

Inclusive and resilient development: the role of social protection¹

A paper prepared by ILO and UNDP for the G20 Development Working Group, 2010-2011 June 2011

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Inclusive and resilient development: the role of social protection

1. Introduction

1. Social protection is central to development. This becomes especially evident during periods of crisis, when large numbers of people are affected by shocks. Although such shocks may be of relatively short duration, an extensive body of literature has shown that, left to themselves, vulnerable households and individuals tend to cope in ways that have long term adverse consequences. The current economic crisis is one such episode, as are the recurrent episodes of high food and energy prices. Recognizing this, national governments, international organizations and cross-national bodies such as the G20 have included social protection measures in their responses to the economic crisis that began in late 2008.
2. For example, social protection formed a significant portion of fiscal stimulus packages², including some in lower income countries, such as Bangladesh, Kenya and Tanzania. The IMF (IMF 2009) noted that higher social spending, mainly to expand social benefit programs was budgeted for 2009 in 16 of its 19 programs initiated in 2008-09. The World Bank, through various mechanisms such as its IDA pilot country response, Rapid Social Response (RSR) Multi-Donor Trust Fund, Japanese Social Development Fund (JSDA) and Global Food Price Crisis Response (GFRP), assisted over 40 countries to enhance or expand their social protection programs³. The United Nations (UN) system coordinated its response through nine joint crisis initiatives⁴, one of which was the 'Social Protection Floor Initiative', and another was on monitoring and analysis which was the precursor to 'Global Pulse'⁵. Although there are signs of economic recovery in many countries – including LICs – the political momentum resulting from the successive prior crises, along with current surges in food prices continues to keep social protection high on the policy agenda of various bodies – for example, in the June 2011 International Labour Conference, representatives of governments, employers and workers from 160 countries reached a consensus on social protection floors.
3. As early as its September 2009 meeting at Pittsburgh, the G20 recognized that there was a collective responsibility to 'mitigate the social impact of the crisis' and a need to provide social protection as

² It is estimated that an additional \$616 billion were allocated to discretionary social protection measures to cope with the effects of the crisis in the G20 countries, which is equivalent to 29 per cent of the total economic stimulus (ILO 2010b).

³ The World Bank, personal communication June 15, 2011.

⁴ The nine initiatives were (listed in the order in which presented in 'UN System Joint Crisis Initiatives Resource Guide' (2009)) as: additional financing for the most vulnerable; food security; trade; a green economy initiative; a global jobs pact; a social protection floor; humanitarian, security and social stability; technology and innovation and; monitoring and analysis.

⁵ www.unglobalpulse.org

part of the response. In June 2010 at Toronto, G20 Leaders welcomed the recommendations of the Labour and Employment Ministers (Washington, April 2010) including the need to “*establish adequate social protection systems so that households have sufficient security to take advantage of economic opportunities*”. In their recommendation to the G20 Leaders, the Ministers acknowledged “*the need for basic social protection for all vulnerable people, sometimes called a basic social floor.*” Similar concern was expressed by G20 Leaders in Seoul (November 2010) in the context of the need to accelerate growth in low income countries, leading up to the decision in the G20 Multi-year Action Plan on Development, where:

“ recognising the vulnerabilities exposed by the global financial crisis, ...[called] upon the UNDP, in consultation with the ILO, MDBs and other relevant international organisations, to:

- *Identify lessons learned from the implementation of social protection mechanisms in developing countries, in particular LICs, during and after the crisis;*
- *Prepare best practice guidelines;*
- *Make recommendations on how to surmount barriers inhibiting cross-country knowledge sharing and program replication or expansion ...”*

4. The current document has been developed in response to this request and is structured as follows. Section 2 presents an overview of social protection in the context of the economic crisis, drawing upon the available evidence to illustrate how social protection interventions can help mitigate the effect of crises on the vulnerable. Sections 3 and 4 use the recent experience of developing countries to present some facts and draw some lessons about social protection, including emerging best practices and innovations. The concluding section summarizes and presents recommendations for action.

2. Economic crises and social protection

5. A number of different conceptual and operational definitions of social protection exist. We do not seek to choose between them: however, in the context of this paper, we find it useful to adopt a common understanding of the term. Accordingly, this section reviews key elements of social protection that are especially important in the back drop of the global economic crisis.
6. There is, by now, extensive evidence of the harmful impacts of aggregate shocks, such as those due to economic crises, or food and fuel price rises, on human development (see, for example, Glewwe and Hall 1994; Cutler *et al* 2002; Paxson and Schady 2005; Baird, Friedman and Schady 2007). While the immediate effect on household level well-being may be visible through losses in income and increases in poverty rates, important longer term effects – some of which are irreversible – arise as households seek to cope. It is well documented, for example, that families may sell assets that they later struggle to recover (Corbett 1994; Kinsey *et al* 1998); eat less, and less nutritious foods (Carter and Maluccio 2000; Handa and King 2000); postpone or go without medical care and may interrupt –sometimes permanently – the schooling of children (Frankenberg, Thomas, and Beegle 1999). The effects can be felt across all sections of the population, but are especially pronounced for people below or close to the poverty line, and also tend to be unequally distributed with women, children and those with

special vulnerabilities – including the elderly and those with HIV/AIDS – being affected disproportionately. Such impacts threaten to slow down, or reverse, the considerable progress that many countries have made towards the achievement of key MDGs; as also to impair the productive capacity of individuals in both the medium and longer term, thus affecting prospects for economic growth and recovery. In particular, cognitive losses from malnutrition of children during critical periods of development may result in permanently reduced abilities (see Glewwe, Jacoby and King 2001 and Hoddinot and Kinsey 2001). In addition, when households are left to themselves to cope, their already meagre reserves may be depleted, making their exposure to a subsequent shock far more severe.⁶

7. Accordingly, *for the purposes of this paper*, social protection is viewed as a set of nationally owned policies and instruments that support access to goods and services by all households and individuals at least at minimally acceptable levels during periods of insufficient income, incapacity or inability to work. It aims at enabling recovery from such periods without adverse long term consequences and at promoting individual and societal resilience, including through the development of proactive measures to manage risk⁷.
8. Social protection makes life courses safer and more predictable by strengthening the ability of people to cope with risks and shocks; in order to do so effectively, it needs to be flexible enough to take into account individual and group variations in needs and vulnerabilities. A well designed⁸ social protection system supports people's efforts to prevent adverse outcomes of the kind described above. In

⁶ It is important to note that a vulnerable household may be subject to one or more negative shocks such as the loss of a livelihood, the death of an earning member or a catastrophically high health expenditure over the course of its life; however, in general, such shocks will be *idiosyncratic*, and not necessarily correlated with those experienced by other households. Informal, community-based risk pooling mechanisms where households essentially insure one another may sometimes suffice for dealing with shocks of this kind, *provided they are not too frequent or widespread*. A global crisis is set apart by many households being simultaneously exposed to such shocks. As a result, aggregate effects become more evident, and some traditional forms of community-based coping may fail.

⁷ This understanding is in line with the concept of social protection operating in dimensions of protection, prevention and promotion advocated by ILO, the World Bank and other institutions such as the Institute for Development Studies (IDS) in the UK. Likewise, it is in consistent with several other approaches. For example a UN-DESA document (Ortiz 2007) refers to social protection as 'policies designed to reduce peoples' exposure to risks, enhancing their capacity to protect themselves against hazards and loss of income.'

⁸ Well-designed programmes are those in which the transfers (in cash or in kind) respond to real needs and are of scale that is adequate enough to make a difference in beneficiaries' lives, without generating incentives that prevent them from engaging in productive activities. Similarly, such programmes should not impose burdens upon beneficiaries which are onerous financially or in terms of time-use (such as fulfilling conditionalities when services are not readily available, or when proof of compliance is complicated) and which can negatively impact their chances to engage in productive activities. Well-designed programmes should include adequate management arrangements from the onset that are transparent and accountable. They should include provisions for monitoring and, impact evaluation. Programmes should be linked to wider national strategies and policies such as national development plans, poverty reduction strategies, employment policies and strategies and other sectoral policies to potentiate impacts and encourage "graduation" of beneficiaries to sustainable self-reliance. Programmes should also try to minimize errors of inclusion, and more importantly, errors of exclusion. They should also avoid negative unintended consequences for women and other population groups (children, persons with disabilities, indigenous populations, persons living with HIV/AIDS).

addition, such a system can enable greater resilience and earlier recovery – even in the face of recurrent shocks - by preventing an erosion of household assets and human capital and at the same time, it makes growth itself more inclusive and socially acceptable by enabling the chronically poor to take advantage of opportunities to escape poverty. In addition to these outcomes – which deliver benefits regardless of whether the adverse shocks are global, or dispersed across households - during a *global* crisis social protection could also help stabilize the macroeconomy by supporting aggregate demand during an economic slump through directing resources towards those with a higher propensity to consume.

9. Furthermore, by helping maintain human development gains, and to the extent it goes beyond a purely contributory system and becomes an instrument of redistribution, it could be an important component of a strategy of inclusive growth and reducing inequality; and for honouring the country's social contract. Such inclusion would also be strengthened by the extent to which those excluded from conventional economic activities – such as the elderly, children, persons with disabilities, and the chronically ill – are accommodated and, where appropriate, enabled to participate in the work force.
10. Some examples of commonly used instruments for social protection include cash transfers (both conditional and unconditional); in-kind transfers such as those provided through school feeding; access to services (such as to health or care for people with disabilities); public work programmes; contributory, pre-payment mechanisms, particularly for health⁹; and subsidies. Recent experience from developing countries indicates that many of these interventions can have significant impacts on reducing poverty and building up human capital even when implemented prior to a shock, thus developing *ex ante* resilience. Accordingly, this paper views social protection as broader than – but inclusive of – traditional views of social safety nets, generally perceived to be concerned primarily with providing protection during shocks.
11. Many countries – including low income countries (LICs) – have in place one or more of the social protection instruments above. However, even when present, coverage under these programmes can often be insufficient, leaving significant gaps in terms of vulnerable, but excluded, populations; in the quantum and nature of benefits; and in the efficiency of delivery. While these instruments may provide some protection against individual (idiosyncratic) life shocks, they can face special challenges during severe economic downturns. In such periods, revenues from contributions or taxes earmarked for the financing of social protection programmes may fall, while expenditures rise due to increases in the number seeking assistance. This counter-cyclical behaviour of social protection expenditure as a

⁹ Social protection for health serves several functions, including preventing household from falling into long term poverty due to catastrophic health expenses. The Community-Based Health Insurance (CBHI) programme in Rwanda, for example, aims to provide financial access to health services for those in the informal sector. As of June 2010, this scheme covered as much as 91 percent of the target population (ILO-UNDP 2011), being based on risk-pooling and financed through a flat annual payment by members plus government contributions to cover higher-cost interventions. Special subsidies for the poorest (funded by the government, NGOs or development partners) are also included. Similar programmes are more common in MICs, for example Thailand's Universal Coverage Scheme, available to every citizen not covered by other public health schemes (approximately 80% of the total population) (ILO-UNDP 2011).

crisis response mechanism is inbuilt and is how it functions as an automatic stabilizer of individual incomes and aggregate demand. However it does require proactive decisions for filling the financing gap, through some combination of reallocated public spending; increased contributions and taxes; deficit financing; or drawing upon contingent reserves that may have been deliberately built up during prior periods of stronger growth. Among countries that are cited for having been able to do this satisfactorily are India, Mexico and Philippines that maintain reserve funds for relief programmes (Gurenko and Lester (2004)), while Chile and Colombia have, at various times, been able to achieve countercyclical financing through prudently low overall spending in good times, allowing for increased spending or borrowing during downturns (Grosh *et al* 2008).

12. The experience of two developing countries – Brazil and India – shows how these programs can aid in coping and recovery at the macro level. Brazil was one of the last economies in the world to be hit by the financial crisis of 2008 and also one of the first to recover. An important reason for this was an increase, since 2003, in the coverage and depth of Brazil’s social protection policies (Barbosa 2010)¹⁰. The total value of the income transfers under these policies increased to nearly 9.3 per cent of GDP in 2009, amounting to an addition of 0.7 per cent of disposable income, thus bolstering domestic private consumption during the worst period of the crisis. (Barbosa 2010) estimates the value of the countercyclical impact of social protection initiatives to be 0.7 per cent of GDP in 2008-09, more than double the impact of tax cuts over the same period.

13. Another example comes from India, where an expansion of the National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (NREGS) was an important part of the fiscal stimulus package introduced in 2009. Such an expansion was deemed to be a useful means to rapidly shore up aggregate demand while minimizing concerns about medium term fiscal sustainability (Chakraborty 2007). This expansion was made possible by increasing the fiscal space available to both the Central and State governments. The Thirteenth Finance Commission, responsible for Centre-State fiscal allocations in the period 2010-15 also complemented these policy actions by specifying a path for fiscal correction that laid out a gradual return to fiscal stability over the next five years, as growth rates recovered (Roy 2009).

14. In general, the availability of such options will be more limited in LICs. However, notwithstanding their fiscal and capacity constraints, many LICs made social protection an important part of their response to the crisis. Social spending remained a high priority for several¹¹. While some of this was possible due to the fiscal space available to many developing countries at the onset of the crisis¹², it is also

¹⁰ The main instruments of social protection were social security benefits, unemployment insurance and the “*Bolsa Familia*” minimum income programme.

