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Salla Atkins, Jere Tiitto,
Johanna Pajula, Elina Kervinen,
Jairous Miti, Pedroso Nhassengo,
Mikko Perkiö, Meri Koivusalo



Social protection in Africa

A focus on gender equality and
external shocks

Ministry for Foreign
Affairs of Finland

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Salla Atkins^{1,2}, Jere Tiitto¹, Johanna Pajula¹, Elina Kervinen¹,
Jairous Miti^{1,3}, Pedroso Nhassengo^{2,4}, Mikko Perkiö¹, Meri Koivusalo¹

1 Global Health and Development, Tampere University, Tampere, Finland

2 Department of Global Public Health, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden

3 University of Zambia, Lusaka, Zambia

4 Instituto Nacional de Saude, Maputo, Mozambique

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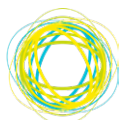
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Social Protection in Africa

A focus on gender equality and external shocks

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Abstract

Social protection is a human right and a key intervention in protecting against poverty and enabling sustainable growth. As new social protection instruments are designed for new challenges, such as external shocks (climate events, natural disasters, pandemics, wars/ conflicts, displacement), there is a need to understand programmes better, and to consider gender implications. This scoping review aimed to review knowledge regarding how social protection is implemented to address gender equality and external shock in Africa and what should be considered in the expansion of these programmes. We searched five academic databases and grey literature on studies on social protection and gender equality or external shocks (climate events; natural disasters; pandemics; wars; conflicts; displacement). We conducted 12 interviews with 14 experts from international organisations, and analysed data using thematic content analysis. We reviewed 140 full-text articles. Few articles described both external shocks and gender. Studies suggested social protection could have beneficial effects for empowerment and the wellbeing of women and girls, but also during external shocks. However, many gaps in services were identified, and social protection needs to be embedded in a functioning system that can also provide complementary services. We found few evaluations of social protection during external shocks. Our interviews confirmed review findings and indicated both gaps and promising approaches in African region. Overall, the findings highlighted the importance of approaching gender equality, external shocks, and disability together, and strengthening core programmes and services.

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Provision

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Keywords

Social protection, gender, equality, external shock, crises, Africa

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Sosiaaliturva Afrikassa

Katsaus sukupuolten väliseen tasa-arvoon ja ulkoisiin shokkeihin

Ulkomministeriön julkaisu 2022:4

Julkaisija Ulkomministeriö

Tekijä/t Salla Atkins, Jere Tiitto, Johanna Pajula, Elina Kervinen, Jairous Miti, Pedroso Nhassengo, Mikko Perkiö, Meri Koivusalo

Yhteisötekijä Ulkomministeriö, UniPID

Kieli englanti

Sivumäärä

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Tiivistelmä

Sosiaaliturva on ihmisoikeus ja oleellinen osa köyhydeltä suojautumista ja kestäväen kasvun mahdollistamista. Kun uusia sosiaaliturvainstrumentteja suunnitellaan uusien haasteiden, kuten ulkoisten shokkien (esim. sääilmiöt, luonnonkatastrofit, pandemiat, sodat ja konfliktit ja siirtolaisuus), varalta, on oleellista ymmärtää ohjelmia paremmin ja ottaa huomioon niiden sukupuolivaikutukset. Tämän kartoittavan katsauksen tarkoituksena oli käydä läpi tietoa siitä, miten Afrikassa sosiaaliturvan avulla vastataan sukupuolten väliseen tasa-arvoon ja ulkoisiin shokkeihin. Lisäksi katsauksessa tarkastellaan, mitä pitäisi ottaa huomioon sosiaaliturvaohjelmia laajennettaessa. Etsimme sosiaaliturvaa ja sukupuolten välistä tasa-arvoa tai ulkoisia shokkeja käsitteleviä tutkimuksia viidestä akateemisesta tietokannasta ja harmaasta kirjallisuudesta. Haastattelimme 12 haastattelussa 14:ää kansainvälisissä järjestöissä toimivaa asiantuntijaa, ja datan analysointiin käytimme temaattista sisällönanalyysia. Kävimme läpi 140 kokonaista artikkelia. Harvoissa artikkeleissa käsiteltiin sekä ulkoisia shokkeja että sukupuolta. Tutkimusten mukaan sosiaaliturvalla voi olla myönteisiä vaikutuksia voimaantumiseen ja tyttöjen ja naisten hyvinvointiin, mutta siitä voi olla hyötyä myös ulkoisten shokkien aikana. Kuitenkin palveluissa tunnistettiin useita aukkoja, ja sosiaaliturva on punottava mukaan toimivaan järjestelmään, joka tarjoaa myös muita palveluita. Löysimme muutaman arvion sosiaaliturvan vaikutuksista ulkoisten shokkien aikana. Haastattelumme vahvistavat katsauksen löydökset ja viittaavat siihen, että Afrikasta löytyy niin aukkoja palveluissa kuin lupaaviakin lähestymistapoja. Kokonaisuudessa löydökset korostivat, kuinka tärkeää on lähestyä sukupuolten välistä tasa-arvoa, ulkoisia shokkeja ja vammaisuutta yhdessä, ja vahvistaa avainohjelmia ja -palveluita.

Sivua 47 on päivitetty 15.6.2022 ja aineisto korvaa aikaisemmin, 29.4.2022 julkaistun version.

Klausuuli

Tämä raportti on osa ulkomministeriön rahoittamia ja UniPID-verkoston hallinnoimia kehityspoliittisia selvityksiä (UniPID Development Policy Studies). Finnish University Partnership for International Development, UniPID, on suomalaisten yliopistojen verkosto, joka edistää yliopistojen globaalivastuuta ja yhteistyötä globaalien etelän kumppanien kanssa kestäväen kehityksen saralla. Kehityspoliittinen selvitysyhteistyö vahvistaa kehityspoliittikan tietoperustaisuutta. UniPID identifioi sopivia tutkijoita vastaamaan ulkomministeriön ajankohtaisiin tiedontarpeisiin ja fasilitoi puitteet tutkijoiden ja ministeriön virkahenkilöiden väliselle dialogille. Tämän raportin sisältö ei vastaa ulkomministeriön virallista kantaa. Vastuu raportissa esitetyistä tiedoista ja näkökulmista on raportin laatijoilla.

Asiasanat

Sosiaaliturva, sukupuoli, tasa-arvo, ulkoinen shokki, kriisit, Afrika

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Socialt skydd i Afrika

Fokus på jämställdhet och yttre påverkan

Utrikesministeriets publikationer 2022:4**Utgivare** Utrikesministeriet**Författare** Salla Atkins, Jere Tiitto, Johanna Pajula, Elina Kervinen, Jairous Miti, Pedroso Nhassengo, Mikko Perkiö, Meri Koivusalo**Utarbetad av** Utrikesministeriet, UniPID**Språk** engelska**Sidantal**

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Referat

Socialt skydd är en mänsklig rättighet och en avgörande åtgärd för att skydda mot fattigdom och möjliggöra hållbar tillväxt. När nya instrument för socialt skydd utformas för nya utmaningar, som t.ex. yttre påverkan (klimathändelser, naturkatastrofer, pandemier, krig, konflikter, fördrivning), finns det ett behov av att förstå programmen bättre och att ta hänsyn till genuskonsekvenser. Denna granskning omfattar syftade till att granska kunskapen om hur socialt skydd implementeras för att hantera jämställdhet och yttre påverkan i Afrika och vad som bör beaktas vid utbyggnaden av dessa program. Vi sökte i fem akademiska databaser och grå litteratur efter studier om socialt skydd och jämställdhet eller yttre påverkan. Vi genomförde 12 intervjuer med 14 experter från internationella organisationer och analyserade data med hjälp av tematisk innehållsanalys. Vi har granskat 140 fulltextartiklar. Få artiklar beskrev både yttre påverkan och kön. Studier tydde på att socialt skydd kan ha positiva effekter på stödet av kvinnors och flickors välbefinnande, men även vid yttre påverkan. Många luckor i tjänsterna identifierades dock, och socialt skydd måste bäddas in i ett fungerande system som också kan tillhandahålla kompletterande tjänster. Vi hittade få utvärderingar av socialskyddets effekter under yttre påverkan. Våra intervjuer bekräftade granskningsresultaten och indikerade både luckor och lovande tillvägagångssätt i Afrika. Sammantaget belyste resultaten vikten av att närma sig jämställdhet, yttre påverkan och funktionshinder tillsammans, och stärka kärnprogram och tjänster.

Sidan 47 har uppdaterats 15.6.2022, och materialet ersätter den version som publicerats 29.4.2022.

Klausul

Denna rapport är beställd som en del av UniPID Development Policy Studies (UniPID DPS), finansierad av Finlands Utrikesministerium (MFA), och hanterad av Finnish University Partnership for International Development (UniPID). UniPID är ett nätverk av finska universitet som etablerats för att stärka universitetens globala ansvar och samarbete med partner från det södra halvklottet, till stöd för en hållbar utveckling. UniPID DPS-verktyget stärker en kunskapsbaserad utvecklingspolicy genom att identifiera de mest lämpliga, tillgängliga forskarna för att svara på utrikesministeriets kunskapsbehov i rätt tid och att underlätta ett ramverk för en dialog mellan forskare och departementstjänstemän. Innehållet i denna rapport återspeglar inte Finlands utrikesministeriums officiella uppfattning. Ansvaret för informationen och åsikterna i rapporten ligger helt på författarna.

Nyckelord

Socialt skydd, kön, jämställdhet, yttre påverkan, kriser, Afrika

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Executive summary

Introduction

Social protection is a human right and a key intervention in protecting against poverty and enabling sustainable growth. As new social protection instruments are designed for new challenges, such as external shocks, there is a need to understand design alternatives, and their possible effects. As the aims of social protection have become more transformative, stakeholders have recognised that gender considerations need to be included in programme design and impacts. This study aims to review knowledge of how social protection has been used to further gender equality and mitigate external shock, and what should be considered in the expansion of such programmes. The review focuses on Central, Eastern, Western and Southern Africa.

Methods

We conducted a scoping review, combined with expert interviews. We searched five academic databases for published peer reviewed literature from 1995-2021 and six organisation websites and Google Scholar for grey literature on studies on social protection and gender equality, and social protection during external shocks (climate events, natural disasters, pandemics, wars, conflicts, and displacement). We conducted in total 12 interviews with 14 experts from international organisations with expertise in social protection. Interviews lasted on average one hour and were conducted in English and transcribed. We analysed data from both sources using thematic content analysis.

Results

We reviewed evidence from Central, Eastern, Western and Southern Africa on social protection for improving gender equality, and during external shocks. In total, we reviewed 140 papers from both academic and grey literature. We found few papers that spoke about gender issues during external shocks. We located evidence on several beneficial effects, particularly for gender empowerment and the wellbeing of women and girls. We found positive effects on poverty and food security, reduction in risky sexual behaviour, and empowerment for women and girls. We found less information on social protection and its use during external shocks. The main lesson from these articles was the need for long-term programming and views on sustainability, as well as strengthening

existing social protection programmes to enable a response during e.g. climatic events. The studies suggest that social protection alone is unlikely to have strong effects on gender equality or mitigating the effects of external shocks. Social protection needs to be provided alongside an established, functioning system that can provide complementary services, such as education or health services, to have a stronger impact. We found few evaluations and effects on external shocks, mainly because of the difficulty in conducting evaluations during these situations. Our expert interviews confirmed these findings and indicated gaps, promising approaches and future directions for the sub-Saharan region.

Discussion and conclusion

Social protection is a key right, and important for poverty reduction, wellbeing, and equality. However, it is clear from our findings that there remains much work in terms of policy influence, administrative and system capacity, and monitoring and evaluation to be conducted in African countries. We found some promising examples of successful programmes that could benefit from further evaluation and possibly adaptation. However, in general, we found that social protection and healthcare and humanitarian development still work in siloes, with little collaboration, which would be needed for better outcomes for both gender equality, and during humanitarian crises or external shocks. There is also a need for a consistent focus on gender and inequality analysis, from the beginning to the end of programmes for sustained impact. The findings also highlighted the importance of approaching gender equality and external shocks and strengthening core programmes in order to be able to respond to crises. Taking into account disability during these interventions should also be considered. Our study concludes that there remain substantial gaps to be overcome, but that there are committed and driven individuals ready to further progress in expanding social protection for all.

1 Introduction

Social protection is a human right and a key intervention in protecting against poverty and enabling sustainable growth. Expanding social protection floors is a key goal of the International Labour Organization (ILO) (1), the African Union (2), and the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (3). Though social protection is a component of several key goals across the world, there remains a stark inequity in coverage. In 2020, only 46.3% of the world's population were covered by any social protection benefit (4). Those who do not have access to social protection are more likely to live in a low- or middle-income country and be employed informally, without formal contracts. Women are overrepresented in those groups that have no access to social protection (4).

Social protection can be delivered as in-kind services, or as cash supplements. The reported positive impacts of social protection vary from reducing poverty (4), to improved psychological wellbeing (5) and empowerment of women and girls (6). There are further suggestions that social protection can impact girls' schooling(7), reducing teenage pregnancy (8) and women's empowerment (9). The recent COVID-19 pandemic raised an unprecedented social protection response (4), as governments realised the need for additional support during such a health and economic shock.

As new social protection instruments are designed for emerging challenges, such as external shocks, there is a need to understand social security design alternatives, and their possible effects. This study aims to explore how social protection has been used and its outcomes in terms of gender equality and external shock, particularly in countries within Central, Eastern, Western and Southern Africa as defined by the World Bank (10). The COVID-19 pandemic shows clear differences in the social protection responses across high – middle- and low-income countries (11). High-income countries, with established, stable social protection systems were able to focus their efforts on social protection to stabilise macroeconomic impacts, while upper-middle and lower-middle-income countries used social protection to enhance the living conditions of the poor and vulnerable.

1.1 Social protection

To begin examining social protection systems, it is beneficial to first understand the background and history of these systems. Social protection, often used interchangeably with social security, was delineated a human right in 1948 (12). Social protection can be defined as *a set of policies and programmes designed to reduce and prevent poverty, vulnerability and social exclusion for all, throughout the lifecycle, with particular emphasis on vulnerable groups. It can be provided through services (such as childcare, health services), or it can be provided through in-kind contributions (e.g. food aid) or as cash payments* (1). Social protection is part of the Sustainable Development Goal 1, “End poverty in its all forms, everywhere”, specifically target 1.3 “Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage of the poor and the vulnerable”. Given the COVID-19 pandemic, progress towards Goal 1 has been set back globally. Social protection is addressed also in the Convention of the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, in Article 28, Adequate standard of living and social protection (13).

Across the world, social protection is used to cover children and families, pregnant women, the unemployed from injuries and loss of income, sickness benefits and health protection through medical care, old age, invalidity through disability benefits and survivors’ benefits. These benefits are provided through a mix of funding alternatives, with different conditionalities and different eligibilities depending on the country, setting, and target group. Contributory and non-contributory social protection schemes, the two main forms of social protection, address all of these policy areas. Labour market policies and interventions form the third policy arena (14). Non-contributory social protection is also termed “social assistance”, where all of the payment is funded by the state or other actors (e.g. child support grants). Social protection can also be contributory, where participants make regular payments (supplemented by a provider and possibly employer) to a scheme that will cover their social risks (e.g. old age pension) (15).

Social protection can have important effects on health and wellbeing and can contribute towards inclusive growth (16). Evidence suggests that support through social protection can stabilise aggregate consumption, allows people to take more risky decisions and facilitates job searches. It can also result in higher utilisation of health services, including prevention, which can support the economic effects. Social protection can potentially support crisis responses and structural change, promote productive living, and preserve human capital. Social protection may also have broader effects such as macroeconomic stability and social cohesion, structural change, and higher productivity (16).

