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MONGOLIA POVERTY UPDATE 2022



Ulaanbaatar city
2025



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MONGOLIA POVERTY UPDATE 2022

New Methods, New Insights

Ulaanbaatar city
2025

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1818 H Street NW
Washington DC 20433
Telephone: 202-473-1000
Internet: www.worldbank.org

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FOREWORD (NSO)



NATIONAL STATISTICS
OFFICE CHAIRMAN

B. BATDAVAA

Mongolia has adopted the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and its long-term development policy document “Vision 2050” in line with the call to “Leave No One Behind” to eradicate poverty, protect the planet and the environment, and provide opportunities for peace and prosperity. The SDGs are a set of goals to promote intergrated, balanced and sustainable development to achieve in the future, with three pillars: social, economic, and environmental.

The basis for achieving the above goals is to end poverty and hunger in all its forms, respect human rights, and create equity. The National Statistics Office of Mongolia has been working on compilation of statistics on poverty, using internationally accepted methodologies to monitor implementation of the SDGs and the development policy of Mongolia to support evidence based decision making.

The National Statistics Office conducts the “Household Socio-Economic Survey” to estimate poverty indicators based on population consumption data, and has been working closely with the World Bank since 2002 to develop and conduct poverty measurement methodologies.

In Mongolia, the poverty line was estimated annually until 2010, but since 2012, it has been possible to compare poverty over the long term by using the 2010 poverty line as a baseline and indexing it with price indices.

In accordance with the recommendations of the World Bank and international organizations, the poverty baseline is updated every ten years to reflect changes in the living standards and consumption patterns of the population. Thus, the poverty baseline was updated in 2022, based on the basic needs expenditure method with the technical assistance of the World Bank. The World Bank also released new best practices for

countries on the measurement of poverty and the consumption aggregate in 2022.” Based on these updated guidelines, Mongolia’s “Methodology for Calculating Basic Poverty Indicators” was revised, reflecting improvements in the estimation of the poverty line and adjustments for household size and composition.

This report reflects the main changes in the poverty line and consumption aggregate, as well as the poverty profile of the population as of 2022. We hope that the results of the study will be an important source of information for policymakers, international organizations, scholars, and researchers.

We would like to thank Mr. Taehyun Lee, country manager and Ms. Lydia Kim, economist of the World Bank Mongolia and poverty research experts and the staff of the World Bank for their technical support in estimating the survey data in accordance with international methodologies and for their collaboration in developing the data and report.

FOREWORD (WORLD BANK)



COUNTRY MANAGER FOR MONGOLIA
THE WORLD BANK

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Tae Hyun Lee', written in a cursive style.

TAEHYUN LEE

Mongolia has made significant strides in economic development and poverty reduction in the past decade. As the country continues on its development path, ensuring that growth translates into shared prosperity for all citizens remains a key priority. The Mongolia Poverty Update Report provides an overview of poverty, inequality, and household welfare in 2022, offering valuable insights into the characteristics and challenges faced by the poor and vulnerable. As outlined in Vision 2050, Mongolia is committed to building a sustainable, diversified economy, enhancing quality of life, and reducing social and regional disparities. This report serves as a key tool in achieving these goals by providing a profile of the poor, helping to inform policies that further strengthen economic resilience and social inclusion.

The findings of this report are the result of a strong collaboration between the National Statistics Office of Mongolia (NSO) and the World Bank. Based on data from the 2022 Household Socio-Economic Survey, the analysis provides evidence-based insights to support effective policymaking. The NSO's leadership in conducting the survey and ensuring data integrity has been instrumental in producing a robust assessment of Mongolia's socio-economic landscape.

Key findings from the report highlight regional disparities in poverty rates, with rural areas experiencing significantly higher levels of poverty than urban centers. The report underscores the importance of education in breaking the cycle of poverty, as individuals with higher education levels have better employment prospects and higher incomes. Additionally, access to stable employment, basic services, and essential infrastructure remains crucial for improving household welfare and inclusive growth.

Addressing these disparities is key to achieving Mongolia's Vision 2050 goals of reducing poverty and fostering a more equitable society.

The World Bank remains committed to supporting Mongolia in its efforts to achieve its development objectives and reduce poverty. We hope this report serves as a valuable resource for policymakers, development partners, and civil society organizations working towards a more prosperous, inclusive, and resilient Mongolia.

We extend our appreciation to the NSO for their collaboration and dedication, as well as to all stakeholders who contributed to this important effort. We look forward to continued partnerships that drive evidence-based policymaking and improve the welfare of Mongolian citizens.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CBN	Cost of Basic Needs
CPI	Consumer Price Index
HSES	Household Socio-Economic Survey
MNT	Mongolian tugrug
NCA	Nominal consumption aggregate
NSO	National Statistics Office
OECD	The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
PAE	Per adult equivalent
PL	Poverty line
PPP	Purchasing power parity
PSU	Primary sampling unit
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This report provides an in-depth analysis of poverty trends, household welfare, and disparities across different population groups, using the 2022 Household Socio-Economic Survey (HSES). The report incorporates an updated methodology for measuring poverty and examines the socioeconomic factors influencing household welfare.

METHODOLOGICAL UPDATES TO POVERTY ESTIMATION TO ALIGN WITH INTERNATIONAL BEST PRACTICES

The 2022 poverty measurement methodology includes key updates aimed at improving the relevance, accuracy, and comparability of poverty estimates in Mongolia. These updates were driven by several factors. First, the World Bank introduced new guidelines for measuring poverty and inequality (Mancini & Vecchi, 2022), requiring methodological adjustments to align with international best practices. Second, the poverty line was revised to reflect changes in livelihoods and consumption patterns among the population since the poverty line was last estimated in 2010. Third, the HSES questionnaire was updated to enhance the measurement of household consumption, ensuring a more precise assessment of welfare.

Key updates in the 2022 poverty estimation include:

- **Improved consumption data in the HSES.** The 2022 HSES introduced improvements to the questionnaire and data collection methods, enhancing the accuracy of food, non-food, and durable goods consumption data.
- **Enhanced comprehensiveness of consumption aggregate and valuation of essential components.** The composition of the consumption aggregate was reassessed to ensure comprehensiveness. Additionally,

the valuation of consumption flows from durable goods and housing was refined to align with international best practices.

- **Shift from per capita to per adult equivalents.** This adjustment better accounts for economies of scale and the varying needs of household members based on age, making it particularly suitable for Mongolia, where relatively high non-food consumption shares enable households to benefit from greater economies of scale.
- **Improved price adjustments to better capture regional differences in the cost of living.** Price adjustments were expanded to include non-food goods in addition to food, reflecting Mongolia's high share of non-food consumption.
- **Updated poverty line to reflect changes in living standards.** Following international best practice of revising the national poverty line every ten years, the National Statistics Office (NSO) and the World Bank jointly updated Mongolia's poverty threshold. The basket of goods and services used to define the poverty line was revised to reflect shifts in household needs and consumption patterns. Additionally, the method for calculating the non-food component was improved to better account for Mongolia's relatively high share of non-food expenditures.

RURAL AREAS HAVE HIGHER POVERTY RATES, BUT THE MAJORITY OF THE POOR LIVE IN URBAN AREAS

In 2022, 27.1 percent of Mongolia's population lived below the poverty line, meaning approximately 913,700 people struggled to meet their basic needs. The national poverty line in 2022 was 418,045 MNT per adult equivalent per month, and households with consumption below this threshold were classified as poor.

Poverty remains most prevalent in rural areas, where 35.5 percent of the population is poor, compared to 23.0 percent in urban areas. The countryside has the highest poverty rate, reaching 41.2 percent, which is significantly higher than in soum centers (10.6 percentage points lower), aimag centers (15 points lower), and Ulaanbaatar (nearly 20 points lower). Moreover, rural poor households face greater economic hardship, as they tend to fall further below the poverty line than their urban counterparts.

Despite higher poverty rates in rural areas, the majority of Mongolia's poor—56.8 percent—live in urban areas, primarily due to the country's high urban population concentration, particularly in Ulaanbaatar. The high concentration of poverty in urban areas underscores the need for targeted interventions to address housing shortages, limited access to basic services, and economic vulnerabilities in densely populated regions.

HIGH VULNERABILITY AND INEQUALITY HINDER ECONOMIC MOBILITY AND INCLUSIVE GROWTH

A significant share of the population lives just above the poverty line, leaving them highly vulnerable to economic shocks. Approximately 13.9 percent—around 468,000 people—have consumption levels between the poverty line and 1.2 times the threshold, meaning shocks such as unemployment, illnesses, and natural disasters could easily push them into poverty. High rates of vulnerability underscore the need for policies that support both those already in poverty and those at risk of falling into it.

Although inequality in Mongolia is lower than that of many other regional peers, it remains a persistent challenge. The wealthiest 20 percent of the population account for nearly 40 percent of total consumption, while the poorest 20 percent account for only 8 percent. Inequality is particularly pronounced in urban areas, where the Gini index is 6.4 points higher than in rural areas. Despite its relatively low poverty rate, Ulaanbaatar has the highest inequality in Mongolia, with a Gini index of 33.2.

Non-food consumption dominates household

budgets, making up 70 percent of total consumption. Disparities in housing and durable consumption are particularly pronounced across the welfare distribution. The wealthiest quintile spends 11 times more on these categories than the poorest quintile. While poorer households allocate a larger share of their budgets to food and utilities, wealthier households invest significantly more in education, health, and durable goods, further deepening economic inequality. Differences between rural and urban poor populations also highlight distinct policy needs, as urban poor households struggle with high energy costs, while rural poor households spend more on clothing and transportation.

LARGER HOUSEHOLD SIZES AND HIGH DEPENDENCY RATIOS CONTRIBUTE TO HIGHER POVERTY LEVELS

Poor households tend to be larger and have more dependents, making them more vulnerable to poverty. In 2022, poor households averaged 4.2 members, compared to 3.2 among the non-poor. The poorest 20 percent had 1.5 times more members than the wealthiest 20 percent, primarily due to a higher number of children. These larger household sizes increase financial strain, making it more difficult to meet basic needs and invest in education, healthcare, and other essential services.

Higher dependency ratios further contribute to poverty, as poor households have more children per working-age adult. On average, the dependency ratio is 22.6 percent higher in poor households, meaning they have 14 more dependents per 100 working-age adults than the non-poor. This reduces per capita income and increases economic vulnerability, as fewer earners must support more dependents. Children face the highest poverty risk, with 31 to 33 percent of those under 15 living in poverty, above the national average of 27 percent.

EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT GAPS WIDEN ECONOMIC INEQUALITY AND INCREASE POVERTY RISK

Limited education significantly increases the risk of poverty, as poor individuals are more

likely to work in low-skilled, low-paying jobs.

Educational disparities between the poor and non-poor remain stark, especially at the tertiary level. Among those aged 25 and older, only 10 percent of the poor hold a higher education degree, compared to 39 percent of the non-poor. Poverty rates are highest among those with no formal education (51 percent), whereas only 7 percent of individuals with tertiary education are poor. This strong correlation between education and welfare underscores the need for policies that enhance access to quality education at all levels.

Disparities begin in early childhood, as poor children are significantly less likely to attend kindergarten.

Among children aged two to six, only 45 percent of the poorest quintile are enrolled in kindergarten, compared to 63 percent of the wealthiest. In remote rural areas, limited access to early childhood education due to geographic barriers further restricts opportunities, exacerbating long-term disadvantages. At later stages, poor students overwhelmingly attend public schools, while wealthier families increasingly opt for private education, reinforcing inequalities in academic achievement and economic mobility.

Employment opportunities also play a critical role in determining poverty and overall welfare.

In 2022, poor individuals were 10.1 percentage points less likely to be engaged in income-generating activities than the non-poor, with urban poor facing the largest employment gap (14.8 percentage points). Poor workers are also more likely to be engaged in low-skill and informal employment, including agriculture, herding, and unpaid family labor, while wealthier individuals dominate professional and managerial positions. Significant wage disparities persist, with poor workers earning nearly half the wages of their non-poor counterparts. Even within the same education level, occupation, or sector, the poor face structural barriers that limit their earnings and career advancement, highlighting the need for policies that promote access to quality jobs, vocational training, and fair wages.

LIMITED OWNERSHIP OF PRODUCTIVE ASSETS RESTRICTS ECONOMIC MOBILITY**Poor households have significantly lower access to productive assets, which limits their ability to build financial stability, generate income, and invest in long-term wealth accumulation.**

While ownership of basic household items such as refrigerators and televisions is widespread, disparities emerge with higher-value assets like cars, washing machines, and other electrical appliances, which improve mobility, efficiency, and convenience. Households in the wealthiest quintile are nearly four times more likely to own a car than those in the poorest quintile.

Poor and remote households also face major barriers to digital connectivity, which limits access to information, education, and economic opportunities.

While mobile phone ownership is generally high, poorer households are 14 percentage points less likely to own one than wealthier households. Only 2 percent of the poorest households own a computer, and just one in four have internet access, compared to nearly eight in ten among the wealthiest. Much of this disparity stems from weaker digital infrastructure in rural areas, where connectivity is limited, and digital devices are more expensive relative to household income.

The poor are significantly more likely to live in inadequate housing with limited access to essential services.

In both rural and urban areas, poor households overwhelmingly reside in gers, with six in ten of the poorest urban households living in these traditional dwellings, compared to just one percent of the wealthiest. Gers often lack reliable heating and sanitation, forcing households to rely on coal cookstoves for heating, which can be both costly and harmful to health. In 2022, nine out of ten poor individuals lacked access to at least one essential service—clean drinking water, improved sanitation, or sustainable heating.



CHAPTER:

1



AN UPDATED METHODOLOGY TO ESTIMATE POVERTY IN MONGOLIA

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INTRODUCTION TO POVERTY MEASUREMENT

This report provides a detailed overview of the new methodology adopted to measure monetary poverty in Mongolia using the 2022 Household Socio-Economic Survey (HSES). The new methodology and new poverty line are aligned with recent international best practices, as outlined in the World Bank's new guidelines by Mancini & Vecchi (2022).

What is poverty?

Poverty is a multidimensional phenomenon where individuals or households lack the resources to meet basic needs and fully participate in society. While it encompasses non-monetary dimensions such as social exclusion and inadequate access to essential services, it is often assessed through a monetary lens using measures of income or consumption. The national poverty rate—based on household consumption—serves as a key benchmark for tracking progress in poverty reduction in Mongolia.

How is poverty measured?

Measurement of monetary poverty involves a systematic approach that generally follows three key steps:

- 1. Choosing a welfare indicator:** The welfare indicator represents the economic well-being of individuals and households in monetary terms. Commonly used indicators include household consumption and income.
- 2. Establishing a poverty line:** The poverty line defines the minimum level of resources required for individuals or households to meet their basic needs. It can be set based on a specific basket of goods necessary for survival or a broader standard reflecting the overall cost of living.
- 3. Calculating poverty measures:** Various poverty indicators such as the poverty headcount ratio (poverty rate), poverty depth, and poverty severity are used to assess the extent of poverty in a population.

Should income or consumption be used to measure welfare?

A central debate in poverty measurement revolves around whether to use income or consumption as the welfare aggregate. Income measures the total money earned by individuals or households from wages, transfers, and other sources, providing a straightforward way to assess earning capacity. However, in many developing countries, especially those with high informality, income can be very difficult to measure and subject to significant fluctuations due to factors like seasonal work or economic shocks.

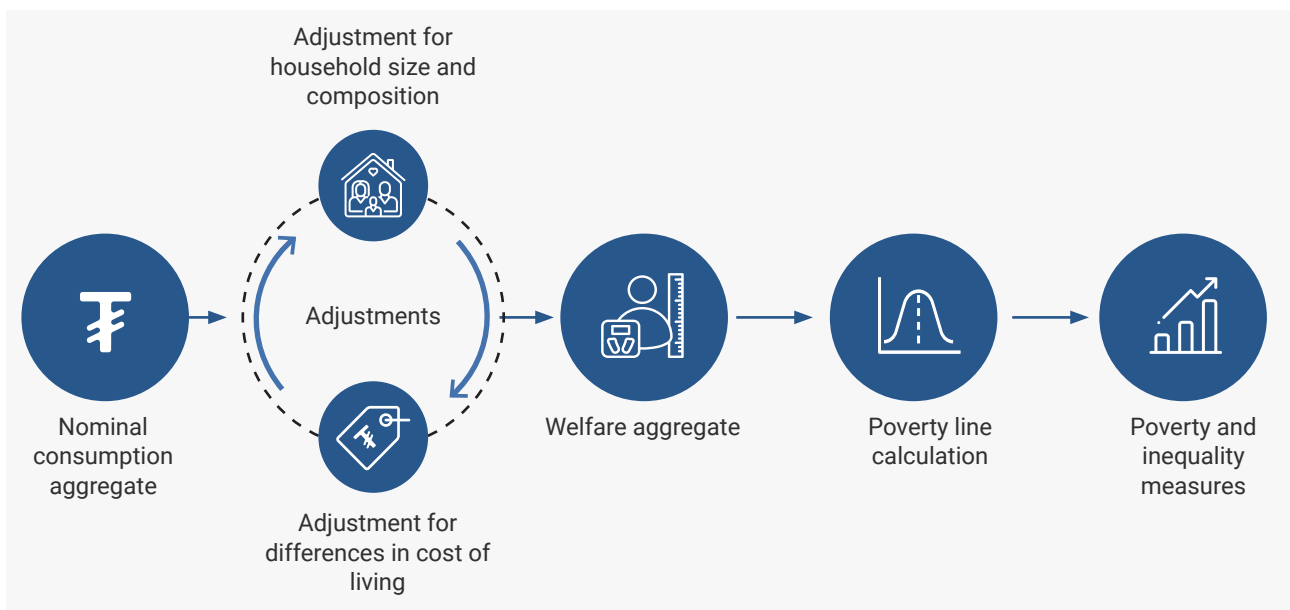
Consumption, which encompasses all goods and services used by a household, is often regarded as a more stable and accurate measure of welfare compared to income. It reflects actual living standards and is less volatile, as households tend to smooth consumption by borrowing or using savings during income fluctuations. The Permanent Income Hypothesis supports the use of consumption over income to measure long-term welfare, suggesting that households base spending decisions on expected lifetime income rather than short-term variations. In many developing countries, consumption is used as the primary welfare aggregate, and this approach is also applied in Mongolia.

OVERVIEW OF MONGOLIA'S 2022 POVERTY ESTIMATION

This section details the methodology for estimating poverty using the 2022 HSES, outlined in Figure 1.1. It begins with constructing the nominal consumption aggregate, followed by adjustments for household size, composition,

and cost-of-living differences to derive the welfare measure. The process continues with the estimation of the poverty line and concludes with the calculation of poverty measures.

Figure 1.1 Poverty estimation process



1. CONSTRUCTION OF THE NOMINAL CONSUMPTION AGGREGATE

The first and most critical step in measuring poverty is constructing a comprehensive welfare aggregate, which in Mongolia is based on consumption. The consumption aggregate is designed to provide a reliable ranking of households by their economic well-being. As outlined in Mancini & Vecchi (2022), the construction of the nominal consumption aggregate (NCA) is guided by four key criteria to ensure consistency and reliability in poverty measurement:

1. Comprehensiveness: The NCA should encompass all goods and services

consumed, including monetary expenditures, consumption from income in kind (e.g., homegrown food), and the value of owner-occupied housing.

2. Relevance: The NCA should capture actual consumption rather than expenditure. For instance, purchased items are only relevant once consumed, and durable goods should reflect their usage over time rather than their purchase cost. This criterion excludes non-consumption transactions like loan repayments or savings.

3. Typical consumption: The NCA should

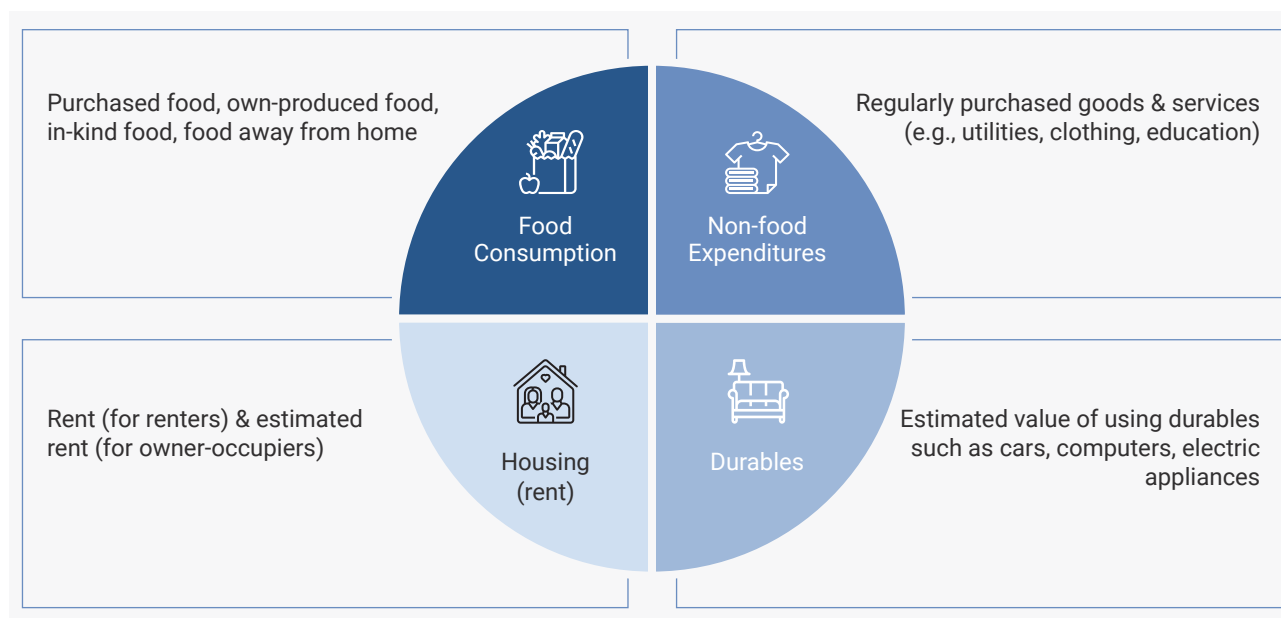
represent typical, long-term consumption rather than extraordinary or irregular expenditures. For example, lumpy expenses like weddings or funerals are excluded as they are not representative of a household’s typical living expenses.

- 4. Valuation:** Items in the NCA should ideally be valued at market prices that reflect the consumer’s perspective. For non-market

items, such as subsidized or own-produced goods, analysts must estimate suitable prices to align with the welfare reflected by money-metric utility.

The nominal consumption aggregate is comprised of four main components as shown in Figure 1.2) food consumption, 2) non-food, non-durable expenditures, 3) durable consumption flows, and 4) housing.

Figure 1. 2 Composition of the nominal consumption aggregate (NCA)



1.1 Food consumption

Food consumption data in the 2022 HSES

The 2022 HSES collects detailed information on food consumption by household members over the past seven days, including quantities and prices. Urban households record their consumption using a seven-day diary, while rural households report using a seven-day recall method. The survey captures all forms of food consumption, whether purchased, gifted, or home-produced, as well as food consumed outside the home. The consumption aggregate includes 121 food items consumed at home and

seven types of food consumed away from home, such as meals, snacks, beverages, and takeout. While items like tobacco, narcotics, and alcohol are listed in the food module, they are excluded as food since they do not directly contribute to nutritional needs or physical sustenance, which are primary objectives of food consumption in the context of measuring welfare. However, adhering to the comprehensiveness criterion of the NCA, these items are included as non-food expenditures.

Methodology

In Mongolia, household food consumption

is comprised of two main components: food consumed at home and food consumed away from home. Food consumed at home includes purchased, gifted, and home-produced food. Its value is estimated by multiplying the quantities consumed of each item i , during the past seven days by the unit price for that item for each household h (Equation 1).¹ Self-reported expenditures on food consumed at home are not used directly, as households may not consume

all the food purchased during the reference period, particularly in the case of bulk purchases. These item-level values are then aggregated for each household and annualized to derive the annual value of food consumed at home. Unlike food consumed at home, food consumed away from home is calculated based on self-reported expenditures and the reported value of in-kind consumption (Equation 2).

Equation

$$(1) \quad \text{Home food consumption}_n = \frac{365}{7} \sum_{i=1}^n (\text{Consumed quantity}_{ih} \times \text{Price}_{iv})$$

$$(2) \quad \text{Food away from home}_n = \frac{365}{7} \sum_{i=1}^n (\text{Purchased}_{ih} + \text{In kind}_{ih})$$

The comprehensiveness criterion emphasizes the importance of including the value of both own-consumption and in-kind food in the consumption aggregate, in addition to purchased food. This is particularly relevant in countries where farming and/or herding is common, raising the question of how to value such consumption. For purchased food, the HSES collects data on expenditures and quantities purchased over the past 30 days to calculate unit prices (commonly referred to as unit values) for each item, enabling valuation of purchased food consumption. For households consuming a mix of purchased, gifted, or own-produced food, these unit prices are used to value the non-purchased components. However, for households reporting only gifted or own-consumed food for a specific item, the challenge lies in assigning a value.

The valuation criterion specifies that all consumption should ideally be valued at market

prices. Since households in the same geographic area, such as a Primary Sampling Unit (PSU), are likely to face similar market prices, purchase data from other, close by households are used to impute unit prices for households missing data. Specifically, missing unit prices for a given item are replaced with the median unit price from non-missing observations at increasingly broader geographic levels within the same survey quarter. The process begins at the PSU level and, if necessary, progresses to larger aggregations such as bag, soum, location, urban/rural area, aimag, and, ultimately, the national level.² Notably, about 25 percent of imputations use the median unit value from the PSU level, while nearly 90 percent rely on data from the aimag level or a more granular level, ensuring that valuations reflect localized market conditions as accurately as possible. Approximately 17 percent of observations with non-zero consumption quantities require such imputation.

¹ Outliers in consumed quantities and unit prices are first identified using the methodology outlined in the Annex.

² For imputation to occur at any level, at least three valid observations must be available.

1.2 Non-food (non-durable) consumption

Non-food consumption data in the 2022 HSES

The 2022 HSES collects data on 306 distinct non-food items. To account for varying consumption patterns, expenditure data are collected over two reference periods: one month and 12 months. Given the diverse nature of non-food items, the survey only collects information on total expenditures on non-food purchases and gifts; no data is collected on the quantities of items.

Methodology

Given that quantity and price data are not collected for non-food items in the 2022 HSES,

calculating non-food expenditures is relatively straightforward. Annual expenditures are calculated for each item based on values reported over a one-month or 12-month reference period, which are then aggregated at the household level to determine total non-food expenditures (Equation 3). The choice of reference period is carefully aligned with consumption patterns, with a 12-month reference period used for most items to capture infrequent purchases accurately, while frequently purchased items like medicine and utilities rely on a one-month period to ensure precision and consistency.

Equation

$$(3) \text{ Nonfood consumption}_h = \sum_{i=1}^n (\text{Purchased expenditures}_{ih} \times \text{In kind expenditures}_{ih})$$

A key question in calculating non-food consumption is determining what to include. The criteria of relevance and typical consumption play a central role in guiding these decisions. The relevance criterion emphasizes that only expenditures contributing to current welfare should be included. For example, financial investments, savings, and loan repayments, which reflect future or past consumption rather than present welfare, are excluded. Similarly, while durable goods such as electronic appliances, computers, or vehicles contribute to household welfare, they typically last beyond the time horizon of a household survey. As a result, it is inappropriate to exclude the consumption flows from durables used during the reference period or to include their purchase value directly as non-food consumption (see following section on measuring durable consumption).

The “typical consumption” criterion focuses on ensuring the consumption aggregate reflects

regular living standards, leading to the exclusion of irregular or extraordinary (“lumpy”) expenses, such as those for weddings or funerals, which are not representative of a household’s usual welfare. Additionally, donations to other households are excluded to avoid double-counting, as they represent an outflow of resources that are already captured as consumption by the receiving household. Similarly, taxes and levies are omitted because they are mandatory payments that do not reflect the consumption of goods or services, aligning with the relevance criterion. Together, these principles ensure the consumption aggregate accurately represents current and typical household welfare.

The inclusion of health expenditures in poverty measurement is a topic of debate and is often influenced by the specific context and characteristics of each country. While health expenditures may be seen as “regrettable necessities” that are not always welfare-

enhancing, Mancini & Vecchi (2022) highlight that excluding health expenditures risks missing their welfare-enhancing value, as better healthcare can improve household well-being. However, including them could also overstate living standards for households struggling with high medical costs. One recommended approach to assess whether health expenditures should be included in the consumption aggregate is to examine their elasticity relative to total expenditures. A higher elasticity (e.g., greater than 1) suggests that health expenditures increase with household wealth, indicating their

relevance to improving welfare and supporting their inclusion. In Mongolia, the elasticity of health expenditures in 2022 was estimated at 1.05, supporting their inclusion in the non-food consumption aggregate.

In total, of 65 items in the HSES are excluded from non-food consumption based on recommendations from Mancini and Vecchi (2022), leaving a total of 239 included items. Table 1.1 lists the items excluded and the reason for exclusion.

Table 1.1 Non-food expenditures excluded from the consumption aggregate

Non-food category	Number of items in 2022 HSES	Number of items included in the NCA	Reason for exclusion
Clothing & footwear	45	45	
Household equipment/services	69	45	Durables; lumpy expenditures; inputs for business
Health	10	10	
Transport	26	21	Durables
Communication	22	14	Durables
Recreation	30	27	Durables
Education	8	8	
Restaurants & hospitality	2	2	
Personal care	27	24	Lumpy expenditures
Insurance & other services	11	9	Not current consumption (financial services)
Housing repair	13	5	Durables; lumpy expenditures (major housing repairs)
Utilities	18	18	
Alcohol & narcotics	11	11	
Holidays/celebrations	5	0	Lumpy expenditures; gifts to other households; food
Taxes	4	0	Not consumption
Donations, transfers	3	0	Not consumption; double counting
Total	304	239	

Another important consideration for the comprehensive measurement of non-food consumption is estimating the value of subsidized goods and services, such as food rations or subsidized utilities. Including subsidized good

and services is essential because they directly enhance household welfare by providing access to resources at reduced costs. Excluding these subsidies can lead to an underestimation of welfare levels, misrepresentation of poverty

trends, and incorrect household rankings, ultimately distorting the understanding of living standards and the effectiveness of poverty reduction programs.

The valuation of subsidized utilities, such as electricity, coal, water, and district heating, in the NCA is guided by the principle that all items in the consumption aggregate should reflect market prices. For electricity, challenges include accounting for free electricity provided during the COVID-19 era, affecting household surveyed in the first half of 2022, and the government’s program offering free nighttime electricity in ger districts. A model-based imputation approach, following the methodology of Hentschel & Lanjouw (2000), is used to estimate electricity consumption for households surveyed in the first half of 2022. This estimation relies on data from households surveyed in the second half of the year, whose past-month expenditures were not affected by the COVID-era free-electricity policy. To estimate subsidies provided under the free nighttime electricity policy in ger districts, variation in electricity meter types—where some households do not receive free electricity at night—is used to quantify the subsidy amounts.

Several other utilities subsidized during COVID-19 required adjustments to accurately estimate consumption. For coal briquettes, which were subsidized at varying rates in 2021 and 2022, the 2022 HSES collected consumption quantities, enabling the estimation of subsidies. These quantities were valued at market (non-subsidized) prices to reflect the full cost and accurately account for the benefit provided by the subsidy. For water and garbage collection, which were provided free in 2021, annual consumption was estimated using a one-month recall period, with probit modeling applied to predict consumption likelihood for January 2022 households reporting no expenditures. Similarly, district heating, characterized by significant seasonal variation, was imputed using a model-based approach that accounted for differences in consumption between the heating season and other months.

1.3 Durable consumption flows

Durable goods such as household appliances, computers, and cars offer a flow of services to households over an amount time that typically extends several years, and for this reason, the purchase price of durable goods cannot be added directly to the consumption aggregate. Instead, only the value of services provided by the good or “consumption flow” that households receive from such assets in the survey reference period should be included in the consumption aggregate.

Durable ownership data in the 2022 HSES

For durable items, the 2022 HSES collects information on quantities owned, the years since purchase, the original purchase price, and the current value at which the household could sell the item. In the case that the household owns more than one asset of the same type, the HSES records the number of items owned and asks households to report average values for the number of years owned, purchase values, and current values.

