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Abstract

This policy paper: (i) provides a global overview of the organization of child and family benefits in 183 countries; (ii) presents the negative impacts of fiscal consolidation and adjustment measures in a number of higher-income economies; (iii) analyses trends and recent policies, e.g. extension of child and family benefit coverage in a large number of low- and middle-income countries; (iv) presents the costs of basic universal child and orphan benefits in 57 low and lower middle income countries; and (v) calls for the expansion of social protection for children and families in pursuit of crisis recovery, inclusive development and social justice.

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Preface

Social protection is a human right, further supported by the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989, and yet many children do not receive the essential cash transfers that could make a real difference, in terms of nutrition, health, education and care services, to their chances of realizing their full potential. Social protection also has a key – yet often neglected – role in preventing child labour. Underinvestment in children jeopardizes their rights and their future, as well as the economic and social development prospects of the countries in which they live.

The adequate protection of children through the provision of benefits and access to health care is at the heart of the mandate of the International Labour Organization (ILO) and is specifically addressed by the Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102) and the Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202). These standards provide a framework for the extension of social security approved by governments and employers' and workers' organizations from 185 countries - the later was also endorsed by the UN and the G20.

Based on the research conducted for the ILO's World Social Protection Report 2014/15, this paper highlights key trends and challenges with regard to social protection for children. It focuses specifically on income security for children, reflecting the importance of ensuring access to food, health, education and care, and preventing child labour. It also presents the costs of basic universal cash transfers to children and orphans in a large number of developing countries. The important role of universal health protection for children is addressed in a separate policy paper in this series.

As the global community discusses a new development framework for the time after 2015, we hope that this policy paper will contribute to ensuring universal social protection for children, with a view to realizing their full potential.

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Executive summary

- Social protection policies are an essential element of realizing children's rights, ensuring their well-being, breaking the vicious cycle of poverty and vulnerability, preventing child labour, and helping all children realize their full potential.

- Despite a large expansion of schemes in developing countries, existing social protection policies do not sufficiently address the income security needs of children, particularly in low- and middle-income countries with a large child population. About 18,000 children die every day, mainly from preventable causes; many of these deaths could be avoided through adequate social protection.

- More efforts are needed to step up measures to ensure income security for children and families. Specific child and family benefit programmes rooted in legislation exist in 108 countries, yet often cover only small groups of the population.

- On average, governments allocate 0.4 per cent of GDP to child benefits, ranging from 2.2 per cent in Western Europe to 0.2 per cent in Africa, and in Asia and the Pacific. Underinvestment in children jeopardizes their rights and their future, as well as the economic and social development prospects of the countries in which they live.

- Fiscal consolidation and adjustment measures in higher-income economies threaten progress on social protection for children and their families. Child poverty increased in 18 of the 28 countries of the European Union between 2008 and 2013.

- Guaranteeing income security for all children, at least at a basic level, can be achieved by nearly all countries around the world. Even low income countries can make great strides in ensuring at least a basic level of income security for children and families anchored in national legislation. ILO estimates demonstrate that a universal child benefit would on average require 1.9 per cent of national GDP in 57 low income countries and lower middle income countries.

- The case for social protection for children is compelling in our times. Social protection is both a human right and a sound economic policy. Social protection powerfully contributes to reducing poverty, exclusion, and inequality – while enhancing political stability and social cohesion. Social protection also contributes to economic growth by supporting household income and thus domestic consumption; this is particularly important during this time of slow recovery and depressed global demand. Further, social protection enhances human capital and productivity, so it has become a critical policy tool for transformative national development. Social protection floors for children and their families are essential for global recovery, inclusive development and social justice, and therefore must be an integral part of the post-2015 development agenda.

1. The role of social protection in ensuring children's well-being

Social protection is essential in preventing and reducing poverty for children and families, in addressing inequalities and in realizing children's rights.

Despite recent progress in many parts of the world, too many children live in poverty and are deprived of their most elementary rights (UNICEF, 2012; 2014a). In, fact, in most parts of the world, children and families with children are at greater risk of poverty than other groups of the population, with respect to both monetary and other forms of poverty.

The consequences of poverty are very significant for children. Children experience poverty differently from adults; they have specific and different needs. While an adult may fall into poverty temporarily, a child who falls into poverty may be poor for a lifetime – rarely does a child get a second chance at an education or a healthy start in life. Even short periods of food deprivation can be detrimental to children's long-term development. If children do not receive adequate nutrition, they lag behind their peers in size and intellectual capacity, are more vulnerable to life-threatening diseases, perform less well in school, and ultimately are less likely to be productive adults. Child poverty threatens not only the individual child, but is likely to be passed on to future generations, entrenching and even exacerbating inequality in society (see, e.g. UNICEF, 2012, 2014a; Minujin and Nandy, 2012; Ortiz, Moreira Daniels and Engilbertsdóttir, 2012). Many of the 18,000 children under the age of five who die every day, mainly from preventable causes, could be saved through adequate social protection (UNICEF, 2014a). Where children are deprived of a decent standard of living, access to quality health care (see ILO, 2014b), education and care, and where they suffer from social exclusion, their future is compromised. Where children are forced to engage in child labour, such exploitation takes a heavy toll on their physical and cognitive development, and on their future life chances (ILO, 2013). Child poverty affects not only the well-being and aspirations of individual children, but also the wider communities, societies and economies in which they live.

Child and family benefits, in cash and in kind, play a particularly important role in realizing children's rights and addressing their needs, particularly for the most vulnerable members of society (see, e.g. UNICEF, 2012; Sanfilippo, de Neubourg and Martorano, 2012; UNESCO, 2014; United Nations, 2014). Evidence from many parts of the world demonstrates that social protection benefits have led to a marked improvement in the nutritional status of children (see ILO, 2010a; UNICEF, 2012; Save the Children, 2012a). Cash transfer programmes have also contributed to a significant increase in the utilization of pre- and post-natal health visits and in a reduction in the proportion of home-based births, thus enhancing maternal and child health. More generally, such programmes have been shown to increase the utilization of health services, again contributing to improvements in children's health (e.g. Attanasio et al., 2005). Cash transfers for children and families, both conditional and non-conditional, have also contributed to significant increases in children's enrolment and attendance at school in different parts of the world, as well as, although with less conclusive evidence, improvements in education outcomes (e.g. additional years of schooling, impact on wages) (Fiszbein and Schady, 2009; Baird et al., 2013; UNICEF, 2012; ILO, 2010b; ILO, 2013). Through these various channels, social protection benefits contribute to enhancing children's current and future well-being, and their ability to seize economic and social opportunities in later life. Child and family benefits, together with other forms of benefits and services, are also an important means of responding to the special needs of children with disabilities (UNICEF, 2013), orphans and vulnerable children, children affected by violence and abuse, and other disadvantaged children (Save the Children, 2012b; Barrientos et al., 2013).

This policy paper focuses in particular on the income security of children and families, which constitutes a key dimension of their well-being. Strengthening income security is therefore a key element of policies that aim at reducing and preventing child poverty, at breaking the intergenerational transmission of poverty, and at facilitating children's access to nutrition, care, education and health care (ILO, 2014b). The ILO's Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202), explicitly recognizes income security for children as one of the basic social security guarantees constituting a national social protection floor, based on an integrated approach that addresses the multiple dimensions of child well--being. This basic social security guarantee provides an effective framework for national policies (see box 1).

Box 1
International standards for child and family benefits

The UN legal framework on human rights contains a number of provisions spelling out various rights of children that form part of their right to social protection. These comprise the right to social security, taking into consideration the resources and the circumstances of the child and persons having responsibility for their maintenance;[1] the right to a standard of living adequate for their health and their well-being; and the right to special care and assistance.[2] The ICESCR further requires States to give the widest possible protection and assistance to the family, particularly for the care and education of dependent children.[3]

ILO social security standards complement this framework and provide guidance to countries on how to give effect to the various rights that form part of the right of children to social protection. The ILO Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102), Part VII, sets minimum standards for the provision of family (or child) benefits in the form of either a periodic cash benefit or benefits in kind (food, clothing, housing, holidays or domestic help) or a combination of both, allocated for the maintenance of children. The fundamental objective of family benefits should thus be to ensure the welfare of children and the economic stability of their families.

As specified by the ILO's Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations, these standards require that family benefits be granted in respect of each child in the family and to all children, for so long as the child is receiving education or vocational training on a full-time basis and is not in receipt of an adequate income determined by national legislation. They should be set at a level which relates directly to the actual cost of providing for a child and should represent a substantial contribution to this cost. Family allowances at the minimum rate should be granted regardless of means. Benefits above the minimum rate may be subject to a means test. Furthermore, all benefits should be adjusted in order to take into account changes in the cost of providing for children or in the general cost of living (ILO, 2011b, paras 184–86).

ILO Recommendation No. 202 further refines and extends the normative framework, aiming at universal protection. Income security for children is one of the basic social security guarantees constituting a national social protection floor, and should ensure "access to nutrition, education, care and any other necessary goods and services" (para. 5(b)). Although the guarantee should be nationally defined, the Recommendation provides clear guidance on its appropriate level: the minimum level of income security should allow for life in dignity and should be sufficient to provide for effective access to a set of necessary goods and services, such as may be set out through national poverty lines and other comparable thresholds (para. 8(b)). Providing for universality of protection, the Recommendation sets out that the basic social security guarantee should apply to at least all residents, and all children, as defined in national laws and regulations and subject to existing international obligations (para. 6), that is, to the respective provisions of the CRC, the ICESCR and other relevant instruments. Representing an approach strongly focused on outcomes, Recommendation No. 202 allows for a broad range of policy instruments to achieve income security for children, including child and family benefits (the focus of this policy paper).

[1] Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948 (UDHR), Art. 22; International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1966 (ICESCR), Art. 9; UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), Art. 26.

[2] UDHR, Art. 25(1) and (2).

[3] ICESCR, Art. 10(1).

The notion of income security is not limited to a sufficient level of cash income, but encompasses income in kind, such as nutrition and access to services – indeed, the broad range of resources that is necessary to secure a decent standard of living and life in dignity for all children. Social services (e.g. care, education, health care) are essential in ensuring income security, as these reduce families' spending needs and can facilitate parents' availability to engage in paid employment knowing that their children are well cared for (e.g. UNICEF and ILO, 2013; UNWOMEN, 2015). Measures to facilitate access to health, education and care services, combined with measures to improve the availability and quality of those services, are necessary to ensure that children may realize their full potential.

Obviously, income security for children is impossible to achieve in isolation from the family and household context. Income security for children therefore mirrors the income security of their parents, grandparents and/or other carers. As a result, the range of policies and policy instruments available to achieve this goal is very broad, and reaches well beyond child and family benefits in a narrow sense: it also includes other social protection programmes as part of the national social security system, as well as broader policies that address decent and productive employment, wages and incomes, access to health care, education and other social services, as well as gender equality and care arrangements.[1] The broad range of policies that are necessary to achieve income security for children is reflected in the Joint Statement on Advancing Child-sensitive Social Protection issued in 2009 by a coalition of agencies, bilateral donor agencies and international NGOs (see box 2). This statement sets out important guidelines for the design, implementation and monitoring of social security schemes and programmes in order to ensure that the needs of children are addressed in a broad range of policies, including in national social protection systems and particularly national social protection floors.

Box 2
Child-sensitive social protection

The Joint Statement on Advancing Child-sensitive Social Protection sets out that the design, implementation and evaluation of child-sensitive social protection programmes should aim to:

- avoid adverse impacts on children, and reduce or mitigate social and economic risks that directly affect children's lives;
- intervene as early as possible where children are at risk, in order to prevent irreversible impairment or harm;
- consider the age and gender-specific risks and vulnerabilities of children throughout the life cycle;
- mitigate the effects of shocks, exclusion and poverty on families, recognizing that families raising children need support to ensure equal opportunity;
- make special provision to reach children who are particularly vulnerable and excluded, including children without parental care, and those who are marginalized within their families or communities due to their gender, disability, ethnicity, HIV and AIDS, or other factors;
- consider the mechanisms and intra-household dynamics that may affect how children are reached, paying particular attention to the balance of power between men and women within the household and broader community;
- include the voices and opinions of children, their care-givers and youth in the understanding and design of social protection systems and programmes.

The joint statement (DfID et al., 2009) was issued by the DfID, HelpAge International, Hope & Homes for Children, Institute of Development Studies, ILO, Overseas Development Institute, Save the Children UK, UNDP, UNICEF and the World Bank.

The need for a broad social protection approach to realizing children's rights is also reflected in a recent World Report on Child Labour (ILO, 2013; see box 3), which has highlighted the need to take a comprehensive and systemic view, considering the full range

[1] In this respect, the Joint Statement on Advancing Child-sensitive Social Protection (DfID et al., 2009) provides important guidelines for the design, implementation and monitoring of social security schemes and programmes (see box 2).

of social protection instruments, including those which ensure income security for working-age adults (e.g. unemployment protection, maternity benefits, disability benefits) and older persons (e.g. old-age pensions). Social health protection occupies a key role in protecting households from health-related poverty risks which are closely associated with the incidence of child labour. Child-sensitive measures aimed at reducing and preventing child labour should therefore form part of an approach that sets out not only to strengthen national social security systems but also to ensure effective coordination with other related policy areas, including employment, wages and broader social policies.

Box 3
Social security systems and the prevention of child labour

Social protection is highly relevant to the prevention and reduction of child labour. Economic vulnerabilities associated with poverty and shocks are important drivers of child labour. Social protection instruments can play an important role in reducing child labour by mitigating these vulnerabilities and enhancing poor families' resilience. These links are explored in detail in the World Report on Child Labour (ILO, 2013).

The links between social protection and child labour have received more attention with the emergence of conditional cash transfer programmes that explicitly link the receipt of cash benefits to school attendance or similar conditions. Many programmes have been found to have a significant effect in promoting school enrolment and attendance, yet it is not fully clear whether these effects result directly from the behavioural conditions, or indirectly through the income effect and a stronger emphasis on supply-side factors, that is, in ensuring that schools are actually available and accessible for poor children (ILO, 2013; Barrientos et al., 2013). From the few evaluations that have systematically assessed the impact on children's work, it can be deduced that, while cash benefits tend to have a strong impact on school attendance, they may not reduce child labour to the same extent: many children combine school and work. Reductions in child labour are more evident where cash benefits are integrated with additional programme elements, such as after-school programmes, as in Brazil.[1]

Economic vulnerability is not the only cause of child labour, and social protection is not by itself a complete answer to it. Nonetheless, social protection is a critical pillar of a broader policy response to child labour. Efforts against child labour are unlikely to be successful in the absence of a social protection floor to safeguard vulnerable households and to enable them to seize opportunities and to break the intergenerational transmission of poverty.

Although other elements of social security systems have not been systematically assessed with regard to their impact on child labour, it can be assumed that they also have a positive effect in so far as they reduce the vulnerability of poor households and address poverty risks that may otherwise promote child labour. This is, for example, the case for social health protection, reflecting the fact that ill health constitutes a major poverty risk for vulnerable households. Measures to reduce the income insecurity of adults, including unemployment protection, employment guarantee schemes, disability benefits, maternity benefits and social pensions, also contribute to mitigating vulnerability for poor households, and can contribute to preventing and reducing child labour.

Within any broader social security system, building a national social protection floor is particularly relevant to addressing vulnerabilities associated with child labour. Social protection floors provide a set of basic social security guarantees, including a basic level of income security throughout the life cycle and access to essential health care. These basic guarantees, in turn, are essential in addressing the multifaceted economic and social vulnerabilities which promote and sustain child labour. Where children and their families enjoy basic income security and access to essential health care, and where the necessary education and other services are in place, child labour can be effectively prevented. Indeed, evidence presented in this report suggests that an approach linking cash and in-kind benefits with access to education and health services can be particularly effective in addressing child labour.

[1]Such elements were successfully implemented in the Brazilian PETI programme, which was integrated into the Bolsa Família programme in 2006.

Source: Based on ILO, 2013.

2. Expenditure on social protection for children and families

Public expenditure on social protection benefits aimed specifically at meeting the needs of children amounts to 0.4 per cent of total GDP worldwide, or 7.4 per cent of total social protection expenditure (excluding health expenditure) (see figures 1 and 2). These figures include child benefits and benefits targeting families with children, such as cash transfer programmes for children and families,[2] whether provided in cash or in kind, but exclude provisions for health and education,[3] two important related policy areas.

There is wide variation across regions. Whereas countries in Western Europe spend on average 2.2 per cent of their GDP on child and family benefits, representing about one-tenth of their public social protection expenditure (excluding health expenditure), in all other regions, less than 1 per cent of GDP is allocated to child and family benefits, even though in most of them children form a significantly higher proportion of the total population than in Europe.

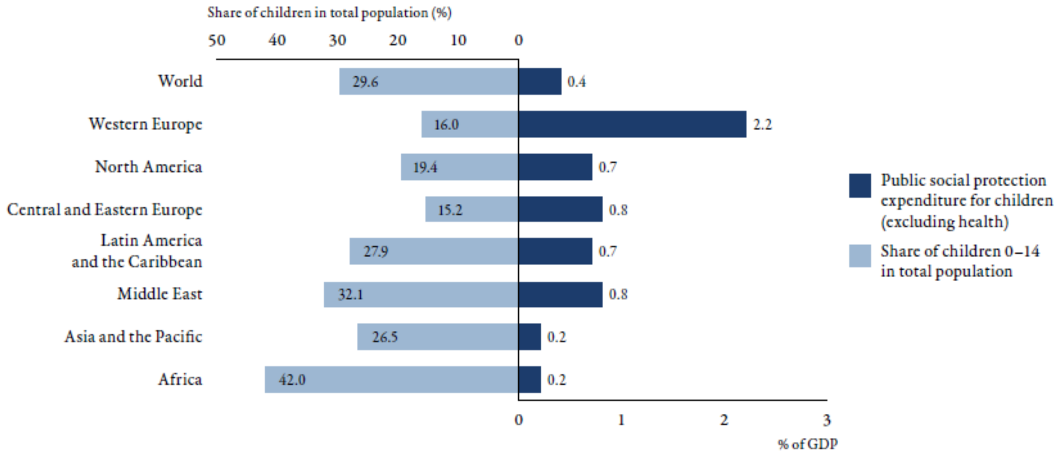
Despite the recent extension of cash transfer programmes, public expenditure on child benefits in Latin America and the Caribbean reaches only 0.7 per cent of GDP, or 6.5 per cent of public social protection expenditure (excluding health expenditure), a level similar to that prevailing in North America, the Middle East, and Central and Eastern Europe. In Asia and the Pacific, and in Africa, on average 0.2 per cent of GDP is allocated to child and family benefits. In the case of Africa, in particular, the low proportion of public expenditure on child and family benefits is particularly striking, considering the high proportion of children in the total population (children under 15 make up 42 per cent of Africa's population).

It is clear that the level of resources allocated is not sufficient to respond adequately to the income security needs of children and families, even when taking into account that these needs are also addressed through other means, including public health, education and care services. Underinvestment in the social protection needs of children is particularly critical in low-income countries, which on average allocate less than 0.1 per cent of their GDP to child and family benefits. This points to a significant underinvestment in children, which is likely to have negative effects on the future productivity of these countries' workforce, and their future economic and social development prospects.

[2] General social assistance and other benefits which may indirectly benefit children (e.g. maternity benefits) are not included.

[3] The figures do, however, take into account some provisions designed to facilitate children's participation in education, such as textbooks, uniforms and school meals, where these are provided as part of social protection programmes.

