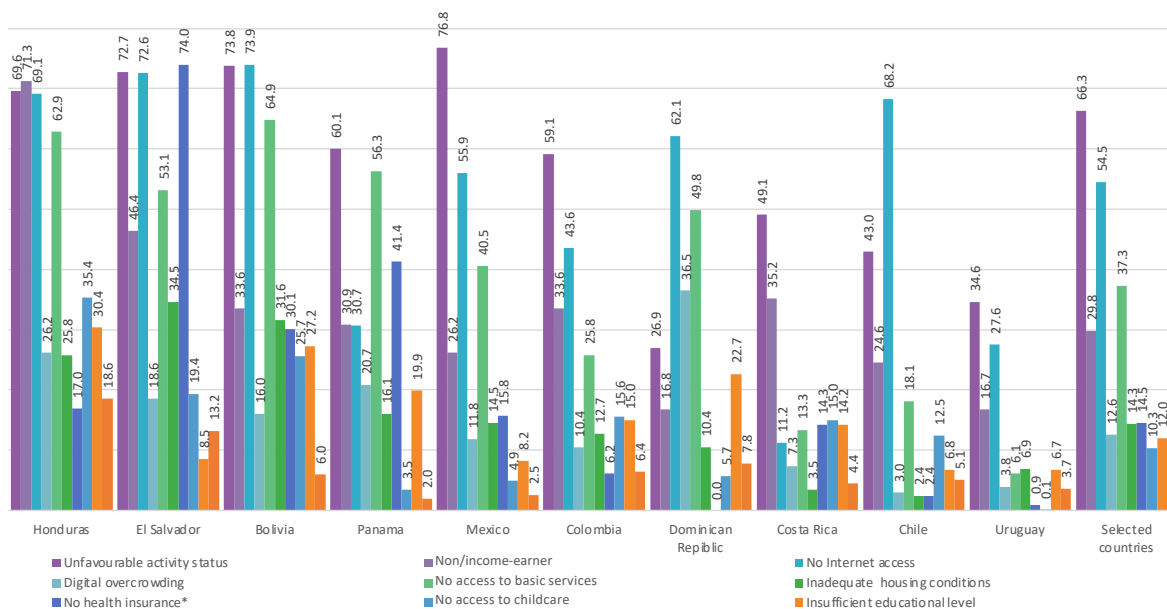
The proportion of adult women facing deprivation due to not being income-earners is 71.3% in Honduras, followed by El Salvador with 46.4%. The average level among all 10 countries is 29.8%.

The indicators with the lowest average deprivation rates across all countries are “single parent with high dependency” (4.8%), “no access to childcare” (10.3%) and “insufficient educational level” (12%). Deprivation rates for all countries are shown in Graph 4.

Regarding the differences between urban and rural areas (Graph 5), out of all of the indicators, the only one with a lower incidence in rural areas- albeit very slight- is “single parent with high dependency,” while “No access to basic services” and “no access to the Internet” are the indicators with the greatest differences by area. For the former, deprivation rate in rural areas is 55.1 percentage points higher than that in urban areas, while the difference in the latter is 40.4 percentage points.

A common feature for both urban and rural areas is that the two indicators with the highest incidence are “unfavorable activity status” and “no Internet access.” It is also worth mentioning that deprivations derived from the absence of basic services in the dwelling, “digital overcrowding” and “insufficient educational level” in the rural areas are almost three times higher than the deprivation rates observed in urban areas.

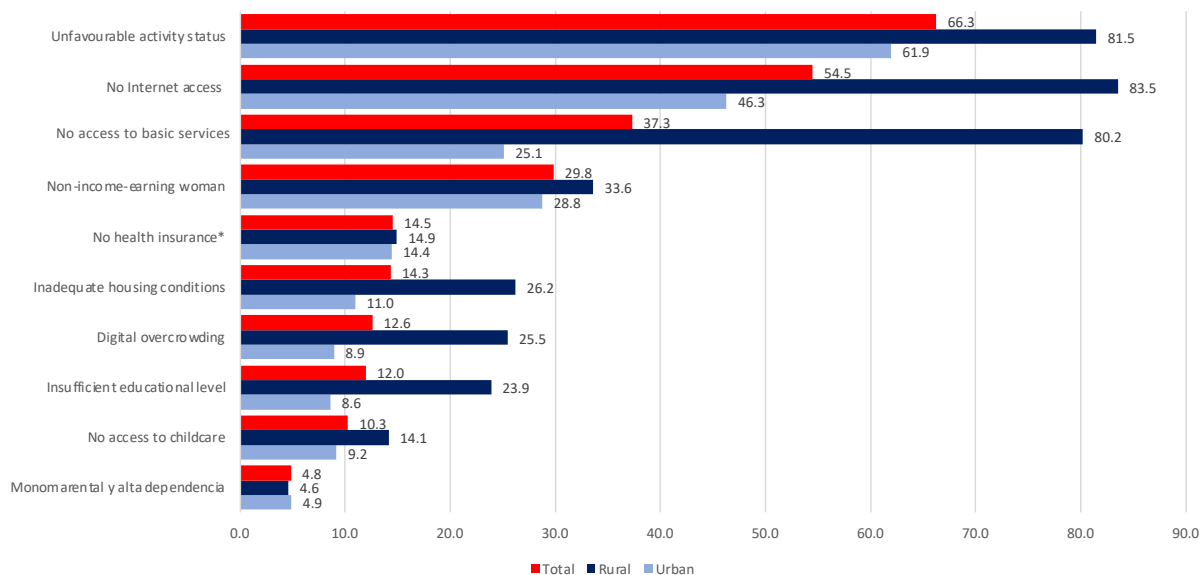
Graph 4: Uncensored deprivation rate by country (values expressed in percentages)



*The Dominican Republic does not have information on health insurance.

Source: Own elaboration, with data from household surveys in the region

Graph 5: Uncensored deprivation rate by area of residence (values expressed in percentages)



*Does not include the Dominican Republic.

Source: Own elaboration, with data from household surveys in the region

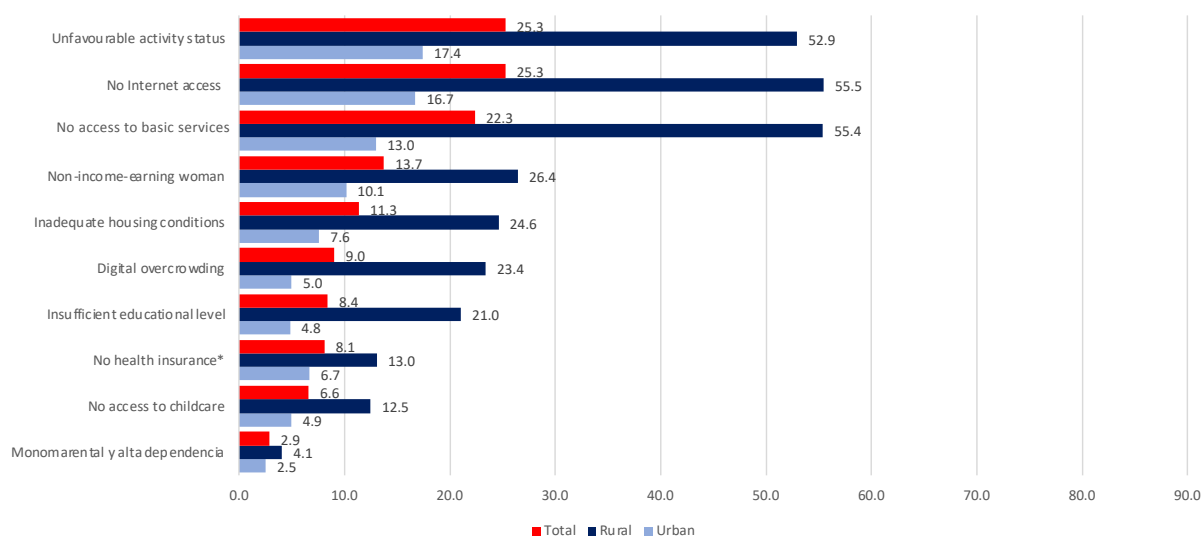
5.2.2 Censored deprivation rate

When analysing the deprivations experienced specifically by multidimensional poor women –that is to say, the incidence of censored deprivation– it can be seen that in rural areas, the deprivation rate is at least double that of urban areas for all indicators. As shown in Graph 6, the indicators with the highest incidence in both areas are the following:

- » no Internet access;
- » unfavourable activity status;
- » No access to basic services;
- » non-income earning woman;
- » inadequate housing conditions.

The indicator “unfavourable activity status” is the one with the highest censored incidence in the urban area; the second most common is “no Internet access,” and the third is the absence of basic services in the dwelling.

Graph 6: Censored deprivation rate by area of residence (values expressed in percentages)



*Does not include the Dominican Republic.

Source: Own elaboration, with data from household surveys in the region

The greatest differences between urban and rural areas are observed in “digital overcrowding” and “insufficient educational level.” Regarding the former, the proportion of rural women facing digital overcrowding in the home is 4.7 times higher than that of urban women. In the case of educational attainment, while 4.8% of poor women living in urban areas have insufficient education, 21% of rural women do. At the aggregated level of the 10 analysed countries, 8.4% of adult women living in multidimensional poverty conditions have a low educational level.

In terms of indicators with lower deprivation rates, 6.6% of women living in multidimensional poverty belong to households lacking access to childcare services (around 12% in rural areas and 5% in urban areas). The least frequent deprivation is related to household composition; as can be seen in Graph 6, around 3% of multidimensional poor women belong to single-parent households with high economic dependency (i.e. there are three or more people per income-earner in the household).

