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Samoa monetary poverty assessment

2023

Samoa monetary poverty assessment *2023*

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ACRONYMS

AE	Adult Equivalent
BNPL	Basic Needs Poverty Line
CAPI	Computer Assisted Personal Interview
FIES	Food Insecurity Experience Scale
FPL	Food Poverty Line
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNI	Gross National Income
HH	Household
HIES	Household Income and Expenditure Survey
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IPL	International Poverty Line
LHS	Left Hand Side
LMIC	Lower Middle-Income Country
NFPL	Non-Food Poverty Line
PSMB	Pacific Statistics Methods Board
RHS	Right Hand Side
SAT	Western Samoan Tala
SBS	Samoa Bureau of Statistics
SDD	Statistics for Development Division
SIDS	Small Island Developing States
SPC	Pacific Community
UMIC	Upper Middle-Income Country
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
USD	United States Dollar

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This is the fifth monetary poverty assessment conducted in Samoa, with previous assessments occurring in 2002, 2008, 2013, and 2018. It therefore serves as an important marker in a series that aims to measure progress towards the alleviation of monetary-poverty in Samoa. The information in this report provides important information in achieving national development goals, such the Pathway for the Development of Samoa, and international goals, such as the Sustainable Development Goals. This underscores the importance of this report and, on behalf of the Samoa Bureau of Statistics (SBS), I'd like to acknowledge all who were involved in its production.

The SBS acknowledges the collective efforts that resulted in this output - the Samoa Monetary Poverty Assessment 2023. The data used for the monetary poverty assessment were the 2023 Household Income and Expenditure Survey (HIES), which was conducted by the Economic Statistics Division of SBS, while the preparation of this report was done by the Social Statistics Division of SBS. We acknowledge with gratitude the collective efforts of the SBS team, as well as the SBS team and households who participated in the 2023 HIES.

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We further acknowledge regional partners, including the Pacific Statistics Methods Board and the World Bank, for their methodological and technical input to the development of monetary poverty statistics in Samoa.

Finally, we want to acknowledge the users of this report who will translate the results into planning and policy that aims to alleviate poverty and hardship in Samoa.

Fa'afetai tele lava

Leota Aliielua Salani

GOVERNMENT STATISTICIAN

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The 2023 Household Income and Expenditure Survey (HIES) provides a comprehensive assessment of poverty in Samoa, revealing a national poverty rate of 15.2% based on the national basic needs poverty line of SAT 4,222.62 per adult equivalent per year. This represents an improvement from the 21.9% recorded in 2018, though this comparison should be interpreted with caution due to significant methodological changes in both data collection and poverty assessment approaches that limit comparability across survey rounds. The analysis reveals significant geographic disparities, with poverty highest in Rest of Upolu at 23.7%, followed by North-West Upolu at 16.1%, while Savai'i (9.4%) and Apia Urban Area (8.9%) have substantially lower rates. These regional differences are mirrored in the poverty gap, which measures how far below the poverty line poor households fall on average, with Rest of Upolu showing the highest poverty gap at 4.6% compared to the national average of 3.2%, indicating that the poor in Rest of Upolu have consumption levels furthest from the poverty threshold.

Education emerges as a powerful determinant of poverty status, with rates decreasing dramatically from 20.5% for households headed by someone with primary education to just 2.7% for those with tertiary education. Employment type strongly correlates with poverty, as public sector employees experience the lowest poverty rate (4.7%) compared to private sector employees (13.2%) and those working in family businesses (9.9%). Access to basic services shows clear associations with poverty status—households without access to public water, flush toilets, or electricity face substantially higher poverty rates than those with access.

Demographically, female-headed households experience lower poverty rates (12.3%) than male-headed households (16.2%), with the largest gender gap observed in Rest of Upolu at 11.0 percentage points. Larger household sizes increase poverty likelihood, with every additional household member increasing poverty probability by 2 percentage points. Children aged 0–14 have the highest poverty rates (17.6%), raising concerns about intergenerational poverty transmission. This is of particular concern as educational gaps between poor and non-poor children widen in secondary education where enrolment drops to 72.9% for poor children compared to 84.7% for non-poor children.

Income sources vary considerably by region and wealth level, with urban areas relying predominantly on employment income (64.8% in Apia Urban Area), while rural areas derive significant portions from agricultural activities (15.0% in Savai'i), home production (10.3% in Savai'i), and remittances. Remittances comprise 8–10% of household income across all regions but show substantial disparities in amount received between the poorest and wealthiest households, increasing from 7.4% for the poorest decile to 9.1% for the highest consumption decile. Inequality, measured by a Gini coefficient of 34.2, remains moderate by international standards, with notable regional variations ranging from 29.8 in Savai'i to 35.8 in North-West Upolu.

Food poverty affects 4.4% of Samoans nationally, based on a food poverty line of SAT[1] 3,046.69 per adult equivalent per year, following similar geographic patterns with Rest of Upolu having the highest rate at 5.9% and Savai'i the lowest at 0.8%. When measured against international poverty lines, Samoa performs well with only 4.6% of the population below the Lower Middle Income Country line of USD 3.65 per person per day, though 29.5% fall below the Upper Middle Income Country line of USD 6.85 per person per day.

The results of the monetary poverty assessment are highly consistent with other welfare measures. For example, the national monetary poverty rate of 15.2% is exactly the same as the national non-monetary poverty rate based on the Multidimensional Poverty Index. Similarly, the food poverty rate of 4.4% closely aligns with the estimates of the prevalence of undernourishment (5.4%) and the prevalence of severe food insecurity based on the Food Security Experience Scale (4.0%). The alignment of monetary and non-monetary welfare measures, including food poverty and food insecurity, supports the estimates presented herein and provides consistent statistics for policy.

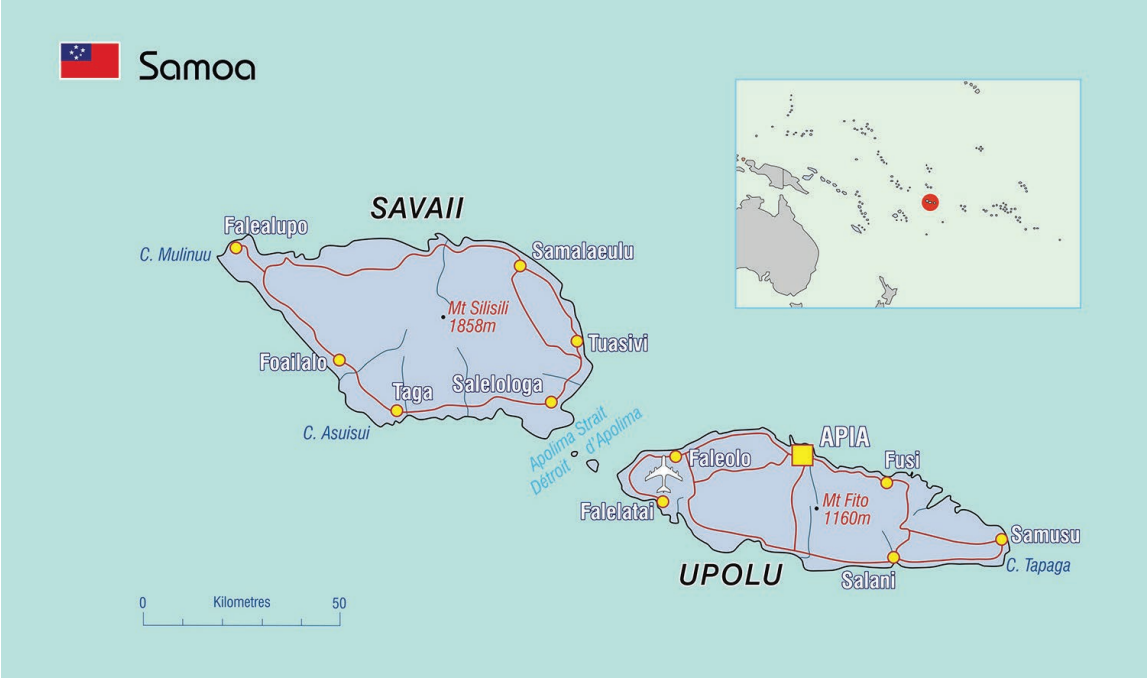
These findings reveal several key development challenges facing Samoa: significant infrastructure deficits, particularly in water services where only 62.2% of households in Rest of Upolu have access compared to over 90% in other regions; employment vulnerabilities in the private sector, especially in North-West Upolu where many poor are employed in private sector jobs (6.5% of all poor); educational disparities with a substantial 25.9 percentage point secondary school enrolment gap between the poorest and richest deciles; and the need for differentiated approaches to address diverse typologies of poor households across regions. The concentration of 77.0% of all poor households in just two regions—North-West Upolu and Rest of Upolu—presents strategic opportunities for targeted interventions which could maximize poverty reduction impact. These insights can inform strategies for inclusive growth that addresses the specific needs of different vulnerable populations and regions, ensuring that economic development benefits all Samoans.

1 *Samoan Tala*

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Samoa is a small island nation in the South Pacific, facing significant challenges related to climate change and natural disasters. It is classified as a Small Island Developing State (SIDS) with unique vulnerabilities (World Bank, 2020a). Samoa consists of two main islands (Savai'i and Upolu) and several smaller islands with a total land area of approximately 2,842 square kilometres, spread across an exclusive economic zone of about 120,000 square kilometres (Samoa Bureau of Statistics, 2020). In 2023, it had a population of 209,184 persons, an annual growth rate of 0.62%, and average household size of 6.5 persons (SBS 2025). Apia is the capital and only urban area in Samoa and home to 16.9% of the population, with other rural administrative regions are North-West Upolu, home to 37.1% of the population, Rest of Upolu (24.1%) and Savai'i (21.9%). Nearly three-quarters of the population resides on Upolu, with the capital Apia serving as the main urban centre, while the remainder live in traditional villages predominantly on the larger but less developed island of Savai'i (Government of Samoa, 2021). Savai'i is separated from Upolu by a strait about 20 km wide. A ferry, which takes about 60–90 minutes to cross the strait, is the main connection for people, goods, and vehicles.

Map of Samoa in the South Pacific region (with Samoa marked in red)



Source: SPC

Samoa is approximately 3,540 kilometres from Auckland, New Zealand and 4,830 kilometres from Sydney, Australia, with these countries serving as key migration destinations and sources of remittances for Samoan families (World Bank, 2017; Asian Development Bank, 2022a). Limited domestic market size, high transportation costs, and vulnerability to external shocks constrain economic development (World Bank, 2020a). The economy is primarily driven by services (65% of GDP), especially tourism (25% of GDP), agriculture, remittances, and foreign aid (IMF, 2021; Asian Development Bank, 2022b). Unlike many of its atoll neighbours, Samoa's volcanic islands

have higher elevations, but its coastal communities remain highly vulnerable to sea-level rise, tropical cyclones, and other climate change impacts, as demonstrated by devastating cyclones Ofa (1990), Val (1991), Evan (2012), and Gita (2018) (World Bank, 2021).

Samoa has achieved upper-middle-income status, but development challenges persist. With a GDP per capita of approximately USD 4,330 (2023) and GNI per capita of around USD 4,200 (World Bank, 2023), Samoa graduated from Least Developed Country status in 2014 (World Bank, 2020a). Human development indicators show mixed progress: Samoa ranks 111th out of 189 countries in the 2020 Human Development Index[2] with a value of 0.715, placing it in the "high human development" category (UNDP, 2020). Samoa has a Human Capital Index score of 0.55, meaning a child born today can expect to achieve only 55% of their potential productivity as a future worker, though this is slightly higher than the Pacific Island average of 0.47 (World Bank, 2020b). Samoa has achieved near-universal primary education enrolment, but secondary completion rates and quality of education remain of concern. While Samoan children can expect 12.9 years of schooling, the learning-adjusted years of schooling is only 8.6 years when accounting for education quality—a 33% learning gap (World Bank, 2020b). This highlights ongoing challenges in developing human capital necessary for economic diversification and accessing employment opportunities both domestically and internationally through labour mobility schemes (Government of Samoa, 2021).

Poverty in the Pacific region presents unique challenges distinct from those in other developing regions globally. Unlike continental regions where absolute poverty often manifests in severe food insecurity and material deprivation, Pacific Island poverty is characterized by vulnerability to shocks, limited economic opportunities, and challenges in accessing services, particularly in remote areas (World Bank, 2017). When measured using national poverty lines that reflect local costs and consumption patterns, poverty rates in Pacific Island countries typically range from 15% to 30%, substantially higher than extreme poverty measures would suggest (World Bank, 2017). Samoa's poverty trends have fluctuated over the past decade, with national poverty rates at 26.9% in 2008, decreasing to 18.8% in 2013, then rising to 21.9% in 2018 (World Bank, 2023), and now falling to 15.2% in 2023 according to the latest HIES. However, these figures should be interpreted with caution, as methodological differences between surveys affect direct comparability, particularly between previous assessments and the current assessment (see Annex C). This limitation makes it difficult to draw definitive conclusions about long-term poverty trends in Samoa.

When measured by the Lower Middle Income Country poverty line of USD 3.65 per day, Samoa performs well with only 4.6% of the population below this threshold, positioning it favourably compared to regional peers such as Marshall Islands (6.1%), Fiji (12.4%), Indonesia (17.5%), and the Philippines (17.8%). At the Upper Middle Income Country poverty line of USD 6.85 per day, 29.5% of the population falls below this level, which places Samoa in the middle range among comparable countries—higher than Tunisia (7.6%) and Thailand (21.5%), but lower than Marshall Islands (30.3%), Fiji (31.2%), and the Philippines (55.0%). The significant difference between

2 The Human Development Index is a statistical composite index of life expectancy, education, and per capita income indicators, which is used to rank countries into four tiers of human development of very high (as at 2023, inclusive of 74 countries with a score of 0.8 and above), high (49 countries with a score of 0.7 to 0.799, including Samoa with a score of 0.708), medium (42 countries with a score of 0.55 to 0.699), and low (25 countries with a score less than 0.550).

national and international poverty measures highlights the importance of context-specific poverty lines that reflect local costs and consumption patterns.

The COVID-19 pandemic has significantly impacted Samoa's economy and poverty landscape. The economy contracted by 3.1% in 2020 and 8.1% in 2021 due to pandemic effects, particularly through tourism disruption (Asian Development Bank, 2022b). Approximately 1,800 formal sector jobs were lost (nearly 10% of formal employment), with significant additional impacts on informal workers (Asian Development Bank, 2022b). Inflation has accelerated from 1.5% in 2020 to 7.7% in 2022, driven by global food and fuel price increases, disproportionately affecting lower-income households (Asian Development Bank, 2022a). Remittances, however, increased during the pandemic to approximately 26% of GDP, serving as an important buffer for household consumption (IMF, 2021). With borders reopening in August 2022, economic recovery is projected at a modest 2.5% for FY2023 (Asian Development Bank, 2022b). Despite these economic challenges, the 2023 HIES results suggest that poverty rates have improved since the previous survey, possibly indicating effective social protection measures (ADB 2019) and the crucial role of remittances in sustaining household welfare during the crisis.

