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ENHANCING POVERTY-ABATEMENT PROGRAMMES: A SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING CONTRIBUTION

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WeD - Wellbeing in Developing Countries ESRC Research Group

WeD is a multidisciplinary research group funded by the ESRC, dedicated to the study of poverty, inequality and the quality of life in poor countries. The research group is based at the University of Bath and draws on the knowledge and expertise from three different departments (Economics and International Development, Social and Policy Sciences and Psychology) as well as an extensive network of overseas contacts and specific partnerships with institutes in Bangladesh, Ethiopia, Peru and Thailand. The purpose of the research programme is to develop conceptual and methodological tools for investigating and understanding the social and cultural construction of wellbeing in specific countries.

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SUMMARY:

This paper questions the assumption used in designing social policies that raising people's income automatically translates into greater well-being. Based on a subjective well-being approach and a representative survey from Costa Rica the paper shows that there is substantial dissonance in the classification of persons as poor and as being in well-being deprivation. The existence of dissonances leads to the conceptualisation of different trajectories out-of-poverty and into well-being. Public policies oriented towards the abatement of income poverty can have a greater impact on people's well-being if they recognise the complexity of human beings and acknowledge that their programmes affect satisfaction in all domains of life. The paper states that public policy should not only be concerned with getting people out of income poverty, but also with placing them in a life-satisfying situation. The paper also discusses strategies that could improve poverty-abatement programmes.

KEYWORDS: Poverty, Social Programmes, Well-Being Deprivation, Subjective Well-Being, Life Satisfaction.

Related readings:

- Handa, S. and Davis, B. (2006), 'The Experience of Conditional Cash Transfers in Latin America', *Development Policy Review 24(5)*, 513-536.
- Rojas, M. (2007), 'The Complexity of Well-Being: A Life-Satisfaction Conception and a Domains-of-Life Approach', in Gough, I. and McGregor, A. (eds.) Researching Well-Being in Developing Countries: From Theory to Research, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 259-280.
- Rojas, M. (2008), 'Experienced Poverty and Income Poverty in Mexico: A Subjective Well-Being Approach', *World Development, forthcoming.*

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INTRODUCTION

The *Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) Declaration* placed poverty reduction at the pinnacle of international-development objectives. Poverty reduction is the main consideration in the design of both domestic and foreign-aid programmes; it also constitutes a measure of their success. There is a wide range of indicators to compute and follow up poverty reduction, such as the percentage of people beneath a poverty line and the set of Foster-Greer-Thorbecke Poverty Indices (F-G-T) (Foster *et al.*, 1984), which measure the depth of poverty in a population. The interest in monitoring poverty over time has led to a vast literature on construction and properties of poverty indices; however, most of these poverty measures are inspired by an income-based conception of poverty. The dominance of an income-based conception of poverty, combined with the use of income-based indicators to assess the success of programmes, has led to poverty-abatement policies that focus on getting people out of poverty by increasing their purchasing power.

In accordance with the objectives of the MDGs, there has been a proliferation of poverty-abatement programmes across Latin American countries, as well as in other parts of the world. Of special relevance are conditional cash transfer programmes, such as Oportunidades in Mexico, Bolsa in Brasil, and Avancemos in Costa Rica. Some programmes have a narrow scope and focus on raising household income; other programmes, with a broader scope, are influenced by the capabilities approach and focus on increasing human capital. This paper questions the implicit assumption that raising the income received by persons automatically translates into greater well-being. It uses a life-satisfaction conception of well-being and a domains-of-life approach to directly question this assumption. It also discusses factors that should be taken into consideration to enhance poverty-abatement programmes. The paper shows that a subjective wellbeing approach can be useful in the design of poverty-abatement programmes that not only get people out of poverty but also place them in a life-satisfying situation. The paper also argues that subjective well-being indicators should be taken into consideration for the evaluation of poverty abatement programmes.

Based on a relatively large survey applied in Costa Rica during 2004 and 2006, the paper shows that there is substantial dissonance in the classification of persons as poor and as being in well-being deprivation: not all income-poor persons have low life satisfaction, while some non income-poor persons are unsatisfied with their lives. The paper shows that the

reasons for these dissonances must be found in the complexity of being a human being, as well as in the failure of income-based poverty definitions to capture this complexity.

The existence of dissonances leads to the conceptualisation of different outof-poverty well-being patterns. It is possible for some programmes to get
people out of income poverty while keeping them in well-being deprivation;
clearly superior poverty-abatement programmes get people out of income
poverty while substantially increasing their well-being. A complete
understanding of out-of-poverty well-being patterns requires a study of other
dimensions of life that have been neglected by traditional povertyabatement programmes. The consideration of other dimensions of life
(beyond the economic dimension) and a better understanding of how all
dimensions of life are affected by income-increasing programmes is
fundamental for the design of well-being enhancing poverty-abatement
programmes.

The paper concludes by discussing some well-being enhancing policies to complement poverty-abatement programmes. Of special relevance is the shift in emphasis from *income generation capacities*, such as human and social capital, to *life satisfaction capacities*, such as wisdoms of life and interpersonal relationships. The incorporation of subjective well-being indicators is essential for the proper design and evaluation of poverty abatement programmes.