5.3 Contribution by dimensions and by indicators

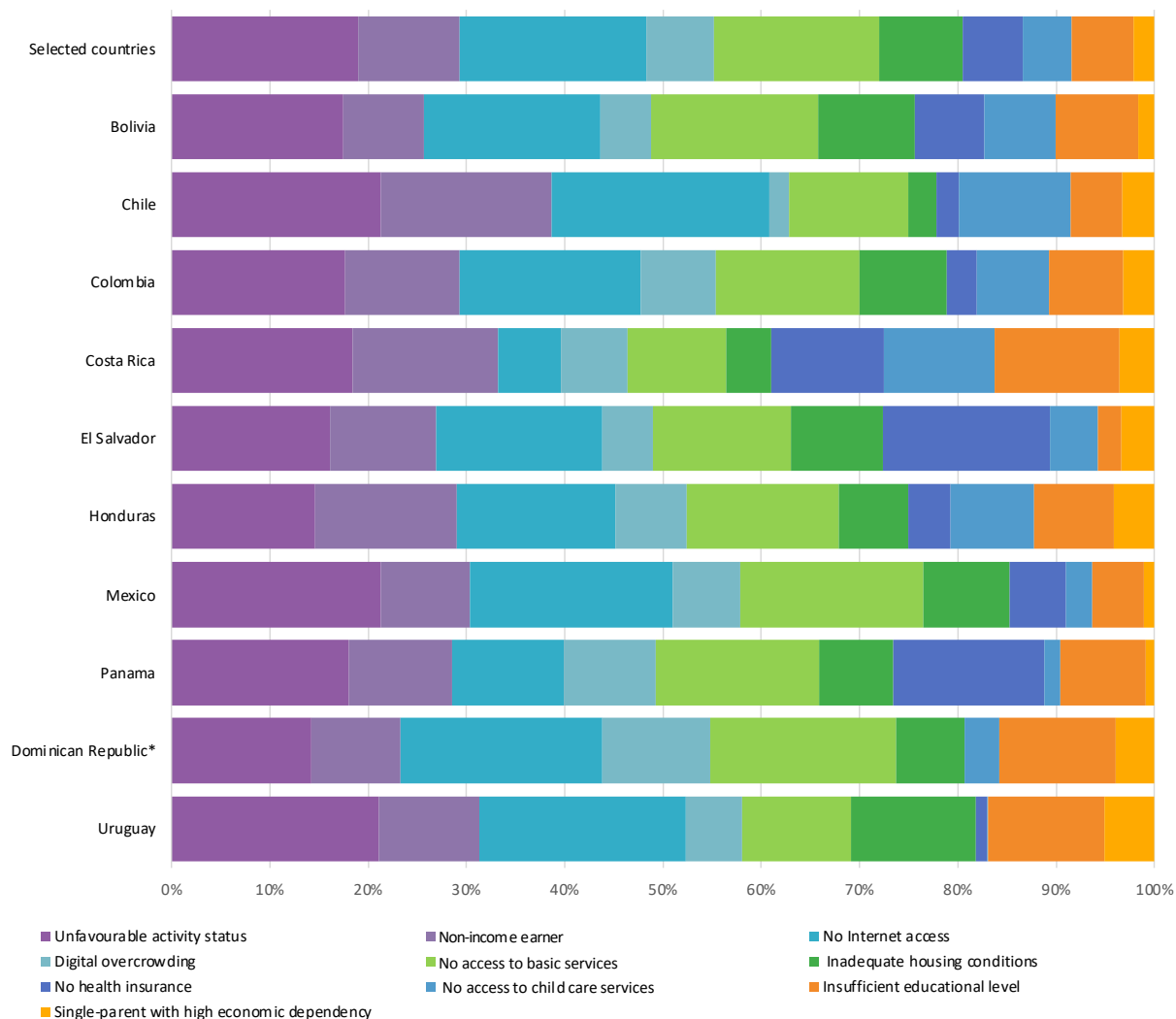
The MPI result can be disaggregated in order to understand the contribution of each indicator in relative terms (that is why graph 7 shows the bars on a 100% basis). On average for the 10 countries analysed, the indicators contributing most to the MPI are “unfavourable activity status” (19%), “no Internet access” (18.9%), and “no access to basic services in the dwelling” (16.9%). While the indicators contributing least to the MPI are: “single-parent with high economic dependency” (2.1%) and “no childcare services” (4.9%)

The deprivation of health insurance faced by adult women contributes to explaining multidimensional poverty by 6.1% on average. El Salvador, Panama, and Costa Rica exceed this average with values of 17.0%, 15.3%, and 11.4%, respectively.

In Uruguay, the deprivation rates for the indicators “no health insurance” (1.07%) and “no access to childcare” (0.13%) are so low they contribute practically nothing to the MPI. The highest contributors are “unfavourable activity status” with 21.1% and “no Internet access” with 21.0%. At the same time, in Uruguay the contribution of the “single-parent with high economic dependency” indicator is double (5.1%) the average value for the 10 countries analysed in the same indicator (2.1%).

Bolivia is the country that is closest to the average values of the 10 countries analysed, with slightly lower values for “non-income earning woman” and “digital overcrowding,” which are compensated by slightly higher values for “no access to childcare” and “insufficient educational level.”

Graph 7: Relative contribution of indicators to women’s multidimensional poverty for the analysed countries

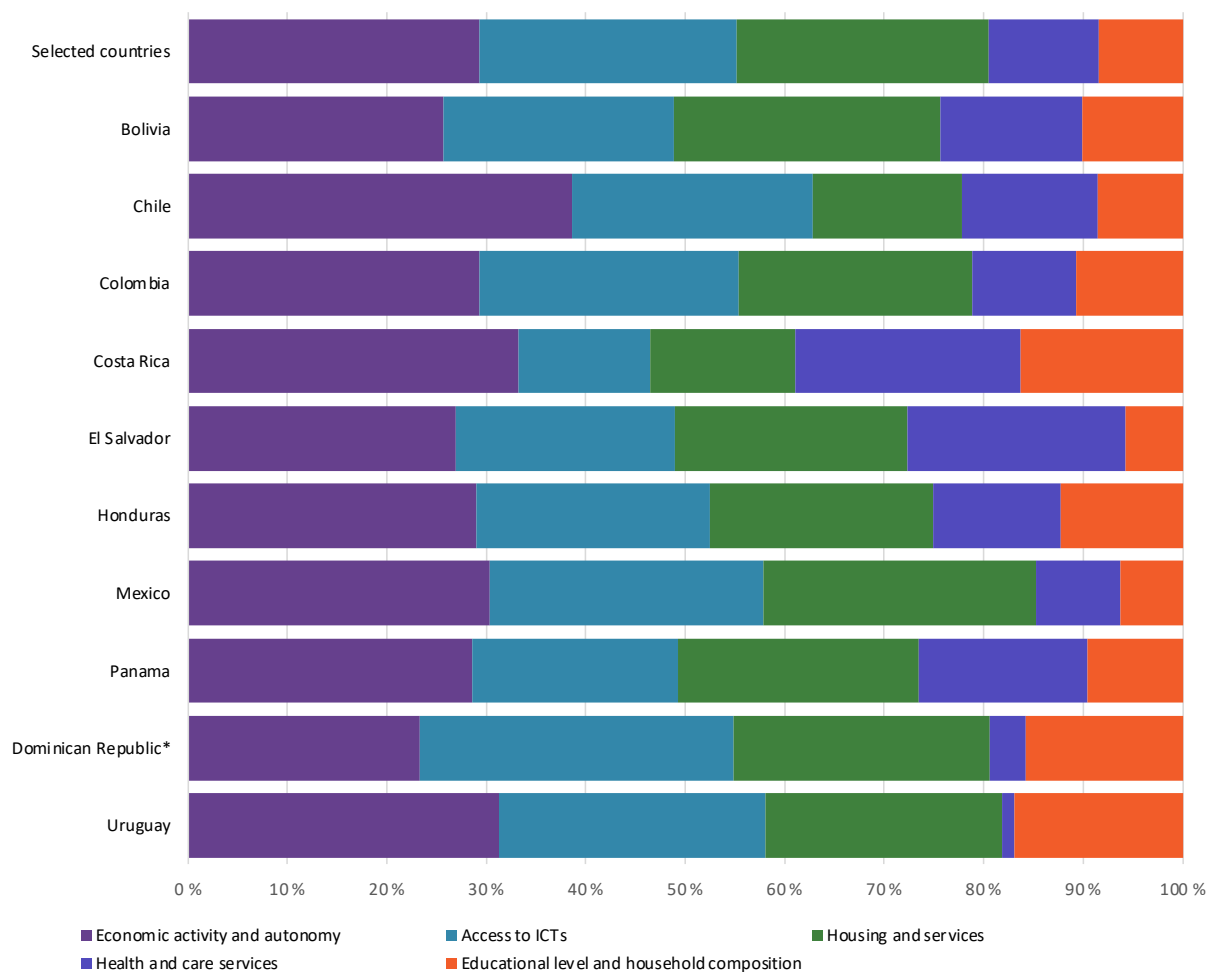


Source: Own elaboration, with data from national surveys in the studied countries

Honduras, which has the highest incidence of poverty, has the highest values for the indicators “no Internet access” and “no access to basic services in the dwelling” (16.1% and 15.5%). The indicators that contribute the least are “single-parent with high dependency” with 4.2% and “no health insurance” with 4.3%.

To perform a dimensional analysis and visualise the contributions to the MPI more clearly, the contributions of the indicators are taken and grouped by the dimension to which they belong to obtain the results shown in Graph 8.

Graph 8: Relative contribution of the dimensions of women’s multidimensional poverty for the analysed countries



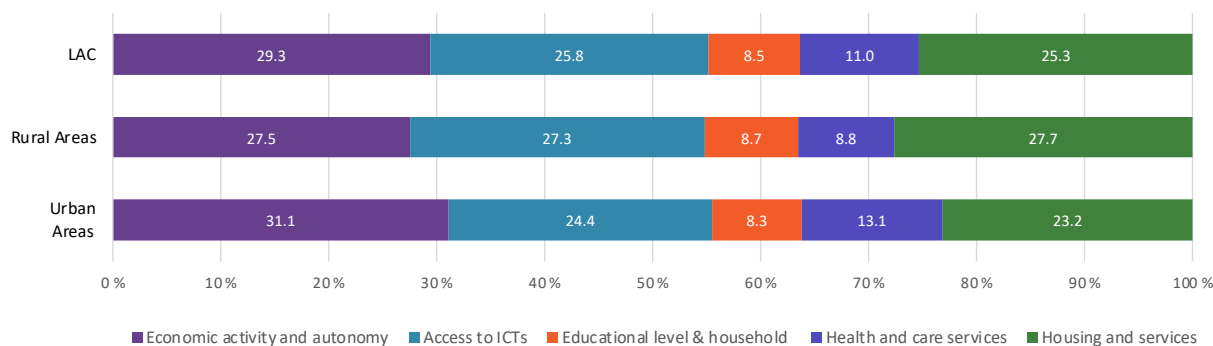
* The health and care services dimension corresponding to the Dominican Republic does not have information on health insurance
Source: Own elaboration with data from national surveys in the studied countries.

