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Exploring Poverty in South Sudan through the Lens of Multidimensional Poverty Approach

By: *Matai Muon*[*]

Abstract

This paper focuses on the nature, patterns and measurement of poverty in South Sudan through the lens of multidimensional poverty approach. In so doing, it reviews the existing body of knowledge using a variety of tools and methodologies from both the income-based and the multidimensional-based approaches. The first part of the paper analyzes the levels, trends and determinants of income-based poverty with the aim of identifying strengths, weaknesses and gaps. Evidence confirms that the income-based approach of $1.90/day provides a scanty picture of South Sudan's poverty scene. The second part of the paper zeroes into the multidimensional poverty measure with a keen eye on what difference it makes to employ this tool. It is observed that the use of the multidimensional poverty index in South Sudan provides a bigger-picture perspective to understanding poverty as it lays bare details of deprivations for each respective indicator across the three dimensions. As a result, it is recommended that South Sudan develops a national multidimensional poverty index in order to better understand its poverty profile and subsequently, identify areas for effective interventions.

Keywords: Poverty; South Sudan; Income-based Approach;
        Multidimensional Approach

1. Introduction

Prior to the secession of Southern Sudan from Sudan in July 2011, there were many challenges that trapped the population of the South.[1] The country's social sector was poorly built with limited-service delivery owing to the long civil conflicts (1955–1972 and 1983–2005), climatic changes and natural

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[*] ***BIEA-RSC Graduate Attaché British Institute of Eastern Africa Nairobi, Kenya***

[1] Khalid Siddig & Adam Ahmed & Somaia Jaafar & Ali Salih, "The Prevalence of Poverty and Inequality in South Sudan: The Case of Renk County," EcoMod2013 5454, EcoMod. July 2013.

disasters. Consequently, the adult illiteracy rate stood at 75% of total population with primary school enrolment being only 20%.[2] Only 27% of the population had access to safe drinking water and only 16% had access to sanitation facilities.[3] The signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement in 2005 silenced the guns but poverty continued to characterize the South whose economy was left in dilapidation after decades of unrest. Following a successful vote of nationhood in July 2011, South Sudan's socio-economic problems persisted as the divorce proved ugly.[4] Severe economic shocks and crises resulting from fluctuations in international oil prices, exports revenue and civil conflict challenged the new nation.[5] According to the World Bank, the December 2013 conflict has downgraded development gains achieved since independence.[6] As a result, the country's gross domestic product per capita declined from $1,780 in 2013 to an estimated $748 at the end of 2020.[7]

Due to lower oil exports, limited government revenues, and disrupted agricultural production, the economy contracted by an estimated 5.4 percent in FY2020/21, while 4 in 5 individuals remain under the international poverty line.[8] Living standards are generally poor as violence, displacement and climate shocks continue to challenge concerted international effort and trigger socioeconomic deprivation for the most vulnerable.[9] Inequalities and severe poverty are visible across a large swathe of the population in particular, among the internally displaced persons where access to clean drinking water, proper sanitation, and housing poses a significant

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[2] See Khalid et al 2013

[3] Guvele, Cesar, Faki, Hamid, Nur, Eltahir, Abdelfattah, Abdelaziz and Aden Aw-Hassan, Poverty Assessment Southern Sudan. The Center for Agricultural Research in the Dry Areas. ICARDA, Aleppo, Syria.vi + 55 pp. 2009.

[4] The Guardian, Was South Sudan a mistake? January 2014. Available at *https://www.theguardian.com/world/2014/jan/08/south-sudan-war-mistake*

[5] See the World Bank South Sudan Overview 2022. Available at *https://www.worldbank.org/en/country/southsudan/overview*

[6] Ibid

[7] World Bank, South Sudan Overview, October 2020.

[8] Ibid

[9] African Development Bank Group, South Sudan Economic Outlook. Accessed at *https://www.afdb.org/en/countries/east-africa/south-sudan/south-sudan-economic-outlook*

development concern. [10] At the same time, the country's Human Development Index (HDI) in 2019 was one of the lowest in the world - standing at 0.433 in 2019.[11] In the global Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI), the country scored 91.9% on the index in 2021. Furthermore, South Sudan failed to achieve[12] almost all the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), and progress towards achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) remains discouraging.[13]

The Government of South Sudan initiated different programmes to address poverty and socioeconomic deprivations.[14] These programmes include the Interim Country Strategy Paper 2011-2013 which the government adopted as an approach to fight poverty, the Institutional Capacity Building for Poverty Reduction and Good Governance Project (2007-2014), the Constituency Development Fund (CDF), Vision 2040 with its subsequent National Development Strategies (revised 2018-2021, 2021-2024) respectively, and the international support mechanism to reduce poverty in the country.[15] While these development plans provided some clarity on how to get the development right, the impacts on job creation, poverty reduction, and human development have been dismal. Despite the existence of a National Social Protection Policy Framework approved in 2015 for example, the social protection initiatives in the country are almost exclusively financed by donors, which constrains sustainability.[16]

In this context, this paper attempts to avail a comprehensive assessment of poverty in South Sudan using both the monetary and the multidimensional approaches, with emphasis on the dynamics and determinants of poverty. It also discusses the MPI as an effective policy offer for poverty reduction

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[10] World Bank, Poverty & Equity Brief. April 2021

[11] UNDP, The Next Frontier: Human Development and the Anthropocene

[12] Nhial T, Tutlam, Where is South Sudan in achieving UN Millennium Development Goals? Sudan Tribune. November 2013. Available at *https://sudantribune.com/article47971/*

[13] Sustainable Development Report. "Rankings". Available at *https://dashboards.sdgindex.org/rankings*

[14] Mabior, Michael, Determinants of poverty in South Sudan: a case study of Greater Bor in Jonglei State. Thesis. University of Nairobi. 2015

[15] Ibid

[16] UN Economic and Social Council Draft Note. June 2022, p.2

efforts, explores gaps, draws conclusions and lastly, policy recommendations. The first section of the paper, therefore, discusses the discourse analysis on the representation of poverty in South Sudan focusing more generally on how poverty has been presented in the country over time. The second part assesses the income-based approach, levels, trends and determinants, analyzing changes and trends. The third part looks at the multidimensional approach with a keen interest in how it can be used as a poverty reduction policy tool in South Sudan. Fourth, the paper draws conclusions from the discussion utilizing the two approaches. Finally, it provides a blueprint for policy implications as far as poverty alleviation is concerned in the context of South Sudan.

2. Discourse Analysis on the Representation of Poverty in South Sudan

Understanding discourses is an important way to confront poverty. Olsen et al (2010) states that "Discourses are combinations of communicative acts that fit together."[17] A discourse is a context-specific local set of rules or norms that kick in when people are interacting or communicating.[18] Olsen et al noted that discourses do shape how we communicate about poverty. Accordingly, these set of local rules constraint how we talk and approach poverty, presenting poverty as a phenomenon of classes where one can't both 'target' the poor and 'be' poor at the same time! He writes:

> *"Poor people don't talk about poverty, as they are (by definition, within poverty discourse) too busy scratching out a living somewhere. The speaker about poverty is constructed as a heroic, non-poor, figure, who is doing something about a problem."[19]*

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[17] Olsen, W. K., & Boran, A. Poverty as a Malaise of Development: A Discourse Analysis in its Global Context. In Poverty: Malaise of Development? (pp. 33-65). University of Chester Press. (Ed.) (2010).
[18] Ibid, p.4
[19] Ibid, p.4

Table 1: Typical Images of Poverty

	Charity Discourse	Social Inclusion Discourse	Economics of Poverty Discourse
Typical Photo Images	Orphan, hungry child, wrinkled older person	Crowds, meetings, white and black people together	Summary bullet points of achievements
Typical Graphical Images	A form to fill in for donating money	Pie chart of voting percentages (voting being a liberal notion of inclusion)	Bar charts

Source: Olsen et al (2010) "Poverty as a Malaise of Development"