While social protection systems are formally conceptualised through the contributory vs non-contributory divide, they can also be conceptualised through needs-based and

rights-based approaches. Such a divide has implications on how much the system relies on the beneficiaries' actions; whether claimants are “deserving” or “entitled” and whether the action of social protection is voluntary, or mandatory.¹

1.2 Social protection and gender

As the aims of social protection have become more transformative, stakeholders have recognised that gender considerations need to be included in programme design and impacts. Mushunje (17), for example, noted that gender equality impacts positively at household and national levels, with research indicating that addressing gender issues can increase productivity and improve household and nutrition security. Gender perspective is needed in all areas of social protection policy making and programming. This includes policy programmes and design, their implementation, monitoring & evaluation, and governance & accountability. Programmes also need to have mechanisms to ensure women's agency, advocacy and representation with the implementation (18). However, there remain significant gaps in the operationalisation of gender goals in practice (19). Making every woman and girl count will require enormous progress in data, programming and policies (20).

A key reason for including gender as a focus of analysis of social protection is that across their life course, women and men experience poverty and deprivation differently, and encounter different risks (21). Power differentials between men and women result in a host of different impacts (22). For example, across the world, women bear most of the housework including caregiving for children (23) and may engage in less formal work, predisposing them to poverty in old age. Here, social protection is a key intervention.

We recognise that gender is more than sex, which is a biological measure. Gender is part of culture, which encompasses roles, responsibilities, attributes and entitlements of being a man or a woman in a particular cultural setting (24). In this study, we conceptualised gender as more than differences between women and men, including women and men but also transgender, non-binary and others; but realised soon that there is scant evidence on other genders within the field of social protection. Therefore, our review focused on women and girls and explicitly gender equality across several fields, including education, culture and health, including sexual and reproductive health and rights. Gender equality in this report is regarded as taking into account the needs, priorities and interests of

1 While this topic is beyond the remit of this report, saspen.org, a network of African social protection experts can be very informative in their assessment of different approaches.

women and men (25), and that girls and boys have equal opportunities to fulfil their potential (26).

1.3 Social protection and external shocks

Among the different external shocks affecting the poor, climate change can increase hazards, risk and vulnerability (27), through increasing the magnitude and frequency of shocks. During climate change, the poor are likely to be the hardest hit because of their relative lack of resilience and adaptive capacity (28). The poor and vulnerable mostly live in rural areas, out of reach of services, and thus are vulnerable to economic, climatic and conflict-related risks and shocks, which can destroy their income and livelihood, and result in engaging in negative coping strategies (29). In these settings, women and girls are the most vulnerable (29). There is evidence that social protection can protect against the impoverishing effects of external shocks, including humanitarian disasters, climate change, droughts, floods, and other disasters. This is also reflected in the recognition of social protection as part of the Sendai Framework for disaster risk reduction (30).

If we consider pandemics as an external shock, a notable, recent example is COVID-19. The pandemic has caused humanitarian distress in many low-income settings, and has also had a gender differential impact. Countries in West Africa, for example, were suggested to be unprepared for the COVID-19 pandemic (31). On average, where globally countries spend 18.8% of their government budget on social protection (excluding universal health coverage), the average in 16 West African countries was 6.5%. Similarly, while it was estimated that globally 55.34% of the population on average receives a pension, in these countries the average was 14.6%. The pandemic also signalled a “return to austerity”, with most governments, not counting Guinea and Nigeria, making cuts to government budgets (31). This is where a social protection agenda would be particularly important.

Social protection directed at external shocks can be categorised into protective, preventive, promotive or transformative, with different social protection tools to achieve these goals (32). These goals can be achieved through **adaptive social protection**, which emphasises transforming productive livelihoods rather than reinforcing coping mechanisms; allowing for more effective targeting of vulnerability to multiple shocks and stresses (27). Adaptive social protection is based on a rights-based rationale, as well as on an instrumentalist economic efficiency rationale, and emphasises the role of research. Adaptive social protection also emphasises a long-term perspective for social protection policies (27).

O’Brien et al. (14) suggests five key shock-responsive options in times of external shock: (i) “design tweaks” to slightly adjust core programme design in existing social

protection; (ii) “piggybacking”, where elements are borrowed from existing response; (iii) “vertical expansion”, which is topping up support to existing beneficiaries; (iv) “horizontal expansion”, which is extending support to new households; and (v) “alignment” of humanitarian response with existing social protection. The report suggests shock-responsive social protection in itself is not always the best solution, and effective responses need a good base of routine social protection and mature contexts, coordination with other interventions, needs assessment, planning, monitoring and evaluation.

Whichever alternative from these social protection approaches is chosen, another way of conceptualising how social protection works to protect against shocks is categorising social protection into *shock-responsive* or *shock-sensitive* approaches (33). The first alternative, shock-responsive, would mean systems that can respond in a timely manner to shocks; while shock-sensitive approaches are usual social protection, but able to also expand and respond to situations of external shocks.

1.4 Aim

The aim of this commissioned study is to consolidate existing knowledge of social protection for improving gender equality and mitigate the effect of external shocks. Through a focus on social protection, the study focuses on the cross-cutting objectives of the Finnish development policy of gender equality, non-discrimination, and climate resilience. We specifically focus on social protection in and knowledge regarding social protection programmes’ impact on:

1. Gender equality and related issues, including the situation of women and girls; and
2. Wellbeing during external shocks and/or crisis situations (conflicts, displacement, humanitarian, including climate change-related events and COVID-19)

2 Methods

2.1 Study design

We conducted a scoping review, which are useful when examining a diverse set of data (34). Our focus was both on gender equality, and the use of social protection during external shocks and crises. We separated these into two discrete reviews. As scoping reviews depend on published papers that may lag behind current knowledge, we included a series of expert interviews with actors from international and local organisations to ensure we are reporting on the latest evidence in the area.

2.2 Scoping review methods

We first defined our review question, through which we proceeded to identifying relevant studies through a broad search strategy. We searched the academic databases of the Social Science Database, the Applied Social Sciences Index and Abstracts, sociological abstracts and a social science premium collection (ProQuest) from 1995 to present date. We also searched the Web of Science website, specifically the social sciences citation index and emerging sources citation index. We combined this with a grey literature search on Google Scholar (the first 20 pages of hits), as well as targeted searches on key organisation's websites, including socialprotection.org, UNICEF, World Bank, ILO, UNHCR, UNU Wider and the African Union. We also consulted each expert during interviews for additional references. See Appendix 1 for our complete list of keywords.

We did not limit social protection to cash transfers only, but considered social protection in the broad sense, though we did not include articles that included employment programmes. The inclusion and exclusion criteria specific to the gender equality review included studies from any country in Central, Eastern, Western or Southern Africa, describing the implementation or outcomes of social protection programmes, as well as international reports of studies conducted in an African country. We included papers that discussed gender equality, gender relations, wellbeing of women or girls, or those that reported their findings separated by different sexes. For the external shocks review, the criteria included studies that focused on any external shock (including humanitarian disasters, COVID-19, natural disasters, famines or food scarcity, wars and displacement) either describing the policies to address these crises or evidence relating to their impact. We included papers using qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods and policy documents and policy briefs. We excluded abstracts, theses, books, and media.

The PRISMA chart (Appendix 2) details the process of selection. After selection we charted the data, extracting data from each article onto a form, including author, year, setting, type of social protection, target group, and main findings. Finally, we collated and summarised the results using thematic analysis.

2.3 Expert interviews

Participant recruitment

We sampled participants purposively, targeting experts on social protection and gender, or social protection and external shocks. First, we examined our scoping review articles for relevant authors and contacted them via email. We combined this with personal contacts at relevant organisations or those involved in relevant studies. We combined the purposive sampling with a snowball approach, asking experts we interviewed for further contacts. We identified 38 individuals through this approach, of which we approached 22. Of the 22 individuals contacted, 15 agreed to be interviewed. One person agreed but did not answer follow up emails.

Data collection

We scheduled meetings via the Zoom platform with participants at a time convenient for them. Participants were either interviewed together or separately. We followed a pre-established interview guide (see Appendix 3), asking questions about the potential impact and good examples of social protection for external shocks and gender equality. We also explored the barriers and challenges of expanding such approaches. We conducted 12 interviews, with eleven women and three men. Two were joint interviews. Five of these experts were focused on gender and social protection, three on shock-responsive social protection, one on HIV and social protection and others were working with different aspects of social protection in African countries. Our interviewees were from the Overseas Development Institute (ODI), the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, ILO, UNDP, the South African Medical Research Council, the State University of New York, Policy Research Solutions LLC (PRESTO), Oxford University, the University of Cape Town, UNU Wider & SOAS University of London, UNICEF Innocenti and UNHCR. Interviews were conducted in English. Each interview lasted between half an hour and an hour. Interviews were recorded and transcribed by a contracted transcribing company.

Data analysis

We analysed data using inductive thematic analysis. One researcher went through the transcript identifying information and statements that came out as interesting and corresponding to the purpose of the assignment. These were assembled into categories and themes. Other researchers, present in the interviews, then checked the narrative and asked clarifying questions. The researchers' knowledge and experience in social research and social protection in Africa supported the process. Thus, the narrative was an ongoing process involving examining the material and interview guide to inform category formation and discussion.

3 Results

3.1 Descriptive analysis of scoping review evidence

Gender

The gender scoping review included 70 papers from academic literature and grey literature. Nearly half of the academic papers were from South Africa. The country context is included in the text. Forty-three academic studies had clear focus on gender impact of social protection while others marginally mentioned possible gender-differentiated outcomes of different social protection programs or instruments.

The included articles focused on children, social and cultural attitudes, depression, education, empowerment, food security, gender perspective in general, in design and in implementation, HIV, maternal services, poverty, pregnancy, sexual behaviour and violence. Some of these studies are conceptually interlinked, such as sexual behaviour and HIV.

External shocks

The external shocks scoping review consisted of 70 academic and grey literature articles. The country contexts are indicated in text. Most studies identified on external shocks were “policy reviews”, which we categorised as papers examining and analysing particular social protection policies in detail for one or more countries. Twelve papers used quantitative methods, seven qualitative, and six papers used mixed methods. Two were systematic reviews, one a literature review, and one a “guidance note” on adapting social protection policies.

3.2 Thematic analysis: Gender equality

3.2.1 Evidence for social protection and gender equality in general

According to Kasente (35), African social security has focused on formal social security, which is often based on employment in the formal sector. This puts women, who are overrepresented in the informal sector, in a more disadvantaged position. Most social security forms that women are part of are directed at families (maternity and child benefits)(35). However, in Malawi (36) and South Africa (37) for example, beneficiaries of targeted social protection instruments are mostly women as they are from the most vulnerable segments of society, with little or no education and few economic opportunities. Women are therefore often also directly targeted by social protection programmes.

Our expert interviewees felt that there was not enough evidence to support the impact of social protection alone on gender equality.



Maidar Mavie, 2019.

3.2.2 Implementation issues surrounding social protection programmes for gender equality

Both Tebaldi et al. 2016 (38) and Peterman et al. (19) noted in their reviews that African social protection programmes show different levels of gender awareness and sensitivity in their designs and that there are few that have fully taken on board the gender perspective.

When discussing the implementation of social protection for gender equality, we need to note that while positive effects can be found, not all impacts are positive. Cash transfers for women can also strengthen existing gender norms (38), for example through the assumption that the woman is the one responsible for childcare. To impact women's empowerment and gender equality, other tools are also needed beyond just social protection (38, 39), such as access to training to increase the possibility of joining the labour market (38). The effects on redistribution and transformation from social protection instruments have been found to be small, in general, possibly due to implementation challenges (40). Studies have suggested that there are programmatic gaps that limit the possibilities to challenge existing inequalities between genders through social protection, such as women's equal participation in the labour market and agency in household or in community decision-making (41). Similarly, studies have suggested that cash grants alone cannot effect change or equality. Greater impact for women could be achieved if care facilities and social services were better developed, thus reducing the burden of care work and domestic responsibilities of women (9). Therefore, for larger impacts on women and girls' empowerment and gender equality, studies suggest that programmes need to be sensitive to beneficiaries' life circumstances, including age, interest and economic vulnerability, and adapted to local contexts (42).

Women may also face more barriers to accessing social protection than men. Goldblatt (43) found that while administrative inadequacies, illiteracy, poverty and disempowerment in South Africa limited access among both women and men, disabled women were more disadvantaged and challenged by the interaction between the social construction of gender and disability. Similar systemic and sociocultural barriers were also found in the urban safety net programme in Kenya (44). These barriers can stem from simply not owning an ID card (43).

*According to interviewees, most programmes in Africa that have a gender focus are social assistance. This is driven by the high rate of poverty and vulnerability among women, especially in rural communities. However, coverage remains low. **In addition, these programmes, where they exist, are not geared at producing high level empowerment but rather focus on meeting the bare minimum necessary for survival.** One of the reasons for this is the low amount of benefit that is distributed. Therefore, achieving gender equality aims might be expecting too much from these programmes because of their own design. In addition, some respondents note, as supported by the literature above, that to impact gender equality, a programme should be designed with a gender lens from the outset. They noted that this does not often happen. An example from the literature is the Women's Development Programme in Kwazulu-Natal, South Africa. The programme's main aim was women's development, but the implementation lacked narrative and impact in terms of empowerment and independence (37). Another interviewee highlighted these issues in implementation, giving the example of a social protection programme in Ethiopia. There, pregnant women are exempted from public works. The programme also planned to have day care centres for women who have participated in public works, but these are not often implemented. The programme suffers from lack of communication to midlevel government and implementers, meaning that they do not understand the reason for the gender equality basics and therefore don't implement them well.*

Some interviewees noted that conditionalities in cash transfers can cause a further burden to women, particularly in terms of time poverty, as they are responsible for meeting e.g. conditions on children's appointments.

3.2.3 Evidence of outcomes from different programmes

The scoping review exercise showed evidence of different types of programmes and their probable effects on gender equality, and the empowerment of women and girls. We categorised articles and papers thematically into poverty and food security, sexual and reproductive health and rights, gender-based violence (GBV) and intimate partner violence (IPV), and empowerment in general.



Willem Odendaal, 2016.

Poverty and food security

We found studies examining gender and poverty and food security from Ethiopia, Niger, Rwanda and the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC). The first focused on Ethiopia's Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP), which provided unconditional payments to the poor. The article suggested that during the COVID-19 pandemic, food insecurity increased the PSNP-mitigated negative impacts. However, the beneficiary mothers' and their children's diet diversity did not significantly change for a number of possible reasons, including low diversity prior to COVID-19, and lack of nutrition sensitivity of the programme. The PSNP seemed well targeted at poorer households, and importantly reduced the probability for engaging in coping strategies to compensate for food insecurity (e.g., reducing expenditures on education, health, agricultural inputs) (45).

Lumbasi (46) explored how targeting of conditional cash transfers influences intrahousehold decision-making. They examined the implications of cash transfers on the nutrition of pregnant and lactating women (PLW) and children under two years of age. Qualitative data indicated that while both spouses are eligible to receive the cash transfers, it is mainly the husbands who collect these, indicating that women have limited access to the cash transfer resources. Women also bear the main responsibility for observing the 'soft' conditionalities of cash transfer programming, thus reinforcing existing gender norms of women being responsible for care functions in the home. Dietary

diversity and meal frequency remained inadequate, suggesting that that PLW had limited control over decision-making to influence their and their children's nutrition. This shows that the interaction of PSNP targeting and 'soft' conditionalities along with pre-existing gender norms influences intrahousehold decision-making. Intra-household decision-making then affects the nutrition of PLW and children under two, emphasising the need for women's control over transfers (46).