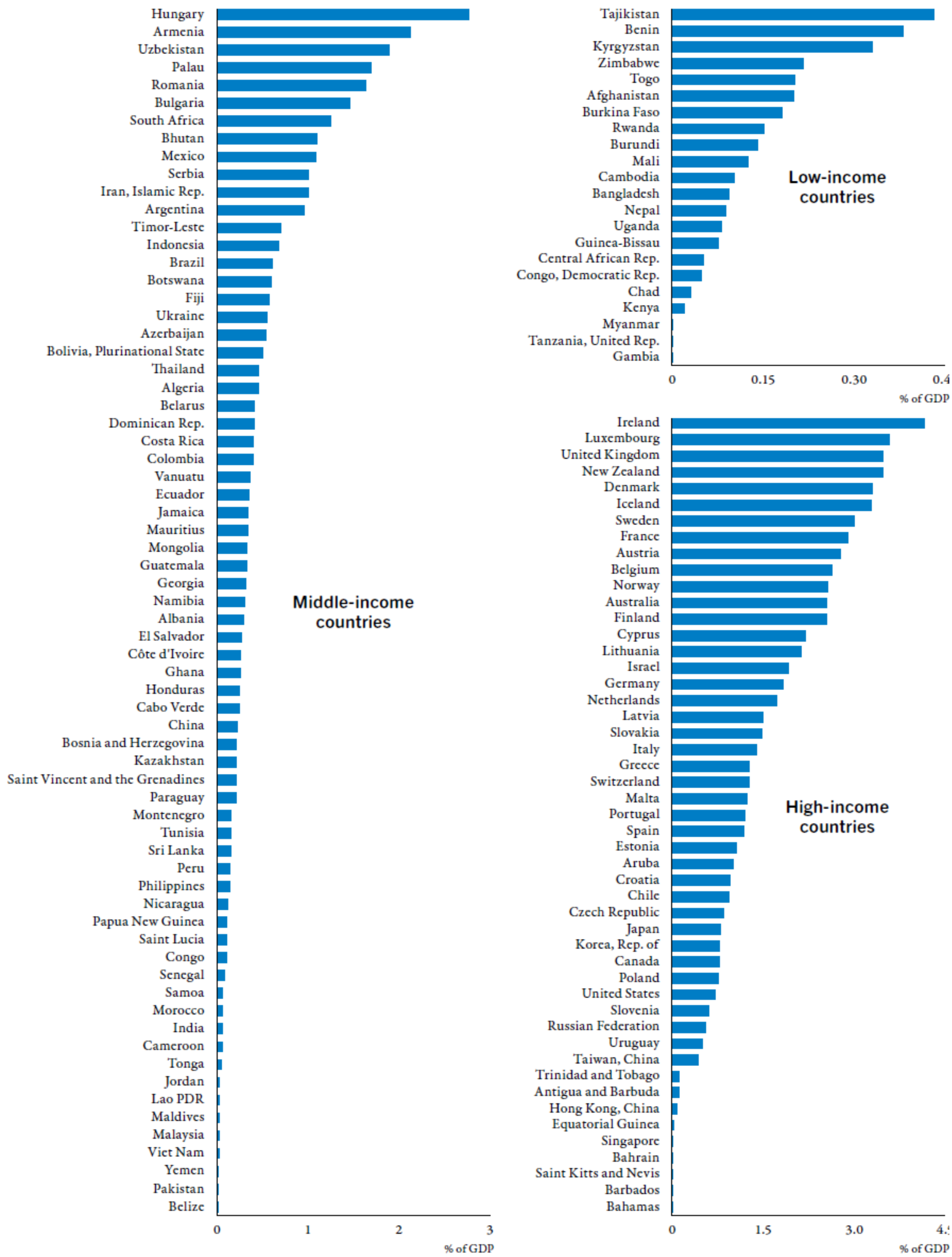
Figure 1. Public expenditure on child benefits by region, and proportion of children aged 0-14 in total population, 2010/11 (percentage of GDP)



Source: ILO Social Protection Department database.
Link: http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/RessourceDownload.action?ressource.ressourceId=42077.

The overall level of resources allocated to children and families depends, among other factors, on the composition of the set of benefits and services available. These reach beyond social protection in a narrow sense, and are only partly included in measures of social protection expenditure. While in some countries cash benefits play a major role in the overall package of benefits and services available to families, in others the provision of benefits in kind (e.g. school meals and other nutrition interventions, affordable housing) or the provision of services (e.g. childcare) plays a more dominant role, and obviously also affects the income security of families with children. The provision of quality public education, childcare and health services (see ILO, 2014a, chapter 5; ILO, 2014b) also has implications for ensuring income security for families with children by reducing their need to allocate scarce resources to school fees and the costs of health and other care; yet these services also suffer from considerable underinvestment in some parts of the world. The availability of childcare services, along with the presence of public policies and measures adopted by employers to facilitate sharing work and family responsibilities for parents with children, will also affect the income security of children.

Figure 2. Public social expenditure on child and family benefits (excluding health), 2010/11 (percentage of GDP)

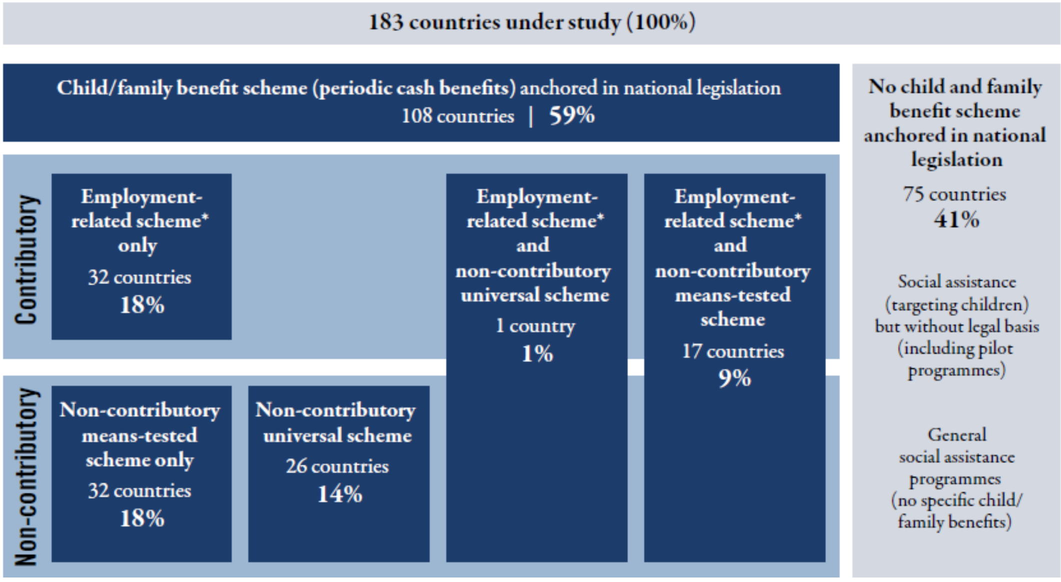


Sources: ILO Social Protection Department database.
Link: http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/RessourceDownload.action?ressource.ressourceId=44437.

3. Extent of legal coverage: Child and family benefit programmes anchored in national legislation

Taking account of the wide range of social protection benefits and services needed to ensure children's well-being and the realization of their rights, this policy paper -focuses in particular on child and family benefits aiming at enhancing income security, and considers them in relation to other social security benefits (ILO, 2014a).[4]

Figure 3. Overview of child and family benefits programmes anchored in national legislation, by type of programme and groups covered, 2012/13



*Employment-related schemes include those financed through contributions from employers and workers, as well as those financed exclusively by employers
Sources: Based on SSA and ISSA, 2012; 2013a; 2013b; 2014; European Commission, Mutual Information System on Social Protection (MISSOC); Council of Europe, Mutual Information System on Social Protection of the Council of Europe (MISSCEO).
Link: http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/RessourceDownload.action?ressource.ressourceId=42497.

Child and family benefits include various types of social protection benefits or combinations thereof (see figure 3). Some countries provide universal child benefits that cover all children, independently of the employment or income status of their parents, and are usually financed out of general taxation. Benefits are usually flat, but benefit rates may be differentiated by the age of the child or by taking into account the total number of children in the family. In some countries, benefits are fully or partially organized through the tax system, by providing tax rebates or a negative income tax to families with

[4] In this respect, it is also useful to consider the labour market and employment implications of child and family benefits. These can also influence labour markets and wage-setting, and in terms of policy-making this may be seen as an important function in its own right. If the costs of bringing up children are at least partially met through collectively financed benefits (from general taxation or social insurance contributions), the differential needs of workers with children, as compared to workers without children, will not have to be met (exclusively) through wages. This may be seen as providing a more "level playing field" between workers with and without family obligations, and thus minimizing one possible source of distortion in the general wage structure. This outcome is seen in many high-income countries, where child benefits are available on an equal basis for all children, usually without means testing.

children.5 Employment-related child or family benefits, usually financed through contributions and organized through social insurance schemes, cover mostly employees in the formal economy. Means-tested child and family benefits (specific social assistance benefits for children and families) are usually targeted towards poor families and children. They include a wide range of cash transfer programmes for children and families introduced in recent years, including conditional and non-conditional benefits.6 These programmes have had a major impact on extending coverage and providing at least a minimum level of income security to children and families. Figure 3 summarizes the different types of programmes, and combinations thereof, through which cash benefits for children and families are provided. It focuses on programmes anchored in national legislation, as these are usually more stable in terms of funding and institutional frameworks, guarantee coverage as a matter of right, and provide legal entitlements to eligible individuals and households. In addition to these programmes, in some countries other programmes exist which are not yet anchored in national legislation, including pilot or temporary programmes, often limited to certain regions or districts.

In 108 countries out of the 183 for which sufficient data are available, periodic child or family benefits in cash are provided to eligible families and/or children. Many of the remaining 75 countries do, however, have more general social assistance programmes, which may provide benefits contributing to income security for children and families, in the absence of specific child or family benefits. In addition to these cash benefits, many countries provide benefits in kind of various types, including access to free or subsidized goods (e.g. school meals).

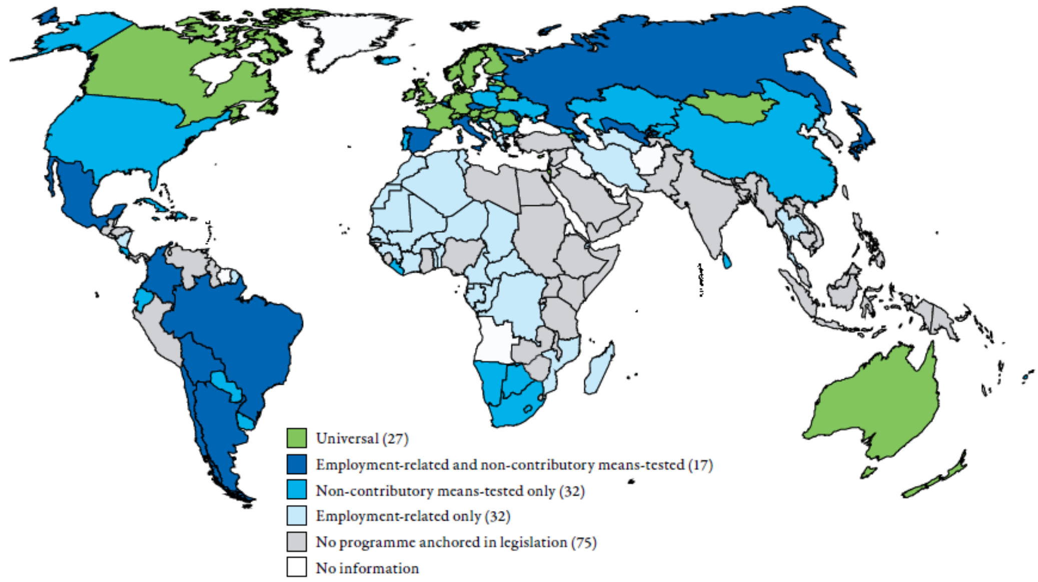
Figure 4 illustrates the global distribution of child or family benefit programmes anchored in legislation. Some countries, particularly in Western Europe, provide such benefits to all children on a universal basis, financed out of general taxation, sometimes supplemented by specific social assistance benefits. Other countries, particularly in Africa and Latin America, have traditionally provided family allowances as part of their social insurance system or rely on a system of employer liability, requiring employers to pay family benefits to their workers. Where the provision of child benefits is directly or indirectly linked to an employment relationship, coverage rates tend to be lower than for universal provision, especially in countries with a large informal economy. In some of these countries, however, means-tested benefits complement employment-related family benefits and provide an important support for workers in the informal economy. In another group of countries, means-tested benefits constitute the dominant form of provision, either focusing on a relatively small group of vulnerable children and families, or providing a much wider coverage.[7]

[5] In fact, the tax system plays a strong – and often neglected – role in redistributive policies for children and families (e.g. Adema, Fron and Ladaique, 2014).

[6] Some of these programmes include benefits for categories of the population other than children, and would therefore, strictly speaking, be classified as general social assistance programmes rather than child and family benefits. Indeed, some tend to be perceived as focusing exclusively on children and families, although in fact they have a broader remit.

[7] While most of these countries target child and family benefits to the poor in the form of specific social assistance benefits for families with children, there is a small group of countries which use a relatively light income or asset test to exclude affluent population groups from the provision of child benefits but maintain provision for the broad majority of the population (e.g. Cyprus, following a recent reform).

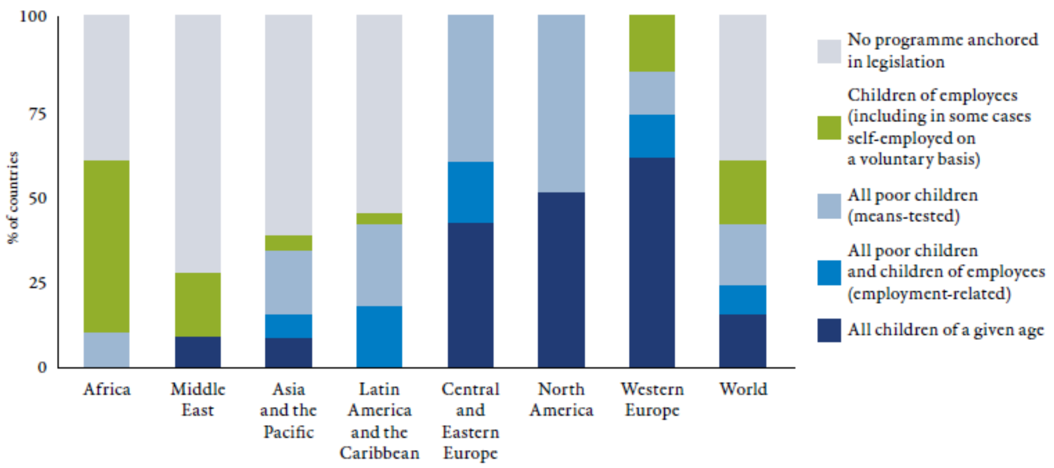
Figure 4. Child/family allowances: Distribution of programmes anchored in legislation, by type of programme, 2011-13



Note: Figures in brackets refer to the number of countries in each category.
Sources: SSA and ISSA, 2012; 2013a; 2013b; 2014; European Commission, Mutual Information System on Social Protection (MISSOC); Council of Europe, Mutual Information System on Social Protection of the Council of Europe (MISSCEO).
Link: http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/RessourceDownload.action?ressource.ressourceId=43301.

While many countries in Latin America and the Caribbean combine employment-related benefits with non-contributory benefits anchored in legislation, thereby covering a substantial proportion of children and families, this is not the case in large parts of Africa and of Asia and the Pacific. Here, non-contributory programmes are not yet well enough developed to cover substantial numbers of children and families; many programmes still remain at a "pilot" stage with limited geographical coverage. More efforts are needed to anchor programmes in legislation in order to establish a clear definition of eligibility criteria and benefits, and a more stable basis for the implementation of these programmes, especially with regard to financial sustainability and institutional capacities.

Figure 5. Child/family allowances: Existence of programme anchored in legislation and main group(s) covered, by region, 2011-13 (percentage of countries)

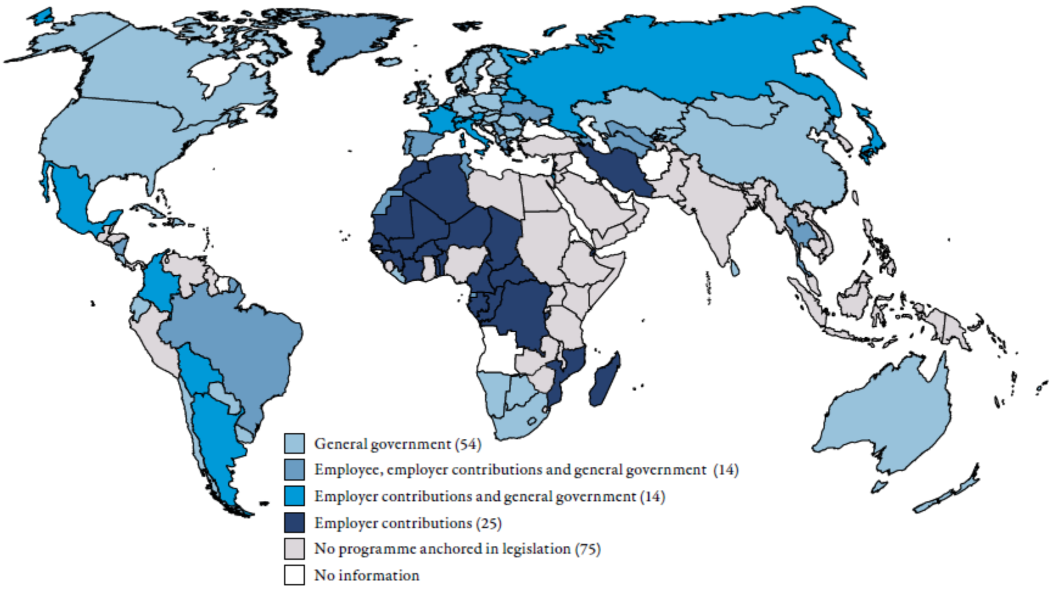


Source: ILO Social Protection Department, based on 2012; 2013a; 2013b; 2014.
Link: http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/RessourceDownload.action?ressource.ressourceId=37002.

An important aspect of the observed trends around the world is the extent to which countries are able to make provision for all residents, or at least those in need. Figure 5 shows that the achievement of this objective is linked to different priorities and traditions, and to some extent also to economic capacities available in the different parts of the world. While universal provision of child benefits is prevalent particularly in Europe and North America, in other parts of the world coverage tends to be more limited, usually to children of those employed in the formal economy and/or those in poor families.

As with other areas of social security, the level of legal coverage of cash child and family benefits is correlated with the mode of provision and financing (see figure 6). Where child benefits are financed mainly through employers, particularly in countries where informality of employment prevails, coverage levels tend to be rather low. High levels of coverage usually require that the government take responsibility for financing the benefits by complementing coverage through existing contributory programmes for those groups of the population not or not sufficiently covered, whether through the provision of non-contributory benefits (as e.g. in Argentina or France) or through a large-scale non-contributory universal programme (as e.g. in Canada, Germany or Mongolia), in either case financed from either general taxation or other government revenue.

Figure 6. Child/family allowances: Main sources of funding, 2011-13



Note: Figures in brackets refer to the number of countries in each category.
Source: ILO Social Protection Department, based on 2012; 2013a; 2013b; 2014.
Link: http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/RessourceDownload.action?ressource.ressourceId=37004.

4. How fiscal consolidation and adjustment measures threaten progress on social protection for children and families

While many countries have in recent years taken decisive steps to extend coverage of child and family protection measures and increase benefit levels, others have cut back provision in this area as part of fiscal consolidation measures implemented in the wake of the global crisis (see box 7). Some countries (e.g. Denmark, Ireland, Israel) have reduced the level of child benefits for all children, or for children in larger families; others (e.g. Denmark, Latvia) have introduced an effective ceiling on the total amount of child benefits or lowered the maximum age up to which children are eligible for child benefits (e.g. Ireland, Latvia). Some countries effectively excluded more affluent families by introducing an asset test (e.g. Cyprus) or a tax for those earning above a certain threshold which claws back the child benefit (United Kingdom), thus restricting the universal scope of such benefits.

Box 4
Fiscal consolidation and adjustment measures on child and family benefits

Several countries, in particular in the developed world, have in recent years adopted contraction measures that have affected child and family benefits, a few in the early stages of the crisis (e.g. Ireland, Estonia) and more since 2010. Examples of such measures include the following:

- In Denmark, child benefits were successively reduced by 5 per cent each year in 2011, 2012 and 2013, and a ceiling on total child benefits was set at 35,000 kroner per year.
- In Ireland’s 2013 budget, the child benefit payment level was reduced for the third time since 2010, in addition to other measures. Overall, a family with two children will have lost €864 in annual support since 2010. Back-to-school allowances were also cut in the 2012 and 2013 budgets.
- Israel announced the reduction of child allowances for children born after 1 June 2003 to a flat amount of 140 shekels (ILS), about US$39, for each child, replacing the earlier system of benefit rates increasing with the number of children. The cuts in child allowances are expected to save the Government ILS2.9 billion in 2014.
- In Latvia, family benefits were reduced to a flat amount per child, replacing the higher benefit rates for subsequent children in a household, thereby effectively reducing the total amount of child benefits for larger families. In addition, the maximum eligible age was reduced from 20 to 19 years for children in education.
- In Mongolia, the Child Money Programme was terminated at the end of 2009. However, in 2012 it was reintroduced as a universal programme.
- The United Kingdom’s 2012 budget introduced a progressive income tax charge on child benefit in order to offset the value of the benefit for people earning over £60,000. Individuals earning between £50,000 and £60,000 will be charged with a portion of the amount of the benefit. The charge applies to the higher-earning partner in households receiving child benefit. Changes to the rules on child benefit are expected to reduce the entitlement of about 1.2 million families.