Methodology

To estimate the consumption flow households obtain from the use of durables, the user-cost approach recommended by Mancini & Vecchi (2022) is used. Consumption flows for 45 durables listed in the HSES are calculated as the sum of two cost components: 1) the opportunity cost of consuming the durable over the course of the year (i.e., the real interest the households foregoes by consuming rather than investing the value of the durable); and 2) the decline in the value of the asset during the reference period, which also represents foregone money for the household. Based on the information collected in the 2022 HSES, it is possible to estimate depreciation rate δ for each item i :

Equation

$$(4) \quad \delta_i = 1 - \left(\frac{p_t}{p_{t-T}} \right)^{\frac{1}{T}}$$

where T is the age of the durable good in years; p_t is the current value of the good and $p_{(t-T)}$ is the value of the good at the time of purchase. For each item, the median value is taken over non-missing observations to obtain a single depreciation rate

for each item. The item-level depreciation rates and the real interest rate at the time of the survey (r_t) are then used to determine the durable consumption flow for each household h :

Equation

$$(5) \quad \text{Durable consumption flow}_{h,t} = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Quantity}_{i,h,t} \times (p_{i,t} \times (r_{i,t} + \delta_i))$$

1.4 Housing consumption flows

Similar to durables, a dwelling offers households welfare that extends beyond the period of the survey, and it is thus not appropriate to include the purchase value of the dwelling directly in the consumption aggregate. However, unlike most durable goods, the value of housing typically increases over time. Literature shows that rental markets offer a good approximation of the flow of services offered by one's dwelling. In Mongolia, however, very few households pay rent, so other methods of estimating rental values for households that own or otherwise occupy their dwelling without paying rent (henceforward "owner-occupiers") must be explored. Special consideration must be made, in particular, for ger dwellings, which have unique characteristics different from typical dwellings such as apartments or detached houses.

Housing data in the 2022 HSES

The 2022 HSES gathers detailed information on housing ownership, including whether households own, rent, or occupy their dwelling for free, and, if renting, the amount paid. It also collects data on various dwelling characteristics, such as the total area, materials used for walls, roof, and floor, as well as access to services like electricity, running water, and heating. For ger dwellings, additional information is recorded,

including the number of walls and layers of insulation.

Methodology

In contexts with well-developed housing rental markets where all households rent their dwellings, actual rents can be directly used to value housing consumption. However, in mixed housing markets—where some households rent while others own or occupy their homes for free—a hedonic pricing model can be used to impute rents for owner-occupiers. This approach models rent based on dwelling characteristics such as location, area, materials, and access to services, using data from market renters. The model then predicts rents for owner-occupied homes. A sufficient sample of market renters is necessary for this method to produce reliable estimates.

In cases where rental market data is sparse, surveys often ask households to provide "self-reported" rents—an estimate of what they believe they would pay if they rented their current dwelling. However, the reliability of these self-reported values depends on households having a knowledge of local rental markets. In contexts with very thin rental markets, self-reported values may be less reliable.

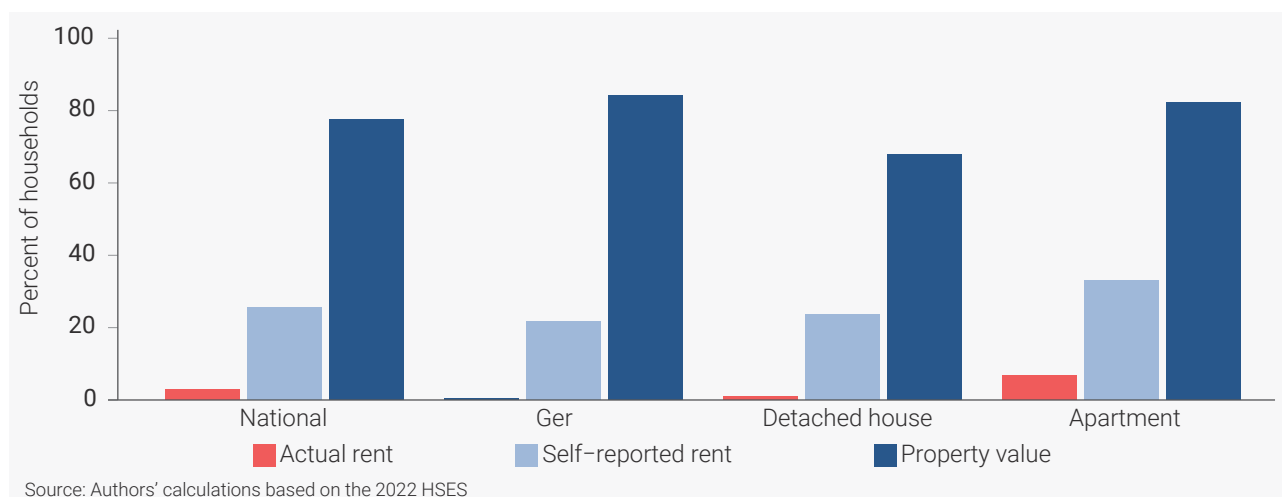
In the 2022 HSES, less than 3 percent of households report paying rent, indicating very

3 The real interest rate is obtained from the Bank of Mongolia. In 2022, the average real interest rate was 3.6%.

thin rental markets (Figure 1.3). Rental markets are virtually non-existent for gers, which serve as the main dwelling for one-third of households, and even among apartment dwellers, less than 7 percent report paying rent. Given these

constraints, self-reported rents become essential for imputing rental values. About a quarter of households provided self-reported rental values, which can be combined with market rental values to estimate rents for owner-occupiers.

Figure 1.3 Availability of actual rent, self-reported rent, and property value data in the 2022 HSES by type of dwelling



The reliability of self-reported rents, however, varies by dwelling type. For gers, for which rental markets are almost absent, self-reported values exhibit a multimodal distribution with no clear patterns, indicating unreliability. Conversely, self-reported rents for non-ger dwellings, such as apartments and houses, align closely with actual market rents and show no systematic differences after accounting for size and quality. Therefore, while self-reported rents may be used for apartments and detached houses, an alternative method is needed for gers.

Fortunately, the HSES also collects property value data, which can be used to estimate rent values for ger households. Property values are reported more frequently than rental values, particularly for gers (Figure 1.3). The largely normal distribution of reported values further reinforces their reliability and suitability for imputing rents for ger dwellings in the absence of valid rental estimates.

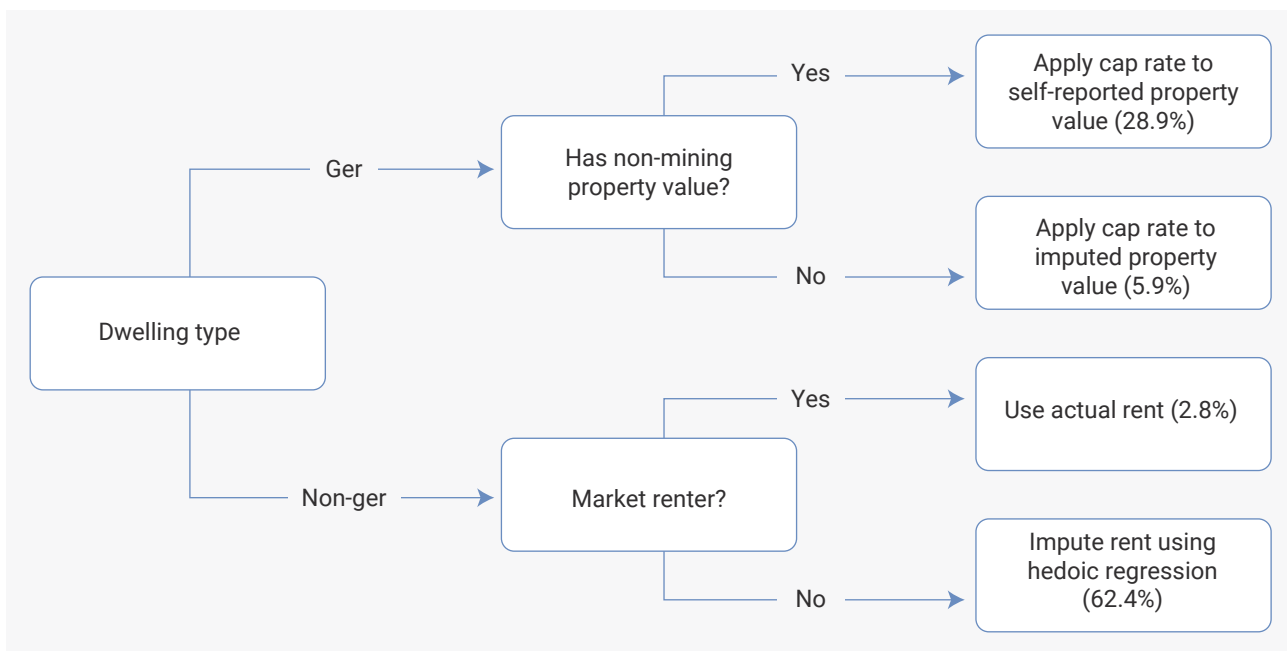
Two separate methods, shown in Figure 1.4, are thus considered for imputing rental values for gers and non-gers (i.e., apartments and detached houses).

- **Non-ger dwellings** – For non-ger dwellings, a hedonic pricing model using actual and self-reported rents is used to estimate housing consumption flows based on dwelling characteristics, access to services, and location. The sample is split into training and testing groups, and variables are selected through stepwise regression to maximize R-squared in the test sample. Predicted rents are then calculated using Duan's smearing estimator, applying these estimates to all owner-occupiers. The model, which includes variables like dwelling type, location, living area, and utilities, achieves a high R-squared of 0.6446.
- **Ger dwellings** – For ger dwellings, the rent-to-value approach outlined in Mancini &

Vecchi is used. This approach— similar to the user-cost approach for durables— estimates implicit rental values as the opportunity cost of living in one’s home, using capitalization rates (ratios of rental value to property value) applied to self-reported property values. For gers, self-reported property values (available for about 85 percent of ger households) are

used, with missing or outlier values imputed using a hedonic regression model. Aimag-level capitalization rates are calculated using rental and property value data from non-ger dwellings, with median rates ranging from 0.07 to 0.13. These rates are then applied to property values to estimate implicit rents for gers.

Figure 1.4 Methodology used for estimating rent using the 2022 HSES based on dwelling type and data availability

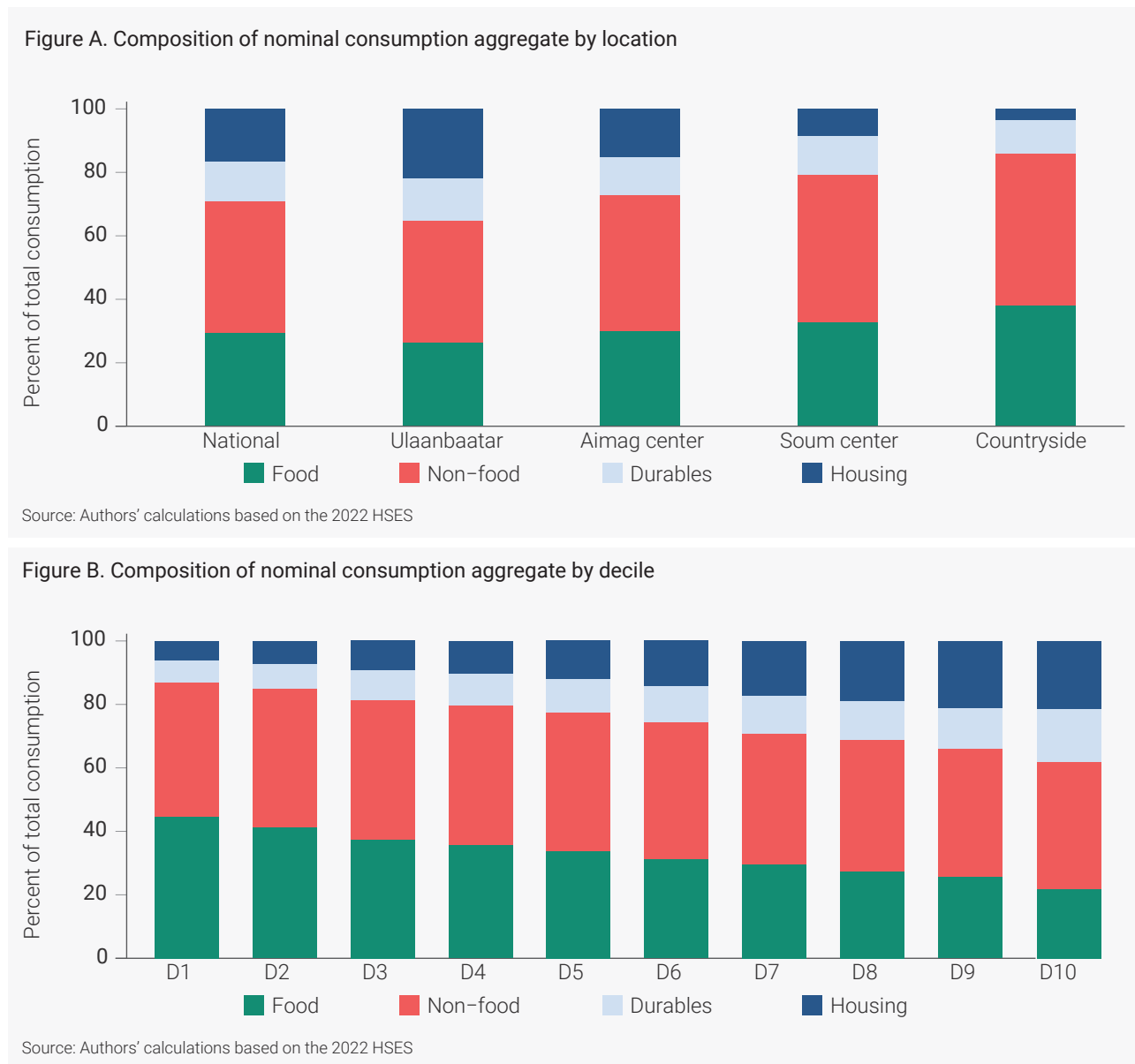


1.5 Nominal consumption aggregate

The NCA comprises four components: food consumption, non-food expenditures, durable consumption flows, and imputed rent. Non-food, non-durable expenditures constitute the largest share at 42 percent, while durables and housing account for 13 percent and 15 percent, respectively (Figure 1.5a). Food consumption makes up only 30 percent of total consumption, a relatively low share compared to other middle-income countries. The food share increases in more remote areas but remains below 40 percent. Even among the poorest 10 percent of households, food accounts for just 44 percent of consumption (Figure 1.5b), highlighting

Mongolia’s larger non-food needs compared to other countries. For example, in Indonesia, another upper-middle-income country, the poorest 20 percent allocate nearly 60 percent of their consumption to food, whereas in Mongolia, the figure is only 42 percent.

Figure 1.5 Composition of nominal consumption aggregate, 2022 (% of total consumption)



2. ADJUSTMENTS TO OBTAIN THE WELFARE AGGREGATE



To derive the welfare measure from the NCA, two key adjustments are necessary. First, adjustments for differences in the cost of living account for inflation during the survey period and regional price variations within Mongolia. These adjustments ensure that the consumption values reflect comparable purchasing power across

households surveyed in different quarters or geographic locations. Second, adjustments for household size and composition are applied to express the welfare aggregate in individual terms. This involves scaling consumption to account for economies of scale and differing needs within households, ensuring a fair comparison of welfare across households of varying sizes and

demographic compositions. These adjustments allow reliable comparison of welfare across households.

2.1 Adjustments for differences in household size and composition

Adjusting for household size and composition is essential to ensure that the consumption aggregate reliably reflects individual welfare. While dividing total household consumption by the number of members (per capita adjustment) is straightforward and aligns with international poverty lines, it overlooks key factors. Household members have differing needs based on age, sex, and other demographic characteristics, meaning that per capita adjustments can misrepresent welfare levels. For instance, households with more children may appear equally well-off as those with more adults under per capita terms, even though children typically have lower consumption needs.

Economies of scale further complicate this measure. Many non-food items, such as housing, utilities, and durable goods are considered public goods, or in other words, can be shared among members, unlike food, which is largely private. In contexts like Mongolia with high non-food consumption shares, accounting for these economies of scale is crucial (Jolliffe & Tetteh Baah, 2022). Per adult equivalent (PAE) adjustments address these issues by considering both individual needs and shared consumption, providing a more nuanced measure of welfare while capturing differences in household composition and size. This makes PAE adjustments particularly relevant in Mongolia's context.

Equivalence scales are used to adjust household size into adult equivalents, typically equating each household member to an adult male for comparison. While there are numerous equivalence scales, there is no universal consensus on which is "best," as the choice often depends on the country context and the structure of household consumption. In settings with high non-food consumption, such as housing and utilities, it is particularly important to account for greater economies of scale, as these goods

and services are often shared among household members. In Mongolia, the OECD-I scale (Equation 6) is used, which assigns a weight of 1.0 to the first adult (A) in a household, 0.7 to each additional adult (A), and 0.5 to each child (K). The OECD-I scale adjusts for both household size and composition and economies of scale.

Equation

$$(6) \quad ES_{OECD-I} = 0.3 + 0.7A + 0.5K$$

2.2 Adjusting for differences in cost of living

To account for differences in the cost of living across time (during the survey period) and space (across geographical areas of Mongolia), price deflators are calculated using data from the 2022 HSES. While the Consumer Price Index (CPI) could be used to adjust for regional and temporal price variations, it predominantly relies on data from urban markets, failing to capture price differences in rural areas where many poor households live. Additionally, the CPI reflects the consumption basket of the average population, which often differs from that of poor households. Using household-reported price data from the HSES provides a more accurate measurement, as it captures greater variation in the quality and types of items consumed, better reflecting the living conditions of poorer households. Differences in prices and basket composition between the price index constructed for poverty measurement and the CPI can lead to slight variations between the two.

In Mongolia, where non-food consumption constitutes the majority of consumption even among the poor, it is essential to include non-food items in the price index. However, the 2022 HSES collects only expenditure data for non-food items, not prices. To address this, the price index incorporates data from both the 2022 HSES and aimag-level monthly non-food price data from the NSO's 2022 CPI survey. The methodology, drawing on Mancini & Vecchi (2022) and Deaton & Zaidi (2002), follows four general steps:

1. **Select the reference group** – To ensure price indices are relevant to the poor, the reference group is defined as households in the 20th–50th percentile of the per adult equivalent NCA.⁴
2. **Define the consumption basket** – Using the reference group, food and non-food items are ranked in descending order by their average budget share, and the lowest ranked items cumulatively accounting for less than 10 percent of aggregate consumption are excluded. This results in a basket of 64 items, including 27 food and 37 non-food items.
3. **Determine level of aggregation** – Official CPI data are available monthly by aimag. Two options are considered for calculating price indices—aimag-month and aimag-quarter. The aimag-quarter level is chosen due to a better balance of observations across cells. Adjustments are made for quarterly price differences within aimags, followed by adjustments for price differences across aimags, as recommended by Amendola et al. (2023).
4. **Construct price index** – The Paasche index is calculated using the formula from Deaton & Zaidi (2002) shown in Equation 7.

Equation

$$(7) \quad p_p^h = \left(\sum w_k^h \frac{p_k^o}{p_k^h} \right)^{-1}$$

where w_k^h is the average consumption share of item k of household h in each aimag-quarter; w_k^o is the consumption share of item k at the national level; p_k^h is the median price that household h in each aimag-quarter pays for item k ; and p_k^o is the median price of item k at the national level.

To construct the price ratios, median unit prices from the food module and non-food item prices from the CPI surveys are used. These price ratios, combined with national and aimag-quarter budget shares calculated based on the reference group chosen in step one, are then used to calculate the price indices.

3. CONSTRUCTION OF THE NEW POVERTY LINE



After the consumption aggregate is constructed, a poverty line is needed to determine the minimum level of consumption at which an individual is not considered poor. In Mongolia, an absolute poverty line is used, which sets a fixed threshold representing the minimum consumption needed to meet basic human needs. This threshold is based on a specific year and adjusted for inflation over time until it is rebased, typically every 10 years, to reflect changes in living standards. The previous poverty line in Mongolia was based in 2010, and it has now been rebased using 2022 data. It is important to note that when a poverty

line is rebased, poverty estimates using the old and new lines cannot be directly compared, as the new line marks the beginning of a new series.

In Mongolia, as in many other countries, the cost-of-basic-needs (CBN) approach is used to calculate the poverty line. This method identifies a basket of goods and services deemed adequate for basic consumption needs and estimates the cost of this basket. The basket is designed to capture two essential capabilities: obtaining sufficient nourishment to maintain health and accessing basic non-food goods and services necessary for societal participation. The poverty line under the CBN approach thus comprises

⁴ Other percentile ranges or using per adult equivalent consumption does not significantly change the composition of the consumption basket or item weights.

two components: the food poverty line, which addresses basic nutritional requirements, and a non-food component, which reflects basic non-food needs.

Methodology

The process of estimating the poverty line using the CBN approach can be summarized into five steps:

- 1. Determine the reference group** – To establish an appropriate consumption basket, a reference group of households close to the poverty line is identified. Since the poverty line is initially unknown, the process begins with households in the second quintile of the distribution of deflated PAE consumption. Iterative adjustments are made across all steps, recalculating the reference group using the poverty line estimated in the previous iteration. This process continues until the poverty rate converges across successive iterations.
- 2. Generate the food basket** – A food basket is created using items with the highest consumption shares within the reference group, capturing approximately 90 percent of total food consumption. To ensure relevance across Mongolia's diverse geographic areas, the basket is tailored to Ulaanbaatar, aimag centers, soum centers, and the countryside, requiring representation of 90 percent of food consumption in each location. As shown in Annex Table 1, the final basket includes 34 items. Using the reference group, average per adult equivalent daily quantities are calculated for each item.
- 3. Calculate the food poverty line** – The food poverty line is determined by estimating the total calories in the food basket and valuing it based on deflated national median prices from the 2022 HSES. A calorie threshold of 2,400 calories per day for an adult male, as recommended by the Ministry of Health, is used to scale the basket's cost to meet basic nutritional needs. This adjustment ensures the food poverty line reflects the minimum expenditure required for adequate nourishment. In 2022, the daily PAE food poverty line is 5,603 MNT and the monthly food poverty line is 170,414 MNT (Table 1.2).
- 4. Estimate the non-food component** – The non-food component is calculated using a modified approach based on Ravallion (1998), focusing on households near the food poverty line. Specifically, the average non-food consumption of households in the 10th–40th percentiles of deflated PAE consumption is used. While Ravallion's original method was designed for countries with relatively high food shares, the HSES indicates significantly higher non-food shares in Mongolia, making the Ravallion method less appropriate.
- 5. Estimate the total poverty line** – The total poverty line is the aggregate of the food poverty line and the non-food component. In 2022, the daily PAE total poverty line is 13,744 MNT and the monthly food poverty line is 418,045 MNT (Table 1.2).

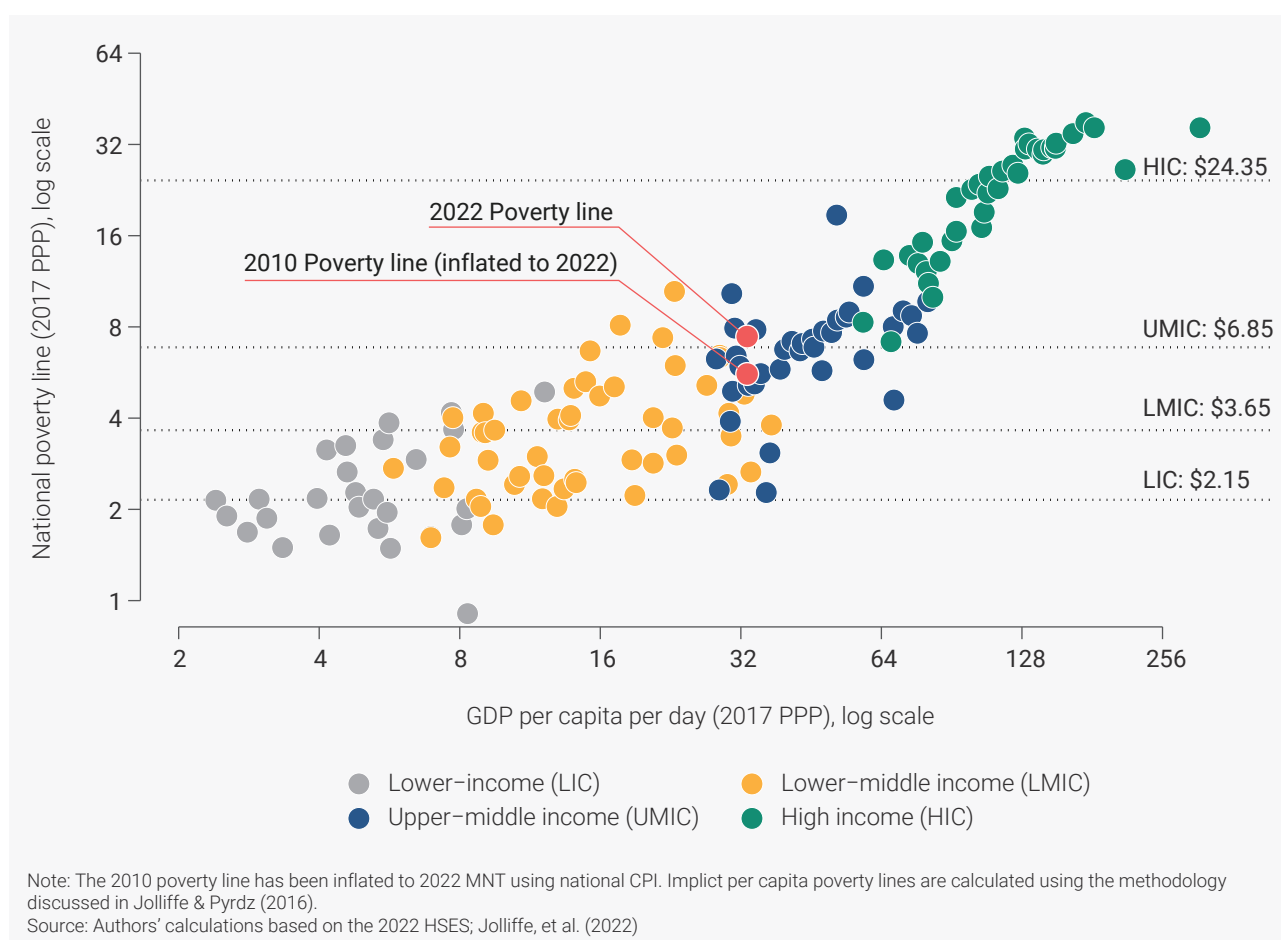
Table 1.2 National per adult equivalent poverty lines in 2022 MNT

Non-food category	Daily	Monthly
Food poverty line	5,603	170,414
Non-food component	8,141	247,631
Total poverty line	13,744	418,045

An essential check when rebasing the national poverty line is to assess whether it aligns with the country’s income level. One way to evaluate this is by comparing the new poverty line to those of other countries with similar income levels. Using data from Jolliffe et al. (2022), Figure 6 shows that Mongolia’s 2022 poverty line is slightly higher than the upper-middle-income country international poverty line of \$6.85 in 2017 PPP, which is

appropriate given Mongolia’s status as an upper-middle-income country. As the country continues to grow, it is crucial to maintain a poverty standard that reflects its economic progress. Additionally, the new line is higher than the 2010 poverty line adjusted for inflation to 2022 MNT, indicating an increase in living standards over the past decade.

Figure 1.6 International comparison of Mongolia’s national poverty lines





CHAPTER:

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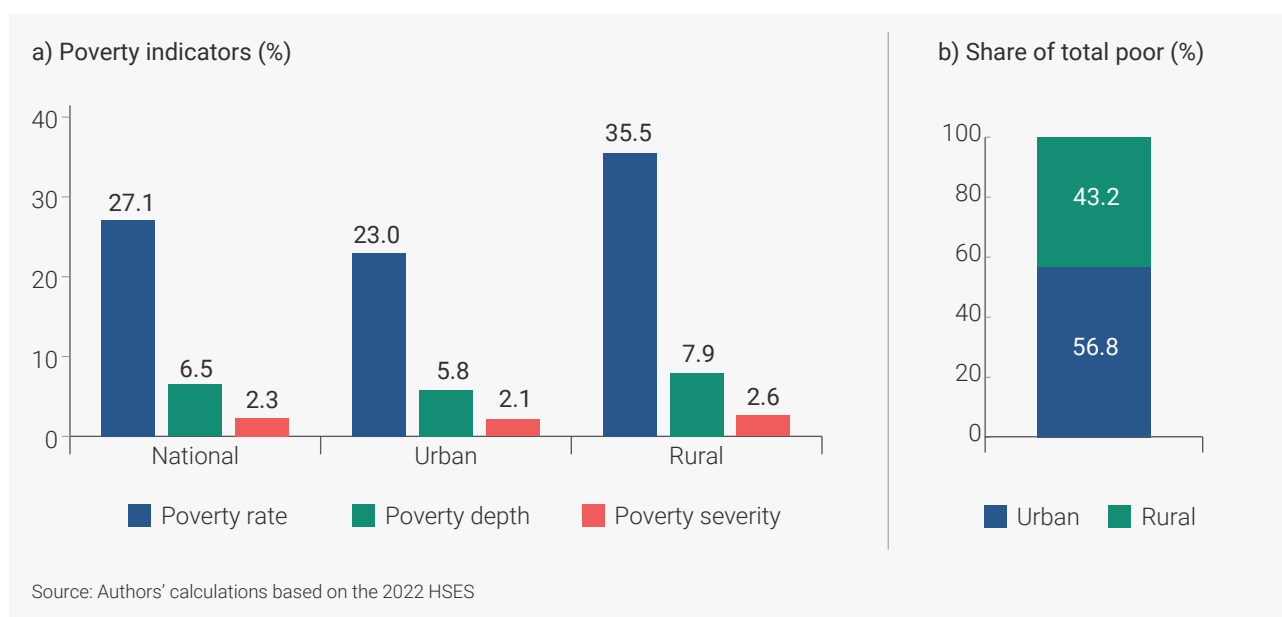
POVERTY IN 2022

This chapter presents an overview of poverty and inequality in Mongolia in 2022.

In 2022, the poverty rate in Mongolia was 27.1 percent, with approximately 913.7 thousand people living in poverty (Figure 2.1a). The national poverty line in 2022 was 418,045 MNT per adult equivalent per month, and households with monthly household consumption below this threshold were classified as poor. In other words, 27.1 percent of Mongolia's population struggled to meet their basic needs, with their consumption falling below the minimum required for essential food and non-food expenses. The depth of poverty,⁵ representing the average shortfall of consumption below the poverty line, was 6.5 percent. Meanwhile, poverty severity,⁶ which gives greater weight to individuals further below the poverty line, stood at 2.3 percent.

Rural poverty in 2022 was substantially higher than urban poverty, indicating a significant disparity between rural and urban areas. The poverty rate in rural areas was 35.5 percent, exceeding urban levels by 12.5 percentage points (Figure 2.1a). Both the depth and severity of poverty were also higher in rural areas, indicating that not only are a greater share of people in rural areas living in poverty, but they also tend to be further below the poverty line and face greater economic hardship compared to their urban counterparts.

Figure 2. 1 Poverty indicators and share of total poor, national and by urban and rural areas (2022)



5 Poverty depth, also referred to as the poverty gap, measures the average shortfall of consumption below the poverty line across the population. It reflects the intensity of poverty by considering how far below the poverty line the average poor individual's consumption falls. A higher poverty gap indicates deeper poverty.