The paper is structured as follows: section 2 discusses poverty-abatement programmes. Section 3 deals with the relationship between income and well-being and demonstrates that income poverty is a poor proxy for well-being deprivation. Section 4 discusses the Costa Rican database, as well as the construction of the relevant variables for the empirical analyses. Section 5 shows that there are important dissonances in the classification of people as being in income poverty and as being in well-being deprivation. Section 6 elaborates on a domains-of-life explanation for these dissonances. Section 7 conceptualises two different well-being patterns for persons getting out of income poverty; it argues that the best pattern is one that not only gets people out of poverty, but also places them in a life satisfying situation. Section 8 discusses how findings from subjective well-being research provide useful insights to enhance poverty-abatement programmes. Final considerations are made in section 9.

POVERTY-ABATEMENT PROGRAMMES

The United Nations Millennium Declaration of September 2000 made 'Eradicating Extreme Poverty and Hunger' the first of eight Millennium Development Goals (*MDGs*) Specific targets were set for the year 2015, which represented a substantial reduction in poverty rates - in percentage terms - with respect to the situation in 1990 (United Nations, 2000, 2001)

Motivated by this goal set by *MDGs*, as well as by intellectual and financial support from international organisations, there has been a proliferation of conditional cash transfer programmes (CCT) to abate poverty and reach the 2015 targets. For example, Mexico's *Oportunidades* (formerly *Progresa*), Brazil's *Bolsa Escola*, Colombia's *Familias en Acción*, and Nicaragua's *Red de Protección Social*.

CCT programme philosophy is based on influencing household behaviour so that intra-household decisions lead to an improvement in human capital, which is expected to break a vicious poverty cycle. For this reason beyond the direct impact of the transfer itself, the programme includes an education and a health component (Rawlings and Rubio, 2004)

CCT programmes must first establish an eligibility criteria; this defines the population that can benefit from the programme. Common criteria refer to persons with household (or household per capita) income beneath a given level, as well as persons living in communities where per capita income is low. It is also common to use indexes of marginality, such as literacy rates and percentage of population who have access to public services, to select the communities where these programmes will be implemented. Some programmes focus on rural areas, while others have expanded to urban areas.

CCT programmes must also establish the behavioural conditionality for benefiting from transfers. Households are required to undertake specific actions, mostly in terms of school attendance of children and regular visits to health and nutritional centres.

As stated in the case study summary of Mexico's *Oportunidades* Programme, which was presented at the Shangai Poverty Conference, the main aim of the programme is to invest in human capital:

Oportunidades focuses on helping poor families in rural and urban communities invest in *human capital*—improving the education, health, and nutrition of their children—leading to the long-term improvement of their economic future and the consequent reduction of poverty in Mexico. By providing cash transfers to households

(linked to regular school attendance and health clinic visits), the programme also fulfils the aim of alleviating current poverty

The focus on human capital is also mentioned by Rawlings and Rubio (2004, p.1) who state: "These programs provide money to poor families conditional upon certain behaviour, usually investments in human capital such as sending children to school or bringing them to health centres on a regular basis."

The impact evaluation of these programmes has also acquired great relevance. There are ex-post evaluations that compare the beneficiaries' performance with respect to a control group. Matching techniques are use to assess the programmes' impact on school attendance, weight and height gain, incorporation into labour markets, and income increases. Ex-ante techniques are based on micro simulations that incorporate some (commonly neoclassical) behavioural assumptions (Parker and Skoufias, 2000; Schultz, 2000; World Bank, 2001)

The design of these programmes has also followed a process of modification based on previous experience. Das *et al.* (2005) study the conditionality of *CCT* programmes. They state that unconditional transfers would lead to different behaviour than conditional transfers. For example, Bourguignon *et al.* (2002) and Cardoso and Souza (2003) have found that the increase in school attendance attained by Brazil's Bolsa Escola programme critically depended on the conditionality of cash transfers, and that unconditional cash transfers would have had no impact on school attendance. Thus, conditional transfers are based on the idea that individual market choice is not a preferred social-policy objective. Research evidence also questions the assumption that *CCT* programmes have a long-lasting influence on household decisions; hence, once families graduate from the programme their behavioural patterns tend to reflect their unconstrained rather than their constrained behaviour (Miguel and Kremer, 2004).

WELL-BEING AND INCOME POVERTY

A close relationship with threshold is assumed

Economists and policy-makers have commonly used income as a well-being proxy. It is assumed that there is a close relationship between income and a person's well-being. A rise in income increases well-being through greater purchasing power, which implies more consumption through the life cycle. On some occasions income and well-being are even treated as synonymous.

The basic-needs literature¹ proposes a hierarchy of needs: some needs are basic and their satisfaction requires the consumption of economic goods (positive market price). It is assumed that persons who are unable of satisfying these basic needs experience well-being levels that are substantially low. Hence, it is possible to conceptualise an income threshold: beneath this threshold well-being is substantially low; beyond it well-being is relatively high.

The absence of a direct measure of well-being has deterred the corroboration of these theories. Economists have ended up discussing normative arguments that support or reject their theories with little empirical research.

Questioning a close relationship between income and well-being Many arguments can be advanced to question the existence of a close relationship between income and well-being, as well as to question the existence of a clearly defined threshold.

