

ERADICATION OF POVERTY IN SOUTH ASIAN CONTEXT: A CRITICAL REVIEW

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Abstract

Poverty has become a very severe and important topic around the globe due to various reasons. The economic growth and the poverty elimination improve the possibility of ending poverty within a generation in the region with the world's significant concentration of poor people. Evaluating the developing of the agenda in poverty alleviation in South Asia is the main aim of this study. So, four sections are including in this paper. The introductory part outlines the overview of poverty in the South Asian region including the vulnerable population and poverty. The second section discusses the materials and methods used for this study. It includes the literature considered and the content analysis. The time period considered for this study is from 2000 to 2020. The review discusses the literature on poverty by following Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA). The third section discusses the discussion and analysis of poverty data in South Asian countries. So, this discusses about Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka in the final part of the review. The fourth section of the review consisting of the conclusions and recommendations for poverty reduction in South Asia. This paper provides recommendations for future researches. The results have identified that there are various important facts to be concentrate in reducing poverty in South Asia.

Key Words: Poverty, South Asia, Economic Growth

1. Introduction

Poverty has become a more debatable topic in foreign trade and development. The national states as well as multilateral organizations like UN and World bank also mainly considers on declining poverty. It was since the formulation of millennium development goals by the United Nations. Increasing militarism, environmental degradation, insufficiency in democratic governance, exclusion of humans based on the status, caste, gender, age, race, disability, and religion intensifies the destitution.

Haughton and Khandker (2009) defined poverty as a “pronounced deprivation in well-being”. According to George (1988), poverty comprises a center of necessities just as a rundown of other necessities that change over the long haul and spot. However, poverty isn't confined to one measurement, for example, income, yet it shows itself in all areas of life, for example, lodging, schooling, wellbeing. (Deleek et al.1992). The poverty of this century is not in like in the past. There are limited natural resources, but there is a set of main prime concerns relied on the rest of the world by the rich people (Irfan, 2000).

1.1 Vulnerable populations

Servaes (2008) analyzes poverty as a result of four things: neediness as an attitude, poverty as the absence of assets, neediness as an absence of common freedoms, and neediness as lack of access. As an absence of access, the researcher contends that the rustic poor do not get the significant data and henceforth need mindfulness about lawful data in land use, changes and enactments, straightforwardness issues on asset distributions for rural endeavors, and so on. According to Haider (2017), out of the world's poor, roughly 40% live in India, in China there are about 22% of the world's poor, 8% in Nigeria, and another 14% in Pakistan, Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Ethiopia, Indonesia, Brazil, Mexico, and Russia combined. The staying 14% dispersed in rest of the world, predominantly in Africa. It's a proportion of the states predominant in the normal nation involved by the poor community. The normal destitute individual lives in a nation with somewhat more than 33% of the pay of the normal worldwide person, and practically twofold the populace living by getting less than \$1 per day. Around 75% of the populace in nations where poor people dwell live in rural areas (Haider 2017). The rustic poor populace consistently live-in a populace with sparse conditions while the level of poor people who are country occupants is much higher. The third attribute of the worldwide poor people is that most are independently occupied. It means the ranchers or incompetent agrarian workers. The poor people spend less in buying administrations while purchasing many actual products than the normal purchaser.

1.2 Poverty in South Asia

The majority of the world's poor, accounting for 40%, has converged into South Asia (Srinivasan 2012). Albeit amazing monetary development in the area as of late has diminished the level of destitution extensively, the number of individuals living as poor stays high. Further, the ongoing worldwide monetary and financial disturbance has eased back development and has led to invert gains.