A clustered randomised control trial targeting only women in Niger (47) tested three different packages on food security and consumption. They compared a cash grant with traditional graduation intervention, a cash grant with psycho-social interventions, and a cash grant with a psycho-social intervention with a control group with cash only. Each different variant increased investments, women-led off farm business activities and revenues, size of livestock and revenues from livestock more cost-effectively than the control cash transfer. They reported positive psychological and social wellbeing impacts and empowerment for women across the interventions.

A cohort study by McIlvaine et al. (48) analysed a 12-month social protection training and cash transfer programme for ultra-poor labour-constrained women in Rwanda and the DRC. While women had increased their incomes and savings, improved their health conditions, the effect was reportedly reduced by existing social and contextual barriers.

One of our interviewees suggested that the programmes should work toward women taking a more active role in entrepreneurship, digitalisation, education, and skills. They also raised the challenges where grants are short term – meaning people may be worse off, when a programme stops.

Mental health

Principe et al. (49) examined conditional cash transfers and their impact on mental health. Conditional cash transfers had no impact on depressive symptoms in the total sample, but there was a decrease in depressive symptoms among male participants and an increase in depressive symptoms among older adolescent female participants and female participants with children. The researchers hypothesised that activities related to the program's conditionalities, including taking children to health check-ups and confirming schooling might increase females' psychological stress and thus increase depressive symptoms among females. These activities are highly feminised tasks and may have increased females' already larger unpaid care workload compared to males (49).

Sexual and reproductive health and rights

We combined studies on HIV, pregnancies, sexual behaviour and maternal services under the broad umbrella of sexual and reproductive health and rights.

A randomised trial (50) in Zimbabwe investigated a cash transfer's effect on HIV risk behaviours. They found that cash transfers did not affect the percentage of sexual debut among 15–20-year-olds but it reduced recent sexual activity among young men and women. However, young men who were beneficiaries reported having multiple partnerships, suggesting a differential, but concerning effects for women and men. Cluver et al.'s (51) earlier South African findings also suggested that among 10–17-year-old girls, cash transfers and cash and in-kind aid can reduce psychosocial problems and HIV risk behaviours. These effects were the greatest for the most disadvantaged, with highest psychosocial and structural HIV risk.

Another South African study (51) looked at HIV risk behaviour incidence among 10–18-year-olds and the related effect of several social protection interventions, such as child-focused grants, free schooling, school feeding, teacher support and parental monitoring. All these interventions were independently associated with reduced HIV risk behaviour, and combined social protection showed cumulative effects. For males and females, free schooling and teacher support were associated with reduced risky sexual behaviour. For females, free food at school was associated with reduced risky sexual behaviour and pregnancy. Free schooling was associated with reduced incidence of transactional sex for females (sex in return for in-kind or financial support by older male partners) (51). Similarly, Toska et al. (52) investigated how combined social protection interventions can affect sexual risk taking in South Africa among female adolescents aged between 16–19. Cash-in-kind transfers as access to school, parental supervision and adolescent-sensitive clinic care were associated with lower rates of unprotected sex (52). A recent qualitative study done in South Africa also supports the influence of positive caregiving relations (family support and cohesion, emotional connection with caretakers) and cash transfer programmes, in a cash plus model, can reduce adolescent sexual risk-taking (53).

A Tanzanian qualitative study found two main mechanisms through which HIV risk could be reduced by decreasing young women's (aged 15–23) transactional sex. The programme's cash transfer seemed to reduce dependence on transactional sex, while its additional component, "cash plus" financial education helped young women feel more independent (54). More recently, a study in Northwest Tanzania (54) suggested that there might be some reduction in engagement in transactional relationships through cash transfers, but this influence varies by demographic background. Cash transfers gave adolescent girls the possibility to reject some transactional relationships whereas before enrolment in cash transfers they would have normally entered into those relationships

to get better financial options. Such relationships were described as less desirable and not providing long-term commitment. Cash transfers changed recipients' attitudes so that they would now prioritise safe and HIV negative partners over richer and less safe partners. The study suggested, however, that for a bigger impact there should be long-term economic improvement programs aiming to stable income for adolescent girls (55). The Tanzania Cash Plus Evaluation Team studied the Tanzanian Productive Social Safety Net (PSSN), finding that the programme resulted in some increases in contraceptive knowledge among adolescent girls, but not among boys, and no increase in overall contraceptive use. Fertility rates remained the same. This study showed no evidence that the PSSN programme would affect sexual behaviour, risky behaviour, transactional sex engagement or HIV risk, nor were there impacts on experiences of adolescent's girls emotional, physical, or sexual violence (56).

An unconditional cash transfer programme in Kenya for orphans and vulnerable children seemed to reduce the likelihood of pregnancy by five percentage points, but did not have a significant impact on early marriage for females aged 12-24 years. Possible pathways to explain reductions in pregnancies appeared to be school enrollment, delay in sexual debut or engagement in risky sexual behavior, income effect with increased household financial stability and increases in mental health and aspirations (8). Further research is required to analyse possible pathways and how they function in different contexts. For example, it is important to understand how cash transfers impact adulthood transitions for boys (57).

In the context of maternal services for rural women, one Kenyan and one Nigerian study investigated how vouchers and cash transfers could help rural women use maternal services. They found that conditional cash transfers in Kenya increased facility delivery rates when combined with vouchers (58) and increased the use of critical maternal and child health services in Nigeria (59).

Finally, the question of whether social protection affects fertility has been a key debate. Palermo et al. 2016 (60) studied whether unconditional cash transfers increased fertility. They found signs of a slight, temporary decrease in overall fertility among unconditional cash transfer recipients. Palermo et al. (60) suggested that the improved financial situation of women, through unconditional cash transfers, might better allow women to have the number of children they want, usually fewer, and increase the use of contraceptives. However, this impact is dependent on the availability of sufficient and quality family planning services (60). Similarly, Plagerson (9) noted that cash transfers were not linked to higher fertility rates.

Our interview respondents also suggested that there is a lack of linkages and coordination between social protection interventions and other social services such as health and education. However, given that in some settings health and education services remain underdeveloped, it is difficult for social protection to make sustained impacts, for example through cash plus programmes, combining cash with a service from education or health. In this view there is a call for heightened work towards improved public services and links to social protection. This can be undertaken through increased resource allocation in the education and health sectors as well as developing a deliberate policy of linking social protection beneficiaries to these services.



Willem Odendaal, 2016.

Empowerment

Women's empowerment can be conceptualised as a step closer to equality. A literature review examining cash transfers and women's empowerment in South Africa noted that while cash transfer recipients remain largely outside of the labour market, they can still empower women, for example with intra-household decision-making, access to the labour market and engaging in income producing activities. The review noted that grants were not linked to disincentives to work (61). A household survey (62) in South Africa proposed that child support grants enhance women's decision-making in financial matters, household spending and children's wellbeing, but noted that women continue to have a greater burden of care. A literature review by Patel et al. supported the positive effects on household decision-making (63). As cash transfers can also increase women's individual income, they can influence decision-making and financial independence (64). A large-scale study in six countries (Ethiopia, Ghana, Honduras, India, Pakistan and Peru) seems to suggest that a multifaceted programme, which includes temporary consumption support, asset transfers and training can result in long lasting progress for very poor women by combining social support with involvement in entrepreneurial activities (65).

One multi-country study suggested that cash transfers can have effects on gender equality. The two most common outcomes related to gender equality were preventive ones, the reduction or prevention of negative coping strategies and of violence. Cash transfers also had empowering and transformative effects and they seem to increase decision-making and control and redistribution of unpaid care and domestic work (66). In Tanzania, women beneficiaries of cash transfers had greater livelihood options and improved assets. Women also reported increased bargaining power and decision-making, as well as reduced marital conflicts and divorce (67).

The World Food Programme (WFP) studied the potential for their Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) programmes to support women's empowerment in five countries, including Niger, Kenya and Zimbabwe (68). The programme planned to address the immediate needs of women and men, and their communities, through food and/or cash-based transfers, while building or rehabilitating productive assets to realise long-term food security and resilience to shocks and stressors. The WFP found several changes which occurred due to linking the FFA aid and complementary actions together, rather than using them as single interventions. The cash (and food) transfers were necessary but insufficient in themselves to lead to women's empowerment, but combined with assets, work, the establishment of committees, awareness raising, technical training and other actions, contributed to women's empowerment (68).

Peterman et al. (19) examined Social Safety Net programs' impact on gender equality. They noted an increase in psychosocial wellbeing for women and moderate increase in dietary diversity and economic standing, but only a limited effect in food security and nutrition

and weak or mixed impact on women's empowerment and intra-household bargaining power(19).

A mixed-method study in Ghana investigated the effects of unconditional cash transfer in the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP 1000) programme on social support dynamics (69) for pregnant women and children under 12 months. The programme seemed to increase social support and improved women's access to financial markets, such as through borrowing money. Women who were beneficiaries of the programme also felt less need for economic support. Women also found new opportunities to support others. Similarly, in Ethiopia, a gender analysis (70) suggested that Ethiopia's PSNP has made advances in women's participation in rural public works programmes and addressed their gender needs, such as increasing the quantity and quality of food consumed, covering education expenses, creating community assets (e.g. water points). However, it would be important to integrate gender issues while looking at gender dynamics at the household and community levels and ensure that gender-sensitive mechanisms exist in programme governance structures(70).

Roelen et al. (71) examined household dynamics, social cohesion and women's empowerment in graduation programmes in Burundi. Graduation programmes aim at "graduating" individuals from extreme poverty and putting them on a path toward sustainable livelihoods. Roelen et. al found that the programme had positive effects on spousal relationships, adults were empowered to care for children better, and relationships with extended family improved. With the community, beneficiaries were more included, but also faced jealousy. Effects on women's empowerment were modest, where women were more confident but did not get more decision-making power.

Myamba (72) in Tanzania examined the Tanzania Social Action Fund (TASAF), and found that the fund could give women more control over household resources, time, and opportunity for leadership. Similarly, Aker et al. 2016 (73) noted that in a Niger mobile money experiment, cash transfers impacted on food diversity but also intrahousehold decision-making – where women could conceal receipt of the cash transfer when made through a mobile, and thus use it at their discretion. The gender of recipients of a cash transfer has been previously studied quite extensively for its effects. A systematic review (74) concluded that the gender of the transfer recipient affects the outcomes of some programmes globally. When transfers are targeted at women, they can improve children's wellbeing, however increasing female control of transfers do not guarantee positive outcomes (74).

Contrary to the above positive impacts of cash transfers, farm input subsidies targeted at women in Malawi reduced women's decision-making power in matrilineal communities. This could be because husbands gained control over production inputs (75).

Our interviewees suggested that there are gaps in coverage in general, but also gender gaps, where there is a substantial difference in access to social protection between women and men, with women overall having limited access to social protection. Household targeting means that social protection programmes often fail to recognise intra-household dynamics, which are influenced by gender, age and disability. There needs to be a lifecycle focus to address gender more specifically, with recognition of the income shocks that women face, also through their over-representation in the informal sector.

Child support grant

The child support grant is a common social protection instrument that supports households with children. In South Africa, it is one of the key instruments that reaches poor and vulnerable groups. Often it is not the only source of income, but families will have several income channels for their households. However, given the social and structural barriers for women's employment, such as high level of female unemployment, lower-level skills and absorption in the labour market, burdening domestic and care responsibilities with limited external support and childcare services, it is an important income source (76). However, a national panel survey (77) suggested that the Child Support Grant in South Africa has a negative impact on the probability of being employed and impacts both men and women. Importantly, this impact was strong on most deprived workers in the labour market and thus does not necessarily mean a dependency effect (reducing intention and willingness to work).

According to Patel et al., (39) the Child Support Grant in South Africa supports women's ability to control and allocate resources, which can have a positive impact on food security. While the Child Support Grant doesn't seem to increase employment, it helps women to meet basic needs and gives them more financial control (78). Some households receiving child support grants have reported increases in women's intra-household decision, mainly on women's own health-related issues (79). However, there was only a slight increase, likely because men are heads of households and may override women's decisions, and women may withhold dissenting opinions for this reason. Still, women described that as a result of the child support grant they felt more empowered and capable of retaining control over household investments and savings (79). In Zambia, the Child Grant Programme seemed to affect productive capacity, financial inclusion and psychological assets of rural women, yet social power, in terms of improved decision-making within the household, didn't seem to change (5).

Another Zambian study suggested that the Child Grant Programme can have beneficial effects on food security and consumption, children's material wellbeing and asset accumulation. These however don't necessarily affect women's decision-making and are seen more as a common household resource (80). Similarly in Nigeria, women reported using the Child Development Grant to purchase food for the target children. A qualitative study in Niger suggested that feeding the household is a primary use of unconditional cash transfers (81).

Peterman et al. (82) suggested that child support grants improved women's wellbeing. Women's savings and their participation in small businesses increased and their sense of autonomy in money-related issues improved, which also had an impact on their financial standing. However, despite the improvement in their wellbeing, there were only minor changes in the intra-household decision-making.

Despite these largely positive effects reported as a result of the Child Support Grant, challenges remain in applying the Grant in South Africa. According to a qualitative study, women were often humiliated by state officials (83). Travels to the state services are also long, which makes access difficult for the poorest groups (83). Some women also experienced stigma over being a grant recipient (84). Moodley & Slipjjer (85) also suggest that the Child Support Grant, without family support, cannot protect young South African mothers against depressive symptoms. As young mothers got older, they showed more depressive symptoms, which resulted in decreases in the size of the family households. Possible other interventions with child support grant could be needed for supporting young mothers without family support (85).

Five studies, one of which took place in Zambia, and the rest in South Africa, examined the effects of the Child Grant Programme and Child Support Grant on second pregnancies and fertility. The Child Support Grant can delay second pregnancies in rural areas in South Africa and among black teenagers (86, 87). However, while the Child Support Grant could first reduce fertility in teenage girls (88) in South Africa, it seemed to be only a temporary effect. In a Zambian study, the Grant did not seem to have negative or positive effects on long-term fertility (60). Overall, the Child Support Grant does not seem to increase teenage childbearing (89). Our findings are also in line with general knowledge that social protection does not have an impact on fertility.

At the community level, child support grants can facilitate solidarity and reciprocity, but the impact is rarely to bring perfect equality and the distribution is likely to be affected by different power relations. However, there are effects at the micro-level that can lead to positive social change over time for women and pensioners, especially and to boost their status and position in households and in communities (90).

One interviewee also noted that while women's positions in the household could be improved with transfers, it can potentially also lead to conflict and abuse along with other unintended consequences. Therefore, different kinds of policies and legal reforms and education are needed, and men should not be left out of these processes. Programmes should also be specific to the cultural and social circumstances, including gender roles, being mindful of to whom the grant is directed.

Gender-based violence and intimate partner violence

A literature review covering 28 global studies found that cash transfer programmes had a positive impact in reducing IPV (63). The study authors suggested that this was due to a common mechanism of reducing income stress, which could lead to frustration and possible fighting. Similarly, Buller et al. (91) reviewed IPV studies from low- and middle-income countries, noting a reduction in IPV in most cash transfer studies. They suggested that cash transfers could impact IPV through economic security and emotional wellbeing, intra-household conflict, and women's empowerment. Palermo (92) also suggested that cash transfers can increase economic wellbeing and reduce transactional sex; cash transfers to women can lead to more empowerment and reduce IPV, but power dynamic changes can also lead to violence. Complementary interventions were also noted in (91). Peterman, examining safety net programming in Africa, found reduced rates of IPV in their policy review (19).