First, not everything of value can be purchased. Income allows for buying economic goods but has little impact on a person's access to non-economic goods. Recent literature (Bruni and Stanca, 2005; Gui and Sugden, 2005; and Sugden, 2005) states that relational goods (love, emotional support, friendship, correspondence of sentiments, good relations with neighbours and colleagues, and so on) have a large impact on well-being. In an empirical study based on a survey applied in central Mexico, Rojas (2007a) shows that satisfaction with partner, children and family is crucial for life satisfaction. Because of their nature, relational goods can not be purchased and a market can not exist. The production of relational goods is time intensive, and because of time constraint the production of such goods may end-up conflicting with the production of income.

Second, income may not be used efficiently.² An increase in income may lead to little or no increase in well-being if persons do not have the skills to use income efficiently. There is a vast literature that questions the rationality of persons, as well as their ability to correctly foresee the well-being impact of their consumption decisions (Scitovsky, 1976; Hsee and Hastie, 2006; Thaler, 1980, 1992, 2000; Tversky and Kahneman, 1974, 1981, 1986; Loewenstein and Schkade, 1999). Using 1500 observations from a survey

² Frank (2005, p. 70) suggests that "people might have been able to spend their money in other ways that would have made them happier, yet for various reasons did not"

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¹ For an in depth discussion of basic needs see Doyal and Gough (1991) and Gasper (2007)

in central Mexico, Rojas (2007b) has found that X-inefficiency in the use of income is relatively large and it shows up at all income levels.

Third, there may be basic needs that do not require income for their satisfaction. The psychological needs approach (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Kasser and Ryan, 1993 and 1996; Kasser, 2002; Ryan and Sapp, 2007) states that there are fundamental psychological needs such as autonomy, competence and personal relationships. Persons who can not manage to satisfy their psychological needs experience low well-being. The approach also states that a person's income makes little contribution to the satisfaction of psychological needs.

Fourth, consumers may not attain satisfaction from their consumption due to their immersion within social structures. The idea that well-being increases with higher income relies on the assumption that well-being depends on absolute consumption but not on relative consumption. Social thinkers such as Adam Smith, Karl Marx, and Thorstein Veblen recognised that needs may be socially influenced. Recent research (Frank, 1985, 2005; Schor, 2002; Alpizar et al., 2005) has shown that the satisfaction attained from the consumption of some goods is contingent on the consumption of other members of the community (reference groups). Hence, it may be that absolute consumption is not closely related to a person's well-being.

Fifth, the extent to which consumption impacts on well-being. The ordinal utility approach in economics states that utility is 'non-decreasing on income', i.e. a higher income allows for the satisfaction of more wants and desires, which leads to higher utility. However, it is impossible to know how much well-being increases as a consequence of the satisfaction of some wants and desires. It could be that satisfying some additional wants and desires have little impact on a person's well-being, even if income is used efficiently. Hence, it could happen that an increase in income does not have a strong impact on well-being.

Sixth, income is not the only source of well-being. The domains-of-life literature (Cummins, 1996; van Praag, Frijters and Ferrer-i-Carbonell, 2003; Rojas, 2007a; Salvatore and Muñoz Sastre, 2001) states that a person's well-being depends on her satisfaction in many domains of life where she is performing as a human being. Satisfaction in these domains of life depends on many factors beyond a person's income, such as: age, level of education, health, types of hobbies and pastimes, type of job, place of residence, nature and strength of interpersonal relations with partner, children, parents, colleagues and neighbours, and so on. Thus, the relationship between income and well-being is expected to be wide open.

Measuring well-being: The subjective well-being approach

The lack of an observable output for income use has deterred testing hypotheses about the relationship between income and well-being. The emergence of the 'economics of happiness' literature (Easterlin, 1974, 1995, 2001; Clark and Oswald, 1994; Di Tella *et al*, 2001; Ferrer-i-Carbonell and Frijters, 2004; Frey and Stutzer, 2000; Oswald, 1997; van Praag *et al*, 2003; van Praag and Ferrer-i-Carbonell, 2004; and Stutzer, 2004) provides not only the tools, but also the epistemological support and academic endorsement to have an observable output variable for a person's well-being.

The subjective well-being approach is based on the following six principles (Rojas, 2007a): First, it deals with well-being as declared by the person, usually declared as an answer to a life satisfaction or happiness question; it is the person's evaluation of her life. The approach states that this is the best way to know a person's well-being. Second, it works with the well-being of a person, rather than with the well-being of an academically defined agent; thus, it studies the well-being of a person of flesh and blood and who is in her circumstance. Third, it recognises that a person's well-being is essentially subjective; the person is the one who is experiencing her wellbeing, and nobody else can do that. Fourth, it accepts that the person is the authority to assess her well-being; because being well or not is fundamentally a subjective experience. Fifth, it accepts a person's assessment of her well-being as correct and then follows an inferential bottom-up- rather than a normative -top-down- methodology to identify the factors that influence a person's well-being.4 Sixth, it calls for a transdisciplinary -or at least interdisciplinary- study of well-being, since it is difficult to capture the complexity of a person's well-being assessment from any single discipline. Hence, life satisfaction as it is reported by the person is used as an observable output variable for her well-being.