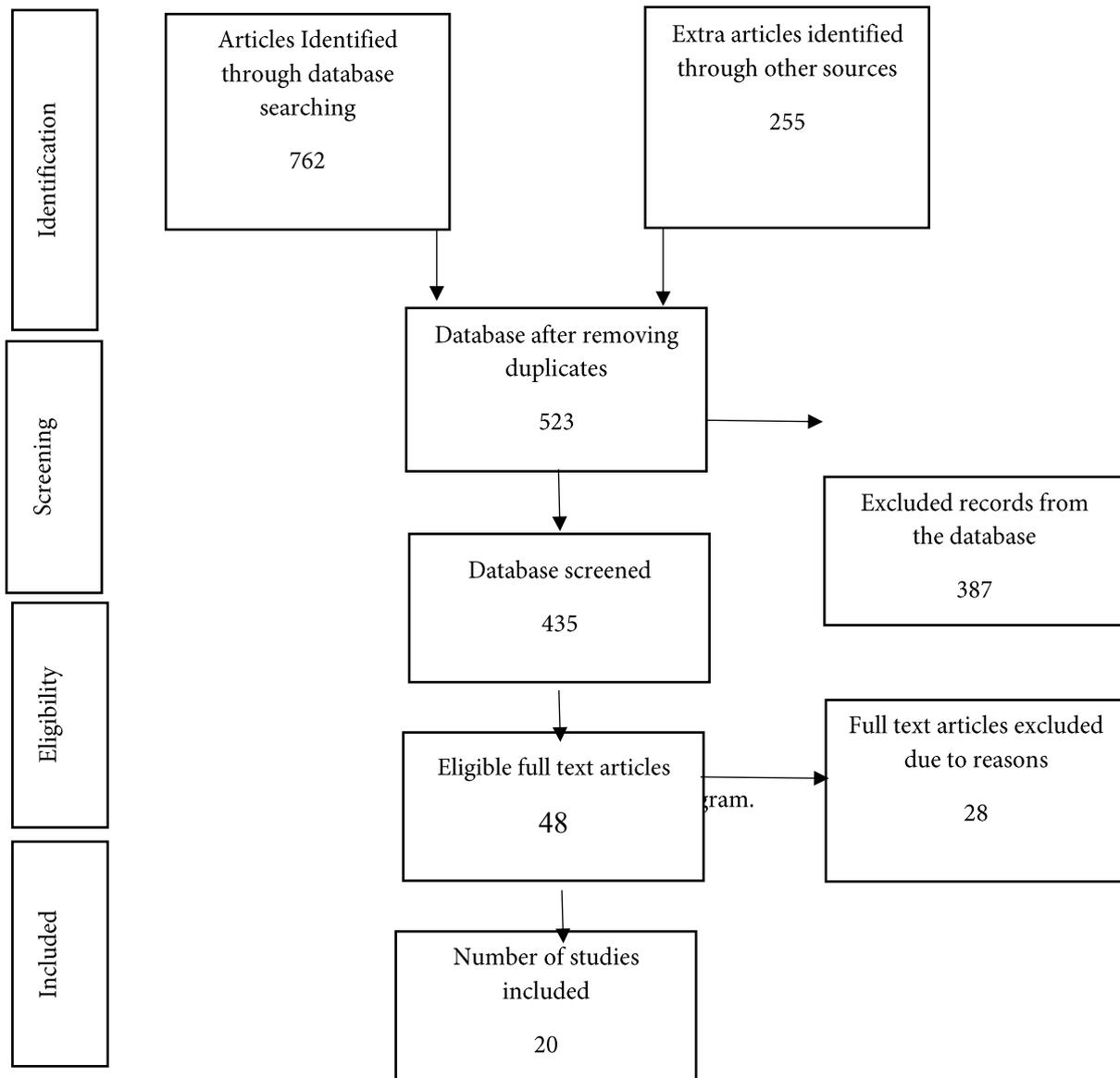
Local coordination can expand the area's ability to interface with worldwide creation organizations and take an interest in the worldwide economy with more noteworthy productivity. According to Ahmed and Ghani (2008), just 7% of all global calls are regional and 71% for East Asia. These figures showcase the gravity of regional interdependences which can be utilized for development opportunities. However, cross-border investments in South Asia are very small. The community movements via borders are less due to low security and infrastructures. So, the level of trade within the region is very low.

2. Literature Review

The investigation depicts a literature review on poverty, following Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) guidelines (Moher et al.,2009). The specific methods for this investigation are present in 2.1. The research used content analysis to recognize themes and also for organizing qualitative and quantitative data from the literature. This is for the better comprehension of how poverty impacts the South Asian Region after searching for the literature.

