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Towards frequent and accurate poverty data

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Abstract

It is increasingly acknowledged that data availability plays a crucial role in the fight against poverty. Poverty data has increased in both quantity and frequency over the past 30 years, but still lags behind the data available on most other economic phenomena. Yet there are vibrant experiences that are often overlooked:

- Data for monetary & multidimensional poverty dramatically increased since 1980.
- Sixty countries already produce annual updates to key statistics.
- Some have continuous household surveys with cost-cutting synergies.
- International agencies have probed short surveys for comparable data.
- Certain regions have agreed on harmonised variable definitions across countries.
- New technologies can drastically reduce lags between data collection and analysis.

The post-2015 agenda identified the need for regularly updated data to monitor the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). This paper points out existing experiences that shed light on how to break the cycle of outdated poverty data and strengthen statistical systems. Such experiences show that it is possible to generate and analyse frequent and accurate poverty data that energizes and enables poverty eradication.

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Introduction

Data on poverty are severely limited both in terms of frequency and coverage. Its limitation with regards to frequency is especially striking when compared to the **data availability concerning other economic phenomena**. GNI data is published annually,² while inflation and external debt statistics are available on a quarterly basis. Stock market data is made public every day, and with the invention of high frequency trading, it has become available for investors at the fraction of a second. Dissatisfied with this situation, the post-2015 agenda identified the need for regularly updated data to monitor the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). This paper reviews experiences that illustrate how an initiative towards frequent accurate poverty data – and reliable statistics based on them – might proceed.

In using the term ‘poverty’ in this paper, we include both **monetary and multidimensional poverty**. For example the \$1.25/day poverty measure reflects income poverty and is currently published for 115 countries using data 2000-2010. The global Multidimensional Poverty Index³ complements it with data on multidimensional poverty, currently published for 112 countries using data 2000-2012. In an open letter⁴ to the High Level Panel advising the United Nations on the content of a post-2015 development agenda, more than 120 Southern non-governmental organisations stated their number one concern was that ‘Poverty is multidimensional and should not be narrowly defined and measured only as a matter of income.’ The July 2014 final Open Working Group outcome document includes two targets under the goal of reducing extreme poverty: a) a target of eradicating \$1.25/day poverty and b) a target focused on “poverty in its many dimensions”. The data requirements to monitor progress in poverty in several dimensions are the focal issue of concern in this paper.

² Note that annual GNI data may be subject to issues of accuracy. For example in 2014 the GNP of Nigeria was re-based. The World Bank’s *Nigeria Economic Report* (2014) suggest that “For the new base year of 2010, the assessed value of GDP increased by 60.7% relative to previous statistics. For 2011, 2012, and 2013, the assessed increases in the level of Nigerian GDP were 68.3%, 76.9%, and 88.9%, respectively (Table 1). I am grateful to K. Beegle for this example.

³ The global MPI (<http://www.ophi.org.uk/multidimensional-poverty-index/mpi-2014/>) has been estimated and analysed by OPHI, a research centre in the University of Oxford, and published by UNDP’s *Human Development Reports* since 2010. After 2015, the global MPI could be improved (with better indicators, and a second specification for less poor environments) using better data to reflect a subset of core SDGs.

⁴ <http://www.globalpolicy.org/home/252-the-millennium-development-goals/52392-csos-appeal-to-high-level-panel.html>

Nearly every country in the world uses household surveys to produce its official poverty statistics, whether these are income or consumption poverty, or multidimensional poverty. Thus by **poverty data** in this paper we refer to **household survey data**; elsewhere we have considered insights that other data sources can contribute (Alkire and Samman 2014).

In spite of the explosion of economic data availability, many reviews of data on various dimensions of poverty have brought to light data limitations. In terms of **frequency**, poverty data continues to lag behind most economic information, as it is collected only every three to ten years – and often published a full year or two after data collection finished. In terms of **coverage**, poverty data still misses information on important dimensions of poverty such as violence, empowerment or informal work – as well as key indicators such as quality of services (Alkire 2007, WEIGO 2013). The density of proposed SDG indicators reflects the current lack. Finally, most poverty indicators are analysed in a dashboard style, ignoring how multiple **interconnected** deprivations lock people into their predicament, and providing scant information for joined-up, cross-cutting or coordinated policy responses.

This situation does not meet the **demands of policy**. Managing initiatives that reduce poverty requires timely data to plan, monitor, evaluate, and re-design policies. **Management** requires recent data that are cleaned and analysed promptly – and analyses that provide information in the form required for policy coordination and response.

Despite the limitations of currently available data we also have **more poverty data for developing countries now** than in any previous period in history. For example, this paper identifies 141 developing countries with monetary poverty data and at least 132 countries with multi-topic household survey data. Further, the **content of that data has expanded** significantly, including data from the same survey, and the patterns of its expansion seem to be catalysed in part by data needs of the MDGs (Cassidy 2014). The SDGs are hoped to unleash an increasing **willingness to increase poverty data** in both content and frequency, and to do so universally across countries.

The aim to increase the periodicity and timeliness of household surveys is longstanding. Attempts at innovations have had mixed results, yet these experiences – both negative and positive – are illuminating. **This paper** traces recent developments in certain household surveys, showing their tremendous rise since the 1980s, yet observing that the gaps in poverty data remain a key constraint in the fight against poverty. It then describes **national annual surveys** including some which are both nationally produced and create comparable indicators. It also discusses shortened surveys (KIS, Interim DHS and CWIQ) promoted by

international agencies, and closes with examples of how **time-saving survey technologies** can support data collection and decrease its cost. Finally, it outlines **a concrete proposal**: a set of core survey modules which could be used to systematically collect more frequent and consistent poverty data, and which already has been discussed and revised by a network of 30 governments. Taken together these examples shed some light on the question of whether a step-change in the **generation** of poverty data, and its **effective use** to eradicate poverty, might come to pass – and if so, what avenues might be pursued. The brief closes by proposing a set of core survey modules for discussion, that could be considered as generating a set of ‘core poverty indicators’ related to the SDGs.

The appendices to this paper are significant. They summarize the surveys cited in this paper, identify portals for expanding to cover national surveys, present the survey questions used in the global Multidimensional Poverty index, and share the proposed Multidimensional Poverty Peer Network (MPPN) survey modules, revised most recently in September 2014, as a concrete starting point for discussion about core indicators for annual updating.

1. Existing Poverty Data: Level and Trends

Poverty data for developing countries has made huge leaps in the last thirty years.⁵ We have **more data now** than in any previous period in history. Further, the **content of that data has expanded** significantly, with the patterns of its expansion fuelled by widened national priorities and capabilities and also by international interest in topics including the MDGs. Surveys are just one source of poverty data. Many countries have data for key MDG indicators from multiple sources: census data; survey data (both national survey data and international i.e. from DHS, MICS, CWIQ and LSMS) and administrative data. There is also active exploration of the potential of ‘big data’ to improve sampling frames and to provide relevant indicators, such as electricity, road access.⁶

Here we focus on the dramatic rise in poverty-related household surveys in developing countries since 1980. The good news of this rise is certainly to be celebrated. Here we track the surveys that have been completed, and which have issued reports. A great (and desirable) degree of data available occurs in circumstances in

⁵ Some use the word poverty to refer to monetary disadvantage, and the word ‘deprivation’ to cover other disadvantages such as malnutrition, low education, ramshackle housing, and so on. We follow the terms used in recent post-2015 agenda documents, which refer to multidimensional poverty, or poverty in all its dimensions.

⁶ For further discussion of administrative data, public opinion surveys, and big data as resources for poverty data please see Alkire and Samman 2014.

which the micro-data are available. Micro data are available for some of the surveys included (most DHS and MICS), but not others.

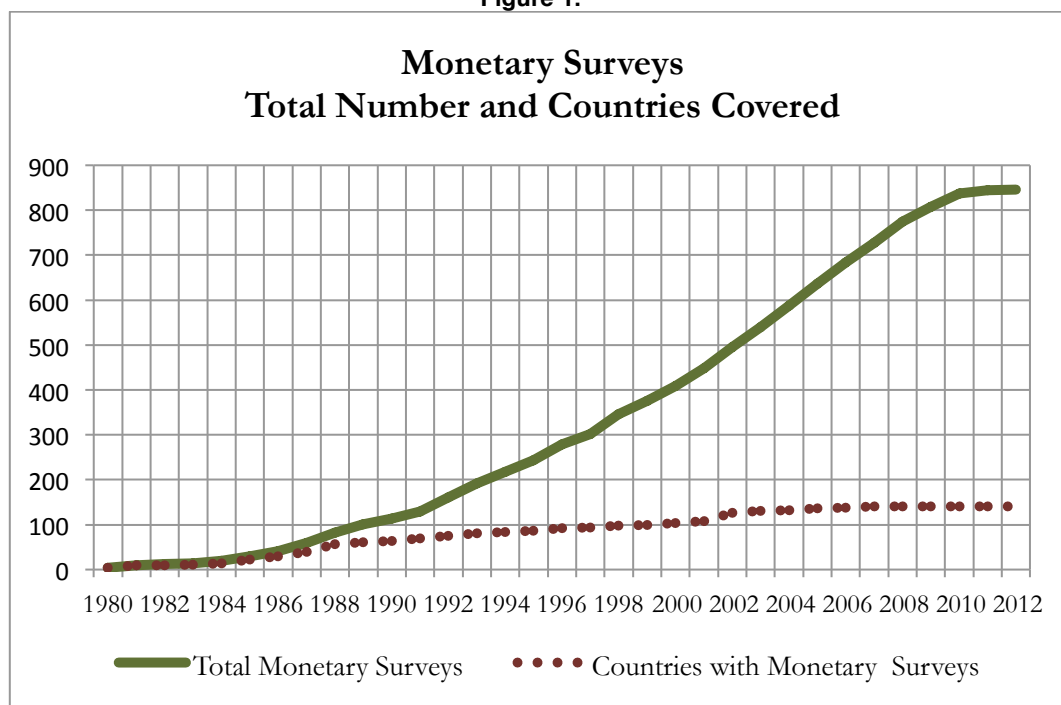
While such a review could include many survey forms including labour force surveys, or those field in OECD countries, we focus here on the rise of household surveys in developing countries that can be used to analyse monetary poverty or that address at least three dimensions related to multidimensional poverty. We focus on two equivalent year periods: 1980-2012 in the case of monetary poverty data, and 1985-2013 for multidimensional poverty data.