Poverty has traditionally been and is still widely considered as a lack of income and is measured via income- or consumption-based indices, predominantly using the Foster–Greer–Thorbecke (FGT) [20] class of decomposable poverty measures developed by Foster, Greer and Thorbecke (1984).[21] This approach has been operationalised and popularized by the World Bank and UN organizations and widely adopted by countries worldwide. In recent years, poverty has been increasingly viewed from a human development perspective, relying mainly on Amartya Sen's capabilities approach, which argues that income is only a 'means to an end'[22]

Now widely understood as multidimensional, new measures of poverty go beyond income alone and focus more on 'the end', encompassing various aspects of wellbeing including, for example, quality of health, education, and living standards.[23] This multidimensional notion of poverty is exemplified by the United Nations' adoption of the SDGs – 17 goals in itself – and the explicit targets of ending both monetary and multidimensional poverty as

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[20] For contextual understanding, see "Measurement of Foster-Greer-Thorbecke Index Using MS Excel" accessed at
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VSdoSYmAU6I
[21] Andrianarison, F., Housseini, B., and Oldiges, C.: 'Dynamics and Determinants of Monetary and Multidimensional Poverty in Cameroon', OPHI Working Paper 141, University of Oxford. 2022
[22] Sen, A. Commodities and Capabilities, Amsterdam: North-Holland. 1985.
[23] IMF, Women in Economics: Sabina Alkire: Tackling Poverty Beyond the Idea of Material Wealth.

laid out in SDG targets 1.11 and 1.22.[24] As per Sen (1997) contention, the poverty experience is indeed, a function of opportunities, i.e., what people can do or be in a given context relative to possibilities for others.[25] Alfred Marshall, writing in 1925 noted that "The study of the causes of poverty is the study of the causes of degradation of a large part of mankind."[26]

3. Empirical results: levels, trends and determinants of poverty

In this section, I present and discuss levels, trends, and determinants of monetary and multidimensional poverty. I begin by analyzing monetary poverty over time, followed by multidimensional poverty.

3. 1 Monetary Poverty Analysis: Results and Discussion

Generally, South Sudan has approached poverty from an income-based lens. [27] The country performed its most recent national representative household survey on poverty in 2009. Thus, South Sudan knew very little about welfare and livelihoods prior to sovereignty in 2011.[28] In 2016, more than 4 in 5 South Sudanese lived on US$1.90 PPP (2011) per capita per day. The poverty headcount ratio meanwhile was equal to 82 percent that year, with a 95 percent confidence interval. Poverty grew considerably from 51 percent in 2009 to 66 percent in 2015 in addition to the most recent rate of 82 percent.[29] The surge in deprivation happened between 2015 and 2016, consequent upon simultaneous onset of near hyperinflation and escalation of the conflict.

Between 2009 and 2015, the annualized average growth rate of the poverty headcount was approximately 2.5 percentage points per year or 15 percentage points over the entire period. Yet, on the other hand, between 2015 and 2016 the poverty headcount grew by 16 percentage points in a

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[24] Ibid, p.2
[25] Amartya Sen, "On Economic Inequality," Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1997
[26] Marshall, A. "Principles of Economics", eighth edition, p.3. 1925.
[27] Ahmed E, Ahmed et al, Poverty Determinants of South Sudan. The Case of Renk County. 2014
[28] World Bank, The Impacts of Conflict and Shocks on Poverty: South Sudan Poverty Assessment 2017. Poverty & Equity Global Practice, Africa, June 2018.
[29] Ibid p.24

calendar year. [30] The worsening economic conditions has pushed many impoverished households further towards destitution. These levels of poverty make South Sudan one of the poorest states in the world. The country's poverty headcount ratio is, indeed, much higher than the average estimates of other countries at the same stages of development.[31]

The incidence of poverty is more common in rural areas than in urban areas albeit with a closing gap. South Sudan has always reported a large disparity between urban and rural poverty. In 2009, for instance, 3 in 5 rural residents were poorer compared to 1 in 4 urban residents (25 and 58 percent respectively). Rural poverty skyrocketed to about 9 in 10 and urban poverty to 2 in 3 (85 and 65 percent respectively in 2016. Nonetheless, the gap between urban and rural poverty has narrowed over time despite the lasting and marked differences (Figure 1-2). This decrease results partly from conflict that have dogged urban areas, with many of the deadlier conflict events ragging on in more populous, and urbanized regions. Nevertheless, rural destitution is more pronounced than urban poverty.

Figure 1.1: Poverty headcount in LICs and LMICs   *Figure 1.2: Poverty headcount*[32]
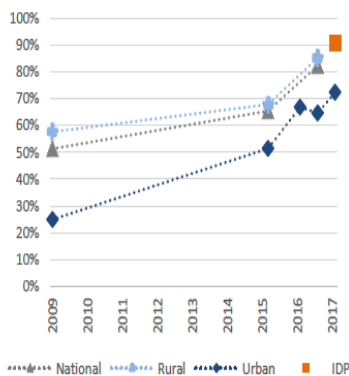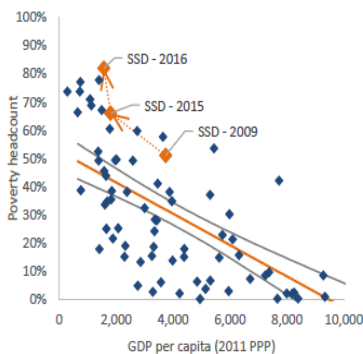
Source: World Bank (2018)

As such, the rural poor continues to experience a deeper poverty than urban residents, with a higher poverty gap and poverty severity.[33] South Sudan's poverty breadth and welfare deprivation have a direct positive correlation with worsening political landscapes and the resulting poor macroeconomic situations in the county.

Although the country has a history of high poverty levels coupled with severe cases of underdevelopment, recent changes in its poverty profiles are without a doubt, intimately linked to the shocks from the conflicts. Poverty and hunger have risen over the past decades to warrant the need to act with urgency in order to restore food security thus, preventing the consequences of malnutrition and a large-scale child stunting. According to the World Bank, doing such would ensure access to nutritious food, an extremely important short-term intervention to prevent a catastrophe.[34] Furthermore, the Bank suggests, arriving at a significant poverty alleviation level in South Sudan calls for ending the incidence of armed violence as well as reducing the political and macroeconomic risks. [35] Once that is achieved, the government needs to portray a credible commitment to development objectives as a way of regaining institutional loyalty.[36]

Table 2: State-level predictions of poverty headcount (%)

	Poverty (survey)	Poverty (predicted)	Poverty Rural (survey)	Poverty Rural (predicted)	Poverty Urban (survey)	Poverty Urban (predicted)
Central Equatoria	80	76	84	84	17	63
Eastern Equatoria	95	91	97	94	28	42
Jonglei		92		95		17
Lakes	84	86	86	89	29	47
Northern Bahr el Ghazal	90	90	91	93	12	68
Unity		92		95		17
Upper Nile		92		95		36
Warrap	86	89	90	92	43	65
Western Bahr el Ghazal	90	88	95	92	38	70
Western Equatoria	53	68	61	74	39	31
Total	**83**	**92**	**86**	**92**	**66**	**77**

Source: World Bank Report (2018)

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[33] Ibid
[34] Ibid p.38
[35] World Bank, How conflict and economic crises exacerbate poverty in South Sudan. n
[36] Ibid 28

Household survey carried out between 2016-17 indicated lower national poverty headcount (76.4%) with large gaps across living standards.[37] Rural poverty on the other hand, showed a poverty headcount of 79.6% higher than urban areas (54.2%), a variation of 26%.