¹¹ IMF (2010) reported that in terms of the median, health and education spending increased in real terms by 10 percent in 2009 (compared to an average of 7 percent over 2006-08), while real growth in spending on goods and services slowed during the crisis. IMF (2009) also noted that 16 out of the 19 programs initiated in 2008-09, had budgeted higher social spending for 2009. These increases were mainly on account of expansions in programs providing social protection.

¹² Zhang *et al* (2010) reported on the fiscal stimulus packages in terms of 2008 GDP for a number of countries.. Some low income countries such as Tanzania (7 per cent), Bangladesh (5 per cent) and Kenya (1 per cent) had the fiscal space

indicative of the broad general consensus and political support on the importance of social protection measures to mitigate the impacts.

15. In many countries, existing social protection systems – including enhancements that had been made in response to the immediately preceding food and fuel crises - helped cushion the shocks from the economic crisis, while additional measures, arguably more closely attributable to the economic crisis, were also taken. Table 1 presents a partial list of observed developing country responses over 2008-09 that fall into the latter category¹³, while Annex 1 presents a partial list of existing instruments and programmes that also helped with the response. The authors make no claim as to the completeness of the data, however, for any given country, a complete picture of the response comes from considering together the entries made against it in both Table 1 and Annex 1. For example in Bangladesh, existing social protection programmes (Annex 1) such as Vulnerable Group Feeding (VGF), employment generation and the open market supply of coarse rice rations would have helped the vulnerable to cope; while increasing old age pensions (Table 1) was an additional response to the economic crisis.

Table 1. Crisis response: extending coverage, raising benefits and improving monitoring, selected developing countries, 2008–09

Extending Coverage, Raising Benefits	
Country	Measures taken
Armenia	Increased allocation for pensions, the Family Benefit programme and unemployment insurance ⁵
Bangladesh	20 per cent increase in old-age pensions ¹
Burundi	Expanded food security programs and school feeding ⁷
Brazil	Extension of social assistance ¹
Chile	Old-age pension raised in line with minimum wage ¹ Extension of social pensions to another 5 per cent of the poor elderly ¹ Benefit levels raised ¹
China	Gradual extension of old-age pensions to the rural population ¹ Encouragement of lower health insurance premiums ¹
Costa Rica	15 per cent increase in benefit level for non-contributory pensions ¹

available to implement significant stimulus packages, comparable to those implemented by countries such as India (3.5 per cent), Mexico (1.5per cent) and Indonesia (1.5 per cent).

¹³ IMF (2009) reports that the following programs also increased social spending in 2008-2009: Malawi, Sri Lanka, Tajikistan, Togo and Zambia.

Djibouti	Developed a system of targeted subsidies to the poorest ⁷
Egypt	Extension of health coverage ¹
Ethiopia	Expansion of coverage of the Productive Safety Nets Programme ¹
Georgia	Expansion of social assistance and pensions ⁵
Ghana	New initiatives to provide of school uniforms and free exercise books ⁷
India	Extension of pension and health coverage ¹ Expanded coverage of the employment guarantee scheme (NREGA) ²
Indonesia	Temporary reactivation of the unconditional cash transfer program (BLT) ⁴ Additional funds channeled to affected areas through the community-driven development program (PNPM) ³ .
Kenya	Cash transfers to the elderly ¹
Kyrgyz Republic	Increased budget allocations to the Unified Monthly Benefit—a social assistance program targeting poor households with children ⁷ 50 percent average increase in old-age pension ⁵
Mali	Release of food from village food banks ⁷
Pakistan	Extension of health coverage and social safety net ¹
Philippines	Expanded the conditional cash transfer programme ⁶ Extension of health coverage ¹
South Africa	Decreased retirement age for men ¹ Prolongation of child benefit payments ¹ Additional investments in health and education ¹
Tanzania, United Rep	Increase in minimum pension benefit levels ¹ Extending coverage of national employment creation scheme ¹
Uruguay	Minimum contribution period for full pensions shortened from 35 to 30 years ¹

Improvements in needs analysis and monitoring

Country	Measures taken
Congo, Democratic Republic of	Introduced quarterly monitoring of pro-poor spending ⁷
Cote d'Ivoire	Introduced quarterly monitoring of pro-poor spending and progress on social indicators ⁷
Djibouti	Bi-annual monitoring of pro-poor spending and progress on social indicators ⁷
Liberia	Introduced quarterly monitoring of pro-poor spending and progress on social indicators ⁷
Mongolia	Review of existing social benefits system to direct more

	resources to the poorest ⁷
Niger	Introduced quarterly monitoring of pro-poor spending and progress on social indicators ⁷
Sao Tome and Principe	Introduced quarterly monitoring of pro-poor spending and progress on social indicators ⁷

Sources:

¹ILO country reviews

²Indian Government website: http://india.gov.in/sectors/rural/national_rural.php, May 2011

³PNPM support facility, Government of Indonesia, personal communication.

⁴Indonesia, *Reinforcing Domestic Demand in Times of crisis*, ILO 2011

⁵IMF, personal communications, May and June 2011

⁶World Bank personal communication, June 2011

⁷*Creating Policy Space Responsive Design and Streamlined Conditionality in Recent Low-Income Country Programs*, IMF 2009

16. Of the twenty-eight countries in Table 1, eleven are LICs, and they acted through a range of measures including targeted social assistance, such as old-age pensions; school feeding; employment generation; health coverage; and improvements in monitoring to enhance responsiveness. While such responses are expectedly more limited than in the case of MICs¹⁴, even within this small sample of countries, some common elements are evident:

- a. in virtually all cases, *existing* programmes were used to deliver the response;
- b. a *variety* of interventions and instruments in most countries helped protect against the different channels through which different groups of the vulnerable felt the impacts;
- c. the *nature* of programmes used fell into just a few groups, indicating the potential for learning across country experiences;
- d. improvements in *monitoring* were seen as an important part of enhancing the quality of the response.

17. Some of these lessons underscore those learnt during the preceding food price crisis of 2007-2008. Although the food price crisis was different from the economic one - in terms of channels of impact, geographic distribution, populations affected, duration and the effect on public revenues – national responses were easier and quicker when pre-existing programmes were in place. For example, the Kyrgyz Republic temporarily scaled up the benefit in its targeted cash benefit program, while small – but existing – school feeding programmes could be scaled up quickly in a number of LICs such as Haiti, Liberia, Senegal and Togo (World Bank 2011).

¹⁴ It must be noted that the contribution of social protection itself in the stimulus packages implemented in LICs has been limited. From Zhang *et al (ibid)*, the social protection component of stimulus packages in LICs was modest – Bangladesh allocated 0.18 per cent of GDP, and Kenya 0.40 per cent to stimulus-related social protection –relative to MICs such as China (3 per cent), Honduras (2.7 per cent), South Africa (2.25 per cent) and Vietnam (1.63 per cent).

18. The World Bank shared similar lessons¹⁵ with respect to its own activities at financing social protection during crises noting that:
- a. immediate responses were only possible in countries with established social protection programmes;
 - b. grant financing through the Rapid Social Response (RSR)¹⁶ fund played an essential role in extending activities to countries without any prior lending for, or analytical activities in social protection;
 - c. effective responses included a variety of interventions including direct and indirect transfers, initiatives to improve nutrition and capacity building;
 - d. there should be greater focus on fragile states, where the impacts could be disproportionately greater.
19. In Ethiopia, where a major motivation behind the establishment of its Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) had been the recognition of the added value provided by a properly institutionalized system of dependable transfers, contingency budget provisions provided assistance to 1.49 million *additional* (transitory) food insecure households, followed by additional transfers to 4.43 million existing program beneficiaries (World Bank 2009). Here, the setting up of a coordination mechanism among external partners was critical towards pooling cash and in-kind financing, as well as developing a unified stream of technical advice to support the programme (WFP 2010). To strengthen the effectiveness and overall quality of program interventions, several joint Government-development partner technical committees and taskforces have been established to monitor program implementation and provide technical guidance on component-specific and crosscutting issues. This example underscores the importance of coordinated support during a transition phase, bringing together different sources of financing and technical assistance.
20. In some countries – mainly MICs - programs expanded as part of the response to the food crisis played an important role in providing social protection benefits during the economic crisis, and are transitioning into more permanent arrangements. For example, a pilot conditional cash transfer programme (CCT) launched in early 2008 in the Philippines was rolled out much more quickly than had been planned as part of the response to the food crisis. While initially covering just 6,000 households in 4 municipalities and 2 cities; by end-2009, the program reached 700,000 household nationwide, and scaling up to 1 million by end-2010 and an estimated 2.3 million (out of 4.2-4.3 million poor families) by the end of 2011. A food stamps programme for targeted sections of the population in Mongolia, and a CCT programme in Guatemala followed a similar path to provide protection during the economic crisis, and to extending coverage in the longer term, while also placing additional emphasis on nutrition, an area of long-standing concern for the country (World Bank 2011).

¹⁵ Personal communication June 15, 2011.

¹⁶ The Rapid Social Response fund was set up in December 2009 with the support of Russia, UK and Norway to finance i) technical assistance; ii) the piloting of promising learning and innovation approaches as well as the scaling up of existing programme benefits; and knowledge management including South-South knowledge sharing and transfer. It currently supports 75 projects in various countries.

Guidance:

- 1. Pre-existing social protection systems enable a rapid response during crises.**
- 2. A variety of interventions, such as cash and in-kind transfers (including school feeding and nutritional interventions) are helpful in mitigating a range of differentiated impacts, as different population groups are vulnerable in different ways.**
- 3. Donor financing – or a country’s own reserves built up during ‘good times’ - are important in allowing for responses during crises.**
- 4. During the course of a crisis, on-going monitoring helps the speed and quality of the response.**
- 5. Effective coordination between the many partners in the field, and with the Government helps deliver higher quality and more sustainable results.**

3. The experience with social protection: impacts and coverage

21. The previous section has highlighted the importance of establishing sound social protection systems in ‘good’ times, in order to enable a rapid response during ‘bad’ times. By the same token, new programmes that may be established during a crisis need to be nurtured and strengthened even after the crisis abates, so as to anchor responses in future downturns. Further, going beyond the immediate objective of building resilience, a growing body of evidence indicates that social protection measures can contribute significantly to achieving a country’s poverty reduction and human development goals.
22. Social protection initiatives of one sort or the other are fairly common among developing countries, including many LICs. Annex 1 consolidates the results of an - admittedly incomplete - cross-country ‘mapping exercise’ to demonstrate that many LICs have – at least nominally - one or more social protection instruments in place. Twenty-three out of forty LICs feature in this list, and the programmes represented include cash transfers, social security, in-kind transfers, public employment schemes and those facilitating access to health and education services.
23. In most LICs (see Box 1), the reach and scope of these programmes may fall far short of the actual need. However, their profusion is testimony to their appeal, as well as the mounting evidence of the benefits they can bring, if well designed. At the same time, limited and uncertain fiscal space, coupled with inadequate institutional capacity for design and implementation can significantly constrain these programmes from reaching their full potential.

Box 1**Mozambique (Programa de Subsídio de Alimentos) – protecting the vulnerable**

The Programa de Subsídio de Alimentos (PSA) was started in 1990-93 to support very poor urban residents by providing cash to the most vulnerable: households that are labour scarce and have limited productive capacity. It targets three kinds of households: those headed by the elderly (women aged 55 and over and men aged 60 and over); persons with disabilities; and the chronically sick (hypertension, diabetes, epilepsy, bronchial asthma, chronic renal insufficiency and tuberculosis, excepting HIV/AIDS).

The programme is an interesting example of a non-contributory social protection programme in a low income country in Sub-Saharan Africa that has been principally financed by the Government. PSA was entirely funded by the Government over 1990-2008, and since 2008 complementary funding from development partners has been introduced. The budget allocation for the PSA rose from MT (metical) 321 million in 2008 to MT 421 million in 2009 (partly due to the start-up of donor funding) and MT 444 million in 2010, in which year the PSA budget allocation accounted for about 0.4% of total government expenditure¹⁷.

2008 also marked some changes in the programme itself, with the monthly benefit amounts being increased for the primary beneficiary from 70 to 100 MT (US\$2.5 to US\$3.6), and for dependents from 10 to 50 MT (US\$0.36 to US\$1.80). There was also an increased focus on including eligible dependents, and strengthening the monitoring and evaluation system (Veras et al (2010)). Technical support for improving delivery and management, and reaching out to remote areas is also being provided by international organizations and NGOs.

Although the number of primary beneficiaries rose from about 40,000 in 1998 to 160,000 in 2008, estimates indicate that it currently reaches only about 35 per cent of the elderly poor (Mausse and Cunha 2011). While a large expansion is being planned by the Government (aiming, by 2014, to reach 523,479 primary beneficiaries and 921,324 dependents (mainly children)): however, even with the relatively small size of the transfer, funding continues to be a principal concern.

At the same time, impact evaluation has found (Veras Soares and Teixeira 2010) that meals became more regular, and there were indication of better nutrition levels. The programme was also found to not decrease the labor supply and to reduce child labour among boys.