A. Household surveys for monetary poverty in developing countries 1980-2012

As Figure 1 indicates, the absolute number of **income or consumption and expenditures surveys** as well as the absolute number of **countries with such monetary surveys** dramatically increased from the early 1980s until 2012⁷. By the procedures followed in the study, we have surveys on income or consumption and expenditure for 141 countries. This does not mean we have comparable poverty measures for those countries – for example there are \$1.25/day data for 115 countries using data 2000-2012. Also, the surveys generate income and consumption poverty figures, and are often tailored to national specifications. Still, what we see is a marked rise in data availability.

⁷ In 2010, the totals for monetary surveys was 141 countries and 836 surveys; the figures since 2010 are underestimates as most subsequent surveys have not yet been added.

Figure 1.



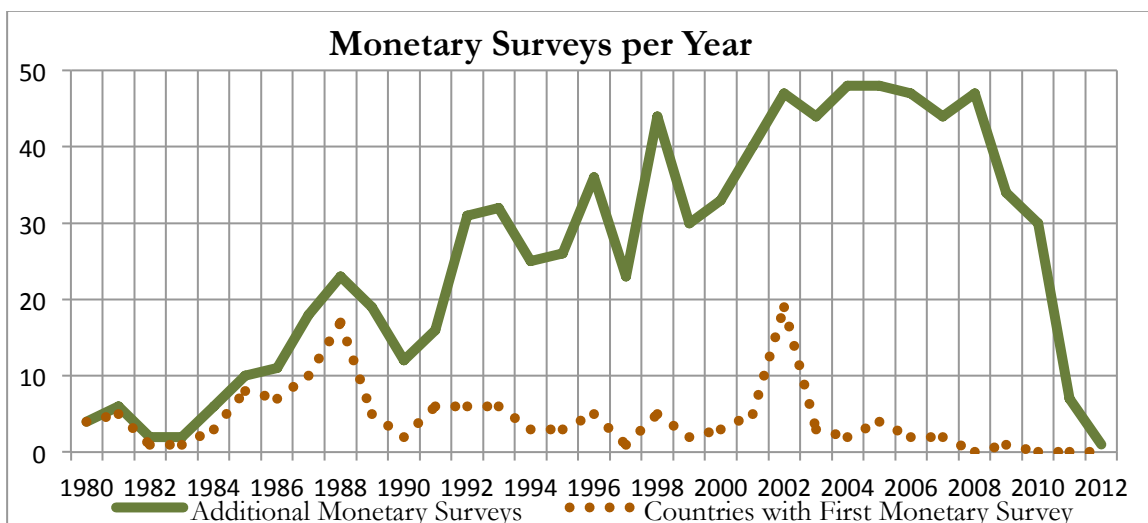
The precise number of available household surveys that are exclusively or partially concerned with household income or consumption and expenditure is **hard to determine**, since a myriad of online search engines and survey networks currently exist. They include poverty data that is collected at different moments in time, on disparate administrative levels and they use divergent data gathering methods. We have therefore restricted the analysis of income based household surveys to those listed on the main page of **PovcalNet**, the World Bank’s regional survey aggregation website.

We have only used the surveys that included the labels: ‘Expenditure’, ‘income/income and basic amenities’, ‘income inequality’, ‘budget/budgetary’, ‘household’, ‘consumption’, ‘labour force’, ‘panel surveys’, ‘integrated’, ‘poverty’, ‘priority survey’, ‘welfare’. We excluded all ambiguously or unmarked surveys as well as all surveys that included the labels: ‘Agriculture’, ‘census’, ‘consumer finance’, ‘CWIQ’, ‘MICS’, ‘family life’, ‘health’, ‘energy’, ‘living conditions’, ‘living standards’, ‘panel’, ‘manpower’, ‘housing’, ‘priority’, ‘social’, ‘informal sector’, ‘internally displaced persons’, housing, ‘service delivery’, ‘social indicators/social development/socio-economic’, ‘living conditions’, ‘service delivery’. In 2011-2012, we have listed surveys present in the PovCalNet interface, but PovCal does systematic updates of its database every three years, and the most recent update – in April 2013 – released poverty estimates through 2010. During the period 1980-2012, **846 monetary surveys** are listed. The country with the highest number of surveys in this period

is Brazil, with 28, followed by Costa Rica, Argentina, Honduras, then China, Colombia, Uruguay and Poland.

Figure 2 shows the number of ‘new’ surveys fielded each year and number of ‘new’ countries gaining surveys each year. These marginal increases were greatest during the late 1980s and the mid 1990s respectively.

Figure 2.



B. Some multi-topic household surveys for multidimensional poverty 1985-2013

Many surveys are fielded which collected MDG-related or deprivation-related information related to services, but not necessarily on monetary poverty.

Due to restrictions with regards to information on data coherence, quality and availability, a comprehensive overview of all existing national multidimensional household poverty surveys cannot be provided. There is no PovCalNet for multidimensional surveys. For the purposes of this paper, we have simply identified six major multidimensional surveys for quantitative analysis and listed their trajectory since 1985 (the earliest date of surveys). Each of these surveys fulfils the following three criteria: 1. The survey must **measure at least three aspects of wellbeing** 2. The survey must be relevant for the comparative study of **developing countries** 3. The survey must be **widely used** and **provide high quality data**. Four surveys to which these criteria apply are the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS), which collects data on population, health, HIV and nutrition; the Core Welfare indicator Questionnaire surveys (CWIQ) which collects indicators of

household well-being and basic community services; the Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) which monitor the situation of women and children, particularly with regards to health and education. The Living Standards Measurement Survey (LSMS) office of the World Bank LSMS team provides technical assistance to many surveys that are not listed as LSMS; we include LSMS surveys listed on their website which measure consumption behaviour, economic well-being and a variety of sectoral aspects such as housing, education and health.⁸ We also include PAFAM surveys and surveys listed in IHSN as ‘Integrated Survey (non-LSMS) or Integrated Living Conditions Survey (ILCS). Together these contribute **731 surveys**. Just as the monetary surveys included income or consumption and with various definitions, so too the surveys reported here do not all contain the same indicators or definitions. The number of each kind of survey, and country coverage, appear below; a list by country appears in Appendix 1.

Survey	Number of surveys	Countries covered	Website
DHS	327	92	http://www.measuredhs.com
MICS	197	95	http://www.childinfo.org/mics_available.html
LSMS	125	41	http://iresearch.worldbank.org/lms/lmssurveyFinder.htm
CWIQ	42	24	http://catalog.ihsn.org/index.php/catalog
ILCS or IS	29	8	http://catalog.ihsn.org/index.php/catalog
PAPFAM	10	10	www.papfam.org/

It must be noted that these six surveys do not include the extensive multi-topic household surveys that have been completed at national levels to investigate quality of life, social indicators and living conditions. To create a more complete catalogue of multi-topic surveys it would be necessary to construct the relevant criteria, and apply these to multiple data banks. Appendix 2 introduces 14 data portals that might be consulted for such a task, as well as a series of datasets organised by region.

Figure 3 shows that even using just this cross-section of surveys, the number of multidimensional household poverty surveys has increased drastically since 1985 and now covers **132 countries**. As we see from Chart 4, major increases of both multidimensional surveys and the countries with multidimensional surveys occurred during the mid-1990s, 2000, 2005, 2010- corresponding with the rollout of successive phases of the MICS surveys. A total of **731** surveys are listed here. Jamaica and Tanzania have the most surveys listed. If we were to extend this to include the surveys listed on CWIQ (2) DHS (24) and MICS (37) websites as forthcoming, we would add 63 surveys in 52 countries.

⁸ LSMS surveys also measure monetary poverty so are counted as both income and multidimensional surveys. In this period there were 102 LSMS covering 36 countries, but as they are rarely the only survey in a country they do not affect the total number of countries covered.

Figure 3.