Table 3: Key indicators

Distribution among groups: 2016	International Poverty Line(%)		Relative group (%)	
	Non-Poor	**Poor**	**Bottom 40**	**Top 60**
Urban population	46	54	21	79
Rural population	20	80	43	57
Males	24	76	40	60
Females	23	77	40	60
0 to 14 years old	20	80	43	57
15 to 64 years old	27	73	38	62
65 and older	39	61	28	72
Without education (16+)	20	80	43	57
Primary education (16+)	38	62	30	70
Secondary education (16+)	42	58	25	75
Tertiary/post-secondary education (16+)	57	43	12	88

Source: World Bank using HFS-W3/SSAPOV/GMD

Ahmed et al (2013) in his analysis of poverty and inequality prevalence in Renk County of Upper Nile region found that "87% and 73% of the urban and rural households respectively fall below our calculated poverty lines."[38] Poverty incidence, gap and severity are more apparent among urban households than those of the rural households, which could be explained by the high influx of Internally Displaced People (IDPs) and refugees during the civil war period and the limited employment opportunities in the County.[39] These differences in poverty incidence between urban and rural may be explained by differences in income, failure of agricultural seasons, scarcity of off-farm generating income activities, and internal displacement of people (IDPs) migration from rural areas to the relatively safe Renk County.[40] According to the three standard lines, poverty Incidence, gap and severity are found to be mostly higher among rural households. Results of

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[37] See World Bank, Poverty & Equity Brief
[38] See Ibid 1
[39] Ibid p. 14
[40] Ibid p.15

the rural households show that 63%, 82% and 97% fall below poverty lines if the three standard lines (US$ 1, 1.25 and 2), respectively are applied (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Poverty incidence, gap and severity in Renk County
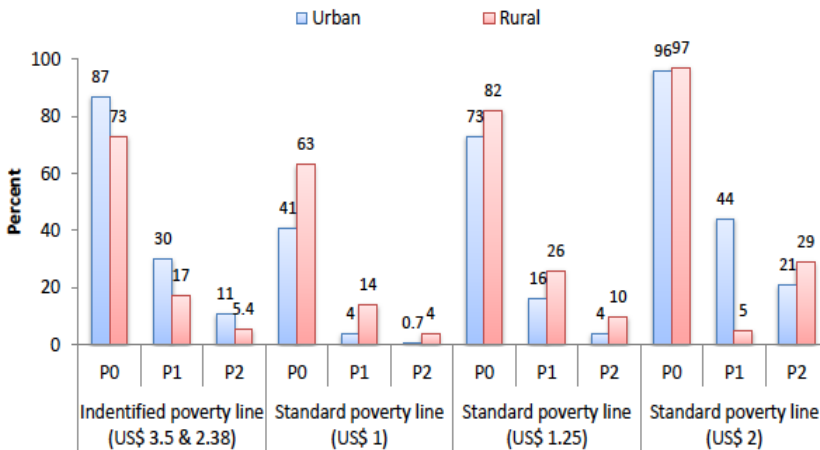
Source: Ahmed et al (July 2013)

Ahmed concluded that poverty in Renk County is high in both urban and rural areas, and recommended that policy makers in the country may need to assure people's access to "basic needs" in order to alleviate poverty among the poorest residents. [41] Developing and implementing complementary programs between the Agricultural Bank, International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) and other relevant NGOs involved in microfinance loans and credit to outreach the poorest of the poor. [42] Pape & Parisotto (2019) conducted an extremely detailed picture of welfare and livelihoods for the South Sudanese population between 2015 and 2017. [43] The paper utilized the Rapid Consumption Methodology combined with geo-spatial

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[41] Ibid p.19
[42] Ibid p.20
[43] U Pape & Luca Parisotto, Estimating Poverty in a Fragile Context The High Frequency Survey in South Sudan. HiCN Working Paper 305. Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex, May 2019.

data for inaccessible survey areas. Their paper found that the incidence of poverty is much more widespread in rural areas compared to urban areas.

Table 4: Poverty headcount and average consumption per strata for the seven HFS covered states, 2016.

| | Poverty headcount ratio | | | | Mean consumption | | | | |
	Mean	Standard Error	[95% CI]		Mean	Standard Error	[95% CI]		N
National	0.83	0.01	0.80	0.86	73.30	2.68	67.99	78.60	1,848
Rural	0.86	0.02	0.83	0.89	67.36	2.70	62.03	72.70	1,281
Urban	0.65	0.02	0.60	0.70	113.99	5.59	102.94	125.05	567
Warrap	0.86	0.05	0.77	0.95	63.98	7.13	49.88	78.08	135
Northern Bahr El Ghazal	0.90	0.03	0.84	0.95	62.63	5.64	51.49	73.77	299
Western Bahr El Ghazal	0.90	0.02	0.87	0.94	60.17	6.33	47.66	72.68	310
Lakes	0.84	0.02	0.80	0.88	71.22	3.46	64.38	78.06	232
Western Equatoria	0.53	0.04	0.46	0.61	130.51	7.45	115.79	145.23	300
Central Equatoria	0.80	0.05	0.70	0.90	86.53	8.27	70.18	102.88	311
Eastern Equatoria	0.95	0.01	0.93	0.98	43.88	3.58	36.80	50.96	261

Source: Pape & Parisotto (May 2019)[44]

Figure 3: Cumulative consumption distribution.
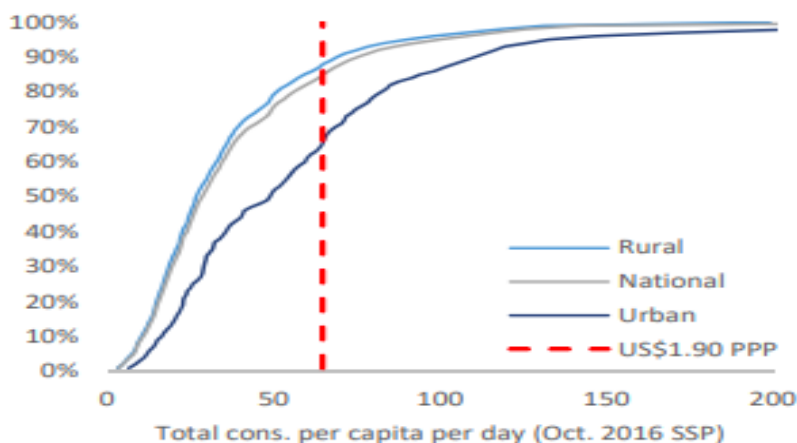
Source: Pape & Parisotto (May 2019)

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[44] Note: Standard errors estimated through linear regressions; all estimates weighted using population weights.

Rural poverty was equal to 86 percent in 2016 compared to 65 percent in urban areas. The rural poor also experienced deeper poverty than urban residents, with a higher poverty gap and poverty severity. In 2016, the urban poverty gap was equal to 31 percent compared to 50 percent for the rural poverty gap. A similar pattern can be observed for poverty severity, the urban severity index was equal to 19 percent and the rural index equal to 33 percent.

Mabior (2013) analyzed the determinants of poverty in South Sudan's Greater Bor, Jonglei State area and found that at 95% confidence interval, education levels, gender of the head of the household, marital status and sector of economy employed significantly reduced the probability of being poor while age of the head of the household, household size, distance to the nearest health facility and the poor status of the road network significantly increased the probability of being poor.[45] The study thus recommended cash transfers to senior citizens, establishment of healthcare facilities closer to people, family planning awareness as well as building proper road networks.

Other studies collaborate this finding; Mugo et al (2015) in his evaluation of maternal and child health in South Sudan revealed that the country's health care sector remains under-resourced and severely limited in terms of preparedness which, their paper argues, exposes it to vulnerabilities such as higher morbidity rates, and unskilled primary health workers. [46] They subsequently proposed that a sustained, multi-layered, and dependable support are required if maternal and child health were to be achieved.