A randomised controlled trial in Mali investigated the association between cash transfer and IPV in polygamous households (93). The trial showed cash transfers resulted in significant decreases in IPV. Similarly, a South African randomised controlled trial that lasted over three years showed that cash transfers reduced the annual risk of IPV for young women by 34 percent. Possible explanations for this were transfers delaying their sexual debut and by lowering the number of sexual partners (94). These effects were visible in physical and emotional violence and controlling behaviour. These results were stronger in monogamous households and particularly focused on second (and later) wives. Lees et al. (95) seem to show similar reductions in physical violence with cash transfers in Mali, but it seems that cash transfers directed at men maintained or even increased men's authority in the household. Similar promising effects were found in Ghana, where there were significant decreases in the frequency of emotional, physical and combined IPV, but no evidence of reduction in sexual or controlling behaviours in anti-poverty programming (82).

The Harmonized Social Cash Transfer Program (HSCT) in Zimbabwe combines cash transfers with complementary services. A survey (96) investigated the HSCT's effects on youth exposure to physical violence. Their main finding was that after four years of implementation, the programme seemed to reduce exposure to violence by 19 percentage points and suggested this was due to food security and improvements of wellbeing of caregivers and reduction in youth participation in economic work. The study found that while boys experience slightly more physical violence than girls, the cash transfer programme seems to reduce exposure to physical violence for both genders (96).

A cluster randomised control trial examined the impact of cash transfer interventions and life skills training on gender attitudes among 14-19-year-olds adolescents in Tanzania (97). The study measured attitudes on different areas of life such as violence, sexual relationships, reproductive health and domestic chores, and found that overall scores improved but only among males, with the strongest impact on domestic chores.

Concern Worldwide investigated the impact of short-term humanitarian cash transfers on intra-household power dynamics and the implications of gender norms for the design of livelihoods and resilience programs that use cash and asset transfers (98). In their qualitative studies, the researchers found that short-term emergency cash transfers to the often male head of households temporarily improve joint decision-making between women and men at the household level, and do not result in increased GBV. However, when a programme targets the wife as the beneficiary for long-term and high-value cash and asset transfers, there is a potentially high risk of increased GBV, abandonment and other negative impacts on the household. This is due to interventions empowering women to be economically independent being considered deeply threatening to traditional norms of masculinity in Malawi. However, these types of long-term programmes can offer an opportunity to implement the transformational gender norm change interventions required to address deep-rooted issues around masculinity and power. The researchers conclude that cash transfers can have a life-saving impact, supporting women and men's basic needs for food and other necessities during crises, without necessarily increasing GBV, but argue that long-term programmes, which integrate cash-based assistance into wider resilience-raising interventions, provide a means of promoting social norm and attitude change when issues of gender equality are explored and addressed throughout the programme (98).



Willem Odendaal, 2016.

Education

We found several different notes on education and cash transfers. Cash transfers had gender-differentiated impacts on schooling which also depended on the gender of the head of the household (99). A study from South Africa suggested women-directed child support grants decrease poverty within the poorest households and correlate with better health and education outcomes (9). Thakur (100) noted that social transfers can improve children's outcomes, including health, nutritional status and school attendance.

Schaefer et al. (50) found that cash transfers, in addition to their impact on HIV, increased school enrolment for male and female adolescents in Zimbabwe. Cash transfers increased school enrolment in both genders. In Malawi and Zambia, cash transfers had an impact on both poverty and schooling (101). In Somalia (102) cash transfers during droughts did not reduce girls' withdrawal from school but did reduce children's engagement in income producing activities.

The Tanzania Cash Plus Evaluation Team (56) studied Tanzania's PSSN and its impact on adolescent's wellbeing and transition to adulthood. The results revealed that the PSSN programme improved adolescent's literacy rates and school attendance significantly.

The study authors thought transfers may enhance the economic situation of families and therefore adolescents no longer needed to work outside of the home, but rather they could shift to working within their family's agriculture and animal herding businesses instead. Despite the enhanced economic situation, there was no impact in adolescent's involvement in domestic chores.

In Malawi, a study (103) assessed the schooling impacts of randomised intervention that lasted two years. Intervention was giving cash transfers to young women (currently in school or recently dropped out of school). Girls who were out of school increased their enrolments 2.5 times higher than their control group.

In South Sudan, the Girl's Education South Sudan (GESS) programme aimed to eliminate barriers to girls' education. A case study analysed the impact of the cash transfer component of GESS on girls' access and participation in education. Cash transfers were designed to cover costs of school-related items and, during economic collapse, it was able to cover more items. However, 63.8% of school-age girls did not enroll in school because of possible non-economic barriers. Also, cash transfers seemed to work better in primary school rather than secondary, for possible reasons such as too small cash transfers and opportunity costs for the households. However, the programme worked to some extent through drawing back girls who had dropped out of school midway through their primary education. Evidence from survey data shows the effects of these cash transfers on the economic empowerment of girls and women, and as part of a wider programme of attitudinal and behavioral change. The programme was effective despite the relatively low value of the cash transfers and the challenging context in which the programme was implemented. (104).

One of our interviewees noted there is a good example of a girls' education programme in Zambia. The Empowerment and Livelihoods project (GEWEL) has a component called the Keeping Girls in School (KGS) initiative. This is a government initiative with the support of partners aimed at addressing inequalities in educational attainment related to gender and poverty and at reducing secondary school drop-out rates among vulnerable adolescent girls.

3.3 Thematic analysis: External shocks

3.3.1 Evidence of social protection during external shocks in African countries

We considered external shocks to mean any climatic event, such as floods or droughts as well as natural disasters and their consequences such as famine or food insecurity. We included studies focusing on conflict, displacement, and humanitarian crises. We also included any natural disaster. Finally, we included the COVID-19 pandemic.

Sabates-Wheeler et al. 2021 (105) noted that social protection programmes continue to co-exist alongside humanitarian assistance, despite their expansion in the last two decades in Africa. They called for better integration of assistance delivered through the two channels. Magheru's (106) review on Cameroon found that there is much potential to scale up cash assistance, as currently only 15% of those in need are covered. The current social safety nets system is not yet able to cope with the huge demand of assistance, therefore requiring complementary humanitarian aid. However, governments are not confident of the effectiveness and efficiency of cash transfers in general, and particularly in some humanitarian contexts. At the core of the humanitarian and development approach should be strong and efficient national systems able to address the needs of their populations (106).

A WFP & Economic Policy Research Institute (EPRI) report from 2021 (107) indicated that COVID-19 and its mitigation measures have further pushed millions into food insecurity of "crisis-level or higher" in Southern Africa. Here, food security and nutrition sensitive social protection were key in bridging the divide between the humanitarian and development sectors. Unprecedented crises like COVID-19 require an immediate reactive response, which aligns with humanitarian instruments and objectives. Here, the challenges of informality and the needs of the urban poor needed to be addressed urgently. The second step towards a long-term, shock-responsive social protection system is to expand from emergency measures to longer-term development initiatives (107).

Some of our respondents in the interviews remarked that there is need to distinguish social protection from humanitarian interventions. The reason behind this view was that policies for emergencies need to be planned differently from social protection systems. However, sometimes, social protection systems can also be built up from humanitarian responses. Many interviewees suggested planning social protection systems that build the resilience of individuals and households, so that when shocks do happen,

they're able to withstand and recover from them, and then adapting it for different shocks. Overall, to ensure shock-responsive social protection, there needs to be better coordination across governments, humanitarian actors and development partners. When both national systems and humanitarian actors respond to shocks, there are often duplications of delivery systems and issues such as paying different amounts even within the same community.

However, some interviewees noted that there is little evidence of long-term impact of the use of social protection in humanitarian crises on people's wellbeing and resilience. By design, interventions for shocks and crises have a short life span, only targeting the affected population and transfers are cash or in-kind but are of too little in value to leave a significant mark on the beneficiaries other than merely sustaining their lives for a situated period. These interventions are not strong in terms of building resilience. Consequently, commonly the same households receive support during different shocks. There are deep, chronic vulnerabilities related to conflict, environment and health, and often the social protection systems are not developed enough to address these issues sustainably.

Our respondents noted that until recently, the Mozambican social protection sector did not factor in shocks at all, even when shocks are recurrent and predictable in nature, such as droughts. This has, however, improved since the COVID-19 pandemic (see discussion on the pandemic response below). As a first step when building shock-responsive systems, countries should try to understand the recurrent predictable shocks that affect the country and plan towards those. This could mean raising thresholds for eligibility in shock prone areas and integrating activities within shock prone areas as well as aiming at mitigation and preparedness for future shocks and developing protocols that can support better responses in the future. Existing programmes are not clear on eligibility and targeting. Another key issue is the adequacy of the transfer. However, often relatively easy tweaks, such as vertical expansions, can be planned ahead in order to better respond to shocks.

Social protection systems should be strategically thought through in terms of strategy and policy, including linkages with other sectors and future response potential. Shock-responsive systems in African countries, as elsewhere, require an expanding fiscal space, institutional capacity

and infrastructure. Adequate human resources are essential for the implementation, and data on eligible people needs to be considered. One example of this is the Kenya Hunger Safety Net programme, where the whole population was registered, but the value of such effort needs to be considered. There is also the matter of political will – often the people most affected by the shocks don't hold much political power. Also, when there are efforts to build systems, they are mostly targeted at climatic shocks, but don't factor in e.g. displaced people. Governments and humanitarian actors are also incentivised to keep the status quo for different reasons, but there is also much interest to be more strategic towards more shock-responsive systems.

Interviewees gave some examples of social protection interventions to address external shocks from Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique and the Sahel area. However, the impacts of these interventions on resilience are difficult to establish. Our interviewees confirmed the findings in our literature review, suggesting that there is little evidence and scholarship on social protection and shocks, and therefore little knowledge of impact. This situation suggests the need for more research on shock-responsive social protection. Our interviewees also suggested that while there's more evidence and work around gender and humanitarian issues, linking these with shock-responsive social protection isn't frequent.

3.3.2 Evidence of outcomes of different programmes targeted at shocks

COVID-19 social protection responses

Globally social protection programmes have become a strategic tool to respond to effect of the COVID-19 pandemic containment measures. The IPC-IG (International Policy Centre for Inclusive Growth) identified 172 different social protection responses for COVID-19 in Africa (108). Most were social assistance (164) and rest were social insurance (8). The main target groups were poor and vulnerable (45%), vulnerable individuals (41%), formal workers (7%), informal workers (11%) and universal (1%). The type of support was mainly cash (38.4%) and liquidity alleviation (37.8%). In-kind support was also used (19.7%), as were support combinations. Evidence from Nigeria suggests that cash transfers were more preferred and more cost-effective than in-kind transfers (109).

Several governments in West and Central Africa (Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, the DRC, Gabon, Mauritania, Senegal) and Southern Africa (Botswana, Lesotho, Mauritius, South Africa) established special funds to mitigate COVID-19 impacts (110). The Kenyan government, for example (111), executed several social policy interventions including cuts in taxes, cash transfers and public works programmes. The South African government adjusted social assistance packages (112), specifically the Child Support Grant, old age pensions, foster child grants, disability care and care dependency grants (113). Studies (114-116) suggested that the Child Support Grant boost policy delivered resources progressively, especially for the poorest decile, but that the poorest 30% saw a decline in total resources and concurrently the top deciles saw increased support (114). According to a survey analysis, old age pension in South Africa did not seem to be optimal for informal workers as an emergency relief, a better alternative was a mix of the Child Support Grant and a COVID-19 grant (117).

The implementation of COVID-19 support was limited by the fiscal space of countries and their implementation capacity, as well as political will (118). In South Africa, implementation was delayed because of delivery capacity (119) including administrative capacity (116), as was noted for other African countries (120). There was a general need to supplement government responses with additional capacity, expertise and advice (121). However, resources were a key question. South Africa's emergency operations for COVID-19 cost at least 2% of GDP, while Botswana had a modest operation costing well under 1% of GDP. The Zambian government used scarce resources to fund alternative programmes, especially farmer support, and expected donors to fund emergency cash transfers. In West and Eastern Africa, governments in general gave more subsidies, such as water and electricity. In-kind transfers, especially food, were used in 25 African countries but often they were short-term (122). While South Africa has a strong social protection system and could adjust, in Zimbabwe, the COVID-19 response was inadequate and temporary because of a lack of firm pandemic plans (123), and the prolonged economic crisis made it impossible to have a wider response. In general, low- and middle-income countries can develop an emergency safety net with extensive coverage, but it requires broader solutions than in higher-income countries. UNU-WIDER performed a cross-country comparison across Ghana, Mozambique, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia, and suggested that the COVID-19 tax and benefit packages had limited stabilising power and gaps in coverage of the informal sector (124).

Gerard et al. (125) suggests an expansion of the social insurance system, building on existing social assistance programmes and involving local governments and non-state institutions to identify and assist vulnerable groups who have not yet been reached. However, a key challenge to implementation is available data on vulnerable groups (126). Poor data quality from existing systems means that complementary approaches are needed to identify potential beneficiaries (118, 127). Indeed, some governments

(Nigeria and South Africa) used satellite imagery-based poverty mapping systems and digital technology to identify, register, and deliver relief packages (128). The importance of registers and data in the social protection response for COVID-19 was also highlighted, (121) suggesting that where there already were efforts to harmonise registers from different actors, and therefore implementation was easier.

There were also gender challenges to implementing COVID-19 responses. A case study by Holmes & Hunt (129) analysed responses to COVID-19 in South Africa and their possible gender implications. They noted several negative effects on women, from employment potential to mental health and violence. South Africa proposed the Caregiver Allowance during COVID-19 which had an impact on improving poverty but had problems with gender-specific needs (129). The COVID-19 grant also seemed to have been more beneficial to unemployed men than women, while women represent greater share of the unemployed (112). In Ethiopia, the pandemic showed gaps in a shock-responsive safety net and in leveraging informal networks and institutions for gender-sensitive response and recovery mechanisms (130). One example of a gender sensitive response was from Kenya, where in addition to cash transfers, a programme included specific support for victims of sexual and gender-based violence, including referrals to health services, including financial support; legal support; police; social services and safe shelters (131). They noted that the programme had promising effects on sex and gender-based violence survivors, poverty and inequality.

The COVID-19 responses helped in economic shock, but also impacted on health. A cash transfer programme in Togo increased health service use (132), and also reduced household care burdens, relevant for women in particular. Some studies called for mental health promotion, prevention and treatment interventions to be added to cash transfers (133), for particularly the young (134). For refugee populations, Innovation for Poverty Action 2021 (135) reported that large cash lump sum payments in the Kiryandongo Refugee Settlement in Uganda increased mask wearing and improved food security, and resulted in some positive psychological impacts. Ethiopia's PSNP ameliorated COVID-19 impacts on food security (45), as also stated elsewhere in this report. In Kenya, a universal basic income programme modestly improved food security and improved physical and mental health (135).

The COVID-19 response provided general lessons for social protection implementation, including mobile money used by governments in Togo and innovative data collection (136), the importance of considering people's views in programme implementation (126) and having available grievance channels for beneficiaries (121).