On income poverty and well-being deprivation: Dissonances expected

Based on the arguments put forward on page 7, it is expected that income poverty will not to be a good proxy for well-being deprivation. In other words,

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³ There is no person without circumstances; thus, the alternative for a person is not to get rid of all cultural biases, parents, dependencies, values, goals, childhood experiences, and so on; but to substitute them for different ones.

⁴ In this way, even if it sounds paradoxical, it can be said that the subjective well-being approach avoids the subjectivity and arbitrariness of the so-called objective indicators of well-being. It deals with the well-being of a person as she is, and not as someone else thinks she ought to be.

some persons classified as poor could enjoy well-being beyond deprivation levels; while some non-poor persons could be in well-being deprivation (Rojas, 2008). The following sections use the subjective well-being approach to explore the existence of dissonances in the classification of persons as poor and as being well-being deprived. They also provide an explanation for these dissonances which is based on the domains-of-life literature.

THE DATABASE

The survey

The database comes from a yearly national survey run by the University of Costa Rica. The survey is applied every year to 1000 persons during the middle of the year, and it is representative for the country. In the 2004 and 2006 a section of subjective well-being questions were introduced in the survey.⁵ Thus, the database consists of a total of 2000 observations.

The variables

The survey gathered information regarding the following quantitative and qualitative variables:

Demographic Variables: household-income dependent persons.

Economic Variables: current household income.

Life Satisfaction: the following question was asked: "Taking everything in your life into consideration, how satisfied are you with your life?" A seven-option categorical answering scale was used. The scale's answering options are: *extremely unsatisfied*, *very unsatisfied*, *unsatisfied*, *neither satisfied nor unsatisfied*, *satisfied*, *very satisfied*, *extremely satisfied*. Life Satisfaction was handled as an ordinal variable, with values between 1 and 7; where 1 corresponds to the *extremely unsatisfied* category and 7 to the *extremely satisfied* category.⁶

Satisfaction in Concrete Areas of Life: Seven questions were asked to inquire about satisfaction with the following domains of life: health, job, economic, family relations (satisfaction with partner, children and rest of

⁵ The author expresses his gratitude to the Merck Foundation for a grant that financially supported the incorporation of a subjective well-being group of questions in the survey. ⁶ The author has found that results do not substantially differ when life satisfaction is treated as a cardinal rather than as an ordinal variable. Ferrer-i-Carbonell and Frijters (2004) also show that there are no substantial differences when satisfaction is treated either as a cardinal or as an ordinal variable.

family), friendship, self (availability and use of leisure time), and community environment. A seven-option response scale similar to the one used for the life satisfaction question was used. Satisfaction questions were handled as cardinal variables, with values between 1 and 7; where 1 was assigned to the lowest satisfaction level and 7 to the highest.

This classification is close to Cummins' comprehensive review of the domains of life satisfaction (1996).

WELL-BEING AND INCOME POVERTY

Well-being categories

Table 1 shows the frequency for the life-satisfaction question. 1998 persons out of 2000 answered the life-satisfaction question. It is observed that most people evaluate their lives as satisfactory or more than satisfactory.

Table 1 Sample distribution across life-satisfaction categories Well-being classification			
Well-Being Categories	Satisfaction	Percentage	
	Extremely unsatisfied	2.60	
Well-Being Deprivation	Very unsatisfied	3.55	
	Unsatisfied	4.45	
	Neither unsatisfied nor satisfied	8.11	
Moderate Well-Being	Satisfied	36.84	
High Well-Being	Very satisfied	31.73	
_	Extremely satisfied	12.71	
	Total	100.0	

This investigation takes advantage of working with a categorical response scale. Two well-being lines are defined; a line for well-being deprivation is set at a life satisfaction level of *neither unsatisfied nor satisfied*; thus, people who are *extremely unsatisfied*, *very unsatisfied*, *unsatisfied* and *neither unsatisfied nor satisfied* with their lives are considered as having low well-being. A second line for moderate well-being is defined at the 'satisfied' level on the basis of these people still having enough room to improve their life satisfaction. These criteria imply that 18.7 percent of people in the sample are in well-being deprivation; while 36.8 percent are experiencing moderate well-being.

Household per capita income and income poverty

Table 2 presents the distribution of people in the sample according to their household per capita income. 1705 persons answered the income question,

out of 2000 persons who were asked. It is observed that 21.8 percent of people in the sample have a household per capita income of US\$2 dollars per day or less, while 37.8 percent of people are between US\$2 and US\$5 dollars per day level.

Table 2 Sample distribution across household per capita income ranges Household per capita income (Y _{hpc}) in U.S. dollars per day Income-Poverty classification			
Poverty Category	Income Ranges	Percentage	
Income Poverty	Y _{hpc} ≤ 2	21.8	
Moderate Income Poverty	2 <y<sub>hpc ≤ 5</y<sub>	37.8	
Non-poor	5 <y<sub>hpc</y<sub>	40.5	
	Total	100.0	

This investigation uses household per capita income to define income poverty lines. Household per capita income is commonly -but not universally- used to define income poverty. This investigation classifies a person as being in income poverty if she lives in a household with a per capita income of US\$ 2 dollars per day or less. A person is classified as being in moderate income poverty if she lives in a household with a daily per capita income in between US\$2 and US\$5 dollars.