The search terms (poverty reduction or eradication) and (poverty in South Asian Region) were used in Emerald. Emerald is a large search system. Multiple databases are employs in it. Emerald may apply too much rigor in its searches. So, it was selected over Google Scholar, which does not apply sufficient rigor in vetting included resources. The database covers the date parameters 2000–2020 were used. In order to narrow the results to those publications, the date range was used. Only the published articles in English in peer-reviewed journal articles and articles by World Bank Group were regarded for this study. By using the specific same search terms in Google's

general search engine, a grey literature search could be done. The review is only restricted to the articles relating to poverty reduction in South Asian Region and also the articles found by using the search terms focused on poverty eradication were included. The search method identified 762 records in total.



2.1 Content Analysis

Each source was fully read after selecting 50 sources in order to do a qualitative content analysis. Information relating to poverty eradication in the South Asian context or was generically recorded in a spreadsheet. It was categorized into different columns for the topic and the reference.

There are some limitations to this investigation even though there are attempts to systematically assemble a sound set of investigations. This investigation is restricted only to the journal articles and the articles found in the world bank group which have been found in the chosen databases. And also, the content analysis relies upon the output delineated by other authors. It is difficult to find many gaps for quality control and the completeness of the output by others. Still, this study gives out a wide range of reading of the previous studies or the literature to find the trends reported by other authors.

3. Discussion and Analysis

20 articles included in this analysis can be shown in table 1 as follows. The table lists out the title of the article and the reference.

Table 3.1: Included literature for the study

Topic	Reference
“Poverty in South Asia”	M. Irfan (2000)
“Information and Communication Technology and Poverty: An Asian Perspective”	M. G. Quibria and Ted Tschang (2001)
“Information and communication technologies for direct poverty alleviation: Costs and Benefits”	Charles Kenny (2002)
“Irrigation and poverty alleviation: review of the empirical evidence”	Intizar Hussain and Munir A.Hanjra (2004)
“Rural Poverty Reduction Strategy for South Asia”	Ganesh Thapa (2005)
“Rural poverty in South East Asia; Issues, Policies and challenges”	Arsenio M. Balisacan and Rosemarie Edillon (2005)
“Is South-South trade the answer to alleviating poverty?”	Agatiello, O.R. (2007)
“A Gender-Focused Macro-Micro Analysis of the Poverty Impacts of Trade Liberalization in South Africa”	Cockburn J, Fofana I, Decaluwe B, Mabugu, R. Chitiga, M.(2007)
“Poverty in South Asia”	Anil K Singh (2008)
“Trade and Poverty in South Asia: An Interpretive Survey (Working paper)”	Bandara, Jayatilleke S. (2009)
“Financial Sector Development, Economic Growth, and Poverty Reduction: A Literature Review”	Zhuang, Juzhong et al. (2009)
“Decent work and poverty eradication: literature review and two-country study”	Stuart Bell and Kirsten Newitt (2010)
“Regional Integration and Economic Development in South Asia”	Sultan Hafeez Rahman, Sridhar Khatri, Hans-Peter Brunner (2012)
“South Asian Countries in Regional Integration Perspective: A Critical Review”	Sharmin Sultana, Jumana Asrat (2014)
“Tourism for Poverty Reduction in South Asia What works and where are the gaps?”	Alberto F. Lemma (2014)
“Rural electricity access in South Asia: Is grid extension the remedy? A critical review”	Debajit Palit, Kaushik Ranjan Bandyopadhyay (2016)
“International Comparisons of Poverty in South Asia”	Tonmoy Islam, David Newhouse, Monica Yanez-Pagans (2018)

“Evaluating Synergies and Trade-Offs among Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs): Explorative Analyses of Development Paths in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa”	Brijesh Mainali, Jyrki Luukkanen, Semida Silveira, Jari Kaivo-oja (2018)
“Role of SME in Poverty Alleviation in SAARC Region via Panel Data Analysis”	Faiza Manzoor, Longbao Wei, Mohammad Nurunnabi, Qazi Abdul Subhan (2019)
“South Asia – Poverty data”	Wameq Raza (2020)

The following tables show the detail information and data according to the National Statistical Offices for national poverty rates, POVCALNET as of February 2020, and Global Monitoring Database relating to the South Asian region countries. So, it includes Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka.

Bangladesh

There is a remarkable gain in poverty reduction since 2000 according to the latest official poverty estimates from 2016/2017. The extreme poverty rates have decreased to 12.9%. The upper destitution rates have halved to 24.3%. There was a decrease in the destitution rate in a time period of rapid growth in the economy when considering trends in betwixt 2010 and 2016. Due to the slow progress in urban areas, there was a decline or a downturn in poverty alleviation. The Gini index which is used to measure inequality was 32.4 in 2016. The Gini index was 33.6 between 1995 and 1996.