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[45] See Mabior, Determinants of Poverty in South Sudan, 2013
[46] Mugo et al, Maternal and Child Health in South Sudan: Priorities for the Post-2015 Agenda. Sage Journals. Retrieved from Google scholar. 2015

Table 5: Summary Statistics

VARIABLE	N	Mean	SD.	Min	Max
Poverty Status	200	0.876	0.153	0	1
Age of household head	200	47.71	8.223	22	68
Education level (complete years)	200	6.658	4.472	1	18
Employment status	200	0.208	0.134	0	1
Gender of household head	200	0.631	0.346	0	1
Household size	200	7.23	4.103	2	25
Household residence	200	0.775	0.230	0	1
Marital status	200	0.725	0.498	0	1
Distance to the nearest Health care facility	200	8.742	3.498	1	25
Sector of economy employed	200	0.743	0.119	0	1
Land Ownership	200	0.781	0.137	0	1
Status of Road Network	200	0.667	0.252	0	1
Access to safe water	200	0.236	0.124	0	1
Access to credit	200	0.292	0.163	0	1

Source: Mabior (2013)[47]

Table 6: South Sudan—Key Indicators/Trends in Maternal, Newborn, and Child Health (2000-2010).[48]

	2000[a,b]	2006	2010
Maternal mortality ratio (per 100,000 live births)	763[a]	2,054	Not included
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	82[a]	102	75
Under-five mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	132[a]	135	105
Children below 5 moderately or severely underweight	Not included	32.8%	27.6%
Children below 5 severely underweight	Not included	14.1%	12.2%
Contraception usage by women married or in union	Not included	3.5%	4%
Use of improved drinking water sources	5.4%-91.3%[a]	48.3%	68.7%
Use of sanitary means of excreta disposal	48%[a]	6.4%	7.4%
GPI (primary school)	Not included	0.85 GPI	0.79 GPI
	(Federal Ministry of Health, Central Bureau of Statistics, & UNICEF, 2000)	(Government of Southern Sudan Ministry of Health & Southern Sudan Commission for Census, 2007)	(Ministry of Health & National Bureau of Statistics, 2013)

Source: Mugo et al (2015)

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[47] Ibid
[48] Note: GPI=Gender Parity index

UNICEF in a briefing in May 2020 raised a similar alarm on how poverty was robbing children suffering from malnutrition of their medicine.[49] The UN's Children Agency noted that about 1.3 million children in South Sudan were on the verge of facing acute malnutrition that year alone. On the other hand, Shimeles and Verdier-Chouchane (2016) focusing their analysis on the role of education in reducing poverty in South Sudan found that education levels came with increases in earning powers and thus, could be a way of tackling income poverty.[50] They recommended that the government, despite its existing welfare policy, would need to focus attention on the rural poor where poverty challenges are salient.

Table 7: Percentage of additional earning by level of education as compared to the reference group (no education)

Level of education	%
Primary education	36.5
Lower than secondary education	49.9
Vocational training	136.1
University	188.6

Source: Shimeles & Verdier-Chouchane (2016)[51]

3.2 Multidimensional Poverty Analysis, Results and Discussion
In this section, I present levels, trends, and determinants of multidimensional poverty. I begin by analyzing MPI measures over time, followed by a policy recommendation based on the gaps identified.

Poverty, as discussed, used to be viewed as a monetary deprivation. Most of the focus – be it in academic or policy circles – was on income, and the most common global yardstick for measuring progress was the World Bank's poverty line, currently defined as living on an income below $1.90 a day.[52]

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[49] UNICEF, Medicine sharing is threatening children's lives. May 2020. Available at *https://www.unicef.org/southsudan/stories/medicine-sharing-threatening-childrens-lives*
[50] Shimeles & Verdier-Chouchane, The Key Role of Education in Reducing Poverty in South Sudan.
[51] Ibid, p.8
[52] Oxford Department of international Development, Broadening the global understanding of poverty. y

Since the 90s, with Southeast Asia on the lead, millions have been moved out of poverty. But then, something remarkable happened on the way to declaring victory over poverty. More and more countries began to realize that although income poverty was decreasing, the poor were still poor.[53] In the late 2000s, the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) and others (notably, UNDP) developed a rigorous, policy-sensitive methodology, the Alkire Foster (AF) method,[54] to understand and measure multidimensional poverty. [55] And by 2010, it developed the first global multidimensional poverty index (MPI) jointly with the UNDP. A Multidimensional Poverty Peer Network (MPPN) emerged with leadership from Mexico and Colombia guided technically by the OPHI. Other countries followed suit having realized that their strategic response to poverty was missing key ingredients.

In 2015, the OPHI's poverty assessment received the global recognition it badly needed when the UN's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) declared in its goal 1 "to end poverty in all its forms everywhere.'[56] The Global Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) is an index of acute multidimensional poverty that covers over 100 developing countries.[57] The MPI is the single most important measure in as far as the global poverty assessment is concerned as Alkire (2016) elucidated:

> *It provides a vivid picture of how and where people are poor, within and across countries, regions and the world, enabling policymakers to better target their resources at those most in need through integrated policy interventions that tackle the many different aspects of poverty together.[58]*

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[53] Ibid 43

[54] The Alkire-Foster (AF) method, developed by Sabina Alkire and James Foster at OPHI, is a flexible technique for measuring poverty or wellbeing.

[55] OPHI, Policy and the Alkire-Foster method. Available at
 https://ophi.org.uk/policy/alkire-foster-methodology/#:~:text=The%20Alkire%2DFoster%20(AF),used%20in%20several%20different%20ways.
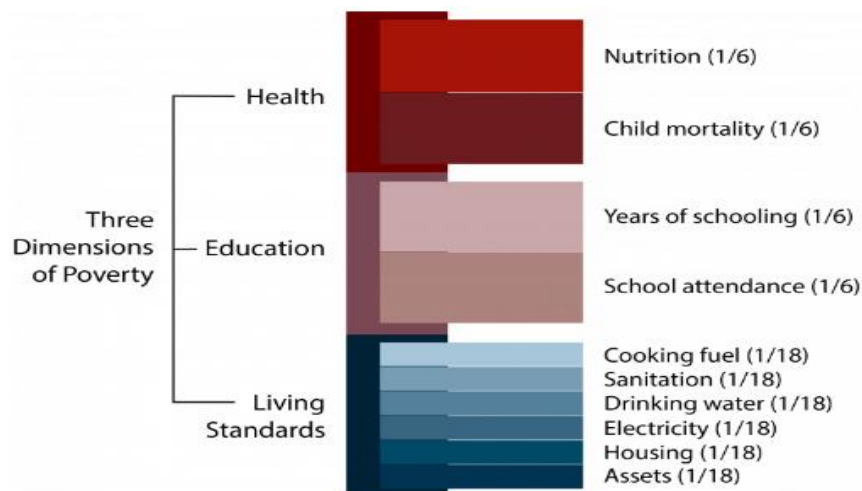
[56] The United Nations, Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere. /

[57] Alkire, OPHI Global Multidimensional Poverty Index 2016. Research Gate. 3

[58] Ibid, p.3

Figure 4: Global Multidimensional Poverty Index: dimensions and indicators of poverty

Source: OPHI Publication (2018

Table 8: Global MPI – Dimensions, Indicators, Deprivation Cutoffs, and Weights

DIMENSIONS OF POVERTY	INDICATOR	DEPRIVED IF LIVING IN A HOUSEHOLD WHERE…	WEIGHT	SDG AREA
Health (1/3)	Nutrition	Any person under 70 years of age for whom there is nutritional information is **undernourished**.	1/6	SDG 2: Zero Hunger
	Child mortality	A child **under 18** has **died** in the household in the five-year period preceding the survey.	1/6	SDG 3: Health and Well-being
Education (1/3)	Years of schooling	**No** eligible household member has completed **six years of schooling**.	1/6	SDG 4: Quality Education
	School attendance	Any school-aged child is **not attending** school **up to** the age at which he/she would complete **class 8**.	1/6	SDG 4: Quality Education
Living Standards (1/3)	Cooking fuel	A household cooks using **solid fuel**, such as dung, agricultural crop, shrubs, wood, charcoal, or coal.	1/18	SDG 7: Affordable and Clean Energy
	Sanitation	The household has **unimproved** or **no** sanitation **facility** or it is improved but **shared** with other households.	1/18	SDG 6: Clean Water and Sanitation
	Drinking water	The household's source of **drinking water** is **not safe** or safe drinking water is a **30-minute** or longer walk from home, roundtrip.	1/18	SDG 6: Clean Water and Sanitation
	Electricity	The household has **no electricity**.	1/18	SDG 7: Affordable and Clean Energy
	Housing	The household has **inadequate** housing materials in **any** of the three components: **floor, roof, or walls**.	1/18	SDG 11: Sustainable Cities and Communities
	Assets	The household does **not own more than one** of these **assets**: radio, TV, telephone, computer, animal cart, bicycle, motorbike, or refrigerator, and does not own a car or truck.	1/18	SDG 1: No Poverty