On the basis of these criteria 21.8 percent of people in the sample are classified as income poor; while 37.8 percent of people in the sample are considered as being in moderate income poverty.

Well-being deprivation and income poverty: dissonances and concordances

Is income poverty a good proxy for low well-being? This section shows that important dissonances exist between the classification of people as poor and as being well-being deprived. In other words, it is shown that not all people who are considered as being in income poverty experience low life satisfaction, and that not all people who are considered as non-income poor experience high life satisfaction.

income benefits (Rojas, 2006b).

⁷ For example, Rojas (2007d) shows that household per capita income could be a bad proxy for a person's economic satisfaction because size economies at the household level are considerable. In addition, it is also possible for household income to be a poor proxy for personal access to economic resources due to intra-household inequality in the distribution of

Table 3 shows the existence of dissonances and concordances in the arrangement of people when the well-being and the income-poverty classifications are contrasted.

Table 3 Well-being and income poverty Dissonances and Concordances In percentages of total survey population			
	Income Poverty		
Well-Being	Poor	Non poor	
Deprivation	24.0	17.9	
Moderate and High	76.0	82.1	
Total percentage	100.0	100.0	
Total observations	371	1332	

It is observed that 76 percent of people in the survey who are classified as poor based on their income (a household per capita income of US\$ 2 dollars or less per day) report moderate and high life satisfaction (life evaluated as satisfactory or better). Well-being deprivation (low life satisfaction) is reported by 24 percent of poor people. In addition, 17.9 percent of people in the survey who are classified as non poor on the basis of their income report low life satisfaction. Thus, income poverty does not fully capture a person's well-being situation.

Table 4 extends the analysis to the expanded classifications of well-being and income poverty, which incorporate the categories of moderate life satisfaction and moderate poverty. Dissonance emerges in all three income poverty categories.

Table 4 Well-Being and income poverty: Expanded categories Dissonances and concordances In percentages of total survey population			
	Income Poverty		
Well-Being	Poor	Moderate poor	Non poor
Deprivation	24.0	21.8	14.2
Moderate	43.1	36.5	32.8
High	32.9	41.7	53.0
Total percentage	100.0	100.0	100
Total observations	371	643	689

Why doesn't well-being deprivation closely follow income poverty? The following section uses a domains-of-life approach to explain the reasons for

this dissonance and to show that the well-being-deprivation conception is broader and richer than the income poverty one.

A DOMAINS-OF-LIFE EXPLANATION FOR DISSONANCES

The domains-of-life literature states that life can be approached as an aggregate construct of many specific domains, and that life satisfaction can be understood as the result of satisfaction in the domains of life. In other words, it is argued that a person is much more than a consumer or an economic agent. She is being human not only when she is consuming goods and services, but also when she is spending time and other resources in interpersonal relations (either with a spouse, a partner, children, other family members, friends and neighbours), when she is using her leisure time and pursuing her hobbies, and in other fundamental human activities. This study has information about a person's satisfaction in seven domains of life: health, economic, job, family, friends, self and community; thus, it is possible to study the structure of domain satisfaction, as well as their relationship with life satisfaction.

Rojas (2006a, 2007a) has shown that in Mexico satisfaction in the *family* domain is crucial for life satisfaction. *Health* and *Self* satisfaction are also of great relevance. *Job* and *economic* satisfaction follow in importance. Relatively similar results were obtained for Costa Rica.

Out of income poverty while remaining in well-being deprivation

This paper has stressed that well-being is a broader and richer concept than income poverty. It is thus possible for a person to get out of income poverty while remaining in well-being deprivation, since a rise in income does not ensure that her satisfaction in most domains of life will increase. It could be possible for some policies to reduce income poverty while having little or even a negative impact on well-being because they do not impact on satisfaction in other domains of life.

Table 5 uses a domains-of-life perspective to further explain why a person may be out of income poverty while remaining in well-being deprivation. All people in Table 5 are in well-being deprivation; however, some are in income poverty and others are not.

Table 5
Average satisfaction in domains of life
For people in well-being deprivation
By income poverty category

Domain of Life	Poor	Moderate Poor	Non Poor
Health	4.15	3.84	4.55
Economic	2.93	3.80	4.36
Job	3.69	4.15	4.39
Family	4.30	4.76	4.81
Friendship	4.34	4.68	4.92
Self	3.83	4.19	4.34
Community	4.11	3.96	4.19
Life Satisfaction	2.79	2.96	3.10
Daily Household per capita Income	1.18	3.32	9.14
n	89	140	98

Table 5 shows domains-of-life satisfaction for people who are in well-being deprivation and who are classified according to their income-poverty situation. While the income of the non-poor is almost 700 percent greater than that of the poor, their life satisfaction is only 11 percent larger and still well below the satisfactory level. The non-poor do have significantly larger economic (from 2.93 to 4.36) and job satisfaction (from 3.69 to 4.39) with respect to the poor. However, the difference between the poor and the non-poor in family satisfaction -a crucial domain for well-being- and in domains such as health, friendship, self and community is relatively small. Hence, at a conceptual level, it is possible to imagine a situation where people can get substantial increases in income while remaining in well-being deprivation; in this case income makes a strong impact on economic satisfaction, but not so in other relevant domains of life.

