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Case studies on social protection and food and nutrition security

Ethiopia, The Gambia, Kenya, Mozambique and Zambia



Centre of Excellence
against Hunger

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Five case studies on social protection and food and nutrition security in Ethiopia, The Gambia, Kenya, Mozambique and Zambia

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

ANC	Ante-Natal Consultation
ASAL	Arid and Semi-Arid Lands
BReST	Building Resilience through Social Transfers for Nutrition Security in the Gambia
CBT	Community-Based Targeting
CCT	Conditional Cash Transfer
CWAC	Community Welfare Assistance Committees
DFID	Department for International Development
DRMFSS	Disaster Risk Management and Food Security Sector
EGTE	Ethiopian Grain Trade Enterprise
ENSSBII	National Basic Social Security Strategy 2016-2024
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organisation
FISP	Farmer Input Support Programme
FRA	Food Reserve Agency
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GTP2	Growth and Transformation Plan 2
HGSF	Home Grown School Feeding
HGSM	Home Grown School Meals
HSNP	Hunger Safety Net Programme Phase 2
IMF	International Monetary Fund
INAS	National Institute of Social Action

LT	Long-term
MCDMCH	Ministry of Community Development, Mother and Child Health
MCNHRP	Maternal and Child Nutrition and Health Results Project
MDG	Millenium Development Goal
MEACLSP	Ministry of East African Community, Labour & Social Protection
MGCAS	Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Welfare
MIS	Management Information System
MoA	Ministry of Agriculture
MoALF	Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Fisheries
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoGE	Minsitry of General Education
MoH	Ministry of Health
MoLSA	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs
MoBSE	Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education
MoEST	Ministry of Education Science and Technology
MoHSW	Minsitry of Health and Social Welfare
MUDHo	Minsitry of Urban Development and Housing
NaNA	National Nutrition Agency
NDMA	National Disaster Management Agency
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NNP	National Nutrition Policy
NGSNP	National Food Security and Nutrition Policy
NSNP	National Safety Net Programme
NSPP	National Social Protection Policy
NSPSC	National Social Protection Steering Committee
OVC	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
PAA	Purchase from Africa for Africans
PASP	Productive Social Action Programme
PMT	Proxy-Meanst Testing
PRONAE	National School Feeding Programme
PNSDI	Partnership for National Social Development Initiatives
PSNP	Productive Safety Nets Programme Phase 4
PSSB	Basic Social Subsidy Programme
RSNDP	Revised Sixth National Development Plan
SCT	Social Cash Transfer
SHNM	School Health, Nutrition and Meals
ST	Short-term
VSG	Village Support Group
WFP	World Food Programme



Photo: WFP/Arissalan Serra

1. Introduction

1.1. Background

The African continent has been advancing towards important development paths. Its citizens live longer than ever, and in improving conditions. However, several challenges threaten to impede or reverse progress made and divert Africa away from its trajectory towards prosperity. Widespread and inter-generational poverty remains an important barrier for a large share of the African population. Recent World Bank figures estimate that the share of Africans living on less than USD 1.90 a day dropped from 56 per cent to 43 per cent in 2012. However, because of population growth, the absolute number of poor Africans increased from 284 million to 388 million.¹ Key challenges include, among other, demographic change, unemployment, inequality, food insecurity and, importantly, malnutrition.^{2,3}

Problems with (mal)nutrition present potentially one of the most serious challenges for the continent. Malnutrition is a leading cause of deaths for children under the age of five, accounting for an estimated 45 per cent of child mortality. In addition, malnutrition contributes to the high prevalence of stunting and underweight among children below five years, which have been estimated at 35 per cent and 17.5 per cent in 2012, respectively. With 20 out of the 34 countries with the highest prevalence of malnutrition being African, and malnutrition having long-term effects on an economies' performance, the socio-economic impacts of malnutrition on the continent are substantial.⁴

Fortunately, a wide range of tested policies and programmes exist and can address the underlying causes of food insecurity and malnutrition. Among the spectrum of options available, social protection programmes are increasingly used to achieve food security and tackle malnutrition. On the continent and abroad, countries have used cash transfers, home-grown school feeding programmes and input subsidies, amongst other programmes, to improve the access, availability, stability and utilisation of food, in order to advance the right to food and nutrition security of its people. From a holistic and systems approach, social protection can promote food and nutrition security directly, but also indirectly, through demand (e.g. increased income and risk reduction) and supply (e.g. increased productivity, agricultural production and nutritional value of produce) interventions. African governments can learn from continental best practices, by looking at their neighbours, or by looking at other countries to learn how they have achieved successes stories, such as the Brazilian experience, which reaches 40 million students per year through its nationally-owned home-grown school feeding programme; and which implements one of the largest cash transfer programmes in the world.

1.2. Objectives

Responding to the increasing demand by countries in Africa to learn and benefit from the Brazilian experience and expertise in social protection to promote food and nutrition security, the World Food Programme Centre of Excellence against Hunger in Brazil, the Department for International Development of the United Kingdom (DFID) and the Brazilian Ministry of Social Development (MDS) established the *Partnership for National Social Development Initiatives* (PNSDI). A first step of the PNSDI in promoting this South-South exchange on social protection and food and nutrition security is to increase the knowledge base on social protection policies and programmes in selected African countries and understand these policies' and programmes' linkages to food and nutrition security.

With the objective to contribute to this knowledge base, the WFP Centre of Excellence against Hunger has selected the Economic Policy Research Institute (EPRI), a global institution based in Cape Town, to conduct a study focusing on Ethiopia, the Gambia, Mozambique, Kenya and Zambia as case countries to assess and evaluate the current and potential linkages between social protection policies and programmes and food and nutrition security. Based on this analysis, the study aims to identify pathways on how the PNSDI can promote South-South exchange, enable the role of Brazil in this regard, and support these five African countries with improving the design and implementation of social protection programmes for food and nutrition security, culminating in a series of suggestions about the ways forward.⁵

1 Beegle et al., 2016

2 RBA-UNDP, 2016

3 RBA-UNDP, 2013, p. 3/

4 <http://www.afro.who.int/en/nutrition/overview.html> WHO-ROA, 2016

5 WFP Terms of Reference

1.3. Outline of the Document

This case study report is subdivided into seven sections. Following this introduction, section two paints a general background of existing conceptual and theoretical trends in social protection for food and nutrition security in Africa to guide the case study country analysis, followed by a third section on the chosen methodology. After the methodology section, the report continues with three analytical sections on the approach, policies and instruments based on the five case study countries. The fourth section of the report explores and assesses the characteristics, opportunities and challenges of the different social protection approaches to food and nutrition security. Then, the fifth section explains the different social protection and food and nutrition security policy and legal frameworks and assesses to what extent these frameworks are integrated and complementary to each other. The sixth section takes a more detailed look at the features and successes of the different social protection instruments to promote food and nutrition security. Clear examples within the specific country cases are used to illustrate the three analytical sections, while the five complete country case studies can be found in **Annex D to Annex H**. Based on the analytical discussion, section seven of the report presents the conclusions of the study. Finally, section eight provides recommendations and ways forward on how to scale up and advance social protection for food and nutrition security, based on the five case study countries. These recommendations will identify pathways for the partnership (PNSDI) to roll out capacity development and technical support programmes.

1.4. Determinant Factors of Food and Nutrition Security

Promoting food and nutrition security is an important objective to address poverty and vulnerability in Africa. Food and nutrition security is a multi-faceted and complex concept, wherein this study defines nutrition security as positive nutritional impact on people. Based on the literature, in specific the work of Pieters, Guariso and Vandeplas (2013), the concept of food and nutrition security is assessed based on four determining factors:

- **availability** of food, determined by domestic production, import capacity, food stocks, and food aid;
- physical and socioeconomic **access** to food at all times, determined by purchasing power, income of the population, transport, and market infrastructure;
- food **utilisation**, determined by food safety, hygiene, diet quality, household nutritional awareness and manufacturing practices applied in agriculture, food processing, transportation, retail and households; and,
- **stability** of food supply and access, determined by weather variability, price fluctuations, political factors and economic factors, as well as by the resilience and vulnerability of households to respond to shocks.

The conceptual framework developed by Pieters, Guariso and Vandeplas (2013) in *Figure 1* visualises the relations between the various determinants. The first three determinants (availability, access and utilisation) together define the *status* of food and nutrition security related to the long-term food price trend, while the fourth determinant defines the *stability* of this food and nutrition security status, related to short-term food price shocks. What is relevant for this study, is that the determinants of food and nutrition security are not only diverse and multi-faceted, but progress in one determinant can be halted by underperformance in another. A child can improve its dietary intake because of more food of quality in the household, but if it does not have access to safe water, any additional micronutrients might not be absorbed due to vulnerability to bacterial illnesses. Promoting food and nutrition security thus demands a comprehensive approach, wherein various interrelated policy areas are covered and influenced. As the conceptual framework in *Figure 1* visualises, the above determinants can directly and indirectly be influenced by a wide variety of public and social policies areas, including, among other, policies on credit markets, trade, exchange rate, food stock, population growth, climate change, economic growth, agriculture, health and nutrition, education, land and poverty right reforms, development aid, and, lastly, social protection.⁶

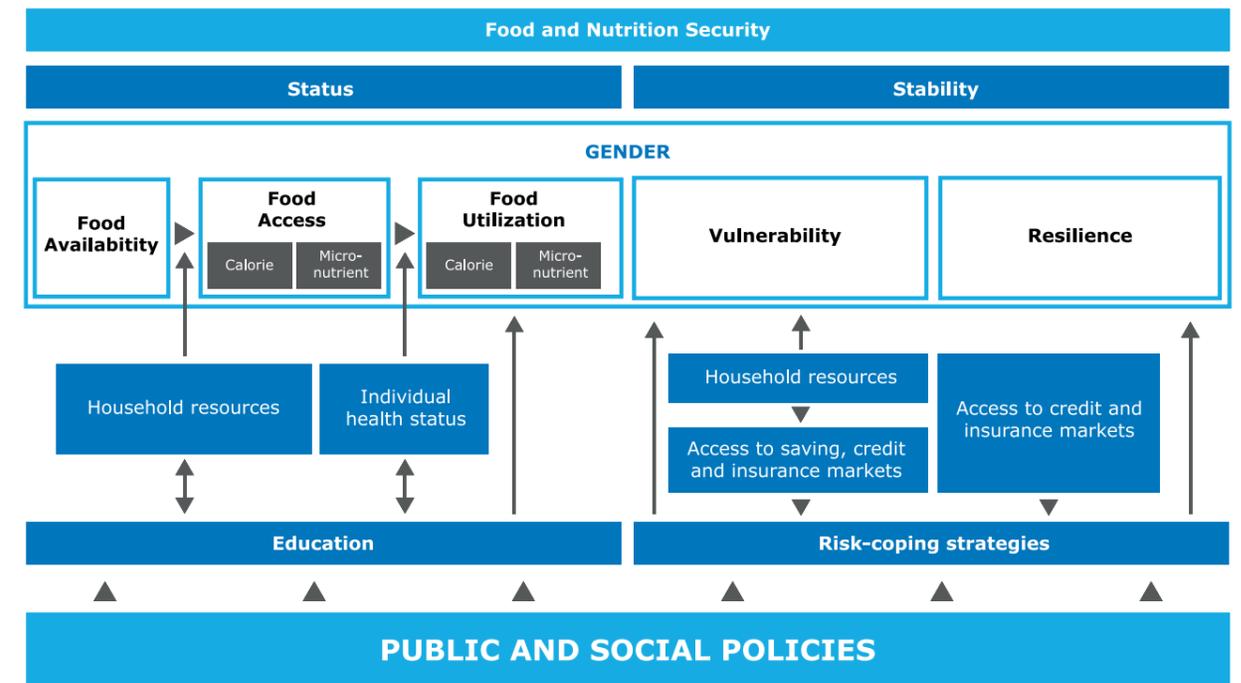


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework on determinants of food and nutrition security

1.5. Social Protection and Food and Nutrition Security

Across the world, social protection is identified as a vital element in strengthening resilience of children, families and communities, leading to greater equity and national, human and economic development. Social protection can strengthen developmental outcomes that directly and indirectly contribute to food and nutrition security. The resulting opportunities in turn can support important social protection outcomes by further reducing social and economic risks and vulnerabilities, breaking poverty traps and better empowering people to strengthen their livelihoods activities. Social protection can (a) strengthen household assets (protection), (b) enable households to better manage risks (prevention), (c) provide direct interventions supporting human capital development and food production (promotion), and (d) bolster local economies with multiplier effects (transformation).

A wide variety of social protection instruments can strengthen food and nutrition security. *Figure 2* categorises these instruments into five different **types of instruments**. The model, developed by De Janvry and adapted by the High Level Panel on Food Security and Nutrition (2012), makes a division between five instrument types: (1) social assistance, (2) income generation, (3) twin-track approach, (4) risk management and (5) risk reduction instruments.

⁶ Pieters, Guariso, Vandeplas, 2013

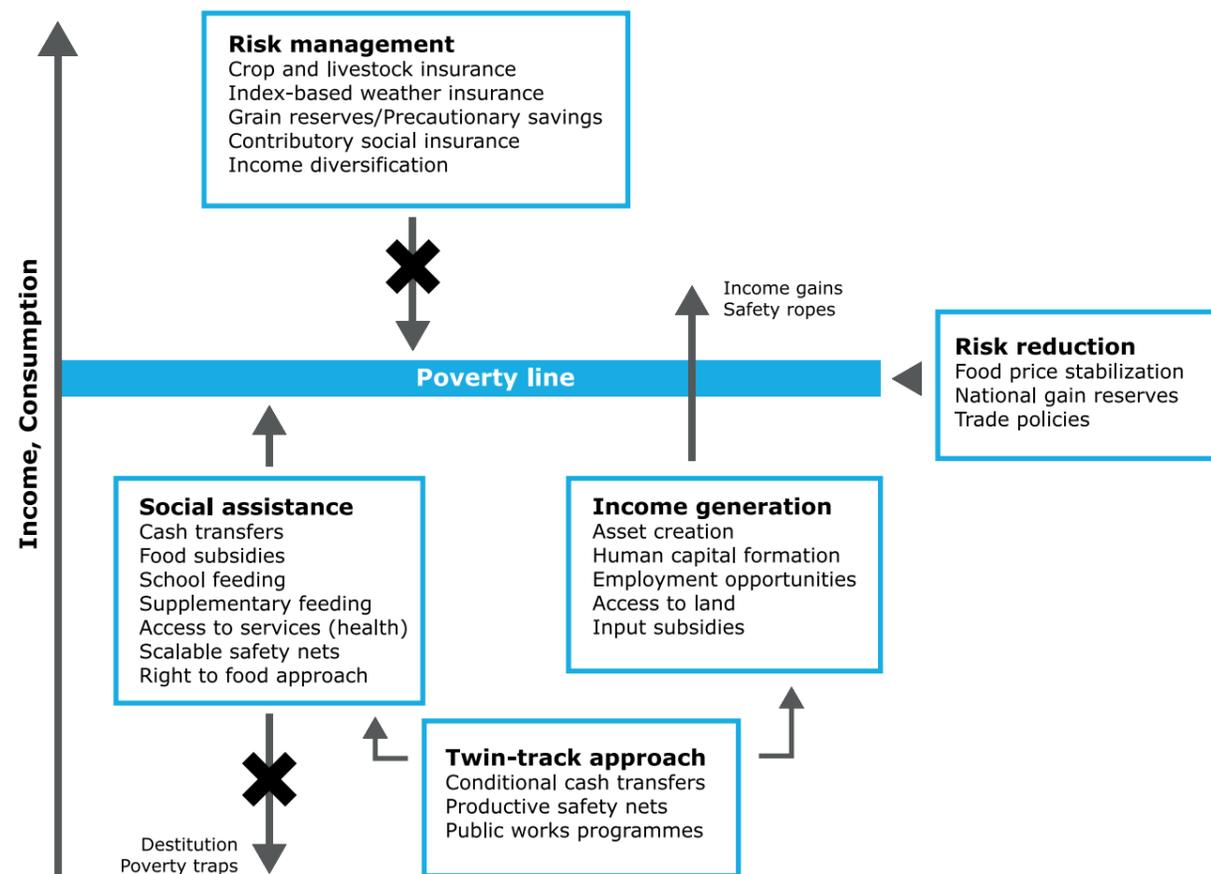


Figure 2. Social protection and food and nutrition security

Social assistance instruments, such as unconditional cash transfers, food subsidies and provision of school meals combined with nutrition education, can enhance access to or demand for nutritious food. **Income generation** instruments, such as input subsidies, combined with skills training on nutritional value of food allow farmer households to improve the supply and thus the availability of nutritious food. For instance, it can encourage farmer households to opt for more high-risk investments in agricultural technologies that yield higher agricultural outputs. As promoting either the demand or supply of food through social protection can have distortive effects on the food and labour market, the model underlines the importance of a **twin-track** approach, wherein

a combination of social protection instruments can enhance both demand and supply, and thus access and availability. Examples of twin-track programmes include home-grown school feeding⁷, public works programmes⁸, and conditional cash transfers⁹. **Risk management** instruments at the household level, such as crop, livestock or index-based weather insurance or household grain reserves and savings, can minimise the risks of households to become food insecure as a result of, among other, droughts or natural or man-made disasters. Finally, **risk reduction** instruments at national level, such as food price stabilisation, national grain reserves and trade policies, can reduce the risks for food or nutrition insecurity at the national level.¹⁰

7 Whereas "conventional" school feeding programmes often rely on the central procurement from national markets, or imported food, home grown school feeding relies on local procurement. The latter approach can be defined as twin-track, as it improves nutritious school feeding for pupils and concurrently strengthens local markets and thus food production.

8 Public works programmes often aim at constructing or rehabilitating community assets and infrastructure that promotes food and nutrition security (e.g. roads, protection of water sources and agricultural land), while its labour force is paid in either food assistance or cash transfers. As such, public works programmes aim to contribute to supply and demand of nutritious food.

9 Conditional cash transfers attach conditions to a cash transfer, which the recipient has to meet in order to receive the cash transfer. Examples of conditions include school enrolment of child beneficiaries or regular pre-natal doctor visits for beneficiaries who are pregnant.

10 High Level Panel of Experts on Food Security and Nutrition, 2012

These social protection instruments can also be classified into the sources of food and nutrition security each instrument aims to address. Literature has identified four sources of food, namely **production, labour, trade** and **transfers**. In case the sum of food derived from these four sources cannot meet the minimum food consumption and nutrition requirements at the individual, household or national level, there is food and nutrition insecurity¹¹. Food **production** can be promoted by input subsidies, while crop insurance can compensate for harvest failure. Public works programmes can temporarily compensate for unemployment (**labour**), while promoting agricultural production in the longer term. At national level, **trade** or market access to food can be promoted by demand-side interventions, such as food subsidies, and supply-side interventions, such as grain reserves. At household level, **transfers** in cash and food can enhance direct access to food and promote human capital development, with longer-term effects on food and nutrition security¹². In this study, these four sources of food and nutrition security are labelled as social protection approaches to food and nutrition security.

Table 1 combines the conceptualisation above into (1) social protection approach (2) instrument type, (3) specific instrument, which is informed from the box containing various elements of social and public policies in Figure 1, (4) food and nutrition security objectives, and (5) determinants of food and nutrition security the instruments usually serve. Table 1 can help to categorise social protection for food and nutrition security into different approaches and instruments, which can ease the country case study analysis. At the same time, the most effective social protection instruments to food and nutrition security cut across boundaries. For instance, unconditional cash transfers are categorised as a social assistance instrument under the transfers approach, directly increasing household assets to buy nutritious food (access). However, if combined with complementary programmes, such as agricultural or financial skills training or nutrition education, in the longer run, unconditional cash transfers can promote income-generating activities and investments of farmer households, help households to better cope with risks, and promote human capital development. As such, well designed unconditional cash transfers that are accompanied by **complementary programmes** can directly increase access to food, while also promoting stability, availability and utilisation of food. Thus, the country case study analysis will use Table 1 to shed light on the approaches and instruments of Ethiopia, Gambia, Kenya, Mozambique, and Zambia, but in its analysis will acknowledge the more complex interrelations between these approaches and instruments, and their outcomes.

11 Devereux, 2008; Sen, 1981

12 Ibid.

Approach	Instrument type	Specific instrument	Food and nutrition security objectives	Determinants
Production	Income generation	Input subsidies	Promote food production	Availability
	Risk management	Crop and livestock insurance	Protect against harvest failure or livestock mortality	Availability and stability
Labour	Twin-track: supply and demand	Public works programme	Provide temporary employment, create community assets and promote agricultural production	Access and availability
Trade	Risk reduction	Food price stabilisation	Maintain market access to food	Access and stability
	Social assistance	Food subsidies	Keep food affordable for the poor	Access and stability
	Risk management and reduction	Grain reserves	Ensure adequate market food supplies	Stability
Transfers	Social assistance	School feeding	Reduce malnutrition, promote access to education	Access, utilisation and availability
		Supplementary feeding, including take home rations	Enhance food consumption and dietary intake	Access and utilisation
		Unconditional cash transfers	Reduce food insecurity, malnutrition and poverty and promote a wide variety of social protection objectives according to household needs	Access, utilisation, availability and stability
	Twin-track	Conditional cash transfers	Reduce food insecurity, malnutrition and poverty, promote access to education or healthcare	Access, availability and stability
		Home grown school feeding	Reduce malnutrition, promote access to education, while increasing local food production and labour	Access, availability and stability

Table 1. Social protection approach to food and nutrition security

Specifically, **school feeding programmes** have been consistently proving to advance education, health and nutrition outcomes of school going children. Moreover, if well designed with the addition of **home-grown** food supply component, these programmes have the potential to benefit entire communities through stimulating local markets, facilitating agricultural transformation and enabling households to invest in productive assets. The long-standing presence of school feeding programmes in Africa and recent policy efforts to expand programmes underscore the wide recognition that school feeding programmes enjoy as effective tools to achieve cross-sectoral objectives.

The recent Study on *Sustainable School Feeding across the African Union* defines **School feeding** as the availability and the provision of adequate food – in terms of quantity, quality, safety, as well as socio-cultural acceptability – for schoolchildren. Additionally, it conceptualises a **national school feeding programme** as a programme that is managed by the government, either alone or with support from WFP or other development partners, and provides food on a regular basis to schoolchildren¹³. Complementarily, with their objective of promoting local economic development and agricultural transformation, **Home-Grown School Feeding (HGSF)** programmes are increasingly gaining traction. HGSF can be defined as a school feeding programme that provides food produced and purchased from within a country, especially from smallholder farmers. The main objective of HGSF programmes is to link school feeding with local agricultural production, building upon the assumption that households, local farmers and small businesses may benefit from the structured market that a school feeding programme presents to sell their goods¹⁴.

Hence, in social protection terms, school feeding can have multiple objectives and therewith the potential to achieve multiple outcomes and impacts on different beneficiaries, including school children, caterers and cooks, local producers and farmers, among others, through various pathways. Thus, school feeding programmes go beyond merely providing assistance to poor and food insecure children. Instead, by improving education-, nutrition-, and health outcomes of children, school feeding acts as a preventive mechanism – preventing hunger, malnutrition destitution and mortality in the long run. Going one further, school feeding even acts as a promotive and transformative measure, by positively impacting education indicators of schoolchildren, oftentimes particularly focused on girls, by supporting livelihoods development of farmers and producers, and by employing caterers or cooks. Therefore, this study acknowledges the preventive, promotive and even transformative impacts that school feeding can have. However, for methodological purposes, this analysis isolates school feeding's and HGSF's social protection policy impacts on specific social assistance interventions, so the study can estimate the outcomes and their subsequent impacts on the specific social protection elements for analysis presented in this session.

¹³ (World Food Programme, No date)
¹⁴ (World Food Programme, No date)

Overview of key study variables				
Policy	Programme			
	General	Institutional	Demand-side arrangements	Outcomes
Legal framework	Objectives	Implementing agency	Targeting method	Coverage
Social protection (SP) policy	Target group	Degree of centralisation	Type of support	Food & nutrition security outcomes
Food and nutrition security (FNS) policies	Budget and funding	Community involvement	Frequency of support	Cross-sector outcomes
Connection between SP & FNS policy objectives	Duration	Coordination with other programmes	Conditionality	Sustainability
Institutional coordination between ministries	Programme exit strategy	Monitoring and evaluation	Exit strategy beneficiaries	

Table 2. Policy and programme-level matrix

1.6. Analysing Countries' Approaches to Social Protection and Food Security

Table 2 provides an overview of the variables used in this study to analyse the social protection policies and programmes for food and nutrition security in Ethiopia, the Gambia, Kenya, Mozambique and Zambia.