Source: OPHI Publication (2018)[59]

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[59] Ibid 50

Evidence suggests that poverty in South Sudan is a multi-sided issue that is not simply defined by an income-based statistic. Literacy, health care and food security are all causes of poverty in South Sudan.[60] With only 17% of children fully immunized, the population is severely disabled when it comes to combating diseases, and recommendations have included a fully vaccinated population, and provision of access to safe water in order to eradicate poverty.[61]

Worse still, South Sudan's MPI indices are scarce owing to the fact that the MPI[62] is fairly a new measure coupled with limited multi-level poverty indices in the country as a result of inadequate data on the demographic distribution of poverty.[63] The most recent survey data that were first publically available for South Sudan's MPI estimation refer to 2010.[64] This study revealed that 89.3 percent of the population are multidimensionally poor while an additional 8.5 percent live near multidimensional poverty. The breadth of deprivation (intensity) in South Sudan, which is the average of deprivation scores experienced by people in multidimensional poverty, is 61.7 percent. The MPI, which is the share of the population that is multidimensionally poor, adjusted by the intensity of the deprivations, is 0.551.

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[60] Sophie Casimes, Bringing Stability: The Top Causes of Poverty in South Sudan. The Borgen Project. /

[61] Ibid

[62] MPI at glance: The MPI has 3 dimensions (health, education and living standards) and 10 indicators (nutrition, child mortality, years of schooling, school attendance, cooking fuel, sanitation, drinking water, electricity, housing and assets); A person is identified as multidimensionally poor (or 'MPI poor') if they are deprived in at least one third of the dimensions. The MPI is calculated by multiplying the incidence of poverty (the percentage of people identified as MPI poor) by the average intensity of poverty across the poor. So, it reflects both the share of people in poverty and the degree to which they are deprived. The Global and national MPIs show not just which people are poor and where, but how they are poor – in which indicators they are deprived simultaneously. It reveals different intensities of poverty, as some people are disadvantaged in more indicators than others. And it can be disaggregated to reveal the levels and trends of poverty within a country, or between ethnicities, castes or other social groups.

[63] Ibid. See UN Economic and Social Council Note

[64] UNDP, Work for Human Development: Briefing note for countries on the 2015 Human Development Report/South Sudan. Human Development Report 2015.

Table 9: The most recent MPI for South Sudan relative to selected countries

	Survey year	MPI value	Head-count (%)	Intensity of deprivations (%)	Population share (%)			Contribution to overall poverty of deprivations in (%)		
					Near poverty	In severe poverty	Below income poverty line	Health	Education	Living Standards
South Sudan	2010	0.551	89.3	61.7	8.5	69.6		14.3	39.3	46.3
Benin	2011/2012	0.343	64.2	53.3	16.9	37.7	51.6	24.8	33.1	42.1
Lesotho	2009	0.227	49.5	45.9	20.4	18.2	56.2	33.8	14.8	51.4

Source: UNDP HDR (2015)[65]

Table 9 compares multidimensional poverty with income poverty, measured by the percentage of the population living below 2011 PPP US$1.90 per day. It shows that income poverty only tells part of the story. The multidimensional poverty headcount is 49.2 percentage points higher than income poverty. This implies that individuals living above the income poverty line may still suffer deprivations in health, education and/or standard of living. Table 9 also shows the percentage of South Sudan's population that lives in severe multidimensional poverty. The contributions of deprivations in each dimension to overall poverty complete a comprehensive picture of people living in multidimensional poverty in South Sudan.

In their 2015 paper titled "Multidimensional Poverty in Sudan and South Sudan" Ballon, and Duclos, utilizing the National Baseline Household Surveys (NBHS) of 2009 for both countries, reported a more severe and more prevalent multidimensional poverty in South Sudan than in Sudan.[66] In addition, regional and geographical disparities emerged with Khartoum and Western Equatoria as the states with the least poverty, and Northern Darfur, and Warrap as the states with the greatest poverty.[67] As a consequence, their research recommended a recognition of the poverty profile differences across age groups, geographical areas and dimensions.

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[65] Ibid, p.6
[66] Ballon, P. and Duclos, J.-Y. "Multidimensional Poverty in Sudan and South Sudan."OPHI Working Papers 93, University of Oxford. 2015
[67] Ibid

Table 10: Multidimensional Poverty Indices, by State

| | Panel A Adults aged 15+ | | | | Panel B Children aged 6 -14 years old | | | |
| | Head Count ratio (%) | | | | Head Count ratio (%) | | | |
State	Education	Consumption	Private assets	Public assets	Education	Consumption	Private assets	Public assets
Sudan	**38.3**	**41.0**	**41.9**	**40.7**	**30.2**	**54.9**	**51.4**	**55.1**
Northern	25.3	32.5	18.8	8.2	16.4	45.1	24.1	14.1
River Nile	28.9	29.9	30.7	16.2	15.1	39.2	41.2	28.8
Red Sea	41.7	44.0	46.1	26.5	23.3	59.4	55.8	32.6
Kassala	54.7	32.8	58.9	58.5	48.8	41.7	67.4	68.3
Al-Gadarif	50.5	44.2	48.0	52.3	38.3	60.0	52.6	62.5
Khartoum	19.3	22.3	11.2	8.7	13.2	33.4	17.0	15.7
Al-Gezira	35.7	33.3	28.4	31.8	25.0	46.6	32.5	38.8
White Nile	39.4	52.6	50.3	49.2	29.5	60.0	52.2	55.0
Sinnar	45.0	41.1	48.1	47.1	36.7	50.7	54.8	52.6
Blue Nile	53.9	52.3	52.3	52.3	30.7	63.5	59.9	57.2
Northern Kordofan	50.7	52.4	63.7	70.5	39.4	69.1	68.5	86.0
Southern Kordofan	50.6	57.7	55.3	77.8	38.1	65.8	62.4	84.3
Northern Darfur	38.7	69.1	74.7	49.2	25.9	77.4	74.2	58.3
Western Darfur	55.3	48.9	71.5	76.9	42.4	62.5	78.4	82.5
Southern Darfur	43.1	53.4	58.3	54.4	36.1	65.4	68.0	76.7
South Sudan	**73.8**	**49.1**	**54.9**	**53.5**	**54.7**	**51.8**	**57.4**	**55.3**
Upper Nile	56.0	26.0	51.7	58.6	38.7	25.3	51.7	58.0
Jonglei	84.4	46.4	78.3	78.4	55.0	48.6	79.7	81.1
Unity	75.3	66.6	55.2	55.7	58.6	69.2	55.4	56.7
Warap	84.6	63.8	67.7	78.2	74.1	63.4	73.8	78.3
North.B.Al Ghazal	80.4	74.5	53.5	61.8	62.9	77.4	55.1	61.5
West.B.Al Ghazal	66.8	39.6	28.8	49.5	57.9	47.8	33.8	54.7
Lakes	83.2	49.2	46.7	47.8	65.0	48.3	43.0	48.7
Western Equatoria	67.9	39.6	29.8	10.0	30.4	47.0	24.8	8.9
Central Equatoria	55.9	40.3	32.7	15.2	36.7	48.0	39.3	17.8
Eastern Equatoria	81.3	47.2	74.7	59.1	68.9	54.6	78.8	64.7

Source: Ballon & Duclos (2015)[68]