This graph shows the dimension “economic activity and autonomy” is the one that contributes most to explaining the MPI in Chile (35.6%), Costa Rica (33.3%) and Uruguay (31.3%). The dimension “access to ICTs” contributes most to the MPI in the Dominican Republic (31.5%) and the least to the MPI in Costa Rica (13.2%, 2.4 times lower). Regarding the “housing and services” dimension, it is observed that it contributes on average 25% to multidimensional poverty in all countries, except for Chile and Costa Rica, where the contribution of this dimension is 19.2% and 14.6%, respectively. The greatest differences are observed in the dimension “health and care services”; while in Costa Rica and El Salvador this dimension contributes around 22% to the MPI, in Uruguay this dimension only explains 1.2%. Finally, as can be seen on the upper part of Graph 8, the dimension “educational level and household composition” has the lowest contribution (8.5%) in

the 10 countries studied. Its contribution is relatively more important in Uruguay (16.9%), where the health and care services aspect is very low, and in Costa Rica (16.3%), where the percentages of the dimensions of “access to ICTs” and “housing and services” have a lower relative contribution.

Graph 9 shows the average contributions of each dimension to the MPI in rural and urban areas, with the goal of understanding the differences in poverty composition by area of residence for the countries of the region included in the study.

Graph 9: Relative contribution of dimensions to women’s multidimensional poverty for the analysed countries



Fuente: Own elaboration with data from national surveys from the countries in the study

At the aggregate level, there are no markedly differentiated contributions among the dimensions of the MPI in urban and rural areas; however, some differences are worth highlighting. The dimension “economic activity and autonomy” is the one that contributes the most to explaining multidimensional poverty in urban areas (30.8%) and is higher than that observed in rural areas (27.4%). Similarly, the contribution of the “health and care services” dimension is higher in urban areas. On the contrary, the dimensions of “access to ICTs” and “housing and services” have a higher contribution to the MPI in the rural areas than in the urban areas. The latter dimension, in particular, is the one that contributes the most to explaining multidimensional poverty in rural areas with 27.7%.

Understanding the type of deprivations that make up women’s multidimensional poverty is crucial to guiding public policies. In the case of women in the 10 countries analysed, the deprivations they face are concentrated (almost 80%) in three of the five dimensions that make up the MPI, namely “housing and services,” “access to ICTs” and “economic activity and autonomy.” The contribution of these three dimensions is two percentage points higher in the case of rural women, while for urban women it is 1.8 percentage points lower.

5.4 Top-contributing indicators by country and area

In Table 3, the three indicators that contribute most to the MPI are ordered for each country, and for urban and rural areas, in order to recognize the priority areas in each country and area. It is relevant to mention that, in both urban and rural areas and in 5 of the 10 countries, the most relevant indicators are “no Internet access,” “unfavourable activity status” and “no access to basic services in the dwelling.”

Table 3: Selection of the three indicators that contribute most to the MPI with a focus on women by country and area

Country	No Internet Access	Inadequate housing conditions	Unfavorable activity status	Non-income earner	No access to basic services	No health insurance	Insufficient educational level
Honduras	1		3		2		
El Salvador	2		3			1	
Bolivia	1		2		3		
Panama			1		2	3	
Mexico	2		1		3		
Colombia	1		2		3		
Dominican Republic	1		3		2		
Costa Rica			1	2			3
Chile	2		1	3			
Uruguay	2	3	1				
Rural area	2		3		1		
Urban area	2		1		3		
Selected countries	1		2		3		

Source: Own elaboration

This finding is relevant because a regional strategy could even be considered in order to achieve greater efficiency and reduce the cost of implementation. Furthermore, peer studies can be carried out to evaluate the results of public policies, because, while there are gaps in the results, the truth is that inequalities have an impact on similar dimensions in the region.



VI. Conclusions and recommendations

6.1 Conclusions

Multidimensional poverty measures contribute to a more precise analysis of poverty than measures based on income alone. Considering a set of social, political, and environmental variables that affect people allows governments to establish more coherent, efficient, and effective public policies for poverty reduction. Multidimensional poverty measures also provide empirical evidence on a set of variables and highlight the relationships between different phenomena. The participatory process of developing an MPI also strengthens dialogue and social consensus at the national level.

The MPI contributes to the adoption of holistic perspectives to address contemporary and multidimensional issues in alignment with the 2030 Agenda and the SDGs. To achieve the SDGs and sustainable and inclusive development, it is essential that, in the paradigm shift that accompanies the adoption of multidimensional poverty measures, gender variables are integrated in a coherent and systematic manner.

With respect to the MPI results, a description of the main findings follows:

- » This proposal is the first Multidimensional Poverty Index with a focus on women to be carried out in the region.
- » The incidence of multidimensional poverty among women is higher in rural areas; moreover, rural women experience a greater intensity of poverty. In El Salvador, for example, 91.3% of rural women live in conditions of multidimensional poverty and simultaneously experience 58% of deprivations.
- » In terms of adjusted incidence, MPI or M0, for women, the value of the 10 countries under study is 0.13, but is accentuated in rural areas, reaching a maximum of 0.53 for El Salvador and a minimum of 0.01 in the urban areas of Chile.
- » The indicators that contribute the most to the MPI with a focus on women are “unfavourable activity status,” “no Internet access” and “no access to basic services in the dwelling.”
- » The indicators that contribute the least to the MPI with a focus on women are “single-parent households with high economic dependence” and “no care services.”
- » In Uruguay, the indicators that make up the “health and care services” dimension have such a low incidence that they practically contribute nothing to the MPI; they only constitute 1.2%.

- » One of the aspects that can be seen is that the indicators “non-income earner,” “no health insurance” and “single-parent with high economic dependency” are more important in urban areas. In contrast, in rural areas, the deprivations of “digital overcrowding,” “no access to basic services in the dwelling” and “insufficient education” are more important.
- » Of the ten countries included in the analysis of multidimensional poverty presented in this paper, in five countries the feminisation of multidimensional poverty is higher than that of income poverty.

Of the 10 countries analysed in the study, Uruguay and Chile have the lowest estimates of both the incidence and intensity of multidimensional poverty among women. With respect to the higher values, Honduras is the country with the highest estimates, with El Salvador in second place.

6.2 Recommendations

Following the analysis of the results, some actions are proposed in order to address women’s multidimensional poverty and achieve results in terms of reducing inequalities on the path to inclusive sustainable development.

It is recommended that the authorities of the countries that are part of this study deepen the analysis of the causes of the largest gender gaps found in the MPI analysis with a focus on women in order to continue monitoring them and, above all, to establish measures aimed at correcting these gaps. In future measurements, it is useful to consider the standardization of both the form of inquiry and the questions themselves, because although in this MPI the “feasible” indicators were used, as they were present in most of the surveys, not all of them have the same information in their construction.

In order to ensure life-cycle and intersectional approaches –which recognize how different forms of discrimination add up to and influence higher levels of deprivation for some groups of women– it is important that there is a possibility to disaggregate data according to some criteria relevant to national contexts. Among other criteria, it is recommended to collect information on age, ethnicity, disability, geographical area, gender identity, sexual orientation, religion, migration status, nationality, and income level. In addition, it is important to promote inclusive public policies that can protect and empower women in their diversity at key moments of their life cycle such as pregnancy, pre- and post-natal periods, labour market integration, and ageing.

Indicators related to time usage, violence and sexual and reproductive health are fundamental and relevant in the analysis of women’s poverty and cannot be left behind. It is important to consider that in the MPI with a focus on women it was not possible

to include these data due to lack of information and the impossibility of comparing them between the countries' household surveys. It is recommended that the statistical authorities of the countries work with integrated survey panels, and/or evaluate the opportunity to include new questions in household surveys that allow these aspects to be measured and, in some cases, assess the use of administrative records to obtain this information.

In response to the higher incidence of multidimensional poverty among women living in rural areas, it is suggested that a regional strategy be designed containing a methodology that focuses on efforts to reduce multidimensional poverty in women in rural areas.

Finally, in order to promote real transformation, it is recommended that public policies be implemented in four areas:

- 1. Social protection:** implement social protection systems that can protect and empower women, through contributory (maternity leave, paternity and parental leave, pensions, sickness coverage, among others) and non-contributory (income, social assistance / welfare payments) mechanisms that take into account the particular needs and challenges of women in all their diversity.
- 2. Comprehensive care systems:** policies that address the economic value of time for women and the redistribution of care and unpaid domestic work. The construction of comprehensive national and local care systems, as a pillar of social protection systems, is necessary to move towards a caring society. This requires transforming the power relations that underlie the sexual division of labour and guaranteeing women's economic, physical, and political autonomy. The existence of a comprehensive care system allows for the recognition, redistribution, and remuneration of the unpaid domestic and care work done by women. Additionally, it contributes to improving women's labour integration in formal paid jobs, while responding to profound demographic, labour and technological changes and to the needs of populations requiring care (the elderly, the disabled, infants and young children).
- 3. Active labour market policies that:** i) enable the equal participation of men and women, de-masculinising and de-feminising specific sectors; ii) promote the inclusion of women in sectors connected to the future of work, such as those related to Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics; and iii) promote co-responsibility policies and the eradication of violence in the workplace.

4. Fair tax systems, that analyse and recognize territorial, ethnic, socioeconomic, gender and age inequalities. Progressive tax systems are needed to help finance social protection systems and comprehensive care systems to redistribute social benefits and to ensure that revenues are used to improve the quality of life by enhancing access to and the quality of public services. In addition, it is recommended that discriminatory tax burdens be reduced by eliminating gender-biased taxes.