Sources: Jackson et al., 2011; Gauthier, 2010; national sources.

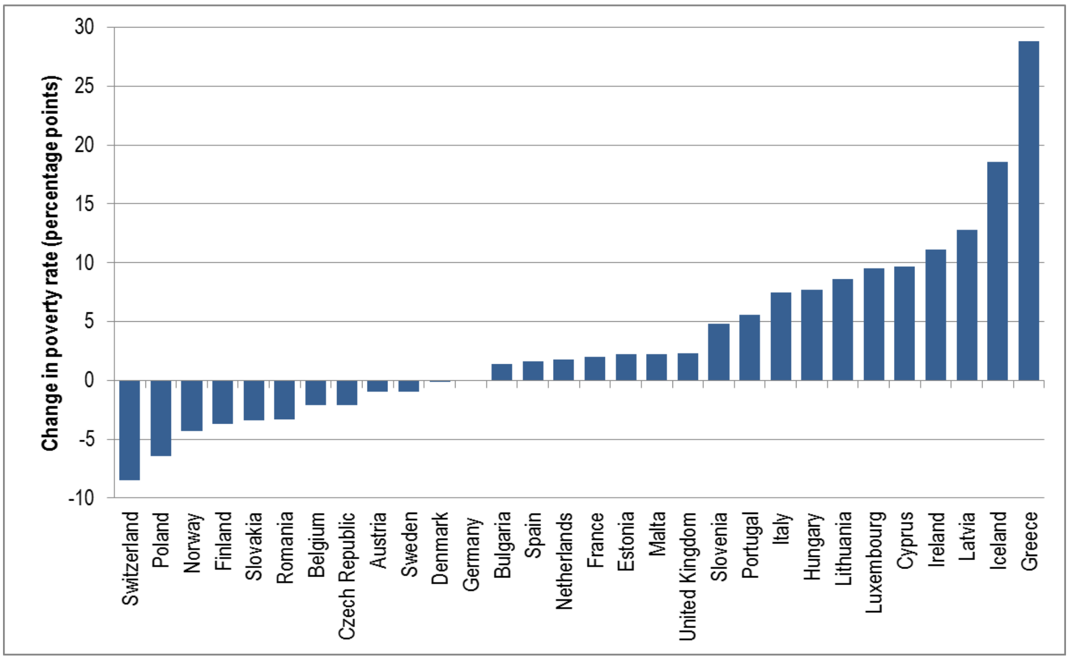
Unless other compensatory measures are taken, these developments are likely to threaten the income security of families with children, particularly that of larger families, many of which are already at higher risk of poverty than others. There is a risk that in some countries such measures may jeopardize the progress achieved in reducing child poverty in recent years (UNICEF, 2014b).

Indeed, child poverty has increased in 18 of the 28 Member States of the European Union between 2008 and 2013 (see figure 7) – many families have experienced a significant decline in living standards.[8] In 2013, more than one-quarter of children in Bulgaria, Greece, Lithuania, Romania and Spain were living at risk of poverty (see figure 8).[9] This increase in child poverty has given rise to concern about negative long-term effects with regard to the future employment prospects of today’s children, and about the future productivity and competitiveness of European economies (European Commission, 2014).

[8] Based on Eurostat data (at-risk-of-poverty line of 60 per cent of median equivalent income; children under 18 years, poverty line fixed at 2008 level) according to Eurostat data (http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database).

[9] Based on Eurostat database (at-risk-of-poverty line of 60 per cent of median equivalent income; children under 18 years). (http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database).

Figure 7. Change in child at-risk-of-poverty rates in European countries, 2008- 2013 (poverty line fixed to the level of 2008)

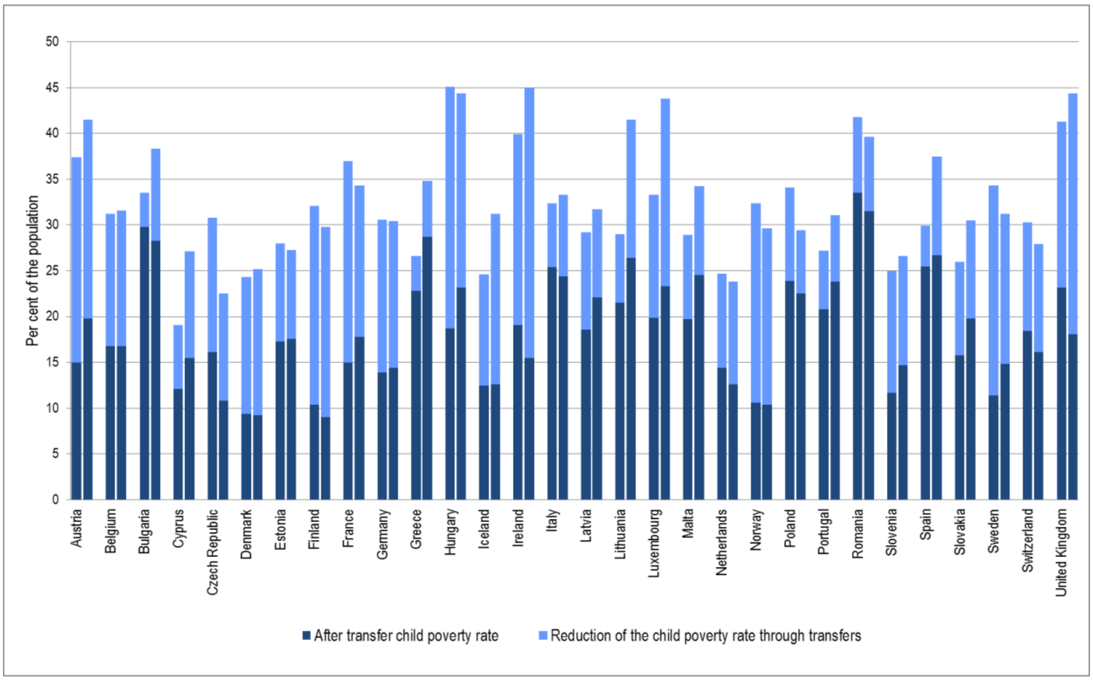


Note: Change in child poverty rates based on an at- risk-of-poverty line of 60 per cent of median equivalent income in 2008; children under 18 years.
Source: Own calculations based on Eurostat data (http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database).

Child and family benefits, as well as other social transfers, play an important role in preventing and reducing child poverty. Comparing poverty rates before and after transfers demonstrates that transfers contribute to bringing down poverty rates to a significant extent in all European countries. In the absence of such transfers, child poverty rates would be considerably higher in all European countries (see figure 8). In the case of Finland, social transfers reduce the at-risk-of-poverty rate for children by 70 per cent, from 29.8 per cent (based on market income including pensions) to 9.0 per cent (based on disposable income). In the other countries, the impact of transfers is much smaller, e.g. in Greece, a pre-transfer at-risk-of-poverty rate for children of 34.8 per cent is reduced to 28.7 per cent after transfers, which corresponds to a reduction by only 18 per cent.

In some countries, social transfers were able to offset an increase in pre-transfer child poverty rates between 2008 and 2013 and prevent an increase in post-transfer child poverty rates, e.g. in the case of Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Finland, Iceland, Ireland and the Netherlands. In other countries, social transfers were not able to prevent an increase in child poverty rates.

Figure 8. Pre and post transfer child poverty rates in European countries, 2007 and 2013



Note: Old age and survivor pensions are included in before-transfer income and are thus not included in transfers in this figure. For all countries, the left-hand column refers to 2007 and the right-hand column refers to 2013. Croatia is excluded because of a lack of data for 2007. Child poverty rates are based on an at- risk-of-poverty line of 60 per cent of median equivalent income in 2007 respectively 2013; children under 18 years.

Source: Own calculations based on Eurostat data (http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database).

In fact, fiscal consolidation [10] policies adopted from 2010 onwards have affected chilren around the world, and may further constrain the policy space for child-sensitive social protection policies in the future. According to IMF fiscal projections, as many as 122 countries contracted public expenditures in terms of GDP in 2014, expected to increase to 125 countries in 2015. According to IMF forecasts, governments will continue on this contractionary trend at least through 2016 (ILO, 2014a).

A review of 314 IMF country reports in 174 countries published between January 2010 and February 2013 (Ortiz and Cummins, 2013, see table 1) indicates that children and families are directly or indirectly affected by policy measures that relate strongly to the social protection of populations: phasing out or eliminating subsidies, such as food and fuel; cutting or capping wage bills, including teachers, health and social workers; pension reforms; rationalizing and more narrowly targeting social assistance and other social protection benefits; and introducing reforms to health-care systems aimed at cost containment. Many governments are also considering revenue-side measures that can have adverse impacts on vulnerable populations, mainly the introduction or extension of consumption taxes such as VAT, on basic products that are disproportionately consumed by poor households. All of the different adjustment approaches pose potentially serious consequences for vulnerable populations.

[10] In this policy paper, «fiscal consolidation» refers to the wide array of adjustment measures adopted to reduce government deficits and debt accumulation. Fiscal consolidation policies are often referred to as austerity policies.

Table 1. Main adjustment measures by region, 2010–13 (number of countries)

	Eliminating subsidies	Wage bill cuts/caps	Increasing consumption taxes	Pension reforms	Rationalizing and targeting social assistance	Health reforms
East Asia and the Pacific	12	13	8	4	9	0
Eastern Europe and Central Asia	9	15	13	16	15	9
Latin America and the Caribbean	11	14	13	12	11	0
Middle East and North Africa	9	7	7	5	5	3
South Asia	6	4	4	1	4	0
Sub-Saharan Africa	31	22	18	9	11	0
Developing countries	78	75	63	47	55	12
High-income countries	22	23	31	39	25	25
All countries	**100**	**98**	**94**	**86**	**80**	**37**

Source: Ortiz and Cummins, 2013, based on IMF country reports (Jan. 2010 to Feb. 2013).

Contrary to public perception, fiscal consolidation measures are not limited to Europe; in fact, most of the adjustment measures summarized here feature most prominently in developing countries, particularly subsidy reduction, wage bill cuts/caps, and more and more «rationalization» and targeting of existing social protection programmes. The main risk of these expenditure-contracting measures is that, , they often result in large vulnerable groups being excluded from receiving benefits or critical assistance.

Ill-designed fiscal consolidation measures threaten not only the human right to social security, but also the rights to food, health, education, and other essential goods and services (Sepúlveda, 2012; UN, 2012). In many contexts, fiscal consolidation policies are driven by a cost-saving logic, and their negative social impacts on children, women, older persons, the unemployed, migrants or persons with disabilities, are viewed as unavoidable collateral damage in the quest for fiscal balances and debt service (CESR, 2012). The UN High Commissioner for Human Rights has warned that «austerity measures endanger social protection schemes, including pensions, thereby dramatically affecting the enjoyment of the rights to social security and to an adequate standard of living» (OHCHR, 2013, para. 36), particularly for vulnerable and marginalized groups, pointing to States' positive obligation to ensure adequate financial regulation, as necessary to safeguard human rights, as well as the obligation to ensure the satisfaction, at the very least, of minimum essential levels of all economic, social and cultural rights, including the right to social security (OHCHR, 2013, esp. paras 36–71). Social protection has frequently been targeted for expenditure reductions or freezes, in particular in the areas of unemployment benefits, health care, pensions and social assistance (see table 2).

The increasing pressure on public budgets in many emerging economies may slow down further progress with respect to the income security of children and families, or even reverse the improvements already achieved. It is therefore essential to ensure that fiscal consolidation measures do not compromise the successes achieved to date in many countries through a broad and integrated range of social protection policies for children.

Table 2. Selected fiscal consolidation measures recently adopted or under discussion in high-income countries

Country	Measures adopted or under discussion
Denmark	Freeze in several social benefits, reduction of duration of unemployment benefits, introduction of a ceiling on family benefits
Estonia	Increases in VAT (to 20 per cent) and excise taxes, decreases in social benefits (health, pensions), operating spending cuts, (temporary) adjustment in second pillar pension contributions, land sales, discretionary spending cuts
France	Cuts in public pensions, health care and public administration; increase of retirement age (from 60 years to 62 years by 2018); increased taxes on capital; increase in top income tax rate by 1 percentage point; plans to increase required contribution record to receive a full pension (de facto increasing further the retirement age for future generations)
Germany	Additional taxes, cuts in spending on social security and labour market policies, adjustments to unemployment insurance provisions, cuts in military and administrative expenditure
Greece	10 per cent reduction in general government expenditure on salaries and allowances, public sector recruitment freeze, drastic structural reform to social protection system and drastic reduction in the number of the public bodies/entities linked to local authorities
Hungary	Cuts to the public sector (reduction of wages, elimination of certain benefits), six-year tax for financial institutions, increase in VAT to 27 per cent, reduction of bureaucracy for investors, ban on foreign exchange mortgages and partial reversal of pension reform
Ireland	Tax increases, spending cuts (public sector wages, social welfare benefits)
Italy	Public sector hiring freeze and public sector wage cuts, curtailments in health-care spending, reduction in transfers from central to regional and local governments, drastic adjustments to public pension system
Latvia	Increase in VAT from 18 to 21 per cent, introduction of capital income tax, increase of personal income flat tax rate by 3 percentage points and adjustments to public pension system
Portugal	Reduction in public sector pay and hiring, increase in VAT to 23 per cent, taxes on high income earners and drastic adjustments to public pensions
Romania	25 per cent reduction in public sector wages, 15 per cent reduction in pensions and unemployment benefits, other adjustments to social protection system, increase in VAT from 19 to 24 per cent
Spain	Cuts in public sector jobs and pay, introduction of new income tax, increase in VAT to 21 per cent, cuts in public pension provision including the suspension of pension indexing to inflation
United Kingdom	Abolition of child trust fund, cuts in employment programmes, civil service recruitment freeze, increase in VAT from 17.5 to 20 per cent.
United States	Freeze of non-security discretionary funding for three years by cutting/reducing 120 programmes deemed ineffective, public sector pay freeze, reduction in duration of unemployment insurance, restrictions to food assistance system, introduction of a national health insurance programme.

Sources: Based on ILO, EU and IILS, 2011, and national sources.

In 2013, 121.6 million people in the then 27 Member States of the European Union, representing 24.5 per cent of the population, were at risk of poverty or social exclusion, compared to 116.7 million in 2008.[11] Compared to 2008, 800,000 more children were at risk of poverty or social exclusion in 2013, or 27.7 per cent of all children in the EU.[12] These figures raised alarm across Europe. Some estimates foresee an additional 15–25 million people facing the prospect of living in poverty by 2025 if fiscal consolidation continues (Oxfam, 2013). Higher poverty and inequality are the results not only of the severity of the global recession, but also of specific policy decisions curtailing social transfers and limiting access to quality public services. The achievements of the European

[11] According to Eurostat, "at risk of poverty or social exclusion" means that they were at risk of poverty (set at 60 per cent of the national median equivalized disposable income, after social transfers), severely materially deprived and/or living in households with very low work intensity (Eurostat, 2013).

[12] Source: Eurostat database. Data refer to EU-27.

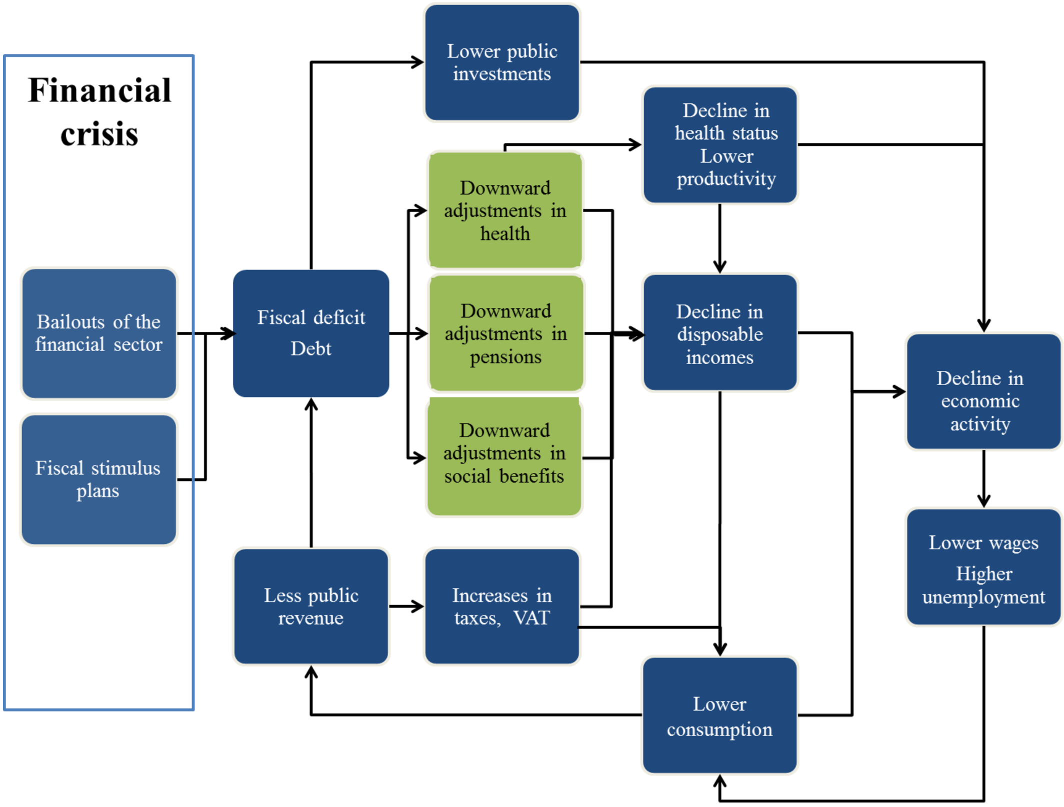
social model,[13] which dramatically reduced poverty and promoted prosperity in the period following the Second World War, have been eroded during and since the crisis by a series of adjustment reforms that have led to a resurgence of poverty in Europe and a loss of prosperity for the middle classes. The long-accepted concept of universal access to decent living conditions for all citizens has been threatened by a widening gulf between more narrowly targeted programmes for those at the lower levels of the income distribution and a stronger emphasis on individual savings for the middle and upper income groups. This fragmentation of social security systems limits the potential for a collective pooling of risk, erodes social solidarity, limits the responsibility of the State to the care of only the extremely poor, and changes the terms of the social contract that has been at the very basis of the European social model. The weakening of collective bargaining and social dialogue, along with the deregulation and «flexibilization» of labour markets, has further compounded this erosion (ILO, 2013; IILS, 2012; Vaughan-Whitehead, 2013).

In some European countries, courts have reviewed the constitutional validity of fiscal consolidation measures. In 2013, the Portuguese constitutional court ruled that four fiscal consolidation measures in the budget, mainly affecting civil servants and pensioners, were unlawful and in breach of the country's constitution. In Latvia, the 2010 budget proposed new spending cuts and tax increases, including a 10 per cent cut in pensions and a 70 per cent decrease for working pensioners; the constitutional court ruled that the pension cuts were unconstitutional on the grounds that they violated the right to social security, and the cuts had to be reversed. In Romania, 15 per cent pension cuts proposed in May 2010 were also declared unconstitutional; although pensions partly funded by worker contributions are constitutionally protected, the Government had circumvented this protection on the grounds of a separate constitutional article allowing the temporary limitation of certain rights in order to defend national security (UNDP and RCPAR, 2011; OHCHR, 2013). More recently, the European Parliament has launched an inquiry into the democratic legitimacy of adjustment reforms and their social impacts in Ireland, Cyprus, Spain, Slovenia, Greece, Portugal and Italy (European Parliament, 2014a; 2014b).