¹⁷ This does not include indirect costs associated with current and investment expenditures in the ministry that manages the PSA

24. Much of the evidence on impacts comes from the middle income countries (MICs), which have introduced and experimented with such programmes on an understandably wider scale, and for longer periods than LICs. This evidence, overall, points towards positive impacts on poverty reduction and even inequality. For example, in Latin America, a region with historically high levels of inequality, cash transfer programs have contributed significantly to reductions in inequality as measured by the Gini coefficient. The contribution of conditional cash transfers (CCTs) to reducing inequality in Brazil and Mexico was found to be about 21 per cent over the period from the mid-90s to the mid-00s, a period over which the Gini itself fell by about 2.7 points in each country (Soares et. al. 2007). Similar effects are reported from other regions as well: in 1994, **Cape Verde**, which graduated from LDC status only in 2007, introduced a tax-financed old age and disability non-contributory pension scheme that has attained 90 per cent coverage. The programme has contributed to the substantial reduction in the poverty rate from 36.7 per cent in 2001 to 26.6 per cent in 2007 (SPF Country Brief: Cap Vert 2011).
25. Table 2 presents some of the evidence on the impacts of a variety of programmes, from both LICs and MICs. These effects – including both direct assessments and microsimulations - vary by the nature of the programme, but are clear and wide-ranging across countries, geographic regions and income typologies. In addition to reductions in poverty and inequality, positive impacts are also evident in terms of improving food security and asset holdings; nutrition, health and education outcomes, especially among children; the creation of community assets; and levels of minimum wages and women’s empowerment.

Table 2: Social protection programmes in developing countries: examples of assessed impact

Country	Year of introduction	Programme	Type and eligibility criteria	Coverage	Impact
Argentina¹	2009	Asignación Universal por Hijo (AUH)	Universal child allowance	85 per cent of children	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduced poverty (-22 per cent) and extreme poverty (-42 per cent); • Positive impact on household income (for poorest households income almost doubled, for poor households income increased by 30 per cent); • Reduction in income distribution gap.
Brazil¹	1988	Rural Social Insurance Programme	Non-contributory pension (60 years for male, 55 for female) and disability programme for the rural poor	80 per cent of agricultural workers - 66 per cent of rural population	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Estimated 4 million fewer people in poverty (53.5 per cent of the rural population was still poor but this figure would have jumped to 68.1 per cent without the programme);
Ethiopia²	2005	Productive Safety Net Programme	In cash and in kind transfer	10 per cent of the population	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modest, but relevant average impacts, improving food security (by 11 per cent), livestock holdings (by about 7 per cent) and households' ability to cope with shocks. Larger effects on asset accumulation for those receiving substantial complementary support.
Ghana²	2004	National Health Insurance Scheme	Universal health coverage (part contribution, part government)	67 per cent of the population	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduced out-of-pocket expenditures for health up to 50 per cent.
India¹	2006	Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme	Wage employment programme	52.5 million households	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase in minimum wages for agricultural labourers; • Decreased out-migration from villages; • Women's empowerment; • Positive impact on the environment.

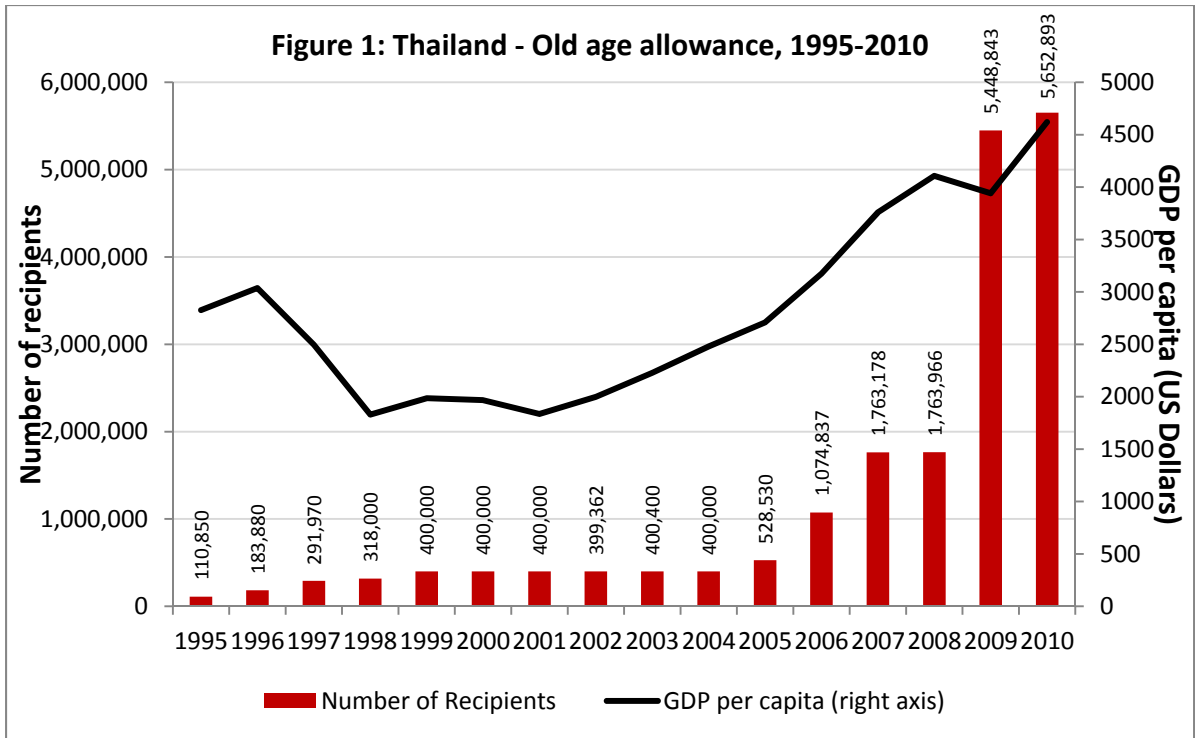
Mexico ¹	2002	Oportunidades (Human Development Programme)	Conditional cash transfer	25 per cent of the population	<p>Positive effects on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education in rural areas: including increase in attainment; • Health: including increased number of preventive medical check-ups, 11 per cent reduction in maternal mortality and 2 per cent reduction in infant mortality; • Nutrition: including increase in the absolute height of children and families' increased total consumption.
Rwanda ^{1&2}	2007	Vision 2020 <i>Umurenge</i> Programme	Public works, direct support and financial services targeted at extremely poor households	9,692 households benefited from direct support transfers – 78,004 benefited from public works	<p>Ongoing evaluations;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduced poverty; contributed to fall of the extreme poor among beneficiaries from 40.6 per cent to 9 per cent. • Contributed to improvements in human poverty dimensions (such as education, health, food security and nutrition), community asset development, the environment and social participation.
South Africa ¹	1998	Child Support Grant	Means-tested non-contributory cash transfer	10 million children - take-up rate ranges between 78 per cent and 80 per cent of the children who are eligible	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduced the poverty gap by 28.3 per cent; • Reduced income inequality (all three social grants – old-age pension, disability grants, child support grant – lowered the Gini coefficient by 3 basis points)

Sources:

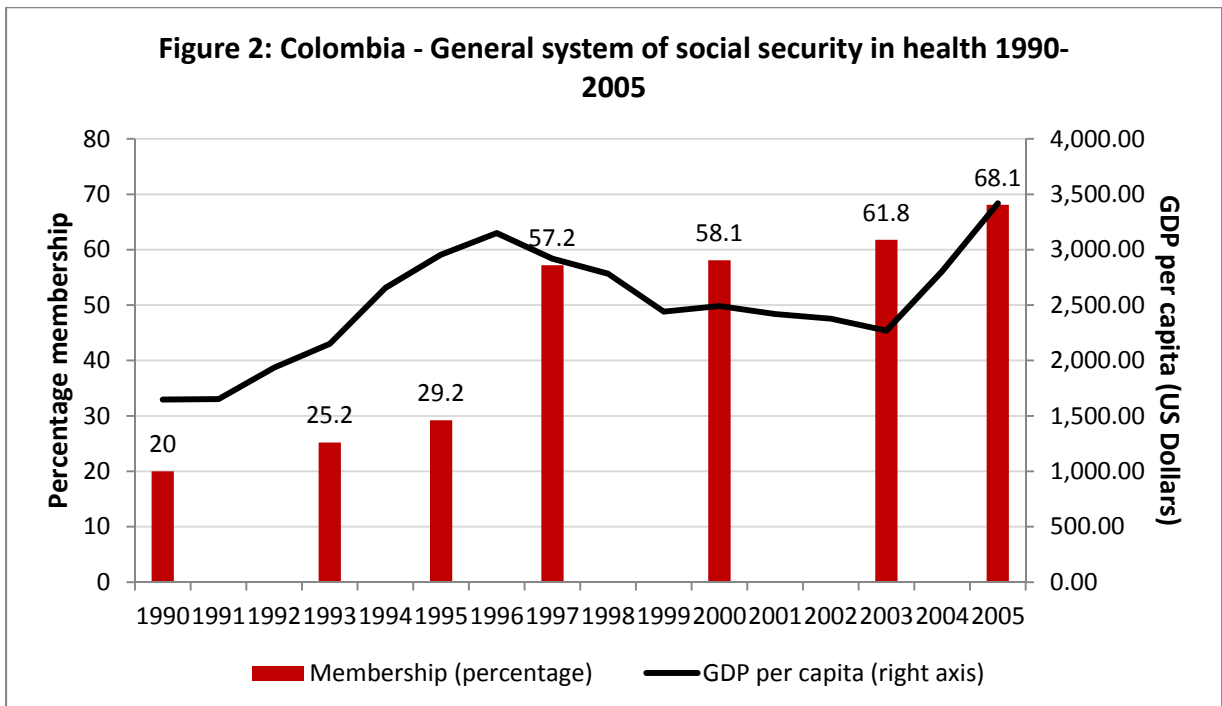
¹ ILO/UNDP (2011)

² European Report on Development (2010)

26. More systematic meta-studies strengthen these conclusions. For example (ILO 2010a), the results from about 80 individual studies on new cash transfer programmes that were introduced in some 30, mostly developing, countries around the world during the last ten years, in general, show positive impacts on poverty, health and nutrition, the social status of recipients, especially women, economic activity and entrepreneurial small scale investments, notably in agriculture, and a lack of significant adverse effects on labour market participation of the poor populations they serve.
27. In spite of these manifest advantages, *comprehensive* social protection systems that adequately cover all vulnerable individuals and households at minimally acceptable levels are rare. Annex 1 shows that in many countries, programmes accommodate only a limited set of the range of possible vulnerabilities: even within these, as the case of Mozambique presented in Box 1 demonstrates, individual programmes face significant financial and technical hurdles in being able to deliver adequate levels of benefits to all who are eligible. Even when the programme is designed so as to have low inclusion costs, budget constraints that set enrollment caps may end up excluding many who are eligible (Grosh 2008).
28. The number of individuals covered tends to increase as the economy grows, albeit at rates that vary across countries and instruments – Figures 1 and 2 demonstrate this for the old age allowance in Thailand, and health benefits in Colombia, respectively (data from ILO/UNDP 2011). However, large gaps remain – ILO (2010d p.1) estimates that only about 20 per cent of the world’s working age population, primarily from developed countries, has effective access to comprehensive social protection systems.



Source: Authors' calculations based on ILO-UNDP 2011



Source: Authors' calculations based on ILO-UNDP 2011

29. Variations across countries are significant – for example, in the case of old age pensions, the ILO (2010d p. 2) observes that outside of the developed world, coverage is typically

concentrated on formal sector employees alone. Worldwide, although nearly 40 per cent of the working-age population is legally covered by contributory old-age pension schemes, the figure ranges from 80 per cent in North America and Europe to less than 33 per cent in Africa. *Effective* coverage is significantly lower: the working-age population effectively covered by contributory programmes amounts to only 5 per cent in Sub-Saharan Africa, while this share is about 20 per cent in Asia, the Middle East and North Africa. The percentage of persons aged 65 over who receive some kind of pension, is 75 per cent in high-income countries compared to less than 20 per cent in low-income countries; the median in this group of countries is just over 7 per cent (ILO 2010d). Although population covered tends to increase with per capita income, there is significant variation around any given value of GDP/capita indicating that other, country specific factors play an important role.

30. To summarize, it appears that the following facts about the coverage of social protection hold:

- a. *almost all countries* have some level of protection, although the *nature and quantum of benefits* and *population covered* vary considerably;
- b. different countries *prioritize different elements* of social protection, as seen by differences in the instruments as well as extent of coverage;
- c. even within chosen instruments, *financial and capacity constraints* may limit them from reaching all those who are eligible, with an appropriate level of benefits, and;
- d. while coverage tends to become *more comprehensive with economic growth*, the rate at which this happens varies considerably from country to country.

4. The experience with social protection: emerging good practices and guidance

31. The spread of social protection programmes in developing countries has generated fresh evidence that can be drawn upon for guidance. Some key considerations in this regard follow.

a. Linking social protection to other policies and programmes for development

32. Some of the links between social protection and other government policies can be self-evident: for example, conditional cash transfers directed at health or education presuppose the existence of quality facilities/providers within easy reach of the target populations and therefore require complementary government actions to ensure their availability.

33. A closer connection to policies for fostering employment and livelihoods may also be relevant. For example, the South African *Child Support Grant* appears to have a more favourable impact on the labour market outcomes of very poor beneficiaries than on less poor ones, presumably because cash transfers allow them to engage in a more effective job search (OECD 2011). Similarly, it has been suggested that a greater degree of adoption of high yielding varieties by farmers in the Indian state of Maharashtra, compared to similar farmers in neighboring states, was due at least partly to the protection afforded to their livelihoods from an employment guarantee programme in that state. Such a guarantee allowed farmers to make a more rewarding – but also potentially riskier– investment (DFID 2011 p. 35) . It is possible to design transfer programs targeted to the extremely poor so as to facilitate this kind of outcome – examples being seen in the BRAC/TUP scheme in Bangladesh¹⁸ as well as in Chile’s *Solidario* programme (Box 2).