Table 3.2

Poverty Factors	Country	Figure of poor (million)	Rate (%)	Year
National poverty line		39.6	24.3	2016
International Poverty Line 61.6 in Bangladesh taka (2016) or US\$1.90 (2011 PPP) per day per capita		23.3	14.8	2016
Lower Middle Income Class Poverty Line 103.7 in Bangladesh taka (2016) or US\$3.20 (2011 PPP) per day per capita		83.5	52.9	2016
Upper Middle Income Class Poverty Line 178.2 in Bangladesh taka (2016) or US\$5.50 (2011 PPP) per day per capita		133.5	84.5	2016
Multidimensional Poverty Measure			21.6	2016
Shared prosperity				
Annualized Consumption Growth per capita of the bottom 40 percent			1.35	2010-2016
Inequality				
Gini Index			32.4	2016
Shared Prosperity Premium = Growth of the bottom 40 - Average Growth			-0.19	2010-2016

Growth		
Annualized GDP per capita growth	5.25	2010-2016
Annualized Consumption Growth per capita from Household Survey	1.54	2010-2016
Median income		
Growth of the annual median income/consumption per capita	1.65	2010-2016

Sources: WDI for GDP, National Statistical Offices for national poverty rates, POVCALNET as of February 2020, and Global Monitoring Database for the rest.

Bhutan

Even though the progress has slowed down, Bhutan has made huge progress in eliminating destitution and also improving the living standards of people. The poverty head count ratio fell from 14.5% in 2012 to 12% in 2017. This depicts a downturn in the stage of poverty elimination when compared with 2007-2012 while there is still an improvement. The Gini index measures inequality reduced in between 2012 to 2017 from 38.8 to 37.4 respectively. The median income growth rate was 2.3% in the period betwixt 2012 and 2017.

Table 3.3

Poverty Factors	Figure of poor (million)	Rate (%)	Year
National poverty line	59.6	8.2	2017
International Poverty Line 47.7 in Bhutanese ngultrum (2017) or US\$1.90 (2011 PPP) per day per capita	11.1	1.5	2017
Lower Middle Income Class Poverty Line 80.3 in Bhutanese ngultrum (2017) or US\$3.20 (2011 PPP) per day per capita	89.5	12.0	2017
Upper Middle Income Class Poverty Line 138 in Bhutanese ngultrum (2017) or US\$5.50 (2011 PPP) per day per capita	287.5	38.6	2017
Multidimensional Poverty Measure		3.9	2017
Shared prosperity			
Annualized Consumption Growth per capita of the bottom 40 percent		1.63	2012-2017
Inequality			
Gini Index		37.4	2017
Shared Prosperity Premium = Growth of the bottom 40 - Average Growth		-0.05	2012-2017

Growth		
Annualized GDP per capita growth	4.14	2012-2017
Annualized Consumption Growth per capita from Household Survey	1.67	2012-2017
Median income		
Growth of the annual median income/consumption per capita	1.27	2012-2017

Sources: WDI for GDP, National Statistical Offices for national poverty rates, POVCALNET as of February 2020, and Global Monitoring Database for the rest.

India

India has made significant progression in eliminating absolute poverty since 2000. The poverty reduced from 21.6 to an estimated 13.4% at the international poverty line between 2011/12 and 2015 continuing the rapid decrease in poverty. During this period, more than 90 million people enhanced their living conditions by escaping extreme poverty which was aided by rapid economic growth. In accordance with the recent estimates in 2015, 176 million Indians were living extremely poor. Within this context, the COVID 19 pandemic was there and the containment measures embraced by the state are anticipated to enhance destitution in the economy. The poorer household was also exposed to this risk of COVID 19.