Overall, the deployment of vast public resources to rescue private institutions considered «too big to fail» and, to a lesser degree, to fund fiscal stimulus plans, caused sovereign debt to increase, forced taxpayers to absorb the losses and, ultimately, hindered economic growth (figure 9). Many governments have curtailed government consumption and investment and also reduced social benefits, thus creating a vicious circle: reductions in infrastructure investment and public sector wages, as well as cuts in social security, further depressed aggregate demand in the economy, in consequence reducing the demand for labour, and thus in turn increasing unemployment, reducing revenues from income taxation and narrowing the available fiscal envelope, thereby adding pressure to further reduce social transfers. The cost of adjustment has been passed on to populations, who have now been attempting to cope with fewer jobs, lower income and reduced access to public goods and services for more than seven years.

[13] Recent ILO research identifies the following key features of the European social model : (1) increased minimum rights on working conditions, (2) universal and sustainable social protection systems, (3) inclusive labour markets, (4) strong and well-functioning soical dialogue, (5) public services and services of general interest, and (6) social inclusion and social cohesion (Vaughan-Whitehead, 2013).

Figure 9. The social and economic risks of fiscal consolidation



Source: ILO, 2014a.

Link: http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/RessourceDownload.action?ressource.ressourceId=43680.

5. Closing coverage gaps and strengthening income security for children and families

Closing gaps in the coverage of child and family benefits is essential for ensuring income security for children and families. While universal or near-universal coverage is a reality in many OECD countries, and in many low- and middle-income countries the introduction of new child and family benefit programmes and the reform of existing ones have improved coverage to some extent, large gaps nevertheless remain.

The most prominent new development is the emergence of non-contributory cash transfer programmes in many low- and middle-income countries.[14] These programmes provide regular cash benefits to all families, or to poor families in particular, and have been found to have a strong impact on various dimensions of human development, whether they are explicitly linked to health- and education-related conditions (conditional cash transfer programmes) or not (unconditional cash transfer programmes). Conditional cash transfer programmes make the payment of cash benefits conditional upon compliance with specific "behavioural" conditions. Typically, the programmes require that families ensure their children's enrolment and attendance at school, and participate in specified health

[14] Because of their strong focus on children, cash transfer programmes are often considered as child or family benefit programmes, although it may also be argued that they share many features with generalized social assistance schemes.

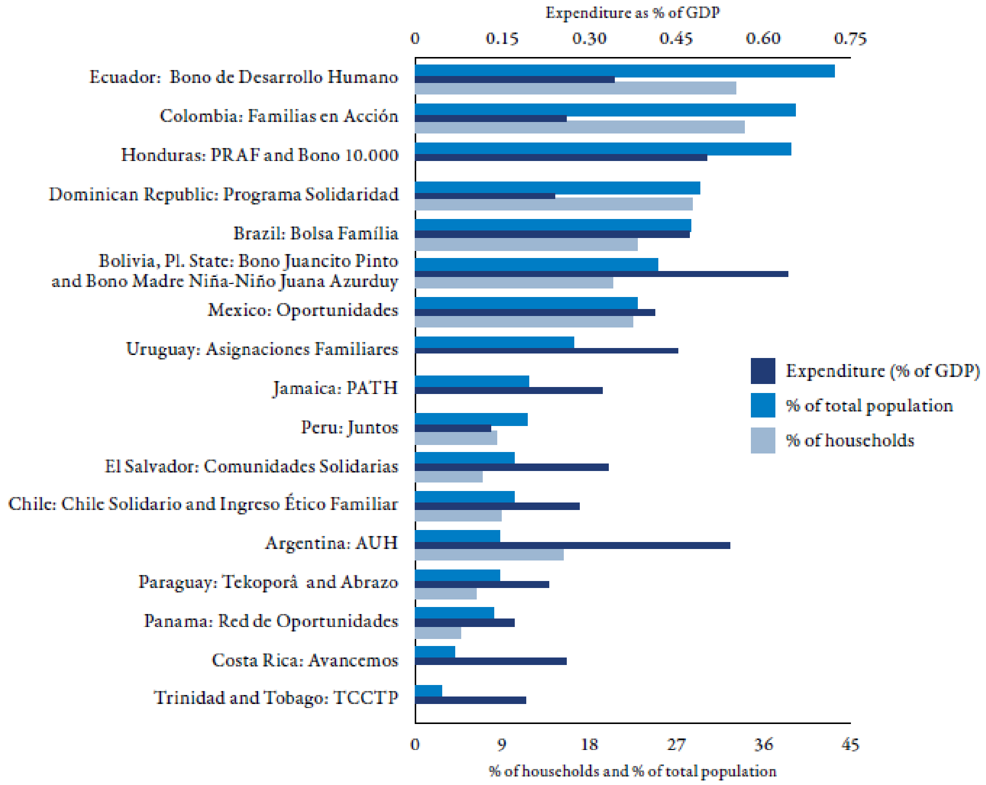
programmes, for example making regular visits to a clinic, or presenting children for vaccinations – stipulations that make demands on the availability, accessibility and quality of such services. If beneficiaries do not meet the specified conditions, sanctions may be applied, typically through the suspension or termination of benefits. Given that the beneficiaries are likely to be poor or very poor, the very potential for sanctions may itself be controversial, and the human rights implications of behavioural conditions in cash transfer programmes have been subject of intense debate (see e.g. ILO, 2011a, pp. 118–120; de Brauw and Hoddinott, 2008; Dornan and Porter, 2013).[15]

The considerable variety of cash transfer programmes that have emerged in recent years is only insufficiently described by the usual dichotomy of conditional and non-conditional programmes. Following the establishment of the Oportunidades/Prospera programme in Mexico, the first wave of conditional cash transfer programmes was concentrated in Latin America (Fiszbein and Schady, 2009; Barrientos, 2013), where conditional cash transfer programmes are now firmly established as an integral element of many national social security systems (see figure 10). By now, the largest programme in absolute terms is Bolsa Família in Brazil, which reaches around 11.3 million families comprising 46 million people, corresponding to about a quarter of Brazil's population – at an annual cost of US$3.9 billion (0.4 per cent of GDP). Similar programmes were implemented in 16 other Latin American and Caribbean countries, covering around 70 million people or 12 per cent of the population in the region (figure 7). Some programmes have developed distinctive features, such as the individualized support and transformational nature of the Chilean Chile Solidario programme (replaced by the Ingreso Ético Familiar programme in 2012; see UNICEF, 2012). Several cash transfer programmes for children and families also exist in Africa (e.g. in Ghana, Kenya, Malawi and South Africa) and in Asia (e.g. in Indonesia, the Philippines and Pakistan).

Some programmes combine conditional and non-conditional elements, such as the universal child allowance in Argentina (see box 4 below). In other countries, many of them in Africa, behavioural conditions are nominally part of the design of cash transfer programmes, yet are not fully implemented and monitored in practice. Some of these programmes have been introduced with "soft" conditions, under which the extent to which sanctions (usually the suspension or termination of benefits) are applied in cases of non-compliance takes into account the influence of factors beyond the beneficiaries' control, especially in respect of the poorest and most vulnerable. In some cases, conditions are applied, if at all, with considerable discretion, particularly in contexts where there is a significant lack of infrastructure and qualified staff. Where institutional capacities are limited, a strict adherence to behavioural conditions would be neither feasible nor equitable, given the often insufficient supply of education and health services, in terms of both quantity and quality, especially in remote areas.

[15] Moreover, as the responsibility for meeting these conditions mostly falls on mothers, these programmes have further-reaching implications for women's social and economic rights (e.g. Molyneux, 2007).

Figure 10. Level of expenditure and proportion of population reached by non-contributory conditional cash transfer programmes in selected Latin American countries, latest available year (percentages)



Sources: ECLAC, Conditional Cash Transfer Programmes database: Non-contributory social protection programmes in Latin America and the Caribbean database, http://dds.cepal.org/bdptc/en/ [accessed Jan. 2014].
Link: http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/RessourceDownload.action?ressource.ressourceId=39338.

The extension of cash transfer programmes for children and families has continued during recent years, and in some countries has even accelerated, whether in order to cushion the impact of the global crisis on children and families or with a more general objective of reducing poverty. In Haiti, a new conditional cash transfer scheme (Ti Manman Cheri) was introduced in 2012, with an initial annual budget estimated at US$13 million. In Honduras, the Bono 10,000 conditional cash transfer programme now provides cash benefits to poor families with children under 18 or pregnant women on condition that they commit to obligations with regard to school attendance and health care. In Mexico, the nutrition support programme Programa de Apoyo Alimentario (PAL) was expanded within the framework of the Oportunidades programme in 2010. Brazil extended coverage of the Bolsa Família programme by including more beneficiary categories, implementing an "active search" strategy to register extremely poor families not yet covered and increasing the amount of benefit paid. The budget has increased from 11.9 billion real (BRL) in 2009 to BRL23 billion in 2013, constituting approximately 0.5 per cent of GDP (Hermeto and Caetano, forthcoming). Thailand extended its education policy from 12 years of free basic education to 15 years in 2009 as part of its first stimulus package, allocating 18 billion baht to this programme in the first year with a view to drawing all children, including stateless and ethnic minority children, and children of migrants, into education from pre-school through high school and vocational education. Germany increased the level of child benefits in 2009 and 2010. Japan established a new universal allowance for children "of junior high school age" in 2010, and in 2012 made further changes to the law to allow for higher benefit levels, depending on age and number of children in a household, while also reintroducing an income ceiling above which a household was not eligible for the allowance.

Box 5
The universal child allowance in Argentina

Argentina closed a gap in the coverage of child benefits through the introduction of the universal child allowance (Asignación universal por hijo) for up to five children per family in 2009. This benefit complements the existing contributory family benefits for formal sector workers in the low and middle wage brackets and income tax rebates for workers in the highest income group. The scheme covers children of Argentinian nationality or children who have been resident in the country for at least three years whose parents fall into one of the following categories and do not already receive any other type of social assistance payments: those subject to the social monotributo (simplified social security regime for workers with very low incomes); the unemployed; those working in the informal economy; and domestic workers earning less than the adjustable minimum living wage. In addition to the 4.3 million children already covered through the other schemes (contributory family allowance and income tax rebate), the scheme now provides benefits to 3.3 million more children, representing 29 per cent of all children under the age of 18.

Families receive 460 pesos (ARS), equivalent to about US$69, for each child under 18, or ARS1,500 (about US$224) for a child with an assessed disability (without age limit). Of the total benefit, 80 per cent is paid monthly to benefit recipients through the social insurance institution. The remaining 20 per cent is deposited in a savings account in the name of the beneficiary with the National Bank. This sum can be recovered (on behalf of children in their care up to the age of six) when the beneficiary provides evidence of the children having undergone medical check-ups and necessary vaccinations or (for children aged 5–18) being enrolled in public education.

The cost of the scheme is estimated at approximately 0.5 per cent of GDP, financed out of earnings-related contributions and taxes and the annual interest on the Sustainability Guarantee Fund of the state pension system, created in 2007.

It is estimated that the scheme reaches 70 per cent of children living in poverty (between 80 and 90 per cent of very poor children) and that it reduces the proportion of poor and very poor children by 18 per cent and 65 per cent, respectively. Some 40 per cent of those who receive this benefit are not poor, most of them belonging to households with total incomes only slightly above the value of the poverty line. The Gini index shows a drop of approximately one percentage point as a result of the scheme. The combined impact of the contributory and non-contributory schemes is to reduce inequality by approximately 5 per cent. The total income of the poorest 10 per cent is increased by approximately 30 per cent as a result of the benefit.

Sources: Bertranou and Maurizio, 2012a; Bertranou and Maurizio, 2012b; national sources.

While universal or quasi-universal coverage of all children is achieved predominantly in high-income countries, some middle-income countries have made great strides towards universal coverage: for example, in Argentina (see box 4), the universal child allowance introduced in 2009 extended coverage to families of unemployed people and those in the informal economy who were previously uncovered (Bertranou and Maurizio, 2012a). Mongolia also reintroduced its child allowance with virtually universal coverage, covering close to 900,000 children (99.6 per cent of all children) in 2012; the programme is funded from a mineral resource tax accumulated in the country’s Human Development Fund (see box 6).

Box 6
Child benefit programme in Mongolia

Mongolia introduced a universal child cash transfer in October 2012 following the adoption of the Government Action Plan (2012-2016) which highlighted the government's social welfare commitments. The benefit is universal and provided for all children until the age of 18. The amount of the benefit since October 2012 is set at 20,000 MNT (approximately US$ 12) per month. This universal child benefit is financed from a tax on mineral resources.

The new universal child cash transfer scheme builds on Mongolia's earlier experience with child benefit programmes. These include a conditional cash transfer programme for the poorest introduced in 2005 and converted in 2006 into a close to universal scheme (Child Money Programme, CMP) providing higher benefits to all children under the age of 18 and a newborn allowance, following concerns about the exclusion of the poor in some instances. In 2010, the CMP was replaced in 2010 by universal cash transfers (financed by the Human Development Fund), which, in turn, was converted into the actual programme. Evidence demonstrates a significant impact of the universal child benefit on the reduction of the poverty headcount and poverty gap.

Source: ILO, 2014a and national sources.

Some initiatives represent notable progress towards more nearly universal coverage anchored in national legislation. The South African Child Support Grant, for example (see box 7), although means tested, covers more than half of all children under the age of 18, and has had significant impacts on children's nutrition, physical development and education (e.g. Patel et al., 2012; Patel, Hochfeld and Moodley, 2013; DSD, SASSA and UNICEF South Africa, 2012; Eyal and Woolard, 2013). In Colombia, a law was passed in 2011 that rendered access to the *Más Familias en Acción* programme a right, and raised benefit levels; as a result, the number of beneficiaries increased from 2.1 million to 2.6 million (Alviar García, 2013).

In many low- and middle-income countries, only a small minority of children and families receive child benefits. Where specific child or family benefit programmes do exist, they tend to be largely focused on workers in the formal economy and/or selected categories of disadvantaged children, such as orphans and vulnerable children. For example, the Kesejahteraan Sosial Anak programme (PKSA) in Indonesia provides conditional cash benefits for several categories of vulnerable children, including abandoned children, street children, young offenders and children with disabilities.[16] Many general social assistance programmes also benefit children living in vulnerable households, such as the Programa Subsidio de Alimentos cash transfer programme in Mozambique, whose total budget allocation more than doubled from 0.16 to 0.35 per cent of GDP between 2008 and 2013 (Cunha et al., 2013). Many of the newer programmes in African countries, though they may be of significant size, operate as pilot programmes covering only certain districts, such as the LEAP programme in Ghana (see box 8) and similar schemes in Kenya and Malawi (García and Moore, 2012; Monchuk, 2014).

[16] Due to challenges in identifying eligible children, many vulnerable children remain outside the reach of this programme (ILO, 2012c).

Box 7
The Child Support Grant in South Africa

The Child Support Grant (CSG) in South Africa plays an important role in providing income security to poor children. Although the grant is means tested, the scheme reached 10.8 million children in 2012, that is, more than half of all children under the age of 18.[1] Coverage has been significantly extended by gradually increasing the maximum age threshold from seven years before 2003 to 18 years in 2008, and by adjusting the income threshold to inflation.

A monthly benefit of 300 rand (ZAR), equivalent to about US$28, per child is provided to caregivers who are South African nationals or permanent residents, and whose annual earnings are below ZAR34,800 for a single adult and ZAR69,600 for a couple. Applicants need to provide proof of income or of their status as unemployed, as appropriate. However, in order to facilitate access to the benefit for eligible families, particularly the poorest, the Government made efforts to disseminate information about eligibility criteria, simplify the procedure and reduce the number of documents applicants needed.

By and large, the grant is considered to have been successful in targeting poor households and to have had a marked impact on children's lives. In addition to poverty alleviation, studies also demonstrated positive effects on early childhood development, school attendance and educational attainments, including narrowing the schooling gap between children whose mothers have less education and those with more, improvements in overall health status, and reductions in risky behaviours by adolescents. Early enrolment in the programme was found to produce stronger impacts. Beyond the children themselves, the grant also facilitated access to the labour market for unemployed caregivers, especially for women.

[1]Conclusive interpretation of the available coverage data presents some difficulties.

Sources: Patel et al., 2012; Mokomane, 2012; Hagen-Zanker and Morgan, 2011.

Recent developments have also demonstrated that cash transfers alone cannot offer income security for all children and families. More attention is needed to the formulation and application of integrated approaches that ensure effective coordination between different policy areas addressing children's needs, including health, education, care and child protection. In addition, connection with employment policies is of critical importance. A particular policy concern is establishing the optimal mix in provision of allowances in cash, on the one hand, and the availability and accessibility of quality childcare services and early childhood education, on the other – the latter playing a key role in protecting children from poverty by allowing their parents to work knowing that their children are well cared for (e.g. OECD, 2011; UNICEF and ILO, 2013; ILO and UNDP, 2009; UNESCO, 2014). Such measures can have a significant impact on the income security of families with children, in particular for single-parent families.

Rich evidence of the impact of social protection policies, combined with other social policies, on the income security of children can be found in many European and some other OECD countries. The OECD has developed a sophisticated monitoring system, using a set of indicators and focused research studies, to analyse the availability of child and family benefits and other family-oriented policies and their outcomes (OECD, 2009; 2011; 2014). Such a monitoring system can also facilitate national monitoring of the implementation of ILO Recommendation No. 202. Strengthening such national monitoring capacities should be a priority in many low- and middle-income countries.

Box 8
Providing benefits for orphans and vulnerable children: The Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme in Ghana

The Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty programme (LEAP) is a conditional cash transfer programme, currently implemented in about half of Ghana's districts, which targets extremely poor households that include one or more orphans and vulnerable children, people over the age of 65 or people with a severe disability. Orphans and vulnerable children are defined as children under 18 years of age who have lost one or both parents, who are chronically ill or living in a household headed by a child or a chronically ill person, or whose parents' whereabouts are unknown.

Of the 246,115 beneficiaries, 48.2 per cent are children up to 17 years of age. Depending on the number of eligible individuals in the household, the monthly benefit amounts to 24–45 cedi (about US$9–17), paid every two months. A recent UNICEF study (Cooke et al., 2014) showed that scaling up the LEAP programme to 500,000 beneficiaries could alleviate the impact on the poorest groups in the population of the removal of the fuel subsidy; even so, further measures will be necessary to have a broader impact on the reduction and prevention of poverty.

Beneficiary households with children under the age of 15 commit themselves to certain co-responsibilities when they sign up for LEAP. These include school attendance (with a maximum absenteeism of 20 per cent) and vaccinations and health check-ups for children under the age of five. Households in communities that are not covered by education or health facilities or where the capacity of existing facilities is insufficient are exempted from these conditions. Monitoring of compliance should take place every three months, and households not complying should receive warnings, house visits and, in the case of repeated non-compliance, penalties; but for the time being these are soft conditions, as no reliable mechanism to monitor compliance is currently in place.

In order to ensure they have access to health care, LEAP beneficiaries are automatically registered in the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS). As a result, beneficiaries are more likely to be covered under the NHIS than non-recipient households, although those also benefit from contribution exemptions for children, pregnant women, older people and the very poor (Handa et al., 2013).

Source: ILO (2015) and national sources.

6. The cost of universal child benefits in developing countries

The experience of many low and middle income countries in expanding child benefits demonstrates the importance of investment in child benefit programmes and their impact on children's nutrition, health, education in the short term and in the longer term.

As an input to the global discussion on building social protection floors, the ILO has recently produced a standardized costing of universal social protection floors (SPFs) in all developing countries, based on a common methodological approach that can provide comparable results for different countries (see ILO, forthcoming). This costing aims at providing a global and comparable estimate of the potential cost for the implementation of a universal child benefit in 57 low and lower middle income countries. For the purpose of this costing, it is assumed that a universal child benefit of 12 per cent of the national poverty line[17] would be paid to all children up to age of 15.[18] Taking into account the high

[17] This is the average level of child benefits in Europe as a percentage of the relevant national poverty lines (see ILO, forthcoming).

[18] The calculations include administration cost estimated at 5 per cent of benefit expenditure.

vulnerability of double orphans, an orphan benefit is assumed to be paid at a level of a higher benefit level of 100 per cent of the national poverty line.[19]

These are standardized assumptions used for the purpose of this global costing. With regard to the implementation of child benefits in a specific country context, further assessments would be necessary to ascertain the level of such a benefit, possibly in the context of technical advice by the ILO, considering in particular whether children enjoy universal access to basic health care and access to education, as well as the poverty reduction impact of existing child benefit schemes and other relevant programmes. Benefit levels may need to be adjusted in order to have significant impacts on child poverty.