Box 2

Chile (Solidario)- caring for the excluded

This programme, in existence since 2002, seeks to eradicate extreme poverty in Chile. It is designed as a ‘bridge’ to connect the extremely poor and vulnerable to a variety of social initiatives and services, while also strengthening their capacity to take advantage of them. When first introduced, the programme covered approximately 165,000 households, and now covers 225,000 (Veras Soares and Zepeda, 2007), representing the estimated number of indigent households in the country, at a total cost of approximately 0.02 per cent of GDP (Barrientos et al., 2008a). It provides an integrated programme of support to the households in extreme poverty, through a combination of conditional (school attendance) and unconditional cash transfers, delivered over a fixed period of five years.

The programme also provides “psychosocial support” through a local social worker. Participating households work with a social worker to identify and address deficits along several dimensions that include health, employment and income by connecting to existing public structures and services. Households are expected to attain uniform, pre-set minimum levels along each such dimension, thus providing the additional support needed to escape extreme poverty.

34. Careful design of this sort can therefore form an important part of the ‘exit strategy’ from the program, enabling beneficiaries to graduate out of poverty. On the other hand, a more negative interaction with the labour market may be observed if social protection benefits become a disincentive to looking for work. This could arise, for example, where the size of the benefit is large relative to the labor market wage and is conditional on

¹⁸ The BRAC/TUP programme offered skills training in combination with access to productive assets and by the end of the programme ninety percent of households were generating increased income from productive sources (DFID 2011)

the recipient remaining unemployed. However, in many social assistance programs in developing countries, benefits are conditional on economic, rather than employment, status; and may also be relatively small compared to the returns from participating in the labour market. This is discussed in greater detail in Box 6 below (OECD 2011).

35. Public employment programmes are another way in which social protection programmes link to the broader economy. Apart from providing incomes at times when the market demand for labour is low, these jobs can also result in the creation or improvement of assets that benefit the local economy. For example, Lieuw-Kie-Song (2009) reports that South Africa's *Working for Water* initiative cleared large areas of land from alien invasive species of plants over the period 1995-2009, leading to increased stream-flows, improved water availability and land productivity, greater resilience to wild fires and the maintenance of biodiversity in areas central to a growing tourism industry¹⁹. Roads, where properly built and maintained, can improve the connectivity of remote areas to markets, thus facilitating trade. An example of social protection in the context of broader rural development plans is seen in Box 3 regarding Indonesia's Community National Empowerment Programme (PNPM)²⁰.

Box 3

Indonesia's Community National Empowerment Programme (PNPM) – social protection within rural development

In 2007 the Government of Indonesia consolidated and expanded two existing community-driven projects into the National Community Empowerment Program (PNPM). By 2009, PNPM covered all 79,000 villages and urban wards.

PNPM provides community level block grants that villagers use to meet their self-defined development needs and priorities, arrived at through a participatory decision making process. These projects have been successful at generating employment, as well as a local demand for materials used in construction. Both aspects help as shock-absorbers during periods of crisis. The projects have also improved local physical infrastructure, helping in the escape from poverty. Results from an evaluation by the World Bank show that under PNPM Rural, consumption

¹⁹ Earthen structures to improve water availability and conserve its use are also notable features of other employment programmes such as the PSNP (Ethiopia) and NREGS (India).

²⁰ The relationship between social protection and growth is of great interest, particularly in understanding the impact (positive or negative) that investments in social protection can have on economic growth. There is some evidence that social protection interventions such as cash transfers have an impact on growth at the micro and local level (DFID 2011, OECD 2009, Save the Children 2007). However, there is as yet not enough empirical evidence to make the link – in either direction – at the macro level; although Barrientos and Scott (2008) concluded that there was no evidence pointing towards social protection investments having a negative effect on growth.

increased by 5 percent, villagers were 5 percent more likely to access outpatient health care and in the poorest 20 percent of the country's villages, the increase in consumption was 19 percent.

Part of the Indonesian Government's response to the economic crisis came through an increase in the PNPM budget of 75% over 2009. Through stimulating local demand, generating employment and meeting community needs, PNPM was able to help deal with the crisis.

The PNPM also includes major operational pilots or subprograms that build upon the main PNPM platform and principles of community participation. Among these is a community-based CCT pilot called Generasi to address variations in the quality and availability of services, particularly in rural areas. PNPM Generasi's community investments support activities that address demand- and supply-side constraints communities face in accessing health and education services. An impact evaluation found substantial impact on target health and education indicators, including a 10 percent reduction in child malnutrition²¹. PNPM Generasi communities have also been observed to manage risks by setting aside resources at the village level to help households cope with idiosyncratic shocks.

36. Yet another illustration of the importance of linking to other policies and programmes for development comes from considering the role of gender in social protection. The relationship between gender and social protection can be complex, but is key to enhancing the effectiveness of social protection interventions (Box 4). Given differentiated social roles between men and women, vulnerability to risks can vary significantly across the genders, reflecting differences in opportunities, responsibilities, options and incentives. For example, it is often the case that women have poorer access than men to assets and formal mechanisms to cope with risks and vulnerabilities. Similarly, social security policies and programmes that cover those engaged in the formal sector can exclude important groups of the population who are concentrated in the informal sector - where women and girls tend to be over-represented. Understanding the differences in risks, vulnerabilities and coping mechanisms across genders helps to also make the appropriate links to complementary efforts and programmes.

Box 4

Gender in Social Protection

Social protection interventions can have both positive and negative impacts on girls and women. On the one hand, gender-sensitive elements in programmes may directly target women and girls; or may include special design features that reduce barriers to their participation. For example, cash transfer programmes are often targeted towards mothers as recipients, and contain provisions to promote girls' school attendance as well as the health of women –

²¹ Government of Indonesia, personal communication, June 2011

especially those who are pregnant. These programmes often also promote women's leadership at community levels through their training as community facilitators, and are linked to complementary services such as those raising awareness of gender based violence. In public works programmes, women's participation is promoted through quotas and the provision of childcare arrangements, alternative transfer modalities, or flexible hours, as in the Productive Safety Net Programme in Ethiopia (DFID 2011). In addition, the provision for equal pay among women and men, and the creation of community assets that reduce women's time poverty (e. g. fuelwood plantations or new drinking water sources close to the village) may lead to additional benefits that help empower women (Holmes and Jones 2010).

On the other hand, programs could end up reinforcing the traditional roles of each gender, and thus not directly address the social dimensions of vulnerability. For example, sometimes they rest largely on the unpaid work of women in their traditional role as care-givers, as in being responsible for child school attendance and health check-ups. This might exacerbate their time poverty and lead to a deterioration in intra-household relationships.

Social protection can be a key element in the empowerment of women when it is able to provide 'transformative' services which enable women to pursue education, employment or income-generating activities. Evidence from a cross section of countries, shows that social protection efforts that are strongly linked to complementary programs and services²² are more likely to help transform gender relations among men, women, boys and girls, through facilitating their economic and social empowerment. The possibility of reaching such outcomes is strengthened by developing the capacity of implementers to be able to recognize and address gender related risks, vulnerabilities and options.

37. Connecting, coordinating and integrating policies across sectors, ministries and development partners is therefore essential for making the most of social protection interventions. Programmes that promote access to services need to be matched with the provision of high quality services as well. Policies to promote employment and livelihoods can work in tandem with social protection programmes to take people out of chronic poverty (ILO 2011c). And it is important to adopt an integrated approach when assessing how best social protection programmes can work to empower women. As many different partners can be involved in the effective design, implementation and monitoring of social protection programmes, broad national social dialogue can help deliver results, while ensuring legitimacy and stability.

38. Due to these manifold links, a national, comprehensive system of social protection policies and programmes can be conceptualized within the country's national

²² For example to health and reproductive health services, access to credit and employment training, childcare, elder care and general support for households care responsibilities and social development and rights awareness.

development strategy. This allows it to connect effectively to sectors such as health, education and rural development; while also helping situate the discussion on affordability within the context of national priorities and constraints.

Guidance:

- 1. An integrated, coordinated, and comprehensive approach across sectors is essential to fully realize the gains from social protection, placing social protection itself as part of a country's national development strategy.**
- 2. An inclusive social dialogue process that brings together social partners and other stakeholders can support effective policy design, implementation and monitoring.**

b. Affordability

39. The issue of affordability and trade-offs is at the heart of much of the debate around social protection. When public revenues are scarce – as they are in most developing countries – decisions about where to allocate them have to inevitably take into account costs and benefits, within the context of the available fiscal space, development priorities and the political dynamics within the country. Implementation capacity, especially as it relates to programme design is also important in this context, and this is discussed in the next sub-section. Finally, as pointed out earlier, social protection expenditure by its very nature is counter-cyclical, and the imperative to increase expenditure while public revenues are falling is also an important concern for assessing affordability and sustainability.
40. Whether a particular social protection intervention should be financed at all requires an assessment of its benefits and costs, relative to other options of arriving at similar objectives. Here, both direct and indirect benefits should be considered, especially in the context of the intervention. Table 2 has demonstrated some of the direct benefits of social protection programmes in terms of reduced poverty and vulnerability; better nutrition, health and education outcomes²³ and the creation of physical and social capital. Not all of these – for example, the empowerment and greater participation of women – can be easily quantified. Moreover, some of these gains – for example better nutrition - are realized in the short term while others – for example reduced vulnerability - may only become evident in the longer term. It is also important to

²³ For example, the impact evaluation of Ecuador's Bono de Desarrollo Humano (Human Development Bond) program shows that it increased school enrollment by 10 percent and reduced child labor by 17 percent, with the effects concentrated among older children (Schady and Araujo 2006).

appreciate that benefits, even for similar interventions can vary significantly across countries.

41. Additional gains may also accrue to those who do not directly receive transfers, for example to children living in a household receiving an old age pension; through the firming up of labor wages as a result of an employment guarantee scheme; through enabling poor households to take full advantage of other, 'supply side' interventions in the fields of education and health; or the maintenance of aggregate demand during an economic downturn. While some of these positive spill-overs may be inadvertent, programmes can also be designed so as to maximize these effects (Box 5).

Box 5

School feeding programmes

School feeding programs act as safety nets that alleviate hunger and malnutrition; and also promote the education, and long term productivity of children. School feeding programs exist in some 70 of 108 low and middle income countries, often with the support of external partners. Among these, Home Grown School Feeding (HGSF) is an example of a program that has positive externalities for local small scale agricultural producers through providing an assured source of demand and, with the right efforts, leading to increased local agricultural productivity.

HGSF usually evolves from traditional school feeding programs, as part of a transition to government ownership, by linking existing school feeding program demand with local agricultural production. Such linkages were created between existing programs in the Kenya HGSF. On the agricultural development side, the HGSF in Kenya provides small grants and training to targeted community-driven food security projects to improve their capacity to produce and market food. On the school feeding side, the government provides grants to schools to purchase the food produced by the small-scale farmers in the community-driven food security projects.

A related programme is the World Food Programme's (WFP) Purchase for Progress (P4P) which harnesses their purchasing power to benefit poor farmers. Like the HGSF programmes, its purpose is to offer smallholder farmers more assured access to a market and opportunities for becoming competitive players in the marketplace. For a large organization with multi-country operations such as WFP, programmes such as P4P (and more generally, their local and regional procurement initiatives) can also result in cost savings and faster delivery to operations, freeing up resources for use in other areas²⁴.

The spillovers from these programs in promoting agricultural productivity are not assured but conditional on making the right set of complementary interventions towards better access to markets, inputs, credit, and storage facilities. Also, on a cautionary note, HGSF and similar

²⁴ For example, WFP estimates that local procurement of maize in Kenya, Uganda and Zambia resulted in savings to the organization of US\$67.7 million over 2001 to 2005.

programs must avoid causing an unintended rise in food prices, which could negatively affect smallholders who are net buyers. In addition, local procurement may fail when there is a weak harvest – which may coincide with a greater demand for the safety net - so it is important to retain other procurement sources that will not be susceptible to correlated shocks, in order to maintain a sufficient level of diversification.

42. As far as costs are concerned, real life experience can help identify direct costs to the exchequer: for example, the (targeted) Bolsa Familia Programme in Brazil reaches 25 per cent the population at a cost of about 0.5 per cent of GDP. Universal pension schemes like the ones in Namibia, Nepal and Mauritius typically can be financed by about 1 per cent to 1.5 per cent of GDP depending on the retirement age and the underlying demographic structure. In 2010, the number of households receiving the child benefit in South Africa reached 10 million poor households at a cost of 3.4 per cent of GDP. In India, the 100-day National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme has been rolled out nationwide at a cost of below 1 per cent of GDP (ILO 2010c). Rwanda reported that over 2003-2005, 7 per cent to 10 per cent of the national budget was spent on social protection (Rwanda PRSP 2006). While these figures are helpful as indicators of what mature programmes might require by way of financing, they do not include the costs of setting the programmes up in the first place, as well as those associated with learning and correction in the initial years, or with increases that may be necessitated by crises.
43. At the same time, there may be concerns about negative side effects or indirect costs. Given the range of prevalent instruments, costing of social protection as a whole can be very complicated. More specific guidelines are available for certain specific components than others. Grosh et al (2008) discuss the costs associated with safety nets: the cost of the transfers, administrative costs and efficiency costs. Efficiency costs include the tax avoidance behavior by corporations designing remuneration and benefit packages to minimize tax liabilities and, reduced work effort (Okun 1975), although the emerging evidence indicates that these concerns may be less critical for developing countries and can be considerably mitigated through suitable design (see Box 6). A balanced appraisal over both the short and long term that takes country and design specificities into account is needed in order to inform a cost-benefit analysis of social protection initiatives.