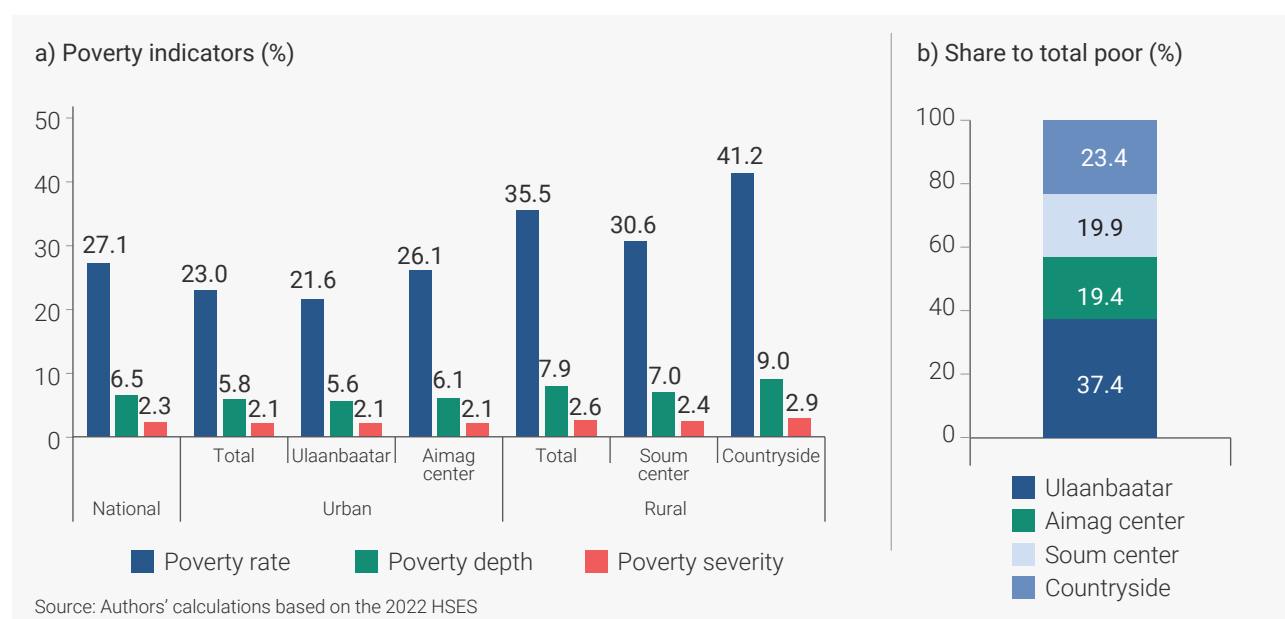
6 Poverty severity, or the squared poverty gap, measures inequality among the poor by giving greater weight to those who are further below the poverty line. It captures both the depth and distribution of poverty, emphasizing the conditions of the poorest individuals within the population. Urban areas include the capital city of Ulaanbaatar and aimag

The disparity in poverty is particularly pronounced in remote rural areas, with the poverty rate reaching 41.2 percent in the countryside. Among the four locations⁷ in Mongolia, the poverty rate is highest in the countryside, exceeding that of soum centers by 10.6 percentage points, aimag centers by 15.0 percentage points, and Ulaanbaatar by 19.5 percentage points (Figure 2.2a). Furthermore, the depth and severity of poverty are highest in the countryside, with a poverty depth of 9.0 percent and severity of 2.9 percent. On average, consumption among the poor in the countryside is 2.0 to 3.3 percentage points lower than it is among the poor in other locations.

Despite higher poverty rates in rural areas, more than half of the total poor population of Mongolia (56.8 percent) reside in urban areas.

The higher urban share is primarily due to the fact that two-thirds of the country's population reside in urban areas, namely Ulaanbaatar and aimag centers. By comparison, 43.2 percent of the poor reside in soum centers and the countryside. The higher concentration of the poor in urban areas underscores the importance of addressing poverty in these densely populated regions, especially the capital, where limited access to affordable housing and basic services often exacerbate vulnerabilities.

Figure 2.2 Poverty indicators and share of total poor, by location (2022)



Poverty rates vary across regions, with Ulaanbaatar and the Central region having the lowest levels of poverty. At 21.6 percent and 24.6 percent, respectively, poverty in the capital and the Central region fall below the national average by 2.6–5.5 percentage points (Figure 2.3a). Conversely, the Western, Eastern, and Khangai regions exhibit considerably higher

poverty rates, exceeding the national average by 6.3–9.3 percentage points. While the Western region records the highest overall poverty rate, the Eastern region exhibits the greatest intensity of poverty, with a poverty depth of 8.8 percent and a poverty severity of 3.2 percent.

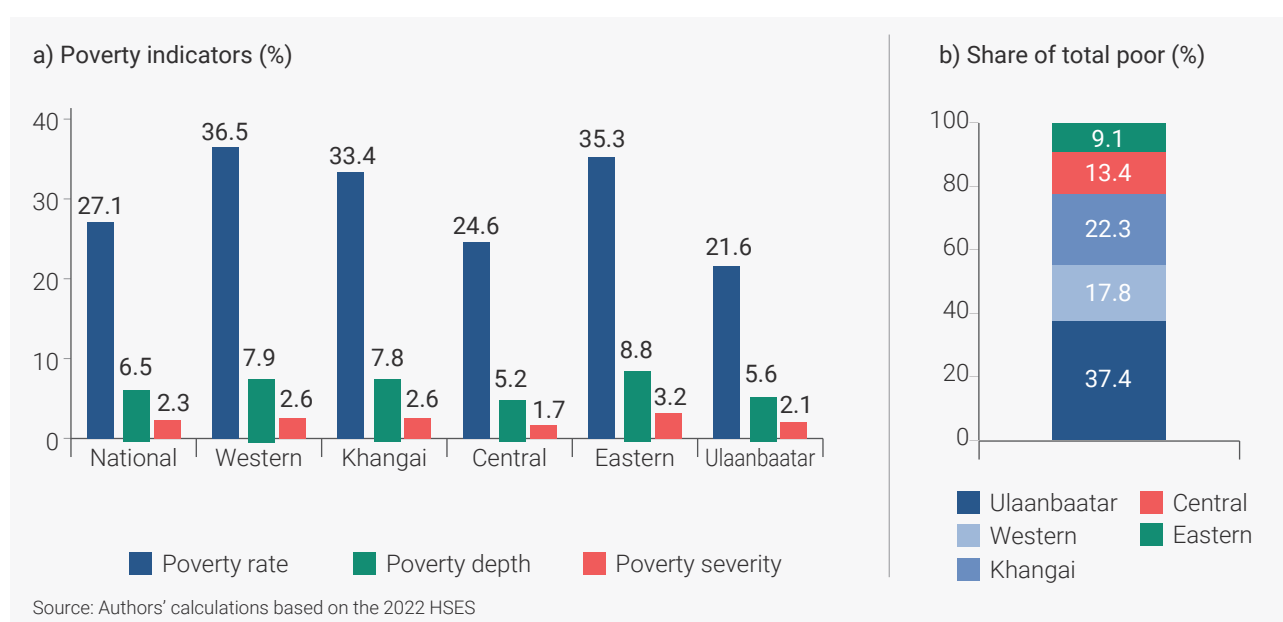
⁷ Urban areas include the capital city of Ulaanbaatar and aimag centers, while rural areas include soum centers and the countryside.

Ulaanbaatar and the Khangai region account for the largest shares of Mongolia's poor.

High population concentration in Ulaanbaatar means that the capital alone accounts for nearly two in five of the total poor despite a relatively low poverty rate (Figure 2.3b). Meanwhile, the Khangai region, which has a larger population

than other regions excluding Ulaanbaatar, is home to nearly a quarter of those in poverty. In contrast, the smaller population sizes in the Eastern and Western regions result in a lower share of the total poor, although poverty rates tend to be lower.

Figure 2.3 Poverty indicators and share of total poor, by region⁸ (2022)

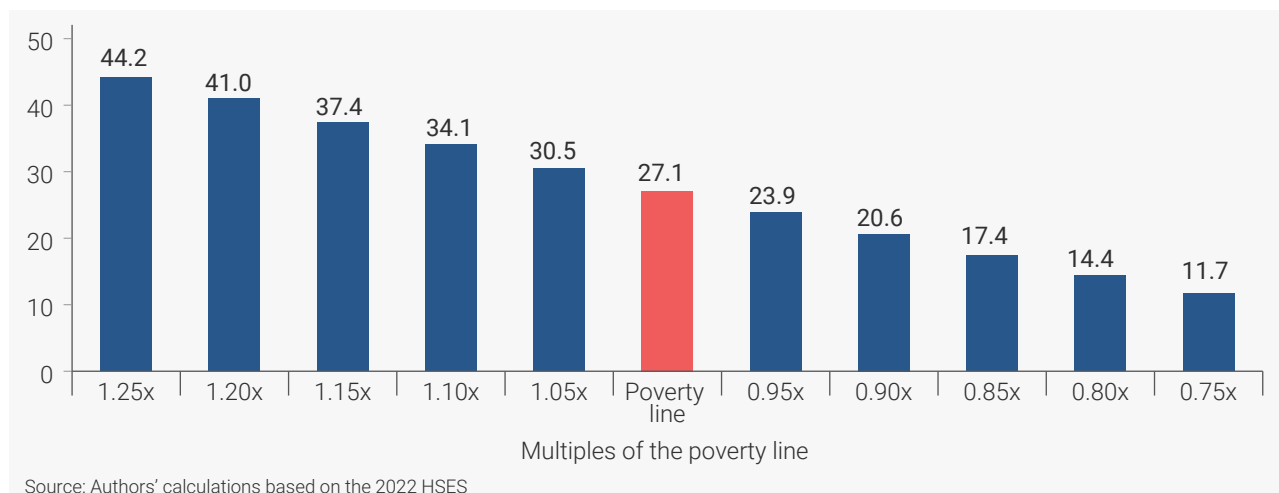


Vulnerability to falling into poverty is high in 2022, with significant shares of the population living just above the poverty line.

At 1.2 times the poverty line, an additional 13.9 percent of the total population, or about 468,000 people, would fall into poverty (Figure 2.4), indicating that many households are only marginally better off than those classified as poor. Sudden shocks such as unemployment, illness, natural disasters, and increases in the price of essential goods and services could push these households into poverty. Conversely, as the threshold decreases

below the poverty line, the share of the population classified as poor drops progressively, reaching 14.4 percent at 0.8 times the poverty line. This distribution underscores the precariousness of many households' economic situations and highlights the importance of policies that address not only those below the poverty line but also those vulnerable to falling into poverty.

⁸ The Western region includes Bayan-Olgii, Govi-Altai, Zavkhan, Uvs, and Khovd aimags; the Khangai region includes Arkhangai, Bayankhongor, Bulgan, Uvurkhangai, Khuvsgul, and Orkhon aimags; the Central region includes Dornogovi, Dundgovi, Umnugovi, Govisumber, Selenge, Tuv, and Darkhan-Uul aimags; the Eastern region includes Dornod, Sukhbaatar, and Khentii aimags.

Figure 2.4 Poverty rates at varying multiples of the poverty line (2022)

The Gini index in 2022 was 31.4, with higher inequality in urban areas compared to rural areas.⁹ In 2022, the wealthiest 10 percent of the population consumed more than four times as much as the poorest 10 percent (Table 2.1). These gaps were partially driven by spatial disparities, both between and within urban and rural areas. As detailed in the following chapter, consumption levels differ markedly between urban and rural areas, with urban centers like Ulaanbaatar on average consuming about 54

percent more than the countryside. These spatial disparities contribute considerably to national inequality. Moreover, there is significant variation in consumption within areas, as reflected in the Gini index, which is 6.4 points higher in urban areas than in rural areas, indicating wider disparities within urban settings. Although Ulaanbaatar has a relatively low poverty rate, it exhibits the highest inequality among all regions, with its Gini index being 4.7–8.1 points higher than in other regions.

Table 2.1 Inequality indicators (2022)

	Gini index	P90/P10 ratio
National	31.4	4.1
Urban	32.3	4.4
Rural	25.9	3.2
Location		
Ulaanbaatar	33.2	4.7
Aimag center	28.7	3.7
Soum center	26.3	3.3
Countryside	24.9	3.0
Region		
Western	25.1	3.1
Khangai	28.1	3.5
Central	27.0	3.4
Eastern	28.5	3.7
Ulaanbaatar	33.2	4.7

⁹ Adult equivalent consumption is used for poverty measurement to account for variations in consumption needs across age groups and economies of scale within households, while per capita consumption is applied for inequality analysis to reflect the actual distribution of resources among all individuals in a population, irrespective of household composition. The national average monthly consumption per capita is 481.4 thousand MNT.

INTERNATIONAL COMPARISONS

National poverty lines are more appropriate for defining poverty within a country as they account for context-specific living standards, cost of living, and consumption patterns, providing a more accurate and tailored measure of poverty appropriate for the country's level of development. In contrast, the World Bank's international poverty lines¹⁰ serve as a standardized benchmark for cross-country comparisons and global assessments of poverty.

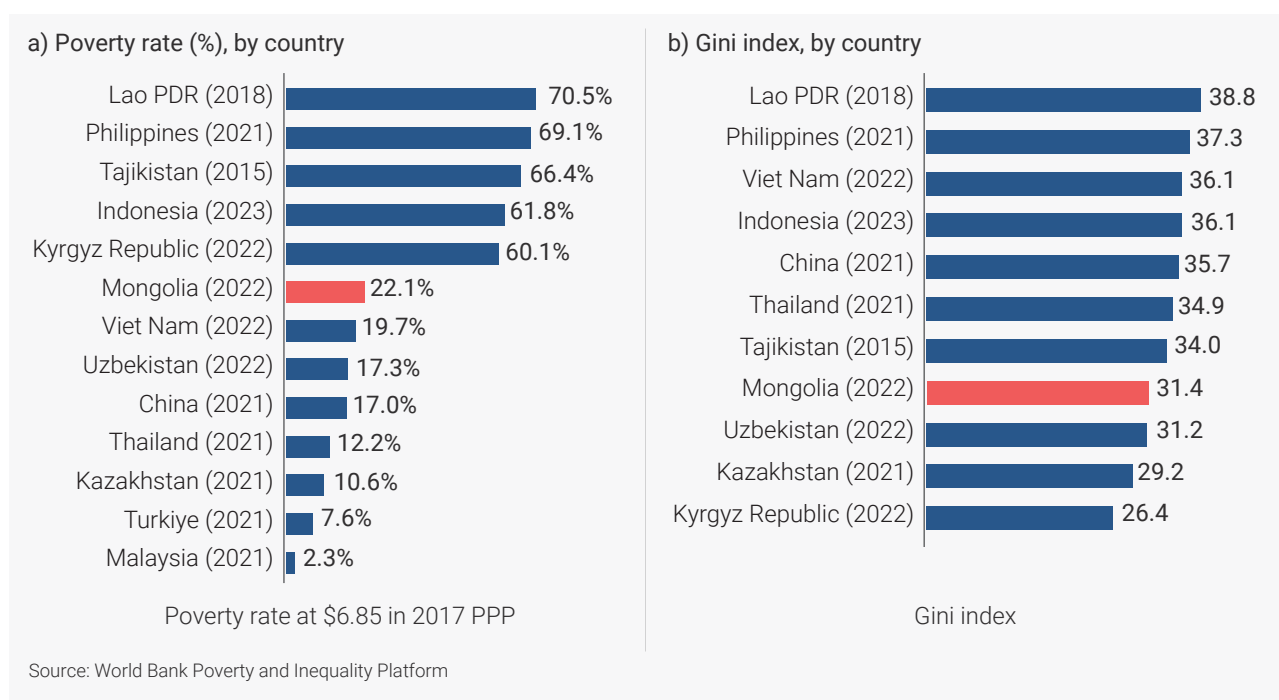
Using the upper-middle-income country poverty line of \$6.85 per day (2017 PPP), Mongolia's poverty rate stands at 22.1 percent. At the extreme poverty line of \$2.15 per day (2017 PPP), the rate is low at just 0.2 percent. When measured against the lower-middle-income poverty line of \$3.65 per day (2017 PPP), the rate increases slightly to 2.4 percent. The upper-middle-income

poverty line of \$6.85 per day closely aligns with Mongolia's national poverty line, reflecting its upper-middle-income status, and corresponds to a poverty rate of 22.1 percent.

International comparisons with other middle-income countries in Central and East Asia place Mongolia in the middle range for poverty but closer to the lower end in terms of inequality.

Measured at the upper-middle-income poverty line, Mongolia's poverty rate is similar to those of Vietnam and Uzbekistan, while it is significantly lower than countries like Lao PDR, Philippines, and Tajikistan (Figure 2.5a). Mongolia's inequality levels, as measured by the Gini index, are more similar to those of post-Soviet countries such as Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, and Tajikistan, which tend to have lower inequality levels (Figure 2.5b).

Figure 2.5 International comparison of Mongolia's national poverty lines



¹⁰ International poverty rates are calculated using daily per capita consumption, enabling consistent comparisons of poverty indicators across countries.



CHAPTER:

3



**PROFILE OF THE POOR
IN 2022**

This chapter presents the profile of the poor in 2022, examining their consumption patterns, education levels, employment status, asset ownership, and access to basic services.

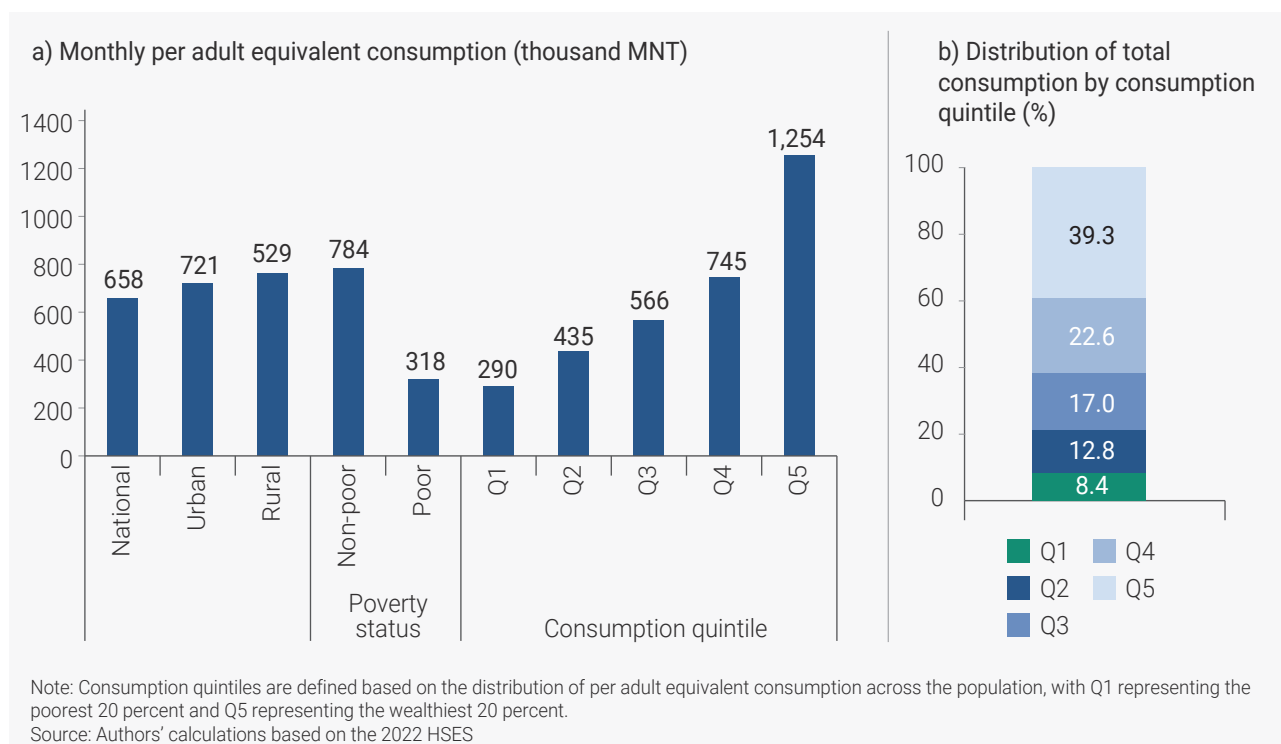
3.1. Poverty and consumption patterns

In 2022, the average monthly consumption per adult equivalent is 658,000 MNT (Figure 3.1a). As discussed in Chapter 1, household consumption comprises four main components: food consumption, non-food (non-durable) expenditures, housing, and durable consumption. On average, 29.5 percent of household consumption is spent on food, 41.7 percent on non-food expenditures, 16.1 percent on housing, and 12.6 percent on durable goods.

The average per adult equivalent consumption

of the non-poor population is 2.5 times higher than that of the poor population. In 2022, the non-poor spent an average of 784,000 MNT per month, while the poor spent 318,000 MNT per month (Figure 3.1a), equivalent to 10,456 MNT per day. Consumption disparities across the population are stark, with the wealthiest 20 percent of the population spending an average of 1.25 million MNT per month—4.3 times more than the poorest 20 percent, which spends 290,000 MNT per month. These disparities result in the top 20 accounting for a disproportionate share of national consumption, making up 39 percent of the total, while the poorest 20 percent account for just 8 percent (Figure 3.1b).

Figure 3.1 Average monthly per adult equivalent consumption, and distribution of total consumption (2022)



Across the consumption distribution, households consistently allocate a greater portion of their spending to non-food goods and services, including housing and durable goods, than to food. Nationally, households spend an average of 70 percent of their total consumption,

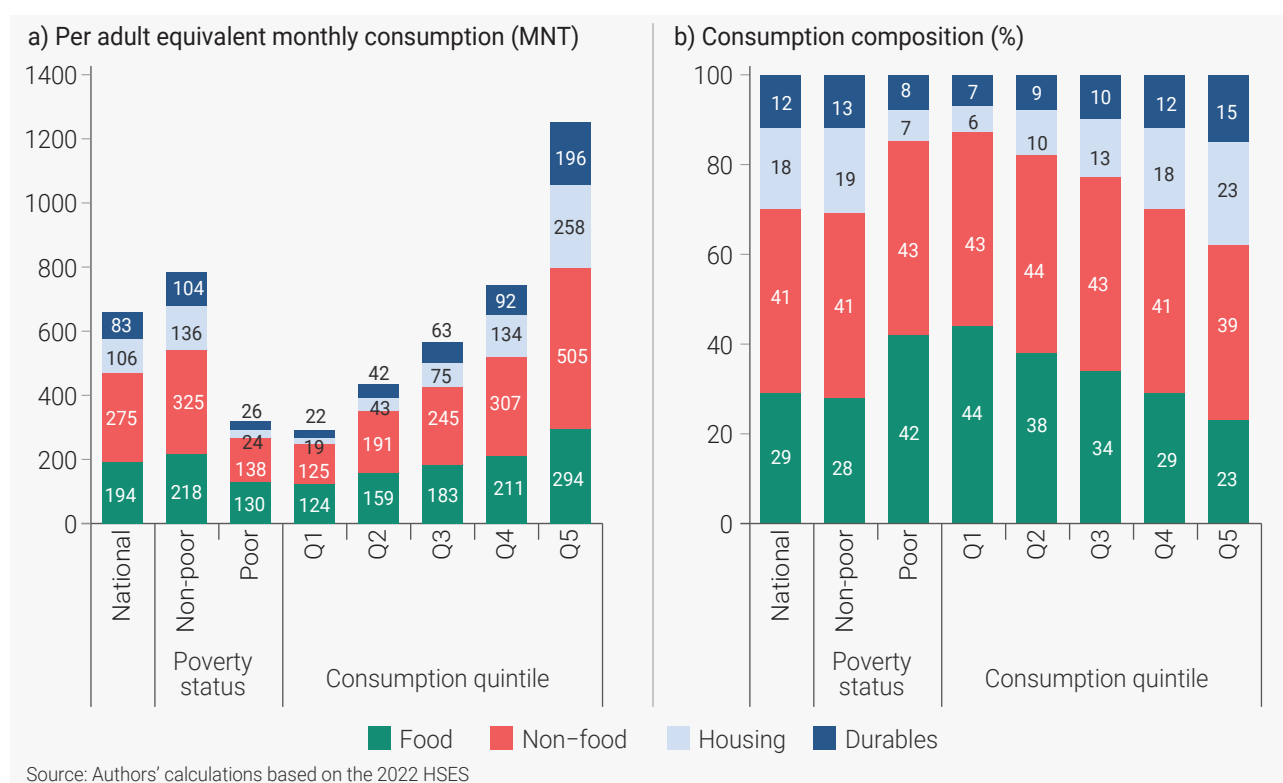
equivalent to 464,000 MNT per month per adult equivalent, on non-food items, housing, and durables (Figure 3.2). By comparison, only 30 percent of total consumption, or 194,000 MNT per month, is spent on food. While food accounts for a larger share of consumption

among poorer households (43 percent for the poorest quintile compared to 23 percent for the wealthiest quintile), non-food expenditures, housing, and durables collectively outweigh food consumption, underscoring the important role of non-food necessities in determining household welfare in Mongolia.

While non-food expenditures make up the largest share of household budgets, durable and housing consumption are the primary drivers of welfare disparities. Non-food expenditures account for 39–44 percent of total consumption across the distribution, showing minimal variation (Figure 3.2b). In contrast, durable goods

and housing varies significantly, with wealthier households allocating a larger share of their consumption to these items. On average, the wealthiest 20 percent of the population spends 11 times more on durable goods and housing than the poorest 20 percent (Figure 3.2a). Specifically, the poorest group spends an average of 19,300 MNT per month per adult equivalent on housing and 22,200 MNT on durable goods, whereas the wealthiest quintile spends 258,300 MNT on housing—13 times more—and 196,400 MNT on durable goods—9 times more than the poorest quintile.

Figure 3.2 Average monthly per adult equivalent consumption, and consumption composition, by component (2022)



Dietary diversity in Mongolia is limited, particularly among poor and rural households. Nationally, 70 percent of total food consumption consists of staples such as meat, flour, and dairy products (Figure 3.3). The poor allocate 81

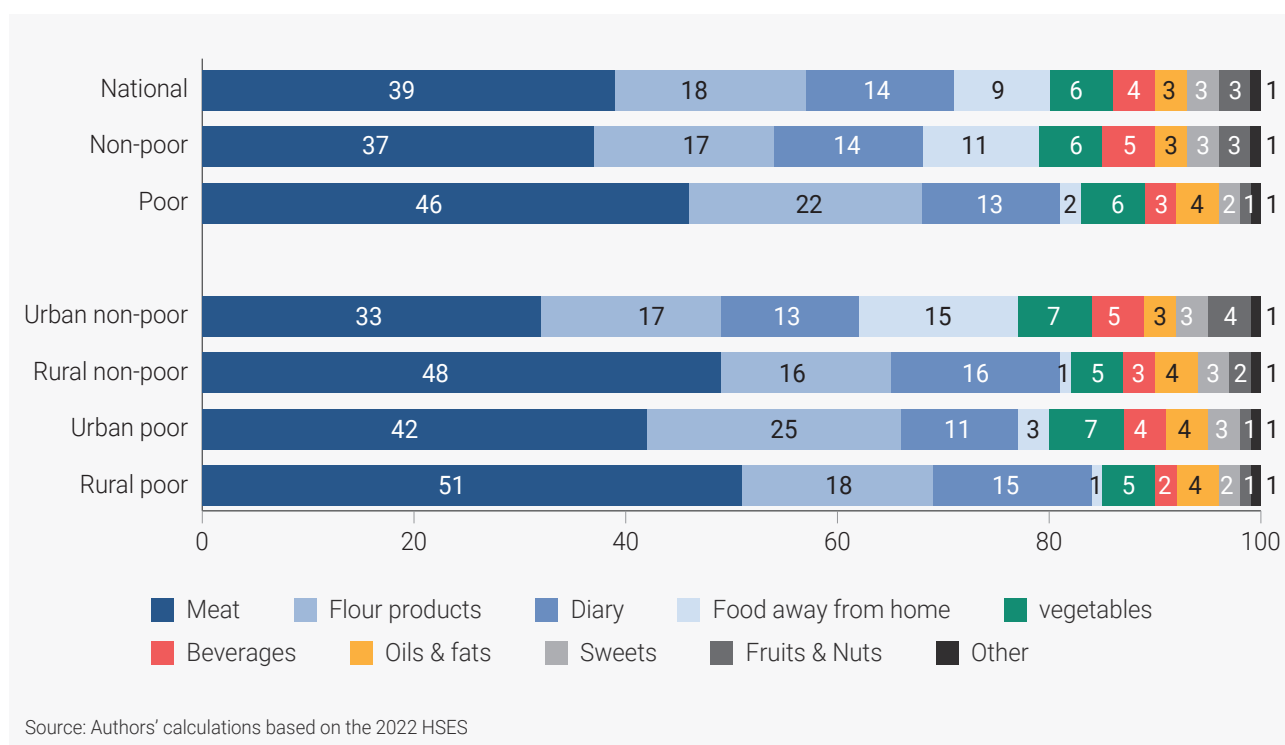
percent of their total food consumption to these staples, reflecting a dependence on a narrow range of foods and limited dietary diversity. In contrast, the non-poor spend 68 percent of their food consumption on these items, with lower

meat consumption among urban non-poor households contributing to this difference.

Dining out has become a notable trend among wealthier households in Mongolia, reflecting lifestyle changes. Non-poor individuals allocate an average of 11 percent of their food consumption to food consumed away from home, including dining out (Figure 3.3). This share is significantly higher among urban non-poor households, who spend 14.5 percent of

their total food consumption on dining out, compared to just 1.4 percent among rural non-poor households. This pattern is likely influenced by urban livelihoods, where longer commutes, demanding work schedules, greater availability of restaurants and food vendors, and a cultural shift toward convenience encourage reliance on restaurants, food stalls, and take-out meals, making dining out increasingly common among the urban non-poor population.

Figure 3.3 Composition of food consumption, by poverty status (2022)



Among non-food expenditures, clothing and transportation account for the largest shares, making up nearly 40 percent of total non-food expenditures for the poor and the non-poor.

On average, per adult equivalent consumption of non-food goods and services amounts to 275,000 MNT per month, with 20 percent allocated to ready-made clothing and 18 percent to transportation services (Figure 3.4). Other notable expenditures include utility fees—such

as fuel, electricity, heating, and water (11.2 percent)—personal care services (10.6 percent), and health (9.7 percent).

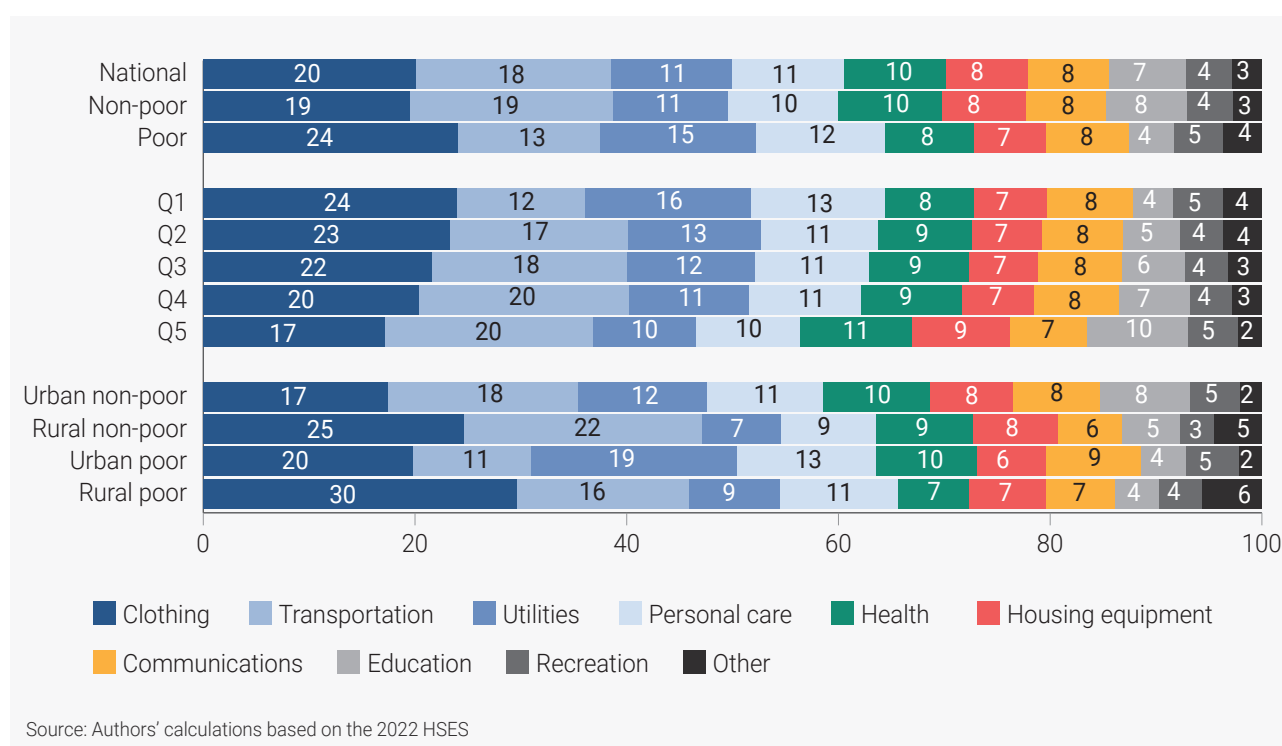
The composition of non-food spending varies significantly across the consumption distribution, with poorer households spending a larger share on clothing and utilities and allocating less to essential services such as education and health. The wealthiest 20

percent of the population spends more than four times as much on non-food expenditures as the poorest 20 percent, highlighting significant disparities. The most pronounced gap is in education spending, where the wealthiest quintile allocates an average of 9.5 percent of their total non-food expenditures, compared to only 3.7 percent among the poorest quintile (Figure 3.4). In contrast, clothing and utilities make up a larger share of non-food expenditures for poorer households, reflecting the prioritization of immediate and basic necessities over long-term investments in human capital.