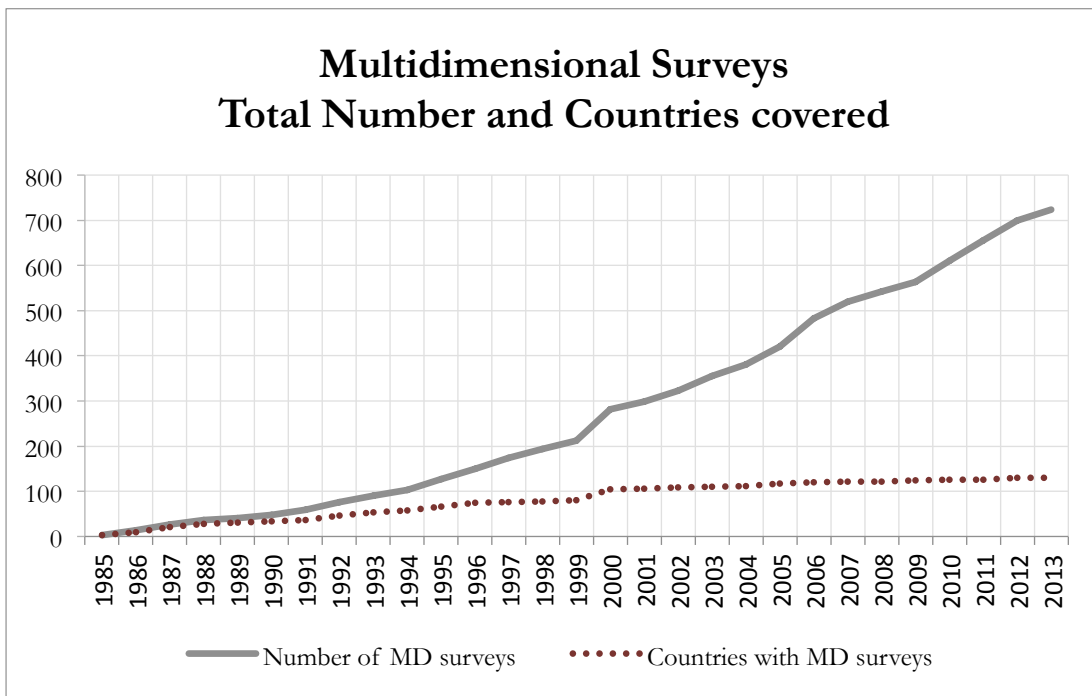
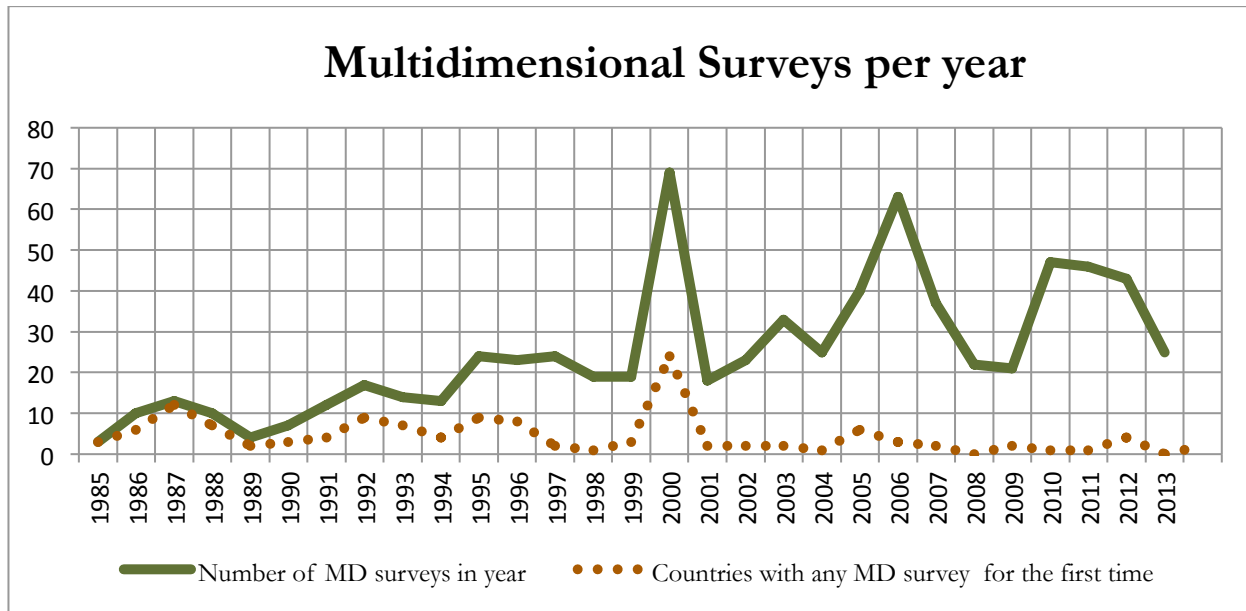


Figure 4.



From this brief and incomplete review we can nonetheless observe the following result:

- **Data availability for both monetary and multidimensional poverty has dramatically increased since the 1980s.**

The implication of this finding is that change is possible. The strong gains from 1980, the increase in pace since 2000, all show that household surveys have not at all been static. But has this salutary progress been sufficient? The resounding consensus is that it is not.

C. Ongoing limitations: Content, quality, frequency, timeliness, availability

Existing data on poverty remains limited – particularly in the *content* – which overlook key indicators, *data quality* which is variable; the *frequency* of surveys, the *timeliness* of data publication and analysis, and the *availability* of that data.

A thorough review of these issues is not presented here, for many have already identified them in depth and the Data Revolution, which the High Level Panel summoned, has caught the imagination of many. This section simply reminds the readers of the points made in a myriad of studies.

In terms of **frequency**, poverty data continues to lag behind most other economic information, as it is published only every three to ten years, and often released 1-2 years after fieldwork has closed. In terms of **coverage**, poverty data still misses information on important dimensions of poverty such as violence, empowerment or informal work. Even information on basic variables like health remains severely limited. Also, most poverty analysis does not address the **interconnectedness** of deprivations that lock people into poverty. The first key message in *The MDGs at Mid-point* – a 50-country study on accelerating progress that the UNDP released in 2010 – was that successful countries had addressed different deprivations together because of these interconnections. The joint distribution of deprivations – which can be seen using multi-topic surveys – can be analysed to inform joined-up policies – through multidimensional analyses.

Many examples have been used to show the scale of the problem. Data on key poverty indicators such as malnutrition or sanitation may be updated approximately every five years. For example India has the highest number of malnourished people and high absolute rates of child stunting in the world – yet it has had no nationally representative data on malnutrition since 2006⁹, and administrative data (e.g. growth charts) are not widely available for analysis. MDG assessments of data availability have observed severe gaps in the ability of most countries to report trend data on even a small subset of key MDG indicators. To share just

⁹ From the 2005-2006 National Family Health Survey.

one among many, a mid-point assessment of the MDGs led by an eminent group of economists observed that:

Many, among the poorest and most vulnerable countries, do not report any data on most MDGs. When it is available, data are often plagued with comparability problems, and MDG indicators often come with considerable time lags. Improving data gathering and its quality in all countries should be a central focus of the second half of the MDG time frame and beyond. Reliable data and indicators are essential, not only to enable the international development community to follow progress on MDGs, but also for individual countries to effectively manage their development strategies.

Bourguignon *et al.* (2008, pp.6).

Evidently, while efforts to improve poverty data spurred by the MDGs have increased the content and frequency of poverty data, the **business-as-usual system is inefficient, and needs to change**. In an age where we are flooded with data in many domains, it is a travesty that we don't have up-to-date information on key dimensions of poverty, in order to design high impact policies and celebrate policy success. Attention is drawn to this issue again and again, including in the *2014 MDG Report*:

Despite considerable advancements in recent years, reliable statistics for monitoring development remain inadequate in many countries. Data gaps, data quality, compliance with methodological standards and non-availability of disaggregated data are among the major challenges to MDG monitoring.

The MDG Report 2014

Despite a visible lack of regular, timely poverty data, in some cases (often highly mentioned ones), at times, funds are invested in some multi-topic household surveys that are never fully analysed. The possibility of wastage means that surveys must match the needs and problems that the information they contain will solve. It also means that data cleaning, publication, analysis and dissemination need to be considered alongside data collection. Interestingly, this brings to light the key positive role political leadership can – and in some cases has – had in leading data change.¹⁰ If survey data are indeed vital for effective policy action, then policy commitment to poverty reduction itself will recognize the moral and political incentives to increase the quality of survey data, and its frequency. The issue of data creation and data use must thus be considered together.

¹⁰ Some examples are present on <http://www.mppn.org/resources/>

2. Experiences in Annual Multi-topic Household Surveys

The previous section addressed the steep rise in the number of countries having at least one data point, as well as of multiple data points. This section now zooms in to focus on different experiences that move towards annual data collection, reporting, analysis and policy use.

A. National surveys

Many countries have frequent household survey instruments in place for some core indicators of human poverty.¹¹ However there does not seem to be a publicly accessible and complete record of these surveys internationally.¹² Yet despite the perception that annual or biennial data are very rare, we have encountered quite a range of such experiences.

A few countries update a wide range of poverty data regularly. For example, Colombia updates both official income and multidimensional poverty data and statistics annually and Mexico does so every two years. The EU-SILC surveys, described more fully below, provide annual official updates of the EU-2020 multidimensional poverty and social exclusion indicator – covering quasi-joblessness, material deprivation, and being at-risk-of (relative) income poverty – for over 30 countries.

More commonly, the annual surveys either primarily collect monetary poverty data or primarily cover some dimensions of poverty but do not include detailed income or consumption and expenditure modules. For example India's National Sample Survey (NSS) provides annual updates of consumption poverty, with a large round for greater disaggregation roughly every five years. Pakistan's Social and Living Standard Measurement Survey (PSLM) fields annual surveys, alternating between two questionnaires and between district- and province-level disaggregation potentials.

Some countries have moved to higher-than-annual frequency: Indonesia's SUSENAS collects consumption poverty data every quarter and releases poverty statistics twice per year. Ecuador has a multi-topic survey that provides three nationally representative statistical updates per year, and at lower levels of disaggregation annually.

¹¹ In a linked paper with Emma Samman (2014), we list in Appendix 2 a set of 'core indicators of human poverty' that would come from household survey data, in health and nutrition, education, living standard, work, and violence.

¹² For example, in World Development Indicators, a total of 42 countries, both developed and developing, published income poverty data for at least five consecutive years between 2002 and 2012 – but in some cases these published figures are extrapolations, and other countries that have annual data are not included.

Box 1 presents an incomplete list of annual surveys that are implemented by national statistics offices. It covers 60 countries and surely excludes some existing experiences.¹³

This list does not exhaust relevant cases, and would be much longer, if the period is extended slightly. A number of countries field surveys every two years rather than annually. In addition to Mexico these include Vietnam's Household Living Standard Survey, Nicaragua's Encuesta Nacional de Hogares sobre Medición de Nivel de Vida, Thailand's Household Socio-Economic Survey, and Malaysia's Household Income and Basic Amenities survey, which is fielded twice in five years.

¹³ These are but a sample of surveys as of course other institutions and researchers also have rich data sources. For example South Africa's NIDS (National Income Dynamics Survey) is not an official national survey but still provides panel data roughly every two years.