Box 6**Trade-offs between employment and social policy objectives**

A significant challenge in developing adequate social-protection systems is to ensure that they do not weaken work incentives and create obstacles to formal-sector development, thus giving rise to potentially difficult trade-offs between social and employment policy. While such trade-

offs also exist in more advanced economies, a recent report (OECD, 2011) suggests that they tend to take a somewhat different form in emerging economies: they tend to be less pronounced in the context of social assistance (e.g. cash transfers that do not require social security contributions for eligibility), but can be more pronounced in the context of social insurance (e.g. unemployment benefits). While the report focuses on emerging economies, there are a number of potential lessons for both middle and low income countries.

Evidence shows that the trade-offs between employment and social-policy objectives in the case of social assistance benefits are relatively weak. There are number of reasons for this. Unlike in many advanced economies, cash transfers in many developing countries are not conditional on labour force status, an arrangement that is justified by the high poverty rates even within the employed. In some cases, grants are to the elderly, who are likely to be out of the labour market²⁵. In most cases the level of transfers is low relative to average household income, and while they play a very important role in providing security, they do not lessen the incentive to work.

Other trade-offs – such as those for contributory social insurance schemes, where poor administrative capacity coupled with perceived low levels of benefits in the future may lead to workers ‘opting out’ and therefore remaining in the informal sector – have also been considered in the literature but there is little evidence to indicate that they are currently important concerns for LICs.

44. Estimating both benefits and costs in the context of a given country depends crucially on the availability of good quality data on costs, population and benefits – the latter informed by accurate monitoring and evaluation systems. As in the case of other investments in social sectors, sound assumptions for estimating the flow of benefits into the future need to be made, as the returns from social protection investments may be expected to be less immediate than those in, for example, infrastructure (DFID 2011). However, some programmes have managed to make this assessment accurately. The Colombian programme *Familias en Acción* underwent a cost benefit analysis focusing on the known impacts (through evaluation results) of the programme on nutrition and birth weight and projected the estimated additional earnings these individuals could expect (for a fuller discussion see DFID 2011, Fiszbein and Schady 2009)²⁶.

²⁵ In the case of children, the trade-off may actually be considered beneficial if a grant keeps them out of the labour force until they complete adequate levels of schooling.

²⁶ Unrealistic assumptions with regard to delivery and impact that might lead to too rosy an appraisal can turn out to be self-defeating when a programme that is instituted on that basis is unable to deliver as expected. Models, wherever used, need to be based on realistic and relevant information – drawn from demographic censuses; household and market surveys; and sound impact assessment of initial, smaller-scale interventions. It is good practice to design initial interventions so as to be able to infer the data on impact and delivery as accurately as possible, as that would help inform the programme as it goes forward. With increasing experience, design enhancements and improving enabling conditions (for example through enforceable legal frameworks), costs could fall and impacts improve – but it is important to not take these as given during initial assessments of affordability. G20 developing country members’ experiences can also be important sources of policy practice and evidence on delivery and impact which can be used for affordability assessments.

45. While country-specific evidence of impacts and realistic cost-benefit analyses are critical, deciding on whether to introduce or scale-up a particular social protection programme will eventually depend on fiscal space and political priorities. Fiscal space for social protection programmes needs to be created in ways that are sustainable. In practice this would mean a combination of mobilizing additional resources (through taxes, grant financing or borrowing), reallocating expenditures across sectors and building up reserves in good times for social protection in bad times²⁷. In some cases, discontinuing across-the-board subsidies freed up the resources needed to finance targeted social protection: for example in Jamaica in 1984 when general food subsidies were eliminated and the savings used to finance a Food Stamp programme (Grosh 2008); in Brazil in 2001 when a subsidy on cooking gas was reduced, and a targeted cooking gas cash transfer programme introduced (Lindert, Skoufias and Shapiro 2006) and in Indonesia in 2005 when savings from a reduction in petroleum subsidies was used to fund (among others) a cash transfer programme (Indrawati 2005).
46. However, the potential for reaching satisfactory levels of expenditure on social protection within the Government's budget may inherently be limited. Hagen-Zancker and McCord (2011) examine the issue of affordability by comparing the *totality* of five African countries' recommended expenditure levels as per internationally agreed targets in six key sectors – social protection, health, education, agriculture, infrastructure and water and sanitation²⁸ – to actual government expenditures. They find that the current size of the budget does not allow all of these targeted expenditure levels to be met at the same time – even if individual sector targets remain affordable - indicating the need for considering trade-offs and political compromises²⁹.
47. Political priorities, including those that express the country's social contract, are important in guiding social protection choices as well as the fiscal envelope within which they are made. Being able to convincingly demonstrate the evidence of impacts at the country level can help to maintain or even accelerate the political momentum in favour of social protection.
48. Yet another way of increasing the fiscal space for social protection can be through the involvement of external partners, who could have important roles to play as sources of transitional financing, including in helping with the fixed costs associated with set up, building capacity and for being able to respond to sudden increases in demand during periods of crisis. Such assistance could be met through a global social protection fund, an example of which is to be found in the recently constituted Rapid Social Response fund at the World Bank, presented earlier in Paragraphs 2 and 18.

²⁷ In the short term, deficit financing or drawing upon contingency reserves could also be used.

²⁸ On the basis of internationally agreed targets for each sector expressed as a percent of GDP/total government expenditure as stated in the Social Policy Framework for Africa (2008); Abuja declaration (2001); the Education for All Initiative (2000); the Maputo Agreement (2003); the African Union declaration (2009), the Sharm El-Sheik Commitment (2008) and the eThekweni Declaration (2008).

²⁹ Such a conclusion also flows rather naturally from considering social protection to be an innate part of the country's national development strategy, undertaken in the context of limited resources.

Guidance:

1. **Balanced assessments of costs versus benefits can be made to guide judgments about affordability. Such assessments will vary from country to country, and depend crucially on the continuing collection of the evidence relating to impacts from the ground.**
2. **Periods of transitional donor support may be needed, especially with start-up and learning costs, and during periods of aggregate shocks when demand for services may suddenly escalate.**

c. Programme design and administrative capacity

49. Affordability is intimately linked to issues of programme design and administrative/implementation capacity – as is seen in the context of debates around targeting and conditionality. Targeting attempts to direct benefits to particular households and individuals, based on certain observable characteristics – those not meeting the targeting criteria are excluded. Conditionalities, too, work to direct benefits at certain members of the population, but beneficiaries are typically expected to perform some action (e.g. immunise children) in order to receive the benefit.
50. Some common approaches to targeting are presented in Box 7. Arguments for targeting are based on considerations of efficiency, effectiveness, and sustainability. Directing resources towards the most vulnerable while excluding others is expected to be more cost effective (Hoddinott 2007). On the other hand, effective targeting measures also presuppose - to varying degrees - the availability of reliable data at the household level, ease and objectivity in assessments, adequate levels of administrative capacity, and reasonable costs of implementing the targeting mechanism.

Box 7**Different Approaches to Targeting**

Several different kinds of targeting are in vogue:

- **Means-testing**,³⁰ *identifies those eligible to receive benefits as possessing income or wealth below a pre-defined threshold. In many countries, the data required to perform a true means-test may not be available, and may instead be approximated through a*

³⁰ Proxy means testing provides an alternative form of individual assessment; employing more easily observed indicators of well-being that serve as proxies for income, or wealth indicators associated with poverty.

proxy-means test. A proxy-means test uses a score based on a weighted average of household characteristics such as location, kind of dwelling, ownership of durable goods etc. that has been empirically observed to be strongly correlated with poverty.

- **Geographic targeting** identifies eligibility based on residence in areas with high levels of poverty.
 - **Community-based targeting** uses an assessment by the local community or its leaders to identify the poorest or most vulnerable.
 - **Category-based targeting** directs benefits towards those recognized as belonging to a specific vulnerable group such as the elderly, orphans, those with HIV/AIDS, the severely disabled, pregnant women.
 - **Self-targeting** programmes are, in principle, open to all but are designed so that individuals identifying themselves as eligible for the programme are primarily from the poor.
-

51. Overall, whether targeting is to be used or not must balance these concerns. In some cases, self-targeting (e.g. through providing employment at below-market wages) or category based targeting (e.g. to orphans) may be relatively easy to implement with regard to certain kinds of benefits. On the other hand, widely pervasive levels of deprivation or relatively high costs of administration may argue against targeting. In practice domestic political considerations and the nature of the social contract are also important in determining whether benefits are targeted or universal³¹.

52. If targeting is being used, the criteria and methods need to be transparent, reasonable, objective, open to scrutiny and assessed regularly (Sepulveda (2008)). It should also be done carefully to avoid stigma. A further point, especially in the context of rapid responses to crises, is that the criteria and methods must be assessed for how easily that may accommodate new households that may find themselves in need of assistance during a crisis. Although targeted programmes can modify the benefits available to their beneficiaries to better weather the crisis, they might not be flexible enough to accommodate new households, and so complementary interventions might be needed in order to be fully responsive. For quicker response during crises, self-targeting

³¹ For example the Child Support Grant in South Africa, which provides cash support to poor households, was initially introduced in 1998 as a means-tested programme. However, uptake was low with estimates indicating that as many as 90 per cent of the potentially eligible were excluded, partly due to onerous requirements for registration and proving eligibility (Samson et al., 2006). It was estimated that on average, each applicant spent \$3.80 and required six hours to prepare the application, while the administrative costs per application was \$2.85. These inefficiencies led to the scheme being converted to a universal programme leading to (as of 2010) an estimated 90 per cent of the eligible receiving the benefit.

interventions can be an option where available, as well as some forms of community or geographical targeting.

53. Of all recent innovations in the social protection world, the most prominent have been the CCTs. Conditional programmes aim to break the inter-generational transmission of poverty by directing benefits to poor households with children, while requiring them to undertake certain activities ('the conditions'), e.g. immunizing children, sending them to school. Box 8 provides an example.

Box 8

Progresa/Oportunidades: a conditional cash transfer programme

Progresa (Programa de Educación, Salud y Alimentación), was first launched in 1997 as a conditional cash transfer programme for poor rural households in Mexico, aimed at poverty reduction and prevention. In 2002 the programme was renamed Oportunidades and extended to urban areas with some additional components of training and micro-enterprise support.

Oportunidades has now become the principal anti-poverty programme of the Mexican government. The programme has an authorized budget of US\$3.6 billion that represents approximately 0.32 per cent of GDP. The delivery costs of the programme amount to less than 5 cents out of every peso (SEDESOL, 2010a). Its primary objective is to support families living in extreme poverty to help them reach better levels of wellbeing through the improvement of education, health and nutrition options, and the coordination with new options and development programs that can improve their socioeconomic conditions and quality of life (Oportunidades website).

The programme covers 5.8 million households (SEDESOL, 2010a, p. 19). Continued payment of benefits is conditional on parents (usually the mother) ensuring that their children make regular clinic visits and receive key vaccinations; and that they maintain a specified minimum level of school attendance. Benefit levels increase as children grow older and enter higher grades in school, the intention being to keep older children in school and out of work, and therefore preserve the goal of human development. Transfers are also slightly higher for older girls to encourage them to stay in school (SEDESOL 2010b). The programme is targeted towards the poorest communities, with eligibility determined through proxy means testing and community reviews.

While the share of total income represented by Oportunidades has been very small, at about 0.5 per cent, analysis indicates that the programme has been responsible for about 21 per cent of the inequality reduction, as measured by the Gini coefficient, which fell by approximately 2.7 points during the period in which the study was conducted (Soares et al., 2007). As shown in Table 2, positive impacts are seen in the health, educational attainment and nutrition of children as well.

54. The debate around conditional versus unconditional transfers mirrors to some extent that between targeted and universal benefits. One key argument for conditional cash

- transfer schemes is that conditions have been shown to encourage families to invest, through health and education, in the human capital of their children (See for example Fiszbein and Schady 2009).
55. However, administrative structures need to be set up in order to monitor compliance, and capacity, costs and the quality of governance become important in this regard. At the same time, the quality health and education services that are required for compliance must be conveniently available to the beneficiaries. In fact, any costs associated with compliance – such as due to time spent by mothers at clinics - that are not fully covered by the transfer could worsen the economic condition of the family³².
56. It is also plausible that for many families, an unconditional transfer of an equivalent amount could lead to the same behaviour that the conditionality seeks to promote. For example, in Malawi an experimental study revealed that while the cash transfers do have a positive impact on school enrolment there is no irrefutable evidence that attaching conditions to the transfer of cash has any significantly higher impact on school enrolment or attendance (Baird *et al* 2010)³³. However, this is less likely where social norms (e.g. keeping girls at home instead of sending them to school) may be keeping households from the desired behaviour (Calde and Ahmed 2004)³⁴; or households may be poorly informed about the benefits of a particular course of action (e.g. immunisation) (de Brauw and Hoddinott 2008). A context-specific analysis of each case and an understanding of the nature of the constraints keeping households from adopting an apparently desirable set of behaviours help choose the most appropriate type of transfer.
57. As in the case of targeting, domestic political concerns may also be important. On the one hand, conditionalities may be seen as promoting buy-in from a greater proportion of society as they do not promise “something for nothing.” At the same time, they may also be viewed as encouraging co-responsibility between the state and its citizens for attaining certain social policy outcomes by requiring the state to fulfil its part through providing quality services while citizens do their bit in availing of them. On the other

³² In low income countries, many regions may face serious supply-side constraints such as a lack of well-functioning schools and clinics, as well as limited budgetary resources.

³³ Enrolment is slightly higher in when transfer was unconditional, while attendance was slightly higher in the conditional model, but neither was statistically significant.