The projected costs for a basic universal child benefit vary greatly between countries ranging from 5.2 per cent of GDP for Niger to 0.2 per cent of GDP for Guyana (figure 11). The arithmetic average of estimated cost for a universal child benefit in the 57 countries analysed is 1.9 per cent of national GDP; a weighted average would amount to 0.9 per cent of the aggregated GDP of the 57 countries. The estimated cost of the benefit depends on the proportion of children in the population[20], the level of the poverty line (which is the basis for setting the benefit level) and GDP. Relative to GDP, the cost of child benefits tend to be higher in low income countries with larger child populations and lower in lower middle income countries and countries with smaller child populations. In twelve countries, the estimated cost is higher than 3 per cent of GDP.[21] Nevertheless, for the majority of countries in this study, the cost is below 2.5 per cent of GDP. In 20 low and lower middle income countries, the estimated level of expenditure for a universal child benefit is less than 1 per cent of GDP.

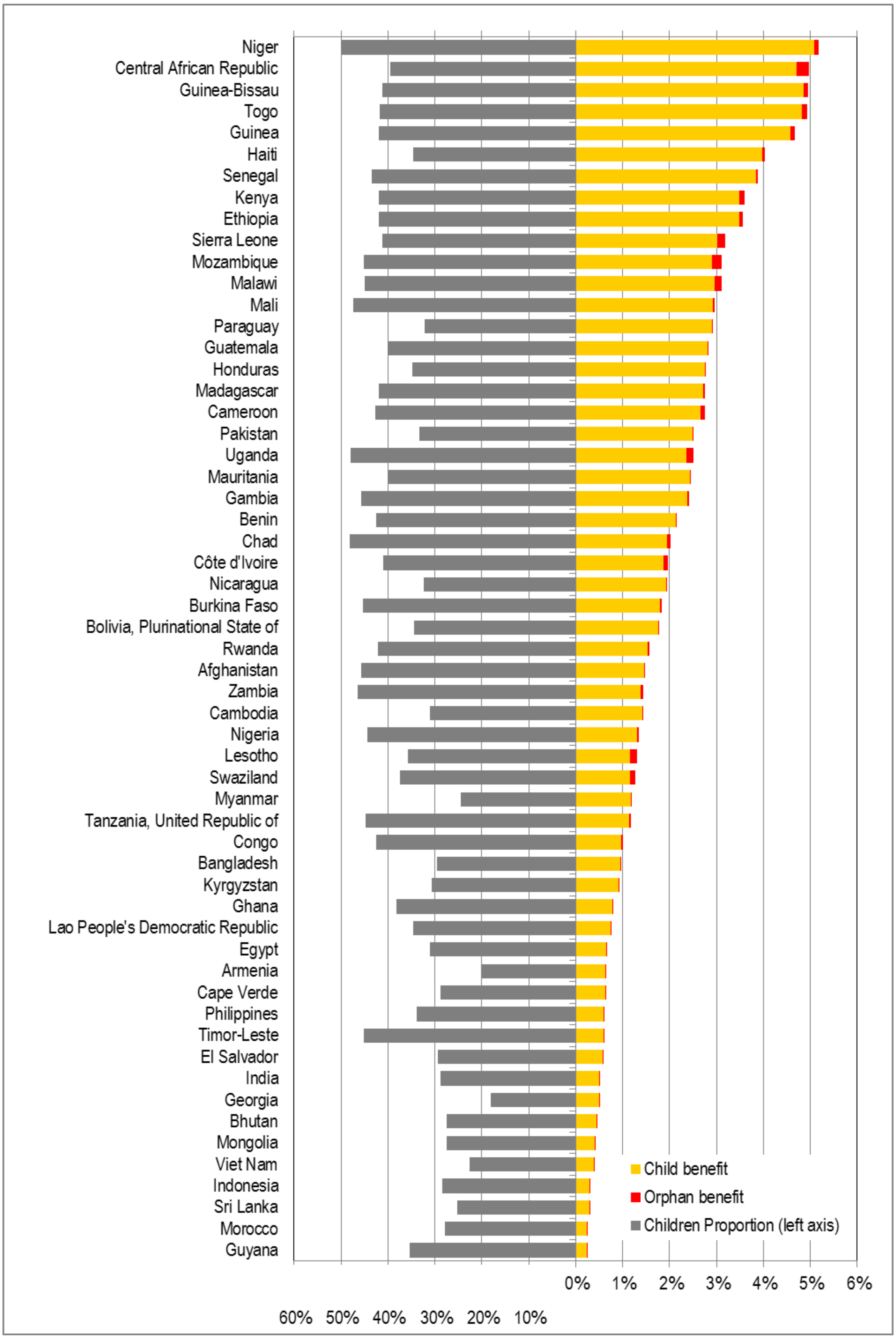
The projected costs of providing a benefit to double orphans does not exceed 0.1 per cent of GDP in all the countries of the study with the exception of the Central African Republic (at 0.3 per cent of GDP) and Mozambique (at 0.2 per cent of GDP). The unweighted average of estimated cost in the 57 countries is 0.05 per cent of national GDP. In the case of the Central African Republic, the higher cost level is due to the combination of the high proportion of orphans in the population, as a consequence of the long-standing civil war, the HIV/AIDS epidemic, as well as the level of GDP per capita which is half that of the poverty line. In the case of Mozambique, many children are orphaned as a consequence of the HIV/AIDS epidemic.

[19] The incidence of double orphans was estimated based on parental life expectancy (see ILO, forthcoming).

[20] It varies from 18 per cent of the population in Georgia to over 50 per cent of the population in Niger (see figure 8 and ILO, forthcoming).

[21] These countries are : namely in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Liberia, Comoros, Niger, Guinea-Bissau, Togo, Central African Republic, Guinea, Haiti, Senegal, Kenya and Ethiopia (see ILO, forthcoming).

Figure 11 **Estimated cost of a universal child benefit and orphan benefit as a percentage of GDP and the proportion of children under 15 years of age in the population, 2014**



Source: ILO, forthcoming.

The estimated cost for universal child and orphan benefits need to be considered in relation with current expenditure levels in the countries considered (see ILO, 2014a and forthcoming). Some countries have existing schemes with limited coverage, including cash transfer schemes that cover some poor and vulnerable families, or family allowance schemes, many of which cover only employees in the formal economy. Extending social protection for children will need to prioritize the extension of coverage with a view to achieving universal protection through a nationally-defined social protection floor.

Underinvestment in the social protection needs of children is particularly critical in low-income countries, which on average allocate less than 0.1 per cent of their GDP to child and family benefits (ILO, 2014a). However, the need thus for ensuring a basic level of social protection taking into account national circumstances is particularly urgent in these countries. At the same time, given their limited fiscal and economic capacities, some countries will not be in a position to mobilize the necessary level of resources in the short run. However, they can follow a strategy of progressive implementation which addresses the most pressing needs first and gradually expands coverage as economic and fiscal capacities increase. Technical and financial support from the international community can complement the own efforts of these countries and help to accelerate progress.

Fiscal space for child protection exists is virtually all countries. Options include: (i) re-allocating public expenditures; (ii) increasing tax revenues; (iii) expanding social security coverage and contributory revenues; (iv) lobbying for aid and transfers; (v) eliminating illicit financial flows; (vi) using fiscal and foreign exchange reserves; (vii) borrowing or restructuring existing debt and; (viii) adopting a more accommodative macroeconomic framework. More on financing options can be found in Ortiz et al (2015).

At a time that the world is discussing a post-2015 development agenda, it is essential that the development community identifies financing sources to ensure social protection for all. It is a question of priorities: the total cost of a universal benefit to all children in 57 lower income countries is just 0.5 per cent of what G20 countries used to bail out the financial sector in 2009.[22]

7. Accelerating progress in building social protection floors for children

Despite the expansion of child and family benefits schemes in a number of countries over the last decades, children still face unacceptable poverty risks in most parts of the world. Twenty-five years after the adoption of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, the majority of children across the globe still do not benefit from adequate income security and from access to essential goods and services, depriving them of some of their most fundamental rights. Even in some of the countries with the most comprehensive set of child and family protection policies and programmes, children have experienced a decline in their well-being as a result of cuts or underinvestment in social transfers. Children in the European Union have been particularly affected by the recent economic and financial crisis, as the share of expenditure spent on child and family benefits decreased in many countries. Recent studies show the direct and profound impact that cuts in cash transfers and public services have had on children’s well-being, measured e.g. in terms of material deprivation, access to nutrition, health, housing and education (e.g. UNICEF, 2014b).

The critical levels of insecurity affecting children in a number of these countries together with the efforts of international, regional and local players have helped increasing awareness at the global level about the importance of social transfers for children and for society as whole. There is strong evidence on the impact that a comprehensive package of benefits in cash and in kind, even at a basic level, can have at the individual, household

[22] According to IMF (2010: 31), the amount announced by G20 governments to rescue the financial sector in 2009 totals US$ 9.6 trillion; compare to $47.3 billion, the ILO estimated cost of a universal benefit to all children in 57 low income developing countries.

and societal level. Where integrated into a wider set of social protection measures, comprised of income security guarantees for persons in working age and older persons, social health protection and access to quality public services, child and family benefits' effectiveness in reducing child poverty, improving health and education outcomes and promoting economic activity and development can be multiplied.

The fact that many countries are moving forward towards universal and comprehensive protection shows a growing commitment to making children's right to social protection a reality. Child-sensitive social protection can be delivered through a variety of mechanisms, as country examples show. Political and fiscal considerations play a key role when it comes to making policy decisions in this regard.

Underinvestment in children remains one of the critical challenges for economic and social development (e.g. United Nations, 2015). Child and family benefits play a key role in enhancing income security and facilitating access to nutrition, health and education. ILO cost estimations show that on average, a universal child benefit would on average require 1.9 per cent of national GDP in low and middle income countries. Considering that children constitute more than one third of the population in most of these countries, child benefits that respond to the most pressing priorities in each country context could make a difference in enhancing income security of families, as well as facilitating access to nutrition, health and education. The positive impact of adequate social protection for children reaches beyond the individual or household level and affects positively society as a whole. By improving children and families' well-being through the reduction of poverty as well as health and education outcomes, child sensitive social protection fosters social and economic development. It is an investment in human capital which fosters decent and productive employment, social progress and cohesion.

In any country, regardless of its level of income, the effectiveness of the measures and mechanisms chosen will depend on the optimization of available resources to maximize outcomes, taking due account of national circumstances. Drawing from ILO Recommendation No. 202 and successful country experiences in putting into place, extending and maintaining adequate, effective and meaningful social protection mechanisms for children, a number of principles and recommendations can be outlined:

- Universality of protection should be sought, with priority given to the poorest, most vulnerable and excluded children.

- All children should have access to health care and enjoy income security, at least at a basic level (to be progressively extended) providing access to nutrition, education, care and other necessary goods and services.

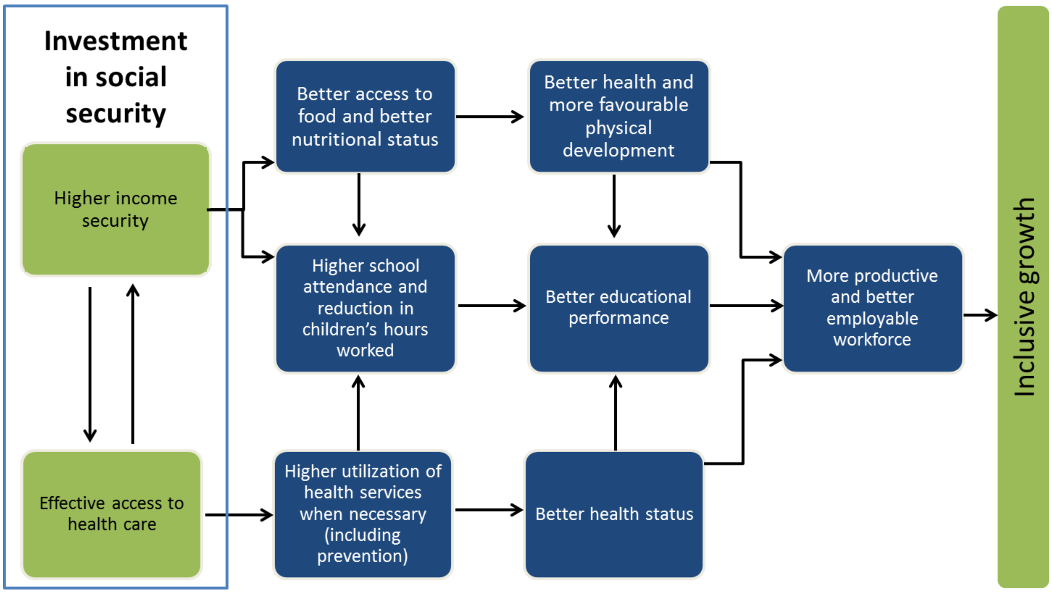
- Countries should seek to close gaps in protection through appropriate and effectively coordinated mechanisms, using the most effective and efficient combination of benefits and schemes in the national context.

- Social protection measures for children and families should combine preventive, promotional and active measures, benefits and social services and be coordinated with other policies that enhance education, health, literacy, formal employment and employability.

Social protection policies have proven effective in reducing poverty and inequalities, in particular for children. They facilitate access to adequate nutrition, health and education, and strengthen families' capacities to support the well-being and development of their children. This is an essential element of overcoming vulnerability to exclusion, marginalization and discrimination, and strengthening people's rights and dignity. The evidence presented in this paper demonstrates that social protection does not only enhance children's material well-being through child and family benefits and other transfers, as well as effective access to health care, but has a much wider impact in the short and longer term on communities, societies and economies.

In fact, the extension of social protection coverage has been justified not only in terms of human rights and social justice, but has also an economic dimension. Social protection systems are one key element of policies that support more equitable societies and more inclusive growth models (figure 12).

Figure 12. Positive impacts of the extension of social protection on inclusive growth



Source ILO, 2014a.

What is needed now is more investment in the social protection of children, complementing investments in nutrition, health, education and other child-related services. Investment in children is an investment in the future, considering in particular that childhood poverty has lifelong effects on the educational level, the health status and employability in later life. Ensuring income security for children and families plays a key role in breaking the vicious cycle of chronic poverty.

As the new post-2015 development framework emerges, ensuring a better future for children is in the center the global sustainable development agenda. Ensuring adequate social protection is one of the key elements of an integrated policy response that accelerates progress towards a better future for children.

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Annex I:
Minimum requirements in ILO Social Security Standards: Overview table

ILO social security standards serve as key references, guiding all ILO policy and technical advice in the field of social security. They also give meaning and definition to the content of the right to social security as laid down in international human rights instruments (notably the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948, and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1966), thereby constituting essential tools for the realization of this right and the effective implementation of a rights-based approach to social protection.

The ILO's normative social security framework consists of eight up-to-date Conventions and Recommendations. The most prominent of these are the Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102), and the Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202).1 Convention No. 102 is unique among international standards in regrouping the nine classical social security contingencies (medical care, sickness, unemployment, old age, employment injury, family responsibilities, maternity, invalidity, survivorship) into a single comprehensive and legally binding instrument. It sets qualitative and quantitative benchmarks for each of these contingencies, which together determine the minimum standards of social security protection to be provided by social security schemes with regard, inter alia, to:

- definition of the contingency (what must be covered?)
- persons protected (who must be covered?)
- type and rate of benefits (what should be provided?)
- entitlement conditions, including qualifying period (what should a person do to get the right to a benefit?)
- duration of benefit and waiting period (how long must the benefit be paid/provided for?)

In addition, it establishes common rules of collective organization, financing and management, and lays down principles for good governance, including the general responsibility of the State for the due provision of benefits and proper administration of social security systems, participatory management, guarantee of defined benefits, adjustment of pensions, right of appeal and complaint, collective financing and risk-pooling, and periodical actuarial valuations. Convention No. 102 continues to serve as a yardstick and reference in the gradual development of comprehensive social security coverage at the national level and as a means to prevent the levelling down of social security systems worldwide, as confirmed by the International Labour Conference in 2011 (ILO, 2012a).

Table A.1 provides a summary overview of some of the key requirements regarding child and family benefits set out in ILO standards. A summary of the key requirements of ILO standards with regard to other benefits can be found in ILO (2014a, Annex III)

Table A.1 Main requirements: ILO social security standards on family/child benefits

	ILO Convention No. 102 Minimum standards	ILO Recommendation No. 202 Basic protection
What should be covered?	Responsibility for child maintenance	Basic income security for children
Who should be protected?	At least 50% of all employees; *or* categories of active population (forming not less than 20% of all residents; *or* all residents with means under prescribed threshold	All children
What should the benefit be?	Periodic payments; or provision for food, clothing, housing, holidays or domestic help; *or* combination of both Total value of benefits calculated at a *global* level: at least 3% of reference wage multiplied by number of children of covered people; or a least 1.5% of reference wage multiplied by number of children of all residents	Benefits in cash or in kind providing access to nutrition, education, care and other necessary goods and services for children
What should the benefit duration be?	At least from birth to 15 years of age or school-leaving age	For the duration of childhood
What conditions can be prescribed for entitlement to a benefit?	Three months' contributions or employment (for contributory or employment based schemes); one year's residence (for non-contributory schemes)	Should be defined at national level and prescribed by law, applying the principles of non-discrimination, responsiveness to special needs and social inclusion, and ensuring the rights and dignity of children

Source: ILO, 2014a, Annex Table AIII.6.

Annex II:
Statistical tables

The following tables are extracted from the World Social Protection Report 2014/15 (ILO, 2014a). More tables are available in this report, as well as on the following website: http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/ShowTheme.action?th.themeId=3985.