Out of well-being deprivation while being in income poverty

Because well-being deprivation and income poverty are not closely related, it is also possible to conceptualise a situation where people get out of well-being deprivation while remaining in income poverty. Table 6 uses the domains-of-life perspective to illustrate this possibility. All persons in Table 6 are in income poverty.

Table 6 shows that for those people classified as poor there are substantial differences in satisfaction in domains of life. Within the income poor, those persons who are not in well-being deprivation report life satisfaction that is 120 percent greater than people in well-being deprivation, even though their income is only 13 percent higher. These persons show higher satisfaction in

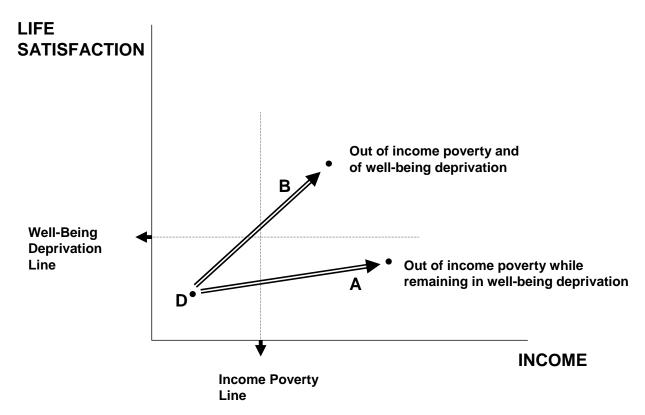
all domains of life. Considerable differences are observed in their *job*, *health*, *self* and *family* satisfaction, as well as in their *economic* satisfaction. It is noteworthy that their *economic* satisfaction is substantially higher even under relatively similar economic conditions; this is clearly a consequence of the relationship between income and *economic* satisfaction being weak. Rojas (2007b) studies the existence of high disparity in economic satisfaction within income groups and argues for the existence of X-inefficiency in the use of income; this is: most people do not spend their income in the best possible way; they make substantial mistakes and end up attaining lower than possible economic satisfaction.

Table 6 Average satisfaction in domains of life For people in income poverty By well-being category			
Domain of Life	Deprived	Well-Being Moderately Deprived	Non Deprived
Health	4.15	5.02	5.66
Economic	2.93	4.02	4.34
Job	3.69	4.55	5.17
Family	4.30	5.20	5.84
Friendship	4.34	5.06	5.60
Self	3.83	4.69	5.16
Community	4.11	4.59	4.73
Life Satisfaction Daily Household per	2.79	5.00	6.20
capita Income	1.18	1.29	1.33
n	89	160	122

In general, a person can be satisfied with her life even if her income is low; as long as she is moderately satisfied in domains of life such as *family*, *self*, *health*, *job*, and *economic*.

CONCEPTUALIZING PATTERNS OUT OF INCOME POVERTY

This paper has shown that it is possible to jump over the income poverty line with little effect in life satisfaction; Pattern *A* in Graph 1 illustrates this possibility. Pattern *B* shows a trajectory where a person jumps not only over the income poverty line but also over the experienced poverty line. It is clear that pattern *B* is superior to pattern *A* because income is not an end but a means for well-being.



Graph 1: Patterns out of Income Poverty

What is needed from a person and her society for pattern *B* to take place rather than pattern *A*? The domains of life approach states that in conjunction with an increase in income it is also important to have an increase in satisfaction in most domains of life; especially those domains that are crucial for life satisfaction, such as the *family*, *self*, *job* and *health* domains.

Table 7 shows the alternative trajectories that can be followed out of income poverty. Column D illustrates what could be considered as the point of departure: the situation of persons who are in income poverty (daily household income less than US\$2 per capita) and in well-being deprivation. Column A shows the situation of people in the sample who are in well-being deprivation but not in income poverty; their income places them in moderate income poverty (household per capita income in between US\$ 2 to 5 dollars), but their life satisfaction places them in well-being deprivation. Column B shows the situation of people who are not in well-being deprivation nor in income poverty; they assess their life as satisfactory or better, and their daily household per capita income is in between US\$ 2 to 5 dollars.

Table 7 Average satisfaction for persons in different poverty and well-being conditions				ne	
Average se	D A B A/D B/				
Domain of Life	In Well-Being Deprivation ¹ & Income Poverty ²	In Well-Being Deprivation & Moderate Income Poverty ³	Not in Well- Being Deprivation ⁴ & in Moderate Income Poverty ³		
Health	4.15	3.84	5.35	0.92	1.29
Economic	2.93	3.80	4.72	1.30	1.61
Job	3.69	4.15	5.06	1.12	1.37
Family	4.30	4.76	5.51	1.11	1.28
Friendship	4.34	4.68	5.34	1.08	1.23
Self	3.83	4.19	4.87	1.09	1.27
Community	4.11	3.96	4.69	0.96	1.14
Life Satisfaction	2.79	2.96	5.69	1.06	2.04
Average daily household per capita income ⁵	1.18	3.32	3.42	2.81	2.90
Age	36.3	35.5	36.6		
Gender (women=1)	0.53	0.59	0.53		
Years of education	8.1	9.0	9.8		

People with life satisfaction level beneath satisfactory.