This report presents the results of the Samoa HIES for 2023. The survey was designed to produce data that provides representative income, expenditure and consumption aggregates for urban and rural areas across Samoa, as well as the geographic regions of Apia Urban Area, North-West Upolu, Rest of Upolu, and Savai'i. This represents the fifth HIES conducted in Samoa, following previous surveys in 2018, 2013/14, 2008, and 2002. The 2023 HIES employed computer-assisted personal interviewing (CAPI) technology, improving data quality and collection efficiency, and, among other methodological differences (Annex C), a 7-day food consumption recall rather than the previously used 14-day food acquisition diary, though methodological changes may limit direct comparability with some earlier surveys.

The survey findings provide a crucial post-pandemic assessment of poverty in Samoa. The poverty assessment utilizes consumption-based approaches in line with Pacific Statistics Methods Board recommendations, capturing monetary and non-monetary aspects of well-being including valuation of home-produced goods, imputed rents, and use values for durable goods. This report provides the results of the monetary poverty analysis, which reveals a national poverty rate of 15.2%. The analysis uncovers significant regional disparities in poverty, with rates ranging from 8.9% in Apia Urban Area to 23.7% in Rest of Upolu, and notable variations in the depth of poverty with Rest of Upolu showing the highest poverty gap at 4.6%. Inequality, as measured by the Gini coefficient (34.2), remains moderate by international standards but varies across regions, with North-West Upolu having the highest inequality (35.8) and Savai'i the lowest (29.8). Food poverty affects 4.4% of the population nationally, with Rest of Upolu again showing the highest rate at 5.9%. By establishing this comprehensive poverty profile, the assessment provides essential evidence to inform Samoa's long-term development strategy and targeted interventions for poverty reduction that addresses the specific needs of different vulnerable populations and regions.

CHAPTER 2. POVERTY AND INEQUALITY SNAPSHOT

2.1. Cost of basic needs and poverty

Approximately one in six people in Samoa are living in poverty. The poverty rate in Samoa for 2023, based on the national "cost of basic needs" poverty line (***Box 1***), was 15.2%. This measure is based on an annual per adult equivalent (AE) poverty line of SAT 4,222.62 (equivalent to SAT 81.20 per AE per week).

Box 1. "Cost of basic needs" poverty line

1. A "cost of basic needs" poverty line is a way of measuring poverty by calculating the threshold of consumption required to meet the minimum food and non-food needs. The main steps of the "cost of basic needs" method are:
2. Calculate the total value of goods and services consumed by each household, based on HIES data
3. Estimate the minimum required consumption to meet food needs ("food poverty line"/FPL).
4. Estimate the minimum required consumption to meet non-food needs ("non-food poverty line"/NFPL)
5. Add the FPL and NFPL to produce the "basic needs poverty line" (BNPL)
6. Compare the value of household consumption (the consumption aggregate) to the BNPL; individuals in households with consumption below the BNPL are considered poor.

Detailed notes about methodological decisions in calculating the consumption aggregates and poverty lines are presented in Annex B.

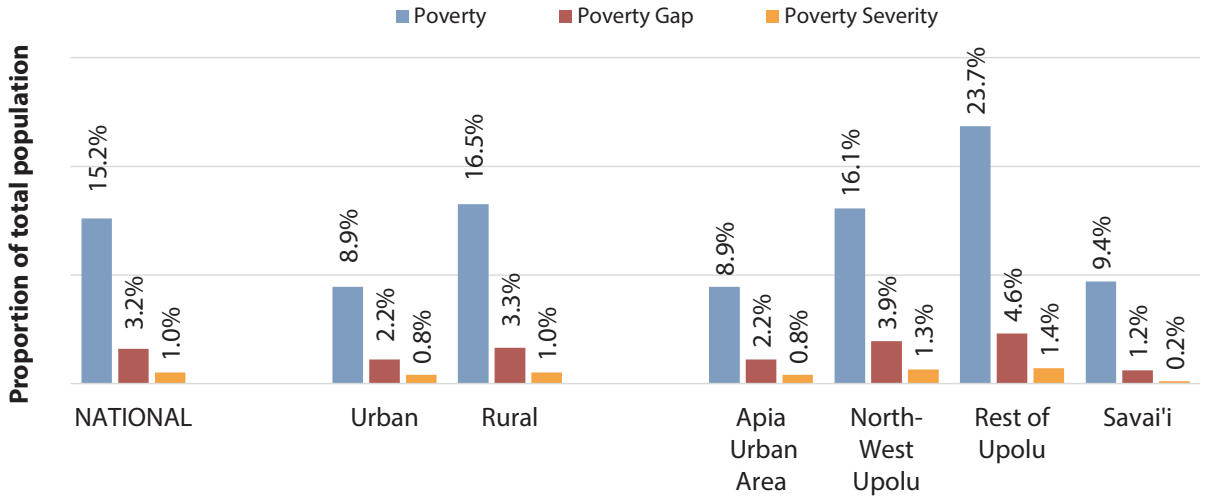
There are significant geographic differences in the extent of poverty across Samoa (***Figure 1***). The highest poverty rate is found in Rest of Upolu at 23.7%, followed by North-West Upolu at 16.1%. Savai'i has a poverty rate of 9.4%, while Apia Urban Area has the lowest poverty rate at 8.9%. Rural areas show substantially higher poverty rates than urban areas, with 16.5% of the rural population living in poverty compared to just 8.9% in urban areas.

The "poverty gap" measure adds more nuance to these regional differences, as it captures the depth of poverty in addition to the incidence of poverty. Rest of Upolu not only has the highest poverty rate but also the deepest poverty, with a poverty gap of 4.6%. This indicates that on average, the poor in Rest of Upolu have consumption levels furthest below the poverty line compared to other regions. The rural-urban divide is also evident in poverty depth, with rural areas recording a poverty gap of 3.3% compared to 2.2% in urban areas.

The poverty severity measure the 'squared poverty gap' captures the distribution of consumption among the poor, giving greater weight to those furthest below the poverty line. While overall poverty severity is very low at 1.0% nationally, Rest of Upolu again shows the most concerning pattern with a poverty severity of 1.4%, followed by North-West Upolu at 1.3%. Savai'i demonstrates remarkably low poverty severity at just 0.2%, while Apia Urban Area records 0.8%. Rural and urban areas show identical poverty severity levels at 1.0% and 0.8% respectively, suggesting that the degree of extreme deprivation among the poorest is relatively similar across the rural-urban divide.

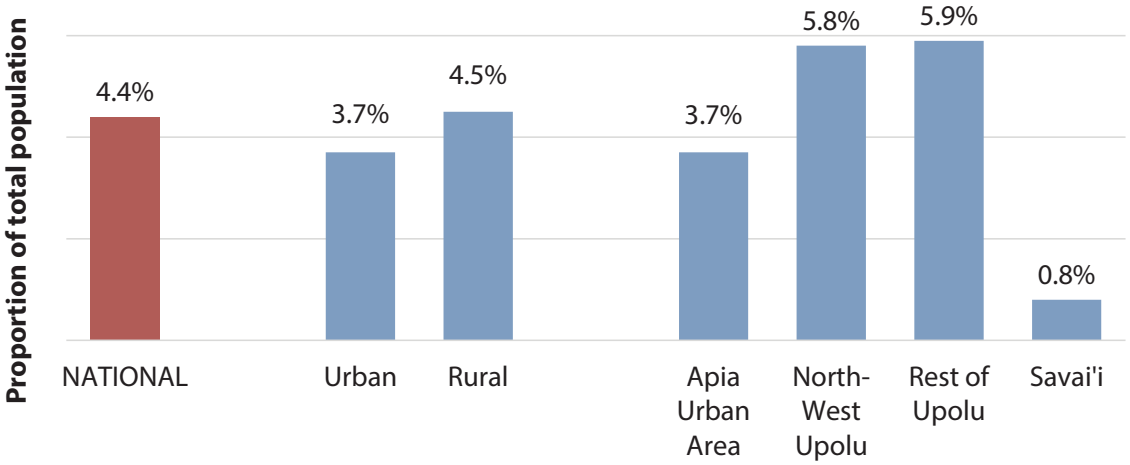
All three poverty measures consistently show that Rest of Upolu faces the most severe poverty challenges, while the rural-urban patterns demonstrate that poverty is more prevalent and deeper in rural areas, though the severity of extreme deprivation remains relatively comparable between rural and urban settings.

Figure 1. *Basic needs poverty rate, poverty gap and poverty severity*



Food poverty in Samoa affects approximately 4.4% of the population nationally, with substantial regional differences. The food poverty rate, which is estimated based on the food poverty line of SAT 3,046.69 per AE per year (or SAT 58.59 per AE per week) was 4.4% for 2023. Rural areas experience slightly higher food poverty rates at 4.5% compared to 3.7% in urban areas. The geographic distribution of food poverty was similar to that of basic needs poverty, with Rest of Upolu having the highest rate at 5.9% but with Savai'i having the lowest rate at 0.8%, while Apia Urban Area had a rate of 3.7% and North-West Upolu had a rate of 5.8% (***Figure 2***).

Figure 2. *Food poverty rate*

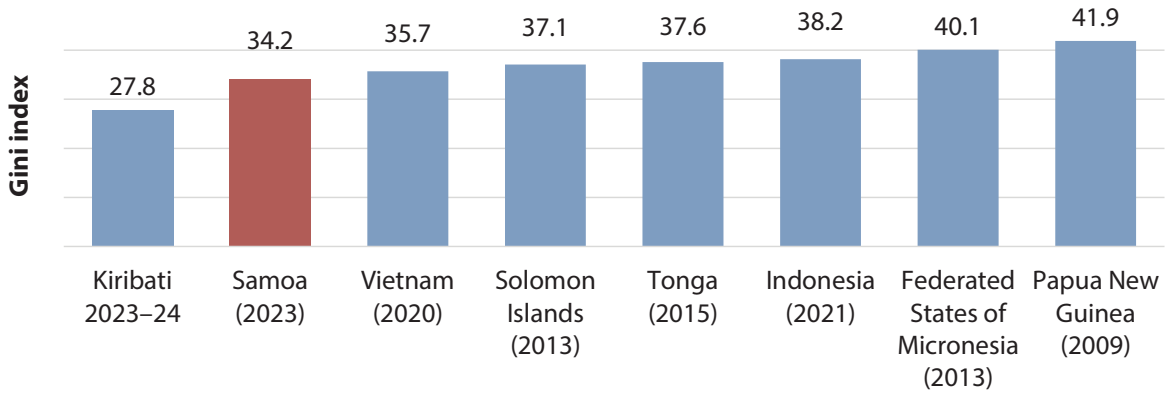


2.2. Inequality snapshot

Inequality across households in Samoa is moderate compared to other Pacific Island countries. The Gini index (***Figure 3***), a measure of inequality that scales from 0 (perfectly equal distribution of consumption across the population) to 100 (one person in the population holds all the

consumption), was estimated at 34.2 for Samoa in 2023 based on consumption per adult equivalent.

Figure 3. *Gini Index (consumption)*



Other measures also demonstrate a moderate level of inequality. When examining the shares of consumption held by different parts of the consumption distribution, the top 10% consume 8.5 times more than the bottom 10% does. That is, the top decile has a mean consumption of SAT 26,000 per adult equivalent, compared to only SAT 3,069 for the bottom decile. The national Gini coefficient stands at 34.2, indicating moderate inequality. Across measures of inequality, there are differences between regions, with North-West Upolu and Apia Urban Area showing the highest level of within-region inequality (Gini coefficient of 35.8 and 34.5 respectively) while Rest of Upolu and Savai'i show the lowest levels of within-region inequality (Gini coefficients of 30.0 and 29.8 respectively – significant at the 5% confidence level) despite having different poverty profiles (***Table 1***).

Table 1. *National and sub-national measures of inequality*

	Gini [95% confidence interval]	Top 10% share of total consumption	Bottom 10% share of total consumption	Decile 10/ Decile 1 ratio of consumption	Bottom 40% share of total consumption
National	34.2 [33.1-35.3]	27.3%	3.2%	8.5	19.8%
Urban	34.5 [32.7-36.3]	27.2%	3.1%	8.7	10.2%
Rural	33.5 [32.1-34.8]	26.8%	3.4%	8.0	22.5%
Apia Urban Area	34.5 [32.7-36.3]	27.2%	3.1%	8.7	10.2%
North-West Upolu	35.8 [33.6-38.0]	28.3%	3.0%	9.5	20.4%
Rest of Upolu	30.0 [27.8-32.2]	24.5%	3.9%	6.3	35.1%
Savai'i	29.8 [27.6-31.9]	24.4%	4.0%	6.1	15.6%

2.3. International poverty measures

Box 2. International Poverty Lines

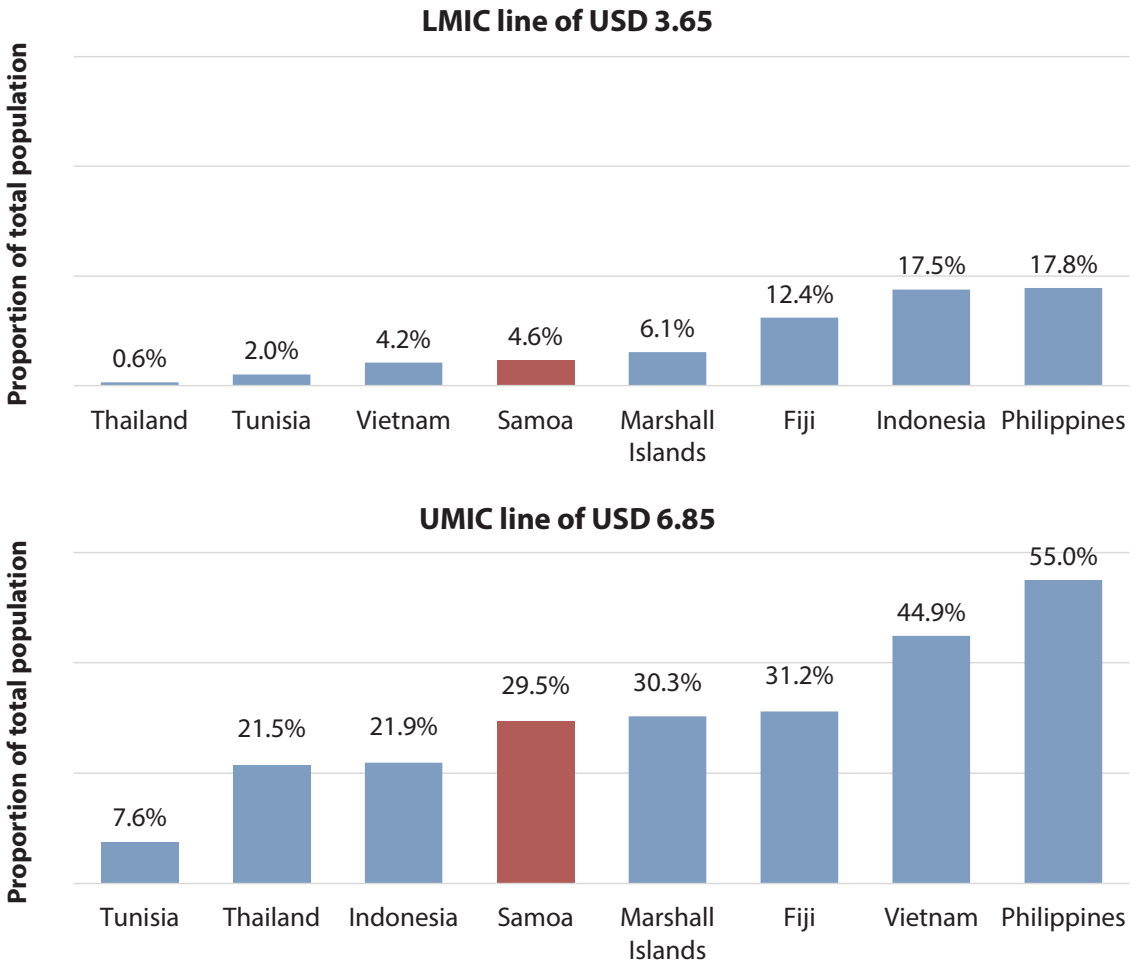
To facilitate meaningful comparisons across countries, the World Bank publishes poverty estimates based on an International Poverty Line (IPL) of USD 2.15 per person per day (2017 PPP). The IPL was updated in 2022 (from USD 1.90 to USD 2.15) based on the national BNPLs of the 15 poorest countries, adjusted for inflation. In addition to the IPL, two other international poverty lines were developed that better reflect the living standards of Lower Middle-Income Countries (USD 3.65 per person per day) and Upper Middle-Income Countries (USD 6.85 per person per day).