Table B.1 Ratification of ILO social security Conventions, by region

Country	Branch								
	Medical care C.102 C.130	**Sickness** C.102 C.130	**Unemployment** C.102 C.168	**Old age** C.102 C.128	**Employment injury** C.102 C.121	**Family** C.102	**Maternity** C.102 C.183	**Invalidity** C.102 C.128	**Survivors** C.102 C.128
Africa									
Benin							C.183 (2012)		
Burkina Faso							C.183 (2013)		
Democratic Republic of the Congo				C.102 (1987)	C.121 (1967)	C.102 (1987)		C.102 (1987)	C.102 (1987)
Guinea					C.121 (1967)				
Libya	C.102 (1975) C.130 (1975)	C.102 (1975) C.130 (1975)	C.102 (1975)	C.102 (1975) C.128 (1975)	C.102 (1975) C.121 (1975)	C.102 (1975)	C.102 (1975)	C.102 (1975) C.128 (1975)	C.102 (1975) C.128 (1975)
Mali							C.183 (2008)		
Morocco							C.183 (2011)		
Mauritania				C.102 (1968)	C.102 (1968)	C.102 (1968)		C.102 (1968)	C.102 (1968)
Niger				C.102 (1966)	C.102 (1966)	C.102 (1966)	C.102 (1966)		

Country	Branch								
	Medical care C.102 C.130	**Sickness** C.102 C.130	**Unemployment** C.102 C.168	**Old age** C.102 C.128	**Employment injury** C.102 C.121	**Family** C.102	**Maternity** C.102 C.183	**Invalidity** C.102 C.128	**Survivors** C.102 C.128
Senegal					C.102 (1962) C.121 (1966)	C.102 (1962)	C.102 (1962)		
Togo (not in force)				C.102 (2013)		C.102 (2013)	C.102 (2013)		C.102 (2013)
Americas									
Barbados		C.102 (1972)		C.102 (1972) C.128 (1972)	C.102 (1972)			C.102 (1972) C.128 (1972)	C.102 (1972)
Belize							C.183 (2005)		
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	C.102 (1977) C.130 (1977)	C.102 (1977) C.130 (1977)		C.102 (1977) C.128 (1977)	C.102 (1977) C.121 (1977)	C.102 (1977)	C.102 (1977) C.183 (1977)	C.102 (1977) C.128 (1977)	C.102 (1977) C.128 (1977)
Brazil	C.102 (2009)	C.102 (2009)	C.102 (2009) C.168 (1993)	C.102 (2009)	C.102 (2009)	C.102 (2009)	C.102 (2009)	C.102 (2009)	C.102 (2009)
Chile					C.121 (1999)				
Costa Rica	C.102 (1972) C.130 (1972)	C.130 (1972)		C.102 (1972)	C.102 (1972)	C.102 (1972)	C.102 (1972)	C.102 (1972)	C.102 (1972)
Cuba							C.183 (2004)		
Ecuador	C.130 (1978)	C.102 (1974) C.130 (1978)		C.102 (1974) C.128 (1978)	C.102 (1974) C.121 (1978)			C.102 (1974) C.128 (1978)	C.102 (1974) C.128 (1978)
Honduras	C.102 (2012)	C.102 (2012)		C.102 (2012)			C.102 (2012)	C.102 (2012)	C.102 (2012)
Mexico	C.102 (1961)	C.102 (1961)		C.102 (1961)	C.102 (1961)		C.102 (1961)	C.102 (1961)	C.102 (1961)
Peru	C.102 (1961)	C.102 (1961)		C.102 (1961)			C.102 (1961)	C.102 (1961)	
Uruguay	C.102 (2010) C.130 (1973)	C.130 (1973)	C.102 (2010)	C.128 (1973)	C.121 (1973)*	C.102 (2010)	C.102 (2010)	C 128 (1973)	C.128 (1973)

Country	Branch								
	Medical care C.102 C.130	**Sickness** C.102 C.130	**Unemployment** C.102 C.168	**Old age** C.102 C.128	**Employment injury** C.102 C.121	**Family** C.102	**Maternity** C.102 C.183	**Invalidity** C.102 C.128	**Survivors** C.102 C.128
Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of	C.102 (1982) C.130 (1982)	C.102 (1982) C.130 (1982)		C.102 (1982) C.128 (1983)	C.102 (1982) C.121 (1982)		C.102 (1982)	C.102 (1982) C.128 (1983)	C.102 (1982) C.128 (1983)
Middle East									
Israel				C.102 (1955)	C.102 (1955)				C.102 (1955)
Jordan (not in force)				C.102 (2014)	C.102 (2014)			C.102 (2014)	C.102 (2014)
Asia									
Azerbaijan							C.183 (2010)		
Japan		C.102 (1976)	C.102 (1976)	C.102 (1976)	C.102 (1976) C.121 (1974)*				
Kazakhstan							C.183 (2012)		
Europe									
Albania	C.102 (2006)	C.102 (2006)	C.102 (2006) C.168 (2006)	C.102 (2006)	C.102 (2006)		C.102 (2006) C.183 (2004)	C.102 (2006)	C.102 (2006)
Austria	C.102 (1969)		C.102 (1978)	C.102 (1969) C.128 (1969)		C.102 (1969)	C.102 (1969) C.183 (2004)		
Belarus							C.183 (2004)		
Belgium	C.102 (1959)	C.102 (1959)	C.102 (1959) C.168 (2011)	C.102 (1959)	C.102 (1959) C.121 (1970)	C.102 (1959)	C.102 (1959)	C.102 (1959)	C.102 (1959)
Bosnia and Herzegovina	C.102 (1993)	C.102 (1993)	C.102 (1993)	C.102 (1993)	C.102 (1993) C.121 (1993)		C.102 (1993) C.183 (2012)		C.102 (1993)
Bulgaria	C.102 (2008)	C.102 (2008)		C.102 (2008)	C.102 (2008)	C.102 (2008)	C.102 (2008) C.183 (2001)		C.102 (2008)

Country	Branch								
	Medical care C.102 C.130	**Sickness** C.102 C.130	**Unemployment** C.102 C.168	**Old age** C.102 C.128	**Employment injury** C.102 C.121	**Family** C.102	**Maternity** C.102 C.183	**Invalidity** C.102 C.128	**Survivors** C.102 C.128
Croatia	C.102 (1991)	C.102 (1991)	C.102 (1991)	C.102 (1991)	C.102 (1991) C.121 (1991)		C.102 (1991)		C.102 (1991)
Cyprus		C.102 (1991)	C.102 (1991)	C.102 (1991)	C.102 (1991) C.121 (1966)		C.183 (2005)	C.102 (1991)	C.102 (1991) C.128 (1969)
Czech Republic	C.102 (1993) C.130 (1993)	C.102 (1993) C.130 (1993)		C.102 (1993) C.128 (1993)		C.102 (1993)	C.102 (1993)	C.102 (1993)	C.102 (1993)
Denmark	C.102 (1955) C.130 (1978)	C.130 (1978)	C.102 (1955)	C.102 (1955)	C.102 (1955)			C.102 (1955)	
Finland	C.130 (1974)	C.130 (1974)	C.168 (1990)	C.128 (1976)	C.121 (1968)*			C.128 (1976)	C.128 (1976)
France	C.102 (1974)		C.102 (1974)	C.102 (1974)	C.102 (1974)	C.102 (1974)	C.102 (1974)	C.102 (1974)	
Germany	C.102 (1958) C.130 (1974)	C.102 (1958) C.130 (1974)	C.102 (1958)	C.102 (1958) C.128 (1971)	C.102 (1958) C.121 (1972)	C.102 (1958)	C.102 (1958)	C.102 (1958) C.128 (1971)	C.102 (1958) C.128 (1971)
Greece	C.102 (1955)	C.102 (1955)	C.102 (1955)	C.102 (1955)	C.102 (1955)		C.102 (1955)	C.102 (1955)	C.102 (1955)
Hungary							C.183 (2003)		
Iceland				C.102 (1961)		C.102 (1961)		C.102 (1961)	
Ireland		C.102 (1968)	C.102 (1968)		C.121 (1969)				C.102 (1968)
Italy				C.102 (1956)		C.102 (1956)	C.102 (1956) C.183 (2001)		
Latvia							C.183 (2009)		
Lithuania							C.183 (2003)		
Luxembourg	C.102 (1964) C.130 (1980)	C.102 (1964) C.130 (1980)	C.102 (1964)	C.102 (1964)	C.102 (1964) C.121 (1972)	C.102 (1964)	C.102 (1964) C.183 (2008)	C.102 (1964)	C.102 (1964)

Country	Branch								
	Medical care C.102 C.130	**Sickness** C.102 C.130	**Unemployment** C.102 C.168	**Old age** C.102 C.128	**Employment injury** C.102 C.121	**Family** C.102	**Maternity** C.102 C.183	**Invalidity** C.102 C.128	**Survivors** C.102 C.128
Moldova, Republic of							C.183 (2006)		
Montenegro	C.102 (2006)	C.102 (2006)	C.102 (2006)	C.102 (2006)	C.102 (2006) C.121 (2006)		C.102 (2006) C.183 (2012)		C.102 (2006)
Netherlands	C.102 (1962) C.130 (2006)	C.102 (1962) C.130 (2006)	C.102 (1962)	C.102 (1962) C.128 (1969)	C.102 (1962) C.121 (1966)*	C.102 (1962)	C.102 (1962) C.183 (2009)	C.102 (1962) C.128 (1969)	C.102 (1962) C.128 (1969)
Norway	C.102 (1954) C.130 (1972)	C.102 (1954) C.130 (1972)	C.102 (1954) C.168 (1990)	C.102 (1954) C.128 (1968)	C.102 (1954)	C.102 (1954)		C.128 (1968)	C.128 (1968)
Poland	C.102 (2003)			C.102 (2003)		C.102 (2003)	C.102 (2003)		C.102 (2003)
Portugal	C.102 (1994)	C.102 (1994)	C.102 (1994)	C.102 (1994)	C.102 (1994)	C.102 (1994)	C.102 (1994) C.183 (2012)	C.102 (1994)	C.102 (1994)
Romania	C.102 (2009)	C.102 (2009)	C.168 (1992)	C.102 (2009)		C.102 (2009)	C.102 (2009) C.183 (2002)		
Serbia	C.102 (2000)	C.102 (2000)	C.102 (2000)	C.102 (2000)	C.102 (2000) C.121 (2000)		C.102 (2000) C.183 (2010)		C.102 (2000)
Slovakia	C.102 (1993) C.130 (1993)	C.102 (1993) C.130 (1993)		C.102 (1993) C.128 (1993)		C.102 (1993)	C.102 (1993) C.183 (2000)	C.102 (1993)	C.102 (1993)
Slovenia	C.102 (1992)	C.102 (1992)	C.102 (1992)	C.102 (1992)	C.102 (1992) C.121 (1992)		C.102 (1992) C.183 (2010)		C.102 (1992)
Spain	C.102 (1988)	C.102 (1988)	C.102 (1988)		C.102 (1988)				
Sweden	C.102 (1953) C.130 (1970)	C.102 (1953) C.130 (1970)	C.102 (1953) C.168 (1990)	C.128 (1968)	C.102 (1953) C.121 (1969)	C.102 (1953)	C.102 (1953)	C.128 (1968)	C.128 (1968)
Switzerland			C.168 (1990)	C.102 (1977) C.128 (1977)	C.102 (1977)	C.102 (1977)		C.102 (1977) C.128 (1977)	C.102 (1977) C.128 (1977)
The Former Yugoslav	C.102 (1991)	C.102 (1991)	C.102 (1991)	C.102 (1991)	C.102 (1991)		C.102 (1991)		C.102 (1991)

Country	Branch								
	Medical care C.102 C.130	**Sickness** C.102 C.130	**Unemployment** C.102 C.168	**Old age** C.102 C.128	**Employment injury** C.102 C.121	**Family** C.102	**Maternity** C.102 C.183	**Invalidity** C.102 C.128	**Survivors** C.102 C.128
Rep. of Macedonia					C.121 (1991)		C.183 (2012)		
Turkey	C.102 (1975)	C.102 (1975)		C.102 (1975)	C.102 (1975)		C.102 (1975)	C.102 (1975)	C.102 (1975)
United Kingdom	C.102 (1954)	C.102 (1954)	C.102 (1954)	C.102 (1954)		C.102 (1954)			C.102 (1954)

* Has accepted the text of the List of Occupational Diseases (Schedule I) amended by the ILC at its 66th Session (1980).

Source: ILO (International Labour Office): ILO International labour standards and national legislation database (NORMLEX) (incorporates the former ILOLEX and NATLEX databases). Available at: http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/ [20 Apr. 2014].

Table B.2 Overview of national social security systems

Country	Number of policy areas covered by at least one programme		Existence of programme(s) anchored in national legislation							
	Number of policy areas (branches) covered by at least one programme	Number of social security policy areas covered by at least one programme	Sickness (cash)	Maternity (cash) [1]	Old age [2]	Employment injury [3]	Invalidity	Survivors	Family allowances	Unemployment [4]
Africa										
Algeria	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Angola	…	…	…	●	●	●	●	●	…	…
Benin	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Botswana	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	▲	▲	●	●	None	●	●	▲
Burkina Faso	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Burundi	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	▲	●	●	●	●	●	None
Cameroon	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	▲
Cabo Verde	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Central African Republic	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Chad	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Congo	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Congo, Democratic Republic of	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Côte d'Ivoire	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	△	●	●	●	●	●	●	▲
Djibouti	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	None	●	●	None
Egypt	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	●

Country	Number of policy areas covered by at least one programme		Existence of programme(s) anchored in national legislation							
	Number of policy areas (branches) covered by at least one programme	Number of social security policy areas covered by at least one programme	Sickness (cash)	Maternity (cash) [1]	Old age [2]	Employment injury [3]	Invalidity	Survivors	Family allowances	Unemployment [4]
Equatorial Guinea	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Eritrea	…	…	…	▲	…	…	…	…	…	None
Ethiopia	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	▲	▲	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Gabon	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	▲
Gambia	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	None	▲	●	●	●	●	None	None
Ghana	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	△	▲	●	●	●	●	None	None
Guinea	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Guinea-Bissau	…	…	…	▲	●	●	●	●	…	None
Kenya	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	▲	▲	●	●	●	●	None	None
Lesotho	3	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	▲	▲	●	●	●	●	…	▲
Liberia	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	None	None	●	●	●	●	None	None
Libya	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Madagascar	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Malawi	1	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	△	▲	○	●	None	None	None	None
Mali	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Mauritania	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	△	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Mauritius	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	▲	▲	●	●	●	●	●	X

Country	Number of policy areas covered by at least one programme		Existence of programme(s) anchored in national legislation							
	Number of policy areas (branches) covered by at least one programme	Number of social security policy areas covered by at least one programme	Sickness (cash)	Maternity (cash) [1]	Old age [2]	Employment injury [3]	Invalidity	Survivors	Family allowances	Unemployment [4]
Morocco	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	▲
Mozambique	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	...	●	●	●	None
Namibia	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	▲
Niger	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Nigeria	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	△	▲	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Réunion	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Rwanda	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	▲	▲	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Sao Tome and Principe	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	None
Senegal	5	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	△	●	●	●	None	●	●	None
Seychelles	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	●
Sierra Leone	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	None	None	●	●	●	●	None	None
Somalia	...	...	...	▲	...	...	...	...	None	None
South Africa	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
South Sudan	...	...	...	...	...	....	...	...	...	None
Sudan	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	None	▲	●	●	●	●	None	None
Swaziland	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	None	△	●	●	●	●	None	None
Tanzania, United Republic of	5	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	△	●	●	●	●	●	None	▲

Country	Number of policy areas covered by at least one programme		Existence of programme(s) anchored in national legislation							
	Number of policy areas (branches) covered by at least one programme	Number of social security policy areas covered by at least one programme	Sickness (cash)	Maternity (cash) [1]	Old age [2]	Employment injury [3]	Invalidity	Survivors	Family allowances	Unemployment [4]
Togo	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Tunisia	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Uganda	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	△	▲	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Zambia	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	△	None	●	●	●	●	None	None
Zimbabwe	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	None	▲	●	●	●	●	None	None
Asia										
Afghanistan	…	…	…	▲	…	…	…	…	…	None
Armenia	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Azerbaijan	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Bahrain	5	Limited statutory provision | 5 to 6	None	▲	●	●	●	●	None	●
Bangladesh	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	●	●	●	●	None	None	None	▲
Bhutan	…	…	…	…	●	●	●	●	…	None
Brunei Darussalam	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	△	▲	●	●	●	●	None	None
Cambodia	…	…	…	▲	…	…	…	…	…	▲
China	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Georgia	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	▲
Hong Kong, China	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
India	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	●

Country	Number of policy areas covered by at least one programme		Existence of programme(s) anchored in national legislation							
	Number of policy areas (branches) covered by at least one programme	Number of social security policy areas covered by at least one programme	Sickness (cash)	Maternity (cash) [1]	Old age [2]	Employment injury [3]	Invalidity	Survivors	Family allowances	Unemployment [4]
Indonesia	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	△	▲	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Iran, Islamic Rep. of	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Iraq	…	…	…	▲	…	…	…	…	…	None
Israel	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Japan	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Jordan	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	△	●	●	●	●	●	None	●
Kazakhstan	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Korea, Dem. People's Rep. of	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	None
Korea, Republic of	5	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	△	▲	●	●	●	●	None	●
Kuwait	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	.	▲	●	●	●	●	None	None
Kyrgyzstan	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	None
Lebanon	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	△	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Macau, China	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Malaysia	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	△	▲	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Maldives	…	…	△	…	●	…	●	●	…	None
Mongolia	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●

Country	Number of policy areas covered by at least one programme		Existence of programme(s) anchored in national legislation							
	Number of policy areas (branches) covered by at least one programme	Number of social security policy areas covered by at least one programme	Sickness (cash)	Maternity (cash) [1]	Old age [2]	Employment injury [3]	Invalidity	Survivors	Family allowances	Unemployment [4]
Myanmar[5]	3	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	●	●	▲	●	▲	▲	Not yet	Not yet
Nepal	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	▲	▲	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Occupied Palestinian Territory	…	…	…	●	…	…	…	…	…	None
Oman	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	None	▲	●	●	●	●	None	None
Pakistan	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Philippines	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Qatar	…	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	…	▲	●	…	●	●	None	None
Saudi Arabia	5	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	▲	▲	●	●	●	●	None	○
Singapore	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Sri Lanka	5	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	△	▲	●	●	●	●	●	▲
Syrian Arab Republic	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	None	▲	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Taiwan, China	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	●
Tajikistan	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	…	●	●	…	●
Thailand	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Timor-Leste	…	…	…	▲	●	…	…	…	None	None
Turkmenistan	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
United Arab Emirates	…	…	…	▲	…	…	…	…	…	▲

Country	Number of policy areas covered by at least one programme		Existence of programme(s) anchored in national legislation							
	Number of policy areas (branches) covered by at least one programme	Number of social security policy areas covered by at least one programme	Sickness (cash)	Maternity (cash) [1]	Old age [2]	Employment injury [3]	Invalidity	Survivors	Family allowances	Unemployment [4]
Uzbekistan	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Viet Nam	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	●
Yemen	5	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	▲	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Europe										
Albania	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Andorra	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Austria	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Belarus	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Belgium	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Bosnia and Herzegovina	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Bulgaria	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Croatia	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Cyprus	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Czech Republic	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Denmark	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Estonia	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Finland	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
France	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●

Country	Number of policy areas covered by at least one programme		Existence of programme(s) anchored in national legislation							
	Number of policy areas (branches) covered by at least one programme	Number of social security policy areas covered by at least one programme	Sickness (cash)	Maternity (cash) [1]	Old age [2]	Employment injury [3]	Invalidity	Survivors	Family allowances	Unemployment [4]
Germany	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Greece	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Guernsey	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Hungary	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Iceland	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Ireland	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Isle of Man	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Italy	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Jersey	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Kosovo	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Latvia	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Liechtenstein	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Lithuania	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Luxembourg	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Malta	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Moldova, Republic of	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Monaco	…	…	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Montenegro	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●

Country	Number of policy areas covered by at least one programme		Existence of programme(s) anchored in national legislation							
	Number of policy areas (branches) covered by at least one programme	Number of social security policy areas covered by at least one programme	Sickness (cash)	Maternity (cash) [1]	Old age [2]	Employment injury [3]	Invalidity	Survivors	Family allowances	Unemployment [4]
Netherlands	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Norway	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Poland	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Portugal	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Romania	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Russian Federation	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
San Marino	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Serbia	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Slovakia	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Slovenia	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Spain	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Sweden	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Switzerland	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Turkey	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	●
Ukraine	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
United Kingdom	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●

Country	Number of policy areas covered by at least one programme		Existence of programme(s) anchored in national legislation							
	Number of policy areas (branches) covered by at least one programme	Number of social security policy areas covered by at least one programme	Sickness (cash)	Maternity (cash) [1]	Old age [2]	Employment injury [3]	Invalidity	Survivors	Family allowances	Unemployment [4]
Latin America and the Caribbean										
Antigua and Barbuda	5	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	None	●	●	None	None
Argentina	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Bahamas	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	None
Barbados	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	●
Belize	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	None
Bermuda	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	▲	▲	●	●	●	●	None	None
Bolivia, Plurinational State of	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	▲
Brazil	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
British Virgin Islands	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Chile	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Colombia	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Costa Rica	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	▲
Cuba	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None [6]	None
Dominica	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None [7]	None
Dominican Republic	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Ecuador	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	None [8]	●

Country	Number of policy areas covered by at least one programme		Existence of programme(s) anchored in national legislation							
	Number of policy areas (branches) covered by at least one programme	Number of social security policy areas covered by at least one programme	Sickness (cash)	Maternity (cash) [1]	Old age [2]	Employment injury [3]	Invalidity	Survivors	Family allowances	Unemployment [4]
El Salvador	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	None
Grenada	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	None
Guadeloupe	…	…	●	●	●	●	●	●	…	…
Guatemala	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	None
Guyana	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	None
French Guiana	…	…	…	…	●	●	●	●	…	…
Haiti	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	None	▲	●	●	●	●	None	None
Honduras	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	None
Jamaica	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Martinique	…	…	…	●	●	●	●	●	●	…
Mexico	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	▲
Netherlands Antilles	…	…	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	…
Nicaragua	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Panama	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Paraguay	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	▲	None
Peru	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Puerto Rico	…	…	●	●	…	●	●	●	…	…
Saint Kitts and Nevis	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	None

Country	Number of policy areas covered by at least one programme		Existence of programme(s) anchored in national legislation							
	Number of policy areas (branches) covered by at least one programme	Number of social security policy areas covered by at least one programme	Sickness (cash)	Maternity (cash) [1]	Old age [2]	Employment injury [3]	Invalidity	Survivors	Family allowances	Unemployment [4]
Saint Lucia	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	None
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	6	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	None
Suriname	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	None
Trinidad and Tobago	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Uruguay	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Venezuela, Bolivarian Rep. of	7	Semi-comprehensive scope | 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	●
North America										
Canada	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
United States	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Oceania										
Australia	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Fiji	5	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	None	▲	●	●	●	●	●	None
Kiribati	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	None	▲	●	●	●	●	None	None
Marshall Islands	3	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	△	△	●	None	●	●	None	None
Micronesia, Fed. States	3	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	None	None	●	None	●	●	None	None
Nauru	…	…	...	....	...	....	...	...	...	None
New Zealand	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage | 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●

Country	Number of policy areas covered by at least one programme		Existence of programme(s) anchored in national legislation							
	Number of policy areas (branches) covered by at least one programme	Number of social security policy areas covered by at least one programme	Sickness (cash)	Maternity (cash) [1]	Old age [2]	Employment injury [3]	Invalidity	Survivors	Family allowances	Unemployment [4]
Niue	…	…	...	....	...	....	...	...	...	None
Palau Islands	3	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	None	None	●	None	●	●	None	None
Papua New Guinea	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	▲	None	●	●	●	●	None	None
Samoa	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	...	....	●	●	●	●	None	None
Solomon Islands	4	Limited scope of legal coverage | 5 to 6	None	None	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Tonga	…	No information	…	…	●	●	●	●	…	None
Tuvalu	…	No information	…	…	●	●	●	●	…	▲
Vanuatu	3	Very limited scope of legal coverage | 1 to 4	▲	▲	●	None	●	●	None	▲

Sources: Main source: SSA (Social Security Administration of the United States); ISSA (International Social Security Association). Social security programs throughout the world (Washington, DC and Geneva): The Americas, 2013; Europe, 2012; Asia and the Pacific, 2012; Africa, 2013. Available at: http://www.ssa.gov/policy/docs/progdesc/ssptw/ [7 June 2014].
Other sources:
Council of Europe: Mutual Information System on Social Protection of the Council of Europe (MISSCEO) (Strasbourg). Available at: http://www.coe.int/t/dg3/socialpolicies/socialsecurity/missceo/missceo_EN.asp [6 Jun. 2014].
European Commission: Mutual Information System on Social Protection (MISSOC). Available at: http://www.missoc.org/MISSOC/MISSOCII/MISSOCII/index.htm [6 Jun. 2014].
ILO (International Labour Office). ILO International labour standards and national legislation database (NORMLEX) (incorporates the former ILOLEX and NATLEX databases). Available at: http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/ [6 Jun. 2014].
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National legislation.