Box 1. 60 Annual Household Surveys¹⁴

1. Argentina (EPH-C)
2. Armenia (Household's Integrated Living Conditions Survey)
3. Austria (EU-SILC)
4. Belgium (EU-SILC)
5. Bolivia (Encuesta de Hogares)
6. Brazil (Continuous PNAD)
7. Bulgaria (EU-SILC)
8. Cambodia (Cambodian Socio-Economic Survey - CSES)
9. Colombia (Gran Encuesta Integrada de Hogares)
10. Costa Rica (Encuesta Nacional de Hogares – previously Encuesta de Hogares de Propósitos Múltiples)
11. Croatia (EU-SILC)
12. Cyprus (EU-SILC)
13. Czech Republic (EU-SILC)
14. Denmark (EU-SILC)
15. Dominican Rep (Encuesta Nacional de Fuerza de Trabajo)
16. Ecuador (Encuesta de Calidad de Vida)
17. El Salvador (Encuesta de Hogares de Propósitos Múltiples)
18. Estonia (EU-SILC)
19. Finland (EU-SILC)
20. France (EU-SILC)
21. Germany (EU-SILC)
22. Greece (EU-SILC)
23. Honduras (Encuesta Permanente de Hogares de Propósitos Múltiples)
24. Hungary (EU-SILC)
25. Iceland (EU-SILC)
26. India (National Sample Survey)
27. Indonesia (SUSENAS)
28. Ireland (EU-SILC)
29. Italy (EU-SILC)
30. Jamaica (Survey of Living Conditions)
31. Kazakhstan (Household Budget Survey)
32. Latvia (EU-SILC)
33. Lithuania (EU-SILC)
34. Luxembourg (EU-SILC)
35. Malta (EU-SILC)
36. Mauritius (Continuous Multi-Purpose Household Survey)
37. Moldova (Household Budget Survey)
38. Netherlands (EU-SILC)
39. Nigeria (General Household Survey (GHS))
40. Norway (EU-SILC)
41. Pakistan (Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement - PSLM)
42. Panama (Encuesta de Hogares - EH)
43. Paraguay (Encuesta Permanente de Hogares - EPH)
44. Peru (Encuesta Nacional de Hogares - ENAHO)
45. Philippines (Annual Poverty Indicators Survey APIS alternating with Family Income and Expenditure Survey FIES)
46. Poland (EU-SILC)
47. Portugal (EU-SILC)
48. Romania (EU-SILC)
49. Slovakia (EU-SILC)
50. Slovenia (EU-SILC)
51. South Africa (General Household Survey GHS, Labour Force Survey)
52. Spain (EU-SILC)
53. Sweden (EU-SILC)
54. Switzerland (EU-SILC)
55. Turkey (EU-SILC, annual Household Budget Survey HBS)
56. United Kingdom (EU-SILC)
57. United States (National Health Interview Survey)
58. Uruguay (Encuesta Continua de Hogares - ECH)
59. Venezuela (Encuesta de Hogares Por Muestreo - EHM)
60. West Bank and Gaza (Expenditure and Consumption Survey)

¹⁴ Each country listed had more than five consecutive annual survey updates in a ten year period, not including annual or more-than-annual labour force surveys.

B. Continuous national household sample surveys

A challenge of data collection is that not all indicators require annual updates. Certain indicators change slowly so require updating only every three to five years. Some indicators require a long and detailed questionnaire, or a different sample design to focus on a particular subgroup. In some cases, if comprehensive data are available occasionally, estimates can be computed based on variables available in shorter interim surveys (as SWIFT, explained below, is doing for consumption poverty). There are also varying needs for disaggregated data. For these reasons, if management capabilities are sufficiently strong, the ideal institutional arrangement for high-frequency data is the ‘continuous’ national household sample survey, which may have a core module of high-frequency indicators, and rotating modules according to the specific indicator needs. They may also schedule regular but distinct surveys (labour force, agricultural, or health surveys for example).

Indonesia, Ecuador, and others countries including Brazil,¹⁵ have what can be called ‘continuous household surveys’ in that the survey teams are in the field more or less continuously with different surveys and modules. When management capacity is adequate, data quality and availability increases in a way that is cost-saving and coordinated. Different surveys are drawn from a master sample, normally can be aggregated for more in-depth disaggregation, and may have a panel element. In addition to these continuous national household surveys there is also a ‘continuous DHS’ – which has been implemented in Peru and in Senegal.

While annual updates of poverty figures are not yet the norm, these examples demonstrate their feasibility. In addition, evidence from the recent financial crisis suggests that these high frequency surveys were ‘a good means of gauging the expenditure impacts of shocks and even some of the specific coping mechanisms involved (Headey and Ecker 2013, p. 332). However the national surveys mentioned above are not comparable to one another. Furthermore, they focus primarily on consumption/expenditure or income data, and omit most of the other core indicators of human poverty. We turn now to various initiatives to generate internationally-comparable data, and annual data on these other aspects of poverty.

¹⁵ Brazil’s PNAD has become a continuous national household sample survey:
http://www.ibge.gov.br/english/estatistica/indicadores/trabalhoerendimento/pnad_continua/

C. Internationally comparable short surveys

The Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) and Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) have increased in prominence due to their quality, quantity and comparability, their free public availability, as well as the match between these surveys and key MDG indicators. Yet because the DHS and MICS are fielded every 3-5 years (DHS on average just over 5 years; MICS every 5 years in the past, but are moving towards every 3 years), and their cleaning and standardization requires some time, they are not designed for annual reporting.

This fact has been overtly recognised and acknowledged by these institutions, which have explored various responses. Their responses are relevant to present discussions. For example, due to the length of the DHS, the DHS office set up the **Key Indicator Survey (KIS)**¹⁶ whose purpose was to monitor key health and population indicators at a lower level of disaggregation, e.g. districts. KIS questionnaires are “designed to be short and relatively simple, but also to be able to produce indicators comparable to those from a nationally representative ...DHS.” KIS topics cover family planning, maternal health, child health, HIV/AIDS, and infectious diseases. Their design and content are highly relevant to certain proposed SDG indicators – but they were never fielded. The reason they were never fielded is the current dearth of data means that a survey is a rare enough event that when it occurs, many things are to be measured. Thus the lack of adoption of KIS could indicate a hunger for data, which is positive – but also the uptake of shorter surveys could expand if data collection became more regular overall. The KIS questionnaire and design thus remain a potential resource for this conversation to re-engage.

¹⁶ The KIS website (<http://dhsprogram.com/What-We-Do/Survey-Types/KIS.cfm>) contains the survey modules.

The 20 indicators of KIS:

- | | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---|
| 1.Total fertility rate | 8.Institutional deliveries | 15. Drinking water treatment |
| 2.Contraceptive prevalence rate | 9.Childhood immunization coverage | 16. Higher risk sex |
| 3.Birth spacing | 10. ORT use | 17. Condom use at higher risk sex |
| 4.Births to young mothers | 11. Sanitary practices | 18. Youth sexual behavior |
| 5.High parity births | 12. Vitamin A supplementation | 19. Household availability of insecticide- treated nets |
| 6.Skilled delivery assistance | 13. Underweight prevalence | 20. Use of insecticide-treated nets |
| 7.Antenatal care | 14. Exclusive breastfeeding | |

DHS also set up **Interim DHS**, which “focus on the collection of information on key performance monitoring indicators”. Designed to be nationally representative using smaller sample sizes than most DHS surveys, Interim DHS are shorter and conducted between DHS rounds. The Interim DHS surveys have only been fielded in Egypt, Guatemala, Jordan and Rwanda, but again, did not have an enthusiastic take-up. However like KIS, the survey and sample design issues are available and can enrich present discussions.

The **Core Welfare Indicators Questionnaire (CWIQ)** was developed at the World Bank in late 1990s to collect data on the access, usage and quality of services more frequently than LSMS.¹⁷ The core module took roughly 40 minutes, including anthropometry. At that time, the documents for the CWIQ reported that each household cost \$54 in the pilot test reducing to \$30 in full survey. Mechanisms to foster data quality included enumerator training and rapid feedback from the questionnaires, which were machine-read, reducing data entry time and improving accuracy. Timeliness of data and reporting was also stressed, with results being available 6-8 weeks from the end of the fieldwork. Although designed as a stand-alone survey, in many cases, the CWIQ came to be fielded together with a household budget survey or other module, thus losing its quick-ness, but gaining through complementary data. As in the case of KIS, the temporarily expansion of CWIQ is not necessarily a negative finding, given the current infrequency of data collection. A independent evaluation of the CWIQ does not appear to have been conducted, so the status and assessment of this initiative – ranging from the cost to data quality to spread effects such as capacity building – are not yet clear, but could be important to understand for similar initiatives.

These examples – KIS, I-DHS and CWIQ – draw attention to the need to understand fully the ‘demand’ for and ‘inhibitions’ to shortened surveys before embarking on this road. However they also offer a set of resources on potential questionnaire design and content, for consideration in light of the SDGs.

¹⁷<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES/AFRICAEXT/EXTPUBREP/EXTSTATINAFR/0,,contentMDK:21104598~menuPK:3091968~pagePK:64168445~piPK:64168309~theSitePK:824043,00.html> ; See also http://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Publications/African.Statistical.Journal_Vol3_2.Articles_8.ExperiencesApplicationCoreWelfareIndicatorQuestionnaireCWIQ.pdf

D. Regional annual surveys with harmonised indicator definitions

The examples above did not address the difficult question of the comparability of survey data across countries. The trade-off between greater national accuracy and comparability over time (with previous surveys), and greater international comparability, are well-known. What may not be so well known are the positive examples of annual or biennial surveys that are fielded by NSOs and do include a core of comparable questions.

A noteworthy and rich example for the SDG discussions are the MECOVI surveys in Latin America, which have developed partially harmonised data on 24 Latin American and Caribbean countries for the analysis of poverty and inequality. In many but not all countries, new surveys are fielded annually.¹⁸ Launched in 1996 and ongoing to this day, MECOVI has increased the capacity of the national statistical systems in undertaking and disseminating analyses from multitopic household surveys, whilst providing timely and comparable data on key economic, social and living standards indicators. The MECOVI country surveys are not identical, but do cover core variables. In partnership with the World Bank IBRD, and CEPAL, a research centre CEDLAS, in University of La Plata, provides support in harmonisation and comparative analysis, including preparation of the SEDLAC database. This database also (like OPHI's database on the MPI, but focused on this region) also includes maps with subnational details of key indicators. The MECOVI programme is longstanding and thoroughly-evaluated, so provides a rich resource for present conversations.