Notable differences exist between rural and urban poor populations, underscoring the need for targeted policies tailored to specific areas.

For urban poor households, utilities and energy costs represent a significant burden, comprising nearly a fifth of total non-food expenditures (Figure 3.4). Conversely, rural poor households allocate a greater share of their non-food spending to clothing and transportation, with nearly half of their non-food expenditures devoted to these goods and services. These patterns highlight the distinct challenges faced by rural and urban poor households and the importance of area-specific interventions to effectively reduce poverty.

Figure 3.4 Composition of non-food expenditures (2022)



3.2. Household demographic characteristics

Larger household sizes are correlated with a higher likelihood of being poor. In 2022, the average household size in Mongolia was 3.4 members. However, poor households had

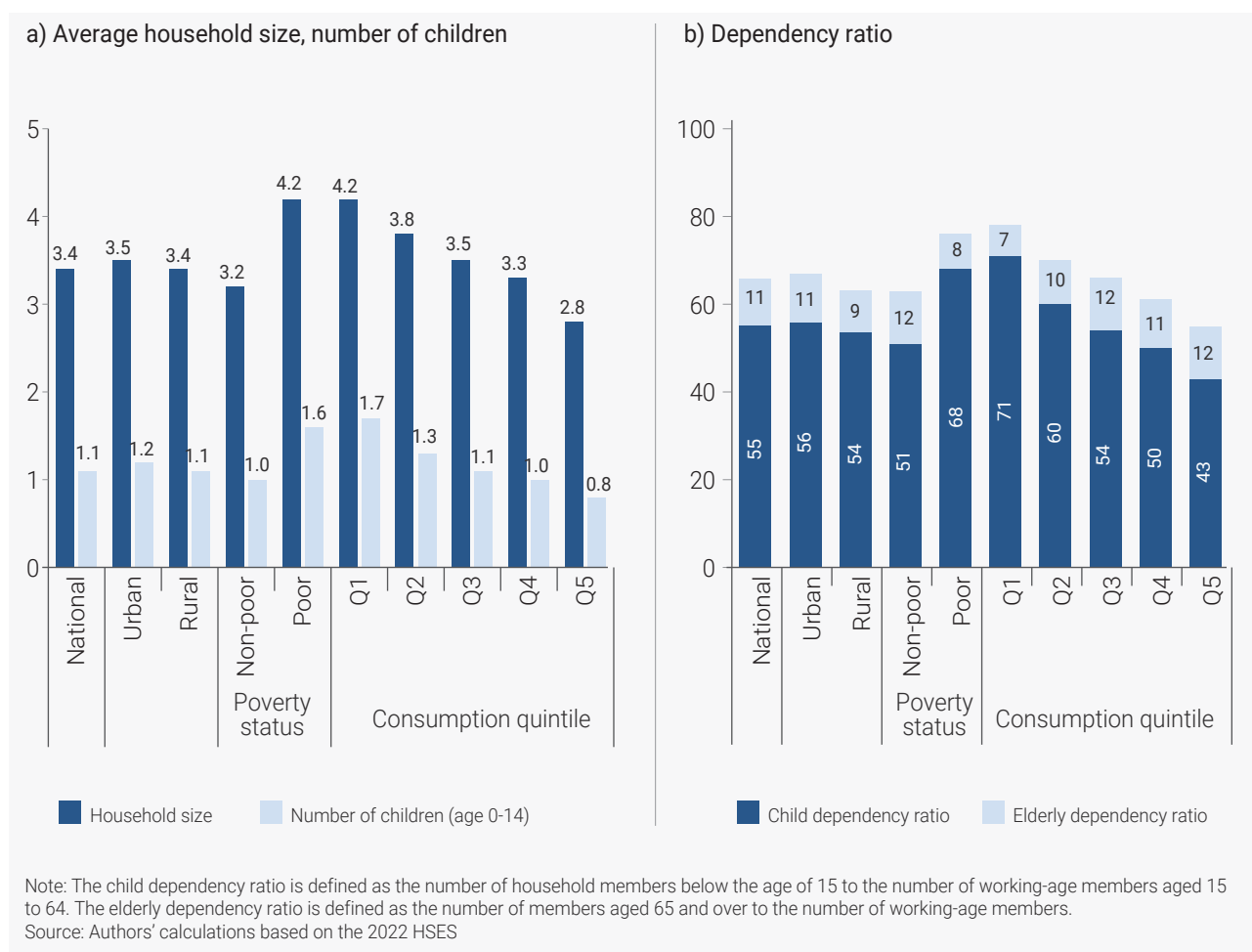
notably larger sizes, averaging 4.2 members compared to 3.2 members among non-poor households (Figure 3.5a). Generally, household size decreases as consumption levels increase, indicating that household size is an important determinant of welfare. For instance, the average household size in the poorest 20 percent of

households was approximately 1.5 times larger than in the wealthiest 20 percent, with the number of children (aged 0–14) being 2.2 times higher in the poorest households.

A higher number of dependents or children per working-age adult is strongly correlated with being poor. The age structure of household members is a key determinant of poverty. Poor households tend to have more children, which raises the dependency ratio and increases the economic burden on working-age individuals, making it more difficult to meet basic needs and invest in human capital. As a result, poor

households generally have lower per capita incomes compared to non-poor households, exacerbating their vulnerability. On average, the dependency ratio is 22.6 percent higher for poor than non-poor households, meaning that for every 100 working-age adults, the poor have 14 more dependents than the non-poor (Figure 3.5b). This difference is primarily driven by a higher number of child dependents in poor households, whereas wealthier households tend to have more elderly dependents. Across the welfare distribution, the child dependency ratio declines sharply, driving a lower overall dependency ratio.

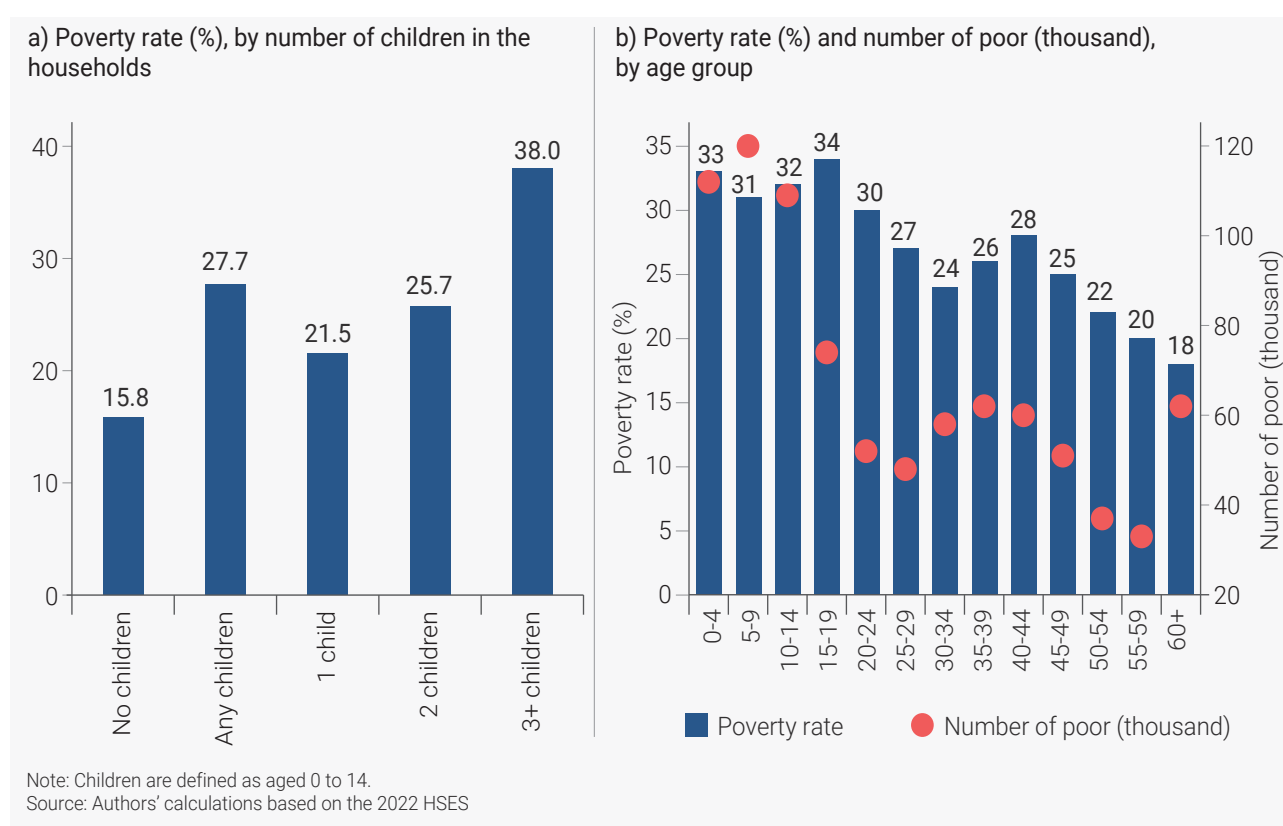
Figure 3.5 Average household size and dependency ratio (2022)



Households with a larger number of children are significantly more likely to be classified as poor. Approximately 60 percent of all households have children, and these households are about 12 percentage points more likely to be classified as poor compared to households without children (Figure 3.6a). Each additional child in a household increases the likelihood of poverty by an average of 6.4 percentage points. As a result, children

face a higher risk of poverty, with poverty rates among those under 15 years old ranging from 31 to 33 percent, exceeding the national average of 27 percent (Figure 3.6b). In contrast, elderly individuals are more likely to live in wealthier households, potentially due to factors such as better access to healthcare during their lifetime or pension income. Consequently, the poverty rate among the elderly is relatively low.

Figure 3.6 Poverty rate, by age group and number of children in the household (2022)



3.3. Education

People with little or no education are more likely to work in low-skilled, low-paying jobs, making them more vulnerable to poverty. In contrast, higher levels of education not only expand employment opportunities but also enhance social participation, improve access to information, strengthen decision-making capabilities, and empower individuals to better

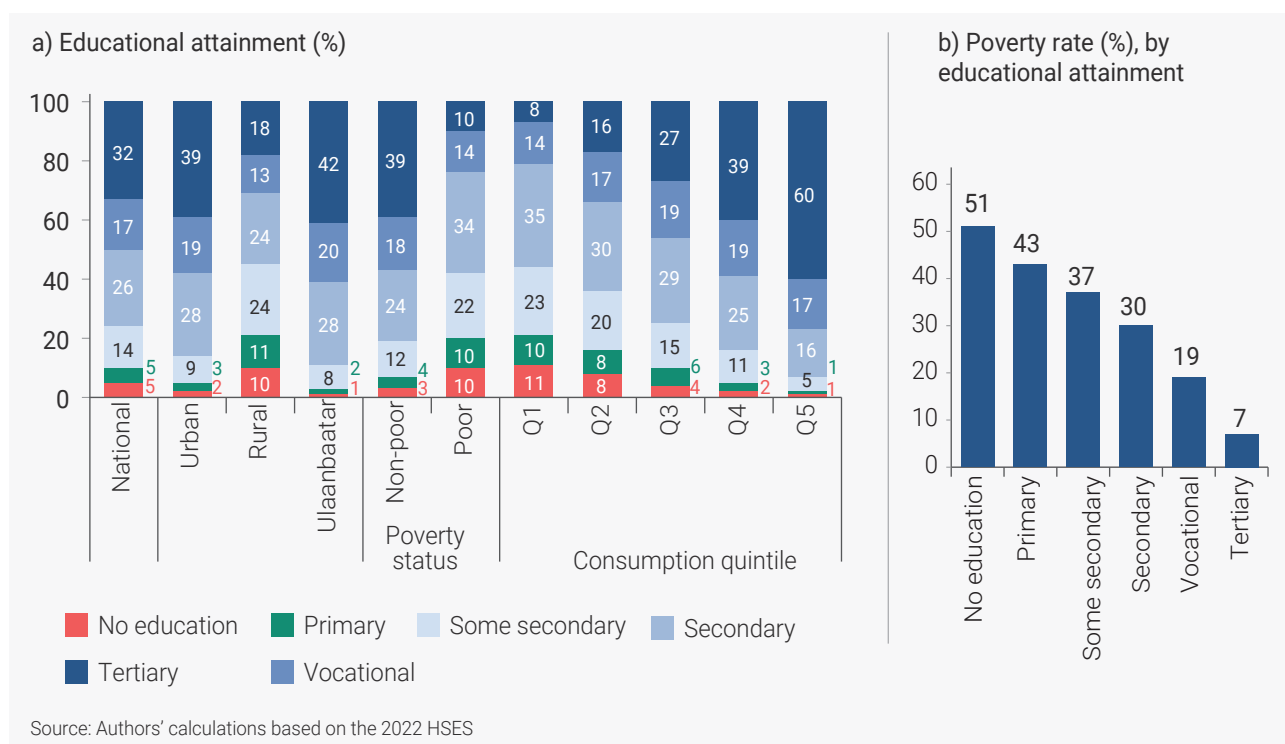
navigate and benefit from available resources and services. As such, education is a crucial factor in improving living standards and overall welfare.

The disparity in educational attainment between the poor and the non-poor is most pronounced at the tertiary level. Among the population aged 25 and older, only one in ten poor hold a higher education degree, significantly lower than the

national average of 32 percent and the non-poor average of 39 percent (Figure 3.7a). The likelihood of tertiary completion increases sharply with higher consumption levels, indicating strong correlation between educational attainment and welfare. Poverty rates are highest among those with no formal education, at 51 percent,

while only 7 percent of individuals with tertiary education are considered poor (Figure 3.7b). This correlation highlights the critical role of education as an investment in the future, offering substantial benefits for an individual’s quality of life, economic stability, and upward mobility.

Figure 3.7 Educational attainment and poverty rate among the population aged 25 and over (2022)



Children from poorer households are more likely to begin their education later and are significantly less likely to attend kindergarten compared to children from wealthier families. Among children aged two to six, only 45 percent of those from the poorest 20 percent of households are enrolled in kindergarten, compared to 63 percent from the wealthiest 20 percent. This disparity highlights unequal access to early childhood education, which is critical for cognitive and social development and has long-term effects on educational outcomes and future opportunities. In remote rural areas, access to pre-primary education is particularly

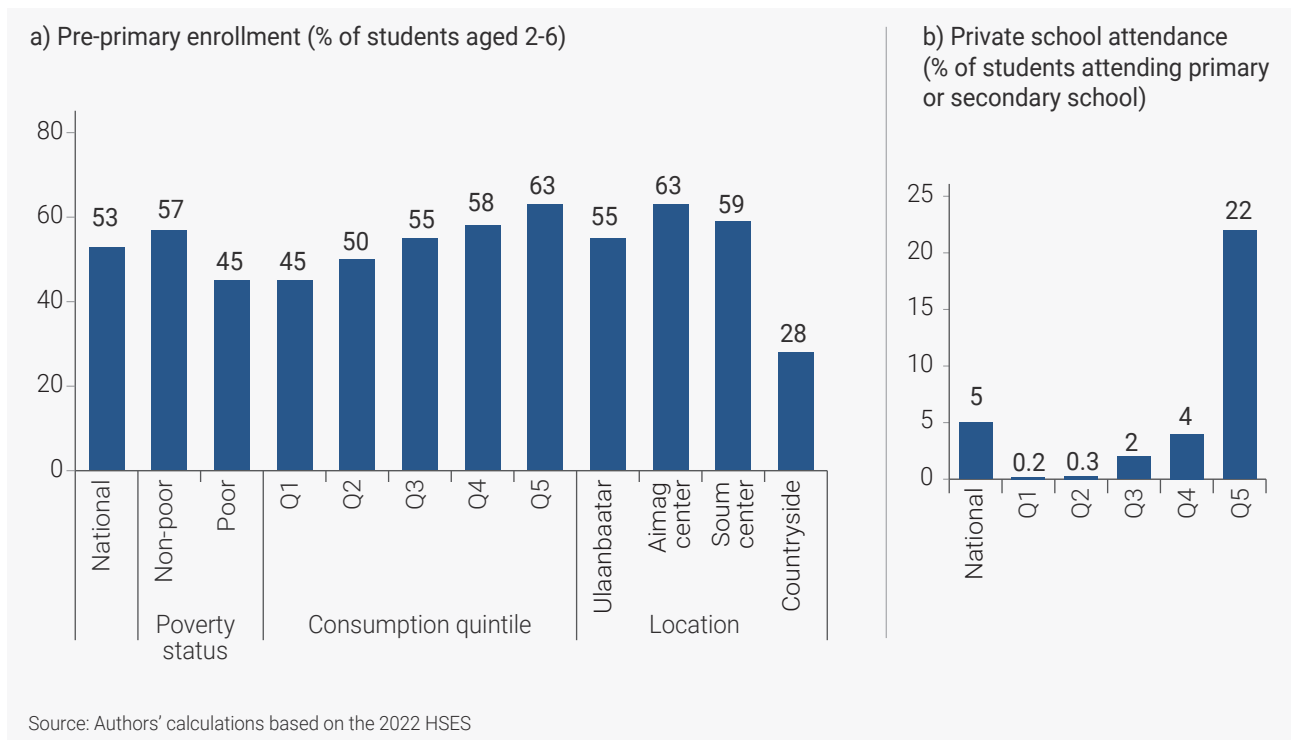
limited, often due to the significant distance between homes and education facilities. This geographic barrier further restricts opportunities for early childhood education, exacerbating the disadvantages faced by children from poorer and more isolated households.

Poorer children are also more likely to attend public schools, while wealthier households increasingly prefer private education. For instance, nearly a quarter of primary-or-secondary-school students from the wealthiest 20 percent of the population attends a private institution (Figure 3.8b). In contrast, less than one percent of

students from the poorest quintile attend private schools, reflecting the financial constraints and limited access to such institutions among lower-income families. This growing reliance on private education among the wealthiest households

further deepens inequalities, as it provides better opportunities for academic success and social mobility, leaving poorer children at a significant disadvantage.

Figure 3.8 Pre-primary enrollment and type of primary school (2022)



3.4. Employment

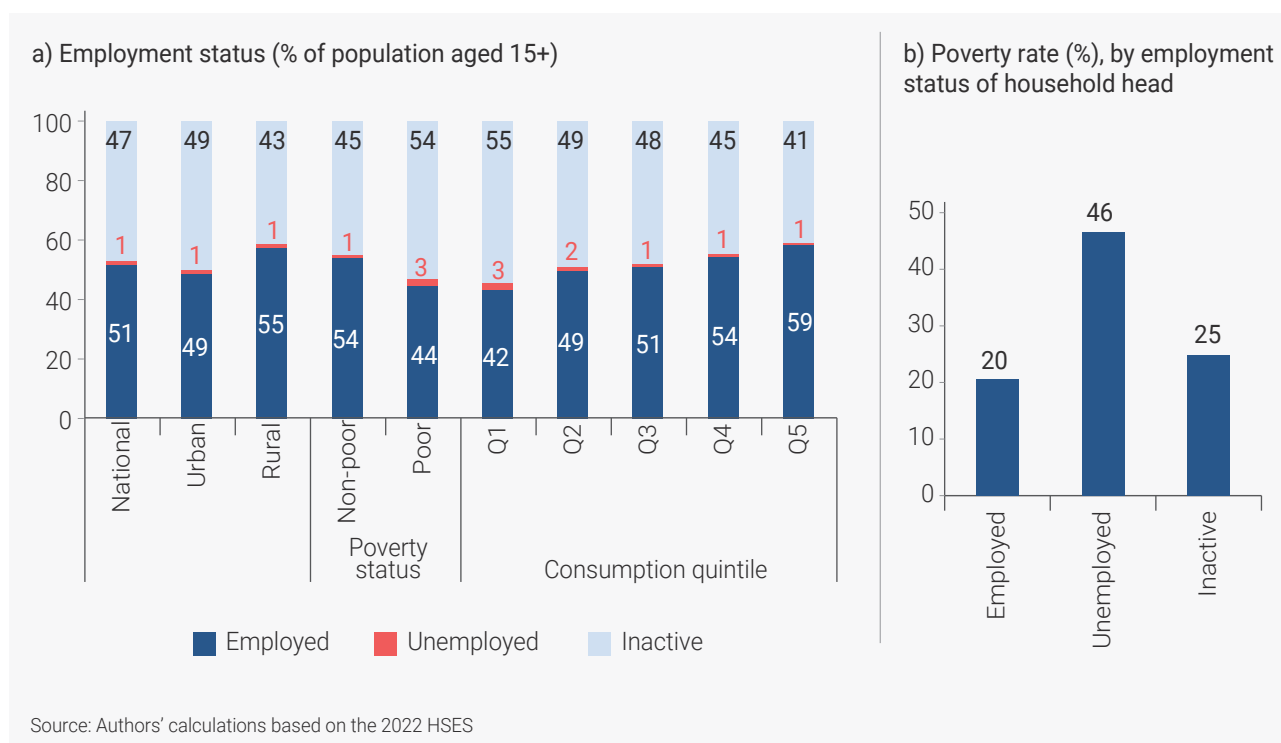
Employment and the type of work people engage in are critical determinants of poverty and overall welfare. Stable, well-paying jobs provide households with the income needed to meet basic needs, invest in education and healthcare, and build economic resilience. In contrast, informal, low-paying, or unstable employment increases economic vulnerability, making it harder for households to improve their prospects for upward mobility.

In 2022, the poor—particularly the urban poor—are significantly less likely to be engaged in income-generating activities compared to their non-poor counterparts. Among the working-age population of age 15 or greater, the poor were 10.1 percentage points less likely to be employed than the non-poor (Figure 3.9a).

Instead, they were more likely to be inactive or unemployed,¹¹ signaling barriers to accessing stable employment opportunities. The disparity is particularly pronounced in urban areas, where labor force participation tends to be lower. In rural areas, higher self-employment in agriculture and herding leads to relatively small differences in labor force participation between poor and non-poor individuals. However, in urban areas, the gap is considerably wider, at 14.8 percentage points, suggesting that the urban poor may face greater difficulties in securing jobs or entering the labor market.

Unemployment is strongly associated with a higher risk of poverty. Among households where the head is unemployed, the poverty rate is 46.2 percent (Figure 3.9b), significantly higher than for households with an employed or inactive head.¹² This difference suggests that while employment

Figure 3. 9 Employment status among the working-age population (2022)



11 An unemployed person is a person of working age who has not worked in the past 7 days, is looking for work, and is available for work.

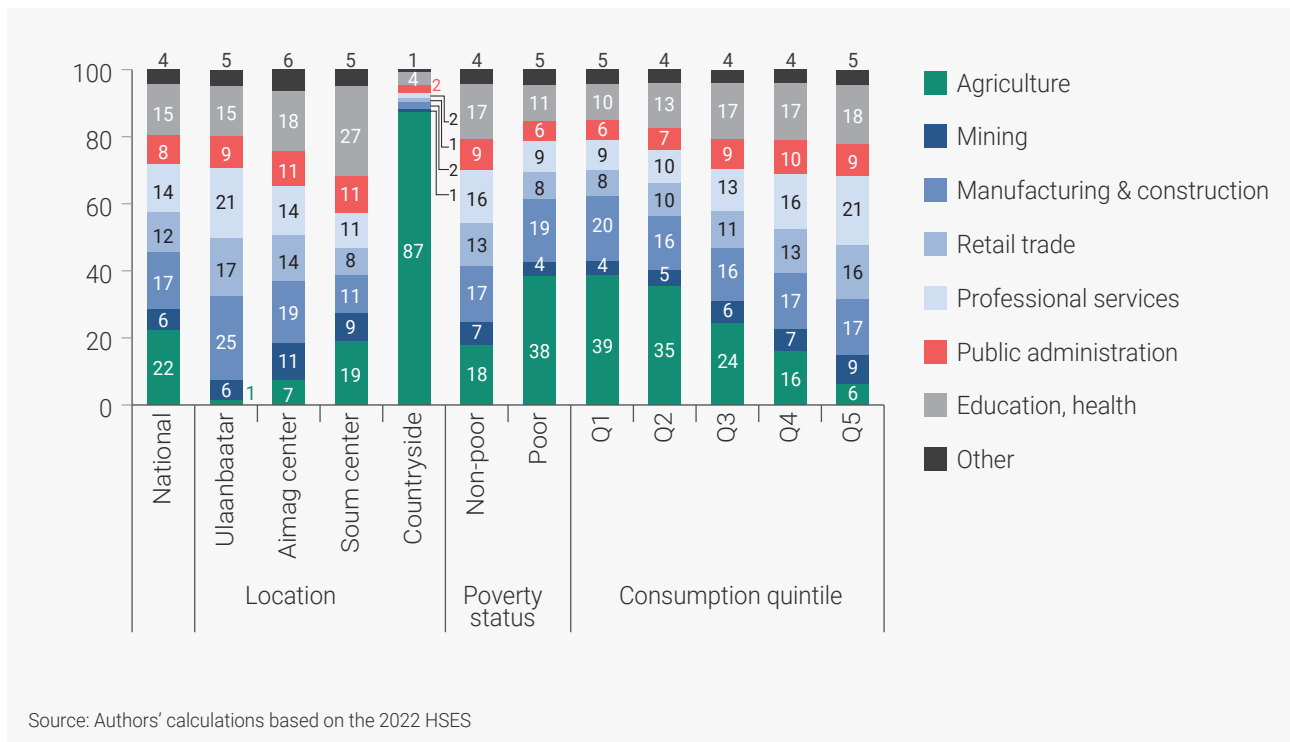
12 An unemployed person is a person of working age who has not worked in the past 7 days, is looking for work, and is available for work. 12 Households with inactive heads also experience higher poverty rates, though to a lesser extent than those with unemployed heads, as inactive individuals are often retirees who may have pensions or other forms of financial support.

provides some level of economic security, the type and stability of employment matter greatly, as low-quality or informal jobs may still leave households vulnerable to poverty.

Significant differences in employment sectors exist between poor and non-poor workers, with the poor more likely to be engaged in agriculture, particularly in livestock farming and animal-based production. Nearly four in ten poor individuals work in agriculture, more than twice the share of non-poor workers engaged in the sector (Figure 3.10). This higher concentration in agriculture reflects spatial disparities, as the poor are more likely to live in

rural areas, particularly in the countryside, where employment is overwhelmingly agricultural. The share of workers employed in agriculture declines sharply across consumption groups, with only 6 percent of the wealthiest 20 percent working in the sector. As living standards improve and consumption rises, employment shifts away from agriculture toward higher-skilled sectors such as mining, professional services, education, and healthcare, reflecting broader economic transformation and greater access to better-paying job opportunities.

Figure 3. 10 Employment sector among workers aged 15+ (2022)

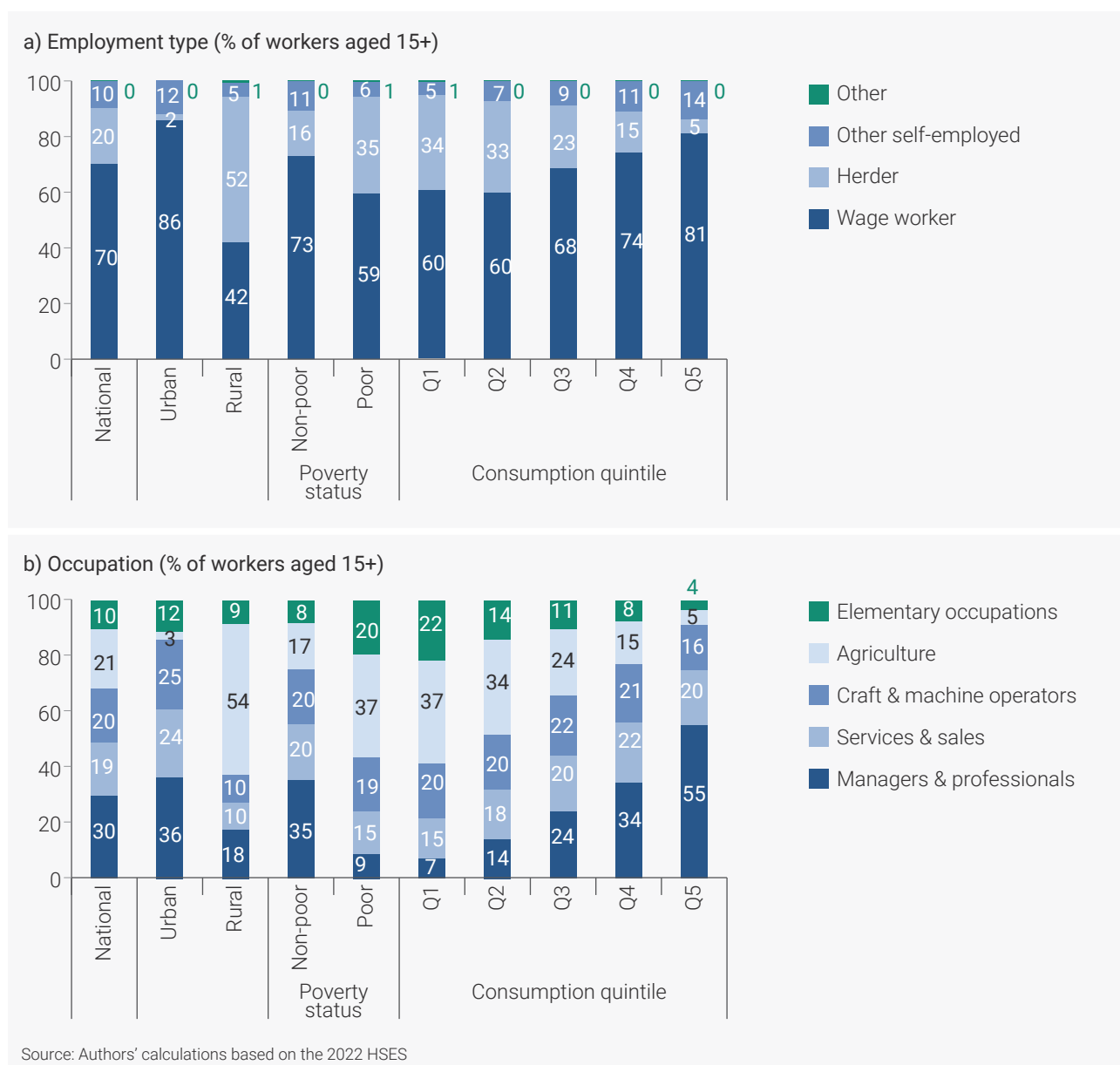


Poorer workers are also more likely to engage in low-skill and informal employment.

While the majority of poor workers (59 percent) hold wage or salaried jobs, they are 14 percentage points less likely than non-poor workers to be in waged employment (Figure 3.11a). Instead, they are more likely to be self-employed, primarily as herders, or work in unpaid family businesses. Additionally, poorer workers are disproportionately employed in low-skilled jobs, particularly in elementary

occupations, while wealthier workers are more likely to be in higher-skilled roles, such as managerial and professional positions (Figure 3.11b). In 2022, workers in the wealthiest quintile were more than seven times as likely as those in the poorest quintile to be employed as managers or in professional occupations, highlighting the strong link between skills, job quality, and welfare.