Notes

…: Not available.

Sources: Main source: SSA (Social Security Administration of the United States); ISSA (International Social Security Association). Social security programs throughout the world (Washington, DC and Geneva): The Americas, 2013; Europe, 2012; Asia and the Pacific, 2012; Africa, 2013. Available at: http://www.ssa.gov/policy/docs/progdesc/ssptw/ [7 June 2014].
Other sources: Council of Europe: Mutual Information System on Social Protection of the Council of Europe (MISSCEO) (Strasbourg). Available at: http://www.coe.int/t/dg3/socialpolicies/socialsecurity/missceo/missceo_EN.asp [6 Jun. 2014].

European Commission: Mutual Information System on Social Protection (MISSOC). Available at: http://www.missoc.org/MISSOC/MISSOCII/MISSOCII/index.htm [6 Jun. 2014].
ILO (International Labour Office). ILO International labour standards and national legislation database (NORMLEX) (incorporates the former ILOLEX and NATLEX databases). Available at: http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/ [6 Jun. 2014].
—. 2010. Profile of social security system in Kosovo (Budapest, ILO DWT and Country Office for Central and Eastern Europe).
National legislation.

Notes

…: Not available.

Symbols

- ● At least one programme anchored in national legislation
- ○ Legislation not yet implemented.
- ▲ Limited provision (e.g. labour code only).
- △ Only benefit in kind (e.g. medical benefit).

1 Additional details in table B.5 Maternity: Key features of main social security programmes (cash benefits) (http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/RessourceDownload.action?ressource.ressourceId=37580).

2 Additional details in table B.6. Old age pensions: Key features of main social security programmes (http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/RessourceDownload.action?ressource.ressourceId=37137).

3 Additional details in table B.4. Employment injury: Key features of main social security programmes (cash benefits) (http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/RessourceDownload.action?ressource.ressourceId=41917)

4 Additional details in table B.3. Unemployment: indicators of effective coverage (http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/RessourceDownload.action?ressource.ressourceId=37697)

5 Myanmar enacted its social security law in 2012. The laws includes provisions for most social security branches including old age, survivors, disability, family benefits and unemployment insurance benefit (section 37), but the country is at the stage of drafting the regulations and provisions are not yet being implemented.

6 Cuba. Family/child benefits: Dependants of young workers conscripted into military service are eligible for assistance from social security. Cash benefits are available for families whose head of household is unemployed due to health, disability or other justifiable causes, and has insufficient income for food and medicine or basic household needs.

7 Dominica. Family/child benefits: Benefits are paid to unemployed single mothers with unmarried children younger than age 18 (age 21 if a full-time student, no limit if disabled) who lack sufficient resources to meet basic needs. (Social assistance benefits are provided under the Old Age, Disability, and Survivors programme).

8 Ecuador. Family/child benefits: No statutory benefits are provided. Mothers assessed as needy with at least one child (younger than age 18) and low-income families receive a monthly allowance under the Bono de Desarrollo Humano programme

Definitions

The scope of coverage is measured by the number of social security policy areas provided for by law. This indicator can take the value 0 to 8 according to the total number of social security policy areas (or branches) with a programme anchored in national legislation.

The eight following branches are taken into consideration: sickness, maternity, old age, survivors, invalidity, child/family allowances, employment injury and unemployment.

The number of branches covered by at least one programme provides an overview of the scope of legal social security provision.

B.7 Public social protection expenditure by guarantee, latest available year (percentage of GDP)

Major area, region or country	Public social protection expenditure (total)		Public health care expenditure (% of GDP)			Public social protection expenditure for older persons (% of GDP)			Public social protection expenditure for persons of active age (% of GDP): Social benefits for persons of active age (excluding general social assistance)			Unemployment			Labour market programme			Sickness, maternity, employment injury, disability			General social assistance (% of GDP)			Public social protection expenditure for children (% of GDP)		
	Latest available year (a)	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year
Regional averages (weighted by total population)																										
Africa	4.3		2.6			1.3			0.4			…			…			…			0.2			0.2		
North Africa	10.0		3.2			5.0			1.1			…			…			…			0.3			0.4		
Sub-saharan Africa	4.3		2.6			1.1			0.3			…			…			…			0.2			0.1		
Asia and the Pacific	4.6		1.5			2.0			0.4			…			…			…			0.4			0.2		
Western Europe	27.1		7.9			11.1			5.0			…			…			…			0.9			2.2		
Central and Eastern Europe	17.8		4.4			8.3			3.0			…			…			…			1.3			0.8		
Latin America and the Caribbean	13.9		4.0			4.6			2.0			…			…			…			2.6			0.7		
North America	17.0		8.5			6.6			2.8			…			…			…			1.1			0.7		
Middle East	11.0		2.0			3.3			1.5			…			…			…			3.4			0.8		
Africa																										
Algeria	9.73	2009	3.62	4	2009	5.14	2	2009	0.32	2	2009	0.02	2	2009	…		…	0.30	2	2009	0.20	2	2009	0.44	2	2009
Angola	6.79	2011	2.15	4	2011	2.50	2	2011	1.64	2	2011	…		…	…		…	1.64	2	2011	0.50	2	2010	0.00	2	2010
Benin	4.20	2010	2.22	4	2010	1.40	1	2010	0.10	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.10	1	2010	0.10	1	2010	0.38	1	2010
Botswana	7.15	2009	3.99	4	2009	1.31	5	2009	1.26	1	2009	n.a.	13	2009	…		…	1.26	1	2009	…		…	0.59	1	2009
Burkina Faso	5.58	2009	3.60	4	2009	0.90	1	2009	0.19	1	2009	n.a.	13	2009	…		…	0.17	1	2009	0.71	1	2009	0.18	1	2009
Burundi	5.32	2010	3.27	4	2010	0.70	1	2010	0.16	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.16	1	2010	1.05	1	2010	0.14	1	2010
Cameroon	2.20	2009	1.27	4	2009	0.50	1	2009	0.37	1	2009	n.a.	13	2009	…		…	0.37	1	2009	…		…	0.05	1	2009

Major area, region or country	Public social protection expenditure (total)		Public health care expenditure (% of GDP)			Public social protection expenditure for older persons (% of GDP)			Public social protection expenditure for persons of active age (% of GDP)															Public social protection expenditure for children (% of GDP)		
									Social benefits for persons of active age (excluding general social assistance)			Unemployment			Labour market programme			Sickness, maternity, employment injury, disability			General social assistance (% of GDP)					
	Latest available year (a)	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year
Cabo Verde	7.16	2009	2.48	10	2009	2.50	5	2010	1.94	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	1.94	1	2010	…		…	0.24	2	2010
Central African Republic	1.36	2010	0.66	10	2010	0.56	1	2010	0.09	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.09	1	2010	…		…	0.05	1	2010
Chad	1.31	2010	1.01	4	2010	0.21	1	2010	0.06	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.06	1	2010	…		…	0.03	1	2010
Congo	2.79	2010	1.39	4	2010	1.00	1	2010	0.25	1	2010	0.00	1	2010	…		…	0.25	1	2010	0.05	1	2010	0.10	1	2010
Congo, Democratic Republic of	2.25	2005	1.77	4	2005	0.40	5	2005	0.07	1	2005	n.a.	13	2005	…		…	0.07	1	2005	…		…	0.05	1	2005
Côte d'Ivoire	1.95	2011	0.87	10	2011	0.60	6	2010	0.22	6	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.22	1	2010	…		…	0.26	6	2010
Djibouti	7.29	2007	5.34	4	2007	1.50	5	2007	…		…	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
Egypt	12.57	2010	1.44	10	2010	3.00	5	2010	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
Equatorial Guinea	3.90	2009	3.41	4	2009	0.30	1	2010	0.17	1	2010	n.a.	13	2009	…		…	0.17	1	2009	…		…	0.02	1	2010
Eritrea	1.64	2011	1.25	4	2011	0.30	5	2001	…		…	n.a.	13	2001	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
Gambia	2.96	2005	2.46	4	2005	0.10	5	2003	0.20	1	2003	n.a.	13	2003	…		…	0.20	1	2003	0.20	1	2003	0.00	1	2003
Ghana	5.01	2009	2.81	4	2009	1.30	5	2010	0.65	1	2010	n.a.	13	2009	…		…	0.65	1	2009	…		…	0.25	2	2011
Guinea-Bissau	5.44	2010	2.31	4	2010	2.30	1	2010	0.65	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.65	1	2010	0.10	1	2010	0.08	1	2010
Kenya	2.84	2011	1.53	10	2010	1.14	1	2010	0.05	2	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.05	2	2010	0.10	2	2010	0.02	2	2010
Lesotho	6.13	2009	5.98	10	2008	1.77	7	2008	…		…	n.a.	13	2008	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
Liberia	11.47	2005	1.60	4	2005	0.14	5	2010	…		…	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
Libya	6.55	2010	2.11	4	2010	2.00	1	2010	…		…	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
Mali	4.88	2010	2.82	4	2010	1.59	5	2010	0.25	1	2009	n.a.	13	2009	…		…	0.25	1	2009	0.10	2	2010	0.13	2	2010
Mauritania	4.47	2009	3.37	4	2009	0.60	5	2007	…		…	n.a.	13	2009	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
Mauritius	9.12	2011	2.39	10	2011	5.02	1	2011	0.88	1	2011	0.01	1	2011	…		…	0.87	1	2011	0.50	2	2011	0.33	1	2011
Morocco	6.57	2010	2.07	4	2010	2.90	5	2011	1.50	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	1.50	1	2010	0.05	1	2010	0.06	1	2010
Mozambique	5.32	2010	3.29	6	2010	1.84	5	2010	0.12	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.12	1	2010	0.06	1	2010	…		…
Namibia	7.40	2011	2.80	4	2011	3.20	1	2011	0.30	1	2011	n.a.	13	2011	…		…	0.30	1	2011	0.80	1	2011	0.30	1	2011

Major area, region or country	Public social protection expenditure (total)		Public health care expenditure (% of GDP)			Public social protection expenditure for older persons (% of GDP)			Public social protection expenditure for persons of active age (% of GDP)															Public social protection expenditure for children (% of GDP)		
									Social benefits for persons of active age (excluding general social assistance)			Unemployment			Labour market programme			Sickness, maternity, employment injury, disability			General social assistance (% of GDP)					
	Latest available year (a)	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year
Niger	3.29	2009	2.69	4	2009	0.70	5	2006	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
Nigeria	3.70	2009	2.30	12	2009	0.91	5	2004	0.29	1	2009	n.a.	13	2004	…		…	0.29	1	2004	0.20	1	2009	0.00	13	2004
Rwanda	6.87	2009	5.37	4	2009	0.75	1	2009	0.50	1	2009	n.a.	13	2009	…		…	…		…	0.10	1	2009	0.15	1	2009
Senegal	5.34	2010	3.28	4	2010	1.78	5	2010	0.15	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.15	1	2010	0.05	1	2010	0.08	1	2010
Seychelles	7.52	2011	3.14	10	2011	3.00	2	2010	1.39	2	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	1.00	2	2010	…		…	0.00	13	2010
Sierra Leone	2.07	2006	1.46	4	2009	0.47	5	2009	0.14	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.14	1	2010	…		…	…		…
South Africa	9.79	2010	4.74	10	2010	2.18	5	2010	1.63	1	2010	0.17	1	2010	…		…	1.45	1	2010	…		…	1.24	1	2010
Swaziland	7.32	2010	5.54	4	2010	0.60	7	2010	1.18	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	1.18	1	2010	0.00	1	2010	0.00	13	2010
Tanzania, United Republic of	6.81	2010	4.48	1	2010	1.89	1	2010	0.03	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.03	1	2010	0.40	1	2010	0.00	1	2010
Togo	5.49	2009	3.28	4	2009	2.00	1	2009	0.01	1	2009	n.a.	13	2009	…		…	0.01	2	2009	0.00	2	2009	0.20	2	2009
Tunisia	10.40	2011	1.50	10	2011	4.70	1	2010	3.36	1	2010	…		2010	…		…	2.35	1	2010	0.70	1	2010	0.15	1	2010
Uganda	3.46	2011	2.30	10	2011	0.40	5	2011	0.38	1	2010	n.a.	13	2011	…		…	0.38	1	2011	0.30	1	2011	0.08	1	2011
Zambia	5.46	2011	3.66	4	2011	1.40	5	2008	0.35	1	2008	n.a.	13	2008	…		…	0.35	1	2008	0.05	1	2011	0.00	1	2008
Zimbabwe	5.60	2011	4.30	2	2011	0.95	1	2010	0.05	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.05	2	2010	0.08	2	2011	0.22	2	2010
Asia																										
Afghanistan	3.70	2010	2.50	10	2010	0.50	5	2010	0.18	3	2010	n.a.	3	2010	0.13	3	2010	0.05	3	2010	0.31	3	2010	0.20	3	2010
Armenia	8.46	2011	1.68	3	2011	3.64	3	2011	1.00	3	2011	0.50	3	2011	0.09	3	2011	0.42	3	2011	0.02	3	2011	2.12	3	2011
Azerbaijan	7.88	2010	1.04	10	2010	4.20	3	2010	0.58	3	2010	0.08	3	2010	0.05	3	2010	0.45	3	2010	1.53	3	2010	0.54	3	2010
Bahrain	4.01	2010	2.40	10	2010	1.00	1	2010	0.51	1	2010	0.01	1	2010	0.00	1	2010	0.50	1	2010	0.11	1	2010	0.00	13	2010
Bangladesh	2.69	2011	1.11	3	2011	0.71	3	2011	0.46	3	2011	n.a.	13	2011	0.45	3	2011	0.02	3	2011	0.32	3	2011	0.09	3	2010
Bhutan	4.77	2010	2.97	3	2010	0.68	3	2010	0.03	3	2011	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.03	3	2010	0.00	3	2010	1.09	3	2010
Brunei Darussalam	2.95	2009	2.04	14	2009	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
Cambodia	1.79	2011	1.26	3	2011	0.15	3	2011	0.10	3	2011	n.a.	13	2011	0.10	3	2011	0.00	3	2011	0.18	3	2011	0.10	3	2011
China	6.83	2010	1.27	10	2010	2.89	3	2009	1.90	3	2009	0.14	1	2009	0.20	3	2009	1.55	3	2009	0.54	3	2009	0.22	3	2009

Major area, region or country	Public social protection expenditure (total)		Public health care expenditure (% of GDP)			Public social protection expenditure for older persons (% of GDP)			Public social protection expenditure for persons of active age (% of GDP)															Public social protection expenditure for children (% of GDP)		
									Social benefits for persons of active age (excluding general social assistance)			Unemployment			Labour market programme			Sickness, maternity, employment injury, disability			General social assistance (% of GDP)					
	Latest available year (a)	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year
Georgia	8.01	2011	1.64	10	2011	3.90	3	2011	0.77	3	2011	n.a.	13	2011	0.00	3	2011	0.77	3	2011	1.40	3	2011	0.31	3	2011
Hong Kong (China), Special Administrative Region	4.58	2011	2.34	3	2011	1.60	5	2011	0.60	1	2011	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.60	1	2010	0.03	1	2010	0.07	1	2010
India	2.56	2010	1.06	4	2010	0.75	3	2010	0.60	3	2010	…	3	2009	0.50	3	2010	0.10	3	2010	0.10	3	2010	0.06	3	2010
Indonesia	2.63	2010	1.03	4	2010	0.45	3	2010	0.09	3	2010	n.a.	13	2010	0.07	3	2010	0.03	3	2010	0.38	3	2010	0.68	3	2010
Iran, Islamic Republic of	13.41	2009	1.97	10	2009	3.60	1	2009	1.80	1	2009	0.30	1	2009	…		…	1.50	1	2009	5.04	1	2010	1.00	1	2010
Iraq	12.14	2009	7.07	4	2009	3.90	3	2009	…		…	n.a.	13	2009	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
Israel	16.02	2011	4.33	8	2011	5.27	8	2011	3.81	8	2011	0.32	8	2011	0.14	8	2011	3.35	8	2011	0.71	8	2011	1.90	8	2011
Japan	22.40	2009	7.15	8	2009	11.83	8	2009	2.26	8	2009	0.71	8	2009	0.43	8	2009	1.13	8	2009	0.37	8	2009	0.79	8	2009
Jordan	12.11	2011	3.31	10	2011	7.51	1	2010	0.67	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	0.01	1	2010	0.66	1	2010	0.60	1	2010	0.02	1	2010
Kazakhstan	6.38	2011	2.27	10	2011	2.70	5	2011	1.00	1	2011	…		…	…		…	…		…	0.21	1	2011	0.20	1	2011
Korea, Republic of	9.19	2010	4.12	8	2010	2.36	8	2010	1.24	8	2010	0.31	8	2010	0.38	8	2010	0.54	8	2010	0.68	8	2010	0.78	8	2010
Kuwait	11.44	2011	2.23	10	2011	3.50	1	2011	…		…	n.a.	13	2011	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
Kyrgyzstan	8.30	2011	3.31	3	2011	1.54	3	2010	3.11	3	2010	0.01	3	2010	0.01	3	2010	3.08	3	2010	0.02	3	2010	0.33	3	2010
Lao People's Democratic Republic	1.74	2005	1.22	4	2010	0.10	3	2010	0.06	3	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.06	3	2010	0.34	3	2010	0.02	3	2010
Malaysia	2.99	2012	1.99	3	2012	0.89	3	2012	0.07	3	2012	n.a.	13	2012	0.00	3	2012	0.07	3	2012	0.03	3	2012	0.02	3	2012
Maldives	5.74	2010	3.63	10	2010	1.66	3	2010	0.23	3	2010	n.a.	13	2010	0.01	3	2010	0.22	3	2010	0.21	3	2010	0.02	3	2010
Mongolia	18.61	2011	2.97	3	2011	7.82	3	2011	1.97	3	2011	0.18	3	2011	0.38	3	2011	1.41	3	2011	5.53	3	2011	0.33	3	2011
Myanmar	0.96	2004	0.26	10	2011	0.60	5	2011	0.06	1	2011	n.a.	13	2011	…		…	0.06	1	2011	0.04	1	2011	0.00	2	2011
Nepal	2.33	2011	1.61	10	2011	0.54	3	2011	0.07	3	2011	n.a.	13	2011	0.01	3	2011	0.06	3	2011	0.02	3	2011	0.09	3	2011