The country case study analysis will first classify the social protection policies and programmes in each country according to these policy and programme design and implementation variables. Subsequently, it will categorise these policies and programmes in each country according to the approach, instruments and objectives and determinants of food and nutrition insecurity outlined in *Table 1*. Comparing these classifications across countries can potentially shed light on interesting different approaches to the same goal.

For instance, in *Table 1*, some countries, through a focus on providing input subsidies and/or crop insurance, aim to address food and nutrition insecurity from a production angle, increasing availability of nutritious food, while others might focus on promoting equal access to food through social assistance programmes. Subsequently, *Table 2* may help explain these countries' differential focus on producers vs. consumers as well as its outcomes on food and nutrition security. Hence, a picture presents itself where design and implementation differences are explained by a different approach taken to addressing food and nutrition insecurity with social protection.



Photo: WFP/Maxime Bessieres

2. Methodology

The study adopts a three-pillared qualitative methodology, with each pillar triangulating the validity of the findings of the other. Structured desk research formed the first pillar, and consisted of collection and analysis of data on country-specific socio-economic indicators and on policies and programmes related to social protection and food and nutrition security. This data was captured and visualised in a policy and programme-level matrix (see *Table 2*). To complement, support and strengthen the structured desk research and further populate the matrix, remote consultations with governmental and non-governmental stakeholders engaged with social protection and food and nutrition security policies and programmes in the five case study countries were conducted. In a third step, remote expert interviews with academics and experts complemented the analysis by validating the results of the structured desk research and the stakeholder consultations and identifying the cross-cutting factors of success in social protection programmes for food and nutrition security. A list of stakeholders and experts consulted can be found in *Annex A*, *Annex B* presents a detailed overview of the methodology, and *Annex C* includes the semi-structured high-level interview guide used for the remote consultations and expert interviews.

3. Social Protection Approach to Food and Nutrition Security

3.1. Approaches of Country Cases

The conceptual framework identified four **determinants of food and nutrition security** (availability, access, utilisation, and stability) and linked these determinants to different **social protection approaches**, being production, labour, trade and transfers. When reflecting on the different approaches in the five country case studies and the extent to which these approaches succeed in addressing the determinants and contributory causes of food and nutrition insecurity, a number of key conclusions can be drawn. Kenya (See *Textbox 1*), Zambia and Gambia take a predominantly transfers approach towards social protection for food and nutrition security, emphasising the unequal access to nutritious food among different groups of the population. *Textbox 1* elaborates upon the Kenyan approach. Ethiopia chooses a more labour and production-oriented approach towards improving its food and nutrition security, as further illustrated in *Textbox 2*, by promoting large-scale public works programmes that aim to contribute to local food production and increase demand for food among the labour-abled poor population. Finally, Mozambique opts for a relatively diversified approach; implementing public works programmes, while also implementing several cash transfer programmes.

Textbox 1. Kenya: A Transfers Approach

When reviewing the different programmes, the main focus of Kenya has been on improving access to food through a transfers approach entailing, among others, the Hunger Safety Net Programme (HSNP) and various school feeding programmes. The HSNP is an unconditional cash transfer programme, currently in its second phase, targeted at 100,000 poor and vulnerable households in arid and semi-arid regions that are often struck by droughts and are marked by high food and nutrition insecurity (NDMA, 2015a). In addition, to respond to environmental shocks and related food and nutrition insecurity, the HSNP can temporarily be scaled up to households who have been struck by environmental shocks. This happened in the first months of 2017, when the programme targeted an additional 53,635 households who were severely affected by the consequences of El Niño (NDMA 2017).

Increasingly, Kenya is moving from a transfers approach to a more mixed social protection approach for food and nutrition security. The recent introduction of the home grown element to some of its long running school feeding programmes, wherein food for school meals is increasingly produced locally, and the launch of the Asset Creation Programme in 2015, with a substantial public works element, have marked this move to a more production and labour oriented approach (WFP 2016a). This gradual but apparent move to a more diversified approach aligns with the objectives stated in Kenya's National Social Protection Policy (2011) to increasingly promote food production, assets and income opportunities to complement the social safety net. The Home-Grown School Feeding Programme, implemented by the Ministry of Education, provides cash transfers to schools, which in turn need to purchase the food for school meals from local markets. In addition, the programme supports local farmers with improving and expanding their food production (Drake et al., 2016). However, as local markets remain insufficiently able to ensure stable food supply for school meals, most food is still purchased at regional markets, which tends to undermine the potential positive effects on the local market.

Another promising programme that marks the shift to a more production and labour-oriented approach is the Asset Creation Programme, wherein 800,000 households benefit from cash and food transfers in return for their labour. This programme builds community assets, such as dams, water pans and irrigation schemes, which contribute to communities' food and nutrition security, while also promoting human capital development of its labour force (WFP, 2016a).

3.2. Benefits of Evidence-Based Diversified Approaches

Although all five countries designed and implemented policies and programmes that to some extent succeed in addressing main causes of food and nutrition insecurity in their respective country, a more comprehensive understanding of these determinants can enable countries to make a more informed choice about the most appropriate and effective social protection approaches to food and nutrition security, based on each country's unique context. First, as determinants of food and nutrition insecurity are diverse, countries that take a **diversified approach** to social protection, thereby acknowledging and accounting for the multiple sources of food and nutrition insecurity, are likely to be more successful in their progress towards achieving food and nutrition security. Second, a diversified approach that is built on a comprehensive and **evidence-based understanding** of the determinants of food and nutrition insecurity ensures that policies and programmes do not create conflicting outcomes, but tackle the multiple sources of food and nutrition insecurity simultaneously and in a more harmonious and comprehensive manner.

For example, only focusing on distributing food or cash transfers to food and nutrition insecure households is not sufficient, on its own, to alleviate food and nutrition insecurity. Although, this approach may prove a necessary safety net in assisting the most vulnerable and food insecure households in smoothing consumption; it is likewise critical to promote food production, agricultural-oriented labour and a stable trade environment to ensure sustainable demand and supply of nutritious food. On the other hand, if countries only focus on increasing food production or labour, this might exclude vulnerable households who are unable to work and may be amongst the most food insecure. Thus, a diversified approach appears well positioned to sustainably and comprehensively enhance food and nutrition security.

Based on the analysis of the five country cases, it can be concluded that all five countries can take a more diversified social protection approach, with some already making important steps towards such diversification. However, the decision of each country for this diversified approach can be optimised by a thorough analysis of the diverse causes or determinants of food and nutrition insecurity, specific to different demographic and social groups in the country. By promoting a more evidence-based and diversified approach, specific programme designs can better complement each other to address the various determinants of food and nutrition insecurity. *Textbox 2* on the Ethiopian approach shows the value of evidence-based policymaking in responding to societal changes and alleviating various determinants of food and nutrition insecurity at the same time.

Textbox 2. Ethiopia: A Labour and Production Approach

Ethiopia's National Social Protection Policy (NSPP) aims to protect poor and vulnerable households from adverse shocks and improve their food and nutrition security. The NSPP aims to reach this goal by large scale public works programmes for poor, but labour-abled rural and urban households, complemented by a relatively modest provision of safety nets to poor and vulnerable households who are unable to work (GoE, 2012). Thus, contrary to Kenya, Ethiopia provides limited support to the most vulnerable households who cannot work, but takes a predominant labour approach to social protection that in the longer run aims to improve sustainable access to and production of food. The two-flagship social protection programmes are the Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP), of which the fourth phase started in 2014 (World Bank, 2014a), and the Urban Productive Safety Net Programme (UPSNP), launched in 2015 (World Bank, 2015a).

The PSNP, jointly implemented by the Ministry of Agriculture and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, provides cash transfers to selected vulnerable households in drought-struck areas. Most of the cash transfers are conditional upon participation in agricultural public works projects, such as land-reclamation and small-scale irrigation projects, that aim to improve agricultural production in these regions. To diversify and strengthen their rural livelihoods, beneficiaries can receive complementary skills training, technical support and financial assistance, including on-farm support for crop and livestock and off-farm income generating

support. In addition, the programme provides a limited number of unconditional cash transfers to vulnerable households who are unable to work (World Bank, 2014a). The second and newer flagship programme, the UPSNP, implemented by the Ministry of Urban Development and Housing, follows a similar strategy and implementation structure as the PSNP - provision of cash and labour, development of human capital and creation of community assets - but is targeted at urban areas. As such, start-up capital and business trainings for public works beneficiaries are tailored to set up an urban enterprise (World Bank, 2015a). Both programmes provide support to beneficiaries for a period of three years, which according to the theory of change should be sufficient for households and communities to maintain a livelihood that is able to mitigate mild shocks in their food security. The programmes make little reference to nutrition security.

Ethiopia is the only case country that responds to growing urbanisation by promoting labour-intensive agricultural development to slow down this worrisome trend, while also supporting a transition to a more complex, urban economy by supporting human capital and livelihood development in the service and business sector, tailoring to the growing vulnerable urban population. Thus, Ethiopia not only aims to enhance food security in the short run, but also aims to transform its social protection approach by responding to the growing working population in cities that alters the way people meet their food and nutrition security requirements.

4. Policy and Institutional Frameworks

4.1. Policy Links Between Social Protection and Food and Nutrition Security

All five countries have a **National Social Protection Policy**. The extent to which these social protection policies are comprehensive and incorporate national food and nutrition security strategies, and vice versa, differs between countries. In Kenya, for instance, the National Social Protection Policy (NSPP) does not set out specific objectives or strategies to improve food and nutrition security¹⁵. However, Kenya's flagship social protection programmes, the Hunger Safety Net Programme and the School Feeding Programme, do aim to promote food and nutrition security through provision of unconditional cash transfers and nutritious food for school going children, respectively. A clear social protection policy framework on food and nutrition security holds the potential to more strategically design and position these programmes. Ethiopia and Zambia refer to food and nutrition security objectives in their NSPP, but do not define a clear strategy or theory of change on how to reach those objectives through social protection¹⁶.

The national social protection policies of Mozambique and Gambia, the latter explained in more detail in *Textbox 3*, most explicitly include food and nutrition security objectives and to some extent define how to reach those objectives. For instance, under the national social protection policy (National Basic Social Security Strategy 2016-2024, ENSSBII), Mozambique sets out clear food and nutrition security objectives and strategies for its school feeding programme (PRONAE) and its programme to improve food and nutrition security for pregnant women and their newborns. However, further opportunities for linkages exist in the policy. For instance, the ENSSBII does not link food and nutrition security objectives to its largest cash transfer programmes, the Basic Social Allowance Programme (PSSB) and the Productive Social Action Programme (PASP), while both programmes can influence food and nutrition security.

When analysing the food and nutrition security policies of the five case study countries, none of the food and nutrition security policies substantially referred to social protection instruments to achieve its objectives, let alone used a social protection approach to reach its objectives. In all five countries opportunities exist to more explicitly **link social protection policy objectives** and **food and nutrition security policy objectives**. By incorporating specific food and nutrition security objectives into a national social protection policy, and vice versa, countries can strengthen their social protection strategy to address the varying determinants of food and nutrition insecurity for all groups in society. Moreover, integration of food and nutrition policies and social protection policies is important to provide the mandate for policymakers and implementing stakeholders working on social protection and food and nutrition to cooperate in the design and implementation of joint strategies to achieve the jointly set objectives.

Textbox 3. Gambia: National Social Protection Strategy (NSPP)

Until five years ago, social protection in Gambia was fragmented, implemented on project-basis, small-scale in size and targeted at specific groups without a coherent policy to guide efforts. In order to move away from this silo approach towards a systems approach to social protection, the National Social Protection Steering Committee (NSPSC) was established in 2012 under the Office of the Presidency, with its Secretariat within the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare. The NSPSC's social policy mapping across sectors resulted in the National Social Protection Policy 2015-2025, which was officially launched in December 2016. The NSPP sets out social protection policy instruments across four categories: protection, prevention, promotion and transformation. In terms of food and nutrition security, the policy sets out three objectives: (1) protect the most vulnerable and food insecure households through cash transfers and complementary programmes, such as hygiene education, access to water and sanitation kits, and school feeding programmes, including deworming and micronutrient supplements; (2) prevent households from shocks by strengthening lean safety nets, early warning mechanisms, crisis-related food transfers and nutrition support, grain reserves, biannual food insecurity assessments, and studies on urban food insecurity and a feasibility study on weather-indexed insurance for vulnerable farmers; (3) launch a public works programme to contribute to community assets that promote food and nutrition security, complemented by supporting beneficiaries through agricultural assistance, micro-insurance schemes, start-up grants and diversification of livelihoods. The policy aims to bring the different social protection initiatives under one common umbrella and gradually expand its access to the entire population by promoting coordination between programmes, introducing systematic and harmonised implementation systems for identification, information sharing (e.g. MIS) and monitoring, building capacities at national, sub-national and local level, and ensuring fiscal space and resources.

Currently, the scope of Gambia's social protection programmes remains limited to the School Feeding Programme, jointly implemented by WFP and the Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education (WFP, 2017a), and two programmes providing cash transfers to pregnant and lactating women (World Bank 2014; EPRI, 2017), while a pilot is underway to include a home grown element to the National School Feeding Programme. However, the NSPP sets forth an ambitious pathway to expand its social protection programming with objectives and strategies on how to improve food and nutrition security through a variety of programmes and across sectors. Various challenges, including a lack of budgets, legal framework and administrative capacity for cross-sector programming, have slowed down programming and implementation.

4.2. Integration in Wider Development Strategies and Policies

Social protection and food and nutrition security are complex, multi-dimensional and cut across sectors, including health, agriculture, education, social development and trade. Inclusion of social protection objectives for food and nutrition security into wider national development plans and sectoral policies is imperative to ensure positive, cross-sectoral outcomes. When not integrated into wider development strategies, social protection can exert mixed outcomes across sectors, including food and nutrition security. To understand the complex interrelations between programmes across sectors, promote positive outcomes, while mitigating negative side effects, it is important to position social protection programmes within national development plans.

The example of Zambia can illustrate these complex interrelations. In Zambia, an evaluation of the social cash transfer programme showed that unconditional cash transfers increased beneficiaries' spending on education, promoting human capital development¹⁷. This in itself can be seen as a direct positive outcome of social protection on human capital, which holds the potential to generate outcomes across sectors, both positive and negative. Global trends show that increases in human capital in rural communities can enhance agricultural productivity with positive outcomes on food production. Over time, though, an increase in agricultural productivity may reduce availability of rural jobs due to the substitution of labour for capital and the structural transformation of developing economies. This can increase rural unemployment and urbanisation, and lower the access and utilisation of food for the unemployed. Immediate social protection objectives related to human capital can thus enhance productivity and food production, but may in the long-term be at odds with other development objectives, if not mitigated by complementary interventions. Additional social protection programmes and complementary interventions, such as rural and urban public works programmes and livelihood and skills development programmes, can offset negative side effects of increased human capital in rural areas on rural unemployment and urbanisation. As such, social protection should be **embedded within wider national development plans** to offer a solution to such paradoxes by promoting and transforming the society towards a diversified economy, which will require careful programming across sectors.

15 GoK, 2011a
16 GoE, 2012; GoZ, 2014

17 AIR, 2016

Ethiopia's and Mozambique's public works programming recognise the need for a diversified social protection approach to tailor to rural and urban areas, considering the different and diverse skills sets needed in both contexts. Both Ethiopia's public works - the agricultural and urban productive safety net programmes (PSNP and UPSNP) - and Mozambique's public works - the productive social action programme (PASP) - aim to contribute to a more diversified economy by promoting labour-intensive rural employment, as well as urban livelihoods, responding to employment needs of a growing urban population (see section 4.2 and Annex D for more information).

Overall, all five profiled countries can further embed their social protection for food and nutrition security programming into their national and sectoral development plans. Taking again the examples of Ethiopia and Mozambique can illustrate some opportunities in this regard. Ethiopia's public works activities of its rural productive safety net programme (PSNP) are well integrated into the national Agricultural Sector and Investment Policy 2010-2020, which enables the public works to contribute to identified agricultural development needs, such as land conservation and restoration. However, social protection is less well integrated into Ethiopia's main development strategy - Vision 2030 - and opportunities exist to strategise how social protection can contribute to its long-term development objectives. Likewise, Mozambique's School Feeding Programme is part of the National Social Protection Strategy, but not the Education Strategy, even though the Ministry of Education manages the programme. Integrating social protection objectives in national rural and urban development plans and strategies will enable developmental outcomes at substantially larger scale than single, stand-alone social protection interventions by ensuring complementarity and mitigating negative side effects.

4.3. Institutional Coordination and Legal Frameworks

An effective social protection approach for food and nutrition security embedded within national development plans demands institutional coordination between various line ministries engaged in social protection and food and nutrition security. Countries with strong **institutional coordination** structures are more successful in defining a joint strategy and ensuring complementarity between policy objectives and programmes. All five countries have officially expressed the intention to set up a **social protection council** or steering committee that is responsible for the coordination of social protection in the country. However, the current state of institutional coordination in the five countries can be strengthened, and suggests that fostering such coordination is often challenging.

First, effective coordination requires a **shared and comprehensive understanding** at the national level of social protection for food and nutrition security. Namely, if countries do not classify certain programmes, such as public works programmes, grain reserves or food distributions, as part of their social protection approach for food and nutrition security, these programmes will likely be excluded from coordination efforts, leading to potentially conflicting outcomes. In Kenya, Zambia and Ethiopia the Ministries and Agencies engaged with grain reserves and price floors are not included in the social protection coordinating bodies, while both social protection instruments influence food and nutrition security. For instance, in Kenya and Zambia, grain reserves and price floors somewhat stabilised the selling price for farmers, which may improve food supply, but simultaneously raised consumer prices, which may lower demand for food¹⁸. On the contrary, in Ethiopia, grain reserves aim to respond to immediate food shortages as a result of environmental shocks to protect both producers and consumers, but are not used to maintain contested food price floors¹⁹. When it comes to food distributions, Gambia's foreseen Social Protection Steering Committee is not involved in the decision-making on *ad hoc* food distributions, which is now solely conducted by the Ministry of Agriculture. Thus, a shared understanding of what programmes can be defined as social protection programmes is a first step in promoting effective coordination.

¹⁸ Jayne, Myers & Nyoro, 2008; Kuteya, Chisanga & Sitko, 2014
¹⁹ Shaidur & Negass, 2013

Second, effective coordination requires **clear legal and institutional frameworks** that support the inter-ministerial coordination bodies. In all the five country case studies, coordination structures between various line ministries are in place on paper, but the legal and institutional frameworks that would give political power to these coordinating bodies are still lacking²⁰. Moreover, the implementation of cross-sector legislation is often challenging, as effective institutional coordination often takes time to organically coalesce and develop. The lack of coordination during the El Niño response in Mozambique is an illustrative example. The legal frameworks for multi-sector cooperation in Mozambique failed to ensure the necessary coordination and synergies between the El Niño emergency assistance and the national Basic Social Allowance Programme (PSSB), while part of the beneficiaries benefitted from both programmes (see *Textbox 4*). Finally, none of the five countries has one central budget for social protection that transcends ministries, which would be a powerful tool to improve coordination.

A third consideration is the relation between governments and donors, as donors often substantially finance social protection programmes and play an important role in programme implementation. To ensure sustainability of coordination and programme implementation, a clear **exit strategy** that includes a stepwise plan on how the donor will prepare the government to gradually take over the programme in the medium to long run is important. This process demands strong commitment and willingness by the government to continue the programme when the donor phases out, and commitment by the donor to stick to the exit strategy and plan. In general, governments of the five case countries expressed the willingness to increase national ownership, although funding remains a huge challenge, as none of the countries have directed a fixed percentage of their Gross Domestic Product (GDP) to social protection expenditures. Examples of clear exit strategies exist, such as between WFP and the Kenyan government for the Home-Grown School Meals (HGSM) or between Zambia and its donors for the Social Cash Transfer (SCT) programme (see *Textbox 5*).

Based on the above considerations, it can be concluded that inter-ministerial social protection coordination units are established, but not yet sufficiently inclusive and empowered to ensure unity of efforts towards improvements to food and nutrition security. Moreover, the challenges once more underline the importance of a comprehensive social protection policy that is integrated into wider development strategies and based on a thorough understanding of the country-specific determinants of food and nutrition security.

²⁰ In Kenya and Zambia, however, this is likely to change soon with two Social Protection Bills under review that will create an overarching social protection coordination body with a sufficient and legally protected mandate.

Textbox 4. Mozambique: Social Protection Laws and Coordination

Social protection in Mozambique is well enshrined in the Constitution. In addition, Mozambique has a specific Social Protection Law (2007), already enacted ten years ago, which establishes the grounds for the national social protection framework, the National Basic Social Security Strategy 2016-2024 (ENSSBII). This framework includes (1) basic social security, mainly referring to social assistance programmes such as the Basic Social Allowance Programme (PSSB) that reaches 360,000 households (UNICEF 2016a), the Productive Social Action Programme (PASP) that provides cash transfers in return for public works, the home grown school feeding programme (PRONAE) and a programme to improve maternal and newborn food and nutrition security, (2) compulsory social security for workers in the formal sector, and (3) complementary social security.

To improve the legal framework for the most extensive first pillar (basic social security), in 2009, the Council of Ministries introduced by decree the Regulation of the Basic Social Security Sub-System. This regulation further specifies the areas of basic social security and the rights of beneficiaries, and sets forth an institutional framework. This institutional framework includes the installation of a Coordination Council of the Basic Social Security Subsystem, to be chaired by the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Action. This council is meant to improve coordination among sectors for the implementation of the basic social security pillar, while decision-making authority remains at the Cabinet (Council of Ministers, 2009). To date, however, the Council has not yet come together and coordination is still conducted at bilateral level by the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Action, with other line ministries.

While the legal framework provides an essential basis for the various ministries engaged in social protection programmes to coordinate policies and programmes, various challenges, including a lack of budgets, administrative capacity and policy objectives for cross-sector programming, impede the Council from operating. An effective Coordination Council could further promote complementarity between social protection and food and nutrition security, that goes beyond the home-grown school feeding programme (PRONAE) and links the PSSB and the PASP to national food and nutrition security objectives. For instance, the government of Mozambique and international organisations did not coordinate the 2016 El Niño response with the PSSB and the PASP, while these social protection programmes also target most vulnerable households. As such, the El Niño response could have built on and strengthened existing programme structures, providing complementary instead of parallel support. Hence, complementing Mozambique's legal social protection framework by cross-sector policy objectives - embedding ENSSBII in food and nutrition security and wider national development plans, as well as stronger cross-sector budgetary and administrative capacity seems essential for effective coordination.

5. Social Protection Instruments

5.1. Complementary Interventions

As previously discussed, a comprehensive approach featuring a variety of social protection instruments to address the variable and diverse determinants of food and nutrition insecurity is most effective. Embedded within national development plans and food and nutrition policies, these instruments need to be linked to **complementary interventions** to improve the long-term developmental outcomes of these social protection instruments. Home-grown school feeding programmes (HGSF) need complementary rural development and skills creation programmes to assist local farmers in increasing their production of nutritious food for school meals, and possibly the wider consumer market. A good example of a comprehensive HGSF is Mozambique's PRONAE, which makes provisions for the government to strengthen the entire food supply chain, while participating smallholder farmers receive complementary agricultural services to increase their production²¹.

Furthermore, the so-called 'cash plus' model, in which cash transfers are complemented by other interventions, can further improve beneficiaries' resilience and more sustainably reduce poverty and food and nutrition insecurity. In a 'cash plus' approach geared towards food and nutrition security, cash transfers given to female caregivers to buy nutritious food for their families benefit from complementary construction of clean water sources, as contaminated and unsafe water can lessen nutrient intake and increase incidence of illnesses (e.g. diarrhoea). An example of a country that could benefit from a cash plus approach, more strategically complementing cash transfers by water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) interventions, is Gambia, where utilisation of food is a major challenge to food and nutrition security. Public works interventions, wherein labour-abled households receive cash transfers in return for their contribution to improving WASH facilities, could be an interesting instrument to further explore.

5.2. Implementation Structures

Promoting synergies between the implementation of different social protection instruments and complementary interventions through a strong policy, legal and institutional framework, can be created be complemented by single implementation structures at programme level. Such **single implementation structures**, used for the implementation of different social protection programmes, can improve complementarity, targeting and outreach, avoid duplication, and promote efficiency and cost effectiveness. Examples of single or integrated implementation structures include single registry systems and management information systems (MISs) that register beneficiaries of various programmes (e.g. public works, cash transfers, school feeding) into one single system, unified monitoring and evaluation structures, and consolidated community committees that serve various programmes. *Textbox 5* elaborates on the Zambian case.