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Annexes

Annex 1: Some measures of multidimensional well-being

The three most recognized multidimensional well-being measures in the region that provide broader frameworks for poverty measurement are the Unmet Basic Needs (UBN) method, the Human Development Index (HDI), and the Global Multidimensional Poverty Index (global MPI).

Unmet basic needs method

The unmet basic needs (UBN) method has been used in the countries of the region since the 1980s to characterize poverty in specific dimensions: access to housing (quality of housing and overcrowding); access to sanitation services (availability of potable drinking water, type of sewerage disposal); access to education (attendance of school-age children at an educational institution); economic capacity (probability of insufficient household income). This measure takes this set of variables and identifies where the household does or does not meet full access to that good or service (whether or not needs are met); at this point the household is classified according to the total number of UBN that are not met (ECLAC, 2001).

Human Development Index (HDI)

The capability approach is based on the concept of human development, which focuses on people's well-being and quality of life. With this focus, the approach seeks to transcend the using economic aspects as the sole measure of well-being. While economic growth is recognized as a contributor to the development process, it is not a goal in and of itself (UNDP, 2018a); human development emphasizes people's possibilities to have choice and agency (United Nations, 2015b). The Human Development Index (HDI) was developed as a methodological tool to provide a measure that summarizes and measures human development criteria at the country level, which in turn allows countries to be able to be classified. The UNDP has calculated the HDI annually since 1990, which considers the ability to live a healthy life through life expectancy at birth, education through average schooling and expected years of education, and the ability to achieve a decent standard of living through gross national income per capita (UNDP, 2018a).

Global Multidimensional Poverty Index

In 2007, the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative developed the methodology of the Multidimensional Poverty Index¹⁷.

The shift in measuring poverty from a focus on income to a focus on multidimensional poverty was based on the idea that income deprivation provides a vague and incomplete picture of poverty, because it does not visualize the real deprivations people face (Sen, 2000b; Alkire and Foster, 2007). The global MPI complements the traditional income-based poverty measurements by capturing the deprivations individuals face simultaneously in education, health, and other standards of living. These three dimensions are weighted equally, while within each dimension their component indicators are equally distributed (MPPN, n.d.).

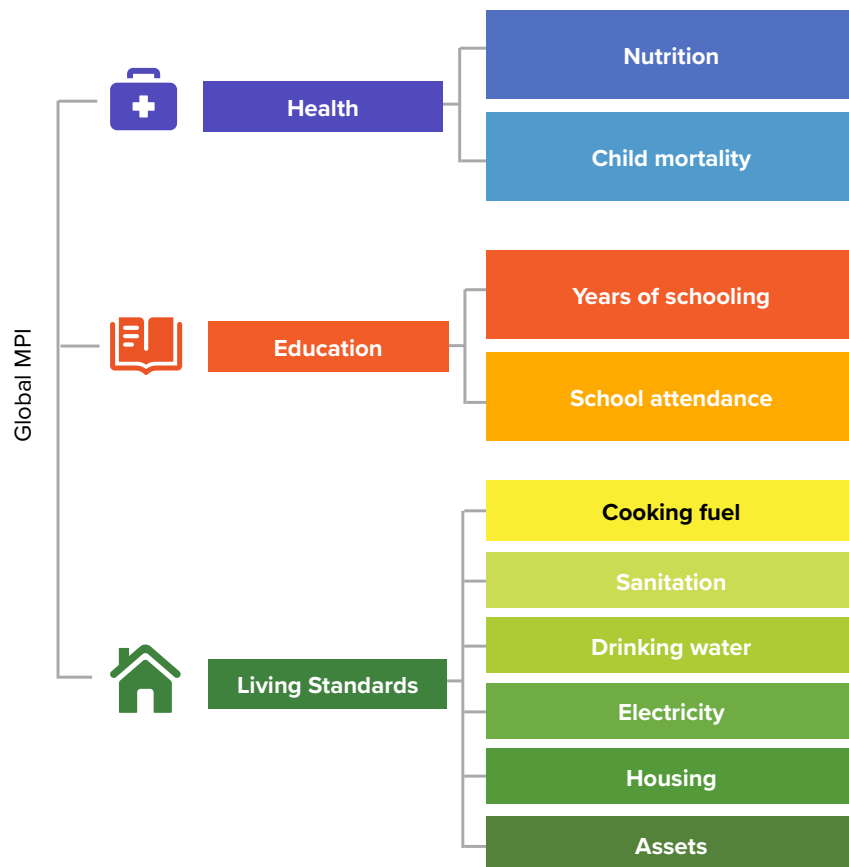
In 2018, UNDP and OPHI developed a new version of the global MPI, which was aligned with the 2030 Agenda and the SDGs, especially in order to respond to the principle of “leaving no one behind” and to monitor progress on SDG 1 linked to the eradication of poverty in all its forms. To this end, five of the ten indicators comprising the global MPI were revised and calculated for 105 countries, which represented 77% of the global population.

With the global MPI, a household or an individual is considered multidimensional poor if he or she experiences deprivation in one third or more of the indicators (see figure A1.1). The global MPI provides a measure at the country level that enables comparisons among countries, but not on an internal level. In recent years, several countries have developed their own MPI, according to their priorities, contexts, and socio-economic characteristics. As of the date of this report, 2023, twelve countries in Latin America and the Caribbean had developed a national MPI¹⁸, so the region is at the forefront of developing multidimensional poverty measures.

¹⁷ Sabina Alkire y James Foster de OPHI coordinaron las tareas que dieron origen a esta metodología.

¹⁸ In 2009: Mexico; 2011: Colombia; 2015: Chile, El Salvador, Costa Rica; 2016: Ecuador, Honduras; 2017: Panama, the Dominican Republic; 2019: Guatemala; 2021: Paraguay; 2022: Belize.

Image A1.1: Global MPI: dimensions and indicators



Source: Own elaboration from information taken from OPHI-UNDP (2021)

Annex 2: Advantages and disadvantages of strategies for integrating a gender focus into multidimensional poverty measurement

Strategies	Advantages	Disadvantages
1. New questions in national household surveys	<p>Greater insight into the real panorama of multidimensional poverty, including the deprivations that disproportionately affect women. Examples of relevant case questions from countries in the region are presented in Annex 3.</p> <p>If no new questions are required, the additional cost is minimal.</p>	<p>It does not incorporate all the dimensions in which women are deprived, so some of the elements that underlie women's poverty may be invisible. This may result in a limited analysis for making and proposing effective policies to fight multidimensional poverty.</p> <p>Incorporating new questions may be more costly, as well as requiring time and testing.</p>
2. Breakdown by sex and gender analysis in national MPIs	<p>The existing gaps between men and women in the MPI domains are analysed. Annex 3 presents examples of gender-sensitive indicators relevant for the measurement of women's multidimensional poverty, which is required under international treaties, covenants, and agreements.</p> <p>The use of existing questions in the country surveys makes it possible to highlight specific characteristics of poverty in women that will be useful in integrating gender-sensitive indicators into the national MPI.</p> <p>Analysing national MPIs through the disaggregation of indicators by sex of individuals or household head is a strategy that has already been successfully implemented in some countries.</p> <p>It fulfils the commitments made by states under the Beijing Platform for Action (1995) as well as the SDGs.</p>	<p>Like the previous strategy, the weakness of this proposal is that it can result in deficient analysis (when MPIs do not have a wide range of gender indicators and are limited to the analysis of sex-disaggregated data). This results in poor analysis for targeting effective policies to combat the multidimensional poverty of women.</p> <p>The risks associated with the sex of the head of the household and of considering that needs and resources are equally distributed in a household imply ignoring gender differences in time use and contribution in the household of unpaid domestic work, as well as the different spending patterns and the unequal distribution of resources, especially of higher-value consumer goods.</p>
3. Elaboration of an MPI specific to women	<p>It is the most comprehensive methodology for looking in depth at women's poverty, its structural causes and consequences.</p> <p>It is a useful public policy tool for countries, as it provides a complete picture at the country level at a given point in time.</p> <p>It advances the commitment made by all UN member countries in the framework of the SDGs, which contain an explicit mandate to monitor and combat women's poverty.</p> <p>If built on available information, not many additional resources are required.</p> <p>If constructed with indicators of interest, one would have a measurement that contains as many of the desired indicators as possible, subject to the different ways and means of obtaining the information.</p>	<p>If constructed with indicators of interest, it requires political will and the provision of resources (human, technical and financial) to collect and analyse the data.</p> <p>If it is constructed with available information, indicators that have a strong influence on women's poverty will not be visualized.</p> <p>If information is collected only on women and not on men and women, it is not possible to measure the level of inequality.</p>

Source: Own elaboration

Annex 3: System of indicators of poverty and gender: the case of Mexico

Since 2008, Mexico's National Council for the Evaluation of Social Development Policy (CONEVAL, for its Spanish acronym) has established a system of poverty and gender indicators (see: www.coneval.org.mx/Medicion/MP/Paginas/Pobreza-y-genero-en-Mexico-2010-2016.aspx). The system of indicators on poverty and gender is designed to provide an overview of the situation of disadvantages according to sex, while at the same time highlighting the gaps or distances between men and women in the exercise of their social rights, as well as in the access to resources, and incorporating relevant aspects of gender analysis. The purpose of the system of indicators is to contribute to substantive equality between men and women and to the implementation of social development policy in order to reduce the gender gap. The system is composed of thirty indicators that analyse gender gaps in nine dimensions: household, education, health, nutrition, paid work, income, social security, housing, and domestic work (Table A3.1).

According to the results of CONEVAL's system of indicators on poverty and gender, in 2016 for every 100 male-headed households, 38 households were female-headed. Female-headed households tend to have a higher number of children and older adults. Likewise, they are also associated with greater sociodemographic vulnerability and higher percentages of poverty. An analysis of some of the indicators in this study shows that, in terms of labour income, women earn lower wages than men. This gap is more accentuated in the population living in poverty (where women earn one-fifth less than their male counterparts even if they have the same level of education). Despite a decrease in the gap in the educational achievement between male and female household heads, women still have higher levels of educational deficiencies than men, especially when they are living in poverty. In terms of social security, in 2016, for every 100 men employed with social security benefits, 62 employed women had the same benefits. The gap is accentuated in the population living in poverty: in 2016, for every 100 employed men with social security, 49 employed women had access to social security. According to the 2016 results, among the older adult population living in poverty, practically no women had contributed to any social security institution, which means that in the future they will not have a pension or the health services associated with social protection. Finally, if the "domestic work" indicator is analysed, we can see that, compared to men, women spend between 12 to 17 more hours per week working in the home and between 5 and 14 more hours caring exclusively and without pay for other people inside or outside the home. This work overload is even greater for women living in poverty (CONEVAL, 2016).