Major area, region or country	Public social protection expenditure (total)		Public health care expenditure (% of GDP)			Public social protection expenditure for older persons (% of GDP)			Public social protection expenditure for persons of active age (% of GDP)															Public social protection expenditure for children (% of GDP)		
									Social benefits for persons of active age (excluding general social assistance)			Unemployment			Labour market programme			Sickness, maternity, employment injury, disability			General social assistance (% of GDP)					
	Latest available year (a)	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year
Pakistan	1.68	2010	0.38	2	2010	1.01	3	2010	0.03	3	2010	n.a.	13	2010	0.03	3	2010	0.00	3	2010	0.25	3	2010	0.01	3	2010
Philippines	1.55	2012	0.56	3	2012	0.58	3	2012	0.27	3	2012	n.a.	13	2012	0.02	3	2012	0.25	3	2012	0.01	3	2012	0.14	3	2012
Singapore	2.83	2011	1.20	10	2011	0.70	1	2011	0.91	1	2011	n.a.	13	2011	0.02	1	2011	0.89	1	2011	0.01	1	2011	0.01	1	2011
Sri Lanka	3.14	2011	1.26	10	2011	1.68	3	2011	0.04	3	2011	n.a.	13	2011	0.02	3	2011	0.01	3	2011	0.02	3	2011	0.15	3	2011
Syrian Arab Republic	1.99	2009	1.63	4	2009	1.30	5	2004	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
Taiwan	10.54	2009	3.75	2	2009	4.74	2	2009	1.09	2	2009	0.29	1	2009	0.19	2	2009	0.61	2	2009	0.53	2	2009	0.43	2	2009
Tajikistan	5.31	2011	1.80	3	2011	0.85	3	2011	1.88	3	2010	0.02	3	2010	0.02	3	2010	1.83	3	2010	0.35	3	2011	0.43	3	2011
Thailand	7.24	2011	2.27	10	2011	4.20	3	2011	0.31	3	2011	0.11	3	2011	0.00	3	2011	0.20	3	2011	0.01	3	2011	0.45	3	2011
Timor-Leste	4.24	2010	0.83	3	2010	1.40	3	2010	0.10	3	2010	n.a.	13	2010	0.10	3	2010	0.00	3	2010	1.22	3	2010	0.69	3	2010
Uzbekistan	11.16	2010	2.73	4	2010	5.75	3	2010	0.69	3	2010	…	3	2010	0.00	3	2010	0.69	3	2010	0.10	3	2010	1.88	3	2010
Viet Nam	6.28	2010	2.54	4	2010	3.13	3	2010	0.51	3	2010	0.02	3	2010	0.16	3	2010	0.33	3	2010	0.09	3	2010	0.02	3	2010
Yemen	1.86	2010	1.13	10	2010	0.50	2	2010	0.17	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.17	2	2010	0.05	2	2010	0.01	2	2010
Europe																										
Albania	10.83	2011	2.68	10	2011	5.20	5	2011	2.67	2	2010	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	0.28	2	2010
Austria	29.10	2009	7.32	8	2009	14.00	8	2009	4.58	8	2009	1.10	8	2009	0.85	8	2009	2.63	8	2009	0.44	8	2009	2.76	8	2009
Belarus	16.35	2011	4.55	10	2010	10.00	5	2009	1.06	1	2010	…		…	…		…	1.06	1	2010	0.34	2	2010	0.40	2	2010
Belgium	29.70	2009	8.11	8	2009	10.20	8	2009	7.76	8	2009	3.68	8	2009	1.40	8	2009	2.68	8	2009	1.02	8	2009	2.62	8	2009
Bosnia and Herzegovina	17.45	2011	6.95	4	2011	9.40	5	2009	0.80	1	2010	0.10	1	2010	…		…	0.70	1	2010	0.10	1	2010	0.20	5	2010
Bulgaria	17.20	2011	4.31	9	2011	8.31	9	2010	2.73	9	2010	0.49	9	2010	…		…	2.24	9	2010	0.40	9	2010	1.45	9	2010
Croatia	21.16	2011	6.38	10	2010	10.60	5	2010	3.09	2	2010	0.40	2	2010	…		…	2.69	2	2010	0.14	1	2010	0.96	2	2010

Major area, region or country	Public social protection expenditure (total)		Public health care expenditure (% of GDP)			Public social protection expenditure for older persons (% of GDP)			Public social protection expenditure for persons of active age (% of GDP)															Public social protection expenditure for children (% of GDP)		
									Social benefits for persons of active age (excluding general social assistance)			Unemployment			Labour market programme			Sickness, maternity, employment injury, disability			General social assistance (% of GDP)					
	Latest available year (a)	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year
Cyprus	21.31	2010	3.27	9	2010	9.91	9	2010	3.98	9	2010	1.04	9	2010	…		…	2.95	9	2010	2.75	9	2010	2.20	9	2010
Czech Republic	20.71	2009	6.71	8	2009	8.55	8	2009	4.40	8	2009	1.02	8	2009	0.22	8	2009	3.17	8	2009	0.20	8	2009	0.85	8	2009
Denmark	30.19	2009	7.68	8	2009	8.17	8	2009	9.44	8	2009	2.30	8	2009	1.61	8	2009	5.53	8	2009	1.61	8	2009	3.29	8	2009
Estonia	20.04	2009	5.18	8	2009	8.07	8	2009	5.58	8	2009	1.09	8	2009	0.24	8	2009	4.25	8	2009	0.15	8	2009	1.06	8	2009
Finland	29.44	2009	6.79	8	2009	11.13	8	2009	7.77	8	2009	1.98	8	2009	0.92	8	2009	4.88	8	2009	1.21	8	2009	2.54	8	2009
France	32.07	2009	8.99	8	2009	14.11	8	2009	4.80	8	2009	1.53	8	2009	0.99	8	2009	2.29	8	2009	1.29	8	2009	2.89	8	2009
Germany	27.12	2010	8.52	8	2010	11.00	8	2010	4.97	8	2010	1.53	8	2010	0.94	8	2010	2.50	8	2010	0.81	8	2010	1.82	8	2010
Greece	23.88	2009	6.52	8	2009	13.16	8	2009	2.04	8	2009	0.72	8	2009	0.22	8	2009	1.11	8	2009	0.89	8	2009	1.27	8	2009
Hungary	23.93	2009	5.08	8	2009	10.45	8	2009	4.88	8	2009	0.88	8	2009	0.45	8	2009	3.54	8	2009	0.75	8	2009	2.76	8	2009
Iceland	18.47	2009	6.17	8	2009	2.22	8	2009	5.12	8	2009	1.68	8	2009	0.04	8	2009	3.40	8	2009	1.70	8	2009	3.27	8	2009
Ireland	23.72	2010	6.39	8	2010	5.84	8	2010	6.32	8	2010	2.60	8	2010	0.96	8	2010	2.75	8	2010	1.03	8	2010	4.15	8	2010
Italy	27.81	2009	7.42	8	2009	15.56	8	2009	3.38	8	2009	0.79	8	2009	0.44	8	2009	2.15	8	2009	0.07	8	2009	1.38	8	2009
Latvia	17.60	2010	2.95	9	2010	8.39	9	2010	4.49	9	2010	1.70	9	2010	…		…	2.79	9	2010	0.29	9	2010	1.48	9	2010
Lithuania	18.30	2010	4.29	9	2010	7.89	9	2010	3.66	9	2010	0.78	9	2010	…		…	2.88	9	2010	0.33	9	2010	2.13	9	2010
Luxembourg	23.57	2009	6.65	8	2009	7.67	8	2009	4.86	8	2009	1.17	8	2009	0.50	8	2009	3.19	8	2009	0.82	8	2009	3.58	8	2009
Malta	19.57	2008	4.28	9	2010	10.41	9	2010	3.08	9	2010	0.60	9	2010	…		…	2.49	9	2010	0.56	9	2010	1.24	9	2010
Moldova, Republic of	18.61	2011	5.17	10	2011	7.40	5	2012	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
Montenegro	20.05	2011	6.24	4	2011	11.0	5	2011	1.54	1	2011	…		…	0.25	5	2011	1.29	5	2011	1.12	5	2011	0.15	5	2011

Major area, region or country	Public social protection expenditure (total)		Public health care expenditure (% of GDP)			Public social protection expenditure for older persons (% of GDP)			Public social protection expenditure for persons of active age (% of GDP)															Public social protection expenditure for children (% of GDP)		
									Social benefits for persons of active age (excluding general social assistance)			Unemployment			Labour market programme			Sickness, maternity, employment injury, disability			General social assistance (% of GDP)					
	Latest available year (a)	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year
						0																				
Netherlands	23.18	2009	7.90	8	2009	6.07	8	2009	5.77	8	2009	1.45	8	2009	1.22	8	2009	3.11	8	2009	1.73	8	2009	1.71	8	2009
Norway	23.29	2009	6.17	8	2009	7.41	8	2009	6.26	8	2009	0.43	8	2009	0.47	8	2009	5.36	8	2009	0.89	8	2009	2.56	8	2009
Poland	21.52	2009	5.17	8	2009	11.84	8	2009	3.56	8	2009	0.28	8	2009	0.63	8	2009	2.65	8	2009	0.21	8	2009	0.75	8	2009
Portugal	25.55	2009	7.20	8	2009	12.47	8	2009	4.39	8	2009	1.21	8	2009	0.77	8	2009	2.41	8	2009	0.31	8	2009	1.19	8	2009
Romania	17.39	2010	4.19	9	2010	8.87	9	2010	2.48	9	2010	0.41	9	2010	…		…	2.07	9	2010	0.23	9	2010	1.63	9	2010
Russian Federation	15.97	2011	3.96	10	2011	6.80	5	2011	2.90	1	2010	0.18	1	2010	…		…	2.72	1	2010	1.77	1	2010	0.55	1	2010
Serbia	24.00	2010	6.51	10	2010	12.84	9	2010	3.25	9	2010	0.75	9	2010	…		…	2.50	9	2010	0.40	9	2010	1.00	9	2010
Slovakia	18.74	2009	6.01	8	2009	7.36	8	2009	3.49	8	2009	0.68	8	2009	0.23	8	2009	2.59	8	2009	0.40	8	2009	1.48	8	2009
Slovenia	22.58	2009	6.80	8	2009	10.96	8	2009	3.71	8	2009	0.48	8	2009	0.33	8	2009	2.90	8	2009	0.52	8	2009	0.59	8	2009
Spain	25.98	2009	7.04	8	2009	9.88	8	2009	7.40	8	2009	3.45	8	2009	0.86	8	2009	3.09	8	2009	0.47	8	2009	1.18	8	2009
Sweden	29.82	2009	7.30	8	2009	10.75	8	2009	7.60	8	2009	0.73	8	2009	1.12	8	2009	5.75	8	2009	1.18	8	2009	2.99	8	2009
Switzerland	18.37	2008	6.02	8	2008	6.56	8	2008	3.79	8	2008	0.53	8	2008	0.33	8	2008	2.94	8	2008	0.73	8	2008	1.27	8	2008
The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	18.08	2009	4.08	4	2010	8.00	5	2010	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
Turkey	13.11	2011	5.90	8	2011	6.98	8	2011	0.24	8	2011	0.06	8	2011	0.00	8	2011	0.17	8	2011	0.00	8	2011	0.00	8	2011
Ukraine	17.42	2011	3.82	10	2011	7.90	1	2011	2.41	1	2011	0.17	1	2011	…		…	2.25	1	2011	2.74	1	2011	0.54	1	2011
United Kingdom	24.05	2009	8.08	8	2009	6.76	8	2009	4.07	8	2009	0.46	8	2009	0.33	8	2009	3.28	8	2009	1.67	8	2009	3.47	8	2009
Latin America and the Caribbean																										
Antigua and	5.82	2009	2.95	4	2006	2.50	1	2006	0.27	1	2006	0.00	1	2006	0.00	0	0	0.27	1	2006	0.00	1	2006	0.10	1	2006

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									Social benefits for persons of active age (excluding general social assistance)			Unemployment			Labour market programme			Sickness, maternity, employment injury, disability			General social assistance (% of GDP)					
	Latest available year (a)	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year	Latest available year (a)	Note	Year
Barbuda																										
Argentina	21.10	2009	6.21	12	2009	6.79	2	2009	5.12	2	2009	0.05	2	2009	…		…	5.07	2	2009	2.03	12	2009	0.95	2	2009
Aruba	17.80	2009	9.60	2	2009	4.30	1	2009	1.09	1	2009	0.04	1	2009	…		…	1.05	1	2009	1.81	1	2009	1.00	1	2009
Bahamas	6.29	2011	3.50	2	2011	1.93	2	2011	0.86	2	2011	0.11	2	2011	…		…	0.75	2	2011	0.00	2	2011	0.00	1	2011
Barbados	9.85	2009	3.75	4	2009	4.08	1	2009	1.83	1	2009	0.61	1	2009	…		…	1.22	1	2009	0.18	1	2009	0.00	13	2009
Belize	5.85	2011	3.85	4	2010	0.23	1	2010	0.64	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.64	1	2009	1.13	1	2010	0.00	12	2010
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	10.41	2008	3.21	12	2008	2.70	2	2009	2.54	2	2009	n.a.	13	2009	…		…	2.54	2	2009	1.46	1	2008	0.50	1	2009
Brazil	21.29	2010	5.79	1	2010	7.76	1	2010	2.60	1	2010	0.67	1	2010	0.26	1	2010	1.66	1	2010	4.54	1	2010	0.60	1	2010
Chile	10.43	2011	3.63	8	2011	3.30	8	2011	1.28	8	2011	0.04	1	2011	0.25	8	2011	0.99	8	2011	1.30	8	2011	0.93	8	2011
Colombia	10.49	2010	1.91	12	2010	3.50	5	2010	3.94	1	2009	n.a.	13	2009	…		…	3.94	1	2009	0.75	12	2010	0.39	12	2009
Costa Rica	15.45	2010	6.57	12	2010	2.76	5	2009	3.42	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	3.42	1	2010	2.31	12	2010	0.39	12	2009
Cuba	22.80	2010	9.70	21	2010	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	2.67	1	2010	…		…
Dominica	7.99	2011	4.19	4	2010	3.15	1	2011	0.50	1	2011	n.a.	13	2011	…		…	0.50	1	2011	0.15	1	2011	0.00	1	2011
Dominican Republic	4.82	2010	1.75	12	2010	0.70	5	2010	1.97	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	1.97	1	2010	…		…	0.40	12	2010
Ecuador	4.37	2010	2.07	12	2010	1.80	5	2010	0.15	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.15	1	2010	0.00	12	2010	0.35	12	2009
El Salvador	7.77	2011	3.80	10	2011	1.70	5	2010	1.25	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	1.25	1	2010	0.75	12	2009	0.27	12	2010
Grenada	4.95	2009	3.05	4	2009	2.00	5	2006	…		…	n.a.	13	2006	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
Guatemala	4.60	2009	1.40	12	2009	1.20	5	2009	1.68	1	2009	n.a.	13	2009	…		…	1.68	1	2009	0.00	12	2009	0.32	12	2009
Guyana	9.72	2009	5.32	4	2009	0.07	5	2010	…		…	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
Haiti	3.27	2013	2.21	27	2013	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
Honduras	4.39	2010	3.45	12	2010	0.21	1	2010	0.20	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.20	1	2009	0.29	12	2010	0.24	12	2010
Jamaica	4.42	2011	2.82	10	2011	0.12	5	2009	0.39	1	2009	n.a.	13	2009	…		…	0.39	1	2009	0.77	1	2009	0.33	12	2011

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Mexico	7.72	2011	2.76	8	2011	1.88	8	2011	0.09	1	2011	n.a.	13	2011	0.03	8	2011	0.06	8	2011	1.92	8	2011	1.08	8	2011
Nicaragua	6.95	2009	4.06	12	2009	1.60	2	2009	0.50	2	2009	n.a.	13	2009	…		…	0.50	2	2009	0.68	1	2009	0.11	12	2009
Paraguay	6.35	2010	2.28	12	2010	1.63	5	2010	1.54	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	1.54	1	2010	0.70	1	2010	0.20	1	2010
Peru	6.85	2010	1.58	12	2010	2.47	5	2010	0.78	1	2010	n.a.	13	2010	…		…	0.78	1	2010	1.88	12	2010	0.14	12	2009
Saint Kitts and Nevis	5.61	2010	2.60	4	2010	1.30	1	2009	1.52	1	2009	n.a.	13	2009	…		…	1.52	1	2009	0.19	1	2009	0.00	1	2009
Saint Lucia	6.58	2009	4.68	4	2009	1.20	1	2009	0.50	1	2009	n.a.	13	2009	…		…	0.50	1	2009	0.10	1	2009	0.10	1	2009
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	6.52	2004	3.22	10	2006	1.50	5	2006	1.20	1	2006	n.a.	13	2009	…		…	1.20	1	2006	0.40	1	2006	0.20	1	2006
Trinidad and Tobago	7.02	2008	3.41	12	2008	2.80	1	2008	0.20	1	2008	n.a.	13	2008	…		…	0.20	1	2008	0.51	1	2008	0.10	1	2008
Uruguay	18.17	2009	4.85	12	2010	8.90	1	2010	0.84	1	2010	0.36	1	2010	…		…	0.48	1	2010	3.08	1	2010	0.50	1	2010
Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of	7.97	2006	1.80	12	2006	4.98	5	2010	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
North America																										
Canada	18.63	2010	7.97	8	2010	4.40	8	2010	2.30	8	2010	0.81	8	2010	0.30	8	2010	1.19	8	2010	3.18	8	2010	0.78	8	2010
United States	19.92	2010	8.57	8	2010	6.89	8	2010	2.85	8	2010	1.13	8	2010	0.13	8	2010	1.59	8	2010	0.91	8	2010	0.70	8	2010
Oceania																										
Australia	17.90	2010	6.21	8	2010	5.07	8	2010	3.49	8	2010	0.51	8	2010	0.31	8	2010	2.67	8	2010	0.58	8	2010	2.55	8	2010
Fiji	3.37	2010	1.87	3	2010	0.77	3	2010	0.01	3	2010	n.a.	13	2010	0.01	3	2010	0.00	3	2010	0.16	3	2010	0.57	3	2010
Kiribati	10.37	2010	8.72	14	2010	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…	…		…
Marshall Islands	24.01	2010	14.37	4	2010	7.11	3	2010	0.73	3	2010	n.a.	13	2010	0.11	3	2010	0.62	3	2010	0.00	3	2010	1.81	3	2010
Nauru	9.49	2010	8.33	4	2010	0.88	3	2010	0.28	3	2010	n.a.	13	2010	0.00	3	2010	0.28	3	2010	0.00	3	2010	0.00	3	2010

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New Zealand	21.20	2010	8.39	8	2010	4.74	8	2010	3.39	8	2010	0.46	1	2010	0.26	8	2010	2.67	8	2010	1.23	8	2010	3.46	8	2010
Palau	15.79	2010	8.79	4	2010	5.07	3	2010	0.25	3	2010	n.a.	13	2010	0.00	3	2010	0.24	3	2010	0.00	3	2010	1.69	3	2010
Papua New Guinea	4.39	2010	3.27	14	2012	0.10	3	2010	0.20	3	2010	n.a.	13	2010	0.00	3	2010	0.00	3	2010	0.72	3	2010	0.10	3	2010
Solomon Islands	8.25	2010	6.95	4	2010	1.25	3	2010	0.05	3	2010	0.03	1	2010	0.02	3	2010	0.00	3	2010	0.00	3	2010	0.00	3	2010
Tonga	8.11	2005	7.06	3	2005	0.90	3	2005	0.05	3	2005	n.a.	13	2005	0.04	3	2005	0.01	3	2005	0.07	3	2005	0.04	3	2005
Tuvalu	13.36	2005	8.68	4	2005	3.31	1	2005	1.37	2	2005	n.a.	13	2005	0.14	1	2005	1.23	1	2005	0.00	1	2005	0.00	1	2005
Vanuatu	5.43	2010	4.68	4	2010	0.22	3	2010	0.16	3	2010	n.a.	13	2010	0.00	3	2010	0.16	3	2010	0.02	3	2010	0.36	3	2010
Western Samoa	5.54	2011	4.34	3	2011	0.65	3	2011	0.12	3	2011	n.a.	13	2011	0.10	3	2011	0.02	3	2011	0.38	3	2011	0.06	3	2011

Notes

… Not available.

n.a. Not applicable.

a Differences in global estimates from table B.12 result from differences in reference years and in number of countries considered.

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