For example, Mozambique recently established a single registry system for its Productive Social Action Programme (PASP), its Basic Social Allowance Programme (PSSB) and other social protection programmes to better target the support to eligible beneficiaries, ensuring complementarity and avoiding duplication²². Likewise, Kenya decided to give Equity Bank the assignment to provide all cash transfers delivered under the National Safety Net Programme, including its flagship Hunger Safety Net Programme (HSNP), replacing the multitude of service providers that previously provided cash transfers for the different programmes²³. The decisions of Mozambique and Kenya to forego parallel implementation structures hold the potential to enhance cost-efficiency, improve complementarity and strengthen coordination between social protection programmes.

In other instances, a newly established programme used the implementation structure of an existing programme. The implementation structure of the HGSF programme in Zambia was used by the Ministry of Health to launch a complementary deworming programme, promoting nutrition and utilisation of food. In Gambia, a programme (BReST) providing unconditional cash transfers to mothers and their children up until two years, complements a programme providing conditional cash transfers to pregnant women and their newborns in food insecure regions (MNCHRP). BReST has used similar targeting and selection criteria, building on the implementation structure of MNCHRP²⁴.

5.3. Food and Nutrition Security Indicators

To improve the outcomes of social protection programmes on food and nutrition security, instruments can use food and nutrition security indicators for targeting, monitoring and evaluation. The analysis of the five case study countries shows ample room for improvement in this regard, especially at regional and district level. In general, the school feeding programmes implemented by WFP use food security maps to identify and target communities with the lowest food and nutrition security indicators. A good practice that could be replicated to other types of social protection programmes. Such indicators can be used to target cash transfers, but also to decide on locations for the implementation of public works projects that can build community assets, which contribute to food and nutrition security. Ethiopia to some extent aims to target the public works projects under its productive safety net programme (PSNP) to regions marked by low food and nutrition security indicators²⁵.

5.4. Crops and Livestock Insurance

This analysis did not observe examples of agricultural insurance schemes or companies, which were substantial in size or commercially sustainable. There are several common explanations why agricultural insurance schemes and companies may not have gained much traction in the cases, and Sub-Saharan Africa in general (the one exception being South Africa). First, a lack of information about the insured, the local yields and the risks involved, requires insurers to conduct expensive research, which is difficult to conduct due to poor infrastructure and remoteness of some farms. These costs often do not outweigh the small profits from smallholders' insurance premiums²⁶. A second explanation is the lack of strong financial institutions, which could provide such insurances and tie them to micro-credit provision²⁷.

Textbox 5. Zambia: Implementation Structures and Complementary Interventions

Zambia's NSPP (2014) has set "food and nutrition security for vulnerable populations" and "the alleviation of poverty" as two of its goals. The NSPP takes a predominantly transfers approach and within this approach envisions a mix of programmes to attain these goals, including reliable cash transfers, emergency response and home grown school feeding (HGSF). Zambia aims to strengthen linkages and coherence among its various social transfer programmes and increase national ownership.

One programme that aims to strengthen linkages and coherence between different cash transfers, while enhancing national ownership, is the Social Cash Transfer (SCT) Programme, implemented by the Ministry of Community Development, Mother and Child Health (MCDMCH). The SCT provides unconditional cash transfers to labour-poor households who meet specific poverty, disability, age and household composition indicators. It combines several cash transfer programmes that were previously implemented as separate programmes, including a pensions scheme, a child grant support programme and two programmes targeting poor and extremely vulnerable households (MCDMW, 2014). The SCT is an example of how different social protection interventions with similar methods and aims can be integrated to improve complementarity and efficiency. While the SCT still covers the same beneficiaries as included in the before mentioned programmes, it has considerably simplified the targeting criteria. The fact that all four programmes were already implemented by the MCDMCH has eased this integration. The Ministry now works on the design of a single

registry system (SRS) for all cash transfer beneficiaries to further enhance this integration process. Opportunities exist for the SCT to seek complementarities and promote integration with other programmes, such as nutrition education, water and sanitation and skills development programmes. The design of this single registry system can facilitate this process. In addition to programme integration, Zambia has increased national ownership over the SCT with donor funding declining from 76 per cent in 2013 to 17 per cent in 2015 and 2016, while programme outcomes have improved (UNICEF, 2016b). A clear exit strategy with programme donors, administrative capacity-building, and strong commitment from the Zambian government were key factors in this process.

Another example is Zambia's Home Grown School Meals (HGSM) programme, since 2015 jointly implemented by the Ministry of General Education and WFP, which provides school meals to about one million school children. The food for these meals must be procured from farmers located close to these schools, with the objective to strengthen local food production and markets. Opportunities exist for the Ministry of General Education to seek coordination with existing agricultural extension services implemented by the Ministry of Agriculture to support local farmers with the production of nutritious food for school meals. The cooperation between the Ministry of General Education and the Ministry of Health is a noteworthy example, where the Ministry of Health utilises the HGSM as a platform for their deworming campaigns to improve nutrition outcomes.

21 Ministry of Education, 2013

22 World Bank, 2017a

23 Oxford Policy Management, 2016a

24 EPRI, 2017

25 Ministry of Agriculture, 2014

26 Greatrex et al., 2015

27 Antonaci et al., 2014

6. Conclusions

Social protection policies and programmes show great potential to offer a variety of solutions to food and nutrition insecurity. One of the most common social protection instruments, cash transfers, provide households with the means to purchase food at local markets, while improving their resilience, livelihoods and ability to invest in their future. However, to capitalise on the full potential of social protection for food and nutrition security, countries can adopt a more **holistic and comprehensive social protection approach** tailored to the specific determinants of food and nutrition insecurity, including trade, production and labour-related instruments. Kenya, Zambia and Gambia still take a predominantly transfers approach to social protection, focusing on the most poor and vulnerable households, although efforts are made to diversify this approach. Ethiopia, on the other hand, takes a more labour and production-oriented approach targeted at the poor, but labour-abled population. Mozambique implements a wider variety of instruments, adopting a relatively diversified approach. For each country, opportunities exist to further diversify and expand its approach based on a more thorough analysis of context specific determinants of food and nutrition insecurity.

A holistic social protection approach aims to **respond to the various determinants** – access, availability, utilisation and stability of food, by focusing on the stable demand and supply of nutritious food. For instance, social transfer programmes can stimulate direct demand for food, enhance human capital and improve resilience towards shocks, public works programmes targeted at improving food production can improve both demand and supply of nutritious food, while grain reserves can protect against shocks in food production. Focusing on transfers, labour, production and trade instruments can ensure that demand-side developments do not outpace the local supply-side and can prevent food price distortions. Reflecting on the five case study countries, more attention can be given to the utilisation and nutritional value of food that goes beyond the availability and access of food to include a diverse and nutritious diet. On the contrary, grain reserves only proved to be successful when used as protection of consumers and producers against large, sudden price shocks, and not as a way to provide longer-term food subsidies to consumers or price floors to producers.

By moving from a protective and preventive to this more **transformative social protection approach**, countries can better identify and respond to socio-economic trends. For instance, the transition from a rural-based economy to one that is increasingly set in cities requires strengthening of rural infrastructure and skills, while tailoring social protection interventions to food and nutrition security challenges of the urban population. Ethiopia and Mozambique are examples of countries that increasingly tailor to this trend. This transformative agenda, anticipating and responding to current and upcoming challenges to food and nutrition security, demands **complementary programmes**, such as water and sanitation, nutrition education, skill development, agricultural extension services, livelihood diversification and rural and urban micro-finance activities, which rely on synergies with other sectors.

To realise a more holistic and comprehensive social protection approach to food and nutrition security across sectors, a comprehensive **social protection policy framework** and multi-sector **coordination and cooperation** is important. All five countries have national social protection policies in place, but could take a more diversified approach, better specify food and nutrition security objectives, and create improved linkages to food and nutrition security policies and wider national development plans. In addition, in all five countries efforts have been made to put in place social protection coordination mechanisms, in the form of inter-ministerial councils and social protection secretaries. However, implementation could be improved: most coordination councils do not include all relevant ministries and lack a clear mandate. In Kenya legislation is forthcoming that aims to strengthen the mandate of its national social protection council across sectors. Though, none of the five countries analysed goes as far as to propose a cross-sector budget for social protection to reach jointly set objectives.

The case studies highlight increased opportunities to create **synergies between social protection and complementary programmes**, such as synergies between social transfer programmes and existing agricultural extension, emergency relief and development programmes. The analysis showed several good examples of 'cash plus' transfers, such as in Ethiopia and Mozambique, where cash transfer beneficiaries received additional livelihood skills trainings. Moreover, almost all HGSF programmes provide agricultural extension services to farmers who need to produce food for school meals. Opportunities exist to further promote complementarities, including, among other, in the planning of public works programmes for rural development, in the coordination of cash transfer programmes with emergency assistance, and between cash transfers and health, water, sanitation and nutrition programmes. In addition, it is important to prevent contradictory outcomes. The analysis of the five countries shows that grain reserves that are used to manage price floors increased consumer prices, which may have an offsetting effect on the outcomes of cash transfer programmes.

In terms of programme implementation, this study underlines the potential for **integration of implementation structures** between programmes. Integrated management information systems and single registries can provide many benefits, including improved targeting, transition of beneficiaries from one programme to the other, cross-programme evaluations, and savings on operational costs. The analysis shows examples where different cash transfer programmes make use of similar programme designs, modalities and implementation structures. Opportunities exist to further improve integration between social protection programmes, as well as with complementary programmes. Improved cost efficiency can enhance the sustainability of social protection programmes, as most social protection activities, especially those delivering social transfers, rely largely on external funding. Although governments are moving towards increased (financial) ownership, especially in the area of school feeding, efficiency savings offer a window to bring down the cost of social protection programmes to facilitate this process of independency.

Governments of the five case study countries underlined the importance of increasing **national capacities and ownership**. Clear examples exist of successful exit strategies between governments and donors, wherein a clear plan is drafted on how to promote capacities of governments to gradually take over ownership, while the donors phase out. The Zambian Social Cash Transfer Programme supported by various international donors is an example of a programme with a clear transition strategy and strong government commitment to take ownership over the programme. However, in many instances such a transition strategy was not in place. In addition, funding for social protection proves a great challenge in all case countries.

This rapport shows the great potential of **South-South knowledge exchange** and cooperation to improve social protection policies, frameworks and programmes for food and nutrition security. Each country shows unique social protection features, best practices and lessons learned, where opportunities exist for knowledge exchange between countries. For instance, Mozambique has decades of experience with fully government-funded cash transfer programmes, a relatively strong legal framework and diversified social protection approach for food and nutrition security. Zambia, that has the ambition to scale up its Social Cash Transfer programme, could learn from the experience of Mozambique. Moreover, Kenya has several years of experience with HGSF, while Gambia just started with piloting HGSF and could potentially benefit from the Kenyan experience. The NSPP of Gambia is relatively successful in promoting a more diversified approach, with learning opportunities for Kenya to further diversify its NSPP. In addition, Ethiopia can learn from the unconditional cash transfer experiences in Zambia, Kenya and Gambia, while the latter three countries can learn from the large scale rural and urban public works programmes implemented in Ethiopia. Both at the institutional and programme level, substantial opportunities exist for South-South learning and cooperation.

7. Recommendations and Suggested Ways Forward

The recommendations presented consist of general considerations that aim to accomplish higher level objectives, as well as more actionable sub-guidance that will help to achieve the former. Unless explicitly stated otherwise, the recommendations are made to governments and international development partners alike.

Recommendation 1: Harness social protection to strengthen local determinants of food and nutrition security for stable demand and supply of nutritious food

Social protection instruments can contribute to the various determinants of food and nutrition security - access, availability, stability and utilisation of food - especially when supported by complementary programmes. It is recommended to develop a holistic and diversified approach, embedded within wider development plans, that responds to the various determinants of food and nutrition security. This approach should be based on a thorough country-specific analysis of how the various determinants impact local food and nutrition security.

Sub-recommendation 1.1: Ensure a holistic social protection approach embedded within the national development approach

Local economies that provide stable market access to nutritious food, as well as opportunities for a range of livelihoods are pivotal to long-term food and nutrition security. Transfer programmes, such as cash transfers, home grown school feeding programmes and supplementary feeding, can strengthen the demand for food at local markets and thereby offer opportunities for farmers and traders to sell more. Public works programmes can enhance both demand for and supply of food. To prevent a mismatch between demand and supply and food price increases, complementary programmes should simultaneously capacitate the supply-side of the local economy to meet the increased demand for food. It is, therefore, important to embed the social protection approach into wider national development approaches in order to ensure a balanced growth of the demand for food, as well as the supply of skilled labour and the economies' absorptive capacity of such labour to increase food production and meet the demand for nutritious food.

Sub-recommendation 1.2: Utilise social protection and complementary programmes to strengthen food production and availability

Social protection, supported by complementary programmes, can indirectly strengthen the production dimension of food and nutrition security in order to meet the local demand for food and protect against shocks in food supply. Social protection instruments such as livestock and crop insurances, being promising in managing the risks faced by smallholders, have not gained traction on a substantial scale in Sub-Saharan Africa, due to a lack of commercial returns and of strong financial institutions. HGSF programmes, complemented by agricultural extension services, micro-finance and skills trainings targeted at local smallholder farmers can increase local agricultural supply. In addition, public works programmes can create community assets, such as irrigation systems and improved grazing lands, which can improve local food production and protect farmers against weather-related shocks.

Sub-recommendation 1.3: Use social protection and complementary programmes to improve access to food and diversify and strengthen agricultural livelihoods

Social transfers, both conditional and unconditional cash transfers, and cash transfers conditional upon public works, can improve the direct demand for food and strengthen the resilience of households. In the long run, these instruments can also improve the human capital base of a society, further contributing to household resilience. Complementary programmes, such as microfinance, agricultural skills development and livelihood diversification, can multiply the outcomes of these social transfer instruments. This transformative social protection approach that goes beyond mere protection and prevention is needed to ensure lasting outcomes and respond to socioeconomic trends of increasing urbanisation. On the one hand, this approach can assist households to create livelihoods that meet their food and nutritional needs, and thrive in economies that become increasingly urbanised and less based on agriculture. On the other hand, these instruments should be used to strengthen agricultural skills and promote the commercial viability of rural livelihoods to decrease the pressure of urbanisation and increase both agricultural productivity and labour-intensive agriculture.

Sub-recommendation 1.4: Use grain reserves to ensure food price stability as a response to emergency shocks in food supply

Grain reserves, classified as a trade-related social protection instrument, can ensure that progress in the demand and supply of nutritious food is not lost in the face of economic or weather-related shocks. Food price increases can force households to sell off productive assets, which hurts their purchasing power in the long-term, while low prices can compel farmers to sell cattle and forego investments in agricultural inputs and technologies. The effects of continuous grain reserves to manage food prices show mixed outcomes and often distort the market in favour of either farmers or consumers. However, grain reserves that are merely used in the event of economic or environmental shocks can be effective in protecting both farmers and consumers, as well as achieved supply and demand-side gains.

Sub-recommendation 1.5: Improve utilisation and nutritional value of food by complementary programmes

Utilisation of food, including ensuring nutritional value of food intake, is important to complement social protection instruments for food security. Nutrition supplements and education form a logical complement to home grown school feeding programmes. But complementary nutrition programmes can also accompany other social protection instruments, such as public works programmes and cash transfers, and should be an intrinsic part of any social protection strategy for food and nutrition security.

Recommendation 2: Ensure harmony of efforts between social protection and related sectors by strengthening coordination

Sub-recommendation 2.1: Align social protection objectives and policies with food, nutrition and wider development objectives and policies

To ensure a holistic and comprehensive social protection approach for food and nutrition security it is important to promote linkages between social protection objectives and policies and food and nutrition security objectives and policies. These linkages should go as far as to develop joint strategies and objectives that are reflected in policy documents of both sectors, and that promote opportunities for programme synergies and outcome multipliers. As social protection for food and nutrition security cuts across sectors, it is important to embed social protection policies and objectives for food and nutrition security into wider development plans and poverty reduction strategies, as well as into the objectives and policies of the nutrition and health sector, water and sanitation sector, the education sector and plans related to emergency response and disaster risk reduction and management. Coordination and strong linkages between objectives and policies across sectors demands strong, central leadership.

Sub-recommendation 2.2: Ensure an inclusive institutional and legal framework to realise effective coordination among all relevant stakeholders

A strong institutional framework for social protection is pivotal to ensure that ministries and development partners can transform joint policy objectives across all relevant sectors into effective and coordinated cross sector implementation. While there is widespread agreement that an inter-ministerial social protection council or steering committee can promote effective coordination at the national level, these councils should be supported by a unified legal framework with a clear mandate for these councils to coordinate policies and objectives across ministries. This legal mandate should define the form of coordination, the decision-making mechanisms and the scope, ensuring that all relevant stakeholders and instruments are included and empowered in the coordination process and related laws. These stakeholders should include agencies dealing with grain reserves and emergency response, which are now often excluded from coordination processes. An assigned budget for social protection to be managed by the council can further improve its decision-making power and effectiveness. To ensure that the decisions made at council level are translated into programme implementation at national, regional and local level, the council can be complemented by technical working groups at all levels.

Recommendation 3: Integrate programme implementation structures to enhance effectiveness and efficiency

Integrating implementation structures of social protection and complementary programmes can enhance the effectiveness, efficiency and complementarity of these programmes in addressing food and nutrition insecurity. As most programmes face considerable capacity constraints in terms of their financial and human resources, integration can provide fiscal space and promote efficient use of programme staff.

Sub-recommendation 3.1: Establish single registries and shared management information systems for social protection and complementary programmes

Shared management information systems and single registries of programme beneficiaries play an important role in driving systematic programme improvements. Such systems, however, can be more widely used and shared between social protection and other sectors. Single registries of beneficiaries and shared management information systems have proven crucial in avoiding overlap between transfer programmes, especially in rolling out temporary transfers in response to drought-related food insecurity. Inclusion of other sectors, such as delivery of education and health interventions, in such systems has been implemented on limited scale, but holds great potential to enhance complementarity of the service delivery across sectors to one single beneficiary. For instance, in home-grown school feeding programmes, next to direct beneficiaries, farmers who receive complementary agricultural assistance and who produce for schools can be registered to assess how the complementary assistance results in nutritious school meals for school children and increased profits for farmers. Such systems also prove to be essential to ensure transition of beneficiaries between different programmes, and hold the potential for real-time monitoring and evaluation of programmes and its complementarities, reducing the necessity for costly impact evaluations.

Sub-recommendations 3.2: Integrate programme management, targeting and delivery structures

Policymakers can consider taking integration between programmes one step further, by integrating management, targeting and delivery structures. Integration of programmes is straightforward when two programmes tackle different groups of people, but with similar aims (e.g. reducing food and nutrition security) and modalities (i.e. monthly unconditional cash transfers). However, integration of social protection instruments with complementary programmes, such as the above mentioned example of home grown school feeding with agricultural support, can also benefit from integrated management, targeting and delivery structures. In the long run, integration across sectors and government units can reduce operational expenditures.

Recommendation 4: Enhance sustainability of social protection programmes

Many programmes analysed in this paper relied substantially or entirely on external funding from donors, while donors also played a significant role in the programme implementation, which may threaten the sustainability of these programmes. To ensure sustainability in the long-term, it is necessary to gradually move towards full ownership of social protection programmes by ministries, department and agencies, both in terms of funding and implementation.

Recommendation 4.1: Define clear exit strategies between donors and governments and a clear plan on how to move towards national ownership

To ensure the sustainability of programmes it is important to define a clear exit strategy from the start of a programme between government and donor. This exit strategy should be accompanied by a clear plan on how to prepare governments to gradually take over the programme, while the donor gradually phases out. This plan demands commitment of both government and donor and should consider how the supported programme is linked to other social protection instruments and complementary programmes to ensure cross-sector sustainability.

Recommendation 4.2: Choose programmes wisely and seek for efficiency gains

To make optimal use of the limited fiscal space of governments, it is important to choose the social protection instruments wisely, based on a thorough understanding of the drivers of food and nutrition insecurity and success records of the instruments. For instance, fuel and food subsidies, although easily implemented, are often marked by inclusion errors and tend to have distorting effects on the market, which make them less efficient and effective than direct cash or food transfers. When choosing between these programmes, it is recommended to favour well-designed transfer programmes over input subsidies. In addition, investment in the integration of programme implementation structures, shared management information systems and single registries can in the medium to long run improve effectiveness, complementarity and cost efficiency.

Recommendation 4.3: Commit to spend a specific share of the public budget on social protection

Finally, governments should commit to spend a fixed share of their gross domestic product on social protection, which can safeguard long term spending and promote investments in the above mentioned cost efficiency gains and related innovations.

Recommendation 5: Capitalise on the potential of South-South learning and cooperation

Sub-recommendation 5.1: Exchange best practices from the region and other development contexts

Recognising that the design and implementation of social protection frameworks for food and nutrition security is a relatively new domain, wherein governments have chosen different approaches and piloted different programmes, governments should draw on each other's experiences to adopt best practices and cope with common challenges. Through their networks with government stakeholders, international development partners and knowledge institutions can play an important role in facilitating such exchange of best practices. For example, since 2011, the WFP Centre of Excellence against Hunger in Brazil has connected governments of the global south to exchange and learn from country experiences, supporting these partnerships with knowledge on food and nutrition security policies and programming. The Centre has worked extensively with the Brazilian government on its Zero Hunger strategy, ascribed as one of the most successful social protection initiatives in addressing food and nutrition insecurity, and in the current Partnership for National Social Development Initiatives (PNSDI) with DFID and the Brazilian Ministry of Social Development, aims to facilitate the exchange of experiences with countries in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Sub-recommendation 5.2: Establish resource networks to facilitate knowledge management and identify best practices

To better facilitate information exchange on best practices and lessons learned, robust digital resource networks hold the potential to collect information about the success factors and challenges of social protection approaches and instruments for food and nutrition security. One example of such a resource network is the Purchase from Africa for Africans (PAA Africa), financed by the government of Brazil and DFID, which has set up pilots for different HGFSF programmes in five different Sub-Saharan African countries to generate best practices and lessons learned on local food procurement for school feeding, which can advance policy agenda's and implementation structures. The PAA Africa model can have elements adapted and multiplied to other types of social protection instruments and complementary programmes.



Photo: WFP/Vinicius Limongi

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Annex A: List of Stakeholders Consulted and Experts Interviewed

Country	Ministry/organisation	Position	Name
Ethiopia	World Food Programme	Team Leader, School Feeding Programme	Mrs. Askale Teklu
Gambia	Ministry of Health and Social Welfare	Director of the Department of Social Welfare	Mrs. Fanta Bai Secka
Gambia	World Food Programme	Programme Officer	Isatou Nasircham
Kenya	Ministry of East African Community, Labour & Social Protection	Senior Assistant Director	Mrs. Winnie Fiona Mwasiaji
Kenya	World Food Programme	Programme Policy Officer	Mr. David Kamau
Mozambique	World Food Programme	Programme Policy Officer	Mr. Raul Chambote
Zambia	World Food Programme	Senior Programme Policy Officer	Mrs. Edna Kalaluka
n/a	Economic Policy Research Institute	Director of Research	Dr. Michael Samson



Photo: WFP/Alejandro Chicheri

Annex B: Detailed Methodology

Data collected and collated through structured desk research activities, stakeholder consultations and expert interviews have captured different dimensions of the same phenomenon and thereby jointly optimise the robustness of the study. The conclusions derived from the three-pillared methodology form the basis for the country case studies. Finally, the comparative analysis of cross-cutting findings feeds into the recommendations and suggested ways forward.

3.1 Structured Desk Research

EPRI has collected and consulted data from online surveys, databases, existing publications, policy documents and corporate documents. The structured desk research has labelled and summarised the main conceptual and theoretical trends in food and nutrition security and social protection. In addition, the data has been used to develop backgrounds for the case studies of the five selected African countries - Ethiopia, The Gambia, Mozambique, Kenya and Zambia. These country-specific backgrounds include basic socio-economic data and an appraisal of social protection policies and programmes, such as cash transfers, school feeding, subsidies and public works programmes, and its relevant actors, focusing on links with food and nutrition security.

Following these country-specific backgrounds, the main social protection programmes for food and nutrition security have been listed and described (profile), and assessed (analysis) per country. To this end, the **policy and programme-level matrix** displayed in *Table 2* has been used to capture key design, implementation and impact features of all the relevant programmes implemented across the five countries at national or sub-national levels, as well as an overview of relevant stakeholders, such as federal and state governments, non-governmental stakeholders, community-based organisations, international organisations and other development partners. The data collected through the structured desk research was a first step in populating this matrix and creating an initial programme profiling and assessment.