Table 3.4

Poverty Factors	Figure of poor (million)	Rate (%)	Year
National poverty line	273.1	21.9	2011
International Poverty Line US\$1.90 (2011 PPP) per day per capita	175.8	13.4	2015
Lower Middle Income Class Poverty Line US\$3.20 (2011 PPP) per day per capita	659.8	50.4	2015
Upper Middle Income Class Poverty Line US\$5.50 (2011 PPP) per day per capita	1077.9	82.3	2015
Multidimensional Poverty Measure			
Shared prosperity			
Annualized Consumption Growth per capita of the bottom 40 percent		3.20	2004-2011
Inequality			
Gini Index		35.4	2011

Shared Prosperity Premium = Growth of the bottom 40 - Average Growth	-0.49	2004-2011
Growth		
Annualized GDP per capita growth	5.35	2004-2011
Annualized Consumption Growth per capita from Household Survey	3.69	2004-2011
Median income		
Growth of the annual median income/consumption per capita	3.47	2004-2011

Sources: WDI for GDP, National Statistical Offices for national poverty rates, POVCALNET as of February 2020, and Global Monitoring Database for the rest.

Maldives

The Maldives was the first nation which gained and maintain upper-middle-income status in South Asia in spite of greater exposure to internal shocks. The growth in GDP between 2018 and 2019 was 6.9% and 5.2% respectively. With the outbreak of COVID 19 which dampens international tourism, revenue, and exports, the growth has forecasted to be -4.7 %in 2020. In 2016 the extreme poverty was 1.90 USD per individual was negligible in the nation. The Gini index which is measured the inequality has been continually reducing and stands at 31.3 as of 2016.

Table 3.5

Poverty Factors	Figure of poor (million)	Rate (%)	Year
National poverty line	39.0	8.2	2016
International Poverty Line 24.2 in Maldivian rufiyaa (2016) or US\$1.90 (2011 PPP) per day per capita	0.1	0.0	2016
Lower Middle Income Class Poverty Line 40.7 in Maldivian rufiyaa (2016) or US\$3.20 (2011 PPP) per day per capita	2.4	0.5	2016
Upper Middle Income Class Poverty Line 70 in Maldivian rufiyaa (2016) or US\$5.50 (2011 PPP) per day per capita	31.6	6.6	2016
Multidimensional Poverty Measure		0.1	2016
Shared prosperity			
Annualized Consumption Growth per capita of the bottom 40 percent			
Inequality			
Gini Index		31.3	2016

Shared Prosperity Premium = Growth of the
bottom 40 - Average Growth

Growth

Annualized GDP per capita growth 0.66 2011-2016

Annualized Consumption Growth per capita from
Household Survey

Median income

Growth of the annual median
income/consumption per capita

Sources: WDI for GDP, National Statistical Offices for national poverty rates, POVCALNET as of February 2020, and Global Monitoring Database for the rest

Nepal

The poverty headcount was 42% in 1995 which was deliberated at the national poverty line. It has systematically decreased from 31% to 12.5% from 2003 and 2010 respectively. In 2010, the destitution rate was estimated to be 25% and improved in the real value of the poverty threshold by 35% with the revised destitution line. About 28% of Nepal's population was multidimensionally poor in 2018 as per the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI). A significant proportion of households had to face the challenge due to COVID 19 pandemic. So the populace again fell in to poverty due to the adverse impacts on the global economy.

Table 3.6

Poverty Factors	Figure of poor (million)	Rate (%)	Year
National poverty line	6.8	25.2	2010
International Poverty Line 45.5 in Nepalese rupee (2010) or US\$1.90 (2011 PPP) per day per capita	4.1	15.0	2010
Lower Middle Income Class Poverty Line 76.7 in Nepalese rupee (2010) or US\$3.20 (2011 PPP) per day per capita	13.7	50.9	2010
Upper Middle Income Class Poverty Line 131.7 in Nepalese rupee (2010) or US\$5.50 (2011 PPP) per day per capita	22.4	83.0	2010
Multidimensional Poverty Measure		28.2	2010
Shared prosperity			
Annualized Consumption Growth per capita of the bottom 40 percent		7.35	2003-2010
Inequality			
Gini Index		32.8	2010

Shared Prosperity Premium = Growth of the bottom 40 - Average Growth	3.58	2003-2010
Growth		
Annualized GDP per capita growth	0.66	2011-2016
Annualized Consumption Growth per capita from Household Survey	3.24	2003-2010
Median income		
Growth of the annual median income/consumption per capita	6.69	2003-2010

Sources: WDI for GDP, National Statistical Offices for national poverty rates, POVCALNET as of February 2020, and Global Monitoring Database for the rest.