At the extreme poverty line of USD 2.15 per person per day, Samoa has virtually eliminated extreme poverty with only 0.4% of the population below this threshold. This demonstrates significant progress in addressing the most severe forms of poverty and places Samoa among countries that have successfully reduced extreme deprivation.

When measured by the Lower Middle-Income Country (LMIC) poverty line of USD 3.65 per person per day, Samoa performs well with only 4.6% of the population below this threshold. This rate is higher than Thailand (0.6%), Tunisia (2.0%), and Vietnam (4.2%), but lower than Marshall Islands (6.1%), Fiji (12.4%), Indonesia (17.5%), and the Philippines (17.8%). Samoa's performance at this poverty line demonstrates relatively strong outcomes compared to most regional peers.

At the Upper Middle-Income Country (UMIC) poverty line of USD 6.85 per person per day, Samoa's poverty rate rises to 29.5%, positioning it in the middle range among comparable countries. This rate is higher than Tunisia (7.6%), Thailand (21.5%), and Indonesia (21.9%), but lower than Marshall Islands (30.3%), Fiji (31.2%), Vietnam (44.9%), and the Philippines (55.0%). While Samoa's rate is notable, it remains below several other countries in the region at this higher poverty threshold (***Figure 4***).

Figure 4. *Poverty rates at LMIC and UMIC international poverty lines*



2.4. Comparison with other welfare measures

The results of the monetary poverty assessment are highly consistent with other welfare measures. For example, the national monetary poverty rate of 15.2% is exactly the same as the national non-monetary poverty rate based on the Multidimensional Poverty Index (***Table 2***). Similarly, the food poverty rate of 4.4% closely aligns with the estimates of the prevalence of undernourishment (5.4%) and the prevalence of severe food insecurity based on the Food Security Experience Scale (4.0%). The alignment of monetary and non-monetary welfare measures, including food poverty and food insecurity, supports the estimates presented herein and provides consistent statistics for policy.

Table 2. *Sustainable Development Indicators of welfare*

1.1.1 Proportion of the population living below the international poverty line per capita	0.4%
1.2.1 Proportion of population living below the national poverty line	15.2%
Proportion of population living below the food poverty line	4.4%
2.1.1 Prevalence of undernourishment	5.4%
2.1.2 Prevalence of moderate or severe food insecurity in the population, based on the Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES)	20.3%
Prevalence of severe food insecurity in the population, based on the FIES	4.0%

CHAPTER 3. POVERTY PROFILE

3.1. Geographic distribution

The population in Samoa is distributed across both urban and rural areas, with the majority (83.1 percent) living in rural areas. Apia Urban Area accounts for 16.9% of the total population, making it the only urban area in the country (***Table 3***). It must also be noted that 78.1% of the population are located in the main island of Upolu compared to 21.9% in Savai'i (***Table 3***).

Table 3. *Population distribution of Samoa*

	Share of total population
Urban	16.9%
Rural	83.1%
Apia Urban Area (urban)	16.9%
North-West Upolu (rural)	37.1%
Rest of Upolu (rural)	24.1%
Savai'i (rural)	21.9%

The poor in Samoa are concentrated predominantly in rural areas. The distribution of the poor population reveals that 90.1% of Samoa's 31,870 poor live in rural areas. North-West Upolu accounts for the largest share of the poor at 39.2% due to its larger population size, while Rest of Upolu accounts for 37.5% of the poor population and has the highest poverty rate at 23.7%, making it the most densely poor region (***Table 4***).

Table 4. *Regional poverty rates and distribution of the poor*

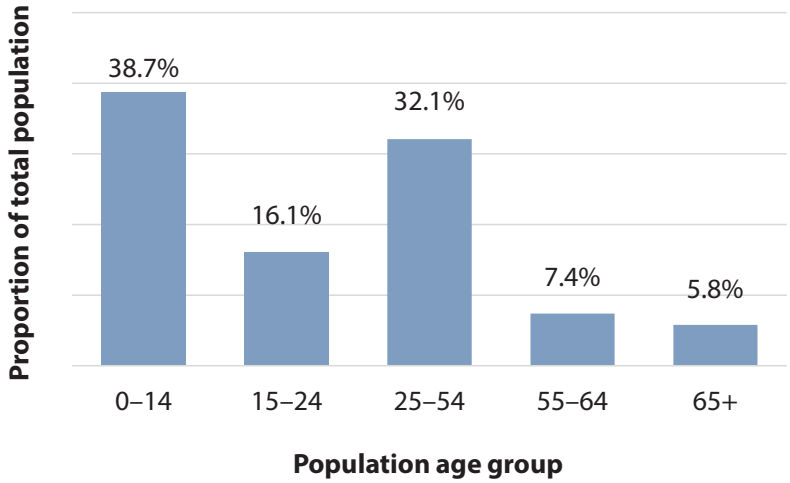
	Poverty rate	Distribution of the poor	Poor population
Urban	8.9%	9.9%	3,152
Rural	16.5%	90.1%	28,719
Apia Urban Area	8.9%	9.9%	3,152
North-West Upolu	16.1%	39.2%	12,463
Rest of Upolu	23.7%	37.5%	11,943
Savai'i	9.4%	13.5%	4,312
Total			**31,870**

3.2. Demographics

Samoa has a young population. About 38.7% of Samoans are under the age of 15, and another 16.1% are between 15–24 years old. Working-age adults (25–54) make up 32.1% of the population, while those aged 55–64 represent 7.4% and those 65 year and older account for 5.8% of the population (***Figure 5***). This creates a high dependency ratio, driven primarily by the

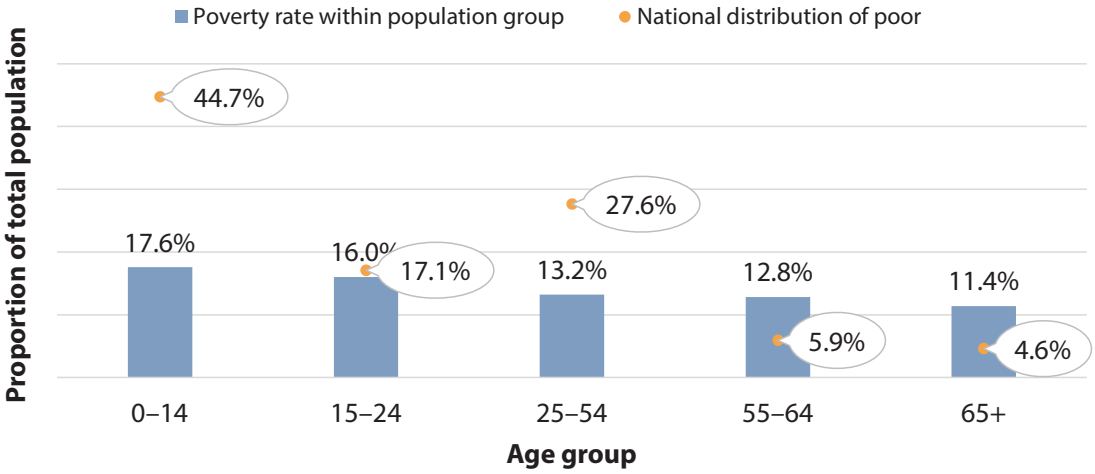
child dependency ratio rather than the elderly dependency ratio. This youth-heavy demographic structure has significant implications for education and employment policies as when these young people enter the workforce, the labour market should be able to absorb them. The gender distribution is relatively balanced across all age groups.

Figure 5. *Samoa population distribution, by age groups*



Age is an important factor in understanding poverty in Samoa. Children aged 0-14 have the highest poverty rate at 17.6%, followed by those aged 15–24 at 16.0%. The poverty rate decreases with age, falling to 13.2% for the 25–54 age group, 12.8% for those aged 55-64, and reaching its lowest point of 11.4% for those aged 65 and older. Notably, children under 15 represent nearly half (44.7%) of all people living in poverty, despite comprising 38.7% of the total population. Young people aged 15–24 account for another 17.1% of the poor, meaning that those under 25 years old make up over 60% of Samoa's poor population (***Figure 6***).

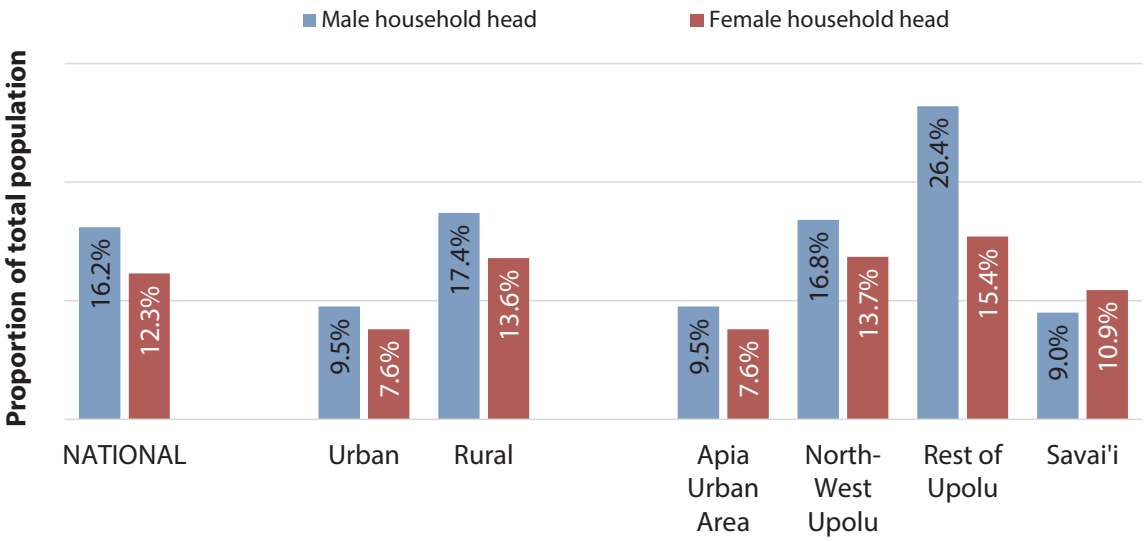
Figure 6. *Poverty rates and distribution of the poor, by age group*



The poverty rates for men and women in Samoa are quite similar. The data shows that 15.6% of males and 14.8% of females live below the basic needs poverty line, indicating no major gender disparity in poverty rates at the national level. However, **there are notable differences in poverty rates between male-headed and female-headed households.** Male-headed households have a poverty rate of 16.2% compared to 12.3% for female-headed households,

representing a 3.9 percentage point difference (***Figure 7***). The regression analysis provided in Annex A shows that female-headed households have a lower poverty rate (by 5 percentage points) than male-headed households, and the difference is statistically significant (***Table 8***; p-value<=0.05).

Figure 7. *Poverty rates by sex of household head and region*

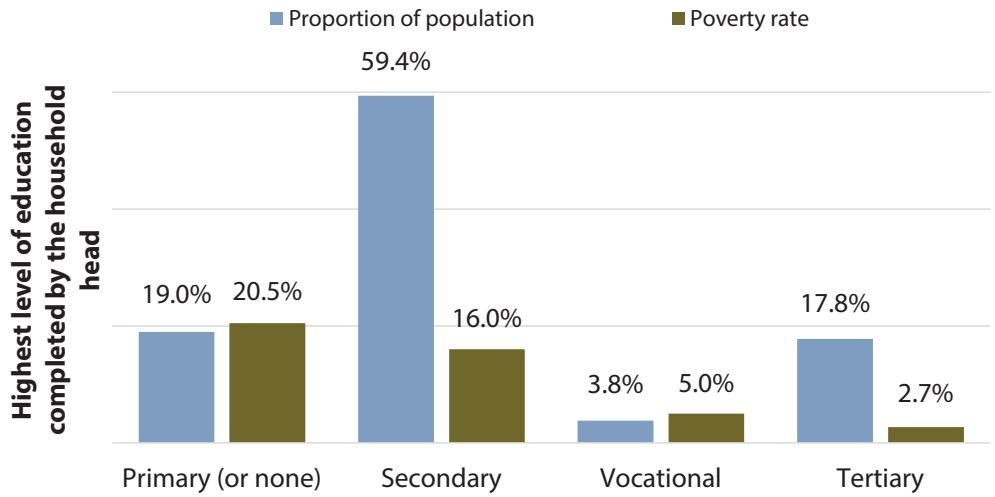


Regional patterns in poverty by household head gender reveal important geographic variations. While male-headed households consistently experience higher poverty rates than female-headed households in all regions except Savai'i, the magnitude of this gender gap varies considerably across Samoa. The largest gender disparity is found in Rest of Upolu, where male-headed households face a poverty rate of 26.4% compared to 15.4% for female-headed households—a gap of 11 percentage points. North-West Upolu shows a more moderate gender gap of 3.1 percentage points (16.8% vs 13.7%), while Apia Urban Area displays a similar pattern with male-headed households at 9.5% versus female-headed households at 7.6%. Notably, Savai'i represents the only region where this pattern is reversed, with female-headed households experiencing a slightly higher poverty rate (10.9%) than male-headed households (9.0%) (***Figure 7***).

3.3. Education

Education levels in Samoa vary significantly, with a substantial portion of household heads having completed secondary education. Among the maximum education attainment of household heads, 59.4% have completed secondary education, 17.8% have tertiary education, and 19.0% have primary education. Only 3.8% have vocational education (***Figure 8***). However, when examining the highest education level achieved by any adult aged 25+ within households, the picture improves considerably: 37.0% of households have at least one member with tertiary education, 54.0% have secondary as their highest level, 5.8% have vocational education, and only 3.2% have primary as the highest educational attainment (***Figure 9***).