Figure 3.11 Employment type and occupation among workers aged 15+ (2022)

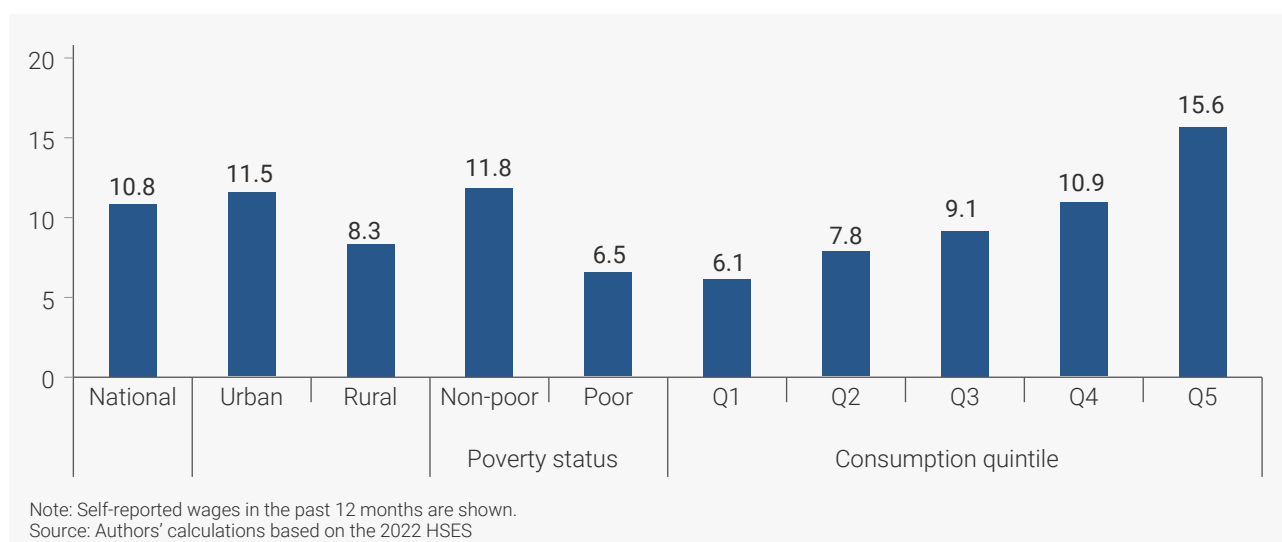


Significant wage disparities exist between poor and non-poor workers, and these gaps are only partially explained by observable differences in skills, education, and sector of employment.

In 2022, the average annual wage¹³ for a poor worker was 6.5 million MNT, compared to 11.8 million MNT for a non-poor worker—nearly double. These disparities are even more pronounced across the broader welfare distribution: workers in the bottom 20 percent earned an average of 6.1 million MNT annually, while those in the wealthiest 20 percent earned 15.6 million MNT—

2.5 times as much. While differences in skill, occupation, and sector play a significant role in these wage disparities, notable gaps persist even within the same educational attainment, occupation, or sector. This finding suggests the presence of structural inequalities in the labor market that disproportionately disadvantage the poor, limiting their opportunities for upward mobility.

Figure 3. 12 Average annual wages of salaried workers in million MNT (2022)



3.5. Asset ownership & financial inclusion

Asset ownership plays a vital role in improving household welfare by providing a foundation for financial stability and resilience. Owning assets such as land, livestock, equipment, or savings enables households to generate income, invest in productive activities, and build wealth over time. Assets also act as a safety net, helping

households cope with economic shocks, manage risks, and reduce vulnerability to seasonal fluctuations in income, particularly in sectors like agriculture. Asset ownership is thus an important driver of long-term welfare.

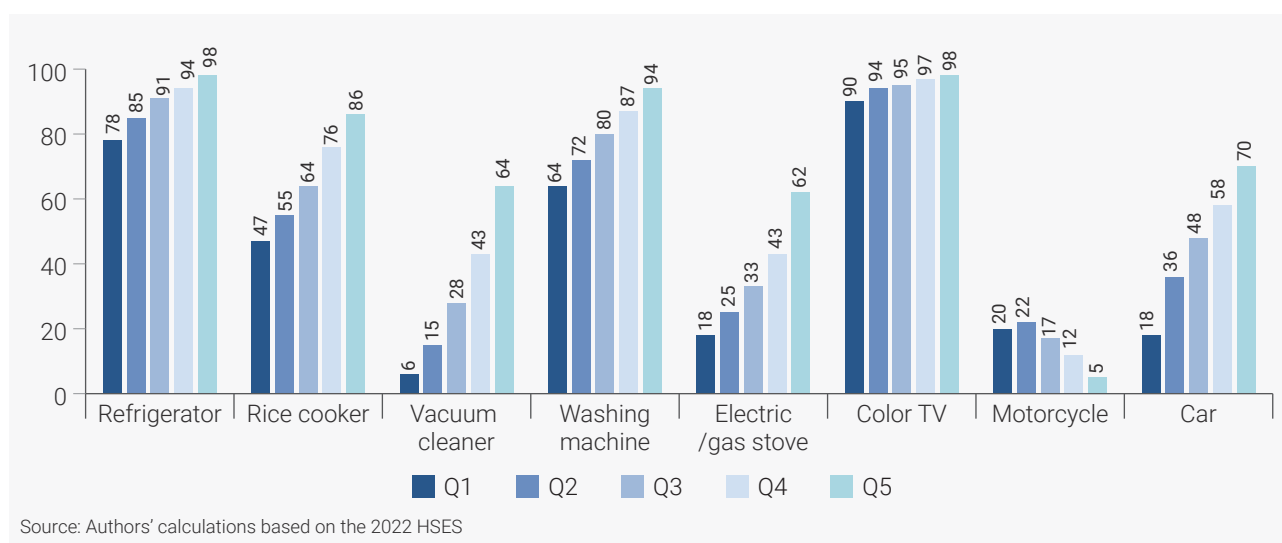
Poorer households are less likely to have access to essential productive assets, highlighting disparities in living conditions. In 2022, ownership of basic household items such as refrigerators and televisions was widespread

¹³ The average annual wage calculated from the 2022 HSES is the total amount of all wages earned during the 12 months preceding the survey, including the worker's wages, bonuses, and allowances (whether in cash or in the form of non-cash benefits). For some individuals, if they have been employed for a certain period of time during the past 12 months, their earnings for that period are considered annual wages.

across the welfare distribution, showing relatively small gaps (Figure 3.13). However, key assets that improve mobility, convenience, and efficiency, such as cars, washing machines, and other electrical appliances, exhibited greater variation between poor and non-poor households. For example, households in the wealthiest quintile

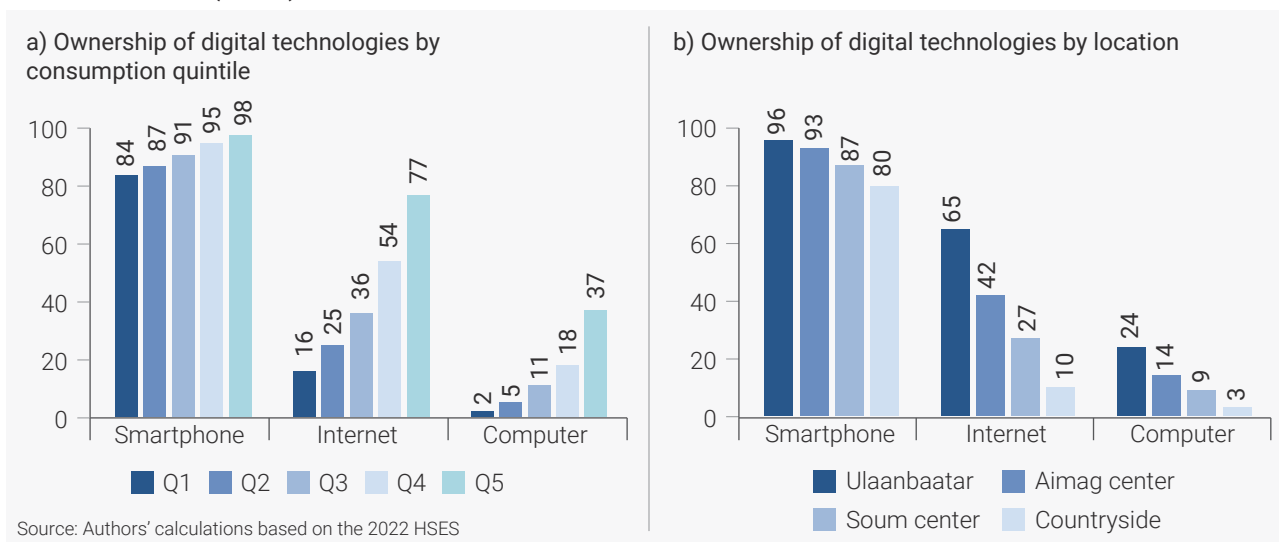
were nearly four times as likely as those in the poorest quintile to own at least one car. Poorer households, instead, were more likely to own motorcycles, which have limited functionality given Mongolia's vast geography and harsh climate.

Figure 3.13 Ownership of select durable assets (% of households), by consumption quintile (2022)



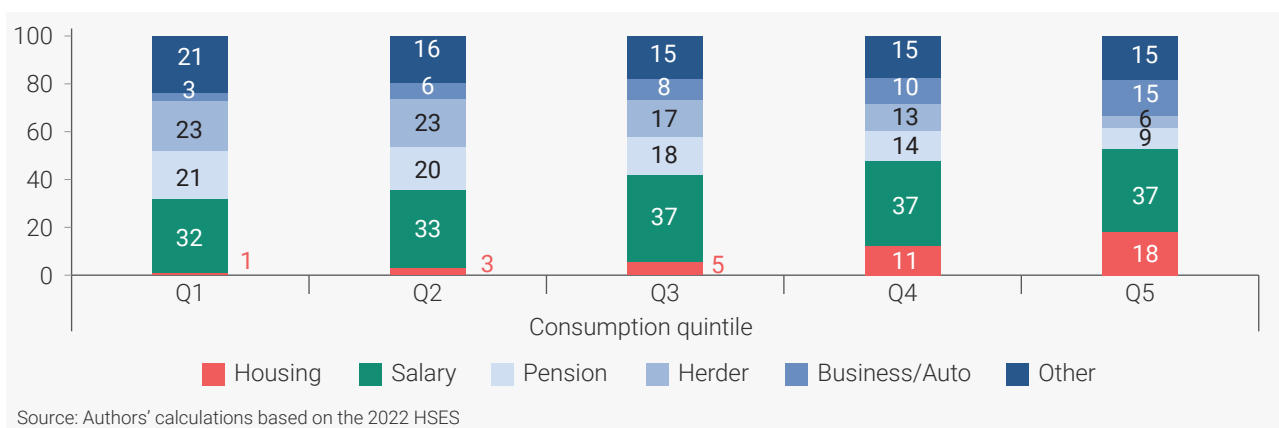
Poor and remote households face significant limitations in digital connectivity, which can hinder access to information and economic and educational opportunities. While mobile phone ownership is generally high across the welfare distribution, disparities persist, with households in the poorest quintile 14 percentage points less likely to own a mobile phone than those in the wealthiest quintile (Figure 3.14). Moreover, access to computers and the internet remains significantly lower among poor households. In 2022, only 2 percent of the poorest households owned a computer, and just one in four had internet access, compared to nearly eight in ten among the wealthiest households. Much of these disparities in access can be attributed to limited digital infrastructure in rural areas, where connectivity is weaker and devices are

often more expensive relative to incomes. Since poor households are disproportionately located in rural and remote areas, they are less likely to have access to these digital tools. This gap in access reinforces existing inequalities, restricting opportunities for education, employment, and access to essential services, ultimately deepening the urban-rural divide in digital inclusion.

Figure 3. 14 Ownership of digital technologies (% of households), by consumption quintile (2022)

While loans are generally accessible to both poor and non-poor households, significant differences exist in the purpose of borrowing and its contribution to household welfare. In 2022, approximately 55 percent of households had at least one member with an active loan. Non-poor households were slightly more likely to have taken out a loan, but the difference was small (2.5 percentage points). Most loans were obtained through formal financial institutions, with minimal variation in loan sources between poor and non-poor households. However, the biggest difference lies in the type of loans taken. Poorer households were more likely to rely on pension

or herder loans,¹⁴ while wealthier households were more likely to take out housing, business, or automobile loans (Figure 3.15). Mortgage loans, in particular, were far more accessible to wealthier households, who can provide collateral and demonstrate an established credit history. Among the wealthiest households, nearly one in five loans were mortgages, whereas among the poorest, fewer than one percent of loans fell into this category. This disparity underscores the financial constraints faced by poorer households, whose borrowing may primarily serve short-term needs rather than long-term asset and wealth accumulation.

Figure 3. 15 Type of loan among households with loans (2022)

¹⁴ A pension loan is a consumer loan provided by commercial banks against the future pension of a retiree. Herder loans in Mongolia are loans given to herders to help them support their livelihoods. A salary loan is a cash advance loan that can be repaid through deductions from employees' salaries.

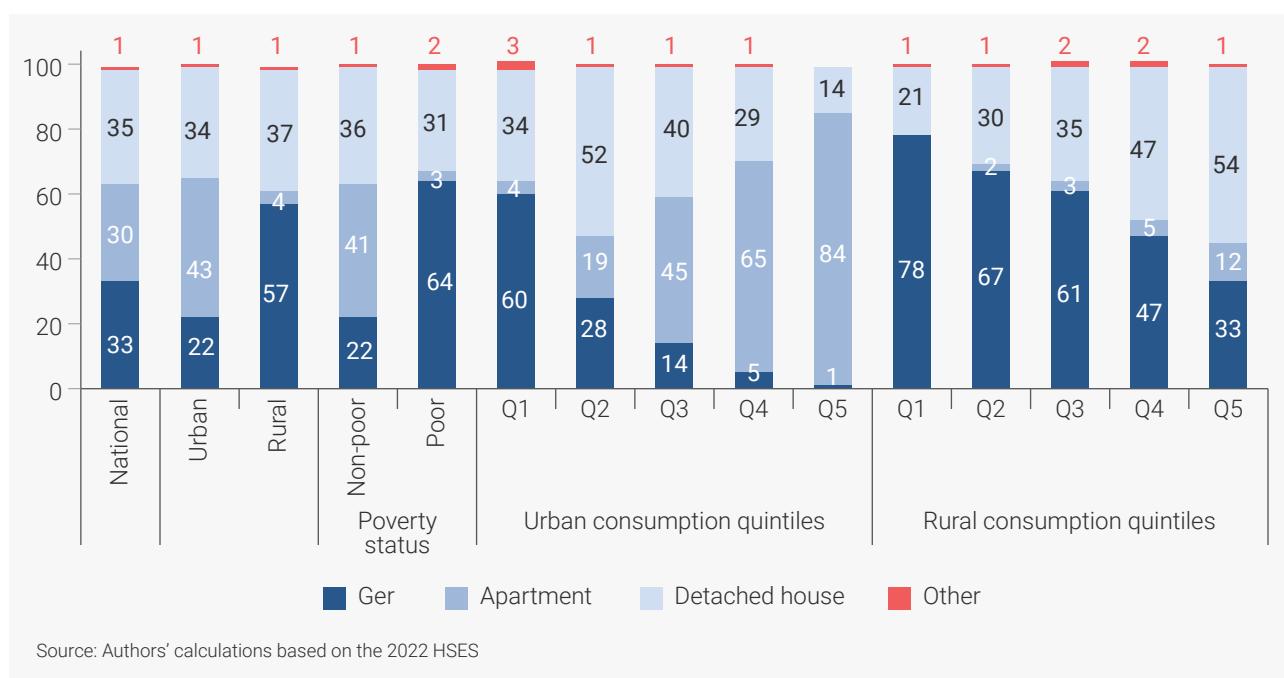
1.6. Access to housing and basic services

Housing and access to basic services such as clean water, sanitation, electricity, and heating are fundamental to well-being, as they directly impact health, safety, and overall living standards. Inadequate housing and limited access to essential services not only expose households to health risks and higher living costs but also reinforce poverty by limiting opportunities for education, employment, and economic mobility.

Poor households in both rural and urban areas predominantly live in gers, often with limited access to reliable energy sources. Housing type is a key determinant of poverty in Mongolia, with poor households 42 percentage points more likely than non-poor households to reside in gers (Figure 3.16). This disparity exists in both urban and rural areas, though it is more pronounced

in urban settings. In urban areas, six in ten households in the poorest quintile live in gers, compared to just one percent of the wealthiest quintile. Wealthier households, on the other hand, overwhelmingly reside in apartments (84 percent), which offer better access to essential services, including district heating. Infrastructure constraints force urban ger households to rely on alternative heating sources, such as coal cookstoves or electricity, which can be less efficient and more harmful to health. Detached houses may provide a slightly better option, but most of these dwellings do not have access to district heating and construction quality often varies, limiting their durability and efficiency. In rural areas, apartments are scarce, and wealthier households are more likely to live in detached houses rather than gers.

Figure 3. 16 Type of housing (% of population) by five consumption groups, 2022



In 2022, nine out of ten poor individuals lacked access to at least one essential service—improved drinking water, sanitation, or sustainable heating. While electricity access is nearly universal in Mongolia, almost all poor have access to improved sanitation facilities, and just one in ten has access to sustainable heating sources. These disparities are largely shaped by housing type (gers) and location (remote rural areas or urban ger districts), where infrastructure

limitations restrict access to essential services. Even among the wealthiest households, 22 percent still use unimproved sanitation facilities, and 16 percent rely on traditional heating methods, primarily coal. This highlights that even economically secure households often face gaps in access to quality housing and essential services, underscoring the broader challenges of infrastructure development in Mongolia (Figure 3.17).

Figure 3. 17 Access to basic services (% of population), 2022

	a) Improved drinking water	b) Improved sanitation	c) Sustainable heating
National	90	33	41
Poor	84	5	8
Non-poor	92	44	53
Ulaanbaatar	100	52	61
Aimag center	96	35	43
Soum center	92	10	19
Countryside	49	1	2
Apartment/House	96	50	61
Ger	77	1	1
Q1	85	3	6
Q2	83	11	18
Q3	89	25	35
Q4	93	49	60
Q5	98	78	84

Source: Authors' calculations based on the 2022 HSES

Note: House/Apartment refers to households living in a detached house, apartment, or other types of permanent structures, while ger refers to households living in traditional ger.

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ANNEX A

1. DETECTION AND TREATMENT OF OUTLIERS

To identify outliers across components of the consumption aggregate, a general approach is applied, following the recommendations of Belotti et al. (2022). The challenge lies in distinguishing genuine extreme values from those caused by measurement errors. Using “robust” estimators, such as the median for location and the inter-quartile range for scale, outliers are detected using the `outdetect` command in Stata with parameters tailored to each variable. This involves determining the appropriate level (spatial or temporal groupings)

for detecting outliers, applying normalization and statistical thresholds (alpha values of 2.5–3.5), and flagging outliers where there are at least 20 defining observations in a given group. If this condition is not met, detection is repeated at a more aggregated level. Once identified, outliers are addressed through imputation methods, including replacing values with the group median, winsorizing extreme values to the nearest non-outlier boundary, or applying regression-based imputation, depending on the variable and the suspected cause of extreme values.

2. POVERTY LINE

Annex. Table. 1 Daily per adult equivalent food basket

	Quantity x Calories	Quantity x Price (MNT)
Flour, grade 1	490.8	231.0
Mutton	230.8	1164.4
Rice	202.0	210.5
Bakery	198.2	230.6
Bread	170.0	202.5
Beef	95.2	595.4
Vegetable oil	92.3	84.8
Milk	90.6	459.7
Noodles (domestic)	62.3	57.8
Potato	53.7	103.6
Sugar	38.0	31.7
Goat meat	34.6	182.8
Butter	27.0	30.3
Yogurt	18.4	99.0
Dried curds	17.8	69.3

	Quantity x Calories	Quantity x Price (MNT)
Horse meat	17.4	108.0
Beverage	16.7	88.1
Soft candy	13.1	36.6
Eggs	12.7	75.1
Cream	12.2	35.9
Frozen dumpling	11.9	44.6
Melted butter	10.7	29.5
Dried meat	9.4	91.0
Onion	7.9	55.6
Animal interior	7.5	39.1
Sausage	7.3	22.6
Carrot	6.7	47.9
Chicken	4.8	28.3
Jam	4.2	17.0
Green tea	3.4	43.6
Cabbage	3.4	30.0
Canned meat	2.6	13.6
Apple	2.5	41.5
Ice-cream	1.9	16.1
Total	1,978.1	4,617.7
Calorie threshold	2,400.0	
Food poverty line		5,602.6

ANNEX B.

ADDITIONAL STATISTICAL TABLES

Table B. 1 Poverty indicators based on different scales of the poverty line, 2022

Poverty line (%)	Poverty		
	Headcount	Gap	Severity
150%	57.9	18.9	8.2
140%	53.0	16.2	6.8
130%	47.1	13.6	5.5
120%	41.0	11.1	4.3
110%	34.1	8.7	3.2
100%	27.1	6.5	2.3
90%	20.6	4.6	1.5
80%	14.4	3.0	0.9
70%	9.1	1.7	0.5
60%	4.8	0.9	0.2
50%	2.1	0.4	0.1

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 2 Poverty indicators, by region, 2022

	National	Western	Khangai	Central	Eastern	Ulaanbaatar
Poverty headcount	27.1	36.5	33.4	24.6	35.3	21.6
	(0.6)	(1.2)	(1.1)	(1.0)	(1.5)	(1.2)
Poverty gap	6.5	7.9	7.8	5.2	8.8	5.6
	(0.2)	(0.3)	(0.3)	(0.3)	(0.5)	(0.4)
Poverty severity	2.3	2.6	2.6	1.7	3.2	2.1
	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.3)	(0.2)
Additional statistics:						
Population share (%)	100.0	13.3	18.1	14.8	7.0	46.9
Population ('000)	3,368.6	417.7	607.9	516.6	230.1	1,596.3
Share of poor (% of total poor)	100.0	17.8	22.3	13.4	9.1	37.4
Number of poor ('000)	913.7	162.9	203.7	122.6	82.8	341.7
Average household size	3.4	3.9	3.3	3.1	3.2	3.5
Average age of household head	48.6	48.7	48.7	48.3	48.1	48.8
Male-headed (% of households)	74.0	81.0	77.2	74.3	73.4	70.9
Urban (% of population)	61.4	64.8	56.9	56.8	61.4	64.0
Children (% of population)	24.8	26.3	23.9	22.7	24.6	25.4

Note: Population data is based on administrative data and refers to the estimated population at the end 2022 in Mongolia. Standard errors taking into account the survey design are shown in parentheses.
Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 3 Poverty indicators, by location, 2022

	National	Urban			Rural		
		Total	Ulaan-baatar	Aimag center	Total	Soum center	Countryside
Poverty headcount	27.1 (0.6)	23.0 (0.9)	21.6 (1.2)	26.1 (1.0)	35.5 (0.8)	30.6 (0.9)	41.2 (1.1)
Poverty gap	6.5 (0.2)	5.8 (0.3)	5.6 (0.4)	6.1 (0.3)	7.9 (0.2)	7.0 (0.3)	9.0 (0.3)
Poverty severity	2.3 (0.1)	2.1 (0.1)	2.1 (0.2)	2.1 (0.1)	2.6 (0.1)	2.4 (0.1)	2.9 (0.1)
Additional statistics:							
Population share (%)	100.0	67.0	46.9	20.1	33.0	17.6	15.4
Population ('000)	3 368.6	2 256.7	1 596.3	660.4	1 111.9	592.7	519.2
Share of poor (% of total poor)	100.0	56.8	37.4	19.4	43.2	19.8	23.4
Number of poor ('000)	913.7	518.6	341.7	176.9	395.1	181.4	213.7
Average household size	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.2	3.5
Average age of household head	48.6	48.8	48.8	48.7	48.4	49.7	46.8
Male-headed (% of households)	74.0	71.2	70.9	71.9	79.4	74.3	85.8
Children (% of population)	24.8	25.4	25.4	25.3	23.5	23.1	24.0

Note: Population data is based on administrative data and refers to the estimated population at the end 2022 in Mongolia. Standard errors taking into account the survey design are shown in parentheses. Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 4 Poverty indicators, by quarter, 2022

	National	I quarter	II quarter	III quarter	IV quarter
		(Jan-Mar, 2022)	(Apr-Jun, 2022)	(Jul-Sep, 2022)	(Oct-Dec, 2022)
Poverty headcount	27.1 (0.6)	25.9 (1.2)	27.7 (1.4)	27.0 (1.3)	28.0 (1.3)
Poverty gap	6.5 (0.2)	6.1 (0.4)	6.6 (0.4)	6.5 (0.4)	6.7 (0.5)
Poverty severity	2.3 (0.1)	2.1 (0.2)	2.3 (0.2)	2.3 (0.2)	2.5 (0.2)
Additional statistics:					
Population share (%)	100.0	25.7	25.3	24.9	24.1
Share of poor (% of total poor)	100.0	24.5	25.9	24.8	24.8
Average household size	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.4
Average age of household head	48.6	48.3	48.3	48.6	49.3
Male-headed (% of households)	74.0	75.2	73.7	73.5	73.6
Children (% of population)	24.8	24.9	25.3	24.8	24.0

Note: Standard errors taking into account the survey design are shown in parentheses. Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 5 Poverty indicators, by household size, 2022

	National	Household size							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8-above
Poverty headcount	27.1 (0.6)	14.1 (0.8)	14.0 (0.7)	19.2 (0.9)	22.5 (0.9)	28.4 (1.0)	39.9 (1.5)	49.2 (2.5)	54.6 (3.3)
Poverty gap	6.5 (0.2)	2.9 (0.2)	2.9 (0.2)	4.1 (0.3)	5.0 (0.3)	6.7 (0.3)	10.1 (0.5)	13.1 (1.0)	16.0 (1.2)
Poverty severity	2.3 (0.1)	1.0 (0.1)	0.9 (0.1)	1.4 (0.1)	1.7 (0.1)	2.3 (0.1)	3.7 (0.3)	5.0 (0.5)	6.3 (0.7)
Additional statistics:									
Population share (%)	100.0	4.3	11.8	14.7	23.4	21.9	14.9	5.2	3.7
Share of poor (% of total poor)	100.0	2.3	6.1	10.4	19.4	22.9	22.0	9.5	7.5
Average age of household head	48.6	57.5	57.2	47.2	42.3	42.0	43.1	46.2	48.3
Male-headed (% of households)	74.0	41.0	69.2	73.3	84.4	88.2	88.5	87.1	86.3
Children (% of population)	24.8	0.0	5.4	21.8	36.1	44.2	48.1	45.0	47.8

Note: Standard errors taking into account the survey design are shown in parentheses.
Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 6 Poverty indicators, by age of household head, 2022

	National	15 - 29	30 - 39	40 - 49	50 - 59	>=60
Poverty headcount	27.1 (0.6)	27.1 (1.5)	26.4 (0.9)	29.8 (1.0)	26.9 (1.1)	24.0 (1.0)
Poverty gap	6.5 (0.2)	6.6 (0.4)	5.9 (0.3)	7.4 (0.3)	6.7 (0.4)	5.6 (0.3)
Poverty severity	2.3 (0.1)	2.3 (0.2)	1.9 (0.1)	2.7 (0.2)	2.5 (0.2)	1.9 (0.2)
Additional statistics:						
Population share (%)	100.0	7.2	29.2	28.8	18.5	16.3
Share of poor (% of total poor)	100.0	7.2	28.5	31.6	18.3	14.4
Average household size	3.4	3.2	4.3	4.2	3.1	2.3
Average age of household head	48.6	26.1	34.7	44.4	54.5	68.7
Male-headed (% of households)	74.0	83.0	85.2	80.1	72.2	55.7
Children (% of population)	24.8	33.5	46.3	30.5	11.8	6.4

Note: Standard errors taking into account the survey design are shown in parentheses.
Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 7 Poverty indicators, by gender of the household head, 2022

	National		Urban		Rural	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Poverty headcount	31.3	26.1	28.8	21.3	39.6	34.9
	(1.1)	(0.7)	(1.4)	(0.9)	(1.5)	(0.8)
Poverty gap	8.3	6.0	7.9	5.2	9.8	7.6
	(0.4)	(0.2)	(0.5)	(0.3)	(0.5)	(0.2)
Poverty severity	3.1	2.1	3.0	1.9	3.5	2.5
	(0.2)	(0.1)	(0.3)	(0.1)	(0.3)	(0.1)
Additional statistics:						
Population share (%)	19.2	80.8	22.0	78.0	13.6	86.4
Share of poor (% of total poor)	22.2	77.8	27.7	72.3	15.1	84.9
Average household size	2.6	3.8	2.7	3.8	2.2	3.7
Average age of household head	55.1	46.4	54.4	46.5	57.1	46.1
Children (% of population)	18.8	26.8	20.2	27.5	15.2	25.6
Married, living together* (%)	18.6	93.9	19.7	94.2	15.2	93.4
Separated, divorced, widowed* (%)	71.4	4.0	71.0	4.1	73.1	3.8

Note: Standard errors taking into account the survey design are shown in parentheses.
* Estimates for the household head
Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 8 Poverty indicators, by the level of education attainment of household head, 2022

	National	None	Primary	Lower secondary	Higher secondary	Vocational	University or higher
Poverty headcount	27.1	56.1	48.4	40.9	32.6	21.7	6.3
	(0.6)	(1.6)	(1.5)	(1.0)	(1.2)	(1.1)	(0.5)
Poverty gap	6.5	13.6	11.4	10.0	8.2	4.9	1.1
	(0.2)	(0.5)	(0.5)	(0.4)	(0.5)	(0.3)	(0.1)
Poverty severity	2.3	4.6	3.9	3.5	3.1	1.6	0.3
	(0.1)	(0.2)	(0.3)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.1)	(0.0)
Additional statistics:							
Population share (%)	100.0	5.4	6.1	16.2	27.6	17.5	27.2
Share of poor (% of total poor)	100.0	11.2	10.9	24.4	33.3	14.0	6.3
Average household size	3.4	3.6	3.2	3.4	3.6	3.3	3.5
Average age of household head	48.6	49.7	55.5	51.1	47.0	52.1	44.5
Male-headed (% of households)	74.0	76.4	68.7	79.8	75.4	70.6	72.2
Children (% of population)	24.8	25.5	19.9	20.6	26.3	20.7	29.6

Note: Standard errors taking into account the survey design are shown in parentheses.
Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 9 Poverty indicators, by the sector of employment of household head, 2022

	National	Employed			Unemployed	Out of the labor force
		Total	Agriculture	Industry		
Poverty headcount	27.1 (0.6)	24.2 (0.7)	40.1 (1.1)	22.6 (1.2)	17.6 (0.8)	51.6 4.0 1.0
Poverty gap	6.5 (0.2)	5.5 (0.2)	8.8 (0.3)	5.4 (0.3)	3.9 (0.2)	13.8 1.5 0.4
Poverty severity	2.3 (0.1)	1.8 (0.1)	2.9 (0.1)	1.8 (0.2)	1.3 (0.1)	5.6 0.8 0.2
Additional statistics:						
Population share (%)	100.0	67.1	15.3	20.1	31.8	1.4 31.5
Share of poor (% of total poor)	100.0	59.9	22.5	16.8	20.6	2.7 37.5
Average household size	3.4	3.8	3.8	4.0	3.7	3.9 2.8
Average age of household head	48.6	42.1	44.2	40.5	42.1	41.5 59.1
Male-headed (% of households)	74.0	83.1	92.0	90.3	74.7	82.6 59.4
Children (% of population)	24.8	31.2	27.5	34.2	31.3	32.6 14.3

Note: Standard errors taking into account the survey design are shown in parentheses.
Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 10 Poverty indicators, by the employment status of household head, 2022

	National	Employed				Unemployed	Pensioner
		Herder	Private	Public	State		
Poverty headcount	27.1 (0.6)	40.9 (1.1)	20.9 (0.9)	18.3 (1.2)	15.9 (1.7)	51.6 (4.0)	32.3 (1.0)
Poverty gap	6.5 (0.2)	8.9 (0.3)	4.7 (0.3)	4.4 (0.4)	4.0 (0.6)	13.8 (1.5)	8.4 (0.4)
Poverty severity	2.3 (0.1)	2.9 (0.2)	1.5 (0.1)	1.6 (0.2)	1.5 (0.3)	5.6 (0.8)	3.1 (0.2)
Additional statistics:							
Population share (%)	100.0	14.0	35.6	11.9	5.6	1.4 31.5	
Share of poor (% of total poor)	100.0	21.1	27.4	8.0	3.3	2.7 37.5	
Average household size	3.4	3.8	3.9	3.7	3.9	3.9 2.8	
Average age of household head	48.6	44.3	41.5	41.8	41.2	41.5 59.1	
Male-headed (% of households)	74.0	91.9	82.1	74.4	85.9	82.6 59.4	
Children (% of population)	24.8	27.0	32.5	31.5	33.2	32.6 14.3	