3.2 Remote Stakeholder Consultations

To complement, support and strengthen the structured desk research, remote consultations with governmental and non-governmental stakeholders engaged with social protection and food and nutrition security policies and programmes in the five case study countries have been conducted. Focal persons or key stakeholders in each case study country have been identified within various ministries. These first consultations have served as an entry point for the identification of additional stakeholders to be consulted. A complete list of consulted stakeholders is displayed in *Annex 2*.

All consulted stakeholders received information on the topic they were consulted on beforehand. **Semi-structured interview guides**, as displayed in *Annex C*, served as guiding framework for the consultations, subdivided into questions relating to the policy environment, programme design and implementation, coordination and integration, and challenges and opportunities. Based on the specific stakeholder to be consulted, ranging from high-ranked stakeholders at the policy level to stakeholders engaged with programme design and implementation, the topics of the interview guides to be covered, were selected.

In the country case study assessments, the programme-level matrix has subsequently been analysed to understand heterogeneity in the pathways to programme outcomes on food and nutrition security, highlighting cross-cutting trends and innovations. In other words, the analysis subsequently aims to assess what works and when. Drivers of impact - what programmes work under what circumstances - have been mapped and feedback into the comparative analysis and recommendations for ways forward.

3.3 Remote Expert Interviews

In a third step, remote expert interviews with academics and experts have complemented the analysis by identifying the cross-cutting factors of success in social protection programmes for food and nutrition security. In addition, expert interviews have served to validate some of the assumptions made, especially with regards to the conceptual framework and the policy and programme matrix analysis. Talking to experts has not only been a concentrated method of accessing critical data and validating initial findings; it was also critical in ensuring successful dissemination and uptake of the study amongst researchers and practitioners.



Photo: WFP/Ivan Canabreva

Annex C: Semi-Structured High-Level Interview Guide

Actor	Topic	Generic questions
Government Department, Ministry, or Agency (MDA) at Policy/General level	Social Protection and Food and Nutrition Security	<p>1. Does your country have a (national) social protection policy? Does your country have policies related to food and nutrition security? Can you tell me more about these policies?</p> <p><u>Probing questions:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> When was this policy launched and what are the main elements of this policy? Is the policy embedded in any laws? What are the institutional arrangements: what Departments, Ministries or Agencies are involved? How is cooperation organised between them? Are there other stakeholders involved? To what extent are communities and target beneficiaries involved? <p>2. What is the management and oversight arrangement for social protection and food and nutrition security at national and local level?</p> <p><u>Probing questions</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Which ministry/ministries within government are involved and what are their responsibilities? What are the lines of reporting and who is involved in oversight? <p>3. What are the main social protection programmes? What specific programmes contribute to food and nutrition security (access, availability, utilisation, stability)?</p> <p><u>Probing questions per programme:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> What Ministry, Department, Agency manages the programme? When did the programme start and what is the time frame? Who are the main beneficiaries of the programme? How many beneficiaries are currently covered and how are they targeted (universal, categorical, geographical)? What are the objectives of the programme? What kind of support is provided (agricultural input subsidies, crop/weather or livelihood insurance, public works programme, food price stabilisation, food subsidies and vouchers, grain reserves, school feeding and home-grown school feeding, supplementary feeding (THR), unconditional cash transfer, conditional cash transfer)? How frequent is support provided? Is the support conditional? How does monitoring take place? Is there any information on programme outcomes on food and nutrition security? What are the main challenges and opportunities of the programme? What is the budget of the programme and how is it financed? <p>4. How do social protection programmes relate to each other (integration) and to other programmes that aim to promote food and nutrition security (comprehensive)?</p> <p>5. If any, what are main challenges of the country's approach to social protection and food and nutrition security? Do you have recommendations on how to address these challenges? What are main opportunities?</p> <p>6. Can you share policy and programme documents with us? Who are other key stakeholders at government level or within key organisations that we need to speak to (max 5)?</p>

		Background: Detailed questions per programme
Government Department, Ministry, or Agency (MDA) at programme level	General programme structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is the official programme title? • When did the programme start and what is the time frame? • What is the problem the programme aims to address? • What are the main objectives of the programme? Have these always been the objectives? • Who are the beneficiaries? • How many beneficiaries are currently covered and how are they targeted (i.e. universal, geographical, categorical)? • What data is used to develop the programme, to select beneficiaries and to monitor the programme? Is the programme based on a poverty strategy? • Is there an exit strategy and if yes, how is this strategy defined? • What is the management and oversight arrangement for the programme? Which ministry/ministries within government are involved and what are their responsibilities? What are the lines of reporting and who is involved in oversight? • Is government wholly responsible for management and oversight or do you have partners? (If yes) How is the work divided between government and partnering Organisations? • Is the community involved in the programme? (If yes) How?
	Policy and legal frameworks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the programme embedded within any (general/food/nutrition) laws or policies? (If yes) At what level are these laws or policies (federal/national, state, local) and do laws differ between the various levels? • When were these laws/policies passed or adopted? • Do these laws/policies specify which ministries/actors are responsible for which aspects of the programme? Are they legally binding on actors? • Are the policies legally binding on actors? • (If partnering with other Organisations) Do you have MoUs or other agreements with partner organisations on the programme? • Are there any complementary policies or laws to the programme?
	Financing and budget	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How is the programme financed? How are budget allocations made to fund the programme? Is the spending centralised or decentralised? • Do any policies or laws specify how the programme is financed? • What is the current annual budget, and how is that money divided across various areas?
	Demand-side arrangements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Who is targeted by the policy? • How are they targeted? • What selection criteria (universal, categorical, geographical) are used? • What kind of support is provided (cash, in-kind, public works etc.)? • How frequent is support provided? • (In case of cash transfer) How is the payment arrangement organised? • Is support conditional? • What is the exit strategy for beneficiaries? • (If procuring locally) Is there currently a linkage between demand and supply, between supporting consumers and promoting producers (twin track)?
	Monitoring and Evaluation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is there any information on programme outcomes (2-5 years) and impacts (5 years and longer) on food and nutrition security? • Through what channels does the programme impact food security (access, availability, utilisation, stability, or indirect)? • Is there any information on outcome indicators of interest before and after the programme (impact on health, nutrition, education, social, economic)? • What kind of monitoring activities are conducted? • How frequently does monitoring take place? • How does monitoring affect the programme? Is there flexibility to adapt the programme accordingly? • Has there been an impact evaluation?
	Challenges / future plans	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is the future of the programme? Are there any plans to expand the programme? • If any, what are the main challenges that the programme faces? Do you have recommendations about how to address these challenges? • If any, what are the main opportunities?



Photo: WFP/Isadora Ferreira

Annex D: Ethiopia Country Case Study

5.1 General Background

With a population of 103 million people, Ethiopia maintains a national Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita of USD 707^{28, 29}, making it a low-income country. However, between 2003 and 2015, Ethiopia's economy experienced broad-based and strong GDP growth, averaging 10.8 per cent annually, compared to the regional average of 5.4 per cent. Additionally, the prevalence of people living in poverty underwent substantial reductions over a similar timeframe: in 2000, 55.3 per cent of Ethiopians were living in extreme poverty (below USD 1.90 a day), a figure that decreased to 33.5 per cent by 2011. On top of achieving sustained economic growth, Ethiopia realised several Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) ahead of targets, such as progress on gender equality, reducing maternal mortality and increasing school enrolment rates³⁰.

Despite the abovementioned economic and developmental successes, Ethiopia struggles to significantly address high acute and chronic malnutrition rates. While prevalence of indicators linked to malnutrition are improving, the 2016 Ethiopia Demographic Health Survey lists national prevalence of wasting at 9.9 per cent, underweight at 23.6 per cent and stunting at 38.4 per cent, while these figures are somewhat lower for refugees in Ethiopia³¹. Food insecurity, particularly in the drought-prone regions of Oromia, Somali and the Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples Region (SNNPR), contributes to acute and chronic malnutrition, and the detrimental effects of El Niño in recent years have exacerbated the situation. For example, El Niño increased livestock mortality, reduced the price of livestock and pushed up food prices; moreover, farmers lost between 50 and 90 per cent of their harvest in 2016. These effects from El Niño, which caused some of the most severe weather conditions witnessed in Ethiopia in 50 years, can worsen food insecurity and malnutrition levels across the country, both of which can have negative impacts on short and long-term economic growth.

5.2 Social Protection Institutional and Legal Environment

The validation of the **National Social Protection Policy (NSPP)** in 2014 marked an important milestone in the development of a national social protection system in Ethiopia. The NSPP defines social protection "as being a set of formal and informal interventions that aim to reduce social and economic risks, vulnerabilities and deprivations for all people and facilitate equitable growth³²". "The social protection objectives of the NSPP are embedded in the principles that social protection is a **human right**, should be predictable and sustainable, and should be delivered through engagement of citizens by the state. These principles reflect the rights of Ethiopian citizens set forth in the **Constitution**.

The NSPP sets out the obligation of the Council of Ministers to establish the National Social Protection Steering Committee (NSPSC). Once in place, members of the NSPSC will be drawn from all relevant ministries and institutions. The NSPSC will be tasked with the responsibility to implement the NSPP, oversee the integration of the NSPP into other strategies and coordinate evaluations. The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs is tasked with the actual **coordination of programmes**, reporting to the Council of Ministers on progress on the NSPP, creating new social protection legislation and establishing overarching structures such as the Management Information System (MIS). The Council of Ministers appoints the NSPSC chair. Although the ministries implementing major social protection programmes in Ethiopia are all listed for inclusion in the NSPSC, the Minister of Disaster Risk Management is absent.

The NSPP **objectives** are to 1) protect poor and vulnerable individuals, households, and communities from the adverse effects of shocks and destitution, 2) increase the scope of social insurance, 3) increase access to equitable and quality health, education and social welfare services to build human capital thus breaking the intergenerational transmission of poverty, 4) guarantee a minimum level of employment for the long-term unemployed and under employed, 5) enhance the social status and progressively realise the social and economic rights of the excluded and marginalised, 6) ensure the different levels of society are taking appropriate responsibility for the implementation of social protection policy³⁴.

To reach the six identified objectives, Ethiopia's NSPP is subdivided into four focus areas:

- 1) Social safety nets
- 2) Promoting employability
- 3) Social insurances
- 4) Addressing inequalities in access to basic services³⁴.

28 GDP per capita, here and for the other cases, is expressed in Current USD, as per the World Bank Group's data measured for the year 2016
29 World Bank Group Databank, 2017a
30 World Bank Group, 2017b
31 Food Security and Nutrition Working Group, 2017
32 Government of Ethiopia, 2012, p.1
33 Ibid, p.15
34 Ibid, p.18

The NSPP also refers to policies related to food and nutrition security, whose overarching policy response is the Agricultural Development Led Industrialisation Strategy. The main approach, as laid down in this strategy, is to promote the development and food security of the country through labour-intensive agricultural development. However, the NSPP does not explain how food and nutrition security policies can contribute to the realisation of social protection policies, and vice versa. Nevertheless, both the NSPP and the Growth and Transformation Plan 2 (GTP2) refer to the Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP), explained in more detail in the next section, as the key social protection programme contributing to food and nutrition security.

Ethiopia's second Growth and Transformation Plan, the country's **main poverty strategy**, the Health Sector Development Plan (2015-2016) and the National Strategy for Newborn and Child Survival (2015-2020) also set specific objectives for food and nutrition security in Ethiopia, though exclusively in health interventions (e.g. improved monitoring of nutritional status and supplementary feeding).

5.3 Profile of Main Programmes

This section will explain the key social protection programmes that contribute to food and nutrition security in Ethiopia: the Home-Grown School Feeding (HGSF) Programme, the Fourth Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP), the Urban Productive Safety Net Programme (UPSNP) and the Grain Subsidy Programme. When reflecting on *Table 1*, it is possible to divide the instruments outlined in the NSPP into **transfers** (demand-side measures enabling the targeted population to purchase food), **production** (supply-side measures enabling the targeted population to improve food production), **labour** (twin-track interventions enabling public workers to contribute to food production, while promoting their ability to purchase food) and **trade** (food price stabilisation). Referring to *Table 1*, the HGSF programme can be defined as a transfers and production approach to food and nutrition security, increasing access to and production of food. The PSNP and the UPSNP can be categorised as production, labour and transfers approaches to improve food and nutrition security, promoting food production and access to nutritious food through public work and cash transfers. The Grain Subsidy Programme can be defined as a trade approach to food and nutrition security by influencing the price of and access to grain. In addition, Ethiopia features a variety of fragmented and small cooperative-based weather and crop insurance initiatives³⁵, though as these programmes have not reached scale yet, they will not be discussed in this report³⁶.

5.3.1. Production, Labour and Transfers: Productive Safety Net Programme

Title: Productive Safety Net Programme 4 (PSNP), including Household Asset Building Programme
Implementer: Ministry of Agriculture (MoA) and Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA)
Objective: Public works and cash transfers to strengthen vulnerable rural households' resilience to shocks and food insecurity and promote food production
Duration: 2014-2020 (PNSP1 started in 2005)
Target: Food insecure and poor households able to conduct public works and labour-constrained households and households with pregnant or lactating women
Coverage: 8.3 million beneficiaries across all regions, except for Gambella and Benishangul Gumuz, which are covered by different programmes
Budget: USD 2.7 billion, financed by international donors (e.g. World Bank, USAID, DFID) and the Government of Ethiopia (USD 100 million)

Background and design

The PSNP is the fourth phase of the larger PSNP programme and builds on the institutions established under previous PSNP phases. The PSNP was launched in 2005, as part of MoA's Food Security Programme (FSP). Its livelihood support services were previously a separate programme under the FSP, but have now been merged into the PSNP, marking a considerable step towards integration and complementarity³⁷. As for **coordination**, the PSNP also contributes to other rural development efforts and is integrated into the Agricultural Sector Policy and Investment Policy 2010-2020, the country's key agricultural development strategy. The fourth PSNP phase **targets** *woredas* that were part of the third PSNP phase³⁸, while adding new *woredas* on the basis of food and nutrition insecurity, incidence of conflict, and local administrative capacity. It aims to include all 411 food insecure *woredas* by 2017. For the selection of actual beneficiaries, Community Food Security Task Forces select households based on poverty levels through Proxy Mean Testing (PMT) and levels of food insecurity. The PMT and food security analysis work with standardised formats³⁹.

The PSNP consists of three main activities. The first activity, which covers 80 per cent of beneficiaries, provides conditional cash transfers (CCTs) to labour-abled, vulnerable, poor and food and nutrition insecure households in return for their participation in community public works projects. To maximise the benefits of the projects on communities, the communities themselves decide on the public works⁴⁰. The second activity, which covers the remaining 20 per cent of beneficiaries, provides unconditional cash transfers (UCTs) to poor, food and nutrition insecure and labour-constrained households. As sub-component,

the programme plans to provide cash transfers with soft conditionality to pregnant and lactating women to improve their access to antenatal and newborn healthcare. Cash transfers are given on a monthly basis, with UCTs to labour-constrained households given for a period of twelve months. Public workers receive the conditional transfer until they have built an asset level that allows them to meet 12 months of food needs and resist mild shocks. The third activity, which covered 1.1 million people in 2016, consists of a temporarily scaled up PSNP as part of the emergency response. Essentially, the PSNP implementation structure is used to reach out to more beneficiaries in those *woredas* where the PSNP is already being implemented. *Woredas* that are not covered by the PSNP but are still in need of relief, benefit from other emergency response activities, mostly by WFP and Catholic Relief Services⁴¹. The scaled-up emergency response PSNP follows the same process as the regular PSNP. About 80 per cent of beneficiaries under this component received transfers conditional upon participation in public works project, while incapacitated households receiving unconditional transfers made up the remaining 20 per cent. In contrast to the regular PSNP, this component provided food as well as cash transfers⁴².

Beneficiaries who participate in community public works projects can receive additional skills, technical and financial assistance to diversify and strengthen their livelihoods, including on-farm support for crop and livestock, off-farm income generating support and assistance with finding a job⁴³. Next to improving household assets through these different means, the community public works projects aim to contribute to building community assets. The development of household and community assets aims to increase food and nutrition security⁴⁴.

Institutional arrangements

The Ministry of Agriculture, in close partnership with MoLSA, is responsible for the **management** of the project. As for **centralisation**, the Coordination and Management Committee, consisting of government staff and development partners, handles implementation challenges that cannot be dealt with by technical working groups.

At the policy level, a high-level Joint Strategic Oversight Committee, chaired by the State Minister of Disaster Risk Management and comprising of relevant line ministers and development partners, meets twice per year. The Minister of Disaster Risk Management is also responsible for general programme **oversight and monitoring and evaluation**. **Implementation** of the public works component under the PSNP is the responsibility of the *Woreda* Office of Agriculture, which falls under the MoA. The unconditional cash support, now managed by the MoA, will gradually be handed over to MoLSA. Finally, the additional livelihood support to public workers is coordinated by the Livelihood Implementation Unit, which also falls under the MoA.

Key achievements and challenges

In several ways, the fourth phase of the PSNP and previous PSNP phases have had a positive effect on food and nutrition security. An impact evaluation, looking at data from 2010, found that the PSNP has reduced the food gap, i.e. number of months of required food that cannot be satisfied by the households' own consumption, from 3.6 to 2.3 months. Moreover, the programme has been linked to increased domestic assets, decreased negative coping strategies, such as the sale of assets in times of distress, and improved wellbeing due to better financial conditions⁴⁵. Public workers, who also benefitted from livelihood services under PSNP, were 2.5 times more likely to graduate than beneficiaries who did not benefit from this additional support. An evaluation of the third PSNP phase, which looked into the economic effects of the PSNP, also found that the assets created by the public works have improved livelihoods in the community, exercised a positive effect on **food production**, and contributed to higher incomes. Opportunities exist to improve the quality and sustainability of household and community assets created by public works, and to further improve the extent to which they contribute to food and nutrition security. Finally, despite the lack of central coordination of social protection with emergency relief, the PSNP is well integrated into emergency response efforts. The scale up of PSNP as part of the emergency response in covered *woredas* made use of existing programme implementation structures and was able to avoid overlap with other humanitarian programmes⁴⁶.

35 Programme of Agricultural Risk Management, 2016, p.64

36 Currently, a Platform for Agricultural Risk Management (PARM), a pan-African project supported by international development partners, is underway to assist the Government of Ethiopia with establishing more substantial crop and weather insurances in Ethiopia.

37 Ministry of Agriculture, 2014

38 The *Woreda* is the administrative unit comparable with districts in other countries.

39 Ministry of Agriculture, 2014

40 International Labor Organisation, 2013, p.66

41 Government of Ethiopia and Development Partners, 2016

42 World Food Programme, 2017a

43 World Bank Group, 2014b, p.11

44 Government of Ethiopia, 2012, p.7

45 Burhane, G. et al., 2013

46 Government of Ethiopia and Development Partners, 2016

Title: Urban Productive Safety Net Programme (UPSNP)
Implementer: Ministry of Urban Development and Housing (MUDHo)
Objective: Public works and cash transfers to strengthen vulnerable urban households' resilience to shocks and food insecurity and promote food production
Duration: 2015 - 2020
Target: Labour-abled persons in poor households (84 per cent of beneficiaries) who can contribute in public works and households unable to work (16 per cent)
Coverage: 604,000 beneficiaries (first phase): poorest 12 per cent and about 55 per cent of people living below the poverty line in 11 cities.
Budget: USD 489 million, of which USD 300 million funded by the World Bank and USD 189 by the Government of Ethiopia

Background and design

The UPSNP consists of similar activities as the PSNP: CCTs to labour-abled, poor, and food and nutrition insecure urban households in return for their participation in urban public works projects (84 per cent of beneficiaries) and UCTs to poor, food and nutrition insecure and labour-constrained urban households (16 per cent of beneficiaries). The main difference between the two programmes is the geographic focus: rural for the PSNP versus urban for the UPSNP. UPSNP geographically **targets** urban centres, including the eleven largest cities, Addis Ababa, and at least one city from every region (i.e. geographical selection). Project beneficiaries are identified through a combination of urban poverty mapping, community-based targeting (CBT) and Proxy Means Tests (PMT), and self-selection by households invited to participate. As for the CBT, city level administrators partner with **community** leaders and community organisations to select community members according to levels of poverty and food and nutrition insecurity. Independent survey enumerators then conduct PMT among a random sample of these households, in order to verify the results of the CBT. All non-sampled households are included, but sampled household found to live above the national poverty line are excluded. The UPSNP aims to use the same registry and management information system as PSNP and efforts are made to set up knowledge-sharing and coordination mechanisms⁴⁷. The UPSNP also aims to copy the payment system of PSNP to promote advantages of scale and efficiency⁴⁸.

Similar to the PSNP, beneficiaries receive cash transfers on a monthly basis. Public workers can benefit from the programme for three years, while labour-constrained households benefit for the entire project period of five years (2015-2020). Examples of urban public works projects include construction of sanitary systems and urban agriculture. In the second and third year of participation in the programme, public works beneficiaries can also benefit from livelihood support programmes, including training and financial assistance (up to ETB 10,000) for setting up a business. Household members participating in the livelihood services are selected from the CCT beneficiaries. One member per household, selected by the household, can benefit from livelihood services.

Institutional arrangements

The Urban Food Security & Job Creation Agency (UFS&JCA), which falls under the MUDHo, is responsible for the **management** of the programme. The UFS&JCA **coordinates** closely with staff from MoA on the PSNP, from MoLSA on the livelihood activities, and from the Ministry of Women, Children and Youth Affairs. The World Bank and the Government jointly **monitor** the programme through semi-annual Joint Review and Implementation Support missions. In addition, MUDHo compiles monitoring data on a monthly basis to inform programme implementation, and **evaluates** the programme on an annual basis and targeting on a biannual basis. An impact evaluation is planned at the end of the programme⁴⁹.

Key achievements and challenges

As the transfers only commenced in June 2017, no evaluation of the UPSNP activities has yet been conducted.

5.3.2. Transfers and Production: Home Grown School Feeding

Title: Regular and Emergency Home Grown School Feeding (HGSF) Programmes
Implementer: Ministry of Education, with support from, inter alia, World Food Programme (WFP), Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO), Purchase from Africans for Africa, Partnership for Child Development and Dubai Cares
Objective: Provision of locally sourced school meals to contribute to local food production, address malnutrition among school children, respond to food emergencies and promote equitable access to quality education and improved school retention, completion and transition
Duration: Regular HGSF: 2012 – ongoing | Emergency HGSF: 2016 – ongoing
Target: Primary school children
Coverage: Regular HGSF: 65,000 school children | Emergency HGSF: 2.7 million school children
Budget: Emergency HGSF is fully funded by the Government of Ethiopia

Background and design

Under the regular HGSF programme, **school meals** prepared from **locally produced food** are provided to school children in 105 schools in the SNNPR and Oromia regions. To respond to drought-related emergencies, the government launched the Emergency HGSF programme in 2016 as part of the wider emergency food relief response, using the same **procurement procedures** as the Regular HGSF programme.

The **targeting** of schools under the Regular HGSF programme is based on WFP's criteria, including food and nutrition insecurity and education indicators. Targeting of schools was also sensitive to Government's desire to select schools in areas where more general development indicators were lagging behind (e.g. health, poverty and sanitation), especially the pastoralist areas of the SNNPR. The Emergency HGSF programme, on the other hand, targets all schools in the *woredas* (sub-districts) classified as food insecure, based on bi-annual data from the Federal Disaster Risk Management and Food Security Sector (DRMFSS) under the Ministry of Agriculture. The **support** of both HGSF Programmes consists of daily school meals consisting of different types of grains and beans, depending on the local availability.

Institutional arrangements

Both HGSF programmes are **implemented** by the Regional Bureaus of Education, under **supervision** of the Ministry of Education. The Regional Bureau of Education oversees the local purchase of food from cooperative unions, i.e. local farmer organisations, which in turn pack and transport the requested quantities to the schools selected for the Regular HGSF programme and the Emergency HGSF programme. Under the National School Health and Nutrition Strategy (2012) the Emergency HGSF programme, as well as the Regular HGSF programme, are set to become permanent safety nets financed and implemented by the Ethiopian government targeted at school children from poor and emergency-affected households⁵⁰.

Key achievements and challenges

Both HGSF programmes are an integral part of the wider emergency response in the selected *woredas*. For instance, in selected *woredas*, next to the HGSF programmes, the public works activities under the PSNP build kitchens to prepare the school meals or improve roads to connect schools and farmer cooperatives. Moreover, the government of Ethiopia and development partners, such as WFP use cooperative unions as a platform for the provision of agricultural support services to capacitate them to deliver sufficient food for the HGSF programmes, in which goal they have succeeded satisfyingly so far. In this way, the HGSF programmes have succeeded in applying a complementary approach that simultaneously aims to strengthen the demand-side through increased local food procurement and the supply-side through agricultural support.