Table A3.1: System of indicators on poverty and gender, 2010-2016

DIMENSION	No.	INDICATOR
HOUSE-HOLDS	1	Ratio of households by sex of the household head, by age group, and poverty status of the household head
	2	Distribution of population by household structure, sex of the household head, and poverty status of the household head
	3	Average household demographic dependency ratio, according to household structure, sex of the household head and poverty status of the household head
	4	Percentage distribution of the coincidence between declared head of household and the main income earner, by sex of the household head
EDUCATION	5	Gap in the percentage of female and male heads of household with educational lag, by age group and poverty status of the household head
	6	Ratio of women to men according to benefit entitlement status, by poverty status
HEALTH	7	Ratio of women to men entitled, by source (direct or indirect) of entitlement and poverty status
	8	Ratio of female to male beneficiaries by health institution or programme and poverty status
NUTRITION	9	Gap in the percentage of households with lack of access to food/nutrition, by sex of the household head and poverty status of the household head
	10	Gaps in the percentage of households by degree of food insecurity, sex of the household head, and poverty status of the household head
PAID WORK	11	Gap in economic participation rate of men and women, by age group and poverty status
	12	Gap in percentage of male and female workers without a contract, by poverty status
	13	Ratio of women/men employed without pay, by age group and poverty status
	14	Ratio of employed adolescent females/males, by poverty status
	15	Female economic participation rate, by childbearing status, age group and poverty status
	16	Gap in the percentage of employed men and women in full-time employment, by poverty status
	17	Percentage of male and female workers by type of occupational segregation, gender and poverty status
INCOME	18	Percentage distribution of current household monetary income, by sex of the recipient and poverty status
	19	Labour income ratio of female/male workers by level of education and poverty status
	20	Percentage distribution of current monetary income by source of access (direct or indirect), by sex and by poverty status
	21	Gini coefficient of the population, by sex of the household head and poverty status of the household head
	22	Percentage distribution of households according to sex of the main income earner and poverty status
	23	Ratio of female/male beneficiaries receiving cash transfers from social programmes, by age groups and poverty status
SOCIAL SECURITY	24	Ratio of employed women/men with direct access to social security, by poverty status
	25	Gap in the percentage of employed men and women who have never paid contributions to any social security institution, by poverty status
HOUSING	26	Percentage of households with inadequate quality and space of housing, by sex of the household head and poverty status of the household head
	27	Ratio of women/men fetching water and firewood, by age groups
DOMESTIC WORK	28	Gap in average time spent by men and women on household chores, by age group and poverty status
	29	Gap in the average time spent by men and women on caring for others, by age group and poverty status
	30	Gap in the average time spent by employed men and women on household chores, by age group and poverty status

Source: CONEVAL system of indicators on poverty and gender (2016)

Annex 4: Dimensions considered and inclusion of gender considerations in national MPIs in the region

National MPIs	Dimensions considered	Inclusion of gender
Mexico (2009 & 2015)	<p>It incorporates the following dimensions in its measurements: income, educational lag, access to health services, social security, quality and space in household dwellings, access to basic services in the dwelling, and access to nutrition. The methodology allows for the identification of poor and non-poor people and vulnerable people due to social deficits (that is to say people who are not considered poor due to their income but suffer from at least one social deprivation).</p> <p>This measure does not include data disaggregated by sex, but an analysis by specific groups, such as indigenous populations, adolescents, and children (CONEVAL, 2015).</p>	System of gender indicators in the calculation of poverty and gender since 2008. This study contains 30 indicators that analyse gender gaps in the following dimensions: household, education, health, nutrition, paid work, income, social security, housing, domestic work. Overview of the situation of disadvantages based on gender, which makes it possible to highlight the gaps or distances in the exercise of women's social rights, as well in their access to resources.
Colombia (2011 & 2015)	It includes the following dimensions: educational status of the household, the conditions for children and youth; work; health and access to public services and utilities; and housing conditions. These dimensions have 15 indicators and households are considered poor if they are deprived in at least 33% of the indicators. In 2017, the percentage of multidimensionally poor people is about 17%, while in 2016 it was 17.8%. As for poverty measures according to income, in 2017 the percentage of poor people was 26.9%, placing this rate above the multidimensional poverty rate (Government of Colombia, 2015).	No
Chile (2015)	Four dimensions: education, health, work and social security, and housing and environment were incorporated and in 2015 a new dimension, social cohesion and networks, was added. Each dimension carried a weight of 22.5%, except for social cohesion and networks, which has a weight of 10%. The poverty cut-off established in Chile is 22.5%. In the dimension "social cohesion and networks," an indicator called "equal treatment" is included: households are considered deprived if they declare any of their members have been treated unfairly or discriminated against outside the house-hold in the last 12 months for any of the following reasons: socioeconomic status; being male/female; civil/marital status; clothing; skin colour; foreign origin; age; sexual orientation or gender identity; having tattoos, piercings or expanders; physical appearance; beliefs or religion; ideology or political opinion; participation in trade unions or organizations; the place where they live; the institutions where they studied; belonging to an indigenous group; or health condition or disabilities, which measure the deprivation(s) suffered by people due to discrimination (Government of Chile, 2016).	No
El Salvador (2015)	The MPI for El Salvador is based on 5 dimensions and 20 indicators: education; housing conditions; work and social security; health, basic services and food security; and quality of habitat. The unit of analysis is the household. The poverty cut-off established by El Salvador is 0.35, which means that multidimensionally poor households are deprived in at least 35% of the indicators. Thus, a household is considered poor if it is deprived in seven indicators or more (STTP and MINEC DISGESTYC, 2015).	Sex of the head of the household: gender breakdown by analysing the incidence of multidimensional poverty by sex of household head.
Costa Rica (2015)	In Costa Rica, the first multidimensional poverty measure used was "unsatisfied basic needs," a measure used in several countries in the region in the 1980s. Costa Rica adopted the multidimensional poverty measure in 2015, consisting of 5 dimensions: education; housing and Internet use; health; work; and social protection. Each dimension has a weight of 20%. The poverty cut-off in Costa Rica is 0.20, which means that multidimensionally poor households are those deprived in at least 20% of the indicators, equivalent to being deprived in one dimension or having around 4 or more indicators showing simultaneous deprivation. A major innovation on the part of Costa Rica has been the development of a business MPI, which is an adaptation of the MPI that has been designed for the business sector with the objective of having a detailed view of the conditions in which workers and their families are living (INEC, 2015).	The MPI for Costa Rica distinguishes the indicator "out of the labour force due to family obligations," which has the highest incidence in the social protection dimension. 55.2% of the poor suffer from this deprivation, 98% of whom are women.
Dominican Republic (2017)	The Dominican Republic started its journey towards the creation of a national MPI, composed of 24 indicators integrated in the following 5 dimensions: health; education and childcare; livelihood and work; housing and environment; digital divide and coexistence (ONE, 2018)	Childcare
Ecuador (2016)	Ecuador implemented the multidimensional poverty measure in 2006 and uses the household as the unit of analysis, based on the National Survey of Employment, Unemployment and Underemployment. Ecuador's MPI groups 4 dimensions: education, work and social security; health; water and nutrition; habitat, housing, and a healthy environment. These dimensions were established according to the statistical interpretation of the Rights of the Good Life chapter in the Constitution. Its MPI is made up of 12 indicators. Households with an average of 4 or more deprivations are considered to be living in a condition of multidimensional poverty.	No
Honduras (2016)	Measuring poverty based on income quickly seems insufficient for the design and development of public policies. Therefore, Honduras decided in 2016 to incorporate a multidimensional measure of poverty in order to better define priorities, reduce inequalities, and close existing gaps. In its MPI, Honduras opted to incorporate 4 dimensions (health, education, work, and housing) and 15 indicators with a poverty cut-off of 25%. It was used in the 2013 multi-purpose household survey.	In the MPI developed by Honduras, demographic characteristics were incorporated, such as "woman as household head," and the MPI was also disaggregated by sex to differentiate multidimensional poverty between men and women
Panama (2017)	Panama's MPI is made up of 17 indicators in 5 dimensions (education; housing, basic services and internet access; environment, surroundings and sanitation; work; health). The poverty cut-off defines that a person is in multidimensional poverty if he/she suffers deprivations in 5 or more indicators, which represents suffering deprivations in one and a half dimensions (Republic of Panama, 2017).	Panama's MPI introduced a link between the gender approach and multidimensional poverty with the integration of some specific indicators of women's situations and well-being: -Domestic employee without social security -Pregnancy control
Guatemala (2018)	Guatemala is provisionally using the MPI as a poverty measure to monitor progress on indicator 1.2.2 of the SDGs. Currently, Guatemala is in the first stage of the process of constructing a national MPI, which implies estimating, for the first time, the index officially at the country level to complement the income poverty measure.	No

Source: Own elaboration

Annex 5: Selection of countries and their sources of information

The selection of countries making up this study represents a diverse view of the region. Countries from the Southern Cone, the Andean region, Central America, and the Dominican Republic were included, as it was the only Caribbean country that had information available. Priority is given to the analysis with information from 2019, as it represents the pre-pandemic starting point and the year in which complete information pertaining to the previous timeframe was collected.