³⁴ Caldes and Ahmed (2004) found an asymmetrical effect across genders in *Oportunidades*. Two years after the start of the programme, enrolment rates for boys in primary school increased by 1 percentage point (from a base of 90-94 percent), while that for girls in secondary schools increased by 9.3 percentage points (from a base of 67 percent)

hand, they may be viewed as unacceptable in terms of implicitly ‘denying’ individuals a fundamental human right such as health or education³⁵.

58. Choices between targeted versus universal, or conditional versus unconditional can only be made at the national level through a process that pragmatically analyses behavioural patterns, societal values and infrastructural, administrative and budgetary constraints; and balances benefits against costs. Being able to relax the administrative constraints through developing the necessary capacity within national systems is a critical part of ensuring that the full range of effective options is available for consideration by the country³⁶.
59. Good administration requires a wide arrange of skills and capacities, including human resources and infrastructure - ranging from beneficiary enrolment and monitoring, public information and awareness raising; financial management and lack of corruption; strong benefit delivery capacities, especially to remote areas and outreach to excluded groups; monitoring and evaluation systems that can analyse shortcomings and unintended consequences leading to design improvements; and the creation of a country-specific, legal framework as part of the enabling conditions.

Guidance:

- 1. Develop and strengthen the administrative and implementation capacity of countries, so as to be able to choose between alternative approaches.**
- 2. Develop criteria for targeting and conditionalities that are transparent, objective, easily measured and open to scrutiny; review periodically.**
- 3. Minimize exclusion and inclusion errors and assess for flexibility in terms of being able to respond to a crisis.**
- 4. Decide pragmatically between alternative targeting approaches through weighing considerations such as effectiveness, the quality and availability of data, administrative capacity and costs, and the pervasiveness of deprivation.**
- 5. Assess the suitability of conditionalities by determining the reasons for underinvestment by households in the desired outcome (e.g. income levels; poor availability of services; gender bias and others). Ensure conditionalities are not unduly onerous to comply with, and use considerations as in previous point to**

³⁵ How public authorities enforce conditionalities can be critical in this regard. Depending on the approach taken, a lack of compliance could either trigger a response leading to the exclusion of the beneficiary; or alternatively lead to the identification of vulnerabilities and remedial measures, leading to progressively improved solutions. This is the case, for example of Brazil’s Bolsa Familia where non-compliance is initially addressed by a social worker to determine the cause for non-compliance and only if the non-compliance continues for 3 months, the cash transfer is blocked temporarily (Fiszbein and Schady 2009).

³⁶ One indication of under-investment in these areas is the very high administrative cost ratios that ILO actuarial valuations of national social security schemes detect in many countries.

balance costs versus benefits.
d. Technology innovations

60. Administrative improvements can also be facilitated by smart technology, with several recent examples from developing countries³⁷. For example, biometric smartcards have been used to deliver pension and earning from employment guarantee labour in Namibia and India respectively³⁸. In Kenya, transfers through mobile phones are common. Both of these methods have significantly improved on existing systems, by eliminating corruption and leakages due to the physical handling of cash, and reducing the costs of maintaining physical distribution systems. The actual costs of implementing such solutions decline as the relevant technologies improve and become more widely available.
61. Comprehensive integrated information management systems greatly reduce the administrative costs associated with integrated social protection programmes, but can be challenging to develop. Chile's *Solidario* (Box 2) programme has developed a *Social Integrated Information System* that brings together the datasets of various departments at the levels of municipalities, provinces and regions through a modular infrastructure. It incorporates individual national identity numbers that allows it to track beneficiaries, and is built using open-source software that limits overall development and licensing costs (Vincent 2010). A *single registry system* that uses a unique identification number (or biometric marker) to link individuals to various departmental programmes is an increasingly common requirement in the efficient management of integrated programmes. While technically complex and expensive to set up, longer term advantages in terms of improved management are significant, and have led several countries such as Brazil, India, Mauritius and Timor-Leste to make the required investments.
62. Another endeavour that makes innovative use of new technologies is *Global Pulse*, which is aimed at reducing information gaps. This initiative works across the UN system and, in close collaboration with national governments, seeks to improve the timeliness and detail of data on the impacts of crises on households and individuals. Although such impacts can be captured in close to *real-time* at the macro level, similar information at the level of households and individuals is virtually unavailable. Moreover, traditional methods of collecting them, for example through paper-based surveys, are also not always a good choice if rapid and frequent appraisals are needed. Such information gaps become even more important in the context of the changing pattern, and varying origins of shocks in recent times, which indicates that vulnerabilities could arise among populations not traditionally considered at risk. On the other hand, if one were to have

³⁷ Of forty programmes launched in the last decade, 45 percent of them deliver payments electronically (DFID 2011)

³⁸ A side-benefit of such arrangements is the inclusion of previously excluded individuals into banking system through the setting up of an associated bank account.

knowledge about *who* is being affected, *where* and *how*, it would help improve the targeting, responsiveness and completeness of social protection responses.

63. *Global Pulse* seeks to exploit the new profusion of data that has become available as a result of the accelerating use of new technologies and tools – of which a significant proportion arises from the activities of the poor across the world³⁹. Such data is generated, for example, as people use mobile phones to transfer remittances and conduct other business transactions; market information systems collect and disseminate information on prices for a range of commodities in decentralized rural markets; agencies and Governments improve the quality of administrative data to monitor how services are being accessed and delivered; and individuals' information-seeking behaviour through information 'kiosks' or phone hotlines can be used to gain an understanding of their immediate needs and concerns. Some tools now exist – and others are being developed – to draw inferences from aggregating such data; and efforts are underway to gain a better understanding of how these interface with information arising from more traditional sources such as household surveys or government administrative records; as well as how they may be best put to use.
64. *Pulse labs* are planned for ten countries as innovation centres that will advance this understanding in a multi-disciplinary, collaborative way. These labs will test new technologies and analytic approaches to better understand the contribution that data from new sources can make towards understanding well-being in as close to real time as possible. They will seek to learn what works and what doesn't work, and build the capacity within government and other partners to scale-up the most effective, proven solutions. The first Pulse Lab is currently being established in Kampala, Uganda.

Guidance:

- 1. Promote the development, and sharing of technology solutions that reduce costs and improve delivery**
- 2. Encourage innovative experiments such as Global Pulse that seek to address information gaps and improve understanding of the impacts of shocks.**

e. Knowledge sharing

65. The knowledge, expertise and experience of countries that have already worked to establish their social protection systems represent a valuable source for other countries interested in strengthening their social security systems or designing and implementing social protection policies. Intelligently designed North-South, South-South or triangular knowledge transfers can be a very efficient way to reduce costly trial and error

³⁹ For example, more than 80 per cent of the global population today lives in areas with at least one bar of mobile phone signal (ITU 2010).

processes when building national institutions, as the example of Timor-Leste shows (Box 9).

Box 9 Designing Timor-Leste's conditional cash transfer programme

In 2007, Timor-Leste decided to implement conditional cash transfer programmes for improving health and education outcomes. Bolsa da Mae was accordingly designed and implemented through an equal, and fixed number of beneficiaries in sub-districts. Local authorities, in partnership with technical staff, identified potential beneficiaries and followed through with monitoring compliance. During subsequent assessments, it was found that leakage and poor targeting were common, arising from a poor mechanism for beneficiary selection, inadequate criteria for establishing regional beneficiary numbers, lack of capacity and poor conceptual framework.

The programme is now being revised through bringing the lessons learned from the South (primarily Brazil) to bear. Key proposed modifications include a re-definition of the objectives – food and nutritional security in the short term, and ensuring access to healthcare and education for children from vulnerable families in the long term. Beneficiaries are now proposed to be identified through a vulnerability scale with objective indicators; and a geographical targeting proposed to be followed for setting sub-national quotas. Unlike the previous programme, all children between 0-14 from eligible families are to be covered for the full twelve months: earlier, coverage was limited to one to two children per family, over a period of eight months. Responsibility of the families to adhere to conditions is matched by that of the state to provide education and health services in all areas. The revised programme is expected to lead to significantly better targeted, and more sizable, impacts.

Source: Dutra 2010

66. While the potential for South-South knowledge sharing to add substantial value is unmistakable, several obstacles must be surmounted in order for it to be realized (Andrade 2009, Hailu and Veras Soares 2008). Adapting policies from one country to another requires broad experience in policy formulation; a good understanding of varying political, legislative and cultural contexts; frank, continuous dialogue to elicit, understand and respect differences. Being able to respond to demand is also critical – often, knowledge sharing between countries is seen to follow historical, pre-existing ties.
67. Although foreign ministries in developing countries generally have the experience and the expertise to engage in conversations of this kind, they will not have the technical knowledge to be effective; at the same time, line ministries may not have the specific capacities – or the time - necessary in order to transfer knowledge effectively. Andrade (2009) notes that ‘staff shortages are common, and international cooperation is subordinated in the face of so many domestic demands. Institutional arrangements are inadequate to sustain effective and timely cooperation with new partners.’

68. When these obstacles are overcome, South-South learning can become a two-way process, with the experience of low-income countries helping inform ideas for program design in middle income countries. A common, multipolar information sharing and adopting network may achieve economies of scale in knowledge sharing and meet demand efficiently, while overcoming the obstacles above.

Guidance:

- 1. Establish a multipolar knowledge sharing network for transfer, adaptation and adoption of social protection good practices across countries.**

f. Progressive realization of longer term objectives for comprehensive social protection

69. The preceding sections have presented evidence to show that full-blown social protection systems do not emerge suddenly, but are the result of country specific processes that often begin with a small number of initiatives that gradually develop to encompass increasing numbers of the vulnerable, over each part of the life-cycle. This development is guided by both political and economic factors, being responsive to awareness, voice and political influence of different population groups, while also being influenced by economic considerations such as fiscal space. National social dialogue processes, encompassing social partners and other stakeholders, can be very influential in establishing comprehensive and coordinated social protection systems. The key to overall successful development appears to be to build on existing structures, avoid fragmentation and ensure overall coherence and complementarity, while balancing the interests of different population groups and maintain fiscal sustainability. In Chile, for example, the progression has been from emergency policies targeting the most vulnerable towards an approach built around guaranteeing and extending rights-based entitlements to the entire population and institutionalizing essential social protection policies.

70. As part of such processes, national actors may establish national *social protection floors*, consisting of a set of measures that would provide a country-specific basic set of cash and in-kind benefits (including services), as the starting point of a comprehensive vision of social protection. Such national social protection floors would be shaped within a framework of country-specific institutional structures, economic constraints and opportunities, political dynamics and social aspirations. Such national social protection floors, once realized, could then be built upon gradually, according to national priorities and capacities, building on existing social protection schemes and based on sustainable funding sources, to progressively move towards more comprehensive coverage.

71. Since 2009, the social protection floor approach has gained increasing recognition at various global and regional fora, including the International Labor Conference in its 98th

session (2009); the High Level Plenary Meeting on the MDGs (2010); the G20 Summits (2009-10); the tripartite delegations from 47 African countries at Yaoundé (2010)⁴⁰; and the OECD Ministerial Meeting on Social Policy (2011)⁴¹. The UN Chief Executives Board (CEB) adopted The Social Protection Floor Initiative as one of the nine UN-wide joint response mechanisms to the crisis in 2009.

72. In June 2011, the 100th Session of the International Labour Conference concluded with a unanimous commitment of tripartite delegations of 160 countries to establishing national social protection floors aiming at extending at least a minimum level of social security to all, as part of comprehensive social security systems. The Conference noted the need for “flexible but meaningful guidance to member States in building Social Protection Floors within comprehensive social security systems tailored to national circumstances and level of development” (ILO 2011b).

Box 10 Social Protection Floor: a visioning and policy coherence approach

The Social Protection Floor (SPF) is a country-led initiative that takes a holistic approach to social protection by working on both supply and demand side measures. Building on the existing elements of the national social protection system in a country, national SPF strategies define a coherent and comprehensive set of essential social transfers and fundamental social services that every person should have access to, paying particular attention to the poor and the vulnerable. A national SPF, with components and modus operandi defined and implemented by each country, aims to guarantee:

- 1. Availability, continuity and access to essential social services, such as education, health, food security, potable water and sanitation, housing and other services as defined by national priorities.*
- 2. A basic set of essential social transfers, in cash or in kind, to ensure minimum income and livelihood security and financial resources to facilitate access to essential services. It includes social transfers in favour of children, the active population with insufficient income as well as elderly and disabled people.*

The term “social protection floor” corresponds to the notion of “core obligations” that are necessary to ensure the realization of the minimum essential levels of social rights embodied in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Covenant.

The Social Protection Floor Initiative⁴² supports countries to plan and implement sustainable social transfer schemes and essential social services. As its objectives transcend the mandate of

⁴⁰ Yaoundé Tripartite Declaration on the implementation of the Social Protection Floor available at <http://www.ilo.org/gimi/gess/RessShowRessource.do?ressourceId=19140>

⁴¹ http://www.oecd.org/document/0,3746,en_21571361_47089446_47746169_1_1_1_1,00.html

⁴² Resources on the SPF Initiative include the UN Social Protection Floor Initiative Website, <http://www.ilo.org/gimi/gess/ShowTheme.do?tid=1321>, the Social Protection Floor Initiative Manual and strategic framework for joint UN country operations, <http://www.ilo.org/gimi/gess/RessFileDownload.do?ressourceId=14484>; The Fact sheet - The UN Social

any single body or agency, the Initiative builds a global coalition of UN agencies (i.e. FAO, OHCHR, UNAIDS, UNDESA, UNDP, UNESCO, UNFPA, UN-HABITAT, UNHCR, UNICEF, UNODC, UN Regional Commissions, UNRWA, WFP, WMO), the IMF and the World Bank as well as development partners and leading NGOs.