The remoteness of some schools and local markets as a result of poor road conditions, poses a challenge to the provision of food and catering services by cooperative unions. In these cases, further decentralisation of procurement could form an opportunity to improve delivery of school meals. Areas where schools are better connected to local markets could also realise efficiency savings from decentralisation, possibly up to the *woreda* level. A second challenge is the lack of data and the difficulty in measuring the effects of the HGSF programmes on local markets. Especially in remote areas, the question remains whether local farmers are sufficiently capacitated to meet the increased demand for nutritious food, thus, once again underlining the importance of agricultural support programmes.

5.3.3. Trade: Grain Subsidies

Title: Grain Subsidy Programme
Implementer: Ethiopian Grain Trade Enterprise (EGTE)
Objective: Promote food price stability and limit inflation of food prices
Duration: 1999 - ongoing
Target group: Millers and poor households
Coverage: 280 millers in 2014/2015

Background and design

The Grain Subsidy Programme purchases grain on the international market and subsequently sells the grain to selected millers in Ethiopia at a below-market price. The objective of the programme is to keep food prices stable and low. The EGTE does not intervene on a continuous basis, but the last two decades mainly intervened in the market when extreme price fluctuations were looming. For instance, in 2014 and 2015, following the El Niño drought and failed harvests, the EGTE sold imported **wheat** to 280 millers at a discounted price⁵¹. The **support** is **unconditional**, with millers benefiting from subsidised maize being free to set the price of the flour.

Institutional arrangements

The EGTE **implements** the Grain Subsidy Programme, under **supervision** of the Ministry of Trade.

47 World Bank Group, 2015a, p.7
48 Ibid, p.22

49 Ibid, p.21

50 Ministry of Education, 2012

51 Shaidur & Negass, 2013

Key challenges and achievements

Despite the large price difference between the purchasing cost for millers (USD 275) and their selling price (USD 398)⁵², the 2015 market intervention appears to have staved off extreme food price inflation resulting from the El Niño drought. Although the price of bread, an important staple, did increase substantially, the EGTE played a role in stabilising the bread price, until the following harvest in late 2015, when prices started to decrease again⁵³. These *ad hoc* market interventions are expensive, but can provide a short-term, market-based solution to households' ability to access food when prices soar, or to farmers' livelihoods when wheat prices plunge, when used wisely in times of shocks. Coordination with other social protection programmes remains challenging. The NSPP does not include the Ministry of Trade in the Social Protection Steering Committee, nor does the NSPP include grain subsidies and reserves.

5.4 Assessment of Main Programmes

5.4.1. Effects on Food and Nutrition Security Outcomes

Ethiopia takes a predominantly **labour and production** approach to food and nutrition security. The two largest social protection programmes, i.e. the PSNP and UPSNP, aim to increase agricultural production and labour, supported by a transfer component. While the PSNP has managed to increase the income levels, wellbeing and food and nutrition security of beneficiaries, opportunities exist to further improve the quality and sustainability of household and community assets created by public works, and increase the extent to which they contribute to stable availability of and access to food. Simultaneously, there is room to improve and expand complementary farmer and livelihood support programmes to contribute to drought-resistant food production. In addition, the HGSP programmes, to the extent measurable, have been able to strengthen the demand and supply-side of the market, to the benefit of smallholders, as well as the school children receiving school meals. However, data on the ability of local farmers in remote areas to meet the demands for nutritious food for school meals is still insufficient. The EGTE has effectively stabilised prices through *ad hoc* market interventions, though opportunities exist to coordinate the Grain Subsidy Programme with other social protection programmes.

5.4.2. Integration and Coordination between Policies and Programmes

Although the NSPP signifies a move towards a more multi-sectoral approach to the diverse vulnerabilities within the Ethiopian society, and the NSPSC, once installed, can cultivate closer engagement across ministries; further **opportunities exist for improved coordination and integration** of programming related to social protection and food and nutrition security. For instance, the NSPP recognises that the labour and productive elements of the PSNP and the UPSNP are insufficient to raise all vulnerable households out of food and nutrition insecurity and that broader and more permanent social safety nets are needed⁵⁴. Furthermore, the NSPP refers to the PSNP and the UPSNP as the main safety net programmes, but at the same time, underlines the need to complement the PSNP and UPSNP with other programmes to support the poorest and most food and nutrition insecure households⁵⁵.

Nevertheless, Ethiopia has succeeded in the coordination of social protection policy and programme objectives in certain areas. First, as part of its disaster risk management efforts, Ethiopia has been able to utilise public works under the PSNP4 to improve necessary infrastructure for home grown school feeding activities in drought-struck areas. Livelihoods services, previously under a separate programme, have also been successfully merged into the PSNP. On a programmatic level, the UPSNP and PSNP aim to **avoid overlap** by the planned design of a single registry and management information system, and by having the same unit within the MoA to implement livelihoods services. Although each programme's objectives and nature of the assets created may be different, i.e. rural versus urban development, opportunities for further integration exist. For instance, having fairly similar envisioned outputs and outcomes, the UPSNP and PSNP could explore to integrate their monitoring and evaluation, payment, and management and coordination systems.

In other areas, coordination and complementarity has been less successful. For instance, the grain subsidies have not been coordinated with the NSPP, including the PSNP, while such coordination seems important to ensure complementarity and avoid conflicting outcomes. Moreover, opportunities exist to further improve coordination between the PSNP, UPSNP, and the school feeding programme, which could be complemented by health and nutrition programmes⁵⁶. The National Social Protection Council can contribute to such multi-sector coordination and improve complementarity and synergy between the various social protection instruments and complementary programmes.

5.4.3. Complementarity of Activities

PSNP and UPSNP both offer complementary agricultural and livelihoods support to CCT beneficiaries who engage in public works. This form of "cash plus" has proven to be successful, as CCT recipients who benefit from such livelihood support are 2.5 times more likely to graduate from the PSNP than CCT beneficiaries who do not receive such additional support⁵⁷. However, as mentioned in the above section, opportunities exist to further improve the quality and sustainability of household and community assets created by public works, and increase the extent to which they contribute to the stable availability of and access to food. Complementary agricultural and livelihoods support could be tailored to further improve these community assets.

Other interesting complementariness, are the plans of the PSNP to seek integration with other cash transfer programmes and the promote linkages with basic social services, such as health⁵⁸. Additionally, the UPSNP is organising awareness raising campaigns on women's health and nutrition⁵⁹. Such additional nutrition programmes should be further promoted to improve the nutritional value of food intake.

5.5 Summary

Food and nutrition security is well integrated into the national social protection policy, which is used as a tool to promote resilience, and respond to and prevent emergencies resulting from droughts, such as El Niño. The focus of Ethiopia's social protection programmes is on promoting labour and production, and contributes to the national strategy to increase labour-intensive agricultural development. Opportunities exist to improve the quality and sustainability of the assets created by the PSNP and UPSNP and the extent to which they contribute to food and nutrition security. Ethiopia acknowledges the need to expand its system of safety nets, of which the PSNP and UPSNP are the main programmes, to poor and food and nutrition insecure households who are not able to work. Moreover, the country has succeeded in coordinating certain social protection programmes. For instance, the PSNP supports the required infrastructural development for the HGSP, and the PSNP and UPSNP aim to use a single registry and management information system. Opportunities exist to further improve coordination between social protection objectives and programmes for food and nutrition security and complementary programmes (e.g. agriculture, nutrition and health), which the forthcoming National Social Protection Council can support.

52 United State Department of Agriculture, 2015, p.5

53 Agriculture Knowledge, Learning Documentation and Policy Project, 2016

54 Government of Ethiopia, 2012, p.7

55 World Bank Group, 2014b

56 UNICEF, 2016c

57 World Bank Group, 2014b

58 UNICEF, 2016c

59 World Bank Group, 2015a



Photo: WFP/Arshalyn Sierra

Annex E: Gambia Country Case Study

6.1 General Background

With a population of almost 2 million people, the Republic of Gambia is the smallest country on the African mainland. According to recent World Bank figures, Gambia is classified as a low-income country with a GDP per capita of USD 473 in 2014. Poverty remains high with 45.3 per cent of the population considered to be (living on less than USD 1.90 per day)^{60, 61}. Poverty is more profound in rural areas (73.9 per cent) than in urban areas (32.7 per cent)⁶², and male-headed households show a higher multi-dimensional poverty (53.2 per cent) than female-headed households (47 per cent)⁶³.

Additionally, a growing number of people opt for service oriented jobs (50 per cent) over agricultural livelihoods (31 per cent), which is reflected in rising urbanisation levels; as of 2013, 57 per cent of the population lived in urban areas⁶⁴. The West Africa Ebola crisis and the poor harvest in 2014 are illustrative events of the vulnerability of the Gambian economy to external shocks, an economy that is based on rain-fed agriculture, tourism and remittances. Short rainy seasons and climate change pose structural challenges for agricultural outcomes⁶⁵, and threaten the macro-economic stability of Gambia. Between 2013 and 2016, per capita GDP decreased by an estimated 20 per cent, suggesting an increase in poverty levels⁶⁶.

Food insecurity and malnutrition pose serious challenges for the development of Gambia. One in every 10 people is food insecure, while 45 per cent is vulnerable to food insecurity. The 2015 Standardised Monitoring and Assessment of Relief and Transitions survey shows an increase in acute malnutrition from 9.9 per cent in 2012 to 10.4 per cent in 2015. In addition, national stunting rates stand at an alarming 24.9 per cent, with stunting rates in Kerewan, Basse, Kuntaur and Janjanbureh districts above this national average⁶⁷.

The primary causes of food and nutrition insecurity are related to the vulnerability of Gambia's economy to shocks. Such shocks, in combination with a general lack of productivity due to poor land use practices and a strong dependency on foreign imports of food, drive food and nutrition insecurity in rural areas⁶⁸. Next to these **trade**-related challenges, climate change increases the frequency and severity of weather-related shocks and will challenge agricultural **production** and thus **access** to food in the years to come⁶⁹. Poor sanitation and improved water sources threaten the **utilisation** of food. According to WFP, improved access to sanitation and improved water sources can reduce the chance of food and nutrition insecurity by half.⁷⁰

6.2 Social Protection Institutional and Legal Environment

Social protection as a policy tool to reduce vulnerability, promote resilience and increase food and nutrition security is gaining prominence in Gambia. Most initiatives have been implemented on a small-scale, project-basis, targeted to specific population groups. To move away from the sectoral, silo approach to social protection, a **National Social Protection Steering Committee (NSPSC)** was established in 2012 under the Policy Analysis Unit (PAU) of the Office of the Presidency, with its Secretariat within the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare (MoHSW). In addition, various ministries engaged with social protection participate in the NSPSC, including the Ministry of Finance and Economic Affairs, the Ministry of Trade, Industry, Regional Integration and Employment, the Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education (MoBSE), and Gambia Bureau of Statistics; and international organisations such as UNICEF, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS, the International Labour Organisation (ILO), WFP and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). In addition, in each of the seven regions in Gambia, a Regional Implementation Committee has been established, which reports to the NSPSC⁷¹.

60 Data from 2003, the latest year for which data was available

61 World Bank Group Databank, 2017b

62 Gambia Bureau of Statistics, 2011

63 United Nations Development Programme, 2015

64 International Labour Organisation, 2013

65 World Food Programme, 2017b

66 World Bank Group, 2017c

67 World Food Programme, 2016b

68 Jaiteh, M., 2015

69 United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, 2015

70 World Food Programme, 2016c

71 Gavrilovic, M. & Dibba, Y., 2013

Between 2013 and 2015, the NSPSC commissioned a mapping and assessment of existing social protection programmes in Gambia, and initiated a broad-based policy formulation process, including relevant government ministries and agencies at national and subnational level, civil society, (international) development partners, community and religious leaders, and the private sector. Based on this exercise, the NSPSC developed the **National Social Protection Policy 2015–2025 (NSPP)**, which was officially launched in December 2016. The NSPP sets out social protection policy instruments across four categories: protection, prevention, promotion and transformation. These interventions include UCT for the poorest and most vulnerable

groups, expanded social insurances, labour market policies, public works and legislative measures that help people against discrimination and abuse. The aim of these interventions is to address the multidimensional nature of poverty, as well as the risks and vulnerabilities people in Gambia face. The policy aims to bring the different social protection initiatives under one common umbrella and gradually expand its access to the entire population by promoting **coordination** between programmes, introducing systematic and **harmonised implementation systems** for identification, information sharing (e.g. MIS) and monitoring, building capacities at national, sub-national and local level, and ensuring **fiscal space** and resources⁷².

Objectives	Supporting activities and programmes	Targeted outcomes
1. Safeguard the welfare of the poorest and most vulnerable populations	- Cash transfers and complementary programmes , such as breastfeeding and promotion of hygiene practices, including access to water and sanitation kits, to promote food and nutrition security. - Expansion of the school feeding programme by combining on-site meals and take-home rations and complementary actions such as de-worming and micronutrient supplements.	- Food and nutrition security
2. Protect vulnerable populations from transitory shocks	- Strengthen safety nets , to include early warning systems managed by the Disaster Management Agency linked to food transfers and nutrition support during crises, infrastructure for lean safety nets, grain reserves programmes , detailed urban vulnerability assessment on food insecurity , and biannual food insecurity assessments and a feasibility study on crop weather-indexed insurance for vulnerable farmers. ⁷³	- Protection against seasonal food insecurity and food prices shocks resulting from disasters and emergencies
3. Promote the livelihoods and incomes of the poorest and most vulnerable economically active populations	- Launch of Public Works Programme (PWP) with opportunities to link beneficiaries to further support in the agricultural sector, the school feeding programmes, micro-insurance schemes, such as crop insurance, diversification of livelihoods and start-up grants to promote green technologies and renewable energy.	- Agricultural production amongst rural population - Access to credit for smallholder farmers - Development of skills and crop quality - Sustainable mitigation of weather-related risks

Table 3. Gambia's Priority Areas in NSPP

⁷² Government of Gambia, 2015
⁷³ Ibid

Finally, the **National Nutrition Policy (NNP)** of Gambia (2010-2020), which was launched in 2010, does not yet make reference to the above social protection objectives and programmes. Improving maternal health and child nutrition are the two top priority areas of the NNP through awareness raising on nutrition and food safety practices.

6.3 Profile of Main Programmes

This section will explain the key social protection programmes that contribute to food and nutrition security in Gambia, categorised on the basis of the four approaches outlined in *Table 1*. Gambia has implemented a variety of short-term and emergency-based **cash transfers** and food transfers in response to acute food crises, often accompanied by nutritional support for young children, lactating mothers and pregnant women. More strategic and longer-term social protection programmes linked to food and nutrition security, which will be discussed in this report include **1)** the National School Feeding Programme, **2)** the Maternal and Child Nutrition and Health Results Project (MCNHRP) and **3)** the Building Resilience through Social Transfers for nutrition security in Gambia (BReST). All these programmes fall under the first policy objective (safeguard the welfare of the poorest and most vulnerable populations).

As for the **production** dimension of food and nutrition security, during the rainy season various small-scale programmes have been implemented, such as fertiliser subsidies and seed price stability measures. However, due to the *ad hoc* and small-scale nature of these interventions, these programmes will not be discussed in this report.

6.3.1. Transfers Approach: National School Feeding Programme

Title: National School Feeding Programme

Agency: World Food Programme (WFP) and the Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education (MoBSE)

Objective: (i) Increase enrolment, attendance, retention and completion rates through school meals; (ii) increase vulnerable households' demand for education; and (iii) promote agricultural production by smallholders

Duration: 2012-2017

Target: School children in all regions of the country; farmers in Central River and North Bank regions; capacity building of government agencies

Coverage: 102,657 schoolchildren in 2016

Budget: USD 21.6 million funded mostly by European Commission, government Gambia and Japan.

⁷⁴ Government of Gambia, 2010

Background and design

The National School Feeding Programme **targets** pre-primary and primary school children up to grade six in selected schools. The vulnerability assessment and mapping conducted by WFP defines the priority regions based on their level of food insecurity. Together with information on education outcomes provided by the MoBSE, the programme selects the schools that benefit from the programme. The programme provides two **types of support:** food support for in-school provision of meals and take-home rations. WFP provides 344 schools with direct food support, while it transfers cash to 24 schools to procure the food for the school meal locally. The aim of the programme is to provide one school meal per day per school child. School children exit the programme after sixth grade⁷⁵.

Institutional arrangements

Management and coordination of the programme is conducted at multiple levels. At the national and regional level, WFP and the MoBSE are responsible for overall programme management and coordination. Daily management of the programme takes place at the regional and community level by regional staff from the Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education and community-based Food Management Committees, which consist of representatives from the school and community. The programme is funded by WFP, with co-funding from the Gambian Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education. Capacity building of the government at national, regional and local levels is an important element to promote sustainability of the programme. Regional government staff from the MoBSE and WFP conduct general programme monitoring and evaluation. However, monitoring of programme progress does not include the effects of local food procurement for school meals on local markets and smallholder farmers. The National School Feeding Programme supports the social protection and education outcomes of the UNDAF for Gambia and is key to the National School Feeding Action Plan. To realise national ownership, handover to the government is planned for 2020/2021 although the financing by the government remains a major challenge, including for the cash transfer schools.

⁷⁵ World Food Programme, 2017c

Key achievements and challenges

With regard to the National School Feeding Programme, monitoring and evaluation of the effects of local procurement will be crucial to assess if and how local smallholder farmers can supply for the school meals. Well-conducted price surveys by WFP indicated that communities where the schools procured food locally witnessed food price increases compared to communities where this was not the case. Although the relation between local price effects and local HGSF procurement needs further research, these findings indicate that local procurement for HGSF programmes may indeed result in food price increases at local markets. This would imply that local farmers could sell their produce at higher prices, but that community members with non-agricultural livelihoods face higher food prices. The long-term total net effect on agricultural production, local trade and communities of home grown school feeding is yet to be determined.

6.3.2. Transfers Approach: Maternal and Child Nutrition and Health Results Project

Title: Maternal and Child Nutrition and Health Results Project (MCNHRP)

Agency: Ministry of Health and Social Welfare (MoHSW) & National Nutrition Agency (NaNA)

Objective: Improve supply and demand of community nutrition and maternal and child health services for pregnant women, lactating women and children

Duration: May 2014 - July 2020

Target: Conditional cash transfers to pregnant women and Village Development Councils (VDC) in URR, CRR, NBRW, NBRE and LRR regions

Budget: USD 13.68 million, of which USD 5 million from Health Results Innovation Trust Fund and remainder from International Development Assistance

Background and design

To improve the **supply** and **demand** of community nutrition and primary maternal and child health services, the Maternal and Child Nutrition and Health Results Project (MCNHRP) provides **cash transfers** to pregnant women in the most food insecure regions in Gambia. Pregnant women receive three cash transfers of 3000 Gambian Dalasi (approximately USD 65) after their second, third and fourth ante-natal consultation (ANC) at participating health facilities. The transfers are **conditional** upon ANC attendance, with the first visit in the first trimester of the pregnancy. After their fourth ANC visit, women exit the programme.

In addition, the MCNHRP provides CCTs to Village Development Councils (VDC) of the selected communities. The VDC form Village Support Groups (VSG) that are tasked to increase health awareness of pregnant women and promote their referral to health facilities for ANC. The CCT to VDC/VSG are conditional upon their provision of health awareness and number of referrals of pregnant women to health clinics. To ensure that the **supply side** will not fall short when demand for services increases through the provision of awareness and cash transfers, MCNHRP provides public health facilities with a start-up capacity upgrade, as well as with performance-based financing based on the number of referrals and deliveries at the health facility⁷⁶. In December 2016, following continued macroeconomic instability in Gambia, the programme was complemented with **unconditional cash transfers** ranging from 500 Dalasi to 1000 Dalasi per month per household depending on the household's size. The UCTs target the same beneficiary households as the CCT and are given for a period of 12 months. Local micro-lending organisations provide the UCT⁷⁷.

The MCNHRP **targets** the five most food insecure regions in Gambia. Within these regions, the programme started in a selected number of communities that were randomly selected. At a later stage, the project expanded to other communities in the selected regions. Project eligibility of a community is based on the presence of a VDC, as well as a public health facility. Within the communities, the VSG are tasked with the selection of and outreach to pregnant and lactating women and children.

Institutional arrangements

Regional Health Directorates of the MoHSW perform day-to-day **management** of project activities. The Regional Health Directorates reach out to VDCs at the **community level**. Both the MoHSW and the NaNA **monitor** the project implementation at regional level. An impact evaluation is planned, although no institute has yet been selected to carry out the evaluation⁷⁸.

Key achievements and challenges

The baseline report conducted for the project reports that only eight per cent of women attended their first antenatal care visit within the first 12 weeks of pregnancy. This low number implies that with 92 per cent of the target population being eligible for transfers (pre-intervention), achieving a critical impact will require substantial boosting of attendance.

⁷⁶ World Bank Group, 2016

⁷⁷ Ibid

⁷⁸ Ministry of Health and Social Welfare & National Nutrition Authority, 2016

6.3.4. Transfers Approach: Building Resilience through Social Transfers for Nutrition Security in Gambia

Title: Building Resilience through Social Transfers for Nutrition Security in Gambia (BReST)

Agency: National Nutrition Agency (NaNA)

Objective: Improve nutritional status of targeted women and children upon 24 months

Duration: March 2017 – February 2019

Target: Women and children upon 24 months in the URR, NBR and CBR regions

Coverage: 11,332 beneficiaries

Budget: USD 3.3 million, funded by the European Union (EU) and UNICEF

Background and design

Building Resilience through Social Transfers for Nutrition Security in Gambia (BReST) continues the support to women covered by the MCNHRP after their delivery, and aims to improve the nutritional status of women and their newborn children up until their second year through the provision of UCTs. Coverage, however, is much smaller and, due to budget constraints, the BReST provides support to fewer health facilities. These health facilities are **selected** according to the prevailing Global Acute Malnutrition scores in health facilities' catchment areas. Women with newborn babies younger than 12 months who live within the health facility's catchment area can receive the UCT. Moreover, they need to enrol within the programme within five weeks after their delivery. Health facilities are responsible for sensitisation of eligible women, who have to decide themselves if they would like to participate. The programme covers health facilities covered by the MCNHRP in the three most food insecure regions in Gambia, being URR, NBR and CBR regions. Women beneficiaries receive nutrition education on breast feeding and complementary feeding by staff at health facilities and are provided with a monthly unconditional cash transfer of 600 Dalasi for a period of 24 months after their delivery. After 24 months, women exit the programme⁷⁹.

Institutional arrangements

The main **implementing** agency of the project is the NaNA, with technical support provided by UNICEF. At the national level, the programme management team is responsible for day-to-day coordination of the programme. At the regional level, regional health directors, social workers and nutrition officers manage the programme and are responsible for oversight of the beneficiary registration and the cash transfer delivery by health facility staff. The Programme Steering Committee, a committee with representatives from NaNA, several ministries and NGOs approves the programme management team's plans and is ultimately responsible for the **management** and **oversight** of BReST. To sensitise and mobilise community members, regional health directors also engage **community** leaders and local media. **Monitoring** takes place through an online application designed for the programme that collects information on received support. The programme management team aggregates and analyses the data at the national level and is responsible for programme **evaluation**⁸⁰.

6.4 Assessment of Main Policies and Programmes

6.4.1. Effects on Food and Nutrition Security Outcomes

Gambia's **transfers approach** to social protection aims to tackle the **access** and **utilisation** dimensions of food and nutrition insecurity. School feeding and complementary 'cash plus' programmes for pregnant and lactating women aim to address child and mother malnutrition. Opportunities exist to link these programmes to complementary support programmes that improve sanitation and water sources, which are important drivers of food and nutrition insecurity in Gambia. In addition, there is need for programmes that address other main drivers of food and nutrition insecurity in Gambia; food production and trade-related instability. The HGSF pilot as part of the School Feeding Programme aims to contribute to local food production, but the scale of this programme is still small.

Gambia acknowledges the need to diversify its social protection approach to food and nutrition security. The planned public works programme under the new NSPP aims to contribute to labour and food production. Public works can build crucial infrastructure (e.g. roads, storages, improved water sources irrigation systems), and, complemented by cash transfers and farmer support programmes can promote sustainable food production⁸¹. In addition, opportunities exist to explore **trade** related instruments to improve stability of food prices in times of crisis and embed the food emergency distribution programmes in the national social protection framework.