De Lima Viera et al. 2020 (137) analysed Mozambique's response to COVID-19 and reaching the most vulnerable. Mozambique responded through expanding its social protection

system, prioritising the most vulnerable populations. In their report, the ILO lauded it as a rapid, innovative and coordinated response, which was in essence an expansion of a non-contributory social protection program. The COVID-19 Post-Emergency Direct Social Support Program (PASD-PE) is a 6-month cash payment programme, which identified individuals from a waiting list of social support, existing beneficiaries and poor people. The programme was entirely externally funded. Information about the PASD-PE programme identified was, however, partly contradictory. According to Gentilini, Laughton & O'Brien (138), PASD-PE was designed as an unconditional cash transfer to allow a smooth transition from the humanitarian response post-emergency. The plan was to provide temporary support for 12 months, and after that refer beneficiaries to other programmes if needed. During 2018, PASD-PE was being implemented in three districts in Southern Mozambique, supporting 18,500 households. However, another report (139) noted that elements of PASD-PE (amount of transfer) had been used when responding to shocks, but the programme itself had faced delays in implementation. They mentioned that after Hurricane Ida, there were plans to use PASD-PE to provide support for the affected (139). A UNICEF (2021) report mentions the PASD-PE being established in response to the El Niño, Idai and Kenneth emergencies, and that there were still funds being directed towards the PASD-PE response to Idai and Kenneth 2019 as of last year, even though PASD-PE is planned as short income support. After six months of emergency support, most of the PASD-PE beneficiaries should be enrolled into regular social protection programs (PSSB, PASD, PASP) depending on their characteristics.

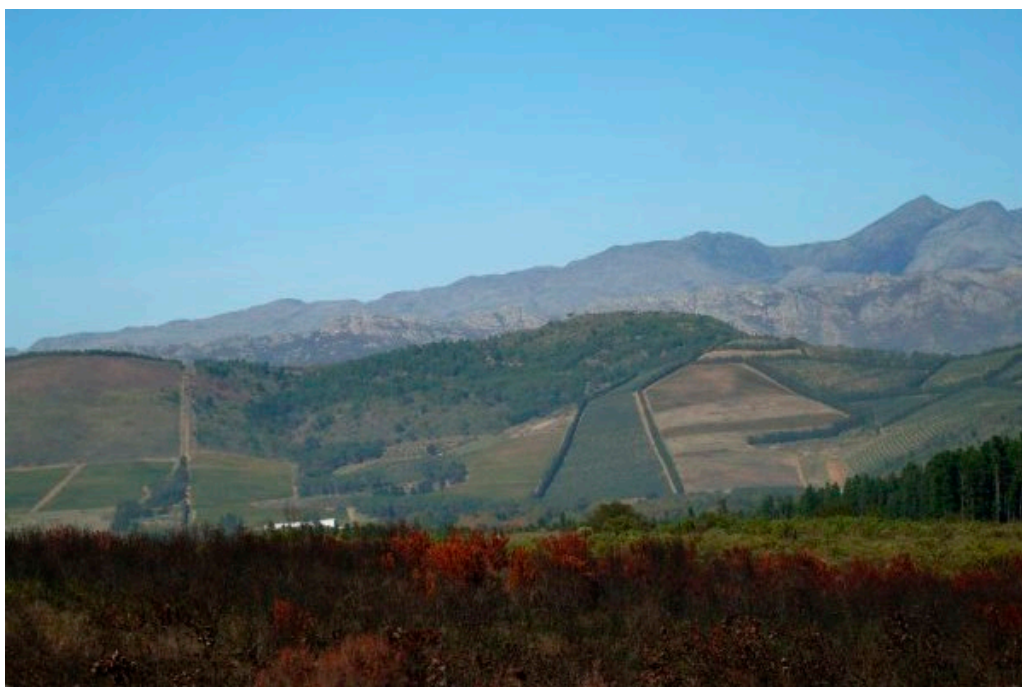
The World Bank (140) report describes how the government of Mozambique activated a COVID-19 pandemic-specific social support programme under the PASD-PE. Its design was based on previous experiences of the social protection programs being adapted for shocks responses, such as El Niño in 2016 and the Idai and Kenneth cyclones in 2019. By providing temporary, unconditional cash transfers of MZN 1,500 per month, for a period of six months, the programme mitigates the socioeconomic shock caused by COVID-19 among new beneficiaries. According to UNICEF (141), in addition to this PASD-PE "COVID-19" program, the Social Protection COVID-19 Response Plan approved by the government of Mozambique consisted of three months of top-ups for all existing beneficiaries channelled through the programs they are enrolled in (i.e., PSSB, PASP or PASD), entirely funded through external resources.

UNICEF (141) also notes that there have been very low execution rates in their externally-funded social protection programmes in Mozambique. PASD-PE, for example, had an execution rate of 65 percent. This resulted in insufficient or delayed response to beneficiaries in need of immediate assistance. In fact, about 10% of the beneficiary households did not receive assistance when it was most needed. During the pandemic, there were delays in acquiring mobile phones for new beneficiaries enrolled in the PASD-PE "COVID-19" program. It is important to ensure full execution of the budget

particularly in the context of emergency response, and in the specific case of the PASD-PE, there is a need for the National Institute of Social Action (INAS) to reinforce capacity to cope with the ongoing needs and make sure benefits reach people in need immediately after the shock (141).

Expert interviewees also raised issues of social protection implementation for gender and external shocks, including capacity of human resources to implement such programmes and their skills and knowledge. Implementation of social protection interventions suffer from lack of adequate human resources in most of Central, Eastern, Western and Southern Africa. The population increase and changing nature of social problems has resulted in the need for increased and trained human resources. However, staffing levels and knowledge and skills have remained undeveloped for the type of work they undertake. Despite the existence of initiatives such as TRANSFORM training by ILO and partners, there is still a gap in both research and advocacy skills and general human resource capacity, impacting on social protection intervention delivery in general.

Our interviewees also raised the importance of fiscal space for implementation. Most countries in Africa have seen an expansion in their social protection programmes - particularly social assistance. However, some experts have argued that social protection programmes in Africa are heavily reliant on external support not only in terms of financing but also in the institutional arena, including how these policies are introduced. The research showed that in some situations countries developed policies and interventions with support of development partners but there was no government-continued resource support to sustain them. Countries that have shown political will and allocated finances are, however, struggling due to insufficient funds and lack of fiscal space stemming from low economic performance amidst the question of priorities. Therefore, there is the need for more active involvement on the part of governments to embrace these policies both in terms of finances as well as legal and policy framework so that these interventions are provided as a matter of right.



Salla Atkins, 2008.

Climate

For maximum effect, evidence suggests that social protection needs to be in place before a climatic shock occurs. Premand & Stoeffler (142) reported on a multiyear government cash programme in Niger for climatic shocks mitigation and resilience. They found that it helped households manage climatic shocks, increasing household consumption, facilitating savings and smoothing incomes. They suggested that as the transfer was present before the shock, it is more effective than emergency relief, a view corroborated by (143). Similarly, Ulrichs and Slater (144, 145) suggest that well-implemented and regular cash transfers can increase a population's absorptive capacity. Social protection programmes before climatic shocks are effective particularly where resilience objectives are in the design and implementation. They also noted that there was not enough evidence on how social protection during climatic shock furthers long-term adaptation and sustainable livelihoods. As programmes can have unintended adaptive features, but also maladaptive features, climate risk implications are needed to be considered in programme design (144, 145). Cash transfers have also been found to increase migration of men for economic opportunities (146).

In addition to the above suggestions, we found several policy papers and analyses, suggesting how social protection should be designed to respond to climate change. Conway (147) analysed climate projections on rainfall and effects of social protection. They suggested that the Ethiopian PSNP shows that social protection programmes should

emphasise long-term thinking of securing livelihoods and reducing vulnerability. Social protection can have potential impacts on the long-term cost and duration if the shocks are stronger than the building efforts of the programme. Monitoring of rainfall (147), forecasting (143, 148) and early warning systems (149) are important, as are vulnerability assessment of the beneficiaries (147). Schwan and Yu (150) recommended, on the basis of Ethiopian evidence, that climate proofing social protection requires better predictability and adequacy and support, flexibility, and timing to reduce maladaptive coping strategies and migration. (147).

Different studies also raised practical implementation issues regarding the implementation of climate sensitive social protection. The World Bank (151) suggested that a pre-assessment is needed, assessing available technology, financial institutions, legal framework, beneficiary access and preferences and potential service providers. Implementation requires familiarity with the political, institutional and legal context, as well as the societal context. Other studies focused on targeting insurance programmes, technical assistance, disaster risk reduction laws, natural capital protection and compensation programs (152) and monitoring and evaluation (153). In implementation, studies suggested payment transfer systems need to be improved (149), including using innovative technology to improve access (152).

Targeting beneficiaries also requires careful consideration (151), including flexibility in beneficiaries and packages to reduce vulnerability and increase resilience (149). Geographical, proxy means testing and household economy analyses were also suggested (154).

Finally, Haug et al. stressed empowering vulnerable groups and using local knowledge in design (155, 156). They also highlighted the lack of integration between sectors (152) and cooperation between support programmes (153, 155, 156). For example, Kardan and O'Brien (157) discussed Lesotho's experience for building social protection for disaster response, particularly climate shock. Lesotho had used a piggybacking approach building on the existing Child Grants Programme response. They found that the expansion was overall good but was hampered by lack of coordination. (155, 156).

The importance of cross-sectoral collaboration and monitoring and evaluation, and sharing results were also raised by expert interviewees. Data, monitoring and evaluation emerged as a key issue in the implementation of social protection interventions. In many settings in Africa, there is a lack of data, firstly to establish who is eligible for these programmes, and secondly to assess programme impacts. Respondents thought many programmes are not designed with evaluation in mind, which would be key. The issue of data, monitoring and evaluation is compounded by the lack of coordination between institutions, meaning that impacts beyond a cash transfer are difficult to estimate.

Natural disaster

Natural disasters in Africa were found mainly into the category of drought or floods. At a general disaster risk management level, UNICEF (2021) analysed gender integration in national and regional disaster risk management frameworks in Eastern and Southern Africa, finding that implementation varies greatly according to country capacity (158). They suggested that gender responses need to be better integrated into disaster frameworks.



Maidar Mavie, 2019.

Drought

Linked closely to climate change, drought is also an external shock that may impact the wellbeing of individuals. In Ethiopia, drought and illness are the two major shocks impacting food security and general wellbeing (159). A study examining the PSNP for its shock response found that it improved households' food security and wellbeing, but didn't completely protect recipients against severe shock impacts. Sabates-Wheeler et al. (105) examined expanding social protection coverage with humanitarian aid in Ethiopia after a drought, where progress was hampered by limited evidence of whether different sectors can collaborate. The study assessed differences in targeting and transfer values and found that social protection and humanitarian interventions were targeted at households with different characteristics, to food insecure and acute vulnerable households, respectively.

Findings suggest that social protection systems are able to effectively deliver support in response to different vulnerabilities and shocks. However, the ongoing conflict in Ethiopia and resulting disruption highlights how the shock itself dictates the intervention. Conflict and crises that disrupts systems of provision underline the need for solely humanitarian support (105).

There seemed to be different alternatives for countering the effects of drought. Oxfam (160) piloted a water cash transfer and community level cash transfer to collectively buy water in Somaliland. They found that both approaches met critical water needs effectively and cost-efficiently. They thought this could also work inempowering women or other marginalised groups as they could have an opportunity to control resources, if the programme is designed through a gender lens. Gender outcomes were also considered in USAID 2019 (102), where a cash transfer programme was implemented during Somalia's drought. They noted an increased level of violence, because recipients were from the most vulnerable populations; but it allowed women to reduce interaction with violent groups.

In Zimbabwe, a survey (161) was conducted to assess the possibility of unconditional cash transfers giving opportunities to recipients for future droughts. Transfers would need to prioritise food items in the households. While communities supported unconditional cash, they believed it should be combined with other locally suited drought mitigation measures, especially focusing on livestock and curb losses (161). Evidence from a Niger study suggested that mobile delivery of cash transfers might be acceptable to recipients to receive transfers, and cost-effective for the implementing agency (162).

In Mozambique, the WFP (163) reported on a Department for International Development (DFID)-funded programme to provide cash transfers or commodity vouchers to around 120,000 beneficiaries in the Tete province. They linked the lean season assistance to existing social protection recipients, similar in amount to the then planned PASD-PE. These linkages were a part of broader shock-responsive social protection and adaptive social protection thinking in the country. Cash is rarely used in disaster response in Mozambique because of government concerns on dependency, expectations, responsible spending and market access. The programme links with existing social protection systems enabled the project to provide unconditional cash transfers to drought affected households, which may help on-going advocacy efforts to use cash transfers in disaster response.

Food security

According to a survey assessment of the PSNP implemented in Ethiopia, food transfers and combined packages of food and cash seemed to be better than cash transfers alone, where they increased income, growth, livestock accumulation and self-reported food security. The efficacy of food transfers and combined food and cash transfers seems to be

explained by the inability of un-indexed cash transfers to maintain their purchasing power when the prices of commodities increase, they lose their value while food transfers keep their value (164). A similar finding was reported in Niger, where different combinations of support were used. Here, food aid alone had no impact, but pronounced positive effects were found if food aid was paired with asset-based programming (165).

The implementation of social protection for food security has also reportedly faced challenges in Niger, where several programmes in similar areas have created confusion, anxiety and discord, particularly in relation to targeting (166). Studies suggested better communication and more transparency is needed, along with community consultation during implementation (166).

Where climate affects food security in a seasonal pattern, employment outside the agricultural sector is needed to combat seasonal hunger (155, 156). This may be challenging in settings of high unemployment and poverty.

Conflict

Conflict is an external shock that affects the security, but also the economic, social and wellbeing situation of communities. A paper discussing the situation in the DRC suggested that cash as humanitarian aid is only a small portion of overall aid, and in-kind assistance is often given. According to Bailey (167), cash is often not considered where it should be.

Different support alternatives have been also studied. For example, cash and voucher assistance in Somalia increased the number of meals per day, improved overall nutrition for children and increased the amount and consistency of monthly income. Studies also found that food and water insecurities are worse for non-recipients and women (102). In Cameroon, where most Central African Republic refugees are housed, Plan International (168) conducted a feasibility study of cash and voucher programming in Cameroon. They found a feasible intervention would need acceptance by community, vendors and others, functional markets, and coordination with agencies, as well as implementation capacity and a favourable security situation.

In terms of education, a study in Mali during a conflict (169) indicated children receiving school meals were 10% more likely to be enrolled in school and complete a half-year of education than the comparison group, while general food distribution (GFD) actually led to a 20% reduction in school attendance among boys. The programme also had a gendered effect, where school feeding led to lower participation in work particularly among girls, but the GFD increased child labour especially among boys (169). Similarly, the World Bank (170) in South Sudan found that while project designs were rarely gender informed, there were positive indications of schooling-related benefits.

Similarly to our study, Cooper's (171) review of conflict-affected and fragile states suggested that there is little evidence of long-term impact, and that responses are often donor funded and implemented by external agencies and NGOs with differing degrees of government response. The lack of evidence was suggested to be caused by the difficulty of performing evaluations in these contexts.

Displaced People

Linked closely to conflict, displaced people are a specific vulnerable group needing coverage. A case study focusing on displaced people in North Kivu 2012-2013 in the DRC showed how the humanitarian system can be operating in narrowly defined limits and thus restrict options for displaced populations (172).

Interventions among displaced people seem to have had mixed effects. A randomised controlled trial assessing the impacts of cash transfers versus voucher transfers among displaced people in the DRC (173) suggested that while purchases differed with specific items (voucher recipients purchased salt in greater quantities), there were no differences in consumption for wellbeing between different transfers. Another study among displaced people in the DRC did not find differential effects of cash and voucher transfers on income, assets or food security (174). The study did note, however, that the cash transfer allowed for some cash saving among households and that the cash transfer programme was also more cost-effective for the implementing agency. Studies noted that the efficacy of cash transfers requires available markets (174).