Pattern *A* in graph 1 can be understood as the situation of a person who moves in Table 7 from column D to column A; she is no longer in income poverty (average income increases 181 percent and places her well above the US\$2 dollars income line), but her life satisfaction just slightly increases from 2.79 to 2.96. Her life satisfaction does not substantially increase because her higher income does not translate into greater satisfaction in most domains of life. On the other hand, pattern *B* can be understood as the situation of a person who moves from column D to column B. Persons in column B are not only out of economic poverty, they are also out of well-being deprivation; their life satisfaction is on average 104 percent higher. It is observed in Table 7 that higher life satisfaction is attained because satisfaction in all domains of life increases dramatically. Hence, the desirable pattern out of income poverty is from D to B, rather than from D to A. It means that the increase in income can have a larger well-being impact

² People with daily household per capita income of US\$ 2 dollars or less.

³ People with daily household per capita income in between US\$ 2 and 5 dollars.

⁴ People with life satisfaction equal to *satisfactory* or better.

⁵ In U.S. dollars

if it is accompanied by policies that increase satisfaction in all domains of life, rather than confining their impact to the *economic* and *job* domains of life. Table 7 also provides some socio-demographic information for the different groups.

CONTRIBUTION FROM THE SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING LITERATURE

The subjective well-being literature can provide useful guidance in designing integrated poverty-abatement programmes. For poverty-abatement programmes to be well-being enhancing it is desirable for a person not only to have more income, but to also have many other qualities and attributes at the same time. It is a matter of social policy design to reduce the potential trade offs that may take place between the pursuing of higher income levels and these other qualities and attributes. Thus, it is important to recognise firstly that well-being deprivation is explained not only by low income but also by other relevant factors associated with satisfaction in many domains of life. Secondly, well-being enhancement does not only depend on increasing income but also on improving satisfaction in many domains of life. Thirdly, there may be trade-offs between the pursuing of higher income and the attainment of other qualities and attributes in life. Fourthly, that these trade-offs may be reduced or even avoided if social programmes recognise that well-being depends on satisfaction in many domains of life, and that many qualities and attributes need to be considered when designing these programmes. Among the relevant attributes it is possible to mention:

The role of leisure

Intrinsic value of leisure

The importance of leisure must not be neglected, even at low income levels. Lloyd and Auld (2001) and Lu and Hu (2005) have shown that leisure is an important source of well-being and that its use in social activities is well-being enhancing. Klumb and Perrez (2004) provide a survey of the importance of leisure for well-being. Furnham (1991) discusses the principles for leisure satisfaction. Palomar (2000) shows that access to recreational areas and parks is strongly related to psychological well-being in Mexico City.

Leisure and the production of relational goods: From social capital to interpersonal relationships

Furthermore, leisure time allows for the production of relational goods, which have been found to be important for well-being and which are time-intensive in their production. Fostering long-lasting friendship relations requires time. Powdthavee (2005) has found a close and positive

relationship between friendship and happiness. Myers (2000) shows that friendship and good relations with one's partner are closely related to subjective well-being. Rojas (2007a) shows that a satisfactory relationship with partner and children constitutes a main source of happiness. Family and friends provide such important goods as emotional support, care and nurturing, confidence and self-esteem development, and acceptance and correspondence of sentiments. In a study in the United States, Thomas (1990) noted that leisure time is significantly related to marriage satisfaction, as women value having time to communicate with their partner, while men value family cohesion. Orbuch et al. (1996) found out that couples that manage to reduce their working hours and spend more time together achieve higher marriage satisfaction. Better and more gratifying family relations contribute to the reduction of adolescent problem behaviour (Suldo and Huebner, 2004). Shapiro and Lambert (1999), Amato (1994) and Vanderwater and Lansford (1998) show that divorce and parental conflict can have a negative impact on the well-being of children; while Wenk (1994) demonstrates that parental involvement increases children happiness. According to Huebner et al. (1999) a satisfactory marital relationship is the main explanatory factor for the well-being of children. In a study with Korean data, Yang (2003) found that an increase in economic resources is associated with greater well-being only when family relations involve love. care, recognition and acceptance. Evans and Kelley (2004) also emphasise that having a stable and long-lasting marriage makes a significant impact on a person's happiness.

The importance of education: From human capital to wisdom for life

Education and human capital have been treated as though they were synonymous. The basic aim of making cash transfers conditional on school attendance is to increase the human capital of beneficiaries; in consequence, conditional cash-transfer programmes are evaluated based on their capacity to rise people's income through more education. However, this approach neglects the intrinsic value of education and focuses on its instrumental value as a mean to greater income. Thus, the full benefits from education are not fully contemplated when it is associated to human capital and understood as an instrument for attaining greater income. Rojas (2007a) has shown that a person's education is strongly related to her family (partner and children), self (personal development, use of leisure time, and so on) and job satisfaction. Educated people have more gratifying relations with their partner, children and rest of family; they also have more satisfactory occupations, and pursue more stimulating and gratifying hobbies and interests. Ross and Willigen (1997) also found that a better education allows for more control over personal life and a better use of

leisure time. Briant and Marquez (1986) show that education allows women to socially integrate and to acquire more decision making power within families and societies. Kirkcaldy and Furnham (2004) find a strong relationship between education and subjective well-being. Further research should focus on understanding what pedagogies and teaching techniques provide the relevant knowledge and wisdom for attaining greater life satisfaction and satisfaction in domains of life, rather than stressing the number of years of school attendance and the relevant skills to raise productivity, as this is an understudied area in subjective well-being research.