⁸⁰ Ibid

⁸¹ United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, 2015

Annex F: Kenya Country Case Study

6.4.2. Integration and Coordination Between Policies and Programmes

The NSPP sets out a good framework for social protection to improve food and nutrition security in Gambia. The policy aims to integrate the above programmes, and design and implement additional planned programmes to achieve the objectives set out in the policy. When reflecting on *Table 1*, current programmes in Gambia can be categorised as transfer type programmes. However, the planned programmes, as stipulated in the NSPP, also include production (insurance) and labour (public works) focused programmes. However, to date, government capacity at all levels remains a challenge to effective implementation of all social protection programmes to promote food and nutrition security. For instance, the MoHSW tasked with managing a large number of communities included in the MCNHRP, could benefit from increased capacity at the central level⁸².

In addition, improved inclusion of social protection and food and nutrition security actors and programmes in the NSPSC could enhance coordination and complementarity and prevent overlap between policies and programmes. For instance, currently, the Ministry of Agriculture distributes food, though no information is available on the targeting and selection of beneficiaries for food distribution. Moreover, small-scale and *ad hoc* fertiliser subsidies and seed distributions, or other food production and trade-related interventions, are currently not part of the NSPSC coordination efforts. Several NGOs, such as Action Aid, run programmes that promote food and nutrition security and social protection, which could be better coordinated with the Steering Committee. Nevertheless, some noteworthy complementarity has been achieved between demand- and supply-side interventions, as well as complementarity and integration between the two maternal and child nutrition and health programmes. As an example, both the MCNHRP and BReST provide demand- and supply-side incentives to communities and households, while building capacities of public health facilities. Moreover, the various cash transfer elements within the projects are, to some extent, integrated into the MNCHRP structure, which saves administrative costs and ensures that support provided by both projects is complementary.

6.5 Summary

The NSPP forms a comprehensive policy framework with clear food and nutrition security objectives. Gambia's main social protection programmes, MCNHRP and the complementary BReST programme, aim to promote access to and supply of nutritious food and health services to children and mothers. To better promote food and nutrition security, Gambia's transfers approach to social protection could be expanded by production and labour-related instruments, as envisioned in the NSPP. In addition, it will be important to maximise the outcomes of these foreseen instruments through complementary support programmes aimed at improving shock-resistance of agricultural labour and production. Other programmes, such as trade interventions or emergency food distribution, could be better integrated into the country's NSPP. The national coordination unit, the National Social Protection Steering Committee (NSPSC), includes relevant line ministries, but could also include NGO partners with similar programmes. In addition, the mandate and decision-making power of the NSPSC should be further enhanced.

7.1 General Background

Kenya has a population of 46 million people and a GDP per capita income of USD 1,455, making Kenya a lower middle-income country by World Bank standards⁸³. However, around 33.6 per cent of the population still lives below the poverty line (USD 1.90 per day)⁸⁴, thus underscoring high levels of inequality within the country. A quarter of the population lives in urban informal settlements and arid and semi-arid regions (ASAL), which make up 80 per cent of Kenya's land area. The population living in these regions suffers from poverty and structural development challenges and is most vulnerable to food insecurity. Droughts and unpredictable rain patterns further aggravate their circumstances. As a response, those dwelling in the ASAL tend to adopt negative coping mechanisms, such as selling income-generating assets, withdrawing children from school, and taking on income-generating activities that harm the environment, such as overgrazing and cutting trees to make sellable charcoal⁸⁵.

Food and nutrition insecurity in Kenya is driven by imperfect access to food and insufficient food availability. Droughts in Kenya and in its neighbouring countries frequently result in food shortages in the country, as well as decreased regional supply of food to Kenya. Decreasing availability of food tends to push up food prices and reduce access to food⁸⁶. This is especially the case in remote areas, where households have fewer possibilities to import relatively cheaper food from regional hubs, thereby reducing both their availability of and access to food⁸⁷. In general, high levels of malnutrition afflict the poorest people in Kenya. Around 337,500 children under five years of age suffer from acute malnutrition, while under-nutrition is a leading cause of death⁸⁸. According to the Global Nutrition Report (2016), the prevalence of stunting in Kenya stands at 26 per cent, although progress is on course⁸⁹. Food and nutrition security in Kenya shows a gender bias, in specific a biased intra-household food distribution, leading to more girls than boys suffering from malnutrition, stunting, wasting and infectious diseases⁹⁰.

7.2 Social Protection Legal and Institutional Environment

Compared to other African countries, Kenya has a relatively established social protection system, which is anchored in the Constitution and various policy documents. In terms of the **legal framework**, Article 43 in the Bill of Rights in the Constitution of Kenya (2010) guarantees all Kenyans their social, economic and cultural rights and binds the state to provide appropriate social security to persons unable to support themselves and their dependents. This article also articulates the specific right "to be free from hunger, and to have adequate food of acceptable quality⁹¹." Based on this legal framework, Vision 2030 of the Kenyan Government, as well as other national poverty reduction policy documents, recognise and place great emphasis on social protection as a tool for improving quality of life for all Kenyans. From 2005 to 2010, social protection expenditure in Kenya rose from 33.4 billion to 57.1 billion Kenyan Shilling, equalling 2.28 per cent of GDP⁹². Since then, this figure has decreased somewhat to around 2.0 per cent in the 2016 budget⁹³.

In 2011, Kenya launched its first **National Social Protection Policy (NSPP)**, which defines social protection as "policies and actions, including legislative measures that (1) enhance the capacity of and opportunities for the poor and vulnerable to improve and sustain their lives, livelihoods, and welfare, (2) enable income-earners and their dependents to maintain a reasonable level of income through decent work, and (3) ensure access to affordable health care, social security, and social assistance⁹⁴." The NSPP is subdivided into three different kinds of policy measures, being:

- 1) Social assistance to poor and vulnerable target groups, supported by the Social Assistance Act (2013), including a) safety nets and consumption transfers to sustain livelihoods and build human capital, b) asset protection and rehabilitation to re-establish livelihoods, c) asset development and income opportunities to establish sustainable livelihoods.**
- 2) Social security for workers in the formal and informal sector, supported by the National Social Security Fund.**
- 3) Health insurance to promote national health insurance coverage, supported by the National Health Insurance Fund⁹⁵.**

82 Health Results Innovation Trust Fund, 2017

83 World Bank Group Databank, 2017c
84 Data from 2005, the latest year for which information was available
85 World Food Programme, 2017d
86 Oxford Policy Management, 2016a, p.13
87 Famine Early Warning Systems Network, 2017a
88 World Food Programme, 2017d
89 International Food Policy Research Institute, 2016
90 Ndiku, Jaceldo-Siegl, Singh & Sabaté, 2011

91 Government of Kenya, 2011a, p.1
92 Government of Kenya, 2012
93 International Budget Partnership, 2016, p.4.
94 Government of Kenya, 2011a
95 Ibid

In terms of the connection between social protection and food and nutrition security objectives, the NSPP refers to Article 43 of the Constitution, guaranteeing a set of rights, including food and nutrition security. In addition, the NSPP refers to social protection programmes that directly contribute to food and nutrition security, such as the Hunger Safety Net Programme (HSNP) and the School Feeding Programmes. However, the NSPP does not set explicit objectives for food and nutrition security to be achieved through social protection. Instead, the NSPP refers to the National Food Security and Nutrition Policy (NFSNP, 2011) as the document dealing with food and nutrition security. In turn, the NFSNP, and the more recent National Nutrition Action Plan (2012-2017), do not explicitly refer to social protection as an instrument to reduce food and nutrition security. Vision 2030 mainly refers to the need for supply-side measures to promote agricultural production and achieve food and nutrition security, especially in periods of droughts or other environmental shocks⁹⁶. Vision 2030 does mention the importance of social protection for increasing access to food for vulnerable groups.

Social protection policy measures fall under various ministries, including the Ministry of East African Community, Labour & Social Protection (MEACLSP), the Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Fisheries (MoALF), the Ministry of Health (MoH), the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST), and the National Treasury⁹⁷. MEACLSP is the key player in the provision of social assistance and social security, housing the Social Assistance Act and the National Social Security Fund. The MoH is responsible for the Health Insurance Fund and thus the main actor in promoting health insurance in Kenya. Currently, coordination and harmonisation of social protection for food and nutrition security relies on informal relations between staff of the National Social Protection Secretariat, under the MEACLSP, and staff of other line ministries. Different line ministries, including the MEACLSP, MoH, MoEST and MoALF, hold policy and legislative authority over their respective domains, in the absence of formalised coordination mechanisms. However, the creation of a single national registry system and the integration of implementation structures of several social protection programmes, demonstrate increased cooperation between the National Social Protection Secretariat and other ministries engaged in social protection. The envisioned inter-ministerial Social Protection Council could further formalise relations between the various line ministries involved in social protection. The establishment of this council relies on the approval of the Social Protection Bill, which was drafted in 2014 and is still under discussion in Parliament.

7.3 Profile of Main Programmes

This section will explain the key social protection programmes that contribute to food and nutrition security in Kenya, categorised on the basis of the four approaches outlined in *Table 1*. Programmes making use of **transfers** include the second phase of the Hunger Safety Net Programme (HSNP), the two school feeding programmes and the National Safety Net Programme (NSNP). The Asset Creation Programme provides cash and food transfers to households in the ASAL regions, in return for their participation in agricultural public works. This relatively comprehensive programme can be categorised as a **transfers, production and labour** approach. The main social protection programme that contributes to food **production** is the Kilimo Plus Programme, providing fertilisers and grains to selected poor farmers. Finally, the Strategic Grain Reserves programme, which includes grain reserves and the purchase of grains on the (international) market, can be categorised under the **trade** approach to food and nutrition security.

7.3.1. Transfers Approach: Hunger Safety Net Programme

Title: Hunger Safety Net Programme Phase II (HSNP)

Implementer: National Drought Management Authority (NDMA)

Objective: Provision of unconditional cash transfers to reduce extreme hunger and vulnerability of poorest households

Duration: 2008 - ongoing

Target group: Poor and food insecure households in Turkana, Mandera, Marsabit and Wajir

Coverage: 100,000 households. During emergencies, cash transfer support can temporarily be expanded to more households, as happened in early 2017

Budget: USD 243.87 million, 30 per cent financed by the Government of Kenya, 70 per cent by international donors, including WFP

Background and design

Kenya implements the wide-reaching NSNP, which encompasses the Hunger Safety Net Programme Phase II (HSNP) and three cash transfer programmes for households with older persons, vulnerable children and orphans (OVC) and persons living with disabilities. While the HSNP contributes explicitly to food and nutrition security by targeting households in food and nutrition insecure regions, the remaining three cash transfer programmes can indirectly contribute to food and nutrition security through the provision of cash to vulnerable households.

The HSNP, launched in 2008 by the National Drought Management Authority (NDMA), aims to reduce extreme hunger and vulnerability of poor households in Turkana, Mandera, Marsabit and Wajir counties through the provision of **unconditional cash transfers**. Every **two months**, Equity Bank, the bank that services the transfers for all NSNP programmes, disburses a cash transfer of 5,400 Kenyan Shilling (in 2016) to the bank accounts of 100,000 targeted households. On an annual basis, the size of the transfer can be adjusted to inflation⁹⁸. The programme targets **four arid and semi-arid regions**, also targeted in the first phase of the HSNP. These regions are often struck by droughts and marked by high food and nutrition insecurity. The programme selects beneficiaries based on a **stepwise targeting approach**. A PMT assesses household composition, assets and enrolment in other programmes. Subsequently, communities rank households into different poverty categories, so called Community-Based Targeting (CBT). Based on this information, NDMA programme staff select the 100,000 most poor and food insecure households in the four regions. However, an evaluation conducted in 2016 shows that the PMT approach did not yield better results than random targeting, due to uniform poverty levels in the targeted counties, resulting in exclusion and inclusion errors⁹⁹. To respond to environmental shocks and related food and nutrition insecurity, the HSNP can temporarily be scaled up to additional households. This happened in the first months of 2017, when the programme targeted an additional 53,635 households who were severely affected by the consequences of El Niño.

Institutional arrangements

A Programme Implementation and Learning Unit has been set up to **implement** the programme, which is overseen and **coordinated** by the NDMA. The Financial Sector Deepening Kenya, an independent trust overseen by KPMG, an international accountancy firm, manages the cash transfers made by Equity Bank to the bank accounts of beneficiaries. The Programme Implementation and Learning Unit carries out national oversight of this trust¹⁰⁰. The Social Protection Secretariat under the MEACLSP is responsible for the **monitoring** of the outputs and outcomes, based on the national single registry system and the shared management information system (MIS). This single registry and MIS, designed by the secretariat, have promoted significant **integration** of the cash transfer programmes in terms of registration and monitoring of beneficiaries. **Evaluation** rests on impact evaluations, conducted by entities independent from the NSNP-implementers or its financiers¹⁰¹.

Key achievements and challenges

An impact evaluation based on data collected between 2009 and 2012 found modest, but important results by the HSNP on food and nutrition security. Although the study did not find significant results in the area of child nutrition, the HSNP reduced harmful coping strategies, increased dietary diversity and allowed households to retain more of their livestock in the event of droughts¹⁰². Another impact evaluation reported that the HSNP acted as an important safety net for the poorest households, but was less successful in transforming poverty. Although households' food consumption and ability to purchase small pieces of livestock increased, improved livelihood diversification remained limited¹⁰³.

7.3.2. Transfers and Production Approach: School Feeding

Title: Home-Grown School Meals (HGSM)

Implementer: Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST)

Objective: Provision of conditional cash transfers to selected schools for locally sourced school meals to contribute to local food production, address malnutrition among school children, and promote equitable access to quality education and improved school retention, completion and transition

Duration: 2009 - ongoing

Target group: Pre-primary and primary schoolchildren

Coverage: 855,000 beneficiaries in 2016

Background and design

Provision of balanced and nutritious school meals through **school feeding programmes** is an important tool to reduce poverty and eradicate hunger and malnutrition in Kenya, as recognised by Kenya's Vision 2030, the National Food and Nutrition Security Policy (2011), the National Nutrition Action Plan (2012-2017), the School Nutrition and Meals Strategy (2016) and the National School Health Policy (2009, currently under revision). The government of Kenya implements the Home-Grown School Meals (HGSM) Programme, while WFP together with the Kenyan government implements a school feeding programme in regions not covered by the HGSM. The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST) launched the Home-Grown School Meals (HGSM) programme in 2009. The programme geographically **targets** primary and pre-primary schools with high drop out rates, and low enrolment and completion rates in the ASAL regions. Supported schools must provide one **mid day meal of 700 kilocalories** each school day. To this end, schools receive a **cash transfer** every two months, the amount of which is calculated based on the number of enrolled pupils. The cash transfer must be spent on the procurement of local food. This procurement process follows strict rules: for instance, purchase of food must be transferred through bank accounts of local traders or farmers¹⁰⁴.

96 Government of Kenya, 2007, p.45 & p.109 & p.117 & p.137
97 National Social Protection Secretariat, 2017

98 National Drought Management Authority, 2015a
99 Oxford Policy Management, 2016a, p.10.
100 National Drought Management Authority, 2015b
101 World Bank Group, 2013a, p.61
102 Oxford Policy Management, 2013, p. iv
103 Oxford Policy Management, 2016a
104 Drake, Woolnough, Burbano & Bundy, 2016, p.295

Institutional arrangements

At the national level the School Health, Nutrition and Meals (SHNM) Technical Committee, comprised of the MoEST and development partners, meets on a quarterly basis to discuss programmes related to SHNM, including the HGSM programme. At sub-national level, the MoEST sectoral departments manage the HGSM programme and conduct regular **monitoring and evaluation** at county, sub-county and school level. Beneficiary information and indicators are captured in a database linked to the national Education Management Information System, developed by the Monitoring and Evaluation Unit of the MoEST with support of development partners. Based on the monitoring data, the MoEST in cooperation with the Ministry of Health evaluates progress in programme outcomes regarding education and food and nutrition security¹⁰⁵.

Key achievements and challenges

There has been no systematic assessment of the HGSM programme that looks at the effect of local procurement on communities, prices and poor households. One study that relied mostly on focus group discussions concluded that HGSM probably did not have a significant impact on food and nutrition security of the communities in which the HGSM programme was implemented. Indeed, food for school meals was still procured at local urban centres rather than at local communities, likely due to communities' inability to fulfil the demand following limited agricultural production. The study also observed that cash transfers to schools were often sent irregularly, limiting the continuous and timely purchase and provision of school meals. Hence, the programme's impact on food and nutrition security might be less strong than envisioned, especially the impact on local food production, which underlines the importance of complementary agricultural support programmes¹⁰⁶.

Title: WFP School Feeding Programme

Implementer: World Food Programme (WFP)

Objective: Support Kenyan Government with provision of school meals in arid and semi-arid lands to address malnutrition among school children and increase equitable access to quality education and improved school retention, completion and transition

Duration: 1980s – December 2018

Target group: School children in arid and semi-arid lands

Coverage: 531,467 beneficiaries in 2016

Background and design

The oldest school feeding programme in the country is implemented by WFP in cooperation with the MoEST and the MoALF. The programme provides school meals in arid and semi-arid lands, in specific in the **regions** where the Kenyan government lacks capacity to roll out the HGSM programme. The programme provides both **cash transfers** and **direct food transfers**, depending on the capacities of schools to arrange school meals and the capacities of local farmers to produce food for school meals. Thus, the food for school meals is sourced locally where possible, but complemented by food procured internationally. In the last years, the MoEST has gradually taken over financial and operational responsibility; WFP will provide financial support until the end of 2018, after which the full responsibility will be handed over to the MoEST¹⁰⁷.

Institutional arrangements

To promote one overarching school feeding strategy to guide coordination and harmonisation between the HGSM programme and the WFP School Feeding Programme, the Kenyan government launched the School Nutrition and Meals Strategy For Kenya in 2016. This strategy aims to provide a **legal and institutional framework** for the two school feeding programmes. It envisions a strong **coordinating** role for the MoEST, supported by the establishment of inter-ministerial committees at the national and county level, which in turn cooperate with school committees or community groups¹⁰⁸.

Key achievements and challenges

WFP provided complementary support to farmers and local markets to enhance local procurement of food for school meals, which tends to have strengthened local markets and might have prevented rising food prices. WFP, with technical assistance of international NGOs, provided this support through local farmer organisations that functioned as platform for the provision of skills trainings in the production and utilisation of food. Based on this complementary support to local farmers, the WFP School Feeding Programme has strengthened the demand for local food and the ability of local farmers to produce and supply this food. The extent and predictability of funding by the Kenyan government, which is a prerequisite for the handover of the programme from WFP to the government, seems to be the most important challenge¹⁰⁹.

7.3.3. Transfers, Production and Labour Approach: Asset Creation Programme

Title: Asset Creation Programme: Food and Cash for Assets

Implementer: World Food Programme (WFP)

Objective: Provision of cash and food transfers to households in return for their participation in asset creation or public works projects to promote food and nutrition security and resilience

Duration: 2015-2018

Target: Food insecure households in arid and semi-arid counties

Coverage: 800,000 households

Background and design

The WFP Asset Creation Programme is a relatively comprehensive programme that aims to promote food and nutrition security and resilience of food insecure households in nine arid and six semi-arid counties. The programme provides **conditional cash** or **food transfers** to households, who in turn work three days per week in **public works projects** that promote asset creation for households and the wider community. In return for 12 days of work per month, WFP gives households 40 per cent ration of daily required food intake in semi-arid counties, equalling 2,000 Kenyan shillings (USD 19) per month, and 50 per cent ration of daily required food intake in arid counties. The ration size has been reduced compared to previous years as a result of funding shortfalls¹¹⁰. Communities through Community-Based Targeting select food insecure households for the asset creation projects. Beneficiaries are registered in the above mentioned **national single registry system**, set up by the MEACLSP to promote harmonisation between the various cash and food transfer programmes in Kenya. Communities also jointly decide on **graduation of beneficiaries**, based on predefined graduation criteria, including no-show at work, household surpluses and alternative income sources¹¹¹.

Institutional arrangements

Asset creation or public works projects vary per location and are identified and implemented by **communities** with technical support from the Kenyan government, specifically the NDMA at county level; and partnering agencies, including WFP. The projects are included in the county development plans and budgets. Next to technical support, WFP provides material support for the asset creation projects. Examples of public works or asset creation projects include building dams and water pans, constructing irrigation schemes, planting trees and building terraces to prevent erosion. As such, asset creation projects aim to improve the development, food production and food and nutrition security of communities and promote **transfer of skills** in water conservation, agricultural production, diversification and marketing, contributing to resilience of households in food insecure areas to environmental and development shocks^{112, 113}.

Key achievements and challenges

An evaluation of WFP's Asset Creation Programme, conducted in 2016, indicated that opportunities exist to increase the utility and benefits of assets for the community. In particular the inadequate technology for local contexts and the lack of agricultural extension services to boost productivity prevented community assets to cushion against shocks or increase production. The inability of the decentralised NDMA to coordinate with other development policies, such as those covering agricultural extension, contributed to these outcomes. Nonetheless, the evaluation observed a positive effect on immediate food and nutrition security through **transfers**, wherein beneficiaries preferred cash to food. However, the irregular delivery of cash and food transfers somewhat limited the social protection outcomes. Finally, the evaluation revealed positive outcomes on skills acquisition; e.g. local construction companies hired more community members due to their enhanced skills levels¹¹⁴.

7.3.4. Production Approach: Input Subsidies

Title: Kilimo Plus Programme

Implementer: Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Fisheries (MoALF)

Objective: Provision of agricultural input subsidies to improve food production and availability

Duration: 2007 - present

Target group: Farmer households with small but large enough land to produce maize, but who lack capacity to buy fertilisers. Preferably female-headed households.

Coverage: 774,821 beneficiaries in 2016

The Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Fisheries (MoALF) implements the Kilimo Plus Programme as part of the National Accelerated Agricultural Input Access Programme to improve smallholders' food production and livelihoods. The **support** is **unconditional**, consisting of 50 kilogrammes (kg) of basal and top fertiliser each, and 10 kg of improved maize seeds; an amount sufficient for 1 acre (0.4 hectare) of maize. The Kilimo Plus Programme aims to increase **agricultural input** through **targeted input subsidies**, and is mentioned in the NSPP under sub-objective 1c: asset development¹¹⁵. The **targeting** of households takes place through **communities**, who are instructed to distribute vouchers to farmer households that lack capacity to purchase fertilisers, own a small amount of land but large enough to cultivate maize commercially, preferably are headed by women, and not yet received similar support¹¹⁶. An **evaluation** conducted in 2014 showed that this targeting approach was not successful in reaching female-headed households. Moreover, often farmer households who received the input subsidy were already using fertilisers¹¹⁷.

105 Ibid.

106 Karisa & Orodho, 2014, p.45-52

107 World Food Programme, 2017e

108 Ministry of Education, Science and Technology & Ministry of Agriculture, 2016, p.40.

109 World Food Programme, 2017e

110 World Food Programme, 2015

111 World Food Programme, 2017f

112 Ibid.

113 World Food Programme, 2016d

114 World Food Programme, 2016d

115 Government of Kenya, 2011a, p.170.

116 Sheahan, Olwande, Kirimi, Jayne, 2014, p. 5.

117 Ibid., p. 21.

7.3.5. Trade: Grain Reserves

Title: Strategic Grain Reserves

Implementer: National Cereals and Produce Board (NCPB)

Objective: Protect farmers against the effects of over-supply of food and provide a first line of protection in case of under-supply

Target group: Farmers and millers

Background and design

The National Cereals and Produce Board (NCPB) of the government of Kenya established the **Strategic Grain Reserves** (SGR) programme to purchase grain from farmers and sell to millers in case of shortfalls in grain production during periods of droughts, and to bring down domestic grain prices in case of over-supply¹¹⁸. The SGR programme purchases maize grain from domestic farmers, which in turn is sold at a lower price to millers. In essence, the **support** consists of **two subsidies: 1)** the sum paid to farmers and **2)** the price difference to millers. On average, however, the effects of the programme have been mixed. The fact that the NCPB utilises the SGR to maintain a constant price floor, tends to increase the average market price of grain¹¹⁹.

Institutional arrangements

The National Food and Nutrition Security Policy (NFNSP) envisions a transformation of the SGR into a Strategic Food Reserve that would include more staple foods than maize grain and cash reserves to purchase grains on the international market if national food production falls short¹²⁰.

Key achievements and challenges

Prices at which farmers sell their produce have been more stable due to the intervention of the SGR. However, the sustenance of a price floor through sale to millers resulted in higher maize prices for consumers¹²¹. As Kenyan smallholders, who tend to be poorer than farmers with large plots of farming land, are predominantly net-buyers of maize, as are people living in urban areas, the programme might have negatively impacted their purchasing power. Higher food prices tends to disproportionately affect the poorest, who spend a relatively large part of their expenditures on food, of which maize is the most important staple.