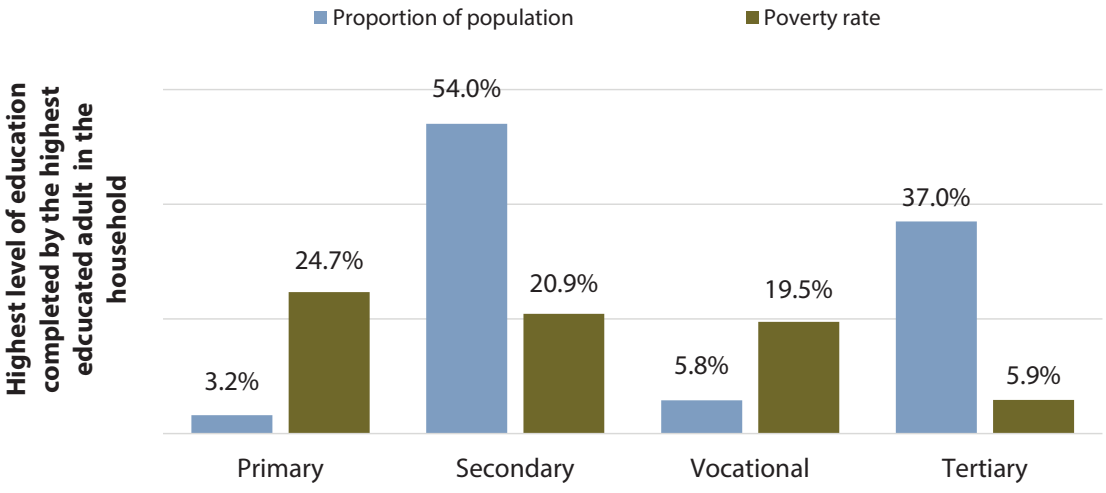
Figure 8. *Proportion of the population and poverty rate by highest level of education completed by the household head*



Poverty rates correlate strongly with the education of the household head. Poverty rates decline dramatically as the education level of the household head increases. Households with a head that has a maximum education attainment of primary education have a 20.5% poverty rate, while those with a head with secondary education have a 16.0% poverty rate. Vocational education reduces this to 5.0%, and tertiary education results in the lowest poverty rate at 2.7% (***Figure 8***).

Education effects follow the same trend when considering the highest education level achieved by any adult in the household. When looking at the highest education completed by adults aged 25 and over within households, poverty rates also show a steep decline: households where the highest education is primary (or none) have a 24.7% poverty rate, dropping to 20.9% for secondary, 19.5% for vocational, and 5.9% for tertiary education (***Figure 9***).

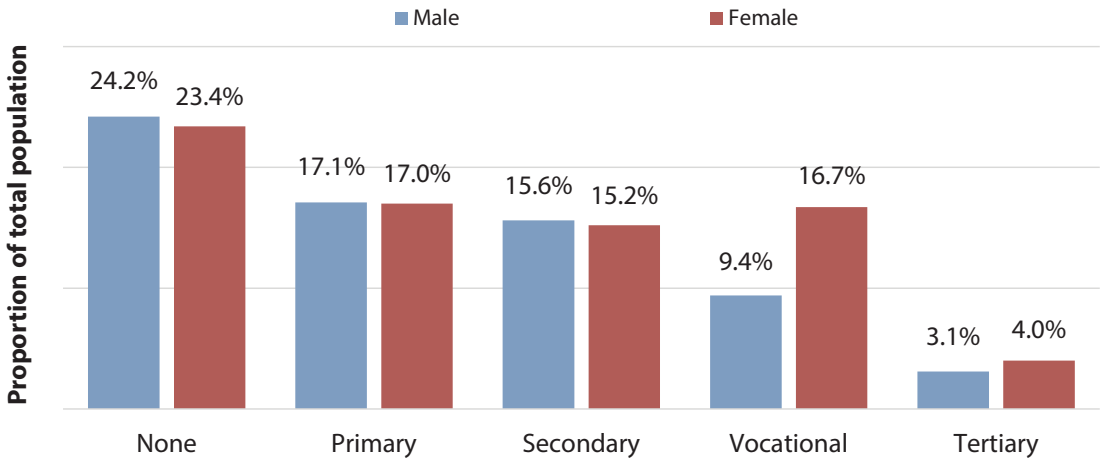
Figure 9. *Proportion of the population and poverty rate, by education completion of highest educated adult (age 25+)*



Poverty rates among adults decline greatly after completing higher levels of education. When looking at adults aged 25 years and over, poverty rates decline significantly with higher

levels of education. Adults with no formal education have a poverty rate of 23.7%, which decreases to 17.0% for those with primary education, then continues to decline to 15.4% for secondary education, 11.5% for vocational training, and only 3.6% for tertiary education. Both male and female adults follow the same general trend of declining poverty rates with higher education levels (***Figure 10***). However, there is a notable gender difference in vocational education outcomes: male adults who completed vocational education have a poverty rate of only 9.4%, while female adults with vocational education show a much higher poverty rate of 16.7%, suggesting that vocational training may provide different economic returns for men and women in Samoa.

Figure 10. *Poverty rates for adults (age 25+) by education completion and sex*



Significant disparities in school enrolment based on age group, poverty status, and geographic region exist in Samoa (***Figure 11***). Primary school-aged children (6–11 years) maintain high enrolment rates of 97.0% nationally, with only a modest gap between non-poor (97.7%) and poor (93.9%) households. However, the enrolment picture changes for secondary school-aged children (12–18 years), with the national rate dropping to 83.0% and a much wider poverty gap emerging—84.7% enrolment for non-poor children versus just 72.9% for poor children.

In urban areas, non-poor households have higher enrolment rates and poor households have lower enrolment rates than in rural areas, pointing to greater educational inequality in urban settings with enrolment gap of 12 versus 6.1 percentage points between non-poor and poor households in urban and rural areas, respectively. Regional variations are also evident. While Apia Urban Area shows the largest enrolment disparity between non-poor (93.4%) and poor children (81.4%), Savai'i demonstrates the smallest poverty-based enrolment gap, with rates of 91.9% for non-poor children and 90.6% for poor children, suggesting more equitable educational access. North-West Upolu exhibits particularly concerning statistics for poor children, with an enrolment rate of only 79.7%, indicating this region may require targeted interventions to improve educational participation among disadvantaged youth.

Figure 11. *Enrolment in school, by age group and poverty status (top) and by region (bottom)*

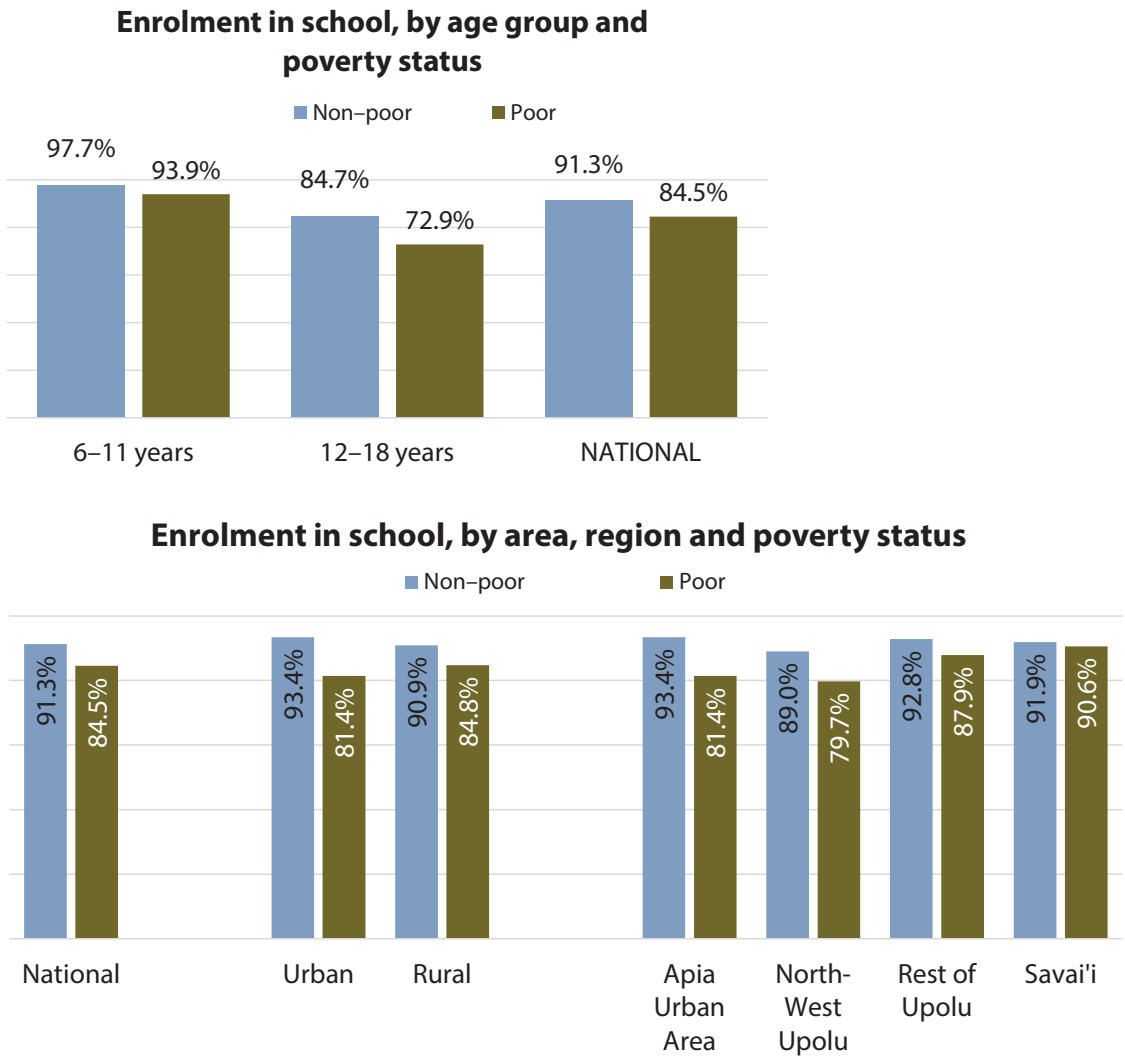
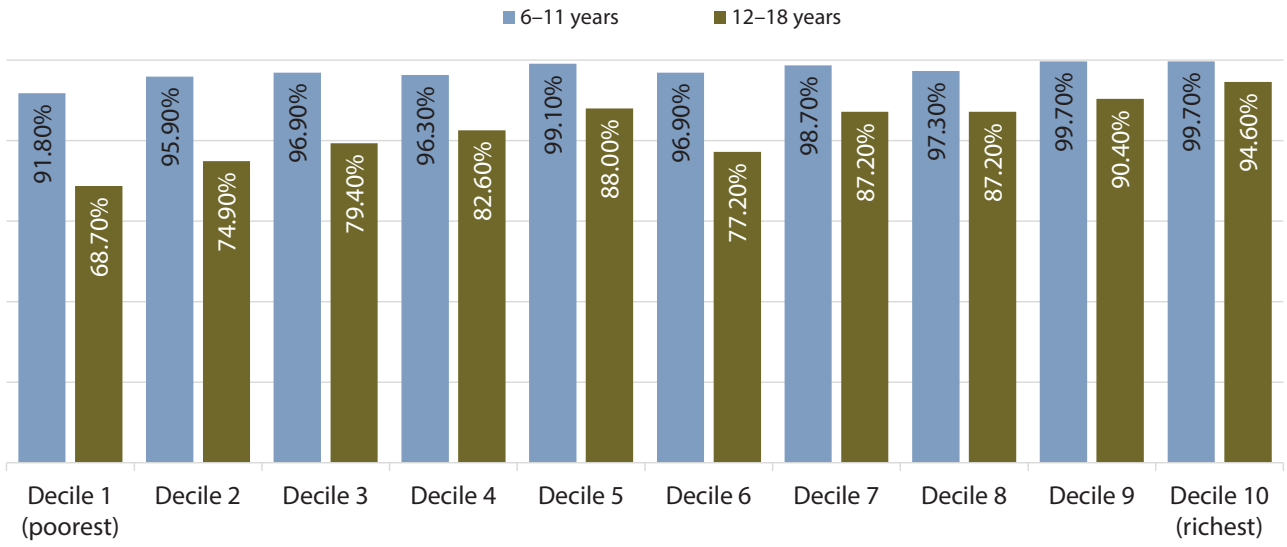


Figure 12 demonstrates a clear socioeconomic gradient in school enrolment patterns across consumption deciles in Samoa, particularly for secondary education. For primary school-aged children (6-11 years), enrolment rates remain relatively high across all consumption groups, starting at 91.8% for the poorest households (decile 1) and reaching 99.7% for the richest (decile 10), indicating near-universal primary education regardless of economic status. However, secondary school enrolment (ages 12–18) reveals inequalities, with 68.7% of children from the poorest decile enrolled compared to 94.6% in the richest decile—a significant 25.9 percentage point difference. This pattern shows a generally progressive increase in enrolment as household consumption increases. The steepest improvements occur between the poorest groups: from 68.7% (decile 1) to 79.4% (decile 3), suggesting that even modest improvements in household consumption can have substantial impacts on educational participation for the most disadvantaged. The clear relationship between household consumption and secondary school enrolment indicates that economic constraints significantly influence educational decisions for older children, with poorer households likely facing difficult choices between continued education and having children contribute to household income.

Figure 12. *Enrolment in school, by age group and consumption decile*



3.4. Employment

Around 61% of adults aged 15–64 participate in the labour force[3] in Samoa. Overall, women are less likely to be active labour force participants with only 44.5% of women and 77.2% of men stating they are currently working.

Most working adults aged 15–64 are employees, with the next largest group being self-employed. Among the working population in Samoa, 52.2% are employees (35.3% in private sector and 16.9% in public sector), while 30.6% are self-employed in their own businesses. An additional 14.5% work in family businesses. The distribution of employment types shows notable gender differences, with women more likely to work in the public sector (21.9% vs 13.6% for men) while men are more likely to be private sector employees (38.3% vs 30.9% for women) (***Table 5***).

Table 5. *Status of employment, population aged 15–64, by sex*

Employment status	Men	Women	Total
In his/her own business activity	30.9%	30.3%	30.6%
In a business operated by a household or family member	14.7%	14.2%	14.5%
Employee – Public Sector	13.6%	21.9%	16.9%
Employee – Private Sector	38.3%	30.9%	35.3%
Other	2.5%	2.5%	2.5%

There are substantial regional differences in employment patterns across Samoa. Self-employment is much more prevalent in rural areas, ranging from 17.1% in Apia Urban Area to 50.2% in Savai'i. Conversely, formal employment is concentrated in urban areas, with Apia Urban Area having the highest rate of employees (69.6% combined public and private sector) compared to just 27.5% in Savai'i. Public sector employment is particularly concentrated in Apia Urban Area (25.5%) and decreases significantly in more remote areas like Savai'i (8.6%) (***Table 6***).