The community: From social capital to interpersonal relations

Persons live in communities. Their well-being also depends on the qualities of their nearby surroundings. Of special importance is the existence of neighbourhoods; while some social-assistance programmes have focused on providing a roof to poor families, subjective well-being research emphasises the need of providing neighbourhoods. Sirgy and Cornwell (2002) found out that community satisfaction is relevant for a person's life satisfaction. There are also well-being costs of migrating to attain additional income. Rokach (2000) discusses these uprooting costs when a person leaves her community and friends.

The positive well-being impact of healthy habits -such as exercising- is found by Hayes and Ross (1986).

Consumer skills

An increase in income does not necessarily ensure an increase in economic or life satisfaction. It all depends on how this additional purchasing power is spent. If beneficiaries of poverty-abatement programmes lack consumption skills then it is likely that their additional purchasing power will be used to satisfy desires that contribute little to their well-being. Thus, their additional income generates little increase in their well-being. Rojas (2007b) shows that there is considerable X-inefficiency in the use of income at all levels of income. Thus, well-being enhancing programmes should focus not only on raising income but also on providing the knowledge and skills, as well as the institutional arrangements to enable people to spend it wisely. This area has been completely neglected by traditional economic theory which assumes that people are rational; however, a vast literature in economics and behavioural-economics theory stresses the possibility of people underperforming in their use of income (Scitovsky, 1976; Earl, 2007).

Special attention must be given to how values are modified as a consequence of the programme and what social contexts people will be

placed in once they attain higher purchasing power. Kasser and Ryan (1993) show that there is little gain in well-being if people become more materialistic and focus their life on pursuing economic benefits.

Enhancing poverty-abatement programmes: The scope of public concern

There is a big risk of neglecting and underestimating the importance of well-being enhancing factors when focusing only on income poverty. It is important to worry about getting people out of income poverty, but it is more beneficial to also worry about the additional skills people need to have a more satisfactory life.

Public policy has recognised that a person's capacity to generate income is a matter of social concern and of social influence. In a similar way, it should be recognised that a person's satisfaction with life is not only a private matter; it depends on social and institutional factors such as the kind of education provided, the values promoted, the way public expenditure and direct transfers are allocated, access to recreational and community services, the nature of the family, migration and demographic patterns, and so on. Social policy and economic development should not only be concerned with getting people out of income poverty, but also with placing them in a situation that promotes a life that is judged by the person herself as a satisfactory one.

The evaluation of poverty-abatement programmes should go beyond income to incorporate a subjective well-being module. It would be very useful to know how life satisfaction, as well as satisfaction in many domains of life, is modified by these programmes. Having appropriate information on experiences of well-being would enable the design of better programmes.

FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

This paper addresses an issue of social relevance; it questions the assumption that raising a person's income automatically improves her well-being. The assumption has been dominant in the design of social policies and in the debate on development strategies. The predominance of a limited conception of poverty that overestimates the importance of income and the economic domain has led to a neglect of other relevant dimensions of being. This could reduce the capacity of social policies to promote personal well-being. The subjective well-being approach is useful to expand our understanding of what means to be human and what is meant by well-being deprivation.

The paper shows that subjective well-being is broader and richer than the information provided by a person's income. There are some dissonances in the classification of persons as being in income poverty and being well-being deprived. It is possible to find people who are in income poverty while not being in well-being deprivation, as well as people who are in well-being deprivation but not in income poverty. Dissonances are explained on the basis of the domains-of-life literature, which states that a person's satisfaction with life depends on her satisfaction in the many concrete areas of life where the person is being a human being.

The paper argues that although helpful, the abatement of income poverty does not ensure the reduction of well-being deprivation. Thus, it is not only important to reduce income poverty, but it is also important to do it in a way that fosters well-being. Any strategy to reduce income poverty must take into consideration its impact on the other domains of life where people express their humanity and from which they attain most of their life satisfaction. It could be possible for some policies to reduce income while having little -or even a negative- impact on well-being. Public policy should not only be concerned with getting people out of income poverty, but also with placing them in a situation that fosters their life satisfaction.

The paper shows that to improve the well-being impact of poverty-abatement programmes it is imperative to recognise the following. First, persons are complex and they derive their well-being from satisfaction in many domains of life. Second, even though the economic domain of life is relevant, it does not determine life satisfaction. Third, an increase in income –and, perhaps, in economic satisfaction- is not necessarily accompanied by a raise in satisfaction in other crucial domains of life. Fourth, it is possible to design programmes that expand the positive impact of raising income on life satisfaction. Fifth, in order to enhance these poverty-abatement programmes it is necessary to go beyond the economic domain of life to consider the impact of public policies in other domains. Sixth, the sphere of public intervention should not be limited to those factors related to income generation alone.

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