According to Bailey (175), social protection in Mozambique could be used during natural disasters and in supporting the long-term refugee population. Data from 2015 shows that it would be 24% cheaper to use cash transfers to support the small, long-term refugee population at the Maratane camp in Mozambique than to provide in-kind aid. Cash transfers would not only be a more dignified way of providing assistance, but also create efficiency gains, support local traders, connect refugees to existing financial systems, capitalise on digital payment infrastructure and potentially allow the eventual transition to an approach that more closely resembles a targeted social protection programme. Donors would need to provide dedicated, multi-year resources to enable a shift to cash transfers, and reinforce the government's central role in protecting and assisting refugees and build government capacity to manage the programme.

3.4 Issues emerging from interviews: Disability, community engagement and decolonization

Some interviewees expressed concern that, with the gains made towards gender equality and empowerment of women, albeit not clear in some situations, there is still a gap with regards to social protection interventions for persons with disabilities. A working example cited as good intervention is the SCT in Zambia, where persons with disabilities are receiving double the amount of transfer received by other vulnerable groups such as the elderly, female and child headed households under the SCT programme. Engagements with experts suggested the need to examine appropriate interventions for persons with disabilities given the various challenges they face in most of Africa.

Some of our expert interviewees noted that there are concerns that African countries' conception of social protection follows the Western model, and to some extent ignores the context of Africa where local communities and families played a significant role in the provision of welfare services and care for vulnerable groups. Given this situation, there are some studies that focus on non-state social protection that include values and community-based mechanisms that exist and have existed for centuries. These mechanisms and values have a principal role in the community and in the social protection provision in Africa.

Views on the global versus African perspective were supported by literature (e.g. (19)), suggesting that interventions designed from an African perspective could show more improvement in terms of gender equality and empowerment than those implemented in Africa from a global perspective.

4 Discussion

Overall, our report has highlighted findings on social protection and their implementation for gender equality and during external shocks. Consistently across both topics, it was clear that social protection, or particularly cash programming alone, was not sufficient for achieving impacts, but other services are needed (e.g. (33)). For gender empowerment, for example, authors suggested that there is no one-size-fits-all possibility, but programmes need to be sensitive to life circumstances and local contexts (42), including the sociocultural context. During external shocks, functional markets to spend the cash (176) and support services beyond financial support (e.g. (131)) are needed. We found relatively few papers that discussed both a crisis or external shock and gender influences, and suggest that more research needs to be conducted in this area.

It seems, though, that social protection interventions can have several beneficial impacts on the wellbeing of individuals in African countries. We noted for women and girls in particular, social protection can reduce possibilities of being infected with HIV; improve resilience; improve schooling attendance; reduce poverty and food insecurity and reduce rates of violence. Similarly to evidence from Finland (177), conditional cash transfers can also promote attendance in antenatal care and key maternal services in Nigeria (59). However, as can be seen in the COVID-19 response in African countries, there remain large gaps in the implementation and reaching informal workers in particular (124), a majority of whom are women. UNICEF and the government of Mozambique are currently evaluating the effects of the country's Child Grant programme, which may contribute towards further findings in gender equality and empowerment.

In terms of the expansion of programmes, and their response to gender equality and external shocks, our study has highlighted the importance of political will, fiscal space, and policies governing social protection. Our respondents suggested "tweaks" to systems to expand during external shocks, such as altering eligibility and targeting systems, while for gender equality it was clear that starting with a gender lens from the outset and following this closely throughout the process was important. During expansion and "tweaking" of policies, explicit connections should be made with different services to amplify effects, coordinating across sectors. Expansions should also be mindful of the personal and social settings of recipients, and focus on the entire lifecycle. Efforts to expand social protection coverage in Africa have gained momentum despite challenges in official space highlighted by most interview. There has been horizontal and vertical expansions, particularly in the area of social assistance programmes (110). Owing to greater efforts to extend old age

protection for example, about 27 percent of Africa’s older population now receive a pension, and some countries, such as Botswana, Cabo Verde, Lesotho, Mauritius and Namibia have reached, or approached, universal pension coverage (4). However, there remains the task of extending social protection using a two-tier system, namely increasing beneficiaries for the non-contributory schemes, and developing innovative contributory schemes that respond to the short- and long-term needs of people working in the informal economy. Such a scheme should correspond and be compatible with the values, beliefs and needs of informal economy workers (178). To do so, countries should pay particular attention to factors that hinder the expansion of contributory schemes, including the large informal sector and the existing legal and institutional framework that create structural barriers for the expansion of social protection to all, especially those in the informal economy. The SPACE project outlines well the issues that we should be building on (see Figure 1 below).

Figure 1. Social protection “solar” system



Source: Visuals developed by SPACE – Social protection responses to Covid-19: <https://socialprotection.org/connect/communities/social-protection-responses-covid-19-task-force>

The programme clearly outlines the interlinked spheres where impact could be achieved from implementation and delivery, programme design, and policy.

Issues of graduation from programmes, as well as engagement in general entrepreneurship programmes, was little discussed in literature, however, as raised by our experts, people may be worse off after the programme stops and the grant is no longer available. Attention should be paid to the graduation aspect, as well as the long-term implementation of such programmes. Graduation, however, does not substitute functional social protection programmes, but can work toward the economic inclusion of the poorest subset of the population (179). Good examples of such efforts can be found in Bangladesh (179).

Our review on external shocks and social protection resulted in far less evidence of positive effect. There was a dearth of evidence on implementation effects, due to the challenges in performing monitoring and evaluation during shocks. From outside Africa, there are more examples of disaster management social protection, notably the Watan Card Programme from Pakistan. Studies on the programme suggest that disaster relief programmes enable more than just property recovery and physical relief but also provide mental relief and restore hope and ambition. When state delivers services effectively, the negative impacts of natural disasters on social cohesion and trust can be reduced (180). Importantly, our review highlights that in order for social protection to adapt and transform during shocks, a strong social protection system needs to be in place before the shock itself (e.g. (142)).

There are several implementation issues that need to be considered when implementing these programmes. Data and identifying potential beneficiaries are key to providing services for the most vulnerable. Many articles (e.g. (118, 127)) published e.g. during the COVID-19 response suggested that where data was in place from other registries, there were problems in data quality and coverage. Innovation was needed in establishing who should be targeted by social protection responses. A good example of such innovation came from South Africa and Nigeria, where satellites were used (128). Existing administrative and operating capacity, as well as fiscal space influencing these, also emerged as key considerations when planning social protection operations. For women, some barriers to accessing social protection included the lack of ID cards (43). This points to the importance of strengthening birth registration, as the very basic data form, to allow both identifying who needs assistance, while also supporting access to social protection.

According to our expert interviews, monitoring and evaluation and appropriate data systems did indeed seem to be key in the effective implementation of social protection programmes for both gender equality and during external shocks. Owino (181) examined

the implementation of social protection in Somalia. The study concluded that several inoperable data systems are hampering system harmonisation, which would enable adequate data collection, monitoring and evaluation. Countering these encountered technical, legal and political constraints limiting the harmonisation potential. This situation is likely similar also in other low- and middle-income settings in Africa, though not with such a fragile history as Somalia. These lessons could also be generalised to Mozambique and Mozambican data systems across different institutions, which may hamper the development of multisectoral interventions. The EU Social Protection Systems Programme specifically developed monitoring and evaluation tools. They highlighted that building monitoring and evaluation in social protection programmes requires demand driven, government owned, integrative, comprehensive contextually limited capacity building (182).

There are broader influences on the effectiveness of programmes for gender equality and external shocks than the availability of data and the administrative functioning. The political will, acceptance of the type of support both politically and within the community area also important. This influences the aims of policies and their focus. For example, in gender equality, studies and our interviewees suggested a gender lens should be present from the beginning of a programme. However, some evidence in our review suggests that where this is the case, and gender is an explicit aim, programmes may still not operate to impact on gender equality (37). Influencing gender outcomes, or other equality outcomes, requires a constant gender and equity analysis and impact analysis throughout programme conception, operationalisation, implementation and evaluation. If operationalised or implemented poorly, programmes may inadvertently even reinforce traditional gender-based inequalities, and a wider set of policies and strategies are needed in addition to social protection (38). Any social protection programme is in its own set of sociocultural constraints, which need to be considered during implementation.

Strengthening multisectoral interventions, such as access to social services and access to basic services (water, electricity, transport, internet etc.) could be helpful for achieving a higher impact on gender equality (40), but is also necessary for social protection during external shocks. Given the need for other interventions beyond simple cash transfers to change gender equality, or respond to increased or reduced rainfall, collaboration across different sectors in particular is important. Our review notes that coordination between different sectors to achieve programme aims is necessary, but often implemented poorly (156). For reducing young women's HIV rates, for example, social support or empowerment interventions in addition to cash transfers can be more effective than cash transfers alone (53). For droughts, farming management training or other employment training (161) can provide increased and potentially longer-lasting benefits when provided with cash transfers.

Finally, both our interviews and papers in this review highlighted that global approaches to social protection may not work in the African setting, and approaches should be locally driven, considering the country's cultural and social setting. For example, labour markets in Africa are more complex than those in Europe (183), meaning that European-built systems will not operate in the same way. The sociocultural setting differs across countries and within countries in Africa, itself, as well as Europe. Careful consideration, informed by rigorous monitoring and evaluation, should be taken when transferring systems from one setting to another.

Our study is limited by several factors. As already indicated in the introduction, there was a clear lack of representation of other genders in the analysis. Concurrently, gender equality in this study is largely represented by interventions directed at women and girls. For external shocks, information is extremely limited despite our broad search strategy, also including organisational papers. Our keywords did not include "education" or "schooling" as keywords, and so our review did not reach a full picture of social protection's impact on education. At the same time, our databases were limited to social sciences, meaning that many health impacts of social protection, a large and varied field of study, are likely not fully included in this report. A more detailed review of literature on external shocks is required. Scoping reviews can only answer the question "what is known about phenomenon X" and cannot estimate the impacts or efficacy of different responses. Regardless, we are confident that the combination of the scoping review with broad interviews have given us a clear understanding of social protection for gender equality and during external shocks.

Conclusion

In conclusion, social protection can have promising effects on protecting household resilience and building gender equality through addressing the needs of women and girls. However, cash transfers alone are unlikely to improve gender equality or resilience, but additional services are required. A sustained focus on gender is needed in programmes aiming for gender equality. Addressing external shocks and their impacts on livelihoods and wellbeing requires long-term programmes, and strengthening programmes that are already available. The social protection sector is progressing in African countries, but attention needs to be given to data systems, expansion with well-planned programme and policy designs, capacity in research, advocacy and human resources, as well as political will for expansion. Efforts to expand social protection should be locally driven, with due attention and evaluation of the sociocultural and contextual factors affecting implementation.

Appendix 1: Search strategies

1. Search Strategy – Social Protection and Gender Equality (6209 database + 160 google scholar)

Concept 1: (“social security” OR “social protection” OR “monetary intervention” OR “financial support” OR “economic transfer” OR “social assistance” OR “social transfer” OR “social insurance”)

AND

Concept 2: (gender OR women OR sex) AND (femini* OR masculi* OR female* OR male* OR gender* OR sex OR “social equality” OR “social equity” OR empower* OR “equal opportunit*” OR egalitarian* OR women OR “women’s right” OR “young women” OR woman* OR adolescent* OR girl* OR schoolgirl* OR “school girl*” OR female* OR man OR men OR “young men” OR boy* OR schoolboy* OR “School boy*” OR teen* OR youth* OR young* OR mother* OR father* OR parent* OR caregiver OR equalit* OR equit* OR inequalit* OR inequit*)

(informed by Perera et al. (2021, <https://doi.org/10.1002/cl2.1161>))

AND

Concept 3: (geographical limit): (Angola OR Benin OR Botswana OR Burkina Faso OR Burundi OR “Cabo Verde” OR Cameroon OR “Central African Republic” OR Chad OR Comoros OR “Democratic Republic of Congo” OR “Republic of Congo” OR “Cote d’Ivoire” OR “Equatorial Guinea” OR Eritrea OR Eswatini OR Swaziland OR Ethiopia OR Gabon OR Gambia OR Ghana OR Guinea OR Guinea-Bissau OR Kenya OR Lesotho OR Liberia OR Madagascar OR Malawi OR Mali OR Mauritania OR Mauritius OR Mozambique OR Namibia OR Niger OR Nigeria OR Rwanda OR “Sao Tome and Principe” OR Senegal OR Seychelles OR “Sierra Leone” OR Somalia OR “South Africa” OR “South Sudan” OR Sudan OR Tanzania OR Togo OR Uganda OR Zambia OR Zimbabwe)

The search was conducted in the following databases: Social Science Database (ProQuest), Applied Social Science Index and Abstracts (ProQuest), Sociological Abstracts (ProQuest), Social Science Premium Collection (ProQuest) and Web of Science (Social Science Citation Index)

1. Social Science Database (ProQuest)

Date: 1.11.2021

noft(("social security" OR "social protection" OR "monetary intervention" OR "financial support" OR "economic transfer" OR "social assistance" OR "social transfer" OR "social insurance")) AND noft((femini* OR masculi* OR female* OR male* OR gender* OR sex OR "social equality" OR "social equity" OR empower* OR "equal opportunit*" OR egalitarian* OR women OR "women's right" OR "young women" OR woman* OR adolescent* OR girl* OR schoolgirl* OR "school girl*" OR female* OR man OR men OR "young men" OR boy* OR schoolboy* OR "School boy*" OR teen* OR youth* OR young* OR mother* OR father* OR parent* OR caregiver OR equalit* OR equit* OR inequalit* OR inequit*)) AND noft((Angola OR Benin OR Botswana OR Burkina Faso OR Burundi OR "Cabo Verde" OR Cameroon OR "Central African Republic" OR Chad OR Comoros OR "Democratic Republic of Congo" OR "Republic of Congo" OR "Cote d'Ivoire" OR "Equatorial Guinea" OR Eritrea OR Eswatini OR Swaziland OR Ethiopia OR Gabon OR Gambia OR Ghana OR Guinea OR Guinea-Bissau OR Kenya OR Lesotho OR Liberia OR Madagascar OR Malawi OR Mali OR Mauritania OR Mauritius OR Mozambique OR Namibia OR Niger OR Nigeria OR Rwanda OR "Sao Tome and Principe" OR Senegal OR Seychelles OR "Sierra Leone" OR Somalia OR "South Africa" OR "South Sudan" OR Sudan OR Tanzania OR Togo OR Uganda OR Zambia OR Zimbabwe))

Results: 191

2. Applied Social Sciences Index and Abstracts

Date: 4.11.2021

noft(("social security" OR "social protection" OR "monetary intervention" OR "financial support" OR "economic transfer" OR "social assistance" OR "social transfer" OR "social insurance")) AND noft((femini* OR masculi* OR female* OR male* OR gender* OR sex OR "social equality" OR "social equity" OR empower* OR "equal opportunit*" OR egalitarian* OR women OR "women's right" OR "young women" OR woman* OR adolescent* OR girl* OR schoolgirl* OR "school girl*" OR female* OR man OR men OR "young men" OR boy* OR schoolboy* OR "School boy*" OR teen* OR youth* OR young* OR mother* OR father* OR parent* OR caregiver OR equalit* OR equit* OR inequalit* OR inequit*)) AND noft((Angola OR Benin OR Botswana OR Burkina Faso OR Burundi OR "Cabo Verde" OR Cameroon OR "Central African Republic" OR Chad OR Comoros OR "Democratic Republic of Congo" OR "Republic of Congo" OR "Cote d'Ivoire" OR "Equatorial Guinea" OR Eritrea OR Eswatini OR Swaziland OR Ethiopia OR Gabon OR Gambia OR Ghana OR Guinea OR Guinea-Bissau OR Kenya OR Lesotho OR Liberia OR Madagascar OR Malawi OR Mali OR Mauritania OR Mauritius OR Mozambique OR Namibia OR Niger OR Nigeria OR Rwanda OR "Sao Tome

and Principe" OR Senegal OR Seychelles OR "Sierra Leone" OR Somalia OR "South Africa" OR "South Sudan" OR Sudan OR Tanzania OR Togo OR Uganda OR Zambia OR Zimbabwe))