Note: A pensioner refers to a household head who receive any pension or benefit from the state.
Standard errors taking into account the survey design are shown in parentheses.
Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 11 Livestock holdings, 2022

	Cattle		Horses		Camels		Sheeps		Goats		Bods	
	Holders (%)	Average number (in bod)	Holders (%)	Average number (in bod)	Holders (%)	Average number (in bod)	Holders (%)	Average number (in bod)	Holders (%)	Average number (in bod)	Holders (%)	Average number (in bod)
National	23.0	6.4	18.9	6.5	2.3	6.0	22.6	42.4	23.0	34.3	27.9	19.7
Urban	5.6	4.9	3.4	6.6	0.2	4.7	4.7	29.3	4.5	23.0	7.3	12.0
Rural	58.4	6.7	50.2	6.5	6.5	6.1	59.1	44.5	60.4	36.1	69.7	21.4
Ulaanbaatar	2.7	5.0	1.4	6.1	0.0	0.5	1.8	26.2	1.6	17.5	3.3	10.2
Aimag center	12.6	4.9	8.0	6.8	0.5	5.2	11.3	30.4	11.4	24.8	16.7	12.7
Soum center	40.0	4.7	28.5	4.7	2.7	5.3	37.6	22.6	38.9	20.7	50.7	11.5
Countryside	79.3	7.9	75.0	7.3	10.8	6.3	83.7	55.7	84.8	44.1	91.5	27.6
Western	54.3	3.9	46.0	3.7	7.8	3.2	52.9	29.2	56.5	29.5	64.7	13.7
Khangai	41.4	7.4	34.1	6.1	2.2	7.1	43.9	40.2	43.5	29.8	50.9	19.5
Central	26.5	6.2	21.0	8.6	4.0	10.8	26.1	56.2	26.5	51.6	34.5	24.0
Eastern	45.8	10.7	40.4	11.5	3.2	4.1	42.5	66.1	42.1	40.0	49.9	33.1
Non-poor	21.2	7.6	17.2	8.0	2.1	7.1	20.2	51.0	20.1	40.2	25.1	23.6
Poor	28.0	4.1	23.4	3.6	2.7	3.6	29.2	26.4	30.8	24.0	35.4	12.3

Note: The bod scale was used to estimate the size of the herd. These factors transform cattle, camels, sheep and goats into equivalent horses. One horse is assumed to have the same value as one cattle, 0.67 camels, 6 sheep or eight goats. Cattle includes cows and yaks. Average number of livestock (in bod) was based on households having this type of livestock
Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 12 Poverty indicators, by livestock ownership, 2022

	National		Urban		Rural	
	With livestock	Without livestock	With livestock	Without livestock	With livestock	Without livestock
Poverty headcount	34.4 (0.8)	24.3 (0.8)	26.1 (1.8)	22.7 (0.9)	36.1 (0.9)	34.2 (1.2)
Poverty gap	7.3 (0.2)	6.2 (0.3)	5.5 (0.5)	5.8 (0.3)	7.6 (0.3)	8.6 (0.4)
Poverty severity	2.3 (0.1)	2.3 (0.1)	1.8 (0.2)	2.2 (0.1)	2.4 (0.1)	3.1 (0.2)
Additional statistics:						
Population share (%)	27.9	72.1	7.3	92.7	69.7	30.3
Share of poor (% of total poor)	35.4	64.6	8.3	91.7	70.9	29.1
Average household size	3.7	3.4	3.9	3.5	3.6	2.9
Average age of household head	47.1	49.2	47.6	48.9	47.0	50.8
Male-headed (% of households)	86.1	69.7	82.8	70.4	86.8	66.1
Children (% of population)	25.3	24.6	27.1	25.3	24.9	20.9

Note: Standard errors taking into account the survey design are shown in parentheses.
Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 13 Poverty indicators, by ownership of land, 2022

	National		Urban		Rural	
	With land	Without land	With land	Without land	With land	Without land
Poverty headcount	26.8 (0.7)	27.5 (0.9)	24.3 (1.0)	21.5 (1.1)	31.0 (0.9)	43.3 (1.2)
Poverty gap	6.1 (0.2)	7.0 (0.3)	5.9 (0.3)	5.7 (0.4)	6.5 (0.3)	10.3 (0.4)
Poverty severity	2.1 (0.1)	2.5 (0.1)	2.1 (0.2)	2.2 (0.2)	2.1 (0.1)	3.5 (0.2)
Additional statistics:						
Population share (%)	56.3	43.7	52.8	47.2	63.4	36.6
Share of poor (% of total poor)	55.6	44.4	55.8	44.2	55.4	44.6
Average household size	3.6	3.2	3.7	3.3	3.6	3.1
Average age of household head	49.7	47.4	50.2	47.4	48.9	47.6
Male-headed (% of households)	78.6	68.7	76.1	66.3	82.6	74.6
Children (% of population)	24.4	25.1	24.8	26.0	23.9	22.9

Note: Standard errors taking into account the survey design are shown in parentheses.
Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 14 Poverty indicators, by possession of savings, 2022

	National		Urban		Rural	
	With savings	Without savings	With savings	Without savings	With savings	Without savings
Poverty headcount	20.0 (0.9)	31.6 (0.7)	15.5 (1.1)	28.1 (1.0)	30.7 (1.2)	38.1 (0.9)
Poverty gap	4.5 (0.3)	7.7 (0.3)	3.7 (0.3)	7.2 (0.4)	6.6 (0.3)	8.6 (0.3)
Poverty severity	1.5 (0.1)	2.8 (0.1)	1.3 (0.2)	2.7 (0.2)	2.1 (0.1)	2.9 (0.1)
Additional statistics:						
Population share (%)	38.6	61.4	40.5	59.5	34.7	65.3
Share of poor (% of total poor)	28.5	71.5	27.3	72.7	30.0	70.0
Average household size	3.9	3.2	3.9	3.3	4.0	3.1
Average age of household head	45.4	50.3	45.8	50.5	44.6	49.9
Male-headed (% of households)	79.7	71.1	77.2	67.8	85.6	76.8
Children (% of population)	32.1	21.0	31.7	21.8	32.9	19.6

Note: Standard errors taking into account the survey design are shown in parentheses.
Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 15 Poverty indicators, by type of loans, 2022

	National	Type of loans								No loan
		Any loan	Salary	Pension	Mortgage	Household consumption	Heders	Business	Automobile	
Poverty headcount	27.1 (0.6)	25.4 (0.7)	21.0 (0.9)	34.5 (1.6)	3.7 (0.7)	27.1 (2.1)	37.0 (1.2)	9.3 (1.4)	12.3 (1.8)	29.8 (0.9)
Poverty gap	6.5 (0.2)	5.8 (0.2)	4.7 (0.3)	8.8 (0.6)	0.5 (0.1)	6.5 (0.7)	7.7 (0.3)	1.8 (0.5)	1.6 (0.4)	7.5 (0.3)
Poverty severity	2.3 (0.1)	2.0 (0.1)	1.6 (0.1)	3.3 (0.3)	0.1 (0.0)	2.2 (0.3)	2.4 (0.1)	0.6 (0.3)	0.4 (0.2)	2.7 (0.1)
Additional statistics:										
Population share (%)	100.0	60.7	46.9	13.6	12.4	11.1	18.5	6.3	7.9	39.3
Share of poor (% of total poor)	100.0	56.9	38.7	18.4	1.8	11.8	27.0	2.3	3.8	43.1
Average household size	3.4	3.8	4.1	2.8	4.1	4.3	4.1	4.3	4.3	3.0
Average age of household head	48.6	46.0	42.6	61.2	40.9	43.8	44.5	46.1	41.9	51.8
Male-headed (% of households)	74.0	79.1	82.9	60.7	84.9	79.9	90.4	84.2	83.6	67.9
Children (% of population)	24.8	29.0	33.2	10.5	36.2	33.1	29.8	31.5	35.1	19.6

Note: Standard errors taking into account the survey design are shown in parentheses.
Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 16 Poverty indicators, by type of dwelling, 2022

	National				Urban				Rural			
	Ger	Apartment	House	Other	Ger	Apartment	House	Other	Ger	Apartment	House	Other
Poverty headcount	51.9 (0.8)	2.6 (0.4)	24.2 (0.9)	42.5 (5.3)	59.7 (1.4)	2.5 (0.4)	24.6 (1.2)	51.0 (7.1)	45.8 (1.0)	5.7 (1.4)	23.4 (1.1)	27.4 (4.0)
Poverty gap	13.7 (0.4)	0.4 (0.1)	4.7 (0.2)	10.4 (1.6)	17.6 (0.7)	0.3 (0.1)	4.9 (0.3)	12.6 (2.1)	10.8 (0.3)	0.6 (0.2)	4.4 (0.3)	6.3 (1.4)
Poverty severity	5.1 (0.2)	0.1 (0.0)	1.4 (0.1)	3.6 (0.7)	7.0 (0.4)	0.1 (0.0)	1.5 (0.1)	4.5 (0.9)	3.7 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	1.3 (0.1)	2.2 (0.6)
Additional statistics:												
Population share (%)	33.4	30.4	35.0	1.2	21.7	43.3	33.8	1.2	57.1	4.2	37.3	1.4
Share of poor (% of total poor)	63.9	3.0	31.2	1.9	56.4	4.7	36.2	2.6	73.7	0.7	24.6	1.0
Average household size	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.0	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.0	3.3	3.2	3.5	3.1
Average age of household head	48.0	47.3	50.4	49.1	48.6	47.4	50.7	50.7	47.6	45.8	50.0	46.2
Male-headed (% of households)	74.7	71.3	76.1	64.1	67.7	71.1	74.3	58.0	79.9	75.5	79.3	75.3
Children (% of population)	24.4	26.4	23.7	22.1	25.8	26.4	24.0	22.0	23.4	26.5	23.4	22.2

Note: Other includes student residences, company dormitoris and any other building designed not to be inhabited by households. Standard errors taking into account the survey design are shown in parentheses. Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 17 Poverty indicators, by access to basic services, 2022

	a/ Improved water sources		b/ Improved sanitation		Electricity		All three	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Poverty headcount	25.5 (0.7)	41.0 (1.4)	3.7 (0.4)	38.9 (0.7)	27.1 (0.6)	72.7 (8.2)	3.6 (0.4)	38.9 (0.7)
Poverty gap	6.2 (0.2)	9.0 (0.4)	0.6 (0.1)	9.5 (0.3)	6.5 (0.2)	20.6 (4.8)	0.6 (0.1)	9.5 (0.3)
Poverty severity	2.2 (0.1)	2.9 (0.2)	0.1 (0.0)	3.4 (0.1)	2.3 (0.1)	8.8 (2.8)	0.1 (0.0)	3.4 (0.1)
Additional statistics:								
Population share (%)	89.7	10.3	33.4	66.6	99.9	0.1	33.3	66.7
Share of poor (% of total poor)	84.4	15.6	4.5	95.5	99.8	0.2	4.5	95.5
Average household size	3.4	3.5	3.4	3.5	3.4	2.8	3.4	3.5
Average age of household head	48.7	47.9	47.5	49.2	48.6	50.7	47.5	49.2
Male-headed (% of households)	72.9	84.0	72.0	75.0	74.0	67.3	72.0	75.0
Children (% of population)	24.9	23.4	26.3	24.0	24.8	13.2	26.3	24.0

a/ Improved water sources: Households use a centralized water system connected to water supply pipelines, tube wells, boreholes, protected wells, protected springs, portable water service, or bottled water.

b/ Improved sanitation: Households use toilets connected to sewer systems, bio toilets, septic tanks, or boreholes (suction).

Standard errors taking into account the survey design are shown in parentheses.

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 18 Poverty indicators, by type of infrastructure services, urban and rural, 2022

	a/ Improved water sources				b/ Improved sanitation			
	Urban		Rural		Urban		Rural	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Poverty headcount	22.8	31.4	32.9	42.2	3.4	40.3	7.9	37.2
	(0.9)	(5.2)	(0.8)	(1.4)	(0.4)	(1.1)	(1.4)	(0.8)
Poverty gap	5.7	8.5	7.5	9.1	0.5	10.4	0.9	8.3
	(0.3)	(2.0)	(0.3)	(0.4)	(0.1)	(0.4)	(0.2)	(0.2)
Poverty severity	2.1	3.2	2.5	2.8	0.1	3.9	0.2	2.8
	(0.1)	(0.8)	(0.1)	(0.2)	(0.0)	(0.2)	(0.1)	(0.1)
Additional statistics:								
Population share (%)	98.4	1.6	72.0	28.0	47.0	53.0	5.6	94.4
Share of poor (% of total poor)	97.8	2.2	66.7	33.3	7.0	93.0	1.3	98.7
Average household size	3.5	3.0	3.3	3.6	3.4	3.5	3.3	3.4
Average age of household head	48.7	52.6	48.8	47.2	47.6	49.9	46.1	48.5
Male-headed (% of households)	71.1	75.2	77.3	85.3	71.8	70.7	75.6	79.6
Children (% of population)	25.5	18.0	23.3	24.2	26.2	24.6	26.9	23.3
	Electricity				All three			
	Urban		Rural		Urban		Rural	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Poverty headcount	23.0	90.7	35.5	70.0	3.4	40.3	7.5	37.2
	(0.9)	(10.0)	(0.8)	(9.4)	(0.4)	(1.1)	(1.3)	(0.8)
Poverty gap	5.8	31.2	7.9	19.0	0.5	10.4	0.9	8.3
	(0.3)	(13.6)	(0.2)	(5.0)	(0.1)	(0.4)	(0.2)	(0.2)
Poverty severity	2.1	15.4	2.6	7.9	0.1	3.9	0.2	2.8
	(0.1)	(8.2)	(0.1)	(2.8)	(0.0)	(0.2)	(0.1)	(0.1)
Additional statistics:								
Population share (%)	100.0	0.0	99.8	0.2	47.0	53.0	5.6	94.4
Share of poor (% of total poor)	99.9	0.1	99.6	0.4	7.0	93.0	1.2	98.8
Average household size	3.5	3.7	3.4	2.7	3.4	3.5	3.3	3.4
Average age of household head	48.8	42.0	48.4	51.7	47.6	49.9	46.0	48.5
Male-headed (% of households)	71.2	37.1	79.4	70.6	71.7	70.7	75.9	79.6
Children (% of population)	25.4	43.6	23.5	9.9	26.2	24.6	27.0	23.3

a/ Improved water sources: Households use a centralized water system connected to water supply pipelines, tube wells, boreholes, protected wells, protected springs, portable water service, or bottled water.

b/ Improved sanitation: Households use toilets connected to sewer systems, bio toilets, septic tanks, or boreholes (suction).

Standard errors taking into account the survey design are shown in parentheses.

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 19 Transfers and remittances received by households, 2022

	Received transfer		Among recipients		
	% of households	% of population	Average transfer per household (Togrog per month)	Share of consumption (%)	Share of total transfers (%)
Total	92.8	96.0	541 149	42.8	100.0
Social protection pension and allowances	91.7	95.4	484 962	39.5	88.6
Social insurance fund					
Pension	36.9	29.2	621 665	56.2	45.7
Disability pension	5.1	5.3	373 379	31.6	3.8
Survivor's benefit for children	1.1	1.2	350 208	27.1	0.8
Temporary incapacity benefits	0.5	0.5	202 784	13.9	0.2
Maternity benefits	2.0	2.8	208 083	10.9	0.8
Unemployment benefit	0.3	0.4	126 430	6.5	0.1
Other	2.5	2.0	115 826	8.7	0.6
Social welfare fund					
Disability pension	5.6	6.5	278 172	26.4	3.1
Social Welfare Pension	1.1	1.2	254 725	24.0	0.6
Maternity and Childcare benefit	14.4	21.1	40 244	2.7	1.1
Caregiver's allowance	2.9	3.4	88 285	7.0	0.5
Food Support Program	2.9	4.3	52 636	5.1	0.3
Child Money Program	59.8	77.6	208 148	13.7	24.8
Pregnancy and Mother Hero benefit	21.4	25.0	10 776	1.0	0.5
Other	41.0	38.7	70 092	5.2	5.7
Gifts and remittance	13.9	11.7	412 573	25.1	11.4
From family and friends	13.2	10.9	397 052	24.9	10.4
From other sources	0.9	1.0	561 117	22.3	1.0
From abroad	1.7	1.5	650 417	30.6	2.2
From within the country	12.4	10.4	372 901	23.9	9.2

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 20 Poverty indicators, by receipt of private and public transfers, 2022

	Private				Public			
	Urban		Rural		Urban		Rural	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Poverty headcount	15.9	24.1	27.8	36.1	23.6	10.1	36.5	16.6
	(1.2)	(1.0)	(2.0)	(0.8)	(0.9)	(1.4)	(0.8)	(1.5)
Poverty gap	3.9	6.1	6.1	8.1	5.9	2.2	8.1	3.7
	(0.4)	(0.3)	(0.6)	(0.2)	(0.3)	(0.4)	(0.2)	(0.4)
Poverty severity	1.4	2.2	2.0	2.7	2.2	0.8	2.7	1.1
	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.2)	(0.1)	(0.2)
Additional statistics:								
Population share (%)	13.8	86.2	7.3	92.7	95.7	4.3	94.9	5.1
Share of poor (% of total poor)	9.6	90.4	5.7	94.3	98.1	1.9	97.6	2.4
Average household size	2.9	3.6	2.8	3.4	3.6	2.0	3.5	1.8
Average age of household head	51.9	48.2	49.7	48.2	49.2	44.1	48.9	43.5
Male-headed (% of households)	54.1	74.6	67.8	80.5	71.1	72.1	78.6	87.4
Children (% of population)	20.8	26.3	19.0	23.9	27.4	1.5	25.7	2.0

Note: Standard errors taking into account the survey design are shown in parentheses.
Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 22 Per adult equivalent monthly average consumption by main consumption categories and by poverty status in urban and rural areas

	Total		Urban		Rural	
	Non-Poor	Poor	Non-Poor	Poor	Non-Poor	Poor
Average consumption (2022 MNT)						
Food	218 038	130 445	221 359	120 558	209 985	143 423
Alcohol and tobacco	6 098	4 248	4 019	2 385	11 141	6 693
Clothing and footwear	63 958	33 421	58 377	27 483	77 492	41 215
Education	25 601	5 826	29 017	5 935	17 319	5 682
Health	31 021	11 156	32 655	12 908	27 058	8 856
Transport	62 814	18 856	59 753	15 739	70 237	22 947
Communication	24 803	10 870	27 397	12 274	18 515	9 026
Fuel, energy, and utilities	34 655	19 957	39 731	26 331	22 347	11 589
Personal care	33 919	17 005	36 186	18 115	28 420	15 549
Household equipment, maintenance, and services	25 588	9 357	25 667	8 929	25 396	9 919
Recreation	14 318	6 410	16 007	6 944	10 222	5 708
Durable goods	104 486	26 029	115 029	24 270	78 925	28 337
Housing repair materials	136 471	23 636	175 247	30 351	42 450	14 821
Insurance and other services	2 693	811	2 669	585	2 749	1 108
Total	784 463	318 026	843 112	312 807	642 255	324 875
Consumption share (%)						
Food	27.5	41.9	25.7	39.3	33.1	45.1
Alcohol and tobacco	0.9	1.4	0.5	0.8	1.8	2.1
Clothing and footwear	7.8	10.1	6.6	8.4	11.4	12.1
Education	2.5	1.4	2.7	1.5	1.9	1.3
Health	4.5	4.0	4.3	4.7	5.0	3.3
Transport	7.6	5.3	6.7	4.5	10.4	6.1
Communication	3.1	3.4	3.2	3.9	2.9	2.9
Fuel, energy, and utilities	4.9	7.0	5.2	9.4	4.1	4.0
Personal care	4.2	5.2	4.1	5.7	4.2	4.7
Household equipment, maintenance, and services	3.2	3.0	3.0	2.9	3.8	3.1
Recreation	1.7	1.9	1.8	2.1	1.5	1.6
Durable goods	12.6	7.9	12.8	7.4	12.0	8.5
Housing repair materials	19.2	7.3	23.1	9.4	7.5	4.8
Insurance and other services	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 23 Per adult equivalent monthly average consumption by consumption category, poverty status, and location

	Total		Ulaanbaatar		Aimag center		Soum center		Countryside	
	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor
Average consumption (2022 MNT)										
Food	218,038	130,445	224,864	114,975	212,687	131,342	204,676	139,810	217,131	146,490
Alcohol and tobacco	6,098	4,248	3,976	2,155	4,125	2,830	9,796	6,471	12,950	6,882
Clothing and footwear	63,958	33,421	54,246	24,069	68,599	34,078	76,802	37,373	78,420	44,476
Education	25,601	5,826	33,440	6,017	18,072	5,775	16,663	5,966	18,203	5,441
Health	31,021	11,156	34,397	14,248	28,343	10,321	29,830	9,773	23,327	8,079
Transport	62,814	18,856	60,286	16,184	58,433	14,879	62,526	15,988	80,617	28,853
Communication	24,803	10,870	29,167	13,241	23,016	10,406	20,922	9,789	15,274	8,379
Fuel, energy, and utilities	34,655	19,957	40,377	26,778	38,131	25,469	30,579	17,780	11,266	6,335
Personal care	33,919	17,005	36,662	17,950	35,009	18,433	30,876	16,207	25,113	14,990
Household equipment, maintenance, and services	25,588	9,357	25,530	8,562	26,006	9,638	27,856	9,609	22,085	10,183
Recreation	14,318	6,410	16,586	7,248	14,572	6,357	10,603	5,855	9,709	5,583
Durable goods	104,486	26,029	123,117	24,153	95,011	24,496	86,077	27,219	69,296	29,285
Housing repair materials	136,471	23,636	198,600	32,669	117,457	25,872	58,725	20,258	20,541	10,208
Insurance and other services	2,693	811	3,153	629	1,472	501	1,680	633	4,188	1,511
Total	784,463	318,026	884,402	308,879	740,933	320,396	667,612	322,730	608,121	326,696
Consumption share (%)										
Food	27.5	41.9	24.7	38.1	28.7	41.5	31.0	44.3	36.2	45.9
Alcohol and tobacco	0.9	1.4	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.9	1.6	2.0	2.2	2.1
Clothing and footwear	7.8	10.1	5.8	7.4	8.7	10.2	10.9	11.0	12.1	13.2
Education	2.5	1.4	3.0	1.5	1.8	1.4	1.8	1.4	2.1	1.2
Health	4.5	4.0	4.3	5.1	4.3	3.7	5.3	3.8	4.5	2.8
Transport	7.6	5.3	6.4	4.7	7.4	4.1	8.8	4.2	13.0	8.0
Communication	3.1	3.4	3.2	4.3	3.0	3.3	3.1	3.1	2.5	2.7
Fuel, energy, and utilities	4.9	7.0	5.0	9.8	5.7	8.8	5.2	6.1	2.3	2.0
Personal care	4.2	5.2	4.0	5.7	4.6	5.6	4.4	4.8	3.9	4.6
Household equipment, maintenance, and services	3.2	3.0	2.9	2.8	3.4	3.1	4.0	3.0	3.7	3.2
Recreation	1.7	1.9	1.8	2.3	1.8	1.8	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.6
Durable goods	12.6	7.9	13.0	7.3	12.3	7.4	12.4	8.0	11.5	8.9
Housing repair materials	19.2	7.3	25.1	10.1	17.5	8.0	9.8	6.5	4.0	3.3
Insurance and other services	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 24 Per adult equivalent monthly average consumption by consumption category, poverty status, and region

	Total		Western		Khangai		Central		Eastern		Ulaanbaatar	
	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor
Average consumption (2022 MNT)												
Food	218,038	130,445	205,027	140,185	210,162	140,340	214,714	138,765	215,966	138,465	224,864	114,975
Alcohol and tobacco	6,098	4,248	8,225	5,184	8,328	6,200	7,411	4,660	10,228	5,631	3,976	2,155
Clothing and footwear	63,958	33,421	78,658	43,031	74,107	39,194	69,330	35,702	75,277	35,529	54,246	24,069
Education	25,601	5,826	20,486	7,801	19,331	5,460	16,083	4,417	11,568	4,133	33,440	6,017
Health	31,021	11,156	23,725	7,551	30,239	11,219	28,707	9,722	24,937	7,459	34,397	14,248
Transport	62,814	18,856	62,029	21,233	63,825	20,295	67,284	20,821	71,128	18,758	60,286	16,184
Communication	24,803	10,870	18,028	8,574	19,166	8,887	23,086	10,999	21,190	10,286	29,167	13,241
Fuel, energy, and utilities	34,655	19,957	29,449	18,144	27,280	12,652	32,431	19,582	22,916	13,899	40,377	26,778
Personal care	33,919	17,005	27,482	15,716	31,701	16,042	32,113	17,521	33,974	17,248	36,662	17,950
Household equipment, maintenance, and services	25,588	9,357	25,164	11,307	25,959	8,749	25,120	9,419	27,022	10,207	25,530	8,562
Recreation	14,318	6,410	9,232	5,406	13,017	5,376	13,406	6,921	11,049	6,712	16,586	7,248
Durable goods	104,486	26,029	72,443	25,097	89,988	28,936	90,912	27,965	84,790	25,578	123,117	24,153
Housing repair materials	136,471	23,636	50,645	17,165	78,077	16,103	87,387	22,649	67,777	19,078	198,600	32,669
Insurance and other services	2,693	811	2,109	661	2,211	1,409	1,952	606	3,151	693	3,153	629
Total	784,463	318,026	632,702	327,055	693,391	320,862	709,934	329,749	680,973	313,676	884,402	308,879
Consumption share (%)												
Food	27.5	41.9	33.0	43.5	30.9	44.7	30.1	43.1	31.7	44.8	24.7	38.1
Alcohol and tobacco	0.9	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.2	1.9	1.1	1.6	1.7	2.0	0.5	0.7
Clothing and footwear	7.8	10.1	12.0	12.7	10.2	11.6	9.2	10.5	10.4	11.1	5.8	7.4
Education	2.5	1.4	2.5	2.0	2.1	1.2	1.6	1.1	1.3	0.9	3.0	1.5
Health	4.5	4.0	4.3	2.7	5.1	4.1	4.7	3.5	4.1	2.8	4.3	5.1
Transport	7.6	5.3	9.2	5.7	8.7	5.6	9.1	5.5	10.0	5.2	6.4	4.7
Communication	3.1	3.4	2.9	2.7	2.7	2.8	3.2	3.3	3.1	3.3	3.2	4.3
Fuel, energy, and utilities	4.9	7.0	5.1	6.3	4.5	4.4	5.2	6.4	3.9	4.9	5.0	9.8
Personal care	4.2	5.2	4.3	4.9	4.4	4.8	4.3	5.1	4.7	5.3	4.0	5.7
Household equipment, maintenance, and services	3.2	3.0	3.9	3.5	3.7	2.8	3.3	3.0	4.0	3.5	2.9	2.8
Recreation	1.7	1.9	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.7	2.0	1.5	2.0	1.8	2.3
Durable goods	12.6	7.9	11.1	7.6	12.4	8.8	12.5	8.1	12.0	7.7	13.0	7.3
Housing repair materials	19.2	7.3	8.8	5.3	12.2	5.5	13.6	6.6	11.3	6.1	25.1	10.1
Insurance and other services	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 27 Poverty statistics by characteristics of the household head and urban and rural area

	Poverty headcount (%)			Share of population (%)			Share of poor (%)		
	National	Urban	Rural	National	Urban	Rural	National	Urban	Rural
Total	27.1	23.0	35.5	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Gender									
Male	26.1	21.3	34.9	80.8	78.0	86.4	77.8	72.3	84.9
Female	31.3	28.8	39.6	19.2	22.0	13.6	22.2	27.7	15.1
Age									
15-29	27.1	20.1	39.3	7.2	6.8	7.9	7.2	6.0	8.8
30-39	26.4	21.3	37.0	29.2	29.4	28.8	28.5	27.3	30.0
40-49	29.8	25.1	38.6	28.8	28.1	30.2	31.6	30.7	32.9
50-59	26.9	24.6	31.3	18.5	18.3	18.9	18.3	19.6	16.6
60+	24.0	21.8	29.3	16.3	17.3	14.2	14.4	16.4	11.7
Educational attainment									
None	56.1	55.5	56.3	5.4	2.2	12.1	11.2	5.2	19.1
Primary	48.4	50.9	47.3	6.1	2.8	12.9	10.9	6.2	17.2
Lower secondary	40.9	42.0	39.9	16.2	10.8	27.1	24.4	19.7	30.5
Higher secondary	32.6	32.9	32.0	27.6	30.0	22.9	33.3	42.9	20.7
Vocational	21.7	21.3	22.8	17.5	20.3	11.7	14.0	18.9	7.5
University or higher	6.3	4.9	13.5	27.2	34.0	13.3	6.3	7.2	5.0
Employment									
Labor force participation									
Employed	24.2	18.7	34.7	67.1	65.8	69.8	59.9	53.5	68.2
Unemployed	51.6	47.5	60.1	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Out of the labor force	32.3	30.5	36.3	31.5	32.8	28.8	37.5	43.6	29.4
Among those employed,									
Economic activity									
Agriculture	40.1	36.5	40.5	15.3	2.5	41.2	22.5	4.0	46.9
Industry	22.6	21.2	30.2	20.1	25.3	9.5	16.8	23.4	8.1
Services	17.6	15.8	24.6	31.8	38.0	19.1	20.6	26.2	13.2
Sector of employment									
Herders	40.9	39.6	41.0	14.0	1.8	38.7	21.1	3.1	44.7
Private	20.9	19.1	30.9	35.6	44.8	17.0	27.4	37.1	14.8
Public	18.3	16.5	22.3	11.9	12.2	11.2	8.0	8.8	7.0
State-owned enterprise	15.9	14.7	21.6	5.6	7.0	2.9	3.3	4.5	1.8

(*) - The number of observations is less than 2% of the total sample
Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 28 Poverty profile by characteristics of the dwelling and urban and rural area

	Poverty headcount (%)			Share of population (%)			Share of poor (%)		
	National	Urban	Rural	National	Urban	Rural	National	Urban	Rural
Total	27.1	23.0	35.5	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Dwelling									
Ger	51.9	59.7	45.8	33.4	21.7	57.1	63.9	56.4	73.7
Apartment	2.6	2.5	5.7	30.4	43.3	4.2	(*)	4.7	(*)
House	24.2	24.6	23.4	35.0	33.8	37.3	31.2	36.2	24.6
Other 1/	42.5	51.0	27.4	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	2.6	(*)
Improved water source 2/									
No	41.0	31.4	42.2	10.3	1.6	28.0	15.6	2.2	33.3
Yes	25.5	22.8	32.9	89.7	98.4	72.0	84.4	97.8	66.7
Improved sanitation 3/									
No	38.9	40.3	37.2	66.6	53.0	94.4	95.5	93.0	98.7
Yes	3.7	3.4	7.9	33.4	47.0	5.6	4.5	7.0	1.3
Heating									
Centralized	3.8	3.5	8.1	32.4	45.4	5.8	4.5	7.0	(*)
Electricity	13.4	13.1	16.6	(*)	3.6	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Improved stove	24.2	26.6	12.5	7.4	10.0	2.2	9.3	15.6	(*)
Traditional stove	43.1	47.8	39.4	51.6	34.4	86.4	82.0	71.6	95.8
Other	12.6	13.5	10.2	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Electricity									
Central	24.8	22.8	31.4	86.4	99.2	60.4	78.9	98.5	53.3
Solar	42.1	45.2	42.0	13.3	(*)	38.9	20.7	1.4	46.0
Other	35.8	29.0	37.5	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)

1/ Other includes student residences, company dormitories and any other building designed not to be inhabited by households.

2/ Improved water sources: Households use a centralized water system connected to water supply pipelines, tube wells, boreholes, protected wells, protected springs, portable water service, or bottled water.

3/ Improved sanitation: Households use toilets connected to sewer systems, bio toilets, septic tanks, or boreholes (suction).

4/ Simple heating units fueled by firewood, coal or dung.

5/ Electric heating unit, private low pressure stove, others.

6/ Wind systems, small gen-sets, others.