Table 11: Multidimensional Poverty Profiles

Panel A	Adults aged 15+ (k >=2)				Panel B	Children aged 6 to years old (k >=2)			
		Sudan		South Sudan			Sudan		South Sudan
MP indices - national					**MP indices - national**				
	M0	0.35	<	0.53		M0	0.44	<	0.5
	H	49%	<	73%		H	59%	<	70%
	A	72% ≈ 3 dim	≈	74% ≈ 3 dim		A	74% ≈ 3 dim	≈	72% ≈ 3 dim
By dimension					**By dimension**				
Greatest dim. poverty	Private assets		Education		Greatest dim. poverty	Public assets		Private assets	
Least dim. poverty	Education		Consumption		Least dim. poverty	Education		Consumption	
By area of residence					**By area of residence**				
Greatest values					Greatest values				
	M0		<			M0		≈	
	H	Rural	<	Rural		H	Rural	≈	Rural
	A		≈			A		≈	
By state					**By state**				
Greatest values					Greatest values				
	M0	Western Darfur	<	Jonglei		M0	N. Kordofan and W.Darfur	<	Warap
	H	Northern Darfur	<	Jonglei		H	N. Kordofan and W.Darfur	<	Warap
	A	Western Darfur	<	Warap		A	Kassala	≈	Warap
Lowest values					Lowest values				
	M0	Khartoum	<	Western Equatoria		M0	Khartoum	<	Western Equatoria
	H	Khartoum	<	Central Equatoria		H	Khartoum	<	Western Equatoria
	A	Khartoum	<	Western Equatoria		A	Khartoum	<	Western Equatoria

Source: Ballon & Duclos (2015)

[68] Ibid p.21

The multidimensional analysis of poverty among adults (results summarized in Table 11) shows that multidimensional poverty, as measured by the adjusted headcount ratio, is higher in South Sudan than in Sudan. This is mainly explained by the higher incidence rate of 73% in South Sudan, compared to 49% in Sudan. The sub-group poverty profiles by area of residence are higher among adults residing in the rural areas of each country. The cross-country comparison of rural poverty indicates that prevalence of multidimensional poverty is higher among South-Sudanese adults residing in rural areas compared to Sudanese ones.

Khartoum and Western Equatoria, on the one side, and that Western Darfur and Jonglei, on the other side, are the states with the lowest and highest multidimensional poverty values in Sudan and South Sudan respectively.[69] Thus, this finding corroborates with the evidence already discussed which points to the fact that rural MPI is higher than the urban MPI in South Sudan. Additionally, it confirms the need to broaden poverty measurement as R. Morel and R. Chowdhury (2015) found in their work.[70] In ``Reaching the Ultra-Poor" their study confirmed that the use of multidimensional poverty approach to measure progress was an effective intervention particularly in the targeting process.

The OPHI in its 2017 country briefing also compared both the MPI and other measures. It discovered that MPI was indeed, higher than the income poverty, indicating that South Sudan's existing national poverty measure was wanting.[71] Other countries in SSA such as Kenya (MPI poor: 39.9%, $1.90 a day: 33.6), Uganda (MPI poor: 69.9%, $1.90 a day: 34.6%), Niger (MPI poor: 89.3%, $1.90 a day: 45.7%) assessed in the same year confirm that multidimensional poverty measure provides a bigger picture perspective than the later approach.
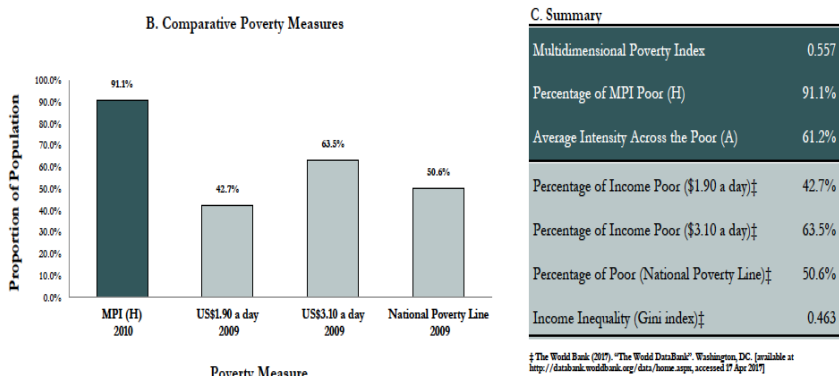
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[69] Ibid p.31
[70] R. Morel and R. Chowdhury, Reaching the ultra-Poor: Adapting Targeting Strategy in the Context of South Sudan. Journal of International Development
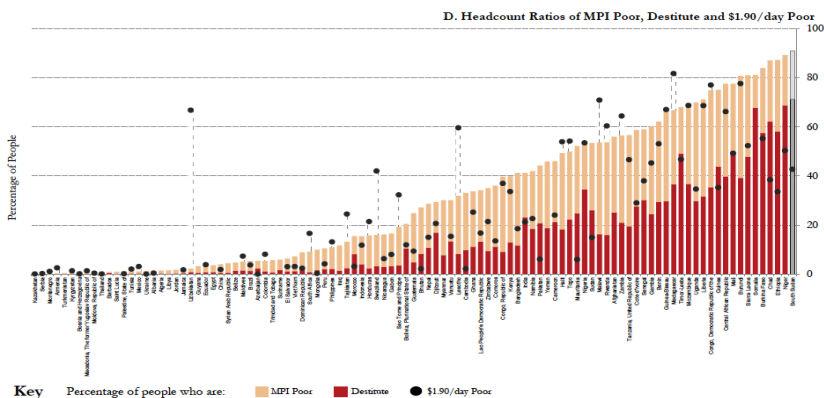[71] Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative, "South Sudan Country Briefing", Multidimensional Poverty Index Data Bank. OPHI, University of Oxford. 2017.

Figure 5: Comparing the MPI with Other Poverty Measures

B. Comparative Poverty Measures

C. Summary

Multidimensional Poverty Index	0.557
Percentage of MPI Poor (H)	91.1%
Average Intensity Across the Poor (A)	61.2%
Percentage of Income Poor ($1.90 a day)‡	42.7%
Percentage of Income Poor ($3.10 a day)‡	63.5%
Percentage of Poor (National Poverty Line)‡	50.6%
Income Inequality (Gini index)‡	0.463

‡ The World Bank (2017). "The World DataBank". Washington, DC. [available at http://databank.worldbank.org/data/home.aspx, accessed 17 Apr 2017]

Source: OPHI Country Briefing (2017)

Figure 6: Comparing the Headcount Ratios of MPI Poor and $1.90/day Poor

D. Headcount Ratios of MPI Poor, Destitute and $1.90/day Poor

Key   Percentage of people who are: ▮ MPI Poor   ▮ Destitute   ● $1.90/day Poor

Source: OPHI Country Briefing (2017)[72]

In the incidence of deprivation by indicator (Percentage of the Population who are MPI poor), the OPHI found that cooking fuel, electricity, sanitation, school attendance, and floor are more deprived than the rest of indicators.

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[72] The column denoting this country is in grey, with other countries shown in color. The percentage of people who are MPI poor is ordinarily shown in orange, and the percentage of people who are also destitute is shown in red.

This was an indicator of a destitute since the country was deprived in multiple indicators.