Another relevant example is that of EU-SILC. The European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) data publish **annual** timely and comparable cross-sectional and longitudinal multidimensional micro-data on income poverty, social exclusion, and living conditions, now for over 30 countries.¹⁹ Anchored in European Statistical System, the EU-SILC project started in 2003 and is ongoing. It may be of interest for the SDG monitoring options because EU-SILC data have been used since 2010 to monitor poverty and social exclusion in the EU towards a target: “A headline poverty target on reducing by

¹⁸ Details by country are available on: <http://sedlac.econo.unlp.edu.ar/eng/statistics-detalle.php?idE=28>

¹⁹ EU-SILC Data for 31 countries was available annually for 7 consecutive years between 2006-2012. These are: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom.

20 million in 2020 the number of people under poverty and social exclusion has been defined based on the EU-SILC instrument.²⁰

The EU-SILC is replete with interesting lessons. For example many surveys are only representative at the national level, but some sample sizes are much larger. Certain questions (e.g. levels of education, self-reported health status) may still be difficult to compare across countries (Alkire, Apablaza and Jung 2014) – an issue that future surveys may address. Also, the use of registry data alongside survey data has been explored in the EU-SILC project, and studies have shown both the potentials and significant difficulties of registry data for poverty monitoring.

One key feature of the EU-SILC process, which could be of tremendous relevance to the SDGs, was the **open method of coordination**. This method balanced national priorities with progressive harmonisation of data and targets.

“The open method of coordination, which is designed to help member states progressively to develop their own policies, involves fixing guidelines for the Union, establishing quantitative and qualitative indicators to be applied in each member state, and periodic monitoring” (Atkinson et al. 2002, 1–5).

It may be that for the SDGs, some degree of harmonisation across indicators could be advanced in a similar process, at least for some regional or other country groupings. In any case, given the challenges arising from the MDGs’ more top-down measurement agenda, familiarity with alternative processes of data harmonisation could be useful.

E. New technologies: Supporting data and transparency

The initiatives reviewed thus far build on tried and tested survey methodologies. In some cases, newer technologies are in use, but by no means in all. But new technology has made it possible to extend the reach and speed up the availability of the data, creating a veritable ‘revolution’ indeed. Longer treatments of these technologies with additional examples are collected in a very useful Paris21 Review paper *Knowing in Time* (Prydz 2014). Here we focus mainly upon the use of new technologies to facilitate data entry, uploading, analysis and visualization. However it should be noted that some important changes to the consent form and survey – for example retaining the cell phone numbers of respondents for a given set of months – could

²⁰ http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/microdata/eu_silc

facilitate monitoring in case of a shock or disaster, by re-contacting respondents with a mini-panel question to ascertain changes in status.

The other bottleneck that these new initiatives are addressing is survey length. For example, a standard consumption/expenditure questionnaire provides a wealth of information on topics ranging from consumption patterns to dietary diversity, to the percentage of income spent on various items, to inequality and distributional issues, and can be analysed in many ways. Yet if interim annual income and expenditure surveys are used primarily to determine whether or not an individual is income poor, it may be possible to derive this poverty status using shorter modules and imputation, leaving space in surveys to address other core indicators of the SDGs in the years when full consumption/expenditure details are not required.

In terms of **promptness and availability**, survey programmes have made some important advances, particularly given the more widespread use of Computer-Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI) and cloud-based technology. CAPI has a number of features that bolster efficiency and accuracy. The immediate transfer of data to central offices permits their immediate analysis. Moreover, such technology is linked with fewer coding errors (as the programme can query errors); enables last minute updates or corrections to questionnaires; permits dynamic questionnaires (e.g., that enable experiments or asking particular questions based on previous responses); let respondents answer sensitive questions directly without being witnessed; and enables more efficient enumerator management.²¹

A signally relevant and rich potential instrument also under development at the World Bank is called the Survey of Welfare via Instant Frequent Tracking (SWIFT). Using a projection method (Lanjouw et al), SWIFT imputes poverty and inequality indicators using models that are calibrated using a country's previous LSMS or HBS and implemented using core non-monetary indicators. SWIFT has also proposed to include directly the indicators required for a post-2015 MPI (multidimensional poverty index), and questions on subjective well-being (OECD) and consumer sentiment (Eurostat). SWIFT is also taking advantage of CAPI and cloud-based technology to enable the efficient and timely collection, transfer, analysis and release of data.

Other cutting-edge and serious experiments are being undertaken using mobile phones as the medium for a series of questions on different aspects of well-being (Croke et al 2012).²² Driven by the same needs as those that motivate the move towards annualized household survey data collection, these forays into 'high

²¹ <http://bit.ly/18zFbCM>.

²² See also their briefing note on <http://siteresources.worldbank.org/EXTPREMNET/Resources/EP102.pdf>

frequency' survey data are quite certain to strengthen if not transform SDG data collection considerably over the coming decade, but will not replace household surveys in the short and medium term.

Other data collection methods using new technologies explore how to involve the 'respondents' more actively in both the data collection and its analysis, so that they – as well as other institutions – can be lead agents of poverty reduction. For example **Paraguay's Poverty Spotlight** are featuring similar technologies – having devised a 20 minute visual survey methodology that enables people who are poor to create innovative maps showing the dimensions in which they are poor by using stoplight colours (red, yellow, green), photographs, maps electronic tablets and simple software.

A final note concerns the **promptness and availability** of the SDG indicators' publication and construction themselves. Often there is a great silence after data collection has closed before the data are released – a gap the CAPI-cloud technology could shrink. Yet there is a second delay before the release of official statistics based on those data. Again, some pioneering examples are worth considering. **Mexico's** lead institution on poverty measurement and monitoring, CONEVAL, obtains the data from ENIGH (Encuesta Nacional de Ingresos y Gastos de los Hogares). By their own presentations, CONEVAL prepares the official multidimensional poverty statistics (which include income poverty) nationally and by state two weeks after receiving the cleaned data.²³ Not only that, but without great delay the programmes used for calculating poverty are made publically available in STATA, SPSS and R languages, together with a technical note, on the CONEVAL website.²⁴ Thus academics and technicians can run the programme on the microdata set (which is also publicly available) to understand, verify the national poverty estimations, and to study and further analyse them.

3. A Concrete Proposal: 'Core' Survey Modules

These examples serve to suggest that a short, powerful group of survey modules focused on a reduced sample and key indicators could enable collecting data on core indicators of human poverty efficiently and frequently. To ensure both comparability and national specificity, the modules could include indicators on the key poverty-related goals identified by the post-2015 development discussions, and allow space for nationally chosen questions. The survey modules could be conducted using different institutional

²³ Presentation by CONEVAL, Salamanca, 2013; confirmed by personal conversation with Gonzalo Hernandez Licona, President of CONEVAL.

²⁴ <http://www.coneval.gob.mx/Medicion/Paginas/Medici%C3%B3n/Programas-de-Calculo.aspx>

arrangements to match different contexts, with different statistical aspirations, capacities, and ownership profiles. They could nonetheless provide a rigorous way of obtaining disaggregated data on core issues, particularly those that are subject to frequent change, and could potentially incorporate rotating modules that focus on particular topics.

This new modules will clearly build upon or be integrated with existing national and international surveys. Yet the core modules must be short, powerful and selective – so the surveys can be conducted frequently. The core internationally comparable modules should take no more than 45-60 minutes to complete per household. The sample should be representative of the key regions or social groups, and should provide household level and gendered data. A country might append additional questions that reflect national priorities and the cultural, climactic, and institutional context, as well as participatory inputs on poverty priorities and characteristics.

A set of core modules would not cover all post-2015 targets. Some indicators may require specialised surveys; some may not require updating this frequently; some may be sourced from community, administrative or census data; and some complex indicators may take too long to collect. Focus is essential. Yet such modules could yield poverty data that provide profound insights into the profile of disadvantages poor people experience jointly and the impact of poverty reduction programmes. Their analysis could strengthen the design, targeting and monitoring of future policy interventions. It is not the only tool required for a data revolution, but without such a tool, it is hard to envisage a step change occurring at all.

The sample design and survey modules proposed by the Multidimensional Poverty Peer Network (MPPN) provide one concrete option of such a set of core survey modules. This could naturally be modified to reflect the final core indicators of human poverty in the SDGs, and other agreements that emerge during the process.

Conclusion

The move to annual reporting of the SDGs is a serious proposition, replete with challenges. There are likely to be shortfalls from the ideal. Yet observing that 60 countries already update data annually, we believe annual updating of a small core set of appropriate poverty-related indicators, and the production of reliable statistics from these data, is feasible for many countries, and two- to three-year updates of core indicators feasible for nearly all countries. A definitive move towards frequent reporting of good quality data with timely data publication and analysis would greatly increase the relevance of measures of poverty to

‘managers’ and policy makers, and these in turn would spark a virtuous cycle. Making micro data and program files available would increase transparency and increase data analysis by other actors at little cost.

Because of serious and legitimate concerns regarding the realism of increasing data frequency whilst guarding or also increasing the quality of both data and statistics, this section has reviewed a set of positive and negative experiences. We observed that many countries, rather un-noticed, already have annual surveys of some type – and named 60 of them. Most but not all of these are upper middle and high income countries. We observed that the ‘gold standard’ appears to be continuous household surveys, which offers the flexibility to update indicators when warranted, decreases issues of seasonality (by fielding over 12 months), and may be more cost effective.