Results: 147

3. Sociological Abstracts (ProQuest)

Date: 5.11.2021

noft(("social security" OR "social protection" OR "monetary intervention" OR "financial support" OR "economic transfer" OR "social assistance" OR "social transfer" OR "social insurance")) AND noft((femini* OR masculi* OR female* OR male* OR gender* OR sex OR "social equality" OR "social equity" OR empower* OR "equal opportunit*" OR egalitarian* OR women OR "women's right" OR "young women" OR woman* OR adolescent* OR girl* OR schoolgirl* OR "school girl*" OR female* OR man OR men OR "young men" OR boy* OR schoolboy* OR "School boy*" OR teen* OR youth* OR young* OR mother* OR father* OR parent* OR caregiver OR equalit* OR equit* OR inequalit* OR inequit*)) AND noft((Angola OR Benin OR Botswana OR Burkina Faso OR Burundi OR "Cabo Verde" OR Cameroon OR "Central African Republic" OR Chad OR Comoros OR "Democratic Republic of Congo" OR "Republic of Congo" OR "Cote d'Ivoire" OR "Equatorial Guinea" OR Eritrea OR Eswatini OR Swaziland OR Ethiopia OR Gabon OR Gambia OR Ghana OR Guinea OR Guinea-Bissau OR Kenya OR Lesotho OR Liberia OR Madagascar OR Malawi OR Mali OR Mauritania OR Mauritius OR Mozambique OR Namibia OR Niger OR Nigeria OR Rwanda OR "Sao Tome and Principe" OR Senegal OR Seychelles OR "Sierra Leone" OR Somalia OR "South Africa" OR "South Sudan" OR Sudan OR Tanzania OR Togo OR Uganda OR Zambia OR Zimbabwe))

Results: 271

4. Social Science Premium Collection (ProQuest)

Date: 5.11.2021

noft(("social security" OR "social protection" OR "monetary intervention" OR "financial support" OR "economic transfer" OR "social assistance" OR "social transfer" OR "social insurance")) AND noft((femini* OR masculi* OR female* OR male* OR gender* OR sex OR "social equality" OR "social equity" OR empower* OR "equal opportunit*" OR egalitarian* OR women OR "women's right" OR "young women" OR woman* OR adolescent* OR girl* OR schoolgirl* OR "school girl*" OR female* OR man OR men OR "young men" OR boy* OR schoolboy* OR "School boy*" OR teen* OR youth* OR young* OR mother* OR father* OR parent* OR caregiver OR equalit* OR equit* OR inequalit* OR inequit*)) AND noft((Angola OR Benin OR Botswana OR Burkina Faso OR Burundi OR "Cabo Verde" OR Cameroon OR

"Central African Republic" OR Chad OR Comoros OR "Democratic Republic of Congo" OR "Republic of Congo" OR "Cote d'Ivoire" OR "Equatorial Guinea" OR Eritrea OR Eswatini OR Swaziland OR Ethiopia OR Gabon OR Gambia OR Ghana OR Guinea OR Guinea-Bissau OR Kenya OR Lesotho OR Liberia OR Madagascar OR Malawi OR Mali OR Mauritania OR Mauritius OR Mozambique OR Namibia OR Niger OR Nigeria OR Rwanda OR "Sao Tome and Principe" OR Senegal OR Seychelles OR "Sierra Leone" OR Somalia OR "South Africa" OR "South Sudan" OR Sudan OR Tanzania OR Togo OR Uganda OR Zambia OR Zimbabwe))

Results 1250

5. Web of Science (Social Sciences Citation Index)

Date: 5.11.2021

Date Range: 01.01.1995-31.12.2021

Search: same limits but changes in concept2, english and also emerging sources database

((ALL=((femini* OR masculi* OR female*OR male* OR gender* OR sex OR "social equality" OR "social equity" OR empower* OR "equal opportunit*" OR egalitarian* OR women OR "women's right" OR "young women" OR woman* OR adolescent* OR girl* OR schoolgirl* OR "school girl*" OR female* OR man OR men OR "young men" OR boy* OR schoolboy* OR "School boy*" OR teen* OR youth* OR young* OR mother* OR father* OR parent* OR caregiver OR equalit* OR equit* OR inequalit* OR inequit*))) AND ALL=((("social security" OR "social protection" OR "monetary intervention" OR "financial support" OR "economic transfer" OR "social assistance" OR "social transfer" OR "social insurance"))) AND ALL=((Angola OR Benin OR Botswana OR Burkina Faso OR Burundi OR "Cabo Verde" OR Cameroon OR "Central African Republic" OR Chad OR Comoros OR "Democratic Republic of Congo" OR "Republic of Congo" OR "Cote d'Ivoire" OR "Equatorial Guinea" OR Eritrea OR Eswatini OR Swaziland OR Ethiopia OR Gabon OR Gambia OR Ghana OR Guinea OR Guinea-Bissau OR Kenya OR Lesotho OR Liberia OR Madagascar OR Malawi OR Mali OR Mauritania OR Mauritius OR Mozambique OR Namibia OR Niger OR Nigeria OR Rwanda OR "Sao Tome and Principe" OR Senegal OR Seychelles OR "Sierra Leone" OR Somalia OR "South Africa" OR "South Sudan" OR Sudan OR Tanzania OR Togo OR Uganda OR Zambia OR Zimbabwe))

Results: 4350

6. Google Scholar (160 articles)

Date: 3.11.2021

Limits: after 1995

Searches: ("social security" OR "social protection" OR "cash transfer") AND ((gender OR women OR sex) AND (inequit* OR inequalit* OR equalit* OR equit*)) (gender) AND ((social protection) OR (social assistance) OR (cash transfer)) social protection in africa "gender equality"

Total: 160 articles

2. Search Search Strategy/Social protection and external shocks (total articles: 2200)

Concept 1: ("social security" OR "social protection" OR "monetary intervention" OR "financial support" OR "economic transfer" OR "social transfer" OR "social insurance" OR "social assistance")

AND

Concept 2: ("humanitarian emergency" OR ("emergency" AND response*) OR "emergency relief" OR "emergency aid" OR emergencies OR humanitarian OR disaster* OR "Relief Planning" OR "Relief Work" OR "Mass Casualty" OR "rescue work" OR earthquake* OR flood* OR tsunami* OR Avalanche* OR Landslide* OR Rockslide* OR Mudslide* OR cyclone* OR (Cyclonic AND Storm*) OR hurricane OR (Tidal AND Wave*) OR "Tidal waves" OR typhoon* OR (Volcanic AND Eruption*) OR drought* OR famine* OR Starvation OR "food insecurity" OR war OR "armed intervention" OR "armed conflict" OR "conflict affected" OR displaced OR displacement OR refugee* OR "climate change" OR Covid-19 OR coronavirus OR "fragile context" OR "global warming" OR "humanitarian crisis")

AND

Concept 3 (geographical limit): (Angola OR Benin OR Botswana OR Burkina Faso OR Burundi OR "Cabo Verde" OR Cameroon OR "Central African Republic" OR Chad OR Comoros OR "Democratic Republic of Congo" OR "Republic of Congo" OR "Cote d'Ivoire" OR "Equatorial Guinea" OR Eritrea OR Eswatini OR Swaziland OR Ethiopia OR Gabon OR Gambia OR Ghana OR Guinea OR Guinea-Bissau OR Kenya OR Lesotho OR Liberia OR Madagascar OR Malawi OR Mali OR Mauritania OR Mauritius OR Mozambique OR Namibia OR Niger OR Nigeria OR Rwanda OR "Sao Tome and Principe" OR Senegal OR Seychelles OR "Sierra Leone" OR Somalia

OR "South Africa" OR "South Sudan" OR Sudan OR Tanzania OR Togo OR Uganda OR Zambia OR Zimbabwe)

Search in the following databases: Social Science Database (ProQuest), Applied Social Science Index and Abstracts (ProQuest), Sociological Abstracts (ProQuest), Social Science Premium Collection (ProQuest) and Web of Science (Social Science Citation Index)

1. Social Science Database (ProQuest)

Date 28.10.2021

noft(("social security" OR "social protection" OR "monetary intervention" OR "financial support" OR "economic transfer" OR "social transfer" OR "social insurance" OR "social assistance")) AND noft(("humanitarian emergency" OR ("emergency" AND response*) OR "emergency relief" OR "emergency aid" OR emergencies OR humanitarian OR disaster* OR "Relief Planning" OR "Relief Work" OR "Mass Casualty" OR "rescue work" OR earthquake* OR flood* OR tsunami* OR Avalanche* OR Landslide* OR Rockslide* OR Mudslide* OR cyclone* OR (Cyclonic AND Storm*) OR hurricane OR (Tidal AND Wave*) OR "Tidal waves" OR typhoon* OR (Volcanic AND Eruption*) OR drought* OR famine* OR Starvation OR "food insecurity" OR war OR "armed intervention" OR "armed conflict" OR "conflict affected" OR displaced OR displacement OR refugee* OR "climate change" OR Covid-19 OR coronavirus OR "fragile context" OR "global warming" OR "humanitarian crisis")) AND noft((Angola OR Benin OR Botswana OR Burkina Faso OR Burundi OR "Cabo Verde" OR Cameroon OR "Central African Republic" OR Chad OR Comoros OR "Democratic Republic of Congo" OR "Republic of Congo" OR "Cote d'Ivoire" OR "Equatorial Guinea" OR Eritrea OR Eswatini OR Swaziland OR Ethiopia OR Gabon OR Gambia OR Ghana OR Guinea OR Guinea-Bissau OR Kenya OR Lesotho OR Liberia OR Madagascar OR Malawi OR Mali OR Mauritania OR Mauritius OR Mozambique OR Namibia OR Niger OR Nigeria OR Rwanda OR "Sao Tome and Principe" OR Senegal OR Seychelles OR "Sierra Leone" OR Somalia OR "South Africa" OR "South Sudan" OR Sudan OR Tanzania OR Togo OR Uganda OR Zambia OR Zimbabwe))

Results: 60

2. Applied Social Sciences Index and Abstracts

Date: 28.10.2021

Search: noft(("social security" OR "social protection" OR "monetary intervention" OR "financial support" OR "economic transfer")) AND noft(("humanitarian emergency" OR ("emergency" AND response*) OR "emergency relief" OR "emergency aid" OR emergencies OR humanitarian OR disaster* OR "Relief Planning" OR "Relief Work" OR "Mass Casualty" OR

“rescue work” OR earthquake* OR flood* OR tsunami* OR Avalanche* OR Landslide* OR Rockslide* OR Mudslide* OR cyclone* OR (Cyclonic AND Storm*) OR hurricane OR (Tidal AND Wave*) OR “Tidal waves” OR typhoon* OR (Volcanic AND Eruption*) OR drought* OR famine* OR Starvation OR “food insecurity” OR war OR “armed intervention” OR “armed conflict” OR “conflict affected” OR displaced OR displacement OR refugee* OR “climate change” OR Covid-19 OR coronavirus OR “fragile context” OR “global warming” OR “humanitarian crisis”) AND noft((Angola OR Benin OR Botswana OR Burkina Faso OR Burundi OR “Cabo Verde” OR Cameroon OR “Central African Republic” OR Chad OR Comoros OR “Democratic Republic of Congo” OR “Republic of Congo” OR “Cote d’Ivoire” OR “Equatorial Guinea” OR Eritrea OR Eswatini OR Swaziland OR Ethiopia OR Gabon OR Gambia OR Ghana OR Guinea OR Guinea-Bissau OR Kenya OR Lesotho OR Liberia OR Madagascar OR Malawi OR Mali OR Mauritania OR Mauritius OR Mozambique OR Namibia OR Niger OR Nigeria OR Rwanda OR “Sao Tome and Principe” OR Senegal OR Seychelles OR “Sierra Leone” OR Somalia OR “South Africa” OR “South Sudan” OR Sudan OR Tanzania OR Togo OR Uganda OR Zambia OR Zimbabwe))

3. Sociological Abstracts (ProQuest)

Date 28.10.2021

noft(“social security” OR “social protection” OR “monetary intervention” OR “financial support” OR “economic transfer” OR “social transfer” OR “social insurance” OR “social assistance”) AND noft(“humanitarian emergency” OR (“emergency” AND response*) OR “emergency relief” OR “emergency aid” OR emergencies OR humanitarian OR disaster* OR “Relief Planning” OR “Relief Work” OR “Mass Casualty” OR “rescue work” OR earthquake* OR flood* OR tsunami* OR Avalanche* OR Landslide* OR Rockslide* OR Mudslide* OR cyclone* OR (Cyclonic AND Storm*) OR hurricane OR (Tidal AND Wave*) OR “Tidal waves” OR typhoon* OR (Volcanic AND Eruption*) OR drought* OR famine* OR Starvation OR “food insecurity” OR war OR “armed intervention” OR “armed conflict” OR “conflict affected” OR displaced OR displacement OR refugee* OR “climate change” OR Covid-19 OR coronavirus OR “fragile context” OR “global warming” OR “humanitarian crisis”) AND noft((Angola OR Benin OR Botswana OR Burkina Faso OR Burundi OR “Cabo Verde” OR Cameroon OR “Central African Republic” OR Chad OR Comoros OR “Democratic Republic of Congo” OR “Republic of Congo” OR “Cote d’Ivoire” OR “Equatorial Guinea” OR Eritrea OR Eswatini OR Swaziland OR Ethiopia OR Gabon OR Gambia OR Ghana OR Guinea OR Guinea-Bissau OR Kenya OR Lesotho OR Liberia OR Madagascar OR Malawi OR Mali OR Mauritania OR Mauritius OR Mozambique OR Namibia OR Niger OR Nigeria OR Rwanda OR “Sao Tome and Principe” OR Senegal OR Seychelles OR “Sierra Leone” OR Somalia OR “South Africa” OR “South Sudan” OR Sudan OR Tanzania OR Togo OR Uganda OR Zambia OR Zimbabwe))

Results: 75

4. Social Science Premium Collection (ProQuest)

Date 28.10.2021

noft(("social security" OR "social protection" OR "monetary intervention" OR "financial support" OR "economic transfer" OR "social transfer" OR "social insurance" OR "social assistance")) AND noft(("humanitarian emergency" OR ("emergency" AND response*) OR "emergency relief" OR "emergency aid" OR emergencies OR humanitarian OR disaster* OR "Relief Planning" OR "Relief Work" OR "Mass Casualty" OR "rescue work" OR earthquake* OR flood* OR tsunami* OR Avalanche* OR Landslide* OR Rockslide* OR Mudslide* OR cyclone* OR (Cyclonic AND Storm*) OR hurricane OR (Tidal AND Wave*) OR "Tidal waves" OR typhoon* OR (Volcanic AND Eruption*) OR drought* OR famine* OR Starvation OR "food insecurity" OR war OR "armed intervention" OR "armed conflict" OR "conflict affected" OR displaced OR displacement OR refugee* OR "climate change" OR Covid-19 OR coronavirus OR "fragile context" OR "global warming" OR "humanitarian crisis")) AND noft((Angola OR Benin OR Botswana OR Burkina Faso OR Burundi OR "Cabo Verde" OR Cameroon OR "Central African Republic" OR Chad OR Comoros OR "Democratic Republic of Congo" OR "Republic of Congo" OR "Cote d'Ivoire" OR "Equatorial Guinea" OR Eritrea OR Eswatini OR Swaziland OR Ethiopia OR Gabon OR Gambia OR Ghana OR Guinea OR Guinea-Bissau OR Kenya OR Lesotho OR Liberia OR Madagascar OR Malawi OR Mali OR Mauritania OR Mauritius OR Mozambique OR Namibia OR Niger OR Nigeria OR Rwanda OR "Sao Tome and Principe" OR Senegal OR Seychelles OR "Sierra Leone" OR Somalia OR "South Africa" OR "South Sudan" OR Sudan OR Tanzania OR Togo OR Uganda OR Zambia OR Zimbabwe))

Results: 402

5. Web of Science (Social Sciences Citation Index)

3.