Table A5.1: Survey and source of information for each selected country

Country	Survey, institution and year
Bolivia	Survey and source of information for each selected country
Chile	National socioeconomic characterization survey (MIDES, 2017)
Colombia	National quality of life survey (DANE, 2019)
Costa Rica	National household survey (INEC, 2019)
Dominican Republic	Multi-purpose national household survey (ONE, 2018)
El Salvador	Multi-purpose household survey (DIGESTYC, 2019)
Honduras	Multi-purpose household survey (INE, 2019)
Mexico	National income and expenditure survey (INEGI, 2018)
Panama	Household survey (INEC, 2017)
Uruguay	Continuous household survey (INE, 2019)

Source: Own elaboration

Table A5.2 shows the country with the largest population and the most women in rural areas¹⁹ is Mexico, but in relative terms Honduras has a larger rural population at 40.9%. With respect to urban areas, Mexico also has the largest population in absolute terms, but in relative terms it is Uruguay, which has 94.9% of its population in urban zones. The country with the largest population is Mexico, and the country with the smallest population is Uruguay. These data are relevant because when the MPI results are analysed by area, it will be possible to understand what the percentages represent.

¹⁹ The area classification is carried out by each of the entities in charge of conducting household surveys in each country.

Table A5.2. Distribution by area of the population of women aged 18 and over in the countries studied

Country	Urban		Rural		Cases without identified area		Total	
	Absolute	Relative	Absolute	Relative	Absolute	Relative	Absolute	Relative
Bolivia	2,747,381	72.1 %	1,061,546	27.9 %	-	0.00 %	3,808,926	100 %
Chile	6,457,242	88.0 %	876,757	12.0 %	-	0.00 %	7,333,999	100 %
Colombia	14,660,947	79.4 %	3,797,768	20.6 %	10,171	0.06 %	18,468,885	100 %
Costa Rica	1,488,974	74.9 %	498,507	25.1 %	-	0.00 %	1,987,481	100 %
Dominican Republic	2,995,304	82.9 %	619,008	17.1 %	-	0.00 %	3,614,312	100 %
El Salvador	1,683,055	64.7 %	917,277	35.3 %	-	0.00 %	2,600,331	100 %
Honduras	1,819,715	59.1 %	1,257,321	40.9 %	-	0.00 %	3,077,036	100 %
Mexico	35,085,845	77.6 %	10,139,486	22.4 %	-	0.00 %	45,225,331	100 %
Panama	1,010,097	72.2 %	379,694	27.2 %	8,385	0.60 %	1,398,176	100 %
Uruguay	1,319,599	94.9 %	71,093	5.1 %	-	0.00 %	1,390,692	100 %
Total	69,268,158	77.9 %	19,618,455	22.1 %	18,556	0.02 %	88,905,168	100 %

Source: Own elaboration

Annex 6: Statistical tests: description and analysis of results

The robustness and redundancy tests suggested by Alkire and Foster's methodology are carried out in order to have a measure that reflects what is actually intended to be measured, in the most efficient and effective way possible. The UNDP and OPHI manual on how to develop national MPI measures using the Sustainable Development Goals (How to create a national Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI): using MPIs to guide the SDGs, 2019) provides guidance on the steps to be followed for the statistical analysis (OPHI-UNDP, 2019); this document also forms the basis for carrying it out.

Because the population of interest is women aged 18 years and older, the analysis and testing focus on this population. Below is a brief description of each of the tests conducted on the indicators with the respective analyses.

A6.1 Robustness

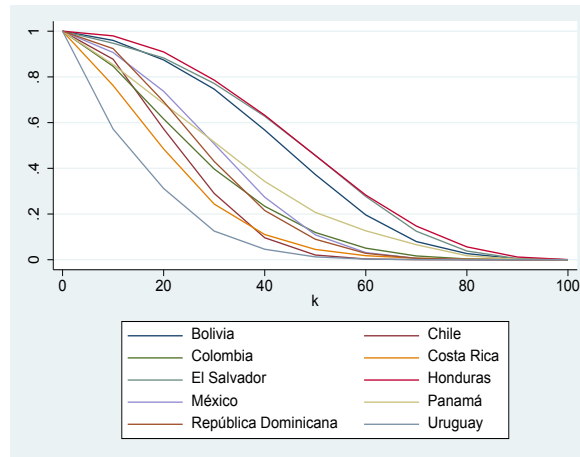
Robustness assess the effects of small variations; the aim is to ensure these small changes do not have a strong impact on the measures, so that a robust measure can be obtained in statistical terms, since this can ensure the level of the MPI by country or the trends during a period should not change abruptly if the specifications of the measures are altered in small proportions (OPHI-UNDP, 2019).

Stochastic dominance

For the vector of cut-off thresholds of z indicators and the vector of weights in the Alkire-Foster methodology, first-order stochastic dominance (FOSD) is used to assess the sensitivity of any comparison of pairs to variation in poverty lines or k cut-offs.

This assessment is completed in first-order terms, using the incidence (H) and the second-order (MO) (OPHI, 2015).

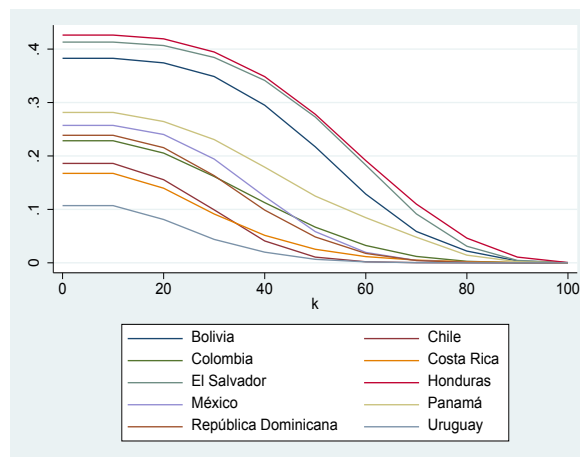
Graph A6.1: First-order stochastic dominance of the MPI with a focus on women



Source: Own elaboration with data from national surveys in the countries of the study

Graph A6.1 shows that, in general, if we consider the different poverty lines (k), the order of poverty incidence is maintained, however, the trends of the curves in the cases of Panamá and Costa Rica show trends that cause the order to break down, practically from the beginning of the distribution curves. To analyse this situation and ensure dominance exists, it is therefore necessary to analyse the second-order stochastic dominance results.

Graph A6.2: Second-order stochastic dominance of the MPI with a focus on women



Source: Own elaboration with national survey data from the countries of the study, obtained with Stata version SE 16.1

Likewise, in Graph A6.2, Costa Rica and Panama show different trends from the rest of the countries. Although Costa Rica's line crosses over Chile's before reaching the 40% cut-off, throughout the series the cut-offs remain close, so there is no evidence to suggest they are different. With respect to Panama, it is possible that it does show a difference with Colombia at the 0% cut-off, but the crossover occurs only with the upper **MO** line at the starting-point on the y axis.

Given these observations, and despite the fact that these are different countries and contexts that show very stable behaviour, it can be concluded that there is stochastic dominance.

Kendall's tau b correlation coefficient in paired comparisons

Paired comparisons are performed in order to test that for relatively small variations, both in the k cut-off selection and in the weight of dimensions and therefore of their indicators, the relationship between the population living in poverty remains high.

It is then suggested to perform the RT test (OPHI-UNDP, 2019), expressed in the following formula:

$$R^T = \frac{\# \text{ concordant pairs} - \# \text{ discordant pairs}}{m(m - 1)/2}; -1 \leq R^T \leq 1$$

Where:

A pair of subgroups (*l*, *l'*) is concordant if the comparisons between two objects are the same in both the initial and alternative specification. A pair of subgroups (*l*, *l'*) is discordant if the comparisons between two objects are different between the initial specification and the alternative.

RT = -1 the two ranges are associated with each other in a negatively perfect way.

RT = 1 the ranges are associated with each other in a positively perfect way.

Considering the above, small variations in the specification of the MPI should lead to values of Kendall's tau b coefficient close to 1. In order for the indicator to be considered acceptable, it is recommended that values close to the poverty line be around 0.6.

It is proposed to obtain this coefficient both for different k cut-offs (close to the selected cut-off) and for conformations with different assignment of weights to the dimensions.

Kendall's tau b coefficient for different cut-offs

Since the proposed MPI has 10 indicators and each one has a weighing of 10%, comparisons with nearby cut-offs must be assessed especially for the upper and lower cut-offs, i.e. $k=30$ and $k=50$; however, as a reference, the $k=20$ and $k=60$ are recorded.

It is observed that for both the 30 and 50 cut-offs, values above 0.60 are obtained (0.67 and 0.68 respectively), concluding that there is robustness because the poverty incidence results are relatively stable around the reference value $k=40$.

Table A6.1: Kendall's Tau b for different cut-offs in the Latin American countries under study

Poverty Cut-offs	Tau-b with respect to cut-off $k=40$
$k=20$	0.43
$k=30$	0.67
$k=40$	1.00
$k=50$	0.68
$k=60$	0.45

Source: Own elaboration with data from national surveys in the countries of the study.

Kendall's tau b coefficient for different weightings of dimensions

With respect to the assignment of different weights to the dimensions, the objective of which is to analyse that in the event of small changes in the conformation of the indicator there would not be abrupt changes in the results (abrupt changes generated by small methodological variations are not consistent with a robust measure, since what it would ultimately show is precisely little stability).

Thus, Table A6.2 shows results that contrast the results of Kendall's tau b coefficient of different conformations with dimensional equidistribution (which is the conformation used in the construction of this MPI).

The results show in all cases Kendall's tau b coefficient values greater than 0.6, and specifically, greater than 0.78, which leads to the conclusion that the measurement is also robust in this way.

Table A6.2: Kendall's tau b for different weights in the dimensions In the Latin American countries studied

Assignment of weight	Tau-b with respect to equidistributon (each dimension 1/5)
Dimensions with equal weight (1/5)	1.00
Health and care services dimension 2/6 and the other dimensions 1/6	0.79
Education and household composition dimension 2/6 and the other dimensions 1/6	0.78
Economic activity and financial autonomy 2/6 and the other dimensions 1/6	0.87
Access to information 2/6 and the other dimensions 1/6	0.93
Housing and services dimension 2/6 and the other dimensions 1/6	0.91

Source: Own elaboration with data from national surveys in the countries of the study.

A6.2 Redundancy

When creating the MPI, the redundancy of indicators should be analysed because it is desirable that there is no high correlation or that two indicators do not capture the same phenomenon. To evaluate and rule out these cases, OPHI proposes a measure of overlap or redundancy, P , which provides clear and accurate information for indicator selection (OPHI-UNDP, 2019; OPHI, 2015).