Pakistan

Over the 14 years from 2001 to 2015, there was a congruous and significant decrease in destitution in Pakistan, when the poverty headcount measured reduced from 64.3% to 24.3%. The reason was the improvement in opportunities for jobs outside the agriculture sector. The rise in labor income enhanced by as much as 74% in the off-farm sector which in real terms. It was the main reason for two-thirds of the reduction in poverty in betwixt 2001 and 2015.

Table 3.7

Poverty Factors	Figure of poor (million)	Rate (%)	Year
National poverty line	46.0	24.3	2015
International Poverty Line 63.9 in Pakistan rupee (2015) or US\$1.90 (2011 PPP) per day per capita	7.9	3.9	2015
Lower Middle Income Class Poverty Line 107.6 in Pakistan rupee (2015) or US\$3.20 (2011 PPP) per day per capita	69.2	34.7	2015
Upper Middle Income Class Poverty Line 184.9 in Pakistan rupee (2015) or US\$5.50 (2011 PPP) per day per capita	150.4	75.4	2015
Multidimensional Poverty Measure			
Shared prosperity			
Annualized Consumption Growth per capita of the bottom 40 percent		2.72	2010-2015
Inequality			
Gini Index		33.5	2015

Shared Prosperity Premium = Growth of the bottom 40 - Average Growth	-1.53	2010-2015
Growth		
Annualized GDP per capita growth	1.83	2010-2015
Annualized Consumption Growth per capita from Household Survey	4.25	2010-2015
Median income		
Growth of the annual median income/consumption per capita	3.19	2010-2015

Sources: WDI for GDP, National Statistical Offices for national poverty rates, POVCALNET as of February 2020, and Global Monitoring Database for the rest.

Sri Lanka

The international destitution rate which was \$5.50 per day per person for upper-middle-income countries has decreased from 51% to 40.4% in 2016 from 2012/13. The strong growth in GDP which committed to increasing employment and wages has led to the reduction of poverty or the main drivers of the progress were the enhanced labor market outcomes than the social transfers. The service sector growth was underpinned due to the decrease in employment in agriculture steadily. The recorded Gini index 39.8 in 2016 and it was among the top in the South Asian region.

Table 3.8

Poverty Factors	Figure of poor (million)	Rate (%)	Year
National poverty line	847.1	4.1	2016
International Poverty Line 102.7 in Sri Lanka rupee (2016) or US\$1.90 (2011 PPP) per day per capita	175.9	0.8	2016
Lower Middle Income Class Poverty Line 172.9 in Sri Lanka rupee (2016) or US\$3.20 (2011 PPP) per day per capita	2148.3	10.1	2016
Upper Middle Income Class Poverty Line 184.9 in Pakistan rupee (2015) or US\$5.50 (2011 PPP) per day per capita	8568.8	40.4	2016
Multidimensional Poverty Measure		1.2	2016
Shared prosperity			
Annualized Consumption Growth per capita of the bottom 40 percent		4.24	2012-2016
Inequality			
Gini Index		39.8	2016

Shared Prosperity Premium = Growth of the bottom 40 - Average Growth Growth	-0.48	2012-2016
Annualized GDP per capita growth	3.49	2012-2016
Annualized Consumption Growth per capita from Household Survey Median income	4.72	2012-2016
Growth of the annual median income/consumption per capita	4.60	2012-2016

Sources: WDI for GDP, National Statistical Offices for national poverty rates, POVCALNET as of February 2020, and Global Monitoring Database for the rest.

Key Indicators of poverty

The following table depicts the key indicators of poverty among Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka using the data presented by the World Bank.

Table 3.9

Distribution among groups:2016	International poverty line (%)		Relative group (%)	
	Non-poor	Poor	Bottom 40	Top 60
Distribution among groups:2016				
Bangladesh				
Urban population	93	7	22	78
Rural population	82	18	47	53
Males	86	14	40	60
Females	85	15	40	60
0 to 14 years old	82	18	46	54
15 to 64 years old	87	13	36	14
65 and Older	86	14	40	60
Without education (16+)	75	25	50	50
Primary education (16+)	86	14	41	59
Secondary education (16+)	92	8	26	74
Tertiary/post-secondary education (16+)	97	3	11	89
Distribution among groups:2017				
Bhutan				
Urban population	99	1	13	87
Rural population	83	17	53	47
Males	88	12	40	60
Females	87	13	43	57
0 to 14 years old	89	11	38	62
15 to 64 years old	85	15	49	51
65 and Older	85	15	48	52