(*) - The number of observations is less than 2% of the total sample

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 29 Poverty profile by dwelling characteristics and location

	Poverty headcount (%)				Share of population (%)				Share of poor (%)			
	Ulaanbaatar	Aimag center	Soum center	Country - side	Ulaanbaatar	Aimag center	Soum center	Country - side	Ulaanbaatar	Aimag center	Soum center	Country - side
Total	21.6	26.1	30.6	41.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Dwelling												
Ger	63.4	53.4	49.8	43.6	19.6	26.7	38.6	78.2	57.4	54.7	62.9	82.9
Apartment	2.2	3.5	6.1	0.0	49.0	30.0	7.3	(*)	5.1	4.0	(*)	(*)
House	24.8	24.3	19.9	33.5	30.6	41.4	52.1	20.5	35.1	38.5	33.9	16.7
Other 1/	62.4	38.9	26.8	29.4	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	2.8	(*)	(*)
Improved water source 2/												
No	39.0	29.5	33.7	43.7	(*)	4.3	8.1	50.8	(*)	4.9	8.9	53.9
Yes	21.6	26.0	30.3	38.5	99.5	95.7	91.9	49.2	99.2	95.1	91.1	46.1
Improved sanitation 3/												
No	41.7	37.9	33.1	41.5	48.0	64.6	90.4	98.9	92.6	93.7	97.7	99.7
Yes	3.1	4.6	7.5	12.3	52.0	35.4	9.6	1.1	7.4	6.3	2.3	0.3
Heating												
Centralized	3.1	5.0	8.1	8.3	49.9	35.0	10.2	(*)	7.1	6.7	(*)	(*)
Electricity	13.9	7.2	14.2	52.1	4.5	(*)	(*)	(*)	2.9	(*)	(*)	(*)
Improved stove	28.3	18.6	11.7	17.3	13.3	2.4	3.6	(*)	21.8	3.4	2.0	(*)
Traditional stove	53.3	41.5	36.6	41.9	26.0	54.2	77.2	96.8	64.0	86.1	92.3	98.7
Other	14.0	12.5	9.4	14.4	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Electricity												
Central	21.6	25.7	30.0	39.0	99.7	98.1	96.4	19.2	99.4	96.6	94.6	18.2
Solar	41.7	46.5	45.8	41.8	(*)	(*)	3.4	79.5	(*)	3.1	5.1	80.6
Other	0.0	36.4	55.8	35.6	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)

1/ Other includes student residences, company dormitories and any other building designed not to be inhabited by households.

2/ Improved water sources: Households use a centralized water system connected to water supply pipelines, tube wells, boreholes, protected wells, protected springs, portable water service, or bottled water.

3/ Improved sanitation: Households use toilets connected to sewer systems, bio toilets, septic tanks, or boreholes (suction).

4/ Simple heating units fueled by firewood, coal or dung.

5/ Electric heating unit, private low pressure stove, others.

6/ Wind systems, small gen-sets, others.

(*) - The number of observations is less than 2% of the total sample

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 30 Poverty profile by dwelling characteristics and region

	Poverty headcount (%)					Share of population (%)					Share of poor (%)				
	Western	Khangai	Central	Eastern	Ulaanbaatar	Western	Khangai	Central	Eastern	Ulaanbaatar	Western	Khangai	Central	Eastern	Ulaanbaatar
	36.5	33.4	24.6	35.3	21.6	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total Dwelling															
Ger	47.1	52.4	40.3	48.0	63.4	49.8	48.2	38.9	45.2	19.6	64.4	75.6	63.8	61.5	57.4
Apartment	2.8	0.5	5.2	7.8	2.2	5.7	12.5	22.8	14.4	49.0	(*)	(*)	4.9	(*)	5.1
House	28.9	20.2	20.0	29.3	24.8	43.7	38.5	35.8	37.2	30.6	34.6	23.3	29.2	30.9	35.1
Other 1/	25.8	40.1	21.3	50.3	62.4	(*)	(*)	2.4	3.1	(*)	(*)	(*)	2.1	4.5	(*)
Improved water source 2/															
No	41.9	47.5	28.7	31.4	39.0	29.0	21.5	12.2	8.5	(*)	33.3	30.4	14.2	7.6	(*)
Yes	34.2	29.6	24.0	35.7	21.6	71.0	78.5	87.8	91.5	99.5	66.7	69.6	85.8	92.4	99.2
Improved sanitation 3/															
No	39.3	38.6	31.6	40.9	41.7	92.0	85.9	72.2	82.0	48.0	99.1	99.2	93.0	94.9	92.6
Yes	4.3	1.9	6.2	10.1	3.1	8.0	14.1	27.8	18.0	52.0	0.9	0.8	7.0	5.1	7.4
Heating															
Centralized	4.3	1.6	6.6	11.8	3.1	7.8	13.9	27.7	18.6	49.9	(*)	(*)	7.5	6.2	7.1
Electricity	24.4	1.8	16.1	10.0	13.9	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	4.5	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	2.9
Improved stove	20.0	12.6	10.5	16.4	28.3	2.6	2.7	2.1	1.0	13.3	1.9	2.1	1.9	(*)	21.8
Traditional stove	42.1	41.3	33.9	43.1	53.3	79.8	78.0	64.3	74.7	26.0	92.2	96.5	88.6	91.1	64.0
Other	18.2	5.5	6.8	8.2	14.0	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Electricity															
Central	33.5	27.0	23.0	36.5	21.6	70.8	71.9	81.6	74.3	99.7	65.0	58.0	76.4	76.8	99.4
Solar	44.4	50.0	31.1	31.4	41.7	28.0	27.8	18.1	25.5	(*)	34.0	41.6	23.0	22.7	(*)
Other	27.2	47.3	47.8	89.9	0.0	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)

1/ Other includes student residences, company dormitories and any other building designed not to be inhabited by households.

2/ Improved water sources: Households use a centralized water system connected to water supply pipelines, tube wells, boreholes, protected wells, protected springs, portable water service, or bottled water.

3/ Improved sanitation: Households use toilets connected to sewer systems, bio toilets, septic tanks, or boreholes (suction).

4/ Simple heating units fueled by firewood, coal or dung.

5/ Electric heating unit, private low pressure stove, others.

6/ Wind systems, small gen-sets, others.

(*) - The number of observations is less than 2% of the total sample

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 31 Highest educational attainment of the population 18 years and older (%)

	None	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Vocational	University or higher	Total
National	4.3	4.9	13.5	30.4	16.7	30.3	100.0
Location							
Urban	2.1	2.4	9.1	31.5	18.4	36.6	100.0
Rural	8.9	9.9	22.6	28.0	13.0	17.6	100.0
Province							
Ulaanbaatar	1.1	1.4	7.8	31.6	18.9	39.3	100.0
Aimag center	4.4	4.7	12.1	31.2	17.4	30.2	100.0
Soum center	5.7	6.8	17.8	28.0	16.0	25.7	100.0
Countryside	12.7	13.5	28.2	28.1	9.5	8.0	100.0
Region							
Western	10.5	10.0	16.0	26.8	13.2	23.5	100.0
Khangai	8.6	8.3	19.4	29.7	12.9	21.2	100.0
Central	2.7	6.1	17.6	32.0	17.6	24.1	100.0
Eastern	7.5	7.2	23.9	26.4	15.9	19.2	100.0
Gender							
Male	5.2	5.3	16.2	31.1	17.2	25.1	100.0
Female	3.5	4.5	11.2	29.7	16.2	34.8	100.0
Consumption quintile							
Poorest	9.4	9.0	22.0	37.2	14.4	8.1	100.0
II	7.0	7.4	18.5	33.8	17.2	16.1	100.0
III	4.1	5.2	14.3	32.5	17.9	26.1	100.0
IV	1.9	3.0	10.3	29.4	17.9	37.5	100.0
Wealthiest	0.5	1.0	4.9	20.9	15.7	57.0	100.0
Poverty							
Non-poor	2.8	3.6	11.0	28.4	17.3	36.9	100.0
Poor	9.2	8.7	21.3	36.5	14.8	9.5	100.0

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 32 Characteristics of population 18 years and older by education attainment (%)

	None	Primary	Lower secondary	Higher secondary	Vocational	University	Total
National	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Location							
Urban	31.8	32.9	44.9	69.5	74.2	80.9	67.0
Rural	68.2	67.1	55.1	30.5	25.8	19.2	33.0
Province							
Ulaanbaatar	11.5	13.9	27.2	49.2	53.4	61.1	47.2
Aimag center	20.3	19.0	17.7	20.4	20.8	19.8	19.8
Soum center	23.5	25.1	23.5	16.5	17.2	15.2	17.9
Countryside	44.7	42.1	31.7	14.0	8.6	4.0	15.2
Region							
Western	31.3	26.4	15.2	11.4	10.2	10.0	12.9
Khangai	36.1	30.8	26.1	17.7	14.0	12.7	18.1
Central	9.3	18.9	19.5	15.8	15.8	11.9	15.0
Eastern	11.8	10.0	12.0	5.9	6.5	4.3	6.8
Gender							
Male	56.1	50.4	55.6	47.6	48.0	38.5	46.5
Female	43.9	49.7	44.4	52.4	52.0	61.5	53.5
Consumption quintile							
Poorest	38.0	32.2	28.5	21.4	15.1	4.6	17.5
II	30.9	29.2	26.3	21.4	19.8	10.2	19.2
III	19.2	21.4	21.4	21.7	21.8	17.4	20.2
IV	9.2	12.8	15.9	20.2	22.4	25.8	20.8
Wealthiest	2.8	4.4	8.1	15.4	21.0	42.0	22.3
Poverty							
Non-poor	48.5	56.6	62.0	70.9	78.5	92.4	75.8
Poor	51.5	43.4	38.0	29.1	21.5	7.6	24.2

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 33 Primary, lower secondary, and upper secondary enrollment rates (%)

	Net enrollment rates								
	Primary			Lower secondary			Upper secondary		
	Total	Non-poor	Poor	Total	Non-poor	Poor	Total	Non-poor	Poor
National	90.8	91.7	88.9	87.2	88.1	85.4	75.2	79.9	66.5
Location									
Urban	91.4	92.1	89.3	88.1	89.1	85.3	76.7	81.5	65.5
Rural	89.6	90.6	88.3	85.6	85.6	85.6	72.4	76.1	67.8
Ulaanbaatar	91.6	92.3	89.4	87.9	89.1	84.2	76.4	81.0	63.9
Aimag center	90.9	91.6	89.3	88.6	89.1	87.3	77.4	82.8	68.0
Soum center	90.9	91.5	89.9	86.7	85.7	88.8	77.0	82.1	70.0
Countryside	88.1	89.3	86.8	84.4	85.5	83.1	68.2	70.2	65.9
Western	88.2	90.5	84.9	86.9	87.9	85.3	71.2	78.0	63.3
Khangai	91.6	92.6	89.9	87.8	87.4	88.5	78.3	80.5	75.2
Central	90.1	90.3	89.4	83.6	84.6	81.2	73.2	78.2	63.3
Eastern	90.3	89.8	91.1	90.2	90.3	90.0	72.0	76.5	66.6
Gender									
Male	90.3	91.6	87.4	86.5	86.8	85.8	70.8	76.4	60.5
Female	91.4	91.8	90.5	88.1	89.5	85.1	79.8	83.5	72.9
	Gross enrollment rates								
	Primary			Lower secondary			Upper secondary		
	Total	Non-poor	Poor	Total	Non-poor	Poor	Total	Non-poor	Poor
National	95.5	96.0	94.2	94.4	94.5	94.2	93.5	99.2	82.9
Location									
Urban	95.8	96.2	94.9	95.0	95.4	93.7	95.0	100.2	82.7
Rural	94.7	95.7	93.3	93.3	92.4	94.8	90.8	96.9	83.1
Ulaanbaatar	96.3	96.7	95.3	94.6	95.2	92.9	95.4	99.4	84.5
Aimag center	94.7	94.8	94.2	95.8	96.1	95.3	94.2	102.4	80.0
Soum center	94.9	95.3	94.3	93.5	91.4	97.6	98.6	109.3	84.1
Countryside	94.5	96.3	92.5	93.1	93.5	92.7	83.7	84.8	82.3
Western	94.7	97.2	91.2	97.4	96.7	98.6	86.2	94.3	76.8
Khangai	94.9	95.9	93.1	93.6	93.1	94.6	94.7	99.8	87.6
Central	94.3	93.6	96.1	90.8	91.7	88.8	100.7	108.3	85.8
Eastern	94.9	94.7	95.1	96.9	95.9	98.5	81.7	86.7	75.9
Gender									
Male	95.1	96.6	91.8	93.6	93.2	94.5	88.8	95.8	75.8
Female	95.9	95.5	97.0	95.3	96.0	93.9	98.5	102.9	90.4

Note: The net enrollment rate for a particular level is defined as the ratio of the number of students in the relevant age group attending that level with respect to the number of children in the relevant age group for that level. The gross enrollment rate for a certain level is the ratio of the number of students attending that level irrespective of their age with respect to the total number of children in the relevant age group for that level.

The age group for primary age children aged 6 to 10, while for lower secondary are those aged 11 to 14 and higher secondary are those aged 15 to 17.

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 34 Population reporting health complaints by location and region, 2022

	Location				Region						
	National	Urban	Rural	Ulaan- baatar	Aimag center	Soum center	Country - side	Western	Khangaï	Central	Eastern
Complaints in the Last 30 Days (% of Population)	8.1	9.4	5.6	9.8	8.3	6.5	4.7	7.7	5.1	5.2	11.7
Type of health complaint (% of people with complaints) a/											
Diseases of the cardiovascular system	14.7	12.4	22.4	11.8	14.2	22.5	22.2	14.6	24.7	16.1	18.7
Diseases of the respiratory system	33.6	36.9	22.4	39.5	29.7	23.1	21.3	18.2	21.2	29.8	37.0
Diseases of the digestive system	9.4	9.4	9.7	9.5	8.9	9.9	9.3	8.8	8.9	7.9	11.6
Diseases of genitourinary system	3.8	3.5	5.0	3.1	4.4	4.7	5.5	5.0	6.5	3.6	3.5
Diseases of nervous system and sense organs	8.8	7.7	12.6	7.0	9.7	12.8	12.3	12.8	12.1	10.6	8.8
Injury, poisoning and certain other consequences of external causes	5.7	5.6	6.0	5.4	6.0	5.9	6.1	6.7	5.8	4.7	6.7
Diseases of musculoskeletal system and connective tissue	6.1	5.8	6.8	5.2	7.6	7.5	5.7	5.4	7.1	10.7	6.3
Pregnancy, childbirth and the puerperium	1.4	1.1	2.3	(*)	1.8	(*)	(*)	3.0	(*)	(*)	(*)
Cancer	1.6	1.6	1.6	(*)	1.6	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Preventive	3.2	2.7	4.8	2.2	4.0	5.1	4.5	8.2	(*)	(*)	6.7
Other /Tooth/	5.1	5.3	4.6	4.9	6.2	5.1	3.9	5.0	7.5	4.4	4.4
Sought treatment (% of people with complaints)	85.3	85.5	84.5	86.4	83.2	86.9	80.7	71.2	86.6	89.0	91.8
Treatment location (% of people who sought treatment)											
Central clinic and specialized hospital	16.7	18.0	12.3	21.0	9.2	13.0	11.2	9.2	12.3	13.2	8.8
Aimag/district clinic	31.4	33.8	23.5	25.9	56.4	20.8	28.0	46.0	37.9	39.7	32.4
Soum, inter-soum and family clinic	41.1	36.5	56.8	40.8	24.1	59.1	52.9	34.3	40.0	37.9	53.3
Private	10.4	11.3	7.3	11.9	9.5	7.0	7.9	10.3	9.5	8.4	5.1
Abroad	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Other	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Did not seek treatment (% of people with complaints)	14.7	14.5	15.5	13.6	16.8	13.1	19.3	28.8	13.4	11.0	8.2
Reasons for not seeking treatment											
Not serious enough	52.2	54.5	44.9	57.9	46.9	47.2	42.5	41.9	54.7	49.9	41.9
Health facility too far	29.2	27.0	36.0	26.0	29.4	33.5	38.7	44.4	14.7	18.9	32.5
No transportation	18.6	18.5	19.1	16.1	23.7	19.3	18.8	13.7	30.6	31.2	25.6

a/ Combines up to two responses.

(*) - sample size is less than 29

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 35 Population reporting health complaints by urban and rural areas and poverty status, 2022

	National		Urban		Rural	
	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor
Complaints in the Last 30 Days (% of Population)	9.2	5.3	10.3	6.2	6.5	4.1
Type of health complaint (% of people with complaints) a/						
Diseases of the cardiovascular system	15.1	12.9	13.2	8.0	22.3	22.5
Diseases of the respiratory system	34.4	30.0	37.1	35.7	23.6	18.8
Diseases of the digestive system	9.5	8.9	9.3	9.8	10.5	7.2
Diseases of genitourinary system	3.9	3.5	3.5	(*)	5.5	(*)
Diseases of nervous system and sense organs	8.5	10.4	7.5	9.2	12.5	12.7
Injury, poisoning and certain other consequences of external causes	5.8	4.9	5.7	4.6	6.2	5.5
Diseases of musculoskeletal system and connective tissue	6.1	5.7	5.8	5.7	7.2	(*)
Pregnancy, childbirth and the puerperium	1.2	(*)	1.0	(*)	2.1	(*)
Cancer	1.6	(*)	1.5	(*)	1.8	(*)
Preventive	3.1	3.2	2.6	2.7	5.1	(*)
Other /Tooth/	5.0	5.8	5.1	6.4	4.6	(*)
Sought treatment (% of people with complaints)	85.9	82.4	85.8	84.0	86.4	79.2
Treatment location (% of people who sought treatment)						
Central clinic and specialized hospital	17.4	13.4	18.2	16.7	14.2	6.4
Aimag/district clinic	30.6	35.7	32.6	40.2	22.6	26.3
Soum, inter-soum and family clinic	40.3	44.9	36.4	37.1	55.4	61.4
Private	11.3	5.9	12.2	6.0	7.8	(*)
Abroad	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Other	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Did not seek treatment (% of people with complaints)	14.1	17.6	14.2	16.0	13.6	20.8
Reasons for not seeking treatment						
Not serious enough	53.2	48.6	56.0	47.3	42.0	50.5
Treated myself	30.2	25.4	28.2	21.2	38.1	32.0
Other	16.6	26.0	15.8	31.5	19.9	17.5
Other	16.6	26.0	15.8	31.5	19.9	17.5

a/ Combines up to two responses.

(*) - sample size is less than 29

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 36 Population reporting health complaints by gender and poverty status, 2022

	National		Male		Female	
	Male	Female	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor
Complaints in the Last 30 Days (% of Population)	7.1	9.2	8.1	4.4	10.3	6.1
Type of health complaint (% of people with complaints) a/						
Diseases of the cardiovascular system	13.1	15.8	14.0	8.7	15.9	15.7
Diseases of the respiratory system	36.9	31.2	38.1	31.1	31.6	29.3
Diseases of the digestive system	9.0	9.7	9.0	9.1	9.9	8.9
Diseases of genitourinary system	3.0	4.5	3.1	(*)	4.5	4.2
Diseases of nervous system and sense organs	8.3	9.2	7.0	14.6	9.6	7.5
Injury, poisoning and certain other consequences of external causes	7.1	4.6	7.5	5.2	4.6	4.7
Diseases of musculoskeletal system and connective tissue	5.7	6.3	5.9	(*)	6.3	6.4
Pregnancy, childbirth and the puerperium	(*)	2.4	(*)	(*)	2.1	(*)
Cancer	(*)	2.0	(*)	(*)	2.0	(*)
Preventive	2.8	3.4	2.8	(*)	3.4	3.5
Other /Tooth/	5.2	5.1	5.1	5.5	4.9	6.1
Sought treatment (% of people with complaints)						
	85.0	85.5	86.0	80.1	85.9	83.9
Treatment location (% of people who sought treatment)						
Central clinic and specialized hospital	17.1	16.4	17.2	16.3	17.5	11.6
Aimag/district clinic	31.6	31.3	31.0	34.9	30.3	36.2
Soum, inter-soum and family clinic	41.7	40.6	41.2	44.6	39.7	45.1
Private	9.4	11.1	10.4	(*)	12.0	6.9
Abroad	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Other	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Did not seek treatment (% of people with complaints)						
	15.0	14.5	14.0	19.9	14.1	16.1
Reasons for not seeking treatment						
Not serious enough	46.6	56.4	46.5	46.7	58.0	50.1
Treated myself	30.4	28.3	32.3	23.6	28.6	26.9
Other	23.0	15.3	21.1	29.6	13.3	23.0
Other	23.0	15.3	21.1	29.6	13.3	23.0

a/ Combines up to two responses.

(*) - sample size is less than 29

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 37 Disabilities among population aged 18 and older (%)

	National	Urban	Rural	Location				Region			
				Ulaan-baatar	Aimag center	Soum center	Country - side	Western	Khangai	Central	Eastern
Any disability	6.2	6.3	6.2	6.6	5.5	7.0	5.1	6.9	5.1	5.3	7.5
Type of disability											
Vision	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.9	1.5	2.2	1.2	1.4	2.5
Hearing	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.3	1.7	1.3	1.9	1.3	1.2	1.7
Mobility	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.2	2.7	3.6	2.2	3.2	2.5	2.6	3.5
Cognitive	1.2	1.3	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.1	0.8
Self-care	1.0	1.1	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9
Communication	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	1.1	0.6

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 38 Disabilities among population aged 18 and older by urban and rural areas and poverty status

	National		Urban		Rural	
	Nonpoor	Poor	Nonpoor	Poor	Nonpoor	Poor
Any disability	5.8	7.7	5.7	8.4	5.9	6.9
Type of disability						
Vision	1.6	2.0	1.6	2.1	1.6	2.0
Hearing	1.3	2.1	1.4	2.1	1.3	2.1
Mobility	2.9	3.2	2.9	3.4	3.0	2.9
Cognitive	1.1	1.8	1.2	1.9	0.8	1.8
Self-care	1.0	1.3	1.0	1.4	0.8	1.0
Communication	0.8	1.4	0.8	1.5	0.7	1.4

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 39 Disabilities among population aged 18 and older by gender and poverty status

	National		Male		Female	
	Male	Female	Nonpoor	Poor	Nonpoor	Poor
Any disability	6.7	5.9	6.2	8.2	5.4	7.4
Type of disability						
Vision	1.8	1.6	1.7	2.2	1.5	1.9
Hearing	1.6	1.4	1.5	2.1	1.2	2.1
Mobility	2.9	3.1	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.3
Cognitive	1.5	1.0	1.3	2.0	0.8	1.7
Self-care	1.2	0.9	1.1	1.4	0.8	1.1
Communication	1.1	0.8	1.0	1.3	0.5	1.5

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 40 Employment status among population aged 15 and older (%)

	% of population by employment status				% of employment status			
	Employed	Unemployed	Out of the labor force	Total	Employed	Unemployed	Out of the labor force	Total
National	51.4	1.4	47.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Location								
Urban	49.4	1.5	49.1	100.0	64.2	68.6	69.6	66.8
Rural	55.4	1.3	43.3	100.0	35.8	31.4	30.4	33.2
Ulaanbaatar	49.6	1.2	49.2	100.0	45.3	40.3	49.0	46.9
Aimag center	49.1	2.0	48.9	100.0	19.0	28.2	20.6	19.9
Soum center	47.1	1.9	51.0	100.0	16.3	24.3	19.2	17.8
Countryside	65.0	0.7	34.4	100.0	19.5	7.2	11.2	15.4
Western	51.1	1.9	46.9	100.0	13.0	17.9	13.0	13.1
Khangai	55.1	1.2	43.7	100.0	19.6	14.8	16.9	18.2
Central	49.3	1.9	48.9	100.0	14.3	19.6	15.4	14.9
Eastern	59.1	1.5	39.4	100.0	7.9	7.4	5.7	6.8
Consumption quintiles								
Poorest	42.4	2.6	55.0	100.0	14.9	33.3	21.0	18.1
II	48.8	1.9	49.3	100.0	18.4	26.5	20.2	19.3
III	50.8	1.1	48.1	100.0	20.0	15.8	20.6	20.2
IV	54.3	1.1	44.6	100.0	21.8	16.2	19.5	20.7
Wealthiest	59.0	0.5	40.5	100.0	24.9	8.3	18.6	21.7
Poverty								
Non-poor	53.9	1.0	45.1	100.0	78.8	53.7	71.8	75.1
Poor	43.8	2.6	53.6	100.0	21.2	46.4	28.3	24.9
Gender								
Male	58.4	2.0	39.7	100.0	53.2	64.5	39.4	46.8
Female	45.3	0.9	53.8	100.0	46.9	35.5	60.6	53.2
Age group								
15-24	22.0	2.1	75.9	100.0	7.9	27.3	29.5	18.4
25-34	72.1	2.1	25.8	100.0	27.6	29.7	10.8	19.7
35-44	74.6	1.6	23.8	100.0	30.8	24.2	10.7	21.2
45-54	71.9	1.2	26.9	100.0	24.2	14.5	9.9	17.3
55-64	31.0	(*)	68.6	100.0	8.4	(*)	20.2	13.9
65+	6.3	(*)	93.7	100.0	1.2	(*)	18.9	9.5
Educational attainment								
None	46.5	1.2	52.3	100.0	3.7	3.3	4.5	4.1
Primary	42.5	1.4	56.1	100.0	4.1	4.8	5.9	5.0
Lower secondary	37.2	1.0	61.7	100.0	13.3	13.4	24.0	18.4
Upper secondary	45.5	1.5	53.0	100.0	25.4	31.0	32.1	28.6
Vocational	51.6	1.8	46.7	100.0	15.7	19.8	15.5	15.6
University or higher	68.7	1.4	29.9	100.0	37.8	27.6	18.0	28.3

Note: Estimated for 15 and older aged population
 (*) - sample size is less than 29
 Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 41 Labor force participation rate and unemployment rate among population aged 15 and older by poverty status

	Labor force participation rate		Unemployment rate	
	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor	Poor
National	54.9	46.5	1.8	5.7
Location				
Urban	53.6	40.6	2.0	7.0
Rural	58.0	54.1	1.5	4.3
Province				
Ulaanbaatar	53.4	40.0	1.8	5.6
Aimag center	54.0	41.6	2.5	9.7
Soum center	51.8	42.0	2.2	9.1
Countryside	66.1	64.9	0.7	1.6
Region				
Western	55.7	47.9	2.5	6.3
Khangai	57.5	53.5	1.4	3.6
Central	52.4	46.8	2.3	8.8
Eastern	64.6	52.2	1.2	6.0
Gender				
Male	62.0	55.2	2.3	6.4
Female	48.7	38.7	1.3	4.7
Age group				
15-24	24.1	24.1	7.1	12.1
25-34	77.5	64.1	2.1	5.8
35-44	79.9	66.1	1.3	4.7
45-54	76.7	61.7	1.0	4.3
55-64	32.7	25.8	1.1	2.3
65+	6.7	4.5	0.0	5.2
Educational attainment				
None	47.4	47.9	1.4	3.4
Primary	41.8	46.5	1.6	4.8
Lower secondary	37.7	39.3	1.3	5.0
Upper secondary	48.0	44.8	2.4	5.5
Vocational	53.0	54.6	2.1	7.6
University or higher	70.8	60.7	1.6	7.1

Note: Estimated for 15 and older aged population
Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 42 Labor force participation rate and unemployment rate among population aged 15 and older by gender

	Labor force participation rate		Unemployment rate	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
National	60.3	46.2	3.2	2.0
Location				
Urban	59.2	43.9	3.5	2.1
Rural	62.4	51.2	2.7	1.9
Province				
Ulaanbaatar	59.7	43.3	3.1	1.6
Aimag center	57.9	45.3	4.5	3.4
Soum center	54.3	44.3	4.9	2.9
Countryside	71.1	59.9	1.0	1.0
Region				
Western	59.6	46.9	3.6	3.6
Khangai	62.0	51.1	2.4	1.6
Central	56.9	45.9	4.5	2.7
Eastern	68.2	53.8	2.9	2.1
Poverty				
Non-poor	62.0	48.7	2.3	1.3
Poor	55.2	38.7	6.4	4.7
Age group				
15-24	28.9	19.1	8.5	9.0
25-34	85.3	63.6	3.4	2.2
35-44	82.7	70.4	2.5	1.7
45-54	75.3	71.2	2.3	1.0
55-64	42.6	22.7	1.8	0.5
65+	8.7	4.9	1.4	0.0
Educational attainment				
None	57.1	35.6	2.3	2.6
Primary	57.9	29.5	3.3	2.6
Lower secondary	45.0	30.3	2.8	2.5
Upper secondary	55.6	39.3	4.1	2.1
Vocational	65.2	42.4	4.0	2.5
University or higher	78.0	65.1	2.3	1.7

Note: Estimated for 15 and older aged population
Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 43 Distribution of workers aged 15 and older by poverty status, urban and rural area, employment industry, sector, and occupation (% of workers)

	Urban			Rural			National		
	Non-poor	Poor	Total	Non-poor	Poor	Total	Non-poor	Poor	Total
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Industry									
Agriculture	2.5	6.8	3.2	50.6	68.5	56.0	17.7	38.5	22.1
Industry	29.2	37.4	30.6	11.4	9.1	10.7	23.6	22.8	23.4
Services	68.3	55.9	66.3	38.1	22.4	33.3	58.8	38.7	54.5
Sector									
Private	67.0	72.8	67.9	71.1	84.1	75.1	68.3	78.6	70.5
Public	24.1	20.0	23.4	24.4	13.5	21.1	24.2	16.7	22.6
State-owned enterprise	8.9	7.2	8.7	4.5	2.5	3.9	7.5	4.8	7.0
Occupation									
Managers, senior officials and legislators	10.7	(*)	9.2	4.6	(*)	3.4	8.8	0.8	7.1
Professionals	25.5	7.1	22.5	14.7	5.5	11.9	22.1	6.3	18.7
Technicians and associate professionals	4.2	1.6	3.8	2.4	0.8	1.9	3.6	1.2	3.1
Clerks	5.0	3.4	4.7	2.8	0.8	2.2	4.3	2.1	3.8
Service workers, shop and market salespeople	19.4	20.8	19.6	8.1	5.8	7.4	15.8	13.1	15.3
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	2.1	6.6	2.9	48.7	65.9	54.0	16.9	37.0	21.1
Craft and related trader workers	11.9	20.7	13.4	5.1	5.4	5.2	9.8	12.8	10.4
Plant and machine operators	11.7	10.0	11.5	5.8	3.1	5.0	9.9	6.5	9.2
Elementary occupations	8.4	27.9	11.5	7.3	11.7	8.6	8.0	19.6	10.5
Others	1.0	(*)	1.0	0.5	(*)	0.5	0.8	0.7	0.8
(*) - sample size is less than 29 Source: HSES 2022.									