7.4 Assessment of Policies and Programmes

7.4.1. Effects on Food and Nutrition Security

Overall, the above social protection programmes do not fully address the determinants or causes of food and nutrition insecurity that mark the Kenyan context. When reviewing the different programmes, Kenya has focused on increasing access to food for poor and vulnerable households through a **transfers approach**, with the HSNP (and other NSNP programmes) and the school feeding programmes as key examples. Some positive outcomes on food and nutrition security can be identified. The HSNP improved the ability of households to purchase food and invest in livelihoods diversification, while the (home grown) school feeding programmes seem to show some marginal effects on children's nutrition, school enrolment and food production. In terms of food production, the input subsidy programme has shown somewhat disappointing outcomes, while the outcomes of the strategic grain reserve programme on stability of food prices have been mixed.

Increasingly, Kenya acknowledges the need for a more diversified social protection approach to food and nutrition security, moving from a transfers-led approach to an approach that promotes stable access to and availability of food. The recently launched Home-Grown School Meals programme and Asset Creation Programme align with this more diversified approach. However, to ensure that the HGSM programme contributes to local food production, complementary programmes are needed to support local smallholder farmers in producing food for schools and the wider market. The Asset Creation Programme, focusing on cash and food transfers to vulnerable households, as well as to labour-abled households in return for public works, can contribute to stable food production by increasing the relevance of public works projects for local food production that is more resistant to droughts and other environmental shocks.

7.4.2. Integration and Coordination between Policies and Programmes

To further promote integration between social protection and food and nutrition security objectives, opportunities exist to define explicit objectives and a concrete pathway on how social protection can contribute to food and nutrition security, and vice versa, in the NSPP and the NFSNP. The establishment of a Social Protection Council, as proposed by the Social Protection Bill, could provide the political leadership to design and integrate such high-level policy objectives. At the programme level, the creation of the single registry system has promoted the integration of different cash transfer programmes managed by different ministries. The system currently registers beneficiaries of the four cash transfer programmes under the NSNP and the Asset Creation Programme. Additional space exists, however, to include other programmes, such as the school feeding programmes, as part of the single registry system to further harmonise programming and detect gaps in service delivery.

When going one step further, opportunities exist to integrate implementation structures of social protection programmes implemented by different ministries and development agencies to promote efficient delivery of social protection¹²². In 2012, the Social Protection Sector Review already acknowledged challenges related to parallel implementation structures of social protection programmes. Since then, some promising developments have taken place. One example is the integration of the government-led HGSM programme and the WFP School Feeding Programme, wherein the MoEST, which oversees the HGSM programme, is gradually assuming financial and operational responsibility over the WFP programme. By 2018, the handover of the WFP school feeding programme to the MoEST should be completed, with WFP continuing to provide technical assistance.

7.4.3. Complementarity of Activities

Next to policy and programme integration, complementarity between and within programmes is essential to improve outcomes on social protection and food and nutrition security. The government of Kenya increasingly acknowledges that the provision of cash or food transfers is insufficient to promote food and nutrition security and build the resilience of food insecure communities to respond to environmental and economic shocks. More specifically, the various cash transfer programmes to food insecure households (e.g. HSNP) and to households with elderly, OVC and persons living with disabilities, are, on their own, insufficient to bolster beneficiary households' resilience and self-reliance. International evidence on 'cash plus' programmes have produced encouraging results on the coupling of cash or food transfers with complementary programmes, such as programmes that increase community and household assets, promote skills and improve access to essential services (e.g. agricultural, health or nutrition support). This so-called 'cash plus' approach can more sustainably and comprehensively lift people out of poverty and hunger, thereby breaking cycles of intergenerational poverty and malnutrition. The Asset Creation Programme is a good example of an intervention that promotes complementarity between its activities, promoting both the supply of and demand for nutritious food. Participation of community members in public works in return for food or cash transfers aims to increase community assets, households' purchasing power and technical skills, promoting both food consumption and production. The Asset Creation Programme showed positive short-term outcomes, whilst opportunities exist to translate these short-term gains into longer-term outcomes on communities' purchasing power, assets, food production and technical skills. Complementarity also implies

that outcomes of different social protection, food and nutrition security and complementary programmes augment and enrich each other. For instance, nutrition education or water and sanitation programmes can multiply outcomes of school feeding programmes, while the Asset Creation Programme can develop community assets relevant for the local production for school meals. In contrast, the Strategic Grain Reserves programme, may negatively affect the food and nutrition security among the poorest, due to artificially higher food prices.

7.5 Summary

The government of Kenya, through its social protection policy and array of programmes, has put into place a robust system of social safety nets, improving access to nutritious food and livelihood diversification for the most poor and vulnerable groups in society. Opportunities exist for social protection to better respond to the diverse determinants of food and nutrition insecurity, including stable and drought-resistant production of nutritious food. Setting joint policy objectives for social protection and food and nutrition security can contribute to this goal. The NSPP focuses mainly on social safety nets to increase access to food, but increasingly acknowledges the importance of labour, production and trade related interventions. Vision 2030 and the NFSNP emphasise the importance food production. Linkages between policy objectives identified in the three key policy documents remain poor and opportunities exist to promote integrated objectives and develop one clear strategy towards achieving stable access to and drought-resistant production of nutritious food for all groups in society.

At programme level, social protection programmes that take a more diversified approach and aim to improve both access to and production of food, such as the Asset Creation Programme and the Home-Grown School Feeding Programme, should be expanded. In addition, social protection programmes should be accompanied by a wider variety of complementary programmes, such as farmer support programmes, skills development and nutrition education. Kenya has made promising steps in the integration of social protection programmes through single registries and shared management information systems. However, the institutional framework for the coordination of social protection policies and objectives remains poor and based on informal structures. The envisioned Social Protection Council can serve as a platform for involved ministries to strategise on how to coordinate and implement social protection and complementary programmes in order to maximise outcomes, including those related to food and nutrition security.

118 For Example, see Standard Media, 2017

119 Famine Early Warning Systems Network, 2017b

120 Government of Kenya, 2011b

121 Jayne, Myers, & Nyoro, 2008

122 Social Protection Secretariat, 2016



Photo: WFP/Arसान Sena

Annex G: Mozambique Country Case Study

8.1 General Background

Mozambique, with a population of 26 million, has been marked by conflict and instability during its nearly 20-year civil war (1975-1992) and renewed surges of violence since 2013. Its GDP per capita stood at USD 529 in 2015, making it one of the poorest countries on the African continent¹²³. In 2016, the annual GDP growth was 3.3 per cent, down from 6.6 per cent in 2015. Although Mozambique's economy has shown growth over the past decades, poverty levels remain high¹²⁴, with 68.74 per cent of the population living below the poverty line in 2008, down from 80.36 per cent in 2002¹²⁵.

The high poverty rate in Mozambique limits households' ability to **access** food, compounded by food shortages and fluctuations in food prices; food prices can fluctuate more than 60 per cent between the lean season and the harvest season¹²⁶. Eighty per cent of the population cannot afford an adequate diet. Rising food prices and inflation, recording a five-year high in October 2016, have only aggravated this situation. In spite of the country's achievement of MDG 1 of halving the proportion of people who suffer from hunger, chronic food insecurity and malnutrition, these levels remain high; 24 per cent of the population is chronically food insecure and 25 per cent remains malnourished, with almost half of all children being chronically underfed. Additionally, almost half of children under 5 years of age (42.3 per cent) is stunted, with higher prevalence in rural areas. Poorly diversified diets, coupled with poor access to clean water, sanitation and health services and high rates of infectious diseases, such as malaria, contribute to persistently high rates of malnutrition¹²⁷.

A key factor in the widespread food and nutrition insecurity in Mozambique is poor food **production**, both in terms of techniques and volume. Eight per cent of Mozambicans rely on the agricultural sector for their primary source of income¹²⁸, many of whom plant rain-fed crops. Any climatic or weather-related shocks, such as drought, disproportionately affect rain-fed crops, thus impeding food production, and, consequently, negatively impacting the food consumption of smallholder subsistence farmers. In addition, environmental shocks, such as floods, frequently cut off remote areas from local markets, which further impedes local food availability, access and price stability¹²⁹. On top of environmental shocks, low **agricultural productivity** is an important challenge, mainly due to outdated techniques in sowing, harvesting and storage¹³⁰.

8.2 Social Protection Institutional and Legal Environment

The Constitution of the Republic of Mozambique, in articles 35, 88, 89, 91 and 95, states that all citizens, including the elderly and those with disabilities, have the right to education, health and housing, without any kind of discrimination. The **Social Protection Law** (2007) establishes the grounds for the social protection framework, distinguishing between basic social security, compulsory social security (mainly aimed at workers in the formal sector) and complementary social security. As for basic social security, the Social Protection Law sets out the rights of citizens to protection from various social, economic and environmental risks and social benefits for the families and individuals most in need¹³¹.

The Regulation of the Basic Social Security Sub-System, in a law enacted by a decree from the Council of Ministers in 2009, further specifies the areas of basic social security and the rights of beneficiaries. In addition, it provides an institutional framework, which consists of a coordination council to be chaired by the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Welfare (MGCAS). The Regulation clearly defines the priorities for social protection targeted at vulnerable groups, emphasising productive social safety nets and social protection instruments in the health and education sectors. Moreover, it designates the council chair to have oversight over social protection activities implemented by other line ministries, while decision-making authority is elevated to the Cabinet¹³². To date, however, the Council has not yet convened and coordination is still based on bilateral consultations between the MGCAS and other line ministries.

123 World Bank Group Databank, 2017d

124 World Bank Group, 2017d

125 Latest year for which information is available for this poverty measure (USD 1.90 per day)

126 Famine Early Warning Systems Network, 2017c

127 World Food Programme, 2017g

128 United States Agency for International Development, 2017

129 World Food Programme, 2017h

130 International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2016

131 Government of Mozambique, 2007

132 Council of Ministers, 2009

The **National Basic Social Security Strategy 2016-2024** (ENSSBII) is the second strategy of its kind in Mozambique, following its 2010-2014 counterpart, and aims to achieve the rights set out in the Constitution, the Social Protection Law and the Social Security Laws. The ENSSBII aims to contribute to the Government's Five-Year Programme (2015-2019), as part of the wider National Development Strategy (2015-2035), by reducing poverty and vulnerabilities and promoting inclusive economic growth. The ENSSBII, while focussed on social security, defines social protection as contributing to the reduction of vulnerability and social risks as well as to guaranteeing social well-being. The policy seeks to attain four objectives related to social assistance:

1. Strengthen the level of consumption and resilience of the population living in situations of poverty and vulnerability;
2. Contribute to development of human capital through improvement in nutrition, and access to basic health and education services for the population living in situations of poverty and vulnerability;
3. Prevent and mitigate the risks of violence, abuse, exploitation, discrimination and social exclusion through social welfare services;
4. Develop the institutional capacity to implement and coordinate the basic social security system.

To operationalise these objectives, the ENSSBII is structured into four axes: (1) strengthen consumption, autonomy and resilience through the old age pension scheme, allowances for incapacitated persons, and the Productive Social Action Programme (PASP), (2) improve nutrition and access to health and education services, amongst others through various child allowances, (3) prevent and respond to social risks through social service delivery, and (4) institutional strengthening to implement the first three axes.

In terms of the **connection between social protection and food and nutrition security objectives**, only the second axis plainly speaks of nutrition; food security, on the other hand, is mentioned only as part of the profiling of vulnerabilities. Regarding nutrition's role in human capital development, the second axis mainly concerns itself with maternal and young children's health interventions, without complementary linkages to other social transfers; and the National Home Grown School Feeding Programme (PRONEA). The first axis includes key social protection programmes such as the Basic Social Allowance Programme (PSSB) and the Productive Social Action Programme (PASP), but sets no specific targets related to food and nutrition security.

While the ENSSBII explicitly refers to the Government's Five Year Programme (2016-2020), the Five-Year Programme does not outline how its development objectives could be achieved through current social protection programmes. The longer-term National Development Strategy (2015-2035), focused on diversification and industrialisation of the economy, does reserve a role for social development and protection under the human development pillar. The National Development Strategy aims to cover 75 per cent of the poor and vulnerable households by social assistance programmes by 2035. Currently, this figure stands at 15 per cent and, thus, will need a fivefold increase in the coming 18 years to stay on target¹³³. The definition of social protection in this strategy remains limited to social assistance and services to vulnerable groups through 'existing social protection and social security mechanism¹³⁴.' As of writing, the National Development Strategy has not integrated the first or the second social protection policy, in spite of referring to social protection programmes and social assistance spending.

A key challenge is the low budget for social protection programmes. The annual budget spend is far less than planned for in the ENSSBII. The ENSSBII envisions social expenditures to reach 2.23 per cent of GDP by 2024. In 2016, however, the social protection budget stood at a mere 0.44 per cent of GDP.

8.3 Profile of Main Programmes

This section explores the key social protection programmes that contribute to food and nutrition security in Mozambique: the National School Feeding Programme (PRONAE), the Basic Social Allowance Programme (BSSP) and the Productive Social Action Programme (PASP). Referring to *Table 1*, all three programmes can be categorised under the **transfers** approach, aimed at providing food or cash transfers to specific vulnerable groups. The first programme promotes home grown school feeding by providing support to local farmers in producing school meals, and thus can also be classified under the **production** approach. The third programme, the Productive Social Action Programme, includes a public works dimension, thereby also aligning with **labour** approach. Mozambique has not yet implemented weather or crop insurance programmes, though agricultural input subsidies, such as the wheat flour subsidy, have been tried on a pilot basis and are yet to gain traction¹³⁵.

133 UNICEF, 2016b, p.10
134 Government of Mozambique, 2014, p.23
135 African Centre for Biodiversity, 2015, p.22

8.3.1. Transfers and Production Approach: National School Feeding Programme

Title: National School Feeding Programme (PRONAE)
Implementer: Ministry of Education (MoE)
Objective: Provision of locally sourced school meals to contribute to local food production, address malnutrition among school children, and promote equitable access to quality education and improved school retention, completion and transition
Duration: 2013 (start pilot) - ongoing
Target: Primary school children
Coverage: 13,600 pupils

Background and design

PRONAE is a home grown school feeding programme in which district authorities purchase locally produced food from smallholder farmer associations for school meals, while the associations also directly deliver food for school meals to schools. The **support** consists of one meal per child per school day, served in school, containing 30 per cent of **daily** required caloric intake and 20 per cent of daily required nutritional intake for children. By procuring food from local smallholders, PRONAE supports agricultural livelihoods near the school. Complementary to the programme, the Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) and the government provide agricultural extension services, though of limited scale, comprising of skills training and information about food storage to farmers in order to strengthen the supply-side of the market.

Institutional arrangements

At the **national** level, the Ministry of Education (MoE) manages PRONEA, but implementation is decentralised to the Provincial Directorates of Education and Culture and the District Services of Education, Youth and Technology, with support from WFP¹³⁶. These District Services are responsible for issuing tenders on which smallholder farmer associations can bid to provide the required food for the school meals. Alternatively, schools can organise similar tenders for smallholder farmer associations, which then deliver directly to the schools. At all levels, WFP engages with the government of Mozambique to strengthen its capacity and realise the handover of the school feeding programme to the government, which is planned to be completed in 2021. A Special Programme Department under the MoE is responsible for the **monitoring** of PRONAE. The MoE aims to hire external evaluators (e.g. universities, NGOs) to perform a programme **evaluation**¹³⁷. PRONAE also entails specific classes on sanitation and food safety, including safety measures against parasites to complement the deworming campaigns conducted by the Ministry of Health.

136 Ministry of Education, 2013, p.10
137 Ibid, p.13

Key achievements and challenges

On top of providing smallholder farmer associations with an additional market, the school feeding programme supports farmer associations by linking them to or providing them with complementary agricultural extension services. However, so far, these programmes have been of small scale and have not substantially improved the supply-side of local markets. As a result, local procurement remains a challenge to PRONAE. First, local smallholder associations in rural areas often do not produce sufficient food to meet the requirements of the local schools, thereby obliging districts to rely on larger producers with agricultural surpluses or on market traders. Second, smallholder farmer associations often have difficulty meeting the standards of public procurement procedures, given the limited experience with such procedures. This second challenge could potentially be tackled by providing more information to smallholders' associations about the public procurement process, as well as establishing simpler procurement rules. Alternatively, decentralisation to the school level could be considered.

8.3.2. Transfers Approach: Basic Social Allowance Programme

Title: Basic Social Allowance Programme (PSSB)
Implementer: National Institute of Social Action (INAS)
Objective: Provide a safety net for the most vulnerable, labour-constrained households to ensure their survival and improve their access to services and capital investments
Duration: 1992 - ongoing
Target: Poor households with pensioners, people with disabilities, children (0-2 years), orphans or households headed by children
Coverage: 364,172 households in 2016
Budget: MT 1.71 billion (USD 27.2 million) in 2016, for over 98 per cent financed by the government of Mozambique. However, international development partners oftentimes cover technical assistance and capacity building expenditures

Background and design

The Basic Social Allowance Programme (PSSB) is a transfer programme targeted at specified vulnerable categories of households living below the national poverty line. As of 2016, selected households received a monthly UCT between MT 310 (approximately USD 5¹³⁸ for one-person households) to MT 610 (four or more household members). The programme does not include a clear graduation pathway, allowing households to remain permanently enrolled. The PSSB **targets** households that are extremely poor and have no capacity to be engaged in labour or have household members with disabilities. Persons with disabilities are only eligible for inclusion if they have acquired a certificate of disability. Health facilities, however, often do not refer people with disabilities, who sometimes are not aware of their eligibility¹³⁹. For the **selection process**, the National Institute of Social Action (INAS), responsible for programme management, selects certain **community members** as liaisons, or *permanentes*, to propose households for enrolment. INAS follows up on the recommendations by the *permanentes* by conducting a PMT and verifying selected households' eligibility before the households are enrolled¹⁴⁰.

Institutional arrangements

The PSSB is well integrated into the **institutional social protection framework**. By focusing on poor and vulnerable households, the programme aims to contribute to the right to social assistance for all citizens as stipulated under the Constitution and the Social Protection Law. The Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Welfare (MGCAS), provides high-level policy guidance to INAS, which in turn is responsible for the **day-to-day management** of the PSSB. Implementation is highly **centralised**, which tends to incur large operational costs¹⁴¹. INAS also performs the **monitoring** of the PSSB. However, too little data is currently gathered to perform meaningful **evaluations**, though this is expected to change with the launch of the Management Information System (MIS) in 2017^{142, 143}.

Key achievements and challenges

Although the PSSB has been running since 1992, no extensive impact evaluations have been carried out and the centralised management structure and capacity constraints at all levels pose challenges to effective programme implementation. For example, *permanentes* are often not sufficiently trained and receive low stipends for their efforts, which has led to, among others, beneficiaries' complaints about treatment by *permanentes*. Furthermore, INAS could better inform communities about eligibility criteria, whilst delays in delivering the UCTs to beneficiary households challenge the effectiveness of the programme. Finally, the programme could benefit from better integration with emergency response efforts. The 2016 El Niño response, for instance, was not coordinated with the PSSB, although many emergency response beneficiaries were also PSSB beneficiaries. Finally, opportunities exist to improve integration of the PSSB into other programmes, such as the Productive Social Action Programme (PASP). The establishment of a national single registry system and the forthcoming management information system, managed by INAS, can harmonise beneficiary registration and programme implementation¹⁴⁴.

8.3.3. Labour and Transfers Approach: Productive Social Action Programme

Title: Productive Social Action Programme (PASP)

Implementer: National Institute of Social Action (INAS)

Objective: Provision of cash transfers to poor households, who conduct public works that build community assets for food security, and benefit from complementary support to enhance their resilience and diversify their livelihoods

Duration: 2013 – ongoing

Target: Poorest households with the capacity to work in 40 districts in both rural and urban areas

Coverage: 79,819 households in 2016

Budget: MT 556 million (USD 9.19 million), 95 per cent provided by the World Bank as a loan.

Background and design

The Productive Social Action Programme (PASP) is a public works programme for the poorest households, who receive a CCT in return for their participation in public works, up to a maximum of 15 days per month. Unlike the PSSB, the PASP is not implemented in all districts and applies **geographical targeting** of districts with the highest poverty gaps according to the latest census and household survey data. The actual **selection** of beneficiaries follows similar procedures as the PSSB, with *permanentes* from the community assessing household's poverty after which INAS conducts PMTs and assesses the eligibility. Under the PASP, each household receives **MT 1,500** (USD 24) **per month**, conditional upon participation in the project. Beneficiaries **exit** the programme after four months of work¹⁴⁵. In addition, the programme sets up Village Savings and Loans groups in rural areas and provides complementary trainings, for instance on vocational jobs, to beneficiaries in urban areas¹⁴⁶.

Institutional arrangements

Just as the PSSB, the PASP is well integrated into the **institutional social protection framework** of the country. Additionally, the PASP enjoys relatively good relations with other ministries, policies and programmes. For example, involvement of the Ministry of State Administration, the ministry responsible for rural development, in the selection of public works projects aims to ensure that the PASP also works towards rural development objectives, such as promoting savings and financial literacy¹⁴⁷. The PASP complements the PSSB, as the PASP only targets labour-abled poor households, while the PSSB targets labour-constrained households. Similar to the PSSB, day-to-day **management and oversight** of the PASP is the responsibility of INAS, with policy guidance provided by the MGCAS and support from international development partners, including WFP¹⁴⁸. INAS staff also guide the implementation of the public works, amongst others the procurement of materials and project oversight¹⁴⁹. The government agreed to gradually assume a larger share of the costs of the PASP, which will be realized by expanding the budget of INAS.

Key achievements and challenges

There are no extensive quantitative impact evaluations available for either the PASP or PSSB. One thorough qualitative study on the PASP, however, concluded that the programme seems unlikely to have a substantial effect on food and nutrition security through either transfers or increased agricultural production. One recommendation made by the study to improve households' consumption patterns was to increase the transfer size and reduce delays in the payment of the transfers. Furthermore, some of the construction materials used for public works projects were sub-standard, while opportunities exist to improve projects' designs in order to enhance the overall quality of public works projects.

8.4 Assessment of Main Programmes

8.4.1. Effects on Food and Nutrition Security

Mozambique takes a predominantly transfers approach to social protection for food and nutrition security, with significant labour and production-oriented elements. Mozambique offers an array of transfers programmes geared towards improving food and nutrition security. PASP and PRONAE, for instance, both aim to improve, though through different models, access to food, while also contributing to the enhancement of smallholder farmers' food production capacities and livelihoods.

Extremely poor and labour-constrained households, and are thus not able to enrol in the PASP, could be selected for the PSSB. However, the cash transfer amounts of both the PASP and PSSB seems to be too low to have a substantial impact on food and nutrition security. The PASP aims to strengthen agricultural infrastructure by providing support across the food supply chain, but, in general, the current selection of social protection programmes is not tailored to address the low agricultural productivity, improve the shock-responsiveness of food production and promote price stability. As such, the social protection framework in the country can be expanded to better respond to these drivers of food and nutrition insecurity¹⁵⁰.

8.4.2. Integration and Coordination between Policies and Programmes

There is a need for stronger and clearer linkages between the social protection policy framework and food and nutrition security objectives. The ENSSBII sets nutrition objectives for the school feeding programme, but does not set specific food and nutrition security objectives for the PASP or the PSSB. As such, the public works programmes under the PASP insufficiently address food and nutrition insecurity; more explicit food and nutrition security objectives could improve the strategy of these programmes to improve food and nutrition security. Another key challenge is the lack of a coordinating structure or mechanism between different ministries tasked with developing and managing one clear social protection strategy towards improving food and nutrition security. Currently, the MGCAS manages the NSPP, without clear or functional cooperation with other line ministries. For instance, the response to El Niño was not coordinated with the PSSB, while many people struck by the consequences of El Niño already benefitted from the PSSB. Moreover, although INAS oversees both the PASP and the PSSB, better integration between both programmes and with other complementary programmes is needed, possibly in the form of a harmonised MIS. As a result of this rather fractured approach to social protection programmes and the lack of a functioning national social protection council, complementarity, efficiency and targeting of the poorest households and regions pose challenges¹⁵¹. However, some progress has been made in terms of programme complementarity. For instance, the launch of the single registry system for the PSSB and PASP beneficiaries and the plans for a harmonised MIS serving both programmes can further strengthen complementarity.