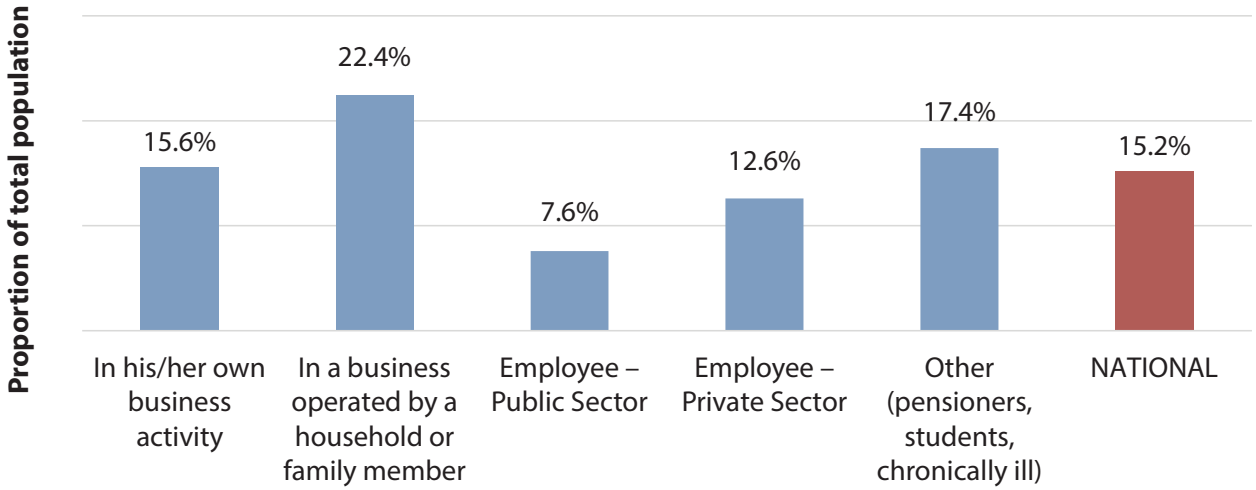
3 *The labour force is defined as the total number of people who are working and looking for work.*

Table 6. *Status of employment, population aged 15–64, by location*

Employment status	Urban	Rural	Apia Urban Area	North-West Upolu	Rest of Upolu	Savai'i
In his/her own business activity	17.1%	36.0%	17.1%	21.1%	41.6%	50.2%
In a business operated by a household or family member	10.6%	16.0%	10.6%	14.3%	15.4%	18.6%
Employee – Public Sector	25.5%	13.5%	25.5%	18.0%	12.9%	8.6%
Employee – Private Sector	44.1%	31.8%	44.1%	44.7%	28.1%	18.9%
Other	2.6%	2.6%	2.6%	2.0%	2.0%	3.7%

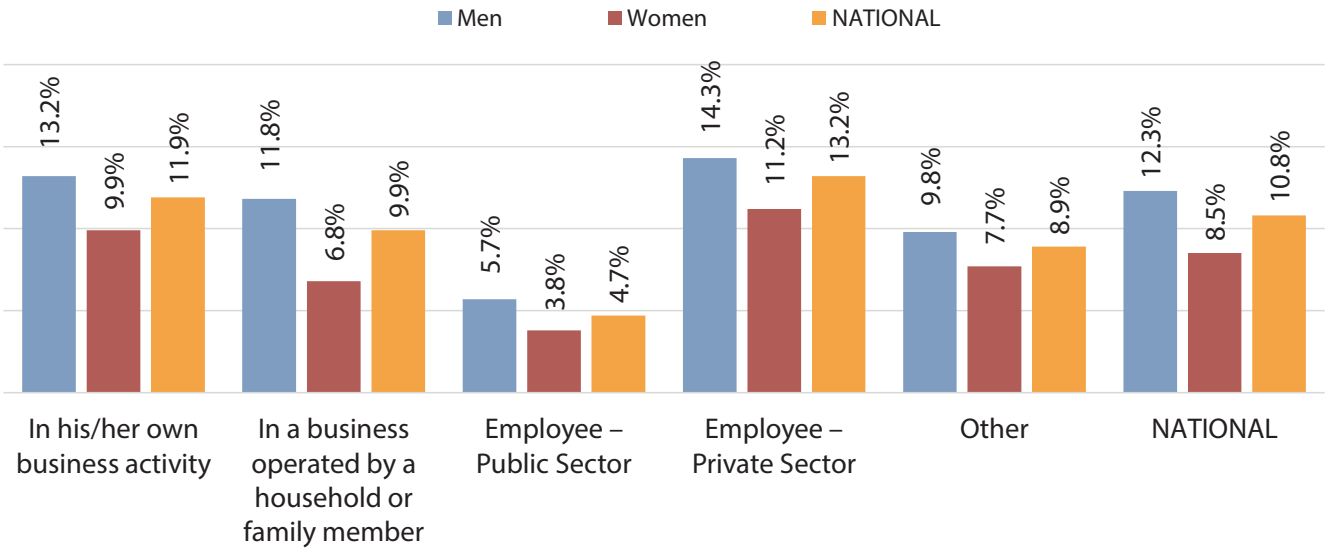
Poverty is significantly influenced by the type of employment of the household head. Poverty is highest for households headed by those working in a business operated by someone from the household or a family member, with a rate of 22.4%. This group experiences poverty at nearly 1.5 times the national average of 15.2%. Households with heads employed in the public sector have the lowest poverty rate at just 7.6%. Households headed by someone employed in the private sector have a poverty rate of 12.6%, while those headed by someone running their own business experience a poverty rate of 15.6%, closely matching the overall national average. Households headed by individuals in other employment categories (including pensioners, students, and chronically ill) have a poverty rate of 17.4% (***Figure 13***).

Figure 13. *Poverty rates by household head employment status*



At individual level, poverty rates vary significantly by type of employment, with public sector employees having the lowest poverty rates. Among the working population aged 15–64, public sector employees have a poverty rate of only 4.7%, substantially lower than other employment categories. Private sector employees have a poverty rate of 13.2%, while those working in their own businesses have a rate of 11.9%. Workers in family businesses have a poverty rate of 9.9%. Notable gender differences emerge across employment types: men consistently experience higher poverty rates than women in most categories, with the largest gaps observed among those working in family businesses (11.8% for men versus 6.8% for women) and in their own businesses (13.2% for men versus 9.9% for women). The overall poverty rate for working men aged 15–64 is 12.3% compared to 8.5% for working women, resulting in an average poverty rate of 10.8% for all working individuals (***Figure 14***).

Figure 14. *Poverty rate by type of employment (population aged 15–64)*



3.5. Access to public services

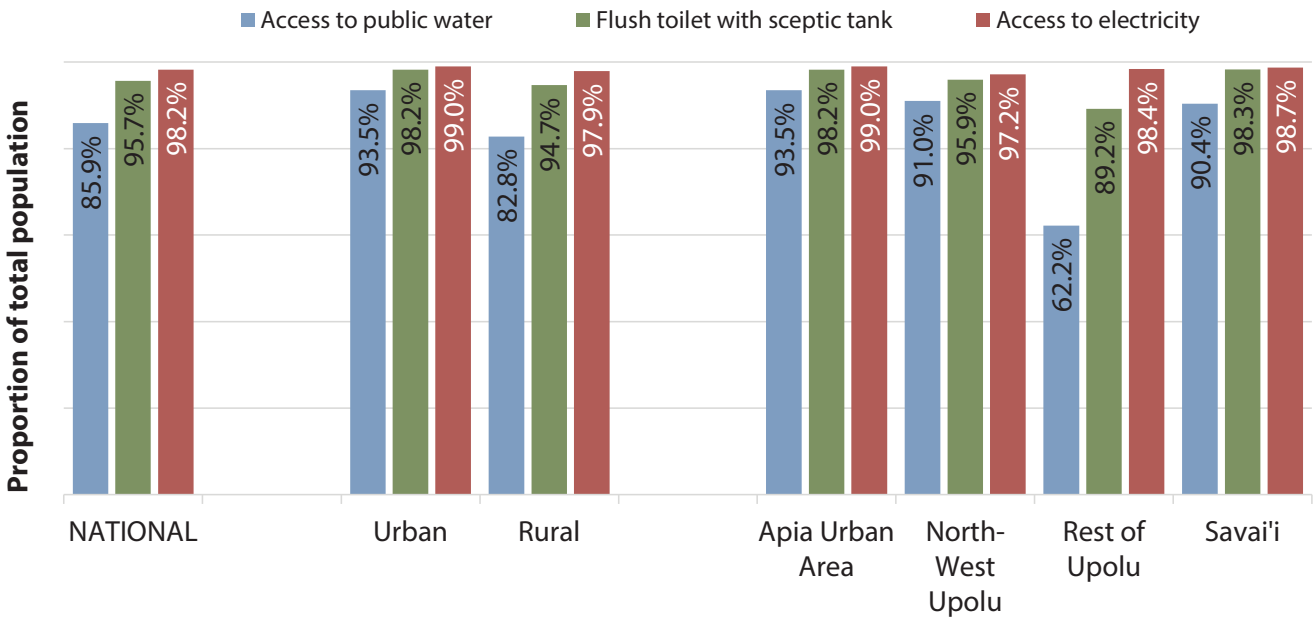
Non-monetary deprivations are another important measure of people's living standard. Being able to meet one's basic needs also entails having access to services such as water, sanitation and electricity. In Samoa, the poorest households by monetary measures also tend to be the most likely to be deprived of access to services.

Access to public water[4] varies significantly across regions in Samoa, with 93.5% of households having access in urban areas and 82.8% having access in rural areas, indicating a clear urban-rural divide in water infrastructure. In Apia Urban Area, 93.5% of households have access to public water, followed closely by North-West Upolu (91.0%) and Savai'i (90.4%). However, there is a substantial drop in access in Rest of Upolu, where only 62.2% of households have access to public water, well below the national average of 85.9% (***Figure 15***).

Flush toilets with septic tanks are widely available across Samoa. The national average is 95.7% with 98.2% access in urban areas and 94.7% access in rural areas. The highest coverage is in Savai'i (98.3%) and Apia Urban Area (98.2%), while North-West Upolu (95.9%) is close to the national average (***Figure 15***). Rest of Upolu again lags behind with 89.2% coverage, although this rate is still relatively high compared to other countries.

Access to the main electricity supply is nearly universal across Samoa, with a national average of 98.2%. There is minimal regional variation, with coverage ranging from 97.2% in North-West Upolu to 99.0% in Apia Urban Area. Even in Rest of Upolu, electricity access remains high at 98.4%, indicating successful electrification efforts throughout the country (***Figure 15***).

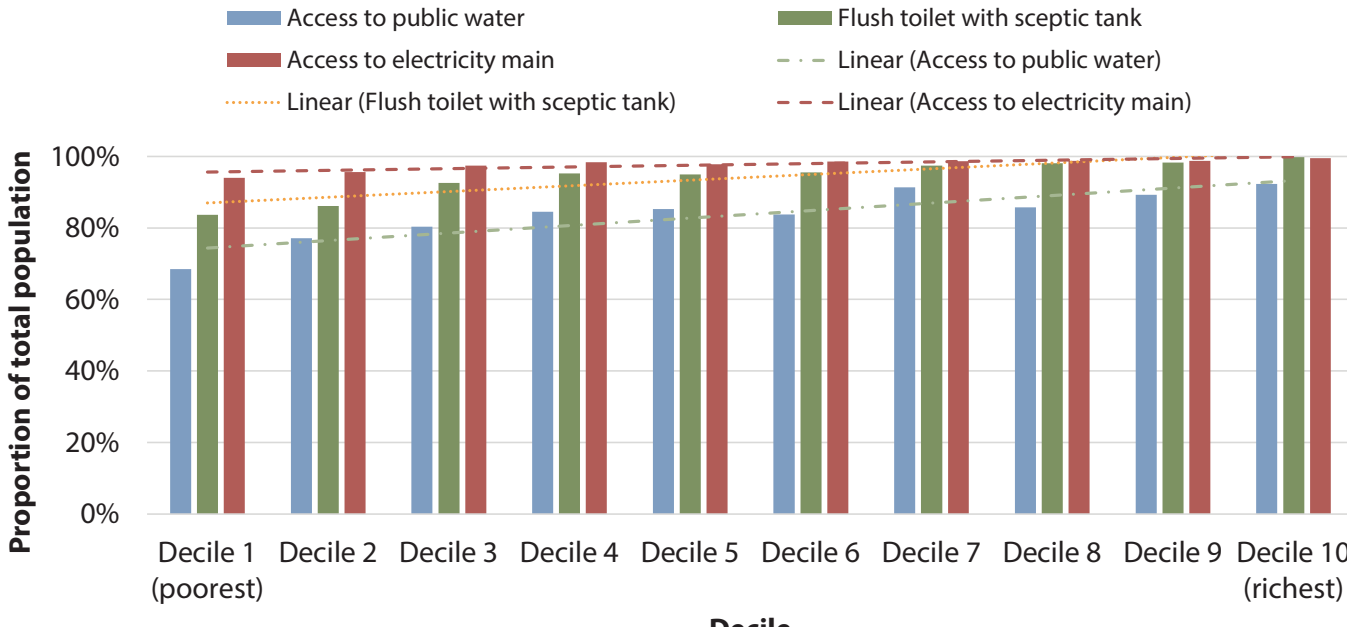
Figure 15. *Access to public services (water, flush toilet and electricity) by region*



Access to public services increases with household consumption levels, indicating a link between economic status and service access. For public water, access increases from 68.5% among the poorest decile to 92.4% for the richest decile. Similarly, access to flush toilets with septic tanks shows a strong positive correlation with consumption, rising from 83.7% for the poorest households to nearly universal coverage (99.8%) for the richest. Even electricity access, while high across all groups, shows improvement from 94.0% in the poorest decile to 99.5% in the richest. These trends are evident in ***Figure 16***.

4 *Public water is defined as piped water into dwelling (metered), which is used as drinking source.*

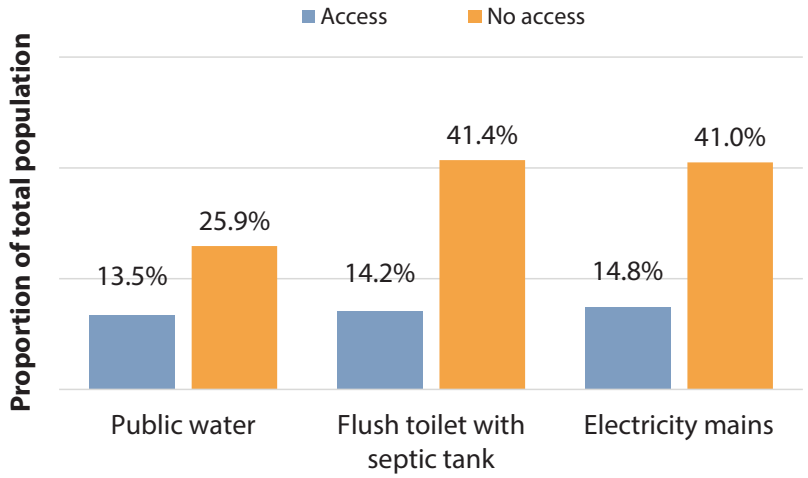
Figure 16. *Access to public services (water, flush toilet and electricity) by consumption decile*



The poverty rate for households with access to public water is 13.5%, while those without access face a substantially higher poverty rate of 25.9%. This indicates that l**ack of access to public water is strongly associated with poverty**, with households without public water connections being nearly twice as likely to be poor compared to those with connections (***Figure 17***).

Households without access to flush toilets with septic tanks experience severe poverty disparity, with a poverty rate of 41.4% compared to just 14.2% for households with a septic tank. This nearly three-fold difference highlights sanitation as a critical marker of economic wellbeing in Samoa. Similarly, households without access to electricity mains face a poverty rate of 41.0%, compared to 14.8% for connected households. This substantial difference underscores how energy poverty and poverty are interlinked (***Figure 17***).