Figure 7: Incidence of Deprivation in Each of the MPI Indicators
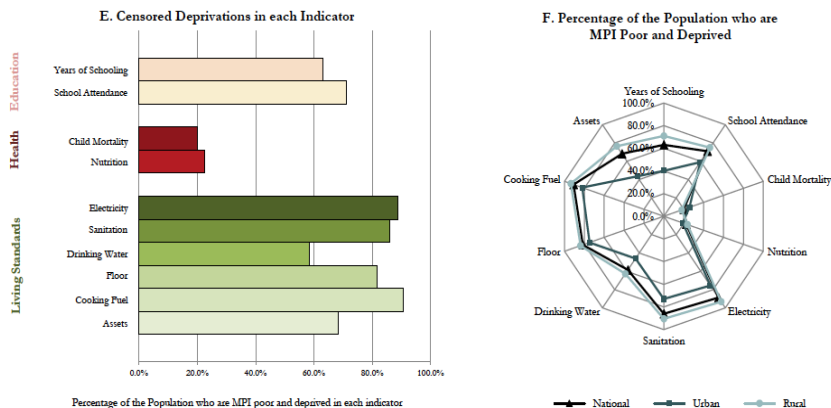
Source: OPHI Country Briefing (2017)[73]

Corroborating this finding, the United Nations' Economic and Social Council Draft Note (2022) on South Sudan revealed the following statistics:

> *About 86 per cent of the population is not using safely managed water and 63 per cent of drinking water at households is contaminated with E. coli. Only 2 percent of households reported having access to a protected water source. Some 75 per cent of households practice open defecation, with only 10 per cent having an improved sanitation facility.[74] An estimated 59 per cent (2.8 million) children aged 3–17 years were out of school in 2020, of whom 53 per cent were girls.[75]*

Comparatively, a study by the African Development Bank in 2013 noted that "access to improved water and sanitation is also very low and less than half the average for Sub-Saharan countries."[76] Additionally, the Study revealed:

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[73] Ibid 56, p.3

[74] UN Economic and Social Council, Draft Country Program Document: South Sudan. 2

[75] Ibid p.9

[76] African Development Bank, South Sudan: An Infrastructure Action Plan. 2013.

"Only 16% of females and 40% of males are literate, compared with 53% and 70% for Sub-Saharan Africa while it adds that "less than half of the 6-13 year old children are enrolled in primary school."[77]

Table 12: Selected Socio-economic Indicators

Indicator	South Sudan	Low income income countries	Lower middle income countries	Sub-Saharan Africa
Education				
Adult literacy rate (% of 15 years and above)				
Female	16	50	93	53
Male	40	71	85	70
Net primary enrollment ratio (%)	48	78	93	66
Ratio of girls to boys in primary school (%)	59	87	99	86
Students per teacher	52	42	22	48
Health status				
Under five mortality rate (per 1,000)	135	114	39	163
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000)	102	75	31	96
Underweight children under 5 years (%)	34		13	30
Maternal mortality rate				
(per 100,000 live births)	2 054	684	163	921
Access to improved water and sanitation				
% of population with access	27	75	82	56
% of population with access	16	38	57	37

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators, various issues.
SSCCSE, Key Indicators for Southern Sudan, February 2011[78]

Furthermore, South Sudan is energy poor. Based on the finding by the International Switch Energy Case Competition, the country has one of the lowest electrification rates in the world.[79] Only 1% of South Sudan is electrified.[80] Whiting et al (2015) recommended, among other, to incorporate other primary energy sources to the electricity mix and support the government plan to divert some crude oil into electricity generation, and to prioritize emergency stockpiling, especially given the existing socio-political tension and being a landlocked country, the lack of access to ports.[81] A recent Energy report by the Rift Valley Institute (2020) also made the same conclusion, urging for more efforts—both national and international—to

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[77] Ibid, p.24
[78] Ibid p.26
[79] International Switch Energy, Energy Poverty in South Sudan. 2021.
[80] Whiting et al, South Sudan: A Review of the Challenges and Prospects in the Development of Sustainable Energy Policy and Practices. April 2015.
[81] Ibid

improve access to clean and affordable energy sources, which are fundamental to the health and wellbeing of both people and environment.[82]

Table 13: South Sudan's Power Capacity

Electricity	total	South Sudan per capita	USA per capita
Own consumption	391.80 m kWh	35.00 kWh	11,842.76 kWh
Production	412.80 m kWh	36.88 kWh	12,428.52 kWh
Crude Oil	Barrel/day	South Sudan per capita	USA per capita
Production	150,200.00 bbl	0.013 bbl	0.033 bbl
Export	147,300.00 bbl	0.013 bbl	0.004 bbl

Source: International Switch Energy (2021)

In computing the MPI across the sub-national regions of South Sudan, the OPHI found that Warrap, Northern Bhar El Ghazal, Jonglei and Unity and Lake states to be severely impoverished compared to the more developed, and better educated Greater Equatoria region.[83] It also found that rural MPI poverty (94%) was higher than urban MPI poverty (82%). Interestingly, Bonaneri (2013) found that multidimensional poverty indices were higher in Kenya's marginalized counties (West Pokot, Wajir, and Samburu) while the study reported lower indices in comparatively higher income counties of Nairobi, Nakuru and Kiambu.[84]

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[82] Rift Valley Institute, Fuelling Poverty The challenges of accessing energy among urban households in Juba, South Sudan. 2020.

[83] OPHI Country Briefing, 2017

[84] Bonaneri S., Measuring Multidimensional Poverty in Kenya: An Application of Alkire-Foster Methodology.Master Thesis, University of Nairobi. November 2019.

Table 14: Multidimensional Poverty across Sub-national Regions

Region	MPI (H x A)	H (Incidence) k = 33.3%	A (Intensity)	Percentage of Population:			Inequality Among the MPI Poor	Population Share
				Vulnerable to Poverty 20%-33.3%	In Severe Poverty k = 50%	Destitute		
South Sudan	0.557	91.1%	61.2%	6.9%	71.1%	71.4%	0.202	100%
Urban	0.459	82.5%	55.7%	11.3%	53.2%	-	-	25.3%
Rural	0.591	94.0%	62.8%	5.4%	77.2%	-	-	74.7%
Central Equatoria	0.391	75.6%	51.7%	17.4%	39.2%	39.7%	0.171	13.6%
Western Equatoria	0.456	85.2%	53.5%	11.5%	53.2%	50.0%	0.155	8.3%
Western Bahr el Ghazal	0.491	84.9%	57.9%	11.2%	62.1%	57.0%	0.175	4.1%
Upper Nile	0.503	86.3%	58.3%	10.0%	61.2%	62.5%	0.190	12.4%
Eastern Equatoria	0.561	92.5%	60.7%	7.0%	71.5%	75.3%	0.208	11.4%
Lakes	0.605	96.9%	62.5%	2.5%	81.6%	80.9%	0.174	7.4%
Jonglei and Unity	0.627	97.5%	64.4%	2.2%	84.9%	86.1%	0.160	20.4%
Northern Bahr el Ghazal	0.652	97.4%	66.9%	2.5%	86.9%	87.0%	0.192	10.1%
Warrap	0.661	98.7%	67.0%	1.3%	89.3%	88.4%	0.186	12.3%

Source: OPHI Country Briefing (2017)[85]

In "A Multi-Country Analysis of Multidimensional Poverty in Contexts of Forced Displacement" Admasu, Y., et al (2022) laid bare the evidence for complementary measures when assessing deprivations among people in contexts of displacement.[86] Relying on household survey data from selected areas of Ethiopia, Nigeria, Somalia, South Sudan, and Sudan, the paper disclosed significant differences across displaced and host communities in all countries except Nigeria. "In Ethiopia, South Sudan, and Sudan, female-headed households have higher MPIs," reported their findings. They also examined mismatches and overlaps in the identification of the poor by the MPI and the $1.90/ day poverty line and concluded that there was a need to use multiple measures in order to better assess patterns of deprivations across countries.[87] "Our findings," the study offers, "indicate that differentiation by gender of the household head, displacement status and subgroups of headship have implications for policy and targeting."[88]
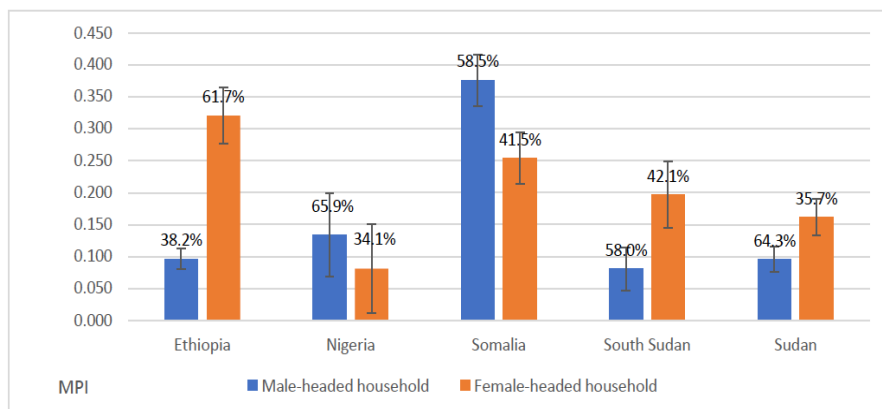
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[85] Ibid 59, p.5

[86] Admasu, Y., et al. A Multi-Country Analysis of Multidimensional Poverty in Contexts of Forced Displacement. No. 140, Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI), 2022, pp. 1–39.