We also observed the challenges faced by international survey initiatives, and the resources already developed for rapid surveys. The hesitant uptake of short surveys points to a hunger for data – which we view to be a real but transitory issue that could subside if data frequency rose. We also reviewed positive examples of nationally implemented yet harmonized indicators which address the need for country ownership and comparability - such as MECOVI and EU-SILC. A great deal can be learned from both initiatives, ranging from the political process of harmonization, to the governance roles of international and national bodies, to the financing, to the ongoing role of technical support and a central and standardized data repository, to the challenges – of quality, sample size, use of registry data, and panel components.

Moving beyond these to consider the timeliness of data, and of non-income indicators, we presented the emerging SWIFT initiative in the World Bank. Aware of the need to communicate poverty results so that they energise and motivate local communities as well as policy makers, we shared the Paraguayan stoplight survey. Finally, in the interests of encouraging transparency of analysis, we shared Mexico’s leading example of posting the Stata/SPSS/R files used to compute both multidimensional poverty index (which includes income poverty) online, and of generating official national poverty figures two weeks after data release.

Building upon these examples, we also drew attention to MPPN survey modules, a serious but flexible proposal put forward by 30 developing countries which could catalyse the data collection required for many of the core indicators of human poverty.

This paper skips over many additional vital topics upon which others have written, such as the sequencing of countries moving towards annual surveys, and the important issue of how an increase in data frequency and accuracy can be used to strengthen national statistical systems. Despite these gaps we hope that the

existing conversations, which must address these and other difficult questions, will be facilitated by the information shared here.

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Appendix 1
Alkire ~ Frequent Accurate Poverty Data

Country	CWIQ	DHS	ILCS	LSMS	MICS	PAPFAM	Total	First survey	Last survey
Afghanistan		1			3		4	2003	2011
Albania		1		7	2		10	1996	2012
Algeria					4	1	5	1995	2012
Angola	1	2			2		5	1996	2011
Antigua and Barbuda				1			1		2006
Argentina					1		1		2012
Armenia		3	10	1			14	1996	2012
Azerbaijan		1		1	1		3	1995	2006
Bangladesh		8			3		11	1996	2013
Barbados					1		1		2012
Belarus					2		2	2005	2012
Belize				1	2		3	2001	2011
Benin	1	4					5	1996	2012
Bhutan				3	1		4	2003	2012
Bolivia		5			1		6	1998	2008
Bosnia and Herzegovina				4	4		8	2001	2012
Botswana	1	1			1		3	1988	2010
Brazil		3		1			4	1986	1997
Bulgaria				5			5	1995	2007
Burkina Faso	4	4			1		9	1993	2010
Burundi	1	3			2		6	1987	2012
Cambodia		4					4	1998	2010
Cameroon		4			2		6	1991	2011
Cape Verde	2	1					3	2005	2007
Central African Republic		1			3		4	1994	2010
Chad		2			2		4	1997	2010
China				1			1		1995
Colombia		6					6	1986	2010
Comoros		2			1		3	1996	2012
Congo Brazzaville		4					4	2005	2013
Congo, Democratic Republic of the	1	1			3		5	1995	2010
Costa Rica					1		1		2011
Côte d'Ivoire		4		4	2		10	1985	2012
Cuba					3		3	2000	2011
Djibouti					1	1	2	2002	2006
Dominican Rep		9			1		10	1986	2013
Ecuador		1		3			4	1987	1998
Egypt		12			2		14	1992	2014
El Salvador		1					1		1985
Equatorial Guinea		1			1		2	2000	2011
Eritrea		2					2	1995	2002
Ethiopia		3		1			4	2000	2011
Gabon	1	2					3	2000	2012
Gambia		1	2		3		6	2000	2012
Georgia					2		2	1999	2005

Appendix 1
Alkire ~ Frequent Accurate Poverty Data

Ghana	2	8		5	5		20	1987	2011
Grenada	1						1		2005
Guatemala		5		1			6	1987	2000
Guinea	2	4					6	1992	2012
Guinea-Bissau					3		3	2000	2010

Country	CWIQ	DHS	ILCS	LSMS	MICS	PAPFAM	Total	First survey	Last survey
Guyana		3		1	2		6	1992	2009
Haiti		5					5	1994	2013
Honduras		2					2	2005	2011
India		3		1	1		5	1993	2005
Indonesia		9			3		12	1987	2012
Iraq				1	3		4	2000	2011
Jamaica				22	3		25	1988	2011
Jordan		6					6	1990	2012
Kazakhstan		2		1	2		5	1995	2011
Kenya	2	9		1	5		17	1989	2014
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of					2		2	2000	2009
Kyrgyzstan		2	8	4	1		15		2014
Lao People's Democratic Republic		1			3		4	1993	2012
Lebanon					3	1	4	2000	2012
Lesotho	1	2			1		4	2000	2011
Liberia	2	5			1		8	2000	2009
Lybia						1	1	1986	2013
Macedonia					3		3		2002
Madagascar		6			2		8	2005	2011
Malawi	7	7	1	2	3		20	1992	2013
Maldives		1			1		2	1992	2014
Mali	1	6					7	2001	2009
Mauritania	1	2			2		5	1987	2012
Mexico		1					1	2000	2011
Moldova		1			3		4		1987
Mongolia				1	6		7	2000	2013
Montenegro					3		3	2000	2013
Morocco		4		1		1	6	2006	2013
Mozambique	1	4			2		7	1987	2004
Myanmar					3		3	1995	2011
Namibia		5					5	1995	2010
Nepal		5		3	1		9	1992	2013
Nicaragua		4		5			9	1987	2010
Niger		4		1	2		7	1993	2012
Nigeria	1	7		3	2		13	1992	2012
Occupied Palestinian Territory					1	1	2	1986	2013
Oman					1		1	2007	2011

Appendix 1
Alkire ~ Frequent Accurate Poverty Data

Pakistan		3	4	1	2		10		2014
Palestinians in Syrian Arab Republic					1		1	1991	2012
Panama				3	1		4		2006
Papua Guinea				1			1	1997	2013
Paraguay		1					1		1996
Peru		12		4			16		1990
Philippines		6			1		7	1985	2013
Qatar					1		1	1993	2013
Romania				1			1		2012
Rwanda	1	9			1		11		1994

<u>Country</u>	<u>CWIQ</u>	<u>DHS</u>	<u>ILCS</u>	<u>LSMS</u>	<u>MICS</u>	<u>PAPFAM</u>	<u>Total</u>	<i>First survey</i>	<i>Last survey</i>
Samoa		1					1	1992	2013
Sao Tome and Principe		1			2		3		2009
Senegal		11			2		13	2000	2008
Serbia				4	3		7	1986	2013
Sierra Leone	1	3	2		3		9	2000	2010
Somalia					4		4	2000	2013
South Africa		2		1			3	1999	2011
South Sudan					1		1	1993	2003
Sri Lanka		2					2		2010
St. Lucia	1				1		2	1987	2006
Sudan		1			2	1	4	2004	2012
Suriname					3		3	1990	2010
Swaziland		1			2		3	2000	2010
Syrian Arab Republic					2	1	3	2000	2010
Tajikistan		1		4	2		7	2000	2006
Tanzania	4	12		9			25	1999	2012
Thailand		1			2		3	1991	2013
Timor-Leste		1		2			3	1987	2012
Togo	2	3			3		8	1988	2011
Trinidad and Tobago		1	1		3		5	1987	2011
Tunisia		1			3	1	5	1988	2012
Turkey		3					3	1993	2003
Turkmenistan		1	1		1		3	2000	2006
Uganda		10		3			13	1988	2011
Ukraine		1			3		4	2000	2012
Uruguay					1		1		2012
Uzbekistan		2			2		4	1996	2006
Vanuatu					1		1		2007
Venezuela					1		1		2000
Viet Nam		3		7	4		14	1992	2014
Yemen		3			1	1	5	1991	2013
Yugoslavia					2		2	1996	2000
Zambia		6			2		8	1992	2013
Zimbabwe		5			1		6	1988	2010

Appendix 1*Alkire ~ Frequent Accurate Poverty Data*

Kosovo (UNSCR 1244/99)					1		1		2014
Kosovo (settlements)					1		1		2014
Grand Total	42	327	29	126	197	10	731		

Appendix 2 - Reviewed Survey Sources

This appendix has two parts. Section 2.1 lists data portals which can be used to identify national multi-topic household survey data, together with brief descriptions of each portal. Section 2.2 lists particular longitudinal multi-topic datasets that include and supplement the examples of EU-SILC and MECOVI covered in this paper.

2.1 Data Portals

1. Bureau for Research and Economic Analysis of Development (BREAD)

- Type: Longitudinal
- Regions: All continents
- Unit level: Individual/household

BREAD, founded in 2002, is a non-profit organization dedicated to encourage research on development economics. Its website currently locates over 40 types of available household surveys and other data sources about developing countries.

<http://www.ipl.econ.duke.edu/bread/>

2. CCPR

- Type: Mostly longitudinal/some cross-sectional
- Regions: All continents
- Unit level: Individual/household

Part of UCLA, CCPR's Survey Database holds over 500 different census datasets and other population surveys from developing countries on demography and reproductive health. The datasets are grouped by regions and type of survey modules, ranging from income over migration and health measurements to time allocation.

<http://www.ccpr.ucla.edu/>

3. Cross-National Equivalent File (CNEF)

- Type: Longitudinal
- Regions: Australia, East Asia, Europe, North America
- Unit level: Individual

The CNEF contains equivalently defined variables for eight population panel studies: The British Household Panel Study (BHPS, 1991 to 2008), the Household Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia (HILDA, 2001 to 2009), the Korea Labour and Income Panel Study (KLIPS, 1998 to 2008), the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID, 1970 to 2007) in the United States, the Russia Longitudinal Monitoring Survey (RLMS-HSE, 1995 to 2010), the Swiss Household Panel (SHP, 1999 to 2009), the Canadian Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID, 1993 to 2009), and the German Socio-Economic Panel (SOEP, 1993 to 2009).