Table B. 44 Poverty status among workers aged 15 and older by urban and rural area, employment industry, sector, and occupation (% of total)

	Urban			Rural			National		
	Non-poor	Poor	Total	Non-poor	Poor	Total	Non-poor	Poor	Total
Total employed population	83.9	16.1	100.0	69.5	30.5	100.0	78.8	21.2	100.0
Industry									
Agriculture	65.5	34.5	100.0	62.7	37.3	100.0	63.0	37.0	100.0
Industry	80.3	19.7	100.0	74.1	25.9	100.0	79.3	20.7	100.0
Services	86.4	13.6	100.0	79.5	20.5	100.0	84.9	15.1	100.0
Agriculture, herding	65.5	34.5	100.0	62.7	37.3	100.0	63.0	37.0	100.0
Mining	88.2	11.8	100.0	80.9	19.1	100.0	86.3	13.7	100.0
Manufacturing	78.9	21.1	100.0	72.3	27.7	100.0	78.0	22.0	100.0
Electricity, water	81.8	18.2	100.0	76.0	24.0	100.0	80.7	19.3	100.0
Construction	75.1	24.9	100.0	59.7	40.3	100.0	73.6	26.4	100.0
Trade	85.7	14.3	100.0	85.2	14.8	100.0	85.7	14.3	100.0
Hotels, restaurants, tourism	76.7	23.3	100.0	59.5	40.5	100.0	74.1	25.9	100.0
Transportation	89.1	10.9	100.0	80.9	19.1	100.0	87.9	12.1	100.0
Financial, insurance, real estate	96.7	(*)	100.0	84.4	(*)	100.0	94.4	5.6	100.0
Public administration	86.3	13.7	100.0	81.5	18.6	100.0	85.0	15.0	100.0
Education	86.9	13.1	100.0	80.2	19.8	100.0	84.5	15.5	100.0
Health	88.8	11.2	100.0	81.0	19.0	100.0	86.7	13.3	100.0
Other	84.9	15.1	100.0	70.4	29.6	100.0	82.6	17.4	100.0
Sector									
Private	82.8	17.3	100.0	65.9	34.1	100.0	76.3	23.7	100.0
Public	86.2	13.8	100.0	80.6	19.5	100.0	84.3	15.7	100.0
State-owned enterprise	86.7	13.3	100.0	80.6	19.5	100.0	85.4	14.6	100.0
Occupation									
Managers, senior officials and legislators	98.2	(*)	100.0	94.8	(*)	100.0	97.6	2.4	100.0
Professionals	94.9	5.1	100.0	86.0	14.1	100.0	92.9	7.1	100.0
Technicians and associate professionals	93.2	6.9	100.0	86.9	13.1	100.0	91.8	8.2	100.0
Clerks	88.4	11.6	100.0	88.7	11.3	100.0	88.4	11.6	100.0
Service workers, shop and market salespeople	83.0	17.0	100.0	76.0	24.0	100.0	81.8	18.2	100.0
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	63.0	37.1	100.0	62.8	37.2	100.0	62.8	37.2	100.0
Craft and related trader workers	75.0	25.0	100.0	68.4	31.6	100.0	73.9	26.1	100.0
Plant and machine operators	86.0	14.0	100.0	81.0	19.0	100.0	85.0	15.0	100.0
Elementary occupations	61.0	39.0	100.0	58.9	41.1	100.0	60.4	39.6	100.0
Others	84.9	(*)	100.0	72.2	(*)	100.0	82.2	17.8	100.0

(*) - sample size is less than 29
Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 45 Distribution of workers aged 15 and older by gender, urban and rural area, employment industry, sector, and occupation (% of workers)

	Urban			Rural			National		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Industry									
Agriculture	3.7	2.5	3.2	61.4	49.8	56.0	24.6	19.2	22.1
Industry	41.5	18.3	30.6	14.8	5.9	10.7	31.8	13.9	23.4
Services	54.8	79.2	66.3	23.8	44.4	33.3	43.6	66.9	54.5
Sector									
Private	73.0	62.3	67.9	82.1	66.9	75.1	76.3	63.9	70.5
Public	16.8	30.8	23.4	13.7	29.7	21.1	15.7	30.4	22.6
State-owned enterprise	10.2	6.9	8.7	4.3	3.4	3.9	8.0	5.7	7.0
Occupation									
Managers, senior officials and legislators	9.6	8.7	9.2	3.3	3.5	3.4	7.3	6.9	7.1
Professionals	15.7	30.1	22.5	5.4	19.4	11.9	12.0	26.3	18.7
Technicians and associate professionals	3.1	4.5	3.8	1.6	2.2	1.9	2.6	3.7	3.1
Clerks	2.1	7.7	4.7	1.2	3.3	2.2	1.8	6.2	3.8
Service workers, shop and market salespeople	13.4	26.7	19.6	4.1	11.2	7.4	10.0	21.2	15.3
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	3.2	2.5	2.9	58.5	48.7	54.0	23.2	18.8	21.1
Craft and related trader workers	20.1	5.8	13.4	7.4	2.6	5.2	15.5	4.7	10.4
Plant and machine operators	20.3	1.5	11.5	8.9	0.5	5.0	16.2	1.2	9.2
Elementary occupations	10.9	12.1	11.5	8.8	8.5	8.6	10.2	10.8	10.5
Others	1.6	(*)	1.0	0.7	(*)	0.5	1.3	(*)	0.8
(*) - sample size is less than 29 Source: HSES 2022.									

Table B. 46 Gender among workers aged 15 and older by urban and rural area, employment industry, sector, and occupation (% of total)

	Urban			Rural			National		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total employed population	52.8	47.2	100.0	53.7	46.3	100.0	53.2	46.9	100.0
Industry									
Agriculture	62.2	37.8	100.0	58.9	41.1	100.0	59.2	40.8	100.0
Industry	71.7	28.3	100.0	74.5	25.5	100.0	72.2	27.8	100.0
Services	43.7	56.3	100.0	38.4	61.6	100.0	42.5	57.5	100.0
Agriculture, herding	62.2	37.8	100.0	58.9	41.1	100.0	59.2	40.8	100.0
Mining	82.5	17.5	100.0	80.8	19.2	100.0	82.1	17.9	100.0
Manufacturing	54.3	45.7	100.0	53.1	46.9	100.0	54.1	45.9	100.0
Electricity, water	66.9	33.1	100.0	77.2	22.8	100.0	68.7	31.3	100.0
Construction	83.0	17.0	100.0	88.3	11.7	100.0	83.5	16.5	100.0
Trade	43.1	56.9	100.0	37.4	62.6	100.0	42.4	57.6	100.0
Hotels, restaurants, tourism	27.8	72.2	100.0	23.1	77.0	100.0	27.1	72.9	100.0
Transportation	80.8	19.2	100.0	79.4	20.7	100.0	80.6	19.4	100.0
Financial, insurance, real estate	36.8	63.2	100.0	27.5	72.6	100.0	35.0	65.0	100.0
Public administration	53.4	46.6	100.0	56.3	43.7	100.0	54.2	45.9	100.0
Education	23.9	76.1	100.0	22.5	77.5	100.0	23.4	76.6	100.0
Health	18.9	81.1	100.0	20.7	79.3	100.0	19.4	80.6	100.0
Other	51.9	48.1	100.0	56.3	43.7	100.0	52.6	47.4	100.0
Sector									
Private	56.8	43.2	100.0	58.8	41.3	100.0	57.5	42.5	100.0
Public	38.0	62.0	100.0	34.8	65.2	100.0	36.9	63.1	100.0
State-owned enterprise	62.2	37.8	100.0	58.9	41.1	100.0	61.5	38.5	100.0
Occupation									
Managers, senior officials and legislators	55.1	44.9	100.0	52.9	47.1	100.0	54.7	45.3	100.0
Professionals	36.9	63.1	100.0	24.5	75.5	100.0	34.1	65.9	100.0
Technicians and associate professionals	43.8	56.2	100.0	45.3	54.7	100.0	44.1	55.9	100.0
Clerks	23.4	76.7	100.0	30.3	69.7	100.0	24.8	75.2	100.0
Service workers, shop and market salespeople	36.0	64.0	100.0	30.0	70.0	100.0	35.0	65.0	100.0
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	59.4	40.6	100.0	58.2	41.8	100.0	58.3	41.7	100.0
Craft and related trader workers	79.4	20.6	100.0	76.5	23.6	100.0	78.9	21.2	100.0
Plant and machine operators	93.7	6.3	100.0	95.8	4.3	100.0	94.1	5.9	100.0
Elementary occupations	50.3	49.8	100.0	54.5	45.5	100.0	51.5	48.5	100.0
Others	85.3	(*)	100.0	81.1	(*)	100.0	84.4	(*)	100.0
(*) - sample size is less than 29 Source: HSES 2022.									

Table B. 47 Average Loan amount in last 12 months by loan type (thousand tugrug)

	Average total loan amount	Average loan amount by type of loan*						
		Salary	Pension	Mortgage	Herder	Business	Automobile	Other
National	10 555	9 182	3 679	53 198	8 404	29 628	17 282	5 735
Location								
Urban	12 267	9 812	3 804	56 906	9 681	33 882	17 396	5 786
Rural	8 231	7 762	3 515	20 274	8 268	21 166	15 751	5 557
Ulaanbaatar	13 180	10 451	3 752	69 222	(*)	40 536	17 550	5 585
Aimag center	11 031	9 054	3 863	38 861	10 202	29 357	16 698	6 197
Soum center	7 963	7 714	3 488	(*)	7 121	22 360	17 795	5 451
Countryside	8 554	8 075	3 583	(*)	8 697	(*)	(*)	5 796
Western	9 003	7 400	3 857	25 736	6 890	25 053	(*)	5 773
Khangai	9 313	9 416	3 616	43 160	7 445	26 367	14 885	6 712
Central	9 191	8 289	3 664	(*)	10 058	24 131	16 539	5 718
Eastern	9 591	8 031	3 434	(*)	11 054	28 773	13 347	4 545
Consumption quintiles								
Poorest	4 772	5 053	3 136	(*)	6 225	(*)	(*)	2 753
II	6 687	6 192	3 384	(*)	7 367	13 347	13 481	3 910
III	8 468	7 849	3 335	35 714	8 642	15 518	12 573	5 687
IV	11 142	9 363	3 968	49 603	9 675	27 530	16 119	6 030
Wealthiest	19 182	12 465	4 823	71 460	12 973	42 712	22 877	8 693
Poverty								
Non-poor	12 018	9 746	3 851	55 984	9 223	31 454	18 088	6 500
Poor	5 235	5 391	3 183	(*)	6 539	8 590	10 675	2 863

*- Estimated only households with particular loan.

(*) - sample size is less than 29

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 48 Purposes of paid loans in last 12 months

	Household consumption	Purchase of a car	Running a private business	Purchase of land	Purchase of durable goods	Building and buying an accommodation	Sending to other household members	Other
National	69.0	15.3	6.0	0.6	7.7	16.7	0.9	10.5
Location								
Urban	63.7	17.6	6.7	0.6	10.1	21.7	1.0	9.6
Rural	78.6	11.2	4.8	0.6	3.3	7.7	0.7	12.0
Ulaanbaatar	59.3	20.5	5.6	(*)	12.1	23.2	(*)	8.2
Aimag center	71.6	12.5	8.8	0.6	6.6	18.9	0.8	12.1
Soum center	79.2	10.0	6.8	(*)	3.2	8.5	(*)	11.7
Countryside	77.8	12.7	2.0	(*)	3.5	6.5	(*)	12.4
Western	77.4	9.3	8.8	(*)	3.2	10.2	(*)	18.3
Khangai	78.8	11.1	6.0	(*)	3.5	12.3	(*)	9.7
Central	73.4	12.0	5.3	(*)	5.7	12.2	(*)	11.1
Eastern	71.5	15.8	5.8	(*)	7.2	14.3	(*)	10.2
Consumption quintiles								
Poorest	83.4	6.3	1.7	(*)	7.1	4.8	(*)	9.7
II	76.9	12.4	3.4	(*)	6.4	8.8	(*)	10.6
III	74.0	15.4	5.5	(*)	6.8	12.0	(*)	10.9
IV	65.6	17.9	7.0	(*)	8.7	21.6	(*)	10.7
Wealthiest	52.6	20.9	10.5	(*)	9.0	29.9	1.1	10.3
Poverty								
Non-poor	65.4	17.4	7.1	0.5	7.9	19.8	1.0	10.7
Poor	82.0	7.9	2.2	(*)	7.1	5.5	(*)	9.7

Note: Note: include households who repayed loans in the last 12 months. The HSES asked households to select up to 3 purposes of loan usage so that the sum of percentage shares can exceed 100.

(*) - sample size is less than 29

Source: HSES 2022.

Table B. 49 Durable goods ownership at household

	Computer	Smart phone	Refrigerator	Washing machine	Electric generator set	Television	Motorcycle	Truck, large truck	Car
National	16.6	91.5	90.2	80.9	13.2	95.3	14.6	10.7	48.7
Location									
Urban	21.9	95.4	96.5	89.7	1.1	97.2	2.2	4.6	51.6
Rural	6.3	83.8	77.8	63.8	36.8	91.6	38.8	22.7	43.1
Ulaanbaatar	25.1	96.4	97.6	91.2	(*)	97.9	1.0	3.6	53.2
Aimag center	14.7	93.2	94.2	86.3	2.3	95.7	4.9	6.8	48.2
Soum center	9.4	87.1	89.1	81.6	6.4	92.6	20.2	13.9	44.0
Countryside	2.5	79.6	63.5	41.5	75.0	90.3	62.2	33.7	41.8
Western	10.0	88.6	80.3	65.6	28.7	92.0	32.3	17.1	45.1
Khangai	9.3	86.0	81.8	69.7	26.4	93.6	28.8	15.5	43.3
Central	9.0	88.1	89.2	80.4	16.8	93.8	18.9	16.3	47.5
Eastern	10.3	87.0	83.3	71.4	25.1	92.1	25.4	20.3	43.4
Poverty									
Non-poor	20.7	93.4	93.2	85.2	11.2	96.6	12.8	10.9	56.5
Poor	2.6	84.9	79.6	66.0	19.8	90.8	20.8	10.1	21.9

(*) - sample size is less than 29

Source: HSES 2022.

ANNEX C.

STANDARD ERRORS AND CONFIDENCE INTERVALS OF POVERTY ESTIMATES

Table C. 1 Poverty indicators by urban and rural areas

	Estimation	Standard error	[95% confidence interval]		Obs.
			Lower	Upper	
Poverty headcount					
National	27.1	0.6	25.9	28.4	22 995
Urban	23.0	0.9	21.2	24.7	12 265
Rural	35.5	0.8	34.0	37.0	10 730
Poverty gap					
National	6.5	0.2	6.1	6.9	22 995
Urban	5.8	0.3	5.2	6.4	12 265
Rural	7.9	0.2	7.5	8.4	10 730
Poverty severity					
National	2.3	0.1	2.1	2.5	22 995
Urban	2.1	0.1	1.9	2.4	12 265
Rural	2.6	0.1	2.4	2.8	10 730

Notes: Standard errors and confidence intervals were calculated taking into account the survey design i.e. stratification, primary sampling units and population weights.
Sources: HSES 2022.

Table C. 2 Poverty indicators by location

	Estimation	Standard error	[95% confidence interval]		Obs.
			Lower	Upper	
Poverty headcount					
Ulaanbaatar	21.6	1.2	19.3	24.0	4 677
Aimag center	26.1	1.0	24.2	28.0	7 588
Soum center	30.6	0.9	28.8	32.4	5 927
Countryside	41.2	1.1	39.0	43.3	4 803
Poverty gap					
Ulaanbaatar	5.6	0.4	4.9	6.4	4 677
Aimag center	6.1	0.3	5.5	6.7	7 588
Soum center	7.0	0.3	6.4	7.5	5 927
Countryside	9.0	0.3	8.3	9.6	4 803
Poverty severity					
Ulaanbaatar	2.1	0.2	1.8	2.5	4 677
Aimag center	2.1	0.1	1.8	2.3	7 588
Soum center	2.4	0.1	2.1	2.6	5 927
Countryside	2.9	0.1	2.6	3.2	4 803

Notes: Poverty measures were calculated taking into account the survey design i.e. strata, primary sampling units and population weights.
Sources: HSES 2022.

Table C. 3 Poverty indicators by region

	Estimation	Standard error	[95% confidence interval]		Obs.
			Lower	Upper	
Poverty headcount					
Western	36.5	1.2	34.2	38.8	4 616
Khangai	33.4	1.1	31.3	35.6	5 816
Central	24.6	1.0	22.6	26.6	5 174
Eastern	35.3	1.5	32.3	38.3	2 712
Ulaanbaatar	21.6	1.2	19.3	24.0	4 677
Poverty gap					
Western	7.9	0.3	7.3	8.6	4 616
Khangai	7.8	0.3	7.1	8.4	5 816
Central	5.2	0.3	4.6	5.7	5 174
Eastern	8.8	0.5	7.7	9.9	2 712
Ulaanbaatar	5.6	0.4	4.9	6.4	4 677
Poverty severity					
Western	2.6	0.1	2.3	2.8	4 616
Khangai	2.6	0.1	2.3	2.9	5 816
Central	1.7	0.1	1.4	1.9	5 174
Eastern	3.2	0.3	2.6	3.7	2 712
Ulaanbaatar	2.1	0.2	1.8	2.5	4 677

Notes: Poverty measures were calculated taking into account the survey design i.e. strata, primary sampling units and population weights.
Sources: HSES 2022.

Table C. 4 Poverty indicators by quarter

	Estimation	Standard error	[95% confidence interval]		Obs.
			Lower	Upper	
Poverty headcount					
Jan - Mar	25.9	1.2	23.4	28.3	5 924
Apr - Jun	27.7	1.4	25.1	30.4	5 739
Jul - Sep	27.0	1.3	24.4	29.6	5 691
Oct - Dec	28.0	1.3	25.4	30.6	5 641
Poverty gap					
Jan - Mar	6.1	0.4	5.3	6.8	5 924
Apr - Jun	6.6	0.4	5.8	7.4	5 739
Jul - Sep	6.5	0.4	5.7	7.4	5 691
Oct - Dec	6.7	0.5	5.8	7.7	5 641
Poverty severity					
Jan - Mar	2.1	0.2	1.8	2.5	5 924
Apr - Jun	2.3	0.2	2.0	2.7	5 739
Jul - Sep	2.3	0.2	1.9	2.7	5 691
Oct - Dec	2.5	0.2	2.0	2.9	5 641

Notes: Poverty measures were calculated taking into account the survey design i.e. strata, primary sampling units and population weights.
Sources: HSES 2022.

Table C. 5 Poverty indicators by household head's age group

	Estimation	Standard error	[95% confidence interval]		Obs.
			Lower	Upper	
Poverty headcount					
<30	27.1	1.5	24.2	30.0	1 772
30-39	26.4	0.9	24.6	28.2	5 394
40-49	29.8	1.0	27.9	31.7	5 458
50-59	26.9	1.1	24.8	29.0	4 940
60+	24.0	1.0	21.9	26.0	5 431
Poverty gap					
<30	6.6	0.4	5.7	7.4	1 772
30-39	5.9	0.3	5.4	6.4	5 394
40-49	7.4	0.3	6.8	8.1	5 458
50-59	6.7	0.4	6.0	7.5	4 940
60+	5.6	0.3	4.9	6.2	5 431
Poverty severity					
<30	2.3	0.2	1.9	2.7	1 772
30-39	1.9	0.1	1.7	2.1	5 394
40-49	2.7	0.2	2.4	3.1	5 458
50-59	2.5	0.2	2.1	2.9	4 940
60+	1.9	0.2	1.6	2.3	5 431

Notes: Poverty measures were calculated taking into account the survey design i.e. strata, primary sampling units and population weights.
Sources: HSES 2022.

Table C. 6 Poverty indicators by gender of the household head

	Estimation	Standard error	[95% confidence interval]		Obs.
			Lower	Upper	
National					
Poverty headcount					
Male	26.1	0.7	24.8	27.4	17 272
Female	31.3	1.1	29.1	33.6	5 723
Poverty gap					
Male	6.0	0.2	5.6	6.5	17 272
Female	8.3	0.4	7.5	9.2	5 723
Poverty severity					
Male	2.1	0.1	1.9	2.3	17 272
Female	3.1	0.2	2.7	3.6	5 723
Urban, rural					
Poverty headcount					
Urban: Male	21.3	0.9	19.5	23.1	8 728
Rural: Male	34.9	0.8	33.3	36.5	8 544
Urban: Female	28.8	1.4	26.1	31.6	3 537
Rural: Female	39.6	1.5	36.6	42.6	2 186
Poverty gap					
Urban: Male	5.2	0.3	4.6	5.8	8 728
Rural: Male	7.6	0.2	7.2	8.1	8 544
Urban: Female	7.9	0.5	6.8	8.9	3 537
Rural: Female	9.8	0.5	8.8	10.9	2 186
Poverty severity					
Urban: Male	1.9	0.1	1.6	2.1	8 728
Rural: Male	2.5	0.1	2.3	2.7	8 544
Urban: Female	3.0	0.3	2.5	3.6	3 537
Rural: Female	3.5	0.3	3.0	4.0	2 186

Notes: Poverty measures were calculated taking into account the survey design i.e. strata, primary sampling units and population weights.
Sources: HSES 2022.

Table C. 7 Poverty indicators by household head's education attainment level

	Estimation	Standard error	[95% confidence interval]		Obs.
			Lower	Upper	
Poverty headcount					
None	56.1	1.6	53.0	59.2	1 640
Primary	48.4	1.5	45.5	51.4	2 097
Lower secondary	40.9	1.0	38.8	42.9	4 514
Higher secondary	32.6	1.2	30.3	34.9	5 812
Vocational	21.7	1.1	19.5	23.8	3 847
University or higher	6.3	0.5	5.3	7.2	5 085
Poverty gap					
None	13.6	0.5	12.6	14.6	1 640
Primary	11.4	0.5	10.3	12.4	2 097
Lower secondary	10.0	0.4	9.3	10.8	4 514
Higher secondary	8.2	0.5	7.4	9.1	5 812
Vocational	4.9	0.3	4.2	5.6	3 847
University or higher	1.1	0.1	0.9	1.3	5 085
Poverty severity					
None	4.6	0.2	4.2	5.1	1 640
Primary	3.9	0.3	3.4	4.4	2 097
Lower secondary	3.5	0.2	3.2	3.9	4 514
Higher secondary	3.1	0.2	2.6	3.6	5 812
Vocational	1.6	0.1	1.3	1.9	3 847
University or higher	0.3	0.0	0.2	0.4	5 085

Notes: Poverty measures were calculated taking into account the survey design i.e. strata, primary sampling units and population weights.
Sources: HSES 2022.

Table C. 8 Poverty indicators by possession of savings

	Estimation	Standard error	[95% confidence interval]		Obs.
			Lower	Upper	
National					
Poverty headcount					
without saving	31.6	0.7	30.2	33.0	15 736
with saving	20.0	0.9	18.3	21.7	7 259
Poverty gap					
without saving	7.7	0.3	7.2	8.2	15 736
with saving	4.5	0.3	4.0	5.0	7 259
Poverty severity					
without saving	2.8	0.1	2.5	3.0	15 736
with saving	1.5	0.1	1.3	1.8	7 259
Urban, rural					
Poverty headcount					
Urban: without saving	28.1	1.0	26.1	30.1	8 200
Rural: without saving	38.1	0.9	36.3	39.8	7 536
Urban: with saving	15.5	1.1	13.3	17.7	4 065
Rural: with saving	30.7	1.2	28.5	33.0	3 194
Poverty gap					
Urban: without saving	7.2	0.4	6.5	7.9	8 200
Rural: without saving	8.6	0.3	8.1	9.2	7 536
Urban: with saving	3.7	0.3	3.0	4.3	4 065
Rural: with saving	6.6	0.3	5.9	7.3	3 194
Poverty severity					
Urban: without saving	2.7	0.2	2.3	3.0	8 200
Rural: without saving	2.9	0.1	2.6	3.1	7 536
Urban: with saving	1.3	0.2	1.0	1.6	4 065
Rural: with saving	2.1	0.1	1.8	2.4	3 194
Notes: Poverty measures were calculated taking into account the survey design i.e. strata, primary sampling units and population weights. Sources: HSES 2022.					

Table C. 9 Poverty indicators by loan status

	Estimation	Standard error	[95% confidence interval]		Obs.
			Lower	Upper	
National					
Poverty headcount					
without any loan	29.8	0.9	28.1	31.5	9 681
with loan	25.4	0.7	24.0	26.8	13 314
Poverty gap					
without any loan	7.5	0.3	6.9	8.1	9 681
with loan	5.8	0.2	5.4	6.3	13 314
Poverty severity					
without any loan	2.7	0.1	2.4	3.0	9 681
with loan	2.0	0.1	1.8	2.2	13 314
Urban, rural					
Poverty headcount					
Urban: without any loan	25.3	1.2	23.0	27.5	5 260
Rural: without any loan	39.9	1.1	37.7	42.1	4 421
Urban: with loan	21.4	1.0	19.5	23.4	7 005
Rural: with loan	33.0	0.9	31.2	34.8	6 309
Poverty gap					
Urban: without any loan	6.6	0.4	5.8	7.4	5 260
Rural: without any loan	9.6	0.4	8.9	10.3	4 421
Urban: with loan	5.2	0.3	4.6	5.8	7 005
Rural: with loan	7.0	0.3	6.5	7.5	6 309
Poverty severity					
Urban: without any loan	2.5	0.2	2.1	2.9	5 260
Rural: without any loan	3.3	0.2	3.0	3.6	4 421
Urban: with loan	1.9	0.1	1.6	2.2	7 005
Rural: with loan	2.2	0.1	2.0	2.4	6 309

Notes: Poverty measures were calculated taking into account the survey design i.e. strata, primary sampling units and population weights.
Sources: HSES 2022.

Table C. 10 Poverty indicators by type of dwelling

	Estimation	Standard error	[95% confidence interval]		Obs.
			Lower	Upper	
National					
Poverty headcount					
Ger	51.9	0.8	50.2	53.5	9 783
Apartment	2.6	0.4	1.9	3.4	4 913
House	24.2	0.9	22.5	25.9	7 925
Other	42.5	5.3	32.1	52.8	374
Poverty gap					
Ger	13.7	0.4	13.0	14.5	9 783
Apartment	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.5	4 913
House	4.7	0.2	4.3	5.2	7 925
Other	10.4	1.6	7.3	13.4	374
Poverty severity					
Ger	5.1	0.2	4.7	5.6	9 783
Apartment	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	4 913
House	1.4	0.1	1.2	1.6	7 925
Other	3.6	0.7	2.3	4.9	374
Urban, rural					
Poverty headcount					
Urban: Ger	59.7	1.4	56.9	62.5	3 376
Rural: Ger	45.8	1.0	43.9	47.7	6 407
Urban: Apartment	2.5	0.4	1.8	3.2	4 355
Rural: Apartment	5.7	1.4	2.8	8.5	558
Urban: House	24.6	1.2	22.3	27.0	4 337
Rural: House	23.4	1.1	21.2	25.6	3 588
Urban: Other	51.0	7.1	37.0	65.0	197
Rural: Other	27.4	4.0	19.5	35.2	177
Poverty gap					
Urban: Ger	17.6	0.7	16.1	19.0	3 376
Rural: Ger	10.8	0.3	10.2	11.4	6 407
Urban: Apartment	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.5	4 355
Rural: Apartment	0.6	0.2	0.2	1.1	558
Urban: House	4.9	0.3	4.3	5.6	4 337
Rural: House	4.4	0.3	3.9	4.9	3 588
Urban: Other	12.6	2.1	8.5	16.8	197
Rural: Other	6.3	1.4	3.6	9.1	177
Poverty severity					
Urban: Ger	7.0	0.4	6.2	7.9	3 376
Rural: Ger	3.7	0.1	3.4	4.0	6 407
Urban: Apartment	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	4 355
Rural: Apartment	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.2	558
Urban: House	1.5	0.1	1.3	1.7	4 337
Rural: House	1.3	0.1	1.1	1.5	3 588
Urban: Other	4.5	0.9	2.6	6.3	197
Rural: Other	2.2	0.6	1.0	3.4	177

Notes: Poverty measures were calculated taking into account the survey design i.e. strata, primary sampling units and population weights.
Sources: HSES 2022.

Table C. 11 Poverty indicators by access to improved water sources

	Estimation	Standard error	[95% confidence interval]		Obs.
			Lower	Upper	
National					
Poverty headcount					
No	41.0	1.4	38.3	43.7	3 174
Yes	25.5	0.7	24.2	26.9	19 821
Poverty gap					
No	9.0	0.4	8.2	9.8	3 174
Yes	6.2	0.2	5.8	6.6	19 821
Poverty severity					
No	2.9	0.2	2.5	3.2	3 174
Yes	2.2	0.1	2.0	2.4	19 821
Urban, rural					
Poverty headcount					
Urban: No	31.4	5.2	21.2	41.5	383
Rural: No	42.2	1.4	39.4	44.9	2 791
Urban: Yes	22.8	0.9	21.1	24.6	11 882
Rural: Yes	32.9	0.8	31.3	34.5	7 939
Poverty gap					
Urban: No	8.5	2.0	4.7	12.3	383
Rural: No	9.1	0.4	8.3	9.9	2 791
Urban: Yes	5.7	0.3	5.2	6.3	11 882
Rural: Yes	7.5	0.3	7.0	8.0	7 939
Poverty severity					
Urban: No	3.2	0.8	1.6	4.8	383
Rural: No	2.8	0.2	2.5	3.2	2 791
Urban: Yes	2.1	0.1	1.8	2.4	11 882
Rural: Yes	2.5	0.1	2.3	2.7	7 939

Notes: Poverty measures were calculated taking into account the survey design i.e. strata, primary sampling units and population weights.
Sources: HSES 2022.

Table C. 12 Poverty indicators by access to improved sanitation

	Estimation	Standard error	[95% confidence interval]		Obs.
			Lower	Upper	
National					
Poverty headcount					
No	38.9	0.7	37.5	40.3	17 376
Yes	3.7	0.4	2.9	4.5	5 619
Poverty gap					
No	9.5	0.3	8.9	10.0	17 376
Yes	0.6	0.1	0.4	0.7	5 619
Poverty severity					
No	3.4	0.1	3.1	3.6	17 376
Yes	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	5 619
Urban, rural					
Poverty headcount					
Urban: No	40.3	1.1	38.1	42.6	7 336
Rural: No	37.2	0.8	35.7	38.7	10 040
Urban: Yes	3.4	0.4	2.6	4.2	4 929
Rural: Yes	7.9	1.4	5.2	10.6	690
Poverty gap					
Urban: No	10.4	0.4	9.6	11.3	7 336
Rural: No	8.3	0.2	7.9	8.8	10 040
Urban: Yes	0.5	0.1	0.4	0.7	4 929
Rural: Yes	0.9	0.2	0.5	1.4	690
Poverty severity					
Urban: No	3.9	0.2	3.4	4.3	7 336
Rural: No	2.8	0.1	2.5	3.0	10 040
Urban: Yes	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	4 929
Rural: Yes	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.3	690
Notes: Poverty measures were calculated taking into account the survey design i.e. strata, primary sampling units and population weights. Sources: HSES 2022.					

Table C. 13 Poverty indicators by access to electricity

	Estimation	Standard error	[95% confidence interval]		Obs.
			Lower	Upper	
National					
Poverty headcount					
No	72.7	8.2	56.5	88.8	31
Yes	27.1	0.6	25.8	28.4	22 964
Poverty gap					
No	20.6	4.8	11.1	30.1	31
Yes	6.5	0.2	6.1	6.9	22 964
Poverty severity					
No	8.8	2.8	3.4	14.3	31
Yes	2.3	0.1	2.1	2.5	22 964
Urban, rural					
Poverty headcount					
Urban: No	90.7	10.0	71.0	110.3	4
Rural: No	70.0	9.4	51.5	88.4	27
Urban: Yes	23.0	0.9	21.2	24.7	12 261
Rural: Yes	35.5	0.8	34.0	37.0	10 703
Poverty gap					
Urban: No	31.2	13.6	4.6	57.9	4
Rural: No	19.0	5.0	9.3	28.7	27
Urban: Yes	5.8	0.3	5.2	6.4	12 261
Rural: Yes	7.9	0.2	7.4	8.3	10 703
Poverty severity					
Urban: No	15.4	8.2	-0.7	31.5	4
Rural: No	7.9	2.8	2.4	13.3	27
Urban: Yes	2.1	0.1	1.9	2.4	12 261
Rural: Yes	2.6	0.1	2.4	2.8	10 703

Notes: Poverty measures were calculated taking into account the survey design i.e. strata, primary sampling units and population weights.
Sources: HSES 2022.

Table C. 14 Poverty indicators by access to improved water sources, improved sanitation and electricity

	Estimation	Standard error	[95% confidence interval]		Obs.
			Lower	Upper	
National					
Poverty headcount					
No	38.9	0.7	37.5	40.2	17 391
Yes	3.6	0.4	2.9	4.4	5 604
Poverty gap					
No	9.5	0.3	8.9	10.0	17 391
Yes	0.6	0.1	0.4	0.7	5 604
Poverty severity					
No	3.4	0.1	3.1	3.6	17 391
Yes	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	5 604
Urban, rural					
Poverty headcount					
Urban: No	40.3	1.1	38.1	42.6	7 345
Rural: No	37.2	0.8	35.7	38.7	10 046
Urban: Yes	3.4	0.4	2.6	4.2	4 920
Rural: Yes	7.5	1.3	4.9	10.2	684
Poverty gap					
Urban: No	10.4	0.4	9.6	11.3	7 345
Rural: No	8.3	0.2	7.9	8.8	10 046
Urban: Yes	0.5	0.1	0.4	0.7	4 920
Rural: Yes	0.9	0.2	0.5	1.3	684
Poverty severity					
Urban: No	3.9	0.2	3.4	4.3	7 345
Rural: No	2.8	0.1	2.5	3.0	10 046
Urban: Yes	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	4 920
Rural: Yes	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.3	684

Notes: Poverty measures were calculated taking into account the survey design i.e. strata, primary sampling units and population weights.
Sources: HSES 2022.