So far the Initiative has developed a country implementation manual (UN SPF Initiative 2010), started a number of country activities, raised public awareness in the UN and elsewhere, started a South-South dialogue on best practices, trained a number of national planners, developed tools and methodologies to support the planning and implementation of SPFs at country level, and has constituted a high-level advisory group. The Advisory Group is expected to issue a guiding report to the UN coalition in the second half of 2011. As background information, a joint ILO-UNDP study consolidating 18 successful social protection floor experiences from 15 countries was published in 2011 (ILO-UNDP 2011).

Technical assistance requests can be directed to any of the participating UN agencies. Support is offered for the full range of planning and implementations steps. Concrete interagency activities are under way in Argentina, Benin, Burkina Faso, Cambodia, EL Salvador, Mozambique, Nepal, Thailand, Togo, Vietnam. Interest in the Social Protection Floor initiative has also been expressed by Algeria, Botswana, Ghana, Haiti, Indonesia, Laos, Rwanda, and others.

73. The notion of a social protection floor is very clear: no one should live below a certain income level and everyone should be able to access at least basic health services, primary education, housing, water and sanitation and other essential services. This policy package should be provided in an integrated and coherent way, starting from the basics, in order to protect and empower individuals over the life cycle. It then becomes a framework for coordinated public interventions at the household level, addressing multidimensional causes of poverty and social exclusion and aiming at unlocking productive capacity.
74. In order to realize its full potential, national social protection floors should be linked to employment policies to enable the transition of individuals out of chronic poverty through a decent job, thereby avoiding long term dependency; and to other policies and programmes that may provide complementary benefits, such as those for gender empowerment.
75. Establishing these complementarities over the life-cycle of the individual calls for coordination and coherence across different social and economic policies at the national level; and across different actors at both national and international levels. Each presents its own set of challenges, but can be achieved, as shown by the existence of well-functioning coordination mechanisms, such as the Secretary General's High Level Task Force for food security.

Protection Floor Initiative (available in English, French, Spanish, Portuguese), <http://www.socialsecurityextension.org/gimi/gess/RessShowRessource.do?ressourceId=14603>, Social Protection Floor (SPF) Country Brief: Cap Vert, <http://www.ilo.org/gimi/gess/RessFileDownload.do?ressourceId=16212>, Social Protection Floor (SPF) Country Brief: Mozambique <http://www.ilo.org/gimi/gess/RessFileDownload.do?ressourceId=16014>

76. The floor should be understood as the first step towards higher levels of social protection within comprehensive national systems. As economies grow, fiscal space widens, administrative capacity strengthens and the lessons from the implementation of components of the floor become clear, further increases in protection can be envisaged. In countries with already existing comprehensive, but fragmented social protection systems, the floor should not be seen as a way to weaken levels of protection, but rather as a way to fill coverage gaps and promote policy coherence.

Guidance:

- 1. International organizations should work together in a coherent fashion to support countries in building effective social protection systems**
- 2. At the country level, national social protection floors can be a useful tool for envisioning needs, coverage and the progressive realization of national social protection priorities.**

5. Conclusions and recommendations for the G20

77. The preceding sections have demonstrated the central role of social protection in crisis response and human development, and presented some LIC initiatives and challenges in expanding coverage and benefits. Based on the experience and evidence from these efforts, the following conclusions can be made.

- Existing social protection systems permit a rapid response to crises, differentiated by population needs and vulnerabilities.
- There is no one-size-fits- all to extending social protection coverage. Each country – depending on its stage of economic development, the vulnerability of its population as well as its values, policy priorities and the extent of its fiscal space - has to set its own social protection priorities and decide on the most effective path to their realization in a broad national social dialogue.
- Social protection programmes link to other developmental interventions, and a harmonized approach that places them within national development strategies and national social dialogue helps to realize gains along many dimensions.
- Many countries have already put into place one or more programmes of social protection, albeit with limited coverage or benefits. Most countries begin small and progressively expand the coverage and depth of their social protection systems.
- As they expand, there is a clear need for policy advisory and guidance; and strengthening administrative and implementation capacities.

- Policy coherence and coordination among international organizations is fundamental to enhance effectiveness in supporting low income countries.
- The experience of a large number of developing countries has helped shed new light on the design and impact of programmes, including issues such as affordability, targeting and conditionality. This experience, if shared properly, reduces the need for countries to begin from scratch.
- Social protection programmes need to be well designed and based on a solid financing footing in order to ensure their sustainability in the short and long term. The necessary resource requirements, including the need for possible additional financing, should be carefully assessed and projected.
- Social protection programmes, notably initial systems, can be part of national social protection floors, that express each country's circumstances and vision for social protection. The best way to deal with short term impacts of external shocks on vulnerable communities is by gradually building sustainable comprehensive social protection systems
- Technological innovations are important not only for improving program delivery, but also because they hold the potential for making timely information available that can improve our knowledge of the impacts of crises, thereby improving the accuracy and speed of responses.

78. Based on these lessons, the following **recommendations** are formulated for the G20:

1. The G20 could call on international organizations to work together, under a common framework such as the social protection floor initiative, to provide support to countries that wish to strengthen and expand their social protection systems. This support should be provided according to the unique and diverse circumstances of individual countries and guided by the principles below. It should facilitate learning from successful experiences, through effective South South, North South and triangular approaches. Guiding principles for this support would include:

- *Respect for national priorities and ownership.*
- *Anchoring of social protection policies into national development and poverty reduction strategies, with strong cross-sectoral links wherever appropriate.*
- *Economic affordability and fiscal sustainability.*
- *Coordination and social dialogue involving all relevant stakeholders at the country level.*
- *Combination of the objectives of preventing poverty, protecting against social risks; empowering individuals to seize market opportunities for decent employment and*

entrepreneurship; and facilitating access to social services to help families build up human and social capital .

- *Progressive and gradual implementation towards greater coverage and higher levels of protection according to national priorities and capacities. As economies develop and the fiscal space widens, nationally defined social protection floors can gradually be completed.*
- *Coordination among social policies in a life-cycle perspective and between social and economic policies, including coherence with other G20 initiatives.*
- *Particular attention given to gender empowerment.*

2. The G20 could request the establishment of a knowledge exchange network, in convergence with actions under Pillar 9, which could be hosted by a specific agency and owned by a broad initiative of agencies.

3. The G20 could call on international organizations, including the IMF, ILO, UNDP, UNICEF, the World Bank, the WFP, the WHO and the regional development banks, that provide technical advisory services in social protection, to establish a mechanism to improve their coordination and policy coherence towards supporting countries in designing and implementing national social protection systems. The organizations could consider the example of the High Level Task Force on Global Food Security or other well-functioning coordinating bodies.

4. The G20 could call on the ILO and UNDP, in collaboration with relevant international organizations, to map progress towards extending social protection coverage in low and middle income, countries, including crisis-relevant social protection mechanisms, and report to the Development Group in 2012. This work should include extensive primary research as well as the collection of successful practices and lessons learnt.

5. The G20 could take note of crisis monitoring initiatives, such as the Global Pulse, and call upon members to support the attempts being made to improve the collection, analysis and dissemination of more timely data on the impact of shocks on the vulnerable, and its use in designing and implementing better programmes for social protection.

6. The G20 Leaders could call on the donor community, including themselves as donor countries, international organizations, the European Commission and OECD-DAC, as well as South-South and Triangular cooperation channels to consider coordinated support of social protection initiatives in a group of self-selected pilot countries. Innovative financing mechanisms could be designed to start up the process on cost-sharing basis in line with the discussions within the G20. A progress report on these pilot countries would be submitted in 2013.

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Annex A: Social Protection Programmes in LICs and MICs

	Cash transfers	In-kind transfers	Workfare	Access to Services	Social Security
Low-income economies (\$995 or less)					
Afghanistan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cash Transfers for families of martyrs and war-related disabled. • Program to Support Poor Families in Afghanistan – Unconditional Cash Transfer (UCT) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School Feeding program • In kind (food aid) programs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>National Emergency Employment Programme for Rural Access – NEEPR</u> • Food for work 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Old Age, Disability and Survivor's Pension
Bangladesh	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Old Age Allowance Scheme (OAAS) and Assistance Programme for Widowed and Destitute Women (APWDW) • Challenging the Frontiers of Poverty Reduction / Targeting the Ultra Poor (TUP) • Female Secondary School Stipend Programme • Primary Education Stipend Project (PESP) • Pilot Conditional Cash Transfer 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fair Price Ration Card • Coarse rice in ration in Open Market Sales (OMS) • Vulnerable Group Development (VGD) • Vulnerable Group Feeding (VGF) Programme • National Nutrition Programme • Shouhardo – food security programme • School Feeding program 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rural Employment and Road Maintenance Program (RERMP) • 100 Days Employment Generation Scheme (EGP) • Employment Generation for the Hard-Core Poor • Food-for-Work Program • Food for Asset creation (FFA) • Rural Maintenance Program (RMP) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Female Secondary School Assistance Programme • Primary Education Stipend Programme • Vulnerable Group Development • Challenging the Frontiers of Poverty Reduction / Targeting the Ultra Poor (TUP) 	
Burkina Faso	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Orphans and Vulnerable Children – poverty relief 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Orphans and Vulnerable Children – poverty relief 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pension Scheme for Employed Persons and

	for HIV/AIDS affected households			for HIV/AIDS affected households	Apprentices
Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pilot Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • DRC Emergency Social Action Project • Pilot In-kind Transfer 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Street Children Project 	
Ethiopia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Productive Safety Net Program • Meket Livelihoods Development Project 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Productive Safety Net Programme • Meket Livelihoods Development Project 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Old age pension, disability and Survivor Pension
Ghana	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty Programme (LEAP) • The Global Social Trust (GST) pilot project 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Health Insurance Scheme (non contributory part) • Free basic education and primary health care 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Pension Scheme • National Health Insurance Scheme
Haiti	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cash transfers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School Feeding Program 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food for work 		
Kenya	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Hunger Safety Net Programme (HSNP) • Cash Transfer for Orphans and Vulnerable Children (CT-OVC) • Persons with Disabilities and Older Person Programme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School Feeding Programme • Slum Upgrading and Low Cost Housing Programme 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Free Primary School Education • Subsidized Secondary Education • Hospital Fee Waiver 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Social Security Fund
Kyrgyz Republic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • United Monthly Benefit • Monthly Social Benefit 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nutrition Programme • Micro-nutrients to pregnant and lactating women 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Old age pension
Liberia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pilot Cash Transfer Scheme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School Feeding Programme • Girls' take-home rations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cash-for-Work Temporary Employment Project • Jobs and Opportunities 		

			Initiative		
Malawi	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mchinji Social Cash Transfer Pilot Scheme • Food and Cash Transfer project (FACT project) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food and Cash Transfer project (FACT project) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improving Livelihood Through Public Works Programme 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pension Scheme for Public Sector Employees
Mali		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food transfers • School Feeding Programme 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pension Scheme for Employed (voluntary for the self-employed) • Social Insurance System
Mongolia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cash benefit for the elderly and the disabled • Monthly cash benefit to each citizen • Pregnant and breastfeeding mothers benefit • Newlyweds allowance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Textbooks for primary school pupils • Food stamp program for vulnerable group people • School supplies for vulnerable group children • Laptop to every child program 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SME development project • Rural poverty alleviation program • Rural agribusiness promotion program • Sustainable livelihood project 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tuition allowance for students enrolled in vocational schools • Discounted drugs • Grants, student loans, scholarships. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Old age, disability, survivor's pension • Unemployment benefits
Mozambique	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Minimum Income for School Attendance • Direct Social Support Programme • National Programme against HIV/AIDS 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Income Generation Programme • Food Subsidy Programme (in Portuguese, PSA – Programa de Subsídio de Alimentos) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social Benefit for Work • Community Development Programme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Health and Education Fee Waivers • Drug Subsidies • National Programme against HIV/AIDS 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Compulsory Social Security • Additional Social Security
Nepal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Old Age Allowance Programme (OAP) • Helpless Widows Allowance (HPA) • Disabled Pension (DP) 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rural Community Infrastructure Works – a Food for Work Programme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maternity Scheme • Survivor Allowance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provident Fund
Rwanda	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • VUP social transfer programme (Vision Umerenge Program) • Genocide Survivor's Fund 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pension scheme for salaried workers

	(FARG)				
Senegal		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School Feeding Program 			
Sierra Leone	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social Safety Net Program (SSN) 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Pension Scheme
Tajikistan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tajikistan Safety Net • Conditional cash payment (CCP) - CCT 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Micro-nutrients to pregnant and lactating women • Electricity and gas compensation 			
Tanzania	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • KwaWazee Cash Transfer Programme • Pilot Cash Transfer Programme 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>National Social Security Fund</u> • <u>Parastatal Pension Fund</u> • <u>National Health Insurance Scheme</u> • <u>Public Service Pension Fund</u>
Togo		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School Feeding Program 			
Uganda	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uganda Social Assistance Grants for Empowerment (SAGE) 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Old Age Benefit, Disability Benefit, Survivor Benefit
Zambia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pilot Unconditional Cash transfer schemes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public Welfare Assistance Scheme – in-kind transfer programme for the most vulnerable 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public Welfare Assistance Scheme - in-kind transfer programme for the most vulnerable 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pension for employed persons
Lower-middle-income economies (\$996 to \$3,945)					
Bolivia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bono Dignidad or Renta Dignidad 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bono Juancito Pinto • Programa Desnutrición Cero • Desayuno Escolar 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mi Primer Empleo Digno 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yo Sí Puedo • Bono Madre Niño and Bono Juana Azurduy de Padilla 	