<http://popcenter.uchicago.edu/data/cnef.shtml>

4. DataFirst Archive, South Africa

- Type: Longitudinal/cross-sectional
- Regions: Africa
- Unit level: Individual /household

DataFirst is a research unit at the University of Cape Town engaged in promoting the long term preservation and reuse of data from African socioeconomic surveys. Its Data Portal currently provides access to 287 African census-, survey-, and merged meta-data.

<http://www.datafirst.uct.ac.za/>

5. Eurostat

- Type: Mostly longitudinal/ some cross-sectional
- Regions: Europe
- Unit level: Individual/household/firm

Eurostat is the Statistical Office of the European Communities. Its key role is to provide the European Union with a high-quality statistical information service that enables comparisons between countries and regions. Eurostat's principal database is the New Cronos - which contains high quality macroeconomic and social statistics data covering not only EU Member States but also many of the central European countries, Japan, the United States and the main economic partners of the EU. The Cronus Database contains monthly, quarterly, bi-annual or annual data from 1960 onwards, depending on the variable and country selected.

<http://www.epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/>

6. INDEPTH Network

- Type: Mostly longitudinal/ some cross-sectional
- Regions: Africa, South Asia, East Asia
- Unit level: Individual

The INDEPTH Network is a global network of 41 health and demographic surveillance system field sites in 20 low- and middle income countries in Africa, Asia and Oceania, including India. Founded in 1998, its Central Data Catalogue currently holds 19 surveys.

<http://www.indepth-ishare.org/>

7. Integrated Public Use Microdata Series International (IPUMS International)

- Type: Longitudinal
- Regions: All continents
- Unit level: Individual

IPUMS International is a collaboration of the Minnesota Population Centre, National Statistical Offices, and international data archives aiming to distribute harmonised population census micro-data. The

database currently features censuses from 74 countries conducted from 1960 to the present, and describes approximately 545 million recorded persons. The data series includes information on a broad range of population characteristics, including fertility, nuptiality, life-course transitions, migration, labour-force participation, occupational structure, education, ethnicity, and household composition. The information available in each sample varies according to the questions asked in that year and by differences in post-enumeration processing.

<http://www.international.ipums.org/international/>

8. International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI)

- Type: Longitudinal
- Regions: Africa, Asia, Latin America
- Unit level: Household/community

IFPRI currently shares 99 of its datasets, which feature both household/community level surveys and social accounting matrixes. The household and community surveys include several surveys of household characteristics, consumption and health as well as agricultural information and food security information, while the social accounting matrices are an economic framework study with a focus on agriculture. Some studies include geospatial data. IFPRI also publishes implementation, monitoring and implementation data, for instance on cash transfer implementation.

<http://www.ifpri.org/>

9. Inter-University Consortium for Political and Social Research (ICPSR)

- Type: Longitudinal/cross-sectional
- Regions: All continents
- Unit level: Individual/household

The ICPSR is an international consortium of academic organizations and research institutions established in 1962. It maintains and provides access to a vast archive of social science data, featuring over 8,000 discrete studies/surveys with more than 60,000 datasets. Apart from offering a topic- and regional-specific search, ICPSR hosts 16 discipline-related thematic collections in education, aging, criminal justice, demographic data, health and mental health, instructional data, race and ethnicity, and terrorism.

<http://www.icpsr.umich.edu/>

10. International Household Survey Network (IHSN)

- Type: Longitudinal/cross-sectional
- Regions: All continents
- Unit level: Individual/household

The IHSN Central Survey catalogue provides a searchable list of surveys and censuses conducted in low- and middle-income countries. This catalogue is maintained in collaboration with the World Bank and a large number of national and international agencies. Currently, it features 4221 survey entries from 239

countries, dating from 1890 to 2014. The catalogue offers metadata including, when available, the survey questionnaire, manuals and report, and list of related citations. It does not provide access to micro-data, but when available, provides a link to external catalogues where the data can be obtained.

<http://www.ihsn.org/home/>

11. Programme for the Improvement of Surveys and the Measurement of Living Conditions in Latin America and the Caribbean/ Mejoramiento de las Encuestas de Hogares y la Medición de Condiciones de Vida (MECOVI)

- Type: Longitudinal/cross-sectional
- Regions: Latin America
- Unit level: Household

MECOVI was launched in 1996 and aims to generate both country-specific and region-wide information about living conditions. The program is executed by the World Bank, the Inter-American Development Bank and the United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean, as well as specialized institutions or agencies in participating countries. Apart from its work around national statistical capacity building, MECOVI has created a Regional Poverty Data Bank that contains an inventory of more than 400 household survey data sets from 23 countries in the LAC region. The data sets are accessible to World Bank users or via the respective National Statistical Offices.

<http://www.cepal.org/deype/mecovi/>

12. Rural Income Generating Activities (RIGA) Database

- Type: Longitudinal/cross-sectional
- Regions: Africa, Asia, Eastern Europe, Latin America
- Unit level: Household

RIGA is a collaborative effort of FAO, the World Bank and American University in Washington, DC, to promote the understanding of roles, relationships and synergies between on-farm and off-farm income generating activities for rural households. Building on existing household living standards surveys, the database contains cross-country comparable indicators of household-level income for 35 surveys representing 19 countries, with surveys conducted between 1992 and 2009.

<http://www.fao.org/economic/riga/riga-database/en/>

13. UCLA Social Science Data Archive (SSDA)

- Type: Longitudinal/cross-sectional
- Regions: Mostly US, but all other continents as well
- Unit level: Individual/household

The SSDA, founded in 1964, is maintained so as to provide a foundation for social science research as well as instructional support. Its current list of data sets features around 3000 items, many of them older surveys.

<http://www.dataarchives.ss.ucla.edu/>

14. UK Data Service

- Type: Longitudinal/cross-sectional
- Regions: All continents
- Unit level: Individual/household

The UK Data Service, funded by the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC), provides access to secondary social and economic data including large-scale government surveys, international macro-data, business micro-data and census data from 1971 to 2011. It currently features over 6,000 datasets that are arranged by survey type (UK surveys, cross-national surveys, longitudinal studies, census data, international macro-data, business micro-data, qualitative methods) as well as core themes (labour market, housing and the local environment, crime and social control, health and health behaviour). The UK Data Service was established in 2012 and previously existing data archives such as the Economic and Social Data Service (ESDS) have been moved to it in order to create a single portal.

<http://www.ukdataservice.ac.uk>

2.2 Data Sets

Table 2.1 Reviewed Data Sets

Name	Description	Reference Portal(s) (not exhaustive)
Region: Africa		
Ethiopia Rural Household Survey	Panel data set by the Centre for the Study of African Economies at Oxford University covering households in a number of villages in rural Ethiopia. Data collection took place in the period from 1989 until 2009 in altogether 7 waves, surveying about 1470 households.	IFPRI
Ghana and Tanzania Urban Household Panel Surveys	Labour market panel survey of urban sectors in Ghana and Tanzania, conducted by the Centre for the Study of African Economies at Oxford University in collaboration with the Ghana Statistical Office and the Tanzania National Bureau of Statistics. From 2004 until 2006, three waves of the survey have been completed. The survey collects information on incomes, education and labour market experience, household characteristics and various other modules for labour force participants (ages 15 to 60) in urban areas.	CSAE
Kenya and Malawi Social Networks Projects	Since 1998, the Malawi Longitudinal Study of Families and Health and the Kenya Diffusion and Ideational Change Project collect longitudinal socio-demographic data on social interactions, changing demographic attitudes and health conditions.	BREAD
SALDRU Langeberg Survey	Integrated household survey undertaken in 1999 in the South African Langeberg health district of the Western Cape. Information on adult and child health was collected from a 294 stratified household sample.	BREAD
South African National Income Dynamics Study (NIDS)	Nationally representative panel study that examines income, consumption and expenditure of households over time in South Africa. The baseline survey was conducted in 2008 and the first follow-up was conducted in 2010. Three waves have been implemented so far. In addition to income and expenditure dynamics, study themes include the determinants of changes in poverty and well-being, household composition	BREAD

	and structure, fertility and mortality, migrant strategies, labour market participation and economic activity, human capital formation, health, education, vulnerability and social capital.	
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Name	Description	Reference Portal(s) (not exhaustive)
Region: Asia		
Cebu Longitudinal Health and Nutrition Surveys (CHLNS)	On-going study of a cohort of Filipino women who gave birth between May 1, 1983 and April 30, 1984 and have been re-interviewed in five waves since then. In 1994 a new cohort was added to the study. Research is focused on the long-term effects of prenatal and early childhood nutrition and health on later adult outcomes including education, work, and chronic disease risk factors.	BREAD
China Health and Nutrition Survey	On-going longitudinal study first conducted in 1989 in 8 provinces in China. It provides information on health and nutrition of adults and children, as well as community level data.	BREAD
China Health and Retirement Longitudinal Study (CHARLS)	On-going longitudinal survey patterned after the US Health and Retirement Study. Two nationally representative waves of people 45 and over have been conducted in 2011 and 2013.	BREAD
India Agriculture and Climate Data Set	Database providing district level data on agriculture and climate in India from 1957/58 through 1986/87. The dataset includes information on agricultural labour, wages and factory earnings, rural population and literacy proportion, soil quality, production, farm harvest prices and agricultural inputs.	BREAD
India Human Development Survey (IHDS)	Nationally representative multi-topic longitudinal survey of over 41,000 households in India. The baseline was conducted in 2004-5.	BREAD
Indian States Data (EOPP)	Indian state-level micro- and macro-data compiled by the Economic Organisation and Public Policy Programme at the LSE. Topics covered include land reform, media and political agency, quality of life, and economic reforms.	BREAD