Without education (16+)	89	11	38	62
Primary education (16+)	94	6	25	75
Secondary education (16+)	98	2	10	90
Tertiary/post-secondary education (16+)				
Distribution among groups:2015				
India				
Urban population	91	9		
Rural population	85	15		
Males	87	13		
Females	86	14		
0 to 14 years old	81	19		
15 to 64 years old	88	12		
65 and Older	89	11		
Without education (16+)	82	18		
Primary education (16+)	87	13		
Secondary education (16+)	93	7		
Tertiary/post-secondary education (16+)	98	2		
Distribution among groups:2009				
Maldives				
Urban population	95	95	33	67
Rural population	91	9	44	56
Males	93	7	40	60
Females	93	7	39	61
0 to 14 years old	92	8	45	55
15 to 64 years old	93	7	37	63
65 and Older	92	8	41	59
Without education (16+)	92	8	42	58
Primary education (16+)	93		41	59
Secondary education (16+)	93	7	37	63
Tertiary/post-secondary education (16+)	97	3	33	67
Distribution among groups:2010				
Nepal				
Urban population	91	9	26	74
Rural population	84	16	43	57
Males	85	15	39	61
Females	85	15	40	60
0 to 14 years old	80	20	49	51
15 to 64 years old	88	12	34	66
65 and Older	89	11	34	66
Without education (16+)	83	17	44	56
Primary education (16+)	88	12	38	62
Secondary education (16+)	96	4	18	82
Tertiary/post-secondary education (16+)	100			97
Distribution among groups:2015				
Pakistan				

Urban population	99	1	22	78
Rural population	95	5	50	50
Males	96	4	40	60
Females	96	4	40	60
0 to 14 years old	94	6	49	51
15 to 64 years old	97	3	34	66
65 and Older	97	3	32	68
Without education (16+)	95	5	49	51
Primary education (16+)	98	2	32	68
Secondary education (16+)	99	1	16	84
Tertiary/post-secondary education (16+)	100		4	96
Distribution among groups:2016				
Sri Lanka				
Urban population	75	25	25	75
Rural population	56	44	43	57
Males	59	41	40	60
Females	60	40	40	60
0 to 14 years old	54	46	46	54
15 to 64 years old	62	38	38	62
65 and Older	61	39	38	62
Without education (16+)	36	64	64	36
Primary education (16+)	45	55	54	46
Secondary education (16+)	65	35	34	66
Tertiary/post-secondary education (16+)	93	7	7	93

Source: World Bank using HIES/SARMD/GMD

The research by Irfan (2000) on the poverty situation in South Asia has focused mainly to investigate the progress made within the decade of the 1990s. During the decade, all the countries of the South Asian region were executing some variant of structural adjustment and stabilization programs. The paper includes the performance of national economies and provides some clues relating to the potential effects of the reforms on poverty reduction. The safety networks and the targeting issues for improving their cost-effectiveness are also discussed in the paper.

The paper by Agatiello (2007) explains the empirical evidence and statistical evidence from the microeconomic and macroeconomic viewpoint. And also explains the policy options for emerging economic governments to improve South- South trade and investment. According to the results of the research, the prevailing state of play does not fare equally in all regions, nations, products, 52 and services. When comparing to other trade, the South-South trade expands at faster stage. It proposed that for future growth, addressing facilitating trade is of the essence. It includes main investments in trade-related infrastructure such as modernization of air and water ports, road infrastructures, transport, etc.

In the key of the prevailing trade debate, the issue of how trade liberalization to execute in a way to assess equal dissemination of income, and also sustainable poverty eradication in emerging economies is at its top. Cockburn et al., (2007) create a macroeconomic framework which combines activities in the market and non-market while differentiating male and female labors, for assessing the influence of tariff mitigation on male and female of South Africa. The investigation finds that there is a significant bias in gender against women as the reduction in participation in their labor market. Men will contribute more to the market economy.