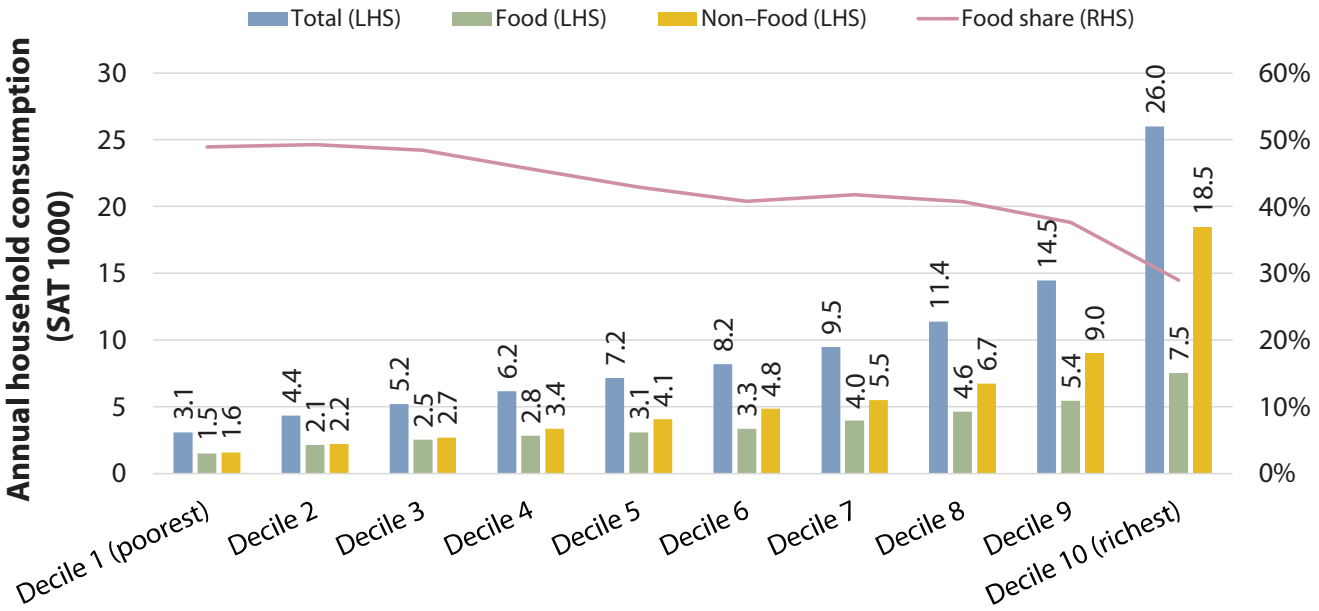
Figure 17. *Poverty rates by access status to services*



3.6. Spending patterns

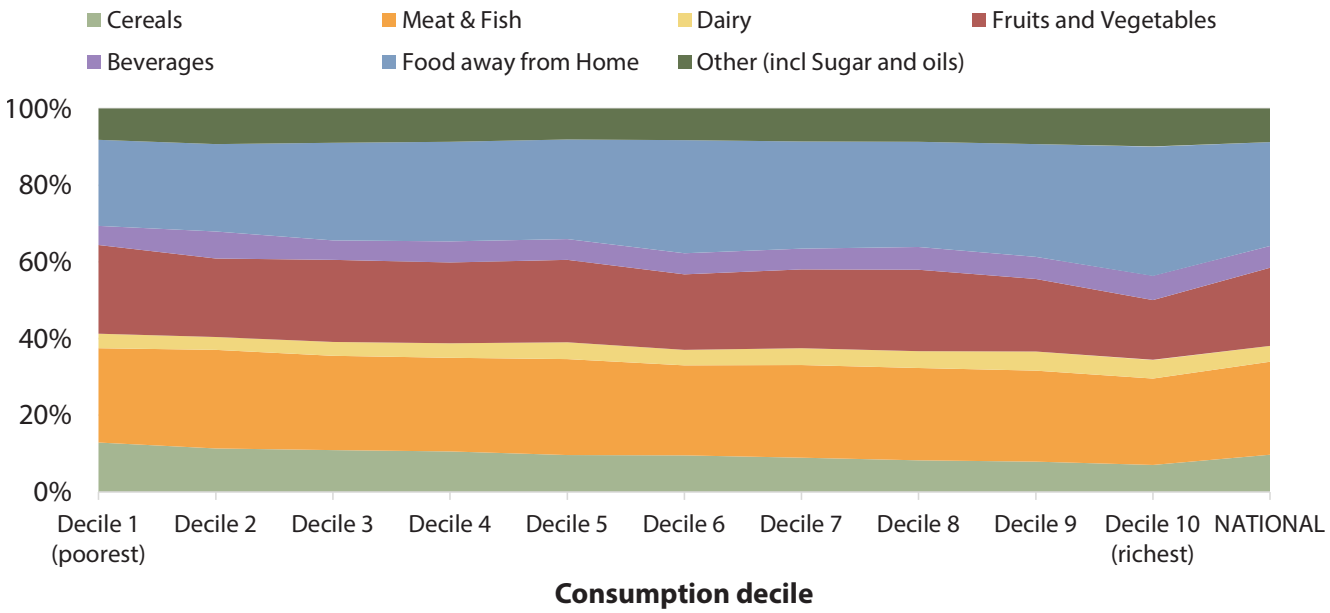
Engel's Law, where people spend an increasing share of consumption on non-food items as their total income increases, holds across the consumption distribution, and it is particularly apparent in higher deciles. In Samoa, the pattern is not overly evident in the lower deciles where the food share remains around 45–49% of total consumption but it becomes increasingly apparent in the middle and upper deciles, with the food share dropping significantly to 29% in the richest decile. ***Figure 18*** presents annual spendings on food and non-food items by consumption decile (in thousand SAT, left hand side of the graph) and food as a share of total consumption (Right hand side of the graph).

Figure 18. *Annual average food, non-food and total consumption by decile [In thousands SAT (LHS)] and food share in total consumption (RHS)*



As household consumption levels increase, the relative consumption of cereals decreases while spending on other food categories shows mixed patterns. Bennett's Law observes that as households consume more, people start to eat relatively fewer calorie-dense starchy staple foods and relatively more nutrient-dense foods such as meats, fruits, and vegetables. This law partially holds in the case of Samoa. The poorest decile spends 12.9% of their food consumption budget on cereals, and this share declines considerably to 7.0% as consumption levels increase. The pattern for food away from home shows a clear increasing trend from 22.5% for the poorest decile to 33.7% for the richest decile. As household consumption increases, they start spending larger shares of their food budgets on dairy products (increasing from 3.8% to 4.9%) and beverages (from 5.0% to 6.3%). However, the data shows that combined spending on fruits and vegetables actually decreases from 23.1% for the poorest decile to 15.6% for the richest decile, which does not align with expectations of Bennett's Law. Meanwhile, the share spent on meat and fish remains relatively stable across all deciles, ranging between 22.5% and 25.7%. Overall, richer households spend relatively more on food away from home and less on cereals, fruits and vegetables (***Figure 19***).

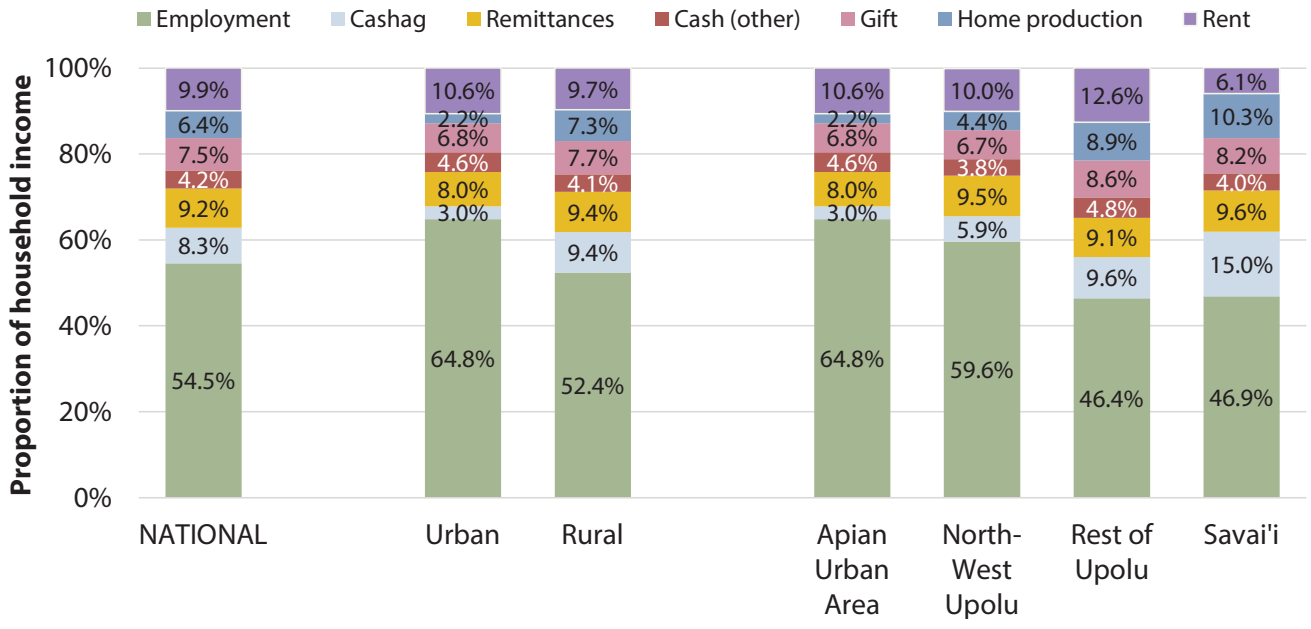
Figure 19. *Food budget shares, by consumption decile*



3.7. Income and remittances

Income sources vary considerably between the different regions of Samoa. Employment income comprises a much higher share of total income in Apia Urban Area, where it accounts for 64.8% of household income. This employment dependency gradually decreases in other regions, with North-West Upolu at 59.6%, while both Rest of Upolu and Savai'i show notably lower employment income shares at 46.4% and 46.9% respectively. Conversely, income from agricultural and fishing activities (cash income from selling agricultural products and fish) follows an opposite pattern, representing only 3.0% of household income in Apia Urban Area but increasing to 5.9% in North-West Upolu, 9.6% in Rest of Upolu, and reaching its highest proportion of 15.0% in Savai'i (***Figure 20***).

Figure 20. *Share of income sources, by region*

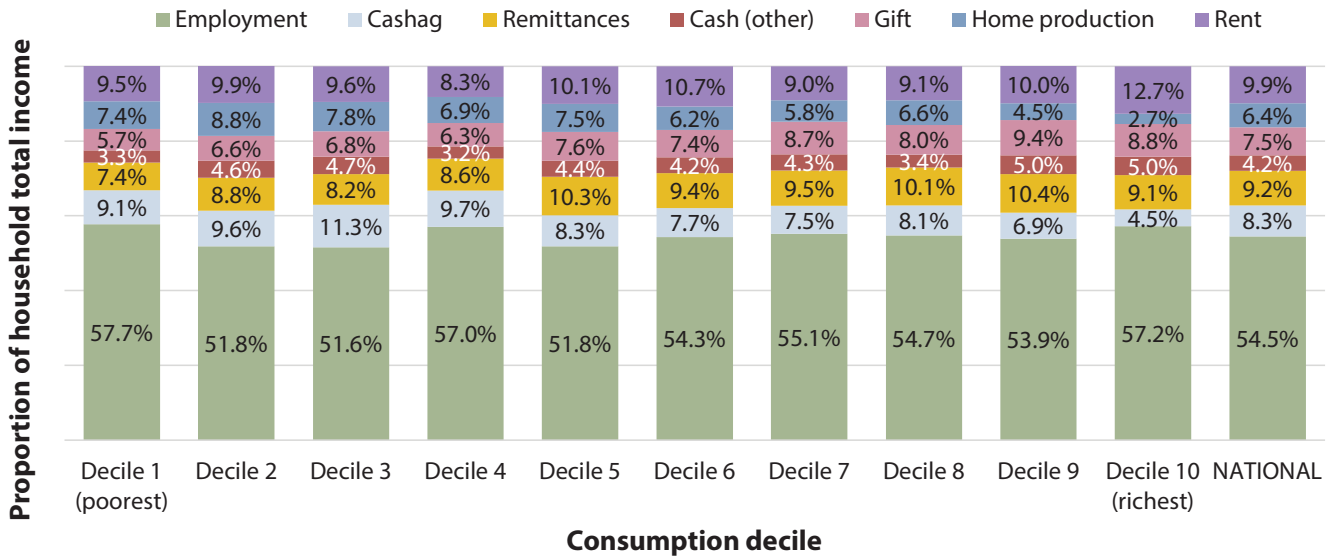


Home production similarly reflects a rural-urban divide in income sources, accounting for just 2.2% of income in Apia Urban Area while progressively increasing to 4.4% in North-West Upolu, 8.9% in Rest of Upolu, and 10.3% in Savai'i. Home production represents the imputed value of goods produced by households for their own consumption, such as food grown in household gardens or livestock raised for household use. Remittances constitute a fairly consistent portion across all regions, ranging from 8.0% in Apia Urban Area to 9.6% in Savai'i, indicating their universal importance throughout Samoa. Rent is the imputed rental value from owner-occupied housing, which represents a significant income source across most regions, with Rest of Upolu having the highest percentage at 12.6%, followed by Apia Urban Area at 10.6% and North-West Upolu at 10.0%, while Savai'i has a notably lower rental income share at 6.1% (***Figure 20***).

Income sources change somewhat as households move higher up the consumption distribution. The data shows that employment income fluctuates across consumption levels, starting at 57.3% for the lowest decile, varying in the middle deciles (with the lowest share of 51.6% in the third decile), and reaching 57.2% in the highest decile. Agricultural income (cash income from selling agricultural products and fish) displays a clearer pattern, first increasing in the first three deciles from 9 to 11%, then generally decreasing as consumption increases, to 6.9% and 4.5% in the two highest consumption deciles.

Remittances show a moderate upward trend across the consumption distribution, starting at 7.4% for the poorest decile and gradually increasing to 9.1% for the highest consumption decile, though with some fluctuation in the middle deciles reaching up to 10.3%. Gift income increases with consumption levels, rising from 5.7% in the lowest decile to 8.8% in the highest decile. Home production (imputed value of goods produced for own consumption) as a share of income shows the opposite trend, decreasing consistently from 7.4% in the lowest decile to just 2.7% in the highest, reflecting less reliance on subsistence activities among higher wealth households. Rent (imputed rental value from owner-occupied housing) exhibits an irregular but generally upward trend across the consumption distribution, ranging from 9.5% in the lowest decile to 12.7% in the highest decile (***Figure 21***).

Figure 21. *Distribution of income source by decile*



3.8. Correlates of poverty[5]

Geographic factors have a significant impact on household consumption, reflecting rural-urban disparities. North-West Upolu households have 15% lower consumption (highly significant at the 1% level) and Rest of Upolu households have 25% lower consumption (highly significant at the 1% level) compared to the reference region (Apia Urban Area). This pattern suggests that rural and semi-urban areas have substantially lower consumption levels than the capital region. The poverty regression confirms these disparities, with North-West Upolu and Rest of Upolu having 5 and 8 percentage points higher poverty rates respectively (both significant at the 5% level) compared to Apia Urban Area (***Table 8***).

Household composition significantly influences poverty status, reflecting dependency burden effects. Every additional household member increases the likelihood of being in poverty by 2 percentage points, which is highly significant at the 1% level, suggesting that larger households face resource constraints despite potential economies of scale. While the proportion of children in the household shows a significant negative association with consumption, its direct effect on poverty probability is not statistically significant.