		Programme		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aguayo para un parto sin riesgos Programme • Programa de Vivenda Social e Solidaria 	
China	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Minimum Living Standards Programme (MLSGS) • Five Guarantees programme 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Starlight Plan -- National Community Welfare Service for Elderly People 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Old-age Insurance • Unemployment Insurance • Medical Insurance
Ecuador	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bono de Desarrollo Humano (Bono Solidario) – conditional and unconditional cash transfers • Bono de Emergencia • Programa de Asistencia e Desarrollo Comunitario 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Programa de Alimentación Escolar • Programa De Alimentos y Nutrición Nacional 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bono de Desarrollo Humano (Bono Solidario) • Programa de Salud Sexual y Reproductiva • Plan Ampliado de Inmunización 	
Egypt	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pilot conditional cash transfer programme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ration cards • Food subsidies 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social Solidarity Pension
El Salvador	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Red Solidaria – conditional cash transfers 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Red Solidaria 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Private Pension Scheme
Georgia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Targeted Social Assistance (TSA) program • Old-age state pension program 				
Guatemala	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mi Familia Progresa – conditional cash transfers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proyecto de Suplementación con Chispitas a los niños y niñas atendidos por los Hogares Comunitarios • Seguridad Alimentaria • Bolsa Solidaria 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creciendo Bien Programme • Hogares Comunitarios • PROMUJER-BECAS 	
Honduras	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Programa de Asignacion Familiar (PRAF) 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Old-age pensions • Disability pensions

					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Survivors' and maternity benefits • Compensation for work injuries
India	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Apni Beti Apna Dhan (ABAD), (Our daughter, Our Wealth) • Balika Samridhi Yojana scheme (BSY) • Dhanlakhmi or the Income Transfer Scheme for Girls with Insurance Cover • National Programme for Education of Girls at Elementary-Level under the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) • Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSY) • Ladli Scheme- Ladli ("Dearest") programme • Indira Gandhi National Old age Pension Scheme (IGNOAPS) • 'Below the Poverty Line' card system 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subsidized Public (food) Distribution System (PDS) • Destitute Agricultural Labourer Pension Scheme • Indira Gandhi National Widow Pension Scheme (IGNWPS) • Annapurna Scheme • Trickle Up and Bandhan (TUP) pilot scheme • Mid-day meals program • School Feeding Program 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trickle Up and Bandhan (TUP) pilot scheme • Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee (MGNREG) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSY) • Trickle Up and Bandhan (TUP) pilot scheme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Indira Ghandi National Widow Pension Scheme (IGNWPS) • Indira Ghandi National Disability Pension Scheme (IGNDPS) • Indira Gandhi National Old Age Pension Scheme (IGNOAPS) replaced NOAPS established in 1995 • Destitute Agricultural Labourer Pension Scheme
Indonesia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Keluarga Harapan, Hopeful Family Programme (PKH)-conditional cash transfer • Unconditional Cash Transfer (BLT) Program • BSM, cash transfers for the poor. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Raskin, subsidized rice distribution. • School feeding (PMTAS) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Community Empowerment Programme (PNPM) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Generasi</i>, an incentivized community – based CCT pilot linked to PNPM to increase access to health and education services and improve MDG targets. • Keluarga Harapan, Hopeful 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Jamsostek, pension scheme for employed (voluntary for the self-employed). • Health, work Injury, Death, Pension, Retirement Benefit.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cash transfer and service programs targeting highly vulnerable groups including at-risk children (PKSA), the disabled (JSPACA) and vulnerable elderly (JSLU). 			<p>Family Programme (PKH)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Special Assistance for Students (BKM) • Social Health Assistance (Jamkesmas) • Social Natal Assistance (Jampersal) 	
Lesotho	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cash Transfer for orphans • Cash & Food Transfers Pilot Project (CFTPP) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cash & Food Transfers Pilot Project (CFTPP) 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lesotho Old Age Pension (OAP)
Maldives					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The New Pension System
Mongolia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Targeted benefit for poor households • Child Money Programme – a conditional cash transfer programme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food stamps for vulnerable groups • Medicard program - micronutrients 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community-led infrastructure development for the urban poor in Ulaanbaatar 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Medicard program 	
Nicaragua	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Red de Protección Social (RPS) – conditional cash transfer • Atención a Crisis pilot programme 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pension system
Nigeria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Care of the People – a conditional cash transfer programme 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Care of the People - skills training 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Old-Age Pensions • Disability Pensions • Survivors’ Pensions • Unemployment Benefits (contributory)
Pakistan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Benazir Income Support Programme • CCT Child Support Programme (CSP) • Zakat Disbursement • Punjab Female School 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tawana Pakistana Programme – mid-day meals for girls in rural primary schools. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Punjab Female School Stipend 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Old-age Pensions • Survivors’ Pensions • Invalidation Pensions • Old-age Grants

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stipend • Pakistan Bait-ul-Mai – conditional cash transfers • Pakistan Poverty Alleviation fund • Internally Displaced Persons grants • Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Province (KP) and the Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA) Emergency Recovery Project 				
Paraguay	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Red de Protección y Promoción Social • Tekopora/PROPAIS II – conditional cash transfer • Programa Ñopytyvo - conditional cash transfer • Programa Paraguayo de Inversiones Sociales 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Programa Nacional de atención a los Pueblos Indígenas 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social Security for employed (voluntary for self employed)
Philippines	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expanded Senior Citizens Act of 2010 • Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Programme (4Ps) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food for School Programme 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social Security system – private sector • Government Service Insurance system
Swaziland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Old Age Grant (OAG) • Public Assistance Grant 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food transfers 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School fee waivers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Swaziland National Provident fund for employed persons
Thailand	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Old Age Cash Allowance • Cash transfers for the elderly, disabled and children • Fund for Victims of Trafficking 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supplemental Food for Children 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fee waiver for Health Care 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social security and pensions – formal sector

Vietnam	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social pension for the elderly, orphans, and other vulnerable groups. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Health Care Fund for the Poor • Targeted fee waiver in health care • Primary school fee waiver 	
Upper-middle-income countries (\$3,946 to \$12,195)					
Argentina	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pensiones Asistenciales/ Pensiones No Contributivas • Programa Familias para la Inclusión social PFIS – conditional cash transfers • Universal Family Allowance per Child for Social Protection • Plan Familias – conditional cash transfers for education and health • Plan Nacional de Seguridad Alimentaria – nutritional vulnerability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ciudadania Portena – conditional pre-charged magnetic cards used exclusively to purchase basic need items 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Plan Jefes y Jefas de Hogar Desocupados – conditional cash transfers for number of hours of work per day • Seguro de Capacitacion y Empleo – training and skill building insurance • El Plan Nacional de Desarrollo Local y Economia Social “Manos a la Obra” (“Hands to Work”) – promote individuals’ capabilities and promote job alternatives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Programa Familias para la Inclusión social PFIS 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Social Security Council – comprehensive pension system
Azerbaijan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Targeted Social Assistance Program (TSA) 				
Botswana	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Old Age Pension (OAP) • World War II veterans (WWVA) • Destitute person allowance (DPA); • Orphan Care Programme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vulnerable Group Feeding Programme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ipegelen and Labour Drought Relief Programme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prevention of Mother to Child Treatment Programme • ART Programme • Community Home Based Care Programme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public Officers Pension Fund
Brazil	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Beneficio de Prestação Continuada 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food Acquisition Programme (Programme) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PlanSeQ – vocational training 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bolsa Familia (absorbed Child Labour Eradication) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social Security (contributory)

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bolsa Familia (absorbed Child Labour Eradication Programme, PETI in 2006 and Bolsa Escola in 2003, as well as gas and food subsidies) • Prêvidencia Rural 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • de Aquisicao de Alimentos) – food baskets and stimulus packages • Cisterns Programme • Restaurantes Populares (Budget Restaurants) – subsidized meals • Food Banks • Cisterns Programme • School Feeding Program 		<p>Programme, PETI in 2006 and Bolsa Escola in 2003, as well as gas and food subsidies)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unique Health System – universal health benefits • Social Assistance Unified System (SAUS)
Chile	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pensiones Solidarias • Subsidio Unitario Familiar • Chile Solidario – subsidies and social assistance to female heads of households • Pension Asistencial de Ancianidad – non-conditional grants for the elderly • Subsidio a la Cedula de Identidad – grants for foreigners • Bono de Egreso para familias del Chile Solidario – conditional grants • Programa de Produccion Familiar – financial support to produce food • Subsidio a la Discapacidad Mental – death allowance • Subsidio Unico Familiar – 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subsidio al Pago del Consumo de Agua Potable y Servicio de Alcantarillado de Aguas Servidas (SAP) – value of water consumption 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chile Solidario – psychosocial support and priority access to other social programmes • Programa Puente – psychosocial support • Programa Vinculos – psychosocial support; preferential access to social and other services for the extremely poor and elderly • Programa Calle – personalized psychosocial support for the homeless • Programa Caminos – personalized psychosocial support to children of prisoners • Proyecto de Servicio de Asistencia Tecnica – technical support to 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mandatory Social and Private Pension Schemes • Pilar Solidario – monthly monetary benefit for those not entitled to a pension from the general scheme • Bono por Hijo Nacido Vivo – benefit added to women’s pensions for each child borne

	<p>grants for mothers with babies and pregnant women</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subvencion Pro Retencion Escolar – conditional grants for education 			<p>municipalities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Programa de Produccion Familiar – technical support to produce food • Subsidio a la Discapacidad Mental – medical services • Chile Cresce Contigo – universal day care, health care, psychological support 	
Colombia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Familias en Acción – conditional cash transfers and family allowances for nutrition and education • Subsidios Condicionados a La Asistencia Escolar – conditional cash transfers for students • Mujeres Ahorradoras en Accion – conditional cash transfers • Recuperacion de Activos Improductivos – conditional cash transfers • Incentivo para el Acceso con Calidad a la Educacion Superior – conditional cash transfers for higher education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Programa de Ampliación de Cobertura de la Educación Secundaria (PACES) • Programa de Atencion a la Poblacion Desplazada – food supply • Gestion Habitat y Vivienda – kit for building a house • Programa de Alimentacion al Adulto Mayor Juan Luis Londono de la Cuesta – basket of food for elderly 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Red de Seguridad Alimentaria (RESA) – workshops on agricultural production • Programa de Proyectos Productivos (PPP) – productive projects in substitution of illicit crops • Capitalizacion de Minicadenas Productivas – entrepreneurship • Programa Especial Linea Desarraigados – employment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Juntos (Social Protection Network to Overcome Extreme Poverty) • Programa de Atencion a la Poblacion Desplazada – social assistance, legal protection/support • Paz y Desarrollo • Proteccion de Tierras y Patrimonio de la Poblacion Desplazada – legal protection for land rights 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Health Insurance for Medical and Hospital Coverage • Disability Pensions • Old Age Pensions • Death Payments
Costa Rica	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Avancemos – scholarships and conditional cash transfers • Programa Régimen No Contributivo – cash transfers for elderly, 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unemployment Insurance • Adolescence Work Insurance • Domestic Help Insurance • Income Insurance • Protection Law for workers

	widows, young orphans and unemployed				
Dominican Republic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Programa Solidaridad – conditional cash transfers to support school attendance 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Old Age Pensions Disability Pensions Survivors’ and Maternity Benefits Compensation for Work Injuries
Jamaica	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Programme of Advancement through Health and Education (PATH) – conditional cash transfers to vulnerable groups including children, the elderly, pregnant women, individuals with disabilities, destitute poor adults 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> National Insurance Scheme – old-age pensions, disability pensions, survivors’ and maternity benefits, compensation for work injuries
Mauritius					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Old Age Pension
Mexico	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Programa de Atención a Jornaleros Agrícolas (PAJA) – conditional cash transfers 70 y más – old age pension Progresas renamed in 2000 as Oportunidades – conditional cash transfer for health and education, non-conditional for elderly Programa de Apoyo Alimentario (PAL) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Programa de Empleo Temporal (PET) Programa de Apoyo Alimentario (PAL) – nutritional supplements and milk 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Programa de Empleo Temporal (PET) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 70 y más – health services, development groups Progresas renamed in 2000 as Oportunidades 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Health care to formal sector workers and families
Namibia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Old Age Grant (OAG) and Disability Grant (DG) 				

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maintenance Grant (MG) • Basic Income Grant Pilot Project (BIG) 				
Panama	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Red de Oportunidades – conditional cash transfers to female heads of households 6 • Programa Especial De Asistencia Economica 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Red de Oportunidades – basic services and infrastructure development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most permanent employees in the formal sector, including for sickness, maternity leave, old age, disability, survivors of wars
Peru	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Programa Juntos – conditional grants 				
South Africa	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Child Support Grant • Care dependency grant • Disability Grant • Old-Age pension 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP): Phase 2 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Old Age Grant
Uruguay	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PANES changed into Asignación Familiar – cash transfer • PANES became Plan de Equidad (Plan for Social Equity) – cash transfers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PANES changed into Asignación Familiar – food transfers 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PANES changed into Asignación Familiar – public works 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Programa de Pensiones No-Contributivas – old age pension • Disability Pensions • Survivors’ and Maternity Benefits • Compensation for Work Injuries

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