The literature review study by Zhuang, Juzhong et al., (2009) reviews the development role of the pecuniary sector with an aim of having a deep comprehension of the logic of development support to the financial sector of emerging nations. According to the findings of the review, the following conclusions can be made. (i) the financial sector growth has a significant role in assisting economic growth and poverty alleviation. Empirical evidence from cross country and country particular investigations have supported the arguments. (ii) There were disagreements over how pecuniary sector growth should be sequenced in emerging economies, it is the comparable significance of local banks and capital markets and in improving the banking sector, the comparative significance of large and small banks. (iii) Widening the accessibility to financing by microenterprises, small and medium-sized enterprises, and also vulnerable categories are identified as significant for the alleviation of destitution. (iv) The development in the innovation and financial sector will give risks and therefore important to carry good macroeconomic management etc. The study argues that these conclusions give a strong justification for growth support for growth in the financial sector as a prime concern.

There are many virtues of novel information and communication technologies in eliminating destitution and enhancing living standards. The study by Quibria and Ted (2001) tries to give a balanced analysis of the issue through investigating connections between novel ICT on several areas of poverty and development. It investigates direct employment aspects in ICT sectors, in the context of India which had some breakthroughs in software development businesses. The study reviews many “case stories” to depict the direct influence of ICTs in the sectors of living standard, employment, education, health, governance, and empowering of the poor.

A powerful tool for motivating and income generation in emerging economies are information and communication technologies. In between developed and less developed countries, the cost-effectiveness of various ICTs differ. The article by Charles (2002) reviews the possible efficiency of radios, telephones, and the internet as tools of erect elimination of destitution. The necessities for their effective utility makes radios and telephones more suited technologies for the poor. In gaining access to the power of the internet, traditional ICTs act as a proxy. Governments have to consider the opening of private and community provision of broadcasting and widening accessibility to telephone services. So, they can efficiently perform the intermediary role.

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

The study reviewed the theoretical and empirical literature on poverty eradication South Asian region. Finally, the following conclusions can be made. Firstly, there is an agreement that the pecuniary sector growth performs an important role in economic growth facilitation. A good and sound pecuniary system assists by pooling savings and mobilizing, producing information on potential investments and capital allocation, investment controlling and executing corporal governance, supporting trade through exchange of goods and services, diversification, and risk management. This agreement was assisted by a body of empirical evidence which was taken from cross country and country-specific investigations.

Secondly, the financial sector growth contributes to poverty elimination and it is the main way for economic development. Higher development rates facilitate the poor in generating employment opportunities which enable the governments to more allocation of fiscal resources on social spending and improving reserves to the poor people for investments.

Fourthly, the study proposed that there are significant connections between irrigation and poverty alleviation. This may be direct or indirect. Direct connections may be via household-level effects while indirect connections may

be via national-level influences. Irrigation benefits the poor people through higher productions, yields, less risk of crop failure, higher and year-round farm as well as on-farm employment.

Fifthly, the review has revealed that the linkage between trade and poverty is not clear-cut as it is not easy to empirically test due to the complexity. So, definite empirical solutions to the issue of whether trade liberalization declines destitution in South Asia have proved elusive. The investigations provided some comparable outcomes. Some investigations conclude the trade liberalization decreases poverty. Some others found that trade liberalization increases poverty.

Sixth is the execution of trade policy amendments, it is significant to adopt complementing strategies in eliminating destitution. This conclusion is in line with a recent UNCTAD report that stated: "The controversy about the effects of openness has now seesawed between 'it is good' and 'it is bad' to reach the more nuanced position that 'it is good if the right complementary policies are adopted'..." (UNCTAD, 2004).

The seventh one is the government approaches and strategies for poverty mitigation in tourism are limited in South Asia. There are many ways that purport to achieve poverty elimination in tourism. But the methods are not standardized and rigorous. The ways for poverty reduction consist of the Community Based Tourism Approach, enterprise assistance, and sustainable tourism, etc.

Eighth is SMEs performs a significant role in economic development in developed and developing countries. SMEs commit to attaining sustainable development goals in emerging economies by generating chances for employment, encouraging innovation, encouraging industrialization, and declining inequality in income distribution. The seriousness of destitution can be eliminated via the improvement of the SME sector and also through bilateral exchange among the member nations. The review depicts the value of SMEs in mitigating poverty in developing economies, especially in the SAARC region.

The final one is, according to the review, it can conclude that the direct influence of ICTs in the sectors of livelihood, employment, education, health, governance and will empower the poor. Information and Communication Technology is the main component in improving the living standards of people.

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