Education is strongly associated with reduced poverty status, demonstrating clear returns to human capital investment. Compared to households where the reference person has primary education (the omitted category), households with secondary education show an increase of 14 percentage points on expenditure (significant at the 1% level). Households with vocational training and tertiary education show substantial and significant reductions in poverty probability (12 and 11 percentage points respectively), both highly significant at the 1% level. This gradient suggests that higher levels of education provide substantial protection against poverty.

Employment status shows mixed relationships with household consumption and poverty status. Household heads working in a family business are associated with 14% lower household consumption (significant at the 5% level), while private sector employees shows 7% lower expenditure (significant at the 10% level). However, these employment categories do not show statistically significant effects on poverty probability, suggesting that employment type may affect consumption levels but not necessarily poverty status once other factors are controlled for.

Infrastructure access is significantly associated with reduced poverty, highlighting the importance of services for household welfare. Households connected to public water are percentage points less likely to be poor (significant at the 5% level). Access to flush toilets with septic tanks is associated with 20 percentage points lower poverty probability (highly significant). While electricity access shows a 16 percentage point association with reduced poverty likelihood, (though this effect is not statistically significant). These infrastructure variables likely capture both direct welfare benefits and serve as indicators for neighbourhood development and household socioeconomic status.

5 *The findings of this section are based on regression outputs provided in Annex A.*

3.9. Typologies of the poor

Distinct groups of poor emerge in Samoa with different characteristics. The following typology provides the distribution of the poor, that is where they are located and what are their characteristics. This could help government of Samoa in tailoring its intervention to better target the poor.

The Rest of Upolu Poor: Rural Subsistence Households

The first major and most vulnerable group of poor households is located in Rest of Upolu, accounting for 37.5% of all poor people in Samoa and characterized by high dependence on subsistence activities and severe infrastructure deficits. This group faces the most severe poverty challenges. The findings indicate that a large group of poor households (17.8% of all poor) are self-employed and located in Rest of Upolu, predominantly engaged in subsistence farming and fishing. Access to basic infrastructure is limited in this region, with the poor lacking access to public water in rest of Upolu accounting for 14.9% of all poor people in Samoa. In addition, households with tertiary education living in Rest of Upolu account for 6.5% of all poor, suggesting underutilized human capital in the region (See Annex A, ***Table 7***).

The North-West Upolu Poor: Peri-Urban Transitional Households

The second major group comprises poor households in North-West Upolu, representing 39.1% of all poor people in Samoa and characterized by a transitional zone between urban and rural characteristics. This group represents the largest absolute concentration of poor households. The findings indicate that poor people employed in the private sector in North-West Upolu account for 6.5% of all poor – representing half of all poor private sector workers nationally. There is substantial reliance on self-employment, with self-employed poor in North-West Upolu accounting for 12.9% of all poor. In addition, poor households with secondary education in this region account for 28.1% of all poor – the largest share nationally - indicating a population with basic educational foundations but facing barriers to accessing formal employment opportunities (See Annex A, ***Table 7***).

The concentration of poverty across distinct geographic areas presents strategic challenges for the Government of Samoa. The analysis reveals that 76.6% of all poor households are located in just two regions – North-West Upolu and Rest of Upolu - each with different characteristics. Several key challenges emerge:

1. **Infrastructure deficits are most acute in Rest of Upolu**, where poor people lacking access to public water account for 14.9% of all poor people nationally, representing the largest concentration of water-deprived poor households in the country.
2. **Educational attainment appears disconnected from economic outcomes** in Rest of Upolu where poor households with tertiary education account for 6.5% of all poor, suggesting underutilized human capital and barriers to translating education into economic opportunities.
3. **Private sector employment remains limited**, with poor people employed in private sector jobs in North-West Upolu accounting for 6.5% of all poor – representing half of all poor private sector workers nationally, indicating either limited opportunities or challenging working conditions.

4. **Households with disabled members face concentrated vulnerabilities**, with poor households having disabled members accounting for 6.4% of all poor in North-West Upolu and 3.6% of all poor in Rest of Upolu, indicating specific needs that may require targeted attention beyond standard poverty interventions.
5. **Geographic concentration creates targeting opportunities**, as interventions in Rest of Upolu and North-West Upolu combined could reach over three-quarters of Samoa's poor population, making these regions critical for national poverty reduction strategies.

CONCLUSION

This poverty assessment of Samoa reveals a complex socioeconomic landscape with significant geographic disparities and clear pathways toward reducing poverty. Based on the 2023 HIES, approximately 15.2% of Samoans live below the national basic needs poverty line of SAT 4,222.62 per adult equivalent per year (or SAT 81.20 per adult equivalent per week). This represents a notable improvement from the 21.9% poverty rate recorded in 2018, suggesting positive developments in Samoa's poverty reduction efforts despite the economic challenges posed by the COVID-19 pandemic, though this comparison should be interpreted with caution due to significant methodological changes in both data collection and poverty assessment approaches that limit comparability across survey rounds.

The geographic distribution of poverty shows significant variation across Samoa's regions. The highest poverty rate is found in Rest of Upolu at 23.7%, while Apia Urban Area has the lowest at 8.9%. North-West Upolu shows a poverty rate of 16.1%, and Savai'i of 9.4%. Similarly, the depth of poverty (measured by the poverty gap) is most severe in Rest of Upolu at 4.6%, well above the national rate of 3.1%, indicating that poor households in this region fall furthest below the poverty line. Food poverty affects 4.4% of Samoans nationally, based on the Food Poverty Line of SAT 3,046.69 per adult equivalent per year (or SAT 58.48 per adult equivalent per week), following similar geographic patterns with Rest of Upolu having the highest rate at 5.9% and Savai'i the lowest at 0.8%.

The analysis reveals several key factors associated with poverty status. Education emerges as a powerful determinant, with poverty rates decreasing dramatically as education levels increase—from 20.5% for households headed by someone with (maximum) primary education to just 2.7% for those who have completed a tertiary education. Employment type also strongly correlates with poverty, with public sector employees experiencing the lowest poverty rate (4.7% at individual level) compared to private sector employees (13.2%) and those working in family businesses (9.9%). Access to basic services such as water, sanitation, and electricity shows clear correlations with poverty status, with households lacking access to public water experiencing poverty rates of 25.9%, those without flush toilets at 41.4%, and households without access to electricity mains at 41.0%—all substantially higher than those with access.

Household composition and demographics play significant roles in poverty risk. Households with female heads experience lower poverty rates (12.3%) compared to male-headed households (16.2%), with the largest gender gap observed in Rest of Upolu (11.0 percentage points difference). The regression analysis confirms that every additional household member increases the likelihood of being in poverty by 2 percentage points. Poverty rates are highest among children aged 0–14 (17.5%), highlighting concerns about intergenerational poverty transmission, particularly as educational gaps between poor and non-poor children widen in secondary education where enrolment drops to 72.9% for poor children compared to 84.7% for non-poor children.

Income sources vary considerably by region and consumption level. Urban areas rely predominantly on employment income (64.8% in Apia Urban Area), while rural areas derive significant portions from agricultural activities (15.0% in Savai'i), home production (10.3% in Savai'i), and remittances. Remittances comprise 8–10% of household income across regions, showing an upward trend from 7.4% for the poorest decile to 9.1% for the highest consumption decile, potentially contributing to inequality. Inequality, measured by a Gini coefficient of 34.2, remains moderate by international standards, with notable regional variations ranging from 29.8 in Savai'i to 35.8 in North-West Upolu.

These findings reveal several key development challenges facing Samoa: significant infrastructure deficits, particularly in water services where only 62.2% of households in Rest of Upolu have access compared to over 90% in other regions; employment vulnerabilities in the private sector, especially in North-West Upolu where many poor are employed in private sector jobs (6.5% of all poor); educational disparities with a substantial 25.9 percentage point secondary school enrolment gap between the poorest and richest deciles; and the need for differentiated approaches to address diverse typologies of poor households across regions. The concentration of 77% of all poor households in just two regions—North-West Upolu and Rest of Upolu—presents strategic opportunities for targeted interventions which could maximize poverty reduction impact.

As Samoa works toward its long-term development, these insights can inform strategies for inclusive growth that addresses the specific needs of different vulnerable populations and regions, ensuring that economic development benefits all Samoans.

ANNEX A

Table 7. *Distribution of poor population by region and household characteristics*

Characteristic	Apia Urban Area	North-West Upolu	Rest of Upolu	Savai'i
All Poor Households	9.9%	39.1%	37.5%	13.5%
Household Head Gender				
Male-headed households	7.3%	30.9%	31.5%	10.2%
Female-headed households	2.6%	8.2%	6.0%	3.4%
Household Head Employment				
Self-employed (own business)	4.6%	12.9%	17.8%	4.3%
Family business worker	0.2%	1.7%	1.4%	1.6%
Public sector employee	1.0%	1.9%	1.1%	0.5%
Private sector employee	1.2%	6.5%	3.7%	1.5%
Other (pensioners, students, etc.)	3.0%	16.1%	13.4%	5.5%
Highest Education Level in Household				
Primary education highest	0.1%	1.9%	1.2%	0.0%
Secondary education highest	7.7%	28.1%	28.4%	10.7%
Vocational education highest	0.6%	3.4%	1.4%	2.0%
Tertiary education highest	1.4%	5.6%	6.5%	0.8%
Access to Public Water				
Connected to public water	8.7%	34.2%	22.5%	10.4%
No public water connection	1.1%	4.9%	14.9%	3.1%
Household with Disability				
Has disabled member(s)	1.6%	6.4%	3.6%	2.1%
No disabled members	8.3%	32.8%	33.9%	11.4%

This table should be read as follows: "7.3% of all poor people in Samoa live in male-headed households in Apia Urban Area." As such, each percentage represents that group's share of the total poor population.

Table 8. *Poverty and log expenditure regression*

This regression analysis of poverty determinants in Samoa employs two complementary regression models to understand the determinants of household welfare and poverty in Samoa:

1. The Log Per Adult Equivalent Expenditure Model (Log Consumption column) estimates the factors that influence household consumption levels (a proxy for welfare):

   $log(total\_expenditure\_per\_adult\_equivalent) =$

   $\beta_0 + \beta_1 Region + \beta_2 Demographics + \beta_3 Socioeconomic + \beta_4 Infrastructure + \varepsilon$

2. The Linear Probability Model for Poverty Status (Poverty status column) estimates the factors that affect the probability of a household being poor:

   $P(Poor = 1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Region + \beta_2 Demographics + \beta_3 Socioeconomic + \beta_4 Infrastructure + \varepsilon$

Where β are the coefficient of the independent variables which include:

- Geographic: Region indicators (Apia Urban Area as reference)
- Demographic: Sex and age of household head, household size, dependency ratios
- Socioeconomic: Education level of household head, employment status
- Infrastructure access: Public water connection, electricity access, sanitation facilities
- Household composition: Proportion of children and elderly, disability status

The models explain 37% and 14% of the variation in log expenditure and poverty status respectively, indicating reasonable explanatory power for cross-sectional household data. The following table provides the regression results.

VARIABLES	(1) Log expenditure	(2) Poverty status
Region = 2, North-West Upolu	-0.15***	0.05*
	(0.04)	(0.02)
Region = 3, Rest of Upolu	-0.25***	0.07**
	(0.04)	(0.03)
Region = 4, Savai'i	0.01	-0.02
	(0.04)	(0.03)
Sex of the reference person = 2, Female head	0.00	-0.05**
	(0.03)	(0.02)
Age of the reference person = 2, 40–59 year-old HH head	0.08**	-0.07**
	(0.04)	(0.03)
Age of the reference person = 3, 60+ year-old HH head	0.08	-0.08*
	(0.05)	(0.04)
Maximum education attainment of the reference person = 2, Secondary	0.14***	-0.05
	(0.03)	(0.03)
Maximum education attainment of the reference person = 3, Vocational	0.41***	-0.12***
	(0.06)	(0.04)

Maximum education attainment of the reference person = 4, Tertiary	0.59***	-0.11***
	(0.05)	(0.03)
Household size	-0.04***	0.02***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Proportion of children in household	-0.31***	0.04
	(0.07)	(0.05)
Proportion of elderly in household	0.37***	-0.01
	(0.09)	(0.08)
Household has one of more members with a disability = 2, Without disability	0.04	0.01
	(0.03)	(0.03)
Employment status = 2, In a business operated by a household or family member	-0.14**	0.09
	(0.06)	(0.07)
Employment status = 3, Employee – Public Sector	-0.02	-0.01
	(0.04)	(0.03)
Employment status = 4, Employee – Private Sector	-0.07*	0.00
	(0.03)	(0.03)
Employment status = 6, Other (pensioners, students, chronically ill)	-0.07**	0.04
	(0.03)	(0.03)
Connected to public water	0.12***	-0.08**
	(0.05)	(0.04)
Electricity (post paid)	0.20***	-0.16
	(0.07)	(0.10)
Flush toilet with sceptic tank	0.33***	-0.20***
	(0.05)	(0.06)
Constant	8.71***	0.44***
	(0.10)	(0.11)
Observations	3,074	3,074
R-squared	0.37	0.14

Standard errors in parentheses

**** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1*

Survey design: Enumeration Area as primary sampling unit with region stratification

ANNEX B

This methodology details the analytical approach applied to the 2023 Samoa HIES data. The analysis follows international best practices and the recommendations of the Pacific Statistics Methods Board (PSMB) for consumption aggregate construction and poverty measurement.[6] This document provides an explanation of the key analytical choices made regarding poverty measurement, building upon previous analyses conducted by the Statistics for Development Division of the Pacific Community. By following PSMB recommendations and established best practices, we ensure the poverty estimates are methodologically sound and relevant for policy decisions aimed at improving welfare throughout Samoa.

All analytical steps were implemented using Stata statistical software with documented do-files that enable full replication of results. This approach ensures transparency and allows for updates in future rounds of poverty analysis with appropriate adjustments for inflation and methodological refinements.

Conceptual framework for poverty measurement

Measuring poverty in monetary terms requires a systematic approach with three essential steps. First, construct a single-dimensional welfare indicator that allows ranking of the population according to well-being. For Samoa, this takes the form of a consumption aggregate that captures both food and non-food consumption. Each household has its own consumption aggregate based on a range of items consumed, with certain categories excluded (such as lumpy expenditures) and others imputed (such as housing services).

Second, establish appropriate thresholds that classify individuals as poor or non-poor. This involves creating a food poverty line based on a locally relevant food basket that provides a daily minimum caloric intake of 2,100 kcal per person, then adding a non-food component to calculate a basic needs poverty line. Unlike international poverty lines that enable cross-country comparisons, the national poverty line reflects local consumption patterns and needs, making it contextually appropriate for policy decisions within Samoa.

Finally, combine the welfare indicator with the poverty thresholds to describe the poverty status of the population. The poverty rate represents the proportion of the population living below the poverty line, while additional measures such as the poverty gap capture the depth of poverty.

Consumption aggregate construction

The consumption aggregate for the 2023 HIES was constructed following PSMB recommendations and it consists of four main components: food consumption, non-food non-durable consumption, imputed rent, and use value of durables.

6 https://sdd.spc.int/digital_library/guidance-notemonetary-poverty-measurement.

Food consumption

The food data of the 2023 HIES were processed following PSMB-endorsed guidelines[7]. Food consumption represents the annualized monetary value of all food items consumed by the household. This includes food purchased in cash transactions, home-produced items from subsistence activities, food received as gifts, and meals consumed away from home. The monetary value is estimated by converting reported quantities into standard units and multiplying these by appropriate prices.