Date 4.11.2021

Date range. 01.01.1995-31.12.2021

Searches: Including Emerging Sources Index. Following terms taken out from concept2: (earthquake* OR flood* OR tsunami* OR Avalanche* OR Landslide* OR Rockslide* OR Mudslide* OR cyclone* OR (Cyclonic AND Storm*) OR hurricane OR (Tidal AND Wave*) OR "Tidal waves" OR typhoon* OR (Volcanic AND Eruption*.)

((ALL=(("social security" OR "social protection" OR "monetary intervention" OR "financial support" OR "economic transfer" OR "social transfer" OR "social insurance" OR "social assistance")) AND ALL=("humanitarian emergency" OR ("emergency" AND response*) OR "emergency relief" OR "emergency aid" OR emergencies OR humanitarian OR disaster* OR "Relief Planning" OR "Relief Work" OR "Mass Casualty" OR "rescue work" OR drought*

OR famine* OR Starvation OR "food insecurity" OR war OR "armed intervention" OR "armed conflict" OR "conflict affected" OR displaced OR displacement OR refugee* OR "climate change" OR Covid-19 OR coronavirus OR "fragile context" OR "global warming" OR "humanitarian crisis")) AND ALL=((Angola OR Benin OR Botswana OR Burkina Faso OR Burundi OR "Cabo Verde" OR Cameroon OR "Central African Republic" OR Chad OR Comoros OR "Democratic Republic of Congo" OR "Republic of Congo" OR "Cote d'Ivoire" OR "Equatorial Guinea" OR Eritrea OR Eswatini OR Swaziland OR Ethiopia OR Gabon OR Gambia OR Ghana OR Guinea OR Guinea-Bissau OR Kenya OR Lesotho OR Liberia OR Madagascar OR Malawi OR Mali OR Mauritania OR Mauritius OR Mozambique OR Namibia OR Niger OR Nigeria OR Rwanda OR "Sao Tome and Principe" OR Senegal OR Seychelles OR "Sierra Leone" OR Somalia OR "South Africa" OR "South Sudan" OR Sudan OR Tanzania OR Togo OR Uganda OR Zambia OR Zimbabwe))

Results: 1516

4.

Date 4.11.2021

Date range: 01.01.1995-31.12.2021

Searches: Including emerging sources Index

((ALL=((("social security" OR "social protection" OR "monetary intervention" OR "financial support" OR "economic transfer" OR "social transfer" OR "social insurance" OR "social assistance")))) AND ALL=(earthquake* OR flood* OR tsunami* OR Avalanche* OR Landslide* OR Rockslide* OR Mudslide* OR cyclone* OR (Cyclonic AND Storm*) OR hurricane OR (Tidal AND Wave*) OR "Tidal waves" OR typhoon* OR (Volcanic AND Eruption*))) AND ALL=((Angola OR Benin OR Botswana OR Burkina Faso OR Burundi OR "Cabo Verde" OR Cameroon OR "Central African Republic" OR Chad OR Comoros OR "Democratic Republic of Congo" OR "Republic of Congo" OR "Cote d'Ivoire" OR "Equatorial Guinea" OR Eritrea OR Eswatini OR Swaziland OR Ethiopia OR Gabon OR Gambia OR Ghana OR Guinea OR Guinea-Bissau OR Kenya OR Lesotho OR Liberia OR Madagascar OR Malawi OR Mali OR Mauritania OR Mauritius OR Mozambique OR Namibia OR Niger OR Nigeria OR Rwanda OR "Sao Tome and Principe" OR Senegal OR Seychelles OR "Sierra Leone" OR Somalia OR "South Africa" OR "South Sudan" OR Sudan OR Tanzania OR Togo OR Uganda OR Zambia OR Zimbabwe))

Results: 119

5.

Date 4.11.2021

Date range. 01.01.1995-31.12.2021

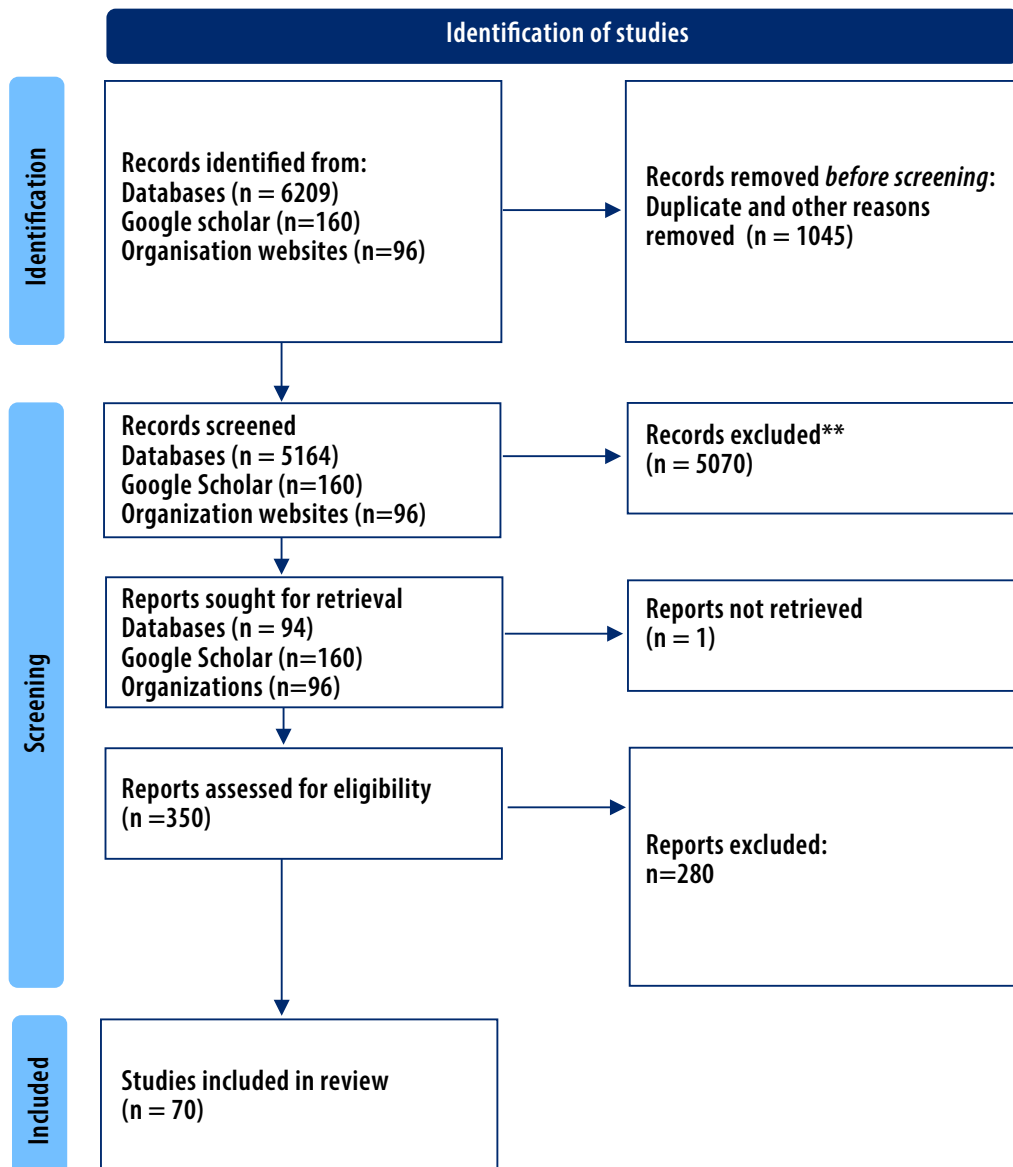
Searches: Including Emerging Sources Index.

Searches #3 and #4 together

Results: 1635

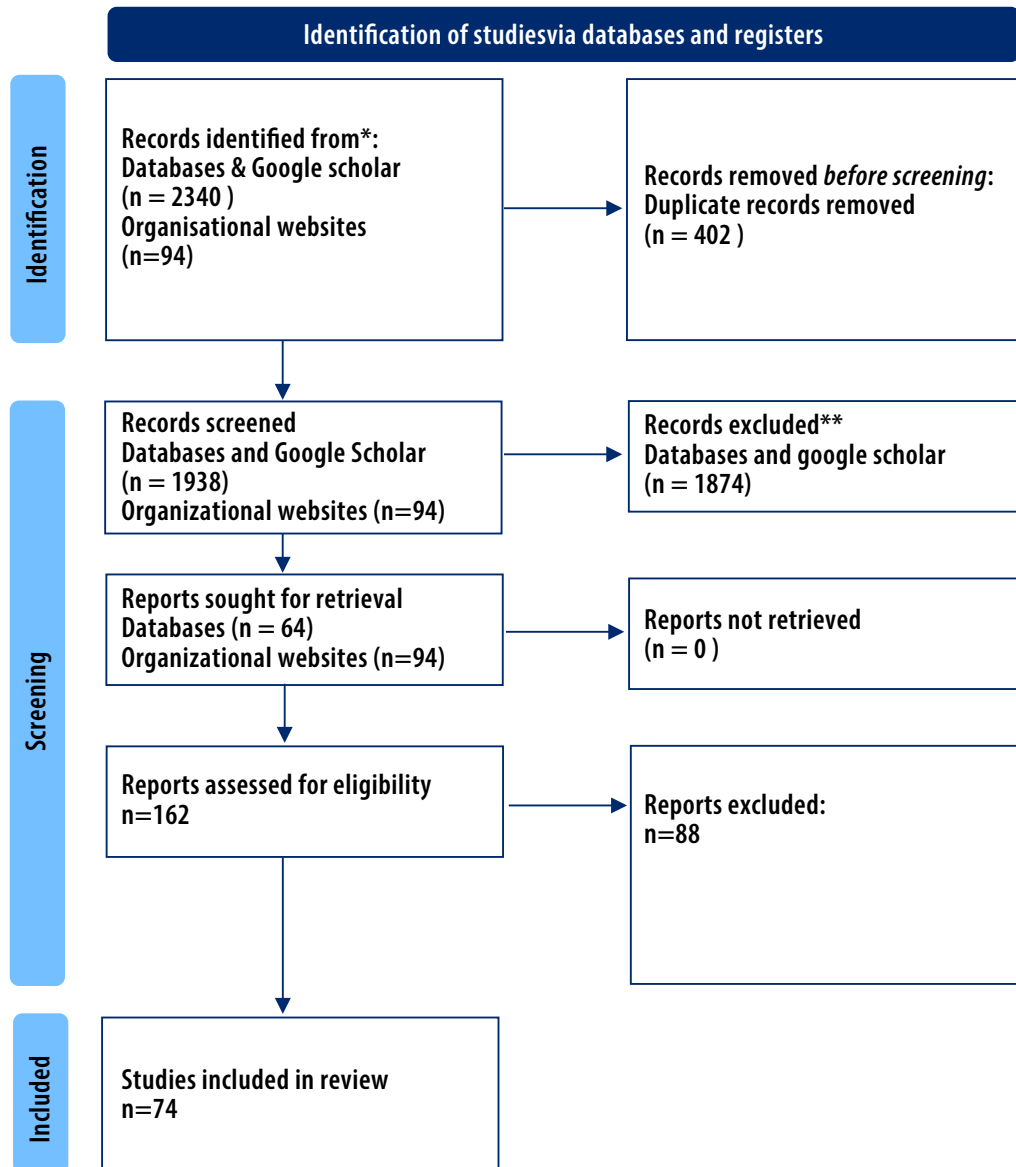
Appendix 2: PRISMA Flowcharts

Gender equality



From: Page MJ, McKenzie JE, Bossuyt PM, Boutron I, Hoffmann TC, Mulrow CD, et al. The PRISMA 2020 statement: an updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. *BMJ* 2021;372:n71. doi: 10.1136/bmj.n71. For more information, visit: <http://www.prisma-statement.org/>

External shocks



From: Page MJ, McKenzie JE, Bossuyt PM, Boutron I, Hoffmann TC, Mulrow CD, et al. The PRISMA 2020 statement: an updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. *BMJ* 2021;372:n71. doi: 10.1136/bmj.n71. For more information, visit: <http://www.prisma-statement.org/>

Appendix 3: Interview guide

Interview schedule

Interviewer introduction: Hello, I am XX, and I work within a team of researchers commissioned by the Foreign Ministry of Finland to examine latest evidence in social protection for promoting gender equality and mitigating the effect of external shocks in African countries. The Foreign Ministry is using this to plan their activities in Mozambique. We are conducting two scoping reviews on the topic. These interviews are designed to complement the scoping reviews through asking you, as an expert whether there is something that we have missed in our search for evidence. We are specifically looking for your thoughts and opinions about social protection.

Core questions for everyone

- Current position
- Gender (would you identify as male, female or other?)

Could you briefly share your experience in social protection research or policy?

What are the gaps in social protection in African countries? What is needed to address these?

Do you think current systems in African countries and your context address vulnerability, disability, gender equality and external shocks sufficiently well?

- If not, why not? If yes, why and how?

We are now going to ask specific questions on social protection and gender, and social protection in external shocks.

GENDER QUESTIONS

Do you know good examples of social protection programmes that impact on gender equality?

- Can you describe them?

There is evidence that social protection can, for example, improve health outcomes, and empowerment of women and girls, as well as increase school attendance. Are there particularly good examples of such systems in African countries?

- Are there other outcomes that we should look at?

What are the key issues that bar the expansion of such systems? (prompt finance, type of social protection, timing, preparedness)? What are the facilitators?

What should one consider when building social protection systems that take into account gender equality?

How should existing social protection programmes be adapted to better respond to gender equality challenges in future?

EXTERNAL SHOCK QUESTIONS

There is evidence that social protection has been used to mitigate the effects of external shocks, including the COVID-19 pandemic, humanitarian crises, climate change, droughts and floods.

Can you share good examples from Africa of such systems?

- Is there evidence of the long-term impacts on the use of social protection in humanitarian crises on people's wellbeing and resilience?

What should one consider when trying to build systems that can respond to humanitarian crises or other shocks?

- Prompt – finances, type of social protection, timing, preparedness

What do you think are the barriers to expanding systems that can respond to external shocks? What do you think facilitators to this are?

What should be done locally, or globally, to ensure social protection could respond to external shocks?

- Prompt – coordination between sectors, local governments, etc

ENDING QUESTIONS

Many settings report a lack of political will and other barriers to building SP systems. What kind of influence work do you think should be done to promote the social protection agenda at country level?

When starting to build social protection systems in a country, what are key considerations?

How can social protection be used to support the most vulnerable?

How can the reach of social protection systems be improved?

Are there considerations for building systems for different population groups (prompt: disability, gender, vulnerable populations)?

Is there anything else that we haven't covered that you would like to share about social protection and gender equality OR external shock mitigation?

Thank you for your time!

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