The formula for obtaining the value of P is denoted in the following formula (OPHI-UNDP, 2019):

$$P = \frac{p_{11}^{jj'}}{\min [p_{+1}^{j'}, p_{1+}^j]}; 0 \leq P \leq 1$$

Where:

- $p_{11}^{jj'}$ Number of households deprived in both indications.
- $p_{+1}^{j'}$ Total households deprived in indicator j' .
- p_{1+}^j Total households deprived indicator j .

The value of P assesses the overlaps between deprivations as a proportion of the minimum of the marginal deprivation rates. This value varies between zero and one: zero means that no deprivation observations in one indicator are also found in the other; and one means that all people deprived in one indicator are also deprived in the other. If the redundancy is greater than or equal to 0.9 both in one period and over time, it is suggested that one of the two indicators be assessed and discarded; it is

further suggested that it is important to In the case at hand, as shown in table A6.3, no interaction of incidence between indicators shows a redundancy higher than 0.9, which leads to the conclusion that there is no redundancy between indicators. Those with values between 0.8 and 0.9 are marked in grey to show that there are only four interactions in this range (as these are paired interactions, the table has 8 boxes coloured grey) and these are:

- » no health insurance – unfavourable activity status;
- » inadequate housing conditions – unfavourable activity status;
- » digital overcrowding – no Internet access;
- » inadequate housing conditions – no Internet access.

These results are not surprising, considering that “unfavourable activity status” is the indicator with the highest incidence (68.8%), which is to say a high percentage of women experience this deprivation; and, given the calculation methodology, it is probable other interactions happen more easily.

Table A6.3: P-redundancy values for the indicators than make up the MPI with a focus on women in the Latin American countries studied

Variables	No health insurance	No child-care Services	Insufficient education	Single-parent with high dependence	Unfavourable Activity status	Non-income earning woman	No access to Internet	Digital Overcrowding	Inadequate housing conditions	No access to basic services
No health insurance	1.000	0.181	0.152	0.204	0.870	0.411	0.572	0.174	0.214	0.434
No child-care Services	0.181	1.000	0.173	0.190	0.760	0.428	0.663	0.194	0.315	0.488
Insufficient education	0.152	0.173	1.000	0.143	0.769	0.306	0.773	0.279	0.249	0.642
Single-parent with high dependence	0.204	0.190	0.143	1.000	0.599	0.558	0.587	0.204	0.192	0.402
Unfavourable Activity status	0.870	0.760	0.769	0.599	1.000	0.731	0.745	0.734	0.823	0.790
Non-income earning woman	0.411	0.428	0.306	0.558	0.731	1.000	0.568	0.318	0.351	0.389
No access to Internet	0.572	0.663	0.773	0.587	0.745	0.568	1.000	0.816	0.802	0.793
Digital Overcrowding	0.174	0.194	0.279	0.204	0.734	0.318	0.816	1.000	0.284	0.644
Inadequate housing conditions	0.214	0.315	0.249	0.192	0.823	0.351	0.802	0.284	1.000	0.736
No access to basic services	0.434	0.488	0.642	0.402	0.790	0.389	0.793	0.644	0.736	1.000

Source: Own elaboration

Annex 7: Indicators with their dimensions and the adjustments made to definitions for respective estimations

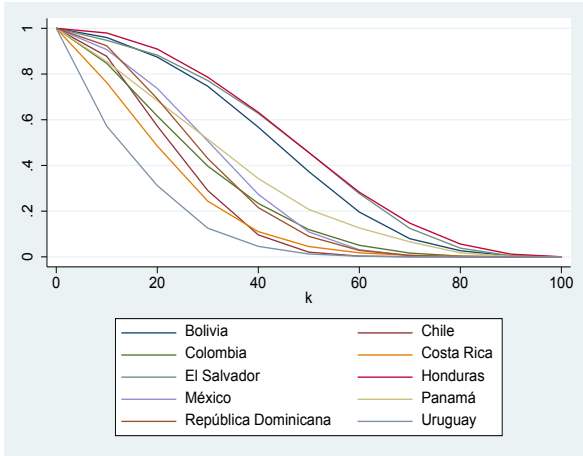
Indicador	Notes
5.5.1 Health and Care Services	
5.5.1.1 No health insurance	The Dominican Republic does not have information on health insurance. In Honduras, it is applied when the woman belongs to a household in which none of the members contribute to health insurance or receive retirement or pension income. In Panama, only social security is enquired. Mexico: a woman is deprived if she does not have “Seguro Popular” nor affiliation with medical care.
5.5.1.2 No childcare services	In Panamá information is obtained only for the population aged 4 and 5 years. In Mexico and the Dominican Republic information on attendance is collected only for children 3 years and older. In Mexico, a woman is considered deprived if she lives in a household where a child between 3 and 5 of age does not attend school, day-care, CENDI, CADI or nursery.
5.5.2 Education and household structure	
5.5.2.1 Insufficient educational level	In El Salvador, it is not possible to obtain the years of schooling, so it is considered deprivation if the age range from 18-30 does not have kindergarten, has inferior grade or never attended primary school; for the ages of 31 - 59 years if they have initial education, none, or attend kindergarten.
5.5.2.2 Single-parent households with high economic dependency	In the Dominican Republic, is included only if they are employed, retired, pensioners, or retirees.
5.5.3 Economic Activity and financial autonomy	
5.5.3.1 Unfavourable activity status	For the case of the Dominican Republic, deprivation was only assigned by being out of the labour force due to work obligations or being unemployed; people who work less than 40 hours in their main job and are in a very low socio-economic group will be added.
a. Out of the labour force for caregiving or domestic work	In Honduras it includes: “a family member does not leave you” and “the fact of being pregnant” because these states may not be a reason to be out of the labour force (a woman could be on maternity leave), and this category is included separately. In the case of Chile the following are included: “no one to leave the children with”; “no one to leave elderly adults with”; “no one to leave another family member with” or “must take care of household chores” in one of the two available options there are 19,291 sample cases, and 816 in the second option. Colombia does not ask about the reasons for not looking for work, so this category includes people who did not look for work and spent most of their time doing household chores.
b. Non-compliance with minimum working conditions in the principal job	If by law there are categories by type of elementary occupation or required grade level or without required education, the average of the two categories is used. Honduras does not identify whether or not self-employed workers are registered with a public body or have accounting records, so this deprivation is not included. Colombia does not record whether the activity of self-employed workers has accounting records or is registered, so it is considered a deprivation if they work in uncovered places in the street (mobile or fixed locations). In Panama, the formality of the independent or self-employed workers is not enquired, so it is approximated by the negative answer of the person who responds to the following question: “Are you enrolled in the Civil Registry or do you have an identity card?” For Mexico, a woman faces deprivation if she is out of the labour force and is engaged in household chores, or if she is salaried and her estimated hourly income is less than 11.05 pesos (88.36/8), or if in her job she did not contribute to retirement savings or old-age pension, or if she is self-employed and the accounting records are kept by the woman directly or a family member and she is not registered with a notary.
c. Unemployment or underemployment due to insufficient hours of work	For underemployment, if the working day is more than 40-48 hours, if there is no definition in the variables created, less than 40 hours is taken; if the working day is 40 hours, less than 36 hours is used. In El Salvador, they do not ask whether they could work more hours, but they do ask why they work less than 40 hours. It is considered deprivation if it is due to “reduction in activity or lack of work” or “only found part-time work.” In Colombia, it is not investigated whether a woman would be willing to work more hours or the hours she dedicates to a second job, so underemployment is considered when the working day last week is less than the hours usually worked, as long as the working day does not exceed 40 hours, due to suspension or termination of employment, or due to a reduction in the economic activity of the company. Neither Mexico nor Panama found a way to assess underemployment. There is also deprivation if an employed woman expresses a desire to change jobs, because she wants to work more hours and currently works less than 36 hours per week in all occupations.
5.5.3.2 Non-income earning woman	In the Dominican Republic, it is included only if the population is employed, rentier, pensioner, or retired

5.5.4 Access to information	
5.5.4.1 No Internet access	Honduras asks about access, but in reality, it refers to use, so it is considered deprivation if the person does not use the Internet in their home. Mexico asks whether the household has Internet, it does not specify whether it is fixed or mobile, but the wording of the question is: "Households that have telephone in service, prepaid card, or telecable."
5.5.4.2 Digital overcrowding	Chile does not ask about the quantity of computers or tablets, if the household answers affirmatively, two devices are assumed/recorded. In the case of the "do not know/ no answer" category, a computer or mobile phone is also counted. In Chile, according to CASEN data, only 13.14 % of the population over 5 years of age does not own a mobile phone. Panama does not ask about the number of desktop computers, laptops or tablets, so if the answer is affirmative, two devices are assigned. In Costa Rica, the estimate of digital overcrowding is made per household because devices are counted on/at that level.
5.5.5 Housing and Services	
5.5.5.1 Inadequate housing conditions	Honduras collects information on housing only for the main household; if this is not part of the final sample, this information is not available for the rest of the households, so they are recorded as without deprivation (112 sample cases of both sexes). Colombia asks only about bedrooms for sleeping and never less than one, so if they only have one room in the dwelling (i.e. living room or dining room), deprivation is recorded, as it implies they have zero rooms used exclusively for sleeping. Initially, it was intended to add the status but not all countries have this question; moreover, the answers lack technical criteria. In Bolivia, there is not category for waste materials, so it is considered a deprivation in terms of housing materials if it has a dirt floor or stone walls. In the Dominican Republic, no waste materials are recorded, so it is considered deprivation if the dwelling has an earthen floor or zinc walls. In Panama, there is not category of waste materials, so it is considered deprivation in terms of housing materials if the dwelling has an earthen floor, is without walls or uses other materials, considering that for the floor, other materials are noted in brackets such as, for example, "cane, sticks, waste, among others."
5.5.5.2 No access to basic services	
a. No electricity or adequate fuel for cooking	In Honduras, it is considered non-deprived if firewood is used as the main cooking fuel, but the stove used is a Lorena or Ecoestufa.
b. No access to drinking water	In Colombia, it is not known whether or not they have pipes inside the dwelling.
c. Inadequate solid waste or sewerage disposal	The Dominican Republic does not include the category of rubbish burning. In Chile, the form of waste collection is not asked, so it is recorded as deprivation if in the last 12 months, any member of the household has experienced or witnessed any of the following situations: "air pollution and/or bad smells," "pollution in rivers, canals, estuaries, lakes, dams and reservoirs." In Mexico, it is considered deprivation if the toilet cannot be flushed, but only if it is because it has a biodegester.