[87] Ibid

[88] Ibid p.32

Figure 8: MPI for male- and female-headed households by country

Source: Admasu, Y., et al (2022)[89]

When disaggregated by displacement status, the study found that female-headed households in displaced communities were higher than the host in terms of proportion in Ethiopia (51.4 % of refugees vs 32.2% of hosts), South Sudan (53.3% of IDPs vs 43.6% of non-IDPs), and Sudan (47% IDPs vs 30% non-IDPS).

4. Conclusion and Policy Implications

This paper is concerned with exploring poverty in South Sudan using the lens of multidimensional poverty approach. It goes beyond monetary poverty and considers non-income-based poverty. For this purpose, I utilized the existing literature evidence on poverty measurements in South Sudan first by reviewing unidimensional poverty measures to explore the gaps if any and second, by zeroing into the multidimensional poverty measure with the aim of understanding the breadth of poverty spread and occurrence in South Sudan. For monetary poverty, it uses total per capita consumption as employed by the World Bank whereas for multidimensional poverty, it employs the Alkire-Foster - the Multidimensional Poverty index to analyze the existing body of knowledge.

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[89] Ibid p.20

4. 1 Unidimensional Poverty:

Levels, patterns and the distribution analysis of income-based welfare across South Sudan indicates that poverty rates are more pronounced and widespread among the rural population in South Sudan, than are in the Urban populations. Although in some instances, urban poverty tends to rise higher than the rural poverty rates, the general conclusion is that the South Sudanese poor are found in its remote areas. In addition, there has been a notable trend during the years of civil war, an indication that conflict has had a negative impact on per capita incomes of the population. Regional disparities also emerged with conflict-affected Greater Upper Nile having been more impoverished than the relatively peaceful Greater Bhar El Ghazel and the more educated, less-conflict prone Greater Equatoria regions. Evidence also avers that income poverty decreases with higher levels of education which suggests that higher education could be an effective poverty eradicating tool. It also shows a very diverse poverty profile across ages, sub-groups and regions. In addition, the impact of conflict on poverty patterns has been notably higher in recent years following the 2013 crisis.

4. 2 Multidimensional poverty:

It is observed that poverty in South Sudan is a multi-sided issue. The multidimensional analysis of poverty in South Sudan exhibits a higher MPI poverty levels than its unidimensional poverty. Thus, the country needs to develop a National MPI in order to better understand both the incidence and intensity of its poverty profile. In addition, the findings confirm that South Sudan encounters multiple deprivations fueled by lower-than-average human development indices. It is also observed that South Sudan's HDI and the MPI indices were poorer than the Sub-Saharan African countries averages.

4. 3 Policy implication:

As shown, poverty in South Sudan is multidimensional. Therefore, it requires a multidimensional approach. A multidimensional poverty measure can act as a focal point for policy integration given its flexibility and ease of disaggregation by regions, sub-groups and by individuals. The indicators of multidimensional poverty index arm policy makers with the tools to locate possible areas for action, and deeper analysis breaking down each country's

MPI for deeper insights as well as disaggregating it by section. This benefits the country in question in targeting measures. However, to arrive at this level, South Sudan should develop a strategic poverty reduction plan that can be used to construct a national multidimensional poverty index. Since the national MPI is a construct of an easily decomposable measure of the national poverty profile, it can act as a useful tool for fast implementation and monitoring of South Sudan's poverty alleviation effort.

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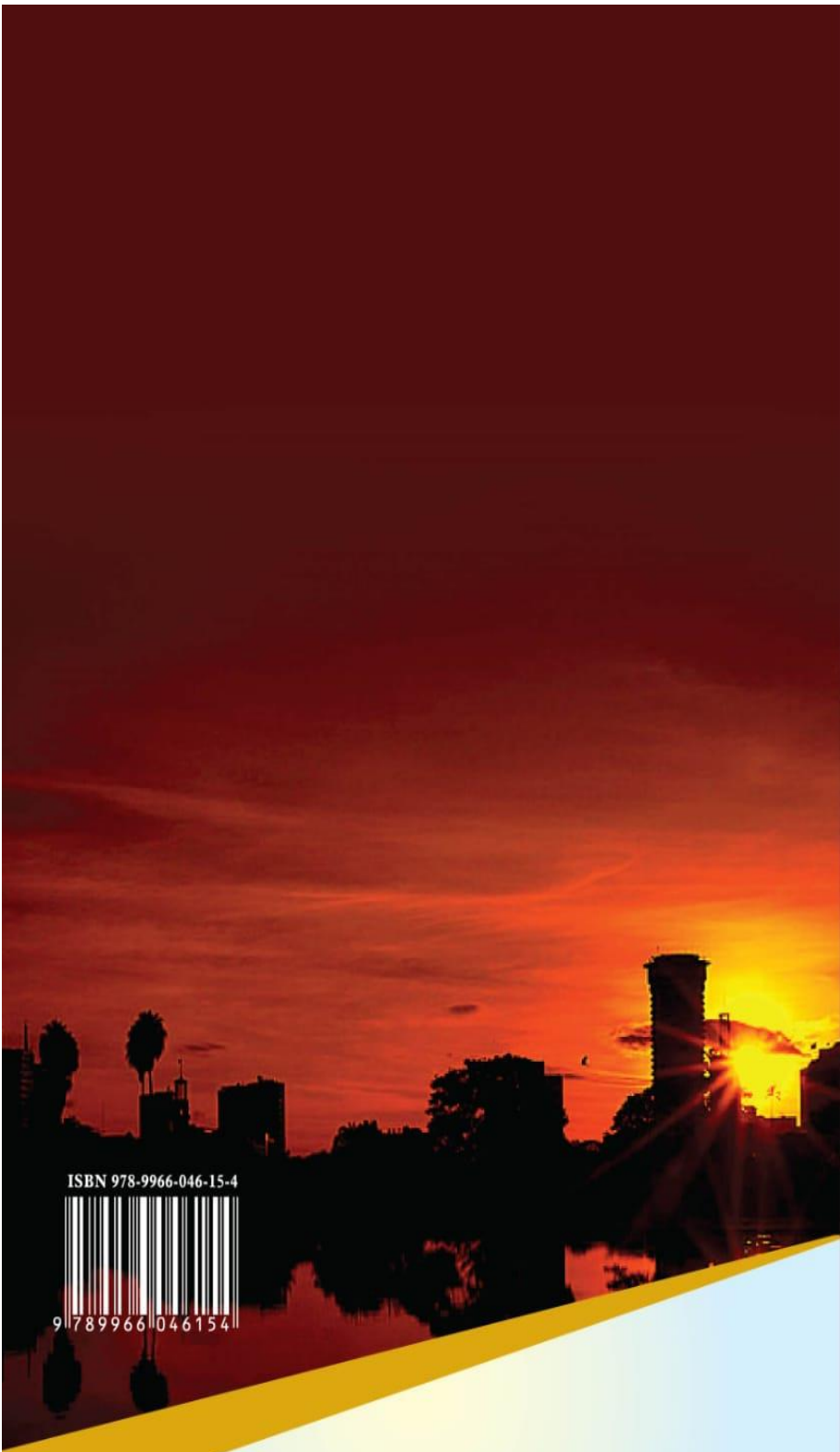pment_of_Sustainable_Energy_Policy_and_Practices*

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