Only food consumed by the household is included in the aggregate. Food purchased or produced by the household but given away as gifts to other households is excluded to prevent double counting. This approach ensures the actual consumption benefit received by each household is captured.

For Samoa, where subsistence production plays a significant role in food security, careful attention was paid to valuing home-produced food items. While unit values derived from purchased items can serve as a basis for valuation, the PSMB recommends using "the best available source of data" for pricing, which was translated in using median unit values from the lowest geographic disaggregation at which stable estimates can be calculated.

Non-food non-durable consumption

The non-food component of the consumption aggregate includes regular household expenses on goods and services that contribute to well-being. Like food consumption, non-food expenditures are annualized based on the appropriate recall periods for different types of items. For example, health expenses are recalled for the past three months, while cosmetics expenditures use a twelve-month recall period.

Non-food consumption includes household supplies, personal care items, transportation, communication services, and utilities. In line with PSMB recommendation, education expenditures are included in the aggregate, as are preventive and elective healthcare expenses. However, catastrophic health expenditures like hospitalizations are excluded as "lumpy" expenditures that would distort the welfare measure.

Other excluded categories include investment-related expenses, loan repayments, interest payments, taxes, and transfers out of the household (including gifts, remittances, and religious contributions). These exclusions align with the focus on consumption rather than income as the welfare measure.

Imputed rent

Housing represents a significant component of household welfare, yet direct rental payments are only observed for a small percentage of Samoan households. To account for the services that housing provides to all households, a rental value for owner-occupied, rent-free dwellings, and rent paid by tenants is imputed.

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7 https://sdd.spc.int/digital_library/processing-food-data-collected-household-income-and-expenditure-surveys-pacific.

The imputation uses a hedonic regression model based on dwelling characteristics such as number of rooms, building materials for walls, floors, and roofing, as well as amenities like water connections, toilet facilities, and electricity access. Location factors such as region and urban/rural status are also incorporated. The method followed PSMB-endorsed guidance[8].

Given the small number of renting households in the Samoa 2023 HIES sample, the model primarily relies on self-reported rental expectations from non-renting households. While this approach has limitations – homeowners tend to overvalue their dwellings – it provides a reasonable approximation in contexts with thin rental markets. The final model achieves an R-squared of approximately 0.36, which, while not exceptionally high, is comparable to imputed rent models used in similar contexts.

To derive net imputed rent, maintenance costs are deducted from the imputed gross rent. However, expenses related to major renovations or expansions of dwellings are treated as investments rather than maintenance and are therefore excluded from these deductions.

Use value of durables

Durable goods, such as vehicles, appliances, and furniture provide services to households over multiple years. Instead of counting the full purchase price in the year of acquisition, the annual "use value" that reflects the flow of services these goods provide over time is calculated.

The use value calculation employs a user cost approach with a geometric depreciation model. For each durable item, information on current ownership, year of acquisition, purchase price (or estimated value if received as a gift), and current estimated value is collected. Item-specific depreciation rates based on the relationship between current values and acquisition costs, accounting for age, were then calculated. The method followed PSMB-endorsed guidance[9].

The annual use value is the sum of the depreciation cost and the opportunity cost of capital, calculated as the product of the current value and a real interest rate (set at 5% for Samoa). This approach provides a more accurate reflection of the welfare contribution of durable goods than either excluding them entirely or counting their full purchase price in the acquisition year.

Spatial and temporal adjustments

To ensure comparability of consumption values across different regions and survey periods, spatial and temporal deflation techniques are applied. These adjustments account for price differences that would otherwise distort welfare comparisons.

The spatial-temporal deflator is calculated by comparing regional and seasonal differences in food prices collected in the HIES, weighted by the importance of each item in the consumption basket of the reference population (i.e., households in the 11th to 35th percentiles of the consumption distribution). The Törnqvist index serves as the primary deflator, with the Fisher index calculated for comparison. The following ***Table 9*** provides the deflators.

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8 https://sdd.spc.int/digital_library/guidance-noteimputation-housing-rent-consumption-aggregate
9 https://sdd.spc.int/digital_library/guidance-note-pacific-hies-toolkit-estimation-use-value-durable-goods-consumption

Table 9. *Spatial-temporal deflator*

Region	Period	Laspeyres	Paasche	Fisher	Törnqvist
Apia Urban Area	1	1.050	1.044	1.047	1.042
Apia Urban Area	2	1.045	1.042	1.043	1.034
North-West Upolu	1	0.976	0.980	0.978	0.974
North-West Upolu	2	0.968	0.970	0.969	0.969
Rest of Upolu	1	0.997	0.996	0.997	0.987
Rest of Upolu	2	0.957	0.962	0.959	0.950
Savai'i	1	1.014	1.009	1.011	1.002
Savai'i	2	1.048	1.046	1.047	1.043

In addition, an iterative approach is used to identify the reference population in real terms. After initial deflators are applied, households are re-ranked, and the process is repeated until the reference population stabilizes. This ensures that the deflation process itself doesn't create distortions in the identification of lower-middle-income households.

Poverty line methodology

The poverty line represents the cost of achieving a minimum acceptable standard of living. For Samoa, a new Basic Needs Poverty Line (BNPL) following the cost-of-basic-needs approach was constructed.

Differences in household composition are accounted for through an adult equivalence scale. Following PSMB recommendations, a weight of 1.0 to adults (age 15 and above) and 0.5 to children (under 15 years) was adopted. This adjustment recognizes that children typically have lower consumption needs than adults, providing a more accurate basis for welfare comparisons across households of different sizes and compositions.

The food poverty line represents the cost of a food basket that provides 2,100 calories per day per person, based on the actual consumption patterns of a reference population defined as households between the 11th and 35th percentiles of the consumption distribution. The calorie target of 2,100 follows PSMB recommendations for countries lacking detailed anthropometric and activity-level data. The food basket includes 40 commonly consumed items that cover over 90% of food expenditure.

To calculate the non-food component of the poverty line, the non-food spending of households whose total expenditure is close to the food poverty line is examined. The Ravallion lower bound approach was selected based on PSMB recommendations, as it yields robust results that are easily explained to policy audiences. This method essentially asks: how much do households who can just afford the minimum food requirements spend on non-food items? The answer to this question forms the non-food poverty line.

For sensitivity analysis, poverty lines were calculated using different reference populations and non-food calculation methods. The results demonstrated that poverty rates remain relatively stable across different reference populations, with the Ravallion lower bound method consistently yielding very similar results than regression model (see ***Table 10***).

Table 10. *Sensitivity of poverty rate to the reference population and modelling strategy*

Reference population	Poverty (Regression)*	Poverty (Ravallion low)	Poverty (Rav. up)	Total PL (Regression) in SAT	Total PL (Rav. low) in SAT	Total PL (Rav. up) in SAT
11–50	16.16%	16.16%	36.53%	4,334	4,332	6,015
11–45	15.75%	15.75%	36.13%	4,288	4,289	5,979
11–40	15.39%	15.39%	35.80%	4,240	4,238	5,951
11–35	15.24%	15.24%	35.53%	4,226	4,223	5,929
11–30	14.99%	14.96%	35.17%	4,187	4,185	5,900
11–25	14.91%	14.91%	35.00%	4,173	4,170	5,891
6–50	16.04%	15.88%	36.13%	4,306	4,297	5,987
6–45	15.59%	15.49%	36.07%	4,259	4,251	5,964
6–40	15.10%	15.10%	35.37%	4,212	4,212	5,918
6–35	14.99%	14.99%	35.17%	4,193	4,190	5,903
6–30	14.82%	14.62%	35.00%	4,153	4,149	5,884
6–25	14.45%	14.45%	35.00%	4,136	4,135	5,885

** The regression method estimates non-food poverty lines by regressing food share against the log of expenditure ratio (total expenditure ÷ food poverty line) and its square. This parametric approach uses the entire expenditure distribution to estimate non-food needs, providing an alternative to the Ravallion methods which rely on direct averages from specific household subgroups.*

Poverty measures

Once the consumption aggregate and poverty line are established, standard Foster-Greer-Thorbecke (FGT) poverty measures are calculated to describe the incidence and depth of poverty in Samoa (Foster et al 2010).

The poverty headcount ratio represents the percentage of the population living below the poverty line (See ***Table 11***). The poverty gap index measures the average shortfall from the poverty line as a percentage of the poverty line, indicating how far below the poverty line the poor typically fall.

Together, these measures provide a comprehensive picture of poverty in Samoa, informing policy decisions aimed at reducing both the extent and depth of poverty throughout the country.

Table 11. *Poverty rate by region (and 95% confidence interval)*

Region	Poverty rate	95% Confidence interval
National	15.20%	[12.8%–17.7%]
Urban	8.9%	[5.6%–12.2%]
Rural	16.5%	[13.7%–19.4%]
Apia Urban Area	8.60%	[5.5%–11.8%]
North-West Upolu	16.10%	[11.9%–20.2%]
Rest of Upolu	23.70%	[17.5%–29.8%]
Savai'i	9.40%	[4.8%–14.0%]
Total	15.20%	[12.7%–17.6%]

ANNEX C

Samoa has a long history of HIES and poverty assessments based on the surveys of 2002, 2008, 2013, 2018 and 2023 (i.e., the survey that the current assessment is based on).

The 2023 HIES adopted a different data collection method to the previous surveys. For example: it used Computer Assisted Personal Interview (CAPI; i.e., using digital tablets to collect the data) rather than Pen and Paper Personal Interview (PAPI; i.e., using paper to collect data and then digitising it using a data entry programme; it collected data over 42 weeks to capture a full representation of annual household consumption and income, while the previous surveys collected data once per quarter in a 3-week round; the 2023 HIES collected data on food consumption using a 7-day food consumption recall, while the previous surveys collected food acquisition data using a 2-week diary; data to estimate the consumption flow from durable goods were collected in 2023, while data on durable goods acquisition during the survey reference period were collected previously; the 2023 HIES implemented an individual 7-day recall module to collect consumption of food away from home, while the previous surveys used a household level 30-day recall module that has been associated with underreporting of this growing food source.

Until 2023, Samoa used what is termed as the "Pacific method" to assess the prevalence of monetary poverty, which does not align with current PSMB recommendation (see: PSMB meeting 4, October 2019[10] and: PSMB meeting 5, July 2020[11]). There are numerous differences between the Pacific and the PSMB methods (i.e., the method used in this current assessment), including:

- Constructing the consumption aggregate: the PSMB method estimates consumption flows from durable goods, whereas the Pacific method takes the acquisition value; estimated rents are used for the PSMB method, while respondent-reported rents are used for the Pacific method; gifts given away (incl. church donations) are excluded in the PSMB method, while they are included in the Pacific method; spatial and temporal deflators are used in the PSMB method, while the Pacific method does not (it rather derived a sub-national non-food poverty line, which addresses spatial differences to a certain extent).
- Estimating poverty rates: the PSMB method excludes the top and bottom decile to account for extreme values, while the Pacific method uses deciles 1 to 3 as the reference population; the PSMB method uses a reference population (e.g., 11 to 35 percentile of consumption) in forming the basket of foods which represent 90% of food consumption, while the Pacific method uses all foods consumed by deciles 1 to 3 to form the food basked used in the estimation of the food poverty line; the non-food poverty line is estimated using the Ravallion upper/lower bounds under the PSMB method, while the Pacific method takes the (subnational) average non-food expenditure of deciles 1 to 3.

The current poverty assessment of Samoa, using the 2023 HIES dataset, adopted the PSMB recommended method, but the Pacific poverty assessment method was also done for the sake of comparability (see below). The new poverty method constitutes a break in the poverty trend, which is undesirable from a monitoring perspective, but the switch in the method to collect HIES data constitutes a methodological break, so the trend is broken irrespective of which poverty assessment method is used.

10 https://sdd.spc.int/events/2019/10/pacific-statistics-methods-board-psmb-meeting
11 https://sdd.spc.int/events/2020/04/5th-pacific-statistics-methods-board-psmb-meeting

Table 12 presents the previous and current estimated of monetary poverty in Samoa using the Pacific method. The method was undertaken as follows:

- The consumption aggregate: included annualised value of food consumption, including food given away, the annualised value of non-food non durables consumption, respondent reported rents (unadjusted), the acquisition value of durable goods acquired in the last 12-months (not consumption flow from those goods recently acquired, or from those acquired outside of the reference period). The consumption aggregate also included, gifts given away to other households, transfers and other non-consumption expenditure, but it excluded intermediate expenditure.
- Deciles: calculated as unweighted per capita expenditure deciles, by strata.
- The food poverty line: calculated as the daily unweighted average per capita food expenditure for deciles 1, 2, and 3. Then take the average the average expenditure of deciles 1 to 3 (= av_pc_food). The average daily kcal consumption per capita for deciles 1 to 3 was then estimated (= av_pc_food) and scaled to 2,100 kcal by (= av_pc_food / (2100*/ac_pc_kcal). This equates to the Food Poverty Line (FPL), which was estimated to be SAT 2,008.01 per person per annum (against the FPL of SAT 3,040 in the current assessment). Rates of food poverty were estimated as:
  - National food poverty rate: 1.02% (4.4% using PSMB method)
  - Apia Urban Area food poverty rate: 0.44% (3.7% using PSMB method)
  - North-West Upolu food poverty rate: 1.74% (5.7% using PSMB method)
  - Resto of Upolu food poverty rate: 1.00% (5.9% using PSMB method)
  - Savai'i food poverty rate: 0.26% (0.8% using PSMB method)
- Non-food poverty line: is done estimated strata and by taking the average per capita non-food expenditure for households in decile 1 to 3 (= NFPL)
- Basic needs poverty line: BNPL = FPL + NFPL. The poverty line was estimated as SAT 4,370.72 per person per annum (SAT 4,212.85 using PSMB method), although it is acknowledged that the Pacific method derived incomparable regional poverty lines, as follows:
  - Apia Urban Area: SAT 5,287.35 per person per year
  - North-West Upolu: SAT 4,259.61 per person per year
  - Rest of Upolu: SAT 3,939.40 per person per year
  - Savai'i: SAT 4,746.27 per person per year

The national poverty rate in Samoa using the Pacific method is 20.5% (against 15.2% using the PSMB method; ***Table 12***). This estimate is provided for comparative purposes only, however it is not comparable because of the change in the HIES method, as described above.

Table 12. *Trend analysis of monetary poverty rates in Samoa using the Pacific method*

Area	2002 HIES		2008 HIES		2013 HIES		2018 HIES		2023 HIES (Pacific method)	
	Food poor (%)	CBN poor (%)	Food poor (%)	CBN poor (%)	Food poor (%)	CBN poor (%)	Food poor (%)	CBN poor (%)	Food poor (%)	CBN poor (%)
National	10.6	22.9	4.9	26.9	4.3	18.8	5.2	21.9	1.0	20.5
Apia Urban Area	7.6	25.9	3.5	24.4	4.5	24.0	4.5	28.6	0.5	18.0
North-West Upolu	16.2	29.5	3.3	26.8	6.6	23.7	5.5	23.8	1.7	23.2
Rest Of Upolu	6.1	15.1	8.1	26.6	2.4	13.6	5.4	18.0	1.0	24.2
Savai'i	10.3	19.1	5.1	28.8	2.9	12.5	5.2	17.2	0.2	14.0

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