Indonesia Family Life Survey (IFLS)	On-going longitudinal survey with four waves from 1993/94 until 2007 Conducted by RAND. The data collected at the individual, household and community level in 13 of 27 provinces is representative of about 83% of the Indonesian population. The surveys include household consumption, assets, health measures, and retrospective histories on, among others, employment, marriage, fertility and migration.	BREAD
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Name	Description	Reference Portal(s) (not exhaustive)
Region: Asia (continued)		
Learning and Education Achievement in Punjab Schools (LEAPS)	Panel project by researchers at Harvard University, Pomona College, and the World Bank that tracks changes in educational universe at the primary level in 112 villages in Pakistan. Children, households, schools and teachers are followed over four waves from 2001 to 2005.	BREAD
Malaysian Family Life Surveys (MFLS)	Longitudinal survey with two waves in 1976/7 and 1988. Conducted by RAND. Surveys include detailed current and retrospective information on family structure, fertility, economic status, education/training, transfers and migration. Each survey also collected community-level data.	BREAD
Matlab Health and Social Survey, Bangladesh (MHSS)	Conducted in 1996 by RAND and covering the same area as the Matlab Demographic Surveillance System. The survey examined the effect of socio-economic and behavioural factors on adult and elderly health status and health care utilization as well as the linkages between well-being, social network characteristics and resource flows.	BREAD
Nang Rong (Thailand) Projects	The Nang Rong Projects was started in 1984 with a census of households in 51 villages, resurveyed in two waves in 1988 and 1994. Data on life course choices, fertility, contraceptive behaviour and migration processes is integrated with geographic and environmental information.	BREAD
National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO)	The Indian National Sample Survey Organisation conducts multi-subject integrated sample surveys, with both central government and state samples. Information on social, economic, demographic, industrial and agricultural activity is provided within 10-year subject timeframes.	BREAD
Rural Economic and Demographic Survey (REDS)	Rural household and village survey carried out in five waves from 1969 to 1999 by the Indian National Council of Applied Economic Research. Some of the respondents have been interviewed in several rounds yielding a panel spanning 30 years.	BREAD

Survey on the Status of Women and Fertility (SWAF)	Comparative 1993/1994 study of the status of women and their husbands in conjunction with fertility choices in Malaysia, India, Pakistan, the Philippines and Thailand.	BREAD
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Name	Description	Reference Portal(s) (not exhaustive)
Region: Asia (continued)		
The Townsend Thai Project	On-going longitudinal study comprising annual and monthly panels. The baseline survey was conducted in 1997 in villages in four provinces and has been expanded to add urban areas and other provinces.	BREAD
Vietnam Life History Survey	The 1991 survey collects data from about 100 households in two urban and two rural areas in Vietnam.	BREAD
Vietnam Longitudinal Survey	Longitudinal survey with three rounds between 1995 and 1988. The survey collected demographic information from all adult respondents in over 1,800 households in three provinces.	BREAD
Region: Europe		
Adult Education Survey (AES)	The AES household survey forms part of a wider set of EU statistics on lifelong learning. It covers participation in education and training activities (formal, non-formal and informal learning) of persons aged between 25 and 64. Two survey waves (2007 AES, 2011 AES) have been carried out so far in 29 countries with EU membership, EU candidate or EFTA status. The AES is planned to be conducted every 5 years, with the next wave in 2016.	Eurostat
European Community Household Panel (ECHP)	The ECHP is a transnational panel survey in which a sample of roughly 60,500 nationally represented households (equating to some 130,000 persons aged 16 years and over in 15 countries) were interviewed on an annual basis from 1994-2001 (8 waves). The survey covers a wide range of topics concerning living conditions. They include detailed income information, financial situation in a wider sense, working life, housing situation, social relations, health and biographical information. As from 2003/2004, the EU-SILC survey covers most of the above-mentioned topics.	Eurostat, UK Data Service
European Social Survey (ESS)	The ESS is a biennial multi-country survey covering over 30 nations. The first round was fielded in 2002/2003; the sixth in 2012. The ESS	Eurostat, UK Data Service

Name	Description	Reference Portal(s) (not exhaustive)
Region: Europe (continued)		
European Structure of Earnings Survey (SES)	This survey provides harmonised data on earnings in EU member states, countries of the European Free Trade Association as well as EU candidate countries. It was conducted in 2002 and 2006 in 29 countries. It is not a household survey but focuses on enterprises with at least 10 employees. The 4-yearly SES micro-data sets are available for reference years 2002, 2006 and 2010.	Eurostat
European Union Labour Force Survey (EU -LFS)	The EU-LFS is a cross-sectional and longitudinal household sample survey. It provides data on labour participation in the 28 Member States of the European Union, 2 candidate countries and 3 countries of the European Free Trade Association. Since 1983, a revised annual survey with quarterly employment data is conducted. In 2011, the quarterly LFS sample size across the EU was about 1.5 millions of individuals. The EU-LFS covers all industries and occupations.	Eurostat, UK Data Service
European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)	EU-SILC collects cross-sectional and longitudinal micro-data on income, poverty, social exclusion and living conditions. It was first carried out in 2003 and provides data for most EU member states as well as Turkey. Cross sectional data is released every year in March while longitudinal data is provided every August as from 2010. Social exclusion and housing condition information is collected mainly at household level while labour, education and health information is obtained for persons aged 16 and over. The core of the instrument, income at very detailed component level, is mainly collected at personal level.	Eurostat, UK Data Service
Russia Longitudinal Monitoring Survey (RLMS)	On-going panel survey of Russian households that began in 1992 and collects data on	BREAD

	individuals' health status and dietary intake as well as household-level expenditures and service utilization. In 2013, 22 rounds had been conducted.	
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Name	Description	Reference Portal(s) (not exhaustive)
Region: Latin America and the Caribbean		
Central American Population Project	Collects fertility and health surveys carried out in Central America. Data from Belize, Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica and Panama are included in the collection.	BREAD
Guatemalan Survey of Family Health (EGSF)	Single cross section survey conducted in 1995 in rural communities in 4 of Guatemala's 22 departments. The survey examined the way in which rural Guatemalans cope with childhood illness and pregnancy, and the role of ethnicity, poverty, social support, and health beliefs.	BREAD
Mexican and Latin American Migration Project (MPP, LAMP)	On-going longitudinal study of Mexican Migration to the US. Its annual survey waves cover Mexican households since 1982, with special sub-samples of Mexicans living in Chicago. In extension to the MPP, the LAMP has collected data in Puerto Rico, the Dominican Republic, Nicaragua, Costa Rica and Peru since 1988.	BREAD
Mexican Family Life Survey (MxFLS)	On-going nationally representative longitudinal survey of individuals, households, families and communities. Conducted by RAND. The first wave was conducted in 2002, with two follow-ups so far. In addition to consumption, income, wealth, employment, marriage and fertility, the survey contains a module on crime and victimization as well migration histories.	BREAD
Mexican Health and Aging Study (MHAS)	Prospective longitudinal survey of older adults (born before 1951) and their spouses. 10,000 adults and 5,000 spouses were interviewed in the first 2001 wave, with a follow-up completed in 2003. A fourth round of the longitudinal study is planned for 2015.	BREAD
SABE (Salud Bienestar Y Envejeimiento en America Latina y El Caribe)	Series of comparable cross-national surveys on health and aging organized as a cooperative venture among researchers in Argentina, Barbados, Brazil, Chile, Cuba, Mexico and Uruguay. Its goal is to describe health, cognitive achievement and access to health care among people age 60 and older with a special focus on people over 80 years old.	BREAD

Name	Description	Reference Portal(s) (not exhaustive)
Region: Latin America and the Caribbean (continued)		
Tsimane Amazonian Panel Study (TAPS)	TAPS is an annual panel data set covering the period 2002 through 2006 that follows a native Amazonian horticultural and foraging society. The study has been tracking about 1,500 native Amazonians in about 250 households of 13 villages along the Maniqui River in Bolivia.	BREAD
Region: Global/Multi-Regional		
Core Welfare Indicator Questionnaire (CWIQs)	The World Bank developed the CWIQ survey series in the 1990s as an inexpensive tool to collect standardized information on poverty, including access and satisfaction with social services and social welfare indicators. The surveys contain information related to housing conditions, water and sanitation, education, health care use and access, income and assets.	IHSN
Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS)	DHS is collecting national sample surveys of population and maternal and child health. It includes a range of data collection options. Individual and household level data has been recorded in many developing countries since the 1980s. Data have been collected in four waves: DHS-I (1986-90), DHS-II (1991-1992), DHS-III (1993-1997), Measure (1998-present).	BREAD, STICERT
Living Standards Measurement Studies (LSMS)	Since 1980, the World Bank has been collecting multi-purpose household survey data in 39 countries under the Living Standards Measurement Study umbrella. The LSMS-Integrated Surveys on Agriculture Project (LSMS-ISA) conducts surveys and research on the links between agriculture and poverty reduction.	BREAD, STICERT
Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS)	International household survey initiative by UNICEF producing internationally comparable estimates of a range of indicators in the MDG target areas of health, education, child protection and HIV/AIDS. The first MICS round was carried out in 1995 in more than 60 countries, and has been followed by four waves so far, with the fifth wave still running in 2014.	IHSN

Name	Description	Reference Portal(s) (not exhaustive)
Region: Global/Multi-Regional (continued)		
Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour (SIMPOC)	International Labour Organization -developed household survey on children and their parents/guardians. It collects data on the economic and non-economic tasks of children, working hours, health and safety issues and background variables such as demographic characteristics. Since its launch in 1998, 34 countries have completed at least one SIMPOC wave.	IHSN
World Fertility Surveys (WFS)	The World Fertility Surveys are the predecessors of the DHS surveys and were conducted in 41 countries during the 1970s and early 1980s.	BREAD, IHSN
World Health Survey	The World Health Survey was implemented by the World Health Organisation between 2002 and 2004 in partnership with 70 countries to generate information on the health of adult populations and health systems. The total sample size in these cross-sectional studies includes over 300,000 individuals.	IHSN
Young Lives: An International Study of Childhood Poverty	The Young Lives study, which began in 2002, is an innovative long-term project investigating the changing nature of childhood poverty in Ethiopia, India, Peru and Vietnam. It is following 12,000 children in these countries over 15 years. It is conducted by the Young Lives team based at the University of Oxford.	UK Data Service