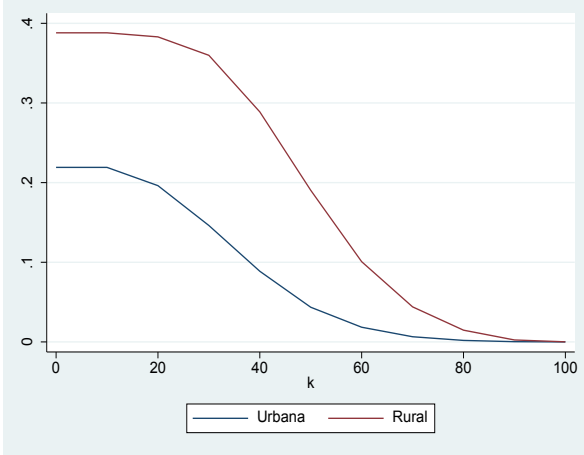
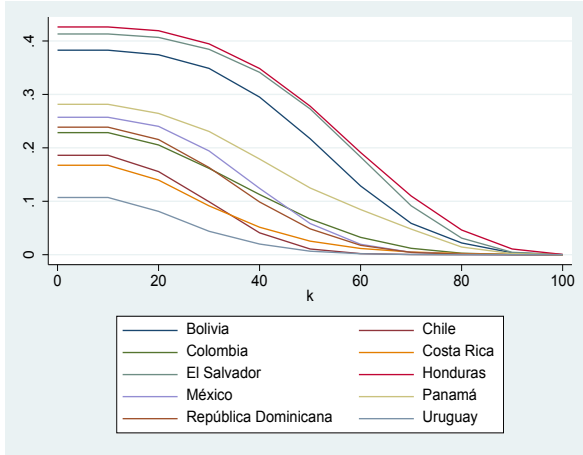
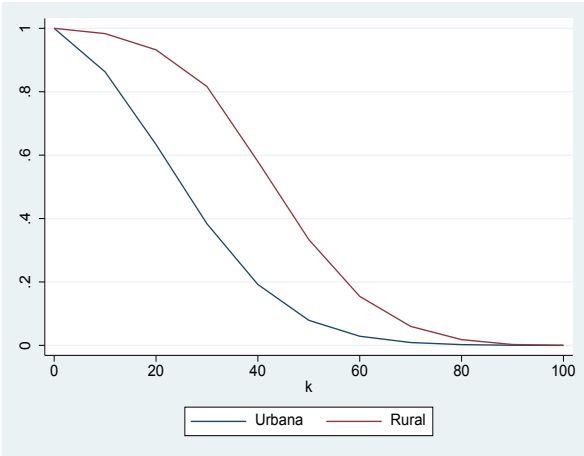
Source: Own elaboration

Annex 8: Stochastic dominance by countries and areas

First- and second- order stochastic dominance by country



First- and second- order stochastic dominance by region



Source: Own elaboration with data from national surveys in the countries of the study.

Annex 9: Main results of incidence and intensity of the MPI with a focus on women for LAC countries

Country	Zona	Incidence (H)		Intensity (A)	Adjusted Incidence (M0)
		Quantity	Percentage	Percentage	pp
Bolivia	National	2,161,600	56.8	52.0	0.29
	Urban	1,214,789	44.2	49.7	0.22
	Rural	946,811	89.2	54.8	0.49
Chile	National	341,794	4.7	42.8	0.02
	Urban	217,790	3.4	42.7	0.01
	Rural	124,004	14.1	42.9	0.06
Colombia	National	4,320,707	23.4	48.1	0.11
	Urban	2,117,821	14.4	46.6	0.07
	Rural	2,198,912	57.9	49.6	0.29
Costa Rica	National	219,262	11.0	46.6	0.05
	Urban	116,258	7.8	45.6	0.04
	Rural	103,004	20.7	47.8	0.10
Dominican Republic	National	778,842	21.5	45.8	0.10
	Urban	526,122	17.6	45.2	0.08
	Rural	252,720	40.8	47.1	0.19
El Salvador	National	1,632,678	62.8	54.4	0.34
	Urban	795,457	47.3	50.9	0.24
	Rural	837,222	91.3	57.6	0.53
Honduras	National	1,946,019	63.2	55.1	0.35
	Urban	841,952	46.3	51.3	0.24
	Rural	1,104,067	87.8	58.0	0.51
Mexico	National	12,371,647	27.4	45.4	0.12
	Urban	6,876,005	19.6	44.7	0.09
	Rural	5,495,646	54.2	46.3	0.25
Panama	National	479,151	34.3	52.2	0.18
	Urban	231,539	22.9	47.5	0.11
	Rural	243,950	64.2	56.7	0.36
Uruguay	National	63,885	4.6	43.5	0.02
	Urban	57,825	4.4	43.5	0.02
	Rural	6,060	8.5	43.5	0.04
Selected countries	National	24,315,590	27.4	48.0	0.13
	Urban	12,971,591	18.8	46.3	0.09
	Rural	11,303,158	57.7	49.9	0.29

Anexo 10: Table of comparative results of the MPI with a focus on women for LAC

Description	Sex	Tipo de resultado	Bolivia	Chile	Colombia	Costa Rica	El Salvador	Honduras	Mexico	Panama	Dominican Republic	Uruguay	Selected countries
Population 18 years and older	Women	Absolute	3,808,926	7,333,999	18,468,885	1,987,481	2,600,331	3,077,036	45,225,331	1,398,176	3,614,312	1,390,692	88,905,168
	Men	Absolute	3,539,288	6,326,947	16,973,164	1,803,397	2,153,859	2,656,285	40,577,412	1,310,777	3,482,662	1,254,093	80,077,883
Incidence (H)	Women	Absolute	2,161,600	341,794	7,357,053	219,262	1,632,678	1,946,019	12,371,649	479,151	778,842	63,885	27,351,933
	Men	Percentage	56.8	4.7	23.4	11.0	62.8	63.2	27.4	34.3	21.5	4.6	27.8
	Women	Absolute	1,722,325	202,489	4,178,146	168,316	1,150,838	1,549,779	9,194,156	398,336	502,053	54,354	19,089,903
	Men	Percentage	48.7	3.2	24.6	9.3	53.4	58.3	22.7	30.4	14.4	4.3	23.8
Difference between incidences	M-H	Pts. %	8.1	1.5	-1.2	1.7	9.4	4.9	4.7	3.9	7.1	0.3	3.9
Intensity (A)	Women	Percentage	52.0	42.8	48.1	46.6	54.4	55.1	45.4	52.2	45.8	43.5	47.9
	Men	Percentage	49.6	42.9	48.1	46.0	51.9	52.4	44.9	51.4	43.3	44.0	47.1
Incidencia ajustada (M0)	Women	Percentage	29.5	2.0	11.3	5.1	34.1	34.8	12.4	17.9	9.9	2.0	13.3
	Men	Percentage	24.1	1.4	11.8	4.3	27.7	30.6	10.2	15.6	6.2	1.9	11.2
No health insurance*	Women	Percentage	30.1	2.4	6.2	14.3	74.0	17.0	15.8	41.4	0.0	0.9	14.5
	Men	Percentage	36.0	4.1	7.4	19.7	68.9	17.3	22.2	43.0		2.1	18.3
No child-care services	Women	Percentage	25.7	12.5	15.6	15.0	19.4	35.4	4.9	3.5	5.7	0.1	10.3
	Men	Percentage	23.5	10.7	13.8	12.2	18.3	32.0	4.5	3.1	4.6	0.1	9.2
Insufficient education	Women	Percentage	27.2	6.8	15.0	14.2	8.5	30.4	8.2	19.9	22.7	6.7	12.0
	Men	Percentage	16.9	7.2	17.0	17.5	5.8	33.1	6.1	20.8	27.2	10.1	11.3
Single-parent with high dependence	Women	Percentage	6.0	5.1	6.4	4.4	13.2	18.6	2.5	2.0	7.8	3.7	4.8
	Men	Percentage	2.8	2.8	3.6	2.3	6.6	10.7	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.4	2.4
Unfavourable Activity status	Women	Percentage	73.8	43.0	59.1	49.1	72.7	69.6	76.8	60.1	26.9	34.6	66.3
	Men	Percentage	66.6	25.5	60.9	45.6	55.1	60.2	63.9	51.0	4.8	27.5	56.2
Non-income earning woman	Women	Percentage	33.6	24.6	33.6	35.2	46.4	71.3	26.2	30.9	16.8	16.7	29.8
	Men	Percentage	14.0	16.8	30.9	13.3	24.3	45.7	8.0	13.8	4.8	9.4	15.6
No access to Internet	Women	Percentage	73.9	20.7	43.6	11.2	72.6	69.1	55.9	30.7	62.1	27.6	54.5
	Men	Percentage	73.1	20.8	45.9	12.3	73.4	71.3	56.5	33.1	66.6	28.2	54.1
Digital Overcrowding	Women	Percentage	16.0	3.0	10.4	7.3	18.6	26.2	11.8	20.7	36.5	3.8	12.6
	Men	Percentage	14.2	2.7	10.2	6.8	17.1	26.7	11.5	21.7	35.4	3.3	12.3
Inadequate housing conditions	Women	Percentage	31.6	2.4	12.7	3.5	34.5	25.8	14.5	16.1	10.4	6.9	14.3
	Men	Percentage	31.3	2.5	15.0	3.6	36.7	28.0	14.8	16.8	13.7	7.4	14.4
No access to basic services	Women	Percentage	64.9	18.1	25.8	13.3	53.1	62.9	40.5	56.3	49.8	6.1	37.3
	Men	Percentage	65.6	18.7	29.7	14.6	55.0	66.2	41.3	59.0	54.1	6.8	39.0

*The Dominican Republic does not have health insurance information.

Source: Own elaboration with data from national surveys in the countries in the study



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