138 According to currency rates at the time of writing.

139 Overseas Development Institute, 2013, p. 45

140 Overseas Development Institute, 2012, p.22

141 Overseas Development Institute, 2013, p. 40

142 Overseas Development Institute, 2012, p.45

143 World Bank Group, 2017e

144 Ibid, p.9

145 Ibid, p.41

146 World Bank Group, 2013b

147 World Bank Group, 2017e, p.45

148 World Food Programme, 2017h, p.9

149 World Bank Group, 2013b

150 UNICEF, 2016a, p.2

151 UNICEF, 2016a, p.10

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In addition, social protection programmes could benefit from complementary programmes in fields like nutrition, water and sanitation, financial inclusion and agricultural extension services. The establishment of Village Savings and Loans Groups under the PASP as a means to help beneficiaries maximise the value of their cash transfers is a good example of complementarity. Offering such financial literacy services, assists rural households in making agricultural investments and urban households in expanding income-generating activities. Opportunities exist to link the PSSB to complementary skills or livelihood support programmes. By introducing this 'cash plus' approach, beneficiaries may be better able to harness their cash transfers and use the cash to sustainably improve their livelihoods. In addition, the provision of more agricultural extension services to smallholder farmer associations producing food for school meals (PRONAE) can increase farmers' production levels, the quality of their harvest and the resilience to shocks. While the government of Mozambique and FAO provide some agricultural extension services, this support is insufficient for the local production to meet the food requirement. The National Secretary for Food Security under the MoA, which is tasked with inter-ministerial coordination on food security, can in theory promote coordination and complementarity, but lacks the resources and decision making power to carry out this mandate.

8.5 Summary

The main social protection programmes for food and nutrition security identified in this analysis can be classified under the transfers, labour and production approach. Mozambique has a robust legal framework that provides the groundwork for effective coordination of social protection. The government has also proved capable of carrying almost all the costs of the PSSB, while it has planned to gradually assume a larger share of the cost of the PASP. However, the envisioned coordination structures, such as the National Social Protection Council, are not yet operational. In addition, *ad hoc* food emergency response programmes should be integrated in the national social protection system to increase effectiveness of the emergency response and improve complementarity and sustainability of the interventions. As a means of fostering better coordination and delineating a clearer pathway towards improving food and nutrition security via social protection, the inclusion of specific food and nutrition security objectives into the ENSSBII may facilitate this process. Main social protection programmes for food and nutrition security are the PSSB, providing unconditional cash transfers, the PASP, providing cash transfers in return for public works, and the PRONAE, a home grown school feeding programme. The single registry for the PSSB and PASP promote programme integration, although opportunities exist to further enhance such integration. Additionally, the relevance and quality of public works projects under the PASP can be improved, while expanded farmer support programmes can complement PRONAE. In general, social protection in Mozambique is well established, but should place more emphasis on promoting agricultural productivity and shock-responsive food production, while simultaneously working to stabilise commodity prices in the face of shocks. These areas – low levels of food production and price volatility – threaten food and nutrition security in Mozambique and, as such, merit special attention.

9.1 General Background

Zambia, a landlocked country in Southern Africa, has a population of 16.2 million people and a GDP per capita of USD 1,305¹⁵². Although the country is politically stable, the economy came under strain in 2015 and 2016, due to slower regional growth and decreasing global copper prices. GDP growth dropped to 2.8 per cent in 2015 and stood at 3.3 per cent in 2016, compared to the average annual GDP growth rate of 7.4 per cent between 2004 and 2014. Despite the economic growth over the past decades, Zambia has witnessed a marginal decline in poverty, food insecurity and malnutrition. In 2010, the headcount rate for poverty (USD 1.90 per day) remained high, at 64 per cent, an increase of four per cent since 2006.

In Zambia poverty is unevenly distributed with a poverty rate of 74 per cent in rural areas, which is double the urban poverty rate of 35 per cent¹⁵³. Moreover, in 2010, 94 per cent of the poorest ten per cent lived in rural areas¹⁵⁴. While the climate in Zambia is favourable for growing crops such as cotton, maize and groundnuts, and produces a maize surplus, unpredictable weather patterns affect farmers and communities. Farmers rely heavily on seasonal rains and most often farm for their own subsistence¹⁵⁵. Chronic food insecurity persists among smallholder farmers, who are unable to **produce** sufficient food to meet their consumption requirements. Low agricultural productivity, due to outdated agricultural techniques, is another key challenge for these smallholder farmers¹⁵⁶. As 80 per cent of cultivated lands are maize, diets are often insufficiently diversified. Malnutrition, or poor **utilisation** of food, tends to inhibit the full development of children, especially children who live in poverty¹⁵⁷. From the total child population 0-18 years old, in 2010 65 per cent lived in poverty (and 46 per cent in extreme poverty), according to national poverty estimates, representing around 4.6 million children. About 85 per cent of all poor children live in rural areas¹⁵⁸. As is true globally, child poverty in Zambia is closely linked with chronic malnutrition. Stunting, for instance, has been persistently high in Zambia for more than two decades, dropping only by six percentage points from 46 per cent to 40 per cent between 1992 and 2013. Moreover, 15 per cent of children is underweight, which marks a mere six percentage point improvement since 1992, and no improvement since 2007¹⁵⁹.

9.2 Social Protection Institutional and Legal Environment

Against the above demographic, developmental and economic backdrop, the Zambian government considers social protection a key strategy to promote inclusive economic growth, reduce poverty and vulnerability, and promote equity and fulfilment of human rights. In 2014, the government approved the **National Social Protection Policy** (NSPP) and its implementation plan for the 2014-2018 period¹⁶⁰. The NSPP defines social protection as "policies and practices that protect and promote the livelihoods and welfare of people suffering from critical levels of poverty and deprivation and/or are vulnerable to risks and shocks." In line with this objective, Zambia takes a predominantly transfers approach to social protection for food and nutrition security.

The NSPP encompasses five intervention areas: social assistance, social security and health insurance, livelihood and empowerment, protection and disability. Only the areas of social assistance and livelihood and empowerment have objectives related to food and nutrition security. In the explanatory section of the NSPP, social assistance is clearly framed as a set of programmes that can help vulnerable and poor people meet various needs, including access to food. Under social assistance, the NSPP includes "food and nutrition security for vulnerable populations" and "reducing poverty and inter-generational poverty" as objectives, and lists several programmes to meet these objectives, including reliable cash transfers, emergency response and HGSP programmes. In addition, the NSPP aims to strengthen linkages and coherence among various social assistance programmes. Under the intervention area of livelihood and empowerment, the NSPP refers to the objective to "increase livelihood potential among vulnerable populations in order to meet their food and nutrition security requirements year round." However, the NSPP does not present a clear pathway describing how social protection programmes will contribute to the above stated food and nutrition security-related objectives¹⁶¹.

152 World Bank Group Databank, 2017e
153 Ministry of Community Development and Social Welfare, 2016
154 Beazley, Carraro, 2014
155 World Food Programme, 2017i
156 Sitko et al, 2011
157 HIVOS, 2017
158 UNICEF, 2013
159 Save the Children, 2016

160 Miti, 2016, p.3
161 Government of Zambia, 2014, p.11

In addition, the NSPP aims to improve the coordination between social protection programmes. As an important step towards improved coordination, the NSPP proposes to establish a national single registry system for beneficiaries of various social assistance and school feeding programmes¹⁶². The policy also outlines the establishment of a National Coordination Unit, housed under the Cabinet, with the responsibility to oversee the development, implementation and integration of social protection strategies, programmes and financing. The NSPP is clear in designating responsibilities for each line ministry involved in coordination. For instance, the Ministry of Community Development, Mother and Child Health (MCDMCH) is bestowed with the task to, amongst others, coordinate the technical working groups and to initiate the formulation of the new social protection policies¹⁶³; while the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock is the sole ministry tasked with the specific objective to improve food security for vulnerable groups¹⁶⁴.

Even though the NSPP signalled increased government commitment towards social protection, there is not yet a **legal framework** in place for social protection in general. Currently, legislators, supported by UNICEF and the ILO are designing a Social Protection Bill to create a robust legal framework for social protection. The current draft of the bill envisions the establishment of a National Social Protection Council consisting of representatives of involved line ministries. The Council will direct the activities of the Coordination Unit¹⁶⁵ and provide policy coordination. Zambia expects to approve the bill by late 2017 or early 2018.

In addition to the NSPP, Zambia has other policies and strategies related to social protection and food and nutrition security. Vision 2030, drafted before the NSPP, refers to social protection as a means to reduce child labour and improve livelihoods or assets for vulnerable households¹⁶⁶, thus presenting a narrower definition of social protection than the NSPP. In terms of food and nutrition security, Vision 2030 underlines the importance of promoting agricultural production, but does not link social protection to food and nutrition security objectives, or vice versa¹⁶⁷. Next to Vision 2030, the Revised Sixth National Development Plan (RSNDP) provided concrete policy guidance for the implementation of Vision 2030 between 2013 and 2016 and set out clear social protection objectives. The overall social protection objective of the RSNDP is to improve delivery of "social protection to persons with disabilities, low capacity and incapacitated households in order to live decent lives by 2016¹⁶⁸." Despite the revisions made to the initial Sixth National Development Plan, the document still refers to the former NSPP, and does not include any of the current NSPP objectives¹⁶⁹.

162 Ibid, p.8
 163 Ibid, p.14
 164 Ibid, p.14
 165 Southern African Social Protection Experts Network, 2016
 166 Government of Zambia, p.33
 167 Ibid, p.30
 168 Government of Zambia, p. 126
 169 Ibid. A draft of the Seventh National Development Plan is currently being reviewed.

9.3 Profile of Main Programmes

This section will explain the key social protection programmes that contribute to food and nutrition security in Zambia, categorised on the basis of the four approaches outlined in Table 1. The key social protection programmes relate to the transfers approach, which include the Social Cash Transfer (SCT) programme and the Home Grown School Meals (HGSM) programme. The HGSM programme can also be classified under the production approach, which also includes the Farmer Input Subsidy Programme (FISP). Finally, the Food Reserve Agency (FRA), mandated to ensure price stability by purchasing grains from smallholder farmers and selling agricultural produce can be classified as a trade approach. Zambia has no programmes linked to the **labour** approach to food and nutrition security, such as public works programmes.

9.3.1. Transfers Approach: Social Cash Transfer

Title: Social Cash Transfer (SCT) Programme
Implementer: Ministry of Community Development, Mother and Child Health (MCDMCH)
Objective: Provision of cash transfers to alleviate extreme poverty and enable vulnerable households to transform their livelihoods and lift themselves out of poverty
Duration: Launched in 2003, radically reformed in 2014 and is now set to remain Zambia's main social protection programme
Target: Incapacitated and poor households
Coverage: 243,000 intended beneficiary households in 2016. Objective to scale up to cover all regions in Zambia in 2017
Budget: ZMW 89 Million (USD 9.2 million) in 2016

Background and design

Under the Social Cash Transfer (SCT) programme, the poorest and most vulnerable households receive a bi-monthly **unconditional** cash transfer. As a first step, up until 2017 the SCT uses geographical targeting, after which the government plans to roll out the programme nation-wide. As a second layer, the programme uses categorical targeting methods; targeting the poorest 10 per cent of households in Zambia, households with at least one child under the age of five, disabled children under 14 years of age, individuals of 65 years and above, female-headed households with at least one orphan, households headed by an elderly person with at least one orphan, and households with at least one disabled member. The wide variety of eligible categories has resulted from the integration of various social protection programmes into the SCT. Finally, Community Welfare Assistance Committees (CWACs), consisting of community volunteers, conduct PMTs based on the residency, level of incapacitation and poverty level of households. The cash transfer is disbursed to enrolled households at pay points in local public buildings (e.g. schools, health posts) by pay point managers, who are civil servants in the community¹⁷⁰. Benefiting households receive transfers for three years, after which their eligibility is again verified by the CWAC. If households are no longer eligible, they **graduate** out of the programme¹⁷¹.

170 Ministry of Community Development and Social Welfare, 2014
 171 Save the Children, 2016, p.46

Institutional arrangements

The Ministry of Community Development, Mother and Child Health (MCDMCH) is responsible for the implementation of the SCT. At operational level, the District Welfare Assistance Committees, which fall under the aforementioned ministry, are responsible to carry out all programme activities and supervise the CWAC. **Monitoring** of the different cash transfers takes place at district level, does not include nutrition or child-specific indicators, and has not yet been integrated into a single system¹⁷². At the institutional level, the National Social Protection Bill, which guarantees the continuation of the SCT by the Zambian government, is currently being reviewed¹⁷³. Due to the lack of a legal framework for social protection, the SCT programme is not protected in any law¹⁷⁴. The government does show strong commitment to the SCT programme, having gradually assumed a larger share of the costs, while expanding the number of beneficiaries. Currently, 83 per cent of the SCT programme is funded by the government, with the remaining 17 per cent funded by various donors.

Key achievements and challenges

Impact evaluations of two programmes that have been integrated into the SCT - the Multiple Category Transfer Grant Programme and the Child Grant Programme - reported that beneficiaries increased spending on education and improved their diets and nutrition intake. As the SCT has a similar programme design, it is likely that the SCT will produce similar outcomes. Moreover, the planned nation-wide expansion of the SCT will improve coverage, which may provide a solution for targeting errors. Moreover, adopting a more flexible, regionally sensitised poverty cut-off measure could further improve the inclusion of eligible households. In addition, opportunities exist to improve coordination with other social protection, water and sanitation, health, education and food security programmes. The Platform for Social Protection aims to coordinate social protection programmes implemented by the government, international organisations and civil society, and the forthcoming National Social Protection Council can further enhance such **coordination** at policy level. At programme level, the design of a single registry system or shared management information system could prevent overlap and promote synergies.

9.3.2. Production and Transfers Approach: Home Grown School Meals

Title: Home Grown School Meals Programme
Implementer: Ministry of General Education (MoGE) and WFP
Objective: Provision of locally sourced school meals to contribute to local food production, address malnutrition among school children, and promote equitable access to quality education and improved school retention, completion and transition
Duration: 2015 – 2020
Target: School children in poor districts and local farmers
Coverage: 1 million school children

172 Ibid, p.73
 173 International Labour Organisation, 2016
 174 Miti, 2016, p.3

Background and design

The Home-Grown School Meals (HGSM) programme provides **home grown school meals** to an estimated 1 million school children every day. The programme pays considerable attention to nutrition; quality control by WFP and the government of Zambia ensures that meals are sensitive to children's nutritional needs, which is complemented by nutrition education to school children, including maintaining school gardens. The government of Zambia and WFP geographically **target** primary schools, by selecting schools in 38 districts with low educational achievement indicators, high prevalence of HIV and food insecurity, and poor performance on nutrition indicators¹⁷⁵. By 2020, the programme should reach around two million school children (half of the total primary school learners) and the government of Zambia should fund a larger share of the programme.

Institutional arrangements

The Ministry of General Education (MoGE) is responsible for **oversight and day-to-day management** of the programme¹⁷⁶. WFP distributes CCTs to district level education departments¹⁷⁷, which purchase maize from farmers located as close as possible to the selected school, store the purchased food and distribute it to schools. In addition, WFP purchases pulses from local smallholders through traders and then delivers this commodity to schools, while also procuring oil internationally. Both WFP and the Zambian government **monitor** the programme, based on data collected by District Education Board offices. An attempt has been made to transmit monitoring data via SMS, but the quality of the data did not meet the desired standards¹⁷⁸. **Evaluation** is mainly carried out by WFP. In addition, a Technical Working Group has been established that consisting of line ministries, civil society and development partners to improve programme implementation and sustainability.

Key achievements and challenges

The HGSM programme is to some extent integrated and coordinated with complementary programmes and policies. For instance, the HGSM programme works together with the Ministry of Health on deworming for school children to improve nutrition outcomes. Moreover, the HGSM programme is embedded in the NSPP and the Vision 2030, the country's main **poverty strategy**. However, the HGSM programme can promote linkages with agricultural extension services offered by the MoA to support local smallholder farmers. Although some smallholder farmers, who sell their grains to schools benefit from such services, coordination between the HGSM programme and the MoA on the targeting of local farmers for extension services is still poor.

175 World Food Programme, 2017j, p.14
 176 Ibid, p.17
 177 Ibid, p.7
 178 Ibid, p.18

9.3.3. Production Approach: Farmer Input Subsidy Programme

Title: Farmer Input Subsidy Programme
Implementer: Ministry of Agriculture
Objective: To improve the production and livelihoods of poor smallholders and promote crops diversification
Duration: 2003-2017
Target: Poor farmers
Coverage: 1.6 million enrolled beneficiaries
Budget: USD 122 million in 2016

Background and design

The Farmer Input Subsidy Programme (FISP) is the largest social protection programme in Zambia in terms of coverage, providing agricultural inputs to 1.6 million smallholders who meet eligibility criteria. The inputs consist of an annual **unconditional** transfer to smallholders of 200 kg of fertiliser, 10 kg of maize seeds and limited quantities of other seeds to promote crops diversification. The programme accounted for 24 per cent of the government's social protection expenditures in 2015¹⁷⁹. FISP is **targeted** at farmers who have a plot of land that is sufficient to earn an adequate income (though smaller than five hectares) and produce at least one of several crops selected by the MoA. **Community** leaders, youth farmer organisation and community-based organisations are involved in the selection process. Inputs for beneficiaries are delivered to the district level by private firms selected through a national tender, and then released to **selected** beneficiaries through cooperatives and other farmer organisations approved by the District Agricultural Committee. Subsequently, participating farmers have to deposit their share of the package's cost into an account of their cooperative union, after which the package is released.

Institutional arrangements

The FISP is well **integrated** into key policies, and is identified as the key programme within the National Agricultural Policy 2012-2030 to obtain its food and nutrition security objectives¹⁸⁰. The MoA is responsible for the daily **management** at all government levels, as well as for the **monitoring and evaluation** of the programme.

Key achievements and challenges

Targeting of the input subsidies has been a key challenge due to high exclusion and inclusion errors. According to some estimations, only 15 per cent of the fertiliser ended up with the poorest 40 per cent of Zambian farmers, while the richest 20 per cent of farmers consumed 42 per cent of the provided fertilisers¹⁸¹. Although the programme was never designed to reach the poorest farmers, the inclusion error is substantial¹⁸².

Instead, the Food Security Package, a small input subsidy programme run by the MoCDMCH was designed to target the poorest¹⁸³. The poor farmer households that benefitted from the FISP, however, showed rising incomes and lower food insecurity indicators¹⁸⁴. In 2013, the MoA launched a pilot that allowed farmers to obtain their input packages through electronic vouchers or e-cards linked to farmers' national registration card, in order to facilitate the payment process. Although the pilot experienced some technical issues resulting in late delivery of inputs, it did improve the payment process. However, an evaluation of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) concluded that FISP expenditure was fiscally unsustainable due to its high costs, based on which the Government of Zambia decided to discontinue the FISP in 2018¹⁸⁵.

9.3.4. Trade Approach: Price Floor and Subsidised Maize

Title: Price Floor and Subsidised Maize
Implementer: Food Reserve Agency (FRA)
Objective: To provide a price floor for crops, especially maize
Duration: 1995 - present
Target: Smallholder farmers

Smallholder farmers in Zambia are heavily dependent on maize, which is the main cultivated crop in the country. However, smallholder farmers' produce is not able to compete on the regional and international market. To improve the position for maize-producing smallholder farmers, the government of Zambia set a price floor to raise the price of maize at which farmers sell their produce. This price floor aims to protect the smallholder farmers from cheaper imports. The Federal Reserve Agency (FRA) manages the price floor by purchasing grain from farmers at a minimum price, and subsequently reselling the grain to millers at a lower price¹⁸⁶. Owing to regional increases in the price of maize, however, Zambian maize has become more competitive and the Zambian government allowed regional exports. Consequently, the FRA was able to scale back its activities¹⁸⁷.

Key achievements and challenges

The effects on price floors on the welfare of poor smallholder farmers is mixed. Studies have shown that about half of the Zambian farmers are net buyers of maize: as much as prices are meant to improve the income of rural Zambian farmers, higher food prices affect the ability of other poor farmers to buy food. In general, gains from higher maize market prices are highly concentrated among three to five per cent of maize-growing smallholders, who account for 50 per cent of all smallholder marketed maize¹⁸⁸. As such, the price floors mainly benefit the better-off smallholder farmers. The pricing policy of the FRA has also resulted in less crop diversification, as it discouraged farmers to grow other crops^{189, 190}.

9.4 Assessment of Main Programmes

9.4.1. Effects on Food and Nutrition Security Outcomes

The NSPP adequately identifies poor access to, and utilisation and production of food as drivers of food and nutrition insecurity in Zambia. The SCT aims to promote the access to food for poor and vulnerable households through the provision of UCTs, with likely positive effects on their food and nutrition security. The HGSM programme to some extent succeeds in addressing the demand for and supply of nutritious food through provision of nutrient-rich school meals and nutrition education to children, complemented by limited agriculture extension services to smallholder farmers who produce food for schools. The FISP, one of the key programmes of the Zambian government to promote food security, showed mixed results and will be discontinued due to high costs and inclusion errors.

9.4.2. Coordination and Integration of Policy and Programmes

The NSPP, Vision 2030 and RSNPD do not provide coherent strategies for how social protection can contribute to food and nutrition security and, consequently, efforts are needed to define how social protection can promote improved food and nutrition security outcomes. Greater coordination between social protection programmes would facilitate such efforts, though the current state of social protection in Zambia is fragmented; united by a common policy, but not yet unified by a common social protection authority. Establishing the national social protection council, as envisioned by the draft Social Protection Bill, would greatly benefit the social protection framework, including the creation of a legal framework and ensuring complementarity between programmes. For its part, the NSPP could expand its analysis of the importance of social protection to food and nutrition security, thereby providing a rationale for improved multi-sectoral coordination. Enhanced multi-sectoral coordination is necessary to mitigate conflicting outcomes and objectives of different social protection programmes. For instance, the outcomes of the FRA's price setting policies oppose the objectives of the SCT, considering that the FRA's price floor increased the price of maize, the most important food staple for poor Zambian households. Poorer households suffer most from artificially inflated maize prices, as relative expenditures on maize are higher for poorer than for wealthier households. Although the FISP will end in 2018, it underlines the importance of coordination between social protection and complementary programmes. The government of Zambia has also shown its commitment by gradually assume a larger part of the cost of its social protection programmes. While the government already financed the FISP, the HGSM will increasingly be taken over by the government, though not yet completely handed over. The SCT was initially mostly government-funded, but as the costs for scaling up the programmes were borne by the government, it now covers 83 per cent of the SCT programme's expenditures.

179 UNICEF, 2016c

180 Ministry of Agriculture, 2011

181 Mason & Tembo, 2015, p.1

182 Government of Zambia, 2013, p.23

183 However, this programme is extremely small in comparison to the FISP, reaching a number of beneficiaries as small as three per cent of the number of FISP beneficiaries. The Food Security Package will therefore not be discussed in this report.

184 Ministry of Agriculture, 2011

185 Agri Business Zambia, 2017, p.8

186 CUTS International, 2015, p.7

187 Ibid, p.15

188 Kuteya, Chisanga, Sitko, 2014

189 Ibid, p.13

190 Ibid, p.7

9.4.3. Complementarity of Activities

The government of Zambia should increase complementarity of social protection programmes as a means of improving food and nutrition security. For example, SCT beneficiaries would likely gain from better linkages with other services to complement the UCT; the so-called cash plus approach. Examples of complementary programmes include labour market reintegration schemes for persons with disabilities; referrals for healthcare and social services; and provision of maternal, newborn and child health services, such as supplementary feeding, to beneficiary households. Furthermore, school children covered under the HGSM programme would benefit from complementary health interventions, such as deworming and micronutrient supplements. As malnutrition is a key driver of food and nutrition insecurity in Zambia, bridging the gap between health interventions and social protection programmes is an important area to further explore.

9.5 Summary

The principal goals of Zambia's social protection policy and programmes are to improve access to and utilisation of food for the most vulnerable households, with the HGSM and the SCT as the main programmes. The SCT, which is funded for 83 per cent by the government, has been successful at improving diets and nutrition intake of its beneficiaries. The HGSM programmes aims to provide school meals to about 2 million school children by 2020 and has been used as a platform for the Ministry of Health for complementary deworming campaigns. Given that poor food utilisation and production are important determinants of food and nutrition insecurity, the expansion of complementary programmes, particularly those that improve agricultural productivity, crop diversification, and target health and nutrition indicators, are recommended. These goals could be further bolstered through the inclusion of specific food and nutrition security objectives within the NSPP, as well as a clear strategy at the policy level on how to best utilise social protection to improve food and nutrition security for all Zambians. Improved coordination between the various ministries, facilitated by the Social Protection Bill, can support more comprehensive, coherent and integrated efforts to exploit social protection's potential to effectuate lasting change for food and nutrition security in Zambia.



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